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1 On the chemical composition and structure of
2 incipient soot in a laminar diffusion flame

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11

12 **Abstract**

13 The transformation of molecular precursors in the gas phase into nanoparticles in the condensed phase
14 (*soot inception*) during combustion has not yet been fully understood. While several hypotheses on soot
15 inception are currently being examined, their validation requires detailed knowledge of the
16 physical-chemical properties of the matter first formed in the condensed phase (*incipient soot*). However,
17 characterizing short-lived species in a reactive environment at high temperature is inherently difficult. In
18 this work, we propose a multi-analytical approach to indirectly characterize chemical composition and
19 structure of incipient soot obtained in controlled laboratory conditions. The results are explained in light
20 of recent developments on the characterization of the optical and magnetic properties of incipient soot,
21 and used to build a phenomenological model of soot inception. The acquired information is key to support
22 the hypothesis selection and to understand the reactivity of combustion byproducts and thus their impact
23 on health and the environment.

24 **Keywords**

25 Soot inception, incipient soot, multi-diagnostics characterization, structure, chemical composition,
26 diffusion flames, ToF-SIMS, Raman spectroscopy.

27

28 **1. Introduction**

29 Soot is made of fractal-like aggregates of carbonaceous nanoparticles formed during the incomplete
30 combustion of hydrocarbons. A vast body of literature has been devoted to understanding the fundamental
31 mechanisms governing the transition from the gas to the condensed phase (*soot inception*) in hydrocarbon
32 flames. As a result, a number of hypotheses on the main mechanisms of soot inception are currently being
33 under validation by the scientific community [1–6]. Incipient soot is defined as the matter first formed in
34 the condensed phase from molecular precursors like polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) and their
35 derivatives [7]. Over the years, it became clear that detailed knowledge of the physical-chemical
36 properties of incipient soot is key to understand soot inception. However, it also became evident that
37 many physical-chemical properties of incipient soot significantly differ from mature soot. In addition to
38 being fundamental for the hypothesis selection, these differences affect the interpretation of the output of
39 several diagnostics, and therefore must be considered for the accurate interpretation of the experimental
40 data.

41 During the last two decades, a remarkable number of investigations on the formation and
42 characterization of incipient soot have been published, most focusing on the soot nanoparticles size
43 distribution and structure. Unlike primary particles that can reach diameters up to tens of nanometers and
44 are characterized by a classic core-shell internal nanostructure [8,9], incipient particles can be as small as
45 1-3 nm [10,11] and appear to be constituted of 2-3 atomic layers [12] of either amorphous or randomly
46 oriented carbonaceous clusters [13–15]. The core of primary particles has been shown to be compatible
47 with the coagulation of 2-3 incipient particles [8,16], suggesting that incipient particles may grow into
48 primary particles. However, the coagulation rate of incipient particles in flames is generally sufficiently
49 low [17–19] that they can coexist and be detected along with larger particles [20–24].

50 The specific heat capacity and density [25] and the complex refractive index function [26–29] of
51 incipient soot are significantly lower than mature soot. Incipient soot is characterized by weak absorption

52 in the visible light spectrum, and lack the strong thermal radiation emission that can be fitted with
53 Planck's law typical of mature soot [30,31].

54 In contrast, little and mostly indirect information on the chemical composition and structure of incipient
55 soot is currently known. Implementing the diagnostics required to detect and analyze short-lived species
56 or nanoparticles in a complex reactive environment at high temperature and interpreting the resulting data
57 is a challenging task, especially since sampling is required for online and ex situ analyses. Incipient soot
58 is richer in small PAHs [32] and aliphatics [33,34] than mature soot, although significant differences exist
59 between diffusion and premixed flames [35]. Direct evidence on the structure of isolated molecules
60 thermally desorbed from incipient soot has been recently produced [36,37]. The higher H/C ratio
61 [9,38,39] and smaller particle size [14,40] of incipient soot result in different chemical reactivity [41–43]
62 and hygroscopic properties [44,45] than mature soot.

63 To address this lack of fundamental knowledge, in this work we present the fine characterization of the
64 chemical composition and structure of incipient soot generated in a co-flow laminar diffusion flame of
65 methane. This flame has already been extensively characterized in our previous works using different in
66 situ and ex situ diagnostics (*Methods* 2.1-2.2). The soot and PAH regions have already been mapped in
67 situ, and used to select the sampling points that are investigated in this work by time of flight secondary
68 ions mass spectrometry (ToF-SIMS, *Methods* 2.3) and Raman spectroscopy (*Methods* 2.4-2.5). The data
69 analysis and interpretation rely on principal component analysis (PCA, *Methods* 2.6) to infer information
70 on the properties of incipient soot: the principal components representative of the chemical composition
71 and of the structure are first identified (*Results* 3.1-3.4), then cross-compared (*Results* 3.5), and finally
72 correlated to the data obtained in situ or already available in the literature in a thorough multi-diagnostic
73 approach (*Discussion* 4.1). In particular, the atomic fraction of hydrogen obtained from the analysis of the
74 mass spectra [35] has been suggested to be linked to the formation rate of covalent C-C bonds [46]. The
75 structure of incipient soot is derived from the detailed analysis of the Raman spectra and is shown to
76 evolve as a function of the appearance of curved graphene layers, the presence of finite-size carbon
77 crystallites, and the changing distance between graphene-like layers. These results are discussed in the

78 framework of the recent advancements in the characterization of the concentration and structure of
79 persistent radicals in incipient soot [47], and more specifically of our recent electron paramagnetic
80 resonance (EPR) measurements [48]. The cross-examination of these properties allows the identification
81 of several properties of the chemical species involved in the phase transition that are used to propose a
82 phenomenological model of soot inception (*Discussion 4.2*).

83 **2. Materials and methods**

84 **2.1 Flame and sampling**

85 The investigated flame is a 120 mm high axisymmetric co-flow laminar methane/air diffusion flame
86 stabilized on a burner at atmospheric pressure. The burner consists of a central injector supplied with
87 0.52 L min^{-1} of methane and surrounded by an 86.6 L min^{-1} air shield (standard T and p). Samples are
88 extracted from the flame axis using a dilutive quartz microprobe inserted radially into the flame and
89 operated with nitrogen to reduce the collision probability in the sampling line and quench the reactivity in
90 the sampled flow. The sampling scheme is shown in the supporting information (SI 8.1) where it is
91 compared to the mapping of the soot volume fraction obtained by LII as detailed below. The collected
92 species are deposited on Ti wafers with the same 1/8" diameter impactor used in our previous works
93 [35,46,49]. High-velocity impaction ($\sim 34 \text{ m s}^{-1}$) results in carbonaceous particles aggregating at the
94 impaction site at the center of the wafer and in the condensable gas scattering all over the wafer surface
95 [46]. ToF-SIMS and Raman measurements are performed on two selected ROIs: the materials deposited
96 directly at the impaction site (impaction ROI), and the materials scattered on the wafer surface
97 surrounding it (halo ROI).

98 **2.2 In situ characterization of the flame**

99 Soot particles have already been mapped using in situ laser induced incandescence (LII) [50]. LII
100 measurements are performed at 1064 nm using the fundamental of a Nd:YAG laser (Quantel Brilliant B).
101 The LII is recorded at 90° with respect to the laser beam using a fast ICCD camera (Princeton Instruments

102 PI-MAX2, Roper Scientific). The LII signal is summed over the 580-800 nm spectral range. Soot
103 particles are heated below the sublimation threshold at 130 mJ cm^{-2} .

104 PAHs [50] and OH radicals [51] have already been mapped in this flame using in situ laser induced
105 fluorescence (LIF). Briefly, LIF measurements are performed at several excitation wavelengths in the
106 UV-Vis spectral range. The excitation source is a Nd:YAG laser (Quanta-ray, Spectra Physics) used to
107 pump an optical parametric oscillator (premiScan-ULD/240, GWU-Lasertechnik) to provide tunable
108 wavelengths at 213-532 nm. The PAH fluorescence spectra, induced at 532 nm, are recorded using a fast
109 ICCD camera (PI-MAX2, Roper Scientific) coupled to a spectrometer (IHR320, Jobin Yvon). To avoid
110 any interference with the LII, the laser fluence is set to 13 mJ cm^{-2} , which is below the activation
111 threshold of the LII. The PAH fluorescence is summed over the 550-700 nm spectral range. OH-LIF
112 spectra are obtained by exciting the A-X (0-0) band (309-312 nm) and by collecting the fluorescence
113 signal in the R bands spectral range (305-308 nm). The emitted fluorescence is collected at 90° and
114 imaged with a spectrometer (IHR320, Jobin Yvon) coupled to a photomultiplier tube (XP2020Q,
115 Photonics). The anti-Stokes collection scheme minimizes potential spectral interferences with the intense
116 PAHs fluorescence above 300 nm. The results obtained in the previous works are used to establish a
117 sampling scheme and are critical for the interpretation of the results.

118 **2.3 Secondary ions mass spectrometry (ToF-SIMS)**

119 Bi_3^+ primary ions are used to sputter and ionize the species on the samples surface. The secondary ions
120 are accelerated and analyzed on a time-of-flight mass spectrometer with a maximum resolving power
121 $m/\Delta m \approx 10^4$ at 200 m/z . This technique is sensitive to high mass organic compounds ($m/z > 200$) due to
122 the use of primary Bi_3^+ ions having 25 keV energy with very low current intensity of 0.3 pA (static
123 mode). Mass spectra in positive polarity are recorded at 50 scans per acquisition on a $500 \times 500 \mu\text{m}^2$
124 surface with an image resolution of 128×128 pixels. Acquisitions are performed on three different zones
125 on each ROI, halo and impaction. The information extracted from the mass spectra includes: the
126 time-of-flight of 520 peaks selected after background and fragment ions removal that is calibrated into

127 m/z and used to identify unknown species, and the peak normalized ion counts I_n defined as $I_n = I/I_{TIC}$
128 where I is the peak ion count and I_{TIC} the total relevant ion count (total ion count after background
129 removal). Peaks are identified using mass defect analysis, allowing the assignment of a molecular formula
130 to the selected m/z following the protocol established in our previous works [35,46,49]. The mass spectra
131 (SI 8.1), the mass defect plot with the complete peak list (SI 8.3) is available in the supporting
132 information.

133 The atomic fraction of hydrogen [H] is calculated from the mass spectra using the peaks identified by
134 mass defect analysis, where the normalized signal intensity w_i is used to weight the individual
135 contributions of the identified ions $N_{X,i}$ [46,52]:

$$[H] = \frac{N_H}{N_H + N_C + N_O} \quad \text{Equation 2.1.}$$

With
$$N_X = \sum_i N_{X,i} w_i, \quad X = H, C, O, \quad \sum_i w_i = 1 \quad \text{Equation 2.2.}$$

136

137 **2.4 Raman spectroscopy**

138 The Raman microscope (InVia Reflex, Renishaw) is equipped with a $\lambda = 514.5$ nm diode-pumped solid
139 state laser. The laser power is reduced to 0.05%, corresponding to a low laser irradiance of 1.63 kW cm^{-2} ,
140 to avoid structural changes in the sample. The laser beam is focused on the samples with a $20\times$
141 magnification objective. The Raman spectral intensity and wavelength are calibrated with a Si wafer by
142 using the pure Si peak at 520 cm^{-1} . The same instrument settings ($600 \text{ lines mm}^{-1}$ grating, acquisition time
143 6 s times 80 accumulations per spectrum), chosen after a set of test measurements to provide the best
144 signal-to-noise ratio for the analysis, are used for all samples. In particular, for samples collected at low
145 flame HAB, long acquisition time and a preliminary analysis performed on all samples have been deemed
146 necessary to find the optimal laser irradiance to record high-quality Raman spectra, the existence of which
147 is acknowledged in our previous work but not explored because of the insufficient signal-to-noise ratio
148 [46]. About 30 Raman spectra per ROIs are recorded between 700 and 2500 cm^{-1} for each sample.

149 **2.5 Analysis of the Raman spectra**

150 The first-order Raman spectra of carbonaceous materials are generally characterized by two main
151 spectral features, labeled D and G bands, at around 1350 and 1600 cm^{-1} . As detailed in Table 1, an
152 extensive body of literature has been dedicated to analyzing correlations between chemical and structural
153 properties of graphene, graphite, highly oriented pyrolytic graphite, carbon films, and soot to some of the
154 band parameters. [H] is often calculated from the ratio between the slope of the photoluminescence
155 baseline and the height of the G band [53,54]. Likewise, the degree of graphitization, quantified through
156 the size of the aromatic domain, has been estimated from the D-to-G band height ratio [11,36,55,56]. The
157 degrees of disorder and chemical maturity have also been estimated from the shift and broadening of the
158 G band that seems to depend on the crystallite size [57]. These approaches are relatively simple to
159 implement but not always optimal for flame-sampled materials. To extract more detailed structural
160 information, fittings with four [58], five [55,59–61] and up to six [62] different peaks have been discussed
161 in the literature. However, the peak fitting is a challenging task since the D and G bands are broad,
162 partially overlap, fold in several contributions, and therefore the exact number and origin of the active
163 Raman modes are difficult to assess. A common approach to the spectral analysis uses the complete set or
164 subsets of the peaks listed in Table 1.

165 Following this approach, the Raman spectra obtained in this work are analyzed by curve fitting using
166 different combinations of the peaks listed in Table 1. The curve fitting is performed with the peak
167 analyzer tool of OriginPRO 2021 (Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm, χ^2 tolerance value of 10^{-6} to reach
168 convergence). The best results ($R^2 > 0.995$) are obtained with six peak fits: D4, D1, D3, G, D2 [59]
169 expanded to include the peak at 1222 cm^{-1} [62] here labeled D5 for naming consistency. An example of
170 the peak fitting is shown in Figure 1. Peaks D4 and D5 are both required to optimally fit the left wing of
171 the D band, peak D3 is necessary for the otherwise underrepresented local minimum between bands, and
172 peaks G and D2 are required to reproduce the asymmetrical shape of the G band.

173 In the analysis of Raman spectra of carbonaceous materials, the variability range of the peak centers
 174 and widths is sometimes fixed or limited for the fitting to reach convergence [55,63]. However, as shown
 175 in Table 1, some peak assignments are still under debate, therefore limiting the variability range of the
 176 spectral parameters can ultimately mislead the data interpretation. In particular, the choice of the
 177 photoluminescence baseline impacts the determination of both the peak centers and widths. In the
 178 literature, the photoluminescence background is either absent [62], not discussed [46,55,59], or subtracted
 179 [58,64,65] before fitting. In this work, third-degree polynomial functions are found to be the lowest
 180 degree polynomials that approximate with high confidence ($R^2 > 0.995$) the rising shape of the
 181 photoluminescence background in the spectral region 800-2100 cm^{-1} . The polynomial coefficients and
 182 constant term are set as free parameters and fitted with the peaks: this approach has the important
 183 practical advantage that during the fitting it is not necessary to limit peak centers and widths to reach
 184 convergence.

