

The Review of Worldwide Geothermal Top of Reservoir with JIWA T.o.R

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ABSTRACT

JIWA Top of Reservoir (T.o.R.) is a new analytic tool introduced by AILIMA to estimate the geothermal T.o.R. uncertainties in the exploration phase. This tool is tested in this research by employing the exploration data from geothermal fields around the world to simulate geothermal T.o.R estimation prior to exploration drilling.

1. INTRODUCTION

Recognizing the uncertainties of geothermal top of reservoir (T.o.R) depth during the exploration phase is pertinent in designing well prognosis for the drilling team to anticipate when managing a drilling activity of an exploration well, particularly, the decision to set the depth of production casing shoe. It is crucial to determine the depth of the production casing rightly to prevent costly geothermal drilling problems from occurring. However, rightly setting up the casing for the first drilling activity is immensely harder compared to subsequent drilling activities, since it relies on a lot of presumption that should be as representative as possible to the expected depth. Hole (2008) further affirmed that the utilized assumption should depict the subsurface lithology and fluid conditions for the total drilled depth as close as possible. Utilized presumption should ensure that the production casing reaches the minimum depth required to isolate incoming fluid from the colder formation. Moreover, the production casing also should not be set too deep to prevent geothermal performance's disruption that affects the total cost and successful deliverability.

To resolve the problem, AILIMA produces an analytical tool in JIWA Cloud Computing Systems called JIWA T.o.R. This user-friendly tool is aimed to be a platform for the subsurface team and related expertise to collaboratively estimate the T.o.R depth uncertainties during exploration drilling. The embedded Monte Carlo algorithm and dynamic features within the system deliver the result in a probabilistic manner to enhance the T.o.R approximation to be as representative as possible to reduce drilling risks.

The purpose of this paper is to review the top reservoir of drilled wells in the convective geothermal systems around the world using JIWA T.o.R and compare the result with the actual top of the reservoir information obtained from published literature.

2. LITERATURE STUDY

2.1 Geothermal Exploration Drilling

Prior to the geothermal development, there are various processes that are followed. The exploration drilling commences as sure as the geological, geophysical, and geochemical (3G) surveys have been conducted and obtained data has been interpreted. These exploratory wells are required to study the resources characteristic, including the temperature, permeability, and fluid chemistry of the target (Axelsson and Franzson, 2012).

The challenges of the geothermal reservoir made this stage is quite costly due to various challenges and risks are mostly associated with temperature, permeability, and fluid chemistry (Hadi et al., 2010). The uncertainties on those aspects are strongly related to the drilling risks, especially on setting the right casing design. The right casing design is one of the most critical aspects of exploration drilling, including the selection of casings, casing specification and casing shoe depths (Hole, 2008).

2.2 Setting Casing Depth as One of The Biggest Risk in Drilling Exploration Wells

Appropriately setting up the casing design holds the highest precedence in reducing geothermal drilling risks. The information pertains to casing design, such as the number of the casing string, their diameters and length, and wall thickness are specified by the casing program (Hosseini-Pourazad, 2005). This information derives from the estimation of the total depth, well target and potential drilling problems like lost circulation zone and lithology, and how the casing shoe should be set in the impermeable zone. These particulars serve as several preliminary well design objectives should be prepared prior to the drilling program.

Designing the casing running procedure is the most arduous part of the drilling program. It is immensely difficult mainly due to a significant number of design variables required for casing design possess their own associated degree of uncertainty. Moreover, the impact of each design is often not well-understood, resulting in either under-design or over-design occurrences (Mason et. al., 2003). Design pitfalls principally figure on rightly setting up the casing. Rightly setting the casing for first drilling is considerably harder compared to subsequent drilling activities since it relies on a lot of presumption that should be as close as possible to the expected depth.

In navigating through potential complications, the casing depth should be determined at the right depth. Hossein-Pourazad (2005) noted the depth of the production casing is determined to prevent deep fluids from the colder formations invading the well. The utilized initial assumption should be as representative as possible to the subsurface lithology and fluid conditions for the total drilled depth (Hole, 2008). One of the main determinants, however, has to do with minimum depth for safety reasons. The production casing shoe is set at the top of the reservoir to isolate it from cold aquifers because they can cause difficulties in initiating the flow of geothermal fluid through the well due to a substantial pressure drop (Sarmiento, 2007).

2.3 How to Reduce The Risks of Drilling in The Exploration Phase Associated with The T.o.R Uncertainties?

One of the challenges of the geoscience data interpretation to determine the casing depth is the inherent problem of high-uncertainties of subsurface geological and engineering data and analysis. During the exploration phase, multidimensional data is collected by different people at different times and different scales – before it gets merged together into a singular, final interpretation that includes many assumptions (Zabalza-Mezghani et al., 2004). According to Paté-Cornell (1996), these assumptions yield uncertainties to the final interpretation in the form of epistemic uncertainty and aleatory variability. Epistemic uncertainty results from lack of knowledge and can be overcome through the collection of more data. Aleatory variability, however, is unpredictability due to inherent randomness (Witter et al., 2019). Aleatory variability is also a function of scale that influences unpredictability in the geological aspects of a geothermal site, which later increases TOR uncertainties and further, affects the decision-making within the drilling plans.

Resolving aleatory variability is definitely a lot more challenging but imperative in reducing drilling risks. In this paper, we integrate Trainor-Guitton et al (2017) methodology with Monte Carlo principle to generate an estimate of the overall uncertainty in the prediction due to all uncertainties in the variables (Kalos and Whitlock, 2008). This approach characterizes the uncertainty for any nonlinear random function f from several T.o.R interpretations derived from the magnetotelluric (MT) or resistivity-based surveys. Deterministic approach is not utilized despite its ability to pinpoint a singular value due to its inability to deliver the uncertainty required in well plans, hence reducing the T.o.R depth accuracy required for determining the casing depth. Conversely, Monte Carlo simulation in quantifying uncertainty to a specific T.o.R depth range can be utilized for well planning and map its strength, weaknesses, and pitfalls (Adams et al., 2009). This approach allows people to understand risk and opportunity in improving decision making consideration.

To quantify T.o.R uncertainties utilizing Monte Carlo simulation, iteration is necessary to obtain successively closer and more accurate approximation (Adomian and Malakian, 1980). Furthermore, iteration ensures that the yielded estimates fulfil a specific confidence interval. In this paper, we utilized 10,000 as the number of iterations for each field's simulation to estimate the TOR uncertainties.

2.4 Base of Conductive (B.o.C)

T.o.R uncertainties can be further constrained starting with reducing the uncertainties of the base of conductive, meaning the estimated B.o.C elevation is as close as possible to the top of the reservoir. Base of conductive (B.o.C) refers to the base of low permeability zone, generally in the form of a smectite clay cap in the geothermal system. Smectite clay cap is characterized by low resistivity (1-10 ohm.m) due to the high cation exchange capacity (CEC) of smectite (Usher et al., 2000). Dyaksa et al. (2016) observed that B.o.C is correlated with a temperature around 180-220°C. based on the studies from the developed fields such as Salak, Darajat and Wayang Windu. Research from Anderson et al. (2000) also mentioned that the base of conductive is corresponding to the range. The B.o.C smectite clay zone elevation is a significant aspect of most geothermal MT interpretation since this zone usually conforms to the top of the reservoir (Cumming et al. 2010).

The depth to the base of B.o.C roughly corresponds to the base of the smectite alteration zone. However, the other types of impermeable cap exist (Cumming, 2016). Dyaksa et al (2016) also reported how the presence of the mixed layer smectite-illite in Rantau Dadap and Muara Laboh geothermal field that can not be mapped as the conductive layer due the high resistivity before exploration drilling. The other type of impermeable cap also noted by Gunderson et al. (2000) in Awibengkok geothermal field, smectite-rich hydrothermal eruption debris flow is found across the reservoir that cannot be observed by the MT but was detected by the time-domain electromagnetic (TDEM).

Cumming (2016) figured out that the composition of the rock can affect the claycap forming. Low magnesium volcanic rocks, such as trachyte and phonolite lavas and tuff, typically contain less low resistivity smectite, but not as low as the 2 to 10 ohm-m typical in andesites and basalts. In addition, meteoric water can provide enough magnesium to support the abundant smectite in very porous trachyte and phonolite tuffs formation. As the conclusion, the interpretation of resistivity is complicated due the variation of the clay cap composition in volcanic prospect, particularly a resistivity with a particular isotherm (Cumming, 2016).

The uncertainty of the MT interpretation can be reduced by using a MeB method after drilling, the results can facilitate revisions of conceptual models, well targeting plans that were based on resistivity surveys, and well casing decisions that depend on formation temperatures. (Gunderson et al., 2000).

2.5 Reservoir Temperature

Another parameter input that corresponds to the T.o.R estimate is the width uncertainty of the expected reservoir temperature. The actual reservoir temperature obtained from the temperature profile after the well completion. Until exploration drilling, however, the temperature isothermal profile is highly uncertain. Geothermometer becomes the important exploration tool to estimate the subsurface temperature of a geothermal prospect area before any deep wells are drilled. Geothermometer is very useful, particularly in the exploration and development phases. Chemical geothermometers (solute and gas geothermometer) are the most used geothermometers that depend on the mineral-fluid equilibrium preserved during the passage of fluid to the surface (Yock, 2009). The calculation of subsurface temperatures from geochemical analyses of water and steam collected at hot springs, fumaroles, geysers, and shallow water

wells is a standard tool of geothermal exploration. The calculation of chemical geothermometers rests on the assumption that some relationship between chemical or isotopic constituents in the water was established at higher temperatures and this relationship persists even after the water cools as it flows to the surface.

