Terrestrial heat flow and its role in petroleum geology

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Abstract This paper describes an overview of mineral resources exploration survey by geothermal method based on the studies of terrestrial heat flow, anomalies varying in strike, in depth, physical behavior and in time. Applying geothermometry in oil-gas deposit exploration, based on paleotemperature modeling of sedimentation sequences was illustrated.

1. Introduction
Developed producing fields are gradually being depleted, therefore, the application of highly effective methods in exploring new and new hydrocarbon reservoirs is becoming a topical problem today. Analyzing the numerous hydrocarbon exploration methods, the geothermal method is distinguished based on the study of heat flow emerging from the interior earth to the surface.

The term “geothermal survey” was adopted at the Russian Science and Technology Conference in 1972 (Lvov), where the discussed issues involved effective development of hydrocarbon reservoirs for further exploration drilling. The role of geothermics in studying the Earth energy state is in determining the major theoretical geological problem-evolution of our planet.

Based on today's accumulated actual data, the formation behavior of global, regional and local geotemperature fields have been determined. The theoretical concept in evaluating the formation of geological temperature fields involves the physico-mathematical modeling of heat and mass transfer processes in rocks [1].

2. Heat flow and its role in the formation of interior Earth geothermal fields
Heat flow (q) – heat flows through isothermal surface in unit of time, which, in its turn, depends on the heat nature and source intensity, as well as the heat transfer through rocks exhibiting thermal conductivity through radiation and convection. The sources of heat flow are those processes in Earth interior, as well as solar thermal energy.

Solar activity variations (daily, seasonal, annually) result in cyclic air temperature variations. The longer cycle period, the deeper the thermal exposure. So, daily temperature variations are evident up to 1.5m and are associated with solar heat transfer due to molecular rock thermal conductivity and air convection, water vapors, infiltrated precipitation and underground waters. Seasonal and annual solar activity results in the temperature variations at the depth of 20–40m., where heat transfer is due to molecular thermal conductivity, as well as groundwater flow. The neutral layer is located deeper than 40m, where the temperature is practically stable and is on an average of 3.7 °C higher than the annual average air temperature. Below the neutral layer the temperature is higher than the average

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temperature up to 3 °C at every 100m. Century climatic changes are reflected in the temperature variations at relatively deep depths. For example, cold and warm spells in the Quaternary period influenced the Earth geotemperature regime at the depth of 3-4km.[2]. As hydrocarbon deposits accumulate lower the neutral layer, then the influence of cyclic solar activity is usually not considered.

Heat flow anomalies are distinguished by four attributes in relation to:

- the strike- global, regional, local;
- the depth- heat source depth: abyssal (mantle), intermediate (crustal), surface (first lithosphere kilometers);
- physical nature- alterations of boundary conditions in time and space and environmental thermal physical properties, thermal conductivity features in media of either heterogeneous thermal conductivity or flowing in a solid body, location pattern of thermal sources and different energy-producing processes;
- cycle time- stationary, non-stationary.

Deep (abyssal) thermal processes include radiogenic heat as a result of radiogenic isotope element decay (uranium, thorium, potassium) within rocks. Heat also exerts different processes within the Earth interior. For example, exogenous and endogenous chemical reactions, melting, tide deformation and others. The thermal energy of these sources is significantly higher than the energy in tectonic, seismic and hydrothermal processes [2].

Heat flow from the ‘solid' Earth interior continuously passes into and disperses in the atmosphere. Heat flow density depends on the thermal-physical properties of the geological environment and is closely associated with the regional tectonic structures, as well as volcanic and hydrothermal activities. The distribution of temperature and its sources in the interior and Earth thermal history are based on the geothermometry information of temperature (t) at different depths, geothermal gradients (G) and flow density (q).

Earth heat flow studies involve information on planetary energy balance, energy of geologic-tectonic processes, thermodynamic conditions within the interior, which, in its turn, could be applied in the exploration and development of mineral resources, as well as exploration of geothermal resources – one of the most potential source of future energy.

3. Application of geothermometry in solving petroleum geology problem-tasks

Investigating the distribution of geothermic temperatures in rocks with different thermal-physical properties is a rather difficult task, however, it is solvable. Modeling provides the solution for both direct thermal conductivity problems (solution in differential equations and single-valued conditions is determined by a temperature field) and reverse problems (to given temperature field the boundary conditions are determined, for example, surface heat exchange coefficient).

Significant geothermal field distortion emerges if the rocks of a disturbing body is by 5-10 times different in thermal conductivity comparable to country rocks. This difference is rare in platform regions [3]. Drilling also influences this temperature balance. Temperature recovery time to initial values is ten-fold higher than the drilling time and depends on drilling method.

