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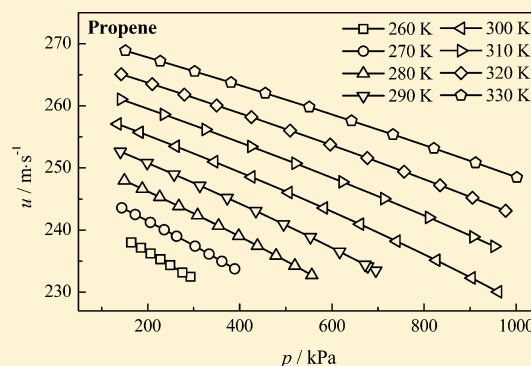
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ABSTRACT: Carbon dioxide (R744) and propene (R1270) are expected to be long-term working fluids for air conditioning systems, heat pumps, and organic Rankine cycles (ORCs) because of their low global warming potentials (GWP). The speed of sound was measured in gaseous carbon dioxide from (260 to 333) K and in gaseous propene from (260 to 330) K using a cylindrical resonator at pressures up to 1 MPa. The perturbations from the thermal and viscous boundary layers, the gas fill duct, the shell motion, and the vibrational relaxation were corrected in the frequency measurements. The uncertainties in the temperature, pressure, and speed of sound measurements were estimated to be less than 5 mK, 200 Pa, and 0.02 %. The ideal-gas heat capacities at constant pressure and the acoustic virial coefficients of carbon dioxide and propene were deduced from the measured speed-of-sound data. The second virial coefficients for carbon dioxide and propene were obtained from the acoustic data and the square-well intermolecular model.



1. INTRODUCTION

HCFC and HFC emissions from air conditioning, refrigeration, chiller, and heat pump systems contribute significantly to global warming. Environment friendly and energy efficient refrigerants are the main route to reduce the greenhouse gas emissions. Carbon dioxide (R744) has good environmental properties such as being nonflammable, nontoxic, nonozone depleting, and having negligible global warming potential (GWP). Carbon dioxide is also cheap and widely available. Recent studies have indicated that carbon dioxide can be used to replace chlorodifluoromethane (R22) or 1,1,1,2-tetrafluoroethane (R134a) in air conditioning applications, heat pumps, and chillers.^{1–4} Propene (R1270) has similar thermophysical properties with R22 such as normal boiling point, saturation pressure, and critical temperature, but the GWP of propene is much lower. Therefore, propene is expected to be an R22 alternative in air conditioning and heat pump systems.^{5–9} Propene has also been studied as an alternative to R502 in low temperature refrigeration applications.¹⁰

The organic Rankine cycle (ORC) is the preferred technique to convert medium-low temperature thermal energy to electricity. One of the critical challenges with ORCs is the working fluid selection.^{11–15} Some environmentally friendly fluids can be used as working fluids for ORC systems,^{16,17} and carbon dioxide^{18–21} and propene^{11,12,20,22,23} have been considered as working fluids for ORC systems driven by low-grade heat sources.

Accurate thermodynamic properties are the needed for system design and optimization.²⁴ The speed of sound is an

important thermophysical property that can be accurately measured. The ideal-gas heat capacity, the virial coefficients and the isentropic compressibility can then be determined from the speed-of-sound data.^{25–34} The isobaric heat capacity and the compression factor are linked to the speed of sound based on rigorous thermodynamic theory and can be determined using numerical integration of the differential equations.^{26,33–36}

Acoustic resonators have been the preferred method for measuring the speed of sound and various thermodynamic properties,^{25–48} the Boltzmann constant, k_B ,^{49–54} and thermodynamic temperatures.^{55–60} Spherical resonators have been widely used because of their high quality factors and high measurement precision. Cylindrical resonators have lower quality factors, but they are easier to manufacture and assemble. The experimental system and correction methods for perturbations due to imperfections on the resonant frequency measurement have been significantly improved in recent years.^{41,42,53,61–64} The relative standard uncertainty in the Boltzmann constant, k_B , can reach 3.7×10^{-6} using a fixed-length cylindrical resonator.⁵⁴ This paper presents speed of sound measurements using a cylindrical resonator for gaseous carbon dioxide and propene.

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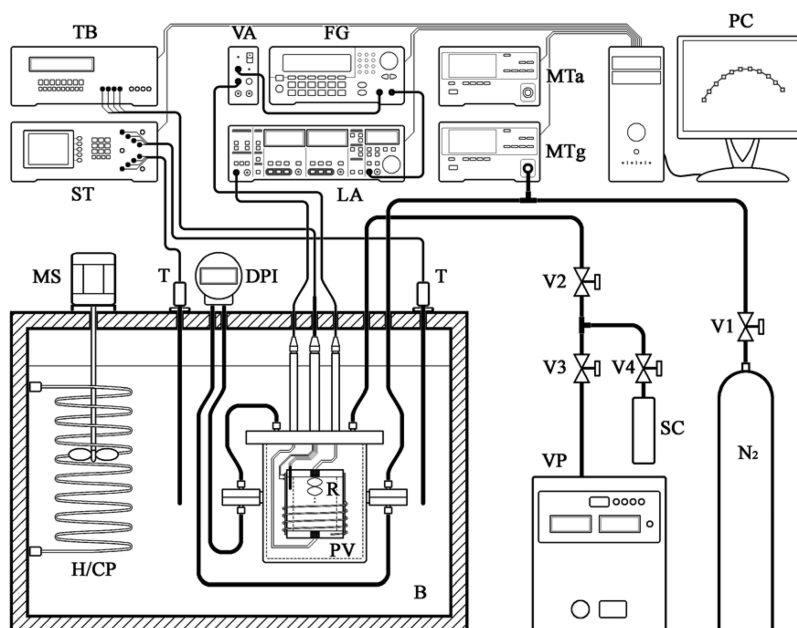


Figure 1. Schematic diagram of the experimental system for the speed of sound measurements: B, thermostatic bath; DPI, differential pressure transducer; FG, function generator; H/CP, heater/cooler; LA, lock-in amplifier; MS, mechanical stirrer; MTa, absolute pressure digital manometer; MTg, gauge pressure digital manometer; PC, personal computer; PV, pressure vessel; R, resonator; SC, sample cylinder; ST, super thermometer; T, platinum resistance thermometer; TB, thermometer bridge; VA, voltage amplifier; VP, vacuum pump; V1 to V4, valves.

2. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Measurement Fundamentals. For a geometrically perfect and rigid cylindrical resonator with radius, a , and length, L , the unperturbed resonant frequency, f_{lmn}^0 , of mode (lmn) is given by^{26,34,41}

$$f_{lmn}^0 = \frac{u}{2\pi} \sqrt{\left(\frac{l\pi}{L}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\chi_{m,n}}{a}\right)^2} \quad (1)$$

where u is the speed of sound, the positive integer l is the order of the longitudinal mode, and $\chi_{m,n}$ is a root of $dJ_m(x)/dx = 0$ in which $J_m(x)$ is the m th order Bessel function.

For longitudinal modes $\chi_{m,n} = 0$; therefore, the speed of sound, u , can be determined using longitudinal modes (100) by

$$u = \frac{2L}{l} f_{100}^0 \quad (2)$$

where f_{100}^0 denotes the unperturbed resonant frequencies of the longitudinal modes (100).

Accurate resonant frequency measurements are the basis for determining the speed of sound. However, the gas-shell boundary of the cylindrical resonator has nonzero thermal and viscous admittances that cause the measured resonant frequencies to differ from their unperturbed values. The geometry of a practical resonator is also not perfect. A gas fill duct used to admit the gas into and out of the resonator is an opening in the resonator wall which disturbs the resonant frequency. The shell and the end plates of practical cylindrical resonators are also not rigid, thus the resonator shell deforms due to the shell motion during the measurements and the mechanical admittance associated with the shell deformations disturbs the frequency and enlarges the half-width of the signal peak.^{53,61} In addition, the lead zirconate titanate (PZT) source transducer is bonded to the outer surface of the flexible, thin diaphragm in the resonator end plates, and the deformation and motion of the transducer affects the resonate frequency. The

vibrational relaxation times of some polyatomic gases such as carbon dioxide are sufficiently long for the measured frequency range to overlap with the region of significant dispersion. Therefore, the unperturbed resonant frequency, f_{100}^0 , must be related to the measured frequency, f_N , as

$$f_{100}^0 = f_N - \Delta f_{th} - \Delta f_v - \Delta f_{sh} - \Delta f_d - \Delta f_{tr} - \Delta f_{vib} \quad (3)$$

where f_N is the measured resonant frequency, Δf_{th} is the frequency perturbation from the thermal boundary layer, Δf_v is the frequency perturbation from the viscous boundary layer, Δf_{sh} is the frequency perturbation from the shell motion, Δf_d is the frequency perturbation from the gas fill duct, Δf_{tr} is the frequency perturbation from the transducers, and Δf_{vib} is the frequency perturbation from the vibrational relaxation.

The perturbations from the thermal and viscous boundary layers, the gas fill duct, the shell motion and the vibrational relaxation on the resonant frequency measurement using a cylindrical resonator have been thoroughly discussed elsewhere.^{26,34,41,46,53,54,61–63} Here, Δf_{th} , Δf_v , and Δf_{sh} were calculated using the models from Zhang et al.,^{53,61} Δf_d was calculated using the model developed by Gillis et al.,⁶² Δf_{tr} was calculated using the model developed by Lin et al.⁶³ and Δf_{vib} was calculated using the method described by Estrada-Alexanders and Trusler⁴⁴ and Hurry.⁴⁶

Apparatus. A diagram of the apparatus used for the speed of sound measurements is shown in Figure 1.⁶⁴ The system consisted of a cylindrical resonator, a frequency measurement system, thermostatic baths, a temperature measurement system, a pressure measurement system, a vacuum system, and a data acquisition system.

The cylindrical resonator was made of stainless steel (316 SS) with an inner length of 80.7 mm and a radius of 40 mm. The resonator was hung in a pressure vessel with a flexible connector. Many efforts were made to improve the signal-to-noise ratio because the quality factor, Q , for a cylindrical

resonator is lower than that in a spherical resonator. Piezoelectric ceramics were used as the source and detector transducers to increase the acoustic response. A gas-filled duct was arranged in the middle of the resonator for the gas inlet and outlet.

The cylindrical resonator length and radius were determined from acoustic measurements in gaseous argon from (270 to 333.15) K and pressures from (60 to 1010) kPa. The argon was provided by Beiwen Gas Corp. with a stated mole purity of 99.999 %. The measured resonant frequency was corrected based on eq 3 with the densities, specific heat capacities, and the specific heat ratio calculated by the equation of state developed by Tegeler et al.⁶⁵ and the viscosities and thermal conductivities calculated using the equation given by Lemmon and Jacobsen.⁶⁶

The drive voltage to the PZT source transducer was generated by a function generator (model Agilent 33220A) and amplified by a voltage amplifier (model GRAS 14AA). A lock-in amplifier (model SRS 830) with a reference frequency from the function generator was used to measure the acoustic response of the PZT detector. The resonant frequency was then fit by the personal computer according to signals from the lock-in amplifier. The uncertainty in the frequency measurement was estimated to be $5 \times 10^{-6} f^0$.

A capsule platinum resistance thermometer (model HART 5686) enclosed in the cylindrical resonator wall and a superthermometer (model HART 1590) were used to measure the gas temperature in the resonator. The thermostatic bath fluid temperature was measured by a standard platinum resistance thermometer (model Tinsley 5187SA). The overall temperature uncertainty was estimated to be within 5 mK, including the 2 mK uncertainty of the capsule platinum resistance thermometer, the 1 mK uncertainty of the superthermometer, and the 3 mK stability and uniformity uncertainty of the resonator. The temperature was determined on the basis of the International Temperature Scale of 1990 (ITS-90). Before the experiments, the platinum resistance thermometers, the superthermometer, and the digital manometers were calibrated by the National Institute of Metrology (NIM), China.

An absolute digital manometer (model Yokogawa, MT 210, 0 kPa to 130 kPa), a gauge pressure digital manometer (model Yokogawa, MT 210, 0 kPa to 3500 kPa), and a sensitive diaphragm pressure transducer (model Rosemount 3051S, 2 kPa to 20 kPa) were used to control and measure the gas pressure in the resonator. The pressure uncertainty was estimated to be less than 200 Pa including the uncertainty of the absolute digital manometer of 30 Pa from (0 to 130) kPa, the uncertainty of the gauge pressure digital manometer of 80 Pa from (0 to 3500) kPa and the uncertainty of the differential pressure detector of less than 20 Pa.

