

BOILING AND THERMAL -PRESSURE CHANGES RECORDED IN CALCITE-HOSTED FLUID INCLUSIONS OF THE NGAWHA GEOTHERMAL FIELD, NEW ZEALAND

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SUMMARY – Calcite-hosted fluid inclusions separated from cuttings and cores of Ngawha wells were studied to understand boiling-mixing processes affecting reservoir fluids and the origins of calcite. Evidence of boiling is represented by co-existing liquid-rich and vapour-rich inclusions at most depths and the common occurrence of platy calcite. Over 1000 fluid inclusions have Th values that range from 160 to 306 °C and Tm values that range from -0.4 to -2.5 °C. Crushing experiments and Tm data suggest that inclusion fluids contain up to 3.7 wt % CO₂, approximately twice as much as in the modern fluid. It thus appears that calcite and the fluid inclusions formed under a wide range of pressures, some of which approached lithostatic. The build up of high partial pressures of CO₂ is likely due to the impermeable nature of the shallow sedimentary host rocks.

1. INTRODUCTION

The Ngawha geothermal system lies in the central axis of the Northland Peninsula, within a region of Quaternary basaltic volcanism; it is the only high temperature geothermal system in Northland (Figure 1). The field is situated within a depression, the Ngawha Lake basin, at an average elevation of 200 m asl. Fluid from two wells (Ng 9 and Ng 12) is used to generate electricity (~10 MWe) through an Ormat plant.

The Ngawha geothermal system is predominantly hosted by sedimentary rocks and is associated with fluids containing high concentrations of CO₂ (Sheppard, 1984). Not surprisingly, calcite is the dominant mineral in veins and fractures (Browne, 1980; Cox and Browne, 1998), providing a partial record of the distribution and movement of CO₂ in geothermal fluids (e.g. Simmons and Christenson, 1994). In this paper, we describe preliminary interpretations from a fluid inclusion study on calcite from the Ngawha geothermal system (Arediningsih, 2001).

2. GEOLOGY AND THERMAL ACTIVITY

Basement rocks of the Permian-Jurassic Waipapa Group are made up of quartzo-feldspathic greywackes and argillites (Skinner, 1981), and these host the geothermal reservoir. Though their porosity is poor, fractures and interconnected joints provide most of the permeability (Browne, 1980) and confine the extent of the reservoir (e.g. Cox and Browne, 1998). The overlying Cretaceous-Tertiary sedimentary sequence is about 500 m thick and comprises siltstones, mudstones and shales, interleaved with zones of

tectonic breccia (Skinner and Grindley, 1980). Their fine grained and ductile nature forms a partial barrier to ascending thermal fluids (e.g. Cox, 1985). The presence of steeply dipping faults (NE and NW trending) with offsets of no more than a few tens of meters (Petty, 1985) provide the main conduits for fluids reaching the surface.

The thermal features include neutral to acid hot pools, gas seeps and cold lakes. They form three linear arrays that trend northeast (Figure 2). The low liquid discharge (1-2 l/s, total) and the seemingly high gas flux are distinctive features of the surface activity (Giggenbach and Lyon, 1977).

The deep reservoir water at Ngawha has a temperature of about 230° C and is generally similar in composition to reservoir waters found in TVZ geothermal systems. It contains about 1200 ppm Cl and 1-2 wt.% CO₂ (Sheppard, 1984). This fluid is slightly over-pressured with respect to a hot hydrostatic boiling point for depth gradient, due to the confining nature of the shallow sedimentary strata (e.g. Browne and Lawless, 2001).

3. SAMPLES AND METHODS

Hydrothermal calcite occurs mainly as fracture and vein fillings (Cox and Browne, 1998). It commonly forms platy crystals. Fluid inclusions were studied in twenty-two samples from six wells (Ng-2, Ng-3, Ng-4, Ng-5, Ng-13, Ng-16) ranging from 328 m to 1200 m depth. Inclusions in one Sample of quartz (Ng-4) were also studied.

