

Compressed liquid density and speed of sound measurements and correlation of the binary mixture {carbon dioxide (CO₂) + 1,1-difluoroethene (R1132a)} at temperatures from 220 K to 350 K

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ABSTRACT

The blend of carbon dioxide and R1132a has been suggested as a feasible alternative to R23 in low-temperature devices. In this work, we present new experimental data for compressed-liquid density, vapour density and compressed-liquid speed of sound for the binary system CO₂ + R1132a by means of a two-sinker densimeter and a pulse-echo-type instrument, respectively. The measurements cover the temperature range of 220 K to 350 K with pressures to 30 MPa for density; the speed of sound measurements cover the range 230 K to 350 K with pressures to 55 MPa; for both properties two mixture compositions were measured. Finally, we present an Equation of State (EoS) correlation for the experimental data based on a Helmholtz free energy model, which shows a good agreement with the measurements. The mixture strongly absorbed the sound pulse, and the usual dual-path analysis was not possible; thus, we developed a method using only the short-path signal.

Keywords: Refrigeration, Carbon Dioxide, HFO, Density, Speed of Sound

1. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, an important effort has been spent in the research for innovative refrigerants with environmental impacts lower than currently used fluids. Such impacts are expressed in terms of global warming potential (GWP) and ozone depletion potential (ODP). International regulations and agreements, such as the F-gas Regulation of the European Union (2014) and Kigali Amendment to the Montreal Protocol (2016), have the goal to gradually phase down the production and consumption of the hydrofluorocarbon (HFC) based refrigerants in most HVAC&R applications. To date, McLinden et al. (2017, 2020) identified a limited number of low-GWP refrigerants, mostly hydrofluoroolefins (HFOs) and hydrochlorofluoroolefins (HCFOs), as feasible alternatives for the refrigerants used in the most common air-conditioning applications based on chemical, safety, environmental and thermodynamic criteria.

Ultra-low temperature (ULT) refrigerating systems are not currently restricted by the main regulations (Mota-Babiloni et al., 2020). For ULT applications, R23 and R508 are commonly used (Mota-Babiloni et al., 2020), but they are characterized by high-GWP values: 14800 and 13400 respectively (Solomon et al., 2007). CO₂ is considered an interesting solution for low temperature application, being non-flammable, chemically stable and inexpensive (Barta et al., 2021). At the same time, the triple point of 216.59 K limits the usage of carbon dioxide for ULT applications. Therefore, mixing CO₂ with refrigerants that would lower the triple point of the mixture offers an interesting solution to this issue (Di Nicola et al., 2013). Among HFO and HCFO refrigerants,

1,1-difluoroethene (R1132a) is one of the few suitable working fluids for ULT applications (Mota-Babiloni et al., 2020), and Tomassetti et al. (2022), showed that a blend of 75% CO₂ and 25% R1132a has a triple point of 203 K. R1132a is flammable and potentially susceptible to stability issues if used with certain materials. Blending R1132a with an inert fluid, such as CO₂, will reduce its flammability and potentially improve its stability (although we did not investigate either of these in the present work).

Despite the potential promise of this mixture, only one set of data was available and obtained through private communication with the research team of Università Politecnica delle Marche, who measured the vapour density of the blend. Thus, the present work aims to compensate for this lack of information with new measurements on the compressed-liquid density, vapour density and the compressed-liquid speed of sound of the system CO₂/R1132a by means of a two-sinker densimeter (McLinden and Splett, 2008; McLinden, 2009) and a pulse-echo-type instrument (McLinden and Perkins, 2023), respectively. The measurements have been performed over the temperature range of 220 K to 350 K with pressures to 30 MPa for density, and a range of 230 K to 350 K with pressures to 55 MPa for speed of sound. The analysis of the vapour density results also allowed estimation of the dew point pressures corresponding to the measured temperatures. For both experiments two mixture compositions were measured. Finally, we present an Equation of State (EoS) correlation for the experimental data based on a Helmholtz energy model, showing a good agreement with the measurements of compressed-liquid density for the binary systems, while some concerns are highlighted in the prediction of speed of sound.

2. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

2.1. Materials and sample preparation

Table 1 specifies the materials used in this work. The CO₂ sample was used as provided, without further purification. The R1132a sample was degassed by freezing/pumping/thawing. We gravimetrically prepared vapour phase samples as explained in Richter and McLinden (2014), with the weighings based on the double-substitution procedure of Harris and Torres (2003). Table 2 lists the two compositions studied for the binary mixtures. The same samples were measured, first, on the 2-sinker densimeter and then on the speed of sound apparatus.

Table 1. Material specification.

Chemical name	CAS Number	Source	Purity [molar fraction]
carbon dioxide (CO ₂)	124-38-9	Scott	0.99997
1,1-difluoroethene (R1132a)	75-38-7	Koura	0.9995
propane	74-98-6	Scott	0.99999

Table 2. Mixture compositions.

