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ALUMINUM CHLORIDE AS A THERMODYNAMIC
WORKING FLUID AND HEAT TRANSFER MEDIUM

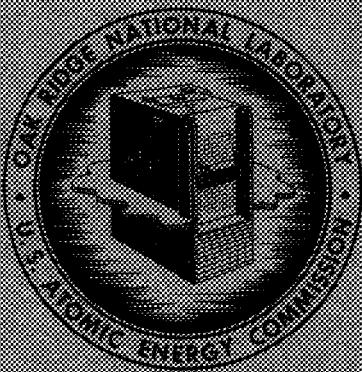
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REACTOR PROJECTS DIVISION

ALUMINUM CHLORIDE AS A THERMODYNAMIC WORKING FLUID
AND HEAT TRANSFER MEDIUM

M. Blander, L. G. Epel, A. P. Fraas, and R. F. Newton

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ABSTRACT

The basic physical properties and thermodynamic constants of aluminum chloride have been calculated to obtain the data required for engineering calculations of thermodynamic cycles employing aluminum chloride vapor. The possible corrosion problems involved were evaluated from the standpoint of basic chemical thermodynamics, and it was concluded that high-nickel-content alloys would contain aluminum chloride satisfactorily.

The advantages of gaseous aluminum chloride as an intermediate heat transfer medium in a molten-salt-fueled reactor were evaluated. It was determined that the temperature range of the molten-salt heat transfer system was too low to utilize aluminum chloride effectively. A gas-turbine cycle employing aluminum chloride as the working fluid and a binary vapor cycle employing water vapor for the lower temperature cycle were also considered. Neither of these studies showed aluminum chloride to have outstanding advantages. It is believed, however, that special applications may be found in which it will be possible to exploit the unique characteristics of aluminum chloride.

INTRODUCTION

Gaseous aluminum chloride appears to be attractive as a heat transfer medium and as a thermodynamic-cycle working fluid as a consequence of the fact that it exists as the monomer AlCl_3 at high temperatures and as the dimer Al_2Cl_6 at low temperatures. The effective specific heat and thermal conductivity of a gas that associates are considerably enhanced because of the association equilibrium at temperatures at which there is an appreciable fraction of both monomer and polymer, and therefore aluminum chloride may be an exceptionally good heat transfer medium for some applications. Its possibilities as the working fluid in a thermodynamic cycle stem from the fact that, in an idealized gas turbine with a negligible pressure drop in the system, the pump compressor will require work proportional to the compressor inlet temperature times the specific gas constant of the dimer for any given pressure ratio. In the high-temperature region at the turbine, on the other hand, if the gas is completely monomeric, this same weight of gas will do work proportional to the turbine inlet temperature times the monomer gas constant for the same pressure ratio. Because

of the relatively large difference in the gas constant between the monomer and dimer, the ratio of turbine work to compressor work will be greater than for a gas that does not dissociate. Further, the energy losses due to the inefficiency of both the compressor and the turbine will have relatively smaller effects on the over-all thermal efficiency with a dissociating gas as the working fluid.

BASIC PHYSICAL PROPERTIES OF ALUMINUM CHLORIDE

The objective of this study was to investigate the possible advantages of aluminum chloride arising from its dissociation and the consequent increase in effective specific heat and thermal conductivity. Qualitatively the reason for these increases is simple. Lowering the temperature of the gas will yield not only the heat given off if the composition of the gas were "frozen," but, since the gas is more highly associated at lower temperatures, it will also give off the chemical heat due to the association of some of the monomer molecules as a result of lowering the temperature. The same phenomenon increases the thermal conductivity. The thermal conductivity is the

amount of heat that would be transferred in unit time across unit area from a temperature $T + dT$ to T divided by the temperature gradient, dT/dx . The frozen thermal conductivity is that which would occur if the composition were frozen at an average weight fraction \bar{w}_n of the polymer and \bar{w}_1 of the monomer at both temperatures. Since w_1 is higher at $T + dT$ and w_n is higher at T than the average, relatively more monomer would diffuse from $T + dT$ to T and more polymer from T to $T + dT$ than for a frozen composition. The composition of the higher-temperature gas molecules diffusing to the lower temperature would change with a trend toward the lower equilibrium concentration of monomer at the lower temperature and would give off heat in the process. This chemical heat contribution is part of the heat flux.

Quantitative expressions for these phenomena have been given by Butler and Brokaw.¹ For a substance which dimerizes,

$$C_{pe} = C_{pf} + \frac{\Delta H^2}{RT^2} \frac{w_1 w_2 (1 + w_1)}{4M_1}, \quad (1)$$

$$\lambda_e = \lambda_f + \frac{\Delta H^2}{RT^2} \left(\frac{D_{12} P}{R' T} \right) \left(\frac{w_1 w_2}{2} \right), \quad (2)$$

where

C_{pe} = effective specific heat in cal.g⁻¹.deg⁻¹,

C_{pf} = frozen specific heat,

ΔH = heat change for the reaction $\text{Al}_2\text{Cl}_6 \rightleftharpoons 2\text{AlCl}_3$,

R, R' = gas constants in proper units,

w_1, w_2 = weight fraction of monomer and dimer, respectively,

λ_e = effective thermal conductivity in cal.cm⁻¹.sec⁻¹.deg⁻¹,

λ_f = frozen thermal conductivity,

D_{12} = interdiffusion coefficients of monomer and dimer,

P = total pressure,

M_1 = molecular weight of a monomer.

The quantities of practical interest, the effective specific heat, C_{pe} , the effective thermal conductivity, λ_e , and the viscosity, have never been measured. These and other quantities of interest must be estimated. It is fortunate that the theory of gases is well developed and, for some calculations, is more reliable than measurements.

Effective Specific Heat

The effective specific heat was calculated by use of Eq. (1). The frozen specific heat of Al_2Cl_6 , C_{pf} , was estimated according to well-known statistical mechanical methods² by use of the infrared vibrational frequencies measured or estimated by Klemperer.³ The frequencies for AlCl_3 were estimated by analogy with the compound BCl_3 (ref 4). The average value of the specific heat in the temperature range 500 to 1000°K is 0.16 cal.g⁻¹.(°C)⁻¹ for Al_2Cl_6 and is 0.14 cal.g⁻¹.(°C)⁻¹ for AlCl_3 . At each composition of the gas, an average value was computed from the composition-weighted average of these two values for the monomer and the dimer.

The composition of the gas may be computed from the equilibrium constant

$$K = \frac{P_1^2}{P_2} = \frac{4w_1^2}{1 - w_1^2} P, \quad (3a)$$

where

$$\Delta F^\circ = \Delta H - T\Delta S^\circ = -RT \ln K, \quad (3b)$$

in which ΔH is the heat of dissociation of the gas, which was taken as 29.6 kcal/mole (ref 5), and ΔS° is the entropy difference between 2 moles of AlCl_3 at 1 atm pressure and 1 mole of Al_2Cl_6 at 1 atm pressure, which was taken as 34.6 cal.mole⁻¹.deg⁻¹ (ref 5). The values of w_1 calculated from Eqs. (3a) and (3b) at pressures of 0.1, 1, and 10 atm, respectively, in the temperature range 500 to 1200°K are listed in column 2 of Table 1. Column 3 of the same table lists the

²J. E. Mayer and M. G. Mayer, *Statistical Mechanics*, Wiley, New York, 1940.

³W. Klemperer, *J. Chem. Phys.* **24**, 353 (1956).

⁴G. Herzberg, *Molecular Spectra and Molecular Structure*, Van Nostrand, New York, 1945.

⁵A. Shepp and S. H. Bauer, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **76**, 265 (1954).

¹J. N. Butler and R. S. Brokaw, *J. Chem. Phys.* **26**, 1636 (1957).

