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Nonequilibrium Ionization Due to Electron Heating: II. Experiments

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An experimental study has been conducted of nonequilibrium conductivity of mixtures of argon and potassium. A pure plasma is produced in thermal equilibrium at temperatures up to 2500°K by means of a steady-flow tantalum heat exchanger. Conductivity measurements made with probes between the electrodes indicate that the two-temperature conduction law proposed is valid for electron concentrations above about 10^{13} cm^{-3} . The effective energy loss factor δ depends on the size of the apparatus and was found to be 10 for the test sections used in these experiments. At lower electron concentrations, the theory is in error, probably because the electron energy distribution is very non-Maxwellian. In this region, the electric field goes through a maximum with increasing current density, suggesting that it may be difficult to make the transition to the higher electron density nonequilibrium state from the initial low electron density equilibrium state in an MHD generator.

Nomenclature

- E = electric field, v/cm
 E' = electric field as seen in the moving gas frame of reference
 j = current density, amp/cm²
 k = Boltzmann constant
 M = molecular weight
 \dot{m} = mass flow rate, g/sec
 S = collision cross section, cm²
 T = temperature, °K
 V = voltage, v
 α = slope, $(\partial \log \sigma / \partial \log j)_{T_a}$ (in two-temperature conduction law)
 γ = slope, $(\partial \log \sigma / \partial \log T_a)_j$ (in two-temperature conduction law)

- δ = energy loss parameter
 σ = electrical conductivity, mho/cm

Subscripts

- A = argon
 a = gas (atom)
 c = coulomb
 e = electron
 ex = excitation
 K = potassium

Introduction

THE theory of nonequilibrium conduction proposed in Ref 1, and further developed in Part I of this paper, was tentatively confirmed by experiments reported in Ref 1. Experiments reported in Ref 2, also, indicated reasonable agreement with the theory. There were various uncertainties in these experiments, including purity and composition of the test gas, the uniformity of the current density, and electrode effects.

The experiment to be described here was designed to eliminate these uncertainties and to determine the range of applicability of the proposed two-temperature conduction

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law of Ref 1:

$$j/j^* = (T_a/T^*)^{\gamma/(1-\alpha)} (E'/E^*)^{1/(1-\alpha)}$$

where j^* , E^* , and T^* are reference conditions and where it is shown in Part I that γ and α are, in general, functions of both T_a and T for a given gas

It is of particular interest to determine that region over which γ and α can be assumed to be independent of T and, hence, functions only of the gas temperature T_a . This leads to an especially simple and useful form of the two-temperature conduction law. In addition, it is desired to determine what, if any, empirical corrections to the conduction law are necessary to permit it to be used for quantitative engineering calculations. Therefore, the emphasis in the experimental work has been on the measurement and control of the thermodynamic condition and composition of the plasma to make it possible to determine accurately the relationship between its bulk conductivity and the current density

To insure the control of the composition and temperature of the plasma, it is produced in a continuous-flow heat exchanger, where it comes in contact only with stainless steel at the lower temperatures and tantalum at the higher temperatures. This is particularly important, since a very slight contamination with polyatomic impurities could greatly influence the electronic energy loss. The heat exchanger also insures the absence of extrathermal ionization in the plasma prior to its entrance to the test section. Such residual ionization may be troublesome with arc heaters. Finally, by designing the heat exchanger carefully, it has been possible to obtain a direct and accurate measurement of the plasma temperature

The conductivity has been determined by probe measurements between the electrodes, so that uncertainties due to electrode effects are eliminated. Visual observation of the plasma has indicated that the current is quite uniformly distributed

In addition to these basic measurements, preliminary determinations of the excitation temperature of the first excited states of a trace impurity of sodium have been made by the classical line-reversal technique. No great accuracy is claimed for these measurements; however, they do show a reasonable agreement with theory at high electron concentrations, where Maxwellization of the electrons is expected (see Part I)

All of the work to be reported here has been done with mixtures of argon and potassium. The behavior of the conductivity, as predicted by the two-temperature conduction law, is shown in Fig 1 for the range of temperatures and

