SOME MEASUREMENTS ON THE VAPOR VISCOSITIES OF THE TWO COMMON PENTANES, TWO PENTENES, AND CARBON TETRACHLORIDE.

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In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, California, 1932.

SUMMARY

The present work is a continuation of the investigations begun by Dr. R. K. Day on the behavior of vapors by means of accurate viscosity measurements. The instrument. designed and built by him, has been improved, and his results on normal and iso-pentane have been verified. In addition measurements on two pentenes, similar in structure to the pentanes, have been made at room temperature, and the viscosity-pressure curves for all four hydrocarbons and also for CCL _{*y*} have been obtained at 100° C. A linear relation, with a negative slope, persists in all these curves, the slope for the hydrocarbons being considerably less at the higher temperature, while the curve for CCl, is comparable to those for the hydrocarbons at room temperature. Following are the values of the constants in the equation

 $\eta = \eta_0 (1 - \alpha p)$

the pressure being expressed in atmospheres.

INTRODUCTION

The present work of studying the behavior of vapors near saturation by means of viscosity measurements was begun by $Dr. R. K.$ Day under the direction of $Dr. R. A.$ $Ki1li$ kan, and the first results, some measurements on normal and iso-pentane, are discussed by him in his Doctor's thesis of 1930. The negative slopes of the viscosity-pressure curves found by him were entirely new in gas viscosity measurements, the common gases having always a positive slope, but the work represents the first application of a new and elaborate viscometer built by him, and some difficulties were encountered in making the measurements, so that it was not certain that the data were sufficiently accurate to draw definite conclusions.

Accordingly work was begun to improve the instrument, the intention being to repeat measurements on the pentanes at 25°0 in order to establish their accuracy. In the meantime, carefully prepared samples of the two pentenes, whose structure is most nearly like the pentanes, were received from the Standard Oil Development Company of Elizabeth, New Jersey, along with samples of normal and iso-pentane which had been obtained from natural sources. Since the pentane samples at hand were synthetic, it was thought worth while to compare viscosity values obtained from the new samples with the old values, as a check upon the purity of the materials. Also measurements were made on the pentenes,

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believing that a knowledge of the effect upon viscosity of the removal of two hydrogen atoms from the pentane molecule and the substitution of a double bond would be of value.

Later, when measurements at higher temperatures were made possible, observations were taken on carbon tetrachloride, thus making possible a comparison of a molecule of simple structure with the more complicated hydrocarbons, both being in the vapor state.

Attempts have been made, but without success, to obtain the third isomeric pentane, a molecule of which is symmetrical, according to the chemists' structural formula, about a central carbon atom. It is of special interest to observe the difference in the viscosity of isomers, because this gives directly the effect of molecular structure upon the mean free path.

INSTRUMENTAL CHANGES

The method of measurement used is the rotating cylinder method, chiefly because it is capable of high precision and is also applicable at low pressures. The instrument is described in detail in Dr. Day's thesis and only the more important changes which have been introduced since his work will be given here.

Early difficulties in keeping the instrument casing vacuum tight werethought to be due largely to the lightness of some of the metal parts, the strains set up by frequent evacuation being sufficient to form cracks in

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the large solder joints. Accordingly, some of the lower parts were made stronger and all the joints carefully resoldered. This did not eliminate the difficulties however. and only by carrying out an extended program of locating and stopping the leaks as they formed during the progress of the work has it been possible to attain good working conditions.

The vapors to be examined have a strong solvent action upon nearly all organic materials, so it was advisable to prevent contact of the vapors with any waxes, cements, rubber, or grease. All gaskets are made of lead, the joints are either solder or copper-glass seals, and the stop-cocks are all metal, consisting of a needle valve operated by means of a sylphon. The window is a quarter inch glass plate strongly clamped to the plane brass window face, with a fine lead fuse wire soldered at the ends to form a loop for a gasket.

