NATIONAL BUREAU OF STANDARDS REPORT

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Preliminary Report
on the
Thermodynamic Properties of
Selected Light-Element and
Some Related Compounds

(Supplement to NBS Reports 6297, 6484, 6645, 6928, 7093, 7192, 7437, 7587, 7796, 8033, 8186, 8504, 8628, 8919, and 9028)

1 July 1966



U.S. DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE NATIONAL BUREAU OF STANDARDS

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Technical Summary Report
on the Thermodynamic Properties
of Light-Element Compounds

Reference: U.S. Air Force Order No. ISSA 65-8 (ARPA),
Project No. 9713-02

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ABSTRACT

Thermodynamic and related properties of substances important in current high-temperature research and development activities are being investigated under contract with the U. S. Air Force (USAF Order No. OAR ISSA 65-8) and the Advanced Research Projects Agency (ARPA Order No. 20). This research program is a direct contribution to the Interagency Chemical Rocket Propulsion Group: Working Group on Thermochemistry and, often simultaneously, to other organizations oriented toward acquiring the basic information needed to solve not only the technical problems in propulsion but also those associated with ballistics, reentry, and high-strength high-temperature materials. For given substances this needed basic information comprises an ensemble of closely related properties being determined by a rather extensive array of experimental and theoretical techniques. Some of these techniques, by relating thermodynamic properties to molecular or crystal structure, make it possible to tabulate these properties over far wider ranges of temperature and pressure than those actually employed in the basic investigations.

This report describes in detail a variety of recent NBS experimental results and their interpretation. The vibrational spectra of different isotopic varieties of MgF2, MgCl2, CaF2, SrF2, and BaF2 molecules trapped in solid rare-gas matrices were determined and analyzed; this technique particularly defines the bending vibrations. heretofore unreliable but a major factor in the thermodynamic properties of such gases. Preliminary microwave studies of the CsOH molecule indicate it to be linear and with highly anharmonic bending vibrations; these pioneering results have important implications for the spectroscopically little-investigated hydroxides of all the elements of Groups I, II, and III. Further infrared studies of the borohydrides of aluminum and beryllium show, between the solid and gaseous forms of the beryllium compound, a great difference which is tentatively interpreted. Spectroscopic time histories of aluminum wires exploding in vacuum and controlled atmospheres of nitrogen and oxygen were obtained. Measured calorimetrically were the heats of formation of the perchlorates of hydrazine (N2H1. 2HClO1), sodium, potassium, and silver, as well as the high-temperature heat capacity, heat of transition, and transition temperature of crystalline $A\ell F_3$. The heats of combustion in fluorine of refractory substances (especially graphite, boron, boron carbide, and aluminum borides, measured for the Air Force Aero Propulsion Laboratory), are here summarized and analyzed. The heat of vaporization of liquid Al203 has been remeasured with more reliable

temperature determination, and new mass-spectrometric data on several compositions of the BeO-Al₂O₃ system give a consistent value for the heat of formation of the new high-temperature molecule BeOAl.

Several literature reviews with critical data analysis are included. The present status of the heats of formation of CF), and selected fluorides of nitrogen, carbon, chlorine, and oxygen is described, with a report of recent NBS flame calorimetry on OF2. Thermochemical properties of compounds of cadmium, zinc, and copper (recently evaluated critically as part of a revision of NBS Circular 500) are tabulated. the basis of a critical data analysis of published condensed-phase heat-capacity and enthalpy data on BeSO1, SrF2, SrCl2, TiF1, ZrF1, ZrB2, PhOlo, KHF2, and 13 mixed oxides, new tables of their thermodynamic properties are given. Analyses of the infrared spectra of fluorides of seven elements of Groups IV, V, and VI gave Coriolis zeta constants of the degenerate vibrational modes and certain unique harmonic force fields. The high-temperature thermodynamics of the BeO-H2O system was reviewed, with estimations of the possible effect of postulated higher hydrates on the volatility of BeO in water vapor up to 4000°K. The published data on the vaporization equilibria of the nitrides and carbides of aluminum, beryllium, magnesium, and titanium were reviewed and compared with the values calculated thermodynamically from the available up-to-date thermal data. A comprehensive review is presented of the theory of the equation of state of solid hydrogen and the calculation of properties of the as yet unobserved form metallic hydrogen. This form of hydrogen probably occurs on the planet Jupiter at pressures above one million atmospheres.

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B-160	BaO·SiO ₂	solid	0-300	•	•	240
B-161	Ba0-2Si0 ₂	solid	0-300	•	•	241
B-162	2Ba0•3Si0 ₂	solid	0-300	•	•	242
B-163	2Ba0•Si0 ₂	solid	0-300	•	•	243
B-164	CaO•ZrO ₂	solid	0-300	•	•	244
B -1 65	Sr0.Zr02	solid	0-300	•	•	245
B -1 66	Ba0• Z r0 ₂	solid	0-300	•	•	246
B-167	Na ₂ 0•WO ₃	solid	0-300	•	•	247
B-168	Na ₂ 0•2WO ₃	solid	0-300	•	•	2718
B -1 69	MgO·WO ₃	solid	0-300	• •	•	249
B -1 70	CaO•WO3	solid	0-300	•	•	250
B-171	KHF ₂	solid $(\alpha\&\beta)$,liquid	0- 530	•	o	251
B -1 72	$P_{\downarrow\downarrow}O_{\downarrow\downarrow}O$	solid	0-330	•	•	253



Chapter 1

TIME-RESOLVED SPECTROSCOPIC STUDIES OF EXPLODING WIRES

Esther C. Cassidy and Stanley Abramowitz

- 1. ABSTRACT Electrically exploded wires in various controlled atmospheres were employed for production of atomic and molecular species. The spectrographic time histories of the various constituents (stable and unstable) of the explosion mixture were studied with the use of a rotating drum camera, focussed on the exit slit plane of a spectrograph. A rotating high-speed shutter was utilized to study (from more detailed photographic plates) the spectrum at selected times during the explosion. Results obtained with aluminum wires in various atmospheres are presented. Several considerations found to be important in the design of the explosion chamber are discussed.
- 2. INTRODUCTION Radiation from electrically exploded metal wires has been used as a spectral source^{1,2} and as a flash source for producing photochemical reactions^{3,4}. A few⁵ have combined use of exploding wires with an ac arc to produce molecular absorption spectra. In general, results have been atomic lines and/or molecular bands against a strong background continuum. It now seems quite likely that weaker features may have been lost because the spectrographic plates were blackened by intense continuum radiation from the wire and high pressure metal vapor during the early stages of the explosion. The present experiments show that spectral results frequently depend not only upon the constituents of the explosion system (wire, electrode and vessel materials, and environment), but also upon the technique employed for observation.

To date, except for a few such as Bartels and Bortfeldt⁶, Nagaoka et al, and Teeple, most workers have presented integrated spectra from the entire explosion. Because of the extreme intensity of the initial continuum radiation, such results could not reveal weaker or highly transient features of the explosion spectrum. This paper describes a procedure for more thorough spectral observations. A continuous, time-resolved spectrum of the explosion is taken with a high-speed drum camera in order to determine intervals most suitable for study of selected features of the spectrum. However, these results are limited by the camera's optical system; only a portion of the spectrum (at the focal plane of the spectrograph) is recorded, and the effective dispersion is reduced. More detailed information on the structure of the spectrum and broader wavelength coverage are then achieved by using a rotating shutter disc to limit photographic plate exposures of the spectrum to the selected (from the drum camera result) time intervals. The results obtained thus far suggest that this may be a promising method for detection of previously unobserved features from constituents of the explosion mixture present in low concentrations.

3. EXPERIMENTAL APPARATUS AND TECHNIQUES A capacitor discharge circuit (15 to 60 μF , 20 kV max, circuit inductance \sim 0.16 μH , and ringing frequency \sim 50 kHz) was employed for explosion of 99.999% pure aluminum wires (diam = 0.14 mm, length = 9.5 cm). The capacitors were connected in a parallel, flat-plate arrangement. The wire and current return path were coaxial in design. Whenever possible areas were minimized and symmetrical geometry was preserved in order to minimize circuit inductance. In order to contain the chemical reactions and products generated by the explosion, cylindrical vessels (I.D. = 7.6 cm, length = 9.5 cm), made from several different materials, (Plexiglass, Bakelite, Teflon, or Pyrex9) were used for enclosing the wire in controlled atmospheres (oxygen, hydrogen, argon, nitrogen or vacuum). Vessels with smaller diameters were less satisfactory because the interior walls suffered from increased burning and/or blackening, and because introduction of impurities from the walls was more pronounced.

A plane-grating spectrograph (dispersion 20 Å/mm in the first order) was used for the spectroscopic observations. The explosion was focussed on the entrance slit of the spectrograph by use of two quartz lenses. A corning ultraviolet absorbing filter (C.S. No. 0-52) was inserted before the slit to prevent overlapping of the second order features in the spectrum. An air-driven AVCO rotating drum camera was focussed on the focal plane of the spectrograph for photographic recording of the time history of the explosion spectrum in the region between 3000 and 6000 Å. The speed of the camera (600 rps max) was adjusted to give maximum time resolution over the 31.9 cm length of the film (70 mm Kodak Royal-X Pan). Diafine two-bath developer was used for processing the film.

Following the drum camera time survey, spectral plates were taken of selected intervals (of the explosion) in which intermediate species of interest were known (from the drum camera records) to exist. A rotating disc, similar to that described by Bartky 10, with slots for shuttering the spectrograph and for generating timing pulses, was used to prevent exposure of the plate except during the desired pre-selected interval of the explosion. The disc was driven by a synchronous motor (1800 rpm, 1/50 hp). The five degree shutter slot of the present disc (see Fig. 1) was designed to allow radiation from the explosion to pass into the spectrograph for an interval of 180 µsec. Synchronization of the slot's arrival at the entrance slit of the spectrograph with the interval of interest was achieved by use of a photomultiplier tube. The photomultiplier received light from a miniature six volt lamp through a small slit at a given time before the shutter slot reached the entrance slit. The photomultiplier signal was passed to the circuit shown in Fig. 1 for triggering of the explosion. This particular arrangement was convenient because it utilized on-hand general purpose equipment. A record of the timing (during the explosion) of the exposure was obtained by photographing a dual-beam oscilloscope display of the trigger signal from the photomultiplier tube and the voltage induced by the discharge in a small coil placed near the capacitor discharge circuit. Finer control (to $\pm 50~\mu sec$) of the delay time between the photomultiplier signal and firing of the discharge circuit was achieved by replacing the delay potentiometer of the Tektronix 161 Pulse Generator with a precision ten-turn potentiometer (IRC Type 8000, 100 kl). If necessary, more precise timing of the exposure may be achieved by using a more complicated shutter system with two rotating discs as described by Schneider 11, or by using ultra-high speed opening 12 and closing 13 shutters in combination.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION The importance of time resolution in spectral studies of exploding wires is illustrated in Fig. 2, which shows the difference between an integrated plate (a) from the entire explosion, and plates (b) and (c) obtained using the rotating shutter technique. The latter plates were taken at an interval ($t \approx 1 \mu sec$) known from drum camera experiments to be favorable for observation of the AlO spectrum. A neutral density filter with approximately 5% transmission was used for (a) to permit approximately the same light exposure as in (b) and (c), where the shutter disc limited the exposure time to 180 µsec. $\Delta v = 0$ through +3 sequences of the AlO spectrum are not distinguishable on the integrated plate. The intense continuum emitted at the very beginning of the explosion has washed out all but the most intense features. On plate (b) the $\Delta v = -3$ through +3 sequences are evident. On plate (c) the $\Delta v = -3$ and +3 sequences are barely visible, probably because the energy input was not sufficient. Without a complete time history of the spectrum one could not distinguish whether these features, observed in emission in (b), were overexposed by the continuum, or whether they were actually not excited (for experimental reasons) by the explosion.

A typical drum camera record from an explosion in vacuum (pressure about 3 x 10-4 torr) is shown in Fig. 3. The mercury line at 5461 A was added for reference after the explosion. The record shows that radiation strong enough to expose the drum camera film was emitted for only about 100 µsec, and that no molecular bands appeared. The principal features of the spectrum are emission lines from the various impurities in the aluminum wire and in the electrodes used to clamp the wire. Since the stock from which the wire was drawn was certified by the manufacturer to be 99.99912% pure, the electrode material (Type 6061 aluminum) was assumed to be the source of the impurities. However, results obtained with electrodes made from 99.99% pure aluminum (Type 1199) still showed many lines from impurities, thus illustrating the method to be an extremely sensitive technique for detecting the constituents of a substance. It also seems quite clear that it is extremely difficult to construct an exploding wire apparatus for experiments with a selected system, free from the effects of impurities. This was found to be particularly true when the wires were exploded in gases (such as nitrogen

or argon) which are not conducive to chemical reaction with the wire material.

The upper portion of Fig. 4 shows the first 300 μ sec of a drum camera record from an explosion in nitrogen (Matheson Prepared Grade, pressure = 76 torr). Higher wavelength resolution and a broader range of wavelengths are given in the time-resolved spectrum shown under the drum camera result. The plate was taken, using the shutter disc, about 1 msec after initiation of the discharge. The spectrum from an iron arc in air is shown at the bottom for ready identification of the many FeI lines in the explosion spectrum. Though the discharge current lasted only about 90 μ sec, atomic lines from the wire and electrode vapor endured well into the millisecond range.

In general, bands from molecular species were not observed (wavelength range studied: 3000 to 6000 X) in the spectra from explosions in nitrogen, argon, or vacuum. However, early results from explosions in a nitrogen environment showed several band sequences. These were found to be caused by impurities from the vessel walls. Figure 5 was printed from a portion of drum camera film taken during one of these experiments. The experimental conditions were identical to those of Fig. 4, except that the explosion chamber was made from Teflon (rather than glass). Explosions in vacuum with a Teflon vessel gave essentially the same result. Radiation endured for more than 2 msec, and Co and CN bands from the vessel material were predominant. In spite of its desirable machining and high temperature characteristics, Teflon was therefore found not suitable for study of the spectral features from the wire and/or surrounding gas. Bakelite also proved unsatisfactory because the explosion caused the walls to burn freely, especially when the wire was exploded in an oxygen or hydrogen media. Glass vessels with flat quartz windows gave the best performance; impurities from the walls did not produce features in the spectrum, and it was possible to clean the entire vessel in hydrochloric acid. At the levels of energy applied, a wall thickness of about 4 mm was required to prevent explosion of the vessel.

Figure 6 illustrates another difficulty encountered when attempting to observe spectra from explosions in nitrogen, argon or vacuum. The first portion of the drum camera record (t = 0 to 300 μ sec) is nearly identical to Fig. 4. The second portion (t = 1000 to 1200 μ sec) shows several band sequences which are identified (from the AlO reference spectrum in the middle) as the Δv = -1 through +1 sequences of the AlO Blue-Green System. Investigation showed that the bands were due to a trace of oxygen from a small leak in the explosion chamber. It is interesting to see in this figure that the pulsations in intensity reported earlier 14 , which are believed due to reflected shock waves, are evident

for more than 300 μ sec. The broadening of the NaI lines during the intervals of greater intensity suggests that the pressure of the radiating vapor is higher during these times.

Explosions in oxygen and hydrogen showed molecular bands from AlO and AlH, respectively. Figure 7, for example, is a portion of a drum camera record from an explosion in 0.5 atm oxygen. (Experience showed that the features were sharper, more enduring, and more intense at reduced pressures.) The film indicates that intervals later than $t=350~\mu \rm sec$ yielded bands in emission. It is interesting to note, in this figure and in Figs. 5 and 6, that only the most intense atomic lines endure after chemical reaction occurs. In cases where there is no reaction or where the extent of reaction is small (e.g. Figs. 3 and 4), the atomic lines from the wire, the electrodes, and their impurities predominate the spectrum for the full duration of radiation (several milliseconds).

In conclusion, it is clear that spectral results from exploding wire experiments depend not only upon the conditions of the experiment (wire, electrode and vessel materials, etc.), but also upon the timing and interval of observation. It is hoped that the techniques described will be useful for obtaining time-resolved spectral measurements from exploding wire and other transient, detonation-type phenomena.

5. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS The authors are grateful to Dr. I. R. Bartky for helpful discussions, and to Mr. W. A. Bagley for assistance in setting up the drum camera system.

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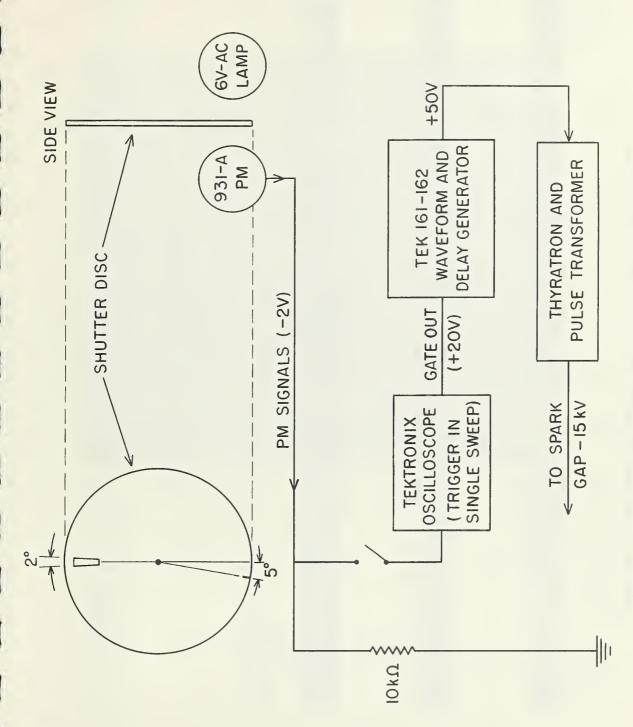
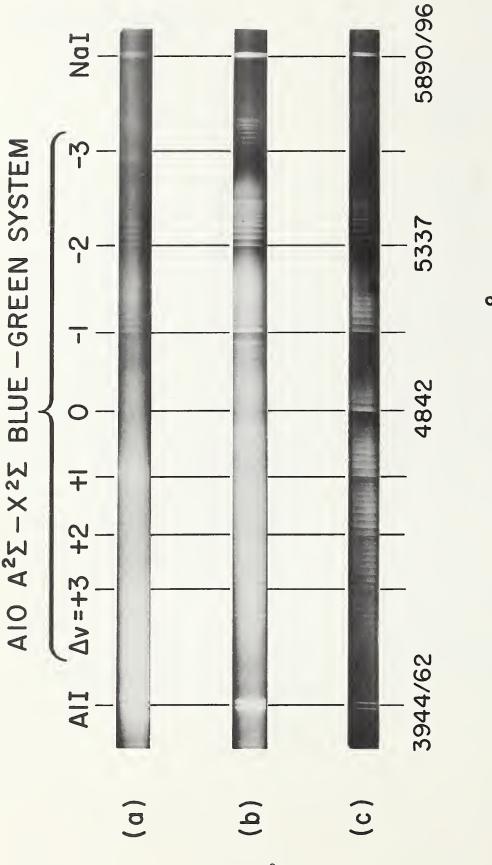
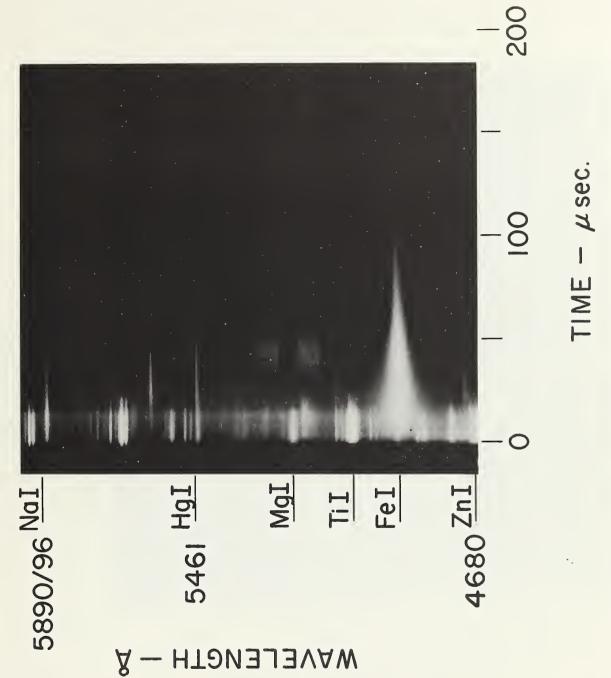


Fig. 1. Block diagram of shutter disc and triggering circuit.

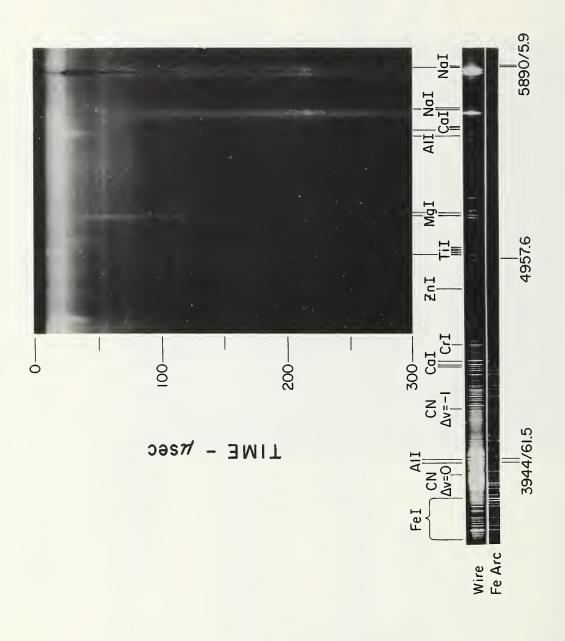


WAVELENGTH - A

The Alo A 2 - X 2 Blue-Green System from exploding wire experiments; (a) Integrated spectrum from entire explosion (60 μ F at 14 kV); (b) Time-resolved spectrum at t \approx 900 μ sec, using rotating shutter (60 μ F at 14 kV); (c) at t \approx 1.1 msec with lower energy input (15 μ F at 14 kV). Fig. 2.



Spectrum from aluminum wire exploded in vacuum as recorded by drum camera (15 µF at 14 kV). Hg. 3.



WAVELENGTH - &

Fig. 4. Drum camera record and time-resolved spectrum (at t \approx 1 msec) from exploding aluminum wire in nitrogen (60 μF at 1 $^{\mu}$ kV).

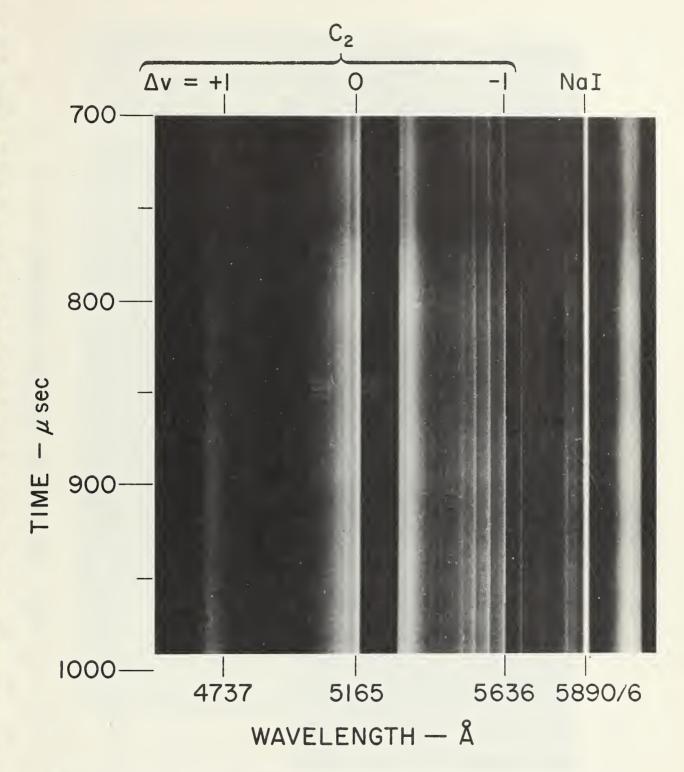


Fig. 5. Portion of drum camera record from exploding aluminum wire in nitrogen using a Teflon explosion chamber (15 μF at 14 kV).

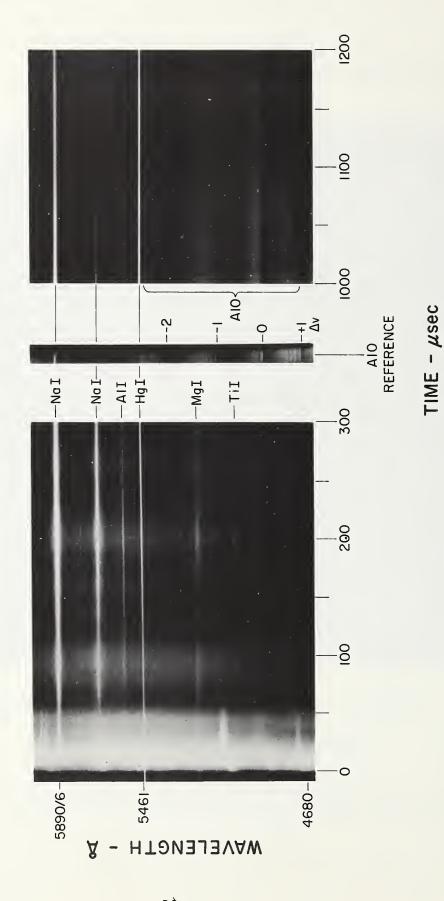
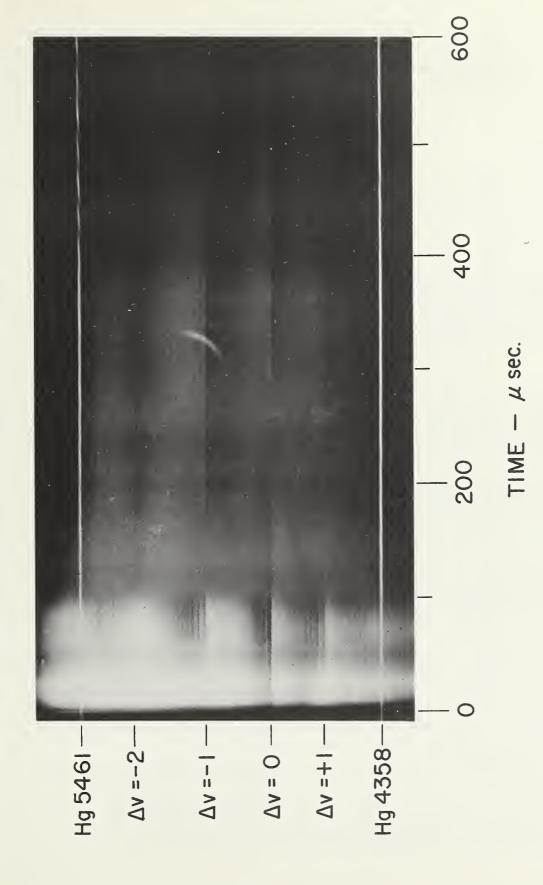


Fig. 6. Drum camera result from an explosion in nitrogen with trace of oxygen (60 µF at 14 kV).

AIO A2 - X2 GREEN SYSTEM



Drum camera record of the AlO spectrum from exploding aluminum wire in oxygen (15 µF at 14 kV). Mg. 7.

Chapter 2

EQUILIBRIUM VAPOR PRESSURES OF SOME CARBIDE AND NITRIDE SYSTEMS BASED ON RECENT CALORIMETRIC MEASUREMENT

R. F. Walker

Introduction

This chapter is essentially an up-dating of the discussion of the high temperature chemistry of the carbides and nitrides of the light elements which was given in Chapter A5 of NBS Report 6645, January 1, 1960. In general, data and discussion given in the earlier report is not repeated here.

Since that time new data has been reported on the heats of formation of several of the pertinent compounds, and new heat capacity data has resulted in revised tables of thermodynamic functions in other instances. With some systems additional insight has also been obtained of the condensed phases that exist.

The new calorimetric data have been used to predict the equilibrium vapor pressures of the condensed systems. The values given in the following tables may be compared for consistency with values obtained by direct measurement of equilibrium vapor pressures or evaporation rates. Experimental values were given in the previous report (NBS 6928) and reference to more recent experimental values are included in this chapter.

Even where no new calorimetric data have become available the opportunity has been taken to check the previous hand-calculated values and to extend them to cover wider ranges of temperature. The selected values for the heats of formation given in NBS Report 6928, July 1, 1960 have been used in all computations, except where more recent data indicates a revision is desirable. Likewise, the tabulated free energy functions given in this NBS ARPA-USAF series of semiannual reports have been used whenever possible. Where no NBS tables existed, the corresponding JANAF tables (with revisions up to December 31, 1965) were used.

In spite of the increased attention given to these systems during the past few years, scant information remains available on several of them. This is particularly true for systems containing lithium and magnesium. Furthermore, studies of compound formation among the condensed phases suggest that the phase diagrams are often more complex than previously suspected. This factor places a limitation on the reliability of some of the following predicted vapor pressures.

Aluminum Carbide

Although the phases of Al_3C [1] and $Al_2(C_2)_3$ [2] are reported in the literature, the compound Al_4C_3 is the only well-established and commonly encountered solid phase.

Since the preparation of NBS Report 6645, there have been two determinations of the heat of formation of $Al_4\,C_3$ by calorimetric methods [3,4] and further measurements of the decomposition pressure by the Knudsen method [5]. The values for ΔH_f° (298) obtained calorimetrically were -53.4 ±2.0 kcal/mole and -49.7 ±1.2 kcal/mole, respectively, and these values compare with the value of -48.6 kcal/mole given in NBS Report 6645 and used in the previous calculations. Plante [5] derived the value of 366.4 kcal/mole for ΔH_s° ($Al_4\,C_3$)(c) from his vapor pressure measurements. If ΔH_f° (298) $Al_4\,C_3$ of -56.4 kcal/mole; however, ΔH_f° (298) $Al_4\,C_3$ of -56.4 kcal/mole; however, ΔH_f° (298) ΔH_g° is not known with sufficient accuracy other than to say that Plante's value is in better agreement with the lower of the recent calorimetric values.

Furukawa et al. [6] have measured the heat capacity of $Al_4 \, C_3$, and they used their data to produce new tabulated free energy function for the compound. (See also NBS Report 7587, July 1, 1962.) These tables, together with the value of -52.2 kcal/mole for $\Delta H_{\rm f}^{\circ}$ (298) $Al_4 \, C_3$ (estimated by giving double weight to the above lower calorimetric value), were used to compute the decomposition pressures given in table I for the following reaction:

$$Al_4 C_3 (c) = 4Al(g) + 3C(c).$$

The computations ignore the possible formation of $C:C_2:C_3$ gaseous species at the highest temperatures and are lower-limiting values compared with those for which gaseous C but no C(c) is formed.

A comparison of the vapor pressures calculated from recent calorimetric data and published equilibrium measurements is given graphically by Furukawa et al. [6].

Reactions of Aluminum Carbide and Aluminum Nitride

An extensive discussion of the interpretation of measured and calculated pressures in the Al-C-N system, in terms of the condensed phases believed to exist, was given in NBS Report 6645. Furukawa <u>et</u> al. [6] brought the discussion up to date, using the more recent calorimetric data on $\mathrm{Al}_4\,\mathrm{C}_3$ mentioned above, and added further comments on the comparison between the calorimetric and equilibrium data. The discussions hinge on the extent of compound formation in this system and the presence or absence of the compound Al₅ C₃ N. However, Jeffrey and Wu [7] report the existence of three additional carbonitrides: Alg CaN2, Alg CaN3, and The absence of calorimetric data on these compounds and the lack of information on their kinetics of formation at temperatures below 2000°C do not allow the comparisons between the calculated and measured pressures to be made with assurance. At low temperatures, where the kinetics of formation of the compounds is probably slow, pressures computed in terms of the reaction

$$4AIN(c) + 3C(c) = Al_4 C_3(c) + 2N_2(g)$$

are in good agreement with measured pressures (NBS Report 6645). A comparison on this basis is also shown graphically by Furukawa et al. [6], using the more recent calorimetric results on $Al_4 C_3$ and AlN (discussed below).

Reactions of Aluminum Oxide with Carbon

Furukawa <u>et al</u>. [6] have also used the recent calorimetric data on $Al_4 C_3$ in making a graphical comparison between the calculated and measured pressures in the system Al-O-C. In their discussion they have also considered the recent measurements of Cox and Pidgeon [8] and the contribution of the phase diagram in this system made by Motzfeldt [9].

The lack of calorimetric data on the established compounds in this system, ${\rm Al_4}\,{\rm O_4}\,{\rm C}$ and ${\rm Al_2}\,{\rm OC}$, prevent reliable computations being made. At lower temperatures (1900°K and below) the rate of formation of the compounds is also not rapid, and equilibrium is probably not established during short-term experimental observations.

Table II gives the pressures calculated from calorimetric data, using the value of ~52.2 kcal/mole for $\Delta \rm H_f^{\circ}(298)~Al_4~C_3$, and for the reaction

$$2Al_2 O_3 (c) + 9C(c) = Al_4 C_3 (d) + 6CO(g)$$
.

Aluminum Nitride

A value of -76.5 kcal/mole was used for ΔH_f° (298) in the computed decomposition pressures of AlN that were given in NBS Report 6645. The selection of this value tended to be supported by the analysis of vapor pressure measurements, although calorimetric data gave values which varied from -57.4 to -76.5 kcal/mole. Since that time a further calorimetric determination has been made, yielding -75.6 kcal/mole, and this led to the selection of the value -76.0 kcal/mole in NBS Report 6928. This last value was used for the computations given below.

In addition to the calorimetric measurements there have also been four reports of measurements of the vapor pressure or evaporation rate of AlN [10-13]. In confirmation of the observations of Hoch and White discussed in NBS Report 6645, two of the studies [10,12] found that the sublimation coefficient of AlN is significantly less than unity. Thus, AlN behaves like several other nitrides, e.g., Beg, Ng, Mgg, Ng, GaN, and BN, in subliming at less than the maximum rate calculable from its equilibrium vapor pressure. Available evidence suggests that complex gaseous species are not significantly involved in the decomposition process [11]. Hildenbrand [12] corrected his observed pressures for the low value of the sublimation coefficient and obtained an average third law heat of sublimation at 298°K of 153.65 kcal/mole, a value which is consistent with a $\Delta H_{\rm f}^{\rm e}$ (298) of AlN of -76.15 kcal/mole. Blank [13] reports a value (seen only in abstract) of 153.2 kcal/mole for the third law heat of sublimation, and this yields a value of -75.7 kcal/mole for $\Delta H_{\rm f}^{\rm e}$ (298).

Table III presents the equilibrium decomposition pressures computed from the calorimetric data. Figure 1 compares the computed values with experimental values uncorrected for the low sublimation coefficient. Vaporization was presumed to occur in accordance with the reaction:

$$A1N(c) = A1(g) + \frac{1}{2}N_2(g)$$
.

Beryllium Carbide

No calorimetric measurements or vapor pressure measurements have been reported that provide a firm basis for modifying the computed pressures given for Be₂C in NBS Report 6645. H. L. Schick et al. [14] and the compilers of the JANAF tables have obtained estimates of $\triangle H_r^{\circ}$ (298) Be₂C from two sets of vapor pressure measurements not considered in NBS Report 6645 [15,16]. However, the computed values fall in the range -36.0 to +13.7 kcal/mole and thus provide no consistent basis for changing the previously selected value of -22.2 kcal/mole.

Table IV presents the results of computing the decomposition pressures for the reaction:

$$Be_2C(c) = 2Be(g) + C(c)$$
.

Beryllium Nitride

There have been several recent sets of measurements of the heat of formation of Be $_3$ N $_2$ by calorimetric and vapor pressure methods. In addition, Douglas and Payne, NBS Report 7587, July 1, 1962, reported new heat capacity data from which a new NBS table of free energy functions was computed. Eckerlin and Rabernau [17] reported a new structural modification of Be $_3$ N $_2$, which was formed by heating cubic α -Be $_3$ N $_2$ in NH $_3$ at 1400-1650°, especially in the presence of Si. In the absence of thermodynamic data on the phase change and β -modification, the following discussion presumes the existence of only the well-known α -modification.

A value of -132 kcal/mole was previously selected for ΔH_f° (298) Be₃ N₂ (c) on the basis of calorimetric data. The JANAF value of -140.6 kcal/mole has been selected for the computations presented in table V. This value is the mean of the two values -140.8 and -140.4 kcal/mole, reported by Gross [18] to result from independent calorimetric determinations.

The sublimation coefficient of Be $_3$ N $_2$ has been shown to have an upper limit of 0.001 -0.01 [19,20]. Recent evaporation measurements tend to support the selection of a higher value for ΔH_f° (298). The data of Yates et al. [20], when corrected for a low sublimation coefficient, yield ΔH_f° (298) Be $_3$ N $_2$ (c) = -140.3 kcal/mole, or -141.35 kcal/mole if the ΔH_f° (298) Be(g) given in NBS Report 6928 is used in the calculation. Hoenig [19] gives -136.0 ±5.0 kcal; however, the data have been seen only in an abstract, and it has not been ascertained what sources were used for the thermodynamic data used in the calculation of the value.

Table V shows the decomposition pressures calculated for the reactions:

$$Be_3 N_2 (c) = 3Be(g) + N_2 (g)$$

$$Be_3 N_2 (1) = 3Be(g) + N_2 (g).$$

The melting point was taken to be 2470°K and the $\triangle H_f^{\circ}(298)$ Be₃ N₂ (1) = -113.54 kcal/mole. The heat of fusion of Be₃ N₂ was estimated to be 30.9 kcal/mole.

Magnesium Nitride

Table VI gives the decomposition pressures for the reaction:

$$Mg_3 N_5 (c) = 3Mg(g) + N_5 (g).$$

 $\triangle H_{\rm f}^{\circ}$ (298) Mg₃ N₃ was taken as -110.2 kcal/mole, and the free energy functions given in NBS Report 6928 were used for these calculations. NBS Report 6645 (Chapter A2) gives a summary of the calorimetric determinations of $\triangle H_{\rm f}^{\circ}$ (298) from which the foregoing value was selected.

Hildenbrand [21] confirmed the earlier observation of Soulen et al. (see Report 6645) that Mg_3N_2 has a low sublimation coefficient, but his value of -135 kcal/mole for $\triangle H_{\rm f}^{\circ}$ (298) Mg_3N_2 is not in good agreement with the above accepted calorimetric value. Blank [13] (seen only in abstract) has studied the sublimation of Mg_3N_2 and gives the equation:

$$LogKeq = 4logP_T - 0.9780 = \left(\frac{245.979 \pm 16.64}{45.76}\right) \frac{10^4}{T} + 28.733 \pm 3.162.$$

The heat of sublimation given in 242.3 kcal/mole (third law), which leads to $\triangle H_f^{\circ}$ (298) Mg₃ N₂ = -135.5 kcal/mole using the value of $\triangle H_f^{\circ}$ (298) Mg(g) given in NBS Report 6928. Hildenbrand's and Blank's values are not inconsistent with one calorimetric determination of $\triangle H_f^{\circ}$ (298) (134.3 kcal/mole), but as discussed in NBS Report 6645 (Chapter A2) this has heretofore been considered to be a less reliable value. Further calorimetric determinations of $\triangle H_f^{\circ}$ (298) would seem to be indicated.

Titanium Carbide

The value for $\triangle H_f^{\circ}$ (298) TiC(c) used in the previously calculated decompositions pressures was -43.8 kcal/mole. This value has been retained for the computation of the pressures given in table VII, although several calorimetric and vapor pressure determinations of $\triangle H_f^{\circ}$ (298) have been made in the interim period [22-27]. The values obtained range from about -32.4 to -56.4 kcal/mole, with an average value within 300 to 700 kcal/mole of the selected value (depending on the tables of thermal functions used to treat the data) and show no obvious dependence on the experimental methods employed.

Table VII gives the computed decomposition pressures for the reactions:

$$TiC(c) = Ti(g) + C(c)(graphite)$$

$$TiC(1) = Ti(g) + C(c)(graphite).$$

The melting point has been taken as $3410^\circ K$ (as previously). A recent paper by Worrel [28], quoting Storms [29] gives the melting point as $3450^\circ K$, although Rudy [30] reports that the carbide melts congruently at $3340^\circ K$ with a composition of $TiC_{0.88}$. The probable deviations from stoichiometry at high temperature have not been considered in making the computations. At the lower temperatures shown in table VII the rate of equilibration is probably slow, whereas at temperatures above about $2800^\circ K$ the equilibrium is described more accurately by:

$$TiC(c) = Ti(g) + C(g)$$

$$2C(g) = C_2(g)$$

$$3C(g) = C_3(g)$$
, etc.

and
$$P_{C} + 2P_{C_{2}} + 3P_{C_{3}} + \dots = P_{Ti}$$
.

Thus, the pressures given in table VII tend to be too low in comparison with the true equilibrium pressures of TiC, but the true pressures of Ti will be lower than those in equilibrium with pure Ti. Likewise, at temperatures above 2800°K the pressures of carbon gas species will be lower than the pressures in equilibrium with pure graphite at the same temperatures.

Titanium Nitride

Holmberg [31] has reported the existence of a ${\rm Ti}_2\,{\rm N}$ phase in the Ti-N system, but in the absence of any thermodynamic data on the compound its possible existence has been ignored for computational purposes.

Fesenko and Bolgar [25] give data on the rate of vaporization of TiN, and Akishin and Khodeev [32] have confirmed that vaporization occurs predominantly by dissociation to the gaseous elements.

The value of -80.5 kcal/mole for $\triangle H_f^{\circ}(298)$ TiN(c) was used to compute the decomposition pressures for the reactions:

$$TiN(c) = Ti(g) + \frac{1}{2}N_2(g)$$

$$TiN(1) = Ti(g) + \frac{1}{2}N_2(g)$$
.

This value for $\triangle H_f^{\circ}(298)$ and the melting point of 3200°K were the same as the values used in NBS Report 6645. However, the latest JANAF tables giving the free energy functions for Ti(g) were used to compute the pressures given in table VIII.

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 $\begin{tabular}{ll} TABLE & I \\ \\ Decomposition & Pressures & for & Aluminum & Carbide \\ \\ \end{tabular}$

Temp °K	Log K	P(atm) A1
1000 1050 1100 1150 1200 1250 1300 1350 1400 1450 1500 1650 1700 1750 1800 1850 1900 1950 2000 2050 2100 2250 2300 2250 2300 2450 2500 2600 2700 2800 2900	-4.90×10^{1} -4.53×10^{1} -4.19×10^{1} -3.88×10^{1} -3.60×10^{1} -3.60×10^{1} -3.10×10^{1} -2.48×10^{1} -2.48×10^{1} -2.48×10^{1} -2.48×10^{1} -1.98×10^{1} -1.98×10^{1} -1.83×10^{1} -1.57×10^{1} -1.11×10^{1} -1.11×10^{1} -1.11×10^{1} -1.02×10^{1}	5.43 × 10 ⁻¹³ 4.64 × 10 ⁻¹³ 3.25 × 10 ⁻¹¹ 1.92 × 10 ⁻¹⁰ 9.81 × 10 ⁻¹⁰ 4.37 × 10 ⁻⁸ 1.73 × 10 ⁻⁸ 6.22 × 10 ⁻⁸ 2.03 × 10 ⁻⁷ 6.11 × 10 ⁻⁷ 1.70 × 10 ⁻⁶ 4.45 × 10 ⁻⁶ 4.45 × 10 ⁻⁶ 1.09 × 10 ⁻⁵ 2.54 × 10 ⁻⁵ 5.61 × 10 ⁻⁵ 5.61 × 10 ⁻⁴ 4.67 × 10 ⁻⁴ 4.67 × 10 ⁻⁴ 8.76 × 10 ⁻⁴ 4.59 × 10 ⁻³ 2.80 × 10 ⁻³ 4.81 × 10 ⁻³ 8.00 × 10 ⁻³ 1.30 × 10 ⁻² 2.07 × 10 ⁻² 3.23 × 10 ⁻² 4.94 × 10 ⁻² 7.42 × 10 ⁻² 1.09 × 10 ⁻¹ 1.59 × 10 ⁻¹ 2.27 × 10 ⁻¹ 4.42 × 10 ⁻¹ 8.21 × 10 ⁻¹ 1.45 2.48
3000	2.44	4.07

TABLE II

Reaction of Aluminum Oxide with Carbon

Temp °K	Log K	Log P(CO)	P(atm) CO
1000	-7.06×10^{1}	-1.17 × 10 ¹	1.69 × 10 ⁻¹²
1050	-6.58×10^{1}	-1.09×10^{1}	1.06×10^{-11}
1100	-5.89×10^{1}	-9.83	1.47×10^{-10}
1150	-5.39×10^{1}	-8.99	1.01×10^{-9}
1 200	-4.93×10^{1}	-8.22	5.98 x 10 ⁻⁹
1250	-4.51×10^{1}	- 7.51	3.04 x 10 ⁻⁸
1300	-4.11×10^{1}	-6.86	1.36×10^{-7}
1350	-3.75×10^{1}	-6.26	5.45×10^{-7}
1400	-3.42×10^{1}	- 5.70	1.97×10^{-6}
1450	-3.11×10^{1}	-5.18	6.50×10^{-6}
1500	-2.82×10^{1}	- 4.70	1.98×10^{-5}
1550	-2.56×10^{1}	-4. 27	5.32×10^{-5}
1600	-2.29×10^{1}	-3.82	1.48×10^{-4}
1650	-2.05×10^{1}	- 3.43	3.69×10^{-4}
1700	-1.83×10^{1}	-3.05	8.72×10^{-4}
1750	-1.62×10^{1}	-2.70	1.95×10^{-3}
1800	-1.42×10^{1}	-2.37	4.17×10^{-3}
1850	-1.24×10^{1}	-2.06	8.53×10^{-3}
1900	-1.06×10^{1}	-1.77	1.69 × 10 ⁻²
1950	-8.95	-1.49	3.22×10^{-2}
2000	-7.36	-1.22	5.93 × 10 ^{−2}
2050	-5.85	-9.76×10^{-1}	1.05×10^{-1}
2100	-4.40	-7.34 × 10 ⁻¹	1.84×10^{-1}
2150	-3.05	-5.08×10^{-1}	3.10×10^{-1}
2200	-1.73	-2.89×10^{-1}	5.13×10^{-1}
2250	-4.94×10^{-1}	-8.23×10^{-2}	8.27 × 10 ⁻¹
2300	6.95×10^{-1}	1.15×10^{-1}	1.30

TABLE III

Decomposition Pressures for Aluminum Nitride

Temp °K	Log K	P(atm) N ₂	P(atm) Al	Total P
	-2.10 × 10 ¹ -1.94 × 10 ¹ -1.80 × 10 ¹ -1.67 × 10 ¹ -1.55 × 10 ¹ -1.44 × 10 ¹ -1.34 × 10 ¹ -1.16 × 10 ¹ -1.10 × 10 ¹ -1.07 × 10 ¹ -1.00 × 10 ¹ -9.31 -8.65 -8.03 -7.44 -6.89 -6.37 -5.87 -5.41 -4.96 -4.54 -4.15 -3.77 -3.40 -3.06 -2.73 -2.41 -2.11 -1.82	5.54 × 10 ⁻¹⁵ 6.31 × 10 ⁻¹⁴ 5.75 × 10 ⁻¹³ 4.31 × 10 ⁻¹² 2.73 × 10 ⁻¹¹ 1.49 × 10 ⁻¹⁰ 7.13 × 10 ⁻¹⁰ 3.03 × 10 ⁻⁹ 1.16 × 10 ⁻⁸ 4.05 × 10 ⁻⁸ 1.29 × 10 ⁻⁷ 3.85 × 10 ⁻⁶ 2.78 × 10 ⁻⁶ 2.78 × 10 ⁻⁶ 1.59 × 10 ⁻⁵ 3.55 × 10 ⁻⁵ 7.58 × 10 ⁻⁵ 7.58 × 10 ⁻⁵ 7.58 × 10 ⁻⁶ 1.55 × 10 ⁻⁴ 3.06 × 10 ⁻⁴ 5.84 × 10 ⁻⁴ 1.07 × 10 ⁻³ 1.93 × 10 ⁻³ 3.36 × 10 ⁻³ 3.36 × 10 ⁻³ 5.71 × 10 ⁻³ 9.47 × 10 ⁻³ 1.53 × 10 ⁻² 2.44 × 10 ⁻² 3.80 × 10 ⁻²	1.10 × 10 ⁻¹⁴ 1.26 × 10 ⁻¹³ 1.15 × 10 ⁻¹² 8.63 × 10 ⁻¹² 5.46 × 10 ⁻¹¹ 2.98 × 10 ⁻¹⁰ 1.42 × 10 ⁻⁹ 6.07 × 10 ⁻⁹ 2.32 × 10 ⁻⁸ 8.11 × 10 ⁻⁸ 2.59 × 10 ⁻⁷ 7.71 × 10 ⁻⁷ 2.13 × 10 ⁻⁶ 1.36 × 10 ⁻⁵ 3.19 × 10 ⁻⁵ 7.11 × 10 ⁻⁵ 1.51 × 10 ⁻⁴ 3.10 × 10 ⁻⁴ 4.10 × 10 ⁻⁴ 1.16 × 10 ⁻³ 2.15 × 10 ⁻³ 3.86 × 10 ⁻³ 6.73 × 10 ⁻³ 1.14 × 10 ⁻² 1.89 × 10 ⁻² 3.07 × 10 ⁻² 4.88 × 10 ⁻² 7.60 × 10 ⁻²	Total P 1.66 × 10 ⁻¹⁴ 1.89 × 10 ⁻¹³ 1.72 × 10 ⁻¹² 1.29 × 10 ⁻¹¹ 8.20 × 10 ⁻¹¹ 4.47 × 10 ⁻¹⁰ 2.14 × 10 ⁻⁹ 9.10 × 10 ⁻⁹ 3.48 × 10 ⁻⁹ 3.48 × 10 ⁻⁷ 1.15 × 10 ⁻⁶ 3.20 × 10 ⁻⁶ 8.35 × 10 ⁻⁶ 2.05 × 10 ⁻⁵ 4.79 × 10 ⁻⁵ 1.06 × 10 ⁻⁴ 2.27 × 10 ⁻⁴ 4.66 × 10 ⁻⁴ 9.19 × 10 ⁻³ 3.23 × 10 ⁻³ 5.79 × 10 ⁻³ 3.23 × 10 ⁻³ 5.79 × 10 ⁻³ 1.00 × 10 ⁻² 1.71 × 10 ⁻² 2.84 × 10 ⁻² 4.61 × 10 ⁻² 7.32 × 10 ⁻² 1.14 × 10 ⁻¹
2450 2500	-1.55 -1.28	5.80 × 10 ⁻² 8.72 × 10 ⁻²	1.16 × 10 ⁻¹ 1.74 × 10 ⁻¹	1.74 × 10 ⁻¹ 2.61 × 10 ⁻¹

 $\begin{tabular}{ll} TABLE & IV \\ \\ Decomposition & Pressures & for & Beryllium & Carbide \\ \\ \end{tabular}$

Temp °K	Log K	Log P (Be)	P(atm) Be
1200	-1.87 × 10 ¹	-9.36	4.30 × 10 ⁻¹⁰
1250	-1.74×10^{1}	-8.72	1.90 x 10 ⁻⁹
1300	-1.62×10^{1}	-8.12	7.49 × 10 ⁻⁹
1350	-1.51×10^{1}	- 7.57	2.65×10^{-8}
1400	-1.41×10^{1}	- 7.06	8.60×10^{-8}
1450	-1.31×10^{1}	-6.59	2.56×10^{-7}
1500	-1.22×10^{1}	-6.14	7.09×10^{-7}
1550	-1.14×10^{1}	-5.73	1.83×10^{-6}
1600	-1.06×10^{1}	- 5.34	4.48 × 10 ⁻⁶
1650	- 9.97	- 4.98	1.03×10^{-5}
1700	-9. 28	-4.64	2.26×10^{-5}
1750	-8.64	-4.32	4.74×10^{-5}
1800	-8.04	-4.02	9.53×10^{-5}
1850	-7.46	-3.73	1.84×10^{-4}
1900	-6.92	-3.46	3.43×10^{-4}
1950	-6.41	-3.20	6.20×10^{-4}
2000	- 5.92	-2.96	1.08×10^{-3}
2050	-5.46	-2.73	1.84×10^{-3}
2100	-5.02	-2.51	3.05×10^{-3}
2150	- 4.60	-2.30	4.95×10^{-3}
2200	- 4.21	-2.10	7.82×10^{-3}
2250	- 3.83	-1.91	1.21×10^{-2}
2300	-3.47	-1.73	1.83×10^{-2}
2350	-3.12	-1.56	2.74×10^{-2}
2400	-2.79	-1.39	4.02×10^{-2}

TABLE V

Decomposition Pressure of Beryllium Nitride

$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Temp °K	Log K	P(atm) N ₂	P(atm) Be	Total P
2700 -6.13×10^{-1}	1300 1400 1500 1600 1700 1800 1900 2000 2100 2200 2300 2470 2500 2600 2700	-3.43×10^{1} -2.99×10^{1} -2.60×10^{1} -2.60×10^{1} -2.27×10^{1} -1.97×10^{1} -1.71×10^{1} -1.48×10^{1} -1.27×10^{1} -1.08×10^{1} -9.14 -7.58 -6.16 -5.24 -2.53 -1.53 -6.13×10^{-1}	1.46 × 10 ⁻⁸ 1.33 × 10 ⁻⁷ 9.19 × 10 ⁻⁷ 5.01 × 10 ⁻⁶ 2.25 × 10 ⁻⁵ 8.63 × 10 ⁻⁵ 2.87 × 10 ⁻⁴ 8.51 × 10 ⁻⁴ 2.27 × 10 ⁻³ 5.56 × 10 ⁻³ 1.26 × 10 ⁻² 2.14 × 10 ⁻² 1.01 × 10 ⁻¹ 1.81 × 10 ⁻¹ 3.08 × 10 ⁻¹	4.40 × 10 ⁻⁸ 4.01 × 10 ⁻⁷ 2.75 × 10 ⁻⁶ 1.50 × 10 ⁻⁵ 6.77 × 10 ⁻⁵ 2.59 × 10 ⁻⁴ 8.63 × 10 ⁻⁴ 2.55 × 10 ⁻³ 6.82 × 10 ⁻³ 1.67 × 10 ⁻² 3.78 × 10 ⁻² 3.05 × 10 ⁻¹ 5.43 × 10 ⁻¹ 9.24 × 10 ⁻¹	

TABLE VI
Decomposition Pressures of Magnesium Nitride

Temp °K	Log K	$P(atm) N_2$	P(atm) Mg	P(atm) Total
1150 1200 1250 1300 1350 1400 1450 1500 1550 1600	-1.50 × 10 ¹ -1.31 × 10 ¹ -1.14 × 10 ¹ -9.95 -8.54 -7.23 -6.01 -4.88 -3.82 -2.84 -1.92 -1.06 -2.50 × 10 ⁻¹ 5.13 × 10 ⁻¹	7.78 × 10 ⁻⁵ 2.23 × 10 ⁻⁴ 5.85 × 10 ⁻⁴ 1.41 × 10 ⁻³ 3.21 × 10 ⁻³ 6.83 × 10 ⁻³ 1.37 × 10 ⁻² 2.63 × 10 ⁻² 4.83 × 10 ⁻² 4.83 × 10 ⁻² 8.52 × 10 ⁻² 1.44 × 10 ⁻¹ 2.37 × 10 ⁻¹ 3.79 × 10 ⁻¹ 5.89 × 10 ⁻¹	2.33 × 10 ⁻⁴ 6.69 × 10 ⁻⁴ 1.75 × 10 ⁻³ 4.25 × 10 ⁻³ 9.63 × 10 ⁻³ 2.04 × 10 ⁻² 4.13 × 10 ⁻² 7.91 × 10 ⁻² 1.45 × 10 ⁻¹ 2.55 × 10 ⁻¹ 4.34 × 10 ⁻¹ 7.13 × 10 ⁻¹ 1.13 1.76	3.11 × 10 ⁻⁴ 8.92 × 10 ⁻⁴ 2.34 × 10 ⁻³ 5.67 × 10 ⁻³ 1.28 × 10 ⁻² 2.73 × 10 ⁻² 5.50 × 10 ⁻² 1.05 × 10 ⁻¹ 1.93 × 10 ⁻¹ 3.40 × 10 ⁻¹ 5.79 × 10 ⁻¹ 9.51 × 10 ⁻¹ 1.51 2.35

TABLE VII

Decomposition Pressure of Titanium Carbide

Temp °K	Log K	P(atm) Ti
2000	-9.13	7.36 × 10 ⁻¹⁰
2100	-8.33	4.66 x 10 ⁻⁹
2200	-7.60	2.48×10^{-8}
2300	-6.94	1.14×10^{-7}
2400	-6.33	4.65×10^{-7}
2500	-5.77	1.68×10^{-6}
2600	-5.25	5.51×10^{-6}
2700	- 4.78	1.64×10^{-5}
2800	-4.34	4.55 x 10 ⁻⁵
2900	-3.92	1.17×10^{-4}
3000	- 3.54	2.85×10^{-4}
3100	-3.18	6.48×10^{-4}
3200	-2.85	1.41×10^{-3}
3300	-2.53	2.91×10^{-3}
3400	-2.23	5.80×10^{-3}
3500	-1.01	9.71 x 10 ⁻²
3600	-0.80	1.56×10^{-1}

TABLE VIII

Decomposition Pressures of Titanium Nitride

Temp °K	P(atm) N ₂	P(atm) Ti	P(atm) Total
1400 1500 1600 1700 1800 1900 2000 2100 2200 2300 2400 2500 2600 2700 2800 2900 3000 3100 3200 3300 3400	8.84 × 10 ⁻¹³ 1.85 × 10 ⁻¹¹ 2.64 × 10 ⁻¹⁰ 2.74 × 10 ⁻⁹ 2.18 × 10 ⁻⁸ 1.39 × 10 ⁻⁷ 7.29 × 10 ⁻⁷ 3.31 × 10 ⁻⁶ 1.30 × 10 ⁻⁵ 4.50 × 10 ⁻⁵ 1.40 × 10 ⁻⁴ 4.00 × 10 ⁻⁴ 1.04 × 10 ⁻³ 2.55 × 10 ⁻³ 5.81 × 10 ⁻³ 1.25 × 10 ⁻² 2.55 × 10 ⁻² 4.99 × 10 ⁻² 9.33 × 10 ⁻² 7.29 × 10 ⁻¹ 1.15	1.76 × 10 ⁻¹² 3.71 × 10 ⁻¹¹ 5.28 × 10 ⁻¹⁰ 5.49 × 10 ⁻⁹ 4.37 × 10 ⁻⁸ 2.79 × 10 ⁻⁷ 1.47 × 10 ⁻⁶ 6.63 × 10 ⁻⁶ 2.60 × 10 ⁻⁵ 9.00 × 10 ⁻⁵ 2.81 × 10 ⁻⁴ 8.00 × 10 ⁻⁴ 2.09 × 10 ⁻³ 5.10 × 10 ⁻³ 1.16 × 10 ⁻² 2.51 × 10 ⁻² 5.11 × 10 ⁻² 9.98 × 10 ⁻² 1.86 × 10 ⁻¹ 1.45 2.30	2.65 × 10 ⁻¹² 5.56 × 10 ⁻¹¹ 7.92 × 10 ⁻¹⁰ 8.24 × 10 ⁻⁹ 6.56 × 10 ⁻⁸ 4.18 × 10 ⁻⁷ 2.21 × 10 ⁻⁶ 9.95 × 10 ⁻⁶ 3.90 × 10 ⁻⁵ 1.35 × 10 ⁻⁴ 4.22 × 10 ⁻⁴ 1.20 × 10 ⁻³ 3.14 × 10 ⁻³ 7.65 × 10 ⁻³ 1.74 × 10 ⁻² 7.67 × 10 ⁻² 7.67 × 10 ⁻² 1.49 × 10 ⁻¹ 2.80 × 10 ⁻¹ 2.18 3.45
3500	1.77	3.54	5.31

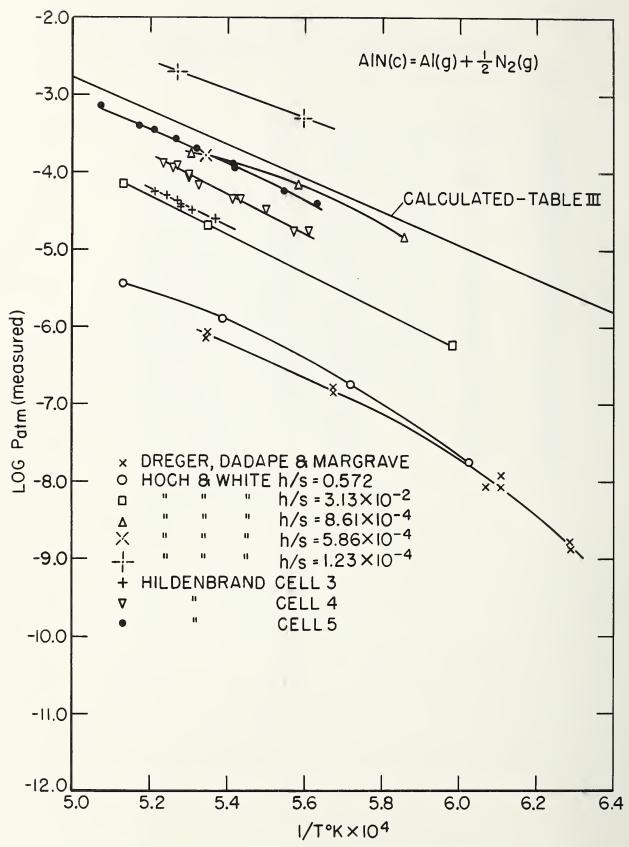


Figure 1: Decomposition Pressures of Aluminum Nitride

VIBRATIONAL SPECTRA OF ALKALINE EARTH DIFLUORIDES

By. G. V. Calder

INTRODUCTION

The vibrational spectra of a number of Group IIA halides have been determined by the matrix-isolation technique. All of the spectra were measured by trapping the halide vapor species in a matrix of krypton or argon at 20°K. In addition to infrared absorptions of the triatomic monomeric species, absorptions specifically attributable to dimer symmetric with respect to the metal atoms were also observed. In one case absorptions believed to be due to a diatomic species MX were observed. The sorting out and selection of the proper fundamentals was made possible by the use of isotopically enriched samples of each of the metal halides where the isotope effect was large enough to be observed. Experimental work on Mg²⁴F₂, Mg²⁶F₂, Ca⁴⁰F₂, Ca⁴⁴F₂, Sr⁸⁶F₂, Sr⁸⁸F₂, BaⁿF₂, Mg²⁴Clⁿ₂, Mg²⁶Clⁿ₂ has been completed*. Analysis of the data on MgF₂ and CaF₂ has been completed, and the results on these two molecules will be reported here.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE

Detailed experimental procedure will not be presented here. However, a few words about the use of isotopically enriched samples is in order since they provide the most powerful tool available for interpretating the observed spectra.

