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1 **Slip tendency analysis, fault reactivation potential and induced seismicity in a deep**  
2 **geothermal reservoir**

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8

9 **ABSTRACT**

10 A slip tendency analysis is used to assess the reactivation potential of shear and dilational  
11 fractures in a deep geothermal reservoir in the Northeast German Basin, based on the notion  
12 that slip on faults is controlled by the ratio of shear to normal stress acting on the plane of  
13 weakness in the in situ stress field. The reservoir rocks, composed of Lower Permian  
14 sandstones and volcanics, were stimulated by hydraulic fracturing. A surprisingly low  
15 microseismic activity was recorded with moment magnitudes  $M_W$  ranging from -1.0 to -1.8.  
16 The slip tendency analysis suggests a critically stressed reservoir exists in the sandstones,  
17 whereas the volcanic rocks are less stressed. Rock failure first occurs with an additional pore  
18 pressure of 20 MPa. Presumed failure planes form a conjugate set and strike NW and NE. Slip  
19 failure is more likely than tensional failure in the volcanic rocks because high normal stresses  
20 prevent tensional failure. These results from slip tendency analysis are supported by the  
21 spatial distribution of recorded microseismicity. Source characteristics indicate slip rather  
22 than extension along presumed NE striking failure planes. This suggests that slip tendency  
23 analysis is an appropriate method that can be used to understand reservoir behavior under  
24 modified stress conditions.

25

26 Key words – Slip tendency, Enhanced Geothermal Systems, Hydraulic stimulation, Fractured  
27 reservoirs, Stress analysis, Seismicity

## 28 **1. Introduction**

29 A knowledge of the reactivation potential of faults is a critical issue in the development of  
30 man-made geothermal reservoirs, where hydraulic stimulation treatments are routinely  
31 applied to enhance permeability; the concomitant pore pressure increase also commonly  
32 induces seismicity. Such fracture initiation coupled with microseismic events is necessary to  
33 generate additional fractured flow paths that enhance permeability and hence productivity.  
34 However, a fluid injection which is not adjusted to the in situ stress field and rock strength  
35 conditions can lead to undesirable seismicity (Deichmann, 2008). The effects of stress field  
36 changes on fault kinematic behavior need to be understood, and fault reactivation potential  
37 should be estimated before stimulation treatment. In this study, we used a slip tendency  
38 analysis based on frictional constraints to assess the likelihood of fault reactivation in a  
39 stimulated geothermal reservoir.

40 Groß Schönebeck is the key site in the Enhanced Geothermal Systems (EGS) of the Northeast  
41 German Basin and was stimulated by hydraulic fracturing in 2007. A well doublet, with a  
42 production and an injection deep well is established at this site (Fig.1). The reservoir rock  
43 consists of red bed sandstone and andesitic volcanic rocks of Lower Permian age at roughly  
44 4,200 m depth (Moeck et al., 2008). Regionally, the maximum horizontal stress in the Lower  
45 Permian subsalt successions trends NE in a normal faulting stress regime (Röckel and Lempp,  
46 2003). The Northeast German Basin is a seismically quiet region, thus stress measurements  
47 originate from borehole data rather than from focal mechanisms (Heidbach et al., 2007). The  
48 site-specific stress field is known from hydraulic tests, borehole data analysis and stress ratio  
49 estimation (Moeck et al., 2008). An extensive stimulation treatment in the newer well

50 GrSk4/05 was carried out in both the volcanic and sedimentary successions (Zimmerman et  
51 al., 2008). To assess the seismic response of the reservoir to changing stress conditions  
52 resulting from the massive fluid injection, a seismic network, composed of a borehole  
53 geophone and additional surface stations, was installed in the off-set well GrSk3/90 (Fig. 1)  
54 and was used to record microseismic activity during and after stimulation of the volcanic  
55 rocks (Kwiatek et al., 2008) and sandstones.

56

57 Place here Fig. 1.

58

59 The principal aim of this paper is to test the likelihood of induced seismicity along fractures  
60 with certain orientations from the perspective of fault reactivation related to stress field  
61 perturbations. With the slip tendency analysis the potential for slip along any fault orientation  
62 with respect to the ambient stress field is investigated and therefore it is possible to assess the  
63 fault reactivation potential. This technique has been used for seismic-risk and fault-rupture-  
64 risk assessment in earthquake-prone areas (e.g. Morris et al., 1996; Collettini and Trippetta,  
65 2007) and to understand the relative importance of shearing versus dilation behaviors along  
66 faults and bedding planes during deformation (Ferrill and Morris, 2003; Ferrill et al., 1998).  
67 In this paper we test the slip tendency method in its ability to forecast rupture plane  
68 orientation and intensity of rupture induced by hydraulic stimulation of geothermal reservoirs.  
69 To do this we calculate the shear and dilational stresses along mapped and suspected faults of  
70 the reservoir, evaluate slip and dilation potential, and compare the results with recorded and  
71 analysed microseismic events.

72

## 73 2. Slip and dilation tendency analysis

74 Slip tendency is the ratio of resolved shear stress to resolved normal stress on a surface  
75 (Morris et al., 1996). It is based on Amonton's law that governs fault reactivation:

$$76 \tau = \mu_s * \sigma_{neff} \quad (1)$$

77 where  $\tau$  is the shear stress,  $\sigma_{neff}$  the effective normal stress ( $\sigma_n$  minus fluid pressure  $P_f$ ), and  $\mu_s$   
78 the sliding friction coefficient (Byerlee, 1978). According to this law, stability or failure is  
79 determined by the ratio of shear stress to normal stress acting on the plane of weakness and is  
80 defined as the slip tendency  $T_s$  (Lisle and Srivastava, 2004; Morris et al, 1996). Slip is likely  
81 to occur on a surface if resolved shear stress (the component of shear stress that is resolved in  
82 the direction of slip),  $\tau$ , equals or exceeds the frictional sliding resistance. Hence the slip  
83 tendency is given by:

$$84 T_s = \tau / \sigma_{neff} \geq \mu_s. \quad (2)$$

85 The shear and effective normal stress acting on a given plane depend on the orientation of the  
86 planes within the stress field that is defined by principal effective stresses:

87  $\sigma_{1eff} = (\sigma_1 - P_f) > \sigma_{2eff} = (\sigma_2 - P_f) > \sigma_{3eff} = (\sigma_3 - P_f)$  (Jaeger et al., 2007):

$$88 \sigma_{neff} = \sigma_{1eff} * l^2 + \sigma_{2eff} * m^2 + \sigma_{3eff} * n^2 \quad (3)$$

$$89 \tau = [(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 l^2 m^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 m^2 n^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2 l^2 n^2]^{1/2} \quad (4)$$

90 where  $l$ ,  $m$  and  $n$  are the direction cosines of the plane's normal with respect to the principal  
91 stress axes,  $\sigma_1$ ,  $\sigma_2$  and  $\sigma_3$ , respectively. Eqs. (3) and (4) define effective normal stress and  
92 shear stress for compressional stress regimes, i.e.  $\sigma_{1eff}$  is horizontal. Extensional and strike slip  
93 regimes can be derived by changing the order of the direction cosines in these equations  
94 (Ramsey and Lisle, 2000).

