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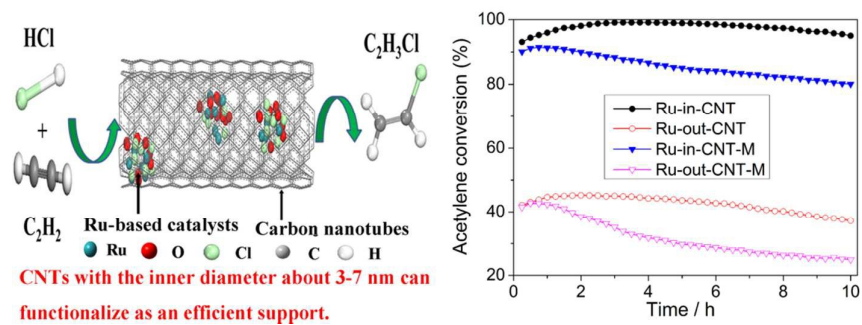
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Graphical Abstract



Highlights

- Ru catalysts deposited inside the channels of CNTs show higher catalytic activity.
- Ru-in-CNT catalyst exhibited the acetylene conversion of 95.0 % at 170 °C and 10 h.
- CNTs with the inner diameter of 3-7 nm can functionalize as an efficient support.

Non-mercury catalytic acetylene hydrochlorination over Ru catalysts enhanced by carbon nanotubes

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1 **Abstract**

2 Ru-based catalysts with different deposition sites were prepared using multiwalled carbon
3 nanotubes as the support and RuCl₃ as the precursor, in order to study the effects of multiwalled
4 carbon nanotubes on the catalytic performance of Ru catalysts for acetylene hydrochlorination. It
5 is suggested that Ru catalysts deposited inside the CNTs channels exhibit the optimal catalytic
6 activity, with the acetylene conversion of 95.0 % and the selectivity to VCM of 99.9 % after 10 h
7 on stream under the conditions of 170 °C and GHSV (C₂H₂) of 90 h⁻¹. In combination with
8 characterizations of BET, TEM, XRD, TPR, TPD and XPS, it is illustrated that the CNTs with
9 the inner diameter about 3-7 nm can functionalize as an efficient support with unique electron
10 property to enhance the catalytic performance of Ru-based catalysts for acetylene
11 hydrochlorination.

12 **Keywords:** acetylene hydrochlorination, ruthenium, carbon nanotubes, confinement

13 **1. Introduction**

14 Acetylene hydrochlorination reaction is an important coal-based industrial process to produce
15 vinyl chloride monomer (VCM), which is the monomer to manufacture polyvinyl chloride via
16 polymerization.¹ The reaction is carried out industrially using activated carbon-supported
17 mercuric chloride as the catalyst,² which causes serious environmental pollution owing to high
18 toxicity and volatility of the active mercuric chloride component. Thus, it is urgent to explore a
19 reliable and environmental-benign non-mercury catalyst to substitute the poisonous mercuric
20 chloride for acetylene hydrochlorination. Non-mercuric catalysts, involving the main metallic

21 component of Au,³⁻⁵ Pd,^{6,7} and Ru,⁸⁻¹⁰ have been studied extensively, following the pioneer work
22 of Hutchings.¹¹ However, it is still a challenge so far to develop an efficient non-mercury catalyst
23 with high activity and long-term stability.

24 Multiwalled carbon nanotubes (CNTs) have a well-defined tubular structure formed by
25 graphene layers with an electron-deficient interior surface and an electron-enriched exterior
26 surface,¹²⁻¹⁵ and are considered as the promising supports to adjust the activity of dispersed metal
27 catalysts.¹⁶⁻²² For examples, Bao and co-workers studied the effect of CNTs (with the inner and
28 outer diameters about 4-8 and 10-20 nm, respectively) on the catalytic performance of Ru
29 nanoparticles for ammonia synthesis reaction and reported that metallic Ru nanoparticles
30 dispersed on the outside of CNTs displayed about two times higher turnover frequency than
31 those dispersed inside the CNT channels.²³ Ran et al. studied the cellobiose conversion reaction
32 over Ru nanoparticles and reported that the catalytic activity of Ru nanoparticles dispersed inside
33 the CNT channels was higher than that dispersed on the outside of CNTs (with the inner and
34 outer diameters about 3-6 and 10-20 nm, respectively).²⁴ It is suggested that the beneficial
35 deposition sites on CNTs for metallic catalysts are greatly associated with the distinct chemical
36 reactions and the diameters of CNTs. Recently, Li et al. reported that polypyrrole-modified
37 multiwalled carbon nanotubes (PPy-MWCNT) can enhance the catalytic activity of Au-based
38 catalysts for acetylene hydrochlorination.²⁵ These results enlightened us to study the effects of
39 different Ru deposition sites of CNTs on acetylene hydrochlorination reaction.

