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乙教授

中華民國一百零二年六月



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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. In the novel Lord of the Rings, the author named the path between hobbits as Mordor, which is also the name of the dark area on Pluto's moon, Charon. Recently, Mission New Horizons retrieved valuable data about Charon and Pluto. This thesis aims to explain the formation mechanisms of the red cap on the pole of Charon (fig. 1), especially during the long cold dark period, through observations in extreme ultra-violet (EUV) and vacuum ultra-violet (VUV) irradiation.

Composition of Charon

The main composition on the surface of Charon is H_2O . According to Infrared (IR) spectroscopy, it is a mixture of 90 % H₂O and 10 % tholin at millimetre depth. The second most dominant component is ammonia hydrate, which can be observed by earth-based telescopes (brown 2000, cook 2007). In far IR spectrum taken by LEISA camera on the New Horizons, concentrated ammonia is found on Organa crater (fig 2.) and throughout Charon (fig 3.) (Grundy 2016a). The third component which forms the dark red cap (tholin?) is cold-trapped methane from Pluto's atmosphere ejecta (Hoey 2017). The presence of nitrogen and other ejecta from Pluto are neglected in this thesis because according to the model of Hoey et al. (2017) (fig.4), during New horizons' approach, 98 % of the arrived ejecta is CH₄. Charon's atmospheric pressure is further constrained by New Horizons to be below 0.3 nano bars, which is 4×10^{-13} torr for all 14 atoms and molecules including CO, H₂, CH₄, Ne, Ar, etc. (fig. 5). CH₄ remains undetectable when we convert the momentum of CH₄ with 7 hops on the surface of Charon until deposited onto cold enough part is 1×10^{-11} Pa, which is 7.5×10^{-14} torr (Grundy



2016b).

VUV irradiation

Ly- α appears to be the largest source in the dark side of Charon, with attributions from both solar occultation (70 %) and resonance scattering by atomic hydrogen flow (30 %) in the solar system at flux 3.5×10^7 pho $tons cm^{-2} s^{-1}$ onto the winter pole of Charon (Grundy 2016b). The flux is 50 % larger than expected before Mission New Horizons (Gladstone 2015). CH₄ deposits at temperature below 25 K at pressure 7.4×10^{-14} torr. The time for depositing CH₄ is 2 times longer at the pole (130 earth years) than at 45 lattitude according to the thermal model of Grundy et al. (2016b) (fig 6). In order to understand the formation of tholin at different latitudes of Charon, we performed VUV irradiation on CH₄+NH₃ and CH₄+NH₃+H₂O experiments with different ratios (including 3:2, 1:5, 1:10 and 1:20 for CH_4+NH_3 and 5:3:4, 1:5:5 and 1:10:10 for CH₄+NH₃+H₂O ice mixtures) to simulate the conditions at different latitudes on Charon with base pressure $3times10^{-10}$ torr, simulating atmosphere on Charon at 15 K, which corresponds to temperature on Charon at winter times (Grundy 2016b) in interstellar processing system (IPS) (Chen 2014).

EUV irradiation

Apart from VUV irradiation, EUV irradiation also took part. VUV irradiation is believed to be the main process to convert CH₄ into heavier molecules which remained on the surface of Charon until the temperature of Charon become 60 K, at which methane evaporates from the ice. The ice is then further processed by EUV, solar wind, coronal mass ejections and interstellar pickup ions, etc to produce the tholin on Charon (Grundy 2016b). The EUV irradiation (>12.4 eV) is $8.7 \times 10^7 eV cm^{-2} s^{-1}$ at mean heliocentric distance 39 A.U. whereas VUV irradiation (Ly- α) is $1.9 \times 10^9 eV cm^{-2} s^{-1}$. In order to investigate the effectiveness of EUV to VUV irradiation, we kept temperature of CH₄+NH₃ (3:2 & 1:5) and CH₄+NH₃+H₂O (5:3:4) ice mixtures at 15 K and use the monochromatic 30.4 nm (He II) light provided by High flux beamline at National Synchrotron Radiation Research Centre (NSRRC) in Taiwan to irradiate the ice mixtures.

H_2O involved?

We compared the conditions of CH_4+NH_3 and $CH_4+NH_3+H_2O$ because tholin on Titan is believed to be formed by CH_4+N_2 and a similar colour was observed on Charon. Charon is different from Titan as H_2O dominates on Charon. What are the differences between tholin formed by CH_4+NH_3 and CH_4+N_2 ? What role does H_2O play on Charon in the formation of tholin? Is it just diluting the formation or new compounds are formed?

In this thesis, we will introduce the formation reaction mechanisms of CH_4+NH_3 ice mixtures in EUV and VUV irradiation (section 3), the formation reaction mechanisms of $CH_4+NH_3+H_2O$ ice mixtures in EUV and VUV irradiation (section 4), and the residues of these mixtures and a brief comparison with tholin on Titan will be made (section 5). With these results, we will have a better understanding about Charon and some astrophysical implications will be presented (section 6).





2. Methods

2.1 Laboratory Astrophysics

To study the chemical reactivity in astrophysical environment experimentally, we conducted our experiments in Interstellar photoprocessing system (IPS) (Chen et al. 2014), an ultrahigh vacuum chamber with base pressure 3×10^{-10} torr and 14 K, corresponds to a density of 10^6 cm⁻³, similar to dense cloud interiors. 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 to irradiate our ice mixtures, and they will be introduced in section 2.1.2 and 2.1.3 respectively. The experimental protocols will be elaborated in section 2.2. In order to better understand the physics behind, some basic theories of Infrared spectroscopy and concepts of chemical kinetics used in data analysis are included in section 2.3 and 2.4 respectively. To demonstrate the ice mixtures in KBOs, we used different configurations of ice mixtures that refers to different sections in chapter 3 and chapter 4.

