

## Measurement on CO<sub>2</sub> Solution Density by Optical Technology

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**Abstract**: The optical technology based on Mach-Zehnder interferometry was successfully applied to a high-pressure liquid CO<sub>2</sub> and water system to measure CO<sub>2</sub> solution density. Experiments were carried out at a pressure range of from 5.0 to 12.5 MPa, temperatures from 273.25 to 284.15 K, and CO<sub>2</sub> mass fraction in solution up to 0.061. CO<sub>2</sub> solution density data were obtained from two sets of experiments. These data were calculated through the fringe shifts induced by density changes inside of the high-pressure vessel, which were directly recorded during the experiments, and a modified version of Lorentz-Lorenz formulation. The experimental results indicated that the density ratio of CO<sub>2</sub> solution to that of pure water at the same pressure and temperature is monotonically linear with the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the solution. The slope of this linear function, calculated by the experimental data fitting, is 0.275.

**Keywords**: CO<sub>2</sub> solution, density, Mach-Zehnder Interferometry, CO<sub>2</sub> ocean sequestration.

### Nomenclature

$M$	: molar mass	[g/mol]
$N$	: atomic number in unit volume	[-]
$n$	: refractive index	[-]
$\Delta n$	: difference of refractive indexes	[-]
$P$	: pressure	[MPa]
$R$	: molar refraction	[cm <sup>3</sup> /mol]
$\Delta s$	: fringe shift number	[-]
$T$	: temperature	[°C]
$\alpha$	: electronic polarizability	[m <sup>3</sup> ]
$\delta$	: probing distance	[mm]
$\lambda$	: laser wavelength	[nm]
$\rho$	: density or bulk concentration	[g/cm <sup>3</sup> ]
$\chi$	: mass fraction	[-]
$\varepsilon$	: dielectric constant	[-]

### Subscript

$a$ : state after CO<sub>2</sub> droplet injection  
 $b$ : state before CO<sub>2</sub> droplet injection

*c*: CO<sub>2</sub>  
*w*: water  
*s*: state of CO<sub>2</sub> droplet being completely dissolved  
*sl*: solution

## 1. Introduction

Physicochemical properties of CO<sub>2</sub>-water binary system have recently received growing experimental and theoretical interest due to the environment and climate related effects of greenhouse gases. Mitigating CO<sub>2</sub> gas emitted from burning fossil fuel and other major greenhouse gases (CH<sub>4</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O, etc.) in the atmosphere now has become undoubtedly an urgent task aimed to stabilize the atmosphere concentration of greenhouse gases at a certain level and prevent dangerous disruption of the climate system. Among several options proposed, including biological sequestration, geological sequestration and ocean storage (Marchetti, 1997 and Steinberg et al., 1980), ocean sequestration appears to have the advantage of relative lower cost, high efficiency, large capability and limited environmental impact

There are two ideas for CO<sub>2</sub> ocean storage. One is the “dense ocean floor storage”, by which a large amount of liquid CO<sub>2</sub> (LCO<sub>2</sub>) could be stored in an ocean basin deeper than 3000 m where CO<sub>2</sub> density is larger than that of seawater (Aya et al., 1997). The other is the “middle depth dilution”. At a depth about 1000 m, it was suggested by this technology that LCO<sub>2</sub> might be directly injected into the ocean by either a set of fixed nozzles or a way called “moving-ship” (Haugan et al., 1995 and Liro et al., 1992) to form two plumes of LCO<sub>2</sub> droplets and CO<sub>2</sub> enriched seawater. CO<sub>2</sub> droplets will dissolve into seawater as they rise up (positive buoyancy). By this way, it is expected that it might be possible to limit local CO<sub>2</sub> concentration at a controllable level to produce a minimum biological impacts (Nakashiki et al., 1995)

