

Table 3. Worldwide deposition of strontium-90 computed from New York City rainfall analyses.

Date	Cumulative N.Y.C. (mc/mi ²)	Worldwide deposition (Mc)		
		Cumul. N.Y.C. × 0.055	Av. from Table 2	Difference (%)
Dec. 1954	8	0.44	0.35	23
Jun. 1955	14.4	0.79	0.70	12
Dec. 1955	16.9	0.93	0.95	2
Jun. 1956	24.9	1.37	1.07	25
Dec. 1956	27.9	1.54	1.50	3
Jun. 1957	35.9	1.97	1.75	12
Dec. 1957	38.6	2.12	2.00	6
Apr. 1958	43.2	2.38	2.30	3
Jun. 1958	47.4	2.61	2.45	6
Dec. 1958	53.4	2.94	2.85	3
Jun. 1959	72.7	4.00	3.97	1
Dec. 1959	74.3	4.08	4.10	1
Jun. 1960	76.5	4.20	4.45	0
Dec. 1960	76.5	4.20	4.45	6
Jun. 1961	78.7	4.33	4.25	2
Dec. 1961	80.8	4.45	4.85	9
Apr. 1962	87.9	4.83	4.90	1
Dec. 1962	100.8	5.54	5.90	6
Dec. 1963	163.8	9.00	8.26*	9
		Average		6.8

* Computed from previous data plus that from (10) and (11).

worldwide fallout averages of Table 2 is only 20 percent, Fig. 1 was plotted to illustrate the agreement.

To attempt a prediction of the worldwide deposition of Sr⁹⁰ for the entire year of 1964, the fallout of the nuclide in the New York City area must first be estimated. At this time, data for only the first 3 months of 1964 from New York City are available. It has been observed that over the last 9 years, the first quarter of the year has had, on the average, 29 percent of the annual Sr⁹⁰ deposition. Thus, by computation, the total New York City fallout for the first quarter of 1964 is 13 mc/mi², and the anticipated 1964 New York City fallout is 45 mc/mi².

If this value is adjusted to worldwide deposition by use of the DRWN of 0.055, the predicted global fallout for 1964 would be 2.48 Mc.

The results of this study suggest that deposition of nuclear debris on the earth's surface has been relatively systematic when considered on an annual basis.

Regardless of the actual mechanism of transfer of the particles within the stratosphere and through the tropopause, and in spite of the geographical and spatial heterogeneity of the testing programs from year to year, the relationship of deposited Sr⁹⁰ in the New York City area to that on the entire

earth's surface has remained constant. This observation leads to the conclusion that the distribution of debris in the stratosphere does not appreciably affect the ultimate distribution of that material on the ground. Recognizing the well-documented rapid deposition rate of particles in the troposphere, it seems clear that the controlling factor in the final distribution on the earth's surface must be the latitude and longitude at which debris crosses the tropopause. This must be relatively constant to produce the observed results.

Any single fallout collection site could serve as well as New York City as an indicator of worldwide fallout. New York City was chosen for this report because it is the site with the longest continuous documentation of fallout and therefore promises the most accurate average ratio. As an indication of the magnitude of the deposition ratio at other remote locales, Iwo Jima and Adelaide, Australia, were considered. For Iwo Jima a deposition ratio, based upon four years of data (1960-1963), of 0.141 Mc per mc/mi² was calculated. Measurements at Adelaide, Australia, (1959-1963) gave a deposition ratio of 0.438.

Since all but a negligible portion of the debris injected into the stratosphere originated in the Northern Hemisphere, these conclusions are valid only for such conditions. Unquestionably, a test series carried out in the Southern Hemisphere would result in a surface distribution of debris different from that of past years.

However, from a practical point of view, and barring any Southern Hemisphere injections, this method should prove useful for making predictions for the next several years, whether or not there is further testing.

