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LOW-TEMPERATURE GEOTHERMAL RESOURCES IN THE ACOMA BASIN AND LUCERO UPLIFT, EASTERN CIBOLA AND WESTERN VALENCIA COUNTIES, NEW MEXICO

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ABSTRACT—Although the geochemistry of the mineralized waters from springs on the eastern flank of the Lucero uplift has been the subject of several geothermal investigations, measured temperatures in oil and water wells in the uplift and adjacent Acoma basin have received little attention. Bottom hole temperature (BHT) measurements in oil wells and discharge temperatures from water wells reveal three structural zones that warrant further investigation. BHTs in two oil wells on the west flank of the Lucero uplift in the Correo fault zone have elevated temperatures of 65 to 71°C at a depth of ca. 1100 m. These wells are located ca. 7 km northeast of the youthful (>192 ka) Lucero volcanic field. Two distinct bands of water wells located near the Hickman and Red Lake fault zones on margins of the Acoma basin that tap the San Andres-Glorieta aquifer have elevated discharge temperatures of 34 to 52°C (depths 615 to 884 m). We also apply a novel analysis of conservative ion (boron and lithium) data using reverse particle-tracking (upwinding) to locate the source of high concentration plumes along the east side of the Lucero uplift and within the Acoma basin. Wells with highest temperatures and conservative ion concentrations are found on the down gradient end of a gravity driven flow system. The <80°C geothermal resource in this area could be used for greenhouses and similar low-temperature applications.

INTRODUCTION

The Acoma basin (or sag/embayment) in central New Mexico is a small Laramide basin that formed between the Laramide highlands of the Zuni Mountains to the northwest and the Lucero uplift to the east (Fig. 1). This basin lies in the transition between the Colorado Plateau and the Rio Grande rift. Volcanic rocks, dikes, sills, and plugs derived from the middle Cenozoic Mogollon-Datil volcanic field lap across or intrude the southern margin of the basin. Several Neogene basaltic centers that are considered to be part of the Jemez lineament, including Cebolleta Mesa (3.5 to 4.0 Ma; Laughlin et al., 1993), Mesa del Oro (3.4 to 1.1 Ma; Baldrige et al., 1987), and Lucero (8.3 to 0.192 Ma, Baldrige et al., 1987; Channer et al., 2015; and Matthew Zimmerer, personal communication, 2016), are located within the basin (Fig. 1). The Jemez lineament is a NE-trending zone of <10 Ma maﬁc to silicic volcanism that transects the southeastern margin of the Colorado Plateau, the central Rio Grande rift, and the southern High Plains associated with low mantle P-wave velocities (Schmandt and Humphreys, 2010). The Zuni-Bandera volcanic ﬁeld lies on the west side of the Acoma basin and along the Jemez lineament. This ﬁeld includes the 3.9±1.2 ka McCartys ﬂow, which is the youngest known eruption in New Mexico (Dunbar and Phillips, 2004). Seven ﬂows are <50 ka based on 36Cl exposure and other dating techniques (Laughlin et al., 1993; Dunbar and Phillips, 2004). Overall, the Zuni-Bandera is one of the youngest volcanic ﬁelds in the state.

A large-volume travertine deposit that formed along a NNE-striking fault overlies the Mesa del Oro lavas (Prievisch et al., 2014). A second large-volume travertine, Mesa Aparejo on the eastern margin of the Lucero uplift, is associated with Quaternary motion along a reactivated Laramide reverse fault, the Comanche fault. The large volumes of both travertine deposits have been attributed to CO2 derived from deep sources in the mantle (Prievisch et al., 2014) interacting with ﬂuids in equilibrium with calcium- and magnesium-bearing carbonates (Goff et al., 1983). Helium (Rc/Ra) ratios of 0.6 measured in the travertine-depositing Arroyo Comanche spring also indicate a mantle contribution (Williams et al., 2013). The travertine deposits were formed episodically between 300 to 250 ka and 760 to 560 ka, and some are as old as >1.5 Ma (Prievisch et al., 2014). The 760-560 Ma pulse is coincident with a 550-650 ka episode of volcanism in the Lucero volcanic field (Zimmerer, personal communication, 2016). The spring vents were reactivated several times when hydraulic head was high, injecting groundwater into fractures in existing travertine mounds. Importantly, the 87Sr/86Sr ratios measured in the Mesa del Oro travertine are 0.7187 and 0.7203 measured in the travertine-depositing Arroyo Comanche spring also indicate a mantle contribution (Williams et al., 2013). The travertine deposits were formed episodically between 300 to 250 ka and 760 to 560 ka, and some are as old as >1.5 Ma (Prievisch et al., 2014). The 760-560 Ma pulse is coincident with a 550-650 ka episode of volcanism in the Lucero volcanic field (Zimmerer, personal communication, 2016). The spring vents were reactivated several times when hydraulic head was high, injecting groundwater into fractures in existing travertine mounds. Importantly, the 87Sr/86Sr ratios measured in the Mesa del Oro travertine are 0.7092 to 0.7104, indicating surface recharge (Prievisch et al., 2014). In contrast, the 87Sr/86Sr ratios of 0.7187 and 0.7203 measured in the travertines at Mesa Aparejo suggest circulation of groundwater in Proterozoic basement (Prievisch et al., 2014).