The processing of factual basin data revealed that, in many cases, geothermal anomalies are confined to oil-gas deposits. Temperatures in these deposits sometimes exceed background temperatures to 10 °C or more. Abnormal heat flows showing hydrocarbons could be the result of organic matter catagenesis and hydrocarbon migration. Emerging from greater depths where the temperature is higher, hydrocarbons provide and distribute the heat while heating the rock mass. According to the thermal exposure the oil composition could be indirectly determined – lighter the oil, more intensive the thermal flow [1].

The technique for the exploration of oil-gas-bearing structures by thermo-tomography was already applied in the 20th century; however, it was not perceived as an effective tool in exploration which could have saved million and million dollars [4]. This method includes plotting a 3D model of heat flow and temperature distribution providing possible cross-sections of a geothermal field at any depth, determining favorable level for hydrocarbon formation, as well as predicting oil-gas field distribution.
deposit and depth of hydrocarbon accumulations. According to Khutorski this thermo-tomographic model for estimating hydrocarbon potential could be plotted for any territory, and is economically profitable, which, in its turn, shows the advantage of this method.

Other economically effective methods are backstripping and paleotemperature modeling, being based on the geothermal criteria, involve the following: mapping of intensive hydrocarbon generation sources, distribution of relative density of oil resources in oil-gas complex reservoirs, and territorial zoning of potential fields [5]. This method is based on the modeling of heat transmission process in layered sedimentary formation by applying formation temperature measurements, which involved formation temperature measurements and calculated temperatures to vitrinite reflectance.

It is a well-known fact that a sedimentary formation consists of stratigraphic sequences $h_i$, of which each sequence has given thermal conductivity ($\lambda_i$), thermal diffusivity ($a_i$), heat radiation of radioactive sources ($f_i$) rocks in sedimentary cross-section and sedimentation time $t_i$, (figure 1).

![Illustrated scheme of layered sedimentary cross-section in paleotemperature modeling](image)

**Figure 1.** Illustrated scheme of layered sedimentary cross-section in paleotemperature modeling [6]: $e = \varepsilon(t)$ – upper boundary of sedimentary thickness; $t$ – sedimentation time; $U$ – temperature; $q$ – heat flow; $Z$ – calculated temperature point; $h_i$ – thickness; $v_i$ – velocity of sedimentation; $\lambda_i$ – thermal conductivity; $a_i$ – thermal conductivity; $f_i$ – heat radiation density of radioactive sources.

Heat flow from the bottom is determined by geothermic inverse solution. The parameters in modeling paleothermal processes to one well cross-section are depicted in table 1. The values are calculated to 38 deep well cross-sections, drilled in the S-E of Western Siberian platform. This made it possible to identify the distribution of heat flow density within Nurolsk megadepression and its structure contours [5].
Comparing the temperatures and time of these sources to Cretaceous and Lower Nurolsk megadepression and its structure contours were identified [7, 8].

Calculated values of 39 deep well cross-sections, maps of geothermal distribution within key geological periods were plotted and intensive intensive hydrocarbon generation sources by geothermal method was conducted within given geological time $t$.

A geothermal calculation example of one well cross-section is depicted in table 2. Based on the calculated values of 39 deep well cross-sections, maps of geothermal distribution within key geological periods were plotted and intensive intensive hydrocarbon generation sources within Nurolsk megadepression and its structure contours were identified [7, 8].

In early publications, identified intensive hydrocarbon generation sources by geothermal method were described. Comparing the temperatures and time of these sources to Cretaceous and Lower Jurassic oil-gas complex distribution, relative density of generated oil resource distribution was mapped and potential territorial zoning was conducted [9].

Table 1. Example of sedimentary cross-section parameterization, exposed deep well (Vodorasdelnaya 1), determining the parameters of sedimentation and thermo-physical model.

