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1           **Determination of the attractive force, adhesive force, adhesion energy and**  
2           **Hamaker constant of soot particles generated from a premixed**  
3           **methane/oxygen flame by AFM**

4           **Ye Liu<sup>a</sup>, Chonglin Song<sup>a,\*</sup>, Gang Lv<sup>a</sup>, Nan Chen<sup>a</sup>, Hua Zhou<sup>b</sup>, Xiaojun Jing<sup>b</sup>**

5           <sup>a</sup> State Key Laboratory of Engines, Tianjin University, Tianjin 300072, China

6           <sup>b</sup> China Automotive Technology & Research Center, Tianjin 300300, China

7   **Abstract:** Atomic force microscopy (AFM) was used to characterize the attractive force, adhesive  
8 force and adhesion energy between an AFM probe tip and nanometric soot particle generated by a  
9 premixed methane/oxygen flame. Different attractive force distributions were found when increasing  
10 the height above burner (HAB), with forces ranging from 1.1–3.5 nN. As the HAB was increased,  
11 the average attractive force initially increased, briefly decreased, and then underwent a gradual  
12 increase, with a maximum of 2.54 nN observed at HAB = 25 mm. The mean adhesive force was  
13 6.5–7.5 times greater than the mean attractive force at the same HAB, and values were in the range  
14 of 13.5–24.5 nN. The adhesion energy was in the range of  $2.0\text{--}5.6 \times 10^{-17}$  J. The variations observed  
15 in the average adhesion energy with increasing HAB were different from those of the average  
16 adhesion force, implying that the stretched length of soot particles is an important factor affecting the  
17 average adhesion energy. The Hamaker constants of the soot particles generated at different HABs  
18 were determined from AFM force-separation curves. The average Hamaker constant exhibited a clear  
19 correlation with the graphitization degree of soot particles as obtained from Raman spectroscopy.

20 **Keywords:** Soot particle; Atomic force microscopy; Attractive force; Adhesive force; Adhesion  
21 energy; Hamaker constant

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\* Corresponding author. Tel.: +86-22-27406840-8020; fax: +86-22-27403750  
Email address: [songchonglin@tju.edu.cn](mailto:songchonglin@tju.edu.cn) (C.-L. Song)

## 1 **1. Introduction**

2 Soot particles are an important pollutant resulting from combustion. Due to their adverse impact  
3 on the environment and human health [1,2], soot particles continue to receive much attention in the  
4 field of combustion research. Theoretically, soot formation and evolution involves six well-known  
5 processes, all of which occur within the span of a few milliseconds: pyrolysis, nucleation,  
6 coagulation, surface growth, agglomeration, and oxidation [3]. It is widely accepted that particle  
7 coagulation is a significant step leading to soot formation. This phenomenon occurs when one  
8 particle collides with another at low speed, following which the particles adhere. Conversely, thermal  
9 rebound takes place when the particle velocity exceeds a critical value such that the particles fail to  
10 coagulate [4–6]. In the case of small soot particles, the thermal rebound effect can cause the  
11 coagulation efficiency to be less than unity. This is because the kinetic energy of particles  
12 undergoing Brownian motion may be greater than the adhesion energy resulting from Van der Waals  
13 forces, causing the particles to rebound after collision [4,5,7]. In general, the soot coagulation rate  
14 depends on various factors, such as temperature, and particle size and surface properties [4,5]. Thus,  
15 a study of the surface properties of soot particles is helpful in understanding the particle coagulation  
16 mechanism.

17 Investigations of soot particle surface properties to date have examined the effects of soot  
18 nanostructure, primary particle size, surface area, sphericity ratio and surface functional groups  
19 [8–14], while few have assessed the force properties of soot particles. Based on the above, the  
20 present work employed atomic force microscopy (AFM) to determine the attractive force, adhesive  
21 force and adhesion energy of soot particles generated from a premixed methane/oxygen flame.

