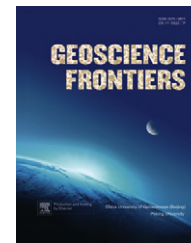


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## ORIGINAL ARTICLE

# The influence of temperature, pressure, salinity and capillary force on the formation of methane hydrate

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**Abstract** We present here a thermodynamic model for predicting multi-phase equilibrium of methane hydrate liquid and vapor phases under conditions of different temperature, pressure, salinity and pore sizes. The model is based on the 1959 van der Waals–Platteeuw model, angle-dependent *ab initio* intermolecular potentials, the DMW-92 equation of state and Pitzer theory. Comparison with all available experimental data shows that this model can accurately predict the effects of temperature, pressure, salinity and capillary radius on the formation and dissociation of methane hydrate. Online calculations of the *p*–*T* conditions for the formation of methane hydrate at given salinities and pore sizes of sediments are available on: [www.geochem-model.org/models.htm](http://www.geochem-model.org/models.htm).

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## 1. Introduction

Gas hydrate (or clathrate hydrate) is composed of cages bonded by water molecules and guest molecules encapsulated in the cages through van der Waals forces between the guest and water molecules. Only when the cage space and the size of guest molecules match each other can a stable clathrate hydrate be formed. At present, gas hydrate is discovered in oil and gas pipelines, marine sediments, permafrost (Sloan, 1998), comets and some foreign planets (Lunine and Stevenson, 1987). Presently known natural gas reserve stored in gas hydrate (mainly methane hydrate) is considered to be huge. 1 m<sup>3</sup> of methane hydrate can release 164 m<sup>3</sup> of methane gas. Thus, methane hydrate is considered to be highly compressed natural gas and an obvious potential clean energy source and a substitute for fossil fuels. In addition, release of methane gas from oceanic and permafrost hydrates into the atmosphere could have an important impact on global warming

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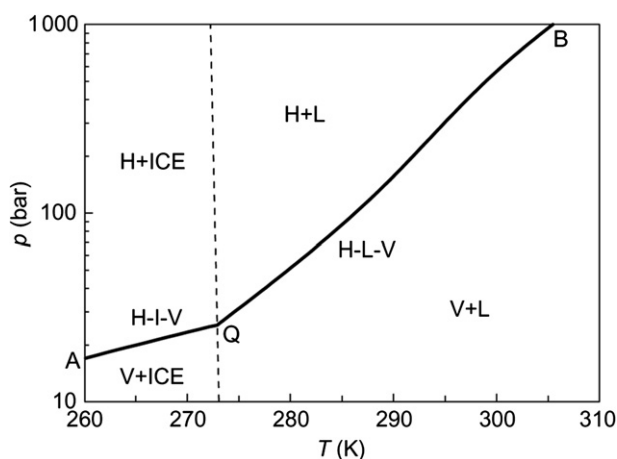
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(Dickens, 2003). Xu and Germanovich (2006) have proposed that gas hydrate melting can trigger submarine landslides.

Methane hydrate under high pressure and low temperature is stable. Fig. 1 is the phase diagram of the CH<sub>4</sub>–H<sub>2</sub>O binary system. Q is the quadruple invariant point, where methane hydrate (H), ice (I), water-rich liquids (L) and CH<sub>4</sub>-rich gas (V) coexist. Line AQB shows *p*–*T* conditions when H–I–V and H–L–V reach equilibrium and it also indicates the boundary on which methane hydrate is stable. Based on phase equilibrium conditions, the region on both sides of the line AQB is the two-phase region, where in the region above AQB methane hydrate is stable and below AQB methane-rich gas and liquid water or ice coexist.

Since van der Waals and Platteeuw (1959), a number of scholars have proposed thermodynamic models to calculate the equilibrium of gas hydrate. However, previous work is mostly on the gas hydrate three-phase equilibrium of bulk systems, including Parrish and Prausnitz (1972), Ng and Robinson (1976), Englezos and Bishnoi (1988), Tohidi et al. (1995), Chen and Guo (1998), Ballard and Sloan (2002), and Lee and Holder (2002). Clennell et al. (1999) and Henry et al. (1999) designed a thermodynamic model to predict the three-phase equilibrium of methane hydrate in marine sediments by using the Gibbs–Thomas equation calculating the capillary effect caused by small pores. Later, Klauda and Sandler (2001) proposed a model predicting the distribution of methane hydrate in marine sediments, but parameters in these models are not accurate enough (Llamedo et al., 2004). These models overestimate the inhibitory effect of capillary force on the H–L–V equilibrium.

Most published models predict the conditions of methane hydrate formation using the Kihara potential model, where parameters are derived from the experimental data of hydrate phase equilibrium and cage occupancy. While these models after assignment fit very well with experimental data, their predictive power is poor. For instance, models by Parrish and Prausnitz (1972) and the CSMHYD model by Sloan (1998) predicting the hydrate phase equilibrium only apply when pressure is lower than  $(400–500) \times 10^5$  Pa. In addition, the Kihara potential energy surface obtained by the experimental data doesn't agree with that of Tee et al. (1966) whose calculations used the second virial coefficient and viscosity data. Hence, the Kihara potential model cannot accurately describe the interactions between water molecules and guest molecules. Potential parameters obtained simply



**Figure 1** *p*–*T* phase diagram of the CH<sub>4</sub>–H<sub>2</sub>O binary system at low temperatures.

by fitting macroscopic system experimental data cannot accurately reflect the potentials of microscopic molecular interactions. Therefore, in this study we use the atomic site–site potentials model. This model takes into account the molecular interaction's dependence on the angle, and its parameters are calculated using the *ab initio* method instead of being derived from macroscopic experimental data.

The goal of this study is to build an accurate H–L–V three-phase equilibrium model to predict the effect of temperature, pressure, salinity and capillary force on the formation and dissociation of methane hydrate based on the van der Waals and Platteeuw (1959) model, *ab initio* intermolecular potentials, equation of state by Duan et al. (1992b) and Pitzer (1991) theory. Among the models, the basic hydrate model by van der Waals and Platteeuw (1959) is used to describe the chemical potential of the hydrate phase; the *ab initio* intermolecular potentials is used to calculate the Langmuir constant; and Duan et al.'s (1992b) equation of state is applied to calculate the fugacity of methane gas.