| Suite, formation* (stratigraphy) | Thickness m* | Age, mil. years | Accumulation time mil. years | Density, gr/cm³ | Thermal conductivity, W/m°C | T° conductivity, m²/sec. | Heat radiation, W/m³ |
|----------------------------------|--------------|-----------------|-------------------------------|----------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------|
| Quarocene, $Q$                   | 19           | 0-1.64          | 1.64                          | 2.02           | 1.27                        | 6.5e-007                 | 1.1e-006            |
| Pliocene, $N_2$                  | –            | 1.64-4.71       | 3.07                          | –              | –                           | –                        | –                   |
| Miocene, $N_1$                   | 30           | 4.71-240.       | 19.29                         | 2.07           | 1.31                        | 6.5e-007                 | 1.1e-006            |
| Nekrasov, $n_k P_{g1}$           | 168          | 24.0-32.2       | 8.3                           | –              | 1.35                        | 7e-007                  | 1.2e-006            |
| Cheganian, $g P_{g 1,2}$         | 50           | 32.2-41.7       | 9.4                           | 2.09           | 1.35                        | 7e-007                  | 1.2e-006            |
| Lalinvorean, $l P_{g 2}$         | 99           | 41.7-54.8       | 131                           | 2.09           | 1.35                        | 7e-007                  | 1.2e-006            |
| Talich, $t l P_{g 1}$            | –            | 54.8-61.7       | 6.9                           | –              | –                           | –                       | –                   |
| Ganilinsk, $g n P_{g 1,2} K_2$   | 138          | 61.7-73.2       | 11.5                          | 2.11           | 1.37                        | 7e-007                  | 1.25e-006           |
| Slavgorod, $s l K_2$             | 48           | 73.2-86.5       | 13.3                          | 2.11           | 1.37                        | 7e-007                  | 1.25e-006           |
| Ipatov, $i p K_2$                | 140          | 86.5-89.8       | 3.3                           | 2.18           | 1.4                         | 7e-007                  | 1.25e-006           |
| Kuznetsov, $k z K_2$             | 17           | 89.8-91.6       | 1.8                           | 2.18           | 1.43                        | 8e-007                  | 1.25e-006           |
| Pokursk, $p k K_{1,2}$           | 1057         | 91.6-114.1      | 22.5                          | 2.26           | 1.49                        | 8e-007                  | 1.25e-006           |
| Alymian, $a_j K_1$               | –            | 114.1-116.3     | 2.2                           | –              | –                           | –                       | –                   |
| Alymian, $a_j K_1$               | –            | 116.3-120.2     | 3.9                           | –              | –                           | –                       | –                   |
| Kialinsk, $k l s K_1$            | 459          | 120.2-132.4     | 12.2                          | 2.39           | 1.6                         | 8e-007                  | 1.25e-006           |
| Tarsian, $t r K_1$               | 93           | 132.4-136.1     | 3.7                           | 2.44           | 1.62                        | 8e-007                  | 1.25e-006           |
| Kulomzian, $k l m K_1$           | 268          | 136.1...        | 9.7                           | 2.44           | 1.64                        | 8e-007                  | 1.25e-006           |
| Bazhenov, $b g J_1$              | 26           | 145.8-151.21    | 5.4                           | 2.42           | 1.62                        | 8e-007                  | 1.3e-006            |
| Georgian, $g r J_1$              | 12           | 151.2-156.6     | 5.4                           | 2.42           | 1.62                        | 8e-007                  | 1.3e-006            |
| Vasugan, $v s J_3$               | 62           | 156.6-162.9     | 6.3                           | 2.42           | 1.6                         | 8e-007                  | 1.3e-006            |
| Tumen, $t m J_{1,2}$             | 313          | 162.9...        | 45.1                          | 2.46           | 1.64                        | 8e-007                  | 1.3e-006            |

Solving direct geothermic problem-tasks with known value $q$ the temperature $U$ can be calculated in any point of the sedimentary thickness $Z$ within given geological time $t$. 
4. Conclusion

Deep well drilling is a rather expensive process in exploring the earth interior and results in the destruction of the equilibrium balance of generated formations, which, in its turn, demands significant time for regeneration. Geothermal method is a resource-efficient technique conserving the ecological equilibrium. Potential oil-gas areas could be identified and explored by analyzing the geological structure of this or that area and modeling those heat flow processes within the earth interior. This integrated method makes it possible to determine the density of oil resources in the reservoirs of different oil-gas complexes.

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Table 2. Thermal history of Bazhenov suite in the sedimentary cross-section of Vodorasdelnaya 1 well.

