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1	Biodiesel soot combustion: Analysis of the soot-catalyst contact in
2	different experimental conditions
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14 Abstract

15 To simulate the oxidation of Biodiesel soot in a catalyzed Diesel Particulate Filter, oxidation 16 experiments of undoped or Na-doped model soot were performed in the presence of Pt-17 Pd/Al₂O₃ under Temperature Programmed Oxidation and different carbon-catalyst 18 configurations. Loose or tight contact was simulated by mixing soot and catalyst either with a 19 spatula or in a mortar. Samples were characterized by Flame Atomic Adsorption 20 Spectroscopy, Inductively Coupled Plasma-Optical Emission Spectroscopy, N₂-physisorption, 21 X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy, Raman Spectroscopy and Transmission Electron 22 Microscopy coupled with Energy Dispersive X-Ray. The results showed that reducing the 23 carbon granulometry led to an enhancement of the reactivity under NO₂, due to the external 24 combustion mechanism of carbon crystallite. In the absence of catalysts, no impact of the granulometry was observed under a flue gas containing NO and O2. A better catalyst 25 26 efficiency was obtained when the carbon-catalyst contact was increased. In tight contact, a 27 mechanism where NO_2 can react adsorbed on a metallic site with a carbon site was proposed. 28 In the presence of water, a simple addition of the catalytic activity of both water and Pt-29 Pd/Al₂O₃ catalyst impact on carbon oxidation was observed. The use of Biodiesel, simulated 30 by Na-doped model soot, led to a significant increase in the catalyst efficiency in loose 31 contact. Thus, a second mechanism was proposed, assuming that the doped sites play the role 32 of NO₂-reservoir and carrier between catalyst and carbon sites.

33

34 Keywords: Biodiesel, combustion, soot-catalyst contact, catalytic oxidation

35 **1. Introduction**

36 These days, transportation through Diesel vehicles significantly participates in the 37 atmospheric pollution, especially through particle emissions. According to the French Centre 38 Interprofessionnel Technique d'Etudes de la Pollution Atmosphérique (CITEPA), the 39 transportation sector represents around 15% of the PM₁₀, PM_{2.5} and PM₁ emissions and up to 40 50% of the black carbon emissions in France [1]. With the aim to decrease the environmental impact of heavy-duty vehicles, Euro VI emission standards, which are mandatory since 41 42 January 1st 2014, restrict particle emissions both in mass and in number [2]. The use of a 43 Diesel Particle Filter (DPF) in the exhaust line, generally coated with a platinum (Pt) and 44 palladium (Pd) based catalyst, is a good way to respect these standards [3]. Several authors 45 agree that the efficiency of the catalyst is strongly affected by its contact with soot [4–12]. In 46 order to improve knowledge on the catalytic promoting effect on soot combustion, numerous 47 studies were conducted using model soot and catalysts. For example, Neri et al. [4] suggested 48 that when a tight contact is established between graphitic carbon particles and a Pt-doped 49 alumina catalyst, a mechanism based on a 'spillover effect' occurs. Pt is able to transfer a 50 dissociated adsorbed oxygen atom to the soot particles with which it reacts. By monitoring 51 DPF cross-section with an optical microscope during the loading and regeneration phases, 52 Daido et al. [13] showed that the soot trapped inside the porosity of the filter are oxidized 53 before the soot cake layer. Southward et al. [6] also highlighted the existence of both loose 54 and tight contact between soot and catalyst inside a DPF. They proposed a 'de-coupling' 55 mechanism to describe the soot combustion in the DPF. In this configuration, soot particles 56 intimately mixed with the catalyst (i.e. inside the porosity of the filter) are oxidized by NO₂ 57 formed on the platinum-based catalyst. On the contrary, soot particles in loose contact (i.e. 58 distant from the washcoat) require active regeneration of the filter to be oxidized. Di Sarli et 59 al. [8] observed a similar behavior with a ceria-based catalyst. They directly correlated the

amount of soot loaded in the DPF to the predominant regeneration mode of the filter (thermal or catalytic). Zhang *et al.* [14] suggested that soot-catalyst contact in real DPF conditions (in particular pressure conditions) is actually intermediate between loose and tight contact. They simulated this type of contact submitting the soot-catalyst mixture to a pressure a 60 bar in a pneumatic press. Under this more realistic contact, the oxidation of model and real Biodiesel soot in the presence of a MnO_x -CeO₂ catalyst, presented reactivity lying between the loose and tight configurations.

