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Effects of simultaneous CO₂ addition to the fuel and oxidizer streams on soot formation in co-flow diffusion ethylene flame

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ABSTRACT

Keywords: CO₂ addition to fuel/oxidizer streams Co-flow ethylene flame Soot inception Soot surface growth Soot oxidation

Soot formation in a co-flow diffusion ethylene flame with the addition of CO₂ to the fuel (the CO₂-F), oxidizer (the CO₂-O), and fuel/oxidizer (the CO₂-F/O) streams was numerically and experimentally investigated in this study. The effects of different CO_2 addition ways on soot inception, soot condensation, H-abstraction- C_2H_2 addition (HACA) and oxidation by O₂/OH processes, were quantitatively analyzed by introducing the integrated reaction rates over the whole computational domain. The simulated and experimental results showed that the CO₂-F/O was the most effective in inhibiting soot formation and flame temperature, followed by the CO₂-O, and the CO₂-F. Compared with the CO₂-F, the suppression effect of the CO₂-O on soot inception was weaker due to the higher concentration of benzo(ghi) fluoranthene (BGHIF). Since the rate of C_4H_2 formation via $C_2H_4 \rightarrow C_2H_3$ \rightarrow C₂H₂ \rightarrow C₄H₂ was inhibited by the CO₂-O, lowering the consumption rate of acenaphthalene (A2R5) via C₄H₂ + A2R5=>A4, more A2R5 converted to BGHIF via A2R5 \rightarrow A2- \rightarrow A2- \rightarrow BGHIF. The suppression effects of different ways of CO_2 addition on HACA surface growth and soot condensation were identical: CO_2 -F $< CO_2$ -O <CO₂-F/O. The decrease of benzo(a)pyrene (BAPYR) mole fraction accounted for the decline of soot condensation rate, and the decreases of H and OH mole fractions were responsible for the drop of HACA surface growth rate. Compared with the CO₂-F, the CO₂-O and the CO₂-F/O had stronger suppression effects on the soot oxidation by O2 process due to the lower concentration of O2 in the oxidizer stream. Whichever CO2 addition ways were adopted, the soot oxidation by O₂ process was more sensitive than the soot oxidation by OH process with the CO₂ addition.

1. Introduction

Soot emission from hydrocarbon-fuel combustion can cause severe harm to environment and human health [1]. In addition, soot has a strong absorbing ability in visible and near-infrared radiation, which is responsible for the global warming [2]. To reduce pollutant emission in the combustion of hydrocarbon fuels, various technologies have been developed, such as the exhaust gas recirculation (EGR) technology [3] and flue gas recirculation (FGR) technology [4], in which a portion of exhaust gas flows back to engine or burner to decrease the concentration of reactive components and reduce the combustion temperature.

Carbon dioxide (CO₂) is the main component in exhaust gas. The effect of CO₂ addition on the soot formation in the hydrocarbon-fuel combustion has been extensively investigated in previous studies. It is widely known that the soot formation can be obviously inhibited by the CO₂ [5,6]. Du et al. [6] experimentally demonstrated that the CO₂

addition to the oxidizer stream (CO₂-O) suppressed soot inception via three different effects, namely chemical, dilution and thermal effects. Liu et al. [7] numerically isolated the chemical effect of CO₂ on the soot formation by introducing a fictitious CO₂, which was chemical inert, to the oxidizer stream in an ethylene co-flow flame. The simulated results revealed that the CO_2 suppressed soot formation via $CO_2 + H = CO +$ OH, resulted in the increase of the concentration of OH radicals, and thus promoted the oxidation of soot precursors. In addition, the decrease of the concentration of C₂H₂ caused by the chemical effect of CO₂ was another key factor for the decline of the soot formation rate. Similarly, Oh and Shin [8] observed that the soot volume fraction (SVF) was dramatically decreased by the CO2-O. Wang and Chung [9] comprehensively investigated the effect of the CO2-O on the soot inception, soot condensation and H-abstraction-C2H2-addition (HACA) surface growth processes, by using a detail soot kinetic model. They found that the reduced concentrations of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs)

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Table 1

Experimental and numerical conditions.

Flame conditions	Fuel stream (mL/min)		Oxidizer stream (L/min)		T _{ad} (K)
	C_2H_4	CO ₂	Air	CO ₂	
Case 1	150	-	40	-	2376.6
Case 2	150	15	40	-	2363.4
Case 3	150	-	40	4	2207.0
Case 4	150	15	40	4	2196.2



Fig. 1. Visible flame images of (a) Case 1, (b) Case 2, (c) Case 3 and (4) Case 4.

accounted for the decrease of soot inception and condensation rates. The addition of CO_2 limited H abstraction and C_2H_2 generation rates, which consequently lowered the HACA surface growth rate.

