

# Dielectric Constants of NonPolar Fluids. II. Analysis of Experimental Data

William Fuller Brown

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factorily if the error in the Lorentz local field formula has first been examined in the case in which the other factors are not present, so that there is less danger of attributing to them effects due to it. It also seems to me that the concept of molecular distribution functions is a more fruitful one with which to attack the local field problem than are such concepts as the cybotactic lattice<sup>20</sup> and the classification of molecules as nearest neighbors, next-nearest, and so on.<sup>21</sup>

It is occasionally contended that the local field is  $\mathbb{E}^{.22,23}$  (If this were so, and if the molecular polarizability  $\alpha$  were independent of density, then for a given substance  $(\epsilon-1)/d$  rather than  $(\epsilon-1)/[(\epsilon+2)d]$  should be

independent of density.) The arguments by which this contention is supported involve the supposition that E (interpreted perhaps as the field intensity inside a needle-shaped Kelvin cavity) can be somehow related to the mean field intensity acting on a molecule, without explicit consideration of molecular distribution functions. If this supposition were correct, then in a detailed statistical mechanical treatment the final formulas would turn out to be independent of the molecular distribution functions. This they do not in the present treatment, which is based on a spherically symmetric model of the molecule. It is possible that the distribution functions might drop out in a treatment based on an extreme model such as a needle-molecule, but there is no reason for expecting such a simple result in the case of a realistically anisotropic model.

The empirical finding that  $(\epsilon-1)/d$  is approximately constant for a group of isomers<sup>1</sup> is a different matter, which can be elucidated only by means of an atomic theory of the molecular polarizability.

Experimental data will be analyzed in another article

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## Dielectric Constants of Non-Polar Fluids. II. Analysis of Experimental Data

WILLIAM FULLER BROWN, JR.
Sun Physical Laboratory, Newtown Square, Pennsylvania
(Received April 27, 1950)

Although the formulas of Part I do not apply strictly to actual gases and liquids, they suggest a possibly useful method of analyzing data on the variation of dielectric constant  $\epsilon$  with density d under high pressure at constant temperature. The method is to express  $(\epsilon+2)d/(\epsilon-1)$  as a polynomial in d; the variable terms represent the deviation from the Clausius-Mosotti formula. This method has been tested, and compared with alternative procedures based on more specialized formulas, by analysis of data on carbon disulfide (Chang, Danforth) and on carbon dioxide (Michels and Kleerekoper). It is concluded that the proposed method is an efficient one for representing the data, that the values of the coefficients are consistent with the approximate values estimated from the simplified theory, and that there is no advantage in the use of more specialized formulas. The precision of present  $\epsilon vs$  d data and of present knowledge of molecular distribution functions does not justify any more detailed conclusions.

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

In I<sup>1</sup> under this title, formulas were derived for the dielectric constant  $\epsilon$  of a non-polar fluid under pressures sufficiently high to reveal measurable departures from the Clausius-Mosotti relation. The more reliable of these formulas, some of which were derived earlier by Yvon,<sup>2</sup> require a knowledge of various molecular distribution functions and a triple integration; but by introduction of some reasonable approximations, simplified formulas were obtained that require knowledge only of the radial distribution function  $\rho(r)$  and only a single integration. Even this function is imperfectly known, either theoretically or experimentally, for most

actual fluids; but on the basis of approximations discussed in I, it seems likely that if the data at constant temperature are fitted to a formula

$$\frac{\epsilon+2}{\epsilon-1} = \frac{d_0}{d} - c_0' + c_1' \frac{d}{d_0} - c_2' \left(\frac{d}{d_0}\right)^2 + \cdots, \quad (1-1)$$

where d is the density, the constants  $c_n'$  will be positive and of order of magnitude 1. The constant  $d_0$  should be at least approximately equal to  $3m_0/4\pi\alpha$ , where  $m_0$  is the mass of a molecule and  $\alpha$  its polarizability; the constant  $c_0'$  should be 2 to 4 times the ratio  $\alpha/a^3$ , where a is an effective molecular diameter. These conclusions are consistent with formulas derived by Kirkwood<sup>3</sup> and by Böttcher<sup>4</sup> on the basis of more

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>20</sup> H. Mueller, Phys Rev. **50**, 547 (1936)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>21</sup> G. Jaffé, J. Chem. Phys. 8, 879-888 (1940); Phys. Rev. 57, 558 (1940).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>22</sup> G. B. Brown, Nature 150, 661-662 (1942).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>23</sup> Jatkar, Iyengar, and Sathe, J. Ind. Inst. Sci. 28 A (Pt. II), 1–15 (1946). The starting point of these authors is: "The concept of a dipole is that it is a highly anisotropic body having a needle shape." From a Kelvin cavity calculation they conclude that the local field is E. The resulting formula is stated to be correct "for all liquids, solids, and solutions"

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> William F. Brown, Jr., J. Chem. Phys. 18, 1193 (1950). <sup>2</sup> J. Yvon, Actualités Scientifiques et Industrielles, Nos. 542 and 543 (Hermann et Cie., Paris, France, 1937)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> John G. Kirkwood, J. Chem. Phys. 4, 592–601 (1936). <sup>4</sup> C. J F. Böttcher, Physica 9, 937–944 and 945–953 (1942).

specialized assumptions; their formulas can also be derived from the general formulas of I by methods described there.

