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Will mercury impurities impact CO₂ injectivity in deep sedimentary formations? I. Condensation and net porosity reduction

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2 **Will mercury impurities impact CO₂ injectivity in deep**
3 **sedimentary formations?**
4 **I. Condensation and net porosity reduction**
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18

ABSTRACT

Mercury is a common contaminant in natural gas and partially follows carbon dioxide through amine separation during natural gas processing. In this study, we used simple volumetric analyses, the simulator TOUGH2/EOS7C, and dew-point calculations to investigate the potential impacts on injectivity of trace amounts of mercury in a carbon dioxide stream injected for geologic carbon dioxide sequestration. For mercury concentrations up to 190 ppbV ($\sim 1.6 \text{ mg/standard m}^3 \text{ CO}_2$), the total volumetric pore-space plugging that could occur around the wellbore due to complete condensation of mercury, or due to complete precipitation of mercury as cinnabar, results in a very small porosity change. Evaporative concentration of aqueous mercury by water evaporation into carbon dioxide is unlikely because the volatility of mercury into the carbon dioxide stream is higher than that of water. Dew-point calculations suggest that mercury concentrations of about 2,000 ppbV are needed for mercury condensation to occur. Our analyses suggest that for mercury concentrations of a few hundred ppbV, the impacts on injectivity of mercury deposition by condensation or precipitation as cinnabar are negligible.

1 Introduction

Minimum standards for heating value of produced gas (mostly methane, CH_4) from natural gas reservoirs often necessitate processing of the natural gas to remove carbon dioxide (CO_2) and other constituents before the gas is sent to market. By the process of amine absorption during natural gas processing, large amounts of CO_2 may be separated from the natural gas, and in some cases re-injected for geologic carbon dioxide sequestration (GCS). For example, gas processing has resulted in the total sequestration of approximately 18 Mt CO_2 ($1.8 \times 10^{10} \text{ kg CO}_2$) at Sleipner [1],

2 Mt CO₂ at Snovhit [2], and 7 Mt CO₂ at In Salah [3]. Another common contaminant in natural gas is mercury (Hg) [4, 5]. While Hg concentrations are not an issue in the three aforementioned natural gas fields, Hg concentrations may be higher in future high-CO₂ natural gas projects involving GCS, and a fraction of the Hg present in the natural gas may be captured along with CO₂ (e.g. [6] and potentially injected for GCS. Even though Hg may range from trace concentrations up to hundreds of ppbV as assumed in this study, enormous volumes of the CO₂-Hg injectate will be sent down wells for sequestration. While other studies have considered reduction in injectivity due to effects of various contaminants (e.g., [5]), we are not aware of studies directed at Hg and particularly pore plugging by condensation and/or mineral precipitation of Hg-bearing minerals. Here we address the question of whether Hg in the CO₂ injection stream can negatively impact injectivity (defined as bottomhole pressure rise per unit mass of CO₂ injected) by reducing permeability in the geologic formation.

Trace amounts of Hg in large volumes of injected CO₂ could reduce injectivity in at least two ways. First, the condensation of Hg (vapor depositing in the pore space as liquid) could reduce the CO₂ relative permeability in the formation. In addition, the precipitation of Hg-containing minerals such as cinnabar (HgS) could reduce porosity of the formation, with associated effects on permeability. In this study, we present simple volumetric calculations, numerical modeling, and equilibrium dew-point analyses to investigate whether Hg condensation or precipitation of Hg as cinnabar can be expected to reduce injectivity substantially. In a companion paper [7], we present detailed geochemical modeling of reactions caused by the injected CO₂ and Hg that could lead to the dissolution and precipitation of other (non-Hg) minerals, as well as Hg-containing mineral phases, which could possibly affect injectivity arising from Hg injection.

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64 **2 Methods**

65 In this study, we present simple volumetric analyses, idealized numerical simulations, and dew-
66 point calculations to evaluate potential pore-occupancy and evaporation-condensation processes
67 of Hg injected as a trace contaminant with a CO₂ carrier gas into an idealized saturated porous
68 media reservoir formation at a depth of approximately 2 km (~210 bar, 106 °C). The volumetric
69 calculations, which assume that a cylindrical porous region around the wellbore is uniformly
70 permeated with injected CO₂ and Hg, were made to evaluate the amount and volume of Hg injected
71 with CO₂ and to assess the effects on porosity of different volumetric distributions of Hg and CO₂
72 within the target formation.

