

Hydrate Remediation

20.4 Hydrate Remediation

Like the kinetics of hydrate formation, hydrate dissociation is a poorly understood subject and applying laboratory observations to field predictions has proven difficult. Part of the reason is the complicated interplay of flow, heat transfer, and phase equilibria. The dissociation behaviour of hydrate depends on the hydrate size, porosity, permeability, volume of occluded water, "age" of the deposit, and local conditions such as temperature, pressure, fluids in contact with the plug, and insulation layers over the pipeline. Hydrate remediation techniques are similar to hydrate prevention techniques, which include,

- Depressurization from two sides or one side, by reducing pressure below hydrate pressure at ambient temperature, the hydrate will become thermodynamically unstable.
- Thermodynamic inhibitors; the inhibitors can essentially melt blockages with direct hydrate contact.
- Active heating; by increasing temperature to above the hydrate dissociation temperature and providing significant heat flow to relatively quickly dissociate a blockage.
- Mechanical methods; drilling, pigging or scraping have been attempted, but are generally not recommended. thruster or pig inserted from surface vessel with coiled tubing through a work-over riser at launchers. Melting by jetting with MEG.
- Pipeline segment replacement.

20.4.1 Depressurization

Depressurization is the most common technique used to remediate hydrate blockages in production systems. Rapid depressurization should be avoided because it can result in JT cooling, which can worsen the hydrate problem and form ice. From both safety and technical standpoints, the preferred method to dissociate hydrates is to depressurize from both sides of the blockage. If only one side of a blockage is depressurized, then a large pressure differential will result across the plug, which can potentially create a high speed projectile.

When pressure surrounding a hydrate is reduced below dissociation pressure, hydrate surface temperature will cool below seabed temperature, and heat influx from the surrounding ocean will slowly melt the hydrate at the pipe boundary. Lowering pressure also drops hydrate formation temperature and helps prevent more hydrates from forming in the rest of the line. Because most gas flowlines are not insulated, hydrate dissociation can be relatively fast due to higher heat flux from pipeline surface, as compared to an insulated or buried flowline.

20.4.2 Thermodynamic Inhibitors

Thermodynamic inhibitors can be used to melt hydrate blockages. The difficulty of applying inhibitors lies in getting the inhibitor in contact with the blockage. If the injection point is located relatively close to the blockage, as may be the case in a tree or manifold, then simply injecting the inhibitor can be effective. Injecting inhibitor may not always help with dissociating a hydrate blockage, but it may prevent other hydrate blockages from occurring during remediation and restart.

If the blockage can be accessed with coiled tubing, then methanol can be pumped down the coiled tubing to the blockage. In field applications, coiled tubing has reached as far as 14800 ft in remediation operations, and industry is currently targeting lengths of 10 miles.

20.4.3 Active Heating

Active heating can remediate hydrate plugs by increasing temperature and heat flow to the blockage; however, safety concerns arise when applying heat to a hydrate blockage. During the dissociation process, gas will be released from the plug. If the gas is trapped within the plug, then the pressure can build and potentially rupture the flowline. Heating evenly applied to a flowline can provide a safe, effective remediation.

Active heating can remediate a block age within hours, whereas depressurization can take days or weeks. The ability to quickly remediate hydrate blockages can enable less conservative designs for hydrate prevention.

20.4.4 Mechanical Methods

Pigging is not recommended for removing a hydrate plug because they can compress the plug, which will compound the problem. If the blockage is complete, it will not be possible to drive a pig. For a partial blockage, pigging may create a more severe blockage.

20.4.5 Safety Considerations

Knowledge of the location and length of a hydrate blockage is very important in determining the best approach to remediation, although the methodology is not well defined, This information facilitates both safety considerations in terms of distance from the platform and time necessary to dissociate the blockage.

When dissociating a hydrate blockage, operators should assume that multiple plugs may exist both from safety and technical standpoints. The following two important safety issues should be kept in mind:

- Single sided depressurization can potentially launch a plug like a high-speed projectile and result in ruptured flowlines, damaged equipment, release of hydrocarbons to the environment, and/or risk to personnel.
- Actively heating a hydrate blockage needs to be done such that any gas released from the hydrate is not trapped.

