

South Africa Geothermal Country Update (2005-2009)

Tshibalo A.E, Olivier J, and Venter J.

DCLD. P.O. Box 392 Unisa, 0003, South Africa

tshibae@unisa.ac.za

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ABSTRACT

South Africa is located in a geologically stable zone. Despite this, the country is relatively well endowed with thermal springs. Eighty seven thermal springs, with temperatures ranging from 25⁰C to 67,5⁰C have been documented to date. These springs are all of meteoric origin and are associated with crustal faulting. The chemical composition of the spring water is determined by the geochemistry of the strata from which they arise. This leads to an interesting anomaly where two adjacent springs may differ significantly with regard to their thermal and chemical properties.

Of the 87 thermal springs, 29 have been developed for direct use - mainly as family leisure and recreational resorts. Very few utilize the water for health or spa purposes. Since coal is abundant and relatively cheap, coal burning power stations are the major suppliers of South Africa's energy requirements. Until recently, very little attention was devoted to research on renewable energy resources. In view of the low temperatures of thermal springs, no effort was made to develop geothermal resources. A recently launched research project is aimed at investigating the feasibility of generating power using a thermal spring binary system as well as from hot granites. This paper gives an overview of energy production in South Africa, the state of local renewable energy projects, and the latest research endeavours on the geology, distribution, chemical and biological properties of geothermal resources.

1. INTRODUCTION

South Africa occupies the southernmost part of the African continent, stretching from 22⁰ to 35⁰ S and 17 to 33⁰ E. Its surface areas is 1 219 090 km². To the west, south and east it is bordered by the Atlantic and southern Indian Oceans, and to the north, by Namibia, Botswana, Zimbabwe and Mozambique (South African Yearbook 2000/01).

1.1 South Africa's Energy Resources

The South African economy can be considered as energy intensive and is based on primary extraction and the processing of coal and uranium. Coal is plentiful and can be extracted cheaply and consequently a large coal mining industry has developed.

1.1.1 Coal

Coal meets about 88% of South Africa's primary energy needs while the remainder is exported. At present about 109 Mt is used for electricity generation, 44 Mt for petrochemical industries (such as SASOL), 10.4 Mt for general industrial sector use, and 5.7 Mt for the metallurgical industry. Coal merchants buy 8.4 Mt to sell locally and abroad (South African Yearbook, 2008/09).

Eskom (the Electricity Supply Commission) has also commissioned an underground coal-gasification pilot plant next to the Majuba Power Station. This process uses a matrix of well drilled into the coal bed. Air is injected and the coal is ignited underground, thus producing a synthetic gas. This is harvested and used for fuel for boilers or turbines (South African Yearbook, 2008/09).

1.1.2 Nuclear Energy

South Africa has one nuclear power station, located at Koeberg in the Western Cape. It is owned by Eskom. Eskom is investigating the development of an additional 20 000 MW by 2025. The expanded nuclear program is expected to result in the development of a nuclear energy industrial complex centering on uranium beneficiation and power-plant manufacturing infrastructure (South African Yearbook, 2008/09).

1.1.3 Oil and gas

South Africa has very limited oil reserves and about 95% of its crude oil requirements are met by imports from the Middle East and Africa. Refined petroleum products such as petrol, diesel, paraffin etc. are produced by the refining of imported crude oil; the conversion of coal to liquid fuel by Sasol and gas to liquid fuel by PetroSA (South African Yearbook, 2008/09).

Very few natural gas deposits occur within the country. At present, PetroSA is exploiting the reserves off the coast of Mossel Bay, where the Moss gas plant converts the gas into liquid fuels.

Sasol produces both petrol and gas from coal. The Department of Minerals and Energy aims to increase the availability of liquid petroleum gas (LPG) as well liquid natural gas (LNG) to the population for thermal applications of energy.

1.1.4 Electricity production

Eskom generates about 95% of electricity in South Africa and about 45% in Africa. Most of this is generated from the burning of coal, with a small percentage originating from nuclear energy sources (see Table A).

Despite the relatively large amount of electricity that is generated by Eskom power stations, there is still a significant proportion of the population that does not have access to electricity – either because they live in deep rural areas or because they cannot afford it. Raw coal, candles, paraffin, wood and dung are the main energy sources of heat for these people.