73 Dynamic changes in aqueous Hg concentration were investigated by numerical simulation using
74 TOUGH2/EOS7C to simulate the evaporative concentration behavior of trace soluble gas species
75 (such as Hg) of different volatilities. TOUGH2 is a multiphase and multicomponent integral finite
76 difference reservoir simulator [8, 9] is an equation of state module for TOUGH2 that calculates
77 thermophysical properties of H₂O, brine, non-condensable gas (e.g., CO₂), gas tracer, CH₄ under
78 (optional) non-isothermal conditions. The Peng-Robinson (cubic) equation of state is used in
79 EOS7C to calculate gas mixture fugacity, density, enthalpy departure, and viscosity. Equilibrium
80 gas solubility is computed using a Henry's Law approach. For applications in this study, we set
81 the CH₄ concentration to be negligible, and we made the tracer component represent the volatile
82 Hg component by specification of concentration and Henry's Law constant to values appropriate
83 for Hg for the given *P-T* conditions in the reservoir (see Appendix A).

As confirmation of the numerical simulations, and to extend the analysis to estimate effects of higher Hg concentrations, equilibrium thermodynamic dew-point calculations were performed to assess the potential for gaseous Hg (in the CO₂) to condense from the CO₂.

3 Results

3.1. System properties

Relevant properties and operational parameters of a hypothetical GCS reservoir and injectate composition are shown in Table 1. As shown, we consider CO₂ with 190 pbbV Hg will be injected at a rate of 0.47 Mt/yr for 40 yrs into a well with 300 m of screened interval. The scope of this project involved choosing a set of properties typical of prospective GCS sites to investigate expected effects, leaving for later the assessment as to whether future studies, including exhaustive calculations of ranges of properties, are warranted. All results are calculated and presented on a per well basis.

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Table 1. Property, operational, and reference data

Variable	Value	Units	Source
Pressure	215	(bar)	1
Temperature	106	(C)	1
Porosity	0.15		1
Residual CO ₂ saturation	0.4		1
Thickness of injection interval	300	(m)	2
CO ₂ injection rate per injector	2.53E+08	(std m ³ /y)	1
	14.8	(kg/s)	1
Injection time period	40	(y)	1
Hg concentration in CO ₂	1.58	(mg/m ³)	1
	0.19	(ppmV)	1
CO ₂ density (reservoir, 215 bar, 106°C)	490.5	(kg/m ³)	2
Hg(l) density (1 bar, 20°C)*	13,546	(kg/m ³)	3
HgS(s) density (1 bar, 25°C)*	8,176	(kg/m ³)	5
CO ₂ molecular weight	44.0095	(g/mol)	4
Hg(l) molecular weight	200.59	(g/mol)	4
HgS(s) molecular weight	232.66	(g/mol)	4

* Minimal temperature and pressure effects are neglected

Source: 1 assumption; 2 Altunin (1975) [10]; 3 Holman and ten Seldam (1994) [11]; 4 NIST (2011) [12]; 5 Mindat.org (<http://www.mindat.org/min-1052.html>, last accessed 12/12/2013).

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3.2. Hg Effect on Porosity

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102 The maximum porosity change from Hg deposition in a reservoir can be estimated by simple
103 volumetric analyses, assuming that all of the available Hg either condenses or precipitates as
104 cinnabar (HgS(s)) within a uniform cylindrical volume around the wellbore.

105 Approximate volumes of injected CO₂ and Hg were calculated using injection conditions and
106 assumptions of Tables 1 and 2. For these simple analyses, it is assumed that all Hg initially in the
107 CO₂ is deposited in the target formation, either as condensed elemental liquid mercury (Hg(l)) or
108 as precipitated cinnabar (mercury sulfide, HgS(s)), which is known to readily form in the presence
109 of sulfide (e.g., [13] and has an extremely low solubility [14, 15]).