Thermodynamic Hydrate Inhibitors			Kinetic Hydrate Inhibitors		Anti-Agglomerant Inhibitors	
Applications						
1.	Multiphase	1.	Multiphase	1.	Multiphase	
2.	Gas & Condensate	2.	Gas & Condensate	2.	Condensate	
3.	Crude Oil	3.	Crude Oil?	3.	Crude Oil	
			Benefits			
1.	Robust & effective	1.	Lower OPEX/CAPEX	1.	Lower OPEX/CAPEX	
2.	Well understood	2.	Low volumes (< 1 wt%)	2.	Low volumes (< 1wt%)	
3.	Predictable	3.	Environmentally friendly	3.	Environmentally friendly	
4.	Proven track-record	4.	Non-toxic	4.	Non-toxic	
		5.	Tested in gas systems	5.	Wide range of subcooling	
			Limitations			
1.	Higher OPEX/CAPEX	1.	Limited subcoolings (<10°C)	1.	Time dependency?	
2.	High volumes (10-60 wt%)	2.	Time dependency	2.	Shutdowns?	
3.	Toxic / hazardous	3.	Shutdowns	3.	Restricted to lower watercuts	
4.	Environmentally harmful	4.	System specific - testing	4.	System specific - testing	
5.	Volatile - losses to vapour	5.	Compatibility	5.	Compatibility	
6.	'Salting out'	6.	Precipitation at higher temps	6.	Limited experience	
		7.	Limited exp. in oil systems	7.	No predictive models	
		8.	No predictive models			

Table 20.3 Summary of applications, benefits & limitations of chemical Inhibitors (Pickering et al.).







E.D. Sloan, C.A. Koh 2008 283

Hydrate in the Solar system

- Ubiquitous presence in the Universe?
 - CO₂ and CH₄ clathrates on Mars
 - CH₄ clathrates on Titan
 - Source of plumes on Saturn's moon
 Enceladus
 - Clathrates in Halley's comet



W. L. Mao Stanford University











Figure 3. Proposed progression of hydrate formation. [Modified from Brooks et al. (1986).]

Production test of Mallik 2002 as hydrate production research well program



How can we recover natural gas hydrate?

We do not yet know how to recover gas from natural hydrate. We are not aware of a really practical proposal for how to recover methane from natural hydrate. We do know that there are formidable technical difficulties: (a) Although the total gas amounts are huge, most natural hydrate represents a quite low energy density; (b) substantial latent heat must be provided for dissociation; (c) the sediments are often fine grained, unconsolidated, and low permeability silts.

There are four main possibilities:

- 1. add heat and raise the temperature to out of the stability field
- depressurize the section by pumping, especially within the free gas below the BSR. The hydrate may then dissociate downward into the low pressure gas layer. However, the dissociation latent heat still must be provided
- 3. add antifreeze such as methanol; it may be possible to recover the methanol with the gas for re-use
- 4. replace the methane in the hydrate with CO_2 . An intriguing possibility is to inject the unwanted greenhouse gas CO_2 into natural methane hydrate deposits where it forms CO_2 hydrate in exchange for methane gas which, in turn, is recovered. CO_2 hydrate appears to be more energetically favourable than methane hydrate so such a replacement should occur. This an attractive way to get rid of troublesome CO_2 and recover valuable methane.

Although there are no clear answers today, it is worth remembering that many years were required to develop the technology for economic recovery of many other resources; tar sands are an example. Sometimes the answers come very quickly, sometimes only after many years. Gas hydrate is a very large potential resource, it just needs some very bright people with new ideas to find the solutions.

Liquid Hydrocarbons

The K-factor method is designed for calculations involving a gas and a hydrate. In order to extend this method to liquid hydrocarbons, the vapor-liquid K-factor should be incorporated. For the purposes of this book, these K-factors will be denoted K_V to distinguish them from the K-factor defined earlier. Therefore

$$K_{vi} = \frac{y_i}{x_i}$$
(3-8)

where x_i is the mole fraction of component i in the nonaqueous liquid.

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1.	Input the temperature, T.
2.	Input the vapor composition, yi.
з.	Assume a value for the pressure, P.
4.	Set the K-factors for all nonformers to infinity.
5.	Given P and T, obtain K-factors from the Katz charts (or from correlations) for the hydrate-forming components in the mixture.
6.	Calculate the summation:
	$\sum y_i/K_i$
	Note for nonformers the expression $\boldsymbol{y}_i/\boldsymbol{K}_i$ is zero.
7.	Does the summation equal unity?
	That is, does $\sum y_i/K_i = 1$?
	7a. Yes - Go to Step 10. 7b. No - Go to Step 8.
8.	Update the pressure estimate.
	8a. If the sum is greater than 1, reduce the pressure. 8b. If the sum is less than 1, increase the pressure. 8c. Use caution if the sum is significantly different from 1.
9.	Go to Step 4.
10.	Convergence! Current P is the hydrate pressure.
11.	Stop.