Geothermal systems in New Mexico, with the exception of the Valles caldera, are gravity-driven systems (Smith and Chapman, 1983) with recharge in the highlands and groundwater discharge at low elevation from hydrogeologic windows. A hydrogeologic window is an area where regional aquitards have been erosionaly removed or are breached by permeable intrusions (fractured) or fault zones (Witcher, 1988). These gravity-driven systems pick up heat and chemical constituents along their flow paths within fractured reservoirs at depth. Geothermal res-
reservoirs could include fractured Paleozoic sandstone and limestone units or fractured crystalline basement rocks. The fluids are heated by the elevated heat flow within the thinned crust of the Rio Grande rift (71 to 99 mW/m²; Reiter et al., 1986, 2010). Here we test the idea that the Laramide Zuni uplift, the Acoma basin, and hydrogeologic windows in the Lucero uplift (Figs. 1-2) form the recharge area, flow path, and discharge zone, respectively, for the regional aquifer systems (Titus, 1963; Frenzel, 1992; Baldwin and Anderholm, 1992).

The Acoma basin region is an intriguing low-temperature geothermal prospect because of the youthful structure and volcanism, travertine deposition by high volume springs in the recent past, more modest travertine deposition now, and the presence of potential hydrogeologic windows. Indeed, numerous researchers have examined the geothermal possibilities in the Lucero uplift/Acoma basin region because of the interesting chemistry of waters from springs and wells in this area and the presence of the travertine (e.g., Titus, 1963; Callender and Zilinski, 1976; Trainer and Lyford, 1979; Goff et al., 1983). Goff et al. (1983) analyzed major, trace, and stable isotope data from springs and wells on the eastern flank of the basin and from the east side of the Lucero uplift.

Two types of waters are present in this area (Trainer and Lyford, 1979; Goff et al., 1983): relatively saline fluids with high chloride and sulfate concentrations emerge from the eastern faulted margin of the Lucero uplift, and dilute fluids with low chloride and high sulfate contents are located on the eastern margin of the Acoma basin. Goff et al. (1983, table 4) applied a mineral equilibrium code (SOLMNEQ) to evaluate the mineral chemistry of the two water types and concluded that the waters were in equilibrium with carbonate and evaporite minerals found in local Colorado Plateau rocks. Based on the water geochemistry, Goff et al. (1983) concluded that a deep, hot (>200°C) geothermal system is not evident beneath the Lucero uplift because the fluids are exceptionally high in Ca + Mg (≤1000 mg/l) and low in SiO₂ (≤23 mg/l). In contrast, the dilute waters of the eastern Acoma basin are from an artesian aquifer and may support low-temperature (<80°C) heating applications (e.g., greenhouses).

We recently compiled temperature, water chemistry, geological, and geophysical data for southwestern New Mexico, including Cibola and Valencia counties, and analyzed the data in ArcGIS to look for possible blind geothermal systems (Beilicki et al., 2014 and references therein). Blind systems have no obvious hot springs, travertine, or sinter at the surface. The ArcGIS layers include structural information that provides indications of permeability and fluid volumes (e.g., mapped faults, gravity and magnetic data, earthquake locations) and thermal data that constrain the heat content of a resource (e.g., heat flow, bottom-hole temperature data, groundwater discharge temperature). Other layers include conservative ion concentrations (lithium and boron) and chalcedony geothermometry.

We present a detailed analysis of the thermal and conservative ion data in this paper.
We have developed a unique analysis of conservative ion data using reverse particle-tracking (upwinding) to locate the source of geothermal plumes (Person et al., 2015). We have learned that upwinding is highly dependent on our understanding of the configuration of the water table and on the spatial distribution of the sampled wells (Person et al., 2015), but, with care, this method can be widely applied in geothermal exploration to narrow the search for prospective areas. We test the applicability of this technique in the Lucero uplift and the Acoma basin as part of this investigation.

