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Russell W. Saunders, John M.C. Plane. A Photo-Chemical Method for the Production of Olivine Nanoparticles as Cosmic Dust Analogues. *Icarus*, 2011, 212 (1), pp.373. 10.1016/j.icarus.2010.12.019 . hal-00725406

HAL Id: hal-00725406

<https://hal.science/hal-00725406>

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Accepted Manuscript

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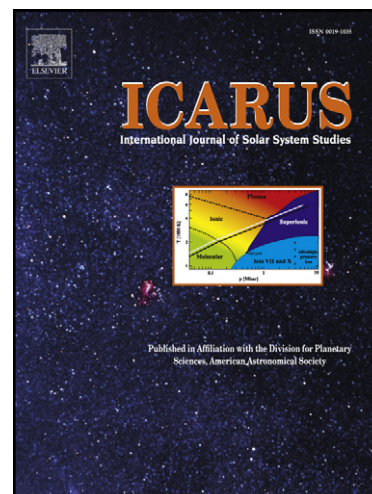
PII: S0019-1035(10)00487-2
DOI: [10.1016/j.icarus.2010.12.019](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.icarus.2010.12.019)
Reference: YICAR 9670

To appear in: *Icarus*

Received Date: 16 August 2010
Revised Date: 24 November 2010
Accepted Date: 18 December 2010

Please cite this article as: Saunders, R.W., Plane, J.M.C., A Photo-Chemical Method for the Production of Olivine Nanoparticles as Cosmic Dust Analogues, *Icarus* (2010), doi: [10.1016/j.icarus.2010.12.019](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.icarus.2010.12.019)

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1 **A Photo-Chemical Method for the Production of Olivine Nanoparticles**
2 **as Cosmic Dust Analogues**

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7

8 **Abstract**

9 This paper describes a new experimental method to synthesise metal silicate particles in
10 the laboratory with compositions and structures which reflect those likely to form in
11 planetary atmospheres and in relatively cool regions of oxygen-rich stellar outflows. Fe-
12 Mg-silicate nanoparticles of olivine composition were produced by the photo-oxidation
13 of a mixture of $\text{Fe}(\text{CO})_5$, $\text{Mg}(\text{OC}_2\text{H}_5)_2$ and $\text{Si}(\text{OC}_2\text{H}_5)_4$ vapours in the presence of O_3 at
14 room temperature and atmospheric pressure. Transmission electron microscope x-ray and
15 electron energy loss analysis of the particles from a number of experiments run with
16 different precursor vapour mixture ratios show that $\text{Mg}_{2x}\text{Fe}_{2-2x}\text{SiO}_4$ particles can be
17 produced ranging from $x = 0$ to 1, where x is linearly proportional to the ratio of
18 $\text{Mg}(\text{OC}_2\text{H}_5)_2 / (\text{Fe}(\text{CO})_5 + \text{Mg}(\text{OC}_2\text{H}_5)_2)$. Electronic structure calculations with hybrid
19 density functional/Hartree-Fock theory are then used to explore the pathways involved in
20 producing olivine particles from the FeO_3 , MgO_3 and SiO_2 produced from the photolysis
21 of the organometallic precursors in O_3 . These calculations indicate that highly exothermic
22 reactions lead to the formation of Mg_2SiO_4 , MgFeSiO_4 and Fe_2SiO_4 molecules, which

23 then polymerize. An alternative pathway, also strongly favoured thermodynamically, is
24 the polymerization of MgSiO_3 and FeSiO_3 to form pyroxenes, which then undergo
25 structural rearrangement to olivine and silica phases. The implications for metal silicate
26 formation in planetary atmosphere and stellar outflows are then discussed.

27

28 **1. Introduction**

29 Speculation on the chemical composition of dust particles found in a variety of extra-
30 terrestrial environments (e.g. interstellar and circumstellar), backed by the large database
31 of optical measurements made over the past half century or so (see Whittet, 2003),
32 invariably identifies metal (primarily iron and magnesium) silicate compounds as a major
33 component (Rietmeijer, 2002; Draine, 2003; Henning, 2010). Indeed, the term
34 ‘astronomical silicate’ has been coined for a general olivine ($\text{Mg}_{2x}\text{Fe}_{2-2x}\text{SiO}_4$; $x \sim 0.5$)
35 structure which provides a best-fit to certain features in the optical data (Draine and Lee,
36 1984). These dust particles are not only important in that they scatter, absorb and re-
37 radiate light, but also because they act as catalytic substrates for the uptake and reaction
38 of ambient gas-phase species, and hence are thought to be vital for the synthesis of
39 detected molecular species such as H_2 and CO (Williams and Taylor, 1996).

40 Analysis of peak structure within the diagnostic Si-O bond vibrations at ~ 10 and 18
41 microns suggests a crystalline, Mg-rich ($x > 0.5$) nature for these mineral forms
42 (pyroxene and olivine) of dust in certain high temperature environments i.e. in proximity
43 to evolving stars (Gail and Sedlmayr, 1999) and also in comets and planetary nebulae
44 (Jäger et al. 1998). However, it has been reported that amorphous Fe-rich ($x < 0.5$) olivine
45 variations are dominant in the interstellar medium or ISM (Draine, 2003; Kemper et al.,

46 2004), with a significant proportion of such grains in the lowest density regions of the
47 ISM being less than 3 nm in size (Li and Draine, 2001).

48 It has long been suggested that nanoparticles of ‘meteoric smoke’ are formed in the upper
49 atmosphere of the Earth, as a result of meteor ablation and subsequent condensation of
50 gas-phase metal oxide and silicate species (Rosinski and Snow, 1961; Hunten et al.,
51 1980). Ablation modelling indicates that the majority of atoms/ions released into the
52 atmosphere from the parent meteoroid are (in approximately equivalent amounts) those of
53 iron, magnesium and silicon (Vondrak et al., 2008). Subsequent oxidation of these
54 species is then likely to initiate condensation of solid-phase siliceous material (smoke
55 particles).

56 Such particles are predicted to be of the order of only a few nanometres in size and
57 consequently, proof of their existence through optical methods has to date been difficult
58 and largely inconclusive. Recent satellite-bound spectrometer measurements of high
59 altitude particle extinction seem to be the first to identify these tiny smoke particles
60 (Hervig et al., 2009), although compositional fitting of such data is reliant on refractive
61 index data available for a limited range of silicate materials prepared in the laboratory.

62 The interaction of meteoric smoke particles or MSPs with gases such as H₂O and H₂SO₄
63 in the Earth’s atmosphere has long been thought to play a role in such phenomena as high
64 altitude ice particle nucleation, leading to the related phenomena of noctilucent clouds
65 and polar mesosphere summer echoes (Rapp and Thomas, 2006), and the depletion of
66 acidic gases in the upper stratosphere (Turco et al., 1981). Clearly the precise nature of
67 such particle-vapour interactions will be strongly dependent on the particle composition.
68 The formation of meteoric smoke (and subsequent interaction with organic vapours) has

69 recently been postulated to account for the observed ‘detached’ aerosol layer in Titan’s
70 atmosphere (Lavvas et al., 2009). MSPs are also almost certainly the nuclei which form
71 CO₂-ice clouds in the Mars mesosphere around 80 km (Montmessin et al., 2006). In the
72 ISM, dust particles play a crucial role, for example, in the synthesis of molecules through
73 heterogeneous chemistry (e.g. Williams and Hartquist, 1999).