The calculated Hg mass flow rate into the target formation is 400 kg/y (Table 2). However, the corresponding (maximum) volumes of Hg or cinnabar that could condense and precipitate (respectively) upon injection are 1.18 and 1.95 m³, respectively, a very small volume relative to the huge volume of injected supercritical CO₂. This is the result of the high densities of Hg(l) and HgS(s) relative to the density of supercritical CO₂ at reservoir pressure and temperature. Note that the change in Hg(l) and HgS(s) density with temperature and pressure is negligibly small and therefore neglected (e.g., [11]). Given these small expected volumes, it is evident that a significant reduction in permeability from Hg deposition would only arise if deposition (by either condensation or precipitation) occurred within the pore space of a small and localized region of the reservoir.

If we assume that Hg deposition by either condensation (as Hg(l)) or precipitation (as HgS(s)) occurs uniformly around 300 m of the 0.25 m (10-inch) injection well, it is possible to roughly estimate the lateral extent of Hg deposition around the well versus porosity drop, or vice versa. In doing so, it is estimated that an absolute porosity drop of more than 1% would require precipitation of all of the injected Hg within less than ~0.2–0.4 m from the injection well (Figure 1). If, on the other hand, Hg deposition occurred over meters to tens of meters as we might intuitively expect, the porosity drop would be correspondingly smaller, as would the impact on porosity and therefore on injectivity. While this simple analysis does not consider the details of where deposition might occur, e.g., in pore throats versus within pore bodies, the small volume of Hg available to reduce porosity suggests minimal effects on injectivity.

We note that the numerical simulations presented in the companion paper [7] reveal that the distribution of CO₂ and Hg around the injection well cannot be assumed to be cylindrical in shape

because the buoyancy of supercritical CO₂ results in an upward-widening conical plume around the wellbore. Regardless of this buoyancy complication, the simple volumetric calculations considered here suggest that a very small porosity change would occur if Hg precipitated in a distributed fashion over length scales of a meter or more around the well. Additional studies focused on leakage and CO₂ permanence will have to be carried out to address the question of the ultimate fate of Hg dissolved in the CO₂ phase. We show in the companion paper [7] that Hg readily precipitates as cinnabar (HgS) (because sulfide is present in formation waters) and that this mineral has an extremely low solubility, meaning that significant Hg contamination of reservoirs is not expected.

Table 2. Approximate Hg and CO₂ volumetric data calculated using assumptions and data shown in Table 1.

Variable	Value	Units
Hg mass and volumetric rates¹		
Mass rate	399	(kg/y)
Volumetric rate as Hg(l)	0.0295	(m ³ /y)
Volumetric rate as HgS(s)	0.0489	(m ³ /y)
Cumulative volumetric data^{1,2}		
Reservoir volume with residual CO ₂	6.35E+08	(m ³)
Total Hg volume as Hg(l)	1.18	(m ³)
Total Hg volume as HgS(s)	1.95	(m ³)
Radius of CO ₂ plume	821	(m)

¹Per injector; ²Assuming a cylindrical plume centered on the injector at residual saturation shown.

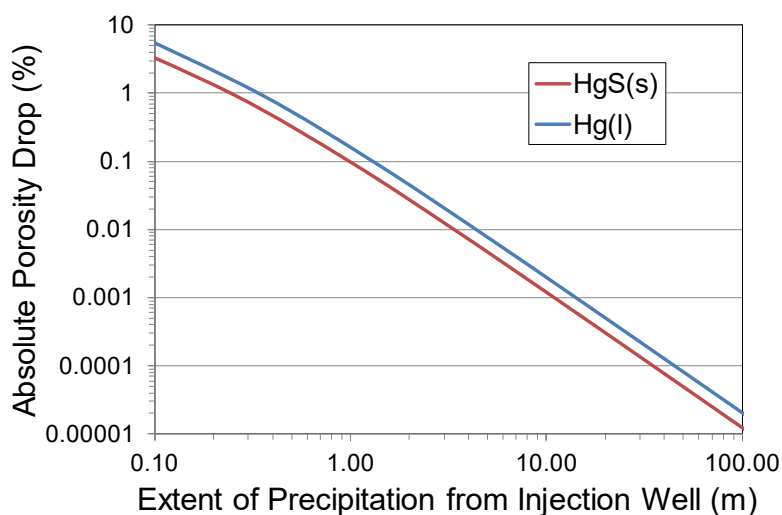


Figure 1. Absolute porosity change estimated for a given extent of homogeneous Hg deposition radially around an injector well (see Tables 1 and 2 for assumptions and inputs).

