

Combustion and Flame

Oxidation kinetic of soot generated from ammonia-acetylene laminar diffusion flame --Manuscript Draft--

Manuscript Number:	CNF-D-25-01346R2
Article Type:	Full Length Article
Keywords:	Ammonia; Soot; Functional groups; oxidation; Reaction kinetics
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Declaration of interests

☒ The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

☐ The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

Oxidation kinetic of soot generated from ammonia-acetylene laminar diffusion flame

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Abstract

Co-combustion of ammonia with hydrocarbon fuels and its effect on soot emission characteristics have garnered interest. In this study, the oxidation kinetics of soot generated in a laminar co-flow acetylene diffusion flame were investigated under 30–800 °C temperature-programmed oxidation and isothermal oxidation at 500°C, 600°C, and 700°C using thermogravimetric analysis (TGA). The evolution of functional groups on soot surfaces and gaseous products were monitored by Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR) and thermogravimetric analysis coupled with infrared spectroscopy (TG-IR), respectively. Results indicate that the activation energy for soot oxidation increases with higher NH₃ substitution ratios (X_{NH_3}) and elevated temperatures. Isothermal oxidation tests also show that the oxidation rate constant increases with increasing X_{NH_3} . FTIR results show that increasing X_{NH_3} reduces aliphatic C–H groups and increases oxygenated groups on soot surfaces. The detected C–N bonds are attributed to dehydrogenation of aliphatic carbon atoms on polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) surfaces. TG-IR analysis revealed the C–N bonds in urethanes on soot surfaces may release as the gaseous C–N species during low-temperature (500 °C) oxidation of soot particles. Nevertheless, the higher-temperature facilitated the cleavage of C–N bonds, and then the generated NH₂ radicals react with oxygen radicals, leading to the formation of HNO on the soot surface.

Keywords: Ammonia; Soot; Functional groups; Oxidation; Reaction kinetics

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1 Novelty and significance statement

This work presents the first monitoring of the evolution of nitrogenated functional groups and gas products on the surface of soot with the progression of oxidation, sampled from C₂H₂/NH₃ flames. These results fill gaps in the understanding of the evolution of nitrogenated functional groups during soot oxidation and provide insights into nitrogen chemistry during this process, which is significant for reducing nitrogenated pollutant emissions.

1. Introduction

Ammonia (NH₃) is crucial for decarbonization initiatives, as its combustion does not release CO₂ [1, 2]. Nonetheless, the use of NH₃ has its drawbacks: low combustion stability [3], high ignition temperature [4] and low burning velocity [5]. An attractive way to overcome those shortcomings is to co-burn NH₃ with hydrocarbon [6, 7]. In this regard, Han et al. [5]

showed that the maximum burning velocity could be enhanced by 340% when NH₃ is co-burned with CH₄ at substitution ratio of 0.4. Additionally, studies have reported significantly decreased combustion temperatures and enhanced flame stability when hydrocarbon fuels were mixed with NH₃ [8, 9].

In addition to the aforementioned benefits, another advantage of NH₃ co-combustion with hydrocarbons is the suppression of soot formation [10, 11]. Numerous studies have indicated that incorporating NH₃ into hydrocarbons during combustion significantly reduces the propensity for soot formation, given an equivalent carbon input [12, 13]. Bennett et al. [12] found that a 1% increase in the NH₃ mixing ratio resulted in a 4–6% decrease in soot volume fraction (SVF) within C₂H₄ flames. Nitrogenated hydrocarbon species might be responsible for SVF reduction. Chu et al. [11] also found the reduction in SVF and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) content with the increase of ammonia ratio for the ammonia-

1 hydrocarbon blended fuel, whether in laminar or
2 turbulent flames. Montgomery et al. [14] and Liu et al.
3 [15] pointed out that a large number of hydrocarbons
4 were consumed by nitrogenated species to form
5 cyanide (CN) species, which would also result in a
6 lower loading on soot. Therefore, the co-combustion
7 of NH_3 with hydrocarbons reduces soot emissions
8 through the inhibition of soot formation.

9 Although the inhibition of soot formation can
10 effectively reduce soot emissions, soot oxidation is
11 also an important factor in this reduction [16]. Soot
12 oxidation kinetics is one of the essential factors in the
13 soot oxidation mechanism. Soot oxidation kinetic is
14 determined by a complex interplay of factors such as
15 temperature [17], oxidation degree [18], nanostruc-
16 ture [19] and surface chemistry [20]. A disordered
17 nanostructure, coupled with elevated temperatures, is
18 inferred to expedite the soot oxidation kinetics [19,
19 21]. Several studies in the literature indicate that the
20 concentration of oxygenated functional groups will
21 convolve with soot nanostructure [22]. A higher
22 abundance of oxygenated groups leads to soot
23 nanostructures with more exposed edge-site carbon
24 atoms, which are more readily oxidized [23, 24]. Due
25 to the increasing popularity of alternative fuels,
26 several researchers have investigated the impacts of
27 fuel formulation on soot characteristics. Song [25]
28 found that soot from soybean-derived biodiesel—an
29 intrinsically oxygen-rich fuel—is five times more
30 reactive than soot from Fischer-Tropsch diesel fuel.
31 The authors suggested that the abundance of surface
32 oxygenated functionalities is a critical factor influenc-
33 ing the oxidation rate. Vander Wal and Tomasek [26]
34 showed that the soot particles generated by benzene,
35 ethanol and acetylene have different nano-structural
36 order and oxidation rate.

37 Recently, the effect of NH_3 application on soot
38 oxidation has also been extensively investigated by
39 assessing soot properties [27]. Zhang et al. [28]
40 discovered that the addition of NH_3 in an ethylene co-
41 flow diffusion flame increases the oxygen content on
42 the soot surface, thereby affecting the oxidation
43 process of soot. In addition, several studies [29, 30]
44 have shown that the addition of NH_3 results in the
45 introduction of nitrogenated functional groups to the
46 soot surface. Liu et al. [15] experimentally detected
47 C–N compounds such as HCN, $\text{H}_3\text{C}_2\text{N}$, and $\text{H}_3\text{C}_3\text{N}$
48 using Gas Chromatography–Mass Spectrometry
49 (GC–MS) in the 25 vol% NH_3 -mixed flame. To gain
50 further insight into the influence of nitrogenated
51 functional groups on the soot oxidation process,
52 Zhang et al. [30] analyzed the oxidation process of
53 soot sampled from $\text{NH}_3/\text{C}_2\text{H}_4$ diffusion flames,
54 pointing out that NH_3 consumed a large amount of
55 hydrogen free radicals through $\text{NH}_3 + \text{H} \rightarrow \text{NH}_2 + \text{H}_2$
56 and $\text{NH}_2 + \text{H} \rightarrow \text{NH} + \text{H}_2$, while forming C–N bonds
57 on the soot surface. Meanwhile, the reaction rates for
58 the formation of OH via $\text{H} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{OH} + \text{O}$ and $\text{H}_2 +$
59 $\text{O} \rightarrow \text{OH} + \text{H}$ are reduced, thereby affecting the
60 oxidation process of soot. Li et al. [31] performed a
61 study on the oxidation kinetics parameters of soot in

62 an NH_3 /toluene diffusion flame. They found that
63 under 450–700 °C programmed temperature
64 oxidation, the activation energy (E_a) for soot
65 oxidation decreased from 175 to 141 $\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$ as the
66 NH_3 substitution ratio increased from 0% to 20%.
67 They speculated that this phenomenon was attributed
68 to the addition of NH_3 , which induced HCN bonding
69 and C–N formation on the soot surface, thereby
70 inhibiting soot surface growth and affecting the
71 nanostructure and soot oxidation process. Thus far,
72 only limited studies have been carried out to
73 investigate the oxidation behavior of soot following
74 NH_3 addition [28, 31]. However, the complex
75 evolution of nitrogenated functional groups during the
76 soot oxidation process and the underlying
77 mechanisms of their impact on soot oxidation kinetics
78 remain unclear.

79 Thus, this study endeavors to investigate the effect
80 of NH_3 addition on the oxidation kinetics of soot and
81 the transformation of the surface functional groups,
82 elucidating the pathways of functional groups'
83 evolution during the oxidation process. The evolution
84 of reaction kinetic parameters, gaseous oxidation
85 products, and surface functional groups during the
86 oxidation of soot under pure oxygen conditions was
87 analyzed using Thermogravimetric analyzer (TGA),
88 Fourier transform infrared spectrometry (FTIR) and
89 TG-IR. The results assist in the design and
90 optimization of particulate filters for NH_3 -blended
91 diesel engines. Furthermore, the experimental results
92 on the surface functional groups and oxidation
93 reactivity of soot provide a valuable database for the
94 development of more advanced soot models.

95 96 2. Experimental system and research 97 methodology

98 2.1 Soot collection method and TGA analysis

99 In this study, particle samples were collected from
100 a C_2H_2 /air laminar co-flow diffusion flame on a
101 McKenna burner. The experimental schematic
102 diagram of soot sampling is shown in Fig. 1. To
103 investigate the effects of different NH_3 blending ratios
104 on the oxidation reactivity of soot particles, soot
105 samples were prepared through the combustion of a
106 mixture of NH_3 and C_2H_2 fuel under controlled
107 conditions. The detailed flow rate conditions are listed
108 in Table 1. The substitution ratio of NH_3 in the fuel,
109 X_{NH_3} , is defined as the mass fraction of NH_3 in the total
110 fuel flow. For convenience, the fuel at X_{NH_3} of 0, 0.2,
111 0.4, and 0.6 is marked as N_{00} , N_{20} , N_{40} , and N_{60} ,
112 respectively. The X_{NH_3} was limited to 0.6 to prevent
113 significant flame deformation and oscillation,
114 ensuring that samples could be collected under stable
115 and representative conditions. All gas flows were
116 regulated by mass flow controllers (AB-11, AiroBoost)
117 with an accuracy of 1% of the full scale.

118 The quartz plate was positioned near the tip of the
119 stabilized flame to collect soot particles [31, 32],
120 thereby minimizing disturbance to the flame structure.
121 To minimize the chance of soot oxidation during

1 collection in any case, samples should not be taken for
2 more than 5 minutes. The sampling methods used in
3 the present work are based on our previous works by
4 Jin et al [33]. Then, the quartz plate with deposited
5 soot particles was washed with AR anhydrous ethanol
6 (99.7%, Tianjin Beichen Fangzheng Reagent Factory),
7 and anhydrous ethanol solution with dissolved soot
8 particles can be obtained. The solution was centrif-
9 uged and dried for subsequent characterization.

10 In this study, a thermogravimetric analyzer (TGA2,
11 Mettler-Toledo, Switzerland) was employed to
12 evaluate the oxidation reactivity of soot samples
13 during the temperature-programmed (TPO) and
14 isothermal oxidation processes. Prior to the TPO test,
15 the particle samples were thermally treated from room
16 temperature to 400 °C with the heating rate of
17 15 °C/min, and then were preserved at 400 °C for 30
18 min. Subsequently, the samples were cooled down to
19 30 °C. After that, O₂ was introduced into the system
20 at a flow rate of 50 mL/min to initiate the oxidation
21 test. The whole TPO test was conducted from 30 °C

22 to 800 °C with the heating rate of 5 °C/min. The
23 thermogravimetric (TG) curve, representing the
24 mass loss during the oxidation process, and the
25 differential thermogravimetric curve (DTG) were
26 obtained according to the TPO test.

27

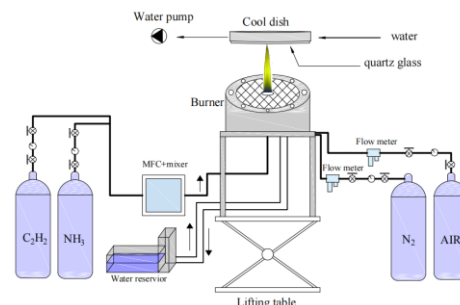


Fig. 1 Sampling device diagram

Table 1

Flow rate conditions for the present laminar diffusion flame.

case	C ₂ H ₂ flow rate/(mL·min ⁻¹)	NH ₃ flow rate/(mL·min ⁻¹)	N ₂ flow rate/(mL·min ⁻¹)	Air flow rate/(L·min ⁻¹)	X _{NH₃} /%
N ₀₀	200	0	300	20	0
N ₂₀	200	100	200	20	20
N ₄₀	200	200	100	20	40
N ₆₀	200	300	0	20	60

35 Furthermore, isothermal tests were conducted at
36 500, 600, and 700 °C to investigate the oxidation
37 kinetics, with the selected temperatures correspond-
38 ing to typical conditions during engine diesel
39 particulate filter (DPF) regeneration [34, 35].
40 Although the regeneration temperature of DPFs may
41 fall below 500 °C in some cases, as pointed out by
42 Ovaska [36], our preliminary isothermal results
43 indicated that soot oxidation at such temperatures was
44 moderate and exhibited a mass-loss profile similar to
45 that observed at 500 °C. Prior to the isothermal test,
46 the procedure for SOF removal was also performed
47 using the above-mentioned method. The soot
48 oxidation degree (η) is the ratio of the mass reduced
49 by the oxidation to the initial mass of the soot sample.
50 During the isothermal oxidation, soot samples at
51 various η were obtained by the following method:
52 upon reaching the desired degree of mass loss
53 (corresponding to the η), the heating was turned off
54 and the oxidizing atmosphere was immediately
55 switched to a pure nitrogen-inert atmosphere. Then
56 the reaction chamber immediately cooled down to the
57 room temperature with the rate of 50 °C/min. The
58 residual soot sample was taken out and sealed in a
59 drying tank for further chemical analysis.

2.2 Chemical analysis techniques for soot samples

To monitor the type and concentration of

64 functional groups within the soot samples, the soot
65 samples were analyzed by a Fourier Transfer Inferred
66 spectrometer (INVENIO-S, Bruker) that ran under a
67 spectral range of 400–4000 cm⁻¹ with a resolution of
68 4 cm⁻¹. After the measurement under the set test
69 conditions, the baseline of FT-IR spectrum was
70 corrected and smoothed by OPUS software (Bruker).
71 Each test was repeated more than three times to
72 evaluate reproducibility. The results derived from
73 these FT-IR spectra were averaged, with error bars
74 representing the upper and lower deviations from
75 multiple repeated experiments. The uncertainty of FT-
76 IR results is less than 5 %.

2.3 TG-IR analysis

79 The soot sample TG-IR analyses were conducted
80 using the FTIR spectrometer combined with the TGA.
81 The gas products during the isothermal oxidation on
82 TGA tests were introduced into the gas cell (A131-
83 0100/TQ, Bruker) of FTIR through the customized
84 tunnel. The customized tunnel was preserved at 220
85 ±5 °C to avoid gas condensation. The applied wave-
86 length range of the FTIR spectra was from 4000 cm⁻¹
87 to 400 cm⁻¹ with a resolution of 4 cm⁻¹.

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Oxidation behavior of soot samples

Fig. 2 shows the TG curves for soot samples

1 generated under different NH_3 substituted ratios. To
2 eliminate the influence of sample mass variations, the
3 soot mass is normalized relative to the initial mass and
4 presented as a percentage (%). The typical oxidation
5 temperatures, representing of the oxidation reactivity
6 of soot samples were derived from the TG curves
7 according to the method suggesting in Li et al [31, 37].
8 Herein, the temperatures for maximum mass loss rate,
9 the initial oxidation and burnout are respectively
10 termed as T_{\max} , T_i and T_e . The increasing substituted
11 ratio of NH_3 resulted in a general decrease in T_{\max} , T_i
12 and T_e , as summarized in Table 2. Increasing the X_{NH_3}
13 concentration from 0% to 20% results in a pronounced
14 increase in the peak oxidation rate, from 12.9×10^{-3} to
15 14.6×10^{-3} mg/s. Further increasing the X_{NH_3} from 20%
16 to 60% results in only a marginal enhancement of the
17 peak oxidation rate, from 14.5×10^{-3} to 14.9×10^{-3} mg/s.
18 The oxidation kinetic parameters are further
19 derived from TG curves using the Arrhenius-type
20 equation [38, 39]:

$$22 \quad -\frac{dm}{dt} = A \exp\left(\frac{-E_a}{RT}\right) m_c^n p_{O_2}^r \quad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

23 where m is the soot mass, m_c is the initial soot mass, t
24 is the time, A is the pre-exponential factor (or
25 frequency factor), E_a is the activation energy of the
26 reaction, p_{O_2} is the partial pressure of oxygen, and n
27 and r are the reaction orders of soot and oxygen,
28 respectively. There is no consensus about the value of
29 the reaction orders, but values close to unity (thus
30 deriving in a first-order rate law) are hypothesized
31 and/or found in the previous literature [23, 40, 41].
32 Since soot oxidation can be reasonably approximated
33 as a unimolecular reaction under the present
34 conditions, the reaction is assumed to follow first-
35 order kinetics. From the equation, E_a and A can be
36 estimated from the slope and intercept of the plot $\ln(-$
37 $d(m/m_c)/dt)$ against $1/T$. Here, m/m_c represents the
38 normalized soot mass, which can also be expressed in
39 terms of the conversion degree α (i.e., $\alpha = 1 - m/m_c$).