The other type of geothermometers is mineral geothermometer, usually using a proportion of the clay minerals, such smectite illitization. However, as mentioned by Essene and Peacor (1995), clays mineral systems cannot be used as accurate thermometers since stabilities of clay minerals are unlikely to attain equilibrium at low temperatures.

2.6 Boiling Point to Depth (BPD)

The BPD pressure profile is that of a static water column whose temperature, at local pressure saturation, is everywhere (Figure 1). The approximation of BPD means that the saturation of steam is near to residual. BPD is useful for many purposes, a good approximation of the initial state of the upflowing core of the reservoir. However this is only an approximation, pressures and temperatures can be higher or lower, and it is incorrect to regard BPD as any sort of theoretical maximum temperature (Grant, 2011).

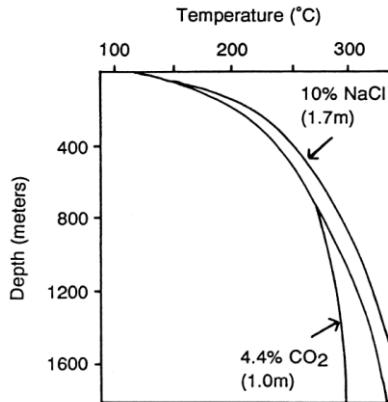


Figure 1: Boiling point to depth (Nicholson, 1993)

2.7 Acquiring T.o.R Information from Well Data

In geothermal drilling, the actual top of reservoir information could be determined from several well data, preferably the pressure-temperature (PT) profile. The PT static data is carried out during drilling of wells, during heating-up after drilling using temperature and pressure logging tools. The data is monitored over a period of time to understand the natural thermal state of the reservoir. The temperature profile will indicate the convective zone as the zone with the linear temperature while the pressure profile will indicate the convective zone by the increasing pressure, as the high pressure shows the recharge zone (upflow zone) and together will be indicating the top of the reservoir within a well (Steingrímsson, 2013).

Other types of well data which are able to be used to indicate the actual top of the reservoir are drilling parameters, such as lost circulation or the presence of the first euhedral epidote. The loss circulation indicates intersecting fractures or permeable zones, which are commonly found in geothermal reservoirs (Makuk, 2013). The first euhedral epidote, on the other hand, can also be used to signify the high temperature and permeable zone, which is also commonly found in reservoir zones (Omenda, 1993; Gylfadóttir et al., 2011). However, pressure-temperature profile is the most reliable data used to confirm the actual top of the reservoir.

2.8 How JIWA T.o.R. Can Help?

JIWA Top of Reservoir (T.o.R.) is one of the analytics tools that are provided in JIWA dashboard. This user-friendly tool is aimed as a platform for geophysicists, geochemists, geologists, and reservoir engineers to collaboratively estimate the top of the reservoir prior to the exploration drilling. JIWA T.o.R. can be utilized for the type of convective geothermal field and mainly controlled by magmatism. The input encloses the base of conductive parameters, which is related to the presence of clay cap layer and mainly affected by hydrothermal alteration. Further introduction of JIWA T.o.R. has been elaborated in Sidqi et al (2021). This research will mainly focus on the application of JIWA T.o.R. in determining the worldwide fields' top of the reservoir. The output provided from this software in form of range is a proper approach to constrain the uncertainties from the input, therefore the risk in each well can be conceived properly.

3. METHOD

A total of twenty geothermal fields, including forty-one wells worldwide are reviewed from data derived from published and reputable sources. The review covers convection geothermal play with magmatic control or also known as a convective hydrothermal system (Muffler, 1993). It is identified by the presence of a conductive layer of rock adjacent to the reservoir zone, referred to as claycap.

The T.o.R. information inferred from the well data is a primary priority at data collection, in order to compare and evaluate the output from the software. The pressure-temperature profile becomes the main reference for this research. If it's not available or less reliable due to the unknown condition, such as situated in other than natural state condition, the attested conceptual model which has considered

the pressure-temperature profile is used as the alternative. However, if those data are not found, the mineralogy (first euhedral epidote appearance) or loss circulation (total or partial) data will be the last alternative.

B.o.C information is mainly taken from the cross-section of the MT or other type of resistivity model which has well trajectory information. The delineation of B.o.C elevation uses the range of resistivity value of 5-10 ohm.m, while the temperature of B.o.C is using the range of 180-220°C. The explanation from these ranges have been explained in the previous section of this research. The uncertainties of this information is covered with the probabilistic input using the rectangular distribution to cover the uncertainty of B.o.C elevation. For several special cases such as in the Rotokawa field, the B.o.C is delineated in higher resistivity values, adjusted with the subsurface interpretation of its sources. In several cases, the resistivity model did not enclose trajectory information well, so the B.o.C information is obtained from attested conceptual models which attach this information.

The first approach to reservoir temperature is using the boiling chloride spring in the form of silica geothermometer. The second approach, if the data availability of boling chloride spring is not sufficient (horizontal distance from the targeted well, etc) the cation type of geothermometer is used. The third approach is using fumarole and analyzed with a gas geothermometer. The last approach is using the well temperature's data.

After all of the data is collected and validated, the input process is done in JIWA T.o.R. software. The algorithm used in this software is based on a boiling point-to-depth (BPD) plot that has been explained by Sidqi et al (2021). The output provided by this software is available in form of depth chart, histogram, and percentile table, with terminology of P1 (1st percentile), P10 (10th percentile), P20 (20th percentile), and so on until P99 (99th percentile). The output is therefore visualized in the next section of this paper.

The visualization of the result is presented in several types of charts. The percentile of distribution at each well is presented in a bar chart (**Fig. 6**) and the frequency of each percentile (**Fig. 7**). The depth uncertainty to analyze the correlation between data input type and the calculated top of reservoir is shown at **Fig. 5**, while the cumulative frequency curve of calculated T.o.R. depth range is presented at **Fig. 8**. Sensitivity analysis by correlating the base of conductive and temperature estimates uncertainty with uncertainty obtained from JIWA T.o.R system is shown at **Fig. 9** and **Fig.10**.

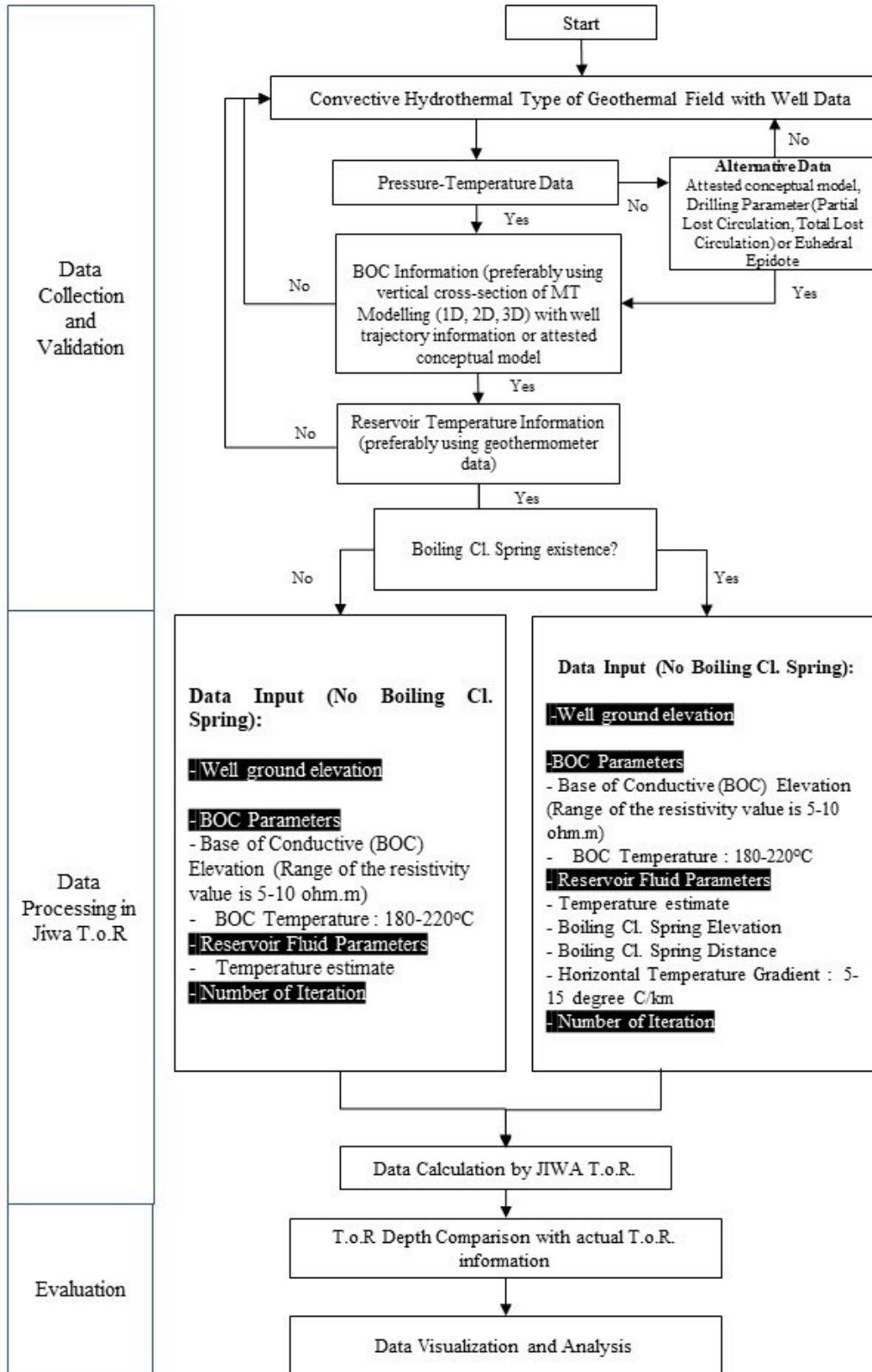


Figure 2: Flowchart of the research.