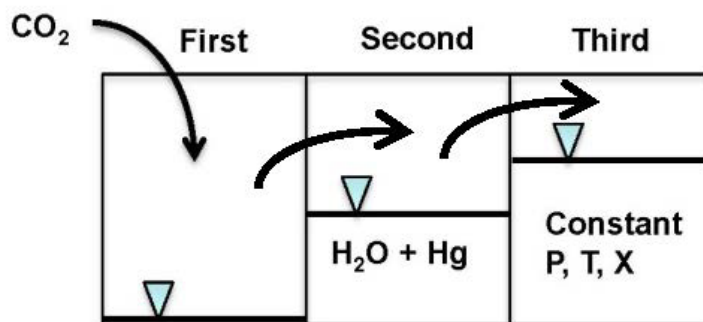
3.3. Evaporative Concentration

To the extent that the above analyses hinge on the total volume of Hg, and therefore on the concentration of Hg in the gas or aqueous phases, the question arises as to whether Hg could concentrate in the residual aqueous phase of the formation as CO₂ absorbs H₂O from resident groundwater. For example, small quantities of water are known to evaporate into compressed CO₂, resulting in evaporative concentration of dissolved salts and in some cases reduction in formation permeability (e.g., [16, 17, 18]). Therefore, could aqueous Hg also condense or precipitate as cinnabar during continued drying, causing significant reductions in porosity? (Note that the effects of water evaporation on the precipitation of other minerals is negligible in this case [7].

To motivate the question further, we consider three examples of this potential effect. Specifically, we imagine three idealized beakers containing aqueous mixtures with solutes (NaCl, CH₄, and Hg) of different volatility. When H₂O evaporates from the beaker containing the NaCl solution, NaCl concentrates because it does not volatilize. In the beaker containing dissolved CH₄, the CH₄ volatilizes faster than H₂O resulting in lower concentration of CH₄ in the solution as time goes on. What about the beaker containing dissolved Hg? Does Hg concentrate or diminish as evaporation into a dry CO₂ stream occurs?

To demonstrate and verify the behavior of Hg upon continuous CO₂ injection, a simple numerical experiment was set up to simulate the evaporation of different solutions, each containing a dissolved (generic) compound with a given different volatility. The numerical experiment examines the evolution of Hg concentration in the aqueous phase upon evaporation of H₂O into a through-flowing CO₂ stream at 213 bars and 106°C. Three grid blocks were defined as shown in Figure 2. Dry CO₂ is injected into the first grid block, which is initially filled with a small amount of aqueous phase that quickly dries up. This CO₂ flows directly into the second grid block that contains a two-phase mixture of gas and aqueous phase, where the aqueous phase contains Hg at a concentration of 5.6×10^{-8} by mass fraction (approximately the solubility of Hg estimated for the reservoir of interest). In this second grid block, instantaneous equilibrium concentrations of H₂O, CO₂, and Hg in the gas and aqueous phases are calculated. The gas phase from grid block 2 then flows into the third grid block which is an effective sink for whatever phases and components flow into it. The question we have posed can be answered by simply monitoring the aqueous phase

181 concentration in the second grid block; in short, does Hg concentration increase or decrease as
182 CO₂ flows through?



183
184 **Figure 2.** Sketch of the three grid blocks used to model the evolution of Hg concentration in the aqueous
185 phase of the second grid block as dry CO₂ flows through it.

186
187 Simulations were carried out using TOUGH2/EOS7C considering a tracer with various assigned
188 values of Henry's Law constant (Kh). In doing so, systems representative of Hg, as well as
189 hypothetical more- and less-volatile components, could be modeled. The Kh values for Hg at the
190 temperature and pressure of interest was estimated to be about 8.2×10^8 Pa/mole fraction
191 (Appendix A).

