I. THE THERMODYNAMIC CONSTANTS OF IODINE MONOCHLORIDE, IODINE MONOBROMIDE AND BROMINE MONOCHLORIDE IN CARBON TETRACHLORIDE SOLUTIONS

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THE THERMODYNAMIC CONSTANTS OF IODINE MONOCHLORIDE, IODINE MONOBROMIDE AND BROMINE MONOCHLORIDE IN CARBON TETRACHLORIDE SOLUTIONS

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The iodine monochloride solution was prepared by adding a small excess (1%) of iodine to a carbon tetrachloride solution of chlorine of known concentration. tributing appreciably to the total vapor pressure. All reagents were of the highest

{CONTRIBUTION FROM GATES CHEMICAL LABORATORY, CALIFORNIA INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY, No. 372]

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The Thermodynamic Constants of Iodine Monochloride, Iodine Monobromide and Bromine Monochloride in Carbon Tetrachloride Solutions

BEST DE BY CHARLES M. BLAIR, JR., AND DON M. YOST

Introduction

The changes in free energy, heat content and entropy of most reactions have been determined for only a single environment. In order to facilitate future studies on the relations between reactions taking place both in the gas phase and in solutions the determination of the thermodynamic constants of iodine monochloride, iodine monobromide and bromine monochloride in carbon tetrachloride was undertaken. The solvent, carbon tetrachloride, was chosen so that the resulting solutions would be as nearly perfect as possible. The constants for iodine monochloride,¹ iodine mono-

(:1) McMorris and Yost, Tms JOURNAL, **H,** 2247 (1932).

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bromide, 2 and bromine monochloride3 have been previously determined for the case in which all substances are present as gases.

In order to obtain the desired thermodynamic quantities, measurements were made on the partial vapor pressures of iodine monochloride and chlorine above their carbon tetrachloride solutions, on the heats of solution of iodine and bromine, and on the heats of formation of iodine monochloride, iodine monobromide and bromine monochloride when present in carbon tetrachloride solutions.

Experimental Method and Preparation of Materials

The vapor pressures of iodine monochloride and chlorine above their solutions in carbon tetrachloride were determined at 25° by a dynamic method, similar in most respects to that described by Bichowsky and Storch.⁴ Dry nitrogen was forced from a rubber balloon through the solutions at a rate of about one liter per hour, and the volume delivered was determined by weighing the water used to deflate the balloon.⁵ The iodine monochloride was absorbed in a sodium sulfite solution and the resulting iodide was determined by titration with standard permanganate solution according to the method described by Swift.⁶ Preliminary experiments showed that no appreciable excess of either iodine or chlorine was present in the vapor. This was to be expected since iodine monochloride is only slightly dissociated (0.42%) at room temperature, and because a small excess (1%) of iodine was present in the solutions. In the experiments with chlorine the gas was absorbed in potassium iodide solution and the liberated iodine was titrated with standard thiosulfate.

The iodine monochloride solution was prepared by adding a small excess (1%) of iodine to a carbon tetrachloride solution of chlorine of known concentration. The small excess of iodine decreased the dissociation of the iodine monochloride without contributing appreciably to the total vapor pressure. All reagents were of the highest purity obtainable.

The calorimeter used consisted of a 1.5 liter Dewar flask equipped with an insulating cover, an electrically operated stirrer, a heating coil of platinum wire, and a Reichsanstalt Beckmann thermometer. The Dewar flask was surrounded by ample insulation and the whole enclosed in a wooden box.

In determining the heats of solution of iodine and bromine, weighed amounts of these substances were added to about one liter of carbon tetrachloride contained in the calorimeter. The halogens were contained in easily breakable glass bulbs attached to a glass rod passing through the cover. After the temperature rise of the calorimeter had become constant, the bulb was broken and the temperature change observed at regular intervals until the slow, steady rise resulting from the stirring again set in. In determining heats of reaction the carbon tetrachloride was replaced by a solution of chlorine or bromine in this solvent, and the concentrations were such that an excess was always present, thus making corrections for incomplete reaction unnecessary, except in the case of bromine monochloride. The heat capacity of the calorimeter was determined by passing a measured electric current through the heating coil for a known length of

⁽²⁾ McMorris and Yost, THIS JOURNAL, **53,** 2625 (1931).

⁽³⁾ The results, ohtained by P. Murdoch, Philip Brass and Don M. Yost, have not yet been published, but are presented in the theses of the two former investigators. At room temperature a light absorption method was used (P. M.) and at higher temperatures advantage was taken of the reversible dissociation of nitrosyl chloride (P. B.) and phosgene (D. M. Y.).

⁽⁴⁾ Bichowsky and Storch, THIS JOURNAL, **37,** 2696 (1915).

⁽⁵⁾ For further details see McMorris and Badger, *ibid.,* **55,** 1952 (1933).

⁽⁶⁾ Swift, *ibid.*, **52**, 899 (1930).

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time. The temperature changes accompanying solution or reaction varied from 0.120 to 0.300°. $=$ 1010 σ

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Results of the Vapor Pressure Experiments.-In Table I are presented the results of the experiments on the partial vapor pressures at 25.0° of iodine monochloride above its solutions in carbon tetrachloride, together with the values for the constant of Henry's law $p_{mm.}/N_{\text{IC1}} = H_{\text{IC1}}$. The pressures, p_{mm} , are given in millimeters and concentrations, N_{ICI} , in mole fractions. fractions.