2.1.1 Experimental simulations by IPS system

We conducted our astrophysical simulations studied in chapter 3 to 4 in Interstellar Photo Processing System (IPS) (figure 2.1). IPS consists in 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.

The main system consists of an ultrahigh vacuum chamber equipped with a closed-cycle helium cryostat (CTI-M350). It is pumped by a turbo molecular pump (KTKT FF - 160/620ZE, capacity 600 liters s⁻¹), which is backed up by a scroll pump, and a non –evaporation get-





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

ter pump. The getter pump is a powerful tool to adsorb residue gases inside the main chamber, with a larger surface area, $\rm H_2$, CO and $\rm N_2$ are adsorbed to obtain a better base pressure. After baking, the base pressure of our main chamber can reach 1×10^{-10} torr at 14 K, monitored by a Granville-Phillips 370 Stabil-Ion gauge. This pressure can be used to demonstrate the dense cloud interior environments and star forming region. The substrate we have chosen is KBr, which can allow infra-red photons with 700 to 4000 cm^{-1} to penetrate. It is mounted by substrate holder made of oxygen-free copper, on the first stage of cold finger mounted on the tip of cryostat. Two silicon diodes and also a heater were placed onto the cold finger and one of the silicon diodes is near the substrate holder. They were connected to a temperature controller and PID system to achieve a warmup rate of 1K/min with an accuracy of 0.1 K.

The detection system consists in a mid-infrared Fourier transform spectrometer (mid-FTIR) (ABB FTLA2000-104) and a Quadrupole Mass Spectrometer (QMS). To prevent absorption bands of CO, CO₂ and H₂O gas in the atmosphere, the IR beam path was built inside vacuum, pumped by dry pump. The main chamber and the IR path are separated by ZnSe windows, which can allow infra-red penetration from 0.5 - 20 um with absorption less than 0.07 %. 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 run with a resolution 0.5 a.m.u. The Ionizer release 70 eV electron by filament and ionize incoming molecules to positive charged ions between anode grid and repeller. The ions were 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 dynode electron multiplier (CDEM) which can secondary multiply weak signals.



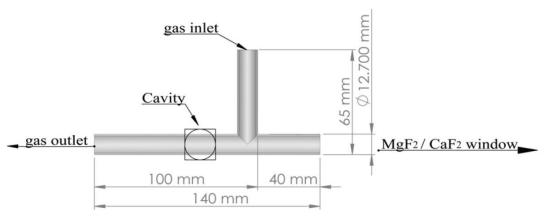


Figure 2.2: The cross-section of MDHL (T-type geometry) (Quoted from Chen et al. 2014).

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 99.999~% are mixed with partial pressure measured by a Baratron with 0 - 100 torr range with a 0.25

2.1.2 Vacuum-UV source

In order to simulate the photoprocessing of vacuum ultraviolet (VUV) irradiation onto the interstellar ices and ices on planetary bodies, including KBOs, the ice mixtures are irradiated with a T-type Microwave-Discharged Hydrogen-flow lamp (MDHL). The molecular hydrogen with pressure 0.4 torr flows through the lamp with a support of a mechanical pump. Using a 2.4 GHz microwave generator and high voltage discharge, a low pressure plasma is produced in the Evenson cavity. Figure 2.2 shows a cross-section of T-type quartz tube; the middle part of the T-type quartz tube is being tunned by a ceramic rod that is called 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 sample holder to prevent penetration of VUV photons with wavelength shorter than 114nm, leads to a cut off at 114nm. Figure 2.3 shows a VUV emission spectrum of a MDHL. It consists in Ly- α (121.6nm) and H₂ molecular emission in 110-180 nm

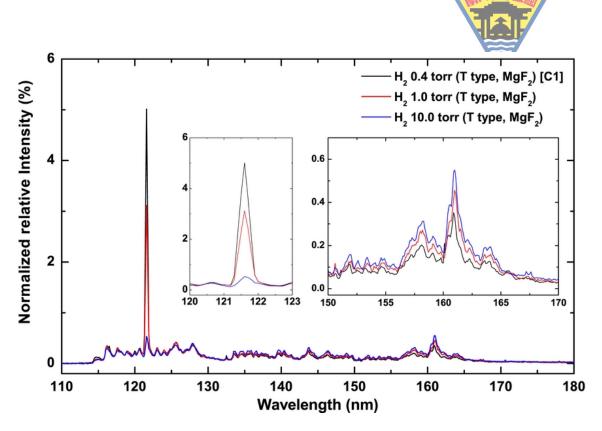


Figure 2.3: VUV spectra of MDHL (T-type geometry, 110-180 nm) with different H₂ pressure inside the lamp(Quoted from Chen et al. 2014).

range. Chen et al. (2014) showed that the spectral characteristics of the VUV light emitted in this range depends on the gas type (mixture of H_2 with He or Ar etc), pressure of H_2 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 and a mean photon energy of 9.27 eV. The photon flux is 6.4×10^{13} photons $cm^{-2}s^{-1}$ at sample position.

2.1.3 Extreme EUV source

To simulate the solar EUV irradiation reflected by IPM 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 He II line (30.4nm) with a six-meter cylindrical grating monochrometer with an incident angle of 70 degrees. With the help of a movable entrance slit and movable curved exit slit, the energy resolving power can reach around 3×10^4 at 40 eV for grating 1600 l/mm with both slits movable and set opening to

 $10~\mu m$ (Hsieh 1998). Similar to VUV irradiation provided by MDHL, the light intensity was 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 is measured to be 2.15×10^{14} photons $s^{-1}cm^{-2}$ with a spot size of 1 cm

2.2 Experimental Protocol

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

Preparation of experiments and cooling

Before any of experiment is done, we bake our system at 100 oC for 48 hours to reduce the contamination of water and residue gases as much as possible. It was cooled to room temperature that the background pressure can reach routinely at 1×10^{-10} torr. The gasline were connected with the regulators of the gas tanks and bake to 100 °C and pumped by molecularturbo pump for two days before any experiment were done. Also, The water sample has been freeze thaw several times by liquid nitrogen until there is no pressure increase recorded by baratron when water is freezed. Before cooling the substrate to cryogenic temperature, we took an IR spectrum and started 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 thanks to the closed-cycle He cryostat.