Table 1. Calculated Values of w_1 , C_{pe} , $\bar{\lambda}_f$, and λ_e for Aluminum Chloride

Temperature (°K)	Weight Fraction of Monomer, w_1	C_{pe} (cal·g ⁻¹ ·deg ⁻¹)	$\bar{\lambda}_f$ (cal·cm ⁻¹ ·sec ⁻¹ ·deg ⁻¹)	λ_e (cal·cm ⁻¹ ·sec ⁻¹ ·deg ⁻¹)
For a Pressure of 0.1 atm				
500	0.003	0.17	12	14
550	0.013	0.19	13	18
600	0.038	0.25	13	26
650	0.100	0.35	14	42
700	0.223	0.51	15	63
750	0.422	0.66	16	77
800	0.655	0.63	17	68
850	0.831	0.43	18	47
900	0.926	0.28	19	32
950	0.966	0.20	19	25
1000	0.984	0.17	20	23
1050	0.992	0.15	20+	22
1100	0.996	0.15	21	22
1150	0.998	0.14	21	21+
1200	0.999	0.14	22	22-
For a Pressure of 1 atm				
500	0.001	0.16	12	13
550	0.004	0.17	13	15
600	0.012	0.19	13	17
650	0.032	0.22	14	24
700	0.072	0.28	15	34
750	0.145	0.36	15	46
800	0.264	0.47	16	60
850	0.428	0.55	17	68
900	0.612	0.54	18	63
950	0.766	0.44	19	50
1000	0.870	0.32	19	37
1050	0.929	0.24	20	30
1100	0.961	0.19	20	25
1150	0.978	0.17	21	24
1200	0.987	0.16	22	24

Table 1 (continued)

Temperature (°K)	Weight Fraction of Monomer, w_1	C_{pe} (cal·g ⁻¹ ·deg ⁻¹)	$\bar{\lambda}_f$ (cal·cm ⁻¹ ·sec ⁻¹ ·deg ⁻¹)	λ_e (cal·cm ⁻¹ ·sec ⁻¹ ·deg ⁻¹)
For a Pressure of 10 atm				
			$\times 10^{-6}$	$\times 10^{-6}$
500	0.000	0.16	12	12
550	0.001	0.16	13	14
600	0.004	0.17	13	14
650	0.010	0.18	14	17
700	0.023	0.20	14	20
750	0.047	0.23	15	26
800	0.087	0.27	16	34
850	0.148	0.32	16	42
900	0.240	0.38	17	52
950	0.352	0.43	18	58
1000	0.490	0.46	18	59
1050	0.622	0.44	19	54
1100	0.740	0.38	20	47
1150	0.827	0.30	21	40
1200	0.888	0.25	21	33

values of C_{pe} estimated by use of Eq. (1) for the three pressures and the same temperature range. A plot of C_{pe} and the average frozen specific heat \bar{C}_{pf} vs temperature at the three pressures is presented in Fig. 1.

Effective Thermal Conductivities

The effective thermal conductivities were calculated using Eq. (2). The frozen thermal conductivities of monomer and of dimer were calculated from the equation⁶

$$\lambda_f = \frac{(1.9891 \times 10^{-4})(T/M_n)^{1/2}}{\sigma_n^2 \Omega} \left(\frac{4}{15} \frac{C_v}{R} + \frac{3}{5} \right), \quad (4)$$

where M_n is the molecular weight of a polymer, σ_n is the average effective molecular diameter of

a polymer in angstroms, and Ω is a factor which corrects for intermolecular interactions and can be calculated theoretically for simple potential functions in terms of the parameters of the potential function.⁷

A crude estimate of σ_n^2 was made for Al_2Cl_6 and AlCl_3 . From electron diffraction data on Al_2Cl_6 (ref 8), structural estimates for AlCl_3 (ref 5), and the van der Waals radii of chlorine atoms, the dimensions of Al_2Cl_6 and AlCl_3 were estimated. By comparison of the relative dimensions of similar compounds to their effective collision diameters,⁹ the effective collision diameters of Al_2Cl_6 and AlCl_3 were estimated. For the

⁷ For a more accurate equation see J. O. Hirschfelder, *J. Chem. Phys.*, 26, 282 (1957). The use of the more accurate equation leads to only a relatively small difference from the values calculated here.

⁸ L. R. Maxwell, *J. Opt. Soc. Am.*, 30, 374 (1940).

⁹ Hirschfelder, Curtiss, and Byrd, *op. cit.*, Table I-A, pp 1111-12, 162.

Lennard-Jones 6-12 interaction potential, Ω has been calculated as a function of the parameter kT/ϵ , where ϵ is the depth of the potential well. The value of ϵ is unknown for either Al_2Cl_6 or AlCl_3 . We may, however, estimate ϵ by analogy with other halogen-containing compounds. Of several halogen-containing compounds⁹ the lowest value of ϵ/k is 324 for HI and the highest is 1550 for SnCl_4 . With these values as limits, the following values were obtained for Ω :

T (°K)	ϵ/k	Ω
500	324	1.3
	1550	2.7
1000	324	1.0
	1550	2.0

The range of values of Ω listed is 1.0 to 2.7, and a value of $\Omega = 2$ was arbitrarily chosen as being reasonable. The value of $D_{12}P$ was estimated from the equation¹⁰

$$D_{12}P = \frac{0.0026280}{\sigma_{12}^2 \Omega'} \left(T^3 \frac{M_1 + M_2}{2M_1 M_2} \right)^{1/2}, \quad (5)$$

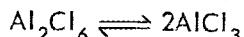
where M_1 and M_2 are the molecular weights of monomer and dimer, respectively, $\sigma_{12} = (\sigma_1 + \sigma_2)/2$, and Ω' is a correction for intermolecular interactions. It does not differ greatly from Ω , and therefore the value 2.0 was used. The calculated values of $D_{12}P$ in the temperature range 500 to 1200°K are listed in column 2 of Table 2. The average frozen thermal conductivities, $\bar{\lambda}_f''$ and the effective thermal conductivity, λ_e , calculated from Eq. (2), at pressures of 0.1, 1, and 10 atm were listed in Table 1. Plots of $\bar{\lambda}_f''$ and λ_e vs temperature at the three pressures are presented in Fig. 2.

The constants and parameters used in these calculations are summarized below:

$$R = 1.9869 \text{ cal}\cdot\text{mole}^{-1}\cdot\text{deg}^{-1}$$

$$R' = 82.057 \text{ cm}^3\cdot\text{atm}\cdot\text{mole}^{-1}\cdot\text{deg}^{-1}$$

$$\Delta H = 29.6 \text{ kcal for the reaction}$$



$$\Delta S^\circ = 34.6 \text{ e.u., entropy change for reaction}$$

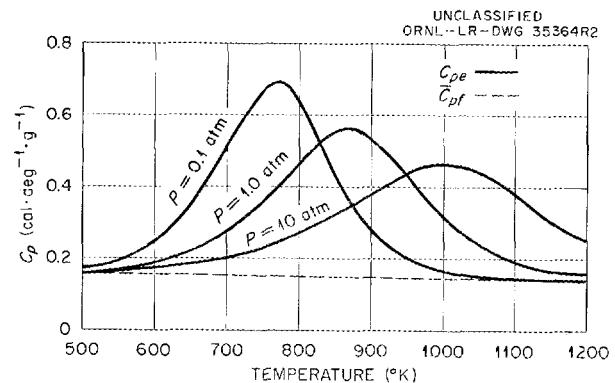
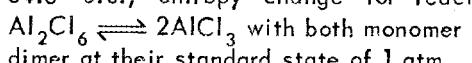


Fig. 1. The Calculated Effective Specific Heat of Aluminum Chloride as a Function of Temperature at Three Pressures.

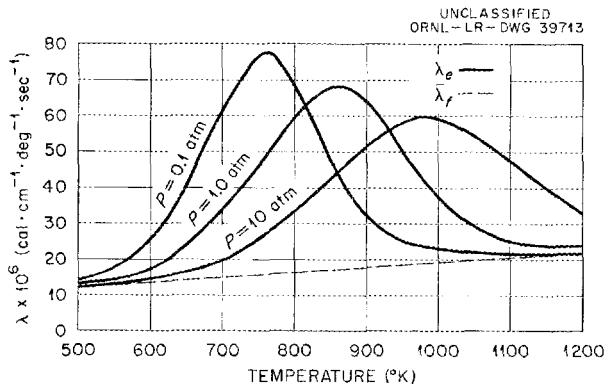


Fig. 2. The Calculated Effective Thermal Conductivities of Aluminum Chloride as a Function of Temperature at Three Pressures.

$$\sigma_1^2 = 40 \text{ Å}^2$$

$$\sigma_2^2 = 65 \text{ Å}^2$$

$$\sigma_{12}^2 = 51.7 \text{ Å}^2$$

$$M_1 = M_2/2 = 133.35 \text{ g/mole}$$

$$\Omega = \Omega' = 2.0$$

$$C_v = C_p - R$$

Viscosity

The viscosity was estimated from the equation⁶

$$\eta_n = \frac{2.6693 \times 10^{-5} (M_n T)^{1/2}}{\sigma_n^2 \Omega} \quad (6)$$

¹⁰Ibid., p 539.