	Composition (molar basis)	Composition (mass basis)	Molar mass [g/mol]
Mix 1	0.5942/0.4058	0.5016/0.4984	52.137
Mix 2	0.7926/0.2074	0.7242/0.2758	48.165

2.2. Compressed liquid and superheated vapour density measurements

We measured the density of the binary CO₂/R1132a mixtures by means of a 2-sinker densimeter. The experiment has already been described in previous works (McLinden and Splett, 2008; McLinden, 2009; McLinden and Lösch-Will, 2007). Briefly, this instrument uses the Archimedes principle to provide the absolute density of sample at a specified temperature and pressure by a differential method: two sinkers, one made of titanium and one of tantalum, with the same mass but different volumes are immersed in the sample and weighed, one at a time, through a magnetic suspension coupling. The basic working equation is

$$\rho_{\text{fluid}} = \left[(m_1 - m_2) - \frac{(W_1 - W_2)}{\alpha\phi} \right] / (V_1 - V_2) \quad \text{Eq. (1)}$$

where m_i are the sinker masses, W_i are the balance readings, V_i are the sinker volumes, for the i -th sinker. The terms α and ϕ are correction factors which account for the balance calibration and the force-transmission error respectively, as described by McLinden and Richter (2016). A standard platinum resistance thermometer (SPRT) located in a thermowell on the measuring cell measured the temperature; it was calibrated on ITS-90 by using fixed-point cells in the temperature range from 83 to 505 K. One of three vibrating-quartz-crystal-type transducers (full-scale pressure ranges of 2.75 MPa, 14 MPa and 69 MPa) were calibrated by means of a piston gauge and used to measure the pressure in the cell. The experimental uncertainty of such experiment is reported in detail in previous work (McLinden and Lösch-Will, 2007). Considering a coverage factor $k = 2$, the expanded uncertainty in density is

$$U_c(\rho) = \{(52)^2 + [0.75 \cdot T \cdot 293]^2 + (1.25 \cdot p)^2\}^{0.5} \cdot 10^{-6} \cdot \rho + 0.0014 \quad \text{Eq. (2)}$$

where T , p and ρ are expressed in K, MPa and kg/m^3 respectively. Eq. 2 accounts for the standard uncertainties in weighings, sinker volumes, and the force transmission error.

Estimation of the dew point pressures

As described by McLinden and Richter (2016), Eq. 1 is based on the assumption that all the quantities involved in the calculation of the density were constant over the measurement time of one point, which was about 12 minutes. Moreover, the sinker masses were assumed to be constant and equal to the values determined prior to their installation in the densimeter. These assumptions apply if the sample was in a homogenous liquid or vapour state. But near the saturation line, sample can adsorb onto the surfaces of the sinkers, thus changing their effective masses. In the 2-phase region there can be bulk condensation of sample onto the sinkers. These effects will result in a change in the calculated value of the coupling factor ϕ . (The difference $(\phi - 1)$ indicates the magnitude of the force-transmission error.) As shown in Fig. 1, $(\phi - 1)$ drastically increased when the sample was in 2-phase. This allowed to estimate the dew point pressure by extrapolating the lines which represent the vapour phase (orange line) and the 2-phase region (green line).

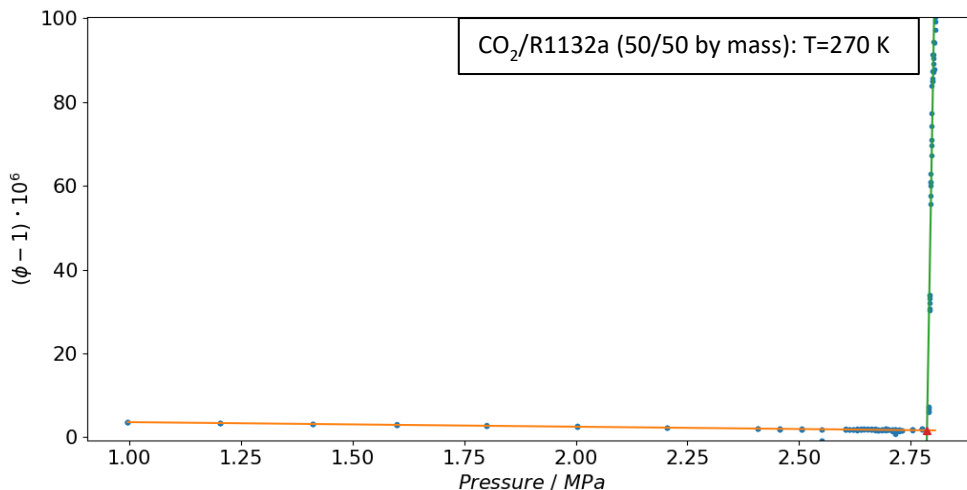


Figure 1. Dew point pressure estimation; blue dots: experimental data; orange line: vapour data regression line; green line: 2-phase data regression line; red triangle: dew point pressure.

