A MATHEMATICAL MODEL FOR PREDICTION OF DOWNHOLE GAS WELL UNIFORM CORROSION IN CO2 AND H2S CONTAINING BRINES

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Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate College of the Oklahoma State University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY December, 1991



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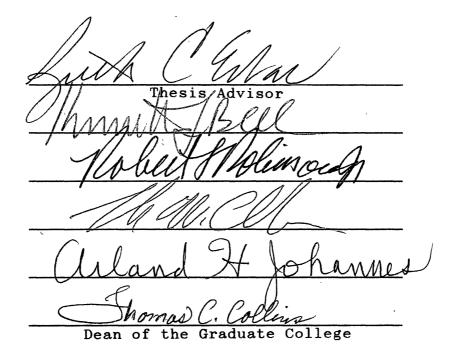
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Thesis Approved:



ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I wish to express my sincere gratitude to all the people who helped me in the course of my study at Oklahoma State University. I am deeply indebted to my thesis advisor, Dr. Ruth. C. Erbar, for her intelligent guidance, encouragement, patience, and invaluable help and support through the three years of this work. Without her help, this work would not have been possible.

I am also thankful to Drs. Kenneth J. Bell, Frank W. Chambers, Arland H. Johannes and Robert L. Robinson Jr. for serving as my committee members and for their advisement. Having the opportunity to associate with these mentors will have a permanent influence on my whole academic career.

A special note of appreciation is due for the financial support from the industrial sponsors, Amoco, Arco, Conoco, Marathon, Norsk Hydre, ORYX and Phillips, through the School of Chemical Engineering.

My wife, Jinjuan and my son, Su, deserve my deepest appreciation for their encouragement and understanding in spite of never knowing when the end of my busy days would be.

Finally, my parents deserve my admiration for their confidence in their son through thick or thin.

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NOMENCLATURE

А	coefficient in equation (3.46)
Aj	temperature coefficients of equilibrium constants
As	coefficient in equation (2.1)
Aø	Debye-Huckel parameter
В	constant in equation (2.1)
ba	anodic Tafel constant
bi	coefficient in equation (3.21)
bĸ	cathodic Tafel constant
Cı	activity of i component
Cis	activity of i component at the wall
C1 1	activity of i component at the interface of turbulent layer and diffusion layer
D	diameter of the pipe
D1	diffusion coefficients of i species
D+	dimensionless diameter Du^*/v_L
Ecorr	corrosion potential
Ee,M	equilibrium potential of anodic reaction
Ee,so	equilibrium potential of cathodic reactions
F	Faraday's constant
Fo	dimensionless group defined by equation (3.53)
f	average friction factor in the liquid film

fi	fugacity coefficients of gas phase
ftı	interfacial friction factor
g	gravitational acceleration
Н	Henry's constant
h	step size
I	ionic strength
Ii	corrosion current density
Im	mixing length
Im +	dimensionless mixing length
ia	anodic current density
iao	anodic exchange current density
ic	corrosion current in (2.1)
ic1, ic2	cathodic current densities
ic10,ic20	cathodic exchange current densities
K1,co2	the first dissociation constant of H2CO3
K2,co2	the second dissociation constant of H_2CO_3
К1 , H 2 S	the first dissociation constant of H_2S
К2, н 2 s	the second dissociation constant of H_2S
KL	mass transfer coefficient in liquid film
K+	dimensionless mass transfer coefficient, KL/u*
ks	wall roughness
ks *	dimensionless wall roughness, $k_{g}u^{*}/v_{L}$
Ksp,CaCO3	activity product of CaCO3
Ksp, FeCO3	activity product of FeCO3
Ksp,FeS	activity product of FeCO3
Kw	the dissociation constant of H2O

x

Mi	molality of i component
N1	dimensionless group defined by equation (3.56)
Nı	mass flux of i component
P	total pressure
R	radium of the pipe
R	universal gas constant
Rec	core fluid Reynolds number 4(Wg+WLE)/π(d-2δ)μc
Ref	liquid film Reynolds number,4WLF/mµLD
Reg	gas phase superficial Reynolds number
ri	core radium
Sc	Schmidt number
Sh	Sherwood Number, Kιδ/Di
t	temperature in degree C
Т	absolute temperature K
U	liquid film velocity
Uav	average liquid film velocity
Uc	gas core velocity
U+	dimensionless liquid film velocity, U/u*
ui	mobility of i species
u*	wall friction velocity $(\tau_w/\rho_L)^{1/2}$
v , ,	total volume of vapor phase
Wg	mass flow rate of gas phase
Wl e	mass flow rate of droplets
Wl F	mass flow rate of liquid film
x	droplet mass fraction in the gas phase

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У	wall coordinate
yco2	mole friction of CO2 in gas phase
ун 2 0	mole friction of H2O in gas phase
ун 2 s	mole friction of H2S in gas phase
yi	mole fraction of i component in gas phase
y *	dimensionless wall coordinate
Zı	charge number of i species
Z	axial coordinate
aa	anodic reaction transfer coefficient
ac1, ac2	cathodic reaction transfer coefficients
ß	function of Ref defined by equation (3.54)
δ	average liquid film thickness
δ1	diffusion layer thickness
δ*	dimensionless liquid film thickness, $\delta u^* / v_L$
€D	eddy diffusivity for mass transfer
ຐ	dimensionless liquid film thickness, y/ δ
η′	dimensionless wall coordinate shift in equation (3.38)
η _a	anodic overpotential
η _c	cathodic overpotential
μι	liquid viscosity
μο	core fluid viscosity, $x\mu + (1-x)\mu g$
μt	turbulent viscosity
v _L	liquid kinematic viscosity
V _t	turbulent kinematic viscosity
ρ _c	core fluid density

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ρ	liquid density
β _g	gas density
τ	shear stress
τi	interfacial shear stress
τw	wall shear stress
Φ	electric potential

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Many oil and/or gas fields produce varying amounts of carbon dioxide (CO₂), hydrogen sulfide (H₂S) and water. These gases dissolved into water form a weak acid that is found to be corrosive. The corrosive medium may cause severe downhole corrosion of various types. Fontana (1986) has classified corrosion into eight forms. Most of the eight forms of corrosion may occur downhole. Broadly speaking, downhole corrosion can be categorized into uniform and localized corrosion. Uniform or general corrosion causes overall metal loss and general thinning of metal due to chemical and/or mechanical actions. Localized corrosion has the appearance of pits or grooves.

The complication of downhole corrosion lies in the complex fluid flow and phase behavior of the well fluids. Generally speaking, a gas and/or oil well can produce three fluids (oil, water and gas). Corrosion only occurs when water phase is contact with metal. Even for those gas wells producing negligible condensate, the two-phase flow (water and gas) phenomena are not very clear in terms of the effect on corrosion. For example, almost all the experimental data on corrosion are taken from single phase

flow. How can these data be applied to downhole two phase flow?

Having CO₂, H₂S and water produced downhole, the corrosion in gas and oil production operations depends on many factors, such as CO₂ and H₂S concentration in the gas phase, system pressure and temperature, the presence of solid contamination, the properties of corrosion product film, the phase behavior and fluid velocity, two-phase flow regime, concentrations of various inorganic ions in the formation water, etc.. The influence of these parameters and interactions among them is a very important aspect in the corrosion research on oil and gas production systems.

The severity of downhole corrosion and its economic impact on oil and gas production have motivated the broad range of experimental research and field observations worldwide in the past four decades or so. National Association of Corrosion Engineers (NACE) has compiled most of the related research data up to 1985 in four books (Tuttle and Kane, 1981, Newton and Hausler, 1984, Hausler and Godard 1984, and Burke et al., 1985). A review of this literature reveals that the areas covered are mainly on the basic mechanisms, field experience in combating the corrosion problems, and empirical correlations of corrosion rate.

The prediction of downhole corrosion includes physically describing the system and the mathematical

formulation of this description. Both aspects present formidable tasks. The difficulty in setting up the physical model lies in that to the observer the downhole system is a "black box". Therefore, all the descriptions of the phenomena are, at best, "intelligently" speculative. In fact, up to this date many phenomena occurring downhole have not been understood properly. The second difficulty is obvious since handling multiphase turbulent flow, mass transfer, and multicomponent heterogeneous reactions simultaneously is mathematically a hard nut to crack. Therefore, the prediction of downhole corrosion must be from an oversimplified model with further simplified mathematical treatments.

Notwithstanding the difficulty in the prediction of downhole corrosion, the need for such prediction is still attractive for the research. As has been pointed out by Crolet and Bonis (1984), the prediction of corrosion includes not only predicting the risk of corrosion but also predicting the possibility of a lack of corrosion since, for a new well, one has to decide what materials should be used for the pipe downhole. Reliable predictions can probably reduce operating costs and completion costs. For example, using stainless steel for a noncorrosive well is a very costly luxury.

The purpose of this thesis is to develop a mathematical model that can be used to predict downhole

uniform corrosion of gas wells in CO₂ and H₂S containing brines. Here, uniform corrosion is studied because not only it is relatively simple but also it forms a basis for the further investigation of localized corrosion. Within a certain theoretical framework and the associated assumptions, this model will include most parameters that have influence on the corrosion rate mentioned previously.

The model results were compared with some experimental data. These will provide some insight into further theoretical and experimental research on downhole corrosion.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE SURVEY

The problem of downhole corrosion in CO₂ and H₂S containing brines covers a wide area and has been investigated for several decades. A survey of the literature shows that multiple parameters affect the downhole corrosion rate. Much progress has been made in basic research but many problems need to be cleared up. In terms of the prediction of the downhole corrosion rate few publications have appeared in the literature. In the following a brief description of some related work will be given.

Downhole Corrosion Phenomena

The corrosion of steel equipment in oil and gas production systems has been found to be a problem since the 1940s. Bacon and Brown (1943) reported serious cases of corrosion in some gas wells. They found that the corrosion occurred immediately downstream from the various fittings and orifice plates in the internal pipe surface. The gas produced contained about 1% CO₂ and traces of H₂S. The pH of the produced water was from 5.0 to 6.0 at the wellhead. From this information, one can reason that the damage to

the pipe is probably due to the erosion-corrosion by the highly turbulent two-phase swirling flow downstream of the fittings.

Hackermann and Shock (1947) studied the properties of the surface corrosion product layers formed on coupons exposed in the well head. They found that, qualitatively speaking, there are three types of surface layers on the For noncorrosive wells the surface layer is thin, coupons. adherent, and apparently nonporous. For corrosive wells, one type of film is made of thick, adherent, porous layers which are conducive to pit formation and cause serious problems of local corrosion. Another type of film is of thicker, porous layers which are, however, nonadherent. These findings clearly showed that the corrosion product films depend on the characteristics of the corrosive medium. This conclusion was also confirmed in laboratory experiments by Shoesmith et al. (1980) who studied the initial stages of corrosion of iron by unstirred saturated H₂S solutions at 21 °C as a function of pH.

Since the 1950s, extensive field observations have been made for downhole corrosion in aqueous CO2 and H2S solutions. A survey of the literature (Braburn 1977, Burke and Hausler 1985, Crolet 1983, Crolet and Bonis 1984, Gatzke and Hausler 1984, Hausler and Burke 1985, Houghton and Westermark 1983, Hudson 1989, Martin 1988, Rice 1989, Rogers et al. 1990, Shock and Sudbury 1951, Smith 1982,

Speel 1976, Thompson et al. 1991, Tuttle 1987, 1990, Weeter 1964, Zitter 1973) reveals that there are many factors affecting the rate of corrosion in oil and gas wells. The types of corrosion are also varied, including uniform corrosion, pitting corrosion, erosion-corrosion, hydrogen embrittlement, and stress corrosion cracking etc., depending upon the corrosive environment. The observed phenomena in downhole corrosion from the literature cited above can be summarized as follows:

- 1. The corrodent gases, H₂S and CO₂, dissolve in the water phase and acidify the water phase. The acidified water accelerates tubing corrosion.
- 2. Under two-phase flow, erosion-corrosion can occur at lower average fluid velocity than with single phase flow.
- 3. The severe localized corrosion may appear at various corrosive conditions.
- 4. The gas and water production rate have an important influence on the corrosion rate.
- 5. The inorganic ions in the brines have some influence on the corrosion rate.

This general summary is quite obvious. However, the causes of these phenomena have not been explained satisfactorily in the literature cited above.

Some authors (Shock and Sudbury 1951, Smith 1982, Zitter 1973, Tuttle 1987, 1990) believe that the partial

pressures of H₂S and CO₂ are the most important index in the prediction of corrosiveness of a well. This index is based on the observation that at lower pH (pH < 4) the corrosion rate is very high and the dissolution of H2S and CO₂ results in lowering the pH of the brine. According to this index, generally, the system is considered to be corrosive if the partial pressure of corrosive gases is above 15 psi. It may also be corrosive if the partial pressure is between 7-15 psi. Below 7 psi partial pressure the system is considered noncorrosive. It can be expected that in a system as complex as that for downhole corrosion there would be a lot of exceptions to this simple index. Therefore, Bradurn (1977) proposed water production rate as an index to determine the corrosion rate and found that this index correlated with the downhole corrosion rate better than did CO₂ partial pressure. This index has been extended (Gatzke and Hausler 1984, Hausler and Burke 1985, and Burke and Hausler 1985) to include the gas production These later authors concluded that H₂S and CO₂ rate. partial pressures and the total solids in the brines are only minor factors compared with the production rate. Furthermore, Cronet (1983) and Cronet and Bonis (1984) emphasized that, besides temperature, partial pressures of CO2 and H2S, and fluid velocity, the physical chemistry of production water is certainly an important parameter that should be taken into account. In fact, that the downhole

two-phase flow pattern probably is another factor should be considered. Johnson et al. (1991) have observed that slug flow enhances the corrosion rate by a factor of seven compared to annular flow.

These field observations and the economic impact of corrosion of oil and gas wells have provided some inspiration to study the mechanisms of CO₂ and H₂S corrosion. It is also necessary to understand the corrosion mechanisms to develop any quantitative corrosion model. Therefore, some research results for corrosion mechanisms will be discussed.

Mechanisms of Downhole Corrosion

Electrochemical Reaction Mechanisms of

H2S and CO2 Corrosion

The electrochemical reactions occurring on the tube walls have been studied for a long time to try to achieve some understanding of the phenomena. The main concern here is mechanisms of uniform corrosion. Therefore, only those research efforts related to this aspect will be discussed.