Similar to the CO₂-O, Gu et al. [10] found that the CO₂ addition to the fuel stream (CO₂-F) inhibited the soot inception by limiting the PAHs formation and surface growth processes. In addition, it was observed that the soot surface growth was suppressed more than the soot inception. Wu et al. [11] found that the CO₂-F not only inhibited the formation of soot/PAHs in ethylene diffusion flame, but also led to a shift in the peak volume fraction from the flame wings to the centerline. However, there was a difference on the suppression between the CO₂-F and the CO₂-O. The peak SVF decreased by 52.5% from the CO₂-F in an ethylene diffusion flame [12], which was remarkably less than the CO₂-O (87.2%) [11]. Likewise, Hoerlle and Pereira [13] demonstrated that the CO₂-O exhibited a stronger suppression effect on soot formation than the CO₂-F. They [13] also concluded that only the chemical effect of the CO2-O dominated the soot suppression, while both thermal and chemical effects were significant for the CO₂-F. However, Ashraf et al. [14] experimentally compared the suppressing effects of CO₂-F and the CO₂-O on soot formation in ethylene diffusion flame. They found that the maximum SVF in the centerline was 0.686 ppm when the CO₂ was added to the fuel side, while it was 0.734 ppm when the CO₂ was added to the oxidizer side, indicating that the CO₂-F exhibited a stronger suppression effect on soot formation than the CO₂-O.

Most previous studies were restricted to the effect of the CO_2 -O or the CO_2 -F on the soot formation, while the effectiveness of soot suppression among the CO_2 -F, the CO_2 -O, and oxidizer/fuel streams (CO_2 -F/O) were not quantitatively compared and analyzed in their works. It has been demonstrated that the CO_2 -O had a stronger suppression effect than the CO_2 -F on soot formation, but no studies compared the effects of three different CO_2 addition ways on soot formation, especially on the specific soot formation and oxidation processes, such as soot inception, condensation, HACA surface growth and oxidation by O_2 /OH processes.

In this study, the effects of the CO₂-F, the CO₂-O and the CO₂-F/O on soot formation characteristics in a co-flow diffusion ethylene flame were numerically and experimentally studied at atmospheric pressure. The distributions of SVF and flame temperature were reconstructed using Abel inverse method based on the radiative intensity of the Red (R) and Green (G) bands measured by a CMOS camera. The co-flow diffusion ethylene flames were modeled using gas reaction mechanisms and a detailed soot sectional model. A novel contribution of this paper is to quantitatively compare the effects of different CO2 addition on detailed soot formation and oxidation processes, including the soot inception, soot condensation, HACA surface growth and oxidation by O_2/OH processes. The key factors for different CO₂ addition ways on different



Fig. 2. The modeling concentration of OH radical in (a) Case 1, (b) Case 2, (c) Case 3, and (d) Case 4.



Fig. 3. The distributions of measured flame temperatures in (a) Case 1, (b) Case 2, (c) Case 3, and (d) Case 4.



Fig. 4. The distributions of simulated flame temperatures in (a) Case 1, (b) Case 2, (c) Case 3, and (d) Case 4.

soot formation and oxidation processes were confirmed based on the integrated reaction rates over the whole computational domain. In addition, the detailed influence pathways of different CO_2 addition ways on soot formation precursors, such as benzene and five-rings PAHs, were comparatively analyzed.

2. Methods

2.1. Experimental methods

A Gülder type burner [15] was used to generate co-flow diffusion ethylene flame. Four different cases were investigated in this work and the flow rates of fuel and oxidizers in each case were summarized in Table 1. The electronic volume flow controllers were used to control the flow rates of gases, and the measurement error was $\pm 1\%$. The inlet fuel and oxidizer temperatures were both 298 K.

The distributions of flame temperature and SVF were reconstructed by the flame image processing technology. A CMOS camera (Type: Alvium 1800U-040c) with 728 \times 544 pixels was used to obtain the R and

G data of the flame images. With optically thin assumption, the spectral radiation intensity received by the *j*th pixels can be written as:

$$I_{\lambda}(j) = \int_{l_0(j)}^{l_i(j)} \kappa_{\lambda}(l) I_{b\lambda}(l) dl = \int_{l_0(j)}^{l_i(j)} H_{\lambda}(l) dl$$

$$\tag{1}$$

where *l* was the path of the radiation intensity, *H* the emission source term, $I_{b\lambda}$ the blackbody radiation intensity of soot, which can be written as:

$$I_{b\lambda} = \frac{c_1}{\lambda^5 (e^{c_2/\lambda T} - 1)\pi}$$
(2)

where c_1 and c_2 were the Plank's constants. According to Eq. (1) and (2), and the absorption coefficient of soot in the red and green wavelengths was assumed to be the same, the flame temperature can be calculated by dividing the *H* of red and green wavelengths:

$$T = c_2 \left(\frac{1}{\lambda_G} - \frac{1}{\lambda_R}\right) \ln\left(\frac{\lambda_R^5}{\lambda_G^5} \frac{H_R}{H_G}\right)$$
(3)

Once *T* was calculated, the absorption coefficient of soot κ_{λ} can be



Fig. 5. The comparisons of simulated and measured temperatures and adiabatic temperatures in Cases 1–4.