and the equation

$$Pv = \left(\frac{1 + w_1}{M_2} \right) RT , \quad (10)$$

in which the reasonable assumption is made that the gaseous monomer and dimer individually behave as ideal gases and that all deviations from an ideal gas are due to the association or dissociation of the gaseous monomer or dimer. An evaluation of $(\partial v / \partial P)_T$ and $(\partial v / \partial T)_P$ from Eq. (10) and the thermodynamic relation

$$\frac{d \ln K}{dT} = \frac{\Delta H}{RT^2} = \frac{d \ln [4w_1^2 P / (1 - w_1^2)]}{dT} \quad (11)$$

leads to

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial P} \right)_T &= -\frac{v}{P} \left(1 + \frac{w_1 w_2}{2} \right) \\ &= -\frac{RT}{P^2} \left(\frac{1 + w_1}{M_2} \right) \left(1 + \frac{w_1 w_2}{2} \right) \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial T} \right)_P &= \frac{v}{T} \left(1 + \frac{\Delta H}{RT} \frac{w_1 w_2}{2} \right) \\ &= \frac{R}{P} \left(\frac{1 + w_1}{M_2} \right) \left(1 + \frac{\Delta H}{RT} \frac{w_1 w_2}{2} \right) . \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

Substitution of Eqs. (12) and (13) into Eq. (9) leads to

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial P} \right)_S &= -\frac{RT}{P^2} \left(\frac{1 + w_1}{M_2} \right) \left[1 + \frac{w_1 w_2}{2} - \right. \\ &\quad \left. - \frac{R(1 + w_1)}{M_2 C_{pe}} \left(1 + \frac{\Delta H}{RT} \frac{w_1 w_2}{2} \right)^2 \right] . \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES

In the gaseous phase the state of an equilibrium mixture of Al_2Cl_6 and AlCl_3 is determined by any two independent properties, and knowledge of the thermodynamic state makes it possible to determine the thermodynamic properties. The two independent defining properties used to calculate weight fraction of monomer, enthalpy, entropy, and specific

volume were temperature and pressure. The relations used in the computational procedure are summarized below.

Determination of Weight Fraction of Monomer, w_1 . — It has been shown by Newton, from free-energy-change relationships, that

$$w_1 = \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \tanh u \right)^{1/2} , \quad (15)$$

where

$$u = 8.016 - \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{P}{14.696} - \frac{13420}{T} ,$$

T is in $^{\circ}\text{R}$, and P is pressure in psia.

Determination of Enthalpy, b . — The enthalpy of the mixture is the sum of the enthalpy the gas would have if it were all in the dimer state plus the enthalpy of dissociation. Choosing absolute zero temperature as the base for enthalpy and $0.1575 \text{ Btu} \cdot \text{lb}^{-1} \cdot (\text{ }^{\circ}\text{R})^{-1}$ as the frozen specific heat averaged for the temperatures and pressures under consideration, the "sensible" enthalpy, in Btu/lb , is

$$b_s = 0.1575T .$$

The enthalpy of dissociation is 199.7 Btu for each pound of Al_2Cl_6 monomerized. Therefore the total enthalpy is

$$b = 0.1575T + 199.7w_1 . \quad (16)$$

Determination of Entropy, s . — From the definition of entropy in $\text{Btu} \cdot \text{lb}^{-1} \cdot (\text{ }^{\circ}\text{R})^{-1}$,

$$ds = \frac{dQ_{\text{reversible}}}{T} ,$$

it can be shown¹³ that

$$ds = \frac{du + P dv}{T} .$$

Noting that

$$db = du + P dv + v dP$$

gives

$$ds = \frac{db - v dP}{T} .$$

¹³See, for instance, J. H. Keenan, *Thermodynamics*, p 85, Wiley, New York, 1941.

3. For the entropy calculation, at a constant pressure,

$$\Delta s]_1^2 \approx \frac{\Delta h}{T}$$

$$\approx \frac{208.53 - 203.79}{1260}$$

$$\approx 0.003792$$

and

$$s \approx 0.07298$$

4. For the specific volume calculation

$$v = 0.04023(1 + w_1) \frac{T}{P}$$

$$= 0.04023(1 + 0.05055) \frac{1260}{30}$$

$$= 1.7751$$

Data obtained for these functions at temperatures from 900 to 2000°R and pressures of 1.5, 5, 15, 30, 60, 100, and 150 psia are listed in Table 3, and an enthalpy-entropy chart is presented in Fig. 3.

CORROSION BEHAVIOR

The corrosiveness of the gas is another important consideration. The free energies of formation of aluminum chloride and the chlorides of some possible container materials at 500 and 1000°K

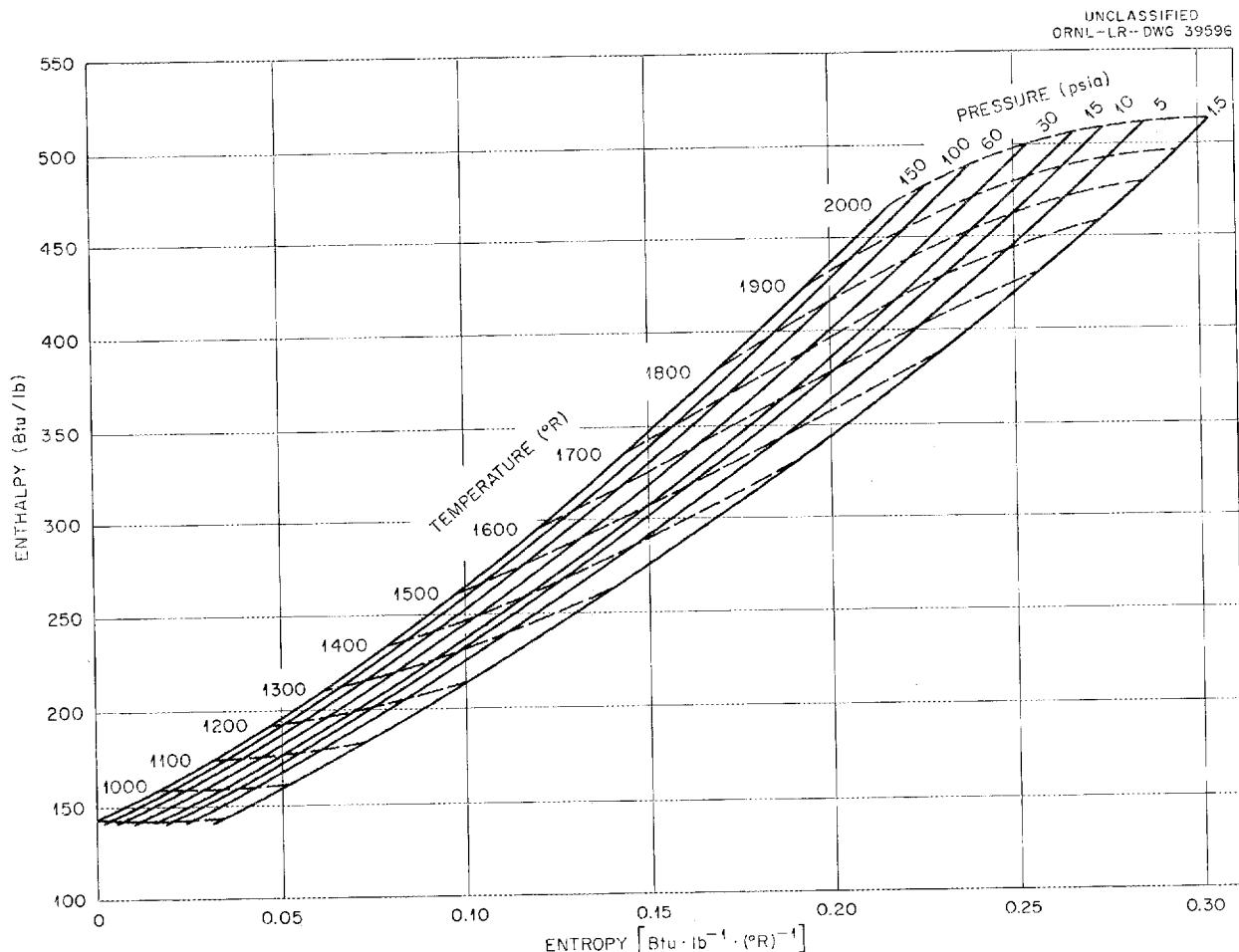


Fig. 3. Enthalpy-Entropy Diagram for Aluminum Chloride Vapor.