De Waard and Milliams (1975) studied the corrosion rate of X-52 carbon steel at different CO₂ partial pressures (up to 1 atm.) and temperatures (up to 80 °C). Based on the experimental evidence that a carbonic acid solution can be more corrosive than the usual mineral acid at the same pH, De Waard and Milliams explored the possible reaction mechanisms. They reasoned that the relation between corrosion current (i_c) and pH can always be shown to be of the form

$$\log i_{c} = -A_{s}pH + B \qquad (2.1)$$

with

$$A_{s} = \frac{2b_{k} - b_{a}}{b_{k} + b_{a}}$$
(2.2)

when the hydrogen ion is involved in corrosion reactions. Through measuring both the anodic Tafel constant b_{a} (b_{a} = 40 mv) and the cathodic constant (b_{k} = 120 mv) they obtained the experimental value of A_{s} to be 1.3. On the basis of this fact the authors deduced the following cathodic reaction mechanism:

$$H_2 CO_3 + e \xrightarrow{RD} H + HCO_3 - (2.3)$$

$$HCO_3 - + H^+ = H_2 CO_3$$
 (2.4)

$$2H \longrightarrow H_2$$
 (2.5)

with reaction (2.3) as rate determining step. For this mechanism a value of 1.25 is obtained theoretically for A_s , which does not differ significantly from the experimental

value of 1.3. One can easily see that the consistency of the value of constant A_s between the experimental and the theoretical value is no guarantee that the mechanism is correct. It is merely one of the possible mechanisms.

Schmitt and Rothmann (1977), based on their experimental evidence, suggested that the following reactions may occur simultaneously

$$H^{+}ad + e \longrightarrow Had$$
 (2.6)

$$H_2 CO_3 + e \longrightarrow H + HCO_3^-$$
 (2.7)

The experimental support for this mechanism is that hydrogen permeation in CO₂ corrosion is important. In fact, this mechanism is almost the same as the one proposed by De Waard and Milliams (1975) since the hydrogen evolution reaction is also included in the latter model but is not the rate determining step.

Wieckowski et al. (1983a) reexamined the mechanisms for the reduction of dissolved carbon dioxide proposed previously. The investigations used cyclic voltammetry measurements on static and rotating disk iron electrodes. They proposed that both H₂CO₃ and HCO₃- reductions occur on the metal surface through the following mechanism:

$$H_2 CO_3 + e = HCO_3 - + H_{ad}$$

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(2.8)

$$HCO_3^- + e = CO_3^- + H_{ad}$$
 (2.9)

 $(HCO_3 - or CO_3 =) + H_2O \longrightarrow$

 $(H_2 CO_3 \text{ or } HCO_3^-) + OH^-$ (2.10)

$$2 H_{ad} \longrightarrow H_2 \qquad (2.11)$$

This mechanism is an adoption of the general EC' reaction (electron transfer reactions, here 2.8 and 2.9, preceded a a homogeneous chemical reaction, here 2.10, with a nonelectroactive species as catalyst, here H₂O) (Bard and Faulkner 1980). In the framework of this mechanism, both undissociated carbonic acid molecules and HCO₃- are regenerated through "catalytic" reactions. The strong argument for this mechanism is that the cathodic current under unstirred conditions is higher than the current recorded in the stirred solutions. This is consistent with the general behavior of the EC' mechanism. However, the higher uniform corrosion rate in the static solution than in the flowing or stirred system is reported nowhere else in the literature. Therefore, the argument is not confirmed by other authors.

The mechanism proposed by Wieckowski et al. (1983a) does not contradict the mechanisms proposed by De Waard and

Milliams (1975) and Schmitt and Rothmann (1977), since it was noticed that the reduction of HCO_3 occurs only when there is a corrosion product on the surface (Wieckowski et al. 1983b). The presence of the corrosion product layer, which separates the adsorbed H₂CO₃ molecules from the active metal surface, will create a very high field strength (10^6-10^7 V/cm) within the film (Vetter 1967). This high field probably facilitates the transport of HCO₃and its reduction on the active surface. This point will be returned to later.

The mechanisms of corrosion of steel by H₂S aqueous solutions are almost the same as that of CO₂ systems. Morris et al. (1980) have investigated steel corrosion through polarization studies in aqueous H₂S systems using a rotating disk electrode cell. The basic experimental evidence showed that, in the presence of H₂S, the Tafel slopes of the anodic and cathodic processes within the pH range examined does not change but the corrosion potential of steel becomes more negative. They proposed that the following reactions may proceed simultaneously

$$2H_2S + 2e = H_2 + 2HS^-$$
 (2.12)

 $H^+ + e = H_{ad}$ (2.13)

 $H^+ + H_{ad} + e = H_2$ (2.14)

It may be noticed that this mechanism is almost the same as that in CO₂ systems (equations 2.6 and 2.7) proposed by Schmitt and Rothmann (1977).

Kawashima et al. (1976) proposed the following mechanism for corrosion of mild steel by aqueous H₂S

$$H_2 S_{ad} + e \longrightarrow HS_{ad} \qquad (2.15)$$

$$HS_{ad} - + H_{ad} + \longrightarrow H_2 S - -H_{ad} \qquad (2.16)$$

$$H_2 S - -H_{ad} \longrightarrow H_2 S_{ad} + H_{ad} \qquad (2.17)$$

Although this mechanism is based on the experimental data of hydrogen embrittlement, it can be used in the study of uniform corrosion since uniform corrosion precedes hydrogen embrittlement. In fact, the source of hydrogen for the embrittlement of steel is definitely from the corrosion reactions which release hydrogen. This is one of the mechanisms based on the estimated kinetic parameters. In this mechanism, the molecular H₂S adsorbed on the steel will act as a bridge-forming ligand for the proton discharge. They also showed that H₂S did not change the Tafel slopes of the anodic and cathodic reactions but did decrease the cathodic overpotential in acid solutions. Comparison of this mechanism with that proposed by Wieckowski et al. (1983a) for aqueous CO₂ systems (equations 2.8-2.11) shows clear similarity in terms of both H₂S and HS⁻ taking part in the surface reactions.

More recently, Iyer et al. (1990) performed cathodic hydrogen charging experiments in perchloric acid solutions with pH values of 1 and 2 with H2S. They confirmed the mechanism proposed by Kawashima et al. (1976). They also observed that H2S can slow the hydrogen recombination reaction.

Even further similarity of the mechanisms between the corrosion of steel in CO₂ and H₂S aqueous solutions can be seen from the work of Bolmer (1965), Shoesmith et al. (1980) and Wikjord et al. (1980). All these authors suggested that the overall reaction is as follows:

$$H_2S + e \longrightarrow 1/2 H_2 + HS^-$$
 (2.18)

This is identical to the mechanism proposed by De Waard and Millianms (1975) for the CO₂ corrosion system (equations 2.3-2.5).

From above discussion, it seems that the presence of H_2S and CO_2 in solutions does not change the Tafel slopes of either the anodic or cathodic processes. However, H_2S and CO_2 shift the anodic and cathodic potentials toward the more negative direction. This effect means that both H_2S and CO_2 accelerate the corrosion rate exponentially. The

reaction mechanisms always involve hydrogen evolution. The reaction path may be H_2S and CO_2 direct reduction on the metal surfaces. Under certain conditions HCO_3 and/or HSreductions could occur as corrosion reactions. H⁺ discharge may also occur to some degree in the system.

All the discussions of reaction mechanisms are based on the active wall reactions. In other words, the mechanisms proposed are applicable to the cases where no corrosion product layer was built up on the wall. As mentioned before, Wieckowski et al. (1983) have noticed that the reduction of HCO_3 only occurred when there was a corrosion product on the wall. In fact, in the corrosion processes, reactions occurring on the active wall are only part of the story. The whole picture is that after a certain period of fast reaction on the active wall there would be reaction products build-up on the wall. The corrosion products generally have two roles to play in the This corrosion product layer can corrosion processes. retard the corrosion rate by either acting as a diffusion barrier or by changing the energy status of the metal wall. On the other hand, the corrosion product layer may be porous and leave some part of metal wall in contact with corrosion medium. Under this latter circumstance, the corrosion rate may be worse than that of the whole metal wall with no product film at all owing to the galvanic coupling effect. This is the basic mechanism of pitting

corrosion (Greene and Fontana 1959, Galvele 1983) which will not be discussed here. In the following, the uniform corrosion mechanisms of steel with product films will be discussed.

Ewing (1955) made the first attempt to explain through thermodynamic theory the mechanism of steel corrosion in H₂S aqueous systems with an iron sulfide corrosion product layer. Although his starting point is quite wrong from the modern point of view and his theory does not explain experimental phenomena well, a few of his speculations are quite to the point. He realized that the changing pH will change the precipitation processes. Further, he estimated that iron sulfide deposition will change the surface potential and that the ratio of ferrous ion to sulfide ion is an important index to assess the properties of the surface and the corrosion rate.

Some of Ewing's (1955) points were confirmed by Meyer et al. (1958), who studied the relations between corrosion rates and different forms of sulfide corrosion products. Meyer et al. (1958) identified three different forms of iron sulfide as corrosion products. They assume that these corrosion products retard corrosion processes by forming diffusion barriers.

Greco and Wright (1962), Sardisco et al. (1963) and Sardisco and Pitts (1965) have made some studies of the mechanism of corrosion of steel in the H2S-CO2-H2O system.

They found in such a system that the corrosion product film consists of FeS2, FeS and Fe9S8, all of which may be formed initially. However, the number of crystallites of each compound formed and/or the rate at which each grew was probably different, depending upon the H2S concentration. They also reasoned, based on experimental data, that the overall reaction is made up of contributions from both interface reactions and from diffusion and migration of ions and electrons across the film. At low H₂S concentration the diffusion part makes the main contribution to the overall reaction and at high H_2S concentrations the mechanism of the overall reaction tends to be controlled by interface processes. This reasoning is probably wrong. Since higher H₂S concentrations will render the surface reaction faster, the diffusion effect would be more significant in the overall corrosion rate.

Recently, Shoesmith et al. (1980) and Pound et al. (1989) have made some further studies of the corrosion mechanisms for the steel in H₂S aqueous solutions. They explored the formation mechanisms of various forms of iron sulfide. Shoesmith et al. (1980) proposed that the anodic reaction occurs by the sequential chemisorption of H₂S:

 $Fe + H_2S + H_2O \longrightarrow FeSH_{ad} + H_{3O}^+$ (2.19)

$$FeSH_{ad} - \longrightarrow FeSH_{ad} + 2e$$
 (2.20)

The reaction (2.20) may take place in two one-electron steps either forming a growing solid layer of mackinawite (FeS1-x, Tetragonal) or hydrolyzing to yield a dissolved species as follows:

$$FeSH_{ad}^{+} \longrightarrow FeS_{1-x} + x SH^{-} + (1-x)H^{+}$$
 (2.21)

$$FeSH_{ad}^{+} + H_{3}O^{+} \longrightarrow Fe^{++} + H_{2}S + H_{2}O. \qquad (2.22)$$

Shoesmith et al. (1980) suggested that the anodic reaction with a protective layer is controlled by transport through the base layer of mackinawite at higher current value between pH value 4-5. Mass transfer of Fe⁺⁺ and/or H₂S within pores and cracks in this base layer is the most likely polarizing mechanism, since the anodic reaction, at least, will occur on the limited area of exposed metal. Pound et al. (1989) have confirmed the mechanism proposed by Shoesmith et al. through cyclic voltammogram experiments. They further explained the mechanism for forming different types of iron sulfide.

Eriksrud and Søntverdt (1984) have studied various effects on corrosion rates in both formation and synthetic water systems in the presence of CO₂. They found that FeCO₃ is the main constituent in the protective layer. This layer is somewhat more protective with increasing Ca⁺⁺

concentration in the solution at constant HCO3concentration. The protective layers formed can be removed by the moving gas/liquid mixture in slug flow. They believe that the corrosion mechanism is the same as that proposed by De Waard and Milliams (1975) whether there is a protective film or not. They also reasoned that the corrosion product layer forms a diffusion barrier to ion diffusion and can be influenced by instantaneous wall shear stress exerted by the fluids on the metal surface, thus causing mechanical fatigue action on the protective film.

Some other workers (Ikeda et al. 1984, 1985, Dunlop et al. 1984, Masamura et al. 1984, Hausler 1984, Xia et al. 1989, Choi et al. 1989, Valand and sjøwall 1989, Palacios and Shadley 1991, Jasinski 1987, Videm and Dugstad 1987) have made extensive studies of the corrosion mechanisms with an FeCO3 film on the metal surface. These authors' results are summarized in the following. The film composition formed on the surface is mainly FeCO3. The formation mechanisms are either by direct formation through the following reaction

$$Fe + H_2 CO_3 = FeCO_3 + 2H^+$$
 (2.23)

or through the precipitation reaction

$$Fe^{++} + CO_3^{=} = FeCO_3$$
 (2.24)

At this stage it is still hard to confirm which reaction Recent work by Palacios and Shadley (1991) dominates. showed that generally there are two layers of corrosion products on the steel surface. A "primary" (inner) layer is formed through reaction (2.23) and a secondary (outer) layer on top of the primary layer is due to recrystallization of iron carbonate reaction (2.24). Some other minor components may exist in the film. Xia et al. (1989) found that both ferrous hydrogen carbonate, Fe(HCO3)2, and iron carbonate, FeCO3, were in the corrosion product for short time exposures. More prolonged exposures may reduce Fe(HCO3)2 to FeCO3. Jasinski (1987) and Videm and Dugstad (1987) have detected iron carbide, Fe3C, in the film. Most authors believe that the film acts as a diffusion barrier. Other points of views will be discussed later.

The above authors have noticed a temperature effect for corrosion with a protective film. However, the nature of the temperature dependence is a point of division among the authors. Ikeda et al. (1984) reported three distinct temperature regions corresponding to different mechanisms. Below 60°C, a small amount of soft and nonadhesive iron carbonate forms on the surface. The surface is smooth and corrosion attack is homogeneous. In the vicinity of 100°C, where the corrosion rate is maximum under their

experimental conditions, the corrosion product was a coarse, porous thick film of FeCO3 on the substrate. As later explained by Xia et al. (1989), a porous layer of corrosion product can screen some sites on the metal surface from the attack by HCO3- ions. However, some sites are exposed to the corrosion medium, hence, galvanic couples result. In the temperature range above 150°C, the corrosion product is thin and adhesive, so that the corrosion rate is lower. Hausler (1984), however, showed that the corrosion rate is higher at 60 °C than that at both 90 and 120 °C. Valand and Sjøwall (1989) observed that below 80 °C the corrosion rate obeys Arrhenius' law with an apparent activation energy of 6.5 kcal/mol for the corrosion process. Choi et al. (1989) indicated that the corrosion rate is at its maximum at 70 °C and at 90 °C the corrosion rate is lower than that at 70 °C by a factor of These differences from different authors have not been 5. satisfactorily explained. One of the possible explanations is that the flow and mass transfer rates are different for the different researchers.

