

Ref.: MC/COP4/2021/27

30 de abril de 2021

Asunto: Propuesta de la Unión Europea para enmendar las partes I y II del anexo A y la parte I del anexo B del Convenio de Minamata sobre el Mercurio, para su examen por la Conferencia de las Partes en su cuarta reunión

Estimado Señor/Distinguida Señora:

La presente carta tiene por objeto comunicar a las Partes y los Signatarios del Convenio de Minamata sobre el Mercurio el texto de las enmiendas de los anexos A y B del Convenio propuestas por la Unión Europea.

Respecto de la parte I del anexo A, se propone incluir cinco nuevas entradas.

Respecto de la parte II del anexo A, se propone incluir un texto adicional.

Respecto de la parte I del anexo B, se propone incluir una entrada.

La propuesta se someterá al examen de la Conferencia de las Partes en su cuarta reunión, la cual está previsto que se celebre en dos partes: una serie de sesiones en línea del 1 al 5 de noviembre de 2021 y la reanudación de la serie de sesiones presenciales en el primer trimestre de 2022 en Bali (Indonesia). La presente carta se envía de conformidad con el párrafo 2 del artículo 26 del Convenio, en el que se establece que la Secretaría ha de comunicar el texto de toda propuesta de enmienda a las Partes al menos seis meses antes de la reunión en la que se proponga su aprobación. La propuesta se examinará en la reanudación de la serie de sesiones presenciales en el primer trimestre de 2022.

En el anexo I de la presente carta se reproduce la propuesta de la Unión Europea para enmendar los anexos A y B del Convenio, mientras que en el anexo II figura el texto de una nota explicativa sobre la propuesta de enmienda de conformidad con el párrafo 7 del artículo 4 y el párrafo 9 del artículo 5.

Para facilitar el debate en la cuarta reunión de la Conferencia de las Partes, las Partes tal vez desearán transmitir observaciones o preguntas sobre la propuesta de enmienda al representante de la Unión Europea y la Secretaría. Sírvase enviar sus observaciones por correo electrónico a:

Secretaría del Convenio de Minamata sobre el Mercurio

Correo electrónico: mea-minamatasecretariat@un.org

y

Sra. Jenny Green

Responsable de Políticas

Dirección General de Medio Ambiente

C4 Emisiones industriales y Seguridad

Comisión Europea

Correo electrónico: Jenny-Johanna.GREEN@ec.europa.eu

Si necesitase más información o aclaraciones, no dude en ponerse en contacto con la Secretaría.



Aprovecho la oportunidad para reiterar las seguridades de mi consideración más distinguida,

Monika Stankiewicz
Secretaria Ejecutiva

Para: Coordinadores nacionales del Convenio de Minamata sobre el Mercurio
Signatarios del Convenio de Minamata sobre el Mercurio

Cc: Gobiernos, por conducto de sus canales oficiales de comunicación con el Programa de las Naciones Unidas para el Medio Ambiente
Misiones Permanentes ante el Programa de las Naciones Unidas para el Medio Ambiente y ante las Naciones Unidas en Ginebra
Depositario del Convenio, Oficina de Asuntos Jurídicos de las Naciones Unidas



Anexo I

Propuesta de la Unión Europea para enmendar las partes I y II del anexo A y la parte I del anexo B del Convenio de Minamata sobre el Mercurio

CONTEXTO

De conformidad con los apartados 7) del artículo 4 y 9) del artículo 5 del Convenio de Minamata, cualquiera de las Partes podrá presentar a la Secretaría una propuesta de inclusión de un producto con mercurio añadido en el anexo A y de un proceso de fabricación en el anexo B. La propuesta contendrá información relacionada con la disponibilidad, la viabilidad técnica y económica y los riesgos y beneficios para la salud humana y el medio ambiente de las alternativas sin mercurio.

Además, y de conformidad con la Decisión MC-3/1: Examen de los anexos A y B, la Secretaría pidió, en una carta de fecha 13 de diciembre (MC/COP3/2019/15), que las Partes presentasen comunicaciones antes del 31 de marzo de 2020 que incluyesen:

- a) Información sobre los productos con mercurio añadido y sobre la disponibilidad, la viabilidad técnica y económica, así como sobre los riesgos y beneficios para la salud y el medio ambiente de las alternativas sin mercurio a los productos con mercurio añadido, de conformidad con el párrafo 4 del artículo 4 del Convenio
- b) Información sobre los procesos en los que se utiliza mercurio o compuestos de mercurio y sobre la disponibilidad, la viabilidad técnica y económica, así como sobre los riesgos y beneficios para la salud y el medio ambiente de las alternativas sin mercurio a los procesos de fabricación en los que se utiliza mercurio o compuestos de mercurio, de conformidad con el párrafo 4 del artículo 5

El 31 de marzo de 2020, la UE transmitió a la Secretaría del Convenio información sobre una serie de productos y procesos con mercurio añadido y sus alternativas sin mercurio técnica y económicamente viables. La información transmitida se basó en el informe "Collection of information on mercury-added products and their alternatives" (Recopilación de información sobre los productos con mercurio añadido y sus alternativas), que se ha publicado y puesto a disposición del público en Internet. Esa información se refleja en el informe del grupo especial de expertos relativo a la labor entre reuniones. El 31 de agosto de 2020, la UE transmitió también a la Secretaría del Convenio información técnica y económica sobre la amalgama dental en una comunicación realizada en el marco del proceso correspondiente establecido por las Partes en la tercera reunión de la Conferencia de las Partes. Ambas comunicaciones pueden consultarse en el sitio [web](#) del Convenio de Minamata.

A partir de la información proporcionada en estas comunicaciones sobre las alternativas sin mercurio, su disponibilidad, su viabilidad técnica y económica y sus beneficios conexos para la salud humana y el medio ambiente, la UE propone enmiendas a los anexos A y B que figuran en el anexo I del presente documento, de conformidad con el artículo 26 para su aprobación en la cuarta reunión de la Conferencia de las Partes.

En el anexo II figuran los extractos pertinentes de las comunicaciones antes mencionadas que se refieren a los usos del mercurio contemplados en nuestras propuestas de enmienda.



Propuesta de la Unión Europea para enmendar la parte I del anexo A del Convenio de Minamata sobre el Mercurio

La Unión Europea propone añadir las siguientes entradas a la parte I del anexo A¹:

Productos con mercurio añadido	Fecha tras la cual no se permitirá la producción, importación ni exportación del producto (fecha de eliminación)
Pilas de botón de óxido de plata con un contenido de mercurio < 2 % y pilas de botón zinc-aire con un contenido de mercurio < 2 %	2023
Lámparas fluorescentes lineales (LFL) de fósforo en halofosfato para usos generales de iluminación	2023
Los siguientes dispositivos de medición no electrónicos: a) galgas extensométricas para su uso en pletismógrafos; b) tensiómetros	2023
Los siguientes dispositivos de medición eléctricos y electrónicos: a) transductores, transmisores y sensores de presión de fusión; b) bombas de vacío de mercurio	2023
Poliuretano, incluidos los depósitos para la aplicación de poliuretano	2023

¹ La propuesta de enmienda relativa al poliuretano en este cuadro es complementaria a la propuesta de añadir la entrada "Producción de poliuretano en la que se utilizan catalizadores que contienen mercurio" al anexo B, parte I. La propuesta de entrada adicional en la parte I del anexo B no prohibiría la importación de depósitos de poliuretano que contuviesen mercurio.



Propuesta de la Unión Europea para enmendar la parte II del anexo A del Convenio de Minamata sobre el Mercurio

La Unión Europea propone añadir el siguiente texto a la parte II del anexo A:

Antes del 1 de enero de 2024, las Partes deberán:

- i) Establecer que la amalgama dental se utilice únicamente en forma encapsulada predosificada¹;
- ii) Prohibir el uso de mercurio a granel por los odontólogos;
- iii) Garantizar que los titulares de centros dentales en los que se utilice amalgama dental o se extraigan empastes de amalgama dental o dientes que los contengan, equipen sus instalaciones con separadores de amalgama con un nivel de rendimiento de separación del 95 %², a efectos de la retención y recogida de partículas de amalgama, incluidas las contenidas en las aguas residuales;
- iv) Dejar de permitir el uso de amalgamas dentales en el cuidado de la dentición primaria y los dientes de los niños menores de 15 años y las mujeres embarazadas o lactantes, salvo cuando el odontólogo lo considere estrictamente necesario en función de las necesidades médicas específicas del paciente.

¹ Las cápsulas de amalgama como las descritas en las normas internacionales ISO 13897:2018 y 24234:2015 se consideran adecuadas para su uso por los odontólogos.

² La conformidad de los separadores de amalgama se basará en las normas internacionales pertinentes, incluida la ISO 11143:2008.