Consider two pure isotopes M, M' in a triatomic molecule MX and M'X2. As is well known, the effect of the change in mass of M to M' has a calculable effect on the vibrational fundamentals, and this is useful in determining the force constants and structure (apex angle) of the molecule MX2. A synthetically enriched sample of 50% MX2 and 50% M'X2 yields much information also. Any absorbing species containing only one metal atom M or M' will give rise to a doublet in the mixed isotope spectrum. Any absorbing species containing two equivalent metal atoms will give rise to three absorptions due to MM, MM' and M'M' species. For a 50% -50% mixture the intensity ratio of the triplet will be 1:2:1,

^{*} n = natural abundance

yielding an easily identifiable feature. In the experiments on ${\rm MgF}_2$, absorptions in the region of 730 cm $^{-1}$ were found which were shown to come from a species containing only one Mg atom. The isotope shift of the absorptions was consistent with the hypothesis that they were due to MgF. The spectra of CaF $_2$ yielded absorptions in the regions of 515 cm $^{-1}$ and 360 cm $^{-1}$ which were due to species containing two calcium atoms. It was found that the use of different matrix gases did not affect the isotopic frequency ratios (ν_3/ν_3^{\prime}) within the experimental error of $\pm.10$ cm $^{-1}$ despite the fact that in the case of MgF $_2$ the ν_3 frequency was a triplet in krypton and a quartet in argon matrices.

RESULTS ON MAGNESIUM FLUORIDE

The measurements on ${\rm MgF}_2$ are summarized in the following table:

		MgF ₂ in	Krypton (in cm^{-1})	•
		${\rm Mg}^{24}{\rm F}_2$	${ m Mg}^{25}{ m F}_2$	${\rm Mg}^{26}{\rm F}_2$
		833.06	822.98*	813.57
ν_2	obs	834.54	824.56*	815.17
3		837.41	827.24*	817.79
ν ₃	calc	837.34**	827.24	817.87
ν ₁	obs	478.04	477.31	476.61
v_1	calc	478.28	477.21	476.25
ν_2	obs	241.8	not observed	237.9
v_2^-	calc	242.5	240.1	237.8

Apex angle = $150^{\circ}\pm10$ MgF Bond Dist. (assumed) 1.77 Å

^{*}Observed in natural abundance only (10%).

^{**}Highest frequency chosen arbitrarily for calculation.

The following force constants were obtained from the analysis of the isotopic data:

Force Constants of MgF_2 in Krypton (Md/\mathring{A})

$$F_r = 2.740$$
 $F_{rr} = -0.419$ $F_{\alpha} = .140$ $F_{r\alpha} = \frac{.03}{\sqrt{2}}$

The absorptions attributed to MgF are:

MgF in Krypton (in cm⁻¹)

	${ m Mg}^{24}{ m F}$	${ m Mg}^{25}{ m F}$	${\rm Mg}^{26}{ m F}$
Mg Nat. Abundance	738.20	723.80	726.40
${\rm Mg}^{26}$			726.56
ν calc	738.20	732.12	726.56

The coincidence of the frequency observed in the Mg 26 sample, 726.56 cm $^{-1}$, and that observed in the natural abundance sample, 726.40 cm $^{-1}$, proves that the absorbing species contains one and only one Mg atom. The magnitude of the shift from Mg 24 , Mg 25 and Mg 26 is very nearly that expected for MgF. In the gas phase the fundamental of MgF is reported to be at 709 cm $^{-1}$.

RESULTS ON CALCIUM FLUORIDE

The study of the calcium fluoride spectrum yielded the following absorrtion frequencies:

	Cal	$\frac{1}{2}$ in Krypton (in cm ⁻¹)	
	Ca ⁴⁰ F ₂	50% Ca ⁴⁰ /50% Ca ⁴⁴	Ca ⁴⁴ F ₂
v_3 obs	553.66	*	542.25
v_3 calc	553.64		542.37
v_1 obs	484.75	*	482.60
v_1 calc	485.35		481.99
v_2 obs	163.36	*	161.20
v_2 calc	163.55		160.98
(Dimer)	522.70	517.27**	513.96
(Dimer)	365.08	362.46**	359.30

Apex angle 135±7° CaF Bond Dist. (assumed) 2.10 $^{\circ}$

^{*}Frequency of observed doublets identical to those of individual isotopes.

^{**}These features were observed only in spectra of mixed samples of the isotopes.

The following force constants were obtained from the analysis of the isotopic data:

Force Constants of CaF₂ in Krypton (Md/ \mathring{A})

$$F_r = 2.31$$
 $F_{rr} = +0.39$ $F_{\alpha} = 0.075$ $F_{r\alpha} = \frac{.02}{\sqrt{2}}$

The thermodynamic properties of MgF₂ and CaF₂ have been calculated on the basis of the bent structures and vibrational frequencies determined in these experiments:

$$s_{1400^{\circ}K}^{\circ} = 81.9 \text{ gibbs for MgF}_{2} \text{ (g)}$$

$$s_{1600^{\circ}K}^{\circ} = 87.8 \text{ gibbs for } CaF_2 \text{ (g)}$$

This is in agreement with the recent data of Hildenbrand (private communication) which reports $S_{1400\,^{\circ}K}^{0}=82.7$ gibbs and $S_{1600\,^{\circ}K}^{0}=88.2$ gibbs for MgF $_{2}$ (g) and CaF $_{2}$ (g) from thermal and vapor pressure data.

Chapter 4

PRELIMINARY REPORT ON THE MICROWAVE SPECTRUM AND STRUCTURE OF CESIUM HYDROXIDE

By D. R. Lide and R. L. Kuczkowski

INTRODUCTION

The structure of alkali hydroxide monomers raises a number of interesting questions. The overall geometry of these molecules cannot be predicted with any certainty. It is not clear whether the familiar bond angle of 100° - 110° which is found for covalently-bonded oxygen compounds will apply to the hydroxides, where one bond is covalent and the other is presumably highly ionic. Indeed, there is a suggestion from somewhat indirect evidence on $\text{Li}_20^{1,2}$ that the hydroxides might be linear rather than bent. The interatomic distances are also difficult to predict, since there are no reliable measurements on alkali-oxygen distances. The nature of the molecular vibrations is open to similar questions. There is little information available on alkali-oxygen stretching force constants, and the magnitude of the bending frequency in the hydroxides is entirely a matter of speculation.

There have been no experimental measurements on the gaseous hydroxides which provide any clues to these questions. Furthermore it should be emphasized that the structure and vibrational frequencies of the alkali hydroxides should be of great value in predicting the properties of compounds with OH groups attached to Group II or Group III metals, since such molecules clearly resemble alkali hydroxides much more closely than they do the familiar covalent hydroxyl compounds.

We have recently succeeded, after a considerable amount of effort, in detecting the microwave spectrum of cesium hydroxide, thereby providing the first direct experimental information on the structure of alkali metal hydroxides. Although the interpretation of the spectrum is not yet complete, a number of questions about these compounds can already be answered. A preliminary account of the spectrum and the results which may be drawn from it will be given here.

EXPERIMENTAL

The high-temperature microwave spectrometer developed under the Light-Elements Program³ was used, after some modification, to observe the CsOH spectrum. In previous attempts to detect the spectra of NaOH and KOH a number of severe experimental difficulties were encountered. Decomposition of the hydroxide samples when heated resulted in excessively high ambient pressure in the microwave absorption cell, even with continuous pumping, and left considerable doubt about the presence of hydroxide vapors. After some experimentation with materials, it was found that silver seemed to produce the minimum amount of decomposition. The waveguide was therefore lined with thin silver sheet which had been formed to the correct shape, and the sample trays were also made of silver.

The tendency of the hydroxides to form solid deposits which bridged the gap between the Stark plates, and also to attack the ceramic spacers, led to very serious problems. During each run it was found that the conductivity between the Stark plates increased steadily until a point was reached where the Stark modulation field could not be sustained. Furthermore, modulation pick-up soon became prohibitive. This problem was alleviated to some extent by removing the ceramic spacers from the hot region of the wave-guide and increasing the plate separation. In this way it was possible to achieve measuring times of 10-30 minutes under reasonably good conditions.

In spite of the above precautions the increase in conductivity eventually set in, even though no visible connection existed between the plates. This rather puzzling behavior has been traced to thermionic emission from metallic cesium deposited on the waveguide surface. When the Stark modulation field is applied, appreciable thermionic currents flow through the cell, and at high modulation fields this current completely precludes the observation of spectra. Attempts to poison or coat the waveguide surface have not been successful. However, some very promising results have been obtained by replacing Stark modulation with a form of saturation or "doubleresonance" modulation. In this scheme a high-powered, amplitude modulated klystron is tuned to, say, the $J = 1 \rightarrow 2$ transition in a certain state. The waveguide cell is also fed by a klystron which is tuned to the $J = 2 \rightarrow 3$ transition, and the detector is arranged so that only the latter frequency is detected. When both klystrons are in resonance, the periodic disturbance of thermal equilibrium caused by the saturating (or pumping) klystron produces a modulation of the detected signal. This procedure has made it possible to measure a number of weak lines which could not be observed with the usual Stark modulation.

OBSERVED SPECTRUM AND INTERPRETATION

If the CsOH molecule were bent, the spectrum would show the characteristic pattern of a near-prolate asymmetric rotor with a-type selection rules (with the possibility of additional transitions from the b dipole component). The J = 2 \rightarrow 3 pattern, for example, would consist of a central K = 0 line (1 $_{01}$ $^{-2}$ $_{02}$), a pair of K = 1 lines of comparable intensity, and two K = 2 lines. Whatever the value of the CsOH angle, the asymmetry of the molecule will be so small that the K = 0 line will fall very near the mean frequency of the K = 1 pair, and the K = 2 lines will be essentially degenerate with K = 0. Similar patterns of lower intensity would be expected from excited vibrational states. A linear structure, on the other hand, would show a single strong ground-state line accompanied by weaker vibrational satellites. In particular, the π states resulting from excitation of the ν_2 , the degenerate bending mode, would appear as characteristic ℓ -type doublets.

The principal features of the observed CsOH and CsOD spectra conform to the predictions of the linear rather than the bent structure. The features of the $J=2\rightarrow 3$ pattern which have been clearly identified are listed in Table I. The intensities of the lines assigned to excited vibrational states fall off quite rapidly, showing that these lines do arise from higher vibrational states rather than asymmetric rotor levels. Also, the spacing of the lines is completely incompatible with an asymmetric rotor assignment. We may therefore conclude that the cesium hydroxide molecule is linear.

The assignment of the satellite lines from excited vibrational states has been carried out in the following way. In a normal linear triatomic molecule, the effective rotational constant in a particular vibrational state is given by

$$B_{v_1 v_2 v_3} = B_e - \alpha_1 (v_1 + \frac{1}{2}) - \alpha_2 (v_2 + 1) - \alpha_3 (v_3 + \frac{1}{2}).$$
 (1)

For the π states ($\ell = \pm 1$), there is an additional term in the energy:

$$\pm \frac{1}{4} q (v_2 + 1) J(J+1).$$
 (2)

Thus it should be possible to recognize series of lines whose successive members have B values differing by α_{i} . A search for

repeating intervals in the CsOH spectrum shows only one well-defined interval, about 200 Mc in the J = 2 \rightarrow 3 transition, which is equivalent to an α_1 of 33 Mc. When the symmetry of the observed states and the intensities of the lines are taken into account, it is found that the α_1 must be identified with ν_1 , the Cs-0 stretching mode. The value of α_1 = 33 Mc seems quite reasonable; in fact, it is practically identical with the α value found in CsF.⁴

The assignment of satellites of ν_2 , the bending mode, presents more difficulty. A prominent set of ℓ -type doublets is readily assigned to the 010 π state, and there seems little question about the identification of the 020 Σ and Δ states given in Table I. However, no lines are observed at the frequencies where the 030 π and 040 Σ , Δ states would fall in a regular pattern. While some tentative assignments have been made for these higher states of the bending mode, the pattern is highly irregular, and there is not enough data at present to be certain of the interpretation. We can only conclude, then, that the bending mode is highly anharmonic; the elucidation of the detailed nature of the bending potential will require further data.

At the present time it is difficult to make a reliable estimate of the vibrational frequencies. No quantitative measurements of relative intensities have been achieved yet. However, rough estimates indicate that the Cs-0 stretching frequency ω_1 is certainly greater than 300 cm $^{-1}$ and could be as high as $^{1}600$ cm $^{-1}$. It may be noted that ω_2 = 352 cm $^{-1}$ in CsF. Since the intensities of the 100 and 020 Σ lines are roughly the same, it would appear that the bending fundamental ω_2 is about one-half of ω_1 - i.e., probably of the order of 150-300 cm $^{-1}$. Another estimate of ω_2 might be obtained from the splitting of the ℓ -doublets in the 010 π state. If the vibrations are assumed to be harmonic, this splitting leads to $\omega_2\approx 250$ cm $^{-1}$ in CsOH. However, it has been mentioned that the ν_2 mode appears to be quite anharmonic, so that this estimate is open to serious question. It is hoped that a study of higher states will provide better information on the bending levels.

The rotational constants of CsOH and CsOD permit the structural parameters of the molecule to be calculated. On the assumption of a rigid linear molecule, we obtain

$$r(OH) = 0.92 \text{ Å}$$

 $r(CsO) = 2.403 \text{ Å}$

Again, it must be emphasized that the anomalous nature of the bending mode throws considerable doubt on the validity of the rigid rotor approximation. In particular, it seems unlikely that the OH distance is really as short as 0.92~Å. In all probability, the value obtained from this simple calculation represents, at least crudely, the average projection of the OH bond on the molecular axis and is therefore lower than the true bond distance. On the other hand, the calculation shows that the Cs-O distance is not at all sensitive to the value of r(OH), so that the value given here should be accurate to $\pm 0.01~\text{Å}$.

Quantitative Stark-effect measurements have not been made yet. However, the dipole moment of CsOH appears to be in the range of 8 to 10 Debye units. This result, along with the other evidence, indicates that the Cs-O bond is highly ionic and that CsOH may be regarded as a close analog of CsF with F- replaced by OH-.

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Table I. $J = 2 \rightarrow 3$ transition in CsOH and CsOD

^v 1 ^v 2 ^v 3	ν (CsOH)	ν (CsOD)
0 0 0	Σ 33006.6 Mc	29981.0
0 1 0	π {32928.1 32880.7	29991.6 29946.1
0 2 0	∑ 32834.6	29973.8
0 2 0	△ 32795.8	29954.4
1 0 0	∑ 32807.0	
2 0 0	∑ 32607.5	
1 2 0	Σ 32630.1	

INFRARED SPECTRA OF BERYLLIUM BOROHYDRIDE AND ALUMINUM BOROHYDRIDE

By A. G. Maki

INTRODUCTION

Aluminum borohydride, Al(BH₄)₃ and beryllium borohydride, Be(BH₄)₂, are expected to contain bridge hydrogen bonds of the type found in diborane (B₂H₆). One expects that Be(BH₄)₂ will have D₂d symmetry and that Al(BH₄)₃ will belong to either the D₃h or D₃ point group (see Ref. 1 for further details). The experimental evidence supporting these structures is, however, rather inconclusive. Electron diffraction work on Al(BH₄)₃ reported by Beach and Bauer² and by Silbiger and Bauer³ can be interpreted in several different ways.

A rather thorough nuclear magnetic resonance study was carried out on ${\rm Al}({\rm BH_4})_3$ by Ogg and Ray using double resonance techniques. Their results seem to favor a bridge structure. They found a barrier to the rotation of the BH4 groups which is relatively high (estimated at 14 kcal/mole) although a related aluminum borohydride compound which they prepared has a low barrier to rotation of the BH4 groups. Ogg and Ray did find, however, that there is an equivalence of the hydrogen atoms in the BH4 groups which they interpret as being due to a slow tunnelling-type of exchange of the hydrogen atoms within each BH4 group. A discussion of tunnelling or tautomerism in the borohydride compounds has been given by Williams. 5

Banford and Coates report that the B" magnetic resonance spectrum of $\text{Me}_3\text{P}_3\text{Be}(\text{BH}_4)_2$ is similar to that of $\text{Al}(\text{BH}_4)_3$. Hence there is indirect evidence that in $\text{Be}(\text{BH}_4)_2$ there is either some type of exchange of the hydrogens within each BH_4 group, or else a rotation of the BH_4 groups.

The infrared spectrum of A1(BH₄)₃ and Be(BH₄)₂ was first measured by Price and others. 1,7 Since that time no other detailed spectral work has been done on Be(BH₄)₂. The Raman spectrum of A1(BH₄)₃ and A1(BD₄)₃ was subsequently studied by Emery and Taylor. Although they favored the D_{3h} structure for these compounds, their work was by no means conclusive. Because of instrumental limitations neither Be(BH₄)₂ nor A1(BH₄)₃ has previously been studied in the far infrared region. Furthermore, the earlier gas phase spectra of these two compounds were obtained with such low resolution that it was not possible to use the shape of the rotational band envelopes as an aid to determining the symmetry

classification of the transitions involved.

The work presented in this paper was undertaken with the intention of filling these gaps and with the additional hope that an improved vibrational assignment would then be possible. The shapes of the rotational band envelopes were not as helpful as had been expected. In the case of Be(BH₄)₂ this is rather surprising; presumably the bands are badly overlapped by hot band lines from some very low frequency vibrations. A hindered rotation of the BH₄ groups may also cause complications which obscure the characteristic shape expected for the band envelope.

In this paper we will also show that there is a great difference between the infrared spectrum of solid and gaseous $\operatorname{Be}(\operatorname{BH}_4)_2$. This is tentatively interpreted as being due to a transition from a weak, covalent bridge-hydrogen structure in the gas phase to a more ionic structure in the solid. The latter would contain BH_4 groups which are very similar to BH_4 ions.

EXPERIMENTAL

The spectra in the region from 250 cm⁻¹ to 4000 cm⁻¹ were obtained using a Beckman IR-7 foreprism-grating spectrometer. The far infrared spectra (from 80 to 300 cm $^{-1}$) were obtained with a Grubb Parsons interferometric spectrometer similar in design and operation to that described in Ref. 9. Gas phase spectra were obtained using a 9 cm long glass absorption cell fitted with either KBr, Irtran-2, or polyethylene windows. Solid phase spectra were obtained by freezing the gas onto either a silicon window or a KBr window. To be certain that there was no reaction with the substrate, some experiments were performed in which the cold surface was completely covered with a thin sheet of a terephthalate plastic material (mylar). Since the spectrum of solid $Be(BH_{\Delta})_2$ was different from that of the gas, the same sample was taken through several solid-gas transitions and the spectrum of each phase was studied in turn. In all cases the solid phase spectra were identical and the gas phase spectra were identical although the two phases had quite different spectra.

Both the beryllium and the aluminum compounds contained small amounts of diborane (B_2H_6) which was largely eliminated by two trap to trap distillations. The weak features at 1600 cm⁻¹ in Figs. 1 and 2 are due to diborane impurity. Some weak absorption bands in the CH stretching vibration region may be due to small amounts of organic impurities, but such small amounts of impurities cannot account for any of the strong absorption features with which this paper is concerned.

The compounds used in this study contained the natural abundance of boron isotopes. Hence, the beryllium borohydride spectra are for a mixture of approximately 66% $\mathrm{Be}(^{11}\mathrm{BH}_4)_2$, 31% $\mathrm{Be}(^{10}\mathrm{BH}_4)(^{11}\mathrm{BH}_4)$, and 4% $\mathrm{Be}(^{10}\mathrm{BH}_4)_2$ and the aluminum borohydride spectra for a mixture of 54% $\mathrm{Al}(^{11}\mathrm{BH}_4)_3$, 37% $\mathrm{Al}(^{10}\mathrm{BH}_4)(^{11}\mathrm{BH}_4)_2$, and 9% $\mathrm{Al}(^{10}\mathrm{BH}_4)_2(^{11}\mathrm{BH}_4)$. Such a mixture of isotopic species will destroy to some extent the usefulness of the band contours for making vibrational assignments. Since diborane gives useful band contour information without using isotopically enriched samples, we expected that the band contours for beryllium borohydride would be similarly useful.

ASSIGNMENTS FOR ALUMINUM BOROHYDRIDE

General

In Table 1 we have listed the observed infrared absorption bands in aluminum borohydride. Figure 1 shows the spectrum for both the gas and solid phases from 500 cm⁻¹ to 3000 cm⁻¹. Table 2 summarizes the numbering of the vibrations used in this paper assuming that the Al(BH₄)₃ molecule belongs to the D_{3h} point group. While we cannot claim that there is strong physical evidence favoring this point group, it does seem to be the most reasonable symmetry from several points of view. In this paper we will only consider the assignments for a D_{3h} point group. Both the infrared and Raman spectrum favor the D_{3h} point group in terms of the total number of strong transitions, but there are enough difficulties in the assignments and enough unassigned weak spectral features to prevent us from drawing any firm conclusions.

In the following selections we will treat each symmetry species separately in making the assignments. For the assignments we have relied rather heavily on the similarity with the structures of the diborane (see Ref. 10) and the boron trifluoride (see Ref. 11) molecules. The similarity in structure of the bridge hydrogens and the end hydrogens in $Al(BH_4)_3$ with those of diborane is obvious. The similarity of the heavy atom motions with those of boron trifluoride is not so obvious. Nevertheless if one makes crude allowance for the existence of the bridge hydrogens and consequently assumes that the bending and stretching of the heavy atom skeleton is much weaker in $Al(BH_4)_3$ than in BF_3 , the analogy with BF_3 is very helpful.

Table 1. Infrared and Raman spectra for aluminum borohydride. Spectral measurements are reported in cm⁻¹

Raman (liquid)*	Infrared*	Infrared*	
(see Ref. 8)	(solid at 100°K)	(gas)	Assignment
2549	2544 (s)	2556 (s)	ν ₁₅ (e')
2473 (polarized)			v_1 (a_1')
	2474 (s)	2491 (s)	ν ₁₆ (e')
2226 (v.w.)	2235 (m)	2220 (w)	?
	2140 (w)	shoulder	$v_{11}^{(a_{2}'')}$
2969 (polarized)			$v_2(a_1')$
	2065 (m)		?
2010	2030 (s)	2031 (s)	ν ₁₇ (e')
1925	1920 (w)	1930 (w)	?
1885 (v.w.)			?
1521 (w)	1523 (s)	1504 (s)	ν ₁₈ (e')
1495 (polarized)			$v_3^{(a'_1)}$
	1455 (s)	overlapped	$v_{12}^{(a_{2}'')}$
	1415 (s)	1420 (s)	? e'
1392			ν ₂₅ (e'')
		1354	?
1149			ν ₂₆ (e")
1116 (polarized)			ν ₄ (a' ₁)
1116	1104 (s)	1112 (s)	ν ₁₉ (e')
976	970 (m)	984 (m)	ν ₂₀ (e')
	774 (m)	764 (w)	ν ₁₃ (a'')
602	600 (s)	607 (s)	ν ₂₁ (e')
510 (polarized)			$v_{5}^{-1}(a_{1}')$
318	334 (m)	326 (w)	ν ₂₂ (e')
	221 (m)		$v_{14}^{(a'')}$
	135 (w)		ν ₂₃ (e')

^{*}Intensity designations are given in parenthesis - s = strong, m = medium, w = weak.

Table 2. Identification of the fundamental vibrations with symmetry species and type of vibration for aluminum borohydride. This table assumes that $Al(BH_4)_3$ belongs to the D_{3h} point group. For the D_{3h} point group the primes and double primes should be dropped.

	a' 1 (Raman active)	a''	a'2	a" 2 (infrared active)	e' (infrared and Raman active)	e" (Raman active)
B-H stretch	v_1		ν ₈		ν ₁₅ , ν ₁₆	
B-H' stretch*	v_2^2			ν ₁₁	ν ₁₇	ν ₂₄
B-Al stretch	ν ₅				ν ₂₁	
∠B-H' deformation*	ν_3				ν ₁₈	
∠B-H ₂ deformation	ν ₄				ν ₁₉	
∠B-A1-B deformation					ν ₂₃	
B-H'-Al bridge shear*				ν ₁₂		ν ₂₅
B-H ₂ rock			ν_9		ν ₂₀	
B-H ₂ wag				ν ₁₃		ν ₂₈
Bridge wag or pucker			ν ₁₀		v_{22}	
Bridge torsion		ν ₆				ν ₂₆
End torsion		v_7				ν ₂₇
Out-of-plane bend (B ₃ A1)				ν ₁₄		

^{*}The prime above the H indicates a bridge hydrogen is involved.

The a Species

Emery and Taylor 8 have shown that there are five polarized Raman transitions for Al(BH₄)₃ which must be the five a' species vibrations. The frequencies of all the B-H stretching vibrations are found to be approximately where one would predict if the analogy with the diborane molecule is valid. The Al-B stretching motion is expected to be somewhat below 600 cm⁻¹ so that the polarized Raman line at 510 cm⁻¹ must be assigned to that vibration. The remaining polarized Raman lines at 1495 cm⁻¹ and at 1116 cm⁻¹ must then be assigned respectively to the bridge deformation, ν_3 , (alternatively called the symmetric bridge stretch) and the terminal BH₂ deformation, ν_4 .

The a" Species

Vibrations belonging to the a" species are infrared active but do not appear in the Raman effect. In the vapor phase these transitions will correspond to parallel transitions for a symmetric top. If there are no complications due to hot bands, isotopic mixtures, etc. these bands should have band contours with widths of about 20 cm⁻¹ in the vapor phase.

The bridge B-H stretching vibration (ν_{11}) is expected to be around 2200 to 2000 cm⁻¹. The band at 2235 cm⁻¹ would be the obvious choice for this vibration except for the fact that there is a weak Raman line at the same frequency. Presumably this is an indication that this is an overtone or combination band (most likely $2\nu_{4}$ = 2 x 1116 cm⁻¹). In the infrared spectrum there is a weak shoulder at about 2140 cm⁻¹ for which there is no corresponding Raman line. In the solid this is seen as a well defined absorption maximum. We have assigned this as ν_{11} .

The out-of-plane vibration of the AlB $_3$ skeleton (ν_{14}) is expected to be the lowest frequency member of this symmetry species. This is probably the 221 cm $^{-1}$ band observed in the infrared spectrum of the solid.

The band at 764 cm⁻¹, which for some reason is much stronger in the spectrum of the solid, is assigned to the BH, wagging motion (ν_{13}) although it is at a frequency somewhat lower than the corresponding vibrations in diborane.

The bridge shearing vibration, ν_{12} , will be somewhere around 1400 to 1500 cm⁻¹. It is rather arbitrarily assigned to the feature at 1455 cm⁻¹ observed in the solid spectrum. None of these transitions corresponds to any feature reported for the Raman spectrum.

The e' Fundamentals

The e' species vibrations will be both infrared and Raman active. They will correspond to perpendicular bands in a symmetric top, consequently they will in general have broader band contours in the infrared spectrum of the vapor than was the case with the a' vibrations.

The two-BH stretching vibrations are easily identified as the two strong infrared bands at 2556 cm⁻¹ and 2491 cm⁻¹ in the vapor. The strong, broad band observed at 2031 cm⁻¹ in the infrared spectrum must be the bridge B'H' stretching vibration. The Raman transition at 2010 cm⁻¹ in the liquid probably corresponds to this transition. The infrared and Raman bands at 607 cm⁻¹ probably correspond to the B-Al stretching vibration (ν_{21}) in agreement with the assignment of the corresponding a' vibration at 510 cm⁻¹. The bridge BH' deformation or symmetric bridge stretching vibration, ν_{18} , is assigned to the strong and broad infrared band at 1504 cm⁻¹ for which there is a corresponding weak Raman line at 1521 cm⁻¹. The terminal BH deformation and rocking vibrations are assigned to the 1112 cm⁻¹ and 984 cm⁻¹ bands, respectively, by analogy with the corresponding vibrations in diborane.

Both the B-H'-Al puckering vibration (ν_{22}) and the B-Al-B deformation vibration (ν_{23}) are expected to be at very low frequencies. Only one low frequency Raman band remains (at 318 cm $^{-1}$). This probably corresponds to the infrared absorption at 334 cm $^{-1}$ and is assigned to ν_{22} . The broad, weak feature observed in the infrared spectrum of the solid at about 135 cm $^{-1}$ is assigned to ν_{23} . This would be too close to the exciting line to be observed in the Raman spectra.

The e" Species

The remaining intense Raman shifts which are not present in the infrared spectrum must be due to e" vibrations. The bridge shearing vibration is probably the band at 1392 cm $^{-1}$. The band at 1149 cm $^{-1}$ is either a torsion or else the BH wagging vibration, probably the former. The remaining torsion and the BH wag are then unknown. The bridge B-H' stretch ν_{24} should be near 2000 cm $^{-1}$ but we are unable to assign it.

Final Summary

Since they are inactive in both the Raman and infrared effects, neither the three a' vibrations nor the two a' vibrations can be assigned on the basis of our present knowledge. We have also been unable to assign three of the e" vibrations. The remaining assignments are all compatible with the observed spectra with one exception. The infrared spectrum of the gas indicates that there is a broad absorption around 1400 cm⁻¹. The solid spectrum clearly shows three very strong absorptions between 1550 cm $^{-1}$ and 1400 cm $^{-1}$. We can only assign two of these. The extra absorption seems to be much too high for assignment to anything but a bridge hydrogen motion. If the molecule had D $_3$ symmetry, this absorption would be assigned to ν_{25} . In the gas phase spectrum a Coriolis interaction between ν_{25} and ν_{18} is allowed according to Jahn's rule. Such a Coriolis interaction would cause ν_{25} to become infrared active at high rotational levels, but that will not explain the intensity in the solid state. A more satisfactory explanation would be that the extra peak is due to a combination or overtone which has a high intensity due to intensity borrowing through Fermi resonance.

In Table 3 we have given some of the fundamentals for $Al(BH_4)_3$ and $Al(BD_4)_3$ using the Raman measurements of Emery and Taylor in conjunction with our own infrared measurements on $Al(BH_4)_3$. The observation of six polarized Raman lines for $Al(BD_4)_3$ has been explained by Emery and Taylor as due to the appearance of an overtone through Fermi resonance with a fundamental. We would also like to point out that neither the D_{3h} nor the D_{3} point group would predict two polarized Raman lines near 1500 cm⁻⁻⁻ for $Al(BD_4)_3$ hence this observation gives absolutely no support to the D_3 model.

There are still a number of weaker absorption bands in the infrared spectrum. These are probably either overtone and combination bands, or else they are due to impurities. We have made no attempt to assign the overtone and combination bands since there are enough assigned and unassigned fundamentals to account for most of the features in several different ways.

Table 3. Infrared and Raman active fundamentals of aluminum borohydride and aluminum borodeuteride*.

Symmetry	Fundamental	A1(BH ₄) ₃ (cm ⁻¹)	A1(BD ₄) ₃ (cm ⁻¹)
	$\begin{smallmatrix}\nu\\1\\\nu\\2\end{smallmatrix}$	2473 2069	1810 {1511 {1455
a'i	$^{\nu}$ 3	1495	1092
	ν ₄ ν ₅	1116 510	829 463
a'' 2	ν ₁₁ ν ₁₂ ν ₁₃ ν ₁₄	2140 1455 774 221	
e¹	ν ₁₅ ν ₁₆ ν ₁₇ ν ₁₈ ν ₁₉ ν ₂₀ ν ₂₁ ν ₂₂ ν ₂₃	2549 2474 2030 1523 1104 970 600 334 135	1928 829 743 569 267
e"	^ν 24 ^ν 25 ^ν 26 ^ν 27 ^ν 28	1392 1149	829?

^{*}Data are for solid or liquid state; data on A1(BD $_4$) $_3$ are entirely due to Emery and Taylor (Ref. 8).

ASSIGNMENT FOR BERYLLIUM BOROHYDRIDE

General

The observed absorption frequencies and the assignments for beryllium borohydride are given in Table 4. Table 5 identifies the type of vibration corresponding to each fundamental. It should be remembered, of course, that no fundamental is purely of one type of vibration but is really a linear combination of many types of vibration with one type usually predominating. The infrared absorption spectrum is shown in Fig. 2. We have assumed that the molecule belongs to the $\rm D_{2d}$ point group. The individual assignments for that point group are discussed below. As an aid in making the assignments we have made use of the similarity between beryllium borohydride and both allene (H_CCCH_2)^{12} and diborane. $\rm ^{10}$

Since the spectrum of the solid is quite different from that of the gas, the assignments for the gas phase will be discussed first. In the last part of this section we will discuss the implications of the solid state spectra.

As yet there seem to be no Raman measurements reported for $Be(BH_4)_2$. Consequently, we will only concern ourselves with the infrared active fundamentals which are of species b_2 and e.

b₂ Species Fundamentals

The fundamentals of the b symmetry species will be parallel type bands in infrared absorption. That is, they will have a single Q branch flanked by P and R branches. A band contour calculation shows that for beryllium borohydride the parallel bands will be about 30 cm⁻¹ in breadth. Similar calculations show that the perpendicular bands will generally be much broader, of the order of 100 cm^{-1} . The exact shape of the perpendicular bands is dependent on the value of ζ , but since ζ is almost never greater than 0.8, it is easy to show that the perpendicular bands will almost always be broader than the parallel bands. None of the bands in the spectrum of $\text{Be}(\text{BH}_4)_2$ show any trace of a Q-branch. This may be due to the presence of many hot bands due to very low vibrational frequencies. Such hot bands will have the effect of smearing out the spectrum to some extent.

There will be one B-H stretching vibration of b species expected around 2600 cm $^{-1}$. The narrowest band in that region is at 2625 cm $^{-1}$ and is attributed to this vibration. Similarly the

Table 4. Infrared absorption and assignments for gaseous beryllium borohydride.

Wavenumber* (cm ⁻¹)		Assignment
2625	(m)	ν ₉ (b ₂)
2530	(m)	ν ₁₄ (e)
2180	(m)	?
2130	(s)	$v_{15}^{}$ (e)
2075	(m)	ν ₁₀ (b ₂)
1997	(w)	?
1600	(m)	?
1550	(vs)	ν ₁₆ (e)
1242	(m)	ν ₁₂ (b ₂)
1130	(w)	?
1020	(vs)	ν ₁₈ (e)
282	(w)	ν ₁₉ (e)

^{*}Intensity is indicated as

vs = very strong, s = strong,

m = medium, w = weak.

Table 5. Identification of the fundamental vibrations with symmetry species and type of vibration for beryllium borohydride. This table assumes that the molecule belongs to the D 2d point group.

			b ₁ (Raman active)	b 2 (infrared and Raman active)	e (infrared and Raman active)
				_	
B-H stretch	$^{\nu}$ 1			ν ₉	ν ₁₄
B-H' stretch	$^{ u}$ 2			$^{ u}$ 10	ν ₁₅
B-Be stretch	ν ₅			ν ₁₃	
∠BH' deformation	$^{\nu}$ 3			$^{ u}$ 11	
∠BH ₂ deformation	ν ₄			$^{ u}$ 12	
∠B-Be-B bend					$^{ u}$ 20
bridge shear					ν ₁₆
BH ₂ rock					ν ₁₇
BH ₂ wag					ν ₁₈
bridge wag or pucker					ν ₁₉
bridge torsion			ν_{7}		
end torsion		ν ₆	ν ₈		

bridge B-H stretching fundamental is attributed to the relatively sharp feature at 2075 cm⁻¹. One BH, bridge deformation vibration is expected at about 1600 cm⁻¹. This is evidently hidden by the strong, broad features in that region which must be perpendicular vibrations. The terminal BH, deformation (ν_{12}) is probably the band at 1242 cm⁻¹. The Be-B stretching vibration is probably between 800 and 500 cm⁻¹ but in the gas phase we have been unable to locate any absorption in that region. There is a strong band at 734 cm⁻¹ in the solid phase spectrum, but it may be due to another vibration which has shifted downward in frequency in going from the gas phase structure to the solid phase structure.

The e Species Fundamentals

As mentioned in the previous section these vibrations will give rise to broad perpendicular type infrared absorption bands. The two B-H stretching vibrations are probably the broad features centered at about 2530 cm $^{-1}$ and 2130 cm $^{-1}$. The bridge shearing vibration (ν_{16}) may be the sharper, but still very broad, absorption at 1550 cm $^{-1}$. The BH $_2$ wagging vibration (ν_{18}) by analogy with the allene molecule is probably the broad band centered at 1020 cm $^{-1}$.

The two remaining e fundamentals would be expected to occur at relatively long wavelengths. By analogy with diborane the bridge puckering vibration will probably be somewhat below 360 cm $^{-1}$. We would expect the B-Be-B bending vibration to be at an even lower frequency. Since none of the perpendicular bands show a trace of fine structure, there must be one or more vibrations of very low frequency. If sufficiently numerous, the hot bands will obscure the fine structure. For this reason we expect that there will be at least two fundamental vibrations below 300 cm $^{-1}$. The 282 cm $^{-1}$ band is one of them, probably the puckering vibration, ν_{19} . The existence of a very weak absorption close to 180 cm $^{-1}$ in the solid suggests that there may be another low vibration in the gas phase, but it is too weak to observe with a 10 cm pathlength. This would be the B-Be-B bending vibration, ν_{20} .

Solid Phase Spectra

In Fig. 2 the gas phase spectrum of beryllium borohydride can be compared with that of the solid phase. Table 6 gives the positions of the principal absorption features in the solid phase. The spectra in the solid and gas phases are so different that one is tempted to believe that they do not belong to the same molecular species. It was for that reason that experiments were made to be certain that the molecule has not undergone an irreversible change.

Table 6. Principal absorption features observed in the infrared spectrum of solid beryllium borohydride at about 100°K.

Wavenumber (cm ⁻¹)	Intensity	
2514	medium	
2456	medium	
2340	strong	
2120	strong	
1997	weak	
1552	strong	
1457	very strong	
1325	very strong	
1131	medium	
1010	weak	
734	strong	
408	medium	
320	medium	
180	very weak	

As mentioned in the experimental section of this paper, experiments show that any change in the $\operatorname{Be}(\operatorname{BH}_4)_2$ molecule on condensation or sublimation is a reversible change since the same spectra are always obtained regardless of the past history of the sample. By way of contrast, the spectrum of $\operatorname{Al}(\operatorname{BH}_4)_3$ (shown in Fig. 1) was the same for both the solid and the gas phase (after allowing for the rotational transitions present in the gas phase).

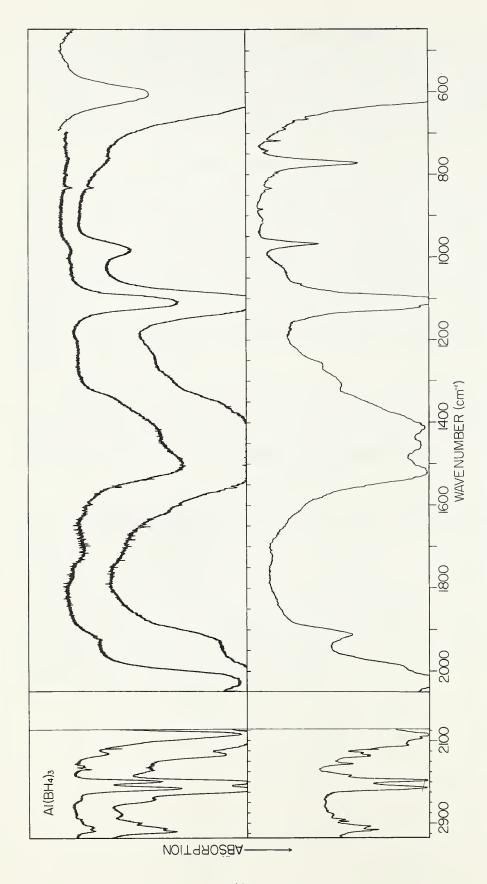
In the solid phase the four B-H stretching vibrations seem to be merging. The lower frequency vibrations are shifted to higher frequencies in the solid while the high frequency vibrations are shifted to lower frequencies. This suggests that the BH $_4$ group is approaching the structure of the BH $_4$ ion for which Be(BH $_4$) $_2$ might have two triply degenerate vibrations at nearly the same frequency. Such a supposition is supported by the fact that most of the other vibrations seem to be at lower wave numbers in the solid state although definite correlations are not yet possible. As the BH $_4$ group goes over to the ionic structure many of the internal vibrations of the covalent Be(BH $_4$) $_2$ molecule will become the lattice vibrations and librations of the ionic compound. Such motions would usually be expected to be at lower frequencies than the internal vibrations.

Although the change from a covalent form for Be(BH₄)₂ in the gas phase to a more nearly ionic form in the solid phase is quite unexpected, there are examples of even greater changes. For example, N₂0₅ has been shown to be covalent in the gas phase while the solid consists of NO $_{2}^{+}$ ions and NO $_{3}^{-}$ ions.

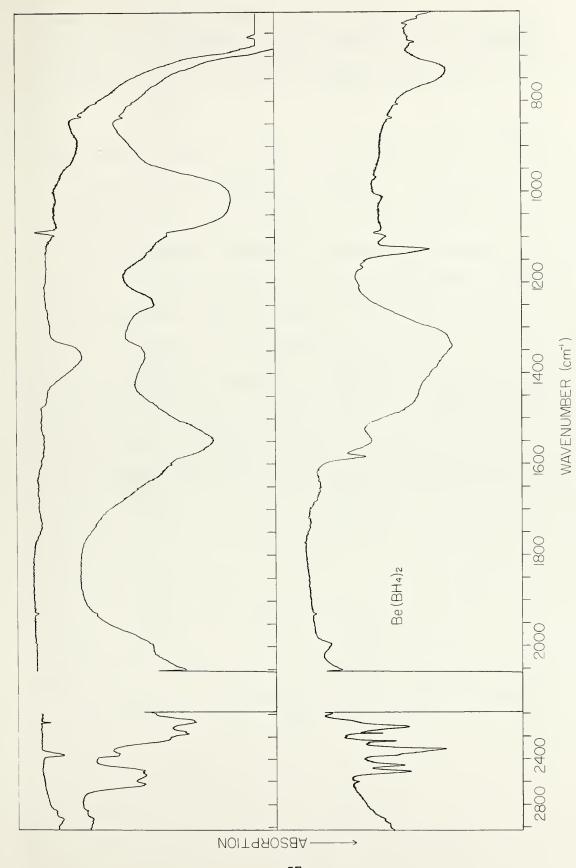
It would be of particular interest to investigate the spectrum of $\operatorname{Be}(\operatorname{BH}_4)_2$ frozen in an inert matrix at very low temperatures. Under such conditions one would expect the molecule to retain the gas phase bonding, hence the gas phase spectrum should be obtained (without the rotational transitions, of course). Such matrix isolated spectra would probably have quite sharp absorption bands so that it might be possible to see individual peaks due to the absorption of both $\operatorname{Be}(^{11}\operatorname{BH}_4)_2$ and $\operatorname{Be}(^{10}\operatorname{BH}_4)(^{11}\operatorname{BH}_4)$. By measuring the isotope shift, the assignments could be made with more confidence. Such an experiment is planned for the near future. The compound magnesium borohydride (Mg (BH_4)_2) may also show very similar behavior and should be studied.

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curve shows the gas phase spectrum with a pathlength of 10 cm and pressures of about 5 Torr and 30 Torr. The lower panel shows the solid phase spectrum at about $100^{\circ}K_{\circ}$ Figure 1 - The infrared spectrum of aluminum borohydride. The upper



absorption of the gas cell. The middle curve is the absorption in the gas phase with a 9 cm pathlength and a pressure equal to the vapor pressure at $\mu 0^{\circ} G_{\circ}$. The lowest curve is the absorption of the solid at about $100^{\circ} K_{\circ}$. The top curve is the background The infrared spectrum of beryllium borohydride. 1 Figure 2

Chapter 6

FORCE FIELDS FOR SOME SIMPLE INORGANIC FLUORIDES

S. Abramowitz and I. W. Levin

The Coriolis zeta constants of the degenerate modes of SiF_{4} , GeF_{4} , NF_{3} , PF_{3} , AsF_{3} , SF_{6} , and TeF_{6} were determined from gas phase infrared band contour measurements. These Coriolis coupling data provided the necessary constraints for the unique determination of the harmonic force fields for the F_{2} , F_{4} , and F_{1u} symmetry species of the Group IV, V, and VI fluorides studied. The rotational distortion data which are functions of both the A and F_{4} symmetry species of the F_{4} molecules were found to be useful only in the case of F_{4} . Experimental details and discussion of the results of these studies may be found elsewhere (1, 2, 3). The results of the studies together with the data used for computation may be found in Tables 1-5.

Table 1. The observed data for the Group IV tetrafluorides and the Group V trifluorides. $\Delta v_{P_{-}R}$ represents the P-R separation in cm⁻¹. The frequencies are in cm⁻¹; the ζ_{i} are dimensionless. Values for the zeta sum rules are given.

	Observed frequency				
	(cm-1)	Δν _{P-R}	ζ _i	$\Sigma \zeta_{\mathtt{i}}$	Sum Rule
SiF ₄					
v ₃	1030	11 ^a	0.49		
v ₄	390	24 ^a	-0.12	0.37	0.50
GeF ₄				9401	0.70
v ₃	821.6	16	0.20		
v ₄	271	13	0.35	0.55	0.50
NF ₃				0.77	0.00
νı	1032				
ν ₂	647				
v ₃	907	3	0.91		
v ₄	492	40	-0.96	-0.05	0.00
PF ₃				-0.0)	-0.09
	892				
νı	487				
ν ₂	860	7 l.	0 1.6		
^v 3		14	0.47		
ν ₄	344	32	-0.65	-0.18	-0.15
AsF ₃	-1				
νı	740				
ν ₂	336				
ν ₃	7 02	14	0.31		
ν ₄	262	26.7	-0.44	-0.13	-0.18

a S. Abramowitz, "Intermolecular Forces in Condensed Phases," Ph.D. thesis, Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn, 1963.

Table 2. Structural data for the tetrafluorides and the trifluorides

Molecule	Bond length (Å)	Bond angle	
\mathtt{SiF}_{4}	1.55 ^a	109°28 ′	
\mathtt{GeF}_{4}	1.67 ^b	109°28′	
NF ₃	1.371 ^c	102.1°	
PF ₃	1.52 ^d	102° ^f	
AsF ₃	1.712 ^e	102°	

a H. Braune and P. Pinnow, Z. Physik. Chem. <u>B35</u>, 239 (1937).

A. D. Gaunt, H. Mackle, and L. E. Sutton, Trans. Faraday Soc. 47, 943 (1951).

^c J. Sheridan and W. Gordy, Phys. Rev. 79, 513 (1950).

L. Pauling and L. O. Brockway, J. Am. Chem. Soc. <u>57</u>, 2684 (1935).

e P. Kisliuk and S. Geschwind, J. Chem. Phys. <u>21</u>, 828 (1953).

f Assumed.

Table 3. Force constants for the XF3 and XF4 molecules. The units are expressed in millidynes per angstrom.

Species	Force constant	NF ₃	PF ₃	AsF_3
A				
Т	F ₁₁ =f _r +2f _{rr} ,	4.80±0.10		
	$F_{12}=2f_{\alpha r}+f_{\alpha r}$	0.54±0.05		
	$F_{22}=f_{\alpha}+2f_{\alpha\alpha}$	1.59±0.05		
E				
	F ₃₃ =f _r -f _{rr} .	2.92±0.12	4.74±0.06	4.20±0.05
	$F_{34} = f_{\alpha r} - f_{\alpha r}$	0.17±0.04	0.12±0.03	0.00±0.05
	$F_{44}=f_{\alpha}-f_{\alpha\alpha}$	1.02±0.06	0.46±0.01	0.30±0.02
Species	Force constant	CF ₄ ^a	SiF ₄	$\mathtt{GeF}_{1\!\!\!\!/}$
F		W		
۷	F ₃₃ =f _r -f _{rr}	6.22±0.25	6.58±0.10	5.79±0.05
	$F_{34} = \sqrt{2(f_{r\alpha} - f_{r\alpha})}$	-0.84±0.05	-0.38±0.05	-0.24±0.04
	$F_{44}=f_{\alpha}-f_{\alpha\alpha}$	1.01±0.03	0.44±0.01	0.27±0.01

Data for CF_{\downarrow} taken from J. L. Duncan and I. M. Mills, Spectrochim. Acta $\underline{20}$, 1089 (1964).

The observed data for the Group VI hexafluorides. Δv_{P-R} represents the P-R separation in cm⁻¹. The frequencies are in cm⁻¹; the ζ_1 are dimensionless. Values for the zeta sum rules and bond lengths are given. Table 4.

	Observed Frequency cm ⁻ l	Δν _{P-R}	٠ <u>.</u> .	$\Sigma \mathcal{C}_{1}$	Sum Rule	Bond Length A
SF6						
2	947.5	2.9	-0.33			
ر بر	615.5	23.0	0.83			
				0.50	0.50	1.56ª
$\mathtt{TeF}_{\mathcal{G}}$						
2 %	751.0	12.5	0.18			
[†] 2	326.5	11.0	0.28			
				94.0	0.50	1.84°

L. O. Brockway and L. Pauling, Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. 19, 68 (1933).

ಥ

The values are expressed in millidynes/ $\mathring{\mathbb{A}}$. Force constants for the XF_{6} series. Table 5.

$\mathrm{SF}_{\mathcal{S}}$	6.72	49.4	4.75 ± 0.15 4.98 ± 0.10	-0.74 ± 0.03 -0.24 ± 0.05	1.10 ± 0.03 0.40 ± 0.05	0.27	0.22	
Force Constant	$F_{11} = f_r + \mu f_{rr} + f_{rr}$	F22 = fr - 2fr + frr	$\mathbf{F}_{33} = \mathbf{f}_{r} - \mathbf{f}_{rr},$	$\mathbf{F}_{34} = -2(\mathbf{f}_{1\alpha} - \mathbf{f}_{1\alpha})$	$\mathbf{F}_{\mu\mu} = \mathbf{f}_{\alpha} + 2\mathbf{f}_{\alpha\alpha} - 2\mathbf{f}_{\alpha\alpha}$, \mathbf{f}_{α}	$\mathbf{F}_{55} = \mathbf{f}_{\alpha} + \mathbf{f}_{\alpha \alpha' i'} - 2\mathbf{f}_{\alpha \alpha'}$	$F_{66} = f_{\alpha} - 2f_{\alpha\alpha} + 2f_{\alpha\alpha} = f_{\alpha\alpha} = $	
Species	Alg	편 80	Flu			전 전 영	$^{ m F}$ 2 $^{ m L}$	

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Chapter 7

MEASURED RELATIVE ENTHALPY AND DERIVED THERMODYNAMIC

PROPERTIES OF ANHYDROUS CRYSTALLINE ALUMINUM TRIFLUORIDE, A&F3,

FROM 273 TO 1173 °K*

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(Abstract)

Using an ice calorimeter and a "drop" method, the enthalpy of a highpurity sample of anhydrous crystalline aluminum trifluoride, AlF3, relative to that at 0°C (273.15 °K), was precisely measured at 18 temperatures starting at 50 °C and proceeding in 50-deg steps to 900 °C (1173.15 °K). Thirty additional enthalpy measurements between 450 and 453 °C revealed in this temperature interval a gradual transition. A simple general relation for the progress of transition when impurity is in solid solution is derived which fits the observed transition data and indicates a firstorder transition temperature of 455 °C (728 °K). X-ray powder patterns on the sample, measured in the Crystallography Section of the NBS. established the existence of a phase transition by showing not only the known hexagonal structure at room temperature (even after violent quenching from above the transition temperature region) but a new, simple-cubic structure at 570 °C (843 °K). The smooth heat-capacity curve formulated from the data merges very smoothly with that representing published precise low-temperature data. The common thermodynamic properties were derived, and are tabulated at and above 298.15 °K, with extrapolation up to 1600 °K.

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I. Introduction

During the past several years the National Bureau of Standards has conducted a comprehensive program of research to determine accurately the thermodynamic properties of substances that are important in high-temperature applications, such as chemical propulsion, yet for which accurate data have been lacking. Aluminum trifluoride, $A\ell F_3$, is a key example of prime importance in this area, as well as being one of the simplest of inorganic substances. In this research program its heat of formation at room temperature $[1]^1$ and its vapor pressures at elevated temperatures [2] have been accurately measured, and a current thermodynamic study of the $A\ell F_3$ - $A\ell C\ell_3$ system involving vaporization equilibrium is in progress. Reliable thermodynamic properties of the solid up to high temperatures are needed, not only to afford its heat of formation and reaction at such temperatures but also to interpret accurately such vaporization data as those just referred to.

Numbers in brackets refer to literature references at the end of this paper.

low-temperature heat-capacity measurements on AF₃ (from 54 to 298 °K), believed to be accurate, have been reported by King [3]. Lyashenko [4] measured the high-temperature enthalpy from 290 to 1305 °K, but the results of O'Brien and Kelley [5] (298-1401 °K), while not differing seriously, have been regarded as somewhat more reliable. However, Frank [6] noted systematic differences between the results of O'Brien two and Kelley and those of others for other substances measured at the same time as the aluminum fluoride, and, concluding that O'Brien and Kelley's recorded temperatures were too high by amounts up to 20° at 1373 °K, made an adjustment of their smoothed data on AF₃ which leads to corrected heat capacities in poor agreement with King's.

Because of the need for accurate high-temperature enthalpies of ALF3 and the uncertainties in the existing data, the measurements reported in the present paper were undertaken.

II. Sample

The sample of aluminum fluoride was supplied by the Alcoa Research Laboratories of the Aluminum Company of America, New Kensington, Pa., who had purified it by sublimation at 1050 °C in a nickel retort. It was in the form of a fine white crystalline powder.

For one thing, Iyashenko failed to detect the transition found by O'Brien and Kelley.

Specimens were analyzed chemically for aluminum and fluorine in the Applied Analytical Research Section of the NBS, and spectrochemically for a number of heavier chemical elements by a general qualitative method in the Spectrochemistry Section of the NBS. The results of these analyses are given in table 1. Although the supplier thought that the sample would contain "a small amount of aluminum oxide and a spectroscopic amount of nickel," and no analysis for oxygen was made, the percentages of aluminum and fluorine in table 1 agree with the theoretical composition within the precision of analysis, and hence no corrections for impurity were made other than adjustment of the enthalpy near the transition temperature as described in Section IV.

III. Calorimetric Procedure and Thermal Data

The enthalpy measurements were made by a "drop" method employing a silver-core furnace and a precision ice calorimeter. The temperature of core, the furnace/held constant to ±0.01 deg during a measurement, was measured up to 500 °C by a platinum resistance thermometer (ice-point resistance, about 25 ohms) that had been calibrated at the NBS and whose ice-point resistance was frequently rechecked. Above 500 °C the furnace temperatures were measured by two Pt--Pt-10% Rh thermocouples whose independent NBS calibrations were slightly adjusted to make them exactly concordant with the resistance thermometer below 500 °C when compared with it in the furnace of the enthalpy-measuring apparatus. The mass of the sample-plus-container was periodically checked for constancy during the series of measurements. Other details of the method and apparatus are discussed in extensive detail in an earlier publication [7].

All the enthalpy measurements were made on a single specimen ("sample") of aluminum fluoride weighing about 5 g. The cylindrical sample container (wall thickness, about 0.015 in.) was fabricated from annealed 99.9%-pure silver. One end was drawn down to a narrow neck, and, after introduction of the sample in the air atmosphere of a dry box at room temperature, was evacuated and filled with helium to a few torr pressure before pinching the neck and sealing it off with a torch.

The individual enthalpy measurements on the sample-plus-container, the mean corresponding net relative enthalpy of the sample at each temperature, and the deviations of these means from the empirical equations derived to represent them (Section V), are given in table 2 for the various furnace temperatures arranged in increasing order. Although the enthalpy measurements at a given furnace temperature are listed in chronological order, the temperatures themselves (particularly from 720 to 726 °K) are not. (The details of the empty-container measurements that were used to complete these calculations are given in another paper [8].) The tabulated values are those after correction for small unavoidable differences in parts of the sample and of the empty container. The vapor pressure of aluminum fluoride at the highest furnace temperature involved, 900 °C, the is only about 1 torr, and it can be shown that at this temperature heat of evaporation to saturate the 3 cm³ of gas space in the sample container was negligible (about 0.003 cal).

The enthalpy values of table 2 are further treated in Sections IV and V.

IV. Phase Transition

It is known that ALF3 undergoes a solid-state transition, though the authors are unaware that anyone has previously investigated the nature of the structural change. O'Brien and Kelley's [5] enthalpy measurements showed a small but definite enthalpy increment (150 cal/mole), and over so small a temperature interval that it was attributed to a first-order transition reported to occur at 727 °K.

The present investigation likewise shows a transition, and with a heat and temperature approximately in agreement with the above values; so, in addition to a series of enthalpy measurements at furnace temperatures every 50 deg from 273 to 1173 °K, a special series of enthalpy values was determined at closely spaced temperatures between 722 and 727 °K, in an effort to distinguish between a first- and second-order transition and also to define as closely as possible the true (equilibrium) transition temperature (or temperature range).

The individual unsmoothed enthalpy values obtained in this small range are shown in figure 1. The frame of reference which gives these points significance with regard to the transition is afforded by the two solid curves, calculated from the empirical equations derived later (Section V). The lower curve is part of that fitting closely all the values at and below 723 °K (except three values approached from higher temperatures, presently to be discussed), and the upper curve similarly fits closely the values from 773° to 1173 °K. Associating these two curves with, respectively, the low-temperature ($\underline{\alpha}$) and high-temperature ($\underline{\beta}$) forms of AlF_3 , it is natural to take the vertical position of any point between as a linear measure (within the experimental precision) of the fraction of the sample which has converted from $\underline{\alpha}$ to $\underline{\beta}$, provided the sample can be assumed to have always reverted to the same state when cooled in the calorimeter to 273.15 °K.

On this basis the intermediate points approached from lower temperatures ("by heating") indicate a gradual transition between 723 and 726 °K, and it is believed that these represent approximately true equilibrium because two pairs of points involved times at furnace temperature which differed by factors of 4 and 10, respectively, without appreciably changing the enthalpy found. On the other hand the points approached by cooling after first heating above 726 °K (i.e., "by cooling") lie along the upper curve. It is believed that in these latter cases the sample completely converted to the β form but failed to revert partially to α (until cooled in the calorimeter). These points would then not correspond to phase equilibrium, and will not be discussed further.