Deposition

The gas mixtures are pre-mixed in our gasline system introduced in section 2.1.1. We used a leak valve to condense the gas from the stainless steel bottles onto pre-cooled KBr substrate at 14 K, which monitored by Fourier transformed Infra-red spectroscopy (FTIR) and Quadrupole mass spectrometer (QMS) during deposition. The pressure of deposition is fixed to 1×10^{-8} torr that the deposition rate is $4 \times 10^{16} moleculescm^{-2} min^{-1}$. After deposition, we placed the ice mixture at 14 K for 60 minutes and to allow pumping of residue gas, until

pressure of the main chamber reduce back to its base pressure to simulate the interstellar environment before irradiation.

Photon Irradiation

The total irradiation time is 270 to 450 minutes depend on experiment configurations; with time intervals varies from 2 to 30 minutes. After each irradiation, we waited for 10 minutes allowing pumping out of the photodesorpted gas molecules. During irradiation, the photon flux is monitored by a nickel mesh. After Irradiation, we place the sample for 30 minutes to observe if any thermal reaction was conducted.

Warmup

We use 1 K/min to warmup the substrate to 300 K to demonstrate effects of a new born star nearby an interstellar cloud. During warmup, we record the QMS from 1 to 100 a.m.u. to observe if there are low quantity of higher mass product formed during irradiation.

2.3 Infra-red spectroscopy and the Beer's Law

We used infra-red spectroscopy extensively in chapter 3 and 4, it is a powerful tool in studying molecular interactions during irradiation and warmup. We choose infra-red rather than Ramen spectroscopy because infra-red has lower energy that it would not change the structure of the ice mixture nor breaking any of the bonds. With different vibration modes, the energy absorbed by molecules are quantized. With the energy of absorption bands in infra-red spectrum, we may identify the functional group of the species. To simply classify, molecules can have, from less energetic, translational, rotational and vibrational motions. Generally, vibrational motions can be divided into stretching and bending. Stretching needs more energy than bending. For stretching, there exist Symmetric and Asymmetric stretching, while bending can be divided into In-plane Scissoring, rocking and out of plane Wagging and Twisting (Figure 2.4).

By Beer's Law, we may calculate the column density of the molecule



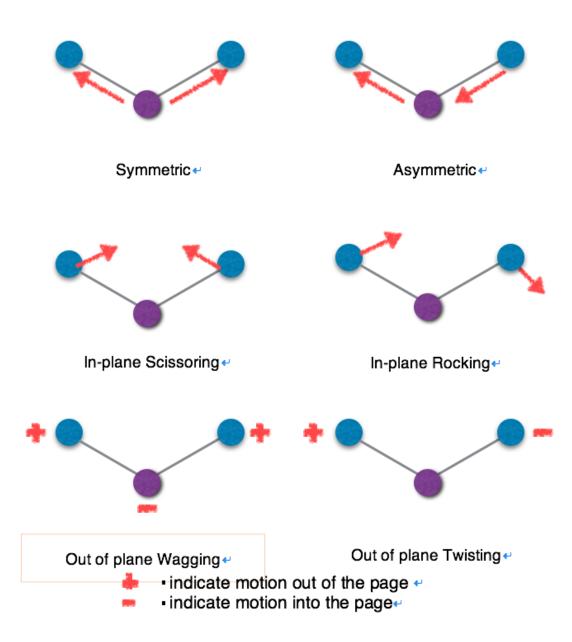


Figure 2.4: Different vibrational modes of a three atom molecule.

with its functional groups, which are used to plot figures in chapter 3 and 4. Beer Lambert's Law suggest that when light passes through a medium, amount of light absorbed is proportional to density and path length of the medium. Assume the 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.

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

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

$$a(\nu) = -\ln T(\nu) = -\ln \frac{I(\nu)}{I_0(\nu)} = nl\sigma(\nu)$$
 (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 mixture in our thesis are at 14K, the peaks of absorbance are often a broadband due to coupling between neighbor molecules. Therefore, we can integrate the whole band of the peak equation 2.2 with respect to frequency and use the absorbance strength (A value) in literatures to calculate the column densities N of the ices by equation 2.3.

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

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

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 used to fit our reaction product against irradiation time. The rate of a chemical reaction is the relation between change in concentration of a substance per unit of time. i.e. For a balanced chemical reaction, $A \rightarrow 2B$, the rate of

reaction is $-\frac{\Delta[A]}{\Delta t}$. The formation rate of B is 2 times destruction rate of A.

When there are two reactants, with balanced equation $2A + B \rightarrow 2C$. The reaction is a third order overall, second order in A and first order in B. rate $= k[A]^2[B]$.

To determine the order of a reaction, we can only determine it experimentally. One way is method of initial rates. By changing concentration of initial reactants, and find out the initial reaction rate, we may find out the relation between two reactants and the rate. i.e. rate $= k[A]^x[B]^y$. For a reaction with only one reactant [R], we may use the relation between time and reactant concentration to plot graphs to find out the order or reaction. For a zero order reaction, the rate is not depending on any reactant that it is a constant. The rate $= -\frac{\Delta[R]}{\Delta t} = k[R]^0$. By calculus, $[R]_0 - [R]_t = kt$.

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

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

Hence, if we get a straight line in a plot between time as x-axis, and the concentration of reactant as y axis, it is a zeroth order reaction, similarly, in first order reactions, we get straight line in plots between ln[R] as y axis and t in x axis.