22 When measuring the forces between soot particles by AFM, a particle is normally secured to the

1 probe tip and then brought into contact with another particle on a substrate. However, securing a  
2 nano-sized soot particle to the probe tip is extremely difficult and, once this is achieved, precisely  
3 positioning the probe tip at the test soot particle is also arduous. For this reason, we performed direct  
4 measurements between the probe tip and various soot particles without first securing a particle to the  
5 probe tip. The soot particles generated from a premixed methane/oxygen flame were collected on  
6 mica substrates using a thermophoretic sampling system. The attractive force, adhesive force and  
7 adhesion energy between these soot particles and the bare probe tip were obtained at different heights  
8 above burner (HAB) values. In addition, the Hamaker constants of the soot particles were determined  
9 based on the curve of the attractive force measured by AFM, and the possibility of a correlation  
10 between the Hamaker constant and the degree of soot graphitization was examined.

## 11 **2. Materials and methods**

### 12 *2.1. Burner and sampling system*

13 A laminar premixed flame was generated at atmospheric pressure over a 25 mm diameter cooled  
14 water sintered bronze McKenna burner (Holthuis & Associates, Sebastopol, USA). The central tube  
15 of the burner was used to supply a mixture of methane and oxygen while the concentric porous ring  
16 was used to generate a N<sub>2</sub> shield (at a flow rate 30 L/min) that eliminated the interference of the  
17 surrounding air on the flame. Three independent mass-flow controllers, each with an accuracy of  
18  $\pm 0.02\%$ , were used to adjust the methane, oxygen and shielding gas flows. The fuel/air equivalence  
19 ratio in the flame was maintained at 2.4 and the cold gas velocity was kept constant at 6 cm/s. A  
20 precision lifting platform (BOCI, Beijing, China) with a positional accuracy of  $\pm 0.02$  mm was used  
21 to adjust the vertical height of the burner. A thermophoretic sampling system based on the  
22 thermophoresis principle was employed to sample the flame soot particles. This system incorporated

1 an advanced linear electric cylinder (FESTO, Germany) that allowed precise and rapid reciprocating  
2 motion, with an acceleration and speed of  $120 \text{ m/s}^2$  and  $3 \text{ m/s}$ , respectively. The piston rod was  
3 attached to self-closing tweezers (N5, Switzerland) to conveniently fix and detach the mica substrate  
4 [15]. A mica substrate with a diameter of  $9.9 \text{ mm}$  and a carbon supporting film with a diameter of  $3$   
5  $\text{mm}$  were clamped in the tweezers to obtain soot particles at HAB values of  $2, 5, 10, 15$  and  $25 \text{ mm}$ .  
6 In addition, Teflon filter was used to collect soot samples for Raman analysis using the probe  
7 sampling technique. A detailed description of the probe sampling technique has previously been  
8 reported in the literature [16]. A customized fast response R-type thermocouple (Pt/Pt-13% Rh with  
9 a junction bead diameter of  $150 \mu\text{m}$ ) affixed to the electric cylinder was used to measure the flame  
10 temperature. After sampling soot particles, the mica substrate and carbon supporting film were stored  
11 in a clean culture dish in preparation for the AFM and TEM measurements, and the soot samples on  
12 the Teflon filter were scraped to seal in glass bottles for Raman analysis.

## 13 *2.2. AFM measurements*

14 A silicon rectangular cantilever probe (ContAl, tip radius of  $10 \text{ nm}$ , BudgetSensors, Bulgaria)  
15 with an alumina reflex coating was employed in conjunction with an Agilent 5100 AFM instrument,  
16 operating at room temperature and  $15\%$  relative humidity. The cantilever spring constant of the  
17 probe ( $k_c$ ) was determined by the thermal noise method [17] to be  $0.3427 \text{ N m}^{-1}$ . The initial  
18 deflection of the probe was  $-1.0 \pm 0.05 \text{ V}$ , and the set point was  $0 \text{ V}$ . The topography of each soot  
19 particle deposited on the mica substrate was imaged in the contact mode to locate the particle. Based  
20 on the contact mode image, the defined position of the soot particle was selected for the subsequent  
21 force analysis (Fig. 1, as indicated by arrows). As the probe approached or retracted from a soot  
22 particle, the interactive force between the probe tip and soot particle caused a cantilever deflection,

