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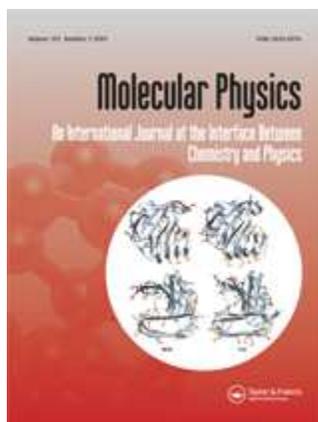
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INVITED ARTICLE

Grand Canonical Monte Carlo study of Argon adsorption in Aluminum nanopores

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We present a theoretical study of Argon adsorption on a model Aluminum substrates structured with cylindrical nanopores. We employ state-of-the-art computational methods to obtain i) accurate three-dimensional adsorption potentials for the nanostructured substrate starting from the corresponding *ab initio* physisorption potential for a planar surface, and ii) the adsorption and desorption isotherms by means of Grand Canonical Monte Carlo simulations. We study the effect of pore shapes upon Argon adsorption in the case of a substrate characterized by a periodic arrangement of identical cylindrical nano-pores, open at both ends or with one end closed. We find the occurrence of hysteresis loops between adsorption and desorption cycles in open-end pores, in accordance to recent experiments and to previous theoretical approaches. At variance with the prediction of the empirical Cohan’s law, we also find hysteresis in pores with one closed end.

1. Introduction

Over the last decade, the rapid development of nanotechnologies, especially synthesis and modification of novel nanostructured materials, has raised the attention of theoreticians and experimentalists to the properties of fluids confined in nanostructured materials. In particular, nanoporous materials possess a unique set of properties, absent in the bulk materials such as high specific areas, fluid permeability, molecular sieving and shape-selective properties. Different nanoporous materials with varying pore size, porosity, pore size distribution and composition have different adsorption properties that will eventually determine their potential applications. For instance, pores with open ends are often required for catalysis, filtration or membranes, while pores with one closed end are useful in sonic and thermal insulation, or lightweight structural applications.

The adsorption/desorption process of fluids in mesoporous materials often exhibits hysteretic behavior. This phenomenon is usually associated with the occurrence of capillary condensation and evaporation transitions. In 1932, Foster [1] advanced a classical argument, claiming that hysteresis is an intrinsic property of the phase transition in a single idealized pore. In particular, hysteresis could be associated with the appearance of a very large number of metastable states,

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1 which are local minima of the free energy (or the grand potential) corresponding
 2 to different configurations of the fluid density [2, 3].

3 In general, during the adsorption cycle in an idealized infinite cylindrical pore,
 4 the adsorbate is located on the pore walls. Capillary filling takes place at a vapor
 5 pressure which is lower than the thermodynamic vapor–liquid coexistence pressure
 6 of the bulk phases. From a microscopic point of view, this process follows from
 7 density fluctuations in the gaseous region, which must produce large enough liquid
 8 droplets to act as condensation nuclei. The pore ends (if both open) do not alter
 9 the mechanism which gives rise to condensation, but they change dramatically
 10 the evaporation (emptying) mechanism, which starts instead from a hemispherical
 11 meniscus at each end of the pore, which progressively recedes [4].

12 The equilibrium vapor pressure P for a liquid–vapor interface with mean curva-
 13 ture H is given by the classical Kelvin’s equation:
 14

$$15 \ln \left(\frac{P}{P_{sat}} \right) = -2H \frac{\gamma V_L}{RT} \quad (1)$$

16 where P_{sat} is the saturated vapor pressure, γ is the liquid–gas surface tension at
 17 temperature T , V_L is the molar liquid volume and R is the ideal gas constant.
 18 A generalization of the Kelvin equation for capillary condensation including the
 19 interaction with the substrate is contained in Ref.[5].

20 Cohan’ argument [6] allows to understand adsorption hysteresis within cylindri-
 21 cal pores. During the condensation on the pore walls, the meniscus has a cylindrical
 22 shape and its mean curvature H is $[2(r - t)]^{-1}$, where r is the pore radius and t
 23 the thickness of the adsorbate. The mean curvature of each of the two hemispherical
 24 evaporation meniscii is instead $(r - t)^{-1}$; this yields a numerical factor 2 in the
 25 Kelvin equation between the two cases, thus explaining the hysteresis. The irre-
 26 versibility of the adsorption process in a cylindrical or slit-like pore with open ends
 27 has been predicted by a variety of molecular modeling methods [4, 7–12].

28 The situation is different, in principle, in pores with one closed end: there, hys-
 29 teresis should not be observed because during both adsorption and desorption
 30 cycles the meniscus is hemispherical, so the isotherms for each branch should be
 31 identical. A large number of experimental works, however, show that hysteresis is
 32 sometimes present in adsorption within closed-end pores. For example, experimen-
 33 tal investigations of adsorption of nitrogen [13] or argon [14] on mesoporous silicon
 34 show pronounced hysteresis loops, irrespective of whether the pores are open at
 35 one or at both ends.

36 Capillary condensation is governed by the strength ratio and range of the fluid-
 37 fluid and the fluid–substrate interaction [15], therefore the disorder of the pore walls
 38 associated with local differences in the pore diameter and/or with the presence of
 39 defects/impurities should affect in a measurable way the adsorption within pores.
 40 For this reason, when hysteresis is present in adsorption within closed-end pores,
 41 it is usually attributed to disorder which, in the first place, is sourced from size
 42 differences among the pores of a matrix. Sometimes, analysis of the hysteresis loop
 43 is carried out just in order to estimate the pore size distribution [16]. The assump-
 44 tion of disorder as reason behind hysteresis has been confirmed by the results of
 45 theoretical works, such as in [17] where adsorption on a silica xerogel and on a
 46 porous glass (examples of a disordered material) are simulated. Surface roughness
 47 and morphological defects, such as constrictions, were simulated [18–21] as well;
 48 and the inkbottle geometry [10, 21, 22] has been often taken as prototype for the
 49 local differences in the pore diameter. Puibasset *et al.* [23, 24] studied the effect of
 50 topological and chemical heterogeneities of the pore walls, through suitable modu-
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lations of the external potential; moreover, it has been shown that any modulation of the fluid/wall interaction strongly affects the adsorption isotherms [23, 25].