2.3. Compressed liquid speed of sound measurements

To measure the speed of sound of the mixture, we used the pulse-echo-type instrument described by McLinden and Perkins (2023). Briefly, a quartz crystal immersed in the liquid sample was used as the ultrasonic signal transmitter and receiver. The crystal was placed between two sets of tubular spacers and

reflectors. The spacers were approximately 12 mm and 30 mm long; they defined the “short” and the “long” echo paths, respectively. When in the signal-transmitting mode, an arbitrary function generator excited the crystal with a 10-cycle sinusoidal voltage at the crystal’s resonant frequency of 8.00 MHz. The generated tone burst was emitted from both faces of the crystal and traversed the fluid along the short and long paths and then returned from the reflectors. The crystal transducer received the echoes, which it converted to electrical signals, which then passed through a three-stage amplifier before being recorded using a digital storage oscilloscope. The oscilloscope stored the data as 16-bit data ranging from 0 to 65535, with a value of 32768 corresponding to zero volts. The measurement cell was installed in a type 316 stainless-steel pressure vessel and immersed in a liquid thermostated bath providing temperature control. The temperature was measured by means of a SPRT placed adjacent to the cell.

2.3.1. Dual-path analysis for speed of sound

The echoes recorded by the instrument were then analysed offline to compute the speed of sound:

$$w = \frac{2 * (L_{\text{long}} - L_{\text{short}})}{\Delta\tau} \quad \text{Eq. (3)}$$

where L_{long} and L_{short} are the long-path and the short-path, respectively; $\Delta\tau$ is the time interval between the short and the long-path echo arrivals. The difference between L_{long} and L_{short} is dependent on temperature and pressure, and this was based on a calibration with propane. The time difference $\Delta\tau$ is determined with the method described in McLinden and Perkins (2023) based on the superposition of the long- and short-path echoes.

As done in McLinden and Perkins (2023) and Rowane et al. (2022a), we measured the speed of sound of propane along an isochore ($T = 230 \text{ K}$ to 350 K ; $p = 1 \text{ MPa}$ to 62 MPa) and calculated the difference ($L_{\text{long}} - L_{\text{short}}$) by inverting Eq. 3 and taking the speed of sound of propane as known value, calculated with the EoS of Lemmon et al. (2009). Then, we compared it with the same analysis obtained from the calibration made in November 2019. Fig. 2 shows the results of the comparison, which confirm that after three years the calibration performed in 2019 remained stable.

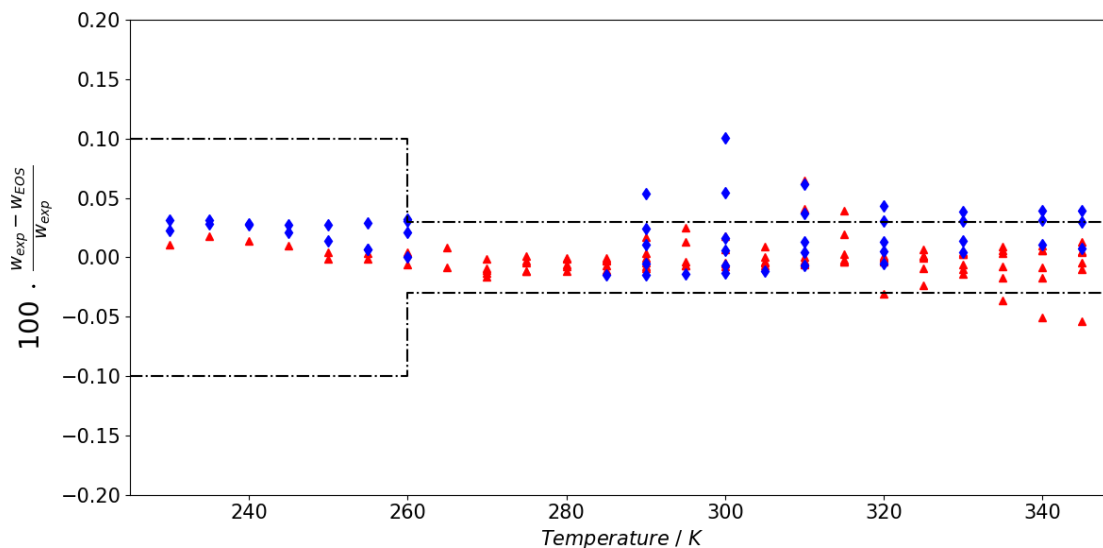


Figure 2. Comparison of measured propane speed of sound data, w_{exp} , from 2019 (red triangles) and from 2022 (blue diamonds) measurements with the EOS of Lemmon et al. (2009), w_{EOS} . The dashed lines represent the estimated uncertainty for the EOS.

The combined expanded uncertainty in the speed of sound was estimated by:

$$\frac{U_c(w)}{m \cdot s^{-1}} = \sqrt{\left\{ u^2(w) + \left[\frac{\partial w}{\partial T} \right]^2 u^2(T) + \left[\frac{\partial w}{\partial p} \right]^2 u^2(p) + \left[\frac{\partial w}{\partial x_i} \right]^2 u^2(x_i) \right\}} \quad \text{Eq. (4)}$$

The major uncertainty sources u in the speed of sound were due to the path length calibration with propane and the weaker signal magnitude as the fluid approached the critical point.

2.3.2. Single-path analysis for speed of sound

The dual-path analysis requires two clear signals as outputs from the experiment, one for the short-path and one for the long-path. When dealing with fluids characterized by a high sound-absorption, it may occur that the long-path signal is too weak to be distinguished from noise, and even the short-path echo may be very weak. In this case, the dual-pulse analysis method cannot be applied. Fig. 3 compares a low sound-absorption fluid, such as propane, with the mixture we measured in this work, consisting of two components, each of which has high sound-absorption (Lin and Trusler, 2014; Rowane and Perkins, 2023). Such strong sound-absorption can be the result of dispersion, whereby the internal vibrations of the molecule do not damp down before the next sound pulse arrives (El Hawary et al., 2020).