It may be noted that the sharp upturn in the enthalpy between 723 and 726 °K, which would correspond to a hump in the heat-capacity curve, is in strong contrast to the gradual upward curvature of the heat-capacity curve over some 200 deg below 723 °K (fig. 3) so that the two phenomena appear to be of different origin. In order to throw light on the nature of the 3-deg upturn, X-ray powder patterns were taken in the Crystallography Section of the NBS on three specimens of the same aluminum-fluoride sample. These specimens were, respectively, one not used in the enthalpy measurements, one that had been heated well above 726 °K and then cooled slowly over two days to room temperature, and one that, after similar heating, had then been quenched in liquid nitrogen (i.e., much more drastically quenched than in the ice calorimeter). All three specimens gave at room temperature the same known pattern associated with the room-temperature hexagonal structure of $A\ell F_3$ [9]; it was therefore concluded that in all the enthalpy measurements the sample probably returned to this same form in the calorimeter, and consequently that the points in figure 1 are true measures of the relative enthalpy under the furnace conditions.

Additional X-ray patterns, however, were taken on one of the specimens while at approximately $81.0\,^{\circ}$ K, well above the transition region. In these cases the hexagonal pattern was missing, but was replaced by a new pattern interpreted as due to a primitive (simple) cubic structure having a cell dimension of $3.580\,^{\circ}$ A (or possibly some multiple thereof). (TaF3 is said to show a similar structure at certain temperatures.) From this result it is concluded that the transition in A^{\dagger} F3 at about 726 °K involves a change in crystal structure. And since a true second-order transition is compatible with only a continuous change in structure not readily conceivable for most pairs of well-defined structures, the conclusion is that pure A^{\dagger} F3 exhibits a true first-order transition. A quantitative explanation of the observed 3-deg transition is offered below after postulating the presence of impurity soluble in both forms of A^{\dagger} F3 and then treating the sample as a two-component system.

Two-component systems combining appreciable solid solubility with a first-order transition of one component are very common, and enthalpy data on some such systems have been interpreted in accordance with these characteristics with as much care as the very common treatment of premelting. However, no one treatment is equally appropriate in every case, as in each one approximations must be made that are consistent with the amount and quality of the information available. With this fact in mind, the following very simple treatment was developed for application to the present case, but obviously is more generally useful.

The situation tentatively assumed to exist is illustrated by the type of phase diagram shown in figure 2 (whose specific details are those subsequently derived for the present sample). For simplicity the principal component is assumed to be contaminated with a single component (which may be a combination of impurities in fixed ratio) whose overall mol fraction, N_2 , is so small that the temperature-composition phase boundaries may be taken as straight lines in this region. Also for simplicity, maintenance of complete phase equilibrium is assumed. In the example illustrated, the impurity depresses the transition temperature of the pure substance, $\frac{T_{tr}}{t_r}$, to a finite temperature interval $\frac{T_1}{t_r}$ to $\frac{T_2}{t_r}$, the sample at any intermediate temperature $\frac{T}{t_r}$ consisting of $\frac{T_1}{t_r}$ and $\frac{T_2}{t_r}$ and $\frac{T_1}{t_r}$ respectively. Though in most known cases of this type the impurity does depress the transition temperature (as in fig. 2), some cases are known where this is elevated, but the following equations are equally applicable to both situations.

The two phase boundaries may be defined by

$$N_2^{i} = A(T - T_{tr});$$
 (1)

$$N_2^{11} = B(T - T_{tr})$$
, (2)

where \underline{A} and \underline{B} are constants. The limits of the two-phase temperature region are then obviously given by

$$T_1 = T_{tr} + N_2/A ; \qquad (3)$$

$$T_2 = T_{tr} + N_2/B . \tag{4}$$

If at temperature \underline{T} each mol of the principal component is distributed with \underline{n} mol in the α solid solution and \underline{n} mol in the β solid solution, the overall mol balance of each component gives the well-known "lever" relations; on assuming \underline{N}_2 , \underline{N}_2 , and \underline{N}_2 are negligible compared to unity, these relations are

$$n' = \frac{N_2 - N_2}{N_2 - N_2}; (5)$$

$$n'' = \frac{N_2 - N_2}{N_2 - N_2} \tag{6}$$

It is convenient to define a constant parameter \underline{k} by

$$B/A = k. (7)$$

From these equations then follow the two relations

$$n^{\dagger \dagger} = \left[\left(\frac{T_2 - T}{T - T_1} \right) k + 1 \right]^{-1}; \tag{8}$$

$$T_{tr} = T_2 + \frac{T_2 - T_1}{k - 1} . (9)$$

If ΔH_{tr} is the molal heat of transition, the molal enthalpy of the sample $\frac{n^{11}\Delta H_{tr}}{\Delta H_{tr}}$ at \underline{T} in excess of that of the pure $\underline{\alpha}$ phase may be calculated from eq (8), and eq (9) gives the transition temperature corrected for the impurity. A well-known relation³ applicable to dilute solutions exhibiting

See, for example, reference [10].

miscibility in both phases is, in the present notation (and with \underline{R} as the gas constant),

$$\frac{N_2 - N_2}{T - T_{tr}} = \frac{\Delta H_{tr}}{RT_{tr}}, \qquad (10)$$

and this may be combined with previous equations to give the amount of impurity in the sample, $\underline{\mathbb{N}_2}$, causing the transition over the interval \mathbb{T}_1 to \mathbb{T}_2 :

$$N_{2} = \frac{k(T_{2}-T_{1}) \Delta H_{tr}}{(1-k)^{2} RT_{tr}^{2}} .$$
 (11)

If \underline{T}_1 , \underline{T}_2 , \underline{k} , and $\underline{\Delta H}_{tr}$ can be evaluated from the thermal data such as that shown in figure 1, eq (9) and (11) may be readily solved.

Close examination of eq (8) shows, however, that some measure of the curvature of the "excess enthalpy" curve in the transition region $(\underline{n}^{'}\Delta H_{tr} \text{ vs. }\underline{T}) \text{ is essential to assigning a value to }\underline{k} \text{ and hence using } eq (9) \text{ and (11) significantly. If the impurity elevates the transition } temperature <math>(\underline{T}_{tr} < \underline{T}_1)$, then $\underline{k} < \underline{1}$ and this curve is concave downward; but if the transition temperature is depressed $(\underline{T}_{tr} > \underline{T}_2)$, then $\underline{k} > \underline{1}$ and the curve is concave ν_p ward. In either event the curve begins (at \underline{T}_1) and ends (at \underline{T}_2) with finite positive slope.

The enthalpy values of figure 1 (excluding the points "by cwing"), though subject to apparently considerable scatter which is a result of the unusually small magnitude of the heat of transition and the correspondingly expanded scale of this plot 4, were deemed sufficiently numerous and

Note that in figure 1 the total ordinate distance between the two solid curves is equivalent to only about 1.5 percent of the measured relative enthalpy which determines any one point.

interconsistent to apply the above relations. An approximation to the best fit to the data gave

$$T_1 = 723.2 \text{ °K}$$
 $T_2 = 725.85 \text{ °K}$
 $k = 2.5$
, (12)

from which were calculated

$$T_{tr} = 727.6 \text{ °K}$$

$$N_2 = 0.0004$$
(13)

and the dashed curve drawn through the transition region in figure 1. This curve fits the points within their precision, and it may be added that a value $N_2 = 0.0001$ is plausible (e.g., if due to MgF₂, this would correspond to 0.01 weight % of Mg, which is consistent with table 1). This explanation of the observed transition data is thus regarded as acceptable, with the transition temperature of pure AlF_3 lying above 726 °K. Since the value derived above for the transition temperature must be considered uncertain by the order of one degree, it will be rounded to 728 °K for calculations on pure AlF_3 .

V. Data-Smoothing; Derived Thermodynamic Functions

Pure aluminum fluoride was assumed to have a first-order transition at 728 °K, as derived in Section IV, and two separate empirical equations were derived by the method of least squares to fit the observed enthalpy values as functions of temperature below and above this transition temperature. In this fitting, only the mean enthalpy values (given equal weight) at temperatures exactly 50 degrees apart, from 323.15° to 1173.15 °K, were used 5. After so trying several forms of equation to obtain the

Except for 723.15 °K, in place of which the mean of the measurements at 721.89 and 722.13 °K was used.

closest smooth fits, the equations selected were as follows (with the enthalpy in cal mol⁻¹ deg⁻¹ at <u>T</u> °K, relative to that of the α form at 273.15 °K).

$$\underline{\alpha}$$
-AlF₃ (273-728 °K):

$$H_{T} - H_{273.15} = -6.34206T + 7.075295 (10^{-2}) T^{2}$$

$$-8.28056 (10^{-5})T^{3} + 3.949522 (10^{-8}) T^{4}$$

$$-2078.89$$
(14)

 $\underline{8}$ -Alf₃ (728-1173.15 °K):

$$H_{T}(\beta) - H_{273 \cdot 15}(\alpha) = 22.13869T + 1.08571 (10^{-3}) T^{2}$$

+2.1078 (10⁵) T^{-1} -6899.86 (15)

Smooth high-temperature thermodynamic functions of sluminum trifluoride that represent the present work and merge smoothly with those given by King's low-temperature heat capacities [3] are given in table 3 in terms of defined calories, and in the table in the Appendix in joules. As a step in generating this table (and particularly to evaluate $(H_{298 \cdot 15}^{\circ} - H_0^{\circ})$), a set of smooth thermodynamic functions was first evaluated from King's results alone, using a computer code which employs four-point Lagrangian interpolation and employing King's combination of Debye and Einstein functions for temperatures below his range of measurement (below 51 °K).

This procedure gave a Third-Law value for $\frac{s_{298.15}}{s_{298.15}}$ of 15.893 cal deg⁻¹ mol⁻¹ (King gave 15.89 ±0.08) and $\frac{s_{p(298.15)}}{s_{p(298.15)}} = 17.958$ cal deg⁻¹ mol⁻¹ (King's value is 17.95). Since eq (14) gives a virtually identical value for $\frac{s_{p(298.15)}}{s_{p(298.15)}}$, 17.952, and nearly the same temperature derivative of heat capacity at this temperature⁷, this equation was used without adjustment

King states that this function fits his heat capacities to within 0.8 percent from 51 to 298 °K.

⁷This excellent agreement is somewhat fortuitous, as may be noted from the slight trend of deviations from eq (14) shown for the first two temperatures in the last column of table 2.

to generate the thermodynamic functions from 298.15 °K to the transition temperature. Above the transition temperature eq (15) was used, the necessary integration constants being required to be consistent with the heat of transition, 135.2 cal mol⁻¹, given by the difference of eq (14) and (15) at the transition temperature, 728 °K.

VI. Discussion

The heat capacities of α - and β -AlF₃ above 250 °K are shown as functions of temperature in figure 3. For each form the solid curve, which represents the smoothed results of the present work (eq (14) or (15), or table 3), lies between that for 0'Brien and Kelley's original work [5] and that for their results as adjusted by Frank [6]. King's [3] values merge very smoothly with the authors' curve and nearly as well with 0'Brien and Kelley's, but definitely not with Frank's. Furthermore, the authors' curve for the β form is closer to 0'Brien and Kelley's than to Frank's. A conclusion from the present work is, therefore, that Frank's corrections are completely invalid near room temperature and of doubtful value at the higher temperatures. (Lyashenko's [4] values were not available for inclusion in figure 3, but 0'Brien and Kelley [5] state that his enthalpies are in fair agreement with theirs, with an average deviation of about 0.8 percent from 298 to 1100 °K.)

Just previous to the authors' measurements on $A\ell F_{\gamma}$ they made checks on the calorimetric apparatus by repeating measurements of the enthalpy of Calorimetry-Conference standard-sample synthetic sapphire $({\mathbb A}\ell_2{}^0{}_3)$ at 373, 773, and 1173 °K relative to 273 °K. At all these temperatures the agreement with earlier work at the NBS using the same sample and the same apparatus was within 0.2 percent, which is within the present precision at 373 and 773 °K but slightly outside it at 1173 °K. Because the calorimetric apparatus used to measure AlF_3 was very recently used also to measure Be0.Al, 0, and Be0.3Al, 0, over the same temperature range and with the same high precision, the authors feel that their general discussion of accuracy for the latter two substances [8,11] are equally applicable to AlF_{3} . The actually observed enthalpy of the sample very near the transition temperature is, of course, subject to additional uncertainty owing to the possibility of incomplete phase equilibrium, but for other temperatures this introduces no uncertainty into the enthalpy and very little into the entropy.

The gradual upturn of the heat-capacity curve for about 200 deg below the transition temperature is interesting (figure 3). Many solids show this behavior below their melting points or transition temperatures, and it is usually attributed to some type of disorder (of which lattice vacancies form a special case). Despite the X-ray diffraction results summarized in Section IV, not enough structural data are presently available on β -AdF₃ to suggest how the lattice may tend to rearrange near the transition temperature.

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Table 1. Chemical composition of the sample of aluminum trifluoride as determined by chemical and qualitative spectrochemical analysis.

	Percentage by weight				
Element	Foun	Theoretical			
	Individual analysis	Mean			
Al	32.13 32.15 32.17	32.15	32.13		
F	68.00 67.66 67.61	67.76	67.87		
Mg Ca, Cu, Fe, Mn, Ni, Si Cr, V		- 0.01 ^a	0 0		
Ag, As, Au, B, Ba, Be, Bi, Cd, Ce, Co, Ga, Ge, Hf, Hg, In, Ir, Ia, Mo, Nb, Os, P, Pb, Pd, Pt, Rh, Ru, Sb, Sc, Sn, Sr, Ta, Te, Th, Ti, Tl, U, W, Y, Zn, Zr	Unde	O.0001 - O.001 ^a Undetected			

^a For each of the elements listed.

Table 2. High-temperature enthalpy measurements on aluminum trifluoride, Alf3.

Furnace	Measured heat	H _T - H _{273.15} of AFF ₃ c,d				
temperature	(net for	Individual	7 273.15 Mean	Mean observed —		
Ta	sample)b,c,e	measurement ^e	observed	${ t smoothed}^{ extbf{f}}$		
°K	cal	cal mol ⁻¹	cal mol-1	cal mol ⁻¹		
323•15	{ 53.77 53.91 53.81	898•7 961.0 8.77.4	899•7	+ 3•2		
373•15	{ 112.10 112.03 111.87	1873.5 1872.3 1869.7	1871.8	+ 2.2		
423.15	173.34 173.08 173.15	2896.9 2892.7 2893.7	2894.4	- 4.1		
473.15	237.16 237.29 237.30	3963.5 3965.7 3965.9	3965.0	- 3•2		
523 .1 5	303.13 303.48 303.41	5066.1 5071.9 5070.7	5069•6	- 0.1		
5 7 3 •1 5	{ 371.40 { 37 1. 37	62 07 • 0 62 06 • 5	62 06 • 8	+ 6.8		
623.15	{ 440.35 440.66 440.72	7359•4 7364•5 7365•6	7363.2	+ 1•3		
673•15	511.86 511.98 512.15	8554 • 4 8556 • 4 8559 • 2	8556.7	- 7•3		
719.78 721.89 722.13	591.90 ^g 585.72 586.43	9892 •2 ^g 9788 •9 9800 •8		} + 2.9		
722.16 723.06 723.59 723.76 723.77 723.84 723.90 723.91 724.04 724.30 724.33 724.40 724.52 724.80 724.98 725.18	595.94g 547.59g 588.48 597.57 588.79 590.02 589.89 596.93 590.38 590.97 592.02 597.30g 591.50 592.67 593.95 596.09	9959.6 ^g 9987.1 ^g 9834.9 9986.9 ^g 9840.1 9860.6 9858.6 9976.1 ^g 9866.8 9876.5 9894.1 9982.3 ^g 9885.4 9904.9 9926.4		See figure 1.		
725.20 725.24 725.27 725.31 725.31 725.38	595•39 596•21 595•94 599•75 ⁸ 596•55 596•45	9950.5 9964.1 9959.6 10023.3 ^g 9969.7 9968.1				

Table 2 (continued) (HEADINGS RESPECTIVELY AS ON PREVIOUS PAGE)

725.44 725.54 725.60 725.70 725.89 726.08 726.64 733.00 742.00 763.06	597.47 597.92 598.86 599.24 599.79 600.65 601.43 610.24 622.96 652.70	9985.2 9992.6 10008.4 10014.8 10024.0 10038.3 10051.4 10198.7 10411.2 10908.2		See figure 1. (0.0) (+2,3) (+6,5)
773•15	{ 666.46 666.78 666.55	11138.1 11143.5 11139.7	۲۰۰۵ او۰۵ او۰۵ او۰۵ او۰۵ او۰۵ او۰۵ او۰۵ ا	+ 2 • 2
783.22 793.31 803.50 812.99 818.07 820.84	680.10 694.46 707.81 722.20 729.56 732.37	11366.2 11606.2 11829.2 12069.8 12192.7 12239.6		(-8.5) (-5.8) (-12.7) (-5.7) (-2.7) (-21.2)
823.15	{ 737.07 736.68 736.88	12318.3 12311.8 12315.0	} 12315.0	- 0.3
873.15	{ 807.44 807.40	13494•3 13493•6	13494.0	- 5.7
923 .15	879.00 879.06 879.23	14690.2 14691.2 14694.1	14691.8	+ 0.8
973•15	950.92 950.74 950.90	15892•3 15889•2 15891•8	15891.1	+ 1.9
1023.15	1023.49 1023.11 1022.96	17105.0 17098.7 17096.1	17099.9	+ 6.0
1073.15	{ 1094.81 1095.07 1095.21	18296.9 18301.3 18303.6	18300.6	- 4.5
1123.15	{ 1168.19 1167.89 1168.09	19523.4 19518.3 19521.7]	- 1.4
1173.15	{ 1241.33 1241.58 1241.34	20745.6 20749.8 20745.8	20747.1	+ 1.0

International Temperature Scale of 1948, as modified in 1954. 0°C = 273.15 °K.

cal at t °K.

t jumple mass = 5.0248g.

cal (defined) = 4.1840 J.

Mblecular weight = 83.9767.

e in calculating the net heat due to the sample, the gross heat was decreased by the smoothed unpty-container heat calculated from the equation

 $H_T - H_{273.15} = 0.76152 (T-273.15) + 2.3649(10^{-5})(T-273.15)^2 + 0.4.2246(10^{-7})(T-273.15)^3 - 8.9987 [(T-273.15)/T]$

The observed values which this equation represents are given in table 3 of reference [8].

file smoothed values below 728 °K were calculated from eq (14), and those above 728 °K, from eq (15).

 $^{% 10^{\}circ} = 10^{\circ} =$

Table 3. Thermodynamic functions for aluminum trifluoride, AFF3, solid phases (in terms of defined calories per mol)

 $(1 \text{ cal} = 4.1840 \text{ J}; \text{ } \text{T}^{\circ}\text{K} = \text{t}^{\circ}\text{C} + 273.15; \text{ } 1 \text{ mol} = 83.9767g.)$

T	c _p °	(H°-H°)	(H°-H°)/T	s°	-(G°-H _O °)	-(G -H)/T		
•ĸ	cal deg ⁻¹ mol ⁻¹	cal mol ⁻¹	cal deg ⁻¹ mol ⁻¹	cal deg ⁻¹ mol ⁻¹	cal mol ⁻¹	cal deg ⁻¹ mol ⁻¹		
Alpha Phase								
298.15 300 325 350 375 400 425 450 475 500 650 650 728	17.958 18.018 18.832 19.527 20.120 20.624 21.055 21.427 21.755 22.054 22.624 23.255 24.066 25.175 25.971	2778.9 2812.2 3273.0 3752.8 4248.6 4758.0 5279.2 5810.3 6350.2 6897.8 8014.8 9161.2 10343. 11573.	9.320 9.374 10.071 10.722 11.329 11.895 12.422 12.912 13.369 13.796 14.572 15.269 15.913 16.533 16.880	15.893 16.004 17.479 18.901 20.269 21.584 22.848 24.062 25.230 26.353 28.482 30.476 32.368 34.190 35.193	1959.5 1989.1 2407.8 2862.6 3352.4 3875.6 4431.1 5017.6 5633.9 6278.7 7650.3 9124.6 10696. 12360.	6.573 6.630 7.408 8.179 8.940 9.689 10.426 11.150 11.861 12.557 13.910 15.207 16.455 17.657 18.314		
			Beta Pha	se		, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,		
728 750 850 900 950 1000 1050 1150 1250 1250 1300 1350 1450 1450 1550	23.322 23.392 23.546 23.693 23.833 23.968 24.099 24.227 24.353 24.476 24.598 24.718 24.718 24.954 25.071 25.302 25.417 25.531	12424. 12938. 14111. 15292. 16480. 17675. 18877. 20085. 21300. 22520. 23747. 24980. 26219. 27464. 28715. 29971. 31233. 32501. 33775.	17.066 17.250 17.639 17.991 18.312 18.606 18.877 19.129 19.363 19.583 19.790 19.985 20.169 20.344 20.511 20.670 20.822 20.968 21.109	35.378 36.074 37.588 39.020 40.379 41.671 42.904 44.082 45.212 46.298 47.342 48.349 49.320 50.260 51.170 52.051 52.907 53.739 54.547	13332. 14118. 15959. 17875. 19860. 21912. 24027. 26201. 28434. 30722. 33062. 35455. 37896. 40387. 42923. 45502. 48128. 50795. 53501.	18.314 18.824 19.949 21.029 22.067 23.065 24.027 24.953 25.849 26.715 27.552 28.364 29.151 29.916 30.659 31.381 32.085 32.771 33.438		

 H_0^0 is the enthalpy of the α form at 0°K (and 1 atm pressure). Values for temperatures higher than 1150 °K are by extrapolation beyond the measuring range.

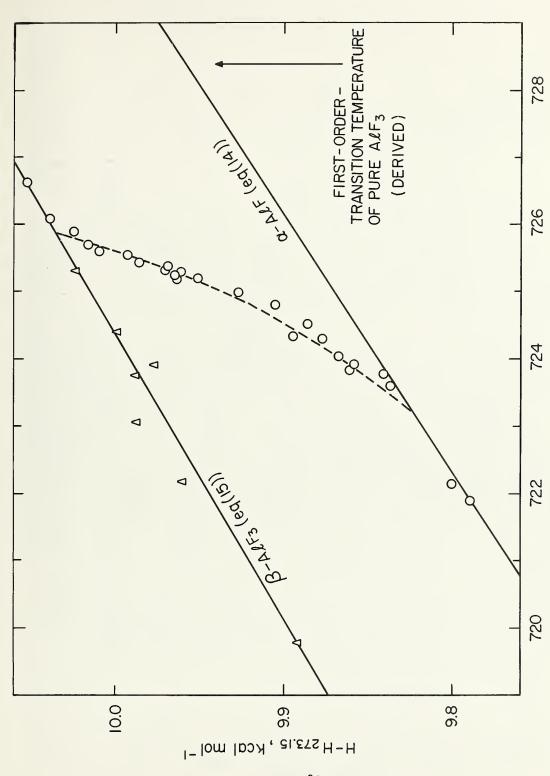
Appendix. Thermodynamic functions for aluminum trifluoride, ${\tt AMF_3}$, solid phases

(in terms of joules per mol)

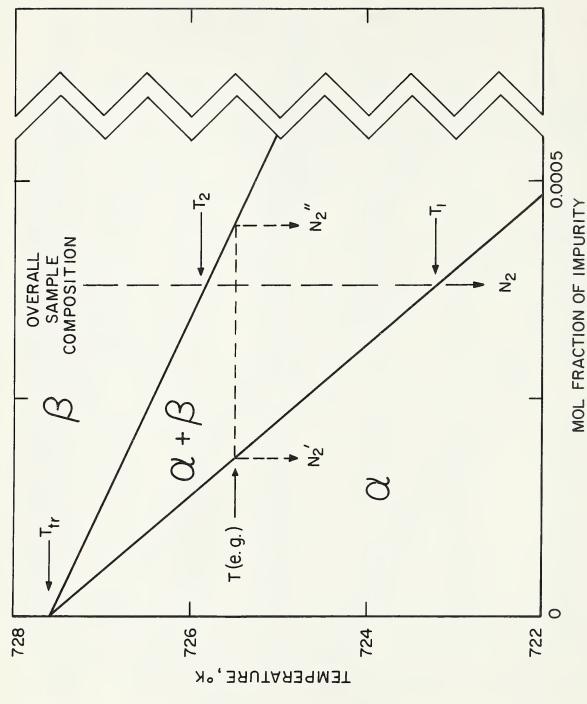
 $(T^{\circ}K = t^{\circ}C + 273.15; \quad 1 \text{ mol} = 83.9767g.)$

Т	c° p	(H°-H°)	(H°-H°)/T	s°	-(G°-H°O)	-(G°-H°)/T
°K	J deg ⁻¹ mol ⁻¹	J mol ⁻¹	J deg ⁻¹ mol ⁻¹	J deg ⁻¹ mol ⁻¹	J mol ⁻¹	J deg ⁻¹ mol ⁻¹
			Alpha Phas	е		
298.15 300 325 350 375 400 425 450 475 550 600 650 700 728	75.136 75.387 78.793 81.701 84.182 86.291 88.094 89.651 91.023 92.274 94.659 97.299 100.69 105.33 108.66	11627. 11766. 13694. 15702. 17776. 19907. 22088. 24310. 26569. 28860. 33534. 38330. 43275. 48421. 51417.	38.996 39.221 42.137 44.861 47.401 49.769 51.974 55.936 57.722 60.969 63.885 66.580 69.174 70.626	66.495 66.961 73.132 79.082 84.805 90.307 95.596 100.68 105.56 110.26 119.17 127.51 135.43 143.05	8198.5 8322.4 10074. 11977. 14026. 16216. 18540. 20994. 23572. 26270. 32009. 38177. 44752. 51714. 55781.	27.498 27.740 30.995 34.221 37.405 40.539 43.622 46.652 49.626 52.538 58.199 63.626 68.81,8 73.877 76.626
	•	•	Beta Phas	se		
728 750 800 850 900 950 1000 1050 1150 1250 1350 1450 1550 1600	97.579 97.874 98.519 99.130 99.716 100.28 100.83 101.37 101.89 102.41 102.92 103.42 103.92 104.41 104.90 105.38 105.36 106.34 106.82	51982. 54133. 59040. 63982. 68952. 73952. 78981. 84036. 89119. 94224. 99357. 104520. 109700. 114910. 125400. 130680. 135980. 141310.	71.404 72.174 73.802 75.274 -76.617 77.848 78.981 80.036 81.015 81.935 82.801 83.617 84.387 85.119 85.818 86.483 87.119 87.730 88.320	148.02 150.93 157.27 163.26 168.95 174.35 179.51 184.44 189.17 193.71 198.08 202.29 206.35 210.29 214.10 217.78 221.36 224.84 228.22	55781. 59070. 66772. 74789. 83094. 91680. 100530. 109620. 118970. 128540. 138330. 148340. 158560. 168980. 179590. 190380. 201370. 212530. 223850.	76.626 78.760 83.467 87.985 92.328 96.504 100.53 104.40 108.15 111.78 115.28 118.67 121.97 125.17 128.28 131.30 134.24 137.11 139.90

 H_0^o is the enthalpy of the α form at 0°K (1 atm pressure). Values for temperatures higher than 1150 °K are by extrapolation beyond the measuring range.



(0, temperature approached by heating only; A, temperature approached by cooling after first heating above 726 K. For the derivation of the dotted curve, see text.) Observed enthalpy of the sample of aluminum fluoride near the transition temperature. TEMPERATURE, "K Figure 1.



Phase-diagram representation of the transition of the sample of aluminum fluoride as affected by impurity. (See text for definitions of symbols.) Figure 2.

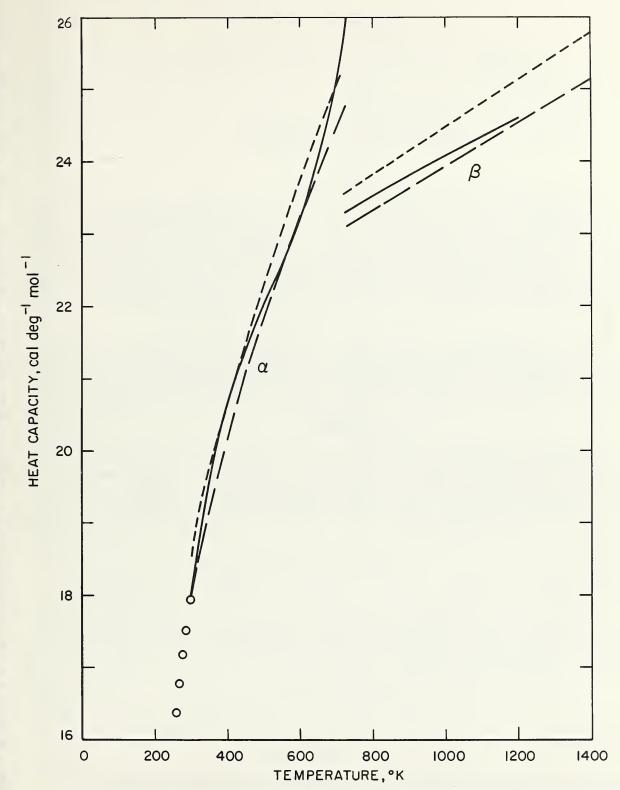


Figure 3. Heat capacity of α - and β -AlF3. (The curves represent smoothed values. 0, King [3]; —, this work; — —, 0'Brien and Kelley [5]; ----, 0'Brien and Kelley as adjusted by Frank [6].)

Chapter 8

THE HEATS OF DECOMPOSITION OF NaClO4 AND AgClO4

by

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I. INTRODUCTION

The values for the heats of formation of most inorganic perchlorates have been based on values obtained for $\text{KC1O}_4(c)$ by thermal decomposition to KC1(c) and $\text{O}_2(g)$. Vorob'ev et al [1] have reported a value of -2.55 ± 0.18 kcal/mol for the heat of decomposition of $\text{KC1O}_4(c)$, whereas the value obtained in this laboratory was -0.96 ± 0.08 kcal/mol [2]. Vorob'ev also reported a value of -7.70 ± 0.28 kcal/mol for the heat of decomposition for NaClO₄(c). This value leads to a difference in the heats of formation between KClO₄ and NaClO₄ which agrees with that reported in [3].

Because of the interest in the data on perchlorates we have now measured the heats of thermal decomposition of $NaClO_4(c)$ and $AgClO_4(c)$ and have also used heat of solution calorimetry to measure the differences in the heats of formation of the three perchlorates KClO4, NaClO4, and AgClO4.

II. MATERIALS

AgClO4(c) was prepared by the addition of a slight excess of Ag2O(c) to aqueous HClO4. After filtering off the excess oxide, the solution was evaporated to dryness at $140\,^{\circ}$ C, the residue ground up and dried in a vacuum dessicator under an infrared lamp. Analysis by precipitation of silver as AgCl corresponded to 99.64% of the theoretical yield. The principal impurity is assumed to be H_2O .

 $\rm NaC10_4(c)$ was prepared by the addition of aqueous perchloric acid to $\rm Na_2C0_3$ followed by intensive drying at 350-380°C. Analysis by the Analytical Chemistry Division indicated 0.15% water and 0.01% of chloride and chlorate.

The NaCl(c) and KCl(c) were recrystallized from reagent-grade materials and dried at $140\,^{\circ}$ C. All materials were stored over anhydrous Mg(ClO₄)₂, and a large dry-box was used to transfer samples of AgClO₄ and NaClO₄ to avoid additional absorption of atmospheric water vapor.

TII. UNITS AND CONSTANTS

All values are reported in both joules and calories; the defining relation is:

1 calorie(cal) = 4.1840 joules (J).

Molecular weights are calculated on the basis of the 1961 International Table of Atomic Weights, based on $C^{12} = 12$.

IV, THERMAL DECOMPOSITION

The thermal decomposition of NaClO4 and AgClO4 was measured using apparatus and procedures similar to that described in [4]. The upper crucible, containing the perchlorate, was covered with a piece of platinum gauze supported on a platinum wire loop. This cover effectively prevented splattering of the crucible contents during the decomposition. The samples of perchlorates ranged from 1 to 3 grams; the benzoic acid pellets, placed in the lower crucible, were approximately 0.5 g for the AgClO4 experiments, and about 1.0 g for the NaClO4 decompositions.

The calorimeter system was calibrated with benzoic acid Standard Sample 39h, the same material that was used for the auxiliary combustion pellets. Because of the deliquescent nature of the perchlorates, no liquid water was added to the bomb for the calibration or the decomposition experiments. Appropriate corrections were applied. The amount of CO2 produced by the combustion of the benzoic acid was determined by absorption in Ascarite. The ratio of the mass of CO2 collected to that calculated from the amount of acid burned was generally greater than 0.9995. The results of the calibration experiments are given in Table I.

In each decomposition experiment the solid reaction product was analyzed to determine the completeness of reaction and to make the necessary corrections. In the NaClO4 experiments, analysis for chloride indicated that decomposition was complete in all cases. The AgClO4 decomposition products usually showed presence of small amounts of metallic silver and unreacted AgClO4. The bomb residue was extracted with H2O and the dissolved Ag+ from the unreacted perchlorate was titrated with aqueous potassium thiocyanate. The water-insoluble portion, consisting of Ag and AgCl, was extracted with aqueous ammonia, filtered and the silver chloride reprecipitated with dilute HNO3. The amount of reaction was calculated from the mass of AgCl formed, and corrected for the decomposition to metallic Ag. No difference was found by X-ray analysis between the AgCl formed in the bomb and that produced by precipitation from aqueous solution. The results of the decomposition experiments are given in Tables II and III.

V. SOLUTION CALORIMETRY

The reactions measured were the heats of solution of KCl(c) and NaCl(c) in aqueous AgClO4 solution. The apparatus and procedure were similar to that described in [3]. Only a slight excess of AgClO4 was used, so that the final solution was 0.017 molal with respect to alkali perchlorate and only about 0.001 molal with respect to AgClO4. The calorimetric system was calibrated electrically and for the heats of solution of KClO4 and AgClO4 electrical energy was added during the solution reaction to provide a slight over-all temperature rise. The results of the three heat of solution reactions are summarized in Tables IV - VII.

VI. RESULTS

The results of Tables IV and VII may be combined with the heat of solution of NaClO4(c) from NSRDS-NBS 2 [5] as follows:

NaCl(e) + AgClO₄(0.017 m)
$$\rightarrow$$
 AgCl(e) + NaClO₄(0.017) m)
 $\triangle H^{\circ} = -14.71 \pm 0.06 \text{ kcal}$

$$AgClO_4(c) \rightarrow AgClO_4(0.017 m)$$

$$\Delta H^{\circ} = 1.79 \pm 0.14 \text{ kcal}$$

$$NaClO_{4}(c) \rightarrow NaClO_{4}(0.017 m)$$

$$\Delta H^{\circ} = 3.36 \pm 0.01 \text{ kcal}$$

NaCl(c) + AgClO₄(c)
$$\rightarrow$$
 AgCl(c) + NaClO₄(c)
 \triangle H° = -16.28±0.14 kcal

From Table II

AgClO₄(c)
$$\rightarrow$$
 AgCl(c) + 2 O₂(g)
 \triangle H° = -23.29±0.13 kcal

Hence

$$NaClO_4(c) \rightarrow NaCl(c) + 2 O_2(g)$$

 $\triangle H^\circ = 16.28 - 23.29 = -7.01 \pm 0.19 \text{ kcal/mol}$

This is to be compared with the result given in Table III, $\triangle H^{\circ} = -7.03\pm0.07$ kcal/mol.

If the results of Tables V, VI, VII and II are combined we obtain:

$$KC10_4(c) \rightarrow KC1(c) + 2 O_2(g)$$

 $\triangle H^\circ = -1.41 \pm 0.20 \text{ kcal/mol}$

which compares with the result obtained from [2], $\Delta H^{\circ} = -0.96 \pm 0.08$ kcal/mol.

The solution data given in reference [4] may also be used for comparison with the present results. From equation (11) of that reference we have:

$$NaC10_4(c) + KC1(c) \rightarrow NaC1(c) + KC10_4(c)$$

 $\triangle H^{\circ} = -5.794 \pm 0.064 \text{ kcal/mol}$

The results given in Table III may be combined with the decomposition data of reference [2] on $KC10_4$ (c) to obtain $\Delta H = -6.07 \pm 0.11$ kcal/mol.

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TABLE I. CALIBRATION OF DRY BOMB

△Re ohm	q RA J	q Ji	$\mathtt{J}_{\vec{a}_{N}}$	W.C.	Es J/ohm	
0.100985	13,565.6	35.2	0.9	-11.2	134579	
.101197	13,611.6	34.9	0.8	-11.2	134521	
.101273	13,631.2	34.7	0.5	-11.2	134603	
.101484	13,658.1	35.6	0.9	-11.2	134599	
.101562	13,667.3	34.9	0.5	-11.2	134586	

Mean 134578 J/ohm

2 Standard deviation of the mean

±32

TABLE II. AgClO4 DECOMPOSITION EXPERIMENTS

AgC10 ₄	q _{BA} J	∆e J/ohm	qcorr	W.Ç.	△Rc ohm	M x 103	-∆E° kJ/mole
1.71261	13589.9	13.2	36.1	-8.1	0.105707	5.9847	101.81
1.87682	13580.1	18.1	35.9	-5. 7	.107995	8.9544	103.34
2.87421	13658.8	25.8	32.8	-1.9	.111757	13.4641	101.99
2.39005	13638.8	22.1	34.1	-3.6	.109984	11.3729	102.64
3.05016	13621.9	27.2	35.8	-0.9	.112540	14.5979	102.18
1.21350	13658.8	13.0	33.1	-10.1	.104306	3.3281	107.21*

 $-\Delta E^{\circ}(25^{\circ}C) = 102.39 \text{ kJ/mol} = 24.47 \text{ kcal/mol}$

2 Standard deviation of the mean = $\pm 0.55 \text{ kJ/mol} = \pm 0.13 \text{ kcal/mol}$

 $-\Delta H^{\circ}(25^{\circ}C) = 23.29 \pm 0.13 \text{ kcal/mol}$

*Not included in mean.

TABLE III. NaClO4 DECOMPOSITION

NaC104	q _{BA}	∆e J/ohm	qeorr	W.C. J	∆Rc ohm	-∆E° kJ/mol
16.8181	27503.6	23.2	36.3	12.1	0.208984	34.332
18.1227	26265.4	24.0	35.5	12.5	.200050	33.864
20.6210	26172.0	26.4	36.4	14.6	.200185	35.047
18.1864	26547.0	24.2	34.2	12.6	.202212	34.328
17.8356	26348.9	23.6	36.8	12.1	.200670	34.358
14.7329	26133.3	20.5	34.9	9.0	.198230	34.223

Mean $-\Delta E^{\circ}(25^{\circ}C) = 34.36 \text{ kJ/mol} = 8.212 \text{ kcal/mol}$

2 Standard deviation of the mean = ± 0.28 kJ/mol = 0.066 kcal/mol

 $-\Delta H^{\circ}(25^{\circ}C) = 7.03\pm0.07 \text{ kcal/mol}$

TABLE IV. REACTION OF NaCl + AgClO4

NaCl moles	∆e J/ohm	E _a J/ohm	∆Rc ohm	q J	-△H kJ/mol
0.0151291	8.0	22,938.0	.043417	995.90	61.745
.0161417	8.1	22,938.1	.043380	995.06	61.645
.0162543	8.2	22,869.2	.043503	994.88	61.207
.0154015	7.8	22,937.8	.041379	949.14	61.627

 $-\Delta H = 61.56 \pm 0.24 \text{ kJ/mol}$

 $= 14.71 \pm 0.06 \text{ kcal/mol}$

TABLE V. REACTION OF KC1 + AgC104

KCl moles	∆e J/ohm	E _a J/ohm	△Rc ohm	J d	-△H kJ/mol
0.0164539	6.1	22,936.1	.034072	781.48	47.495
.0161045	6.0	22,936.0	.034066	781.34	48.517
.0163399	6.1	22,867.1	.034456	787.91	48.220
.0161546	6.0	22,936.0	.034210	784.64	48.571

 $-\Delta H = 48.20 \pm 0.35 \text{ kJ/mol}$

 $= 11.52 \pm 0.08 \text{ kcal/mol}$

TABLE VI. SOLUTION OF KC104 IN KC1 SOLUTION

△Rc ohm	∆e J/ohm	E _a J/ohm	$q_1 = \triangle Rc(E_a)$ J	q ₂ = eit J	KC10 ₄ moles	∆H kJ/mol
0.085376	7.3	20,706.5	1767.84	2137.34	.00721862	51.256
.085026	7.9	20,707.1	1760.64	2131.31	.00724951	51.130
.085639	7.6	20,706.8	1773.31	2133.93	.00709975	50.793
.085968	7.4	20,706.6	1780.10	2138.57	.00709751	50.506
.090226	8.1	20,707.3	1868.34	2239.47	.00734175	50.551

 $\Delta H = 50.847 \pm 0.30 \text{ kJ/mol}$

 $= 12.15 \pm 0.07 \text{ kcal/mol}$

TABLE VII. HEAT OF SOLUTION OF AgC104

No.	ΔRc ohm	∆e J/ohm	q _l =△Rc(Ea) J	q ₂ =eit J	AgClO ₄ moles	∆H kJ/mol
1	0.088315	196.9	1845.44	1895.48	.00692974	7.221
2	.093790	201.5	1960.28	2029.34	.00970432	7.117
3	.094300	198.9	1970.69	2028.17	.00810564	7.091
4	.093695	201.0	1958.24	2026.98	.00940107	7.312
5	-0.002238	194.4	-46.76		.0053052	8.81

Mean = 7.51 kJ/mol = 1.79 kcal/mole

² Standard deviation of the mean = $0.60 \text{ kJ/mol} = \pm.14 \text{ kcal/mole}$

Chapter 9

HEAT OF FORMATION OF HYDRAZINE DIPERCHLORATE

by

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ABSTRACT

The heat of formation of hydrazine diperchlorate $(N_2H_4 \cdot 2HC1O_4(c))$ was carried out by reacting hydrazine dihydrochloride $(N_2H_4 \cdot 2HC1(c))$ with aqueous silver perchlorate in a solution calorimeter. This process may be represented by the equation:

$$N_2H_4 \cdot 2HC1(c) + 2AgC1O_4(c) \rightarrow N_2H_4 \cdot 2HC1O_4(c) + 2AgC1(c)$$

 $\triangle H^{\circ}(25^{\circ}C) = -116.85 \pm 1.34 \text{ kJ/mole}$
 $= -27.93 \pm 0.32 \text{ kca1/mole}$

Using the values of $N_2H_4 \cdot 2HC1(c)$ and AgC1 from Technical Note 270-1, and the value of AgC104(c) measured in this laboratory, we obtain:

$$\triangle H^{\circ}$$
 N₂H₄·2HC1O₄ = -289.5 kj/mole
= -69.2 kcal/mole

I. INTRODUCTION

In continuation of our work on the heats of formation of inorganic perchlorates we have measured the heat of formation of hydrazine diperchlorate. Because of the problems associated with HCl as a possible decomposition product, solution calorimetry involving the reaction between hydrazine dichloride and silver perchlorate was used, following the procedures described in the preceding paper.

II. MATERIALS

The hydrazine diperchlorate was furnished by the Thiokol Chemical Co. The seven gram sample was dated April 30, 1963 and designated No. 9. An analysis furnished by the company indicated that:

hydrazine diperchlorate $99.47 \pm 0.13\%$ perchloric acid $0.21 \pm 0.04\%$

The hydrazine dihydrochloride was prepared by making a slush of the commercial material and concentrated HC1. The slush was permitted to stand overnight in a vacuum dessicator and was then dried by pumping the dessicator down for several hours. The hydrazine dihydrochloride was analyzed by the gravimetric silver chloride method, and the sample used in this work contained 99.92% of the theoretical chloride.

The silver perchlorate was prepared by adding a slight excess of silver oxide to a solution of perchloric acid. The excess silver oxide was then filtered off, and the solution was evaporated to dryness at 140°C. The

crystalline mass was then broken up and dried under an infrared lamp in a vacuum dessicator under continuous pumping. Silver perchlorate is strongly deliquescent, and the sample used in this work contained 99.64% of the theoretical silver, based on analysis by the gravimetric silver chloride method. The principal impurity was presumed to be water.

For the work involving a silver perchlorate solution, a stock solution was prepared by the method described above, and a standard volume was added to the calorimeter solution in each experiment.

III. UNITS OF ENERGY AND MOLECULAR WEIGHTS

The unit of energy is the joule; for conversion into the conventional thermochemical calorie, one calorie is taken as 4.1840 J.

All atomic weights were taken from the 1961 International Table of Atomic Weights $[1]^{1}$.

IV. APPARATUS AND PROCEDURE

The glass calorimeter, thermometric system, apparatus for measurement of electrical energy and general calorimetric procedure have been described [2, 3, 4]. In the measurement of electrical energy however, time was measured on a Beckman/Berkeley 7060 C/R Electronic Counter, by means of a 10,000 cps frequency which was triggered when the current was switched from the spill coil to the heater and stopped when the current was switched back to the spill coil.

Three sets of measurements and calibrations were made. In the first, silver perchlorate, AgClO4(c), was loaded into soft glass bulbs in a dry box and sealed under vacuum. These samples, approximately 0.008 M, were in the crushing device of the calorimeter, into which had been weighed 447 g, 24.82 moles, of distilled water. The calorimeter was then assembled, a platinum resistance thermometer was inserted, and the calorimeter was immersed in a thermostatically controlled water bath maintained at 25.0°C. After an initial rating period, the bulb was broken while a measured quantity of electrical energy was passed through the heater. The amount of heat absorbed by the andothermic reaction was calculated as the difference between the amount of heat required to produce the temperature rise and the amount of heat actually put in. The calorimeter stirrer, operating at 900 rpm, provided sufficient agitation to afford thermal equilibrium in 20 min. Temperatures were observed at 1-min. intervals during the reaction period and at 2-min. intervals during the initial and final rating periods.

The calibrations were carried out using an empty bulb and duplicating the initial condition of the system. However, the system was modified slightly in the interval between calibration and reaction experiments, and a correction has been applied to make the calibrations comparable with the reaction experiments. A different calorimeter of the same type was used in the rest of the work described in this paper.

The figures in brackers indicate the literature references at the end of this paper.

The procedure followed with $N_2H_4 \cdot 2HC1O_4(c)$ was identical with that used for the AgC1O₄(c), except that in the new calorimeter samples of approximately .004 moles were broken in 500 g, 27.75 moles, of distilled water, and the calibrated system was identical with the initial state of the reaction experiments.

In the final set of experiments, soft glass bulbs containing $N_2H_4 \cdot 2HC1(c)$ were loaded in air and sealed under vacuum. These samples of approximately .006 moles were broken in a solution containing 0.0175 moles of AgC1O4. AgC1(c) was precipitated and the final solution contained $N_2H_4 \cdot 2HC1O_4$ with a small amount of excess AgC1O4. Here a reaction period of 30 min. was required to attain thermal equilibrium, owing to the slowness with which the chemical reaction came to completion.

Calibrations were carried out with a solution of AgC104 of the same concentration as that used in the reaction experiments.

V. RESULTS AND CALCULATIONS

The results of the calibration experiments on the calorimetric system used to measure the heat of solution of $AgClO_4(c)$ are given in Table I. $\triangle Rc$ corresponds to the corrected temperature rise of the system. The energy equivalent, $\triangle E_s$, of this system was obtained as the ratio of the quantity of electrical energy, E, to $\triangle Rc$, the corresponding rise in temperature. $\triangle e$ represents the correction made for a change in the system in the final measurement.

The results of the solution experiments are given in Table II. Here, \triangle e is the change in the energy equivalent from that of the calibrated system due to the heat capacity of the sample, and to deviations in the mass of the glass bulb from that of the reference bulb, (0.299 g). The energy evolved, q_1 , is the product of $\triangle Rc$, and the energy equivalent of the actual calorimetric system, $E_S + \triangle e$ or E_a . The amount of electrical energy put into the system, q_2 , is the product of current, potential and time. The heat of solution of AgClO₄ is q, the difference between q_1 and q_2 , and the ratio of q to moles of AgClO₄(c) gives the heat of solution per mole.

The results of the calibration experiments on the calorimetric system used to measure the heat of solution of $N_2H_4 \cdot 2HC1(c)$ are given in Table III; the heat of solution experiments are given in Table IV.

The results of the calibration and measurement experiments for the heat of reaction of $N_2H_4 \cdot 2HC1(c)$ with aqueous AgClO₄ are given in Tables V and VI.

By combining the results of Tables II, IV and VI in the relation (VI) + 2(II) - (IV) we obtain:

$$N_2H_4 \cdot 2HC1(c) + 2AgC1O_4(c) \rightarrow 2AgC1(c) + N_2H_4 \cdot 2HC1O_4(c)$$

 $\triangle H = -116.85 \pm 1.34 \text{ kJ/mo1}$
 $= -27.93 \pm 0.32 \text{ kcal/mo1}.$

This may now be combined with the known heats of formation of $N_2H_4 \cdot 2HC1(c)$ and AgC1(c) from TN 270-1 [5] and the heat of decomposition of $AgC10_4(c)$ from the preceding paper to obtain:

 $N_2H_4 \cdot 2HC1O_4(c)$; $\triangle Hf^{\circ}(25^{\circ}C) = -69.2 \text{ kcal/mol}$

with an over-all estimated uncertainty of about ±0.5 kcal.

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TARIE	Т	CALIBRATION	FOR	A a C 1 O / (6)	MOTTILION
بنانا للاحما	4.0	OVITABION	T. OT	ASOLONI	\cdot	POTOTION

No.	△Rc ohm	Е, Ј	∆e	△Es J/ohm
1	.092368	1914.40	-	20725.7
2	.087768	1814.69	-	20676.0
3	.090201	1867.65	-	20705.5
-4	.092773	1920.35	~	20699.4
5	.092808	1919.42	7.9	20689.5
Mean				20699.2

Mean
2 Standard deviation of the mean

±16.6

TABLE	II.	HEAT	OF	SOLUTION	OF	AgC10,

No.	∆Rc ohm	∆e J/ohm	q ₁	q ₂	AgC10 ₄ moles	∆H kJ/mol
1	.088315	196.9	1845.44	1895.48	.00692974	7.221
2	.093790	201.5	1960.28	2029.34	.00970432	7.117
3	.094300	198.9	1970.69	2028.17	.00810564	7.091
4	.093695	201.0	1958.24	2026.98	.00940107	7.312
5	002238	194.4	- 46.76	-	.0053052	8.81

Mean

 $\triangle H = 7.51 \text{ kJ/mol} = 1.79 \text{ kcal/mol}$

2 Standard deviation of the mean = $0.60 \text{ kJ/mol} = \pm.14 \text{ kcal/mol}$

TABLE III. CALIBRATION FOR N2H4.2HC104 SOLUTION EXPERIMENTS

No.	△Rc ohm	Е, Ј	Es	J/ohm			
1	.105560	2434.3		23,060.8			
2	.105670	2435.92		23,052.0			
3	.094049	2169.5		23,067.8			
4	.099658	2301.06		23,089.5			
5	.099822	2302.65		23,104.0			
Mean				23,072.4			
2 Standa	2 Standard deviation of the mean						

TABLE IV. N₂H₄·2HC1O₄(c) SOLUTION EXPERIMENTS

No.	△Rc ohm	∆e J/ohm	$q_1 = \triangle Rc(E_a)$ J	q ₂ = eit J	HDP moles	+∆H(25) kJ/mo1		
1	.113031	10.5	2609.08	2710.52	.0038218	26.54		
2	.113793	9.2	2626.52	2712.50	.0033590	25.60		
3	.105641	13.8	2438.85	2572.36	.0050473	26.45		
4	.114200	7.8	2635.76	2711.87	.0028478	26.73		
Mean 26.33 kJ/mol 6.29 kcal/mol								
2	2 Standard deviation of the mean ±0.50 kJ/mo1							

2 Standard deviation of the mean

 ± 0.12 kcal/mol

TABLE V. CALIBRATION FOR N2H, ·2HC1 REACTION EXPERIMENTS

No.	△Rc ohm	Е, Ј	E _s J/ohm
1	.100268	2300.00	22,938.5
2	.106443	2439.76	22,920.8
3	.106369	2438.38	22,923.8
4	.107891	2473.70	22,927.8
5	.112232	2574.40	22,938.2
Mean			22,929.8

2 Standard deviation of the mean

±7.3

TABLE VI. REACTION OF $\mathrm{N_2H_4 \cdot 2HC1}$ WITH $\mathrm{AgC1O_4}$

No.	△Rc ohm	∆e J/ohm	E _a J	$q = \triangle Rc(E_a)$ J	HDH moles	-△H kJ/mol
1	.030798	4.2	22,934.2	706.33	.0066837	105.68
2	.028706	3.9	22,933.9	658.34	.00621237	105.97
3	.027183	3.5	22,933.5	623.40	.0059440	104.88
4	.033054	4.4	22,934.4	758.07	.0072111	105.12
5	.028366	3.7	22,933.7	650.54	.0061354	106.03

Mean

105.54 kJ/mo1 25.22 kca1/mo1

2 Standard deviation of the mean

± .11 kcal/mol

Chapter 10

STATUS OF LIGHT-ELEMENT HEAT-CAPACITY CALORIMETRY AT THE NATIONAL BUREAU OF STANDARDS; A REVIEW OF THE HIGH-TEMPERATURE THERMODYNAMICS OF THE BeO-H₂O SYSTEM

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ABSTRACT

Heat-capacity calorimetry recently completed and in progress at the National Bureau of Standards is reviewed briefly. After a critical review of the thermodynamic properties of the BeO-H2O system, it is concluded that the product of the reaction between BeO(c) and H2O(g) below 1850°K is probably largely Be(OH)2(g), but that higher hydrates may be sufficiently stable to hold considerable amounts of BeO in the gas phase at much higher temperatures.

NBS HEAT-CAPACITY CALORIMETRY

Table I summarizes the current status of heat-capacity calorimetry at the National Bureau of Standards, from 0° to 2500°K, on compounds of importance as combustion products in chemical propulsion.

TABLE I. CURRENT NBS HEAT-CAPACITY CALORIMETRY

<u>Completed</u>	<u>In Progress</u>	<u>Planned</u>
At ₂ 0 ₃ (1200°-2500°K)[1]	W(to 2500°K)	BeO (through M.P.)
Be ₃ N ₂ (273°-1200°K)[2]	Be ₃ N ₂ (15°-400°K)	Be ₂ C or mixed oxides
Li ₃ AlF ₆ (273°-1000°K)[3]	Li ₃ AlF ₆ (15°-400°K)	Li ₃ AlF ₆ (1000°-1200°K)
BeO·Al ₂ O ₃ (15°-1200°K)[4,5]	ALF ₃ (273°-1200°K)	
Be0 • $(\tilde{Al}_{203})_{3}(15^{\circ}-1200^{\circ}K)[5,6]$	BeO(10-100µ)(15°-400°K)	

Al203 has recently been measured to about 200 degrees above its melting point. Final results for the heat of fusion and liquid heat capacity await the completion of current measurements on the container material, tungsten. However, the heat of fusion found may not differ by more than 1 kcal/mole from the value adopted in the latest JANAF table for this substance [7]. Then an attempt will be made to measure accurately the heat of fusion of BeO. AlF3 is currently being measured above room temperature because of uncertainties in the existing data, and large-particle BeO is being measured at low temperatures to eliminate possible surface effects on the existing entropy values.

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Numbers in brackets refer to literature and report references at the end of this paper.

THE BeO-HOO SYSTEM AT HIGH TEMPERATURES

Several of us at the National Bureau of Standards recently undertook to examine critically the available data bearing on the thermodynamic properties of gaseous hydrates of BeO. We felt that the interpretation of these data may be subject to some ambiguity, particularly in their extrapolation to represent the important BeO-H2O system at much higher temperatures.

The pertinent quantitative experimental studies of which we are aware are as follows. Hildenbrand, Theard, and Ju [8] observed the species BeOH and Be(OH)2 mass-spectrometrically at 2327°K, but because of unusually large background assigned only upper limits to their abundance, which, however, are not inconsistent with the transpiration data discussed below. Following several earlier studies, three quantitative investigations of the transpiration by water vapor of BeO from the solid have been published by Grossweiner and Seifert (1470°-1820°K) [9], Young (1580°-1850°K) [10], and Stuart and Price (1340°-1650°K) [11]. All this work except that of Stuart and Price was critically reviewed by Altman [12], and was made the basis of a JANAF table of the thermodynamic properties of Be(OH)2(g) [13].

The three transpiration studies cited above cover a total range of 500 degrees, are fairly interconsistent, and are therefore considered together in some detail below.

The Reaction Occurring in the Transpiration Studies. -- The reaction taking place was assumed in all three investigations to be

$$BeO(c) + H_2O(g) = Be(OH)_2(g).$$
 (1)

In two of the studies the partial pressure of steam was varied over a wide range at constant temperature: the results of Grossweiner and Seifer were open to some question, apparently owing to the limitations of experimental accuracy; but Stuart and Price found an approximate proportionality to the concentration of the evaporated BeO. (The partial pressures of pure BeO and Al2O3 are negligible at these temperatures.) Because of this evidence and because of the impossibility of formulating a molecule of a hydrate of BeO formed from more than one molecule of H2O and still obeying the saturated covalences, we assume that the ratio 1:1 of H2O to the hydrate species in reaction (1) is established.

However, no one has demonstrated that one mole of H2O evaporates only one gram-formula-weight of BeO, and in view of the ease of formulating the general structures of higher hydrates of BeO, we replaced reaction (1) by the more general reaction

$$nBeO(c) + H_2O(g) = (BeO)_n \cdot H_2O(g)$$
, (2)

and then proceeded to look for evidence as to the probable value of \underline{n} (which may be effectively non-integral if more than one reaction of type (2) occur simultaneously). It should be noted that the ratio of BeO to H_2O reacting at any temperature in the range of these studies has been determined and hence cannot be assumed to depend on \underline{n} , because

it was this ratio that was measured. But we think we can show that if n was not exactly unity, there may be serious practical consequences at temperatures much higher than 1850°K.

When, as in this case, the gaseous product is identified only by inference and not by direct spectroscopic observation, two alternative oft-used methods for evaluating n suggest themselves, and will be discussed in turn. The first method is the one which indicated a 1:1 ratio for H2O and the hydrate in reaction (2), is straightforward when the necessary accurate data are available, and should be more often applied to the condensed phases of transpiration reactions. The coefficients in the chemical reaction such as (2) are, of course, the powers of the respective thermodynamic activities in the equilibrium constant. Consequently, if in this case the transpiration measurement is repeated at the same temperature and partial pressure of steam but with a different activity (free energy) of the condensed BeO, what is equivalent to a log-log plot should determine n.

In principle, the necessary data are available in the present case. Young [10] transpired BeO by water vapor not only from pure solid BeO but also from two solid beryllium aluminates, and reported evidence that the additional reactions occurring were

$$3Be0 \cdot Al_2O_3(c) + 2H_2O(g) = BeO \cdot (Al_2O_3)_3(c) + 2Be(OH)_2(g)$$
 (3)

and

$$BeO \cdot (Al_2O_3)_3(c) + H_2O(g) = 3Al_2O_3(c) + Be(OH)_2(g)$$
 (4)

These beryllium aluminates may be considered to be solutions of BeO in an inert solvent, $Al_{2}O_{3}$, but cannot be assumed to be <u>ideal</u> solutions, so that ascertaining the activity of the BeO (relative to pure BeO) in each compound is not simple. Kleppa [14] has recently measured calorimetrically the heats of formation of these two beryllium aluminates from their component oxides, and we have recently measured their Third-Law entropies [4,5,6]. However, our application of these data to determine <u>n</u> led to inconclusive results, probably for one or more of the following reasons:

- 1. Kleppa's data are presently preliminary, lacking final corrections;
- 2. There are reasons for thinking that our samples of the beryllium aluminates may have possessed appreciable frozen-in disorder not reflected in the heat-capacity data; and
- 3. The transpiration data are not sufficiently precise to give small differences accurately.

The second method is to compare the experimental (Second-Law) entropy change ΔS of the reaction with what is predicted using estimates of the molecular constants (or parameters) of each of the postulated hydrate molecules. We made such estimates, by analogy, for the three molecules (BeO)_n•H₂O with n=1, 2, and 3, for (BeO)₃•H₂O including three sets of frequency fundamentals designed to cover the likely range. (The entropies of BeO(c) and H₂O(g) are by comparison very well established [15].) The results for 1700°K are shown in Table II, where ranges are given corresponding to the three sets of estimates for n=3 and the three

independent transpiration investigations.

TABLE II. COMPARISON OF EXPERIMENTAL AND ESTIMATED ΔS_{1700}° FOR REACTION (2)

	45 ₁₇₀₀ (e.u	•) '	
<u>n</u>	Experimental [9-11]	Estimated	Source for S° of (BeO) _n •H ₂ O
1 2 3	7–9 6–7 5–7	15 29 24-54	NBS NBS NBS

†All values are positive.

