

Water Adsorption on Environmental Metal Oxides and Atmospheric Dusts Determined by the Diffuse Reflectance Infrared Fourier Transform Spectroscopy (DRIFTS) Technique

Shane McDemos, Rachel Sechan, Alden Walkley, Tobin Thorton, Declan Bates, Christopher W. Harmon

Introduction:

Environmental metal oxides (EMO) have multiple chemical and physical interactions with the environment.¹ Dust storms and agriculture are the main contributors to introducing EMO from the surface to the atmosphere as seen in **Figure 1**.² The composition of the Earth's surface crust is dispersed with various metal oxides as seen in **Table 1**.³

TABLE 1: Abundance of Major Elements and associated oxides in the Upper Continental Crust (from Ref. 3)

Element	% Abundance	Oxide	% Abundance
Si	30.348	SiO ₂	61.5
Al	7.744	Al ₂ O ₃	15.1
Fe	3.089	Fe ₂ O ₃	6.28
Ca	2.945	CaO	5.5
K	2.865	K ₂ O	2.4
Na	2.567	Na ₂ O	3.2
Mg	1.351	MgO	3.7
Ti	0.3117	TiO ₂	0.68
Ba	0.0668	BaO	0.0584
Mn	0.0527	MnO	0.1

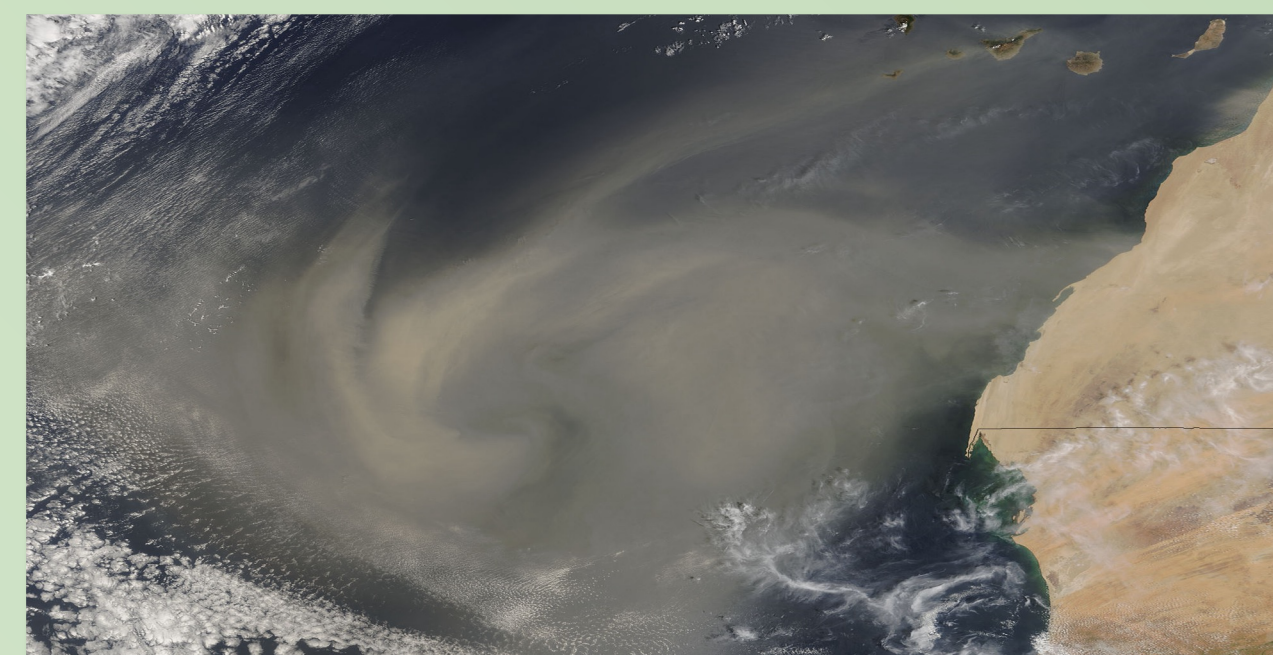


Figure 1: Dust storm from the coast of West Africa and the Sahara Desert taken Sept. 2012.²

Particulate matter (PM) plays an important role in cloud formation because it acts as a nuclei for water vapor, leading to the formation of cloud droplets. The solid/air interface serves as the initial site where water molecules begin to aggregate and form molecular, or mono-, layers and eventually tiny liquid droplets on the surface of these dust particles, which is dependent on atmospheric conditions.