4. FIELD DATA

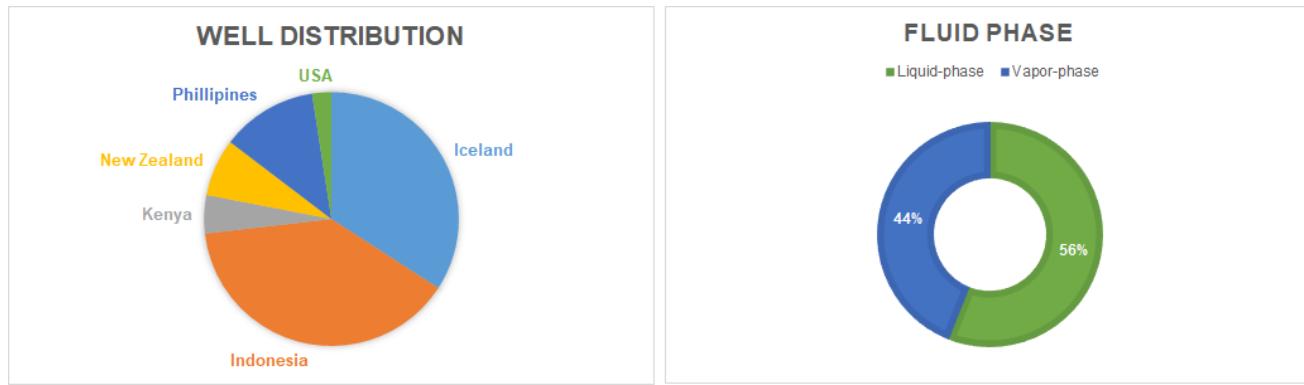


Figure 3: Worldwide distribution of utilized well information.

A total of twenty geothermal fields and forty-one geothermal wells have been studied from published literature. Data was obtained from perusing various open-access publications to obtain the information of the base of the conductive layer, primarily interpreted from available, high-resolution MT or resistivity profiles (Figure 3). To determine the actual top of reservoir depth, the pressure-temperature diagrams or conceptual model are primarily utilized, and in case it is not available, the record of the first euhedral appearance (epidote), PLC (partially lost circulation), or TLC (total lost circulation data) are utilized as alternative.

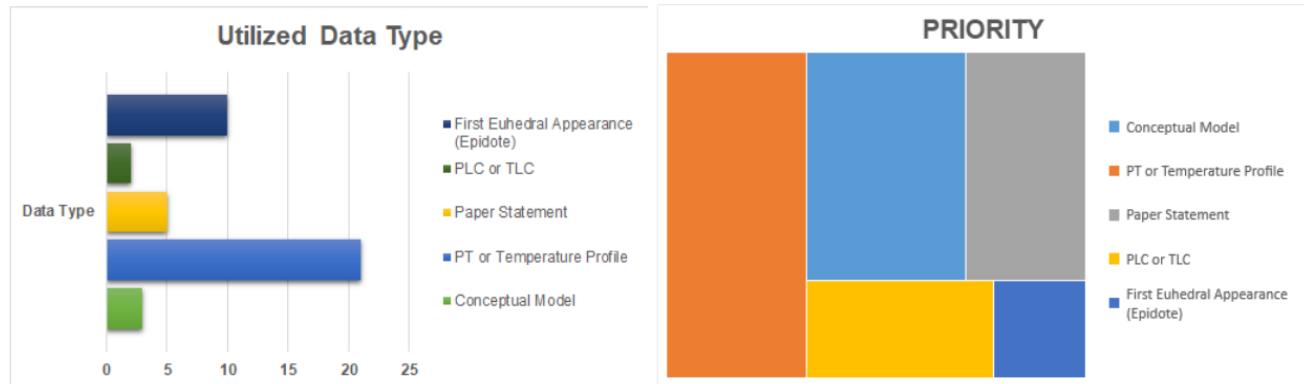


Figure 4: Utilized well-data type for actual top of reservoir information.

As shown in the hierarchical diagram, a higher confidence is favored in well data that possess natural state pressure-temperature diagrams over other utilized information.

Constraints met during data collection as shown in Figure 4 can be divided into two things, data availability and data compatibility with the software. A lot of published geothermal fields information cannot be utilized despite its play type compatibility due to lack of accessibility of the information, available information is presented in poor or difficult-to-distinguish resolution, or asynchronous available reservoir information.