**GEOLOGIC SETTING**

**Hydrogeologic Units**

Proterozoic basement rocks are exposed in the core of the Zuni Mountains and in one small area on the east side of the Lucero uplift. Approximately 4000 m of sedimentary rocks that range in age from Pennsylvania to Pleistocene are exposed in the Lucero uplift (Zeigler and Lucas, 2005). Three main aquifers have been recognized in this region: (1) Pennsylvania limestone and sandstone, (2) the Permian upper Abo and lower Yeso formations, and (3) the Permian San Andres Limestone and Glorieta Sandstone (Titus, 1963; Baldwin and Anderholm, 1992). The aquifers are confined by two regional aquitards, the Permian lower Abo Formation, and the Triassic Chinle Group (Titus, 1963).

The aquifer in the Pennsylvania section includes the Sandia, Gray Mesa, and Atrasado formations (Titus, 1963). The Sandia Formation (100-150 m thick) is composed of sandstone and conglomerate intercalated with shale. The Gray Mesa Formation (388 m thick) is limestone with interbedded shale, minor sandstone, and conglomerate, and the overlying Atrasado Formation (112 m thick) is primarily shale with limestone and minor sandstone and conglomerate (Lucas et al., 2004a). The confined aquifer in fractured Pennsylvania limestone and sandstone is one source of the mineralized springs on the east side of the Lucero uplift. The transitional Red Tanks Member of the Bursum Formation (100 m thick) is predominately shale and mudstone that thickens toward the south (Lucas et al., 2004a); this unit is generally an aquitard that yields only small volumes of water from intercalated sandstone and conglomerate lenses (Titus, 1963).

The total thickness of the Permian section is 660 m and includes, from oldest to youngest, the Abo Formation, Yeso Formation, Glorieta Sandstone, and San Andres Limestone (Zeigler and Lucas, 2005). The fluvial Abo Formation (150 m thick) has a lower mudstone-dominated aquitard and an upper sandstone-dominated aquifer. The Yeso Formation (348 m thick) is composed of basal eolian sandstone that pinches out to the south (Jicha, 1953) overlain by sandstone, siltstone and gypsum with minor dolomite, limestone, and shale deposited in tidal flat, eolian, and shallow marine environments. The sandstones of the upper Abo Formation and the lower Yeso Formation are
considered to be a single hydrostratigraphic unit (Titus, 1963). This aquifer is separated from the Pennsylvanian aquifer by the lower Abo Formation aquitard and from the overlying aquifer by the evaporite facies of the upper Yeso Formation.

The main aquifer in this region is the Permian San Andres Limestone and the underlying Glorieta Sandstone, which both are below a significant unconformity that formed prior to the deposition of the Triassic Moenkopi Formation and Chinle Group (Frenzel, 1992; Baldwin and Anderholm, 1992). The Glorieta Sandstone (53 m thick) is quartz sandstone deposited in nearshore and eolian environments. The San Andres Limestone (109 m thick) has a lower gypsum-dominated unit with lesser amounts of limestone, sandstone, and shale, and an upper limestone unit. The San Andres was deposited in shallow marine, shoreline, and saline environments. A thin sandstone up to 12 m thick in middle of San Andres interval may be equivalent to the Hondo sandstone (Lucas et al., 2004a; Zeigler and Lucas, 2005). The San Andres Limestone is karstic in this area because of the long pre-Moenkopi Formation exposure of the unit at the surface and the presence of soluble gypsum in the section. The wells penetrating this aquifer are often artesian with high flow rates (Goff et al., 1983; Baldwin and Anderholm, 1992).

The Triassic Moenkopi Formation (20 to 70 m thick) is mainly sandstone and mudstone (Lucas et al., 2004b). Regionally, the basal unit of the Chinle Group (up to 17 m thick) is sandstone and conglomerate with abundant limestone clasts. The Chinle Group (315 m thick) above the basal unit is mainly siltstone and mudstone, except for the medial Sonsela Member, which is a 15-m thick sandstone and conglomerate interval. The mudstones of the Chinle Group form an important aquitard.

