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Reply to comment by Lacazette and Geiser (2013)

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Reply: Davies et al. (2012), Hydraulic fractures: how far can they go?

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16 **Summary**

17

18 Davies et al. (2012) measured the heights of stimulated and natural hydraulic fractures caused by
19 high fluid pressure from eight sedimentary successions from around the world. They found the
20 tallest natural hydraulic fractures to be ~ 1133 m in height and the tallest upward propagating
21 stimulated hydraulic fractures, generated by fracking operations for gas and oil exploitation to be
22 588 m in height. This provided a rationale for an initial, safe separation distance of 600 m between
23 aquifers and the deeper shale gas and oil reservoirs where hydraulic fractures are being stimulated.
24 Three months after the paper went online, Geiser et al. (2012) published a new method,
25 tomographic fracture imaging, which potentially detects the movement of a fluid pressure wave in
26 pre-existing natural fracture systems located close to where stimulated hydraulic fractures are
27 forming. These fracture systems are not necessarily natural hydraulic fractures, but could be joints
28 and faults formed due to folding or faulting. They found the maximum vertical extent of these to be
29 ~ 1000 m. The new results (Geiser et al., 2012) highlight the importance of understanding the
30 vertical extent of pre-existing fracture systems and the location of natural barriers to fracture
31 propagation where fracking operations are to take place.

32

33 **The hydraulic fracturing controversy**

34

35 Hydraulic fractures are stimulated to increase the rate of fluid flow from low permeability oil and gas
36 reservoirs (e.g. shale). The aim of Davies et al. (2012) was to test the hypothesis that hydraulic
37 fracturing has caused methane contamination of drinking water in the USA and to provide an
38 evidence base for the safe vertical separation distance between shale reservoirs and aquifers. The
39 contamination hypothesis was explicit in the title of the Osborn et al. (2011) paper 'Methane
40 contamination of drinking water accompanying gas-well drilling and hydraulic fracturing' and
41 popularised by the 2010 film '*Gaslands*'.

42

43 The approach adopted by Davies et al. (2012) was entirely empirical and based upon measuring the
44 heights of natural and stimulated hydraulic fractures. We did not consider the vertical extent of
45 fractures unrelated to pore pressure caused by tectonic stresses exceed the tensile strength of the
46 rock. Also for the stimulated hydraulic fractures we relied upon the microseismicity measurements
47 of Fisher and Warpinski (2011). From this database of thousands of the tallest hydraulic fracture
48 systems, we derived probability of exceedance plots for hydraulic fracture heights. These provide a
49 range of probabilities of natural and stimulated hydraulic fractures extending vertically beyond

50 specific distances. The results suggested that no stimulated hydraulic fractures heights measured
51 using microseismicity and published by Fisher and Warpinski (2011) propagated upwards past 588 m
52 in height and the chances of an artificially stimulated hydraulic fracture propagating vertically past
53 350 m was only 1%.

54

55 **Is a 600 m vertical separation distance safe?**

56

57 Davies et al. (2012) was purely statistical and therefore blind to factors such as local geology and
58 operational factors such as the volume of fracturing fluid used which would need to be considered
59 for specific sites. If the geology of a region where hydraulic fracturing is carried out is characterised
60 by evidence for vertically extensive fluid flow driven by overpressure (e.g. mud volcanoes which can
61 extend vertically for $\gg 1$ km), then this introduces a significant risk that there are open pathways for
62 fluid flow. But there may also be natural barriers to fracture propagation, known as ‘frack barriers’,
63 which could limit the extent of fractures so that the tallest fractures are $\ll 600$ m.

64

65 Lacazette and Geiser (2013) in their comment propose that fluid pressure pulses triggered by
66 hydraulic fracturing move vertical distances of ~ 1 km through pre-existing natural fracture systems,
67 hundreds of metres further than the maximum propagation distance for stimulated hydraulic
68 fractures (Fisher and Warpinski, 2011; Davies et al., 2012). This is detected using a new tomographic
69 fracture imaging method (Geiser et al., 2012). The work of Davies et al. (2012) remains valid as a
70 statistical analysis of stimulated hydraulic fracture height measurements derived using
71 microseismicity. But this avoids the important question; does the new tomographic fracture imaging
72 method reveal pre-existing fractures, not necessarily generated natural hydraulic fracturing, that
73 allow for a far more vertically extensive transmission of fracking or pore fluid? If so what are the
74 implications?

