

國立中央大學

物理學系

碩士論文

VUV and EUV irradiation of $\text{CH}_4 + \text{NH}_3$
ice mixtures

研究生: Leung Pui Shan

指導教授: Chen Yu Jung

中華民國一百零六年十二月

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中文摘要

關鍵字：星際冰晶，冥衛一，真空紫外光，超真空紫外光

我們永遠不會停止探索外太空的，自二十世紀以來，天文學家們不斷找尋生命的起源。除了觀測恆星以外，我們現在可以在實驗室中模擬外太空環境，製造一些簡單的分子。爲了研究CN的形成，我們製備CH₄和NH₃的冰晶(由Kim和Kaiser(2011)[[1](#)]提出的機制)以模擬冥衛一(Charon)表面。我們提供真空紫外輻射(VUV)和極紫外輻射(EUV)輻射作爲光源，主要使用傅里葉變換紅外光譜儀(FTIR)和四極質譜儀(QMS)來研究不同濃度的CH₄和NH₃冰混合物。

VUV and EUV irradiation of CH₄+NH₃ ice mixtures

英文摘要

Keywords: interstellar ice, Charon, VUV irradiation, EUV irradiation

We never stop the exploration of the outer space. Since 1900s, astronomers have observed all over the sky to seek origin of life. Apart from observing stars, we may simulate the outer space environments and make some simple molecules in laboratories on the earth now. To investigate the formation of CN⁻, we deposit CH₄ and NH₃ (mechanism proposed by Kim and Kaiser (2011)[1]) at 15 K and 1×10^{-10} torr to simulate the surface of Charon. We provide VUV and EUV irradiations as energy sources and mainly use Fourier Transform Infrared Spectrometer (FTIR) and Quadrupole Mass Spectroscopy (QMS) to study different concentrations of CH₄ to NH₃ ice mixtures.

謝誌

在我的求學生涯中，有很多的老師。不過，讓我得益最多的還是這兩年多的碩士生涯。

還記得剛剛來台灣的時候，半個人都不認識，憑著老師一封電郵就來台灣唸書，實在是人生路不熟。這兩年裡面，最感謝的人就是我的指導教授，陳俞融老師。雖然老師對我並沒有好臉色，每次我報告完總是一副“奇怪，你怎麼又離題了”的樣子；但是我知道責之深愛之切，每次打開老師的面書，就會知道：喔，這次老師又要生我的氣了。

在整個碩士生涯中，我學會最多的就是如何篩選一篇相關的文獻，怎樣和我自己的論文相比較，從而得出究竟這篇文獻是否適用的過程。從一開始不會把整篇文獻看完，到後來認真地仔細地看別人引用的文章，再到後來自己寫出來的時候該如何引用。或者我的論文內容並不充實，但我認為碩士課程需要學習的就是如何有辨別文獻的相關性。並不是以偏概全，嘩眾取寵，而是只把自己有把握的地方撰寫出來。

本論文得以完成，實在是一件非常不容易的事情。由於本人英文寫作不佳，所以感謝好友Jess幫忙修改英文句子。謝謝學長samuel教我使用Latex，謝謝實驗室的學長豆花教導我做實驗，學弟妹謝妮恩，蘇映全，在同步輻射期間的幫忙。

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1. Introduction

According to Hindu cosmological mythology, ancient people believe that a giant turtle bears the world on its back. Even after we stepped onto the moon at 1969, there are still plenty that we cannot explain. **CN⁻ plays an important role in life evolution because it is identified in comet 81P/Wild 2 brought back to earth analyzed by Kissel et al.(2004)[5]and comets are thought to preserve the "pristine" constituents in solar system.** The formation of CN⁻ is proposed by Kim and Kaiser (2001) [1],which is produced by ammonia (NH₃) and methane (CH₄). However, they have only demonstrated the effects of energetic electrons onto the ice mixtures, the photolysis experiments of CH₄+NH₃ ice mixtures especially varying relative proportions of CH₄ to NH₃ by VUV or EUV photons has not been performed. This thesis aims to investigate the chemistry of VUV and EUV irradiations on CH₄+NH₃ ice mixtures, which is possibly one of the main starting components to form CN⁻ in astrophysical environments.

NH₃ is often not probed in astrophysical environments unless detecting ambiguously because nearly all the infrared bands overlap with water (**suggested by d'Hendecourt and Allamandola (1986) [6]**). The "umbrella" mode (1070 cm⁻¹) is often obscured by the 10 micron silicate feature. It is often detected as ammonia hydrates (NH₃ · nH₂O) such as observation made by Cook et al. (2007)[7]. Grundy et al. (2016)[2] has recently revealed a high concentration crater of NH₃ on Charon. Figure 1.1 presents the infrared spectra detected by LEISA camera regarding four different segments at the right panel. On Organa crater, we may observe a 2.2 μm absorption representing presence of ammonia at "b" spectrum. The part b spectrum is enlarged at left bottom panel with the green pigments indicates the concentration of

ammonia overlapped on topological graph of Charon. This also explains the different concentration of ammonia detected by different earth-based observation groups Cook et al. (2007)[7] and Brown et al. (2000)[8].

Charon, as a member in the Pluto system, is the second massive member with masses about half of Pluto. It orbits around Pluto, where Pluto is orbiting the Sun with an semi-major axis of 39.1 A.U. and period of 248 earth years. Similar to the earth and moon system, they orbits synchronized to each other with tidal-lockings, which the same side always facing each other. The main ejecta from Pluto ($5-6 \times 10^{25} \text{ s}^{-1}$ from the New Horizons observation) is CH_4 (99%), with net depositional flux of $4 \times 10^{24} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (98 % of which are CH_4) on Charon simulated by Hoey et al. (2017)[9]. According to the Grundy et al. (2016)[3], CH_4 from Pluto may accumulate onto the surface of Charon by cold-trapping which deposits at temperature below 25 K (at pressure 7.4×10^{-14} torr) onto the surface of Charon. The amount of CH_4 varies along the surface of Charon because it depends on the length of time the temperature is below 25 K which in turns depends on diurnal motion and thermal inertia of Charon.

With obliquity of 119 degrees (currently) from the ecliptic, a long continuous darkness is expected. The upper panel of Figure 1.2 is the model simulated by Grundy et al. (2016)[3] presenting the surface temperature of Charon with respect to the latitude and time in earth years. Based on length of time the surface temperature falls below 25 K, he plotted the length of time that CH_4 can accumulate onto Charon at the lower panel. From bottom panel, the mean cold-trap longitivity for depositing CH_4 is 2 times longer at the poles (130 earth years) than at 45° latitude. The non-detection of methane by infrared spectra implies that its concentration is less than ammonia. However, the exact concentration ratios to ammonia was not fully modelled yet. Therefore, we decided to perform 3 relative ratios of CH_4 to NH_3 (in excess) to simulate the surface of Charon. They includes CH_4 to NH_3 equals 1:5, 1:10 and 1:20.

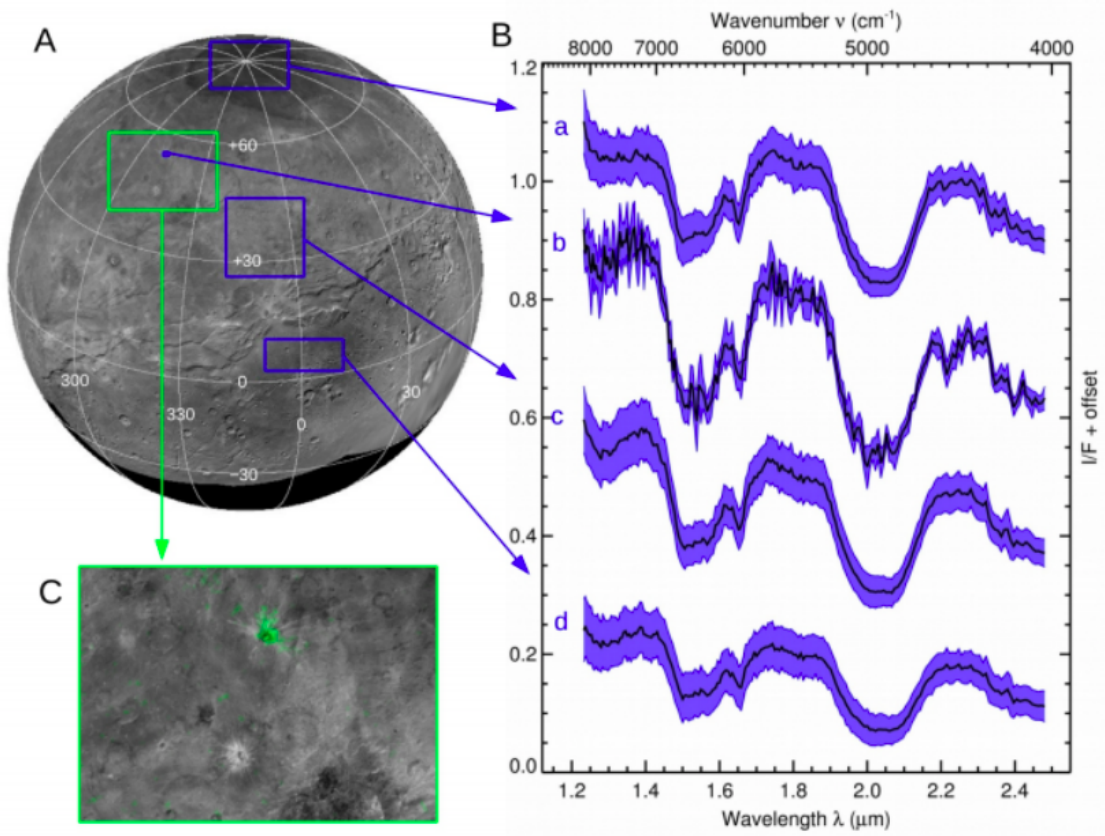


Figure 1.1: (A) The $2.2\mu\text{m}$ absorption taken by LEISA camera colored as green on the topology shown by LORRI camera and (B) the spectra at 4 positions with b taken near Organa crater. (quoted from Grundy et al. (2016)[2])

Despite methane and ammonia, we still need energy to generate CN^- . In our solar system, there are many energetic sources, including solar wind, photons, cosmic rays from the outer solar system, etc. Among these, Ly- α photons appear to be the most important source in the dark side of Charon. **It is attributed from resonance scattering by atomic hydrogen flow (the excitation of electrons by hydrogen atoms and release ly- α photons in all directions) in the solar system, suggested by Grundy et al. (2016)[3].** Its flux is $3.5 \times 10^7 \text{ photons cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at the winter pole of Charon which is 50 % larger than expected before Mission New Horizons by Gladstone et al. (2015)[10]. We perform VUV irradiation on $\text{CH}_4 + \text{NH}_3$ experiments with different ratios (including 3:2, 1:5, 1:10 and 1:20) to simulate the photon induced evolution on different concentrations of CH_4 . The ratios in previous studies with electron irradiation experiments are CH_4

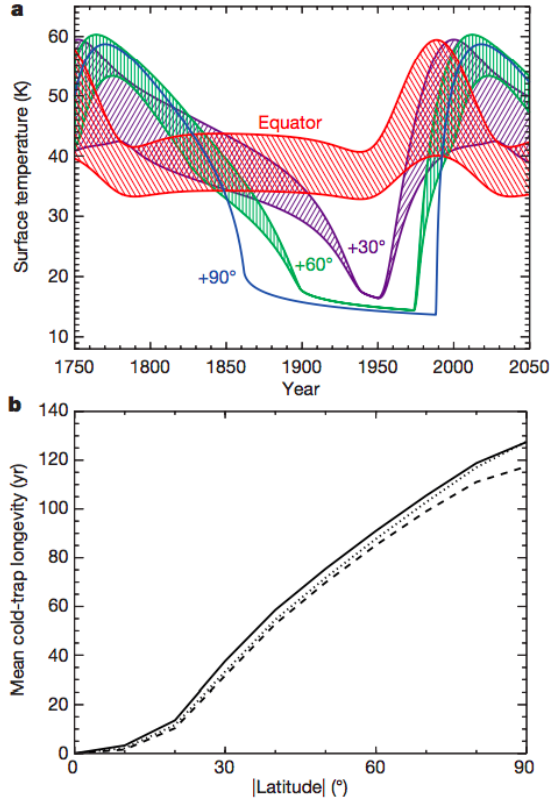


Figure 1.2: (a) The temperature of Charon with thermal inertia $10 \text{ J m}^{-2} \text{ K}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1/2}$ in 1750 to 2050 Earth years and (b) length of time the latitude is under 25 K with the model averaged for 3 Myr with 2.5 (solid) 10 (dotted) and 40 (dashed) $\text{J m}^{-2} \text{ K}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1/2}$. (quoted from Grundy et al. (2016)[3])

to NH_3 equals 3:1 (from Kim and Kaiser (2011)[1]) and (from Kundu et al. (2017) 3:2[11]). As a complete study, we decided performing a ratio of CH_4 to NH_3 equals 3:2 to make possible comparisons.

Apart from VUV irradiation, EUV irradiation also irradiates on Charon. The direct EUV irradiation ($>12.4 \text{ eV}$) is $8.7 \times 10^7 \text{ eV cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at mean heliocentric distance 39 A.U. whereas VUV irradiation (Ly- α photons) is $1.9 \times 10^9 \text{ eV cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ calculated by Grundy et al. (2016)[3]. In order to investigate the effectiveness of EUV to VUV irradiation, we keep temperature of $\text{CH}_4 + \text{NH}_3$ (3:2 & 1:5) ice mixtures at 15 K and use the monochromatic 30.4 nm (40.8 eV) ,He II light provided by High flux beamline at National Synchrotron Radiation Research Centre (NSRRC) in Taiwan to irradiate the ice mixtures. The relative ratios of EUV irradiated ice is CH_4 to $\text{NH}_3 = 3:2$ and 1:5 for possible comparisons with VUV irradiations.

In this text, we will introduce the experimental methodology in chapter 2, the formation mechanisms of main products of EUV and VUV irradiated CH_4+NH_3 ice mixtures in chapter 3. With these results, we will know more details of Charon, especially the influences of photon sources. Different energy sources including electron irradiation experiments, EUV and VUV irradiations, and their astrophysical implications will be presented in chapter 4.