192 Results are shown in Figure 3 by curves of gas saturation (left-hand side vertical axis) and Hg
193 concentration (mass fraction in the aqueous phase) in the second grid block, computed for
194 various values of $1/Kh$. The gas saturation is predicted to increase steadily as the H₂O component
195 evaporates from the aqueous phase. For Hg (at $1/Kh \sim 1.22 \times 10^{-9}$ Pa⁻¹; solid blue curve), the Hg
196 concentration is computed to rapidly decline with time, indicating that Hg will not concentrate in
197 the aqueous phase as CO₂ flows through. Additional results for hypothetical solutes with various

1/Kh values are shown in Figure 3. For $1/Kh$ values larger than $7.994 \times 10^{-6} \text{ Pa}^{-1}$, the solute concentrates as evaporation occurs. This critical value of $1/Kh$, separating concentrating from non-concentrating solutes, subject to contact with dry CO_2 , represents the inverse of the saturation pressure of water at the considered P - T conditions. In other words, if a solute is more volatile than water in the CO_2 stream, its concentration will decrease in the aqueous phase as drying occurs. If the solute is less volatile than water, its concentration will increase. This result shows that the concentration of Hg in a two-phase groundwater-gas region is expected to decrease as CO_2 flows through, because the Hg component is more volatile (by several orders of magnitude) than the H_2O component into the CO_2 stream. This behavior implies that Hg will tend to be transported farther into the formation with the flowing CO_2 rather than accumulating around the near-well region where it could impact injectivity. Because the gas phase in the second grid block will contain H_2O at its saturation limit after instantaneous equilibrium, the qualitative behavior does not depend on whether CO_2 injected into this grid block is initially dry or partially saturated with H_2O . In short, the greater volatility of Hg ensures that it preferentially enters the gas phase relative to H_2O .

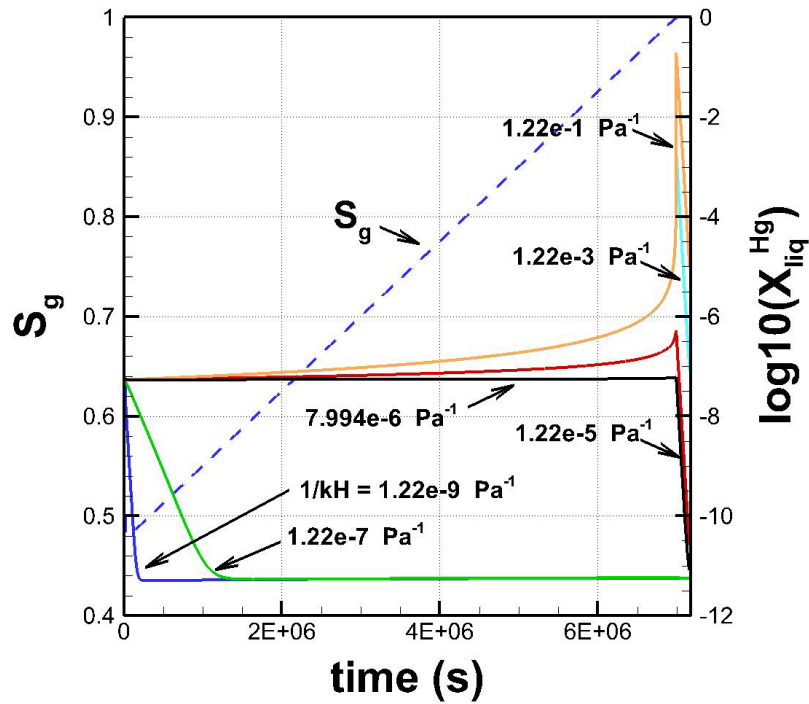


Figure 3. TOUGH2/EOS7C results of gas saturation (S_g) and log mass fraction of Hg in the liquid (aqueous) phase as a function of time in the second grid block for solutes with various $1/Kh$ values. The curve for Hg is shown by the blue solid line ($1/Kh = 1.22 \times 10^{-9} \text{ Pa}^{-1}$). Note that the sharp curve reversals near the right axis are caused by the aqueous phase drying up after $7 \times 10^6 \text{ s}$ (81 day)s.