185

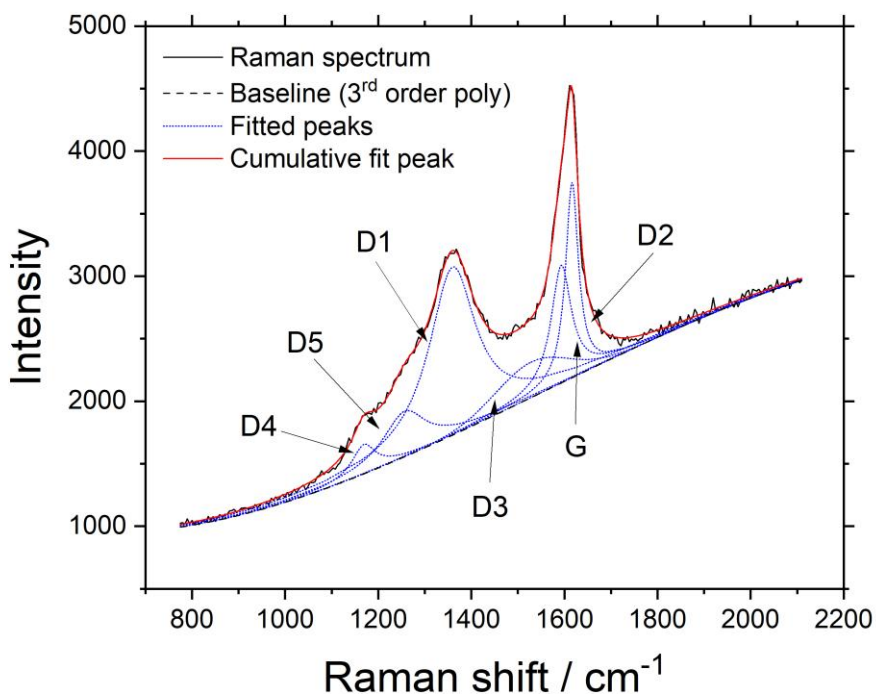
186 **Table 1. Nomenclature and known or proposed assignments** of the peaks used for the spectral analysis of the
 187 first-order Raman spectra of carbonaceous materials.

Peak	Observed Raman shift / cm^{-1}				Line shape	Bibliographic references
	Sadezky et al. [59]	Minutolo et al. [62]	Parent et al. [55]	Carpentier et al. [64]		
D4	~1200	1176(4)	1180(5)	1175-1190	Lorentz	Assignment under debate. Characteristic of highly disordered materials: polyenes [66], ionic impurities [67], peripheral sp^2 or sp^3 carbon atoms [68].
D5	/	1222(6)	/	1269	Lorentz	Assignment under debate. Finite crystal size or defects [69,70]. Poorly linked polyaromatic units [64]. Already observed in flame-sampled materials [62].
D1	~1350	1340(4)	1350(5)	1337-1372	Lorentz	Certain assignment. A_{1g} ("breathing") mode of graphene only active in case of lattice disturbance (edges due to finite layers, heteroatoms) [71–74].
D3	~1500	1529(4)	1550(5)	1505-1544	Gauss	Assignment under debate. Possibly a convolution of several other modes [55]. Amorphous carbon [66,67,75], finite-size

graphite crystals [76], defects outside graphene layers [77]. A detailed discussion is available [62].

G	~1580	1598(4)	1580(5)	1600	Lorentz	Certain assignment. E_{2g} mode of ideal graphite lattice [71,73].
D2	~1620	1618(4)	1620(5)	1616-1618	Lorentz	Certain assignment. Layers of graphene not directly sandwiched between other layers [55,62,73].

188



189

190 **Figure 1. Raman spectra analysis.** Raman spectrum obtained from a sample collected at 55 mm HAB (514.5 nm
 191 excitation wavelength, 1.63 kW cm⁻² laser irradiance) and six-peak fitting. The figure shows the acquired spectrum (solid
 192 black line) and the spectral analysis including the photoluminescence baseline (dashed black line), the peaks D4, D5, D1,
 193 D3, G and D2 (dotted blue lines) and the cumulative fit curve (solid red line).

194

195 A detailed discussion on the calculation of [H] from the Raman spectra and comparison with other
 196 works (SI 8.5) and on the photoluminescence background (SI 8.6) are available in the supporting
 197 information.

198 **2.6 Principal components analysis**

199 Nowadays, the level of complexity of the output of many diagnostics makes it difficult to rely on
200 intuition or visual analysis to extract trends from raw data. Therefore, statistical tools like multivariate
201 analysis become increasingly useful to extract any meaningful chemical information from complex
202 databases.

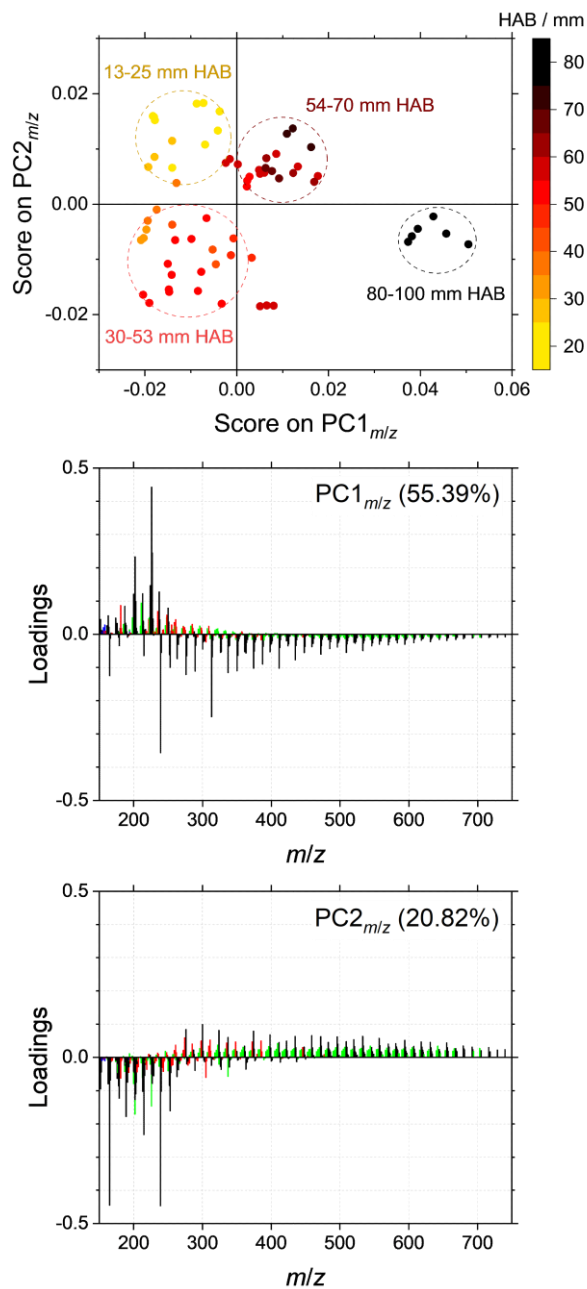
203 Principal component analysis (PCA) is used to reduce the dimensionality of the mass spectra and
204 Raman spectra databases and to assist the interpretation of the variance [78,79]. The PCA shows the
205 changes of the variance of a set of observables calculated from a set of variables. The loading plots find
206 the variables that have the largest effect on each principal component. Therefore, if a principal component
207 can be linked to a specific physical phenomenon, the PCA indicates the variables upon which this
208 phenomenon depends. In this work, the m/z from the ToF-SIMS mass spectra or the spectral parameters
209 from the peak fitting of the Raman spectra are used as variables, while the data acquisitions on the
210 sampling zones and various ROIs are used as observables. The additional information on the physical
211 phenomena is provided by the complementary diagnostics (LII and LIF that map the formation regions of
212 soot and molecular precursors, and EPR that provides the spin concentration), and by the presence of
213 visible soot deposits on the analyzed substrates. PCA on non-similar quantities (positions and widths of
214 the Raman peaks) is performed on the correlation matrix. PCA on similar quantities (ToF-SIMS ion
215 counts normalized to the total relevant ion count and Raman peak areas normalized to the total area of the
216 spectrum after removing the photoluminescence background) is performed on the covariance matrix. The
217 results are then discussed in terms of scores and loadings [35,80,81], with the primary goal of finding
218 correlations between the chemical composition (ToF-SIMS mass spectra) and the structure (Raman
219 spectra) of the samples.

220 The four principal components of the PCA on mass spectrometry data (SI 8.4) and on Raman
221 spectroscopy data (SI 8.7) are shown in the supporting information.

222 **3. Results**

223 **3.1 The chemical composition of soot**

224 A total of 132 ToF-SIMS mass spectra collected at 21 different HABs are analyzed. The data recorded
225 on impaction ROIs show the contributions of both soot (only present above the soot inception HAB) and
226 condensable gas, while the data recorded on the surrounding halo ROIs only show the contribution of
227 condensable gas. The information extracted from the mass spectra includes the m/z and the normalized
228 ion count I_n of 520 selected peaks. Rather than working with the complete set of detected peaks, scalar
229 variables are built to represent trends in the mass spectra. To this end, PCA is a particularly useful tool
230 since the principal components are already defined as linear combinations of the original variables (I_n),
231 and can be related to changes of the variance through the score plots [79]. The results of the PCA on the
232 complete database of mass spectra are discussed in the exploratory data analysis (SI 8.8). The results of
233 the PCA on the impaction ROIs are shown in Figure 2. The $PC2_{m/z}$ against $PC1_{m/z}$ score plot lays the
234 foundation for the discussion since $PC1_{m/z}$ and $PC2_{m/z}$ represent a significant fraction of the total variance
235 (76.21%) of the chemical composition. The score plot reveals several data clusters representing samples
236 having sufficiently different chemical composition to be classified on either $PC1_{m/z}$ or $PC2_{m/z}$. It should be
237 stressed that the interpretation proposed herein is based on the analysis of $PC1_{m/z}$ and $PC2_{m/z}$, which, while
238 responsible for the highest contributions, are by no means the only contributors to the variance of the
239 database.



240

241 **Figure 2. Results of the PCA (covariance matrix) performed on the peak normalized areas extracted from the**
 242 **impaction ROIs mass spectra.** The figure shows the PC2_{m/z} against PC1_{m/z} score plot with data cluster attributions (top
 243 panel) and the corresponding loading plots (middle and bottom panels). The loadings are color-mapped on the assigned
 244 formula: C_mH_n⁺ (black), C_mH_nO_p⁺ (red) and unassigned (green).

245

246 **3.2 High m/z hydrocarbons (PC1 $_{m/z}$)**

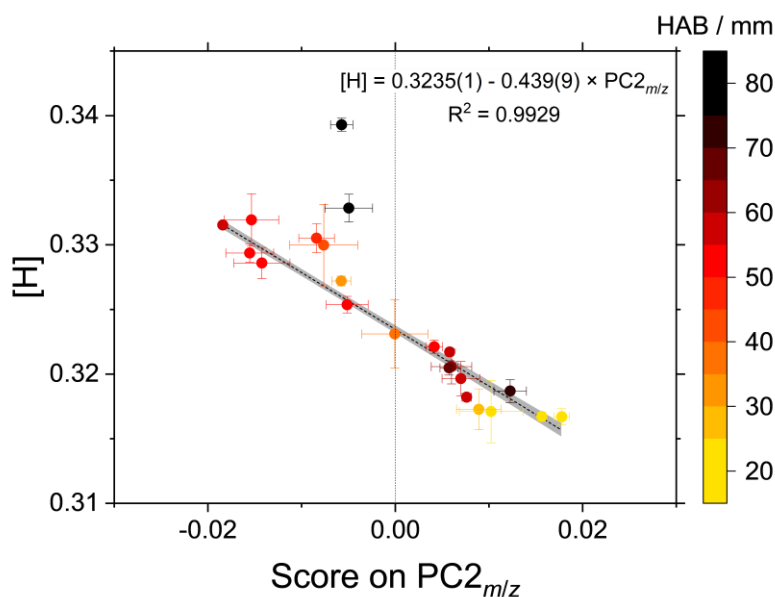
247 On PC1 $_{m/z}$ (55.39% of the total variance explained) three data clusters can be identified as shown in
248 Figure 2. All mass spectra at 13-53 mm HAB (yellow-orange datapoints) exhibit negative scores on
249 PC1 $_{m/z}$. The high dispersion of the datapoints on PC1 $_{m/z}$ indicates that the PCA cannot find statistically
250 significant differences among the mass spectra of the samples collected in this HAB range. The mass
251 spectra at 54-70 mm HAB (red-brown datapoints) are closely clustered with low positive scores in PC1 $_{m/z}$,
252 except the mass spectra at 56 mm HAB with close-to-zero negative scores. Finally, the mass spectra at
253 80-100 mm HAB (black datapoints) exhibit high positive scores in PC1 $_{m/z}$. The m/z contributing to PC1 $_{m/z}$
254 are shown in the corresponding loading plot in Figure 2. A sign inversion of the loadings occurs in the
255 240-300 m/z range (corresponding to C19-C24 hydrocarbons), which essentially divides the loadings into
256 two groups: high m/z ions having high negative loadings, and low m/z ions having high positive loadings.
257 The former are almost invariably identified as C $_m$ H $_n^+$ by mass defect analysis and their molecular
258 formulae are consistent with PAHs or their derivatives, whereas the latter are identified as C $_m$ H $_n^+$,
259 C $_m$ H $_n$ O $_p^+$ and other unassigned ions by mass defect analysis and their molecular formulae are consistent
260 with PAHs, their derivatives or oxygen-containing hydrocarbons. In the score plot, a sign inversion of the
261 loadings of PC1 $_{m/z}$ occurs between 53 and 56 mm HAB that calls attention to a change in the chemical
262 composition of the samples. This change, consisting of the depletion of high m/z PAHs and their
263 derivatives in favor of lower m/z PAHs, their derivatives, and oxygen-containing hydrocarbons, is the first
264 important information extracted from the analysis of the chemical composition of the samples.

265 **3.3 The atomic fraction of hydrogen (PC2 $_{m/z}$)**

266 On PC2 $_{m/z}$ (20.82% of the variance explained) two data clusters can be identified as shown in Figure 2.
267 Mass spectra at 30-53 mm HAB (orange-red datapoints) and 80-100 mm HAB (black datapoints) exhibit
268 negative scores, whereas mass spectra at 13-25 mm HAB (yellow datapoints) and 54-70 mm HAB (brown
269 datapoints) exhibit positive scores. The m/z contributing to PC2 $_{m/z}$ are also shown in the corresponding
270 loading plot in Figure 2. Again, a sign inversion of the loadings occurs approximately in the 240-300 m/z

271 range. Here, high m/z ions have loadings close to zero and therefore only marginally contribute to the
272 phenomenon represented by $PC2_{m/z}$, whereas low m/z ions having high negative loadings are
273 predominantly identified as $C_mH_n^+$.