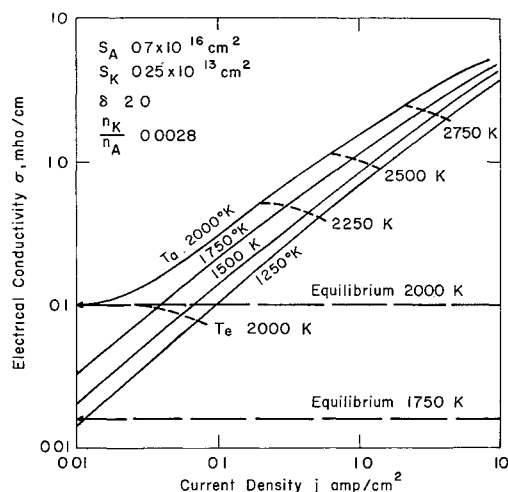


Fig 1 Theoretical variation of electrical conductivity with current density for various argon gas temperatures and for a potassium seeding fraction of 0.28%; total gas pressure is 1 atm

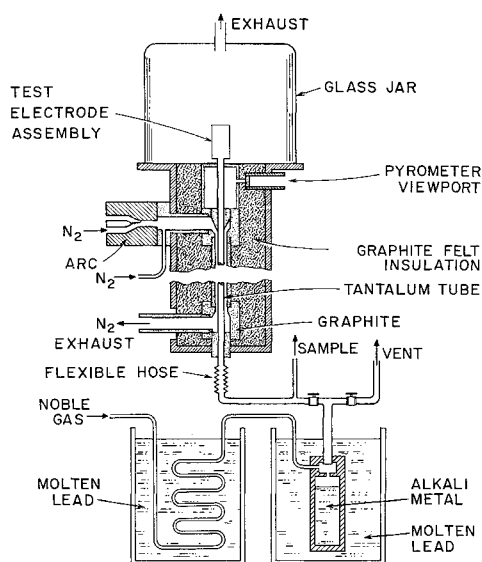


Fig 2 Experimental facility for generating pure noble gas-alkali metal plasmas at temperatures ranging from 1000° to 2500°K and 1 atm pressure

current densities attained in the experiments. One point particularly should be noted. The theory predicts that the slope of the lines of $\log \sigma$ vs $\log j$ (denoted α in Ref 1 and Part I of this paper) should be dependent only on the ratios of gas temperature to ionization energy and gas temperature to electron temperature. If the electron temperature exceeds the gas temperature by more than about 10%, the predicted value of α is almost constant at about 0.8. This provides a rather sensitive check of the theory.

Description of Test Facility

The test gas heater (Fig 2) is basically a counterflow heat exchanger. A mixture of N_2 and A is heated by an arc source to several thousand degrees Kelvin and then flows down the annular region between a graphite outer tube and a $\frac{1}{4}$ -in.-diam tantalum inner tube and is exhausted as shown. The graphite assembly is fixed only at the upper end, where it attaches to the arc, and is free to expand downward. The tantalum tube is supported by a graphite sleeve at the top and is free to expand independently both above and below this sleeve. With these provisions, the tantalum tube can be used for many runs, even though it becomes carburized and very brittle after the first run.

A very pure test gas (welding grade argon with impurities of less than 30 ppm in the test to be described) is first put through a preheater consisting of a molten lead bath in a stainless-steel pot. A stainless-steel potassium boiler (Fig 3) is immersed in a second pot, shown on the right in Fig 2. The temperature of this lead pot is carefully controlled at a constant value of about 850°C throughout the experiment. This yields a vapor pressure of the liquid potassium of over 2 atm, resulting in choked flow through a 0.004- to 0.006-in.-diam orifice at the top of the boiler. The very low potassium flow rates, ranging from about 0.002 to 0.005 g/sec, required to obtain the desired seeding concentrations are obtained in this way.

The argon mixes with the potassium vapor in the top of the potassium boiler, and the mixture flows into the tantalum tube at the base of the heat exchanger. In order to vary the seed fraction during a run, the argon flow rate is varied. To avoid disturbing the potassium boiler temperature, the argon preheater is separated from the boiler heater, as shown in Fig 2. Typical argon mass flow rates range from about 0.1 to 1.0 g/sec.