Propuesta de la Unión Europea para enmendar la parte I del anexo B del Convenio de Minamata sobre el Mercurio

La Unión Europea propone añadir la siguiente entrada a la parte I del anexo B:

Procesos de fabricación en los que utiliza mercurio o compuestos de mercurio	Fecha de eliminación
Producción de poliuretano en la que se utilizan catalizadores que contienen mercurio	2023



Annex II

Further explanatory note from the European Union regarding the proposed amendments

TECHNICAL, ECONOMIC AND ENVIRONMENTAL INFORMATION IN ACCORDANCE WITH ARTICLES 4(7) AND 5(9) TO THE CONVENTION

I. SUBMISSION FROM THE EU ON MERCURY-ADDED PRODUCTS AND MANUFACTURING PROCESSES USING MERCURY OF MERCURY COMPOUNDS

Batteries (mercury-containing button cells)

Summary Overview

Button cells are small, thin energy cells commonly used in watches, hearing aids, and other electronic devices. Mercury-containing button cell batteries mainly fall into three types: zinc air, silver oxide and alkaline.

Currently, the Minamata Convention provides an exemption to button zinc silver oxide and button zinc air batteries with a mercury content below 2%. This exemption was also active in the EU under Directive 2006/66/EC (Batteries Directive) until 2015, however since then, the placing of batteries containing more than 0.0005% of mercury on the market has been prohibited. In the USA, mercuric oxide button cell batteries have been banned since 1996.

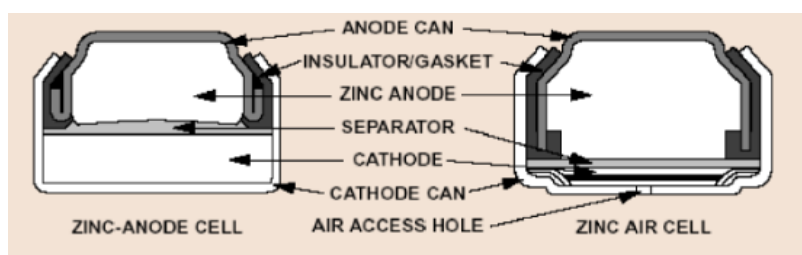
Mercury-free button cells are available, the most common being zinc air batteries, and are technically feasible for all applications. They cost approximately 10% more than mercury cells (BIO Intelligence, 2012). Mercury-free zinc air batteries mostly have similar performance regarding self-discharge, leak resistance and capacity (BIO Intelligence, 2012), but a reduction of their lifespan, by 2-10% can be observed. However, improvements in performance are expected (European Commission, 2014). There are also economic benefits to waste collectors and recyclers from mercury-free alternatives in the form of a 30-40% lower cost of recycling button cell waste (BIO Intelligence, 2012).

According to Lin et al. (2016), the production of mercury-containing zinc button cell batteries in China has gradually decreased from 8.8 billion units in 2005 to 5.5 billion units in 2014. In the EU, in 2010, the EU button cell market was 1.08 billion units containing an estimated 1.4 to 8.8 t Hg and displaying an upward trend (BIO Intelligence, 2012).

Technical Description

Currently, there are three types of button cell batteries that contain mercury: zinc air, silver oxide and alkaline. These batteries contain mercury in small amounts (typically 0.1-2%) (European Commission, 2014) and the purpose of mercury in the cell is to prevent the build-up of hydrogen gas. The mercury acts as a barrier to the production of hydrogen and as such prevents the cell swelling and becoming damaged.

Figure 1 – Cross Section of Zinc Anode Button Cell and Zinc Air Button Cell (European Commission, 2014)



Range of mercury content/consumption per unit product



0.1-2 weight-% (button cells with intentionally added mercury)

0.0005 weight-% (button cells without intentionally added mercury)

Availability of non-mercury alternatives

Main alternatives: Mercury-free zinc air batteries

Mercury-free versions are commercially available for all applications of the main types of button cells (lithium, silver oxide, alkaline and zinc air). The most frequently used types make use of zinc air technology (European Commission, 2014).

Since October 2015, mercury-containing button cell batteries have been prohibited in the EU following the expiry of the exemption granted under the Batteries Directive.

Technical feasibility of mercury-free alternatives

In the USA following a ban of mercury-containing button cells, there were initial issues relating to performance and usability of mercury-free alternatives however, these have now been overcome following technological developments.

Stakeholders have confirmed that performance parameters such as self-discharge, leak resistance, capacity and pulse capability of mercury-free button cells are comparable to traditional mercury-containing cells (BIO Intelligence, 2012).

Economic feasibility of non-mercury alternatives

Mercury-free alternatives currently cost approximately 10% more than mercury-containing cells to consumers (BIO Intelligence, 2012). There is a marginal cost to button cell manufacturers for investments in Research and Development (R&D) and assembly line adaptations and these costs are likely to be passed on by retailers to consumers which, is expected to be reflected in an increase in retail price by 5-10%.

The Lowell Centre for Sustainable Production in Massachusetts conducted a study in 2011 on the economics of converting to mercury-free products including button cell batteries, and found that maintenance of dual production capability between mercury and non-mercury products creates inefficiencies increasing the cost of production (Lowell Centre for Sustainable Products, 2011).

There are economic benefits to waste collectors and recyclers from mercury-free alternatives in the form of a 30-40% lower cost of recycling button cell waste (BIO Intelligence, 2012).

Health/Environmental Risks and benefits of non-mercury alternatives

In the EU, it was estimated that in 2009, 88% of button cell batteries were not collected for separate waste collection and as such would have been disposed in landfills or incinerated. This represented an estimated 4.5 tonnes of mercury going to disposal.

Due to the difficulty in increasing separate waste collection rates of batteries, substitution of mercury with alternatives is the most effective way of reducing this environmental impact.

A prohibition of mercury-containing button cell batteries would reduce exposure of global citizens to mercury introduced to the environment from this product.

Examples of regional or national restrictions

Mercury has already been eliminated from most batteries (e.g. mercuric oxide batteries) in the EU as a result of restrictions imposed by Directive 2006/66/EC on batteries and accumulators and waste batteries and accumulators (Batteries Directive), which prohibits the placing on the market of batteries and accumulators containing more than 0.0005% Hg by weight. This threshold intends to cover trace contamination and reflects current measurement limitations. Mercury-containing batteries are classified as hazardous waste



but only a certain proportion are required to be separately collected for further recycling (45% since 2016) by the Directive.

In 1996, the USA introduced a national ban on mercury oxide batteries, after which a number of states implemented a ban on all types of mercury containing button cell batteries including Connecticut and Maine, Rhode Island, Louisiana, Wisconsin and Illinois (Lowell Centre for Sustainable Products, 2011).

In 2011, China issued 'Clean Production Guidelines' for the battery sector, including recommendations that companies actively promote mercury-free button cells. Mercury content of zinc button cell batteries produced in China has been 0.005 mg per battery (0.25%) since 2013 (Lin et al., 2016). In 2017, the Chinese Ministry of Environmental Protection issued a mercury regulation that states that from 2021 mercury-containing batteries are prohibited, but includes the Minamata exemption for zinc-silver oxide and zinc air batteries containing less than 2% mercury (CIRS-REACH, 2017).

References

- BIBLIOGRAPHY BIO Intelligence. (2012). *Study on the potential for reducing mercury pollution from dental amalgam and batteries*. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/environment/chemicals/mercury/pdf/mercury_dental_report.pdf
- CIRS-REACH. (2017). *China Enforcing Mercury Convention*. Retrieved from <http://www.cirs-reach.com/news-and-articles/China-Enforcing-Mercury-Convention.html>
- Comisión Europea. (2014). Report on the availability of mercury-free button cells for hearing aids, in accordance with Article 4.4 of Directive 2006/66/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council on batteries and accumulators and waste batteries and repealing.../. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/environment/waste/batteries/pdf/COM_2014_632.pdf
- Comisión Europea. (2014). Study: Availability of Mercury-free Button Cells for Hearing Aids. Retrieved from <https://publications.europa.eu/en/publication-detail/-/publication/16d794d9-1947-48b9-ba5a-4d9d2e3d3c24/language-en>
- Lin et al. (2016). *Material flow for the intentional use of mercury in China*. Retrieved from https://pubs.acs.org/doi/suppl/10.1021/acs.est.5b04998/suppl_file/es5b04998_si_001.pdf
- Lowell Centre for Sustainable Products. (2011). *Economics of Conversion to Mercury-Free Products, Report for UNEP DTIE Chemicals Branch (Referenced in EC, 2014)*.