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PARTIAL PRESSURES OF IODINE MONOCHLORIDE ABOVE ITS CARBON TETRACHLORIDE S OLUTIONS AT 25.0°

With the exception of the first two, all vapor pressures are the mean of several determinations. The concentrations cover a twelve-fold range while the values of H_{ICI} are practically constant with an average deviation from the mean of 1% . Henry's law is evidently obeyed quite closely. This was also found to be the case for iodine monobromide.⁷

Table II presents the partial pressures of chlorine above its carbon tetrachloride solutions at 25.0° together with the Henry's law constant, $p_{\rm mm.}/N_{\rm Ch} = H_{\rm Ch}$ • $\,$ nodus ni sbroldsonom snimord bus sbimordonom

TABLE II

PARTIAL PRESSURES OF CHLORINE ABOVE ITS CARBON TETRACHLORIDE SoLUTIONS AT 25.0°

The average deviation of the constants from the mean in this case is 4% , and is to be ascribed to the fact that the vapor pressures are high, thus making the attainment of equilibrium less certain. As will appear later, the free energy change attending the solution of chlorine as calculated from these results is in good agreement with that obtained from solubilities and distribution experiments.

With the aid of the above results, data obtained from the literature, and the well-known thermodynamic relation $\Delta F^{\circ} = -RT \ln K$, the free energy of formation of iodine monochloride in carbon tetrachloride solution may be calculated.

(7) Yost, Anderson and Skoog, THIS JOURNAL, 55, 552 (1933).

(8) Sec Reference 2 and Lewis and Randall, "Thermodynamics," McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1923, p. 522.

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Hence

 $\frac{1}{2}I_2(in + CCl_4) + \frac{1}{2}Cl_2(in CCl_4) = ICl(in CCl_4), \Delta F_{298}^{\circ} = -4018 \pm 50$ cal. (5)

It is seen that the standard free energy decrease attending reaction (5) is greater than that for reaction (1), although the difference is not large. In the case of iodine monobromide the free energy changes for the corresponding reactions differ by only 50 cal.⁷

The standard free energy change attending reaction (3) , -555 cal., is **very nearly that calculated from solubility measurements,** $9 - 546$ **cal., and** does not deviate greatly from the value, -515 cal., obtained by Lewis and Randall *(loc. cit.,* p. 502) from the solubility of chlorine in water and distribution ratios.

The equilibrium constant for reaction (5) is 812 at 25.0°, and is independent of the units used to express the concentrations since there is no change in the number of molecules when the reaction takes place. The degree of dissociation of iodine monochloride in carbon tetrachloride solution at 25.0° is 0.25% , while in the gas phase it is 0.42% .

Results of Thermochemical Measurements.-In Tables III, IV, V, VI and VII are presented representative results of the measurements on heats of solution and formation of iodine, bromine, iodine monochloride, iodine monobromide and bromine monochloride in carbon tetrachloride.

TABLE III

HEAT OF SOLUTION OF IODINE IN CARBON TETRACHLORIDE AT 25°

 $I_2(s)$ in $g.$ /
liter CCl₄ liter CCI, 4.270 5.060 5.275 5.277 5 . 366 5 . 519 5 . 618 5.645 5.748 6.246 6.661 Heat of soln. in cal./mole I₂ $-5970 -6060 -5950 -5910 -5960 -6010 -6090 -5990 -5900 -6180 -5910$ $Mean$ -5990 ± 60 cal.

TABLE IV

HEAT OF SOLUTION OF BROMINE IN CARBON TETRACHLORIDE AT 25° Br₂(1) in g./liter CCl₄ 8.109 10.938 11.525 Heat of soln., cal./mole $Br₂$ -730 -698 -710 Mean -712 ± 10 cal. 14.362 -705 14.965 -718

These results show that the heats of solution of iodine and bromine, are within the limits of experimental error, independent of the final concentration attained, and hence the heats of dilution are small. This behavior is to be expected of solutions which are perfect or nearly perfect.

TABLE V

HEAT OF FORMATION OF IODINE MONOCHLORIDE IN CARBON TETRACHLORIDE SOLUTION $\frac{1}{2}I_2(N \text{ CCl}_4) + \frac{1}{2}Cl_2(N \text{ CCl}_4) = ICI(N \text{ CCl}_4)$

(9) Taylor and Hildebrand, THIS JOURNAL, 45, 682 (1923).

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Since the measurements on the heats of formation of iodine monochloride, iodine monobromide and bromine monochloride were carried out by adding solid iodine or liquid bromine to solutions of chlorine or bromine in carbon tetrachloride, it was necessary, in arriving at the values given in Tables V, VI and VII, to take into account the heat of solution of the iodine **and** bromine given in Tables III and IV. It was assumed, in accordance **with** the results of the experiments on heats of solution, that the heats of dilution involved are small. Moreover, since the halogens and interhalogen compounds are similar in nature, and since there is no change in the number of molecules accompanying the formation of the interhalogen compounds, the small heats of dilution in all probability cancel each other. The results given in Tables V, VI and VII may therefore be regarded as partial molal heats of reaction.

In Table VII the values for the heat of formation of bromine monochloride in carbon tetrachloride have been corrected for the degree of dissociation as calculated from the mean, 0.3, of the equilibrium constants found by Barratt and Stein¹⁰ for the reaction 2BrCl(in CCl₄) = Br₂(in CCl₄) + $Cl₂(in CCl₄).$ $=$ $\frac{1}{2}$

In making the measurements of this heat of formation it was found that the reaction involved is a relatively slow one. After adding the bromine to the solution of chlorine in carbon tetrachloride, from ten to fifteen minutes was required for the temperature to reach a maximum, whereas for the analogous reactions to form iodine monochloride and iodine monobromide four to six minutes was required.

