THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

INDUSTRY PROGRAM OF THE COLLEGE OF ENGINEERING

THE CONSTANT VOLUME HEAT CAPACITIES OF GASEOUS TRIFLUOROMETHANE, CHLORODIFLUOROMETHANE AND DICHLOROFLUOROMETHANE

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NOMENCLATURE

A	Work content, Helmholtz free energy
A,B,C	Arbitrary constants in various equations
A ₁ , B ₁ , C ₁	
A_1, B_1, C_1 A_2, B_2, C_2	
	Constants used in Martin's Equation of State
A_{14} , B_{14} , C_{14} A_{5} , B_{5} , C_{5}	
ъ	Constant used in Martin's Equation
С	Speed of sound or speed of light or speed of molecules
$^{\mathrm{C}}_{\mathrm{calr}}$	Heat capacity of the calorimeter
$^{\mathrm{C}}_{\mathrm{p}}$	Constant pressure heat capacity
$^{\rm C}{}_{ m v}$	Constant volume heat capacity
c ^v *	Constant volume heat capacity at zero pressure
Cgross	Gross heat capacity of calorimeter and contents
cg,l sat	Heat capacity of two phase mixture at constant volume
$^{\mathtt{C}}_{\mathtt{sat}}^{\mathtt{l}}$	Heat capacity of the saturated liquid
d	Differential operator
exp	Exponential operator
E	EMF
f	
g	Functions
h	
I	Electric current

K	Constant used in Martin's equation
k	Boltzman constant
ln	Natural logarithm
m	Mass
P,p	Pressure
Q	Quantity of energy
q	Rate of energy input
R	Resistance
R	Universal gas constant
r	Radius
S	Entropy
т	Temperature, Kinetic Energy
t .	Temperature or time
U	Potential energy
V	Volume
Z	Compressibility factor
	Greek Letters
	Arbitrary constants used in various equations
Δ	Finite increment
0	Time
ρ	Density
Ω	Ohms
ν	Vibrational frequency
v	Wave number
δ	Partial differential operator

Subscripts

c	Critical
Corr	Correction
i	Summation index
mean	Mean value over some period
$\left. \begin{array}{c} \mathbf{r} \\ \mathbf{R} \end{array} \right\}$	Reduced
sat	Saturated
1	At the start of the heating period
2	At the end of the heating period
	Superscripts
*	At the zero pressure
g	Gas phase
1	Liquid phase

ABSTRACT

A light-weight thin-walled stainless-steel spherical calorimeter, surrounded by a radiation shield within an evacuated chamber, was constructed to determine the constant-volume heat capacities of gases. The calorimeter was 8 inches in diameter and had a wall thickness of 0.0085 inches. Platinum heating coils, which also served as a resistance thermometer, were arranged inside the sphere to give uniform heating. The temperature differential between the calorimeter and the radiation shield was maintained within $\pm 0.2^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$.

Constant-volume heat capacities of trifluoromethane, chlorodifluoromethane and dichlorofluoromethane were determined in the density region of 0.01 gm/c.c. and a temperature range of 40 to 140°C. Because of the low density, the measured heat capacity is that of the ideal gas, C_v^{\star}, which can be compared with the heat capacity predicted by statistical mechanics using fundamental vibrational frequencies from molecular spectroscopy. For trifluoromethane and dichlorofluoromethane, the measured and predicted values of C_v^* are almost identical at 100°C, while at 40°C the measured values are about 3% higher than the predicted and at 140°C they are 3% lower. For chlorodifluoromethane, the agreement between the measured and predicted values is also nearly perfect at 100°C. The measured values are, however, 1.5% lower than the predicted at 40°C and 1.5% higher than the predicted values at 140°C. These results lend support to the accepted fundamental frequency assignments, but fail to explain the difference in the effect of temperature on the ideal-gas heat capacity.

I. INTRODUCTION

Experimental measurements of constant-volume heat capacity over a wide range of density and temperature are of great importance for the understanding of physical phenomena in terms of molecular physics and the development of an equation of state.

Constant volume heat capacity, C_V , at any temperature T and density ρ can be calculated as the sum of the zero-density heat capacity, C_V^* , at the same temperature, and the increase of heat capacity due to compression, i.e. $\left(\frac{\partial C_V}{\partial \rho}\right)_T$ d ρ . Therefore, direct measurements of the heat capacity at constant volume of gases are useful in two ways: (a) Experimental data can be extrapolated to zero pressure at any given temperature to determine ideal-gas heat capacity values, which may again be used to decide questions of structure or vibrational frequency. (b) The constant-volume heat capacity may be used to determine the change of heat capacity with density and then compared with the same values calculated from some equation of state of good accuracy. Thus, with the help of experimental C_V values, an equation of state can be tested and, if necessary, modified.

I-l Constant-Volume Heat Capacity Calculated from Principles of Statistical Mechanics

The ideal-gas constant-volume heat capacity, ${\tt C_v}^*$, can be determined by the method of statistical mechanics if the fundamental vibrational frequencies are available (Appendix G, page 117, Appendix H, page 121). It may be calculated over a wide temperature range assuming the usual three contributions to the energy of a molecule due to its

translational, rotational and vibrational motions. The translational and rotational components are equal to R/2 per degree of freedom and have a total value of 3R for non-linear molecules. The vibrational component is calculated as the sum of all individual degrees of freedom due to vibrational motion, each corresponding to a fundamental frequency, ν , and can be represented as follows:

$$(c_{v}^{*})_{\omega_{i}} = R \sum_{i=1}^{3n-6} \frac{x_{i}^{2} e^{x_{i}}}{(e^{x_{i}-1})^{2}}$$
 (1-1)

where,

$$x_i = \frac{hv_i}{KT} = \frac{hc\omega_i}{KT}$$

n = number of atoms in the molecule

 v_i = the fundamental frequency in \sec^{-1}

 $\omega_i = \text{wave number in cm}^{-1}$

T = temperature in degrees Kelvin

K = Boltzmann constant

c = velocity of light in cm/sec.

The equation above assumes harmonic vibrations and, therefore, corrections using empirical equations (2,40) are sometimes made for anharmonicity, particularly at higher temperatures. When the molecule is complex in structure, assignment of fundamental frequencies is a difficult problem and often involves educated guesses. Accurate experimental C_v^* or C_p^* values can, therefore, be helpful in the proper selection of fundamentals.

I-2 Constant-Volume Heat Capacity and the Equation of State

The increase of heat capacity at constant volume with density is given by the following equation:

$$\Delta C_{V} = \int_{\infty}^{V_{T}} \left(\frac{\partial^{2} P}{\partial T^{2}}\right)_{V} dV = - \int_{0}^{\rho} \frac{T}{\rho^{2}} \left(\frac{\partial^{2} P}{\partial T^{2}}\right)_{\rho} d\rho \qquad (1-2)$$

With this equation, C_v can be calculated if C_v^* and highly accurate PVT data are available. If, however, $(\frac{\partial^2 P}{\partial T^2})_{\rho}$ is not known precisely, calculated C_v values cannot be good and one must resort to the direct measurement of the constant-volume heat capacity at higher density. Experimental C_v data can then be used to determine $(\frac{\partial^2 P}{\partial T^2})_{\rho}$ and modify an equation of state representing the PVT data.

I-3 Objectives of this Work

The objectives of this research were: (a) to design a calorimeter of very low heat capacity for direct measurement of C_V^* values in the density region of 0.0l gm/c.c. and temperature range of 40 to 140°C for gaseous trifluoromethane, chlorodifluoromethane and dichlorofluoromethane (b) to compare experimental C_V^* values with the statistical predictions.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

In order to develop tables of thermodynamic properties for a substance, one must know its heat capacity. Methods to measure heat capacities reported in the literature are:

(a) Constant volume calorimetry, (b) Flow calorimetry, (c) heat exchanger with the same and different fluid, (d) explosion, (e) isentropic expansion, (f) resonance, (g) velocity of sound, (h) molecular spectroscopy. Partington and Shilling (54) review all measurement techniques prior to 1924.

II-1 Constant Volume Calorimetry:

In 1894, Joly (28) published experimental C_V values for air and carbon dioxide. In his method two identical copper spheres were used as a differential calorimeter, one was evacuated and the other filled with with a known quantity of gas. Starting from an arbitrary temperature, steam was blown against the two calorimeters until the temperature was uniformly 100°C. The heat capacity of the gas was calculated from the amount of water condensed on the two spheres.

Bennewitz and Splittgerber (5) measured the heat capacity of carbon dioxide near the critical point. Their method was to heat a steel calorimeter by means of an electrically heated coil. The calorimeter was placed in the evacuated space and surrounded by a constant-temperature water bath.

In 1938, Pall, Broughton and Maass $^{(52)}$ published experimental C_{v} values of ethylene near the critical point with an essentially improved technique. The calorimeter was heated electrically and by parallel heating of the calorimeter and its surrounding heat losses were minimised and adiabaticity was attained.

In 1950, Hoge (25) measured the heat capacities of oxygen through the critical region. His apparatus was designed for vapor pressure work, but could be used as an adiabatic calorimeter.

Sage and various co-workers (11) reported measurements of Cg, ℓ sat to determine saturated-liquid heat capacity $\operatorname{C}_{\operatorname{sat}}^{\ell}$. For the first time mechanical stirring was used in a calorimeter to keep the temperature uniform. In one of the calorimeters used by Sage et al., a stirrer was driven by an external motor whose shaft entered the calorimeter through a rotary seal; in another the calorimeter was rocked to mix the liquid within the calorimeter.

In 1952, Michels and Strijland $^{(48)}$ reported measurement of $C_{\rm V}$ values for carbon dioxide over a considerable range of temperature and density. They used a differential calorimeter consisting of two identical containers, one of which was filled with the gas.

De Nevers and Martin⁽¹⁴⁾ reported measurement of constant volume heat capacities of gaseous perfluorocyclobutane and propylene over a considerable range of temperatures and densities with a new type of adiabatic calorimeter. It had very thin walls and was equipped with an internal motor stirrer to assure temperature uniformity.

Yu-Tang Hwang $^{(26)}$ reviews all experimental C_V measurements. He, however, in 1961, carried out experimental measurements of halogenated methanes at low densities with a thin-walled adiabatic calorimeter. His measurements on chloropentafluoromethane, chlorodifluoromethane, dichlorotetrafluoromethane, and tetrafluoromethane were the first measurements at constant volume with sufficient accuracy to allow a comparison with spectroscopic predictions.

In 1963, Schwing $^{(57)}$ designed a magnesium calorimeter of very low heat capacity to study constant volume heat capacities in the density region of 0.01 gm/c.c. Constant volume heat capacities were obtained for gaseous trifluoromethane, chlorodifluoromethane and dichlorofluoromethane as a function of temperature in the range of 25-100°C. His extrapolated C_V^* values are generally 2.5% lower than those calculated from spectroscopic measurements.

11-2 Flow Calorimetry:

In 1931, Buffington and Fleischer $^{(8)}$ directly measured the heat capacity of dichlorofluoromethane using a flow calorimeter. Their accuracy was \pm 4% and hence could not be used to compare with spectroscopic predictions.

In 1940, Benning, McHarness and Smith⁽⁴⁾ used a flow calorimeter to determine the heat capacity of some halogenated methanes. Their data were taken at sufficiently low density and hence could be compared with $C_{\rm D}*$ values from spectroscopic predictions.

In 1952, Masi⁽⁴⁴⁾ measured the heat capacity of dichlorodifluoromethane using a flow calorimeter. His accuracy of \pm 0.1% is by far the most accurate measurement to date of constant pressure heat capacity. The spectroscopic heat capacity for dichlorodifluoromethane agrees with his measurements. His data are accurate enough so that it is possible to determine the effect of anharmonicity on heat capacity at moderate temperatures. However, his method cannot be used for direct experimental determination of C_V^* .

Faulkner⁽²⁰⁾ and Jones⁽²⁹⁾ give a review of the techniques involved in flow calorimetry for determining heat capacity.

11-3 Wire Ribbon Method:

In 1939, Eucken and Bertram⁽¹⁹⁾ in Germany and Kistiakowsky, Lacher, and $Stitt^{(33)}$ in the United States determined heat capacities to check spectroscopic vibrational frequencies by a wire ribbon method.

Van der Kooi and De Vries (63) also developed a wire ribbon method for determining the accommodation coefficients and heat capacities of gases in the region of one micron of mercury pressure. The rate at which a gas at low pressure conducts energy away from a heated surface such as a wire ribbon, is a function of the number of molecules striking the surface per second $\frac{\overline{nc}}{h}$, the temperature difference between the surface and the gas (Ts-T), the heat capacity at constant volume, and the thermal accommodation coefficient which Knudsen defined as $a = \frac{(T_1-T)}{(T_2-T)}$ where T is the temperature of gas molecules approaching the surface at $T_{\rm S}$, and $T_{\rm l}$, is that of the molecules leaving the surface. According to Knudsen (35) and Schafer (56) the energy conducted away from the surface in the form of translation energy is proportional to 4/3 times the translational component of heat capacity since the faster molecules strike the surface more frequently and thus conduct away more energy per second than the slow ones do, while the energy conducted away in the form of rotational and vibrational energy is directly proportional to their components of the heat capacity. From this and the relationships,

$$\frac{n}{N} = \frac{P}{RT}$$
, $\overline{c} = \left(\frac{8RT}{\pi M}\right)^{1/2}$

and $\frac{1}{3}$ $C_V = \frac{R}{2}$, a general equation for the power dissipation of a heated surface by gaseous molecular conduction is obtained directly as:

$$q = Ka(C_V + 1/2 R)(T_S - T)P(MT)^{-1/2}$$
 (2-2)

where K includes the area of the surface, the constant terms and unit conversion factors.

II-4 Isentropic Compression:

Kistiakowsky and Rice⁽³⁴⁾ measured heat capacities for air, carbon dioxide, ethane and deuterated ethane from the study of isentropic compression. The thermodynamic relation is

$$\left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{T}}{\partial \mathbf{P}}\right)_{\mathbf{G}} = -\frac{(\partial \mathbf{S}/\partial \mathbf{P})_{\mathbf{T}}}{(\partial \mathbf{S}/\partial \mathbf{T})_{\mathbf{P}}} = \frac{\mathbf{T}}{\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{p}}} \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{V}}{\partial \mathbf{T}}\right)_{\mathbf{P}}$$
(2-3)

Using an equation of state which is valid at low pressure $\left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_p$ can be evaluated and upon integration C_p can be expressed as a function of initial and final conditions.

If an equation of state such as $V=\frac{RT}{P}$ + B , where B is a function of temperature, is chosen, we can write

$$\left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_{P} = \frac{R}{P} + \frac{dB}{dT} \tag{2-4}$$

and

$$C_{p} \cdot \frac{dT}{T} = \left(\frac{R}{P} + \frac{dB}{dT}\right) dP \tag{2-5}$$

On integration and assuming $\,^{\text{C}}_{p}\,^{}$ is independent of $^{\text{T}}$ and $^{\text{P}}$, we obtain

$$C_{p} = R \frac{\ln(P_{i}/P_{f})}{\ln(T_{i}/T_{f})} + \frac{dB}{dT} \frac{(P_{i}-P_{f})}{\ln(T_{i}/T_{f})}$$
(2-6)

where P_i , P_f are the initial and final pressures, respectively, and T_i , T_f are the corresponding temperatures.

II-5 Speed of Sound:

Various authors have used the speed of sound measurement to determine $C_{\rm V}$ values. From the theory of propagation of sound, the speed of sound in a medium is given by the relation:

$$c^2 = -\frac{V^2}{M} \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial V} \right)_S \tag{2-7}$$

Using thermodynamic relations

$$\left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial V}\right)_{S} = \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial V}\right)_{T} + \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial T}\right)_{V} \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial V}\right)_{S}$$
(2-8)

and

$$\left| \frac{\partial \mathbf{T}}{\partial \mathbf{V}} \right|_{\mathbf{S}} = -\frac{(\partial \mathbf{S}/\partial \mathbf{V})_{\mathbf{T}}}{(\partial \mathbf{S}/\partial \mathbf{T})_{\mathbf{V}}} = -\frac{\mathbf{T}}{\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{V}}} \left| \frac{\partial \mathbf{P}}{\partial \mathbf{T}} \right|_{\mathbf{V}}$$
(2-9)

and combining Equations (2-7), (2-8) and (2-9), we have

$$c_{5} = -\frac{M}{\Lambda_{5}} \left\{ \left(\frac{9\Lambda}{9 \text{L}} \right)^{\text{L}} - \left(\frac{9L}{9 \text{L}} \right)^{\text{L}} \frac{c^{\text{L}}}{L} \right\}$$
 (5-10)

or,

$$C_{V} = \frac{V^{2} T \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial T}\right)^{2}}{Mc^{2} + V^{2} \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial T}\right)^{T}}$$
(2-11)

When a sound wave is passed through a medium, it causes reversible adiabatic expansions and contractions. At low intensities thermal equilibrium is attained with respect to various degrees of freedom of the molecules and hence C_V values can be measured. However uncertainties in the attainment of thermal equilibrium and in the derivative of pressure with respect to T or V put limitations in accurate determination of C_V values.

II-6 Molecular Spectroscopy

Chloro-fluoro derivatives of methane have been investigated spectroscopically. Pitzer et.al. (22), Bernstein and Pullin (7),

Cleveland et al. (13), Edgell and May (17), and Plyer (55) have made spectroscopic predictions of fundamental frequencies on compounds triflurormethane, chlorodifluoromethane and dichlorofluoromethane.

III. EXPERIMENTAL APPARATUS

III-1 General Discussion:

In gas calorimetry, the heat capacity of the container is generally several times greater than the heat capacity of the gas itself. Consequently, comparatively small errors in the heat capacity measurement can be magnified to a large error in the specific heat being determined. Denevers $^{\left(14\right)}$ and Hwang $^{\left(41\right)}$ have shown that their calorimeters could be used to obtain \pm 1% C_{v} data over a certain density below which their data become less and less reliable due to the unfavorable ratio of the heat capacity of the calorimeter and the gas. Schwing $^{\left(57\right)}$ points out that at low pressures any given calorimeter cannot be used to determine simultaneously reliable values of C_{v}^{*} and C_{v}^{*} . This is because the uncertainty in C_{v} values increases with decreasing density. Thus, the design of a calorimeter is solely dictated by the investigator's objectives.

On a close examination of the generalized plot by $\operatorname{Hwang}^{(26)}$ of $\operatorname{C}_{\operatorname{V}}$ - $\operatorname{C}_{\operatorname{V}}^*$ values against reduced density with reduced temperature $\operatorname{T}_{\operatorname{r}}$ as parameters, it is observed that in the reduced density range of 0.00 to 0.02 and reduced temperature range of 0.95 to 1.07, $\operatorname{C}_{\operatorname{V}}$ - $\operatorname{C}_{\operatorname{V}}^*$ has a maximum value of 0.1 cal/gm mole °C i.e. 0.0012 cal/gm°C for gaseous chlorodifluoromethane. Hence any calorimeter designed to work in this reduced temperature and density range will turn out $\operatorname{C}_{\operatorname{V}}$ values which can be reliably used as $\operatorname{C}_{\operatorname{V}}^*$ values. Such a calorimeter was built in this research to determine $\operatorname{C}_{\operatorname{V}}^*$ values for trifluoromethane, chlorodifluoromethane and dichlorofluoromethane from experimental measurements

of constant volume heat capacities in the density region of 0.01 gm/c.c. and temperature range of 40 to $140^{\circ}C$.

III-2 Calorimeter Shell:

The calorimeter shell, Figure 3-1 was made of 301 stainless steel, 0.0085 inches thick and approximately 8 inches inside diameter. The spherical shape was chosen because for any given volume and allowable stress it resulted in the lowest mass of the container. The sphere was fabricated from hemispheres by the Spinform Corporation of Livonia, Michigan. Spheres were drawn out of stainless steel sheets by hydroforming process which retained a uniform thickness from the equator to the pole.

For loading and unloading the calorimeter, a valve core, of the type used in automobile tires, was mounted in a brass fixture of 1/8 inch pipe thread. In order to reduce the effect of the brass fixture as a possible source of heat sink, it was machined to about 10 grams from the original weight of about 20 grams. This also helped in the reduction of the heat capacity of the calorimeter by about 1 cal/°C or approximately 3%. The brass fixture was silver soldered to the wall of the calorimeter. The valve cores were supplied by Schrader Company of Brooklyn, New York with specially made Teflon seats for freon refrigerants. A metal cap was screwed on the brass fixtures to prevent loss of gas in case of leaks through the valve core. Inside the sphere a brass deflector was silver soldered near the valve to act as a baffle when the calorimeter

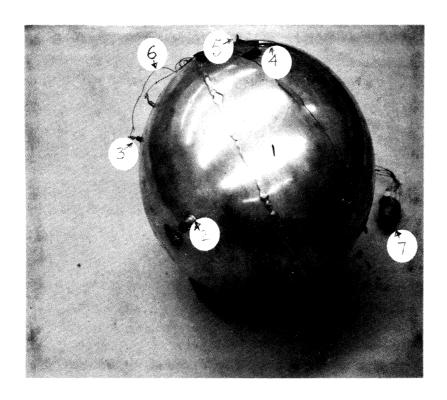


Figure 3-1. The Calorimeter.

- (1) The Calorimeter Shell.
- (2) Brass Valve.
- (3) Stupakoff Terminals.(4) Thermocouple Wells.
- (5) Mounting Rings.(6) Lead Wires.
- (T) Coaxial Plug.

was loaded and thus the delicate electrical system inside the sphere was protected from mechanical disturbance.

Six Stupakoff terminals (Kovar glass seals) Part No. 95.0001
Figure 1-1, were silver soldered into the wall of the calorimeter with their flanges pressing against the inside surface of the sphere. Four terminals were placed in the upper hemisphere and two in the lower.

The two hemispheres were silver soldered with a back up ring (1/4 inch wide) inside. The calorimeter was then silver plated to improve the heat transfer by radiation.

Three brass rings were silver soldered to the wall of the calorimeter for mounting purposes. Three 20-gauge copper tubings (0.125 in. o.d., 0.0635 inch i.d., and 1/2 inch long) were silver soldered to the calorimeter to be used as thermocouple wells.

On the basis of the yield strength of 40,000 p.s.i. for 301 stainless steel, the calorimeter was designed for a working pressure of 170 p.s.i. However, during silver plating an accidental mishap resulted in the calorimeter popping out of the silver cyanide bath and bumping against an electrode rod with considerable force. The damaged area squeezed inside and the calorimeter was brought back to the spherical shape by pressurizing. But a permanent V-shaped dent remained on the wall of the calorimeter. For fear of collapse because of this dent, the calorimeter was never evacuated in open atmosphere. For safety reasons, therefore, it was decided not to operate the calorimeter beyond 125 p.s.i. and a temperature of 150°C.

The volume of the calorimeter was determined by measuring the temperature, pressure, and mass of nitrogen gas charged. The volume was found to be 4530 c.c.

III-3 Calorimeter Heaters and Thermometer:

Since the success of the experiment depended much upon the reduction of the weight and hence the heat capacity of the calorimeter, the design of Schwing $^{(57)}$ for uniform heating was chosen instead of a heating system with an internal motor stirrer of Hwang $^{(41)}$ and DeNevers. $^{(14)}$

In order to design a uniform heating system which would result in small temperature gradients around the sphere, the power input per unit volume of the calorimeter i.e. $I^2R/(4\pi r^2)(dr)$ should be maintained constant. This means that the resistance of the heating wire would increase as the square of the radius from the center of the sphere. This was achieved in practice by winding the platinum heating wire around a mica cross with a linear increase in the length of each coil and a linear increase in the frequency of winding. Using a template, triangles were cut with a base of two inches and a height of four inches from mica sheets. Using the same template, holes were drilled on the mica sheets on both sides of the triangle as shown in Part B, Figure 3-3. Four holes were drilled for the first inch, six holes were drilled for the second inch, eight holes were drilled for the third inch and four holes were drilled for the last half inch. Notches were made by cuts from the sides up to each hole.

For each heater assembly, two mica triangles were used. Both triangles were incised about two inches through the vertical, one from the center of the base and the other from the vertex. A pyramidal shape was made by locking the two triangles through the incisions. The mica pyramid was put on a rig and thermocouple grade platinum ribbon, 0.0005 inch by 1/32 inch.was wound around the notches, Figure 3-2.