2. Methods

2.1 Laboratory Astrophysics

To study the chemical reactivities in astrophysical environments (surface of Charon during winter time) experimentally, we conduct our experiments in Interstellar photoprocessing system (IPS) which is well presented by Chen et al. (2013)[4], an ultrahigh vacuum chamber with base pressure 3×10^{-10} torr. By ideal gas law, the pressure corresponded to a density of 2×10^8 molecules cm^{-3} . We would like to particularly simulate the surface of Charon. The surface pressure of Charon is however not specific to high VU cross-section gases are not well defined yet, which will be in a future report by Stern et al. (2017)[12], while all known species in Pluto's atmosphere to be below 0.3 nano bars (2.25×10^{-7} torr). The system will be introduced in detail in section 2.1.1. To simulate the irradiation in interstellar environments, we use a micro-wave discharge hydrogen lamp (MDHL) and monochromatic extreme-ultraviolet irradiation (EUV) 30.4 nm (40.8 eV) to irradiate our ice mixtures, and these will be introduced in section 2.1.2 and 2.1.3 respectively. The experimental protocols will be elaborated in section 2.2. For some non-physics background readers, basic theories of infrared spectroscopy and basic chemical kinetics used in data analysis are included in section 2.3 and 2.4 respectively.

2.1.1 Experimental simulations by IPS system

We conduct our astrophysical simulations in Interstellar Photo Processing System (IPS) (figure 2.1). IPS consists of three systems: the main chamber, where our experiments take places; the detection system, where we collect our data; and a gasline system, where we prepare our samples.

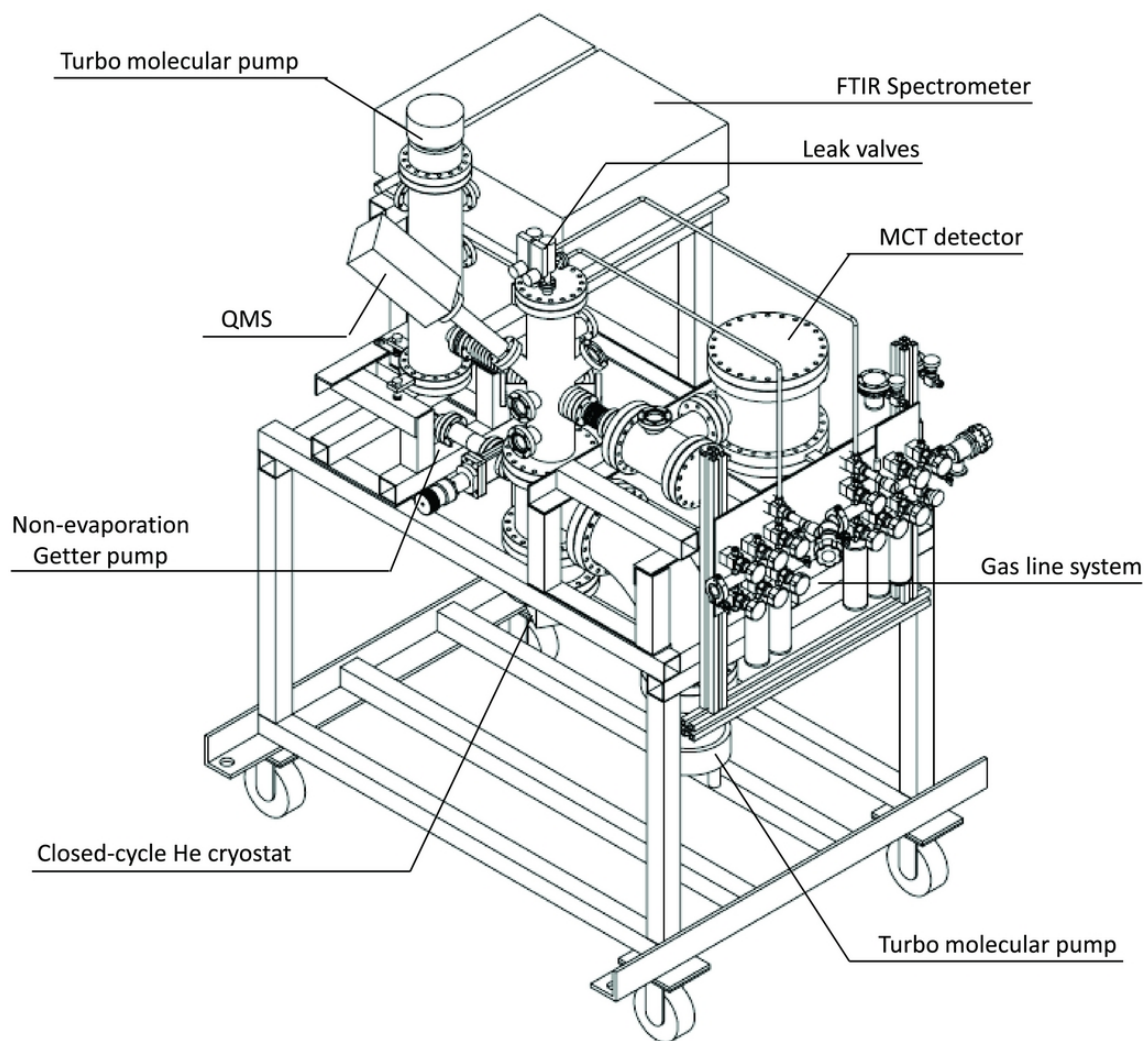


Figure 2.1: The schematic diagram of IPS system, mechanical pumps are not shown for clarity. (Quoted from Chen et al. 2014)

The main system consists of an ultrahigh vacuum chamber equips with a closed-cycle helium cryostat (CTI-M350). It is pumped by a turbo molecular pump, which is backed up by a scroll pump, and a non-evaporation getter pump. The getter pump, with a larger surface area, is a powerful tool to adsorb residue gases (H_2 , CO and N_2) inside the main chamber, which can obtain a better base pressure. After baking, the base pressure of our main chamber can reach 1×10^{-10} torr at 15 K, monitored by a Granville-Phillips 370 Stabil-Ion gauge. This pressure can be used to simulate the dense cloud interior environments and star forming region. The substrate we have chosen is KBr, which is transparent to infra-red photons with 700 to 4000 cm^{-1} . It is mounted by substrate holder(oxygen-free copper), on the second stage of cold finger, which is on the tip of cryostat. A silicon diode and a heater are placed onto the cold finger, and another silicon diode is placed on the substrate holder. They are connected to a **LakeShore 331 temperature controller aquired PID (proportional–integral–derivative controller) system to achieve a warmup rate of 1K/min with an accuracy of 0.1 K.**

The detection system consists of a mid-infrared Fourier transform spectrometer (mid-FTIR) (ABB FTLA2000-104) and a Quadrupole Mass Spectrometer (QMS). To prevent absorption bands of CO , CO_2 and H_2O gas from the atmosphere, the IR beam path is built inside vacuum, pumped by dry pump. In this study, the infrared spectra are obtained with resolution of 4 cm^{-1} and averaged over 32 scans. The angle between the IR beam path and the substrate holder is 45 degrees. The QMS (MKS Microvision 2) consists of a controller and mechanical part sealed by a mounting flange in ultrahigh vacuum. It is mounted 10 cm from the substrate and runs with a resolution 0.5 a.m.u. The ionizer releases 70 eV electron by filament and ionizes incoming molecules to positive charged ions between anode grid and repeller. The ions are accelerated by focus plate and enters ion filter, which consists of four circular rods, with a combination of A.C and D.C. potential to sieve whole bandpass ions at millisecond timescale. The selected ions enter ion detector and are detected by either faraday cup and continuous dyn-

ode electron multiplier (CDEM) which can multiply weak signals.

The samples are prepared in situ in our gasline system. It contains four stainless steel bottles with the same volume, which is used to determine relative proportion of the gas mixtures by their partial pressures. The ammonia gas (**99.99%**) and methane gas (**99.999%**) are mixed with partial pressure measured by a Baratron (0 - 100 torr) with a 0.25% accuracy. The background pressure of the gasline system is lower than 1×10^{-7} torr, thanks to a turbomolecular pump (Oerlikon Leybold TurboVac 151, capacity 145 liters s⁻¹). It is backed up with a mechanical pump (Alcatel 2012A, capacity 450 liters minute⁻¹), equipped with an oil trap (molecular sieve type 13X).

2.1.2 Vacuum-UV source

In order to simulate the photoprocessing of vacuum ultraviolet (VUV) irradiation of the resonance scattered Ly- α on surface of Charon during winter time, the ice mixtures are irradiated with a T-type Microwave-Discharged Hydrogen-flow lamp (MDHL). The middle part of the T-type quartz tube is being tunned by a ceramic rod that is called Evenson cavity. The molecular hydrogen with pressure 0.4 torr flows through the lamp with a support of a mechanical pump. Using a microwave generator and high voltage discharge, a low pressure plasma is produced in the Evenson cavity.

In order to measure the photon flux in situ, we use an 88 % transmittance nickel mesh with its photoelectric efficiency being obtained by high-flux beamline in National Synchrotron and a SXUV 100 photodiode calibrated by NIST. **A MgF₂ window is placed between the lamp and the main chamber to prevent hydrogen gas flow into the chamber.** Figure 2.2 shows a VUV emission spectrum of a MDHL with a cut off at 114 nm. It consists of Ly- α (121.6 nm) photons and H₂ molecular emission in the range of 110-180 nm. Chen et al. (2014)[4] showed that the spectral characteristics of the VUV light emitted in this range depends on the gas type (mixture of H₂ with He or Ar etc), pressure of H₂ and lamp geometry. Throughout those configurations stated there, we adopted 0.4 torr molecular hydrogen and T-type MDHL that produces VUV irradiation at 114-170 nm with 19.1 % of Ly- α photons

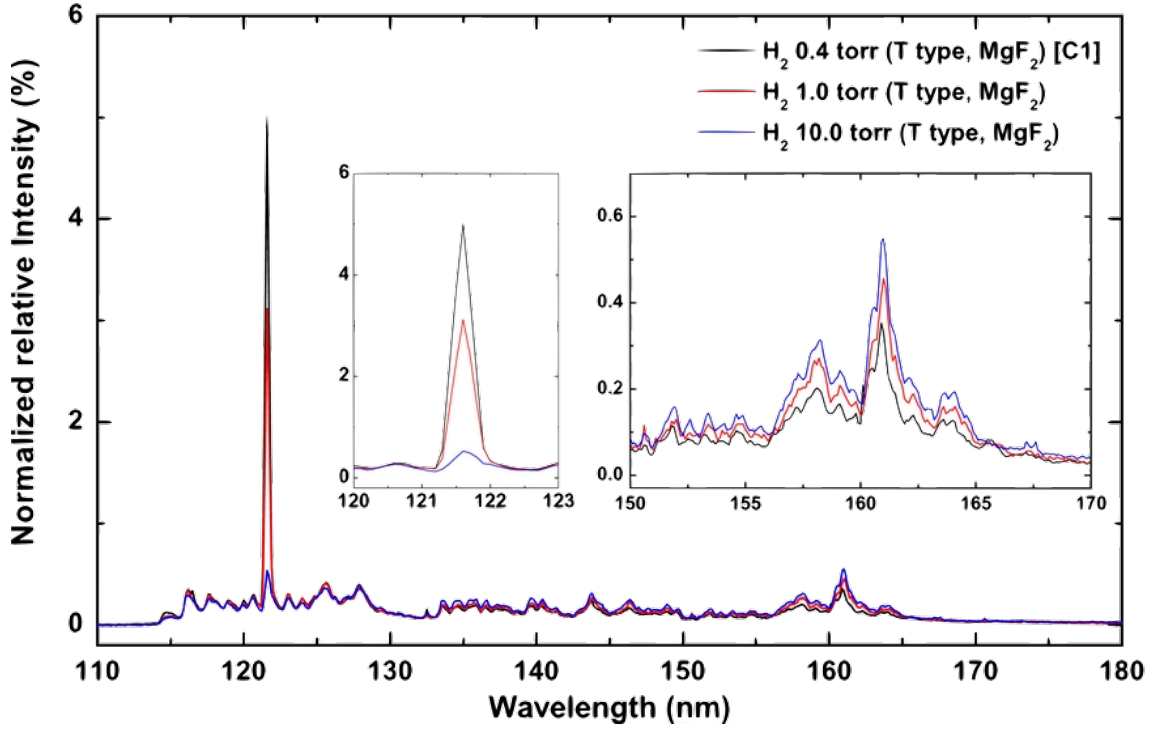


Figure 2.2: VUV spectra of MDHL (T-type geometry, 110-180 nm) with different H_2 pressure inside the lamp (Quoted from Chen et al. (2014)[4]).

and a mean photon energy of 9.27 eV. The photon flux is 6.4×10^{13} photons $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ at sample position.

2.1.3 Extreme UV source

To simulate the solar EUV irradiation on both Charon and interstellar ices, we use the HF-CGM high – flux beam line of the National Synchrotron Radiation Research Center in Hsinchu, Taiwan. It provides a continuum EUV to VUV photons from 4 to 40 eV. The continuum is separated into monochromatic 30.4nm (40.8 eV) photons with a six-meter cylindrical grating monochrometer with an incident angle of 70 degrees presented in Hsieh et al. (1998)[13]. Similar to VUV irradiation provided by MDHL, the light intensity is monitored by the same nickel mesh with photoelectric efficiency obtained by SXUV 100 photodiode calibrated by NIST. With the known photoelectric efficiency, the flux of monochromatic 30.4nm (40.8 eV) is measured to be 2.15×10^{14} photons $\text{s}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2}$, which is in the same order of magnitude of VUV continuum of MDHL. We replace the port with MDHL by the end station of the high-flux beamline. **A cryostat backed up by a scroll pump is placed**

between our system and the beamline endstation to adsorb water molecules from endstations during irradiation. Between the cryostat and our main chamber is a SiO_2 valve, which is shutted during the warm-up phase to maintain a similar warm-up environment in main chamber when we were using MDHL as irradiation source.

2.2 Experimental Protocol

In this section, we will briefly introduce the procedures of how we perform our experiments. It is divided into four parts, preparation and cooling, deposition, irradiation and warmup.

2.2.1 Preparation of experiments and cooling

Before any of experiment is done, we bake our system at 100°C , for 48 hours to reduce the contamination of water and residue gases as much as possible. It is cooled to room temperature that the background pressure can reach routinely at 1×10^{-10} torr. The gasline is connected with the regulators of the gas tanks and bake to 100°C and pumped by turbomolecular pump for two days before any experiments are done. Before cooling the substrate to cryogenic temperature, we take an infrared(IR) spectrum and start the monitoring of residue gases by QMS in order to compare the residue molecules and to verify any possible contaminations in the main chamber. We then start the cooling process with the help of the closed-cycle He cryostat.