| Suite, formations | Geological age | Surface heat flow and geothermal subsidence (m in palaeo-cross-section) |
|-------------------|----------------|---------------------------------------------------------------|
|                   | Index | m.A. | 0 | O | 1.64 | N1 | 471 | N1 | 340 | Palsh | 323 | Palsh | 374 | Palsh | 417 | Palsh | 548 | Palsh | 617 | Palsh | 732 | Palsh | 865 | Palsh | 908 | Palsh | 918 | Palsh | 114 | Palsh | 114.1 |
| Quartarone | Q | 0 | 1 | 4 | 0.3 |
| Pliocene | N2 | 1.64 | 4.71 | 34.0 | 323 | 374 | 417 | 548 | 617 | 732 | 865 | 908 | 918 | 114.1 |
| Miocene | N2 | 471 | 2.0 | 3 | 4 | 6 | 0.45 |
| Neogene | N2 | 24.6 | 32.3 | 4.6 | 6.7 | 8.3 | 7.6 | 0.045 | 0.045 |
| Cenoman | N2 | 32.3-41.7 | 8.5 | 10.6 | 12.5 | 11.5 | 10.4 | 19.9 | 0.045 |
| Lutitorean | N2 | 41.7-54.8 | 10.9 | 13.3 | 14.7 | 14.1 | 13 | 21.6 | 22 | 0.045 |
| Talmite | N2 | 54.8-61.7 | 12.6 | 14.8 | 16.6 | 15.9 | 14.8 | 23.4 | 23.8 | 20.5 | 0.045 |
| Cenozoic | N2 | 61.7-73.2 | 15 | 17.4 | 19 | 18.4 | 17.3 | 26 | 26.2 | 23 | 22 | 0.045 |
| Brevis | N2 | 73.2-86.5 | 18.4 | 20.9 | 22.4 | 21.6 | 20.6 | 29.1 | 29.5 | 26.2 | 25.4 | 19.9 | 0.045 |
| Ipatiev | K1 | 86.5-89.8 | 21.4 | 24.1 | 25.6 | 24.9 | 23.8 | 32.3 | 32.7 | 29.4 | 28.6 | 23.1 | 22.2 | 0.045 |
| Kaznetsov | K1 | 89.8-91.6 | 24.1 | 26.8 | 28.3 | 27.7 | 26.5 | 35.1 | 35.4 | 32.1 | 31.3 | 25.9 | 24.7 | 20.1 | 0.045 |
| Polenov | K1 | 91.6-114.1 | 40.9 | 43.9 | 45.2 | 44.7 | 46.8 | 52.3 | 52.6 | 49.3 | 48.5 | 43.1 | 37.3 | 35.8 | 0.045 |
| Albian | K1 | 114.1-116.3 | 57.2 | 60.6 | 62 | 63.1 | 60.4 | 69 | 69.2 | 65.9 | 65.1 | 59.7 | 58.4 | 53.9 | 51.2 | 21.2 |
| Lower A | K1 | 116.3-120.2 | 57.4 | 60.6 | 62 | 63.1 | 60.4 | 69 | 69.2 | 65.9 | 65.1 | 59.7 | 58.4 | 53.9 | 51.2 | 21.2 |
| Krasnogorsk | K1 | 120.2-123.2 | 64 | 67.3 | 68.8 | 67.9 | 67 | 75.8 | 75.9 | 72.6 | 71.7 | 66.4 | 65.1 | 58.9 | 27.9 |
| Tarsian | K2 | 132.4-136.1 | 71.9 | 75.2 | 76.8 | 75.9 | 74.9 | 83.6 | 83.8 | 80.5 | 79.6 | 74.3 | 73.1 | 68.6 | 65.9 | 35.8 |
| Kalazolian | K2 | 136.1-145.8 | 76.9 | 80.2 | 81.8 | 81 | 79.9 | 88.8 | 88.9 | 85.6 | 84.7 | 79.4 | 78.1 | 73.7 | 70.9 | 40.8 |
| Eocene | J2 | 145.8-157.2 | 81.7 | 84.4 | 85.9 | 85.2 | 84.3 | 92.8 | 93 | 89.7 | 88.8 | 83.5 | 82.2 | 77.7 | 75.1 | 43.5 |
| Geocorps | J2 | 157.2-160.6 | 81.6 | 84.9 | 86.4 | 85.7 | 84.6 | 93.4 | 93.5 | 90.2 | 89.3 | 83.9 | 82.6 | 78.2 | 75.6 | 45.5 |
| Vosogyn | J2 | 156.2-162.9 | 82.6 | 86 | 87.5 | 86.7 | 85.7 | 94.4 | 94.5 | 91.3 | 90.4 | 85.3 | 83.7 | 79.3 | 76.6 | 46.5 |
| Tumen | J2 | 162.5-208.0 | 87.8 | 91 | 92.6 | 91.8 | 90.8 | 99.8 | 97.9 | 96.5 | 95.5 | 90.3 | 88.9 | 84.6 | 81.8 | 51.7 |
| Crystal weathering | T-P | 208.0-213.0 |
| Basement | PZ |
| Thickness(cross-section),m. | 3026 | 3003 | 2984 | 2983 | 2953 | 2785 | 2756.8 | 2735.6 | 2636 | 2635 | 2497 | 2449 | 2309 | 2292 | 1235 |
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