74 The critical ingredients for the formation of such smoke and dust particles in the
75 terrestrial and other planetary atmospheres, and in favourable regions of the ISM (see the
76 review of Henning, 2010) such as, for example, the cooling outflows / circumstellar
77 envelopes of oxygen-rich asymptotic giant branch (AGB) stars (e.g. Gail and Sedlmayr,
78 1999; Gail, 2010), planetary nebulae (e.g. Gorny et al., 2010) or regions chemically
79 enriched by supernovae (e.g. Kotak et al., 2009), are (i) a source of metal and silicon
80 atoms, and (ii) an oxidising species to form the initial gas-phase metal oxide and silicon
81 oxide molecules. These can then react to form molecular silicate species (see section 3.2).
82 In planetary/satellite atmospheres where the atmospheric pressure is greater than about 1
83 μ bar, meteoric ablation occurs (e.g. McAuliffe and Christou, 2006; Kim et al., 2001; Ip,
84 1990; English et al., 1996; Molina-Cuberos et al., 2008; Pesnell and Grebowsky, 2000;
85 Whalley and Plane, 2010). The resulting metal and silicon atoms are then oxidized in the
86 presence of O₃ and O₂, which tend to be present at some level (e.g. Fast et al., 2009;
87 Migliorini et al., 2010; Noll et al., 1997; Hörst et al., 2008). In the ISM, the stellar
88 nucleosynthesis and ejection of metals such as Fe and Mg and of Si accompanied by the
89 presence of oxygen in the form of neutral and ionised forms or in volatile molecules or
90 ices (Jensen et al., 2008) will likewise be conducive to the formation of silicate species.

91 The production of analogue materials for cosmic dust studies has utilised a number of
92 methods (reviewed by Colangeli et al., 2003) including room temperature sol-gel
93 preparations (Thompson et al., 1996; Jäger et al., 2003), melt quenching (Dorschner et
94 al., 1995), and vapour condensation methods such as laser ablation-condensation
95 (Brucato et al., 2002) and high temperature evaporation-condensation (Rietmeijer et al.,
96 1999; Nuth et al., 2000). The purpose of such laboratory techniques is not to replicate
97 directly the chemical or physical conditions in which particle formation can occur in the
98 Earth's atmosphere, other planetary atmospheres or the ISM, but to provide a way of
99 forming particles of realistic composition and structure for the subsequent study of their
100 physical and chemical properties under conditions appropriate for a targeted environment.

101 Sol-gel/melt quenching syntheses can produce amorphous pyroxene and olivine
102 compounds with mixed compositions, but the vapour condensation methods to date have
103 indicated that formation of mixed Mg-Fe silicate materials is not favoured. However,
104 more recent studies using the photo-oxidation of 'binary' mixtures of iron and silicon
105 precursor vapours at room temperature (Saunders and Plane, 2006; Kimura and Nuth,
106 2007) led to the preferential nucleation and subsequent growth of amorphous particles
107 with end-member olivine composition. To the best of our knowledge, there have, as yet,
108 been no reports of the formation of mixed-composition (Fe-Mg) olivine materials directly
109 from the gas-phase at low (room) temperature. This has important implications for
110 understanding dust compositions in lower temperature environments such as
111 planetary/satellite atmospheres and the ISM.

112 Our earlier study (Saunders and Plane, 2006) was aimed at synthesising and studying the
113 properties of nanomaterials as analogues of meteoric smoke particles or MSPs. This

114 paper extends our investigations to a more realistic ‘tertiary’ vapour system, whereby a
115 mixture of iron, magnesium and silicon oxide vapours is generated, from which mixed
116 composition olivine nanoparticles are produced. Electron microscope x-ray analysis
117 (TEM-EDX) and electron energy loss spectroscopy (EELS) data from collected material
118 is used to show that (1) the final particle composition is homogeneous and (2), the
119 relative Fe/Mg composition in the particles can be controlled quantitatively from $x = 0 -$
120 1 by varying the relative flows of the organometallic precursors. To complement the
121 laboratory studies, we use electronic structure theory to identify likely molecular
122 structures and chemical pathways which result in the observed particle compositions.

123

124 2. Experimental Methods

125 An aerosol flow reactor system (cylindrical laminar flow glass cell fitted with a series of
126 quartz windows which act as photolysis ports) described in detail previously (Saunders
127 and Plane, 2006) was used for the nucleation and growth of refractory aerosol from the
128 photo-oxidation of mixed vapours of the precursors, iron pentacarbonyl ($\text{Fe}(\text{CO})_5$,
129 99.999%, Aldrich), magnesium ethoxide ($\text{Mg}(\text{OC}_2\text{H}_5)_2$, 98%, Aldrich) and tetraethyl
130 orthosilicate or TEOS ($\text{Si}(\text{OC}_2\text{H}_5)_4$, 98%, Aldrich), in N_2 bath gas at 293 K and
131 atmospheric pressure. Photolysis of the precursor vapours was achieved using a broad-
132 band Xe arc lamp ($\lambda > 300$ nm), whose beam was directed through the quartz cell
133 windows using a flat mirror, and attenuated using neutral density filters to achieve the
134 desired photolysis rate in the experiments. A total gas flow rate (precursors, O_2 and N_2
135 bath gas) of 600 cm^3 per minute at STP was used in all experiments. Ozone ($10^{13} - 10^{14}$

136 cm^{-3}) was generated prior to addition to the aerosol flow reactor by passing the O_2 flow
137 through a small cell with a quartz window adjacent to a Hg pen lamp.

138 A series of particle production experiments was performed using varying ratios of the
139 three precursor vapours present in the reactor. The ratio was controlled experimentally by
140 varying the relative gas flow fractions of the entrained precursor vapours. Whilst vapour
141 pressure data for the Fe and Si liquid precursors has been reported in the literature
142 (Gilbert and Sulzmann, 1974; Alcott et al., 2004 respectively), no such data appears to
143 exist for the solid Mg precursor. In addition, all experiments were performed at constant
144 lamp irradiance in the flow reactor, corresponding to a calculated photolysis rate (J) of \sim
145 $2.0 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for $\text{Fe}(\text{CO})_5$ (determined from the wavelength-resolved lamp photon flux
146 and the molecular absorption cross-section – see Saunders and Plane, 2010). No cross-
147 section data is available in the literature for the other precursors. The generated particles
148 were sampled downstream of the flow cell by inertial deposition onto holey-carbon grids
149 (300 mesh Cu, Agar Scientific) suspended in the gas flow, for subsequent TEM (Philips
150 CM200) imaging and quantitative compositional analysis using energy dispersive x-ray
151 (EDX) and electron energy loss techniques.

152

153 **3. Results & Discussion**

154 **3.1 Electron microscope and elemental analysis**

155 Figure 1 is an electron micrograph of a particle aggregate generated by the photo-
156 oxidation of a mixture of the Fe, Mg and Si precursors described previously. Whilst the
157 maximum projected length of this structure from the 2D image is in excess of 2 microns,

158 it is evident that the fractal-like nature of the aggregate is generated from smaller particle
159 clusters made up of constituent ‘primary’ particles with an observable range of sizes
160 down to ~ 10 nm. Previous growth modelling analysis of iron oxide and silicate particles
161 generated within the same flow reactor (Saunders and Plane, 2006; 2010) indicate a
162 primary particle size typically between 6-8 nm for such particles under conditions of
163 room temperature and atmospheric pressure.

164

165 → **Figure 1**

166 Figure 2 shows EDX spectra obtained from particles generated from three different
167 vapour mixtures. The top spectrum was taken from a particle aggregate formed from the
168 photo-oxidation of the iron-silicon system, the middle spectrum from the iron-
169 magnesium-silicon system, and the bottom spectrum from the magnesium-silicon system.

170

171 → **Figure 2**

172

173 Seven different experiments were performed: one Fe/Si run, one Mg/Si run, and five
174 separate Fe/Mg/Si runs where the Fe and Mg precursor flows were varied. The relative
175 Fe, Mg and Si content in the particles was determined using the integrated EDX peak
176 areas and x-ray scattering cross-sections (Si_K , $\text{Fe}_{K,L}$ and Mg_K) (Goodhew et al., 2001).