67 Reducing the carbon footprint of transport also means reducing the fossil fuel consumption as encouraged by European Directives [15]. In this context, data showed that replacing 68 69 conventional Diesel fuel with Biodiesel reduces soot emission [16–19] and that Biodiesel soot 70 appears to be more reactive [19-25], but the literature suffers from a lack of information 71 concerning the impact of a massive use of Biodiesel on the whole depollution system line. In 72 fact, Biodiesel, obtained by transformation of animal fats or vegetable oils, presents larger 73 oxygen content than Diesel [16] and contains inorganic elements, such as sodium (Na), 74 potassium (K), magnesium (Mg), calcium (Ca) or phosphorus (P). These elements could 75 modify the composition of the soot emitted and the efficiency of after-treatment systems [25– 76 28], although the cumulated concentrations of K + Na and Ca + Mg are limited at 5 ppm and 77 the P content at 4 ppm by the EN 14214 standards in Europe and by the ASTM D6751 in 78 America [29,30]. Over the lifetime and mileage of a heavy-duty truck, these inorganic 79 impurities can significantly deposit on the various pollution control blocks [24,25,31]. In our 80 previous works [24,25,32], it was shown that the presence of alkali metals (Na and K) in both 81 model soot (doped by wet impregnation) and real Biodiesel soot led to an increase in their 82 kinetic of oxidation. The beneficial impact of these inorganic elements was observed on both 83 $C-NO_2$ and $C-O_2$ reactions. These results are supported by other authors studying various 84 carbon materials doped with alkaline mineral and tested under O2 and NO2+O2 effluent [3385 35] and real Biodiesel soot [22]. Yamane *et al.* [36] studied the filtration efficiency of a non-86 catalytic DPF on soot emitted from a CH₃OK-doped Biodiesel. They observed that CH₃OK is 87 trapped in the DPF and then acts like a catalyst on soot oxidation leading to a "self-88 regeneration" of the filter. The catalytic soot oxidation in the presence of alkali metals within 89 the catalyst is well documented and authors agree that these elements enhance the catalytic 90 carbon oxidation [22,33–35,37–44]. Tikhomirov et al. [37] and Zhu and Wang [42] studied 91 the impact of a KNO₃ doping of cerium based catalyst. They both attributed the higher 92 reactivity of K-doped catalyst to the melting of KNO₃ salts on the surface, thus increasing the 93 contact between carbon and active catalytic sites. For Gross et al. [40], potassium improves 94 the catalytic activity of CeO₂ by its high mobility, generating a better contact between soot 95 and catalyst, while Aneggi et al. [41] proposed that the presence of alkali metals favors the 96 formation of carbonates acting like O-donors for the oxidation of carbon.

97 On the contrary, only few studies relate the impact of alkali metals on the catalytic oxidation 98 of soot when these metals are present in the soot [35]. In their study, Zhang et al. [35] 99 performed the oxidation of K- and Na-doped B7 soot by wet impregnation in the presence of 100 a MnO_x-CeO₂ catalyst and confirmed the catalytic effect of alkali metals on carbon oxidation. 101 However, in the case of heavy-duty trucks, catalysts currently present into DPF generally 102 contain noble metals such as platinum and palladium. The present study aims to simulate the 103 oxidation of Biodiesel soot in a catalyzed DPF currently used for the reduction of the particle 104 emissions of heavy-duty trucks. In this way, the oxidation of undoped and Na-doped model 105 soot in the presence or not of a Pt-Pd/Al₂O₃ catalysts under Temperature Programmed 106 Oxidation (TPO) and in several flue gas (NO₂+O₂, NO₂+O₂+H₂O, NO+O₂, NO+O₂+H₂O and 107 O₂) is performed. The impact of the contact (tight or loose) between the catalyst and soot on 108 the oxidation of soot is investigated, considering different experimental configurations. 109 Samples are characterized by Flame Atomic Adsorption Spectroscopy (FAAS), Inductively Coupled Plasma-Optical Emission Spectroscopy (ICP-OES), N₂-physisorption, X-ray
Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS), Raman Spectroscopy and Transmission Electron
Microscopy (TEM) coupled with Energy Dispersive X-Ray (EDX).

113

114 **2. Experimental conditions**

115 **2.1Materials preparation**

116 **2.1.1 Model Soot**

Diesel soot behavior was simulated using model soot (Carbon Black Vulcan 6) denoted as CB. The model soot was doped with 0.5 wt% of sodium and is referred as CBNa in the following. Wet impregnation method with NaNO₃ precursor followed by a calcination step under air at 350 °C as described in [32] were used. The concentration of 0.5 wt% is attended to be representative of the one measured in real Biodiesel soot [24,32].

A Na-free CB, noted CBC (for Carbon Black – Calcined), is taken as reference. Only the
calcination step at 350 °C of the impregnation protocol described in [32] was performed on
this sample.

125

126 2.1.2 DPF catalyst

127 A Pt-Pd/Al₂O₃ catalyst composed of 0.7 wt% of platinum and 0.3 wt% of palladium supported 128 on La-stabilized alumina was prepared by successive wet impregnations. The alumina powder 129 (Solvay) was first compacted, ground and sieved at the 250–355 μ m granulometric fraction. 130 Pd(NH₃)₄(NO₃)₂ (Sigma Aldrich) was diluted in distilled water and alumina was added under 131 agitation. The water was removed by heating at 50 °C and the powder was dried in an oven at 132 70 °C for 24 h. This impregnation step was then repeated with Pt(NO₃)₂ (Sigma Aldrich). The 133 sample was calcined in a fixed bed reactor under synthetic air at 500 °C for 2 h. Finally, the 134 Pt-Pd/Al₂O₃ catalyst was stabilized in a fixed bed reactor under 10 vol.% of water in synthetic 135 air at 650 °C for 8 h. To control the catalyst granulometry, the powder was once again 136 compacted, ground and sieved at $250-355 \mu m$.

