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CALCITE SCALING POTENTIAL OF KANGDING GEOTHERMAL FIELD, W-SICHUAN PLATEAU, CHINA

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ABSTRACT

High temperature geothermal systems in China are mainly along the Himalaya tectonic zone, which extends from Xinjiang to Tibet, western Sichuan Plateau, and Yunnan. One of the main problems during energy production is calcite scaling. This report presents a general calcite scaling potential assessment of the Kangding geothermal fields in the western Sichuan Plateau. Results show that the reservoir fluid reconstructed is slightly over-saturated with respect to calcite and scaling and sinters have been observed in some of the boreholes or springs. Taking fluid from well BH6 as an example, it is saturated with respect calcite in the reservoir conditions and with boiling at different temperatures, it evolves to over-saturated and precipitates in the pipeline. The boiling depth is evaluated to be about 150 m (not considering CO₂ and salinity) and 440 m (considering CO₂ and salinity) using the HOLA and WELLSIM programmes, respectively. The calcite scale quantity is calculated with three methods and is about 151-300 kg and the thickness is about 1-3 cm which is almost consistent with the observed thickness in the surface pipeline from the production test. Calcite scale removal and prevention methods are reviewed based on their formation mechanisms and for calcite scaling in the Kangding geothermal field, a probable inhibitor injection from laboratory and a field test is suggested with consideration of the reservoir temperature and fluid chemistry.

1. INTRODUCTION

Scaling is one of the main problems during geothermal fluid production and utilization. According to thermodynamics, the solubility of minerals will change due to temperature and pressure variations during production and generally, minerals will precipitate to clog boreholes or pipelines (Atkinson et al., 1991). Silica, calcite and Fe-bearing scales are thought to be the dominant depositions, among which calcite scale always occurs in the first stage of boiling, silica scale forms at the stage of waste water discharge while Fe-bearing scale is related to volcanic gas in the geothermal system (Arnórsson, 1981). What kind of scale will form is greatly dependent on the deep fluid compositions and geochemical processes from the reservoir to the wellhead. Generally, silica scaling always occurs in high-temperature geothermal fields (e.g. Iceland, Philippines, New Zealand, and Turkey) while calcite scaling occurs in low-medium temperature geothermal fields (Izgec et al., 2005; Sigfússon and Gunnarsson, 2011; Villaseñor and Calibugan, 2011; Kaypakoğlu et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2015; Quinao et al., 2017). However, in high-temperature geothermal fields in West China along the Himalaya tectonic zone (e.g.,

Yangbajing, Yangyi, Naqu, Dangxiong, Kangding), calcite scaling is found to be a serious problem. As the first geothermal power plant in China, scale cleaning is done periodically (always 1-2 days) in Yangbajing power plant and due to the serious scaling problem, Naqu power plant was abandoned in 1999. The SINOPEC geothermal well in the West Sichuan plateau was almost totally clogged with calcite scale in less than one week causing its failure (Wang et al., 2015).

In order to avoid or inhibit calcite scaling during production, it is better to understand the dominant mechanism of the scale formation and predict how calcite behaves when the temperature or pressure changes, as well as the depth where scaling is occurring. Based on thermodynamic and experimental studies, several programs have been developed to do the prediction model (e.g., WATCH, SOLVEQ, CHILLER, and PHREEQC) (Arnórsson et al., 1982; Reed et al., 2012; Parkhurst and Appelo, 1999). For example, the WATCH program, VDATA program and Ryznar index are adopted to analyse calcite scaling problems in low-temperature wells in Iceland and the allowable super-saturation before calcite scaling formation is determined to be $\log(Q/K)=0.36-0.5$, which indicates that geothermal fluids can contain 2.3 times more CaCO_3 by weight than the theoretical amount (Bai, 1991). The CSI (calcite saturation index) changes during adiabatic boiling in two wells from Iran which were studied using WATCH. The results showed that maximum super-saturation is attained at 180°C due to a sharp increase of carbonate ions by boiling. Periodic mechanical cleaning and inhibitor methods were proposed to deal with the calcite scaling depending on the scaling rate (Rahmani, 2007). The comprehensive calcite precipitation potential of geothermal fluids from various geothermal fields in Iceland and Philippines were assessed to study how the CSI evolves and how mixing affects the CSI for solutions from diluted ones to highly saline and from basaltic to andesitic host rock (Remoroza, 2010). Borehole simulator HOLA can be introduced to study whether boiling takes place, and if it does at what depth to predict the calcite scaling depth range, which is found to vary inversely with wellhead pressure (Pingtsoe, 1992). However, pre-evaluation of scaling potential sometimes does not work well in production due to uncertain reasons and additional work is recommended to improve the understanding of the scaling mechanisms to optimize the calcite scaling management (Quinao et al., 2017). Therefore, both a calcite scaling potential assessment and the possible prevention or removal methods should be proposed when dealing with geothermal fluid with scaling risk before and during production.

Since calcite scaling problems are typical and one of the main obstacles in high-temperature geothermal systems in the Himalaya tectonic zone in West China, how to assess it and what can be done to avoid or inhibit it should be carefully studied. In this report, the WATCH, PHREEQC, HOLA and WELLSIM programmes are used to analyse calcite scaling problems, including the scaling potential with various temperatures, the depth prediction where scaling is possibly occurring, scale quantity and the prevention or removal methods for geothermal fluid both from boreholes and hot springs in West China.

2. THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES OF CO_2

Calcite scaling in geothermal systems is mainly caused by four geochemical processes: (1) degassing of CO_2 due to depressurizing of the fluid from the deep reservoir to the wellhead, (2) pH increase caused by casing corrosion, (3) gas influx from the geothermal reservoir and subsequent CO_2 stripping from the fluid, and (4) pH increase and CO_2 moving into gas phase due to boiling within the borehole (Wanner et al., 2017). Therefore, for most of the calcite scaling conditions, CO_2 is a key factor and it is necessary to know how CO_2 behaves under various temperatures, pressures and salinity conditions.

2.1 The P-T phase diagram of CO_2

Based on previous studies on the equation of state for CO_2 , the critical point and triple point are estimated to be 31°C at 74 bar (Suehiro et al., 1996; Span and Wagner, 1996) and $-56.57\pm0.03^\circ\text{C}$ at 5.185 ± 0.005

bar (Angus et al., 1976), respectively. The P-T phase diagram is illustrated in Figure 1, the data is cited from Span and Wagner, 1996.

The saturation curve or vapour-liquid curve from the triple point to the critical point and melting curve can be written as the following Equations 1 and 2:

$$\log P_{\text{sat}} = \frac{-836.6}{T_{\text{sat}}} + 4.75 \quad (1)$$

$$P_{\text{melt}} = 523.18 - 51.547 \cdot T_{\text{melt}} + 0.22695 \cdot T_{\text{melt}}^2 \quad (2)$$

Where P_{sat} and P_{melt} are the vapour pressure in bar-a and T_{sat} and T_{melt} are the temperature in Kelvin.

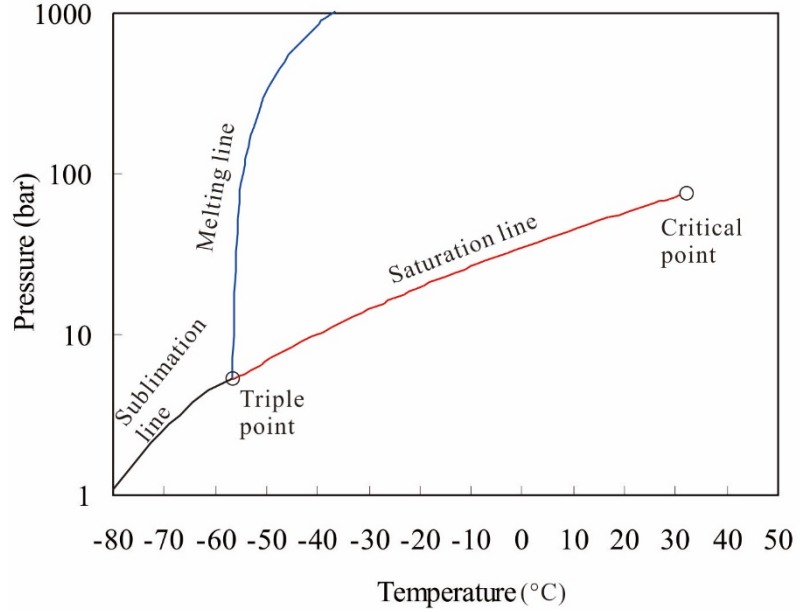
2.2 Equation of state for CO₂

The ideal gas law, introduced by Benoit Paule Emile in 1834, is the simplest equation of state (EOS) to describe how CO₂ behaves within different temperatures and pressures as shown by Equation 3.

$$P = \frac{nRT}{v} \quad (3)$$

Where v is the molar volume; n is the moles of gas and R is the gas constant that is equal to $8.3145 \text{ J} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1} \cdot \text{K}^{-1}$. However, this equation is only satisfactory when the real gases are at relatively low pressures and temperatures. Later in 1873, J.D. van der Waals proposed a revised equation with two adjustable parameters (Equation 4) and it was modified by Kerrick and Jacobs in 1981 (Equation 5), which is consistent with experimental data of CO₂ and H₂O at elevated temperatures and pressures.

FIGURE 1: The P-T phase diagram of CO₂
(Data from Span and Wagner, 1996)



$$P = \frac{RT}{v-b} - \frac{a}{v^2} \quad (4)$$

$$P = \frac{RT(1+y+y^2-y^3)}{v(1-y)^3} - \frac{a}{T^{0.5}v(v+b)} \quad (5)$$

Where b is a constant and equal to $29.0 \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ and a is a function of T and P , as follows:

$$y = \frac{b}{4v}$$

$$a(T, v) = c + \frac{d}{v} + \frac{e}{v^2}$$

$$c = (290.78 - 0.30276 \cdot T + 0.0014774 \cdot T^2) \cdot 10^6 \text{ bar} \cdot \text{cm}^2 \cdot \text{K}^{0.5} \cdot \text{mol}^{-2}$$

$$d = (-8374 + 19.437 \cdot T - 0.008148 \cdot T^2) \cdot 10^6 \text{ bar} \cdot \text{cm}^3 \cdot \text{K}^{0.5} \cdot \text{mol}^{-3}$$

$$e = (76600 - 133.9 \cdot T + 0.1071 \cdot T^2) \cdot 10^6 \text{ bar} \cdot \text{cm}^4 \cdot \text{K}^{0.5} \cdot \text{mol}^{-4}$$

2.3 Chemical properties and carbon species

The CO_2 is an acidic and soluble gas and once it dissolves in water, carbonic acid will form and dissociate according to reactions listed in Equations 6-9. The equilibrium between CO_2 and H_2O is determined by pH, temperature, pressure and salinity. Generally, the pH of the fluid controls the distribution of carbonate species and at low pH, aqueous CO_2 dominates (H_2CO_3) while at higher pH, bicarbonate and carbonic ions (HCO_3^- , CO_3^{2-}) are the dominant ions and a pH increase is likely to cause calcite scaling.



The CO_2 solubility minimum is when the water temperature is at about 150°C - 180°C (Figure 2), according to Henry's law and if there are also less soluble gases dissolved in the water, they will decrease the solubility of CO_2 . Therefore, CO_2 degassing will be the most effective if boiling happens at this temperature range, leading to the greatest calcite super-saturation and scaling (Arnórsson, 1989).