Figure 3-3. Pseudocode for performing a hydrate pressure estimation using the Katz K-factor method

Computer methods

From a thermodynamic point of view, the hydrate formation process can be modeled as taking place in two steps. The first step is from pure water to an empty hydrate cage. This first step is hypothetical, but it is useful for calculation purposes. The second step is filling the hydrate lattice. The process is as follows:

pure water (α) \rightarrow empty hydrate lattice (β) \rightarrow filled hydrate lattice (H)

The change in chemical potential for this process is given as:

$$\mu^{H} - \mu^{\alpha} = (\mu^{H} - \mu^{\beta}) + (\mu^{\beta} - \mu^{\alpha})$$
(4-1)

where μ is the chemical potential and the superscripts refer to the various phases. The first term after the equals sign represents the stabilization of the hydrate lattice. The variation in the models used to estimate this term separates the various models. The second term represents a phase change for the water and can be calculated by regular thermodynamic means. This term is evaluated as follows:

$$\frac{\mu^{\beta} - \mu^{\alpha}}{RT} = \frac{\Delta\mu(T, P)}{RT} = \frac{\Delta\mu(T_{O}, P_{O})}{RT_{O}} - \int_{T_{O}}^{T} \frac{\Delta H}{RT^{2}} dT + \int_{P_{O}}^{P} \frac{\Delta v}{R\overline{T}} dP \qquad (4-2)$$

where R is the universal gas constant, T is the absolute temperature, P is the pressure, H is the enthalpy, v is the molar volume, the subscript O represents a reference state, and the Δ terms represent the change from a pure water phase (either liquid or ice) to a hydrate phase (either Type I or II). The bar over the temperature in the last term indicates that this is an average

The first model for calculating hydrate formation was that of van der Waals and Platteeuw (1959). They postulated a statistical model for hydrate formation. The concentration of the nonwater species in the hydrate was treated in a manner similar to the adsorption of a gas onto a solid. For a single guest molecule, this term is evaluated as follows:

$$\mu^{H} - \mu^{\beta} = RT \sum_{i} v_{i} ln(1 - Y_{i})$$
(4-3)

where v_i is the number of cavities of type i and Y is a probability function. The Y is the probability that a cavity of type i is occupied by a guest molecule and is given by:

$$Y_i = \frac{c_i P}{1 + c_i P} \tag{4-4}$$

The c_i in this equation is a function of the guest molecule and the cage occupied, and P is the pressure. Although it is not obvious from this discussion, the c_i 's are also functions of the temperature.

Parrish and Prausnitz

The approach of the original van der Waals and Platteeuw (1959) method provided a good basis for performing hydrate calculations, but it was not suf-

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ficiently accurate for engineering calculations. One of the first models with the rigor required for engineering calculations was that of Parrish and Prausnitz (1972). There are two major differences between the original van der Waals and Platteeuw (1959) model and that proposed by Parrish and Prausnitz (1972). First, they extended the model to multicomponent mixtures of hydrate formers. This is done as follows:

$$\mu^{\mathrm{H}} - \mu^{\beta} = \mathrm{RT}\sum_{i} \nu_{i} ln \left(1 - \sum_{\mathrm{K}} Y_{\mathrm{K}i}\right)$$
(4-5)

where the second sum is over all components. The probability function for a component becomes:

$$Y_{Ki} = \frac{c_i P_K}{1 + \sum_i c_{ij} P_j}$$
(4-6)

Second, Parrish and Prausnitz (1972) replaced the partial pressure in Equation 4-6 with the fugacity. There is no simple definition for the thermodynamic concept of fugacity. Usual definitions given in thermodynamics textbooks rely on the chemical potential, which is an equally abstract quantity. For our purposes, we can consider the fugacity as a "corrected" pressure, which accounts for nonidealities. Substituting the fugacity into Equation 4-6 results in:

$$Y_{Ki} = \frac{c_i \hat{f}_K}{1 + \sum_i c_{ij} \hat{f}_j}$$
(4-7)

where \hat{f}_1 is the fugacity of component i in the gaseous mixture. This allowed their model to account for nonidealities in the gas phase and thus to extend the model to higher pressures. In addition, some of the parameters in the

Ng and Robinson

The next major advance was the model of Ng and Robinson (1977). Their model could be used to calculate the hydrate formation in equilibria with a hydrocarbon liquid. First this required an evaluation of the change in enthalpy and change in volume in Equation 4-2, or at least an equivalent version of this equation.

