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Lanthanide compounds as catalysts for the one-step synthesis of vinyl chloride from ethylene

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1 **Abstract**

2 The industrial manufacture of vinyl chloride relies on a two-step process involving CuCl₂-catalyzed 3 ethylene oxychlorination to ethylene dichloride followed by thermal cracking of the latter to vinyl 4 chloride. This work evaluates a wide range of commercial and self-prepared lanthanide (La, Ce, Pr, 5 Nd, Sm, Eu, Gd, Tb, Dy, Ho, and Er) compounds for the one-step production of vinyl chloride from 6 ethylene in a fixed-bed reactor at 623-773 K and 1 bar using feed ratios of C_2H_4 :HCl:O₂:Ar:He = 3-6:1-9.6:1-7:3:80-92 and space times of 6-252 g h mol[−]¹ 7 (based on ethylene). *Ex situ* 8 characterization by X-ray diffraction, electron microscopy, and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy 9 reveal that the oxide forms of all compounds, except $CeO₂$, transform into their respective 10 (oxy)chloride. Among all studied systems, $CeO₂$ shows the highest activity but suffers from 11 combustion forming CO*x*, while europium oxychloride (EuOCl) leads to the best vinyl chloride 12 selectivity of 96% at 20% C_2H_4 conversion for over 100 h on stream. Temperature-programmed 13 reduction with H₂, temperature-programmed desorption of NH_3 , and oxidation tests (C₂H₄, CO, and 14 HCl oxidation) unravel the unique balance of mild redox and enhanced acid properties of EuOCl 15 compared to CeO₂, which suppress over-oxidation and boost ethylene dichloride 16 dehydrochlorination. Strategies to couple the excellent selectivity of EuOCl with the high activity of 17 $CeO₂$ are demonstrated through the synthesis of homogeneous europium-cerium mixed oxides, 18 combining two functions on a single surface. In addition, the engineering of a dual-bed reactor, 19 integrating a $CeO₂$ bed first to produce ethylene dichloride in high yield which is subsequently 20 transformed to vinyl chloride over EuOCl leads to vinyl chloride yields of up to 30% per pass. 21 These very promising findings constitute a crucial step for process intensification of polyvinyl 22 chloride production and exploring the potential of rare-earth compounds in industrially-relevant 23 reactions.

24

25 **Keywords**: ethylene oxychlorination, lanthanides, europium oxychloride, vinyl chloride monomer, 26 bifunctional catalyst, process intensification

1 **1. Introduction**

2 Polyvinyl chloride (PVC, 44 Mton, annual global growth rate of 3.2%) is an integral part of 3 modern society owing to its widespread applications that improve our everyday life [1,2]. Its 4 monomer, chloroethene (commonly known as vinyl chloride and hereafter denoted as VCM), 5 was first produced on a commercial scale in the 1920s through acetylene hydrochlorination 6 over mercuric chloride catalysts, which still is the main production method in countries such 7 as China, due to cheap availability of coal from which acetylene is produced $[3,4]$. However, 8 the increasing demand for PVC and rising price of acetylene in the late 1950s prompted a 9 shift in the feedstock to the more economical ethylene in the United States and Europe [3]. 10 Since then, VCM is predominantly produced *via* a two-step process involving the selective 11 oxychlorination of ethene (commonly known as ethylene) to 1,2-dichloroethane (commonly 12 known as ethylene dichloride and hereafter denoted as EDC) over promoted CuCl₂/*y*-Al₂O₃ 13 catalysts in fluidized-bed reactors (*T* = 473-573 K, *P =* 1-10 bar) and the subsequent thermal 14 cracking of EDC to VCM ($T = 773-873$ K, $P = 25-35$ bar) $\left[3,4,5\right]$. The greatest limitations of 15 the current process are the stability issues faced by the copper catalyst, and the limited per 16 pass conversion (50-60% with VCM selectivity > 98%) and high energy demand of the 17 thermal cracking [3]. Despite continued efforts to optimize the robustness of the catalyst by 18 doping with additives such as alkali (Li, Na, K), alkaline earth (Mg, Ca), and rare earth 19 metals (La, Ce), the copper chloride phase is still prone to volatilization and particle 20 agglomeration [6-10]. Besides, the possible intensification of VCM production by integration 21 of the oxychlorination and dehydrochlorination reactions as a one-step process requires a 22 novel catalyst which can combine two functions.

23 In order to achieve this goal, new materials such as non-halide copper containing 24 catalysts [11] and lanthanide (oxy)chlorides [12], particularly lanthanum oxychlorides, have 25 been reported in the patent literature. However, none of these systems is realized on an 26 industrial scale, most likely due to the low per pass VCM yields and/or stability hurdles faced 27 by these catalysts. Recently, we have uncovered the high stability and remarkable yield of

1 chlorinated compounds (25% VCM, 25% EDC) over CeO2. This outstanding performance 2 was attributed to the integration of both redox sites, which catalyze the ethylene 3 oxychlorination to EDC, and acid sites, responsible for the dehydrochlorination of EDC to 4 VCM, on the same catalyst surface.

 In spite of these encouraging results, $CeO₂$ offers significant margins for improvement. In 6 particular, a considerable amount of over-chlorinated compounds (1,2-dichloroethene, 7 commonly known as 1,2-dichloroethylene and hereafter denoted as 1,2-DCE) and 8 combustion products (CO_x) were also formed, decreasing the overall selectivity of EDC and 9 VCM. Moreover, only moderate dehydrochlorination activity was observed. Thus, it can be anticipated that materials exhibiting milder oxidative properties and higher density of strong cites than ceria could lead to enhanced performance. Surprisingly, despite their extensive 12 use as dopants of the CuCl₂/ γ -Al₂O₃ catalysts, lanthanide compounds were never systematically investigated as the main active phase for the conversion of ethylene to VCM. Besides, they were investigated in several other catalyst formulations mainly as dopants and supports [14-18], with the exception of cerium oxide and lanthanum oxide (or (oxy)chloride) which are also studied as the primary catalytic phase in oxidative processes, including CO oxidation [19,20], isobutane oxidation [21], HCl oxidation [22,23], methane oxidative coupling 18 [24], selective reduction of nitrogen oxides [19,25], and methane oxychlorination [26,27].

 Herein, the comparison of the performance of a broad set of the most abundant rare- earth compounds leads to the discovery of the exceptional performance of europium oxychloride, exhibiting 96% VCM selectivity at 20% conversion for over 100 h on stream. Structural, redox, and acidic properties are investigated to rationalize the superior performance of europium oxychloride with respect to other lanthanides and parametric studies give insight to the distribution of products. In order to attain superior VCM yields, this 25 novel active phase is combined with the high activity of $CeO₂$ by synthesis of mixed oxides and through dual-bed reactor concepts. This study comprises the first practically-relevant application of europium in heterogeneous catalysis and the materials presented here have

1 great potential to be explored in challenging catalyzed reactions, particularly towards the 2 functionalization of hydrocarbons.