HERBERT L. VOLCHOK

Health and Safety Laboratory,
U.S. Atomic Energy Commission,
New York

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15 June 1964

Raoult's Law Study of Vanadium Pentafluoride in Uranium Hexafluoride

Abstract. *Binary systems of liquid vanadium pentafluoride dissolved in liquid uranium hexafluoride are non-ideal, with negative deviations from Raoult's law in the temperature range 75° to 92°C.*

In order to investigate intermolecular forces between UF₆ and other fluorides, we have studied the solubility of VF₅ in UF₆; hitherto there has been only a limited solubility study of this system by Mears *et al.* (1). We measured the total pressures of six binary solutions (through the whole range of mole fractions) of VF₅ dissolved in UF₆ at 75.4°, 82.0°, and 92.7°C. A comparison of these pressures with ideal total pressures calculated from Raoult's law is given in Table 1 and Figs. 1-4; measurements were made by analysis of equilibrium liquid and vapor samples. Comparison shows that

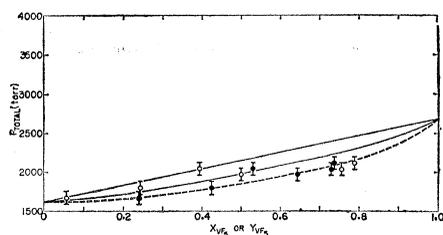


Fig. 1. Raoult's law graph for binary solutions of UF_6 and VF_5 at 75.4°C . X_{VF_5} indicated by open circles and solid line; Y_{VF_5} , by closed circles and dotted line.

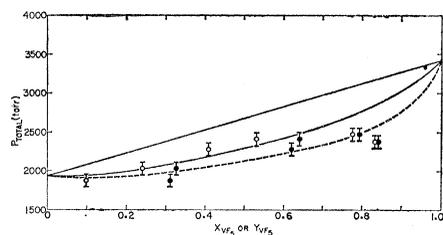


Fig. 2. Raoult's law graph for binary solutions of UF_6 and VF_5 at 82.0°C . As in Fig. 1.

VF_5 and UF_6 formed a binary system, with negative deviations in the temperature range studied; no minimum was observed.

We prepared VF_5 at 700°C by the method of Clark and Emeleus (2), collected the product at 0°C , and purified it to better than 98 percent; VOF_3 was the only remaining contaminant. Six special sample units were placed in an 80-liter metal can which in turn was placed in a 120-liter can insulated with fiber glass. The sampling tempera-

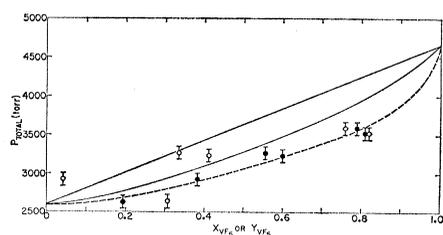


Fig. 3. Raoult's law graph for binary solutions of UF_6 and VF_5 at 92.7°C . As in Fig. 1.

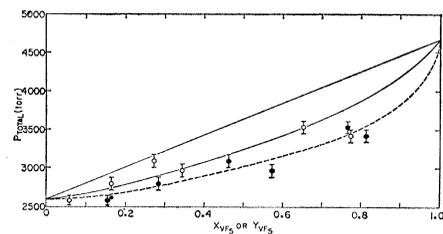


Fig. 4. Raoult's law graph for binary solutions of UF_6 and VF_5 at 92.1°C . As in Fig. 1.

ture was measured with a copper-constantan thermocouple connected to a Leeds and Northrup model G Speedomax recorder. We measured the vapor pressures of the solutions with a calibrated pressure gauge placed on the outlet of a transmitter calibrated to record absolute pressure. Where necessary, all apparatus and materials were rendered inert by treatment with fluorine. After rinsing with VF_5 , the containers were charged with liquid UF_6 , immersed in a mixture of Freon 113 and dry ice, disconnected from the UF_6 transfer system, and allowed to warm to room temperature for weighing; the UF_6 was frozen again in order to add slightly warmed VF_5 . We analyzed the initial withdrawals for both vanadium (3) and uranium (4); since the agreement was excellent, we obtained all other uranium values by difference. We analyzed the vapor samples with a Perkin Elmer model 21 infrared spectrophotometer and a Beckman GC-2 gas chromatograph to within 1.5 percent accuracy. We began measurements at 66.0°C and allowed 6 to 8 days for the samples to equilibrate. Duplicate measurements were made at 66.2° and 92.1°C ; as a check, random samplings were made at the other temperatures. In each case 20 days separated duplicate or check measurements.

A theoretical vapor pressure for UF_6 and VF_5 was calculated from the equations of Oliver *et al.* (5) and Trevorrow *et al.* (6), respectively; the data for 66°C were not included because of the large, random scatter. This scatter may have resulted from a lack of equilibrium, since the temperature was only 2 degrees above the melting point of UF_6 . The sealed system prevented visual observation of the sample, but the presence of undissolved solid UF_6 was unlikely. A graph of the data in Table 1 indicates some scatter which may be related to the liquid-vapor equilibration, since it cannot be attributed to errors in analyses or pressure measurements, or both.