95 The dilation of faults and fractures is largely controlled by the resolved normal stress which is  
96 a function of the lithostatic and tectonic stresses, and fluid pressure. Based on eq. (3), the  
97 magnitude of normal stress can be computed for surfaces of all orientation within a known or  
98 suspected stress field. This normal stress can be normalized by comparison with the  
99 differential stress to give the dilation tendency,  $T_d$ , for a surface defined by:

$$100 \quad T_d = (\sigma_1 - \sigma_n) / (\sigma_1 - \sigma_3) \quad (5).$$

101 Slip and dilation tendency stereoplots are obtained by solving Eqs. (3) and (4) for all planes in  
102 3D space, substituting in Eq. (2) for shear stress distribution along fault planes and by solving  
103 eq. (5) for normal stress distribution along fault planes, and plotting the results on equal area  
104 stereonets (Morris et al., 1996; Ferrill and Morris, 2003). This slip and dilation tendency  
105 analysis is a technique that permits rapid and easy visual assessment of stress states and  
106 related potential fault activity.

107

### 108 **3. Slip and dilation tendency of the reservoir faults**

109 The Groß Schönebeck multi-layered geothermal reservoir comprises Lower Permian red beds  
110 and volcanic (andesitic) rocks that form part of the infill of the Northeast German Basin. A  
111 slip tendency analysis for the Groß Schönebeck reservoir fault system was performed for both  
112 the Lower Permian (Rotliegend) red beds and the volcanic rocks using the in-situ stress values  
113 obtained from the red beds by Moeck et al. (2008) and from the volcanic rocks by  
114 Zimmermann et al. (2008). The following are known: the subsurface depths of the reservoirs  
115 (4.1 km deep for the sandstones and 4.2 km for the volcanics layer), the rock densities and  
116 thicknesses (Moeck et al., 2008), the vertical stress,  $\sigma_v$ , (100 MPa in the sandstones and 103  
117 MPa in the volcanics). The average rock density of the overburden is 2.49 g/cm<sup>3</sup> and is less  
118 than the commonly used value of 2.7 g/cm<sup>3</sup>, caused by the 1,300 m Upper Permian salt rocks

119 (2.1 g/cm<sup>3</sup>) which is typical for the Northeast German Basin (Moeck et al., 2008). The stress  
 120 regime in the sandstone layer is known from site-specific borehole data as being transitional  
 121 from normal to strike-slip faulting, indicated by a  $\sigma_{Hmax} \sim 98$  MPa, similar to the vertical stress,  
 122 and a  $\sigma_{hmin} \sim 55$  MPa. The value for  $\sigma_{Hmax}$  is derived from borehole breakout analysis (Moeck  
 123 et al., 2007), whereas the value for  $\sigma_{hmin}$  is interpreted from hydraulically-induced minifrac  
 124 carried out in both wells at the site. Minifrac are hydraulic tests that are used to induce small-  
 125 scale artificial tensile fractures. The fracture opening pressure necessary to induce these  
 126 fractures is similar to the minimum principal stress magnitude (Valley and Evans, 2007). In  
 127 the volcanic layer,  $\sigma_{Hmax}$  is assumed to be similar in value to  $\sigma_v$ , thus being 103 MPa or even  
 128 higher due to the greater uniaxial compressive strength (UCS) of the volcanic rock. The  $\sigma_{hmin}$   
 129 is known from a leak-off test and is 72 MPa. The hydrostatic pressure at 4.1 km depth is 43  
 130 MPa, and this is assumed to be appropriate for both reservoir intervals. Thus effective  
 131 principal stresses would be: in the sandstone  $\sigma_v = \sigma_{1eff} = 57$  MPa,  $\sigma_{Hmax} = \sigma_{2eff} = 55$  MPa and  
 132  $\sigma_{hmin} = \sigma_{3eff} = 12$  MPa; and in the volcanic layer  $\sigma_v = \sigma_{2eff} = 60$  MPa,  $\sigma_{Hmax} = \sigma_{1eff} = 62$  MPa and  
 133  $\sigma_{hmin} = \sigma_{3eff} = 29$  MPa. The only stress value that is assumed and not analysed is the  $\sigma_{Hmax}$  value  
 134 in the volcanic layer. According to the frictional equilibrium that describes the limiting stress  
 135 ratios for frictional sliding in the crust (Jaeger et al., 2007; Peska and Zoback, 1995), the  
 136 stress value for  $\sigma_{Hmax}$  can range between 100-140 MPa in this stress regime (Moeck et al.,  
 137 2008; Moeck et al., 2009). We assume, however, that  $\sigma_{Hmax}$  lies close in its value to  $\sigma_v$ , giving  
 138 a similar stress ratio ( $R=0.06$ ) in the volcanics to that in the sandstone layer ( $R=0.04$ ). The  
 139 orientation of  $\sigma_{Hmax}$  is interpreted from hydraulic fractures in the sandstone layer, indicating  
 140 an orientation of  $\sigma_{Hmax} = 018.5^\circ \pm 3.7^\circ$  and implying a trend of  $\sigma_{hmin}$  of  $108.5^\circ \pm 3.7^\circ$ .  
 141 Our analysis focuses on the conditions influencing the initiation of fault slip, meaning the  
 142 point at which the slip tendency equals the frictional resistance to sliding. The Hoek-Brown  
 143 classification of rock masses was used to estimate the strength parameters and thus different

144 mechanical properties of sandstone and volcanic rock (Hoek, 1990) (Table 1). The applied  
145 parameters are the uniaxial compressive strength (UCS) of the intact rock and the constants  $s$   
146 and  $m$ , which depend on the characteristics of the rock mass. The value  $s$  takes the  
147 disturbance of rock mass by fractures and weathering into account, whereas the value  $m$   
148 reflects the geometrical shape of intact rock mass fragments. These constants can be taken for  
149 characteristic lithologies from the geological strength index (GSI), introduced by Hoek  
150 (1994). Sandstones are usually less competent rocks than most volcanic rocks. Effectively, the  
151 failure initiation and mode are therefore expected to differ in these two lithologies. The rock  
152 integrity (disturbance, grain size and shape) are taken from well bore investigations from  
153 offset wells. Accordingly, both the sandstones and the volcanic rocks are fractured and have a  
154 Hoek-Brown value of  $s=0.00198$  (describing the rock mass quality), whereas the value  $m$   
155 (describing the intergranular contact and grain size) varies between the sandstone ( $m=2.03$ )  
156 and the andesite ( $m=2.301$ ). The UCS for the sandstone is  $\sigma_c=79.3$  MPa, and for the andesite,  
157 the UCS is  $\sigma_c=101.5$  MPa as determined by point-load tests on core samples (Moeck et al.,  
158 2009). These values for intact rock may be too high for reactivation analysis of faults which  
159 commonly have lower strengths than cohesive intact rock. The Hoek-Brown strength  
160 classification, however, considers a reduced rock strength produced by higher fracture  
161 density. In particular, we classified the volcanic rocks as being fairly intact masses based on  
162 analysis of core samples from the older well of the test site. The UCS used effectively allows  
163 for a reduced rock strength due to the presence of fractures. The values of rock strength  
164 parameters and characteristics of the in situ stress field used in the slip and dilation tendency  
165 analysis are summarized in Table 1.