Fig. 6. Comparison of measured and simulated temperature profiles along the axial direction at r = 0.43 cm for Case $1 \sim 4$. For experimental results.

obtained from Eq. (1). Finally, the SVF can be obtained according to the relationships between κ_{λ} and SVF [16]:

$$\kappa_{\lambda} = 6\pi E(m) f_{\nu} / \lambda \tag{4}$$

where f_v was the SVF and E(m) was a function of the complex refractive index *m*, defined as:

$$E(m) = \frac{6nk}{(n^2 - k^2 + 2)2 + 4n^2k^2}$$
(5)

where n and k were the real and imaginary parts of the complex refractive index m, respectively, which can be written as [17]:

$$\begin{cases} n = 1.811 + 0.1263 \ln\lambda + 0.0207 \ln^2\lambda + 0.0417 \ln^3\lambda \\ k = 0.5821 + 0.1213 \ln\lambda + 0.2309 \ln^2\lambda - 0.01 \ln^3\lambda \end{cases}$$
(6)

The relation between the R and G data measured by the CMOS camera and the blackbody radiation intensity in the temperature range of $300 \sim 1700$ °C was calibrated by a blackbody furnace (Type: M330).

2.2. Numerical methods

The CoFlame code [18] was used to simulate the experimental

ethylene diffusion flame. The chemical reaction mechanism established by Chernov et al. [19] was adopted in this paper. The soot inception process was modeled by the collision between two five-ring PAHs (A5), i.e., benzo(a)pyrene (BAPYR), benzo(ghi) fluoranthene (BGHIF) and secondary benzo(a)pyrenyl (BAPYR*S). The soot condensation process was assumed to be the results of collision of A5s and aggregates with a condensation efficiency of 0.5. The HACA surface growth process was described by the HACA mechanism. The fraction of reactive soot surface sites was assumed to be [$\alpha = \min[0.004\exp(10800/T), 1.0]$ according to Ref. [20].

The radiative heat transfer equation was solved by the discrete ordinates method (DOM) [21]. The radiation emitted by H₂O, CO₂, CO, and soot was considered in this paper. The statistical narrow-band correlated-*k* method [22] was used to calculate the radiative properties of gases in the range of 150 ~ 9300 cm⁻¹. The absorption coefficient of soot was calculated by $k_s = 5.5 f_v \eta$.

The numerical domain was 11.5 cm (streamwise, z) \times 3.8 cm (radius, r), and was divided into 160 (z) \times 80 (r) non-uniform control volumes. The minimum resolution in the streamwise direction was 0.02 cm and in the radius direction was 0.03 cm. All numerical simulations were performed in a 40-core server.

3. Results and discussions

3.1. Flame appearance

Fig. 1 showed the visible flame appearances in Cases $1 \sim 4$. The visible flame height of Case 1 was 63.08 mm, which was slightly higher than that of 61.00 mm in Case 2, but obviously lower than that of 73.24 mm in Case 3. The numerical flame height was indicated by the OH radical [23]. The modeling concentration of OH radical in Cases $1 \sim 4$ were compared in Fig. 2. It is clear from Fig. 2 that the contour line of OH concentration of 5E-4 in Cases 3 and 4 were about 0.5 cm higher than those in Cases 1 and 2. This is mainly because the O₂ concentration was lowered by the CO₂-O and the flame ignition was delayed.

3.2. Flame temperature

The distributions of simulated and measured flame temperatures in Cases 1-4 were depicted in Figs. 3 and 4. As shown in Fig. 3, the simulated high-temperature regions of Cases 1-4 located in the flame wing region, which were consistent with those in the measured results shown in Fig. 4. The simulated and measured peak temperatures and adiabatic temperatures of Cases 1-4 were compared in Fig. 5. According to Fig. 5, the simulated and measured peak temperatures and adiabatic temperature exhibited the same variation trend in the CO₂-F, CO₂-O and CO₂-F/O. Compared with the measured results, the maximum relative error of the simulated peak temperature in Cases $1 \sim 4$ was around 1.7%. With regard to the CO₂-F cases, both the simulated and measured peak temperature decreased to 2055 K, shown in Fig. 3(b) and Fig. 4(b). The measured and simulated peak temperatures and adiabatic temperature decreased by 215 K, 155 K and 170 K in the CO2-O cases, respectively, showing a more suppression effect on the flame temperature in the CO₂-O than that in the CO₂-F. Compared with the CO₂-F and CO₂-O, the flame temperature decreased the most in the CO₂-F/O. The simulated and measured peak temperatures and adiabatic temperature in the CO2-F/O decreased by 225 K, 165 K and 180 K, respectively.