71

72 Table 2

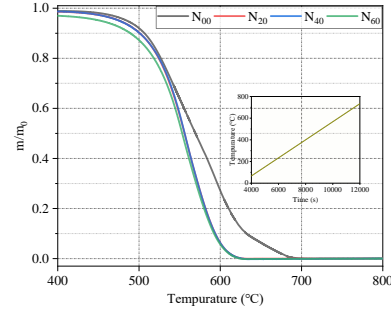
73 Oxidation kinetic parameters of soot from different X_{NH_3} .

condition	$T_i/^\circ\text{C}$	$T_{\max}/^\circ\text{C}$	$T_e/^\circ\text{C}$	Peak oxidation rate/mg·s ⁻¹	$E_a/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$	R^2
N_{00}	520	594	620	12.9×10^{-3}	142.5	0.96
N_{20}	507	559	591	14.6×10^{-3}	124.9	0.95
N_{40}	506	557	576	14.7×10^{-3}	122.5	0.99
N_{60}	497	553	575	14.9×10^{-3}	114.1	0.97

74

75 Isothermal TG tests at 500 °C, 600 °C, and 700 °C
76 were further conducted to scrutinize the oxidation
77 kinetics. Fig. 3 shows the TG curves of soot particles
78 with varying X_{NH_3} under pure oxygen condition at
79 500 °C, 600 °C, and 700 °C, respectively. The reaction
80 rate constant k_c is calculated from the TG curves for

84



41 Fig. 2 Schematic diagram of the characteristic oxidation
42 temperatures of soot with different X_{NH_3} .
43

40

44 As shown in Table 2, the E_a for soot samples
45 obtained under different X_{NH_3} ranges from 114 to 145
46 $\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$, with a remarked reduction as the X_{NH_3}
47 increases. The E_a decreases significantly from 142.5
48 to 124.9 $\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$ as the X_{NH_3} increases from 0% to
49 20%. Increasing the X_{NH_3} from 20% to 40% resulted
50 in a marginal decrease in E_a from 124.9 to 122.5
51 $\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$, but the variation in E_a is within experimental
52 uncertainty. Notably, as the X_{NH_3} increases from 40%
53 to 60%, the E_a decreases by 6.9%, from 122.6 to 114.1
54 $\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$. In the previous studies, the E_a for soot
55 particles sampled from the hydrocarbon diffusion
56 flames on burners ranges from 120.0 to 200.0
57 $\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$ [17, 42]. Li et al. [43] reported that the E_a of
58 soot in a propane co-flow diffusion flame was
59 128–156 $\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$. Liu et al. [44] collected soot
60 samples at five axial positions in an ethylene laminar
61 co-flow diffusion flame and found that the E_a varied
62 between 150.0 and 180.0 $\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$. Moreover, Ying et
63 al. [45] found that the E_a of soot from the tip region of
64 the C_2H_4 diffusion flame ranged from 127 to 139
65 $\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$. It is found that E_a of soot obtained in the
66 present study is rational in despite of the differences
67 in X_{NH_3} . Similar results was also observed by Li et al.
68 [31] who found a significant decrease in E_a from
69 175.0 to 141.0 $\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$ as the X_{NH_3} increased from 0%
70 to 20% in a *n*-heptane diffusion flame.

81 soot samples according to Eq. 2.

82

$$83 \quad -\frac{dm}{dt} = k_c m^n p_{O_2}^r \quad (\text{Eq. 2})$$

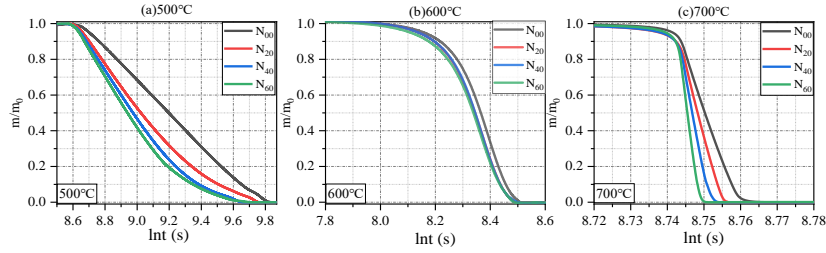


Fig. 3 Normalized mass loss curves of soot loss with different X_{NH_3} : (a) 500 °C; (b) 600 °C; (c) 700 °C.

Fig. 4 shows k_c for soot at various oxidation degrees. At 500 °C, a substantially slower k_c is found and is two orders of magnitude lower than that for both 600 °C and 700 °C samples. The k_c at 600 °C is marginally lower than at 700 °C, by up to 41.5%. Under isothermal conditions, a monotonic decrease in k_c was observed with increasing X_{NH_3} , while at fixed X_{NH_3} values, k_c rises then falls with advancing soot oxidation degree. Similar oxidation behavior was observed by Jaramillo et al. [46] in representative soot

14 samples of custom-synthesized onion-like carbon (OLC) using thermogravimetric analysis, with k_c values of $\sim 10^{-7}$ (at 575 °C) increasing to $\sim 10^{-5}$ (at 600–700 °C)

The results demonstrate that NH_3 addition to acetylene flame reduces E_a of soot and enhances the k_c relative to that for pure acetylene fuel combustion. It is also found that a progressive reduction in k_c with increasing the degree of soot oxidation. These phenomena primarily arise from the following aspects.

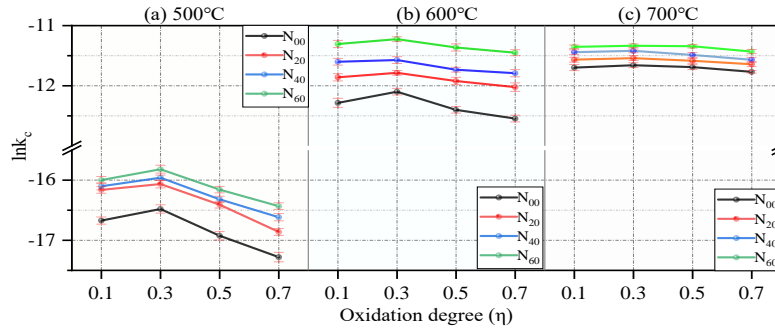


Fig. 4 The variation curve of k_c of soot with different X_{NH_3} : (a) 500 °C; (b) 600 °C; (c) 700 °C

The variation in soot oxidative kinetic parameters may be responsible from the interaction of NH_3 with carbon atoms within the C_2H_2 during soot formation. This assertion can be supported by [13], where the decomposition of NH_3 in a NH_3/C_2H_4 flame was found to produce radicals which react with lighter hydrocarbons such as methyl (CH_3) radicals to form hydrogen cyanide (HCN). There was an obvious competitive mechanism between the addition reaction of HCN and C_2H_2 , thereby suppressing soot nucleation and surface growth toward larger molecular structures, consequently inhibiting soot maturation [47, 48]. A similar inhibiting effect of NH_3 addition on soot formation was also observed by Zhang et al. [49]. They found that in NH_3 -substituted ethylene laminar diffusion flames, NH_3 consumed a large amount of hydrogen radicals, leading to a notable reduction in the rate of the hydrogen-abstraction-acetylene-addition (HACA) reactions, ultimately inhibiting the nucleation and surface growth processes of soot. These similar phenomena was also observed in the studies of Bennett et al. [12],

Ren et al. [50], Yang et al. [51] and Cheng et al. [52]. The lessened growth and maturation of soot particles by NH_3 are prone to result in higher reactivity. The effects of NH_3 on the combustion natures, such as thermal, chemical, and dilution effects were also emphasized in the study of Yan et al. [53] to explain the activation of soot particles. Compared to hydrocarbon fuels, NH_3 addition reduces the lower heating value and varies the overall thermal and transport properties of the reactants, thus reducing the flame temperature field [54]. Meanwhile, NH_3 participates in the combustion reactions, generating new products that, in turn, regulate the reaction mechanisms. In addition, NH_3 participates in chemical reactions that produce HCN and nitrated polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (N-PAHs), thereby suppressing both soot formation and maturation. Ren et al. [50] observed that in $C_2H_4-NH_3$ flames, the nitrogen-hydrocarbon interactions promoted a new reaction pathway of NH_3 to produce hydrocarbon amines (CH_2CHNH_2 , CH_3NH_2 , CH_2NH , HCN, etc.). It blocked the carbon atoms in hydrocarbon radicals

1 (C_2H_2 , C_2H_5 , CH_3 , etc.) originated from decomposit-
2 ion and oxidation of C_2H_4 , thus affecting the
3 subsequent PAH formation and soot growth. The
4 dilution effect refers to the fact that NH_3 addition can
5 affect the reaction process by reducing relative
6 concentration of carbon-based fuels in the reactants.
7 Zaher et al. [13] pointed out that the addition of NH_3
8 can inhibit nucleation and surface growth of soot
9 primarily through thermal and chemical effects, rather
10 than the dilution effect. This inhibition enhanced the
11 soot oxidative reactivity by suppressing further soot
12 maturation. The similar phenomena was also
13 observed in the studies of Zhou et al. [55], Zhang et
14 al. [49] and Wang et al. [56]. Previous studies [43, 57]
15 found the soot deactivation as the oxidation proceeds.
16 Liu [43] et al. observed that in a propane laminar co-
17 flow diffusion flame, the E_a of mature soot collected
18 at the flame tip exhibited a monotonic increase from
19 160 to 185 $kJ \cdot mol^{-1}$ as the oxidation degree increased
20 from 0.3 to 0.9. In contrast, for the early-stage soot
21 sampled from the flame of intermediate region, the E_a
22 was approximately 135 $kJ \cdot mol^{-1}$ at the 30%
23 conversion, decreased to a minimum of ~ 128 $kJ \cdot mol^{-1}$
24 at the 60% conversion, and subsequently increased to
25 ~ 155 $kJ \cdot mol^{-1}$ at the 90% conversion. The oxidation-
26 induced graphitization was employed to explain the
27 deactivation of soot particles. As observed by Wang et
28 al. [18], the structural ordering of soot in a propane
29 co-flow diffusion flame increases monotonically with
30 the soot oxidation degree.

31 The evolution of the gas phase products along the
32 oxidation process can provide valuable insights into
33 the oxidation kinetics involved in overall process. In
34 this case, TG-IR and FT-IR techniques were
35 employed in this work to detect the volatile products
36 and functional groups on the solid soot surfaces
37 evolved during soot oxidation.

38 3.2 TG-IR analysis of soot oxidation products

40 The TG-IR is used to analyze the evolution of gas-
41 phase products during the oxidation reactions. To
42 eliminate the influence of sample amount on peak area,
43 the FT-IR spectrum obtained for each case are
44 normalized relative to the peak area at ~ 1510 cm^{-1}
45 (stretching of $C=C$). The typical band at ~ 1510 cm^{-1}
46 is assigned to the asymmetric stretching vibration of
47 aromatic $C=C$ bonds during the pyrolysis and
48 oxidation reactions, as revealed by Vikranth et al. [58],
49 Liu et al. [59] and Yang et al. [60]. The peak area ratio
50 (termed as A_x/A_{1510} , where x represents the peak
51 position of the corresponding species) of specific
52 functional groups to the aromatic $C=C$ group can
53 represent the concentration of functional groups [33,
54 61]. Figs. 5–7 present the FT-IR spectra of the gas-
55 phase products during soot oxidation at 500 $^{\circ}C$,
56 600 $^{\circ}C$, and 700 $^{\circ}C$, respectively. It is evident that all
57 FT-IR spectra exhibit a similar adsorption pattern with
58 nearly identical peak positions, indicating a compa-
59 rable composition of functional groups present during
60 the oxidation process. However, variations in the area

61 of the individual peaks are also observed in the FT-IR
62 spectra, indicating differences in the distribution and
63 amount of functional groups. Therefore, a quantitative
64 analysis was conducted by deconvolution of the FT-
65 IR spectra using Gaussian functions.

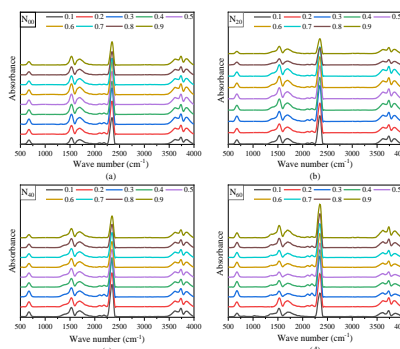


Fig. 5 Absorption spectra at 500 $^{\circ}C$ with different η : (a) N_{00} ; (b) N_{20} ; (c) N_{40} ; (d) N_{60} .

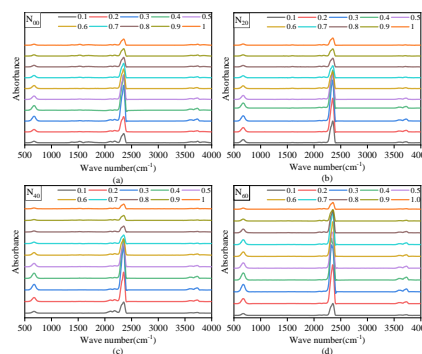


Fig. 6 Absorption spectra at 600 $^{\circ}C$ with different η : (a) N_{00} ; (b) N_{20} ; (c) N_{40} ; (d) N_{60} .

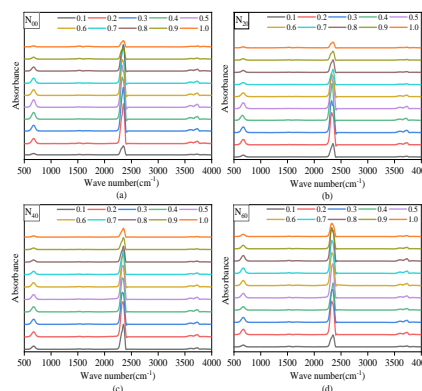


Fig. 7 Absorption spectra at 700 $^{\circ}C$ with different η : (a) N_{00} ; (b) N_{20} ; (c) N_{40} ; (d) N_{60} .

As shown in Figs. 5–7, less absorption peaks for
gaseous oxidation products are detected at 600 $^{\circ}C$ and

1 700 °C in comparison with that for 500 °C. It may
2 arise from the substantial enhancement of soot
3 oxidation and CO₂ generation at elevated tempera-
4 tures, suppressing formation of other products. In
5 addition, it is evident that CO₂ is the predominant
6 gaseous oxidation product in the soot oxidation
7 process. This is characterized by two distinct FTIR
8 absorbance bands at 670 cm⁻¹ (C=O symmetric
9 stretching) and 2360 cm⁻¹ (C=O asymmetric stretch-
10 ing) [62, 63], respectively. The absorption band near
11 2179 cm⁻¹ is attributed to the C–O stretching vibration
12 of CO [64, 65]. The absorption bands observed at
13 3400–4000 cm⁻¹ are attributed to the stretching
14 vibration of –OH groups, which likely originate from
15 carboxylic acids and phenols produced during soot
16 oxidation [66, 67]. However, these peaks are easily
17 interfered by the –OH within water molecules in lab
18 atmosphere [33]. Therefore, this spectral range was
19 not further analyzed. The peak at 1310–1370 cm⁻¹ is
20 attributed to nitrogenated functional group stretching
21 vibrations [68–70]. Zhao et al. [69] identified
22 characteristic FT-IR absorption bands at ~1537 cm⁻¹
23 (N–H bending vibration) and ~1310 cm⁻¹ (C–N
24 stretching vibration) during the thermal degradation
25 of polyurethane foam in nitrogen and air atmospheres.
26 These observations can be attributed to the presence
27 of urethane functional groups. Similar results were
28 also observed by Lan et al. [70], who found that the
29 thermal decomposition of 3-nitro-1,2,4-triazol-5-one
30 (NTO), as analyzed using FT-IR spectroscopy, exhi-
31 bited characteristic absorption bands corresponding to
32 the NO₂ symmetric stretching vibration at 1380–1360
33 cm⁻¹ and the C=N stretching vibration at 1680–1370
34 cm⁻¹. The phenomena indicate the presence of
35 characteristic absorption bands associated with
36 nitrogenated functional groups in the spectral regions
37 around 1310 and 1380 cm⁻¹. According to the
38 previous studies, the band at 1300–1370 cm⁻¹
39 originates from either the escape of C–N bonds in
40 urethane [69] or the NO₂ [70]. In addition, as proposed
41 by Ren et al. [71], who observed using Microscopic
42 imaging infrared spectrometer (MIR), the soot
43 sampled from a C₂H₄/NH₃ laminar diffusion flame
44 exhibited a notable characteristic peak at 2221 cm⁻¹,
45 representing C≡N bond tensile vibration of aromatic
46 hydrocarbons. The band for C=O (coming from keto-
47 nes, esters, anhydrides and lactones) is observed in the
48 range of 1650–1860 cm⁻¹ [72]. The peak centered at
49 ~1510 cm⁻¹ corresponds to the C=C (1510 cm⁻¹)
50 stretching vibration in the range of 1600–1420 cm⁻¹.
51

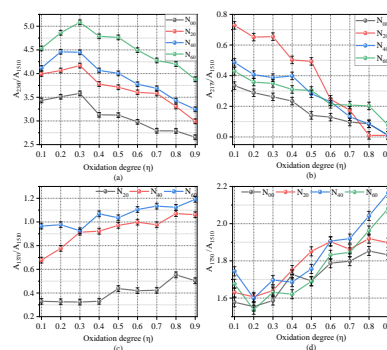


Fig. 8 Concentrations of gas-phase products from soot samples with varying η at 500 °C: (a) CO₂; (b) CO; (c) Nitrogenated functional group; and (d) C=O.