274 [H] is linearly correlated to $PC2_{m/z}$ ($R^2 = 0.9223$) for samples collected up to 70 mm HAB, as shown in
275 Figure 3. High [H] corresponds to high negative scores on $PC2_{m/z}$, i.e. to samples collected at 30-53 mm
276 and 80-100 mm HAB. As further discussed below, this finding is particularly interesting as it shows that
277 samples at 30-53 mm HAB have the highest concentration of hydrogen potentially available for chemical
278 reactivity. Furthermore, the highest negative loadings on $PC2_{m/z}$ correspond to hydrocarbons in the range
279 150-260 m/z . Higher m/z species, being either hydrocarbons, oxygen-containing hydrocarbons or other
280 unknown species, tend to show significantly lower loadings (see Figure 2) and thus give smaller
281 contributions to $PC2_{m/z}$. Above 80 mm HAB the linear correlation between [H] and $PC2_{m/z}$ is lost, possibly
282 because of the oxidation processes becoming dominant as further discussed below.



283
284 **Figure 3. [H] against $PC2_{m/z}$.** The linear regression (black dashed line) and the 95% confidence interval (gray area) do
285 not include the data collected at 80-100 mm HAB (two isolated black datapoints), for which the correlation is lost.
286

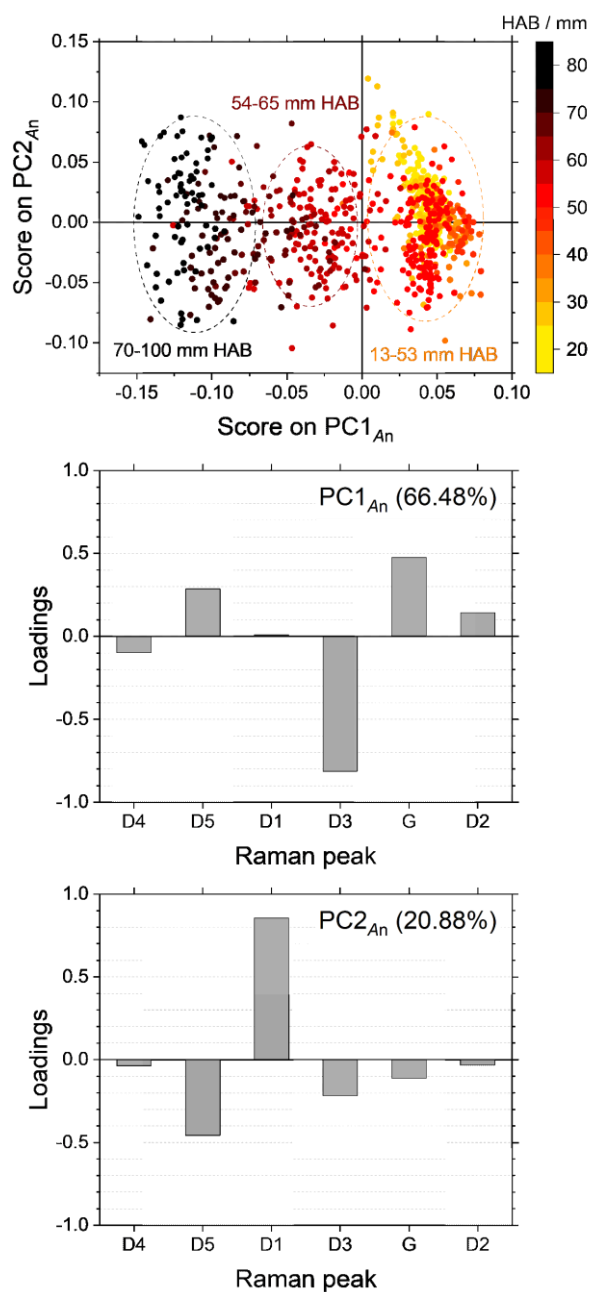
287 3.4 Raman spectroscopy: a challenging interpretation

288 The first-order feature of the Raman spectra, consisting of the D and G bands in the 800-2100 cm^{-1}
289 range, is analyzed by peak fitting. Extracting information from the Raman spectra of carbonaceous
290 materials is no trivial task: the D and G bands are broad and partially overlap, and therefore the exact
291 number and origin of the active Raman modes are still debated. The approach proposed herein is based on
292 a six-peak fitting (D4, D5, D1, D3, G, D2) and focuses on finding correlations between the spectral
293 parameters but avoiding existing empirical relationships that might not be valid for the entire range of the
294 investigated soot properties, especially for incipient soot.

295 A total of 790 Raman spectra of impaction ROIs collected at 22 different HABs are acquired. The
296 extracted spectral parameters include: the peak normalized area A_n defined as $A_n(X) = A(X)/\sum_i A(X_i)$,
297 where $A(X)$ is the area of peak X after subtracting the photoluminescence baseline, the peak position x_c
298 and the width w_{FWHM} taken as the full width at half maximum (FWHM). Once again, PCA is used to
299 reduce the dimensionality and to find statistically significant correlations; the discussion is based on the
300 PC2_{A_n} against PC1_{A_n} score plot.

301 Figure 4 shows the results of the PCA performed on the A_n for all impaction ROIs. The scores on PC1_{A_n}
302 (66.48% of the variance explained) classify the datapoints in three data clusters based on their sampling
303 HAB: positive scores at 15-53 mm HAB, low negative scores at 54-65 mm HAB, and high negative
304 scores at 70-100 mm HAB. These distinct data clusters represent the tendency of A_n to assume constant
305 values at 15-53 mm HAB (yellow-red datapoints), then to transition through 54-65 mm HAB (brown
306 datapoints) to eventually reach different constant values at 70-100 mm HAB (black datapoints). The
307 loading plot of PC1_{A_n} shows that different peaks provide opposing contributions to PC1_{A_n} . Peaks D4 and
308 D3 have negative loadings: in particular, peak D3 has high negative loading, i.e. it contributes extensively
309 to the phenomenon represented by PC1_{A_n} , and $A_n(\text{D3})$ shows the largest relative difference of all peaks
310 between 15-53 mm HAB and 70-100 mm HAB. Peaks D5, G and D2 have low positive loadings, hence

311 their contribution to $PC1_{An}$ opposes that of peaks D4 and D3. Finally, peak D1 has loading close to zero,
 312 and therefore contributes only marginally to the phenomenon represented by $PC1_{An}$.



313
 314 **Figure 4. Results of the PCA (covariance matrix) performed on the peak normalized areas A_n extracted from the**
 315 **impaction ROIs Raman spectra.** The figure shows the $PC2_{An}$ against $PC1_{An}$ score plot with data cluster attributions (top
 316 panel) and the corresponding loading plots (middle and bottom panels).
 317

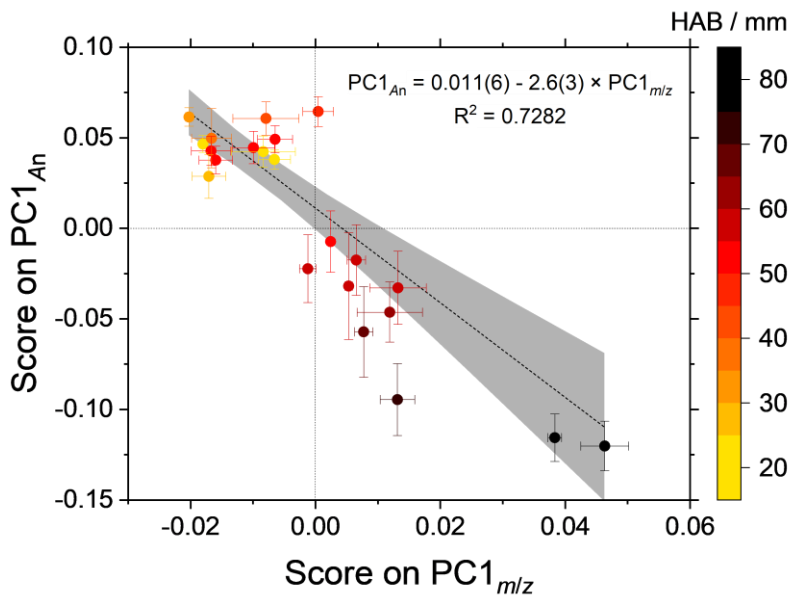
318 The higher-order principal components do not show any appreciable dependence on the HAB or other
319 identified properties of the samples.

320 The second parameter derived from the fittings, x_c , is independent of both the flame and sampling
321 conditions. The data scores overlap in the same region of the score plots and cannot be clearly clustered
322 (SI 8.7), with the only exception of a small data cluster having high positive scores in the third principal
323 component that is consequence of a $\sim 10 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ shift to a higher wavenumber of the D band occurring in
324 samples collected at 40-45 mm HAB. A similar behavior has already been observed in materials sampled
325 from premixed flames [11]: there, the authors remark that strains in the lattice or doping from electrical
326 charges could be at the origin of band shifts in both the D and G bands, and suggest that it could be
327 evidence of a transition from a planar lattice to the bent crystallites typical of soot nanoparticles.

328 Akin to what has been previously observed for A_n , the last parameter w_{FWHM} , also shows a separation in
329 three data clusters that represent the tendency of all peaks except D5 to broaden in samples collected at
330 54-70 mm HAB (SI 8.7). This peak broadening is consistent with the global broadening of the Raman
331 spectra, with D and G bands spanning over $1000\text{-}1800 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ in samples collected at 15-53 mm HAB and
332 over $900\text{-}1900 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ in those collected at 70-100 mm HAB.

333 **3.5 Linking structure and chemical composition**

334 As emerged from the data analysis so far, $\text{PC1}_{m/z}$ (high m/z hydrocarbons), $\text{PC2}_{m/z}$ ([H]) and PC1_{A_n}
335 (Raman peaks D5, D3 and G) are convenient choices to represent changes of the chemical composition
336 and structure of the samples. As shown in Figure 5, $\text{PC1}_{m/z}$ and PC1_{A_n} are correlated: high negative scores
337 on $\text{PC1}_{m/z}$ correspond to high positive scores on PC1_{A_n} (13-53 mm HAB), low positive scores on $\text{PC1}_{m/z}$
338 correspond to low negative scores on PC1_{A_n} (54-70 mm HAB), and high positive scores on $\text{PC1}_{m/z}$
339 correspond to high negative scores on PC1_{A_n} (80-100 mm HAB).



340

341 **Figure 5. Linking structure and chemical composition.** $PC1_{An}$ against $PC1_{m/z}$ plot. The linear fitting (black dashed line)

342 and the 95% confidence interval (gray area) are shown. In this and all following figures, the averages calculated on all the

343 available ROIs are compared since it was not possible to perform ToF-SIMS and Raman analyses on the same locations on

344 the sample surface.

345

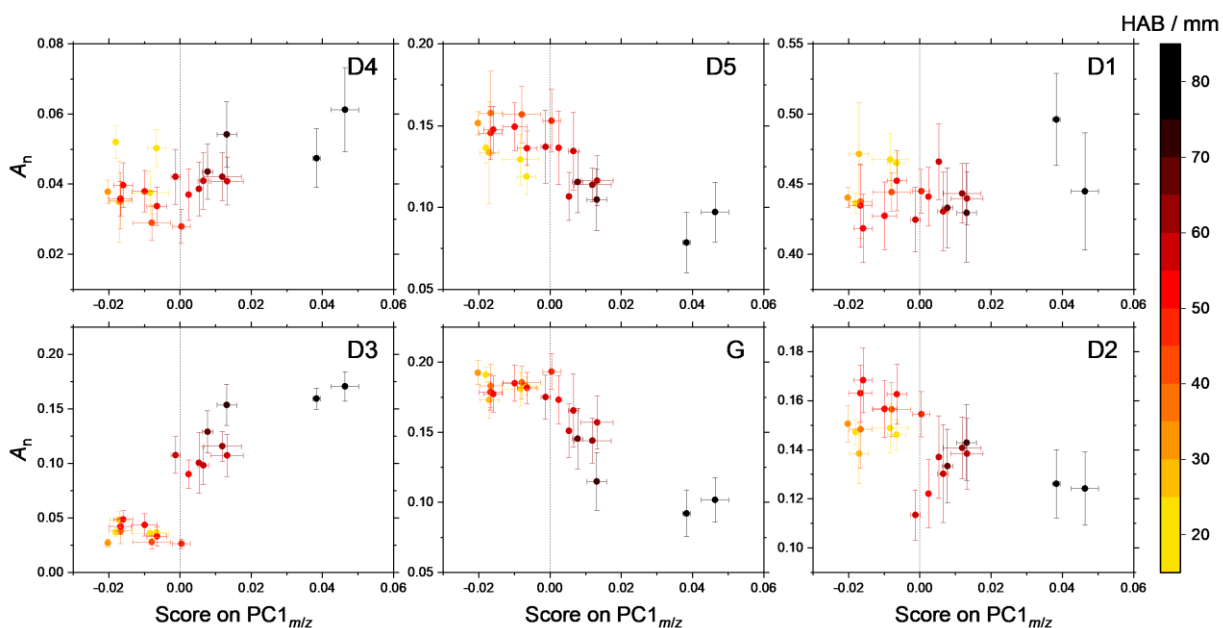
346 The sign inversion of $PC1_{m/z}$, which occurs approximately in the 240-300 m/z range and corresponds to

347 C19-C24 hydrocarbons, represents the depletion of high m/z hydrocarbons ($PC1_{m/z} < 0$). The Raman

348 peaks affected by this change of the chemical composition are identified by comparing the scores on

349 $PC1_{m/z}$ to the A_n of the individual peaks obtained from the curve fitting of the Raman spectra. As shown in

350 Figure 6, several behaviors of A_n against $PC1_{m/z}$ are identified.



351

352 **Figure 6. A_n (Raman spectral analysis) against scores on $PC1_{m/z}$ (ToF-SIMS analysis).**

353

354 $A_n(D4)$ is weakly correlated to $PC1_{m/z}$. It is not clear whether a threshold at the sign inversion of $PC1_{m/z}$
 355 occurs. While the origin of peak D4 is not yet understood, it has been suggested to be related to the
 356 presence of polyenes [66], peripheric carbon atoms [59,66,68] or ionic impurities [67]. In any case, peak
 357 D4 seems to be only weakly affected by the presence of high m/z hydrocarbons.

358 $A_n(D5)$ is correlated to $PC1_{m/z}$, suggesting a dependence on the presence of high m/z hydrocarbons.
 359 Although peak D5 has already been observed in flame-sampled materials [62], only little information is
 360 available on its origin. Peak D5 has been proposed to be activated by the relaxation of the selection rules
 361 from finite crystal size effects or defects [69,70] or the merging of Raman active modes of poorly linked
 362 polyaromatic units [64,82].