75

76 In the form the method is presented by Geiser et al. (2012), there are three shortcomings. The new
77 method is a passive seismic monitoring technique which may detect energy released as a result of
78 the transmission of fluid pressure waves. The method assumes that energy emission is linearly
79 related to the sum of the area of failure over time and that regions of highest crack density have the
80 highest semblance value. They also state that they use a summation method to capture a greater
81 fraction of the acoustic energy generated by fracturing, allowing imaging of very weak activity. But
82 our first concern is that perhaps because of proprietorial reasons, the exact workflow they use to
83 detect this pressure wave is not described in detail.

84

1 85 Secondly, they are unclear on the exact physical process that is potentially being detecting. Geiser et
2
3 86 al. (2012) hypothesize that it may be some sort of the Biot 'slow wave' (Biot, 1962). Lacazette and
4
5 87 Geiser (2013) propose that two processes are potentially operating, the transmission of a fluid
6
7 88 pressure pulse in the fracture due to its direct connection with fracking, and coupling of stress in the
8
9 89 rock matrix by in-situ fluid. Thirdly, although they document some validation of their method, (e.g.
10
11 90 using boreholes which detect fractures located in similar positions to those imaged), more
12
13 91 validations needs to be published before the method is fully validated.

14 92

15
16 93 Despite these issues, the method and results are potentially a very significant addition to existing
17
18 94 seismic approaches used to monitor fracking operations. If the method performs well it will extend
19
20 95 the ability of passive seismic monitoring to map fractures activated over time-scales longer than the
21
22 96 nucleation time of stimulated hydraulic fractures. It may dramatically improve our understanding of
23
24 97 the extent of pre-existing fracture systems and ultimately verify whether fractures allow fluid
25
26 98 transmission to shallower levels than previously thought possible, over human time-scales.

27 99

28 100 **Implications for the protection of water supplies**

29
30 101

31
32 102 It long been know that fracture systems of 1000 m extent occur in sedimentary rocks (Løseth et al
33
34 103 2001) and Davies et al (2012) showed that three-dimensional seismic data can image natural
35
36 104 hydraulic fractures can extend this far. If we assume fractures (hydraulic or otherwise) are also
37
38 105 being imaged by the tomographic fracture imaging approach then the key question is whether they
39
40 106 remain open after the fracking operations to enable the ascent of buoyant fluid. Confining stresses
41
42 107 would cause fractures to close-up when pumping stops and the pressure in the fluid drops, but we
43
44 108 cannot be confident that there are no permeable routes within the pre-existing fracture systems.
45
46 109 Also after thousands of fracking operations, there are no proven examples of contamination of
47
48 110 drinking water aquifers due to hydraulic fracturing. But we take the opportunity to incorporate the
49
50 111 new measurements of Geiser et al. (2012) in a new summary diagram of the heights of fractures
51
52 112 potentially stimulated by hydraulic fracturing (Fig. 1). We also provide the maximum heights for a
53
54 113 range of natural vertical fluid flow pathways, which include hydraulic fractures and other routes,
55
56 114 such as joints and faults (Fig. 2).

57 115

116 The new work of Geiser et al. (2012) highlighted in the Lacazette and Geiser (2013) comment shows
117 that consideration of local geology and specifically through-going fracture systems and fracture
118 barriers are important parts of risk assessments prior to fracking operations.

119

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158

159 Figure 1 Approximate maximum vertical extent of fluid transmission in natural fracture systems.

160 (a) fractures, faults and hydraulic fractures normally located within the crest of anticlines can allow

161 fluid flow in mud volcano systems (Kopf et al., 2003; Davies and Stewart 2005; Stewart and Davies,

162 2006). Fluid flow may be in stages to intermediate fluid reservoirs and the fluid has been traced to

163 reservoirs > 2 km in depth (Kopf et al., 2003); (b) injectites are thought to extend a maximum of up

164 to ~ 1 km, form due to hydraulic fracturing the remobilisation of sand, driven by overpressure

165 (Hurst et al., 2011); (c) chimneys or pipes are probably clusters of hydraulic fractures imaged with

166 seismic reflection data (Løseth, 2001; Hustoft et al., 2010; Moss and Cartwright 2010).