No.	Well Name	Field	Geothermal System	Well Ground Elevation	BOC Elevation	Boiling Chloride Spring / None	Boiling Chloride Spring Distance (Km)	Boiling Chloride Spring Elevation	Temperature Estimate	T.o.R Elevation	Actual T.o.R Elevation (m asl)	Actual ToR Elevation Data	Sources
1	LHD-23	Lahendong	Water-dominated	900	(50)-(-400)	None	-	-	200-322 (Gas Geothermometer)	(-350) - (-1299)	-800	First epide appearance + TLC + PLC	Rahardjo et al. (2009); Prijanto et al. (1984); Koestono (2010)
2	LHD-28	Lahendong	Water-dominated	900	0 - 50	None	-	-	200-322 (Gas Geothermometer)	(-13.8) - (-1299.2)	-250	First epide appearance + TLC + PLC	Rahardjo et al. (2009); Prijanto et al. (1984); Koestono (2010)
3	PAD I-I	Salak	Water-dominated	900	10-300	Yes	6	200	196-256 (Silica Geothermometer)	(-306) - 253.74	200	Pressure-Temperature Profile	Aprilina et al. (2017); Stima et al. (2008)
4	RD-Y	Rantau Dadap	Water-dominated	2200	1300-1350	None	-	-	210-240 (gas geothermometer)	1086.97-1305.96	1200	Pressure-Temperature Profile	Dyaksa et al. (2016); Abiyudo et al. (2015)
5	ML-A1	Muara Labo	Water-dominated	1420	750-800	Yes	5	795	182-202 (silica, Na-K-Ca, and Na-K-Mg geothermometer)	699.59-793.52	750	Pressure-Temperature Profile	Dyaksa et al. (2016); Wisnandary et al. (2012)
6	LMB-1/3	Lumut Balai	Water-dominated	950	580-720	None	-	-	240-260 (Na-K-Mg geothermometer)	276.46-445.24	300	Pressure-Temperature Profile	Kamah et al. (2010); Hamdani et al. (2020)
7	TLG 3-1	Karaha	Vapor Dominated	1450	0-400	None	-	-	217-225 (silica, Na-K-Ca, Na-K-Mg geothermometer)	-1.95 - 38.67	25	Pressure-Temperature Profile	KESDM (2017); Powell et. al (2001); Prabata, W., and H. Berian (2017)
8	PPL-01	Patuha	Vapor Dominated	1900	1500-1550	None	-	-	220-245 (Gas Geothermometer: log (H ₂ /H ₂ O) vs log (H ₂ N ₂))	1197-1433	1199	Pressure-Temperature Profile	Elfina (2017); PWC et al. (2013)
9	PPL-03	Patuha	Vapor Dominated	2000	1300-1400	None	-	-	220-245 (Gas Geothermometer: log (H ₂ /H ₂ O) vs log (H ₂ N ₂))	1046-1281	1200	Pressure-Temperature Profile	Elfina (2017); PWC et al. (2013)
10	PPL_03 AST	Patuha	Vapor Dominated	2000	1250-1300	None	-	-	220-245 (Gas Geothermometer: log (H ₂ /H ₂ O) vs log (H ₂ N ₂))	997-1229	1000	Pressure-Temperature Profile	Elfina (2017); PWC et al. (2013)
11	PPL_03 BST	Patuha	Vapor Dominated	2000	1250-1350	None	-	-	220-245 (Gas Geothermometer: log (H ₂ /H ₂ O) vs log (H ₂ N ₂))	999-1230	1000	Pressure-Temperature Profile	Elfina (2017); PWC et al. (2013)
12	PPL_05 ST	Patuha	Vapor Dominated	2000	1250-1500	None	-	-	220-245 (Gas Geothermometer: log (H ₂ /H ₂ O) vs log (H ₂ N ₂))	1109-1319	1250	Pressure-Temperature Profile	Elfina (2017); PWC et al. (2013)
13	Well-29	Darajat	Vapor Dominated	1750	800-1000	None	-	-	220-245 (Gas Geothermometer: log (H ₂ /H ₂ O) vs log (H ₂ N ₂))	660.04 - 876.89	800	Paper statement	Intani et al. (2015)
14	F1	Darajat	Vapor Dominated	2000	1000-1100	None	-	-	230-279 (Gas Geothermometer: log (H ₂ /H ₂ O) vs log (H ₂ N ₂))	467.24 - 913.38	550	Paper statement	Intani et al. (2015)
15	MBE-2	Wayang Windu	Vapor Dominated	2100	1400-1800	None	-	-	295-300 (Gas Geothermometer: log (H ₂ /H ₂ O) vs log (H ₂ N ₂))	524.62-933.572	750	Pressure-Temperature Profile	Bogie et al. (2008); Mulyadi and Ashat (2011)
16	MBB-1	Wayang Windu	Vapor Dominated	2200	1200-1800	None	-	-	295-300 (Bogie et al., 2008)	330.34-926.4	600	Conceptual model	Bogie et al. (2008)
17	ULB-01	Ujumbu	Water-dominated	700	-50 (-450)	None	-	-	230-240 C (Gas Geothermometer: log (H ₂ /H ₂ O) vs log (H ₂ N ₂))	(-212.35), (-634.7)	-500	Pressure-Temperature Profile	Yuono and Daud (2020); Kurniawan et al. (2017); Grant et al. (1997)
18	PT 5D	Northern Negros	Water-dominated	1000	-600(-100)	None	-	-	260-270 (Solute geothermometer, Na-K)	(-730) - (-1032,18)	-1000	Pressure-Temperature Profile	Los Banos (2012); Zaidi-Delfin et al. (1998); Dulce end Zeide-Delfin (2005); Yglopaz et al. (2005)
19	CN-3D	BacMan	Water-dominated	750	(-100) - (300)	Yes	10	5	184-271 (Solute geothermometer: Na-K)	-258 - (-635,15) masl	-450	Pressure-Temperature Profile	Tugawin et al. (2015); Austria (2008); Ramos and Espartines (2015)
20	PAL 21	BacMan	Water-dominated	700	-200 - (-250)	Yes	10	5	184-271 (Solute geothermometer: Na-K)	-671 - (-870) masl	-800	Pressure-Temperature Profile	Tugawin et al. (2015); Austria (2008); Ramos and Espartines (2015)
21	PAL 19D	BacMan	Water-dominated	700	-400(-450)	Yes	10	5	184-271 (Solute geothermometer: Na-K)	-870 - (-1069)	-1000	Pressure-Temperature Profile	Tugawin et al. (2015); Austria (2008); Ramos and Espartines (2015)
22	CN 2D	BacMan	Water-dominated	700	-50 (-100)	Yes	10	5	184-271 (Solute geothermometer: Na-K)	-479 - (-766,2)	-600	Pressure-Temperature Profile	Tugawin dkk (2015); Austria (2008); Ramos and Espartines (2015)
23	RK-25	Rotokawa	Water-dominated	400	-650 - (-600)	Yes	2.6	400	183-208 (Solute Geothermometer:silica)	(-716.85) - (-607.06)	-650	Updated Conceptual Model	Sewell et al. (2012); Browne (1988)
24	RK-1	Rotokawa	Water-dominated	400	(-100) - 200	Yes	3.2	400	183-208 (Solute Geothermometer:silica)	(-844.26) - 147,13	-550	Updated Conceptual Model	Sewell et al. (2012); Browne (1988)
25	NM2	Ngatamariki	Water-dominated	350	-300(-260)	None	-	-	180-240 (geothermometer Na-K-Mg)	(-517.83) - (-283.07)	-500	Pressure-Temperature Profile	Chambefort, (2015)
26	OW-902	Olkaria	Extensial domain type	2000	1200-2000	None	-	-	225-291 (Qtz-CO ₂ geothermometer)	1049.59 - 1332.08	1225	First epide appearance	Onacha (2009); Lagat (2012); Karinithi (2000)
27	OW-903	Olkaria	Extensial domain type	2000	1100-1500	None	-	-	225-291 (Qtz-CO ₂ geothermometer)	(-945.36) - (-1055.91)	955	First epide appearance	Onacha (2009); Lagat (2012); Karinithi (2000)
28	NJ-11	Nesjavellir	Rifting	250	(-320)-(-300)	None	-	-	200-325 (Gas geothermometer: H ₂ SiAr-H ₂ Ar)	(-1723.46) - (-327.92)	-1000	Pressure-Temperature Profile	Arnason et al. (1987); Gudmundur et al. (2015); Ping (1991)
29	NJ-14	Nesjavellir	Rifting	390	(-300)-(-120)	None	-	-	197-354 (Gas geothermometer: H ₂ SiAr-H ₂ Ar)	(-2400.72) - (-294.05)	-412	First epide appearance	Arnason and Flóvenz (1992); Nouralée, (2000); Ping (1991)
30	NJ-15	Nesjavellir	Rifting	300	(-400)-50	None	-	-	197-354 (Gas geothermometer: H ₂ SiAr-H ₂ Ar)	(-2226.35) - (-362.72)	-500	Pressure-Temperature Profile	Arnason and Flóvenz (1992); Ping (1991); Nithabose (2015)
31	KR-02	Krýsuvík	Rifting	100	(-250)-(-200)	None	-	-	250-330 (Gas geothermometer: H ₂ SiAr-H ₂ Ar)	(-1407.5) - (-157.76)	-637	First epide appearance	Didana (2010); Irabaruta (2010)
32	KR-05	Krýsuvík	Rifting	100	(-225)-50	None	-	-	199-310 (Chlorite geothermometer)	(-1057.17) - (-198.61)	-550	Pressure-Temperature Profile	Didana (2010); Hogenson (2017)
33	KR-06	Krýsuvík	Rifting	100	(-400)-25	None	-	-	199-310 (Chlorite geothermometer)	(-1080.73) - (-341.39)	-800	Pressure-Temperature Profile	Didana (2010); Hogenson (2017)
34	KR-08	Krýsuvík	Rifting	200	100-150	None	-	-	250-330 (Gas geothermometer: H ₂ SiAr-H ₂ Ar)	(-1408.67) - (-163.45)	-700	Pressure-Temperature Profile	Didana (2010); Ngaruye (2009); Hogenson (2017)
35	TR-01	Trollödningja	Rifting	150	(-400)-(-250)	None	-	-	200-280 (Gas geothermometer: H ₂ SiAr-H ₂ Ar)	(-887.88) - (-381.53)	-540	First epide appearance	Didana, 2010; Hogenson (2017)
36	TR-02	Trollödningja	Rifting	200	(-100)-200	None	-	-	200-280 (Gas geothermometer: H ₂ SiAr-H ₂ Ar)	(-456.51) - (-173.58)	-362	First epide appearance	Didana, 2010; Hogenson (2017)
37	RN-09	Reykjanés	Rifting	0	(-200)-0	None	-	-	200-350 (Gas geothermometer: H ₂ SiAr-H ₂ Ar)	(-2038.44) - (-511.99)	-634	First epide appearance	Didana, (2010); Hogenson (2017); Axelsson et al. (2015)
38	RN-10	Reykjanés	Rifting	0	(-500)-0	None	-	-	199-310 (Chlorite geothermometer)	(-968.18) - (-115.97)	-600	First epide appearance	Didana, 2010; Hogenson (2017)
39	RN-17	Reykjanés	Rifting	0	(-600)-(-200)	None	-	-	183-208 (silica Geothermometer)	(-396.33) - (-217.55)	-312	First epide appearance	Didana, 2010; Hogenson (2017)
40	RN-20	Reykjanés	Rifting	0	(-800)-(-100)	None	-	-	183-208 (silica Geothermometer)	(-767.41) - (-128.84)	-600	First epide appearance	Didana, 2010; Hogenson (2017)
41	34-RD2	Coso	Water-dominated	0	100-500	None	-	-	295-300 (Solute Geothermometer: Na-K-Ca)	(-777.5) - (-366.37)	-500	Paper statement	Newman et al., (2008)

Table 1: Input Parameters and Result from JIWA T.o.R. **) Geothermometer from the well sample, *) Mineral Geothermometer, *) Unknown Geothermometer Method**

5. RESULT

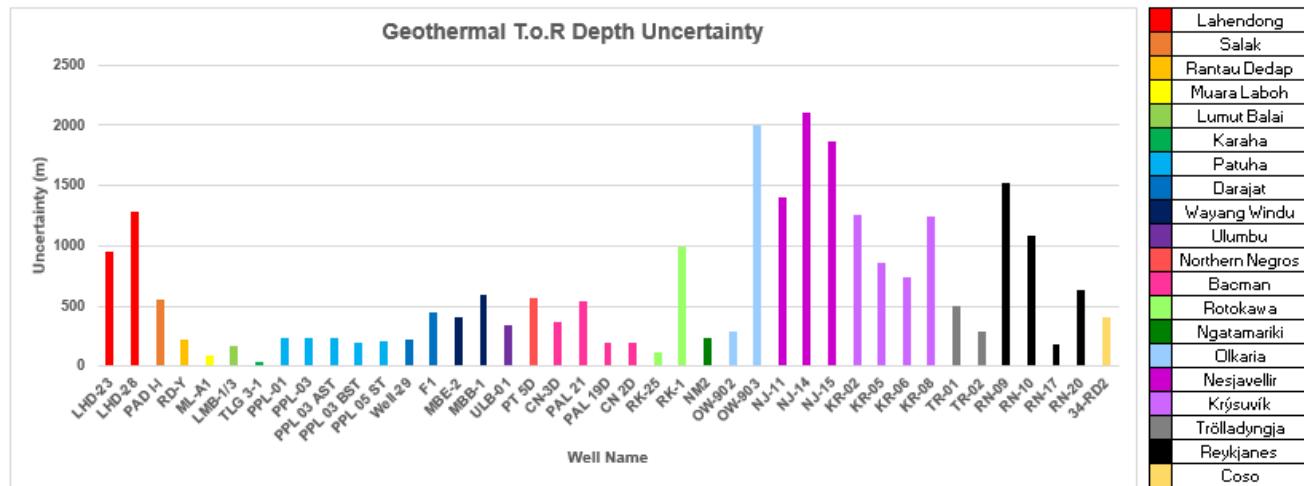


Figure 5: Geothermal T.o.R depth uncertainty of each reservoir

Figure 5 displays how reservoirs in the same geothermal field may possess different levels of uncertainty. This fact affirms how each geothermal field is unique and thus requires specialized consideration pre-drilling activity, which is by minimizing the T.o.R uncertainties.