During the early work it seems that some organic material got deposited within the instrument which gave trouble when the vapors reached pressure near saturation, and repeated efforts to clean the parts separately were unsuccessful because of their complicated structure, nor could the deposit be pumped out. Finally the entire instrument was filled with liquid carbon tetrachloride, which was warmed and circulated several days, then drained as far as possible and pumped out. This removed the foreign material but rusting of the steel parts set in afterward, probably

(3)

started or hastened by impurities in the carbon tetrachloride. Finally it became necessary to replace the suspension and one of the ball be arings upon which the outer cylinder turns. The upper steel parts were copper plated to prevent further rusting.

The new suspension is somewhat stronger than the old one, having a cross-section of about 2.2 x 5.8 mils. so that the period of the inner cylinder is now 150 seconds instead of 198. The steel ribbon was first heated to about 400° C for several days while supporting a light weight in order to form a protective layer of oxide to resist the rust action. It was then carefully annealed while supporting a load of 900 gms. by gradual cooling over a period of two days.

When mounted, the new suspension showed a remarkably constant zero position and a much smaller drift while in the deflected position, this drift being of the order of .005% per minute **as** compared to .04% for the old one. As will be seen the drift becomes considerably larger however, at higher temperatures.

In order to compensate for the loss in sensitivity caused by the larger torque constant, the scale has been moved back to a distance of 478 cm. from the mirror, and the telescope mounted near the window, thus doubling the sensitivity of the optical system without affecting the magnification or resolving power. A possible error in the early measurements may be due to pendular oscillations of the inner

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cylinder, and the long mirror-to-scale distance has the added advantage of making these oscillations more easily observed. With this system deflection can be read with an accuracy of about $.02%$.

During the progress of the work it has been necessary to completely dismantle the instrument several times, and in reassembling the method of aligning the cylinders is of course important. The beam supporting the inner cylinder is first adjusted so that the outer surface of the cylinder is strictly vertical. This can be done by means of plumb bobs and a cathetometer within . 05 mm. The cylinder is then hung in the instrument and the guard cylinders brought in line with the suspended cylinder by adjustment of the suspension head and the base supports. The two main cylinders will then be coaxial if the machining of the bearings and supports is accurate.

In the past, a slight settling of the base supports on one end of the pier has been observed, which will throw the cylinders slightly out of line, but since the speed of rotation is so adjusted that the deflections are all of the same order of magnitude, the mean distance between the cy linders across which the viscous action takes place will not change between successive runs. This is especially true if the inner cylinder rotates upon its own axis, a condition which depends only upon the initial adjustment, so that in relative measurements no error is expected from this quarter.

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The Bourdon spiral pressure gauge of pyrex tubing has been improved to obtain greater sensitivity and to make it applicable for measurements at higher temperatures. A stellite mirror is soldered to a needle, the ends of which are ground to fine points, and mounted in small glass sockets. A short copper wire, also soldered to the back of the mirror, makes possible the adjustment of the system so that it is very nearly balanced. The mirror is thus held in contact with the extended arm of the spiral only by gravity and, there being no elastic properties involved except those of the spiral itself, the deformation of which is exceedingly small, neither the zero position nor the calibration constant is appreciably affected by a change of temperature. The sensitivity obtained is about 16 m.m. deflection for a change of pressure of 1 m.m. of mercury. The chief inaccuracy is in the reproducibility of the zero reading due to the considerable play which the needle points have in the glass sockets. Except at low pressures, the gauge is used only as a null instrument, the pressure being read on a manometer which is connected to the opposite side of the spiral from the instrument.

In order to prevent any stresses being set up be tween the evacuating system and the top of the instrument which may throw the cylinders out of alignment, the inlet tube is a long copper tube with a deep "gooseneck" near the instrument.

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Neither the constant speed motor described by Day nor the rotating field device used for controlling the oscillations of the inner cylinder has required modification.

MEASUREEMTS AT ROOM TEMPERATURE

It, of course, is essential in all measurements that no tendency toward turbulent flow be present. The threshold of turbulence is expected to depend upon the ratio **f** *V* **_i**

where ϕ is the density, $\frac{1}{2}r$ the velocity of the outer cylinder, ℓ the distance between cylinders, and η the viscosity. A test was carried out under the most extreme conditions of this ratio available, namely iso-pentane at saturation pressure with the speed of the cylinder at two revolutions per n:inute, but no tendency toward turbulence could be observed.