177 Analysis was typically performed on 5 different regions of each sampled particle (using a
178 probe size of 1 nm), and on 5-10 different particles collected in the same experiment. The
179 elemental values obtained in this way were highly consistent, with less than 10%

180 variation for a given particle sample in each experiment. It should be noted that we did
181 not observe any particles of purely iron or magnesium oxide composition from these
182 experiments. The relative abundance data was then used to calculate values of x_{particle} (= $\text{Mg}/(\text{Mg}+\text{Fe})$) for comparison with the olivine and pyroxene stoichiometries – $(\text{Mg}_x\text{Fe}_{1-x})_2\text{SiO}_4$ and $\text{Mg}_x\text{Fe}_{1-x}\text{SiO}_3$, respectively. These are listed in Table 1 along with the flow
184 rates used for the precursor species, oxidant and bath gas (N_2).
185

186

187 → **Table 1**

188

189 Figure 3 shows particle x values plotted against the ratio of $(\text{Mg}+\text{Fe})/\text{Si}$ for each
190 experiment. Within error, the average particle compositions from all experiments are
191 consistent with olivine and not pyroxene structures.

192

193 → **Figure 3**

194

195 For further verification of the particle compositions, electron energy loss spectroscopy
196 (EELS) was also conducted in order to quantify the oxygen content (O_K). These were
197 plotted as a ratio with respect to Fe, Mg and Si atomic content using the integrated peak
198 areas, as discussed in Saunders and Plane (2006), against the x_{particle} values determined
199 above. Figure 4 indicates that the measured elemental data (coloured points) are in accord
200 with those predicted for olivine structures (solid coloured lines). In addition, as with our
201 earlier study, analysis of the $\text{Fe}_{L_{2,3}}$ line structures (van Aken and Liebscher, 2002)

202 indicated a single (+2) oxidation state. Electron diffraction revealed no diffraction
203 behaviour for any of the particle aggregates analysed at a number of different points and
204 so confirmed that, for all samples, the particles were entirely amorphous.

205

206 → **Figure 4**

207

208 The EDX/EELS analysis clearly indicates that particle composition resulting from the
209 photo-oxidation of Fe-, Mg-, and Si-precursor vapours was homogeneous in all cases.
210 From this, it can be concluded that particle nucleation in this system occurs from a
211 homogeneous mix of condensable gas-phase species, the identities of which we will
212 discuss in section 3.2.

213 If the Mg and Fe content in the particles are a fraction α of their respective gas-phase
214 precursor concentrations i.e. $\text{Mg} = \alpha_{\text{Mg}}[\text{Mg}(\text{OC}_2\text{H}_5)_2]$ and $\text{Fe} = \alpha_{\text{Fe}}[\text{Fe}(\text{CO})_5]$, then the
215 ratio of Mg/Fe in the particle should be

$$\frac{\text{Mg}}{\text{Fe}} = \frac{\alpha_{\text{Mg}}[\text{Mg}(\text{OC}_2\text{H}_5)_2]}{\alpha_{\text{Fe}}[\text{Fe}(\text{CO})_5]} \quad (\text{I})$$

218

219 α combines the precursor photolysis rate and efficiencies with which the resulting metal
220 oxide and silicate condense. Note that in the case of $\text{Mg}(\text{OC}_2\text{H}_5)_2$ there does not appear to
221 be published data on its photolysis cross section.

222

223 Since

$$x = \frac{\text{Mg}}{\text{Mg} + \text{Fe}}$$

224

225 then

$$\left(\frac{x}{1-x} \right) = \frac{\alpha_{\text{Mg}} [\text{Mg}(\text{OC}_2\text{H}_5)_2]}{\alpha_{\text{Fe}} [\text{Fe}(\text{CO})_5]}$$

228

229 Each vapour is entrained in a flow of N₂ passing through a reservoir cell containing its
 230 respective precursor. Under the slow flow conditions used here, the gas-phase precursor
 231 concentrations in the photolysis cell are then linearly proportional to the N₂ flows through
 232 their respective reservoir cells. Hence, the ratio of the precursor flows, $f(\text{Mg})/f(\text{Fe})$, can
 233 be substituted into eqn. II, yielding

$$\left(\frac{x}{1-x} \right) = \frac{\beta_{\text{Mg}} f(\text{Mg})}{\beta_{\text{Fe}} f(\text{Fe})} \quad (\text{III})$$

236

237 where β combines α with the vapour pressure of the respective precursor (data on the
 238 vapour pressure of $\text{Mg}(\text{OC}_2\text{H}_5)_2$ does not appear to be available). Figure 5 is a plot of
 239 $x/(1-x)$ against $f(\text{Mg})/f(\text{Fe})$, which is linear with a slope of 0.096 ($R^2 = 0.938$).
 240 Importantly, this demonstrates that the relative abundance of Mg to Fe in the particles has
 241 a linear dependence on the relative flows of their precursor vapours, so that particles with
 242 a composition anywhere between $x = 0$ and 1 can be made in a simple quantitative way.

243

244 → **Figure 5**

245

246 3.2 Chemical pathways to final particle compositions

247 Photolysis of the precursor vapours produces Fe, Mg and Si atoms, and the reaction

248 kinetics of these atoms and their oxides with O₂ and O₃ have been studied previously in

249 our group (Gómez Martín et al., 2009a; Gómez Martín et al., 2009b; Helmer and Plane,

250 1994a; Rollason and Plane, 2000; 2001). Inspection of the rate coefficients listed in Table

251 2 shows that in the large excess of O₂ and O₃ employed in the present experiments, Fe

252 and Mg would have been rapidly oxidized to FeO₃ and MgO₃, and Si to SiO₂

253

254 → **Table 2**

255

256 In order to investigate the subsequent steps to particle formation, we now employ

257 electronic structure calculations using the Gaussian 09 suite of programs (Frisch et al.,

258 2009). The hybrid density functional/Hartree-Fock B3LYP method was employed

259 together with the 6-311+G(2d,p) triple zeta basis set, which is a reasonably large, flexible

260 basis set with both polarization and diffuse functions added to the atoms. The expected

261 uncertainty in the calculated reaction enthalpies is ± 20 kJ mol⁻¹ at this level of theory. For

262 each molecule the geometry was first optimised, and then vibrational frequencies

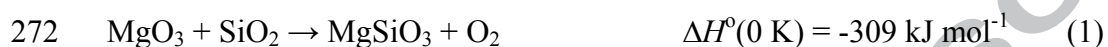
263 calculated to determine the zero point energy correction. For the Fe-containing species,

264 all possible spin multiplicities were investigated. The most stable isomers (invariably spin

265 high), are reported here.

266 The present experiments were performed with a small excess of SiO₂ over the metal
267 oxides (as in our previous study on Fe₂SiO₄ formation (Saunders and Plane, 2006)).
268 Therefore, starting from the feedstock of MgO₃, FeO₃ and SiO₂ it is likely that the metal
269 silicate molecules MgSiO₃ and FeSiO₃ first form via the following highly exothermic
270 reactions:

271



274

275 As shown in Figure 6, these silicate molecules have planar kite-shaped geometries (the
276 most stable electronic state of FeSiO₃ has quintet spin multiplicity i.e. four parallel
277 unpaired electrons; MgSiO₃ is a singlet with no unpaired spins). A distinctive feature of
278 the silicates is that they possess very large electric dipole moments: $\mu(\text{MgSiO}_3) = 12.2$
279 Debye and $\mu(\text{FeSiO}_3) = 9.5$ Debye. This will favour polymerization of the silicates,
280 which should occur rapidly because of the long-range attractive forces generated between
281 the polar molecules.

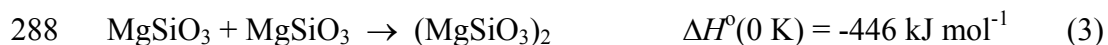
282

283 → **Figure 6**

284

285 Figure 6 illustrates the geometries of the polymers formed between these silicates. The
286 binding energies are extremely large:

287

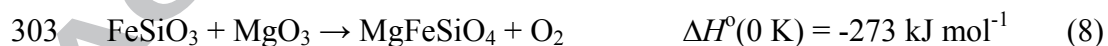
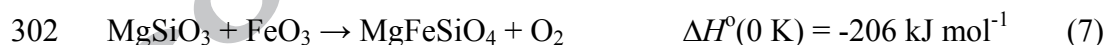
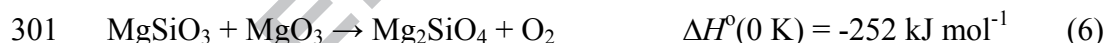


291

292 Since the enthalpies for the addition of further silicate molecules to an embryonic particle
293 are likely to be similarly large, there is unlikely to be a free energy barrier to spontaneous
294 nucleation and growth.