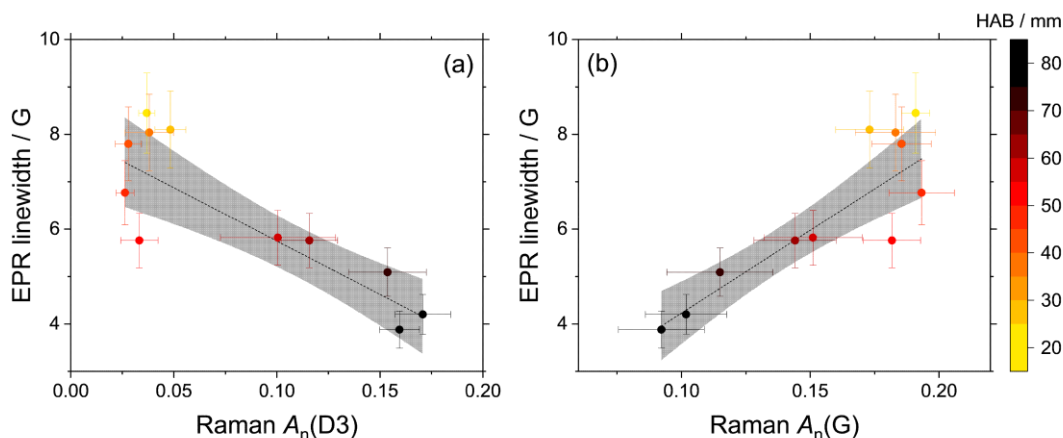
363 $A_n(D1)$ is uncorrelated to $PC1_{m/z}$. Peak D1 has been assigned to the A_{1g} (“breathing”) mode of graphene
 364 that is only active in case of lattice disturbances like edges or the presence of heteroatoms [71–74,83], and
 365 has already been established in the literature as a useful marker for mature soot [55,62,84,85]. In this
 366 work, peak D1 is not found to be an effective marker for the presence of high m/z hydrocarbons.

367 $A_n(\text{D3})$ is correlated to $\text{PC1}_{m/z}$, and furthermore the data clustering already observed in PC1_{A_n} is
368 preserved. In particular, the sharp transition from 13-53 mm HAB (yellow-orange datapoints) to
369 54-65 mm HAB (red-brown datapoints) corresponds to the sign inversion of $\text{PC1}_{m/z}$, i.e. to the depletion
370 of high m/z hydrocarbons. The origin of peak D3 is not yet fully understood: in previous works, it has
371 been attributed to the presence of amorphous carbon [66,67,75], finite-size graphite crystals [76], or
372 defects outside the graphene layers [77]. Density functional calculations suggest that it might be the
373 convolution of several Raman active modes [55]. New insights on the origin of peak D3 come from EPR
374 measurements. Narrow EPR linewidths are characteristic of amorphous carbon or dehydrogenation during
375 maturation [86]. Figure 7a shows the remarkable correlation between the EPR linewidth of soot samples
376 collected from the same flame analyzed in this work [48] and the corresponding $A_n(\text{D3})$ that supports the
377 attribution of peak D3 to vibrations of amorphous carbon.

378 $A_n(\text{G})$ is correlated to $\text{PC1}_{m/z}$ with a well-defined threshold behavior. $A_n(\text{G})$ is constant for negative
379 $\text{PC1}_{m/z}$ at 13-53 mm HAB, then suddenly decreases at the sign inversion of $\text{PC1}_{m/z}$. Peak G has been
380 unequivocally assigned to the vibration mode E_{2g} of the ideal graphitic lattice [71,73]. The correlation
381 between the EPR linewidth and $A_n(\text{G})$ shown in Figure 7b suggests that the transition to amorphous
382 carbon is associated with the reduction of the size of the graphitic lattice.

383 $A_n(\text{D2})$ is weakly correlated to $\text{PC1}_{m/z}$. Peak D2 has been assigned to isolated graphene layers not
384 directly sandwiched between other layers [55,62,73].

385 No clear trends emerge when comparing the individual A_n to $\text{PC2}_{m/z}$ (SI 8.9). $A_n(\text{D4})$ shows a weak
386 correlation to $\text{PC2}_{m/z}$, while $A_n(\text{D5})$, $A_n(\text{D1})$, $A_n(\text{D3})$, $A_n(\text{G})$ and $A_n(\text{D2})$ are found to be uncorrelated to
387 $\text{PC2}_{m/z}$.



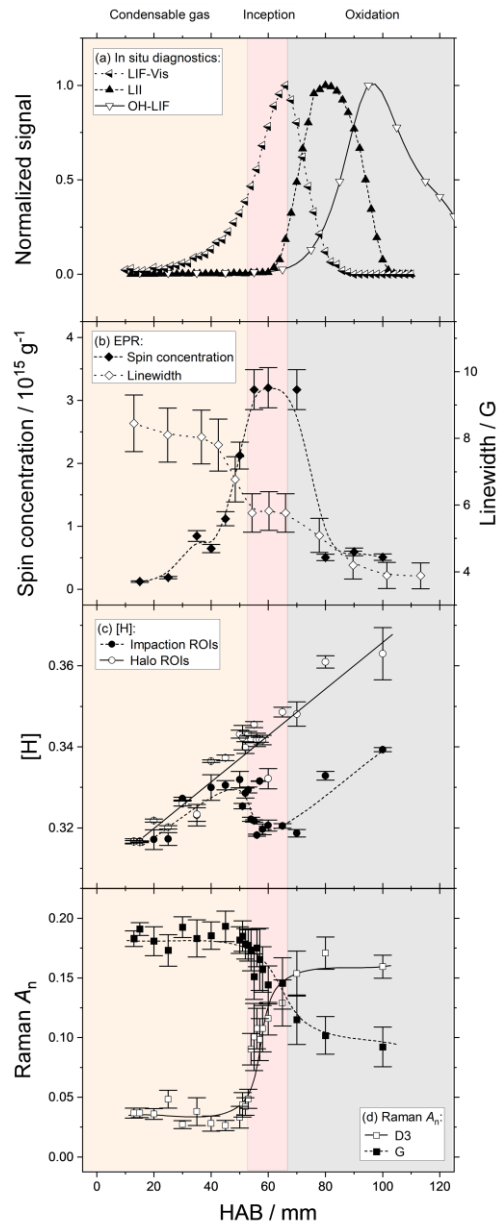
388
 389 **Figure 7. EPR linewidth and interpretation of Raman spectra.** EPR linewidth against $A_n(D3)$ (a) and against $A_n(G)$ (b).
 390 The linear fitting (black dashed line) and the 95% confidence interval (gray area) are shown. Both correlations are
 391 statistically significant ($R^2 > 0.7$).
 392

393 4. Discussion

394 4.1 Connecting the dots: toward a better understanding of soot inception

395 Figure 8 shows the available data that is found to be dependent on the flame HAB and that includes: (a)
 396 the normalized in situ profiles of the fluorophores (obtained by laser induced fluorescence, LIF) and the
 397 laser induced incandescence (LII) signal [50] that is directly proportional to the soot volume fraction; (b)
 398 the spin concentration of the persistent radicals (obtained by electron paramagnetic resonance, EPR) [48];
 399 (c) the [H] of the impaction and halo ROIs (obtained by ToF-SIMS, this work); (d) the intensity of the
 400 vibrations of carbon crystals of finite size and flat graphene-like structures (obtained by Raman
 401 spectroscopy, this work). This multi-diagnostic approach allows the identification of distinct regimes in
 402 the flame axis based on differences in the chemical composition, structure and optical properties of the
 403 condensable gas and of the condensed phase. Information on incipient soot and its molecular precursors is
 404 then inferred from the comparative analysis.

405



406

407 **Figure 8. Dependence of the investigated quantities on the flame HAB.** The in-situ characterization of the flame
 408 includes (a) the normalized profiles of the fluorescence induced with 532 nm excitation wavelength (half down left
 409 triangles [35,50]), the LII signal (solid up triangles [50]), and the OH radicals fluorescence (hollow down triangles [51]).
 410 The ex-situ characterization of the samples includes: (b) the spin concentration of persistent radicals (solid diamonds
 411 [48]) (c) the [H] of the impaction (solid rounds) and halo (hollow rounds) ROIs, (d) $A_n(D3)$ (hollow squares) and $A_n(G)$
 412 (solid squares) of the impaction ROIs. All connecting lines are guidelines.

413

414 At 13-30 mm HAB the chemical composition of the condensable gas does not change significantly with
415 the HAB or the ROI. In this HAB range, high m/z hydrocarbons are already available (Figure 2). The
416 mass defect of the identified ions corresponds to or is slightly higher than pericondensed PAHs, but much
417 lower than the aliphatic and benzene oligomers limits [35,87]. The vast majority of the molecular
418 formulae assigned by mass defect analysis are consistent with PAHs and PAHs substituted by short
419 aliphatic chains, and are in good agreement with works that identified in young soot aliphatic molecules
420 [33,34] and low m/z aliphatic fragment ions [35].

421 Evidence of change in the flame properties and in the chemistry of the extracted samples begins around
422 30 mm HAB. First, the induced fluorescence emission progressively shifts toward visible wavelengths
423 [50]. As previously discussed, evidence has been found that this emission, which was first observed in the
424 1980s [88,89] and initially attributed to large aromatic molecules [90], might be associated with
425 long-lived PAH excimers [50,91] or radicals [48] instead. In parallel, the spin concentration of the
426 persistent radicals increases (Figure 8b). Around 40 mm HAB, the EPR bandwidth (Figure 8b) begins to
427 decrease and the [H] of the impaction and halo ROIs begins to diverge (Figure 8c).

428 In the impaction ROIs below 53 mm HAB, the intensity of the vibrations attributed to amorphous
429 carbon and to the ideal graphitic lattice (peaks D3 and G, respectively, Figure 8d) is constant. This lack of
430 evolution conveys important information: first, it supports the assignment of the ions detected by mass
431 spectrometry to flat and isolated or weakly bound PAHs. Second, it clearly shows that the structure of the
432 matter in the condensable gas does not change against the HAB. In this HAB range, no black body-like
433 emission typical of the matter in the condensed phase is detected in situ in the flame (absence of LII
434 signal, Figure 8a).

435 At 53-56 mm HAB, several drastic changes occur within a few mm in the ex situ samples that acquire
436 the character of a discontinuity point. The chemical composition of the impaction ROIs (condensable gas
437 and condensed phase) and of the halo ROIs (condensable gas only) diverge (Figure 8c). In particular, the
438 decreasing [H] of the impaction ROIs, not observed at lower HAB or in the halo ROIs, is consistent with
439 an emerging chemical reactivity compatible with the increasing formation rate of covalent C-C bonds that

440 supports the occurrence of cross-linking or dimerization as discussed in our previous work [46]. In the
441 impaction ROIs, the relative contribution of high m/z hydrocarbons decreases in favor of lower m/z
442 hydrocarbons and oxygen-containing hydrocarbons ($PC1_{m/z}$ loadings sign inversion, Figure 2). This
443 depletion is consistent with the recently observed accumulation of PAHs on soot particles [92], and
444 strongly suggests that incipient soot acts as sinks for high m/z hydrocarbons. The structure of the species
445 in the impaction ROIs undergoes significant changes within the narrow 53-54 mm HAB range. First, the
446 intensity of the vibrations of the graphitic lattice, that are constant up to 53 mm HAB, begin to decrease
447 (Raman peak G, Figure 8c): a similar phenomenon has already been observed and suggested to be an
448 indicator of the formation of curved structures as opposed to the flat aromatic species more abundant
449 before soot inception [37,56]. At the same time, the intensity of the vibrations attributed to amorphous
450 carbon suddenly rises (Raman peak D3, Figure 8c). The spin concentration and the fluorescence emission
451 reach their maximum at 55-70 mm HAB (Figure 8b) and 65-70 mm HAB (LIF induced with 532 nm
452 excitation wavelength, Figure 8a), respectively. The EPR bandwidth (Figure 8b) remains approximately
453 constant, while black body-like emission of matter in the condensed phase is initially detected at 60 mm
454 HAB (in situ LII signals with $SNR \geq 3$, Figure 8a).

455 At 70-100 mm HAB the soot volume fraction reaches its maximum while the concentration of
456 fluorophores detected in situ decreases against HAB (LII and LIF profiles, respectively, Figure 8a). High
457 m/z hydrocarbons are depleted (Figure 2). The intensity of the vibrations of the graphitic lattice further
458 decreases, while the intensity of the vibrations attributed to amorphous carbon reaches its maximum
459 (Raman peaks G and D3, respectively, Figure 8b). The spin concentration reaches a minimum, and the
460 EPR bandwidth further decreases (Figure 8b). All these changes are already well documented in the
461 literature [1,3,4] and represent the transition from young to mature and (partially) oxidized soot. This
462 second transition occurs in a broader HAB range than the former, and involves more clearly the structure
463 rather than the chemical composition of the sampled materials (no sign inversion of $PC1_{m/z}$, Figure 2). The
464 oxidation processes becoming dominant (rise of the concentration of OH radicals that begins around
465 65 mm HAB) reasonably explains the depletion of the high m/z hydrocarbons (high scores in $PC1_{m/z}$,

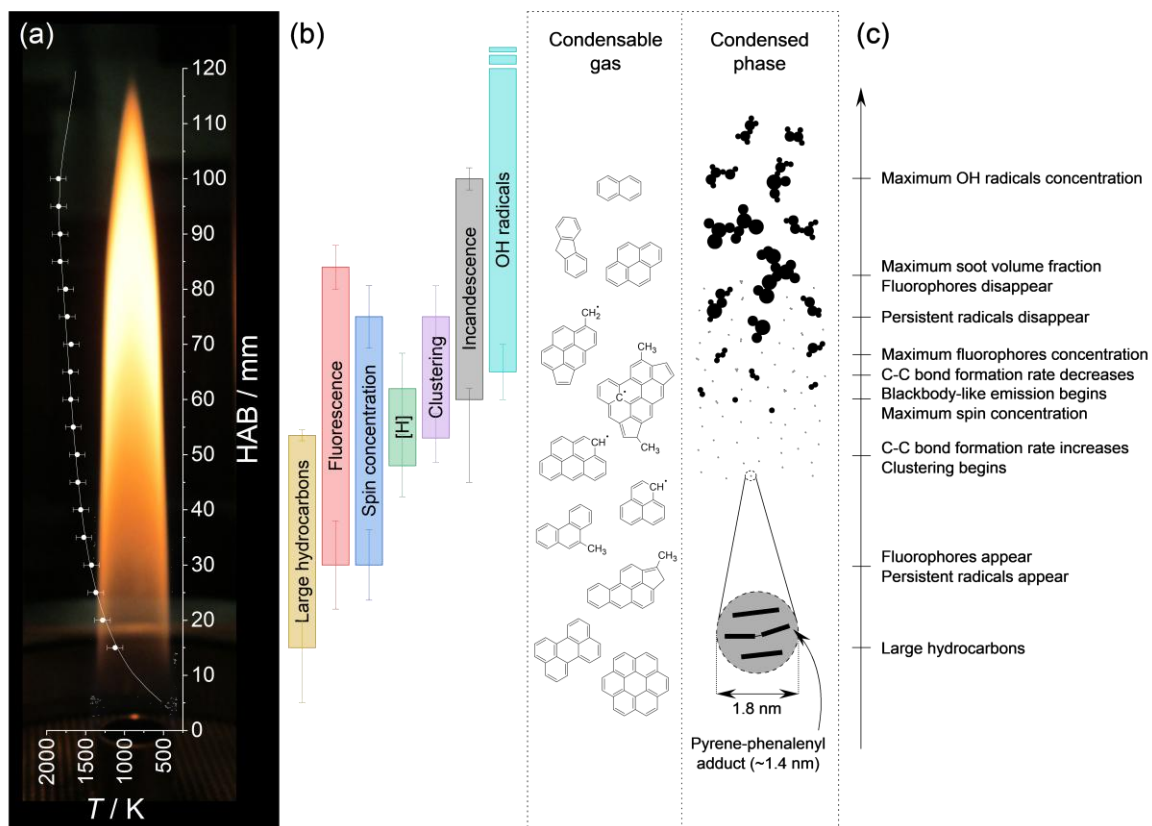
466 Figure 2), but also the disappearance of the mature soot particles that are almost entirely oxidized higher
467 in the flame (the diffusion flame is non-smoking). The transition to a regime where the dominating
468 mechanism is oxidation could also explain the loss of linearity in the correlation between [H] and PC2_{m/z}
469 previously discussed (see section 3.3), as the hydrocarbons found in this region likely have a more diverse
470 nature than the PAHs generated only by molecular growth processes like the HACA.