A turbo-molecular pump (model KYKY, FD 110) with an extreme vacuum of $1 \cdot 10^{-6}$ Pa was used to evacuate the experimental system and the sample cylinder.

A gas chromatograph (model Shimadzu, GC 2014) with a thermal conductivity detector and a 3 m \times 3 mm Porapak-Q column was used to measure the sample purity. Helium (99.999 %) was used as the carrier gas at a flow rate of 45 cm³·min⁻¹. The oven and TCD temperatures were set to 373 K. After injection of the sample into the column, the effluence was analyzed for 15 min.

Experimental Procedures. The speed of sound was measured at pressures below 1000 kPa. The highest pressure

was less than 80 % of the saturation pressure for propene from (260 to 290) K to prevent precondensation.⁶⁷ Part of the sample was then discharged to reach a lower pressure after the measurements at one pressure were completed. The discharged samples were collected in an evacuated cylinder and then introduced into the GC system to check the gas purity.

The resonant frequencies, f_N , and half-widths, g_N , of several acoustic modes were measured precisely using the following procedure. First, f_N and g_N were estimated from either a preliminary measurement or a theoretical calculation. Then, the signal from the detector was measured at 11 drive frequencies from $f_N - g_N$ to $f_N + g_N$ increasing in increments of $g_N/5$, followed by the frequency sweep being reversed from $f_N + g_N$ to $f_N - g_N$. Performing the frequency sweep in both directions reduces the impacts of small temperature and pressure drifts on the resonant frequency. The dwell time at each frequency was 5 s. The temperature and pressure of the sample were measured simultaneously at each drive frequency. The 22 frequencies and the in-phase voltages, U , and the quadrature voltages, V , were then fit to

$$U + iV = \frac{ifA}{f^2 - F_N^2} + B + C(f - \tilde{f}) \quad (4)$$

where A , B , and C are complex constants and $F_N = f_N + ig_N$ is the complex resonant frequency of the mode under study. The parameters B and C take into account possible crosstalk and the effects of the “tails” of modes other than the one under study.

Samples. The CO₂ sample was obtained from Beiwen Gas Corp. with a stated mole purity of 99.995 %, and the propene sample was obtained from Kedi Gas Corp. with a stated mole purity of 99.95 % (see Table 1). The samples were used

Table 1. Chemical Sample Description

chemical name	source	initial purity	purification method	final purity	analysis method
carbon dioxide	Beiwen Gas Corp.	99.995 %	none	99.995 %	GC ^a
propene	Kedi Gas Corp.	99.95 %	degassing	99.97 %	GC

^aGas chromatography.

without further purification except for being cooled in liquid nitrogen and evacuated by a vacuum pump to remove possible air impurities. The sample before filling the resonator and the collected samples that were discharged to reduce the experimental pressures were analyzed by the GC system. The impurities in the CO₂ were measured to be less than 0.005 % and in the propene to be less than 0.03 %.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Speed of Sound. The measured speed-of-sound data in gaseous carbon dioxide along nine isotherms from (260 to 332.75) K with pressures up to 1000 kPa are listed in Table 2. The relative standard uncertainty of the speed of sound for gaseous carbon dioxide was estimated to be less than 0.02 % including the temperature measurement uncertainty, the pressure measurement uncertainty, the frequency measurement uncertainty, and the sample purity uncertainty. The relative deviations of the measured speed of sound in gaseous carbon dioxide from the equation of state developed by Span and

Table 2. Measured Speed of Sound Data for Gaseous Carbon Dioxide^a

p/kPa	$u/\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$	p/kPa	$u/\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$
$T = 260.000\text{ K}$			
884.92	242.761	562.69	246.845
822.03	243.577	501.31	247.598
760.19	244.370	434.17	248.411
701.21	245.119	379.95	249.058
626.77	246.054	317.37	249.804
$T = 270.000\text{ K}$			
977.38	247.218	556.68	251.923
906.73	248.028	460.73	252.960
819.89	249.014	362.27	254.006
732.10	249.996	305.05	254.606
644.89	250.959		
$T = 280.000\text{ K}$			
981.82	252.563	537.04	256.947
884.20	253.546	453.25	257.750
798.98	254.394	362.38	258.608
692.20	255.443	280.31	259.377
621.46	256.133		
$T = 290.000\text{ K}$			
819.49	259.125	421.86	262.559
733.65	259.876	355.64	263.124
655.16	260.559	282.86	263.732
571.60	261.280	228.71	264.190
490.56	261.978		
$T = 300.000\text{ K}$			
1017.33	262.360	583.49	265.756
927.15	263.073	500.85	266.392
847.25	263.703	415.37	267.046
755.49	264.422	340.26	267.619
663.90	265.134	280.85	268.065
$T = 304.090\text{ K}$			
968.58	264.694	544.65	267.858
868.88	265.446	434.91	268.664
772.25	266.170		
$T = 312.750\text{ K}$			
959.38	268.804	534.77	271.688
858.54	269.494	441.68	272.312
729.55	270.371	394.20	272.630
636.23	271.003		
$T = 322.750\text{ K}$			
929.78	273.533	522.36	276.021
832.63	274.131	412.26	276.687
735.59	274.723	314.03	277.276
624.83	275.397		
$T = 332.750\text{ K}$			
958.15	277.777	544.84	280.054
857.33	278.334	520.66	280.185
755.50	278.895	415.50	280.761
664.72	279.393	316.28	281.299

^aUncertainty of temperature: $U(T) = 5\text{ mK}$; uncertainty of pressure: $U(p) = 200\text{ Pa}$; and relative standard uncertainty of speed of sound $U_r(u) = 0.02\%$ (level of confidence = 0.95).