2.2.2 Deposition

The gas mixtures are pre-mixed in our gasline system introduced in section 2.1.1. We control the relative proportion of two ice mixtures by sealing corresponding partial pressure gases in two equal volum stainless steel bottles. We condense the gas premixed in the stainless steel bottles onto pre-cooled KBr substrate via leak valve. The substrate is monitored by Fourier-Transform Infrared (FTIR) Spectrometer and Quadrupole mass spectrometer (QMS) during deposition. The pressure of deposition is fixed to 1×10^{-8} torr that the deposition rate is around 4×10^{16} molecules $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{min}^{-1}$, which varies in different relative ratio

of our ice mixtures because the differences in sticking coefficients. After deposition, we place the ice mixture at 15 K for 60 minutes and allow pumping of residue gases, until the pressure of the main chamber falls back to its base pressure to simulate the interstellar environment before any irradiation.

2.2.3 Photon Irradiation

The total irradiation time is 270 minutes (with some 450 minutes, depend on experiment configurations) with time intervals varies from 2 to 30 minutes. After each irradiation, we wait for 10 minutes allowing pumping out of the photodesorbed gas molecules. During irradiation, the photon flux is monitored by a nickel mesh. After Irradiation, we place the sample for 30 minutes in case if any further reaction is processed.

2.2.4 Warmup

We heat the tip of cold finger to 300 K (measured by silicon diode near the substrate) with rate 1 K/min. During warmup, we record the QMS from 1 to 100 a.m.u. to observe if there are low quantity of higher mass products formed during irradiation. Apart from QMS, we scan infrared spectra with 5 K intervals to monitor the evolution of infra-red active species such as photo products and reactants. With both infra-red and QMS, we may better identify the photo products by kinetic energy gained during warm-up and temperatures the desorpted.

2.3 Infra-red spectroscopy and the Beer-Lambert's Law

We use infra-red spectroscopy extensively in chapter 3. It is a powerful tool to study molecular interactions during irradiation and warmup. We choose infra-red rather than Raman spectroscopy because infra-red has lower energy that it would not change the structure of the ice mixture nor breaking any of the bonds. In addition, it is also much richer in terms of identifying functional groups especially when studying ice mixtures whose vibrational modes falls in the mid-IR wavelength ranges. With different vibrational modes, the energy absorbed by molecules are quantified. With the energy of absorption bands in infra-red spectrum,

we may identify the functional group of the species. To simply classify, vibrational motions can be divided into stretching and bending. Stretching needs more energy than bending. For stretching, there are symmetric and asymmetric stretchings; while bending can be divided into in-plane (scissoring, rocking) and out-of-plane (wagging and twisting) (Figure 2.3).

By Beer's Law, we may calculate the column density of the molecule with its functional groups, which are used to plot figures in chapter 3 and 4. Beer Lambert's Law suggests that when light passes through a medium, the amount of light absorbed is proportional to density and path length of the medium. Assume a known intensity beam $I_0(\nu)$ passes through the medium and beam intensity become $I(\nu)$. The transmittance $T(\nu)$ is defined by equation 2.1.

$$T(\nu) = \frac{I(\nu)}{I_0(\nu)} \quad (2.1)$$

Also, the absorbance $a(\nu)$ is defined by equation 2.2.

$$a(\nu) = -\ln T(\nu) = -\ln \frac{I(\nu)}{I_0(\nu)} = nl\sigma(\nu) \quad (2.2)$$

where n is number density (molecules/cm³), l is the path length (cm), $\sigma(\nu)$ is the cross-section (cm²/molecule) of corresponding frequency ν . This equation is known as Lambert Beer's Law.

As the ice mixtures in our thesis are at 15 K, the peaks of absorbance are often a broadband due to coupling between neighbor molecules. Therefore, we can integrate the whole band of the peak by equation 2.2 with respect to frequency. Combines the (integrated) absorbance band strength (A value) in literatures to calculate the column densities N of the ices by equation 2.3.

$$N = \frac{\int a(\nu)d\nu}{A(\nu)} \quad (2.3)$$

where N is the column density (molecule cm⁻²), $A(\nu)$ is the absorbance strength (cm molecule⁻¹).

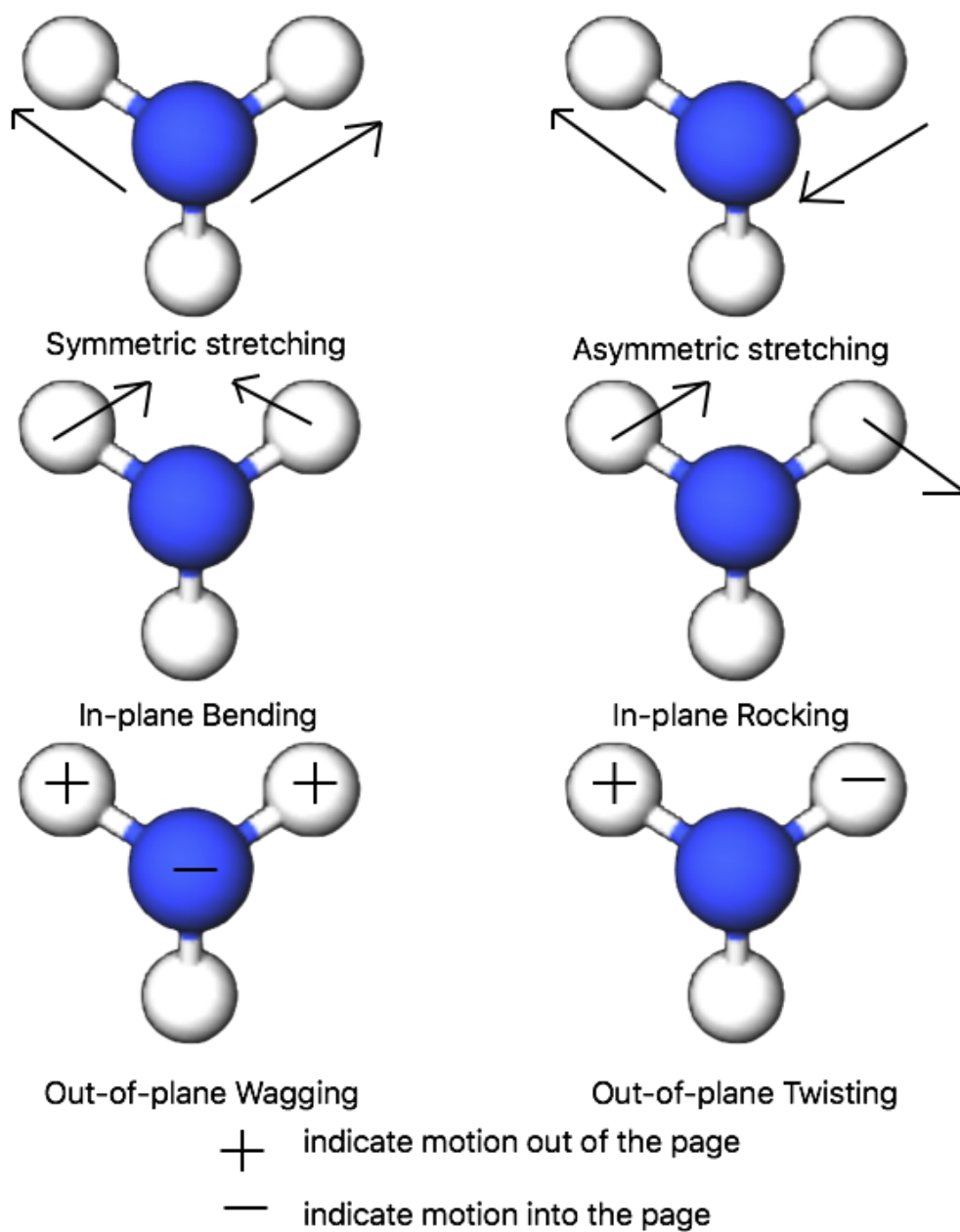


Figure 2.3: Different vibrational modes of a NH_3 molecule.

2.4 Reaction Rate Laws

In this section, we will introduce rate reaction of a consecutive reaction and the concept of pseudo first order which we use to fit our reaction product against photon dose in chapter 3. The rate of a chemical reaction is a change in concentration of a substance per unit of time.

To determine the order of a reaction, we can only determine it experimentally. For a zero order reaction, the rate $= -\frac{d[R]}{dt} = k[R]^0$. By calculus, $[R]_0 - [R]_t = kt$.

For a first order reaction, rate $= -\frac{d[R]}{dt} = k[R]$. By calculus, $\ln[R]_t = -kt + \ln[R]_0$.

For a second order reaction, rate $= -\frac{d[R]}{dt} = k[R]^2$. By calculus, $\frac{1}{[R]_t} - \frac{1}{[R]_0} = kt$.

In a reaction with one reactant in excess, the rate of reaction is called pseudo first order reaction where pseudo means pretended. For $D+E \rightarrow F$, rate $= k[D][E]$. As $[E]_0 \gg [D]_0$, change of $[E]$ is negligible that $[E] \sim [E]_0$. Therefore, $[E]$ is assumed to be a constant and included in the rate constant k .

For a consecutive reaction equation, which we used to fit our data points, where $D \rightarrow E \rightarrow F$ that the produced product will not convert back as reactant. A simple example is radioactive decay. At $t = 0$, $[D] = [D]_0$, $[E] = 0$, $[F] = 0$ and at all times, $[D] + [E] + [F] = [D]_0$. The rate equations are as follows:

$$\frac{d[D]}{dt} = -k_1[D] \quad (2.4)$$

$$\frac{d[E]}{dt} = k_1[D] - k_2[E] \quad (2.5)$$

$$\frac{d[F]}{dt} = k_2[E] \quad (2.6)$$

By equation 2.4, we get

$$[D] = [D]_0 e^{-k_1 t} \quad (2.7)$$

By substituting equation 2.7 into equation 2.5, we get

$$\frac{d[E]}{dt} + k_2[E] = k_1[D]_0 e^{-k_1 t} \quad (2.8)$$

After solving the differential equation 2.8 , we get

$$[E] = \frac{k_1}{k_2 - k_1} (e^{-k_1 t} - e^{-k_2 t}) [D]_0 \quad (2.9)$$

Finally, since $[F] = [D]_0 - [E] - [D]$, by equation 2.7 and 2.9, we get

$$[F] = \left(1 + \frac{k_1 e^{-k_2 t} - k_2 e^{-k_1 t}}{k_2 - k_1} \right) [D]_0 \quad (2.10)$$

3. Results and Discussions

In this chapter, we will investigate the following mainly by infrared spectroscopy: 1. The photoproducts produced by different concentration ratios of methane to ammonia, 2. the reaction mechanisms of each main products, 3. the photo products produced by EUV and VUV photons and 4. the functional groups of tholin formed by irradiation of VUV, EUV on different relative proportions of CH₄:NH₃ ice mixtures (the result is compared with the residues on Titan produced by Imanaka et al. (2004)[14]).

3.1 The infrared spectra and peaks identification

Figure 3.1 is a typical infrared spectrum of CH₄:NH₃ ice mixtures in different concentration ratios: 1:20, 1:10, 1:5 and 3:2 where ammonia is fixed with a column density 6×10^{17} molecules cm⁻². We scan the IR spectrum prior to the irradiation at 15 K (for details of methodology, please refer to section 2.2).

Table 3.1: The strength of absorbance adopted in this thesis measured in literatures of pure ice samples

Wavenumber (cm ⁻¹)	Assignment	Vibration	FWHM	A value ($\times 10^{-17}$)	Reference
2976	C ₂ H ₆	-CH ₃	-	1.05	1
2960	C ₃ H ₈	-CH ₂ -	-	2.58	1
2086	CN ⁻	C \equiv N	-	1.8	2
1297	CH ₄	CH deformation	8	0.61	3
1070	NH ₃	"umbrella mode"	68	1.7	3

Reference: 1. Moore and Hudson (1998)[15] 2. Noble et al. (2013) [16] 3. d'Hendecourt and Allamandola (1986)[6]

The peaks used in column density calculations (by equation 2.3) are labelled by dotted lines in the graph (figure3.1). We are aware that IR absorption strengths can vary depending on its environment, which means it will be different when it is pure, when it is mixed with other

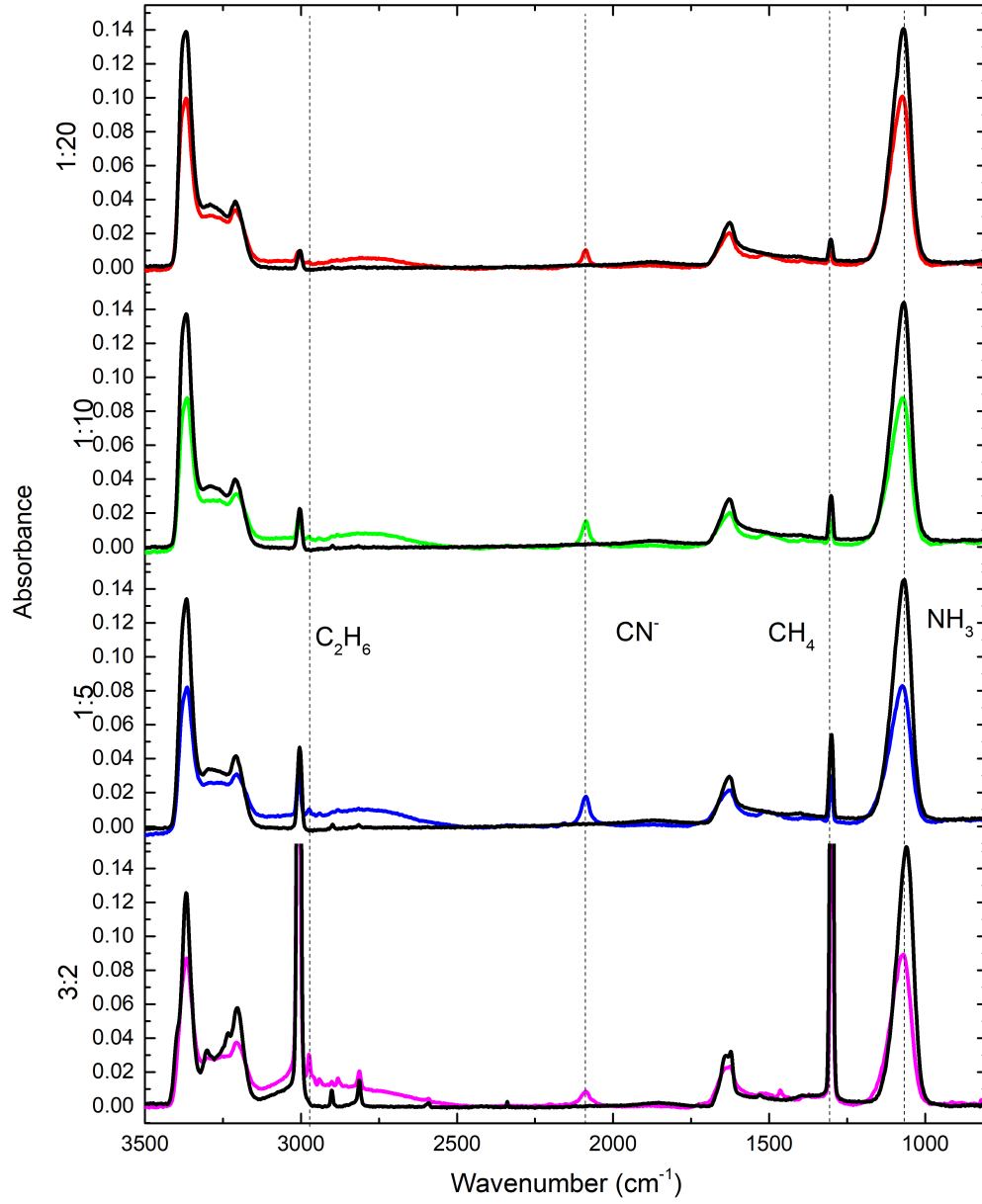


Figure 3.1: The the infrared spectrum of $\text{CH}_4 + \text{NH}_3$ ice mixtures before irradiation (black) and after VUV (MDHL) irradiated (coloured) ice mixtures.