471 **4.2 A simple phenomenological model of soot inception**

472 An overview of the experimental findings is provided in Figure 9. Based on purely phenomenological
473 considerations, the hypothesis is made that in this diffusion flame the reactive species responsible for soot
474 inception are formed from the pool of the PAHs and substituted PAHs already available at low HAB. As
475 the flame temperature increases, the concentration of reactive species also increases until it can sustain the
476 formation of adducts. In the flame axis, a critical point is reached at 53-54 mm HAB (1600-1650 K [51]),
477 where the increased formation rate of C-C bonds results in a global decrease of [H], immediately
478 followed by the detection of graphite-like crystals in the condensed phase ex situ, and slightly higher at 60
479 mm HAB (~1700 K) by in situ black body-like emission.

480 A possibility that should be considered is that the chain of events leading to soot inception begins
481 before the black body-like emission of soot is detected. In this context, the lower limit of detection of the
482 LII diagnostic becomes a key point for the interpretation of all experimental data. In this work, the first
483 changes in the chemical composition and structure of the samples consistent with a phase transition occur
484 6-7 mm lower than the first black body-like emission attributed to particles in the condensed phase. This
485 discrepancy cannot be accounted for even when including the uncertainty attributed to the sampling
486 process (± 2 mm). Based on the literature reviewed so far, there is consensus that incepting soot particles
487 have different physical-chemical properties than fully formed primary soot particles, and in particular
488 their absorption function $E(m)$ is significantly lower [28,29]. Therefore, the black body-like emission is
489 detectable only when the particle concentration in the flame becomes sufficiently high, or alternatively
490 when coagulation and surface growth have already resulted in an increased $E(m)$. These two scenarios are

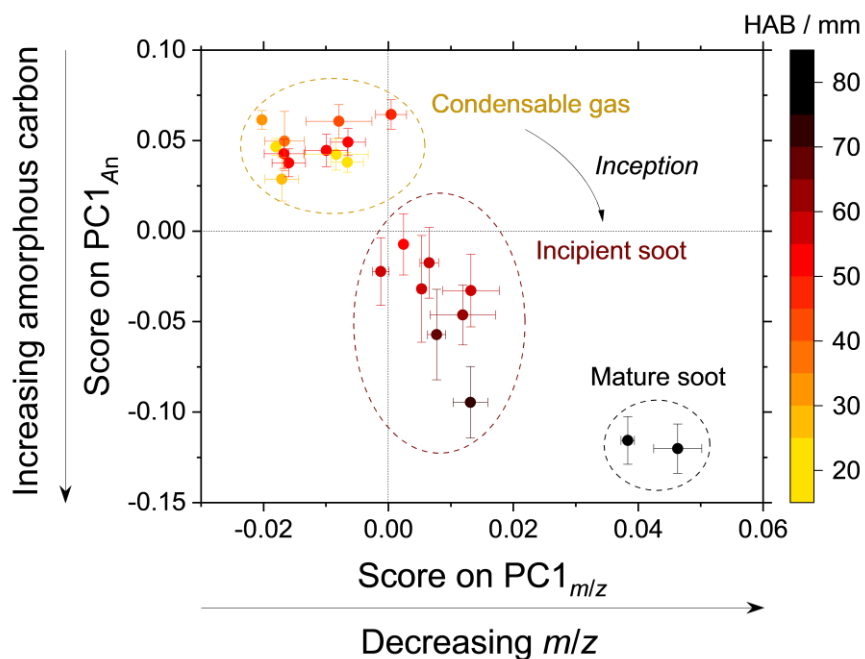
491 not mutually exclusive and are both consistent with a shifted particle detection by LII on the axial profile
 492 of the flame.



493
 494
 495 **Figure 9. Phenomenological scenario for soot inception.** (a) flame picture with overlaid HAB scale and temperature
 496 profile. (b) Significant HAB ranges: large hydrocarbons (ToF-SIMS on the impaction ROIs, yellow), fluorophores (LIF at
 497 532 nm excitation wavelength, red), spin concentration (EPR, blue), slope inversion of [H] (green), clustering (changes of
 498 the D3 and G Raman peaks, purple), black body-like emission (LII, gray), and OH radicals (LIF-OH, cyan). The error bars of
 499 the quantities obtained from ex-situ diagnostics (EPR, ToF-SIMS and Raman) include the shift introduced with the
 500 sampling uncertainty (estimated to ± 2 mm from the change in the flame luminosity and propagated with a Taylor
 501 expansion). (c) summary of the experimental observation. The depicted soot particles are to scale (2 nm diameter
 502 incipient soot particles, 5-15 nm diameter primary particles, ~50 nm gyration diameter aggregates). The size of the
 503 depicted adducts is calculated from aromatic C-C and C-H bond distances.
 504

505 With this uncertainty in mind, it is interesting to notice that the spin concentration of the persistent
506 radicals reaches its maximum immediately before the black body-like emission attributed to particles in
507 the condensed phase is first detected, and begins to decrease when the OH radicals appear and the soot
508 volume fraction reaches its maximum (Figure 8). These correspondences strongly suggest that the
509 detected persistent radicals are closely related to the reactive species responsible for soot inception: when
510 the reactive medium is extracted from the flame and deposited on a solid substrate during sampling, the
511 surviving reactive species likely transform into the stable products detected by the ex situ diagnostics,
512 including the persistent radicals detected by EPR. However, a trace is clearly left in the samples as the
513 spin concentration peaks shortly before the black body-like emission attributed to soot particles is first
514 detected. In addition, the spin concentration is linearly correlated to the induced fluorescence at 532 nm
515 [48], i.e. the reactive species that generate the persistent radicals and the fluorophores may share a
516 common origin. The induced fluorescence [35,50,91] and recent works on the characterization of the
517 persistent radicals [47,48,93] suggest important contributions from resonance-stabilized radicals of PAHs
518 substituted by short aliphatic chains. The availability of radical PAHs substituted with side chains might
519 contribute to further stabilize any multi-layered structure formed via interplanar covalent bonds in
520 addition to the weaker stacking interactions that are known to be insufficient to hold together clusters of
521 small PAHs at the flame temperature [94]. This hypothesis is additionally supported by the correlation
522 between the EPR linewidth and the intensity of the vibration of mode E_{2g} of the ideal graphitic lattice
523 found in this work. The decreasing intensity of the vibration of mode E_{2g} (Figure 7b) and the
524 disappearance of large PAHs (Figure 2) suggest that the initial formation of amorphous carbon is
525 associated with the reduction of the size of the aromatic domains. This decreasing intensity of the
526 vibration cannot be a consequence of the increasing number of lattice defects as the intensity of the
527 vibration of mode A_{1g} of graphene is not correlated to the soot inception process (peak D1, see Figure 6).
528 Therefore, it must be concluded that the observed reduction of the size of the aromatic domains is caused
529 by the formation of curved and/or multi-layer structures.

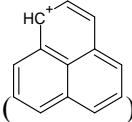
530 Higher in the flame, around 70-75 mm HAB, this equilibrium is upset. The slope of [H] changes its
 531 sign again, indicating that the formation rate of C-C bonds decreases, the emission of the fluorophores
 532 and the spin concentration of the persistent radicals are reduced to roughly one tenth of their peak value.
 533 All this information indicates that soot inception reaches an abrupt halt shortly before the maximum soot
 534 volume fraction is detected. As already noticed above, this second series of changes corresponds
 535 remarkably well to the rise of the concentration of OH radicals. Therefore, it can be inferred that the OH
 536 radicals first inactivate the most reactive species in the flame, which subsequently slows down the
 537 formation rate of C-C bonds, and finally stabilizes the structure of the particles to that of mature soot. In
 538 particular, soot sampled above the maximum soot volume fraction show no visual trace of the brown
 539 organic matter that is prominent in the samples collected at lower HAB [48].

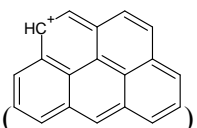


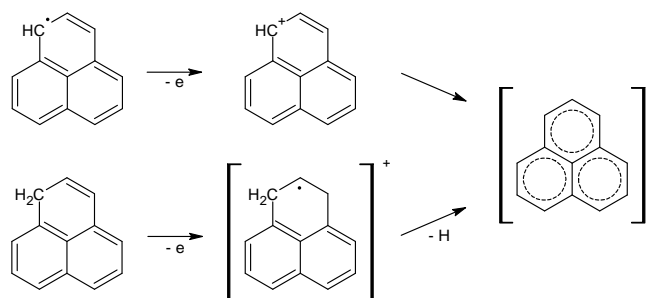
540
 541 **Figure 10. Soot inception identified by the PCA (Figure 5 revisited).** PC1_{An} against PC1_{m/z} plot emphasizing the
 542 existence of three data clusters. Increasing scores on PC1_{m/z} represent the increasing relative contribution of low *m/z*
 543 PAHs and their derivatives (section 3.1), while decreasing scores on PC1_{An} represent the increasing relative contribution
 544 of amorphous carbon (section 3.4). Notice how the data cluster assigned to the incipient soot stands out from the other
 545 two data clusters.
 546

547 In light of this discussion, the cross-comparison of the analysis of the chemical composition and
548 structure of soot becomes an effective way to represent soot inception. Figure 10 shows the $PC1_{An}$ against
549 $PC1_{m/z}$ plot, already discussed in section 3.5, with three highlighted data clusters representing different
550 regimes separated by discontinuities and assigned to condensable gas, incipient soot and mature soot.
551 This representation well summarizes the main information extracted from this study, and in particular
552 highlights the existence of incipient soot as a distinct regime with chemical composition and structure
553 significantly different than either the condensable gas and the mature soot.

554 In our previous work, the potential link between the formation of dimers of small PAHs and soot
555 inception has been discussed at length [46]. As a final remark, we would like to bring attention to the
556 cations that mark the beginning and the maximum of the negative $PC1_{m/z}$ loadings distribution in the
557 analysis of mass spectrometry data, and specifically to the first cation of the distribution $C_{13}H_9^+$
558 (165.070 u) and to the cation with the largest variability in the sequence of high m/z hydrocarbons $C_{19}H_{11}^+$

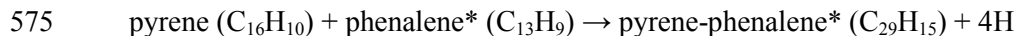
559 (239.086 u). Among the possible isomers, the cations of 1H-phenalene () and

560 6H-benzo[*cd*]pyrene () are particularly interesting as they have attracted considerable
561 interest in theoretical chemistry for their ability to form relatively stable π dimers [95,96]. On the one
562 hand, care must be taken when interpreting ex situ mass spectrometry data. Benzenoid PAHs with an odd
563 number of carbon atoms contain a CH_2 group that can undergo post-ionization hydrogen elimination to
564 form the same cations as resonance-stabilized radicals as shown below for the case of
565 phenalene/phenalenyl:



566

567 Therefore, it can be argued that the secondary ions detected ex situ mostly derive from stable PAHs
 568 rather than reactive radicals since the latter are less likely to survive the sampling process. On the other
 569 hand, the very existence of a maximum of the spin concentration before the inception zone is clear
 570 evidence that at least part of the information on the reactive radicals is preserved for a long time after the
 571 sampling. Within the limits imposed by this interpretation, the intermediate species detected at the very
 572 beginning of the soot inception zone in our previous work [46] could be the stable products deriving from
 573 the reactive radicals in the flame. For instance, reactions reminiscent of the formation of Frenklach's
 574 E-bridges [2] or Selvakumar's π -radicals localization [97] like:



576 would result in adducts capable of forming cations consistent with the observed m/z . The characteristic
 577 size of the adducts, calculated from the aromatic bond length of PAHs in the considered mass range and
 578 shown in scale in Figure 9, is 0.8-1.5 nm, in reasonably good agreement with the estimated size of the
 579 aromatic domains in this flame [46]. Additionally, similar reactions would explain the observed decrease
 580 of [H], and being resonance-stabilized, the adducts could be sufficiently stable to survive the sampling
 581 and be detected ex situ.

582 5. Conclusions

583 In this work, the chemical composition and the structure of incipient soot generated in a co-flow
 584 laminar diffusion flame of methane are investigated with a multi-diagnostic approach. Principal
 585 component analysis is used to determine the physical variables involved in soot inception, and to link
 586 them to soot inception, growth and oxidation.

587 The main finding of this work relies on the comparative analysis of the chemical composition (by
588 secondary ion mass spectrometry) and the structure (by Raman spectroscopy) of incipient soot of samples
589 extracted from the flame. The results are discussed in light of the information obtained from
590 complementary diagnostics that include the spin concentration of the extracted samples (by electron
591 paramagnetic resonance), and the in-flame distribution of the soot volume fraction (by laser induced
592 incandescence) and of different classes of fluorophores (by laser induced fluorescence). The comparative
593 analysis shows compelling evidence of the existence of an intermediate state of the matter extracted from
594 the flame, attributed to incipient soot, having significantly different chemical composition and structure
595 than the condensable gas and the mature soot. The appearance of this intermediate state occurs suddenly
596 shortly before the in situ detection of soot particles by laser induced incandescence in the axial direction
597 of the flame.

598 In terms of chemical composition, the atomic percentage of hydrogen [H] of the intermediate state
599 shows a slope inversion that suggests the existence of an emerging reactivity absent in the condensable
600 gas. Based on our past investigation [46], this reactivity is attributed to an increased formation rate of C-C
601 bonds associated with the formation of incipient soot. The candidate reactive species are identified as
602 C₁₂–C₂₀ CmHn⁺ hydrocarbons. In addition, the change of slope of [H] corresponds remarkably well to
603 the maximum of the spin concentration detected by electron paramagnetic resonance, which suggests that
604 some of the reactive species are radicals.