Linear Fluorescent Lamps (LFLs)

Excerpt of the EU submission regarding halophosphate lamps

Summary Overview

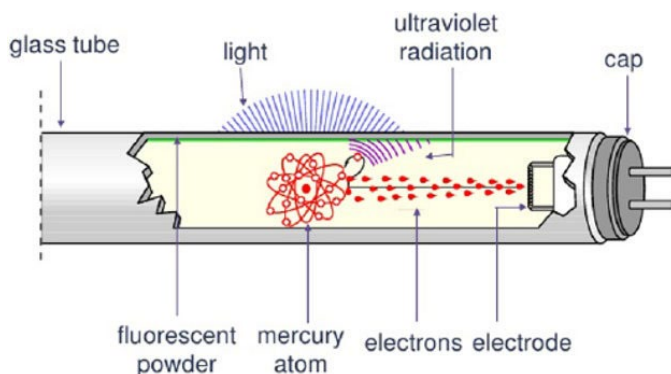
Linear Fluorescent Lamps (LFLs) are functionally identical to compact fluorescent lamps (CFLs). They are denoted as linear due to their shape and are used in a range of applications from domestic use to professional and industrial buildings. In 2016, LFLs were reported to be used in hundreds of millions of lighting installations (Gensch, et al., 2016).

Under the Minamata Convention, LFLs for general lighting purposes are restricted to 5 mg per lamp for triband phosphor lamps below 60 watts, with a phase-out date of 2020 for all lamps above the mercury limits. Halophosphate LFLs under 40 watts for general lighting purposes are restricted to 10 mg per lamp, with a phase-out date of 2020 for all lamps above these mercury limits. In Europe, halophosphate lamps have been phased out, although there is evidence they are still being produced and exported from the EU (COWI & ICF, 2017).

LEDs are the most suitable alternative to LFLs, with increasing levels of usage and development. With the exception of long-life LFLs, LEDs have environmental benefits of increased product lifetime to LFLs. In addition to substitution with non-mercury LEDs, halophosphate lamps can be replaced with triband phosphor LFLs, which have a lower mercury content.

Technical Description

Figure 1 – Linear Fluorescent Lamp (Sethurajan et al., 2019)



In LFLs, ultraviolet light is generated by driving an electric current through a tube, which contains argon and mercury. This then stimulates the phosphor coating to produce visible light. LFLs are categorised based on the type of phosphor used. Triband phosphor lamps utilise three combined materials with peaks at blue green and orange lights to create an overall white hue. They are a technical successor of halophosphate lamps.

Range of mercury content/consumption per unit product

The average mercury content of a halophosphate LFL is 8-10 mg (COWI&ICF, 2017)

Availability of non-mercury alternatives

Main alternatives: Tubular LED lamps based on Light emitting diodes (LEDs)



Halophosphate lamps can be replaced by tri-band phosphor lamps with a lower mercury content in cases where mercury-free alternatives are not yet feasible. Tri-band phosphor LFLs are subject to more stringent mercury concentration restrictions of 3-5mg depending on bulb size, while halophosphate lamps, now phased out in Europe, previously had limits set at 10mg.

Technical feasibility of mercury-free alternatives

Mercury levels in tri-band phosphor LFLs that can replace halophosphate LFLs are restricted to levels lower than that of Minamata. This indicates that there are no technical feasibility issues associated with reducing mercury content to these levels (see Examples of regional or national restrictions).

Economic feasibility of non-mercury alternatives

If fluorescent lamps would not be available and there would be no plug-in alternative, then the need to replace luminaires, control gears, or complete lighting systems etc. would result in high investment costs for businesses (Gensch, et al., 2016). The socio-economic impact report, published recently by the EU Commission, states that the related costs are substantial: 130-250 Billion € (European Commission, 2019). The sectors involved with the replacement (lamp producers, lighting installation contractors, etc.) would have benefits. However, from an overall economic perspective, premature replacement means a loss of capital and generation of 1-6 Million tonnes of waste (EU commission 2019). Therefore, a phase-out that replaces lamps at their natural end-of-life would avoid these impacts.

Health/Environmental Risks and benefits of non-mercury alternatives

The phase-out of halophosphate LFLs in the EU (in favour of tri-band phosphor lamps) resulted in a 53% decrease in mercury per lamp (Lighting Europe, 2015).

Examples of regional or national restrictions

Russia and the Eurasian Economic Union (Technical Rule EAEU 037/2016) as well as India (G.S.R338(E) E-Waste (Management) Rules, 2016) set lower limits on tri-band phosphor LFLs than required by Minamata. Limits set are the same as those prescribed by the EU RoHS Directive, as outlined above. There are a number of other countries that have also adopted RoHS-like restrictions setting the same limits on tri-band phosphor LFLs.

In Europe, placing on the market of halophosphate LFLs has been effectively prohibited since 2012 when the exemption under Directive 2011/65/EU on the restriction of the use of certain hazardous substances in electrical and electronic equipment (RoHS Directive) expired.

Many nations have implemented RoHS-like legislation, which bans mercury-containing LFLs. In Russia and the Eurasian Economic Union (EAEU), Technical Rule EAEU 037/2016 on the restriction of the use of hazardous substances in electrical and radio electronic products are some such examples, and India, Singapore, Thailand, Ukraine, Jordan, Turkey, UAE, Saudi Arabia, Vietnam, South Korea and Japan are examples of other nations implementing RoHS-like legislation which bans mercury-containing halophosphates.



References

- COWI & ICF. (2017). *Support to assessing the impacts of certain amendments to the Proposal of the Commission for a Regulation on Mercury*. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/environment/chemicals/mercury/pdf/Final%20Report_KH0617141ENN.pdf
- BIBLIOGRAPHY Energy Rating, 2017. Australia drops mercury levels in fluorescent lighting. Available at: <http://www.energyrating.gov.au/news/australia-drops-mercury-levels-fluorescent-lighting> [Accessed 13/06/2019].
- European Commission, 2019. *Study to assess socio-economic impact of substitution of certain mercury-based lamps currently benefitting of RoHS 2 exemptions in Annex III*. [Online] Available at: <https://publications.europa.eu/en/publication-detail/-/publication/9f8f7878-b72a-11e9-9d01-01aa75ed71a1/language-en>
- Gensch, C.-O. et al., 2016. Study to assess renewal requests for 29 RoHS 2 Annex III exemptions [no. 1(a to e - lighting purpose), no. 1(f - special purpose), no. 2(a), no. 2(b)(3), no. 2(b)(4), no. 3, no. 4(a), no. 4(b), no. 4(c), no. 4(e), no. 4(f), no. 5(b), no. 6(a), no. 6(b), no. 6(c), no. 7(a), no. 7(c) - I, no. 7(c) - II, no. 7(c) - IV, no. 8.
- Lighting Europe, 2014. *Globally Harmonized Limits on Mercury for Lighting*. [Online] Available at: https://www.lightingeurope.org/images/publications/position-papers/LE_PP_Global_Mercury_limit_20131002_final.pdf
- Lighting Europe, 2015. *Request to Renew Exemption 2(a)(1)*. [Online] Available at: https://rohs.exemptions.oeko.info/fileadmin/user_upload/RoHS_Pack_9/Exemption_2_a_1-5_Lighting_Europe/2a1_LE_RoHS_Exemption_Req_Final.pdf
- Lighting Europe, 2016. Request to renew Exemption 1(g) under the RoHS Directive 2011/65/EU Mercury in single-capped (compact) fluorescent lamps for general lighting purposes < 30 W with a lifetime equal or above 20000 h: 3,5 mg, 28.06.2016.
- Lighting Europe, 2017. Answers to 1st Questionnaire - Exemption No. 1(g) (renewal request): "For general lighting purposes < 30 W with a lifetime equal or above 20 000 h: 3,5 mg", 15.09.2017. Available at: http://rohs.exemptions.oeko.info/fileadmin/user_upload/RoHS_pack_13/Annex_1g/LE_WG_CE_-_TF_RoHS_-_1G_Questionnaire_Response_-_20170915_-_v5_-_FINAL.pdf [Accessed 20/05/2019].
- Sethurajan et al., 2019. *Recent advances on hydrometallurgical recovery of critical and precious elements from end of life electronic wastes- a review*. [Online] Available at: <https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/10643389.2018.1540760#aHR0cHM6Ly93d3cudGFuZGZvbmxpbmUuY29tL2RvaS9wZGYvMTAuMTA4MC8xMDY0Mz40S4yMDE4LjE1NDA3NjA/bmVIZEFjY2Vzcz10cnVlQEBAMA==>
- Swedish Energy Agency (SEA), 2019. Evidence of the availability of mercury-free alternative products to certain fluorescent lamps. Available at: <https://meta.eeb.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/11/SEA-and-CLASP-analysis-of-RoHS-exemptions-for-fluorescent-lamps-v2-1.pdf>
- The Lightbulb Company, 2019. A Guide To Compact Fluorescent Lamps (CFL) & Fluorescent Tubes. Available at: https://www.thelightbulb.co.uk/resources/compact_fluorescent_lamps_guide/.
- UNEP, 2013. Acceptance on behalf of the United States of America. Available at: <http://www.mercuryconvention.org/Portals/11/documents/submissions/US%20declaration.pdf> [Accessed 13/06/2019].
- VHK & VITO, 2015. *Preparatory Study on Light Sources for Ecodesign and/or Energy Labelling Requirements ('Lot 8/9/19') - Draft Interim Report*. [Online] Available at: <http://ecodesign-lightsources.eu/sites/ecodesign-lightsources.eu/files/attachments/1st%20Stakeholder%20comments%20-%20summary%20and%20answers.pdf>
- World Bank, 2019. Capacity Strengthening for Implementation of Minamata Convention on Mercury Project. Available at: <http://projects.worldbank.org/P151281?lang=en>.