137

138 **2.2 Soot oxidation**

139

2.2.1 Catalyst-Soot configurations

To evaluate the impact of the contact between carbon and catalyst on the soot oxidation, several soot-catalyst configurations with different levels of closeness between the two compounds may be tested. In the present study, the following configurations, summarized in Table 1, were tested:

- 144 Model soot and catalyst were used either raw or manually ground in a mortar in order
 145 to modify the surface of the contact.
- Loose or tight contact was simulated by mixing soot and catalyst either with a spatula
 or in a mortar.
- The soot-catalyst mixture was either placed on a silica bed (Fig. 1, left), or diluted in
 the silica (Fig. 1 right).
- 150 151

Figure 1

Among the sixteen possible configurations, four are presented in the present study, as they highlight the impact of the soot-catalyst contact and of the presence of sodium on the soot reactivity. Table 1 describes the four configurations tested. Oxidation experiments (noncatalytic oxidation of soot) were also carried out on a catalyst-free to be used as reference. The model soot, raw or ground, was diluted in 200 mg of SiO₂.

157

Table 1

159 2.2.2 Reactivity test

Soot reactivity was evaluated performing Temperature Programmed Oxidation (TPO) tests in a fixed-bed reactor as described in [32]. The continuous monitoring of the temperature and outlet gases (NO, NO₂, CO and CO₂) were performed respectively by a thermocouple (Ktype) located within the catalyst bed and by an infrared Rosemount Xstream analyzer. The carbon specific oxidation rate, noted V_{spe} , is expressed as:

165
$$V_{spe} = \frac{(X_{CO} + X_{CO_2}) * D * M_C}{10^6 * 3600 * V_M * m_{C_{ini}}}$$

where V_{spe} is expressed per gram of carbon initially introduced in the reactor (m_{c ini}), D corresponds to the flow rate in Nl/h, V_M is the molar volume (V_M = 22.4 L/mol,. X_{CO} and X_{CO2} represent the outlet concentration of, CO and CO₂ in ppmv, respectively, and M_C is the molar mass of carbon (M_C = 12 g/mol).

Table 2 gathers the five gaseous conditions considered in the present study, simulating either passive or active regeneration conditions of Diesel Particulate Filters. The case of an upstream deficient Diesel Oxidation Catalyst (no conversion of NO into NO₂ by the DOC) was also evaluated as well as the presence of water.

174

Table 2

175

176 **2.3 Characterizations**

The model soot (CB and CBNa) were fully characterized in a previous work by ultimate
analyses (CHONS - Carbon, Hydrogen, Oxygen, Nitrogen, Sulfur), Flame Atomic Adsorption
Spectroscopy (FAAS), Inductively Coupled Plasma-Optical Emission Spectroscopy (ICPOES), N₂-physisorption, X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS) and Raman Spectroscopy
[32].

The specific surface area of the catalyst was evaluated on a Micromeritics ASAP2020 device by N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms and calculated with the Brunauer, Emmett and Teller (BET) method. The microporous contribution in the specific surface area was calculated using the t-plot method. Pore size distributions were calculated on the desorption branch of the isotherm by the BJH (Barrett-Joyner-Halenda) method. In the case of the carbonaceous sample (microporous sample with slit pore), the Horvath-Kawazoe method was used.

The Pt and Pd dispersion on the surface of the catalyst was analyzed by Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM), using a JEOL ARM-200 CFEG apparatus equipped with a LaB₆ filament. Before analyses, samples were dispersed in chloroform and few drops of the solution were deposited on a copper grid covered by a thin carbon film (5 nm). TEM observations were coupled with Energy Dispersive X-Ray analysis (EDX) to determine the elementary composition of the sample. TEM analyses were also performed on carbonaceous sample to evaluate the size of the carbon crystallite.

195

196 **3. Results**

197 **3.1 Ma**

3.1 Material characterizations

As mentioned in section 2.3., the model soot (CB and CBNa) were characterized in a previouswork [32]. The elemental composition of this sample, gathered in

Table 3, showed that after the Na-doping procedure, CB presents slightly higher oxygen content. The characterization by N₂-physisorption (Table 4) also highlighted that Na-doping leads to an increase in specific surface area and microporous volume [32]. This evolution of the textural properties of soot with alkali metals introduction is in agreement with those observed on real soot obtained when increasing the Biodiesel content in the fuel [24]. Moreover, total as well as microporous surface area measured on model soot (Table 4)