The elementary step of the corrosion process is not very clear at this stage. As repeatedly pointed out previously, most authors tried to explain the retardation of the corrosion rate by the corrosion product layer forming a diffusion resistance. From another point of view, Hausler (1984) has proposed that corrosion with a solid product film occurs by the mechanism of iron transport through a semiconductor film. However, it is very difficult to verify this mechanism quantitatively since too many parameters are unknown for the FeCO3 film to be modelled as a semiconductor film.

Mechanisms of Mass Transfer in

the Corrosion Processes

In the corrosion processes, mass transfer plays an important role. Although many publications deal with the relationship between the mass transfer and the corrosion rate, the basic mechanisms are far from being completely understood.

Pouson (1983) reviewed various mass transfer correlations between the metal and electrolyte solutions, including various flow geometries. But all these correlations are from single phase laminar or turbulent flow including the well-known Chilton-Colburn analogy. In these correlations, the effect of wall roughness on the corrosion rate is not included explicitly. However, the effect of wall roughness on the corrosion rate has long been realized to be an important factor.

Ross and Badhwar (1965) have investigated the influence of wall roughness on the corrosion rate. They found that a cavity shaped roughness with depth about 0.6 of its diameter was particularly conducive to faster

corrosion rates. This shape factor has not been explained satisfactorily.

Mahato and Shemilt (1968) in their studies of corrosion of iron by natural water confirmed the theoretical model of Levich (1962). If Levich's model can fit experimental data it would mean that the wall mass transfer in the corrosion processes is mainly due to the turbulent eddies with a size about the height of wall roughness. This conclusion can be clearly seen from Levich's theoretical analysis. When Levish's theory is applied to corrosion processes, one difficulty is to characterize the wall roughness.

Mahato et al. (1980) realized this problem and developed a more sophisticated mass transfer model for corrosion of steel pipe in aerated water. In this model, various factors have been taken into accounts, including build-up of corrosion product, growth of surface roughness, changing physicochemical properties of corrosion products and changing hydrodynamic conditions. The general mathematical model proposed fitted experimental data well. However, from the view point of corrosion rate prediction this model is quite backwards because this model needs the overall corrosion rate as a necessary input. Notwithstanding this limitation, the model does predict values for the porosity of the corrosion product and the friction factor which is in good agreement with

experimental data. They concluded that mass transfer in the damped turbulent boundary layer controls the overall mass transfer process for the time and flow rate range investigated. This is consistent with Levich's theory.

Various results have been reported about the influence of mass transfer on the corrosion rate. Eriksrud and Søntvedt (1984) found that the corrosion rate in CO2 solutions is proportional to a power of 0.3 on the Reynolds number. This probably means that both mass transfer and surface reaction have some influences on the corrosion This point can also be deduced from the work by rate. Tewari and Campbell (1979), who have studied the corrosion rate of carbon steel in 0.1 MPa H₂S aqueous solutions and found both mass transfer and dissolving FeSH⁺ contributing to the corrosion rate. Further evidence that the corrosion rate is determined by both surface reaction and mass transfer can be seen from other research results (Videm and Dugstand 1987, Postlethwaite and Lotz 1988) similar to those mentioned.

Still another mechanism has been proposed for the mass transfer in the corrosion process by Sato (1989). He proposed that a porous precipitated film of corrosion product is like an ion selective membrane. The properties of this membrane depend upon its "fixed charge," which is defined as an immobile electric charge attached to the porous wall of the product film. Depending on its fixed

charge and the mobile cation and anion concentrations, the film is termed anion-selective, cation-selective, or a bipolar membrane. According to this mechanism, the mass transfer is controlled by the properties of the film, which only selectively allow anions or cations to pass through He further reasoned that the anion-selective the film. film accelerates the corrosion rate and the cationselective film depresses the corrosion rate. A bipolar precipitate film, if anodically polarized, undergoes deprotonation and turns into a passive film. Conceptually, this mechanism can explain some corrosion phenomena well, qualitatively. However, the means of determining the kind of ion-selective film (membrance) that would be formed on the surface under given conditions is not yet available. Furthermore, quantitative characterization of the film is also a problem to be solved. Therefore, a lot of work must still be done before this mechanism can be used to predict the corrosion rate.

In summary, the mechanisms of downhole gas well corrosion can be categorized as surface reaction and mass transfer with or without formation of a product film. Probably both H₂S and CO₂ molecules take part in the surface electrochemical reactions. Under certain conditions HCO₃- and HS⁻ may also be a part of the cathodic reactions. The corrosion product formed on the surface may have some protective effect by acting either as a diffusion

barrier or as a semiconductor film, the latter of which is more difficult to describe quantitatively. The eddies with the size of the height of the surface roughness make the main contribution to the mass transfer near the wall. Corrosion rate is not totally controlled by convective mass transfer under most circumstances. The corrosion product film may be modelled as an ion-selective membrance; but much work needs to be done before one can quantitatively describe the mass transfer process through this film.

Modeling Downhole Corrosion

Crolet and Bonis (1984) have commented on the importance of prediction of downhole corrosion and its economic impact. However, using a mathematical model to predict downhole corrosion is a relatively new area. In this section, some related work will be discussed.

Robertson and Erbar (1988) made an attempt to simulate downhole corrosion. In this research, a computer model has been developed that can be used to predict downhole pressure and temperature profiles and phase behavior. Therefore, the corrosion engineer can check to see whether a water rich liquid phase exists and what two-phase flow regime exists for the specific downhole conditions. Similar research has also been done by Reinhart and Powell (1988). This model is almost the same as that of Robertson and Erbar (1988). But in Reinhardt and Powell's model both

temperature and pressure profiles are assumed to be linear and the downhole two-phase flow patterns are not calculated. Neither model calculated the downhole corrosion rate.

Later, Fang et al. (1989) developed a model that can be used to calculate downhole flow patterns, phase behavior and the single pitting propagation rate. However, in their pitting propagation model only Fe⁺⁺ ion mass transfer from pit to bulk liquid is considered. This model did not provide any criteria for the conditions of initiating pitting corrosion. Therefore, it is an oversimplified model.

Liu and Erbar (1990) proposed another model. In this model, the hydrogen ion is assumed to be key the corrosive species in H₂S and CO₂ aqueous medium. The hydrogen ion concentration is calculated through dissociation equilibrium at downhole temperatures and pressures. The model can predict the uniform corrosion rate in systems without a protective film. Although this is also an oversimplified model, it really made the first attempt to include fluid dynamics, mass transfer, and surface reaction mechanisms in a single model.

From this survey of modeling of downhole corrosion, it can be seen that prediction of downhole corrosion is in a very early stage of development. Any practical model has to take downhole fluid flow, mass transfer and surface

electrochemical reactions into account.

Summary of the Literature Survey

1). Complete understanding of downhole corrosion phenomena has not been achieved.

2). Many researchers have investigated the mechanisms of downhole corrosion. Surface electrochemical reactions involve corrosive species (H2S and CO2) adsorption and charge transfer.

3). More quantitative experimental measurements are needed concerning the transport processes through the corrosion product film.

4). A better model is needed to predict downhole corrosion. Since most of the experimental evidence shows that downhole corrosion processes have both mass transfer and surface reaction contributions, a practical model has to take these factors into account.

CHAPTER III

MODEL DESCRIPTION

Physical Model

The system downhole in a gas well can be physically described by examining the corrosion processes as follows: Natural gas with or without formation water leaves the reservoir and enters the tubing at high temperature and pressure. Owing to the temperature and pressure gradients in the well, water condensation may occur at some upper position in the well. Under most circumstances, gas flow rates are relatively high. Therefore, most of the gas wells are in annular two-phase flow. Some of these wells are in slug flow, which is more complicated than annular flow in terms of the corrosion rate prediction. For an annular flow gas well, the flow pattern is shown in Figure 1.

As shown in Figure 1, the gas flows in the center part of the tubing and the liquid moves along the tube wall as a thin film. The gas shear stress at the gas-liquid interface must be strong enough to overcome the wall shear stress and gravitational effect. When the gas shear is stronger than that the film can absorb, some liquid in the

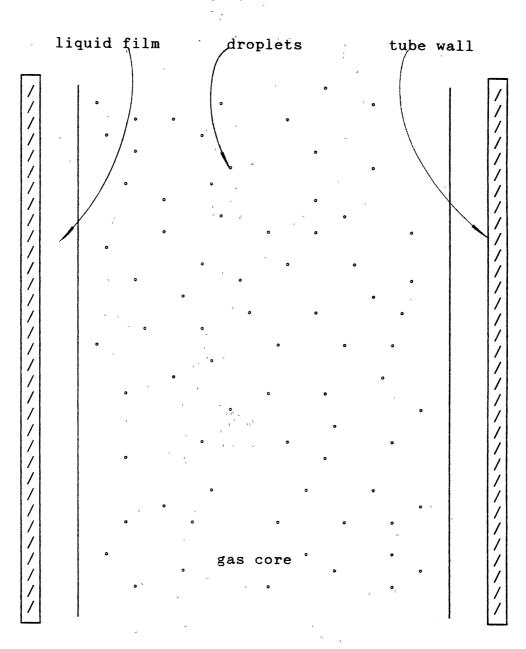


Figure 1. Schematic Diagram of Downhole Annular Two-Phase Gas-Liquid Flow

film is entrained in the gas as droplets. Once droplets are entrained, some of them will also be redeposited onto the film downstream until a dynamic equilibrium is reached.

The corrosive gases (H₂S and CO₂) will dissolve into the liquid film. The dissolved gases will disassociate into their corresponding ions, such as HS⁻, HCO₃⁻, S⁼ and CO₃⁼. These ions together with the dissolved gas species are transported to the solid-liquid interface, where corrosion may occur. At the initial stage of corrosion, a fast wall dissolution reaction occurs. A part of the dissolved ferrous ions is transported into the liquid film. Some portion of the ferrous ions will be deposited on the wall through either a direct formation reaction or precipitation. The corrosion products formed on the wall will retard the corrosion rates and increase wall roughness.

Based on the above description of the system, the following assumptions are made for the system.

- (1). Equilibrium is achieved at the gas and liquid interface, including the ion disassociation reactions.
- (2). Steady state is reached.
- (3). Electroneutrality holds through the whole liquid film and liquid and solid interface.
- (4). All the inorganic ions from formation water do not take part in the corrosion reactions but have influence on the electroneutrality.

- (5). For those wells where the two-phase flow is in the slug flow region the corrosion rate calculation can be made based on the annular flow model.
- (6). The solution can be assumed to be dilute.

Assumption (1) can be justified from the experimental results of Jagota at al. (1973), who have studied the mass transfer at the gas and liquid interface in two-phase annular flow and found that equilibrium at the interface is reached in a fairly short distance from the inlet (about 3 feet). Assumption (2) is true considering that the main time concern in the prediction of downhole corrosion is in terms of several years of time. Assumption (3) has been reasonably justified by some others (Newman 1973). Assumption (4) is not easily justified since whether chloride directly takes part in the interface reactions is not very clear. However, the main concern of this model is to predict the uniform corrosion rates. This effect probably is not as prominent as in the case of pitting corrosion. Assumption (5) can not reasonably be justified since it has been found that the wall shear stress is much higher under slug flow than under annular flow (Johnson et al. 1991) and corrosion rates are generally higher in this flow regime (Eriksrud and Søntvedt 1984, Videm and Dugstad 1987). Although this increase in the corrosion rate by flow is much more related to localized corrosion rates, its influence for the uniform corrosion rate is not very clear.

This assumption can only be removed through further study. Assumption (6) is reasonable since the ionic strength of gas well brines is generally much less than 1.0.

Based on the assumptions and descriptions of the system, the corrosion processes probably can be modelled as a three layer model as shown in Figure 2.

Interface of Gas and Liquid

Core

Gas

Turbulent Film Layer

Diffusion Layer

Corrosion Product Layer

Figure 2. Composite Structure of Corrosion Processes for Annular Two Phase Flow.

Corrosive species are transported through the turbulent liquid film layer, where turbulent mass transfer is important. This layer in the model includes most of the viscous sublayer. Further the wall roughness will also have an influence on the mass transfer in this layer as is discussed later.

In the diffusion layer, the mass transfer is dominated by diffusion and ion migration. At the initial stage of corrosion no corrosion product is formed on the metal wall. Therefore, the corrosion reaction occurring on the wall is the boundary of this layer. If there is corrosion product buildup on the wall, the corrosive ions will diffuse and migrate through the diffusion layer into the corrosion product layer. The ferrous ions from the wall will diffuse and migrate in the opposite direction.

Model Formulations

The Interface of the Gas and Liquid

The equilibrium relations at the interface of the gas and liquid can be summarized as follows:

$$H_2O(vap) = H_2O$$
 (3.1)

$$H_2 S_g = H_2 S_L \qquad (3.2)$$

 $CO_{2g} = CO_{2L}$ (3.3)

$$H_2 S_L = HS^- + H^+$$
 (3.4)

$$H_2 CO_3 = HCO_3^- + H^+$$
 (3.5)

$$HS^{-} = S^{-} + H^{+}$$
 (3.6)

$$HCO_3^- = CO_3^- + H^+$$
 (3.7)

$$H_2O = H^+ + OH^-$$
 (3.8)

From these equilibrium relations, the concentration of each species can be calculated through the necessary conditions for equilibrium.

For the molecular solute, equilibrium between the vapor phase and the liquid phase is given by

$$y_1 f_1 P = m_i \phi_1 H \qquad (3.9)$$

For disassociation reactions, we have

$$K_{1,H2S} = \frac{[HS^{-}][H^{+}]}{[H_{2}S]}$$
(3.10)

$$[S^{=}][H^{+}] = \frac{[S^{=}][H^{+}]}{[HS^{-}]}$$

(3.11)

$$K_{1, CO2} = \frac{[HCO_{3}^{-}][H^{+}]}{[H_{2}CO_{3}]}$$
(3.12)

$$K_{2}, c_{02} = \frac{[CO_{3}^{-}][H^{+}]}{[HCO_{3}^{-}]}$$
(3.13)

$$K_w = \frac{[H^+] [OH^-]}{[H_2 O]}$$
 (3.14)

The electroneutrality relation is

$$\sum_{i} Z_{1} \mathbf{m}_{1} = 0 \qquad (3.15)$$

This equilibrium system contains 12 independent variables: $H_2 S_L$, $H_2 CO_3$, HS^- , HCO_3^- , $S^=$, $CO_3^=$, H_2O , H^+ , OH^- , $y_{H\,2\,S}$, $y_{C\,0\,2}$ and the total amount of vapor V. While equations (3.9), which represent three vapor-liquid equilibria (i = H_2S , CO_2 , and H_2O), through (3.15) give nine relations, we need three additional equations. These are the element balances.