The molecules were assumed to be spherically symmetric in their mechanical and electrical properties and to interact electrostatically as point dipoles. For molecules with any resemblance to spherical symmetry these approximations are probably admissible, if the radial distribution function and polarizability are interpreted as averages over all orientations; the neglect of quadruple and higher moments introduces appreciable error only for molecules very close together. But for highly asymmetric molecules, the averaging of the properties of two molecules individually before they are allowed to interact, rather than of the properties of the interacting pair (or of clusters of higher order), no doubt introduces a serious error. Furthermore there are cases in which the electrostatic interactions are so far from being of a dipole-dipole nature that it is not even permissible to regard the molecule as equivalent to a dipole plus a quadruple and so on; this is obviously true of long chain molecules.

For these reasons, Yvon was reluctant to apply his formulas to any substances except monatomic ones and a few others; the number of measurements remaining for analysis was small indeed, and no very conclusive test of the formulas was possible. Kirkwood and Böttcher applied their formulas to cases in which data were plentiful, and by suitable choice of the constants in the formulas succeeded in fitting the data better than by use of the Clausius-Mosotti formula; but this is also no very conclusive test, for Kurtz and Ward<sup>5</sup> accomplished as much by use of purely empirical formulas.

The application to actual liquids and gases of specific formulas based on the spherical molecule is not a step that I wish to defend; but the formulas based on this model do suggest the form (1-1) as a possibly suitable form in which to represent the observed data analytically. If it turns out that the data generally lend themselves to this mode of representation, and if the constants have the orders of magnitudes predicted by the simple theory, then the goal of a more ambitious theory becomes more specific: to calculate the magnitudes of these constants for actual substances. The values of the constants also indicate, more definitely than the original data, to what degree any actual substance departs from the idealized behavior assumed in the simple theory.

I will present here the results of a numerical analysis of representative data, based primarily on the formula (1-1). A direct fit to some of the more specialized formulas has also been made, for comparison. The conclusions are that the more specialized formulas, such as Böttcher's, have no advantage over the general formula (1-1); and that in order to detect and study deviations of the substances studied from the behavior predicted

by the spherical molecule theory, it would be necessary to have available both detailed knowledge of the (average) radial distribution and more precise data on the dielectric constant.

The left member of (1-1) is the reciprocal of the quantity which, according to the Clausius-Mosotti formula, should be proportional to the density. In the right member, therefore, the terms after the first represent the deviation from the Clausius-Mosotti formula. The left member as it stands is the ratio of the Lorentz local field intensity  $E+4\pi P/3$  to  $4\pi P(E=\text{macroscopic electric field intensity}, P=\text{polarization})$ . By subtraction of 1 and division by 3 it becomes  $1/(\epsilon-1)$ , the ratio of the macroscopic field intensity to  $4\pi P$ ; by addition of 2 and division by 3 it becomes  $\epsilon/(\epsilon-1)$ , the ratio of the electric displacement  $D=E+4\pi P$  to  $4\pi P$ . Either of these ratios or any linear combination of them might be used instead of the one chosen here, and essentially only the value of  $c_0$  would be affected.

The calculations reported here were exploratory, and their primary object was to establish satisfactory procedures for analysis of data rather than to carry out an extensive analysis. Only a few sets of data have been analyzed, but they have been analyzed systematically and quite completely. Numerical, not graphical, methods have been used in order that the relative success of different formulas might be judged as accurately as possible; and the estimates of the success achieved take account of the number of disposable constants in each formula.

The special formulas tested, in addition to the general one (1-1), are:

(a) The empirical Eykman formula, (5-19) of I:

$$\frac{\epsilon - 1}{\epsilon^{\frac{1}{2}} + 0.4} = \frac{3}{1.4} \frac{d}{d_0}.$$
 (1-2)

(b) Böttcher's formula, (7-4) of I:

$$\frac{d}{d_0} = \frac{\epsilon - 1}{9\epsilon} \left\{ (2\epsilon + 1) - 2(\epsilon - 1) \frac{\alpha}{a^3} \right\}. \tag{1-3}$$

(c) Formula (5-3) of I for the simple distribution function  $\rho_0(r)$  (Kirkwood's non-attracting spheres):

$$\frac{\epsilon + 2}{\epsilon - 1} = \frac{d_0}{d} - \frac{2\alpha}{a^3} + \frac{15}{16} \frac{d}{d_0} = \frac{d_0}{d} - c_0 + \frac{15}{16} \frac{d}{d_0}.$$
 (1-4)

(d) The higher order approximation (6-8) of I for the same distribution function:

$$\frac{\epsilon + 2}{\epsilon - 1} = \frac{d_0}{d} - c_0 + c_1 \frac{d}{d_0} - c_2 \left(\frac{d}{d_0}\right)^2, \tag{1-5}$$

with

$$c_0 = (2/3) \ln[(1+x)/(1-2x)],$$

$$c_1 = 0.9375 + 1.55257x,$$

$$c_2 = 0.744708,$$

$$x = \alpha/a^3.$$
(1-6)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> S. S. Kurtz, Jr. and A. L. Ward, J. Franklin Inst. **222**, 563–592 (1936); **224**, 583–601 and 697–728 (1937).