For both ideas, obviously, the fundamental knowledge of physical and chemical mechanism and properties of this CO<sub>2</sub>-water system, e.g. hydrate formation mechanism, CO<sub>2</sub> solution density, solubility and surface tension, is indispensable for engineering design and for developing a reasonable numerical model to predict the ocean environmental impacts on CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration. CO<sub>2</sub> solution density is one of these properties. Since the buoyancy is one of the major forces for ocean dynamics, CO<sub>2</sub> solution density does not only govern the plume structure near the releasing nozzles but also the further evolution of CO<sub>2</sub> enriched plume in large scale (Haugan et al., 1992). However, there are few systematical CO<sub>2</sub> solution density data in the literature on low temperature and high pressure. For the gas CO<sub>2</sub> saturated solution, Parkinson et al (Parkinson et al., 1969) measured the densities at a pressure range of from 1.0 to 3.4 MPa with temperatures from 273.15 to 313.15 K. Their results at low temperatures (278 ~ 284.25K) show a decrease in solution density with an increase in pressure when the pressure is higher than 3.5 MPa. To measure CO<sub>2</sub> solubility for geological and natural gas engineering, Nighswander et al. (1989) added some new data at pressures from 2.0 to 10.0 MPa with temperatures from 353.15 to 473.15 K. With focusing on CO<sub>2</sub> ocean storage investigation, Ohsumi et. al. (1992) measured LCO<sub>2</sub> solution densities at low CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations by a vibration-density meter. Also for ocean storage on the basin (20 ~ 30 MPa), very recently Aya (2000) reported CO<sub>2</sub> solution density varied with respect to CO<sub>2</sub> mass fraction by using a weighting technology. By comparison with these two sets of data, Aya (2000) found out that the slope of density difference between CO<sub>2</sub> solution and water with respect to CO<sub>2</sub> mass fraction obtained from his experiments is 7.0 percentage smaller than that from Ohsumi's.

In this study, we report the last experimental results of CO<sub>2</sub> solution density at pressures and temperatures ranging from 5.0 to 12.5 MPa and 273.25 to 284.15 K, and CO<sub>2</sub> concentration (in mass fraction) up to 0.061. These experiments were carried out by using a high-pressure vessel with a standard safe pressure of 15.0 MPa and Mach-Zehnder Interferometry.

## 2. Measurement Methodology

The principle of measuring CO<sub>2</sub> solution density in this study is based on the method of Mach-Zehnder Interferometry. Figure 1 gives the schematic diagram of the experimental apparatus. The experimental system consists of mainly two parts. One is the optical system and the other is the CO<sub>2</sub> dissolution system. The laser used in this study is a D100E Pumped Crystal Laser (CL-100) with the power of 500mW and wavelength of 530nm. The high-pressure vessel is made of SUS 316 stainless steel and designed to withstand safely 15.0 MPa of pressure. Three circular windows with a diameter of 20.0 mm are placed on the vessel walls. Two of them are located to be opposite horizontally for optical measurement with a distance of  $\delta=35.0\text{mm}$  and the other is a window for monitoring, which is perpendicular to the measurement windows at the same horizontal level. These optical windows are made of Sapphire glass. The temperature of water or CO<sub>2</sub> solution inside the vessel can be adjusted from 263.15 K to 340.15 K by a heat exchanger with fluctuations less than  $\pm 0.2$  K. To enhance CO<sub>2</sub> dissolution and to maintain CO<sub>2</sub> solution inside the vessel in a homogeneous state, a stirrer was installed at the bottom of the vessel. The stirring strength can be adjusted at 10 different levels. Liquid CO<sub>2</sub> is injected into water or solution by an up-down nozzle with an inner-diameter of 1.3 mm to form a droplet. Because of the density difference between liquid CO<sub>2</sub> and water ( $\rho_c < \rho_w$ ), this injected droplet was kept steadily hanging on the nozzle exit while dissolving into surrounding water or solution.