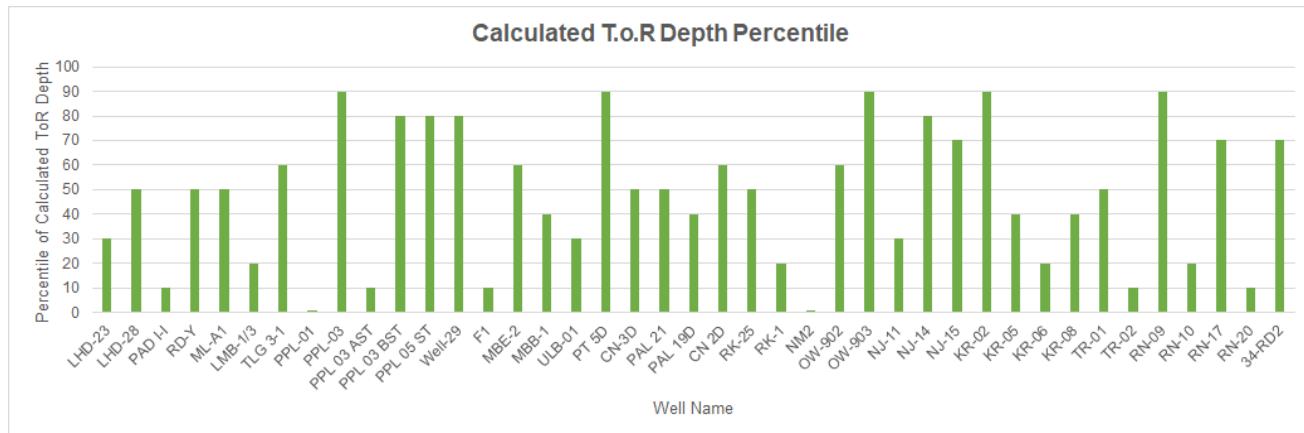


Figure 6: Calculated T.o.R depth percentile from each well

Each well's uncertainty is portrayed through measurement of the uncertainties range. It is shown that well that relies on attested conceptual models having the least uncertainty, followed by (natural state) pressure and temperature diagram, and lastly, the first euhedral appearance. The reason why conceptual models correspond with the lowest uncertainty is due to the fact that conceptual models have the least epistemic uncertainty, meaning that the data collection utilized to make the model have been more complete and integrated - hence more representative of the well condition. First euhedral appearance, on the other hand, does not lend as much confidence, especially in magmatic - vapor phase system since the occurrences are usually out of equilibrium of the thermal regime (Rejeki et al., 2010), thus no longer representing the actual site condition. The graph shows TLG 3-1 has minimum uncertainty width and RN-10 has maximum uncertainty width.

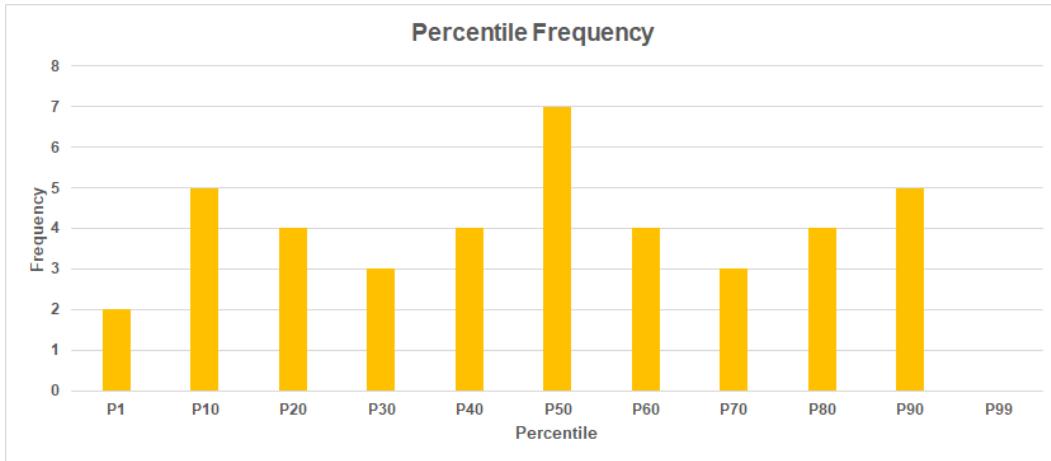


Figure 7: Frequency shows percentile distribution for overall well data

Plot of reservoir to their respective percentile calculation for T.o.R depth have displayed prevalence of the T.o.R depth is primarily found P50 (Figure 7). It means, the actual T.o.R is situated at the best (mean) estimate of JIWA T.o.R system. While this fact does not represent all worldwide conditions, it proves that the estimate calculated from JIWA T.o.R system gives the best estimate since the range corresponds with the input parameters and depicts the T.o.R coverage to determine the geothermal top of the reservoir.

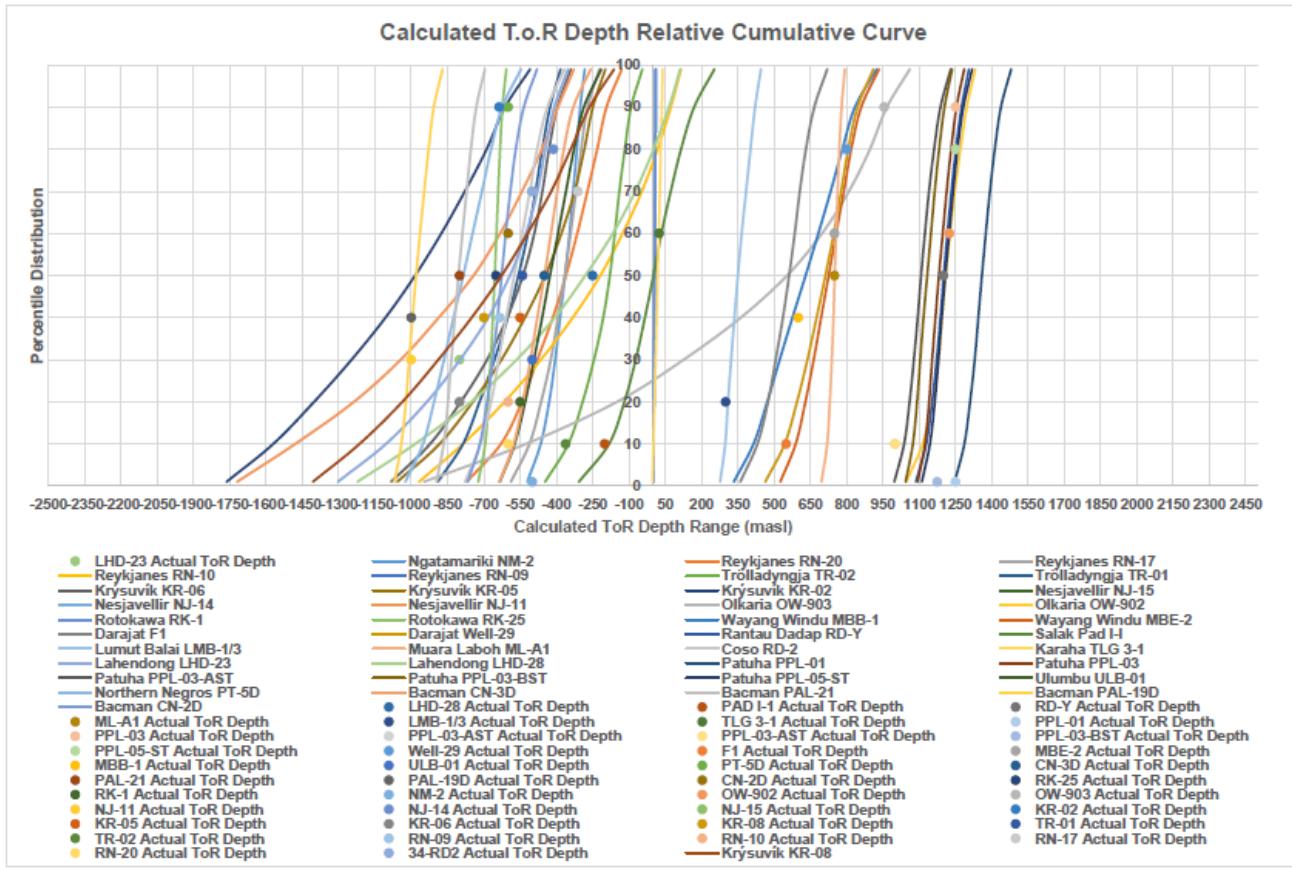


Figure 8: Relative cumulative curve from overall well data

Relative cumulative curve depicts calculated T.o.R depth range by JIWA T.o.R with actual T.o.R depth. The results vary depending on the prior well information; some well depicts a steep S-curve, indicating the uncertainty level in determining the T.o.R is minimum. Conversely, some well depicts a sloping S-curve, indicating that the uncertainty level in determining the T.o.R is bigger.