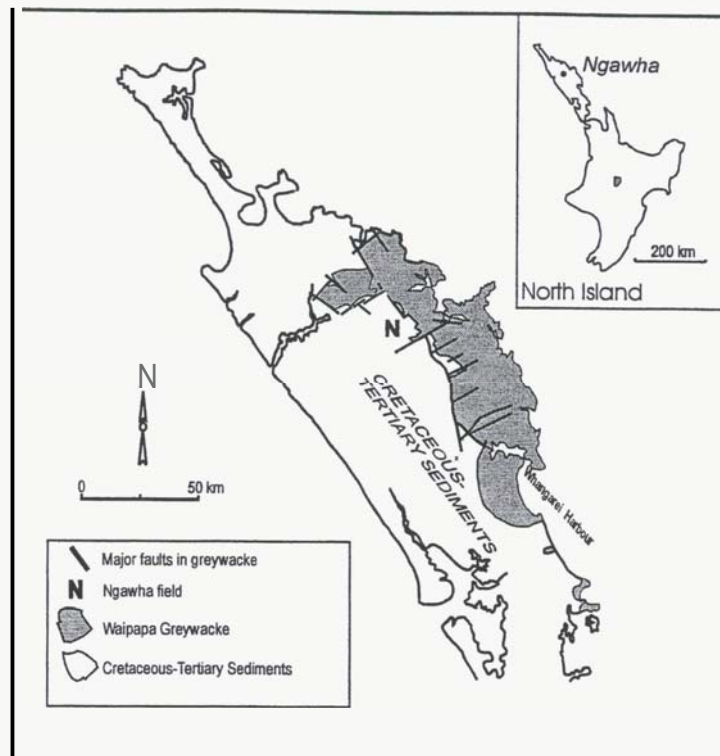


Figure 1. Location of the Ngawha field and regional geology.

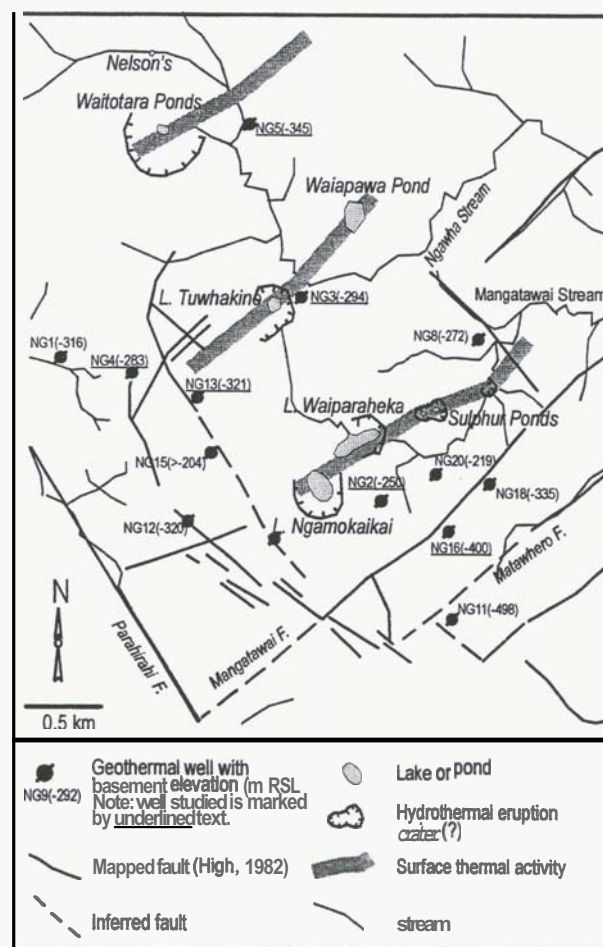


Figure 2. The Ngawha field showing the distribution of the thermal features and wells (modified from Cox, 1985).

Over 70 doubly polished sections ($\sim 100\ \mu\text{m}$ thick) were made. Primary fluid inclusions were clearly associated with crystal growth zones, whereas secondary fluid inclusions occur along healed fractures.

Microthermometric data were obtained on a Fluid Inc.-adapted USGS gas heating-freezing system. The thermocouple was calibrated using synthetic fluid inclusions. Homogenisation temperatures (T_h) are accurate to $\pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ and ice melting temperatures (T_m) are accurate to $\pm 0.1^\circ\text{C}$.