The Clausius-Mosotti formula itself is (1-1) with only one term retained. Reference will also be made to the basic theoretical formula from which (1-1) is derived, Eq. (3-10) of I:

$$\frac{\epsilon+2}{\epsilon-1} = \frac{d_0}{d} - 2C,\tag{1-7}$$

where C (not a constant) is given by an integral involving the radial distribution function  $\rho(r)$  and other functions, Eq. (3-9) of I.

Formula (1-4) received more attention in these calculations than it deserves in any subsequent ones. When the calculations were made, the importance of the correction term in Eqs. (5-6) of I was underestimated.

The data will be discussed in the chronological order of the measurements.

#### 2. CARBON DISULFIDE

As representative data on a liquid I have taken the data on carbon disulfide under high pressure at 30°C. Two sets of data have been published, by Chang<sup>6</sup> and by Danforth.<sup>7</sup> Both sets were taken in Bridgman's laboratory; Bridgman<sup>8</sup> states that Chang's, though published later, were taken earlier.

Chang gives 11 values of dielectric constant  $\epsilon$  at known density d; for definiteness I have used the values at frequency 2000 c.p.s.<sup>9</sup> The range of pressure is 1 to 12,000 kg/cm<sup>2</sup>, of density 1.247 to 1.687 g/cm<sup>3</sup>, and of dielectric constant 2.624 to 3.580. An accuracy of 1/10 percent is claimed in the dielectric constant, but it is not stated what precision measure this is (whether standard deviation or "probable error") or how it was estimated. The densities at given pressures are derived from older data of Bridgman.<sup>10</sup>

The first step is to obtain a reliable estimate of the random error in the value of  $\epsilon$  at given d; this can be obtained by least squares analysis of the data themselves. If the function  $\epsilon(d)$  is expressed analytically by means of an approximating function containing s adjustable constants, such as a polynomial of degree s-1, and if the constants are evaluated by a least squares fit to n points (where n considerably exceeds the minimum number s necessary to determine all the constants), an estimate of the variance  $\sigma^2$  of the data (mean square error for many experiments) may be obtained by dividing the sum of the squares of the deviations by n-s.<sup>11</sup> If this process is carried out successive.

<sup>6</sup> Z. T. Chang, Chinese J. Phys. 1, 1-55 (1934).
 <sup>7</sup> W. E. Danforth, Jr., Phys. Rev. 38, 1224-1235 (1931).
 <sup>8</sup> P. W. Bridgman, Rev. Mod. Phys. 18, 1-93 (1946), p. 71.

sively for  $s=1, 2, \cdots$ , then on the average for many repetitions of the experiment the corresponding variance estimates should at first decrease with increasing s and then become constant at a value equal to the actual variance of the data; after this constant value has been reached, further increase in the degree of the approximating polynomial serves only to fit the errors more faithfully and not to give a better representation of the physical relations. In any single experiment, of course, the variance estimates do not decrease in a regular manner with s but exhibit irregular fluctuations superposed on the general decrease to a constant value.

For simplicity it has been assumed throughout that all values of  $\epsilon$  in any one set of data have the same variance  $\sigma^2$ ; the analysis would be only slightly modified if weighting factors were introduced to correspond, for instance, to equal mean square percentage errors in  $\epsilon$  (or in  $\epsilon-1$ ).

When Chang's 11 points are fitted successively by polynomials  $\epsilon(d)$  of degrees 0, 1, 2, 3, the resulting estimates of the standard deviation  $\sigma$  (square root of the variance) of the data are 0.32, 0.019, 0.0058, 0.0063 respectively. We may conclude that a second-degree approximating polynomial is all that is warranted by the data and that the root-mean-square random error in  $\epsilon$  at a specified d is about 0.006. To fit the data within experimental error by use of a polynomial requires only three constants: therefore an equally good fit by means of any other three-constant function justifies no conclusion in regard to the theoretical significance of the function; but if a one- or two-constant formula can be made to fit the data equally well, that result may have significance.