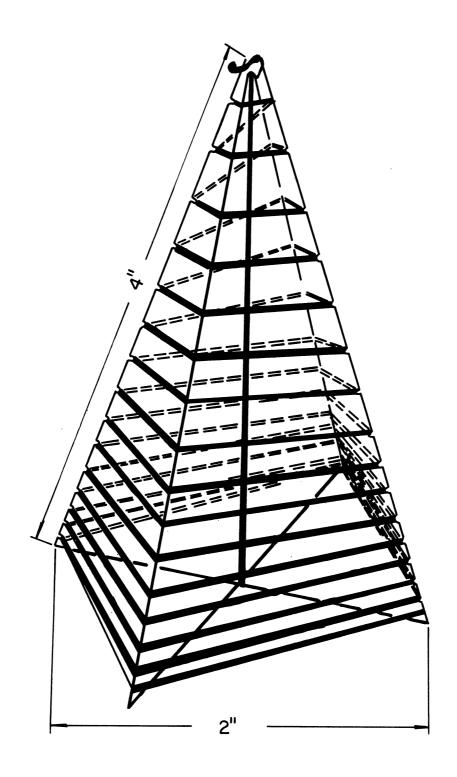


Figure 3-2. Platinum Resistance Ribbon Coiled on Mica Cross.

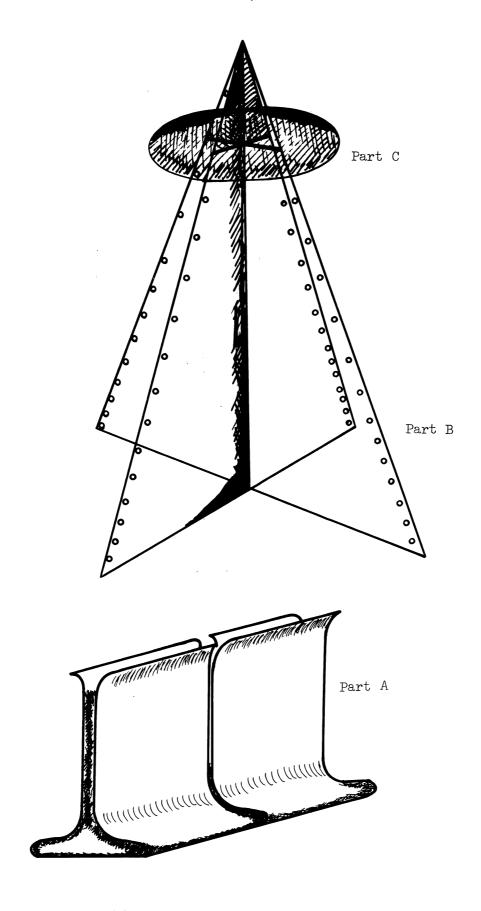


Figure 3-3. Assembly of Heaters.

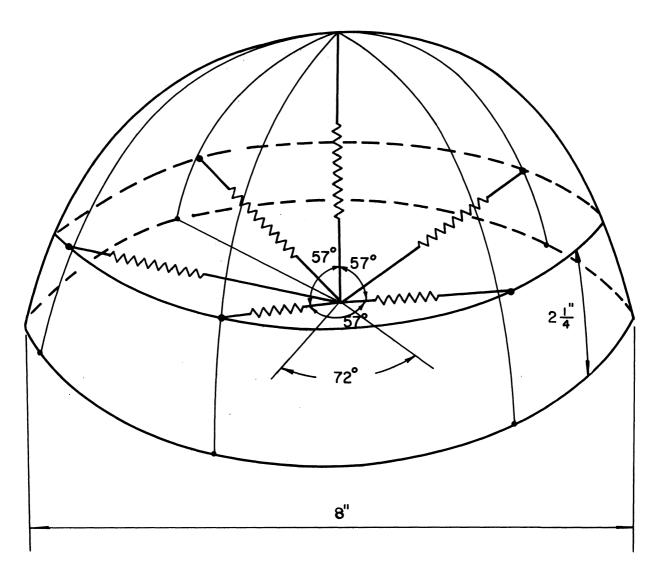


Figure 3-4. Schematic Location of Heaters in Each Hemisphere.

The specially made ribbon was supplied by the Baker Platinum Division of New Jersey. Each heater required approximately six feet of ribbon and had a resistance of about 24 ohms at room temperature.

Twelve such heaters were erected, six in each hemisphere. One heater was on the pole and five others along the circumference in equal spacings. In each hemisphere, the solid angle between each heater and its three neighbors was approximately equal to 57°, Figure 3-4. Each heater was first annealed at a temperature of 1100°F before being installed in the sphere. The whole heating system after being installed was further annealed by passing about 500 watts overnight.

The uniform heating system worked satisfactorily during the entire experiment. With proper manual control of the shield, the temperature gradient between the top and the bottom of the sphere could be maintained, on the average, within ± 0.5 °C.

III-4 General Fabrication and Circuitry:

In each hemisphere, where the heaters were placed, six holders 0.003 inch thick, Part A, Figure 3-3, made out of heat treated phosphorbronze sheet, were silver soldered to the wall of the calorimeter. The heaters were inserted into the holders and were firmly held in position by supporting copper wires which were knotted to the mica structure of the heater and then silver soldered to the wall of the calorimeter. A notched mica disc followed by a notched platinum disc, Part C, were then cemented over the heater at the pole of the hemisphere, Figure 3-3. The wire endings of the heaters were then silver soldered to the wall of the calorimeter and the platinum disc. The same technique was used for the other hemisphere. Electrical connections were made between the

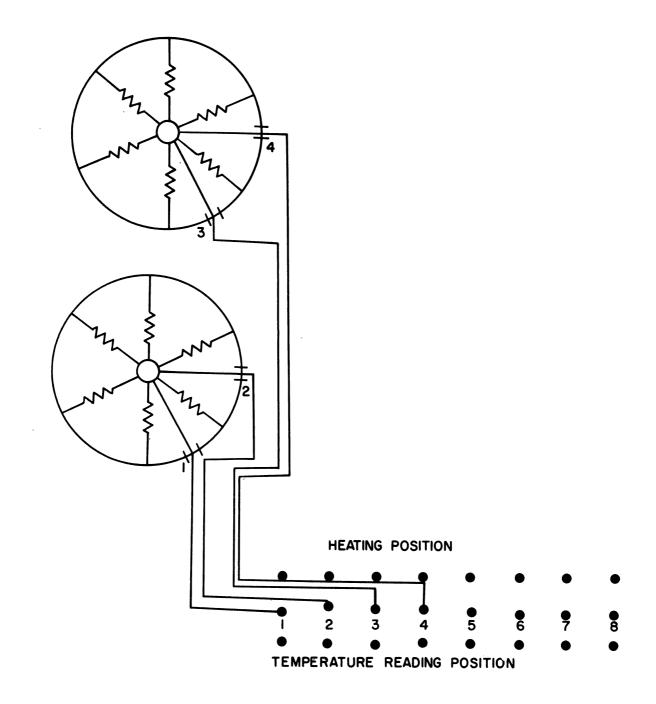


Figure 3-5. Schematic Representation of the Electrical Circuitry of the Calorimeter.

platinum disc and the Stupakoff terminals with copper wires. The electrical circuitry is schematically shown in Figure 3-5. The circuitry is such that all the heaters acted as a single resistance thermometer. This resulted in an integral temperature measurement of the calorimeter and its contents. This also gave a fair estimate of the average temperature of the calorimeter and its contents during the heating period.

III-5 Radiation Shield:

The radiation shield for minimizing the heat losses to the surroundings and improving the adiabaticity of the calorimeter comprised of two 12 inch i.d., 1/4 inch thick copper hemispheres. Three baffle plates, made of copper sheets, 1 1/2 inch wide by 2 1/2 inch long and 1/16 inch thick, were placed in front of three 7/8 inch diameter holes on the contact the edges of the hemispheres to facilitate evacuation. The baffle plates were shaped in a way that the clearance between the shield and the baffle was approximately 3/8 inch. The base of the baffle plate was held by two 1/8 inch brass screws. Each baffle plate had 1/8 inch diameter hole near the top for suspending the calorimeter. Three brass legs of 1/2 inch diameter were brazed to the lower shield to position the shield in the center of the vacuum container. Three small pieces of copper blocks, held to the bottom hemisphere with 1/8 inch screws, were used to center the upper hemisphere.

The outside of each shield was bonded with two electric heaters, Type No. 5220 from Electrofilm, Incorporated. The heaters were made up of a wire mesh designed and fabricated by Electrofilm. The variation in wattage in each shield was less than $\pm 10\%$. The power capacity was over 5000 watts. Any variation in wattage was largely damped by the 1/2 inch thick copper shell.

To minimize heat-leakage to the vacuum container through the three brass legs a single heating tape was wound around the three legs.

Two variacs, 0-110 volt, 15 amp., supplied the power to the two shield heaters and one variable transformer, 0-110 volt, 8 amp was used for the leg heater.

III-6 The Thermocouples

For the accuracy in experimental measurements, temperature control between the calorimeter and the shield heater was absolutely necessary. As in the works of Hwang (41) and Schwing (57), three control points (top, side, and bottom) were used along the surface of the calorimeter. Also on the radiation shield corresponding points were selected. Since the radiation shield consisted of two hemispheres, two points were chosen, one in each hemisphere but closely located.

Seven copper-constantan differential thermocouples indicated the temperature difference between any two points. All the constantan wires were brought to a common junction within the vacuum container junction board. The temperature difference between any two control points was indicated by the deflection of a light beam through a moving coil galvanometer, Leeds and Northrup No. 1193782. The circuitry consisted of an eleven point, double pole, rotary switch, Leeds and Northrup Type 8240, No. 1210525, and the galvanometer. The deflection of the light beam was read on a frosted glass scale, graduated from 0-30 cm to the left and to the right. A deflection of 1 cm corresponded to 0.02°C temperature difference. Two resistors (1000 and 10,000 ohms) were put in series with the galvanometer to control the sensitivity of the galvanometer, if necessary. The circuit diagram for the entire thermocouple

CALR = CALORIMETER

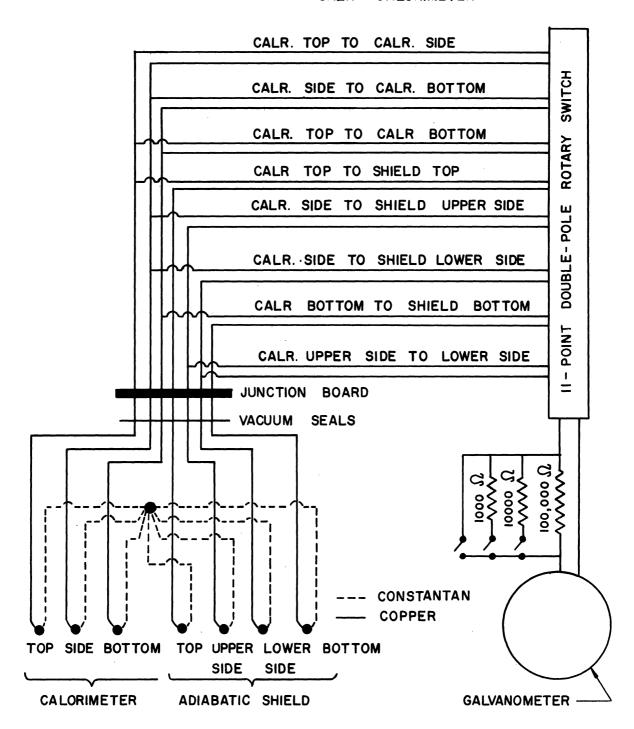


Figure 3-6. Circuit Diagram of Thermocouples.

system is shown in Figure 3-6. The thermocouples were placed in thermal but not electrical contact with various surfaces for which insulated thermocouple wells were used at various control points. The wells were made of 20 gage copper tubing (0.125-in. o.d., 0.0635 in i.d., and 1/2 in. long), and were silver soldered to the radiation shield or calorimeter. The thermocouples were insulated with Teflon tubing (0.052 in., o.d. and 0.030 in. (i.d.)) and were coated with vacuum grease and forced into the copper tube.

III-7 The Vacuum Container

With a view to reducing the heat transfer by convection, the calorimeter and the radiation shield were housed in a vacuum chamber which also was a safety provision in case of explosion of the calorimeter.

Each half of the vacuum container was fabricated by welding a "Taylor Forge" 16 inch schedule 80 welding cap to a "Taylor Forge" 16 inch 300# slip-on flange. The flange was 2 1/4 inches thick and the container 0.843 inches thick. The vacuum container weighed about 680 pounds. After welding it was found that the flanges were slightly warped and gave about 3/16 inches clearance at the outer edge. Three legs, each made of 3 by 1 1/2 by 2 1/2 inch channel, were welded to the bottom of the vacuum container and bolted to a concrete slab.

The vacuum seal between the two flanges was accomplished by a silicone rubber "O"-ring provided by Precision Rubber Products Corporation (PRP6543, i.d. 17.000 in., having a cross section of 0.275 in. and made out of a compound 1130-80). On the lower flange a groove was machined for the "O"-ring with the following dimensions: groove i.d. 17.000-.005 + .000 in., groove depth: .225 ± .005 in., groove width, approximately

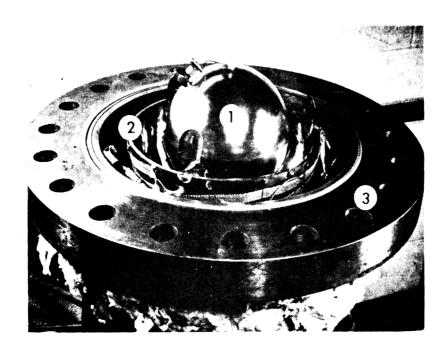


Figure 3-7. Calorimeter, Shiela, and Vacuum Container in Their Relative Positions.

- (1) Calorimeter.
- (2) Adiabatic shield, showing three baffle pieces which also serve as the suspension frame for the calorimeter.
- (3) Vacuum container, showing a silicone rubber "0"-ring in the groove, and Fiberglas insulation outside the container.

0.375 in. Seven-eighths inch copper tube connected the container to the vacuum system. Twenty 1-1 1/4 by 6 inch machined bolts were used to bolt the two flanges. A 1/2 ton chain hoist was used to lift the upper half of the container which had an iron ring welded to the top. It rolled on an overhead track made up of a 6 inch by 3 1/2 inch I-beam 6 feet long. Six leads of the shield heaters were taken out of the vacuum container through a Stupakoff multi-terminal heater, No. 25.4003 which was silver soldered to a two inch long stainless steel tube welded to the wall of the container. The thermocouple leads together with the calorimeter leads were led to the outside junction box through a six foot long tygon tubing. The lower half of the vacuum container was insulated by 2 inch thick Fiberglass and a removable mat of Fiberglass was placed on the top of the container before the start of the experiment.

The entire vacuum container, shield and the calorimeter, Figure 3-7, were housed in a steel cabinet for additional safety measures. The steel cabinet, approximately 2 by 3 1/2 by 8 feet in size was bolted to the concrete slab, cast into the rectangular frame made of six by two inch channel. The frame of the cabinet consisted of 2 by 2 by 3/8 inch angles to which were attached 1/4 inch hot rolled steel sheets. Two doors each 4 by 8 feet, were fixed to the cabinet by four 1/2 inch hinges. Four 3/4 inch bolts were used to close the doors. Since the rear of the cabinet had no steel sheet, in case of rupture, pieces were expected to fly in the direction of the window to the outside.

III-8 <u>Electrical Junction Box</u>:

A separate electrical junction box was installed to avoid spurious thermal e.m.fs which could be produced by temperature gradients

across the vacuum container. This was connected to the container wall through a six foot long piece of tygon tubing.

The junction box was a 500 c.c. stainless steel beaker. A piece of stainless steel tubing was silver soldered to the bottom and a 1/8 inch thick, one inch wide, steel flange was silver soldered to the top. The matching brass plate and the flange were held together with eight 1/4 inch bolts. An "O"-ring was used between the flanges as vacuum seal. Two Stupakoff eight terminal Kovar-glass headers, No. 95.4003, were soldered to the brass plate. Of the total 16 terminals, six were led to the calorimeter, seven were used for differential thermocouples, two for spare wires and one was not used. All the wires used were 30 gauge copper Formvar and Fiber glass insulated.

III-9 The Vacuum and Loading System:

Figure 3-8 is a schematic diagram of the vacuum system consisting of a Cenco Hyvac No. 2 pump which exhausted to the atmosphere and maintained an inlet pressure of about 50 microns of mercury. A pipe connected this pump to the outlet of a VMC diffusion pump for reducing the pressure to about one micron of mercury. For the measurement of the pressure, a Lippincot-McLeod gauge was connected to the vacuum container via flexibl "Tygon" tubing and copper tubing. 5/8 inch long pieces of glass tubing were inserted into the Tygon tubing to prevent it from collapsing during evacuation. In front of the Mcleod gauge, a "Lucite" shield, 8 inches b 12 inches by 14 inches thick was mounted to prevent flying glasses in case the calorimeter ruptured.

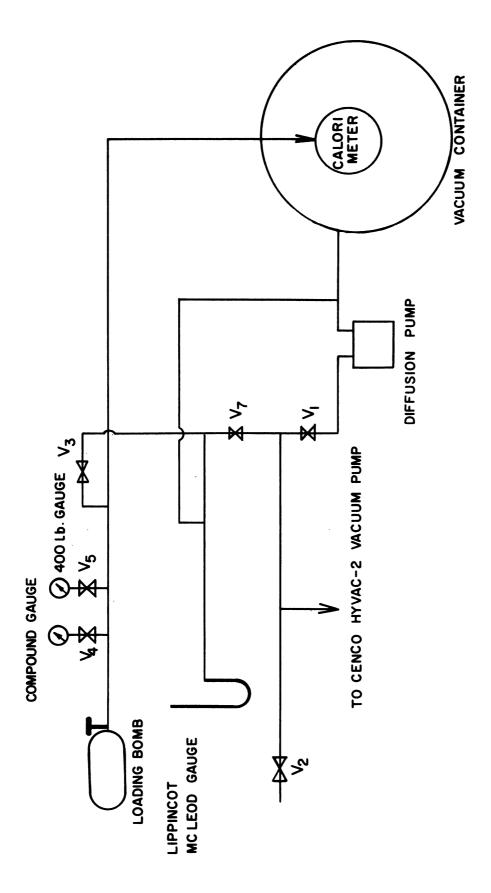


Figure 3-8. Schematic Diagram of the Vacuum and the Loading System.

Copper tubings, 1/4 inch and 7/8 inch nominal diameter, were used for the vacuum system. The valves were Imperial Diaphragm type vacuum valves.

With the valve V_2 closed and all other valves open, the mechanical pump was turned on. This evacuated the calorimeter and the vacuum container simultaneously since it was desired to evacuate the calorimeter in evacuated surroundings to avoid any collapsing of the calorimeter. Then with the valve V_7 closed, the diffusion pump was turned on. During loading the valves V_3 and V_7 were kept closed.

III-10 The Measuring System:

Two basic circuits were used for the measuring system as shown in Figure 3-9. One was for temperature measurement, and the other for measuring the power input to the calorimeter. Four electrical lead wires, about 18 inches long, were led from the calorimeter to a co-axial plug, the female part of which was mounted on the lower shield for attaining flexibility in the removal of the calorimeter for loading and weighing. From the female plug lead wires ran into the junction box described in Section III-8, and from there to the 8-pole double throw master switch which completed the power circuitry and temperature measurement circuitry in the "up" and "down" position respectively. Power was supplied by two 12 volt batteries put in parallel. A battery charger was used for recharging when not in use.

The power circuitry consisted of lead wires one and four, the balancing resistor, auto batteries, the resistance circuitry of the calorimeter, a two-amp fuse, milliammeter, and a 0.1 ohm standard resistor. Leads two and three were taken to a potential dividing circuit

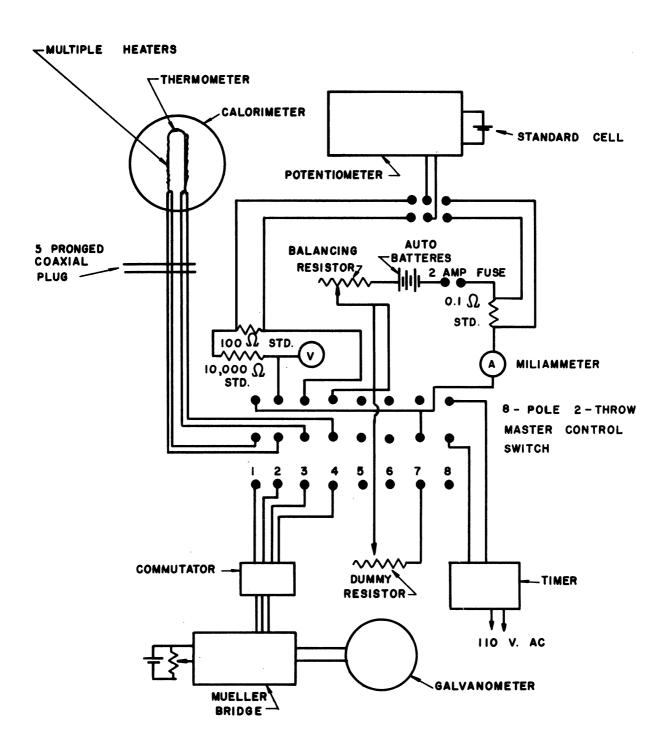


Figure 3-9. Circuit Diagram of the Measuring System.

consisting of a standard 100 ohm resistor, Leeds and Northrup Type No. 4030-B, Serial No. 1508856, a standard 10,000 ohm resistor, Leeds and Northrup Type No. 4040-B, Serial No. 1201941, and a volt meter. The 100 ohm resistor is accurate to within ±0.01% as certified in the spring of 1961 whereas the o.l ohm and 10,000 ohm resistors were certified in the fall of 1956 with same accuracy. The voltage drop across the heater in the calorimeter was estimated by measuring the voltage drop across the 100 ohm resistor. All standard resistors were kept in an oil bath 10 inches by 7 inches by 5 inches, made of stainless steel pan filled with SAE 20 motor oil to avoid fluctuations in room temperature.

A Leeds and Northrup portable precision potentiometer, No. 8662
Serial No. Al272, was used for determining the voltage drop across the standard resistors. This potentiometer had a self-contained galvanometer and a standard cell which was calibrated against a Weston standard cell.

1 1/2 volt dry batteries were used for power requirements of the potentiometer. A two-pole double-throw switch connected the potentiometer either to the 0.1 ohm resistor or to the 100 ohm resistor according as the measurement of current and voltage was desired.

A 0-800 milliammeter and a 0-25 v. voltmeter, Figure 3-9, indicated approximately the current and voltage in the power circuitry.

A balancing resistor was connected in series with the thermometer-heater to minimize the fluctuations of power input to the calorimeter as suggested by Hoge. (25) The balancing resistor was a 10 ohm sliding-contact Ohmite No. 0145 resistor.

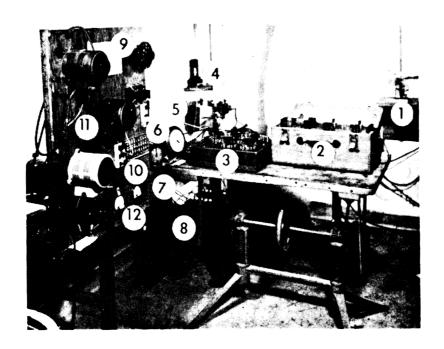


Figure 3-10. Control and Measuring Instruments.

- (1) Lippincot-McLeod gauge.
- (2) Potentiometer.
- (3) Mueller bridge.
- (4) Galvanometer, light and scale.
- (5) Battery charger.
- (6) Clock and timer.
- (7) Balancing and dummy resistor.
- (8) Lead storage batteries.
- (9) 11-point 2-pole selector switch.
- (10) 8-pole double-throw master control switch.
- (11) Powerstats variable transformers.
- (12) Milliammeter and voltmeter.

The time of heating the calorimeter was measured by a synchronous timer with an electrically actuated clutch (Standard Electric Time Company Model S-6). The 8-pole double throw switch engages and disengages the clutch of the timer.

Figure 3--10 illustrates the control and measuring instruments used in this experiment.

IV. EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE

IV-1 Loading the Calorimeter:

The calorimeter was placed in the vacuum container. A diffusion pump together with a roughing pump built a vacuum of 1 micron in the whole system including the loading lines that run from the gas shipping container. The gas was then forced into the calorimeter. The calorimeter was purged with small amounts of gases several times and was evacuated to about 5µ each time. Before the charge was made, the calorimeter was heated to approximately 100°C to take care of degassing problems. A high pressure gauge on the loading line approximately indicated the amount of charge in the calorimeter. In the case of dichlorofluoromethane, the shipping container was placed on a 2 Kg crude balance to get an idea of how much amount of gas had flown into the calorimeter. After charging the calorimeter was weighed and the weight is believed to be accurate to within ± .03 gms. After a series of runs at one density, the total weight of the calorimeter plus gas was checked.