166

167 Place here Table 1



168

169 The resulting slip tendency stereo plots show that in both the volcanic and the sandstone  
170 layers faults with a high slip tendency have tight bimodal or small-circle girdle distributions  
171 about  $\sigma_3$  (Fig. 2A-B). This indicates that both normal and strike-slip faults can co-exist in the  
172 reservoir. Normal faults strike NE-SW and dip moderately ( $\sim 50^\circ$ ) to the SE or NW. Strike-  
173 slip faults strike NE-SW and NW-SE as steeply dipping planes ( $>80^\circ$  dip) (Fig. 2A). This  
174 analysis indicates that the maximum slip tendency developed in the sandstone interval is  
175 approximately 0.86 and in the volcanic interval it is approximately 0.39. These values imply  
176 that the sandstone interval is very close to a critical stress state, whereas the volcanic interval  
177 would require substantial additional pore pressure values to induce slip (Fig. 2D-E). A high  
178 dilation tendency is indicated in both the sandstone and volcanic rocks along steep NNE-  
179 SSW-striking fracture planes along which the normal stress is as low as the minimum  
180 principal stress (Fig. 2C). Extensional fractures are therefore expected along NNE-SSW sub-  
181 vertical planes. The stress difference ratios (Fig. 2F) show the reservoir rocks within the  
182 envelope of most realistic conditions for stress in the crust (Byerlee, 1978). The volcanic  
183 rocks lie in the lower portion of this envelope - indicating low slip tendency - whilst the  
184 sandstone layers lie in the upper portion of the envelope - indicating high slip tendency of  
185 optimally oriented faults.

### 186 *3.1 Implications for fault-reactivation potential and induced seismicity*

187 Although the Northeast German Basin is not prone to earthquakes, it is important to know  
188 whether stimulation treatments could reactivate existing faults and cause unexpected  
189 seismicity. The slip tendency analysis indicates that the reactivation potential for any faults in  
190 the volcanic layer is very low. The maximum slip tendency is less than 0.5 and is well below  
191 the value of frictional strength of a rock mass at that reservoir depth (Fig. 2B). An additional

192 pore pressure of 24.5 MPa would be necessary to increase the maximum slip tendency within  
193 the volcanic interval to about 0.8 (Fig. 2E). This would approach failure conditions for these  
194 rocks and would likely initiate slip along preferential fault planes. These preferential fault  
195 planes are NE-SW-striking, moderately dipping normal faults and steep NNW- and NNE-  
196 striking strike-slip faults (Fig. 2B). The large increase in pore pressure (over 24 MPa)  
197 required to generate slip within the volcanics implies that substantial induced seismicity  
198 during stimulation is unlikely.

199

200 Place here Fig. 2

201

## 202 **4. Induced Seismicity**

### 203 *4.1 Stimulation experiment*

204 Three hydraulic treatments were performed in well GrSk4/05 during the summer of 2007. At  
205 the beginning of the stimulation campaign, leak-off tests carried out in both the volcanic and  
206 sandstone layers yield the fracture opening pressures, which are similar to the minimum  
207 horizontal stress magnitude. In the volcanic rocks, the minimum horizontal stress is  $\sigma_{hmin} \sim 72$   
208 MPa. In the sandstone layer the minimum horizontal stress is  $\sigma_{hmin} \sim 55$  MPa. The difference in  
209 the stress magnitudes of layers that are vertically some tens of meters apart may reflect the  
210 competency contrast and different strength parameters in these two rock types. The volcanic  
211 rock is more competent and has higher strength values that potentially allows higher stress  
212 magnitudes.

213 The volcanic rocks were stimulated using a massive cyclic waterfrac treatment. A cyclic  
214 injection procedure was chosen because of technical constraints such as availability of fresh

215 water and the expectation that a cyclic, high-flow rate injection (up to 150 l/s) would enhance  
216 fracture propagation and performance compared to a constant and low-flow (50 l/s)  
217 stimulation. This major injection was performed at 4,365 m MD (MD is the measured depth,  
218 i.e. the length of the well path), which corresponds to -4,175 m below sea level. The injection  
219 took place over a period of 6 days, between August 9th and August 14th, 2007 (Fig. 4). The  
220 resulting fracture dimensions were estimated using predictive fracture modeling, which  
221 yielded a fracture half length of up to 300 m (Zimmermann et al., 2008). A total volume of  
222 13,170 m<sup>3</sup> of water was injected. The maximum injection bottom hole pressure, calculated  
223 from the monitored well head pressure, friction losses and flow rates during injection  
224 (Zimmermann et al., 2008; Legarth et al., 2005), was 86 MPa (43 MPa overpressure), whilst  
225 the first pressure drop indicating fracturing occurred at 63 MPa (20 MPa overpressure).

226 Subsequently, two stimulation treatments were carried out in the porous and permeable Lower  
227 Permian sandstone formations at depth intervals of 4,204 m to 4,208 m MD (-4,068 m to -  
228 4,070 m) and 4,122 m to 4,118 m MD (-4,009 m to -4,005m), respectively. Bridge plugs  
229 isolated the stimulated well sections hydraulically. 500 m<sup>3</sup> of a high viscous gel in  
230 conjunction with approximately 100 tons of high strength proppants (ceramic grains that keep  
231 the induced fracture open and transmissive) were injected in both sandstone treatments at  
232 maximum bottom hole pressures of about of 40 MPa and 30 MPa respectively (Zimmermann  
233 et al., 2008).

#### 234 *4.2 Seismic network*

235 The deployed seismic network consisted of seven three-component seismometers, including a  
236 downhole 3C seismometer (Geospace HS-1 geophone, natural frequency  $F_N=15$  Hz, sampling  
237 rate  $f_s=1000$  Hz) operated at 3,800 m depth in neighboring borehole GrSk3/90, 500 m from  
238 the injection point. The additional instruments were installed either at the surface or in  
239 shallow boreholes ~60 m deep (Marc Sercel L4-3C,  $F_N=1$  HZ,  $f_s=200$  Hz or SM6-B,

240  $F_N = 4.5$  Hz,  $f_S=200$  Hz, respectively), at about 3 km distance from the well head. The  
241 acquisition system worked in continuous mode and was used to capture the results from both  
242 the massive injections into the volcanic and sandstone deposits. Noise levels at the seismic  
243 sensors were sufficiently low prior to injection and during relatively low injection rates,  
244 whereas during high injection rates almost the entire frequency range was contaminated by  
245 the noise created by the water pumps. As a result, the recording conditions were significantly  
246 limited during periods of higher injection rates.