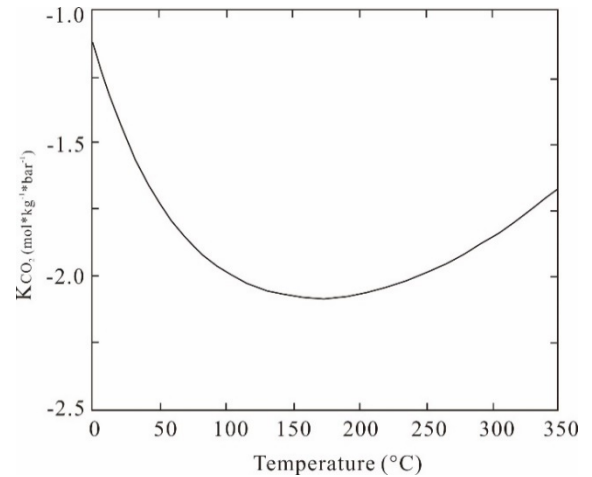


FIGURE 2: The CO_2 solubility in water, K_{CO_2} represents the Henry 'Law coefficient for CO_2 (from Arnórsson, 1989)

3. CALCITE SCALING IN THE GEOTHERMAL SYSTEM

3.1 Solubility of calcite

There are three polymorphs of calcium carbonate minerals in nature, calcite, aragonite and vaterite, and calcite is the most common carbonate mineral observed in the geothermal system. It is a secondary mineral and evidence from geothermal fluids with neutral to alkaline pH show that fluids at all temperatures are often saturated with respect to calcite (Bénézech et al., 2013). The solubility of calcite at low temperatures ($<100^\circ\text{C}$) has been widely studied but most often the log K at 0°C to 90°C is taken from Plummer and Busenberg (1982) (Equation 10). For higher temperatures and more complex solutions, experimental data are scarce except that from Ellis (1963) and Segnit et al., (1962) at temperature range of 75°C - 201°C . In addition, a formula proposed by Arnórsson et al. in 1982 (Equation 11) is also widely used at temperatures up to almost 240°C (Arnórsson et al., 1982). Additional experimental data and models up to 60 bar p_{CO_2} and 300°C can precisely predict calcite solubility (Bychkov et al. in 2007, personal communication in Bénézech et al., 2013).

$$\log K_{\text{calcite}} = -171.9065 - 0.077993 * T + \frac{2839.319}{T} + 71.595 * \log T \quad (10)$$

$$\log K_{\text{calcite}} = 10.22 - 0.0349 * T - \frac{2476}{T} \quad (11)$$

Calcite solubility measurements from 5°C to 300°C are summarized in Figure 3. The figure shows that predictions from Plummer and Busenberg (1982) and Arnórsson et al. (1982) are consistent at low temperatures of less than 90°C but both of them are slightly negative compared with experimental data from Jacobson and Langmuir (1974), Sass et al. (1983), Ellis (1963), Berner (1976), Gledhill and Morse (2006) and Bychkov et al. (2007). In the following calculations, calcite solubility functions from both Arnórsson et al. (1982) and a regression formula (Equation 12) based on all the collected data showed in Figure 3 are used.

$$\log K_{\text{calcite}} = -0.0001 * T^2 + 0.0092 * T - 8.5907 \quad (12)$$

In addition, calcite solubility under different CO₂ partial pressures and salinities (as NaCl) have also been studied as shown in Figure 4 (Nicholson, 1993). It is observed that calcite solubility increases with increasing CO₂ partial pressure but decreases with increasing temperature. Therefore, calcite scaling is the most intense where boiling is occurring. Cooling after boiling will later lead to a decrease of calcite saturation due to the retrograde solubility of carbonate minerals. From Figure 4(b), the calcite solubility increases with the increasing salinity of the fluid.

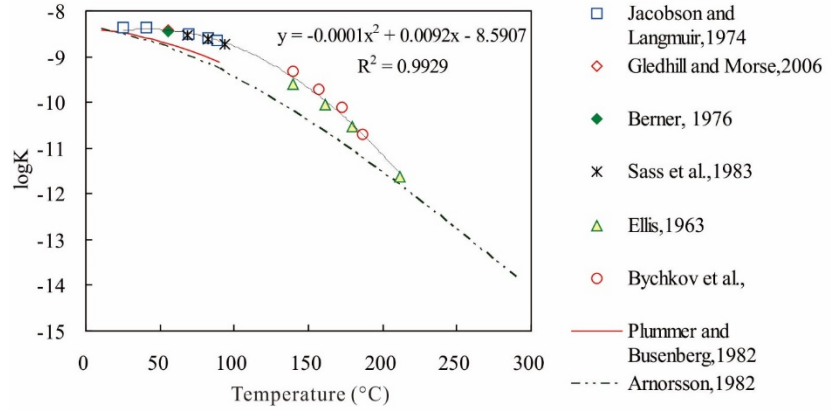


FIGURE 3: Calcite solubility as a function of temperature revised from Bénézech et al. (2013), Jacobson and Langmuir (1974), Plummer and Busenberg (1982): 0°C - 90°C; Arnórsson et al., (1982): 0°C - 300°C; Sass et al. (1983): 0°C - 50°C; Ellis (1963): 98°C - 201°C; Bychkov et al. (personal communication from Bénézech et al. (2013): 100°C - 200°C

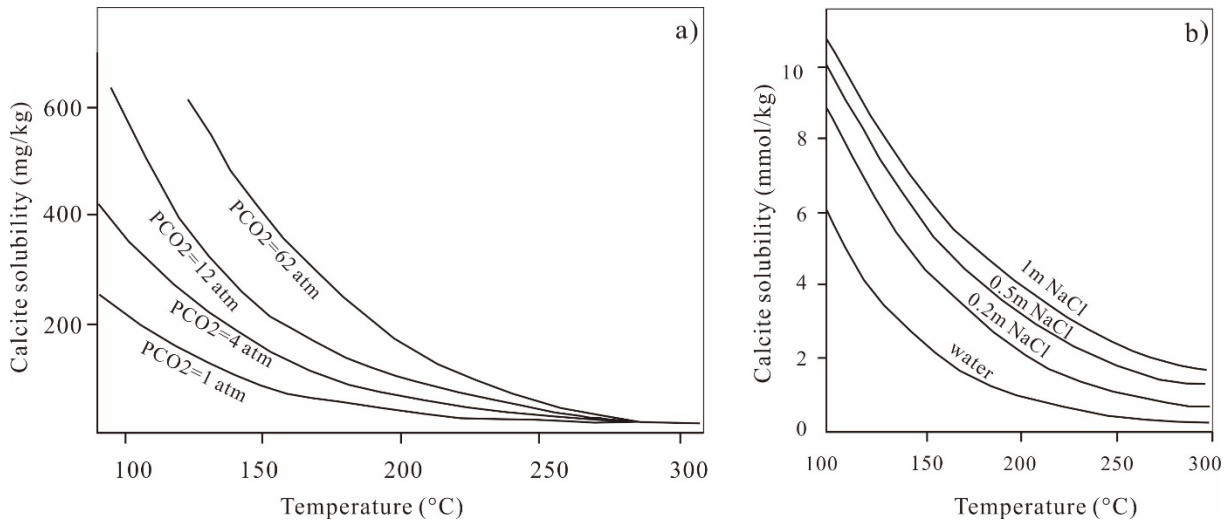


FIGURE 4: a) Calcite solubility as a function of temperature and different CO₂ pressures;
b) Calcite solubility as a function of NaCl concentration under P_{CO2}=12 atm

3.2 Reasons for calcite scaling in geothermal systems

3.2.1 pH increase due to boiling in the well

It has been concluded that calcite precipitation always occurs at the first level of boiling in the well (Arnórsson, 1989). When more CO₂ partitions to the steam phase (Equation 6 moves to the left) and the pH of the fluid is controlled by carbonic acid, the pH will increase and subsequently the concentration of carbonate ions (CO₃²⁻) increases, causing the activity products of Ca²⁺ and CO₃²⁻ to increase and the fluid is more likely to be supersaturated with calcite which can precipitate as shown in Equation 13.



The rate and degree of precipitation increases with increasing super-saturation and water salinity. Pressure decline in the borehole will lead to a downward movement of the first boiling level, lengthening the scaling interval and the time for clogging the well. In practice, this process is often used as a mitigation method for calcite scaling (Arnórsson, 1978). For low temperature geothermal systems, the steam/water ratio is relatively low and the reaction rates and degassing extents are also limited, resulting in annular flow and impeding degassing. Therefore, generally, calcite scaling is not as serious as that in high temperature geothermal fields.

3.2.2 pH increase due to casing corrosion (Wanner et al., 2017)

Casing corrosion in the well will increase the pH of the fluid due to a consumption of protons (H^+) as shown in Equation 14.



Typical corrosion products of Fe-bearing minerals in scales are not so common and the corrosion always occurs only at the interface of the uncoated casing. Once the casing is covered with scales, the corrosion will carry on at a rather slow rate because of protection from insulation. Therefore, pH increase from casing corrosion won't be a key factor for scaling during geothermal fluid production.

3.2.3 pH increase due to linear depressurization

Though pressure and minor temperature variations have little effect on calcite solubility, depressurization of the fluid does cause significant calcite super-saturation during the upwelling process. Calculations indicate that the increase of the calcite saturation index (CSI) due to depressurization can be ignored. The maximum CSI computed from wellhead samples and the concentration of dissolved inorganic carbon decrease due to calcite precipitation only account for 13 mol% (numerically calculated) (Wanner et al., 2017). Therefore, pH increase due to linear depressurization is also not the main drive of calcite scaling.

3.3 Calcite scale quantity assessment methods

3.3.1 Calcite scaling thickness (CST) assessment

The growth rate of calcite crystal surfaces during geothermal fluid production can be calculated using Equations 15 and 16 based on experiments on the kinetics of calcite scaling using a 1 mol NaCl solution with a temperature of 70°C, 90°C and a pH of 5.9 - 7.5 (Zhang and Dawe, 1998; Zhang et al., 2001).

$$R_L = K_p * (S^{0.5} - 1)^2 \quad (15)$$

$$\log K_p = 0.126 * (I)^{0.5} - \frac{2400}{T_k} - 2.11 \quad (16)$$

$$\log K_p = 0.126 * (I)^{0.5} - \frac{2400}{T_k} - 0.34 * pH + 0.444 \quad (17)$$

$$\log K_p = 0.126 * (I)^{0.5} - \frac{2400}{T_k} - 0.34 * pH + 0.222 \quad (18)$$

Where R_L represents the linear growth rate of calcite crystal surfaces (m/s), S is the saturation ratio, which is equal to 10^{SI} , K_p is the empirical rate constant (m/s), I is the ion strength (mol/kgw) and T_k is the temperature in Kelvin (K).

Experimental results also showed that the calcite scaling rate is strongly affected by the pH and the lower the pH, the higher the growth rate. The influence of pH can be expressed by Equation 17 (Zhang et al., 2001). Also, Mg content in the fluid can inhibit calcite growth and if the Mg/Ca molar ratio is 0.1-

0.5, the calcite growth rate can be reduced by 40% (Dawe and Zhang, 1997). Formula 18 can be used for the calcite growth rate in solutions containing low concentrations of Mg. In addition, when the flow rate is higher than 0.5 m/s, K_p will stabilize and become independent as indicated by experiments (Zhang and Farquhar, 2001). Then, the CST is calculated by multiplying R_L and a constant time (e.g., 2 days expressed in seconds). From Equations 15, 16, 17 and 18, the CST depends on the temperature, ion strength, pH, saturation state of the fluid and the production time. Because the geothermal reservoir fluid is always in partial or full equilibrium with some minerals, including calcite, the method is therefore not suitable for reconstructed data. However, by assuming that the over-saturation extent and pH are constant (i.e., after CO₂ degassing started but before calcite nucleation), the CST can be derived and plotted as a function of temperature (Wolff-Boenisch and Evans, 2013). Though the experimental conditions do not cover the wide temperature and pH range that is typical for high-temperature geothermal systems (temperature higher than 150°C and pH between 7-9), the equations can still be used because the calcite scaling mechanism is the same for both low and high temperature fluids.