Zero Mercury Working Group, 2019. *Information Relevant to the Review of Annexes A and B*. [Online]
Available at:

http://www.mercuryconvention.org/Portals/11/documents/submissions/ZMWG_Submission_AnnexA_B.pdf



Melt pressure transducers, transmitters and sensors using a capillary system

Summary overview

Melt pressure transducers, transmitters and sensors are used to control and measure melt pressure during extrusion, a process used to create objects of a fixed cross-sectional profile. Transducers maintain dimensional stability, to ensure that the products being extruded align to specific design requirements (Dynisco, 2016). They are used in processes for food and beverage packaging, piping, medical product manufacturing and recycling.

Melt pressure products entered the market in the 1950s, initially protected by a patent, which influenced their supply and market prices. Only recently have melt pressure transducers become more openly available on the market, produced by multiple manufacturers (Bagsik, 2019). However, industry data suggests that only 50% of extruders are fitted with melt pressure measuring equipment (Dynisco, 2016).

Currently, melt pressure products are not covered by the Minamata Convention.

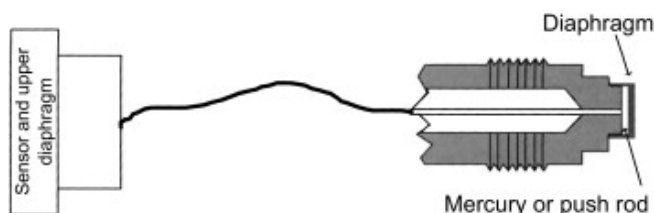
Sodium-potassium alloy and silicon oil are technically-viable alternatives to mercury, which are available internationally. Although neither of these substances operate with the same effect under high temperatures, silicon oil offers a suitable alternative to mercury in food, medical and pharmaceutical applications. Sodium-potassium alloy (NaK) offers a suitable alternative to mercury in plastics manufacturing. These alternatives are already commercially available, with mercury-free transducers manufactured in and exported from Europe, Asia and North America. They also have limited impact on health and the environment relative to mercury. The EU is the only jurisdiction to implement a limit on mercury content in melt pressure transducers (0,1 %). In the US, under the Federal Food, Drug, and Cosmetic Act, substances must be deemed Generally Regarded as Safe (GRAS) if they are used for specific food, medical or pharmaceutical applications. Mercury-free alternatives, silicon oil and NaK are GRAS.

Technical Description

Melt pressure transducers, transmitters and sensors enable accurate pressure measurements to be made, enhancing product quality and limiting damage to equipment (Dynisco, 2016). In melt pressure transducers, pressure transmission occurs in a closed capillary system filled with a transmission medium (i.e. mercury). The system is designed to transfer the pressure exerted on the diaphragm, pictured in Figure 1, to the transduction feature (i.e. upper diaphragm with the strain gauge). The strain gauge then converts the physical pressure into an electric signal (Gefran, 2017). In cases of excess pressure during extrusion, this process enables transducers to ensure safety, by switching off extruder driving systems when defined pressure limits have been exceeded (Bagsik, 2019).

In melt pressure transducers, mercury was traditionally used as the transmission medium, due to its capacity to transmit pressure readings at high temperatures. However, there is potential risk of mercury leakage during the manufacturing process. The EU through Directive 2011/65/EC (RoHS Directive) has required the use of inert mercury-free alternatives, such as silicon oil and sodium potassium alloy (NaK) (Industry Search, 2019). Despite the absence of regulation in other countries, many countries outside the EU also manufacture mercury-free alternatives, appealing to international customers.

Figure 1 – Melt pressure transducer cross-section (Wagner, et al., 2014)



Range of mercury content/consumption per unit product



The mercury content in melt pressure transducers varies depending on the model. Dynisco states that their pressure transducer 420/460 model contains 7mm³ of mercury as the transmission medium. However, models released by other companies display a mercury filling volume of 30mm³ – 40mm³ (Gefran, 2014). In addition, Dynisco have provided another estimate of the mercury fill being approximately 0.003 cubic inches per transducer (~50mm³) (Dynisco, 2016).

Availability of non-mercury alternatives

Main alternatives: sodium-potassium alloy, silicon oil

Although mercury devices are still on the market, a number of alternative transmission mediums exist. It is essential that alternatives meet certain requirements to ensure that they are suitable for extrusion processes. For example, products must be capable of withstanding high temperatures (up to 700°F) and high pressures (up to 30,000 psi), as well as being able to function in potentially corrosive settings (Dynisco, 2016). In addition, it is essential that the substances replacing mercury are capable of transferring pressure in a similar fashion.

The two key alternatives to the use of mercury as a transmission medium are silicon oil and sodium-potassium alloy (NaK). The latter is capable of transferring pressure with comparable quality to mercury (Gräff, 2015). However, Gräff (2015) states that silicon oil is not always an appropriate alternative to mercury, due to the disparity in its capacity to transfer pressure in a comparable manner to mercury. However, the silicon oil substitute is commonly used in food and medical applications, where lower temperatures are required.

Some companies have also developed sensors which do not require a transmission fluid. Instead, pressure is transferred to a silicon element through a diaphragm (Gefran, 2017).

Technical feasibility of mercury-free alternatives

Mercury-free alternatives are technically feasible and already commercially available. Through the use of advanced production processes, melt pressure products can be produced without the mercury filling and still provide an accurate reading (Müller, 2019). Sodium-potassium alloy is an alternative used by multiple manufacturers, due to its ability to mimic the characteristics of mercury. Sodium-potassium alloy alternatives can withstand temperatures of 400°C and according to Gräff (2015, p. 4), their mercury-free alternative is '100% market-compatible with all common manufacturers'. Due to its capacity to function under high temperatures, NaK is an ideal alternative for the plastics manufacturing industry (Industry Search, 2019).

In addition, the majority of manufacturers also produce melt pressure transducers which use silicon oil as an alternative transmission medium. Although these products have limits on the temperature which they can withstand, their use is ideal in food, medical and pharmaceutical applications.

Economic feasibility of non-mercury alternatives

Due to increasing pressure from the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) and the EU Restriction of Hazardous Substances (RoHS) Directive, several manufacturers already produce mercury-free alternatives (Gräff, 2015). As these alternatives are readily available on the market, manufacturers will not face the additional cost of having to invest in research and development to create mercury-free alternatives (Gefran, 2010). All European manufacturers comply with the RoHS Directive and manufacturers based in China already produce mercury-free alternatives.

Health/Environmental Risks and benefits of non-mercury alternatives

The primary risk of mercury transducers, transmitters and sensors is the exposure to mercury during manufacturing processes. In addition, the use of mercury is particularly concerning in processes concerning food packaging, due to the direct link to human consumption (Dynisco, 2016). The silicon oil and NaK alternatives are considered safe by the US FDA, with neither of these alternatives containing hazardous



substances. However, NaK is known to react strongly with water to produce highly-flammable hydrogen. NaK also reacts with CO₂ to produce methane (Chemwatch, 2009). However, the significance of this reactivity depends on the volume of NaK present. With the relatively low volume of transmission medium fill (7mm³-50mm³) for melt pressure transducers, the effect is likely to be minimal.

Examples of regional or national restrictions

In Europe, the RoHS Directive is the only regulation which governs the use of mercury in melt pressure transducers, transmitters and sensors. Although transducers using mercury are still available in the EU, all EU manufacturers fully comply with the RoHS.