Eskom is facing a number of problems regarding the future supply of electricity to the nation. It is becoming increasingly expensive to mine the coal reserves, the power stations are ageing and demand is increasing at an unprecedented rate. At present, Eskom's net generating

reserve margin is only 8%, and during 2008, the country suffered major supply interruption as load shedding had to be implemented to manage the energy shortage.

To counter these problems, additional coal-fired power stations will be built. It is envisaged that by 2026, Eskom will double its capacity to 80 000 MW. The government and Eskom have also embarked on a strategy to develop its renewable energy resources (South African Yearbook, 2008/09).

Table A. The percentage of total primary energy supply in South Africa, 2004

Energy source	% Energy supply
Coal	68.2
Crude Oil	19.4
Renewables	8
Nuclear	2.8
Gas	1.6
Hydro	0.1

Source: Department of Mineral and Energy (2006:2)

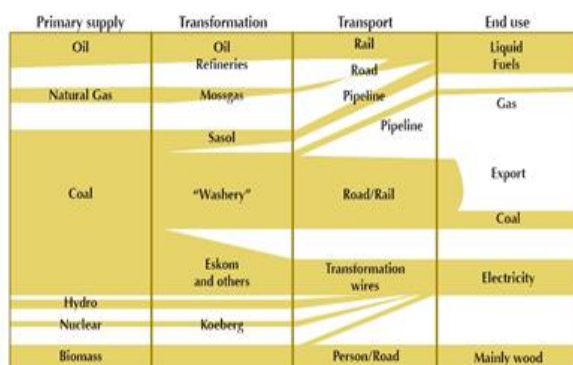


Figure 1 .Energy flows through the South African economy, (Department of Environment and Tourism, 2007).

Figure 1 shows the energy flows through the South African energy economy, from supply to the end use of energy. The flow of energy from its source, through transformation, transport to final use has a number of conversion losses as determined by the laws of physics. As a result of its high reliance on fossil fuels, a substantial quantity of carbon (0.9 tones) is released per unit (1 ton of oil equivalent) of energy consumed. The transformation and consumption of energy accounts for 75% of South Africa's greenhouse gas emissions.

1.2 Renewable Energy Policy and Interests

Renewable energy sources have not yet been exploited optimally in South Africa. The Department of Mineral and Energy (DME) strengthened international relationships in this area through the support offered to partnerships established during the World Summit on Sustainable Development in 2002. These include the Global Village

Energy Partnership and the Renewable Energy and Energy Efficiency Partnership.

Cabinet approved the White Paper on Renewable Energy in November 2003. The following targets are stipulated: A 10000-GWh renewable energy contribution to final energy consumption by 2013 to be produced mainly from biomass, wind, solar and small-scale hydro. The renewable energy is to be used for power generation and non-electric technologies such as solar water-heating and biofuels, and could add about 1 667 MW new renewable energy capacity per year.

Solar energy is abundantly available in South Africa. Most areas receive more than 2500 hours of sunshine per year, and average daily solar radiation levels range between 4.5 and 6.5 kWh/m²/d. A study is underway to determine the feasibility of a large-scale concentrated solar radiation (CSR) project. If economically and environmentally viable, Eskom will establish a 100-MW pilot CSR plant in the Northern Cape during 2009.

The first public-private partnership aimed at establishing alternative electricity was developed by the Darling Independent Power Producer, the Development Bank of South Africa and the Central Energy Fund. Four wind turbines were erected at Darling (W Cape), generating around 5.2 MW. All the electricity generated at the plant will be sold to the City of Cape Town.

Eskom has established a pilot wind-turbine facility at Klipheuwel in the Western Cape. The plant generated more than 12 GWh during the 2002 – 2005 test- phase. Eskom intends investing in a 100-MW wind facility, also in the Western Cape.

In theory, vast amounts of energy could be derived from the ocean tides, waves and currents. A number of experiments are underway to test such systems.