Some calcite-hosted fluid inclusions were crushed to assess the gas contents of the inclusion fluids (Roedder, 1984). Vapour-bubble expansion (Figure 3) indicates the presence of gas (e.g. CO_2) while vapour bubble collapse indicates the presence of pure water vapour (Roedder, 1984).

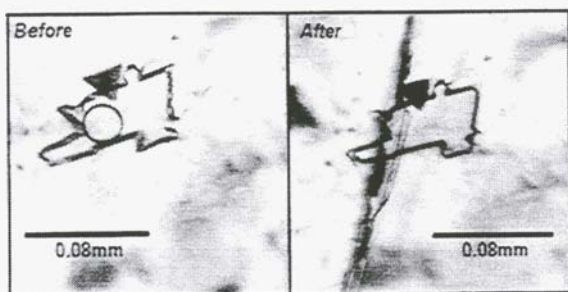


Figure 3. **Left:** Photomicrograph showing a calcite-hosted primary liquid-rich inclusion (Ng5 -1020 m) before crushing. **Right:** Photomicrograph of the same inclusion after crushing. The fracture crossing the inclusion cavity formed from crushing and allowed the internal pressure to equalise with atmospheric pressure, resulting in bubble expansion that completely filled the cavity

4. RESULTS

Primary and secondary inclusions (10 to $100\ \mu\text{m}$) containing two-phases, liquid and vapour, were observed in all calcite and quartz samples. They ranged in shape from flat and thin to equant and irregular to negative crystal. Liquid-rich inclusions containing $\sim 85\%$ liquid were abundant and commonly found with vapour-rich inclusions containing $>95\%$ vapour. Their coexistence in many samples and the platy nature of many calcite crystals indicates vapour-saturated conditions at the time of inclusion entrapment and calcite deposition (Browne, 1978; Roedder, 1984). This means that T_h data can be used directly to infer the fluid temperature and pressure during calcite precipitation (Roedder and Bodnar, 1980).

Microthermometric data were obtained on more than 1000 fluid inclusions. T_h data range from

160" to 306°C , with mean values clustering between 200 and 260°C (Figure 4). Primary and secondary inclusions appear to have formed under similar conditions on the basis of overlapping T_h data. Comparison of the T_h values and down-hole temperatures show: 1) cooling of more than 50°C at shallow level (300-500 m) in Ng 4 and Ng 13; and 2) heating of about 20°C at deep level ($>800\ \text{m}$) in Ng 5 and Ng 13. The bulk of the data, however, have similar homogenisation and down-hole temperatures, suggesting that there has been little change in the temperature gradient since the fluid inclusions formed.

Ice melting temperatures range from -0.4° to -2.5°C with median values clustering between -0.6 and -2.0°C (Figure 4). These correspond to salinities ranging from 0.7 to 4.2 eq wt % NaCl. For comparison, the calculated ice melting temperature of the parent geothermal fluid from Ng 13 is -0.9°C .

Fluid inclusions in twelve calcite crystals were crushed while observing them under the microscope. In most cases, the vapour bubble of liquid-rich inclusions expanded and completely filled the inclusion volume, signifying the presence of CO_2 and minimum concentrations of 0.35 to 0.40 wt% CO_2 (Sasada et al, 1986). These estimates are well within the range observed in the modern reservoir fluids. The maximum concentration could be as high as 3.7 wt % CO_2 given the absence of clathrates and ice melting temperatures of less than -1.5°C (e.g. Hedenquist and Henley, 1985)

5. DISCUSSION

While the T_h data suggest that thermal conditions have remained more or less the same, the T_m data indicate that the modern fluids are more dilute than in the past. This difference may result from a change in the concentration of dissolved salts (i.e. from >2.0 to 0.2 wt % NaCl), or a change in the concentration of dissolved gas (i.e. from 3.5 to 1-2 wt% CO_2), or a change in both. Of the three possibilities, we believe that the compositional differences mostly reflect changes in the CO_2 concentration, as interpreted for other New Zealand geothermal system (Hedenquist and Henley, 1985). This requires a smaller change in concentration than for dissolved salts (a factor of 2 difference versus a factor of 10 difference). This change in CO_2 concentration is also sensitive to overall pressure gradient and of gas loss resulting from boiling.