295 However, the analysis of the particles formed in our experiments shows that they are
296 composed of olivines rather than pyroxenes. There are two likely ways in which this
297 happens. First, olivine molecules may actually form in the gas phase. This is because the
298 MgSiO_3 and FeSiO_3 molecules are produced in an excess of MgO_3 and FeO_3 , so that the
299 following reactions can occur:

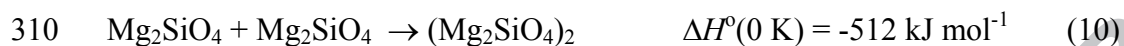
300



305

306 Once again, all these reactions are very favourable thermodynamically. The olivine
307 molecules, which are illustrated in Figure 7, should also polymerize spontaneously
308 through highly exothermic reactions. For example, for the two dimers shown in Figure 7:

309



312

313 Figure 7 also shows the Mg_2SiO_4 tetramer, formed from the polymerization of two

314 Mg_2SiO_4 dimers:

315



317

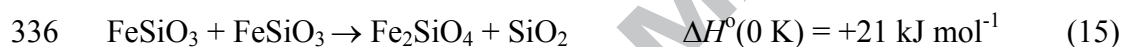
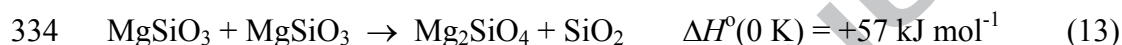
318 → **Figure 7**

319

320 This process is also extremely exothermic (calculated at the B3LYP/3-21+g level of
321 theory), underlining the strong thermodynamic force behind polymerization of these
322 molecules. Thus there is a plausible route involving reactions 1 and 2 to form the silicate
323 molecules, followed by reaction 6 – 9 to form the olivine molecules, which would
324 generate particles with the observed olivine structure where x would be equal to the
325 relative rates of photochemical production of Mg to Fe atoms.

326 Note, however, that this reaction sequence requires reactions 6 – 9 to be faster than
327 reactions 3 – 5 (where the silicates polymerize directly together). If in fact silicate
328 polymerization is competitive, then the resulting amorphous pyroxene particles must
329 rearrange internally to form olivines. This is the second way in which the observed
330 olivine particles could form. To get a sense of the thermodynamic requirements for
331 structural rearrangement, consider the enthalpies for the following reactions which
332 convert pyroxene to olivine molecules:

333



337

338 The dimerization of SiO_2 is strongly exothermic:

339



341 Hence, combining reactions $2 \times (13) + (10) + (16)$ gives:

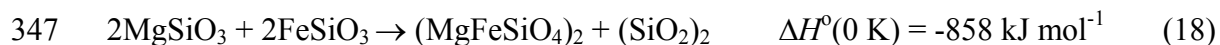
342



344

345 and combining reactions $2 \times (14) + (11) + (16)$ gives:

346



348

349 Reactions 17 and 18 are therefore highly exothermic. This indicates that pyroxene might
350 rearrange into olivine in small particles by forming a separate SiO_2 phase. Of course, the
351 “separate phases” considered here only consist of dimers of olivine and silica molecules,
352 and further theoretical investigation in this direction would be extremely computer-
353 intensive. We therefore conclude that both direct formation of gas-phase olivine
354 molecules, and possibly some structural rearrangement of condensed silicates, play a role
355 under our experimental conditions.

356

357 3.3 Comparison with other laboratory studies of Mg-Fe-silicate formation

358 While the present study appears to be the first attempt to investigate the formation of
359 tertiary Mg-Fe-silicate meteoric smoke particles relevant to planetary atmospheres, there
360 have been a number of studies to investigate the formation of metal silicates under the
361 conditions of stellar outflow regions and the ISM. Replicating the conditions –
362 temperatures, pressures and timescales – of these environments in the laboratory is
363 challenging (Nuth et al., 2000). There have been essentially two types of experimental
364 approach. In the first, a sample of olivine, for example, is vaporized by flash heating
365 (Nagahara et al., 1988) or laser ablation (Brucato et al., 2002); the condensation products
366 of the resulting vapours are then collected and analysed. In the second type of
367 experiment, vapours of Fe, Mg and Si are produced in the presence of an oxidant by

368 decomposition of appropriate precursors, either photochemically (the present study) or in
369 a high temperature (500 - 1500 K) thermal reactor (Rietmeijer et al., 1999; Nuth et al.,
370 2000). This second type of experiment is designed to control the molecular “building
371 blocks” of the silicate particles, and here we will compare the results of the
372 photochemical and thermal systems. The experiments of Nuth and co-workers employed
373 the thermal decomposition of $\text{Fe}(\text{CO})_5$ and SiH_4 in the presence of O_2 at a total pressure
374 of around 90 Torr (mostly made up of H_2). Magnesium atoms were added by vaporizing
375 Mg metal in a crucible within the thermal reactor. There are therefore two important
376 differences between the photochemical reactor used in the present study and the thermal
377 reactor: the use of O_3 versus O_2 as the oxidant; and a temperature of 293 K versus
378 temperatures typically above 1000 K, respectively. A further possibly significant
379 difference is that in the present experiment the three photolytic precursors are well-mixed
380 before entering the photolysis cell, whereas in the thermal reactor there must be some
381 spatial separation between the region where the Fe and Si precursors start to decompose
382 upon entering the hot region of the reactor, and the Mg vapour is produced from the
383 crucible.

384 The gas-phase chemistry in the two systems is somewhat different. In our photochemical
385 reactor, the building blocks of the metal silicates are FeO_3 , MgO_3 and SiO_2 , produced
386 under well-defined kinetic conditions (Section 3.2). In contrast, the chemistry in the
387 thermal reactor is quite complex. The metal dioxides FeO_2 and MgO_2 will form at the
388 relatively high pressure in the reactor:



391 Both these reactions have small barriers in their entrance channels so that, unusually for
392 recombination reactions, their rate coefficients increase with temperature (Helmer and
393 Plane, 1994b; Nien et al., 1993). The reactions forming the metal monoxides



396 are not competitive. The rate of reaction 21 (Akhmadov et al., 1988) only becomes equal
397 to that of reaction 19 above 1500 K (at the pressure of the thermal reactor experiment).
398 Although a rate expression for reaction 22 has been published (Kashireninov et al., 1982),
399 this is clearly incorrect because the activation energy of 48 kJ mol^{-1} is much lower than
400 the endothermicity of the reaction, $\Delta H_0 = 246 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ (Rollason and Plane, 2001). The
401 upper limit to k_{22} must therefore be extremely small: e.g. $< 4 \times 10^{-21} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at
402 1200 K. SiO will be produced by the decomposition of SiH_4 in O_2 (Gómez Martín et al.,
403 2009a), but SiO_2 may then form via the reaction



405 Since reaction 23 is only modestly endothermic ($\Delta H_0 = 63 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ (Gómez Martín et al.,
406 2009b)), it may proceed at a rate similar to reactions 19 and 20 in the thermal reactor.
407 Thus the main building blocks in the thermal reactor are FeO_2 , MgO_2 and SiO and/or
408 SiO_2 .

409 A further complication in the thermal reactor is the decomposition of $\text{Fe}(\text{CO})_5$ which
410 occurs through sequential loss of CO. A reaction such as



412 may be very fast, because the reaction is highly exothermic: $\Delta H_0 = -236 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$,
413 calculated here at the B3LYP/6-311+g(2d,p) level of theory. Thus formation of Fe
414 silicate particles could occur at temperatures well below 1000 K once $\text{Fe}(\text{CO})_5$ starts to
415 decompose, whereas the Mg silicates cannot not form until reaction 22 becomes fast
416 enough within the hot region of the reactor.

