CHEMICAL REACTIONS IN MOLTEN SALTS: IMPORTANCE OF ACIDITY

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<u>Abstract</u>: Chemical reactions in molten salts like molten chlorides, chloroaluminates, nitrates, hydrogenosulfates and disulfates, are described. Importance of acid-base equilibria on chemical reactions is outlined.

INTRODUCTION

Molten salts are more and more frequently employed as reaction media: they are available at higher temperatures than more usual solvents; their liquid state and good thermal conductivity allow the realization of isothermal reactors; an excellent dispersion of reactants may be obtained by dissolution in the melt (especially for catalysts); finally, if one or more reactants are in the gaseous state, a large exchange surface may be obtained by means of a convenient bubbling.

These advantages for use most generally put forward are based mainly on physical properties of molten salts (liquid state, thermal capacity, solvation of reaction intermediates or catalysts). Some chemical characteristics may intervene in a less evident way: some salts, in general defined compounds with congruent melting point, show autodissociation reaction. In that case, the activity of a compound of the ionized liquid may vary to a great extent, comparatively to the variation of composition ratio of salt components | 1 |.

In the following, various possibilities for use of fused salts will be illustrated using some selected examples, in order to show the potential advantages of the so called acidity concept.

MOLTEN SALTS CONSIDERED AS SUPPORTING SOLVENTS FOR REACTIONS.

Molten salts - generally anhydrous - may be the only solvents for otherwise unstable chemical species: Sundermeyer |2| proposed a synthesis of tetrahydrosilane $\mathrm{SiH_4}$, a compound of interest in the production of silicon. Starting material was tetrachlorosilane $\mathrm{SiCl_4}$. The first process described to transform $\mathrm{SiCl_4}$ into $\mathrm{SiH_4}$ used lithium aluminum hydride $\mathrm{LiAlH_4}$, alkaline and alkaline earth hydride having no convenient solvent available at that time. However, lithium hydride was dissolved in fused LiCl : KCl eutectic (t = 400°C), allowing the reaction:

$$4 \text{ LiH} + \text{SiCl}_4 \rightarrow \text{SiH}_4 + 4 \text{ LiCl} \tag{1}$$

Furthermore, Sundermeyer showed that the hydride could be restored (regenerated) by electrochemical reduction of hydrogen: an iron tube flushed by hydrogen during electrolysis acted as a cathode for the following reaction:

$$2Li^{+} + H_{2} + 2e \rightarrow 2LiH$$
 (2)

whereas chloride ions were oxidized on a graphite anode.

In this manner, the overall reaction was :

$$2H_2 + SiCl_4 + SiH_4 + Cl_2$$
 (3)

with quantitative yield.

In this case, fused salt acts only as a solvent for the intermediate LiH. It can also be used as a catalyst if one of its constituents is an active one. Recently, two reviews have been devoted to this problem.

Jones and Osteryoung |3| reviewed reactions in melts containing AlCl $_3$. Aluminum chloride promotes the formation of carbocations, giving condensation reactions (Friedel Crafts reaction) or transposition reactions. Most of the reactions studied are of this type. They are caused by the very acidic properties of fused chlorocluminate. Thus the transformation reaction of phenylbutyric acid into α -tetralone is performed as well in anhydrous fluorhydric acid as in the mixture AlCl $_3$: NaCl (68 : 32 mol %) at t = 180 - 200°C. Jones and Osteryoung indicated a lot of addition-condensation, dehydrogenation or isomerization reactions but they noted that almost any work entailed the possibility of changing the acidity of the melt by modifying its composition (cf. infra).

Kenney |4| examined the catalysis of gas reactions : condensation, cracking, halogenation, oxidation, etc. Let us consider the Transcat process for vinyl chloride production by oxidation and chloration of ethane and ethylene. Oxidizing gas is either chlorine and air or chlorhydric acid and air. The melt is a fused CuCl - CuCl $_2$ - KCl mixture. The presumed reactions include :

$$C_2H_4 + Cl_2 + CH_2Cl - CH_2Cl$$
 (4)

$$C_2^{H_6} + Cl_2 + \frac{1}{2}O_2 \rightarrow CH_2C1 - CH_2C1 + H_2O$$
 (5)

$$C_2H_6 + \frac{1}{2}Cl_2 + \frac{1}{4}O_2 + CH_3 - CH_2Cl + \frac{1}{2}H_2O$$
 (6)

$$c_2^{H_6} + \frac{1}{2} cl_2 + c_2^{H_5} cl + Hcl$$
 (7)

together with the Deacon reaction :

$$2HC1 + \frac{1}{2}O_2 \rightarrow C1_2 + H_2O$$
 (8)

and the cracking of 1 - 2 dichloroethane

$$CH_2C1 - CH_2C1 \rightarrow CH_2 CHC1 + HC1$$
 (9)