The calorimeter and the radiation shields were polished to reduce radiant heat transfer. The calorimeter was positioned with fiber-glass strings in the lower radiation shield. All thermocouples were put in respective control points. The top shield was then placed over the lower shield with the calorimeter in the right position. The heating leads of the radiation shields were electrically connected by means of co-axial plugs. The "O"-ring was then placed in the groove of the vacuum container and then the upper half of the vacuum container was lowered into position. Twenty 1 1/4 inch bolts were used to hold the flanges of the vacuum container. The Fiberglass insulation was put over the vacuum container and the system was then evacuated.

IV-2 Operating the Calorimeter:

When the system was evacuated to about 1 micron, a series of experimental measurements was started for a particular charge of gas, from a temperature of about 30°C. Each normal run was divided into three different periods: the temperature measuring period, the heating period and another temperature measuring period. In case of consecutive runs, the second temperature measuring period was used as the initial temperature measuring period of the next run.

During a particular run, the most important and difficult problem was the control of temperature differences between the shield and the calorimeter. Theoretically one desires zero temperature difference between the control points of the calorimeter and those of the shield. In practice, this was not true as indicated by the differential thermocouples. For various densities of charges and at various temperatures, the temperature difference between the control points was on the average 0.1°C during the temperature measuring periods and about 0.2°C during the heating period.

During the initial temperature measuring period, several resistance readings were taken with a Mueller bridge at five minute intervals and at the same time zero average temperature difference was maintained between the shield and the calorimeter. Connections to the resistance thermometer in the calorimeter were made through a Leeds Northrup mercury cup commutator for normal and reverse resistance readings. The average of these readings was the true temperature because the lead resistances were cancelled. Once the rate of change of temperature with respect to time, i.e. "drift," had been established, the heating period was started by

switching the 8-pole double throw to the "up" position. This started the heating of the calorimeter, and engaged the clutch of the timer and disconnected the Mueller bridge to prevent any current flowing through it. The heating period lasted for 30 minutes and the temperature rise was generally on the order of 10 °C. A minute earlier of the heating period, a burst of power was given to the shield, considering its slow response, to match the calorimeter temperature when the heating period started. During the heating period, attentive manual control of the shield was maintained to have zero average temperature difference between the control points of the shield and the calorimeter. The differtial thermocouple readings were taken every two minutes.

The heat input to the calorimeter was estimated by taking current and voltage readings in quick intervals every eighth minute from the start of the heating period. Two current readings, before and after the voltage reading, established the average current reading at the time of voltage measurement. The current was determined by measuring the voltage across the 0.1000-ohm standard resistor and the voltage by measuring the potential drop across the voltage dividing circuit consisting of 100.00 ohms and 10,000.00 ohms standard resistors.

The 8-pole double-throw master switch was placed in the temperature measuring position to terminate the heating period. This disengaged the timer and the Mueller bridge was put into circuitry. The time was read from the timer which was reset to zero for the next run. The power to the shield was cut down appreciably just about a minute before the end of the heating period so that the temperature difference between the shield and the calorimeter did not go out of control.

The calorimeter was then allowed to equilibrate in temperature for ten minutes maintaining good control between the shield and the calorimeter. Then followed the final temperature measuring period. Resistance readings were noted every five minutes until the final drift rate was properly established. Usually eight resistance readings were taken. The final drift rate was used as the initial drift rate for the next run.

IV-3 Changing the Density:

After a series of runs at a given density, preparations were made for the next run. The old check-valve was replaced by a new one and the calorimeter was reloaded as outlined before. The calorimeter performed without leaks.

V. METHOD OF CALCULATION OF GROSS HEAT CAPACITY, ANALYSIS OF HEAT LOSS CORRECTION AND ESTIMATION OF ACCURACY

V-1 Method of Calculation of Gross Heat Capacity:

In the case of a perfectly adiabatic calorimeter, the gross heat capacity, $c_{
m gross}$ can be expressed as:

$$\int_{T_1}^{T_2} c_{gross} dT = \int_{\theta_1}^{\theta_2} q d\theta$$
 (5-1)

where q is the rate of heat input during the time interval from θ_1 to θ_2 and the temperature rise from T_1 to T_2 . For a small temperature interval, (C_{gross}) mean may be defined at the mean temperature as

$$(C_{gross})_{mean} = \frac{\int_{\Theta_1}^{\Theta_2} q d\theta}{\int_{T_1}^{T_2} dT} = \frac{q_{mean} \Delta \theta}{\Delta T}$$
 (5-2)

In actual calorimetric measurement such as this, there is always a definite heat leakage to the surroundings from the calorimeter. Therefore, for any reliable measurement an accurate estimation of the heat leakage is essential. Equation (5-2) can then be written as:

$$(c_{gross})_{mean} = (q_{mean} + q_{corr}) \frac{\Delta \theta}{\Delta T}$$
 (5-3)

The heat leakage can, however, be expressed in terms of an equivalent temperature change $\Delta T_{\rm corr}$, that is the temperature change that would have occurred had there been no heat loss to the surroundings. Equation (5-3) can then be modified as:

$$(C_{gross})_{mean} = \frac{q_{mean} \Delta \Theta}{(\Delta T - \Delta T_{corr})}$$
 (5-4)

In this experiment $\Delta T_{\rm corr}$ is calculated from the average of the initial and final drift rates as explained fully in Section V-2. $C_{\rm gross}$ is calculated from Equation (5-4) as shown by a sample calculation in Appendix B.

V-2 Analysis of Heat Loss Correction:

As has been pointed out in the previous section, an accurate estimation of the term ΔT - ΔT_{corr} for heat losses is needed for the calculation of the gross heat capacity. It is, therefore, considered mandatory to fully explain that term and its physical implications. In the experimental set-up shown in Figure 3-7, as soon as the temperature of the calorimeter was higher than that of the vacuum container and the surroundings outside it, the radiation shield being at approximately the same temperature as that of the calorimeter, it is noted that the calorimeter started losing heat as shown by its temperature drop with time. The heat loss was believed to be mainly by conduction through the wires leading from the calorimeter to the surroundings and partly by convection and radiation because the shield could not be maintained at perfect thermal equilibrium with the calorimeter. The rate of temperature change of the calorimeter or drift rate was experimentally observed to follow Newton's law of thermal leakage i.e. at any temperature the rate of heat loss from the calorimeter to the surroundings was found to be proportional to the temperature difference between the calorimeter and the surroundings.

Mathematically, it can be formulated as:

$$-\left(\frac{dQ}{d\theta}\right)_{loss} = \kappa(T-T_s) \tag{5-5}$$

where $-\left(\frac{dQ}{d\theta}\right)_{loss}$ is the rate of heat loss, κ is the thermal leakage modulus, T the temperature of the calorimeter and T_s the temperature of the surroundings.

On the basis of the assumptions that (a) the calorimeter and its contents are at a uniform temperature T , and (b) the radiation shield is always near thermal equilibrium with the calorimeter (i.e. $T_{\rm shield} ~\cong T$), the following differential equation can be written from an energy balance of the calorimeter:

$$C_{gross} \frac{dT}{d\theta} + \kappa (T - T_s) = q$$
 (5-6)

where C_{gross} is the gross heat capacity of the calorimeter and its contents and q is the rate of heat input. The above Equation (5-6) can also be written in the form of an integral equation as:

$$(C_{gross})_{mean} \Delta T + \kappa \int_{0}^{\Theta} (T-T_s) d\theta = q_{mean} \Delta \Theta$$
. (5-7)

where the term $\kappa\int\limits_0^0 (T-T_S)d\theta$ accounts for the total heat loss to the surroundings. Had there been no such heat loss, i.e. the calorimeter was perfectly adiabatic, the temperature of the calorimeter and its contents would rise by an amount, say $\Delta T_{\rm corr}$. Therefore it follows:

$$- (C_{gross})_{mean} \Delta T_{corr} = \kappa \int_{0}^{\Theta} (T-T_{s}) d\Theta$$
 (5-8)

For a small temperature rise of about 10°C of the calorimeter during the heating period, if one assumes that T_{S} does not significantly change and $(C_{\text{gross}})_{\text{mean}}$ and q_{mean} can be used in the Equation (5-6), the analytical solution of the Equation (5-6) can be expressed as:

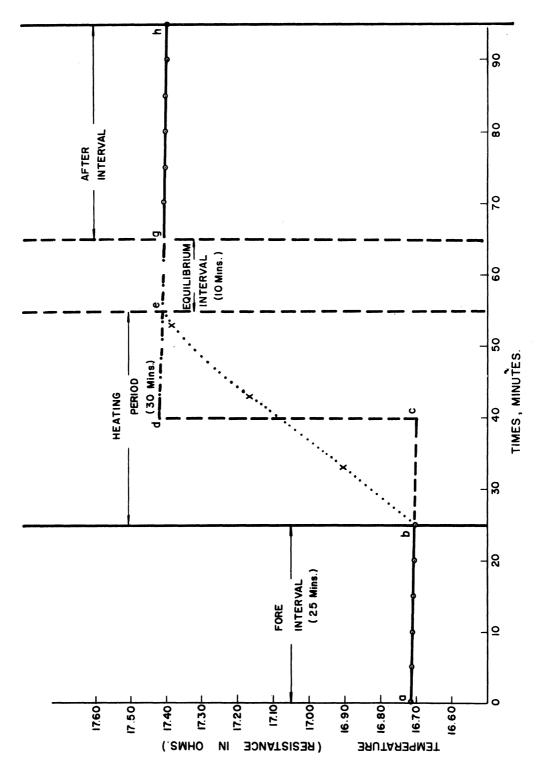


Figure 5-1. Temperature Versus Time Plot for the Calorimeter. (Run No. F-22-G-2)

$$T-T_{s} = \frac{q_{mean}}{\kappa} + (T_{b}-T_{s}-\frac{q_{mean}}{\kappa}) e^{-\frac{\kappa}{(C_{gross})_{mean}}}$$
 (5-9)

where T_b is the initial temperature of the calorimeter and its contents. The Equation (5-9) describes the temperature profile of the calorimeter as a function of time during the heating period. For an accurate estimation of $(C_{gross})_{mean}$, Equation (5-9) has very limited use because (a) the physical quantities $^\kappa$ and T_s are not known from experimental measurements (b) the calorimeter and its contents are not at a uniform temperature (c) no accurate measurement of the temperature of the calorimeter and its contents is made during the heating period, although from the voltage and current measurements one can calculate such a temperature with fair approximation.

In actual practice, it was, therefore found more convenient to calculate $(C_{gross})_{mean}$ from the Equation (5-10), which is obtained by substituting the Equation (5-8) into the Equation (5-7) and rewriting as:

$$(c_{gross})_{mean} \Delta \tau = q_{mean} \Delta \theta$$
 (5-10)

where $\Delta \tau$ i.e. ΔT - $\Delta T_{\rm corr}$ is the effective rise in temperature of the calorimeter and its contents in the absence of any heat loss to the surroundings. ΔT is the observed temperature rise. The physical significance of $\Delta \tau$ is best explained from the temperature time plot, Figure 5-1, which also describes the principles involved in the experimental method for the calculation of the gross heat capacity, Appendix B. The slopes of the lines ab and gh represent the initial and final drift rates. $T_{\rm b}$ is the initial temperature of the calorimeter and its contents. $T_{\rm e}$ represents the equilibrium temperature of the calorimeter and its

contents at the end of the heating period and is obtained by extrapolation of the line gh . $T_e\text{-}T_b$ is the observed temperature difference ΔT . $T_d\text{-}T_c \text{ is } \Delta T\text{-}\Delta T_{corr} \text{ i.e. } \Delta \tau \text{ .}$

V-3 Method of Calculation of Constant Volume Heat Capacity and Ideal Gas Heat Capacity

The gross heat capacity, C_{gross} calculated from Equation (5-4) is the sum of the heat capacity of the calorimeter itself with its accessories plus the heat capacity of the gas charged. It can be expressed as:

$$C_{gross} = C_{calr} + mC_{v}$$
 (gas) at any temperature (5-11)

Equation (5-11) can also be rewritten as:

$$C_{gross} = C_{calr} + m(C_v - C_v^*) + mC_v^*$$
 (5-12)

If the correction term $C_v-C_v^*$ is negligible, Equation (5-12) reduces to

$$C_{gross} = C_{calr} + mC_{v}^{*}$$
 (5-13)

in which case $C_{\mbox{gross}}$ becomes a linear function of mass.

In this research gross heat capacity measurements have been made for gaseous trifluoromethane, chlorodifluoromethane and dichlorofluoromethane in the density region of 0.01 gm/c.c. or 0.0002 gm-mole/c.c. Figure D-1 of Hwang (26) is the generalized plot of C_V - C_V * versus reduced density with reduced temperature T_r as parameter. From the generalized plot it is noted that C_V - C_V * is approximately 0.10 cal/gm-mole°C at a reduced density of 0.02 and reduced temperature of 0.95. Thus in the reduced density range of 0.00 to 0.02 and reduced

temperature range of 0.95 to 1.07, $C_V - C_V^*$ values are always on the average within 1% of C_V^* values. For chlorodifluoromethane at 40°C i.e. at about $T_T = 0.85$ and density of 0.0136 gm/c.c. i.e. at about $\rho_T = 0.026$, $C_V - C_V^*$ is approximately 0.2 cal/gm-mole°C (obtained by linear extrapolation from Figure E-14. Thus even at the lowest temperature and highest density of this study where $C_V - C_V^*$ has the maximum value, C_V differs from C_V^* by about 2.00%. From Martin's (39) equation of state, the values of $\left(\frac{\partial C_V}{\partial m}\right)_T$ at 40°C and 140°C are (0.705)(10⁻¹⁴) cal/gm²°C and (0.249)(10⁻¹⁴) cal/gm²°C respectively. In order to evaluate these quantities with an accuracy of \pm 100%, the experimental smoothed gross heat capacity data should be better than 0.07 cal/°C and 0.025 cal/°C at 40°C and 100°C respectively. Even the calibration curve for the calorimeter is not believed to be known with such precision. On the basis of the above considerations, it is reasonable to use Equation (5-13) for the calculation of C_V or C_V^* values.

The method of calculation of $\,C_{V}\,$ values at any temperature for an unknown gas involves the following steps:

- (1) $C_{
 m calr}$ is determined from the calibration curve discussed in (VI-1).
- (2) The gross heat capacity data for each mass of charge are expressed as a function of temperature by a least square straight line.
- (3) The smoothed gross heat capacity values (at any particular temperature) for various masses together with the value of $C_{\rm calr}$ are expressed as a function of mass by a least square straight line. The value of $C_{\rm calr}$ is weighted four times. The slope of the line represents the experimental $C_{\rm v}$ or $C_{\rm v}^{\ *}$ value.

V-4 Estimation of the Accuracy

The gross heat capacity value is a function of the experimental variables, time t , voltage E , current I , temperature difference of $\Delta T\text{-}\Delta T_{\text{corr}} \text{ . } \text{Mathematically this can be expressed as}$

$$C_{gross} = \frac{Q}{\Delta T} = f(t, E, I, \Delta T, \Delta T_{corr}) = \frac{t(EI - E^2/2018)}{\Delta T - \Delta T_{corr}}$$
(5-11)

Therefore the variation in C_{gross} can be represented as:

$$dC_{gross} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} dt + \frac{\partial f}{\partial E} dE + \frac{\partial f}{\partial I} dI + \frac{\partial f}{\partial (\Delta T)} d(\Delta T) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial (\Delta T_{corr})} d(\Delta T_{corr})$$

$$= \frac{(EI)_{mean} - E_{mean}^2/2018}{\Delta T - \Delta T_{corr}} dt + \frac{t(I - 2E_{mean}/2018)}{(\Delta T - \Delta T_{corr})} \Delta E$$

$$+ \frac{(t)(E_{mean})}{(\Delta T - \Delta T_{corr})} \Delta I + \frac{((t)(EI)_{mean} - E_{mean}^2/2018)}{(\Delta T - \Delta T_{corr})^2} (\Delta(\Delta T_{corr} - \Delta T)) (5-13)$$

The time was read with an electric timer which was accurate to ± 0.001 minute. Since the heating period was about thirty minutes, the error due to time measurement in $C_{\tt gross}$ heat capacity measurement is considered negligible.

Voltage was measured with an accuracy of ± 0.002 and its magnitude was about 3 volts. Current measurement had an uncertainty of ± 0.0002 and its magnitude was about 0.4 amps. The average of three instantaneous power readings resulted in $Q_{\rm mean}$ which was within $\pm 0.5\%$ of any instantaneous power. The power consumed in the voltage measuring circuit was about 0.5% of instantaneous power. The uncertainty in the over all accuracy estimation due to this is 0.025%.

The resistance thermometer inside the calorimeter had an average accuracy of $\pm 0.015\,^{\circ}\text{C}$. But since the calibration was internally

consistent, the temperature difference, ΔT , is believed to have much greater accuracy. ΔT , however, depended on the final temperature T_2 which was not directly measured but was estimated using the final drift rate for the elapsed time during the equilibrium period. The drift rate at an average temperature of $100^{\circ}C$ was about $0.012^{\circ}C/min$. The drift rate on the average was also known with an accuracy of $\pm 10\%$. So during the ten-minute equilibrium period an uncertainty of $0.012^{\circ}C$ could possibly result.

 $\Delta T_{\rm corr}$, the heat leakage correction term, had uncertainties in its estimation. This term was calculated by determining the initial and final drift rate when there is no radiation heat transfer between the radiation shield and the calorimeter and then applying a correction to account for imperfect control between the shields and the calorimeter resulting in radiation heat interchange between the two. The average value of $\Delta T_{\rm corr}$ was about 0.36°C and drift rates and control correction were known to \pm 10% .

TABLE 5-1
ACCURACY OF MEASURED VARIABLES

Variable	Approximate Average Value	Accuracy
t	30.0 min	<u>+</u> 0.001 min
E	3.0	<u>+</u> 0.002 volts
I	0.35	<u>+</u> 0.0002 amp
Т	12°C	<u>+</u> 0.012°C
$\Delta T_{ m corr}$	0.36	<u>+</u> 0.036°C

Approximate values of measured variables and the possible maximum error are shown in Table 5-1. Substituting these values into Equation (5-13), an approximate estimation of the variation in $C_{\rm gross}$ at $100\,^{\circ}{\rm C}$ is made as follows:

$$\frac{\Delta C_{gross}}{14.4837} = \frac{((3)(3.5)-3^2/2018)}{12.36} (0.001) + \frac{(30)(0.35-(2)(3)/2018)}{12.36} (0.002) + \frac{(30)(3)}{12.36} (0.0002) + \frac{(30)((3)(0.35)-3^2/2018)}{(12.36)^2} (0.048)$$

or $\Delta C_{\rm gross} = \pm 0.1705$ cal. During the entire experiment, the reproducibility of data was found to be ± 0.15 calories. The calibration of the calorimeter with several gases had an average variation of ± 0.05 calories. In general, it could be said $C_{\rm gross}$ data on the average had fluctuations of the order of $\pm 0.3\%$.

The volume of the calorimeter was determined by means of nitrogen gas within $\pm~0.5\%$. The mass of the contents of the calorimeter was known to $\pm~0.3\%$. The volume variation over the temperature and pressure range is considered negligible. The maximum possible error in the density is $\pm~0.5\%$.

VI. CALIBRATION OF THE HEAT CAPACITY OF THE CALORIMETER

VI-1 Calibration of the Calorimeter (1964) Heat Capacity with a Known Gas (Nitrogen)

This research had been designed to take gross heat capacity measurements of various gases at extremely low densities of the order of 0.01 gm/c.c. or approximately .0002 gm-mole/c.c. It was necessary, therefore, to establish accurately the calibration curve of the heat capacity of the calorimeter in this density range. Nitrogen gas was chosen for this purpose because: (a) Nitrogen gas has been studied extensively by various investigators and its heat capacity is believed to be known with an accuracy of \pm 0.3% (b) The gas behaves ideally in the ranges of temperature and density for study so that the second partial of pressure with respect to temperature is vanishingly small and hence the correction term $C_V - C_V^*$ is negligible.

The gross heat capacity, C_{gross} , calculated from Equation, (5-10), is the sum of the heat capacity of the calorimeter itself with its accessories plus the heat capacity of the gas charged. It can be expressed as:

 $C_{gross} = C_{calr} + mC_V$ (gas) at any temperature (6-1) The method of determination of C_{calr} values from Equation (6-1) with Nitrogen gas whose heat capacity is known accurately, involved the following procedures: (a) Gross heat capacity measurements were carried out at four different densities as shown in the C_{gross} versus temperature curves in Figure E-6 and presented in Table E-3. The curves drawn are least square lines as given in Table 6-2. (b) The smoothed gross heat capacity values were then cross-plotted against mass with temperature

as parameter. They were fitted with straight lines of the form a+bm subject to least squares criterion where b represents the known heat capacity values of nitrogen, Figure 6-1. The heat capacity values of nitrogen shown in Table 6-1 were compiled from the book by F. Din. $^{(15)}$ Figure 6-1 shows the plot of C_{gross} versus mass with temperature as parameter. Table 6-6 and Figure 6-3 give the calibration of the heat capacity of the calorimeter.

TABLE 6-1
HEAT CAPACITY VALUES OF NITROGEN

Temperature °C	C _v ,Cal/gm°C
1+0	0.1758
60	0.1760
80	0.1762
100	0.1764
120	0.1766
140	0.1768

VI-2 Recalibration of the Calorimeter

The calorimeter was first calibrated with nitrogen gas and heat capacity values were measured for gaseous dichlorodifluoromethane, chlorodifluoromethane, dichlorofluoromethane and trifluoromethane. From the data of chlorodifluoromethane, it was decided about a year later to run some more gross heat capacity measurements for that compound. The calorimeter was recalibrated with nitrogen gas as shown in Figures 6-2 and 6-3 and Tables 6-3 and 6-7. The 1966 calibration line can be represented by 34.3147 + 0.031147T where T is in degree Centigrade as compared to the previous 1964 calibration line given by 33.8257 + 0.032512T. From the comparison of the two calibration lines, it appears that the 1966

TABLE 6-2
SMOOTHED GROSS HEAT CAPACITY VALUES WITH NITROGEN FOR THE CALIBRATION OF THE CALORIMETER (1964)

	Mass							
Run No.		40°C	60°C	Cgross cal/°C 80°C	100°C	120°C	140°C	Least Square Line
N2-A	21.31	38,9758	39.5904	40.2050	40.8196	41.4342	42.0488	37.7466 + 0.030730 <u>T</u>
N2-B	18,23	38.4690	39.1212	39,7734	40.4256	41.0778	41.7300	37.1645 + 0.032613T
N2-C	11.62	37.1856	37.8163	38.4470	39.0777	39.7084	40.3391	35.9242 + 0.031534Т
N ₂ -D	6.50	36.0115	36.7265	37.4415	38.1565	38.8715	39.5865	. 34.5815 + 0.035749T

TABLE 6-3
SMOOTHED GROSS HEAT CAPACITY VALUES WITH NITROGEN FOR THE CALIBRATION OF THE CALORIMETER (1966)

Run No.	Mass	.,	-					
	gms	40°C	60°C	80°C	100°C	120°C	140°C	Least Square_Line
N2-E	17.50	38.6390	39.2454	39.8518	40.4582	41.0646	41.6710	37.4621 + 0.030322T
N ₂ -F	15.40	38.3443	39.03 56	39.7269	40,4182	41.1095	41.8008	36.9618 + 0.034563T
N2-G	10.60	37.3306	3 7•9595	38.5884	39 . 2173	39.8463	40.4751	36.0747 + 0.031447T

TABLE 6-4
SMOOTHED GROSS HEAT CAPACITY VALUES WITH DICHLORODIFLUOROMETHANE

	Mass			Cgross				
Run No.	gms	40°C	60°C	80°C	100°C	120°C	140°C	Least Square Line
F-12-A	74.70	45.4405	46.2344	47.0283	47.8222	48.6164	49.4100	43.8527 + 0.039695T
F-12-B	70.00	44.8073	45.6980	46.5887	47.4794	48.3701	49.2608	43.0255 + 0.044539T
F-12-C	47.50	41.4479	42.2598	43.0717	43.8836	44.6955	45.5074	39.8241 + 0.040595T

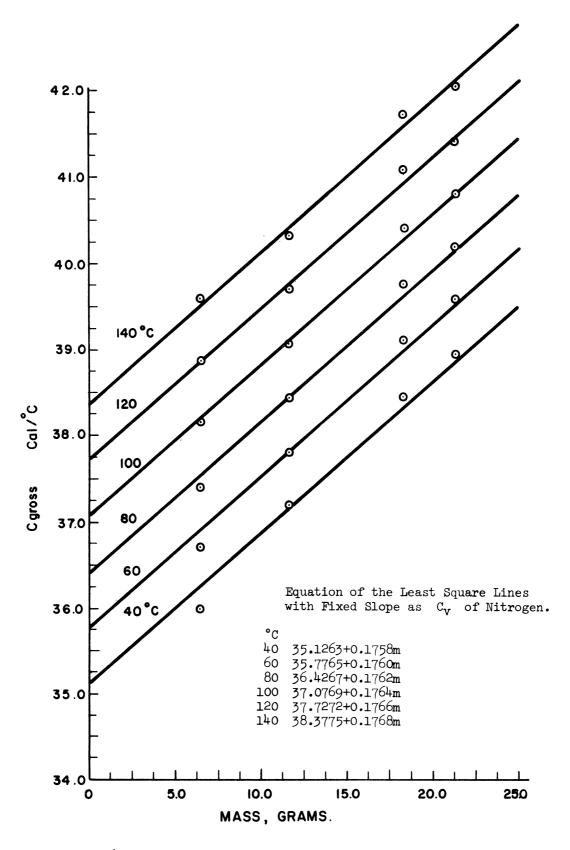


Figure 6-1. Calibration of the Heat Capacity of the Calorimeter (1964) with Nitrogen from $C_{\tt gross}$ Versus Mass Plot.