It is seen that the estimated values of ΔS° are all higher than the corresponding experimental values, a consistent discrepancy which may reflect systematic error in the experimental results, in the estimates, or both. (The JANAF table for Be(OH)₂(g) [13] leads to ΔS_{1700}° = +7, but in its formulation it was required to fit some of the transpiration data.) Nevertheless, the discrepancies with n > 1 are large, and suggest that under the conditions of the transpiration measurements the hydrate product is all or predominantly Be(OH)₂.

Other Expected Properties of Higher Gaseous Hydrates of Beryllia. — Even if the product of the transpiration reaction is largely $Be(OH)_2$ below $1850^{\circ}K$, it would be premature to dismiss the possibility of small amounts of higher hydrates being formed at these temperatures. Such hydrates would undoubtedly have much larger molal heats of formation from BeO(c) and $H_2O(g)$, and hence their abundance would increase with temperature much faster than that of $Be(OH)_2$. Actually, the question is not whether these are highly stable molecules in themselves, but rather, under what conditions their stabilities are comparable to those of others, such as $Be(OH)_2$, with which they must compete.

Chupka, Berkowitz, and Giese [16] have observed gaseous polymers of BeO up to the hexamer, which may be considered to be related to the postulated beryllia hydrates. The following drawing illustrates how one such polymer of BeO, which has been postulated to be a ring, may be converted by H2O into the corresponding "beryllia hydrate" molecule.

The shape of such a hydrate molecule is debatable, but a more important question is whether there is any basis for estimating its dissociation energy. The simplest approach to this question is to test for approximate additivity of bond energies in known molecules containing Be-O and/or O-H

The estimated molecular parameters are deliberately not listed here in order to avoid implying a reliability which we think they do not have.

bonds. Within the uncertainties of the available information this is done in Table III, where the Be-F and O-H bond energies have been assumed to be the same as their mean values in $BeF_2(g)$ and $H_2O(g)$, respectively, and all data are taken from JANAF tables except for $Be_2OF_2(g)$ [17].

TABLE III. APPARENT Be-O BOND ENERGIES (KCAL/MOLE), FROM AHf

(BeO) ₂	94
(BeO) ₃	111
(BeO) ₄	116
(Be0) ₅	120
(BeO) 6	122
Be ₂ OF ₂	120
Be(OH) ₂	119

With the exception of the smaller rings, where some strain may be operative, all values are near 120 kcal/mole, and may be supposed to be so also in the hydrate chains.

Some Postulated Gas Compositions to 4000°K. -- On the basis of the foregoing discussion we made exemplary calculations designed to show whether the higher hydrates may be important species at high temperatures. The calculations were limited to the polymers of BeO; monoberyllia hydrate, Be(OH)2 or BeO·H₂O; and triberyllia hydrate, (BeO)3·H₂O. The partial pressures of these in equilibrium with condensed BeO (solid at 2000°, and liquid at 3000° and 4000°K) were calculated. (If the total available BeO is not sufficient to produce these pressures, the condensed BeO would of course disappear or not form.) The available JANAF tables were used except that the molecular parameters of the unobserved (BeO)3·H₂O were assumed to be those estimated as "most likely", and its bond energies were assumed to be the same as in H₂O and Be(OH)₂. The results are shown in Table IV.

TABLE IV. CALCULATED PARTIAL PRESSURES OF SOME NEUTRAL GASEOUS SPECIES IN EQUILIBRIUM WITH CONDENSED BeO

(in atm. of equivalent BeO)

Species 2000° 3000° 4000°K

BeO to (BeO)₆ 6 x 10⁻⁹ 0.003 0.3

BeO·H₂O 1 x 10⁻³ 0.03 0.07 per atm. of H₂O (BeO)₃·H₂O 1 x 10⁻⁴ 3. 50. per atm. of H₂O

The various polymers of BeO, as well as Be (not shown because it depends in a complicated way on the amounts of oxygen, hydrogen, and water) account for some of the evaporated BeO. But the most significant thing in Table IV is shown by a comparison of the last two lines. These indicate that, compared with BeO·H₂O, (BeO)₃·H₂O accounts for only 10% as much evaporated BeO at 2000°, but 100 times as much at 3000° and 700 times as much at 4000°. According to these figures, above about

2500°K much more BeO would be in the vapor state than predicted by the existing JANAF tables.

It should be emphasized that Table IV cannot be taken as a docisive picture of the actual situation because of the uncertainties in calculating the last line. For example, if we had used not the "most likely" but the "highest likely" set of estimated frequencies, the entropies of (BeO)3°H2O would have been calculated lower by about 20 e.u. and hence the abundance of this species would have been calculated lower by a factor of about 10⁴ at every temperature. However, we feel that the basis of Table IV is within the plausible range, and hence that serious experimental investigation of higher hydrates of beryllia is needed. This is merely one case among many where the failure to observe molecular species is no guarantee of their lack of importance at much higher temperatures.

Some Comments on Experimental Approaches. -- How might one best hunt experimentally for these hydrates and measure their properties? Mass spectrometry, matrix spectrometry, and transpiration studies at higher temperatures are obvious possible approaches. But unless the temperature is rather high, the minimum water-vapor pressures required to produce measurable or even detectable amounts of the higher-hydrate species seem to present formidable practical difficulties.

The current research program at the National Bureau of Standards on the thermodynamic properties of rocket combustion products includes plans for work on the BeO-H2O and Al2O3-H2O systems in the near future, but whether these results will represent the conditions at the high temperatures of practical interest remains an open question. We believe that other laboratories should be encouraged to investigate this area more intensively than heretofore.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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Chapter 11

VAPORIZATION OF REFRACTORY MATERIALS: ARC-IMAGE FURNACE

by

J. J. Diamond and A. L. Dragoo

Further comparisons between the automatic and visual optical pyrometers have been carried out since the previous report (NBS Report 9028).

A critical examination was made of two sets of data on the heat of vaporization of molten alumina, one based on temperatures measured with the L&N visual pyrometer and the other based on the L&N automatic pyrometer. On the basis of the data presented in Table 1 we concluded that the visual pyrometer data are valid, but that the automatic pyrometer data are not.

From the second law heats, the standard deviation of the mean and range of the third law heats, and the range of temperatures, it is evident that the scatter of data is very much greater for the automatic pyrometer data. This conclusion is strengthened and explained by the rank-correlation coefficients. For the visual pyrometer, the only significant correlation is between the rate of vaporization and temperature. For the automatic pyrometer, the situation is exactly reversed: Rate of vaporization is not a function of temperature, while there is a very strong correlation between ΔH_{ν} and T and a weak, though significant, negative correlation between ΔH_{ν} and rate of evaporation. One must conclude there is a random factor in temperature measurement with the automatic pyrometer which complicates its use with the arc-image furnace; this is in spite of the fact that mean third law heats are quite comparable using the two pyrometers, corresponding to a difference in mean temperature of only 15°C.

Further comparison of the applications of the visual and automatic pyrometers to temperature measurements in the arc-image furnace have begun.

The effective wavelengths of the automatic pyrometer for a range of temperatures from 2300 to 2750°K were calculated from data supplied by Leeds and Northrup for that instrument. The effective wavelengths of the visual and automatic pyrometers are nearly the same (e.g., at 2500°K, λ_e = 0.6511 μ for the visual pyrometer and 0.6465 μ for the automatic pyrometer).

The possibility that the surface of the liquid cools perceptibly when the cross-over point chopper is interposed between the arc and the sample was discussed briefly in the previous report. Further consideration has been given to this effect which is illustrated in Figure 1. During one complete revolution of the choppers a sawtooth-shaped fluctuation of temperature must be somewhat as illustrated. This type of variation would result in a temperature measured with synchronized choppers which would be less than the true average temperature of the sample. This suggests that the 2° difference found between the temperature of infinitely-thick alumina drops as measured with the visual pyrometer synchronized and unsynchronized is due to this variation and not to a reflection error as previously advanced. It leads to the conclusion that the best temperature measurement is obtained by focussing on the non-glare area with the visual pyrometer, without using a chopper and sector disc.

This view also serves to explain current results obtained by simultaneously measuring the temperature of liquid alumina drops with the automatic and visual pyrometers. The automatic pyrometer measured only synchronized temperatures. Since a sector disc could not be used, the visual pyrometer was sighted on the non-glare central portion of the drop, and the average temperature was measured. Above 2060°C (apparent temperature), where the drop became infinitely thick, the automatic pyrometer read 25° below the visual pyrometer. This difference is greater than that observed when the visual pyrometer is synchronized and unsynchronized and suggests that there is an additional effect present with the automatic pyrometer which accentuates the observed cooling of the drop.

TABLE 1
Vaporization Data

		Visual Pyrometer		Automatic Pyrometer		
Mean third law $\triangle H_{V}^{\circ}$ (298)	72	9.0 kcal mol-1	72	4.6 kcal mol-1		
Standard deviation of mean $\triangle H_{V}^{\circ}$ (298)		0.9 kcal mol-1		3.4 kcal mol ⁻¹		
Range of $\triangle H_V^{\circ}$ (298)		9.1 kcal mol ⁻¹	5	6.9 kcal mol-1		
Second law $\triangle H_{V}^{\circ}$ (2550°K)	79	4.4 kcal mol ⁻¹	- 1	6.8 kcal mol-1		
Standard deviation $\triangle H_{v}^{\circ}$ (2550°K)		7.4 kcal mol-1	66.4 kcal mol-1			
Range of temperatures		113°K		195°K		
Rank Correlation Coefficients						
Rate of Vaporization and T°K	+	.93	_	.04		
$ riangle ext{H}_{\!\scriptscriptstyle V}^{\!\scriptscriptstyle ullet}$ (298) and T°K	-	.30	+	.91		
$ riangle extsf{H}_{V}^{f o}$ (298) and rate of vaporization	_	.49	-	.40		
Critical coefficient (10% level)		.558 (n = 10)		.377 (n = 20)		

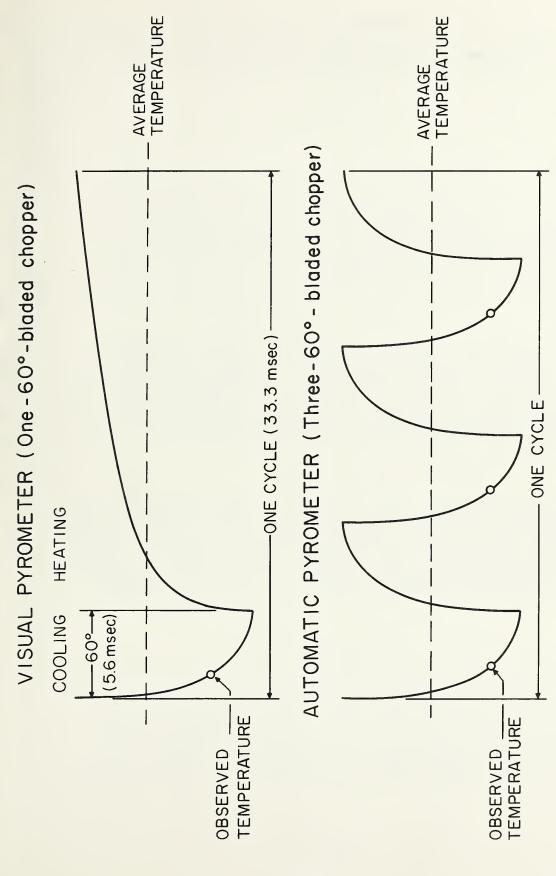


Illustration of temperature fluctuation of sample due to periodic interruption of arc radiation by a chopper. Figure 1:

Chapter 12

HIGH TEMPERATURE MASS SPECTROMETRY, ALUMINA-BERYLLIA SYSTEM

by

J. Efimenko

Introduction

Data on vapor species at high temperatures have been obtained starting with four specific compositions of the alumina-beryllia system. The compositions studied correspond to the compounds $\text{BeO} \cdot \text{Al}_2 \, \text{O}_3$, $\text{BeO} \cdot \text{3Al}_2 \, \text{O}_3$ and the eutectics $57 \text{BeO} : 43 \text{Al}_2 \, \text{O}_3$ (75 wgt%), $40 \text{BeO} : 60 \text{Al}_2 \, \text{O}_3$ (86 wgt%). These mixtures were prepared by fusion in an arc-image furnace.

Experimental

A more efficient ionization source containing a magnetically collimated electron beam, has been installed in the mass spectrometer. The source produces a maximum in the ionization efficiency curve at 18 ev. The maximum is broad enough to allow stable operating conditions. All the samples were contained in tungsten cups, inside a tungsten effusion cell. The present data should show less electron impact fragmentation than previous data taken with electrons of 70 ev.

Discussion

The results reported here are for the eutectic mixture $3Al_2 O_3$: 2BeO, melting point 1850° ± 10° C, obtained with the low electron energies. The ion intensities are presented in Table 1. Except for the gaseous molecule at mass position 52, AlOBe, no new specie was observed over the mixtures studied. Since fragmentation was considered to be less in this experiment, one reaction was selected to compare with previously obtained results.

$$Al_2O(g) + Be(g) \Rightarrow AlOBe(g) + Al(g)$$

The equilibrium constant for this reaction involves terms to the first power only. Since the ionization cross sections have not been evaluated yet for 18 ev electrons, an approximate equilibrium constant can be computed from the ion intensities alone. The experimental data were treated by a van't Hoff plot and from the slope the enthalpy change was obtained, $\triangle \text{H}^{\circ}$ (2330°K) = 14.05 kcal/mol and reduced to absolute zero reference state temperature, $\triangle \text{H}^{\circ}_{0}$ = 13.3 kcal/mol. This compares much better with the value based on free energy functions, $\triangle \text{H}^{\circ}_{0}$ = 17.1 kcal/mol, Report 9028, p. 64.

Changes that occur during the volatilization of the aluminaberyllia mixtures can be followed by comparing the concentrations of the various species over a mixture to those over pure alumina. Since the product of the ion intensity and temperature is proportional to the partial pressure of a specie, these values are compared at the same temperatures. Table 2 contains some previously obtained intensity data on pure alumina. From the data of Tables 1 and 2, curves of ln TT vs. lT were plotted for the species ln All, All and All Ol . From these curves, l n TT values were read off at the same temperature and the values are listed in Table 3. It is apparent that the ease of forming a specie from a mixture is less than from pure alumina. Further treatment will be attempted in order to show other quantitative relationships. The results from the other mixtures will be correlated also.

Due to the use of 18 ev electrons, additional instrument calibrations were carried out with weighed samples of aluminum and beryllium. This will allow conversion to partial pressures with less error than with the relation often used to correct ionization cross sections for the effect of a different electron energy.

TABLE 1

Mass Spectrometric Intensities for 40Be0:60Al₂0₃, liquid (Intensities in units of volts)

TABLE 2 $\label{eq:mass_pectrometric} \text{Mass Spectrometric Intensities for } Al_{\text{2}}\,O_{\!3}\,, \text{ Liquid }$ (Intensities in units of volts)

T °K	I ¹⁸ × 10 ²	$I_{27}^+ \times 10^2$	$I_{32}^+ \times 10^3$	$I_{43}^{+} \times 10^{3}$	$I_{70}^{+} \times 10^{3}$
2354	250.0	1260.	150.	96.0	1200.
2401	171.0	895.	78.	60.0	660.
2372	160.5	755.	66.	52.5	480.
2353	117.0	550.	60.	37.0	340.
2296	42.0	207.	21.	15.0	144.
2317	57.0	192.	51.	23.0	162.
2285	42.0	129.	33.	10.0	96.
2232	21.0	60.	9.	10.0	48.
2232	25.0	54.	14.	1.1	33.
2127	5.4	9.3	3.3	3.6	9.
2132	25.0	63.0	21.	20.0	75.
2237	4.5	12.3	2.7	2.4	
2174	10.2	24.3		3.0	25.
2179	25.0	30.0		16.0	45.

TABLE 3

Comparison of Vapor Specie Concentrations for Pure Alumina with Alumina-Beryllia Eutectic

Ala Qa eutectic En Lor En Lor	9.61 7.07 8.78 6.27								
	6, 8	7	7	9	5	4.(3° E	3.(2.
eutectic ln L3T	6.67	5.14	4.38	3.62	2.85	2.07	1.33	0.57	15
Ale 03 Ln L3T	9.57	7.97	7.17	6.37	5.58	4.79	4.00	3.20	2.40
eutectic ^t n Iz, T	9.55	7.86	7.14	6.43	5.70	5.00	4.27	3.57	2.84
Al ₂ 0 ₃ ln I ₂ , T	12.72	10.62	9.73	8.85	7.96	7.07	6.20	5.33	4.45
$\begin{array}{ccc} \text{eutectic} \\ \ell_n & \underline{\mathbf{I}}_1^{\dagger} \epsilon & \mathbf{I} \end{array}$	5.80	4.48	3.82	3.17	2.50	1.84	1.20	0.53	-0.12
$^{\rm Alg O_3}_{\ell_{\rm n}\ \rm I_1^+e r}$	10.90	8.97	8.24	7.52	6.82	6.10	5.40	69.4	3.97
$10^3/\mathrm{T}$	0.39	0.41	0.42	0.43	0.44	0.45	97.0	0.47	0.48

ANALYSIS OF HEAT-CAPACITY DATA ON SOME SELECTED COMPOUNDS

George T. Furukawa and Martin L. Reilly

Literature survey and analysis of heat-capacity and relativeenthalpy data on substances of interest to the program have been continued and the thermodynamic properties calculated wherever the data were found suitable. High-speed computer techniques were used for analyzing the heat data. Briefly, the method involved, wherever the high-temperature enthalpy data were available, the evaluation of heat capacities at closely spaced intervals using the authors' enthalpy equation. These values were smoothly joined whenever possible with the low-temperature values. The joining process consisted of smoothing the apparent Debye θ 's obtained from the heat capacities after suitable scaling. The extrapolation to OoK below the lowest observed value was done in terms of the θ 's. Whenever the low and high temperature data were inconsistent, the tables of thermodynamic properties were terminated around 300°K. The enthalpy equations were found to be inconsistent with the lowtemperature measurements in most of the cases since the equations are intended to fit the enthalpy data over a broad range of temperatures. The first and second derivatives of the equation in the region of room temperature were not considered when they were formulated.

The low-temperature heat-capacity measurements reported from the Berkeley Bureau of Mines did not go below about 50°K. The Debye-Einstein heat-capacity equations used in their extrapolation to 0°K were evaluated at closely spaced temperature intervals and joined smoothly to the observed values above 50°K by the method described above.

In the following section the sources of data analyzed in obtaining the thermodynamic properties are described. Many of the substances that have been examined for this report are difficult to obtain in high purity. The method of preparation and analysis for characterizing the sample are given wherever the authors described them.

The tabular values of thermodynamic properties given are in calories defined by 1 calorie = 4.1840 joules. The 1961 atomic weights based on C-12 adopted by IUPAC were used.

Beryllium Sulfate, BeSO, 105.0738

A. R. Taylor, Jr., T. E. Gardner, and D. F. Smith (Bureau of Mines RI 6240, 1963) measured the heat capacity of BeSO, from 10 to 301°K and the enthalpy relative to 273.15°K up to 864°K. The sample was prepared from the tetrahydrate by heating first at 1000°F for several hours, then ground and reheated overnight at 1000°F. Spectrochemical analysis showed 0.01 to 0.1 per cent Mg, 0.001 to 0.01 per cent Al and Fe, and 0.0001 to 0.001 per cent Mn. Tables of thermodynamic properties from 0 to 900°K were prepared from the data.

Strontium Fluoride, SrF2, 125.6168

Low-temperature heat capacities of SrF₂ were measured by D. F. Smith, T. E. Gardner, B. B. Letson and A. R. Taylor, Jr. (Bureau of Mines RI 6316, 1963) from 11 to 300°K. The sample was prepared by precipitation, obtained by reacting SrCl₂ and KF in aqueous solution. The precipitate was washed with water and dried at 600°C. Spectrochemical analysis of the product showed 0.001 to 0.01 per cent Ca and K with traces of Cu, Fe and Mg. The x-ray diffraction patterns corresponded to 1962 ASTM powder data and the petrographic examination showed the amount of foreign phases to be small. The experimental heat-capacity data varied smoothly with temperature, showing no phase transitions. No high-temperature data were found. Thermodynamic properties from 0 to 300°K were calculated from the data.

Strontium Chloride, SrCl₂, 158.526

- D. F. Smith, T. E. Gardner, B. B. Letson, and A. R. Taylor, Jr. (Bureau of Mines RI 6316, 1963) reported low-temperature heat capacities of SrCl₂ in the range 7 to 300°K. The sample was prepared by recrystallizing a reagent-grade material from water and drying at 600°C for 3 hours. Spectrochemical analysis showed 0.0002 to 0.002 per cent of Ca, Al, and Ba; 0.0005 to 0.005 per cent Na, and traces of Cu, Mg, and Mn. Petrographic examination indicated the refractive index to be in agreement with established values.
- A. S. Dworkin and M. A. Bredig (J. Chem. Eng. Data $\underline{8}$, 416 (1963)) measured the enthalpy relative to 298°K up to 1204°K. Their sample was prepared by dehydrating the hydrate over P_2O_5 and by heating under vacuum for several days at 100° below the melting point (1146°K). The material was finally melted under dry HCl gas, purged with argon, and filtered through sintered quartz.

The relative enthalpy equation derived by Dworkin and Bredig was found to be unreasonably low compared with the low-temperature heat capacities. Examination of the experimental data at the lower temperatures showed their enthalpy equation to deviate negatively from their

experimental relative enthalpy values. Since further intensive analysis of the high-temperature data is needed, the thermodynamic properties up to 300°K are given at this time.

Titanium Tetrafluoride, TiF, 123.8936

R. D. Euler and E. F. Westrum, Jr. (J. Phys. Chem. <u>65</u>, 132 (1961)) measured the heat capacity of TiF, from 6 to 300°K. The sample was prepared by the reaction of F₂ on pure TiO₂ and subsequent sublimation of the fluoride in a nickel vessel. Chemical analysis of the product indicated it to be 99.9 per cent TiF₂. The heat-capacity values vary smoothly with temperature. No transitions were observed. Thermodynamic properties were calculated from 0 to 300°K.

Zirconium Tetrafluoride, ZrF, 167.2136

E. F. Westrum, Jr. (J. Chem. Eng. Data 10, 140 (1965)) reported low-temperature heat-capacity measurements on ZrF, from 7 to 302°K. The sample was prepared by hydrofluorination of pure ZrO2 in a platinum vessel at 700°C until constant weight was obtained. The fluoride was further purified by vacuum sublimation. Spectrochemical analysis showed < 2 ppm of Ag, Ba, Co, Li, Be, Mg, V, Mn, Ca, Cu, Ti, B, Cd, and Na; 7 ppm of Cr; 25 ppm of Ni, Al, and Sn; 35 ppm of Pb; 70 ppm of HF; < 100 ppm of P and Zn; 175 ppm of Fe; and 600 ppm of Si. Chemical analysis yielded 54.9 ± 1.0 per cent Zr and 45.2 ± 10 per cent F (weighed as PbClF), the theoretical being 54.55 and 45.45 per cent, respectively. X-ray and petrographic examinations showed no oxide or oxyfluoride. The sample was taken to be 99.7 per cent or better in purity.

R. A. McDonald, G. C. Sinke, and D. R. Stull (J. Chem. Eng. Data 7, 83 (1962)) determined the enthalpy relative to 298.15°K up to 1205°K. Their sample was prepared by dissolving HF-free Zirconium in 48 per cent aqueous hydrofluoric acid and evaporating the solution to dryness. The product was heated at 500°C in a platinum boat in a stream of anhydrous HF gas. Chemical analysis yielded 54.6 per cent Zr and 44.9 per cent F.

The two data were combined to obtain thermodynamic properties from 0 to 1205°K.

Zirconium Diboride, ZrB2, 112.842

Low-temperature heat-capacity measurements were reported for ZrB₂ by E. F. Westrum, Jr. and G. Feick (J. Chem. Eng. Data <u>8</u>, 193 (1963)) in the range 5 to 345°K. The authors estimated the composition of the sample used, from chemical analysis, x-ray diffraction measurements, and metallographic examination, to be ZrB₂ 100 - 97 per cent,

ZrB 0 - 3 per cent, ZrC 0.2 per cent, ZrN 0.1 per cent, and ZrO₂ 0.02 per cent. No corrections were made for the impurities since estimates indicated that the impurities would cause insignificant errors.

R. H. Valentine, T. F. Jambois, and J. L. Margrave (J. Chem. Eng. Data 2, 182 (1964)) reported measurements of the enthalpy relative to 298.15°K up to 1125°K on a sample of ZrB₂ from the same batch used by Westrum and Feick. The enthalpy equation obtained by Valentine et al. was found to be inconsistent with the heat-capacity data of Westrum and Feick. The lowest measurement by Valentine et al. was at 410°K. For this report thermodynamic properties of ZrB₂ up to 350°K based on the measurements of Westrum and Feick are given.

Strontium 1:1 - Silicate, Sr0·Si02, 163.7042

W. W. Weller and K. K. Kelley (Bureau of Mines RI 6556, 1964) measured the heat capacity of SrSiO₃ from 52 to 296°K. The sample was prepared by heating between 1000 and 1350°K a stoichiometric mixture of SrCO₃ and pure quartz. The material was repeatedly ground, analyzed and adjusted for composition, and reheated. The total heating time was 246 hours, of which 32 hours were above 1200°C. X-ray diffraction patterns agreed with existing data and the chemical analysis yielded 63.26 per cent SrO, 36.66 per cent SiO₂, and 0.12 per cent of the oxides of Fe and Al the theoretical being 63.30 and 36.70 per cent SrO and SiO₂, respectively.

The heat-capacity values below 52°K were obtained from the Debye-Einstein function:

$$C = D(192/T) + 2E(348/T) + 2E(1026/T)$$

given by Weller and Kelley.

Strontium 2:1 - Silicate, 2Sr0.5i02, 267.3236

W. W. Weller and K. K. Kelley (Bureau of Mines RI 6556, 1964) reported heat-capacity measurements on Sr₂SiO₂ from 52 to 296°K. The sample was prepared by heating between 1200 and 1300°C a stoichiometric mixture of SrCO₃ and pure quartz. Four cycles of grinding, analyzing and adjusting for composition, and heating were performed, the total heating time being 35 hours. X-ray patterns disagreed with existing data which may be on a different crystalline form. No uncombined oxides were detected. Chemical analysis yielded 77.51 per cent SrO, 22.47 per cent SiO₂, and 0.03 per cent Na₂O, the theoretical being 77.52 and 22.48 per cent SrO and SiO₂, respectively.

The Debye-Einstein heat capacity function:

$$C = D(179/T) + 2E(221/T) + 2E(448/T) + 2E(1024/T)$$

given by Weller and Kelley was used for values below 52°K.

Barium 1:1 - Silicate, Ba0. Si02, 213.4242

W. W. Weller and K. K. Kelley (Bureau of Mines RI 6556, 1964) determined the heat capacity of BaSiO₃ from 52 to 296°K. The sample was prepared by heating between 1000 and 1410°C a stoichiometric mixture of reagent-grade BaCO₃ and pure quartz. The material was ground, analyzed and adjusted for composition, pelletized, and reheated. This process was repeated nine times with a total heating time of 247 hours. The x-ray diffraction patterns did not agree with existing data, but did not show any uncombined oxides. Chemical analysis yielded 71.95 per cent BaO and 28.17 per cent SiO₂, the theoretical being 71.85 and 28.15 per cent, respectively.

The Debye-Einstein heat-capacity function:

$$C = D(151/T) + E(213/T) + E(450/T) + 2E(973/T)$$

given by Weller and Kelley was used below 52°K.

Barium 1:2 - Silicate, Ba0.2Si02, 273.509

W. W. Weller and K. K. Kelley (Bureau of Mines RI 6556, 1964) reported heat-capacity measurements on BaSi₂O₅ between 52 and 296°K. The sample was prepared by heating a stoichiometric mixture of BaCO₃ and pure quartz at temperatures ranging from 950 to 1350°C. Prolonged heating at 1350°C was done to stabilize the compound. [R. Barany, E. G. King, and S. S. Todd (J. Am. Chem. Soc. 79, 3639 (1957)) reported a slow change in x-ray patterns at room temperature for a sample prepared in a similar manner but with insufficient heating]. X-ray examination of the sample before and after the heat-capacity measurements showed no significant changes in the pattern. Chemical analysis yielded 55.85 per cent BaO and 43.77 per cent SiO₂ with 0.32 per cent Al₂O₃, the theoretical being 56.06 and 43.94 per cent BaO and SiO₂, respectively.

The Debye-Einstein heat-capacity function:

$$C = D(120/T) + 2E(235/T) + 3E(632/T) + 2E(1415/T)$$

given by Weller and Kelley was used below 52°K.

Barium 2:3 - Silicate, 2Ba0·3Si02, 486.9332

W. W. Weller and K. K. Kelley (Bureau of Mines RI 6556, 1964) reported heat-capacity measurements on Ba₂Si₃O₈ from 52 to 296°K. The sample was prepared by repeated heating, grinding, analyzing and adjusting for composition, and pelletizing at high pressures prior to the heating. The total heating times were 11 days at 1050°C, 78 hours at 1200°C, 24 hours at 1250°C, and 6 hours at 1300°C. X-ray patterns agreed with existing data and chemical analysis yielded 63.00 per cent BaO, 37.05 per cent SiO₂, and 0.01 per cent Fe₂O₃ and Al₂O₃, the theoretical being 62.98 and 37.02 per cent BaO and SiO₂ respectively.

The Debye-Einstein heat-capacity function:

$$C = D(105/T) + 3E(176/T) + 3E(443/T) + 2E(603/T) + 4E(1240/T)$$

given by Weller and Kelley was used below 52°K.

Barium 2:1 - Silicate, 2Ba0·SiO2, 366.7636

W. W. Weller and K. K. Kelley (Bureau of Mines RI 6556, 1964) measured the heat capacity of Ba₂SiO₄ from 52 to 296°K. The sample was prepared by heating a stoichiometric mixture of BaCO₃ and pure quartz, between 1000 and 1300°C. The material was ground, analyzed and adjusted for composition and reheated. This process was repeated five times with total heating times of 10 days at 1000 - 1150°C and 16 hours at 1150 - 1300°C. X-ray patterns agreed with existing data and the chemical analysis yielded 83.78 per cent BaO and 16.37 per cent SiO₂, the theoretical being 33.62 and 16.38 per cent, respectively.

The Debye-Einstein heat-capacity function:

$$C = D(115/T) + 2E(185/T) + 2E(405/T) + 2E(1080/T)$$

given by Weller and Kelley was used below 52°K.

Calcium 1:1 - Zirconate, CaO·ZrO2, 179.2982

E. G. King and W. W. Weller (Bureau of Mines RI 5571, 1960) reported heat-capacity measurements of CaZrO3 from 53 to 296°K. The sample was prepared by heating between 1200 and 1500°C a stoichiometric mixture of CaCO3 and ZrO2. Seven cycles of grinding,

analyzing and adjusting for composition, and heating were performed. The total heating times were 30 hours between 1200 and 1300°C and 32 hours between 1400 and 1500°C. Chemical analysis of the final product was 31.19 per cent CaO and 68.16 per cent ZrO₂, the theoretical being 31.28 and 68.72 per cent respectively.

The Debye-Einstein heat-capacity function:

$$C = D(233/T) + 2E(355/T) + 2E(722/T)$$

given by King and Weller was used below 53°K.

Strontium 1:1 - Zirconate, Sr0. Zr02, 226.8382

E. G. King and W. W. Weller (Bureau of Mines RI 5571, 1960) reported heat-capacity measurements on SrZrO₃ from 53 to 296°K. The sample was prepared by heating a stoichiometric mixture of SrCO₃ and ZrO₂. The heating times were as follows: 24 hours at 1000°C, 6 hours between 1350 and 1400°C, 8 hours between 1350 and 1470°C, 12 hours between 1350 and 1450°C, and 12 hours between 1300 and 1350°C. The material was ground and thoroughly mixed between the heats. Chemical analysis yielded 45.56 per cent SrO and 54.42 per cent ZrO₂, the theoretical being 45.68 and 54.32 per cent, respectively. X-ray diffraction patterns were in agreement with existing data and no unreacted oxides were observed.

The Debye-Einstein heat-capacity equation:

$$C = D(177/T) + 2E(308/T) + 2E(678/T)$$

given by King and Weller was used below 53°K.

Barium 1:1 - Zirconate, Ba0·Zr02, 276.5582

E. G. King and W. W. Weller (Bureau of Mines RI 5571, 1963) measured the heat capacity of BaZrO₃ from 54 to 296°K. The sample was prepared by heating a stoichiometric mixture of BaCO₃ and ZrO₂. The heating times were as follows: 24 hours at 1000°C, 6 hours at 1350 - 1400°C, 20 hours at 1350 - 1470°C, and 12 hours at 1300 - 1350°C, the sample being ground and thoroughly mixed between heats. Chemical analysis of the final product yielded 55.40 per cent BaO and 44.63 per cent ZrO₂, the theoretical being 55.45 and 44.55 per cent, respectively. The x-ray diffraction pattern was in agreement with the ASTM catalog.

The Debye-Einstein heat-capacity equation:

$$C = D(144/T) + 2E(273/T) + 2E(692/T)$$

given by King and Weller was used below 54°K.

Sodium 1:1 - Tungstate, Na₂0·W0₃, 293.8272

E. G. King and Weller (Bureau of Mines RI 5791, 1961) measured the heat capacity of Na₂WO₁ from 52 to 300°K. The sample was prepared by heating a stoichiometric mixture of Na₂CO₃ and H₂WO₄. The mixture was melted twice in platinum and heated four times for a total of 4.5 days at 460 to 600°C. After each melting and heating process, the material was ground, analyzed and adjusted for composition. Chemical analysis of the final product yielded 78.95 per cent WO₃, the theoretical being 78.91 per cent. The x-ray diffraction pattern was in agreement with that given in the ASTM catalog.

The Debye-Einstein heat-capacity function:

$$C = D(168/T) + 2E(225/T) + 2E(456/T) + E(531/T) + E(1288/T)$$

given by King and Weller was used below 52°K.

Sodium 1:2 - Tungstate, Na₂0·2WO₃, 525.6754

W. W. Weller and K. K. Kelley (Bureau of Mines RI 6191, 1963) measured the heat capacity of Na₂W₂O₇ from 53 to 296°K. The sample was prepared by heating a stoichiometric mixture of Na₂CO₃ and H₂WO₄. Chemical analysis of the product yielded 87.78 per cent WO₃, the theoretical being 88.21 per cent. Impurities were 0.24 per cent Al₂O₃ and 0.24 per cent SiO₂. X-ray diffraction patterns agreed with existing data.

The Debye-Einstein heat-capacity function:

$$C = D(123/T) + 4E(210/T) + 4E(501/T) + 2E(1229/T)$$

given by Weller and Kelley was used below 53°K.

Magnesium 1:1 - Tungstate, MgO·WO3, 272.1596

E. G. King and W. W. Weller (Bureau of Mines RI 5791, 1961) measured the heat capacity of MgWO₄ from 53 to 296°K. The sample was prepared by heating a stoichiometric mixture of MgO and H₂WO₄ at 900°C. The process of grinding, chemical analysis, adjusting of composition, and heating was repeated eight times. The total heating time was five days. Chemical analysis of the final product yielded 14.79 per cent MgO and 85.24 per cent WO₃, the theoretical being 14.81 and 85.19 per cent, respectively. X-ray diffraction patterns agreed with existing data.

The Debye-Einstein heat-capacity function:

$$C = D(233/T) + E(319/T) + 3E(487/T) + E(1270/T)$$

given by King and Weller was used below 53°K.

Calcium 1:1 - Tungstate, Ca0·WO3, 287.9276

E. G. King and W. W. Weller (Bureau of Mines RI 5791, 1961) determined the heat capacity of CaWO₄ from 52 to 296°K. The sample was prepared by heating a stoichiometric mixture of CaCO₃ and H₂WO₄ at temperatures between 680 and 800°C. The grinding, chemical analysis, adjusting of composition, and heating procedure was repeated seven times. The total heating times were two days at 680°C and ten days at 800°C. The final product was 19.49 per cent CaO and 80.59 per cent WO₃, the theoretical being 19.48 and 80.52 per cent, respectively. The x-ray diffraction pattern agreed with existing data.

The Debye-Einstein heat-capacity function:

$$C = D(180/T) + E(220/T) + E(387/T) + 2E(558/T) + E(1350/T)$$

given by King and Weller was used below 52°K.

Potassium Hydrogen Fluoride, KHF₂, 78.10677

E. F. Westrum, Jr. and K. S. Pitzer (J. Am. Chem. Soc. 71, 1940. (1949)) reported heat-capacity measurements from 16 to 316°K and enthalpy measurements relative to 298.15°K up to 523°K. The sample was prepared by reacting "chemically pure" $K_2\text{CO}_3$ and aqueous

hydrofluoric acid. The solution, containing several per cent excess of HF, was concentrated by boiling and KHF $_2$ precipitated by controlled cooling. To obtain higher yields the mother liquor was further concentrated with an excess of HF and ethyl alcohol used as precipitant. Ethyl alcohol was used also to wash the KHF $_2$ crystals. The alcohol and water, if any, were removed by vacuum drying at 40°C. Chemical analysis of the sample yielded 48.5 \pm 0.2 per cent F, the theoretical being 48.65 per cent. Titration of the acid hydrogen yielded 100.03 \pm 0.06 per cent of the theoretical. The data were used to obtain the table of thermodynamic properties from 0° to 530°K.

Phosphorus Pentoxide, P₁0₁₀, 283.8892

R. J. L. Andow, J. F. Counsell, H. McKerrell, and J. F. Martin (Trans. Far. Soc. 59, 2702 (1963)) reported heat-capacity measurements on hexagonal P₄O₁₀ from 12 to 325°K. The sample was of commercial source that was further purified by two vacuum sublimations. Chemical analysis showed the material to be 99.8 per cent and x-ray diffraction pattern was in agreement with the hexagonal form. Thermodynamic properties from O to 330°K were calculated from the data.

Chapter 14

THE DETERMINATION OF HEATS OF FORMATION OF REFRACTORY COMPOUNDS

George T. Armstrong and Eugene S. Domalski

1. INTRODUCTION

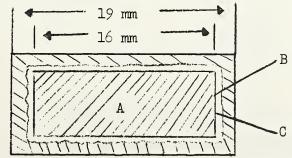
Refractory compounds have an application in propellants as possible ingredients of air breathing engines. This chapter reviews some of the results of a study [6] of the heats of formation of refractory borides, of which the experimental part was carried out for the Air Force Aero Propulsion Laboratory, Wright Patterson Air Force Base (A. Zengel, technical advisor). A recalculation and reappraisal of the data and some new analyses of the samples studied were carried out in this program, leading to revisions of some of the conclusions drawn in the earlier report. This work was presented at the 4th Meeting of the Working Group in Thermochemistry [7]. The heats of combustion in fluorine of several boron compounds were measured. To determine auxiliary data for calculating the heats of formation of the compounds, the heats of combustion in fluorine of polytetrafluoroethylene (Teflon), graphite, and boron were determined also. Analysis of the compounds becomes a major problem in deriving heats of formation from the observed calorimetric data. effects of analysis in the interpretation of the data are discussed. The presentation is in the nature of a summary. Details will be presented in projected publications.

2. SAMPLE PREPARATION

Because boron, graphite and some borides react spontaneously on exposure to fluorine, the samples were protected from pre-ignition reaction by a covering of Teflon. In order to sustain combustion until the sample was essentially completely consumed, the samples were mixed with powdered Teflon. The sample preparation technique was developed for these experiments. Figure 1 shows a schematic cross section of the sample pellet. A pelleted mixture of powdered Teflon with the powdered refractory material forms the core. This is enclosed in a Teflon film bag and then further protected with a thin outer layer of compressed powdered Teflon. With this method of sample preparation combustions were essentially complete.

Figure 1. SAMPLE CONFIGURATION FOR REACTIVE SAMPLES FOR FLUORINE BOMB CALORIMETRY

Cylindrical Pellet



A. Mixture of sample (0.15-0.25 g) and Teflon 7 (1.3-2.0 g).

B. Teflon film bag (0.3 g).

C. Teflon 7 (0.7-0.8 g).

3. COMBUSTION OF TEFLON

Because there is Teflon present in each of the combustion experiments with a refractory material, the energy of combustion of the Teflon used in the mixtures was determined. The data from a typical combustion experiment with Teflon are shown in Table I. Seven experiments of this type were carried out, and are summarized in Table II. The experiments were reproducible and led to a mean value of -10372.8 J g⁻¹ with a standard deviation of the mean of 0.77 J g⁻¹ for ΔE_{303} . Because of differences in preparation the energy of combustion of Teflon may not be the same from batch to batch. The energy of combustion must therefore be determined for each batch that is to be used.

TABLE I. TEFLON COMBUSTION EXPERIMENT (TYPICAL)

Experiment No.	4
Mass Teflon, g	4.44373
PF2, atm.	22.3
ε, J deg l	14,802.21
$\Delta t_{f c}$, deg	3.11615
-ε·Δt _c , J	-46,125.9
ΔE fuse, J	17.5
ΔE gas, J	21.3
ΔE ^o _{303°K} J g ⁻¹	-10,371.3

TABLE II. TEFLON COMBUSTION EXPERIMENTS (SUMMARY)

Experiment No.	ΔE_{303}° , J g ⁻¹
1 2 3 4 5 6 7	-10372.7 -10376.3 -10374.1 -10371.3 -10372.4 -10373.2 -10369.9
Mean σ $\Delta H_{298}^{\circ} = -10369.4 \text{ J g}^{-1}$ C_2F_4 (polymer) + $2F_2(g)$	-10372.8 0.77 = 2CF, (g)

4. COMBUSTION OF GRAPHITE

To provide auxiliary data for calculating the heat of formation of boron carbide, the heat of combustion of carbon (graphite) is needed. Combustion measurements on graphite were carried out to provide this data.

Table III shows the characteristics of the sample that was used.

TABLE III. ELEMENTAL CARBON

Crystal form - graphite crystals of -35 on 100 mesh

 $a = 2.460A^{\circ}; \quad C = 6.721 A^{\circ}$

spectroscopic grade

ash < 10 ppm

Metals insignificant

O (neutron activation < 86 ppm

N (neutron activation) < 204 ppm

C by difference > 99.97 percent

Table IV gives the results of a typical experiment. A series of seven experiments of this type was carried out which is summarized in Table V_{\bullet}

TABLE IV. GRAPHITE - TEFLON COMBUSTION EXPERIMENT (TYPICAL)

Experiment No.	1
Mass graphite, g	0.243088
Mass Teflon, g	2.419090
PF2, atm.	21.1
ε, J deg ⁻¹	14,758.06
Δt_c , deg.	2.97695
-ε·Δt _c , J	-43,934.0
$\Delta \mathtt{E}$ fuse, \mathtt{J}	17.2
ΔE gas, J	8.4.
ΔE° (Teflon), J	25,092.7
ΔE ^o ₃₀₃ , graphite sample, J g ⁻¹	-77,402.8

TABLE V. GRAPHITE - TEFLON COMBUSTION EXPERIMENTS (SUMMARY)

Experiment	-AE ₃₀₃ , J g ⁻¹
1 2 3 4 5 6 7	77,402.8 77,462.3 77,424.4 77,398.1 77,437.5 77,383.0 77,335.7
Mean	77,406.3

The measurements had a small dispersion, giving a standard deviation of the mean of about 0.02 percent. The energy of combustion observed for the sample was adjusted as shown in Table VI to obtain the standard enthalpy of formation of $\text{CF}_4(g)$. The value obtained is more negative than most values reported for carbon tetrafluoride and tends to substantiate the more negative values suggested for the heat of formation of HF, though it is not as negative as was calculated by Cox et al. [1].

TABLE VI. CARBON TETRAFLUORIDE - HEAT OF FORMATION J g-1 $-\Delta E_{303}^{\circ} \text{ (per gram of graphite sample)} 77,406.3$ Energy of combustion of impurities $\Delta E_{303}^{\circ} - \Delta E_{298}^{\circ} = -4.2$ $-\Delta E_{1298}^{\circ} \text{ (per gram of pure carbon)} 77,424.6$ $-\Delta RT = 209.8$ $-\Delta H_{1298}^{\circ} \text{ (CF}_4)\text{ (g)} = 77,634.4 (222.87 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1})$ Uncertainty $0.38 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ C (graphite) + $2F_2(g) = CF_4(g)$

5. COMBUSTION OF BORON

Because boron is a component of all the refractory compounds later described here, a knowledge of its heat of combustion is necessary to calculate their heats of formation. Although the heat of combustion of boron in fluorine has recently been accurately determined, the heats of formation of the refractory borides are so sensitive to its value that a redetermination in the same calorimeter in which the rest of the experiments were being carried out was deemed advisable. A series of combustion measuments was made on elemental boron to provide the required data. Table VII lists the characteristics of the boron sample that was burned.

TABLE VII. ELEMENTAL BORON

β-rhombohedral crystals of -100 mesh prepared by hydrogen reduction of BBr₃ on a substrate of zone refined boron.

- (a) by chemical analysis
- (b) Spectroscopic analysis showed < 0.01% Fe
- (c) Kjeldahl
- (d) Neutron activation analysis. C, N, and O were assumed to be present as B₄C, BN, and B₂O₃, respectively.

Table VIII lists the data obtained from a typical calorimetric experiment with boron. Ten experiments of this type were carried out, which are summarized in Table IX. The experiments were in good agreement with each other, giving a standard deviation of the mean of about 0.05 percent. Table X shows the reduction of the observed energy of combustion to the standard enthalpy of combustion, which is the enthalpy of formation of BF3(g). The observed average, -271.21 kcal mol⁻¹, for the enthalpy of formation of BF3(g) is in good agreement with a value (-271.65 ±0.22 kcal mol⁻¹) by Johnson, Feder and Hubbard [2].

TABLE VIII. BORON - TEFLON COMBUSTION EXPERIMENT (TYPICAL)

Experiment No.	1
Mass boron sample, g	0.157445
Mass Teflon, g	2.767867
P _{F2} , atm.	21.2
ε, J deg ⁻¹	14,798.95
$\Delta t_{_{f C}}$, deg	3.05494
-ε•Δt _c , J	-45,209.9
ΔE fuse, J	20.2
ΔE gas, J	13.2
-AE° Teflon, J	28,710.5
ΔE ₃₀₃ boron sample, J g ⁻¹	-104,583

TABLE IX. BORON - TEFLON COMBUSTION EXPERIMENTS (SUMMARY)

Experiment No.	$-\Delta E_{303}^{\circ}$ boron sample, J g ⁻¹
1	104,583
2	104,389
3	104,129
4	104,362
5	104,519
6	104,751
7	104,450
8	104,501
9	104,717
Mean	104 , 487
o	57

TABLE X. BORON TRIFLUORIDE HEAT OF FORMATION

	J g-l			
$-\Delta_{303}^{\circ}$ (per gram of sample)	104,487			
Energy of combustion of impurities $\Delta E_{303}^{\circ} - \Delta E_{298}^{\circ}$	s -556 - 4	(0.869%	impurities)	*
$-\Delta E_{298}^{o}$ (per gram of pure boron)	104,838	!		
-nRT -∆H ^o ₂₉₈ (boron)	115 ₁₀₄ ,953	(271.21	kcal mol-1)	*
Uncertainty The chemical atomic weight of the boron found to be 10.812 ±0.005 (based on Classical Control of the boron found to be 10.812 ±0.005 (based on Classical Control of the boron found to be 10.812 ±0.005 (based on Classical Control of the boron found to be 10.812 ±0.005 (based on Classical Control of the boron found to be 10.812 ±0.005 (based on Classical Control of the boron found to be 10.812 ±0.005 (based on Classical Control of the boron found to be 10.812 ±0.005 (based on Classical Control of the boron found to be 10.812 ±0.005 (based on Classical Control of the boron found to be 10.812 ±0.005 (based on Classical Control of the boron control of the boron found to be 10.812 ±0.005 (based on Classical Control of the boron control of the boron found to be 10.812 ±0.005 (based on Classical Control of the boron control of the bor	n in the 2 = 12).	0.38 sample v	kcal mol ⁻¹) was measured	and
$B(C,\beta) + 3/2 F_2(g) = BF_3(g)$				

^{*}Values listed in this table are subject to small revision on the basis of reanalysis of the sample which is now in progress.

6. COMBUSTION OF BORON CARBIDE AND ALUMINUM BORIDES

The combustion measurements on the refractory compounds showed good reproducibility and in some cases the precision was comparable to that of the combustion of boron and graphite in fluorine. A series of eight combustion measurements on boron carbide is summarized in Table XI. The standard error is 0.04 percent. The standard errors of AlB_2 , $\alpha-AlB_{12}$, and $\gamma-AlB_{12}$ were 0.08, 0.05, and 0.09 percent, respectively.

TABLE XI. BORON CARBIDE COMBUSTION (SUMMARY)

Experiment	$-\Delta E_{303}^{\circ}$ B ₄ C sample, J g ⁻¹
1	96,995.3
2	97,019.7
3	96,977.1
4	97,241.4
5	97,106.2
6	97,082.6
8	97 , 197 . 7 97 , 279 . 6
Mean	97 , 112 . 5
ơ	40 . 8

Boron carbide burned to form $BF_3(g)$ and $CF_4(g)$. The aluminum borides burned to form $AlF_3(c)$ and $BF_3(g)$. Observed energies of combustion were used to calculate the standard enthalpies of combustion of the pure compounds as shown in Table XII. Note, however, that in order to make this calculation detailed information on the make-up of the samples is required. Table XII is based on a hypothetical composition for each sample, obtained by normalizing the composition determined by analysis. In normalizing the composition the presumption is made that the total error of the analysis (deviation from 100 percent) is divided among the observed constituents in proportion to their abundance. The limits imposed by assumptions of this type upon the determination of the heat of formation of the compound are discussed in section 7.

TABLE XII. HEATS OF REACTION - ALUMINUM BORIDES AND BORON CARBIDE

$$Al_{2.215}(c) + \frac{9.645}{2} F_{2}(g) = Al_{3}(c) + 2.215 BF_{3}(g)$$

$$Al_{12}(c) + 39/2 F_{2}(g) = Al_{3}(c) + 12 BF_{3}(g)$$

$$B_{4}C(c) + 8F_{2}(g) = 4BF_{3}(g) + CF_{4}(g)$$

-	(Molocular weights)					γ- ^{AtB} ₁₂ (156.7135)	
(1)	No. of Experiments			6	11	2	8
(2)	$-\Delta E_{303}^{\circ}$ (sample),	J	g-l	76,182.3	92,926.5	95,354.0	97,112.5
	d	J	g-l	59.7	45.8	85.2	40.8
(<u>4)</u>	Impurity (%)			2.768	3.210	4.766	0.700 *
(5)	Impurity contribution,	J	g-l	-731.7	-1027.7	-4365.2	-196 . 4*
(6)	ΔE° - ΔΕ°	J	g-l	+2.7	+0.5	+0.5	-3.6
(7)	ΔΕ°303 - ΔΕ°298, -ΔΕ ₂₉₈ (compound)	J	g-l	77,601.2	94,944.4	95,542.8	97 , 595 . 7*
(8)	-△nRT (compound)		0 _			120.6	136.8
(9)	-AH ₂₉₈ (compound)	J	g-1	77,740.9	95,065.0	95,663.4	97,732.5*
(10)	-AH298 (compound) kcal	mo	ol ⁻¹	946.2	7 3560.7	3583.1	1290.7*

A reanalysis of some samples is being undertaken, which may cause modification of some values listed.

NOTE: The above table is based upon sample compositions normalized to total 1.0000 on the basis that the error in each element is proportional to its amount present. Items 1, 2, 3 are unaffected by any manner of treating the composition, but the remaining items are affected.

7. ANALYSIS OF COMPOSITION AND THE INTERPRETATION OF COMBUSTION-CALORIMETRIC DATA OF REFRACTORY BORIDES

The samples of boron compounds used in the study described here were analyzed chemically, spectroscopically, by neutron activation, and by X-radiation as indicated in Table XIII. The results are summarized in Table XIV. The stoichiometric proportions of the principal elements are shown at the bottom of the table. Deviations of the ratios of the principal elements from the stoichiometric ratios are large, and deviations of the sum of all substances from 1.00 (100 percent) are also large. The oxygen contents range from 0.002 to 0.013 and thus form a significant amount. The validity of the neutron activation analysis for these samples is now questionable because it has been found that boron interferes [3]. Deviations of the total composition from 1.00, amounting to .0226, 0.0160, 0.0041, and 0.0271 cannot be accounted for solely on the basis of errors in the oxygen analysis. Appreciable errors in the analyses for boron, aluminum and carbon are suggested by this fact. Because of this the validity of the observed deviation from stoichiometry is also brought into question. This class of compounds cannot be presumed to be stoichiometric. Thus, an analysis which might be quite adequate to assign a formula to a

stoichiometric compound is quite inadequate to assign a composition to a non-stoichiometric compound.

TABLE XIII. METHOD OF ANALYSIS OF BORIDES

- At Carbonate fusion, precipitation as hydroxide and roasting to At₂O₂.
- B Carbonate fusion followed by boric acid determination titration using mannitol.
- C CO, determination.
- N Kjeldahl
- O Neutron activation analysis.
- Si \ Chemical tests approximately verified by spectroscopic Metal analysis.

Also determined: crystal unit cell dimensions by X-ray diffraction.

TABLE XIV. ANALYSES OF SOME BORIDES

Element	B ₄ C	AtB ₂	α-AlB ₁₂	γ-AlB ₁₂
Al	_	0.5300	0.1701	0.1603
В	0.777	.4704	.8150	8071
C	.196	\$000	.0011	.0007
N	.0021	.0030	.0027	.0002
0	.0019	.0100	.0130	•0036
Si	•0002	.0003	•0005	-
Metals	.0002	•0015	•0017	.0010
Total	0.9774	1.0160	1.0041	0.9729
Principal Ratio	4.40	2.215	11.96	12.57

Stoichiometric Composition

AŁ		•55513	.17217	.17217
В	•7826	•44487	.82783	•82783
C	.2174			•

The analysis gives little or no information about the distribution of impurities in the compound. Because of an ambiguity here the calculation of hoat of formation would be ambiguous even if no uncertainty existed in the elemental analysis. In troating the distribution of impurities, four methods have been applied:

- (1), (2) The compound is considered to be stoichiometric and the non metal impurities are combined all with one olement. Excess

 B or Al remaining is considered to be present as the free element.
 - (3) The compound is considered to be stoichiometric and the non-metal impurities are distributed between B and Al in proportion to the stoichiometric ratio of B to Al. Excess B or Al is considered to be present as the free element.
 - (4) The compound is considered to be non-stoichiometric and the non-metal impurities are distributed between B and Al in proportion to the number of moles of B and Al.

Table XV gives heats of formation calculated for each of the samples studied on each basis. The combustion data (item 10) given in Table XII was used in calculating the heats of formation of $AlB_{2.215}$ by method (4), and of α -AlB12 and γ -AlB12 by method (3). For auxiliary data we used the heats of formation of CF4 and BF3 given in Tables VI and X, respectively, and the heat of formation of AlF3(c), -360.37 kcal mol⁻¹, from Domalski and Armstrong [5]. In calculating the heats of formation of B4C and the other values for the aluminum borides, the intermediate calculations are not shown in Table XII.

Tablo XII illustrates a calculation of the heat of combustion of B4C, which would lead to $\Delta H_{2.98}^6 = -19.5$ kcal mol⁻¹. This calculation illustrates the effect of an uncertainty in the relative amounts of the elements present. In making this calculation, because of the variability in the analysis for B and C, we made the assumption that all material in the sample not present as Si, metals, B2O3 or BN is B4C in which the elements are present in their proper stoichiometric proportions, and that there was no excess Bor C present.

TABLE XV. EFFECT OF TREATMENT OF COMPOSITION ON THE VALUES CALCULATED FOR HEATS OF FORMATION OF ALUMINUM BORIDES AND BORON CARBIDE

Formula Assumed	ΔH _f , k	cal/mol	(kcal/g atom)			
Method	(1) (Al)	(1) (2) (AL) (B)		(3)		4)
AlB ₂ AlB ₂ .215	-15.9	-15.8	-16.1	(-5.37)	-16.2	(-5.04)
α -AlB ₁₂ α -AlB _{11.96}	-65.0	-61.9	-61.5	(-4.73)	-61.3	(-4.73)
γ- ^{AlB} 12 γ- ^{AlB} 12 . 57	-39•4	-3 9 . 0	-39.1	(-3.01)	-37.9	(-2.79)
B4C B4•4C	,	-26 . 5 (-5 . 30)			-27.2	(-5.04)

NOTE: For the above calculations the observed compositions were normalized to a total of 1.0000 by assuming the error in each element to be proportional to the amount of it present.

The heats of formation calculated on the bases (1), (2), (3), (4), have ranges of 0.4 kcal mol⁻¹ for AlB_2 , 3.1 kcal mol⁻¹ for α - AlB_{12} , 2.5 kcal mol⁻¹ for γ - AlB_{12} and 0.7 kcal mol⁻¹ for B4C. Some of the values have been converted to kcal (gram atom)⁻¹ as shown in parantheses. These differences, while large in some cases, are not intolerable in all cases. However, if one, as we have done for B4C, now admits the possibility that an error of analysis could also be present, immediately errors of 20 to 50 kcal mol⁻¹ or even more may be introduced. In the case of B4C as compared to B4.4C the large calculated difference is due to the assumption that the apparent non-stoichiometry is actually an error of analysis in a compound which is truly B4C. If, in addition, an attempt was made to account for the 2.26 percent unaccounted for in the analysis, an uncertainty up to 25 kcal mol⁻¹ could occur. Similarly, the large difference of 22 kcal mol⁻¹ shown in Table XV between the heats of formation of α -AlB12 and γ -AlB12 may be partly or wholly due to error of analysis. Such a large difference seems hardly reasonable for two crystal phases of the same substance.

It is apparent on the basis of the above discussion that analysis of the samples can be a major factor in obtaining reliable thermochemical data on refractory compounds. One should not presume that an adequate analysis can be obtained in a routine way.

8. CALORIMETRIC METHODS APPLICABLE TO REFRACTORY COMPOUNDS

We resume briefly here some possible experimental methods applicable to the calorimetry of refractory compounds, with special reference to the difficulties of stoichiometry and analysis posed in the preceding section.

8.1 Direct Combination of the Elements The great advantage of this method is that the total heat measured is the heat of formation of the compound. Impurities and non-stoichiometry affect the heat of formation only in proportion to their uncertainty, whereas in processes described in section 2 below, the errors of uncertainties, impurities, and non-stoichiometry are magnified. This method may be very successful in a bomb calorimeter if one of the elements is a gas, and if the resulting compound can be assayed for amount of reaction, either by weighing or by chemical analysis of the products. Direct combination of oxygen with many metals has been very successful. Direct combination of nitrogen with boron has achieved good success also.

However, in the direct combination of two solid elements, a metal with carbon, boron, phosphorus, etc., it is difficult to obtain good results. The principal difficulty is not in initiating the reaction but in determining the amount of reaction and the identity of the phases present in the product. If one recognizes the difficulty that one has in obtaining good quality single phase compounds in a preparative furnace process, in which great care can be taken in temperature control, zone refining, selective extraction and so on, it seems probable that when the elements combine rapidly in an uncontrolled process the quality of the product will suffer.

A slight modification of direct combination is a displacement reaction involving two solid materials. While Gross [4] has had good

success in the reaction of Al with PbF2 in such a displacement reaction, the questions raised in the previous paragraph become of equally great importance here, when very refractory materials are considered.

- 8.2 Combustion of the Compound and of the Separate Elements in a Reactive Atmosphere This is the procedure used in the combustion of refractory borides in fluorine. It can be successful because of the high precision of the bomb calorimetric process. Even when small differences between large heats of combustion are taken, the residual error in the heat of formation of the compound may be less than 1 kcal mol⁻¹. However, much depends upon the knowledge of the composition of the sample and the completeness of reaction. Because of the taking of differences between large heats of combustion an uncertainty in composition or in completeness of combustion affects the heat of formation in a disproportionate way.
- 8.3 Solution of the Compound and of the Separate Elements in a Suitable Solvent in a Calorimeter The principal problem in applying this technique to refractory compounds is to find a suitable solvent. Provided this is done, the heat of solution is generally a much smaller number than the heat of combustion. While differences must be taken as in section 8.2, the differences are between much smaller numbers. The effect of lack of knowledge about the composition is correspondingly less. The potentialities of boric oxide or some similar solvent at a high temperature should be examined.