The sub-Cretaceous (sub-Dakota Sandstone) unconformity cuts out north-dipping Jurassic rocks across the southern half of the area; the Cretaceous section rests directly on Triassic rock south of Mesa del Oro. The Jurassic Todilto/Summerville/Bluff/Zuni rock units and Morrison Formation are preserved beneath the sub-Cretaceous unconformity in the northern part of the area. The Todilto Formation consists of 3 m of fine-grained limestone that was deposited in a saline lake. Interbedded sandstone, siltstone, and shale belonging to the Summerville Formation (15 m thick) were deposited in a shallow-water coastal plain. The Bluff Sandstone (60 m thick) consists of well-cemented sandstone deposited as sand dunes. The overlying Recapture Member consists of 30 m of siltstone interbedded with sandstone deposited in both fluvial and eolian environments. The overlying Acoma Tongue of the Zuni Sandstone is cross-bedded, eolian sandstone (Lucas et al., 2003). The fluvial Morrison Formation includes a lower unit of sandstone with thin lenses of siltstone and shale, and an upper unit of shale, siltstone, and sandstone. The sandstones in this part of the section are aquifers.

The Dakota Sandstone interval includes complexly intercalated tongues of both sandstone and Mancos Shale deposited in a marginal marine environment. Dakota Sandstone beds can be good aquifers where fractured. The interval between the Dakota Sandstone and the Gallup Sandstone is dominated by Mancos Shale and minor limestone, and thus is an aquitard. Fractured igneous dikes and plugs cutting across aquitards like the Abo, Chinle, and Mancos are potential hydrogeologic windows.

**Structures**

The Lucero uplift is a north-plunging, Laramide-age monocline with beds dipping shallowly (5-10°) to the west on the west limb and dipping steeply (70-85°) to the east on the east limb (Ricketts and Karlstrom, 2014). The monocline is cut by the Comanche fault, a Laramide reverse fault that dips steeply to the west (Callender and Zilinski, 1976). This fault has been reactivated as a normal fault during Rio Grande rift extension. The east-dipping Santa Fe fault, which places Paleozoic and Mesozoic sedimentary rocks against Santa Fe Group basin-fill deposits, cuts the east side of the monocline. This combination of Laramide reverse faulting and Rio Grande rift normal faulting has created possible hydrogeologic windows, bringing both the Pennsylvanian aquifer and the Proterozoic basement to or near the surface on the eastern side of the Lucero uplift (Figs. 1-2).

The Correo fault zone is a N-striking system of closely spaced faults that form a faulted horst block on the west side of the Lucero monocline (Kelley and Wood, 1946). This fault zone is located just east of the Lucero volcanic field and cuts the 7.2±0.6 Ma basalts flows on Mesa Gallina (Baldrige et al., 1987). The N-striking, down-to-the-east Red Lake Fault and Hickman fault zones cut the eastern and the western margins of the Acoma basin, respectively (Fig. 1). Chamberlin (1981) interprets these faults to be Laramide reverse faults reactivated as normal faults by Cenozoic extension. The Hickman fault has about 300 m of late Cenozoic displacement, and the Red Lake fault has “several thousand feet” of late Cenozoic stratigraphic throw (Chamberlin, 1981). Both faults are down to the east and die out to the north.

**METHODS**

**Data Compilation**

The U.S. Geological Survey office in Albuquerque provided statewide water quality files containing conservative ion (boron, lithium), silica and chloride data, groundwater discharge temperature, and water-table elevations. Statewide, boron is more commonly analyzed (~4000 records) than lithium (~1500 records). In addition, we extracted data from University of New Mexico (Williams et al., 2013) and New Mexico Tech theses (Owens, 2013), the National Geothermal Database System (NGDS), the Environmental Protection Agency web-site, the New Mexico Bureau of Geology and Mineral Resources Aquifer Mapping database. Estimated reservoir temperatures using the chalcedony geothermometer of Fournier (1977, 1981) were calculated from the compiled silica concentration data.

Accurate water-table maps are required for the particle-tracking analysis described below. Water-table elevation data from wells was obtained from the U.S. Geological Survey, as described above, and the New Mexico Office of the State Engineer. Repeat water-table elevations for many of the wells in the database can be evaluated in several ways. Here, the earliest measurements for all wells were plotted and contoured;
this assumes pre-development water-level conditions. The elevations of perennial streams and natural ponds and lakes were also used in the construction of the water-table map. Contours created in ArcGIS were smoothed by reducing the grid resolution from 100 m to 500 m, and then running a focal mean algorithm using a 10 x 10 grid node area.