EMOs are an abundant component of atmospheric dust, PM, and minerals, and provide surfaces onto which water vapor can adhere and accumulate. As the ambient relative humidity (RH) rises, water vapor comes into contact with these PMs, forming a thin layer of water quantified by the number of monolayers (θ_w). This process continues as more water vapor condenses onto the existing monolayers, gradually building up and forming larger droplets. These initial stages of cloud formation, facilitated by PM, are essential for the subsequent growth and development of clouds. As more water vapor condenses and accumulates around these nuclei, the cloud droplets grow in size until they become visible clouds. Therefore, understanding the properties and behavior of EMOs in the atmosphere and their behavior in PM is crucial for comprehending the processes underlying cloud formation and precipitation.

Methodology

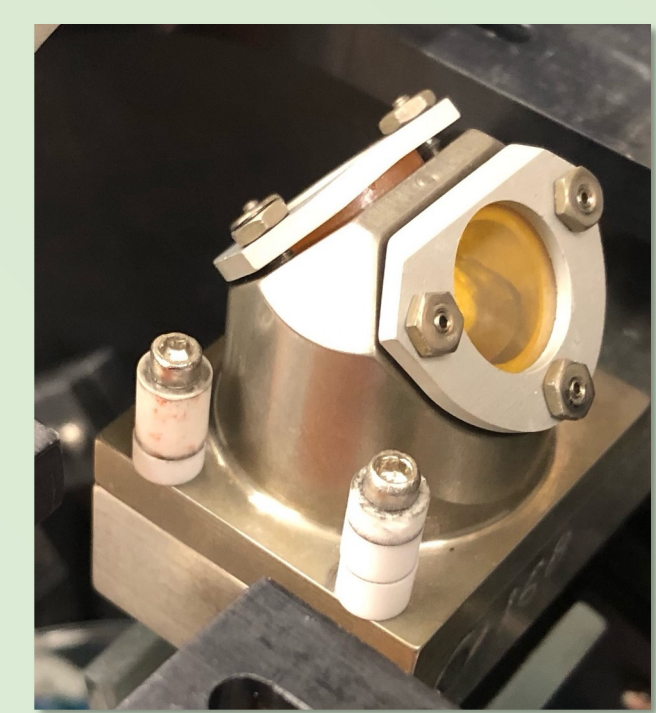
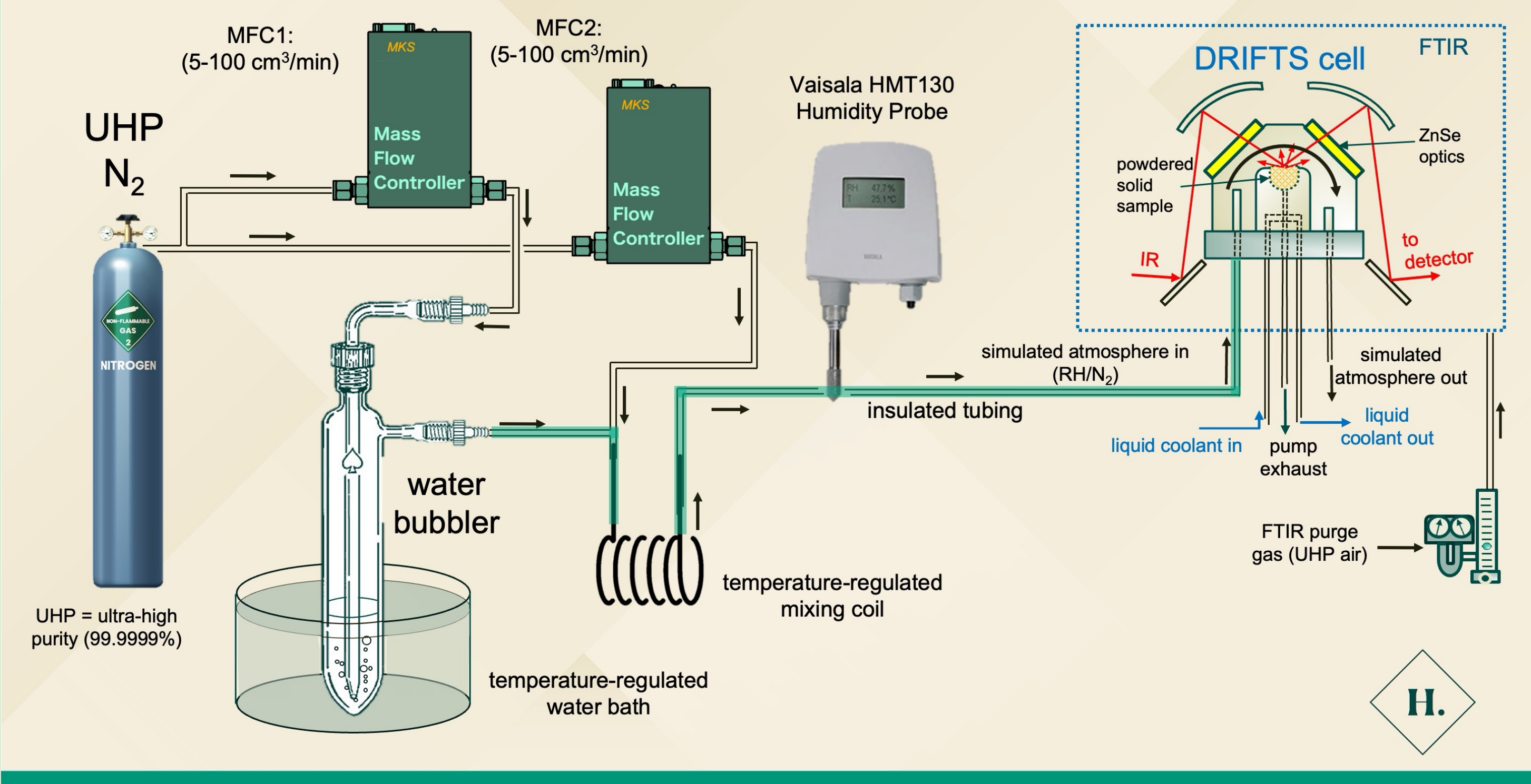