3

4 **2. Experimental methods**

5 **2.1. Catalyst preparation**

6 Commercial La₂O₃ (Alfa Aesar, 99.99%), Pr₂O₃ (Alfa Aesar, 99.9%), Nd₂O₃ (Sigma-7 Aldrich, 99.9%), Sm₂O₃ (Sigma-Aldrich, 99.9%), Eu₂O₃ (Sigma-Aldrich, 99.5%), Gd₂O₃ (Alfa 8 Aesar, 99.99%), Tb₂O₃ (Strem Chemicals, 99.9%), Dy₂O₃ (ABCR, 99.99%), Ho₂O₃ (Fluka 9 Chemie, 99.9%), and $Er₂O₃$ (Fluka Chemie, 99.9%) were calcined at 773 K, and $CeO₂$ (Sigma-Aldrich, 99.9%) at 773 K and 1173 K in static air using a heating rate of 5 K min[−]¹ 10 11 and an isothermal step of 5 h prior to their use in catalytic studies. Analysis by X-ray 12 diffraction revealed that the commercial praseodymium oxide actually consisted of Pr_4O_7 and 13 thus it is denoted as such herein. Europium oxide (Eu₂O₃-p- T_{cal} _{cal}, where T_{cal} denotes the 14 calcination temperature in K), cerium oxide $(CeO₂-p-T_{cal})$, and mixed europium-cerium 15 oxides ($Eu_xCe_{1-x}O_{2-0.5x}$ -cp- T_{cal} , where x represents the molar fraction of Eu in the range of 16 0.3-0.9) were synthesized by precipitation (p, single oxides) and coprecipitation (cp, mixed 17 oxides) following a protocol reported elsewhere [13]. Briefly, the metal nitrates 18 $(Eu_2(NO_3)_3.6H_2O (ABCR, 99.9%)$ for Eu_2O_3P , $Ce(NO_3)_3.6H_2O (ABCR, 99.9%)$ for CeO_2P , or 19 mixtures for $Eu_xCe_{1-x}O_{2-0.5x}$ -cp) were dissolved in deionized water under stirring and H_2O_2 20 (Acros Organics, 35%) was added to the solution to obtain a molar H₂O₂:M ratio of 3 21 (*M* = Eu, Ce, or Eu+Ce). The coprecipitation was achieved by the dropwise addition of 22 aqueous NH4OH (Sigma-Aldrich, 30%) until a pH of 10.5 was reached. The slurry was 23 stirred for 4 h and washed with deionized water. Upon filtration, the precipitate was dried at 24 393 K for 12 h and calcined at 773 K for CeO₂-p, 773-1173 K for Eu₂O₃-p, and 773 K for 25 Eu_xCe_{1-x}O_{2-0.5x}-cp in flowing air using a heating rate of 5 K min⁻¹ and an isothermal step of 26 5 h.

27

2.2. Characterization

2 The metal content was determined by X-ray fluorescence (XRF) spectroscopy using an 3 Orbis PC Micro-EDXRF analyzer with a Rh source (15 kV, 500 µA) and a silicon drift 4 detector. Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) was measured using a PANalytical X'Pert PRO-5 MPD diffractometer and Cu-K α radiation (λ = 0.15418 nm). The data was recorded in the 6 10-70° 2θ range with an angular step size of 0.017° and a continuing time of 0.26 s per step. 7 N2 sorption at 77 K was measured in a Quantachrome Quadrasorb-SI analyzer. Prior to the 8 measurements, the samples were outgassed to 50 mbar at 573 K for 3 h. The Brunauer-9 Emmett-Teller (BET) method [28] was applied to calculate the total surface area, S_{BET}, in 10 m² g⁻¹. High-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) and elemental mapping using energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX) were conducted on a FEI Talos microscope operated at 200 kV. All samples were dispersed as dry powders onto lacey carbon coated nickel or molybdenum grids. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurements were performed on a Physical Electronics Quantum 2000 X-ray 15 photoelectron spectrometer using monochromatic $AI-K\alpha$ radiation generated from an electron beam operated at 15 kV, and equipped with a hemispherical capacitor electron- energy analyzer. The powdered sample was firmly pressed onto the foil. The area analyzed was 150 µm in diameter and the electron take-off angle was 45°. The pass energy used for the detailed spectra of the C 1*s*, O 1*s*, Cl 2*p*, Eu 3*d*, Eu 4*d*, and Ce 3*d* core levels was 46.95 eV to yield a total analyzer energy resolution of 0.95 eV. The spectrometer energy scale was calibrated for the Au 4*f* electrons to be at 84.0±0.1 eV. Partial compensation of surface charging during spectra acquisition was obtained by the simultaneous operation of electron and argon ion neutralizers. Elemental concentrations are given in atomic percent using the measured photoelectron peak areas after Shirley background subtraction and the built-in sensitivity factors for calculation. Temperature-programmed desorption of ammonia 26 ($NH₃-TPD$) and temperature-programmed reduction with hydrogen $(H₂-TPR)$ were performed using a Micromeritics Autochem II 2920 unit equipped with a thermal conductivity detector

1 coupled to a MKS Cirrus 2 mass spectrometer. The powder sample (0.1 g) was loaded into a 2 U-shaped quartz micro-reactor, pretreated in He (20 cm³ STP min⁻¹) at 573 K for 3 h, and 3 cooled to 373 K in He. For NH3-TPD experiments, ammonia was chemisorbed at 473 K in 4 three consecutive cycles of saturation with 5 vol.% NH₃/He (20 cm³ STP min⁻¹) for 30 min 5 followed by purging with He (20 cm³ STP min⁻¹) at the same temperature for 30 min. 6 Desorption of NH3 was monitored in the range of 473-1273 K using a heating rate of 20 K min⁻¹ and a He flow of 20 cm³ STP min⁻¹. For H₂-TPR experiments, the sample was 8 pretreated in He (20 cm³ STP min⁻¹) at 423 K for 1 h, and cooled to room temperature 9 followed by ramping the temperature at 10 K min⁻¹ up to 1273 K in 5 vol.% H₂ 10 $(20 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ STP min}^{-1}).$