167

168 Figure 2 Potential maximum vertical extent of fluid transmission and fluid pressure pulse

169 transmission related to fracking operations. (a) and (b) fluid pressure pulses may be transmitted

170 through pre-existing fracture systems of 1 km in vertical extent (Geiser et al., 2012); (c) stimulated

171 hydraulic fractures may extend for ~ 600 m vertically (Fisher and Warpinski 2011; Davies et al.,

172 2012).

173

Figure
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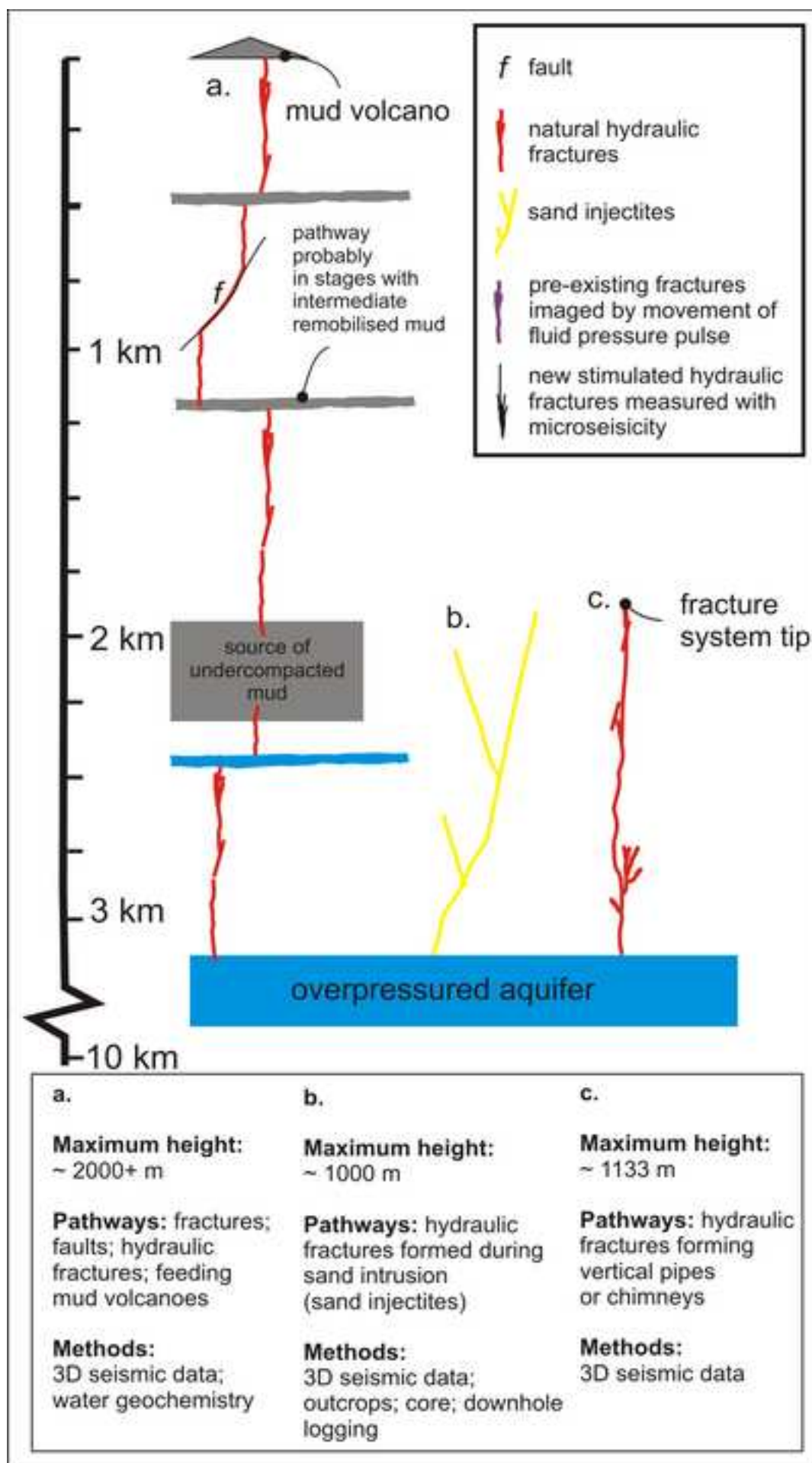


Figure
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