The fundamental principle of Mach-Zehnder Interferometry is to make use of the physical phenomenon of the difference of refractive index indicated by the interference from two identical laser beams, which are divided by a half-silvered mirror. One probing beam passes through the test vessel of CO<sub>2</sub> solution and the other is a reference beam. Interference fringes appeared on the screen shift with density changes inside the vessel due to CO<sub>2</sub> injection and dissolution. A CCD camera (DXC-LS1 Sony) and a digital video (DCR-PC100, Sony) are used to record continually both of these interference-fringe shifts and the dissolution process of CO<sub>2</sub> droplet injected. The interference-fringe shifts will be counted later for calculating the density changes.

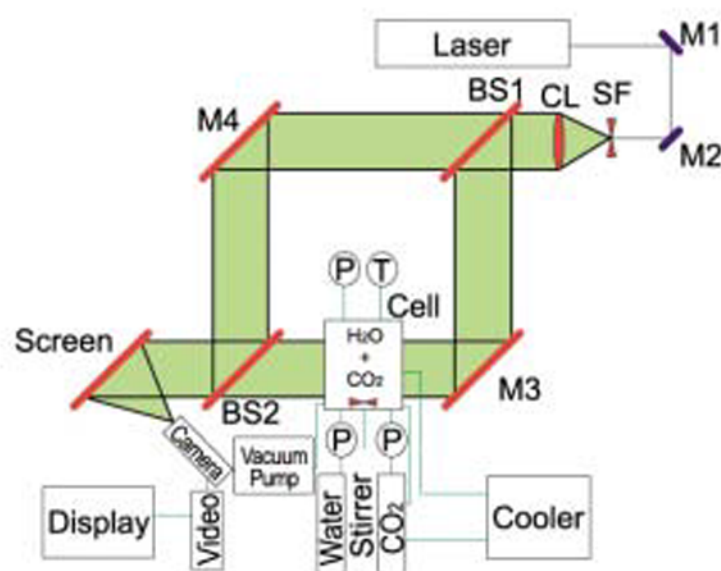


Fig. 1. Schematic diagram of experiment apparatus.

From optical physics, we can relate the fringe shift between the CO<sub>2</sub> solution and the fresh water,  $\Delta S$ , to the difference of refractive indexes,  $\Delta n$ , by:

$$\Delta n \delta = (n_{sl} - n_w) \delta = \lambda \Delta s \quad (1)$$

through probing distance ( $\delta$ ), laser wave length ( $\lambda$ ), and refractive indexes ( $n$ ) of solution and water, respectively. For a pure substance, we have the Lorentz-Lorenz formulation (Koube, 1977):

$$\frac{n_i^2 - 1}{n_i^2 + 2} = \frac{R_i}{M_i} \rho_i \quad (2)$$

It must be noted that Eq. (2), the Lorentz-Lorenz formulation, is applicable for, in strictly speaking, perfect gases. However, according to the discussion from Born and Wolf (1959), they stated : "The molar refractivity is also found to remain practically constant when the gas is condensed into a liquid." Furthermore, the Chemical Handbook (Ito, 1984) introduced that Eq. (2) can be directly applied to liquids. In order to confirm the validity of using Eq. (2) in our experiment, we performed a calibration experiment for pure water by using Eqs. (1) ~ (2). The results are listed in Table 1. In this experiment, the pressure (0.1 ~ 11.89 MPa), temperature (kept in 4.6 °C), and fringe shift ( $\Delta S$ ) are measured from the calibrating experiment directly, while the densities and the initial refractive index ( $n_0=1.3342$  for the start point at pressure of 0.1 MPa) are the data obtained from Handbooks (Lide, 1998-1999; Uchida, 1982), respectively. The refractive index  $n$  from the second point to the end is calculated by  $\Delta S$  and Eq. (1) according to the relation:

$$n_k = n_{k-1} + \Delta n_k \quad (3)$$

$$\Delta n_k = \Delta S_k \frac{\lambda}{\delta} \quad (4)$$

where subscript  $k$  is the experimental number from 1 to 12. Then, molar refractivity,  $R_w$ , is calculated (the last column in Table 1). From this result, we evidenced the conclusion that Eq. (2) is adequately applied to liquids, especially to water, and the molar refractivity of water remains a constant of 3.715, which is slightly different with the value of 3.71 from theories (Ito, 1984). By using the molar refractivity of 3.71, we calculated in reverse the water density and found that the error produced are neglectfully small.