1 leading to a shift in the angle of the reflected beam. This shift was detected by the photodiode,  
2 resulting in a voltage signal. The degree of cantilever deflection ( $d$ ) was calculated as  $d = \frac{V}{S}$ , where  
3  $V$  is the signal voltage and  $S$  is the photodetector sensitivity as determined based on calibration using  
4 freshly cleaved mica as a hard, non-deformable substrate [18]. The associated displacement of the  
5 piezoelectric crystal was recorded simultaneously, yielding cantilever deflection versus piezoelectric  
6 displacement data. These data were transformed into the force-piezoelectric displacement plot in Fig.  
7 2b based on Hooke's law,  $F=k_c \times d$ , where  $F$  is the interactive force. A force-separation (or force-tip  
8 displacement) plot was obtained from Fig. 2b using the scanning probe image processor (S.P.I.P.)  
9 software package, as shown in Fig. 2c. From this force-separation curve, we generated the attractive  
10 and adhesive forces between the probe tip and soot particle. For each HAB tested, more than 40  
11 particles were selected so as to ensure statistically significant data, and the probe was cleaned in  
12 anhydrous ethanol after each sample measurement [19]. Force measurements were repeated at least  
13 three times for each particle under the same conditions, and the results were then averaged. The error  
14 in the force measurement was determined to be less than 0.02 nN.

### 15 2.3. TEM and Raman scattering spectroscopy

16 Transmission electron microscopy (TEM, Philips Tecnai F20) with a point resolution of 0.248  
17 nm and operating at 200 kV was used to obtain 20,000 $\times$  images showing the soot morphology.  
18 Raman spectra have been recorded by a Renishaw 1000 Raman microscope system using an Ar ion  
19 excitation laser with a wavelength of 514.5 nm and 20 mW maximum laser power. Calibration was  
20 performed with a silicon wafer by utilizing the first-order phonon band of Si at 520  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . Spectra of  
21 soot samples deposited on quartz plates were taken over the range of 2000–900  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  with a 50  $\times$   
22 magnification objective. An exposure time of 60 s and 5% of the laser beam power were used to

1 avoid altering or burning the soot sample [20,21]. For each sample, the scanning area was 2  $\mu\text{m}$  in  
2 diameter and spectra were recorded at approximately 10 positions. The average of these data was  
3 subsequently computed, and an uncertainty of less than 5% was obtained.

### 4 **3. Results and discussion**

#### 5 *3.1. Attractive force*

6 The force curve measurements involved two procedures. For each soot sample, a topographical  
7 image of the soot particles deposited on the mica substrate was obtained in the contact mode over an  
8 area of  $1 \times 1 \mu\text{m}$  to locate the particle. Subsequently, force curve measurements were carried out for  
9 the selected particle. During the approach phase, the probe tip typically progressed from point A to B,  
10 and then underwent a so-called “jump-to-contact” from B to B', as shown in Fig. 2c. Jump-to-contact  
11 occurs when the force gradient of the interaction exceeds the cantilever spring constant [22] and this  
12 phenomenon was observed for each soot sample. The value of the attractive force ( $F_{at}$ ) between the  
13 probe tip and soot particle was subsequently calculated based on Hooke's law. In this study,  
14 attractive forces were determined for different amounts of soot deposited on the mica substrate at  
15 each HAB value by varying the residence time of the substrate in the flame. The measurement results  
16 clearly demonstrated that the attractive force is affected only by the properties of the soot particles  
17 rather than by the amount of samples collected.

18 Fig. 3 presents the  $F_{at}$  distributions at various HAB values, and demonstrates that the  
19 distributions changed along with the HAB. The  $F_{at}$  at HAB = 2 mm had a very narrow distribution,  
20 with values in the range of 1.1–2.2 nN, while the broadest distribution was observed at HAB = 15  
21 mm, with values in the range of 1.4–3.5 nN. Moreover, upon increasing the HAB from 2 to 5 mm,  
22 the  $F_{at}$  distribution moved toward higher values, with approximately 64% of  $F_{at}$  values above 1.8 nN

1 at HAB = 2 mm but 87% of  $F_{at}$  above this same level at HAB = 5 mm. However, as the HAB was  
2 further increased from 5 to 10 mm, the  $F_{at}$  distribution shifted toward lower values, with 78% of  $F_{at}$   
3 above 1.8 nN at HAB = 10 mm. Upon further increasing the HAB from 10 to 25 mm, the  $F_{at}$   
4 exhibited a somewhat broader distribution. This result is attributed to the mixture of nanoparticles  
5 and mature soot particles generated at higher HAB values [1,23], which possesses a relatively broad  
6 distribution of attractive forces.