417 It is important to note that in spite of these differences in the molecular building blocks of
418 the two systems, olivine-type particles are produced in both cases. We have shown in
419 Section 3.2 that in the case of the photochemical reactor at low temperatures, the
420 production of olivine particles can be explained by the quenching from the gas phase of
421 molecules of olivine (or pyroxene). So this should be a kinetically controlled system,
422 where the ratio of Fe to Mg in the particles is controlled by the relative uptake rates of
423 their respective metal silicate molecules from the gas phase. In the thermal reactor
424 experiments, Nuth et al. (2000) observed the formation of pure magnesium silicate and
425 pure iron silicate amorphous grains above 1000 K. Strikingly, they did not observe any
426 mixed Fe-Mg particles with olivine composition. They attributed this surprising result to
427 the lack of eutectic compositions in the FeO-MgO phase diagram (Nuth et al., 2002). In
428 fact, thermodynamic considerations show that the condensation of particles from a Fe-
429 Mg-Si-O mixture under equilibrium conditions above 1000 K should produce mainly
430 pure forsterite (Mg_2SiO_4) and some enstatite (MgSiO_3) (Gail and Sedlmayr, 1999).

431 Although the initial polymerization may well be kinetically controlled, reactions such as



433 where the Fe^{2+} ions are displaced by Mg atoms, are very exothermic ($\Delta H = -670 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$,
434 calculated using $\Delta H = -157 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ for the reaction $\text{Fe}_2\text{SiO}_{4(s)} + 2\text{Mg}_{(g)} \rightarrow \text{Mg}_2\text{SiO}_{4(s)} +$

435 $2\text{Fe}_{(g)}$ (Gail and Sedlmayr, 1999), and $\Delta H = -256 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ for the gas-phase reaction
436 $\text{MgO}_2 + \text{Fe} \rightarrow \text{FeO}_2 + \text{Mg}$, calculated at the B3LYP/6-311+g(2d,p) level of theory). Thus
437 the thermal reactor results can be explained by the kinetic formation of mixed silicate
438 particles, subsequent displacement of Fe to form pure Mg silicates, and finally the
439 formation of Fe silicates once all the magnesium has been removed from the gas phase.
440 In contrast, in the low-temperature photochemistry system the composition of the
441 particles is frozen at the composition determined by the quenching kinetics, so that a
442 single solid phase is produced.

443

444 **4. Implications**

445 This new synthetic method for producing amorphous olivine nanoparticles is not
446 supposed to replicate the ambient conditions of either planetary atmospheres or oxygen-
447 rich stellar outflows. Nevertheless, some important conclusions can be drawn regarding
448 the formation of these particles in both types of environment. The rapidity with which the
449 particles form and grow in the laboratory, combined with the results of the electronic
450 structure calculations, suggests that particle formation is a spontaneous process i.e., there
451 are no free energy barriers to nucleation. Indeed, the long-range magnetic dipole forces in
452 Fe-containing particles which drive this rapid growth were explored by us in a previous
453 study (Saunders and Plane, 2006), where we showed that the rates of magnetic dipole-
454 controlled reactions actually get slightly faster at lower temperatures. Hence, particle
455 formation can be expected even at the very low temperatures of the ISM.

456 The pathway to particle formation in the photochemical reactor – formation of FeO_3 ,
457 MgO_3 and SiO_2 in the presence of O_3 and O_2 – is quite probably the route to forming
458 MSPs in the atmospheres of the terrestrial planets. The composition of MSPs in the
459 Earth's atmosphere has been a subject of speculation because their small dimensions both
460 precluded optical detection and also created major difficulties for direct rocket-borne
461 sampling and uncontaminated return from the mesosphere. However, there has been a
462 recent report of detectable particle extinction at two near-IR wavelengths at altitudes
463 above 50 km made from the AIM satellite (Hervig et al., 2009). Although this extinction
464 is consistent with refractive index data for the pyroxene structure $\text{Mg}_{0.4}\text{Fe}_{0.6}\text{SiO}_3$, new
465 work using additional wavelengths in the near-UV and near-IR indicates that the particles
466 have an olivine structure $\text{Mg}_{2x}\text{Fe}_{2-2x}\text{SiO}_4$, where $x \sim 0.5$ (unpublished data from M.
467 Hervig, presented at the 38th COSPAR General Assembly, Bremen, 2010). This is
468 consistent both with the results of the present study, and with the model prediction that
469 meteoric ablation produces roughly equal quantities of Fe, Mg and Si (Vondrak et al.,
470 2008). However, it should be borne in mind that since the formation of olivine particles
471 requires the condensation of Fe- and Mg- containing species with SiO_2 , and all three are
472 trace species in the upper mesosphere (mixing ratios < 10 ppb), it is also likely that
473 meteoric vapours produce particles containing oxides such as Fe_2O_3 (Saunders and Plane,
474 2010a), and hydroxides and carbonates.

475 Regarding silicate grain formation in the ISM, the relevant precursor species in oxygen-
476 rich circumstellar outflows are thought to be MgO , FeO and SiO/SiO_2 (Gail, 2010; Gail
477 and Sedlmayr, 1999; Nuth et al., 2000), which at first glance are different from the
478 species in the photochemical reactor. However, FeO_3 and MgO_3 have the structures OFe-

479 O₂ and OMg-O₂ (Rollason and Plane, 2000; 2001), where the weakly-bound O₂ acts as a
480 chaperone to the metal oxide. Thus the chemistry in our system may not be very different
481 from that in the ISM. In any case, the fact that olivine-type particles are produced in the
482 photochemical and the thermal reactors (Section 3.3) implies that the precise nature of the
483 metal oxide is secondary.

484 Thermal reactor experiments (Nuth et al., 2000; Rietmeijer et al., 1999) demonstrate that
485 magnesium silicate (forsterite and enstatite) particles are the major product at high
486 temperatures (> 1000 K). This is in accord with observations of a high forsterite
487 abundance in the circumstellar dust shells of stars with high mass loss rates, where
488 nucleation and growth of silicate particles will be faster and thus occur at higher
489 temperatures (de Vries et al., 2010; Nuth et al., 2002). The results of the present study
490 should therefore be applicable to low mass loss rate stars, where condensation will be
491 slow enough that it mostly occurs in cooler regions. Indeed, there is experimental
492 evidence that Fe-rich olivines form at temperatures around 800 K (Nagahara et al., 1988),
493 which is consistent with the thermodynamic prediction that fayalite and ferrosilite should
494 condense below 900 K (Gail, 2010). Our experiments were carried out at 293 K and, as
495 explained above, there is no reason that the condensation of these species will not occur
496 even at very low temperatures. The formation of Fe-rich olivine particles in low mass loss
497 rate environments will have two important consequences. First, because condensation is
498 slower and the concentration of gas-phase species is continuously diluted in the outflow,
499 much smaller particles are likely to result. Second, the particles will almost certainly be
500 amorphous, as observed in the present study at 293 K. Annealing of Mg-Fe-silicates to
501 form crystalline olivines requires temperatures in excess of 1000 K (Nuth et al., 2002).

502

503 **5. Conclusions**

504 This paper describes a photochemical technique for generating amorphous olivine
505 nanoparticles over a controlled composition range. Quantitative compositional analysis of
506 the particles formed by the photo-oxidation of a mixture of Mg-, Fe- and Si-
507 organometallic vapours in O₃ at room temperature is consistent with a range of olivine
508 (Mg_{2x}Fe_{2-2x}SiO₄: 0 ≤ x ≤ 1) structures. Starting from the known gas-phase chemistry of
509 Mg, Fe and Si atoms in the presence of O₃ and O₂, which produces MgO₃, FeO₃ and
510 SiO₂, we have used electronic structure calculations to elucidate the likely pathways to
511 the formation of olivine particles: direct condensation of olivine molecules, and/or the
512 condensation of metal silicates followed by solid-phase structural rearrangement into
513 separate olivine and silica phases.