The straightforward method of testing a formula of the form (1-1) is to carry out for the function yd, where

$$y=(\epsilon+2)/(\epsilon-1),$$
 (2-1)

the same procedure just described for the function  $\epsilon$ , but with weights

$$W = \left(\frac{1}{d} \frac{d\epsilon}{dv}\right)^2 \tag{2-2}$$

assigned to the points in order that the quantity minimized may still be the sum of the squares of the deviations in  $\epsilon$ . If this gives an approximating polynomial

$$vd = A_0 + A_1 d + A_2 d^2 + \cdots,$$
 (2-3)

then the constants of (1-1) are

$$d_0 = A_0$$
,  $c_0' = -A_1$ ,  $c_1' = A_0 A_2$ ,  $c_2' = -A_0^2 A_3$ . (2-4)

This procedure applied to Chang's data gives, for polynomials of degrees 0, 1, 2, 3, the estimates  $\sigma = 0.027$ , 0.0063, 0.0064, 0.0068 respectively; the individual deviations for the first three of these are shown in Table I. It must be concluded that only two constants are significant: the data support the form (1-1) or (1-7) as an efficient representation of the relations, and

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> P. W. Bridgman, Rev. Mod. Phys. 18, 1-93 (1946), p. 71.
<sup>9</sup> With correction of an obvious misprint in the value at 5000 kg/cm<sup>2</sup>.

kg/cm<sup>2</sup>.

10 P. W. Bridgman, Proc. Am Acad. 49, 1-114 (1913), Table XI, p. 62

p. 62

<sup>11</sup> E. T. Whittaker and G. Robinson, *The Calculus of Observations*, 4th editon (Blackie and Sons, Ltd., London, 1944), p. 245; A. C. Aitken, *Statistical Mathematics*, 4th edition (Oliver and Boyd, Edinburgh and London; Interscience Publishers, Inc., New York, 1945), p. 116.

€ Dielectric Deviation of  $\epsilon$  from calculated value<sup>8</sup> Density · P0  $P_1$ (1-4)(1-5)1 247 2.624 +0.0439+0.0063+0.0035-0.0427+0.0185+0.0132+0.0088+0.0033-0.0399+0.0105+0.0081+0.00571.297 2.717 +0.0381+0.00472.784 1.336  $\pm 0.0250$ -0.0045-0.0049-0.0448-0.0031-0.0035-0.0044 2.914 +0.0007-0.0310-0.00411.398 +0.0219-0.0001-0.0023-0.00113.005 1.447 +0.0023-0.0125-0.0110 -0.0337-0.0191-0.0163-0.0140+0.01031.487 3,107 +0.0023+0.0041-0.0100-0.0053-0.0021+0.00061.522 3.177 -0.0050 -0.0045-0.0096-0.0136-0.0107-0.0062 -0.00781.565 3.287 -0.0038+0.0042+0.0056+0.0142-0.0012+0.0032+0.0009+0.0051+0.0273+0.00421.603 3.378 -0.0126+0.0046+0.0025+0.00311.647 -0.0243+0.0050+0.0042 $\pm 0.0449$  $\pm 0.0089$ +0.00603.487 -0.0070 -0.00403.580 -0.0456+0.05351.687 -0.0067+0.0075 +0.0027-0.00130.0273 0.0115 0.0063 0.0064 0.0368 0.0089 0.0070 Constants used: 3.09979 3.25939 3.61458 3.31569 4.48135 3.85114 3 68790  $A_0$  or  $d_0$ 0.19558 0.48789  $A_1$  $A_2$ -0.09814 $\alpha/a^3$ 0.66859 0.26476 0.18860

TABLE I. Carbon disulfide at 30°C: data of Chang.

they give clear evidence that a non-vanishing correction term -2C is necessary, but they are capable of yielding only an average value of this correction term for the whole range and are not precise enough to give, by themselves, any reliable information about its variation over the range.

The two-constant fit gives

$$d_0 = A_0 = (3.316 \pm 0.022) \text{ g/cm}^3,$$
  
 $-c_0' = A_1 = 0.196 \pm 0.015.$ 

The uncertainty estimates are standard deviations computed by the usual method<sup>12</sup> from the standard deviation 0.0063 of  $\epsilon$ . The errors in  $A_0$  and  $A_1$  are correlated; the coefficient of correlation (defined as the ratio of the mean product of the two errors to the product of the two standard deviations) is

$$\rho_{01} = -0.9964.$$

The net correction -2C in (1-7) is clearly positive, but its separation into density-independent and density-dependent terms by this method is impossible or at least very uncertain. The three-constant fit gives

$$A_0 = (3.10 \pm 0.26) \text{ g/cm}^3,$$
  
 $A_1 = 0.49 \pm 0.34,$   
 $A_2 = -0.10 \pm 0.12 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g},$ 

with correlation coefficients

$$\rho_{01} = -0.9989,$$
 $\rho_{12} = -0.9991,$ 
 $\rho_{20} = +0.9961.$ 

The signs of  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  are both opposite to what one

would expect from Section 1; but from the indicated standard deviations, there is no overwhelming assurance that the signs are right, even if the measurements are subject only to random error. Systematic error, if present, is not detected by this analysis.