The seeded test gas flows up through the tantalum tube in the counterflow heat exchanger and enters a test section

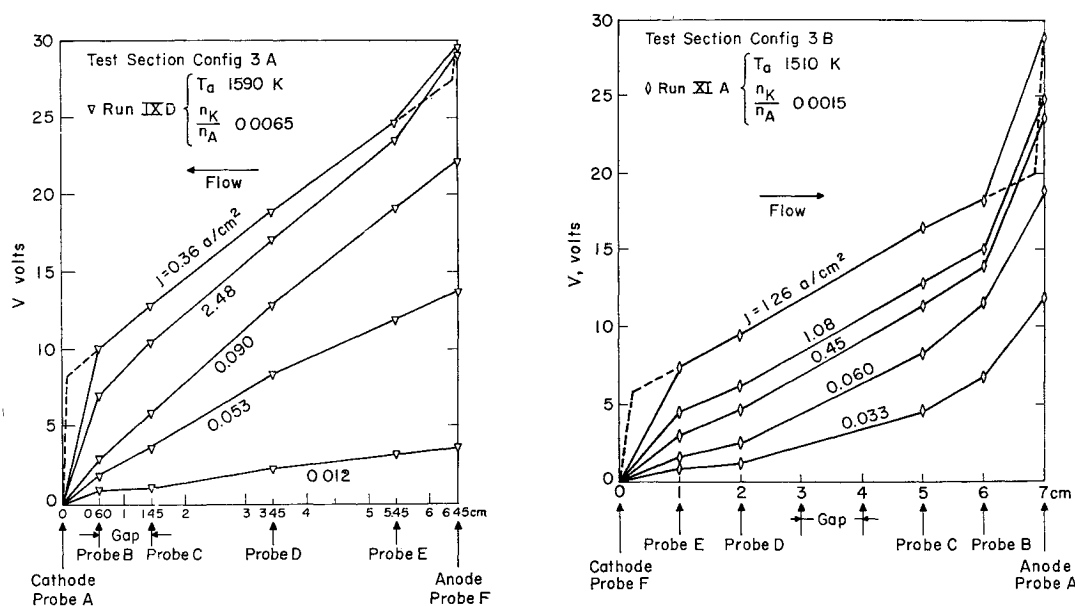


Fig 6 Typical experimental voltage variations along the test section both in the insulators and in the gap for two seeding fractions of 0.65 and 0.15%. Note different polarities relative to the gas flow direction

The arrangement of the battery power supply, ballast resistors, and switches used to apply the voltage to the test section is shown in Fig 5. The test circuit was electrically isolated from the heat exchanger, so that no spurious currents could arise due to ground loops.

Experimental Results

The basic experimental results are presented in this section, along with the general conclusions regarding their agreement with the two-temperature conduction law.

Almost two dozen runs have been made with argon seeded with various mole fractions of potassium from about 0.1% to about 1% and over a range of gas temperatures from 1400° to about 2000°K. Several of these runs are under almost identical conditions of temperature and seeding concentration and show excellent repeatability. Four representative runs at about 1500°K gas temperature and four different seed fractions have been selected for detailed quantitative analysis in this paper. The conclusions reached, however, are valid for all of the test results obtained to date.

The basic electrical measurements in these experiments consisted of the voltages between the electrodes and each probe wire and the current flowing in the test section. Direct plots of the voltages vs. electrode and probe wire locations, such as those shown in Fig 6, yield the complete voltage variation in the test section for each current density.

Using these results, it is possible to separate clearly the volume characteristics of the plasma from the electrode surface and electrode drop effects. All conductivity calculations presented in this paper are based on the average electric field in the gas well away from the electrodes.

It should be noted that the electric field between probe wires in the boron nitride insulator is essentially the same as that in the gap, except at the lowest current densities. It is observed that the electric field tends to increase, and hence the electrical conductivity tends to decrease, as the gas flows from the bottom to the top of the test section for the lower current densities. This is true for both polarities of the bottom electrode and is most probably due to a slight cooling of the plasma by radiation and conduction. At the higher current densities, joule heating tends to counter these losses, and the electric field tends to decrease less with distance along the test section.

The important conclusion to be drawn from these voltage profiles is that the conductivities calculated from the electric

field in the insulators and in the gap are essentially the same. In addition, they are clearly free of electrode effects.

The electrode drops can be seen to range from almost zero up to about 10 v for the higher current densities. Note that straight lines have been drawn between data points, but that some dotted lines have been included to suggest that the electrode drops may actually occur in a shorter distance. No further interpretation of the electrode effects will be included in this paper, since the electrode geometry in these test sections was not well suited to analysis. Special electrode investigations are underway with more suitable geometries and will be reported in the near future.

The experimental electric field vs. current density characteristics for the four representative runs are shown in Fig 7. These characteristics definitely have the shape predicted by the two-temperature conduction law at the higher current densities, but they fall above the theoretical curves for $\delta = 2.0$.

A transition region is apparent at the low current densities where a peak in required electric field occurs. A possible explanation of this will be given in the next section.