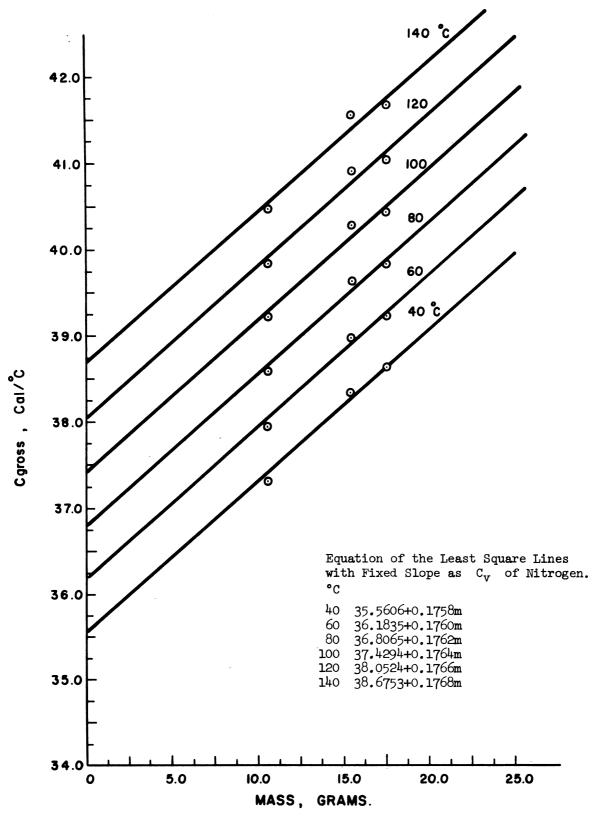


Figure 6-2. Calibration of the Heat Capacity of the Calorimeter (1966) with Nitrogen From Cgross Versus Mass Plot.

calibration line differs from the 1964 calibration line over the temperature range of 40°C to 140°C by an amount of about + 0.35 Cal/°C or approximately + 1.0% . Although no quantitative analysis can be put forward to account for this shift, it is conjectured that the following facts may be the "cause." (a) Because of a faulty diaphragm valve near the diffusion pump, the 1964 vacuum system was modified with the elimination of the diffusion pump. Cenco Hyvac Pump No. 7. was used for evacuating the whole system and vacuum of five micron pressure was maintained instead of one micron previously attained with a diffusion pump. This might have caused a change in the adiabaticity of the system. (b) Before starting the 1966 series of experiments, all the thermocouple wirings and connections were inspected and some of the thermocouple tips were resoldered. The thermocouple junction boxes were covered with Fiber glass insulation to protect them from air currents in the room. The thermocouple wires leading to the calorimeter and the shield were allowed to run a more substantial length inside the shield and the lead wires from the calorimeter were kept in closer contact with the inner surface of the lower shield before reaching the vacuum container. During the 1966 experiment no measurement variables were observed to be unusually different from the 1964 experiment. However, this experiment being extremely sensitive to the heat transfer characteristics between the calorimeter and the surroundings, it is believed that the slight changes in the physical surroundings of the calorimeter mentioned above could have affected the final calibration as observed.

TABLE 6-5

GROSS HEAT CAPACITY VALUES WITH DICHLORODIFLUOROMETHANE TO CHECK THE CALIBRATION OF THE HEAT CAPACITY OF THE CALORIMETER (1964)

*.																		
$c_{\mathtt{gross}} - m(c_{\mathtt{v}} - c_{\mathtt{v}}^*)$	45.1036	45.9685	46.8139	9649.24	48.4767	7005.64	4515.44	45,4635	7665.94	47.3275	7642.84	49.1677	41.3078	42,1501	42.9807	43.8142	ます ・ き	45.4632
Cgross cal/c	45.4405	46.2344	47.0283	47.8222	48.6164	49.4100	44.8073	45.6980	46.5887	t62t°2t	48.3701	49.2608	41.4479	42.2598	43.0717	43.8836	44.6955	45.5074
$m(C_{V}-C_{V}^{*})$	0.3369	0.2659	0.2144	0.1726	0.1397	0.1098	0.2919	0.2345	0.1890	0.1519	0.1204	0.0931	0.1401	0.1097	0.0850	1690.0	0.0551	०.०५५२
C _v -C _v * cal/gm°C	0.00451	0.00356	0.00287	0.00231	0.00187	0.00147	0.00417	0.00335	0.00270	0.00217	0.00172	0.00133	0.00295	0.00231	0.00179	0.00146	91100.0	0.00093
Cv cal/gm°C	0.1314	0.1352	0.1390	0.1428	0.1466	0.1504	0.1314	0.1352	0.1390	0.1428	9941.0	0.1504	0.1314	0.1352	0.1390	0.1428	9941.0	0.1504
o. Temp.	04	9	&	100	120	140	9	9	8	100	120	140	04	8	8	700	120	140
Mass gms	L• #L						0.0						47.5					

9-6	
TABLE (

CALIERATION OF THE HEAT CAPACITY OF THE CALORIMETER (1964) BY NITROGEN

TABLE 6-7

CALIBRATION OF THE HEAT CAPACITY OF THE CALORIMETER (1954) (Checked by Dichlorodifluoromethane)

TABLE 6-8

Temp.	Ccalr. cal/°C	Equation of the Calibration Line
40 60 80 100 120	55.5606 56.1855 56.8065 37.4294 58.0524 58.6753	34.3147 + 0.031147T

Equation of the Calibration Line	33.9920 + 0.031145T
Ccalr. cal/c	35.2378 35.8607 36.4836 37.1065 37.7294 38.3523
Temp.	40 60 80 100 120 120

Ter	7,080,4
Equation of the Calibration Line	33.8257 + 0.032512T
Ccalr.	35.1263 35.7765 36.4267 37.0769 37.7272
Temp.	40 60 80 100 120 140

VI-3 Check of the Calibration of the Calorimeter with Dichlorodifluoromethane

In order to check the calibration of the heat capacity of the calorimeter with nitrogen (VI-1), and also to establish the feasibility of the equipment for the determination of the spectroscopic heat capacity of unknown compounds, gaseous dichlorodifluoromethane was chosen for study. Masi⁽⁴⁴⁾ studied this gas extensively and his experimental spectroscopic heat capacity values (C_V^*) are claimed to be accurate within \pm 0.1% and agree very well with spectroscopic heat capacity values predicted by statistical mechanics.

Gross heat capacity measurements were carried out in the density range of 0.006 gm/c.c. Three different masses were charged as shown in Table 6-4. The smoothed gross heat capacity values from 40°C to 140°C at temperature intervals of 20°C were obtained from the raw data, Figure E-12, by fitting with least square lines as presented in Table 6-4. $C_v-C_v^*$ values based on Martin's equation of state were used to calculate the quantity C_{gross} (smoothed) - $m(C_V-C_V^*)$ shown in Table 6-5 which was used for the determination of the intercept for any isotherm by least square method with the slope as $C_V^{}$ values given by Masi. (44) intercepts were fitted with a least square line which is the calibration curve for the heat capacity of the calorimeter. The calibration curve is plotted in Figure 6-3, and presented in Table 6-8. The calibration of the heat capacity of the calorimeter by dichlorodifluoromethane agrees well with that by nitrogen. For the determination of $C_{\mathbf{v}}$ of unknown gases, nitrogen calibration, however, was chosen in preference to dichlorodifluoromethane calibration because $C_{\mathbf{v}}$ values of nitrogen are known more accurately than those of dichlorodifluoromethane.

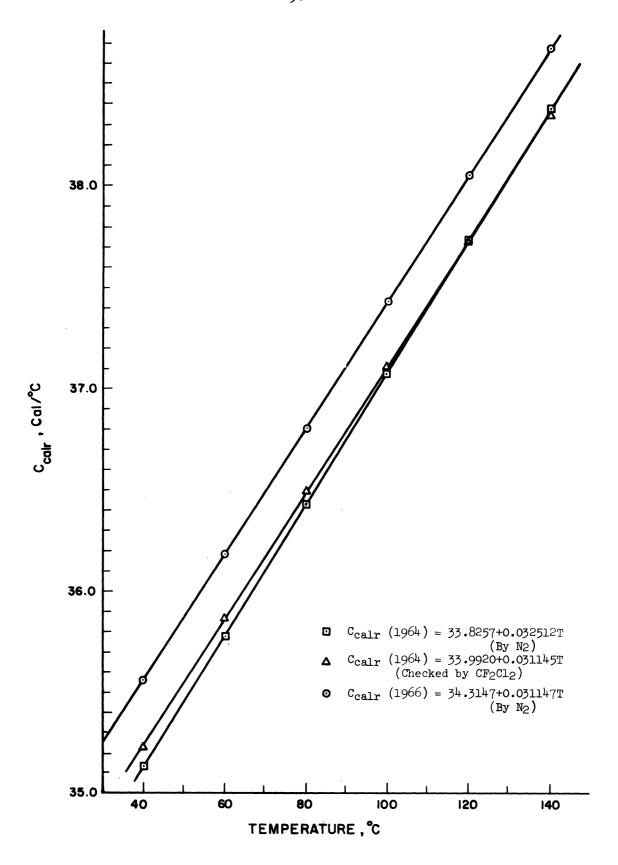


Figure 6-3. Calibration of the Calorimeter Heat Capacity.

VII. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

VII-1 Constant Volume Heat Capacity of Trifluoromethane

Gross heat capacity measurements were carried out using the calorimeter (1964) for three different masses of gaseous trifluoromethane in the density region of 0.0067 gm/c.c. to 0.0106 gm/c.c. and temperature range of 40°C to 140°C .

Gross heat capacity data are shown in Figure E-8 and Table E-5. The data were smoothed with straight lines by least square method and the values are presented in Table 7-1. Smoothed gross heat capacity values were then cross plotted with the mass of gas charged as shown in Figure 7-1. Together with the calibration point at zero mass, these data were fitted with straight lines by least square method. The calibration point was weighted four times more than any smoothed gross heat capacity point because it has been determined from about four times more data points and hence is believed to be known with about four times more of accuracy. The slopes of these lines give directly the heat capacity values for each isotherm. The smoothed gross heat capacity values are scattered enough over the temperature range and hence do not permit the fitting of data with curved lines with any degree of confidence to determine the quantity $\left(\frac{\partial C_v}{\partial m}\right)_T$. From Martin's equation of state (37), at 40°C and 140°C the values of $\frac{\partial C_{v}}{\partial m}$ obtained are (0.75) (10⁻⁴) Cal/gm²°C and $(0.143)(10^{-4})$ cal/gm²°C respectively. In order to establish the variation of heat capacity with density with an accuracy of ± 100% and then compare with the values obtained from the equation of state, it is required that each smoothed gross heat capacity value is known with a

TABLE 7-1

SMOOTHED GROSS HEAT CAPACITY VALUES WITH GASEOUS TRIFLUOROMETHANE USING THE CALORIMETER (1964)

						/-/-		
DI Wess	ν Q			Cgross				
• ON TIMU	Mars S	7,04	0,09	2,08	೨。೦೦T	120°C	140°C	Least Square Line
F-23-A	06•24	F-25-A 47.90 42.9244	43.7177	0115.44	45.3043	9260.94	46.8909	43.7177 44.5110 45.3043 46.0976 46.8909 41.3378 + 0.039667T
F-23-B	40.00	F-25-B 40.00 40.9149	41.8984	42.8819	43.8654	68 48. 44	45.8324	41.8984 42.8819 43.8654 44.8489 45.8324 38.9480 + 0.049173T
F-23-C	31.30	F-23-C 31.30 40.1156	40.9057	41.6958	42,48:9	40.9057 41.6958 42.4839 43.2760 44.0661	1990.44	38.5354 + 0.0395041

TABLE 7-2

HEAT CAPACITY VALUES OF GASEOUS TRIFLUOROMETHANE

C√* cal/gm°C	0.1564 0.1614 0.1663 0.1713 0.1762
Temp°C	40 60 80 1,00 120 140

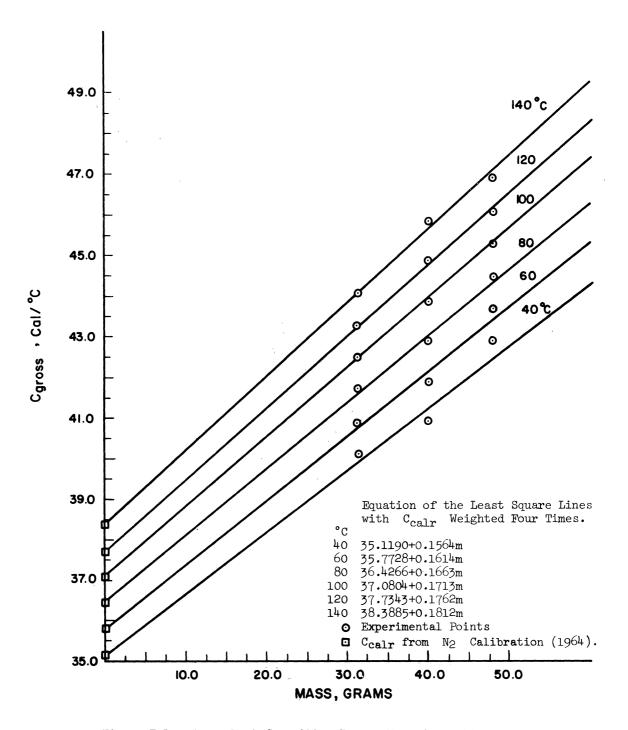


Figure 7-1. Gross Heat Capacities Versus Mass for Trifluoromethane Using Calorimeter (1964).

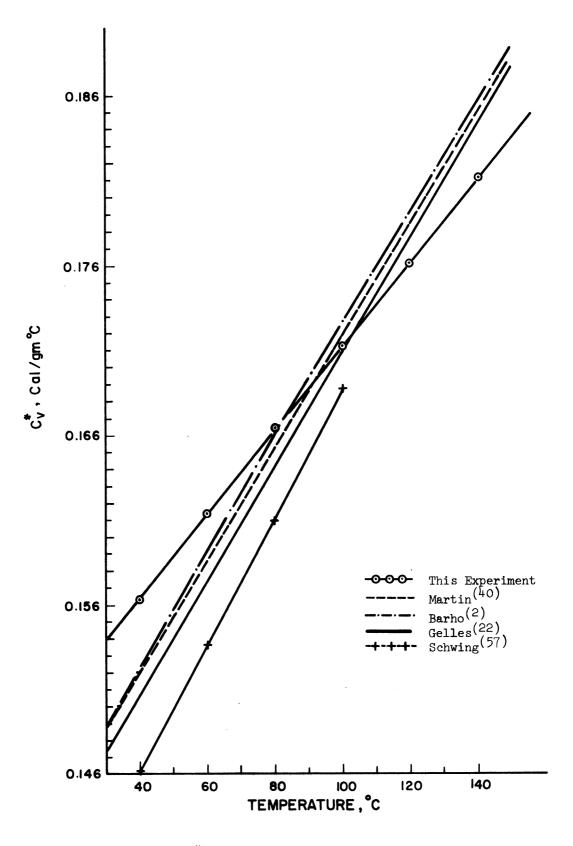


Figure 7-2. ${\bf C_v}^{*}$ values of Trifluoromethane Versus Temperature.

precision of ± 0.075 cal/°C at ± 0.0143 cal/°C at ± 0.0143 cal/°C at ± 140 °C. Let alone the smoothed gross heat capacity values, the calibration of the calorimeter is not believed to be known with such a precision.

The slopes of the lines in the C_{gross} versus mass plot are the heat capacity values for each isotherm in that density range and the best C_v^* values that could be reported from such data. The C_v^* values thus obtained are plotted against temperature as shown in Figure 7-2 and compared with values obtained from different sources in the literature. Vander Kooi and DeVries $^{(63)}$, reported experimental C_v^* value of 0.1465 cal/gm°C at 26.8°C which is identical to the value of Gelles and Pitzer $^{(22)}$ and Decker, Meister and Cleveland. $^{(13)}$

The spectroscopic heat capacity values by Decker, Meister and Cleveland, $^{(13)}$ and Gelles and Pitzer, $^{(22)}$ contain no correction for the anharmonicity in the molecule. The upper curve has been calculated by Hou and Martin $^{(40)}$ with an arbitrary correction for anharmonicity of 0.54% at 30°C and 0.75% at 170°C varying linearly between these temperatures. The spectroscopic values theoretically predicted agree on the average within \pm 2% with the experimental C_v^* values of this work.

VII-2 Constant Volume Heat Capacity of Chlorodifluoromethane

Gaseous chlorodifluoromethane has been studied intensively in this research and the work has been carried out in two phases. In the first phase with the calibration of the calorimeter (1964) given by Table 6-6, gross heat capacity measurements were made for four different charges of mass in the temperature range of 40°C to 140°C and density range of 0.0045 gm/c.c. to 0.0136 gm/c.c., Table E-6, Figure E-9. Almost a year later it was decided to carry out some more experimental

TABLE 7-3

SMOOTHED GROSS HEAT CAPACITY VALUES WITH GASEOUS CHLORODIFLUOROMETHANE USING THE CALORIMETER (1964)

					$^{\mathrm{Cgross}}_{\mathrm{cal}}$			
Run No. Mass	Mass gms	೨.04	0,09	ລູ08່	2 , 00T	120°C	140°C	Least Square Line
F-22-A	09.19	895z• ₄₄	45.1617	9990*9†	46.9715	4928.74	48.7813	F-22-A 61.60 44.2568 45.1617 46.0666 46.9715 47.8764 48.7813 42.4470 + 0.045245T
F-22-B	39.16	40.6390	41.4215	F-22-B 39.16 40.6390 41.4215 42.2040 42.9865 43.7690	42.9865	43.7690	45.5515	45.5515 39.0741 + 0.039123T
F-22-C	28.75	F-22-c 28.75 38.9163 39.7452	39.7452	40.5741	0504.14	42.2319	43.0608	40.5741 41.4030 42.2319 43.0608 37.2 79 + 0.041461T
F-22-D	19.00	F-22-D 19.00 37.6347 38.4004	38.4004	39.1661	39.9318	40.6975	41.4632	39.1661 39.9318 40.6975 41.4632 36.1034 + 0.038283T

33.8257 + 0.032512T CALIBRATION EQUATION FOR THE CALORIMETER

TABLE 7-4

SMOOTHED GROSS HEAT CAPACITY VALUES WITH GASSOUS CHLORODIFLUOROMETHANE USING THE CALORIMETER (1966)

Run No. Mass	Mass				Cgross cal/°C			
	gms.	ລ ₀ 0†	၁ ့ 09	၁ ့ 08	100°C	120°C	ລ ₀ 0†I	40°C 60°C 80°C 100°C 120°C 140°C Least Square Line
F-22-E	0.74	1420.54	42,9029	43.7917	44.6805	45.5693	46.4581	F-22-E 47.0 42.0141 42.9029 43.7917 44.6805 45.5693 46.4581 40.2365 + 0.04444T
F-22-F	33.88	19.6224	40.5459	4694.14	42.3929	43.3164	44.2399	F-22-F 33.88 39.6224 40.5459 41.4694 42.3929 43.3164 44.2399 37.7754 + 0.046174T
F-22-G	21.50	38.2301	39.0505	39.8708	40.6912	41.5116	42.3319	F-22-G 21.50 38.2301 39.0505 39.8708 40.6912 41.5116 42.3319 36.5894 + 0.041018T

CALIBRATION EQUATION FOR THE CALORIMETER 34.3147 + 0.031147T

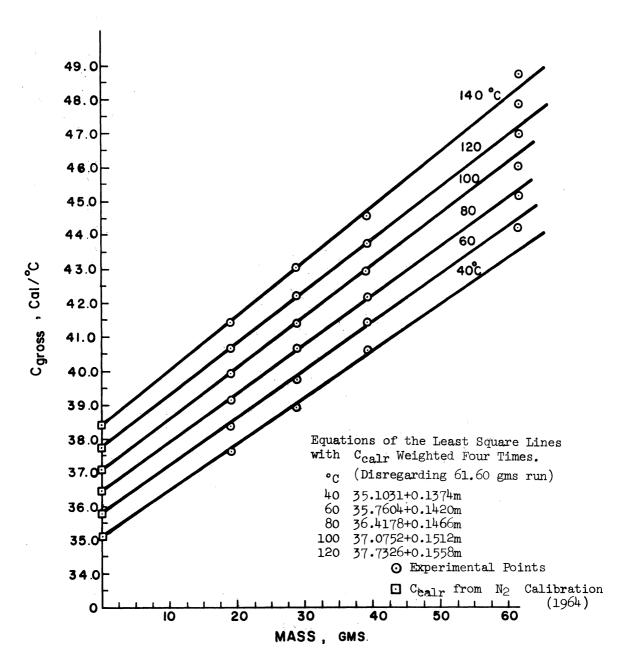


Figure 7-3. Gross Heat Capacities Versus Mass for Chlorodifluoromethane Using Calorimeter (1964).

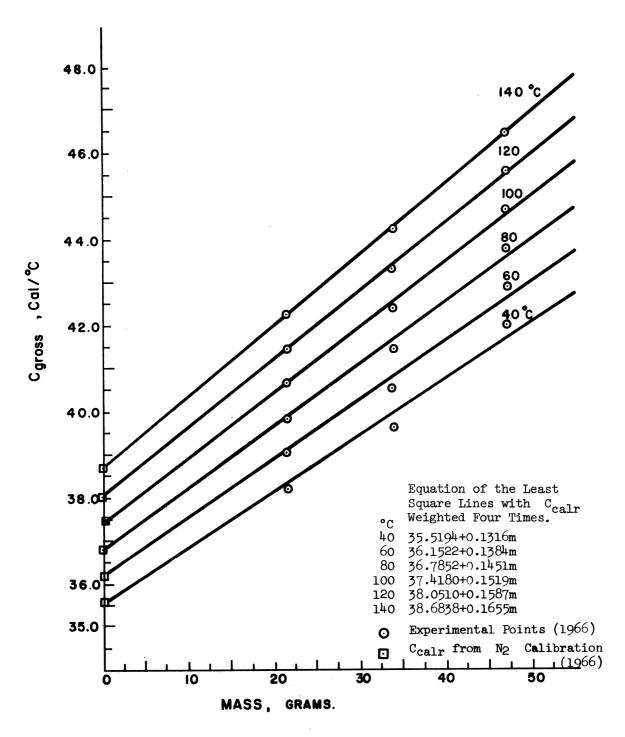


Figure 7-4. Gross Heat Capacities Versus Mass for Chlorodifluoromethane Using Calorimeter (1966).