The greatest deviations occur in the region of 0.8 mole fraction VF_5 where the vapor curve approaches the liquid curve but cannot form a confluence, since no minimum is observed. These deviations cannot be attributed to non-ideality of UF_6 vapors which Ackley (7) found to be nearly an ideal gas in this temperature range. The negative deviations indicate the presence of strong intermolecular forces, an anal-

Table 1. Total experimental and theoretical pressures of binary solutions of VF_5 in UF_6 at various temperatures.

Mole fraction, VF_5		Total pressure	
Liquid	Vapor	Exptl. (Torr)	Calcd. (Torr)
75.4°C			
0.787	0.735	2109	2459
.755	.730	2047	2424
.500	.643	1968	2150
.391	.530	2038	2032
.241	.423	1799	1871
.059	.240	1654	1675
82.0°C			
0.832	0.840	2386	3161
.775	.792	2468	3078
.531	.640	2419	2722
.407	.620	2278	2540
.239	.327	2042	2296
.098	.310	1881	2090
92.7°C			
0.820	0.810	3505	4283
.760	.790	3598	4158
.411	.600	3231	3434
.335	.558	3257	3277
.041	.381	2916	2667
.309	.193	2626	3223
92.1°C			
0.773	0.811	3407	4185
.652	.766	3536	3934
.342	.572	2957	3291
.271	.462	3092	3144
.165	.283	2797	2924
.059	.155	2564	2704

ogy to the behavior of UF_6 with AgF and the alkali metal fluorides (other than Li) reported by Seaborg and Katz (8). In these latter cases the forces were strong enough to form a complex salt in the region of 0.25 mole fraction UF_6 . We do not believe (because of the region of maximum deviation and the known ability of UF_6 to form complex salts) that intermolecular forces reflect any interaction between UF_6 and VF_5 , although Clark and Emeleus (2) have shown that pure VF_5 is probably associated and self-ionizing.

REYNARD C. SHREWSBERRY

Union Carbide Nuclear Company,
Paducah, Kentucky

BORIS MUSULIN

Chemistry Department, Southern
Illinois University, Carbondale

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20 July 1964

Vapor Pressure of Ice Containing D₂O

Abstract. *The vapor pressures of solid D₂O and ice containing D₂O in various amounts were measured with an oil manometer. The result gives the lowest vapor pressure for D₂O ice ever obtained. The observed value for ice with different proportions of D₂O and H₂O agreed well with the values calculated on the assumption that the vapor pressure of HDO is the geometrical mean of those of H₂O and D₂O and that the equilibrium constant of isotopic exchange is 4. The fractionation factor of D between ice and vapor phases increases from 1.128 at 0°C to 1.210 at -38°C.*

Vapor pressure of ice consisting of heavy water and light water in various proportions was measured in the temperature range from 0° to -38°C. Water samples of 3 ml each were degassed and frozen at different temperatures in freezing mixtures made of water, ethyl alcohol, carbon tetrachloride, dichloroethane, and dry ice. The vapor pressure was measured with an oil

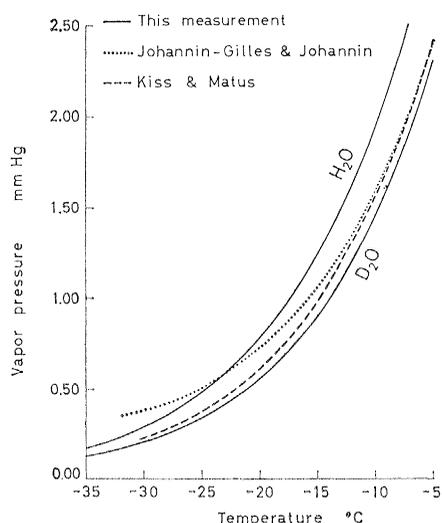


Fig. 1. Vapor pressure of D₂O and H₂O ice.

manometer (oil, dioctyl sebacate). The temperature of each freezing mixture was determined with a low-temperature standard thermometer (sensitivity, 0.01°C) (1). The vapor pressure and density of the oil were, respectively, 5×10^{-8} mm-Hg and 0.916 at 25°C; the density of the oil was corrected for the temperature change. The height of the meniscus of the manometer was determined with a cathetometer, which permits the reading of the pressure to 0.001 mm-Hg.