Having been evidenced, following relations can be derived straightforwardly for pure water and CO<sub>2</sub> from Eq. (2):

$$\frac{n_w^2 - 1}{n_w^2 + 2} = \frac{R_w}{M_w} \rho_w \quad (5)$$

$$\frac{n_c^2 - 1}{n_c^2 + 2} = \frac{R_c}{M_c} \rho_c \quad (6)$$

According to Maxwell electric-magnetic theory (Feynman et al., 1965):

$$3\left(\frac{n^2 - 1}{n^2 + 2}\right) = \sum_i N_i \alpha_i \quad (7)$$

we have the equations for CO<sub>2</sub>-water binary system:

Table 1 The Lorentz-Lorenz Relation for Pure Water (Calibration in this experiment).

Pressure (MPa)	k	Temperature (°C)	Density $\rho$ (g/cm <sup>3</sup> )	Fringe shift $\Delta S$	Refractive index $N$	Molar refractivity $R_w$
0.1	0	4.6	0.99995	0	1.3342	3.7148
1.17	1	4.6	1.00046	13	1.33443	3.7152
2.13	2	4.6	1.00093	23	1.33461	3.7153
2.99	3	4.6	1.00134	33	1.33478	3.7155
4.01	4	4.6	1.00183	43	1.33496	3.7155
5.05	5	4.6	1.00233	53	1.33513	3.7154
6.07	6	4.6	1.00282	64	1.33533	3.7155
7.03	7	4.6	1.00328	74	1.3355	3.7156
8.16	8	4.6	1.00383	85	1.3357	3.7155
9.15	9	4.6	1.0043	95	1.33587	3.7155
10.16	10	4.6	1.00479	104	1.33603	3.7153
11.14	11	4.6	1.00526	114	1.33621	3.7153
11.89	12	4.6	1.00562	123	1.33637	3.7156

$$3\left(\frac{n_{sl}^2-1}{n_{sl}^2+2}\right) = \left(\sum_i N_i \alpha_i\right)_c + \left(\sum_i N_i \alpha_i\right)_w = 3\left(\frac{n_c^2-1}{n_c^2+2}\right) + 3\left(\frac{n_w^2-1}{n_w^2+2}\right) \quad (8)$$

then finally we obtain the equation related densities to refractive index of solution:

$$\frac{n_{sl}^2-1}{n_{sl}^2+2} = \frac{n_c^2-1}{n_c^2+2} + \frac{n_w^2-1}{n_w^2+2} = \frac{6.68}{44} \rho_c + \frac{3.71}{18} \rho_w \quad (9)$$

which is one of the key equations applied in this experiment. By coupling Eqs. (1) and (9), CO<sub>2</sub> solution refractive index,  $n_{sl}$ , and CO<sub>2</sub> density,  $\rho_c$ , (the actual bulk CO<sub>2</sub> concentration inside the vessel) can be obtained since fringe shifts due to density changes can be directly counted from those digital video records and other parameters appearing in these two equations, (water density, probing distance, laser wave-length, and refractive index of water) are all known. Consequently, the bulk CO<sub>2</sub> solution density and CO<sub>2</sub> mass fraction are obtained by:

$$\rho_{sl} = \rho_c + \rho_w \quad (10)$$

$$\chi = \frac{\rho_c}{\rho_{sl}} = \frac{\rho_c}{\rho_c + \rho_w} \quad (11)$$

### 3. Experiment Procedure

Before the experiment, the high-pressure vessel vacuumed up was fed with fresh water to an initial pressure and removed as much air as possible. This prepared high-pressure vessel was maintained for 24 hours for a preliminary leakage test by monitoring inside water pressure unchanged. As the first step, an individual liquid CO<sub>2</sub> was injected into the fresh water inside the vessel at a temperature of 279.15 K and pressure of 5.0 MPa, by which the initial density of the fresh water is determined. Once this injected liquid CO<sub>2</sub> droplet was completely dissolved up (The pressure decreased from that at the end of the droplet injection because of dissolution.), another droplet was injected again. This injection and dissolution process for an individual CO<sub>2</sub> droplet is called as “one step”. The experiment was progressed step by step repeatedly until the solution approached to the solubility limit. This entire process was continually monitored by a digital video for recording interfere-fringe shifts and liquid CO<sub>2</sub> droplets dissolution and by pressure and temperature sensors for detecting the thermodynamic state variation. For one step, the pressure and temperature of the fresh water or CO<sub>2</sub> solution at the starting time of liquid CO<sub>2</sub> injection were defined as  $T_b$  and  $P_b$  and those at the time of the end of injection were  $T_a$  and  $P_a$ , respectively. The pressure variation recorded from the experiment is shown in Fig. 2 for three steps ( $i-1$ ,  $i$ , and  $i+1$ ). These data were further used to estimate liquid CO<sub>2</sub> mass injected with the help of droplet volume recorded by CCD camera as additional reference to the result from Eq. (9). Because the liquid CO<sub>2</sub> dissolution rate lowered down as the experiment progressed, this experiment totally took about 5 days.

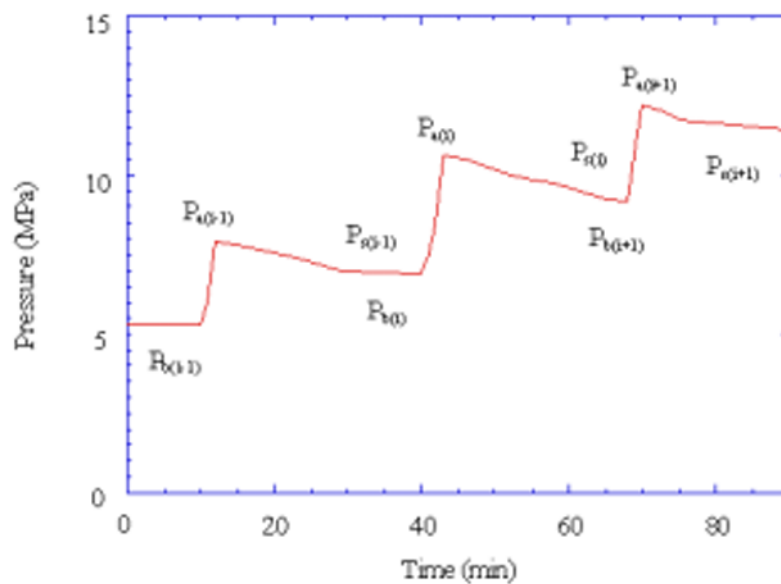


Fig. 2. Pressure variation during CO<sub>2</sub> droplet injection and dissolution.

The time evolution of a typical CO<sub>2</sub> droplet dissolving into solution sampled from continuous digital video records is shown in Fig. 3 as an example. The number of fringe shifting into or out of the screen due to the density changes and also due to the CO<sub>2</sub> injections can be easily counted from these digital video records.

At the moment for each step when CO<sub>2</sub> droplet was completely dissolved as shown in Fig. 3 ( $T=175$  min.) with CO<sub>2</sub> solution (without any unsolved CO<sub>2</sub> coexists) inside the vessel having been stirred in an approximately homogenous state, interfere-fringe shifts from the beginning of injection

(Fig. 3  $T=0$ ) were counted from digital video records directly. By implementing these interfere-fringe shifts, pressure and temperature, and other property parameters required into Eq. (1) and Eqs. (9)~(11),  $\text{CO}_2$  solution density and  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration at each step were obtained progressively. Additionally, it was noted from the experiment occasionally, when stirring was switched off, that a natural convection boundary was detected at the interface between  $\text{CO}_2$  droplet and solution, which was produced by local density difference and dissolution. Though the attention of current study was paid to the vessel bulk density rather than the density field, it shed a light on understanding the mass transfer mechanism to further visualize the inner structure of this density boundary layer.