3.3.2 Calculation based on calcium content variations from bottom to wellhead

Ármansson (1989) states that the difference in the calcium concentration along with data on flow and flow time for water samples collected at deep reservoirs and wellheads can be used to estimate the quantity of calcite depositions (Ármansson, 1989). The formula is illustrated as Equation 19.

$$m_{cac03} = 2.5 * \Delta C_{ca} * v * t * 10^{-6} \quad (19)$$

Where m_{cac03} is the total quantity of calcite depositions in kg; ΔC_{ca} is the difference of calcium concentration for water in the deep reservoir and at the wellhead in mg/kg; v represents the flow rate of fluid from the well in kg/s; t is the production time in seconds.

Data analysis from well KJ-9 showed that the quantity was about 2400 kg which was almost consistent with the measurement using a calliper log (2700 kg). Therefore, his method can be tried for calcite scale estimation.

3.3.3 Calculation based on WATCH and PHREEQC simulations

It is better to obtain deep fluid samples, especially before flashing, to compute in the PHREEQC programme. However, sometimes a representative reservoir sample can't be obtained due to various reasons and therefore, the WATCH program can be used to reconstruct the compositions of the deep fluid using wellhead discharge water and steam data. Then we can use the reservoir fluid chemical compositions as the input for the PHREEQC programme. WATCH assumes a mass balance, however calcite precipitation during boiling may decrease the calcium content to some degree. The possible calcite precipitation amounts (mmol/kgw) are calculated by assuming the calcite saturation index to be 0 in the Equilibrium-Phase keyword in PHREEQC. The total scale quantity can be assessed by Equation 20.

$$m_{cac03} = 100 * \Delta m_{cac03} * v * t * 10^{-6} \quad (20)$$

Where m_{cac03} , v and t have the same meaning as for Equation 19 and Δm_{cac03} represents the maximum calcite precipitation amount per kg water.

4. STUDY AREA

4.1 Site location and geological setting

The Kangding geothermal field is located in the western Sichuan plateau with an average elevation of more than 3000 m a.s.l. (Figure 5) and it is also known as the east syntax formed due to the collision of

the Indian Plate and the Eurasian Plate. The mean annual temperature and precipitation are about 7.1°C and 832 mm, respectively, according to historical meteorological records. Studies of fault systems indicate that large-scale strike-slip faults are widely developed with orientations of NWW and NNE and they are active, as evidenced from seismic activities occurring in recent years, (e.g. Wenchuan, Ya'an and Jiuzhaigou seismic activities, Xu et al. 2011). There are three significant faults in the study area, namely the Longmenshan fault, Xianshuihe fault and Anninghe fault, which form a Y shape (Figure 5). Along the Xianshuihe fault, intrusive rocks with different ages were investigated: 1) in the east, the oldest group is formed of monzonitic granite and plagiogranite, 2) in the central part there is a group which is 110 Ma - 210 Ma old, and 3) in the south, the youngest batholith is found with an age of 13 Ma - 10 Ma (Xu and Kamp, 2000).

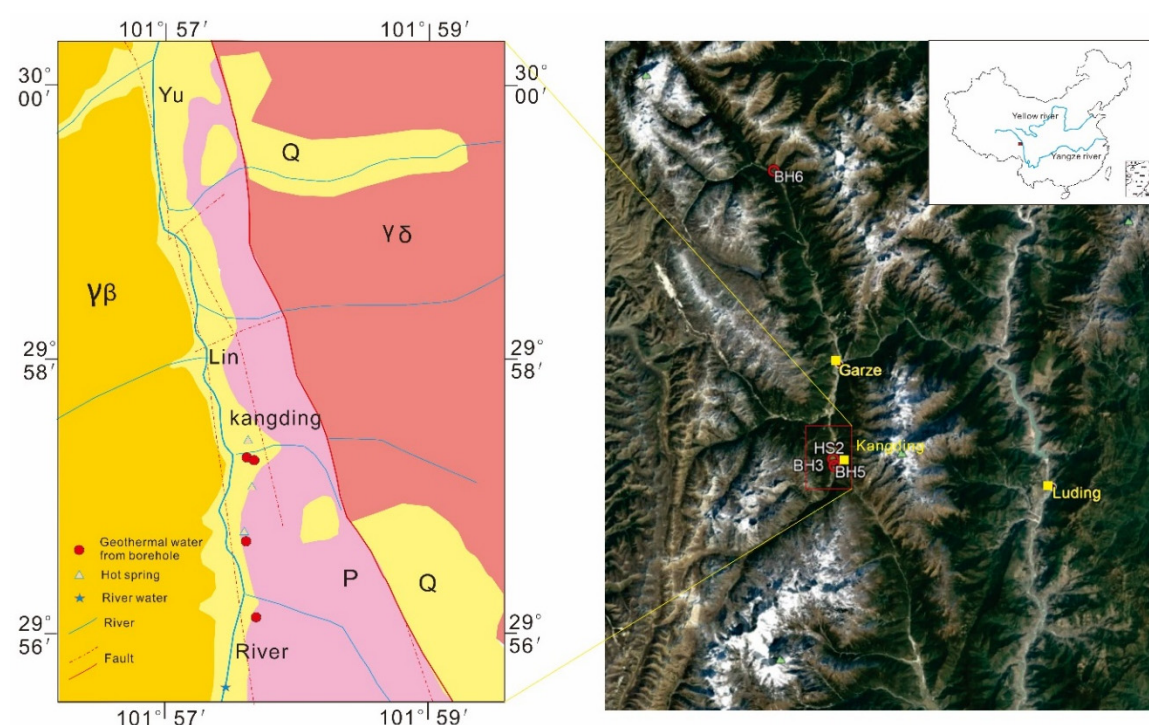


FIGURE 5: Site location and basic geological conditions

The exposed strata in the area are mainly composed of unconsolidated sediments, sedimentary rocks (slate and quartz schist), and metamorphic rocks (crystalline limestone, marble and phyllite) dated from the Quaternary to the Permian without the Mesozoic. Well drilling of BH6 reveals that from depth of about 100 m to 1847 m, the lithology shows sedimentary rocks of slate and quartz schist (Long, 2014).

Previous work shows that the heat flow value in west Sichuan is 76 ± 12.8 mW/m² while the newest measurements indicate a higher geothermal background with values as high as 94.7 mW/m² in the Aba area, north of Kangding (Hu et al., 2001; Jiang et al., 2016). In addition, strong surface manifestations have been observed in this area, including hydrothermal explosions, hot springs, fumaroles and sinters. Hot springs with temperatures of 21°C - 87.5°C and discharges of 0.1 l/s - 10 l/s as well as 24 exploration wells with measured downhole temperatures up to 209°C, have been investigated (Tong and Zhang, 1994; Guo et al., 2017).

4.2 Geothermal system descriptions

4.2.1 Fluid geochemistry of Kangding geothermal field

Based on geochemical data (Table 1), there are three types of water, namely deep geothermal fluids from boreholes, shallow geothermal water from shallow boreholes and hot springs and river water. The

deep geothermal fluid (BH1, BH2, and BH3) has high pH ranging from 7.3 to 9.5 with wellhead temperatures of 104°C-178°C. It is of a $\text{HCO}_3\text{-Cl-Na}$ type (Figure 6) and the total dissolved solids (TDS) are 2323 -2553 mg/L. The temperature of the shallow geothermal fluid is 47.5°C- 82°C which is much lower compared to the deep fluid, and belongs to the $\text{HCO}_3\text{-Cl-Na}$ and $\text{HCO}_3\text{-Na-Ca}$ types based on chemical composition (Figure 6). The TDS of the shallow geothermal fluid (802 -2168 mg/L) is lower than that of the deep fluid. The river water collected from the Yulin river represents the cold water end-member if mixing occurs. Its TDS is low and it equals to 83 mg/L. It also belongs to the $\text{HCO}_3\text{-SO}_4\text{-Ca-Mg}$ type. Evidence from water isotopes indicate that the geothermal fluid is recharged by snowmelt and local precipitation and its chemical composition results from the mixing between meteoric and magmatic waters (Guo et al., 2017).

TABLE 1: The chemical composition of geothermal water from boreholes, hot springs and river (mg/L)¹

Sample ID Original ID	BH1 15J35	BH2 15J36	BH3 15J38	BH4 15J42	BH5 15J37	BH6 DKZ02	HS1 15J39	HS2 15J41	HS3 15J43	RW 15J40
Discharge type	Geothermal water from boreholes						Hot springs			River water
Well depth (m)	656	267	305	109	248	1847				
pH	9.5	9.1	8.5	9.0	7.3	7.8	7.5	7.7	6.7	8.2
T(°C)	178	150	104	118	82	115	47.7	81	47.5	6.2
TDS	2323	2359	2350	2553	2168	2379	1661	1066	802	83.0
B	2.0	1.9	1.8	2.2	1.4	2.2	1.1	0.6	0.3	0
Na	670	686	673	727	617	570	426	246	117	2.4
K	142	122	120	124	102	50.0	68.6	41.1	18.9	0.9
Ca	3.5	2.2	3.2	1.9	38.9	22.0	73	49.1	119	19.2
Mg	0.2	0	0.3	0.2	5.5	6.1	14.7	14.9	18.1	4.6
Al	0.6	0.7	0.1	0.2	0.1	0	0	0	0	0
Cl	678	655	750	738	602	144	396	193	73.3	2.4
SO ₄	23.0	27.0	6.0	14.4	0	15.8	3.7	68.3	53.1	16.9
F	6.9	7.8	5.0	7.7	2.9	7.9	3.1	1.6	1.2	0.4
HCO ₃	542	787	1018	950	1259	1428	1059	618	636	58.8
CO ₃	324	227	51.8	176	0	0	0	0	0	0
SiO ₂	355	341	247	367	162	136	140	141	82.5	6.4

1. All the data taken from Guo et al., 2017, except BH6 which is from Wang et al., 2015.

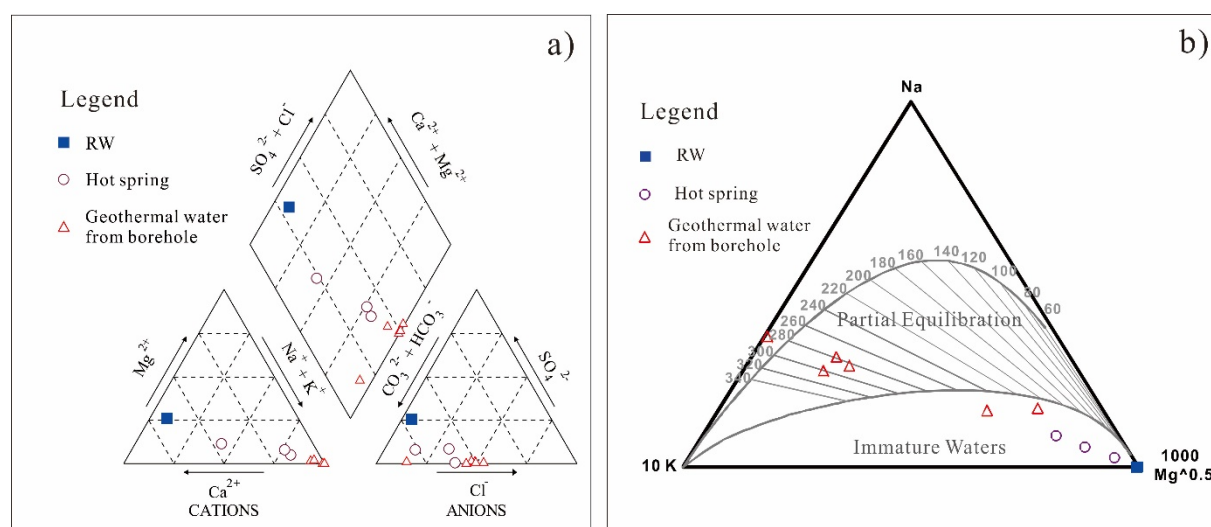


FIGURE 6: Piper diagram for various water from Kangding geothermal fields

4.2.2 Scaling problems

Serious scaling occurred during a 48 hour discharge test of well BH6 and 1-3 cm thick scale was observed in the surface pipe as shown in Figure 7 (Zhang et al., 2016). Results from XRD and XRF analysis show that the scale is mainly composed of CaCO_3 (> 95% by weight) and traces of amorphous SiO_2 (Wang et al., 2015). Due to the calcite scaling problem, this well is still not in production.