For the same substance, Danforth gives eight points over about the same range; his  $\epsilon$ -values are given only to two decimal places, whereas Chang's are given to three. We may forego the polynomial fit to  $\epsilon$  and proceed to the polynomial fit to yd: degrees 0, 1, 2, 3 give<sup>13</sup>  $\sigma$ =0.067, 0.018, 0.015, 0.018 respectively (see Table II). Again the data are incapable of yielding much information except the average value of the correction to the Clausius-Mosotti formula. The two-constant fit gives

$$d_0 = A_0 = (2.971 \pm 0.068) \text{ g/cm}^3,$$
  
 $-c_0' = A_1 = 0.429 \pm 0.045;$ 

the correlation coefficient of the errors is

$$\rho_{01} = -0.9954.$$

The deviations between these values and those based on Chang's data are well outside the random error: if the samples were identical chemically then at least one set of measurements was subject to systematic error. The three-constant fit gives

$$d_0 = A_0 = (4.1\overline{5} \pm 0.66) \text{ g/cm}^3,$$
  
 $c_0' = -A_1 = +1.17 \pm 0.91,$   
 $A_2 = (0.54 \pm 0.30) \text{ cm}^3/\text{g},$ 

with correlation coefficients

$$\rho_{01} = -0.9990,$$
 $\rho_{12} = -0.9991,$ 
 $\rho_{20} = +0.9964.$ 

<sup>•</sup>  $P_n$ , fit of  $(\epsilon+2)d/(\epsilon-1)$  to polynomial of degree n in d ( $P_0$  is the Clausius-Mosotti formula); E, Eykman formula (1-2); B, Bottcher formula (1-3); (1-4) and (1-5), see these equations in the text.

• Standard deviation of  $\epsilon$  estimated from the deviations on the assumption that the formula is adequate.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> See E T. Whittaker and G. Robinson, reference 11, pp. 241, 246. A similar formula, expressing the mean product of the errors in two unknowns in terms of non-diagonal elements A<sub>1</sub>,, is easily derived: see D. Brunt, *The Combination of Observations* (Cambridge University Press, London, 1917), pp. 116–117.

 $<sup>^{13}</sup>$   $\sigma^2$  is the sum of a term  $\sigma_1^2$  due to experimental error and a term  $\sigma_2^2 = (1/12) \times 10^{-4}$  due to rounding to the second decimal place; the latter is negligible.

TARTE	TT	Carbon	disulfide at	30°C	data	of Danfortl	h
LABLE	11.	Carbon	disumde at	JU U.	uata	or Damoru	1.

d Density	€ Dielectric	Deviation of $\epsilon$ from calculated value*						
g/cm³	constant	$P_0$	$P_1$	$P_2$	E	$\boldsymbol{B}$	(1-4)	
1,241	2.61	+0.042	-0.036	-0.022	-0.037	-0.026	-0.029	
1.291	2.74	+0.074	+0.006	+0.012	+0.003	+0.011	+0.009	
1.332	2.82	+0.070	+0.012	+0.012	+0.008	+0.013	+0.012	
1.394	2.94	+0.057	+0.017	+0.010	+0.013	+0.013	+0.014	
1.487	3.11	+0.014	+0.007	-0.004	+0.004	-0.001	+0.002	
1 550	3.23	-0.022	+0.001	-0.009	-0.001	-0.005	-0.004	
1.601	3.33	-0.055	-0.006	-0.010	-0.004	-0.010	-0.007	
1.689	3.52	-0.111	-0.006	+0.010	+0.003	-0.001	+0.002	
σὶ	)	0.067	0.018	0.015	0.015	0.015	0.015	
stants used	:				-			
$A_0$ or $d_0$		3.61508	2.97082	4.14562	3.27199	3.99702	3.54361	
$A_1$			0.42890	-1.17462	_			
$A_2$				0.54183			_	
$\alpha/a^3$				Prince		0.54132	0.17670	

<sup>\*</sup>  $P_n$ , fit of  $(\epsilon+2)d/(\epsilon-1)$  to polynomial of degree n in d ( $P_0$  is the Clausius-Mosotti formula), E, Eykman formula (1-2), B, Bottcher formula (1-3), (1-4), see this equation in the text.

b Standard deviation of  $\epsilon$  estimated from the deviations on the assumption that the formula is adequate.

### Hence<sup>14</sup>

$$c_1' = A_0 A_2 = 2.2 \pm 1.6$$
.

The constants  $c_0'$  and  $c_1'$  now have the right signs to be identified with  $c_0$  and  $c_1$  in Section 5 of I; the value  $c_1 = 2.2 \pm 1.6$  is consistent with the approximate values 15/16 and 2 derived in I, but the value  $c_0 = 1.17 \pm 0.91$  is larger than the estimate  $2\alpha/a^3 = 1/4$  or  $4\alpha/a^3 = 1/2$  for conducting spheres. These facts are perhaps worth mentioning, but their significance is doubtful. The only conclusions that can be drawn with any certainty are (1) that the deviations from the Clausius-Mosotti formula are significant, (2) that Eq. (1–1) or (1–7) is a satisfactory form for exhibiting the deviations, and (3) that the data are capable only of evaluating  $\alpha$  and a mean value of 2C and not capable of revealing, with any certainty, the variation of C with density.