To illustrate this point, we have calculated two model boiling curves (Figure 4) following the method of Hedenquist and Henley (1985) and Simmons and Christenson (1994). Multi-step

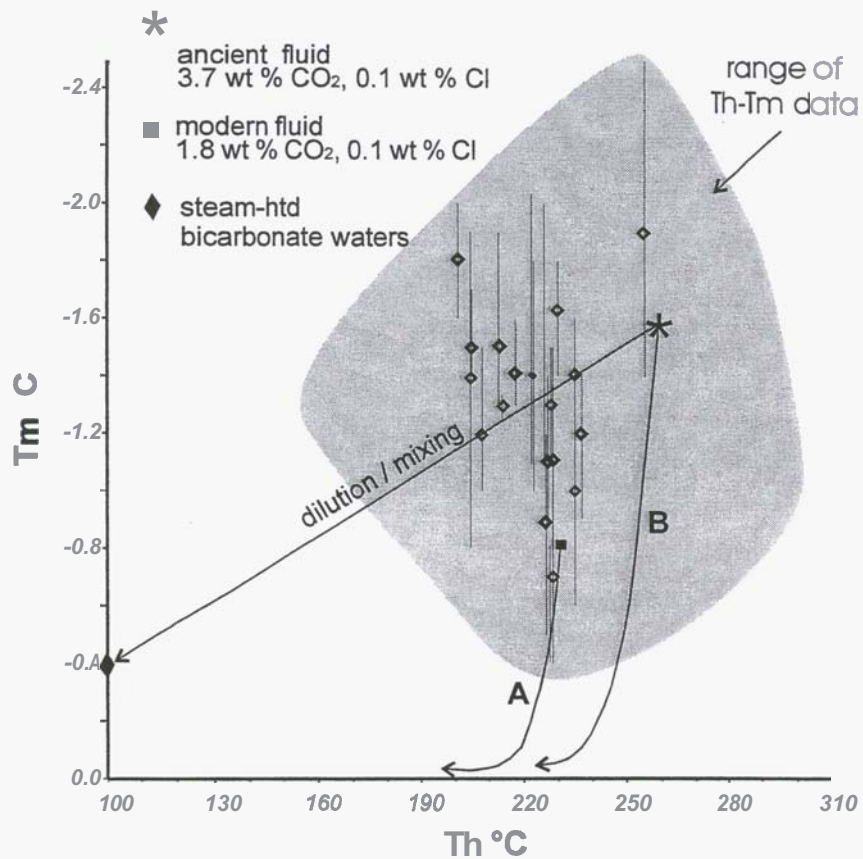


Figure 4. Plot of the T_h (average) and T_m (median and range) data and model boiling curves. The shaded area indicates the full T_h - T_m range of the fluid inclusion data.