In the model of Ng and Robinson (1977), the fugacities were calculated using the equation of state of Peng and Robinson (1976). This equation of state is applicable to both gases and the nonaqueous liquid. Again, small adjustments were made to the parameters in the model to reflect the switch to the Peng-Robinson equation. Similarly, the Soave (1972) or any other equation of state applicable to both the gas and liquid could be used; however, the Soave and Peng-Robinson equations (or modifications of them) have become the workhorses of this industry.

It is important to note that later versions of the Parrish and Prausnitz method were also designed to be applicable to systems containing liquid formers.

Calculations

Now that one has these equations, how does the calculation proceed? For now we only consider the conditions for incipient solid formation. For example, given the temperature, at what pressure will a hydrate form for a given mixture?

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First you perform the calculations assuming the type of hydrate formed. Use the equations outlined previously to calculate the free energy change for this process. This is an iterative procedure that continues until the following is satisfied:

$$\mu^{H} - \mu^{\alpha} = 0$$

Commercial Software Packages

Several software packages that are dedicated to hydrate calculations are available. Two of these are EQUI-PHASE Hydrate from D.B. Robinson and

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Associates in Edmonton, Alberta, and a program by INFOCHEM in London, England. Also, the package *CSMHYD* is available with the book by Professor E.D. Sloan (Sloan, 1998) or by contacting him directly at the Colorado School of Mines in Golden, Colorado.

Most of the popular, general-purpose process simulation programs include the capability to predict hydrate formation. This often includes warnings about streams where hydrate formation is possible. These include *Hysys* from Hyprotech (Calgary, Alberta), *Prosim* from Bryan Research & Engineering (Bryan, Texas), and *Aspen* from Aspen Technology (Cambridge, Massachusetts).





At pressure greater than 10 MPa, none of the three software packages is highly accurate. *EQUI-PHASE Hydrate* predicts a hydrate temperature that is consistently less than the correlation. At extreme pressures, the error is as much as 1°C. On the other hand, both *Prosim* and *CSMHYD* predict that the hydrate forms at higher temperatures than the correlation. At very high pressure, the errors from *Prosim* become quite large. For example, at 50 MPa (7,250 psia), the difference is larger than 2°C. With *CSMHYD*, for pressure up to 50 MPa, the errors are less than 2°C; however, as the pressure continues to increase, so does the observed error.

Ethane

Figure 4-3 shows the hydrate locus for pure ethane. This figure demonstrates that this locus is different from that of methane. First, ethane tends to form a hydrate at a lower pressure than methane. More significantly,



Figure 4-3. Hydrate loci of ethane (points from correlation)



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Physical properties
Molar Masses of Some Hydrates at 0°C				
	Hydrate	Satu	ration	Molar Mass
	Туре	Small	Large	(g/mol)
Methane	Ι	0.8723	0.9730	17.74
Ethane	Ι	0.0000	0.9864	19.39
Propane	П	0.0000	0.9987	19.46
Isobutane	II	0.0000	0.9987	20.24
CO ₂	Ι	0.7295	0.9813	21.59
H ₂ S	Ι	0.9075	0.9707	20.87
Note: Calculated using Equation 8-1.				
The saturation values were calculated using				
CSMHYD.				

 Table 8-1

 Molar Masses of Some Hydrates at 0°C

$$M = \frac{N_{w}M_{w} + \sum_{j=1}^{c} \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_{ij}v_{i}M_{j}}{N_{w} + \sum_{j=1}^{c} \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_{ij}v_{i}}$$
(8-1)

where N_w is the number of water molecules per unit cell (46 for Type I and 136 for Type II), M_w is the molar mass of water, Y_{ij} is the fractional occupancy of cavities of type i by component j, v_i is the number of type i cavities, n is the number of cavity types (2 for both Type I and II, but 3 for Type H), and c is the number of components in the cell.

Density

The density of a hydrate, ρ , can be calculated using the following formula:

$$p = \frac{N_{w}M_{w} + \sum_{j=1}^{c} \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_{ij}v_{i}M_{j}}{N_{A}V_{cell}}$$
(8-2)

where N_w is the number of water molecules per unit cell (46 for Type I and 136 for Type II), N_A is Avogadro's number (6.023 × 10²³ molecules/mole), M_w is the molar mass of water, Y_{ij} is the fractional occupancy of cavities of type i by component j, v_i is the number of type i cavities, V_{cell} is the volume of the unit cell (see Table 2-1), n is the number of cavity types (2 for both Types I and II, but 3 for Type H), and c is the number of components in the cell.