If, however, some knowledge of the general nature of this variation is provided by theory, the data may be capable of discriminating between various specific possibilities. Thus if a one- or two-constant formula is fitted to the data, and if the variance of the data is estimated as before, agreement of this estimate with the one obtained by use of polynomials of various degrees indicates that the formula is capable of fitting the data within experimental error. If the formula has a theoretical basis, the theory must be regarded as at least pragmatically successful; if it has no theoretical basis, it may still be useful as an empirical representation of the data. If it significantly fails to meet this test, it must be rejected.

The data already discussed have been fitted in this

manner to several formulas; in each case such weighting factors were used that the quantity minimized was the sum of the squares of the deviations in  $\epsilon$ . In the case of a formula such as (1-4), where the constants do not enter linearly, it is necessary to use a successive approximation method: provisional values of the constants are used to compute the deviations; the linear equations connecting the first-order changes in these with the changes in the constants are used in a leastsquares adjustment of the constants;15 the new values of the constants are used to compute (directly, without approximation) new values of the deviations; and so on, until successive approximations coincide. In each case  $\sigma^2$  is estimated by dividing the sum of the squares of the deviations in  $\epsilon$  by n-s, where n is the number of points and s the number of constants; values of  $\sigma$  are therefore directly comparable for one- and two-constant formulas, whereas the deviations themselves would not be.

Chang's data on carbon disulfide at 30°C, when treated thus, yield the following estimates of  $\sigma$  (cf. Table I): Clausius-Mosotti formula (fit of yd with polynomial of degree 0, see above), 0.027; Eykman formula (1–2), 0.037, actually worse than Clausius-Mosotti; Böttcher's formula (1–3), 0.012; formula (1–4), 0.0089; formula (1–5), 0.0070. In view of the discrepancies between Chang's and Danforth's data, it is quite possible that the improvement on going from (1–4) to (1–5) is fortuitous.

Danforth's data on the same substance at the same temperature give for  $\sigma$  (see Table II): Clausius-Mosotti, 0.067; Eykman, 0.015, better in this case; Böttcher and formula (1-4), both 0.015. His data on the same substance at 75°C give: Clausius-Mosotti, 0.044; Eykman, 0.017; Böttcher and formula (1-4), both 0.007. The data at the two temperatures were treated independently.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup> The standard deviation  $\sigma_c$  of  $c_1'$  is calculated from those of  $A_0$  and  $A_2$ ,  $\sigma_0$  and  $\sigma_2$ , and from their coefficient of correlation  $\rho_{20}$ , by means of the formula  $\sigma_c^2 = A_0^2\sigma_2^2 + 2\rho_{20}A_2A_0\sigma_2\sigma_0 + A_2^2\sigma_0^2$ . This formula is obtained from the first-order formula for the error in a single experiment,  $\Delta c_1' = A_0\Delta A_2 + A_2\Delta A_0$ , by squaring and averaging over many experiments. The correlation between the errors in  $A_0$  and  $A_2$  has therefore been taken into account; but since the error in  $A_2$  is almost as large as  $A_2$  itself, the first-order formula is not very reliable.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup> See E T Whittaker and G. Robinson, reference 11, p. 214.

TABLE III. Carbon dioxide at 50°C: data of Michels and Kleerekoper.