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

For a consecutive reaction, where $A \to B \to C$ that the produced product will not convert back as reactant. A simple example is radioactive decay. At t = 0, $[A] = [A]_0$, [B] = 0, [C] = 0 and at all times, $[A] + [B] + [C] = [A]_0$. The rate equations are as follows:

$$-\frac{\Delta[A]}{\Delta t} = k_1[A] \tag{2.4}$$



$$-\frac{\Delta[B]}{\Delta t} = k_1[A] - k_2[B] \tag{2.5}$$

$$-\frac{\Delta[C]}{\Delta t} = k_2[B] \tag{2.6}$$

By equation 2.4, we get

$$[A] = [A]_0 e^{-k_1 t} (2.7)$$

By substituting equation 2.7 into equation 2.5, we get

$$-\frac{\Delta[B]}{\Delta t} + k_2[B] = k_1[A]_0 e^{-k_1 t}$$
 (2.8)

After solving the differential equation 2.8, we get

$$[B] = \frac{k_1}{k_2 - k_1} (e^{-k_1 t} - e^{-k_2 t}) [A]_0$$
 (2.9)

Finally, since $[C] = [A]_0 - [B] - [A]$, by equation 2.7 and 2.9, we get

$$[C] = \left(1 + \frac{k_1 e^{-k_2 t} - k_2 e^{-k_1 t}}{k_2 - k_1}\right) [A]_0 \tag{2.10}$$





3. Results and Discussions

According to Grundy et al. (2016), CH₄ from Pluto may accumulate by cold-trapping, onto surface of Charon. The amount of CH₄ varies throughout the surface of Charon because it depends on duration of temperature below 25 K. The duration depends on diurnal motion and thermal inertia of Charon. With a tilted axis of 112 degrees to the ecliptic, higher concentration of CH₄ will accumulate at the pole (see chapter 1 for details). Therefore, we investigate different concentrations of CH₄+NH₃ ice mixtures and answer several questions: Will different concentration of CH₄ mix with high concentration of ammonia observed on crater position and throughout the surface of Charon (Grundy et al. 2016) have structure difference in accumulation of tholin? Are there variations of photo-products when concentration of CH₄ differ during warm-up? Since both EUV and VUV irradiation irradiates onto Charon, are there any differences when we change the photon source from VUV to EUV to irradiate the ice mixtures?

The main source to irradiate the dark side of Charon is Ly α reflected by interplanetary medium (Grundy 2016). Other sources such as the energetic ions in solar wind, consists of mainly H⁺, He⁺, He⁺⁺ and O²⁺ etc are originated from solar corona or IPM. These ions would also reflect solar irradiation to the dark side of Charon. Among these irradiations, we picked He II irradiation because He II is 3 – 20 times more intense then He I during a solar flare. As it varies, it is difficult to estimate the dose onto Charon. Besides, electronic flux is also present in solar wind but it is one order of magnitude lower than proton flux. The flux for energetic electrons observed at the 1 A. U. position is available (http://www.swpc.noaa.gov/products/goes-electron-flux). Although electron flux is much less important than Ly α , and their flux

varies, we also compare the electron irradiation experiment done by Kim and Kaiser (2011) on CH_4+NH_3 ice mixtures in this chapter.

When Charon is shine by direct sun light, the surface temperature increases and deliver the heat to the poles by conduction. From the model of Grundy et al. (2016), the surface temperature of the pole area would increase to 60 K that the heating rate depends on the thermal conductivity of Charon. To demonstrate the heating process, we warmup our ice mixture with a heating rate 1 K/min and monitor the ice by both QMS and scanning IR spectra with 5 K intervals. We will look into whether there are new species formed during warmup and monitor the gas phase desorption.

Finally, in this chapter, after we focus on the concentration effect of CH₄ on photo-products, photon energy effects, species detected during warmup phases, we present the residues accumulated by irradiating CH₄+NH₃ ice mixtures with different ratios. Since both tholin formed on Titan and Charon has similar colour, we also compare the IR spectra of MDHL, NSRRC with different configurations with the residues on Titan with experiments done by Imanaka et al.

3.1 The infra-red spectrums and peaks identification

Before and after deposition, we scanned an IR spectrum and plotted the absorbance of the ice mixtures. Figure 3.1 is a plot of the absorbance of the CH_4+NH_3 ice mixtures in different ratios of CH_4+NH_3 ice mixtures, from top to bottom 1:20, 1:10, 1:5 and 3:2. We have labelled the peaks which we used to calculate the column densities by dotted lines throughout the graph. Main products we have detected are C_2H_6 , CN^- and C_3H_8 . The peak positions with the references are listed in Table 3.1.

We integrated the area and divided by the absorption strength stated in table 3.2. Although we understand that there is an average error in absorption strengths of no more than 10 % when the pure ice is diluted in N_2 and H_2O (Richey and Gerakines 2012). In our case,



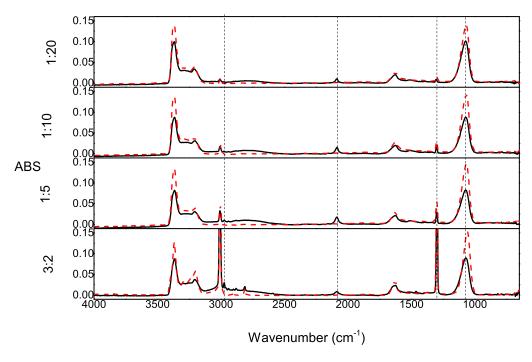


Figure 3.1: The the infra-red spectrum of $\mathrm{CH_4} + \mathrm{NH_3}$ ice mixtures before irradiation (dashed) and VUV irradiated ice mixtures provided by MDHL.

Table 3.1: The peak positions of identified substances after irradiation in different configurations of ice mixtures.