206 are quite similar to those obtained from real soot produced on engine test bench using 207 different Biodiesel blends [24]. The N₂-physisorption analyses prove that the carbonaceous 208 samples present micropores having a size close to 0.5 nm (Table 4). Unfortunately, precise 209 values could not be determined as they are close to the limit of detection of the N₂-210 physisorption method. Raman Spectroscopy performed in a previous work [32] also showed 211 that Na-doping leads to a decrease in carbon structural order. XPS analyses showed that Na 212 seems to be present under a sulphated form (Na_2SO_x with x = 3 or 4). The reactivity of the 213 sample was evaluated under passive and active regeneration conditions by TPO experiments 214 under NO₂, NO₂+O₂ and NO+O₂+H₂O and thermogravimetric analyses (TGA) under O₂, 215 respectively. Experiments showed that Na has a beneficial impact on carbon oxidation 216 regardless the gas mixture on the whole temperature range studied (up to 700 °C). Thanks to a 217 numerical simulation, the study of the kinetics constants highlighted that the higher reactivity 218 of the Na-doped sample is linked to an increase in the number of actives sites but also to a 219 decrease in the activation energies of both C-NO₂ and C-O₂-NO₂ reactions [32].

220

221

Table 3

Table 4

- 222

223 Fig. 2 shows TEM micrographs of CBC and CBNa. The two samples present the typical 224 morphology of soot: agglomerate of particles formed by carbon spherules arranged in bunch 225 [45,46]. Spherules with a slightly smaller diameter are observed in the case of the doped 226 sample (CBNa). In fact, the average size of CBC spherules is approximately 30 nm against 227 25 nm for CBNa. Because of the superposition of agglomerate on the micrograph, it was 228 difficult to evaluate their size. According to the literature, soot spherules generally have a size 229 between 10 and 50 nm and the size of soot agglomerate is approximately equal to 100 μ m 230 [45,46].

Figure 2

232

233 A specific surface area of 181 m²/g_{support} was determined by N₂-physisoprtion for Pt-Pd/Al₂O₃ 234 (Table 4). This value is in agreement with specific surface areas generally described in the 235 literature for γ -Al₂O₃ (< 250 m²/g) [47]. Pt-Pd/Al₂O₃ exhibits a large distribution of pore diameters between 50 and 700 Å with a maxima at 115 Å (Table 4). 236 237 Fig. 3 shows TEM micrographs of Pt-Pd/Al₂O₃ and the corresponding EDX mapping for 238 aluminum, lanthanum, platinum and palladium. Micrographs show that Pt and Pd are detected 239 on the whole alumina surface suggesting that they are homogeneously dispersed on the 240 catalyst. TEM micrographs also show the presence of larger metallic aggregates which seem 241 to be composed of an alloy of both platinum and palladium, with an average size of 30 nm. 242 For similar catalysts, the literature generally describes metallic particles with size around 20 243 nm [48,49]. 244 Figure 3 245 246 **3.2 Influence of CB-catalyst contact on soot oxidation**

247

3.2.1 Impact of the grinding

248 The carbon specific oxidation rates, measured under NO+O₂ and NO₂+O₂ gas streams, of the raw 249 and ground Na-free CB samples (CBC) are shown in Fig. 4. Table 5 (lines 1, 2, 4 and 5) gathers the 250 values of the carbon specific oxidation rate V_{spe} measured at 400 °C for the different experiments. It 251 is well known that the soot reactivity (in absence of catalyst) towards NO is much lower than for 252 NO₂ [50] and that the carbon specific oxidation rate with few hundred ppm of NO in 10 vol.% O_2 in 253 the feed gas is virtually the same as with O₂ alone [51]. Hence, Fig. 4 confirms that ignition of CBC 254 under the NO+O₂ gas occurs below 400 °C and that a temperature higher than 650 °C is needed for 255 the complete oxidation of the sample. More interestingly, in these conditions, raw CBC and ground 256 CBC show a similar behavior on the whole temperature range, suggesting that the C-O₂ reaction is