Equation 8-2 can be reduced for a single component in either a Type I or Type II hydrate to:

$$\rho = \frac{N_{W}M_{W} + (Y_{I}v_{1} + Y_{2}v_{2})M_{j}}{N_{A}V_{cell}}$$
(8-3)

Densities of Some Hydrates at 0 C					
	Hydrate Type	Density (g/cm³)	Density (lb/ft ³)		
Methane	I	0.913	57.0		
Ethane	I	0.967	60.3		
Propane	П	0.899	56.1		
Isobutane	II	0.934	58.3		
CO ₂	Ι	1.107	69.1		
H_2S	Ι	1.046	65.3		
Ice	— 0.917 57.2				
Water	— 1.000 62.4		62.4		
Note: Calculated using Equation 8-3. The saturation values were calcu- lated using CSMHYD. Properties of ice and water from Keenan et al. (1978).					

		Table	8-2		
Densities	of	Some	Hydrates	at	0°C

Enthalples of Fusion for Some Gas Hydrates				
	Hydrate Type	Enthalpy of Fusion (kJ/g)	Enthalpy of Fusion (kJ/mol)	Enthalpy of Fusion (MBtu/lb)
Methane	I	3.06	54.2	23.3
Ethane	Ι	3.70	71.8	30.9
Propane	п	6.64	129.2	55.5
Isobutane	п	6.58	133.2	57.3
Ice		0.333	6.01	143

Table 8-3						
Enthalpies	of Fusion	for Some	Gas	Hvdrates		

Note: Original values from Sloan (1998). Molar enthalpies of fusion converted to specific values (i.e., per unit mass) using the molar masses from Table 8-1.

Properties of ice and water from Keenan et al. (1978).

to a gas). For water, this is 2.83 kJ/g or 51.0 kJ/mol. This process is probably more comparable to the formation of a hydrate than the simple melting of ice.

One method for estimating the effect of temperature on the heat of fusion is the so-called Clapeyron approach. A Clapeyron-type equation is applied to the three-phase locus. The Clapeyron-type equation used in this application is:

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\ln\mathrm{P}}{\mathrm{d}1/\mathrm{T}} = \frac{\Delta\mathrm{H}}{\mathrm{zR}} \tag{8-4}$$

Heat Capacity

Limited experimental data are available for the heat capacity of hydrates. Table 8-4 lists some values. For comparison, ice is also included in this table. Over the narrow range of temperatures that hydrates can exist, it is probably safe to assume that these values are constants.

Thermal Conductivity

There have been limited studies into the thermal conductivity of hydrates; however, they show that hydrates are much less conductive than ice. The thermal conductivity of ice is 2.2 W/m·K, whereas the thermal conductivities of hydrates of hydrocarbons are in the range 0.50 ± 0.01 W/m·K.

Mechanical Properties

In general, the mechanical properties of hydrates are comparable to those of ice. In the absence of additional information, it is safe to assume that the mechanical properties of the hydrate equal those of ice. One should not

Heat Capacities for Some Gas Hydrates						
	Hydrate Type	Heat Capacity (J/g.°C)	Heat Capacity (J/mol·°C)	Heat Capacity (Btu/lb.°F)		
Methane	I	2.25	40	0.54		
Ethane	I	2.2	43	0.53		
Propane	п	II 2.2 43 0.53				
Isobutane	п	2.2	45	0.53		
Ice		2.06	37.1	0.492		
Note: Original values from Makogon (1997). Properties of ice and water from Keenan et al. (1978).						

Table 8-4

Volume of Gas in Hydrate

The purpose of this section is to demonstrate the volume of gas encaged in a hydrate. Therefore, we examine only the methane hydrate.

The following are the properties of the methane hydrate at 0°C: the density is 913 kg/m^3 , the molar mass (molecular weight) is 17.74 kg/kmol, and methane concentration is 14.1 mole percent; this means there are 141 molecules of methane per 859 molecules of water in the methane hydrate. The density and the molar mass are from earlier in this chapter and the concentration is from Chapter 2.

This information can be used to determine the volume of gas in the methane hydrate. From the density, 1 m^3 of hydrate has a mass of 913 kg. Converting this to moles 913/17.74 = 51.45 kmol of hydrate, of which 7.257 kmol are methane.

The ideal gas law can be used to calculate the volume of gas when expanded to standard conditions (15°C and 1 atm or 101.325 kPa).

 $V = nRT/P = (7.257)(8.314)(15 + 273)/101.325 = 171.5Sm^3$

Therefore 1 m^3 of hydrate contains about 170 Sm^3 of methane gas. Or in American Engineering Units, this converts to 1 ft^3 of hydrate contains 170 SCF of gas—not a difficult conversion. And 1 ft^3 of hydrate weighs about 14.6 lb, so 11b of hydrate contains 11.6 SCF of methane.