FIGURE 7: Calcite scales in the pipeline (left) and flange (right)

5. DATA SOURCES AND ANALYTICAL METHODS

5.1 Data sources

The river water, borehole geothermal water and hot spring chemical compositions have been previously described (Wang et al., 2015; Guo et al., 2017). A total of ten samples were collected in August 2013 and October 2015, as shown in Figure 5. The borehole depth ranges from 109 m to 1847 m and all the geothermal samples were collected at the wellhead using a simple water-vapour separator. Water temperature, electrical conductivity (EC), pH and oxidation reduction potential (ORP) were measured onsite using a portable multiparameter (HQ40D, Hach). Bicarbonate and carbonate ions were also measured onsite using a digital titrator (Model 16900, Hach) with 0.8 N H_2SO_4 with bromocresol green-methyl red as indicator. All the samples, except the SiO_2 samples, were filtered through a 0.23 μm membrane and sealed with parafilm to avoid evaporation. Cations and trace element samples were acidified to $\text{pH} < 2.0$ with 6 N super pure HNO_3 for preservation before analysis. Filtered but un-treated samples were stored in HDPE bottles for anion analysis. Samples collected for SiO_2 analysis were diluted on site using deionized water. For water isotope analysis, raw samples were collected and refrigerated before analysis. Two gas samples from the separator at the wellhead were also collected using a drainage gas-collecting method.

The contents of cations and trace elements were determined by ICP-AES (ICAP6000) and ICP-MS (7500C, Agilent), respectively, while anions were analysed with Ion Chromatography (Dionex ICS600) in Chinese University of Geosciences (Beijing). Precision for cations and anions are reported to be less than 0.5%. Water isotopes ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$, $\delta^2\text{H}$) were detected by a laser absorption water isotope spectrometer analyser (L1102-I, Picarro) at the Institute of Geology and Geophysics, Chinese Academy of Sciences. The precisions of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^2\text{H}$ are 0.1‰ and 0.5‰ VSMOW respectively.

5.2 Data interpretations by modelling

For better interpretation of the geochemical data and investigation of the deep reservoir chemical composition, the WATCH and PHREEQC computer codes are used. For the calcite scaling depth assessment, the HOLA and WELLSIM computer codes are used.

5.2.1 The WATCH computer code

The WATCH was originally written in the 1970s by Stefán Arnórsson, Sven Sigurðsson, and Hörður Svavarson. In 1993, it was rewritten and later on updated by Jón Örn Bjarnason (1994). The present 2.4 version updated in 2010 is written in FORTRAN 77 though it does not follow the ANSI standard strictly. References for the WATCH thermodynamic database can be found in Arnórsson et al., (1982).

The programme includes mass balance equations of species and mass action equations of chemical equilibria between species. These two sets of equations are solved simultaneously by an iterative procedure which is carried out a few times during each run of the programme. The programme contains provisions for 67 different aqueous species in total, in addition to H^+ and OH^- .

Generally, the results of a chemical analysis of water, gas and steam condensate samples are used to reconstruct the chemical compositions of downhole or deep fluids, including pH, aqueous speciation, partial pressures of gases, redox potentials, and activity products of minerals. In addition, the programme can also be used to compute the resulting species concentrations, activity coefficients, activity products and solubility products when adiabatically boiled or conductively cooled from the reference temperature to some lower temperature. This is particularly useful in the study of scaling (Iceland Water Chemistry Group, 2010).

5.2.2 The PHREEQC computer code (Parkhurst and Appelo, 1999)

The PHREEQC program is developed by David L. Parkhurst and C.A.J. Appelo from the United States Geological Survey (USGS). The present version 3 is written in the C and C++ programming language and is designed to perform a wide variety of low-temperature aqueous geochemical calculations. It implements several types of aqueous models: two ion-association aqueous models (the Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory model and WATEQ4F), a Pitzer specific-ion-interaction aqueous model, and the SIT (Specific ion Interaction Theory) aqueous model. Using these aqueous models, PHREEQC has capabilities for (1) speciation and saturation-index calculations; (2) batch-reaction and one-dimensional (1D) transport calculations with reversible and irreversible reactions, which include aqueous, mineral, gas, solid-solution, surface-complexation, and ion-exchange equilibria, and specified mole transfers of reactants, kinetically controlled reactions, mixing of solutions, and pressure and temperature changes; and (3) inverse modelling, which finds sets of mineral and gas mole transfers that account for differences in composition between waters within specified compositional uncertainty limits.

All input for PHREEQC version 3 is defined in keyword data blocks, each of which may have a series of identifiers for specific types of data.

5.2.3 The HOLA computer code (Björnsson, 1987)

The HOLA code is a wellbore simulator and was developed by Grimur Björnsson in 1987 using FORTRAN. It enables the computation of downhole conditions in wells with an arbitrary number of feed zones during discharge or injection. Calculations can be either at the well-head and continue downwards in a finite difference grid or from the bottom and proceed upwards. Two phase mixtures are assumed to flow upwards while single-phase fluid can flow either up or down.

The code has many potential applications: (1) designing multi-feedzone wells; (2) matching flowing temperature and pressure profiles to determine flow rates and enthalpies of individual feed zones; (3) studying flow in the well and optimizing the operating wellhead conditions to maximize productivity; (4) studying multiple feed zones using pressure transient data during well tests; (5) coupling with a reservoir simulation to determine well productivity or infectivity changes with time; (6) flashing depth calculation.

Generally, computations are done in two steps: (1) balance is given to the wellbore and feedzone mass and energy fluxes at the grid node where the feedzone is encountered to find the inlet conditions for the next unknown section of the well; (2) calculate the flow conditions in the well between feedzones. These two steps are repeated until the program reaches the other end of the grid.

5.2.4 The WELLSIM code (Gunn and Freeston, 1991; GSDS, 2017)

The WELLSIM is an integrated geothermal wellbore simulator and analysis package designed to allow ‘what-if’ scenarios to be performed on a geothermal well. It was written by Gunn and Freeston in 1991 and now it has been updated by the Geothermal Science and Data Solution (GSDS). It includes five modules: discharge test simulation, fluid composition and properties calculation, deliverability curve prediction, statistical and graphical matching analysis of downhole pressure and temperatures, and downhole measurement analysis.

Theoretical equations including the conservation of mass, the conservation of energy and the conservation of momentum are used to govern the single phase flow while empirical equations developed by the engineers are used to deal with two-phase flow, such as flow correlation and equation of state.

6. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

6.1 Reservoir fluid compositions reconstruction

For borehole samples in Kangding geothermal field, the WATCH boiling spring model was applied to reconstruct deep fluid compositions. This model has been used due to a lack of steam data caused by sampling problems. From the Giggenbach Na-K-Mg diagram (Guo et al., 2016), BH1, BH2, BH3 and BH4 samples were in fully or partial equilibrium, therefore, it is assumed that mixing had little effect on these four samples and the calculated WATCH Na-K geothermometer was used as reference temperature. The reconstructed deep fluid chemical compositions from four borehole samples are listed in Table 2. Results showed that the reservoir temperature is about 260°C-280°C and the original pH ranges from 6.2 to 7.7. The fluid is of $\text{HCO}_3\text{-Cl-Na}$ and $\text{Cl-HCO}_3\text{-Na}$ types and there are substantial amounts of aqueous CO_2 in the fluid which may be the carbon source of the potential calcite scale.

TABLE 2: Calculated deep fluid chemical compositions from borehole samples using WATCH

Sample No.	Ref. T (°C)	pH	CO ₂	B	SiO ₂	Na	K	Mg	Ca	F	Cl	SO ₄	Al
BH1	283	7.66	2208	1.50	267	504	107	0.15	2.63	5.19	510	17.30	0.45
BH2	263	6.99	4958	1.43	257	518	92.03	0.04	1.66	5.88	494	20.37	0.53
BH3	265	6.23	22718	1.22	167	456	81.47	0.20	2.17	3.39	508	4.07	0.07
BH4	259	6.66	8434	1.57	262	518	88.08	0.14	1.35	5.49	526	10.26	0.14

The BH5 wellhead temperature was 82°C and the local boiling temperature was about 90°C at an altitude of 3100 m and it is assumed that mixing happened. Therefore, for hot spring samples and the BH5 borehole sample, the silica-enthalpy model was used to calculate the mixing ratio (Truesdell and Fourier,

1977) and reconstruct the deep fluid. It has been shown that the hot springs resulted from mixing between deep fluid and shallow cold water (Guo et al., 2016). The silica-enthalpy plot for these hot spring samples and BH5 is shown in Figure 8.

The RW sample represents the cold water end-member because it was collected in the local Yulin River that is recharged by meteoric waters. Point D represents the enthalpy and silica content of the deep fluid for samples HS2, HS3 and BH5. The fraction of deep hot water for the hot springs can be determined by dividing the distance AB by AD or AC by AD. The results indicate that the mixing ratio of deep fluid for HS3 and BH5 is about 26.9% while that for HS2 is about 15.3% (Table 3). For HS1, it is assumed that steam loss from an adiabatically cooled liquid occurred before mixing with cold water, therefore, the fraction of deep hot water is obtained by dividing the distance of AE by AF. Besides, the weight fraction of the original reservoir fluid lost as steam before mixing can be calculated using Equation 21. Results indicated that for HS1, the fraction of hot water is about 45.4% and the weight fraction lost as steam is about 14%. Based on these mixing ratios, the deep fluid compositions from hot springs HS2 and HS3 were reconstructed (Table 4). From the mixing model, the deep reservoir fluid for HS2 and HS3 should be similar. However, the pH, Ca, Mg, and Cl substantially differ. The recalculated pH from HS3 using the mixing ratio is negative and this is probably because apart from mechanical mixing, no other geochemical reactions during the upwelling of HS3 were included.