Heat flow data for the state of New Mexico were compiled as part of the NGDS effort. These data largely come from two sources: (1) published data from wells >200 m deep (e.g., Reiter et al., 1975) that measure the regional scale back-ground heat flow, and (2) industry (e.g., AMAX, Hunt, Phillips) and New Mexico State University temperature logs from wells < 200 m deep that measure heat transfer in complex, shallow hydrogeologic systems. Groundwater discharge temperatures from springs and water wells serve as another indicator of geo-thermal gradient. Oil and gas well bottom hole temperature (BHT) data were collected from well headers from a variety of geophysical logs on file at the New Mexico Bureau of Geology and Mineral Resources (NMBGMR) petroleum records library or from the web page of the NMEMRD-OCD. In some cases, BHT was measured in association with the installation of intermediate casings, so a few of the deeper wells have measurements at multiple depths. In addition, a continuous equilibrium temperature log was run in one well.

**Bottom Hole Temperature Analysis**

We analyzed BHT and formation top data from 26 oil wells drilled on the Colorado Plateau and seven in the Albuquerque basin (Fig. 1). Many of the wells on the Colorado Plateau were drilled between the late 1950s to mid 1980s, and most bottom in the Precambrian. Three of the Albuquerque basin wells were drilled by Shell in the 1970s, and they bottom in Proterozoic to Mesozoic rocks. Reiter et al. (1986) analyzed the BHT data from the deep Shell wells; we focused our investigation on the wells in the Acoma basin and Sierra Lucero.

BHTs are usually measured within a few hours to a few days after the cessation of drilling fluid circulation. The drilling fluids usually cool the ambient temperature of the rock surrounding the drill hole; thus, these measurements do not accurately record the true temperature. Shallow wells that are drilled with air in two or three days are generally not as strongly disturbed as deeper wells drilled over the course of many weeks with mud.

Equilibrium temperature logs used to calculate heat flow (e.g., Reiter et al., 1975) are usually measured months to years after drilling when the temperatures in the vicinity of the well bore recover to their natural state. Temperature data recorded during drill-stem tests (DSTs), which draw fluids directly from the formation, are closer to formation temperatures than BHT data (Morgan and Scott, 2014).

A variety of methods have been developed to empirically correct BHT data (e.g., Harrison et al., 1983; Majorowicz et al., 1990). As discussed by Morgan and Scott (2014) and Kelley (2015), the empirical correction should be calibrated in each basin by comparing uncorrected BHT data to temperatures measured during DSTs, to temperatures extracted from cement bond logs, or to equilibrium temperature logs. Unfortunately, in our area of study, only one well has an equilibrium log, and four wells have DSTs with recorded temperatures, so we were unable to develop a reliable correction. We experimented with applying a correction developed for the Piceance Basin in Colorado, which lies in a tectonic setting similar to that of the Acoma basin (Morgan and Scott, 2011). Morgan and Scott (2011) adjusted the Piceance Basin correction to include a +3°C factor that accounts for the difference between mean air and mean ground temperature:

\[
\text{BHTCorrected (°C)} = \text{BHTUncorrected (°C)} + 0.00175 \times \text{Depth (m)} + 5.07°C
\]

We also estimated geothermal gradients from the BHT data by subtracting a calculated ambient surface air temperature that accounts for both elevation and latitude in New Mexico (Morris et al., 1985) from the uncorrected BHT values and dividing that number by the depth of the BHT measurement. The use of the uncorrected BHT provides a conservative, minimum gradient value (Fig. 1).

**Conservative Ion Analysis**

Lithium and boron are among the trace elements that are known to correlate with chloride-dominated geothermal waters in New Mexico (Trainor and Lymord, 1979; Owens, 2013). Both boron and lithium are present in rock-forming minerals like microcline and albite that are commonly found in igneous rocks of felsic composition (Hem, 1985; Deer et al., 1992; Grew, 1996; Anowitz and Grew, 1996). Boron and lithium extracted from rocks along a flow path are generally conservative (i.e., tend to stay in solution) once these elements are dissolved in water. Boron can absorb onto clay minerals, particularly in rocks deposited in a marine environment, and is a common component of thermal/mineral waters discharging from marine sedimentary rocks.

We hypothesize that these conservative elements are retained at high concentrations as they discharge from a geothermal reservoir through hydrogeologic windows into cool, shallow, water-table aquifers (Fig. 3). As the conservative ions are transported down hydrogeologic gradient, they will eventually disperse, reaching concentrations below the limit of detection, probably within about 2-10 km of the upflow zone. Figure 4 schematically illustrates the approach. We assume that a solute plume exists for some distance down gradient from a hydrogeologic window (Fig. 4a) and that this plume is oriented down hydrogeologic gradient. Particles are introduced and assigned a color based on the concentration of the tracer (black=high, white=low concentration; Fig. 4b). The particles are moved up gradient through the flow field until they contact a hydrogeologic divide using the average linear velocity. Regions in-between wells with high tracer concentrations and low (background) concentration wells along the flow path can be used to identify the upflow zone (gray area in Fig. 4c).