40 In this article, we adopted multiwalled CNTs as the supports to prepare Ru-based catalysts
41 deposited on the outside of CNTs or inside the channels of CNTs, and assessed the catalytic
42 activity of these two kinds of Ru-based catalysts for acetylene hydrochlorination. In combination

43 with characterizations of BET, TEM, XRD, TPR, TPD and XPS, it is indicated that Ru-based
44 catalysts deposited inside the channels of CNTs show greatly high catalytic activity for acetylene
45 hydrochlorination.

46 **2 Experimental**

47 **2.1 Materials**

48 Analytical grade $\text{RuCl}_3 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (the content of Ru assay 37.0 %) was purchased from Xi'an
49 Kaida Chemical, Ltd. (China) and used without any purification. Two kinds of multiwalled CNTs
50 (raw-CNT, raw-CNT-M) were purchased from Chengdu Organic Chemicals Co., LTD, China.
51 The raw materials of multiwalled CNTs were treated by refluxing in concentrated HNO_3 (68.0 %)
52 at 140 °C for 14 h, followed by filtration and washing in turn and then desiccation at 60 °C for
53 12 h, in order to make the nanotube terminals open and the length of nanotubes cut into segments
54 of 200-500 nm. The as-prepared CNTs were adopted as the supports to prepare Ru-based
55 catalysts further. As shown in Fig. S1 of supplementary information, the support CNT has the
56 inner and outer diameter of 3-7 nm and 8-15 nm respectively (denoted as CNT), while another
57 support has the inner and outer diameter of 5-10 nm and 20-30 nm respectively (denoted as
58 CNT-M).

59 **2.2 Catalysts preparation**

60 Adopting the support CNT, Ru-based catalysts deposited inside the channels of CNT (denoted
61 as Ru-in-CNT) or on the outer surface of CNTs (denoted as Ru-out-CNT) were prepared using
62 an improved wet chemistry method.²⁶⁻²⁸ For the synthesis of Ru-in-CNT, the CNT (1.5 g) were
63 dispersed in 70 mL solution of RuCl_3 in acetone by sonication for 6 h; the mixture was

64 continuously stirred at room temperature to allow slow evaporation of acetone, followed by a
65 heated treatment in a tube furnace at 150 °C for 18 h with the air flow rate of 25 mL min⁻¹. For
66 the synthesis of Ru-out-CNT, the CNT (1.5 g) were first dispersed in xylene solution (70 g) by
67 ultrasonic treatment for 6 h so as to make the channels of CNT filled with xylene, then mixed
68 with a RuCl₃ aqueous solution (2 mL) under magnetically stirring at 80 °C. The obtained mixture
69 was also treated in a tube furnace at 150 °C for 18 h with the air flow rate of 25 mL min⁻¹. In
70 order to make the discussion clear in the next context, the blank support in-CNT was used to
71 indicate the support CNT experienced the same treatment procedure to prepare Ru-in-CNT
72 catalysts but without ruthenium trichloride precursors, while the blank support out-CNT was the
73 support CNT experienced the same treatment to prepare Ru-out-CNT catalysts without
74 ruthenium trichloride precursors.

75 In the case of another support CNT-M, we adopted the same procedures to prepare Ru-based
76 catalysts deposited inside the channel of CNT-M (denoted as Ru-in-CNT-M) or on the outer
77 surface of CNT-M (denoted as Ru-out-CNT-M). The Ru loading amount of all catalysts was 1
78 wt. % in this study, confirmed by the atomic absorption spectroscopy.

79 2.3 Catalyst characterization

80 N₂ adsorption/desorption experiments were conducted using a Quantachrome NOVA BET
81 2200e analyzer. The samples were first degassed at 300 °C for 4 h and analyzed via liquid
82 nitrogen adsorption at -196 °C. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was performed on a
83 JEM 2100F field emission transmission electron microscope (JEOL, Tokyo, Japan) working at
84 200 kV using a scanning TEM mode (spot size, 0.4 nm). For sample preparation, the samples
85 were first reduced in H₂ at 450 °C for 5 h and ultrasonically dispersed in ethanol, and then some