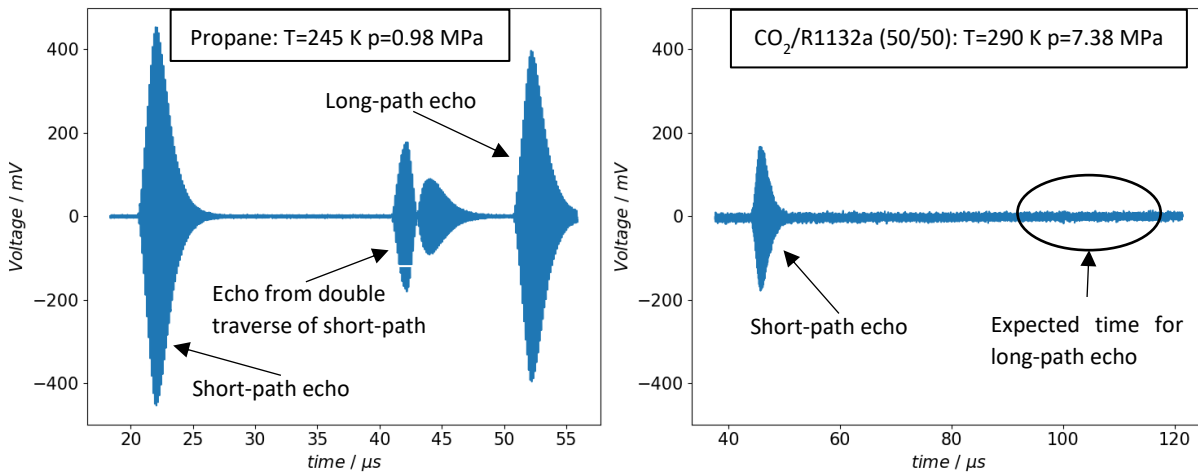


Figure 3. Comparison between (left) low sound-absorption fluid (propane) and (right) high sound-absorption fluid (CO₂/R1132a, 50/50 by mass) – the resolution is not sufficient to show the individual sinusoids (see Fig. 4).

In this work, we present a new method to obtain a speed of sound value from a very weak signal fluid, based on the analyses of only the short-path echo. With this approach, Eq. 3 is modified as follows:

$$w = \frac{2 L_{short}}{\tau_1 - \tau_0} \quad \text{Eq. (5)}$$

where τ_0 represents the moment when the crystal first triggers the pulse and τ_1 the moment in which the crystal starts to receive the short path echo. In the experiment we performed, τ_0 was a fixed delay of 60 ns due to a delay of the function generator between the trigger signal and the start of the pulse signal. Determining τ_1 is the crucial point of this method and the process is graphically explained in Fig. 4. First, through Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) analyses, we apply a low-pass filter to the short-path echo with a cut-off frequency of 8.5 MHz to polish the signal. Then, we calculate the waveform envelope function f comprising the maxima of the sinusoids (orange line in Fig. 4). Finally, we numerically derive the envelope function by means of finite differences considering as abscissa only the time values of the upper peaks, obtaining a vector f' : τ_1 is determined as the first time value where f' is higher than an empirical value α , called the discriminant. Such value is set depending on the fluid itself and on the noise magnitude. For all the fluids we analysed, α was set at (32768 + 500) in the 16-bit scale ranging from 0 to 65535.

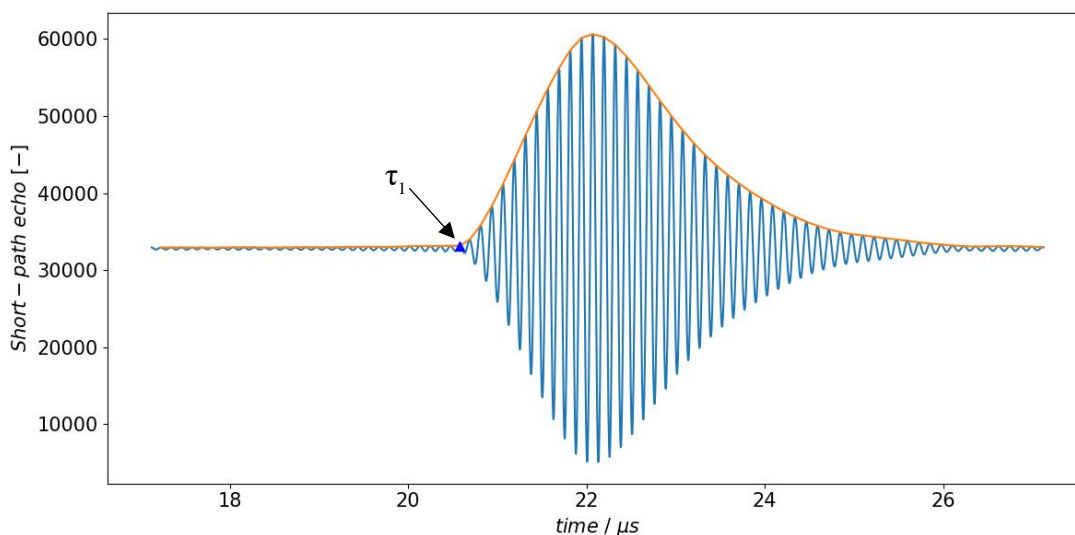


Figure 4. 1-pulse analyses of a short-path signal; blue line: short-path echo; orange line: upper peaks envelope function; blue triangle: τ_1 determined by this method. On the y-scale are reported the voltage values converted to 16-bits (see section 2.3).