514 The observed preferential nucleation and growth of amorphous mixed-metal silicate
515 particles from a suitable metal and silicon oxide gas-phase environment, indicates the
516 likely *spontaneous* formation of such materials in any environment where iron and
517 magnesium oxide molecules are present together with SiO₂ i.e. in planetary atmospheres
518 where meteoric ablation occurs, and in cooler regions of the ISM, for example the gas
519 outflows of low mass loss rate oxygen-rich stars.

520 Our photo-oxidation experiments, although not performed under realistic conditions
521 (temperature and pressure) with respect to planetary atmospheres or the ISM, point to an
522 efficient method for the production of nanoparticles of the composition and structure
523 found in these environments.

524

525 **Acknowledgements**

526 This work was supported by funding from the UK Natural Environment Research
527 Council (grant NE/E005659/1).

528

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673 **Table 1** Flows ($\text{cm}^3 \text{min}^{-1}$ at 293 K and 1 bar) used for the respective precursor vapours
674 (Fe-, Mg- and Si-) present in the particle formation experiments. Calculated atomic ratio
675 ($x_{\text{particle}} = \text{Mg}/(\text{Mg}+\text{Fe})$) from EDX analysis on particles collected from the respective
676 experiments is also shown.

677

Fe	Mg	Si	O ₂	N ₂	Mg/Fe	x_{particle}
15	0	100	40	445	0	0
11	20	100	40	429	1.82	0.11
9	40	100	40	411	4.44	0.36
6	50	100	40	404	8.33	0.47
3	75	100	40	382	25.0	0.65
3	100	100	40	357	33.33	0.78
0	50	100	40	410	-	1.0

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684 **Table 2** List of the reactions and rate coefficients involved in the oxidation of Fe, to
 685 FeO₃, Mg to MgO₃, and Si to SiO₂.

Reaction	$k(293\text{ K})^a$	Reference
$\text{Fe} + \text{O}_3 \rightarrow \text{FeO} + \text{O}_2$	2.1×10^{-10}	Helmer and Plane, 1994a
$\text{Fe} + \text{O}_2 (+ \text{N}_2) \rightarrow \text{FeO}_2$	1.0×10^{-13}	Helmer and Plane, 1994b
$\text{FeO} + \text{O}_3 \rightarrow \text{FeO}_2 + \text{O}_2$	1.6×10^{-10}	Rollason and Plane, 2000
$\text{FeO} + \text{O}_2 (+ \text{N}_2) \rightarrow \text{FeO}_3$	9.5×10^{-11}	Rollason and Plane, 2000
$\text{FeO}_2 + \text{O}_3 \rightarrow \text{FeO}_3 + \text{O}_2$	2.5×10^{-10}	Self and Plane, 2003
$\text{Mg} + \text{O}_3 \rightarrow \text{MgO} + \text{O}_2$	1.4×10^{-10}	Plane and Helmer, 1995
$\text{MgO} + \text{O}_3 \rightarrow \text{MgO}_2 + \text{O}_2$	3.4×10^{-11}	Plane and Helmer, 1995
$\text{MgO}_2 + \text{O}_3 \rightarrow \text{MgO}_3 + \text{O}_2$	Not measured	See Plane and Helmer, 1995
$\text{Si} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{SiO} + \text{O}$	1.1×10^{-10}	Gómez-Martín et al., 2009a
$\text{Si} + \text{O}_3 \rightarrow \text{SiO} + \text{O}_2$	4.0×10^{-10}	Gómez-Martín et al., 2009a
$\text{SiO} + \text{O}_3 \rightarrow \text{SiO}_2 + \text{O}_2$	4.4×10^{-13}	Gómez-Martín et al., 2009b

686 ^a Rate coefficient at 293 K, units: cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹

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692 **Figure Captions**

693 **Figure 1** Transmission electron micrograph of a typical fractal-like particle aggregate
694 formed from a vapour mixture of Fe, Mg and Si precursors.

695 **Figure 2** EDX spectra of particles sampled from three particle production experiments in
696 which no Mg precursor vapour was present (top panel), no Fe precursor vapour was
697 present (bottom panel), and in which all three precursor vapours were present in the flow
698 reactor (middle panel). Characteristic element peaks are indicated at the respective
699 electron energy values.

700 **Figure 3** Plot of the measured elemental ratio $(\text{Fe} + \text{Mg})/\text{Si}$ in the sampled particles
701 against x , indicating an olivine $[(\text{Mg}_x\text{Fe}_{1-x})_2\text{SiO}_4]$ composition in all cases.

702 **Figure 4** Calculated element to oxygen ratios M:O (M = Fe (black data points), Mg
703 (blue) and Si (red)) from EELS analysis of particles from the same experiments as in Fig.
704 3, plotted against x . The solid lines (Fe is black, Mg is blue, Si is red) indicate the
705 relationships that would be expected for a pure olivine composition, and the dashed lines
706 those for pyroxene.

707 **Figure 5** Correlation plot of the ratio (f) of magnesium to iron precursor vapour flows
708 (Table 1) employed in the respective experiments against calculated atomic ratio ($x =$
709 $\text{Mg}/(\text{Mg}+\text{Fe})$) in generated mixed silicate particles.

710 **Figure 6** Electronic structure calculations at the B3LYP/6-311+g(2d,p) level of theory of
711 the optimised geometries of MgSiO_3 , FeSiO_3 and their dimers and mixed polymer.

712 **Figure 7** Electronic structure calculations of the optimised geometries of Mg_2SiO_4 ,
713 MgFeSiO_4 and Fe_2SiO_4 ; the dimers of Mg_2SiO_4 and MgFeSiO_4 ; and the Mg_2SiO_4
714 tetramer.