It is not convenient to determine directly the heat of solution of chlorine, and this quantity was calculated from the data of Taylor and Hildebrand⁹ on the temperature variation of the solubility of the gas in carbon tetrachloride. This quantity, -3720 cal., is, of course, the partial molal heat of solution, but will not differ greatly from the total heat of solution since the solutions are nearly perfect. A similar calculation for the case of iodine gave a result which compared favorably with the values given in Table III.

(10) Barratt and Stein, Proc. Roy. Soc. (London), A122, 582 (1929).

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The following chemical equations together with the corresponding changes in free energy, heat content, entropy and degree of dissociation *a* may be written

In each case the entropy change is smaller than for the corresponding gas reaction, 1.36 cal./deg., 1.51 cal./deg. and 1.11 cal./deg., respectively.

Further, the following equations may be written

Hence

 $ICl(g) = ICl(in CCl_4)$ and $\Delta H_{298}^{\circ} = -6993$ cal.

and since $\Delta F_{298}^{\circ} = -763 \text{ cal.}, \ \Delta S_{298}^{\circ} = -20.9 \text{ cal.}/\text{deg.}$ If the value 59.2 cal , deg.^1 is used for the standard absolute entropy of gaseous iodine monochloride at 25.0° the absolute entropy of the compound in carbon tetrachloride solution becomes 38.3 cal./deg. This value refers to a hypothetical solution in which the mole fraction of iodine monochloride is unity. Similarly

Hence

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 $IBr(g) = IBr(in CCl_4)$ AH₂₉₈ = -8140 cal.

and since $\Delta F_{298}^{\circ} = -1124$ cal., $\Delta S_{298}^{\circ} = -23.5$. The standard absolute entropy of gaseous iodine monobromide¹¹ at 25° is 62.0 cal./deg., and the absolute entropy in carbon tetrachloride solution becomes 38.3 cal./deg. Here again the standard state is a solution in which the mole fraction of the compound is unity.

To obtain the entropy of bromine monochloride in carbon tetrachloride solution, we write the following equations

(11) W. G. Brown, *Phys. Rev.,* **42,** 365 (1932), has found spectroscopically that for the reaction $\frac{1}{2}$ l₂(g) + $\frac{1}{2}$ Br₂(g) = IBr(g), ΔH = -1372 cal. This value, combined with the equilibrium data of McMorris and Yost,² leads to the free energy equation $\Delta F^{\circ} = -1372 - 1.51$ T. It is believed that this spectroscopic value for ΔH is a bit more accurate than the one obtained from the variation of the equilibrium constant with temperature, -1270 cal. The entropy of IBr(g) now becomes 62.0 cal. /deg. at 25° and one atmosphere.

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Hence

 $\frac{1}{2}Br_2(g) + \frac{1}{2}Cl_2(g) = BrCl(in CCl_4)$ $\Delta H_{298}^{\circ} = -5677$ cal.

and since $\Delta F_{298}^{\circ} = 15$ cal.,¹⁰ $\Delta S^{\circ} = -19.1$ cal./deg., and the absolute entropy of bromine monochloride in carbon tetrachloride solution becomes 36.9 cal./deg. when the standard absolute entropies of gaseous bromine¹ and chlorine¹ are taken as 58.63 cal./deg. and 53.31 cal./deg., respectively, at 25.0°.

The Thermodynamic Constants of the Halogens and Interhalogen Compounds in Carbon Tetrachloride Solution.-The results of the determinations and calculations made, together with the entropies of the gaseous halogens and interhalogen compounds, are presented in Tables VIII and IX in a conveniently usable form.

THERMODYNAMIC CONSTANTS OF THE GASEOUS HALOGENS AND INTERHALOGEN CoM-POUNDS AT 25[°]

^a These are the standard absolute entropies of the substances given in the first row of the table. T_{ADI} IV

Free energy 2660 389 1110 -2133 -153 393

Heat content 5990 712 -3720 -2835 1721 -1882

Entropy⁴ 39.1 36.8 37.1 38.3 38.5 36.9 Entropy⁴ 39.1 36.8 37.1 38.3 38.5 36.9 ^a These are the standard absolute entropies of the substances given in the first row of the table.

(12) In Table IV of the article by McMorris and Yost the values for the free energies and entropies of ICl(g). ICl(l) and ICl(s) in the last three columns are in error. The error arose from using **twice.** the free energy value for the reaction $1/2I_2(s) = 1/2I_2(g)$ instead of the correct one of 4620 cal. The cor**rected values given in this paper were obtained by using the spectroscopically determined free energy** equation $\Delta F^{\circ} = -3280 - 1.36$ *T* for the reaction $1/2I_2(g) + 1/2C_2(g) = IC(g)$, since it is in essential **agreement with that determined from equilibrium measurements and is probably less subject to error.**

(13) The equilibrium constant obtained by Murdoch (Ref. 3) for the reaction $2Br(1(g) = Br_2(g)$ $+$ Cl₂(g) is 0.12, and this value was used to calculate the above free energy change.

(14) In the case of both iodine monochloride and iodine monobromide it was found that the heats of formation of the gaseous compound from the gaseous elements are about 20% less than those for the corresponding reactions with all substances in carbon tetrachloride; accordingly, the heat of the reaction $1/2Br_2(g) + 1/2Cl_2(g)$ = BrCl(g) was assumed to be 300 cal., and the above heat content and entropy calculated using this value.

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It will be noted that the entropies of both the halogens and the interhalogen compounds in carbon tetrachloride solution do not differ greatly from each other; this is not the case for the gases.