Table 3 (continued)

Temperature (°R)	Weight Fraction of AlCl ₃	Enthalpy (Btu/lb)	Entropy [Btu·lb ⁻¹ ·(°R) ⁻¹]	Specific Volume (ft ³ /lb)
At a Pressure of 5 psia				
1540	0.65132	372.48	0.20400	20.442
1560	0.69243	383.84	0.21128	21.223
1580	0.73062	394.60	0.21810	21.981
1600	0.76553	404.72	0.22442	22.708
1620	0.79699	414.15	0.23024	23.401
1640	0.82497	422.88	0.23556	24.059
1660	0.84960	430.94	0.24042	24.681
1680	0.87106	438.37	0.24484	25.268
1700	0.88963	445.23	0.24887	25.823
1720	0.90560	451.56	0.25256	26.348
1740	0.91926	457.44	0.25593	26.845
1760	0.93093	462.92	0.25905	27.319
1780	0.94085	468.05	0.26193	27.771
1800	0.94929	472.88	0.26461	28.205
1820	0.95645	477.46	0.26713	28.624
1840	0.96254	481.82	0.26950	29.028
1860	0.96771	486.01	0.27175	29.421
1880	0.97211	490.03	0.27389	29.804
1900	0.97586	493.93	0.27594	30.178
1920	0.97906	497.72	0.27792	30.545
1940	0.98179	501.41	0.27982	30.906
1960	0.98413	505.03	0.28167	31.261
1980	0.98614	508.58	0.28346	31.612
2000	0.98786	512.07	0.28521	31.959
At a Pressure of 15 psia				
900	0.00100	141.94	0.01713	2.4140
920	0.00141	145.18	0.02064	2.4686
940	0.00189	148.42	0.02409	2.5235
960	0.00256	151.71	0.02751	2.5789
980	0.00342	155.03	0.03090	2.6349
1000	0.00448	158.39	0.03426	2.6915
1020	0.00586	161.81	0.03762	2.7491
1040	0.00753	165.30	0.04097	2.8077
1060	0.00959	168.86	0.04433	2.8676
1080	0.01215	172.52	0.04772	2.9291
1100	0.01522	176.28	0.05114	2.9923
1120	0.01891	180.17	0.05461	3.0578
1140	0.02335	184.20	0.05815	3.1260
1160	0.02858	188.40	0.06176	3.1971
1180	0.03475	192.78	0.06548	3.2717
1200	0.04199	197.37	0.06931	3.3505
1220	0.05043	202.21	0.07327	3.4339
1240	0.06017	207.30	0.07738	3.5226
1260	0.07137	212.69	0.08165	3.6172

Table 3 (continued)

Temperature (°R)	Weight Fraction of AlCl_3	Enthalpy (Btu/lb)	Entropy [Btu·lb $^{-1} \cdot (\text{°R})^{-1}$]	Specific Volume (ft 3 /lb)
At a Pressure of 30 psia				
1920	0.89110	480.17	0.24330	4.8646
1940	0.90367	485.83	0.24622	4.9479
1960	0.91477	491.19	0.24895	5.0281
1980	0.92456	496.30	0.25153	5.1054
2000	0.93318	501.17	0.25397	5.1801
At a Pressure of 60 psia				
900	0.00049	141.84	0.00681	0.60320
920	0.00071	145.04	0.01028	0.61674
940	0.00093	148.23	0.01368	0.63029
960	0.00130	151.46	0.01704	0.64393
980	0.00171	154.69	0.02034	0.65762
1000	0.00223	157.94	0.02359	0.67139
1020	0.00293	161.23	0.02682	0.68529
1040	0.00374	164.54	0.03000	0.69929
1060	0.00479	167.90	0.03317	0.71349
1080	0.00608	171.31	0.03632	0.72788
1100	0.00759	174.76	0.03946	0.74247
1120	0.00945	178.28	0.04261	0.75737
1140	0.01168	181.88	0.04576	0.77260
1160	0.01430	185.55	0.04892	0.78818
1180	0.01737	189.31	0.05211	0.80420
1200	0.02100	193.19	0.05534	0.82075
1220	0.02524	197.18	0.05862	0.83790
1240	0.03013	201.31	0.06194	0.85569
1260	0.03575	205.58	0.06533	0.87424
1280	0.04221	210.02	0.06880	0.89366
1300	0.04959	214.64	0.07236	0.91405
1320	0.05795	219.46	0.07601	0.93550
1340	0.06738	224.49	0.07976	0.95814
1360	0.07801	229.76	0.08364	0.98213
1380	0.08993	235.29	0.08764	1.0075
1400	0.10318	241.08	0.09178	1.0346
1420	0.11788	247.16	0.09607	1.0633
1440	0.13412	253.55	0.10050	1.0940
1460	0.15197	260.26	0.10510	1.1266
1480	0.17151	267.31	0.10986	1.1614
1500	0.19276	274.70	0.11479	1.1985
1520	0.21576	282.44	0.11988	1.2379
1540	0.24050	290.53	0.12513	1.2797
1560	0.26699	298.96	0.13054	1.3240
1580	0.29515	307.73	0.13609	1.3708
1600	0.32485	316.80	0.14176	1.4200
1620	0.35597	326.16	0.14753	1.4715
1640	0.38830	335.76	0.15339	1.5252

Table 3 (continued)

Temperature (°R)	Weight Fraction of AlCl ₃	Enthalpy (Btu/lb)	Entropy [Btu·lb ⁻¹ ·(°R) ⁻¹]	Specific Volume (ft ³ /lb)
At a Pressure of 60 psia				
1660	0.42164	345.56	0.15929	1.5809
1680	0.45570	355.51	0.16521	1.6382
1700	0.49016	365.53	0.17111	1.6970
1720	0.52471	375.57	0.17695	1.7567
1740	0.55899	385.56	0.18269	1.8171
1760	0.59269	395.44	0.18830	1.8777
1780	0.62547	405.13	0.19374	1.9382
1800	0.65706	414.58	0.19899	1.9981
1820	0.68721	423.75	0.20403	2.0570
1840	0.71573	432.59	0.20883	2.1148
1860	0.74248	441.07	0.21340	2.1711
1880	0.76737	449.19	0.21771	2.2258
1900	0.79036	456.92	0.22178	2.2787
1920	0.81146	464.28	0.22562	2.3298
1940	0.83070	471.27	0.22922	2.3791
1960	0.84818	477.91	0.23261	2.4266
1980	0.86397	484.21	0.23579	2.4723
2000	0.87819	490.19	0.23878	2.5163
At a Pressure of 100 psia				
900	0.00039	141.82	0.00301	0.36188
920	0.00054	145.00	0.00647	0.36998
940	0.00074	148.19	0.00986	0.37809
960	0.00099	151.39	0.01320	0.38624
980	0.00132	154.61	0.01648	0.39441
1000	0.00174	157.84	0.01971	0.40263
1020	0.00226	161.10	0.02290	0.41090
1040	0.00291	164.38	0.02605	0.41923
1060	0.00371	167.69	0.02918	0.42763
1080	0.00470	171.03	0.03228	0.43613
1100	0.00589	174.42	0.03536	0.44473
1120	0.00732	177.86	0.03842	0.45346
1140	0.00904	181.35	0.04149	0.46234
1160	0.01107	184.90	0.04455	0.47140
1180	0.01346	188.53	0.04763	0.48067
1200	0.01627	192.24	0.05072	0.49017
1220	0.01955	196.05	0.05383	0.49994
1240	0.02334	199.95	0.05698	0.51003
1260	0.02770	203.97	0.06018	0.52047
1280	0.03271	208.12	0.06342	0.53130
1300	0.03843	212.41	0.06672	0.54259
1320	0.04491	216.86	0.07009	0.55438
1340	0.05225	221.47	0.07353	0.56673
1360	0.06051	226.27	0.07706	0.57970
1380	0.06976	231.26	0.08068	0.59336

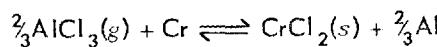
(ref 15) are listed in Table 4. Aluminum chloride is stable on a free-energy basis relative to these pure container materials. If, however, the products of a possible corrosion reaction are gaseous or form a solid or liquid solution and if a mechanism exists for the removal of the reaction products from the region of the reaction, a corrosion reaction might proceed. Unfortunately aluminum exists in two positive valence states. The chlorides AlCl and AlCl_3 are both gaseous in the temperature range of interest.