The measured and simulated temperature profiles along the axial direction at r = 0.43 cm, where the peak tempearture occurred, were compared in Fig. 6. It is clear from Fig. 6 that the simulated temperature for Cases $1 \sim 4$ first increased, then decreased with height increased, which was the same as measured temperature profiles. At height of $0.7 \sim 1.7$ cm, the measured temperatures of Cases 1 and 2 agreed well with the simulated temperatures. For Cases 3 and 4, the simulated temperature profiles at height of $1.0 \sim 2.0$ cm.



Fig. 7. The distributions of measured SVF in (a) Case 1, (b) Case 2, (c) Case 3, and (d) Case 4.



Fig. 8. The distributions of simulated SVF in (a) Case 1, (b) Case 2, (c) Case 3, and (d) Case 4.

3.3. Soot volume fraction

The simulated and measured SVFs in Cases 1–4 were compared in Figs. 7 and 8. As shown in Fig. 7, the soot predicted in Cases 1–4 was mainly generated in the flame wing region, which agreed well with the measured results shown in Fig. 8. Comparing Fig. 7(a) with 7(b), the peak SVF decreased by 0.9 ppm in the CO_2 -F. While a larger decrease of 1.02 ppm was observed in the CO_2 -O (in Fig. 7(a) and (c)). The peak SVF of CO_2 -F/O decreased by 1.87 ppm in comparison of Fig. 7(a) and (d), indicating that the CO_2 -F/O had the most inhibiting effect on soot formation. As shown in Fig. 9, the simulated peak SVF in Cases 1–4 captured well with the measured results and showed the same variation trend, demonstrating that the present models could provide good prediction of the experimental SVFs.

In order to quantitatively illustrate how different CO_2 addition ways affected soot formation processes at different heights of the flame, the radially integrated rate of each formation process was calculated:

$$\alpha = 2\pi \int_0^r S_{proc} r dr \tag{7}$$

where S_{proc} was the rate of soot inception (α_{IN}), soot condensation (α_{CO}), HACA surface growth (α_{HACA}), and oxidation by O₂/OH (α_{O2}/α_{OH}) at a given location, and *r* was the radial position. The distributions of radially integrated soot formation and oxidation rates in Cases 1–4 were plotted in Fig. 10.

As shown in Fig. 10(a), the soot inception process occurred at the lower position of the flame and the peak α_{IN} located at a height of around 0.2 cm. Subsequently, the soot condensation and HACA processes occurred. The peak α_{CO} and α_{HACA} were 2–3 orders of magnitude larger than the peak α_{IN} , indicating that the soot condensation and HACA processes played a major role in the increasing SVF. It was clear from Fig. 10(d) and (e) that the peak α_{O2} was about two times larger than the peak α_{OH} in Case 1. These two processes dominated the soot oxidation at different flame height ranges. The soot oxidation by OH process started at the height of 1 cm and the soot oxidation by O₂ process started at the





Fig. 10. The axial distributions of radially integrated soot formation and oxidation rates: (a) inception, (b) condensation, (c) HACA, (d) soot oxidation by O_2 , and (e) soot oxidation by OH in Cases 1–4.

height of 2 cm. Because the OH radicals formed in the flame reaction zone, and it took more time for O_2 to transfer from the oxidizer stream to the flame reaction zone. Both the soot oxidation by OH and O2 processes terminated at the height of 6 cm.

As shown in Fig. 10, different CO_2 addition ways resulted in considerable discrepancies on each soot formation or oxidation process. In order to further explain how CO_2 addition ways impacted soot formation processes, the key factors contributing to the soot inception, soot condensation, HACA surface growth and oxidation by O_2/OH processes in Cases 1–4 were comprehensively compared and analyzed in the



Fig. 11. The integrated soot inception rates over the whole computational domain.

following section.

3.4. Effect on the soot inception

In Fig. 10(a), $\alpha_{\rm IN}$ of Cases 1 and 2 almost overlapped at the height of 0 ~ 0.2 cm. As the height increased, the $\alpha_{\rm IN}$ of Case 2 decreased faster than that of Case 1, leading to the lower $\alpha_{\rm IN}$ of Case 2 at the height of 0.3 ~ 2 cm. Generally, the soot inception was suppressed by the CO₂-F. Likewise, the suppression effect of the CO₂-F on soot inception could be found by comparing the $\alpha_{\rm IN}$ of Case 3 and 4. At the heights of 0–0.2 cm and 1–2 cm, the $\alpha_{\rm IN}$ values of Case 2 were larger than those of Case 3, but opposite at the height over 2 cm. This made it difficult to compare the soot suppression effect between the CO₂-F and CO₂-O. Hence, the integrated soot inception rate over the whole computational domain (β , g/s) was introduced:

$$\beta = \int_0^h \alpha dh \tag{8}$$

As shown in Fig. 10(a), although the peak α_{IN} of Case 3 was less than that of Case 2, the β_{IN} of Case 3 shown in Fig. 11 was 0.12E-7 g/s larger than that of Case 2, indicating that the CO₂-F had more significant suppression effect on the soot inception than the CO₂-O. This also demonstrated that it was not comprehensive to adopt the peak α_{IN} to evaluate the suppression effects of different CO₂ addition ways on soot inception. The peak α_{IN} and β_{IN} in Case 4 were obviously less than those in other cases, which implied that the CO₂-F/O had the most suppression effect on the soot inception.

The soot inception was assumed to be the collision of two A5s. Therefore, the soot inception rate mainly depended on the mole fractions of these A5s. Fig. 12(a)-(c) showed the axial distributions of radially integrated mole fractions (γ , cm²) of three different A5s calculated by:

$$\gamma = 2\pi \int f r dr \tag{9}$$

where f was the mole fraction of the specie at a given location.

As shown in Fig. 12(a)-(c), the peak $\gamma_{BAPYR*S}$ values of Cases 1–4 were 4 orders of magnitude less than the peak γ_{BGHIF} and γ_{BAPYR} , indicating that BGHIF and BAPYR were the two major species involving in the soot inception. It was clear from Fig. 12(a) that the axial distributions of γ_{BGHIF} of Cases 1–4 were more in line with those of α_{IN} (see Fig. 10(a)) compared with the γ_{BAPYR} . On the other hand, the peak γ_{BGHIF} values of Cases 1–4 were located at the height of around 0.2 cm, which were consistent with the location of peak α_{IN} . However, the locations of peak γ_{BAPYR} of Cases 1–4 were around 0.3 cm higher than those of peak α_{IN} . It



Fig. 12. The axial distribution of γ of (a) BGHIF, (b) BAPYR, and (c) BAPYR*S.



Fig. 13. The integrated mole fractions of BGHIF over the whole computational domain.

could thus be concluded that BGHIF dominated in the soot inception.

Similar to the soot inception, it was difficult to distinguish the inhibiting levels of different CO_2 addition ways on the BGHIF formation according to the peak γ_{BGHIF} shown in Fig. 12(a). Therefore, the integrated mole fraction of BGHIF over the whole computational domain (η , cm³) was obtained to evaluate the formation rate of BGHIF:

$$\eta = \int_0^h \gamma dh \tag{10}$$

As shown in Fig. 13, the η_{BGHIF} of Case 2 was slightly less than that of Case 1, which demonstrated that the CO₂-F had a limited inhibiting effect on the BGHIF formation. It could be found from the Fig. 13 and Fig. 11 that the suppression effect of the CO₂-F on β_{IN} was stronger than that on η_{BGHIF} , indicating that the BGHIF was not the only key factor for the soot inception. Besides the concentrations of PAHs, the flame temperature was also a key factor for the soot inception [24]. Compared

with Case 1, the peak temperature of Case 2 decreased by 15 K, which contributed to the decrement of $\beta_{\rm IN}$. The effect of the CO₂-O on the $\eta_{\rm BGHIF}$ was contrary to the CO₂-F. As shown in Fig. 13, the formation of BGHIF was promoted by the CO₂-O and the $\eta_{\rm BGHIF}$ of Case 3 was around 16% larger than that of Case 1. Although the formation of BGHIF was promoted by the CO₂-O, the soot inception was inhibited due to the decrease of peak temperature by 155 K in Case 3. Similarly, the decrease of temperature played a key role in the drop of $\beta_{\rm IN}$ in Case 4.

As discussed above, the decrease of temperature was the main reason for the drop of soot inception rates. However, the increases of $\eta_{\rm BGHIF}$ caused by the CO₂-O and CO₂-F/O also had a significant impact on the soot inception. Compared with the CO₂-F (Case 2), the $\beta_{\rm IN}$ of Case 3 was obviously increased due to the higher $\eta_{\rm BGHIF}$ caused by the CO₂-O. Moreover, although the peak temperature in Case 4 was 150 K lower than that in Case 2, their $\beta_{\rm IN}$ values were close to each other (3.82E-7 g/s for Case 2 and 3.77E-7 g/s for Case 4) since the $\eta_{\rm BGHIF}$ of Case 4 was 15.6% larger than that of Case 2.

The formation of BGHIF was described by the chemical mechanism. The integrated reaction rates of reactions involved in BGHIF formation (δ , mol/s) were obtained by:

$$\delta = 2\pi \int_0^h \int_0^r S_{rop} r dr dh \tag{11}$$

where S_{rop} was the reaction rate. The formation pathways of BGHIF of Cases 1–4 were depicted in Fig. 14 based on δ s (available in supplemental materials).