257	not impacted by the carbon granulometry. Under NO_2+O_2 , it is known that the carbon oxidation
258	takes place at low temperatures (< 450 °C), mainly via the C-NO ₂ reaction [52,53]. Fig. 4 shows
259	that under the NO ₂ +O ₂ gas stream the ignition of CBC samples starts at approximately 200 °C.
260	Higher oxidation rates are measured until 550 °C in comparison to the results obtained under the
261	NO+O ₂ gas stream. In the presence of NO ₂ in the gas flow, raw and ground CBC do not present the
262	same behavior. Ground CBC sample has a significant higher reactivity. The maximum of oxidation
263	rate is observed around 530 °C for the ground sample against 600 °C for the raw one. At 400 °C,
264	grinding leads to an increase by 48% in the carbon oxidation rate (Table 5, lines 1 and 2). Thus,
265	conversely to C-O ₂ reaction, the C-NO ₂ reaction seems to be sensitive to the carbon granulometry.
266 267 268 269	Figure 4 Table 5
270	3.2.2 Impact of the carbon-catalyst contact
271	Oxidation under NO+O2
-, -	
272	The oxidation of CBC in the presence of the catalyst in the four configurations and under the
272 273	The oxidation of CBC in the presence of the catalyst in the four configurations and under the NO+O ₂ gas flow is presented in Fig. 5. The carbon specific oxidation rates V_{spe} measured at 400 °C
272 273 274	The oxidation of CBC in the presence of the catalyst in the four configurations and under the NO+O ₂ gas flow is presented in Fig. 5. The carbon specific oxidation rates V_{spe} measured at 400 °C for the corresponding experiments are given in Table 5, lines 4-9.
272 273 274 275	The oxidation of CBC in the presence of the catalyst in the four configurations and under the NO+O ₂ gas flow is presented in Fig. 5. The carbon specific oxidation rates V_{spe} measured at 400 °C for the corresponding experiments are given in Table 5, lines 4-9. <i>Figure 5</i>
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272 273 274 275 276 277 278 279	The oxidation of CBC in the presence of the catalyst in the four configurations and under the NO+O ₂ gas flow is presented in Fig. 5. The carbon specific oxidation rates V_{spe} measured at 400 °C for the corresponding experiments are given in Table 5, lines 4-9. <i>Figure 5</i> Fig. 5 shows that the catalyst slightly enhances the oxidation rate of CBC, between 350 and 600 °C, when the two materials are mixed in their raw state with a spatula (RLB configuration). At 400 °C, the carbon specific oxidation rate V_{spe} is only increased by a factor 1.7 (Table 5, lines 4-9). Therefore, in this configuration, it appears that NO ₂ produced by the reaction of NO and O ₂ at the
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272 273 274 275 276 277 278 279 280 281 282	The oxidation of CBC in the presence of the catalyst in the four configurations and under the NO+O ₂ gas flow is presented in Fig. 5. The carbon specific oxidation rates V_{spe} measured at 400 °C for the corresponding experiments are given in Table 5, lines 4-9. <i>Figure 5</i> Fig. 5 shows that the catalyst slightly enhances the oxidation rate of CBC, between 350 and 600 °C, when the two materials are mixed in their raw state with a spatula (RLB configuration). At 400 °C, the carbon specific oxidation rate V_{spe} is only increased by a factor 1.7 (Table 5, lines 4-9). Therefore, in this configuration, it appears that NO ₂ produced by the reaction of NO and O ₂ at the metallic sites does not significantly contribute to the carbon oxidation. On the contrary, experiments carried out using the same location of the CBC-catalyst mixture in the reactor but with ground materials (GLB configuration) reveal a significant improvement in carbon

configuration (GLB) allows an increase in the carbon specific oxidation rate V_{spe} from 2.3.10⁻² mg/(s.g_{ini}) to 7.7.10⁻² mg/(s.g_{ini}) (by a factor 3.5, Table 5, lines 5 and 7). The higher reactivity of the ground catalyst, compared to the raw one, was already observed by Álvarez-Docio *et al.* [11] after a mechanical activation treatment in a ball mill of a CoAl₂O₄ catalyst. In addition, it is interesting to observe the particular shape of the TPO profile for the GLB configuration: it presents a shoulder above 600 °C suggesting a two-step carbon oxidation (Fig. 5).

290 Mixing CBC and Pt-Pd/Al₂O₃ catalyst samples in a mortar (GTB configuration), to improve the 291 contact between these two materials, allows an additional increase in the oxidation rate above 292 400 °C (Fig. 5). In this configuration, the complete oxidation of carbon is achieved before 600 °C 293 (Fig. 5). The maximal oxidation rate is also significantly shifted to lower temperatures and the TPO 294 profile shows a single peak suggesting that the oxidation occurs in a one-step reaction. However, 295 despite the significant increase in the carbon oxidation rate in presence of the catalyst placed in tight 296 contact with CBC (GTB configuration), one may observe that at low temperatures (< 450 °C) the 297 obtained oxidation rate is not as high as that measured for ground CBC under the NO₂+O₂ gas flow 298 (Table 5, lines 2 and 8, and Figs. 4 and 5). Thus, it seems that Pt-Pd/Al₂O₃ is not able to oxidize all 299 the NO contained in the flue gas to NO₂. One can argue about whether the impact of the presence of 300 the catalyst in tight contact with the soot promotes the direct reaction of carbon with NO₂ and/or its 301 reaction with O₂.

Diluting the CBC-catalyst mixture (mixed in a mortar) into silica (GTM configuration) allows the carbon oxidation rate to be even further increased. However, it can be observed that the GTB and GTM configurations present very similar TPO profiles (Fig. 5). Thus the location of the CBCcatalyst mixture in the reactor (on the silica bed or mixed with it) does not significantly affect the carbon oxidation rate when the contact between carbon and catalyst is tight. 307 The study of the catalytic oxidation of CBC, under the NO+O₂ gaseous flow, mixed with the 308 Pt-Pd/Al₂O₃ catalyst, showed that the soot reactivity increases according to the following order 309 depending on the configuration: raw CBC < RLB << GLB < GTB = GTM.