## 2. Thermodynamic model of hydrate

### 2.1. Methane hydrate formation temperature and pressure in pure water

When the methane hydrate phase is in equilibrium with the liquid water or ice phase, the chemical potentials of water in the former ( $\mu_w^H$ ) and in the later ( $\mu_w^L$ ) are the same, namely

$$\mu_w^H = \mu_w^L \quad (1)$$

If we make the chemical potential of empty hydrate lattice a reference state at the same temperature and pressure, then

$$\Delta\mu_w^H = \mu_w^{\beta} - \mu_w^H = \mu_w^{\beta} - \mu_w^L = \Delta\mu_w^L \quad (2)$$

Therefore, theoretical models that predict formation conditions of gas hydrate consist of two parts: one for gas hydrate phase and the other for pure water phase (liquid water or ice). The former is usually based on van der Waals and Platteeuw (1959) adsorption isotherm theory and the latter is based on Holder et al.'s (1980) expressions.

Based on classical statistic mechanics and Langmuir adsorption isotherm theory, van der Waals and Platteeuw (1959) derived the expression for the difference of chemical potentials between empty hydrate phase and filled hydrate phase:

$$\Delta\mu_w^H(T, p) = -RT \sum_{i=1}^2 v_i \ln \left( 1 - \sum_{j=1}^{N_C} \theta_{ij} \right) \quad (3)$$

where  $v_i$  is the number of *i*-type cages per water molecule (in sI-type hydrate,  $v_i = 1/23$  for small cages and  $v_i = 3/23$  for big cages);  $N_C$  is the number of components that can form hydrate;  $\theta_{ij}$  is the fractional occupancy of small cavities with *j*-type guest molecules whose expression is:

$$\theta_{ij} = \frac{C_{ij} f_j}{1 + \sum_{j=1}^{N_C} C_{ij} f_j} \quad (4)$$

where  $f_j$  is the fugacity of guest molecules in each phase;  $C_{ij}$  is the Langmuir constant of guest molecule *j* in *i*-type cages, which is usually calculated by intermolecular potential functions. The definition of  $C_{ij}$  is:

$$C_{ij} = \frac{1}{RT} \int \int \exp \left[ -\frac{W(r, \Omega)}{kT} \right] dr d\Omega \quad (5)$$

where  $r$  and  $\Omega$  represent position vector and orientation vector of the guest molecule in the cavity, respectively;  $W(r, \Omega)$  is the interaction potential between the guest molecule and water molecules surrounding it.

According to the above analysis, the key to predict the equilibrium conditions of methane hydrate is to calculate the Langmuir constants with accurate intermolecular potentials. The constants are related to temperature and reflect the interaction between gas and water molecules in cavities of hydrate lattice. However, most previous models obtain the Langmuir constant based on the Kihara potential model, whose parameters are regressed from experimental data of hydrate equilibrium. In the last two decades, the *ab initio* potentials of CH<sub>4</sub>–H<sub>2</sub>O system have been studied by Bolis et al. (1983), Latajka and Scheiner (1987), Novoa et al. (1991), Szczesniak et al. (1993) as well as Cao et al. (2001) and Klauda and Sandler (2002), but the results differ among different research groups.

After careful examination of their studies, we adopted the results of Szczesniak et al. (1993), because: (1) they used larger basis sets and employed more accurate QM calculations: the *ab initio* potential energy surfaces were calculated at MP2 level and corrected at MP4 level; (2) the basis set superposition error (BSSE) of interaction energies was included, which was neglected by many studies in the twentieth century, hence the results are supposed to be more accurate; and (3) more types of orientation were included than other studies. Although Cao et al. (2001) chose more basis sets and calculated the *ab initio* potentials of many CH<sub>4</sub>–H<sub>2</sub>O configurations, they had less types of orientation between CH<sub>4</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O than Szczesniak et al. (1993). We believe that enough orientation types are essential in describing the angle-dependency of intermolecular potential surfaces. In addition, Szczesniak et al.'s (1993) results are better than Klauda and Sandler's (2002) in QM calculation level and number of basis sets. Therefore, we chose *ab initio* potentials determined by Szczesniak et al. (1993) in this study.

If we derive the Langmuir constants directly from Equation (5), the results should confirm to an empiric formula. We found that Coulombic charge–charge interaction plays an important role in the interaction potentials of gas and water molecules, so we include an electrostatic term in the formula. At first, we tried to fit the *ab initio* potential with a spherical Lennard–Jones 12-6 or Kihara potential model, but these models cannot represent the *ab initio* potential surface adequately. Therefore, we chose the atomic site–site potential model, where the interaction sites are located on every atom in the CH<sub>4</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O molecules. For water molecules, the interaction site that is located on the bisector of H–O–H angle is also included. So the combined form of the Lennard–Jones Formula and Coulomb Law is used to fit the *ab initio* potential, which has the following form:

$$E(r_{ij}) = \sum_i \sum_j \left\{ 4\epsilon_{ij} \left[ \left( \frac{\sigma_{ij}}{r_{ij}} \right)^{12} - \left( \frac{\sigma_{ij}}{r_{ij}} \right)^6 \right] + \frac{q_i q_j}{r_{ij}} \right\} \quad (6)$$

where  $i, j$  summation run over all C and H centers in methane molecules and O, H, M centers in water molecules, respectively.

We use a nonlinear least square method to fit *ab initio* data from Szczesniak et al. (1993) to fit the CH<sub>4</sub>–H<sub>2</sub>O system, and Boltzmann's constant to weight the target function to make the difference between results of *ab initio* calculation and the prediction of formula (6) small. The target function is the same as

**Table 1** Atomic site–site Lennard-Jones potential parameters for the CH<sub>4</sub>–H<sub>2</sub>O system.

CH <sub>4</sub>	H <sub>2</sub> O	$\epsilon/k$ (K)	$\sigma$ (Å)
C	O	61.40	3.627
C	H	22.4	2.2
C	M	0.0	0.0
H	O	40.79	2.777
H	H	15.1	1.5
H	M	0.0	0.0

Klauda and Sandler (2002) and Anderson et al. (2004). The parameters in formula (6) are calculated at MP2 level and corrected at MP4 level. Experimental geometric parameters of CH<sub>4</sub> are:  $r(\text{CH}) = 1.09$  Å and angle between H–C–H is 109.4722°. The TIP4P model (Jorgensen et al., 1983) is used to describe the geometric structure of water:  $r(\text{OH}) = 0.9572$  Å; angle between H–O–H is 109.4722°. Another interaction site “M” located at the bisector of H–O–H is 0.15 Å away from the oxygen atom and on the hydrogen atoms' side. The electrostatic formula in TIP4P can result in better fitting, so we choose  $q_{\text{O}} = 0.0$ ,  $q_{\text{H}} = 0.52$ ,  $q_{\text{M}} = -1.04$ . In the CH<sub>4</sub>–H<sub>2</sub>O system, we use other parameters including  $\epsilon$ ,  $\sigma$ , etc., and the charge of C and H atoms in some CH<sub>4</sub> molecules to do nonlinear fitting of the *ab initio* potential data. These parameters are listed in Tables 1 and 2. In addition, the atom site–site model used in this study can represent the results of Szczesniak et al. (1993) adequately according to Fig. 2.