This is sufficient justification for the procedure of adjusting the speed of the cylinder so that the deflections in all measurements are about the same. Thus for air a gear ratio at the motor of 9:14 is used, while for the hydrocarbons a ratio of $14:9$ is applied. Such a procedure tends to minimize errors which may occur from several sources, such as poor alignment of the cylinders, suspension drift, the conversion of straight scale readings to angles, and inaccuracies in the scale itself.

The motor being reversible no zero reading is used, the sum of the deflections taken each way from the zero being all that is desired. The telescope is adjusted

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so that the zero reading falls very near to the center of the scale, which is the foot of a perpendicular drawn from the mirror to the scsle, so that the two deflections are always very nearly equal. Because of the slight suspension drift, a definite time schedule is followed in taking readings, the mean value obtained five minutes after the cylinder crosses its zero position being used in all cases so that no correction for drift is necessary. This gives sufficient time for any transient effects arising during the reversal of the motor to die out, and also permits sufficient readings on the turning points to obtain a good average.

It is well known that at low pressures slippage occurs between the gas and the walls which is important only when the mean free path is not a negligible fraction of the distance between the walls. Assuming no specular reflection (3) of the molecules at the walls, Millikan finds for the slip factor

$1+0.7 k\lambda$

where λ is the mean free path and the instrument constant, k is given by

$$
k = \frac{2(a^3 + b^3)}{ab^3 - a^3b}
$$

a and b being the radii of the cylinders. The correction is inversely proportional to the pressure and amounts to the following values at 1 m.m. pressure.

(8)

Measurements taken on air at low pressures were found to be in complete agreement with the above equation. The correction has therefore been applied to all measurements where the correction is appreciable in order to obtain the true viscosity.

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Stopped. Zero position = 50.189 cm.

The time given when the motor is reversed is the time at which the cylinder crosses its zero position.

The values obtained in the last column under "Deflection" are plotted against the pressure to obtain the curves shown. The values obtained at the ends of the curves are then converted to arc lengths, which changes them very little, to the zero pressure intercept is added a very small term to account for the refractivity of the air outside the window, and the result compared with the deflection obtained for air, also reduced to arc lengths, to obtain the true limiting value of the viscosity $\gamma_{\!\scriptscriptstyle\! L}$.

To obtain the pressure variation, that is, the value of " α " in the equation

$$
\gamma = \gamma_{0} (1 - \alpha p)
$$

the negative slope of the curve expressed in per cent per atmosphere is added to the refractivity of the vapor expressed in the same units. This last correction is important and constitutes almost the only difference between the present values of "q" and those of Day, who neglected to consider the refractivity. The values used are obtained by plotting the apparent zero position of the cylinder

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against the pressure. The zero position is obtained by averaging the values given in the column headed by "Equilibrium position" instead of taking their differences, as was done to get the deflection. Since the telescope is mounted a little to one side, making an angle of about 13.5^{\circ} with the normal to the window, the variation of the apparent zero position with pressure is appreciable, being about 2 m.m. , and from the slope of this curve and a knowledge of the angles involved the refractivity may easily be computed with an accuracy sufficient for our purpose. The values obtained agree satisfactorily with the one rather doubtful value given in the International Critical Tables for pentane.

The values used for 25° c are:

At other temperatures the values may easily be computed since they are inversely proportional to the absolute temperature.

The calibration constant of the instrument is (1) simply obtained by using the known value of the viscosity of air at 25° C, namely 183.25 $X10^{-6}$.

(11)

The deflections obtained for air are very consistent provided due precaution is taken to remove traces of the vapors which may adhere to the walls of the instrument for some time. For example, the values obtained before and after the four runs at room temperature here given differed by only .006%. A very slow decrease in these values with time has been observed, amounting to about 0.1% in five months and is believed to be due to actual stiffening of the suspension caused by the considerable tension on it, an effect which has been observed by other investigators in similar suspensions.

An estimate of the probable errors in the values of "d" can best be obtained from an examination of the curves given, but an estimate of the accuracy of the absolute values of the viscosity is much more difficult to make as will be seen from the following discussion.