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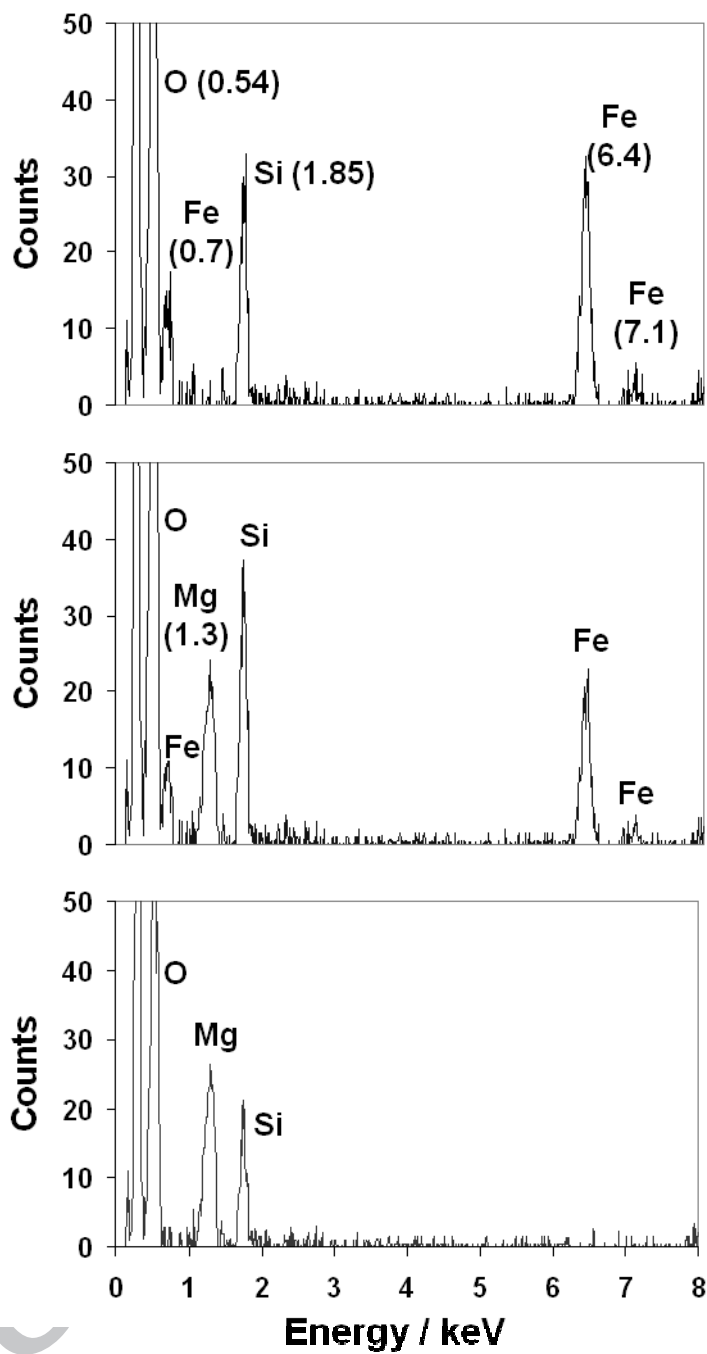
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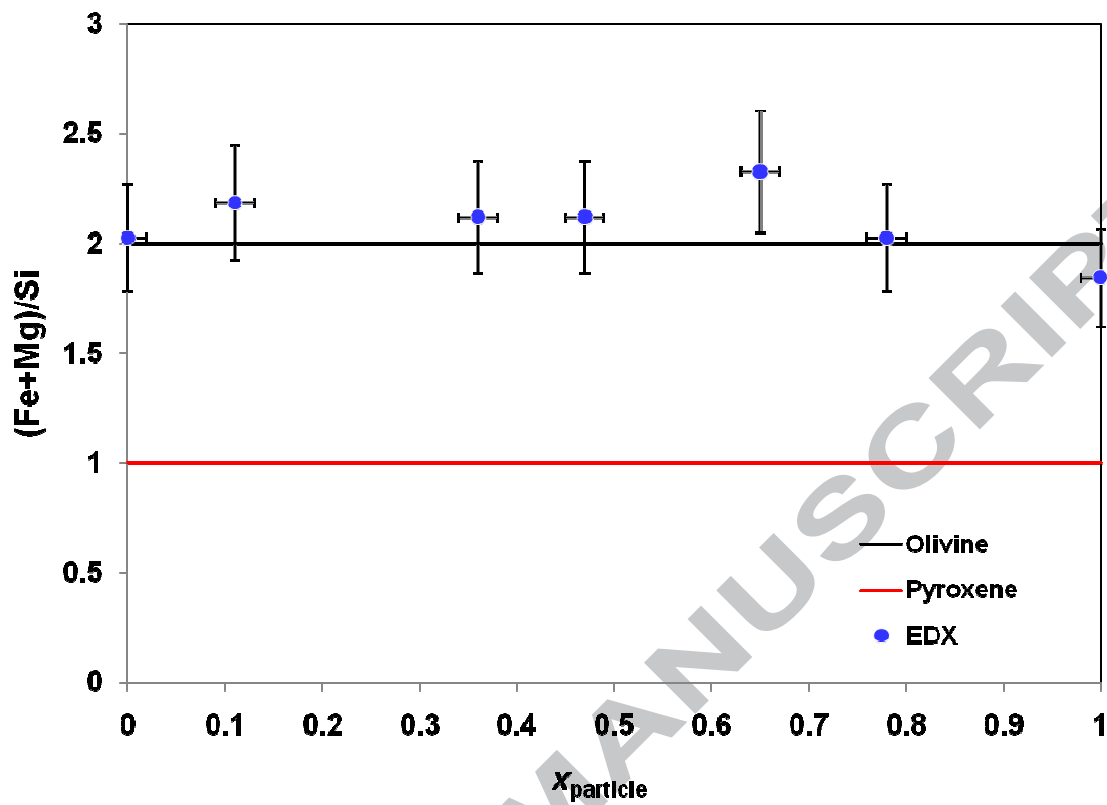
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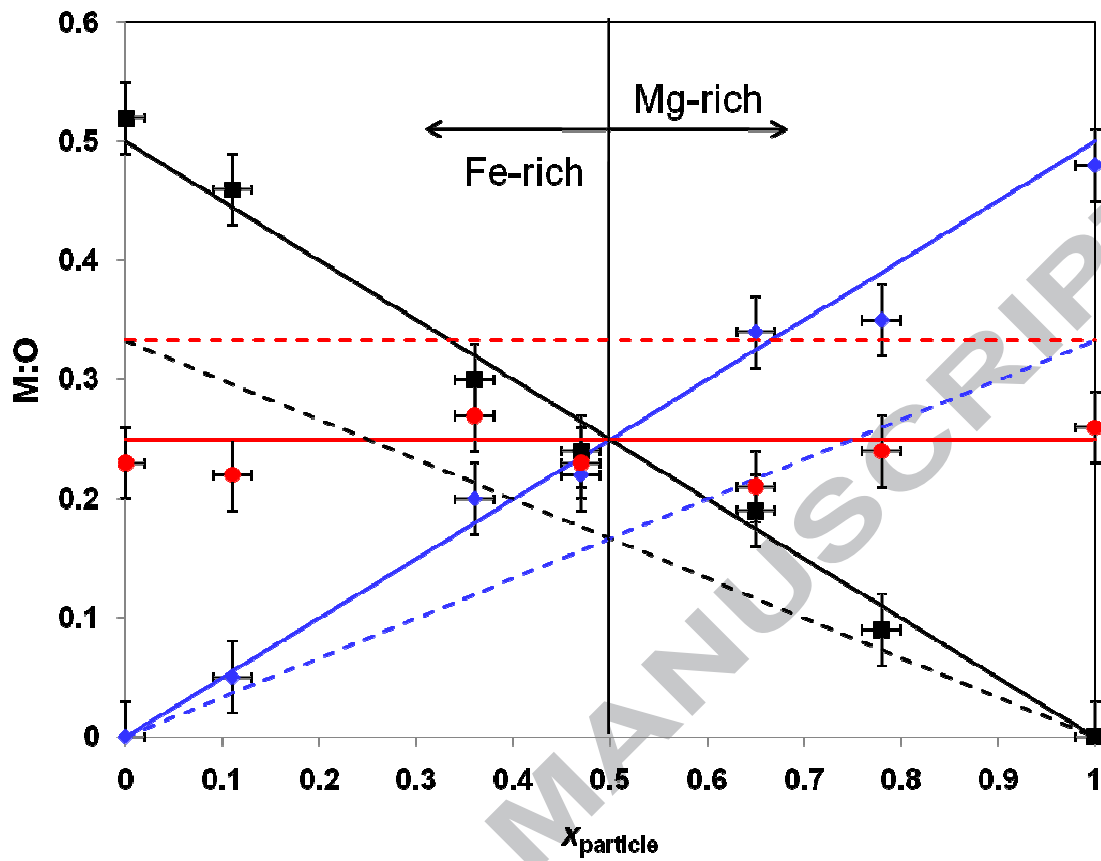
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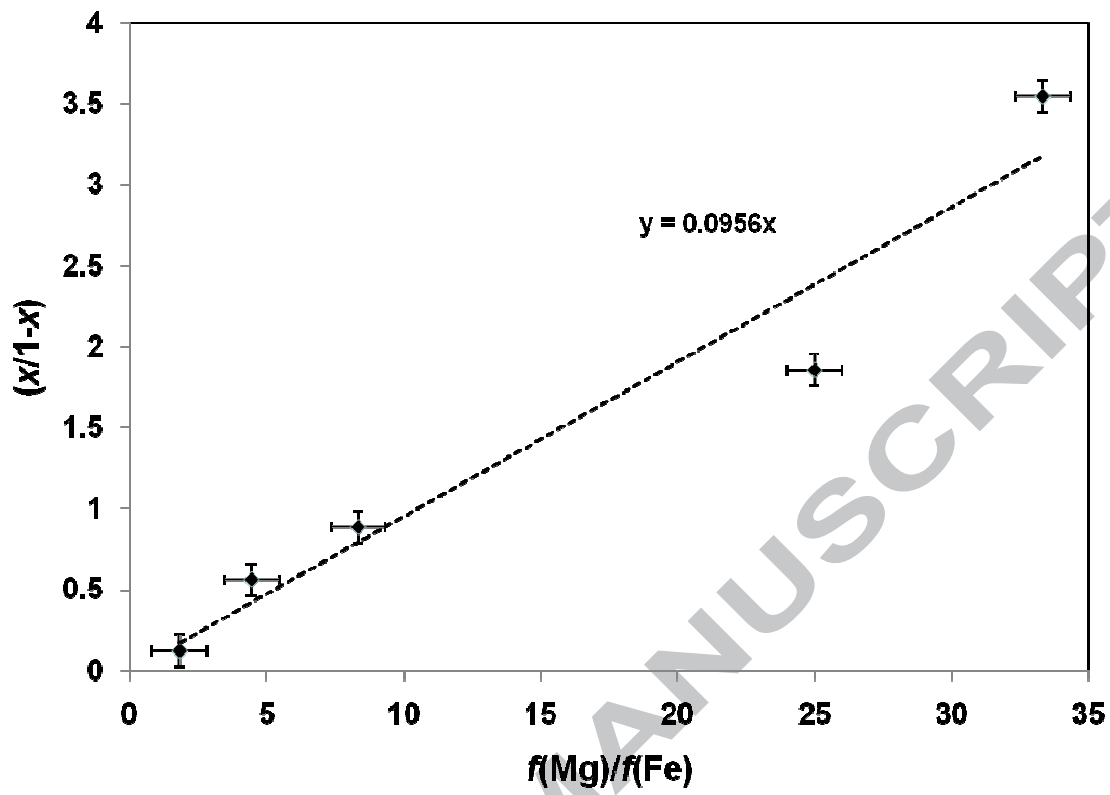