The corresponding conductivity curves are shown in Fig 8 for the same gas temperatures and seeding fractions. These

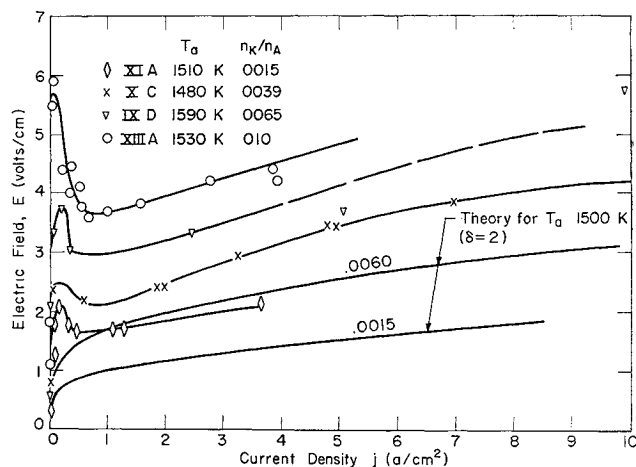


Fig 7 Experimental electric field vs. current density characteristics for four different seeding fractions but all at about 1500°K gas temperature using an argon gas seeded with potassium at 1 atm total pressure

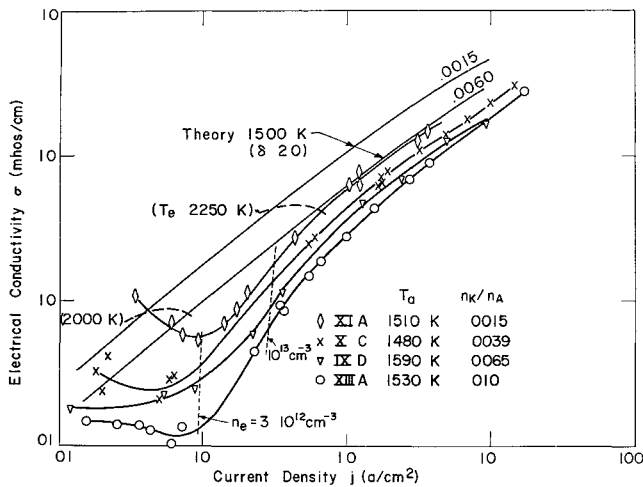


Fig 8 Comparison of theoretical and experimental conductivity vs current density curves for the four experimental runs of Fig 7

represent runs made over a period of many months during which time excellent reproducibility of the results was obtained above about 0.3 amp/cm². Below this level, the transition region corresponding to the hump in the voltage-current characteristics of Fig 7 varied somewhat from run to run. It should be noted that the peaks of the voltage-current characteristics of Fig 7 correspond to the region near the minimum conductivity points of Fig 8.

From the practical viewpoint, the low current density data are very important in one particular respect. They indicate that the electric field in the plasma must rise above its final value as the plasma passes from the equilibrium to the nonequilibrium state. Since, in some practical MHD devices such as generators, the electric field is limited by the product of flow velocity and magnetic field, it may be difficult to attain the desired operating point.

Comparison with Theory

In order to facilitate comparison of the theory and the experimental runs at different potassium seeding fractions, it is useful to change variables so as to eliminate dependence on n_K/n_A . Based on the theory, this can be achieved by using normalized values of j and σ defined as follows:

$$\tilde{j} \equiv j \left[\frac{(n_K/n_A)_{ref}}{(n_K/n_A)} \right]^{1/2}$$

$$\tilde{\sigma} \equiv \sigma \left[\frac{(n_K/n_A)_{ref}}{(n_K/n_A)} \right]^{1/2} \frac{[1 + (n_K/n_A)(S_K/S_A)]}{[1 + (n_K/n_A)_{ref}(S_K/S_A)]}$$

A convenient and meaningful reference value for n_K/n_A is the optimum seeding fraction at a constant electron temperature. In order to find the optimum value of the seeding fraction, the conductivity equation can be differentiated with respect to seeding fraction holding T constant. This leads to the result that $(n_K/n_A)_{opt} = S_A/S_K$.

As a first estimate to facilitate normalization, constant values of $S_A = 0.7 \times 10^{-16}$ cm² and $S_K = 0.25 \times 10^{-13}$ cm² have been selected, giving $(n_K/n_A)_{pt} = 0.0028$.