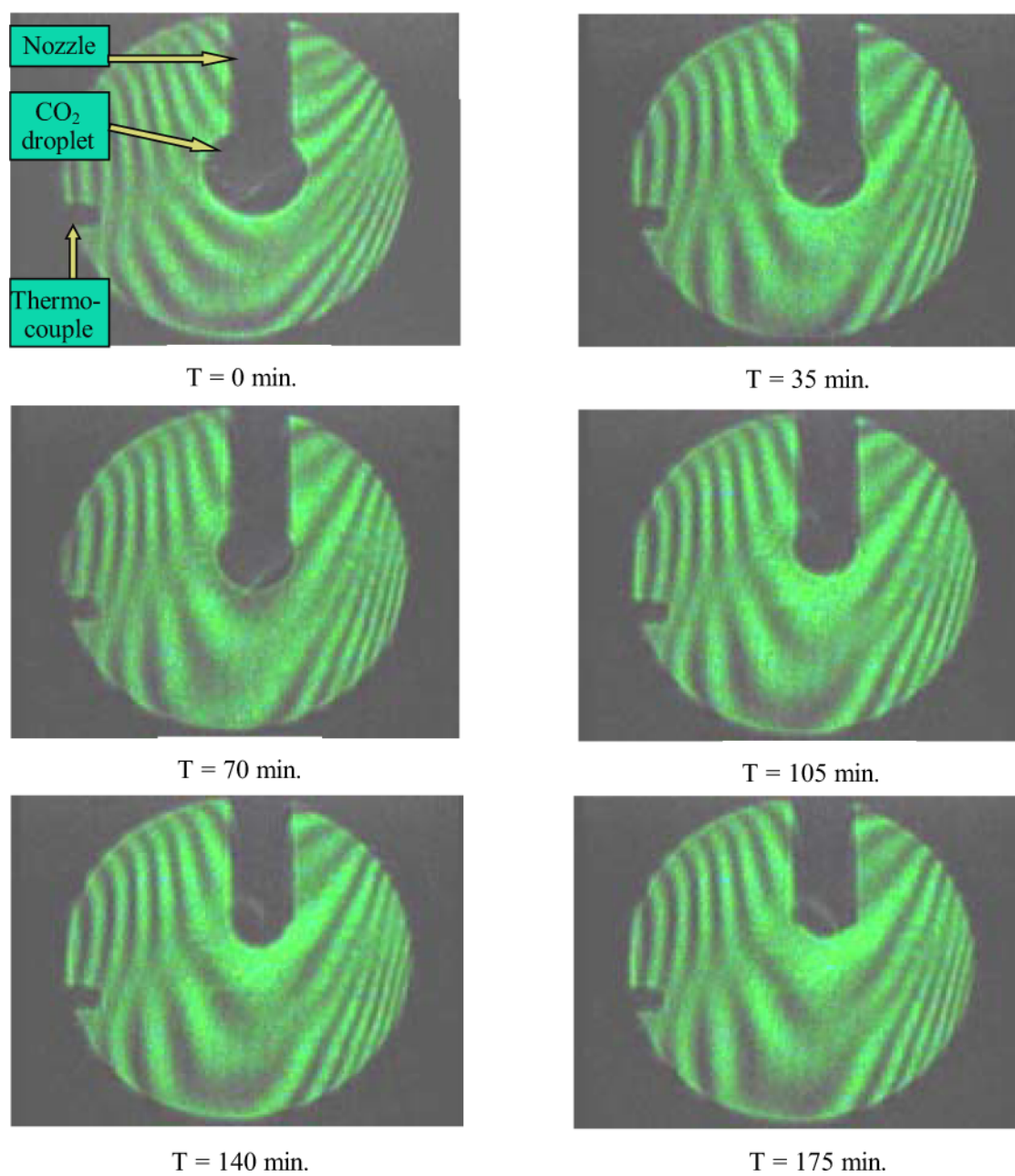


Fig. 3. Time evolution of a  $\text{CO}_2$  droplet dissolution in water.

