

# 1 Estimating available salt volume for potential CAES 2 development: a case study using the Northwich 3 Halite of the Cheshire Basin.

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## 6 Abstract

7 The massively bedded rock salts forming the Northwich Halite Member of the Cheshire Basin represent  
8 a huge mineral resource, which historically, have been worked by dry mining for rock salt and brine  
9 production from both the area of wet rockhead and also from solution-mined caverns. More recently, the  
10 halite beds have also provided the host storage horizon for natural gas storage in specifically designed and  
11 constructed solution-mined salt caverns. Increasingly, compressed air energy storage (CAES) is being  
12 viewed as a viable bulk storage option for surplus electrical energy, which may be through the use of off-  
13 peak electricity from both conventional and renewable sources. We describe a novel technique using  
14 Esri's ArcGIS® Geographic Information System software, to derive potential storage cavern locations and  
15 an estimate of the physical volumes that might be available for storage purposes, including for CAES.  
16 The process involves defining the spatial distribution, thickness and insoluble content of the halite beds  
17 is described, together with an estimate of the potential physical volumes of solution-mined caverns.  
18 Cavern volumes compare favourably with those of current gas storage facilities, which are illustrated in  
19 terms of their surface footprints and use of resource.

20 **Keywords:** Compressed Air Energy Storage; Halite; Cheshire; Cavern; Arc GIS.

## 21 1 Introduction

22 The UK energy networks face a number of challenges in the coming decades, including increased  
23 penetration of renewable energy sources, threats to energy security of supply with declining indigenous  
24 fossil fuel reserves and increasing reliance on imported fossil fuels, and also decarbonising electricity  
25 production to achieve the goal of 80% reduction in CO<sub>2</sub> emissions by 2050 [1]. The transition to renewable  
26 energy sources such as wind and solar will introduce natural variability into electricity generation  
27 capacity. To meet a pattern of demand that does not follow such variations in generation, there will be a  
28 need for fast ramping, back-up generation, supported by reliable forecasting and, importantly, increased  
29 bulk storage capacity for electricity generated from renewables.

30 In 2012 the IMAGES project (Integrated, Market-fit and Affordable Grid-scale Energy Storage)  
31 commenced as part of the Engineering and Physical Sciences Research Council's (EPSRC) Energy  
32 Storage Grand Challenge: integrating energy storage for future energy networks. A major aim was to  
33 assess the various electrical energy storage (EES) technologies capable of providing large, utility-scale,  
34 energy storage and deliverability (>100 MW).

35 To date, pumped hydroelectric (PHS) facilities have been the main bulk energy storage technology, with  
36 water pumped to a higher reservoir during off peak, low demand periods and released during periods of  
37 peak demand to drive turbines. In many countries however, including the UK, PHS has reached a point  
38 of near maximum deployment due to the scarcity of available sites with suitable geographical conditions,  
39 long lead times and high construction costs [2]. Apart from PHS, Compressed Air Energy Storage (CAES)

40 represents the only other bulk energy storage technology proposed as a potential solution for levelling  
41 fluctuating wind-power production and maintaining a system balance [3,4].

42 With CAES, electricity (energy) generated during off-peak periods is used to compress air to high pressure  
43 to then be stored either in above-ground or near-surface pressurized air pipelines (20–100 bars:[5]), or by  
44 injecting it into storage below ground (70-100+ bars). During peak load demand periods, the air can then  
45 be released to be used in gas turbines to generate electricity.

46 Underground geological storage can be through the use of: salt caverns [6] (see below); porous rock, either  
47 depleted hydrocarbon fields or aquifers, e.g. the aquifer tests at Sesta in Italy [7,8] and Pittsfield and Iowa,  
48 both in the US [9,10,11,12]; abandoned mines/purposely mined voids e.g. Norton, Ohio [13]; or lined  
49 rocks caverns, e.g. the test adiabatic CAES facility in the abandoned Pollegio-Loderia tunnel, north of  
50 Biasca in the Swiss Alps [14,15].