A thermodynamic approach to the effect of pore space connectivity was provided in Ref.[26]; even when pores are physically separated, when they are completely filled, they are connected by the liquid film on the planar external surface, so network effects can arise anyway [27, 28]. The liquid film might prevent the concave meniscus from passing through each pore at the expected equilibrium pressure (as predicted, e.g., by Kelvin's equation), the emptying of the pore being due by the tearing of the film at the edges of the pore, as proposed in Ref.[13]. The hysteresis may depend upon the temperature, pore diameter, shape of meniscus or surface heterogeneity of the pore walls, so that the absence of hysteresis beyond a certain diameter or temperature could be observed in some cases[29].

The elastic deformations of the porous material during the gas adsorption may also be related to the presence of hysteretic behavior [30–32]. It was found that the pores interact through the elastic deformation of their walls whether they are interconnected or not [31]. Although the adsorption of gases inside cylindrical pores with one closed end has been studied in a few theoretical papers [4, 7, 8, 10, 11, 24], the behavior of condensable vapors in this kind of pores, and in particular the very nature (irreversible vs. reversible) of the adsorption process, is still a debated issue.

The main motivation of this work is to apply state-of-the-art computational tools to study the entire adsorption/desorption cycle of Ar on a nanoporous substrate. For the choice of the substrate we were inspired by the experiments on Ar adsorption within alumina substrates characterized by a controlled presence of an ordered array of pores described in Ref. [16, 33], which reveal hysteresis loops between adsorption and desorption cycles, even in the case of pores closed at one end. A low degree of disorder is suggested by the shape of the loops: H1-type (quasi parallel adsorption and desorption branches), instead of the usual H2-type (asymmetric loop, with a desorption branch much steeper than the adsorption branch) [34]. Following this experimental setup, we have simulated the adsorption of an Ar fluid on a chemically simpler aluminum substrate, structured with a regular arrangement of cylindrical nanopores, either open at both ends or with one closed end. To this aim: (i) we have applied the elementary source method, described in Sec.2.2, to obtain, starting from an accurate *ab initio* physisorption potential for the planar Al surface, a full three-dimensional potential for these nanostructured substrates, and (ii) we have computed the Argon adsorption isotherms on such substrates, at $T = 85$ K, by means of Grand Canonical Monte Carlo simulations (see Sec.2.1).

At variance with the predictions of Cohan's model, we find clear hysteretic behavior for closed end pores. We believe this is due to a so far overlooked effect, i. e. the formation of a planar film around the pore mouth. During desorption, a energy barrier for ripping such film gives rise to hysteresis. We will discuss experimental evidence for such effect in Sec.3.

2. Computational methods

We briefly describe, in this Section, our implementation of the Monte Carlo algorithm, by means of which the calculations have been performed, and the way to calculate the external potential, namely the elementary source method [35], starting with an accurate interaction potential between an Ar adatom and an Al planar surface.

The Ar–Ar interaction is described by the bare Lennard–Jones potential, with $\epsilon = 119.8$ K and $\sigma = 3.41$ Å; this is known to reproduce quite accurately the coexistence curve of Argon both in the gas and the liquid phase below the critical

point [36].

2.1. Grand Canonical Monte Carlo method

The Monte Carlo simulations were carried out in the Grand Canonical ensemble. This has the main advantage of accounting for density fluctuations at fixed temperature T and chemical potential μ , which allows us to properly study interfacial phenomena where two phases (vapor and liquid), which can exchange particles, are at equilibrium in the presence of an external substrate potential. This is possible by the random insertion and deletion of atoms [37]: the move is accepted according to the usual Metropolis formula [38], i. e. with probability:

$$P(N \rightleftharpoons N+1) = \max \left\{ 1, \left[\frac{V\Lambda^{-3}}{N+1} e^{\mu/k_B T} e^{-(E_{N+1}-E_N)/k_B T} \right]^{\pm 1} \right\} \quad (2)$$

whereas the probability for the displacement of a single particle is:

$$P(N \rightarrow N) = \max \left\{ 1, e^{\Delta E/k_B T} \right\} \quad (3)$$

where Λ is the thermal de Broglie wavelength, k_B the Boltzmann constant, and E_N (E_{N+1}) the internal energy of the configuration with N ($N+1$) atoms: it includes the contribution of the thermalized kinetic energy, the interparticle interaction and the interaction with the substrate.

The fraction of trials for atom displacement, insertion, and removal amounted to 50%, 25% and 25% respectively; the maximum allowed displacement was adjusted in order that the displacement acceptance ratio were 50%. Once the equilibrium is reached, the system is sampled at regular intervals. We have chosen the number of moves in order to sample the system every 5 ÷ 10 times the number of atoms, and to collect 6000 ÷ 10000 samples altogether: with this choice, consecutive samples are essentially uncorrelated.

In studying adsorption, we begin with a large, negative value for the chemical potential μ and very few atoms in the cell. When studying desorption, we initialize the system with the final configuration of the adsorption branch with the highest chemical potential. In both adsorption and desorption cycles, each simulation at a given μ is always started from the equilibrium atomic configuration obtained with the previous value of μ .

2.2. The substrate adsorption potential

In a recent work [39], Silvestrelli *et al.* have obtained the physisorption potential of an Argon atom on the Al(100) surface by means of *ab initio*-DFT calculations, modified to include Van der Waals (VdW) interactions. In particular, the binding energies and equilibrium distances on different surface adsorption sites have been computed, together with the dependence of the average adsorption potential on the adatom-surface distance z .

We derive here, from the results reported in Ref. [39], an effective potential which represents the overall adsorption properties of a planar model Al surface. In particular, we average the calculated potentials over the different adsorption sites, for a given distance from the surface, in order to obtain a function depending only

on z . The resulting potential has a minimum value $V_0 = -72.27$ meV at a distance $z_0 = 4.66$ Å. Although the inclusion of VdW effects is expected to give reliable values for the binding energy and equilibrium distance of the Ar atom, a proper calculation of the long-range tail of the adatom–surface potential (which behaves as $-C_3/z^3$) using the *ab initio* approach of Ref. [39] is difficult, due to the very big size required for the supercell. For this reason, we use for C_3 the value computed by direct summation of the frequency-dependent polarizabilities [40]. The potential $V_s(z)$ describing the interaction between an Ar atom and an Al planar surface has been obtained by fitting the *ab initio* results to a simple functional form, written in terms of a short-range repulsion and long-range van der Waals attractions:

$$V_s(z) = \frac{A}{z^9} - \frac{C_5}{z^5} - \frac{C_3}{z^3} \quad (4)$$

The two free parameters A and C_5 are adjusted in such a way to reproduce both the minimum depth V_0 and position z_0 in the potential as computed in our *ab initio* calculations. Proceeding this way, we obtained: $A = 8.25497 \times 10^4$ eV Å⁹, $C_3 = 1.490$ eV Å³ and $C_5 = 2.95683 \times 10^2$ eV Å⁵.