## 4. Results and Discussions

Two sets of data were obtained for experimental conditions at pressures ranging from 5.0 to 12.5 MPa, temperatures from 273.25 to 284.15 K, and CO<sub>2</sub> mass fraction in water up to 0.061. These data indicate that CO<sub>2</sub> solution density is nonlinearly proportional to the CO<sub>2</sub> mass fraction as shown in Fig. 4. For experiment-1, the initial pressure and temperature are 5.0 MPa and 279.15K, respectively. The solution pressure increased to 12.5 MPa as more CO<sub>2</sub> dissolved while the temperature was adjusted independently from 279.15K to 273.25K. For experiment-2, the initial state was set at a relatively high temperature (284.15K) and low pressure (0.7 MPa). With keeping the temperature at initial one, the solution pressure increased to 9.0 MPa when the solution approached to solubility. From these data, it can be undoubtedly concluded only that CO<sub>2</sub> solution bears a nonlinear state relationship with density, pressure, temperature, and CO<sub>2</sub> mass fraction. However, when CO<sub>2</sub> solution density is normalized by pure water density at the same pressure and temperature, the state relationship becomes to be simple and clear version. As shown in Fig. 5, the ratio of CO<sub>2</sub> solution density to that of pure water at the same pressure and temperature, or the difference between these two densities, appears to be a monotonically linear relation with CO<sub>2</sub> mass fraction and seems to be independent of pressure and temperature at the experimental conditions listed here. The slope of this linear function, 0.275 was calculated by data fitting. This simple relationship is expressed by a state equation as the following :

$$\varphi = \rho_{sl} / \rho_w = 1.0 + 0.275\chi \quad (12)$$

This state equation is convenient to implement the numerical modeling code. For CO<sub>2</sub> ocean sequestration, as mentioned above, this linear relation indicates extensively that the additional negative buoyancy induced by CO<sub>2</sub> dissolution appears to be a constant, if CO<sub>2</sub> mass fraction is at the same value, and independent of the ocean depth (pressure and temperature). This also confirms the estimation that CO<sub>2</sub> enriched water will break down the original ocean stratification state and produce an additional gravity wave.

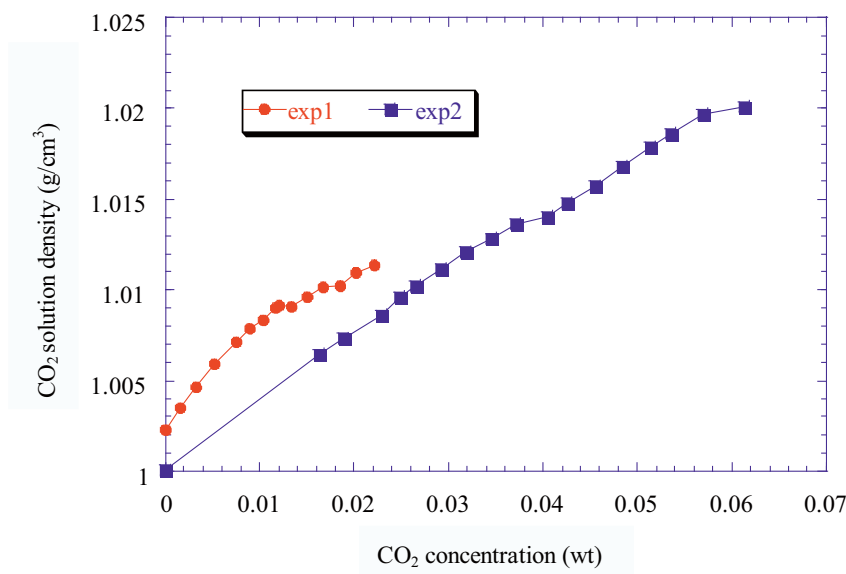


Fig. 4. CO<sub>2</sub> solution density for two sets of experiment.