310

311 Oxidation under O₂

312 It has been previously observed that, under the NO+O₂ gas flow, the contact between the soot and 313 the catalyst greatly influences the soot reactivity above 400 °C (comparison between GLB and GTB 314 or GTM configurations). The mechanism of O₂-spillover over platinum Al₂O₃-supported catalyst, 315 proposed by Neri *et al.* [4], could explain the difference of reactivity observed in tight contact under 316 NO+O₂. To validate this hypothesis, the oxidation of CBC in the presence of the catalyst in the 317 GLB and GTM configurations under the feed gas composed of 10 vol.% O₂ in N₂ was performed. 318 Fig. 6 shows that the presence of ground Pt-Pd/Al₂O₃ sample in loose contact with ground CBC 319 (GLB configuration) leads to a slight enhancement of the carbon oxidation. A shift of the maximal 320 oxidation rate towards lower temperatures of about fifteen degrees is observed. As no NOx is 321 present in the feed gas, only O_2 can be used as an oxidant in these conditions. So it seems that the 322 'loose' contact between the catalyst and the carbon in the GLB configuration is already strong 323 enough to favor the O₂-spillover mechanism described by Neri et al. [4]. When the contact between 324 CBC and Pt-Pd/Al₂O₃ is tighter (GTM configuration), no additional improvement is observed (Fig. 325 6). Thus, the GTM configuration does not lead to a greater participation of the O₂-spillover 326 mechanism in the carbon oxidation. This result leads to the conclusion that the better reactivity 327 observed between the GTB and GLB configurations under the NO+O₂ gas stream (Fig. 5) is rather 328 linked to an enhancement of the C-NO₂ reaction.

329 330

Figure 6

331 Influence of H₂O

Water is known for its catalytic effect on the oxidation of carbon by NO₂ [54,55]. Interactions between water, model soot and Pt-Pd/Al₂O₃ catalyst are here evaluated. Fig. 7 presents the TPO profiles obtained for the oxidation of CBC in the GTM configuration under NO₂+O₂ and NO+O₂ with and without water vapor in the flue gas. The carbon specific oxidation rates V_{spe} measured at 400 °C are given in Table 5 (lines 11-12). The specific carbon oxidation rate measured at this temperature for the non-catalytic oxidation of raw CBC under NO₂+O₂+H₂O is also reported in Table 5, line 10 (TPO profiles not shown here).

- 339
- 340 341

Figure 7

342 Whatever the initial gaseous conditions (NO_2+O_2 or $NO+O_2$), the addition of water leads to 343 higher carbon oxidation rates on the whole temperature range. The complete combustion of 344 CBC in the GTM configuration is obtained at a temperature lowered by 40 °C in the presence 345 of water, in comparison to the dry conditions. Moreover, the beneficial impact of H_2O is 346 identical for the two flue gas mixtures. In fact, at 400 °C, an increase in the carbon specific 347 oxidation rate V_{spe} by 36% and 35% is observed, respectively, under NO₂+O₂ and NO+O₂ 348 (Table 5, lines 3, 9, 11 and 12). In the case of the non-catalytic oxidation of raw CBC under 349 NO₂+O₂, the addition of water leads to an enhancement of the same order of magnitude 350 (increase in V_{spe} by 31% at 400 °C, Table 5, lines 1 and 10). Thus, it seems that the catalytic 351 impact of water is not enhanced by the presence of the Pt-Pd/Al₂O₃ catalyst. These results are 352 in agreement with the observation of Jeguirim et al. [56] on the isothermal oxidation of CB in 353 the presence of a commercial Pt/Al₂O₃ catalyst.

355 **3.3 Impact of Na-doping**

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Figure 8

To evaluate the impact of alkali metals contained in Biodiesel soot on the catalytic oxidation

of carbon, the reactivity of CBNa mixed with Pt-Pd/Al₂O₃ and placed under a NO+O₂ gas

stream was analyzed in the GLB and GTM configurations. The TPO profiles are presented in

Fig. 8 and the specific oxidation rates V_{spe} measured at 400 °C are reported in Table 6.

Table 6

362 Contrary to CBC (Fig. 5), the presence of the catalyst in the RLB configuration with CBNa 363 increases the specific carbon oxidation rate. In this configuration, both the maximal carbon 364 oxidation rate and the end of the combustion of the Na-doped CB sample are shifted towards 365 lower temperatures by about 25 °C, in comparison to the experiment carried out in absence of 366 catalyst (Fig. 8). At 400 °C, the Pt-Pd/Al₂O₃ catalyst in loose contact with CBNa allows an 367 increase in the specific oxidation rate V_{spe} by 8.5 (Table 6). In the CBC case, this factor was 368 only 1.7 (Table 5, line 4 and 6). When they are present in the composition of the catalyst, 369 alkali metals are known to enhance the catalyst activity through the improvement of the 370 contact between the catalyst and the soot. These elements are highly mobile and are able to 371 wet the catalyst surface (because of their low melting point) [37,40-44]. The above 372 experiments show that the presence of 0.5 wt% of sodium on the carbon surface also 373 improves its contact with the catalyst and thus improves the catalytic oxidation.