Several assumptions form the basis of this analysis. First, we assume that high boron concentrations are associated with fluids with an elevated temperature. Second, we assume that shallow water-table wells access this plume and that the plume moves down hydrologic gradient. Finally, the distribution and...
Mathematical Basis of Particle Tracking Analysis

The average linear groundwater velocities are computed using the local water-table gradient:

\[
  v_x = \frac{K \Delta h}{\phi \Delta x} \quad \text{and} \quad v_y = \frac{K \Delta h}{\phi \Delta y}
\]

where \( K \) is hydraulic conductivity of the water-table aquifer, \( \phi \) porosity, \( h \) is hydraulic head, and \( v_x \) and \( v_y \) are the components of the groundwater velocities in the \( x \)- and \( y \)-directions. In our analysis, we assumed a hydraulic conductivity value of 1 m/yr and a porosity of 0.1. The groundwater flow field is orthogonal to the water-table contours. The average linear velocities were used to track geochemical tracers up gradient through the flow field (Pollock, 1994). We placed a mathematical particle at each well location that had a boron or lithium analysis and tracked the particle up gradient from the wells through the shallow aquifer as follows:

\[
  x_p^{k+1} = x_p^k - \Delta t v_x^k \quad \text{and} \quad y_p^{k+1} = y_p^k - \Delta t v_y^k
\]

where \( x_p^k, y_p^k \) are the particle locations in the \( x \)-direction at the old (\( k \)) and new (\( k+1 \)) time levels, and \( x_p^{k+1}, y_p^{k+1} \) are the particle locations in the \( y \)-direction at the old (\( k \)) and new (\( k+1 \)) time levels. We hypothesize that a hydrogeologic window within a blind geothermal system should be some distance up hydrologic gradient of a high concentration well and down gradient of a low concentration well along the groundwater flow path.

We introduce mathematical particles into a triangulated grid at the well locations. The water-table elevations at existing well locations and along perennial streams were assigned to each node. The velocity was calculated at each triangle using equations (1-2). Each particle is assigned its respective lithium or boron concentrations. We then use the flow vectors to move the particles upwind (up gradient) across the area.
RESULTS

Bottom Hole Temperature

The two oil wells with the highest uncorrected BHTs relative to other wells in the area are the NM and AZ Land and Cattle 1 (NMAZLC1; API 30-006-07040) and Federal B1 (API 30-006-05021; Fig. 1; Appendix 1, Fig. A2). The BHT measured in each of these wells is 71°C at 1115 m and 65.5°C at 1120 m, respectively. Both wells are spud in the Moenkopi Formation and bottom in the Pennsylvanian section. The estimated geothermal gradient in these wells varies from 48 to 74°C/km. These wells are adjacent to the Quaternary lava flows of the Lucero volcanic field on the eastern margin of the Acoma basin and lie within the Correo fault zone of Kelley and Wood (1946). A third oil well, Major SFPRR (API 30-053-20006) located south of Mesa del Oro, has an elevated shallow temperature of 49°C at 394 m and a slightly elevated temperature of 66°C at 1430 m (Figs. 1 and 5). Two shallow wells completed in fault zones cutting the Yeso Formation on the east side of the Lucero uplift are 49° to 52°C at 718-865 m (Fig. 5).

An equilibrium temperature log measured by Reiter et al. (1975; named Carrizo Arroyo 1 in that paper) is compared to the BHT for that same oil well (Carrizo 1) in Figure 5. The equilibrium log has a pronounced change in geothermal gradient from 24.8°C/km in the Yeso Formation to 35.9°C/km at 350 m that coincides with the contact between the Abo and Yeso formations (Fig. 5). The uncorrected BHT measurement for Carrizo 1 is about 4°C lower than the projected thermal log value. The BHT value determined using the correction of Morgan and Scott (2011) is about 3°C higher than the projected thermal log value. The difference between the corrected and uncorrected BHTs for all the oil wells on the Lucero uplift and in the Acoma basin (Figs. 1 and 5) varies from 5.6°C to 8.2°C.

Using the corrected values increases the calculated gradient by 4.6° to 6.7°C/km at depths shallower than 1000 m and 7° to 18.3°C/km at depths between 1000 and 1802 m.