Table 1 Estimated errors in the basic variables

	Estimated errors
Conductivity σ	$\pm 9\%$
Potassium mole fraction n_K/n_A	$\pm 12\%$
Gas temperature T_g	$\pm 50^\circ\text{C}$
Potassium excitation temperature T_x	$\pm 100^\circ\text{C}$

The normalized j is theoretically a function only of the gas temperature and pressure, the seed gas ionization energy, the energy loss parameter δ , and the electron temperature in regions where hard sphere collisions dominate. For the same experimental conditions of gas temperature and pressure, all experimental points at the same electron temperature should fall at the same value of \tilde{j} .

Similarly, the normalized σ is a function only of the gas pressure, the argon collision cross section, the seed gas ionization energy, and the electron temperature. Therefore, all experimental points at the same electron temperature should fall at the same value of $\tilde{\sigma}$. As a result, on a plot of $\log \tilde{\sigma}$ vs $\log \tilde{j}$, all experimental points should fall on a single curve, in the region where hard sphere collisions dominate.

The normalized conductivity curves are shown in Fig 9. The theoretical curves all fall exactly on a single curve in the region shown.

The experimental curves fall remarkably close to a single curve at the higher current densities, leading to several important general conclusions. First is that the theory predicts the correct variation of conductivity with current density above about 0.3 amp/cm². In this region, it can be seen that the experimental slopes α are very close to those predicted theoretically, providing strong support for the two-temperature conduction law. In addition, these results indicate that the average collision cross sections selected for argon and potassium are reasonably valid, and that the measured values of (n_K/n_A) are quite accurate.

A detailed error analysis is given in the Appendix. The estimated errors in the basic variables are collected in Table 1. Comparison of these estimates with the experimental results in Fig 9 indicates that the over-all accuracy is, in fact, better than these estimates would indicate.

The major discrepancy between the theory and the experimental results for the higher current density region is that the experimental conductivities are consistently about one-half the theoretical values. If we adjust δ to a value of about 10, the agreement is then excellent, as shown in Fig 9.

There are several possible explanations for this apparent increase in the electronic energy loss. The most obvious is impurities in the test gas. This is ruled out on the grounds that the impurity level of the welding-grade argon is too low to be significant, whereas the excellent reproducibility of the results virtually eliminates the possibility that contamination is significant.

The most probable explanation of the increase in δ is that the electron gas loses energy by radiation. Estimates of this energy loss have been made by Byron⁵ and by Lutz⁶. The most that can be said at the present time is that the pre-

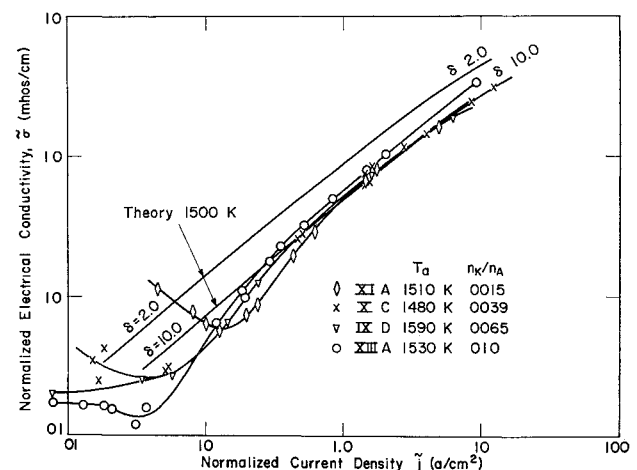


Fig 9 Normalized conductivity vs current density curves for the four experimental runs of Fig 8. Note that a theoretical curve for a $\delta = 10$ is the best fit to the data.

dicted energy losses are of the right order to explain a δ of 10 in apparatus of the present size. If this is the correct explanation, then the effective δ should approach 2 as the size of the apparatus increases or as the optical density of the plasma increases.

Close examination of Fig 9 shows that, indeed, the curve for $n_K/n_A = 0.01$ does have a higher slope than the curves for lower potassium concentrations. It is tempting to attribute this to the greater optical density that results from the larger potassium concentration; however, there are other factors that could explain the trend. Among these are joule heating of the gas and the variation of collision cross sections with electron energy (e.g., Ref 7). The question could be resolved by a direct measurement of the intensity of the emitted radiation.

For lower current densities, the experimental results depart substantially from the theory. As the electric field is raised from zero to a few tenths of a volt per centimeter, an unexpectedly large current flows in the region near the origin of Fig 7. This corresponds to the anomalously high conductivities of Fig 8 at very low current densities of about 0.01 to 0.10 amp-cm⁻². No explanation can be offered for this behavior at the present time.