605 In terms of structure, the physical phenomena linked to the appearance of the intermediate state are the
606 appearance of amorphous carbon and the progressive disappearance of large and flat aromatic structures,
607 while the overall number of lattice defects is unaffected.

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614 7. Bibliography

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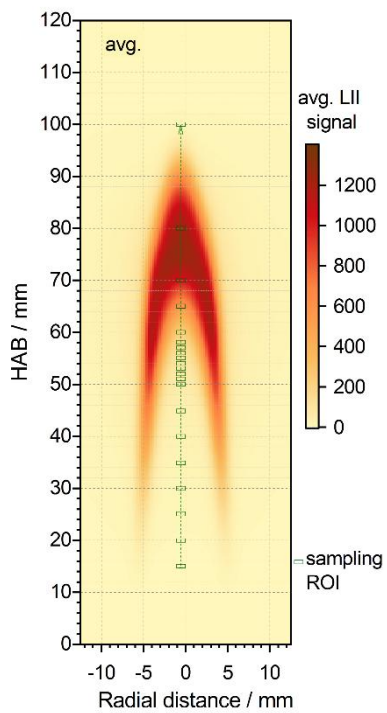
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- 889

890 **8. Supporting Information**

891 **8.1 Flame sampling scheme**



892

893 **Figure SI 1.** LII mapping of soot in the diffusion flame and sampling scheme (green hollow rectangles).

894

895 **8.2 ToF-SIMS mass spectra**

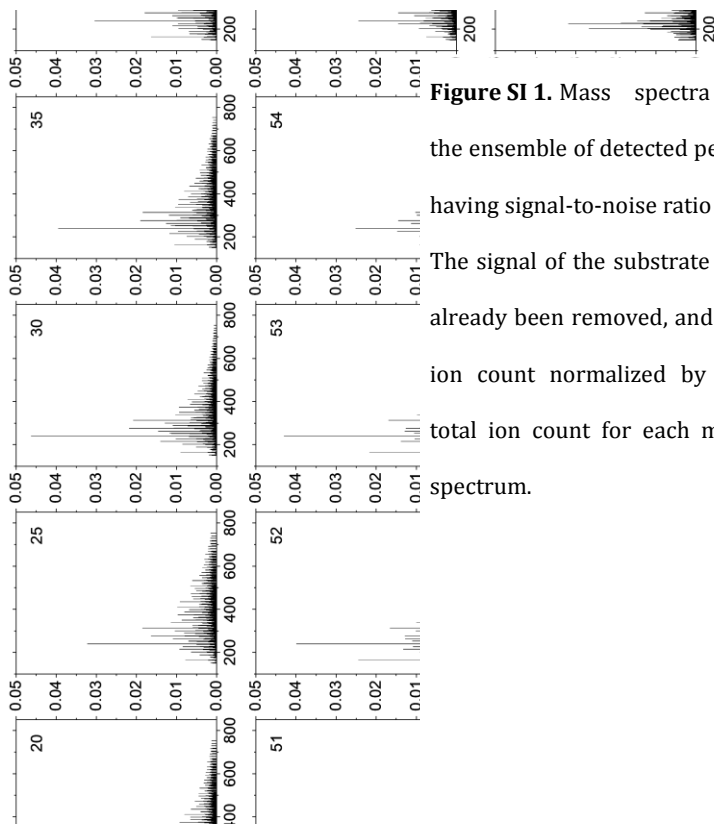
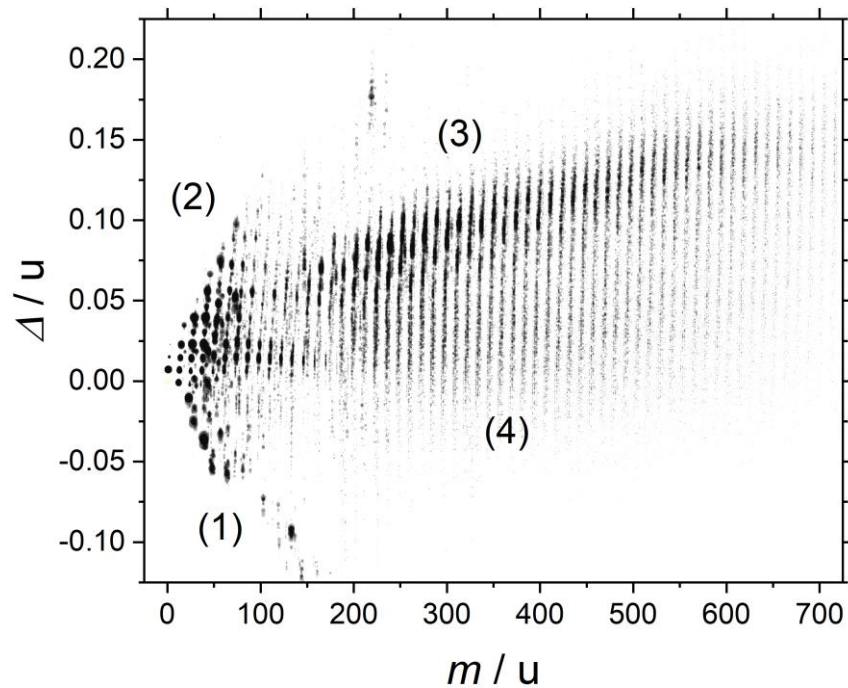


Figure SI 1. Mass spectra of the ensemble of detected peaks having signal-to-noise ratio > 3. The signal of the substrate has already been removed, and the ion count normalized by the total ion count for each mass spectrum.

896

897 **8.3 ToF-SIMS mass defect analysis**

898 Figure SI 2 shows the mass defect plot obtained from the ensemble of spectra used
899 to build the peak list in Table SI 1 and for the multivariate analysis.



900

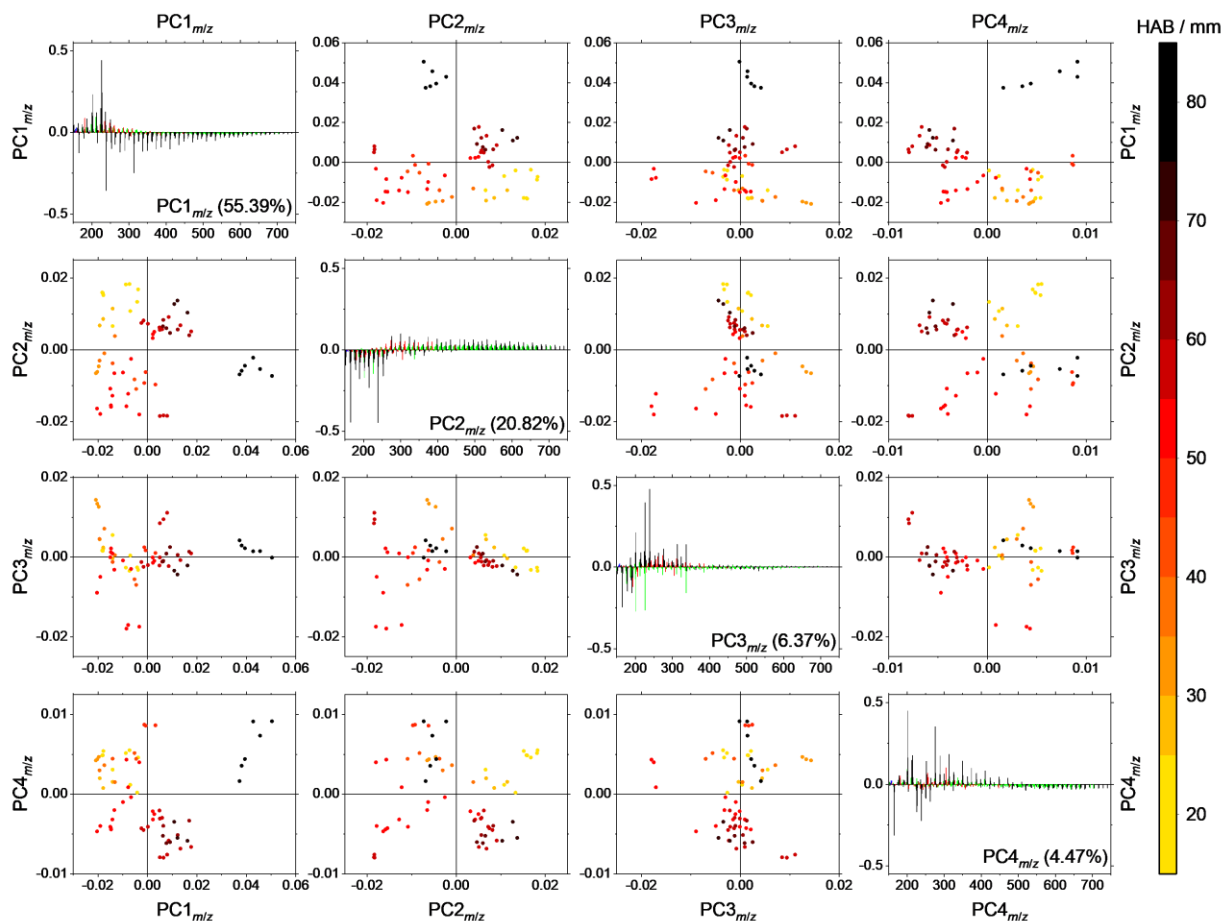
901 **Figure SI 2.** Mass defect plot showing the ensemble of detected peaks having signal-to-noise ratio > 3. The size of the
 902 datapoints is proportional to the logarithm of the peak intensity. The low mass defect series (1), also very prominent in
 903 the blank, is assigned to Ti oxides from the deposition substrates. The low m/z peaks (2) bear contributions from the
 904 blank and fragment ions. The high m/z and high mass defect peaks (3) are typical of soot and contain many identified
 905 hydrocarbons. The high m/z and low mass defect peaks (4), also typical of soot, are consistent with oxygen-containing
 906 hydrocarbons or low-hydrogen carbon cluster ions, however, certain assignments are not possible with the limited
 907 available resolving power ($m/\Delta m \approx 104$ at 200 m/z) [46].

908

206.10(2)	?	284.03(3)	?	374.10(4)	C ₃₀ H ₁₄ ⁺	484.11(5)	[¹³ C] ₃₀ H ₁₅ ⁺	653.07(7)	?
207.08(2)	C ₁₅ H ₁₁ O ⁺	285.02(3)	?	375.11(4)	[¹³ C]C ₃₀ H ₁₄ ⁺	485.13(5)	C ₃₀ H ₁₇ ⁺	655.15(7)	C ₅₃ H ₁₉ ⁺
210.01(2)	?	285.06(3)	C ₁₉ H ₉ O ₃ ⁺	376.12(4)	C ₃₀ H ₁₆ ⁺	486.14(5)	[¹³ C]C ₃₀ H ₁₇ ⁺	656.16(7)	[¹³ C]C ₅₃ H ₁₉ ⁺
211.02(2)	?	286.06(3)	[¹³ C]C ₁₉ H ₉ O ₃ ⁺	377.12(4)	[¹³ C]C ₃₀ H ₁₆ ⁺	487.14(5)	C ₃₀ H ₁₉ ⁺	657.16(7)	C ₅₃ H ₂₁ ⁺
211.05(2)	?	287.08(3)	C ₂₃ H ₁₁ ⁺	378.13(4)	?	488.14(5)	[¹³ C]C ₃₀ H ₁₉ ⁺	664.06(7)	?
212.02(2)	?	288.08(3)	[¹³ C]C ₂₃ H ₁₁ ⁺	379.11(4)	C ₂₃ H ₁₂ O ⁺	489.15(5)	?	666.10(7)	?
212.05(2)	?	289.10(3)	C ₂₃ H ₁₃ ⁺	380.12(4)	[¹³ C]C ₂₉ H ₁₅ O ⁺	490.01(5)	?	668.15(7)	C ₅₄ H ₂₀ ⁺
213.03(2)	?	290.11(3)	[¹³ C]C ₂₃ H ₁₃ ⁺	381.02(4)	?	492.03(5)	?	669.16(7)	[¹³ C]C ₅₄ H ₂₀ ⁺
213.07(2)	C ₁₇ H ₉ ⁺	291.12(3)	C ₂₃ H ₁₅ ⁺	381.13(4)	C ₂₉ H ₁₇ O ⁺	494.06(5)	?	670.17(7)	C ₅₄ H ₂₂ ⁺
214.07(2)	[¹³ C]C ₁₇ H ₉ ⁺	292.09(3)	C ₂₂ H ₁₂ O ⁺	383.03(4)	?	495.07(5)	?	679.14(7)	C ₅₅ H ₁₉ ⁺
215.09(2)	C ₁₇ H ₁₁ ⁺	293.10(3)	[¹³ C]C ₂₂ H ₁₂ O ⁺	384.04(4)	?	496.12(5)	C ₄₀ H ₁₆ ⁺	680.15(7)	[¹³ C]C ₅₅ H ₁₉ ⁺
216.09(2)	[¹³ C]C ₁₇ H ₁₁ ⁺	294.00(3)	?	385.04(4)	?	497.13(5)	[¹³ C]C ₄₀ H ₁₆ ⁺	681.16(7)	C ₅₅ H ₂₁ ⁺
217.07(2)	?	295.01(3)	?	385.08(4)	C ₂₇ H ₁₃ O ₃ ⁺	498.14(5)	C ₄₀ H ₁₈ ⁺	692.15(7)	C ₅₆ H ₂₀ ⁺
217.10(2)	C ₁₇ H ₁₃ ⁺	296.01(3)	?	386.09(4)	[¹³ C]C ₂₇ H ₁₃ O ₃ ⁺	499.15(5)	[¹³ C]C ₄₀ H ₁₈ ⁺	693.16(7)	[¹³ C]C ₅₆ H ₂₀ ⁺
218.08(2)	C ₁₆ H ₁₀ O ⁺	296.04(3)	?	387.11(4)	C ₃₁ H ₁₅ ⁺	500.14(5)	?	694.16(7)	?
219.08(2)	[¹³ C]C ₁₆ H ₁₀ O ⁺	297.04(3)	?	388.12(4)	[¹³ C]C ₃₁ H ₁₅ ⁺	501.15(5)	?	703.13(7)	?
220.09(2)	?	298.03(3)	?	389.12(4)	?	503.03(5)	?	705.16(7)	C ₅₇ H ₂₁ ⁺
220.83(2)	?	298.06(3)	C ₂₀ H ₁₀ O ₃ ⁺	390.13(4)	?	505.04(5)	?	716.15(7)	C ₅₈ H ₂₀ ⁺
222.01(2)	?	299.07(3)	[¹³ C]C ₂₀ H ₁₀ O ₃ ⁺	391.13(4)	?	507.08(5)	?	718.16(7)	C ₅₉ H ₂₂ ⁺
222.03(2)	C ₁₄ H ₆ O ₃ ⁺	300.09(3)	C ₂₄ H ₁₂ ⁺	392.00(4)	?	508.10(5)	?	729.16(7)	C ₅₉ H ₂₁ ⁺
223.02(2)	?	301.10(3)	[¹³ C]C ₂₄ H ₁₂ ⁺	392.12(4)	C ₃₀ H ₁₆ O ⁺	509.14(5)	C ₄₁ H ₁₇ ⁺	740.15(7)	C ₆₀ H ₂₀ ⁺
224.03(2)	?	302.11(3)	C ₂₄ H ₁₄ ⁺	393.13(4)	[¹³ C]C ₃₀ H ₁₆ O ⁺	510.14(5)	[¹³ C]C ₄₁ H ₁₇ ⁺	753.16(8)	C ₆₁ H ₂₁ ⁺

910

911 8.4 PCA on the ToF-SIMS mass spectra



912

913 **Figure SI 3. Results of the PCA (covariance matrix) performed on the mass spectra of the impactation ROIs.** The
914 figure shows the score plots of the first four principal components and the corresponding loading plots in the main
915 diagonal. The scores are color-mapped on the sampling HAB (scale on the side of the figure). The loadings are
916 color-mapped on the assigned formula: $C_mH_n^+$ (black), $C_mH_nO_p^+$ (red) and unassigned (green).