51 Two commercial ‘conventional’ (diabatic) CAES facilities are currently operational, using solution-mined  
52 salt caverns for storage (Figure 1): the currently rated 320 MW output for ~3-4 hours (~960 MWh) at  
53 Huntorf (Lower Saxony, N. Germany, operational since 1978; [16,17]) and a 110 MW output for ~26  
54 hours (2600 MWh) plant at McIntosh (Alabama, USA, operational since 1991; [18]). A third, small 2  
55 MW, near-isothermal (adiabatic) CAES system, was developed and operated between 2012 and 2016 at  
56 Gaines in western Texas (USA) by Texas Dispatchable Wind 1, LLC (a subsidiary of General  
57 Compression; [19,20,21]). Halite, commonly known as rock salt; the mineral form of NaCl, is the most  
58 suitable lithology because it is highly soluble, impermeable to gas, and unless strain rates are very high,  
59 deforms by creep and flow rather than by brittle deformation formation or faulting. Any brittle damage is  
60 therefore likely to be repaired by subsequent ductile flow arising from crystal plastic deformation and  
61 pressure solution processes [22]. These operational plants demonstrate that CAES is viable in solution-  
62 mined underground salt caverns, either constructed specifically for compressed air storage, or which  
63 remain following cessation of brining operations. In the UK, one CAES plant is currently being planned  
64 using salt caverns constructed some 1500 m below ground at Islandmagee, near Larne in Northern Ireland  
65 (Figures 1 & 2; [6,23,24,25]).

66 The alternative geological storage options to salt caverns are not likely to be developed in the near future  
67 due to potential problems of storage integrity and deliverability [12], and/or development costs, which are  
68 considerably higher for non-halite storages (Table 1; [26]). For the near future, therefore, salt cavern  
69 storages remain the cheapest and most flexible option for CAES; they can handle frequent cycles, have  
70 higher injection and withdrawal rates and have a lower share of cushion gas. Given this and the  
71 development of thick bedded halite deposits in the UK in which a number of natural gas storage cavern  
72 facilities have been developed [27], a principal aim of IMAGES was, therefore, to assess the UK potential  
73 for compressed air energy storage (CAES) in solution-mined salt caverns.

## 74 2 UK CAES potential

75 The Huntorf plant storage caverns are produced in the Zechstein salts [16] that run extensively across  
76 Northern Europe and come onshore within the UK in East Yorkshire as the Boulby and Fordon evaporates,  
77 for conventional 1300m CAES [23] these are mostly too deep, although new plans for CAES at depths of  
78 1500m from Northern Ireland may change this [24]. In the UK the younger Mesozoic and Cenozoic salts  
79 offer a much better depth range, however being bedded rather than domal, these are much thinner than  
80 the Zechstein salts limiting cavern height and also have higher insoluble content.

81 In the UK, all current salt-based storage facilities are associated with storage of natural gas; they are  
82 restricted to the onshore Triassic salt beds of the Northwich Halite Member in Cheshire and the Permian  
83 salt beds in eastern and north-eastern England. Salt beds of the Triassic Preesall Halite in the East Irish  
84 Sea (EIS) are also currently a target for the Gateway gas storage project and plans are advanced for a  
85 CAES facility in Permian salt beds onshore in the Islandmagee area of Northern Ireland [24,25]. The  
86 development of onshore facilities is in part related to the fact it is technologically simpler and thus cheaper  
87 to develop onshore, but also that the storage sites are closer to the required energy markets.

88 In terms of the UK salt basins, the Cheshire Basin with its thick massively bedded Triassic halite deposits  
89 represents a major region of interest for CAES studies. The massively bedded halites are largely restricted  
90 to two thick, massively bedded sequences: a lower (older) Northwich Halite Member and an upper  
91 (younger) Wilkesley Halite Member, both of which have been exploited for brine by solution mining  
92 (Figure 3; [28,29,30]).

93 Using a Geographical Information System (ArcGIS® software by Esri), an important aim of the IMAGES  
94 project was to estimate for the UK the location and amount of salt available for CAES. In this way, a  
95 determination of the potential theoretical cavern physical volumes for the halite deposits of the UK could  
96 be made, from which CAES potential might be assessed. Initially the Cheshire Basin was used as a case  
97 study to develop the methodology and processes, with the scope to then expand the method to other UK  
98 halite-bearing basins.

## 99 3 Cavern Volume Calculation for the Cheshire Basin

### 100 3.1 Method

#### 101 3.1.1 The Cheshire Basin and Northwich Halite Geology

102 The Triassic Northwich Halite Member (NwH) of the Cheshire Basin, already the centre of active gas  
103 storage and brine extraction industries, was the focus of initial GIS modelling of the Northwich Halite  
104 Member as a potential storage horizon for CAES. This section outlines the modelling approach taken to  
105 assess the potential cavern and storage volumes available in the main halite beds of the Cheshire Basin.