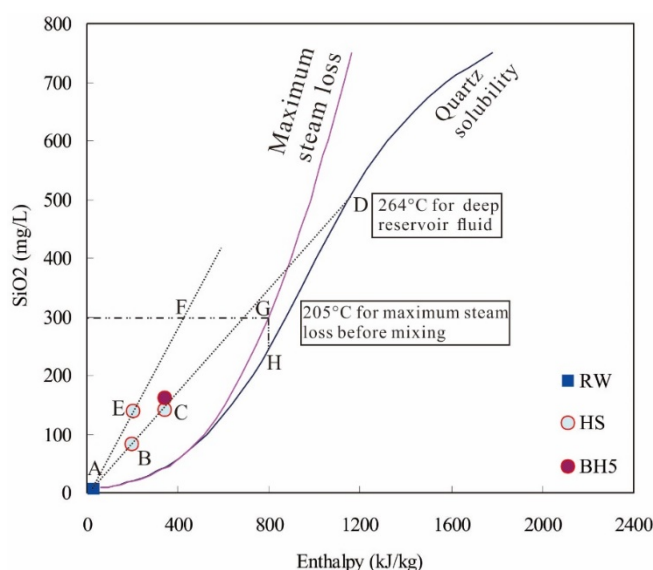


FIGURE 8: The Silica-enthalpy model for hot spring samples and BH5 in Kangding geothermal field

$$x = 1 - \frac{\text{silica content at point H}}{\text{silica content at point G}} \quad (21)$$

TABLE 3: Fraction of deep fluid calculations using silica-enthalpy mixing model

Sample No.	Type	T (°C)	SiO ₂ (ppm)	Enthalpy (kJ/kg)	Fraction of deep fluid (%)	Weight fraction of original hot water lost as steam before mixing (%)
HS1	Hot spring	82.0	161.8	343.3	45.4	14
HS2		47.7	139.7	199.7	26.9	
HS3		81.0	140.5	339.1	15.3	
BH5	Shallow geothermal water	47.5	82.5	198.9	26.9	
RW	River water	6.2	6.4	26.1		
D point			505.0			
C point			140.5			
B point			82.5			
G point			300.0			
H point			258.0			

TABLE 4: Reconstructed deep fluid compositions from hot spring HS2 and HS3 (mg/L)

Sample No.	T(°C)	pH	Li	B	Na	K	Ca	Mg	Cl	SO ₄	F	HCO ₃	SiO ₂
HS2-R	283	6.3	10	2.2	904	150	130	42.7	708	207	4.8	2129	503
HS3-R	282	-1.8	8	2.0	764	121	681	94.6	475	258	5.7	3908	514

The fluid chemical compositions for BH6 calculated using the boiling spring model of WATCH is not representative. The measured discharge Ca concentration used in the simulation doesn't include the Ca formed during calcite scale deposition which had been observed in the well (Figure 7). Therefore, the data obtained from the WATCH boiling calculations was used in the PHREEQC model to reconstruct the reservoir fluid compositions. It was assumed that the reservoir fluid is at equilibrium with calcite by forcing the saturation index of calcite to be 0. The computed BH6 chemical components from PHREEQC were again used in the WATCH simulation for further calculations and the results are shown in Table 5. The results of those calculations indicate that calcite scaling doesn't change the concentrations of Na, K, SiO₂, B, F, Cl and SO₄, but it decreases the Ca, Mg and CO₂ concentrations during scaling formation. Therefore, recalculations of the deep geothermal fluid where scaling occurs are required to ensure for those losses.

TABLE 5: Observed and calculated deep fluid chemical compositions for BH6

Sample NO.	pH/ T (°C)	B	SiO ₂	Na	K	Mg	Ca	F	Cl	SO ₄	Al	Fe	CO ₂	H ₂ S
		mg/L									µg/L		mg/L	
Wellhead	7.80/25	2.2	136	570	50.0	6.1	22.0	7.9	144	15.8	2.0	20	1030	1.14
Deep water (T=150°C) ¹	5.59/150	2.1	127	532	46.7	5.7	20.6	7.4	134	14.8	1.9	19	10840	4.27
Deep water (T=150°C) ²	5.63/150	2.1	128	539	47.1	5.7	44.8	7.5	136	15.2	1.9	20	7938	4.13

1. Calculated using the spring boiling model in WATCH 2.4 with the wellhead data;

2. Calculated using the PHREEQC program with reconstructed data from WATCH by assuming calcite equilibration in the deep water;

6.2 Calcite scaling potential assessment

6.2.1 General assessment for both borehole and hot spring samples

The calcite scaling potential for the Kangding geothermal field is assessed using the WATCH programme with data both from boreholes and hot springs. The activity product ($\log (Ca^{2+})(CO_3^{2-})$) of calcite is calculated for wellhead temperatures and reference temperatures with respect to chalcedony, quartz and Na-K geothermometers as shown in Figure 9. The calcite saturation line (Arnórsson et al., 1982) and regression equation (Equation 12) are used to check fluid properties. Results show that most of the samples are over-saturated with respect to calcite, especially when referring to the calcite saturation line. It is worth noting that even at reservoir conditions (reconstructed fluid with chalcedony, quartz and Na-K geothermometers), the fluid is still over-saturated with respect to calcite in all the samples except BH6.

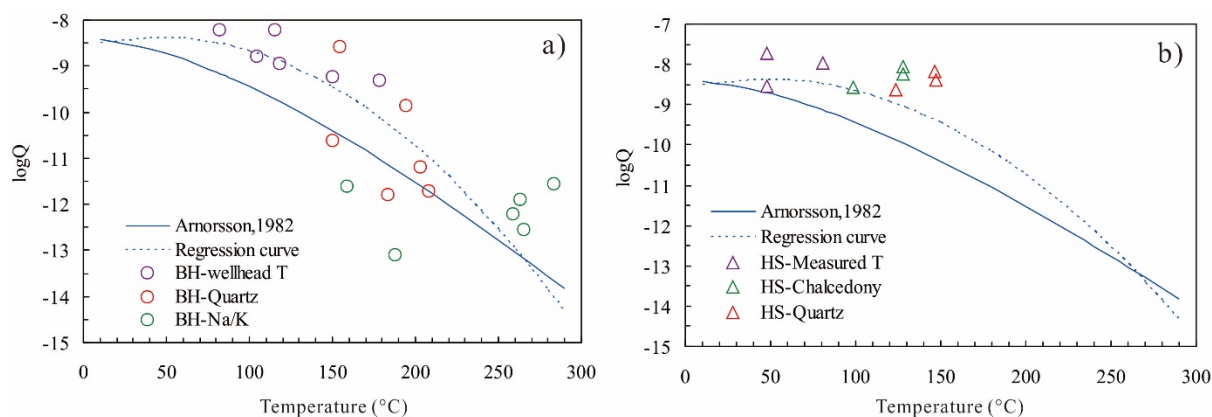


FIGURE 9: Calcite saturation state variations with temperature for borehole (a) and hot spring samples (b)

6.2.2 Analysis of BH6 sample

Serious calcite scaling had been observed in this well. Wellhead and bottom temperatures were measured to be 115°C and 145°C respectively. Although the temperature of this well is lower than 200°C, it has proved that quartz equilibrium is achieved and therefore, the WATCH quartz geothermometer was chosen to calculate the reference temperature. Data re-corrected using PHREEQC programme (deep water ² in Table 5) were used in WATCH for the adiabatical boiling at 145°C, 135°C, 125°C and 115°C. Results from the spring boiling model calculation show that the steam fraction at the wellhead is 6.0% and the fluid is slightly under-saturated with respect to calcite (Figure 10). It becomes over-saturated during boiling at different temperatures which may result in scaling problems. The pressure decrease during boiling will cause the CO₂ loss (Figure 2). With the decreasing temperature during boiling, the fluid becomes saturated with respect to chalcedony and quartz (Figure 10). Amorphous silica is under-saturated during this process and therefore silica scaling is not likely to occur. Note also that quartz precipitation kinetics is slow in those conditions.

During the boiling process, substantial amounts of aqueous CO₂ move into the gas phase causing the pH to increase when the fluid pH is controlled by the carbon acid balance (Figure 11). With the pH increase, the carbonic ion (CO₃²⁻) content increases and aqueous CO₂ decreases (Figure 11). The concentration of bicarbonate ions (HCO₃⁻) decreases slightly. The

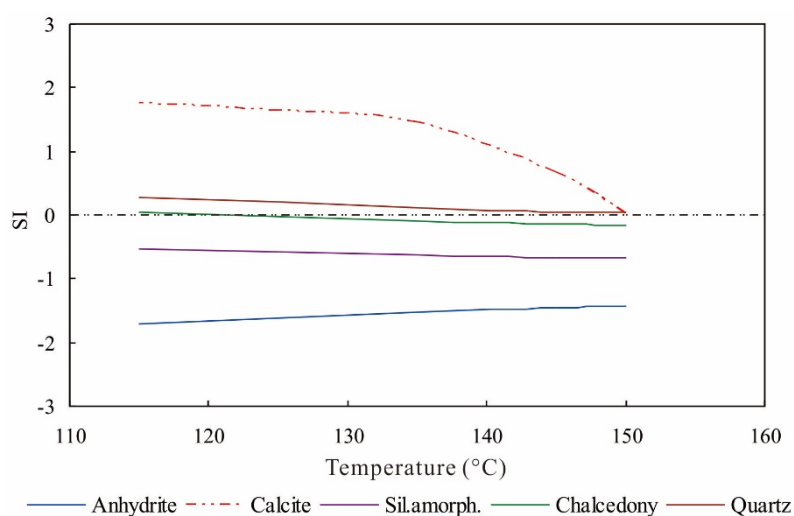


FIGURE 10: Mineral saturation state variations with temperature during boiling process

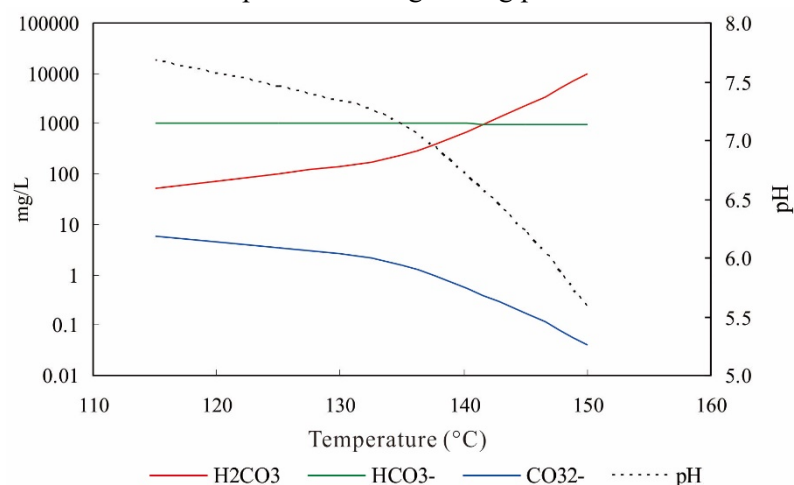


FIGURE 11: Carbon speciation and pH variation during boiling process

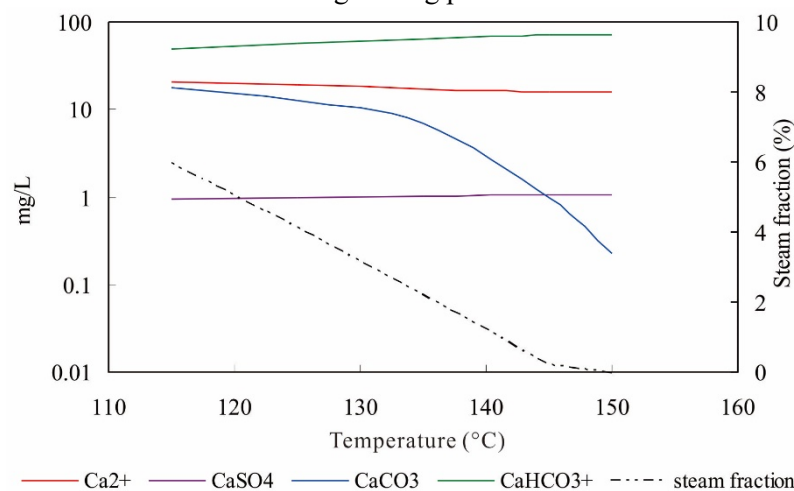


FIGURE 12: Calcium speciation and steam fraction variation during boiling process

chemical reaction for the second order of carbon acid dissociation moves to the left side (Equation 9) and subsequently, leads to an increase of the activity product of calcite (CaCO_3) and over-saturation of calcite (Figure 10). It is observed that the CaCO_3 content in the fluid increases from 0.2 mg/L to 17.8 mg/L after boiling, while the CaHCO_3^+ content decreases (Figure 12) due to carbonic acid balance changes due to boiling. This is also consistent with the calcite over-saturation in the fluid. The Ca^{2+} concentration in the fluid shows a slightly increase from 15.7 mg/L in the reservoir to 20.5 mg/L at the wellhead which is probably caused by steam loss.