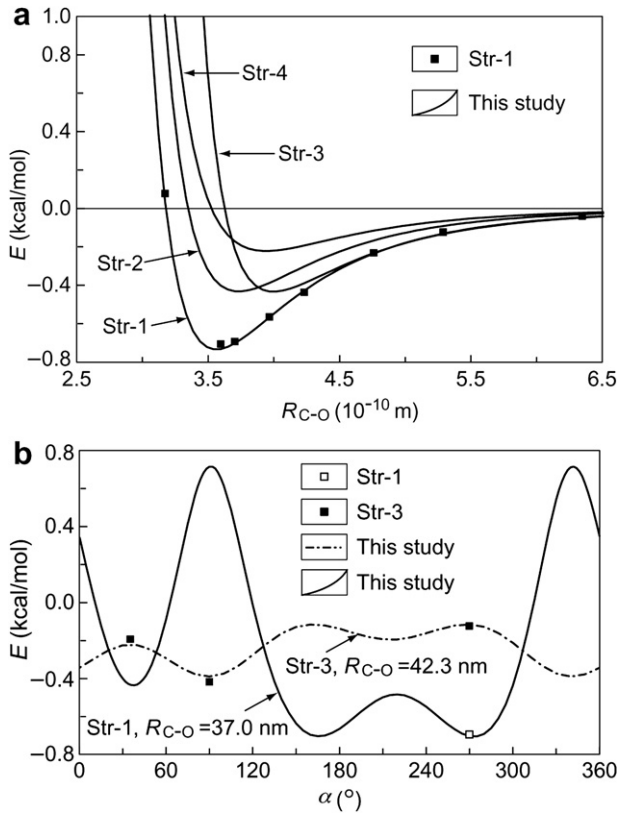
Another important point in our model is to calculate fugacities of gas components with precise thermodynamic model. In H–L–V equilibrium, fugacities of methane in hydrate, liquid and gas are the same, namely:

$$f_{\text{CH}_4}^{\text{H}} = f_{\text{CH}_4}^{\text{L}} = f_{\text{CH}_4}^{\text{V}} \quad (7)$$

There are, at present, many equations of state predicting thermodynamic properties of pure gas or gas mixtures. In this study, we use the equation of state of Duan et al. (1992b) to calculate fugacities of methane in gas. While many equations of state are capable of calculating fugacity in pure methane system, the DMW-92 equation of state is the most precise in predicting  $p$ – $V$ – $T$  properties of methane under high pressure (larger than 100 MPa). Fig. 3 is a comparison of Setzmann and Wagner's (1991) equation of state with those of C–P (Chueh and Prausnitz, 1967), S–RK (Soave, 1972), P–R (Peng and Robinson, 1976), and DMW-92 (Duan et al., 1992b) on their predictions of methane molar volume along the methane hydrate stable curve under temperatures larger than 270 K. Since Setzmann and Wagner's equation of state can represent the molar volume of the methane in a wide range of temperatures and pressures with an uncertainty less than 0.1%, the equation

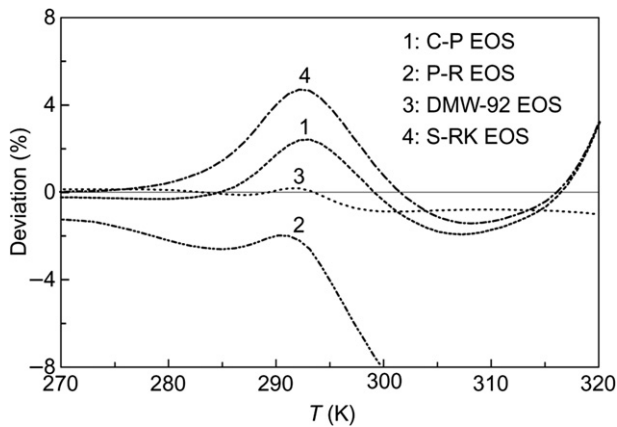
**Table 2** Partial charges of CH<sub>4</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O molecule.

Atom	$q$
C <sub>CH<sub>4</sub></sub>	–0.48
H <sub>CH<sub>4</sub></sub>	0.12
O <sub>H<sub>2</sub>O</sub>	0.00
H <sub>H<sub>2</sub>O</sub>	0.52
M <sub>H<sub>2</sub>O</sub>	–1.04



**Figure 2** The angle dependence of the potential energy surface of  $\text{CH}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ : (a) The variation of the intermolecular potential with distance and (b) the variation of the intermolecular potential with angle  $\alpha$  (angle between the bond C–H1 and  $z$ -axis in  $yz$ -plane). Solid squares and open squares represent the *ab initio* data obtained by Szczesniak et al. (1993) at MP2 level; solid lines and dotted line are the atomic site–site potential energy predicted for different orientations.

becomes standard to testing the accuracy of the above equations. From Fig. 3, we can conclude that DMW-92 (Duan et al., 1992b) equation of state is the most precise under high pressure with an average error less than 1%. Because the goal of this study is to



**Figure 3** The average deviation of different equations of state from the equation Setzmann and Wagner (1991). The source of experimental data: 1. Chueh and Prausnitz (1967); 2. Peng and Robinson (1976); 3. Lunine and Stevenson (1987); 4. Soave (1972).

predict the equilibrium of methane hydrate under low temperature and high pressure, the DWM-92 (Duan et al., 1992b) equation of state is used to calculate the fugacity of methane.