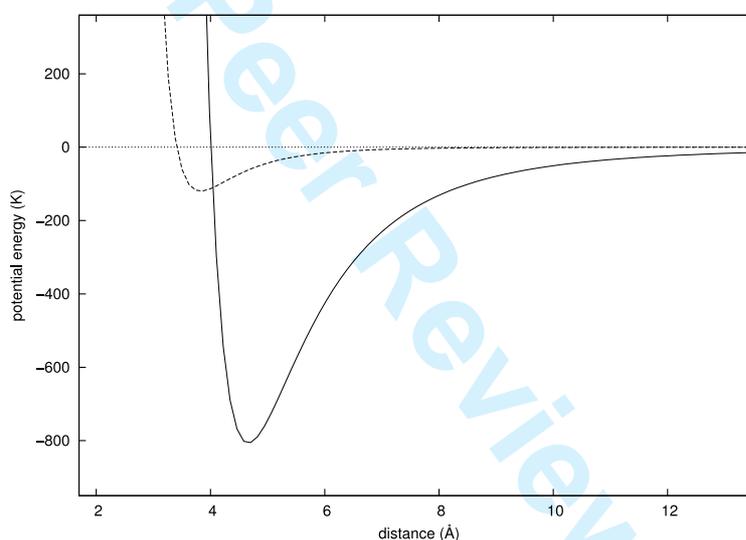


Figure 1. Comparison between the Ar–Ar potential (dashed line) and the average Ar–Al surface potential (solid line).

The Ar–Al surface average potential is plotted in Fig. 1, as a function of the Ar surface distance. For comparison, the much weaker Ar–Ar interatomic potential is also shown.

To accurately describe the interaction of Ar atoms with a much more complex substrate characterized by the presence of nanopores, we adopt here the elementary source method [35], which allows us to determine the adsorption potential for arbitrary geometries, provided the adsorption potential for the planar surface is known. Assuming a continuous distribution of matter, this technique derives the elementary contribution of a differential source, which can afterwards be integrated, weighted with a density that corresponds to an arbitrary surface topology, like cavities, wedges, pores, etc., to produce the adsorption potential for a foreign atom interacting with such a substrate. The method is numerically fast and robust, and gives rise to potential landscapes properly accounting for the topology of the

surface. If the solid is defined by the inequality $\psi(\mathbf{r}) > 0$, the potential energy $V_{ext}(\mathbf{r})$ for an atom at \mathbf{r} is computed as:

$$V_{ext}(\mathbf{r}) = \int \frac{d\mathbf{r}'}{2\pi} H(\psi(\mathbf{r}')) \frac{V_s''(|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|)}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|} \quad (5)$$

where H is the Heaviside function and V_s is the interaction potential between the adatom and the planar surface made of the same material. In our case, although $V_{ext}(\mathbf{r})$ has been computed only inside the supercell, in order to accurately reproduce the effect of the periodic arrangement of pores, the first neighboring cells have been included in the integration.

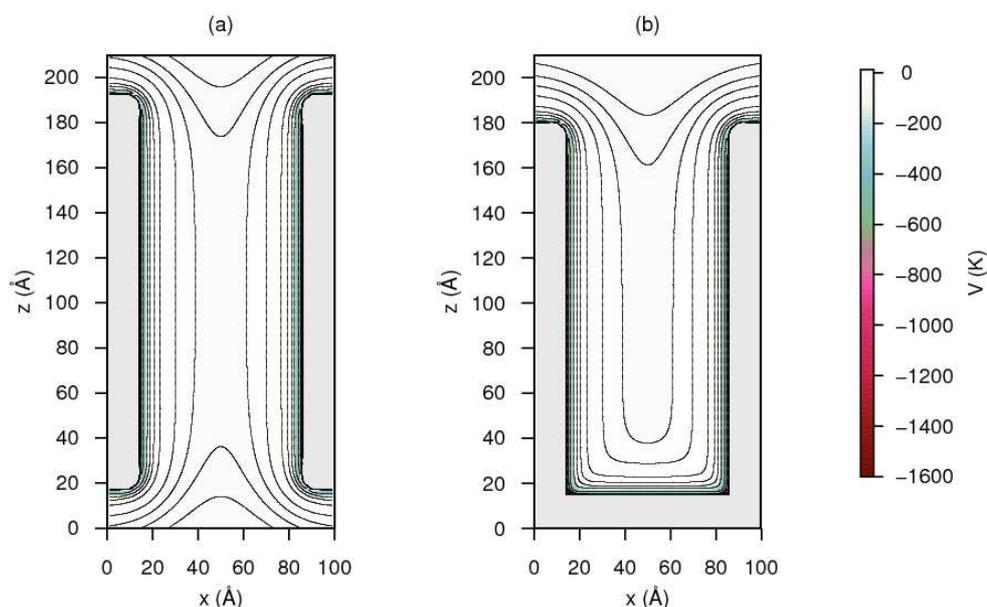


Figure 2. Maps of the interaction potential between an Ar atom and an Al pore (a) open at both ends and (b) closed at one end. The isopotential lines correspond to: -0.01, -0.5, -1, -2, -5, -10, -20, -50, -100, -200, -500, -800, -1000, -1200, -1400 K.

3. Results and discussion

Two models of nanopores have been considered in the present work: cylindrical pores open at both ends and cylindrical pores closed at one end. Their diameter is $D = 70 \text{ \AA}$ and their length is $L = 165 \text{ \AA}$. The supercell sizes are: $L_x = L_y = 100 \text{ \AA}$ and $L_z = 210 \text{ \AA}$, z being the direction of the pore axis. We have considered one pore per supercell: due to our use of periodic boundary conditions, as described in Sec.2, this actually results in a regular arrangement (square lattice) of identical parallel pores on an Al thin slab, each pore axis being 100 \AA distant from its first neighbor pores. This is the situation encountered in experiments [33], i. e. substrates patterned with regular arrays of nanopores rather than single, isolated pores.