The DST data are from widely scattered sites across the study area in the Acoma basin (SFP and A on Fig. 1) and the Lucero uplift (WR and R on Fig. 1). All four wells bottom in the Proterozoic. As expected, the temperatures measured during DSTs are 5° to 11.5°C warmer than the uncorrected BHTs for...
the Acoma and White Ridge drillholes (Fig. 6). The corrected BHT calculated using the formula of Morgan and Scott (2011) overlaps the DST temperature for the Acoma well, but under-predicts the DST temperature of the White Ridge well. The shallowest DST temperatures of the Romero well from the Gray Mesa Formation are much lower than the measured BHT, but the deeper measurements in the Sandia Formation overlap the uncorrected BHT. The DST for the Santa Fe (SFP) well is pulling in fluids from the San Andres Limestone that are 15°C warmer than might be expected for a linear gradient through the BHT and the calculated surface temperature. Both the DST temperatures and the BHTs indicate local complexity in the thermal regime in this area. Because we have so few points and because the corrected BHT does not yield consistent results when compared to actual measurements, we recommend that the conservative uncorrected BHT values be used until more data are available.

### Discharge Temperature and Heat Flow

Two distinct bands of water wells with elevated discharge temperatures that are largely derived from the San Andres-Glorieta aquifer are located in the area of interest (Appendix 1, Fig. A4). Three wells with discharge temperatures of 52.8°, 40.5-41.7°, and 34°C from wells with depths of 884, 768, and 848 m, respectively, occur near the Hickman fault zone on the west side of the Acoma basin. The discharge temperatures on the eastern margin of the Acoma basin are generally elevated compared to typical discharge temperatures (<20°C). Two wells near the Red Lake fault zone yield temperatures of 38.1° and 41°C from depths of 807 and 615 m, respectively. Trainer and Lyford (1979) report that the discharge temperature of several springs along the eastern margin of the Lucero uplift are 25°C or higher and that the low flow rates of these springs might suggest considerable heat loss by conduction as the water moves toward the surface. The pattern of elevated discharge temperature near the Zunis is not consistent with a simple gravity driven system with recharge from the Zuni Mountains and discharge in the Lucero uplift; burial of the San Andres-Glorieta aquifer beneath low-thermal conductivity shales in the Mancos and the Chinle sections may be causing the geothermal gradient to be higher than usual. Only four heat flow values are available in the area of interest ranging from <65 to 85 mW/m² (Appendix 1; Figure A3).

### Distribution of Conservative Ions and Particle Tracking

Known geothermal systems in New Mexico have lithium concentrations above 1.32 and boron values above 0.84 mg/l (Beilecki et al., 2014). Boron concentrations greater than 2.0 mg/l are common along the east side of the Lucero uplift, on the eastern flank of the Acoma basin and along the Hickman fault zone (Appendix 1, Figure A5). Lithium concentrations above 1.0 mg/l show a similar pattern (Appendix 1, Figure A6). Reservoir temperatures calculated using a chalcedony geothermometer yield values of 30-60°C, a range similar to the measured discharge temperature of water from the San Andres-Glorieta aquifer (Appendix 1; Figure A7).

We attempted to identify prospective regions with the particle tracking approach using the elevated boron concentrations from wells in the area of interest. Figure 7 shows the trace of particle tracks between wells with measurements and important ground water divides: (1) Mt. Taylor volcano to the north, (2) the Zuni Mountains to the northwest, (3) Cebolleta Mesa to the west, (4) the Sierra Ladrones to the southeast, and (5) resistant hogbacks on the west side of the Lucero uplift. Many of the particle tracks from wells and springs on the Lucero uplift appear to originate from the Correo fault zone or Mesa del Oro. The particle tracking results from the Lucero uplift suggest that the actual upflow zone may be to the west of the Comanche fault and point toward the Correo fault zone as a possible source of the elevated boron concentrations on the Lucero uplift. Particle tracks from wells in the Acoma basin converge on the groundwater divide on Cebolleta Mesa and may indicate leakage from the Red Lake fault zone. Generally,
the lack of distributed well chemistry data limited our ability to identify the exact location of upflow zones (boxes A and B on Figure 7). In only one instance (Figs. 7b and 8) do we have a sufficient density of wells to outline a possible upflow zone along the Comanche fault (dashed line, Fig. 8).