86 droplets of the suspension was dipped onto a holey carbon-coated copper grid and dried. X-ray
87 powder diffraction (XRD) experiment was performed on a Bruker D8 Focus diffractometer using
88 Cu K α radiation at $\lambda = 1.54056 \text{ \AA}$ with a scanning speed of $4 \text{ }^\circ \text{ min}^{-1}$ and a step of 0.02 ° (2θ) in
89 the range from 20 ° to 80 ° . X-ray photoelectron spectra (XPS) were obtained using a PHI 5000
90 Versa Probe (ULVAC-PHI Inc., Osaka, Japan) employing monochromatic Al K α X-rays ($h\nu =$
91 1486.7 eV) under high vacuum condition. The data were collected at a sample tilt angle of 45 ° .
92 The binding energies were corrected using the C 1s peak of aliphatic carbon at 284.8 eV as an
93 internal standard. The atomic absorption spectroscopy (AAS) was performed with a
94 Perkin-Elmer 800 atomic absorption spectrometer using an air-acetylene flame. H $_2$ temperature
95 programmed reduction (H $_2$ -TPR) was performed on a TPDR0 1100 apparatus equipped with a
96 thermal conductivity detector. For each test, 100 mg sample was heated from room temperature
97 to $800 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ at a rate of $10 \text{ }^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$, flushing with a 20 mL min^{-1} gas mixture containing 5 % H $_2$ in
98 N $_2$ gas. Temperature-programmed desorption (TPD) was analyzed by TPDR0 1100 apparatus.
99 The samples were pretreated under hydrogen chloride and acetylene atmosphere at the reactive
100 temperature ($170 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) for 6 h, respectively. Then high-purity N $_2$ (50 mL min^{-1}) was passed
101 through the sample at $100 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 30 min. The TPD profiles were recorded for the sample heated
102 from $100 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ to $650 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ with a rate of $10 \text{ }^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$.

103 **2.4 Catalytic performance evaluation**

104 The catalytic performance was investigated using a fixed-bed glass micro-reactor (i.d. of 8
105 mm). Acetylene (99.9% purity) was passed through silica-gel desiccant to remove trace
106 impurities, and hydrogen chloride gas (99.9% purity) was dried using 5A molecular sieves.
107 Acetylene (3 mL min^{-1}) and hydrogen chloride (3.3 mL min^{-1}) were introduced into a heated

108 reactor containing catalyst (2 mL) through a mixing vessel via calibrated mass flow controllers,
109 giving a C₂H₂ gas hourly space velocity (GHSV) of 90 h⁻¹ at 170 °C. This microreactor was
110 purged with nitrogen before reaction to remove water and air. The reactor effluent was passed
111 through an absorption bottle containing sodium hydroxide solution to remove unreacted
112 hydrogen chloride. And then, the gas mixture was analyzed by Beifen GC-3420A gas
113 chromatograph (GC).

114 **3 Results and discussion**

115 **3.1 Catalyst characterization**

116 3.1.1 Catalyst texture properties

117 BET measurements were performed to investigate the physical structure changes of CNT
118 caused by the treatment of nitric acid, acetone, or xylene. Table 1 lists the specific surface area,
119 pore volume and pore diameter of the raw material CNT, the CNT support treated by nitric acid,
120 the blank in-CNT support experienced the same treatment procedure to prepare Ru-in-CNT
121 catalysts but without ruthenium precursors, and the blank out-CNT support experienced the same
122 treatment procedure to prepare Ru-out-CNT catalysts without ruthenium precursors, as well as
123 the fresh catalysts of Ru-in-CNT and Ru-out-CNT. It is clear that the nitric acid treatment makes
124 the specific surface area increased from 192 to 236 m² g⁻¹, the total pore volume increased from
125 0.28 to 0.32 cm³ g⁻¹, and the pore diameter increased from 3.03 to 3.82 nm. It is indicated that
126 further acetone or xylene treatment results in a little decrease of both surface area and pore
127 volume, comparing in-CNT or out-CNT with CNT. The morphology changes of these different
128 nanotubes are characterized by TEM images, as displayed in Fig. S2. After deposition of

129 ruthenium chloride, the surface area of the fresh catalyst Ru-in-CNT ($220 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$) decreases by a
 130 fraction of 5 % comparing with in-CNT; while the pore volume of Ru-in-CNT ($0.29 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$)
 131 decreases by 3 % comparing with in-CNT, which is due to partial blocking of ruthenium species
 132 inside the support CNT. In the case of fresh catalyst Ru-out-CNT, both the surface area and the
 133 pore volume are similar with those of out-CNT.