Wagner⁶⁸ are shown in Figure 2. The present data measured with a cylindrical resonator show positive relative deviations of between (0.0039 and 0.026) % from the equation of state.⁶⁸ Estrada-Alexanders and Trusler⁴⁴ measured the speed of sound for carbon dioxide from (220 to 450) K and pressures up to 14 MPa using a spherical resonator. Most of the data from Estrada-

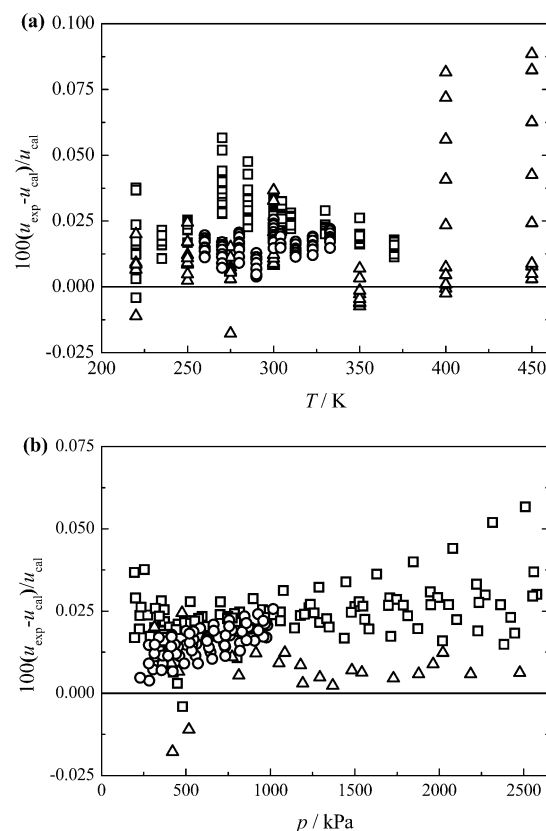


Figure 2. Relative deviations of the measured speed-of-sound data for gaseous carbon dioxide from the equation of state developed by Span and Wagner⁶⁸ (a) $100(u_{\text{exp}} - u_{\text{cal}})/u_{\text{cal}}$ vs T and (b) $100(u_{\text{exp}} - u_{\text{cal}})/u_{\text{cal}}$ vs p : \circ , this work; \triangle , Estrada-Alexanders and Trusler;⁴⁴ \square , Estrada-Alexanders and Hurly.⁶⁹

Alexanders and Trusler⁴⁴ are higher than the results calculated by the equation of state⁶⁸ with the highest deviation of 0.088 % at 450 K and 14.2 MPa, with only several data points showing negative deviations with the lowest deviation of -0.018% at 275 K and 420.54 kPa. Estrada-Alexanders and Hurly⁶⁹ measured the speed of sound using an acoustic Greenspan viscometer with a relative standard uncertainty of 0.01 % from (220 to 370) K and pressures up to 3.1 MPa. The speed-of-sound data of Estrada-Alexanders and Hurly⁶⁹ show positive deviations from the equation of state⁶⁸ except for the data measured at 220 K and 479.78 kPa. The relative deviations of the present data are slightly higher than those of Estrada-Alexanders and Trusler⁴⁴ but lower than those of Estrada-Alexanders and Hurly.⁶⁹ The relative deviations of the present data and the data of Estrada-Alexanders and Hurly⁶⁹ increase as the pressure increases. The equation of state⁶⁸ was developed without using the speed-of-sound data measured by acoustic methods. Thus, the measured speed-of-sound data in this work and the results from Estrada-Alexanders and Trusler⁴⁴ and Estrada-Alexanders and Hurly⁶⁹ can be used to improve the equation of state for carbon dioxide in the future.

The measured speed-of-sound data for gaseous propene along eight isotherms from (260 to 330) K with pressures up to 1 MPa that are less than 80 % of the saturation pressure to prevent precondensation are shown in Figure 3. Table 3 lists the speed-of-sound data for propene at each temperature and pressure. The relative standard uncertainty of the speed of sound was estimated to be less than 0.02 % including the

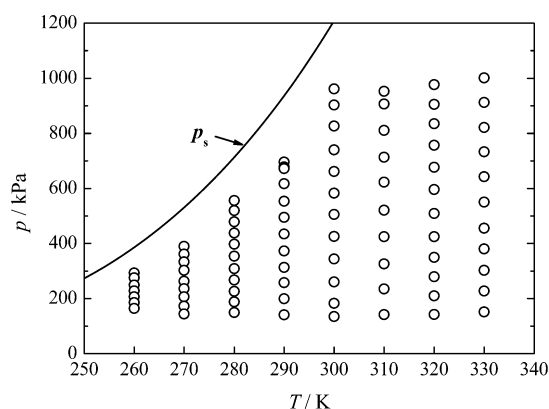


Figure 3. Distributions of the measured speed-of-sound data for gaseous propene in the p – T diagram.

temperature measurement uncertainty, the pressure measurement uncertainty, the frequency measurement uncertainty, and the sample purity uncertainty.

Angus et al.,⁷⁰ Overhoff,⁷¹ and Lemmon et al.⁷² developed equations of state for propene in 1980, 2006, and 2013, respectively. Lemmon et al.⁷² used the speed of sound in the liquid and supercritical regions measured by Meier and Kabelac⁷³ to optimize the equation of state. Therefore, the equation of state of Lemmon et al.⁷² was selected as the reference for the present speed-of-sound data. The deviations of the measured speed-of-sound data relative to the calculated results from the equation of state⁷² for propene are shown in Figure 4. The measured speed-of-sound data have negative deviations from the equation of state⁷² at 260 K and 270 K with the largest deviation of -0.039% at 260 K and 293.1 kPa, while most of the speed-of-sound data show positive deviations from (280 to 330) K with the largest deviation of about 0.05% at 320 K and 976.9 kPa. The measured speed-of-sound data at lower pressures agree well with the equation of state⁷² from (280 to 330) K. The deviations of the present speed-of-sound data from the equation of state⁷² increase with increasing pressure as shown in Figure 4b. Meier and Kabelac⁷³ measured the speed of sound in the liquid and supercritical regions with an uncertainty of 0.015% using a double-path-length pulse-echo technique. However, the speed-of-sound data from Meier and Kabelac⁷³ show deviations of between -0.08% and 0.12% from the equation of state.⁷²

3.2. Ideal Gas Heat Capacity at Constant Pressure. The measured speed-of-sound data were fitted to the acoustic virial expansion for each isotherm:

$$u^2 = \frac{\gamma_0 RT}{M} \left(1 + \frac{\beta_a}{RT} p + \frac{\gamma_a}{RT} p^2 + \frac{\delta_a}{RT} p^3 \right) \quad (5)$$

where γ_0 is the ratio of the constant pressure to constant volume ideal gas heat capacities, (c_p^0/c_v^0) , $R = 8.314472 \text{ J} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1} \cdot \text{K}^{-1}$ is the universal gas constant, M is the molar mass, and β_a , γ_a , and δ_a are the second, third, and fourth acoustic virial coefficients.