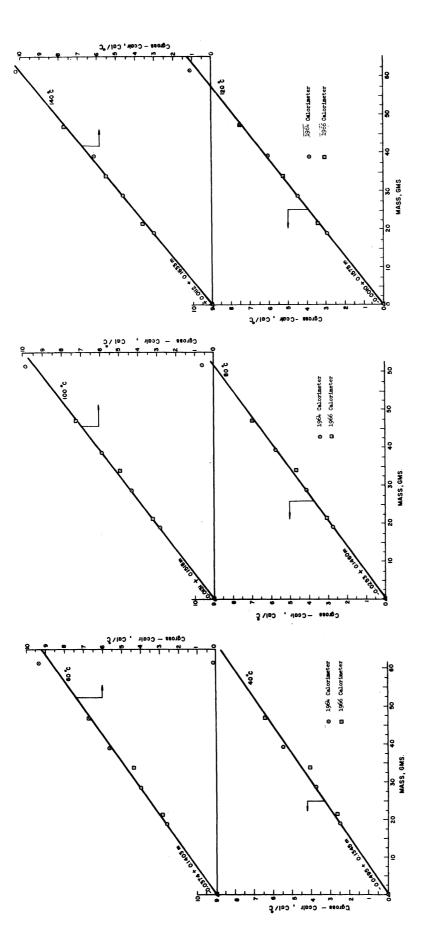


Figure 7-5. Cgross-Ccalr Versus Mass for Chlorodifluoromethane. (Least Square Equation with Zero Mass Point Weighted Four Times and Neglecting 61.60 gm points)

TABLE 7-5

HEAT CAPACITY VALUES OF GASEOUS CHLORODIFLUOROMETHANE USING THE CALORIMETER (1964)

(From Runs F-22-B, F-22-C, and F-22-D and Neglecting F-22-A)

Temp.	Cy* cal/gm°C
 0 tq	4751.0
 88	0.1466
 100	0.1512
 120	0.1558
140	0.1603

TABLE 7-7

(cgross-c_{calr}) values of gaseous chlorodifluoromethane

		
	2,041	10.4038 6.1740 4.6833 3.0857 7.7828 5.5646 3.6566
	120°C	10.1492 6.0418 4.5047 2.9703 7.5169 5.2640
	100°C	9.8946 5.9096 4.3261 2.8549 7.2511 4.9635 3.2618
Cgross-Ccalr Cal/°C	2°08	9.6399 5.7773 4.1474 2.7394 6.9852 4.6629 5.0643
Cgro	ວ.09	9.3852 5.6450 5.9687 2.6239 6.7194 4.3624 2.8670
	2,04	9.1305 5.5127 3.7900 2.5084 6.4535 4.0618 2.6695
	Mass	61.60 29.16 28.75 19.00 47.00 23.88 21.50
,	Run No.	F-22-A F-22-B F-22-C F-22-D F-22-D F-22-F

TABLE 7-6

HEAT CAPACITY VALUES OF GASEOUS CHLORODIFLUOROMETHANE USING THE CALORIMETER (1966)

(From Runs F-22-E, F-22-F, F-22-G)

Cal/gm°C	0.1316 0.1384 0.1451 0.1519 0.1587 0.1655
Temp.	40 60 80 100 120

TABLE 7-8

HEAT CAPACITY VALUES OF GASEOUS CHLORODIFLUOROMETHANE
USING COMBINED DATA TAKEN BY THE CALORIMETER (1964)

AND THE CALORIMETER (1966)

Temp.

Cal/gm°C

Cal/gm°C

0.1460

0.1518

120

0.1575

140

0.1575

measurements in about the same temperature and density range. So the calorimeter was recalibrated as presented in Table 6-7. Gross heat capacity measurements were then taken for three more different masses, Table E_{7} 7, Figure E-10.

The gross heat capacity values for chlorodifluoromethane using the calorimeter with the 1964 calibration are presented in Figure 7-3 and Table 7-3. Those values with the 1966 calibration curve are presented in Figure 7-4, and Table 7-4. Smoothed gross heat capacity values were obtained by fitting the raw data with least square straight lines as given in Table 7-3 and Table 7-4. The smoothed values together with the corresponding calibration point were then cross plotted against mass as shown in Figure 7-3 and Figure 7-4. Putting four times more weight in the calibration point the smoothed gross heat capacity values were fitted with straight lines of the form a+bm by the method of least squares. The slope of each isotherm is the desired heat capacity value for that temperature and is the best C_V^* value from this experiment. The C_V^* values are shown in Figure 7-6, and Tables 7-5 and 7-6.

To get more reliable C_V or C_V^* values, all the data were pooled together. From the smoothed gross heat capacity values for different masses at any temperature, the heat capacity value of the calorimeter was subtracted as shown in Table 7-7. Then $C_{\rm gross}\text{-}C_{\rm calr}$ values were plotted against the mass charged with temperature as parameter and fitted with least square straight lines weighing the zero mass point four times since the calorimeter calibration is believed to be known with four times more accuracy than any single smoothed gross heat capacity value. These are shown in Figure 7-5 and presented in Table 7-7. The slope of

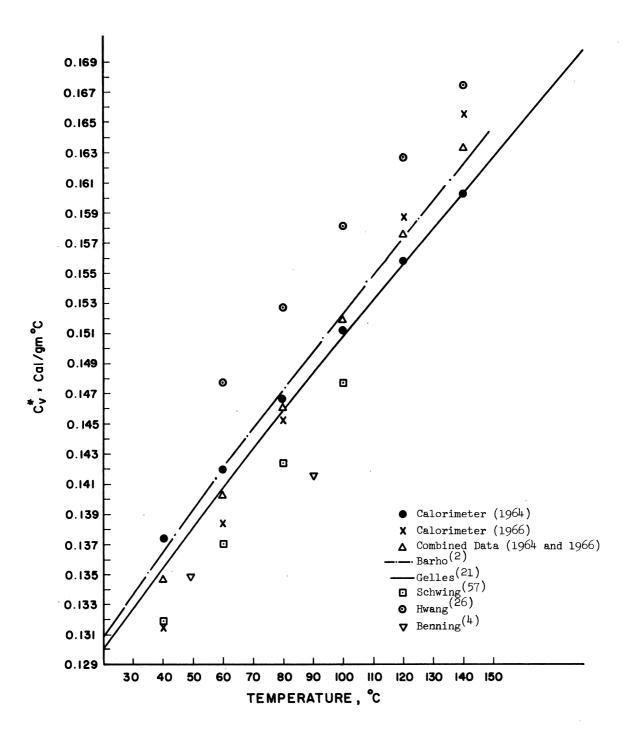


Figure 7-6. C_{V}^{*} Values of Chlorodifluoromethane Versus Temperature.

each isotherm which is the desired $C_{\rm V}$ or $C_{\rm V}^{*}$ value is presented in Table 7-8 and shown in Figure 7-6. In Figure 7-6, the solid curve represents $C_{\rm V}^{*}$ values by Weissman, Meister and Cleveland (65) which are in agreement with the values calculated by Gelles and Pitzer. (21) Experimental $C_{\rm V}^{*}$ values of Hwang, (26) Schwing, (58) and Benning, McHarness, Markwood and Smith (4) are also presented for comparison.

The first phase of the experiment judged alone, gives ${\rm C_V}^{\star}$ values which are in excellent agreement with the spectroscopic values. The second phase of the experiment results in ${\rm C_V}^{\star}$ values which are in agreement with the spectroscopic predictions with an average deviation of \pm 2%. The combined data turn out ${\rm C_V}^{\star}$ values which are in excellent agreement with the spectroscopic values with an average deviation of \pm 1.5%.

Examining the C_{gross} - C_{calr} versus mass plot, the internal consistency of the data can be checked. Generally the data appear to be consistent. For the mass charge of 61.60 gms, all data seem to be consistently high and the author believes that this particular run is in error and hence is ignored.

All data in each phase of the experiment indicate that the heat capacity of gaseous chlorodifluoromethane varies with density. From the Martin-Hou equation of state the values of $\left(\frac{\partial C_V}{\partial m}\right)_T$ at 40° C and 140° C are $(0.705)(10^{-4})$ Cal/gm²)C and $(0.249)(10^{-4})$ cal/gm²°C respectively. In order to evaluate these quantities with an accuracy of $\pm 100\%$, the experimental smoothed gross heat capacity data should be better than ± 0.07 cal/°C and 0.025 cal/°C at 40° C and 100° C respectively. Even the calibration point is not believed to be known with such precision. In

the plot of C_{gross} versus mass in Figures 7-3, 7-4, fitting with a curved line is therefore not justified because the data points are not sufficient enough in number and also are not considered accurate enough to call for a second degree polynomial fit. When, however, all the data points are pooled together from each phase of the experiment, hardly any curvature is seen in the C_{gross} - C_{calr} versus mass plot. Thus all data are fitted with straight lines and the slopes of such lines give the C_v or C_v * values in this experiment.

VII-3 Constant Volume Heat Capacity of Dichlorofluoromethane

Three different masses were charged into the calorimeter (1964) for the measurement of gross heat capacities in the temperature range of 40° C to 140° C and density range of 0.0067 gm/c.c. to 0.0158 gm/c.c. The gross heat capacity values as shown in Figure E-11 and Table E-8, were smoothed with straight lines by the least square method. The smoothed values are presented in Table 7-9. For the determination of the heat capacity values at any temperature, the smoothed gross heat capacity values together with the calibration point are cross plotted against mass and fitted with a least square line with the calibration point weighted four times. The slope of such lines represents the heat capacity of the gas at that temperature for that density range. This is again the best C_v^* values that can be determined from the data. The smoothed gross heat capacity values are scattered enough and hence the variation of the heat capacity with density can hardly be ascertained with any confidence. The C_v^* values are presented in Table 7-10. The statistical predictions of C_v^* values by Gelles and Pitzer (22) and

TABLE 7-9

SMOOTHED GROSS HEAT CAPACITY VALUES OF GASEOUS DICHLOROFLUOROMETHANE USING THE CALORIMETER (1964)

				Caross Cal/C				
Run No.	Mass	,04	,09	80°	100°	120°	٥0ήΣ	Least Square Line
					i			
F-21-A	71.5			46.2526	46.9605	47.6684	48.3763	46.2526 46.9605 47.6684 48.3763 43.4210 + 0.035397T
F-21-B	0.04	40.5681	41.3312	42.0943	42.8574	43.6205	44.3836	39.0420 + 0.038153T
F-21-C	4.05	39.1683	59.8673		40.5663 41.2653	41.9643	42.6633	41.9643 42.6633 37.7703 + 0.034951T

TABLE 7-10

HEAT CAPACITY VALUES OF GASEOUS DICHLOROFIUOROMETHANE

,	
C _v * Cal/gm°C	0.1328 0.1352 0.1381 0.1393 0.1404 0.1416
Temp.	40 60 80 100 120

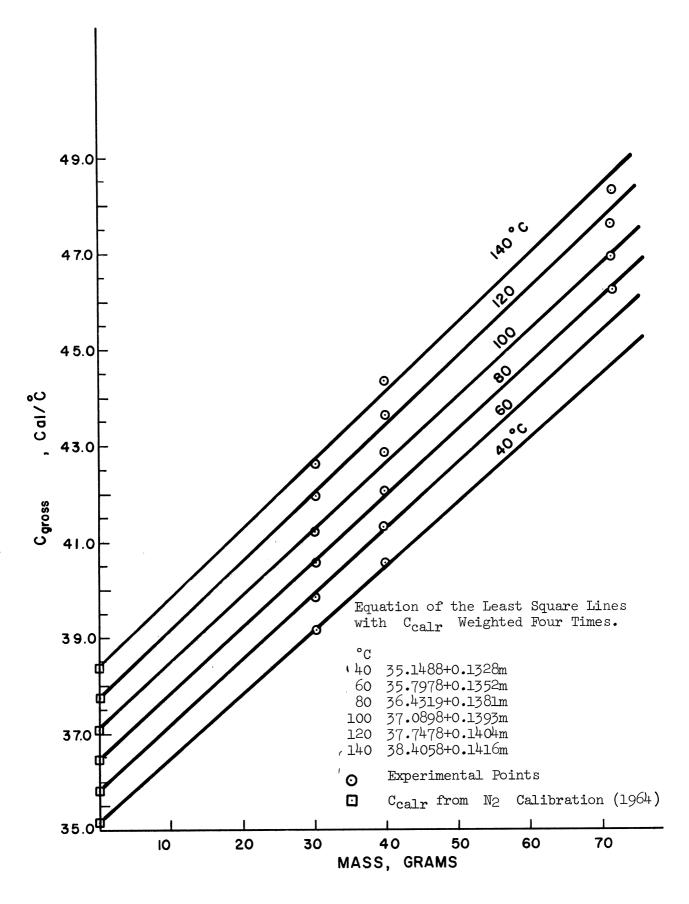


Figure 7-7. Gross Heat Capacities Versus Mass For Dichlorofluoromethane Using Calorimeter (1964).

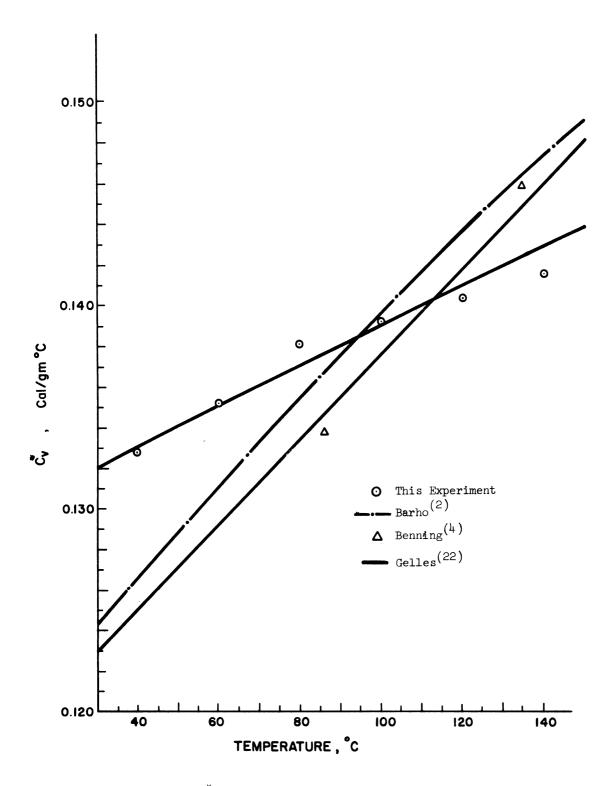


Figure 7-8. C_y^* Values of Dichlorofluoromethane Versus Temperature.

Weissman, Meister and Cleveland (5) are plotted in Figure 7-8 for comparison. The statistical predictions agree with this experiment within $\pm 3\%$. Experimental measurements by Benning, McHarness, Markwood and Smith (4) are shown in the same figure.

VIII. DISCUSSION OF EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

VIII-l General:

Since the accuracy of the experiment depends upon the relative heat capacity of the mass of gas and the calorimeter, the experimental errors in this work are estimated as \pm 2% and \pm 3% at densities of 0.01 gm/c.c. and 0.006 gm/c.c. respectively for trifluoromethane, chlorodifluoromethane and dichlorofluoromethane. Because of the low density, the measured heat capacity is that of the ideal gas, C_V^* , and can be compared with the heat capacity calculated from statistical mechanics using fundamental vibrational frequencies obtained from measurements of infra-red and Raman spectra. Within the precision of this experiment, the results verify the accepted fundamental frequency assignments for these compounds. However, they fail to explain the difference in the effect of temperature on the ideal-gas heat capacity.

VIII-2 Comparison with Theoretical Predictions and Experimental Results:

Pitzer⁽²²⁾ reported that the error in theoretical C_v^* values is \pm 0.1 cal/°C mole or approximately \pm 1%. The error could be larger since in his calculations no anharmonicity correction was made. Martin⁽⁴⁰⁾ corrected for anharmonicity and estimated C_v^* values for trifluoromethane. At 40°C, Martin's C_v^* value is \pm 0.7% higher than Pitzer's for trifluoromethane. Barho⁽²⁾ calculated C_p^* values with anharmonicity correction and claimed an accuracy of his results within \pm 0.3%. For trifluoromethane, C_v^* values calculated from C_p^* values of Barho, are in agreement with Martin's values. Vander Kooi and De Vries⁽⁶³⁾ experimentally determined C_v^* value for trifluoromethane at 26.8°C. They

claimed an accuracy of \pm 1.3% in their result which is identical with the predictions of Pitzer and Cleveland. Schwing(57) experimentally determined C_V values for trifluoromethane in the density region of 0.01 gm/c.c. and temperature range of 20°C to 100°C. He reported C_V * values by extrapolation of his C_V values. His C_V * values are 3.5% lower at 20°C and 1.5% lower at 100°C than the values reported by Pitzer and Cleveland. The experimental C_V * values of trifluoromethane obtained in this research are 3% higher and 2% lower than the predictions of Martin and Barho at 40°C and 140°C respectively. At 100°C, however, the experimental C_V * value of this work is in complete agreement with all theoretical predictions to within + 0.5%.

The compound chlorodifluoromethane has been studied extensively by various authors. Pitzer and Cleveland (13) are identical in their predictions of C_{V}^{*} values. Barho⁽²⁾ calculated C_{p}^{*} values for chlorodifluoromethane correcting for anharmonicity. C_V^* values calculated from his $\,{\rm C}_{\rm D}^{\,\star}\,\,$ values are generally + 1.0% higher than the values of Pitzer. Hwang (26) reported C_{V}^{*} values for chlorodifluoromethane by extrapolating his C_V values taken at very high density range of 0.04 gm/c.c. to 0.10 gm/c.c. and temperature range of 50°C to 200°C. Hwang's C_v^* values are generally 5% higher than the values of Pitzer. Schwing (57. measured $C_{\rm v}$ values for chlorodifluoromethane in the density region of 0.01 gm/c.c. and his extrapolated C_V^* values are 2.4% lower than the values of Pitzer. Benning $\underline{\text{et. al.}}^{(4)}$ reported C_{v}^{*} values of chlorodifluoromethane which are in agreement with Schwing's values. The experimental C_V^* values obtained in this research are in agreement with the spectroscopic values in the literature. The average deviation is +1.5% from the spectroscopic predictions in the temperature range of 40°C to

l40°C. The density region in which these data have been taken is such that C_V values are not significantly different from C_V^* values. Even at the lowest temperature and highest density point of this experiment, where the curvature of C_V isotherm is expected to be maximum, the C_V values differ from C_V^* values only by 2.5% on the basis of Martin's (39) equation of state. Therefore, it is concluded that since $C_V^*-C_V^*$ is small in the density region of this experiment, the data being not precise enough cannot be used as a test of the equation of state and simultaneously determine accurate C_V^* values. It is, however, believed that the data are consistent enough to result in accurate C_V^* values if fitted with a curvature which is known accurately for a particular isotherm. It is also believed that these data can be used to simultaneously determine accurate C_V^* and $C_V^*-C_V^*$ values, if they are coupled with the data of Hwang taken at fairly high density range.

For dichlorofluoromethane, the spectroscopic predictions of Pitzer (22) and Cleveland et. al. are identical. Benning et. al. agree with spectroscopic predictions within \pm 0.5%. The experimental C_V^* value obtained in this research at 100°C is almost identical with the C_V^* value predicted by Barho. At 40°C, the experimental C_V^* value is about 4% higher while at 140°C it is 3% lower than the calculated C_V^* values of Barho.

With the calorimeter (1964), C_V^* values at 40°C are always a few percent higher than the values theoretically calculated for gaseous trifluoromethane, chlorodifluoromethane and dichlorofluoromethane. With the same calorimeter, experiemental C_V^* values at 140°C are generally lower than the theoretical values for trifluoromethane and dichlorofluoromethane. Also in the plot of C_V^* versus temperature, the

experimental slope, dC_V^*/dT , is always less than the theoretical slope for all the compounds. If one, however, chooses to use the dichlorodifluoromethane calibration of the calorimeter (1964), it is observed that the agreement between the experimental and theoretical C_V^* values is improved in the entire temperature range of 40 to 140°C. The experimental slope, dC_V^*/dT , also agrees better with the theoretical slope. It may also be argued that for the calculation of C_V^* values dichlorodifluoromethane calibration should be used instead of nitrogen calibration since freon compounds may have similar heat transfer characteristics. Despite these reasonings, nitrogen calibration was chosen to calculate C_V^* values because it is believed to be more accurate, nitrogen gas being more well known than dichlorodifluoromethane.

Finally, one might be quite skeptical of the final C_V^* results from this experiment because of the discrepancy existing between the several calibration curves of the calorimeter, Figure 6-3. The calorimeter (1964) calibration by nitrogen agrees well with the calibration by dichlorodifluoromethane. At 40°C, C_{calr} (1964) by nitrogen is about 0.1 cal/°C lower than that by dichlorodifluoromethane and at 140°C, it is about 0.03 cal/°C higher. Thus at 40 and 140°C, the experimental C_V^* values could differ as much as 3% and 1% respectively depending on the calibration curve chosen. The author, however, does not claim that at 40°C, the precision of this experiment is any better than 3%.

Chlorodifluoromethane was studied in this research in two phases using the calorimeter (1964) and the calorimeter (1966). The calorimeter (1966) calibration was generally higher than the calorimeter (1964) calibration by about 0.35 cal/°C or approximately 1%. This discrepancy in the calibration of the calorimeter may raise doubts about

the reliability of the experimental data. It was observed, however, that although the calibration curves were different, C_{gross} - C_{calr} values were reproducible. Thus the final results i.e. C_{v} * values remained unaffected despite the fact that the calibration curves of the calorimeter were different.

Although no quantitative explanations are known at this time, the following facts may, however, account for the observed difference between the 1964 and 1966 calibrations of the calorimeter. Before the 1966 calibration runs were started, a few thermocouple tips were resoldered and some of the thermocouple wires leading to the calorimeter and the shield were allowed to run a more substantial length inside the shield as compared to the 1964 experimental set-up; the lead wires from the calorimeter were also kept in closer contact with the inner surface of the lower radiation shield before reaching the vacuum container. Also, the calorimeter (1964) was calibrated under a vacuum of 1 µ while a vacuum of 5 µ was maintained during the calibration of the calorimeter (1966). The main purpose of vacuum insulation in such an experiment was to eliminate completely heat losses by gaseous conduction and convection. In the pressure range of 1 to 5µ, there are, however, heat losses, though considerably minimized, through the residual gas. In fact, at such low pressures, the molecules of a gas have long mean free path and they collide with the surrounding walls much more frequently than with each other. Thus each molecule is a potential carrier of energy from the warm to the cold surface. It is, therefore, believed that because of the change in the set-up of wires and, more particularly, the change in vacuum from 1 to 5µ in 1966, the heat transfer characteristics between the calorimeter and the surroundings had been different from those

in 1964. This experiment being highly sensitive to such heat transfer characteristics between the calorimeter, the radiation shield and the surroundings, it is conjectured that the changes in the physical surroundings of the calorimeter as mentioned above resulted in different calibrations of the calorimeter as observed.

IX. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

IX-l Conclusions

- 1. A light-weight thin-walled stainless steel spherical calorimeter, surrounded by a radiation shield within an evacuated chamber, can be used to determine the constant-volume heat capacities of gases.

 The accuracy of the experiment depends upon the relative heat capacity of the charge of gas and the calorimeter.
- 2. A calorimeter of 0.0085 inch wall thickness and having a volume of 4530 c.c. has been designed. The heat capacity of the calorimeter is approximately 35 calories/°C at room temperature. This calorimeter eter has the lowest heat capacity of all previous calorimeters having approximately the same volume.
- 3. A uniform heating system inside the calorimeter eliminates extreme temperature gradients due to convection currents. With this type of uniform heating system, it is not necessary to install a stirring mechanism which increases the heat capacity of the calorimeter.
- 4. The electrical circuitry of the heaters has been so designed that all the heaters act as a platinum resistance thermometer. Thus an integrated temperature of the calorimeter and its contents can be recorded which has been reliably used as the true average temperature. Such a design also allows the approximate estimation of the temperature of the calorimeter and its contents during the heating period.
- 5. With a uniformly heating radiation shield, the temperature difference between the calorimeter and the radiation shield can be maintained within + 0.2°C and a stable control can be achieved.