To validate the new approach, we compared the results obtained with a dual-path analysis on the propane data acquired for the validation of the instrument, which resulted in strong echo signals, with the same data analysed with the single-path approach. As shown in Fig. 5, the systematic bias of $\sim 0.6\%$ indicates that the two methods are in reasonable agreement. We performed the analyses with Python code; in particular, we used the `scipy` package (Virtanen et al., 2020) for the signal analysis.

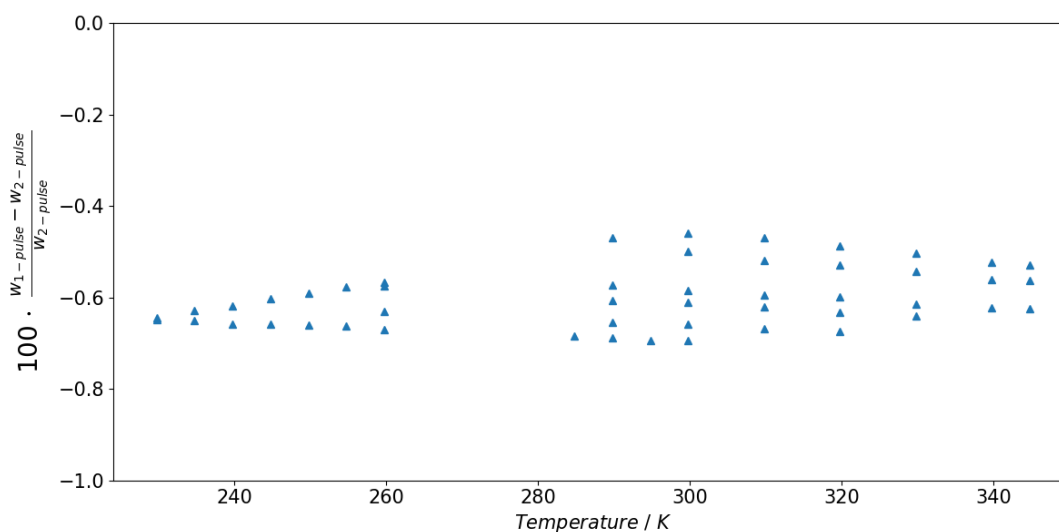


Figure 5. Comparison between dual-pulse-echo method and single-pulse-echo method on propane speed of sound validation data.

The major sources of uncertainty in the single-pulse method are related to the short-path length and the determination of τ_1 . This is because the object of the calibration with propane was the difference between short-path and long-path length, instead of the short-path length itself. Moreover, τ_1 is determined through an extrapolation of the signal waveform envelope; this extrapolation depends on the selected value for the discriminant. Considering the aforementioned and the relative difference of $\sim 0.6\%$ obtained for the propane, we conservatively estimate an expanded ($k = 2$) uncertainty of 1% for the single-path method. While this is considerably higher than the 0.05% uncertainty typically obtained for the dual-path method (McLinden and Perkins, 2023; Rowane et al., 2022), the data are nonetheless very valuable for fitting a mixture model.

3. RESULTS

3.1. Density

Tables 3 and 4 present vapour- and liquid-phase density data for the first composition; Tables 5 and 6 present the same for the second composition. The relative combined uncertainty of the vapour and liquid phase densities ranged from (0.031 – 0.085)% and (0.030 – 0.132)%. Standard uncertainties in the pressure were less than 0.011 kPa and 1.879 kPa for vapour and liquid phase measurements, respectively. The uncertainty in the temperature was 3 mK. Table 7 presents the estimation of the dew point pressures at temperatures of 240 K, 255 K and 270 K.

Table 3. Experimental vapour-phase density (p , ρ , T) data for CO₂/R1132a (Mix 1)

T/K	p/MPa	$\rho/kg\cdot m^{-3}$	T/K	p/MPa	$\rho/kg\cdot m^{-3}$	T/K	p/MPa	$\rho/kg\cdot m^{-3}$
270.005	0.99739	25.4812	255.017	0.48890	12.7064	239.995	0.39286	10.8372
270.005	1.20449	31.4737	255.014	0.65551	17.3762	239.998	0.40683	11.2450
270.005	1.41155	37.7815	255.013	0.81447	22.0223	240.001	0.50112	14.0414
270.006	1.60105	43.8728	255.013	0.96043	26.4733	239.999	0.60337	17.1688
270.005	1.80235	50.7321	255.012	1.11399	31.3720	239.999	0.69994	20.2217
270.005	2.00560	58.1370	255.013	1.25649	36.1426	240.001	0.80246	23.5790
269.998	2.20514	65.9763	255.014	1.40342	41.3222	239.999	0.90909	27.2129
270.004	2.40939	74.7268	255.012	1.55174	46.8646	239.998	1.01099	30.7688
270.006	2.45843	76.9523						
270.005	2.50756	79.1583						