Patents protect the formation process but mechanisms and kinetics of many of the reactions are unknown. The study of Deacon reaction in molten salt is more developed. Ruthven and Kenney studied its kinetics in the mixture CuCl - CuCl $_2$ - KCl - LaCl $_3$ and proposed the following mechanism :

$$4Cu^{2+} + 4Cl^{-} \rightarrow 4Cu^{+} + 2Cl_{2}$$
 (fast equilibrium) (10)

$$4Cu^{+} + O_{2} \rightarrow 4Cu^{2+} + O^{2-}$$
 (rate determining step) (11)

$$20^{2-} + 4HC1 \rightarrow 2H_2O + 4C1^-$$
 (fast reaction) (12)

Although all of these reactions are oxidation or acid-base reactions their analysis by means of acidity concept has not been systematically considered. However, the Deacon reaction may be well explained by potential-acidity diagrams (or Pourbaix diagrams |5|) the use of which might permit rational choice and investigation for convenient catalysts.

Acidity must be defined and measured. In molten chlorides, acidity can be defined using the exchange of oxide anion |6,7|: this choice is dictated by the importance of oxide chemistry at high temperature. Moreover, this kind of acidity (the oxo-acidity) is related to the Bronsted acidity if the water, which frequently surrounds the melts, is involved. Thus:

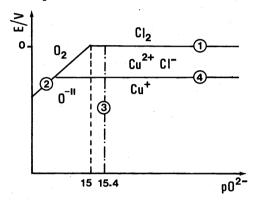
$$0^{2}$$
 (d) + 2HCl(g) \rightarrow H₂O(g) + 2Cl (d) (13)

with:
$$K_D = a(0^{2-})P(HC1)^2 / P(H_2O)$$
 (14)

Acidity is determined by quantity $p0^{2^{-}} = -\log a(0^{2^{-}})$ or if activity coefficient is constant, by $p0^{2^{-}} = -\log m(0^{2^{-}})$.

In order to determine the quantity ${\rm pO}^{2-}$, Combes and al.|8| showed that a stabilized zirconia membrane electrode, schematized as follows:

acts as a pO $^{2-}$ indicator electrode in fused NaCl-KCl. By means of that electrode the KD constant was determined (KD = 10 $^{-15}$ at 1000K, 0 2 concentration expressed in mol fraction) and also the diagram reported in Fig. 1.



The diagram $E - p0^2$ plotted in Fig.1 summarizes the noteworthy results. Chloride ions are oxidized into chlorine. The reaction is not dependent on acidity and occurs at potential represented by line 1. Oxidation of $O^{(-II)}$ depends on acidity and oxygen pressure. In the presence of air, oxidation potential variation against $p0^{2-}$ is shown in the equation:

Fig.1. E-p0²⁻ diagram in molten KCl-NaCl (T=1000K) |8|

$$E = -1.5 + (2.3RT/2F)p0^{2}$$
 (ref. $Cl_2 latm/Cl_1$) (16)

and represented by line 2. When a gaseous mixture of HCl and $\rm H_2O$ is flushed through the melt, acidity is fixed. For example if P(HCl) = 0.5 atm, P(H_2O) = 0.1 atm, then pO^2 = 15.4 (line 3). Then, oxygen is able to oxidize chloride ions into chlorine. However the reaction needs some catalyst. The standard potential of the redox pair $\rm Cu^{2+}/\rm Cu^{+}$ is equal to -0.2V (line 4) and copper oxides appear only for acidity values of less than 15|9|. If Cu(II) is added to the melt, it oxidizes Cl into Cl until a state of equilibrium is attained. At that time the Cu(I) concentration is not negligible and the reoxidation reaction by oxygen occurs at a convenient rate. If the molten salt composition is changed, the distance between lines 1 and 4 is presumably changed as well as the rate of reaction(11) which is proportional to the Cu(I) concentration in the stationary state.