Figure 2: DRIFTS (Diffuse Reflectance Infrared Fourier Transform Spectroscopy) apparatus and gas manifold. DRIFTS technique is a form of infrared spectroscopy specialized in analyzing the IR spectra of solid (powder) surfaces. The DRIFTS cell apparatus is placed inside an FTIR that produces and analyzes infrared frequencies that reflect through the DRIFTS cell and sample after absorption. Mass flow controllers (MFC) are capable of gas flow outputs at variable flow rates to introduce both dry ultra-high purity (UHP) N₂ and humid UHP N₂ to the DRIFTS cell. A calibrated Vaisala RH Probe (HMT 130) quantifies the % RH before entering the DRIFTS cell, which is carefully temperature-controlled to maintain a steady and reliable RH.

Simulated Atmosphere: Harmon Lab at Cal Poly Humboldt



Results and Discussion

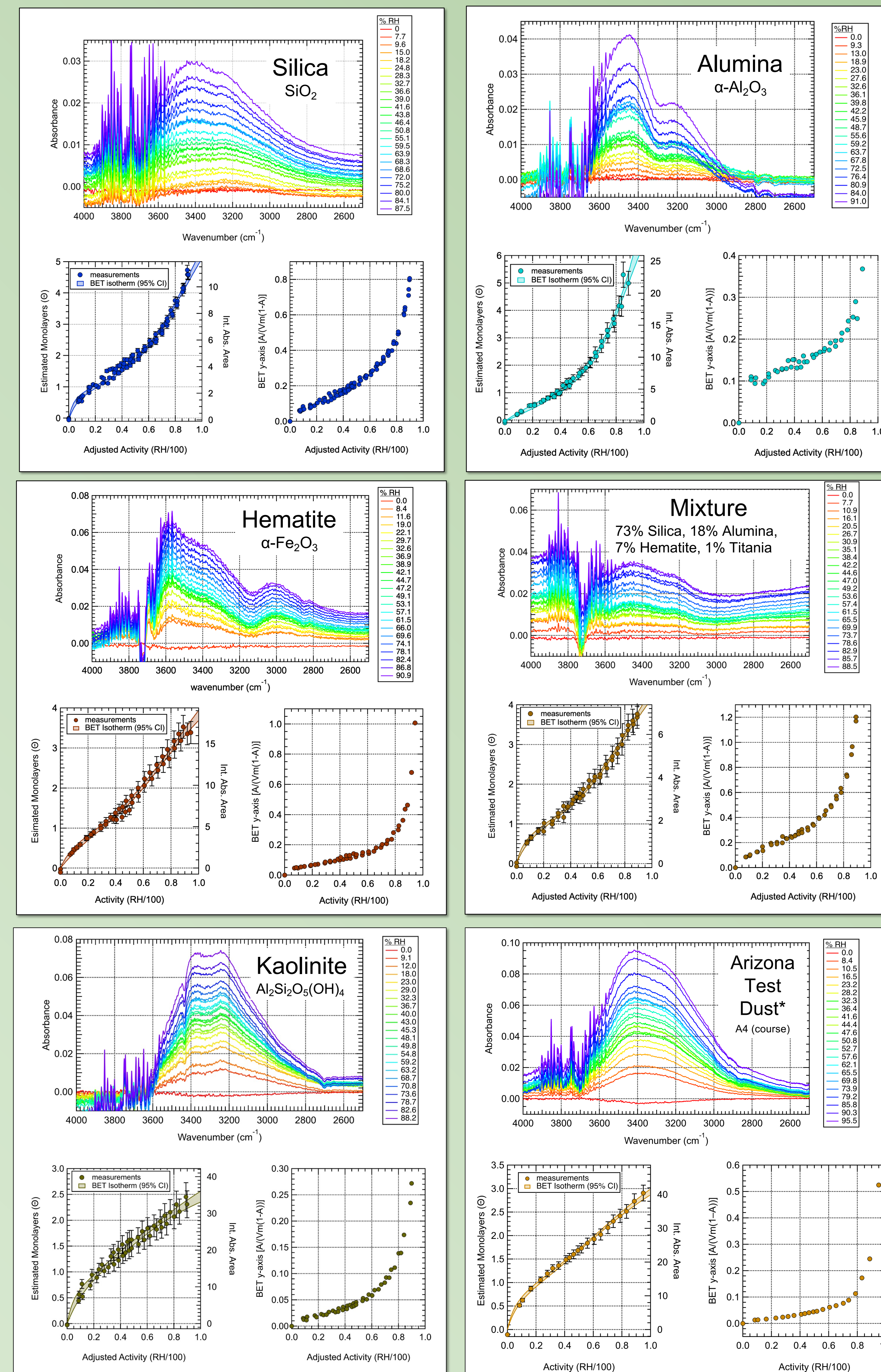


Figure 3: DRIFTS spectra of adsorbed water (top), integrated area, and estimated number of water monolayers (bottom left), and BET plot (bottom right) of various samples investigated.

***TABLE 2: Arizona Test Dust Composition**

Component	% Abundance
SiO ₂	69–77
Al ₂ O ₃	8–14
CaO	2.5–5
K ₂ O	2–5
Na ₂ O	1–4
Fe ₂ O ₃	4–7
MgO	1–2
TiO ₂	0–1