1.3 Lead Agencies in Energy Development

The following stakeholders are involved in energy development (Department of Mineral and Energy, 2003):

- Department of Mineral and Energy (DME) develops policy, strategy, action plans, legislation, regulations and enforcement, coordination, dissemination of information, monitoring, auditing and review, monitoring of publicly funded research development, and promote capacity and development.
- The National Electricity Regulator (NER) regulates all electricity utilities in South Africa. It also advises the Minister of Mineral and Energy on all matters related to the electricity supply industry.
- The Electricity Supply Commission (ESKOM) is the main producer and supplier of electricity in South Africa and, as such, holds the monopoly for these activities.
- The National Energy Regulator of South Africa (Nersa) is the regulatory authority established in terms of the National Energy Regulator (NER) Act, 2004 (Act 20 of 2004), with the mandate to undertake the functions of the gas regulator as set out in the Gas Act, 2001; the Petroleum Pipelines Regulator Authority, as set out in the Petroleum Pipelines Act, 2003 (Act 60 of 2003); and the NER as set out in the Electricity Act, 1987 (Act 41 of 1987 as amended).

- The Nuclear Energy Corporation for South Africa (Necsa) undertakes and promotes R & D in the field of nuclear energy and radiation sciences and technology.
- The National Nuclear Regulator (NNR) oversees safety regulation of nuclear installation and activities involving radioactive material.
- The Central Energy Fund (CEF) is mandated to engage in the acquisition, exploitation, generation, manufacture, marketing and distribution of energy and to engage in research relating to the energy sector.
- The South African National Energy Research Institute (Saneri) is a subsidiary of CEF. It facilitates skills development and undertakes research and technology development.

2. GEOLOGICAL SETTING OF SOUTH AFRICA

According to McCarthy and Rubidge (2005) the formation of South Africa occurred in eight general steps. Island arcs amalgamated to form micro-continents, and these accreted to form the Kaapvaal Craton. It comprises mainly granites (granitites) and greenstone belts (Visser, 1998). The Kaapvaal Craton stabilized approximately 3100 million years ago, and forms the nucleus of the southern African sub-continent (McCarthy and Rubidge, 2005; Visser, 1998).

Over the next 400 million years the Dominion Group and Witwatersrand Super group were deposited, and very importantly, the Limpopo Belt had formed. The Limpopo Belt separates the Kaapvaal Craton and the Zimbabwe Craton (Visser, 1998) (Fig.2), comprising mainly gneisses (Johnson *et al*, 2006). The Limpopo Belt is further divided into the Southern Marginal Zone, the Central Zone and the Northern Marginal Zone (Johnson *et al*, 2006).

From 2700 million years ago up until 1000 million years ago, a sequence of deposition, intrusion (such as the Bushveld Igneous Complex, and metamorphism occurred to form the Ventersdorp-, Transvaal- and Olifantshoek Super groups, as well as the Waterberg and Soutpansberg Groups (McCarthy and Rubidge, 2005). During this period the Ubendian Belt was formed, which is seen as the zone between the Congo Craton and the Kaapvaal-Zimbabwe Craton. The Namaqua-Natal Belt is known as the zone of metamorphic rocks on the southern edge of the Kaapvaal Craton.

Pangaea (a supercontinent) assembled approximately 500 million years ago during the early Paleozoic (Watkeys, 2006). This supercontinent was subsequently split in two to form Laurasia and Gondwana (Watkeys in Johnson *et al*, 2006). The metamorphic belts along the edges of the fragments comprising Gondwana were named Pan-African Belts. From 500 million years ago to 60 million years ago, the Cape and Karoo Super groups have formed, and the event describing the Cape Fold Belt had occurred. Gondwana then fragmented to form the current coastline of southern Africa (McCarthy and Rubidge, 2005).

3. GEOTHERMAL RESOURCE AND POTENTIAL

The known geothermal resource for South Africa comprises approximately 87 hot springs spread almost over the whole country (Figure 3). There has been no recent volcanic activity in South Africa, and therefore all thermal springs are considered to be meteoric of origin. The aquifers are considered to be secondary, and the heating of the water is due to deep circulation along mainly fault zones (Kent, 1969). The thermal springs are not confined to any specific

type of geology. They are mainly located in the parts of the country receiving high rainfall and where deep crustal faulting, occurs.

No exploration boreholes have been drilled (as far as is known), but geothermal heat flow measurements have been taken in boreholes drilled for other purposes. With the current hottest temperature measured at surface of 67.5°C, the potential of electricity generation on large scale is very low. However, research is currently underway to determine the potential in terms of other alternative uses such as aquaculture and direct space heating of thermal springs.