7 The population-averaged attractive force values ( $\overline{F_{at}}$ ) are plotted as a function of HAB in Fig. 4.  
8 Here,  $\overline{F_{at}}$  is seen to increase with increases in the HAB value from 2 to 25 mm, other than a  $\overline{F_{at}}$   
9 decrease on going from HAB = 5 to 10 mm, with a maximum of 2.54 nN observed at HAB = 25 mm.  
10 Harris et al. [24] reported that the interactive forces between soot particles primarily result from Van  
11 der Waals forces, and these forces can cause an increase at collision rates, thereby promoting the  
12 coagulation of soot particles. In Fig. 1, the primary particle diameter in TEM images and equivalent  
13 diameter in AFM images were determined using ImageJ and S.P.I.P. software, respectively. For each  
14 sample, more than 150 particles were randomly chosen to determine the population-averaged values  
15 of primary particle diameters ( $d_p$ ) and equivalent diameter ( $d_e$ ). The  $d_p$  and  $d_e$  of soot particles at  
16 different HABs are presented in Table 1. Over the range of experimental flame positions, the  $d_p$   
17 values determined by TEM are lower relative to the  $d_e$  values determined by AFM. This phenomenon  
18 may be attributable to the fact that the partial substance of soot particles is volatilized under vacuum  
19 and electron beam conditions in a TEM system [25,26]. In addition, the particles obtained at HAB =  
20 2 and 5 mm are polydisperse, single and transparent, while at HAB = 10 mm, single transparent  
21 particles and several chain-like particles coexist. Correspondingly, the  $\overline{F_{at}}$  presents a rise-decay  
22 trend over the HAB range from 2 to 10 mm. These phenomena suggest that besides attractive force



1 there are other factors affecting the coagulation of soot particles.

### 2 3.2. Adhesive force

3 During the withdrawal phase, the probe tip typically progresses from C to D and then undergoes  
4 a “jump-off-contact” from D to D' (Fig. 2c). Jump-off-contact occurs when the cantilever elastic  
5 constant is larger than the gradient of the tip-sample adhesive force [22]. The adhesive force ( $F_{ad}$ )  
6 between the probe tip and soot particle can be determined from the cantilever deflection during this  
7 jump-off-contact.

8 Fig. 5 presents the  $F_{ad}$  distributions at different HABs. Similar to the trend seen in the  $F_{at}$  data in  
9 Fig. 3, the  $F_{ad}$  values also exhibit different distributions with increasing HAB values. At HAB = 10  
10 mm, a narrow  $F_{ad}$  distribution over the range of 15.5–18.0 nN is observed, with a peak at  
11 approximately 17 nN, while the particles generated at HAB = 15 mm have a broadened  $F_{ad}$   
12 distribution over the range of 14–24.5 nN. For all HABs, the  $F_{ad}$  varies within 13.5–24.5 nN. As the  
13 HAB increases from 2 to 25 mm, the  $F_{ad}$  distribution trends towards higher force values, with about  
14 55% of  $F_{ad}$  values above 15.0 nN at HAB = 2 mm, 55% of  $F_{ad}$  above 15.5 nN at HAB = 5 mm, 60%  
15 of  $F_{ad}$  above 16.5 nN at HAB = 10 mm, 70% of  $F_{ad}$  above 18.0 nN at HAB = 15 mm and 83% of  $F_{ad}$   
16 above 19.5 nN at HAB = 25 mm. These data demonstrate that  $F_{ad}$  gradually increases as the soot  
17 particles become more mature.

18 The population-averaged adhesive force values ( $\overline{F_{ad}}$ ) are plotted as a function of HAB in Fig. 6.  
19 It is evident that  $\overline{F_{ad}}$  gradually increases, from 15.2 to 20.4 nN, with increases in the HAB from 2  
20 to 25 mm. In addition, the  $\overline{F_{ad}}$  value is 6.5–7.5 times larger than the  $\overline{F_{at}}$  value at the identical  
21 HAB. The larger  $\overline{F_{ad}}$  values may be attributable to three factors: (1) some adhesive bonds are  
22 formed during contact between particles [27], (2) the buckling and wrapping of the soot particle

1 around the tip during contact increases the contact area and thus increases  $F_{ad}$  [28], and (3)  
 2 force-separation curve hysteresis contributions make  $F_{ad} > F_{at}$ , even without bonding or deformation  
 3 [29].