#### 247 *4.3 Seismicity*

248 A total of 80 microearthquakes with moment magnitudes  $M_w$  ranging from -1.0 to -1.8 were  
249 detected but only by the downhole geophone sensor. The high dominant frequency of  
250 recorded seismic events ( $>130$  Hz), large source-receiver distances, and strong damping in the  
251 sedimentary environment (for details see Kwiatek et al., 2008) prevented the remaining  
252 sensors from recording the seismicity.

253 The seismicity during stimulation of the volcanic rocks displays a different spatial behavior  
254 with progressing time. A relatively large number of seismic events, hardly detectable even by  
255 the downhole sensor, occurred at the beginning of the massive injection into the volcanic  
256 rocks (Fig. 3, cluster A). The events, scattered in time and space, could not be precisely  
257 located because of unfavorable signal-to-noise conditions. However, the calculated distances  
258 from S-P onset times for some of the recorded events suggest that they may have occurred in  
259 the vicinity of the injection area. Two prominent seismic sequences (clusters B, C in Fig. 3),  
260 tightly clustered in time, occurred towards the end of the first injection into the volcanic  
261 rocks. They consisted of more than 20 and 9 events, respectively, and were detected after the  
262 sudden drop in injection rate and well head pressure. Sequence C is composed of two spatial  
263 groups: one located close to events from cluster B (C1) and a second located very close to the  
264 injection point (C2). Almost no seismicity was recorded during stimulation of the sandstone.

265

266 Place here Fig. 3

267

268 *4.4 Location*

269 Only 29 events from the seismic sequences were located using the polarization analysis  
270 (Plesinger et al., 1986) to estimate the direction of incoming waves (backazimuth and angle of  
271 incidence) and S-P onset time differences as a measure of the distance. We assumed an  
272 isotropic velocity model with  $V_P$  and  $V_S$  velocities based on core sample measurements  
273 (Trautwein and Huenges, 2005). The located events are shown in Figs. 4 and 5A. The distance  
274 between the seismometer and seismic sources is well constrained because of sharp P and S  
275 onsets in the radiated seismic energy. The primary uncertainties in this data are the result of  
276 uncertainties in the velocity model. The maximum error for backazimuth angles ( $\pm 10^\circ$ ) is  
277 higher than that for the angle of incidence ( $\pm 5^\circ$ ) and corresponds to the maximum horizontal  
278 and vertical errors of  $\pm 125$  m and  $\pm 63$  m for clusters B and C, respectively.

279 Events from clusters B and C are interpreted to originate from a planar structure  
280 approximately 700 m away from the seismometer and ca. 250 m from the injection area (Fig.  
281 4). We fitted a plane surface to the location coordinates using the least-squares technique. The  
282 strike and dip of the resulting plane was found to be  $017^\circ$  ( $\pm 10^\circ$ ) and  $52^\circ$  SE ( $\pm 5^\circ$ ),  
283 respectively. Unfortunately, due to the limited number of stations we were not able to  
284 calculate fault plane solutions. However, we performed waveform correlation analysis and  
285 amplitude ratio comparisons to distinguish any consistencies between events that might  
286 suggest the similarity of their rupture process. It was found that almost all recorded  
287 waveforms from located events are very similar. Additionally, the spectral analysis performed  
288 on a subgroup of analyzed clusters made it possible to calculate the ratio between S and P  
289 energy released and other source characteristics, such as an approximation of static stress drop

290 (Kwiatek et al., 2008). The average  $E_S/E_P$  equalled  $\sim 30$ , which is typical for a shearing type of  
291 focal mechanism, as suggested by Gibowicz & Kijko (1994). The calculation of static stress  
292 drop resulted in values oscillating around 1 MPa, which is a typical value for mining-induced  
293 seismic events (see Kwiatek et al., 2008 for a detailed analysis).

294

295 Place Fig. 4 here

296

## 297 **5. Discussion**

298 The processing of the analyzed microseismic events indicates an induced fracture plane with a  
299 strike and dip of  $017^\circ/52^\circ$  SE. The fracture plane is consistent with an independent  
300 reinterpretation of geological data using 2D seismic profiles (Moeck et al., 2008). This  
301 investigation revealed a fault lying close to the interpreted plane (fault F28 in Fig. 5A) that  
302 strikes and dips similarly to the located planar cluster of seismicity. The recorded events  
303 possibly occurred along the existing fault plane. The fracture plane also agrees with the slip  
304 tendency plot of highly sheared fracture planes in the volcanic rock layer indicating a normal  
305 fault rather than a more steeply-dipping strike-slip fault (Fig. 5A). However, due to the  
306 limited number of sensors, we could not confirm by calculating the fault plane solutions  
307 whether the seismic events accommodated strike-slip or normal displacements. Nonetheless,  
308 we found recorded waveforms to be very similar, suggesting at least a common fault plane  
309 solution. Shearing rather than tension is indicated along the fracture plane by comparing the  
310 energy radiated from the P and S waves. This corresponds with a normal fault character,  
311 which is a shear plane with a normal slip vector (down the dip of the fault). Also, the static  
312 stress drop estimates are typical for a shearing type seismic event. Therefore, we suggest that

313 the water stimulation of the volcanic rocks induced a normal fault rather than an extensional  
314 fracture plane.

315 The moment magnitudes of  $-1.0$  to  $-1.8$  during the microseismic events were surprisingly low  
316 for the massive water stimulation (with maximum additional bottom hole pressure of 43 MPa)  
317 into the volcanic rocks and less than first expected. The analysis of the slip tendency stereo  
318 plot and the Mohr-Coulomb diagram (Figs. 2B and 2E), however, reveals very low slip  
319 tendency; thus any faults in the volcanic rock and in that stress field are not susceptible to  
320 slip. Additionally, 24.5 MPa fluid pressures are necessary to increase the slip tendency from  
321  $T_s \sim 0.5$  to  $T_s \sim 0.8$  along ideally oriented faults. The latter value,  $T_s \sim 0.8$ , is a reasonable value  
322 for the coefficient of static friction under the crustal conditions of the studied reservoir at  
323 4,200 m depth (Byerlee, 1978). It is therefore a limiting value where slip occurs, i.e. when the  
324 slip tendency equals or exceeds the frictional resistance of rock.