A large percentage of hot springs seem to coincide with metamorphic provinces on the margins of the Kaapvaal Craton, such as the Cape Fold Belt and the Limpopo Belt, while other hot springs are associated with basins and granite terrains within the Kaapvaal Craton.

Studies on specific areas of interest, such as the Table Mountain Group aquifer, have calculated heat flows for that area. Hartnady and Jones (2007) used the following equation to determine the heat flow:

$$Q = -K_t \left(\frac{dT}{dz} \right) \quad (1)$$

Where Q is heat flow,

dT/dz is the thermal gradient, and

K_t is the thermal conductivity.

Geothermal energy associated with hot dry rock has not been investigated in detail in South Africa. Andreoli *et al* (2006) described the relationship between the uranium and thorium content of rocks of the Namaquan metamorphic complex and their metamorphic grade. An image of the total count gamma-ray exposure map (Andreoli *et al*, 2006) of South Africa shows that the Namaqualand may have potential for the so-called dry heat geothermal energy. However, this must be studied further.

The geothermal resource potential is not known for the country as a whole.

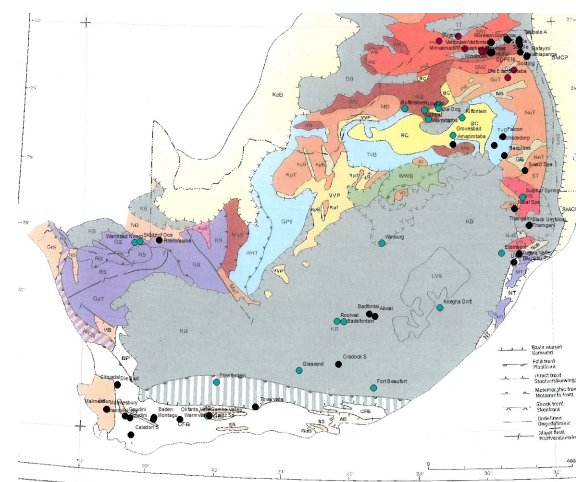


Figure 2: Locations of thermal springs in South Africa.

4. GEOTHERMAL UTILIZATION

Currently, geothermal energy utilization is confined to the use of thermal springs for leisure and recreation. However, there is some evidence that the thermal springs in the far north-eastern parts of the Limpopo Province were used as sources of salt hundreds of years ago (Kent 1942). The southern springs were used traditionally by the Khoi peoples for medicinal purposes. White settlers developed some of these springs such as those at Caledon, Montegu, Clan William and Aliwal North in the south and Warm baths in the north as health spas. Initially, mud was used for healing, but later pools were built in which patients suffering from rheumatism and related diseases, could be 'cured'. In 1916, Rindl documented around 70 medicinal springs in South Africa. These included both warm and cold springs. At present, approximately 32 of the 90-odd thermal springs have been developed as family holiday resorts, providing a variety of accommodation varying from hotel to self catering chalets and caravan parks. A list of these resorts together with information on the type of development and some physical and mineralogical characteristics of the springs, are provided in Table C. Limpopo Province boasts the most of these, followed by the Western Cape. Most resorts do not offer any form of specific medicinal or therapeutic regimes (Boekstein, 1998; Hoole 2001, 48).

The current use and type of development at thermal springs is thus limited and very little research has been done to determine the potential uses at the various thermal springs. A research project was launched in 2007 to determine optimal uses. Researchers from the University of South Africa (UNISA) (4 staff and 3 students) and the Council of Geoscience (2 researchers) are involved in this project. Researchers from other universities (Durban University of Technology, NW University) and the Council of Geoscience, have expressed an interest in participating in the near future.

A preliminary study focussing on the physical and chemical characteristics of thermal springs in Limpopo Province has been undertaken (Olivier *et al.*, 2008). The results of this study are documented elsewhere in the International Geothermal Conference proceedings 2010 (Paper No. 1482) and indicate that waters from the springs are contaminated with fluorine and bromine, making them unfit for human consumption. Some springs also have high levels of other toxic and potentially toxic elements such as mercury, arsenic and selenium. This research will be extended to include all the thermal springs in southern Africa. It is envisaged that detailed studies will be undertaken to assess the health risk posed by current uses of the springs. The economic viability of various agricultural practices, aquaculture, direct heating and possibly small-scale geothermal energy production and mineral extraction will be investigated as part of the project. No research has ever been conducted on thermophilic organisms in South African thermal springs and their potential for use in industry. This aspect will receive urgent attention in this project.