ACIDITY IN MOLTEN CHLOROALUMINATES.

In the preceeding case, acidity was "induced" either by chemical reactions or by the surrounding gaseous phase. The anion and less frequently the cation of some molten salts may undergo a dissociation that generate a solvent system acidity |10|. It is the case for molten chloroaluminates nitrates, disulfates and hydrogenosulfates.

In molten chloroaluminates, the autodissociation equilibrium is |11|:

$$2A1C1_{4}^{-} + A1_{2}C1_{7}^{-} + C1^{-}$$
 (17)

with
$$K_i = m(Al_2Cl_7).m(Cl_7)$$
 (18)

Acidity definition is based upon the Cl ion exchange and measured by

quantity pCl = $-\log m(Cl^-)$. An aluminum electrode is a pCl electrode indicator. The electrode reaction is :

$$AlCl_{4}^{-} + 3e \stackrel{\checkmark}{\rightarrow} Al + 4Cl$$
 (19)

and the equilibrium potential is given by :

$$E=E^{\circ}+(2.3RT/3F)\log_a(AlCl_4^{-})/m(Cl_5^{-})^4 = E^{\circ}+(4/3)(2.3RT/F)pCl_5^{-}$$
 (20)

The Al electrode has been used for determining NaCl solubility and K_i value. At 175°C, near values have been determined by various authors |11,12,13|: $S = 5 \times 10^{-2}$ mol kg^{-1} , $K_i = 3.10^{-6}$ mol $^2 Kg^{-2}$. Thus, at that temperature, the Cl activity (measured by its concentration) is multiplied by a factor equal to 10⁴ when the composition ratio AlCl₃: NaCl varies from 1.38 - 0.98 (in mol %).

As a consequence of that activity variation, important variations of the nature of dissolved species may occur. Bermond |14| showed that $\mathrm{Hg}(\mathrm{I})$ and $\mathrm{Hg}(\mathrm{II})$ species are depending on the acidity. More recently Trēmillon and Duchange |15| investigated the basic properties of fluoride anion F in molten NaAlCl_4 and NaAlBr_4 (t = 210°C). A known amount of strong acid (Al_Cl_7) was introduced in the melt by coulometric oxidation of metallic aluminum and neutralized by successive additions of NaF. It was shown that the F anion has weak dibasic properties, the titration reaction being:

$$F^- + 2A1_2X_7^- \rightarrow A1_2X_6F^- + A1X_4^-$$
 (21)

corresponding to the solvolysis equilibrium

$$F^- + 2A1X_4^- \stackrel{+}{\rightarrow} A1_2X_6F^- + 2X^-$$
 (22)

The basicity constant values are $10^{-3.5}$ and 10^{-4} in NaAlCl $_4$ and NaAlBr $_4$, respectively. The authors assume a structure in which the F ion forms a bridge between the two Al atoms, more stable than the bridge obtained with anions Cl and Br but being broken by an excess of them.

Another example of the influence of acidity on properties of solutes in chloroalumina 2 is the electrochemical oxidation of N.N.Dimethylaniline, as reported by Jones and Osteryoung | 16 |, using linear sweep voltammetry technique. The curves obtained for various values of pCl are reported on fig. 2. The first action on the system is an oxidation (fig. 2a, curve 1). On B, the potential variation is reversed and the products formed during the oxidizing step are reduced. Two peaks are observed, the first one increasing and the second one decreasing for increasing acidity. (increasing pCl).

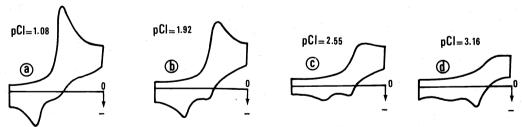


Fig. 2. Cyclic voltammograms for N-N dimethylaniline in NaCl-AlCl $_3$ melt (t = 175°C, scan rate 0.5 V s $^{-1}$) | 16|.

The authors propose the following ECE mechanism :

$$N' = -N' + e E_1$$

The radical cation formed during the stage of oxidation (E_1) dimerizes (step C₁) giving a strong acid which is neutralized by the base Cl (step C₂). Then, the base is oxidized (step E_2). For increasing acidity, more and more cation radical is available for reduction. Thus, step C_2 is the rate determing step and step C₁ is a fast one.