Sulfur balance

 $H_2S(in feed) = y_{H_2S}V + (H_2S_L + HS^- + S^-)$ (3.16) Carbon balance

 CO_2 (in feed) = y_{CO2} V + (H₂CO₃ + HCO₃⁻ + CO₃⁼) (3.17) Hydrogen balance

 $2(H_2O + H_2S)(in feed) = 2(y_{H_2S} + y_{H_2O})V + 2H_2O + 2H_2S$ + (HS⁻ + H⁺ + OH⁻ + HCO₃⁻) (3.18) All the equilibrium and Henry's constants for the system are taken from the work by Edwards et al. (1978) and Kawazuishi and Prausnitz (1987). The equilibrium constants are expressed as

$$\ln K_{i} = A_{1}/T + A_{2}\ln T + A_{3}T + A_{4} \qquad (3.19)$$

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The constants A_{J} (j=1,2,3,4) are given in Table I.

I

TABLE I

TEMPERATURE COEFFICIENTS FOR EQUILIBRIUM CONSTANTS

Elec- trolyte	Aı	, A 2	Аз		Range of Validity °C	
CO2	-12092.1	-36.7816	0.0	235.482	0-225	
H2 S	-18034.7	-78.0719	0.092	461.716	0-275	
HCO3 -	-12431.7	-35.4819	0.0	220.067	0-225	
HS-	-406.004	33.8889	-0.054	-214.559	0-225	
H2 O	-13445.9	-22.4773	0.0	140.932	0-225	

The Henry's constants are given by

ł

$$\ln H_1 = B_1/T + B_2 \ln T + B_3 T + B_4 \qquad (3.20)$$

with the constants B_j (j=1,2,3,4) given in Table II.

TABLE II

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TEMPERATURE COEFFICIENTS FOR HENRY'S CONSTANTS

Elec- troly		B2	В3	В4	Range of Validity °C
CO2	-6789.04	-11.4519	-0.010454	94.49	14 0-250
H2 S	-13236.8	-55.0551	0.0595651	342.5	95 0-150

The fugacity coefficients for the gas phase are calculated by the SRK equation of state. The activity coefficients for the system are adopted from the work by Kerr (1980) with the expression,

$$\log \phi_{i} = A_{\phi} Z_{i}^{2} \left[- I^{1/2} / (1 + I^{1/2}) + b_{i} I \right]$$
(3.21)

The Debye-Huckel parameter, A_{\emptyset} , for aqueous electrolyte systems is calculated by the following expression

$$A_{\emptyset} = 0.377388 + 2.5368E - 4t + 1.7892E - 5t^{2} - 3.48184E - 7t^{3}$$
$$+ 4.24739E - 9t^{4} - 2.87647E - 11t^{5} + 1.09781E - 13t^{6}$$
$$- 2.20446e - 16t^{7} + 1.82433E - 19t^{8} \qquad (3.22)$$

obtained from data correlation of Debye-Huckel parameter values reported by Bradley and Pitzer (1979). This correlation is numerically not very different from the one by Chen et al. (1982) from the same set of data but this polynomial fitting is easier to use than that by Chen et al. (1982).

The values for b_1 are all 0.3 except for a few species, which are listed in Table III.

TABLE III

VALUE OF bi FOR SOME SPECIES IN EQUATION (3.21)

Species	H+	Na ⁺	Ca+ +	C1-	, CO3 = ,	HCO3 -	HS-
bi	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

And ion strength is defined as

$$I = 0.5 \ \Sigma m_i Z_i^2 \tag{3.23}$$

Equation (3.21) can be used for ion strength up to 1M. For almost all the downhole brines, this is a valid range.

The activity coefficients of uncharged species can be calculated using the expression (Kerr 1980)

$$\log \phi_i = 0.076I$$
 (3.24)

If the system contains some other inorganic species, such as Na⁺, Ca⁺⁺, Cl⁻, the only influence of these species on the equilibrium calculation is electroneutrality under the assumption of the model. However, if the solubility product of CaCO₃ is reached, another equilibrium relation is involved.

$$K_{sp,CaC03} = [Ca^{++}] [CO3^{-}]$$
 (3.25)

The value of K_{sp} , c_{aco3} is calculated by the following expression

 $\ln K_{sp, CaCO3} = -65.92499 - 0.09288796T + 14.6247 \ln T$

-2748.51/T (3.26)

obtained from data correlation reported by Ellis (1959), Segnit et al. (1962), Langmuir (1968), Jacobson and Lanmuir (1974), Plummer and Busenberg (1982). The correlation has a valid temperature range of 0-300 °C and CO₂ pressure up to 60 bar.

With the equilibrium relations listed above the concentration of each species at the interface of gas and liquid can be calculated. The results will be used for the boundary conditions for the mass transfer calculation.

Mass Transfer Through Turbulent

<u>Film Layer</u>

As mentioned in the literature survey, although a lot of work has been done in the area of mass transfer we have found no simple correlation that can be used in two-phase annular flow mass transfer though the turbulent layer towards the wall. In the mass transfer research literature in annular two-phase gas-liquid flow much attention is paid to the gas and liquid interface (Jagota et al. 1973, Kasturi, et al. 1974, McCready and Hanratty 1985, McCready et al. 1985, Back and McCready 1988, Caussade et al. 1990, Chekhovich and Pecherkin 1987-1988). Wasden and Dukler (1990) have made a study of mass transfer from the wall for free falling wavy films. In this model, no interfacial shear stress has been considered. Therefore, it seems necessary to develop a model that considers the interfacial

shear and wall roughness in the corrosion processes. Since the mechanism of the mass transfer process under consideration is not very clear to the author the model must be speculative and can only be good within a reasonable theoretical framework.

The momentum equation for a one dimensional liquid film can be written as

$$-\frac{d\mathbf{p}}{d\mathbf{z}} + \mathbf{\rho}_{\mathrm{L}}\mathbf{g} + \frac{1}{\mathbf{r}}\frac{d}{d\mathbf{r}}(\mathbf{r} \tau) = 0 \qquad (3.27)$$

with the boundary condition:

at the wall

$$\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{R} \qquad \tau = \tau_{\mathbf{w}} \qquad (3.28)$$

Integrating equation (3.27) with boundary condition (3.28)and using the gas-liquid interface condition $(r = r_i, \tau = \tau_i)$ to remove the pressure gradient and gravitation term, we have

$$\frac{\tau}{\tau_{y}} = 1 - (1 - \frac{\tau_{i}}{\tau_{y}}) \eta \qquad (3.29)$$

where

$$\mathbf{\eta} = \frac{\mathbf{y}}{\mathbf{\delta}} \tag{3.30}$$

On the other hand, the shear stress can also be expressed as

$$\tau = (\mu L + \mu t) \frac{dU}{dy}$$
(3.31)

In the following we use a method similar to that of Vulchanov and Zimparov (1989) for single phase flow to derive a friction factor expression for two phase film flow. Equation (3.31) can be made dimensionless.

$$\frac{\tau}{\tau_{W}} = \frac{1}{\delta^{\dagger}} \left(1 + \frac{\nu_{t}}{\nu_{L}}\right) \frac{dU^{\dagger}}{d\eta} \qquad (3.32)$$

where,

$$\delta^{\dagger} = \frac{\delta u^{\dagger}}{v_{L}}$$
(3.33)

$$U^{+} = U/u^{*}$$
 (3.34)

$$u^* = (-\tau_w /\rho_L)^{1/2}$$
 (3.35)

According to Prandtl mixing-length theory the eddy viscosity can be expressed as

$$\frac{\mathbf{v}_{t}}{\mathbf{v}_{L}} = \delta^{\dagger} (\mathbf{I}_{\mathbf{n}}^{\dagger} / \delta^{\dagger})^{2} \frac{\mathrm{d}U^{\dagger}}{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{\eta}}$$
(3.36)

where Im is mixing-length and

$$\mathbf{I}_{\mathbf{n}}^{+} = \frac{\mathbf{I}_{\mathbf{n}} \mathbf{u}^{\dagger}}{\mathbf{v}_{\mathbf{L}}}$$
(3.37)

Strong interfacial shear and very thin thickness probably makes the liquid film much like a damped turbulent layer. Therefore, the expression for mixing length by Van Driest (Hinze 1975) can be used.

$$I_{m} = 0.4y[1 - \exp(-y^{+}/26)] \qquad (3.38)$$

or

$$I_{n}^{\dagger}/\delta^{\dagger} = 0.4 \eta [1 - \exp(-\eta \delta^{\dagger}/26)]$$
 (3.39)

The above treatment of the film layer does not consider the wall roughness. To include wall roughness the approach of Rotta will be used. Cebici and Smith (1974) gave a detailed review of this method. The effect of roughness is considered to be equivalent to a change in the velocity jump across the viscous sublayer. It can be represented by a shift of smooth-flow velocity profile. For rough flow, the reference plane (wall) is shifted by an amount y', and the reference plane moves with the velocity U' in a direction opposite to that of the main flow. Here dimensionless η' is expressed as (Cebici and Smith 1974).

η' = 0.9[(
$$k_g^+$$
)^{0.5} - k_g^+ exp(- k_g^+ /6)]/δ[†] (3.40)

It is noted that the wall roughness of corrosion product may not be the same as the sand-type roughness. But as there are no characterizations available for corrosion wall roughness the sand-type correlation is used in this model.

Combination of equations (3.29), (3.31), (3.34) and (3.38), after some manipulation, gives

$$\frac{dU^{\dagger}}{d\eta} = \frac{2 \,\delta^{\dagger} \,[1 - (1 - \tau_{i} / \tau_{w})(\eta + \eta')]}{1 + \{1 + 4(\delta^{\dagger})^{2}[1 - (1 - \tau_{i} / \tau_{w})(\eta + \eta')](I_{m}^{\dagger} / \delta^{\dagger})^{2}\}^{1/2}}$$
(3.41)

with boundary condition

$$\mathbf{\eta} = \mathbf{\delta}_1 \qquad \qquad \mathbf{U}^+ \approx \mathbf{0} \qquad \qquad (3.42)$$

where δ_1 is the thickness of the diffusion layer.

From the definition of the friction factor, one has

$$\mathbf{f} = \frac{2 \tau_{w}}{\rho_{L} U_{av}^{2}}$$
(3.43)

with

$$U_{av} = \frac{1}{\pi (R^2 - ri^2)} \int_{ri}^{R} 2\pi r U dr$$

$$\approx \int_{0}^{1} (1 - \eta) U' d\eta \qquad (3.44)$$

Substitution of equation (3.42) into (3.41) gives

$$\mathbf{f} = \frac{2}{\left[\int_{0}^{1} (1 - \boldsymbol{\eta}) U^{\dagger} d\boldsymbol{\eta}\right]^{2}}$$
(3.45)

Once U⁺ is calculated from equation (3.39) with boundary condition (3.40) by numerical integration of the initial value problem, the friction factor can be calculated from equation (3.43).

For the mass transfer calculation we can write the total mass flux as

$$N_{1} = (D_{i} + \epsilon_{D}) \frac{dC_{1}}{dy}$$
(3.46)

In terms of dimensionless variables, we have

Sh =
$$\frac{K_L \ \delta}{D_1}$$
 = Ref $(\frac{f}{2})^{1/2}$ Sc K⁺ (3.47)

where,

$$K^{+} = \frac{KL}{u^{*}}$$
(3.48)

In the corrosion process, the electrolyte has a Schmidt number ranging from 500 to 1500. This means that the eddy diffusivity for mass transfer varies with $(y^+)^3$ in almost all parts of the boundary layer for single phase flow (Mizushina et al. 1971). For the liquid film flow it is probably also true. Therefore, we have

$$\frac{\epsilon_{\rm D}}{\nu_{\rm L}} = A (y^{\dagger})^3 \qquad (3.49)$$

Substituting equation (3.46) into (3.44) with assumption of constant mass flux we have

$$K^{+} = 1 / \int_{\delta_{1}^{+}}^{\delta^{+}} \frac{dy^{+}}{1/S_{c} + A(y^{+})^{3}}$$

$$\approx 1 / \int_0^{\delta^+} \frac{\mathrm{d}y^+}{1/\mathrm{S}_c + \mathrm{A}(y^+)^3}$$

$$= 6 A^{1/3} S_{c}^{-2/3} \left[\frac{\sqrt{3\pi}}{3} + 2\sqrt{3} \arctan \frac{2\delta^{+} - (AS_{c}^{-})^{-1/3}}{\sqrt{3}(AS_{c}^{-1/3})^{-1/3}} + 1n \frac{[(AS_{c}^{-})^{-1/3} + (\delta^{+})]^{2}}{(AS_{c}^{-})^{-2/3} - (AS_{c}^{-})^{-1/3}\delta^{+} + (\delta^{+})^{2}} \right]^{-1} (3.50)$$

The coefficient, A, has a value $3.2-5.2 \times 10^{-4}$ (Lin et al. 1953, Mizushina et al. 1971, Granville 1990) for single phase turbulent boundary layer flow. For two-phase flow, as mentioned before, the whole liquid film can be treated as a damping turbulent layer. Hence, a medium value of A = 4.5×10^{-4} is taken.

Inserting equations (3.47) and (3.43) into (3.45), one can calculate the mass transfer coefficients with the known parameters. The parameters in the above equations involve τ_i , τ_w , δ and k_s^+ . Their estimations will be discussed in the following.