Summary

The partial vapor pressures of iodine monochloride and chlorine above their carbon tetrachloride solutions have been measured and from the results, combined with those of other investigators, the free energy of formation of the monochloride in solution has been calculated.

Determinations of the heats of solution of iodine and bromine in carbon tetrachloride and the heats of formation of iodine monochloride, iodine monobromide and bromine monochloride in the same solvent have been made. These data were combined with the known free energy values to obtain the thermodynamic constants of the halogens and interhalogen compounds in their carbon tetrachloride solutions. The values are collected in Table IX, and in Table VIII are presented the corresponding data for the same substances in the gas phase.

It was found that the reaction between bromine and chlorine in carbon tetrachloride solution is appreciably slower than the corresponding reactions between iodine and chlorine and iodine and bromine.

" These are the statistical absolute entropies of the substances given in the first row

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-3260 $-$ 1.36 T for the reaction $M(M) + (gM)N$ = 1CM(g), since M al fa as continued

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II.

THE EQUILIBRIUM BETWEEN NITRIC OXIDE, BROMINE

Alm NITROSYL BROMIDE

[CONTRIBUTION FROM GATES CHEMICAL LABORATORY, CALIFORNIA INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY, NO. 418] **The Equilibrium between Nitric Oxide, Bromine and Nitrosyl Bromide**

BY CHARLES M. BLAIR, JR., PHILIP D. BRASS AND DON M. YOST

Introduction

The formation of nitrosyl bromide from nitric oxide and bromine is of considerable interest because, kinetically, the reaction is one of very few third order homogeneous gas reactions. Since the reaction is readily and measurably reversible, **it** would be possible to predict the rate of decomposition of nitrosyl bromide if the standard free energy change as a function of the temperature were known accurately. Moreover, the reaction may find application in the study of other reversible reactions involving bromine or nitric oxide.

Fig. 1.-Reaction cell and auxiliary apparatus (not to scale).

The equilibrium has been studied by Trautz and $Dalal,$ ¹ but due to the manometer system which they used the results are not very accurate. Moreover, they postulate the existence of nitrosyl dibromide, NOBr₂, and nitrosyl tribromide, NOBr₃, although Dixon's² results with nitrosyl chloride do not indicate the existence of the corresponding chlorine compounds, which would be expected to be more stable. The experiments described in this paper were undertaken to determine accurately the equilibria in the reaction between nitric oxide and bromine to form nitrosyl bromide.

- (1) Trautz and Dalal, *Z . anorg. allgem. Chem.,* **110,** 1 (1920).
- (2) Dixon, *Z . physik. Chem.,* Bodenstein Festband, 679 (1931).

Preparation of Materials and Experimental Method

The bromine was prepared by treating a saturated solution of twice recrystallized potassium bromate and potassium bromide with c. P. concentrated sulfuric acid. The bromine was distilled from this mixture and then dried over specially purified anhydrous calcium bromide. The material was finally twice distilled from fresh portions of anhydrous calcium bromide, the middle fraction of the last distillation being that used in the experiments. At no time did the bromine come in contact with rubber or other organic matter, since an all-glass distilling system was used.

The nitric oxide used was prepared by a slight modification of the method described by Johnston and Giauque,³ and was of high purity.

A preliminary series of equilibrium measurements was made using a reaction vessel of about 300 cc. capacity heated in an electric furnace, but the apparatus described below was finally adopted in order to decrease the errors due to external volume and temperature gradient.

The apparatus is shown diagrammatically in Fig. 1. V is a Pyrex reaction vessel of 1054.7 cc. capacity at 22°. G is a thermostat containing either water or molten hydrogenated cottonseed oil. The reaction vessel was connected to a Pyrex glass click-gage F and to the side-arm B by means of capillary tubing. A weighed amount of bromine to be used in a run was held in a tube C having an easily breakable tip. Eis a glass enclosed iron hammer, and D a solenoid for operating it.

Several equilibrium measurements were made at different temperatures with each filling of the reaction vessel. In carrying out such a series of measurements the reaction vessel was first heated and evacuated for several hours. A convenient pressure of nitric oxide was then admitted at H and the system sealed off at A. The pressure of nitric oxide in the reaction vessel was determined by use of the click-gage and manometer M. By means of liquid air the nitric oxide was condensed in the tube J; the bromine bulb was then broken with the magnetic hammer and the bromine also allowed to condense in J. The side-arm was then sealed off at A and its volume (about 3 cc.) was determined. The pressure of nitric oxide in the reaction vessel was corrected for the small change in volume. After mixing the nitric oxide and bromine by alternately freezing and evaporating them several times, the thermostat was put in place, adjusted to some definite temperature, and pressure readings were taken until the system reached equilibrium. The thermostat was then readjusted to other temperatures and a number of measurements of equilibrium pressures at various temperatures were made, equilibrium being approached from both the low and high temperature sides. From these pressures and the known amounts of nitric oxide and bromine originally present in the reaction vessel the equilibrium con-

⁽³⁾ Johnston and Giauque, THIS JOURNAL, **61,** 3194 (1929).

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stants for the reaction $2NO(g) + Br_2(g) = 2NOBr(g)$ were calculated for each temperature.

The temperature of the thermostat varied not over ± 0.1 ° at temperatures up to about 200° and not over ± 0.2 ° above that. The temperature was measured by means of calibrated mercury thermometers kept totally immersed. The mercury manometer used was 12 mm. in diameter and by means of a vernier the pressure readings were made to within ± 0.1 mm.