1 A vacuum region about 30 \AA thick is added in order to decouple the repeated
 2 images of the slab along the z -axis, and to allow for the formation of a sufficiently
 3 thick vapor buffer in equilibrium with the adsorbed liquid. In the case of closed
 4 pores, at the top of the supercell a purely repulsive potential wall is added to the
 5 pore potential to keep the atoms inside the supercell during the simulations.

6 The landscapes of the Ar-substrate potentials associated with such geometries,
 7 computed as described in the previous Section, are shown in Fig. 2.

8 We have computed, using the GCMC method described in the previous Section,
 9 the Ar isotherms at $T = 85 \text{ K}$, for both adsorption and desorption. Isotherms
 10 are defined as relations between the coverage $\Gamma = \frac{1}{\Omega} \int d\mathbf{r} (\rho(\mathbf{r}) - \rho_v(\mathbf{r}))$ and the
 11 chemical potential μ . Due to the very low vapor density at the studied temperature
 12 ($T = 85 \text{ K}$), Γ practically coincides, up to a scale factor, with the total number
 13 of atoms N in the supercell. The experimental counterpart of the coverage thus
 14 defined is the amount of fluid adsorbed on the substrate in torsional microbalance
 15 experiments, like the ones described in Ref. [16].

16 The chemical potential μ is related to the vapor pressure p by [41] :

$$21 \quad \frac{\mu - \mu_{id}}{k_B T} = -\ln(1 + Q) + 2Q \quad (6)$$

22 where $Q = \left((4Bp/T + 1)^{1/2} - 1 \right) / 2$, μ_{id} is the chemical potential of the ideal
 23 gas and B is the second virial coefficient of Ar.

24 The adsorption and desorption cycles are simulated by systematically increasing
 25 or decreasing the chemical potential, using the final, equilibrium configuration for
 26 a given μ as the initial configuration for the next value of μ .

27 We first computed the isotherm for Ar adsorption on the planar Al surface de-
 28 scribed by the adsorption potential Eq. (4). Since no hysteresis loop is possible in
 29 such translationally-invariant geometry, the isotherms are the same along the ad-
 30 sorption and desorption paths. We show in Fig. 4 our results at $T=85 \text{ K}$: Plateaus
 31 are present at low coverages, which are due to the layer-by-layer growth of the
 32 adsorbed fluid, each plateau being associated with the successive completion of
 33 single Ar atomic layer. A few density profiles corresponding to the early stages of
 34 adsorption on the planar surface are shown in Fig. 3

35 We verified that, closer to the coexistence value of μ (rightmost part of Fig.
 36 4), the coverage dependence upon $\Delta\mu \equiv \mu - \mu_{coex}$ follows the Frenkel-Halsey-Hill
 37 power law $N \propto (\Delta\mu)^{-1/3}$ expected for the growth of a planar film under the action
 38 of non-retarded Van der Waals interactions.

39 Next, we performed GCMC simulations of the adsorption/desorption process of
 40 Ar, at $T = 85 \text{ K}$, inside the periodic arrangement of cylindrical nanopores, both
 41 open-ended and closed-ended, described previously.

42 We show in Fig. 5 the computed isotherm for the open-ended pore (a) and for
 43 the closed-ended pore (b). According to the IUPAC classification [34], both the
 44 isotherms correspond to a type IV (typical of monolayer/multilayer adsorption
 45 in mesopores) and the hysteretic behavior to a type H1 (parallel adsorption and
 46 desorption branches). Both type of pores show hysteresis loops in the isotherms,
 47 whereas from Cohan's argument the closed pores should not exhibit hysteresis.
 48 We will discuss in the following a possible reason for such apparently anomalous
 49 behavior.

50 We show in Fig. 6) selected atomic equilibrium configurations at different chem-
 51 ical potentials, illustrating the adsorption/desorption processes in the open-ended
 52 pore arrangement. The adsorption process within the pore starts with the for-
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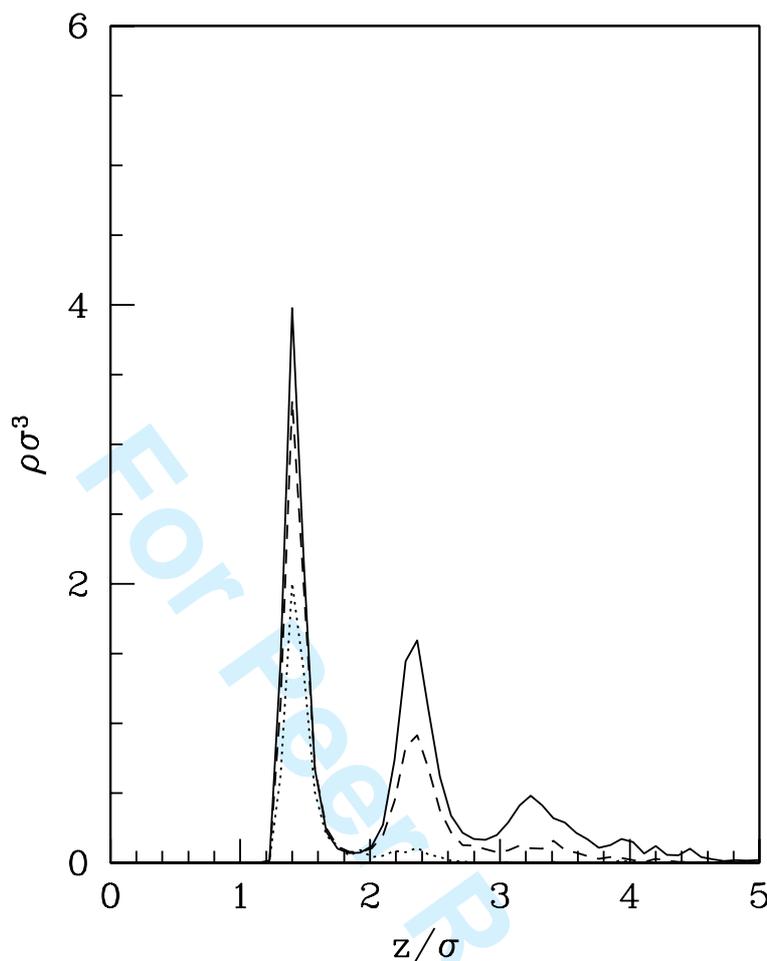


Figure 3. Density profiles corresponding to the early stages of Ar adsorption on a planar Al surface. Displayed quantities are in units of the Ar-Ar Lennard-Jones parameter $\sigma = 3.41 \text{ \AA}$ (see text).