ices, and will vary with the relative proportions between ice components. We are justified to use the same absorption strength throughout our discussion to estimate the column density of each species and how the absorption area changes with concentration ratios of ice mixtures and photon energy. The absorption strengths we adopted are stated in table 3.1

Figure 3.2 is a zoomed view of figure 3.1. Multiple peaks are used in product assignments, which are presented in table 3.2. The absorption peak located at 2975 cm^{-1} corresponds to the strongest vibration of C_2H_6 .

The peak positioned at 2960 cm^{-1} belongs to $-\text{CH}_2-$ so we tentatively assign that as C_3H_8 , which is the shortest carbon chain molecule contains $-\text{CH}_2-$. By fitting the peaks as a few gaussians, we deconvolute the overlapped C_2H_6 and C_3H_8 into two gaussians. The signal-to-noise ratio in $\text{CH}_4:\text{NH}_3 = 1:10$ is poor that we can not quantify the amount of C_3H_8 (figure 3.2).

Figure 3.3 is zoomed infrared absorption spectra of CN^- . We assign the peak 2086 cm^{-1} to CN^- but not a combination of HCN and CN^- . The assignment is based on a absence in CN bending mode at 848 cm^{-1} . In the case $\text{CH}_4 + \text{NH}_3 = 3:2$, a peak located at 820 cm^{-1} is observed, the characteristic of the band is different from HCN (halved FWHM of HCN) and it is eliminated at 50 K during the warm-up phase. Since 50 K is the desorbing temperature of C_2H_6 and the peak position is close to ν_{12} mode of C_2H_6 , we believe that the 820 cm^{-1} peak is contributed by C_2H_6 . Therefore, peak located at 2086 cm^{-1} is assigned as purely CN^- . After identification of the main products (C_2H_6 , CN^- and C_3H_8), we will look into the mechanisms one by one in the next section.

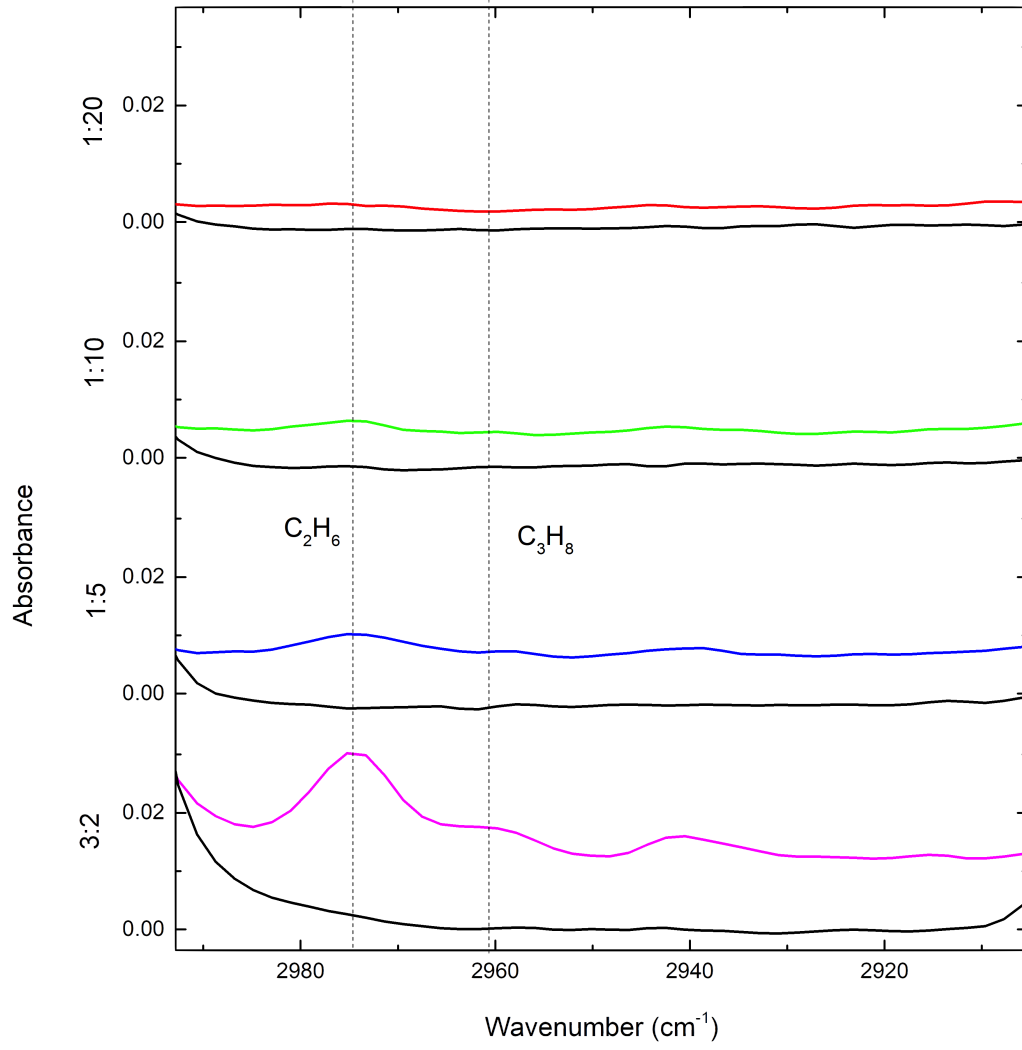


Figure 3.2: The infrared spectra of CH₄ + NH₃ ice mixtures in the range of C₂H₆ and C₃H₈ vibrations before irradiation (black) and VUV irradiated ice mixtures provided by MDHL.

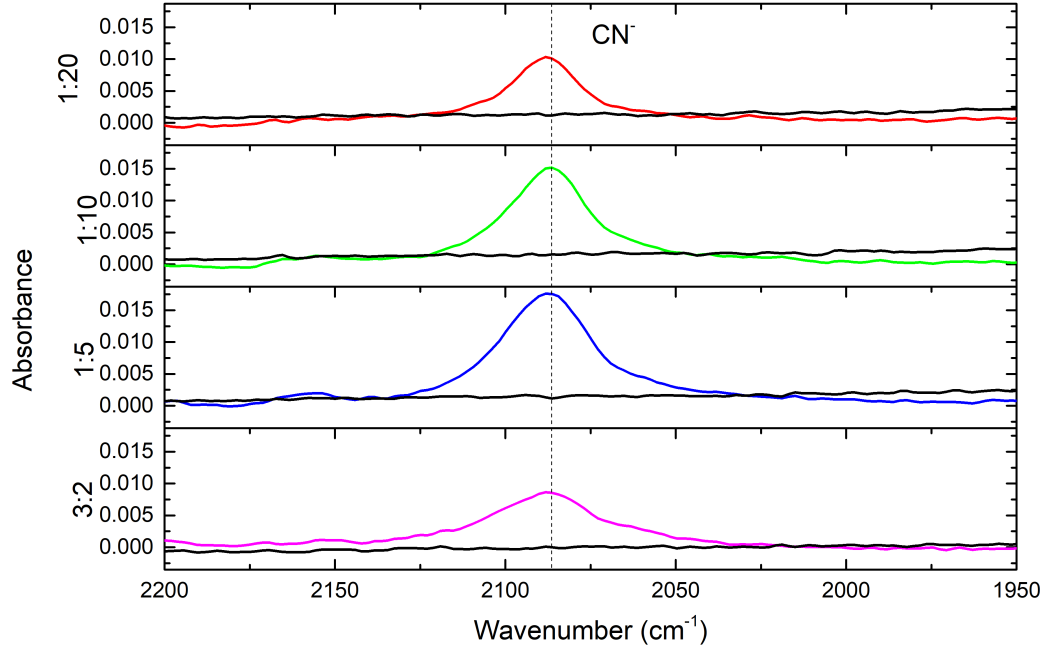


Figure 3.3: The infrared spectra of $\text{CH}_4 + \text{NH}_3$ ice mixtures in the range of CN^- before irradiation (black) and VUV irradiated ice mixtures provided by MDHL.

Table 3.2: The peak positions of identified substances after irradiation in different relative proportions of ice mixtures.

Literature assignments		$\text{CH}_4:\text{NH}_3$ ratio (MDHL)				Ref.
Wavenumber (cm^{-1})	Identified IR modes	1:5 (cm^{-1})	1:10 (cm^{-1})	1:20 (cm^{-1})	3:2 (cm^{-1})	
3375	ν_3 (NH_3)	3366	3366	3369	3367	1
3210	ν_1 (NH_3)	3207	3208	3210	3205	1
2972	ν_{10} (C_2H_6)	2975	-	-	2975	3
2960	C_3H_8	-	-	-	2960	7
2941	$\nu_8 + \nu_{11}$ (C_2H_6)	2940	-	-	2940	3
2904	ν_1 (CH_4)	2901	-	-	2901	5
2879	ν_5 (C_2H_6)	2882	2883	-	2882	3
2814	$\nu_2 + \nu_4$ (CH_4)	-	-	-	2815	5
2083	ν (CN^-)	2088	2087	2088	2088	2
1625	ν_4 (NH_3)	1625	1625	1626	1631	1
1514	δ (NH_2)	1509	1507	1505	1511	6
1465-1440	deform CH_2 scissor	1461	-	-	1463	3,4
1390-1370	CH_3 sym deform	1394	1394	1394	1372	4
1298	ν_4 (CH_4)	1301	1302	1305	1299	2
1075	ν_2 (NH_3)	1073	1072	1072	1072	1
820	ν_{12} (C_2H_6)	-	-	-	820	3

Reference: 1. Bossa et al. (2008) [17] 2. Moore and Hudson (2003) [18] 3. Kim et al. (2010) [19] 4. Socrates et al. (2001) [20] 5. Bennet and Kaiser (2007) [21] 6. Zheng et al. (2008) [22] 7. Hudson and Moore (2004) [23]

3.2 Reaction mechanisms and fitting results

3.2.1 C₂H₆

The formation of C₂H₆ in astrophysical environment is mainly a combination with 2 CH₃ radicals proposed by Bennet et al. (2006) [24]:



The energy requires to break the CH bond of CH₄ is 4.43 eV[24]. From Bennet et al. (2006)[24], the recombination of 2 CH₃ radicals forms an internally excited C₂H₆, and releases 3.74 eV to the surrounding matrices or decompose unimolecularly to become ethyl radicals (C₂H₅) or ethene (C₂H₄) (required extra of 0.53 calculated by Bennet et al. (2006)[24] and 0.84 eV (calculated by Irle et al. (2000))[25] respectively). Therefore, the process in equation 3.2 is a no-barrier exothermic process. The formed C₂H₆ is internally excited that it is able to become C₂H₄ etc. Figure 3.4 depicts the formation column density as a function of irradiation time of C₂H₆ in different relative proportions of irradiated ice mixtures. As the formation only depends on CH₄, first order kinetics equation is adopted to fit the column density versus photon dose.

$$[\text{C}_2\text{H}_6] = B(1 - e^{-kt}) \quad (3.3)$$

Where B is the column density of C₂H₆ achieved when irradiated for infinitely long. The fitting results are shown in table 3.3. From table 3.3, the production rate is nearly proportional to the initial CH₄ concentrations. Note that C₂H₆ is not detected in CH₄ to NH₃ = 1:20 ice mixtures.

3.2.2 C₃H₈

Propane is a secondary product formed by a combination of either C₂H₆ + CH₂ (equation 3.4) or C₂H₄ + CH₄ (equation 3.5). From Bennet

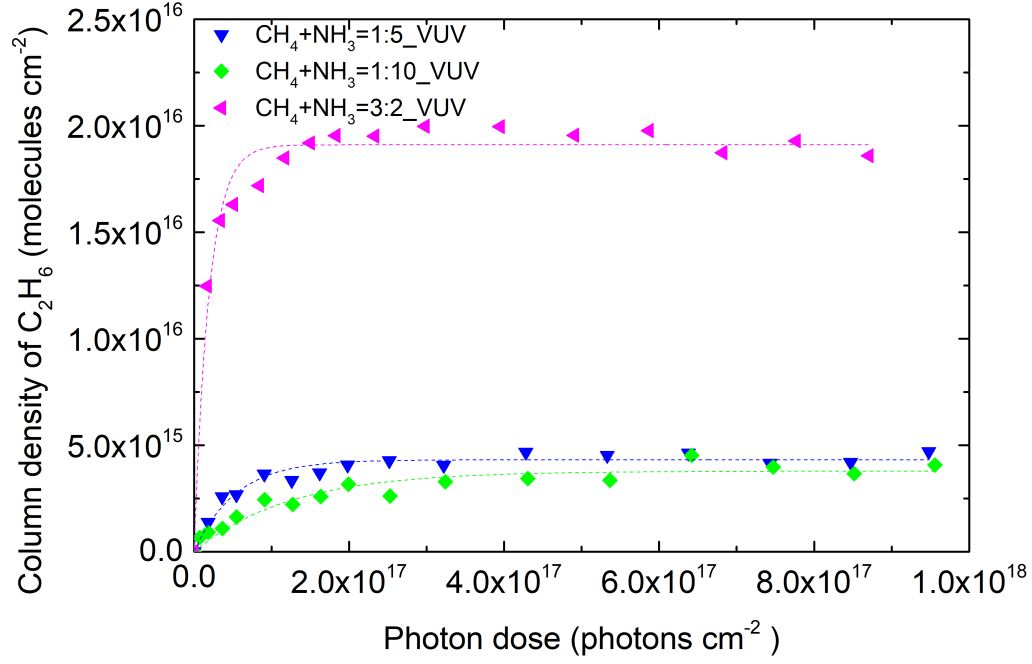


Figure 3.4: The column density of C_2H_6 during $CH_4 + NH_3$ ice mixtures irradiated by MDHL.