- 6. Constant-volume heat capacities of gaseous trifluoromethane, chlorodifluoromethane and dichlorofluoromethane were determined in the density region of 0.01 gm/c.c. and a temperature range of 40 to 140°C. The heat capacity values are believed to be accurate within + 2% and + 3% at densities of 0.01 gm/c.c. and 0.006 gm/c.c. respectively.
- 7. Because of low density, the measured heat capacity is that of the ideal gas, C_V^* , and can be compared with the heat capacity predicted by statistical mechanics using the fundamental vibrational frequencies from molecular spectroscopy.
- 8. For trifluoromethane and dichlorofluoromethane, the measured and predicted values of C_V^* are almost identical at 100°C. However, the measured values are about 3% higher than the predicted at 40°C while at 140°C they are 3% lower.
- 9. For chlorodifluoromethane, the agreement between the measured and predicted values is nearly perfect at 100°C. The measured values are 1.5% lower than the predicted at 40°C and 1.5% higher than the predicted values at 140°C.
- 10. The fundamental frequency assignments of trifluoromethane, chlorodifluoromethane and dichlorofluoromethane are thus verified within the precision of this experimental study.

IX-2 Recommendations

1. It is recommended that each shield be segmented and heated with two separate heaters. Thus for two shields four heaters are recommended, each to be controlled separately. This will insure a better temperature difference control between the calorimeter and the shield.

- 2. It is recommended that a thermocouple be installed in the outer body of the calorimeter. After the heating period, a record of the temperature of the calorimeter shell could answer the questions of attainment of equilibrium and proper estimation of drift rate.
- 3. It is also recommended that the temperature of the vacuum container be measured by a thermocouple before and after the heating period.
- 4. It is recommended that automatic control be installed on the radiation shield in place of manual control.
- 5. For the attainment of better adiabaticity, the vacuum system should be maintained below 1 micron pressure and hence it is recommended that special high vacuum valves and fittings be used wherever necessary.
- 6. In order to improve the adiabaticity of the system, two concentric heat shields should be used.
- 7. It is recommended that a transistorized voltage-regulated Kepco power supply be installed in place of an auto battery. The stability of such a powersupply is ± 0.01 per cent for eight hours or more.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

CALIBRATION OF RESISTANCE THERMOMETER

The built-in platinum resistance thermometer of the calorimeter was calibrated by immersing it in an insulated constant temperature agitated oil bath whose temperature was measured by the Leeds and Northrup resistance thermometer for which a calibration report from the National Bureau of Standards was available. The temperature fluctuations at certain points of the bath fluctuated within \pm .05°C at the lowest temperature and at higher temperatures the fluctuations were limited to \pm .01°C.

The ice point was determined in an ice bath of ice and water slurry and is considered very reliable. The resistance for the ice bath is 14.1980 and this has been taken as Ro . Other resistances were then fitted by least square with $R_t = Ro(1 + A + BT^2)$ and the values of A and B were found as $A = 3.934564 (10^{-3})$ and $B = -4.757502 (10^{-7})$. The average deviation is \pm .018°C and the maximum deviation is \pm .045°C. The following data were used to evaluate the constants A and B for the platinum resistance thermometer of the calorimeter:

Resistance of the NBS Resistance Thermometer ohms.	Temperature °C	Resistance of the Calorimeter Thermometer ohms.
30.6353	50.856122	8.5094
32.6435	70.974634	9.0654
34.3717	88.385822	9.5414
37.7617	122.807772	10.4785
41.2431	158.537962	11.4421

APPENDIX B

SAMPLE CALCULATIONS

Run Number F-22-G-2 is given here as an example to illustrate the method for calculation of the gross heat capacity. The primary data are presented in Tables E-1 and E-2.

Definitions:

N: Normal reading of the resistance thermometer by Mueller Bridge before bridge correction.

R: Reverse reading of the resistance thermometer before bridge correction.

2R₁: Sum of the normal and reverse readings i.e. N+R before the heating period after bridge correction of -0.0060 ohms.

R₂ (Equil): Sum of the normal and reverse readings at the end of the heating period after bridge correction.

 $2R_2$: Total resistance (after bridge correction) that would have been at the end of the heating period had there been no heat loss. $2R_2$ is reported as $2R_2(\text{corr})$ here.

Drift: Change in $2R_1$ and $2R_2$ per five minutes due to heat loss.

Differential Thermocouples:

- 3- Side of the upper shield versus side of the lower shield.
- 4- Side of the calorimeter versus top of the calorimeter.
- 5- Top of the calorimeter versus side of the calorimeter.
- 6- Bottom of the calorimeter versus side of the calorimeter.
- 7- Side of the upper shield versus side of the calorimeter.

- 8- Top of the upper shield versus top of the calorimeter.
- 9- Side of the lower shield versus side of the calorimeter.

10-Bottom of the lower shield versus bottom of the calorimeter.

Heaters:

Bottom: The variac reading of the lower shield heater.

Top: The variac reading of the upper shield heater.

Control: Sum of the differential thermocouple readings from control points 7, 8, 9, and 10 as observed in the deflection of the light beam from zero position during five minute period.

Several resistance readings were taken at intervals of five minutes before the start of the heating period. The change in resistance was plotted against the average control for that period, Figure E-4. The initial drift rate was graphically determined to be -0.0010 ohm/5 min for zero control. The slope of the line was used to estimate the effect of the shield control. The last resistance reading was 16.7089 at 1:59.

The power was turned on at 1:59 1/2. The power to the calorimeter was estimated by measuring the voltage and current three times during the heating period. The calorimeter was heated for 30.0005 mins. and the power was turned off at 2:29 1/2. After allowing the whole system to equilibrate for ten minutes, resistance readings were again taken every five minutes from 2:39 1/2. The final drift rate after the heating period was graphically determined in identically the same way as the initial drift rate was estimated. The final drift rate was found to be -0.0020 ohm/5 min. The slope of the line in Figure E-4 determined the effect of the shield control on the final drift rate. Using the final

drift rate and correcting for the effect of the shield control during the equilibrium period, the resistance at 2:39 1/2 was extrapolated back to 2:29 1/2: R' = 17.4016 + (.0020)(2) - (.0005)(2) = <math>17.4046 ohms where drift correction is 0.0005 ohms per five minutes due to shield control. After bridge correction, R_2 (Equil): 17.4046 - 0.0060 = 17.3986. The average drift rate is calculated as

$$\frac{0.0010 + 0.0020}{2} = 0.0015 \text{ ohm/5 min}$$

Accounting for the shield control during the heating period, the corrected drift rate was found to be from Figure E-4,

$$\frac{\text{(Corrected Drift Rate)}}{\text{(5 min)}} = 0.0015 + 0.0001 = 0.0016 \text{ ohm/5 min}$$

Using this corrected drift rate, the resistance change that would have occurred if there were no heat loss during the heating period is calculated.

$$\therefore \Delta R = \frac{\text{(Corrected Drift Rate)(Time)}}{\text{(5 min)}} = \frac{\text{(0.0016)(30.0005)}}{\text{(6)}} = 0.0096 \text{ ohms}$$

Therefore, the total resistance after bridge correction that would have been at the end of the heating period (assuming no heat loss) is: $2R_2 = R_2 \, (\text{Equil}) + \Delta R = 17.4046 + .0096 - .0060 = 17.4082 \, \text{ohms} \, . \quad \text{For the calculation of} \, \left(\text{C}_{\text{gross}} \right)_{\text{mean}} \, , \, \text{a computer program in MAD language,}$ Appendix C, was written. The following informations were fed in as data:

$$2R_1 = 16.7027$$
 $I_1 = 0.3693$ $V_1 = 3.0910$ $2R_2 = 17.4082$ $I_2 = 0.3681$ $V_2 = 3.1250$ R_2 (Equil) = 17.3986 $I_3 = 0.3887$ $V_3 = 2.1550$ Time = 30.0005

The computer program calculates and prints out the following results:

(a) Using the values of $2R_1$, $2R_2$, and $2R_2$ (Equil), T_1 , T_2 , T_2 (Equil) are calculated from the formula, $R = 14.1920 (1 + 3.934564 \times 10^{-3} \text{ T} - 4.75702 \times 10^{-7} \text{ T}^2)$ as:

 T_1 = 45.0823, T_2 = 57.8705, T_2 (Equil) = 57.6963 . T_2 is reported as T_2 (corr) in Appenion E. (b) The heat input is calculated from the formula,

Power = (1.010) *
$$\frac{14.3403 \text{ Cal}}{\text{Watt min.}}$$
 * Time * Watts
where Watts = $\frac{(V_1*I_1 + V_2*I_2 + V_3*I_3 - \frac{3*V_2*V_2}{2018})}{3}$

The quantity $\frac{3*V_2*V_2}{2018}$ is the amount of heat lost in the voltage measuring circuit. The factor 1.010 comes from the consideration of the voltage dividing circuit.

- \therefore Power = 482.1769 calories
- (c) The gross heat capacity is then calculated as

$$C_{gross} = \frac{Power}{T_2(corr)-T_1} = \frac{q}{\Delta T - \Delta T_{corr}} = \frac{482.1769}{12.6463} = 38.1279 \text{ Cal/°C}$$

APPENDIX C

COMPUTER PROGRAM FOR CALCULATION OF GROSS HEAT CAPACITY

```
$COMPILE MAD. EXECUTE, PRINT OBJECT. PUNCH OBJECT, DUMP
            READ FORMAT DATA, R1, R2, REQ, I1, I2, I3, V1, V2, V3, TIME
START
            VECTOR VALUES DATA=$10F7.4*$
            A=4.757502E-07
            B=3.934564E-03
            C1=(R1/14.1980)-1.0
            T1=(B-SQRT•(B*B-4•*A*C1))/(2•*A)
C2=(R2/14•1980 )-1•0
            C2=(R2/14.1980
            T2=(B-SQRT.(B*B-4.*A*C2))/(2.*A)
            C3=(REQ/14.1980)-1.0
            TEQ=(B-SQRT.(B*B-4.*A*C3))/(2.*A)
            TDRIFT=T2-T1
            TAVE=(T2+T1)/2.0
            WATTS=(V1*I1+V2*I2+V3*I3-3.0*V2*V2/2018)/3.0
            POWER=1.010*14.3403*TIME*WATTS
            CGROSS=POWER/TDRIFT
            PRINT FORMAT ANSWER, R1, R2, REQ, T1, T2, TEQ, TDRIFT, POWER, CGROSS,
           1TAVE
            VECTOR VALUES ANSWER=$1H0+10F10+4*$
            TRANSFER TO START
            END OF PROGRAM
```

SDATA

APPENDIX D

GENERALIZED PLOT OF $C_V^-C_V^+$ AS FUNCTION OF REDUCED DENSITY WITH REDUCED TEMPERATURE AS PARAMETER

If the law of corresponding states holds good for several gases, then at the same reduced temperature and density those gases have the same $C_V^-C_V^+$ in a molar basis. From the law of corresponding states, the compressibility factor $Z = \frac{PV}{RT}$ can be expressed as a function of reduced temperature and density.

From the equation $Z = \frac{p}{RTP}$, we get

$$\left(\frac{\mathrm{dp}}{\mathrm{dT}}\right)_{\mathsf{p}} = \mathsf{Rp}\left[\mathsf{T} \frac{\mathrm{dZ}}{\mathrm{dT}} + \mathsf{Z}\right] \tag{D-1}$$

and

$$\left(\frac{\mathrm{d}^2 \mathbf{p}}{\mathrm{d} \mathbf{T}^2}\right)_{\rho} = \mathrm{Rp}\left[\mathbf{T} \left(\frac{\mathrm{d}^2 \mathbf{Z}}{\mathrm{d} \mathbf{T}^2}\right)_{\rho} + \frac{2}{\rho} \left(\frac{\mathrm{d} \mathbf{Z}}{\mathrm{d} \mathbf{T}}\right)_{\rho}\right] \tag{D-2}$$

combining equations (D-1) and (D-2), we have

$$C_{\mathbf{V}} - C_{\mathbf{V}}^* = -RT \int_{0}^{\rho} \left[\frac{T}{\rho} \left(\frac{d^2 Z}{dT^2} \right)_{\rho} + \frac{2}{\rho} \left(\frac{dZ}{dT} \right)_{\rho} \right]$$
 (D-3)

Substituting $T = T_r T_c$ and $\rho = \rho_r \rho_c$, it follows

$$C_{\mathbf{v}} - C_{\mathbf{v}}^{*} = -RT_{\mathbf{r}} \int_{0}^{\rho_{\mathbf{r}}} \left(\frac{T_{\mathbf{r}}}{\rho_{\mathbf{r}}} \right) \left(\frac{d^{2}Z}{dT_{\mathbf{r}}^{2}} \right) \rho + \left(\frac{2}{\rho_{\mathbf{r}}} \right) \left(\frac{dZ}{dT_{\mathbf{r}}} \right) \rho d\rho \mathbf{r}$$
(D-4)

Hwang $^{(26)}$ plotted experimental C_v - C_v * values on the reduced basis for chlorodifluoromethane, dichlorotetrafluoroethane, chloropentafluoroethane and propylene. The worst scatter is about 30 per cent and on the average the data agree within 10 per cent. However, De Never's perfluorocyclobutane data did not agree with the generalized values and it can be explained by the fact that it has a cyclic configuration instead of chain structure. The generalized plot is shown in Figure D-1.

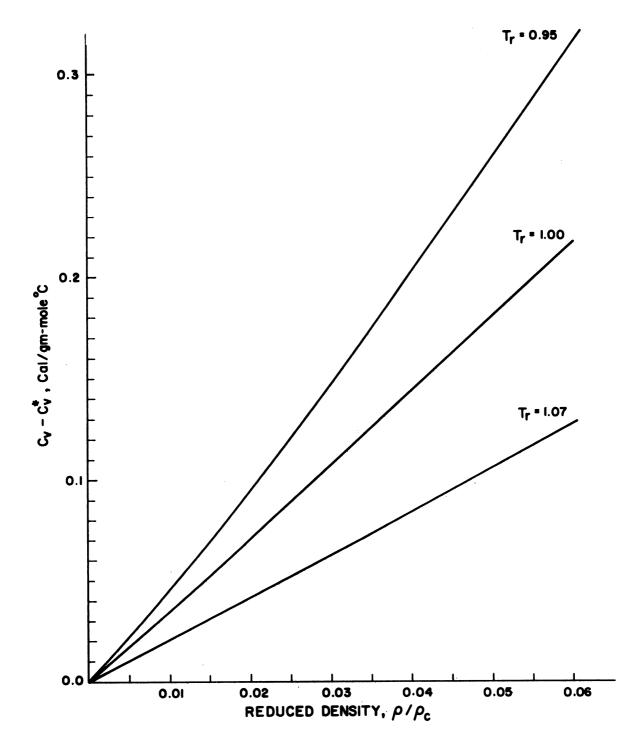


Figure D-1. Generalized Plot of $C_V-C_V^*$ Versus Reduced Density for Chlorodifluoromethane by Hwang. (26)

APPENDIX E PRIMARY DATA AND TABULATED GROSS HEAT CAPACITY DATA

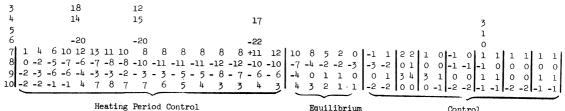
TABLE E-1 PRIMARY DATA (Before Heating)

DATE:	March 23, 19	966	Run No. 2	Drift	CI	HARGE: F-	22-G-2
Time	N	R	Total	(5 min)	Control	Bottom	Тор
1:24	8.3440	8.3716	16 .7 156	0004	13/10 min	14	13
1:34	8.3436	8.3712	16.7148	0004	- 5		
1:39	8.3430	8.3710	16.7140	0008	4		
1:44	8.3428	8.3704	16.7132	0003	3		
1:49	8 .3 425	8.3704	16.7129	0014	3		
1:54	8.3420	8 .36 95	16.7115	0026	- 8		
1:59	8.3405	8 .3 684	16.7089				

TABLE E-2 PRIMARY DATA (During and After Heating)

DATE:	March 23, 1	1966	Run No. 2				-22 - G - 2
Time	N	R	Total	Drift (5 min)	Control	Heaters Bottom	Top
2:39½	8,6808	8.7208	17.4016	0024	- 9	16	15
2:443	8,6796	8.7196	17.3992	0015	12		
2:49 1	8.6971	8.7186	17.3977	0012	4		
2:541	8.6784	8.7181	17 .3 965	0023	- 7		
2:591	8.6774	8.7168	17.3942	0026	ı		
3:04½	8.6760	8.7156	17.3916	0024	- 2		
3:09 ¹ / ₂	8.6750	8.7142	17.3892	0022	2		
3:14½	8,6738	8.7132	17.3870				

Differential Thermocouple Readings



Equilibrium Period

Control

1: 59\frac{1}{5} On Off Time 30.0005 $2R_1$ 16.7027 2R2 17.4082 Drift -.0020Ω (5 min)

Current	.3694	.3682	.3667
,	3.0910	3.1250	3.1550
Current	.3692	.3680	.3667

Temperature Control O.K. Temperature Drift O.K. Current Stability O.K. Voltage Stability O.K. Drift Reasonable O.K. Drift Reasonable Vacuum 5µ

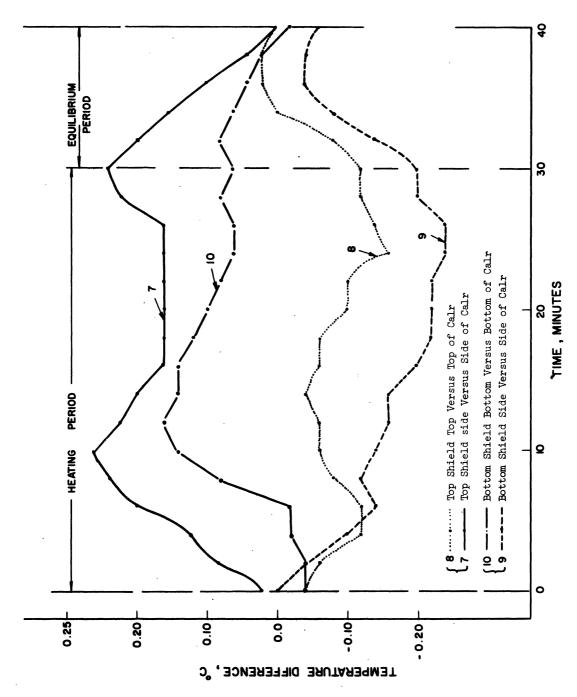


Figure E-1. Shield Control Versus Time in Minutes. (Run No. F-22-G-2)

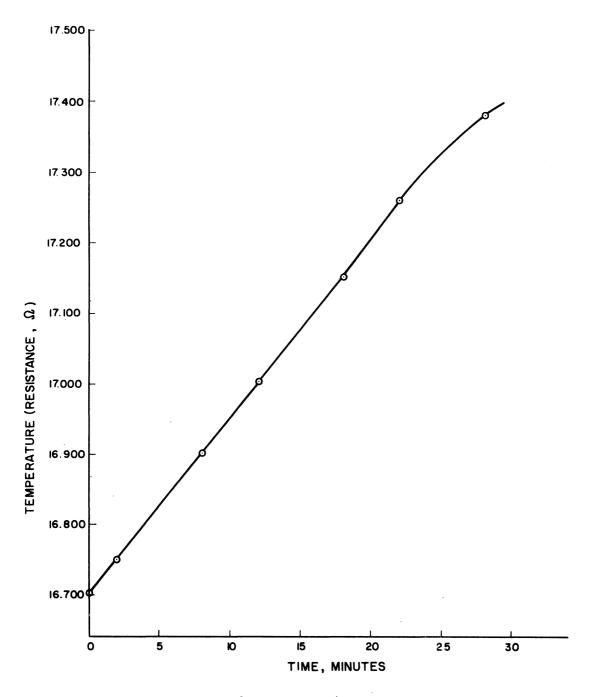


Figure E-2. Temperature (Resistance) Versus Time During Heating. (Run No. F-22-G-2)

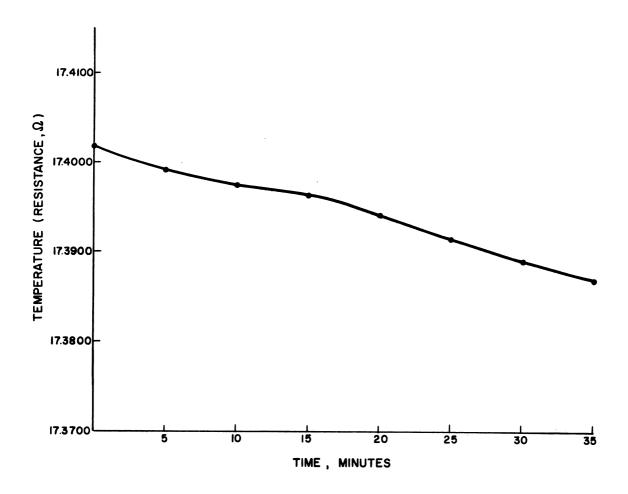


Figure E-3. Temperature (Resistance) Versus Time After Equilibrium.

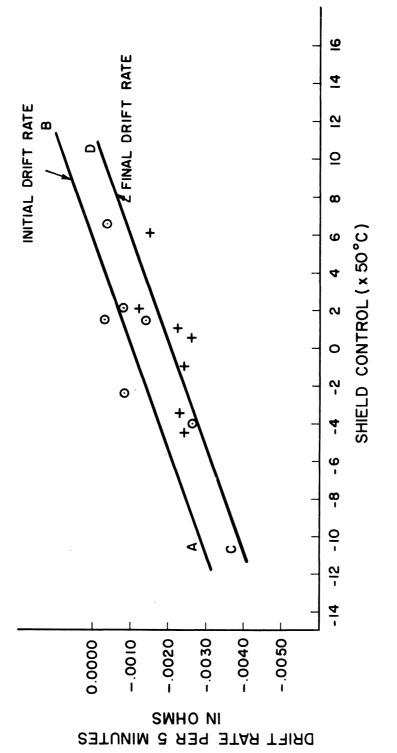


Figure E- $^{\mu}$. Estimation of Drift Rate. (Run No. F-22-G-2)

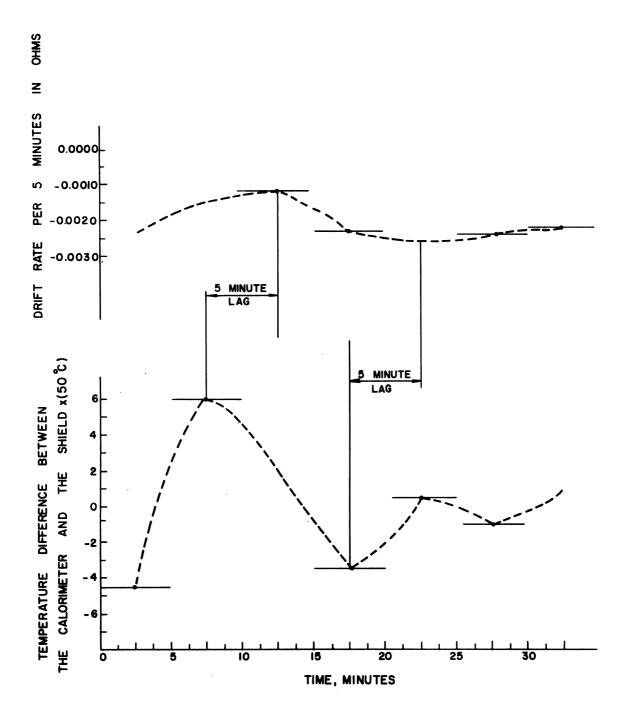


Figure E-5. Effect of Shield Control on Drift Rate after Equilibration. (Run No. F-22-G-2)

TABLE E-3
TABULATED DATA FOR GASEOUS NITROGEW (N2)

Tmean	39 32 22 23 24 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25
Cgross	3991.01 399
Ener E q Input Calories	#22.7967 #55.1949 #56.1949 #66.1346 #66
T2(Equil.) AT-ALcorr.	111.8 111.8 111.9 11
T2(Equil.)	# 74 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
T2(Corr.)	# 7403 \$6.7.229 \$6.7.229 \$6.7.229 \$6.7.229 \$6.7.2803 \$6.7.28
Final Drift Rate · ohms/5 min•	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 0.00000 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 0.0
Initial Drift Rate ohms/5min.	0.00000 0.000000 0.000000 0.000000 0.000000
min.	89.099999999999999999999999999999999999
H° C	### ### ### ### ### ### ### ### ### ##
R2(Corr.) R2(Equil.) ohms	10.6838 10.9328 10.9328 10.9328 10.9328 10.9328 10.9328 10.9328 10.9333 10.933
2R2(Corr.) ohms	17.6.683 17.9926 17.99
2R ₁ ohms	16.084 17.8676 19.9324
Run No.	δ δ δ δ δ δ δ δ δ δ δ δ δ δ δ δ δ δ δ

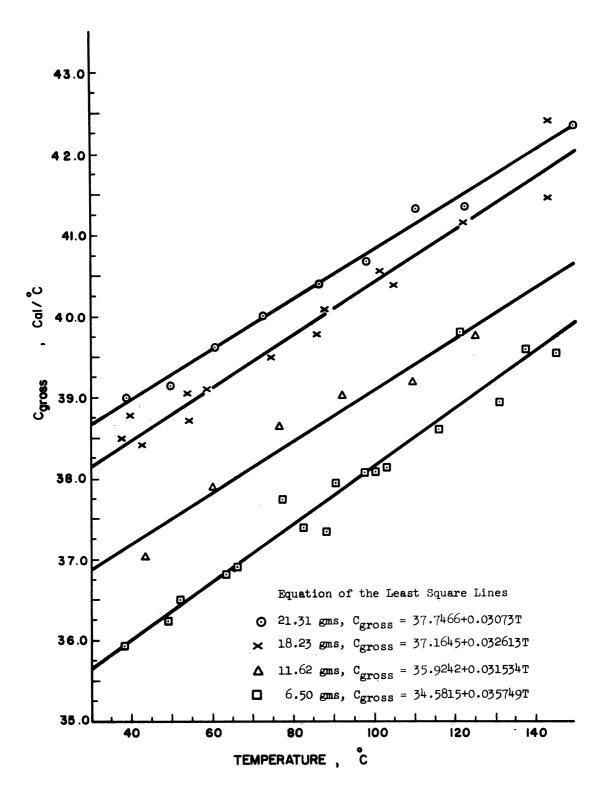


Figure E-6. Gross Heat Capacities with Nitrogen for Calibration of the Calorimeter (1964).