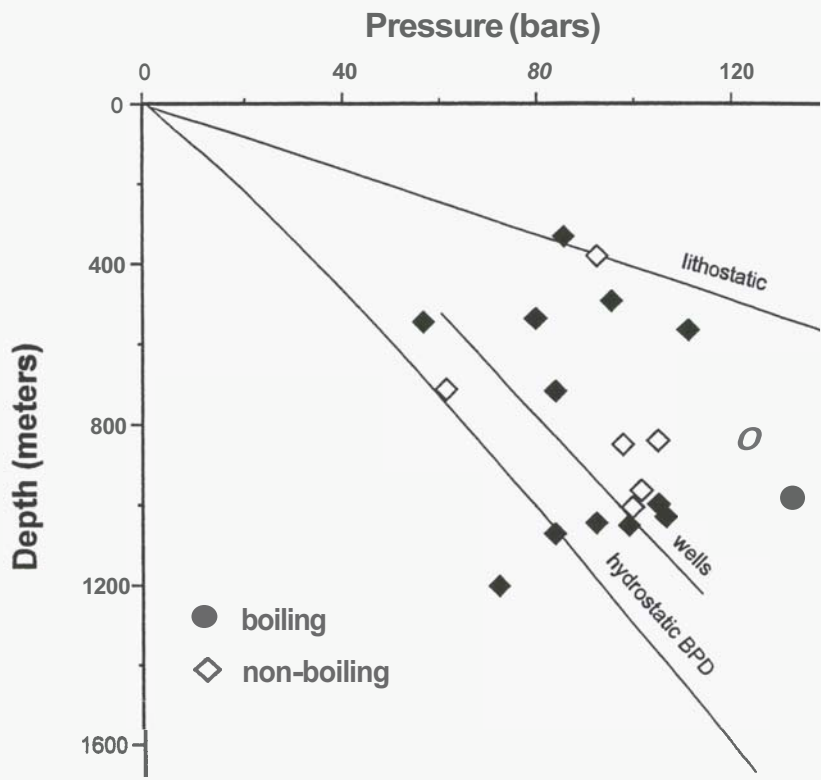


Figure 5. Plot of estimated fluid pressures versus depth. Samples with evidence of boiling are distinguished. Hydrostatic, lithostatic and measured well pressure gradients are shown.

vapour separation is assumed and the fluid compositions (CO_2 and NaCl) are specified to match the Th and Tm data.

Curve A represents the boiling path for the modern parent fluid containing 1.75 wt % CO_2 and 0.1 wt % Cl that begins to boil at 230°C. Curve B represents the boiling path for the ancient parent fluid containing 3.7 wt % CO_2 and 0.1 wt % Cl that begins to boil at 260°C. A mixing line between ancient parent fluid and a shallow steam-heated bicarbonate water is also shown. Figure 3 shows that the relatively wide range of Tm values at near d o r m Th values reflects the effects of boiling and gas loss of the gas-rich parent fluid. Moreover, a significant portion of the Th-Tm data is bracketed by curve B and the mixing line; this is considerably more than can be explained by the modern parent fluid composition and gas loss effects represented by curve A.

Accepting that dissolved CO_2 accounts for much of the Tm data (Figure 4), we estimated fluid pressures assuming a simple $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{CO}_2$ system. The CO_2 partial pressure was calculated from median Tm values and appropriate Henry's Law constants while the partial pressure of water vapour was determined from average Th values and steam tables. The total pressures of fluid inclusion populations range plus or minus about 15% (reflecting the range in Th) and are plotted as a function of depth in Figure 5. They range from 55 to 132 bars, with $p\text{CO}_2$ comprising well over 50% of the total pressure. The Ngawha reservoir pressure gradient (Grant and McGuinness, 1985), the pure water boiling point for depth hydrostatic gradient (Haas, 1971) and the lithostatic gradient are shown for comparison.

In over half of the samples, the estimated pressures exceed modern values by 50 to 100% and approach lithostatic loads at shallow depths (<400 m). Despite these extreme pressures, two-phase conditions apparently existed (as indicated by fluid inclusion evidence and the occurrence of platy calcite), possibly in response to local pressure drops (induced by seismicity?) in confined spaces, which sealed through calcite deposition. Pressure estimates for the rest of the samples fall close to the modern pressure gradient, indicating substantially reduced pressures, possibly resulting from hydrothermal eruptions to the surface. It seems that the relatively impermeable Cretaceous-Tertiary sedimentary host rocks confined fluid volumes that allowed pressures and aqueous CO_2 to build up. Eventually these were partially relieved presumably through fracturing and seismicity though over pressured conditions still exist.

6. CONCLUSIONS

Fluid inclusion data indicate that calcite deposited from 170° to 310°C. These data show cooling of about 50° in places within the cap rock. The central part of the reservoir has not changed, while the northern and western parts of the reservoir have heated about 20° C since the inclusions formed.

Carbon dioxide is the dominant solute in inclusion fluids. Boiling has affected their CO_2 concentrations and the reservoir fluids, as reflected in the Tm data. The ancient fluid contained more gas and, in some cases, was greatly over-pressured relative to the modern fluid.

Impermeable sedimentary rocks at shallow depth, a high influx of CO_2 , opening and sealing of fractures, and the distribution and movement of liquid and vapour, all influenced the development of pressures between hydrostatic and lithostatic and their change over time.

Boiling and some fluid mixing account for most of the microthermometric data. Boiling seems to have had the largest influence in lowering the dissolved CO_2 in the parent liquid as indicated by increasing Tm trend.

7. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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