5. DISCUSSION (TABLES)

Table 1

The major role played by coal is evident. Some 72% of South African energy supply in 2006 was provided for by coal, followed by oil (12,5%), renewables (10%), gas (3) nuclear (2,5%) and hydro (0,25%) (Climate Answers and Stephen Tindale, 2009).

Table 2

Currently there is no geothermal energy plant that is generating electric power.

Table 3

Table 3 gives the location of thermal spring resorts with bathing and swimming facilities. However, their utilization of geothermal energy is currently unknown.

Table 4

Geothermal (ground source) heat pumps: none.

Table 5

Currently information on installed capacity, annual energy use and capacity factor for bathing and swimming is unknown.

Table 6

Wells drilled for electrical or direct use: unknown.

Table 7

In the period 2008-2009, four staff members from the University of South Africa (Unisa) have been involved in the research activities in the field of geothermal resources. Professor Olivier is leading the team and is currently supervising three students, two for Masters and one for PhD. Two researchers from the Council for Geosciences are included in the geothermal research team. However, the interest for research in the geothermal field is growing.

Table 8

Total investment in geothermal is unknown.

6. FUTURE DEVELOPMENT AND INSTALLATIONS

Nothing is planned at present, but efforts are being made to convince government of the importance of exploring the possibility of geothermal energy production and other development.

7. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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TABLE A