According to Holder et al. (1980), the difference of chemical potentials between empty hydrate and water or ice is:

$$\frac{\Delta\mu_w^L(T,p)}{RT} = \frac{\Delta\mu_w^0(T_0,0)}{RT_0} - \int_{T_0}^T \left( \frac{\Delta h_w^{\beta-L}}{RT^2} \right) dT + \int_0^p \left( \frac{\Delta V_w^{\beta-L}}{RT} \right) dp - \ln a_w \quad (8)$$

where  $\Delta\mu_w^0(T_0,0)$  is the difference of chemical potentials between empty hydrate and ice when  $T = 273.15$  K,  $p = 0$  Pa;  $\Delta h_w^{\beta-L}$  and  $\Delta V_w^{\beta-L}$  is the difference of molar enthalpy and the difference of molar volume, respectively, between empty hydrate lattice and liquid water;  $a_w$  is the activity of water.

$\Delta h_w^\pi$ , the enthalpy change, is:

$$\Delta h_w^\pi = \Delta h_w^0(T_0) + \int_{T_0}^T \Delta C_p^\pi dT \quad (9)$$

$\Delta C_p^\pi$ , the difference of heat capacity between empty hydrate and water or ice, is:

$$\Delta C_p^\pi = \Delta C_p^0(T_0) + b(T - T_0) \quad (10)$$

In formulas (9) and (10),  $\Delta h_w^0$  and  $\Delta C_p^0$  are the differences of molar enthalpy and molar heat capacity, respectively, between empty hydrate lattice and ice, where  $b$  is the temperature coefficient of heat capacity. The values of  $\Delta h_w^0$  and  $\Delta C_p^0$  come from the experimental data of methane hydrate three-phase equilibrium in a  $\text{CH}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$  system (Sun and Duan, 2005); the value of  $\Delta C_p$  is taken from Parrish and Prausnitz (1972). Table 3 shows the values of  $\Delta\mu_w^0$ ,  $\Delta h_w^0$  and  $\Delta C_p^0$  for sI hydrate. The molar volume of liquid water,  $V_w^\beta$ , can be calculated from Sun et al.'s (2003) equation of state, which is given as the following formula:

$$V_w^\beta(T,p) = (11.820 + 2.217 \times 10^{-5}T + 2.242 \times 10^{-6}T^2) \frac{10^{-30}N_A}{N_w^\beta} \times \exp \left[ -3.5 \times 10^{-4}(p - 0.1) + 7.07 \times 10^{-6}(p - 0.1)^{1.5} \right] \quad (11)$$

where  $N_A$  is the Avogadro constant and  $N_w^\beta$  is the number of water molecules in every hydrate crystal. For sI hydrate,  $N_w^\beta = 46$ . The unit of pressure and temperature is MPa and K, respectively.

To calculate the pressure of H–L–V equilibrium under a given temperature, we assume that the initial value of pressure is  $p_1$  and then  $C_{ij}$ ,  $f_{\text{CH}_4}^V$ ,  $\Delta h_w^{\beta-L}$ ,  $\Delta V_w^{\beta-L}$  and  $a_w$  are calculated. The above values are substituted in Equations (3) and (8) to calculate  $\Delta\mu_w^H$  and  $\Delta\mu_w^L$ . Finally we compare  $\Delta\mu_w^H$  and  $\Delta\mu_w^L$ . If the difference between them is small enough (e.g.  $1 \times 10^{-2}$ ),  $p_1$  is the equilibrium pressure when the temperature is  $T$ ; otherwise, we change the value of  $p_1$  and repeat until the suitable pressure is found. In the

**Table 3** Thermodynamic reference properties for sI-type hydrate ( $T_0 = 273.15$  K).

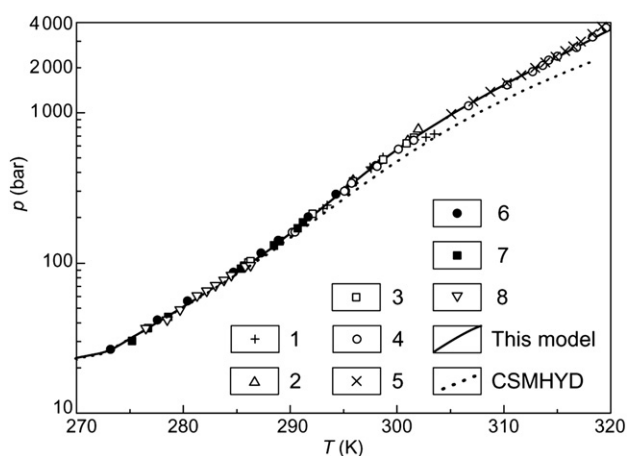
$\Delta\mu_w^0$ (J/mol)	1202
$\Delta h_w^0$ (J/mol)	1300
$\Delta h_w^{\alpha-L}$ (J/mol)	−6009.5
$\Delta C_p^{\beta-L}$ (J/(mol·K))	$−38.12 + 0.141 \times (T - T_0)$
$\Delta C_p^{\beta-\alpha}$ (J/(mol·K))	$0.565 + 0.002 \times (T - T_0)$

course of above calculations, the Newton iteration method or bisection method is used. When the difference between  $\Delta\mu_w^H$  and  $\Delta\mu_w^L$  is smaller than  $1 \times 10^{-2}$ , we usually think of the assumed pressure as the equilibrium pressure with an error less than 0.1% (Fig. 4). According to Fig. 4, the prediction accuracy of this model is better than that of the CSMHYD model, whose parameters are from the regression of experimental data.

## 2.2. Influence of electrolyte

While an electrolyte cannot change the chemical potential of water in the hydrate phase because it cannot get into the hydrate lattice of, it does influence the H–L–V equilibrium of methane hydrate by changing the activity of water and methane in solutions. Zatsepina and Buffett (1998) calculated the activity coefficients of water and methane in solutions with the Aasberg-Peterson model (1991). However, the Aasberg-Peterson model underestimates the influence of salting-out effect on methane solubility under gas–liquid equilibrium (e.g. underestimating methane activity coefficient in electrolyte solutions), and overestimates the activity coefficient of water under low temperature ( $T < 303$  K). The reason of the inaccuracy of the above model is that its parameters of water–salt and gas–salt reactions come from high temperature experimental data (the pressure of gas phase of the salt solution is obtained under 373 K, and the solubility of gas is obtained under 323 K). According to experimental data, the activity coefficient of dissolved methane,  $\gamma_{CH_4}$ , decreases as the temperature increases from 273 K to 373 K. For instance, the  $\gamma_{CH_4}$  of 1 mol solution of NaCl is 1.40 under 273 K and is 1.26 under 323 K. The methane solubility model of Duan et al. (1992a) used by Clennell et al. (1999) and Henry et al. (1999) underestimates the activity coefficient of methane in electrolyte solutions under temperatures less than 303 K, but Duan and Mao (2006) have corrected this error recently.