The interfacial shear stress can be calculated from the following expression (Bergles et al. 1981).

$$\tau_i = 1/2 f_{ti} \rho_c U_c^2$$
 (3.51)

where,

fti =
$$0.079 \text{Rec}^{-1/4} (1 + 360 \frac{\delta^+}{D^+})$$
 (3.52)

$$\rho_{c} = \rho_{g} \left(\frac{W_{g} + W_{LB}}{W_{g}} \right)$$
(3.53)

$$U_{c} = \frac{4(W_{g} + W_{LB})}{\pi \rho_{c} (D-2\delta)^{2}}$$
(3.54)

The film thickness is calculated by the correlation of Henstock and Hanratty (1976) with the expression

$$\frac{\delta}{D} = \frac{6.59F_0}{(1 + 1400F_0)^{1/2}}$$
(3.55)

where,

$$F_{o} = \frac{\beta}{Re_{\sigma}^{0.9}} \frac{\nu_{L}}{\nu_{g}} \left[\frac{\rho_{L}}{\rho_{g}} \right]^{0.5}$$
(3.56)

and

$$\beta = [(0.707 \text{Ref}^{1/2})^2 \cdot 5 + (0.0379 \text{Ref}^{0.9})^2 \cdot 5]^{0.4}$$
(3.57)

A method for the estimation of wall roughness is not available in the literature. Although for the corrosion of steel pipe in single phase flow, Mahato et al. (1980) gave a correlation for estimating wall roughness, this correlation needs the overall corrosion rate as an input. Hence, it can not be used for the purpose of this model. For annular flow, the film thickness is very thin. If we consider interfacial wavy flow the maximum possible height of wall roughness can only be the thickness of the continuous layer. Furthermore, if the fluctuation of the thickness of the continuous layer is considered, the wall roughness can never reach this maximum height. Based on the above reasoning, it is assumed that the wall roughness be half of the continuous layer thickness. Using the correlation for the continuous layer thickness (Dobran 1983), We have

$$k_s^+ = 70 D^+ N_1^{0.433} Rec^{-1.35}$$
 (3.58)

where,

$$N_{1} = [gD^{3} \rho_{L} (\rho_{L} - \rho_{g})/\mu_{L}]^{1/2}$$
 (3.59)

By knowing the above parameters τ_w can be calculated through the momentum balance for the liquid film with the following expression

$$\tau_{\mu} = \tau_{i} + (dp/dz - \rho_{L})\delta/2 \qquad (3.60)$$

With the above parameters estimated mass transfer through the turbulent layer can be calculated.

Mass Transfer and Ion Migration

Through Diffusion Layer

In the corrosion processes for the multicomponent systems with which we are concerned, surface electrochemical reactions will set up an electric field. We can define a very thin layer called the diffusion layer (Newman 1973) in which diffusion and ion migration are dominant. This definition is quite arbitrary since we can also put this layer into the turbulent mass transfer layer. But for multicomponent systems the mathematical treatment is intractable because of the highly nonlinear form in both the governing equations and boundary conditions. If one divides the liquid film layer into two layers as was done in this model, the system will not be very difficult to handle. According to the assumption for the diffusion layer, the mass balances in this layer can be written as

$$D_{1} \frac{d^{2}C_{i}}{dy^{2}} + Z_{i}u_{1}F \frac{d}{dy}(C_{i} \frac{d\Phi}{dy}) = 0 \qquad (3.61)$$

where,

$$u_1 = \frac{D_i}{R T}$$
(3.62)

with boundary conditions:

At y = 0, there are two types of boundary conditions. One is a so-called active wall, at which no corrosion product has formed. Another type occurs when corrosion product has formed on the wall. In the former case,

for nonreactive species,

$$D_{1} \frac{dC_{i}}{dy} + Z_{i} u_{i} FC_{i} \frac{d\Phi}{dy} = 0 \qquad (3.63)$$

and for reactive species

$$D_{1} \frac{dC_{1}}{dy} + Z_{1}u_{1}FC_{1} \frac{d\Phi}{dy} = \frac{I_{1}}{n F}$$
(3.64)

In the later case,

$$C_{i} = C_{1s}$$
 (3.65)

At $y = \delta_1$

$$C_i = C_{i1}$$
 (3.66)

Equation (3.58) with boundary conditions (3.60) -(3.61) or (3.62) and (3.63) are nonlinear equations with nonlinear or linear boundary conditions. No analytical solution is known. Therefore, the finite difference method (FDM) will be used. Before FDM is used the system equations and its boundary conditions are quasilinearized. The detailed computational method will be discussed later.

Mass Transfer Through the Corrosion

<u>Product Layer</u>

The mass transfer through the corrosion product layer can be formulated as diffusion through a porous medium. Therefore, the governing equation will be the same as expressed in equation (3.58) by using effective diffusivity instead of the diffusion coefficients. The boundary conditions (3.60) and (3.61) can also be used by making the same modifications.

Kinetics of Surface Reactions

The mechanisms of surface reactions for downhole corrosion, as discussed in the literature survey are not fully understood. Based on the literature (De Waard and Milliams 1975, Ogundele and White 1986, 1987, Morris et al., 1980 and Wieckowski et al., 1983, Wikjord et al., 1980) the following reactions are assumed to occur on the metal surface for this model.

Anode

$$Fe \longrightarrow Fe^{+} + 2e$$
 (3.67)

Cathode

$$2H_2 CO_3 + 2e \longrightarrow H_2 + HCO_3 - (3.68)$$

 $2H_2S + 2e \longrightarrow H_2 + HS^-$ (3.69)

According to the electrochemical theory of corrosion (Evans 1960), the corrosion process takes place at a mixed potential, E_{corr} . It is presumed that the Butler-Volmer expression (Newman, 1973, p17.) can be applied to the kinetics of system reactions. The following expressions

are used in the calculation of reaction current densities: For anodic reaction (3.64)

$$i_a = i_{ao} \exp\left(\alpha_a F \eta_a / \mathbf{R}T\right) \tag{3.70}$$

where,

$$\eta_a = E_{corr} - E_{e,M} \qquad (3.71)$$

and where i_{ao} , exchange current density, is a function of temperature and some other parameters. At 25°C, Bockris et al. (1961) reported that i_{ao} has values ranging from 1.1 x 10^{-5} to $3x10^{-8}$ A/cm² depending upon pH and ferrous ion concentrations. Gray et al. (1989) gave a value of i_{ao} 5.0 x 10^{-8} A/cm² at pH 4. Ogundele and White (1986) reported 1 x 10^{-7} A/cm² for this reaction. On the average, all these reported data give a value of $i_{ao} = 2.0x10^{-7}$ A/cm² at 25°C, which was used in this model. For the anodic reaction, the equilibrium potential can be derived from the Fe++/Fe electrode reaction which has an equilibrium potential (Bard et al. 1985) of

$$E_{e,M} = -0.44 + \frac{RT}{2F} \ln[Fe^{++}] \qquad (3.72)$$

For the particular case involving an H_2S and/or CO_2 solution, the activity of Fe⁺⁺ is related to the following

reactions:

reactions (3.1)-(3.8) and (3.25) in addition to

$$Fe^{++} + CO_3^{=} = FeCO_3$$
 (3.73)

$$Fe^{++} + S^{=} = FeS$$
 (3.74)

with

$$K_{sp}, FeC03 = [Fe^{++}] [CO3^{\pm}]$$
 (3.75)
 $K_{sp}, FeS = [Fe^{++}] [S^{\pm}]$ (3.76)

When all the equilibrium constants are known the equilibrium potential can be calculated.

For cathodic reactions the corrosion current is expressed as:

For reaction (3.65)

$$\mathbf{i}_{c1} = \mathbf{i}_{c10} \exp\left(\mathbf{\alpha}_{c1} \mathbf{F} \mathbf{\eta}_{c} / \mathbf{R} \mathbf{T}\right) \tag{3.77}$$

where,

 $\boldsymbol{\eta}_{c} = \boldsymbol{E}_{corr} - \boldsymbol{E}_{e,go} \tag{3.78}$

with a value of iclo taken as $4.0 \times 10^{-6} \text{ A/cm}^2$ (Gray et al. 1986) at 25°C and activation energy as 10.7 kcal/mol (De Waard and Milliams 1975). For reaction (3.66)

$i_{c2}=i_{c20}\exp\left(\alpha_{c2}F\eta_{c}/\mathbf{R}T\right)$

with the value of i_{c20} taken as 8.96 x 10^{-6} A/cm² (Morris et al. 1980) at 25°C and activation energy as 18.4 kcal/mol. (Tewari and Campbell 1979).

The equilibrium potential at the cathode can be calculated in the same way as that at the anode.

Another important parameter in the calculations of surface kinetics is the corrosion potential of the system. In the literature, no data have been found that cover the system conditions and species downhole. For a corrosion system, since there is no net current flow, the total cathodic current must be equal to the total anodic current. If it is assumed that cathodic and anodic reactions have equal surface areas over which these reactions occur, the following relation is true

$$i_a = i_{c1} + i_{c2}$$
 (3.80)

By knowing $E_{e,M}$ and $E_{e,so}$ and the other parameters discussed above, E_{corr} can be calculated through solving equations (3.67), (3.74) and (3.76) with the relation (3.77). Of course, all the reasonable values of E_{corr} must be located between the anodic and cathodic equilibrium potentials. The assumption of equal reaction areas for both anodic and cathodic reactions is not a very good one.

(3.79)

However, it is the only way known to the author to obtain the Ecorr without experimental data. For the uniform corrosion considered here this assumption is a better approximation than it would be for localized corrosion, in which the anodic reaction area is much less than the cathodic reaction area.

CHAPTER IV

NUMERICAL SOLUTIONS OF THE SYSTEM MODEL

Solution of Gas and Liquid Interface

System model equations (3.9) through (3.18) with the additional requirement

$$y_{H20} + y_{H2S} + y_{C02} = 1$$
 (4.1)

contains 13 nonlinear equations, which can be solved by the Newton-Raphson method. This method has been well documented (e.g Conte and De Boor, 1980).

For the system concerned, the initial estimation is more difficult than for the usual system of nonlinear equations since in each iteration the activity coefficients for all components have to be calculated. Making things even worse is that the analysis of brines from the field usually has some error, which causes the input inorganic ions not to be electroneutral. Physically, of course, this is incorrect. However, it is also difficult to justify which species should be adjusted. Therefore, in this model calculation is done from the direct input of analysis data if the departure from electroneutrality is less than 20%.

In this calculation, it was found that the Butler's (1964) initial scheme recommended by Zemaitis et al. (1986) was very difficult to apply and did not work well.

For the system, an initial estimation scheme was devised. The basic method is to calculate temperature dependent equilibrium constants and Henry's constants. From Henry's constant values the dissolved molecular species H₂S_L and H₂CO₃ can be estimated. Then the pH value of the system is estimated. All the activity coefficients are set close to 1.0 except for S⁼ and CO₃⁼, for which a value of 0.85 is set.

Given the above estimate, all other species can be estimated easily. In the program, this scheme is expressed in terms of an empirical correlation. Calculation experience showed that this scheme is very successful in converging.

Solution of Mass Transfer Through

Turbulent Layer

With all the parameter estimation given in the last chapter, equation (3.39) is integrated using the Runge-Kutta method. In each step, numerical integration of equation (3.43) is performed by Simpson's rule. Then, K⁺ is calculated through equation (3.47). Finally, equation (3.45) is used to obtain the mass transfer coefficients for the annular film flow.

Solution of Diffusion Layer Model

The nonlinear equations (3.58) governing the system with the boundary conditions (3.60) and (3.61) are first linearized before being written in finite-difference form. Here the quasi-linearization method (Newman, 1973, Na, 1979) is used.

The basic idea for quasi-linearization is that one already has trial solutions and the change in these quantities during each iteration is relatively small. Then the nonlinear term in equation (3.58) can be written by assuming the trial solutions of Ci[°] and Φ [°]

$$C_{1}\Phi'' = C_{i}^{\circ}\Phi^{\circ}'' + C_{1}^{\circ}(\Phi'' - \Phi^{\circ}'') + \Phi^{\circ}''(C_{i} - C_{i}^{\circ}) + (C_{i} - C_{1}^{\circ})(\Phi'' - \Phi^{\circ}'')$$

$$(4.2)$$

Discarding the quadratic term and simplifying, one has

$$C_1 \Phi'' = C_i \Phi^{\circ}'' + C_i^{\circ} \Phi'' - C_i^{\circ} \Phi^{\circ}'' \qquad (4.3)$$

where the primes represent differentiation with respect to y. By treating the first derivative in an analogous manner, one has

$$C_i '\Phi' = C_i '\Phi^\circ' + C_i \circ \Phi' - C_1 \circ \Phi^\circ$$

$$(4.4)$$

Substitution of equations (4.3) and (4.4) into equation (3.58) gives the linearized equation as follows

$$D_{i}C_{i}" + Z_{1}u_{1}F(C_{1}\Phi^{\circ}" + C_{1}^{\circ}\Phi'' + C_{1}^{\prime}\Phi^{\circ}' + C_{i}^{\circ}\Phi')$$

= $Z_{1}u_{i}F(C_{i}^{\circ}\Phi^{\circ}" + C_{i}^{\circ}\Phi^{\circ}')$ (4.5)

Again by the similar treatment for the boundary condition equations (3.60) and (3.61), one has For nonreactive species

$$D_i C_1 ' + Z_i u_i F(C_1 \Phi^{\circ}' + C_i^{\circ} \Phi^{\circ}) = Z_1 u_1 F C_i^{\circ} \Phi^{\circ}' \qquad (4.6)$$

For reactive species

$$D_1C_i' + Z_1u_iF(C_i\Phi^{\circ}' + C_i^{\circ}\Phi') = Z_iu_iFC_i^{\circ}\Phi^{\circ}' + I_i/nF$$
 (4.7)

Linearized equations (4.5) with the boundary conditions (4.6), (4.7) and (3.63) can be solved by the finite difference method. The finite difference representation of the first and second derivatives are the central difference formulas

$$C_{1}'' = \frac{C_{1}(j+1) - 2C_{i}(j) + C_{i}(j-1)}{h^{2}}$$
(4.8)

$$C_{1}' = \frac{C_{1}(j+1) - C_{1}(j-1)}{2h}$$
 (4.9)

$$\Phi'' = \frac{\Phi(j+1) - 2\Phi(j) + \Phi(j-1)}{h^2}$$
(4.10)

$$\Phi' = \frac{\Phi(j+1) - \Phi(j-1)}{2h}$$
(4.11)

The final finite difference form of equation (4.5) is

$$C_{1} (j-1) (D_{i} - 1/2Z_{i} u_{i} Fh\Phi^{\circ}') + C_{i} (j) (-2D_{i} + Z_{1} u_{i} Fh^{2} \Phi^{\circ}'')$$

$$+C_{i} (j+1) (D_{i} + 1/2Z_{i} u_{i} Fh\Phi^{\circ}') + \Phi (j-1)Z_{i} u_{i} F (C_{i}^{\circ} - 1/2hC_{i}^{\circ}'))$$

$$+\Phi (j) (-2Z_{i} u_{i} FhC_{i}^{\circ}') + \Phi (j+1)Z_{i} u_{i} F (C_{i}^{\circ} + 1/2hC_{i}^{\circ}'))$$

$$= Z_{1} u_{i} Fh^{2} (C_{i}^{\circ} \Phi^{\circ}'' + C_{i}^{\circ} \cdot \Phi^{\circ}'))$$

$$(4.12)$$

The boundary condition can be expressed in a similar way.

$$-D_{1}C_{i}(j-1) + C(j)2hZ_{i}u_{1}F\Phi^{\circ}' + D_{i}C_{i}(j+1)$$

$$-\Phi(j-1)Z_{i}u_{1}FC_{i}^{\circ} + \Phi(j+1)Z_{i}u_{1}FC_{1}^{\circ}$$

$$= 2hZ_{i}u_{1}FC_{i}^{\circ}\Phi^{\circ}' + 2hI_{1}/nF \qquad (4.13)$$

In equation (4.13) for nonreactive species I_i equal to zero.