By comparison, 1 m³ of liquid methane (at its boiling point 111.7K or -161.5°C) contains 26.33 kmol, which converts to 622 m³ of gas at standard conditions. Alternately, 1 m³ compressed methane at 7 MPa and 300K (27°C) (1,015 psia and 80°F) contains 3.15 kmol or 74.4 Sm³ of methane gas. The properties of pure methane are from Wagner and de Reuck (1996).

To look at this another way, to store $25,000 \text{ Sm}^3$ (0.88 MMSCF) of methane requires about 150 m^3 (5,300 ft³) of hydrates. This compares with 40 m^3 (1,400 ft³) of liquefied methane or 335 m^3 (11,900 ft³) of compressed methane.

Session 15: Pigging and Slug Catchers

Different flow pattern in a vertical flow





Different flow pattern in a horizontal flow



Hydrodynamic parameters in a slug flow



Total pressure gradient as a function of slug parameters.

$$\left(\frac{\mathrm{d}p}{\mathrm{d}L}\right)_{el} = \rho_{LS}g\left(\frac{L_{LS}}{L_{SU}}\right), \qquad (4.298)$$

where the slip density for the gas/liquid mixture in the liquid slug is

$$\rho_{LS} = \rho_L H_{LLS} + \rho_s (1 - H_{LLS}). \quad (4.299)$$

The acceleration pressure-gradient component is related to the amount of energy required to accelerate the liquid film, which is initially flowing downward, to the existing upward in-situ liquid velocity in the liquid slug.

$$\left(\frac{\mathrm{d}p}{\mathrm{d}L}\right)_{acc} = \rho_L \frac{H_{LTB}}{L_{SU}} (v_{LTB} + v_{TB}) (v_{LTB} + v_{LLS}). \quad \dots \quad (4.300)$$

For a fully developed Taylor bubble, H_{LTB} and v_{LTB} are the average liquid holdup and film velocity in the entire film zone, respectively. The friction pressure gradient is obtained from

where the Fanning friction factor, f', is determined by the method presented in Chap. 2. The corresponding Reynolds number for the slug body is determined by Eq. 4.280, where ρ_{TP} is replaced by ρ_{LS} , the slug-body slip density given by Eq. 4.299.

The total pressure gradient for the slug-flow pattern then can be expressed by combining Eqs. 4.298 through 4.301 to obtain

Various types of slugs

- Terrain slugs
- Hydrodynamic slugs
- Riser based slugs
- Pigging slugs

Why slug flow?

- Frequently observed
- Leads to higher pressure gradient
- Causes Mechanical damage
- Can decrease the production rate
- Leads to a chaotic and intermittent flow

At Low Flow Rates Liquid Accumulates in the Flowline Increasing the Pressure Drop



Liquid Holdup Depends on Flowline Geometry and Flowrate



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Liquid Holdup Can Lead to Liquid Slugging

- There are two types of slugging:
 - Hydrodynamic: Induced by the holdup and superficial velocities
 - Terrain: Induced by geometry changes in which liquid can accumulate
- In Real Flowlines, Hydrodynamic and Terrain Slugs Can Interact:
 - Difficult to predict slug length and frequency
- Slugging can lead to surges of liquid that can overwhelm slugcatchers
- Liquid holdup leads to increased pressure drops and reduced flow
- Pigs can be used to periodically remove liquid from the flowline

Hydrodynamic Slugging is Predicted by a Flow Map



Hydrodynamic Slugging Depends on the Inclination of the Flowline



Hydrodynamic Slugging is Well Understood

• The frequency of hydrodynamic slugging can be estimated from the Shea correlation:

$$F_{sL} = \frac{0.68 \cdot U_{SL}}{D^{1.2} \cdot L^{0.6}}$$

 $F_{sL} = slug frequency$ (1/s) (= no of slugs/observation time period)

D = pipeline diameter (m)

L = pipeline length (m)

- U_{sL} = superficial liquid velocity (m/s)
- Mild terrain effects can be accounted for with a fudge factor "Delay Constant"

Shea, R.H., Rasmussen, J., Hedne, P. and Malnes, D.: Holdup predictions for wet-gas pipelines compared. Oil & Gas Journal, May 19, 1997

Terrain Slugging is More Complex

Terrain or "severe" slugging causes large surges in pressure and liquid

- A: Liquid bridges a low spot in the flowline
- B: Upstream pressure builds up
- C: Pressure pushes liquid accumulation out of the low spot
- D: The pressure accumulation is released