As observed in Fig. 8, the global impact of $Pt-Pd/Al_2O_3$ in tight contact (GTM configuration) has the same order of magnitude for both undoped and Na-doped CB sample under NO+O₂. The maximal oxidation rate is shifted towards lower temperatures of about 80 °C for CBNa and 90 °C for CBC. However, at low temperatures (< 450 °C), a higher impact of the catalyst is observed for the Na-doped carbon, compared to CBC. Indeed, at 400 °C in GTM configuration, the specific 379 oxidation rate V_{spe} is multiplied by a factor 4 with CBC, whereas this factor is equal to 25 with 380 CBNa (by comparison with raw sample in Table 5, line 4).

381

382 **4. Discussion**

383 **4.1 Impacts of the grinding and carbon granulometry**

384 Experiments showed that decreasing the carbon granulometry has a significant impact on the carbon 385 oxidation rate under NO₂+O₂. Under NO₂O₂, grinding has only an influence in the presence of the 386 CB-catalyst mixture. Thus it seems that the C-NO₂ reaction is particularly sensitive to the 387 granulometry and also to the carbon surface compared to the C-O₂ reaction. This is in agreement 388 with the work of Seong and Choi [57]. These authors characterized CB at different degrees of 389 conversion under NO₂ or O₂ by Raman spectroscopy, Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy 390 (FTIR) and TEM. They showed that carbon oxidation by O₂ goes through an internal combustion of 391 carbon spherules, while the oxidation by NO₂ goes through an external combustion. Moreover, the 392 kinetic diameter of the NO₂ molecule (512 pm [58]) is very close to the size of the pore of the 393 carbonaceous sample (close to 0.5 nm, Table 4). This is why its diffusion inside the pore of the CB 394 is unlikely. On the contrary, O₂ molecule which shows a kinetic diameter of 346 pm is able to 395 diffuse into the porosity of the carbonaceous sample [59]. Thus, NO₂ is sensitive to carbon 396 granulometry, as it modifies the surface of the carbon directly in contact with the flue gas.

397

4.2 Impact of carbon-catalyst contact on the carbon oxidation

399 mechanism

400 The results of the present study showed that the enhancement of Pt-Pd/Al₂O₃ catalytic activity is 401 linked to an increase of the contact between carbon and catalyst and to a decrease of the granulometry of the compounds. Thus, the role of Pt-Pd/Al₂O₃ regarding carbon oxidation is mostly
linked to the proximity between carbon sites and catalyst active sites and to the global
multiplication of accessible active sites to gaseous reactants.

When catalyst and carbon are in loose contact, it is established that carbon oxidation goes through the gas phase mechanism described in Fig. 9. First, gaseous NO is oxidized in NO₂ on a metallic active site. Then, NO₂ reacts with a carbon site to form CO_2 and NO. This latter could then participate again to the cycle. This mechanism is highly limited by the transportation of molecules in the gas phase and the probability that they meet the corresponding actives sites (represented by dotted lines in Fig. 9).

411 When carbon is ground with the catalyst, a tight contact is set up suggesting that particles of the two 412 materials are closely linked (GTM and GTB configurations). Some authors highlighted an 413 O₂-spillover reaction in the case of thigh contact for platinum-based alumina-supported catalyst [4]. 414 Experiments performed under a feed gas composed of 10 vol.% O2 in N2 showed that this 415 mechanism already occurs with the loose contact established in GLB configuration and that it is not 416 increased with a tighter contact like the one implemented in GTM and GTB configurations. Thus, it 417 can be stated that the better reactivity observed in these two last configurations is linked to an 418 improvement of the C-NO₂ reaction. An adsorption mechanism (Fig. 9) involving the adsorption 419 and the oxidation of NO into NO₂ at the carbon-catalyst interface followed by the reaction of 420 adsorbed NO₂ with carbon is proposed. The suppression of a step in the original cycle naturally 421 increases the carbon oxidation rate.

422

Figure 9

424 **4.3 Impact of alkali metals on the carbon oxidation mechanism**

425 The presence of alkali metals in soot leads to an increase in the carbon oxidation rate whatever the 426 strength of the carbon-catalyst contact. In a previous study on the reactivity of Na-, K- and P-doped 427 carbon black, alkali metals were supposed to be able to play the role of NO₂-carrier on carbon 428 surface through the formation of nitrates species [32]. Therefore, similarly, one may propose that 429 NO₂ species formed by the oxidation of NO at metal sites can be adsorbed onto an alkali metal site 430 (M) to form MNO₃ species, which then facilitate the transfer to carbon sites and thus the C-NO₂ 431 reaction (Fig. 10). In this mechanism, a NO₂ molecule produced on a catalytic active site can be 432 transferred to a carbon site without going into the gas phase by transportation via alkali metals sites 433 and even if the two sites are distant (NO₂ transfer via M – Fig. 10).