7 ABT, F. F.-4

TABULATED DATA FOR GASEOUS NITROGEN (N_2)

* Data points are neglected

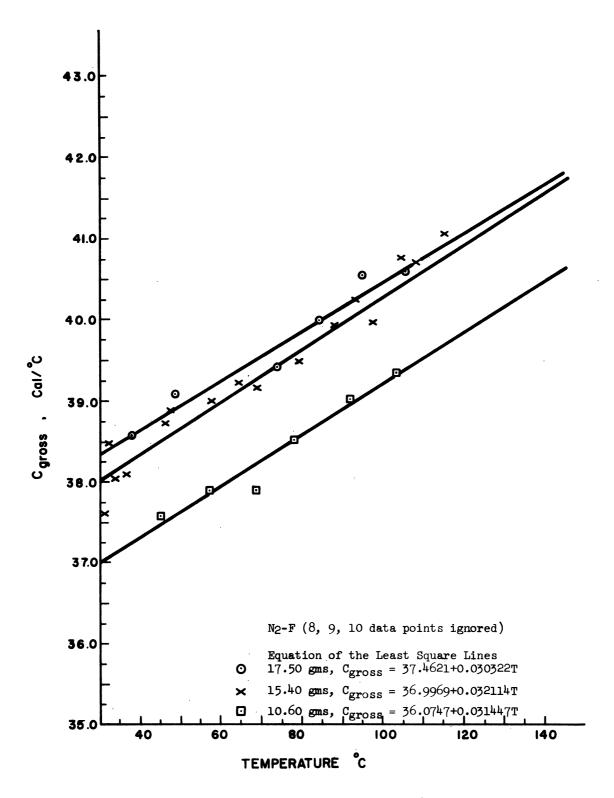


Figure E-7. Gross Heat Capacities with Nitrogen for Calibration of the Calorimeter (1966).

TABLE E-5

Tegan,

	Cgross cal/c	######################################
	弘. 北京 Input Calories	##6.8356 ##6.8356 ##8.5518 ##8
	ΔΤ-ΔΓ corr	10.3900 10.
(снг ₃)	T2(Equil)	44 14815 57.5094 67.7209 87.78048 89.5791 109.2865 117.7282 117.7282 117.7282 117.7283
	T2(Corr)	4.5032 98.2429 98.2429 117.8862 117.8862 117.8862 117.1324 117.1324 117.1324 117.1326
US TRIFLUO	Final Drift Rate oms/5min.	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 0.00000 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 0.0000 0.00000 0.000
TABULATED DATA FOR GASEOUS TRIFLUOROMETHANE	Initial Drift Rate ohm's/5 min.	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 0.00000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0
LATED DATA	min.	20.0000 20.0000
TABU	П. С	4. 1.1.3. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2.
	2R2(Equil) ohms	16.6695 11.3883 11.73883 11.73883 11.6566 12.1038 12.1038 12.1038 12.1038 12.1038 12.1038 12.1038 12.1038 12.1038 12.1038 12.1038 12.1038 12.1038 12.1038 12.1038 12.1038 12.1038 12.1038 13.1
	2R2(Corr) ohms	16.6707 117.3957 117.3957 117.3957 117.3957 117.3957 117.3950 117.
	2R _l obms	16.0998 117.3802 117.3811 117.3811 117.3811 117.3811 117.3811 117.3812 117.
	Run No.	γ γ γ γ γ γ γ γ γ γ γ γ γ γ

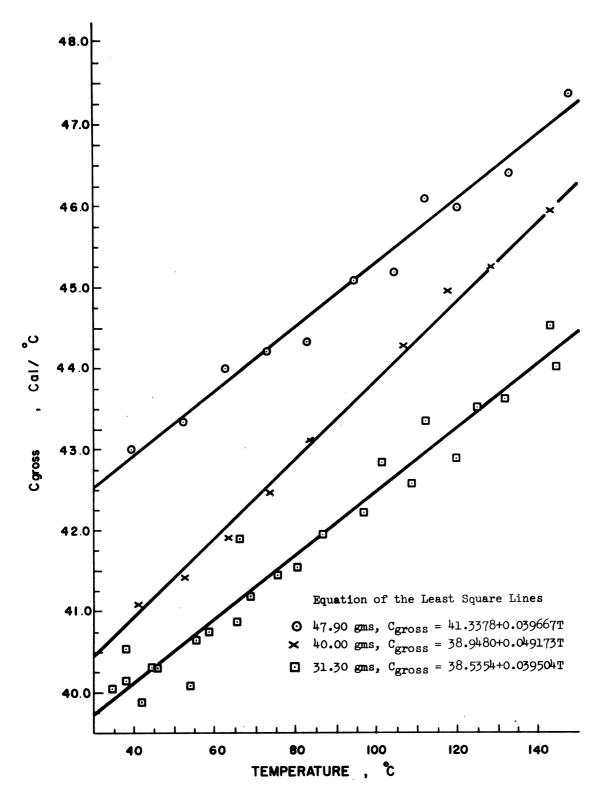


Figure E-8. Gross Heat Capacities for Trifluoromethane Using the Calorimeter (1964).

TABLE E-6

TABULATED DATA FOR GASEOUS CHLORODIFILUOROMETHANE (CHCLF $_2$)

Run No.	2R ₁ ohms	2R2(Corr) ohms	2R2(Equil) ohms	tr. LD	min.	Initial Drift Rate obms/5min.	Final Drift Rate ohms/5 min.	T2(Corr)	T2(Equil)	∆I-∆I _{αgrr} °c	Energy Input Calories	Cgross Cal/°C	⊞ Treear C
* * * * * * * * * * * * *	16.1313 10.7383 17.8500 19.0374 21.3067 21.3067 21.3067 17.3418 17.3418 17.3418 17.3418 17.3418 17.3418 17.3682 17.3588 19.5606 20.6566 20.6568 21.59681 17.8787 17.87	16.7235 17.29035 19.6795 20.2600 20.2600 20.2600 17.2988 17.2988 20.2138 20.21	16. 72 6 8 8 8 8 9 9 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	24.7540 98.1754 98.1138 108.21732 140.21732 140.21732 140.21732 140.21732 160.21732 160.21732 172.1138 172.1138 1810 18	29.9980 30.0010 50.0010 50.0010 50.0010 50.0000	0.0002 0.0003 0.	0.0025 0.	45.4588 55.7343 109.9781 120.5073 112.2373 122.3073 122.3073 123.336	45.3954 109.5633 110.9.5633 141.6634 146.8853 199.5639 190.3999 112.3162 112.3162 112.3162 112.3162 112.3162 112.3162 112.3162 112.3162 112.3162 113.4623 113.4623 114.3995 115.563 116.823 117.823 1	10.0528 1111.0525 1111.052	123.3333 123.323 123.323	14. 2226 15. 6582 16. 10525 16. 10525 16	120 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2
- 8 6 OH		21.8730	21.2400 21.8274 22.5060	117.9489 126.3122 137.4510	30.0000 30.0010 30.0000	-0.0067	-0.0067 -0.0078 -0.0095	128.6838 139.7514 152.5891	128.0409 138.9066 151.4963	10.7349 13.4392 15.1381	439.862- 557.8-18 626.3680	40.9748 41.5108 41.5108	123.3164 133.0318 145.0200

* Believed to be a bad run.

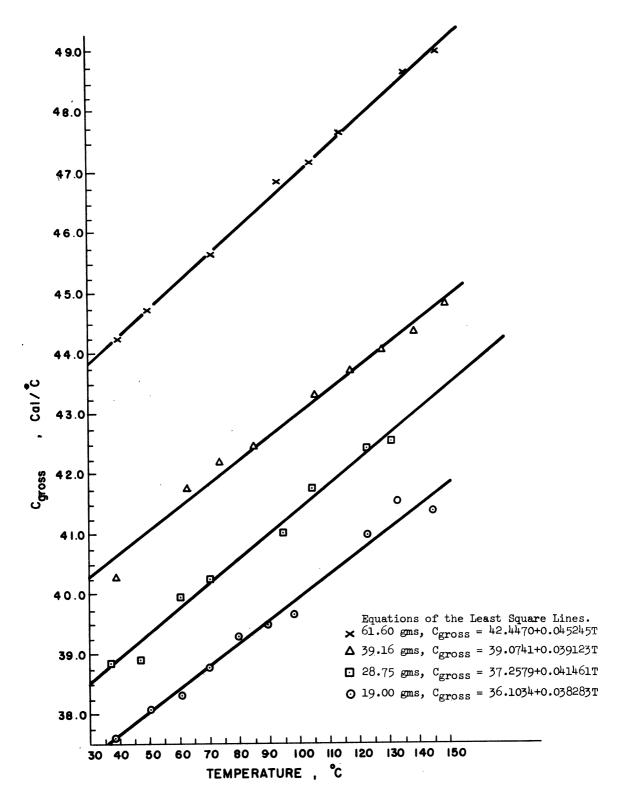


Figure E-9.. Gross Heat Capacities for Chlorodifluoromethane Using the Calorimeter (1964).

TABLE E-7

TABULATED DATA FOR GASEOUS CHLORODIFIJUOROMETHANE (CHCLF $_2$)

Tmean	25.00 100
Cgross	### ### ##############################
Input Calories	454 .348% 404 .348% 404 .348% 404 .1632 591 .8884 591 .8884 501 .9620 506 .8404 561 .620 754 .620 754 .620 755 .255 755 .620 755 .620
AT-AT carr	10.959 11.003 11.003 10.9289 12.898 13.8863 13.0863 13.0863 13.0863 13.0633 13.0633 12
T2(Equil)	41.2527 128.3665 128.3665 129.128.3655 139.1456 103.3396 111.6525 120.3396 120.3396 120.3396 120.3396 120.3396
T2 (Corr)	41.2599 52.11.7 62.6719 73.0602 101.2173 120.2173 120.2173 120.2460 139.9571 40.8351 53.7153 66.4288 79.2954 104.0256 116.0256 116.0256 1174.221 134.3119 148.0973 45.875 6209 112.3849 112.3849 112.3849 112.3849 112.3849
Final Drift Rate ohms/5min.	0.0007 0.0007 0.0007 0.0008 0.0008 0.0008 0.0008 0.0007 0.0009 0.0007 0.00007 0.00007 0.00007 0.00007 0.00007 0.00007 0.00007 0.00007 0
Initial Drift Rate ohms/5min.	0.0007 0.0007 0.0007 0.0008 0.
min.	20.0000 20.0000 20.0000 30.0000 30.0000 30.0000 20.0000 20.0000 20.0000 30.0000 30.0000 30.0000 30.0000 30.0000 30.0000 30.0000 30.0000 30.0000 30.0000 30.0000 30.0000 30.0000
. To	20.402 41.1388 61.9576 96.8140 110.2037 116.2037 116.2037 127.1026 102.8376 102.8376 102.8376 114.3334 114.3334 114.3334 121.2486 135.0224 57.3732 69.3681 107.9741 118.4649 118.4649 118.4649
2R2(Equil) obms	16.4910 17.6957 18.2253 20.81253 20.8283 21.2554 21.2554 17.1654 17.1654 19.9109 20.5568 21.1651 21.16
2R2(Corr)	16.4914 17.6725 18.2433 20.8738 20.8738 21.2944 21.8841 17.1792 17.179
2R ₁ obms	15.8900 16.4847 17.6661 17.6661 17.6661 17.6661 17.6861 17.1469 17.1469 17.1469 17.1469 19.8723 20.4967 20.496
Run No.	F F F F F F F F F F F F F F F F F F F

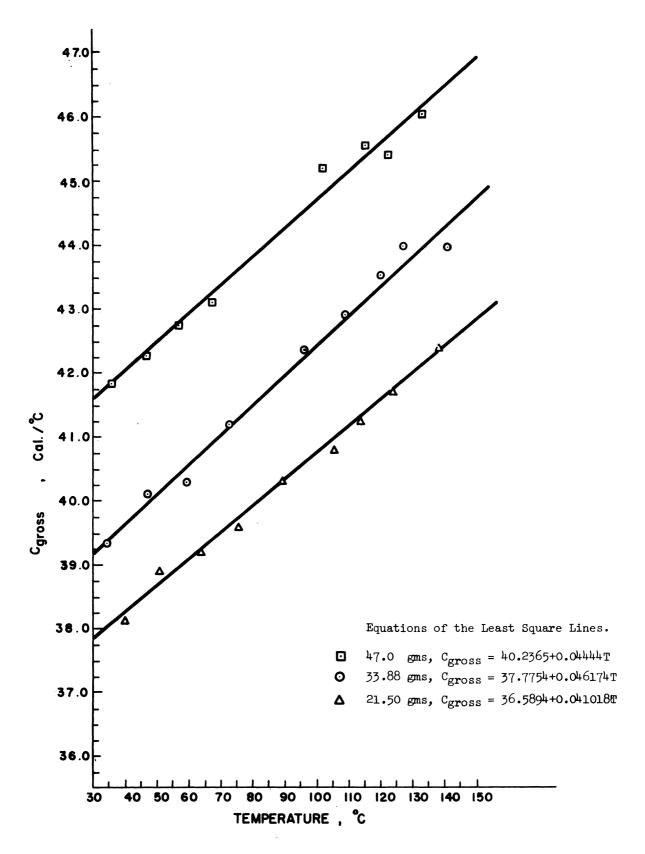


Figure E-10. Gross Heat Capacities for Chlorofluoromethane Using the Calorimeter (1966).

Table e-8 $\label{table} \mbox{Tabulated data for gaseous dichlorofluoromethane} \quad (\mbox{Chcl}_{2}\mbox{F})$

Tmear.	99.5325 92.3420 103.514-1 114.6981 114.6981 125.6460 136.5587 145.5587 141.6535 141.6535 141.6535 141.6535 141.6535 142.868 143.868 144.868 144.868 145.868 146.868
Cgross cal/sc	45.4867 46.4804 47.2695 47.2695 47.2695 48.4157 48.4157 48.6992 41.6846 42.0518 42.0518 42.050 44.0908 44.0908 44.0908 44.0908 44.0908 44.0620 41.3045 42.0865 42.0865 42.0865 42.0865 40.1523
Enerus Input Calories	537.3660 564.2836 576.3708 576.3708 587.0519 587.0519 600.0573 413.1063 491.209 501.482 512.6495 721.2221 722.3221 723.33221 723.33221 724.863
OT-OICOUR	12.17.65 12.17.65 12.17.65 12.27.75 12.27.75 12.27.75 11.37.95 11.37.96 11.
T ₂ (Equil)	75.1928 98.7952 98.0734 120.3637 131.2454 142.0550 152.0259 152.0259 152.0259 152.0259 170.2885
· T2(Corr)	75.4007 87.1015 98.4035 120.8604 131.8601 142.6890 152.9069 65.1900 65.1900 65.1900 67.352 87.1436 98.4435 11.637 81.9846 11.7.3862 11.7.3
Final Drift Rate ohms/5 min.	-0.0020 -0.0035 -0.0035 -0.0035 -0.0036 -0.0038 -0.0038 -0.0038 -0.0038 -0.0038 -0.0038 -0.0038 -0.0030 -0.0030 -0.0045 -0.0045 -0.0045 -0.0045 -0.0045 -0.0045 -0.0045 -0.0046 -0.004
Initial Drift Rate ohms/5min.	0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.000000
min.	20000000000000000000000000000000000000
HO TD	63.6644 86.2806 97.3859 108.2348 119.4878 130.4283 140.5852 140.5852 15.1908 105.7837 105.7837 105.7837 105.7837 105.7837 105.7837 105.7837 105.7837 105.7837 106.7837 106.7837 106.7837 106.7837 106.7837 107.3538
2R ₂ (Equil) ohms	18.3603 18.9958 19.9973 20.8240 21.9973 22.5345 17.8014 18.9968 19.9968 19.9968 19.8292 17.5364 18.1260 18.1260 18.1260 19.8292 17.0398 11.039
2R2(Corr) ohms	18.3717 19.0125 19.0125 20.2418 20.2418 22.0315 22.0315 22.0315 22.0315 20.6699 21.2350 21.235
- 2R ₁ ohms	17.7271 18.3476 19.5742 20.1752 21.3692 21.3692 21.9180 17.7844 17.7844 17.7844 17.7844 17.7844 17.7844 17.5231 18.3791 18.3791 18.3791 18.3791 18.3791 17.5231 18.3792 17.6267 18.880 17.6280 17.6492 18.2567 20.6607 20.6607 21.2290
Run No.	12 12 14 14 14 14 14 14 14 14 14 14 14 14 14

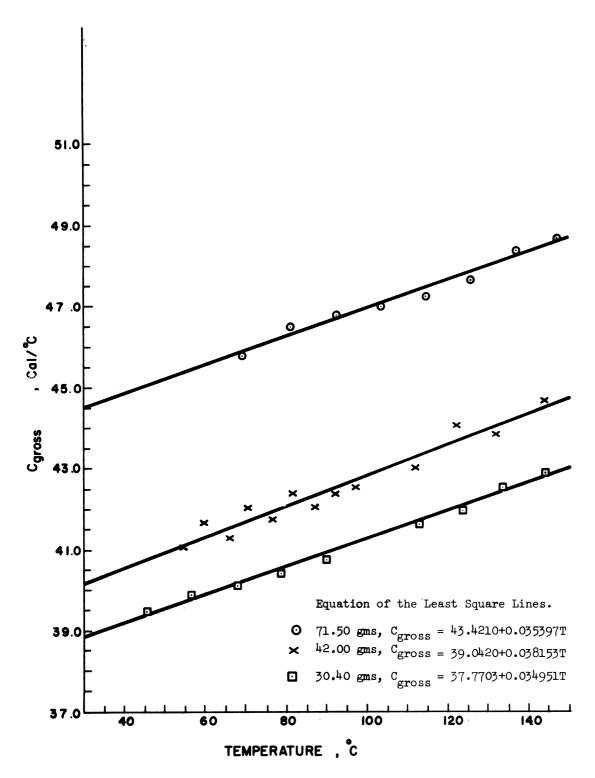


Figure E-11. Gross Heat Capacities for Dichlorofluoromethane Using the Calorimeter (1964).

Table e-9 ${\tt Table E-9}$ Tabulated data for gaseous dichlorodiftuoromethane (ccl_2^F_2)

Tmegan	28.6130 97.293 97.29
Cgross cal/sc	45.2468 46.5239 46.5239 47.7124 48.5239 48.5286 49.8820 47.5340 49.5820 47.6709 47.6709 47.68235 48.5341 48
Decign Input Calories	566.5946 587.3200 587.3200 587.3200 587.3200 505.0725 605.0726 605.0727 606.3316
∆I-∆I∞rr °C	12.5283 12.4709 12.5781 12.5781 12.5782 12.5784 12.5787 12.5787 12.5787 12.5787 12.5787 12.5787 14.1700 14.1700 14.1700 14.1700 14.1700 14.1700 14.1700 14.1700 14.1700 15.5787 17.562 17.562 17.7868
T ₂ (Equil)	## .7982 82 #138 91 .7982 105 .8973 1125 .6863 1145 .4289 154 .9761 156 .9950 49 .9950 49 .9950 1144 .5947 105 .6825 1144 .5947 115 .4260 116 .9960 116 .9960 117 .440 118 .7960 118 .7960
T ₂ (Corr)	14.87£2 82.5782 92.0362 103.2974 1114.8158 126.1073 143.9853 143.9853 155.2956 165.9859 165.9
Final Drift Rate obms/5min.	0.000000000000000000000000000000000000
Initial Drift Rate ohms/5 min.	1.0000 1.000 1.0000 1.0000 1.0000 1.0000 1.0000 1.0000 1.0000 1.0000
min.	20.0000 20.
T. °C	52.3519 58.1593 70.1074 70.1074 70.1074 70.1074 70.1074 70.1074 70.1074 113.5952 1113.5952 1113.5952 121.0661 22.9390 118.1737 121.0661 27.3032 43.8500 51.6294 80.9632 71.061 126.8293 46.7785 60.0498 77.4064 86.1416 112.9363 112.9363 112.9363 112.9363 112.9363 112.9363 112.9363 112.9363 112.9363 112.9363 112.9363 112.9363 112.9363 112.9363 112.9363 112.9363 112.9363
2R ₂ (Equil)	16.6870 19.2658 19.8964 19.8964 19.8964 10.2554 10.2554 10.2564 10.2554 10.2564 10.2554 10.256
2R ₂ (Corr) ohms	16.6912 18.1136 19.9126 20.5229 21.1353 22.1014 16.554 16.5160 17.2465 17.2465 17.2465 17.257 18.291 18.291 18.1610
2R ₁ ohms	15,9982 19,5966 19,5966 19,5966 19,5876 20,4566 21,4370 16,62475 16,62475 16,63476 19,7318 19,7478 19,7478 19,7478 19,7478 19,7478 19,7478 19,7478 10,74708 11,73708
Rùn No.	F. 1.2.4.4.2.2.1.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.

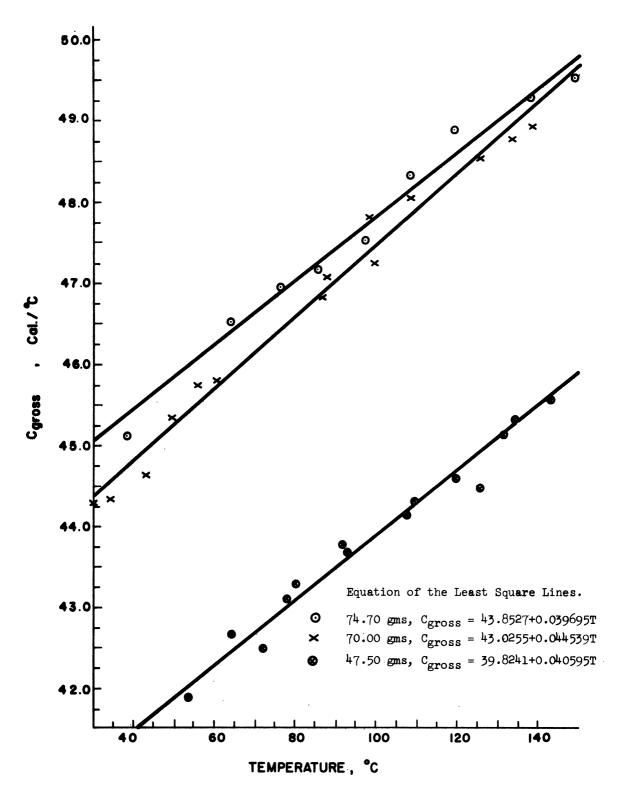


Figure E-12. Gross Heat Capacities with Dichlorodifluoromethane for Checking the Calibration of the Calorimeter (1964).