Table 3.3: The fitting results of C_2H_6 by $[C_2H_6]=B(1 - e^{-kt})$

Ratio of $CH_4:NH_3$	$[C_2H_6]_o$ ($\times 10^{15}$ molecules cm^{-2})	k ($\times 10^{-17}$ photon $^{-1}$)
1:10	2.90 ± 1.25	0.92 ± 0.15
1:5	4.16 ± 0.28	2.28 ± 0.28
3:2	19.2 ± 0.15	5.28 ± 0.25

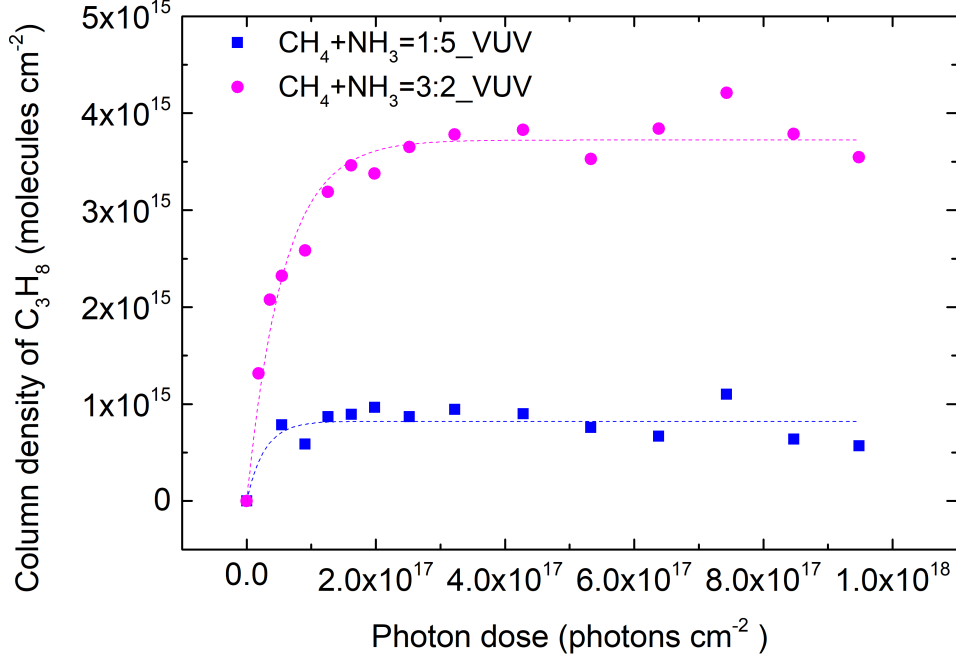


Figure 3.5: The column density of C_3H_8 during $CH_4 + NH_3$ ice mixtures irradiated by MDHL.

et al. (2006) [24], C_2H_4 is decomposed by the internally excited C_2H_6 . With subsequently impinging electrons, it is degraded into C_2H_3 and C_2H_2 with an energy barrier of 4.69 and 4.06 eV respectively.



Table 3.4: The fitting results of C_3H_8 by $[C_3H_8]=C(1 - e^{-k_1t})$

Ratio of $CH_4:NH_3$	A ($\times 10^{15}$ molecules cm^{-2})	k ($\times 10^{-17}$ photon $^{-1}$)
1:5	0.46 ± 0.17	2.89 ± 2.44
3:2	3.84 ± 0.18	2.08 ± 0.18

Note that this peak (2960 cm^{-1}) is only tentative assignment which consists of mainly C_3H_8 , other species such as C_2H_6 and carbon chains with $-CH_2-$ also contributes to the peak. **C is similar to B that it is the column density of C_3H_8 after infinitely long irradiation time.**

The column densities are shown in figure 3.5, where the fitting results are shown in table 3.4. Since the C_3H_8 detection in $CH_4 + NH_3 = 1:5$ ice mixtures are close to our detection limits, the errors of the fitting results would attributes to a meaningless fitting.

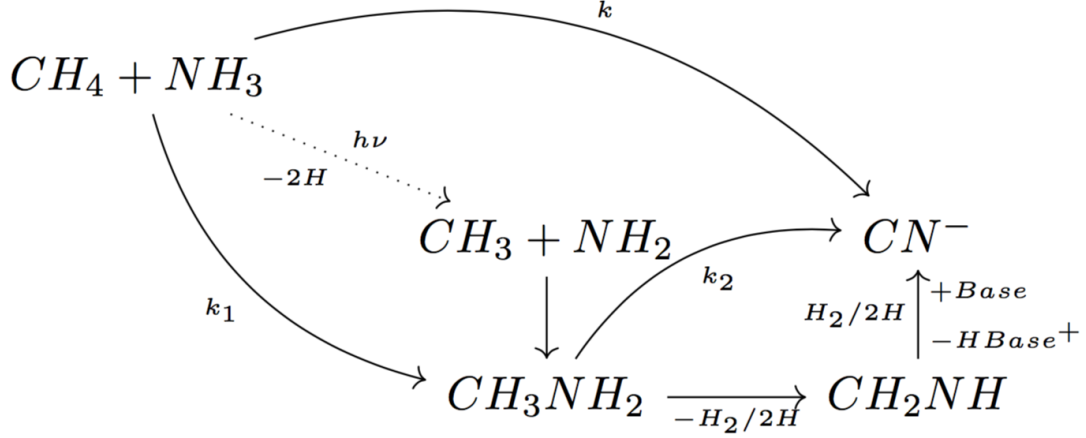


Figure 3.6: The formation mechanism of CN^- proposed by Kim and Kaiser (2011)[1], we denote the one step mechanism with rate constant k , and two step pathway by k_1 and k_2 ; the value of k equals k_1 when $k_2 \gg k_1$.

3.2.3 CN^-

The formation mechanism of CN^- at low temperature was suggested by Kim and Kaiser (2011) [1] to be two step reaction mechanism with methylamine as intermediate. CH_4 and NH_3 irradiated by photon become CH_3 and NH_2 radicals, followed by propagation and recombination of radicals becoming CH_3NH_2 and dehydrogenation and acid-base reaction to form CN^- (figure 3.6).

Kim and Kaiser (2011)[1] used 1.5 keV electron as energy source to simulate the cosmic ray induced photochemistry. Despite the extra heats generated in these exothermal reactions (calculated by Kundu et al.(2017)[11]):



Kundu et al. (2017) [11] fails to observe methylamine as intermediate during warmup phase after using 1–90 eV electrons to initiate CH_4

and NH_3 ice mixtures. They explained that the non-detection is due to their thin ice thicknesses (6-7 ML and 3-4 ML for CH_4 and NH_3 respectively). The small beam size (4 mm^2) and fast heating rate (60 K/min) are also contributing factors. With the small amount of the processed ice in such a small area, combining the slow sampling rate in QMS (about 2 points per second), it is not a surprise for the non-detection. This formation mechanism also applies in our photon irradiation experiments because we can also detect the methylamine during our warm-up phase. The ion fragment with $m/z=31$ is assigned as CH_3NH_2^+ including the $m/z=30$ corresponding to CH_3NH and CH_2NH_2 are detectable in all ratios of our $\text{CH}_4 + \text{NH}_3$ experiments at 120 to 150 K (figure 3.7).

Mentioned in section 2.4, we use rate equation for consecutive reactions 2.10 to fit our CN^- column densities. This rate equation applies in our experiments with one of the reactants in excess. **Although CH_4 is more abundant than NH_3 ($\text{CH}_4:\text{NH}_3=3:2$), their comparable concentrations still tends to a second order kinetics.** Contrastly, NH_3 is in excess ($\text{CH}_4:\text{NH}_3 = 1:5, 1:10$ and $1:20$), the pseudo first order assumption applies. Throughout the formation mechanism, one of the reactants (neither C or N) is a limiting reactant, therefore, the rate equation 2.10 is adopted to fit the formation of CN^- (figure 3.8). **The same equation was adopted to fit the CN^- from in $\text{CH}_4:\text{NH}_3=3:2$ ice mixtures in order to make comparison with the other configurations.**

The fitting results are averaged by **several** experiments and are shown in table 3.5. We find that one of the rate constant is always larger than the other in all of the ratios. The results of Kim and Kaiser (2011)[1] is also listed into the table, they could observe a two-step reaction mechanism in production of CN^- in $\text{CH}_4:\text{NH}_3 = 3:1$ experiments with electron current $0.1 \mu\text{A}$. However, when they increase the electron flux to $1 \mu\text{A}$ for irradiating $\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n+2}$ ($n=1-6$) and NH_3 ice mixtures, they

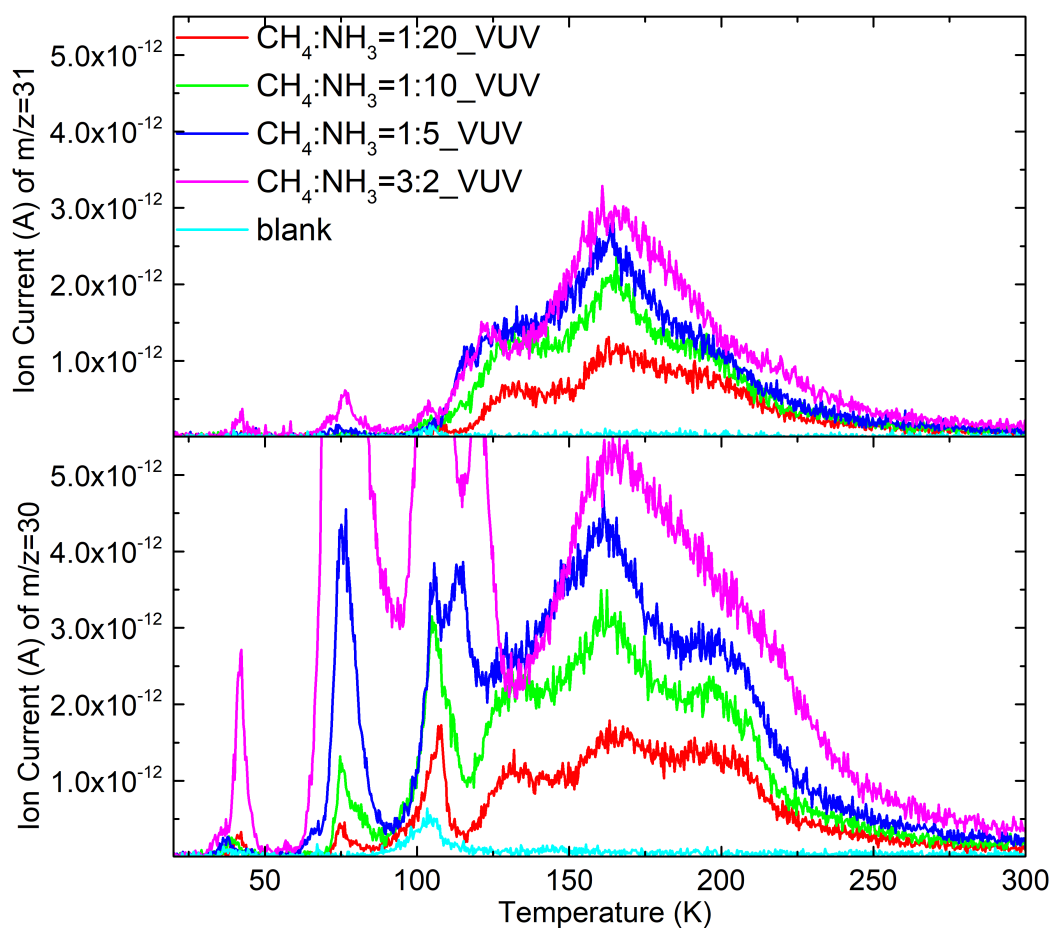


Figure 3.7: The ion current with mass to charge ratio **31** and **30** detected by QMS during warm-up with heating rate 1 K/min in different relative proportions of ice mixtures.

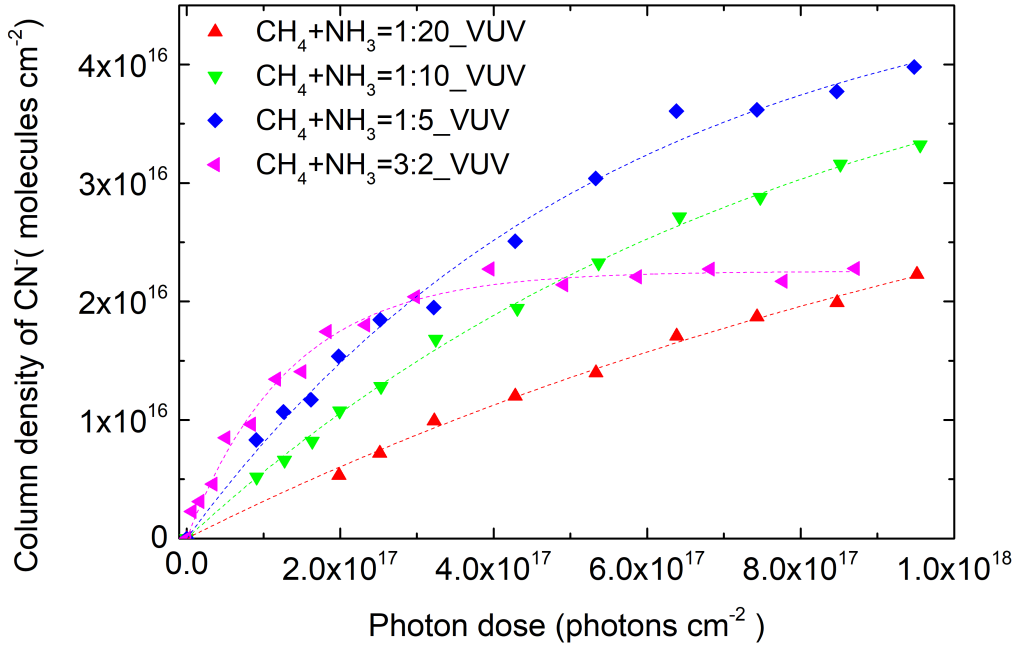


Figure 3.8: The column density of CN^- accumulated when different relative proportions of $\text{CH}_4 + \text{NH}_3$ ice mixtures are irradiated by VUV photons provided by MDHL. The dotted lines are fits of column densities by equation 2.10.

observed a one-step reaction mechanism.