917

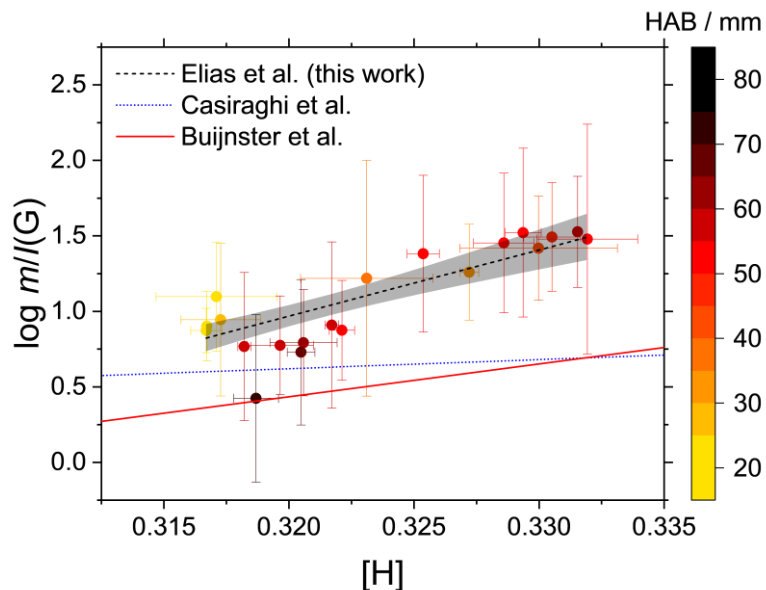
918 **8.5 Calculating [H] from the Raman spectra**

919 In Raman spectroscopy, [H] of organic films has been shown to be proportional to $\log m/I(G)$, where m
920 is the slope of the linear fit of the photoluminescence background and $I(G)$ is the intensity of the Raman
921 G band [53,54]. In this work, for the data collected on the impactation ROIs (the data of the halo ROIs
922 cannot be used due to the absence of the G band), $\log m/I(G)$ shows a linear dependence ($R = 0.8706$) on
923 [H] up to 70 mm HAB:

$$\log \frac{m}{I(G)} = -13(2) + 44(6) \times [H]$$

Equation 8.3.

924 At higher HAB, the linearity is lost. In Figure SI 4, the fitting function is compared to empirical
925 equations obtained from the analysis of hydrogenated carbon films prepared by chemical vapor deposition
926 [53,54]. The three empirical equations differ significantly in their slope and intercept. A likely
927 explanation is in the different depth sensibility at the sample surface of the used diagnostic: ToF-SIMS in
928 static mode (<1-2 nm, this work), nuclear reaction analysis (<2-5 nm, [53]) and elastic recoil detection
929 analysis (<2-5 nm, [54]). On the other hand, even the shortest penetration depth of a Vis laser beam
930 typically used for Raman spectroscopy on highly absorbing carbonaceous materials can be estimated in
931 the range of a few μm [98]. Therefore, caution should be paid when using these equations since they
932 compare desorption-related phenomena inherently linked to the material surface to interactions occurring
933 nearly in the bulk.

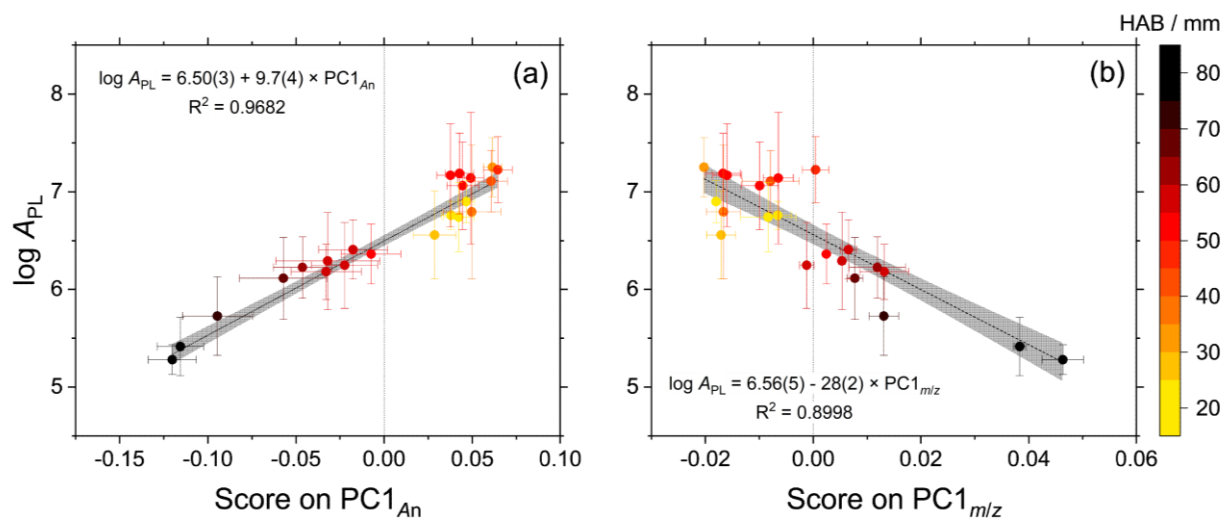


934
 935 **Figure SI 4. $\log m/I(G)$ against $[H]$.** The linear fitting does not include 80-100 mm HAB datapoints, for which the linear
 936 correlation is lost. The 95% confidence band is shown (gray area). Two equations obtained from the analysis of
 937 amorphous hydrogenated carbon films prepared by chemical vapor deposition [53,54] are shown by comparison.
 938

939 8.6 The Raman photoluminescence background

940 In the Raman spectra, the integrated photoluminescence area A_{PL} is considered to be proportional to the
 941 local concentration of condensable species deposited on the substrate and fluorescing when excited at
 942 514.5 nm. As shown in Figure SI 5, $\log A_{PL}$ is linearly correlated to both $PC1_{An}$ and $PC1_{m/z}$. A_{PL} decreases
 943 by one order of magnitude at 53-54 mm HAB, which corresponds to the transition to the second cluster of
 944 $PC1_{An}$ in Figure 4. A_{PL} remains constant up to 60 mm HAB then decreases by another order of magnitude
 945 in 65-80 mm HAB samples, in accordance with the transition to the third cluster of $PC1_{An}$. Therefore,
 946 peaks D5, D3 and G and A_{PL} are linked to the presence of high m/z hydrocarbons. In particular, high m/z
 947 hydrocarbons in the mass spectra correspond to weak peak D3, intense peaks G and D5 and high A_{PL} .
 948 Conversely, the absence of high m/z hydrocarbons from the mass spectra corresponds to intense peak D3,
 949 weak peaks G and D5 and low A_{PL} . The A_{PL} spanning two orders of magnitude can be a consequence of

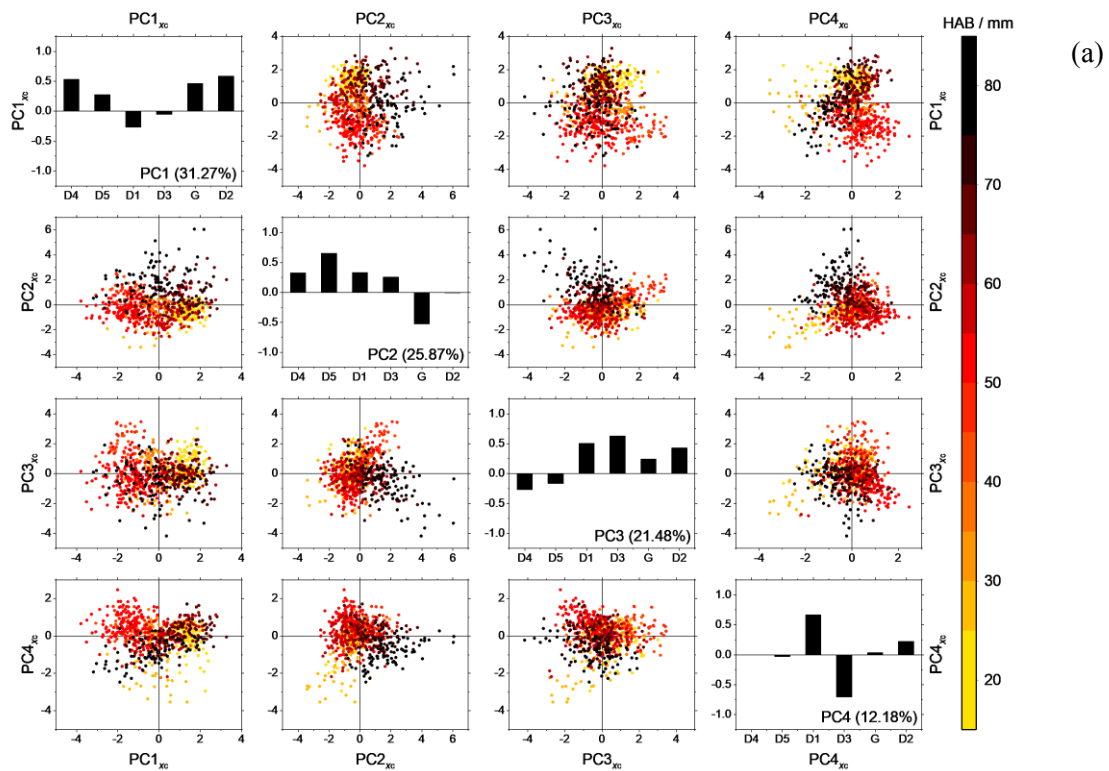
950 changes in the concentration in the gas phase or the deposition efficiency of the condensable
951 hydrocarbons.



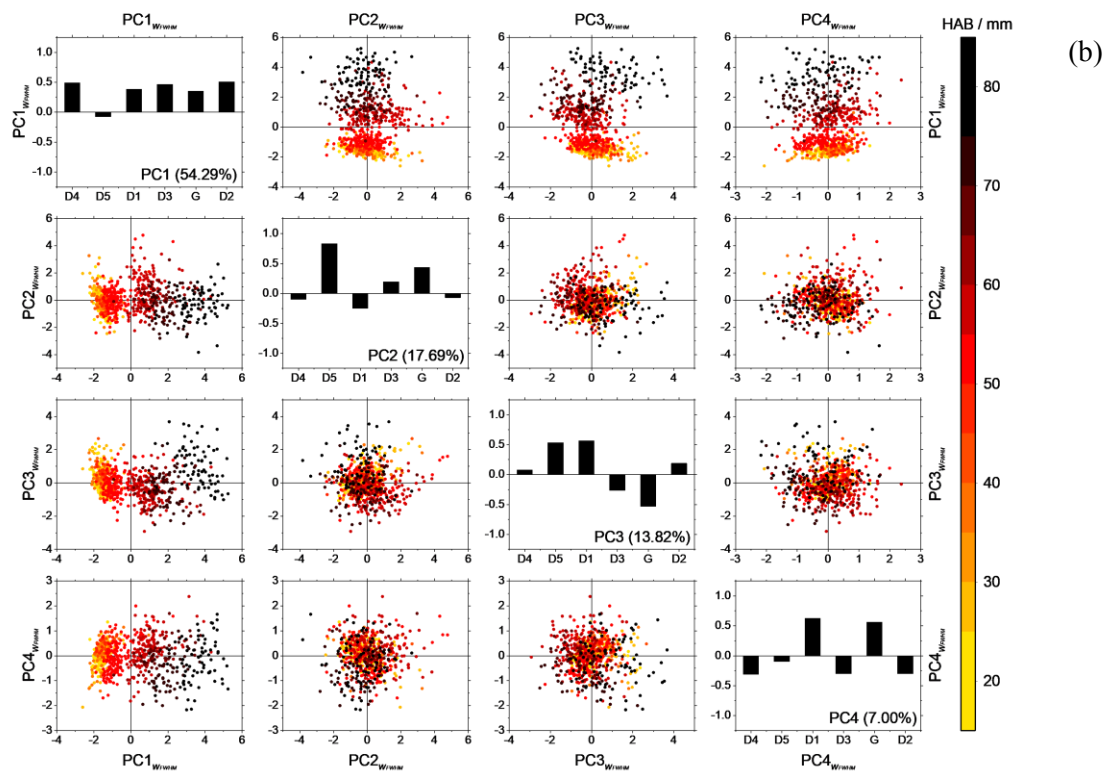
952

953 **Figure SI 5. Dependences of the integrated photoluminescence area.** A_{PL} against (a) scores on $PC1_{An}$, and (b) scores
954 on $PC1_{m/z}$. The linear fittings (black dashed lines) and the 95% confidence interval (gray areas) are shown.