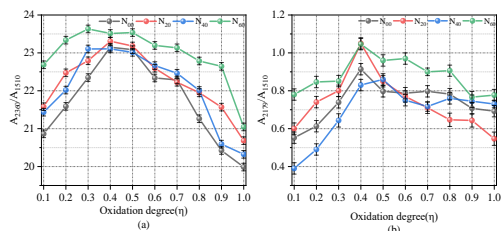
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53 The evolution of A_{2360}/A_{1510} and A_{2179}/A_{1510} (CO₂
54 and CO products, respectively) along the oxidation
55 process at 500°C is presented in Figs. 8 (a) and (b).
56 The A_{2360}/A_{1510} shows a significant increase as the
57 oxidation degree increases from 0.1 to 0.3, while
58 exhibiting a progressive reduction upon further
59 oxidation degree from 0.4 to 0.9. The evolution of
60 A_{2360}/A_{1510} aligns with that for k_c . CO₂ is the
61 predominant gaseous oxidation product in the soot
62 oxidation process. Therefore, CO₂ production
63 effectively reflects both the oxidation rate and
64 oxidative kinetics [66, 73]. The similar phenomena
65 was also observed in the studies of Liu et al [43] and
66 Wang et al [18]. Liu et al. found that in propane co-
67 flow diffusion flames, with the increasing soot
68 oxidation degree, the soot oxidation reactivity first
69 increases and then decreases. Unlike A_{2360}/A_{1510} ,
70 A_{2179}/A_{1510} decreases linearly with increasing
71 oxidation degree. At an oxidation degree of 0.9,
72 A_{2179}/A_{1510} is nearly negligible. In addition, it is
73 observed that A_{2179}/A_{1510} does not show significant
74 systematic variation with increasing X_{NH_3} . Conversely,
75 increase in X_{NH_3} leads to the increase in A_{2179}/A_{1510} at
76 the same oxidation degree. The increasing oxidation
77 reactivity of soot particle results from NH₃ addition
78 [28, 31], may be the plausible factor for the increase
79 in A_{2179}/A_{1510} . In a NH₃/C₂H₄ co-flow diffusion flame,
80 Zhang et al. [28] indicates that the addition of NH₃ can
81 enhance the content of oxygenated functional groups
82 in soot particles. The oxygenated compounds
83 (methoxy, –COOH, C=O, ether, phenolic –OH, etc.)
84 on particle surfaces undergo fragmentation and
85 oxidation of carbon atoms, primarily releasing CO₂,
86 as observed by Wei et al. in their study.

Fig. 8 (c) shows the evolution of A_{1370}/A_{1510} during
soot oxidation. A_{1370}/A_{1510} shows a gradual increase as
soot oxidation degree progresses from 0.1 to 0.9. In
addition, with the increasing X_{NH_3} , A_{1370}/A_{1510} incre-
ased, whereas no significant band at ~1370 cm⁻¹ was
detected for $X_{NH_3}=0$, indicating that the band at ~1370
cm⁻¹ originates only from the NH₃ combustion and its
effect on soot formation. This assertion can be
supported by Shao et al. [74] who found that in a

1 $\text{NH}_3/\text{C}_2\text{H}_4$ laminar premixed flame, NH_3 addition
2 enhances carbon-nitrogen interactions and the
3 formation of nitrogen oxides and nitrogenated species
4 including HCN and N-PAHs. Fig. 8 (d) shows that
5 A_{1750}/A_{1510} increases as the oxidation process
6 progressed at 500 °C. This phenomenon likely origin-
7 ates from the desorption of lipids, alcohols, phenols,
8 and ethers from soot surfaces, coupled with carbon-
9 oxygen interactions during the oxidation process.

10



11

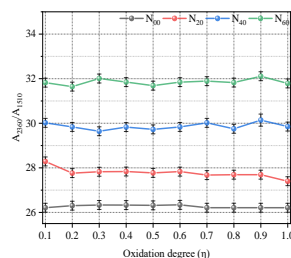
12 Fig. 9 Concentrations of gas-phase products from soot
13 samples with varying η at 600 °C: (a) CO_2 absorption band
14 area; (b) CO absorption band area.

15

16 Relative to that for 500 °C, soot oxidation at
17 600 °C (see Fig. 9) and 700 °C (see Fig. 10) result in
18 substantial increase in A_{2360}/A_{1510} . The improved k_c at
19 elevated temperatures may be responsible for the
20 higher CO_2 emission, as afore-discussed [17]. In
21 addition, at 600 °C, similar to the behavior at 500 °C,
22 A_{2360}/A_{1510} increases as η increases from 0.1 to 0.4,
23 then gradually decreases as oxidation progresses from
24 0.4 to 1.0, in agreement with the behavior of k_c as η
25 increases. However, unsimilar to that for 500 °C and
26 600 °C, A_{2360}/A_{1510} exhibits marginal variations with
27 the oxidation process at 700 °C. The data also
28 observed that k_c remains nearly constant as the degree
29 of oxidation increases at 700 °C. The experimental
30 observations indicate that at elevated temperatures,
31 temperature is likely the primary factor influencing
32 soot oxidation rates, while the impact of intrinsic
33 reactivity is diminished. In addition, it is observed that,
34 unlike at 500 °C, A_{2179}/A_{1510} initially increases and
35 then decreases during the soot oxidation process at
36 600 °C, whereas remains virtually undetectable during
37 the oxidation process at 700 °C. This phenomenon
38 likely arises from the promoted oxidation of CO to
39 CO_2 at elevated temperatures during the process of
40 soot oxidation.

41 Consistent with the behavior observed at 500 °C,
42 A_{2360}/A_{1510} increases with increasing X_{NH_3} at 600 °C
43 and 700 °C, indicating that the NH_3 addition enhances
44 soot oxidation rate and accelerates the oxidation
45 process [31, 50, 74]. Notably, at 600 °C and 700 °C,
46 the A_{1370}/A_{1510} fall below detectable limits as the X_{NH_3}
47 increases.

48



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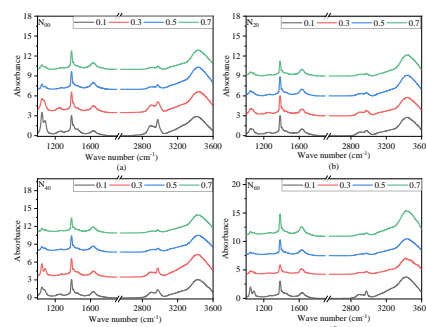
50 Fig. 10 Concentrations of CO_2 from soot samples with
51 varying degrees of oxidation at 700 °C.

52

53 3.3 Soot bulk chemistry

54 FT-IR spectroscopy was employed to identify and
55 quantify the functional groups on the soot surface. In
56 this study, the FT-IR spectra for each sample are
57 normalized against the band intensity at $\sim 1620 \text{ cm}^{-1}$
58 (assigned to the aromatic $\text{C}=\text{C}$ stretching vibration) to
59 eliminate sample size effects on band intensities [75,
60 76]. From Figs. 11–13, it is evident that the soot
61 samples exhibit infrared absorbance at the same peak
62 positions, but distinctly different absorbance intensity
63 for different X_{NH_3} and η , indicating the difference in
64 the composition of soot functional groups.

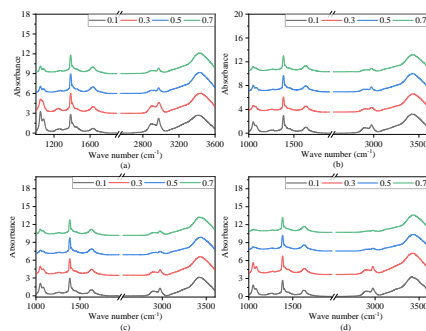
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66

67 Fig. 11 Absorption spectra of soot samples at varying η at
68 500 °C: (a) N00; (b) N20; (c) N40; (d) N60.

69



70

71 Fig. 12 Absorption spectra of soot samples at varying η at
72 600 °C: (a) N00; (b) N20; (c) N40; (d) N60.

73

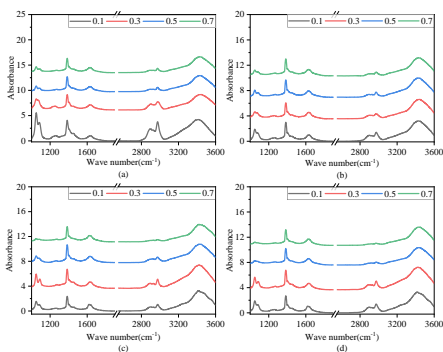


Fig. 13 Absorption spectra of soot samples at varying η at 700 °C: (a) N₀₀; (b) N₂₀; (c) N₄₀; (d) N₆₀.

Figs. 11–13 present the FT-IR spectra of the soot surface during soot oxidation at 500 °C, 600 °C, and 700 °C, respectively. The most intense absorption occurs at 3300–3650 cm⁻¹, which corresponds to the stretching vibration of –OH groups [75, 76], likely originating from carboxyls and phenols produced during soot oxidation [67, 68]. However, these peaks are easily interfered by the –OH within water molecules in lab atmosphere [68], so it is difficult to determine whether it arises from those bound by soot surfaces. Consequently, the peaks in this range are not analyzed in this study. The peaks at 2975, 2925 and 2860 cm⁻¹ correspond to the aliphatic C–H functional groups [33, 77]. The areas of the peaks at 2950, 2925, and 2860 cm⁻¹ are integrated to assess the total concentration of the aliphatic groups in this work. The peaks corresponding to C=O groups (from ketones, esters, anhydrides, and lactones) are approximately located at 1700 cm⁻¹, as stated in reference [68] within the range of 1650–1860 cm⁻¹. The peaks centered at ~1620 cm⁻¹ corresponds to the vibration peak of aromatic C=C [67, 78]. The peak area ratio $A^{(s)}/A^{(s)}_{1620}$ (x represents the peak position of specific functional groups on the solid surfaces of soot samples) corresponds to the concentration of functional groups [79]. The peaks centered at ~1250 cm⁻¹ corresponds to the stretching of the C–O bands of phenolic, anhydride, ester, and ether-like groups [18].

Owing to the presence of N atoms in NH₃, the C–N groups and other nitrogenated species are specially scrutinized to shed light on the effect of NH₃ on soot properties. The peaks centered at ~1350 cm⁻¹ are detected and probably arising from the stretching vibrations of C–N groups in urethane [69]. From the pyrolysis of flexible polyurethane foam (FPUF), Zhao et al. [69] stated the absorption at 1310 cm⁻¹ arise from the C–N stretching vibrations in urethane. However, Tapia et al. [80] observed a distinct absorption peak at 1354 cm⁻¹ for diesel soot when exposed to NO₂, as determined by Diffuse Reflectance Infrared Fourier Transform Spectroscopy (DRIFTS) analysis. They postulated that nitro-compounds are generated during the oxidation of soot oxidation via electrophilic substitution in the presence

of NO₂, resulting in the formation of N-PAHs. Additionally, in their study on the interaction between diesel soot and NO₂, Azambre et al. [81] detected the absorption band near 1370–1300 cm⁻¹ using DRIFTS. They hypothesized that this phenomenon might be attributed to the chemisorption of NO₂ at the surface sites of diesel soot particles, thereby inducing the formation of nitrogenated (RNO_x) adsorbed intermediates on the soot surface. Nevertheless, the observations mentioned above only confirm the presence of nitrogenated polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, however, they do not elucidate the specific bonding configurations of nitrogen atoms within the aromatic structures. In the study on the surface functional groups of biomass fuel particles, Popovich-eva et al. [82] identified prominent bands of aromatic nitro-compounds (NO₂ stretching vibrations) in the range of 1320–1355 cm⁻¹ via FTIR analysis. They supposed that the formation of this substance could be linked to the increased emission of nitrogen oxides (NO_x) and nitro-PAH from biomass fuel engines [83, 84]. Incorporating both the existing literature and the present experimental data, the observed variations in the 1300–1370 cm⁻¹ spectral region are tentatively attributed to the substitution of nitrogenated functional groups following the dehydrogenation of aliphatic carbon atoms bonded to PAH surfaces.

Fig. 14 presents the evolution of surface groups during oxidation at 500 °C. $A^{(s)}_{2860}/A^{(s)}_{1620}$ shows a progressive decrease with the increasing η , indicating the consumption of aliphatic C–H bonds via dehydrogenation and carbonization reactions occurring on the soot surface during the oxidation process [18, 67]. Opposite to the increase of $A^{(s)}_{2360}/A^{(s)}_{1510}$ (from CO₂) for the afore-discussed gas products, the $A^{(s)}_{1700}/A^{(s)}_{1620}$ and $A^{(s)}_{1250}/A^{(s)}_{1620}$ decrease gradually during oxidation at 500 °C as the η increases from 0.1 to 0.3. This phenomenon is likely attributable to decarboxylation occurring on the soot surface, which releases C–O and C=O functional groups and results in the evolution of CO₂ [81, 85]. Nevertheless, as η increases from 0.3 to 0.5, $A^{(s)}_{1700}/A^{(s)}_{1620}$ and $A^{(s)}_{1250}/A^{(s)}_{1620}$ continue to decrease, accompanying with the reduction in $A^{(s)}_{2360}/A^{(s)}_{1510}$ (from CO₂) for the gaseous product. Upon increasing η from 0.5 to 0.7, $A^{(s)}_{1700}/A^{(s)}_{1620}$ and $A^{(s)}_{1250}/A^{(s)}_{1620}$ increase, indicating the accumulation of oxygenated functional groups on the surface of carbon soot during this stage.

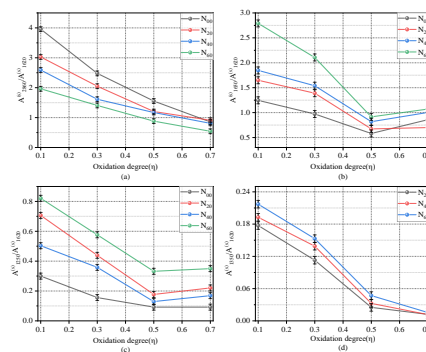


Fig. 14 Concentrations of (a) Aliphatic C–H, (b) C=O, (c) C–O in COOH and (d) C–N functional groups of soot samples with varying degrees of oxidation at 500 °C

Additionally, the addition of NH_3 could increase the C=O and C–O groups in soot particles, as evidenced by the increase in $A^{(s)}_{1700}/A^{(s)}_{1620}$ and $A^{(s)}_{1250}/A^{(s)}_{1620}$ with increasing X_{NH_3} . As supported by the results of E_a and k_c , the addition of NH_3 enhances the reactivity of soot oxidation, which probably stems from oxidation-induced ordering of soot, resulting in increases in the number of active sites on the surface of soot particles available for reaction with 14 oxygenated radicals [28]. As the oxidation progresses, $A^{(s)}_{1350}/A^{(s)}_{1620}$ decreases monotonically, indicating 16 that nitrogenated functional groups on the soot surface are progressively removed and released with the gas-phase during the oxidation process, as evidenced by 19 the progressive increase in A_{1370}/A_{1510} in the gaseous oxidation products. Additionally, with increasing X_{NH_3} , 21 $A^{(s)}_{1350}/A^{(s)}_{1620}$ gradually increases, indicating that the 22 addition of NH_3 promotes an increase in nitrogenated 23 functional groups on the soot surface. Similar effects 24 of NH_3 addition on the soot surface composition was 25 also found by Zaher et al. [86]: for a $\text{NH}_3\text{--C}_2\text{H}_4$ flame, 26 the increase in NH_3 concentration leads to the 27 formation of more carbon-nitrogen (C–N) bonds at 28 the soot surface. Absorption bands at 1310 ~1370 29 cm^{-1} were also detected by Zhao et al. [69] and Tapia 30 et al. [87] for the soot samples. For instance, Zhao 31 al. [69] assigned the band at 1310 cm^{-1} to the C–N 32 stretching vibrations in urethane. Tapia et al. [87] 33 pointed out that the absorption peak at 1354 cm^{-1} 34 stemmed from the C–N groups in N-PAHs generated 35 from the nitro compounds during the oxidation of soot 36 by NO_2 . By microscopic imaging infrared spectro- 37 meter (MIR), Ren et al. [71] found the stretching 38 vibration of C–N bonds in aromatic compounds at 39 2221 cm^{-1} for the soot collected from a $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4\text{--NH}_3$ 40 co-flow laminar diffusion flame. They proposed that 41 the N-PAHs were generated from the hydrogen 42 substitution by hydrogen cyanide (HCN) and cyanide 43 (CN) on the aromatic ring. For these cases, an 44 assertion can be proposed that the peak at 1350 cm^{-1} 45 may be attributed to the formation of aliphatic C–N 46 bonds attached on PAH matrices.