11

12 **2.3. Catalytic tests**

 The gas-phase oxychlorination of ethylene was investigated at ambient pressure in a continuous-flow fixed-bed reactor (**Scheme 1**). The set-up consists of (*i*) mass flow 15 controllers to feed C_2H_4 (PanGas, 20.15% in He), HCI (Air Liquide, purity 2.8, anhydrous), O_2 (Messer, 10.06% in He), He (PanGas, purity 5.0) as a carrier gas, and Ar (PanGas, purity 5.0) as an internal standard, (*ii*) a syringe pump (Nexus 6000, Chemyx) to feed EDC (Fluka, 99.5%), (*iii*) a vaporizer operated at 403 K accommodating a quartz T-connector filled with glass beads to vaporize EDC, (*iv*) an electrically heated oven hosting a quartz micro-reactor equipped with a K-type thermocouple whose tip reaches the center of the catalyst bed, (*v*) downstream heat tracing to avoid any condensation of the reactants and products, and (*vi*) a gas chromatograph coupled to a mass spectrometer (GC-MS) for on-line analysis. The effluent stream was neutralized by passing it through an impinging bottle containing an 24 aqueous NaOH solution (1 M). The catalyst ($W_{\text{cat}} = 0.25$ -2 g, particle size, $d_{\text{p}} = 0.4$ -0.6 mm) was loaded in the micro-reactor (10 mm inner diameter) and pretreated in He at 473 K for 26 30 min. Thereafter, a total flow (*F*_T) of 100 cm³ STP min⁻¹ containing 3-6 vol.% C₂H₄, 1-27 9.6 vol.% HCl, 1-7 vol.% O_2 , and 3 vol.% Ar as internal standard, balanced in He was fed to

1 the reactor at a bed temperature (*T*) of 623-773 K and pressure (*P*) of 1 bar. Note that 2 relatively low feed concentrations were selected to prevent corrosion, enable safe handling, 3 and minimize the formation of hot spots in the catalyst bed due to the high reaction 4 exothermicity. Temperature measurements in a reference experiment on $CeO₂$ -1173 (at 5 31% C₂H₄ conversion), evidenced a temperature gradient of 0.9 K across the bed when the 6 temperature in the center of the catalyst bed was set to 673 K (**Scheme 1**). The standard 7 conditions of 3 vol.% C_2H_4 , 4.8 vol.% HCl, and 3 vol.% O_2 were chosen based on the 8 literature $[8,13]$. The space time, defined as the ratio of the catalyst mass and the inlet molar 9 flow of ethylene as the limiting reactant, $W_{cat}/\hat{n}^0(C_2H_4$ was varied in the range of 6-10 252 g h mol⁻¹. In the dehydrochlorination tests, 1.5 vol.% EDC was fed to the catalyst 11 ($W_{cat} = 0.5$ g, $d_p = 0.4$ -0.6 mm) using He as carrier gas ($F_T = 100$ cm³ STP min⁻¹) with or 12 without addition of HCl $(4.8 \text{ vol.%)}$ and O_2 $(3 \text{ vol.%)}$ at $T = 523-773 \text{ K}$ and 13 *W_{cat}/n*^o(EDC) = 126 g h mol⁻¹. Prior to the analysis of the reaction mixtures, the catalysts 14 were equilibrated for at least 1 h under each condition. The gas composition at the reactor 15 outlet containing reactants (C_2H_4, O_2, HCl) and products (EDC, VCM, 1,2-DCE, CO, CO₂) 16 was analyzed online using a gas chromatograph equipped with a GS-CarbonPLOT column 17 coupled to a mass spectrometer (Agilent GC 7890B, Agilent MSD 5977A) with a triple-axis 18 detector and an electron multiplier. A representative chromatogram is depicted as an inset in 19 **Scheme 1**. In the oxidation tests, C_2H_4 (3 vol.%), CO (2.5 vol.%), or HCl (3 vol.%) and O_2 20 were fed in a 1:1 volumetric ratio. In the HCI oxidation tests, the $Cl₂$ production was 21 quantified by offline iodometric titration (using a Mettler Toledo G20 Compact Titrator) of 22 triiodide, formed by purging the $Cl₂$ containing reactor outlet through an aqueous KI (Sigma-23 Aldrich, 99.5%) solution (0.1 M), with 0.01 M sodium thiosulfate solution (Sigma-Aldrich, 24 99.99%). The conversion of HCl, *X*(HCl), was calculated using **Eq. 1**,

$$
X(HCl) = \frac{2x_{Cl_2, \text{outlet}}}{x_{HCl, \text{inlet}}} \cdot 100, \% \tag{Eq. 1}
$$

1 where $x_{HCI, inlet}$ and $x_{CI_2, outlet}$ denote the volumetric concentration of HCl and Cl₂ at the reactor 2 inlet and outlet, respectively. The conversion of carbon containing reactant, *X*(*i*), where *i* 3 denotes C_2H_4 or CO, was calculated according to **Eq. 2**,

$$
X(i) = \frac{X_{i,\text{inlet}} - X_{i,\text{outlet}}}{X_{i,\text{inlet}}} \cdot 100, % \tag{Eq. 2}
$$

5 where $x_{i, \text{inlet}}$ and $x_{i, \text{outlet}}$ denote the volumetric concentration of *i* at the reactor inlet and outlet, 6 respectively. The selectivity and yield of a reaction product *j*, *S*(*j*) and *Y*(*j*), were calculated 7 according to **Eqs. 3 and 4**,

$$
S(j) = \frac{\mathbf{x}_j/\mathbf{v}_j}{\sum \mathbf{x}_j/\mathbf{v}_j} \cdot 100, \, \%
$$
 (Eq. 3)

- 9
- 10 $Y(j) = \frac{X(i) \cdot S(j)}{100}$, % (Eq. 4)

11 where *xj* and *vj* denote the volumetric concentrations of product *j* at the reactor outlet and the 12 corresponding stoichiometric factor with respect to the number of carbon atoms, respectively 13 (*e.g.*, $C_2H_4 + 2O_2 \rightarrow 2CO + 2H_2O$, $v_{CO} = 2$). The rate of VCM production, *r*(VCM), and the 14 rate of ethylene consumption, $r(C_2H_4)$ were calculated using **Eq. 5 and 6**,

15
$$
r(VCM) = \frac{x_{C_2H_4, \text{inlet}} \cdot F_T \cdot X(C_2H_4)/100 \cdot P \cdot S(VCM)/100}{R \cdot T_{STP} \cdot W_{cat} \cdot S_{BET}}, \text{mol h}^{-1} \text{m}^{-2}
$$
 (Eq. 5)

16

17
$$
r(C_2H_4) = \frac{x_{C_2H_4, \text{inlet}} \cdot F_T \cdot X(C_2H_4)/100 \cdot P}{R \cdot T_{\text{STP}} \cdot W_{\text{cat}} \cdot S_{\text{BET}}}, \text{mol h}^{-1} \text{m}^{-2}
$$
 (Eq. 6)

18 where $x_{C_2H_4}$, inlet, R, and *T*_{STP}, denote volumetric reactor inlet C₂H₄ concentration, gas 19 constant, and temperature at standard conditions, catalyst mass, and specific surface area, 20 respectively. The carbon mass balance error ε_c was determined using **Eq. 7**,

$$
\varepsilon_{\text{C}} = \left| \frac{\sum_{i,j,\text{inlet}} \ell_{V_{i,j,\text{inlet}}} - \sum_{i,j,\text{outlet}} \ell_{V_{i,j,\text{outlet}}} \ell_{V_{i,j,\text{outlet}}} }{\sum_{i,j,\text{inlet}} \ell_{V_{i,j,\text{inlet}}} \ell_{V_{i,j,\text{inlet}}} \right|} \cdot 100, % \tag{Eq. 7}
$$

 where *xi,j* and *vi,j* denote the concentration of reactant *i* or product *j* at the reactor inlet or outlet and the corresponding stoichiometric factor with respect to the number of carbon atoms, respectively. Each catalytic data point reported is an average of at least three measurements. The carbon mass balance in all catalytic tests closed at 96% or higher. After the tests, the catalyst bed was quenched to room temperature in He flow.