Table 4. Free Energies of Formation of Aluminum Chloride and the Chlorides of Some Possible Container Materials

Metal Chloride	Free Energy of Formation (kcal per mole of Cl)	
	At 500°K	At 1000°K
AlCl_3	-48(g)	-46(g)
CrCl_3	-35	-26
CrCl_2	-40	-32
FeCl_3	-23	-21
FeCl_2	-33	-27
NiCl_2	-27	-18
AlCl	-22(g)	-32(g)
MoCl_2	-15	-8
MoCl_3	-14	-6
MoCl_4	-12	-7
MoCl_5	-10	-7
MoCl_6	-7	-3

As an illustration of the possible corrosion behavior, the corrosion of an alloy containing chromium and nickel in a system in which gaseous aluminum chloride is circulated at temperatures in the range 500 to 1000°K is discussed here. The most likely corrosion reactions involving chromium are:

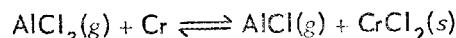
Reaction A



$$\Delta F^\circ \text{ at } 500^\circ\text{K} = +16 \text{ kcal}$$

$$\Delta F^\circ \text{ at } 1000^\circ\text{K} = +28 \text{ kcal}$$

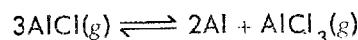
Reaction B



$$\Delta F^\circ \text{ at } 500^\circ\text{K} = +42 \text{ kcal}$$

$$\Delta F^\circ \text{ at } 1000^\circ\text{K} = +42 \text{ kcal}$$

Reaction C



$$\Delta F^\circ \text{ at } 500^\circ\text{K} = -78 \text{ kcal}$$

$$\Delta F^\circ \text{ at } 1000^\circ\text{K} = -42 \text{ kcal}$$

The equilibrium constant, K , for reaction A is

$$K_A = e^{-\Delta F^\circ/RT} = \frac{a_{\text{Al}}^{2/3} a_{\text{CrCl}_2}}{P_{\text{AlCl}_3}^{2/3} a_{\text{Cr}}} \quad (19)$$

$$= 10^{-7} \text{ at } 500^\circ\text{K}$$

$$= 10^{-6.1} \text{ at } 1000^\circ\text{K}$$

If pure aluminum is produced from the reaction of pure chromium and AlCl_3 at a pressure of 1 atm, the activity of CrCl_2 , a_{CrCl_2} , is $10^{-6.1}$ at 1000°K and 10^{-7} at 500°K . The partial pressure of CrCl_2 under these conditions, P_{CrCl_2} , may be calculated from the relation

$$P_{\text{CrCl}_2} = a_{\text{CrCl}_2} P_{\text{CrCl}_2}^0 \quad (20)$$

where $P_{\text{CrCl}_2}^0$ is the vapor pressure of the pure solid, which may be calculated from the relation¹¹

$$\log P_{\text{CrCl}_2}^0 \text{ (atm)} = \frac{-14,000}{T} - 0.62 \log T - \\ - 0.00058T + 12.26 \quad (21)$$

The vapor pressure $P_{\text{CrCl}_2}^0$ is $10^{-4.18}$ or 6.6×10^{-5} atm at 1000°K and $10^{-17.70}$ or 2×10^{-18} atm at 500°K . The calculated partial pressures of CrCl_2 under the stated conditions are then 5.3×10^{-11} atm at 1000°K and 2×10^{-25} atm at 500°K . In a system in which aluminum chloride gas was being

¹⁵A. Glassner, *The Thermochemical Properties of the Oxides, Fluorides, and Chlorides to 2500°K* , ANL-5750 (1957).

circulated, if reaction A were the only significant one, it would take a minimum of 2×10^{10} moles of aluminum chloride gas to move 1 mole of CrCl_2 from the hot zone and deposit it as solid CrCl_2 in the cold zone. The fact that the aluminum metal produced in reaction A might form a solid solution with the metal wall in the reaction zone would increase the initial partial pressure and transport of CrCl_2 . After an initial deposit of aluminum metal had formed on the surface, the reaction would yield a smaller partial pressure of CrCl_2 , with diffusion of aluminum into the metal in the hot zone being one controlling factor for this partial pressure if reaction A were important. Not only is the initial activity of chromium in an alloy lower than that of the pure metal, but the depletion of the surface chromium concentration would further lower the activity of chromium at the surface and, hence, lower the maximum partial pressure of CrCl_2 in the circulating gas at the hot end. This would lead to a smaller transport of CrCl_2 from the hot to the cold zone. The chromium concentration on the reaction surface and, hence, the corrosion rate, would then be controlled by the diffusion of chromium to the surface in the hot zone. This diffusion would be a second controlling factor if reaction A were important.

The equilibrium constant for reaction B is

$$K_B = e^{-\Delta F/RT} = \frac{P_{\text{AlCl}}^a P_{\text{CrCl}_2}}{P_{\text{AlCl}_3}^a P_{\text{Cr}}} \\ = \frac{P_{\text{AlCl}} P_{\text{CrCl}_2}}{P_{\text{AlCl}_3}^a P_{\text{Cr}}^0 P_{\text{CrCl}_2}^0} \quad (22)$$

$$= 10^{-18.4} \text{ at } 500^\circ\text{K}$$

$$= 10^{-9.2} \text{ at } 1000^\circ\text{K} .$$

For pure chromium exposed to aluminum chloride at a pressure of 1 atm,

$$P_{\text{AlCl}} P_{\text{CrCl}_2} = 10^{-9.2} \times 10^{-4.18} = 10^{-13.4}$$

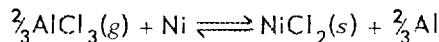
at 1000°K and

$$P_{\text{AlCl}} = P_{\text{CrCl}_2} = 10^{-6.7} \text{ or } 2 \times 10^{-7} .$$

This partial pressure is higher than that which would be present above a chromium-containing alloy in which the activity of the chromium was lower than the activity of pure chromium metal. The partial pressure of CrCl_2 from reaction B is higher than that from reaction A. Reaction B should be, therefore, the important corrosion reaction and should result in the transport, at the very most, of about 2×10^{-7} mole of chromium per mole of circulating gas. At the low-temperature zone, CrCl_2 will initially deposit as the solid, AlCl will disproportionate according to reaction C, and a small concentration of aluminum will deposit on the surface of the alloy. After a small activity of aluminum is built up in the metal, the reaction at the low-temperature zone should be the reverse of reaction B, with chromium metal being deposited on the walls. At the hot zone, after the surface chromium has been depleted, the reaction will be limited by the diffusion of chromium from the interior of the metal to the surface. If reaction B is important, this diffusion of chromium to the surface at the hot zone will probably be the rate-controlling step in the transport of chromium metal from the hot to the cold zone. Lowering the temperature of the hot zone would decrease the rate of corrosion, mainly by lowering the diffusion rate of chromium. The formation of an adherent nonmetallic film on the surface that is not attacked by aluminum chloride would also decrease the corrosion rate.

The corrosion of nickel would be much less severe. The reactions significant for nickel corrosion are:

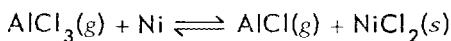
Reaction D



$$\Delta F^\circ \text{ at } 500^\circ\text{K} = +42 \text{ kcal}$$

$$\Delta F^\circ \text{ at } 1000^\circ\text{K} = +56 \text{ kcal}$$

Reaction E



$$\Delta F^\circ \text{ at } 500^\circ\text{K} = +68 \text{ kcal}$$

$$\Delta F^\circ \text{ at } 1000^\circ\text{K} = +70 \text{ kcal}$$

The equilibrium constants for reactions D and E are:

$$K_D = e^{-\Delta F/RT} = \frac{a_{Al}^{2/3} a_{NiCl_2}}{a_{Ni} P_{AlCl_3}^{2/3}}$$
$$= \frac{a_{Al}^{2/3} P_{NiCl_2}}{a_{Ni} P_{AlCl_3}^{2/3} P_{NiCl_2}^0} \quad (23)$$

= $10^{-18.4}$ at $500^\circ K$

= $10^{-12.2}$ at $1000^\circ K$,

$$K_E = e^{-\Delta F/RT} = \frac{P_{AlCl} a_{NiCl_2}}{P_{AlCl_3} a_{Ni}}$$
$$= \frac{P_{AlCl} P_{NiCl_2}}{a_{Ni} P_{AlCl_3} P_{NiCl_2}^0} \quad (24)$$
$$= 10^{-29.8} \text{ at } 500^\circ K$$
$$= 10^{-15.3} \text{ at } 1000^\circ K.$$

The vapor pressure of pure $NiCl_2$, $P_{NiCl_2}^0$, may be calculated from the equation¹¹

$$\log P_{NiCl_2}^0 \text{ (atm)} = \frac{-13,300}{T} - 2.68 \log T + 19.00 \quad (25)$$

At $1000^\circ K$, $P_{NiCl_2}^0$ is $10^{-2.34}$ or 4.6×10^{-3} atm and at $500^\circ K$ it is $10^{-14.83}$ or 1.5×10^{-15} atm. At the high-temperature zone, reaction E leads to a higher partial pressure of $NiCl_2$ than does reaction D. For the corrosion of pure nickel,

$$P_{NiCl_2} = P_{AlCl}$$
$$= (10^{-15.3} \times 10^{-2.3})^{1/2}$$
$$= 10^{-8.8} \text{ or } 1.6 \times 10^{-9} \text{ atm.}$$

At the low-temperature zone, the reverse of reaction E will probably take place, and nickel metal will deposit on the surface. The limiting factor in the corrosion of nickel from an alloy composed principally of nickel would be the total volume of gas passing over the surface. One mole of nickel would be transported per 6×10^8 moles

of gas at 1 atm passing the surface at $1000^\circ K$. One mole of $AlCl_3$ transports roughly 20 kcal of heat in going from 1000 to $500^\circ K$, so about 1 mole of nickel would be transported per 1.2×10^{10} kcal, 1.4×10^7 kwhr, or about 600 Mwd of heat. The transport corrosion of iron and molybdenum as minor constituents of an alloy should be less than that of chromium.