References

- BIBLIOGRAPHY AZO Materials, 2019. What are Mercury Fill Sensors?. Available at: <https://www.azom.com/article.aspx?ArticleID=17470>.
- Bagsik, 2019. Pressure Measurement. Available at: <http://www.bagsik.net/download.php?module=download&file=ZmlsZXMvZG93bmxvYWQvMTQ3Njk2MjAzMzE3NTNfZW5fcHJlc3N1cmUtbWVhc3VyZW1lbnQucGRm>.
- Chemwatch, 2009. Sodium-potassium alloy. Available at: <http://datasheets.scbt.com/sc-281150.pdf> [Accessed 25/06/2019].
- Dynisco, 2016. Melt Pressure Measurement: Environmental Effects. Available at: https://www.dynisco.com/userfiles/files/Datasheets/melt_pressure_measurement_environmental_effects.pdf.
- Gefran, 2010. Melt pressure transducers and transmitters. Available at: <https://gefran-online.com/products/pdf/1323.pdf>.
- Gefran, 2014. Pressure Sensors for High Temperature. Available at: <http://www.thermalsolutionsoftexas.com/pdfs/components/user-manuals/nak-fill.pdf>.
- Gefran, 2017. Melt Pressure Sensors. Available at: <https://www.gefran.com/en/download/3367/attachment/en>.
- Government of Canada, 2017. Terms and conditions for the approval of pressure transducers. Available: <https://www.ic.gc.ca/eic/site/mc-mc.nsf/eng/lm00123.html>.
- Gräff, 2015. Melt Pressure Sensors. Available at: http://www.graeff-gmbh.com/pdf/MASSEDRUCK_EN_eigen.pdf.
- Industry Search, 2019. Highly Durable Melt Pressure Sensor by Gefran. Available at: <https://www.industrysearch.com.au/highly-durable-melt-pressure-sensor-by-gefran/p/65842>.
- METI, 2017. Overview of the National Implementation Plan for Preventing Environmental Pollution of Mercury. Available at: https://www.meti.go.jp/english/press/2017/pdf/1016_003a.pdf.
- Minister of Justice, 2019. Products Containing Mercury Regulations. Available at: <https://laws-lois.justice.gc.ca/PDF/SOR-2014-254.pdf> [Accessed 13/06/2019].
- MPI Melt Pressure, 2019. Oil Fill Melt Pressure Transducers & Transmitters. Available at: <https://www.mpipressure.com/melt-pressure/transmitters/oil-fill>.
- Müller, 2019. Melt pressure and melt temperature sensors. Available at: <https://mueller-ie.com/en/current-news/1112-melt-pressure-and-melt-temperature-sensors.html>.
- Wagner, J., Mount, E. & Giles, H., 2014. Extrusión. Available at: <https://www.sciencedirect.com/book/9781437734812/extrusion#book-info>.
- World Bank, 2019. Capacity Strengthening for Implementation of Minamata Convention on Mercury Project. Available at: <http://projects.worldbank.org/P151281?lang=en>.



Devices using mercury to measure volume change of part of a body (strain gauge to be used with plethysmographs)

Summary Overview

Mercury is used in strain gauge plethysmography to measure blood flow and blood pressure. This is used to diagnose arteriosclerosis, a disease affecting arterial walls and resulting in reduced blood circulation.

Mercury usage in plethysmography is low in comparison to some other medical applications such as sphygmomanometers. Mercury-containing strain gauges are now rare. It is estimated that, for example, in Sweden only 200 strain gauges are used per year, and one major global producer of strain gauges consumed 946 grams of mercury in 2004 (ECHA, 2011). It is estimated that 0.014 t Hg was placed on the EU market in 2010.

Currently, strain gauges along with other measuring devices have been exempted from Annex A of the Minamata Convention in the absence of a feasible mercury-free alternative.

It is now the case that feasible mercury-free alternatives are available for all applications of strain gauges with the exception of certain research applications where reference gathered over decades using mercury-containing strain gauges is relied upon. The most prominent alternative is indium-gallium strain gauges, which are compatible with expensive wider electrical equipment that mercury strain gauges function with.

Technical Description

The mercury strain gauge consists of a fine rubber tube filled with mercury which is placed around the body in the area where blood pressure is to be measured.

Range of mercury content/ consumption per unit product

1.25g elemental mercury per strain gauge (ECHA, 2011).

Availability of non-mercury alternatives

Main alternatives: Strain gauges with indium-gallium, photo cell/laser-Doppler techniques

There are technically and economically feasible mercury-free alternatives available (ECHA, 2011). Indium-gallium strain gauges are the main alternative to mercury strain gauges.

Photo cell and Doppler techniques are typically used for measurements in fingers and toes, for which indium-gallium gauges are not suitable (COWI, 2008). The photo cell technique registers changes in tissue colour at different pressures. The Doppler technique measures the velocity of red blood cells to determine blood flow. Ultrasonic devices are used for larger applications, and laser devices are used for measuring smaller volumes.

The world leading manufacturer is D.E. Hokanson, Inc., in the USA where both mercury and indium-gallium strain gauges are produced for export (COWI & ICF, 2017). No mercury strain gauges have been sold in Europe since 2014 and according to NEWMOA, mercury-filled strain gauges are rarely used (NEWMOA, 2016).

Technical feasibility of mercury-free alternatives

According to COWI (2008) photo cell and laser-Doppler technique or gallium/indium strain gauges are capable of identifying a variety of diagnosis offered by mercury-containing equipment. Indium-gallium strain gauges can be used with existing plethysmographs for the same application as mercury strain gauges (ECHA, 2011).

In the area of research however, there is no alternative to mercury-containing plethysmographs where absolute blood flow in arms and legs is measured. This is due to the body of research and reference



materials built up over decades of use. Indium-gallium gauges have a higher freezing point and lower resistance and so cannot be used for some applications, specifically Raynaud's disease or small digit tests, or cold water immersion studies (Hokanson, 2019) (COWI & ICF, 2017).

Economic feasibility of non-mercury alternatives

The driving factor for ongoing use of mercury-containing strain gauges is economic as mercury-containing tubes are inexpensive. However they are designed to work with complex electronic equipment costing in excess of EUR 20,000 and with life spans of 10-15 years. As such, clinics are hesitant to replace the complete system other than in the case of technical failure (COWI, 2008). It is possible to retrofit indium-gallium gauges with Hokanson plethysmographs with a few exceptions (COWI & ICF, 2017).

The prices of indium-gallium strain gauges are approximately 40% higher than mercury gauges according to a major supplier (COWI & ICF, 2017). However, ECHA (2011) judged that indium-gallium gauges are economically feasible and estimated the cost of compliance in the EU for restrictions on mercury-containing strain gauges at EUR 2.6 million in the period of 2015-2034. A major producer of mercury strain gauge claimed that indium-gallium is also more difficult to handle during production, requiring more assembly time.

Health/Environmental Risks and benefits of non-mercury alternatives

Gallium is reported to cause skin, eye and respiratory irritation and may cause bone marrow abnormalities with damage to blood forming tissues (ECHA, 2011). There is less information on the toxicological properties of indium. However, due to the clear evidence on the hazardous properties and risk of mercury the usage of indium-gallium strain gauges is considered to reduce overall risk to environment and health.

Examples of regional or national restrictions

The export, import and manufacturing of mercury-containing strain gauges to be used with plethysmographs is prohibited in the EU from 31 December 2020 by Regulation (EU) 2017/852 on Mercury.

There are some exemptions to the restriction, notably:

Non-electronic measuring devices installed in large-scale equipment or those used for high precision measurement where no suitable mercury-free alternative is available;

Measuring devices more than 50 years old on 3 October 2007

Measuring devices which are to be displayed in public exhibitions for cultural and historical purposes

Strain gauges to be used with plethysmographs intended for industrial and professional uses were restricted from being placed on the market from 10 April 2014. The restriction also applies to devices which are placed on the market empty if intended to be filled with mercury.

In the USA, mercury strain-gauges are prohibited from sale in the states of Maine, Louisiana, Connecticut and Rhode Island.



References

BIBLIOGRAPHY COWI & ICF. (2017). *Support to assessing the impacts of certain amendments to the Proposal of the Commission for a Regulation on Mercury*. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/environment/chemicals/mercury/pdf/Final%20Report_KH0617141ENN.pdf

COWI. (2008). *Options for reducing mercury use in products and applications, and the fate of mercury already circulating in society*. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/environment/chemicals/mercury/pdf/EU_Mercury_Study2008.pdf

ECHA. (2011). *Background document to the opinions on the Annex XV dossier proposing restrictions on Mercury in measuring devices*. Retrieved from <https://echa.europa.eu/documents/10162/20f4ee0a-6bcf-4ed0-a271-6674cd333710>

Hokanson. (2019). *Strain Gauges*. Retrieved from <http://hokansonvascular.com/products/133386>

NEWMOA. (2016). *Hospital Equipment*. Retrieved from <http://www.newmoa.org/prevention/mercury/projects/legacy/healthcare.cfm>



Mercury Vacuum Pump

Summary Overview

A vacuum pump is a device that removes gas from a sealed space to produce a partial vacuum.

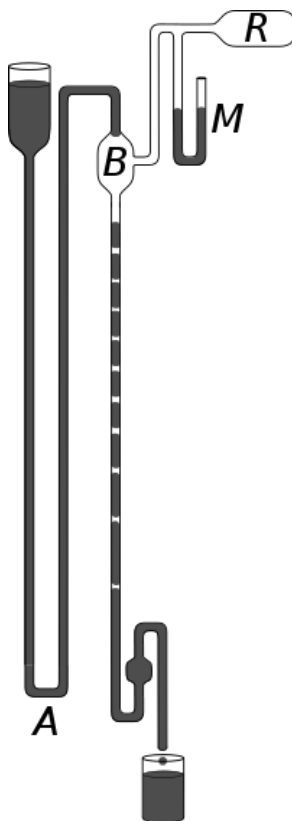
It was reported in 2008 that mercury vacuum pumps were still in operation but not sold (COWI, 2008).