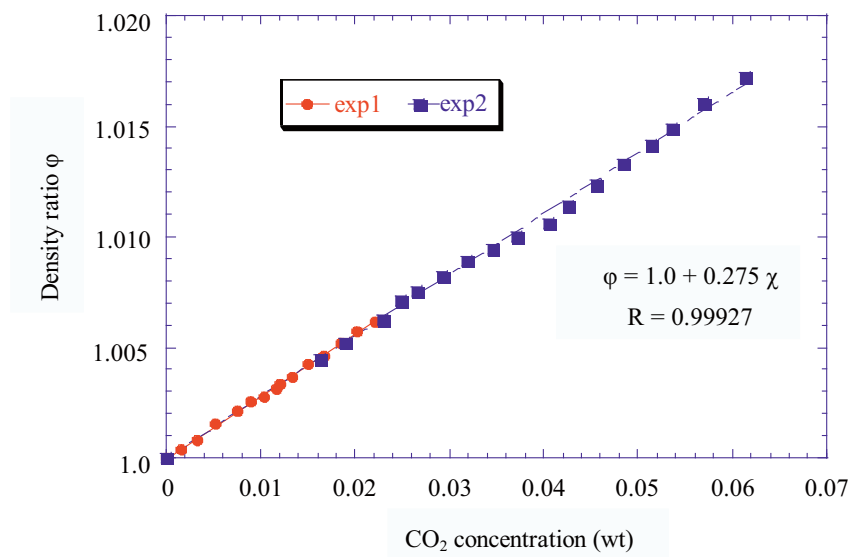


Fig. 5. Density ratio of CO<sub>2</sub> solution to pure water as the function of CO<sub>2</sub> concentration.

The mechanism of increasing CO<sub>2</sub> solution density while CO<sub>2</sub> is gradually dissolved into the water may be expressed by the interaction between water and CO<sub>2</sub> molecules. In the fact of the molecular structure, the size of CO<sub>2</sub> molecular is smaller than the distance between two water molecules, which allows the former to penetrate into the gaps between water molecules as they dissolved. Furthermore, the molecular density of CO<sub>2</sub> solution becomes larger than that of pure water and leads the CO<sub>2</sub> solution density to increase. It is also interesting to look at the pressure variations from the state of the beginning of liquid CO<sub>2</sub> injection,  $P_b$ , to the end of injection,  $P_a$ , and then the completely dissolved state,  $P_s$ . They have a relation,  $P_b < P_s < P_a$  (Fig. 2), which implies that the volume of CO<sub>2</sub> solution is less than the individual volume of pure water plus pure CO<sub>2</sub> at the same state. It also means that the distance between water molecules increases when CO<sub>2</sub> is dissolved into water.

In addition to the experimental error involved in temperature and pressure measurement, one uncertainty to be considered is the interfere-fringe shift resolution created on the screen and the other is the expansion of probing distance ( $\delta$ ) when the pressure increased. The entire error for the slope of Eq. (12) we estimated from the system calibration experiment should be within  $\pm 1.5$  percentage.

## 5. Summary

CO<sub>2</sub> solution density is successfully measured by using a high-pressure dissolution vessel and Mach-Zehnder interferometry experimental system. The experimental data obtained were at a pressure range of from 5.0 to 12.5 MPa, temperature from 273.25 to 284.15 K, and CO<sub>2</sub> mass fraction in the solution up to 0.061. A new version of Lorentz-Lorenz formulation for liquid solution was derived from Maxwell electric-magnetic theory. By using this new equation, CO<sub>2</sub> solution density and CO<sub>2</sub> mass fraction in the solution can be directly estimated by the recorded fringe shifts induced by density changes. The experimental results indicate that the linear relation between the density ratio of CO<sub>2</sub> solution to that of pure water and CO<sub>2</sub> mass fraction has a slope of 0.275.

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