The first measurements on a vapor at low pressures are almost invariably too high, sometimes as much as one per cent higher than the final values. After repeated flushing out of the instrument at a few centimeters pressure, the points are found to lie fairly close to the final curve, but it is only after higher pressures have once been reached that really consistent results are obtained. These initial discrepancies are almost certainly due to impurities, principally air, and various methods of treating the vapors before admitting them to the instrument have been tried,

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but without seeming to have much effect. It is believed that the heavy vapors displace the light gases from the walls and the gases, after being thoroughly mixed with the vapors at the higher pressures, represent only a small percentage impurity and the composition of the vapors will thereafter remain unchanged during the course of the observations.

The initial points are not plotted on the curves, but after consistency has once been established, no observations are discarded and the pressure range is always covered several times. The fact that no difference is observed bet ween points obtained while going *v p* the pressure range from those obtained during the reverse process is strong evidence in support of the above view.

Runs have been taken on both the synthetic and the natural samples of iso-pentane and satisfactory agreement was obtained. The present data on both pentanes were taken from the original synthetic samples upon which Day made his measurements but these values for \mathcal{Y}_P are about 0.2% lower than his. This difference may be due to less efficient methods of removing the air from the vapors in the earlier work, since P_2O_5 was used for a drying agent, from which it is very difficult to remove the air.

The two high points on the iso-pentane curve near saturation are believed to be due to condensation of liquid on the cylinders caused by an attempt to force the

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pressure too high. The discrepancy disappeared after standing for some time at a pressure slightly below saturation.

THE TEMPERATURE CONTROL SYSTEM

The importance of the temperature control system in these experiments can not be over-emphasized. This will be realized more clearly when one remembers that the normal speed of the rotating cylinder is about 6 m.m. per second so that a convection current in the neighborhood of the inner cylinder having a speed of only a half a millimeter per minute may cause an appreciable disturbance, and since the vapors are adsorbed to a very large extent on the walls, a slight local change in temperature may cause large convection currents.

During the measurements at room temperature, the temperature of the entire room was controlled so that the temperature of the instrument seldom varied by more than a tenth degree from the desired value of 25° C. For work at higher temperatures, the instrument is enclosed in felt one inch thick, with only the magnetic clutch and the three legs protruding. The loss of heat from these parts is compensated by heating coils wound directly on them. This compensation need not be accurate because the parts are not directly connected to the cylinder chamber.

Other coils are wound at different heights about

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the cylinder casing with from one to two inches clearance between the casing and the bare wires. A tube extending nearly the full length of the enclosure and made of thin felt, provides a path for the circulating air, which is drawn up through the tube by means of the fan marked "J" in the drawing, and driven down past the heating coils. The fan is driven by a motor from the outside.

A massive copper block $"H"$ contains two holes bored nearly to the bottom, in one of which is placed a Beckman thermometer which can be read from the outside. In the other are mounted the junctions of several copperconstantan thermocouples, their opposites being mounted in small copper tubes soldered to various parts of the instrument. There are two near the top of the cylinder casing. two near the bottom, one on the base plate which is supported directly by the legs, one on one of the legs, and one on the magnetic clutch housing. The thermocouples may be connected by means of switches to a galvanometer on the outside, which has a sensitivity of about 10 cm. per 0.1° difference in the temperature of the junctions. The copper block has a tendency to remain slightly below the mean temperature of the instrument, so that a small current in a heating coil wound on it is sufficient to keep these temperatures very nearly the same. The currents are adjusted in the main heating coils until there is no appreciable temperature gradient along the cylinder casing as shown by galvanometer deflections. These

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four thermocouples are then connected in series to give, together with the thermometer readings, the temperature of the main part of the instrument.

When this adjustment has been made, the expansion tubes "K" provide an automatic control. These are filled with xylol in contact with mercury at the top which closes a relay circuit by making contact with a needle adjusted at the proper height in the small upper tube. The relays increase or decrease the current in the heating coils by only a small amount. This arrangement does not permit the temperature to vary by more than 0.1° during a run provided the outer magnets on the magnetic clutch are kept going, while this variation can be measured to 0.01° .