Differences in uncertainty level can be resulted due to two things: data availability for input parameters and also inherent uncertainties from the input parameter utilized to calculate the T.o.R depth range. When it concerns data availability, we are talking about reducing

the epistemic uncertainty either by gaining more data collection or integrating available data from various geoscience aspects to provide a conclusive and comprehensive depiction.

From Figure 8, Karaha TLG 3-1 possesses the steepest curve and Olkaria OW-903 possesses the most sloping curve. If inferred from the input parameter utilized, it can be concluded that Karaha TLG 3-1 possesses the least epistemic uncertainty, given the B.o.C information and reservoir fluid parameters (temperature estimate) is based on conceptual models that have been updated with drilling information. On the other hand, Olkaria OW-903 possesses significant epistemic uncertainty, as the actual T.o.R information is inferred from the first epidote (euhedral) appearance (soft data).

However, when it concerns inherent uncertainties from the input parameter, the aleatory variability from the subsurface exploration data also needs to be considered, where not only geological setting but setting which parameter is more sensitive in approximating the base of conductive becomes paramount. Presented below is the sensitivity analysis by comparing relations between B.o.C elevation uncertainty to T.o.R uncertainty with temperature (input) uncertainty with the T.o.R uncertainty.

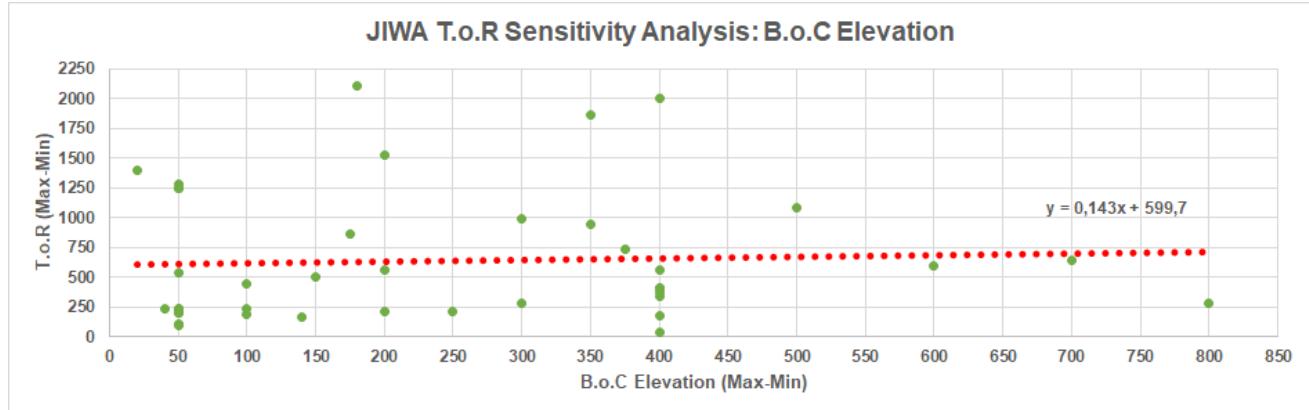


Figure 9: JIWA T.o.R sensitivity analysis - B.o.C elevation

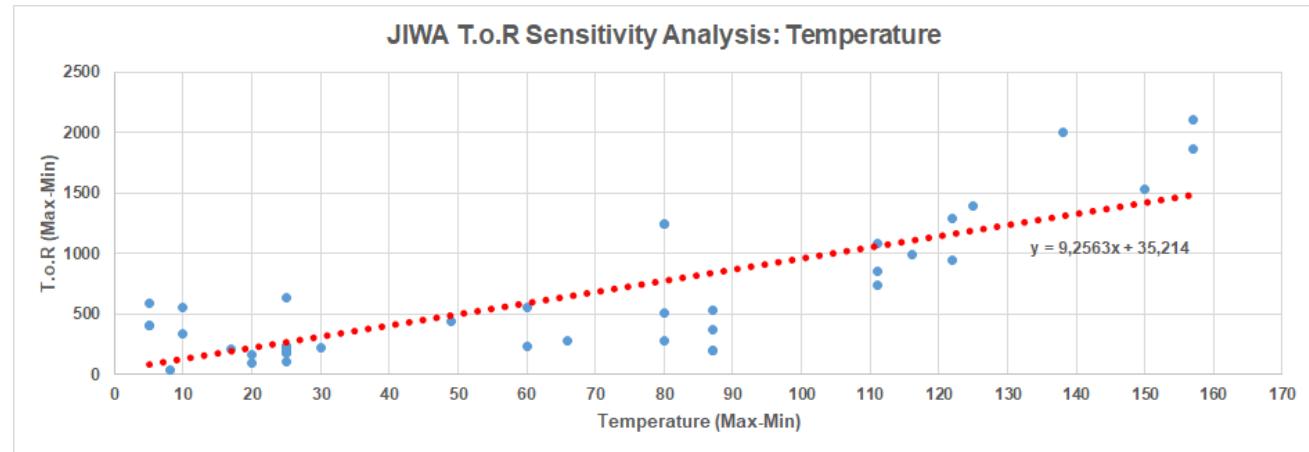


Figure 10: JIWA T.o.R sensitivity analysis – Temperature

A further uncertainties analysis from the relative cumulative curve is done by analysing whether inherent uncertainty from the base of conductive (Figure 9) and temperature estimate (Figure 10) affects the uncertainty width. Calculation results show that inherent temperature estimates' uncertainty have a higher gradient and defined trendline compared to base of conductive, thus becoming a more determining factor in reducing the top of reservoir uncertainties. Furthermore, temperature estimates obtained from silica geothermometer via boiling chloride spring have a higher probability in reducing the uncertainties since the silica geothermometer works best at 150-225°C (Fournier, 1977). Moreover the study by Kuzmin (2002) shows the gas geothermometer results are more scattered than the solute geothermal result. However, the comparison can only be made between two or more reservoirs with high temperature disparity.

6. FIELD CASE

6.1 Well RK-25 (Rotokawa)

The Rotokawa geothermal field is a liquid dominated geothermal system. This field is located within the Taupo Volcanic Zone (TVZ) on the north island of New Zealand. In this study, RK-25's top of reservoir is evaluated using JIWA T.o.R. 3D-inversion MT cross-section as illustrated in Figure 11 implies that the B.o.C elevation below the well RK-25 is around -650 to -600 meter above sea level (m

asl). The B.o.C has been interpreted by the low resistivity anomaly (5-10 ohm.m) that correlates to smectite clay cap. The silica geothermometer silica result from the boiling chloride spring is around 183-208°C. This boiling chloride spring is located 2,6 km from the well RK-25, at an elevation of about 400 masl. The expected reservoir in RK-25 is extrapolated first from the boiling chloride spring location using horizontal geothermal gradient (5-15°C/km). The expected reservoir temperature in RK-25 is around 193-247°C.