Literture assignments		$\mathrm{CH_4} + \mathrm{NH_3}$ ratio (MDHL)				
Wavenumber	Carrier	1:5	1:10	1:20	3:2	Ref.
(cm^{-1})		$({\rm cm}^{-1})$	$({\rm cm}^{-1})$	$({\rm cm}^{-1})$	$({\rm cm}^{-1})$	
3375	$\nu_3 (\mathrm{NH_3})$	3366	3366	3369	3367	1
3290	$2\nu_4 \text{ (NH}_3)$	-	-	-	-	1
3210	$\nu_1 \left(\mathrm{NH_3} \right)$	3207	3208	3210	3205	1
3011	$\nu_3 (\mathrm{CH_4})$	-	-	-	-	2
2972	$\nu_{10} \left(\mathrm{C_2H_6} \right)$	2975	-	-	2975	3
2960	C_3H_8	-	-	-	2960	7
2941	$\nu_8 + \nu_1 1 (C_2 H_6)$	2940	-	-	2940	3
2904	$\nu_1 (\mathrm{CH_4})$	2901	-	-	2901	5
2879	$\nu_5 ({ m C}_2 { m H}_6)$	2882	2883	-	2882	3
2814	$\nu_2 + \nu_4 (\text{CH}_4)$	-	-	-	2815	5
2083	$\nu (\mathrm{CN^{-}})$	2088	2087	2088	2088	2
1625	$\nu_4 (\mathrm{NH_3})$	1625	1625	1626	1631	1
1514	$\delta (\mathrm{NH_2})$	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	$\nu_4 (\mathrm{CH_4})$	1301	1302	1305	1299	2
1075	$\nu_2 (\mathrm{NH_3})$	1073	1072	1072	1072	1
820	$\nu_1 2 (C_2 H_6)$	-	-	-	820	3

Reference: 1. Bossa et al 2008 2. Moore and Hudson 2003 3. Kim et al. 2010 4. Socrates 2001 5. Bennet and Kaiser 2007 6. Zheng et al. 2008 7. Hudson and Moore 2004

absorption strengths changes after $\mathrm{CH_4}$ and $\mathrm{NH_3}$ are mixed. For example, according to d' Hendecourt and Allamandola (1986), the band of $\mathrm{NH_3}$ located at 1070 cm⁻¹ would not change much (from 1.1×10^{-17} to 1.2×10^{-17}) when excess water is added to pure $\mathrm{NH_3}$ and therefore, we may use the same absorption strength throughout our discussion to give a brief concept on what is the column density of the species and how is the absorption area changes when concentrations of ice mixtures and photon energy are changed. For the case of $\mathrm{CN^-}$, we know that $\mathrm{CN^-}$ has a bond order =3 by its molecular orbitals which is different from CN stretching (bond order 2.5) which is very sensitive to the matrix environment. As an example, by Borget et al. (2012), the CN stretch in amino acetonitrile change by factor of 2 between the pure molecule itself and in a mixture of amino acetonitrile and $\mathrm{H_2O}$ (1:3). Here, we adopt the absorption strengths stated in Table 3.2 and neglect the error in absorption strengths.

Table 3.2: 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_2H_6	-CH ₃	-	1.05	2
2960	C_3H_8	$-\mathrm{CH}_2$ -	-	2.58	2
2086	CN^-	CN	-	1.8	3
1297	CH_4	CH deformation	8	0.61	1
1070	NH_3	"umbrella mode"	68	1.7	1

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

3.2 Reaction mechanisms

$3.2.1 \quad C_2H_6$

The assignment of C_2H_6 is confirmed by several bands listed in table 3.1. Figure 3.2 is a partial of figure 3.1. The absorption peak located at 2075 cm⁻¹ is the strongest vibration of C_2H_6 . The formation mechanism of C_2H_6 in astrophysical environment is proposed by Bennet et al. (2006), that the main route to form C_2H_6 is by a combination of 2 CH₃ radicals (equation 3.1 and 3.2):

$$CH_4 + hv \rightarrow CH_3$$
 (3.1)



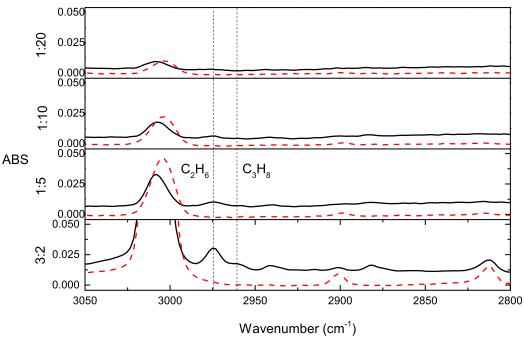


Figure 3.2: The the infra-red spectrum of $CH_4 + NH_3$ ice mixtures of C_2H_6 and C_3H_8 before irradiation (dashed) and VUV irradiated ice mixtures provided by MDHL.

$$2CH_3 \to C_2H_6 \tag{3.2}$$

The energy required to produce 1 $\rm CH_3$ radical from CH4 is 4.42 eV. 2 $\rm CH_3$ radicals recombine to form $\rm C_2H_6$ releases 3.74 eV. Therefore, equation 3.2 is a no-barrier exothermic process. However, $\rm C_2H_6$ is not detected in $\rm CH_4+NH_3=1:20$ ice mixtures. Figure 3.3 shows the temporal formation column density of $\rm C_2H_6$ in different configurations of irradiated ice mixtures. As the formation only depends on $\rm CH_4$, we may use first order kinetics equation to fit the column density versus photon dose.

$$[A] = [A]_0 (1 - e^{-k_1 t}) (3.3)$$

to fit the formation of C_2H_6 . The fitting results are shown in table 3.3.