Five separate fillings of the reaction vessel were made, three with an excess of nitric oxide and two with an excess of bromine. In Table I are presented representative results of these runs. Only every third measurement is given in the table. The equilibrium constant for the

*^a*All pressure measurements are given in millimeters of mercury at 22°.

reaction $2NO(g) + Br₂(g) = 2NOBr(g)$ is given by the expression

$$
K_{\rm mm.} = \frac{4 \Delta p^2}{(\rho_{\rm NO}^0 - 2 \Delta p)^2 (\rho_{\rm Br2}^0 - \Delta p)}
$$

where p_{NO}^0 is the pressure of nitric oxide which would exist at the temperature in question if no reaction had taken place, p_{Brz}^0 the corresponding pressure of bromine and Δp the difference between p_{NO}^0 + p_{Brz}^0 and p, the observed pressure.

The results are shown graphically in Fig. 2, where the logarithm of the equilibrium constant is plotted against the reciprocal of the absolute temperature. The shape of the curve gives no evidence for the existence of nitrosyl dibromide or nitrosyl tribromide in the gas phase at temperatures as low as 12°, even in the presence of a large excess of bromine.

The error in the pressure measurements was ± 0.1 mm., but since pressure differences are involved in the expression for the equilibrium constant, the error in this quantity may be $\pm 4\%$, corresponding to an error of about 2% in log K at room temperature and less above that temperature. Because of the number of experiments made, the probable error in any equilibrium constant must be below $\pm 2\%$, corresponding to an error in the heat content change accompanying the reaction of $\pm 0.5\%$. The error in the free energy change calculated from the equilibrium constant at 25 \degree is $\pm 1\%$.

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All of the results obtained with the large capacity equilibrium apparatus are presented in Table III. *

Table III

 \# For a complete table of results obtained with the 300 cc. capacity reaction vessel see P. D. Brass, Dissertation, The California Institute of Technology, 1932.

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Contractor

Table III (continued)

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No correction was made for the small volume of the click-gage and capillary tubing which were out of the thermostat and at approximately room temperature. This volume was about one cubic centimeter and the correction due to this dead space would make a negligible difference in log *K* below 450°K. but may be as much as -1% at temperatures around 500°K.

When the results of the experiments are combined with specific heat data, the following expression for the standard change in heat content and free energy accompanying the reaction $2NO(g) + Br₂(g) = 2NOBr(g)$ are obtained

 $NO(g),$ ⁴ $C_p = 7.922 - 0.00441 T + 6.30 \times 10^{-6} T^2$ $Br_2(g)$,⁵ $C_p = 7.710 + 0.00415 T - 3.7 \times 10^{-6}T^2$ $NOBr(g)$,⁶ $C_p = 5.07 + 0.0163 T - 12.9 \times 10^{-6}T^2$

Whence

 $\Delta C_p = -13.41 + 0.0372 T - 34.7 \times 10^{-6} T^2$ ΔH^0 = -8780 - 13.14 *T* + 0.0186*T*² - 11.6 × 10⁻⁶*T*³ ΔF^{0} = -8780 + 30.88 *T* $\log_{10}T$ - 51.26*T*

 $-0.0186T^2 + 5.8 \times 10^{-6}T^3$

These expressions are valid in the temperature range 250-600°K.

Directly from the experimental curve and independent of specific heat data, we obtain

(4) Constructed from the data of Johnston and Chapman, Tms JOURNAL, **55,** 153 (1933) .

(5) Constructed from the data of Gordon and Barnes, *J. Chem.* Phys., 1, 694 (1933).

(6) In the absence of experimental data for nitrosyl bromide the equation given by Eastman, Bureau of Mines, Technical Paper, 1929, for the specific heat of sulfur dioxide was used.

The error in the measure measurement approximate since pressure differences volved in the expression for the equilibrium stant, the crive in this unembirs, and the

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neale, the probable error in any opportunity constaff must be below =2%, corresponding to cion un the heat content change accompanying the rendring of each and the transmitted in the experience of mort between to agreed your

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$$
\Delta H_{298.1}^{0} = -11,430 \pm 60 \text{ cal.}
$$

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$$
\Delta F_{298.1}^{0} = -2790 \pm 30 \text{ cal.}
$$

\n
$$
\Delta S_{298.1}^{0} = -29.0 \pm 0.3 \text{ cal./deg.}
$$

This last value, combined with the known entropies of bromine⁷ and nitric oxide,⁴ gives for the standard virtual entropy of NOBr, $S_{298.1}^0 = 65.2$ \pm 0.3 cal./deg. When the free energy change for the reaction studied is combined with that for the formation of nitric oxide, $20,650$ cal., 8 the standard free energy of formation of nitrosyl bromide gas from the elements in their standard states at 25° becomes 19,260 cal.

Summary

The equilibrium in the reaction $2NO(g)$ + $Br₂(g)$ = NOBr(g) has been measured in the temperature range from 273.1 to 520°K. From the results of the measurements the following thermodynamic equations have been derived for the reaction

 $\Delta H^0 = -8780 - 13.41 T + 0.0186 T^2 - 11.6 \times 10^{-6} T^3$ ΔF^0 = -8780 + 30.88 *T* log₁₀ *T* - 51.26 *T* $-$ 0.0186 T^2 + 5.8 \times 10⁻⁶ T^3

At 25° the free energy of formation of NOBr(g) from the elements is 19,260 cal. The virtual entropy of $NORr(g)$ at 25° and one atmosphere is $65.2 \pm 0.3 \text{ cal.}/\text{deg.}$