NAME	NEAREST TOWN/ PROVINCE	ACCOMODATION	SOURCE TEMP. (°C)	pH	MINERALS IN SPRINGS (ACCORDING TO KENT 1916)
The Overberger	Caledon, W. Cape	Hotel	49	7.2	Fe, Ca, Mn, Na, K, Cl, SO ₄ , HCO ₃ , Si
Goudini Spa	Worcester, W Cape	Chalets, flats, camping sites	40	5.7	Na, Mg, K, Cl, SO ₄
Brandvlei	Rawsonville, W Cape	Picnics facilities only	64	6.6	Mg, K, Ca, Si, Cl, SO ₄
Avalon Springs	Montagu, W Cape	Hotel, self-catering flats	43	6.1	Na, Mg, K, Li, Cl, Ca, SO ₄ , HCO ₃ , Si
Warmwaterberg	Ladismith W Cape	Flats, log cabins, caravans, caravan sites	43	6.4	Na, Mg, K, Ca, Fe, Mn, Cl, SO ₄ , HCO ₃ , Si
Calitzdorp spa	Calitzdorp, W Cape	Self-catering chalets, flats, caravan sites	43	4.9	Na, Mg, K, Ca, Fe, Mn, Cl, SO ₄ , HCO ₃ , Si
The Baths	Citrusdal, W Cape	Chalets, flats, caravan sites	51	4.9	Na, Mg, K, Ca, Cl, SO ₄ , Si
Aliwal Spa	Aliwal North, E cape	Chalets	43	4.9	Na, Mg, K, Li, Ca, Al, F, Cl, Br, Si, I, SO ₄ , HCO ₃ , H ₂ S
Badfontein Guest Farm	Aliwal North, E Cape	Cottage	30	9.1	Na, Ca, K, Si, Cl, F, SO ₄ , PO ₄
Cradock Spa	Cradock, E Cape	Chalets, caravan sites	31	9.6	Na, Mg, K, Ca, F, Cl, SO ₄ , Si, HCO ₃ , CO ₃ , H ₂ S
Riemvasmaak	Kakamaas, N Cape	Camping site	39	7.5	Na, Ca, Mg, K, Si, Cl, SO ₄ , NO ₃ , F
Forever Vaal Spa	Christiana, N W Province	Chalets, hotel, caravan sites	36	7.6	Na, Li, F, Cl, SO ₄ , NO ₃
Florisbad	Bloemfontein Free State	Picnic sites	29	n.a.	NH ₄ , Li, Na, Mg, Ca, Ba, Al, Fe, Cl, SO ₄ , CO ₃ , Si
Thangami Safari Spa	Vryheid, KwaZulu- Natal	Chalets, caravan sites, guest houses	41	8.4	Na, K, Ca, Fe, Cl, F, SO ₄
Natal Spa	Vryheid, KwaZulu- Natal	Hotel, caravan sites	44	n.a.	Na, Mg, Ca, Cl, SO ₄ , CO ₃ , Si
Shu Shu Hot Springs	Kranskop, KwaZulu- Natal	On island in Tugela river. Caravan and camping sites,	52	7.4	Na, K, Ca, F, Cl, SO ₄ , HCO ₃ , Si
Lilani	Greytown, KwaZulu- Natal	chalets	40	9.3	Na, K, Fe, Cl, SO ₄ , F
Mabalingwe Spa	Pretoria, Gauteng	Chalets	36	7.8	Na, K, Ca, F, Cl, SO ₄
Forever Spa Badplaas	Carolina Mpumalanga	Hotel, chalets, caravan park	50	8.9	Na, K, Mg, Ca, Si, F, Cl, SO ₄ , HCO ₃ , CO ₃
Zimthabi	Thabazimbi Limpopo Province	Chalets caravan sites	32	n.a	Na, Mg, K, Ca, F, Cl, SO ₄ , HCO ₃ , Si
Die Oog	Mookgophong, Limpopo	Chalets, caravan sites	40	n.a.	Na, Mg, Ca, F, Cl, SO ₄ , HCO ₃ , Si
Rhemardo	Mookgophong, Limpopo	Chalets, caravan sites	38	7.2	Na, Mg, K, Ca, F, Cl, SO ₄ , HCO ₃ , Si
Mphephu	Louis Trichardt Limpopo	Chalets	43	n.a	n.a.
Sagole Spa	Sagole Limpopo	Chalets, dormitories	49	9.6	Na, Mg, K, Ca, Cl, SO ₄ , CO ₃ , HCO ₃ , Si
Forever Eco Tshipise	Musina, Limpopo	Chalets, hotel, guest house, caravan sites	58	8.9	Na, Mg, F, K, Ca, Cl, SO ₄ , CO ₃ , HCO ₃ , Si
Forever Eco Eiland	Tzaneen, Limpopo	Chalets caravan sites	43	8.1	Na, K, Ca, F, Cl, SO ₄ , CO ₃ , HCO ₃ , Si
Makutsi Safari Farm	Tzaneen, Limpopo	Chalets	35	7.4	Na, Mg, K, Ca, F, SO ₄ , HCO ₃ , Si
Libertas (Borehole)	Mookgophong, Limpopo	Chalets, log cabins, gaboos (train coach) caravan sites	52	7.0	Ca, Na, Cl, F, SO ₄ , K, Mg
Lekkerrus (borehole)	Mookgophong, Limpopo	Chalets, log cabins, caravan sites	46	7.9	Ca, Na, Cl, F, SO ₄ , K, Mg
Môreson	Musina, Limpopo	Private, houses, caravans	38	8.6	Na, Ca, Mg, Cl, HCO ₃ , SO ₄ , NO ₃
Vischgat	Mookgophong, Limpopo	Guesthouse	40	7.1	Na, Ca, K, Mg, HCO ₃ , SO ₄ , F, Cl

TABLE 1. PRESENT AND PLANNED PRODUCTION OF ELECTRICITY

	Geothermal		Fossil Fuels		Hydro		Nuclear		Other Renewables (gas, bagasse, pumped storage)		Total	
	Cap (MWe)	Gross prod. GWh/yr	Cap (MWe)	Gross prod. GWh/yr	Cap (MWe)	Gross prod. GWh/yr	Cap (MWe)	Gross prod. GWh/yr	Cap (MWe)	Gross prod. GWh/yr	Cap (MWe)	Gross prod. GWh/yr
In operation in December 2009	0	0	32202		1580		1840		2347		37056	
Under construction in December 2009	0	0										
Funds committed, but not yet under construction in December 2009	0	0										
Total projected use by 2015	0	0										

2) 1F = Single Flash B = Binary (Rankine Cycle)
 2F = Double Flash H = Hybrid
 3F = Triple Flash (explain)
 D = Dry Steam O = Other (please specify)