These system algebraic equations are solved by using the subroutine BAND(J) (Newman, 1973). The same solution procedure is also applied to solve the problem of mass transfer through the corrosion product layer.

Overall Computational Strategy

This model is built on the basis of previous work by Robertson (1988) under the guidance of Dr. Erbar, whose work is based on GPA*SIM developed by Erbar(1980). The calculation in this whole framework involves the phase equilibrium, pressure gradient, two phase flow regime and corrosion rate. The overall computational strategy is given in Figure 3.

Based on the strategy set up in GPA*SIM, after some basic input, such as total gas flow rate, gas composition, well head temperature and pressure, bottom hole temperature and pressure, amount of water in the separator, and total depth of the well etc., the total depth of the well is divided into sections. Each section is assumed to be in uniform temperature and pressure upon which fluid phase equilibrium calculations are based. If the calculation results show that water has condensed or formation water is contained, the calculations of corrosion rate are performed as discussed above.

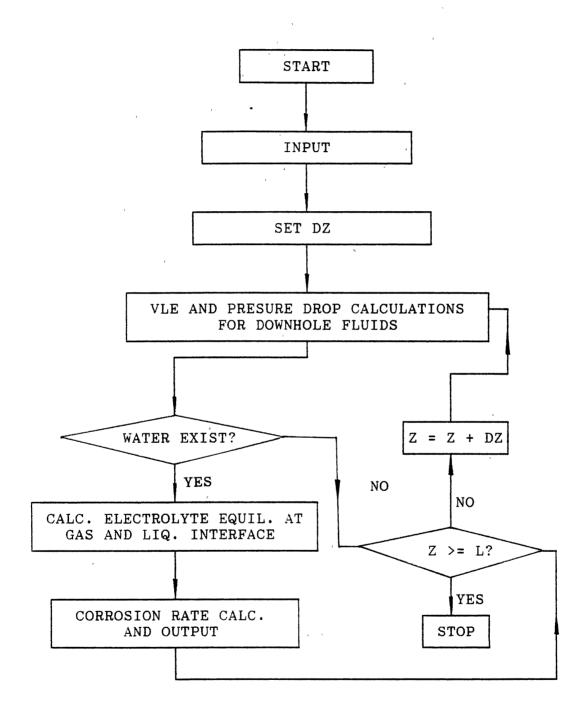


Figure 3. Flow Chart of Downhole Corrosion Program

CHAPTER V

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The Effect of CO2 and H2S Partial Pressure

The purpose of this test of the influence of the partial pressure of CO₂ and H₂S is to check the assumed cathodic and anodic reaction mechanisms. The direct comparison of the model results with experimental data is not very meaningful since most of the experimental data were taken from single phase liquid flow while the model is set up for annular gas-liquid two-phase flow. However, if under certain parameter combinations the model prediction can "match" the experimental data it can be used to check the assumed surface reaction mechanisms and mass transfer effect, which will be discussed later.

Figures 4 and 5 are typical calculation results of this model. Also in these Figures some experimental data and predictions by the De Waard and Milliams (1975) nomograph are given. All the model predictions are based on a pipe ID 2.467 inches and a pressure gradient of 14.4 lbf/ft³. Water flow rate is listed in the Figures.

From Figure 4 it is clear that the both De Waard and

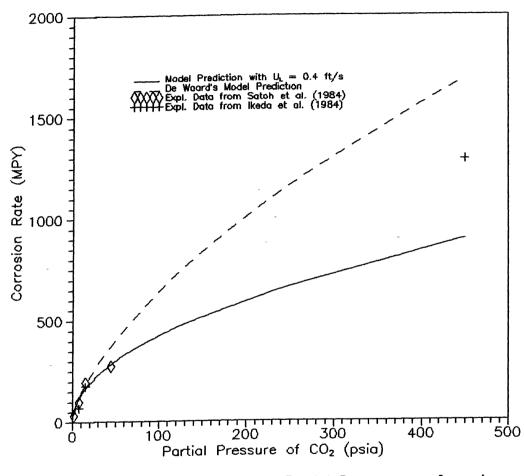
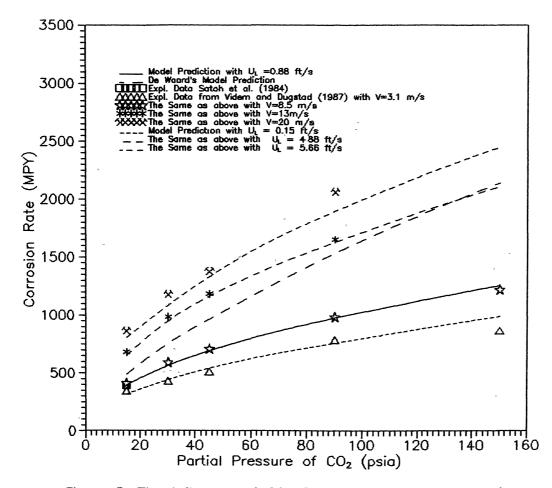


Figure 4. The Influence of CO2 Partial Pressure on Corrosion Rate at 60 C Without Film



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Figure 5. The Influence of CO₂ Partial Pressure on Corrosion Rate at 90 C Without Film

Milliams' model and this work give reasonable representation of experimental data when the partial pressure of CO₂ is below about 30 psi. However, the only high pressure data point falls in inbetween the predictions of these two models. Under this constant liquid flow rate this model predicts lower corrosion rate while De Waard's model gives a higher value.

From Figure 5 it can be seen that this model can match the experimental data very well. In contrast, the model by De Waard and Milliams (1975) seems to give the wrong trend in the dependence of the partial pressure in the lower experimental flow rates. One may notice that this model has assumed the same surface reaction mechanisms as that of De Waard and Milliams, who have not given any exchange current density. However, the value of exchange current density will not change the dependence of the corrosion rate upon the partial pressure of CO₂. Therefore, the only explanation is the mass transfer effect, which was found to be negligible in the range of their experiments.

A special note is worth giving about the model of De Waard and Milliams (1975). As has been mentioned in the literature survey, De Waard's model is based on a set of electrochemical experimental data which covers temperatures up to 80°C and partial pressures of CO₂ up to 15 psi. No mass transfer effect has been found when the liquid flow rate is above 3.3 ft/s. In fact, all later calculations of

corrosion rates are based on the correlation of their experimental data by Deberry and Yost (1984). As can been seen at higher partial pressures of CO₂ the mass transfer effect can not be neglected. A similar note about the De Waard and Milliams model has also been given by Schmitt (1984), who has pointed out that the De Waard and Milliams model can only apply to CO₂ partial pressures at less than 30 psia and temperatures up to 60°C.

Having said this, some of the phenomena can be explained reasonably. That this model can match the experimental data and De Waard's model in the low CO₂ partial pressure range probably means that the surface reaction mechanisms are reasonable. Since the mechanism used in this model implies that the reaction is first order for cathodic reactions and zero order for anodic reactions, the total corrosion rate depends approximately linearly upon the surface concentration of H₂CO₃. At low CO₂ partial pressures the concentrations of H₂CO₃ are very low. Hence, the total corrosion rate is slow. Above a certain experimental fluid velocity no mass transfer effect is quite good as an approximation. However, when the partial pressure of CO₂ becomes higher, the situation changes as seen from Figure 5.

Figure 6 shows the influence of H_2S partial pressure on the corrosion rate at 25°C. In this Figure, data from the correlation by Bartonicek (1969) are also shown. The

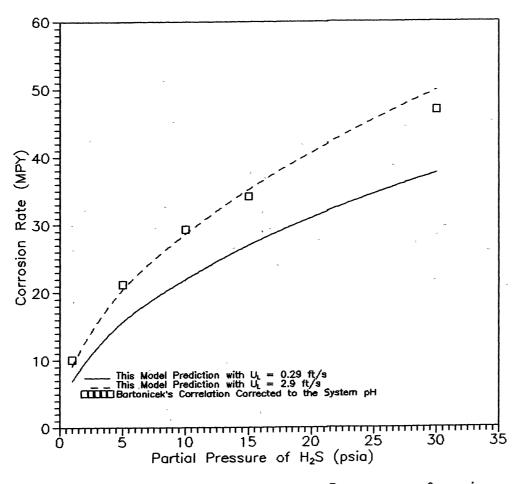


Figure 6. The Influence of H₂S Partial Pressure on Corrosion Rate at 25 C Without Film

correlation by Bartonicek (1969) was expressed as

$$i_{corr} = i_{o} p_{H2s}^{0.2} (A/cm^2)$$
 (5.1)

where $i_0 = 3.1 \times 10^{-4}$ at pH = 3 and pH₂s in atm. The data shown in Figure 6 was corrected by the relation that

$$d \log i_0 / d pH = -0.5$$
 (5.2)

This relation was given by Bockris et al. (1961) and Morris et al. (1980).

It can be seen that the results of this model are quite comparable with Bartonicek's correlation. The dependence of the corrosion rate upon H₂S partial pressure from this model seems stronger than that from Bartonicek's correlation. One reason is that Bartonicek's correlation is only good up to 1 atm partial pressure of H₂S. Another is that the first order reaction with respect to H₂S in cathodic reaction assumed in the model should result in the stronger H₂S partial pressure dependence. However, the assumed mechanism seems quite reasonable if one considers that Bartonicek's correlation was developed at pH = 3, while pH for the system ranges from 4.0 to 4.8.

Figure 7 shows the corrosion rate at different CO2 partial pressures together with the experimental data from Greco and Wright (1962) and Rhodes and Clark (1936).

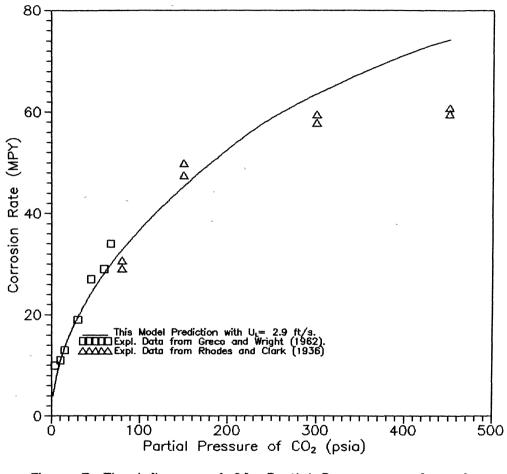


Figure 7. The Influence of CO_2 Partial Pressure on Corrosion Rate at 25 C with Film

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Again, it should be emphasized that the direct comparison between one phase flow experimental data and the results of two-phase flow calculations is not proper. In fact, both experimental data sets were taken in static solutions. Therefore, the agreement between this model and the experimental data in Figure 7. is, in one sense, coincidental. However, it can be seen that the trend of dependence of the corrosion rate on the CO₂ partial pressure is roughly the same between experimental data and this model, although under low liquid flow rate this model will predict the corrosion rate substantially lower. If one looks at the experimental conditions used by Greco and Wright (1962) and Rhodes and Clark (1936), one finds that the experiment only lasted two or three days. In this short period, no guarantee can be made that the surface is totally covered by the corrosion protective film. For example, Jasinski (1987) found that at CO₂ partial pressure 125 psi and room temperature the corrosion rate in the tap water can be as high as 120 mills per year (MPY) within 72 This value definitely means that surface is not hours. fully covered by corrosion film. On the other hand, Bradburn (1977) reported that under downhole conditions the corrosion rate may as low as 1 MPY at various temperatures and partial pressures of CO2.

From another sense, this agreement of the model results with experimental data shown in Figure 7 makes it

possible to explore some mechanisms showing why corrosion product has a protective effect on metals. Through computations it was found that the retardation of the corrosion rate in the presence of FeCO3 film is because of the shift of anodic equilibrium potential towards a more positive direction. For example, at 25°C and 15 psi partial pressure of CO2 the equilibrium potential is -0.618 V and the corrosion potential -0.266 V with respect to hydrogen reference electrode without corrosion product. This equilibrium potential is shifted to -0.399 V with the corrosion potential to be -0.157 V when FeCO3 film is formed on the surface. The anodic equilibrium potential with a product film is quite close to the passive potential value -0.4 V reported by Ogundele and White (1986). Therefore, the presence of corrosion products is much like the passive wall. The shift of potential means slowing down the surface reaction rate (see equations 3.67 and 3.68). This does not mean that mass transfer has no influence on the corrosion rate in the presence of a corrosion product film since mass transfer would influence the concentrations of various ions on the surface. Therefore, the mass transfer rate here mainly contributes to the change of equilibrium potential. This point will be returned to later.

Figure 8 shows the influence of H₂S partial pressure on the corrosion rate with a protective film. Since only

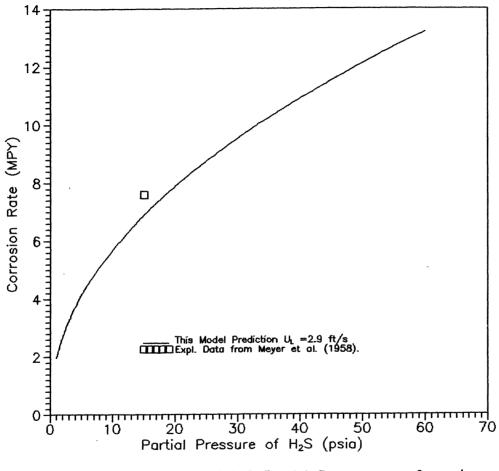


Figure 8. The Influence of H₂S Partial Pressure on Corrosion Rate at 25 C with Film

experimental data from Meyer et al. (1958) has been found not much can be said for the comparison. The decrease in the corrosion rate in the presence of FeS is by the same mechanism as in the CO₂ corrosion system, i.e. the formation of a corrosion product film decreases the driving potential between Ecorr and equilibrium potential.