mation of a monolayer on its inner wall. The associated density has a maximum value which is higher than the bulk density, and it is located at the Al surface - Ar potential energy minima. As the chemical potential increases, growth proceeds initially in a layer-by-layer manner. At higher coverages, the density along the pore axis becomes appreciable, leading to capillary filling of most of the pore region (although with a lower density along the pore axis) ($\Delta\mu \cong -31.4 \text{ K}$, Fig. 6a). At this point the meniscus shape changes from cylindrical to hemispherical, while the two newly created meniscii move towards the pore mouths as the chemical potential is further increased. The pore filling is accompanied by a steep increase in coverage with μ , which is followed, once the pore is almost completely filled, by a much less steep increase of the coverage with μ (starting from $\Delta\mu \cong -29.0 \text{ K}$, Fig. 6b). This latter regime corresponds to configurations where the two meniscii, pinned at the pore mouths, gradually decreases their curvature (Fig. 6c). Eventually, the curved meniscii merge with the thin film already present on the flat portion of the surface around the pore entrances, and the isotherm slope increases again, leading to the usual Frenkel-Halsey-Hill law $N \propto \Delta\mu^{-1/3}$, as expected for a flat surface. We can only see the early stages of such regime, because of the finite size of our supercell along the z-direction.

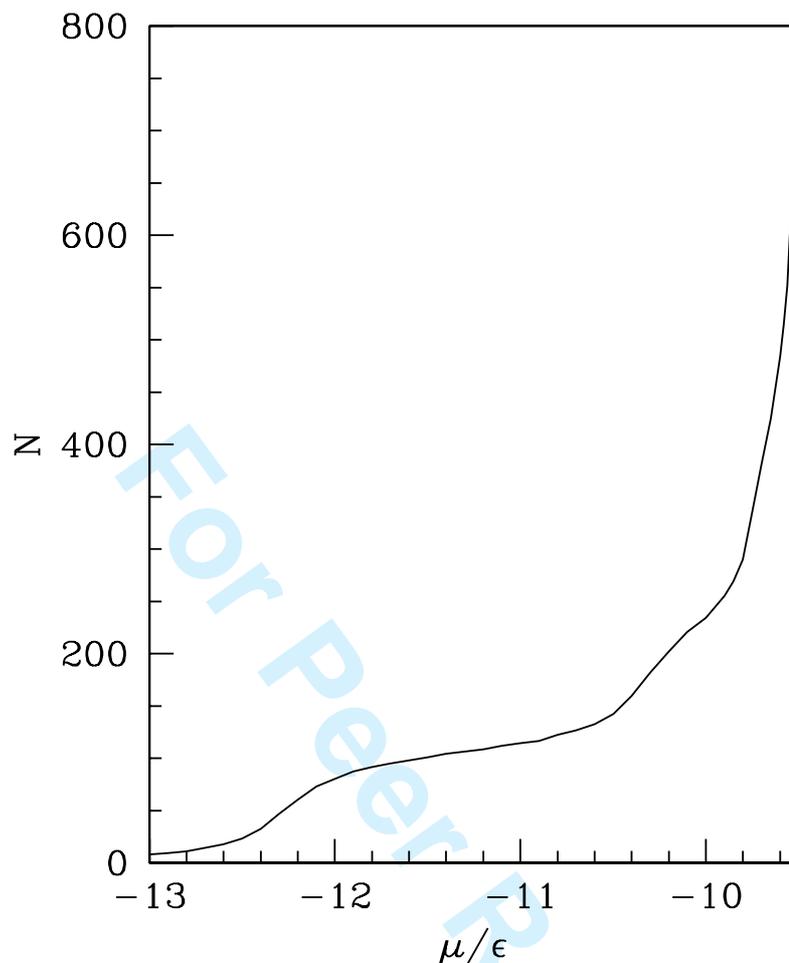
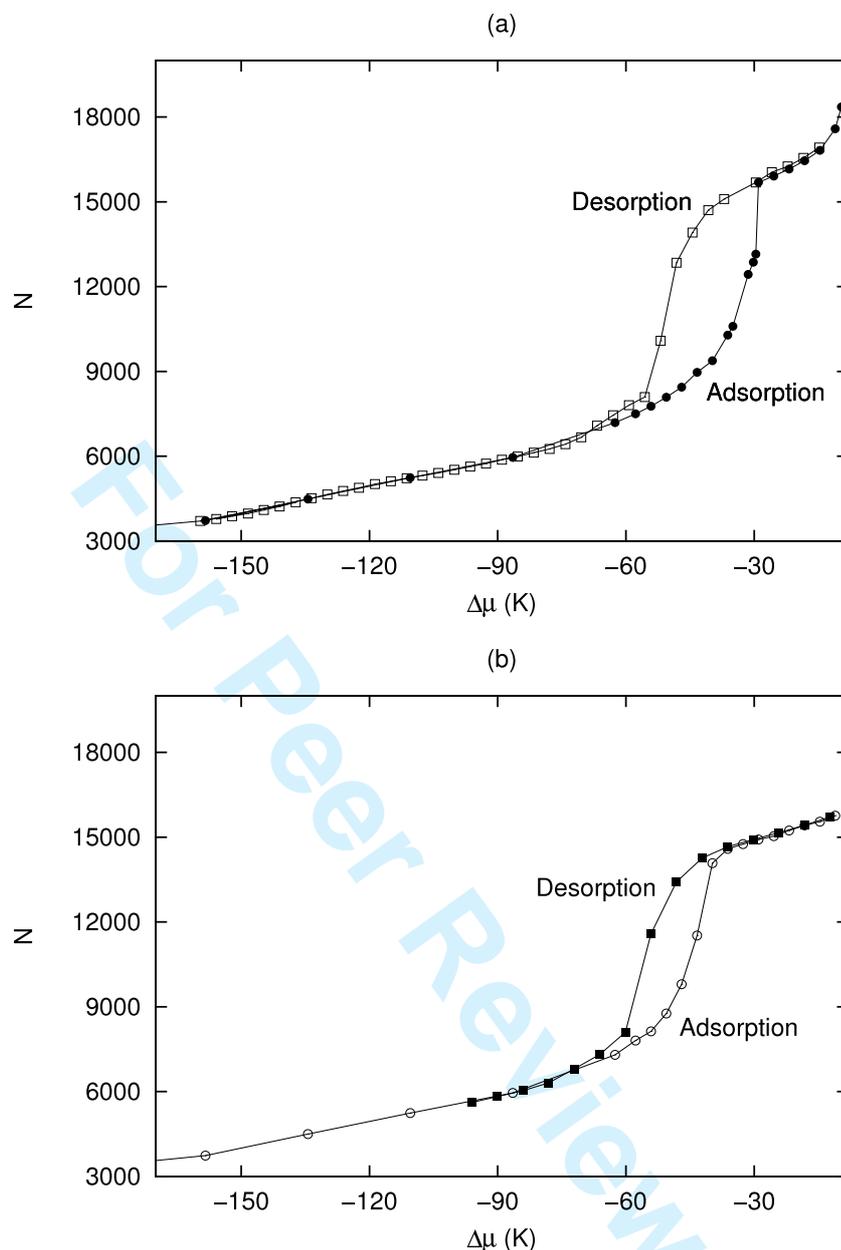