To check the accuracy of the measurement, the vapor pressure of the ice from ordinary water was determined. The results agreed well with previous values (2) within the experimental error of ± 0.01 mm-Hg.

Then the vapor pressure of ice from pure heavy water (D₂O) was determined. The sample of heavy water used was of the concentration of 99.65 percent (mole) (manufactured by Showa Denko Co., Tokyo). The results differ from those of Johannin-Gilles and Johannin (3) especially in the lower temperature range (Fig. 1 and Table 1). The results of Kiss and Matus (4) are close to our values though they are still a little higher than ours (2 to 9 percent). Based on the result of our measurement, the relation between the vapor pressure of D₂O ice and temperature (°K) is expressed by the following empirical equation.

$$\log P = -(2783.66/T) + 10.7478$$

The vapor pressure of the ice containing other proportions of D₂O was measured in the same way. Five samples which consisted, respectively, of 10, 30, 50, 70, and 90 percent of the heavy water (by volume) were prepared for this purpose (Table 2).

The vapor pressure P is regarded as a sum of those of H₂O, HDO, and D₂O in ice as follows:

$$P = M_{H_2O}P_{H_2O} + M_{D_2O}P_{D_2O} + M_{HDO}P_{HDO}$$

where P_{H_2O} , P_{HDO} , and P_{D_2O} are vapor pressures of pure ice phase of H₂O, HDO, and D₂O, and M denotes the molar fraction of each component. The vapor pressure P_{HDO} was estimated under the assumption that it is represented by the assumption that it is represented by the geometric mean of P_{D_2O} and P_{H_2O} . This assumption was proved valid (5) for the gas-liquid phases. The mole fraction of HDO was calculated by assuming that the equilibrium constant of isotopic exchange of H and D is 4.

The calculated values for P are given in Table 2. The fairly good agreement between the calculated and observed

values suggests the validity of the foregoing assumptions for ice too.

From these results the fractionation coefficient α of deuterium between water vapor and ice phases at different temperature was calculated by

$$\alpha = (D/H)_{\text{sol}} (D/H)_{\text{vap}} = P_{H_2O}/P_{HDO}$$

Table 1. Vapor pressure of D₂O ice.

T (°C)	P _{D₂O} (mm-Hg)
-0.02	3.59
-2.7	2.86
-4.6	2.42
-11.1	1.34
-14.4	0.98
-19.5	0.59
-24.6	0.35
-28.0	0.25
-38.4	0.08

Table 2. Vapor pressure (P) of ice containing heavy water (mm-Hg) at varying ratios of H₂O to D₂O.

Temp. (°C)	P _{obs.}	P _{calc.}
9H ₂ O : 1D ₂ O		
0.00	4.49	4.48
-4.2	3.16	3.15
-12.4	1.55	1.53
-14.5	1.25	1.26
-20.7	0.69	0.70
-24.0	.48	.51
-28.4	.33	.33
-37.9	.12	.11
7H ₂ O : 3D ₂ O		
0.00	4.26	4.28
-3.3	3.22	3.25
-4.4	2.93	2.96
-8.0	2.14	2.15
-10.4	1.68	1.74
-15.1	1.09	1.13
-16.5	0.97	0.99
-27.0	.35	.35
5H ₂ O : 5D ₂ O		
0.01	4.07	4.07
-4.2	2.87	2.86
-10.9	1.58	1.57
-15.6	1.00	1.02
-19.9	0.66	0.67
-23.3	.47	.48
-28.5	.28	.28
-38.0	.10	.10
3H ₂ O : 7D ₂ O		
0.03	3.85	3.87
-4.5	2.64	2.65
-10.5	1.56	1.55
-15.1	1.00	1.01
-19.9	0.62	0.63
-23.0	.45	.46
-27.9	.27	.28
-37.9	.09	.10
1H ₂ O : 9D ₂ O		
0.02	3.68	3.69
-4.3	2.57	2.57
-10.0	1.53	1.52
-15.2	0.93	0.93
-19.2	.62	.63
-23.3	.42	.42
-27.7	.27	.28
-37.9	.09	.09

Table 3. Fractionation factor α of D and H between ice and vapor.

T °C	α
0	1.128
-5	1.137
-10	1.148
-15	1.161
-20	1.174
-25	1.187
-28	1.194
-38	1.210