Mercury-free alternatives exist and are widely in use. Positive displacement pumps are used to create low vacuums and momentum transfer pumps are used to create high vacuums (Atta & Hablanian, 1991).

Technical Description

The Sprengel pump is a form of vacuum pump that uses drops of mercury falling through a small-bore capillary tube in order to trap air. Mercury is contained in the reservoir and flows into bulb B, where it forms drops which fall leaving air entrapped in bulb B. Mercury is collected and restored to the left reservoir. In this way almost all air can be removed from bulb B and by extension vessel R.

Figure 1 – Mercury-containing vacuum pump (Beach & Chandler, 1914)



Range of mercury content/ consumption per unit product

3.4 kg mercury .(COWI, 2008)

Availability of non-mercury alternatives

Main alternatives: Positive displacement pumps, momentum transfer pump



Positive displacement pumps use a mechanism to expand a cavity, causing gases to flow in from the chamber that is to be extracted, after which the chamber is sealed and gases are exhausted. This can be repeated indefinitely to create an increasing vacuum. Momentum transfer pumps (molecular pumps) use dense fluid or high speed blades to knock gas molecules out of the chamber.

Technical feasibility of mercury-free alternatives

There are technically feasible alternatives to mercury pumps available and widely used.

Positive displacement pumps are most effective for the creation of low vacuums, while momentum transfer pumps are used to create high vacuums.

The KALPUREX process for removing helium from exhaust gases in a planned fusion demonstration power plant (DEMO, potential successor of the ITER) employs two mercury vacuum pumps. Mercury is used as a working fluid because of its very good compatibility with radioactive tritium (Giegerich & Day, 2014). The concept was chosen as the most suitable option on the basis of a Strength, Weakness, Opportunity and Threat (SWOT) analysis (Giegerich & Day, 2014).

Economic feasibility of non-mercury alternatives

There are economically feasible alternatives to mercury using vacuum pumps, evidenced by the fact that no mercury using pumps were sold in the EU since before 2008 (COWI, 2008).

Health/Environmental Risks and benefits of non-mercury alternatives

There are no known environmental downsides to mercury free alternatives to mercury containing vacuum pumps (COWI, 2008).

Examples of regional or national restrictions

According to Directive 2011/65/EU, the RoHS Directive, Member States must ensure that all electrical and electronic equipment placed on the market shall not contain mercury beyond a maximum concentration of 0.1% by weight in homogenous material. There are however exemptions for medical devices and monitoring and control instruments, as well as research applications.

References

- BIBLIOGRAPHY Atta & Hablanian, 1991. "Vacuum and Vacuum Technology". In Rita G. Lerner; George L. Trigg (eds.) *Encyclopedia of Physics (Second ed.)*. s.l.:VCH Publishers.
- Beach & Chandler, 1914. "Air Pump". *The New Student's Reference Work*. Chicago: F.E. Compton and Co..
- COWI, 2008. *Options for reducing mercury use in products and applications, and the fate of mercury already circulating in society*. [Online]
Available at: http://ec.europa.eu/environment/chemicals/mercury/pdf/EU_Mercury_Study2008.pdf
- Giegerich & Day, 2014. *Development of Advanced Exhaust Pumping Technology for a DT Fusion Power Plant*. [Online]
Available at: <https://ieeexplore.ieee.org/document/6762984>
- Giegerich & Day, 2014. *The KALPUREX-process - A new vacuum pumping process for exhaust gases in fusion power plants*. [Online]
Available at: https://inis.iaea.org/search/search.aspx?orig_q=RN:46087195



Tensiometer

Summary Overview

Tensiometers measure the surface tension of liquids and are used in applications such as the determination of soil moisture tension, or for measuring tension in wire, fibres and beams (Committee for Risk Assessment and Committee for Socio-economic Analysis, 2011).

Mercury containing tensiometers are used for measuring the negative pressure of soil water (soil water potential). The potentially mercury-containing component of a tensiometer is a manometer, which is an instrument for measuring pressure.

In the Minamata Convention, there is no reference to tensiometers among measuring devices listed in Annex A.

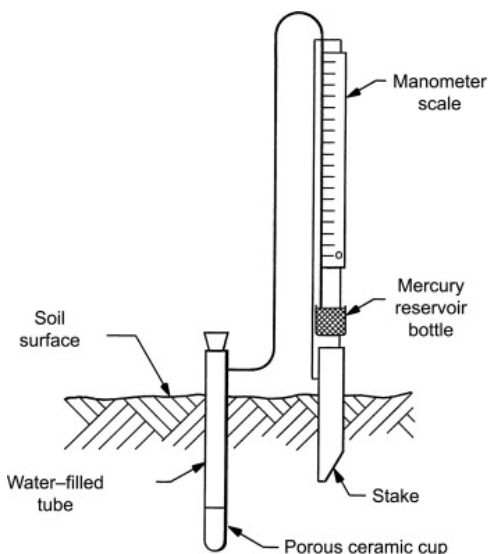
Alternatives exist for mercury containing tensiometers for all applications, and there are no significant health risks or technical feasibility restrictions associated with them. Mercury-free alternatives are usually cheaper than mercury manometers, with the exception of electronic manometers which are significantly more expensive, however provide additional functionality (Committee for Risk Assessment and Committee for Socio-economic Analysis, 2011).

Technical Description

The mercury containing component of a tensiometer is a manometer. Manometers consist of a U-shaped glass or plastic tube that contains a liquid (water, alcohol or mercury) such that the surface of liquid in one end of the U moves proportionately with the liquid in the other end. When pressure is applied, the liquid level in one arm rises and the other drops, enabling a reading to be taken.

A mercury tensiometer contains a capillary tubing linked to the mercury manometer. The capillary tubing is attached to porous cups which are inserted into the soil. Mercury manometers/tensiometers are shipped without mercury and filled with mercury by the user (Committee for Risk Assessment and Committee for Socio-economic Analysis, 2011). There may also be risk of release from breakage, but the highest risk of release is in the waste phase.

Figure 1 – Mercury tensiometer (Kirkham, 2005)



Range of mercury content/ consumption per unit product

70-140 g mercury per manometer.



There was roughly 4 t of mercury estimated to have been accumulated in manometers in the EU in 2011, and 0.04-0.4 t Hg per year placed on the market (ECHA, 2010).

Availability of non-mercury alternatives

Main alternatives: Liquid filled in tube manometers, mechanical alternatives/elastic pressure sensors, electric manometers, other devices

The mercury manometers used in tensiometers are usually replaced by elastic pressure sensors or electric manometers.

Elastic pressure sensors contain elements that are deformed or stretched when pressure is applied to them. The level of displacement is recorded. Common elastic pressure sensors include Bourdon tube manometers and pressure gauges with diaphragms. Bourdon tube manometers use a C-shape tube sealed at one end. Pressure is applied at the open end, causing pressure to be transferred to a gear and indicating needle. Pressure gauges with diaphragms can be mechanical or electric and contain a flexible two-sided membrane, with one side enclosed in a capsule containing a fluid such as air at a known pressure. Pressure is applied to the other side and the bending in the membrane is recorded.

Electric manometers use pressure transducers connected to an analogue to digital converter to transform the sensor response to an electrical signal.

Liquid filled tube manometers can contain liquids other than mercury e.g. water or alcohol.

There are also alternative methods to manometers to measure soil moisture. The gravimetric method determines the water content of soil by weighing it, drying it and measuring the difference in weight.

Technical feasibility of mercury-free alternatives

According to a European producer of mercury manometers, there was no application where mercury manometers cannot be replaced by other devices (Committee for Risk Assessment and Committee for Socio-economic Analysis, 2011).

Bourdon tube manometers are more robust than mercury manometers and suitable for measuring higher pressures (Committee for Risk Assessment and Committee for Socio-economic Analysis, 2011).

Pressure gauges with diaphragm are equally accurate as traditional mercury manometers.

Electronic manometers are widely used and have advantages compared to mercury manometers such as requiring less maintenance and less expertise to use.

The gravimetric method is time consuming and labour-intensive, however is accurate and low-cost.

Economic feasibility of non-mercury alternatives

Alternatives to mercury manometers are usually cheaper (Committee for Risk Assessment and Committee for Socio-economic Analysis, 2011). Mercury manometers costed around €108 in 2006. Prices for bourdon tube manometers ranged from €54 to €122, and prices for pressure gauges with diaphragms ranged from €30 to €76.

Electric manometers were the exception to this, costing 3-4 times more than mercury manometers for similar pressure ranges (Committee for Risk Assessment and Committee for Socio-economic Analysis, 2011).