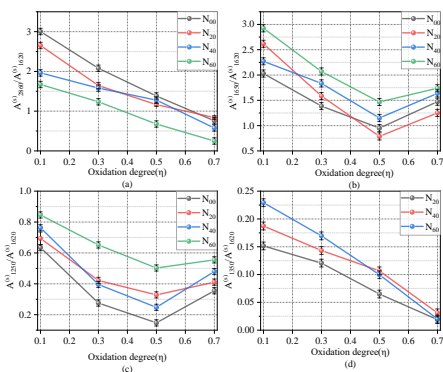


Fig. 15 Concentrations of (a) Aliphatic C–H, (b) C=O, (c) C–O in COOH and (d) C–N functional groups of soot samples with varying degrees of oxidation at 600 °C.

Figs. 15 and 16 show the evolution of surface functional groups on soot during oxidation at 600 °C and 700 °C, respectively. Consistent with the behavior observed at 500 °C, $A^{(s)}_{2860}/A^{(s)}_{1620}$ decreases with increasing η , indicating that the aliphatic C–H bonds on the soot surface are gradually consumed during the oxidation process. Simultaneously, some aliphatic C–H bonds may be transformed and released as volatile oxygenated functional groups, as evidenced by the increase in A_{1750}/A_{1510} with rising η . In addition, as η increases, $A^{(s)}_{1350}/A^{(s)}_{1620}$ gradually decreases, while the gas-phase product A_{1370}/A_{1510} correspondingly increases. As the oxidation progresses, the C–N bonds on the soot surface gradually escape into the gas phase. Nevertheless, although C–N bonds are detected on the solid soot surface when the temperature exceeds 600 °C, the fluctuations of C–N species in the gas-phase products become virtually negligible as the oxidation proceeds. Concurrently, aromatic N–O groups were detected on the soot particle surface near 1500–1570 cm^{-1} [82]. A potential explanation is that, under elevated temperature conditions, the C–N bonds predominantly participate in reactions on the solid surface of soot. The higher temperature may facilitate the cleavage of C–N bonds within urethane 78 molecules on the soot surface. Subsequently, the 79 resulting NH_2 groups present on the soot surface may 80 react with oxygen radicals, potentially leading to the 81 formation of HNO on the soot surface. This reaction 82 may potentially hinder the migration of C–N bonds 83 from the soot surface to the gas phase. In summary, as 84 the temperature increases, the significant increase in 85 E_a and k_c indicates a heightened propensity for the 86 oxidation of soot particles, as evidenced by the 87 variation in gaseous products generated during the 88 soot oxidation process. CO_2 , as the primary product of 89 soot oxidation, shows a significant increase in 90 concentration as the oxidation temperature rises. This 91 observation underscores that elevated temperatures 92 significantly accelerate the conversion of C–H bonds 93 on the soot surface to gaseous CO_2 . The formation of 94 CO_2 , enhanced by the elevated temperature, may 95 simultaneously hinder the generation of other gaseous 96 products. Additionally, as X_{NH_3} increases, both the E_a 97 and the k_c are elevated, suggesting that the addition of 98 NH_3 enhances the soot oxidation.

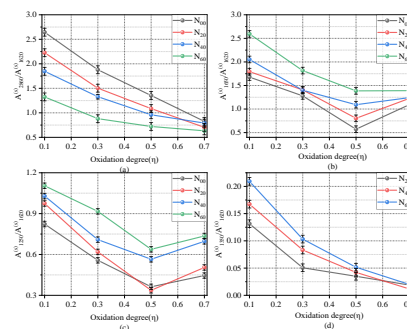


Fig. 16 Concentrations of (a) Aliphatic C–H, (b) C=O, (c)

1 C–O in COOH and (d) C–N functional groups of soot
2 samples with varying degrees of oxidation at 700 °C.

4. Conclusions

3 To investigate the effects of ammonia addition on
4 soot oxidation kinetics in acetylene diffusion flames,
5 soot samples were collected from flames at various
6 NH₃ substitution ratios (X_{NH_3}). The soot samples were
7 characterized by thermogravimetric analysis (TGA),
8 Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR), and
9 thermogravimetric-infrared spectroscopy (TG-IR).
10 The results from temperature programmed oxidation
11 indicated that, as X_{NH_3} and oxidation temperature
12 increase, the activation energy (E_a) for soot oxidation
13 increase. Isothermal oxidation test proved that rate
14 constant (k_c) for soot oxidation was elevated by the
15 increase in X_{NH_3} . Additionally, k_c showed an initial
16 increase and then decrease as the isothermal oxidation
17 evolves. From the FTIR results, the concurrent
18 reduction of aliphatic C–H groups and increase in
19 oxygenated groups was found with increasing X_{NH_3} .
20 The C–N bond was also detected on soot surfaces and
21 was attributed to the dehydrogenation of aliphatic
22 carbon atoms attached to the surface of polycyclic
23 aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs). The TG-IR analysis
24 revealed the C–N bonds in urethanes on soot surfaces
25 may adsorb and/or release as the gaseous C–N species
26 during the low-temperature (500 °C) oxidation of soot
27 particles. Nevertheless, under high-temperature
28 conditions of 600 °C and 700 °C, nitrogenated species
29 were not detected in the gaseous products, while N–O
30 groups were detected on the soot solid surface at 1500
31 –1570 cm⁻¹ in the adsorption spectra. It was
32 speculated that the elevated oxidation temperature
33 facilitated the cleavage of C–N bonds within urethane
34 molecules on the soot surface, and then the generated
35 NH₂ radicals may react with oxygen radicals, leading
36 to the formation of HNO.

CRedit authorship contribution statement

37 **Shuainan Yang:** Conceptualization, Investigation,
38 Data visualization, Writing-original draft. **Chenyang**
39 **Fan:** Investigation, Methodology, Funding
40 acquisition, Project administration, Writing-review &
41 editing. **Zheng Fu:** Investigation, Resources, Data
42 visualization. **Ye Liu:** Investigation, Data
43 visualization. **Huiyong Du:** Methodology, Resources.
44 **Bin Xu:** Methodology, Resources. **Yidu Tong:**
45 Investigation, Data visualization, Validation.
46 **Mingliang Wei:** Data Curation, Data visualization.

Declaration of competing interest

47 The authors declare that they have no known
48 competing financial interests or personal relationships
49 that could have appeared to influence the work
50 reported in this paper.

Acknowledgments

51 This research is sponsored by National Natural
52 Science Foundation of China (No. 52006054), and

53 International scientific and technological cooperation
54 project in Henan Province (No. 232102521019)

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Table 1
Flow rate conditions for the present laminar diffusion flame.

case	C ₂ H ₂ flow rate/(mL·min ⁻¹)	NH ₃ flow rate/(mL·min ⁻¹)	N ₂ flow rate/(mL·min ⁻¹)	Air flow rate/(L·min ⁻¹)	X _{NH₃} /%
N ₀₀	200	0	300	20	0
N ₂₀	200	100	200	20	20
N ₄₀	200	200	100	20	40
N ₆₀	200	300	0	20	60

Table 2
Oxidation kinetic parameters of soot from different X_{NH₃}.

condition	T _i /°C	T _{max} /°C	T _e /°C	Peak oxidation rate/mg·s ⁻¹	E _a /kJ·mol ⁻¹	R ²
N ₀₀	520	594	620	12.9×10 ⁻³	142.5	0.96
N ₂₀	507	559	591	14.6×10 ⁻³	124.9	0.95
N ₄₀	506	557	576	14.7×10 ⁻³	122.5	0.99
N ₆₀	497	553	575	14.9×10 ⁻³	114.1	0.97