1 **3. Results and discussion**

2 **3.1. Performance of lanthanide compounds in ethylene oxychlorination**

3 The lanthanide oxides evaluated in this study were characterized by XRF (**Fig. S1**) and 4 XRD (**Fig. S2**) to confirm their compositional and phase purity. All results coincided with the 5 manufacturers specifications except in the case of praseodymium, which was found to be 6 present mainly in the form of Pr_4O_7 rather than Pr_2O_3 . Besides, the post-reaction structural 7 analysis revealed that all samples except $CeO₂$ undergo phase transitions to their respective 8 (oxy)chloride phase (*vide infra*; *e.g.* Eu₂O₃ transforms to EuOCI). For this reason, the 9 catalysts are denoted according to the crystalline phase evidenced by XRD in the 10 equilibrated materials (after treatment for at least 1 h under reaction conditions).

11 Comparative assessment in ethylene oxychlorination (**Fig. 1**), revealed that the rare earth 12 materials can be classified into three groups according to their performance. The first 13 (SmOCl, ErCl₃, TbOCl, and HoOCl) and second (PrOCl, DyOCl, GdOCl, NdCl₃, LaCl₃) both 14 display only minor activity, and are differentiated by the observation of chlorinated products 15 (EDC or VCM) which are only formed over the latter group. In contrast, the third group, 16 comprising $CeO₂$ and EuOCI, stands out, exhibiting notably higher $C₂H₄$ conversion and 17 selectivity to chlorinated products than either of the other groups. $CeO₂$, which was 18 previously studied in this reaction, demonstrated the highest yield of chlorinated compounds. 19 On the other hand, EuOCl interestingly showed the highest selectivity to VCM (51% *versus* 20 30% over $CeO₂$ at 12 and 26% $C₂H₄$ conversion, respectively) and no formation of $CO₂$. Two 21 advantageous features of EuOCI can be highlighted: the suppressed $CO₂$ formation 22 indicates an inherently lower reducibility of EuOCI with respect to $CeO₂$ while still 23 maintaining the ability to form EDC and the low EDC selectivity over EuOCl evidences that 24 more than 90% of the EDC formed is directly transformed to VCM. In addition, EuOCl shows 25 a 1.5 fold higher relative ethylene conversion per unit surface area of the equilibrated sample 26 as determined by N_2 sorption (**Table 1**) than $CeO₂$. In fact, comparison of the surface 1 normalized rate of VCM production as a function of the inverse of temperature (**Fig. 1**, inset) 2 reveals that EuOCI outperforms $CeO₂$ in the whole temperature range.

3 Previously $[13]$, we showed that the ethylene oxychlorination performance of $CeO₂$ could 4 be enhanced through the preparation of materials with higher surface areas by precipitation. 5 Following this strategy, a series of europium-based catalysts (EuOCl-p-*T*cal, where *T*cal 6 denotes the calcination temperature) were prepared with surface areas comparable to that of 7 CeO2. Surprisingly, however, these samples did not lead to the expected increase in 8 conversion, but completely suppressed the oxidation reaction to CO and largely increased 9 the yields of EDC and VCM (**Fig. 1**), which were highest over EuOCl-p-973. In this case, 10 EuOCI-p-973 was found to be one order of magnitude more reactive than $CeO₂$ and 11 comparable to EuOCl in terms of surface normalized rate (**Fig. 1**, inset).

12

13 **3.2. Catalyst evolution in ethylene oxychlorination**

 Analysis of the structure, composition, porosity, and surface properties of the equilibrated catalysts provides insight into the trends observed during the comparative evaluation in ethylene oxychlorination. As mentioned (*vide supra*), phase transformations were observed 17 in all of the catalysts after evaluation in the ethylene oxychlorination reaction, except $CeO₂$. Nonetheless, this phase evolution should be regarded as an equilibration step leading to the successful formation of the active (oxy)chloride phase rather than proof of instability. In fact, no catalyst volatilization was evidenced. Comparison by XRD (**Figs. 2**, **S2**) identifies three 21 different degrees of transformation, encompassing the preservation of the bulk oxide $(CeO₂)$ [13,22], the formation of an oxychloride (SmOCl, TbOCl, HoOCl, PrOCl, EuOCl), and the 23 complete transformation to the chloride phase (ErCl₃, NdCl₃, LaCl₃). Despite exhibiting distinct performance, only a single europium oxychloride phase is observed in EuOCl-p-973 and EuOCl. Slightly sharper reflections in the latter reflect increased average particle size, which is in line with lower surface area. A Scherrer-based analysis confirms an average crystal size of 31 nm for EuOCl in comparison with 13 nm for the EuOCl-p-973 sample.

1 Examination of LaCl₃, EuOCl, and CeO₂ by TEM and elemental mapping clearly revealed 2 the different extent of chlorination in these samples. LaCl3 (**Fig. 3a**), which fully chlorinates 3 upon equilibration under ethylene oxychlorination conditions, comprises large agglomerates 4 of between 100-200 nm diameter. The relative intensity of the Cl and La lines in the EDX 5 spectrum of *ca*. 3 agrees well with the stoichiometry of the metal chloride. Comparatively, 6 EuOCl as well as EuOCl-p-973 (**Fig. 3b**,**c**) features much smaller particles of *ca*. 40 nm in 7 diameter and a Cl:Eu intensity ratio close to unity, as expected from a pure oxychloride 8 phase. In both cases, no considerable change in crystal size is observed between the as 9 prepared and equilibrated materials. Finally, CeO₂ evidences even smaller nanoparticles of 10 10-20 nm (as prepared: 5-10 nm) in diameter and exhibits only a minor chlorine peak in the 11 EDX spectrum (**Fig. 3d**, inset), consistent with the low intensity of this element in the 12 corresponding map and the preservation of the oxide phase evidenced by XRD. To detect 13 possible differences in the surface and bulk composition, XPS analysis was conducted for 14 the as-prepared Eu2O3-p-973, which evidences a Eu 4*d* core level band structure composed 15 of the Eu 4*d*3/2 and Eu 4*d*5/2 peaks, characteristic of Eu2O3 (**Fig. 4a**) [29,30]. Upon use in 16 ethylene oxychlorination, both of these peaks were shifted to higher binding energy by 2 eV, 17 pointing to the presence of neighboring atoms of high electronegativity [29]. A signal 18 detected in the survey spectrum at 198.5 eV [31] in the Cl 2*p* region unequivocally confirmed 19 the presence of chlorine at the surface (**Fig. 4b**). In fact, the surface atomic concentrations 20 of Eu, O, and Cl were determined to be 33, 36, and 30%, respectively, which is close to the 21 stoichiometry of the oxychloride phase.