Figure 4. Calculated isotherm (at $T=85$ K) for the planar Al surface. The chemical potential is expressed in units of the Ar-Ar Lennard-Jones parameter $\epsilon = 119$ K.

The desorption cycle proceeds through the development of two hemispherical menisci at each of the pore ends. As the chemical potential decreases, first the menisci increase their curvature but remain pinned to the pore mouths, then they recede until the two fluid surfaces start interacting and ($\Delta\mu \cong -59.3$ K, Fig. 6d) the system eventually jumps to a more stable low-coverage configuration where the fluid mainly wets the pore inner wall.

From the density configurations shown in Fig. 6, it appears that, in addition to the localization perpendicular to the surface of the pore which gives rise to a marked layer structure, additional localization within each monolayer occurs along the monolayer plane (see in particular Fig. 6b) suggesting a partially solid-like nature of the adsorbed Ar in the pore interior.

In the case of a closed pore, in the early stages of adsorption (i.e. very negative μ values), a solid-like monolayer film covers the lateral and the bottom inner surface of the pore; the region at the bottom of the pore, along its contour, is covered first because of the stronger attraction, and the adsorbate density there is higher. Once the bottom of the pore is covered, a roughly hemispherical meniscus eventually forms (see Fig. 7b). As more atoms are adsorbed, the meniscus moves towards the pore entrance, until the whole pore is filled with Argon. The computed isotherms



42 Figure 5. (a) adsorption (bullet) and desorption (squares) isotherms ($T = 85$ K) of Ar in pores open at
43 both ends; (b) adsorption (o) and desorption (black squares) isotherms ($T = 85$ K) of Ar in pores closed
44 at one end.

45
46 are shown in Fig. 5b. We notice that there is an hysteresis loop also in the case
47 of adsorption within closed-ended pores, although it is narrower than that for the
48 open-end pores.
49

50 The desorption branch of the hysteresis loop for closed-ended pores occurs
51 roughly at the same μ values as for open-ended pores, as expected since in both
52 cases desorption proceeds with hemispherical menisci.

53 The adsorption branch of such loop is instead located at lower values of μ than
54 in the case of open-end pores. The difference $\Delta\mu$ between these two values is $\Delta\mu \sim$
55 $15K$, and it is roughly accounted for by the differences in the curvature between the
56 hemispherical meniscus in the closed-end pore and the cylindrical meniscus in the
57 open pore. We have computed, using Eq. (1) and Eq. (6), the expected difference
58 in chemical potential due to a cylindrical and hemispherical meniscus, and found
59
60