Locality	Power Plant Name	Year Com missioned	No. of Units	Status ¹⁾	Type of Unit ²⁾	Total Installed Capacity MWe	Annual Energy Produced 2009 ³⁾ GWh/yr	Total Under Constr. or Planned MWe
None	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total								

**TABLE 3. UTILIZATION OF GEOTHERMAL ENERGY FOR DIRECT HEAT
AS OF 31 DECEMBER 2009 (other than heat pumps)**

- ¹⁾ I = Industrial process heat
C = Air conditioning (cooling)
A = Agricultural drying (grain, fruit, vegetables)
F = Fish farming
K = Animal farming
S = Snow melting
- H = Individual space heating (other than heat pumps)
D = District heating (other than heat pumps)
B = Bathing and swimming (including balneology)
G = Greenhouse and soil heating
O = Other (please specify by footnote)
- ²⁾ Enthalpy information is given only if there is steam or two-phase flow
- ³⁾ Capacity (MWt) = Max. flow rate (kg/s)[inlet temp. (°C) - outlet temp. (°C)] x 0.004184 (MW = 10⁶ W)
or = Max. flow rate (kg/s)[inlet enthalpy (kJ/kg) - outlet enthalpy (kJ/kg)] x 0.001
- ⁴⁾ Energy use (TJ/yr) = Ave. flow rate (kg/s) x [inlet temp. (°C) - outlet temp. (°C)] x 0.1319 (TJ = 10¹² J)
or = Ave. flow rate (kg/s) x [inlet enthalpy (kJ/kg) - outlet enthalpy (kJ/kg)] x 0.03154
- ⁵⁾ Capacity factor = [Annual Energy Use (TJ/yr)/Capacity (MWt)] x 0.03171
Note: the capacity factor must be less than or equal to 1.00 and is usually less, since projects do not operate at 100% of capacity all year.

Note: please report all numbers to three significant figures.

Locality	Type ¹⁾	Maximum Utilization					Capacity ³⁾ (MWt)	Annual Utilization		
		Flow Rate (kg/s)	Temperature (°C)		Enthalpy ²⁾ (kJ/kg)			Ave. Flow (kg/s)	Energy ⁴⁾ (TJ/yr)	Capacity Factor ⁵⁾
			Inlet	Outlet	Inlet	Outlet				
Caledon.W. Cape	B	Unknown	unknown	unknown	unknown	unknown	unknown	unknown	unknown	
Worcester. W. Cape	B									
Rawsonville. W. Cape	B									
Montagu. W. Cape	B									
Ladismith. W. Cape	B									
Calitzdorp. W. Cape	B									
Citrusdal. W. Cape	B									
Aliwal North. E. Cape	B									
Cradock. E Cape	B									
Kakamas. N. Cape	B									
Christiana. NW Provin	B									
Bloemfontein. Free Sta	B									
Vryheid. Kwazulu-Nata	B									
Kranskop. Kwazulu-Na	B									
Greytown. Kwazulu-Na	B									
Pretoria. Gauteng	B									
Carolina. Mpumalanga	B									
Thabazimbi. Limpopo	B									
Mookgophong. Limpop	B									
Louis Trichard.Limpop	B									
Sagole. Limpopo	B									
Musina. Limpopo	B									
Tzaneen. Limpopo	B									
TOTAL										

**TABLE 4. GEOTHERMAL (GROUND-SOURCE) HEAT PUMPS
AS OF 31 DECEMBER 2009**

This table should report thermal energy used (i.e. energy removed from the ground or water) and report separately heat rejected to the ground or water in the cooling mode. Cooling energy numbers will be used to calculate carbon offsets.

- ¹⁾ Report the average ground temperature for ground-coupled units or average well water or lake water temperature for water-source heat pumps
- ²⁾ Report type of installation as follows: V = vertical ground coupled (TJ = 10¹² J)
H = horizontal ground coupled
W = water source (well or lake water)
O = others (please describe)
- ³⁾ Report the COP = (output thermal energy/input energy of compressor) for your climate
- ⁴⁾ Report the equivalent full load operating hours per year, or = capacity factor x 8760
- ⁵⁾ Thermal energy (TJ/yr) = flow rate in loop (kg/s) x [(inlet temp. (°C) - outlet temp. (°C)] x 0.1319
or = rated output energy (kJ/hr) x [(COP - 1)/COP] x equivalent full load hours/yr