As shown in Fig. 14, the BGHIF was mainly formed via R783 (C₁₈H₁₁ + H = BGHIF + H₂), R771 (A2R5-+A1=>BGHIF + H₂ + H) and R765 (A1C2H + A2-=>BGHIF + H₂ + H). The CO₂-F/O limited the δ R783 and δ R771 most, followed by the CO₂-O, then the CO₂-F. All of these BGHIF formation reaction rates were decreased by the CO₂-F, leading to the drop of η_{BGHIF} in Case 2. Compared with the CO₂-F, the δ R765 increased in the CO₂-O and CO₂-F/O, which were consistent with the changes of η_{BGHIF} and confirmed that R765 primarily accounted for the larger η_{BGHIF} in Cases 3 and 4.

A2- was the reactant of R765 and the η_{A2} values of four Cases were displayed in Fig. 15(a). It was clear from Fig. 15(a) that more A2- formed



Fig. 14. The formation pathways of BGHIF and BAPYR in Cases 1-4.

in the CO₂-O, which was the main reason for the increase of δ R765. As shown in Fig. 15(c), the CO₂-O resulted in the increase of η_{A2R5} , which subsequently led to the increase of η_{A2} (see Fig. 15(b)) and η_{A2} .

Based on Fig. 14, the δ R683 (C₉H₇ + C₃H₃ = A2R5 + H₂) decreased by 0.11 mol/s in the CO₂-O, which was contrary to the change of η_{A2R5} . There were four channels competing for A2R5: R829 (A2R5 + OH=>A2 + HCCO), R691 (A2R5 + H = A2R5-+H2), R692 (A2R5 + OH = A2R5-+H₂O), and R731 (C₄H₂ + A2R5=>A4). As shown in Fig. 15(h), compared with Case 1, the η_{OH} decreased by 0.16E-4 cm³ in Case 3, which was one order of magnitude less than the decrease of η_{C4H2} 0.21E-3 cm³ (see Fig. 15(d)) and η_{H} 0.29E-3 cm³ (see Fig. 15(i)). The larger decreases of η_{C4H2} and η_{H} resulted in the drop of δ R731 and δ R691, leading to more A2R5 converted to A2 via R829, consequently increasing η_{A2} . Though more A2R5 was converted to A2R5- via R692, δ R783 was not increased in the CO₂-O, due to the less A1 generated via R497 (i-C₄H₅ + C₂H₂ = A1 + H) and R489 (2C₃H₃ = A1) in Case 3.

As shown in Fig. 14, the C₄H₂ was primarily formed via the formation pathway of C₂H₄ \rightarrow C₂H₃ \rightarrow C₂H₂ \rightarrow C₄H₂, where R239 (C₂H₄ + H = C₂H₃ + H₂) and R240 (C₂H₄ + OH = C₂H₃ + H₂O) were initial reactions. Compared with Case 1, the δ R239 in Case 3 decreased but the δ R240 increased, due to the larger decline of η_{OH} than η_{H} . Since the increase of δ R240 was less than the drop of δ R239, the consumption rate of C₂H₄ generally decreased, leading to the increase of η_{C2H4} in Case 3 shown in Fig. 15(g). Although less C₂H₄ was converted to C₂H₃, the η_{C2H3} increased in Case 3, which was mainly attributed to the larger decline of consumption rate of C₂H₃ (R77: C₂H₂ + H (+M) = C₂H₃ (+M)). Similarly, compared with the formation rate, the decline of the consumption rate of C₂H₂ was larger, resulting in the increase of η_{C2H2} in Case 3. While for C₄H₂, its consumption rate (R101: C₄H₂ + OH = C₃H₂ + HCO) decreased more than the formation rate (R81: C₂H₂ + C₂H = C₄H₂ + H), which was the primary reason for the decline of η_{C4H2} in Case 3 shown in Fig. 15(d).

3.5. Effect on the soot surface growth

The β_{CO} and β_{HACA} calculated in Cases 1 ~ 4 were depicted in Fig. 16. The effects of different CO₂ addition ways on the peak α s shown in Fig. 10(b) and (c) were identical to the β s shown in Fig. 16(a) and (b). This confirmed that the effects of different CO₂ addition on HACA surface growth and condensation processes could be quantitatively evaluated by the peak α s.