 Overall, these results demonstrate that ethylene oxychlorination over the lanthanide compounds studied is essentially catalyzed by the oxychloride or chloride phase, including in 24 the case of $CeO₂$ in which chloride species exist at the surface. However, there are no detectable structural differences between EuOCl and EuOCl-p-973 that would explain their 26 disparity in selectivity. As on $CeO₂$ the suppression of combustion and the formation of VCM were linked to moderated oxidative properties (catalyzing ethylene oxychlorination to EDC) 1 and the presence of acid sites (needed for EDC dehydrochlorination to VCM [32]), the 2 properties of EuOCI-p-973 and $CeO₂$ were investigated by $H₂-TPR$ and $NH₃-TPD$. PrOCI 3 was also studied as a moderately active and unselective reference.

4 The H2-TPR profile of CeO2 **(Fig. 5a)** shows two H2 consumption peaks at 761 and 5 1090 K, which are attributed to the reduction of labile surface or near-surface oxygen 6 species and the bulk, respectively $[32,34]$. This very much resembles the analysis of the as-7 prepared $CeO₂$ samples $[22]$ and indicates that the reducibility of this oxide is not 8 significantly altered under reaction conditions. Pr_4O_7 displays a H_2 consumption peak 9 centered at 978 K, however, no H2 consumption is observed for its analogue PrOCl, 10 indicating that the oxychloride is irreducible in this temperature range. This explains the 11 negligible yields of VCM and CO, observed over this catalyst, which are comparable to the 12 inactive materials. Eu₂O₃-p-973 evidences a broad H₂ consumption peak in the range of 882-13 1197 K, while EuOCI-p-973 shows H_2 consumption at significantly higher temperature 14 (similar trend for Eu_2O_3 and EuOCI). Thus, the diminished reducibility of europium 15 oxychlorides compared to $CeO₂$ is responsible for the lower activity and most importantly the 16 suppression of combustion. However, it is still sufficient to catalyze the formation of EDC.

17 NH₃-TPD analyses confirmed that the equilibrated $CeO₂$ and EuOCl-p-973 catalysts both 18 exhibit significant NH3 desorption in the range of 525-775 K (**Fig. 5b**), evidencing the 19 presence of acid sites. This is in line with previous studies on $CeO₂$ after treatment under 20 chlorination conditions [13,35]. The lower acidity of EuOCI with respect to EuOCI-p-973 is 21 also in accordance with the lower VCM selectivity of the former. Surprisingly, PrOCl shows 22 the highest amount of acid sites by far, which causes the complete transformation of any 23 EDC produced to VCM. Quantification of the amount of ammonia evolved from the two 24 materials with highest VCM yields reveals a significantly higher acid site density in EuOCl-p-25 973 (1.92 μmol g⁻¹) than CeO₂ (1.45 μmol g⁻¹), explaining the enhanced VCM formation over 26 the former.

1 **3.3. Influence of operating conditions**

2 In view of the unprecedented selectivity of EuOCI-p-973, the impact of reaction conditions 3 (namely temperature, HCl and $O₂$ feed contents, and contact time) on the conversion and 4 product distribution was studied (Fig. 6). These results are compared with CeO₂ calcined at 5 1173 K (CeO₂-1173), which was previously reported in ethylene oxychlorination [13]. Both 6 catalysts exhibit an increased conversion with temperature (**Fig. 6a**), but the enhancement is 7 lower over EuOCl-p-973 than $CeO₂$ -1173. Accordingly, the apparent activation energy (determined from Arrhenius plots, **Fig. S3**) is slightly higher for CeO2-1173 (28 kJ mol[−]¹ 8) than 9 for EuOCl-p-973 (17 kJ mol⁻¹). Considering the product distribution, the selectivity to VCM 10 increases with reaction temperature over both catalysts, which correlates with a parallel 11 decrease in the EDC selectivity. No CO*^x* formation is evidenced over EuOCl-p-973 up to 12 773 K at which point a minor amount of CO is observed, whereas $CeO₂$ -1173 suffers from 13 over-oxidation above 673 K, leading to *ca*. 50% selectivity to CO*^x* (at 50% C2H4 conversion) 14 at 773 K. However, in this comparison of the effect of temperature on the selectivity patterns 15 of the catalysts, the conversion levels differ due to the stronger activity dependence on 16 temperature of $CeO₂$ than that of EuOCI. Therefore, to decouple the effect of temperature 17 and conversion, the latter was raised by changing the space time at 723 K over both 18 catalysts (**Fig. 6d**). Upon increasing the C2H4 conversion over EuOCl-p-973, the selectivity 19 to VCM strongly increases and, reaching 100% at 25% conversion. The selectivity to EDC 20 decreases in equal order, which is consistent with the successive transformation of ethylene 21 to EDC and its dehydrochlorination to VCM. A qualitatively similar decrease of EDC 22 selectivity is also observed over $CeO₂$ -1173 at comparable conversion levels. Nonetheless, 23 the formation of combustion (CO*x*) and over-chlorinated (1,2-DCE) products is enhanced 24 instead of VCM.

25 Varying the feed composition also highlights significant differences in the behavior of the 26 two catalysts. Neither the conversion nor the product distribution is significantly affected by 27 the HCl or O2 feed contents within the investigated range (*i*.*e*. zero order with respect to HCl

1 and O_2) over EuOCI-p-973. In contrast, CeO₂-1173 exhibits a positive linear activity trend 2 with the HCl feed content and a second order dependency with respect to oxygen 3 (**Fig. 6b**,**c**). Furthermore, the EDC selectivity increases with the HCl content in the feed over 4 CeO2-1173, compensated by decreased CO*^x* formation. This is expected as a higher degree 5 of chlorination lowers the oxidative strength of the $CeO₂$ -1173 surface [13,22] and provides 6 more available sites for chlorination. The inverse argument applies for raising the oxygen 7 content, which favors combustion and lowers the selectivity to EDC linearly by decreasing 8 the degree of surface chlorination [22]. Combining these results with the insights gained from 9 the bulk and surface characterization, important differences between the two materials can 10 be pointed out. Although $CeO₂$ -1173 preserves the bulk structure of the oxide, the reaction 11 environment alters the nature of the surface from a more oxide- to a more chloride-12 dominated structure, which have different oxidative properties. In contrast, once formed the 13 surface structure of EuOCl-p-973 remains unaltered by the feed conditions. Thus, a change 14 in reaction atmosphere only affects the thermodynamic equilibria, but not the nature of redox 15 sites.