325 The calculated value of additional fluid pressure (24.5 MPa) needed to induce rock failure and  
326 weak micro-earthquakes is not exactly consistent with the recorded additional fluid pressure  
327 of 20 MPa (Zimmermann et al., 2008) during the stimulation. Figures 5B-C illustrate the  
328 ambient stress field and the modified stress conditions due to fluid stimulation in a Mohr  
329 circle diagram. The difference between the calculated and the measured additional fluid  
330 pressure to induce failure amounts to 4.5 MPa. Two reasons could account for this difference:  
331 (I) Error bounds on the input data need to be incorporated into the calculation. The UCS  $\sigma_c$  as  
332 determined by point-load tests has an error bound of 15 %, so the UCS is  $\sigma_c = 101.5 \pm 15$  MPa,  
333 with a resulting error in the effective minimum horizontal stress of  $\sigma_{3eff} = 9 \pm 3$  MPa. The  
334 increase of the fluid pressure is calculated from the measured well head pressure, friction  
335 losses, and flow rates during stimulation and also does not have a quantified error bound.  
336 Figure 5B shows that the localized failure is likely when the error bounds of parameters  $\sigma_c$   
337 and  $\sigma_{3eff}$  are taken into account. (II) As stated above, the failure criterion used is the Hoek-

338 Brown criterion, which uses specified strength parameters and regards the intactness (which  
339 refers to the degree of fracturing) in the rock mass. In this study, the intactness was roughly  
340 estimated using core samples. The intactness of rock, however, has a strong influence on the  
341 compressive strength because a higher degree of fracturing causes a significant reduction in  
342 rock strength (Fig. 5C). The moderate quality type ( $m=2.301$ ,  $s=0.00198$ , joint spacing 30-100  
343 cm, UCS reduction to 14 MPa) used initially might not be appropriate for the intactness of the  
344 volcanic rock interval at depth (see Fig. 2E). In a poor quality rock mass ( $m=1.0870$ ,  
345  $s=0.00019$ , joint spacing 3-50 cm, UCS reduction to 6.8 MPa), failure would occur under the  
346 given stimulation conditions and measured fluid increase (Fig. 5C). The poor quality could  
347 relate to the close proximity of the reactivated fault.

348 The very low seismicity interpreted from the seismic events mirrors the low stress reservoir  
349 condition of the volcanic rock. In contrast, the sandstones are less competent and highly  
350 stressed as indicated by the presence of fault planes with high slip tendencies. We assume that  
351 critically stressed faults in the sandstones can be easily reactivated by additional fluid pressure  
352 during stimulation. Low injection rates were used for the stimulation of the sandstones,  
353 resulting presumably in small fracturing and faulting events. Effectively, no significant  
354 seismicity was recorded during stimulation. Nevertheless, it is surprising that no  
355 microseismicity was recorded during stimulation of the sandstones. One reason could be the  
356 difference in the stimulation treatments. The volcanics were subjected to a large volume of  
357 injected water at high pressure, whereas the sandstones were treated with much smaller  
358 volume of gel plus proppants (ceramic grains) at lower pressures. Another reason could be a  
359 slightly different ambient stress field with a less critically stressed sandstone interval and  
360 higher critically stressed volcanic interval. However, the difference in the ambient stress  
361 states of both intervals remains and therefore it is more likely that the different stimulation  
362 treatments caused the difference in reactivation behavior. More comparisons of



363 microseismicity and slip tendencies are necessary to understand and characterize the  
364 relationships between the locations of the microseismic events, increased fluid pressures, and  
365 stress state of fault segments. Slip tendency analysis in combination with rock strength  
366 parameters is a useful method to quantify the reactivation potential of faults. However, results  
367 from this method are more reliable if the stress field is well defined, e.g. by minifrac or leak-  
368 off tests performed prior to massive stimulation treatments.

369

370 Place here Fig. 5

371

## 372 **6. Conclusions**

373 Geothermal and hydrocarbon reservoirs are often stimulated by hydraulically-induced  
374 fractures to increase the productivity. Some geothermal systems especially require massive  
375 stimulation treatments to induce high flow rates of the geothermal fluid necessary for  
376 economic utilization. These engineered reservoirs called Enhanced Geothermal Systems  
377 (EGS) need to be investigated from a structural geological perspective to understand the fault  
378 and fracture patterns, stress states and fault reactivation potential. Particularly, the assessment  
379 of the fault reactivation potential is a crucial aspect prior to stimulation to mitigate undesired  
380 high seismicity and to best optimize the stimulation design.

381 In our case study from the Northeast German Basin, we applied the slip tendency method to  
382 characterize fault slip likelihood and slip directions in a geothermal reservoir in which a  
383 transitional stress regime is associated with both normal and strike-slip faulting. Results from  
384 the slip tendency analysis combined with geomechanical parameters show that faults in the  
385 volcanic succession of the reservoir have a low tendency to slip indicating that high additional

386 fluid pressure is needed to reactivate potential strike-slip and/or normal faults. A massive  
387 water stimulation of the volcanic rocks over six days ended in a surprisingly low level of  
388 seismicity along a presumed normal fault, although the in situ fluid pressure was increased  
389 from 43 to 86 MPa through water injection in the well. First failure occurred with 20 MPa  
390 additional fluid pressure, whereas a required 24.5 MPa fluid overpressure was calculated  
391 using slip tendency for first failure. Although this difference may be explained by error  
392 bounds it could also indicate a high degree of fracturing in the volcanic rocks located near to  
393 the reactivated fault. The very low magnitude seismicity recorded during stimulation,  
394 however, is consistent with the results from slip tendency analysis. This study demonstrates  
395 that the slip tendency analysis, originally applied for earthquake assessment, provides an  
396 appropriate method to investigate, characterize, and understand the faulting behavior in  
397 engineered sub-surface reservoirs, such as Enhanced Geothermal Systems.

398

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403 this manuscript. The slip tendency analysis was carried out with the software 3DStress. The  
404 3D geological model was developed with earthVision (DGI).