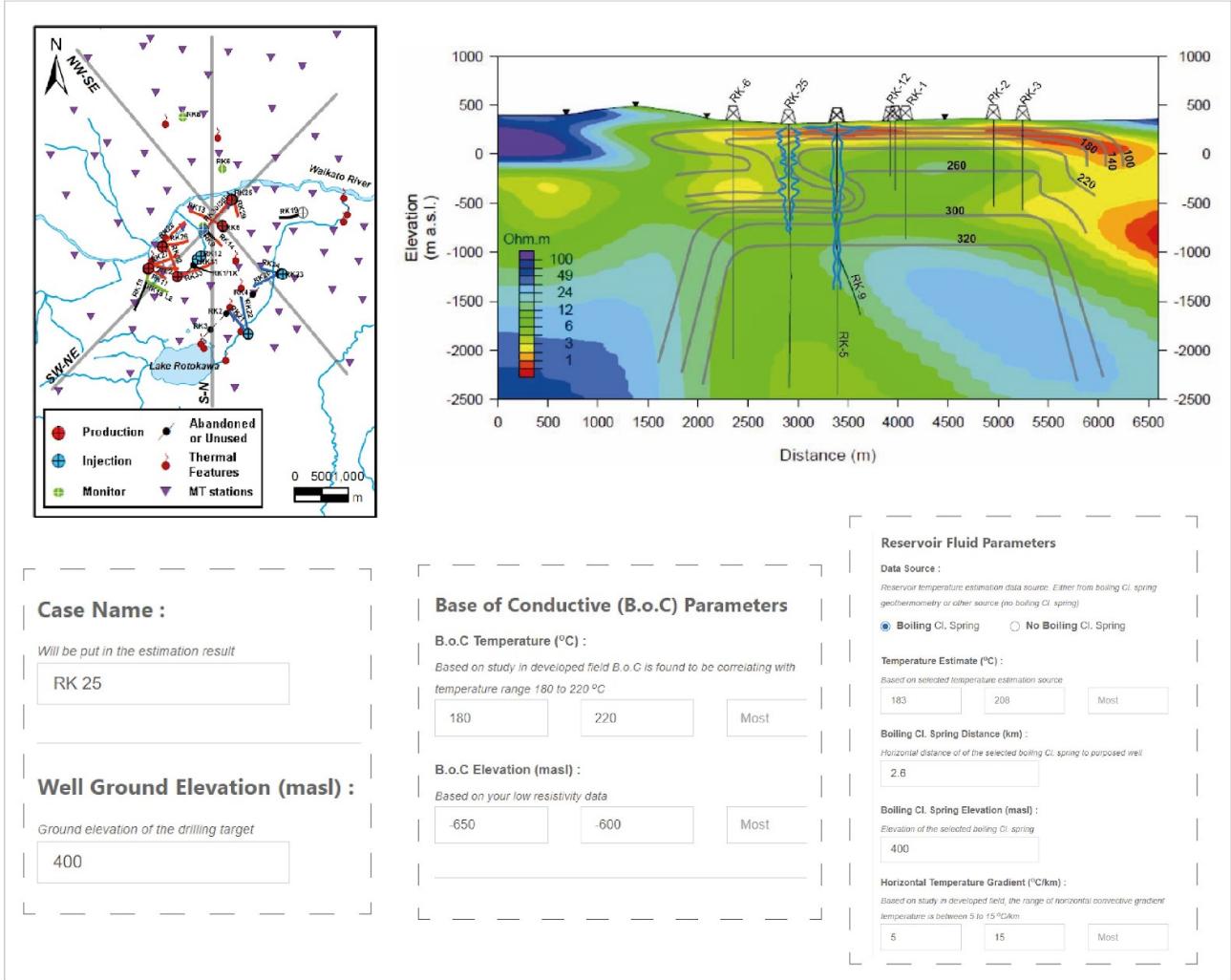


Figure 11: Input parameter from RK-25 in JIWA T.o.R. MT cross-section was obtained from Sewell et al. (2012)

In this case, we compared the actual T.o.R using the updated conceptual model by Sewell et al.(2012), the updated conceptual model shows the natural state based on measured well data, relevant geological and physical information (Figure 12). The top of the reservoir from the updated conceptual model is expected around -600 m asl.

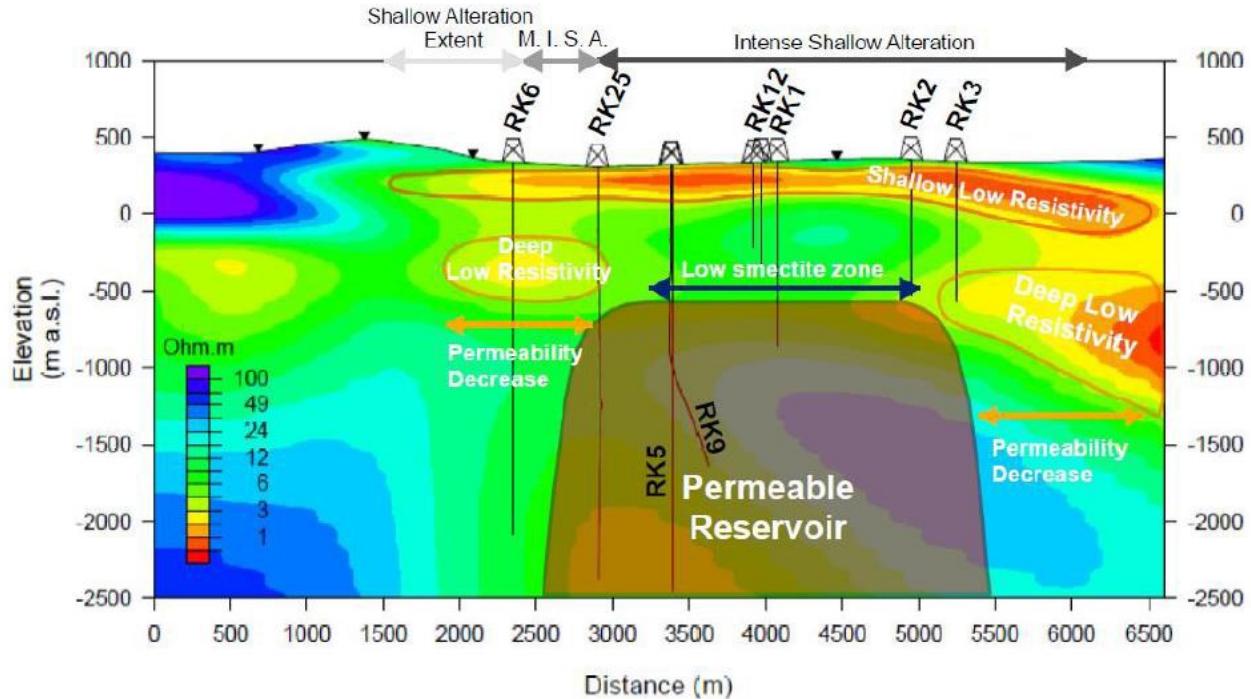


Figure 12: Conceptual model to confirm the top of reservoir derived from a 3-D MT cross-section N-S (Sewell et al., 2012).

The JIWA T.o.R estimation result of well RK-25 shows the T.o.R uncertainties in a range of \pm -607 to -721 m asl (Figure 12) that correlated with the P50 of JIWA T.o.R estimation (Figure 13).

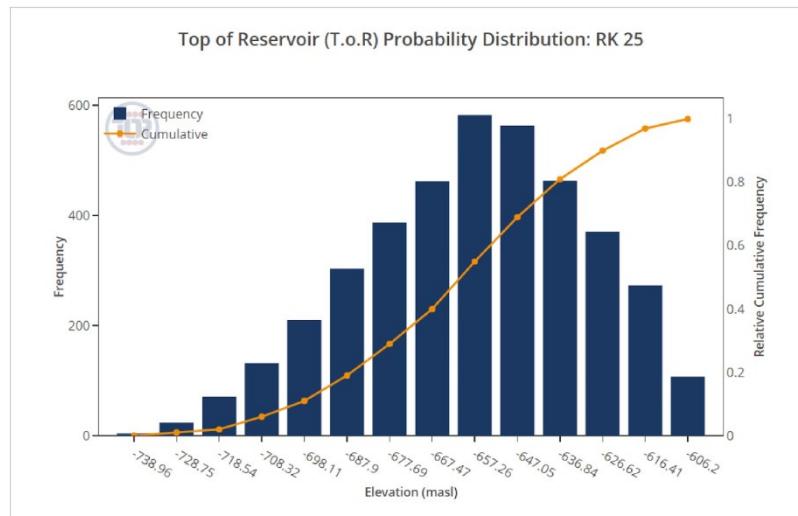


Figure 13: Histogram of Well RK-25 T.o.R probability distribution

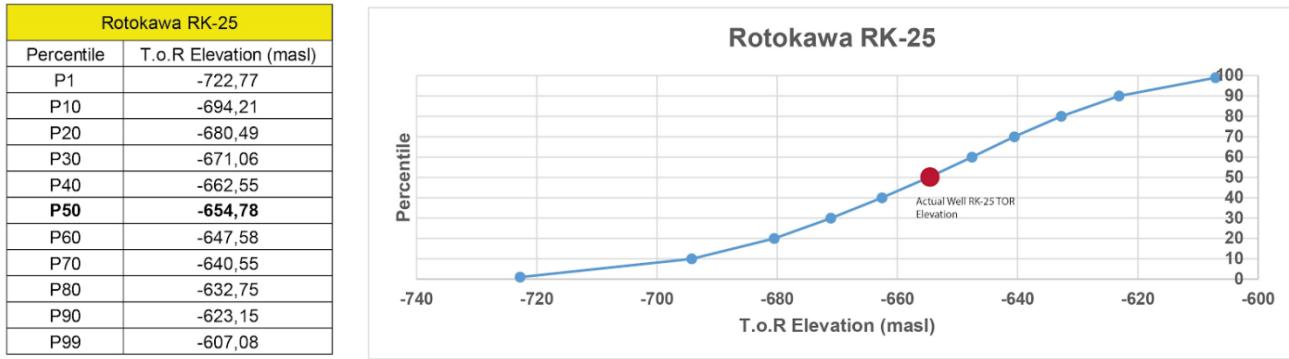


Figure 14: JIWA T.o.R result for RK-25, Rotokawa

6.2 Well PPL-03-BST (Patuha)

The Patuha geothermal field is located in Bandung and Cianjur Districts, West Java Province, Indonesia. The B.o.C elevation below well PPL-03-BST is interpreted around 1,250-1,350 m asl based on the low resistivity in the cross section of MT shown in Figure 16. The study about reservoir temperature by PWC et al. (2013) shows the reservoir temperature expected around 220-240°C using gas geothermometers ($\log(H_2/H_2O)$ vs $\log(H_2/N_2)$).