### 4 3.3. Adhesion energy

5 For the probe tip to pull away from the soot particle, the adhesion energy (or the work  
 6 associated with the adhesive force) must be overcome. The adhesion energy ( $W_{ad}$ ) can be calculated  
 7 by integrating the shaded area in Fig. 2c, according to the equation

$$8 \quad W_{ad} = \int_{z_1}^{z_0} f_{ad} dz, \quad (1)$$

9 where  $f_{ad}$  is the force between the probe tip and soot particle during the withdrawal process,  $Z_l$  is the  
 10 stretched length at  $f_{ad} = 0$ , and  $Z_0$  is the stretched length at  $f_{ad} = F_{ad}$ .

11 The values of  $W_{ad}$  at different HABs calculated according to Eq. (1) are shown in Fig. 7. At  
 12 HAB = 2, 5 and 10 mm, the  $W_{ad}$  values are primarily distributed over the range of  $2.0\text{--}4.4 \times 10^{-17}$  J,  
 13 with greater than 81% of  $W_{ad}$  values above  $2.5 \times 10^{-17}$  J. At HAB = 15 mm,  $W_{ad}$  is broadly distributed  
 14 over the range of  $2.7\text{--}5.5 \times 10^{-17}$  J. Upon increasing the HAB to 25 mm, the  $W_{ad}$  distribution  
 15 obviously trends toward higher energies, with more than 84% of  $W_{ad}$  values above  $4.0 \times 10^{-17}$  J.

16 Fig. 8 shows the population-averaged adhesion energy values ( $\overline{W_{ad}}$ ) as a function of HAB.  
 17 Upon increasing the HAB from 2 to 5 mm,  $\overline{W_{ad}}$  decreases from  $3.15 \times 10^{-17}$  to  $2.96 \times 10^{-17}$  J. With  
 18 further increases in the HAB,  $\overline{W_{ad}}$  increases to  $4.56 \times 10^{-17}$  J at HAB = 25 mm. A close inspection  
 19 of Figs. 6 and 8 shows that the trends exhibited by the  $\overline{F_{ad}}$  and  $\overline{W_{ad}}$  data are different, suggesting  
 20 that the stretched length of the soot particles is also an important factor affecting  $\overline{W_{ad}}$ . To support  
 21 this assertion, the average stretched length is also plotted in Fig. 8. It is evident that the stretched  
 22 length closely correlates with  $\overline{W_{ad}}$  because both plots show similar trends as the HAB increases.

1        Although the adhesion energy values determined in this work are those between a soot particle  
2 and the tip rather than between two soot particles, these data can be used to qualitatively evaluate the  
3 energy barrier required to prevent particles escaping from one another. In the premixed flame, the  
4 motion of soot particle is dominated by Brownian motion, especially for small particles at higher  
5 temperatures [5]. If the kinetic energy of a particle originating from Brownian motion exceeds the  
6 energy barrier, the particle will bounce off after collision and fail to coagulate. Conversely, if the  
7 kinetic energy is lower than the energy barrier, the particles will stick together, resulting in  
8 coagulation [6]. In the present study, increasing the HAB from 2 to 5 mm decreased the adhesion  
9 energy, indicating a decrease in the energy barrier. However, in addition to the reduction in the  
10 primary particle diameter, the combustion temperature increased from 1633 K at HAB = 2 mm to  
11 1673 K at HAB = 5 mm (Fig. 1), which can be attributed to the oxidation reaction being dominant.  
12 This combination of increased combustion temperature and reduced primary particle diameter would  
13 be expected to intensify the Brownian motion of the soot particles, thus lowering the coagulation rate.  
14 Fig. 1 shows that many isolated soot particles were present at HAB = 5 mm, which supports this  
15 theory. With further increases in the HAB from 5 to 25 mm, the increase in adhesion energy and  
16 primary particle diameter and the decrease in the combustion temperature should improve soot  
17 coagulation, and Fig. 1 demonstrates that more aggregate particles are formed as the HAB increases.