In conclusion, corrosion of an alloy composed mainly of nickel and containing some chromium might not be negligible for long-term operation of a system circulating gaseous aluminum chloride at temperatures in the range 500 and $1000^\circ K$, but the corrosion would be small enough for short-term operation of such a system. The corrosion rate could be decreased considerably by operating with the hot zone of the loop at temperatures lower than the $1000^\circ K$ for which these calculations were made or by the formation of an oxide coating on the surface of the metal. The estimated values of the thermal conductivity, heat capacity, and viscosity indicate that aluminum chloride may be a unique gaseous heat exchange medium that requires very low pumping power. It should be emphasized that these are crude estimates based on a limited amount of data of varying degrees of reliability. Although a conscious attempt has been made to make these estimates conservative, some of the estimates should be checked experimentally.

ENGINEERING PROBLEMS OF SOME TYPICAL APPLICATIONS

Where aluminum chloride vapor is used as a working fluid in a thermodynamic cycle or as a heat transfer medium, the pressures and temperatures must be carefully chosen to exploit to the fullest the extra performance obtainable from dissociation. Normally a temperature range will be defined by the structural strength of the metals in the system or by other considerations, such as corrosion, so that the only variable available to the designer will be the pressure. This means that the pressure level must be chosen with care to give the best over-all system design. It is likely that it will be necessary to compromise the design of other components if the fullest benefits are to be derived from the use of aluminum chloride.

Aluminum Chloride as a Heat Transfer Medium

A typical application for which aluminum chloride may have promise is as an intermediate heat

transfer fluid between the fluoride fuel of a molten-salt-fueled reactor and the steam generator. The use of a gas rather than a liquid in the intermediate loop would facilitate removal of the heat transfer medium; it would not be necessary to design the system to avoid the presence of low spots which would present difficult drainage or scavenge problems. It would make possible the placing of flanged joints in cool zones at the top of the system and outside of the heat exchanger pressure envelope so that leaks of the molten fuel into the aluminum chloride would be contained within the pressure envelope. The pressure required, namely, 20 to 60 psi in the aluminum chloride, would present no serious structural problems in the design of the containing vessel. From Fig. 4, which is a plot of data obtained from Eq. (7), it is evident that there would be no solid aluminum chloride precipitated at the temperatures and pressures prevailing in a molten-salt-fueled reactor. Aluminum chloride would have the advantage as a heat transfer fluid that it would

be chemically inert relative to either the molten salt or water. This would make it desirable from the hazards standpoint and would give a system relatively insensitive to leaks between any two sets of fluid; that is, a small leak from one system into another would not lead to the formation of a set of deposits which would be very difficult to remove. It would be necessary, of course, to make the steam generator, as well as the fuel-to-aluminum chloride heat exchanger, of a relatively expensive high-nickel-content alloy.

The principal disadvantage of this arrangement is that it would require a larger amount of heat transfer surface area and a higher pumping power than would be the case for an inert molten salt, for example. However, it would have a major advantage in that there would be no freezing problem in the intermediate heat exchanger circuit. The freezing problem presents exceedingly difficult design problems if a fluid such as sodium or NaK is employed as the intermediate heat transfer medium.

The temperature range for such an application is lower than is desirable in that the heat transfer surfaces for the molten salt would be at about 1100 to 1200°F, while those in the steam generator would be at 700 to 1000°F. As may be seen in Fig. 1, this temperature range is below that which gives the maximum obtainable average effective specific heat if the pressure is maintained high enough (30 to 100 psi) to keep pumping losses to acceptable levels.

Aluminum Chloride Vapor in a Gas-Turbine Cycle

The features of a gas-turbine cycle utilizing aluminum chloride deserve special attention. The cycle contemplated is indicated schematically in Fig. 5. The pressures and temperatures should be chosen so that the gas will be mostly in the form of Al_2Cl_6 during compression, while during the expansion process it will be mostly AlCl_3 . This, in effect, will cut the compression work roughly in half and thus produce a marked improvement in cycle efficiency. The nature of this effect can be visualized readily by examining the P-V diagrams of Fig. 6, which compare similar ideal gas-turbine cycles for helium, aluminum chloride, and water. It should be remembered that the work involved in each compression or expansion process is directly proportional to the area of the P-V diagram, and the net work is

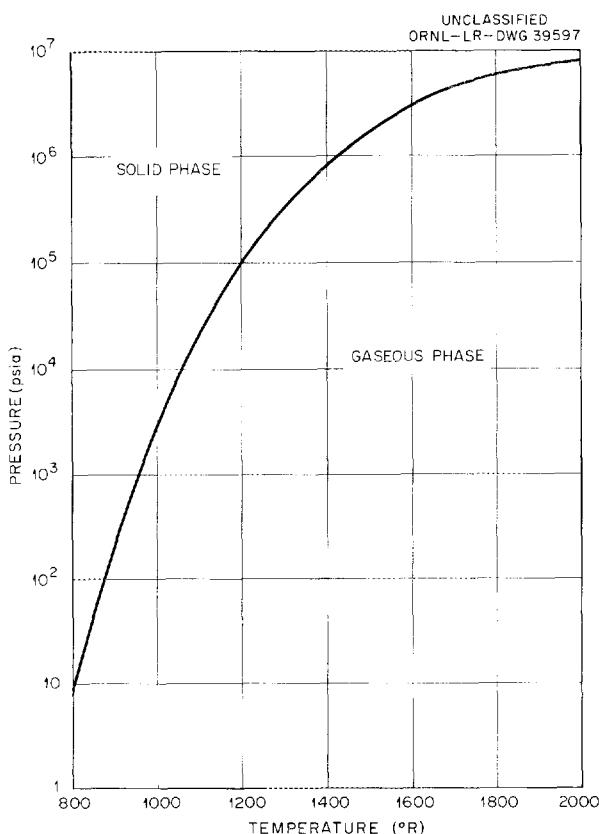


Fig. 4. Gas-Solid Equilibrium Diagram for Aluminum Chloride.

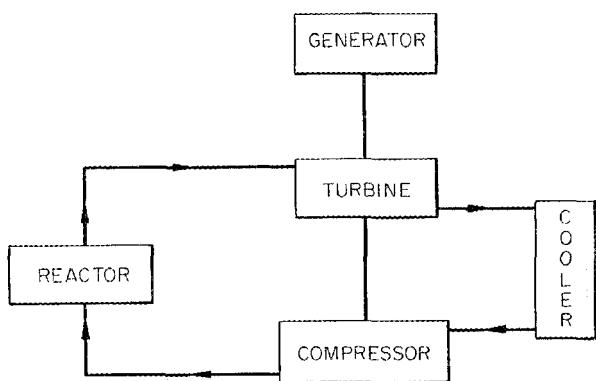


Fig. 5. Aluminum Chloride Gas-Turbine Cycle.

proportional to the net area for the cycle. The Rankine cycle utilizing water vapor was included in Fig. 6 to show that the proposed aluminum chloride cycle is between a gas-turbine (or Brayton) cycle utilizing helium and a Rankine cycle utilizing water in its requirements for work input during the compression process.