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Chapter 15

HEATS OF FORMATION OF SOME FLUORINE CONTAINING OXIDIZERS

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ABSTRACT

The status of our knowledge of the heats of formation of selected fluorides of oxygen, nitrogen, chlorine and carbon is reviewed. A brief description is given of a flame-calorimetry study of oxygen difluoride at the National Bureau of Standards.

INTRODUCTION

This report is a review of the status of the knowledge of the heats of formation of a number of oxidizers commonly considered for use in propulsion. The work was supported in part by the Bureau of Naval Weapons, and in part by the Air Force Office of Scientific Research.

1. OXYGEN DIFLUORIDE

The importance of the heat of formation of oxygen difluoride is based on several factors. The compound provides a mixed oxygen-fluorine oxidizer which is readily liquified, and which is less reactive than fluorine (higher activation energy). It provides a reference value for the O-F bond energy, useful for estimating energy potentialities of more complex propellants containing O-F linkages. A relevant bond energy can be derived most nearly unambiguously from $F_{\rm O}$ 0.

Complications make a difficult problem of the determination of the heat of formation. Although the heat of formation is small, no study has been reported which is based on a reaction liberating only a small amount of heat. No direct combination of the elements has been carried out. The reaction energies of F_2O and of the separate elements F_2 and O_2 with hydrogen are large, leading to a loss of accuracy in taking the difference. The corrosive character of HF, found among the products, leads to difficulties of checking the stoichiometry of the reaction and also results in extra energy from corrosion. Reactions with reducing solutions may lead to multiple products for which the problems of stoichiometry and of determining the amount of each reaction become difficult. The reaction of a polyvalent element would be expected to lead to complex products, such as a mixture of the oxide, the fluoride and the oxyfluoride.

In Table I are three reactions studied some years ago by Ruff and Menzel [1]. When treated together, $\Delta H_f[F_2O(g)] = -\Delta H(a) + \Delta H(b) + \Delta H(c) = +4.7 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$. Our recalculation from equation (a) alone leads to $\Delta H_f[F_2O(g)] = -1.1 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$.

TABLE I. F20(g) HEAT OF FORMATION

Measurements of Ruff and Menzel [1].

- (a) $OF_2(g) + 2H_2(g) + 2NaOH$ (excess aq. 20%) = 2NaF (in aq. NaOH) + $3H_2O(l)$ $\Delta H = -254.9$ kcal mol⁻¹ $\sigma = 0.6$ kcal mol⁻¹
- (b) $1/2 O_2(g) + H_2(g) = H_2O(\ell)$ $\Delta H = -68.5 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ $\sigma = 0.1 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$
- (c) $F_2 + H_2 + 2NaOH$ (excess aq. 20%) = 2NaF (in aq. NaOH) + $2H_2O(\ell)$ $\Delta H = -181.7$ kcal mol⁻¹ $\sigma = 1.15$ kcal mol⁻¹

In Table II are shown three reactions studied by Wartenberg and Klinkott [2]. When Evans, et al. [3] recalculated $\Delta H_{\bullet}^{\bullet}[F_{\bullet}0(g)]$ using auxiliary data current at the time, they found 47.1, 46.0, and 49.7 kcal mol⁻¹, respectively, from equations (a), (b) and (c). More recently Evans [4] recalculated the same values, using auxiliary data prepared for NBS Technical Note 270-1 [5] et seq. and found 46.9, 41.4, and 48.8 kcal mol⁻¹, respectively.

TABLE II. F₂O(g) HEAT OF FORMATION

Measurements of Wartenberg and Klinkott [2].

- (a) $F_2O(g) + 2KOH$ (in excess KOH aq. 40%) = $[2KF + H_2O]$ (in aq. KOH) + $O_2(g)$ $\Delta H_{291}^2 = -125.75$ kcal mol⁻¹ $\sigma = 0.75$ kcal mol⁻¹
- (b) $F_2O(g)+[6KI+2HF]$ (in excess aq. sol'n) = $[4KF+2KI_3+H_2O]$ (in aq.KI HF sol'n) $\Delta H_{291}^o = -176.55 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ $\sigma = 0.82 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$
- (c) $F_2O(g) + 4HBr$ (in excess HBr aq. 45%) = [2HF + 4Br₂] (in aq. HBr) $\Delta H_{291}^o = -134.36 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ $\sigma = 0.51 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$

The experiments of Ruff and Menzel, and of Wartenberg and Klinkott were done many years ago, at a time when techniques for handling and analyzing fluorine compounds were relatively little developed. Characterization of the reactions and description of the experiments were limited. They have been reworked until probably all the useful information that can be drawn from them has been obtained, still without reconciliation.

In a more recent study, Bisbee and Hamilton [6,7], measured the reaction of F_2O with H_2 in a bomb calorimeter. (Table III). The reported value, $\Delta H_{f298}[F_20(g)] = -4.4$ kcal mol⁻¹, is undoubtedly the best value available today for this substance. Nevertheless, certain objections can be raised to the work, which may not be trivial. The measurements were made in a stationary bomb, using a fairly massive internal container for $F_2O(g)$ which was ruptured to initiate reaction with H_2 . The reaction products consisted of H₂O and HF in a condensed phase, formed in the presence of excess ${\rm H}_2{\rm O}(\hat{t})$. The formation of a homogeneous HF (aq) phase was presumed. However, experience in reactions in which condensation occurs in a stationary bomb indicates that much of the condensation would occur on the walls and would form droplets of a solution quite different from the bulk solution. Mixing these two solutions would evolve heat in addition to that which was measured. The massive F_0 0 ampoule could also retain significant quantities of heat for an appreciable time and the complete equilibration of the heat distribution was not described. Both of these processes would appear to act in the same direction, causing the measured amount of heat to be less than could have been evolved if equilibrium had been achieved. If any error of these types exists in these experiments, a less negative heat of formation would be indicated for F_2 0 than was reported.

TABLE III. $F_2O(g)$ HEAT OF FORMATION

Measurements of W. R. Bisbee and J. V. Hamilton [6,7].

(a)
$$F_2O(g) + H_2 = H_2O(l) + 2HF(aq.\infty)$$

 $\Delta H_{298}^o = -222.93 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1} \pm 0.76 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$
 $\Delta H_{1298}^o[F_2O(g)] = -4.4 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1} \text{ (reported)}$

Without going into detail with respect to the other oxygen fluorides, we list a summary in Table IV of the best values available for the heats of formation of the known compounds of oxygen with fluorine.

TABLE IV. OXYGEN FLUORIDES, HEATS OF FORMATION

			$\Delta H_{ extbf{f}}$ kca	al mol-l
FO			41	[5 , 8]
F0 ₂			(>38)	[9]
F ₂ 0			-4.4	[6,7]
F ₂ 0 ₂	+4.73	\rightarrow	1 4.3	[5,10]
F ₂ 0 ₃	+6.24	-→	+ 3.8	[5,10]
F204			-	_

On the basis of the information given above, it appears that there is a substantial basis for doubt that the heat of formation of $F_2O(g)$ has been finally settled. However, pending the results of other work now under way (see section 6) little benefit would be expected to accrue from starting additional work.

2. CHLORINE FLUORIDES

In Table V are listed six reactions which have been used for calculating the heats of formation of chlorine mono- and trifluoride. These reactions have been reviewed by Evans, et al. [3], and by Stull, et al. [7], and it appears that all information that can be gleaned from them has been obtained. In view of the relative lack of attention to detail in most of the early work, no further resolution of the discrepancies that remain can be expected without additional work. About 1.5 kcal ambiguity exists in the dissociation energy of ClF as measured spectroscopically because of lack of information about the assignment of states to the product atoms. The heat of formation of CLF can be -11.9 or -13.5 kcal mol-1 depending on the choice. The less negative value is favored by direct calorimetric measurements of the combination of F2 and Cl2; however, these are suspect because of the possible concurrent formation of ClF3. The more negative value is more consistent with a variety of calculations relating ${
m ClF}$ to ${
m ClF}_3$ by means of the other reactions listed. For ClF3 values range from -37.5 to -40.5 kcal mol-1 based on combinations of references [12], [14], and [16]. However, a discordant value for the heat of reaction (a) by Wartenberg and Riteris prevents full agreement, and would lead to a value of about -26.5 kcal mol-1. Additional evidence is sketchy and includes reports of measurements made at Harshaw Chemical Company and Rocketdyne, Inc., both undocumented by reported literature, which tend to support the less negative value for $ClF_3(g)$.

TABLE V. CLF AND CLF $_3$ HEATS OF FORMATION

kcal mol⁻¹

(a)
$$ClF_3(g) + 3NaCl(e) = 3NaF(e) + 2Cl_2(g)$$
 $\Delta H_{180}^{\circ} = -86.6 \pm 0.3$ [11]

 $\Delta H_{180}^{\circ} = -76.5$ [12]

(b) $ClF(g) + NaCl(e) = NaF(e) + Cl_2(g)$ $\Delta H_{180}^{\circ} = -24.5 \pm 0.1$ [12]

(c) $ClF_3(g) = ClF(g) + F_2(g)$ $\Delta H^{\circ} = 24.5$ [11,13]

 $\Delta H^{\circ} = 24.6$ [14,3]

(d) $ClF = Cl + F$ $\Delta H_{\circ}^{\circ} = 58.96$ or 60.35

[12,5,6,16]

(e) $\frac{1}{2}Cl_2(g) + \frac{1}{2}F_2(g) = ClF(g)$ $\Delta H = -11.6 \pm 0.4$ [13]

(f) $\frac{1}{2}F_2(g) + NaCl(e) = \frac{1}{2}Cl_2(g) + NaF(e)$ $\Delta H = -39.5$ [12]

 -39.3 [17]

3. TETRAFLUOROHYDRAZINE

A single study [18] has been reported of the heat of formation of $N_2F_4(g)$, leading to a heat of formation of -2.0 ± 2.5 kcal mol⁻¹. The study was made very soon after the discovery of N_2F_4 , and the quantity and the purity of the available sample were not adequate for a high precision study. The corrections for impurities were large, though based upon a detailed analysis of the sample. A study of a pure sample would be warranted.

4. CARBONYL FLUORIDE

While not an oxidizer, carbonyl fluoride seems more relevant at this point than later in the program. One calorimetric determination [19] has been reported of the heat of formation of $\mathrm{COF}_2(g)$. Two studies [20,21] are available of equilibrium in the reaction involving CO_2 , CF_4 and COF_2 which can be used for calculating the heat of formation. The equations and calculated values are summarized in Table VIII. The calculations based on observed equilibria lead to values more negative by 3 to 5 kcal mol^{-1} than the calorimetric determination. The equilibria indicate that a large fraction of product gases may consist of COF_2 under conditions when an organic compound is burned in an oxidizer containing both oxygen and fluorine. It is therefore of importance comparable to CF_4 and CO_2 in such combustions. A more careful calorimetric study than that reported by Wartenberg [19] seems to be justified.

TABLE VIII. COF, HEAT OF FORMATION

^{*} Calculated from recent thermodynamic data. See heat of formation of CF₄ reported by Armstrong in another section.

6. NEW WORK ON OXYGEN DIFLUORIDE (with R. C. King)

A study at NBS on the heat of formation of F_20 using a flame calorimeter has reached the stage at which some preliminary information can be given. In Table X are listed reactions which will be carried out in determining the heat of formation. The combustion in the calorimeter leads to a condensed and gaseous phase mixture of H_20 and HF, equation (1), which are mixed, still in the calorimeter, with excess H_20 , equation (2), forming a homogeneous single phase system. The overall reaction occurring in the calorimeter is equation (3). A reaction vessel designed for carrying out this reaction is shown schematically in Figure 1. The burner detail and gas dispersion system are given in Figure 2.

TABLE X. REACTIONS LEADING TO THE HEAT OF FORMATION OF of_2

$$0.06 \text{ OF}_{2}(g) + 0.12 \text{ H}_{2}(g) = [0.12 \text{ HF } \times 0.06 \text{ H}_{2}0](g+l)$$
 (1)

$$[0.12 \text{ HF } \times 0.06 \text{ H}_20](g+\ell) + 5.55 \text{ H}_20(\ell) = [0.12 \text{ HF } \times 5.61 \text{ H}_20](\ell)$$
 (2)

0.06 OF₂(g) + 0.12 H₂(g) + 5.55 H₂O(
$$\ell$$
) = [0.12 HF x 5.61 H₂O](ℓ) (3)

The study has reached the stage in which the stoichiometry of the reaction is under reasonably good control. Table XI shows the tests which have been made of recovery of HF in the resulting aqueous solution. The collection shows a gradual improvement until a sudden drop-off occurs in the last two experiments. The factor causing this change is still under investigation. Table XII shows the reproducibility of the resistance change per unit mass for these same preliminary experiments. Aside from the first experiment, which probably suffered from a conditioning process, the reproducibility has been within 0.01 per cent until a slight drop-off occurs in the two final experiments. This last observation may be related to the low HF collection observed for these two experiments.

The same general process is suitable for the study of CLF3 and for other gaseous fluorine compounds.

TABLE XI. EARLY TESTS OF THE STOICHIOMETRY OF THE REACTION OF OF WITH H

Experiment	Mass of OF ₂	HF(obs)/HF(calc)
No.	g	ratio
<u>1</u> 2	3.5496 2.90 8 0	0.992 88 .99710
3	3.4370	•99633
4	3.5261	.99836
5 6	3.0869	1.00093
7	3.4556 3.4512	0.99714 .99469

TABLE XII. REPRODUCIBILITY OF CALORIMETRY OF OF 2-H2 REACTION

	ms	$\Delta ext{Re}$	$\Delta Rc/m_s$
	g	ohm	$ohm g^{-1}$
1	3.5496	0.291760	0.0821951
2	2.9080	•235144	.0808611
3	3.4370	.277914	.0808595
4	3.0869	.249608	.0808604
5	3.5261	.285151	.0808687
6*	3.4556	.279298	.0808247
7*	3.4512	.278765	.0807733

^{* 1.8709} g neoprene added to burner.

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Chapter 16

A REVIEW OF THE HEAT OF FORMATION OF TETRAFLUOROMETHANE

George T. Armstrong

Introduction

The first attempts to measure the heat of formation of CF_A, by von Wartenberg and Schuette (1933) [1] and by von Wartenberg (1949) [2], involved different processes, and showed such a wide disparity that interest in the problem was aroused. The method used by von Wartenberg and Schuette, the combination of the elements, was the most direct, but the value, -162 ½2 kcal mol-1 which they obtained was criticized by Ruff and Bretschneider [3] because of the simultaneous formation of unknown amounts of higher fluorocarbon homologs. Ruff and Bretschneider suggested a revision to -183.5 kcal mol-1, a change which was far too little as evidenced by later measurements.

The measurement by von Wartenberg [2] was on the reaction of CF_{Δ} with potassium, for which he found $\Delta H_{T} = -307 \pm 3$ kcal mol-1, and from which he calculated $\Delta H_{f}[CF_{\Delta}(g)] = -23$ kcal mol-1. This was so different from the preceding value that over a period of years numerous investigations [4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,14,15,16,17] were carried out and in addition efforts were made to adduce information from other sources. The reactions carried out in the above work are summarized in Table 1, and they will be discussed below.

For the purposes of this discussion, the reactions involving CF₄ in Table 1 may be divided into two groups, those for which a calculation of $\Delta H_f[CF_{4}(g)]$ involves the heat of formation of gaseous or aqueous HF, and those for which the calculation is independent of HF. Because of current uncertainty about the heat of formation of HF, we first examine those reactions that do not involve HF, and then examine the consistency of the remainder with respect to the heat of formation of HF.

The combustion of graphite in fluorine. In addition to the work of von Wartenberg and Schuette [1], previously mentioned, this reaction (equation 1, Table 1) has been reported from only one other study, by Domalski and Armstrong [5,6]. The reaction as carried out by von Wartenberg and Schuette suffered from the failure to obtain a good analysis of the product gases, which probably contained substantial amounts of higher fluorocarbons. In addition, the residual ash (containing some CaF₂) also contained unspecified amounts of unburned material which von Wartenberg and Schuette presumed to be carbon. The large discrepancy of this series of experiments, together with the incomplete characterization of the products cause us to believe that the work of von Wartenberg and Schuette should no longer be considered except for its historical interest.

The work of Domalski and Armstrong [5,6] on graphite led to a value of -222.87 ± 0.38 kcal mol⁻¹ for the heat of formation of CF₄(g). The combustion was performed in a high pressure of fluorine and was promoted by Teflon powder admixed with the graphite. The reaction was carried out on a well characterized sample, combustion was nearly complete, and the reaction products were carefully analyzed. We believe that all relevant factors were considered in this work, and consider that it offers the best value available today for $\Delta H_f[CF_4(g)]$. This value will be used as a basis for discussion of the other work in Table 1.

Reactions of polytetrafluoroethylene (Teflon).

Scott, Good and Waddington [10] reported burning C_2F_4 (solid polymer) in oxygen in a series of conditions which were extrapolated at one limit to the condition of no HF(aq) in the products (Equation 4a). Domalski and Armstrong [5,6] reported the heat of combustion of polytetrafluoroethylene in fluorine (Equation 6a), as -247.85 kcal mol⁻¹, and have previously [13] reported a slightly less reliable value, -247.43 kcal mol⁻¹. The more recent work is supported by additional unpublished work of Dr. K. L. Churney in this laboratory, in which the heat of combustion was found to be -247.89 kcal mol⁻¹.

Equation (6c) is obtained by combining Equations (4a) and (6a), and involves only the heat of formation of $CO_2(g)$. For reaction (6a) we find ΔH = (preferably) -129.05, or -128.63 kcal mol⁻¹. These values, combined with the heat of formation of CO2(g), which we take from Wagman, et al. [24] to be -94.051 kcal mol⁻¹, give $\Delta H_f[CF_L(g)] =$ (preferably) -223.10, or -222.68 kcal mol-1. The two values differ by not more than 0.23 kcal mol⁻¹ from the value found by combustion of graphite in florine, and bracket it. As far as we can discern, the latter method of calculation gives values of $\Delta H_f[CF_L(g)]$ which are independent of the heat of formation found in the graphite combustion. However, because reaction (1) and reaction (6a) were carried out using similar techniques, it is possible that a systematic error common to them both could cause them both to be in error in the same direction. In addition, because C_2F_4 (solid polymer) was used as a combustion aid in the combustion of graphite, the value used for the heat of combustion of C2F4 affects the value found for the combustion of graphite. It is not apparent to us, however, what, if any, dependence between the values can be attributed to these experimental prodecures.

The values reported in the preceeding paragraphs for $\Delta H_f[CF_{\perp}(g)]$ differ from the value -221.77 kcal mol⁻¹ calculated by Domalski and Armstrong [13] by another treatment of the same reactions, in that the earlier treatment [13] introduced the heat of formation of HF(aq) which we are here trying to avoid. A certain amount of inconsistency had thereby been introduced into the previous calculations.

Heat of formation of polytetrafluorethylene. The heat of formation of $CF_4(g)$ as derived from the work of ref. [5,6], when combined with the heat of reaction (6a) leads to $\Delta H_f[C_2F_4$ (solid polymer)] = (preferably) -197.89, or 198.29 kcal mol⁻¹. When it is combined with the heat of reaction (4a) it leads to $\Delta H_f[C_2F_4$ (solid polymer)] = -198.13 kcal mol⁻¹.

Relationships between the heats of formation of $CF_{\lambda}(g)$, NaF(c), and KF(c). Reactions involving CF_{λ} and NaF or KF were carried out by von Wartenberg [2,4], Kirkbride and Davidson [16], and Vorob'ev and Skuratov [17], and are listed as reactions (8) and (9). The heat of formation of $CF_{\lambda}(g)$ can thus be calculated if the heats of formation of NaF(c) or KF(c) are known.

While the heat of formation of NaF has been most commonly determined by reference to reactions involving hydrofluoric acid, as was done by Vorob'ev and Skuratov [17], or as is illustrated in the JANAF Thermochemical Tables [25], there are available heat measurements on two reactions not involving HF which lead to the heat of formation of sodium fluoride. These are listed as reactions (10a) and (10b) of Table 1.

The measurements of von Wartenberg and Fitzner [18] and of Schmitz and Schumaker [19] on reaction (10a) are in good agreement with each other and require only the heat of formation of NaCl (c) to permit calculation of the heat of formation of NaF(c). Using $\Delta H_f[NaCl(c)] = -98.232 \, \text{kcal mol}^{-1}$ [26], we obtain for $\Delta H_f[NaF(c)]$, -137.5 kcal mol-1 from the work of von Wartenberg and Fitzner, and -137.7 kcal mol-1 from the work of Schmitz and Schumaker. Applying these results to equation (9), for which the reaction heat was measured by Vorob'ev and Skuratov [17], we calculate $\Delta H_f[CF_{\ell}(g)] = -224.5 \, \text{and} \, -225.3 \, \text{kcal mol}^{-1}$, respectively. The average of these is more negative by about 2 kcal mol-1 than the value reported by Domalski and Armstrong[5,6].

We see some possible uncertainties in the processes involved in this calculation. Some ClF may have formed in the reaction of NaCl with fluorine. If so observed heat is excessively exothermic for reaction (9). The calculated heats of formation of NaF(c) and CF4(g) would be less negative if an adjustment were required for formation of ClF.

The carbonaceous reaction product of sodium with CF_{λ} in the work of Vorob'ev and Skuratov [17] was identified by x-ray analysis as β -graphite, and no correction was applied for its heat of formation. Such an identification can be made even when only a fraction of the material is actually crystalline. In a similar study by von Wartenberg [2, μ] the carbon was tested by combustion and x-ray and in that work, also, no correction was applied for the heat of formation of the product.

However, in other similar studies by Kirkbride and Davidson [16] a correction of 2.5 kcal mol⁻¹ was made for the heat of formation of the carbon formed. In a study by Neugebauer and Margrave [9] in which finely divided carbon (soot) was formed in other reactions (reactions (3a) and (3b)), they measured the heat of combustion of the soot and determined its heat of formation to be 1.5 or 1.9 kcal mol⁻¹. In the early combustion study by von Wartenberg [1], as previously noted, his starting material was active charcoal (Norite). For this he applied a heat of formation of 2.4 kcal mol⁻¹, based on a measurement of its heat of combustion.

Evidence that the carbon obtained by Vorob'ev and Skuratov[17] was actually an active form, is found in their statement that they observed an exothermic post-reaction process, which they attributed to absorption of CF, by the carbon. They did not include this heat in their measurement or make any correction based on it. In a later similar experiment involving Na(c) and C₂F₁(g), Kolesov, Zenkov, and Skuratov [27] found amorphous carbon among the products. They measured its heat of conbustion from which they concluded that it had a heat of formation of 3.95 kcal mol - .

Thus, while no firm information is available as to the heat of formation of the carbon formed in the experiments of Vorob'ev and Skuratov, the preponderance of findings of other experimenters suggests that its heat of formation could have been from 1.5 to 4 kcal mol⁻¹. If the reaction heat they reported is adjusted for this positive heat of formation, the standard heat of reaction to form graphite is more negative, and the heat of formation calculated for $CF_4(g)$ is more positive. Values of $\Delta H_f[CF_4(g)]$ ranging from -220.5 to -223.8 kcal mol⁻¹ can be calculated. These values bracket the value of Domalski and Armstrong [5,6].

Not much additional information can be derived from reaction (10b) because of the uncertainty of the heat of formation of ClF(g). $\Delta H_f[ClF(g)]$ (see the JANAF tables [25] for a discussion) was found (a) by direct reaction of the elements to be-l1.6 or -l1.7 kcal mol⁻¹ (Wicke [22]; Wicke and Friz [23]) (b) by comparison of the heats of reaction of ClF and F_2 with NaCl(c) (Schmitz and Schumaker [19]) to be -l5.0 kcal mol⁻¹, and (c) by dissociation energy measurements (Schmitz and Schumaker [20], Wahrhaftig [21], see also Stricker [28]) to be -l2.14 or -l3.51 kcal mol⁻¹ depending on the state of the products. These values can be combined with the known heat of formation of NaCl(c) (-98.232 kcal mol⁻¹ [26]) and the heat of reaction (10b) to give the heat of formation of NaF(c). Values obtained in this way for $\Delta H_f[NaF(c)]$ range from -l37.7 kcal mol⁻¹, consistent

with the previous discussion, to -134.3 kcal mol^{-1} , Application of these values to reaction (9) leads to values for $\Delta\mathrm{H}_{f}[\mathrm{CF}_{4}(g)]$ ranging from -225.3 kcal mol^{-1} to -212.8 kcal mol^{-1} . Thus, again, the most negative value tenable for the heat of formation of CF₄ on the basis of the work of Vorob'ev and Skuratov [17] without reference to HF is -225.3 kcal mol^{-1} , and as before such values are subject to revision in the positive direction if the carbon resulting from reaction (9) had a positive heat of formation.

We have not found a reaction scheme by which the heat of formation of KF(c) can be obtained without reference to HF. On this account, reaction (8) cannot be given the same treatment as reaction (9). However, if we presume that the heats of formation of NaF(c) and KF(c) bear the proper relationship to one another in NBS Circular 500 [26], $(\Delta H_f[NaF(c)] - \Delta H_f[KF(c)] = -136.0 + 134.46 = 1.54 \, \text{kcal mol}^{-1})$ the most negative value attributable to $\Delta H_f[KF(c)]$ would be -136.16 kcal mol $^{-1}$ on the basis of the previous discussion of NaF(c). If we apply this information to reaction (8) we find $\Delta H_f[CF_{L}(g)] \geq -224.6 \, \text{kcal mol}^{-1}$. Here we must bear in mind, however, that Kirkbride and Davidson [16] applied an arbitrary correction for the heat of formation of carbon, of 2.5 kcal mol $^{-1}$, which may be too large by 1.0 kcal mol $^{-1}$ or two small by 1.5 kcal mol $^{-1}$ on the basis of reported measurements of the heat of formation of amorphous carbon found in other laboratories.

It is evident that failures of Kirkbride and Davidson [16] and of Vorob'ev and Skuratov [17] to measure the heat of combustion of the carbon which was formed in their experiments has reduced the ultimate usefulness of their measurements on ${\rm CF_4}$, because there seems now to be no way to relate their measurements clearly to a well defined standard state of carbon.

Summary of the work on ΔH_f [CF] without reference to ΔH_f [HF].

In summary, the values for the heat of formation of CF₄ as calculated from the reaction of graphite with fluorine, and from the reactions of Teflon with fluorine and oxygen are in good agreement, and indicate $\Delta H_f[CF_4(g)] = -222.87 \pm 0.38$. The values which can be derived from other reactions not involving HF are consistent with them, but allow a range of values which bracket them in every instance.

Relationship of $\Delta H_{f}[CF_{4}(g)]$ to $\Delta H_{f}[HF(aq)]$.

Reactions (2), (3a,b,c,d,e), (4a,b,c), (5a,b,c) involve both CF_{\(\(\)}(g)) and HF (aq) or HF(g) directly. In addition reactions (8) and (9) involve hydrofluoric acid indirectly if one derives the heats of formation of the alkali fluorides from cycles involving HF(aq). In this section we infer as much information as we can about the heat of formation of HF by application of the proposed heat of formation of CF_{\(\)}. The work of Jessup, McCoskey, and Nelson [7] on the gas phase combustion of CH_{\(\)} in fluorine, is the only study listed here which involves HF(g). Its limited accuracy is indicated by the large uncertainty (2% or 9 kcal mol⁻¹) attributed to it by the authors. Applying $\Delta H_f[CF_{(g)}] = -222.87$ and $\Delta H_f[CH_{(g)}] = -17.889$ kcal mol⁻¹, we find $\Delta H_f[HF(g)] = -63.6$ kcal mol⁻¹, about one kcal mol⁻¹ less negative than any currently acceptable value. At this time we can find no justification for its validity.

Reactions (3a) and (3c), the decomposition of tetrafluorcethylene gas into tetrafluoromethane and carbon, and the reduction of tetrafluoroethylene gas to hydrogen fluoride and carbon, were carried out by Duus [8] in a bomb calorimeter. Several experimental difficulties encountered by Duus were remedied in a study of similar reactions (3a and 3b) by Neugebauer and Margrave [9]. Neugebauer and Margrave measured the heat of formation of the carbon produced in each experiment, while Duus did not. A significant heat of formation was found. In the reduction of tetrafluoroethylene by hydrogen, Neugebauer and Margrave caused the hydrogen fluoride product to be dissolved in water, and thus overcame the problem, encountered by , of large and uncertain corrections for the amount of HF present as gas. Because of these differences we consider only the experiments of Neugebauer and Margrave. Reactions (3a) and (3b) can be combined to eliminate C_2F_4 which was common to both. For the resulting reaction, (3d), the work of Neugebauer and Margrave [9] gives $\Delta H_T = 85.4 \pm 1.5$ kcal mol-1. Applying $\Delta H_f[CF_4(g)] = -222.87 \pm 0.38$ kcal mol-1, to this reaction leads to $\Delta H_f[HF \cdot 1815H_20]$ $= -77.07 \pm 0.4 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$.

The work of Good, Scott, and Waddington [10,11] on the combustion of polytetrafluoroethylene was extrapolated to the condition of no CF₄(g) on the one extreme and the condition of no HF(aq) on the other extreme, and led them to reactions (4a) and (4b). Elimination of polytetrafluoroethylene from these reactions by subtraction led to reaction (4c) for which their measurements give $\Delta H_r = 41.5 \pm 1.0$ kcal mol⁻¹. Applying the values $\Delta H_f[H_2O(1)] = -68.317$, $\Delta H_f[CO_2(g)] = -94.05$, and $\Delta H_f[CF_4(g)] = -222.87 \pm 0.38$ kcal mol⁻¹ we calculate $\Delta H_f[HF \cdot 10H_2O] = -76.74 \pm 0.35$ kcal mol⁻¹.

Cox, Gundry, and Head [12] measured the heat of combustion of docosefluorobicyclohexylinoxygen, under a similar range of conditions to that used by Good, Scott and Waddington on polytetrafluoroethylene. Their limits of extrapolation led them to reactions (5a) and (5b), from which reaction (5c) is obtained by difference. For reaction (5c) they obtained $\Delta H_r = 41.38 \pm 0.32$ kcal mol⁻¹. Applying the same auxiliary data as above we calculate $\Delta H_f[HF \cdot 20H_20] = -76.71 \pm 0.2$ kcal mol⁻¹.

The values found above for the heats of formation of aqueous HF of three concentrations are shown in Table 2 in the column headed A. For comparison in columns B and C are values for the same concentrations of HF, calculated from two recent tabulations. The work of Cox and Harrop [29] (Column B) is based on a new determination of the heat of solution of HF combined with the value $\Delta H_f[HF(g)] = -64.92$ kcal mol⁻¹. The survey by Wagman et al. [24] is based on older work, but uses $\Delta H_f[HF(g)] = -64.8$ kcal mol⁻¹.

The first point to be noted is that columns A, B, and C are each internally self consistent and show differences from one another that are constant at least within the uncertainties of the three measurements upon which Column A is based. The second point to be noted is that a difference of Column A from the work of Cox and Harrop requires 0.4 to 0.7 kcal less negative heat of formation for the HF solutions than they arrived at. The difference from Column C requires heat of formation of HF (aq) more negative by 0.4 to 0.7 kcal mol⁻¹ than Wagman, et al. [24] proposed.

We propose several possibilities for the sources of the discrepancy and will examine them briefly, but not exhaustively.

(1) The heat of formation reported by Domalski and Armstrong [5,6] may be in error. To place the calculated results on HF in concordance with that of Cox and Harrop [29] would require that the heat of formation of $CF_{\lambda}(g)$ be more negative by 1.6 to 2.8 kcal mol⁻¹, $\Delta H_f = -224.5$ to -225.7 kcal mol⁻¹. These values are similar to those suggested by Cox, Gundry, and Head [12] as a result of applying the work of Cox and Harrop [29] to the same experiments. An error this large in the work of Domalski and Armstrong is hard to visualize in view of the internal consistency of their work. To put the calculated results on HF into concordance with those of Wagman, et al. [24] requires similarly large changes, bringing ΔH_f for CF_{λ} to -220.1 to -221.3 kcal mol⁻¹. The large error is no easier to justify in this case.

Turning to the tabulations of heats of formation of HF(aq), Columns B and C, we find, first of all, that the tabulation of Wagman, et al. [24] is based upon such an elaborate appraisal of many processes, that we are not prepared to indicate which key data would affect the tabulation in the direction of conformity with Column A. A reappraisal of the whole array of data would be necessary. The calorimetric work of Cox and Harrop [29] seems to have no possible source of an error as large as we are looking for. We must then turn to the non-calorimetric and auxiliary information used by Cox and Harrop, if we wish to account for the discrepancy.

- (2) A poor value for the heat of formation of HF(g) may have been used by Cox and Harrop [29]. To bring their data into agreement with Column A would require that ΔH_f for HF(g) be taken as -64.3 to -64.6 kcal mol⁻¹. Such values are quite conceivable, as several experimental determinations of this quantity fall in the range given.
- (3) An error may be present in the heat of vaporization of HF(g) from LiHF₂(c) as found by Cox and Harrop [29]. Their determination consisted of a measurement of the vapor pressure of HF(g) over LiHF₂(c), from which they calculated $\Delta G_{298} = -RTlnP = 3.553 \pm 0.044$ kcal molfor reaction (a).

$$LiHF_2(c) = LiF(c) + HF(g)$$
 (a)

They calculated ΔH_{298} for reaction (a) from the formula ΔH_{298} = ΔG_{298} + $T\Delta S_{298}$. They took values of (S_{298} - S_o°) from low temperature calculation studies of LiF(c) and LiHF₂(c) and a statistical thermodynamic calculation for HF(g) with which no significant fault has been found. They added the value ΔH_{298}° = 13.410 ± 0.048 kcal mol⁻¹, which they thus found for reaction (a), to several calorimetrically determined heats of solution and dilution in order to obtain for reaction (b), ΔH_{298}° = 13.172 ± 0.068 kcal mol⁻¹.

$$HF(aq,6017 H_20) = HF(g)$$
 (b)

Combining this with $\Delta H_f^{\circ}_{298}[HF(g)] = -64.92$ kcal mol⁻¹, they obtained $\Delta H_f^{\circ}_{298}[HF \cdot 6017H_20] = -78.09$ kcal mol⁻¹, from which their other solution data were derived.

Two features of this experiment and calculation may be pointed out as sources of possible difficulty.

Possible non-standard state of LiF in reaction (a). Because HF vaporizing from LiHF2 will come from within the lattice a porous structure is formed when this process occurs. If the resulting solid has a high free energy relative to the bulk crystal, the free energy change of vaporization will be greater than for the process leaving LiF in the standard state. The vapor pressure in this case would be

lower than the equilibrium vapor pressure. Some evidence for a behavior of this type is found in the preparation of active NaF by removal of HF from NaHF2, which is known to produce a solid that absorbs HF more readily than bulk NaF.

The necessary reduction of the vapor pressure, however is improbably large, approximately a factor of two in pressure being necessary to account for the observed energy error. It appears very unlikely that such a far departure from a well defined equilibrium could occur.

Possible zero point entropy of LiHF (c). If crystalline LiHF has an entropy equal to Rln2 at the absolute zero, a contribution of -1.377 cal \deg^{-1} mol $^{-1}$ would be added to ΔS_{208} for reaction (a), or a contribution of about -0.4 kcal mol $^{-1}$ to ΔH_{298} . This would remove the major part of the discrepancy between Columns A and B of Table 2.

We may presume that as a simple substance in a cubic lattice LiF will have $S_o^o = 0$, and that for ideal-gas HF, $S_o^o = 0$. However, in LiHF $_2(c)$ we find a much more complicated structure. In particular the possibility of two equivalent positions for the hydrogen atom in the HF $_2$ ion should be considered. Two such equivalent positions would exist if there were a double minimum in the potential between the two fluorine atoms. This is a question which is susceptible to unambiguous determination but requires very careful experimentation.

The question of a double minimum in the bifluoride ion, analogous to the double minimum in the potential between oxygen atoms in a hydrogen bonded substance has been repeatedly examined by Westrum and his co-workers [32-37] and by others [38-61]. Little, if any, positive evidence has been found: yet the continuing work indicates lingering doubts about the precise conditions under which the unsymmetrically located proton will occur. In particular, little evidence referring specifically to LiHF2 has been presented except the crystal structure [56], which gives the F-F bond distance, and a heat capacity and vapor pressure study by Westrum and Burney [35]. Unfortunately, the calorimetric and vapor pressure measurements by Westrum and Burney, which could give decisive information on this point, are not complete. The heat capacity measurements do not extend into the region of the vapor pressure measurements.

A more detailed review of the background and present status of the problem of the double minimum, and its application as a possible source of error in the thermodynamic analysis by Cox and Harrop is inappropriate here. Such a review is given in the appendix. Evidence concerning a possible residual entropy in LiHF 2(c).

Thermochemical evidence. Perhaps the strongest piece of directly relevant evidence that a residual entropy exists is, as shown in the main text, the discrepancy between the heat of formation of HF(aq) calculated by Cox and Harrop [29] and that found by applying the heat of formation of CF₂(g) given by Domalski and Armstrong [5,6] to several thermochemical processes involving CF₂(g) and HF(aq). This is not decisive, because the discrepancy can be attributed to another source, an error in the heat of formation selected by Cox and Harrop [29] for $\Delta H_{F}[HF(g)]$. A thermochemical study of LiHF₂ by Westrum and Burney [35] gives an incomplete cycle. Data presently exist for the vapor pressure of HF(g) in reaction (a)

$$LiHF_2(c) = LiF(c) + HF(g)$$
 (a)

and for the heat capacity of LiF(c). But the low temperature heat capacity measurements of LiHF₂(c) [35] stop short of the range in which pressure measurements were made. Only an isolated vapor pressure point in the range of the heat capacity measurements exists, and this was ued by Cox and Harrop [29] in their calculation. The constancy of ΔH°_{0} or ΔH°_{298} for reaction (a) in a third law analysis of the vapor pressure data would provide a sensitive enough test to indicate absence of a residual entropy of magnitude Rln2.

2. Structural evidence. The crystal structure of LiHF2(c) was determined by Frevel and Rinn [56]. They found the F-F distance to be 2.27A°, in good agreement with, but slightly greater than, the value of 2.26A° in KHF2(c) (Helmholtz and Rogers [62]).

A short hydrogen bond length is taken to be a sensitive criterion of a symmetrical position of the proton. In crystalline HF, $R_{\rm F}$ is 2.49A°, as found by Atoji and Lipscomb [61], and in that structure the proton is assymmetric. In the H $_2$ F ion as found in NaH $_2$ F (c) and KH $_2$ F (c) Minc, Trontelj, and Volávsek [59] find by NMR analysis, that the protons are not placed equally distant from the F atoms, but are displaced about 0.10A° toward the outer F atoms. In these salts $R_{\rm F}$ was found to be 2.33A° by Forrester, Senter, Zalhim , and Templeton [63]. In the HF $_2$ ion, as measured in NaHF (c) and NaDF (c), and in KHF (c), the evidence presented by Peterson and Levy [48] indicates that the proton must be within 0.1 A° of the center, and Ibers [57] states (with an unspecified uncertainty) that the proton is symmetrically located. The neutron diffraction data alone is inadequate to distinguish an unsymmetric location of the proton displaced as much as 0.16A°, but combination of the neutron diffraction data with spectroscopic data reduces this lower limit to a smaller value.

Thers [57] found $R_{T} = 2.277 \pm 0.006 A^{\circ}$ in KHF (c). In NaHF (c), Megaw and Ibers [58] found $R_{T} = 2.269$, and in NH, HF (c) McDonald [64] found $R_{T-T} = 2.269$ to 2.275° A°. Godycki, Rundfe, Voter, and Banks [52], in speculating about a possible symmetrical O-H-O hydrogen bond in dimethylglyoxime, discuss the distance between oxygen atoms or between fluorine atoms a avalid criterion of the existence of a double or a single minimum in the potential. Referring to the work of Donahue [65], and Pauling [53], they mention the prediction of an R_{T-T} of 2.24A° for a symmetrical (single minimum) configuration. The observed bond lengths are only slightly greater than this.

The structural evidence removes all but limited possibilities for an unsymmetrical location of the hydrogen atom in any of the bifluorides thus far examined. This work has been discussed by Pauling [41].

All the above studies were made at temperature far above the absolute zero. It is improbable that any assymmetry would appear, on the average, until the crystal is cooled to a temperature near or below the kT corresponding to the height of any barrier between two minima. This may require cooling the crystal to very low temperatures.

3. Spectroscopic evidence. No attempt will be made here to make a critical review of the spectroscopic evidence concerning a potential hill centrally located between the fluorine atoms in the HF2 ion. No data specific to LiHF2(c) has been reported. However, Westrum and Pitzer [33] reviewed and commented on the infrared spectrum of KHF2. A principle problem in this case is the assignment of certain observed frequencies. There are certain unresolved ambiguities or difficulties; but the general picture of a single minimum seems to be more easily justified.

Newman and Badger [54] point out that the spectrum of KHF₂(c) is unique in the wealth of combination and overtone bands. In such a simple structure, they suggest that a detailed interpretation may ultimately be anticipated, but that a more satisfactory theory is necessary then now exists. Various other features of the spectrum were discussed by Buswell, Maycock and Rodebush [38], Glockler and Evans [39], Polder [43], Couture and Mathieu [45], Mathieu and Couture — Mathieu [46], Halverson [47], Ketelaar [40], and Ketelaar and Vedder [55].

Analogy to the thermochemistry of other bifluorides. Westrum and Pitzer [33] measured the heat capacities from low temperatures to above 500°K, of KF(c) and KHF2(c) and also measured the dissociation pressure of HF(g) over KHF2(c) in the range from 450 to 500°K. They state that on the basis of free energy functions calculated from their data a zero point entropy of KHF2(c) of Rln2 would lead to a calculated vapor pressure at variance with their observations. However, in the JANAF thermochemical tables [25] is noted a variation of ΔH°_{0} with temperatures when ΔH°_{0} is calculated from their vapor pressure data. We have calculated ΔH°_{0} from their vapor pressure data and free energy functions, and find no trend with temperature if we presume S°_{0} [LiHF2(c)] to be zero. If we presume S°_{0} [LiHF2(c)] to be Rln2, calculated values of ΔH°_{0} show a pronounced trend. Assuming $\Delta S^{\circ}_{0} = 0$, we calculate $\Delta H^{\circ}_{0} = 20.52$ kcal mol⁻¹. Applying thermal functions from Westrum and Pitzer, we calculate $\Delta H^{\circ}_{005} = 21.31$ hcalmol⁻¹. If we were to assume $\Delta S^{\circ}_{0} = -R \ln 2$, we would abtain $\Delta H^{\circ}_{005} = 21.31$ hcalmol⁻¹. This seems to rule out any but the most speculative possibilities that KHF2(c) has a residual entropy at 0° K.

Another interesting side of this question, however, is suggested by the results of some heat of solution measurements made by Westrum and Pitzer [33]. These measurements seem to have been largely overlooked, yet they bear a close relationship to the measurements of Cox and Harrop [29] on LiHF₂ and LiF. Westrum and Pitzer reported the enthalpy changes of reactions (1) and (2), below, but did not carry out sufficient measurements to close a thermodynamic cycle. They found $\Delta H(1) = -4.378$ and $\Delta H(2) = 10.946$ kcal mol⁻¹ at 32°C.

$$KF(c) + [0.6647KOH + 922.6H2O](l) = [KF + 0.6647 KOH + 922.6H2O](l)$$
 (1) (KOH in 1388 H₂O)

$$\text{KHF}_{2}(\mathbf{c},\alpha) + [2.323 \text{ KOH} + 1842\text{H}_{2}\text{O}] = [2\text{KF} + 1.323\text{KOH} 1843\text{H}_{2}\text{O}](\ell)$$
 (2) (KOH in 793H₂O)

$$KF(\mathbf{c}) = KF(\mathbf{a}_0, \mathbf{w}) \tag{1a}$$

$$KHF_2(e, \alpha) + KOH (aq, \infty) = KF(aq, \infty) + H_2O$$
 (2a)

$$HF (aq, \infty) + KOH (aq, \infty) = KF(aq, \infty) + H2O(l)$$
(3)

$$KHF_2(\mathbf{c}, \alpha) = KF(\mathbf{c}) + HF(\mathbf{g}) \tag{4}$$

$$\operatorname{HF}(\operatorname{aq}, \infty) = \operatorname{HF}(\operatorname{g}) \tag{5}$$

$$HF(aq,6017 H20) = HF(aq, \omega) \tag{6}$$

$$HF(aq, 6017 H_20) = HF(g)$$
 (7)

By applying dilution data from NBS Circular 500 [26], to equation (1) we calculate, for the dilution of the final solution to one in which KF and KOH are present separate in infinite dilution, $\Delta H = -0.199$ kcal mol⁻¹. In this calculation we assume KOH and KF are separately present in solutions of the same ionic strength as the final solution of equation (1). We also calculate, for the dilution of the given initial amount of KOH(aq) to KOH(aq ∞), $\Delta H = -0.063$ kcal mol⁻¹. Adding these terms, each with the proper sign, to ΔH (1), we find ΔH (la) = -4.514 kcal mol⁻¹.

Similarly, by applying dilution data from NDD Circular 500 [26] to equation (2), we calculate, for the dilution of the final solution to one in which KOH and KF are separately present in infinite dilution, $\Delta H = -0.394$ kgal mol⁻¹, using the same ionic strength criterion as before. We calculate, for the dilution of the given initial amount of KOH(aq) to KOH(aq \wp), $\Delta H = -0.272$ kcal mol⁻¹. The amounts of heat involved in this hypothetical dilution of reaction (2) are roughly twice the magnitude of those involved in reaction (1) because approximately twice as much substance is involved. Adding these dilution terms, each with the proper sign, to $\Delta H(2)$ we find $\Delta H(2a) = -11.068$ kcal mol⁻¹.

The heat of neutralization of KOH(aq) and HF(aq) in infinite dilution (Reaction 3), is the heat of formation of water from its ions. For this we take Δ H(3) = -13.336 kcal mol⁻¹ from Vanderzee and Swenson [67]. Finally, for Δ H(4) we take +21.31 kcal mol⁻¹ from our recalculation of the work of Westrum and Pitzer [33]. Reactions (1a,2à,3 and 4) when added with proper regard for sign give Reaction (5', the heat of vaporization of HF(g) from HF(aq, ∞), for which we calculate Δ H(5) = 14.528 kcal mol⁻¹.

For the dilution of HF(aq, $6017H_2O$) to HF(aq, ∞) we find, from Wagman, et al. [24], $\Delta H(b) = -2.30$ kcal mol-1. Thus we find for reaction (7), $\Delta H(7) = 12.228$ kcal mol-1 by extension of the work of Westrum and Pitzer [33]. This may be compared with the value +13.172 kcal mol-1 reported by Cox and Harrop [29], and with 12.4 kcal mol-1 from Wagman, et al. [24].

The difference that is noted above of the work of Cox and Harrop [29] from that of Westrum and Pitzer [33] combined with other auxiliary data, is in the direction but somewhat larger than would be expected if LiHF2(c) had a zero point entropy and KHF2(c) had none. One must take this as only a suggestion, in view of the approximations applied by us to the measurements of Westrum and Pitzer. One should, for instance, note that the dilution of HF(aq, 6017H20) to HF(aq, ∞) requires 2.30 kcal mol $^{-1}$, which is largely based on a theoretical extrapolation. Such an extrapolation (which is necessary in order to apply the work of Vanderzee and Swenson [67]) may be viewed with some skepticism in the light of the cautious approach used by Vanderzee and Swenson.

Equilibrium studies involving the vapor pressure of HF(g) over NaHF₂(c) were made by Fischer [66], and by Froning, et al. [51]. The difference in the heats of vaporization reported in these two studies, indicates that a careful review of both pieces of work would be necessary to decide between them. Because we are not prepared to do this at present, no further inferences can be drawn, using their data.

The general conclusion of the inferences from other work is that little if any positive evidence for a residual zero point entropy of LiHF2(c) can be found. The evidence with regard to KHF2(c) seems to be firmly in favor $S^{\circ}[KHF_2(c)] = 0$. Despite the negative indications of the structural information, the possibility remains open that LiHF2(c) has a real zero point entropy, not equal to zero, on the basis of a disagreement in the value of the heat of vaporization of HF(g) from HF(aq) as measured in two different laboratories using cycles involving LiHF2(c) and KHF2(c) respectively. In addition, there remains the discrepancy between the heats of formation HF(aq) found by Cox and Harrop [29] and those calculated from several reactions involving CF4(g), using the heat of formation of CF4(g) determined by Domalski and Armstrong [5,6].

Notes to Table 1

- 1. a) The original authors made an adjustment of 2.4 kcal mol⁻¹ for the estimated heat of formation of the Norite (activated wood charcoal) they burned. They obtained -165.0 ±1.5 kcal mol⁻¹ for the combustion of Norite in fluorine. When adjusted by +2.4 kcal mol⁻¹ this gives -162.6 kcal mol⁻¹ which they apparently rounded to -162 kcal mol⁻¹, increasing the uncertainty to 2 kcal mol⁻¹.
 - b) This is an adjustment by Ruff and Bretschneider [3] of the work of von Wartenberg and Schuette [1], taking into account the formation of several percent of higher fluorocarbons in the combustion of Norite. The recalculation changes the original data far too little. A recalculation using a more current value for the fluorination of a C-C bond (1427 kcal mol-1, instead of 107 kcal mol-1 as was used by Ruff and Bretschneider) leads to $\Delta H_r = -190.5$ kcal mol-1. Hence it appears that the formation of other products would have to be greater than was suggested by Ruff and Bretschneider. The uncertainty in amount of products seems to preclude further consideration of the work of von Wartenberg and Schuette.
- 2. As a part of its uncertainty the work of Jessup, McCoskey and Nelson [7] contains an uncertain correction of 1.5 to 2.0 kcal mol⁻¹ (of CF₄) for nonideality of HF. This now appears to have been an excessive correction. In the extreme case, if this correction is reduced to zero, the heat of reaction becomes -461.2 kcal mol⁻¹. The large uncertainty assigned by the authors is apparently a 95 percent confidence limit.
- 3. a) The carbon formed in the reaction by Duus [8] was weakly crystalline. Duus made no adjustment to the heat for the physical state of the graphite. An adjustment of the magnitude made by Neugebauer and Margrave [9] would bring Duus' value to -63.3 kcal mol-1. Neugebauer and Margrave [9] measured the heat of reaction, with the formation amorphous carbon, to be -63.5 kcal mol-1, and measured the heat of formation of the amorphous carbon to be 1.9 kcal mol-1. We have combined their measurements to give the heat of decomposition to form graphite, -65.4 kcal mol-1.
 - b,c) Neugebauer and Margrave [9] measured the heat of hydrogenation of $C_2F_4(g)$, with the formation of HF(aq) and amorphous carbon, to be $-1\rlap/47.8$ kcal mol⁻¹, and measured the heat of formation of the amorphous carbon to be 3.0 kcal mol⁻¹. We have combined their measurements to give the heat of hydrogenation to form HF(aq) and graphite, $\Delta H = -150.8$ kcal mol⁻¹. Their reaction is definitely superior to reaction 3(c) as carried out by Duus, who was forced to make large corrections for the presence of HF(g), and did not

attempt any correction for the physical state of the carbon formed. Neither reaction 3(b) nor 3(c) can be used by themselves to calculate the heat of formation of CF_4 , but are included because they can be combined with other work done in the same laboratory to obtain a relationship leading to the desired value.

- d) This reaction is obtained by subtracting 3(b) from 3(a). The heat value cited was obtained using the heat of reaction 3(a) determined by Neugebauer and Margrave [9].
- e) The heat of this reaction was determined by combining the energy of reaction 3(c) with that for 3(a) determined by Duus [8] and reported in the same paper.
- 4. a,b) The energies of these reactions were obtained by Good, et al. [11] by extrapolating respectively to x = 1 and x = 0 from measurements covering the range x = 0.0285 to x = 0.8162 of the reaction $C_2F_4(\text{solid polymer}) + O_2(g) + 42(1-x)H_2O(1) = (2-x)CO_2(g) + xCF_4 + 4(1-x)[HF + 10H_2O](1)$. The experiments are carefully described.
 - c) The heat of this reaction was obtained by combining the heats of reactions 4(a) and 4(b) determined in the same laboratory.
- 5. c) The heat of this reaction was obtained by Cox Gundry, and Head [12] by appropriately combining reactions 5(a) and 5(b).
- 6. a) An earlier (in parentheses) and a more recent and more amply substantiated value are listed.
 - c) The heat of this reaction is obtained by combining the heats of reaction 6(a) and 4(a). This reaction does not in any way involve the heat of formation of HF, but in order for it to be valid, the $C_2F_4(\text{solid polymer})$ used in the two different experiments must be similar.
- 7. Baibuz and Medvedev [15] recalculated the work of Baibuz [14] and reported $\Delta H_f[CF_4(g)] = -220.6$. The work of Baibuz is not available to us in sufficient detail to allow us to write the equation for the reaction or to know the dependence of the reported heat of formation of CF_A on other auxiliary data.
- 8. Von Wartenberg [2,4] reported $\Delta H = -307$ kcal mol⁻¹, and although he indicated the carbon was graphite, the evidence for other sources is that probably only a slight amount of graphite was present. On the basis of information supplied by Neugebauer and Margrave (1.5 to 1.9 kcal mol⁻¹) [9], von Wartenberg and Schuette (2.4 kcal mol⁻¹)

[1], and Kirkbride and Davidson (2.5 kcal mol⁻¹) [16] if we assume the heat of formation of the carbon residue to be $\pm 2 \pm 1$ kcal mol⁻¹ and apply a correction, the heat of reaction to that in which graphite is formed would be ± 307 , which is still far less negative than the result of Kirkbride and Davidson.

Kirkbride and Davidson [16] reported $\Delta H_f[CF_1(g)] = -218 \stackrel{t}{2}$ kcal mol⁻¹, together with auxiliary data for KF($\stackrel{t}{c}$) and amorphous carbon. We have back calculated to obtain $\Delta H_r = -320 \stackrel{t}{2}$ kcal mol⁻¹.

- 9. Vorob'ev and Skuratov [17] reported $\Delta H_r = -325.5 \stackrel{\checkmark}{=} 2.2$ kcal mol⁻¹ and that their reaction led to formation of β -graphite. If we presume, on the basis of the work of Kirkbride and Davidson [16], that only a small amount of crystalline material was present and apply a correction of 2 kcal mol⁻¹ for the heat of formation of amorphous carbon, the heat of reaction 9 would be -327.5 kcal mol⁻¹. See 8 above.
- 10. This series of reactions does not involve $CF_4(g)$, but is a route by which the heat of formation of NaF(c) can be obtained as auxiliary data for reaction 9.

The two different values given for the heat of reaction 10(c) are not due to experimental differences, but to an ambiguity in the nature of the reaction products. The spectroscopically observed reaction leads to an excited and a normal atom, but it is unclear which of the atoms is excited. The two different values, each accurately known, depend on the assignment.

Table 1 Thermochemical Studies Involving Tetrafluoromethane

Reference	Wartenberg and Schuette [1] Ruff and Bretschneider [4] Domalski and Armstrong [5,6,]	Jessup, McCoskey and Nelson[7]	Neugebauer and Margrave[9]	Neugabanem and Margrave[9]	Duus[8]]Scott, Good and Waddington[10]	Scott, Good and Waddington[11] Scott, Good and Waddington[10]		Cox, Gundry and Head[12]	Cox, Gundry and Head[12]	
Process for $\Delta \mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{\Gamma}}[\mathrm{GF}_{4}(\mathrm{g})]$	$\Delta H_{\bf r}$	$\Delta H_{r} + \Delta H_{f} [CH_{d}(g)] - 4\Delta H_{f} [HF(g)]$ $\Delta H_{r} + \Delta H_{c} [C_{2F}, (g)]$	7 7 7			$\Delta H_{\mathbf{r}} + 4 \Delta H_{\mathbf{f}} [ext{HF in 181.5H}_20]$	$\Delta H_{f r}^{-}$ + $\Delta \Delta H_{f L}^{-}$ [HF (k)]	$\Delta H_{r} + \Delta H_{f}[C_{2}F_{4}(solid polymer)] - \Delta H_{f}[CO_{2}(g)]Scott$, Good and Waddington[10]		$\Delta H_{f r}^{-} + \Delta H_{f L} [{ m CO}_2(g)] + 4 \Delta H_{f L} [{ m HF in 10H}_2 { m O}(m{t})]$			ΔH_{Σ} + $\Delta H_{\Sigma}[CO_{Z}(g)]$ + $4\Delta H_{\Sigma}[HF$ in $20H_{\Sigma}0(t)]$
ΔH°29β	-162±2ª (-183,5±2) ^b -222 , 87±0,38	-459.3±9 -61.43±1.4	-65.4±0.42	-150.8±1.1	-132,72±0,7	+85 _• 4±1 _• 5	+67.32		-160.3±0.9	+41.5±1.0	. 4067.9/4.184	+	+41,38±0,32
Reaction	1. $G(c,graphite)$ +2F ₂ (g) = $GF_4(g)$	2. $GH_{\chi}(g) + 4F_{\chi}(g) = GF_{\chi}(g) + 4HF(g)$ 3.(a) $C_{\gamma F_{\chi}}(g) = GF_{\chi}(g) + C(c,graphite)^{3}$	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	(b) $C_2F_4(g) + 2H_2(g) + 4[181.5H_20](t) = 4[HF+181.5H_20](t) + 2 C(c,graphite)$	(c) $C_2F_L(g) + 2H_2(g) = 4HF(l) + 2 C(c,graphite)$	(a) $4[\text{HF+181.5H}_2(t)](t) + C(c,\text{graphite}) = CF_4(g) + 2H_2(g) + 4[181.5H_2^0](t)$	(e) $AHF(l) + C(c, graphite) = OF_{l}(g) + 2H_{2}(g)$	4.(a) $C_2F_4(\text{solid polymer}) + O_2(g) = CO_2(g) + CF_4(g)$	(b) C_2F_4 (solid polymer) + $O_2(g)$ + $42H_2O(t)$ = $2CO_2(g)$ + $4[HF+LOH_2O](t)$	(c) $GO_2(g) + 4[HF+LOH_2O](l) = GF_4(g) + 42H_2^{\circ}(l)$	5.(a) $G_{12}F_{22}(t) + 6.50_2(g) + 401.8 H_20(t) = 0.6GF_4(g) + 4067.9/4.184$ Ll.4 $G_{02}(g) + 19.6[HF+20H_20](t)$	(b) $G_{12}F_{22}(\ell) + 6.50_2(g) + 131.2 H_20(\ell) = 3.9 GF_4(g) + 8.1 GO_2(g) + 6.4 [HF+20H_50](\ell)$	(c) $GO_2(g) + 4[HF + 20H_20](l) = GF_4(g) + 82 H_20(l) + 41.38\pm0.32$

Table 1 (continued)

		Reaction	ΔH298 Kcal mol-1	Process for $\Delta H_{\Sigma}[\Box F_{m{Q}}(g)]$	Reference
	6。(a) (b)≓4(a)	(a) C_2F_4 (solid polymer) + $F_2(g) = 2 GF_4(g)$ (b)=4(a) C_2F_4 (solid polymer) + $O_2(g) = GO_2(g)$ +	-247.85(-247.43	$1/2[\Delta H_{\rm r}^{+}\Delta H_{\rm f}[C_2F_{\bf k}({\rm solid~polymer})]$	Domalski and Armstrong[5,6,13]
		$\mathtt{CF}_{m{\mathcal{L}}}(m{arepsilon})$	-118.8		
	(c)	$CO_2(g) + F_2(g) = O_2(g) + CF_4(g)$	-129.05(128.63)	$\Delta H_{\mathbf{r}}$ + $\Delta H_{\mathbf{f}}$ [CO ₂ (g)]	
	7.	H ₂ , 0 ₂ , C ₀ , GF ₄	-220.1±1.4		Baibuz[14]
			-220.6		Baibuz and Medvedev[15]
	89	$GF_{\lambda}(g) + 4K(c) = 4KF(c) + C(graphite)$	-307±4	$4\Delta ext{H}_{ ext{F}} ext{[KF(c)]} ext{-}\Delta ext{H}_{ ext{r}}$	Wartenberg[2,3]
		t	-320±2		Kirkbride and Davidson[16]
	9.	$CF_{\mathcal{L}}(g) + 4Na(c) = 4NaF(c) + C(graphite)$	-3255±2.2	$\phi_{ m AH_{ m f}}[{ m NaF}({ m c})]$ – $\phi_{ m r}$	Vorob'ev and Skuratov[17]
	10.(a)	Na $GI(c) + 1/2 F_2(g) = NaF(c) + Gl_2(g)$	-39,3±0,1	1	Wartenberg and Litzner[18]
7/0		ı	-39.5±0.5		Schmitz and Schumacher[19]
	(p)	$NaC1 + C1F(g) = NaF(c) + C1_2(g)$	-24,5±0,5		Schmitz and Schumacher[19]
	(c)	ClF(g) = Cl(g) + F(g)	+60-355		Schmitz and Schumacher[20]
			+58.96		Wahrhaftig[21]
	(p)	$1/201_2(g) + 1/2 F_2(g) = C1F(g)$	-11.6		Wicke[22]
			-11.7		Wicke and Friz [23]

Table 2 Comparison of $\Delta H_f[HF \cdot nH_20]$ From Several Sources

n	A	В	e _B	С	eC
181.5	-77.07 ±0.4	-77.46	+. 39	-76.35	72
20	-76.71 ±0.2	-77.396	+. 69	-76.28	43
10	-76.74 ±0.35	-77.367	+.63	-76.235	50

- A Calculations shown in the text.
- B Values interpolated from the work of Cox and Harrop [29].
- C Values interpolated from the review by Wagman, et al. [24].