The ideal gas heat capacity ratio, γ_0 , was determined by extrapolating eq 5 to zero pressure for each isotherm. Then, the ideal gas heat capacity at constant pressure was calculated as

$$\frac{c_p^0}{R} = \frac{\gamma_0}{\gamma_0 - 1} \quad (6)$$

Table 3. Measured Speed of Sound Data for Gaseous Propene^a

p/kPa	$u/\text{m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$	p/kPa	$u/\text{m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$
$T = 260.000 \text{ K}$			
293.11	232.483	206.56	236.232
275.35	233.169	185.32	237.147
248.96	234.363	164.45	238.028
227.97	235.295		
$T = 270.000 \text{ K}$			
389.41	233.762	263.03	239.000
361.31	234.964	236.28	240.061
333.53	236.130	206.19	241.233
302.89	237.393	173.01	242.506
262.89	239.005	144.04	243.598
$T = 280.000 \text{ K}$			
556.25	232.732	354.13	240.694
519.72	234.242	308.73	242.368
478.89	235.889	267.79	243.845
438.30	237.487	226.29	245.315
438.33	237.486	188.35	246.636
397.57	239.056	149.29	247.972
$T = 290.000 \text{ K}$			
695.54	233.484	434.96	243.061
677.98	234.169	372.80	245.178
672.07	234.402	313.39	247.152
616.94	236.509	257.68	248.961
553.22	238.872	199.13	250.820
495.22	240.952	141.01	252.628
$T = 300.000 \text{ K}$			
960.98	230.066	505.72	246.037
903.31	232.289	425.25	248.556
826.40	235.145	344.40	251.013
740.35	238.219	260.81	253.485
661.10	240.945	182.30	255.747
582.66	243.559	134.71	257.089
$T = 310.000 \text{ K}$			
952.69	237.373	520.89	250.748
906.76	238.902	424.89	253.463
810.73	242.008	325.91	256.182
713.38	245.043	235.24	258.606
623.06	247.765	142.07	261.046
$T = 320.000 \text{ K}$			
976.94	243.091	509.07	256.044
905.02	245.205	425.07	258.192
834.83	247.220	349.85	260.081
756.59	249.417	279.66	261.8119
677.09	251.597	210.07	263.494
596.12	253.766	142.67	265.102
$T = 330.000 \text{ K}$			
1001.35	248.498	455.62	262.043
912.04	250.844	380.89	263.766
821.61	253.162	302.35	265.548
732.74	255.390	227.66	267.217
642.65	257.599	151.93	268.885
550.82	259.806		

^aUncertainty of temperature: $U(T) = 5 \text{ mK}$; uncertainty of pressure: $U(p) = 200 \text{ Pa}$ and relative standard uncertainty of speed of sound $U_r(u) = 0.02\%$ (level of confidence = 0.95).

The determined c_p^0/R values were correlated using the temperature-dependent polynomial function:

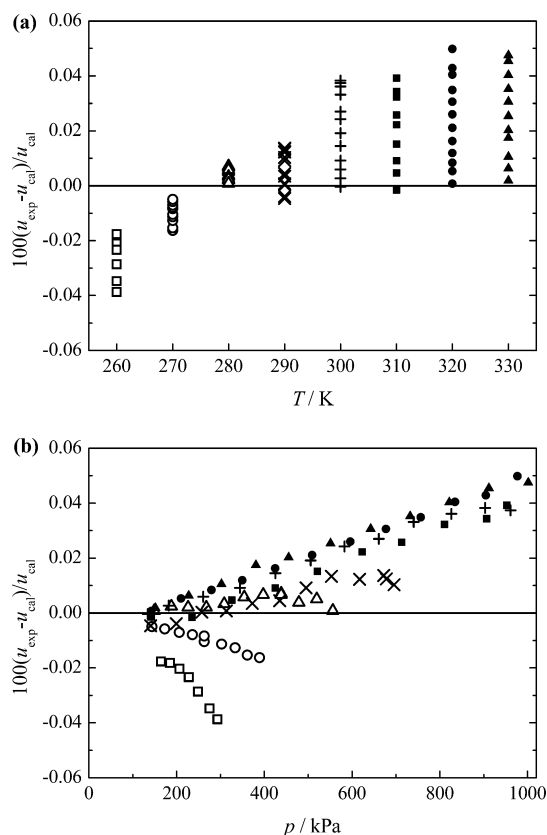


Figure 4. Relative deviations of the measured speed-of-sound data for gaseous propene from the equation of state developed by Lemmon et al.:⁷² (a) $100(u_{\text{exp}} - u_{\text{cal}})/u_{\text{cal}}$ vs T and (b) $100(u_{\text{exp}} - u_{\text{cal}})/u_{\text{cal}}$ vs p : \square , 260 K; \circ , 270 K; \triangle , 280 K; \times , 290 K; $+$, 300 K; \blacksquare , 310 K; \bullet , 320 K; \blacktriangle , 330 K.

$$\frac{c_p^0}{R} = \sum_{i=0}^2 c_i \left(\frac{T}{T_c} \right)^i \quad (7)$$

where c_i are correlation coefficients, and T_c is the critical temperature with $T_c = 304.128$ K for carbon dioxide and $T_c = 364.211$ K for propene.

The determined values of (c_p^0/R) and the second acoustic virial coefficients resulting from four-term fits to the speed-of-sound data are listed in Table 4 for carbon dioxide. The

Table 4. Ideal Gas Heat Capacities and the Second Acoustic Virial Coefficients for Carbon Dioxide Derived from the Measured Speed of Sound Data^a

T/K	c_p^0/R	$\beta_a/(\text{cm}^3 \cdot \text{mol}^{-1})$
260	4.249	−191.1
270	4.309	−174.8
280	4.366	−160.2
290	4.422	−148.5
300	4.475	−135.9
304.09	4.497	−132.4
312.75	4.545	−123.3
322.75	4.598	−113.4
332.75	4.650	−103.3

^aRelative uncertainty of the ideal gas heat capacity: $U(c_p^0) = 0.1$ %; and uncertainty of the second acoustic virial coefficient $U(\beta_a) = 0.5$ cm³·mol^{−1} (level of confidence = 0.95).

determined correlation coefficients, c_i , in eq 7 for carbon dioxide are listed in Table 5. Equation 7 provides a good description of the determined ideal gas heat capacities at constant pressure in this work with a maximum difference of 0.0009 R.