Terrain Slugging is often Periodic

• Often characterized by a buildup and release of the liquid



Hydrodynamic Slugs Can Interact with the Terrain Slugs



Slugging can be Induced by Transient Operations

Rate Changes:

• Increasing flowrate reduces holdup



Restart:

During shutin, liquid settles in dips



A-Liquid Distribution After Shutdown



Modeling Slug Flow

- Accurate modeling slug formation and behavior is complex
- Requires tracking of the slug front and tail of each slug
- Slugs grow in inclined flow and shrink in declined flow



Without "Slugtracking" OLGA is Poor at Predicting Slug Length and Frequency



Slug catches: a simple multiphase separator

Slug Catchers Can be Huge

- Often the largest part of a gas terminal.
- Must be able to catch the largest slugs from the pipeline and allow time for the liquid to be processed.





Horizontal Slug Catcher Vessel

- Can give small particle separation (10 microns) where there is more liquid and lower gas flow.
- Useful as three phase separator.
- Becomes expensive and heavy when large sizes are required.
- Good separation up to 5 700 bbls. slug size.



Vertical Slug Catcher Vessel

- Useful where small particle separation (10 microns) is required and gas flow is large in relation to liquid slug size.
- Equipment is expensive and heavy when large sizes are required.
- Good separation -- useful up to 5 700 bbls. slug size.



- Very economical where small liquid slugs are to be caught.
- Particle separation is poor and relatively unpredictable.
- Catches slugs up to 150 200 bbls.

Pipe Fitting Type Slug Catcher

This type of separation equipment typically has an impingement plate to knock out bulk liquids and a vertical column to form a gravity type separator, but it usually has insufficient area to effectively remove small particles. Normally, it is just used to catch the slugs of liquid and hold them. For economic reasons, these slug catchers are usually designed as pipe and fittings, rather than as pressure vessels.

The pipe fitting type slug catcher provides good slug separation and slug storage volume at a reasonable cost. Small particle separation is poor, but it improves at low flow rates. A slug catcher of this type can be used to protect a centrifugal type separator and the combination will give separation and slug storage capacity.

Harp type slug catcher



Slug Catcher Anatomy

The separator/slug catcher consists of several modules — distribution header, separation chambers, dry gas risers, storage harps, and liquids and sludge manifolds.

The **distribution manifold** takes the incoming gas/liquid stream, slows it down, and splits it into several smaller streams to allow uniform flow into the separation chambers.

In the **separation chambers**, the majority of the gas liquid separation is accomplished. The required length, size and number of these chambers is a combined function of gas flow, gas chemistry and other known conditions.

The Slug catcher for Troll has a Capacity of 2400 m³



Pigging

- Gas lines in particular are periodically pigged to remove accumulated liquid
- The large liquid slug is caught in a large separator called a "Slug Catcher"



Types of Pigs

- Spheres:
 - Easy to handle.
 - Can be re-inflated to compensate for wear.
 - Negotiate irregular bends.
 - Little energy for movement < 2psi.
- Foam Pigs:
 - Inexpensive and versatile.
 - Can be fitted with brushes to remove deposits.
- Steel Pigs:
 - Durable with replaceable sealing elements.
 - Can also be equipped with brushes and blades.
- Solid-Cast Pigs:
 - Light in weight, allow for longer and more efficient sealing.












Pigging a way to keep the pipeline hygienic

Double pigging system

Session 16 PIPEPHSE and OLGA



PIPEPHASE provides engineers with a graphical environment for developing and executing oil & gas production network models.



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PIPEPHASE benefits:

Analysis of Multiphase Flow Systems Field-Wide Network Simulation Time-Dependent Production Planning





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Disable Source	Cancel Help

Mandatory Data Pressure	Source Name S001	
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Device#=1	Name: E001 Type: IPR DEVICE	Desc: INCOMPLETE	






















	Ti	ubing	20 25 🖻 🚉 🕸	
Tubing Name E002 Mandatory Data Measured Wireline Depth True Vertical Depth Inside Diameter Actual Nominal Schedule	1500 ft ft Default 4.026 in 2.875 in TB01	Thermal Calculations Heat Transfer Default Changing tubing pro or angle can be simulated with multij tubing devices.	file	
Tubing Inside Rough Absolute Relative	ness 1.8000e-003 in 4.4709e-004	Pressure Drop Meth		₹ *
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ubing Name E002			u bii	
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Choke Name E003 Choke in Well Mandatory Data Choke Specification Calculate Pressure Drop	Well-head choke o	liameter.		
Inside Diameter       4.026       in         Resistance Coefficient       1.03         Specific Heat Ratio       1         Calculation Method       Fortunati			<b>₽</b> & *	☆ ☆
OK Cancel Help Link Help				
Device#=3 Name: E003 Type: CHOKE	Desc: INCOMPLET	E		