A double mica window permits observations on the inner mirror through the felt wall.

THE VAPOR PURIFICATION SYSTEM

The vapor to be studied is first frozen down and sealed on at "A" and the entire system evacuated. Cock no. 1 is then closed and the material distilled over into the fractionating column " B " where it is fractionated using ice in the reflux chamber " 0 ", the first components being drawn off occasionally through the cock and removed by the pumps. The principal purpose of the column is to separate the air but it, of course, will also help to separate any other impurities including water. It is a recent addition and has

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been used only in the case of carbon tetrachloride.

The trap $"E"$ is then immersed in liquid air and a slow stream of vapor permitted to pass through the drying tubes and freeze out in "E" at very low pressures. The drying tubes are filled with $Mg(ClO_{\mu})$, $3H_2O$ which is supposed to be nearly as efficient as P_{Q_c} and has the advantage of never losing its crystalline form since it takes up the water to form the hexahydrate. It can be renewed simply by heating in vacuum by means of the furnace $"D"$.

When sufficient material has collected, cocks 1, 2, 3, and 4 are closed and the trap allowed to warm up. The vapor is then admitted or withdrawn from the instrument at will through cock no. 2. Cock no. 3, leading to the Mccleod gauge, is not essential but provides a parallel path to the pumps through cock no. 5 which speeds up the pumping considerably since the metal cocks have only a small opening.

Since pressures in the instrument are sometimes required above the saturation pressure at room temperature, provision must be made to heat the system extending from cock no. 1 to the instrument. The connecting tubing has been wound with resistance wire, the trap can be put in hot water, and the other cocks and the spiral pressure gauge $"F"$ are enclosed in a felt box which can be heated to any desired temperature. The pressure of air on the outside of the spiral is made nearly equal to the pressure in the instrument

(17)

by means of cock no. 6.

The loop of copper tubing "G", aside from its purpose of preventing lateral forces on the top of the instrument, also prevents any cool vapor from entering the instrument directly, which may cause internal temperature gradients. The fan, copper block, and felt housing are supported from the ceiling so that no excess weight will be acting on the pier.

MEASUREMENTS AT 100°C

The standard formula for the rotating cylinder (3) apparatus is: $\gamma = \frac{\pi \Theta I (b^2 - a^2)}{a^2 b^2 P^2 \rho}$

where Θ is the angle of deflection; I , the moment of inertia of the suspended system; b and a, the radii of the outer and inner cylinders; P, the natural period of the suspended system; ℓ , the length of the inner cylinder; and Ω , the angular velocity of the rotating cylinder. For a given gas, we may, therefore, write for any temperature $\frac{t}{c}$:

 $\gamma_t = \gamma_{15} \frac{\theta_t P_{25}^2 (1 + a.25)}{2}$ where **a** is the linear coefficient of expansion of the cylinders, and the angular velocity is the same at the two temperatures.

The periods are measured in vacuum in order that the moment of inertia will not be affected by gas moving with the cylinder and to reduce the damping coefficient.

(18)

The period is found to be independent of the amplitude within the accuracy of measurement, which indicates that the rate of drift is truly proportional to the deflection so that it will have no first order effect upon the period but only increases the damping coefficient. The effect of the damping coefficient upon the period is about .002 $\%$. Since the drift rates are not the same at the two temperatures, the deflections must be reduced to zero time interval by means of the known drift rates before applying this formula.

We obtain in the case of air, the following values.

> L Θ_{25} = 55.933 cm. P_{25} = 150.574 sec. $L \theta_{\text{100}} = 67.991$ $P_{\text{top}} = 152.487$ $a = 2.0 \times 10^{-5}$ per degree for bronze. ^L**is**

the mirror-to-scale distance.

This gives for air

$$
\gamma_{\rho\rho} = 216.88 \times 10^{-6} \text{poises}
$$

$$
S = 111.7
$$

where the Sutherland constant S is obtained from the Sutherland formula:

$$
\gamma = \frac{AT^{3/2}}{S+T}
$$

The above results are in good agreement with those obtained by capillary tube methods.

Using this value of $\gamma_{\mu\rho}$, the vapor viscosities can be obtained in the same way as before by comparing the deflections with those for air after the same time interval.