As indicated in Fig. 16(a) and (b), unlike the soot inception (see Fig. 11), the suppression effects of CO₂ addition ways on soot condensation and HACA surface growth were in the order: CO₂-F < CO₂-O < CO₂-F/O. Whereas, the influence extent of CO₂ addition ways on soot condensation and HACA surface growth was different. The CO₂-F caused the β_{HACA} decreasing from 2.66E to 4 g/s to 2.61E-4 g/s, with a drop of 1.9%, which was less than the decrease of β_{CO} (by 7%). In the CO₂-O, the β_{HACA} decreased by 19.9%, which was larger than the decrease of β_{CO} (8.8%). The β_{HACA} and β_{CO} in Case 4 were 21.1% and 14.2% less than those in Case 1, indicating that the CO₂-F/O had the most significant inhibiting effect on HACA surface growth and soot condensation.

The soot condensation rate depended on the concentrations of soot and A5s [25]. As shown in Fig. 12, compared with γ_{BGHIF} , the distributions of γ_{BAPYR} were more consistent with those of α_{CO} shown in Fig. 10 (b), implying that BAPYR played a more significant role in the soot



Fig. 15. The integrated mole fractions of (a) A2-, (b) A2, (c) A2R5, (d) C₄H₂, (e) C₂H₂, (f) C₂H₃, (g) C₂H₄, (h), OH and (i) H over the whole computational domain.



Fig. 16. The integrated (a) soot condensation and (b) HACA surface growth rates over the whole computational domain.

condensation process. The formation pathways of BAPYR in Cases 1-4 were compared in Fig. 14.

As shown in Fig. 14, the BAPYR was mainly formed through R781 (A2R5-+A1C2H = BAPYR + H) and R792 (C₄H₂ + A4=>BAPYR). Both δ R781 and δ R792 were inhibited in the CO₂-F, and the δ R792 decreased more evidently, indicating that R792 was mainly accounted for the decrease of γ BAPYR in Case 1. As shown in Fig. 14, the CO₂-O had little effect on the δ R781, but a more significant suppression effect on the δ R792. Compared with Case 1, δ R792 decreased by 2.91E-8 mol/s in Case 4, which was obviously larger than the decrease of δ R781 (by

0.37E-8 mol/s). In general, R792 dominated the decrease of γ_{BAPYR} in Cases 2–4. As discussed in the previous section, the consumption rate of A2R5 via R731 was inhibited due to the decrease of η_{C4H2} in Cases 2 – 4, leading to a lower mole fraction of A4, consequently decreasing δ R792.

As shown in Fig. 12, in Cases $2 \sim 4$, the peak mole fractions of BAPYR decreased by 6.6%, 12.2% and 17.7%, respectively, while the peak condensation rates shown in Fig. 10(b) decreased by 10.7%, 25.0% and 32.4%, respectively. The decreases of peak condensation rates were almost twice larger than the decreases of peak mole fractions of BAPYR in Cases 2–4, which was due to the decreases of flame temperature and







Fig. 18. The sensitivity analysis of (a) BGHIF, (b) BAPYR, (c) H and (d) O₂.

soot nucleation rate.

As shown in Fig. 16(b), since the suppression effects of the CO₂-O and CO₂-F/O on the HACA surface growth rate were similar, the following discussion mainly focused on the analysis of the decrease of β_{HACA} caused by the CO₂-O. The HACA surface growth rate was positively related to the mole fractions of C₂H₂, OH and H radicals [25]. As shown in Fig. 15(e), the η_{C2H2} increased from 4.1E to 2 mol/s in Case 1 to 4.4E-2 mol/s in Case 3, which was contrary to the change of β_{HACA} . While the η_{H} and η_{OH} showed in Fig. 15(h) and (i) decreased by 13.7% and 11.25% in Case 3, around twice larger than the decrease of η_{C2H2} (by 6.8%), which accounted for the decrease of β_{HACA} in Case 3. In addition, as mentioned above, the soot condensation process occurred earlier and provided the initial soot for the HACA surface growth process. The β_{CO} was limited by the CO₂-O, which was another key factor for the decrease

of β_{HACA} .

3.6. Effect on the soot oxidation

The effects of different ways of CO₂ addition on the β_{O2} and β_{OH} were plotted in Fig. 17(a) and (b). In Fig. 17(a), the β_{O2} decreased by 5.2% with CO₂-F, which was obviously less than those with the CO₂-O (by 19.2%) and the CO₂-F/O (by 22.8%), owing to the lower O₂ concentration in the oxidizer stream in Cases 3 and 4. As shown in Fig. 15(h), there was little discrepancy in η_{OH} between Cases 1 and 2, leading to the almost overlap of α_{OH} shown in Fig. 10(e). In addition, both the CO₂-O and CO₂-F/O resulted in a decrease of β_{OH} by 13.7%, which were obviously less than the decrease of β_{O2} in Cases 3 and 4. In general, the soot oxidation by O₂ process was more sensitive than the soot oxidation by OH process with the CO_2 addition, whichever CO_2 addition ways were adopted.