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For the equilibrium $2NO + Br₂ = 2NOBr$ we have the relations:

$$
-d(Br_2)/dt = k_f(NO)^2(Br_2)
$$

$$
-d(NOBr)/dt = k_d(NOBr)^2
$$

At equilibrium

 $2d(Br_p)/dt = d(NOBr)/dt$

therefore, $2k_f = k_d \frac{(NOBr)^2}{(NO)^2 (Br_0)} = k_d K$

 $k_d = 2k_f/K$ or,

where k_f is the specific reaction rate constant for the formation of NOBr, k_d the specific reaction rate constant for the decomposition of NOBr and K the equilibrium constant for the above written reaction. Trautz⁽¹⁾ has measured the rate of formation of NOBr at three different temperatures; using his values of k_{f} and values of K obtained from Fig. 2 {the units of K must be changed to cc. per mole) we may calculate three values of k_d and two values of dlnk d/dT . The results of these calculations are shown in Table IV.

TABLE IV

Τ	$\frac{k_{\mathbf{f}}}{(\texttt{Trautz})}$	logK	k_{d}	log kg
265	3.0x10 ⁹	7.18	398	0.030
273	$3.0x10^{9}$	6.94	692	0.060
279	4.8×10^{9}	6.78 1590		

Applying the simple Arrhenius equation to these results we may obtain a rough value for the heat of activation of the decomposition reaction.

d In
$$
k_d/dT = q/RT^2
$$
 (Arrhenius)

Taking the mean of the d log k_d/dT values of Table IV and assuming the same value at $T = 300^{\circ}K$, we find

 $q = 19,000$ cal. $\pm 6,000$ cal.,

an approximate value for the heat of activation involved in the decomposition of nitrosyl bromide.

III.

THE INFRA-RED EMISSION SPECTRUM OF THE

BUNSEN TYPE FLAME

THE INFRA-RED EMISSION SPECTRUM OF THE BUNSEN TYPE FLAME

INTRODUCTION

In many cases it has been found difficult or impossible to obtain desired absorption spectra in the photographic infra-red without employing impracticably long absorption paths. The present work was undertaken with the object of determining whether or not, in some instances, it might be possible to obtain the desired spectra in emission. It was thought that by making long exposures., and thus utilizing the integrating effect of the photographic plate, that even very weak emission spectra might be recorded.

Since the absorption spectrum of water vapor has been well studied, it seemed desirable to study the emission spectrum of this molecule in particular since the results would afford a good comparison of the methods. The Bunsen flame seemed a likely source in which to find the rotation-vibration spectrum of water and, perhaps also, OH molecules. It was hoped that, in addition to the information got in regard to the relative value of absorption and emission methods of obtaining spectra, a more accurate determination of the molecular constants and energy levels of these molecules might be made.

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Numerous studies of the light emitted by the Bunsen flame have been made⁽¹⁾, but previous investigations have been concerned almost entirely in the analysis of the bands found in the visible and ultraviolet regions of the spectrum. These investigations have shown that the banded emission in these regions is due to OH , C_2 , CH and perhaps CH_2 molecules in the flame. The spectra of the $CO₂$ and H₂O molecules have been found in the far infra-red $(1 - 7\mu)$ emission spectrum.⁽²⁾ The photographs taken during the present investigation cover the relatively unexplored region of the spectrum extending from λ 6500A. to λ 10,200A.

EXPERIMENTAL

The source used in the present experiments was a bank of eight "Fisher" burners mounted in a line and fed with natural gas. The air inlets were adjusted to give a hot, non-luminous flame with a short, blue inner cone. Most of the photographs were taken using a Bausch and Lomb spectrograph, Littrow type, with a glass prism, and having a dispersion of about 40 Angstrom units per millimeter in the region around λ 9500A. This spectrograph was not designed for use in the region of the spectrum beyond A6800A, and so required special adjustments of the angle and distance between the prism face and plate holder to bring the region investigated into focus on the plate. The Barium spectrum, obtained from an arc between hollow carbon rods packed with BaCl2, was used as a comparison spectrum on all plates taken with the prism

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spectrograph. For high dispersion work the first order of a 6 meter focal length,concave grating having 15,000 lines to the inch and a dispersion of approximately 2.4 A. per mm. was used. In this case the second and third order iron arc spectra were used for comparison. Photographs were taken on Eastman Infra-Red spectroscopic plates supersensitized in 4% ammonia solution. With the prism spectrograph, $\exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}x\right)$ sure times varied from 2 to 12 hours. With the grating spectrograph from 36 to 48 hours were required for a satisfactory photograph.

RESULTS I

Photographs taken with the prism spectrograph showed several strong bands in the region between λ 7000%. and 1.02μ . Intense heads with bands extending away on the red side were observed at λ 7112A., λ 8919.2A. and λ 9280.5A., and in addition several moderately intense bands with predominantly strong Q branches were observed in the region between λ 8000A. and λ 8700A. The bands at λ 7112A. and λ 9280.5A. were very similar in appearance and more intense than the others. Their rotational structure showed regularly spaced lines, suggesting that a diatomic molecule was the emitter (see Plate I). After measurement, however, they were identified with bands appearing the absorption spectrum of water vapor, with centers at A7228A. and A9420A., respectively. The regularity in the rotational structure is due to the predominant intensity of the close doublets arising from the transitions $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & \frac{C}{2} & -C \\ 0 & 1 & C \end{pmatrix}$, ~ $(y_{j+1}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{pmatrix} j-j \\ j \end{pmatrix}$, using asymmetrical top notation. $J+U_{-j} \rightleftharpoons J-(j-1)$

The bands at λ 8229A. and λ 8919A. also were identified with known water vapor absorption bands. Mecke's analysis of the absorption spectrum (4)
analysis of the absorption spectrum shows bands with centers at λ 8227A. and λ 9062A., and it is to these two that the above mentioned bands correspond. In the present case, since the bands are observed in emission and from a relatively high temperature source, their general appearance is quite different from the appearance of the same bands observed in absorption. Transitions between levels of high rotational energy occur, the band heads appear and the centers of gravity of the bands have been moved toward the red. The rotational structure of each band extends over a region of the spectrum about three times as great as that so far observed in absorption.