134 **Table 1** Pore structure parameters of different CNTs and the supported catalysts

catalyst	$S_{\text{BET}} (\text{m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1})$	Pore volume ($\text{cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$)	Pore diameter (nm)
raw-CNT ^a	192 ± 0.5^e	0.28 ± 0.006	3.03 ± 0.006
CNT ^b	236 ± 0.8	0.32 ± 0.003	3.82 ± 0.006
in-CNT ^c	232 ± 0.8	0.30 ± 0.005	3.82 ± 0.002
out-CNT ^d	233 ± 0.5	0.31 ± 0.003	3.83 ± 0.003
Ru-out-CNT	232 ± 0.6	0.31 ± 0.005	3.81 ± 0.008
Ru-in-CNT	220 ± 0.8	0.29 ± 0.007	3.80 ± 0.007

135 ^a: The raw multiwalled CNTs purchased from Chengdu Organic Chemicals Co., LTD, China.

136 ^b: The CNTs treated by refluxing in concentrated nitric acid at 140 °C for 14 h, which are used as the support to prepare catalysts.

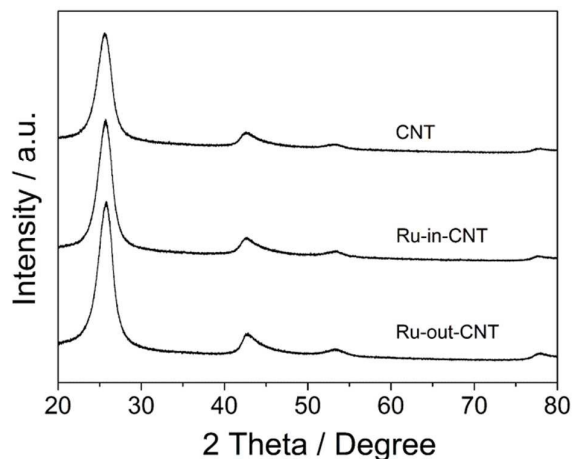
137 ^c: The blank in-CNT support, which is experienced the same treatment procedure to prepare Ru-in-CNT catalysts but without
 138 ruthenium trichloride precursors.

139 ^d: The blank out-CNT support, which is experienced the same treatment procedure to prepare Ru-out-CNT catalysts but without
 140 ruthenium trichloride precursors.

141 ^e: The data were obtained by the standard deviation.

142 3.1.2 Dispersion of Ru particles

143 Fig. 1 shows the XRD patterns of the support CNT, the fresh catalysts Ru-in-CNT and
 144 Ru-out-CNT. Apart from four characteristic diffraction peaks of CNT located at 25.6° , 42.6° ,
 145 53.1° and 77.7° , respectively,²⁹ neither of the fresh Ru-in-CNT and Ru-out-CNT shows peaks
 146 indicative of the hexagonal close-packed (hcp) metallic Ru phase or anhydrous tetragonal RuO₂,
 147 indicating that all Ru particles are very small (with the size lower than 4 nm),³⁰ which is in
 148 accord with TEM images (Fig. 2).



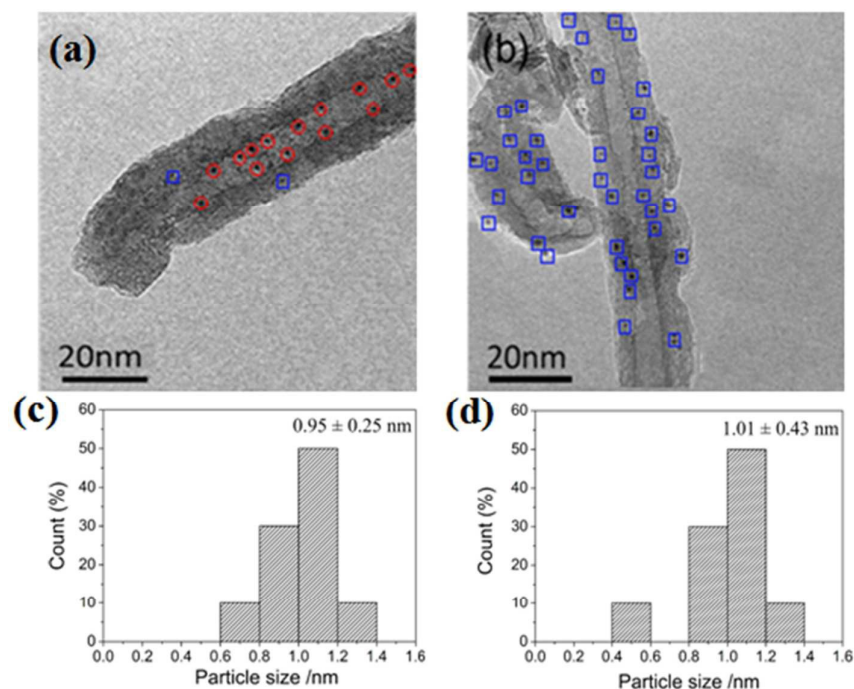
149

150 **Fig. 1** X-ray diffraction patterns of (a) the support CNT and the fresh catalysts (b) Ru-in-CNT and (c)
151 Ru-out-CNT.