106 The Triassic Northwich Halite Member (NwH), is the main sequence of bedded halite widely exploited  
107 for brine production and rock salt, and is the host to recently constructed solution-mined gas storage  
108 caverns in the Cheshire Basin (Figures 2&3; [6,28,29,30]). The operational gas storage facilities  
109 demonstrate the capability of large caverns (~50 m radius and up to 130 m in height) in the halite beds to  
110 store gas at high pressure. Further gas storage caverns are planned at King Street [31] and immediately  
111 south of Stublach at the Keuper Gas Storage site (Table 2; Figure 2; [6,32,33,34]).

112 The NwH beds extend eastwards from near-surface to depths exceeding ~1500 m bgl (below ground level)  
113 against the eastern basin-bounding Wem-Red Rock Fault Zone (WRRFZ; Figure 4; [27]).

114 In the near surface, the halite beds are affected by a region of wet rockhead: circulating groundwaters  
115 cause dissolution of the halite beds leading to collapse of the interbedded mudstone units and subsidence  
116 across the zone. Wet rockhead conditions are potentially present in shallower areas, generally between  
117 50-120 m, but may extend down to a maximum of 150-200 m [35,36]. Within the interior of the basin N-  
118 S faults, which appear to have moved syndepositionally during halite accumulation, affect the halite beds  
119 with some thickness variations seen in the NwH, the most significant of these faults is the normal, down-  
120 to-the-east King Street Fault (KSF). The NwH attains thicknesses of over 250 m: the thickest proven being  
121 283 m in the Byley borehole [27,32,37], to the SE of Northwich, between the KSF and WRRFZ.  
122 Geophysical log correlations show a shallowing and thinning of the Northwich Halite to the west from  
123 over 1400 m in the east, adjacent to the WRRFZ (Figure 5), and also erosion and removal of some of the  
124 uppermost halite beds over upthrown fault blocks, as in the area of the Winsford Mine, within the footwall  
125 block of the KSF [38].

126 As a generalisation, the NwH comprises about 75% halite and 25% mudstone in the Northwich, Winsford  
127 and Chester areas [20]. The halite is mostly massive and monominerallic, with minor thin laminae (<1mm)  
128 of anhydrite and non-ferroan dolomicrite. Muddy ('dirty') salt beds are developed in which syn-  
129 sedimentary halite crystals displace mudstones and are known as *Haselgebirge facies*. The halite in places  
130 has also experienced multiple episodes of extensive recrystallization. Borehole cores and geophysical logs  
131 reveal that the NwH contains numerous thick beds of very clean to muddy halite interbedded with thinner  
132 beds of predominantly mudstone. The mudstones can attain thicknesses of up to 10 m in the case of the

133 Thirty Foot Marl [39,40]. The Northwich Halite shows a remarkably uniform geophysical log response  
134 along the length of the basin and in an east-west direction, with individual dirtier halite intervals, mudstone  
135 and halite beds traced over 50 km [41].

136 The structureless salt/marl beds spatially show every gradation from salt with less than 10% of silty  
137 mudstone, to a mudstone matrix with large isolated halite crystals (haselgebirge facies). Overall in the  
138 Winsford area of the Cheshire Basin, it is estimated that the total content of clay and silt through discrete  
139 mudstone bands and disseminated material in the Northwich Halite is the equivalent of 53 m thickness,  
140 or about 24% of the Northwich Halite by volume [39]. As described below, this impacts the cavern  
141 volumes, because although some of the finer muddy material will be held in suspension and removed from  
142 the cavern with the brine, the majority falls to the base of the cavern, filling the sump area. With a bulking  
143 factor to the fallen material, this accounts for 25-30% of the mined volume such that for a cavern 100 m  
144 in height, the bottom ~25-30 m is filled with fallen insoluble material. A further consideration is that brine  
145 remains trapped within this sump material, giving rise to moisture in the cavern during gas storage  
146 operations.

### 147 3.1.1 Depth Ranges for CAES

148 The depth ranges chosen for the CAES cavern study were based upon published information. Recent  
149 publication [23] suggest the operational window for CAES caverns lies between 500 to 1300 m (Figure 1),  
150 based upon operating pressures being directly dependent on depth and power plant components. More recently,  
151 it has been suggested that a breakthrough in compressor and turbine technology would enable CAES  
152 deployment to greater depths than previously considered, with 1500m seen as the limit [25]. As gas  
153 storage caverns are also developed at shallower depths of ~ 250 m (Figure 1; [23]), the lower depth of 250  
154 m has been included in this study in order to assess maximum available cavern volumes. Hence we have  
155 assessed the UK cavern volume potential over the depth ranges: 250-1300m, 250-1500m, 500-1300m and  
156 500-1500 m.”