B.E.T. Adsorption Isotherms

$$V \propto \int_{V_i}^{V_j} A dV \quad (1) \quad A_w = \frac{P}{P_o} = \frac{RH}{100} \quad (2)$$

$$C = \exp\left(\frac{\Delta H_1 - \Delta H_2}{RT}\right) \quad (3)$$

$$\theta_w = \frac{V}{V_m} = \frac{CA_w}{(1 - A_w)(1 - A_w + CA_w)} \quad (4)$$

$$\frac{A_w}{V(1 - A_w)} = \frac{1}{CV_m} + \left(\frac{C-1}{CV_m}\right) A_w \quad (5)$$

$$y = \frac{1}{b} + \frac{m}{x}$$

Equation 1 demonstrates the initial assumption in that the integrated absorbance spectrum (A) is proportional to the volume (V) of an adsorbed water layer, which is confirmed by literature.⁴⁻⁶ Water Activity (A_w) is defined by equation 2 as ratio of the vapor pressure of water (P) to its saturation vapor pressure (P_o), or % relative humidity (RH) divided by 100. Equation 3 defines the B.E.T. constant, C , where $\Delta H_{2/1}$ are the enthalpy of vaporization of the bulk (2) and first layer (1) of water, respectively. Equation 4 is the classic B.E.T. equation, where V_m is the volume of water required to make one monolayer, and θ_w , C , and A_w have been defined above.⁷

Equation 5 is the linear form of the B.E.T. equation, where the slope (m) and intercept (b) are related to the C and V_m constants shown above.⁷ This form of the equation is only linear between 0 and ~35% RH and is used to determine B.E.T. parameters.⁷ Equation 6 is a modified version of the B.E.T. equation that assumes the surface will become saturated by a maximum number of adsorbate layers (n) at saturation vapor pressures, whereas equation 4 assumes there will be an infinite number.⁷ Previous studies have determined equation 6 is more appropriate for EMO than equation 4.⁴ Equation 7 is a similar rearrangement of equation 6 as was done with equations 4 and 5. The same slope (m) and intercept (b) are determined in equation 7 compared to equation 5 over the linear range (0–35%RH), and we propose the use of a power term (Kx^n), or perhaps something similar, to approximate the higher-order terms. Thus, B.E.T. plots will be generated with $A_w/V(1-A_w)$ as the y-axis, allowing us to determine V_m , C , and n as well as θ_w as a function of A_w and confirming the B.E.T. isotherm is adequate for describing the water uptake of EMO.

$$\theta_w = \frac{V}{V_m} = \left(\frac{CA_w}{1 - A_w}\right) \left(\frac{1 - (n+1)A_w^n + nA_w^{n+1}}{1 + (C-1)A_w - CA_w^{n+1}}\right) \quad (6)$$

$$\frac{A_w}{V(1 - A_w)} = \frac{1}{CV_m} + \left(\frac{C-1}{CV_m}\right) A_w - \frac{A_w^{n+1}}{V_m} + \frac{A_w}{V(1 - A_w)} (nA_w^{n+1} + A_w^{n+1} - nA_w^{n+2}) \quad (7)$$

$$y = \frac{1}{b} + \frac{m}{x} + Kx^n$$

Table 3: Results of B.E.T Analysis

(d_p)	SiO ₂	α -Al ₂ O ₃	α -Fe ₂ O ₃	Mixture	ATD 1 (4.85 μ m)	ATD 2 (16.73 μ m)	ATD 3 (25.19 μ m)	ATD 4 (47.78 μ m)	Kaolinite
C	20.07 ± 4.66	3.201 ± 0.930	6.195 ± 0.956	11.84 ± 1.60	10.72 ± 0.71	8.904 ± 1.020	10.13 ± 0.53	12.44 ± 1.61	10.25 ± 0.98
n	9.585 ± 0.569	13.49 ± 1.53	6.814 ± 0.73	7.652 ± 0.162	3.099 ± 0.047	3.052 ± 0.084	3.219 ± 0.034	4.772 ± 0.107	4.089 ± 0.087
V_m	2.377 ± 0.076	4.314 ± 0.373	4.833 ± 0.392	1.844 ± 0.0737	33.79 ± 4.37	14.53 ± 1.07	19.59 ± 1.40	13.93 ± 0.81	14.07 ± 1.58

Table 3 shows a summary of the results. As can be seen, particles that are silica dominate have very similar C constant values, ranging between 8–12. The mixture was made to be similar to that of Arizona Test Dust (ATD), shown in Table 2. Different sizes (d_p = average particle diameter) of ATD are available and standardized. Interestingly, the different sizes have very similar behavior in the low % RH (indicative of a similar C constant) but very different behavior at high % RH. This will be explored in future research.