152

153 Fig. 2 displays typical TEM images and the particle size distributions of the fresh catalysts
154 Ru-in-CNT and Ru-out-CNT reduced in H₂ at 450 °C for 5 h. For the fresh catalyst Ru-in-CNT,
155 Ru nanoparticles inside the channel of nanotubes have an average size about 0.95 nm, which is
156 smaller than the inner diameter of CNT (3-7 nm). The percentage of Ru nanoparticles deposited
157 inside the channel of CNT was calculated by counting the locations of 150-200 Ru particles on at
158 least 100 nanotubes. It is indicated that over eighty percent of ruthenium particles have been
159 introduced into the inner cavity of nanotubes (Fig. 2a). For the fresh catalyst Ru-out-CNT, Ru
160 nanoparticles are distributed exclusively on the exterior surface of CNT with the average size
161 about 1.01 nm (Fig. 2b).

162



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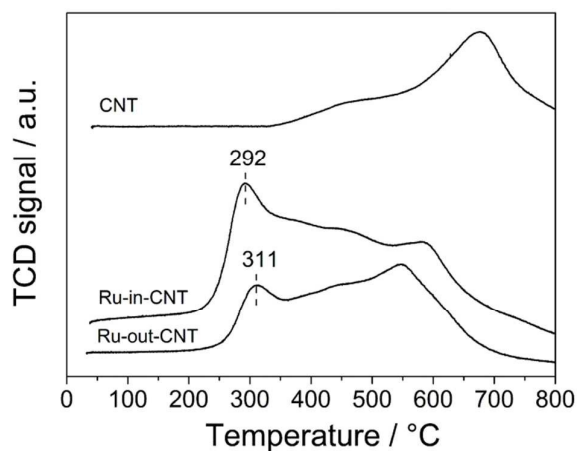
164 **Fig. 2** TEM images and the particle size distributions of the fresh catalysts of Ru-in-CNT (a, c) and
165 Ru-out-CNT (b, d). (Red circles: Ru nanoparticles confined within channels of CNT; blue squares: Ru
166 nanoparticles located on external surfaces of CNT.)

167

168 3.1.3 Reducibility and adsorption property of Ru-based catalysts

169 H_2 -TPR profiles were measured to evaluate the reducibility of two kinds of Ru-based catalysts
170 using CNTs as the support. As shown in Fig. 3, TPR profiles of the fresh catalyst Ru-in-CNT and
171 Ru-out-CNT are distinct from that of the blank support CNT. There are two broad peaks in the
172 range of 350-800 °C for all the samples, which are attributed to the reduction of oxygenated
173 groups in the CNT support.^{23,31} There is a broad H_2 consumption peak in the temperature range
174 of 100-350 °C for both Ru-in-CNT and Ru-out-CNT catalysts, compared with the profile of the
175 support CNT, which is due to the reduction of ruthenium species involving the ruthenium oxides
176 and ruthenium chloride in the catalysts.^{23,32,33} It is noted that the reduction of ruthenium species
177 takes place around 292 °C for Ru-in-CNT, whereas it occurs at a higher temperature (311 °C) for

178 Ru-out-CNT. It is known that the interaction between the electron-deficient concave surface of
179 carbon nanotubes and the anionic chlorine in RuCl_3 or the anionic oxygen in RuO_2 could lead to
180 weaken bonding strength of RuCl_3 or RuO_2 and consequently make it easier to reduce ruthenium
181 species inside the channels of CNT. On the contrary, for Ru-out-CNT the weak interactions
182 between the electron density-enriched outer surfaces of nanotubes with the anionic chlorine in
183 RuCl_3 or the anionic oxygen in RuO_2 , have less influence on the reducibility of ruthenium
184 species.^{15,23} Previous literatures also reported that ruthenium species inside CNT channel are
185 easier to reduce compared to the outside ones.²³
186

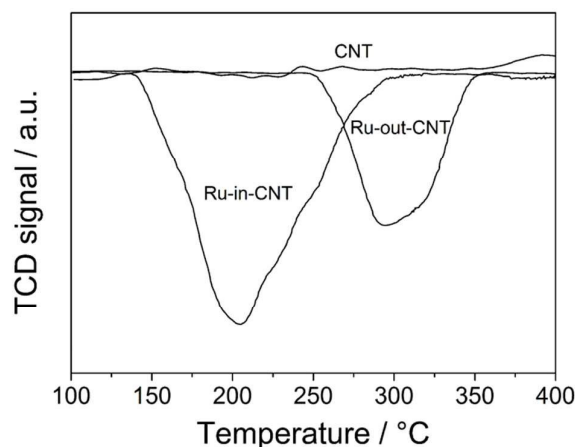


187
188 **Fig. 3** H_2 -TPR profiles of the support CNT (a), and the fresh catalysts of (b) Ru-in-CNT and (c) Ru-out-CNT.