The Effect of Flow Rate

Both gas and liquid flow rates have influence on the corrosion rate. However, the impact of gas flow rate on the corrosion rate is through its increase in the interfacial stress. In the model, the input pressure gradient is used in the calculation wall shear stress since this treatment will minimize the error for mass transfer caused by inaccuracy of downhole pressure gradient calculations. Therefore, the discussion of influence of gas flow rate on the corrosion rate will be delayed until the section of real downhole corrosion simulations. In this section, only the effect of liquid flow rate will be addressed.

Figure 9 is a comparison of this model prediction with the experimental data from Eriksrud and Søntvedt (1984), who have studied the corrosion of carbon steel under slug flow. This model prediction is under the same conditions as the experiments. As shown in Figure 9 the agreement between the model prediction and experimental data is quite

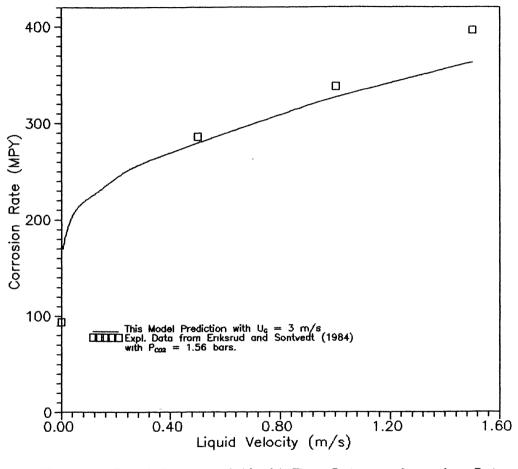
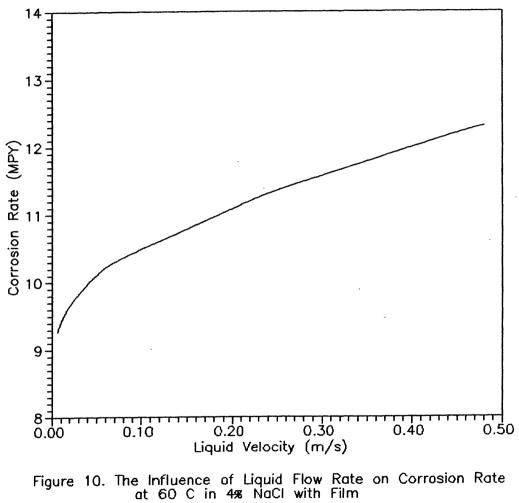


Figure 9. The Influence of Liquid Flow Rate on Corrosion Rate at 60 C in 4% NaCl Without Film

good. At a liquid flow rate of 1.5 m/s, this model predict about 10% lower than the experimental data. This seems to confirm that uniform corrosion under slug flow can be treated as if it were in annular flow (see assumption (5) in chapter III) and the increase in the corrosion rate by slug flow is much more localized corrosion related. Furthermore, this also indirectly justifies the mass transfer model developed in this work. It should be pointed out that only one set of experimental data is not sufficient to validate the model completely. More experimental data are needed to understand the corrosion processes in two-phase flow.

Figure 10 shows the influence of mass transfer on the corrosion rate with a corrosion product film. No data are available for comparison of the model prediction. Comparing Figure 10 with Figure 9 one can see that the enhancement in the corrosion rate by mass transfer is weaker in the presence of film than without corrosion product. In fact, in the range of liquid flow rates compared the corrosion rate increases by a factor of 1.7 without a protective film and of 1.3 with the film. As has been mentioned in the previous section, the retardation effect of the corrosion product film is mainly to shift the equilibrium potential towards a more positive value. This process is very similar to passivation, in which flow contributes to passivation by shifting the corrosion



potential.

Some Downhole Cases

In this section, the model prediction will be compared with some field data. It should be noted this model development is based on the assumption of uniform This rarely happens downhole. corrosion. Most of the downhole corrosion processes are localized in nature. Therefore, in this sense direct comparison is not possible. However, as has been pointed out the model will serve as a departure for the further study of downhole corrosion. For another, this model calculates the uniform corrosion rate with or without a corrosion product film. Uniform corrosion without a solid protective film is the worst situation on one hand. On the other hand, uniform corrosion with a protective film should represent the "best" scenario. Therefore, this model should bound the corrosion process downhole and give a practical guide to the prediction of the corrosion rate to the corrosion engineer.

Case I

Case I is a corrosive well. After four years of service the pipe in the well has many places that have holes owing to corrosion. The gas well conditions for this case are given in Table IV, V and VI. The model results

together with the field data are presented in Figure 11.

From Figure 11 it can be seen that this model seems to serve our purposes pretty well for this case. The

TABLE IV

GAS COMPOSÍTION OF THE WELL FOR CASE I

Component	Mol Percent
Methane	90.94
Ethane	4.37
Propane	1.14
I-butane	0.27
N-butane	0.23
I-pentane	0.13
N-pentane	0.08
Hexanes	0.11
Heptanes Plus	0.27
Nitrogen	0.25
Carbon Dioxide	2.21
Totals	100.00

WATER ANALYSIS OF GAS WELL FOR CASE I

TABLE V

Constituents	»́ РРМ
Sodium	6490
Calcium	298
Magnesium	38
Barium	4
Iron	36
Chloride	10100
Sulfate	111
Bicarbonate	879
Total Dissolved Solids	17956

TABLE VI

Specifications	Units	Value
Water Production	B/D	28
Gas Production	MSCFD	2150
Depth	ft	9700
Tubing Diameter, ID	in.	2.441
Wellhead Pressure	psia	1890
Wellhead Temperature	°F	130
Bottomhole Pressure	psia	4000
Bottomhole Temperature	۴F	290

WELL CONDITIONS FOR CASE I

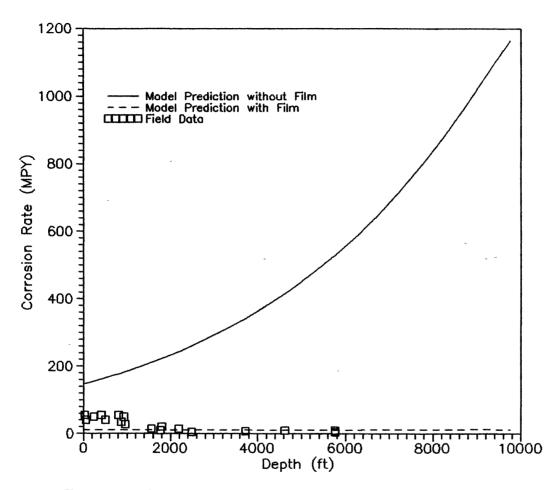


Figure 11. The Corrosion Rate Profile Along Depth for Case I

corrosion rate without a protective film is very high compared with the field data. Furthermore, the temperature and pressure dependence is also much stronger than that of the field data. There is no surprise about this since downhole corrosion occurs with a protective film. The corrosion rate with a protective film predicted from the model bounded most of the observed data. However, this model does have some deficiency in terms of the position of the corrosion starting point. As shown in Figure 11 this model predicts that the corrosion starts from the very bottom of the hole. In contrast, the observed corrosion position begins at a depth of about 6000 ft. This inconsistency may result from two possible reasons. The position of water condensation, which is assumed to be a necessary condition for corrosion to occur, predicted from the thermodynamic calculation may have some error for one For another, the model in the prediction of the reason. corrosion rate with a protective film may need further work since some laboratory data (Ikeda et al., 1984, Hausler, 1984) have showed that the protective film is more effective when the temperature is above 120°C. However, at this stage we do not have enough quantitative information to characterize the FeCO3 film at different temperatures. With more information accumulated this part of the model can be modified easily. However, it should be noticed that downhole corrosion is a complex system for which there are

many exceptions unknown to us. This point will be picked up in the discussion of Case III.

The possible cause for this well to be relatively corrosive (in four years of production there are many holes or parting of the pipe) is its relative high concentration of CO₂ in the gas phase (see Table IV) because it can be seen from Table IV this well has moderate water production rate and not very high gas production rate. The brine produced may not be the reason for the higher corrosion rate. This point will be returned to later.

Case II

Case II is a noncorrosive well. The well conditions are listed in Table VII, VIII and IX. The model results are given in Figure 12. The field measurement showed that the corrosion rate is less than 7.5 MPY, which is not distinguishable for the measurement. This model predicts a corrosion rate of 4.0 MPY with a protective film on the wall. This is quite comparable to the field observations. Therefore, it seems that the model can also predict the behavior of noncorrosive wells. As has been pointed out by Crolet and Bonis (1984), the prediction of noncorrosiveness for a well is equally important. The main reason for the small corrosion rate of this well is its lower CO₂ content in the gas phase.

It can be seen that the well in Case II has higher

water and gas production rates compared with Case I but the corrosion rate is much lower for case II than for Case I. Therefore, for these two cases the production rates of the gas and water is not the dominant factor.

TABLE VII

GAS COMPOSITION OF THE WELL FOR CASE II

Component	Mol Percent
Methane	90.10
Ethane	6.00
Propane	1.68
I-butane	0.45
N-butane	0.34
I-pentane	0.20
N-pentane	0.12
Hexanes	0.18
Heptanes Plus	0.40
Nitrogen	0.22
Carbon Dioxide	0.31
Totals	100.00

TABLE VIII

WATER ANALYSIS OF GAS WELL FOR CASE II

Constituents	PPM
'a	105
Sodium	127
Calcium	21
Magnesium	0
Barium	3
Iron	0
Chloride	195
Sulfate	0
Bicarbonate	60
Total Dissolved Solids	406

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TABLE IX

WELL CONDITIONS FOR CASE II

Specifications	Units	Value
Water Production	B/D	124
Gas Production	MSCFD	2800
Depth	ft	9620
Tubing Diameter, ID	in.	2.441
Wellhead Pressure	psia	1270
Wellhead Temperature	°F	130
Bottomhole Pressure	psia	4000
Bottomhole Temperature	°F	290

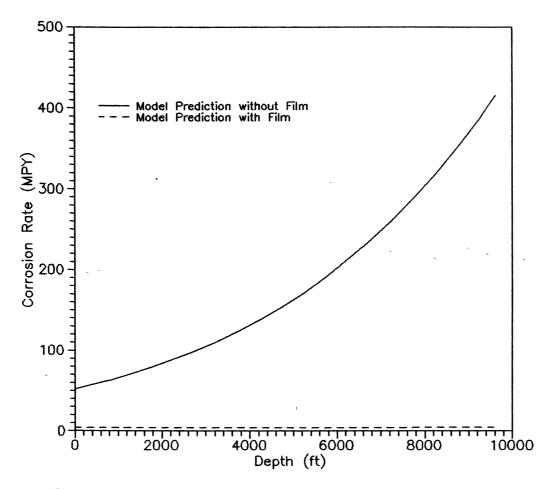


Figure 12. The Corrosion Rate Profile Along Depth for Case II

Case III

Case III is a well with a moderate corrosion rate. The well conditions are presented in Table X, XI, and XII. The model results are given in Figure 13. Again, as in Case I, the predicted corrosion rate without a corrosion film is much higher than that of the field data. The corrosion rate with a protective film predicted from this model bounded most of the field data. It is impossible to bound all the field data because the observed field data include much localized corrosion. For localized corrosion, the corroded parts have a protective effect on those uncorroded parts.

Figure 14 is an enlargement of the corrosion rate with a protective film. For the sake of comparison, Figure 15 represents the corrosion rate with a protective film for Case I. From this two Figures, one can see that the model predicts the corrosiveness of these wells quite well. The field observed maximum corrosion rate for Case III is about 40% that of Case I. In contrast, this model predicts that the corrosion rate of Case II is about 46-60% that of Case From further comparison of the well conditions of these I. two cases, one would notice that these two wells produce Therefore, as mentioned previously almost the same brines. the brine compositions are not the dominant factor. For these two wells, the gas production rates and CO2

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GAS COMPOSITION OF THE WELL FOR CASE III

Component	Mol Percent
Methane	91.60
Ethane	4.39
Propane	1.18
I-butane	0.33
N-butane	0.25
I-pentane	0.14
N-pentane	0.09
Hexanes	0.13
Heptanes Plus	0.33
Nitrogen	0.30
Carbon Dioxide	1.26
Totals	100.00

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TABLE XI

WATER ANALYSIS OF GAS WELL FOR CASE III

Constituents	РРМ
Sodium	6280
Calcium	454
Magnesium	50
Barium	2
Iron	0
Chloride	10300
Sulfate	196
Bicarbonate	313
Total Dissolved Solids	17595

TABLE XII

WELL CONDITIONS FOR CASE III

Specifications	Units	Value
		Varue
Water Production	B/D	27
Gas Production	MSCFD	1352
Depth	ft	9450
Tubing Diameter, ID	ìn.	2.441
Wellhead Pressure	psia	1440
Wellhead Temperature	°F	130
Bottomhole Pressure	psia	4000
Bottomhole Temperature	۴F	290

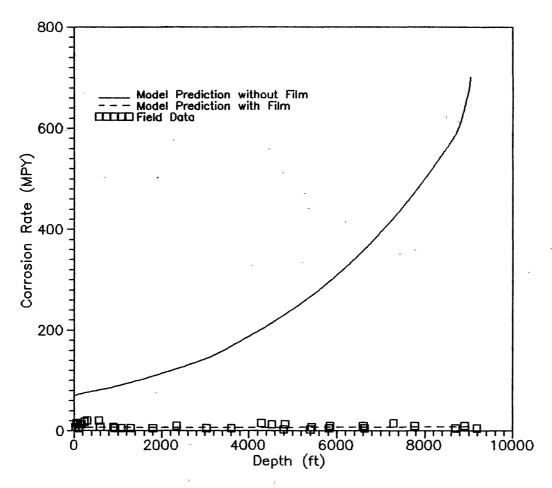


Figure 13. The Corrosion Rate Profile Along Depth for Case III

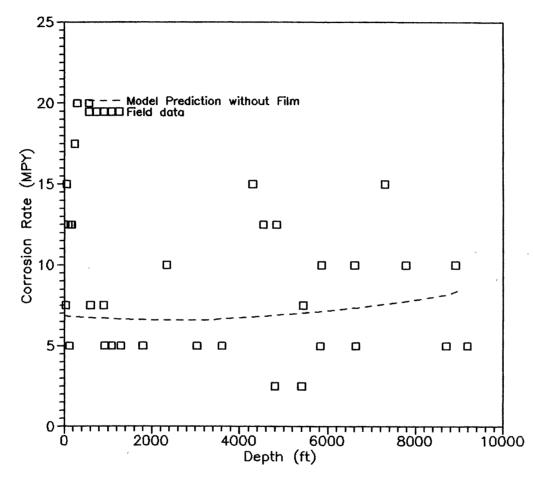


Figure 14. The Corrosion Rate Profile Along Depth for Case III with protective film

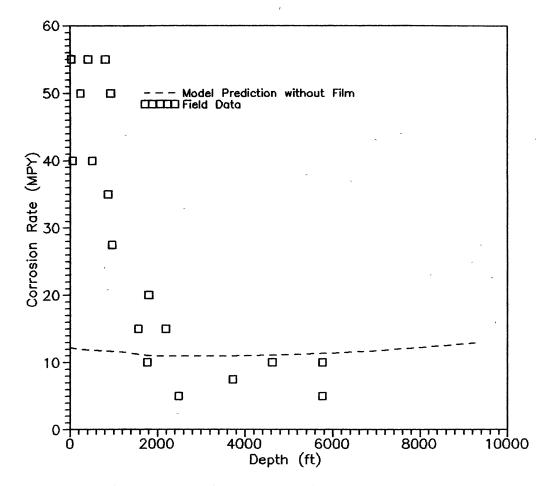


Figure 15. The Corrosion Rate Profile along Depth for Case I with Protective Film

composition are main factors to make the corrosion rate different. In the discussion for Case II, we have compared Case I with Case II and concluded that for the two cases the flow rate is not the dominant factor. Therefore, for a downhole corrosion system, trying to use a single index to predict the corrosion rate has little chance of success.