The bands near and including the one at λ 8227A. are of particular interest since some of them have been identified as arising from transitions not involving the ground level. Table I gives the wave length, frequencies and intensities of the main lines observed in this region. In column four of Table I are given the assignments only for the Q branches. Many of the other lines have been identified with lines appearing in the absorption spectrum of the A8227A. band.

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Most of the frequencies given are the mean of measurements made on three different plates and have a probable error of about one wave number. Plate II shows the appearance of these bands as photographed with the prism spectrograph.

TABLE I

Summary of Main Lines Appearing on Low Dispersion Photographs Taken in the Region λ 8000A. to λ 8700A.

Mecke's analysis of the 000-+121 absorption band (see Meche's paper⁽⁴⁾for the notation used in connection with the vibrational quantum numbers) shows several strong lines forming an intense Q branch at A8227A. The strong

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line at A8229 (see Table I) is consequently assigned to the Q branch of the 121->000 emission band. The relatively strong lines at λ 8293A. and λ 8358.5A. do not correspond to lines observed in absorption spectra; since these lines form, with the line at λ 8229, a series of three almost equally spaced lines of regularly diminishing intensity it is believed that they belong to the Q branches of bands arising from transitions involving the same change in quantum numbers (121) as the λ 8229 band but having different initial and final states. The assignments made, as shown in Table I, are to the transitions $122 \rightarrow 001$ and $123 - 002.$

From the wave length of these lines forming the sequence $121 \rightarrow 000$, $122 \rightarrow 001$ and $123 \rightarrow 002$ we may obtain a quantity involving three of the interaction constants appearing in the energy equation for water. (5) This equation is of the form

$$
W(V_1V_2V_3) = X_0 + X_1V_1 + X_2V_2 + X_3V_3 + X_{11}V_1^2 + X_{22}V_2^2
$$

+
$$
X_{33}V_3^2 + X_{12}V_1V_2 + X_{13}V_1V_3 + X_{23}V_2V_3
$$
 (1)

where the X's are constants and the V's are the vibration quantum numbers. From (1) we find

$$
\mathbb{V}(122 \to 001) - \mathbb{V}(121 \to 000) = 2X_{33} + X_{13} + 2X_{23}
$$

or, generally,

$$
W [(V1+1)(V2+2)(V3+2) \rightarrow V1Y2(V3+1)] - W [(V1+1)(V2+2)(V3+1)-V1Y2Y3]= 2X33 + X13 + 2X23
$$

From Table I we obtain

$$
W(123 \rightarrow 002) - W(122 \rightarrow 001) = 94 \text{ cm.}^{-1}
$$

$$
W(122 \rightarrow 001) - W(121 \rightarrow 000) = 93 \text{ cm.}^{-1}
$$

Mean = 93.5 cm.^{-1}

Whence, $2X_{33} + X_{13} + 2X_{23} = 93.5$ cm.⁻¹

From a theoretical treatment of the vibrational spectrum of water, Bonner⁽⁵⁾obtains values of the interaction constants which yield for the same sum the value 97.8 cm.^{-1} . While the difference in these two values is greater than corresponds to the experimental error in the measurement of wave lengths, it is still small enough to be absorbed by changes of the order of 5% in each of the three constants involved. The near agreement of the sums seems to confirm the assignments given, and in addition would appear to indicate the general correctness of Bonner's treatment and to show with what accuracy the positions of bands arising from transitions between higher vibrational levels may be estimated by the use of his energy equation.

RESULTS II

Because of the large amount of rotational structure appearing in the emission spectrum it seemed of some interest to study one of the bands under high dispersion.

Consequently, the most intense, λ 9420A., band was photographed in the first order of the 6 meter grating. The photographs obtained are shown in Plates III and IV. The figures below the strong lines are the values of j for the final state in the transitions $\begin{cases} (j+\nu)_{(j+i)} = j_{-j} \\ (j+\nu)_{-j} = j_{-(j-i)} \end{cases}$

which give rise to these prominant lines. The wave lengths, frequencies and estimated relative intensities of some of the lines appearing in the band are given in Table II. In column four of Table II are given the rotational quantum number assignments for the strong lines. These assignments were made by use of the approximate expression for the notational energy of the nearly coincident pair of energy levels, j_{j} and $j_{-(j-1)}$, (6) taking for z' the value given by Mecke.⁽⁴⁾ Except for low j values, the frequencies calculated by the approximate equation did not correspond to the observed frequencies; the discrepancy was found to be approximately proportional to i^2 (for the upper state). so very little difficulty was had in making the assignments. For lines with j less than 8, assignments have been made by Mecke.