3.7. Sensitivity analysis

The sensitivity results of BGHIF, BAPYR, H and O₂, which were dominant factors affecting the soot inception, soot condensation, HACA surface growth and soot oxidation by O2 processes, were shown in Fig. 18. As shown in Fig. 18(a) and (b), the three most sensitive reactions for promoting or inhibiting BGHIF and BAPYR in Cases 1-4 were the same. $C_2H_4 + OH = C_2H_3 + H_2O$ was the most sensitive reaction for inhibiting BGHIF and BAPYR. Compared with Case 1, the sensitivity coefficient of $C_2H_4 + OH = C_2H_3 + H_2O$ for BGHIF increased slightly in Cases 3 and 4, but decreased for BAPYR. $C_2H_3 + O_2 = CH_2O + HCO$ was the most sensitive reaction for promoting BGHIF and BAPYR, and its sensitivity coefficient increased when the CO2 was added to the oxidizer stream. It can be seen from Fig. 18(c) that $C_2H_3 + O_2 = CH_2O + HCO$ and $H + O_2 = OH + O$ were the two most sensitive reactions for inhibiting H in Cases 1–4. The sensitivity coefficient of $C_2H_3 + O_2 = CH_2O + HCO$ in case 4 decreased by 23.8% in comparison of case 1, while that of $H + O_2$ = OH + O increased by 13.2%. C₂H₄ + M = C₂H₃ + H + M, H₂O₂ + OH = H₂O + HO₂ and HCO + OH = H₂O + CO were three most important reactions for promoting the formation of H. Compared with case 1, all their sensitivity coefficients obviously decreased in cases 3 and 4. As shown in Fig. 18(d), the most controlling reaction for O₂ consumption was $CH_3 + OH = CH_2 + H_2O$. The CO_2 -O and CO_2 -F/O resulted in the decrease of the sensitivity coefficient of $CH_3 + OH = CH_2 + H_2O$ by 14.2% and 15.0%, respectively.

4. Conclusions

The effects of CO₂ addition to the fuel, oxidizer and fuel/oxidizer streams on soot formation in a co-flow diffusion ethylene flame were experimentally investigated and compared in this study. The two-dimensional distributions of SVF and flame temperature were reconstructed by using Abel inverse method. The simulations of four different C₂H₄/CO₂ flames were performed with detailed gas reaction and soot formation mechanisms to illustrate the experimental results. To further reveal how CO₂ addition ways affected the soot formation, the effects of different CO₂ addition ways on the soot inception, soot condensation, HACA surface growth, and oxidation by O₂/OH processes were quantitatively determined by introducing the integrated reaction rates over the whole computational domain. The main conclusions were as follows.

- 1) All three CO₂ addition ways showed suppression effects on flame temperature and SVF, among which the CO₂-F/O was the most effective, followed by the CO₂-O, and the CO₂-F was the weakest.
- 2) Compared with the CO₂-F, the suppression effect of the CO₂-O on soot inception was weaker due to the higher mole fraction of BGHIF. The reason was that the rate of C₄H₂ formation via C₂H₄ \rightarrow C₂H₃ \rightarrow C₂H₂ \rightarrow C₄H₂ was inhibited by the CO₂-O, lowering the consumption rate of A2R5 (C₄H₂ + A2R5=>A4), consequently more A2R5 was converted to BGHIF via A2R5 \rightarrow A2- \rightarrow A2 \rightarrow BGHIF. The CO₂-F/O had the most significant inhibiting effect on soot inception because of the largest drop of temperature.
- 3) The suppression effects of different CO_2 addition ways on soot condensation and HACA surface growth were identical: CO_2 -F < CO_2 -O < CO_2 -F/O. The decrease of the BAPYR mole fraction accounted for the decrease of soot condensation rates, and the decline of H and OH mole fractions accounted for the drop of HACA surface growth rates. Compared with the CO_2 -O and CO_2 -F/O, the CO_2 -F had the stronger inhibiting effect on the soot condensation, but weaker on the HACA surface growth.
- 4) Compared with the CO₂-F, the CO₂-O and CO₂-F/O had the stronger suppression effect on the soot oxidation by O₂ process due to the lower O₂ concentration in the oxidizer stream. Whichever CO₂

addition ways were adopted, the soot oxidation by O_2 process was more sensitive than the soot oxidation by OH process with the CO_2 addition.

5) The sensitivity analysis showed that $C_2H_4 + OH = C_2H_3 + H_2O$ was the most sensitive reaction for inhibiting BGHIF and BAPYR. The CO₂-O and CO₂-F/O obviously increased the sensitive coefficients of the three most important reactions for promoting the formation of H.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Yu Yang: Conceptualization, Writing – original draft. Shu Zheng: Conceptualization, Visualization, Supervision. Yuzhen He: Validation, Visualization. Hao Liu: Methodology. Ran Sui: Writing – review & editing, Formal analysis. Qiang Lu: Conceptualization, Project administration.

Declaration of Competing Interest

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.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

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