Figure 1

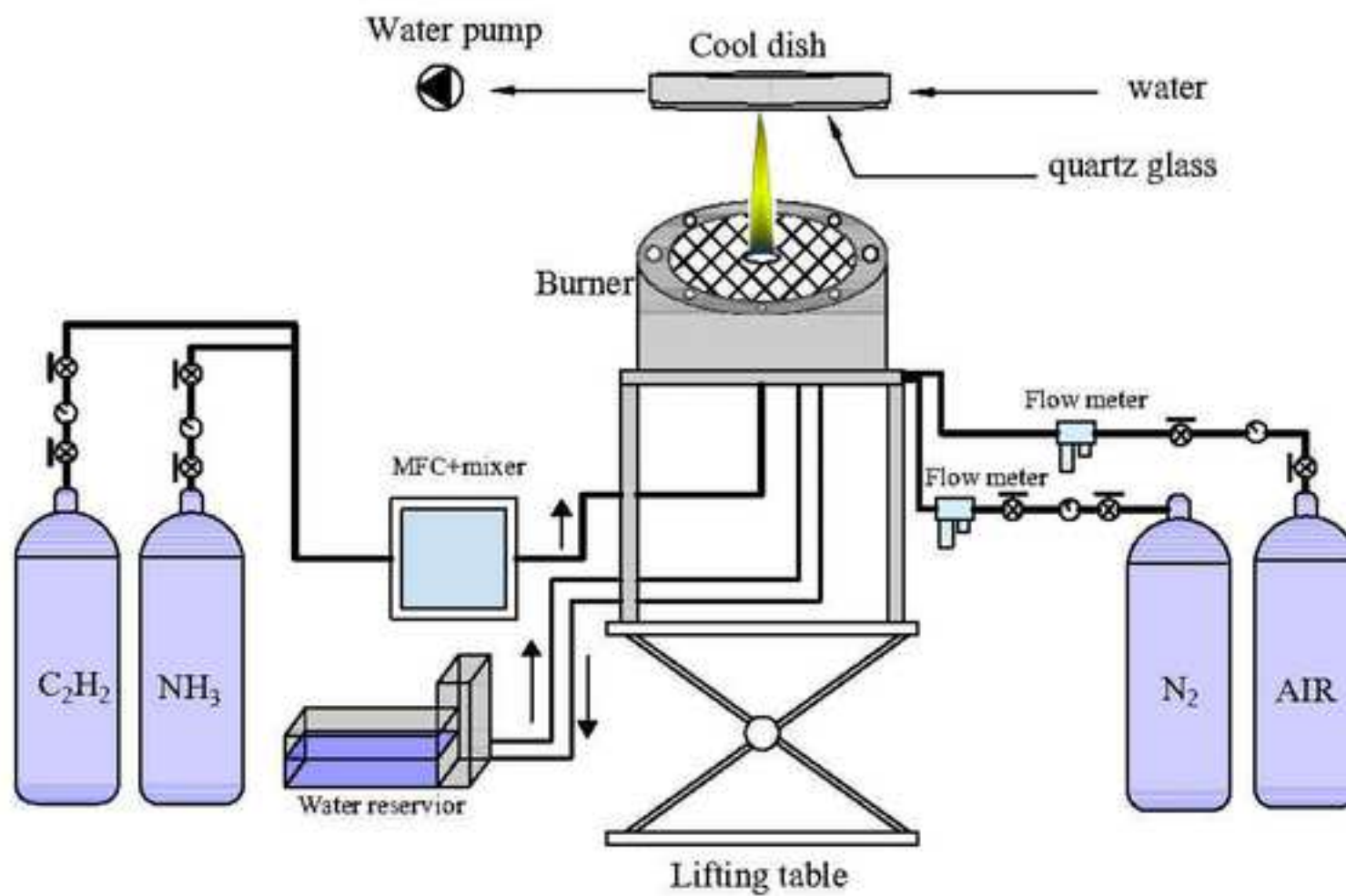


Figure 2

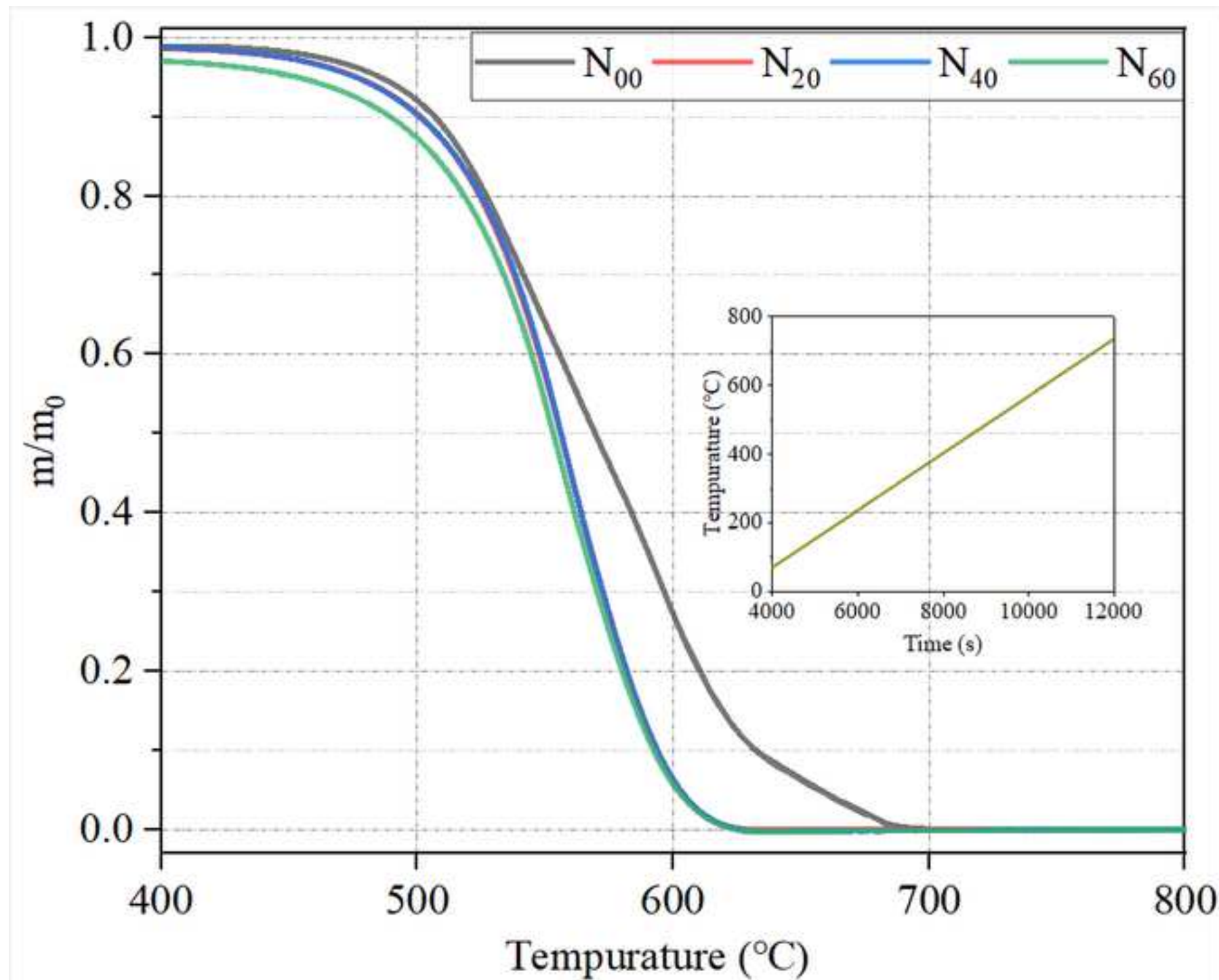


Figure 3

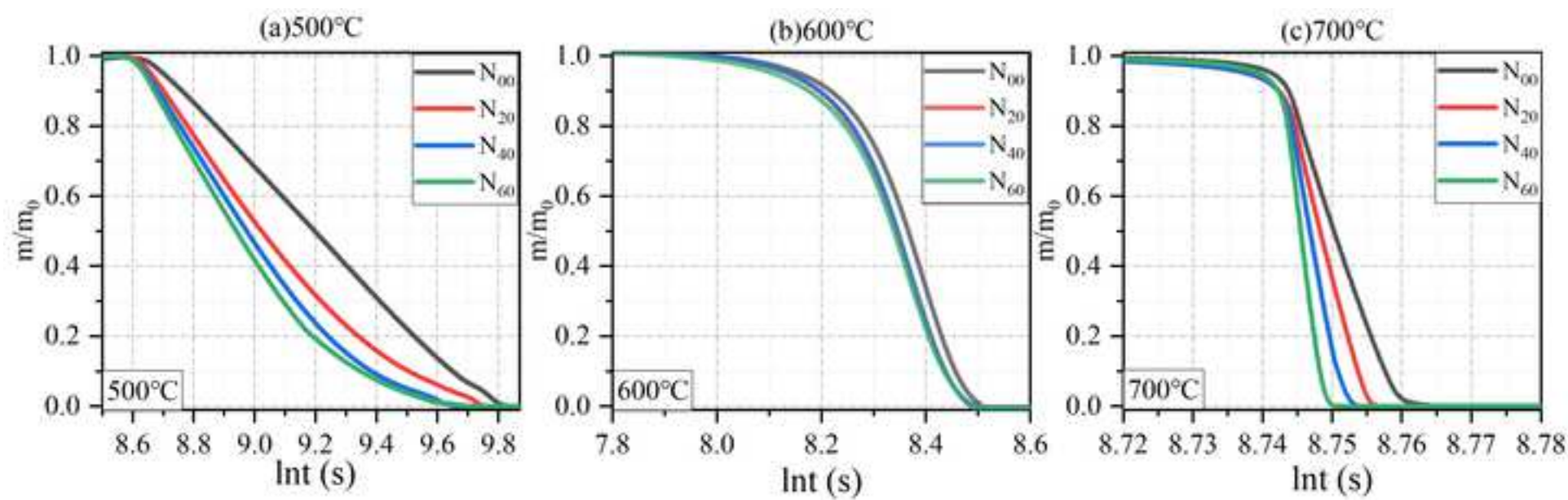


Figure 4

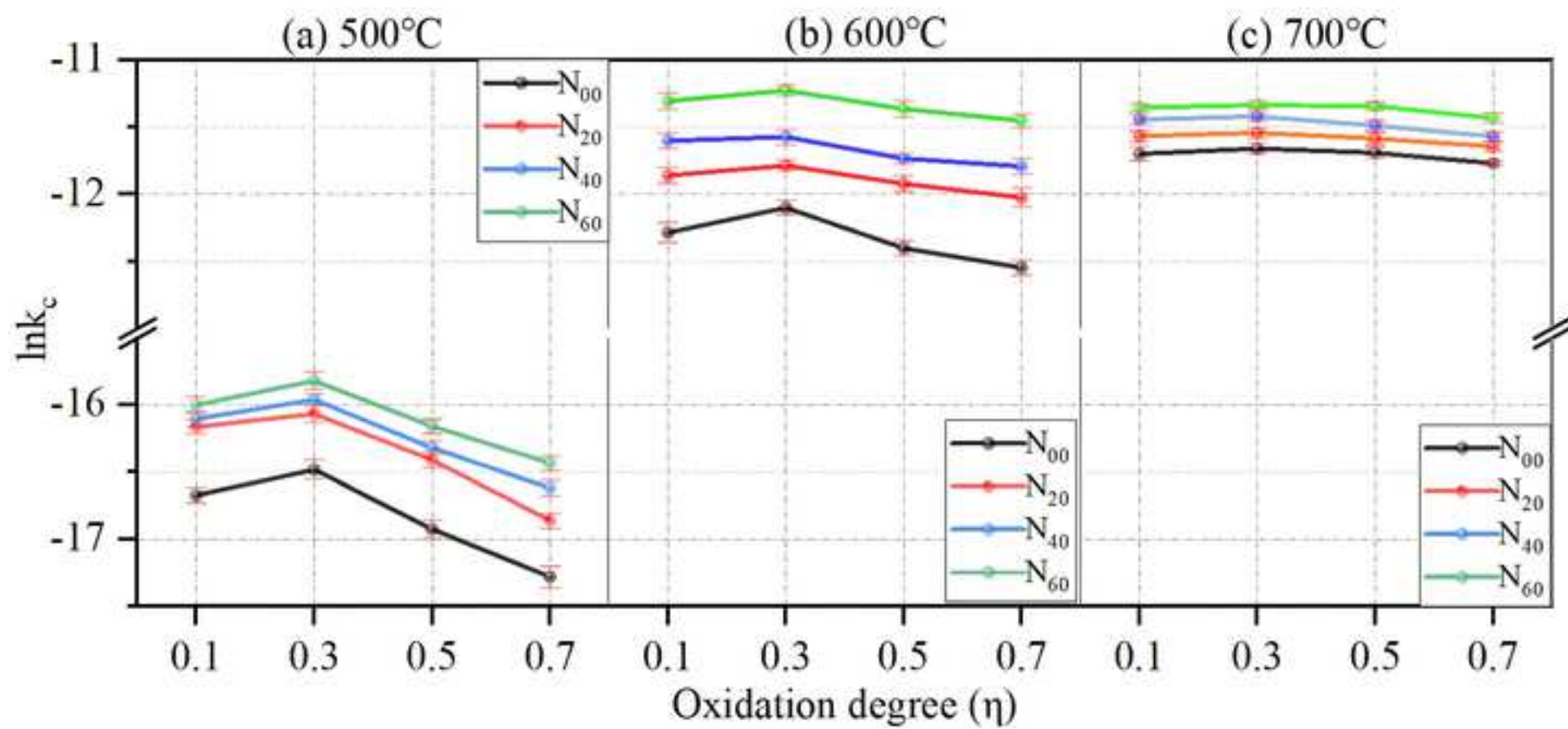
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Figure 5