### 157 3.1.2 Calculation of Raw (physical) Cavern Volumes

158 Structure contour maps of the top and base Northwich Halite Member (NwH) were generated by  
159 extracting the stratigraphic information from boreholes and contouring the depths below ground level.  
160 The thickness of the halite beds were similarly obtained from the borehole data. The top and base NwH  
161 surfaces were digitised and used to construct a 3D volumetric model using the geological modelling  
162 package, GOCAD. This was used to assess the subsurface disposition of the halite beds and to calculate  
163 volumes of salt. The model incorporated the main King Street Fault, with up to 600 m normal downthrow  
164 to the east at the top halite beds in the north of the Cheshire Basin (Figure 4), but smaller faults such as  
165 the down-west Winsford and down-east Moberley faults are not included for reasons of scale and lack of  
166 controlling data (Figure 5).

167 In order to derive the area and volume of salt that might be suitable for cavern construction, a series of  
168 constraints (‘buffers’) were applied to the geometric model of the NwH, to produce minimum casing shoe  
169 (and cavern top) and basal surfaces, as illustrated in Figure 6:

- 170 1. The minimum storage cavern height is set to be 20 m (but the maps and extracted data would permit  
171 large minimum cavern sizes to be assessed). Such cavern heights are unlikely to be utilised in the UK,  
172 but is considered here based on storage cavern dimensions in some thin bedded halites elsewhere in  
173 the USA [31].
- 174 2. The minimum depth of the casing shoe ( $z_{MIN}$ ) was set at either 250 m or 500 m, based upon the  
175 minimum depths of gas storage caverns in the region and the 500 m depth limit of casing shoe for  
176 CAES caverns described by Crotofino and co-workers [23].
- 177 3. The maximum depth of the casing shoe ( $z_{MAX}$ ) was set at 1300 m or 1500 m, based on either Crotofino  
178 and co-workers, or the more recent depths for CAES proposed by Gaelectric [25].
- 179 4. Where the top of the halite beds is greater than 250 m or 500 m, the casing shoe is set 10 m below the  
180 top of the halite, defining a surface of top halite plus 10 m

- 181 5. For cavern integrity purposes, the roof of a cavern is set 10 m below the casing shoe depth – a ‘roof  
182 salt’ resulting in 20 m thickness left where the top of the halite beds are at depths greater than 250 m  
183 or 500 m. For gas storage purposes, HSE requires at least 3 m of salt below the casing shoe [42].  
184 Elsewhere, a minimum of 10 m roof salt was suggested for caverns in ‘thin-bedded halites’ [43].  
185 6. For cavern integrity purposes, a 10 m thickness of halite is left beneath the base of the cavern (‘floor  
186 salt’). A distance of 5-10 m was suggested for the Preesall gas storage proposal [44].

187 This means that for, example, the cavern top surface for  $z_{MIN} = 250$  m surface is actually at a range of  
188 depths; where the salt top is  $\leq 250$  m the cavern top is at 260 m and where the salt top is  $>250$  m the cavern  
189 top is at a depth of (salt top depth + 20 m).

190 The modelled cavern top and base surfaces were converted into regular grids with 50 x 50 m grid cell size  
191 and exported to the GIS for further analysis. The exported surfaces provided areas of usable salt  
192 distribution within the Cheshire Basin and against which a theoretical cavern framework could be  
193 constructed. The framework maximised cavern distribution density and salt usage, but was limited by the  
194 following engineering constraints, based upon typical gas storage cavern designs in the UK [34, 45].

- 195 1. Cavern diameters were set at 100 m (50 m radius, R)
- 196 2. Cavern pillar widths between caverns were set at 150 m, or 3R - each cavern must have a minimum  
197 wall thickness to ensure cavern stresses do not interact (effectively an ‘unperturbed stress’ salt  
198 zone)
- 199 3. Caverns were set in a regular, hexagonal close-packed grid pattern

200 It is important to note that the optimal cavern wall distance is not fixed and due to variable operating  
201 pressures, related to cavern depth or variable cavern size, it may change. For this study and irrespective  
202 of depth, all the caverns had a fixed radius of 50 m and a fixed pillar width of 150 m, based on modelling  
203 for the planning application for the Preesall Gas Storage project [45].

204 The ArcGIS® zonal statistics tool was used to extract statistics for each calculated cavern within the cavern  
205 framework template including maximum cavern heights and insoluble content. The zonal statistics tool  
206 uses a feature dataset to define zones for which the zonal statistics can be output from a raster input. For  
207 this study, the cavern framework template was used as the feature dataset and mean values were calculated  
208 for each zone (cavern) from the associated values in either the salt thickness raster, when calculating  
209 maximum cavern height or salt insoluble content raster.