16 To further understand the selectivity patterns of catalysts in ethylene oxychlorination, the 17 reaction was split into the four possible processes that can impact the VCM formation. These 18 include the oxidation of C_2H_4 to CO_x , CO to CO_2 , and HCl to Cl_2 , as well as the 19 dehydrochlorination of EDC to VCM (**Fig. 7**). Each reaction was performed over equilibrated 20 samples: $CeO₂$ (exhibiting the highest activity), EuOCI-p-973 (attaining the highest VCM 21 yield), and PrOCl (representative of samples exhibiting low activity and high CO formation). 22 In C_2H_4 and HCl oxidation reactions, $CeO₂$ is the most active material, especially at higher 23 temperatures (**Fig. 7a**,**b**), which correlates with its higher reducibility (*vide supra*, **Fig. 5a**). 24 PrOCl also shows activity for the oxidation of C_2H_4 and CO, with similar or lower light-off 25 temperatures compared to $CeO₂$, respectively. Note that no $CO₂$ was generated on PrOCl 26 during ethylene oxychlorination, while in separate oxidation experiments it converted both 27 C₂H₄ and CO to CO₂. XRD analysis revealed that the PrOCl phase partially decomposes and

1 re-transforms to the Pr_4O_7 phase during oxidation reactions in the absence of HCl, which is 2 again reducible (**Figs. 5a**, **S4a**,**b**) and thus causes the formation of CO*x*. The limited yield of 3 chlorinated products formed on PrOCl (**Fig. 1**) is explained by its inability to release chlorine 4 as seen from its negligible activity in HCl oxidation tests (**Fig. 7c**). In stark contrast to the 5 above-mentioned systems, EuOCI-p-973 is essentially inactive for the C_2H_4 and CO 6 oxidation reactions (**Fig. 7a**,**b**), preserves the EuOCl phase under oxidizing conditions 7 (**Fig. S4**), and has moderate ability to transfer chlorine as evidenced by its mild HCl 8 oxidation activity above 673 K (**Fig. 7c**). Thus, it appears that the stability of the oxychloride 9 phase and the ability to release chlorine from the surface are key to suppressing the 10 formation of undesired oxidation products and to chlorinate ethylene.

 Finally, the dehydrochlorination of EDC to VCM, was investigated by feeding 1.5 vol.% EDC without or with addition of 3 vol.% O2 and 4.8 vol.% HCl to the feed (**Fig. 7d**). The EDC concentration was selected to simulate a 50% ethylene conversion to EDC. Furthermore, 14 since CeO₂ was known to yield a 90% conversion to VCM in mixed EDC:O₂:HCl feeds [13], a high EDC feed concentration was preferred to provide improved sensitivity to differences in the performance. Dehydrochlorination activity was observed in all cases. This differed from 17 our previous study, in which $CeO₂$ was found to be inactive in a pure EDC feed. The latter finding can be explained by the fact that in the present study, we evaluated the dehydrochlorination performance on catalysts equilibrated in ethylene oxychlorination, which increased the acidity of these samples. Albeit demonstrating a limited selectivity to chlorinated products in ethylene oxychlorination, PrOCl displays the best EDC dehydrochlorination performance, with or without cofeeding oxygen and HCl, which can be linked to the highest density of acid sites evidenced in this material. However, the inferior performance of PrOCl in ethylene oxychlorination can be related to the low tendency of this 25 catalyst to release chloride and it negligible reducibility (*vide supra*). CeO₂ demonstrates a linear dehydrochlorination trend with temperature when only EDC is fed, while an increased 27 VCM yield and a shift to lower temperatures is attained when O_2 and HCl are mixed with the 1 EDC. Nevertheless, at 773 K the yield is heavily decreased due to more extensive CO 2 formation, which can be traced back to the higher reducibility of CeO2 (**Figs. 5a, 7a**,**b**) that 3 causes the combustion of chlorinated products. EuOCl-p-973 exhibits a linear trend with no 4 CO*^x* formation and an enhanced selectivity to VCM when HCl+O2 is added to the feed.

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6 **3.4. Integration of high activity and selectivity functions**

7 The fact that the VCM yield over EuOCl is limited by its low intrinsic oxychlorination 8 activity while the VCM selectivity over $CeO₂$ is compromised by the formation of CO_x and 9 over-chlorinated compounds, encouraged us to consider the possibility of integrating the 10 advantageous qualities of each of these rare-earth compounds in the form of mixed oxides. 11 Consequently, we prepared samples with molar fractions of europium ranging from 0.3-0.9 12 by coprecipitation (**Table 2**). The resulting materials were evaluated in ethylene 13 oxychlorination at 673 K to maximize the activity while minimizing the likelihood of over-14 oxidation (Fig. 8). The yield of chlorinated products (and thus the C₂H₄ conversion) is found 15 to reach a maximum over $Eu_{0.4}Ce_{0.6}O_{1.8}$ -cp-773. A further increase in cerium contents in 16 these precipitated samples cause a drop in activity and also lead to the formation of over-17 chlorinated products (1,2-DCE).

18 Analysis by N_2 sorption indicated that the total surface area of the mixed oxides was 19 generally lower than the corresponding single phases (**Table 2**), which gives a first hint of 20 the interaction of Eu and Ce in these systems. Due to the similar crystal structures of $Eu₂O₃$ 21 and CeO₂, it is difficult to conclude whether the fresh $Eu_xCe_{1-x}O_{2-0.5x}$ -cp- T_{cal} materials are 22 physical mixtures of the single oxides or atomically-dispersed mixed metal oxides (*i*.*e*. 23 having metal to metal interactions/bonding within the oxide network) by XRD (**Fig. S5**). 24 Analysis of the equilibrated samples only evidences the presence of the EuOCl phase in 25 samples with a europium fraction above 0.6. The fact that the oxychloride is not observed for 26 *x* ≤ 0.5 corroborates the strong interaction between Eu and Ce in the mixed phase. 27 Consistently, the cell parameter of 5.38 Å was derived for $Eu_{0.4}Ce_{0.6}O_{1.8}$ -cp-773, the best

1 sample in terms of VCM yield, which lies between that of the $CeO₂-p-773$ (5.35 Å) and 2 Eu2O3-p-773 (5.41 Å). Examination by electron microscopy (**Fig. 3e**) shows that the 3 equilibrated sample is composed of small nanoparticles of *ca*. 5-10 nm, preserving the 4 crystallinity of the as prepared material (not shown for brevity). The elemental map reveals a 5 very homogeneous distribution of europium and cerium atoms, which is also similar to the 6 fresh analogue. Interestingly, the EDX spectrum evidences a small amount of chlorine in the 7 equilibrated sample, which is also corroborated by XPS results showing a shift of the 8 Eu 4*d*3/2 and Eu 4*d*5/2 peaks to higher binding energy compared to the as-prepared sample 9 due to the presence of chlorine (**Fig. 4b**). Thus, the oxychloride phase could still exist at the 10 surface leading to high acidity. This reasoning is consistent with the highest VCM yield of 11 this sample (**Fig. 1**). Comparing the performance of $Eu_{0.4}Ce_{0.6}O_{1.8}$ -cp-773 with EuOCl-p-973 12 and $CeO₂-p-773$, it is clear that the mixed oxide leads to very selective VCM formation 13 (**Fig. 8**) and minimal combustion.