405

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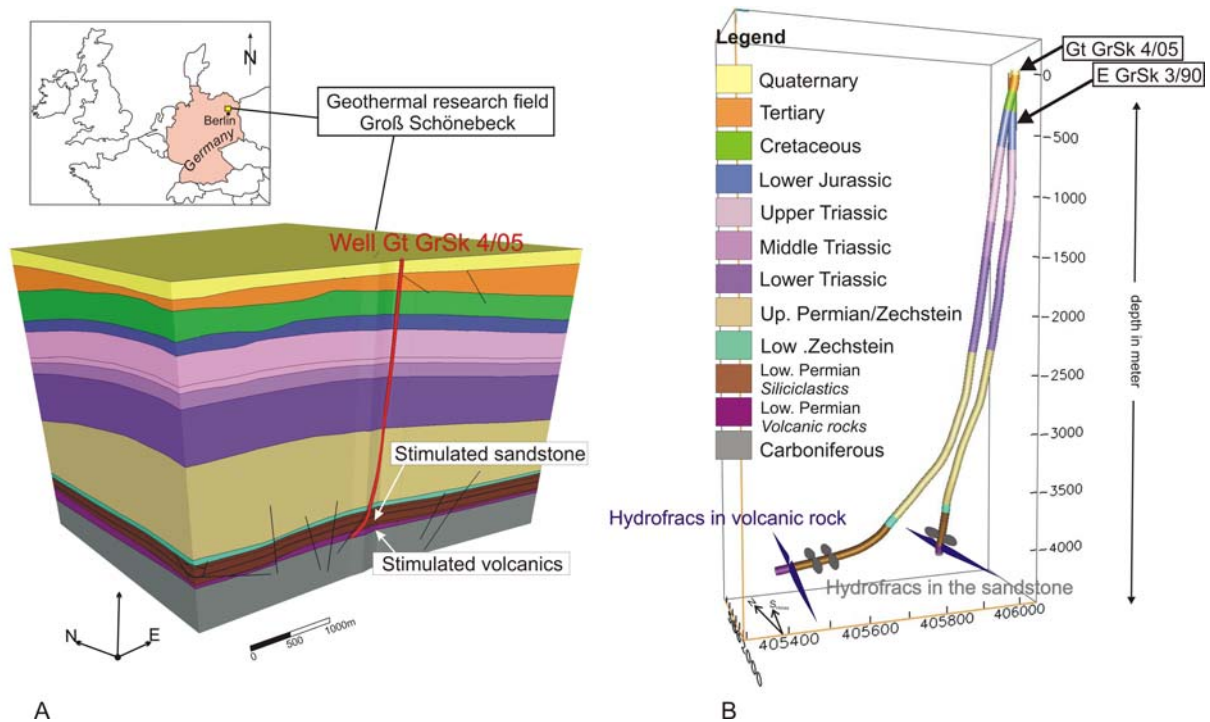
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- 467

## 468 Figure Captions



469

A

B

470 **Fig. 1.** (A) 3D geological model of the geothermal research field at Groß Schönebeck. The  
 471 geothermal reservoir, consisting of siliciclastic and volcanic rocks, lies at 4,000-4,250 m  
 472 depth. The red tube represents the hydraulically stimulated well. (B) Well doublet system with  
 473 schematic illustration of hydraulically-induced fractures oriented along the maximum  
 474 horizontal stress.

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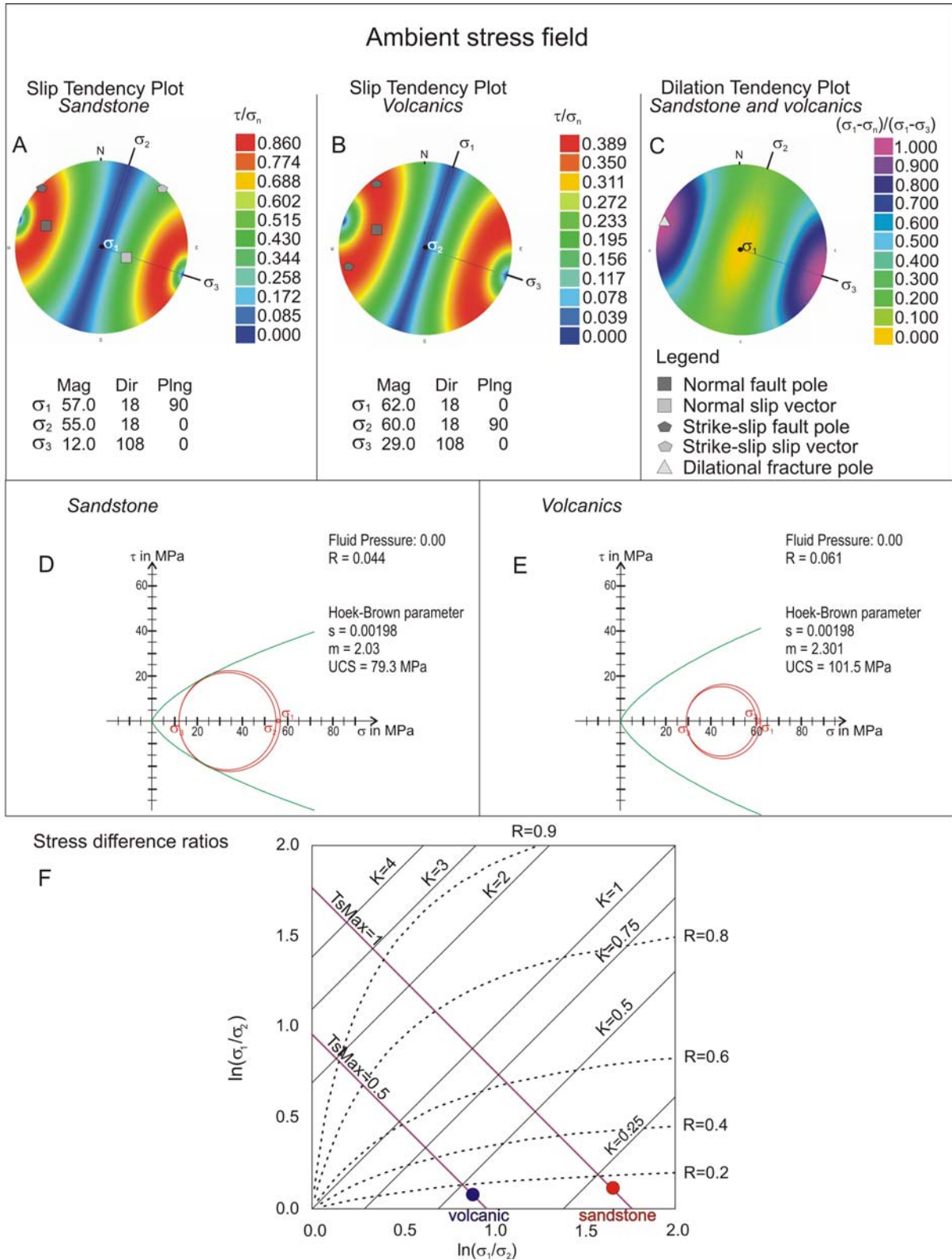
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482 **Fig. 2.** (A) Slip tendency stereo plot of Lower Permian sandstones. (B) Slip tendency stereo

483 plot of Lower Permian volcanic rocks. The plots show that both strike-slip and normal