In aprotic solvents, such as acetonitrile, formation of radical cation has never been observed with N-N-dimethylaniline. Jones and Osteryoung suggest that aprotic solvents, always containing at least 10 $\,$ mol 1 $\,$ of water are sufficiently basic for step C $_2$ is always fast. The hypothesis has been also postulated by Fung, Chambers and Mamantov | 17 | and it would be interesting to link it with the catalysis reactions.

ACIDITY IN MOLTEN NITRATES.

Some years ago, Zambonin and Jordan |18| following Goret's work with hydroxides |19| demonstrated the existence of peroxide ion $0\frac{1}{2}$ and superoxide ion $0\frac{1}{2}$ in molten nitrates, provided that the melt is basic. De Haan and Vander Poorten $\lfloor 20 \rfloor$ gathered all the data concerned with and proposed a potential po diagram, which resumes the work accomplished.

Acidity is defined by 0^{2-} ion exchange : nitrate anion is a base in the reaction :

$$NO_3^- + NO_2^- + O_2^{--}$$
 (23)

But the acidic cation NO_2^+ reacts on the nitrate ion in excess, giving the following sequence of reactions:

$$NO_2^+ + NO_3^- + N_2O_5$$
 (24)

$$N_2O_5 + N_2O_4 + \frac{1}{2}O_2 + 2NO_2 + \frac{1}{2}O_2$$
 (25)

$$N_2O_5 + N_2O_4 + \frac{1}{2}O_2 + 2NO_2 + \frac{1}{2}O_2$$
 (25)
Finally, the autodissociation of the salt is:
 $2NO_3 + 2NO_2 + \frac{1}{2}O_2 + O$ (26)

in which both an acid base and a redox reaction intervene. De Haan and Van der Poorten calculated the equilibrium constant of reaction |26|. They found K = 1.6 10^{-28} mol kg $^{-1}$ atm $^{5/2}$ at t = 229°C. The E. po $^{2-}$ diagram shows the behaviour of the NO $_3$ anions when they are either oxidized or reduced. Oxidation is in fact oxidation of oxygen O $^{(-II)}$ they contain. If the oxidation goes directly to gaseous oxygen (O°) the reactions are, successively:

$$NO_3^- - 2e + NO_2^+ + \frac{1}{2}O_2^-$$
 (g) (27)

$$NO_3^- + NO_2^+ + 2NO_2 + \frac{1}{2}O_2$$
 (g) (28)

and the overall reaction is :

$$NO_3^- - e \rightarrow NO_2 + \frac{1}{2}O_2^-$$
 (g) (29)

Autodissociation equilibrium (26) is always assumed to be completed and reaction (29) is equivalent to:

$$0^{2-} - 2e + \frac{1}{2}0_2(g)$$
 (30)

Oxydation of nitrate ions is achieved at a potential given by :

$$E = E^{\circ}(O_2) + (2.3RT/4F)\log P(O_2) + (1/2)(2.3RT/F) O^{2-}$$

The authors calculated, from Zambonin's experimental values the quantity ${\tt E}^{\circ}({\tt O}_2)$ They found :

$$E = 0.250 + (\alpha/4)\log P(O_2) + (\alpha/2) pO^{2-}$$

$$(\alpha = 2.3 RT/F) \text{ (ref. electrode : NO}_3/NO}_2, O^{2-})$$
(31)

Similarly, oxidations into peroxide and superoxide are defined by :

$$20^{2^{-}} - 2e + 0\frac{1}{2}$$
 (32)

$$E = -0.043 + (1/2)\log m(o_2^{2-}) + \alpha po^{2-}$$
(33)

and

$$20^{2-} - 3e + 0\frac{1}{2}$$
 (34)

$$E = 0.181 + (\alpha/3)\log m(O_2) + (2/3)\alpha pO^{2}$$
(35)

Reduction of nitrate ions gives either nitrites (N(III)) or nitrogen dioxide (N(IV)):

$$NO_3^- + 2e + NO_2^- + O^{2-}$$
 (36)

$$E = O - (\alpha/2) \log m (NO_2^{-}) + (\alpha/2) pO^{2^{-}}$$
(37)

and
$$NO_3^- + e + NO_2^- + O_2^-$$
 (38)

$$E = -1.625 - \alpha \log P(NO_2) + \alpha po^{2-}$$
 (39)