 Since stability is a crucial driver in the hunt for new catalytic systems to improve the current ethylene oxychlorination process, the long-term performance of EuOCl-p-973 and $Eu_{0.4}Ce_{0.6}O_{1.8}$ -cp-773 was evaluated, demonstrating a stable operation in ethylene oxychlorination for over 100 and 40 h on stream with VCM yields of 15% and 19%, respectively (**Fig. 9**). Even though a minor amount of 1,2-DCE (estimated by carbon mass 19 balance error of about 5-6%) is observed for $Eu_{0.4}Ce_{0.6}O_{1.8}$ -cp-773 up to 20 h, after which it drops with time-on-stream, the mixed oxide evidences higher activity as it is operated at 21 50 K lower temperature and one fourth of the space time (63 g h mol⁻¹ compared to 22 252 g h mol⁻¹). To further assess the stability of EuOCl, we conducted a catalytic test doubling the reactant concentration, which resulted in a very similar selectivity pattern (4% 24 EDC, 96% VCM) as observed under standard conditions at comparable C_2H_4 conversion (19%). Besides, no volatilization of the active phase was evidenced, for example by deposits commonly observed on the reactor walls when using unstable materials, under either 27 condition. Still, the VCM yield achieved is not yet optimal (Fig. 8). In fact, although CeO₂-p1 773 suffers from CO*^x* and 1,2-DCE formation, the overall yield of desired EDC and VCM was 2 higher compared to $Eu_{0.4}Ce_{0.6}O_{1.8}$ -cp-773.

 As an alternative approach to improve the VCM yield, $CeO₂$ and EuOCI were united in a 4 dual-bed reactor, combining the high activity of $CeO₂$ in a first bed in the direction of flow in 5 order to enhance the EDC formation with the unique selectivity to VCM of EuOCl due to its 6 acidity in a second bed (CeO₂-p-EuOCl-p-db). Advantageously, this could also enable an 7 efficient utilization of the heat generated by the exothermic oxychlorination in the 8 downstream endothermic dehydrochlorination. This system indeed results in the highest 9 VCM (27%) and VCM+EDC (33%) yields observed so far at the standard space time of 63 g h mol[−]¹ applied in this study. Even though small amounts of side products (CO2 and 1,2-DCE) are formed in the first bed by CeO2 (**Fig. 8**), this dual-bed system shows the highest rate of VCM production per unit surface area of the catalyst (**Table 2**). Since both, EuOCl (**Fig. 9**) and CeO2 [13] are individually stable, a highly robust operation of this dual-bed reactor can be anticipated.

4. Conclusions

 In this study, we developed a fundamental understanding of the ethylene oxychlorination chemistry on scarcely studied rare-earth compounds. Through the integration of steady-state catalytic tests and advanced characterization, we identified EuOCl as the best catalyst for direct VCM production, leading to 96% selectivity and no CO*^x* formation at 20% ethylene conversion for over 100 h on stream. The consecutive conversion of ethylene to EDC and EDC to VCM confirmed the bifunctional reaction mechanism over this catalyst. This unique 23 behavior was found to originate from the transformation of the initial $Eu₂O₃$ phase to a stable oxychloride. The latter was completely inert towards ethylene and CO oxidation, which explains the absence of undesired CO*x*, while it exhibited moderate HCl oxidation, 26 demonstrating its ability to chlorinate ethylene. Other lanthanide oxides, except $CeO₂$ which retained the oxide structure after reaction, also transformed to their respective oxychloride or

1 chloride phases. However, these oxychlorides were either essentially inactive in ethylene 2 oxychlorination or decomposed in oxidative conditions and catalyzed undesired oxidations 3 forming significant amounts of CO*x*, as demonstrated for the case of PrOCl. Another crucial 4 aspect of the EuOCl phase was the presence of a high concentration of acid sites, which 5 catalyzed the EDC dehydrochlorination to produce VCM. By combining $CeO₂$ for its high 6 activity towards EDC with $Eu₂O₃$ or EuOCI for VCM, in the form of homogeneously mixed 7 oxides or as a dual-bed system, respectively, we demonstrated industrially attractive VCM 8 yields (*ca*. 30%). The intensification feasibility studied herein can be anticipated to be more 9 economical than the current two-step process as it enables reduction of the unit operations eliminating the need for the intermediate EDC purification and subsequent cracking steps.

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 Supplementary Material. Supplementary information associated with this article, containing additional characterization data, can be found in the online version.

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1 **Table 1.** Total surface area of the samples prior to (fresh) and after (equilibrated) ethylene 2 oxychlorination. The nomenclature of the used samples reflects the main crystallographic 3 phase identified in the catalyst.

4 ^a All samples were commercial, except Eu₂O₃-p-T_{cal}, which was obtained by 5 **precipitation and calcination at** T_{cal} **K. b BET method.**

1 **Table 2.** Characterization data and rate of VCM formation of the mixed europium-cerium 2 oxides.

3 . A XRF. ^b BET method. ^c Corresponds to data in Fig. 8. ^d Estimated.

2 **Scheme 1.** Scheme of the laboratory set-up used for the catalytic studies. 1: on-off valves, 3 2: mass flow controllers, 3: mixer, 4: vaporizer, 5: syringe pump, 6: quartz reactor, 7: oven, 4 8: catalyst bed, 9: heat tracing, 10: three-way bypass valve, 11: NaOH scrubber, 5 PI: pressure indicator, and TI: temperature indicator. The three positions at which the 6 temperature was measured in the catalyst bed are indicated on the left, lying within ± 1 K 7 (measured in a reference experiment over $CeO₂$ -1173 at 31% $C₂H₄$ conversion). The inset 8 on the right depicts a representative chromatogram where the peaks are assigned to the 9 following compounds: ○,■ Ar and CO (due to the overlapping retention time, these peaks 10 were subsequently separated by mass spectrometry), $\Diamond C_2H_4$, $\blacktriangledown CO_2$, \star vinyl chloride, 11 ● 1,2-cis-dichloroethene, and ▲ ethylene dichloride.