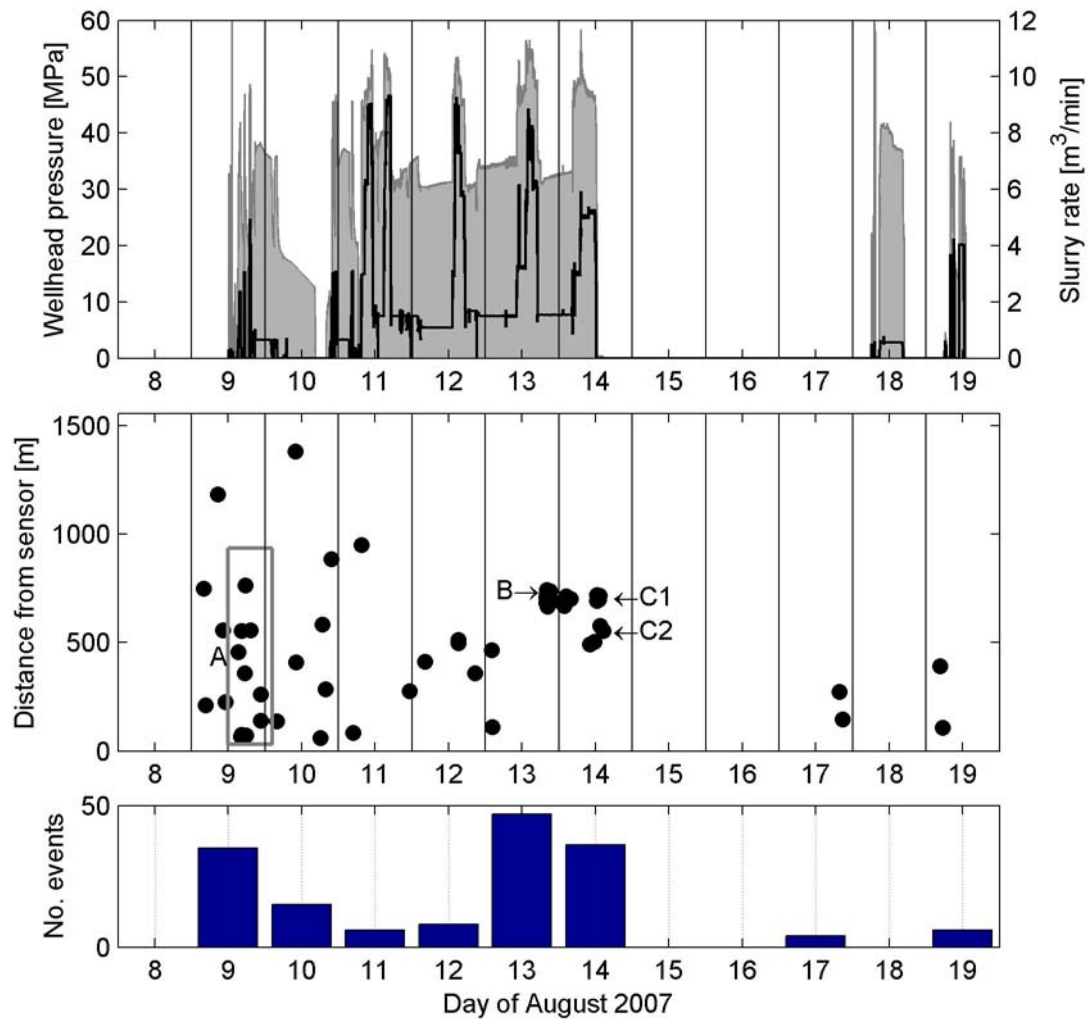
484 faulting could occur contemporaneously in the same stress field. (C) Dilation tendency plot of

485 both sandstone and volcanic rocks. Dilational faults would be subvertical with NNE strike.  
486 Tensional failure, however, is unlikely in the reservoir depth (4.0-4.2 km) due to high  
487 differential stresses. Shear failure is more reasonable as shown in the Mohr diagrams. (D)  
488 Mohr circle diagram illustrating stress conditions in the sandstone. (E) Mohr circle diagram  
489 illustrating stress conditions in the volcanics. (F) Stress difference ratio graph.  $K =$   
490  $(\sigma_1/\sigma_2)/(\sigma_2/\sigma_3)$  and  $R = (\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)/(\sigma_1 - \sigma_3)$  are stress difference ratios,  $T_{\text{max}}$  is the maximum slip  
491 tendency possible in the Earth's crust. The 0.5 and 1.0 contours of  $T_{\text{max}}$  envelop the most  
492 likely conditions of stress in the crust (Byerlee, 1978). The volcanic rocks are in the lower  
493 portion, the sandstone layers in the upper portion of this envelope.

494

495





496

497 **Fig. 3.** Top panel: Well-head pressure (shaded area) and injection rate (black line) during the

498 major (Aug 9-14) and minor (Aug 18-19) injection experiments carried out in the volcanic

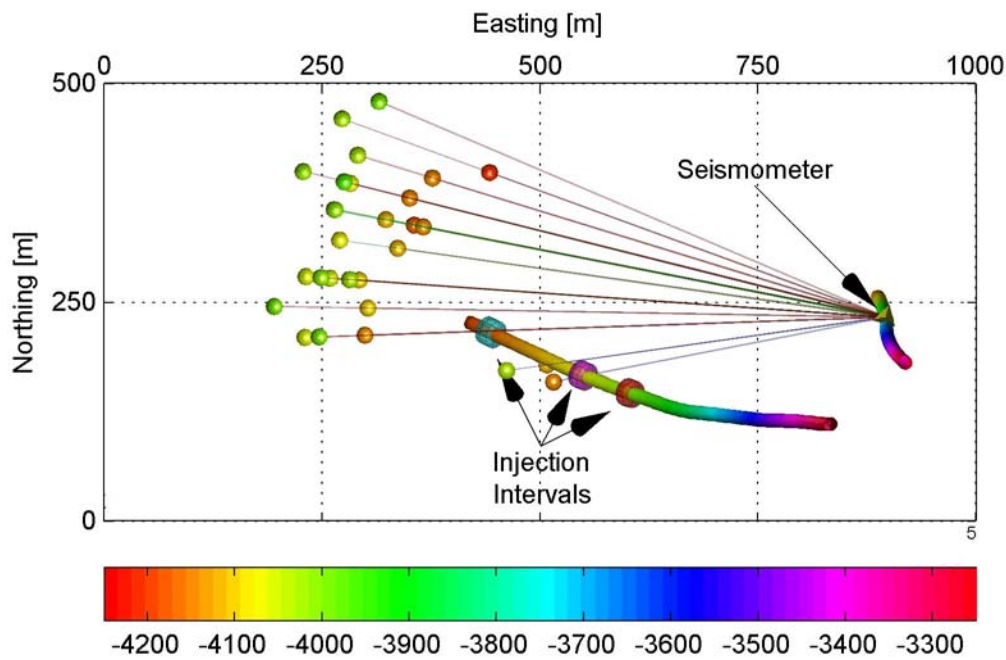
499 rocks and sandstones, respectively. Central panel: Distances between sensor and seismic

500 events calculated from S-P times. The arrows and rectangle mark the A, B and C clusters.