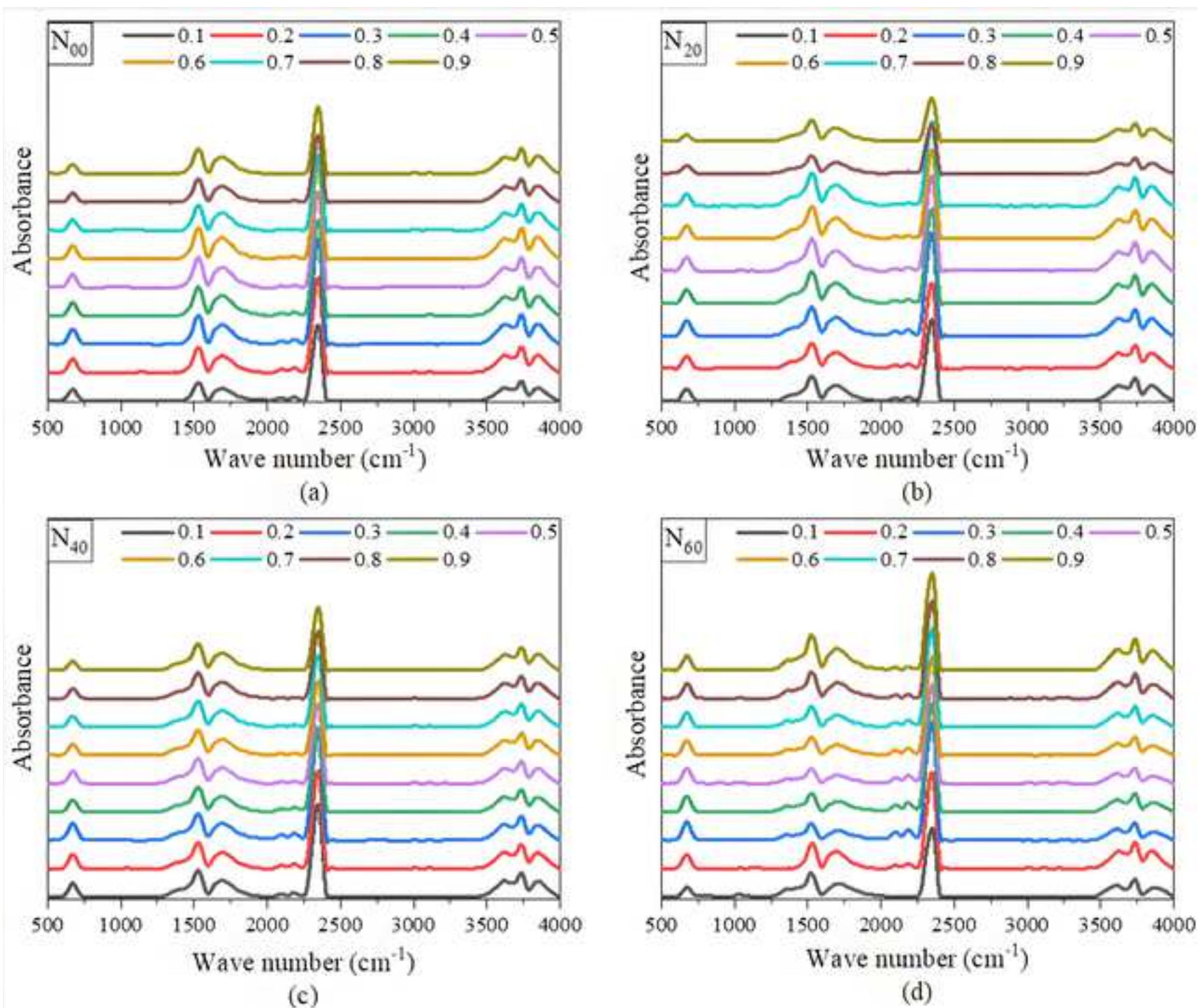


Figure 6

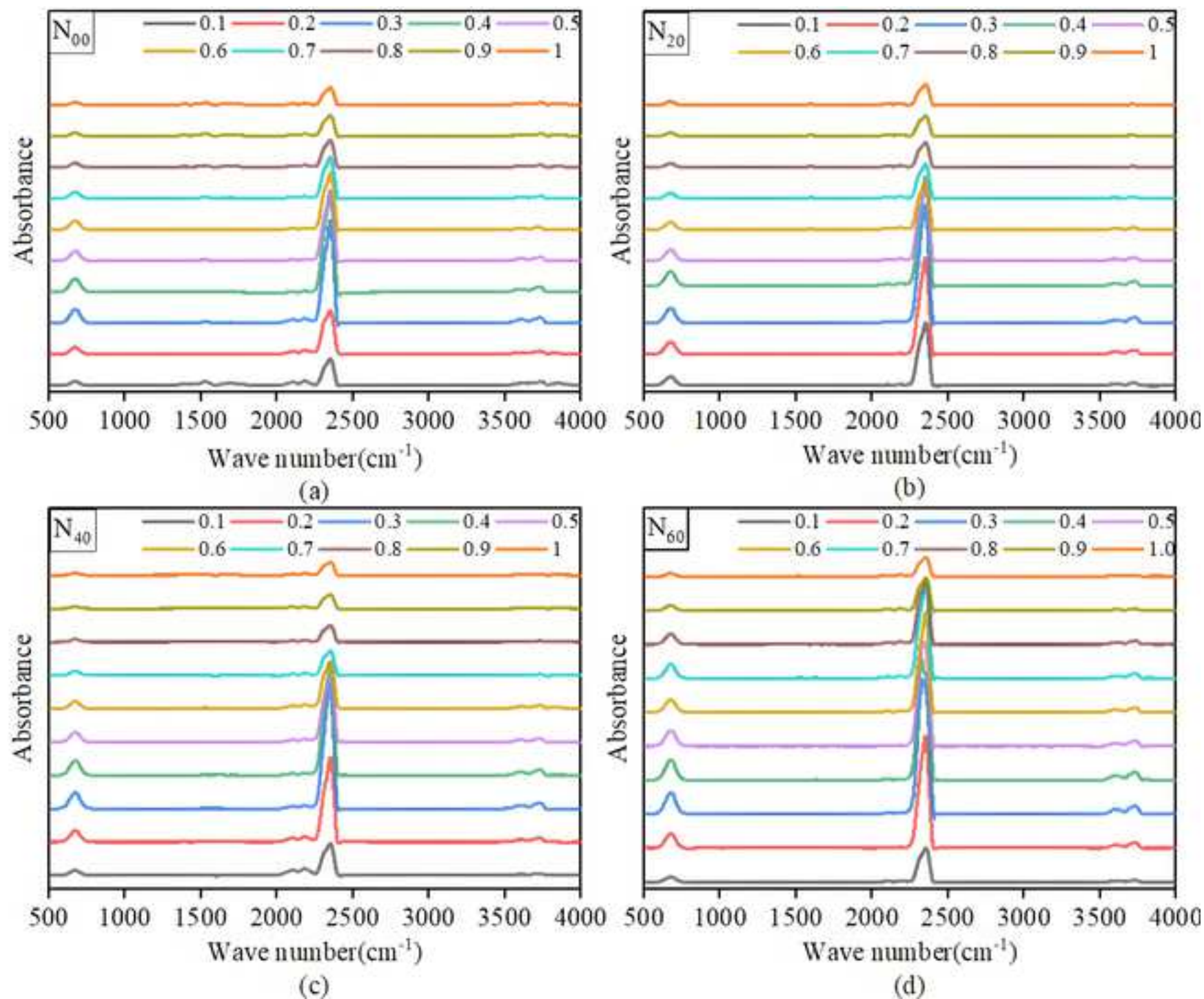


Figure 7

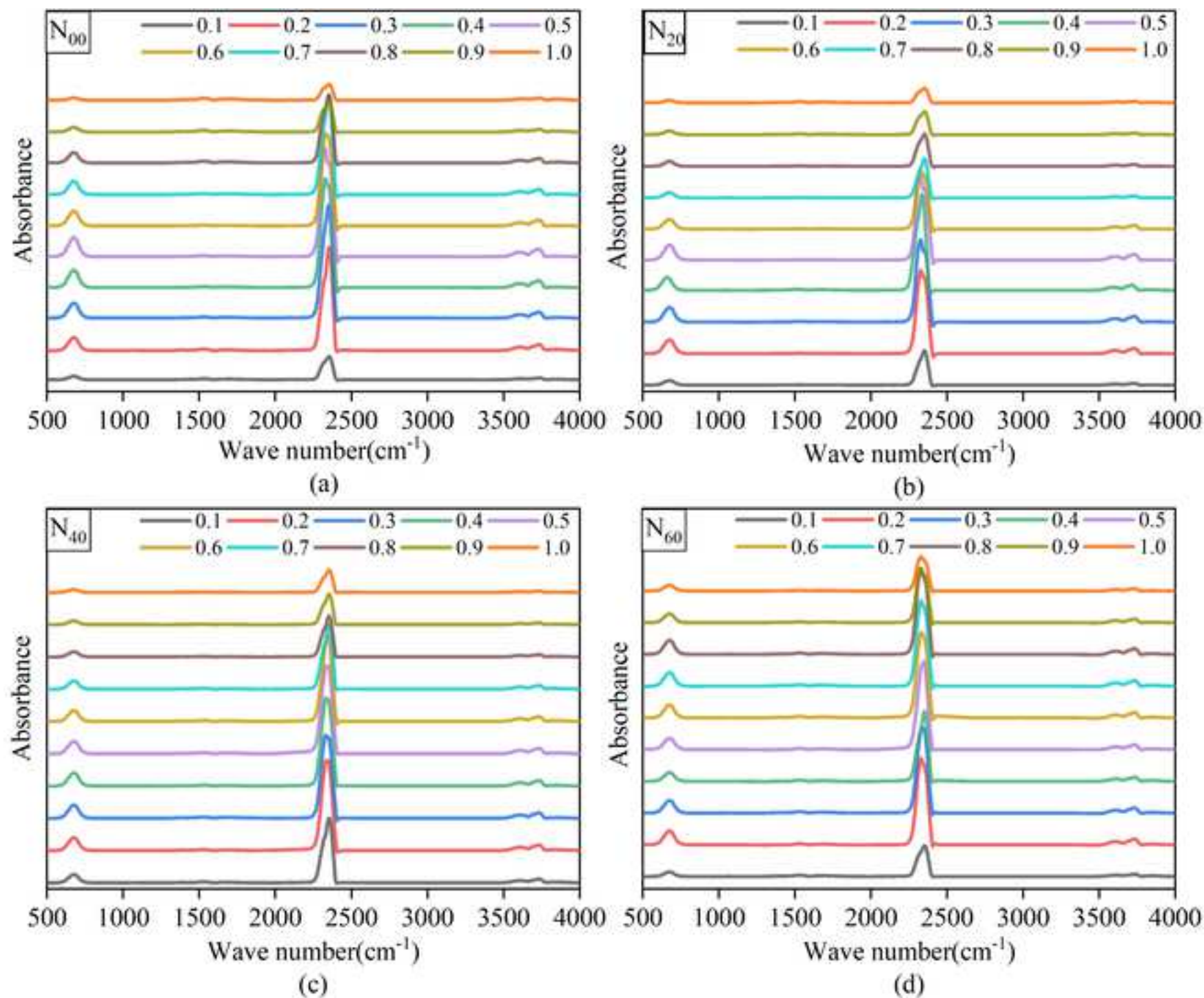
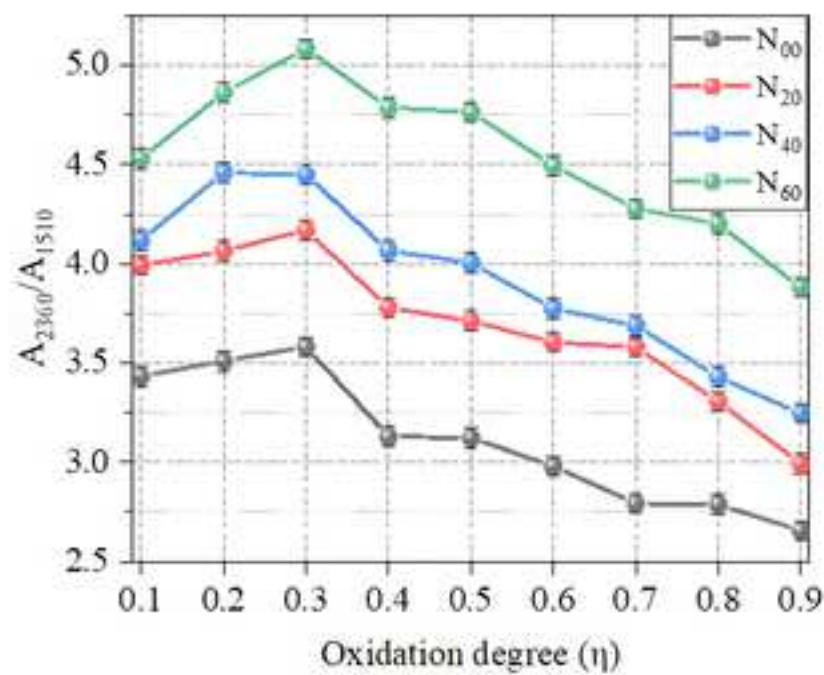
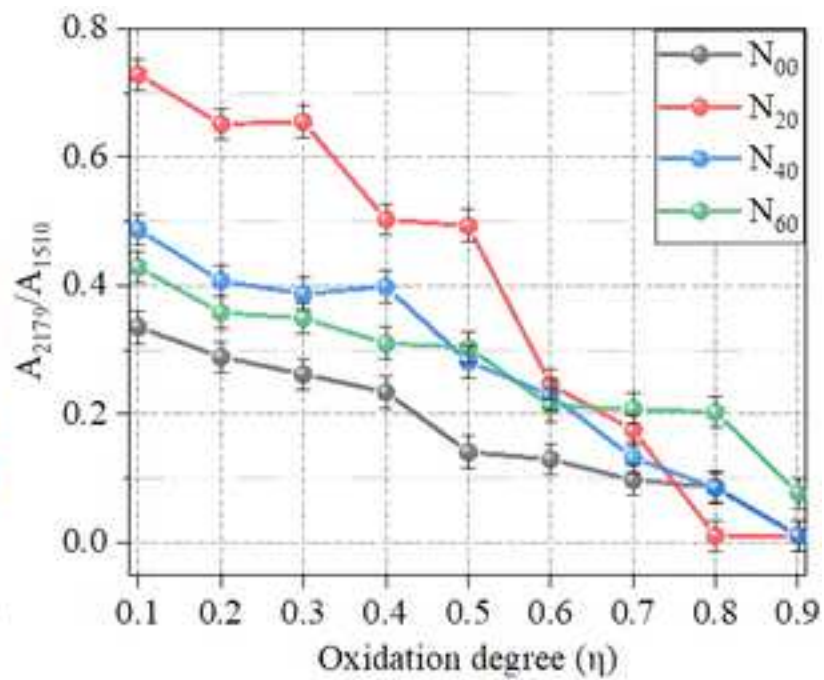
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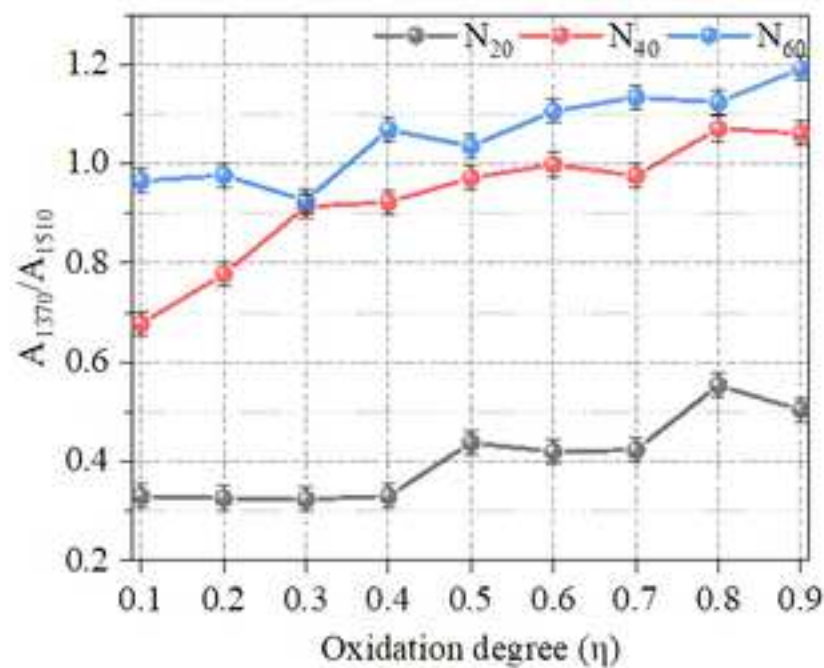
Figure 8

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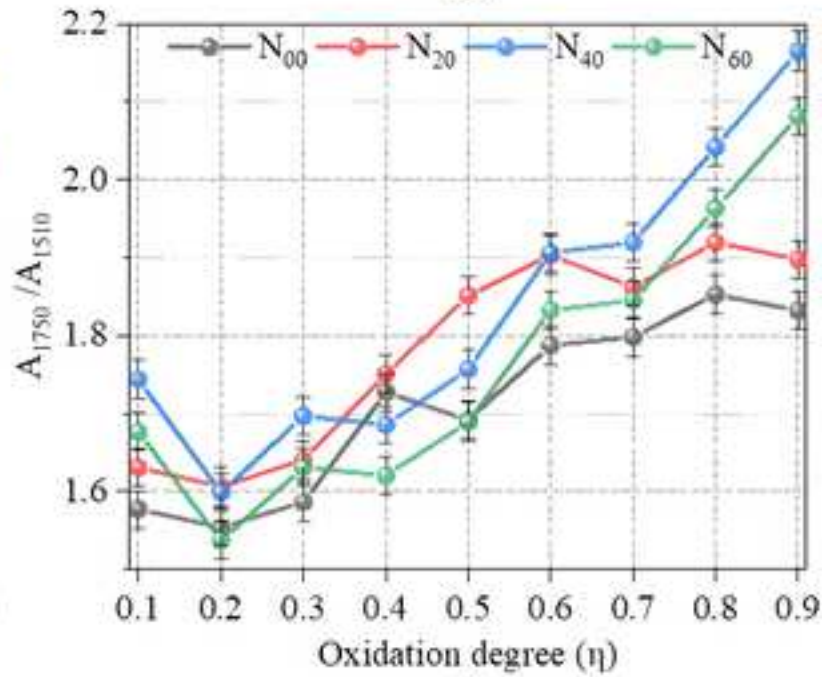
(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)

Figure 9

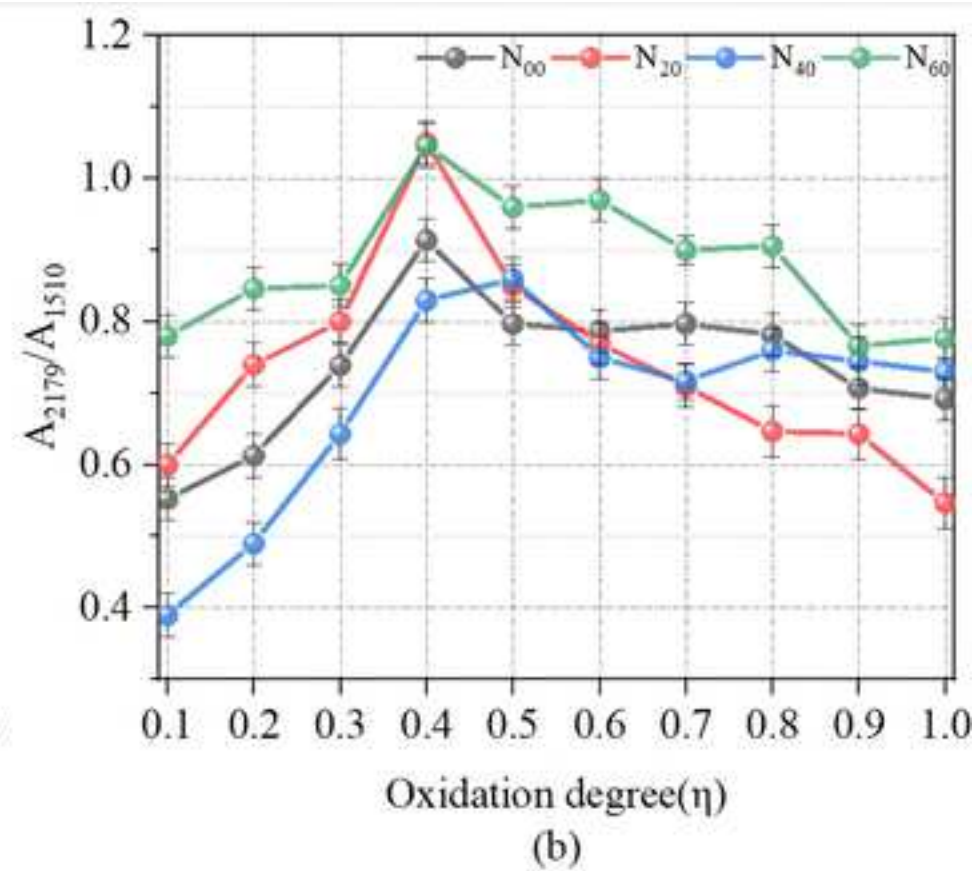
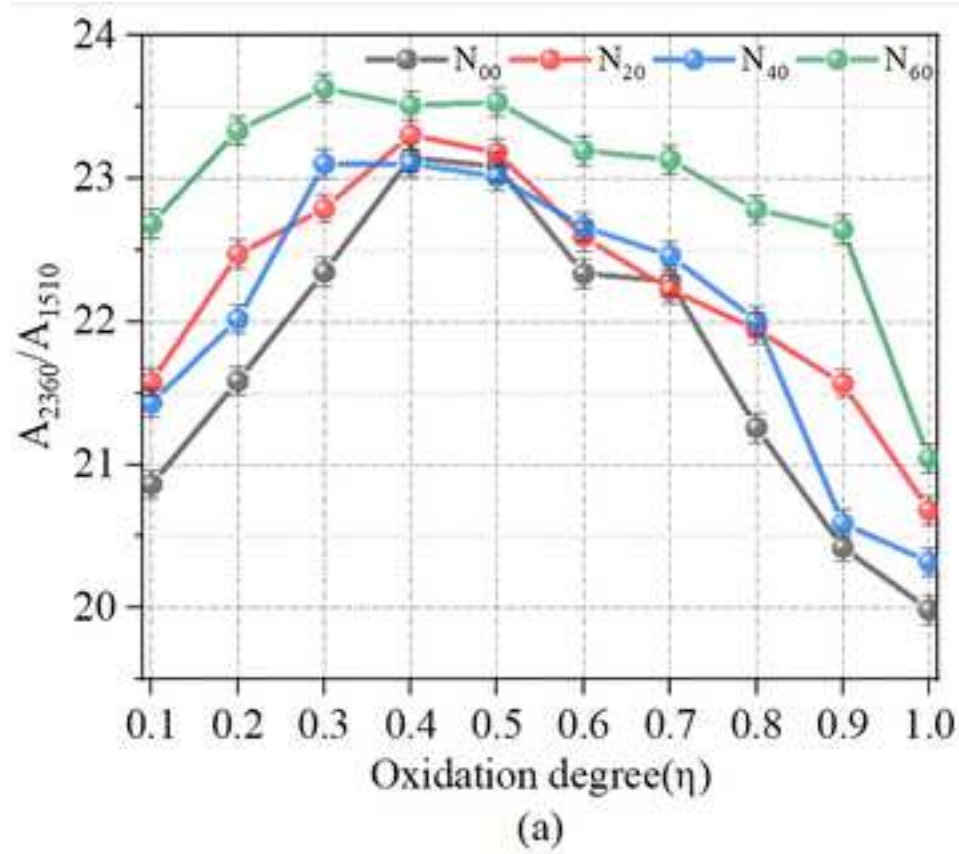
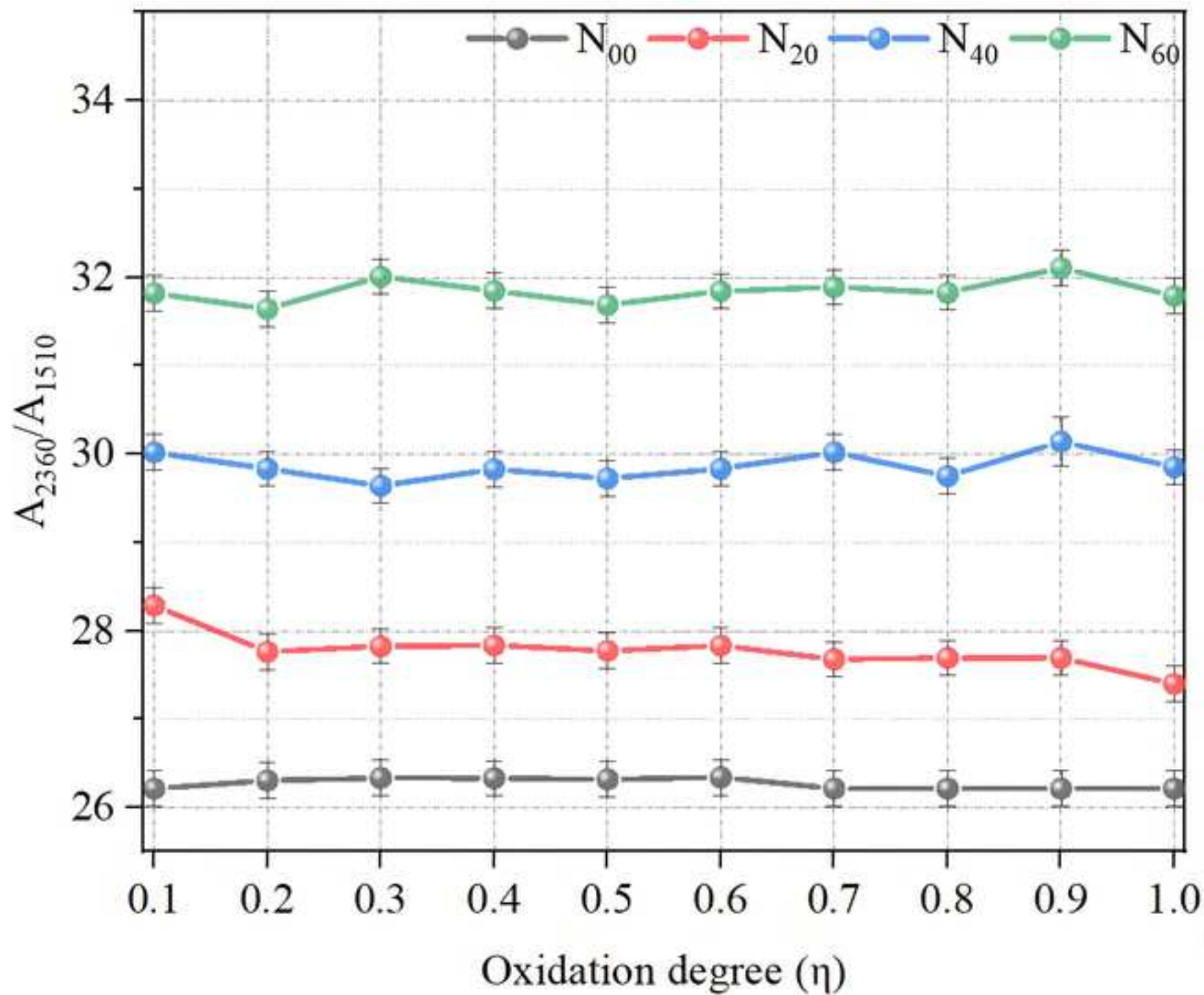
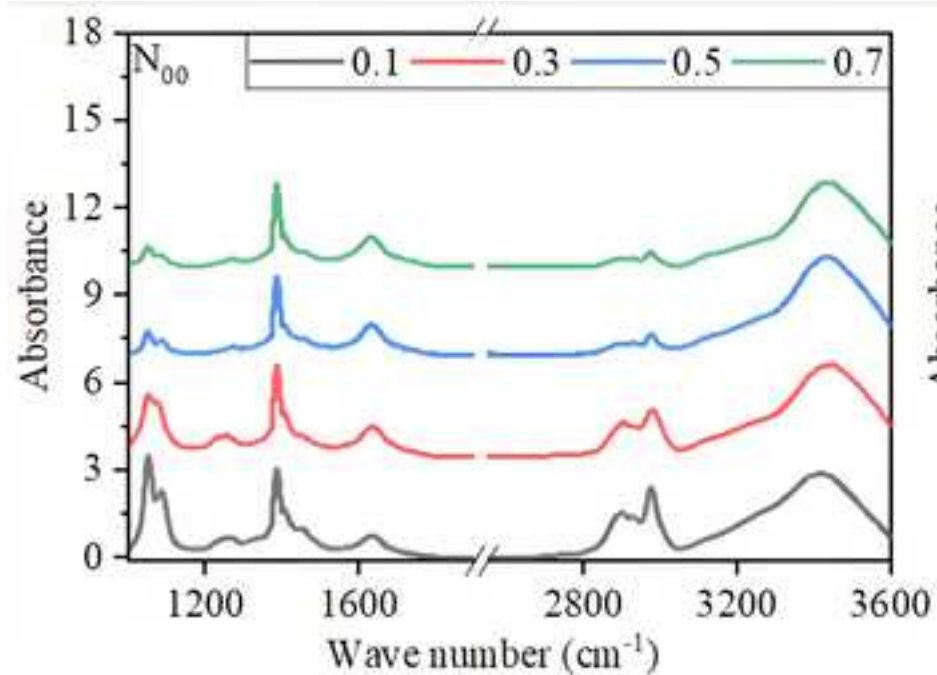
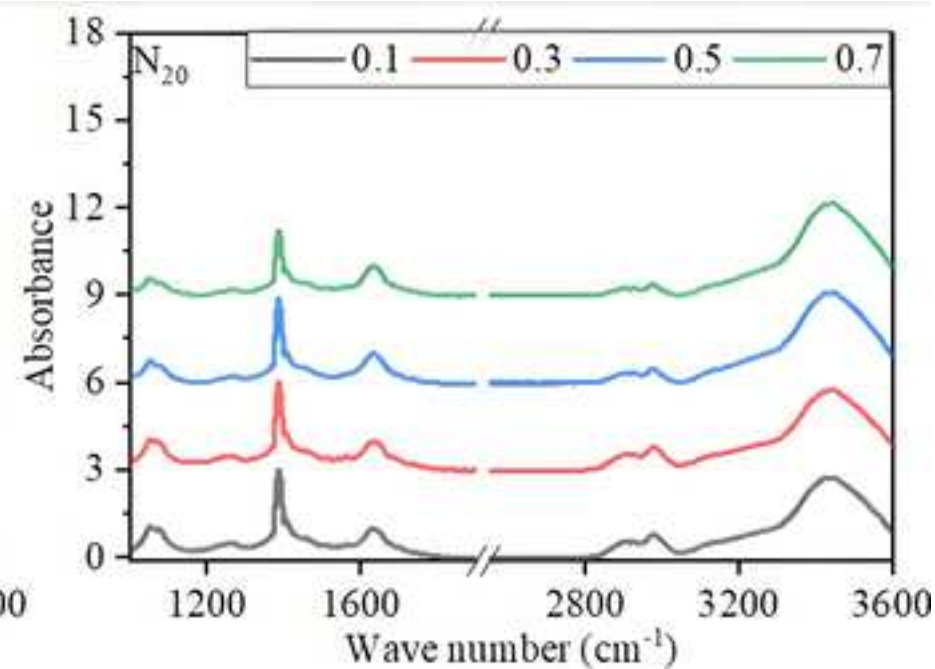
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Figure 10