The diagrams of Fig. 6 were prepared for ideal cycles with no allowances for losses. The most important of these losses are associated with the efficiencies of the compressor and the turbine, which are likely to be of the order of 85%. This means that, with an 85% efficient compressor, the ideal work input will be 85% of the actual work input, while the actual work output of the turbine will be only 85% of the ideal. In addition, pressure drops between the compressor and the turbine will

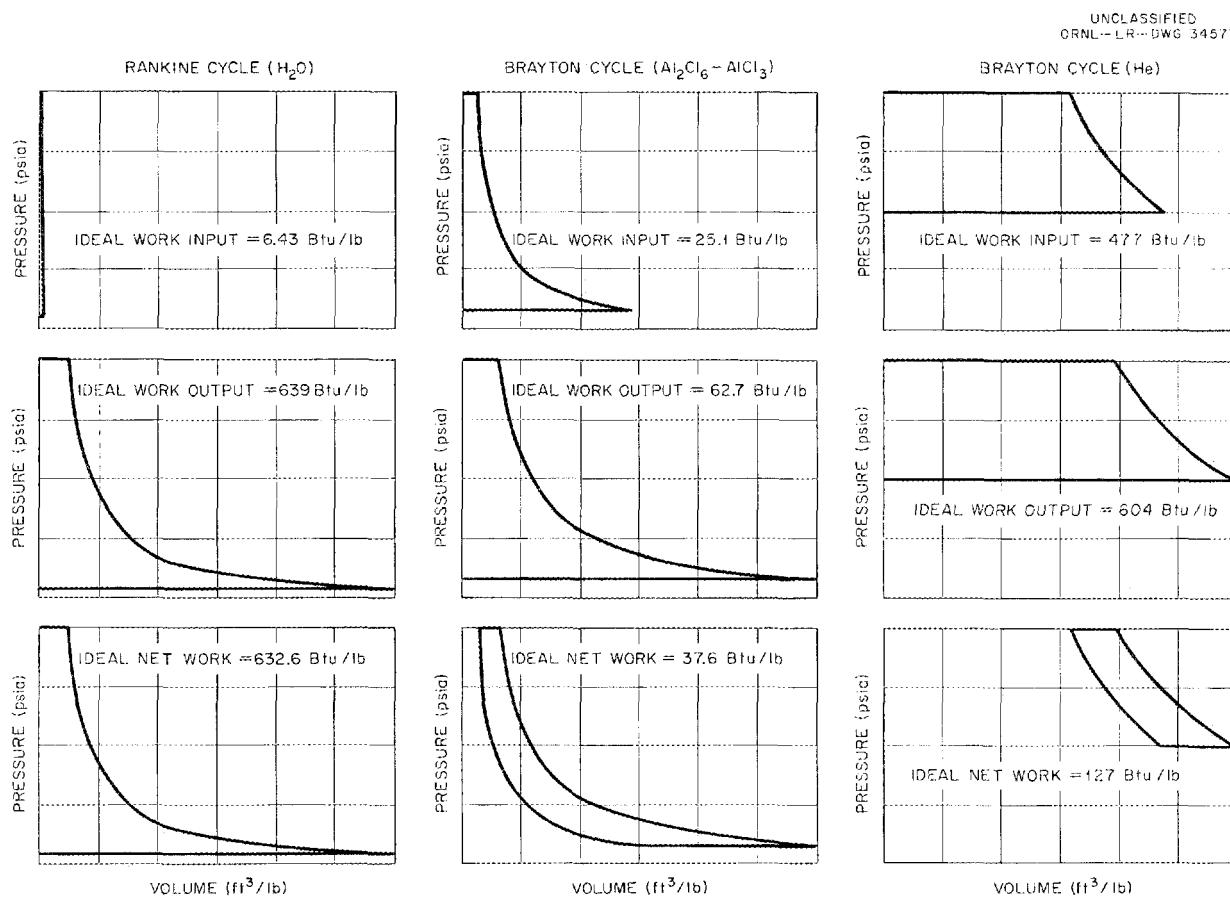


Fig. 6. P-V Diagrams for Typical Ideal Thermodynamic Cycles.

also cause major losses in net output from the cycle. The nature of these effects can be seen readily in Fig. 7. It should be emphasized that the shaded portions of these diagrams are merely proportional to the losses they represent and that the actual paths of the processes cannot be shown. A rough allowance for these pressure losses can be made by using lower values for the turbine and compressor efficiencies, for example, 80% in each case.

If allowances are made for these losses to obtain the actual net outputs for the cycles of Fig. 6, the diagrams of Fig. 8 result. The relatively large work input required for the compression process of the Brayton cycle makes the cycle efficiency very sensitive to compressor inlet temperature because the compression work increases rapidly with temperature. As a result, the net work output and over-all cycle efficiency of the Brayton cycle drop off so rapidly with increasing temperature at the compressor inlet that, for any practicable plant, the compressor inlet

temperature must be held below 150°F if conventional working fluids are used. At the same time, the turbine inlet temperature must be at least 1200°F, and preferably should be above 1400°F if there is to be an appreciable positive net area for the P-V diagram.

The unusual properties of aluminum chloride make it possible to go to higher compressor inlet temperatures than with other fluids. The effects of variations in both the compressor inlet temperature and the compressor pressure ratio are indicated in Fig. 9 for a turbine inlet temperature of 1540°F. While this temperature is high by steam power plant standards, the much lower pressures in the aluminum chloride system reduce stresses sufficiently to compensate for most of the temperature difference. In any event, it is necessary to go to peak temperatures in this range to take full advantage of the unusual properties of the aluminum chloride. It is evident from Fig. 9 that the aluminum chloride vapor cycle should be designed for a compressor inlet temperature of around 540 to 640°F and a pressure ratio of 20 to 40. Further lowering of the compressor inlet temperature will do little to enhance efficiency, since at 540°F most of the gas is in the dimer state already.

A point of interest is that it was found in the cycle analysis that during the compression and expansion processes there was little change in the percentage of the gas dissociated. This will simplify the design of compressors and turbines for such an application.

The heat transfer coefficient for the aluminum chloride is sufficiently high for the high-pressure portion of the cycle, and therefore good heat transfer could be obtained in a reactor core. In the cooler, however, the heat transfer performance of the aluminum chloride would be poor, and a large surface area would be required. The poor heat transfer coefficient of aluminum chloride in the cooler stems from the fact that the pressure at the turbine outlet would be only approximately 1/10 atm, and this would give a low Reynolds number. The pressure ahead of the turbine, on the other hand, would be 20 to 40 times greater, which would give heat transfer coefficients correspondingly higher.

Binary Vapor Cycle Applications

If aluminum chloride were used as a reactor coolant or as an intermediate heat transfer fluid

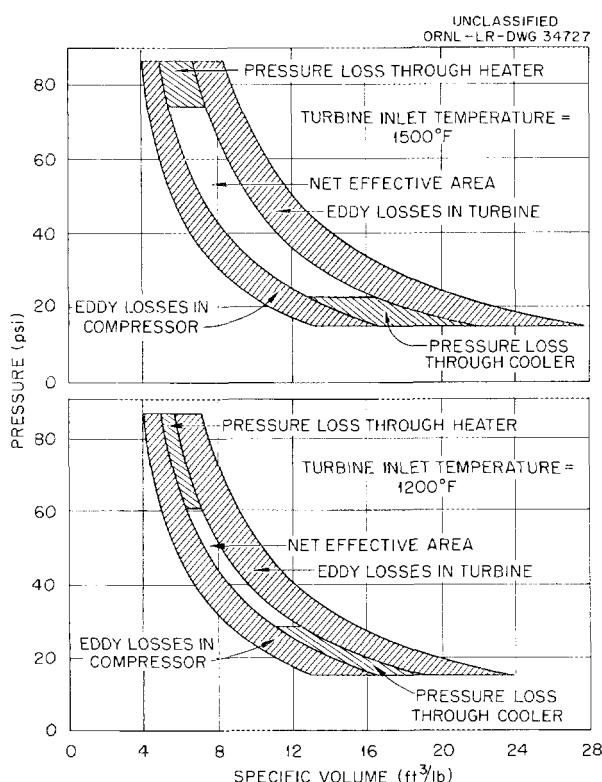


Fig. 7. P-V Diagrams for Ideal Gas Turbine Air Cycles with Cross-Hatched Areas to Indicate the Magnitude of the Principal Losses.