Table 5. Correlation Coefficients, c_i , in eq 7 for Carbon Dioxide and Propene

i	carbon dioxide	propene
0	2.41378	3.34900
1	2.51955	3.88059
2	−0.434803	1.81541

Figure 5 shows the relative deviations of the ideal gas heat capacities for carbon dioxide from the equation of state of Span

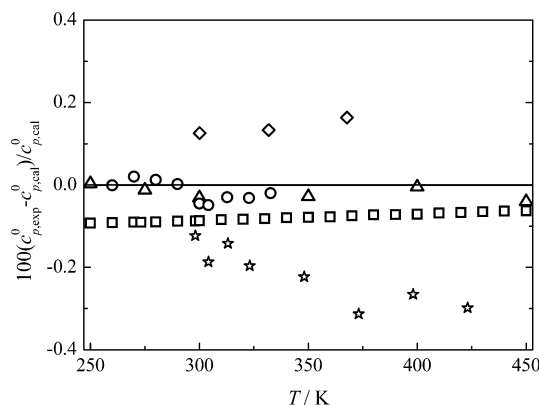


Figure 5. Relative deviations of c_p^0 for carbon dioxide from the equation of state:⁶⁸ \circ , this work; \triangle , Estrada-Alexanders;⁷⁴ \square , Baehr et al.;⁷⁵ \star , de Groot and Michels;⁷⁶ \diamond , Kistiakowsky and Rice.⁷⁷

and Wagner.⁶⁸ The ideal gas heat capacities determined in this work agree within 0.05 % with the equation of state of Span and Wagner.⁶⁸ The results in this work also match well with the ideal gas heat capacities from the speed-of-sound data measured with a spherical resonator.⁷⁴ The ideal gas heat capacities from Baehr et al.⁷⁵ show deviations of between −0.06 % and −0.09 % from the equation of state.⁶⁸ The results from de Groot and Michels⁷⁶ have negative deviations larger than −0.1 % from the results calculated by the equation of state⁶⁸ which increase with increasing temperature. The ideal gas heat capacities from Kistiakowsky and Rice⁷⁷ are higher than the results from the equation of state⁶⁸ by about 0.13 %.

The ideal gas heat capacities and the second acoustic virial coefficient for propene were determined by fitting the measured speed-of-sound data with eq 5. The values of (c_p^0/R) and β_a resulting from four-term fits to the acoustic data are listed in Table 6. The determined correlation coefficients, c_i , in eq 7 for propene are also listed in Table 5. The ideal gas heat capacities at constant pressure calculated by eq 7 agree well with the data listed in Table 6 with a maximum difference of 0.0035 R.

The relative deviations of the ideal gas heat capacities for propene relative to the calculated results from the equation of state⁷² are shown in Figure 6. The determined c_p^0 in this work agrees within 0.095 % of the results calculated using the equation of state.⁷² The present determined c_p^0 is also in good agreement with the results of Chao and Zwolinski⁷⁸ based on a statistical thermodynamic method. The measurements from

Table 6. Ideal Gas Heat Capacities and the Second Acoustic Virial Coefficients for Propene Derived from the Measured Speed of Sound Data^a

<i>T</i> /K	<i>c</i> _p ⁰ / <i>R</i>	<i>β</i> _a /(cm ³ ·mol ⁻¹)
260	7.044	-692
270	7.225	-638
280	7.404	-594
290	7.592	-557
300	7.776	-520
310	7.965	-489
320	8.164	-456
330	8.354	-429

^aRelative uncertainty of the ideal gas heat capacity: $U(c_p^0) = 0.1\%$; and uncertainty of the second acoustic virial coefficient $U(\beta_a) = 3 \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ (level of confidence = 0.95).

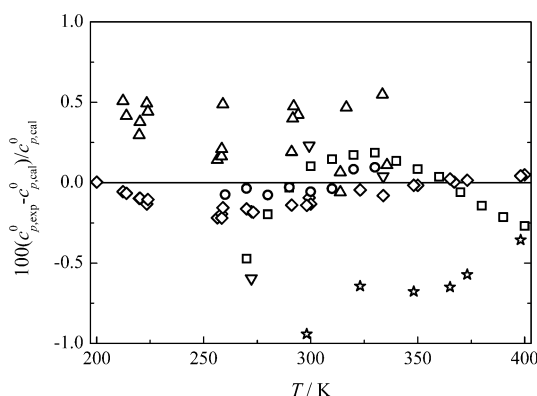


Figure 6. Relative deviations of c_p^0 for propene from the equation of state developed by Lemmon et al.⁷² ○, this work; ◇, Chao and Zwolinski;⁷⁸ □, Telfair;⁷⁹ △, Kistiakowsky et al.;⁸⁰ ▽, Kistiakowsky and Rice;⁸¹ ☆, Bier et al.⁸²

Telfair⁷⁹ agree well with the equation of state⁷² within 0.47 % from (270 to 350) K; most of the results from Kistiakowsky et al.,⁸⁰ Kistiakowsky and Rice,⁸¹ and Bier et al.⁸² show deviations larger than 0.2 % from the equation of state.⁷²

3.3. Second Virial Coefficient. The second acoustic virial coefficient, $\beta_a(T)$, is related to the second virial coefficient, B , as

$$\beta_a = 2B + 2(\gamma_0 - 1)T \frac{dB}{dT} + \frac{(\gamma_0 - 1)^2}{\gamma_0} T^2 \frac{d^2B}{dT^2} \quad (8)$$

The acoustic virial coefficients were obtained by fitting the measured speed-of-sound data at each isotherm as listed in Table 4 for carbon dioxide and in Table 6 for propene. The square-well intermolecular potential model^{28,30,34,41,45,46,83} can be used to calculate the virial coefficient, $B(T)$, using eq 8. The square-well intermolecular potential model is given by

$$U(r) = \begin{cases} \infty, & r < \sigma \\ -\varepsilon, & \sigma \leq r \leq R_{\text{rel}}\sigma \\ 0, & r > R_{\text{rel}}\sigma \end{cases} \quad (9)$$

where r is the distance between molecular centers, ε is the well depth, σ is the hard core radius, and R_{rel} is the ratio of the width of the well to the width of the hard core.