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The interval used in these measurements is six minutes.

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SALPLE OF DATA

Deflection

82.035 1 8 .085 63.95 temp. . Ol 63.94

The data at 100[°] are not quite so consistent as those taken at room temperature, partly because the drift rate is much larger and partly because the temperature variations are more rapid. The three high points on the CCL curve were taken in succession at the end of the **run** and are not believed to be as reliable as the others because a slight leak was found in one of the stop-cocks later.

The curves do not represent viscosity until after the correction for the refractivity of the vapor has been applied and this in some cases nearly doubles the magnitude of the slope.

NUMERICAL RESULTS

Representing the viscosity by means of the equation

 $\gamma = \gamma_0 (1 - \alpha p)$
where p is the pressure in atmospheres, and obtaining the values of these constants from the curves in the manner previously described, the following results are obtained.

(21)

$$
100^{\circ} \, \text{C} \, .
$$

It will perhaps be more instructive to refer the slope of the curves to molecular density instead of to the pressure, so that the values at different temperatures will be on a more comparative basis. If we write

$$
\gamma = \eta_0 \left(1 - \alpha' \rho \right)
$$

where \sum is the density referred to the density at 0° C. and one atmosphere pressure, α' may be obtained from the above values by means of the relation

$$
\alpha' = \frac{T}{273} \alpha
$$

The deviations from ideal gas laws will affect the last figures by not more than three units, and are here neglected.

Values of 100 α'

It will be seen that, for both temperatures, the values of γ are in the order in which we might have predicted them, those hydrocarbons for which we should expect, from the structural formula, the least cross-section, having the largest viscosity.

The values of Sutherland's constant S given in the second table are computed from the equation $\gamma_{0} = \frac{A T^{3/2}}{S + T}$ but this equation is not expected to hold at these low temperatures except in the case of air. This is born out by the unusu ally low values given, S being for most substances slightly higher than the critical temperature, and the critical temperatures for normal and iso-pentane are 470° and 461° K respectively. In fact, Rappenecker, from measurements on isopentane at 100° C and 212° C by the capillary tube method, finds the value

 $S = 500$

However, his value for γ , 88.51X10⁻⁶ at 100°C, and atmospheric pressure, is 4% higher than mine. The difference seems to be too large to attribute to experimental error and may possibly be due to incomplete separation of air in his case. No other values are listed for these materials.

The most important contribution, however, of the present investigation is the establishment of the negative slopes of the viscosity pressure curves, a condition which persists at temperatures much higher than the boiling point, whereas, all previous measurements, save those of Day, have been made on gases and show a positive slope. The present measurements suggest that probably all vapors act in the same way at sufficiently low temperatures, and one can not help but remark upon the parallel behavior of the second virial coefficient as related to pressure. The hypothesis (5),(6) has been advanced that (-9) is very closely connected with, perhaps equal to, Van der Waal's coefficient b, but it seems to behave more like the virial coefficient of which bis only a part. The two must however, be explained on different grounds. It is desirable that the present viscosity theory be analyzed more carefully and extended to obtain the first order pressure effect. It is suggested that triple collisions may play an important role, and that molecular association may be present at these low temperatures, undetected by compressibility measurements alone. Such investigations may throw more light upon the process of condensation. In

this connection it is of interest to note that no departure from linearity is observed near saturation in any of the curves.

One would like to extend these observations to obtain the temperature dependence of α more closely and over a wider range, as well as of $\frac{\gamma}{k}$, and perhaps to go to higher pressures but with the instrument in **its** present condition, **it** is not considered safe to go much above atmospheric pressure, and the upper limit of temperature is probably about 150° c where the accuracy will be much reduced because of the increased suspension drift. Some knowledge of the effect of temperature on α may be obtained however, by examining other materials representing different stages of the transition from a gas to a vapor, and such observations would of course, also have many other values.

 $25.35.25$

Credit for the success of the work **is** largely due to Dr. R. A. Millikan, under whose supervision it has been carried out, and to Dr. R_1 . K_2 . Day and Mr. Julius Pearson for the excellence of the design and construction of the instrument.

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