3.4. Hg Condensation potential

The potential for Hg condensation from the supercritical CO_2 phase as Hg(l) (liquid elemental mercury) was investigated by applying simple dew-point calculations, using Hg vapor-pressure data from the literature (Appendix A). The potential for Hg(l) condensation from the supercritical CO_2 phase can be estimated in a manner analogous to the calculation of air relative humidity. The “relative humidity” of Hg in CO_2 , under ideal conditions, can be expressed by

$$RH = P_{\text{Hg}}/P_{\text{satHg}} = y_{\text{Hg}} P_{\text{tot}} / P_{\text{satHg}} \quad (1)$$

where RH stands for “relative humidity”, P_{Hg} is the partial pressure of Hg in the CO_2 , P_{satHg} is the saturation pressure of Hg, P_{tot} is the total system pressure, and y_{Hg} is the mole fraction of Hg in CO_2 . The concentration of Hg in the gas phase required for condensation to occur (i.e., the saturation concentration) can be estimated by setting RH equal to 1 in Eq. 1 (to express saturation), and solving for y_{Hg} given the Hg vapor pressure ($\sim 51 \times 10^{-5}$ bar at $106^\circ C$; Appendix A) and the total system pressure. These calculations for the total system pressure of 213 bar show that an Hg concentration ten times higher ($> 2,000$ ppbV) than the concentration considered here (~ 190 ppbV) would be required for condensation to occur (Figure 4).

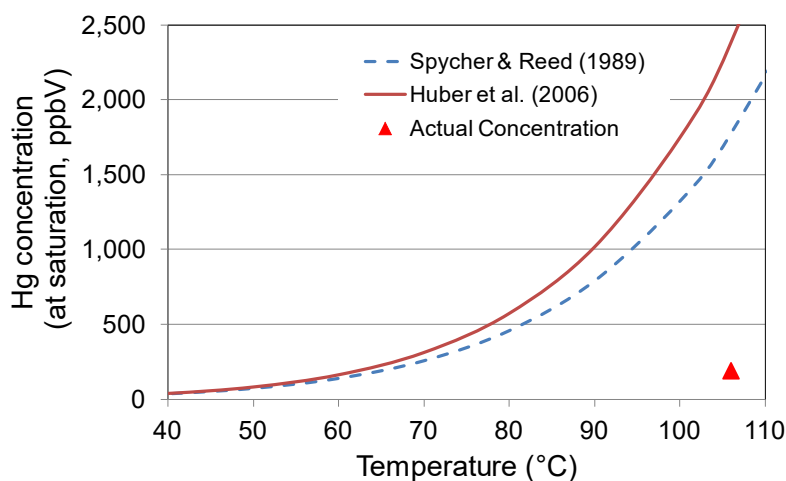


Figure 4. Hg saturation concentration at 213 bar (assuming ideal gas behavior; see Appendix A). The actual Hg concentration is significantly below the saturation level.

4 Conclusions

A series of simple analyses was carried out to assess the potential for Hg to impact injectivity through condensation ($Hg(g)$ to $Hg(l)$) or precipitation as cinnabar from a stream of Hg-containing supercritical CO_2 injected into a geologic formation at 213 bar and $106^\circ C$. The simple modeling

analyses suggest that the co-injection of small quantities of Hg (up to 190 ppbV) with CO₂ into a deep geologic formation are not expected to significantly impact injectivity through condensation or precipitation. The results suggest further that evaporative concentration of Hg will not occur because of the high volatility of Hg relative to H₂O. Concentrations of Hg higher than ~2,000 ppbV at the *P-T* conditions modeled could potentially lead to condensation of gaseous Hg to Hg(l), which could affect the relative permeability of the injected CO₂ stream. Detailed reactive geochemical modeling of Hg reactions in a generalized sandstone reservoir are presented in a companion paper [7].

We emphasize that the results presented here are general and theoretical in nature, relying on models, assumptions, and various data that have an inherent uncertainty and/or variability. As such, the results should be regarded as more qualitative than quantitative. Site-specific modeling and simulation will be needed to assess actual Hg deposition processes and impacts to injectivity in individual cases.