3.3 The Concentration Effects in CN^- -formation and the relation with C_2H_6 and C_3H_8

3.3.1 Cyanide ion and Ethane

From table 3.5, the rate k_1 is nearly proportional to the concentration of CH_4 . As CH_4 to NH_3 ratio increases in ammonia dominated ices, more CH_4 are involved in CH_3 radical formation, thus there are more CH_3 radicals to produce CH_3NH_2 intermediates (figure 3.9).

In CH_4 to $\text{NH}_3 = 3:2$ ice mixtures, however, the cyanide ion formed is about half of that of the other ratios. The decrease is mainly because NH_2 (forming CH_3NH_2) has a competing relationship with CH_2 , CH_3 and C_2H_4 radicals (forming C_2H_6 and C_3H_8). This competition suppresses the production of intermediate CH_3NH_2 , thus the formation of CN^- (figure 3.10). Therefore, the yield of CN^- is the least in CH_4 to

Table 3.5: The fitting results of CN^- by equation 2.10

VUV experiments with $\text{CH}_4:\text{NH}_3$ ice mixtures			
Ratio	A ($\times 10^{16}$ molecules cm^{-2})	k_1 ($\times 10^{-18}$ photon $^{-1}$)	k_2 (photon $^{-1}$)
1:20	4.75 ± 0.40	0.70 ± 0.09	$\gg 1$
1:10	4.51 ± 0.18	1.33 ± 0.13	$\gg 1$
1:5	4.61 ± 0.18	1.93 ± 0.19	$\gg 1$
3:2	2.24 ± 0.03	8.21 ± 0.70	$\gg 1$
Quoted from Kim and Kaiser (2011)[1]			
Ratio	$[\text{CN}^-](\times 10^{16}$ molecules $\text{cm}^{-2})$	$k_1 (\times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1})$	$k_2 (\times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1})$
0.1 $\mu\text{A e}^-$ with $\text{CH}_4:\text{NH}_3$ ice mixtures			
3:1	1.3 ± 0.0	2.7 ± 0.3	8.9 ± 1.6
1 $\mu\text{A e}^-$ with $\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n+2}$ (n=1-6)+ NH_3 ice mixtures			
2:5	1.0 ± 0.0	8.7 ± 1.3	$\gg 1$

The second column represents the column density of CN^- obtained when irradiated the ice for infinitely long.

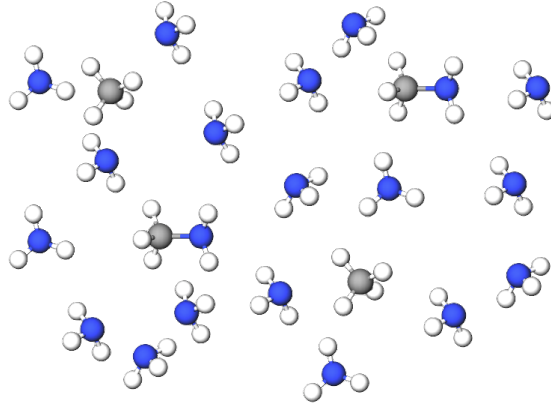


Figure 3.9: The NH_3 in excess situation where increasing CH_4 concentrations enhances the production of CN^- . The blue balls indicate N atoms, white balls indicate H atoms while grey balls are C atom.

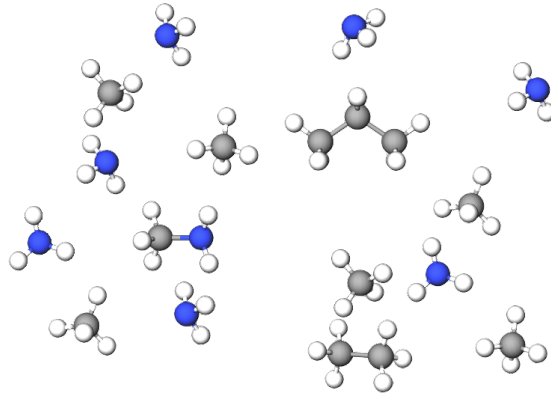


Figure 3.10: The CH_4 in excess situation where CH_4 reacts with neighbouring CH_4 molecules producing C_2H_6 and C_3H_8 . The blue balls indicate N atoms, white balls indicate H atoms while grey balls are C atoms.

NH₃ ice mixture with ratio 3:2 while the yield of C₂H₆ is the greatest in the mixture with the same ratio (table 3.5 and 3.3). Figure of CN⁻ and C₂H₆ (figure 3.11) shows the formation of CN⁻ in ice mixtures with diluted CH₄ has more CN⁻ formed than C₂H₆. It is because ice mixtures with higher concentrations in CH₄ is more effective for one CH₃ radical to combine with another CH₃ radical. In contrast, CH₃ radicals formed in the ice mixtures with diluted CH₄ concentrations are aggregated by NH₃. Therefore, CN⁻ is more efficient to form in ice mixtures with excess NH₃.

The formation rate of CN⁻ in CH₄:NH₃ = 3:2 ice mixtures is highest because they have similar photon dose. The absorption cross-section in the range of 120 - 175 nm by NH₃ is $1.2 \times 10^{-17} \text{ cm}^2$ measured by Cruz-Diaz et al. (2014)[26], while CH₄ is measured to be $1.5 \times 10^{-17} \text{ cm}^2$ at ly- α region and $0.1 \times 10^{-17} \text{ cm}^2$ at molecular hydrogen emission regions measured Cruz-Diaz et al. (2014)[27]. Mentioned at chapter 2, 19.1% of photons emitted by our MDHL is ly- α . It is therefore expected that the two species receives similar amount of photon dose when their relative ratio is CH₄:NH₃ = 3:2. With this similar photon dose, assuming their formation rate of CH₃ and NH₂ radicals are similar, the concentration of the two radicals in the ice mixtures are similar. Similar amount of CH₃ radical and NH₂ radicals can form CH₃NH₂ much easier than CH₄ surrounded by 5 NH₂ radicals. Therefore, a higher production rate of forming CN⁻ is achieved.

3.4 Photon Energy Effect - EUV and VUV

According to Blanksby and Ellison (2003)[28], the dissociation energy for CH₄, becoming CH₃, CH₂, CH and C are 4.55, 4.79, 4.39 and 3.51 eV respectively at 298 K; whereas dissociation energy for NH₃, becoming NH₂ is 4.67 eV at 298 K. Considering our MDHL with average energy of 9.27 eV, the photon energy is enough for all of the above fragmentation pathways. Although increasing the photon energy does not create new fragmentation pathway, the choice of fragmentation path-

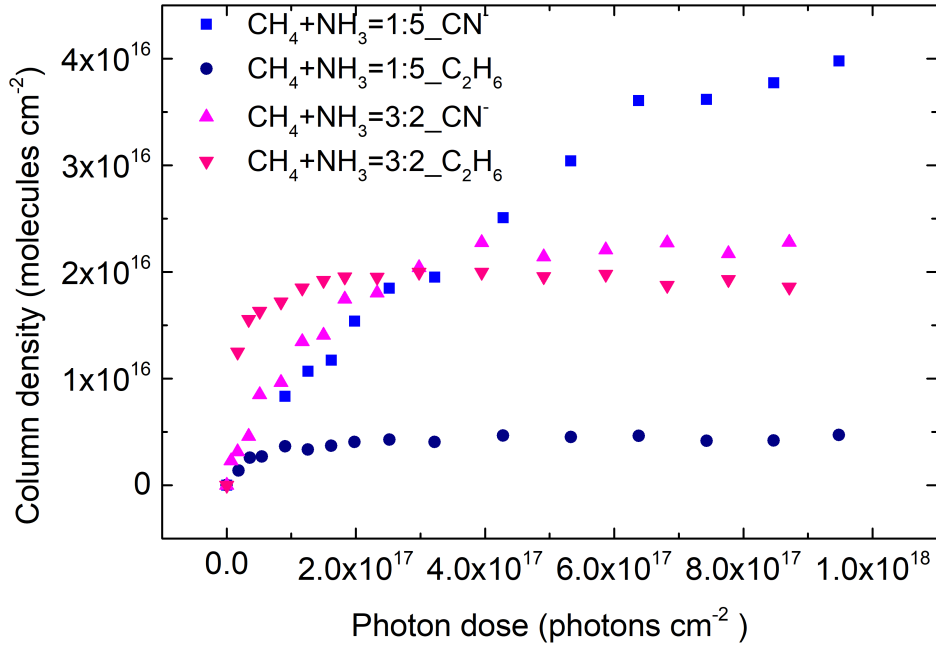


Figure 3.11: The column density of CN^- and C_2H_6 accumulated when different relative proportions of $\text{CH}_4 + \text{NH}_3$ ice mixtures are irradiated by VUV photons provided by MDHL.

ways depends on photon energy.

Bossa et al. (2015) [29] is the first to used MDHL to irradiated CH_4 ice at 20 K and a Laser Desorption Post-Ionization Time-Of-Flight mass spectra to find the fragmentation of CH_4 . It consist of $95\% \pm 5$ of CH_3^+ , $4\% \pm 1$ of CH_2^+ and $2\% \pm 1$ of CH^+ . Second, an EUV fragmentation experiment done by Tsai and Eland (1980) [30] used 30.4 nm to photo-dissociate CH_4 and tested it by time-of-flight mass spectrometer yields $\text{CH}_3^+ : \text{CH}_2^+ : \text{CH}^+ : \text{C}^+ = 1 : 0.32 : 0.118 : 0.0237$ (Tsai 1980). EUV photodissociation experiments of Tsai and Eland (1980)[30] consists of more CH_2 than VUV. Based on these two experimental results, we may conclude that fragment yields of CH_4 dissociation is photon energy dependent and more CH_2 is obtained in EUV range based on gas phase EUV experiment. We aware that the VUV absorption spectra of CH_4 in solid phases is different from gaseous phases measured by Cruz-Diaz

et al. (2014)[27], and the EUV spectra have not yet measured (without an appropriate window). However, the exact photo dissociation fragmentation ratios by EUV irradiations in solid state CH_4 is still unknown. It is worthwhile for us to perform the experiment by EUV irradiation to see if EUV irradiation can generate any new products on the surface of Charon, or any difference in yield.

Table 3.6 shows the identified peaks of $\text{CH}_4 + \text{NH}_3$ ice mixtures irradiated by VUV and EUV (30.4 nm) irradiated in IR spectra (figure 3.12).

Table 3.6: The peak positions of identified substances after VUV and EUV irradiations in different relative proportions of ice mixtures.

Literture assignments		$\text{CH}_4:\text{NH}_3$ ratio (MDHL)		$\text{CH}_4:\text{NH}_3$ ratio (30.4 nm)		Ref.
Wavenumber (cm^{-1})	Identified IR modes	1:5 (cm^{-1})	3:2 (cm^{-1})	1:5 (cm^{-1})	3:2 (cm^{-1})	
3375	ν_3 (NH_3)	3366	3367	3368	3368	1
3210	ν_1 (NH_3)	3207	3205	3209	3205	1
2972	ν_{10} (C_2H_6)	2975	2975	2977	2976	3
2960	C_3H_8	-	2960	-	2960	7
2941	$\nu_8 + \nu_{11}$ (C_2H_6)	2940	2940	-	2942	3
2904	ν_1 (CH_4)	2901	2901	2901	2901	5
2879	ν_5 (C_2H_6)	2882	2882	-	2884	3
2814	$\nu_2 + \nu_4$ (CH_4)	-	2815	-	2813	5
2083	ν (CN^-)	2088	2088	2090	2089	2
1625	ν_4 (NH_3)	1625	1631	1627	1631	1
1514	δ (NH_2)	1509	1511	1509	1511	6
1465-1440	deform CH_2 scissor	1461	1463	-	1465	3,4
1390-1370	CH_3 sym deform	1394	1372	-	1372	4
1298	ν_4 (CH_4)	1301	1299	1303	1301	2
1075	ν_2 (NH_3)	1073	1072	1070	1068	1
820	ν_{12} (C_2H_6)	-	820	-	-	3

Reference: 1. Bossa et al. (2008) [17] 2. Moore and Hudson (2003) [18] 3. Kim et al. (2010) [19] 4. Socrates et al. (2001) [20] 5. Bennet and Kaiser (2007) [21] 6. Zheng et al. (2008) [22] 7. Hudson and Moore (2004) [23]

From figure 3.13, more C_3H_8 relative to C_2H_6 is produced by 30.4nm (40.8 eV) photons than by VUV photons. Considering the formation mechanisms of C_2H_6 and C_3H_8 , equation (3.2 and 3.4), when MDHL VUV irradiation is replaced by He II 30.4 nm monochromatic light, the ratio of C_3H_8 to C_2H_6 in $\text{CH}_4:\text{NH}_3 = 3:2$ ice mixtures irradiated by VUV irradiation is lower than that under EUV provided by NSRRC (figure 3.13).