_ d .								
Density Amagat <sup>b</sup>	Dielectric constant	P <sub>0</sub>	$P_1$	P <sub>2</sub>	P <sub>3</sub>	E E	В	(1-4)
24.28	1.02486	-0.00029	-0.00065	-0.00002	+0.00016	-0.00054	+0.00010	-0.00027
34.86	1.03578	-0.00046	-0.00097	-0.00011	+0.00012	0 00083	+0.00005	-0.00045
44.37	1.04566	-0.00062	-0.00125	$-0\ 00022$	+0.00005	-0.00110	-0.00003	-0.00063
61.20	1.06343	-0.00078	-0.00163	0.00033	-0.00003	-0.00147	-0.00009	-0.00084
72.09	1 07513	-0.00080	-0.00177	-0.00035	-0.00004	-0.00162	~0.00009	-0.00091
81.93	1.08574	-0.00085	-0.00194	-0.00041	-0.00011	-0.00181	-0.00014	-0.00102
92.19	1.09712	0 00067	-0.00187	-0.00026	+0.00002	-0.00175	+0.00002	-0.00090
104.99	1 11124	-0.00063	-0.00197	-0.00029	-0.00003	-0.00189	-0.00001	-0.00095
116.87	1.12444	-0.00061	0.00207	-0.00035	0.00014	-0.00204	-0.00008	-0.00103
143.31	1 15457	-0.00024	-0.00029	-0.00022	-0.00011	-0.00202	+0.00002	0.00089
157.11	1.17057	+0.00001	-0.00177	-0.00013	-0.00008	-0.00195	+0.00009	0.00078
174 50	1.19098	+0.00034	-0.00155	-0.00003	-0.00006	-0.00184	+0.00016	-0.00063
200.97	1.22261	+0.00091	-0.00111	+0.00016	+0.00001	-0.00160	+0.00028	-0.00035
231.23	1.25991	+0.00197	-0.00015	+0.00072	+0.00046	-0.00086	+0.00076	+0.00037
258 13	1.29328	+0.00242	+0.00027	+0.00074	+0.00041	-0.00063	+0.00070	+0.00055
303.98	1.35175	+0.00322	+0.00116	+0.00087	+0.00050	-0.00003	+0.00071	+0.00098
324 61	1.37793	+0.00279	+0.00083	+0.00019	-0.00014	-0.00046	+0.00001	+0.00044
350.40	1.41189	+0.00288	+0.00109	+0.00006	0.00020	~0 00028	-0.00016	+0.00047
373.61	1,44240	+0.00233	+0.00075	-0.00059	-0.00076	-0.00064	-0.00083	-0.00006
395.02	1.47205	+0.00281	+0.00148	-0.00009	-0.00015	+0.00012	-0.00032	+0.00053
419.83	1,50571	+0.00205	+0.00106	-0.00067	-0.00059	-0.00019	-0.00088	+0.00002
444.32	1.54043	+0.00212	+0.00152	-0.00022	-0.00001	+0.00049	-0.00040	+0.00047
470.70	1.57801	+0.00160	+0.00151	-0.00008	+0.00025	+0.00081	-0.00019	+0.00055
490.64	1.60671	+0.00095	+0.00130	-0.00002	+0.00037	+0.00094	-0.00008	+0.00051
520.11	1.64971	-0.00032	+0.00078	+0.00013	+0.00051	+0.00108	+0.00016	+0.00039
549.90	1.69318	-0.00272	-0.00074	-0.00032	-0.00011	+0.00045	-0.00019	-0.00048
572.36	1.72744	-0.00381	-0.00109	+0.00045	+0.00037	+0.00095	+0.00065	-0.00015
595 89	1 76244	-0.00658	-0.00299	+0.00003	-0.00053	+0.00009	+0.00030	-0.00116
σ°		0 00221	0 00146	0,00039	0.00033	0 00123	0.00040	0.00070
Constants used:								
$A_0$ or $d_0$		2920 52	2877.82	2959.87	2988.37	2893.57	2977.49	2927.23
$A_1$			0 0899206	-0.348629	-0.638717	_		_
$A_2 \times 10^4$				5.30918	13.7168			
$A_3 \times 10^8$		_		_	-736745		_	_
$lpha/a^3$			grange.	_	_		0.23604	0.08722

<sup>•</sup>  $P_n$ , fit of  $(\epsilon+2)d/(\epsilon-1)$  to polynomial of degree n in d ( $P_0$  is the Clausius-Mosotti formula); E, Eykman formula (1-2); B, Bottcher formula (1-3),

(1-4), see this equation in the text.

b The Amagat unit is so chosen, for each substance, that the density is unity at  $0^{\circ}$ C and atmospheric pressure.

c Standard deviation of  $\epsilon$  estimated from the deviations on the assumption that the formula is adequate.

Chang's 75° data, fitted with formula (1-4), give  $\sigma$ =0.0076, as compared with 0.0088 at 30°, the data at each temperature being treated independently. When the whole group of data is fitted to a single curve the fit is appreciably worse:  $\sigma$ =0.0098.

#### 3. CARBON DIOXIDE

As representative data on a gas at high pressure, I have used the data of Michels and Kleerekoper<sup>16</sup> on carbon dioxide at 49.71°C. Here there are 28 points, the number of points and the precision of the data are sufficient to yield more conclusive results than in the previous cases. The polynomial fit to yd gives, for degrees 0, 1, 2, and 3,  $\sigma$ =0.0022, 0.0015, 0.00039, and 0.00033 respectively (see Table III). The improvement by going from degree 1 to degree 2 is clearly significant, and the improvement from degree 2 to degree 3 probably so (the deviations for degree 2 show a systematic trend; see Table III). Degree 2 (3 constants) gives

$$d_0 = A_0 = 2959.9 \pm 4.8 \text{ Amagat},$$
  
 $c_0' = -A_1 = 0.349 \pm 0.024,$   
 $A_2 = (5.31 \pm 0.28) \times 10^{-4} \text{ Amagat}^{-1},$ 

with correlation coefficients

 $\rho_{01} = -0.9656,$   $\rho_{12} = -0.9849,$   $\rho_{20} = +0.9090,$ 

whence

 $c_1' = A_0 A_2 = 1.571 \pm 0.086.$ 

Degree 3 (4 constants) gives

 $d_0 = A_0 = 2988.4 \pm 7.8 \text{ Amagat},$   $c_0' = -A_1 = 0.639 \pm 0.071,$   $A_2 = (13.7 \pm 2.0) \times 10^{-4} \text{ Amagat}^{-1},$  $A_3 = (-74 \pm 17) \times 10^{-8} \text{ Amagat}^{-2},$ 

with correlation coefficients

 $\rho_{01} = -0.9626,$  $\rho_{02} = +0.9084,$  $\rho_{03} = -0.8598,$  $\rho_{12} = -0.9864,$  $\rho_{13} = +0.9610,$  $\rho_{23} = -0.9931,$ 