Fig. 1. Product yields (*Y*) in ethylene oxychlorination over single metal lanthanide catalysts.

3 The inset depicts the Arrhenius plot of VCM formation over CeO₂, EuOCI, and EuOCI-p-973.

4 Conditions: $T = 723$ K, C₂H₄:HCl:O₂:Ar:He = 3:4.8:3:3:86.2, W_{cat}/n^0 (C₂H₄) = 63 g h mol⁻¹.

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Fig. 2. XRD patterns of selected catalysts prior to (black) and after (red) ethylene 3 oxychlorination. Vertical lines beneath the diffractograms and structures on the right denote 4 identified crystalline phases according to the ICDD PDF numbers provided on the left of the 5 figure. The gray rectangles in the structures represent the corresponding unit cells. Dashed 6 boxes in the diffractogram of LaCl₃ highlight the reflections for LaOCl·H₂O (ICDD PDF 70-7 2139). XRD analysis of all other investigated lanthanide-based catalysts is depicted in **Fig. S2**.

Fig. 4. a) Eu 4*d* and **b**) Cl 2*p* core level XPS spectra of fresh (black) and equilibrated (red)

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- **Fig. 5. a**) H2-TPR and **b**) NH3-TPD profiles of selected fresh (dashed lines) and equilibrated
- 3 (solid lines) catalysts.
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2 **Fig. 6.** C₂H₄ conversion and product selectivity over EuOCI-p-973 (left) and CeO₂-1173 3 (right) as a function of **a**) T at fixed HCl (4.8 vol.%) and O_2 (3 vol.%) concentrations, **b**) feed 4 HCl content at fixed O₂ content (3 vol.%) at 723 K (EuOCl) and 673 K (CeO₂), and **c**) feed O₂ 5 content at fixed HCl content (4.8 vol.%) at 723 K (EuOCl) and 673 K (CeO2). **d**) Selectivity to

1 products *versus* conversion at different space times at 723 K at fixed HCl (4.8 vol.%) and O2 1 (3 vol.%) concentrations, color code as in **a-c**. Conditions: **a-c**) $W_{\text{cat}}/n^0(C_2H_4) = 63$ g h mol⁻¹, **d**) $W_{\text{cat}}/n^0(C_2H_4) = 6-252$ g h mol⁻¹.

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2 **Fig. 7.** Performance descriptors for selective VCM production over equilibrated catalysts. **a**) 3 C₂H₄ oxidation to CO₂ (C₂H₄:O₂:Ar:He = 3:3:3:91, $W_{cat}/n^0(C_2H_4) = 63$ g h mol^{−1}), **b**) CO 4 oxidation to CO_2 (CO:O₂:Ar:He = 2.5:2.5:3:92, W_{cat}/n^0 (CO) = 76 g h mol⁻¹), **c**) HCl oxidation to Cl_2 (HCl:O₂:Ar:He = 3:3:3:91, 5 to Cl_2 (HCl:O₂:Ar:He = 3:3:3:91, $W_{ca}/h^0(HCl) = 63$ g h mol⁻¹), and **d**) EDC 6 dehydrochlorination to VCM. In **d**) W_{ca} , \dot{n}^0 (EDC) = 126 g h mol^{−1}, open symbols: EDC: 7 Ar:He = $1.5:3:95.5$, and solid symbols: EDC:HCl:O₂:Ar:He = $1.5:4.8:3:3:87.7$.

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2 **Fig. 8.** Product yields in ethylene oxychlorination over EuOCl-p-973, CeO₂-p-773, mixed 3 oxides of Eu and Ce, and the dual-bed configuration of $CeO₂-p-773$ and $EuOCl-p-973$. 4 Conditions: $T = 673$ K, C₂H₄:HCl:O₂:Ar:He = 3:4.8:3:3:86.2, W_{cat}/\hat{n}^0 (C₂H₄) = 63 g h mol⁻¹.

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Fig. 9. C2H4 conversion and product selectivities *versus* time-on-stream in ethylene 3 oxychlorination over **a**) EuOCl-p-973 and **b**) Eu_{0.4}Ce_{0.6}O_{1.8}-cp-773. Conditions: *T* = 723 K 4 (673 K for $Eu_{0.4}Ce_{0.6}O_{1.8}$ -cp-773), C_2H_4 :HCl:O₂:Ar:He = 3:4.8:1.5:3:87.7 (C₂H₄:HCl:O₂:Ar:He 5 = 3:4.8:3:3:86.2 for Eu_{0.4}Ce_{0.6}O_{1.8}-cp-773), $W_{cat}/\hat{n}^0(C_2H_4) = 252$ g h mol⁻¹ (63 g h mol⁻¹ for 6 $Eu_{0.4}Ce_{0.6}O_{1.8}$ -cp-773).

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Fig. S1. X-ray fluorescence spectra of commercial lanthanide oxides. Vertical lines show the reference positions of the respective lanthanide. The excellent match of the reference line with the measured spectra confirms the high purity of the samples.

Fig. S2. X-ray diffraction patterns of the samples prior to (black) and after (red) the oxychlorination of ethylene. Vertical lines beneath the diffractograms and structures on the right denote identified crystalline phases according to the ICDD PDF numbers provided on the left of the figure. The gray rectangles in the structures represent the

- 1 corresponding unit cells. Dashed boxes in the diffractogram of LaCl₃ indicate the reflections for LaOCl·H₂O (ICDD
- 2 PDF 70-2139). All oxides matched the supplier specification except Pr_2O_3 , which showed the reflections of Pr_4O_7 .

4 **Fig. S3.** The Arrhenius plot of C₂H₄ conversion in ethylene oxychlorination over EuOCl-p-973 and CeO₂-1173.

5 Conditions: C₂H₄:HCl:O₂:Ar:He = 3:4.8:3:3:86.2, $W_{\text{cat}}/n^0(C_2H_4) = 63$ g h mol⁻¹.

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7 **Fig. S4.** X-ray diffraction patterns of EuOCl, PrOCl, and CeO2 **a**) after C2H4 oxidation and **b**) after CO oxidation. 8 Vertical lines show the phases identified in the samples: red $(CeO₂)$, green $(Pr₄O₇)$, blue $(ProCl)$, and black $(EuOCl)$. 9 ICDD PDF numbers are provided on the left of the figure. Dashed boxes in PrOCl diffractograms show the Pr_4O_7 10 phase that is formed from PrOCl upon oxidation of C_2H_4/CO .

Fig. S5. X-ray diffraction patterns of mixed europium-cerium oxides prior to (black) and after (red) the oxychlorination 3 of ethylene. Vertical lines denote the crystalline phases identified in the solids: red (CeO₂), gray (EuOCl), and blue (Eu2O3). ICDD PDF numbers are provided on the left of the figure.