189
190 TPD experiments were carried out to illustrate the adsorption property of the fresh catalysts
191 Ru-in-CNT and Ru-out-CNT towards hydrogen chloride and acetylene. As shown in Fig. 4, the
192 support CNT shows no obvious adsorption of hydrogen chloride, while the catalysts Ru-in-CNT
193 and Ru-out-CNT show the obvious desorption peak of hydrogen chloride in the range of 205 ~
194 295 °C, and the desorption area of hydrogen chloride from Ru-in-CNT is significantly larger

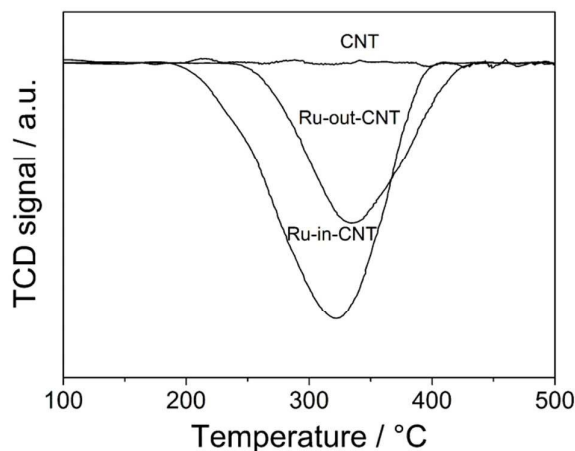
195 than that from Ru-out-CNT. For another reactant acetylene, as shown in Fig. 5, the catalysts
196 Ru-in-CNT and Ru-out-CNT show the desorption peak of acetylene in the range of 190 ~ 430 °C,
197 and the desorption area of acetylene from Ru-in-CNT is also larger than that from Ru-out-CNT.
198 It is indicated that the catalyst Ru-in-CNT shows enhanced adsorption of both hydrogen chloride
199 and acetylene, suggesting that the confinement within channels of CNT results in more active
200 metallic sites in Ru-in-CNT and consequently promotes higher catalytic activities for the
201 acetylene hydrochlorination reaction, as mentioned in the section 3.2.

202



203

204 **Fig. 4** HCl-TPD profiles of the support CNT (a), and the fresh catalysts of (b) Ru-in-CNT and (c) Ru-out-CNT.



205

206 **Fig. 5** C₂H₂-TPD profiles of the support CNT (a), and the fresh catalysts of (b) Ru-in-CNT and (c)
207 Ru-out-CNT.

208

209 3.1.4 Ruthenium species associated with deposition sites on CNTs

210 Ru 3p_{3/2} XPS spectra of the fresh catalysts Ru-in-CNT and Ru-out-CNT were deconvoluted
 211 into five peaks at 461.7 eV, 462.7 eV, 463.5 eV, 464.8 eV and 466.2 eV (Fig. S3), corresponding
 212 to the species of metallic Ru, Ru/RuO_y, RuCl₃, RuO₂ and RuO_x, respectively.³⁴⁻³⁷ The relative
 213 content and binding energy of all the five Ru species are listed in Table 2. It is indicated that the
 214 dominant species of Ru-in-CNT are RuO₂ (46.6 %) followed by Ru/RuO_y (24.4 %), RuO_x
 215 (14.5 %), RuCl₃ (10.9 %) and metallic Ru (3.6 %), while the major species of Ru-out-CNT
 216 include metallic Ru (28.1 %), RuO₂ (25.9 %) and RuCl₃ (24.5 %). It is well known that the
 217 interior surface of CNT is electron-deficient whereas the exterior surface is
 218 electron-enriched.^{12,13,16} Thus, the ruthenium inside the channel of CNT works like the donor of
 219 electrons so that the dominant species are high-valence oxidation states, while the ruthenium
 220 deposited on the outer surface of CNT can easily accept electrons from CNT so as to generate
 221 more amount of metallic Ru. It is illustrated that the deposition site of ruthenium precursor plays
 222 an important role in affecting the distribution of valence states of ruthenium species in catalysts.

223

224 **Table 2** The binding energy (eV) and relative content (Area %) of ruthenium species in the fresh catalysts
 225 Ru-in-CNT and Ru-out-CNT.