Table 3.3: The fitting results of C_2H_6 by $[C_2H_6]=[C_2H_6](1-e^{-k_1t})$

Ratio of CH ₄ +NH ₃	A $(x10^{15} \text{ molecules cm}^{-2})$	$k (x10^{-17} \text{ photon}^{-1})$
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

From table 3.3, production rate is also proportional to the initial

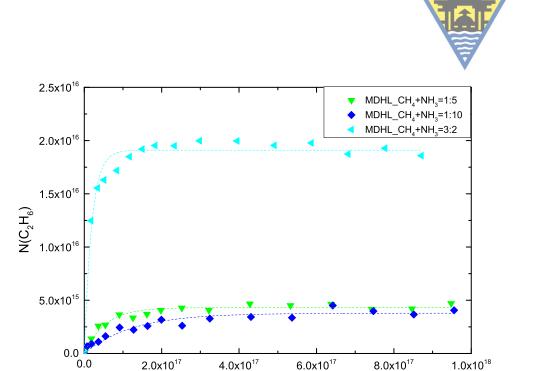


Figure 3.3: The column density of C2H6 during CH4 + NH3 ice mixtures irradiated by MDHL. CH₄ concentration.

photo dose (photons cm⁻²)

$3.2.2 \quad C_3H_8$

The peak positioned at 2960 cm⁻¹ belongs to $-CH_2$ - so we assigned that as C_3H_8 , as the shortest carbon chain. The signal to noise ratio in $CH_4+NH_3=1:10$ is poor that we can not quantize the amount of C_3H_8 (figure 3.2).

It is a secondary product formed by a combination of either $C_2H_6 + CH_2$ (equation 3.4)or $C_2H_4 + CH_4$ (equation 3.5).

$$C_2H_6 + CH_2 \to C_3H_8$$
 (3.4)

$$C_2H_4 + CH_4 \to C_3H_8$$
 (3.5)

By modern peak fitting method, we deconvoluted the overlapped C_2H_6 and C_3H_8 into two gaussians.

3.2.3 CN⁻

From infra-red absorption spectrum (figure 3.4) and their positions, we assigned the peak $2086~\rm cm^{-1}$ to $\rm CN^-$ but not a combination of HCN and $\rm CN^-$. The assignment is based on a absence in CN bending mode at

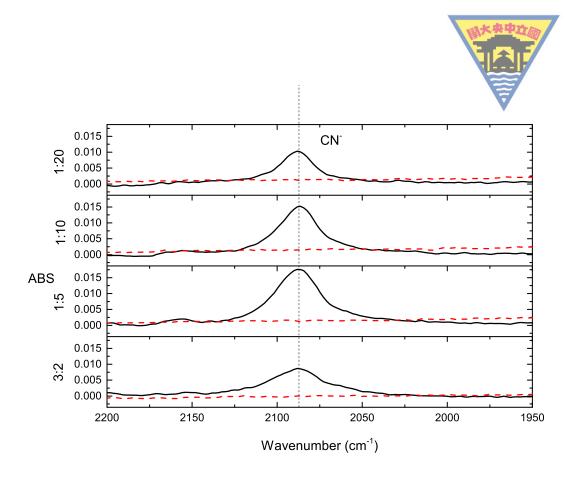


Figure 3.4: The the infra-red spectrum of $CH_4 + NH_3$ ice mixtures of C_2H_6 and C_3H_8 before irradiation (dashed) and VUV irradiated ice mixtures provided by MDHL.

848 cm⁻¹. In the case $CH_4 + NH_3 = 3:2$, we may observe a peak located at 820 cm⁻¹, which is with a FWHM half 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 the close to v12 mode of C_2H_6 , we believe that the 820 cm⁻¹ peak is contributed by C_2H_6 . Therefore, we may assign our peak located at 2086 cm⁻¹ as purely CN^- .

The formation mechanism of CN⁻ at low temperature was first suggested by Kim and Kaiser (2011) to be two step reaction mechanism with methylamine as intermediate. CH₄ and NH₃ irradiated by photon to become CH₃ and NH₂ radical (figure ??, followed by propagation and recombination of radicals becoming CH₃NH₂ and dehydrogenation and acid-base reaction to form CN⁻. Although Kim and Kaiser used 1.5keV electron as energy source to simulate the cosmic ray induced photochemistry, this formation mechanism also applies in our photon irradiation experiments because we can also detect the methylamine



Α

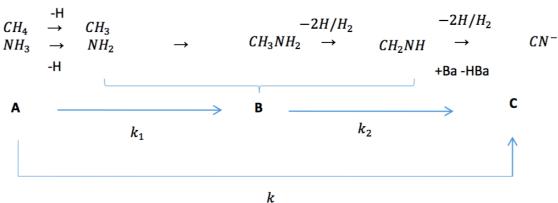


Figure 3.5: The formation mechanism of CN⁻ proposed by Kim and Kaiser(2011).

during our warm-up phase. The ion fragment with m/z=31 is assigned as $CH_3NH_2^+$ and detectable in all ratios of our CH_4+NH_3 experiments (figure ??).

By the deviation performed in section 2.4, we have a rate equation for consecutive reactions 2.10. With one of the reactant larger than another, we applied the pseudo first order assumption. With equation 2.10, we fitted the formation of CN^- (figure 3.7) and found that one of the rate constant is always larger than the other in all of the ratios. The fitting results are averaged by more than two experiments and are shown in table 3.4. The results of Kim and Kaiser is also listed into the table, they could observe a two-step reaction mechanism in production of CN^- in CH4+NH3 (3:1) experiments with electron current 0.1 μ A. However, when they increased the electron flux to 1 μ A for irradiation $C_nH_{2n+2(n=1-6)}$ and NH_3 ice mixtures, they also observed a one-step reaction mechanism.