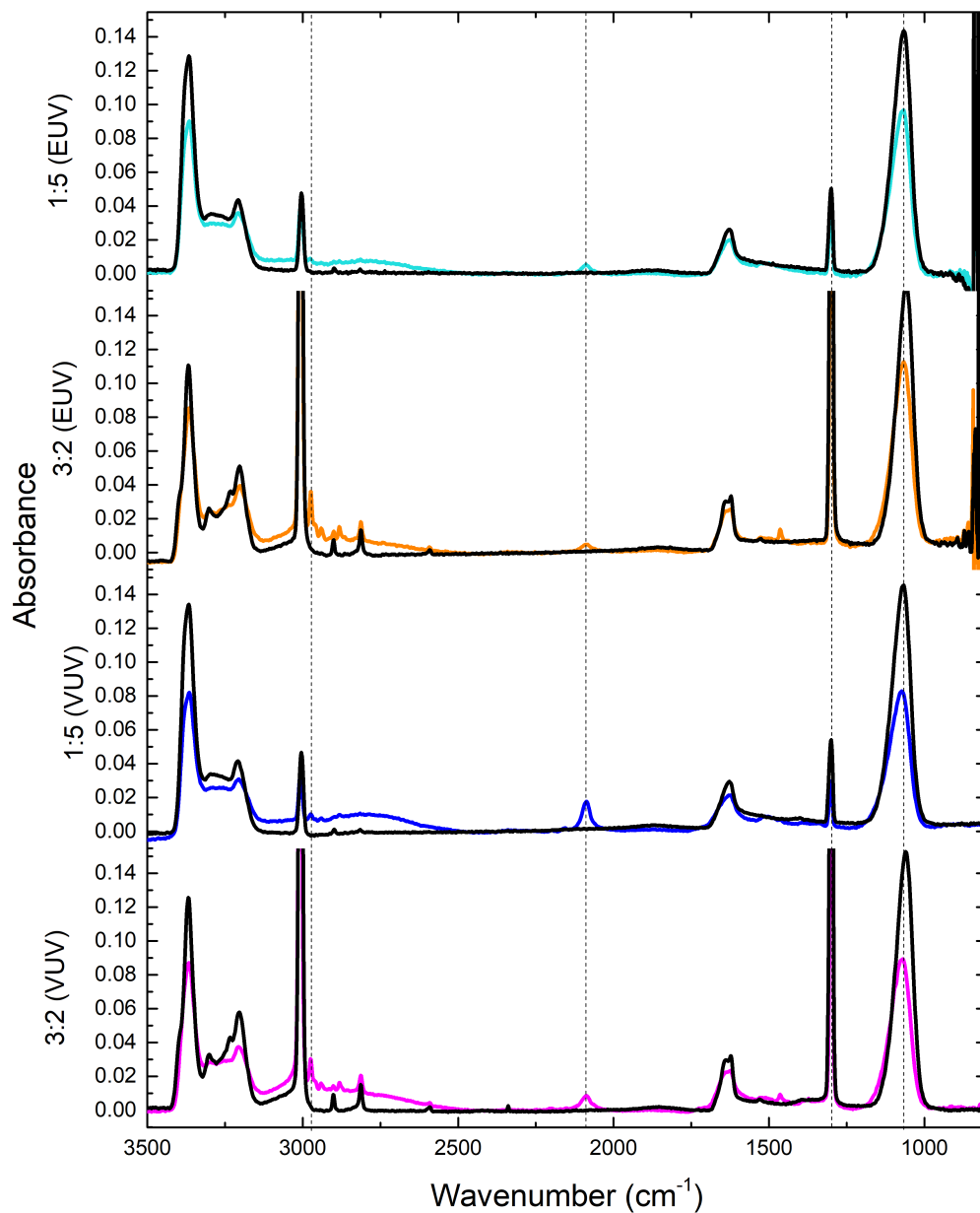


Figure 3.12: The infrared spectrum of $\text{CH}_4 + \text{NH}_3$ ice mixtures before irradiation (black), VUV or EUV (coloured) irradiated ice mixtures provided by MDHL and NSRRC. From top to bottom: EUV irradiated $\text{CH}_4:\text{NH}_3 = 1:5$ and $3:2$ ice mixtures and VUV irradiated $\text{CH}_4:\text{NH}_3 = 1:5$ and $3:2$ ice mixtures.

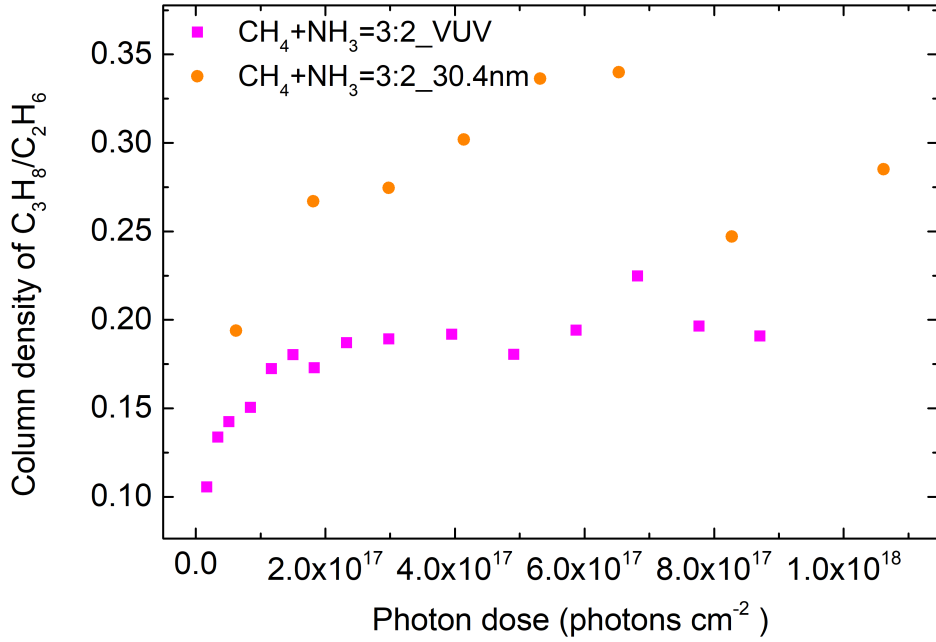


Figure 3.13: The column density of C_3H_8 divided by C_2H_6 accumulated when different relative proportions of $CH_4 + NH_3$ ice mixtures are irradiated by VUV and EUV photons

However, our results shows more C_3H_8 is formed when we use EUV photons as irradiation source. Note that the peak C_3H_8 is only an tentative assignment which consists of longer carbon chain substances like butane and hexane. The VUV irradiation experiments of CH_4 done by Bossa et al. (2015)[29] at 20 K has shown that the fragments of CH_4 in solid phase consist of $95\% \pm 5$ of CH_3 , $4\% \pm 1$ of CH_2 while that CH_3 is much more abundant than CH_2 in solid state and agrees well with our experimental results. Hence, methane fragmentation differs in solid state with only 4% of CH_2 and the CH_2 to CH_3 ratio should increase when EUV photons are adopted.

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Table 3.7: The fitting results of reactants by equation $[R] = [R]e^{-kx} + C$

Constituent	VUV (photon ⁻¹ cm ²)	EUV (photon ⁻¹ cm ²)	ratio of k in VUV/EUV
CH ₄	3.70 ± 0.18	0.61 ± 0.03	6.06 ± 0.07
NH ₃	2.89 ± 0.10	0.91 ± 0.11	3.18 ± 0.12

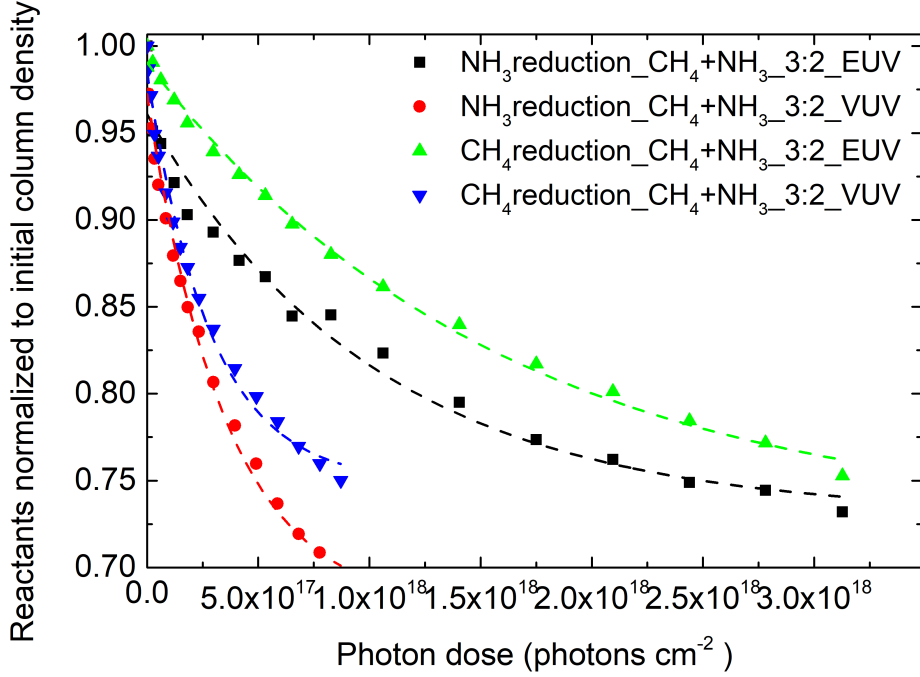


Figure 3.14: The normalized destruction of CH_4 and NH_3 in $\text{CH}_4 + \text{NH}_3$ ice mixtures irradiated by VUV and EUV photons

Apart from C_2H_6 and C_3H_8 , CN^- production may differ. Figure 3.15 shows the accumulated column densities of CN^- generated by irradiation of $\text{CH}_4 + \text{NH}_3$ ice mixtures by MDHL and 30.4 nm monochromatic light. The fitting results are shown in Table 3.6. The rate constants forming CN^- is 3.06 to 4.13 times larger in $\text{CH}_4:\text{NH}_3 = 1:5$ and 3:2 irradiated by MDHL than irradiated by 30.4 nm monochromatic light respectively. We fit the column densities of CH_4 and NH_3 ice mixtures which are normalized by the deposited column densities (figure 3.14) with pseudo first order decay equation, the destruction cross-section of CH_4 and NH_3 are reduced by 6.06 ± 0.07 and 3.19 ± 0.12 times respectively (table 3.7). The formation rate constant of CN^- is 3.06 to 4.13 times smaller than VUV irradiations (table 3.8). Therefore, we may conclude that the decrease in CN^- formation rate by 30.4 nm (40.8 eV) EUV irradiation is mainly due to the decreased NH_3 destruction cross-sections. In general, the energy of MDHL has already exceeded the energy required to form the CH_3 and NH_2 radicals, further increasing photon energy would not pose dramatical change to CH_4 and NH_3 ice

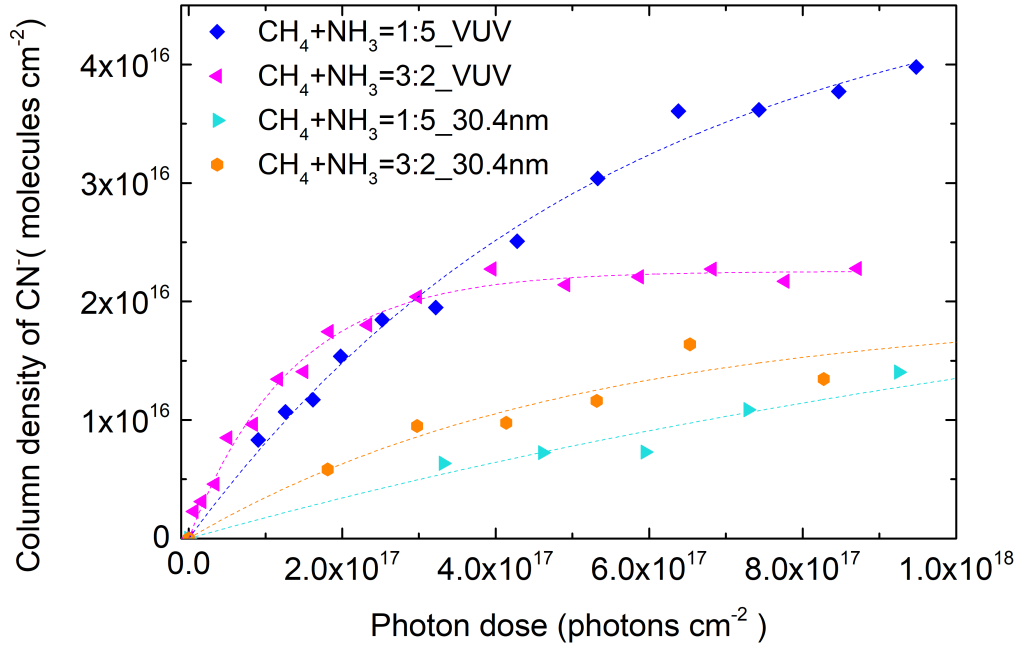


Figure 3.15: The column densities of CN^- generated by irradiation of CH_4+NH_3 ice mixtures by MDHL and 30.4 nm monochromatic light.

mixtures.

Table 3.8: The fitting results of CN^- by equation 2.10

Light source	Ratio of $\text{CH}_4:\text{NH}_3$	A ($\times 10^{16}$ molecules cm^{-2})	k_1 ($\times 10^{-18}$ photon $^{-1}$)	k_2 (photon $^{-1}$)
VUV	1:5	4.61 ± 0.18	1.93 ± 0.19	>1
MDHL	3:2	2.24 ± 0.03	8.21 ± 0.70	>1
EUV	1:5	2.89 ± 1.29	0.63 ± 0.37	>1
30.4nm	3:2	2.24 ± 0.03	1.92 ± 1.99	>1

Fitting result of figure 3.15 with pseudo first order equation $[\text{CN}^-]=A(1 - e^{-kx})$. These fitting results of MDHL experiments are an average of at least 2 experiments with the same circumstances. In the expression, A represents the column density when x , the photon dose, becomes infinitely large and k is the rate constant.

3.5 Residues

The residues we studied are the accumulated substances remained on the substrate after warmed up. Figure 3.16 is a comparison of $\text{CH}_4:\text{NH}_3 = 3:2$ after VUV experiments, residues accumulate after EUV exposure of $\text{CH}_4:\text{NH}_3 = 3:2$ ice mixtures and the plasma experiment done by Imanaka et al. (2004)[14]. The peak positions and assignments are listed at table 3.9. The residues formed in irradiated ammonia dom-

inating CH_4+NH_3 ice mixtures are not observed after accumulation of consecutive experiments. There are no differences between EUV accumulated residues and VUV accumulated residues in $\text{CH}_4:\text{NH}_3 = 3:2$ ice mixtures. The main functional groups (nitrogen position) of the residues are conjugated nitriles. Based on experiments of N_2+CH_4 (9:1) done at 2300 Pa. by Imanaka et al. (2004)[14], the tholins formed at high pressure (2300 Pa) should be a polymer-like branched chain structure terminated with $-\text{CH}_3$ $-\text{NH}_2$ and $-\text{C}\equiv\text{N}$ with few aromatic compounds.