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Appendix A – Hg vapor pressure and Henry’s Law constant

Huber et al. (2006) [19] presented a correlation to compute the Hg vapor pressure as a function of temperature, which they fitted to a large number of experimental data points from the literature. The results of this correlation were compared to Hg vapor pressures computed from equilibrium constants (as a function of temperature) for the reaction $\text{Hg(v)} \leftrightarrow \text{Hg(l)}$, derived by Spycher and Reed (1989) [20] using published Gibbs free energy data. These compare reasonably well at low temperatures with Huber et al. (2006) [19], but deviate at higher temperatures (Figure A1), reflecting the variability in published experimental data.

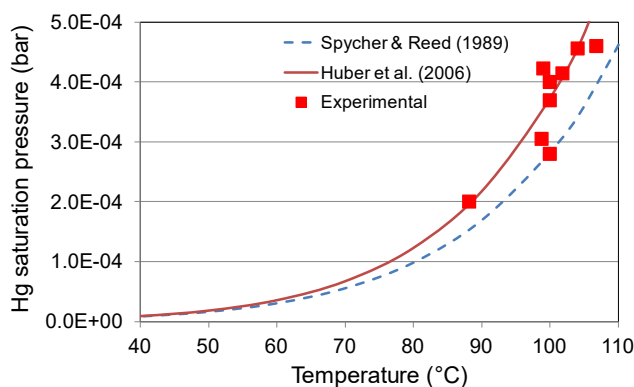


Figure A1. Hg saturation pressure as a function of temperature. Symbols show a few of the experimental data points compiled by Huber et al. (2006) in the range 90–110°C.

Henry’s Law constant (K_h) values for Hg were derived using data for equilibrium constants as a function of temperature for the reaction $\text{Hg(v)} \leftrightarrow \text{Hg(aq)}$ reported by [20] Spycher and Reed (1989). These data were not corrected for pressure, but the pressure effect on K_h was evaluated

by applying a Poynting factor, calculated using an average molar liquid Hg volume estimated from the molecular weight and density data shown in Table 1. This factor yields a decrease in Hg solubility by about 10% at 106°C and 215 bar (Figure A2). Therefore, neglecting the pressure effect tends to overestimate the solubility of Hg, which then would underestimate the potential for condensation. However, the gaseous Hg concentrations considered here are below the saturation limits by a factor of at least 10 (Figure 4), which is much greater than the 10% decrease in solubility caused by the pressure correction. Therefore this pressure effect does not affect the conclusions reached in this study. Original and pressure-corrected Kh values for Hg compare favorably to the Kh values reported in [12] and [21] (Figure A2). This figure also shows the saturation pressure curve of pure water from [22] for comparison.

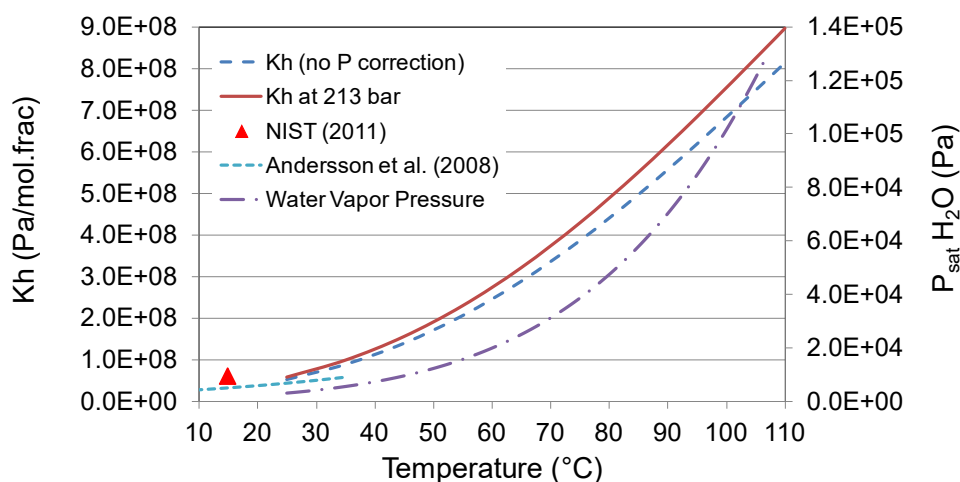


Figure A2. Estimated Henry's law constant for Hg (Kh) (left-hand side axis) and water vapor saturation pressure (right-hand side axis) versus temperature.