434

Figure 10

435

436 **5. Conclusion**

437 Experiments showed that the grinding of the model soot, and thus its granulometry, has a 438 significant impact on the C-NO₂ reaction because of the mechanism of external combustion 439 by NO₂ of the carbon crystallite (+ 48 % of carbon oxidation rate at 400 °C under NO₂+O₂). 440 Consequently, catalyst will have a higher impact on the oxidation of the littlest soot. When 441 the contact between catalyst and soot increased (low granulometry or grinding in a mortar), 442 the catalytic impact of Pt-Pd/Al₂O₃ on carbon oxidation is improved. A factor of 2.5 is 443 retrieved between the carbon oxidation rate of the configuration with the lowest (RLB) and 444 highest (GLB) soot-catalyst contact configuration (at 400 °C, under NO+O₂). This better 445 efficiency is attributed to the proximity between carbon active sites and catalyst active sites, 446 reducing the time of transportation of NO after its oxidation in NO₂. It was also proposed that, 447 when a tight contact is established, NO₂ is able to react, being adsorbed on a metallic site,

448 with the carbon site without going back in the gas phase. Experiments showed that the 449 catalytic impact of water (about + 30-35 % in carbon oxidation rate at 400 °C) cumulates with 450 that of the catalyst. The presence of alkali metals, simulating the use of Biodiesel, led to a 451 significant impact of catalyst efficiency. In fact, a better oxidation was observed in the 452 simultaneous presence of Pt-Pd/Al₂O₃ and Na on the whole temperature range in loose 453 contact. The beneficial impact of alkali metals was attributed to their capacity to wet the 454 surface and their high mobility improving then the contact between catalyst and carbon. Thus 455 it was proposed that alkali metals can play the role of NO₂ reservoir but also of NO₂ carrier between catalyst and carbon active sites. In addition to reducing soot production, Biodiesel is 456 457 a good way to produce soot that are more reactive and are enhancing the DPF catalyst 458 efficiency. To confirm the proposed mechanism, the influence of other parameters such as the 459 impact of the residence time or the influence of the ramp of the TPO will be analyzed in the 460 future.

461

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Figure 1: Schemes of the location of carbon black and catalyst mixtures in the reactor.





Figure 3: TEM micrograph (A) and EDX-mapping of Pt-Pd/Al₂O₃ of, respectively, Aluminum (B), Lanthanum (C), Platinum (D) and Palladium (E).

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- 723 Table 6: Carbon specific oxidation rate at 400 °C of the different experiments with CBNa.

Configuration	Model Soot	Catalyst	Strength of contact (Mixing)	Placement
RLB	Raw	Raw	Loose (Spatula)	Bed
GLB	Ground	Ground	Loose (Spatula)	Bed
GTB	Ground	Ground	Tight (Mortar)	Bed
GTM	Ground	Ground	Tight (Mortar)	Mixed

724 Table 1: Description of soot-catalyst configurations tested in fixed bed reactor.

Table 2: Gas composition of the conditions simulated in TPOs.

	G	as concentr				
Notations	NO2 (ppmv)	NO (ppmv)	O2 (vol. %)	H2O (vol. %)	Simulated Conditions	
NO ₂ +O ₂	400	0	10	0	Dessive as sea sustion	
NO ₂ +O ₂ +H ₂ O	400	0	10	4	Passive regeneration	
NO+O ₂	0	400	10	0	Passive regeneration with	
NO+O ₂ +H ₂ O	0	400	10	4	DOC failure	
O ₂	0	0	10	0	Active regeneration	

732 Table 3: Elemental composition of the doped carbons black in wt% (¹CHONS, ²AA, ³ICP,

n.m. = not measured, n.d. = not detected).

Sample	C ¹	\mathbf{H}^{1}	01	N ¹	S ¹	Na ²	K ²	P ³
CBC	91.5	0.23	3.31	0.10	0.73	0.01	0.01	n.d.
CBNa	88.7	0.44	5.15	0.13	0.97	0.55	n.d.	n.m.

735 Table 4: Textural properties of the sample (1Horvath-Kawazoe method, 2BJH method)

Sample	Specific surface a	area (m ² /g _{support} STP)	- Avenage neve diameter (nm)	
Sumple	Total	Microporous	- Average pore diameter (nm)	
CBC	256	117	$\leq 0.6^1$	
CBNa	328	218	$\leq 0.6^1$	
Pt-Pd/Al ₂ O ₃	181	41	11.5^2	

Configuration	Gas	V _{spe} at 400 °C (10 ⁻² mg/(s.g _{ini}))
raw CBC		8.7
ground CBC	NO2+O2	12.9
GTM		14.0
raw CBC		2.2
ground CBC		2.3
RLB	NOLO	3.8
GLB	NO+02	7.7
GTB		8.8
GTM		9.5
raw CBC		11.4
GTM	INU2+U2+H2U	19.1
GTM	NO+O ₂ +H ₂ O	12.8

737 Table 5: Carbon specific oxidation rate at 400 °C of the different experiments with CBC.

739 Table 6: Carbon specific oxidation rate at 400 °C of the different experiments with CBNa.

	Configuration	Gas	V _{spe} at 400 °C (10 ⁻² mg/(s.g _{ini}))
	Raw CBNa		0.8
	RLB	NO+O ₂	6.8
	GTM		20.1
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