Table 3.9: The peak positions of residues and their assignments

Imanaka et al. (2004) ν (cm^{-1})	implied functional group	VUV (MDHL) ν (cm^{-1})	EUV (30.4 nm) ν (cm^{-1})
2954 - 2972	$-\text{CH}_3$ - asymmetric stretching	2955	2962
2929 - 2932	$-\text{CH}_2$ - asymmetric stretching	2923	2929
2869 - 2874	$-\text{CH}_3$ - symmetric stretching	2871	2871
2173 - 2189	conjugated nitriles, such as with $-\text{C}=\text{C}(-\text{NH}_2)$ C-N \equiv C stretching	2173	2174
1460	C- CH_3 asymmetric bending	1451	1451
1375-1379	C- CH_3 umbrella symmetric bending	1372	1378

Similar residues is obtained by using different initial reactants (replacing N_2 by NH_3). The similarities during formation of atomic nitrogens when breaking $\text{N}\equiv\text{N}$ bonds in nitrogen molecules (N_2) and N-H bonds in ammonia give rise to this result. When photon energy is enough to break both NH bond and $\text{N}\equiv\text{N}$ bond, similar experimental residues forms. Our results implies that the residues formed on Charon is similar to what they found on Titan, although their formation environments differs from gaseous phase with N_2 dominating to solid phase with NH_3 .

3.6 Summary

The main product of VUV and EUV irradiated CH_4+NH_3 ice mixtures were C_2H_6 and CN^- . C_3H_8 was also produced by C_2H_6 or C_2H_2 . We did several investigations towards CH_4+NH_3 ice mixtures. First, by changing ratio of CH_4 to NH_3 ice mixtures, CN^- production was more effective in NH_3 dominated ice mixtures. While in contrast, C_2H_6 was the main product when CH_4 dominates. Second, by changing the pho-

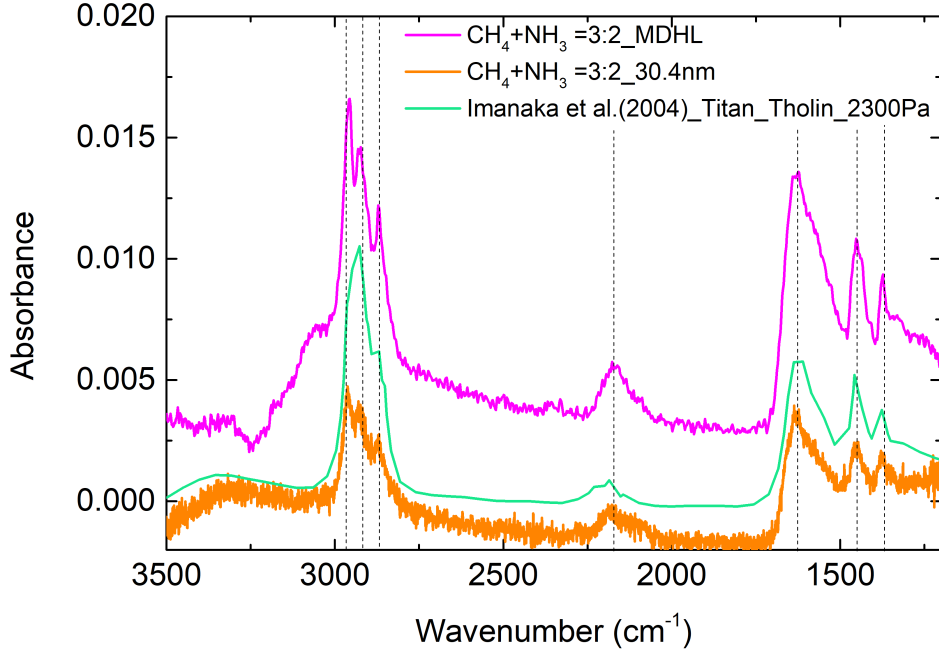


Figure 3.16: **IR spectra of accumulated residues of $\text{CH}_4:\text{NH}_3 = 3:2$ ice mixtures irradiated with VUV photons which provided by MDHL (pink solid line) and monochromatic EUV photons which provided by NSRRC (orange solid line).**

ton source to EUV irradiation, the difference in photo-production yield was mainly caused by the decrease in photo-destruction cross-section in the reactants. Finally, we compared our residues obtained with laboratory produced Titan tholins, the similar infrared spectrum showed a similar functional groups in residues. Our result implied that the tholin on Charon should be similar to that of Titan.

4. Astrophysical Implications

From our last chapter, we have fitted the column density of CN^- and detected the intermediate methylamine during warmup by QMS. This detection implies that cyanide ion is formed and methylamine is also present on the surface of Charon and astrophysical environments where NH_3 is neighbouring a CH_4 molecule and exposed to $\text{Ly}\alpha$ photons. In this chapter, we will imply our experimental results into astrophysical environments. From our fitting results of CN^- , we may explain the non-detection of methylamine in hot core regions. We varied the relative proportion of CH_4 and NH_3 in ice mixtures and can make some comments on cyanide ion formed on surface of Charon. Finally, by changing photon sources, we may discuss the impacts of difference photon sources on production of cyanide ions.

4.1 Methylamine and Cyanide ion

Detectable methylamine was identified during our warmup phases. Since the mid-UV bands of methylamine overlaps with methane and ammonia, the rotational diagram method is applied to detect the methylamine in hot cores by Ligterink et al. (2015)[31]. From equation 2.9, we can determine the column density of methylamine by the initial CH_4 or NH_3 concentration with values of k_2 and k_1 . Our fitting results of CN^- matches the non-detection of methylamine in a wide variety of hot cores (10 hot cores except Sgr B2) by Ligterink since our k_2 is much larger than k_1 . Inserting all values into the equation shows that the concentration of methylamine is less than 1 in all our four configurations, within the upper limit of the 10 hot cores studied by Ligterink et al. (2015)[31]. The exact con-

centration of methylamine detected during our warmup phase requires calibration of QMS and this will be our the future tasks.

From the results of Kim and Kaiser (2011)[1], we calculated the column density upon their 90 minutes irradiation. The 5.27×10^{10} molecules cm^{-1} is also way below the upper limit of Ligterink et al. (2015)[31]. With this low column density, the non-detection is expectable.

4.2 The destruction of methane and ammonia by photon sources and electrons

In order to make comparison on different energy sources, including EUV, VUV and energetic (5 keV) electrons, we have to compare the destructive cross-sections of these sources before investigating their corresponding production yields in CN^- .

In electron irradiation experiments of Kim and Kaiser (2011)[1], the energy transferred to $\text{CH}_4 + \text{NH}_3$ ice mixtures is by linear electron transfer (LET) of 3.1 keV μm^{-1} , in the order of magnitude of the MeV cosmic rays typically transferred to the ice samples. Their dose reached 1.3 eV molecule $^{-1}$ in 90 minutes with about 610 ML of CH_4 and 260 ML of NH_3 .

The percentage of photons absorbed by CH_4 and NH_3 ice mixtures under VUV irradiation is calculated by substituting cross-sections measured by Cruz-Diaz et al. (2014) [26] and the VUV intensity spectrum of our MDHL into Beer's law. $\text{CH}_4:\text{NH}_3 = 3:2$ ice mixtures can absorb more than 99 % of light when thickness of NH_3 equals 600 ML (figure 4.1). Therefore, we may assume all the irradiated light is absorbed by the ice. For $\text{CH}_4:\text{NH}_3 = 3:2$ ice mixture, around 9×10^{17} photons are irradiated in 270 minutes.

Regarding EUV irradiations, since there are no suitable windows (used for cutting off higher order lights) to measure the absorption of ices, it is impossible to obtain absorption cross-sections right now. From figure 3.14, we obtain the destructive cross-sections of EUV to VUV photons. The CH_4 destruction by EUV photons is 6.06 ± 0.07 times lower

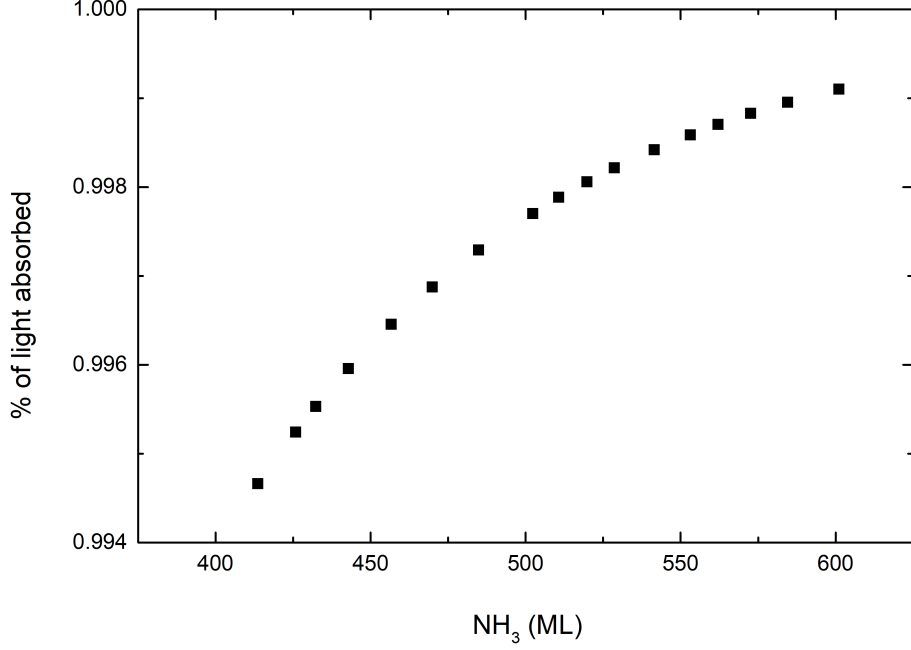


Figure 4.1: The calculated percentage of VUV irradiation absorbed by different thickness of CH₄ to NH₃ = 3:2 ice mixtures.

than VUV irradiation. From the Grundy et al.(2016)[3], EUV irradiation (>12.4 eV) is $8.7 \times 10^7 \text{ eV cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at mean heliocentric distance (39 A.U.) of Charon whereas VUV irradiation (Ly- α photons) is $1.9 \times 10^9 \text{ eV cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$. Since VUV flux is one order of magnitude more intense than EUV fluxes and the CH₄ destruction is about 6 times higher than EUV irradiation, it is the main source causing the destruction of CH₄.

4.3 Cyanide ion produced by photon sources and electrons

Considering the ice mixtures in which CH₄ is dominated, the efficiencies in CN⁻ formation by electrons and VUV irradiations is calculated by the final column densities divided by the column densities of the limiting reactant. A fixed amount of CN⁻ is obtained after irradiations. In our MDHL experiments, we have 14.8 ML of CN⁻ obtained in (CH₄ = 900 ML, NH₃ = 600 ML) ice mixtures. Kim and Kaiser (2011) irradiated ice mixtures (CH₄ = 610 ML, NH₃ = 260 ML) and obtained 13 - 16 ML of CN⁻ adopting the CN⁻ absorption coefficient ($3.7 \times 10^{-18} \text{ cm molecule}^{-1}$) simulated by Georgieva et al. (2006)[32], which is 4.86 times

smaller than the absorption strength we adopted. We do not adopt the same absorption coefficient because the absorption strength is based on gas phase experiments and models. We adopted the absorption strength calculated by Noble et al. (2012) [16] based on experiments mixing CH₄ and NH₃ in room temperatures and deposited at 20 K. If they adopt the same absorption coefficient, the production yield of CN⁻ should be divided by 4.86. Therefore, regarding percentage of NH₃ (limiting reactant), Kim and Kaiser has 1 % yield where we have 2.47 % yield in relative proportion of CH₄:NH₃ = 3:2.

The depositing rates of CH₄ onto the surface of Charon, varies by the surface area below 25 K (see chapter 1 for details). **The arrival flux is 2 to 6 × 10²⁴ s⁻¹ simulated by Hoey et al. (2017)[9]. From calculation of Grundy et al. (2016), CH₄ do not acquire sufficient energy to escape Charon and after 7 hops, it arrives the surfaces below 25 K. In 1 pluto winter (130 earth years), around 110 to 330 ML of CH₄ will be deposited onto the pole areas (below 45 degree latitude).** Since Charon-pluto is a tidal locked relation, it is resonable to predict that one of the surface is with more CH₄ hitting rates and hence condenses more CH₄.

The experimental situation is ideal to apply on very thick ices, where photons or electrons can irradiate the surface without renewal since(covered by non-irradiated CH₄ ice) we have nearly 100 percent absorption in VUV photons(figure 4.1). Our experimental results can be applied to calculate the surface column densities of CN⁻ and C₂H₆ on Charon after the winter times. The ice would be further processed by EUV or other energetic energy sources when directly facing to the sun. Therefore, information of pre-irradiated ices during winter times is helpful to future studies, of which compositions are known for irradiation experiments by other energetic sources like electrons.

From our experiments, irradiation of 7.6×10^{17} VUV photons is the irradiations irradiated on Charon in about 0.5 Pluto year. As a result, under winter time, if we only consider VUV photon source, assuming ratio of CH₄ to NH₃ is 3:2, 1:5, 1:10 and 1:20, about 22.5, 36.6, 29.5 and

18.9 ML of CN^- will be formed during winter time respectively (figure 3.15).

4.4 Conclusion

Through investigating methane (CH_4) and ammonia (NH_3) ice mixtures, we better understood the followings relations: 1. The formation yield of cyanide ion (CN^-) is not proportional to the initial deposited methane when methane is dominating. However, the formation rate is proportional to its initial CH_4 to NH_3 ratios. The competition between CH_3 radicals (forming both CH_3NH_2 and C_2H_6) and NH_2 radicals (forming CH_3NH_2) results in the former result. 2. When VUV is replaced by 40.8 eV 30.4nm (40.8 eV) He II EUV irradiations, the destruction cross-section of CH_4 and NH_3 are reduced by 6.06 ± 0.07 and 3.19 ± 0.12 times respectively. The lower formation rate of CN^- in EUV irradiation by 3.06 to 4.13 times is mainly due to the reduced NH_3 destruction cross-sections. 3. The functional groups of residues obtained in CH_4 to $\text{NH}_3 = 3:2$ ice mixtures are similar to the laboratory made Titan tholins. 4. The formation of CN^- with different ratios of CH_4 to NH_3 ice mixtures provides valuable informations on the surface compositions of Charon after winter time.

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