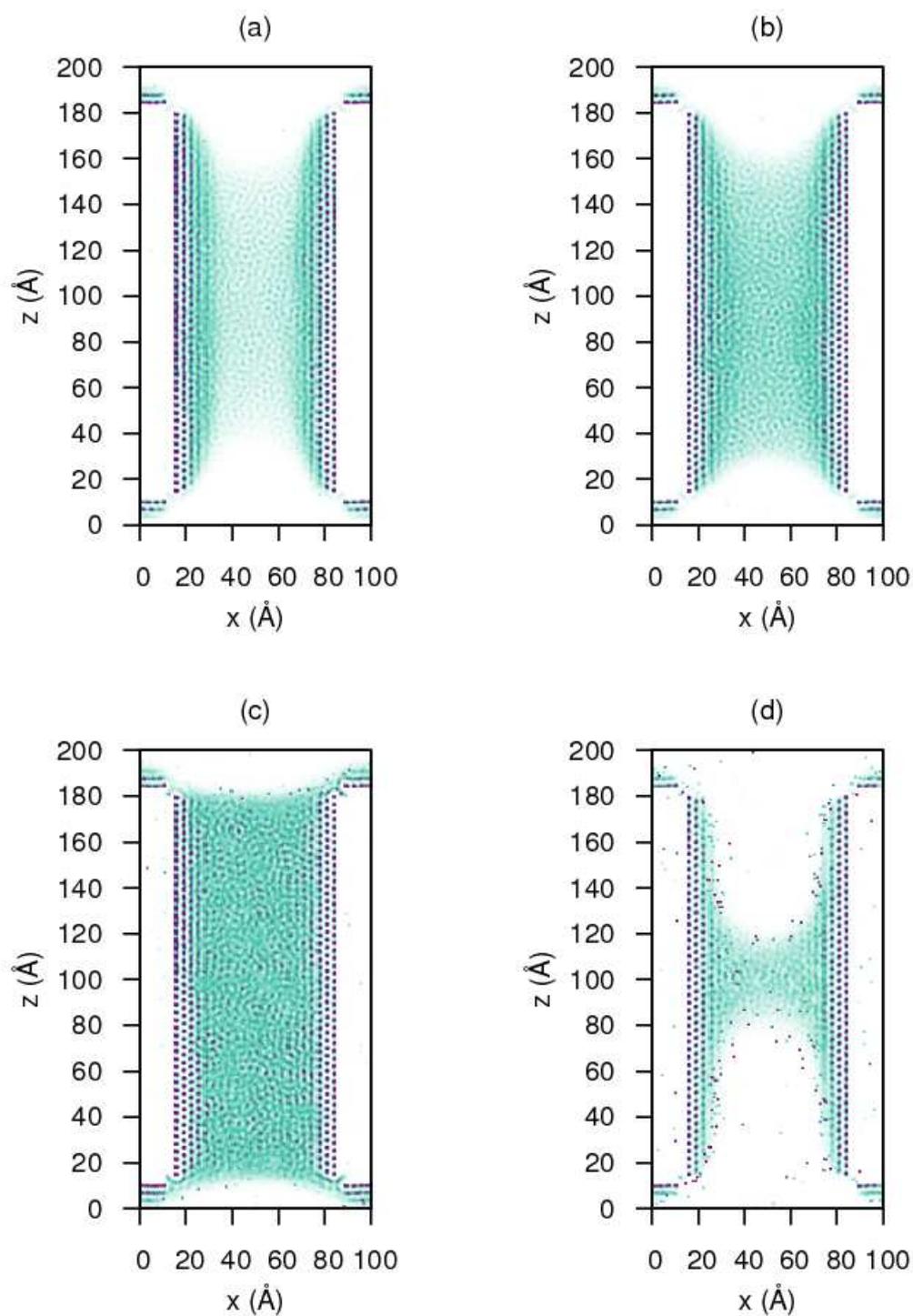


Figure 6. Argon density profile in the open-ended cylindrical pore, during the adsorption phase, at (a) $\Delta\mu = -31.4$ K (corresponding to $N = 12435$ atoms in the supercell); (b) $\Delta\mu = -29.0$ K ($N = 15695$ atoms); (c) $\Delta\mu = -9.6$ K ($N = 18358$ atoms); and during the desorption phase, at (d) $\Delta\mu = -59.3$ K ($N = 7806$ atoms). The darker the region, the higher the Argon density.

1 $\Delta\mu = 17 K$ (we estimated from our calculated density profiles that the thickness t
2 of the adsorbed film appearing in the expression of the curvatures, $H \propto (r - t)^{-1}$,
3 is roughly about 4 Ar monolayers).
4

5 As the pore is being filled, there is no sudden axial condensation as in the case
6 of the open pores, so the increase in N with the chemical potential is less abrupt than
7 for the open-ended pore.

8 At higher values of μ , when the filling of the closed pore is almost complete, the
9 slope of the isotherm decreases, as it happens also for the open-ended pore. In both
10 cases, this portion of the isotherm appears to be linear: for the closed-ended pore,
11 we have calculated a slope of 44.1 ± 1.5 atoms/K; for the open-ended pore, this
12 ratio is approximately twice, because there are two hemispherical menisci instead
13 of one. During this part of the isotherm, the meniscus remains pinned to the pore
14 circular mouth, while its curvature slowly decreases. In the meantime, a thin film
15 of increasing thickness also appears on the planar portion of the substrate between
16 neighboring pores.
17

18 The observed hysteretic behavior for closed-ended pores clearly disagrees with
19 the classical Cohan's model. As discussed in Sec.1, the presence of hysteresis in
20 adsorption experiments in porous materials [13, 14, 16, 21, 42] is usually attributed
21 to a wide pore size distribution, to the presence of surface disorder of the inner
22 walls of the pores, to network effects or, as proposed more recently, to the influence
23 of the porous matrix elasticity during the adsorption/desorption processes.
24

25 A recent experimental study [16, 33] of Ar adsorption on an alumina substrate
26 patterned with a regular arrangement of nearly ideal, parallel and unconnected,
27 cylindrical pores with diameters ≈ 10 nm and lengths $\approx 100 \mu\text{m}$ revealed pro-
28 nounced hysteresis of the H1-type also in the case of pores closed on one end. The
29 authors attributed it to quenched morphological disorder [14] (likely due to inhom-
30ogeneities on a subnanometer scale) on the inner walls of the otherwise very regular
31 pore structure used in these experiments. H1-type hysteresis, indeed, is often at-
32 tributed to a small degree of disorder [34], whereas most experimental isotherms
33 show instead H2-type loops.
34

35 We believe that in our case the hysteresis is caused by the formation of the
36 thin planar liquid film around the pore connecting adjacent pores entrances (see
37 Fig.6c and Fig.7c). During desorption, an energy barrier for tearing such film gives
38 rise to hysteresis. In Ref.[13] it has been suggested that hysteresis in systems of
39 pores closed at one end might be induced by the interplay between the liquid
40 adsorbed on the pore walls and the film adsorbed in the planar region surrounding
41 the pores. This film in the desorption process prevents the concave menisci from
42 passing through the pore at the expected equilibrium pressure, the emptying of
43 the pore being controlled by the tearing of the film at the edges of the pore itself.
44 Our calculations show that this is what indeed occurs, at least in ideal pores of
45 nanometer sizes.
46

47 We are unable to provide at present a numerical estimate for the energy barrier
48 associated with the effect described above, nor its relation with other energy scales
49 in the problem. Such estimate would imply a series of simulations using different
50 pore diameters (we expect that the energy required to tear the film will scale
51 linearly with the length of the pore mouth contour), aimed at relating the hysteresis
52 loop width to the pore diameter. Due to the very long computer times required for
53 such simulations, we must postpone these calculations to a forthcoming work.
54

55 A related hysteretic behavior has been recently observed in theoretical calcula-
56 tions of Helium adsorption on substrates nanopatterned with a regular arrange-
57 ment of parabolic nanocavities [43]. The addition of cavities breaks the planar
58 translational invariance and introduces adsorbing sites of enhanced strength, like
59
60

1 the bottom of the cavity, as well as desorbing sites of reduced strength, like the
2 annular region around the ridge of the cavity. As a result, enhanced hysteretic
3 behavior was observed in the calculated isotherms.

4 When no film is present in the region surrounding the pore mouths, the result-
5 ing isotherms for an ideal pore with one closed end would not show hysteresis.
6 This is the case, for instance, of the molecular dynamics simulations of adsorp-
7 tion/desorption of classical fluids within *isolated* slits with one closed end [10],
8 where no hysteresis is indeed observed.

9 We mention that hysteresis in closed-end pores was found also in the calculations
10 reported in Ref.[4]. In his work, a small loop in Xenon isotherms on silica-like
11 substrate was found at $T = 85$ K in an array of ideal cylindrical pores 16 nm long
12 and 4 nm wide (i.e. very similar to the ones used in our calculations). Moreover,
13 in a recent paper [29] the adsorption of Ar in graphitic cylindrical single pores
14 was studied at $T = 87.3$ K. Hysteresis has been found in 20.43 nm long closed-
15 ended pores, as long as they are at least 4 nm wide (narrower pores do not show
16 hysteresis); and in 6 nm wide closed-ended pores, as long as they are at least
17 13.6 nm long. The authors suggested that the pore diameter must be large enough
18 to allow the adsorbate particles in the confined liquid to rearrange, achieving a
19 better packing: in this way, the grand potential well for the metastable states in
20 the desorption branch is deeper, so a lower pressure is needed to make the system
21 jump to the stable state.