Table 4. Experimental liquid-phase density (p , ρ , T) data for CO₂/R1132a (Mix 1)

T/K	p/MPa	$\rho/kg\cdot m^{-3}$	T/K	p/MPa	$\rho/kg\cdot m^{-3}$	T/K	p/MPa	$\rho/kg\cdot m^{-3}$
260.009	11.53043	976.6414	284.998	7.59705	830.8582	319.992	8.08113	370.3310
260.009	10.15914	970.2409	284.998	6.60926	817.3527	325.003	8.60623	368.0478
260.010	8.07897	959.7303	284.999	5.16243	792.3559	330.001	9.12698	366.4853
260.010	6.09538	948.6340	290.000	6.84515	783.9410	334.998	9.64491	365.2865
260.010	4.46759	938.4970	295.002	8.31166	772.6632	339.997	10.16030	364.3370
260.010	3.34620	930.8261	304.997	11.91402	765.3078	344.994	10.67164	363.4607
270.005	7.48879	911.5078	309.994	13.79790	763.4581	349.993	11.18081	362.7219
275.018	9.48732	902.2674	314.999	15.69843	761.9432	349.989	9.03499	256.1346
279.997	12.13380	898.4532	319.996	17.60451	760.7189	349.993	7.02977	175.0538
284.997	14.93925	896.0024	319.993	14.10902	707.7691	349.994	4.95675	109.9060
284.998	12.94505	881.9747	319.995	12.10088	660.8096	349.995	3.11655	63.3231
284.998	10.23493	859.3568	319.995	10.32228	591.8146	349.994	1.48009	28.1097
284.998	8.61987	842.9441						

Table 5. Experimental vapour-phase density (p , ρ , T) data for CO₂/R1132a (Mix 2)

T/K	p/MPa	$\rho/kg\cdot m^{-3}$	T/K	p/MPa	$\rho/kg\cdot m^{-3}$	T/K	p/MPa	$\rho/kg\cdot m^{-3}$
270.005	0.91468	21.2169	255.015	0.71310	17.4092	240.005	0.57084	14.7960
270.005	1.20097	28.5893	255.014	0.90137	22.4803	240.005	0.65940	17.3022
270.004	1.53242	37.7549	255.015	1.15607	29.7439	240.004	0.74403	19.7596
270.004	1.81566	46.1987	255.016	1.30884	34.3593	240.004	0.82426	22.1512
270.004	2.11555	55.9004	255.013	1.51562	40.9755	240.004	0.90173	24.5222
270.005	2.41137	66.4467	255.014	1.69858	47.2452	240.004	1.04638	29.1287
270.005	2.72228	78.9361	240.006	0.28053	7.0076	240.004	1.11455	31.3055
255.017	0.50768	12.1268	240.005	0.47835	12.2478			

Table 6. Experimental liquid-phase density (p , ρ , T) data for CO₂/R1132a (Mix 2)

T/K	p/MPa	$\rho/kg\cdot m^{-3}$	T/K	p/MPa	$\rho/kg\cdot m^{-3}$	T/K	p/MPa	$\rho/kg\cdot m^{-3}$
220.009	3.13725	1123.538	275.022	12.70560	944.668	314.998	21.18189	824.733
220.009	2.28979	1121.435	275.021	10.10741	928.557	314.998	18.10082	794.454
230.007	7.94735	1101.056	275.021	7.58372	910.072	314.998	15.14795	755.779
240.000	14.52478	1084.635	280.006	9.37734	897.649	314.998	12.15686	695.197
249.998	24.64247	1079.209	284.999	11.98351	892.598	314.998	9.56178	575.384
250.000	20.00265	1066.759	290.002	14.81469	889.715	320.004	10.64327	572.815
250.001	16.11627	1055.314	295.001	17.68874	887.470	330.002	12.82950	569.792
250.000	12.27400	1042.854	304.998	23.53176	884.249	340.003	15.02912	567.700
250.001	9.29265	1032.187	309.998	26.45046	882.855	350.001	17.23002	566.022
250.002	7.14161	1023.826	315.000	29.36038	881.550	350.002	15.02601	492.875
260.010	11.90923	1003.427	314.998	24.76459	852.682	350.002	13.19707	413.577
270.004	19.71506	997.490	314.998	21.18189	824.733	350.001	9.17858	229.483
275.020	23.76517	995.448	314.998	18.10082	794.454	350.001	6.01942	126.459
275.020	20.46370	982.394	314.998	15.14795	755.779	350.002	3.79986	72.277
275.019	17.62069	969.936	314.998	12.15686	695.197	350.000	2.03840	36.230
275.021	15.19976	958.178	314.998	24.76459	852.682			

Table 7. Estimation of the dew points pressures for the two compositions of the binary mixture CO₂/R1132a.