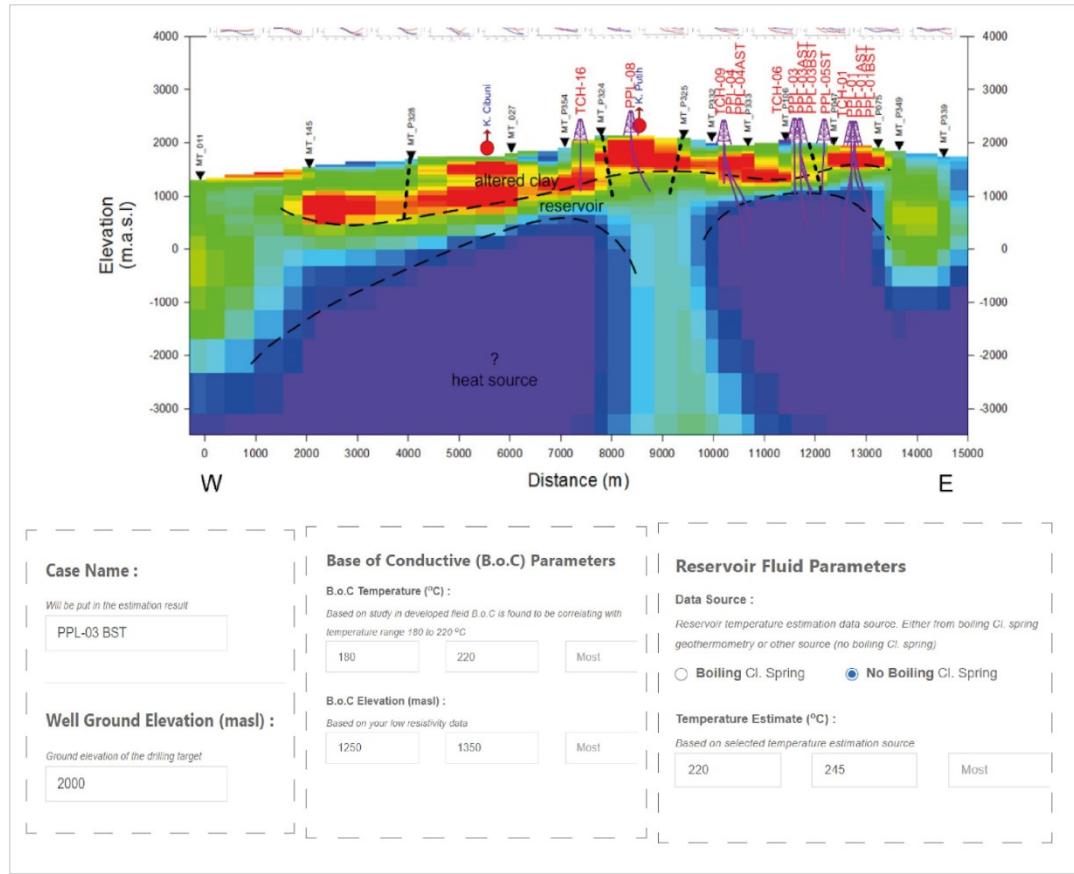


Figure 15: Input parameter PPL-03-BST in JIWA T.o.R. MT cross-section is obtained from Elfina (2017)

The actual reservoir was identified by the convective zone of the temperature profile. Convective profiles can be described by isothermal sections. An isothermal profile is a part of the well where the temperature and depth are constant or almost constant with depth. The actual well PPL-03 BST top of the reservoir is $\pm 1,175$ m asl (Figure 8).

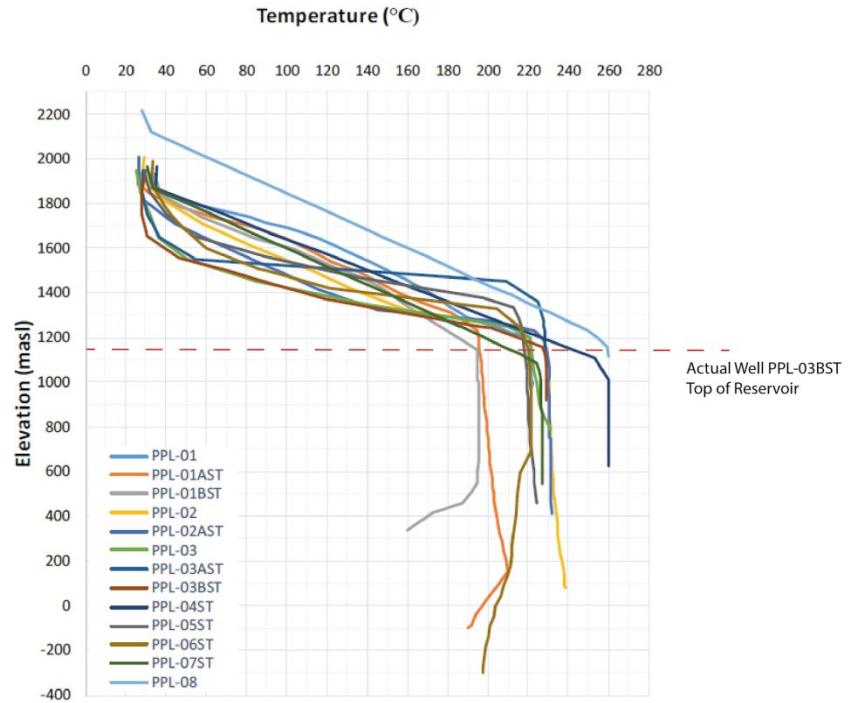


Figure 16: Well PPL-03 BST actual top of reservoir from the temperature profile (Elfina, 2017)

The JIWA T.o.R estimation result shows the T.o.R uncertainties in a range of $\pm 1,038$ to $-1,240$ m asl. The actual top of reservoir correlated with the P80 of JIWA T.o.R estimation (Figure 16).

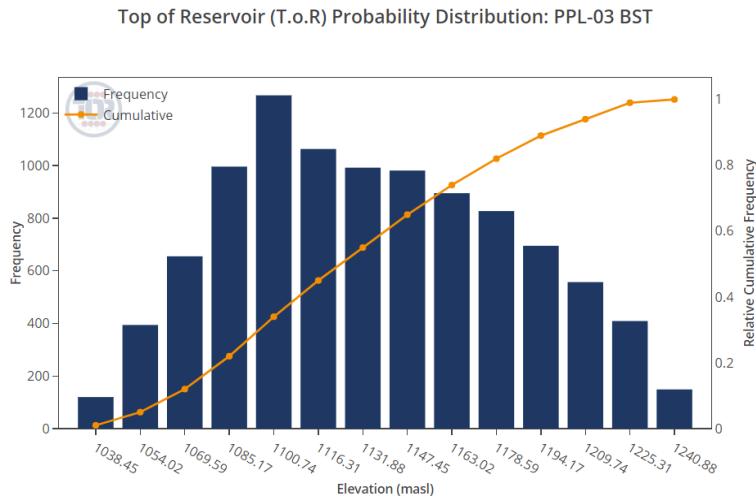


Figure 17: Histogram of Well PPL-03-BST for T.o.R probability distribution

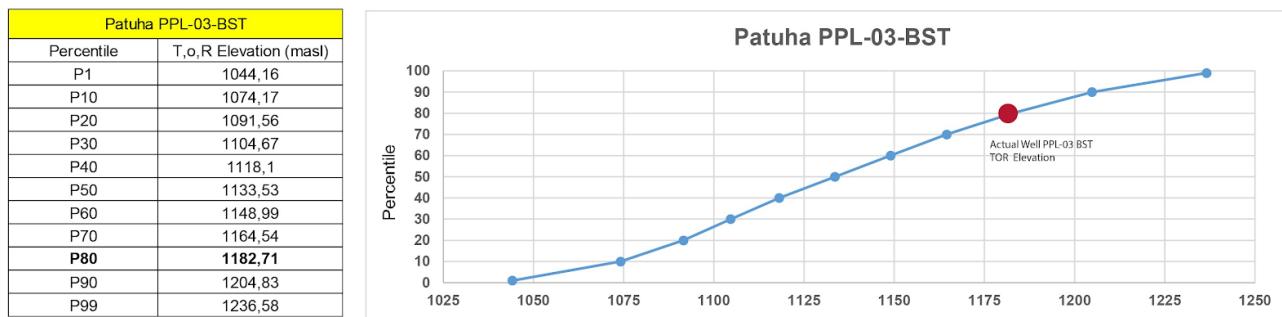


Figure 18. JIWA T.o.R result for PPL-03-BST, Patuha

These two fields have a distinguished characteristic, the presence of the boiling chloride spring and no boiling chloride spring, shows a different result. Well RK-25 with the boiling chloride spring has a lower degree of uncertainty than Well PPL-03-BST. The higher uncertainty of the well PPL-03-BST is affected by the higher range of the BOC elevation (1250-1350 m asl) than well RK-25 ((-650)-(-600)) m asl. These results prove that B.o.C elevation inherent uncertainty plays a significant role in influencing the T.o.R depth uncertainty. Given the similar temperature range derived from the geothermometer, the estimated reservoir temperature uncertainty is not as pronounced in influencing the T.o.R depth uncertainty.

7. CONCLUSION

Forty-one geothermal wells from all over the world comprising both vapor and liquid-phase geothermal systems have been analysed within this study, showing how JIWA T.o.R successfully covers all depth uncertainties. It is concluded how P-T diagrams and conceptual models possess higher confidence since their (epistemic uncertainty) have reduced due to integration of drilling data, and further proven from the T.o.R range results. Data visualization depicts how temperature estimates derived from geothermometer data as one of the input parameters more significantly influence the T.o.R uncertainty rather than B.o.C elevation information derived from the resistivity model. This claim is proven by the sensitivity analysis that shows higher gradients for the temperature uncertainty, thus becoming a more determining factor in reducing T.o.R uncertainties. Furthermore, temperature estimates obtained from silica geothermometer via boiling chloride spring have a higher probability in reducing the uncertainties. However, when a comparative of two or more reservoirs are made with similar temperature range, the B.o.C elevation uncertainty is much more pronounced compared to the temperature one. Nevertheless, the calculation results prove that both B.o.C elevation and temperature estimate are crucial in constraining T.o.R uncertainties to reduce drilling risks.

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