501 Bottom panel: Daily rate of detected seismic events. The drop in the number of seismic events

502 between 10th and 12th of August may be partially related to the strong noise coming from

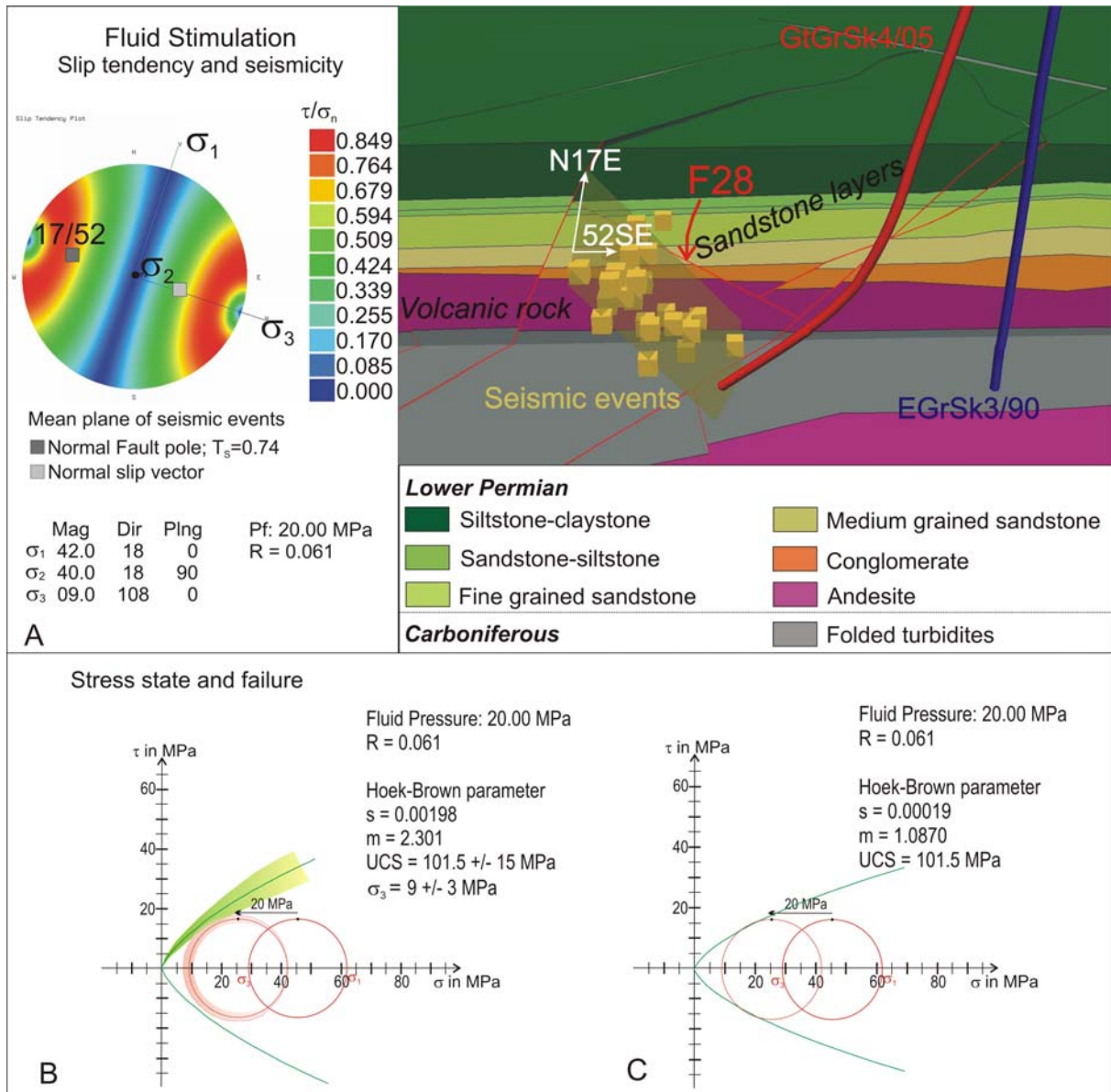
503 water pumps.



504

505 **Fig. 4.** Map view of the distribution of induced seismic events at the Groß Schönebeck  
 506 geothermal site as determined from three-component recordings of the deep borehole  
 507 seismometer. Color reflects the hypocentral depth of events plotted in accordance with the  
 508 borehole trajectory for comparison. Semi-transparent fans denote maximum horizontal error  
 509 as discussed in the text. The injection intervals in the volcanics (cyan ring) and sandstones  
 510 (red, magenta rings) are also shown.

511



512

513 **Fig. 5.** (A) The slip tendency for the mean plane of the recorded seismic events (left), the  
 514 spatial distribution of recorded seismicity (yellow boxes) and the least-square fitted plane  
 515 (transparent yellow) (right). The distribution of seismicity fits the orientation of the F28 fault  
 516 plane. (B) and (C) Fault reactivation due to fluid pressure increase during stimulation  
 517 explained by Mohr circle diagrams. (B) Failure in a relatively intact rock mass (joint spacing  
 518 30-100cm) with the error bounds of UCS  $\sigma_c$  and  $\sigma_{3eff}$ . The hatched field represents the failure  
 519 zone. (C) Failure in a poorly intact rock (joint spacing 3-50 cm). The higher degree of

520 fracturing could be explained by the proximity of a fault (fault F28) or by a generally higher  
 521 degree of fracturing in the volcanics compared with the sandstone.

522 Table

523 **Table 1**

524 Relationship between rock mass quality and material constants in the updated Hoek-Brown  
 525 failure criterion (From Hoek and Brown, 1988), and summary of in situ stress field  
 526 characteristics

527

<p><b>Empirical failure criterion</b></p> $\sigma_1 = \sigma_3 + (m\sigma_c\sigma_3 + s\sigma_c^2)^{1/2}$ <p><math>\sigma_1</math> = major principle effective stress  <math>\sigma_3</math> = minor principle effective stress  <math>\sigma_c</math> = uniaxial compressive strength of intact rock            m and s = empirical constants</p>	<p>ARENACEOUS ROCKS WITH STRONG CRYSTALS AND POORLY DEVELOPED CLEAVAGE</p> <p>sandstone</p>	<p>FINE GRAINED POLYMINERALLIC IGNEOUS CRYSTALLINE ROCKS</p> <p>andesite</p>
<p>FAIR QUALITY ROCK MASS</p> <p>Several sets of moderately weathered/alterated joints spaced at 0.3 to 1m</p>	<p>m s <math>\sigma_c</math></p> <p>2.030 0.00198 79.3 MPa</p>	<p>2.301 0.00198 101.5 MPa</p>
<p>IN SITU STRESS FIELD</p> <p><math>S_V</math> (<math>S_{Veff}</math>)  <math>S_{Hmax}</math> (<math>S_{Hmaxeff}</math>)  <math>S_{hmin}</math> (<math>S_{hmineff}</math>)</p>	<p>100 (57) MPa 98 (55) MPa 55 (12) MPa</p>	<p>103 (60) MPa 105 (62) MPa 72 (29) MPa</p>
<p>STRESS ORIENTATION</p> <p><math>S_{Hmax}</math>  <math>S_{hmin}</math></p>	<p><math>18.5^\circ \pm 3.7^\circ</math>  <math>108.5^\circ \pm 3.7^\circ</math></p>	

528