Catalysts	Ru ⁰ eV(Area %)	Ru/RuO _y eV(Area %)	RuCl ₃ eV(Area %)	RuO ₂ eV(Area %)	RuO _x eV(Area %)
Ru-in-CNT	461.7(3.6)	462.7(24.4)	463.5(10.9)	464.9(46.6)	466.2(14.5)
Ru-out-CNT	461.2(28.1)	462.3(13.0)	463.1(24.5)	464.8(25.9)	466.0(8.5)

226

227 **3.2 Catalytic performance for acetylene hydrochlorination**

228 The catalytic activity of different carbon nanotube supports was measured under the
229 conditions of 170 °C and GHSV (C₂H₂) of 90 h⁻¹, and shown in Fig S4. It is indicated that the
230 initial acetylene conversion is as low as 2.5 % over raw-CNT, CNT, in-CNT and out-CNT and
231 decreases quickly. Fig. 6a and 6b show the catalytic performance of Ru-in-CNT and
232 Ru-out-CNT for acetylene hydrochlorination. Over the catalyst Ru-out-CNT, the initial acetylene
233 conversion is 45.2 % and decreases to 37.2 % after 10 h reaction. Whereas over Ru-in-CNT, the
234 initial acetylene conversion is 99.1 % and decreases to 95.0 % after 10 h, and the selectivity to
235 VCM maintains 99.9 %.

236 Adopting another carbon nanotube support CNT-M with the inner diameter of 5-10 nm, the
237 catalytic performance of Ru-in-CNT-M and Ru-out-CNT-M is shown in Fig. 6c and 6d, under the
238 same reaction conditions. Over Ru-out-CNT-M catalyst, the acetylene conversion decreases from
239 42.8 % to 24.9 % within 10 h reaction, whereas the selectivity to VCM increases somewhat from
240 the initial 98.8 % to 99.8 % at 10 h. Over Ru-in-CNT-M catalyst, the acetylene conversion
241 decreases from 91.4 % to 80.1 % within 10 h whereas the VCM selectivity maintains at 99.9 %.

242 In order to disclose the reason that the catalytic performance of Ru catalysts is dependent on
243 the deposition sites of ruthenium precursors on the supports, TEM images and the particle size
244 distributions of the fresh catalysts Ru-in-CNT-M and Ru-out-CNT-M were analyzed. As shown
245 in Fig. S5, for the fresh catalyst Ru-in-CNT-M, Ru nanoparticles inside the channel of nanotubes
246 have an average size about 1.66 nm. The percentage of Ru nanoparticles deposited inside the
247 channel of CNT-M was calculated by counting the locations of 200 Ru particles on at least 100
248 nanotubes. It is indicated that over ninety percent of ruthenium particles have been introduced
249 into the inner cavity of nanotubes. For the fresh catalyst Ru-out-CNT-M, Ru nanoparticles are

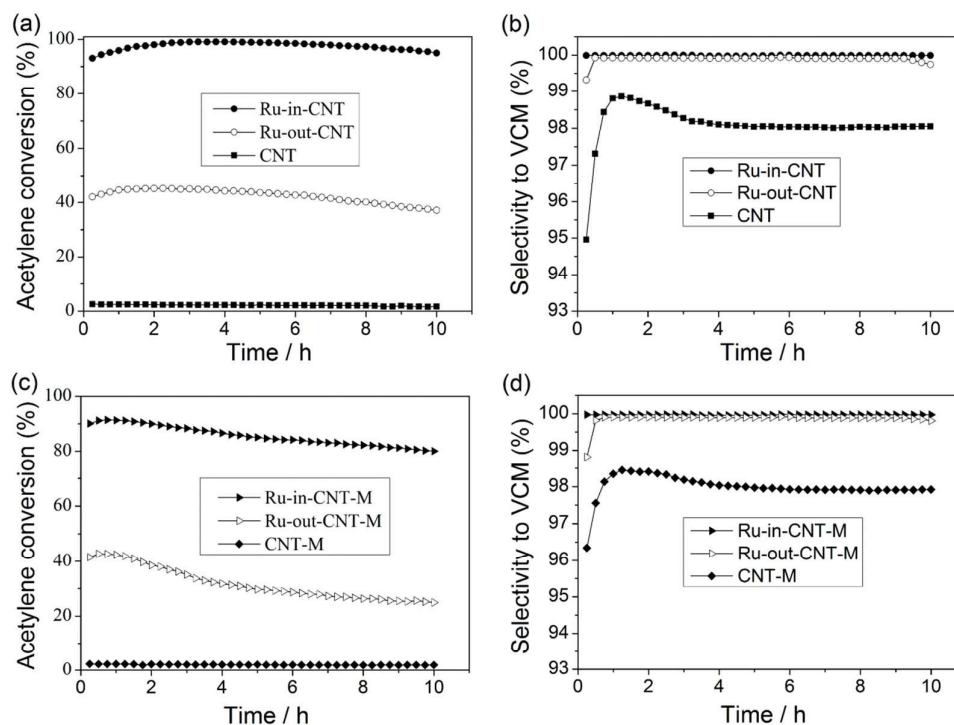
250 distributed exclusively on the exterior surface of CNT-M with the average size about 2.27 nm.
251 Table S1 lists the surface area and the pore diameter of the support CNT-M and the supported Ru
252 catalysts. After deposition of ruthenium precursors, the surface area of Ru-in-CNT-M decreases
253 a little more than that of Ru-out-CNT-M, which is similar with those supported on CNT.