The relationship between $B(T)$ and the square-well parameters is

$$B(T) = b_0[1 - (R_{\text{rel}}^3 - 1)\Delta] \quad (10)$$

where $b_0 = 2\pi N_A \sigma^3/3$ is the molar volume of the hard core, N_A is Avogadro's number, $\Delta = \exp[\varepsilon/k_B T] - 1$ and k_B is the Boltzmann constant.

The square-well parameters for carbon dioxide obtained by fitting the second acoustic virial coefficients are listed in Table 7. Thus, the correlation for the second virial coefficient of carbon dioxide is

$$B(T) = 131.531 - 83.1734 \cdot \exp(333.752/T) \quad (11)$$

Table 7. Square-Well Parameters for Carbon Dioxide and Propene Obtained by Fitting the Second Acoustic Virial Coefficients

substance	$\sigma/\text{\AA}$	R_{rel}	$(\varepsilon/k_B)/\text{K}$
carbon dioxide	3.37199	1.39590	333.752
propene	4.56518	1.50305	289.051

The uncertainty of the calculated second virial coefficient from eq 11 for carbon dioxide was estimated to be $0.8 \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ from (260 to 333) K in view of the assessment of the uncertainty of the second acoustic virial coefficients, the fit quality, and the agreement with literature data. The deviations of the calculated second virial coefficients from this work using eq 11 and other published data for carbon dioxide are shown in Figure 7 relative to the Span and Wagner equation.⁶⁸ The second virial coefficients calculated using eq 11 agree with the Span and Wagner equation⁶⁸ within $\pm 0.5 \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ and with the Dymond et al.⁸⁴ equation within $\pm 0.4 \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ from (220 to 320) K and within $\pm 0.3 \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ from (320 to 480) K. The calculated results from the Estrada-Alexanders and Trusler⁴⁴ equation developed from acoustic measurements using a spherical resonator show negative deviations compared to eq 11, the Span and Wagner equation,⁶⁸ and the Dymond et al. equation⁸⁴ from (250 to 370) K. The calculated results of eq 11 are in good agreement with the experimental results. Holste et al.,⁸⁵ Patel et al.,⁸⁶ Glowka,⁸⁷ Ohgaki et al.,⁸⁸ and Feng et al.⁸⁹ determined the second virial coefficients for carbon dioxide using the Burnett or Burnett-isochoric methods. The results of Holste et al.,⁸⁵ differ from eq 11 by less than $0.3 \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$. The second virial coefficients from Patel et al.⁸⁶ agree well with eq 11 within $0.05 \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ at 423.15 K and 448.15 K and show the largest deviation of $0.7 \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ at 373.15 K, while the results from Holste et al.,⁸⁵ Glowka,⁸⁷ and Waxman et al.⁹⁰ match well with eq 11 within $0.3 \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ at 373.15 K. The differences between the present result and the data reported by Glowka⁸⁷ are less than $0.2 \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$. The second virial coefficient at 423.15 K determined by Ohgaki et al.⁸⁸ agrees with eq 11 within $0.2 \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$, but the data at 473.15 K show a positive deviation of $0.8 \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$. The data reported by Feng et al.⁸⁹ differs from eq 11 by only $0.09 \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$. The differences between the results of Duschek et al.⁹¹ and eq 11 are less than $0.5 \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$. The second virial coefficients determined by Jaeschke⁹² from refractive index measurements differ from eq 11 by $0.2 \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ from (273.15 to 333.15) K. The second virial coefficients of Mantilla et al.⁹³ from p - ρ - T measurements with a high-pressure single-sinker magnetic suspension densimeter have positive deviations from eq 11 and the equation of state.⁶⁸ The results of Michels and Michels⁹⁴ show the largest deviation of $-1.7 \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ from eq 11 and of $-1.5 \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ from the equation of state⁶⁸ at 373 K. The second virial coefficients of Estrada-Alexanders et al.⁹⁵ using the speed-of-sound data of Estrada-Alexanders and

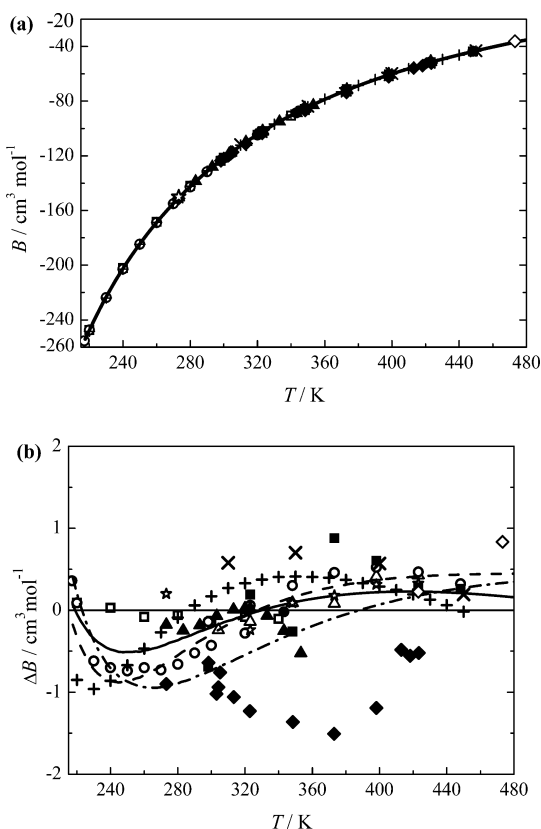


Figure 7. (a) Distributions of the second virial coefficients for carbon dioxide and (b) deviations of the second virial coefficients for carbon dioxide from the equation of state developed by Span and Wagner:⁶⁸ —, eq 11; ---, Estrada-Alexanders and Trusler;⁴⁴ ---, Dymond et al.;⁸⁴ ○, Holste et al.;⁸⁵ ■, Patel et al.;⁸⁶ △, Glowka;⁸⁷ ◇, Ohgaki et al.;⁸⁸ ●, Feng et al.;⁸⁹ ☆, Waxman et al.;⁹⁰ □, Duschek et al.;⁹¹ ▲, Jaeschke;⁹² ×, Mantilla et al.;⁹³ ◆, Michels and Michels;⁹⁴ +, Estrada-Alexanders et al.⁹⁵

Trusler⁴⁴ and of Estrada-Alexanders and Hurly⁶⁹ show positive deviations from eq 11 and the experimental results of Feng et al.,⁸⁹ Duschek et al.,⁹¹ and Jaeschke⁹² from (280 to 380) K.