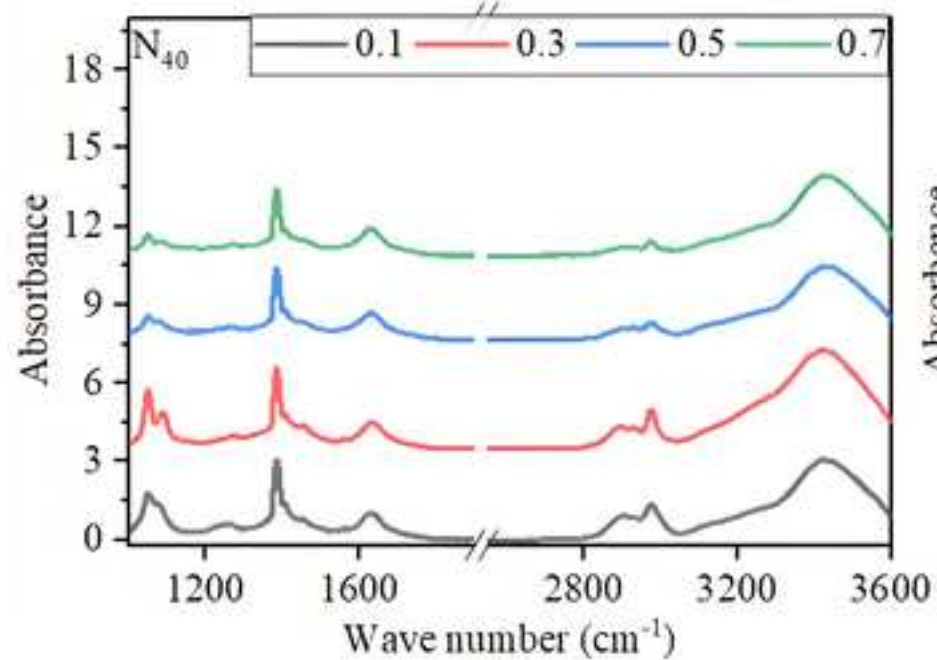
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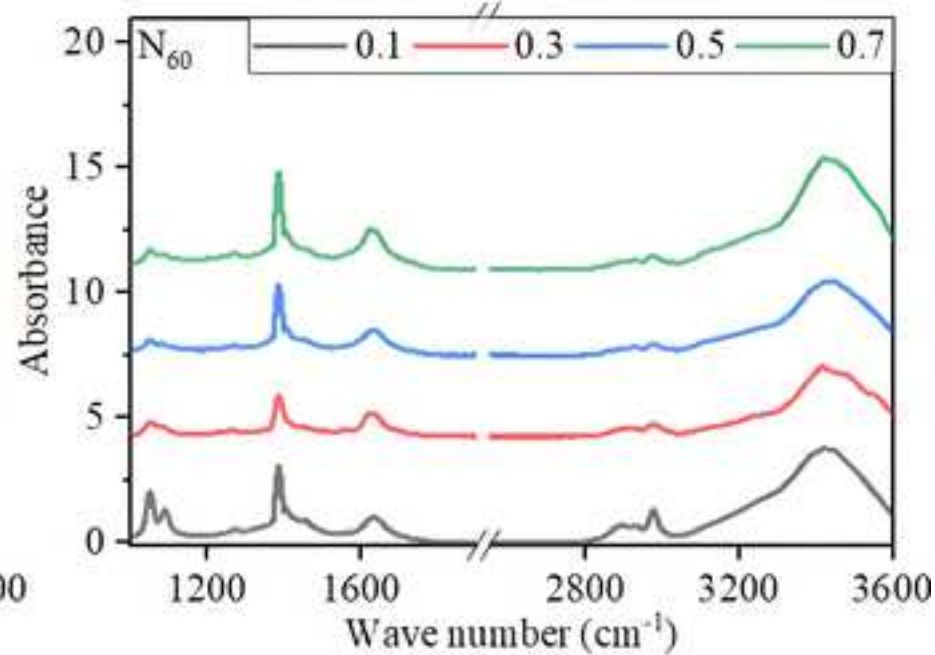
(a)



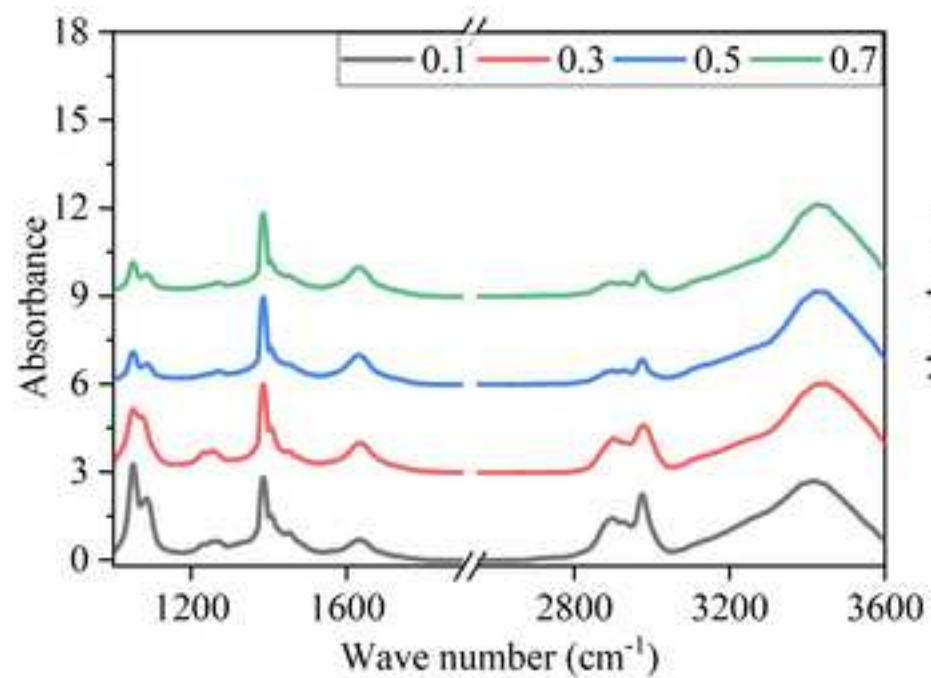
(b)



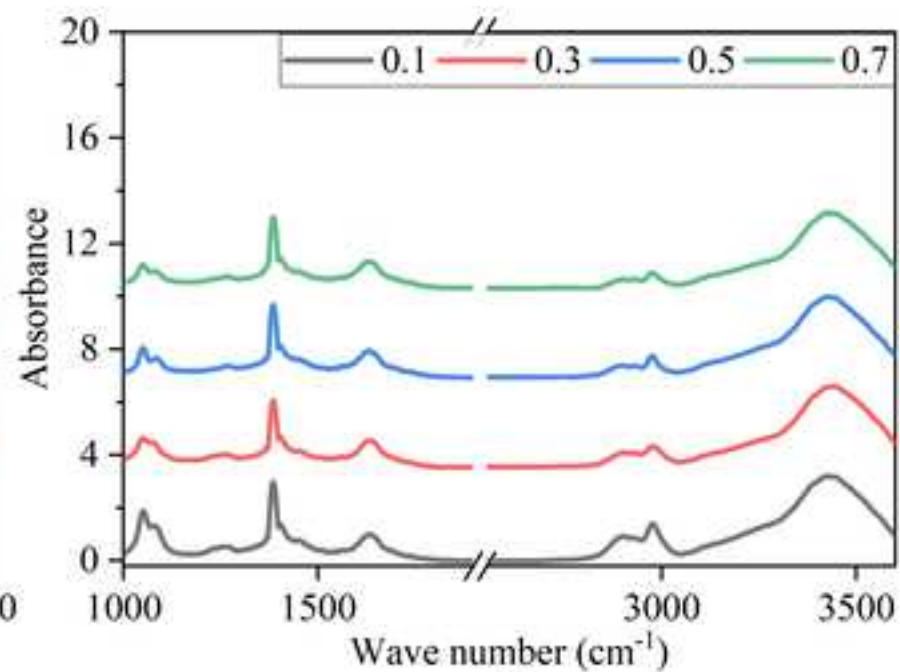
(c)



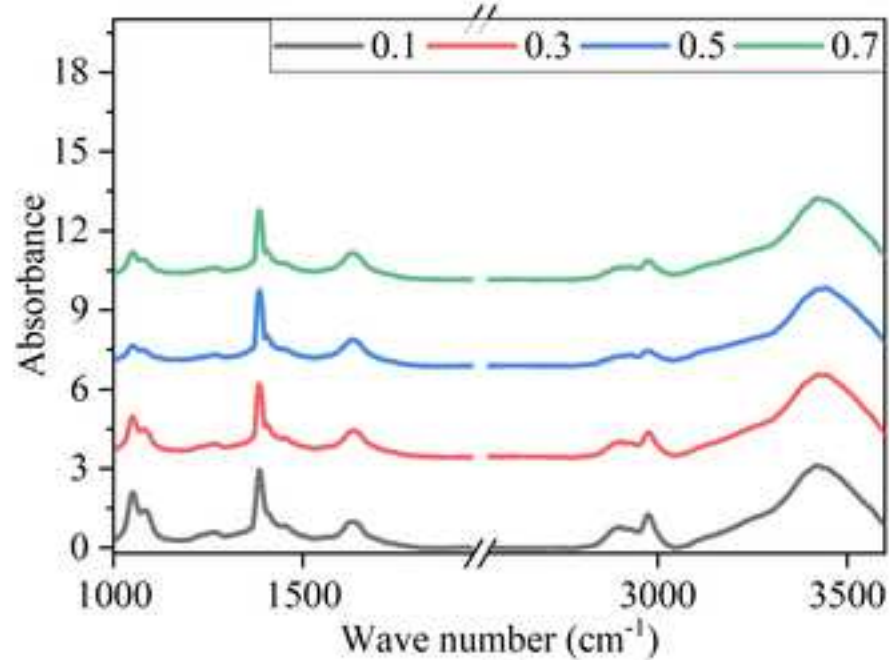
(d)



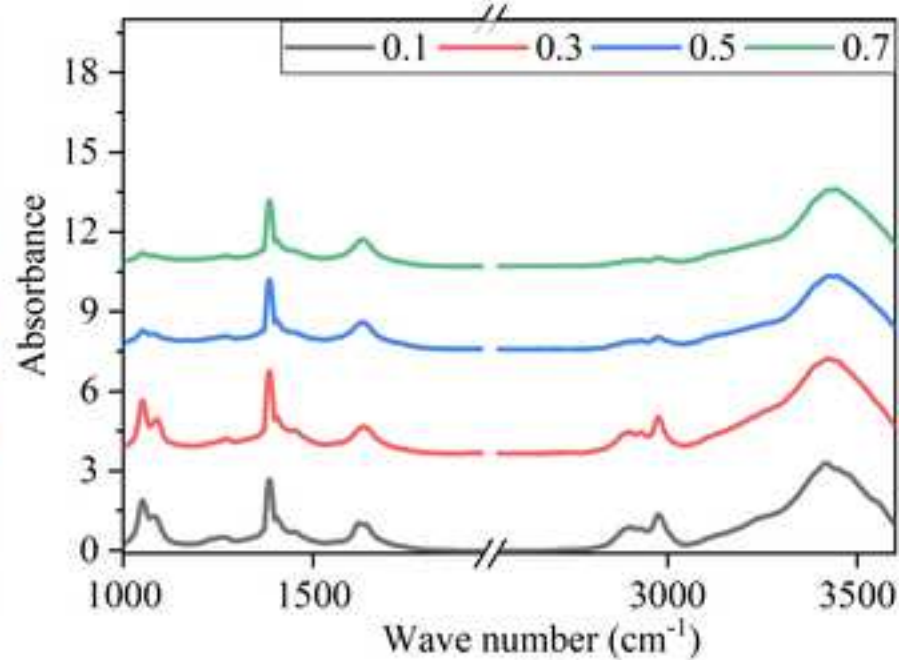
(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)

Figure 13

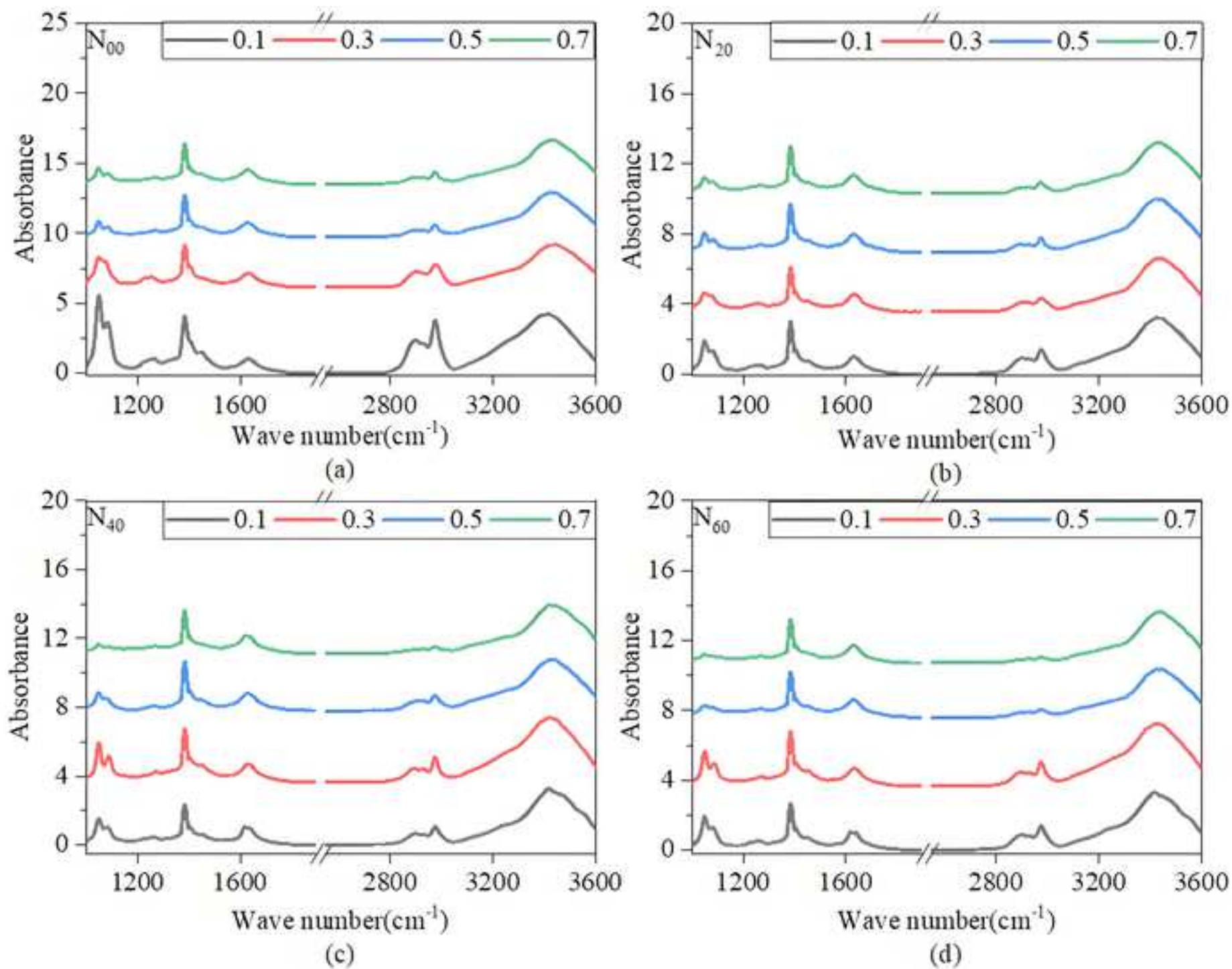
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Figure 14