As the electric field is raised further to values of one or more volts per centimeter, the current density does not increase as rapidly as the theory predicts. As a result, in the region from 0.1 to about 0.3 amp-cm⁻², the conductivity is depressed below the theoretical values. It is very likely that, in this region, the electrons have not yet achieved a Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution. As the current density is raised from zero, the high-energy tail is depleted faster than it can be filled because ionization must be done by these more energetic electrons. The low electron-electron collision frequencies at these low current densities prevent the electron density from building up as fast as the theory predicts. Thus, the electric field required to pass a given current density would rise above the theoretical values, as indicated by the hump in Fig 7.

We expect a Maxwellian distribution when

$$n^2 S \gg \delta(m/m_a)n(n_A S_A + n_K S_K)$$

The electron energies most important for ionization are about 2 eV, where $S \approx 10^{-13}$, $S_A \approx 10^{-15}$, and $S_K \approx 3 \times 10^{-14}$ cm². Using $\delta = 10$ and $m/m_a \approx 10^{-5}$ leads to the requirement that $n/n_a \gg 10^{-6}$ for Maxwellization of the electrons. For typical seeding fractions, $n_K/n_A \approx 0.003$, and at atmospheric pressure and 1500°K gas temperature, the criterion implies a required electron concentration, $n \gg 5 \times 10^{12}$ cm⁻³.

Calculation of the electron densities using the experimental results yields lines of constant electron density as indicated in Fig 8. The line of electron density equal to 10^{13} cm⁻³ falls very close to $j = 0.3$ amp-cm⁻², where the transition can be seen to occur.

This close correspondence between the theoretical predictions of the transition n of Part I of this paper and the experimental results lends weight to the theory that the non-Maxwellian distribution of the electrons contributes to the anomalous behavior observed at low current densities.

Initial attempts to measure electron temperature directly employed the sodium line-reversal technique using the standard arrangement shown in Fig 10.⁸⁻¹⁰ The temperature at which the sodium D line is reversed is assumed to be a measure of the excitation temperature of the first excited state of the sodium atoms. This will be equal to the electron temperature if the electron-electron collision frequency is high enough to result in the attainment of equilibrium for the entire electron gas.

Line reversal was obtained only up to excitation temperatures of about 2600°K, since the tungsten strip-lamp light source used limited the maximum effective source tempera-

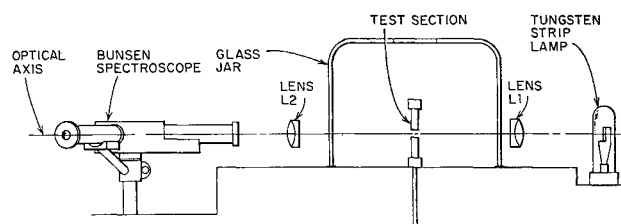


Fig 10 Line reversal apparatus used to measure excitation temperature in the test-section gaps of a trace of sodium added to the argon-potassium flow

ture to about this value. Thus, most of these measurements are in the low current density transition region.

The basic excitation temperature measurements, corrected for optical path and color effects, are shown by the solid lines in Fig 11. These measurements indicate a strongly elevated excitation temperature and lend support to the two-temperature conduction law. However, it is apparent that the measured excitation temperature differs somewhat from the electron temperature predicted by theory.

The possible effect of a radial variation of the current density is also shown in Fig 11 by the dashed curves. A parabolic gas temperature variation across the test section was assumed, and the corresponding current density variation was calculated based on the two-temperature conduction law. The resulting current density variation yielded a ratio of the maximum j to the average j of about 2.0 for a wall temperature 1000°C below the peak temperature in the center of the jet. It is possible that the higher electron temperature region dominates when a region of the gas with temperature variations is examined spectroscopically.¹¹ Therefore, the dashed curves in Fig 11 incorporate a correction, assuming that the effective j is twice the average value based on the test-section cross-sectional area. As such, these dashed curves represent the maximum reasonable shift to the right of the experimental data.

In general, the measurements of excitation temperature support the foregoing argument about the transition region, in that they show a rapid rise of excitation temperature in the range of current densities where the electrons should begin to Maxwellize. It should be noted that, at a low current density of 0.01 amp-cm⁻², the measured excitation temperature is close to the gas temperature, but the conductivity (and hence n) is much larger than it should be in equilibrium. It is undoubtedly true that much more work would be required to achieve an understanding of the plasma behavior at these low electron densities.