We use the Pitzer (1991) model to calculate the activity coefficient of water and predict the temperature and pressure of H–L–V equilibrium in different electrolyte solutions (Duan and Sun, 2006). The parameters in this model are different as the



**Figure 4** Prediction of equilibrium pressure of  $CH_4$  hydrate in the  $CH_4$ – $H_2O$  system. The source of experimental data: 1. Jager and Sloan (2001); 2. Kobayashi and Katz (1949); 3. McLeod and Campbell (1961); 4. Marshall et al. (1964); 5. Nakano et al. (1999); 6. Jhaveri and Robinson (1965); 7. Verma (1974); 8. Yang et al. (2001). CSMHYD after Sloan (1998).

temperature changes, and we use this method to calculate the  $a_w$  of seawater in this study.

This paper omits the formula to calculate  $a_w$  based on the Pitzer model for convenience. The following is the equation of the relationship between  $a_w$  and  $\phi$ , the osmotic coefficient:

$$\ln a_w = -\frac{M_w}{1000} \left( \sum_i m_i \right) \phi \quad (12)$$

where  $M_w$  is molecular weight of water and  $m$  is the amount of substance of solute particle;  $i$  represents the sum of all solutes (including cations, anions and uncharged particles). The equation about  $\phi$  proposed by Pitzer and Silvester (1976) and modified by Harvie et al. (1984) and Felmy and Weare (1986) is:

$$\begin{aligned} \left( \sum_i m_i \right) (\phi - 1) = & -\frac{2A^\phi I^{1.5}}{1 + 1.2I^{0.5}} + \sum_c \sum_a m_c m_a (B_{ca}^\phi + ZC_{ca}) \\ & + 2 \sum_{c < c'} \sum_a m_c m_{c'} \left( \Phi_{cc'}^\phi + \sum_a m_a \phi_{cc'a} \right) \\ & + 2 \sum_{a < a'} \sum_n m_n m_{a'} \left( \Phi_{aa'}^\phi + \sum_n m_n \phi_{aa'n} \right) \\ & + 2 \sum_n \sum_c \sum_a m_n m_c m_a \lambda_{nc} + 2 \sum_n \sum_a m_n m_a \lambda_{na} \\ & + 2 \sum_n \sum_c \sum_a m_n m_c m_a \zeta_{nca} \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

where  $I$  is the ionic strength;  $Z$  is the sum of the product of amount of substance and charges of particles, namely  $Z = \sum m_i |z_i|$ ; the subscripts  $c$ ,  $a$ , and  $n$  refer to cations, anions, and uncharged particles. The summation index  $c$  represents the sum of all cations; the double summation index  $c < c'$  represents the sum of all recognizable distinct cations. The same apply to anions.  $A^\phi$  is one-third of the Debye-Huckel limiting slope and is 0.39 at 25 °C. The values of  $B$ ,  $\Phi$  and  $\lambda$  represent measurable combinations of the second virial coefficients. The values of  $C$  and  $\psi$  represent measurable combinations of the third virial coefficients.

Pitzer thought that the virial coefficients  $B_{cn}$  and  $\psi_{ijk}$  are the function of ionic strength;  $C_{ca}$  and  $\psi_{ijk}$  have nothing to do with ionic strength. Pitzer and Mayorga (1973, 1974), Pitzer and Kim (1974), and Pitzer (1975) calculate most of the electrolyte parameters at 25 °C (e.g. the interaction parameters of water and electrolyte, including values of  $B$ ,  $C$ ,  $\phi$ , and  $\psi$ ). The hydrate model by Englezos and Bishnoi (1988) and Dubessy et al. (1992) is used to predict the equilibrium of hydrate in electrolyte solutions. This model is based on Pitzer–Mayorga model, whose electrolyte parameters are calculated at 25 °C. In activity coefficient models of Chen and Evans (1986), Zuo and Guo (1991), and Aasberg-Petersen et al. (1991) also calculate the electrolyte parameters at 25 °C or higher. However, we cannot overlook the dependency of activity coefficients on temperature in water–salt systems. Then the parameters at 25 °C cannot predict the permeability and activity coefficients at other temperatures. Electrolyte parameters of the studies of Na–K–Ca–Cl– $SO_4$ – $H_2O$  by Pabalan and Pitzer (1987), Moller (1988), and Greenberg and Moller (1989) are between 0 and 25 °C, or even higher. However, the parameters of Spencer et al. (1990) range from –55 to 25 °C. We chose their parameter values because the equilibrium of gas hydrate in electrolyte solutions is at relatively low temperatures.

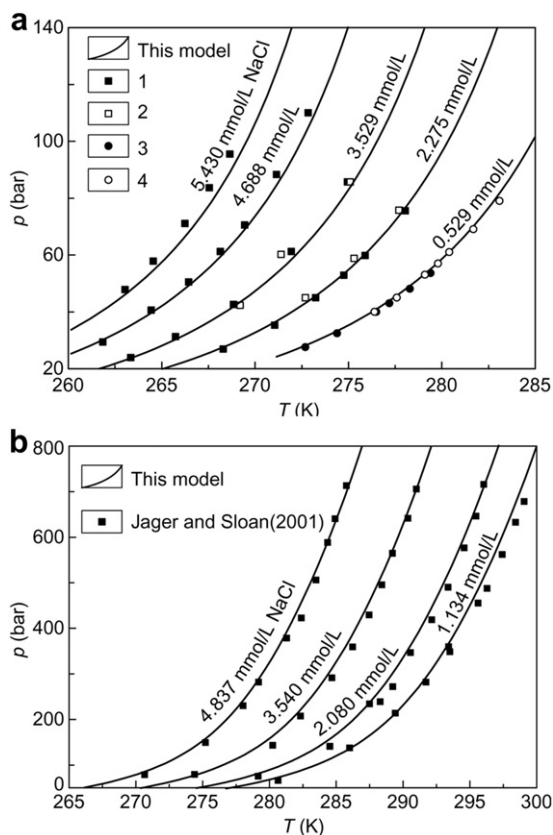
In certain temperatures, we should consider the influence of pressures on activity coefficients in theoretical calculations. However, Monnin (1990) proposed that the influence is quite small and can be ignored. Based on the studies of Pitzer et al.