#### 18 *3.4. Hamaker constant*

19        The Hamaker constant is a force constant describing the van der Waals forces between two  
20 particles or between a particle and a substrate. The attractive force primarily consists of Van der  
21 Waals forces ( $F_{vdW}$ ) along with capillary and electrostatic forces [22]. In the present work, the  
22 electrostatic and capillary forces can be considered negligible because the interactions were

1 determined at minimal separation distances ( $< 30$  nm) during the approach phase in a dry  
 2 environment (relative humidity  $< 15\%$ ) [30,31]. Consequently, it is assumed that the  $F_{vdW}$  is  
 3 approximately equal to the  $F_{at}$  acting between the probe tip and the soot particle during the approach  
 4 phase [32]. The Hamaker constant is obtained from the curve of the attractive force measured by  
 5 AFM as the cantilever approaches the soot sample surface, with the expression for  $F_{vdW}$  based on the  
 6 Derjaguin approximation [33,34] being

$$7 \quad F_{vdW} \approx F_{at} = -\frac{A \times r_{tip}}{6H^2}, \quad (2)$$

8 where  $A$ ,  $r_{tip}$  and  $H$  are the Hamaker constant for the tip-particle system, the tip radius of curvature  
 9 ( $r_{tip}=10$  nm) and the tip-particle separation obtained from force-separation curves, respectively. The  
 10 Hamaker constant for a single soot particle,  $A_p$ , can be calculated as [35]

$$11 \quad A_p = \frac{A^2}{A_{tip}} = \frac{\left( \frac{6H^2 \cdot F_{at}}{r_{tip}} \right)^2}{A_{tip}}, \quad (3)$$

12 where  $A_{tip}$  is the Hamaker constant of silicon,  $1.37 \times 10^{-19}$  J [36].

13 According to the method suggested by De Falco et al. [31], a freshly cleaved mica substrate was  
 14 employed as a reference to verify the measurements, and the resulting Hamaker constant was  $0.97 \pm$   
 15  $0.03 \times 10^{-19}$  J. This obtained value agrees well with the Hamaker constant of mica substrate reported  
 16 in the literatures [31], which are of the order of  $0.90 \pm 0.03 \times 10^{-19}$  J. The method above was applied  
 17 to the force-separation curves for each particle assessed, and the average Hamaker constants ( $\overline{A_p}$ ) for  
 18 soot samples acquired at different HABs were calculated. Fig. 9 shows that the  $\overline{A_p}$  values were in the  
 19 range of  $1.98 \times 10^{-19}$  to  $2.58 \times 10^{-19}$  J. To date, there have been only a limited number of studies that  
 20 have determined the Hamaker constants of soot particles. De Falco et al. [31] calculated the Hamaker  
 21 constant of the soot particles produced in fuel-rich ethylene/air laminar premixed flames with

1 different equivalent ratios to be in the range of  $0.95 \times 10^{-19}$  to  $3.5 \times 10^{-19}$  J. The Hamaker constant  
2 and graphitization degree both exhibited an increasing trend with increasing flame equivalent ratios.  
3 Lee et al. [37] reported that the Hamaker constant for a highly ordered graphite sample was on the  
4 order of  $4.7 \pm 0.3 \times 10^{-19}$  J. They concluded that the Hamaker constant of the highly ordered graphite  
5 sample represented an upper limit for a perfect graphitized structure and could be considered as a  
6 reference during the analysis of mature soot samples. Interestingly, although the Hamaker constants  
7 obtained in this study were different from those reported by De Falco et al. [31] and Lee et al. [37],  
8 they have the same order of magnitude. This difference is likely due to variations in the origins and  
9 synthesis conditions of the soot particles, both of which have important effects on the  
10 physico-chemical properties of the particles [9].