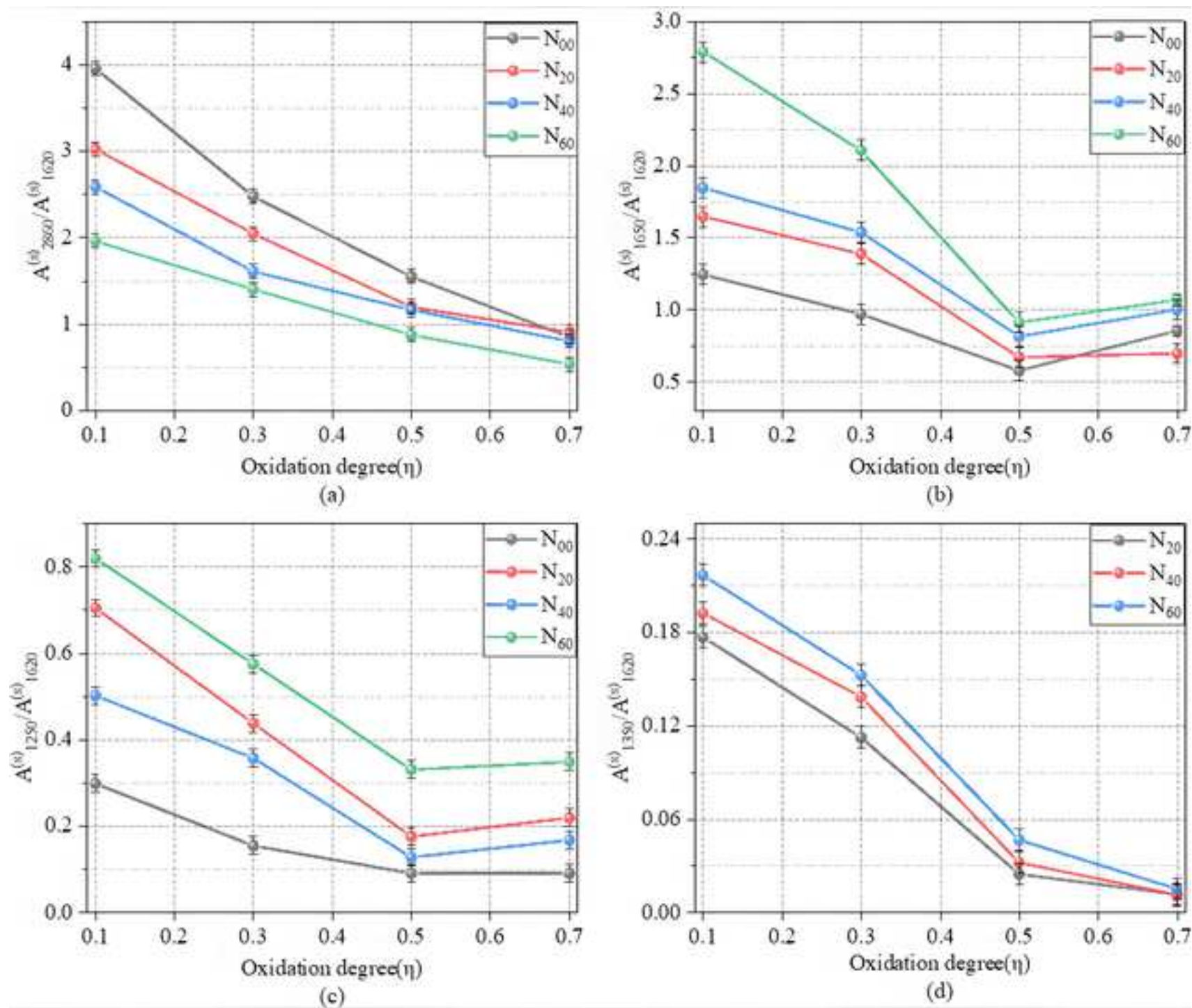
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Figure 15

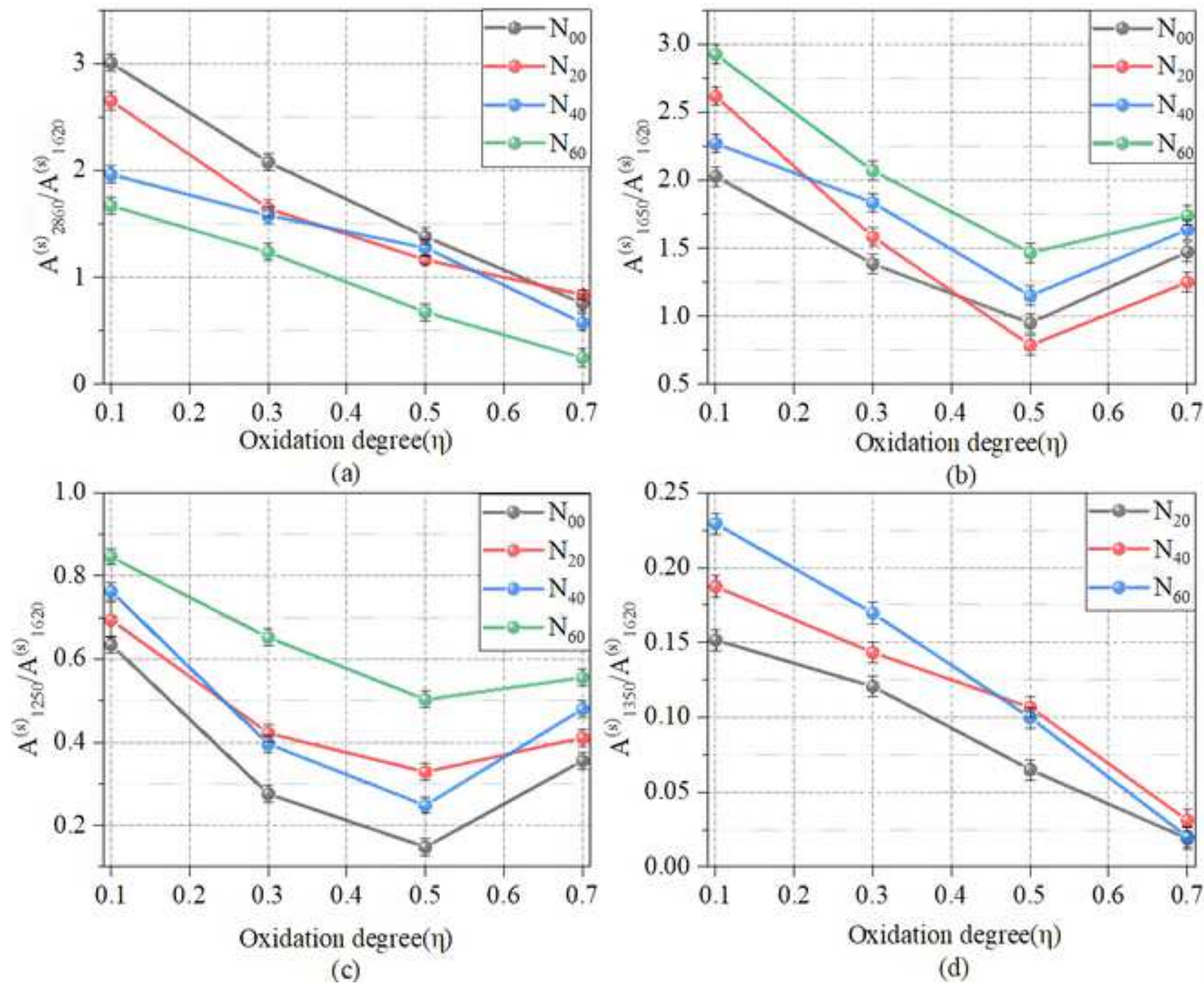
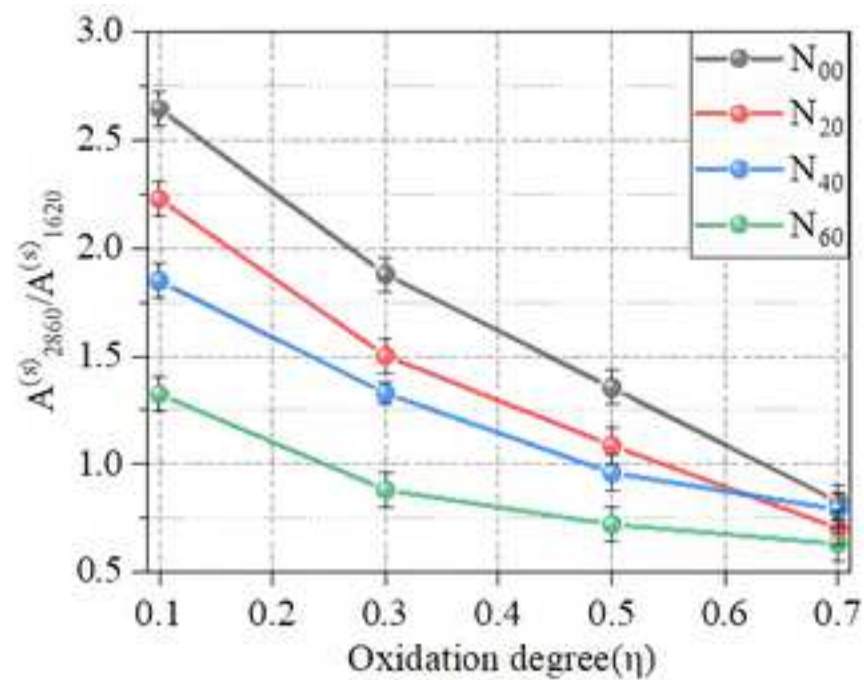
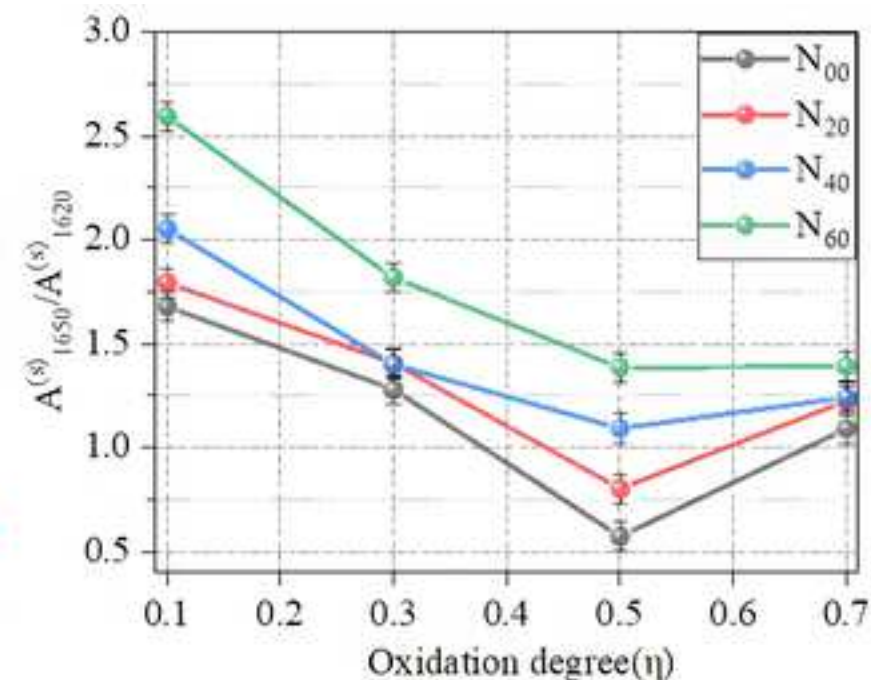
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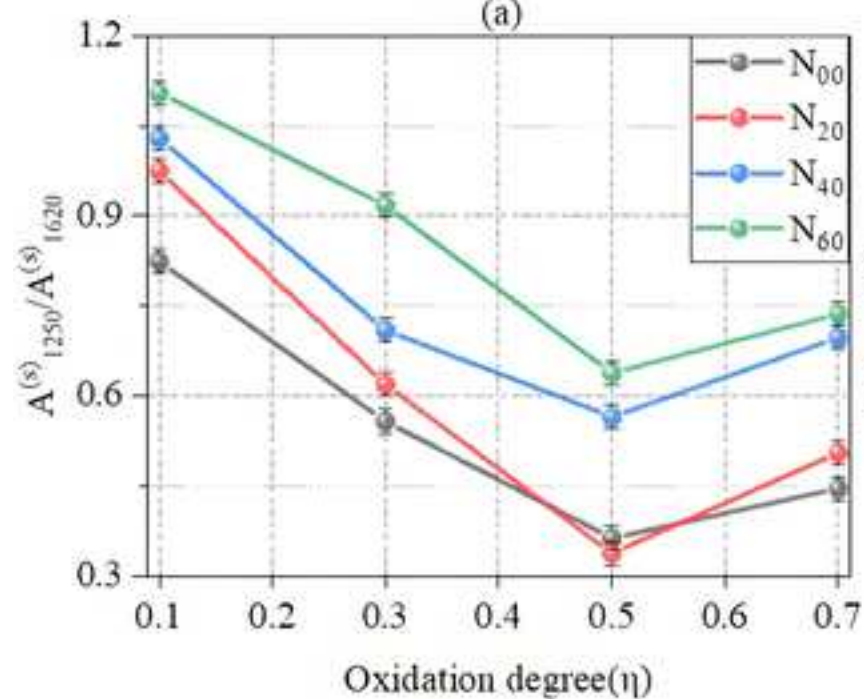
Figure 16

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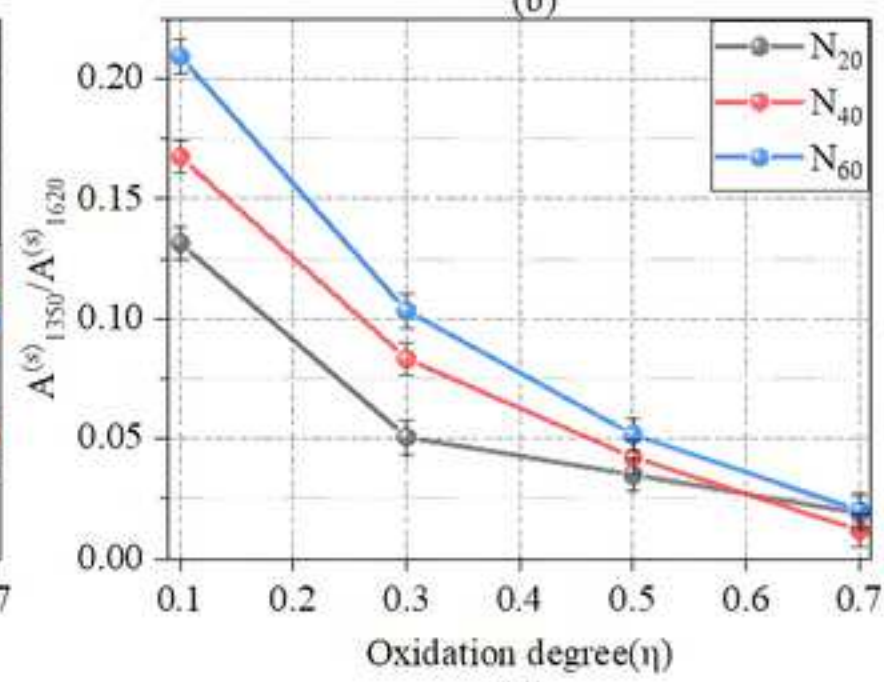
(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)