Mix 1		Mix 2	
T/K	p/MPa	T/K	p/MPa
270.01	2.789	270.01	3.039
255.01	1.827	255.01	2.002
240.00	1.138	240.00	1.240

3.2. Speed of sound – results

Tables 8 and 9 present the data for the first and second composition, respectively. For each point, the calculation method can be inferred from the uncertainty in sound speed: $U(w) = 1.0\%$ corresponds to the single-path method (see Section 2.3.2); the dual-path method was used for all other points. The standard uncertainty in the temperature is 3 mK.

Table 8. Experimental compressed liquid data for CO₂/R1132a (Mix 1).

T/K	p/MPa	w/m·s ⁻¹	U(w)/%	T/K	p/MPa	w/m·s ⁻¹	U(w)/%
245.007	6.5643	700.149	0.031	264.993	5.2828	542.681	1.0
250.003	9.7048	698.728	0.031	269.991	5.7847	511.047	1.0
254.995	13.3984	705.278	0.031	274.995	7.6880	506.459	1.0
274.996	28.9865	735.030	0.031	279.999	10.2733	514.706	1.0
280.001	32.9214	742.633	0.031	285.002	12.9555	523.912	1.0
285.003	36.8426	750.089	0.031	290.003	15.6679	533.910	1.0
290.005	40.7443	757.359	0.031	294.999	18.3884	543.521	1.0
264.997	9.8414	606.174	1.0	300.000	21.1088	552.250	1.0
269.994	12.8032	611.293	1.0	304.998	23.8199	560.507	1.0
290.005	24.1150	627.939	1.0	309.999	26.5210	568.222	1.0
295.000	26.8204	631.556	1.0	314.993	29.1977	575.768	1.0
310.000	33.7716	635.156	0.031	320.002	31.8625	584.956	1.0
314.993	36.1435	638.097	0.031	325.007	34.4963	589.815	1.0
320.002	38.4192	638.887	0.031	329.999	37.0807	596.345	1.0
325.007	40.6006	640.137	0.031	335.000	39.5675	602.761	1.0
320.0029	33.1061	594.452	1.0	340.004	40.6139	598.227	1.0
320.001	32.9898	595.052	1.0				

Table 9. Experimental compressed liquid data for CO₂/R1132a (Mix 2).

T/K	p/MPa	w/m·s ⁻¹	U(w)/%	T/K	p/MPa	w/m·s ⁻¹	U(w)/%
235.008	5.0150	798.153	0.043	314.994	60.6660	810.000	0.037
240.001	5.6285	769.252	0.045	320.003	64.7302	816.801	0.037
250.005	7.1567	712.682	0.051	254.9937	6.3951	671.104	1.0
254.995	10.6277	713.350	1.0	259.9873	9.7499	673.737	1.0
259.990	14.6892	722.549	1.0	264.9968	13.5301	680.286	1.0
280.003	31.5783	754.059	1.0	285.0032	29.2277	715.990	1.0
285.004	35.8073	764.569	1.0	290.0055	33.1539	724.635	1.0
290.006	40.0131	772.551	0.041	295.0007	37.0579	730.791	1.0
295.002	44.1868	780.976	0.040	300.0015	40.9454	740.495	1.0
300.002	48.3503	788.566	0.039	310.0005	48.2200	751.321	1.0
304.999	52.4805	795.898	0.039	314.9936	52.0279	760.142	1.0
310.000	56.5904	803.053	0.038	320.003	55.8166	767.927	0.039

4. MODELLING

4.1. Helmholtz energy model

We applied a parametric multi-fluid model based on the Helmholtz-energy-explicit formulation to model the behaviour of the CO₂/R1132a blend. Previous papers (Bell, 2022; Bell et al., 2022) described the method in detail; briefly the Helmholtz energy, a , is defined as:

$$\alpha(\tau, \delta, z) = \frac{a}{RT} = \alpha^{ig} + \alpha^r = \alpha^{ig} + \alpha_{CS}^r + \alpha_{dep}^r \quad \text{Eq. (6)}$$

Where α is expressed as the sum of the ideal contribution, α^{ig} , and the residual contribution, α^r , of Helmholtz energy. The residual contribution is then split in a corresponding-state contribution, α_{CS}^r (Eq. 7), and a departure function contribution (Eq. 11).

$$\alpha_{CS}^r = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\text{components}}} z_i \alpha_{0,i}^r(\tau, \delta) \quad \text{Eq. (7)}$$

The reduced variables τ and δ are defined as $\tau = T_{red}(\mathbf{z})/T$ and $\rho = \rho/\rho_{red}(\mathbf{z})$, with \mathbf{z} as vector containing the molar fraction of each component. The subscript 0 in Eq. 7 refers to the i -th pure fluid. The reducing functions T_{red} and ρ_{red} are given by:

$$Y_{red}(\mathbf{z}) = \sum_{i=1}^N z_i^2 Y_{crit,i} + \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=i+1}^N 2z_i z_j \frac{z_i + z_j}{\beta_{Y,ij}^2 z_i + z_j} Y_{i,j} \quad \text{Eq. (8)}$$