Health/Environmental Risks and benefits of non-mercury alternatives

Mercury manometers/tensiometers are shipped without mercury and filled with mercury by the user (Committee for Risk Assessment and Committee for Socio-economic Analysis, 2011). There may also be risk of release from breakage, but the highest risk of release is in the waste phase.



There is no risk associated with the use of alternative liquids in manometers and the risks associated with electronic alternatives are not significant (Committee for Risk Assessment and Committee for Socio-economic Analysis, 2011).

Examples of regional or national restrictions

In Europe, tensiometers containing mercury intended for industrial and professional uses have been prohibited from being placed on the market from April 2014 according to the Regulation 1907/2007 on the Registration, Evaluation, Authorisation and Restriction of Chemicals (REACH). This restriction also applies to tensiometers supplied to the market empty with the intention of being filled with mercury. Electronic manometers also fall under restriction of the RoHS Directive which prohibits maximum mercury concentration over 0.1% in electrical and electronic equipment placed on the market.

References

- Committee for Risk Assessment and Committee for Socio-economic Analysis, 2011. *Background document to the opinions on the Annex XV dossier proposing restrictions on Mercury in measuring devices*. [Online] Available at: <https://echa.europa.eu/documents/10162/20f4ee0a-6bcf-4ed0-a271-6674cd333710>
- COWI, 2008. *Options for reducing mercury use in products and applications, and the fate of mercury already circulating in society*. [Online] Available at: http://ec.europa.eu/environment/chemicals/mercury/pdf/EU_Mercury_Study2008.pdf
- ECHA, 2010. *Annex XV Restriction Report: Proposal for a restriction*. [Online] Available at: https://echa.europa.eu/documents/10162/13641/annex_xv_restriction_report_mercury_en.pdf/e6f7cce2-ecf4-49cc-ba4e-34bb2c60b4a5
- Kirkham, M., 2005. *Tensiometers*. [Online] Available at: <https://www.sciencedirect.com/topics/agricultural-and-biological-sciences/tensiometers>



Production of polyurethane

Summary Overview

Polyurethane is a polymer comprised of a series of organic units, which are linked by urethane (ChemEurope, 2019). Polyurethane is available in a number of forms and densities, and is used in bedding, thermal insulation and in floorings (ibid). However, the primary use of mercury catalysts is in the production of polyurethane coatings, adhesives, sealants and elastomers (referred to as CASE applications). According to a major catalyst supplier, elastomers comprise approximately 90% of the mercury catalyst market (Norwegian Climate and Policy Agency, 2010).

Mercury catalysts are used for the manufacture of a number of polyurethane elastomers. In particular, mercury is used in the production of polyurethane elastomers that are cast into complex shapes, or sprayed onto a surface as insulation (i.e. corrosion protection). It is estimated that polyurethane elastomer castings and coatings comprise at least 90% of the total applications of polyurethane elastomers (COWI, 2008).

Under Annex B Part II of the Minamata Convention, a series of measures are outlined, to reduce the use of mercury catalysts and conduct research into the use of mercury-free alternatives. However, there is no prohibition of the use of mercury-containing catalysts in polyurethane production.

It is estimated that globally, mercury catalysts account for less than 5% of polyurethane production and that in 2008, 300-350 tonnes of mercury catalyst were used in the global production of polyurethane elastomers (COWI, 2008).

Bismuth and zinc carboxylates, and tertiary amines, are technically an economically viable alternatives to the use of mercury catalysts, which are already in use internationally. However, both of these alternatives require additional adjustments, to ensure that they reflect the characteristics of mercury. Relative to mercury, these alternatives have limited impact on health and the environment.

Use of mercury compounds in the production of polyurethane is completely prohibited within the EU since 1 January 2018.

Technical Description

In the formation of polyurethane, mercury catalysts are used in the reaction between a polyol and an isocyanate component. During the reaction, mercury catalysts enable a long induction period, followed by a rapid reaction for curing the product. The catalyst tends to be present in the polyol component. The mercury catalyst is integrated into the polymer and remains present in the final polyurethane product (Norwegian Climate and Policy Agency, 2010).

Organic mercury compounds provide the desired characteristics of catalysts for the majority of polyurethane applications. Mercury catalysts offer an initial induction period (pot life) where the reaction between polyurethane and the catalyst is slow or does not occur. This enables sufficient time for the mixture to be cast, following the addition of the catalyst. This provides the manufacturer with greater oversight of the polyurethane application (ibid).

Secondly, mercury catalysts engender a rapid reaction following the initial induction period, which enables the product to reach its final form and adopt the desired properties in relation to shape, density and malleability. In addition to allowing the product to take on its desired characteristics, the rapid reaction enables the production process to occur in a timely manner (COWI, 2008).

Range of mercury content/consumption per unit product

The mercury catalyst is typically added to the polyurethane systems at concentration levels of 0.2 % – 1 %. However, this depends on the specifications of the end product and the other components present (Norwegian Climate and Policy Agency, 2010).

Availability of non-mercury alternatives



Main alternatives: bismuth and zinc carboxylates, tertiary amines, organotin compounds

According to the European trade association for producers of diisocyanates and polyols (ISOPA) and the European Aliphatic Isocyanates Producers Association (ALIPA), using the polyurethane systems currently in place with a non-mercury catalyst does not enable the same level of performance as using these systems with mercury catalysts. Therefore, designing alternative polyurethane systems, which use alternative polyol or isocyanate components, with a non-mercury catalyst is preferable (ISOPA, 2009).

There is also the potential for the development of systems based on other polymers to replace mercury polyurethane systems. However, due to the wide range of applications required, finding suitable polymers is expected to be a complex task (Norwegian Climate and Policy Agency, 2010).

In contrast, non-mercury catalysts are available for the majority of applications, and are used as catalysts in over 95% of polyurethane elastomer applications (ChemEurope, 2019). Several non-mercury catalysts with distinct properties have been developed for polyurethane elastomers, as a 'one-size-fits-all' approach is not applicable in the case of replacing mercury catalysts for multiple applications (Norwegian Climate and Policy Agency, 2010).

Bismuth and zinc carboxylates have been used as alternatives to mercury catalysts since the 1980s. Bismuth and zirconium systems are also available on the market as mercury catalyst alternatives. In addition, tertiary amines and organotin compounds have also been used as substitutes to mercury catalysts in a range of applications (ibid).

Technical feasibility of mercury-free alternatives

Bismuth and zinc carboxylates have been adopted for many decades, and are designed to replace the use of mercury, lead and tin catalysts. These catalysts have displayed commercial success, despite their shortcomings relative to mercury (ChemEurope, 2019). For example, bismuth compounds require manufacturers to make adjustments to account for the differing reactivity of bismuth relative to mercury. In addition, bismuth compounds result in greater viscosity relative to mercury, as the reaction occurs. This produces polymers with different consistencies, relative to the polymers which a mercury catalyst produces. However, the use of a bismuth neodecanoate and zinc neodecanoate mixture enables users to adjust the concentration of the two metals, and hence adjust the behaviour of the gel (Norwegian Climate and Policy Agency, 2010).

Bismuth and zirconium systems are also used as mercury catalysts for the production of polyurethane elastomers. However, their sensitivity to moisture renders it difficult for these systems to act as catalysts in the presence of water.

Organotin compounds are not considered direct replacements for mercury catalysts, although they have been used to replace mercury in some applications. For example, organotin compounds are used in polyurethane systems to produce foams, coatings, adhesive and elastomers. However, these compounds cannot replace the use of mercury in all applications (ibid).

Tertiary amines have also been used as catalysts, producing a long pot life, followed by rapid reaction rate, two characteristics necessary for a suitable alternative to mercury catalysts. These can be used in adhesive, sealant and elastomer applications. However, the water content of polyurethane systems needs to be controlled, to ensure that foaming issues do not occur (ibid).

The aforementioned catalysts are all currently available on the market.

Economic feasibility of non-mercury alternatives

The cost of mercury-free catalysts is expected to be comparable with the cost of mercury catalysts. The cost of mercury catalysts has increased, and therefore, the price of alternatives is not expected to be a barrier (COWI, 2008). Broader research and development is expected to engender higher costs, as sourcing substitutes for a relatively simple polyurethane system is expected to require two months of research from one researcher (equivalent to €10,000 - €15,000). However, it is not expected that additional machinery costs



will be incurred, as the same machinery can be used for both mercury and non-mercury systems (Norwegian Climate and Policy Agency, 2010).

Only non-mercury alternatives are used for manufacturing of polyurethane in the EU.

Health/Environmental Risks and benefits of non-mercury alternatives

All of the mercury catalyst used in polyurethane production remains in the product. This represents 0.2 to 1% of the polyurethane in products and several hundred tonnes of mercury catalyst globally. In most cases, polyurethane waste is subject to unspecific waste disposal and therefore represents significant risks of emissions and releases to the environment.