The square-well parameters for propene obtained by fitting the second acoustic virial coefficients are also listed in Table 7. The second virial coefficient correlation for propene is

$$B(T) = 407.474 - 287.473 \cdot \exp(289.051/T) \quad (12)$$

The uncertainty of the second virial coefficient from eq 12 for propene was estimated to be within $5 \text{ cm}^3 \text{mol}^{-1}$ from (260 to 330) K. The deviations of the calculated second virial coefficients from eq 12 and other published data for propene relative to the equation of state developed by Lemmon et al.⁷² are shown in Figure 8. The second virial coefficients calculated using eq 12 agree with the equation of state⁷² within $\pm 5 \text{ cm}^3 \text{mol}^{-1}$ and the equation from Dymond et al.⁸⁴ within $\pm 3.5 \text{ cm}^3 \text{mol}^{-1}$ from (250 to 470) K. The results of Zarkova and Hohm⁹⁶ calculated using a $(n, 6)$ Lennard-Jones temperature-dependent potential show positive deviations compared to eq 12, but the deviations are less than $3 \text{ cm}^3 \text{mol}^{-1}$ from (300 to 480) K. The results from eq 12, Dymond et al.⁸⁴ and Zarkova and Hohm⁹⁶ are higher than the results from the equation of state⁷² for low temperatures with differences increasing as the temperature decreases. The second virial coefficients from eq 12 are in good agreement with the experimental results. Ohgaki et al.,⁸⁸ Warowny and Stecki,⁹⁷

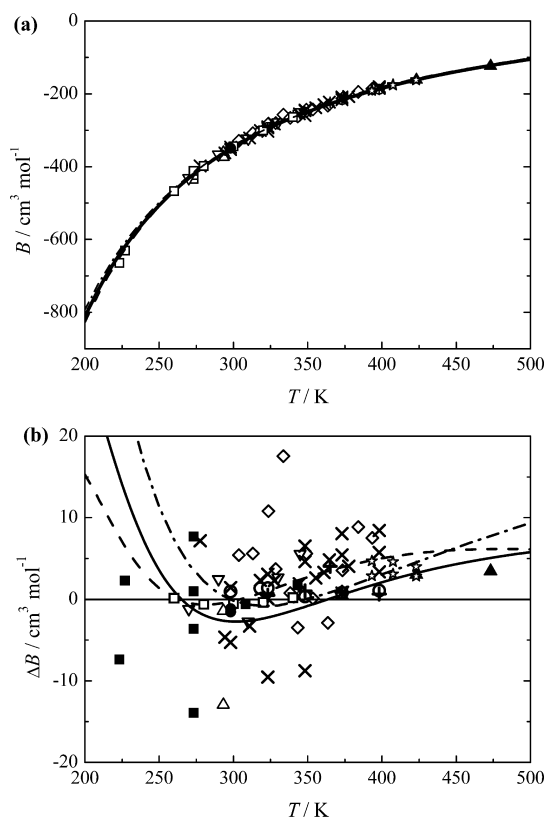


Figure 8. (a) Distributions of the second virial coefficients for propene and (b) deviations of the second virial coefficients for propene from the equation of state developed by Lemmon et al.:⁷² —, eq 12; ---, Dymond et al.;⁸⁴ ---, Zarkova and Hohm;⁹⁶ +, Bier et al.;⁸² ▲, Ohgaki et al.;⁸⁸ ☆, Warowny and Stecki;⁹⁷ ●, Ohgaki et al.;⁸⁸ □, Glos et al.;⁹⁹ ○, Michels et al.;¹⁰⁰ ▽, Møllerup;¹⁰¹ ■, Roper;¹⁰² ◇, McGlashan and Wormald;¹⁰³ ×, Pompe and Spurling;¹⁰⁴ △, Lopatinskii et al.¹⁰⁵

and Ohgaki et al.,⁹⁸ determined the second virial coefficients for propene using the Burnett method. These three data sets differ from eq 12 by less than $3 \text{ cm}^3 \text{mol}^{-1}$, but the results from Ohgaki et al.⁸⁸ and Warowny and Stecki⁹⁷ differ from the equation of state⁷² by more than $3 \text{ cm}^3 \text{mol}^{-1}$. The second virial coefficients of propene measured by Glos et al.⁹⁹ using an accurate two-sinker densimeter agree with the equation of state⁷² within $0.6 \text{ cm}^3 \text{mol}^{-1}$ and with eq 12 within $1.2 \text{ cm}^3 \text{mol}^{-1}$ because these data sets were the main sets used to develop the reference equation of state.⁷² The second virial coefficients from Bier et al.,⁸² Michels et al.,¹⁰⁰ and Møllerup¹⁰¹ also match well with eq 12. The data reported by Roper,¹⁰² McGlashan and Wormald,¹⁰³ Pompe and Spurling¹⁰⁴ and Lopatinskii et al.¹⁰⁵ show somewhat larger differences than the other data.

CONCLUSIONS

The speed of sound was measured in gaseous carbon dioxide from (260 to 332.75) K and in gaseous propene from (260 to 330) K with pressures up to 1000 kPa using a cylindrical resonator. The thermal and viscous boundary disturbances, the gas fill duct disturbance, the shell motion disturbance, and the vibrational relaxation disturbance were corrected in the frequency measurements. The relative standard uncertainty in the speed of sound measurements was estimated to be less than 0.02 %. The present speed-of-sound data for gaseous carbon

dioxide agrees within the uncertainties with the results from Estrada-Alexanders and Trusler.⁴⁴ No previous speed of sound for gaseous propene has been published; thus, the current data will be useful for improving the equation of state for propene.

The ideal-gas heat capacities at constant pressure for carbon dioxide and propene were deduced from the measured speed of sound with an uncertainty of 0.1 %. The present ideal gas heat capacities are in good agreement with high-precision experimental data. The present ideal gas heat capacities for carbon dioxide agree within 0.05 % with the Span and Wagner equation,⁶⁸ while the results for propene agree within 0.095 % with the Lemmon et al. equation.⁷²

The density second virial coefficients, $B(T)$, were then obtained from the speed-of-sound data and the square-well intermolecular model. The second virial coefficients from the present correlations agree within the uncertainties of the high-precision experimental data or calculated data from EoS.

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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