Where Y is the parameter of interest (either the molar volume $v = 1/\rho$ or the temperature T). Then, $T_{i,j}$ and $\rho_{i,j}$ are given by:

$$T_{ij} = \beta_{T,ij} \gamma_{T,ij} \frac{x_i + x_j}{\beta_{T,ij}^2 x_i + x_j} (T_{c,i} T_{c,j})^{1/2} \quad \text{Eq. (9)}$$

$$\frac{1}{\rho_{ij}} = \beta_{v,ij} \gamma_{v,ij} \frac{x_i + x_j}{\beta_{v,ij}^2 x_i + x_j} \frac{1}{8} \left(\frac{1}{\rho_{c,i}^{1/3}} + \frac{1}{\rho_{c,j}^{1/3}} \right)^3 \quad \text{Eq. (10)}$$

The departure function in Eq. (6) is given by:

$$\alpha_{dep}^r = \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=i+1}^N z_i z_j F_{ij} \alpha_{ij}^r(\tau, \delta) \quad \text{Eq. (11)}$$

Where the departure term α_{ij}^r is an arbitrary function of (τ, δ) .

With this model, all the thermodynamic properties of a mixture can be expressed as function of the reduced temperature, τ , reduced density, δ , and composition \mathbf{z} through the definition of the Helmholtz energy, a , and its derivative, as detailed by Lemmon et al. (2009).

4.2. Correlation

In this work, we fitted the binary interaction parameters and the departure function of Eq. 12 by means of an Adaptive Search Development – Particle Swarm Optimization (ASD-PSO) algorithm (Ardizzon et al., 2015).

$$\alpha_{ij}^r(\tau, \delta) = \sum_k n_k \tau^{t_k} \delta^{d_k} e^{-\eta_k(\delta - \epsilon_k) - \beta_k(\tau - \gamma_k)} \quad \text{Eq. (12)}$$

Where k is the number of terms in the summation, n_k , t_k , d_k , η_k , ϵ_k , β_k and γ_k are the parameters to optimize for each departure function. The objective function to minimize is shown in Eq. 13.

$$F_{obj} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_i res_{\rho}^2} + \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_i \left(\frac{w_{exp,i} - w_{calc,i}}{w_{exp,i}} \right)^2} \quad \text{Eq. (13)}$$

Where res_{ρ} is the residual relative error of the i -th density data point, calculated as in Bell (2022).

The accuracy of a thermodynamic model depends on both the departure function and the EoS of the pure fluids. In this work, only the departure function has been regressed. We adopted the model of Span and Wagner (1996) for pure CO₂ and the EoS proposed by Low (2018) for R1132a. While CO₂ is a well-characterized fluid, the same is not the case for R1132a. Rowane and Perkins (2023) highlighted the limitations of the available EoS for R1132a in the calculation of the speed of sound; they found an average error in the speed of sound for the pure R1132a of 6.4%. Considering this, we fitted the mixture model

including only the density data (including the data obtained through private communication) applying the aforementioned ASD-PSO algorithm; thus, we neglected the speed of sound data in the fitting, but then the model was compared to the speed of sound data. The average model error is 0.3% for density and 3.4% for speed of sound. The model is shown in Table 10.

Table 10. Fitted mixture model for CO₂/R1132a based only on density data.

Binary Interaction Parameters			
β_T	1.03001	γ_T	0.97089
β_v	0.97059	γ_v	0.94482
Departure function			
	$k=1$	$k=2$	$k=3$
β_k	1.9749	1.8999	0.8045
d_k	1	2	3
ϵ_k	0.0410	0.5765	0.1102
η_k	0.2839	2.1158	1.3085
γ_k	1.7059	1.8328	0.9627
n_k	-0.7879	0.1747	0.0741
t_k	1.0098	3.5306	3.9436

5. CONCLUSIONS

In this work, we presented experimental measurements on the CO₂/R1132a mixture, identified as an interesting low-GWP alternative to R23 for low-temperature refrigeration. We measured 84 points of compressed-liquid density, 49 points of vapour density and 57 points of compressed-liquid speed of sound, across two mixture compositions. Given the high sound-absorption which characterized both the components of the mixture, we introduced a novel technique to analyse cases with very weak signals. This technique is based only on the analysis of the short-path echo with an estimated uncertainty of 1%; it was used when the usual dual-path technique was not applicable because the long-path signal was not detected. The data measured in this work were then used to fit a mixture model through a Helmholtz energy-explicit-type equation of state. In particular, the binary interaction parameters and a Gaussian-type departure function have been regressed based on the available EoS for the pure fluids making up the blend. As already observed in previous work, the available EoS for R1132a is not accurate for the speed of sound calculation and this reflected on the mixture model. Thus, we presented a correlation fitted only to the density data of the mixture which resulted in an average error of 0.3% in density of the blend. For speed of sound data the average error was 3.4%. Although the speed of sound data were not used to fit the present mixture model, they will be valuable in refining the model once a better EoS becomes available for R1132a.

NOMENCLATURE

p	Pressure (kPa)	R	Molar gas constant (8.314472 J·mol ⁻¹ ·K ⁻¹)
T	Temperature (K)	V	Molar volume (m ³ ·mol ⁻¹)
ρ	Density (kg·m ⁻³)	m	Mass (kg)
w	Speed of sound (m·s ⁻¹)	L	Length (m)
τ	Time (s)	a	Helmholtz energy

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