22 At variance with the results presented here, in the simulation accompanying the
23 experimental measurement of Ref.[21], where a geometry very similar to ours is
24 employed (i.e. a periodic array of very regular cylindrical pores, with a compa-
25 rable aspect ratio), no hysteresis is observed instead in the isotherms for pores
26 with one closed end. We do not have an explanation for such a discrepancy, apart
27 from suggesting that their use of an additional, artificial surface disordering (by
28 randomly moving the substrate atoms) to help the equilibration of their GCMC
29 simulations may actually facilitate the rupture of the thin film, thus narrowing
30 down the hysteretic loop width.

31 Finally, we remark that in our calculations, due to computational limitations
32 associated with the large number of atoms, we restrict ourselves to nanopores
33 where diameter and length are of the same order of magnitude, whereas in most
34 experimental realizations the pores are usually much longer than wide. This might
35 enhance the contribution to the computed isotherms coming from the pore ends,
36 although pore length effects on hysteresis loops are known to be small [4, 8].

4. Conclusions

45 We have studied, by using Grand Canonical Monte Carlo simulations, Argon ad-
46 sorption at $T=85$ K on a nanostructured Aluminum substrate characterized by a
47 periodic arrangement of cylindrical nanopores either open at both ends or closed at
48 one end. The calculated isotherms exhibit hysteresis loops of type H1 for both kind
49 of substrates. The presence of hysteresis agrees with experimental investigations
50 on porous alumina [16] and silicon [13, 14, 44]. Irreversible adsorption/desorption
51 cycles are observed not only in pores open at both ends, but in pores closed at one
52 end as well, at variance with the classical Cohan model, which predicts no hystere-
53 sis for this kind of substrate. While this failure is usually associated to the presence
54 of surface disorder of the inner walls of pores, in our case it is likely related to the
55 presence of a thin film phase on the planar surface between adjacent pores. During
56 desorption, a free energy barrier for tearing such film gives rise to hysteresis. Ex-
57 perimental observations of such effect should employ substrates with geometrically
58
59
60

ordered pores and sharp interfaces, since rounded/irregular pore mouths would probably hinder the observation of the predicted hysteresis loop.

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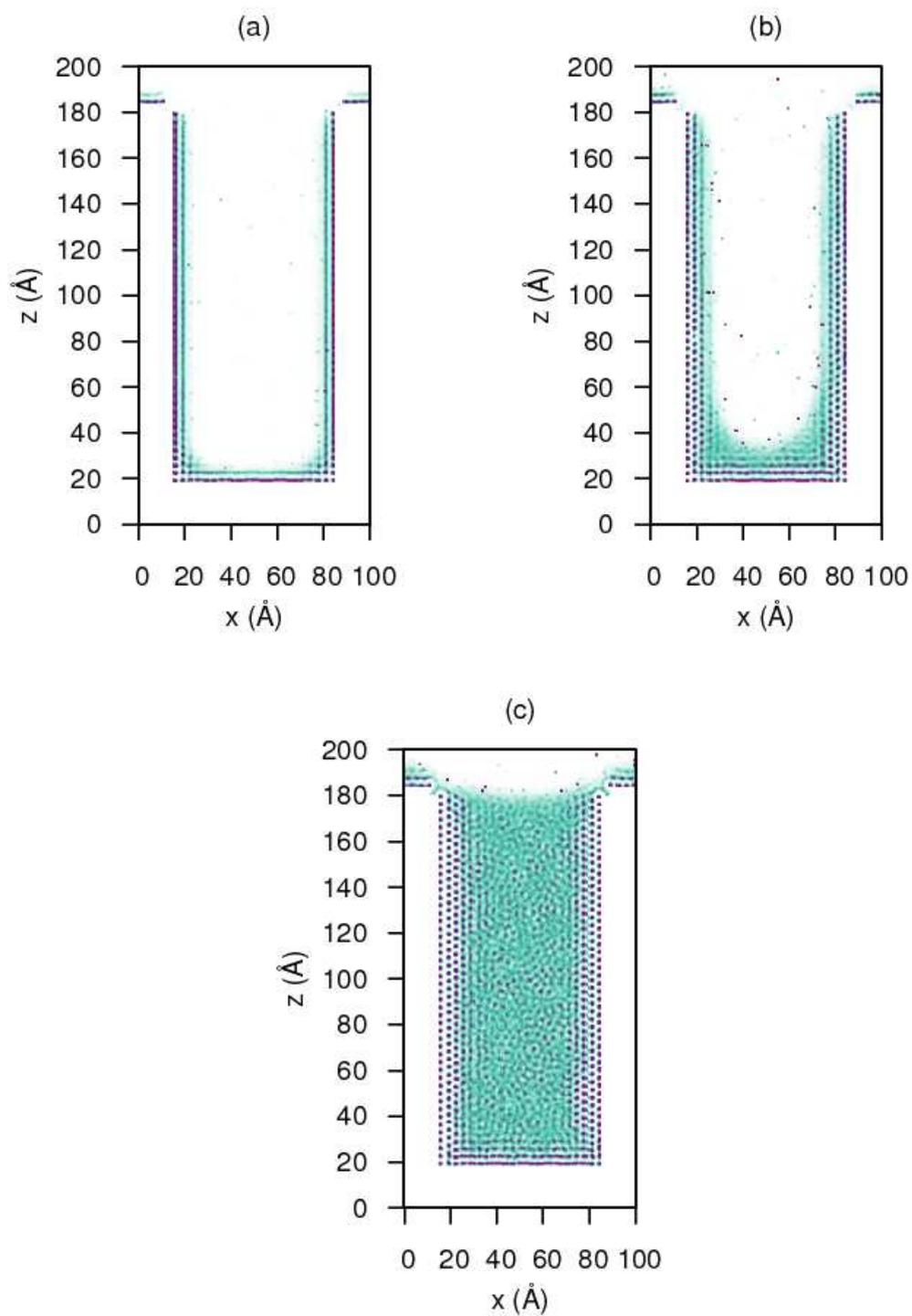


Figure 7. Argon density profile in the closed-ended cylindrical pore, during the adsorption phase, at (a) $\Delta\mu = -110.5$ K (corresponding to $N = 5244$ atoms in the supercell); (b) $\Delta\mu = -50.6$ K ($N = 8760$ atoms). The darker the region, the higher the Argon density.