(1984), the parameters depend on pressure and temperature in NaCl solutions is in accordance with Monnin's (1990) conclusion. Therefore, we ignore the influence of pressures on activity coefficients of water.

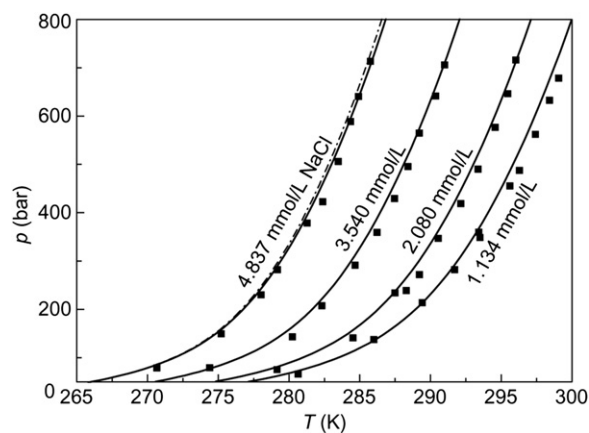
The second virial coefficient  $\lambda_{mi}$  and the third virial coefficient  $\xi_{nij}$  represent the interaction of ions and neutrals.  $\lambda_{\text{CH}_4-i}$  and  $\xi_{\text{CH}_4-ij}$  have been calculated by the gas solubility model of Duan et al. (1992a) and Duan and Sun (2003) who evaluated  $\lambda_{\text{CH}_4-\text{Na}}$  and  $\lambda_{\text{CH}_4-\text{Na}-\text{Cl}}$  based on the solubility of  $\text{CH}_4$  in NaCl solutions.  $\lambda_{\text{CH}_4-\text{K}}$  is approximately equal to  $\lambda_{\text{CH}_4-\text{Na}}$ ; and  $\lambda_{\text{CH}_4-\text{Ca}}$  is about twice the value of  $\lambda_{\text{CH}_4-\text{Na}}$ . Assume that all  $\xi_{\text{CH}_4-ij}$  is equal to  $\xi_{\text{CH}_4-\text{Na}-\text{Cl}}$ ,  $\lambda_{\text{CH}_4-\text{Na}}$  is a function of pressure and temperature, and  $\xi_{\text{CH}_4-\text{Na}-\text{Cl}}$  is the constant with the value of  $-6.2394380 \times 10^{-3}$ . Following is the formula:

$$\lambda_{\text{CH}_4-\text{Na}} = 0.099223079 + 2.5790681 \times 10^{-5}T + 0.018345140p/T - 8.0719672 \times 10^{-6}p^2/T \quad (14)$$

All parameters of the above formula have been obtained from previous studies and it is not necessary to fit the gas–hydrate equilibrium data in solutions with corrected parameters. Figs. 5–7 compare the experimental data and the model. Though this model does not fit experimental data, we can tell from the figure that it represents the experimental results precisely.



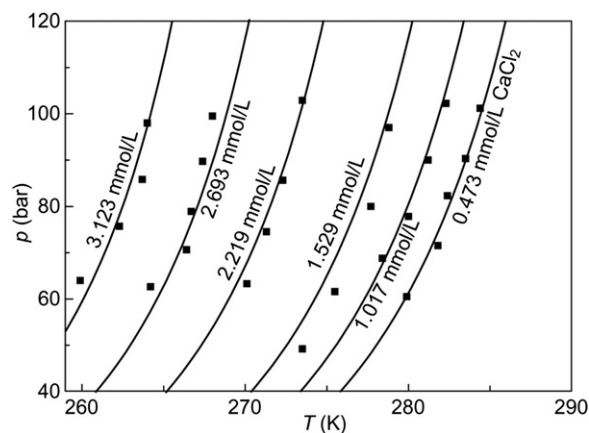
**Figure 5** Prediction of the thermodynamic stability of  $\text{CH}_4$  hydrate in  $\text{CH}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O-NaCl}$  system. (a) At pressures below 100 bar. The sources of the experimental data are: 1. De Roo et al. (1983); 2. Kharrat and Dalmazzone (2003); 3. Dholabhai et al. (1991); 4. Maekawa (2001). (b) At pressures greater than 100 bar. The source of the experimental data is: Jager and Sloan (2001).



**Figure 6** Prediction of the phase boundaries of  $\text{CH}_4$  hydrate in  $\text{CH}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O-NaCl}$  system from the electrolyte parameters of Pitzer et al. (1984) for NaCl. The solid line represents the prediction by ignoring the effect of pressure on activity of water while the dashed line represents the prediction by including this effect.

### 2.3. Influence of porous medium

Methane hydrate of natural formation occurs within the pore spaces of sediments. Evidence shows that the pore sizes (Ruppel, 1997; Clennell et al., 1999), surface structure and mineral composition of the medium may influence the three-phase equilibrium conditions of gas hydrate. Recent workers have done many experiments to determine the three-phase equilibrium conditions of gas hydrate in porous medium (Handa and Stupin, 1992; Uchida et al., 1999, 2002; Seshadri et al., 2001; Seo et al., 2002; Smith et al., 2002a,b; Zhang et al., 2002; Seo and Lee, 2003; Anderson et al., 2003b; Aladko et al., 2004). These studies indicate that the capillary force can inhibit the formation of gas hydrate in small pores. However, the influence of the surface structure and the mineral composition of the medium on the formation of gas hydrate in previous studies are controversial. Recent experimental results of Riesterberg et al. (2003) and Uchida et al. (2004) show that they have minor influences on the methane hydrate equilibrium. Therefore, in this study, we will



**Figure 7** Prediction of the phase boundaries of  $\text{CH}_4$  hydrate in the  $\text{CH}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O-CaCl}_2$  system. The experimental data are from Kharrat and Dalmazzone (2003).

consider the factor of pore size and ignore factors of surface structure and mineral composition.

Based on the Gibbs–Thomas equation, Clennell et al. (1999) and Henry et al. (1999) proposed a formula that calculates the chemical difference of water caused by capillary forces. Some models (Clarke et al., 1999; Wilder et al., 2001; Klauda and Sandler, 2001, 2003; Seo et al., 2002) have referred to this formula. However, the formula is only suitable for chemical difference of water during the formation process. Subsequently, Dicharry et al. (2005) proposed a formula of the decomposition of hydrate in porous medium:

$$\Delta\mu_w^L(\text{pore}) = \Delta\mu_w^L(\text{bulk}) + V^\beta \frac{F\sigma_{HW}\cos\alpha}{r} \quad (15)$$

where  $V^\beta$  is the molar volume of water in the lattice of hydrate;  $F$  is the shape factor of the solid–liquid surface;  $\alpha$  is the contact angle between solid and pore walls;  $r$  is the pore radius;  $\sigma_{HW}$  is the surface energy between the hydrate and liquid.