Note: Recent work on the heat of reaction of NF3 with hydrogen combined with heats of formation of NF3 determined by dissociation measurements, [30] and also from the reaction of NF3 with sulfur and the heat of formation of SF6 [31] leads to a heat of formation of HF (aq,123H $_2$ 0) in good agreement with Column A.

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Chapter 17

EQUATION OF STATE OF SOLID HYDROGEN

bу

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INTRODUCTION

The equation of state of solid hydrogen is of great theoretical interest because hydrogen is the simplest of all atoms and because of the simplicity of the interactions between hydrogen molecules as well as hydrogen atoms. Theoretical calculations of the equation of state and properties of solid hydrogen can be used to evaluate theoretical methods before they are tried on more complicated systems. The normal solid form of hydrogen is the molecular crystal, which we will call solid molecular hydrogen. The calculations of this phase of solid hydrogen can be compared with experimental measurements.

The first suggestion of a metallic modification of solid hydrogen at high pressures seems to have been made by Wigner and Huntington[1]. This phase of solid hydrogen is of great theoretical interest since, if it exists, solid atomic hydrogen would be the simplest of metals. Since the pressures at which metallic hydrogen would be formed are predicted to be of the order of one atmospheres, it has been impossible to prove or disprove this hypothesis. The possibility of metallic hydrogen is of great interest to geophysicists and astrophysicists. The hypothesis that the core of the earth consists of iron and nickel was made to explain the discontinuity in the velocity of seismic waves which occurs at a depth of around 2900 km. In 1941, Kuhn and Rittman[2] proposed that the core of the earth contains considerable amounts, perhaps up to some 30 percent of solid hydrogen, and that the transition from the core to the outer silicate shell, which has lost its hydrogen by degassing, is quite gradual. They proposed the discontinuity was due to a change in viscosity of the solid hydrogen. Kronig, DeBoer and Korringa[3] calculated the pressure at which there would be a transition from solid molecular to metallic hydrogen, found it compatible with the pressure of about 1.5 x 106 atm prevailing at a depth of 2900 km, and proposed the transition as the cause of the discontinuity. Although Kronig et al made their calculation to support the hypothesis of Kuhn and Rittman, their work is now considered to form an argument against this hypothesis. On the other hand, it seems much more plausible, that the giant planets might contain metallic hydrogen. A number of papers [4-17] have used the suggested equation of state in the speculations on the compositions of the planets.

Of great interest in connection with the proposed transition from solid molecular hydrogen to metallic hydrogen is that a phase transition of this kind seems to have been observed experimentally by Alder and Christian[18] in shock-wave experiments on crystalline iodine. They used their results to estimate the pressure at which the phase transition would occur in hydrogen and obtained a value of about 20 megabars.

This paper is a review of the theory and calculations of the equation of state of solid hydrogen.

METALLIC HYDROGEN

The calculation of the ground state energy of metallic hydrogen is divided into three parts. One is the energy of the electron gas system, the second is the energy of the lattice, and the third is the interaction terms. The energy of the electron gas consists of:

- 1. the Fermi energy (average kinetic energy);
- 2. the average Coulomb interaction energy between the electrons;
- 3. the energy of the exchange correlations of the Pauli principle which acts to keep electrons of parallel spin apart; and
- 4. the correlation energy.

1, 2, and 3 are calculated using the Hartree-Fock approximation. The correlation energy is defined as the difference between the energy calculated in the Hartree-Fock approximation and that calculated using any better approximation. The total energy equals the ground state energy plus the zero point energy.

The Correlation Energy

The ground state energy of a free electron gas has been calculated accurately in both the high and low density limit. The results of such calculations may be conveniently expressed in terms of the extent to which they represent an improvement over the Hartree-Fock calculation of the system energy. Thus we may write

$$E_0 = (2 \cdot 21/r_S^2 - 0.916/r_S + E_{corr})$$
 (1)

where r_s is the radius of the Fermi sphere, $E_0 = (22 \cdot 1/r_s^2 - 0.916/r_s)$ is the ground state energy calculated in the Hartree-Fock approximation, and e_{corr} is the correlation energy. This name was introduced by Wigner[1,25] who called attention to its importance in solid state problems.

As Wigner[19] first remarked, at sufficiently low densities the electrons may be expected to form a stable lattice in a sea of uniform positive charge. The potential energy keeps the electrons apart, and the kinetic energy for larger $r_{\rm S}$ ($r_{\rm S}$ >>10) is sufficient to prevent the electrons becoming localized at fixed sites. The correlation energy may then be expanded as a power series in $(1/r_{\rm S})^{1/2}$

$$E_{corr} = (U/r_{s} + V/r_{s}^{3/2} + W/r_{s}^{2} + \cdot \cdot \cdot) \cdot$$
 (2)

The coefficients U and V were estimated by Wigner.

Macke[22] gave a treatment of the correlation energy which is based on the use of perturbation theory in determining the effect of the Coulomb interactions on the energy of the system. By including certain terms of higher order than the second, he was able to get convergence.

Gell-Mann and Brueckner [23] determined the correlation energy for high density or small $r_{\rm S}$. Their method was based on summing the most highly divergent terms of the perturbation series under the integral sign to give a convergent result. The summation was performed by a technique similar to Feynman's methods in field theory. They get

$$E_{corr} = 0.06221n(r_s) - 0.98 + Dr_s ln(r_s) + Er_s + \cdots$$
 (3)

Where D and E were not evaluated. They also made a calculation using the method reported by Macke[22] to get

$$E_{corr} = 0.0622 \ln(r_s) - 0.128$$
 (4)

Results which are equivalent to those of Gell-Mann and Brueckner in the high-density limit were subsequently obtained by a number of investigators [24-29].

DuBois[30] extended the work of Gell-Mann and Brueckner using third order perturbation theory to calculate an additional term. His expression for the correlation energy is

$$E_{corr} = 0.0622 \ln(r_s) - 0.096 + 0.0049 r_s \ln(r_s) + 0(r_s).$$
 (5)

The region of actual metallic densities ($1\cdot0< r_S<10$) is essentially an intermediate density region. There exists no simple rigorous series expression for the correlation energy in this region. It is usually found by interpolation between the high and low density limits.

Wigner[1] states that the correlation energy for $r_s>1$ can be represented rather closely by

$$E_{corr} = -0.584/(r_S + 5.1). \tag{6}$$

Pines[31] states that this value of Wigner's approximation formulae was based on the incorrect low density limit of $-0.58/r_{\rm S}$ as Wigner[20] points out in a footnote. Pines shows the correct low density limit to be $-0.88/r_{\rm S}$. On combining this with Wigner's high-density calculation, he obtains as an approximate expression for the correlation energy

$$E_{corr} = -0.88/(r_s + 7.8). \tag{7}$$

Using the collective description of electron interactions developed by Bohm and Pines[32-34], Pines determined a correlation energy of

$$E_{corr} = 0.0313 \ln(r_s) - 0.114 - 0.005r_s.$$
 (8)

Later Nozieres and Pines[35] used this method to develop an interpolation procedure that gives for metallic densities the equation

$$E_{corr} = 0.031 \ln(r_s) - 0.115.$$
 (9)

Carr, Coldwell-Horsfall and Fein[36] calculated the first anharmonic contribution to the ground state energy of an electron gas. They found for low densities or large r_s the approximation

$$E_{corr} = E_{exp} - 1.792/r_{s} + 2.65/r_{s}^{3/2} - 0.73/r_{s}^{2}.$$
 (10)

where

$$E_{\text{exp}} = (21r_{\text{S}}^{-1} - 4.8r_{\text{S}}^{-3/4} - 1.16r_{\text{S}}^{-5/4}) \operatorname{Exp}(-2.06r_{\text{S}}^{1/2}) - (2.06r_{\text{S}}^{-5/4} - 0.66r_{\text{S}}^{-7/4}) \operatorname{Exp}(-0.55r_{\text{S}}^{1/2}) \cdot$$

By interpolation between this result and that of Gell-Mann and Brueckner, assuming the expression of DuBois was correct, they determined the interpolation equation for metallic densities

$$E_{corr} = 0.0622 \ln(r_s) - 0.096 + r_s [0.0049 \ln(r_s) - 0.02]. \tag{11}$$

Recently Carr and Maradudin[37] calculated an additional term in the ground state energy of a high density electron gas using perturbation theory. They confirmed the results of Gell-Mann and Brueckner but obtained a coefficient of 0.018 for the results term to be compared with 0.0049 given by DuBois. They say the reason for the discrepancy is a number of errors found in the calculation by DuBois. The additional term is r (E' - .036). This makes the expression for the correlation energy at high densities

$$E_{corr} = (0.0622\ln(r_s) - 0.096) + r_s[0.018\ln(r_s) + E' - 0.036].$$
 (12)

E' is given as the sum of a twelve-dimensional integral which is not evaluated. However, E' must be positive if the $r_{\rm S}$ term of the correlation energy is to be quite small compared with the first term. To get a smooth curve between this high density expression and the low density expression of equation 10, they set E' ≈ 0 and assume the high-density expression is then correct for $r_{\rm S} < 1$. The results of their interpolation are compared with other calculations in table I. The results of Wigner , Pines modification of Wigner, Nozieres and Pines, Macke, Gell-Man and Brueckner, and Carr et al were calculated from the equations above. The results of Hubbard, Carr et al tabulated and Carr and Maradudin are from table I of Carr and Maradudin. There is a discrepancy between the values calculated from the Carr et al equation and those tabulated by them.

The various expressions for the correlation energy are plotted in Figure 1. Note that the low density approximation of Carr et al falls almost on the Wigner interpolation curve. The interpolation curves of Wigner, Wigner as modified by Pines, Nozieres and Pines, and that of Carret al are quite similar in the region $2 < r_{\rm S} < 20$. Accepting the Gell-Mann and Brueckner expression as correct for high densities, it would appear that Carr et al's interpolation equation is best in the region $1 < r_{\rm S} < 10$.

Energy Calculations

Wigner and Huntington[1] were the first to calculate the energy of metallic hydrogen. Using the Wigner-Seitz method, they performed a numerical calculation for a body-centered cubic lattice. No equation for the energy was given, but their results were shown graphically. Using for the zero point energy

$$E_{z} = 0.0244 (\partial^{2} E/\partial r^{2})^{1/2}.$$
 (13)

they found a minimum in the energy curve at 0.05 Ry (heat of vaporization about 16 kcal) for r_s =1.63. They predicted a pressure of more than 250,000 atms would be required to form metallic hydrogen.

Eleven years later, Kronig, DeBoer and Korringa[3] (referred to subsequently as KBK) calculated the energies of solid metallic and molecular hydrogen to determine the pressure required for the transition. They used the Wigner-Seitz method for the metallic phase and gave a complete set of equations. They used the method proposed by Bardeen[21] to calculate the Fermi energy and Bardeen's equation for the exchange and correlation energy for the electrons, which was the same as that used by Wigner and Huntington. There is a problem with their expression for α in the Fermi-energy term

$$\mathbf{F} = 2 \cdot 21 \, \mathbf{\alpha} / \mathbf{r}^2. \tag{14}$$

KBK's equation for

is given as

$$\alpha = [1 - f(u)/2]^{2}[1 + (1 + f(u))/10r_{s}]/[1 + 13f(u)/28]$$
 (15)

where

$$f(u) = u - 13u^3/28 + \cdot \cdot \cdot, \quad u = 7r_s/(70 - 13r_s) \cdot$$
 (16)

These equations combine to give $\mathcal{C} = 0.827$ at $r_s = 1.8$ while they state in the paper that $\mathcal{C} = 0.966$ at $r_s = 1.8$.

March[38] recalculated the Fermi energy correction term α , and E_0 which represents the 'inferior limit' of the lowest energy band which an electron in the atomic hydrogen lattice can occupy. His solution was constructed by means of a Taylor series expansion around the point $r/r_s=1$. KBK had used a mutually orthogonal set of polynomials in r/r_s . March gave as KBK's value of α

$$\alpha = 1 - (61r^2/7000) + 0(r^3)$$
 (17)

March gave as his value

$$\alpha = 1 - 13r^2/2100 + r^3/420 + 0(r^4)$$
 (18)

Which gives $\rho K = 0.966$ at $r_s = 1.8$ This value of c_K can be put into KBK's energy equation to get

$$E_{at} = \frac{2 \cdot 21}{r^2} - \frac{2 \cdot 716}{r_s} - \frac{f(u)}{r_s} + 1 \cdot 1563 - 0 \cdot 0526r_s - \frac{0 \cdot 58}{(r_s + 5 \cdot 1)}$$
 (19)

Where f(u) is defined in equation (16), E is in Rydbergs and r_s is in Bohr radii; after conversion to kcal/mole and cc/mole, it is

$$E_{at} = \frac{359 \cdot 6}{V^{2/3}} - \frac{613 \cdot 5 + 225 \cdot 9f(u)}{V^{1/3}} + 362 \cdot 6 - 22 \cdot 9V^{1/3} - \frac{131 \cdot 0}{(V^{1/3} - 3 \cdot 67)}$$
(20)

Where V is in cubic centimeters per mole, E is in kilocalories, and

$$f(u) = u - 13u^{3}/28$$
, $u = 9.72V^{1/3}/(70 - 18.0 V^{1/3})$.

They disregarded zero point energy because of its smallness. KBK calculated the transition pressure to be 7 x 10^5 atm; the densities at this pressure were found to be 0.4g/cm³ for the molecular phase and 0.8g/cm³ for the metallic phase.

In 1954, a Russian, A· A· Abrikosov[39] calculated the equation of state of metallic hydrogen· Instead of using the Wigner-Seitz method, he selected a single parameter family of electronic wave functions which represent plane waves modulated by functions which have the required symmetry

$$\psi^{(k,r)} = e^{ikr} \sum_{n} e^{-|r-r_n|}$$

and performed a quantum mechanical calculation for the simple, body-centered, and face-centered cubic lattice. The effect of the correlation of the positions of the electrons is not included. It is claimed that the correction is small and decreases rapidly with decreasing volume. His expression for the zero point energy is

$$E_{z} = 0.0768 \text{ V}^{2/3} (\partial^{2} E/\partial V^{2})^{1/2}. \tag{21}$$

In the region of the minimum of the energy curve, this gives a value about 2/3 of that given by the Wigner and Huntington expression which is equivalent to

$$E_{z} = 0.118[v^{4/3}(\partial^{2}E/\partial v^{2}) 2/3 v^{1/3}(\partial E/\partial v)]^{1/2}$$

After adding I + D/2 - Eo/2 where Eo is the zero point energy of a molecule, his equation in atomic units is

$$E_{at} = 3 \cdot 02/v^{2/3} - 2 \cdot 26/v^{1/3} + 0.55$$
 (22)

This gives a minimum in the energy at V = 19.1 ($r_S = 1.66$) but no binding energy. After converting to kcal/mole and cc/mole, the equation becomes

$$E_{at} = 378 \cdot 2/V^{2/3} - 632 \cdot 2/V^{1/3} + 345 \cdot \cdot \tag{23}$$

Abrikosov calculated the transition pressure to be 2.4×10^6 atm; the densities for this pressure were found to be 0.62g/cm^3 for the molecular phase and 1.12g/cm^3 for the metallic phase.

In 1958, W. C. DeMarcus[14] reviewed the the theoretical calculations and experimental data on the physical properties of solid hydrogen. He performed his own calculations and then applied his results to a discussion to the composition of the planets Jupiter and Saturn. His calculations for metallic hydrogen were based on the paper of Wigner and Huntington. He used Pines modification of Wigners equation for the correlation energy (equation 7). For the zero point energy, he used

$$E_{z} = 0.0244 \left[\frac{\partial^{2} E}{\partial r_{s}^{2}} - 2(\frac{\partial E}{\partial r_{s}})/r_{s} \right]^{1/2}. \tag{24}$$

The corrections for the fact that the wave functions are not plane were taken directly from the graphs of Wigner and Huntington. He gave his results in the form of a table and stated that the calculation gives a cohesive energy of $13\cdot3$ kcal/mole at a density of $0\cdot525$ g/cm³ and that the equation of state for pressures greater than 300,000 atms was very close to the one obtained by Kronig, DeBoer and Korringa if the zero point energy was added to their results.

In 1961, Bellemans and DeLeener[40] used the quantum statistical formalism of Block and deDominicis to determine the ground-state energy of a simple cubic lattice. They found a minimum in the energy curve at r=1.59 and E(r)=+0.01. This meant they found no binding energy.

In a later paper, Bellemans and DeLeener[41] state that they were making a consistent expansion of the ground state energy in terms of λ up to terms λ^2 (i.e., up to the same order as the Gell-Mann and Brueckner expression). This way of proceeding is very different from the Wigner-Seitz method and may eventually be a weaker type of approach on account of the slow convergence of a series in λ . However, it permits the case of multicomponent lattices (i.e., lattices with more than one type of positive charge located on the sites) to be treated in practically the same way as one component lattices. Hence, their method gives some hope for applications to metallic solutions. They compared their results with those of Wigner and Huntington to show their method gives approximately the correct solutions.

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Carr[42] calculated the ground state energy of metallic hydrogen using a Rayleigh-Schrodinger perturbation expansion divided into three parts. One part was the electron gas system, the second was the lattice, and the third represented the interaction terms. For a body centered cubic lattice in atomic units, he got

$$E_{at} = 2 \cdot 21r_{s}^{-2} - 2 \cdot 708r_{s}^{-1} - 0 \cdot 0905 - 0 \cdot 018r_{s} - 0 \cdot 005r_{s}^{2} + E_{corr}$$
 (25)

If the correlation energy found by Carr et al (equation 11) is used, then

$$E_{at} = \frac{2 \cdot 21}{r_{s}^{2}} - \frac{2 \cdot 708}{r_{s}} - 0 \cdot 1865 + 0 \cdot 06221 n(r_{s}) - 0 \cdot 38 r_{s} - 0 \cdot 005 r_{s}^{2} + 0 \cdot 0049 r_{s} 1 n(r_{s}) \cdot (26)$$

This equation does not include the terms for ionization energy, dissociation energy, or zero point energy. After conversion to kcal and cc/mole,

$$E_{at} = \frac{359 \cdot 6}{V^{2/3}} - \frac{611 \cdot 7}{V^{1/3}} - 52 \cdot 09 + 19 \cdot 5 \ln(V^{1/3}) - 15 \cdot 8V^{1/3} - 3 \cdot 02V^{2/3} + 2 \cdot 13V^{1/3} \ln(V^{1/3}) \cdot$$
(27)

Finally, a recent calculation has been carried out to test the so-called alternate molecular orbital method. Calais[43] applied Lowden's alternate molecular orbital method to the calculation of the potential energy curve of a body centered cubic lattice of hydrogen atoms. The results of the numerical calculation were given in graphical form for $1.59 < r_S < 7$. He found a minimum of 0.096 Rydbergs at $r_S = 1.89$. He did not make any estimate of the zero point energy because of the relative uncertainty of the calculations at small intermolecular distances.

Figure 2 compares the energy calculations for metallic hydrogen when the zero point energy is not included. The curves for Bellemans and DeLeener, Calais, and Wigner and Huntington are obtained from the graphs in their papers. The values for Kronig, DeBoer and Korringa, and those of Carr are calculated using equations 19 and 27, respectively. The dashed portions of the curves are arbitrary extensions of the data in the papers. If the correlation energy of Carr et al is used in the equations of KBK, the minimum energy becomes about the same as that of Calais but the value of \mathbf{r}_{S} remains unchanged. Figure 3 compares the energy calculations for metallic hydrogen when the zero point energy is included. The values for the Abrikosov curve are calculated from equation 22. The values for Wigner and Huntington are taken from their graph and those for KBK and Carr are calculated as for Figure 2 with the addition of the zero point energy equation of Wigner and Huntington (equation 13). The Abrikosov curve is much too high, with a minimum of 0.09 Rydbergs.

A summary of the metallic hydrogen calculations is shown in Table II. In some cases estimates were made when the values or necessary information to calculate them were not given in the paper. These estimates are indicated by parenthesis. a is the coefficient in the equivalent Morse potential function.

MOLECULAR HYDROGEN

The normal solid form of hydrogen is the molecular crystal. Solid molecular hydrogen belongs to the wider group of so-called molecular solids. In molecular crystals, the molecule preserves its individuality, i.e., its properties are very little different from those of an isolated molecule as present in a gas. In other words, molecular crystals consist of rather compact cells held together by the weak Van der Waals attractive forces.

The total energy of the crystal lattice at absolute zero ($\rm U_0$) is the sum of the potential energy of the lattice ($\rm V_0$) and the zero-point energy ($\rm U_Z$) associated with the zero-point vibrations of the molecules in the lattice.

$$U_0 = V_0 + U_z$$

The separation between nearest neighbors in a crystal at absolute zero differs from the separation $(r_{\rm m})$ at which the intermolecular potential is a minimum. This is due to the opposing effects of the zero-point energy and the attraction of a molecule to molecules beyond its nearest neighbors. The effect of the zero-point energy is to expand the lattice. The attraction of non-nearest neighbors tends to contract the lattice. In molecular hydrogen the effect of the zero-point energy is much greater than the attraction of non-nearest neighbors.

The usual theory of molecular crystals assumes the forces between molecules are central forces, additive and the potential energy of the crystal can be written as

$$\mathbf{v_0} = \frac{\mathbf{N}}{2} \sum_{\mathbf{i}} \mathbf{n_i} \mathcal{O}(\mathbf{r_i}) \tag{28}$$

where N is the number of molecules in the lattice, $\mathbf{r_i}$ is the distance from a particular molecule to the ith kind of lattice point, $\mathbf{n_i}$ is the number of molecules which occupy such lattice points, and $\mathcal{O}(\mathbf{r_i})$ is the intermolecular potential function. The values of $\mathbf{r_i}$ and $\mathbf{n_i}$ for five types of crystal lattices and the relations between $\mathbf{d_0}$ (the distance between nearest neighbors) and $\mathbf{V_0}$ (the specific volume of the crystal) have been calculated by Kihara and Koba [44], Prins and Petersen[45] and are found in Hirschfelder, Curtiss and Bird[46].

For the Lennard – Jones intermolecular potential function [$\mathcal{O}(r) = Ar^{-m}$], the potential energy of the crystal at absolute zero can be expressed in the form

$$V_{O} = (N/2)[AC_{m}d^{-m} - BC_{n}d^{-n}]$$
 (29)

The constants C_i have been calculated by Lennard - Jones and Ingham[47] and Kihara and Koba[44] and are available in Hirschfelder, Curtiss and Bird[46].

To the potential energy must be added the zero-point energy (due to quantum effects) which is usually determined from the Debye expression

$$U_{z} = (9/8) \text{ Nk } \Theta_{b}$$
 (30)

where Θ_{p} is the Debye characteristic temperature.

EXPERIMENTAL DATA

A fair amount of experimental data is available that can be used to check the theoretical calculations and to guide in the selection of parameters in the theoretical calculation of the properties of solid molecular hydrogen. Unfortunately, the experimental data is mostly in the low pressure region. The review of hydrogen and its isotopes by Woolley, Scott and Brickwedde [48] has an extensive bibliography covering all the data published up to 1947. The Cryogenic Data Center of NBS Boulder has published a comprehensive bibliography[49] of cryogenic fluids and their mixtures including hydrogen and its isotopes. This paper will not be as comprehensive, but will refer only to those papers that have come to the authors' attention and are considered useful for the calculation of the equation of state of solid hydrogen.

CRYSTAL STRUCTURE OF SOLID MOLECULAR HYDROGEN

The earliest investigation of the crystal structure of any of the solid isotopic hydrogens was that of Keesom, DeSmedt and Mooy[50] in $1930 \cdot$ The observed X-ray Debye-Scherrer patterns of more or less randomly oriented cyrstals of solid parahydrogen at liquid helium temperatures were indexed on the basis of a close-packed hexagonal structure; $a = 3.75A^{\circ}$, $c/a = 1.633 \cdot$

The initial results of Kogan and collaborators [51-55] were interpreted on the basis of a body-centered tetragonal structure for both hydrogen and deuterium. Independent Russian nuclear magnetic resonance measurements [56,57] were said to confirm this. However, the more recent X-ray studies of Kogan et al [58] confirm the hexagonal close-packed structure of Keesom et al with a = 3.78A° and c/a = 1.63 for hydrogen and a = 3.54A° and c/a = 1.67 for deuterium. They explain their earlier results as due to the texture of the samples, i.e., due to not having randomly oriented crystalline samples.

The infrared absorption spectrum of solid parahydrogen has been measured at temperatures above 10°K by Gush et al[59]. The $S_1(0)$ line arises from the quadrupolar induction effect. The intensity is proportional to the square of the sum of the dipole moments induced by the quadrupole field of the absorbing molecule in all neighboring molecules. Van Kranendonk and Gush[60,61] have shown that for parahydrogen this sum vanishes if the central molecule is at the center of inversion symmetry. In a body centered tetragonal structure, the parahydrogen molecule would be at a center of inversion while in a close-packed hexagonal structure it would not. The fact that the $S_1(0)$ line is observed in parahydrogen is given as proof by Van Kranendonk and Gush that the parahydrogen crystal does not possess inversion symmetry and, therefore, cannot have a body centered tetragonal structure.

Curzon and Pawlowicz[62⁶⁴] found their electron diffraction patterns of a thin film of solid deuterium at 7°K were consistent with a face-centered cubic lattice with four molecules per unit cell and a lattice parameter a = 5.07 ± 0.02 Ű. They state their pattern could not possibly have been produced by a close-packed hexagonal structure.

Mucker et al[65] studied the neutron diffraction patterns of randomly oriented crystalline samples of ortho-deuterium (97.8% ortho) and normal deuterium (66.2/3% ortho) at 13°K . They found it impossible to index the observed reflections as a single phase on the basis of either a cubic or tetragonal lattice. The assignment of indices is made on the basis of a hexagonal close-packed structure containing two molecules per cell with a = 3.63A° and c/a = 1.61.

Curzon and Mascal [66] studied the electron diffraction patterns of thin films of solid hydrogen at 5°K and solid deuterium at 5 and 7°K. They did not specify the ortho-para concentrations. The pattern for deuterium was indexed according to a face-centered cubic lattice with a parameter $a_0 = 5 \cdot 07 \pm 0 \cdot 05 \text{A}^\circ$ at about 5°K. The pattern for hydrogen was indexed as a mixture of a face-centered cubic lattice with a parameter $a_0 = 5 \cdot 29 \pm 0 \cdot 05 \text{A}^\circ$ and a hexagonal close-packed lattice with parameters $a = 3 \cdot 73 \pm 0 \cdot 05 \text{A}^\circ$, c/a = $1 \cdot 63 \cdot$ The face-centered cubic lattice was predominant.

0. Bostanjoglo [67] used electron diffraction to study the crystalline structure of normal-hydrogen, para-hydrogen, and normal-deuterium layers at temperatures of 2.8 to 4.5 °K. Five of the seven Debye-Sherrer rings found in the diffraction pattern were ascribed to a face-centered cubic lattice with a_0 =5.08 \pm 0.02 A° for hydrogen and 5.08 \pm 0.03 A° for deuterium. The remaining two diffraction rings could be due to (1) diffraction from cross-gratings and double diffraction by twinned crystals or (2) from a hexagonal lattice. He said the first explanation was more probable.

The specific heat measurements of Mendelssohn et al [68] Hill and Ricketson [69], and Ahlers and Orttung [70] have established that solid hydrogen with a high ortho-hydrogen content (> 60%) exhibits a λ anomaly below 2°K·Nuclear-magnetic-resonance measurements [71, 72] indicate that solid hydrogen undergoes a cooperative transition in this same region·

In their study of the infrared absorption spectrum of solid normal hydrogen in the neighborhood of 1.5° K, Clouter and Gush [73] found evidence of a transition. A reversible change in the spectrum was found to occur at the same temperature as the λ anomaly in the specific heat. The spectrum change can be accounted for if it is assumed that at temperatures above the transition, the crystal does not have a center of inversion symmetry and that when the crystal is cooled, there is a change in crystal structure to one possessing inversion symmetry. The mechanism by which the ortho-hydrogen molecules could cause this transition is by the splitting of the J=1 state which is triply degenerate M=0, ± 1). This degeneracy can be removed by an electric field which could be exerted by the surrounding molecules. Bell and Fairbairn [74-76] and Danielian [77] have calculated this transition theoretically. They have found for pure ortho-hydrogen in a hexagonal close-packed lattice, a second order transition to an ordered state. The transition found by Danielian occured at 3°K. This is in agreement with Smith and Housley's experimental temperature of 2.6° K for 80% ortho-hydrogen and their extrapolated value of 3°K for 100% ortho-hydrogen.

Mills and Schuch [78] studied this transition by investigating the x-ray diffraction of normal hydrogen and 50% ortho-hydrogen at liquid helium temperatures. Normal hydrogen was found to have a hexagonal close-packed structure from 4°K to about 1.3°K and to transform below this temperature to face-centered cubic structure. For the 50% ortho-hydrogen, the structure was found to remain hexagonal to 1.25°K, the low temperature limit of the cryostat. The face-centered cubic lattice in the temperature region 1.25 to 1.3°K had a lattice parameter $a_0=5.312\pm0.010~\text{A}^\circ$ and a calculated average volume of 22.57 cc/mole. The hexagonal closest-packing lattice parameters above 1.3°K were $a=3.76.\pm0.007~\text{A}^\circ$, $c=6.105\pm0.011~\text{A}^\circ$, c/a=1.623, and the calculated average volume was 22.52~cc/mole.

P V T Data of Solid Molecular Hydrogen

The molar volumes of solid hydrogen and deuterium at $4\cdot 2^{\circ} K$ in the pressure range 0 to 100 kg/cm were measured by Megaw [79] with a picnometer in which the solid H_2 or D_2 was surrounded with liquid helium. The volume of the picnometer had been previously measured as a function of pressure at $4\cdot 2^{\circ} K$. Miss Megaw calculated the compressibilities from the results of these measurenents. Stewart [80-82] measured the relative volume changes of solid hydrogen and deuterium for pressures to 20,000 kg/cm by using the piston displacement method developed by Bridgman. The molar volumes were calculated from the results by assuming that Megaw's volume for zero pressure was correct. Stewart fit the data to the Birch-Murnaghan equation

$$P = (3/2\beta)[y^7 - y^5][2 - \xi(y^2 - 1)]$$
(31)

where y = (Vo/V) \cdot The values of ξ and 3/2 β obtained from the fit were $-1\cdot9\pm0\cdot1$ and 3060 kg/cm , respectively.

Table III shows the molar volumes of solid hydrogen. The values for Megaw were obtained by reading the density from the graph and dividing by the molecular weight (2.0159 g/mole from ref [83]). Stewart's values are taken directly from his papers. The values given in Woolley et al (WSB) and the values calculated from the Murnaghan equation as fit by Stewart (SFM) are shown for comparison. The Murnaghan equation fits the experimental data of Stewart to well within his experimental accuracy, \$\ddot\$5 percent in the volume change.

The latent heat of fusion of normal hydrogen was measured by Simon and Lange[90] as $28\cdot0\pm0\cdot15$ cal/g·mole at the triple point. The latent heat of fusion of parahydrogen as measured by Clusius and Hillier[91], Johnston et al[94], Ahlers [99], and Dwyer et al[84], is $28\cdot04\pm0\cdot19$ cal/g·mole at the triple point. Stewart and Roder [85] have calculated the heat of fusion of parahydrogen from the Clapeyron equation using the volume change on fusion of normal hydrogen of Bartholome[86] and the volume of the freezing liquid given by Goodwin and Roder[114] with the assumption that the volume change on fusion is the same for normal and parahydrogen. Dwyer et al measured the heat of fusion at pressures up to 340 atm· and found the data could be represented by the equation

$$\Delta H = 0.04415P + 28.04 \tag{32}$$

where $\triangle H$ is in cal/g·mole and the pressure P is in atm· The heat of fusion calculated from this equation are given in Table IV·

Simon[87] calculated the heat of sublimation of solid hydrogen at absolute zero from the data of Simon and Lange[90] to be $183\cdot4$ cal/g·mole· The heats of sublimation of parahydrogen calculated by Mullins et al [88,89] are shown in Table V· If these results are extrapolated to 0°K, the result is $182\cdot4$ cal/g·mole·

SPECIFIC HEAT DATA OF SOLID MOLECULAR HYDROGEN

The specific heat at saturation pressure (C_S) of solid hydrogen was measured by Simon and Lange[90] from 10°K to the melting point before the discovery of parahydrogen Clusius and Hillier[91] performed the same measurements for parahydrogen and obtained the same values within experimental error, for the specific heats of parahydrogen as had been obtained by Simon and Lange for supposedly normal hydrogen. Mendelssohn, Ruhemann, and Simon[92] measured the specific heats of several mixtures of ortho- and parahydrogen between $2 \cdot 5^{\circ}$ and $11 \cdot 5^{\circ}$ K. At temperatures below 11°K, the specific heats of the mixtures containing orthohydrogen are larger than for pure parahydrogen. The results on pure parahydrogen were in agreement with the earlier measurements of Clusius and Hillier, the data from $2 \cdot 5^{\circ}$ to 14° K fitting rather closely a Debye function with $\Theta = 91^{\circ}$ K. However, the Debye theta is related theoretically to the specific heat at constant volume (C_V) not the specific heat at constant pressure (C_D) or at saturation pressure. The specific heats of solid hydrogen and deuterium at constant volume was measured by Bartholome and Eucken[93]. The Debye Θ that fit the C_V data of solid hydrogen best was 105° and for solid deuterium was 97° K.

Johnston et al [94] measured specific heat at constant pressure (C_p) of solid (99.8% pure) parahydrogen from 12.71°K to the melting point. Their results are in good agreement with those of Clusius and Hillier.

Hill and Ricketson[95] measured the temperature time curve for several mixtures of ortho- and parahydrogen as the sample warmed up due to heat liberated by the conversion of ortho- to parahydrogen. Assuming the rate at which heat was liberated in the hydrogen remains unchanged through and below the anomaly, the heating curves were translated into specific heat versus temperature curves. The heat capacity was found to have a sharp maximum of the type at about 1.5 K for orthohydrogen concentrations greater than 62%. The specific heat values were not very accurate, but the main interest was in the

specific heat anomaly. Ahlers and Orttung [96] studied the λ anomaly in the heat capacity of solid hydrogen as a function of orthohydrogen concentration and molar volume. The anomaly was found to have structure with three distinguishable maxima. The maximum at the lowest temperature was invariably the largest of the three and was taken as the main peak. The temperature of the main peak was fit to the equation

$$T = (-226 + 6.93q) (V^{-5/3} - 120x10^{3}V^{-5})$$
 (33)

where q is the orthohydrogen concentration in percent.

Hill and Lounasmaa [97] measured the specific heats of solid parahydrogen and orthodeuterium in the temperature range 2 to 18°K. The specific heats of parahydrogen at constant pressure were fit by the equation

$$C_{p} = 1 \cdot 21 \times 10^{-3} T^{3} + 8 \cdot 5 \times 10^{-6} T^{5}$$
 (34)

Where C_p is in joule per mole per degree. Gruneisen's law was assumed to hold and the variation of compressibility with temperature was neglected to permit the calculation of the specific heat at constant volume from the equation

$$C_p - C_v = ATC_v^2$$
 (35)

The constant $A = 1.60 \times 10^{-3}$ was determined from the Bartholome and Eucken values for C_v . The calculation was admittedly approximate and had the particular defect that the C_v values were made to agree with those of Bartholome and Eucken so the latter were in no sense confirmed.

Ahlers[98,99] measured the heat capacity of solid parahydrogen at zero pressure and at three constant volumes. The C_p data agree with that of Hill and Lounasmaa above $4\,^{\circ}\text{K}\cdot$ Below $4\,^{\circ}\text{K}$, however, the Hill and Lounasmaa data was greater than this by more than can be explained by the scatter in the data. The heat capacity at constant volume was measured at 22.56, 19.83, and 18.73 cc/mole. The Debye thetas at $0\,^{\circ}\text{K}$ were 128°, 169°, and 189°K, respectively. The temperature dependence of the Debye thetas was found to be similar to those for other simple solids. It is difficult to compare the data of Bartholome and Eucken with this because the molar volume used by Bartholome is unknown. Ahlers found the Gruneisen relation does not hold and, therefore, Hill and Lounasmaa's values for C_v are likely to be in error by a considerable amount.

Table VI contains the smoothed heat capacity at saturation pressure ($C_{\rm S}$) of Ahlers and Hill and Lounasmaa . The measurements of Johnston et al, taken between 12 and 14°K, agree with Ahlers data within experimental error. The constant volume heat capacity ($C_{\rm V}$) and Debye thetas are shown in Table VII. The molar volume at which the Bartholome and Eucken data were taken was unspecified. Ahlers gives an upper limit of 22·1 cc/mole for Bartholome's volume since the measurements extend to at least 17·9°K. Nonetheless, their heat capacity is 7% larger than Ahlers.

THE MELTING CURVE

The relation between pressure and temperature along the melting line is usually expressed as some form of the Simon melting equation [100,101]. This equation was determined semi-empirically and found to fit the experimental melting curves of most substances. Domb[102] and DeBoer[103], by extending the Lennard-Jones and Devonshire theory of melting, and Salter[104], using the Gruneisen equation of state and the Lindemann melting formula, have derived the Simon melting equation giving it a theoretical basis.

The early measurements of Onnes[105], Keesom et al [106-108], and Simon et al [109] were correlated by Woolley et al[48] in their compilation of the properties of hydrogen. Woolley et al represented the melting curve by the Simon equation

$$\log_{10}(237 \cdot 1 + P) = 1 \cdot 85904 \log_{10}(T) + 0 \cdot 24731$$
 (36)

where the pressure is in kg/cm and the temperature is in $^{\circ}$ K on the NBS 1939 low temperature scale. Since then, Chester and Dugdale[110] have published a table of the separation of the melting curves of hydrogen and deuterium along with a small graph of the melting curves. Mills and Grilly measured the melting curves of hydrogen and deuterium first to 1920 kg/cm [111] and then to 3700 kg/cm [112]. They did not report the data but least squares fit their results to a Simon melting equation of the form

$$P = a + bT^{C}$$
 (37)

where P is in kg/cm , and T is in $^{\circ}K$. The constants were determined as a = $-279 \cdot 63$, b = $2 \cdot 749629$, and c = $1 \cdot 744070$ with a rms derivation of $5 \cdot 98$.

In 1962, Goodwin[113] measured the melting pressure of parahydrogen at three temperatures. Because the Simon equation used by Mills and Grilly in the region of the triple point is not satisfactory for hydrogen when least-squared to a wide range of data, Goodwin developed a new equation

$$(P - P_t)/(T - T_t) = A \exp(-\alpha T) + BT + C$$
 (38)

the subscript t refers to the triple point. The value B=2/3 atm/deg was estimated from the behavior of normal hydrogen at the higher temperatures as given by Mills and Grilly and by Woolley, Scott, and Brickwedde. Values of the constants $A=30\cdot3312$ atm/deg and $C=5\cdot693$ were then determined from his measurements. Table VIII contains the melting pressures of normal hydrogen calculated from the equation of Woolley et al[48], the equations of Mills and Grilly [111,112], and the equation of Goodwin [113]. The values for parahydrogen were calculated from the equation of Goodwin. Temperatures are on the NBS 1955 temperature scale.

In 1963, Goodwin and Roder[114] applied Goodwin's equation without the constant C to parahydrogen. Using these pressures, they extrapolated the PVT data for fluid parahydrogen of Goodwin, Diller, Roder, and Weber[115] to determine the densities of the liquid in equilibrium with the solid.

In 1965, Dwyer, Cook, Berwaldt, and Nevins[116] measured the molar volume of solid parahydrogen along the melting line from the triple point to about 24°K. They computed additional values of the molar volume in this range from their heat of fusion data [117] and Goodwin et al's[115] PVT data for liquid parahydrogen. Dwyer et al[118] also measured the molar volume of the solid at temperatures somewhat lower than the melting temperature. These results indicate that at pressures above 150 atm there is a narrow temperature region near the melting line in which the molar volume of the solid parahydrogen increases as the temperature is decreased at constant pressure.

ZERO POINT ENERGY CALCULATIONS

Hobbs[119] calculated the zero-point energy, total energy, and volume of solid hydrogen and deuterium in face- centered cubic, simple cubic, and diamond lattices. An expression developed by London[120] was used for the zero-point energy. The results were closest to experimental values of hydrogen for a Lennard-Jones 9-6 potential in a face-centered cubic lattice.

DeBoer and Blaisse[121] derived a reduced equation of state for the solid state of the condensed permanent gases Ne, Ar, Kr, Xe, N₂, D₂, H₂, and He in a face-centered cubic lattice using a Lennard-Jones 12-6 potential. The zeropoint energy was determined from the Debye expression

$$U_{z} = (9/8) \text{ Nk } \Theta$$
 (39)

using a formula proposed by Herzfeld and Mayer[122]. Their expression for the zero point energy (L) involves the elastic constants in a rather complicated fashion, so that numerical calculations are somewhat involved.

Salter[123,124] derived a reduced equation of state using a modified Debye expression

$$U_{z} = (9/8) \, \text{Nk} \, \Theta_{\infty} \tag{40}$$

to calculate the zero-point energy. $\Theta \infty$ is the limiting value of Θ for high temperature. Central forces were assumed to allow the expression of the results in terms of DeBoer's reduced units. The method of Montroll[125-127] and Thirring was used to get a better estimate of the frequency spectrum. The zero-point energy is given as

$$U_{z} = \frac{3Nh}{16\pi} \left[5/m \sum \nabla^{2} \varphi(r) \right]^{1/2} \tag{41}$$

For the Lennard-Jones 12-6 potential, the zero-point energy is very close to that of DeBoer and Blaisse.

I. J. Zucker[128] used a theoretical treatment based on the Einstein model of a crystal modified to account for large vibrations of the crystal atoms to calculate the harmonic and first two anharmonic terms in the zero-point energy. His harmonic term, which is quite similar to that of Salter's, is

$$U_{z} = \frac{3Nh}{16\pi} \left[\frac{16}{3m} \sum \nabla^{2} \mathcal{Q}(\mathbf{r}) \right]^{1/2}$$
(42)

The first anharmonic term calculated from perturbation theory, the inclusion of which has been shown by Henkel [129], Johns[130], and Zucker[131] to improve the treatment of the heavier inert gas crystals, is given as

$$U_{zah} = \frac{3Nh^2 \sum [(\partial^4 Q/\partial_r^4) + (4/r)(\partial^3 Q/\partial_r^3)]}{128n^2 m \sum [(\partial^2 Q/\partial_r^2) + (2/r)(\partial Q/\partial_r)]}$$
(43)

However, for hydrogen this term is not small enough to be considered a perturbation when the volume is greater than 1/2 the zero pressure volume. Furthermore, an additional term is required. The zero-point energy was set up in the form of a Schrodinger equation which was solved by a numerical method due to Coulson and McWeeny. The calculations were made using a Lennard-Jones 12-6 potential. His results are given graphically and as he states, the procedure is excellent for the heavier inert gas solids but not too good for the hydrogen or helium isotopes.

J. M. H. Levelt and R. P. Hurst[132,133] recast the cell model for the liquid state, as proposed by Lennard-Jones and Devonshire, in terms of quantum statistical mechanics and applied it first to liquid hydrogen and deuterium at a density near that of the crystals at 0°K. They then adapted this method to crystals and evaluated the zero-point properties of the noble gases, hydrogen, and deuterium. The zero-point energy was obtained from an accurate solution of the Schrodinger equation using a Lennard-Jones 12-6 potential. The procedure requires lengthy numerical calculations that are very time-consuming even using a computer. The results for hydrogen are given in the pressure range of 0-300 atm with the calculated volumes being within four percent of the experimental values.

D. Henderson and R. Reed[134,135] also used the quantum cell model to find the thermodynamic properties of liquid hydrogen but calculated the energy levels by means of the WKB method rather than the numerical method used by Levelt and Hurst. Their results are compared with those of Levelt and Hurst and there is good agreement.

Hillier and Walkley[136-140] have written a series of papers on quantum cell model. They also find the WKB approximation gives results close to those of the exact calculation. They report calculations on the hard sphere potential, cubical cell model [140], and Lennard-Jones 12-6 potential.

EQUATION OF STATE CALCULATIONS

Kronig, DeBoer, and Korringa[3] calculated the equation of state of a face-centered cubic crystal of molecular hydrogen at absolute zero using the Lennard-Jones 12-6 potential. They assumed the forces were additive and used the lattice potential constants of Lennard-Jones and Ingham in an equation of the form of equation 29. They neglected the zero-point energy.

DeMarcus[14] in his paper on the constitution of planets Jupiter and Saturn objects to the pressure density relation of KBK for molecular hydrogen because it crosses the Fermi gas curve. The possibility that the equation of state of any cold matter can cross its Fermi gas curve can be questioned on general theoretical grounds. He compared the calculation of DeBoer and Blaisse with Stewart's experimental results and states the peculiar behavior of DeBoer theoretical densities at low pressures is convincingly explained as due to the neglect of anharmonic terms in calculating the zero-point energy. subsequent gradual rise in the ratio of experimental to theoretical densities confirms that the Lennard - Jones potential is too hard. DeMarcus obtained his equation of state for the molecular form by an empirical extrapolation of the experimental data of Stewart. Stewart estimates the error in his measurements as five percent in the relative volume change from zero pressure so that the densities at the higher pressures are most uncertain. DeMarcus made two extrapolations; one assumes Stewart's data are correct as they stand and an alternative equation of state which is based on the assumption that Stewart's densities are too high by two percent at 20,000 kg/cm, are progressively more accurate at lower pressures, and completely accurate below 10,000 kg/cm The alterenate equation of state was calculated as a possible resolution of a dilemma that arose when model planets of Saturn were calculated. He presents his results in tables and graphs.

Abrikosov[39] had three objections to the calculations of Kronig et al on solid molecular hydrogen: (1) for the small spacings of interest for the phase transition, one cannot assume that the molecules interact as entities; (2) the experimental data used to determine the law of interaction between two molecules are valid only for normal pressures and cannot be used for high pressures; (3) the lattice has been assumed to be face — centered cubic without sufficient evidence. Abrikosov calculated the equation of state at T = 0 of the nonrotating modification of a hexagonal close—packed crystal of molecular hydrogen. The first order perturbation theory was based on the assumption that the energy of the molecular lattice is the sum of the interaction energies of individual atoms. The zero—point energy was included but the energy of the Van der Waals attraction of the molecules was neglected. Abrikosov estimates these forces would be important only at densities below 0.226 gm/cm. The calculations are numerical and an exact formula is not given. An interpolation formula that fits the results in the range V = 10 to 55 is given in atomic units as

$$P = 7.91 \exp(-2.62 V^{1/3}) \tag{44}$$

This expression can be integrated to give

$$\mathbb{E}_{\text{mol}} = (1.145 \text{V}^{2/3} + 0.87 \text{V}^{1/3} + 0.334) [7.91 \exp(-2.62 \text{V}^{1/3})]$$
 (45)

After converting to atmospheres, kilocalories, and cubic centimeters, these equations become

$$P = 2 \cdot 278 \times 10^8 \exp(-5 \cdot 86 V^{1/3}) \quad (46)$$

and

$$E_{mol} = (143 \cdot 5V^{2/3} + 243 \cdot 9V^{1/3} + 209 \cdot 5) [7 \cdot 91 \exp(-5 \cdot 86V^{1/3})]$$
 (47)

Trubitsyn[141] has shown that the Van der Waals energy in order of magnitude may be comparable with the first order approximation of the energy for pressure up to one million atm and objects [142] to the neglect of the Van der Waals forces by Abrikosov. This means the energy and pressures calculated in (39) are overestimated for all pressures.

Trubitsyn[142] calculated the energy and pressure of a crystal of molecular hydrogen as functions of volume and temperature in the pressure region from zero up to 10^6 atm. The intermolecular potential was assumed to be the sum of the interatomic potentials of all atoms in the two molecules. The interaction energy of two atoms of hydrogen was represented as the sum of the Heitler-London and the Van der Waals interaction energies. The intermolecular potential is found to be for R > $3 \cdot 5$

$$(R) = a \exp(-bR) - cR^{-6}(1 + dR^{-2})$$
(48)

where a = $5 \cdot 6$, b = $1 \cdot 81$, c = $10 \cdot 9$, and d = $10 \cdot 6 \cdot$ All quantities are expressed in atomic units where one atomic unit of energy is $27 \cdot 2$ ev, one unit of distance is $0 \cdot 529 \times 10^{-8}$ cm, and a unit of pressure is $3 \cdot 0 \times 10^{8}$ atm. The lattice constants of Hirschfelder, Curtiss, and Bird were rounded off to where the calculation applied to both the face-centered cubic and the hexagonal close - packing

lattices. The Debye theory was used to obtain for the zero-point energy.

$$U_{z} = 0.026 p^{4/3} v^{1/6} (v \partial^{2} V_{0} / \partial v^{2})^{1/2}$$
(49)

where ${\bf z}'$ was set equal to one since $3N{\bf z}'$ is the number of vibrational degrees of freedom and the crystal modification considered is one in which the molecules are rotating. This formula is good only for v < 90. In the region 100 < v < 170, the zero-point energy was taken as that calculated by Levelt and Hurst [132] approximated by

$$U_{z} = 290v^{-3} \tag{50}$$

Trubitsyn fit Stewart's compressibility data with an exp-6 expression for the energy to obtain

$$U_{O}(v) = 11.5 \exp(-2.19 v^{1/3}) - 5.6/v^{2}$$
 (51)

in atomic units. Since this curve closely approximates the one calculated theoretically, Trubitsyn adds the thermal contribution calculated from the Debye theory to this to get his final equation.

To compare the results of these calculations, the internal energy of both solid molecular hydrogen and metallic hydrogen are shown in Figure 4. Two curves are given for metallic hydrogen. The values for Carr were calculated from equation 27 with the addition of the zero-point energy equation of Wigner and Huntington (equation 13). The curve labeled atomic hydrogen was calculated from the equations of Kronig, DeBoer, and Korringa using March's correction to the Fermi term (α), the correlation energy equation of Carr et al., and Wigner and Huntington's equation for the zero-point energy. This equation in cc/mole and kcal/mole is

$$E_{at} = 359 \cdot 6V^{-2/3} - 613 \cdot 5V^{-1/3} - 225 \cdot 9f(u) V^{-1/3} + 312 \cdot 1$$

$$- 19 \cdot 5 \ln(V^{1/3}) - 18 \cdot 3V^{1/3} + 2 \cdot 13V^{1/3} \ln(V^{1/3}) - 1 \cdot 8V^{2/3}$$

$$+ 0 \cdot 0244[1119 \cdot 6V^{-4/3} - 636 \cdot 7V^{-1} - 10 \cdot 1V^{-2/3} + 1 \cdot 1V^{-1/3} - 1 \cdot 87]$$
(52)

where $f(u) = u - 13u^3/28$ and $u = 9.72V^{1/3}/(70 - 18.0V^{1/3})$.

The properties of solid atomic hydrogen calculated from this equation are given in Table IX \cdot

There are several curves for molecular hydrogen. The curve labeled DeBoer was taken from DeBoer and Blaisse[121] whose equations are given below.

$$E_{\text{mol}} = N \in (6.066V^{*-4} - 14.454V^{*-2} + (9/8)(3/4)^{1/3} \Lambda^* [V^*F(c_{ik}^*)]^{1/6})$$
 (53)

where

$$F(c_{1k}^*) = \frac{305534}{v^{*15}} - \frac{425900}{v^{*13}} + \frac{192503}{v^{*11}} - \frac{28373 \cdot 1}{v^{*9}}$$

The values

$$N \sigma^3 = 15.12 \text{ cc/mole}, N \epsilon = 73.52 \text{ cal/mole}$$

$$E/k = 37^{\circ}K$$
 and $P/\sigma^{-3} = 200.8$ atm

were taken from a paper by DeBoer[142].

The equations of Salter[124]

$$E_{\text{mol}} = N \left[6 \cdot 066V^{*-4} - 14 \cdot 454V^{*-2} + 2 \cdot 291 \Lambda^{*}V^{*-7/2} \right]$$

$$(4 \cdot 283 - 2 \cdot 00V^{*2})^{1/2}$$

$$(54)$$

using the same variables and values as for DeBoer and Blaisse give a curve which differs from that of DeBoer only by the width of a line. The values for Trubitsyn were calculated from equation 54 which converted to cc/mole and kcal is

$$\mathbf{E}_{\text{mol}} = 627 \cdot 2[11 \cdot 5 \, \exp(-0.979 \, \text{V}^{1/3}) - 703 \cdot 2 \, \text{V}^{-2}$$
 (55)

The values for Stewart were calculated by integrating the Murnaghan equation (equation 31) using $\xi = -1.9$ and 3060 kg/cm for 3/2 β . The values for Abrikosov were calculated from equation 50.

Because Abrikosov neglected the Van der Waals forces his values are much too high at volumes greater than 2 cc/mole and are probably too high throughout. The Lennard - Jones 12-6 potential is too hard at high densities making the DeBoer values too high at volumes smaller than 4 cc/mole. The Trubitsyn curve does not extend any further because the maximum of the exp-6 curve has been reached. However, if it were extended as a pure exponential curve, it would probably not intersect the atomic hydrogen curve. It is to be expected that the true curve should be somewhere near Stewart's curve.

To make it easier to determine the pressure at which the transition from molecular to metallic hydrogen occurs, the pressure versus the Gibb's free energy at 0°K were plotted in Figure 5. From this, it can be seen that the pressure would be between a low of 600,000 atmospheres, using DeBoer's parameters for the Lennard-Jones 12-6 potential, and a high of 2.4 x 10 atmospheres, calculated using Abrikosov's equations.

DISCUSSION

From the experimental measurements of the crystal lattice structure it would seem that parahydrogen has a hexagonal close-packed lattice, and normal hydrogen has a mixture of a hexagonal close-packed (hcp) and face-centered cubic lattice (fc0). From the calculations of the lattice potential constants [155,156], it has been shown theoretically that for a Lennard-Jones m-n potential the energy of a hcp lattice is less than one percent smaller than a fcp lattice. This means the hcp lattice is favored. However, this should hold for the inert gas solids which have been found experimentally to be face-centered cubic. For a modified Buckingham equation [44]

$$\mathcal{O}(r) = \frac{\mathcal{E}}{(\alpha - 6)} \left[6 \exp(\alpha - \alpha r/r_{\rm m}) - \alpha (r_{\rm m}/r)^{6} \right]$$
 (56)

there exists a critical value of α , α = 8.675 · If α is greater than 8.675 the hcp lattice has the lower energy while for α less than this value the fcc lattice is favored. However, since the difference in energy is small compared with the difference due to the choice of potential functions, the choice of hcp or foc is relatively unimportant.

A major problem in calculating the energy of a molecular crystal is determining the intermolecular potential to be used. The forces between two hydrogen atoms [143-145] are known with an accuracy which is probably greater than that for any other system. The forces between two hydrogen molecules is much less accurately known. It appears that no satisfactory inverse pair potential can be found which allows $\boldsymbol{\mathcal{E}}$ and $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ to be uniquely evaluated over any large range of temperatures [146,147].

To determine how the choice of different intermolecular potentials would affect the calculations, the authors have chosen several of the potentials proposed for gaseous hydrogen using equation 29 to calculate the potential energy and Salter's equation (41) to calculate the zero-energy. The results are shown in figure $6\cdot$

The Buckingham Corner curve is given by the equation

$$\mathcal{O}(r) = A \exp[-a(y-1)] - (By^{-6} + Cy^{-8}) \exp[-4(y-1)^{3}]$$
for $y \le 1$

where y = r/r_m and the values of the constants A, B, and C were taken from the paper by Buckingham et al[148]. Since the main contribution is due to the 12 nearest neighbors, a value of 12 was used for C_i in all equations for the exponential functions. The curve labeled Fisher was calculated from a Morse Function

$$\mathcal{O}(r) = \mathcal{E}\left\{\exp[-2A(y-1)] - 2 \exp[-A(y-1)]\right\}$$
 (58)

where
$$y = r/r_m$$
, $r_m = [1 + ln(2)/C]$, $A = Cr_m/\sigma$

The values of $\xi/k = 39.75$ °K, $\sigma = 3.011 \times 10^{-8}$ cm, and C = 5.003 determined by Fisher[149] are based on high temperature viscosity measurements.

Bahethi and Saxena[150] evaluated the Morse potential parameters using second virial, viscosity, and diffusion data. They found that different choices of parameters were essential to represent the equilibrium and nonequilibrium properties. Their values evaluated from second virial coefficients give a curve very close to that of Fisher's. The values evaluated from the viscosity data give a curve which lies between the DeBoer and Blaisse curve and the Buckingham Corner curve.

Mason and Rice[151] calculated the parameters of the modified Buckingham potential

$$\mathcal{O}(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{\mathcal{E}}{1 - 6/\alpha} \left\{ \frac{6}{\alpha} \exp\left[\alpha \left(1 - \mathbf{r}/\mathbf{r}_{0}\right)\right] - \left(\mathbf{r}_{0}/\mathbf{r}\right)^{6} \right\}$$
 (59)

from experimental values of second virial coefficients and viscosity coefficients. They get $r_0 = 3 \cdot 337 A^\circ$, $\mathcal{E}/k = 37 \cdot 3^\circ k$, and $\alpha = 14 \cdot$ The curve calculated for solid molecular hydrogen using this potential and their coefficients falls close to the Buckingham Corner curve.

Gordon and Cashion[152] in their comparison of infrared spectroscopic data to potential functions used as parameters in the modified Buckingham equation

$$\mathcal{E}/k = 33^{\circ} K$$
, $r_0 = 3.45 \times 10^{-8} cm$, and $\alpha = 11.5$

which they fit to the results of the quantum mechanical calculation of Evett and Margenau[154] on the $\rm H_2$ - $\rm H_2$ interaction. Using this potential results in a curve which follows the Stewart curve to $\rm v$ = 1.5 and the atomic hydrogen curve for $\rm v$ less than 1 cc/mole. In the calculations for all potentials other than the 12-6, Salter's equation for Debye theta was used to determine the zero-point energy.

Figure 7 shows the results of these calculations on a Gibb's free energy versus pressure plot. It is to be expected that the correct solid molecular hydrogen curve would lie somewhere between the Fisher curve and the Gordon and Cashion curve. Because the slope of the metallic and molecular hydrogen curves are so similar a relatively small change in either of them will cause a large change in the predicted transition pressure.

The intermolecular potential for hydrogen molecules Vanderslice and Mason [157] for small intermolecular distances lies between the Morse potential fit to experimental data by Fisher and the modified Buckingham potential fit to the theoretical calculations of Evett and Margenau by Gordon and Cashion. At intermolecular distances corresponding to those at which the transition from solid molecular to metallic hydrogen takes place the Fisher potential and the Vanderslice and Mason potential are almost identical. This indicates that the Fisher Morse potential is probably better than the Lennard-Jones 12 - 6 potential for hydrogen. The zero point energy equations of DeBoer and Blaisse or Salter contain only the harmonic approximation so they are not accurate enough to use at low pressures where the zero point energy and potential energy are of opposite sign and both are larger than the total energy. In addition the expressions become imaginary for molar volumes near the zero pressure volume. However, at high pressures where the zero point energy is a fraction of the total energy the neglect of the anharmonic terms should cause only a small difference. The Murnaghan equation correlates the experimental pressure-volume data very well. This equation can be integrated using an integration constant that will give an energy at zero pressure equal to the sublimation energy. This gives results that fall between those of Fisher and those of Gordon and Cashion. However, this method takes no account of the possible transition from a rotating to a nonrotating form as proposed by London[158]. The best calculations of the zero point properties of solid hydrogen were performed by Levelt and Hurst, but this method requires very time consuming machine calculations.