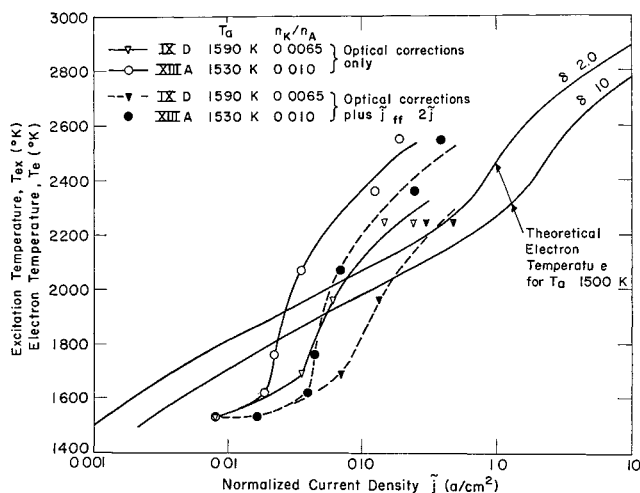


Fig 11 Preliminary sodium excitation temperature measurements compared to theoretical electron temperatures as a function of the normalized current density

Conclusions

It is concluded from the previously given evidence that the two-temperature conduction law provides a satisfactory description of the behavior of a noble gas-alkali metal plasma at electron concentrations greater than about 10^{13} cm^{-3} , in the absence of a magnetic field.

For argon and potassium mixtures in apparatus with a 1-cm-length scale, the effective energy loss parameter δ is about 10 rather than the ideal value of 2. It seems likely that this increase is due to radiative energy loss, so that the effective δ should be smaller in larger apparatus.

At low electron concentrations, the simple theory is inadequate, probably because the electrons have a highly non-Maxwellian energy distribution. The electric field required to produce a current in the plasma displays a maximum value as the current is increased from very low values. This suggests that, in applications such as the MHD generator, there may be difficulty in passing from the equilibrium state of the plasma at entry to the desired nonequilibrium state in the generator.

As noted in Part I, there seems to be no reason to doubt that the relationship between conductivity and current density verified here will also apply in magnetic fields. However, the question of instabilities does arise at large values of the Hall parameter. These questions are currently being studied experimentally in a modified version of the apparatus just described.

Appendix: Analysis of Measurement Techniques

The basic electrical measurements consisted of the voltages between the electrodes and each probe wire, and the current through the test section. These were measured using Hewlett-Packard 412A vacuum tube voltmeters, which have a full-scale accuracy of $\pm 3\%$. The electrode and probe wire locations were known to within about $\pm \frac{1}{4} \text{ mm}$ or within $\pm 2\text{--}3\%$.

The electric field E used in Fig 7 is based on the average value in the gas between probes B and E . Based on the foregoing figures, this average electric field is estimated to have an inaccuracy of about $\pm 6\%$, attributable primarily to the Hewlett-Packard 412A.

The current density j is computed from the ratio of the total current to the cross-sectional area of the test-section flow passage. It was observed in all runs that a diffuse plasma flowed through the gap in the test section. Hence, the current density based on the area of the flow passage represents a good average value. When the expected radial temperature variation for laminar pipe flow is taken into account, the average value differs from the maximum value of current density in the center of the flow by at most a factor of 2. Ignoring the radial variation of the current density across the test section, the estimated inaccuracy in the average value of the current density is about $\pm 6\%$. This is due primarily to the stated inaccuracy in the Hewlett-Packard 412A used as an ammeter.

It can be seen that the combined inaccuracies in both E and j are not large enough to change the basic shape of the voltage-current characteristics of Fig 7. In fact, the scatter in the data points is probably a good indication of the effect of varying inaccuracies on different scales of the vacuum tube voltmeters. The scatter is approximately equal to the inaccuracy estimates previously mentioned.

The electrical conductivity σ is calculated from Ohm's law and is equal to the ratio of the average current density j and the average field E . The inaccuracies in E and j carry over in the calculation of σ . Random inaccuracies in E would tend to show up as scatter of the data points. This amount of scatter does show up in Fig 8. However, random inaccuracies in j would tend to shift the data points up or down along the experimental curve at the higher current

densities, since the slope of the curve is close to unity. This would tend to cancel out the effect of random j inaccuracies on the $\log \sigma$ vs $\log j$ plot above about 0.3 amp-cm^{-2} .