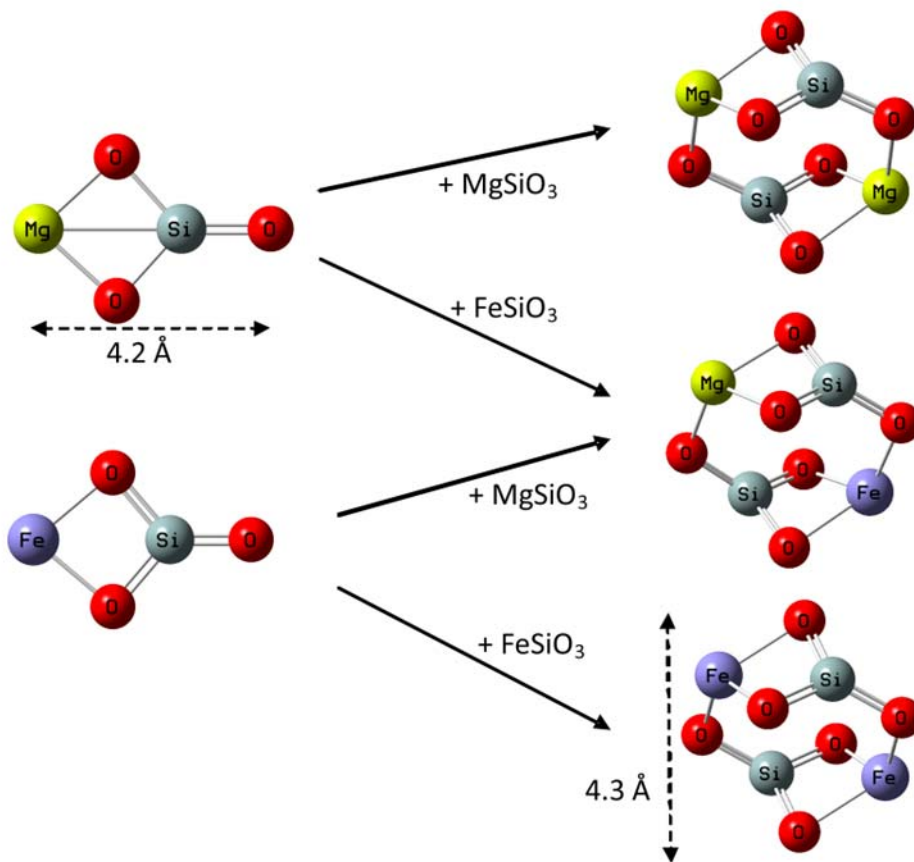
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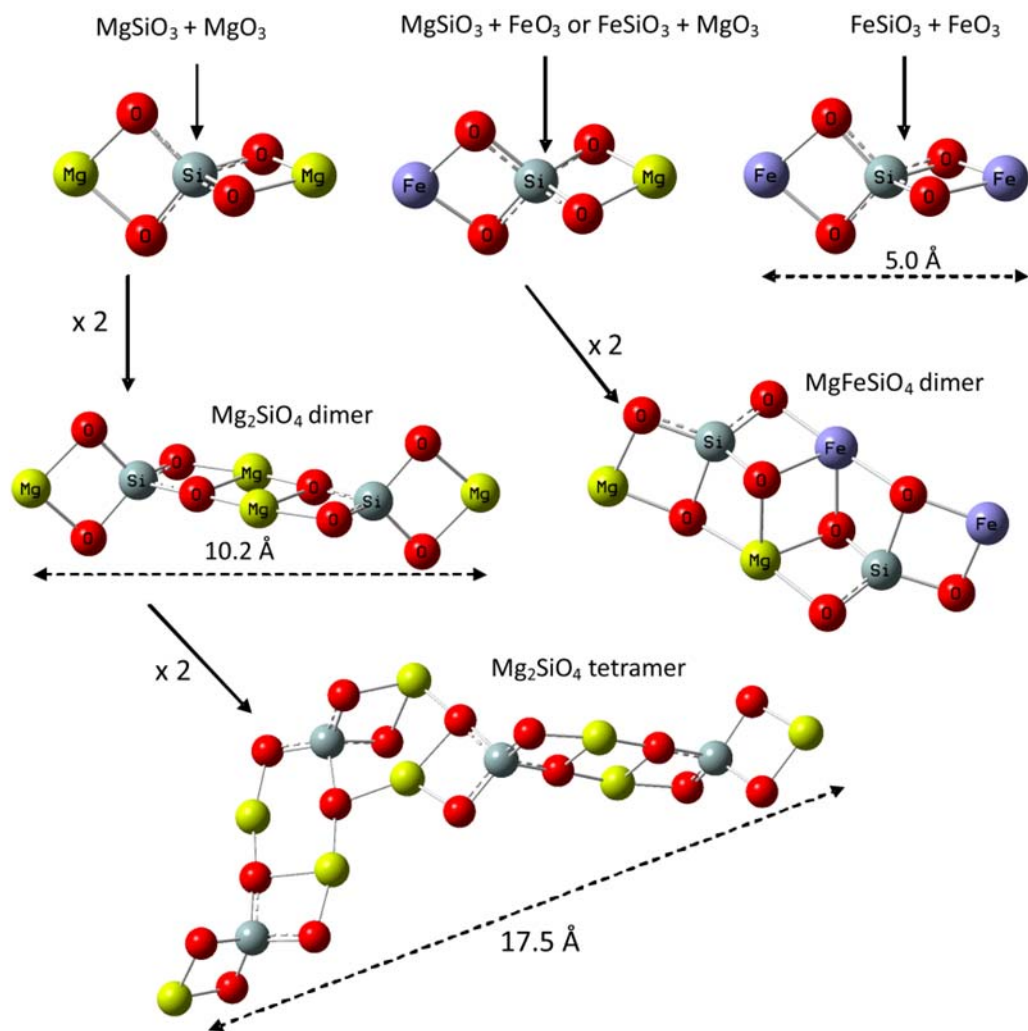


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