6.3 Scaling depth

The scaling depth is always several meters above the boiling depth (Akin et al., 2015). Results from wellbore modelling and PHREEQC calculations indicate that calcite is not over-saturated as soon as gas bubbles arise, but appears to precipitate 80 m after the boiling depth (Akin et al., 2015). Since scaling depth cannot be assessed directly, the boiling depth is calculated instead. The boiling depth is calculated with the HOLA and WELLSIM programmes. The basic equations for these two programmes are almost the same, except that WELLSIM takes into account CO_2 and salinity.

For the HOLA program, the input parameters are the wellhead parameters (wellhead pressure in bar-abs, wellhead enthalpy in kJ/kg, wellhead flow rate in kg/s), heat loss parameters (rock thermal conductivity in $\text{W/m}^\circ\text{C}$, rock density in kg/m^3), wellbore geometry and feedzone properties. The wellhead pressure and enthalpy for BH6 are assumed to be 1.9 bar-abs and 615 kJ/kg, respectively (Wang et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2016). The possible scaling depth is calculated to be about 150 m (Appendix 1, Figure 13). The dryness (also called steam fraction) at the wellhead is about 5.3% which is comparable with that reconstructed with the boiling spring model (6.0%).

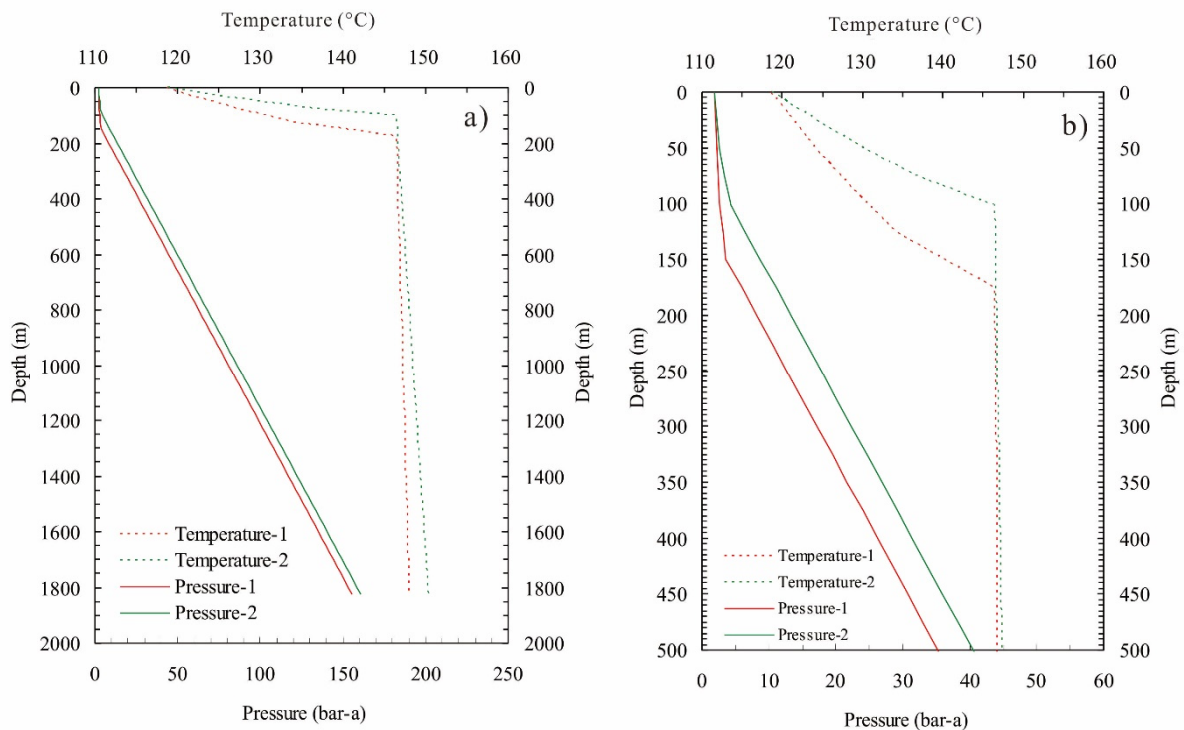


FIGURE 13: Boiling depth calculation using HOLA and WELLSIM, Temperature-1 and Pressure-1 are from HOLA; Temperature-2 and Pressure-2 are from WELLSIM without CO_2

For the WELLSIM programme, the input data includes the flow rate, wellbore geometry, feedzone properties (optional), fluid dryness, fluid impurities (e.g. CO_2 and NaCl in total fluid) and two of either

pressure, temperature or enthalpy. The discharge simulation will calculate the conditions in a well discharging at a given steady-state mass flow rate. Three CO₂ concentrations are used to run the programme, the first one is 0 ppm as in the HOLA; the second one is the CO₂ content at the well bottom where the temperature is about 145°C which is 2352 ppm, and the third one is based on the calculated CO₂ content in the deep water from PHREEQC which is 7938 ppm. Detailed results are shown in Appendices 2, 3 and 4. The simulation results indicate that no CO₂ is present (Figure 14) and the boiling depth is about 100 m. At a low CO₂ content (2352 ppm), the possible scaling depth is the same as that from the HOLA program or 175 m (Figure 14) with the dryness calculated to be 5.6%, consistent with that calculated from WATCH. At a high CO₂ concentration (7938 ppm), the fluid begins to boil at about 440 m and boiling continues to a depth of 250 m (Figure 14). The dryness is calculated to be about 6.2%.

As shown in Figure 14, the boiling depth is positively related to the CO₂ concentration so when the CO₂ content is higher, the boiling depth is deeper. This is because when CO₂ content is higher and boiling happens, more CO₂ goes to the gas phase and the gas pressure increases, causing the increase of boiling depth. This is also called pumping effect of CO₂.

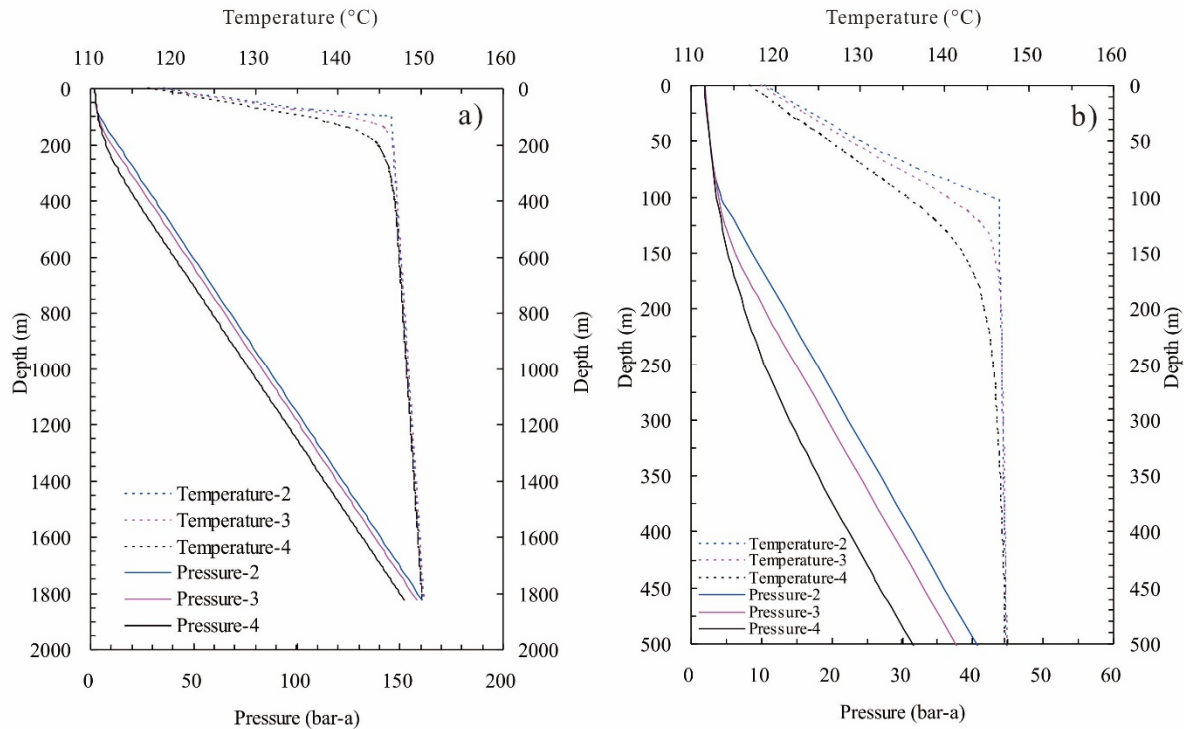


FIGURE 14: Boiling depth calculation using WELLSIM, Temperature-2, 3, 4 and Pressure-2, 3, 4 refer to CO₂ content in the fluid of 0, 2352 ppm and 7938 ppm, respectively

The friction and acceleration losses are small and the main cause of the pressure decrease with fluid upwelling to the wellhead is gravitation (Figure 15), e.g., the weight of fluid in the well. Below the boiling point, the gravitational pressure difference of the water is about 90 bar/km and it decreases to 13.6 bar/km due to the increasing proportion of steam content in the fluid.

6.4 Scaling quantity

There are three simple methods that can be used to assess the calcite scale quantity as was summarized in section 3.3. All these methods are used to estimate the calcite scale quantity for BH6 in the Kangding geothermal field. Because deep fluid sampling was not carried out for this well, the chemical compositions from PHREEQC calculation (Deep water²) are used as the initial fluid composition.

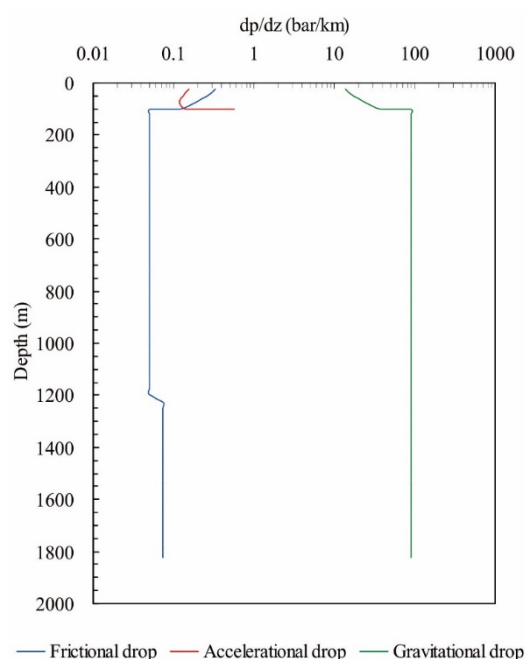


FIGURE 15: Effects of friction, acceleration and gravitation on pressure drop ($\text{CO}_2=0$ ppm)

used as input files in the PHREEQC programme to compute the maximum calcite precipitation quantity. The results in Table 7 show that the calcite scale quantity from the bottom to the wellhead varies from 69.3 mg/kgw to 113.5 mg/kgw. Based on the production rate and discharge time of 15.3 kg/s and 48 hours, respectively, the total quantity of calcite scale is calculated to be 183 kg - 300 kg.