254 Further through the deconvolution of Ru 3p_{3/2} XPS spectra of the fresh catalysts
255 Ru-in-CNT-M and Ru-out-CNT-M, the relative content and binding energy of Ru species are
256 compared with those supported on CNT. As shown in Fig. S5, there are five peaks at 461.5 eV,
257 462.7 eV, 463.1 eV, 464.7 eV and 466.0 eV, due to the species of metallic Ru, Ru/RuO_y, RuCl₃,
258 RuO₂ and RuO_x, respectively. The relative content and binding energy of all the five Ru species
259 are listed in Table S2. It is indicated that the major species of Ru-in-CNT-M included RuO₂
260 (35.5 %), Ru/RuO_y (24.7 %), RuCl₃ (22.5 %), metallic Ru (14.3 %) and RuO_x (3.0 %), while the
261 dominant species of Ru-out-CNT-M are RuCl₃ (70.1 %) followed by metallic Ru (13.7 %), RuO₂
262 (10.4 %), Ru/RuO_y (3.5 %) and RuO_x (2.3 %). It is indicated that RuO₂ is the most abundant
263 species in both Ru-in-CNT and Ru-in-CNT-M. Previous work suggests that RuO₂ is the
264 important active ingredient for the acetylene hydrochlorination.¹⁰ Therefore, Ruthenium catalysts
265 deposited in the channel of CNT with the inner diameter of 3-7 nm exhibit the optimal catalytic
266 performance for acetylene hydrochlorination, which is associated with the abundance of RuO₂.

267 Previous literature reported that phenol, ether, and carbonyl groups on activated carbon
268 surface are important to improve the catalytic activity of Au-based catalysts.³⁸ It is reasonable to
269 consider that the carbon nanotubes experienced the treatment of nitric acid, acetone, or xylene
270 possess different functional groups on the surfaces, which are probably associated with the
271 catalytic performance of Ru-based catalysts. The effects of surface functional groups on

272 Ru-based catalysts will be studied in the future work.

273



274

275 **Fig. 6** Catalytic performances of Ru-based catalysts deposited inside the channel of the support CNT (a, b) and
276 CNT-M (c, d), and those deposited in the outer surface of individual support. Reaction conditions: temperature
277 (T) = 170 °C; C_2H_2 gas hourly space velocity (GHSV) = 90 h^{-1} ; feed volume ratio $V_{HCl}/V_{C_2H_2}$ = 1.1.

278

279 4 Conclusions

280 Ru-based catalysts with different deposition sites were prepared using multiwalled carbon
281 nanotubes as the support and $RuCl_3$ as the precursor, in order to study the effects of multiwalled
282 carbon nanotubes on the catalytic performance of Ru catalysts for acetylene hydrochlorination.
283 Characterized by BET, TEM, XRD, TPR, TPD and XPS, it is suggested that Ru catalysts
284 deposited inside the CNTs channels exhibit the optimal catalytic activity, with the acetylene
285 conversion of 95.0 % and the selectivity to VCM of 99.9 % after 10 h on stream under the

286 conditions of 170 °C and GHSV (C₂H₂) of 90 h⁻¹. It is indicated that confinement inside CNTs
287 can greatly influence the amount of ruthenium species involved in Ru⁰, Ru/RuO_y, RuCl₃, RuO₂
288 and RuO_x in the preparation process of Ru-in-CNT catalyst, and enhance the adsorption of
289 hydrogen chloride and acetylene over the catalyst. The acetylene conversion over these catalysts
290 at 170 °C and 10 h decreases in the order of: Ru-in-CNT (95.0 %) > Ru-in-CNT-M (80.1 %) >
291 Ru-out-CNT (37.2 %) > Ru-out-CNT-M (24.9 %). The excellent catalytic performance of
292 Ru-in-CNT catalyst illustrates that the CNTs with the inner diameter about 3-7 nm can
293 functionalize as an efficient support for Ru-based catalysts to enhance the acetylene
294 hydrochlorination reaction.

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