References

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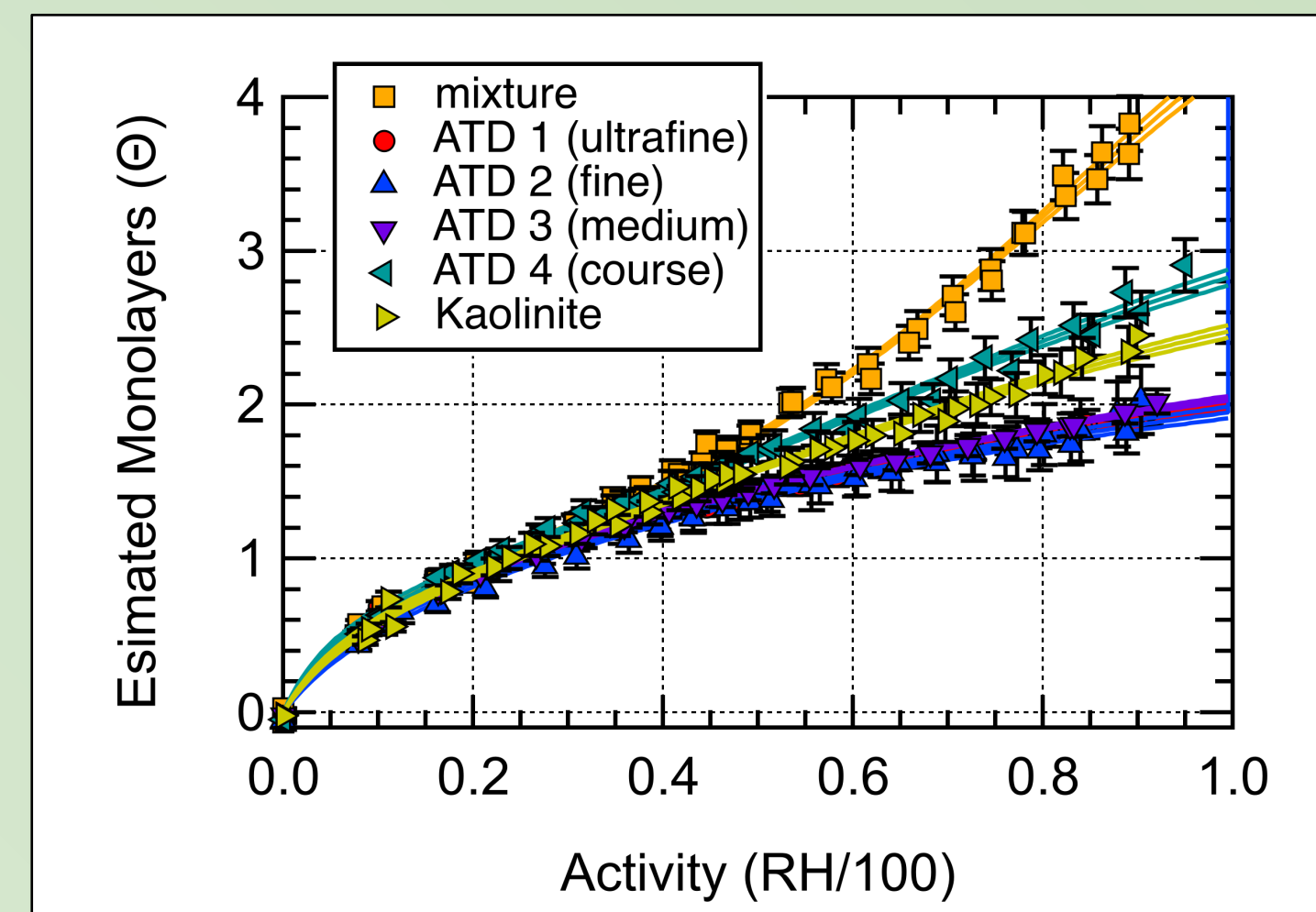


Figure 4: A comparison of silica dominate particles, all of which behave very similar at low % RH