All the straight lines $E = f(p O^2)$ in the $E - pO^2$ axis delimit the stability range of nitrates. Fig. 3 has been drawn supposing $m(O_2) = m(O_2^2) = 10^{-3}$ mol kg⁻¹ and P(gas) = 1 atm₂-Prevailing species are indicated in their stability area. Species O_2 and O_2 are out of the stability area of the salt. However they are observed by

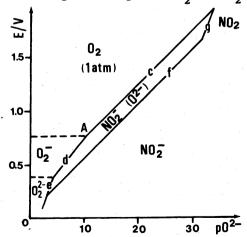


Fig. 3. E.pO diagram in molten nitrates (t=229°C) |19|.

salt. However they are observed by voltamperometric technique for ex., owing to important overvoltages in the electrochemical oxidation of the melt.

In strongly basic media NO_3^- ions dissociate into nitrite and peroxide O_2^{2-} . If pO^{2-} is less than about 10, oxygen oxidizes NO_3^- ions into peroxide and/or superoxide. Formation of O_2^- and O_2^{2-} occurs only in basic media as claimed by Zambonin and water or any other acids such as metasilicate or Li⁺ ions prevent that formation:

Water behaves as an acid :

$$H_2O + O^{2-} = 2OH^-$$
 (40)

$$(K = m(0^{2})m(H_{2}0)/m(OH^{-})^{2} = 10^{-14.4})$$
 (41)

and reacts on the NO₃ base following:

$$H_2O + 2NO_3^- \stackrel{+}{\rightarrow} 2NO_2 + \frac{1}{2}O_2 + 2OH^-$$

$$(K = 10^{-12 \cdot 2})$$

Water in the melts causes hydroxide formation, the concentration of which depends on oxygen and nitrogen dioxide pressures. If $P(O_2) = 1$ atm and $P(NO_2) = 10^{-5}$ (oxygen electrode), the pO^2 value is found equal to 16.6, at which value neither O_2 nor O_2^{2-} exist. In order to observe them, one has to neutralize the excess of water with a strong base like Na₂O.

In acidic (or hydrated) medium, the indication of an oxygen electrode has a Nernst slope vs pO^{2-} equal to (1/2)(2.3RT/F), as observed by Kust and Duke 21 and some others reported by Schlegel 22. However, owing to the complication of the concerned mechanisms and reactions involved, it is possible that the thermodynamic equilibrium is never attained.

ACIDITY IN MOLTEN POTASSIUM DISULFATE.

For several years, our group has been studying molten disulfate and hydrogenosulfate. These salts show autodissociation reactions and solvoacidity may be defined. Despite their narrow range of variation, it was shown that the acidity range allowed modifications in the nature of dissolved species.

In molten potassium disulfate ($F=414^{\circ}C$), $S_2O_7^{2-}$ anion undergoes an autodissociation as follows:

$$s_2 o_7^{2-} (1) \stackrel{+}{\rightarrow} so_4^{2-} (d) + so_3 (g)$$
 (43)

and acidity may be based either by SO_4^{2-} or by SO_3 exchange. The addition of the former species in known quantity being easier, it was chosen to represent acidity using the quantity $pSO_4 = -\log a(SO_4^{2-})$, $a(SO_4^{2-})$, represents the activity of dissolved sulfate anion, related to the concentration by:

$$a(SO_4^{2-}) = \gamma(SO_4^{2-}) \cdot m(SO_4^{2-})$$

$$m(SO_4^{2-}) / mol kg^{-1}, \gamma^{\infty}(SO_4^{2-} = 1)$$
(44)

Acidity was measured potentiometrically, using a sulphur dioxide electrode as indicator electrode. The metal of the electrode was gold: preliminary results, obtained by voltammetry on rotating gold electrode showed that the electrochemical reaction corresponding to solvent reduction could be:

$$2s_2o_7^{2-} + 2e = so_2(g) + 3 so_4^{2-}$$
 (45)

for which the equilibrium potential variation vs $P(SO_2)$ and $a(SO_4^{2-})$ is :

$$E = E^{\circ} - (2.3 \text{ RT/2F}) \log P(SO_2) \cdot a(SO_4^{2-})^3$$
 (46)