The calculations of Kronig, DeBoer and Koringa give the largest binding energy of the cell type calculations for metallic hydrogen. This suggests the choice of the KBK equations using Marche's expression for the Fermi correction term 🕱 and Carr et al's expression for the correlation energy as the best expression for the energy for metallic hydrogen. The curves labeled atomic hydrogen were calculated from these equations. The recent calculations of Calais using the molecular orbital method give a minimum in the energy curve without the zero point energy which agrees very well with that calculated from the KBK equations. It would appear from figures 5 and 7 that the transition pressure is between 8 x 10⁵ and 3 x 10⁶ atm. Assuming the curves labeled Fisher and atomic hydrogen are the best approximations, the best value for the transition pressure The properties of solid hydrogen at 0°K calculated according to these approximations are given in Tables IX and X. The properties of metallic hydrogen contained in Table IX were calculated from equation 52 which contains I plus D/2 where D/2 is taken as $54\cdot71$ kcal· The properties of solid molecular hydrogen contained in Table X were calculated from equation 28 considering only nearest neighbors to give $V_0 = 6N \mathcal{O}(r)$. The Morse function of Fisher (equation 58) was used for the intermolecular potential \mathcal{D} (r), and the Salter expression (equation 41) was used for the zero point energy. This table goes no lower than 10⁴ atm because the Salter approximation is no good at low pressures.

A treatment of solid molecular hydrogen that will permit the correlation of the thermodynamic properties over a fairly wide range of temperatures and pressures is desirable. For this purpose one may use the Morse potential function combined with the Gruneisen approximation for the equation of state of a simple solid. Although this is probably the best currently available method for obtaining thermodynamic properties over a wide range of temperatures and pressures, it is not very satisfactory because the specific heat at constant volume does not appear to be in agreement with estimates of the Gruneisen approximation at zero pressure.

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TABLE I. CORRELATION ENERGY OF AN ELECTRON GAS.

Negative Values Given in Rydberg Units as Function of the Fermi Sphere Radius $(r_{\rm S})$ in Bohr Radii) 1 Rydberg = 1,312.04 kilojoules = 313.585 kilocalories = 13.598 electron volts 1 Bohr Radius = 5.29167 x 10^{-8} cm, $V_s = \frac{4\pi r^3}{3} = 11.2058$ (V in cc/mol electrons)

Carr Maradudin

Carr table

Carr et al

Hubbard

Gell-Mann Brueckner

Macke

Nozieres Pines

Wigner Pines

Wigner

 $\log r_{\rm s}$

 $^{
m V_S}_{
m Bohr}{}^3$

 $r_{\rm s}$ Bohr

																0.	0	9.	0.054	0				
																0	90.	• 65	0.051	• 04				
																•09	.08	0.074	90.					
	.241	.201	.150	.116	.111	0.1076	.105	·104	.100	.097	.095	.093	.092	060.	-088	.086	.072	.062	.056	.05i	46	16	F	8
	.239	960.	.139	960.	060.	0.9847	.082	.079	.075	.070	990.	.064	.063	.059	.056	.052	.027	.009	04	.015	.047	6.9	.190	8
	0.271	°.	.171	.128	.122	0.1167	.114	•	.107	.102	.098	960.	.095	.091	.088	0.	.059	.041	.027	·016	5	-0.0583	.158	8
	0.186	.1.64	.136	.115	.112	0.1093	.108	.106	.104	.102	.100	.099	.098	960.	.095	.093	.080	.072	.065	· 059	.043	.022	1-	8
.112	.111	.110	.106	.100	.098	0.0978	.697	960-	.095	.094	.093	.093	.092	.091	.090	.089	.081	.074	.068	.062	.049	.021	0.8	0
.114	.112	.110	.104	.095	.094	0.0927	.092	• 0 9	.089	.088	.087	.086	•08	.084	.083	0.	.072	.064	.057	.052	.038	.023	じ	0
8	0	.699	.301	0000	.041	0.0792	960.	.113	.146	.176	.204	.217	.230	.255	.278	.201	.475	.602	669.	.778	000.	.301	2.0000	8
000.	.004	+033	.523	 188 	.575	7.2382	.181	.202	• 49	4.13	17.157	.81	$0 \cdot 58$.42	8 • 7	3.5	13.1	0.89	523.60	04.7	•	51		8
•	<u>-</u>	.2		0.	4	1.2c		٠	•4	• 5	9•	9 •	. 7	8	6	٠	•	0	٠	0	•		100.00	8

TABLE II. SUMMARY OF CALCULATED PROPERTIES OF METALLIC HYDROGEN.

Energy is in Rydberg units and distance in Bohr radii.

1 Rydberg = 1312.04 kilojoules = 313.585 kilocalories = 13.598 electron volts 1 Bohr radius = 5.29167×10^{-8} cm, Vs = $\frac{4\pi}{3}$ r₅³ = 11.2058 (V in cc/mole electron)

Author	Wigner Huntington	Kronig et al	Abrikosov	Bellemanns DeLeener	Carr	Calais
Date	1935	1946	1954	1961	1962	1965
- E + Ez - (E+ Ez)	$0.50 \\ 0.0173 \\ 0.0327$	0 · 0 7 7 5 0 · 0 19 2 - 0 · 0 583	- (0 · 0 9 0 0) 0 · 0 3 2 0 - 0 · 0 8 9 7	-0.01 0.0347	0 · 0 5 6 0 · 0 2 1 3	0.096
Without	Zero Point E	nergy				
Re Ro Ro/Re a Ve	1 · 64 1 · 36 0 · 829 4 · 05 18 · 48	1 · 68 1 · 284 0 · 764 2 · 94 20 · 0	(1·62)	1 · 59	$1 \cdot 66$ $1 \cdot 31$ $0 \cdot 752$ $3 \cdot 24$ $19 \cdot 16$	1 · 89 25 · 69
Vo	10 • 54	8 • 8 6	,		9.31	
Includin	g Zero Point	Energy				
Re Ro Ro/Re a	1 · 67 1 · 40 0 · 838 4 · 28	(1·65) (1·24) (0·752) (2·79)	1.66		(1·69) (1·35) (0·799) (3·45)	
Ve Vo Ve Vo	$19 \cdot 51$ $11 \cdot 49$ $2 \cdot 692$ $2 \cdot 256$	(18·8) (7·99) (2·66) (2·00)	19·1		(20·2) (10·3) (2·73) (2·18)	

E is the energy at the minimum of the potential energy curve.

Ez is the zero point energy at the minimum of the energy curve.

Re is the radius at the minimum of the energy curve.

Ve is the volume in bohr units at the minimum of the energy curve.

Ro is the radius at which the energy is equal to zero.

Vo is the volume at which the energy is zero. a is the coefficient in the equivalent Morse function.

In some cases estimates were made when not given in the paper.

These estimates are indicated by parenthesis.

TABLE III. WOLAR VOLUMES OF SOLID HYDROGEN.

	TABLE III.		MOLAR VOLUMES OF	SOLID HYDROGEN.	PROGEN		
E-	Ð	Megaw v	Stewart	SFM	WSB	Compressibility Megaw Stewar	ility Stewart
, , ,	kg/cm	cc/mole	cc/mole	cc/mole	cc/mole	in 10 ⁻⁵ cm	-5cm ² /kg
0	0	22.57					
4.2	0	22.65		9		68+15	4.9
	10			.5	22.49		
	20	22.37		• 4			
	25			S	22.30		
	30	22.25		ೞ			
	40	22.15		.2			
	20	22.01		Ξ.	22.03		
	0.9	21.91		0			
	7.0	21.86		6			
	7.5			6	21.80		
	80	21.77		8			
	06	21.64		2			
	100	21.60		21.70	21.60	32	
	143		21.4	ಚ			
	200		21.0	6.			31
	300			4.			
	400		20.0	6.			23
	009		19.2	$\vec{\cdot}$			19
	1,000		18.0	9			14
	2,000		$16 \cdot 1$				
	2,043		16.1				•
	3,000		15.1	0			•
	4,000		14.3	.2			•
	6,000		13.2	-			•
	8,000		12.4	• 4			•
	10,000		11.8	œ			2.3
	12,000		$11 \cdot 3$	ೞ			•
	16,000		$10 \cdot 6$	9•			•
	18,000		10.3	10.34			
	20,000		10.1	0.			1.2

T °K	Pressure Atmos	Heat of Cal/g	т °к	Heat of Sublimation Cal/g mole
14	5.88698	28 • 2999	K	car/g more
15	36.8797	29 • 6682	13.813	244.90
16	70 • 19 0 8	31.1389	13	242.30
17	105.676	32.7056	12	238 • 71
18	$143 \cdot 217$	34 • 363	11	234 • 77
19	182.717	36.107	10	230.55
20	224 • 096	37.9338	9	226 • 12
21	$267 \cdot 286$	39.8407	8	221 • 53
22	$312 \cdot 23$	41.825	7	216.82
23	358 • 88	43.8846	6	212.02
24	$407 \cdot 196$	46.0177	5	207.15
25	$457 \cdot 14$	$48 \cdot 2227$	4	202.24
26	508 • 684	50.4984	3	197.30
27	561.801	52.8435	2	192.34
28	616 • 466	$55 \cdot 257$	2 1	187.37
29	672 • 662	57 • 738		
30	730.368	60 • 2858		

TABLE VI· HEAT CAPACITY OF SOLID MOLECULAR HYDROGEN AT SATURATION PRESSURE·

Heat capacity in millijoules per mole per degree

T °K	Hill and Lounasmmaa	Ahlers
1	$1 \cdot 22$	1.03
2	9 • 9 5	8 • 57
3	$34 \cdot 7$	30.7
4	86.1	78 • 7
5	178 •	168 •
6	327·	319 •
7	5 5 7 •	551 •
8	898 •	882 •
9	1384 •	1333 •
10	2060 •	1917 •
11		2651 •
12		3548 •
13		4618 •
14		5910 •

TABLE VII. SMOOTHED VALUES OF HEAT CAPACITY AT CONSTANT VOLUME AND THE DEBYE THETAS FOR HYDROGEN.

Ahlers 18·73 cc/mole C,	0.00 189.4 0.29 189.2 2.31 188.8	.88 188.1 .94 187.3 .5 186.4	es F-	6		174.4			. 165 163 . 161
		⊣ છ	107 107		343.				
Ahlers ·83 cc/mole		.18 167.4 .1 166.2 .2 164.9	e -1				148·6 147·6	146.7	145.5 144.9 144.4
Ah16 19.83 C _v	000		96 159			-			3359 3882 4432
Ahlers .56 cc/mole	128 3 127 8 127	125.7 123.9 121.8	119.3	114.5	110.7	108.5	107.0		
Ah 16 22·56 C _v	0.00	26.4 65.3 134.6	247. 418.	662.	1413.	2499.	3866.		
Hill and Lounasmma	116	114 113 111		106.9					
Hi. Lou	3.6.6	34.7 85.6 176.	317.	8 -1	1570.				
Bartholome and Eucken C _v					103.9	104.		104.7	
Bart and C _v					2220	2740.	4000.	5540.	
H° K	0 1 0	დ 4 ი	9	ထ ဂ	10	12	14 15	16	18 19 20

 $C_{_{\mathbf{V}}}$ in Millijoules per mole per degree K $\mbox{\Large \ensuremath{\boldsymbol{\mathcal{O}}}}_D$ in ${}^{\circ}K_{^{\bullet}}$

TABLE VIII. MELTING PRESSURE OF MOLECULAR HYDROGEN.

Pressure in atmospheres

				Goodwin[113}
T[°K]	Woolley[48]	Mills[111]	Mills[112]	Normal	Parahydrogen
				Hydrogen	
- 4	1 00000				
14	1.93822	-3.37034	-5.17337	1.63611	5.88698
15	33.5836	30.0929	28.7707	32.4529	36.8797
16	67.0938	65.3072	64 • 4419	65.5962	70 • 19 0 8
17	102.452	102.246	101.812	100.921	105.676
18	139 • 642	140.885	140.854	138.307	143.217
19	178 • 649	181 • 202	181.545	177.658	182.717
20	219 • 461	223 • 175	223.861	218.892	224.096
21	262.062	266.785	267.782	261.941	267 • 286
22	306.443	312.012	313 • 288	306.748	312.23
23	352.59	358 • 84	360.359	353.264	358 • 88
24	400.492	407.25	408.977	401.448	407.196
25	450.14	457.229	459 • 128	451.264	457.14
26	501.523	508.76	510.793	502.681	508.684
27	554 • 632	561.83	563.959	555.673	561.801
28	609 • 457	616 • 424	618 • 61	$610 \cdot 216$	616.466
29	665.989	672.531	$674 \cdot 734$	666.29	672.662
30	$724 \cdot 222$	$730 \cdot 137$	$732 \cdot 316$	$723 \cdot 877$	730.368
32	845.751	$849 \cdot 799$	851.807	$843 \cdot 528$	$850 \cdot 255$
34	973.985	$975 \cdot 323$	976.988	$969 \cdot 064$	$976 \cdot 021$
36	1108.87	1106.62	$1107 \cdot 77$	1100.4	1107.58
38	1250 • 34	$1243 \cdot 63$	1244.08	$1237 \cdot 46$	$1244 \cdot 87$
40	1398.35	$1386 \cdot 26$	1385.83	$1380 \cdot 21$	$1387 \cdot 83$
42	1552.87	$1534 \cdot 45$	1532.95	1528.58	$1536 \cdot 42$
44	1713.83	1688.13	1685.39	1682.54	1690.6
46	1881 • 21	$1847 \cdot 26$	1843.06	1842.06	$1850 \cdot 34$
48	2054 • 95	$2011 \cdot 77$	2005.93	$2007 \cdot 12$	$2015 \cdot 6$
50	2235.02	2181.6	$2173 \cdot 92$	2177.69	2186.38
55	2712.67	2629 • 16	2616 •	2628 • 09	2637.31
60	3229 • 14	3108.97	3089.04	3112.59	3122 • 32
65	3783.96	3620.38	3592.37	3631.01	3641 • 25
70	4376.69	4162.8	4125.36	4183 • 23	4193.98
75	5006.95	4735.68	4687 • 47	4769 • 17	4780 • 42
80	5674.37	5338 • 55	5278 • 17	5388 • 75	5400 • 49
85	6378 • 61	5970.94	5897.01	6041.92	6054 • 16
90	7119 • 36	6632.43	6543.54	6728 • 63	6741.37
95	7896 • 32	7322.65	$7217 \cdot 37$	7448 • 86	7462.1
100	8709 • 22	8041.22	7918 • 11	8202.59	8216.31
-					

TABLE IX. PROPERTIES OF METALLIC HYDROGEN AT 0 $^{\circ}\text{K}\,\cdot$

Pressure	Volume	Energy	Gibb's free
6	, -		Energy
10 ⁶ Atm	cc/mole	kcal	kcal
$0 \cdot 0$	1.85	$31 \cdot 64$	$31 \cdot 64$
$0 \cdot 1$	$1 \cdot 71$	31.84	$36 \cdot 01$
$0 \cdot 2$	1.60	$32 \cdot 24$	$40 \cdot 07$
$0 \cdot 3$	$1 \cdot 52$	$32 \cdot 77$	43.90
$0 \cdot 4$	$1 \cdot 45$	33 • 38	47.53
$0 \cdot 5$	$1 \cdot 39$	$34 \cdot 04$	$51 \cdot 01$
$0 \cdot 6$	$1 \cdot 34$	$34 \cdot 74$	$54 \cdot 35$
$0 \cdot 7$	$1 \cdot 29$	$35 \cdot 47$	$57 \cdot 57$
0 • 8	1 • 25	$36 \cdot 21$	60 • 69
0 • 9	$1 \cdot 22$	$36 \cdot 97$	63.71
1 • 0	1.19	37.73	66.65
$1 \cdot 1$	$1 \cdot 16$	$38 \cdot 48$	$69 \cdot 42$
$1 \cdot 2$	$1 \cdot 13$	$39 \cdot 28$	$72 \cdot 31$
$1 \cdot 3$	$1 \cdot 10$	$40 \cdot 06$	$75 \cdot 04$
$1 \cdot 4$	$1 \cdot 08$	$40 \cdot 84$	$77 \cdot 70$
$1 \cdot 5$	$1 \cdot 06$	$41 \cdot 62$	80.31
$1 \cdot 6$	$1 \cdot 04$	$42 \cdot 40$	$82 \cdot 87$
$1 \cdot 7$	$1 \cdot 02$	$43 \cdot 17$	$85 \cdot 39$
1 • 8	$1 \cdot 00$	$43 \cdot 95$	87.85
$1 \cdot 9$	0 • 9 8	$44 \cdot 73$	$90 \cdot 28$
2 • 0	0 • 9 7	45.50	92.66
$2 \cdot 2$	$0 \cdot 94$	$47 \cdot 02$	97.30
$2 \cdot 4$	$0 \cdot 91$	$48 \cdot 55$	101.82
2 • 6	0 • 8 8	$50 \cdot 05$	106.20
2 • 8	0.86	$51 \cdot 54$	$110 \cdot 47$
3 • 0	0.84	$53 \cdot 01$	114.63
$3 \cdot 2$	$0 \cdot 82$	$54 \cdot 47$	$118 \cdot 70$
$3 \cdot 4$	0.80	$55 \cdot 91$	$122 \cdot 67$
3 • 6	0.79	57.35	126.56
3 • 8	$0 \cdot 77$	58.77	130.37
4 • 0	0 • 7 6	60 • 17	134 • 11
$4 \cdot 5$	$0 \cdot 72$	$63 \cdot 61$	$143 \cdot 15$
5 • 0	$0 \cdot 70$	66.97	151.81
5 • 5	0.67	70.26	160 • 14
6 • 0	0.65	73.47	168.18
6 • 5	0.63	76.62	175.95
$7 \cdot 0$	0.61	$79 \cdot 70$	183.48
7.5	0.59	82.72	$190 \cdot 79$
8 • 0	$0 \cdot 57$	85.68	197.90
8 • 5	0.56	88.60	204.83
9 • 0	0.55	91.46	211.58
9 • 5	0.53	94.28	218 • 19
10.0	0.52	97.04	224.64
-		, v ,	

TABLE X. PROPERTIES OF SOLID MOLECULAR HYDROGEN AT 0 °K.

Pressure	Volume	Energy	Gibbs Free
5	/ -		Energy
10^5 Atm	cc/mole	kcal/mole	kcal/mole
4	14 10	0.0	0.00
• 1	14 • 18	• 26	3 • 69
• 2	11.69	•93	$6 \cdot 59$
• 3	10.43	$1 \cdot 60$	$9 \cdot 18$
• 4	$9 \cdot 61$	$2 \cdot 26$	$11 \cdot 57$
• 5	$9 \cdot 01$	$2 \cdot 91$	13.83
• 6	$8 \cdot 55$	$3 \cdot 54$	$15 \cdot 97$
• 8	$7 \cdot 86$	$4 \cdot 78$	20.01
• 9	$7 \cdot 59$	$5 \cdot 39$	21.93
1 • 0	7 • 3 5	5 • 9 9	23.80
2 • 0	5 • 9 5	11.59	40.42
3 • 0	5 • 23	16.73	$54 \cdot 76$
4 • 0	4.77	21.56	67.75
5 • 0	4 • 4 3	26.15	79.81
6 • 0	4 • 16	30 • 58	91.18
7 • 0	3 • 9 4	35.00	102.33
8 • 0	3 • 76	39 • 23	112.88
9 • 0	3 • 61	43.22	122.69
J * 0	3.01	40 22	122.00
10.0	3 • 4 9	46.98	131.81
12.0	3 • 27	54 • 39	149.61
14.0	3 • 1 0	61 • 63	166.71
16.0	2 • 9 5	68 • 63	183.03
18.0	2 • 84	74.84	$197 \cdot 33$
20 • 0	2 • 7 2	82.02	$213 \cdot 71$

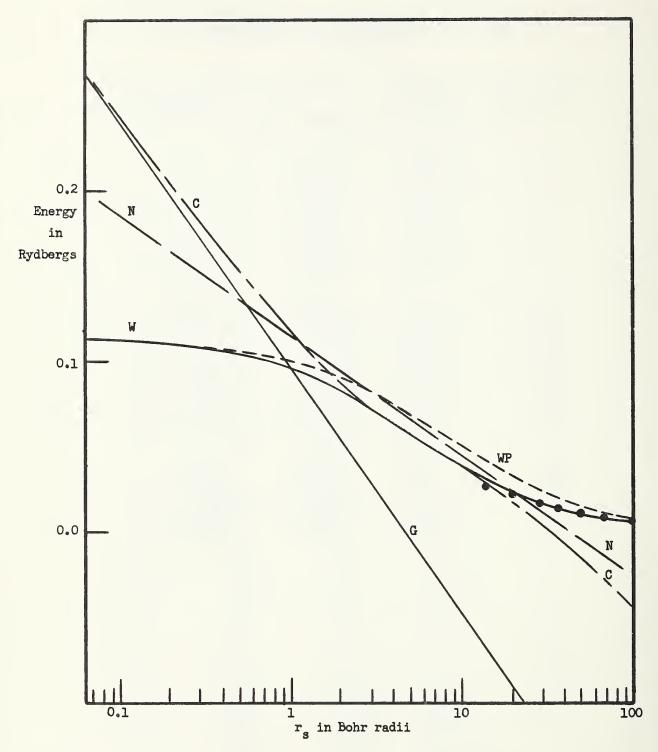


Figure 1. Correlation Energy
Lal low density N Nozieres and Pines

- Carr et.al low density C Carr et al interpolation G Gell-Mann and Breuckner

- W Wigner
 WP Pines modification
 of Wigner

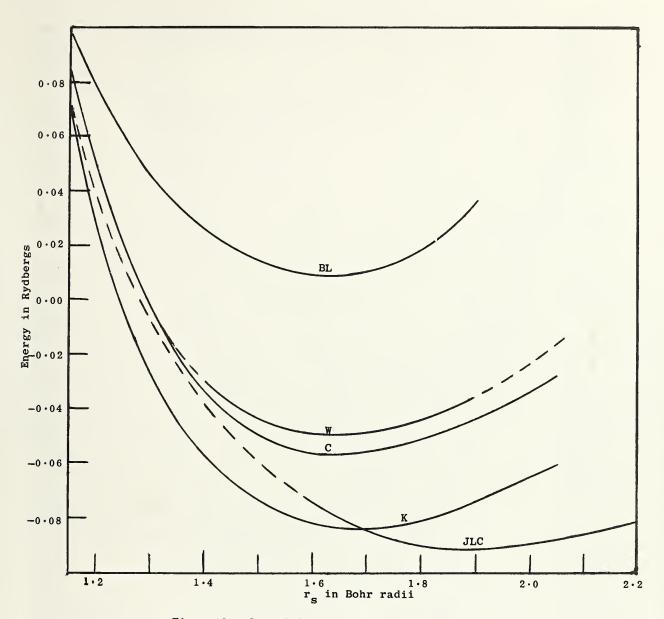


Figure 2. Ground State Energy of Metallic Hydrogen

BL Bellemans and DeLeener
C W.J.Carr, Jr.
JLC J.L.Calais
K Kronig, DeBoer and Korr
W Wigner and Huntington Kronig, DeBoer and Korringa Wigner and Huntington

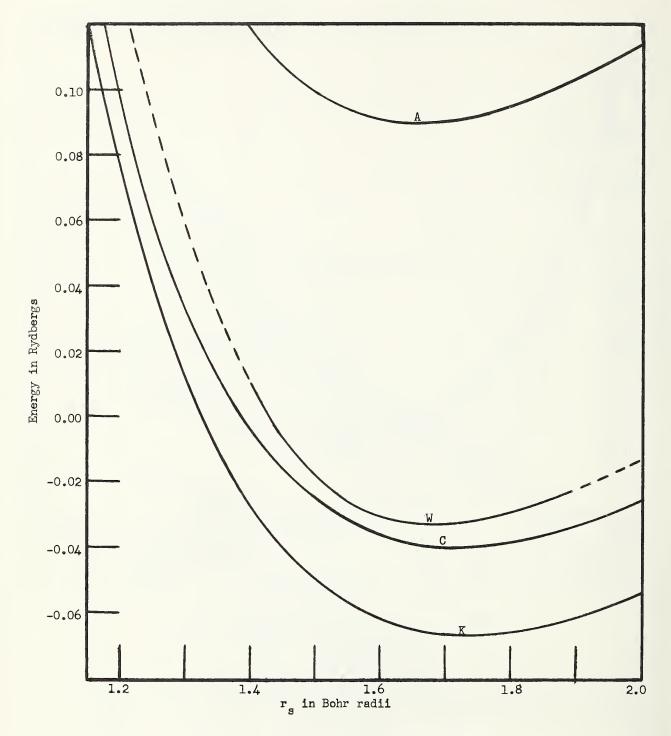
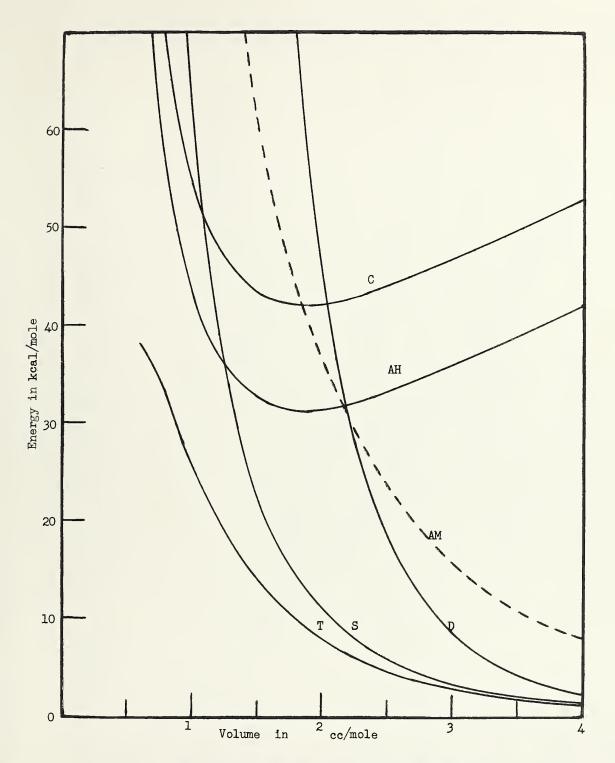


Figure 3. Internal Energy of Metallic Hydrogen.

- A A. A. Abrikosov C W. J. Carr, Jr. K Kronig, DeBoer, and Korringa W Wigner and Huntington



Internal Energy of Solid Hydrogen. Figure 4.

- AH Atomic Hydrogen C W. J. Carr, Jr. AM Abrikosov

- D DeBoer and Blaisse
- S Stewart
- Τ Trubitsyn

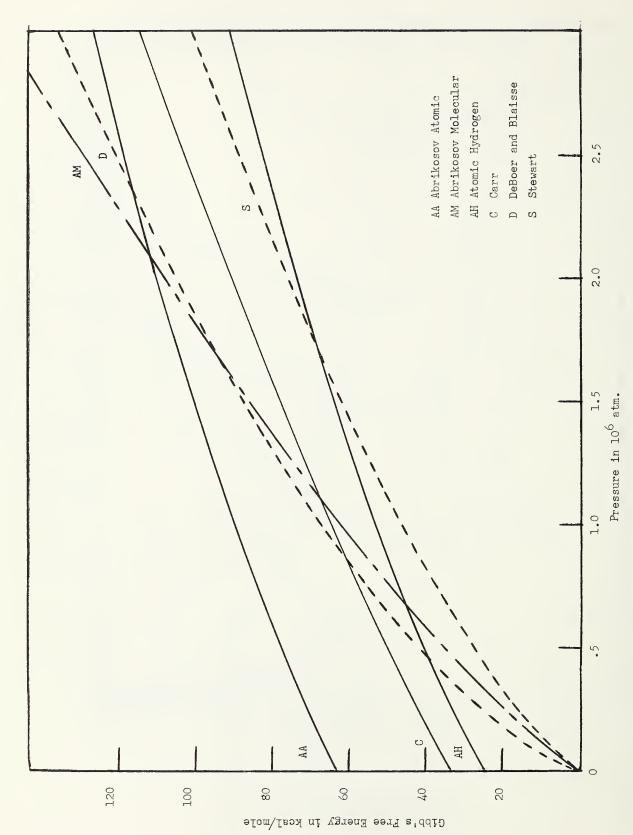
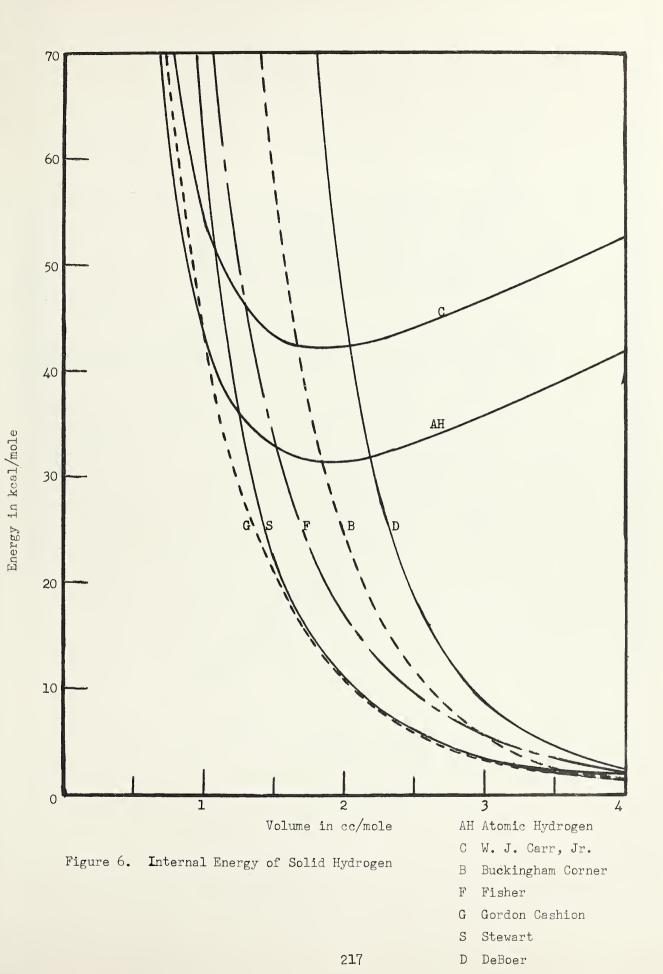


Figure 5. Gibb's Free Energy of Solid Hydrogen



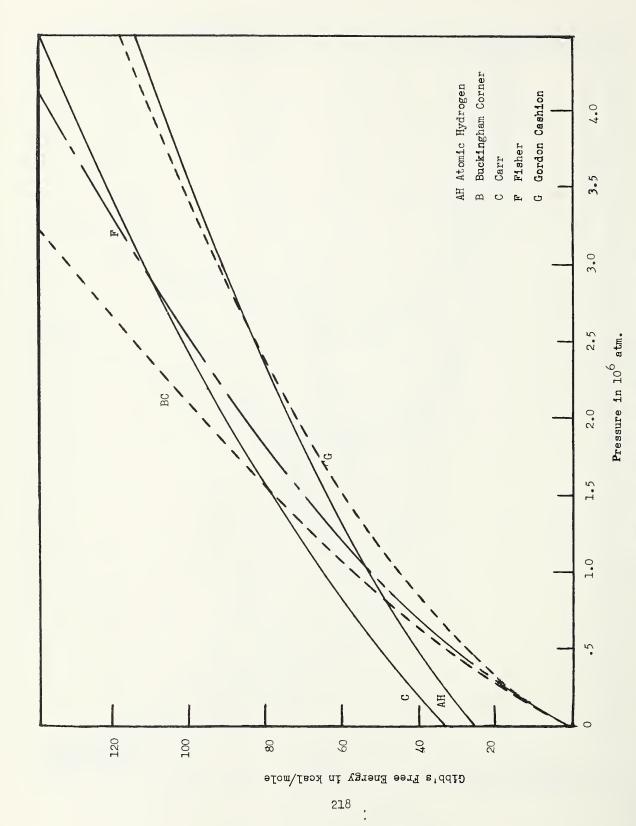


Figure 7. Gibb's Free Energy of Solid Hydrogen

APPENDIX A

SELECTED THERMOCHEMICAL VALUES

W. H. Evans, V. B. Parker, S. Bailey, and R. H. Schumm

In preceding reports (NBS Reports 8504 and 8628) selections of values from data prepared by the Chemical Thermodynamic Properties Group for the revision of NBS Circular 500 have been presented in condensed form. More complete tables will be published initially in the NBS Technical Note 270 Series; however in order to make these data available to research groups prior to completion we present in the accompanying table the results of some additional compounds of interest to this program.

These new data will form a self-consistent set of thermodynamic tables; extreme caution should be used if they are combined with data from other sources.

Substance	State	∆H£8	∆Hf°	∆Gf°	s°	Сp°
	A Parties of the Part	0°K	6 1	2:	98.15°K	
			kcal/mol		ca	1/deg mol
Cd	c ,α	0	0	0	12.37	6.21
	g	26.78	26.77	18.51	40.066	4.968
in Hg, 2 phase			-5.078	-2.328	3.145	
Cd ⁺	g	234.18	235.65			
Cd++	g	624.09	627.04			
std. state	aq		-18.14	-18.542	-17.5	
CdO	С		-61.7	-54.6	13.1	10.38
Cd(OH) ₂	С		-134.0	-113.2	23.	
CdF ₂	С		-167.4	-154.8	18.5	
std. state	aq		-172.14	-151.82	-24.1	
CdC1 ₂	С	-93.677	-93.57	-82.21	27.55	17.85
in 200 H ₂ O	aq		-96.863			
500 H ₂ O	aq		-97.069			
1000 H ₂ O	aq		-97.192			
10000 H ₂ O	aq		-97.608			
100000 H ₂ O	aq		-97.932			
CdCl ₂ ·H ₂ O	С		-164.54	-140.31	40.1	
Cd(C10 ₄) ₂						
in 10 H ₂ O	aq		-78.3			
100. H ₂ O	aq		-79.9			
Cd(C10 ₄) ₂ .6H ₂ O	С		-490.6			
CdBr ₂	С		-75.57	-70.82	32.8	18.32
in 100 H ₂ O	aq		-76.259			
500 H ₂ O	aq		-76.344			
1000 н ₂ 0	aq		-76.376			
10000 Н ₂ 0	aq		-76.309			
CdBr ₂ ·4 H ₂ O	aq		356.73	298.287	75.6	
		220				

Substance	State	∆Hfô	∆Hf°	△Gf°	s°	c_p°
		0°К		2 9	8.15°K	
			kcal/mol		cal/	deg mol
CdI ₂	c	-48.52	-48.6	-48.13	38.5	19.11
in 400 H ₂ O	aq	g	- 47.325		The state of the s	
1000 H ₂ O	aq		- 46.875		Control of the Contro	
10000 H ₂ 0	aq		-45.705			
Cd(IO ₃) ₂	С			-90.13		
CdS	С		-38.7	-37.4	15.5	
CdSO ₄	c	-220.719	-223.06	-196.66	29.407	23.80
in 20 H ₂ O	aq		-232.87			
100 H ₂ O	aq		-233.72			
1000 H ₂ O	aq		-234.344		Chicago	
10000 H ₂ O	aq		-234.806			
100000 H ₂ O	aq		-235.250			
CdSO4 • H2O	c	-292.786	-296.26	-255.46	36.814	32.16
CdSO4.8/3 H2O	С	-406.960	-413.33	-350.224	54.883	50.97
CdSeO3	С		-137.5	-119.0	34.0	
CdSeO ₄	С		-151.3	-127.1	39.3	
CdTe	С		-22.1	-22.0	24.	
Cd(N ₃) ₂	С		108.			
	aq		113.4			
Cd ₃ N ₂	С		38.7			
Cd(NO ₃) ₂	С		-109.06			
in 5 H ₂ O	aq		-114.19	Commission of the Commission o		
10 н ₂ 0	aq		-115.80			
50 H ₂ O	aq		-116.725			
400 H ₂ O	aq		-116.84			
1000 H ₂ O	aq		-116.864			
10000 н ₂ 0	aq		-116.896			
Cd (NO ₃) ₂ ·2H ₂ O	С	221	-252.30			
		221				

						<u> </u>
Substance	State	∆H f δ	∆H f°	∆Gf°	S	C _p °
		0°K	i	29	98.15°K	
	Committee of the commit	kc	al/mol		cal/	deg mol
Cd(NO3)2·4H2O	С		-394.11			
Cd ₃ P ₂	C in		-27.4		and a second	
Cd ₃ (PO ₄) ₂	С			-587.1		
CdAs ₂	С		-4.2			
Cd ₃ As ₂	С		-10.0			
CdSb	С		-3.44	-3.11	22.2	
Cd ₃ Sb ₂			-13.9			
CdC03	С		-179.4	-160.0	22.1	
CdC204	С		-218.1	Control of the Contro		
std. state, m = 1	aq		-215.3	-179.6	-6.6	
Cd(CH ₃) ₂	liq		15.2	33.2	48.25	
	g		24.27	35.09	72.4	
CdSiO ₃	С		-284.20	-264.29	23.3	21.17
Cd(BO ₂) ₂	С			-354.87		
				-		
		222				

Substance	State	△Hf°	∆Hf°	△Gf°	s°	C _p °
		0°K		5 °K		
			kcal/mol		Ca	1/deg mol
Zn	С	0	0	0	9.95	6.07
	g	31.114	31.245	22.748	38.450	4.968
Zn ⁺	g	247.74	249.352			
Zn ⁺⁺	g	662.00	665.09			
std. state, m = 1	aq		- 36.78	-35.14	-26.8	11.
ZnO .	С		-83.24	-76.08	10.43	9.62
ZnO2						
std. state, m = 1	aq			-91.85		
HZnO2						
std. state, m = 1	aq			-109.26		
Zn(OH) ₂	с,β		-153.42	-132.31	19.4	
_	3,0		-153.74	-132.68	19.5	17.3
ZnF ₂	С	-182.07	-182.7	-107.5	17.61	15.69
ionized, std. state	aq		-195.78	-168.42	-33.4	-40.
ZnC1 ₂	С	-99.255	-99.20	-88.296	26.64	17.05
ionized,std.state	aq		-116.6 8	- 97 . 88	0.2	-54.
in 10 H ₂ O			-109.17			
20 H ₂ O			-110.66			
50 H ₂ O			-112.70			
100 H ₂ O			-114.24			
500 H ₂ O			-115.72			
1000 H ₂ O			-116.02			
Zn(C104) ₂						
in 20 H ₂ O	aq		- 97.78			
50 н ₂ 0	·		-98.10			
100 н ₂ 0			-98.20			
500 H ₂ O			-98.60			
1000 H ₂ O			-98.6			
			223			

Substance	State	∆Hfő	∆Hf°	∆Gf°	s°	c _p °
		0°K		298	3.15°K	
			kcal/mol		ca	l/deg mol
Zn(C10 ₄) ₂ ·6H ₂ O	c		-509.89	-371.8	130.4	
ZnBr ₂	с		-78.55	-74.60	33.1	
in 400 H ₂ O	aq		-93.78			
ZnBr ₂ ·2H ₂ O	С		-224.0	-191.1	47.5	
ZnI ₂	С		-49.72	-49.94	38.5	
in 3000 H ₂ 0	aq		-61.4	DECEMBER OF THE PROPERTY OF TH		
Zn(I03) ₂	С		PER CALL OF	-103.68		
std.state, m = 1	aq		-142.6	-96.3	29.8	
ZnS wurtzite	с		-46.04	X TO THE CONTRACT OF THE CONTR		
spholerite	С		-49.23	-50.12	13.8	11.0
ZnSO ₄	С		-234.9	-209.0	28.6	
in 20 H ₂ 0	aq		-252.258			
50 H ₂ O			-252.799			
100 H ₂ O			-252.897			
500 н ₂ 0			-253.108			
1000 H ₂ O			253.225			
5000 н ₂ 0			253.503			
10000 н ₂ 0	1		253.628			
InSO ₄ •H ₂ O	С		311.78	-270.58	33.1	
nS0 ₄ •6H ₂ 0	С		663.83	-555.64	86.9	
InSO ₄ ·7H ₂ O	С		735.60	-612.59	92.9	
ZnSe	С		-31.2			
nSeO ₄	С		158.8			
nTe	С		-28.1			
^{In} 3 ^N 2	С		-5.4			26.
				e a		

Substance	State	∆Hf ₀ °	△Hf°	∆Gf°	s°	C _p °
***		0°K			298.15°K	
			kcal/mol		ca	1/deg mol
Zn(NO ₃) ₂	c		-115.6			
in 5 H ₂ O	aq		-129.8			
10 H ₂ O			-133.99			
50 н ₂ 0			-135.56			
100 H ₂ O			-135.67			
500 H ₂ O			-135.51			
Zn(NO3)2·6H ₂ O			-551.30	-423.79	109.2	77.2
In(NH ₂) ₂	С		-38.2			
n ₃ P ₂	С		-113.			
In(PO ₃) ₂	С		- 479.9			
In3(PO ₄) ₂	С		-691.3			
nAs ₂	С		- 7.6			
n3As ₂	С		-0.8			
nSb	С		-3.5			
nCO ₃	С		-194.26	-174.85	19.7	19.05
nC ₂ O ₄ • 2H ₂ O	c ·		-374.0	-321.7	45.3	
n(CH ₃) ₂	liq		5.6			
	g		12.67			
n(C ₂ H ₅) ₂	liq		2.5			
	g		12.1			
n(CN) ₂	С		22.9			
n2SiO ₄	С		-391.19	-364.15	31.4	29.48
^{nA1} 2 ⁰ 4	С		-502,2			

Substance	State	∆Hfå	∆Hf°	∆Gf°	s°	Cp°		
	Participa and the	0°K		29	98.15°K			
			kcal/mol		cal/de	eg mol		
Cu	С	0	0	0	7.97	5.86		
	g	80.58	80.86	71.39	39.74	4.968		
Cu ⁺	g	258.752	260.513					
std. state, $m = 1$	aq		17.13	11.95	9.7			
Cu †1	g	726.69	729.93					
std. state, $m = 1$	aq		15.48	15.66	-23.8			
Cu ₂	g	115.7	115.73	103.28	57.71	8.75		
CuO	С		-37.6	-31.0	10.19	10.11		
Cu ₂ 0	С		-40.3	-34.9	22.26	15.21		
СиН	С		5.1	Control of the contro				
	g		70.	AL S GRAN				
Cu(OH) ₂	c		-107.5		700			
CuF ₂	С		-129.7					
CuF2•2H ₂ O	С		-275.4	-234.6	42.			
CuC1	С		-32.8	-28.65	20.7			
CuC1 ₂	С	-52.79	-52.6	-42.0	25.83	13.82		
in 10 H ₂ O	aq		-58.70					
50 H ₂ O	aq		-62.40					
100 H ₂ O	aq		-63.23					
500 H ₂ O	aq		-64.42					
1000 н ₂ 0	aq		-64.70					
CuC1 ₂ •2H ₂ O	С		-196.3	-156.8	40.			
Cu(C103) ₂		and the same of th						
in 1000 H ₂ O	aq		-32.					
Cu(C10 ₄) ₂		Mary Control of the C						
std. state, $m = 1$	aq		-46.34	11.54	63.2			
Cu(C104)2•6H2O	С	ķ Ţ	-460.9		79			

Substance	State	△Hfő	△Hf°	∆Gf°	s°	Cp°		
		0°K		.15°K				
		k	cal/mol		cal/	cal/deg mol		
CuBr	С		-25.0	-24.0	22.97	13.08		
CuBr ₂	С		-33.9	manual control of the				
in 400 H ₂ O	aq		-42.5					
CuBr ₂ ·4H ₂ O	С		-317.0					
CuI	С		-16.3	-16.6	23.1	12.92		
Cu(IO ₃) ₂ ·H ₂ O	С		-165.4	-112.0	59.1			
CuS	С		-12.7	-12.6	15.9	11.43		
Cu ₂ S	ς,α		-19.0	-20.6	28.9	18.24		
CuS0 ₄	С		-184.36	-158.2	26.	23.9		
std. state, m = 1	aq		-201.84	-162.31	-19.0			
in 50 H ₂ O	aq		-200.284					
100 H ₂ O	aq		-200.374					
400 H ₂ 0	aq		-200.58					
1000 H ₂ O	aq		-200.76					
10000 H ₂ O	aq		-201.254					
CuSO4.5 H ₂ O	С		-544.85	-449.344	71.8	67.		
Cu ₂ S0 ₄	С		-179.6					
CuSe	С		-9.45					
CuSe ₂	С		-10.3					
Cu ₂ Se	С		-14.2					
CuSe 0 ₄	С		-114.36					
Cu ₂ Te	С		5.					
CuN3	С		66:7	82.4	24.			
Cu(N3)2	С		143.0					
Cu ₃ N	С		17.8					

Substance	State	∆Hfå	∆Hf	∧C f	s°	Cu-3
Dubstance	State		ΔMI	∆Gf		Cp°
		0°K ·		2	98.15°K	
			kcal/mol		cal/c	deg mol
Cu(NO ₃) ₂	С		-72.4			
in 10 H ₂ O	aq		- 82.76		Table of the state	
100 н ₂ 0	aq		- 83.75			
800 H ₂ O	aq		-84.4			
Cu(NO ₃) ₂ .6H ₂ O	С		-504.5			
Cu(NH3)4(NO3)2	c		-198.0			
in 250 H ₂ O	aq		-181.56			
CuP ₂	С		-29.			
Cu ₃ P	С		-36.2			
Cu ₂ P ₂ O ₇	С			-448.0		
std. state, m = 1	aq		-511.8	-427.4	- 76.	
Cu ₃ (PO ₄) ₂	С			-490.3		
Cu3As	С		-2.8			
Su3(AsO ₄) ₂	С			-310.9		
Cu ₂ Sb	С		-2.8			
Cu ₃ Sb	С		-2.			
uC204	С			-158.2		
std. state, m = 1	aq		-181.7	-145.5	-12.9	
Su(CHO ₂) ₂	С		-186.7			
Cu(CH3C00) ₂	С		-213.5			
CuCN	c		23.0	26.6	20.5	
u (ONC)						
cuprous fulminate	С		26.3			
CuCNS	С			16.7		
CuA1	c		- 9.8			
Su ₃ Al ₂	С		-26.2			
CuA1 ₂ 0 ₄	c		445.3			

APPENDIX B

THERMODYNAMIC FUNCTIONS OF SOME SELECTED SUBSTANCES IN THE SOLID AND LIQUID STATES

George T. Furukawa and Martin L. Reilly

(See Chapter 13 for discussion concerning the substances for which thermodynamic functions are tabulated.)

TABLE B-152

THERMODYNAMIC FUNCTIONS FOR BERYLLIUM SULFATE (BE S ${\bf 0_4}$) SOLID PHASE

		SULID PHASE			
GRAM MOLECULAR WT.=				1 CAL=4.1	1840 JOULES
		= 273.15 + T			
$T = -(G_0^1 - H_C^0) \setminus T$	$(H_0^1-H_0^0)/I$	(S _T -S ₀)	(H ₀ -H _C)	C _P	-(GT-HC)
DEG K DEG MOLE	DEG MOLE	DEG MOLE	CAL MOLE	DEG MOLE	<u>CAL</u> MOLĒ
, ,		. •		,	. •
298.15 8.233 300.00 8.298	10.405 10.468	18.638 18.765	3102·3 3140·3	20•478 20•574	2454•7 2489•3

 $[\]mathsf{H}_0^{\mathsf{C}}$ and $\mathsf{S}_0^{\mathsf{C}}$ apply to the reference state of the solid at zero deg κ

TABLE B-152 (CONT.)

THERMODYNAMIC FUNCTIONS FOR BERYLLIUM SULFATE (BE S 04) SOLID PHASE

GRAM MOL	ECULAR WT.=		FRAMS = 273.15 +	T DEG C	1 CAL=4.1	840 JOULES
T	-(GT-HC)/T	$(H_{T}^{0}-H_{0}^{C})/T$	$(s_T - s_0^C)$	(H _T -H _C)	C _P ⁰	-(GT-HC)
DEG K	DEG MOLE	DEG MOLE	DEG MOLE	CAL MOLE	DEG MOLE	CAL MOLE
300.00 310.00 320.00 330.00 340.00 350.00 370.00 373.15 380.00 400.00 405.00 455.00 455.00 600.00 550.00 600.00 750.00 800.00	8.298 8.646 8.994 9.342 9.689 10.034 10.379 10.722 10.830 11.064 11.405 11.744 12.586 13.417 14.237 15.046 16.632 18.176 19.680 21.146 22.579 23.979 25.359 26.694	10.468 10.802 11.131 11.453 11.470 12.081 12.385 12.684 12.776 13.262 13.542 14.218 14.862 15.480 16.074 17.207 18.280 19.304 20.289 21.241 22.166 23.068 23.950	18 • 765 19 • 448 20 • 125 20 • 795 21 • 459 22 • 115 22 • 764 23 • 406 24 • 040 24 • 667 25 • 286 28 • 279 31 • 121 33 • 839 36 • 455 48 • 485 41 • 485 48 • 445 48 • 446 48 • 446 48 • 446 48 • 446 48 • 446 48 • 446	3140.3 3348.6 3561.8 3779.6 4001.9 4228.3 4458.7 4692.9 4767.4 4930.7 5172.0 5416.7 6042.5 6688.0 7352.9 8037.1 9463.9 10968.1 12548.1 14202.1 15931.1 17733.1 19608.2 21555.	20.574 21.078 21.556 22.009 22.438 22.845 23.233 23.603 23.716 23.958 24.300 24.632 25.430 26.207 27.758 29.311 30.843 32.348 33.8304 36.769 38.2674	2489 • 3 2680 • 4 2878 • 2 3082 • 8 3294 • 1 3512 • 0 3736 • 4 3967 • 2 4041 • 3 4204 • 5 4448 • 0 4697 • 8 5349 • 0 6037 • 6 6762 • 7 7523 • 2 9147 • 6 10905 • 1 12792 • 1 4802 • 1 4802 • 1 4802 • 1 4802 • 1 49183 • 2 24025 • 2

 H_0^{C} and S_0^{C} apply to the reference state of the solid at zero deg k

TABLE B-153 THERMODYNAMIC FUNCTIONS FOR STRONTIUM FLUORIDE (SR F_2) SOLID PHASE

GRAM MOL	ECULAR WT.=		GRAMS = 273.15 +	T DEG C	1 CAL=4.18	340 JOULES
Т	$-(G_{1}^{0}-H_{0}^{C})/T$		(s _T -s ₀)		c _P ⁰	-(GT-HC)
DEG K	DEG MOLE	DEG MOLE	DEG MOLE	CAL MÕĈĒ	DEG MOLE	CAL MOLE
0.00 5.00 10.00 10.00 20.00 25.00 30.00 35.00 40.00 45.00 60.00 65.00 80.00 90.00 91.00 105.00 115.00 125.00 135.00 140.00 155.00 140.00 155.00 140.00 155.00 160.00 175.00 180.00 175.00 180.00 175.00 180.00 175.00 180.00 175.00 180.00 175.00 180.00 175.00 180.00 175.00 180.00 175.00 180.00 175.00 180.00 175.00 180.00 175.00 180.00 175.00 180.00 175.00 180.00 175.00 180.00 175.00 180.00 175.00 175.00 180.00 175.00 175.00 175.00 180.00 175.00 175.00 175.00 180.00 175.00 175.00 180.00 175.00	0.001 0.001 0.001 0.001 0.001 0.0029 0.0880 0.186 0.23324 0.6233 0.186 0.3425 0.67590 1.126 0.186 0.3425 0.67590 1.126 0.186 0.3425 0.67590 1.127 0.186 0.18	0.000 0.002 0.002 0.012 0.037 0.077 0.140 0.230 0.495 0.6652 1.059 1.523 1.527 2.026 2.289 2.557 2.827 3.098 3.3687 3.637 3.902 4.164 4.422 4.675 4.924 5.168 6.305 6.5120 6.5120 6.5120 6.5120 7.105 7.305 8.495	0.000 0.002 0.016 0.051 0.106 0.193 0.479 0.681 0.917 1.483 1.809 2.1528 2.915 3.318 3.737 4.588 5.024 5.463 6.787 7.224 7.6695 8.9523 9.3793 10.206 8.9523 9.3793 10.206 11.414 11.809 8.9523 9.3793 10.206 11.414 11.809 12.175 12.195	0.000 0.003 0.123 0.559 1.547 3.4998 12.228 19.794 29.882 19.794 29.883 1217.31 223.82 151.92 183.13 2254.44 294.33 336.84 429.21 478.84 530.61 647.66 657.66 817.96 817.96 817.96 817.96 817.97 948.67 1225.88 1217.31 1225.88 1217.37 183.87 183.87 183.88 194.884 107.66 107.	0.000 0.0048 0.048 0.277 0.529 1.754 2.837 3.436 4.683 7.777 7.754 2.837 7.777 8.754 10.144 10.561 11.675 12.314 10.565 11.313 13.822 14.754 12.837 11.677 12.314 13.822 14.728 13.822 14.728 13.822 14.728 15.728 15.728 15.728 15.728 15.728 16.739 16.737 16.3399 16.3399 16.3	0.003 0.003 0.003 0.0041 0.201 0.583 1.3161 4.5427 11.6.6406 12.5.341.522 413.1536 66.738 82.937 11.6.6406 11.5.22 11.5.66.738 11.5.766 11.

 $[\]mathsf{H}_0^\mathsf{C}$ and S_0^C apply to the reference state of the solid at zero deg K

TABLE B-154
THERMODYNAMIC FUNCTIONS FOR STRONTIUM CHLORIDE (SR CL₂)
SOLID PHASE

GRAM MOLE	ECULAR WT.=		= 273.15 +	T DEG C	1 CAL=4.18	340 JOULES
т	-(GT-HC)/T	$(H_{T}^{0}-H_{0}^{C})/T$	(S _T -S ₀)	(H ₀ -H _c)	c _P ⁰	-(GT-HC)
DEG K	DEG MOLE	DEG MOLE	DEG MOLE	CAL MOEE	DEG MOLE	CAL MÖLE
0.00 10.00 10.00 20.00 25.00 30.00 40.00 45.00 50.00 65.00 70.00 80.00 80.00 80.00 80.00 115.00 115.00 120.00 125.00 125.00 140.00 155.00 160.00 175.00 185.00 125.00	0.000 0.001 0.0030 0.075 0.149 0.2536 0.5488 0.7344 1.420 1.6853 2.5222 3.1249 3.737 4.0466 4.978 2.5222 3.1249 3.737 4.0466 4.978 5.2883 5.899 6.503 6.504 7.101 7.398 7.6887 8.5447 9.379 9.184 10.707 11.710 11.7	0.000 0.003 0.026 0.026 0.236 0.444 0.712 1.035 1.398 1.789 2.620 3.045 3.470 3.889 4.299 4.699 5.088 5.464 5.826 6.173 6.566 6.826 7.132 7.426 7.708 8.237 8.485 8.724 8.724 8.724 8.725 9.585 9.779 9.967 10.147 10.320 10.803 10.803 10.953 11.983 11.995 11.8699 11.8699 11.8699 11.8699 11.8699 11.983 12.995 12.203 12.308 12.410 12.5099 12.5099 12.791 12.8867 13.021 13.052	0.004 0.004	0.000 0.016 0.260 1.437 4.727 11.165 36.224 55.933 80.511 109.95 144.10 182.73 225.20 375.95 432.42 375.95 432.42 375.95 432.42 375.95 432.42 375.95 432.42 375.95 432.45 617.32 683.45 683.45	0.000 0.013 0.107 0.407 0.941 1.636 2.494 3.456 4.428 5.404 7.287 8.153 8.957 9.699 10.384 11.016 11.590 12.105 12.980 13.359 13.359 14.828 14.828 14.828 15.498 15.498 15.498 15.498 15.498 15.498 15.498 17.408 16.108 16.108 17.135 17.273 17.338 17.400 17	0.000 0.005 0.085 0.452 1.504 3.728 7.587 13.520 21.914 33.070 47.224 64.556 85.197 109.23 136.71 167.65 202.05 239.89 281.14 325.75 373.67 424.83 479.17 536.63 597.13 660.63 727.04 796.31 868.37 943.17 1020.6 1100.7 1183.3 1268.5 1356.1 1446.0 1538.3 1632.9 1729.8 1828.8 1930.0 2033.3 2138.7 2246.2 2355.6 2466.9 2580.2 2355.6 2466.9 2580.2 2355.6 2466.9 2580.2 2355.6 2466.9 2580.2 2355.6 2466.9 2580.2 2355.6 2466.9 2580.2 2590.2 2580.2 25

 H_0^{C} and S_0^{C} apply to the reference state of the solid at zero deg K

TABLE B-155

THERMODYNAMIC FUNCTIONS FOR TITANIUM TETRAFLUORIDE (TI F4)
SOLID PHASE

GRAM MOLECULAR WT. = 123.8936 GRAMS 1 CAL=4.1840 JOULES T DEG K = 273.15 + T DEG C $\mathsf{T} \qquad - (\mathsf{G}_\mathsf{T}^0 - \mathsf{H}_\mathsf{0}^\mathsf{C}) / \mathsf{T} \quad (\mathsf{H}_\mathsf{T}^0 - \mathsf{H}_\mathsf{0}^\mathsf{C}) / \mathsf{T} \quad (\mathsf{S}_\mathsf{T} - \mathsf{S}_\mathsf{0}^\mathsf{C}) \qquad (\mathsf{H}_\mathsf{T}^0 - \mathsf{H}_\mathsf{0}^\mathsf{C}) \quad \mathsf{C}_\mathsf{P}^\mathsf{O} \qquad - (\mathsf{G}_\mathsf{T}^0 - \mathsf{H}_\mathsf{0}^\mathsf{C})$ DEG K DEG^AMOLE DEG^AMOLE DEG^AMOLE MÖLE DEG^AMOLE 27.318 32.177

 $[\]mathsf{H}_0^\mathsf{C}$ and S_0^C apply to the reference state of the solid at zero deg k

TABLE B-156

THERMODYNAMIC FUNCTIONS FOR ZIRCONIUM TETRAFLUORIDE (ZR F4) SOLID AND LIQUID PHASES

GRAM MOLE	CULAR WT.=	167.2136 GRAMS T DEG K = 273.15 + T DEG C		1 CAL=4.18	340 JOULES	
Т	-(GT-HC)/T		$(S_T - S_0^C)$		C _P ⁰	-(GT-HC)
DEG K	DEG MOLE	DEG MOLE	DEG MOLE	<u>CAL</u> MOLE	DEG MOLE	CAL MOLE
			SOLID PHASE			
0.00 5.00 10.00 15.00 20.00 30.00 35.00 40.00 50.00 55.00 60.00 70.00 75.00 80.00 100.00 110.00 110.00 110.00 110.00 120.00 120.00 130.00 140.00 145.00 145.00 150.00 165.00 175.00 185.00 120.00	0.000 0.000 0.0001 0.001 0.001 0.017 0	0.000 0.005 0.005 0.002 0.062 0.132 0.233 0.363 0.521 0.704 0.908 1.133 1.375 1.633 1.904 2.187 2.780 3.087 3.389 3.715 4.034 4.354 4.674 4.994 5.314 5.632 5.949 6.263 6.575 6.883 7.489 7.785 8.075 8.075 8.075 9.949 10.499 10.	0.000 0.001 0.006 0.027 0.079 0.170 0.303 0.479 0.695 0.950 1.239 1.560 1.912 2.290 2.691 3.115 3.558 4.018 4.492 4.980 5.479 5.986 6.501 7.022 7.548 8.078 8.611 9.146 9.682 10.219 10.755 11.291 11.824 12.356 12.885 13.412 13.935 14.454 14.969 15.488 16.491 11.824 12.356 12.885 13.412 13.935 14.454 14.969 15.481 15.988 16.491 16.990 17.484 17.974 18.454 14.969 15.481 15.988 16.491 16.990 17.484 17.974 18.454 14.969 15.481 15.988 16.491 16.990 17.484 17.974 18.454 14.969 15.481 15.988 16.491 16.990 17.484 17.974 18.458 18.939 19.414 19.885 20.351 20.813 21.269 21.722 22.169 22.612 22.888 23.050 23.484 23.913 24.338 24.752 25.175	0.002 0.002 0.0047 0.323 1.0323 1.0323 1.0323 1.0323 1.04.3117 1.06.315 1.33.29 1.64.3117 1.06.29 1.62.515 1.33.29 1.64.02 2.236.27 2.77.23 2.21.55 4.78.55 5.99.33 2.71.55 4.78.55 5.99.33 2.72.20 8.76.83 1.11.98.20 8.76.83 8.	0.000 0.002 0.002 0.002 0.104 0.282 0.559 0.926 1.375 1.887 2.449 3.059 3.706 4.381 5.075 5.783 6.501 7.227 7.953 8.670 9.374 10.063 10.738 11.399 12.046 12.677 13.292 13.889 14.467 15.562 15.562 16.575 17.914 17.507 17.944 18.763 19.147 19.516 19.5176 20.529 20.535 2	0.000 0.001 0.014 0.088 0.339 0.946 2.113 4.051 6.976 11.067 16.524 23.509 32.177 42.669 55.112 69.620 86.29 155.22 126.49 150.17 176.31 204.97 236.18 269.99 306.41 345.47 387.19 431.59 478.66 528.41 580.84 635.96 693.75 754.20 817.31 883.05 951.42 1022.4 1095.9 1172.1 1250.7 1332.0 1415.7 1501.8 1590.5 1681.6 1775.1 1870.9 1969.2 2069.8 2172.7 2277.9 2385.4 2407.1 2678.7 2721.2 2837.6 2956.1 3076.7 3199.4 324.3

 $^{{\}sf H}_0^{\sf C}$ and ${\sf S}_0^{\sf C}$ apply to the reference state of the solid at zero deg k

TABLE B-156 (CONT.)