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Link <l001> Devia</l001>	ve Data	
Device#=3 Name: E003 Type: CHOKE	Desc: INCOMPLETE	



	Pipe	20 25 🖯 🔁 🕸	4
Pipe Name E004 Mandatory Data Length ft	Thermal Surfact Heat Tra	e flow line data - ote defaults.	
Elevation Change0ftInside DiameterDefault1Actual4.026inNominal4.0001	n Heat Trans	aufts Btu/hr-ft2-F	
Pipe Inside Roughness            • Absolute             • Relative	in Sphere Inside Diameter	op Method	
ОК	Cancel Help		
Device#=4 Name: E004 Type: Pl	PE Desc: IN	ICOMPLETE	<mark>}</mark> →

		Pipe	207 25 🗄	
Pipe Name E004 Mandatory Data	L 201 ft	Thermal I Heat Tra	Surface flow line data - note defaults.	
Elevation Change Inside Diameter Actual Nominal	-5 ft Default 4.026 in 4.000 in	Override U Value Ambient Tempera	Global Defaults Btu/hr-ft2-F F Heat Transfer Data	
Fipe Inside Roughner Absolute Relative	40 ***	Sphere Insid	e Diameter in	
	ОК	Cancel	Help	
Device#=4 Name:	E004 Type: PIPE		Desc: INCOMPLETE	























	Link •	<l002> Device Data</l002>	207 🕰 🗄 🔁 🏡
Tubing Name E006			
Mandatory Data Measured Wireline Depth True Vertical Depth Inside Diameter Actual	1631 ft 1515 ft Default ★ 4.026 in 2 875 ⊯ in	Thermal Calculations Heat Transfer Default Overside Global Defaults U Value Temperature Gradient	Image: Second secon
Schedule Tubing Inside Rough Absolute Relative	TB01	Heat Transfer Data Pressure Drop Meth	
		Cancel Help	
evice#=2 Name:	E006 Type: TUBIN	G Desc: INCOMP	LETE



	Link <l002> Device Data</l002>	207 23 🕑 📴 🏠
Choke Name E007 Choke Mandatory Data Choke Specification Calculate Inside Diameter 4.025 Resistance Coefficient 1.03 Specific Heat Ratio 1 Calculation Method Fortunati OK Cancel	in Well  Pressure Drop  in  Help	
Device#=3 Name: E007 Type: 0	HOKE Desc: II	NCOMPLETE

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OK     Cancel     Help       Link     Help       Help       Device#=3     Name: E007 Type: CHOKE	Desc' INCOMPLETE






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Pipe Name E00	8			pe	RA 1
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Elevation Change	207 ft	C Ovenide Global Defaults	1	PR	2
Inside Diameter	Default	U Value Btu/I	nt-ft2-F		
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Nominal	4.000 * in	l'emperature		्री	¥1
Schedule	4.000	Heat Transfer Data		*	*
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⁻ Pipe Inside Roughn	iess	Sphere Inside Diameter	ົ່າກ	••••	***
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⊖ Relative	4.4709e-004	Pressure Drop Method			2
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20 20	1042752				
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				<u></u>	
evice#=1 Name:	E008 Type: PIPE	Desc: INCOMPLETE			





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▫��⊌ਙ	Sink Name D004 Injection Well	22 605
	Pressure	*
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Time Stepping Changes         Time (day)       Data         365	<u>F</u> ile	Edit	<u>V</u> iew form Tin	Sir <u>G</u> eneral ne Steppina	nSci PIPEPHASE Simulation: DEMO2 2015 2015 2015 2015 2015 2015 2015 201
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Image: Stepping Charges         Time (day)       Data         365         730         1096         Image: Stepping Charges         Image: Stepping Charges         Stepping Charges         Reservoir/Device Name         Image: Stepping Charges         Image: Stepping Charges <tr< th=""><th><u>F</u>ile</th><th><u>E</u>dit <u>V</u></th><th>iew</th><th><u>G</u>eneral</th><th>Special Features <u>R</u>esults <u>H</u>elp</th></tr<>	<u>F</u> ile	<u>E</u> dit <u>V</u>	iew	<u>G</u> eneral	Special Features <u>R</u> esults <u>H</u> elp
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