Table 3.4: The fitting results of CN⁻ by equation 2.10

Table 5.1. The houng results of Civ by equation 2.10				
Ratio of CH ₄ +NH ₃	A $(x10^{16} \text{ molecules cm}^{-2})$	$k_1 (x10^{-18} \text{ photon}^{-1})$	$k_2 \text{ (photon}^{-1})$	
1:20	4.75 ± 0.40	0.70 ± 0.09	>1	
1:10	4.51 ± 0.18	1.33 ± 0.13	>1	
1:5	4.61 ± 0.18	1.93 ± 0.19	>1	
3:2	2.24 ± 0.03	8.21 ± 0.70	>1	

represents the amount of CN⁻ we may obtain when irradiated the ice for infinitely long.



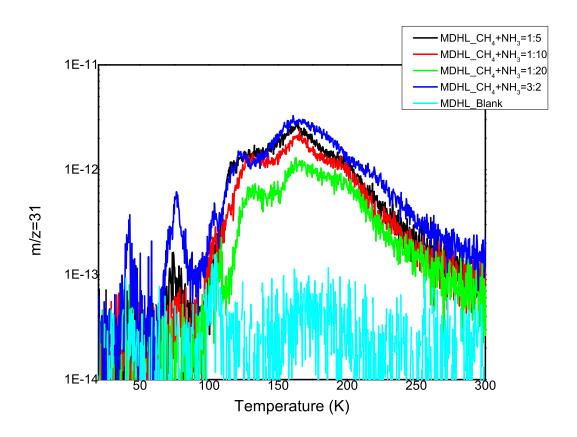


Figure 3.6: The m/z=31 detected by QMS during warm-up with heating rate 1 K/min in different configurations of ice mixtures.

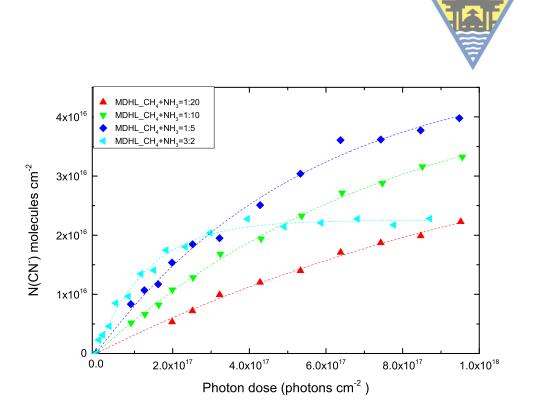


Figure 3.7: The column density of CN^- accumulated when different configurations of $CH_4 + NH_3$ ice mixtures are irradiated by VUV photons provided by MDHL. The dotted lines are fits of column densities by equation 2.10.

3.3 The Concentration Effect in formation of Cyanide ions and Ethane

3.3.1 Cyanide ion

From table 3.4, we may see that the rate k_1 is proportional to the concentration of CH_4 . The rate constant k_1 increases when concentration of CH_4 increases. Since NH_3 is fixed in all of our experiments, more CH_4 are evolved into CH_3 radical formation when proportion of CH_4 in the ice mixture increases. More abundant CH_3 radicals in the ice mixtures would produce more CH_3NH_2 intermediates.

In $CH_4+NH_3=3:2$ ice mixtures, A is half of the other ratios. The reduction is mainly because CN^- has a competing relationship with formation of C_2H_6 and C_3H_8 . NH_2 radicals competes with CH_2 , CH_3 and C_2H_4 radicals. With this competition, the intermediate CH_3NH_2 is reduced. Therefore, in ratio 3:2 CH_4+NH_3 ice mixture, the yield of CN^- is the least(table 3.4). Note that the formation yield of C2H6 is the maximum in this ratio (table 3.3)

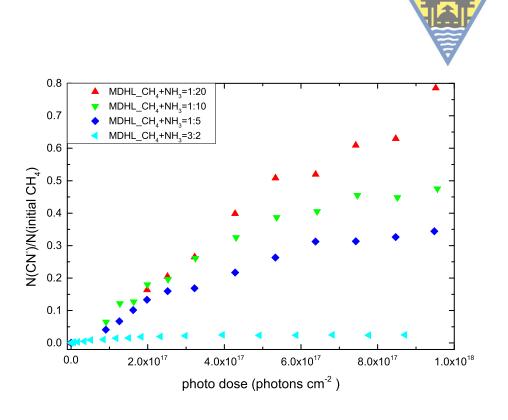


Figure 3.8: The column density of CN^- divided by initial CH_4 accumulated when different configurations of $CH_4 + NH_3$ ice mixtures are irradiated by VUV photons provided by MDHL.

Considering the normalized CN⁻ with respect to the initial CH₄(figure 3.8), the formation of CN⁻ is more effective in low CH₄ concentration ice mixtures. The mobile CH₃ radical is aggregated by excess NH₃. In this situation, CH₃ radicals have less chance to meet another CH₃ radical or C₂H₄. It is more likely to react with NH₂ radicals so the formation of CN⁻ in low CH₄ concentration ice mixtures are more efficient.

3.3.2 Ethane

Considering the case of ratio of CN⁻ divided by C₂H₆, the formation of CN⁻ in ice mixtures with diluted CH₄ has more CN⁻ formed then C₂H₆. It is because ice mixtures with with higher concentrations in CH₄ is more effective for one CH₃ radical to combine with another CH₃ radical. On the contrast, CH₃ radicals formed in the ice mixtures with diluted CH₄ concentrations are aggregated by NH₃. Therefore, CN⁻ is less efficient to form in ice mixtures with excess NH₃.



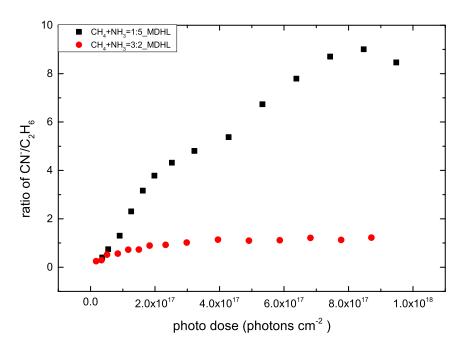


Figure 3.9: The column density of CN^- divided by C_2H_6 accumulated when different configurations of $CH_4 + NH_3$ ice mixtures are irradiated by VUV photons provided by MDHL.