THERMODYNAMIC FUNCTIONS FOR ZIRCONIUM TETRAFLUORIDE (ZR \mathbf{F}_4) SOLID AND LIQUID PHASES

GRAM MOLE	ECULAR WT.=				1 CAL=4.1	840 JOULES
			= 273.15 +			
Т	-(GT-HC)/T	$(H_0^1-H_C^0) \setminus I$	(S _T -S ^C ₀)	(HT-HC)	c _P	-(GT-HC)
DEG K	DEG MOLE	DEG MOLE	DEG MOLE	CAL MOLE	DEG MOLE	<u>CAL</u> MOLE
			SOLID PHASE			
300.00 310.00 320.00 330.00 340.00 350.00 370.00 373.15 380.00 400.00 425.00 475.00 550.00 600.00 750.00 800.00 950.00 1050.00 1150.00 1205.00	11.081 11.549 12.013 12.473 12.929 13.380 13.828 14.271 14.410 15.144 15.574 16.630 17.659 18.662 19.639 21.519 23.306 25.008 26.632 28.183 29.6632 28.183 29.6632 31.093 32.461 33.777 35.0463 35.0777 35.0463 37.452 38.596 39.703 39.813	14.094 14.446 14.785 15.113 15.429 15.734 16.022 16.314 16.402 16.589 16.856 17.113 17.721 18.283 19.287 20.158 20.923 22.762 22.762 23.762 23.762 24.148 24.543 25	25.975 25.978 27.585 28.357 29.857 29.855 30.5811 31.290 32.687 34.350 34.350 34.350 34.350 44.6231 48.843 50.945 44.6231 48.843 50.9527 63.680 64.480 65.095 64.488 65.6927	4228.1 4478.2 4731.2 4987.2 5245.8 5506.9 5770.4 6036.1 6120.3 6303.7 6845.3 7531.6 8227.4 1087.1 125548.1 17071.1 18611.2 20165.2 21733.2 23316.2 24911.2 26520.2 28142.2 29776.3 31587.4	24.846 25.452 25.452 25.729 25.990 26.234 26.463 26.678 26.743 26.880 27.069 27.247 27.651 28.007 28.325 28.613 29.119 29.556 29.945 30.299 30.627 30.299 31.782 31.782 32.809 31.782 32.809 33.055 33.079	3324.3 3580.1 3844.1 4116.0 4395.8 4683.1 4978.0 5280.2 5376.9 55906.1 6229.6 7067.7 7946.5 8864.3 9819.3 11835. 13984. 16255. 18642. 21138. 23735. 26429. 29215. 32089. 35046. 35046. 36083. 41197. 44386. 47975.
			LIQUID PHAS	SE		
1205.00	39.813	38.952	78.766	46937•	29.000	47975.

 $\mbox{H}_0^{\mbox{\scriptsize C}}$ and $\mbox{s}_0^{\mbox{\scriptsize C}}$ apply to the reference state of the solid at zero deg κ

TABLE B-157
THERMODYNAMIC FUNCTIONS FOR ZIRCONIUM DIBORIDE (ZR B₂)
SOLID PHASE

GRAM MOLEC	CULAR WT.=	112.842 GF	RAMS = 273.15 +	T DEG C	1 CAL=4.1	840 JOULES
1 -	-(G ⁰ -H ^C)/Т			(HT-HC)	c _P ⁰	-(G1-HC)
DEG K	DEG MOLE	DEG MOLE	DEG MOLE	CAL MOLE	DEG MOLE	<u>CAL</u> MOLE
0.00 10.	0.000 0.0001 0.0002 0.0003 0.0007 0.0011 0.0023 0.0045 0.0080 0.1028 0.128 0.128 0.127 0.128 0.127 0.128 0.127 0.128 0.127 0.128 0.127 0.2265 0.307 0.400 0.4502 0.400 0.4502 0.400 0.4502 0.400 0.557 0.614 0.734 0.734 0.797 1.280 1.207 1.280 1.207 1.280 1.207 1.280 1.354 1.430 1.507 1.585 1.643 1.430 1.598 1.643 1.644 1.643 1.644 1.643 1.643 1.643 1.643 1.643 1.643 1.643 1.643 1.643 1.643 1.6443 1.643 1.64	0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.001 0.003 0.0049 0.0153 0.269 0.338 0.415 0.497 0.585 0.677 0.877 1.1887 1.506 1.676 1.687 1.845 1.9575 2.191 2.308 2.422 2.546 2.660 2.778 2.896 3.313 3.400 3.716 3.832 3.840 4.97 0.975 1.1887 1.845 1.9575 2.191 2.308 2.422 2.546 2.660 2.778 2.896 3.313 3.400 3.716 3.832 3.846 3.832 3.847 4.976 4.976 3.832 3.846 3.832 3.846 4.977 4.061 4.175 4.288 4.400 4.512 4.800 4.813 4.977 5.175 5.175 5.1778 5.1	0.000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.000000	0.000 0.0014 0.0146 0.0148 0.0187 0.0551 1.067 1.9559 3.4758 1.2404 1.23.6688 3.9.6883 7.3.3446 60.8883 7.3.3446 60.8883 7.3.3446 102.02 118.24 135.4.451 1295.882 242.45.469 1254.469 1254.469 1254.469 1254.469 1266.284 174.51 1295.889 3250.555 380.761 444.89 478.79 5507.166.28 478.99 791.97 836.025 974.62 1021.8 974.62 1021.8 974.62 1021.8 974.62 1021.8 9121.9 9122.9 912	0.0001 0.0004 0.0009 0.0021 0.0021 0.0021 0.0021 0.0021 0.0021 0.0021 0.0021 0.0021 0.0021 0.0021 0.0021 0.0021 0.0021 0.0021 0.0022 0.	0.000 0.0023 0.0023 0.0023 0.0025 0.133 0.377 0.6339 1.6437 2.484 3.61745 9.595 120.347 79.585 120.349 325.727 43.971 16.124 36.971 51.72734 79.843 115.49 129.77 120.77 1

HO AND SO APPLY TO THE REFERENCE STATE OF THE SOLID AT ZERO DEG K

TABLE B-158 THERMODYNAMIC FUNCTIONS FOR STRONTIUM 1:1-SILICATE (SR O .SI O2)

SOLID PHASE GRAM MOLECULAR WT .= 163.7042 GRAMS 1 CAL=4.1840 JOULES T DEG K = 273.15 + T DEG C $-(G_{T}^{0}-H_{0}^{C})/T$ $(H_{T}^{0}-H_{0}^{C})/T$ $(S_{T}-S_{0}^{C})$ $(H_{T}^{0}-H_{0}^{C})$ C_{P}^{0} $-(G_{T}^{0}-H_{0}^{C})$ DEG K DEG MOLE DEG MOLE DEG MOLE DEG MOLE 100.00 105.00 110.00 115.00 120.00 125.00 130.00 135.00 140.00 145.00 150.00 155.00 160.00 165.00 170.00 175.00 180.00 185.00 190.00 195.00 200.00 205.00 210.00 215.00 220.00 225.00 230.00 235.00 240.00 245.00 250.00 255.00 260.00 265.00 270.00 273.15 11.546 21.381 3175.1 20.330 275.00 9.836 11.704 280.00 10.045 21.749 3277.2 20.516 2812.6

22.114

22.476

22.834 23.058

11.861

12,015

12.166

10.254 -10.461

295.00 10.668 298.15 10.798 300.00 10.874

285.00

290.00

3380.3

3484.2

3589.0 3655.5 3694.7

20.699

21.052 21.152

2922.3

3033.7

3147.0 3219.3

HO AND SO APPLY TO THE REFERENCE STATE OF THE SOLID AT ZERO DEG K

TABLE B-159

THERMODYNAMIC FUNCTIONS FOR STRONTIUM 2:1-SILICATE (2SR 0 .SI 02) SOLID PHASE

GRAM MOL	ECULAR WT.=		GRAMS = 273.15 +	T DEG C	1 CAL=4.1	840 JOULES
Т	-(GT-HC)/T		(s _T -s ₀)		c _P	-(GT-HC)
DEG K	DEG MOCE	DEG MOLE	DEG MOLE	<u>CAL</u> MOLE	DEG MOLE	MOLE
0.00 0.00 10.00 10.00 10.00 20.00 20.00 30.00 35.00 40.00 55.00 60.00 60.00 70.00 100.00 110.00 125.00 125.00 140.00 140.00 145.00 140.00 145.00 140.00 145.00 140.00 145.00 140.00 145.00 140.00 145.00 140.00 145.00 140.00 145.00 140.00 145.00 140.00 145.00 140.00 150.00 150.00 170.00 180.00 170.00	0.000 0.001 0.007 0.023 0.054 0.179 0.280 0.4066 0.749 0.957 1.187 1.705 1.988 2.259 2.910 3.9257 4.6057 4.6057 3.910 4.2055 4.6057 4.210 4.2	0.000 0.003 0.0020 0.0068 0.161 0.310 0.524 0.804 1.144 2.886 3.370 3.859 4.839 5.325 5.804 6.276 6.276 6.276 6.276 6.276 10.134 10.519 10.896 11.264 11.625 11.977 12.326 12.991 13.315 13.640 12.660 12.660 12.691 13.315 13.632 13.943 14.249 14.548 14.549 14.549 15.640 15.640 15.640 15.640 15.640 17.640	0.003 0.003 0.0037 0.00	0.000 0.013 1.024 3.215 7.7525 28.142 45.777 97.996 132.77 173.19 2170.14 3452.66 3452.66 3452.66 3452.66 3452.66 382.77 173.19 1852.66 1859.76 1815.8 1020.7 1115.8 1215.8 1020.7 1115.8 1215.9 1315.8 1215.9 1315.8 1215.9 1315.8 1315.8 1315.8 1315.8 1315.8 1315.9 1315.9 1315.9 1315.9 1316.6 1327.9 13	0.000 0.010 0.081 0.272 0.637 1.214 20.983 4.0723 6.383 7.524 8.633 10.726 11.707 12.644 13.69 15.160 15.917 17.359 18.03	0.000 0.004 0.068 0.342 1.077 2.617 5.371 9.802 16.357 37.452 52.633 71.230 119.34 149.09 182.74 220.34 221.19.34 149.09 182.74 220.34 241.91 3357.04 410.57 468.07 529.52

HO AND SO APPLY TO THE REFERENCE STATE OF THE SOLID AT ZERO DEG K

TABLE B-160 THERMODYNAMIC FUNCTIONS FOR BARIUM 1:1-SILICATE (BA O .SI O2) SOLID PHASE

GRAM MOLECULAR WT. = 213.4242 GRAMS 1 CAL=4.1840 JOULES T DEG K = 273.15 + T DEG C $-(\mathsf{G}_{\mathsf{T}}^{\mathsf{O}} - \mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{O}}^{\mathsf{C}}) / \mathsf{T} \quad (\mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{T}}^{\mathsf{O}} - \mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{O}}^{\mathsf{C}}) / \mathsf{T} \quad (\mathsf{S}_{\mathsf{T}} - \mathsf{S}_{\mathsf{O}}^{\mathsf{C}}) \qquad (\mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{T}}^{\mathsf{O}} - \mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{O}}^{\mathsf{C}}) \qquad \mathsf{C}_{\mathsf{P}}^{\mathsf{O}} \qquad -(\mathsf{G}_{\mathsf{T}}^{\mathsf{O}} - \mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{O}}^{\mathsf{C}})$ DEG K DEG MOLE DEG MOLE DEG MOLE DEG MOLE | DEG | | DEG | | DEG | | DEG | | NOTE | | NOTE | DEG | | NOTE | NOTE | | N

HO AND SO APPLY TO THE REFERENCE STATE OF THE SOLID AT ZERO DEG K

TABLE B-161
THERMODYNAMIC FUNCTIONS FOR BARIUM 1:2-SILICATE (BA 0 .2SI 02)
SOLID PHASE

G	RAM MOL	ECULAR WT.=		RAMS = 273.15 +	T DEG C	1 CAL=4.18	340 JOULES
	Т	$-(G_{T}^{0}-H_{0}^{C})/T$	$(H_{L}^{0}-H_{C}^{0}) \setminus I$	(S _T -S ₀)	(HT-HC)	C _P	-(GT-HC)
	DEG K	CAL DEG MOLE	DEG MOLE	DEG MOLE	CAL MOLE	DEG MOLE	CAL MÖLE
	0.00 5.00 10.00 15.00 20.00 35.00 40.00 55.00 60.00 75.00 85.00 90.00 90.00 91.00 115.00 115.00 125.00 135.00 145.00 155.00 145.00 155.00 155.00 125.00	0.000 0.003 0.0022 0.074 0.168 0.304 0.474 0.675 0.900 1.146 1.410 1.690 1.982 2.285 2.285 2.598 2.918 3.275 3.911 4.591 8.702 7.372 7.721 8.079 8.419 9.806 0.151 10.495 10	0.000 0.008 0.007 0.217 0.461 0.771 1.120 1.494 1.888 2.300 2.722 3.150 3.579 4.007 4.431 4.850 5.263 5.670 6.071 6.465 7.238 7.616 7.930 8.722 9.081 9.434 9.783 10.127 10.466 10.800 11.128 11.452 11.771 12.086 12.396 12.396 12.701 13.029 13.591 13.880 14.445 14.722 14.995 15.530 15.792 16.808 17.054 16.808 17.054 17.054 17.054 18.008 17.0597 17.449 17.537 17.774 18.008 18.468	0.000 0.011 0.089 0.291 0.625 1.0794 2.168 2.786 4.132 4.840 5.561 2.7.029 7.768 8.5075 9.981 10.715 11.473 12.897 13.617 14.336 15.753 16.455 17.848 18.536 15.753 17.848 18.536 19.218 19.218 19.218 19.218 19.218 20.566 21.232 22.547 23.196 23.840 24.478 25.759 26.361 27.599 28.799	0.0042 0.671 3.248 9.279 3.249 9.279 52.274 75.39 103.59 103.51 2173.25 214.75 310.17 3621.73 421.04 481.93 546.35 615.44 759.99 837.81 9103.0 1090.2 1180.5 1273.0 1090.2 1180.5 1273.0 1090.2 1180.5 1273.0 1090.2 1180.5 1273.0 1090.2 1180.5 1273.0 1090.2 1180.5 1273.0 1090.2 1180.5 1273.0 1090.2 1180.6 1273.0 1090.2 1180.6 1273.0 1090.2 1180.6 1273.0 1090.2 1180.6 1273.0 1090.2 1180.6 1090.2 1180.6 1090.2 1180.6 1090.2 1180.6 1090.2 1180.6 1090.2	0.000 0.034 0.266 0.817 1.593 3.292 4.188 5.122 6.980 7.868 8.729 10.335 11.091 11.822 12.534 13.229 13.911 14.583 15.885 16.523 17.142 17.751 18.345 17.142 17.751 18.345 17.142 17.751 18.345 17.142 17.751 18.345 17.142 17.751 18.345 17.142 17.751 18.345 17.142 17.751 18.345 17.142 17.751 18.345 17.142 17.751 18.345 18.345 17.142 17.751 18.345 17.142 17.751 18.345 17.142 17.751 18.345 17.142 17.751 18.345 17.142 17.751 18.345 17.142 17.751 18.345 18.345 18.345 19.481 22.546 21.556 21.556 21.557 21.556 21.556 21.556 21.556 21.556 21.556 21.556 21.556 21.556 21.556 21.557 21.576 21.5776 21.576 21.576 21.576 21.576 21.576 21.576 21.576 21.576 21.5776 21.5776 21.5776 21.5776 21.5776 21.5776 21.5776 21.5776 21.57776 21.5776 21.5776 21.5776 21.577776 21.57776 21.57776 21.57776 21.57776 21.57776 21.577776 21.57776 21.57776 2	0.000 0.014 0.224 1.117 3.3621 35.968 14.235 23.621 35.968 70.503 92.922 148.85 259.926 148.85 259.92 148.85 303.92 351.98 403.73 459.13 518.18 580.85 407.47 9047.99 1119.5 1210
	298.15 300.00		18.611 18.694	36.535 36.734	5548.8 5608.3	32.061 32.169	5344.1 5411.9

 $[\]mathsf{H}_0^\mathsf{C}$ and S_0^C apply to the reference state of the solid at zero deg K

TABLE B-162

THERMODYNAMIC FUNCTIONS FOR BARIUM 2*3-SILICATE (2BA 0 .3SI 02) SOLID PHASE

		SOCIO FIRSE	•		
GRAM MOLECULAR WT.=		GRAMS = 273.15 +	T DEG C	1 CAL=4.1	340 JOULES
$T \qquad -(G_T^0 - H_0^C) / T$	(HTO-HC)/T	(s _T -s ₀)	(H ^T -H ^O)	c _P ⁰	-(GT-HC)
DEG K DEG MOLE	DEG MOLE	DEG MOLE	CAL MOĈE	DEG MOLE	MOLE
0.00	0.000 0.099 0.312 0.653 1.653 2.2879 3.712 4.464 5.9276 6.725 7.465 7.465 7.469 11.022 11.6993 11.033 11.032 11.033 11.032 11.033 11.032 11.033 11.03	0.000 0.132 0.421 0.8939 2.336 3.270 4.3140 6.621 7.8441 10.338 11.604 12.8752 11.604 12.8752	0.000 0.991 4.680 13.687 49.584 779.974 1167.05 223.19 287.15 223.19 287.16 358.58 437.12 614.81 713.68 614.81 713.68 930.09 1047.1 11698.9 21431.9 1571.1 1718.6 231788.6 23178.6 23178.6 23178.6 23178.6 23178.6 23178.6 23178.6 231	0.0389 1.153 2.242 5.215 6.9519 10.418 12.024 13.5515 16.407 17.773 19.117 20.415 12.6834 17.773 19.117 21.6834 17.773 19.117 21.6834 27.299 28.360 27.398 27.398 27.398 27.398 27.398 27.398 27.398 27.398 27.399 28.360 27.399 28.399 29.399 29.399 29.399 37.499 47.599 4	0.0333 1.635 10.876 20.501 34.485 77.737 104.87 104.87 104.83 77.87 1144.03 1234.85 289.70 35

HC AND SC APPLY TO THE REFERENCE STATE OF THE SOLID AT ZERO DEG K

TABLE B-163

THERMODYNAMIC FUNCTIONS FOR BARIUM 2:1-SILICATE (2BA 0 .SI 02) SOLID PHASE

GRAM MOLECULAR WT.= 366.7636 GRAMS	40 JOULES
DEG K DEG MOLE DEG MOLE DEG MOLE DEG MOLE 0.00 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 5.00 0.003 0.010 0.013 0.048 0.038 10.00 0.025 0.076 0.101 0.760 0.300 15.00 0.084 0.244 0.328 3.659 0.918 20.00 0.190 0.521 0.711 10.418 1.821 25.00 0.344 0.887 1.231 22.164 2.903 30.00 0.543 1.322 1.865 39.661 4.108 35.00 0.783 1.811 2.594 63.378 5.387 40.00 1.059 2.339 3.398 93.544 6.674	
0.00 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 5.00 0.003 0.010 0.013 0.048 0.038 10.00 0.025 0.076 0.101 0.760 0.300 15.00 0.084 0.244 0.328 3.659 0.918 20.00 0.190 0.521 0.711 10.418 1.821 25.00 0.344 0.887 1.231 22.164 2.903 30.00 0.543 1.322 1.865 39.661 4.108 35.00 0.783 1.811 2.594 63.378 5.387 40.00 1.059 2.339 3.398 93.544 6.674	-(G1-H0)
5.00 0.003 0.010 0.013 0.048 0.038 10.00 0.025 0.076 0.101 0.760 0.300 15.00 0.084 0.244 0.328 3.659 0.918 20.00 0.190 0.521 0.711 10.418 1.821 25.00 0.344 0.887 1.231 22.164 2.903 30.00 0.543 1.322 1.865 39.661 4.108 35.00 C.783 1.811 2.594 63.378 5.387 40.00 1.059 2.339 3.398 93.544 6.674	CAL MOĈĒ
50.00	0.000 0.016 0.254 1.263 8.600 16.296 27.408 42.408 42.36 13.03 113.03 113.03 113.03 113.03 113.03 113.03 1125.46 272.50 380.88 442.14 508.51 653.50 732.95 816.95 997.37 1094.0 11299.6 1408.5 1521.3 1638.5

HC AND SC APPLY TO THE REFERENCE STATE OF THE SOLID AT ZERO DEG K

TABLE B-164

THERMODYNAMIC FUNCTIONS FOR CALCIUM 1:1-ZIRCONATE (CA O .ZR $^{\mathrm{O}}_{\mathrm{2}}$) SOLID PHASE

GRAM MOL	ECULAR WT.=		SRAMS = 273.15 +		1 CAL=4.18	840 JOULES
Т	-(GT-HC)/T	(H ₀ -H ₀)/T	$(s_T - s_0^C)$	(H ₀ -H _C)	с <mark>0</mark>	-(GT-HC)
DEG K	DEG MOLE	DEG MOLE	DEG MOLE	CAL MÖLE	DEG MOLE	CAL MÔLĒ
0.00 5.00 10.00 15.00 20.00 25.00 30.00 30.00 40.00 45.00 60.00 65.00 100.00 115.00 110.00 120.00 135.00 145.00 145.00 155.00 145.00 125.	6.014 6.246 6.478 6.710 6.943 7.175 7.4640 7.871 8.103 8.334 8.565 9.024 9.253 9.397 9.482 9.710 9.936 10.163 10.388 10.530	0.000 0.001 0.0031 0.073 0.141 0.237 0.361 0.685 1.581 1.5845 2.419 2.402 2.6985 3.283 3.584 4.491 4.793 5.098 5.698 6.280 6.577 7.141 7.4697 7.6969 8.759 8.759 9.921 10.455 10.455 10.455 10.455 11.5545 11.5545 11.555 1	0.000 0.002 0.012 0.041 0.098 0.189 0.488 0.696 0.940 1.528 1.867 2.234 2.625 3.463 3.907 4.830 5.307 5.727 7.279 8.279 9.815 10.823 11.833 12.834 12.834	0.006 0.092 0.464 3.529 7.1197 20.438 30.8253 440.034 102.79 129.14 159.14 159.14 159.15 2268.669 311.89 192.17 1298.71 1062.9 1142.6 1157.6 838.09 9185.5 11662.9 1142.6 11224.5 11394.5 11482.5 11572.6 11662.9 11482.5 11664.1 11757.6 11852.8 1185	0.000 0.005 0.005 0.005 0.037 0.124 0.291 0.5551 0.898 1.321 1.809 2.3545 3.577 4.241 4.925 5.6102 6.981 7.653 8.971 9.613 10.245 12.026 12.596 13.701 14.233 14.746 12.596 13.701 14.233 14.7407 17.792 18.876 17.407 17.792 18.876 19.842 20.433 20.433 20.433 20.433 20.433 20.433 20.433 21.409 22.4620 22.8251 23.575 23.867 23.867 23.867 23.867 23.867 23.867 23.867 23.867 23.867	0.000 0.002 0.031 0.155 0.489 1.190 2.442 4.443 7.386 11.459 16.839 23.691 32.167 42.409 54.545 68.68.68 84.923 103.34 124.01 146.99 172.33 200.07 230.25 262.90 298.03 335.67 418.51 463.73 511.50 614.65 670.03 727.94 788.35 851.27 916.85 851.27 916.85 851.27 916.85 877 916.85 984.96 986.96 986.96 986.96 986.96 986.96 986.96 986.96 986.96 986.96 986.96 986.96 986.96 986.96 986.96 986.9

 H_0^C and S_0^C apply to the reference state of the solid at zero deg K

TABLE B-165

THERMODYNAMIC FUNCTIONS FOR STRONTIUM 1:1-ZIRCONATE (SR 0 .ZR 02)

GRAM MOLECULAR WT.= 226.8382 GRAMS T DEG K = 273.15 + T		1 CAL=4.18	40 JOULES
		0	
$T = -(G_1^0 - H_0^C)/T (H_1^0 - H_0^C)/T (S_1 - S_0^C)$		CP	-(GT-HC)
DEG K DEG MOLE DEG MOLE	CAL Mole	DEG MOLE	CAL MOLE
145.00 4.932 7.632 12.564 150.00 5.196 7.930 13.126 155.00 5.460 8.223 13.683 160.00 5.726 8.510 14.236 165.00 5.992 8.792 14.785 170.00 6.259 9.069 15.328 175.00 6.526 9.341 15.867 180.00 6.793 9.608 16.401 185.00 7.059 9.870 16.930 190.00 7.326 10.127 17.453 195.00 7.592 10.379 17.972 200.00 7.858 10.627 18.485 205.00 8.124 10.869 18.993 215.00 8.653 11.341 19.994 220.00 8.916 11.570 20.486	0.000 0.013 0.210 1.058 3.270 7.555 14.555 14.555 156.65 159.65 159.65 165.65 1	0.000 0.010 0.084 0.280 0.631 1.115 1.679 2.297 2.960 3.654 4.371 5.114 5.877 6.640 7.385 8.110 8.817 9.508 10.836 11.468 12.6666 13.237 13.792 14.333 14.860 15.860	0.000 0.004 0.073 1.109 2.654 5.310 9.362 15.052 22.5155 57.978 74.497 115.28 139.69 166.81 229.60 265.24 303.75 345.13 389.38 436.53 539.40 595.14 653.72 779.35 846.53 779.35 846.53 779.35 846.53 779.35 846.53 779.35 846.53 779.35 846.53 779.35 846.53 779.35 846.53 779.35 846.53 779.35 846.53 779.35 846.38 916.18 9

 $[\]mathsf{H}_0^\mathsf{C}$ and s_0^C apply to the reference state of the solid at zero deg K

TABLE B-166 THERMODYNAMIC FUNCTIONS FOR BARIUM 1:1-ZIRCONATE (BA O .ZR O2) SOLID PHASE

GRAM MOLECULAR WT.= 276.5582 GRAMS 1 CAL=4.1840 JOULES T DEG K = 273.15 + T DEG C T $-(G_T^0 - H_0^C) / T$ $(H_T^0 - H_0^C) / T$ $(S_T - S_0^C)$ $(H_T^0 - H_0^C)$ C_P^0 $-(G_T^0 - H_0^C)$ DEG K DEG^{AL} DEG MOLE DEG^{AL} DEG MOLE DEG^{AL} DEG MOLE DEG^{AL}

HO AND SO APPLY TO THE REFERENCE STATE OF THE SOLID AT ZERO DEG K

TABLE B-167

THERMODYNAMIC FUNCTIONS FOR SODIUM 1:1-TUNGSTATE (NA $_2$ O .W O $_3$) SOLID PHASE

			SOLID PHASE			_
GRAM MOLI	ECULAR WT.=		GRAMS = 273.15 +	T DEG C	1 CAL=4.18	340 JOULES
Т	-(GT-HC)/T	(HT-HC)/T	$(s_T - s_0^C)$	(HT-HC)	CP	-(GT-HC)
DEG K	DĒĞ MŌLĒ	DEG MÖLE	DEĞ MÖLE	CAL MÖLE	DEG MOLE	<u>CAL</u> MOĪĒ
0.00 5.00 10.00 20.00 20.00 20.00 30.00 40.00 450.00 60.00 60.00 75.00 80.00 95.00 110.0	0.000 0.001 0.0028 0.0028 0.0025 0.1210 0.323 0.464 0.6825 1.280 1.5837 1.811 2.099 2.402 2.7016 3.0757 4.422 4.716 3.0757 4.422 4.716 7.716 7.716 7.716 7.716 8.551 8.551 8.551 8.551 8.551 8.551 8.551 8.551 8.551 8.551 8.551 8.551 8.710 7.710 8.710 7.710 8.710 9.640 7.710 8.710 9.640 7.710 8.710 9.640 7.710 8.710 9.640 7.710 8.710 9.640 7.710 8.710 9.640 7.710 8.710 9.640 7.710 8.710 9.640 7.710 8.710 9.640 7.710 8.710 9.640 7.710 8.710 9.640 7.710 8.710 9.640 7.710 8.710 9.640 7.710 8.710 9.640 7.710 8.710 9.7	0.000 0.003 0.003 0.0025 0.082 0.192 0.361 0.594 0.888 1.236 1.629 2.056 2.507 2.974 3.453 3.941 4.436 4.935 5.435 5.435 5.435 5.435 6.431 6.923 7.409 7.889 8.361 8.826 9.282 9.730 10.169 10.600 11.022 11.434 11.838 12.232 12.617 12.994 13.361 13.720 14.070 14.413 14.747 15.075 15.395 15.708 16.014 16.814 16.607 16.894 17.175 17.451 17.775 15.395 15.708 16.014 16.314 16.607 16.894 17.175 17.451 17.775 15.395 15.708 16.014 16.314 16.607 16.894 17.175 17.451 17.775 15.395 15.708 16.014 16.314 16.607 16.894 17.175 17.451 17.775 17.451 17.7985 18.244 18.449 18.749 19.929 20.153	0.004 0.033 0.1256 0.480 0.1256 0.480 0.2199 2.2661 1.6299 2.2557 0.3357 8.1575 9.8640 11.3.145 11.3.1	0.000 0.015 0.245 3.831 9.022 31.070 49.426 73.280 137.90 178.46 224.87 332.71 394.81 46224.00 534.09 610.91 677.95 867.78 961.56 1059.1 1160.3 1264.9 1372.9 1484.0 1598.1 1715.1 1834.9 1264.9 1372.9 1484.0 1598.1 1715.1 1834.9 1372.0 1484.0 1598.1 1715.1 1834.9 1372.0 1484.0 1598.1 1715.1 1834.9 1372.0 1484.0 1598.1 1715.1 1834.9 1372.0 1484.0 1598.1 1715.1 1834.9 1372.0 1484.0 1598.1 1715.1 1834.9 1372.0 1484.0 1598.1 1715.1 1834.9 1957.1 2081.9 2208.9 2338.4 2469.6 2469.6 3589.0 3736.6 3885.7 401.0 3589.0 3736.6 3885.7 401.0 3589.0 3736.6 3885.7 401.0 3589.7 401.0 3589.0 3736.6 3885.7 401.0 3589.0 3736.6 3885.7 401.0 3589.0 3736.6 3885.7 401.0 3589.0 3736.6 3889.0 3736.6 3885.7 401.0 3599.1 401.0 3599.1 401.0 3599.1 401.0 3599.0 3736.6 3889.0 3736.6 3885.7 401.0 401	0.000 0.012 0.098 0.327 0.745 1.367 2.178 3.143 4.212 5.337 6.467 7.568 8.653 9.741 10.830 11.900 12.933 13.897 15.824 16.711 17.559 18.367 19.139 19.875 21.264 21.913 22.523 23.677 24.204 25.633 26.065 27.27 27.27 27.27 28.37 29.361	0.000 0.005 0.082 0.413 1.296 3.115 6.302 11.303 18.546 28.417 41.247 57.305 76.800 99.899 126.745 157.45 192.13 230.60 371.71 427.00 486.47 550.11 617.91 689.85 765.91 846.06 930.27 1018.5 1110.7 1206.9 1306.9 1410.9 1518.6 1630.1 1745.4 1864.3 1986.8 2212.6 2375.8 2512.4 2652.5 2795.9 2942.7 3725.3 3891.2 4060.3 3725.3 3891.2 407.5 4519.3 4585.5 4590.5 55137.2 55137.2 55137.2 55447.8 5519.3

 H_0^{C} and s_0^{C} apply to the reference state of the solid at zero deg k

TABLE B-168

THERMODYNAMIC FUNCTIONS FOR SODIUM 1:2-TUNGSTATE (NA 20 •2W 03) SOLID PHASE

GRAM MOLECULAR WT.=			RAMS = 273.15 +	T DEG C	1 CAL=4.18	340 JOULES
T	-(GT-HC)/T	(H ⁰ -H ⁰)/T	(S _T -S ₀)	(HT-HC)	C _P	-(GT-HC)
DEG K	DEĞ ^{AL} MÖLE	DEG MOLE	DEG MOLE	<u>CAL</u> MOLE	DEG MOCE	MOLE
0.00 5.00 10.00 15.00 20.00 25.00 30.00 35.00 45.00 65.00 65.00 65.00 65.00 65.00 10.00 15.00 110.00 120.00 125.00 130.00 145.00 145.00 150.00 150.00 110.00 120.00 125.00 130.00 145.00 150.00	0.003 0.003 0.003 0.021 0.069 0.158 0.466 0.687 0.952 1.610 1.997 2.866 3.349 4.840 3.8349 4.349 5.944 5.9845 7.701 8.2879 9.417 10.677 11.288 8.879 9.4073 10.6277 11.288 13.488 13.691 14.895 15.484 13.691 14.895 15.493 16.689 17.288	0.000 0.008 0.002 0.202 0.441 0.771 1.191 1.701 2.298 2.965 3.687 4.444 5.221 6.006 6.795 7.581 8.363 9.138 9.904 10.659 11.403 12.135 12.854 13.559 14.252 14.930 15.595 16.247 16.884 17.508 18.117 18.713 19.296 19.865 20.422 20.4457 27.877 27.877 27.877 27.478 27.877 27.478 27.877 27.478 27.877 27.4788 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.4788 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.4788 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.4788 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.4788 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.4788 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.4788 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.4788 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.478 27.47	0.00 0.010 0.010 0.083 0.272 0.5961 1.657 2.389 3.250 6.441 7.6372 10.134 11.416 12.718 15.328 16.639 17.945 20.554 21.815 20.554 21.881 20.554 21.883 20.669 26.926 28.168 29.388 30.601 31.801 32.988 30.601 31.801 32.988 30.601 31.801 32.988 30.601 31.801 32.988 30.601 31.801 34.156 40.996 40.9976 40.9976 40.156 40.170	0.000 0.039 0.623 3.035 8.8171 35.723 59.552 91.906 133.43 184.34 244.41 313.41 475.62 568.50 776.74 891.37 1012.6 1140.3 1274.2 1413.9 1559.2 1413.9 15710.2 1413.9 1559.2 1413.9 15710.2 1413.9 15710.2 1413.9 15710.2 1413.9 15710.2 1413.9 15710.2 1413.9 15710.2 1413.9 15710.2 1413.9 15710.2 1413.9 15710.2 1413.9 15710.2 1413.9 15710.6 2027.4 2193.8 2027.4 2193.8 2538.6 2717.6 2900.4 4280.1 4480.1 4480.1 44917.8 5135.9 5356.6 6033.7 4073.4 4280.9 4917.8 5135.9 53579.6 6033.7 62647.0 6732.1 6969.3 7208.6 6732.1 6969.3 7208.6 6732.1 6969.3 7298.6 6732.1 6969.3 7298.6 6732.1 6969.3 7298.6 6732.1 6969.3 7298.6 6733.6 6745.0 6745.0 6745.0 6745.0 675.0 6769.3 6769.3 67693.4 7938.6 677693.4 7938.7 8018.6 6033.7 62647.0 6793.6	0.000 0.031 0.247 0.772 1.582 2.644 3.983 5.588 7.374 11.110 12.905 14.612 14.612 12.905 14.612 12.905 14.612 13.352 20.821 23.600 24.905 26.159 23.600 24.905 26.159 23.600 24.905 26.159 27.365 27.366 28.562 29.670 31.729 33.662 33.7700 33.7700 34.7700 35.7700 3700 3700 3700 3700 3700 3700 3700	0.000 0.013 0.208 1.039 3.157 7.250 13.989 24.047 38.091 56.737 80.510 109.83 145.00 1233.77 287.64 347.96 414.78 488.14 568.06 953.07 1065.5 1184.4 1309.6 1441.0 1578.7 1722.6 1872.6 2028.6 2190.6 2358.5 22532.2 2711.6 2028.6 2190.6 2358.5 2532.2 2711.6 2028.6 2190.6 2358.5 2532.2 2711.6 208.6 2190.6 2358.5 2532.2 2711.6 208.6 2190.6 2358.5 2532.2 2711.6 208.6 2190.6 2358.5 2532.2 2711.6 208.6 2190.6 2358.5 2532.2 2711.6 208.6 2190.6 2358.5 2532.2 2711.6 208.6 2190.6 2358.5 2532.2 2711.6 208.6 2190.6 2358.5 2532.2 2711.6 208.6 2190.6 2358.5 2532.2 2711.6 2896.7 3087.5 3283.8 3485.6 3905.3 4123.1 4346.2 4574.4 4807.7 57409.1 75790.9 6048.8 6311.6 6579.0 6851.1 7127.9 7409.1 7594.9 6851.1 7127.9 7409.1 7594.9 6851.1 7127.9 7409.1 7594.9 6851.1 7127.9 7409.1 7594.9 6851.1 7127.9 7409.1 7594.9 6851.1 7127.9 7409.1 7594.9 6851.1 7127.9 7409.1 7594.9 6851.1 7127.9 7409.1 7594.9 6851.1 7127.9 7409.1 7594.9 6851.1 7127.9 7409.1 7594.9 8579.0 8789.

HC AND SC APPLY TO THE REFERENCE STATE OF THE SOLID AT ZERO DEG K

TABLE B-169

THERMODYNAMIC FUNCTIONS FOR MAGNESIUM 1:1-TUNGSTATE (MG O .W $^{\rm O}_3$) SOLID PHASE

GRAM MOL	ECULAR WT.=		RAMS = 273.15 +	T DEG C	1 CAL=4.18	340 JOULES
т	-(GT-HC)/T	(HT-HC)/T	(S _T -S ₀)	(HT-HC)	C _P	-(GT-HC)
DEG K	DEĞ MÖLE	DEG MOLE	DEG MOLE	CAL MŌLĒ	DEG MOLE	CAL MOLE
0.00 5.00 10.00 10.00 20.00 30.00 35.00 40.00 50.00 60.00 60.00 60.00 60.00 10.00 110.00 110.00 125.00 130.00 145.00 145.00 150.00 150.00 125.00	0.000 0.003 0.001 0.024 0.048 0.081 0.127 0.185 0.255 0.337 0.4534 0.648 0.770 1.040 1.186 1.340 1.667 1.839 2.010 2.388 2.576 2.388 2.5776 3.388 2.5777 3.180 3.388 2.5776 3.180 3.581 4.644 4.685 4.690 5.368 5.361 7.66.277 6.5741 6.279 6.7473 7.206 7.439 7.673	0.000 0.001 0.009 0.0031 0.0141 0.238 0.3612 0.877 1.028 2.0552 2.826 3.1391 3.277 2.222 2.822 2.822 2.826 3.1391 3.277 4.2552 6.340 4.555 6.340 4.555 6.976 6.976 6.932 7.5094 8.353 8.679 7.796 8.355 8.6904 9.716 8.355 9.716 8.355	0.002 0.002 0.0012 0.0041 0.098 0.3189 0.4889 0.697 0.215 1.515 1.8382 2.526 3.7366 4.6067 7.933 4.166 6.9489 7.9433 8.4333 9.437 9.943 10.4568 11.979 12.9889 13.4889 13.4889 13.9987 15.4889 13.9987 15.4889 13.9987 15.4889 13.9987 15.4889 13.9987 15.4889 13.9987 15.4889 17.4988 18.885 19.8825 20.7518 21.666 17.4468 18.885 19.8825 20.7518 21.666 21.6761 22.5758 21.6768 21.	0.000 0.002 0.006 0.0092 0.465 1.465 27.135 12.679 20.498 43.869 59.656 78.2481 124.26 151.92 182.78 2254.31 2295.06 3386.34 436.85 4907.39 670.35 670.37 805.34 877.18 951.81 1029.1 11191.6 1276.6 136.6 1453.7 1639.9 17	0.000 0.005 0.037 0.124 0.291 0.952 1.327 1.809 2.333 2.880 3.436 4.004 4.597 7.814 5.215 5.850 6.497 7.153 7.814 8.475 9.781 10.422 11.055 11.680 12.990 13.501 14.650 15.203 14.650 15.203 14.650 15.203 16.752 17.712 18.173 18.620 19.481 19.894 20.298 12.906 13.501 14.650 15.203 16.250 16.250 17.230 17	0.000 0.0021 0.155 0.489 1.16.897 1.16.857 2.2.088 67.572 322.088 67.572 100.660 1142.52 100.660 1142.52 100.660 1142.52 100.660 1142.52 100.60 1142.52 100.60 1142.52 100.60 1142.53 100.60 1142.53 100.60 1142.53 100.60 1142.53 100.60 1142.53 100.60 1142.53 100.60 1142.53 100.60 1142.53 100.60 1

 $^{{\}sf H}_0^{\sf C}$ and ${\sf S}_0^{\sf C}$ apply to the reference state of the solid at zero deg K

IABLE B-170

THERMODYNAMIC FUNCTIONS FOR CALCIUM 1°1-TUNGSTATE (CA O .W O $_3$) SOLID PHASE

			SULTU PHASE			
GRAM MOLI	ECULAR WT.=		GRAMS = 273.15 +	T DEG C	1 CAL=4.18	340 JOULES
Т	$-(G_0^T-H_0^0)/T$	$(H_{T}^{0}-H_{0}^{C})/T$	(S _T -S ₀)	(HT-HC)	c _P	-(GT-HC)
DEG K	DEG MOLE	DEG MOLE	DEG MOLE	<u>CAL</u> MOLE	DEG MOLE	<u>CAL</u> MOLE
0.00 5.00 10.00 20.00 25.00 30.00 35.00 40.00 55.00 60.00 65.00 60.00 75.00 110.00 110.00 125.00 130.00 150.00 155.00 140.00 155.00 120.00 155.00 120.00 155.00 125.00	0.000 0.001 0.007 0.0022 0.053 0.173 0.266 0.517 0.672 0.845 1.033 1.445 1.668 1.233 1.445 1.668 1.233 1.445 1.668 1.233 1.440 3.770 3.444 2.905 4.556 4.841 5.123 4.556 4.841 5.123 8.9497 7.755 8.045 8.389 6.290 6.200 6.20	0.002 0.002 0.002 0.020 0.067 0.1598 0.491 0.730 1.0314 1.981 2.331 2.331 2.3651 3.419 3.759 4.528 4.8963 7.749 7.393 7.739	0.000 0.003 0.0027 0.090 0.210 0.4400 0.664 0.996 1.383 12.313 2.826 3.3620 4.496 5.087 5.689 6.918 7.5468 8.798 9.429 10.0692 11.321 11.949 12.573 13.194 11.949 12.573 13.194 11.949 12.573 13.194 13.811 14.424 15.635 16.235 16.235 16.235 16.236 17.413 17.994 12.573 13.194 13.811 14.424 15.635 16.236 17.413 17.994 12.573 1	0.0012 0.199 1.007 3.1427 7.450 14.725 25.546 409.116 82.046 108.98 139.86 1213.58 253.60 407.56 465.32 590.86 658.73 729.86 881.09 961.09 1043.8 881.09 961.09 1043.8 11217.1 11307.5 11495.3 11592.4 1691.7 1795.3 1592.4 1691.7 1795.3 1592.4 1691.7 1795.3	0.000 0.010 0.080 0.267 0.616 1.794 2.547 3.554 4.990 5.781 6.571 7.372 8.975 9.450 11.171 11.879 12.5571 13.244 13.897 14.571 13.897 14.571 13.897 14.571 13.897 14.571 16.278 16.278 16.278 16.814 17.833 18.314 17.833 18.316 17.833 18.316 17.833 18.316 17.833 18.316 17.833 18.316 17.833 18.316 17.833 18.316 17.833 18.316 17.833 18.316 17.833 18.316 17.833 18.316 17.833 18.316 17.833 18.316 17.833 18.316 17.833 18.316 17.833 18.316 17.833 18.316 17.833 18.316 17.335 18.317 20.826 21.587 22.537 22.836 23.461 23.754 24.849 25.359 26.217 26.769 26.965 27.316 27.315 27.315	0.000 0.004 0.004 0.004 0.006 0.336 1.0553 2.553 2.553 2.553 2.552 2.3.269 2.3.269 2.3.269 2.3.269 2.3.269 2.3.260 2.3.260 2.151.15 1.25.10 1.52.00 2.151.15 2.250.25 2.250.46 3.32.87 3.78.44 4.79.04 4.79.04 4.79.04 4.79.04 4.79.04 4.79.04 1.168.7 1.254.8

 $[\]mathsf{H}_0^\mathsf{C}$ and s_0^C apply to the reference state of the solid at zero deg K

TABLE B-171

THERMODYNAMIC FUNCTIONS FOR POTASSIUM HYDROGEN FLUORIDE (K H F 2) SOLID AND LIQUID PHASES

		= 273.15 + T		1 CAL=4.184	+O JOULES
T -(G ⁰	$-H_{C}^{0})/T$ $(H_{C}^{1}-H_{C}^{0})/T$	(S _T -S ₀)	(HT-HC)	C _P	-(GT-HC)
DEG K DEG	AL CAL MOLE DEG MOLE	DEG MOLE	MOLE	DEG MOLE	<u>CAL</u> MOLĒ
	SOL	ID PHASE (ALP	HA)		
5.00 10.00 15.00 20.00 25.00 30.00 35.00 40.00 45.00 50.00 65.00 60.00 65.00 75.00 80.00 95.00 100.00 115.00 110.00 115.00 120.00 125.00 135.00 140.00 125.00 135.00 140.00 155.00 160.00 175.00 180.00 1255.00 1255.00	0.000 0.000 0.000 0.002 0.005 0.0014 0.002 0.005 0.014 0.016 0.051 0.002 0.005 0.014 0.016 0.051 0.008 0.014 0.016 0.051 0.008 1 0.253 0.143 0.444 0.229 0.690 0.340 0.989 0.476 1.330 0.635 1.698 0.815 2.084 1.013 2.478 1.227 2.478 1.227 2.478 1.227 1.454 3.261 1.692 3.643 1.939 4.014 2.193 4.375 2.453 4.722 2.718 5.057 2.985 5.378 3.255 5.688 3.527 3.025 5.985 5.378 3.255 5.688 3.527 3.799 6.270 4.072 6.544 4.344 6.808 4.616 4.344 6.808 4.616 7.063 4.887 7.307 5.157 7.543 5.426 7.770 5.693 7.989 5.959 8.200 6.222 8.403 6.484 8.599 6.743 8.788 7.001 8.971 7.256 9.487 8.008 9.648 8.971 7.256 9.487 8.008 9.648 8.971 7.256 9.487 8.008 9.648 8.991 6.253 9.217 9.320 7.760 9.487 8.008 9.648 8.980 10.253 9.217 10.395 9.452 10.533 9.685 10.668 9.916 10.800 10.108 1.929 9.320 7.761 1.451 10.929 9.320 7.761 11.451 10.929 11.451 11.979 11.418 11.258 11.475 11.649 11.258 11.535 11.475 11.649 11.258 11.535 11.475 11.649 11.221 113 11.979 11.300 12.255 12.293 12.293	0.000 0.002 0.0019 0.067 0.165 0.334 0.587 0.919 1.805 2.333 2.899 3.491 4.099 4.715 5.953 6.568 7.174 8.943 9.516 9.516 10.6616 11.679 12.700 13.682 14.625 15.953 15.953 15.972 16.829 17.657 18.465	0.009 0.145 0.761 2.501 13.313 24.149 39.832 84.908 114.63 148.68 128.28 273.215 371.84 424.99 480.3 321.184 480.3 321.184 480.3 371.84 424.99 480.3 371.84 424.99 480.3 597.19 658.305 785.33 851.06 918.14 1056.0 1126.7 1128.3 1270.9 1344.5 148.6 81.494.0 11570.0 11646.7 11724.5 1181.6 2122.6 2204.4 22869.9 2453.6 2537.9 2622.9 2708.5 2794.7 2881.4 2968.7 3145.2 33234.3 33234.9 3414.8 3596.1 3596.1 3653.9 3657.9	0.007 0.007 0.059 0.209 0.519 1.759 2.608 4.538 5.488 6.3917 7.970 8.662 9.2973 10.862 11.685 12.050 12.389 11.685 12.050 12.386 13.0284 13.5486 13.5486 13.5486 13.5491 14.630 14.630 14.630 14.630 15.5426 15.5724 15.868 16.149 16.289 16.419 16.6579 16.806 17.0575 17.5305 17.6545	0.003 0.003 0.0047 0.247 0.8016 4.282 8.013 13.602 13.607 21.743 101.78 126.902 186.43 220.78 125.11 341.78 387.92 258.51 341.78 387.92 438.59 600.10 722.03 786.78 853.98 995.54 1069.8 11389.1 11389

 $[{]m H_0^C}$ and ${
m S_0^C}$ apply to the reference state of the solid at zero deg k 251

TABLE B-171 (CONT.)

THERMODYNAMIC FUNCTIONS FOR POTASSIUM HYDROGEN FLUORIDE (K H F2) SOLID AND LIQUID PHASES

GRAM MOLI	ECULAR WT.=	78.10677	RAMS		1 CAL=4.1	840 JOULES
		T DEG K	= 273.15 +	T DEG C		
T	$-(G_{T}^{0}-H_{0}^{C})/T$	$(H_1^0-H_0^C)/T$	(s _T -s ₀)	(HTO-HC)	C _P	-(GT-HC)
DEG K	DEG MOLE	DEG MOLE	DEG MOLE	CAL MOLE	CAL DEG MOLE	CAL MOLE
		SOL I	D PHASE (AL	_PHA)		
300.00 310.00 320.00 330.00 350.00 350.00 370.00 373.15 380.00 400.00 425.00 450.00	12.736 13.142 13.542 13.935 14.323 14.704 15.079 15.449 15.565 15.814 16.174 16.528 17.395 18.234	12.293 12.494 12.689 12.878 13.063 13.243 13.419 13.592 13.646 13.761 13.928 14.092 14.491 14.879 15.170	25.029 25.636 26.231 26.814 27.385 27.3847 28.499 29.041 29.210 29.575 30.101 30.620 31.886 33.4031	3687.9 3873.1 4060.4 4249.9 4441.4 4635.1 4831.0 5029.0 5091.8 5229.3 5431.8 5636.6 6158.8 6695.6	18.414 18.626 18.837 19.049 19.262 19.477 19.695 19.916 19.986 20.140 20.367 20.597 21.179 21.761 22.194	3820.7 4074.1 4333.4 4598.6 4869.7 5146.3 5428.6 5716.3 5808.0 6009.4 6307.7 6611.4 7392.8 8205.3
		SOL	ID PHASE (BETA)		
469.20 475.00 500.00 511.90	18.862 19.118 20.193 20.688	20.837 20.875 21.029 21.098	39.698 39.993 41.222 41.785	9776.6 9915.5 10515. 10800.	23.960 23.960 23.960 23.960	8850.0 9081.1 10096. 10590.
			LIQUID PHAS	SE		
511.90 530.00	20.688 21.530	24.175 24.202	44.863 45.732	12375.0 12827.	25.000 25.000	10590. 11411.

 H_0^C and S_0^C apply to the reference state of the solid at zero deg K

TABLE 8-172

THERMODYNAMIC FUNCTIONS FOR PHOSPHORUS PENTOXIDE (${\sf P_4O}_{10}$) SOLID PHASE

GRAM MOLI	ECULAR WT.=				1 CAL=4.1	840 JOULES
Т	-(GT-HC)/T	T DEG K	$= 273.15 + (s_T - s_0^C)$	(HT-HC)	c _P ⁰	-(GT-HC)
DEG K	DEG MOLE	DEG MOLE	DEG MOLE	<u>CAL</u> MOLE	DEG MOLE	CAL MOLE
0.00 5.00 10.00 15.00 25.00 30.00 35.00 40.00 45.00 60.00 70.00 70.00 100.00 110.00 110.00 110.00 110.00 125.00 125.00 130.00 145.00 145.00 125.	0.000 0.012 0.096 0.304 0.636 1.062 1.546 2.065 2.665 2.665 2.665 2.683 4.219 4.749 5.789 6.306 7.802 8.272 9.757 10.241 11.205 11.685 12.1644 13.122 13.601 14.556 15.033 15.510 15.644 13.122 13.6078 14.556 15.033 15.510 15.887 18.361 18.387 17.418 18.361 18.387 17.418 18.361 18.361 18.367 17.418 20.250 20.771 21.660 22.128 22.5062 23.528 23.993 24.920 25.211 25.382 25.3893 24.920 25.211 25.3843 26.762 27.677 28.58843 26.762 27.508 27.677 28.5889 29.496	0.000 0.037 0.281 0.822 1.541 2.299 3.030 3.706 4.320 4.877 5.388 5.866 6.322 6.762 7.192 7.618 8.044 8.470 8.900 9.333 9.770 10.212 10.659 11.109 11.563 12.924 12.924 13.408 13.408 14.806 15.272 16.665 17.1584 18.041 18.495 18.495 18.495 18.495 19.8841 20.284 20.724 21.161	0.000 0.049 0.377 1.126 2.178 3.361 4.577 5.771 6.921 8.019 9.070 10.085 11.071 12.034 12.981 13.918 14.849 15.776 16.702 17.627 18.555 19.484 20.416 21.350 22.287 23.225 24.166 25.108 26.052 26.996 27.941 28.885 29.828 30.771 33.588 30.771 33.588 34.522 35.454 44.849 47.258 44.586 45.480 47.258 44.586 45.480 47.258 44.586 45.480 47.258 44.586 45.480 47.258 44.586 45.480 47.258 44.586 45.480 47.258 44.586 45.480 47.258 48.142 49.022 49.022 49.022 42.787 43.688 44.586 45.480 47.258 44.586 45.480 47.258 44.586 45.480 47.258 48.142 49.022 49.022 49.022 49.022 49.022 49.022 49.022 49.022 49.022 49.022 49.022 49.022 49.022 49.022 49.063 40.974 41.882 50.448 50.770 51.658	0.000 0.184 2.809 12.331 30.827 57.471 90.914 129.81 219.45 269.38 322.63 379.31 439.52 501.48 6571.38 643.49 719.97 806.96 1.72.5 1277.6 1502.6 1502.6 1622.5 1747.1 2011.7 2151.0 2243.6 2596.7 2754.3 3082.6 3253.1 3406.6 4361.0 4559.2 4761.3 4967.1 5088.8 6744.1 6893.4 6796.2 6796.8 6796.7 6893.4 6796.7 6893.4 6796.6 6893.4 6796.7 6893.4 6796.6 6893.4 6796.6 6893.4 6796.6 6893.4 6796.6 6893.4 6796.6 6893.4 6796.6 6796.7 67963.6 6893.4 6796.6 6796.7 67963.6 6893.4 6796.7 6893.4 6796.6 6796.7 67963.6 6893.4 67963.6 6893.4 67963.6 6893.4 67963.6 6893.4 67963.6 6893.4 67963.6 6893.4 67963.6 6893.4 67963.6 6893.6 67963.6 6	0.000 0.147 1.073 2.805 4.554 6.060 7.259 8.223 8.992 9.658 10.314 11.684 11.684 11.684 11.684 11.684 11.685 11.6660 17.605 12.504 22.50.526 21.514 22.50.526 21.514 23.495 24.482 27.388 28.331 29.260 31.962 27.388 28.331 29.260 31.962 27.388 28.331 29.260 31.962 21.514 23.495 24.482 27.388 28.331 29.260 31.962 21.514 23.495 24.482 27.388 28.331 29.260 31.962 21.514 23.495 24.482 27.388 28.331 29.260 31.962 21.514 23.495 24.482 27.388 28.331 29.260 31.962 24.482 27.388 28.331 29.260 31.962 21.514 23.495 24.482 25.4462 22.738 31.962 24.536 31.962 24.536 45.345 35.345 36.945 37.750 45.853 47.609 47.848 47.848 47.849 47.848 47.849 47.848 47.849 47.848 47.849 47.848 47.849 47.848 47.849 47.848 47.849 47.848 47.849 47.848 47.849 47.848 47.849 47.848 47.849 47.849 47.848 47.849 47.8	0.002 0.964 4.553 12.722 46.386 72.269 104.39 184.13 232.03 342.70 405.24 472.49 544.41 620.98 702.17 787.95 973.54 1073.3 1177.8 1186.8 1400.6 1519.1 1640.2 1770.1 1902.8 2040.1 2328.9 2480.4 2797.6 2963.2 3133.4 3348.0 3672.2 3133.4 3488.0 3672.2 3486.1 3486.2 3486.3 3486.4 6886.4 6980.0 72496.4 7761.1 8030.6 8303.2 8862.3 9438.2 10031.6 839438.2

 $H_0^{\mbox{\scriptsize C}}$ and $S_0^{\mbox{\scriptsize C}}$ apply to the reference state of the solid at zero deg k

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Security Classification				
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13. ABSTRACT

Thermodynamic and related properties of substances important in current hightemperature research and development activities are being investigated under contract with the U.S. Air Force (USAF Order No. OAR ISSA 65-8) and the Advanced Research Projects Agency (ARPA Order No. 20). This research program is a direct contribution to the Interagency Chemical Rocket Propulsion Group: Working Group on Thermochemistry and, often simultaneously, to other organizations oriented toward acquiring the basic information needed to solve not only the technical problems in propulsion but also those associated with ballistics, reentry, and high-strength high-temperature materials. For given substances this needed basic information comprises an ensemble of closely related properties being determined by a rather extensive array of experimental and theoretical techniques. Some of those techniques, by relating thermodynamic properties to molecular or crystal structure, make it possible to tabulate these properties over far wider ranges of temperature and pressure than those actually employed in the basic investigations. This report describes in detail a variety of recent NBS experimental results and their interpretation. The vibrational spectra of different isotopic varieties of MgF2, MgCl2, CaF2, SrF2, and BaF2 molecules trapped in solid raregas matrices were determined and analyzed; this technique particularly defines the bending vibrations, heretofore unreliable but a major factor in the thermodynamic properties of such gases. Preliminary microwave studies of the CsOH molecule indicate it to be linear and with highly anharmonic bending vibrations; these pioneering results have important implications for the spectroscopically little investigated hydroxides of all the elements of Groups I, II, and III.

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13 ABSTRACT

(CONTINUED)

Further infrared studies of the borohydrides of aluminum and beryllium show, between the solid and gaseous forms of the beryllium compound, a great difference which is tentatively interpreted. Spectroscopic time histories of aluminum wires exploding in vacuum and controlled atmospheres of nitrogen and oxygen were obtained. Measured calorimetrically Were the heats of formation of the perchlorates of hydrazine (N2H4.2HClO4), sodium, potassium, and silver, as well as the high-temperature heat capacity, heat of transition, and transition temperature of crystalline AF7. The heats of combustion in fluorine of refractory substances (especially graphite, boron, boron carbide, and aluminum borides, measured for the Air Force Aero Propulsion Laboratory), are here summarized and analyzed. The heat of vaporization of liquid Al₂O₃ has been remeasured with more reliable temperature determination, and new mass-spectrometric data on several compositions of the BeO-Al₂O₃ system give a consistent value for the heat of formation of the new hightemperature molecule BeOAL.

Several literature reviews with critical data analysis are in-The present status of the heats of formation of CF4 and selected cluded. fluorides of nitrogen, carbon, chlorine, and oxygen is described, with a report of recent NBS flame calorimetry on OF2. Thermochemical properties of compounds of cadmium, zinc, and copper (recently evaluated critically as part of a revision of NBS Circular 500) are tabulated. On the basis of a critical data analysis of published condensed-phase heat-capacity and enthalpy data on BeSO4, SrF2, SrCl2, TiF4, ZrF4, ZrB2, P4O10, KHF2, and 13 mixed oxides, new tables of their thermodynamic properties are given. Analyses of the infrared spectra of fluorides of seven elements of Groups IV, V, and VI gave Coriolis zeta constants of the degenerate vibrational modes and certain unique harmonic force fields. The hightemperature thermodynamics of the BeO-HoO system was reviewed, with estimations of the possible effect of postulated higher hydrates on the volatility of BeO in water vapor up to 4000°K. The published data on the vaporization equilibria of the nitrides and carbides of aluminum, beryllium, magnesium, and titanium were reviewed and compared with the values calculated thermodynamically from the available up-to-date thermal data. A comprehensive review is presented of the theory of the equation of state of solid hydrogen and the calculation of properties of the as yet unobserved form metallic hydrogen. This form of hydrogen probably occurs on the planet Jupiter at pressures above one million atmospheres.

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