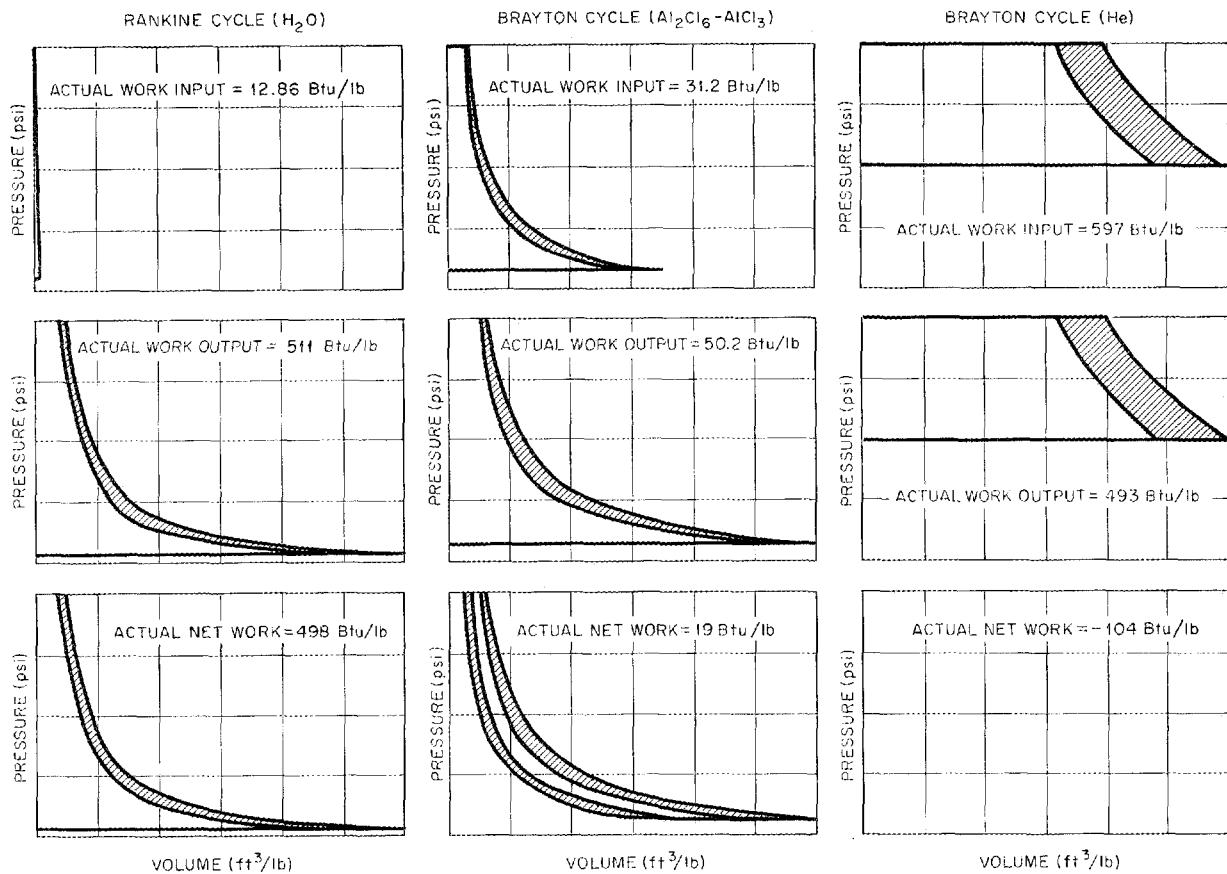


Fig. 8. P-V Diagrams for Typical Ideal Thermodynamic Cycles with Cross-Hatched Areas to Represent the Losses Entailed by Compressor and Turbine Efficiencies of 80%.

for a molten-salt-fueled reactor, it appears that a binary vapor cycle employing aluminum chloride in the high-temperature portion and water vapor in the lower-temperature region ought to be considered. Such a cycle would resemble in many ways the binary mercury vapor-steam cycle which has been used in a number of U.S. power plants. It would have the advantage that it would permit operation at high temperatures (which would be advantageous from the thermodynamic standpoint) while avoiding the expense associated with the high pressures characteristic of high-temperature steam cycles. While there are a host of different combinations of conditions that might be employed,

a typical case is presented in Table 5. The aluminum chloride would be expanded through a turbine similar to that described above. The cooler for the aluminum chloride would also serve as the boiler and superheater for the steam system. It may be seen from Table 5 that this system gives a very much higher over-all thermal efficiency than is obtainable from the gas-turbine cycle alone. A corresponding steam system designed for a pressure of 2400 psi and a peak temperature out of the superheater of 1050°F would give an over-all thermal efficiency of about 38%, somewhat less than the efficiency that the typical binary vapor cycle chosen would attain.

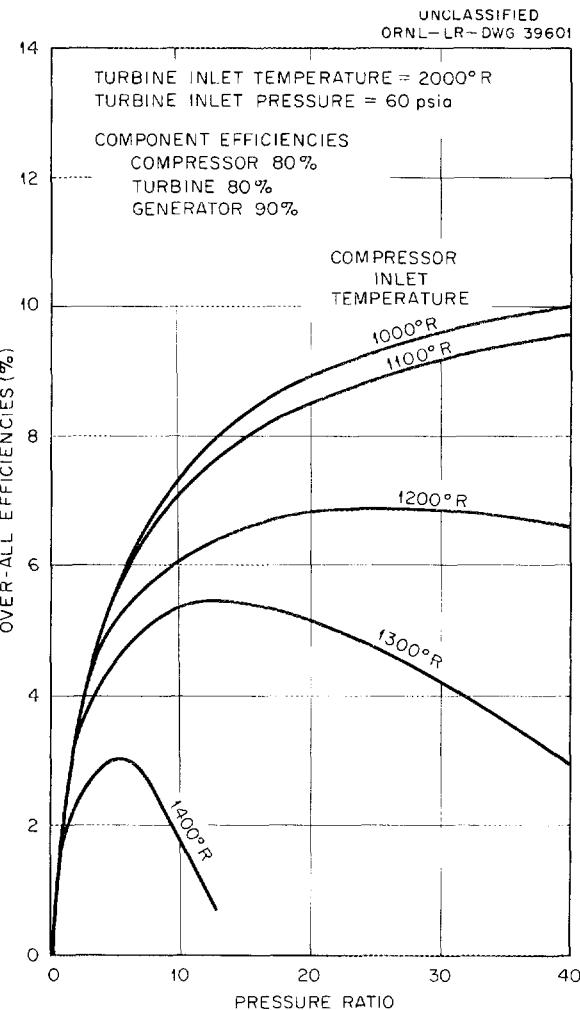


Fig. 9. Cycle Efficiency vs Pressure Ratio for AlCl_3 .

CONCLUSIONS

Thermodynamic data have been prepared and are presented in the form of tables and charts to facilitate engineering calculations on systems employing aluminum chloride vapor either as a heat transfer medium or as the working fluid in a thermodynamic cycle. A number of typical applications have been considered, but in none of these

has the aluminum chloride shown outstanding advantages over more conventional media. However, it is believed that for some special applications it may well prove to have some outstanding advantages where the characteristics of the other system components are such as to make it possible to exploit to the fullest the unique characteristics of aluminum chloride.

Table 5. Binary Vapor Cycle

Ideal mass ratio = 0.18487 lb of water per lb of aluminum chloride
 Actual mass ratio = 0.19585 lb of water per lb of aluminum chloride

Ideal cycle efficiency = 53.2%
 Actual cycle efficiency = 41.4%

Condition	Temperature (°F)	Enthalpy (Btu/lb)	Entropy (Btu/°F)	Pressure (psia)	Specific Volume (ft ³ /lb)	Weight Fraction Dissociated or Steam Quality
Aluminum Chloride						
Compressor inlet	440	142	0.02530	5	7.2476	0.00176
Compressor outlet (isentropic)	570	164	0.02530	100	0.41506	0.00259
Compressor outlet (80% efficiency)	615	169.5	0.0311	100	0.4344	0.00447
Turbine inlet	1540	478	0.22584	100	1.4614	0.818
Turbine outlet (isentropic)	1150	406	0.22584	5	23.07	0.781
Turbine outlet (80% efficiency)	1175	420.4	0.2343	5	23.92	0.818
Steam*						
Pump inlet	91.72	59.71	0.1147	0.7368	0.01611	Saturated liquid
Pump outlet (isentropic)	91.72	66.14	0.1147	2400	0.01600	Compressed liquid
Pump outlet (50% efficiency)	91.72	72.57	0.1243	2400	0.01600	Compressed liquid
Turbine inlet	1050	1494	1.5554	2400	0.3373	Superheated vapor
Turbine outlet (isentropic)	91.72	855	1.5554	0.7368	339.5	0.763
Turbine outlet (80% efficiency)	91.72	983	1.790	0.7368	394.2	0.886

*The bases for enthalpy and entropy of aluminum chloride and steam are not the same. Hence comparison of the absolute values of these properties between the two fluids is meaningless.

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