TABLE E-10

TABULATED DATA FOR EVACUATED CALORINETER

Run No.	2R ₁ ohms	2R2(Corr) ohms	2R ₂ (Equil) ohms	H°	min.	Initial Drift Rate ohms/5 min.	Final Drift Rate obms/5 min	T2(Com)	T2(Equil)	ΔΙ-ΔΙ ος	Energy Input Calories	Caross Caross	Tmean
	16.2481	17.3014	17.3042	36.8631	30,0000	#000 - 0+	-0.0005	55.0320	55 0830	0090 01	667 J. 268	25 0010	702 71
α	17.3584	18.4010	18.3938	56.9666	30.0980	-0.0003	-0.0021	75.9350	75.8037	18.9683	674.5623	35.5625	66.4.50
	18,3633	19.3917	19.3728	75.2475	30,0010	-0.0021	-0.0041	9140.45	93.6954	18.7941	674.9777	35.9144	9449.48
	20,1140	21.1247	21.0845	107.2941	30.3020	6400.0-	-0.0073	125,9115	125,1694	18.6175	692,4519	37-1937	116,6028
	27,1371	22.1240	22.0724	126.1405	30.0000	-0.0068	-0.0095	4404.441	142,44,74	18.2639	689.91.74	8477.78	135,0705
	16.0524	17.0238	17.0226	33.3299	30.0000	+0.0008	-0.0013	50.8978	50.8760	17.5679	608.3876	34.63.06	0211.24
_	17.0131	18.0852	18.0732	50.7039	29.9990	-0.0013	-0.0025	70.1801	69.9617	19.4763	695,0923	35,6892	0244.09
	18.2084	19.5651	19,2429	72.4243	30,0001	-0.0024	-0.0047	91.7232	91.3168	19.2990	700.3451	36.2893	82.0-38
	19.4010	20.4363	50,4069	94.2119	30.0485	-0.0036	-0,0060	113.2216	112,6805	19,0006	703.9242	37,0299	103.7.68
9	20.3347	21.3567	21.3123	111.3521	30.0000	-0.0060	-0.0082	150.1973	129.3767	18.8452	706.8685	3 , 5093	120.14-

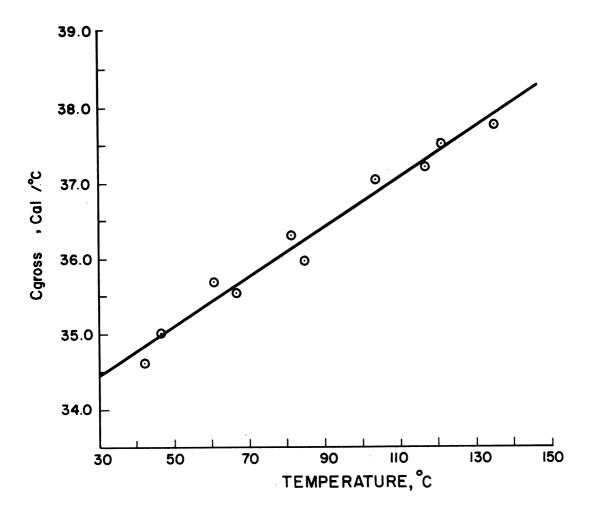


Figure E-13. Gross Heat Capacities with the Evacuated Calorimeter.

APPENDIX F

CALCULATION OF THE VOLUME EXPANSION OF THE CALORIMETER

During this experiment, the calorimeter was heated to a temperature as high as 150°C. Thus it is expected that there would be a change in volume due to thermal and elastic expansion. This change can be calculated from the following equation:

$$\frac{dV}{V} = \left(\frac{dV}{VdT}\right)_{p} dT + \left(\frac{dV}{Vdp}\right)_{T} dp \qquad (F-1)$$

where $\frac{dV}{VdT}$ is the volumetric co-efficient of thermal expansion and approximately three times the co-efficient of thermal expansion (9.4 x 10⁻⁶).

$$\therefore \left(\frac{dV}{VdT}\right)_{p} \cong (3)(9.4)(10^{-6}) = (28.2)(10^{-6}) \text{ per}^{\circ}C$$

Also,

$$\left(\frac{dV}{Vdp}\right)_{T} = \left(\frac{d\ln V}{dp}\right)_{T} = 3\left(\frac{d\ln r}{dp}\right)_{T} \tag{F-2}$$

Again $p=\frac{(t)(4E)}{D}$, where p is the pressure of the gas inside the calorimeter, t is the thickness of the wall, E is the Young's modulus, and D is the diameter. From Equation (F-2), it can be shown

$$\frac{d \ln r}{d p} = -\frac{r}{(2E)(t)}$$
 (F-3)

Inserting eight inches for the diameter, .008 inch for the thickness and (28×10^{-6}) p.s.i.⁻¹ for Young's modulus,

$$\left(\frac{d \ln V}{dp}\right)_{T} = 3\left(\frac{d \ln r}{dp}\right)_{T}$$

$$= \frac{(3)(4)}{(2)(28 \times 10^{-6})(0.008)}$$

$$= (2.68)(10^{-5}) \text{ p.s.i.}^{-1}$$
-115-

Therefore

$$\frac{dV}{V} = (2.82)(10^{-5})dT + (2.68)(10^{-5})dp$$
 (F-4)

For an average temperature of 100°C and 100 p.s.i. during a run,

$$\frac{dV}{V} = (2.82)(10^{-5})(100-30) + (2.68)(10^{-5})(100-20)$$
= .0041

The volume of the calorimeter is 4530 c.c. Therefore average volume expansion is (4530)(.004) = 18.12 c.c. Thus an expansion of 0.4% can occur at the average temperature and pressure.

APPENDIX G

BASIC THEORY OF CALCULATION OF C_V^* IN MOLECULAR SPECTROSCOPY

From the definition, $C_V = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}\right)_V$, it follows that all temperature dependent components of the internal energy contribute to heat capacity. From classical statistical mechanics, the equipartition of energy tells us each translational degree of freedom contributes $\frac{R}{2}$ T to the internal energy U of the medium (R = universal gas constant). The three translational degrees of freedom, therefore, contribute $\frac{3}{2}$ R to the molar heat capacity. The rotational molar heat capacity of polyatomic molecules is determined by their rotation about the three space-co-ordinates. At not too high a temperature, the three rotational degrees of freedom give rise to $\frac{3}{2}$ RT for the internal energy. A measure for the temperature so that one can calculate the rotational heat capacity with constant contribution of $\frac{R}{2}$ is given by the condition, $\Theta_r < < T$, where

$$\Theta_{\mathbf{r}} = \frac{h^2}{8\pi^2 IK} \tag{G-1}$$

and

I = moment of inertia

h = Planck constant

K = Boltzmann constant

 Θ_{r} is known as the characteristic rotation temperature. In contrast to the fluoro-chloro derivatives, the characteristic rotation temperature for methane, which has low moment of inertia $(I = (5.47)(10^{-40}) \text{gm cm}^2)$, is only 7.5°K .

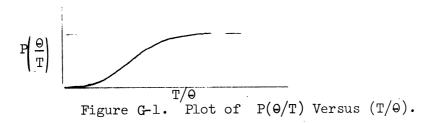
Since the atoms in a molecule are not rigidly connected, vibrations can occur around equilibrium positions of the atoms. The amplitudes of such vibrations depend upon the temperature. A polyatomic molecule of n atoms can have 3n-6 degrees of vibration. Corresponding vibrational modes of freedom can be evaluated if one assumes that the total vibrational energy of the system is comprised of potential and kinetic energy which are quadratic functions. From classical quantum statistics, the internal energy of vibration of a molecule is given in terms of the vibrational frequency ν_i as

$$U_{i}^{V_{i}b} = R \frac{h\nu_{i}}{K} \frac{1}{e^{h\nu_{i}/KT}-1}$$
 (G-2)

From Equation (G-2) with the substitution of $\frac{h\nu_i}{K} = \Theta_i$, one obtains

$$C_{i}^{vib} = R \left| \frac{\Theta_{i}}{T} \right|^{2} \frac{e^{\Theta_{i}/T}}{(e^{\Theta_{i}/T}-1)^{2}} = P \left| \frac{\Theta_{i}}{T} \right|$$
 (G-3)

where $\theta_i = \frac{h\nu_i}{K}$. θ_i is designated as characteristic vibrational temperature. The function $P(\theta/T)$ is called the Planck-Einstein function. This function approaches the classical value R at higher temperature as indicated in the following figure:



With

$$C^{trans} = \frac{3}{2} R$$
, $C^{rot} = \frac{3}{2} R$, and $C^{vib} = \frac{3n-6}{2} P \left(\frac{\Theta_i}{T}\right)$

it follows:

$$C_{V}^{*} = 3R + \sum_{i=1}^{3n-6} P(\Theta_{i}/T)$$
 (G-4)

and

$$C_{p}^{*} = 4R + \sum_{i=1}^{3n-6} P(\Theta_{i}/T)$$
 (G-5)

Therefore for a complete calculation of the molal heat capacity one needs to know the 3n-6 fundamental vibrational frequencies.

Instead of frequency ν , ($\nu=\frac{c}{\lambda}$, where C is the velocity of light and λ , wave length of vibration), in spectroscopic work, wave number is used where $\overline{\nu}=\frac{1}{\lambda}$.

The Planck-Einstein function gives the vibrational component of molal heat capacity under the assumption of harmonic oscillations of a molecule. This is because the basic assumption is that the potential energy is a quadratic function. On the basis of such assumption, if one observes the spectroscopic energy level patterns, one would expect that the separation between energy levels should be constant. But for real molecules this is not always so. Schafer (56) gives the following expression for the vibrational heat capacity due to anharmonicity of vibration of the molecule,

$$\Delta C_{anh} = R - x_{e} \left(\frac{\Theta}{T} \right)^{2} \cdot \frac{\cosh(\Theta/2T)}{\sinh^{3}(\Theta/2T)} + \frac{x_{e}}{4} \left(\frac{\Theta}{T} \right)^{3} \cdot \frac{1 + 2\cosh^{2}(\Theta/2T)}{\sinh^{4}(\Theta/2T)}$$

$$+ \frac{x_{e}^{2}}{16} \left(\frac{\Theta}{T} \right)^{2} \cdot \frac{4 + 16\cosh^{2}(\Theta/2T)}{\sinh^{4}(\Theta/2T)} - \frac{x_{e}^{2}(\Theta/2T)^{3} \left[\cosh(\Theta/2T) + 2\cosh^{2}(\Theta/2T)\right]}{\sinh^{5}(\Theta/2T)}$$

$$+ \frac{x_{e}^{2}}{8} \left(\frac{\Theta}{T} \right)^{4} \cdot \frac{3 + 18\cosh^{2}(\Theta/2T) + 4\cosh(\Theta/2T)}{\sinh^{6}(\Theta/2T)}$$

$$(G-6)$$

In Equation (G-6), a new parameter \mathbf{x}_e , anharmonicity constant, is introduced. It can be spectroscopically determined if one observes some of the overtone bands and one assumes no deviations of the overtones from the fundamental.

The molal heat capacity in the ideal state of polyatomic nonlinear gases is therefore given by

$$C_{v}^{*} = 3R + \sum_{i=1}^{3n-6} R \left(\frac{\Theta_{i}}{T} \right)^{2} \frac{e^{\Theta_{i}/T}}{(e^{\Theta_{i}/T}-1)^{2}} + \Delta C_{anh,i}$$
 (G-7)

where $\Delta C_{anh,i}$ is given by Equation (G-6).

The characteristic vibrational temperature θ_i as also the wave number $\overline{\nu}_i$ can be obtained from infrared and Raman spectroscopic measurements. They can also be calculated from the known structure of the molecule by Wilson's F-G matrix method (66).

Bernstein and Pullin⁽⁷⁾ have shown empirically that the zero-point energy in substituted methanes may be treated as a constitutive property when the interaction between nonbonded atoms is taken into account. Thus the sum of the vibration frequencies $(\Sigma \nu)$ of the halogenated methanes is found to have the predicted quadratic dependence on the number of substituents. This reduces to a linear dependence in the case of isotopically substituted homologs, compared to the linear dependence for $\Sigma \nu^2$ found theoretically by Recius, Wilson and Sverdlov.

Barho calculates ${\rm C_p}^*$ for methane and its fluochloro-derivatives with Equation (G-7) in the temperature range 175°K to 1000°K. For the temperature range 200°K to 1000°K, the results of such calculations and shown in Table I-2 at temperature intervals of 50°. The results are claimed to be accurate within \pm .3%.

APPENDIX H

THEORY OF CALCULATION OF VIBRATIONAL FREQUENCIES AND NORMAL CO-ORDINATES OF POLYATOMIC MOLECULES

In a many-particle system natural or normal modes of vibration are characterized by vibrational energy level patterns and absorption bands will be observed due to interaction of the oscillating dipole moment of the system with electromagnetic radiation. In a polyatomic molecule there are 3n-6 degrees of freedom for vibration and hence in absorption bands 3n-6 transitions would be observed. These fundamental transitions are related to the force constants and the atomic masses of the molecule. Therefore it is interesting to determine what is the nature of the molecular vibrations and what is the form of the normal co-ordinate in these normal vibrations.

The molecular motions constrained by a particular potential energy function can be located adequately from the principles of classical mechanics. If a co-ordinate \mathbf{q}_{i} is chosen, Lagrange's equation can be used to describe the motion of the system with respect to that co-ordinate as follows:

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \left(\frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}\dot{\mathbf{q}}_{\mathbf{i}}} \right) + \frac{\partial U}{\partial q_{\mathbf{i}}} = 0 \tag{H-1}$$

where T is the kinetic energy and U is the potential energy and \vec{q}_i is the time derivative. For a polyatomic molecule there will be 3n-6 such equations which can be solved for 3n-6 vibrational frequencies.

To apply the above equation to a system, both T and U expressions must involve the same set of co-ordinates. T can be conveniently set up in Cartesian co-ordinates and U in terms of internal

co-ordinates which describe the displacement of the atoms from their equilibrium internuclear distances. Thus, if R_1 , R_2 ,..., R_{3n-6} represent the internal displacement co-ordinates and x_1 , x_2 ,..., x_{3n} represent the Cartesian displacement co-ordinates, kinetic and potential energy functions can be expressed as

$$T = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{3n-6} m_j x_j^2$$
 (H-2)

$$U = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^{3n-6} K_{ij} R_{i} R_{j}$$
 (H-3)

where m_j is the mass of the j-th particle and K_{ij} is the force constant of the spring interacting between i-th and j-th particle. The complexity of the problem lies in the transformation of x co-ordinates in terms of R co-ordinates. Once this is done the problem is solved. Wilson by matrix transformation method elegantly solves this problem and this procedure is the basis for many of the calculations of molecular vibrations now being done.

In this method kinetic and potential energies are expressed in terms of internal co-ordinates R. The Equation (H-3) above, since it is quadratic in form, can be written in matrix notation as 2U = R'FR where R' is the transpose of R and the F matrix involves the spring constants. To set up the kinetic energy in terms of R co-ordinates Wilson goes through an elaborate matrix manipulation and assuming six conditions of zero translational and angular momentum shows that kinetic energy can be expressed as

$$2T = R^{-1} G^{-1} R \tag{H-4}$$

where R^{-1} is the transpose of R and G^{-1} is the inverse of G matrix. The elements of the G-matrix can be expressed as

$$G_{K\ell} = \sum_{i=1}^{3n} \frac{B_{Ki}B_{\ell i}^{i}}{m_{i}}$$
(H-5)

where K = 1,2,...,3n-6 and ℓ = 1,2,...,3n-6. Incidentally, B matrix is the transformation matrix between the internal co-ordinates and Cartesian co-ordinates. When Lagrange's equation is applied to each of the R_k co-ordinates and solutions of the type Rk, = A_k cos 2 $\pi\nu$ t is desired, the secular determinant formed by the co-efficients of A_k's has the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} F_{11} - (G^{-1})_{11} \lambda & F_{12} - (G^{-1})_{12} \lambda & \dots \\ F_{21} - (G^{-1})_{21} \lambda & F_{22} - (G^{-1})_{22} \lambda & \dots \end{bmatrix} = 0$$
(H-6)

where $\lambda = 4\pi^2 v^2$. Equation (H-6) can be represented in terms of a diagonal matrix Λ with λ 's on the diagonals in the following way

$$|F - G^{-1} \Lambda| = 0 \text{ or } |GF - \Lambda| = 0$$
 (H-7)

From the molecular structure certain symmetry operations are carried out on the normal co-ordinates to evaluate F and G matrix elements. Once F and G matrix elements have been calculated, the secular determinant given by the Equation (H-6), is solved for values of Λ and hence ν values are obtained.

APPENDIX I

FUNDAMENTAL FREQUENCIES AND CALCULATED $C_{\mathsf{D}}^{\phantom{\mathsf{D}}}$ VALUES FOR METHANE AND ITS FLUORO-CHLORO DERIVATIVES

For methane and all its fluoro-chloroderivatives, the fundamental frequencies as obtained from infrared and Raman Spectra or from Wilson's $^{(66)}$ FG-matrix method are reported in the literature. Table I-l represents all such values used by Barho $^{(2)}$ in the calculation of C_p^* values presented in Table I-2.

TABLE I-1

FUNDAMENTAL FREQUENCIES OF METHANE AND ITS FIJURO-CHLORO DERIVATIVES IN \mathtt{Cm}^{-1}

49	1306 772-1 772-1 251-1 218-1 218-1 572-4 577-7 350-5 261-5 261-5 241-5 261-5 261-5 261-5 261-5
84	1306 1015 700 261.1 218 1078.6 507 434.5 550 350 281 261 421
74	1306 1015 735 366.4 310 1200 1089.7 175.8 475.8 475.8 475.8 475.8 475.8 475.8 475.8
9,	1499 1354-9 898 681 310 310 1167-9 1167-1 630 630 745 808 1068
٧5	1499 1149 1149 1149 1149 1150 1150 1261 150 150 150 150 150 150 150 150 150 15
tα	2914 1454.6 1255 1255 1255 1459.7 1455 108.2 988.2 988.2 988.2 667.2 535.2 1082 1178
٤٨	3020 2937 1218.9 1218.9 794 . 1508 1572 1105 922 847 1105 1312 1470
24	3020 3041.8 2985 794 2009 2965.4 1372 1099 1099 1345 2995
η	3020 3041.8 3049.4 3034.4 3039.8 3031 1162 1162 3028 3028 3049
Compound	GH,

TABLE I-2

THE MOLAL HEAT CAPACITY C_{μ}^{*} FOR METHANE AND ITS FLUORO-CHLORO DERIVATIVES AS A PUNCTION OF TEMPERATURE

CH2FCI	88888847788888888888888888888888888888
CHF2C1 (F 22)	#\d\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\
CHFC12 (F 21)	5%q38545888888884848 %4;%%6;4888888889884849
CFC13 (F 11)	\$25.50 \$38.50 \$3.5
CF2C12 (F 12)	58.96 56.76 73.16 73
CF3C1 (F13)	66.95 66.95
CF ₁ (F 14)	17.73 17.73
CHF ₃ (F 23)	1.57.75.75.75.75.75.75.75.75.75.75.75.75.
CH2F2	36.47 1,5,05 1,1,00 1,00 1,00 1,00 1,00 1,00 1,00 1,0
CHyF	33.38 25.27
CCIT	70.41 88.04 88.01 92.45 97
CHCL 3	76.03 88.88.88.66.66 89.98.98.98.98 7.99.97 7.99.99
CH2CL2	4.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1
टाम्	55.22 14.35 15.35
HD.	24.28.5.25.25.25.25.25.25.25.25.25.25.25.25.2
Т°К	200 250 350 350 450 450 650 650 750 650 750 850 850 950

APPENDIX J

ELECTRICAL CIRCUIT FOR CONSTANT POWER INPUT

Hoge $^{(25)}$ has suggested the use of a balancing resistor in the power circuit for the generation of constant power input. If there is a battery source of constant voltage E and zero internal resistance, a balancing resistor of resistance U and a heater of variable resistance, R, the power generated by the heater is given by,

Figure J-1. Power Circuit.

where q_h is the power dissipated by the heater, I is the current in the circuit and E_h is the voltage drop across the circuit.

$$\therefore \frac{dq_{h}}{dR_{h}} = \frac{(U+R)^{2}E^{2}-(R)(E^{2})(2)(U+R)}{(U+R)^{4}}$$

$$= \frac{E^{2}(U-R)}{(U+R)^{3}} \qquad (J-2)$$

When R is equal to U , q_h is maximum and is given by

$$q_{\text{hmax}} = \frac{E^2}{h \Pi}$$

$$\frac{q_h}{q_{hmax}} = \left[\frac{RE^2}{(U+R)^2}\right] \left[\frac{4U}{E}\right] = \frac{4UR}{(U+R)^2}$$

$$= \frac{4}{2+\frac{R}{U}+\frac{U}{R}}$$
(J-3)

that $\frac{q_h}{q_{hmax}}$ is rather insensitive to changes in $\frac{R}{U}$. In the actual experiment, the power fluctuations were on the average within \pm 1/2 per cent.

APPENDIX K

CONSTANTS AND CONVERSION FACTORS

The constants and conversion factors used in this research are summarized here:

$$T^{\circ}K = t^{\circ}c$$
 plus 273.16°C

$$T^{\circ}R = T^{\circ}K$$
 multiplied by $1.8 = {^{\circ}F} + 459.69$

1 atmosphere = 14.696 p.s.i.

$$h = 6.62377 \times 10^{-27} \text{ erg-sec/(mole)}$$

$$c = 2.997902 \times 10^{10} \text{ Cm/sec}$$

$$R = 1.380257 \times 10^{-16} \text{ erg/(mole)} - {}^{\circ}K$$

$$\frac{hc}{R} = 1.43868$$

Molecular weight of dichlorodifluoromethane = 120.924

Molecular weight of trifluoromethane = 70.01

Molecular weight of chlorodifluoromethane = 86.476

Molecular weight of dichlorofluoromethane = 102.93

Molecular weight of nitrogen = 28.02

For the calculation of $C_V^-C_V^+$ values, Martin's Equation in the present form has been used. The constants in the equation are as follows:

1. For chlorodifluoromethane $^{(39)}$: p in p.s.i, T in °R, V in cuft/lb, $T_c = 664.5$ deg. R., $p_c = 32.76$ lb/ft³, $p_c = 721.906$ p.s.i.a

Equation of State:

$$p = \frac{RT}{v-b} + \frac{A_2 + B_2T + C_2e^{KT/T_c}}{(v-b)^2} + \frac{A_3 + B_3T + C_3e^{KT/T_c}}{(v-b)^3} + \frac{A_4 + B_4T}{(v-b)^4} + \frac{A_5 + B_5T + C_5e^{KT/T_c}}{(v-b)^5} + \frac{A_6 + B_6T}{e^{548.2V}}$$

2. For trifluoromethane (37): Units are the same as above. $T_c = 538.33$ R, $V_c = 0.030510$ CH/15, $P_c = 701.42$ p.s.i.a

Equation of State:

$$p = \frac{RT}{v-b} + \frac{A_2 + B_2 T + C_2 e^{KT/T_c}}{(v-b)^2} + \frac{A_3 + B_3 T + C_3 e^{KT/T_c}}{(v-b)^3} + \frac{A_4 + B_4 T}{(v-b)^4} + \frac{A_5 + B_5 T + C_5 e^{KT/T_c}}{(v-b)^5} + \frac{A_6 + B_6 T}{e^{520V}}$$

3. For dichlorodifluoromethane (45): units are the same as above.

$$T_c = 699.3 \text{ R}, p_c = 596.9 \text{ p.s.i.a}, \rho_c = 34.84 \text{ lb/cuft}.$$

Equation of State:

$$P = \frac{RT}{v-b} + \frac{A_2 + B_2 T + C_2 e^{KT/T_c}}{(v-b)^2} + \frac{A_3 + B_3 T + C_3 e^{KT/T_c}}{(v-b)^3} + \frac{A_4 + B_4 T}{(v-b)^4} + \frac{A_5 + B_5 T + C_5 e^{KT/T_c}}{(v-b)^5}$$

 $A_2 = -3.409727134$ $A_3 = 0.06023944654$ $A_4 = -5.4873007 \times 10^{-14}$ $B_1 = 0.088734$ $B_2 = 1.59434848 \times 10^{-3}$ $B_3 = -1.879618431 \times 10^{-5}$ $B_4 = 0$ $C_1 = 0$ $C_2 = -56.7627671$ $C_3 = 1.311399084$ $C_4 = 0$ $B_1 = 0.088734$ $B_2 = 1.59434848 \times 10^{-3}$ $B_3 = -1.879618431 \times 10^{-5}$ $B_4 = 0$ $C_5 = -2.54390678 \times 10^{-5}$ $C_7 = -2.54390678 \times 10^{-5}$ $C_7 = -2.5475$

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