11 To probe the correlation between the Hamaker constant and the graphitization degree, Raman  
12 scattering spectroscopy was used to characterize the graphitization degree of the soot particles. In  
13 Raman spectra, the G peak is related to a C–C stretching motion along the longitudinal axis of the  
14 graphitic plane, while the D peak originates from the breakdown of the selection rules for graphene  
15 atoms in the breathing vibrational mode, with an intensity that depends on the level of disorder of the  
16 graphitic structure [38]. The D to G peak area ratio ( $I_D/I_G$ ) is directly related to the size and defects in  
17 the basal plane of the graphene layers and is frequently used to estimate the graphitization degree of  
18 soot [38,39]. That is, a low value of  $I_D/I_G$  is representative of a high graphitization degree. Figs. 9  
19 and 10 demonstrate that there was a positive correlation between the Hamaker constant and the  
20 graphitization degree of the soot particles. The particles generated at HAB = 2 mm had much  
21 lower  $\overline{A_p}$  values and lower graphitization degree than those acquired at HAB = 5 mm. As the HAB  
22 was increased further, from 5 to 10 mm, the  $\overline{A_p}$  and graphitization degree both decreased. Over the

1 HAB range of 10–25 mm, the increase in  $\overline{A}_p$  coincided with an increase in the graphitization degree.  
2 Similar findings were reported by De Falco et al. [31], who determined that an increase in the  
3 Hamaker constant accompanied a continuous increase in the graphitization degree of soot particles  
4 associated with increasing the size of the aromatic domains and/or the three-dimensional internal  
5 ordering.

#### 6 **4. Conclusions**

7 The attractive force, adhesive force, and adhesion energy between soot particles and the probe  
8 tip were investigated by AFM. Different attractive and adhesive force distributions were observed  
9 with an increase in the HAB. At a low HAB value of 2 mm, the attractive force showed a narrow  
10 distribution, while a broader distribution was evident at a moderate HAB of 15 mm. The average  
11 attractive force first increased then briefly dropped before undergoing a gradual increase as the HAB  
12 increased, with a maximum of 2.54 nN at HAB = 25 mm. A narrow adhesive force distribution was  
13 observed at a HAB of 10 mm, while a broad distribution was found at a HAB of 15 mm. The average  
14 adhesive force gradually increased with increasing HAB values, remaining in the range of 15.2–20.4  
15 nN. The adhesion energy values were within the range of  $2.0\text{--}5.6 \times 10^{-17}$  J for all HABs investigated.  
16 The stretched length of soot particles is an important factor affecting the average adhesion energy,  
17 because the characteristic shape of average adhesion forces is different from that of average adhesion  
18 energy as the HAB increased.

19 Assuming that van der Waals forces primarily contribute to the attractive force, the attractive  
20 force values determined experimentally were used to calculate the Hamaker constants for the soot  
21 particles. As the HAB value was raised, the average Hamaker constant decreased after an initial  
22 increase and then slowly increased again. A positive correlation was identified between the average

1 Hamaker constant and the graphitization degree obtained from Raman spectroscopy.

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1 **Figure captions**

2 Fig. 1. TEM (left) and AFM (right) images of soot particles acquired at different HAB values.

3 Fig. 2. (a) Schematic illustration of the force measurement apparatus, (b) the interactive force  
4 between the soot particle and probe tip as a function of the piezoelectric crystal position, and (c) the  
5 interactive force between the soot particle and probe tip as a function of separation.

6 Fig. 3. Distributions of the attractive force ( $F_{at}$ ) between soot particles and probe tip at various HAB  
7 values.

8 Fig. 4. Average attractive force ( $\overline{F_{at}}$ ) between soot particles and probe tip as a function of the HAB.  
9 The error bars indicate the standard error.

10 Fig. 5. Distributions of the adhesive force ( $F_{ad}$ ) between soot particles and probe tip at various HAB  
11 values.

12 Fig. 6. Average adhesive force ( $\overline{F_{ad}}$ ) between soot particles and probe tip as a function of the HAB.  
13 The error bars indicate the standard error.

14 Fig. 7. Distributions of the adhesion energy ( $W_{ad}$ ) between soot particles and probe tip at various  
15 HAB values.

16 Fig. 8. Average adhesion energy ( $\overline{W_{ad}}$ ) between soot particles and probe tip, and the stretched length  
17 of soot particles, as functions of the HAB. The error bars indicate the standard error.

18 Fig. 9. Average Hamaker constant ( $\overline{A_p}$ ) for soot particles as a function of the HAB. The error bars  
19 indicate the standard error.

20 Fig. 10.  $I_D/I_G$  ratio as a function of the HAB. The error bars indicate the standard error.