**DISCUSSION**

The source of the warm, mineralized waters in the Lucero uplift has been the topic of much discussion (Titus, 1963; Callender and Zilinski, 1976; Trainer and Lyford, 1979; Goff et al., 1983). The general consensus is that these waters likely originated to the west (Titus, 1963) or northwest, possibly from the Zuni Mountains (Baldwin and Anderholm, 1992) or from the San Juan Basin (Trainer and Lyford, 1979). The water-table map and the particle tracking calculations derived from this investigation indicate an important ground water divide located on Cebolleta Mesa due west of the Lucero uplift. The Zuni Mountains may be the recharge area for the San Andres-Glorieta aquifer (Baldwin and Anderholm, 1992), but the shallow
groundwater system appears to be recharged on Cebolleta Mesa and other local highlands. The elevated boron and lithium concentrations downgradient of the Red Lake fault zone suggest upflow of water along this structure. Elevated lithium and boron values are also associated with the Hickman fault zone. Furthermore, discharge temperatures are higher in the vicinity of these two structures. The high geothermal gradients observed in two oil wells east of the Lucero volcanic field are likely caused by upwelling of warm water along the Correo fault zone.

Does the youthful volcanism in the Zuni-Bandera and the Lucero volcanic fields locally enhance the temperatures? The small volume eruptions and the lack of sizable magma chambers in the shallow crust associated with basaltic volcanism have led many researchers (e.g., Smith and Shaw, 1975) to conclude that basaltic volcanic fields hold few geothermal prospects. Felsic centers have much higher economic potential (e.g., the Valles caldera, Smith and Shaw, 1975). However, more recent studies suggest that magma chambers beneath mafic lava fields in extensional settings are repeatedly emplaced into lower crust at depths of 15 to 30 km as thin sills (10 to 500 m thick) fed by dikes (e.g., Balch et al., 1997; Annen and Sparks, 2002; Gudmundsson, 2012). Repeated injection of mafic magma into sills at rates of 50 m/10 ka can eventually melt crustal material on time scales of 100 ka to 1 Ma, resulting in chambers at shallower levels in the crust (Annen and Sparks, 2002). Both outcrop and geophysical studies in volcanic fields around the world indicate that repeat injections of sills are common (Gudmundsson, 2012).

Reiter et al. (2010) analyzed the thermal history of the Socorro magma body located a few km southeast of the area of interest, which was discovered beneath the central Rio Grande rift by Sanford et al. (1977) using P- and S- wave delays. The Socorro magma body is interpreted to be a sill that is only 130 m thick, covers about 3400 km², and is located at a depth of ~18.75 km (Balch et al., 1997). This mafic magma body has not created a surface cinder cone. The heat from the current sill has not yet reached the surface, but the elevated heat flow in the Socorro area relative to surrounding regions and measured S-velocity values indicate that sills with a cumulative thickness
of 600 m emplaced over the last 1-3 Ma appear to have warmed the overlying crust (Reiter et al., 2010).

Numerous geophysical and geodetic studies have been completed over the Socorro magma chamber over the years, and its geometry and dimensions are well constrained. In contrast, relatively little geophysical work has been done in the Acoma basin. Anders et al. (1981) conducted regional-scale magnetotelluric and gravity surveys across this region and discovered a gravity high beneath the Lucero uplift that they attributed to a shallow, youthful mafic intrusion; this interpretation has not been verified. The LA RISTRA seismic line crosses the northeast corner of the area of interest (Wilson et al., 2005), but provides no detail about crustal structure. Additional detailed, local-scale geophysical surveys and temperature measurements in existing monitoring or abandoned wells are needed to evaluate the cause of the elevated geothermal gradients and discharge temperatures near the Hickman, Red Lake, and Correo fault zones. The effects of transient thermal input from repeat emplacement of Pleistocene sills beneath the volcanic fields of the Jemez lineament on the thermal regime of the Acoma basin cannot be completely discounted and should be investigated by magnetotelluric and heat flow surveys and hydrogeologic modeling.

CONCLUSIONS

The aquifer systems in the Acoma basin are primarily gravity-driven systems with warm fluids containing elevated concentrations of boron and lithium discharging along three structural zones, the Hickman, Red Lake and Correo faults systems along the flow path toward the Lucero uplift and ultimately the Rio Grande. Fluids in relatively shallow Pennsylvanian and Permian carbonate aquifers are heated by the elevated background heat flow related to extension. A possible low-temperature (<80°C) geothermal system is outlined by elevated geothermal gradients in three oil wells and discharge temperatures >25°C in several water wells that lie between the Red Lake fault zone and the Lucero uplift. Analysis of BHTs and temperatures measured during DSTs reveal that the thermal regime in this area is complicated, but that, in places, the San Andres (55°C at depths of 400 to 1000 m) and Pennsylvanian (65-71°C at ca. 1100 m) carbonate aquifers contain warm water that could be utilized if the water chemistry is not corrosive or over saturated with bicarbonate.

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Supplemental data can be found at http://hmgs.nmsu.edu/repository/index.cfml?rid=2016003