There are in some cases health concerns associated with non-mercury alternatives. For example, zinc neodecanoate is reported to cause potential irritation to skin and eyes. In addition, there are some adverse effects associated with ingestion of zinc and bismuth. However, bismuth and zirconium are not considered to be skin irritants (ibid).

One of the primary environmental concerns associated with the use of mercury in polyurethane elastomers is the contamination of municipal waste streams and waste incinerators. This contamination is likely to contribute towards atmospheric mercury releases (COWI, 2008), as well as being toxic to aquatic organisms (Norwegian Climate and Policy Agency, 2010). In contrast, mercury-free alternatives have minimal impact on the toxicity of aquatic organisms.

In relation to both health and environmental impacts, mercury-free alternatives have minimal impact relative to mercury.

Examples of regional or national restrictions

In the EU, Regulation (EC) No 2017/852 prohibits manufacturing processes in which mercury or mercury compounds are used as a catalyst from 1 January 2018.

Before Regulation (EC) No 2017/852 came into effect, national legislation in Norway exceeded EU-level restriction, prohibiting the production, use and sale of mercury compounds, which include polyurethane elastomers using mercury (COWI, 2008).

In 2017, Japan implemented the Mercury Pollution Prevention Act, which adopts measures in line with the Minamata Convention, as well as additional stricter measures. In the National Implementation plan, Japan states that 'no manufacturing process using mercury catalysts has been found in the polyurethane production processes' (Mercury Convention, 2017, p. 16).

References

- BIBLIOGRAPHY ChemEurope, 2019. Polyurethane. Available at: <https://www.chemeurope.com/en/encyclopedia/Polyurethane.html>.
- COWI, 2008. *Options for reducing mercury use in products and applications, and the fate of mercury already circulating in society*. [Online] Available at: http://ec.europa.eu/environment/chemicals/mercury/pdf/EU_Mercury_Study2008.pdf
- ISOPA, 2009. Personal communication with Wolfram Frank, ISOPA Secretary General/ALIPA Sector Manager. *European Aliphatic Isocyanates Producers Association (ALIPA) and the European trade association for producers of diisocyanates and polyols (ISOPA)*.
- Mercury Convention, 2017. National Implementation Plan for Preventing Environmental Pollution of Mercury and Mercury Compounds. Available at: http://www.mercuryconvention.org/Portals/11/documents/NIP/Japan_NIP_EN.pdf.
- Minister of Justice, 2019. Products Containing Mercury Regulation. Available at: <https://laws-lois.justice.gc.ca/PDF/SOR-2014-254.pdf>.



Norwegian Climate and Policy Agency, 2010. Annex XV Restriction Report: Proposal for a Restriction.

Available at:

https://echa.europa.eu/documents/10162/13641/annex_xv_restriction_report_phenylmercury_compounds_en.pdf.

US EPA, 2015. Petition to promulgate reporting rules for mercury manufacturing, processing, and importation under Section 8(a) of the Toxic Substances Control Act. *Available at:*

https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2015-09/documents/2015-06-24-tsca_hg_reporting_petition-final_0.pdf.

World Bank, 2019. Capacity Strengthening for Implementation of Minamata Convention on Mercury Project.

Available at: <http://projects.worldbank.org/P151281?lang=en>.



II. EU SUBMISSION ON DENTAL AMALGAM

The EU is pleased to share with the Minamata Convention Secretariat a study it has commissioned to gather information on the feasibility of phasing out dental amalgam. The final report² of the study provides the basis for the assessment of the technical and economic feasibility of a phase out of dental amalgam and documents its environmental implications.

The study collected information on the use of dental amalgam and mercury-free alternatives, implications for the organisation of health services in EU Member States and dental amalgam phase down plans established by Member States under Article 10(3) of Regulation 2017/852 on mercury³.

Extensive data collection included the review of scientific articles and reports, EU-wide data collection through an online survey and interviews. A workshop gathering experts from EU Member States and stakeholders (dentistry organisations, NGOs) organised in January 2020 validated the preliminary findings of the study, and provided additional input to improve the modelling and conclusions.

Whilst the whole report may be of relevance to the Minamata intersessional process on dental amalgam, a short summary is provided below.

Trends of the use of dental amalgam

Dental amalgam has been used as a restorative material for centuries, in order to fill cavities caused by tooth decay and to repair tooth surfaces. It is an alloy of mercury and other metals (e.g. silver, tin, copper).

Dental amalgam is the largest remaining use of mercury in the EU. The estimated annual demand for dental amalgam (EU28) amounted to 27-58 t of mercury in 2018. This represents a significant decrease, by approximately 43%, compared to the previous estimate 55-95 t of mercury a year in 2010⁴. It is estimated that in 2018, approximately 372 million dental restorations were carried out in EU28. Of these, only between 10% and 19% would have used dental amalgam. This share however varies significantly among Member States.

Increasing consumer awareness of the environmental and associated indirect health effects of dental amalgam, as well as more desirable aesthetics of alternative materials, appear to be main drivers for the decreasing use of dental amalgam.

Dental amalgam use is expected to decrease by approximately 70% between 2018 and 2030. The use in 2030 would be approximately 8-17 t of mercury.

Viabilidad económica

The progressive substitution of dental amalgam with mercury-free materials (such as e.g. composite resins, ceramics, and glass ionomer cements) is already taking place. The overwhelming majority of EU manufacturers (95%) produce mercury-free materials, which represent a major share of the market.

The difference between the prices of dental restorations per type of material is relatively small due to improvements in mercury-free restoration techniques. Furthermore, the price difference between dental amalgam and mercury-free materials has decreased.

² [Study on assessment of the feasibility of phasing out dental amalgam.](#)

³ Regulation (EU) 2017/852 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 17 May 2017 on mercury, and repealing Regulation (EC) No 1102/2008 (OJ L 137, 24.05.2017).

⁴ [Bio Intelligence Service \(2012\), Study on the potential for reducing mercury pollution from dental amalgam and batteries.](#)



Technical feasibility

Given the high use of mercury-free materials across the EU, it can be assumed that the vast majority of dental facilities in the EU already have the equipment required for mercury-free restorations and that most, if not all dentists, master the necessary techniques.

Evidence has shown that mercury-free materials exhibit satisfactory mechanical properties, with a lower cavity preparation requirement for composites⁵ as well as better aesthetics⁶. Four main factors influence the longevity of a filling: the material, the method of restoration, the dentist's skills and the patient's dental hygiene. Mercury free materials are nowadays of good quality, effective restoration methods are widely available and dental schools are increasingly teaching the necessary skills. Dental hygiene should continue improving thanks to public health communication. Hence, the longevity of restorations should further improve.

Dentist representative organisations have however expressed concerns regarding a lack of available information on mercury-free materials, as well as the safety profile and biocompatibility of certain materials, some of which contain Bisphenol A (BPA) and nano-sized particles (particles with a size from 1 to 100 nm). Due to a lack of comprehensive scientific evidence, the potential direct and indirect impacts of mercury-free materials remain uncertain. Available scientific reviews concluded that release of BPA from certain dental materials was associated with only negligible health risks⁷ and exposure to BPA is within the Tolerable Daily Intake⁸. However, the 2015 BPA risk assessment by the European Food Safety Authority, which reduced the Tolerable Daily Intake for BPA from 50 to 4 µg/kg bw/day, is currently under review.

Aspectos ambientales

Dental amalgam causes significant emissions of mercury to air, water and soil.

Emissions to air were estimated⁹ to be 19 t over the dental amalgam life cycle (2012, EU27¹⁰). Emissions to water¹¹ by dental clinics were estimated to be 3 t (2010, EU27), which will reduce as the Regulation mandates dental practices to be equipped with high level retention dental amalgam separators.

The presence of mercury in wastewaters is problematic for the residues (sludge) from urban wastewater treatment plants. Depending on the type of wastewater treatment, mercury may end up in sludge from wastewater plants. Mercury emissions from dental amalgam to soil, estimated at 8 t (2010, EU27), are primarily due to the spreading on land of such sludge.

⁵ Mulligan, S., et al. "The environmental impact of dental amalgam and resin-based composite materials." *British Dental Journal* 224.7 (2018): 542.

⁶ Milosevic, Milos. "Polymerization mechanics of dental composites—advantages and disadvantages." *Procedia Engineering* 149 (2016): 313-320.

⁷ [SCENIHR, 2015. Scientific opinion on the Safety of Dental Amalgam and Alternative Dental Restoration Materials for Patients and Users.](#)

⁸ Bisfenol a i dentala material socialstyrelsen, 2015.

⁹ [BIO Intelligence Service \(2012\). Study on the potential for reducing mercury pollution from dental amalgam and batteries.](#)

¹⁰ Does not include Croatia that joined the EU in 2013.

¹¹ Mercury passes from the dental clinics through waste water treatment plants. Treatment technologies employed reach different removal efficiencies, and mercury, as other heavy metals tend not degrade but to adsorb in sludge. (Pistocchi et al. 2019; Hargraeves et al. 2016).