 $c_1' = A_0 A_2 = 4.10 \pm 0.18,$  $c_2' = -A_0^2 A_3 = 6.6 \pm 1.6.$ 

whence

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup> A. Michels and L. Kleerekoper, Physica 6, 586-590 (1939)

Either fit gives constants with the signs and orders of magnitude predicted by the various approximate forms of the theory.

The value of  $c_1'$  by degree 2, 1.571, is closer to the Böttcher value 2 than to the Kirkwood value (Eq. (1-4)) 15/16. It is therefore not surprising that a direct fit to Böttcher's formula is more successful than a fit to formula (1-4), giving  $\sigma = 0.00040$  against the latter's 0.00070. Going over to the quadratic formula (1-6) does not improve the fit in this case; the constants  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  of this formula are rather far from the values of  $c_1'$  and  $c_2'$  obtained by analysis of the data. All these formulas are more reliable than the Clausius-Mosotti, which is the polynomial of degree zero ( $\sigma = 0.0022$ ). Eykman's formula (1-2) gives  $\sigma = 0.0012$ .

#### 4. CONCLUSIONS

For future analyses of experimental data, it is recommended that not the Clausius-Mosotti function but its reciprocal,  $(\epsilon+2)d/(\epsilon-1)$ , be used. The departure of this quantity from the Clausius-Mosotti value  $d_0$  is what one can hope to calculate directly from molecular distribution functions when they become known with sufficient completeness. In this recommendation the use of  $\epsilon-1$  as denominator is more important than the use of  $\epsilon+2$  in the numerator: the function  $d/(\epsilon-1)$  or  $\epsilon d/(\epsilon-1)$ , or any linear combination of them, would do equally well.

It is further recommended that for the time being this function be merely expressed as a polynomial in the density, to as many terms as are significant. The weights to be assigned to the various experimental values should correspond to the estimated relative precisions of the measurements at various values of  $\epsilon$ ; and the numerical values of the polynomial coefficients should be accompanied by estimates of their uncertainties and of the coefficients of correlation between them (or of the mean squares and products of the errors), in order that when further quantities are calculated from them the uncertainties in these further quantities may be easily estimated. The coefficients in this polynomial can be given a fairly direct theoretical interpretation and can eventually be calculated from molecular theory.

Formulas of special form, such as Eykman's and Böttcher's, can be fitted to the data more or less successfully; but no one of these has either enough theoretical basis or (if the data analyzed here are representative) enough empirical reliability to justify its use in preference to the straightforward method recommended. Within the precision of present data, use of such special forms is equivalent to specification of auxiliary conditions to be imposed on the coefficients in the polynomial; and anything that can be accomplished by their use can also be accomplished by merely assigning fixed numerical values to one or more of the constants  $c_0'$ ,  $c_1'$ , etc. Thus it may turn out upon analysis of all available data that the second-degree polynomial, i.e. Eq. (1-1) with  $(d/d_0)^2$  neglected, gives sufficient precision for practical purposes if  $c_0'$  and  $c_1'$ are assigned fixed values, independent of the fluid (at least for a large class of fluids). From the limited number of data analyzed here, it appears that the best value of  $c_0$  is probably somewhat larger than the value 1/4 based on a very crude model, and that the best value of  $c_1$  may be intermediate between the Kirkwood value 15/16 and the Böttcher value 2.

Tables I-III show the actual deviations computed by some of the formulas, together with the experimental data and the constants used in the formulas. Formulas (1-3) (Böttcher), (1-4), and (1-5) yield somewhat different values of  $d_0(=3m_0/4\pi\alpha)$  and  $2\alpha/a^3$ . Values of  $\alpha$  and  $a^3$  calculated from these are of the expected order of magnitude.

In a recent empirical study, Rosen<sup>17</sup> has fitted dielectric constant and refractive index data on a number of fluids (polar as well as non-polar) with a formula equivalent to the first two terms of Eq. (2-3). His use of  $(\epsilon+2)/(\epsilon-1)$  rather than of its reciprocal is supported by the present analysis of data and by the theory of I; but it appears that a third term is already significant in some modern data. It will probably become more clearly significant as experimental techniques continue to improve.

 $<sup>^{17}</sup>$  Joseph S. Rosen, J. Chem. Physics 17, 1192–1197 (1949). Rosen's values of  $A_0$  and  $A_1$  (his m and b) for carbon disulfide at  $30^\circ$  differ slightly from those given here because of the different weights used.