For Equation (15), we assume the following:

- (1) The hydrate is in bulk state in the pores. Seo et al. (2002) found that the structure of CH<sub>4</sub> hydrate in silica gel pores (6.0 nm) is identical with those of bulk CH<sub>4</sub> hydrate through NMR spectroscopy;
- (2) Liquid water is a continuous phase, because silica surface is hydrophilic and pores contain much more water than gas. In contrast, water on the pore walls is non-infiltrated with  $\cos\alpha = 1$ . There is a layer of hydration (unfrozen water) (Handa and Stupin, 1992) whose thickness is 0.4 nm (Schreiber et al., 2001);
- (3) There are boundaries between hydrate and water but no boundaries between hydrate and gas. Hydrate in pores is in contact with the continuous water phase. Because the surface energy between methane and liquid water is larger than that between hydrate and water, methane gas first fills the big pores forming the bulk phase. Therefore, we ignore the influence of capillary force on the chemical potential of methane in equilibrium in this study;
- (4) The shape of pores and hydrate in pores is taken as cylindrical. Though there may be pores of complex shapes, the cylinder model fits well with the data of H–L–V equilibrium in synthetic porous medium and ice–liquid water equilibrium. Therefore, we think that cylinder model represents the shape of hydrate in pores of sediment substrate.

Strictly speaking, the  $r$  in Equation (15) denotes the radius of cylindrical hydrate and is equal to the pore radius minus the thickness of the hydration layer. The definition is the same in this study. In contrast, whereas previous models realized the presence of the hydrate layer, the  $r$  in these models is only the pore radius.  $F$  and  $\sigma_{HW}$  are quite important in Equation (15). Previous studies also have different choices on the values of these two parameters. The shape factor of boundaries is equal to 1 or 2 for cylindrical or spherical hydrate, respectively. Anderson et al. (2003b) and Llamedo et al. (2004) pointed out that the cylindrical shape corresponds to the decomposition state of hydrate and the spherical shape corresponds to the formation state of hydrate. For the delay of hydrate growth, the  $p$ – $T$  condition for hydrate decomposition can represent the equilibrium condition more precisely. Therefore, we assume  $F = 1$ . However, most previous models mistakenly assume  $F = 2$  and, thus, overestimate the inhibition effect of the capillary force on the H–L–V equilibrium.

There are no methods for measuring the surface energy of hydrate–liquid water up until now. Clennell et al. (1999) and Henry et al. (1999) postulated that the surface energy between hydrate and water ( $\sigma_{HW}$ ) is equal to that between ice and water. Zhang et al. (2002) proved the above postulate through measuring H–L–V three-phase equilibrium in porous medium. The methods in a number of papers demonstrate that  $\sigma_{HW}$  is in the range of 25–33 mJ/m<sup>3</sup> (Hillig, 1998; Anderson et al., 2003a) at 273.15 K. The ice–water surface energy in this model comes from recent research ( $\sigma_{IW}$  31.7 mJ/m<sup>3</sup>) (Hillig, 1998), and this value is used to represent the hydrate–water surface energy. Uchida et al. (2002) calculated the methane hydrate–water surface energy based on hydrate equilibrium experimental data in porous medium. Nevertheless, they assumed the shape factor is 2 and got the result of  $(17 \pm 3)$  mJ/m<sup>3</sup>, about half of the ice–water surface energy. Anderson et al. (2003b) assumed the shape factor is 1 and got the result of  $(32 \pm 2)$  mJ/m<sup>3</sup>, which is in accord with the ice–water surface energy.

$\sigma_{IW}$  may change with temperature, pore size (or curvature), or salinity of the solution changes. Tolman (1949) proposed the following equation that describes the influence of curvature on the surface energy:

$$\sigma = \sigma^\infty / \left(1 + \frac{2\delta}{r}\right) \quad (16)$$

where  $\sigma^\infty$  is the surface energy of plane interfaces and  $\delta$  is the Tolman length, namely the interface thickness.

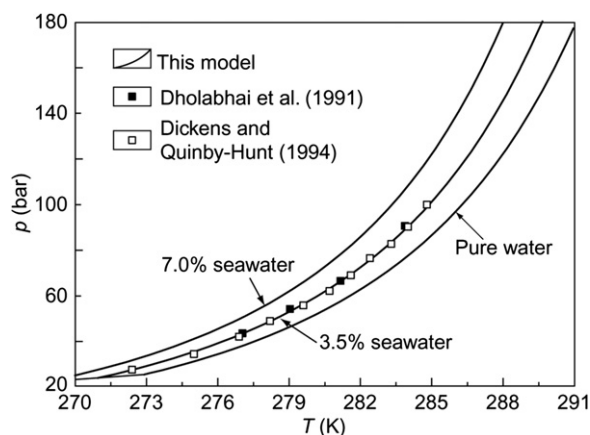
Bogdan (1997) thought the  $\delta$  of ice–liquid water is 0.4186 nm at 273.15 K. The value is used in this study to calculate the influence of curvature on  $\sigma_{HW}$  ( $\sigma_{HW}^\infty = 31.7$  mJ/m<sup>3</sup>). For the process of hydrate decomposition, hydrate–water interface is cylindrical but because the curvature  $2/r$  in Equation (16) refers to as spherical interface, we substitute  $1/r$  for  $2/r$ .

Some research has shown that  $\sigma_{IW}$  decreases as the temperature decreases when it is lower than 273.15 K. However, we cannot determine whether the temperature-related parameters can extend to temperatures higher than 273.15 K or higher pressures. Jones (1973) and Hardy and Coriell (1973) measured the ice–NaCl surface energy, but their measurements had large uncertainties. Therefore, we ignored the  $\sigma_{HW}$  dependence on temperature and salinity.