A further note on the comparison of Figure 14 and 15 is the starting position of corrosion. For both Cases I and III, the model predicts that corrosion will start right from bottom hole. However, as mentioned in the discussion of Case I, in that case corrosion starts from 6000 ft or above. For Case III, the field data indicates that the corrosion starts from the very bottom of the hole as predicted by the model. The observed difference of the starting corrosion depth for these two cases seems to have no simple explanation.

Case IV

Case IV is a well as corrosive as Case I. The well conditions for Case IV are presented in Tables XIII and XIV. A comparison of the well conditions of Case I and IV indicates that Case IV has a relatively high gas production rate. If one considers that the diameter of the pipe is smaller for Case IV than for Case I, the gas velocity in the well is much higher.

For this well, no water production was reported.

TABLE XIII

GAS COMPOSITION OF THE WELL FOR CASE IV

Component	Mol Percent
Methane	90.44
Ethane	5.07
Propane	1.36
I-butane	0.32
N-butane	0.27
I-pentane	0.15
N-pentane	0.09
Hexanes	0.14
Heptanes Plus	0.32
Nitrogen	0.12
Carbon Dioxide	1.72
Totals	100.00

TABLE XIV

WELL CONDITIONS FOR CASE IV

Specifications	Units .	Value
	- -	0.5
Water Production	B/D	2.5
Gas Production	MSCFD	3320
Depth	ft	9540
Tubing Diameter, ID	in.	1.992
Wellhead Pressure	psia	2225
Wellhead Temperature	• F	130
Bottomhole Pressure	psia	4000
Bottomhole Temperature	°F	290

Therefore, no water analysis is available. In order to be able to apply the model, a water production rate of 2.5 barrels/day was assumed since, in general, if there were no water production from the well, there would have been no corrosion. Further, it was assumed that water does not contain any other inorganic ions except the disassociative ions from CO₂ and H₂O.

Figure 16 shows the model prediction of the corrosion rate with a protective film together with the field data. It can be seen that this well is as corrosive as Case I and this model predicts the same corrosion rate as in Case I (see Figure 15). From the results, it seems that the model can distinguish the corrosive wells from those noncorrosive ones.

Case V

Case V is a gas well that was initially thought to be a "noncorrosive" one. After about 3 months operation, the well failed due to corrosion problems. The well conditions are given in Table XV, XVI and XVII. The gas composition for this well is not reported. The only known data is that there is 0.8% of CO₂ in the gas analysis. The data listed in Table XV is an assumed composition for test of the model. Under normal circumstances, the corrosion behavior of a steel is not influenced by the presence of the hydrocarbon gases (Ogundele and White, 1987). Therefore,

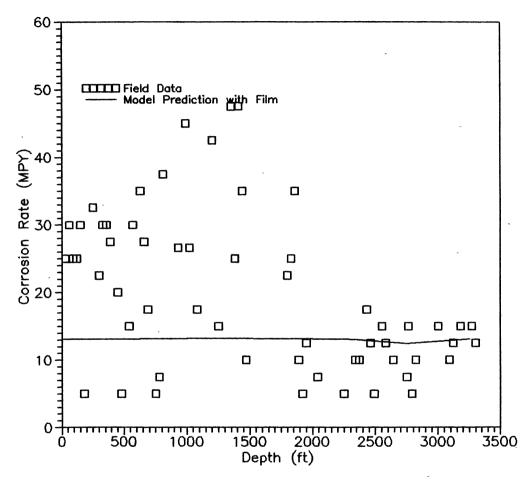


Figure 16. The Corrosion Rate Profile along Depth for Case IV with Protective Film

TABLE XV

ASSUMED GAS COMPOSITION FOR CASE V

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Component	Mol Percent
Methane	91.84
Ethane	4.59
Propane	1.36
I-butane	0.32
N-butane	0.27
I-pentane	0.15
N-pentane	0.09
Hexanes	0.14
Heptanes Plus	0.32
Nitrogen	0.12
Carbon Dioxide	0.80
Totals	100.00

TABLE XVI

WATER ANALYSIS OF GAS WELL FOR CASE V

Constituents	РРМ
) 1	
Sodium	45121
Calcium	8880
Magnesium	864
Barium	17
Iron	31.5
Chloride	87500
Sulfate	248
Bicarbonate	205
Total Dissolved Solids	143834

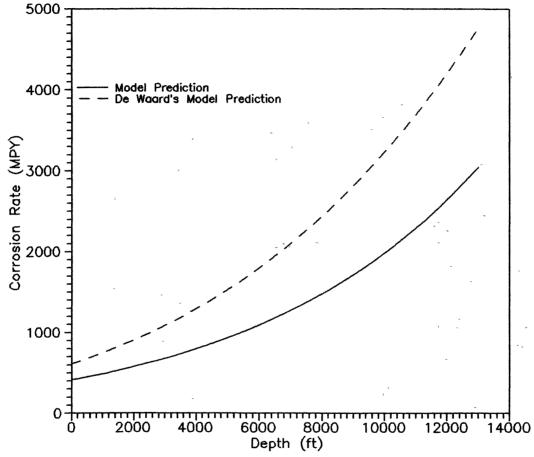
TABLE XVII

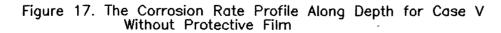
WELL CONDITIONS FOR CASE V

Specifications 4	Units	Value
Water Production	B/D	3500
Gas Production	MSCFD	5000
Depth	ft	13000
Tubing Diameter, ID	in.	2.441
Wellhead Pressure	psia	6400
Wellhead Temperature	°F	160
Bottomhole Pressure	psia	9300
Bottomhole Temperature	°F	290

assuming the hydrocarbon gas compositions is immaterial (except for the pressure, temperature and phase predictions).

Figure 17 shows the corrosion rate profiles along the depth of the well without a protective film. For the sake of comparison the predicted corrosion rates from the De Waard and Milliams' nomograph were also showed in Figure 17. The correlation from De Waard and Milliams predicts higher corrosion rates for this well owing to two reasons. One, already discussed, is that this correlation only applies up to 2 bars of CO₂ partial pressure. The other is this correlation only applies to systems with temperatures below 80°C. Above these temperature and partial pressure limits the correlation gives much higher corrosion rates. From Figure 17 it can be seen that the corrosion rates without a protective film from this model vary from 400 to The well failed in about 3 months, which means 3000 MPY. that the corrosion rate is on the order of 1000 MPY (the wall thickness 217 mils). Therefore, this case illustrates that the prediction of corrosion rate without a protective film is not totally impractical. However, it should be emphasized again that the same order of magnitude of the corrosion rate does not necessarily mean that the downhole corrosion processes are due to the same mechanisms as the model assumed. The speculation is that the high corrosion





rate of this well is due to slug flow, high solid content in the water and exceptionally high water production rate. Although calculated homogeneous fluid velocity is only 50% of the erosional velocity slug flow may cause a fatigue problem in the film. Therefore, the higher corrosion rate results.

Figure 18 shows the predicted corrosion rate with a protective film. Comparing Figure 18 with Figure 15 and 16, one can figure out that the corrosion rate for this well is about 50-70% higher that of Cases I and IV. It means that the fluid in this well is definitely more corrosive than those in Cases I and IV, which had a real life-time of about four years. From this comparison, it shows again this model can distinguish the corrosive wells from the noncorrosive ones.

In summary, from the limited cases tested, we can tentatively set some interconnections between the model and the observed field data.

Corrosion without a protective film rarely occurs in gas wells. In other words, the predicted corrosion rate without a protective film is much higher than the real observed corrosion rate except for some special cases.

The predicted corrosion rate from the model with a protective film is lower than that of the maximum field observation. If the model predicts the corrosion rate to be less than 4 MPY, the well is generally noncorrosive. If

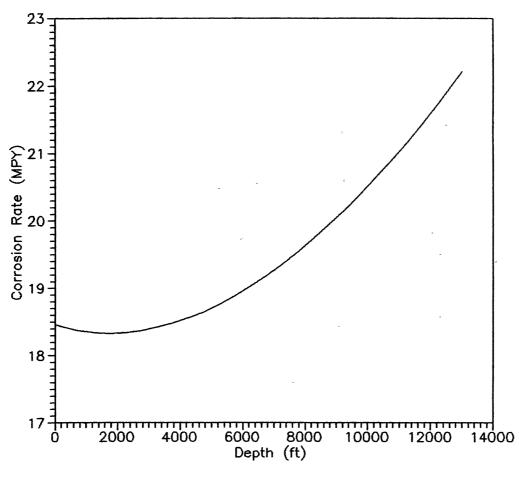


Figure 18. The Corrosion Rate Profile Along Depth for Case V with Protective Film

the model predicts the corrosion rate more than 12 MPY, the well should be corrosive. Those wells that have predicted corrosion rates between 4 and 12 MPY may be corrosive but probably the corrosion is not very severe. S The share the second state of the

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusions

1). A mathematical model has been developed for gas wells with annular two-phase gas-liquid flow. The model includes the calculations of the equilibrium concentration of various species, the mass transfer process through a strongly gas sheared turbulent liquid film and a diffusion layer, and the surface electrochemical reactions. Generally speaking, the model represents experimental data well.

2). For the uniform corrosion rate without a corrosion product film, the corrosion mechanism for both CO₂ and H₂S containing brines can be described as a first order reaction of molecules of H₂S and H₂CO₃.

3). The widely used De Waard and Milliams nomograph can only be applied to the systems that have a CO₂ partial pressure less than 2 bars. At higher partial pressures, this nomograph will give much higher corrosion rates.

4). Most experimental and field data show that mass transfer effects are very strong. For a two-phase flow system increasing both gas and liquid flow rate will

increase corrosion rate substantially. In contrast, the assumption of no mass transfer effects in De Waard and Millims's nomograph is in error.

5). Compared with limited field data, the corrosion rates without a protective film predicted from this model are much higher. This means that the corrosion processes downhole in gas wells occurred with a protective film.

6). The corrosion rates with the protective films predicted from this model are much nearer the field data, although lower than maximum observed corrosion rates. The direct comparison of the model prediction with field data seems impossible because downhole corrosion is very localized in nature. The tentative criteria were set up for practical applications of the prediction of the corrosiveness of a gas well through a limited test of the If the predicted corrosion rate with a solid film model. is less than 4 MPY, the well is noncorrosive. If the predicted corrosion rate is greater than 12 MPY, the well is corrosive. At any value between them, the well probably is moderately corrosive, but not very severely so.

7). Many factors have some influence on the corrosion rate. The preeminent parameters are gas and liquid flow rates and CO₂ partial pressures, depending upon the system conditions. Tying to use any single variable as an index to predict downhole corrosion is not a very promising approach.

Recommendations

Modeling Localized Corrosion

Localized corrosion, in practice, is more important than uniform corrosion and it is more difficult to The so-called localized corrosion includes all simulate. the forms of corrosion with the appearance that some parts of the metal are more severely corroded than other parts. The cause of this type of corrosion, the author believes, is rarely by the usual sense of pitting corrosion for downhole. Taking the downhole corrosion under slug flow with CO2 and H2S containing brines as an example, one can imagine the picture of the process as follows: After an initial fast corrosion rate a protective corrosion product film will be formed on the metal wall. When the fluid flowing in the pipe is in slug flow, a section of pipe will "feel" periodic up and down liquid flow and actions of gas bubbles. When the bullet type of Taylor gas bubbles are passing the section of the pipe the liquid film is flowing downward along the pipe wall for a certain period. In the next period, when the liquid slug flows past this section of the pipe the liquid with many small bubbles will flow upwards along the pipe wall. As the liquid is shed from the falling film it is essentially bubble free. This bubble free liquid once entering the liquid slug will squeeze some small gas bubbles towards the wall, where the

bubbles break. This will cause cavitation problems as part of the story. On the other hand, the periodic up and down film flow will probably cause fatigue of the corrosion product film. Modelling such a process will be very practical in the prediction of localized corrosion rates. By the same token, in annular flow some gas bubbles may also be trapped in the film, especially at pipe joints, where the strongest turbulent eddies appear and may trap many small gas bubbles in the liquid film and where localized corrosion occurred most frequently. This forms a sharp contrast to the beliefthat pitting corrosion only occurs when stagnant solutions exist. Other forms of localized corrosion are also worth exploring.

Modeling of the Gas Wells

with Condensate

This work probably involves the distribution of the two liquid phases. Generally speaking, only when the water phase is contacting the metal wall will corrosion occur. However, the prediction of the probability of the water phase contacting the wall is not an easy job.

Prediction of the Effect

of the Inhibitor

This point is very similar to point 2). Here, the main concern is to predict whether there is a thin

inhibitor film flowing along the wall. This work has theoretical significance far beyond the prediction of corrosion itself since the correct theory can also applied to an area such as drag reduction. Practically, it is very important to the corrosion engineer to judge how much inhibitor should be used and length of time to use the inhibitor.

Experimental Research on the Corrosion

Rate under Slug Flow

The significance of this research is not because little corrosion rate measurement work has been done in this flow regime and it is not because of its practical importance, but, because the information about the causes of high localized corrosion rates and the understanding of the mechanisms of corrosion in this flow regime is of enormous importance.

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