From the intensities of the close doublets arising 'from the transitions $\begin{pmatrix} \dot{y}^{+1} \\ \dot{y}^{+1} \end{pmatrix}$, we may calculate the $\begin{pmatrix} \dot{y}^{+1} \\ \dot{y}^{+1} \end{pmatrix}$, $\begin{pmatrix} \dot{y}^{+1} \\ \dot{y}^{+1} \end{pmatrix}$, we may calculate the effective "rotational" temperature of the excited water molecules in the flame. The transitions correspond to the

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Some Lines from the λ 9420A. Water Vapor Band (Plate III)

 \overline{a}

TABLE II (continued)

single transition $(j-1)_{(j-1)} \rightleftharpoons j_j$ in the symmetric top; and since the doublets are unresolved for all but quite low j values, it is assumed that the symmetric top intensity formulas may be applied without serious error. Dennison⁽³⁾ gives the following formula for the intensity of an emission line in the spectrum of a symmetric rotator:

$$
T_{j^*,\kappa'}^{j,\kappa'} = \text{Rg}_{j^*,\kappa} \exp\left[-W_{j^*,\kappa'}\left/\kappa T\right]\left(A_{j^*,\kappa'}^{j^*,\kappa'}\right)^2\right.
$$

Primes indicate quantities belonging to the upper state, double-primes, quantities belonging to the lower state. R is, to a first approximation, a constant for a given band, $g_j'_{k'}$ is the quantum weight of the initial level, $W_{i'k'}$ is the energy of the rotator in the initial state and $(A_{\boldsymbol{j}',\boldsymbol{\kappa}'}^{j',\kappa'})^{\mathbb{Z}}$ is the probability of the transition in question.

$$
g_{jk} = (2j+1) \qquad \kappa = 0
$$

\n
$$
g_{jk} = 2(2j+1) \qquad \kappa \neq 0
$$

\n
$$
(\lambda_{j,j}^{j+j})^2 = (2j-1)/8(2j-1)
$$

For the P branch, the intensity of a line is given by

$$
\mathbf{I}_{j,j}^{j\text{-}i,j\text{-}1} = \frac{\mathbf{R}(2j\text{-}1)^2}{4(2j\text{+}1)} \exp\bigl[-\sigma j(j\text{-}1) - \sigma \beta (j\text{-}1)^2\bigr] \tag{1}
$$

where, $\sigma = \frac{hc(A \quad B)}{2kT}$

$$
\ell = \frac{2C}{(A-B)} - 1
$$

$$
A = \frac{h}{8 \pi^2 c I_A}; \qquad B = \frac{h}{8 \pi^2 c I_B}; \qquad C = \frac{h}{8 \pi^2 c I_C}
$$

Where I_A , I_B and I_C are the three principal moments of inertia ($I_A < I_B < I_C$). In the above equations the quantity A, which appears in the symmetric rotator energy formula, has been replaced by the quantity $\frac{1}{2}(A+B)$ to which it corresponds in the asymmetric rotator.

Differentiating equation (1) with respect to j and solving for the temperature in terms of j_m , where j_m is the final j value for the line of maximum intensity, we obtain

$$
\frac{dI_{j,j}^{j+j,i}}{dj} = \frac{R}{4} \Big[\frac{(2j+1)4(2j-1) - 2(2j-1)^2}{(2j+1)^2} \Big] \exp \Big[- \sigma j(j-1) - \sigma (j-1)^2 \beta \Big]
$$

$$
- \frac{RC(2j-1)^2(j-1)}{(2j+1)(A+B)} \exp \Big[- \sigma j(j-1) - \sigma \beta (j-1)^2 \Big] = 0
$$

whence,

$$
T = \frac{(2j_m-1)^2(j_m-1)(2j_m+1)}{4j_m(j_m+1) - 3} \cdot \frac{hcC}{k}
$$
 (2)

The photometer record of the P branch shows the line of maximum intensity to be at $j = 10$. Substituting this value of j_m in equation (2) we obtain for the effective rotational temperature of the water molecule in the flame the value $T = 1990^{\circ}K$.

Since this value is in good agreement with values for the temperature of the Bunsen flame, $\binom{7}{7}$ it is concluded that the water vapor is practically in thermal equilibrium with the flame.

As regards the relative value of absorption and emission methods of obtaining spectra in the photographic infra-red it is concluded that little real advantage over an absorption spectrum is got by obtaining the same spectrum in emission. With the best photographic plates obtainable at the present time, the general fog developed during the long periods of exposure required practically offsets any advantage gained in intensity of the bands themselves. However, due to their high temperature source, emission spectra do show transitions between higher vibrational levels in addition to large amounts of rotational fine structure involving high j values which are not readily obtained in absorption. For this reason emission spectra may offer particular advantages, especially for the study of the effect of high vibrational and rotational energy on the shape, size and bond force constants of molecules.

SUMMARY

The emission spectrum of the Bunsen flame has been investigated with low dispersion in the region A6500A. to λ 10,200A. Six bands have been observed in this region. Four of the bands have been identified with bands appearing in the absorption spectrum of water vapor. The bands at λ 8293A. and λ 8359A. previously have not been observed. They are also believed to be water vapor bands and are thought to arise from transitions not involving the ground

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level. With data obtained from the positions of these two bands and a third one at λ 8229A., a calculation is made of a quantity involving three of the interaction constants appearing in the energy equation for water. The value obtained differs by about 5% from the value got using the interaction constants calculated by Bonner.

The band at 19420 A. has been photographed with high dispersion. From the distribution of intensities in the band, an estimate of the "rotational" temperature of the water molecules in the flame is made. The temperature obtained, 1990° K, leads to the conclusion that the water is effectively in thermal equilibrium with the flame.

Finally, it is concluded that in general emission spectra in the photographic infra-red show little improvement over the same spectra obtained in absorption. However, since emission spectra show transitions between high vibrational and rotational levels, they may find particular use in the study of the effect of vibrational and rotational energy on the physical constants of molecules.

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