Although the random inaccuracies in E and j can be seen to have only a second-order effect on the experimental conductivity curves, errors in the estimation of either the gas temperature T_a or the seeding fraction n_K/n_A can have a first-order effect. That is, errors in T_a or n_K/n_A will be manifested as a systematic shift or deviation of the experimental curve from the theory. It is, therefore, vitally important to have an accurate estimate of these inaccuracies.

The gas temperatures were inferred from measurements of the temperature of the cavity at the top end of the heat exchanger (see Fig 2) using a Leeds and Northrop optical pyrometer. Earlier tests using a tungsten-rhenium thermocouple inserted directly into the plasma in the test section revealed that the thermocouple temperature was about 50°C below the pyrometer temperature. This empirical correction was included in the gas temperature values quoted.

The error in this empirical correction is difficult to estimate, since the emissivity of the thermocouple is not known. The calibration of the tungsten-rhenium thermocouple was given to $\pm 2\%$ or $\pm 30\text{--}40^\circ$. Thus it is felt that the gas temperatures are within $\pm 50^\circ\text{C}$ of the quoted values.

Based on the two-temperature conduction law, a systematic error of 50°C in the gas temperature would shift the conductivity curves of Fig 8 by about $6\text{--}10\%$ at the low current densities and by about $4\text{--}6\%$ at the high current densities. This would be a small but noticeable shift in the $\log \sigma$ vs $\log j$ curves.

The mole fraction of potassium is calculated from the following equation:

$$\frac{n_K}{n_A} = \frac{\dot{m}_K}{\dot{m}_A} \times \frac{\mathfrak{M}_A}{\mathfrak{M}_K} \approx \frac{\dot{m}_K}{\dot{m}_A}$$

since the molecular weights of argon and potassium are essentially the same.

The potassium mass flow rate estimate was based primarily on the average value computed from the total weight of potassium loaded in the boiler and the total run duration. The potassium boiler was maintained at constant temperature throughout the run to within $\pm 4^\circ\text{C}$. This should result in about $\pm 3\%$ variation in mass flow rate through the choked orifice of the boiler. The major inaccuracy is due to the uncertainty in the estimate of the run duration which was about $\pm 15 \text{ min}$ or about $\pm 10\%$ of the average run duration.

The argon flow rate was measured with a Fisher-Porter flowmeter of the spherical-float-in-a-tapered-tube type. This has an accuracy of $\pm 3\%$ of full scale, resulting in average errors around $\pm 6\%$ for flows around half scale.

The over-all inaccuracy in the calculation of the potassium mole fraction is taken as the square root of the sum of the squares of the inaccuracies of each of the independent error sources. This results in an estimated inaccuracy of $\pm 12\%$ in the mole fraction estimate. Based on the theory, a systematic error in n_K/n_A of $\pm 12\%$ would shift the conductivity curves of Fig 8 by about -6% .

Comparing this shift in the conductivity curves with the shift due to gas temperature errors, it can be seen that an error in mole fraction of 12% has approximately the same effect on the conductivity curves as an error in gas temperature of about 50°C . These two sources of error are, therefore, of about equal importance in causing small but noticeable shifts in the conductivity curves (Fig 8). Thus, it is not possible to separate the effects of these two error sources at this time. However, the total effect is seen to be well within the previously given inaccuracy estimates from Figs 8 and 9.

The excitation temperature was measured using the standard sodium line-reversal technique employing the optical arrangement of Fig 10. The tungsten strip lamp tempera-

ture was calibrated using an optical pyrometer, and appropriate color and optical path corrections were made (see, e.g., Refs 8-10). The optical path correction was determined by first calibrating the lamp alone and then recalibrating through the first lens and glass jar. This was a very important contribution to the optical corrections, amounting to over 5% reduction in effective lamp temperature due to the low optical quality of the bell jar and lens. The over-all optical corrections ranged from about 100°C at the low electron temperatures up to over 200°C at the high electron temperatures. The corrected values are the solid curves shown in Fig 11.

There were several uncertainties in the excitation temperature measurements. The principal one was the range of lamp temperatures over which reversal occurred. The sodium *D* line would start reversing at the top of the image (corresponding to the top of the gap in the test section). The line would not be completely reversed, however, until the temperature of the lamp was raised about 200°C higher. The data points plotted are average values corresponding to half the line reversed. This leads to an uncertainty on order of $\pm 100^\circ\text{C}$ for the excitation temperature in the gap. Other errors due to pyrometer calibration and reading uncertainties were much smaller than this figure.

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