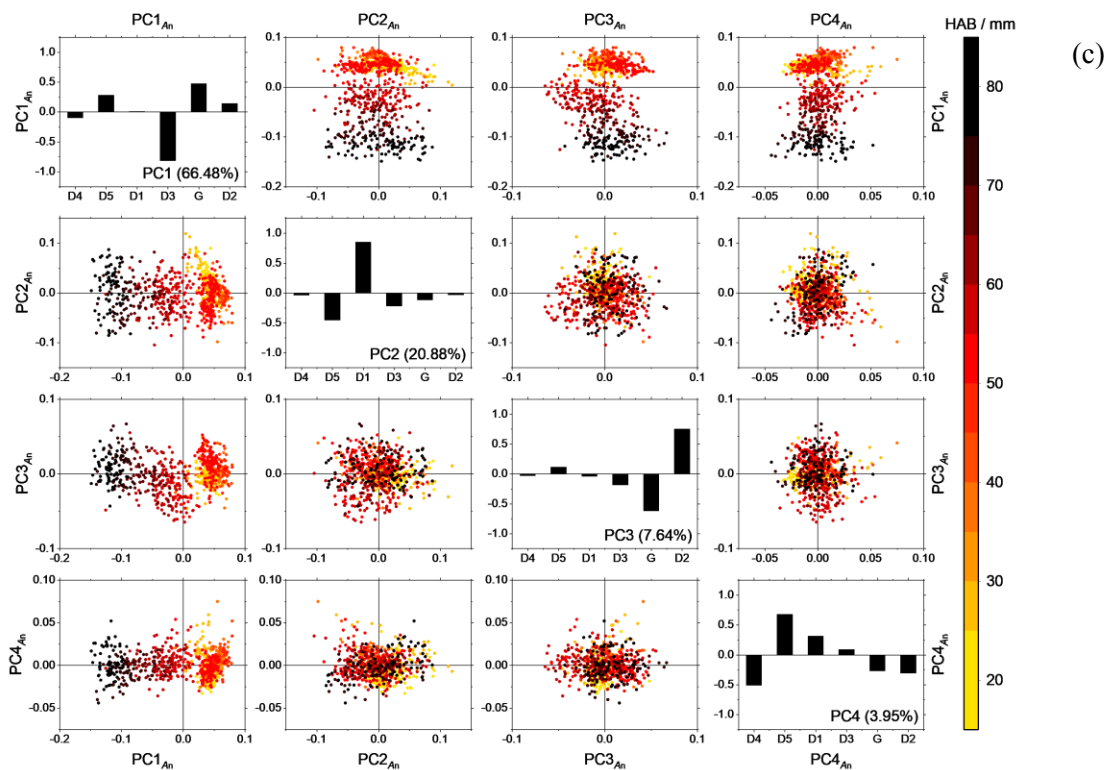
955



957



958



959

960 **Figure SI 6. Results of the PCA performed on the Raman spectral parameters on the impaction ROIs.** (a) peak
 961 positions x_c and (b) peak widths w_{FWHM} (different scales, correlation matrix is used). (c) normalized areas A_n (similar
 962 scale, covariance matrix is used). The figures show the score plots of the first four principal components and the
 963 corresponding loading plots in the main diagonal. The scores are color-mapped on the sampling HAB (the colormap scale
 964 is on the side).

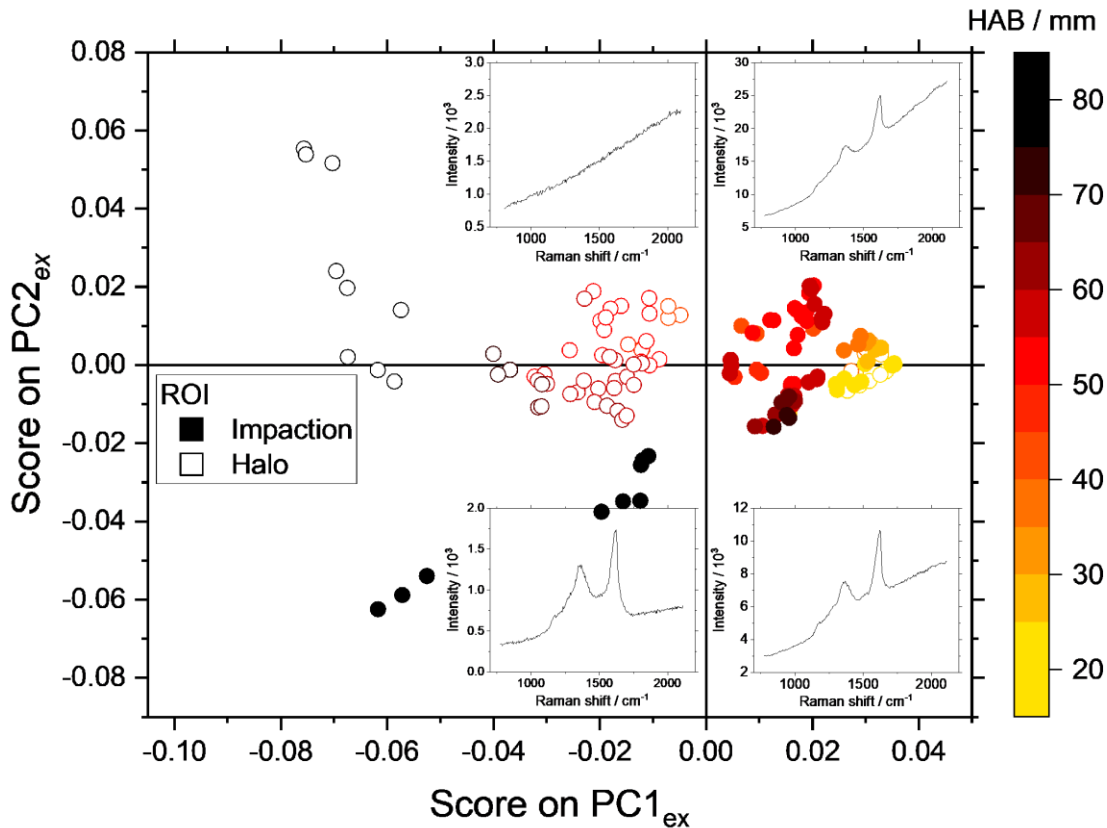
965

966 8.8 Exploratory data analysis

967 Exploratory PCA is performed on the totality of the mass spectra after removing the background and
 968 fragment ions (covariance matrix, 520 m/z values as variables, 150 mass spectra as observations). As a
 969 rule of thumb, adding information to the score plots helps the principal components related to physical
 970 phenomena, while the loading plots pinpoint the variables affecting the respective principal components.
 971 Figure SI 7 shows the $PC2_{ex}$ against $PC1_{ex}$ score plot of the exploratory analysis including all available

972 information on the sampling HAB and analysis ROI. The corresponding Raman spectra are shown in the
973 insets.

974 At 13-35 mm HAB (yellow datapoints), no statistically significant differences are found between the
975 mass spectra of the impaction and halo ROIs that appear closely clustered together with high positive
976 scores in $PC1_{ex}$. At 40-70 mm HAB, the mass spectra of the impaction and halo ROIs are split into
977 different data clusters in $PC1_{ex}$: the impaction ROIs have positive scores on $PC1_{ex}$ (red-brown solid
978 datapoints) while the halo ROIs have negative scores on $PC1_{ex}$ (red-brown hollow datapoints). In this
979 HAB range, Raman spectra are detected only in the impaction ROIs but not in the halo ROIs. At
980 80-100 mm HAB, the mass spectra of the impaction and halo ROIs are found scattered with negative
981 scores in $PC1_{ex}$. The impaction ROIs have high negative scores on $PC2_{ex}$ (black solid datapoints) while
982 the halo ROIs have low negative or positive scores on $PC2_{ex}$ (black hollow datapoints). Again, Raman
983 spectra are detected only in the impaction ROIs but not in the halo ROIs.



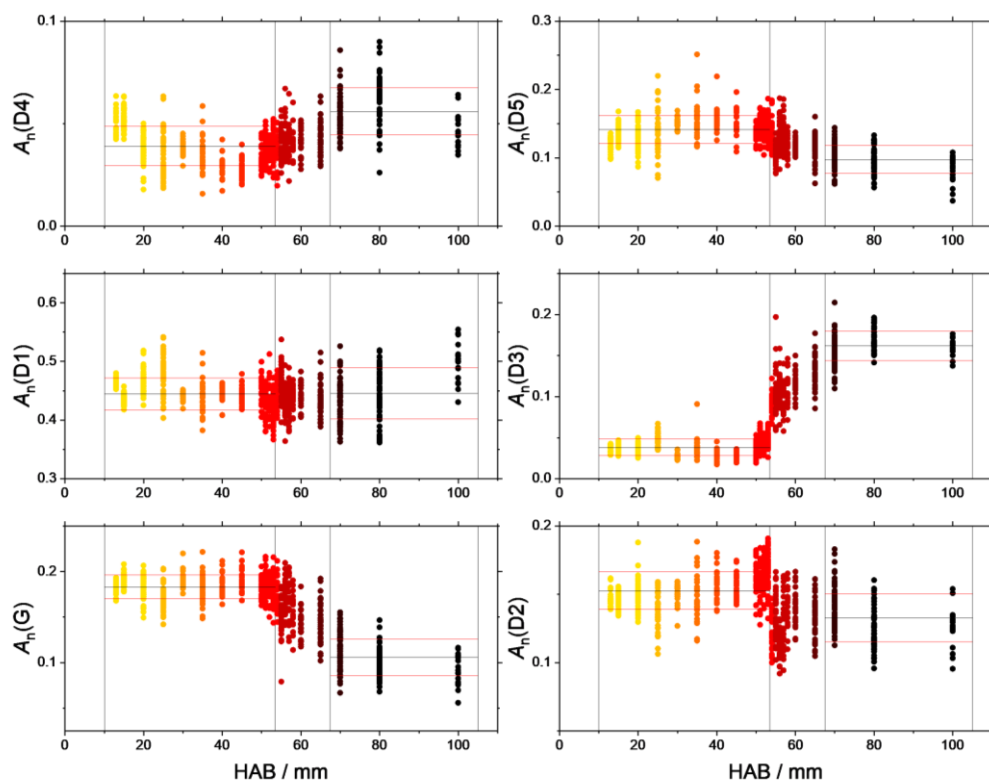
984

985 **Figure SI 7. Exploratory data analysis.** $PC2_{ex}$ against $PC1_{ex}$ score plot, all mass spectra in the database included. The
986 datapoints color and interior represent the sampling HAB and the analysis location on the substrate (solid, impaction
987 ROIs and hollow, halo ROIs), respectively. (b) The corresponding Raman spectra are shown in the insets.

988
989 From the analysis of the score plot in Figure SI 7, decreasing scores in $PC1_{ex}$ correspond to the
990 progressively increasing sampling HAB, but also to a rather net data clustering of the impaction and halo
991 ROIs. The phenomena responsible for this data clustering are associated with the HAB and ROI change,
992 with the former likely related to the flame chemistry and the latter possibly related to a phase repartition
993 during the sampling [35,49]. To focus on the flame chemistry only, the PCA is performed again on the
994 impaction ROIs only (*Results 3.1*). However, the halo ROIs also contain information useful for
995 understanding the formation of incipient soot particles.

996

997 8.9 Dependences of the Raman spectral parameters

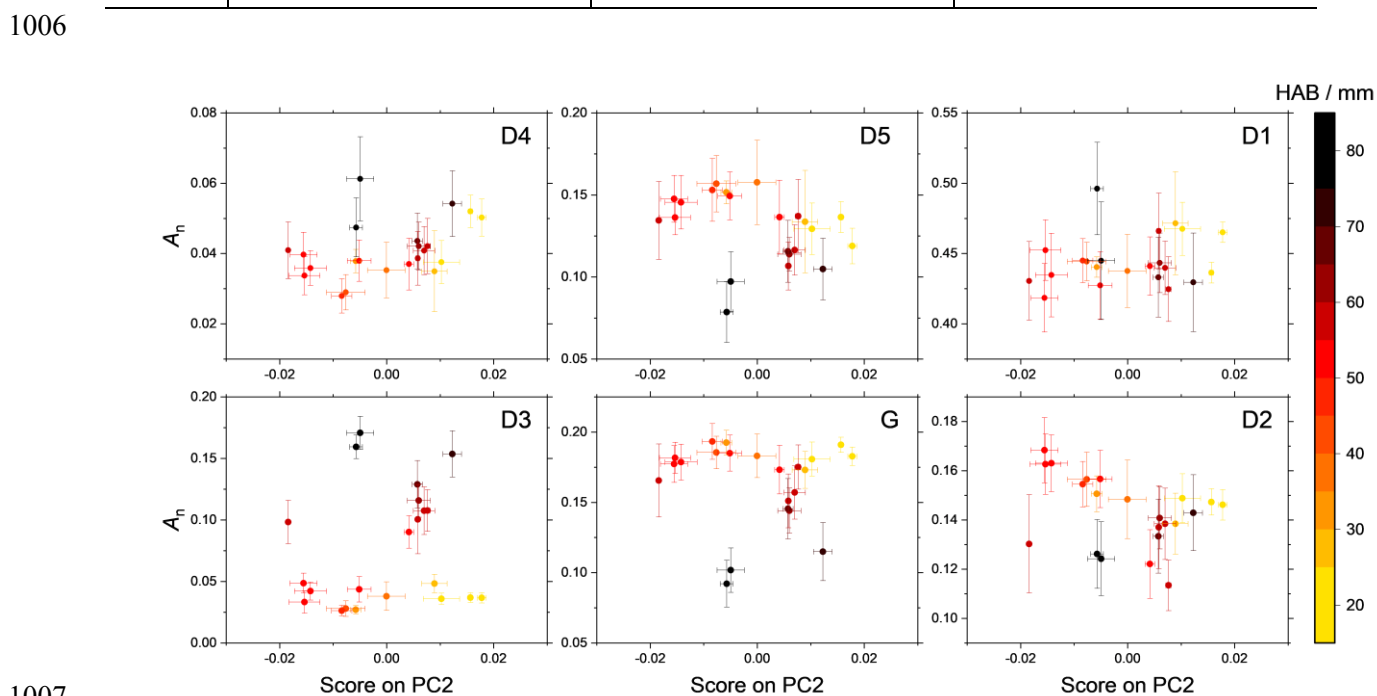


998

999 **Figure SI 8.** Dependence of the peak normalized areas $A_n(X)$ on the HAB. The horizontal black and red lines represent the
1000 average and ± 1 standard deviation, respectively, calculated upstream (15-53 mm HAB) and downstream (70-100 mm
1001 HAB) the flame transition region (54-60 mm HAB), and given in Table SI 2. The data are color-mapped on the sampling
1002 HAB.
1003

1004 **Table SI 2.** Average values of the fitted spectral parameters calculated upstream (15-53 mm HAB) and downstream
 1005 (70-100 mm HAB) the flame transition region (54-60 mm HAB). The uncertainty represents one standard deviation.

	x_c / cm^{-1}			$w_{\text{FWHM}} / \text{cm}^{-1}$			A_n		
	15-53 mm	70-100 mm	Difference	15-53 mm	70-100 mm	Difference	15-53 mm	70-100 mm	Difference
D4	1170±3	1172±5	2±6	51±6	98±20	47±21	0.04±0.01	0.06±0.01	0.02±0.02
D5	1255±4	1265±7	10±8	118±10	113±12	5±16	0.14±0.02	0.10±0.02	0.04±0.03
D1	1363±5	1361±2	2±5	112±7	129±12	17±14	0.45±0.03	0.45±0.04	0.00±0.05
D3	1517±14	1522±13	5±19	99±14	162±12	63±18	0.04±0.01	0.16±0.02	0.12±0.02
G	1594±2	1590±3	4±4	50±2	55±4	5±4	0.18±0.01	0.10±0.02	0.08±0.02
D2	1618±1	1618±2	0±1	29±2	41±4	12±4	0.15±0.01	0.13±0.02	0.02±0.02



1007 **Figure SI 9.** A_n against scores on $\text{PC2}_{m/z}$. Notice that, since it was not possible to perform the two analyses on the same
 1008 locations on the sample surface, the average and standard deviation calculated on all available data are used instead.
 1009

1010