Note: please report all numbers to three significant figures

Locality	Ground or water temp. (°C) ¹⁾	Typical Heat Pump Rating or Capacity (kW)	Number of Units	Type ²⁾	COP ³⁾	Heating Equivalent Full Load Hr/Year ⁴⁾	Thermal Energy Used (TJ/yr)	Cooling Energy (TJ/yr)
None	none	none	none	none	none	none	none	none

**TABLE 5. SUMMARY TABLE OF GEOTHERMAL DIRECT HEAT USES
AS OF 31 DECEMBER 2009**

¹⁾ Installed Capacity (thermal power) (MWt) = Max. flow rate (kg/s) x [inlet temp. (°C) - outlet temp. (°C)] x 0.004184
or = Max. flow rate (kg/s) x [inlet enthalpy (kJ/kg) - outlet enthalpy (kJ/kg)] x 0.001

²⁾ Annual Energy Use (TJ/yr) = Ave. flow rate (kg/s) x [inlet temp. (°C) - outlet temp. (°C)] x 0.1319 (TJ = 10¹² J)
or = Ave. flow rate (kg/s) x [inlet enthalpy (kJ/kg) - outlet enthalpy (kJ/kg)] x 0.03154

³⁾ Capacity Factor = [Annual Energy Use (TJ/yr)/Capacity (MWt)] x 0.03171 (MW = 10⁶ W)

Note: the capacity factor must be less than or equal to 1.00 and is usually less,
since projects do not operate at 100% capacity all year

Note: please report all numbers to three significant figures.

Use	Installed Capacity ¹⁾ (MWt)	Annual Energy Use ²⁾ (TJ/yr = 10 ¹² J/yr)	Capacity Factor ³⁾
Individual Space Heating ⁴⁾			
District Heating ⁴⁾			
Air Conditioning (Cooling)			
Greenhouse Heating			
Fish Farming			
Animal Farming			
Agricultural Drying ⁵⁾			
Industrial Process Heat ⁶⁾			
Snow Melting			
Bathing and Swimming ⁷⁾	unknown	unknown	unknown
Other Uses (specify)			
Subtotal			
Geothermal Heat Pumps			
TOTAL			

⁴⁾ Other than heat pumps

⁵⁾ Includes drying or dehydration of grains, fruits and vegetables

⁶⁾ Excludes agricultural drying and dehydration

⁷⁾ Includes balneology

TABLE 6. WELLS DRILLED FOR ELECTRICAL, DIRECT AND COMBINED USE OF GEOTHERMAL RESOURCES FROM JANUARY 1, 2005 TO DECEMBER 31, 2009 (excluding heat pump wells)

¹⁾ Include thermal gradient wells, but not ones less than 100 m deep

Purpose	Wellhead Temperature	Number of Wells Drilled				Total Depth (km)
		Electric Power	Direct Use	Combined	Other (specify)	
Exploration ¹⁾	(all)	none				
Production	>150° C	none				
	150-100° C	none				
	<100° C	none				
Injection	(all)					
Total		0				

TABLE 7. ALLOCATION OF PROFESSIONAL PERSONNEL TO GEOTHERMAL ACTIVITIES (Restricted to personnel with University degrees)

- | | |
|----------------------|--|
| (1) Government | (4) Paid Foreign Consultants |
| (2) Public Utilities | (5) Contributed Through Foreign Aid Programs |
| (3) Universities | (6) Private Industry |

Year	Professional Person-Years of Effort					
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
2005	0	0	0	0	0	0
2006	0	0	0	0	0	0
2007	0	0	0	0	0	0
2008	0	1	4	0	0	0
2009	0	1	4	0	0	0
Total	0	2	8	0	0	0

TABLE 8. TOTAL INVESTMENTS IN GEOTHERMAL IN (2009) US\$

Period	Research & Development Incl. Surface Explor. & Exploration Drilling Million US\$	Field Development Including Production Drilling & Surface Equipment Million US\$	Utilization		Funding Type	
			Direct Million US\$	Electrical Million US\$	Private %	Public %
1995-1999	none	none	none	none	none	none
2000-2004	none	none	none	none	none	none
2005-2009	unknown	unknown	unknown	none	unknown	unknown