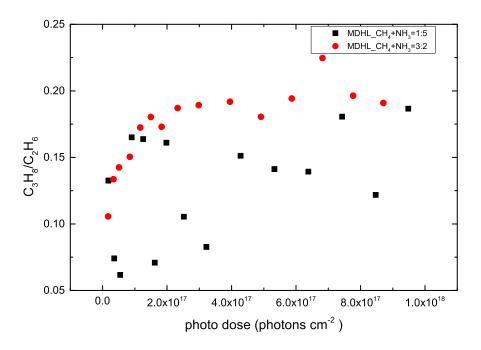


Figure 3.10: The column density of C_3H_8 divided by C_2H_6 accumulated when different configurations of $CH_4 + NH_3$ ice mixtures are irradiated by VUV photons provided by MDHL.



3.3.3 Propane

 C_3H_8 forms based on to the C_2H_6 3.11 is the plot with column densities of C_2H_6 divided by C_3H_8 . We may see that the ratio in CH_4+NH_3 =1:5 experiment is around 6 where CH_4+NH_3 =3:2 is around 3. This shows that the amount of C_3H_8 in CH_4+NH_3 =3:2 experiment is higher. It is rather difficult for C_3H_8 to form in CH_4+NH_3 = 1:5 experiments because NH_3 aggregated them. The formation of C_3H_8 in CH_4+NH_3 =1:5 and 3:2 experiments has given a reasonable explanation about why C_2H_6 formation is most efficient in CH_4+NH_3 =1:10 experiments.

3.4 Cyanide ion produced by photon source and electron source

We study the ice mixtures of CH₃ dominated ice mixtures and compare the efficencies in CN

We calculated the percentage of photons absorbed by $\mathrm{CH_4+NH_3}$ ice mixtures in different configurations. Applying cross-sections measured by Cruz-Diaz et al. (2014) and the spectrum of our MDHL and substitute them into Beer's law. In $\mathrm{CH_4+NH_3}=3:2$ ice mixtures with ammonia fixed at 600 ML can absorb more than 99.9 % of light. Therefore, we may assume all the irradiated light is absorbed by the ice. For $\mathrm{CH_4+NH_3}=3:2$ ice mixture, around 9 \times 10¹⁷ photons were irradiated in 270 minutes.

In Kim and Kaiser (2011) electron irradiation experiments, the energy transferred to $CH_4 + NH_3$ ice mixtures is by linear electron transfer (LET) that 1.3 eV molecule⁻¹ was absorbed by the ice in 90 minutes. They get flattened at 20 minutes' irradiation, with fluence of 2.0×10^{14} electrons cm⁻². While we got flattened at a dose of 3×10^{17} photons cm⁻². Considering the energy of their electron (1.5 keV) and energy of our photons, they got flattened at 3×10^{17} eV cm⁻² while we get flattened at 27.81×10^{17} eV cm⁻². Comparing these energy doses, less electrons are needed to flatten the formation of CN^- .

Comparing our $\rm CN^-$ obtained after infinitely long exposure, 13 – 16 ML of $\rm CN^-$ was obtained by electron irradiation depending on which equation they choose to fit. In our MDHL experiments, we have 14.8 ML



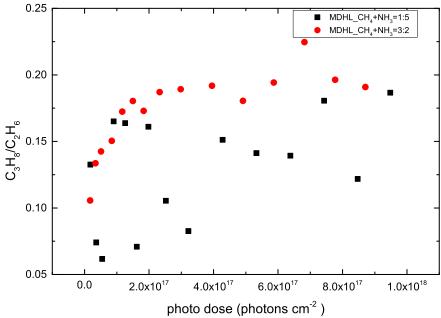


Figure 3.11: The column density of C_3H_8 divided by C_2H_6 accumulated when different configurations of $CH_4 + NH_3$ ice mixtures are irradiated by VUV photons provided by MDHL.

of CN⁻. However, Kim and Kaiser (2011) adopted the CN⁻ absorption coefficient measured by Georgieva and Velcheva (2006) to be 3.7 x 10⁻¹⁸ cm molecule⁻¹, which is 4.86 times smaller. We do not adopt this absorption coefficient because it violates the carbon balance that number of CN⁻ produced will be larger than CH₄ consumption. If we adopted the same absorption coefficient, the production yield of CN⁻ should be multiplied by 4.86. Therefore, our yield is 72 ML of CN⁻. Regarding percentage of NH₃ (limiting reactant), Kim and Kaiser has 5 - 6 % yield where we have 12 % yield if we adopted the same absorption coefficients. To conclude, electron irradiation has a smaller absorption cross-sections, the percentage of yield is also smaller than VUV irradiated ice mixtures with similar ice thicknesses.



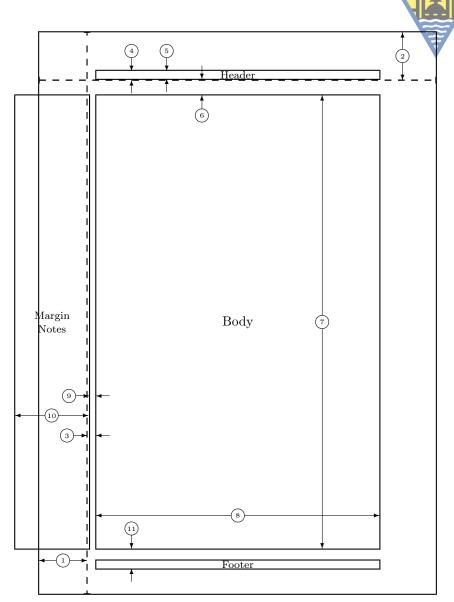
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