TABLE 6: The CST calculation and calcite scale quantity evaluation based on chemical compositions reconstructed using WATCH and PHREEQC

T (°C)	pH	Molar ratio of Mg/Ca	Saturation ratio	I (mol/kg)	logKp	Kp	R _L (m/s)	CST (cm)
150	5.6	0.21	1.16	0.02	-7.33	4.63E-08	2.62E-10	0
145	6.2	0.21	4.90	0.02	-7.62	2.40E-08	3.53E-08	0.61
135	7.2	0.21	29.85	0.02	-8.07	8.52E-09	1.70E-07	2.94
125	7.5	0.21	47.21	0.03	-8.33	4.73E-09	1.63E-07	2.81
115	7.7	0.21	59.98	0.03	-8.56	2.76E-09	1.26E-07	2.17

TABLE 7: Fluid chemical composition from bottom to wellhead during boiling and calcite scale quantity calculation from PHREEQC simulation

T (°C)	B	SiO ₂	Na	K	Mg	Ca	F	Cl	SO ₄	CO ₂	H ₂ S	Al	Fe	Calcite quantity
					mg/kgw							µg/kgw		kg
150	2.1	128	539	47.1	5.7	44.8	7.5	136	15.2	7938	4.13	1.9	20	0
145	2.1	128	540	47.2	5.7	44.9	7.5	136	15.2	2352	2.50	1.9	20	183
135	2.1	131	551	48.2	5.8	45.8	7.7	139	15.6	926	1.44	1.9	20.5	280
125	2.2	134	562	49.1	5.9	46.7	7.8	142	15.9	835	1.27	2	20.9	292
115	2.2	136	573	50.1	6.1	47.7	8.0	145	16.2	809	1.14	2	21.3	300

(4) Comparisons of results from different methods

Generally, the results from the calcium difference method and PHREEQC modelling are almost on the same scale, or 151-300 kg, while that from the CST method is from less than 1 cm to 3 cm which is consistent with that observed in the surface pipeline within 48 hours and a flowrate of 15.3 kg/s. Therefore, these three methods can be reliable to some extent.

6.5 Scale removal and prevention methods

Calcite scaling problems can be solved from two aspects, removal and prevention. A mechanical scale removal is performed periodically depending on the scaling quantity and it is technically and economically feasible when the operation does not need to be done frequently (e.g., once or twice a year at most). Prevention applies some measures to prevent scale formation before its occurrence.

The main reason for calcite scale formation is a pH increase due to CO₂ degassing during the upwelling boiling process. Therefore, there are three ways to prevent scaling: 1) controlling the CO₂ partial pressure, 2) altering the pH of the fluid and 3) using chemical additives (inhibitors) (Corsi, 1986). If the geothermal water is just considered for direct use, putting the pump below the boiling depth and cooling the reservoir fluid by injecting cold water based on calcite thermodynamic properties are good methods to avoid calcite scaling (Sverrir Þórhallsson, ISOR, personal communications, 2018).

The CO₂ partial pressure can be controlled by down-hole injection of CO₂ to maintain high pressure (Kuwada, 1982). However, due to economic feasibility, this procedure is effective only for geothermal fluid with a low CO₂ partial pressure. Acid injection can be problematic due to possible corrosion. The high buffering capacity of the geothermal fluid requires large amounts of acid to be injected to lower the pH and the economic cost should be considered (Corsi et al., 1985). Experimental tests carried out in Torre Alfina, Italy indicated that in order to prevent calcite deposition, 200 cm³ of 0.1 N HCl were required per liter of solution, generating high costs (Corsi, 1986). In a geothermal field in South Iceland, sulfuric and hydrochloric acid was injected into the wells below the boiling point to inhibit calcite formation (Ólafsson et al., 2005). The usage of chemical inhibitors thus seems to be the most effective and promising solution for calcite scaling prevention both from technical and economical points of view. Choosing the most suitable inhibitors for a specific geothermal fluid is crucial for effective scale inhibition and the decision should be based on the results of laboratory and field tests.

For the Lihir geothermal field in the Philippines, a polyacrylate based inhibitor and Nalco Scaleguard 84614 were used from 2003 and 2010 respectively to inhibit calcite scaling, both of which were proven to be effective. Because of economic aspects, the latter was chosen for long term usage (Mejorada et al., 2011). For geothermal fields in Turkey with high inorganic carbon content (1.5-3.0 wt. % CO₂), organic phosphates and polymeric inhibitors reduced the calcite scale deposition by more than 98% in all boreholes and surface equipment (Yildirim and Yildirim, 2015). A co-polymer of polymaleic anhydrides (PMA) and polyacrylates (PAA) named GEO907 and a combination of PMA and co-polymers alkylether polycarboxylic acid and sulfonates (GEO905) were tested in the Tauhara geothermal field in New Zealand. Results showed that the first one successfully inhibited calcite scaling and helped the production well output to remain steady for 2-3 years while the other one was effective only when using higher dosing concentrations (>30 ppm) (Seastres Jr. et al., 2015). In addition, nano-metal-phosphonates have also been used as an inhibitor to prevent calcite scaling and specific nano-Ca-DTPMP (diethylenetriamine penta (methylenephosphonate)) particles were synthesized and tested. Results showed that they greatly delay the precipitation of calcite by changing the shape and morphology of calcite crystals (Kiaei and Haghtalab, 2014). However, the effectiveness of this kind of inhibitor has to be further tested for geothermal applications.

The process of an inhibitor introduction should include: 1) recognition of the most popular and effective inhibitors available in the market and applied in other geothermal fields; 2) choosing several candidates based on the geochemical characteristics of the fluid and wellhead conditions; 3) testing of these chemicals both in the laboratory and in the field; 4) deciding on one or two inhibitors and including the financial aspects as during the production, the efficiency of the inhibitors may change due to variations in fluid compositions, therefore, long term monitoring is necessary for successful utilization management.

7. CONCLUSIONS

The Kangding geothermal field in the west Sichuan Plateau, China is one of the most promising areas for geothermal utilization in the near future. Serious calcite scaling or sinters have been observed in the exploration well BH6 and hot springs around and this is one of the obstacles in high temperature geothermal production in Tibet. The aim of this study is to report the basic geochemical characteristics of CO₂ and calcite and assess the calcite scaling potential in the Kangding geothermal field. The main conclusions are presented below:

- (1) The deep fluid with a temperature of 150°C-280°C is almost in equilibrium with quartz due to long-term water-rock interactions. The reconstructed reservoir fluid is over-saturated with respect to calcite but it is saturated with respect to quartz and chalcedony.
- (2) For wells with calcite scale deposition, precipitated minerals should be considered when reconstructing the reservoir fluid based on wellhead data. Concentrations of elements like Ca and Mg are often under-estimated whereas CO₂ content is over-estimated if precipitates are not considered when reconstruct the reservoir fluid using WATCH.
- (3) The boiling depth of well BH6 is predicted to be 100-150 m and 440 m without or with CO₂ content and salinity considerations, respectively. The higher the CO₂ content in the deep fluid, the deeper the boiling depth. The effect of salinity on boiling depth is not as obvious.
- (4) The calcite scale quantity is estimated with three methods and ranges from 151 kg to 300 kg or with a thickness of 1-3 cm for the same flow rate and production time. The latter is consistent with the observed scale thickness in the pipeline.
- (5) For well BH6, chemical inhibition is suggested as a possible effective method for scale prevention if power generation is considered. The final inhibitor should be chosen based on both laboratory and field tests.

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APPENDIX I: Boiling depth calculated using HOLA program without CO₂ consideration

Depth (m)	Pressure (bar-a)	Temp (°C)	Dryness (%)	H _w	H _s (kJ/kg)	H _t	V _w	V _s (m/s)	D _w (kg/m ³)	D _s	Rad (mm)	Reg
0	1.9	118.6	5.3	498	2704	615	9.14	20.77	943.9	1.1	110	Sl
25	2.1	121.4	4.8	510	2708	615	7.71	17.46	941.7	1.2	110	Sl
50	2.3	124.2	4.3	522	2712	616	6.44	14.51	939.4	1.3	110	Sl
75	2.5	127.2	3.7	534	2716	616	5.26	11.79	936.9	1.4	110	Sl
100	2.7	130.5	3.1	548	2721	616	4.13	9.21	934.2	1.5	110	Sl
125	3.1	134.3	2.4	565	2726	616	2.99	6.63	930.9	1.7	110	Sl
150	3.6	140.1	1.3	590	2733	617	1.59	3.50	925.8	2.0	110	Sl
175	5.9	146.4	0	617	0	617	0.44	0	920.2	0	110	1p
200	8.2	146.4	0	617	0	617	0.44	0	920.3	0	110	1p
225	10.4	146.5	0	617	0	617	0.44	0	920.4	0	110	1p
250	12.7	146.5	0	618	0	618	0.44	0	920.5	0	110	1p
275	14.9	146.5	0	618	0	618	0.44	0	920.6	0	110	1p
300	17.2	146.5	0	618	0	618	0.44	0	920.7	0	110	1p
325	19.5	146.6	0	618	0	618	0.44	0	920.8	0	110	1p
350	21.7	146.6	0	618	0	618	0.44	0	920.9	0	110	1p
375	24.0	146.6	0	619	0	619	0.44	0	921.0	0	110	1p
400	26.2	146.6	0	619	0	619	0.44	0	921.1	0	110	1p
425	28.5	146.6	0	619	0	619	0.44	0	921.3	0	110	1p
450	30.8	146.7	0	619	0	619	0.44	0	921.4	0	110	1p
475	33.0	146.7	0	620	0	620	0.44	0	921.5	0	110	1p
500	35.3	146.7	0	620	0	620	0.44	0	921.6	0	110	1p
525	37.5	146.7	0	620	0	620	0.44	0	921.7	0	110	1p
550	39.8	146.8	0	620	0	620	0.44	0	921.8	0	110	1p
575	42.1	146.8	0	621	0	621	0.44	0	921.9	0	110	1p
600	44.3	146.8	0	621	0	621	0.44	0	922	0	110	1p
700	53.4	146.9	0	622	0	622	0.44	0	922.4	0	110	1p
800	62.4	147.0	0	623	0	623	0.44	0	922.9	0	110	1p
900	71.5	147.1	0	624	0	624	0.44	0	923.3	0	110	1p
1000	80.6	147.2	0	625	0	625	0.44	0	923.7	0	110	1p
1100	89.6	147.3	0	626	0	626	0.44	0	924.1	0	110	1p
1200	98.7	147.4	0	627	0	627	0.44	0	924.5	0	110	1p
1300	107.8	147.5	0	628	0	628	0.53	0	925	0	100	1p
1400	116.9	147.6	0	629	0	629	0.53	0	925.4	0	100	1p
1500	126.0	147.7	0	630	0	630	0.53	0	925.8	0	100	1p
1600	135.1	147.8	0	631	0	631	0.53	0	926.2	0	100	1p
1700	144.2	147.9	0	632	0	632	0.53	0	926.6	0	100	1p
1800	153.3	147.9	0	633	0	633	0.53	0	927	0	100	1p
1825	155.5	148.0	0	633	0	633	0.53	0	927.1	0	100	1p
1850	157.8	148.0	0	633	0	633	0.53	0	927.2	0	100	1p