### 3. Discussion

Sun and Duan (2005) and Duan and Sun (2006) built the model that accurately predicts the methane hydrate multi-phase equilibrium in water and in various electrolyte solutions. Fig. 8 is the comparison of this model's prediction with experimental data for methane hydrate three-phase equilibrium in seawater (Dholabhai et al., 1991; Dickens and Quinby-Hunt, 1994). The “seawater” in this study refers to standard seawater. Molality of major ions in 35 wt.% seawater is listed in Table 4, which is cited from Riley and Skirrow (1975) and Dickens and Quinby-Hunt (1997). The experimental pressure of methane hydrate H–L–V equilibrium in seawater is under  $100 \times 10^5$  Pa, but we believe that our model can predict experiments with much higher pressures because our non-seawater model applies under pressures from  $100 \times 10^5$  Pa as well as  $2000 \times 10^5$  Pa.

Every curve in Fig. 9 represents  $p$ – $T$  conditions when methane hydrate in pores of the same size reaches three-phase equilibrium. From the figure we know that the prediction of this model accords

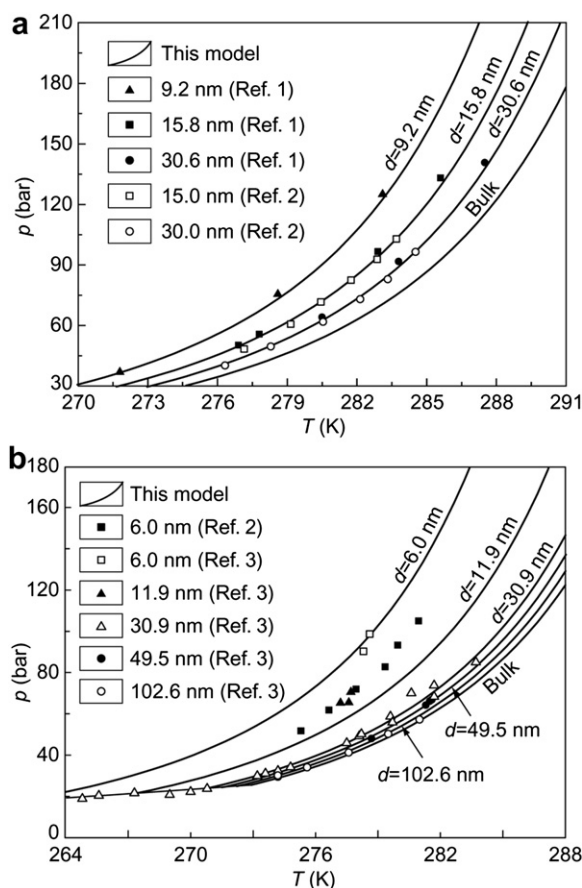


**Figure 8** The prediction of this model for three-phase (H–L–V) equilibrium of methane hydrate in seawater.

with all of Anderson et al.'s (2003a) data, and most of the data of Uchida et al. (2002) and Seo et al. (2002). Because Uchida et al. (2002) and Seo et al. (2002) employed obviously different methods in measuring pores with diameter of 6.0 nm, their data differ. The prediction of dissociation pressures of methane hydrate in this present model is in accord with the former (Uchida et al., 2002), but a little larger than the latter (Seo et al., 2002).

In most cases, porous medium has no unified pore size, but the distribution of pore sizes has certain patterns. If the distribution pattern of pore sizes is introduced into this model without modifications of the model itself, this model still applies. The experimental data of Handa and Stupin (1992) and Smith et al. (2002a) show the constant volume  $p$ – $T$  conditions of hydrate dissociation in porous medium considering the pore size distribution. Their data are not compared with those of this model because of the absence of specific information on pore size distribution. The study of Dicharry et al. (2005) shows that the constant volume  $p$ – $T$  conditions of hydrate dissociation can be simulated by the Gibbs–Thomson equation and the known porous medium's cumulative volume.

Fig. 9 is the prediction of this model on methane hydrate three-phase equilibrium for different sizes of cylindrical pores. As Fig. 9 illustrates, the capillary force can inhibit the formation of methane hydrate. As pore size decreases, the dissociation temperature of



**Figure 9** The prediction of capillary force on H–L–V equilibrium of methane hydrate in the  $\text{CH}_4$ – $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  system. The experimental data are from Ref. 1: Anderson et al. (2003a), Ref. 2: Seo et al. (2002), Ref. 3: Uchida et al. (2002).

methane hydrate also decreases. The inhibitory effect of cylindrical pores with diameter of 32 nm is the same as that of standard seawater in 283 K.

#### 4. Conclusion

In considering the influence of temperature, pressure, salinity and capillary force on the hydrate equilibrium, this paper presents an accurate thermodynamic model in predicting the methane hydrate stability in seawater. The model employs van der Waals and Platteeuw (1959) hydrate model and the angle-dependent *ab initio* intermolecular potentials to calculate the chemical potential of hydrate. The influence of capillary force in porous media on the H–L–V equilibrium can be determined by the Gibbs–Thomson equation into which the correct hydrate–water contact parameters are substituted. According to the latest research, the influences of medium surface structure and mineral composition on equilibrium conditions of gas hydrate are very small, so they are ignored in this study. The Pitzer model is used in this model where the calculation of water and methane activity coefficient is involved in the methane–seawater system.

By comparing the model predictions and experimental data, we can see that our model can accurately predict the multi-phase equilibrium conditions of methane hydrate in seawater and porous media. Salt dissolved in seawater and the capillary force in small

**Table 4** The molality (mol/kg  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ) of major ions in 35 wt.% seawater, in 30 wt.% oxic seawater and 30 wt.% euxinic seawater.

Ion type	35 wt.% seawater <sup>a</sup>	30 wt.% oxic seawater <sup>b</sup>	30 wt.% euxinic seawater <sup>b</sup>
$\text{Na}^+$	0.48559	0.41596	0.44847
$\text{K}^+$	0.01058	0.00880	0.00768
$\text{Ca}^+$	0.01065	0.00918	0.00606
$\text{Mg}^+$	0.05517	0.04732	0.02808
$\text{Cl}^-$	0.56541	0.48492	0.51210
$\text{SO}_4^{2-}$	0.02926	0.02507	0
$\text{HCO}_3^-$	0.00241	0.00207	0.01515
$\text{Br}^-$	0.00087	0.00073	0.00323
$\text{NH}_4^+$	0	0	0.00606

<sup>a</sup> Riley and Skirrow (1975).

<sup>b</sup> Dickens and Quinby-Hunt (1997).



pores will increase the pressure required for the formation of methane hydrate under certain temperatures.

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