The validity of equation has been verified by plotting the equilibrium potential of SO_2 electrode (P(SO_2) = 1 atm) against the log. of added sulfate concentration (Δm). However, the melt initially contains some quantity of excess sulphate, arising from a partial decomposition of the salt during melting, or initially present in the starting material. If m, is that initial concentration (to which corresponds a value γ_1 of the coefficient γ), equation (46) may be stated as follows:

$$10^{(2/3)(F/2.3RT)(E_i^{-E})} = \frac{\gamma}{\gamma_i} (1 + \Delta m/mi)$$
 (46)

In fig. 4 the variation of the exponential term against Δm is plotted for

two series of determinations. These are two straight lines whose point of intersection with the vertical axis is equal to the unit. Thus the activity coefficient is constant and equal to $\gamma^{\infty}(\gamma^{\infty}=1)$ in the considered variation range. The reciprocal of the slopes give the m₁ values and the solution is saturated when m > m_s, for which the

potential value remains constant. The solubility values are respectively 0.25 and 0.26 mol kg.

After that it was demonstrated that acidity could be determined using the displacement of voltammetric curves corresponding to solvent reduction, allowing the determination of the autodissociation constant of the melt:

$$K_1 = m(SO_4^{2-}) \cdot P(SO_3)$$
 (47)

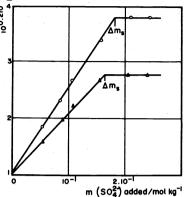
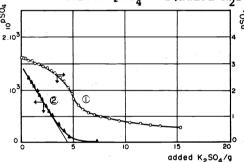


Fig. 4. Verification of the reversibility of the S(VI)/S(IV) system.

The melt was equilibrated with gaseous $SO_3(P(SO_3))$ initial = 1 atm) and titration curves pSO_4 = $f(added K_2SO_4)$ were obtained (fig. 5, curve 1). The



equivalent point was obtained by applying Gran's method (24), taking into account the SO₃ in the gaseous phase surrounding the melt. (Fig. 5, curve 2). Sulphur trioxide solubility and K, value were found equal to 10^{-1.05} and 10^{-3.25}, resp., the later being in good agreement with the value extrapolated from Flood and Boye results (10^{-3.2})|25|.

Fig. 5. Titration of SO_3 by K_2SO_4 1 :pSO₄ variation;

2 : Gran's plot.

Another application of acidity measurement was the determination of acidic properties of dissolved phosphorous pentoxide |26| where P_2O_5 behaves as a weak acid, dissolving K_2SO_4 in excess. Metaphosphate anion is a weak base and pyrophosphate anion a strong one, which precipitates potassium sulphate from neutral solution. Analysis of titration curves allowed to show that the acid-base equilibrium is, in fact:

$$PO_3^- + S_2O_7^{2-} \stackrel{\leftarrow}{\to} PO_3SO_3^- + SO_4^-$$
 (48)

ACIDITY IN MOLTEN HYDROGENOSULFATE.

The case of molten hydrogenosulfate is more complex |27|. Anion HSO_4^- is a Brønsted acid:

$$HSO_4^- \to H^+ + SO_4^{2-}$$
 (49)

but under thermal influence, it dehydrates as follows:

$$2HSO_4^{-\frac{1}{2}}H_2O(g) + S_2O_7^{2-}$$
 (50)

$$K_{H_2O} = \frac{P(H_2O) \times (S_2O_7^{2-})}{\times (HSO_A^{-})^2}$$
 (51)

Thus, three bases, HSO_4^- , H_2O and $S_2O_7^{2-}$, could fix the proton H^+ given by the

 HSO_4^- ion. Furthermore, equilibrium ($_5$) indicates that the melt composition (that is the ratio $x(HSO_4^7)/x(S_2O_7^{2-7})$) depends on the water pressure P(H₂O) in equilibrium with the molten salt.

Three autoprotolysis equilibria have to be considered:

$$2HSO_{4}^{-}$$
 $+ H_{2}SO_{4} + SO_{4}^{2}$ (52-a) $+ H_{3}O_{4}^{+} + H_{2}O_{4}^{-}$ (52-b)

$$HSO_4 + H_2O(g) \stackrel{+}{\to} H_3O^+ + SO^{2-}$$
 (52-b)

$$HSO_4^- + S_2O_7^{2-} + SO_4^{2-}$$
 (52-c)

to which correspond three autoprotolysis constants:

$$K_{a} = m(H_{2}SO_{4})m(SO_{4}^{2-})/x(HSO_{4}^{-})^{2}$$

$$K_{b} = m(H_{3}O^{+}m(SO_{4}^{2-})/P(H_{2}O)x(HSO_{4}^{-}))$$

$$K_{c} = m(HS_{2}O_{7}^{-})m(SO_{4}^{2-})/x(S_{2}O_{7}^{2-})x(HSO_{4}^{-})$$

(In expressing the mass action constants, concentrations of diluted species are expressed in mol kg⁻¹ and those of melt constituents in molar fractions). The $x(HSO_4^-)$ and $x(S_2O_7^{2-})$ values are fixed when the water vapour pressure is fixed and calculated after determination of the dehydration constant value $K_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$. For constant values of P(H₂O), equation (52-a), (52-b) and (52-c) may be²expressed:

$$K_{1}^{*} = m(H^{+}) \cdot m(SO_{4}^{2-})$$
 (53)

 $K_1^{\overline{A}}$ is a conditional constant, depending on $P(H_2O)$ and H^+ represents the solvated proton (either H₂SO₄, HS₂O₇ or H₃O⁺) K_i values for various P(H₂O) were determined by potentiometric titration of sulfate solution by sulphuric acid. Indicator electrode was a convenient glass electrode. Then the quantities K_a , K_b and K_c were calculated and plotted against $P(H_2O)$. Only the K_a quantity remains constant, so that autoprotolysis equilibrium of the solvent is equilibrium (52-a), involving H₂SO₄.

The solubility of potassium sulfate in the melt is low and the acidity range of fused ${\rm KHSO_4}$ is narrow (2.2 pH units at 210°C and ${\rm P(H_2O)}$ = 0.03 atm. However, a change in the solvation of dissolved species was observed, in the case of mercury compounds |28| and vanadium compounds |29|

Let us consider the case of vanadium species. Solubility of vanadium(IV) sulphate (VOSO₄) in molten ammonium hydrogenosulfate (t = 200°C, P(H₂0)= 0.03 atm) was first determined for various acidity values. Vanadyl sulphate, slightly soluble in neutral media redissolves in both acidic and basic media (fig. 6). The limiting slope values indicate that the species soluble are respectively VO² and VO(SO₄)². The corresponding acid-base equilibria are :

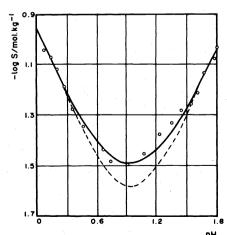


Fig. 6. Variation of V(IV) solubility in molten NH4HSO4

$$VOSO_4(s) + H_2SO_4 + VO^{2+} + HSO_4$$
 (54)

with
$$K_1 = m(H_2SO_4)/m(VO^{2+})$$
 (55)

and
$$VO(SO_4)_2^{2-} + H_2SO_4^{-\frac{1}{2}} VOSO_4(s) + HSO_4^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$
 (56)

with
$$K_2 = m(VO(SO_4)_2^{2-})/m(H_2SO_4)$$
 (57)

The overall solubility, S_t, is thus:

$$S_{+} = m(H_{2}SO_{4})/K_{1} + S + K_{2}/m(H_{2}SO_{4})$$
 (58)

where S is the solubility of $VOSO_4$. The values of K_1 S and K_2 have been determined by fitting equation (58) with experimental points by the least squares method using the pit-mapping technique proposed by Sillen |30|. The calculated curve (fig. 6, full line) fits experimental points well (open line curve has been obtained using the same adjusment technique but assuming S = 0). Similarly, it was shown that vanadium V species are VO_2 in acidic media and VO_2SO_4 in basic media.

CONCLUSION.

Despite a small acidity variation in molten ammonium hydrogenosulphate, three vanadium(IV) complexes and two vanadium(V) complexes were observed. The acidity variation corresponds to a composition variation $\rm H_2SO_4:(NH_4)_2SO_4$ ranging from (55:45) to (45:55) (molar fraction scale). In molten chloroaluminates, similar composition variations give largest acidity variation. Furthermore, even in simple molten salts, like fused alkali chloride that have no possibility of autodissociation equilibria, acid base reaction may appear; either because induced by surrounding atmosphere or caused by chemical reactions.

Thus, it is essential to take into account, the possible acidity variations in forecasting and investigation of chemical reactions in fused salt, in order to favour some reactions and inhibit others.

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