APPENDIX II: Boiling depth calculated using WELLSIM program without CO₂ consideration

Depth (m)	Pressure (bars-a)	Temperature (°C)	H _t (kJ/kg)	Dryness (%)	C CO ₂ (ppm)	P CO ₂ bar-a	V _w (m/s)	V _s (m/s)	Regime
0	1.2	118.7	615.0	5.3	0	0.01	3.0	21.4	Annular
25	1.6	124.1	615.2	4.3	0	0.01	2.4	16.1	Annular
50	2.0	130.0	615.5	3.2	0	0.01	1.9	10.8	Annular
75	2.6	136.8	615.7	1.9	0	0.01	1.3	6.0	Churn
100	3.5	145.6	616.0	0.2	0	0.01	0.6	1.0	Bubble
101	3.6	146.4	616.0	0	0	0.01	0.4	0	Flash
126	5.9	146.4	616.2	0	0	0.01	0.4	0	Liquid
151	8.1	146.5	616.5	0	0	0.01	0.4	0	Liquid
176	10.4	146.5	616.7	0	0	0.01	0.4	0	Liquid
201	12.7	146.6	617.0	0	0	0.01	0.4	0	Liquid
226	14.9	146.7	617.2	0	0	0.01	0.4	0	Liquid
251	17.2	146.7	617.5	0	0	0.01	0.4	0	Liquid
276	19.5	146.8	617.7	0	0	0.01	0.4	0	Liquid
301	21.7	146.8	618.0	0	0	0.01	0.4	0	Liquid
326	24.0	146.9	618.2	0	0	0.01	0.4	0	Liquid
351	26.3	146.9	618.4	0	0	0.01	0.4	0	Liquid
376	28.5	147.0	618.7	0	0	0.01	0.4	0	Liquid
401	30.8	147.1	618.9	0	0	0.01	0.4	0	Liquid
426	33.1	147.1	619.2	0	0	0.01	0.4	0	Liquid
451	35.3	147.2	619.4	0	0	0.01	0.4	0	Liquid
476	37.6	147.2	619.7	0	0	0.01	0.4	0	Liquid
501	39.9	147.3	619.9	0	0	0.01	0.4	0	Liquid
526	42.1	147.3	620.2	0	0	0.01	0.4	0	Liquid
551	44.4	147.4	620.4	0	0	0.01	0.4	0	Liquid
576	46.7	147.5	620.7	0	0	0.01	0.4	0	Liquid
601	49.0	147.5	620.9	0	0	0.01	0.4	0	Liquid
701	58.0	147.7	621.9	0	0	0.01	0.4	0	Liquid
801	67.1	148.0	622.9	0	0	0.01	0.4	0	Liquid
901	76.2	148.2	623.8	0	0	0.01	0.4	0	Liquid
1001	85.3	148.4	624.8	0	0	0.01	0.4	0	Liquid
1101	94.4	148.6	625.8	0	0	0.01	0.4	0	Liquid
1200	103.4	148.9	626.8	0	0	0.01	0.4	0	Liquid
1300	112.5	149.1	627.8	0	0	0.01	0.5	0	Liquid
1400	121.6	149.3	628.7	0	0	0.01	0.5	0	Liquid
1500	130.7	149.6	629.7	0	0	0.01	0.5	0	Liquid
1600	139.8	149.8	630.7	0	0	0.01	0.5	0	Liquid
1700	148.9	150.0	631.7	0	0	0.01	0.5	0	Liquid
1800	158.0	150.2	632.7	0	0	0.01	0.5	0	Liquid
1825	160.3	150.3	632.9	0	0	0.01	0.5	0	Liquid

**APPENDIX III: Boiling depth calculated using WELLSIM program
with CO₂ content of 2352 ppm**

Depth (m)	Pressure (bars-a)	Temperature (°C)	H _t (kJ/kg)	Dryness (%)	C CO ₂ (ppm)	P CO ₂ Bar-a	V _w (m/s)	V _s (m/s)	Regime
0	1.9	118.2	615.0	5.6	2352	0.04	3.0	22.1	Annular
25	2.2	123.3	615.2	4.7	2352	0.05	2.5	17.0	Annular
50	2.7	128.7	615.5	3.7	2352	0.08	2.0	11.8	Annular
75	3.2	134.5	615.7	2.6	2352	0.13	1.5	7.5	Churn
100	3.9	140.3	616.0	1.5	2352	0.28	1.1	3.9	Churn
125	4.9	144.4	616.2	0.6	2352	0.83	0.7	1.7	Slug
150	6.3	145.8	616.5	0.3	2352	2.00	0.6	0.8	Bubble
175	8.1	146.4	616.7	0.1	2352	3.75	0.5	0.8	Bubble
200	10.3	146.6	617.0	0.0	2352	5.81	0.4	0.7	Bubble
204	10.7	146.7	617.0	0	2352	6.17	0.4	0.0	Flash
229	12.9	146.7	617.2	0	2352	6.17	0.4	0.0	Liquid
254	15.2	146.8	617.5	0	2352	6.17	0.4	0.0	Liquid
279	17.5	146.8	617.7	0	2352	6.17	0.4	0.0	Liquid
304	19.8	146.9	618.0	0	2352	6.17	0.4	0.0	Liquid
329	22.0	147.0	618.2	0	2352	6.17	0.4	0.0	Liquid
354	24.3	147.0	618.5	0	2352	6.17	0.4	0.0	Liquid
379	26.6	147.1	618.7	0	2352	6.17	0.4	0.0	Liquid
404	28.8	147.1	619.0	0	2352	6.17	0.4	0.0	Liquid
429	31.1	147.2	619.2	0	2352	6.17	0.4	0.0	Liquid
454	33.4	147.2	619.5	0	2352	6.17	0.4	0.0	Liquid
479	35.7	147.3	619.7	0	2352	6.17	0.4	0.0	Liquid
504	37.9	147.4	619.9	0	2352	6.17	0.4	0.0	Liquid
529	40.2	147.4	620.2	0	2352	6.17	0.4	0.0	Liquid
604	47.0	147.6	620.9	0	2352	6.17	0.4	0.0	Liquid
704	56.1	147.8	621.9	0	2352	6.18	0.4	0.0	Liquid
804	65.2	148.0	622.9	0	2352	6.18	0.4	0.0	Liquid
904	74.3	148.3	623.9	0	2352	6.18	0.4	0.0	Liquid
1004	83.4	148.5	624.8	0	2352	6.18	0.4	0.0	Liquid
1104	92.5	148.7	625.8	0	2352	6.18	0.4	0.0	Liquid
1200	101.2	148.9	626.8	0	2352	6.19	0.4	0.0	Liquid
1300	110.4	149.2	627.8	0	2352	6.19	0.5	0.0	Liquid
1400	119.5	149.4	628.7	0	2352	6.19	0.5	0.0	Liquid
1500	128.6	149.6	629.7	0	2352	6.19	0.5	0.0	Liquid
1525	130.9	149.7	630.0	0	2352	6.19	0.5	0.0	Liquid
1550	133.2	149.7	630.2	0	2352	6.19	0.5	0.0	Liquid
1575	135.4	149.8	630.5	0	2352	6.19	0.5	0.0	Liquid
1600	137.7	149.9	630.7	0	2352	6.19	0.5	0.0	Liquid
1700	146.8	150.1	631.7	0	2352	6.19	0.5	0.0	Liquid
1800	156.0	150.3	632.7	0	2352	6.20	0.5	0.0	Liquid
1825	158.3	150.4	632.9	0	2352	6.20	0.5	0.0	Liquid

**APPENDIX IV: Boiling depth calculated using WELLSIM program
with CO₂ content of 7938 ppm**

Depth (m)	Pressure (bars-a)	Temperature (°C)	H _t (kJ/kg)	Dryness (%)	C CO ₂ (ppm)	P CO ₂ bar-a	V _w (m/s)	V _s (m/s)	Regime
0	1.9	116.9	615.0	6.3	7938	0.11	3.2	24.2	Annular
10	2.0	118.8	615.1	6.0	7938	0.13	3.0	22.0	Annular
20	2.2	120.6	615.2	5.7	7938	0.14	2.8	19.7	Annular
30	2.3	122.5	615.3	5.3	7938	0.16	2.6	17.5	Annular
40	2.4	124.4	615.4	5.0	7938	0.18	2.4	15.6	Annular
50	2.6	126.2	615.5	4.6	7938	0.21	2.3	13.8	Annular
90	3.4	133.7	615.9	3.2	7938	0.40	1.6	7.8	Annular
100	3.7	135.5	616.0	2.9	7938	0.49	1.4	6.6	Churn
150	5.3	142.1	616.5	1.6	7938	1.42	1.0	2.8	Churn
170	6.1	143.5	616.7	1.3	7938	2.11	0.8	2.0	Churn
180	6.6	144.0	616.8	1.2	7938	2.52	0.8	1.8	Slug
190	7.1	144.4	616.9	1.1	7938	2.94	0.8	1.5	Slug
200	7.6	144.7	617.0	1.0	7938	3.40	0.7	1.4	Slug
210	8.1	145.0	617.1	0.9	7938	3.89	0.7	1.2	Slug
240	9.9	145.5	617.4	0.8	7938	5.51	0.6	0.9	Slug
250	10.5	145.7	617.5	0.7	7938	6.09	0.6	0.9	Bubble
290	13.3	146.1	617.8	0.6	7938	8.77	0.5	0.9	Bubble
300	14.0	146.2	617.9	0.5	7938	9.49	0.5	0.8	Bubble
340	17.2	146.5	618.3	0.4	7938	12.55	0.5	0.8	Bubble
350	18.1	146.5	618.4	0.3	7938	13.35	0.5	0.8	Bubble
380	20.6	146.7	618.7	0.2	7938	15.81	0.4	0.8	Bubble
420	24.1	146.9	619.1	0.1	7938	19.20	0.4	0.7	Bubble
440	25.9	146.9	619.3	0.0	7938	20.94	0.4	0.7	Bubble
447	26.6	147.0	619.4	0.0	7938	21.55	0.4	0.0	Flash
457	27.5	147.0	619.5	0.0	7938	21.55	0.4	0.0	Liquid
507	32.0	147.1	620.0	0.0	7938	21.56	0.4	0.0	Liquid
607	41.1	147.3	621.0	0.0	7938	21.56	0.4	0.0	Liquid
707	50.2	147.6	621.9	0.0	7938	21.57	0.4	0.0	Liquid
807	59.3	147.8	622.9	0.0	7938	21.57	0.4	0.0	Liquid
907	68.5	148.0	623.9	0.0	7938	21.58	0.4	0.0	Liquid
1007	77.6	148.2	624.9	0.0	7938	21.58	0.4	0.0	Liquid
1107	86.7	148.5	625.9	0.0	7938	21.59	0.4	0.0	Liquid
1200	95.2	148.7	626.8	0.0	7938	21.59	0.4	0.0	Liquid
1300	104.3	148.9	627.8	0.0	7938	21.60	0.5	0.0	Liquid
1400	113.4	149.1	628.7	0.0	7938	21.60	0.5	0.0	Liquid
1500	122.6	149.4	629.7	0.0	7938	21.60	0.5	0.0	Liquid
1600	131.7	149.6	630.7	0.0	7938	21.61	0.5	0.0	Liquid
1700	140.8	149.8	631.7	0.0	7938	21.61	0.5	0.0	Liquid
1800	150.0	150.1	632.7	0.0	7938	21.62	0.5	0.0	Liquid
1825	152.3	150.1	632.9	0.0	7938	21.62	0.5	0.0	Liquid