210 The aim of this study was to produce a maximal estimate of the volume available for CAES in the Cheshire  
211 Basin, therefore the maximum cavern height as determined by the thickness of the halite beds. However,  
212 most active gas storage facilities exploit less than the full halite bed thickness for various reasons that  
213 include the fact a smaller volume is required for natural gas due to the higher energy per unit volume  
214 compared to air, geomechanical considerations including retention of cavern stability, as well as reasons  
215 of economy.

216 Using the maximum cavern heights raw cavern volumes were estimated assuming simple cylindrical  
217 cavern shapes, which is an oversimplification, as the top and base of storage caverns require somewhat  
218 squat dome/saucer shapes for both cavern roof stability and gas tightness: the difference in geometry leads  
219 to a small reduction in cavern volumes. This volume loss was judged as not significant for the current  
220 study, given the regional scale of the maps and other variables (e.g. the insoluble content – section 3.1.4.2).

### 221 3.1.3 Cavern Volume Calculations and Buffering

222 In order to calculate more realistic potential cavern volumes a number of calculations and corrections  
223 were applied to the raw cavern volumes from section 3.1.2, these included shape corrections,  
224 consideration of insoluble content of the halite, and buffering of areas in which the halite beds are/would  
225 be inaccessible.

### 226 3.1.3.1 CAVERN SHAPE FACTOR

227 In reality, no solution-mined cavern develops perfectly with smooth sides or to the limits of the  
228 geomechanical envelope in all directions. Cavern walls develop a roughness due to many factors, but most  
229 usually due to the effects of interbedded mudstones during halite dissolution, particularly when any dip  
230 to the beds is present [46, 47]. In an attempt to obtain realistic final cavern volume estimates, an average  
231 shape factor of 0.7 was applied to account for irregular cavern walls ('roughness') and the non-perfect  
232 dissolution of the halite beds. This was based on the figure value used by Macdonald [45] in the planning  
233 application for the Preesall Gas Storage project.

### 234 3.1.3.2 Residual Insolubles Content in the Northwich Halite Member

235 The NwH contains insoluble mud and siltstone either as disseminated material in the halite beds, or as  
236 distinct interbeds, ranging from a few millimetres to several metres in thickness. The thickest mudstone  
237 known as the Thirty Foot Marl, in the lower third of the NwH Formation [39]. Whilst some of the finer  
238 insoluble material is carried out of the cavern during solution mining, most falls to the base of the cavern  
239 (the 'cavern sump'), thereby reducing the total mined volume. The amount of residual insoluble material  
240 is a function of the location of the cavern within the sedimentary basin, lesser percentages of insoluble  
241 material is found in the thicker halite beds in the basin centre. Earp and Taylor [39] estimated an average  
242 25% insoluble material for the NwH, this value is used as an initial estimate to constrain cavern volumes.  
243 A more advanced investigation using downhole geophysical logs was also undertaken to estimate the  
244 insoluble content of the NwH and to better constrain volume reductions. Logs were utilised from a number  
245 of hydrocarbon exploration boreholes, a British Geological Survey stratigraphic borehole (Wilkesley 1),  
246 and a more recent gas storage appraisal borehole within the Cheshire Basin (Byley 1).

247 Downhole electrical logging tools measure properties related to resistivity and acoustic parameters, as  
248 well as giving indications of radioactivity, such as natural gamma radiation. These can be used to estimate  
249 lithology (e.g. mudstone or salt) and other rock properties such as formation porosity and fluid saturations.

250 Due to the mixed vintage of the available digital well log data (most wells pre-date the 1990's, and date  
251 as far back as 1960), not all of the wells were logged using modern tools, which have generally greater  
252 sensitivity and resolution. Furthermore, being mostly concerned with potential oil and gas reservoirs  
253 buried at deeper depths, only rudimentary logging was generally carried-out over the NwH interval. In  
254 addition, where the NwH was penetrated in the shallower subsurface (such as in the Knutsford 1 well), it  
255 is possible that the logging was conducted through casing, reducing the quality of the logs acquired. The  
256 single consistent dataset available, comprises of Gamma Ray (GR) logs, which provide a measurement of  
257 the radioactivity of the formations encountered by the logging tool. The GR log is commonly used as an  
258 indicator of the shale content of sedimentary strata, because radioactive elements are concentrated in clay  
259 minerals in mudstone. Halite however, if relatively clean (i.e. is mainly NaCl and containing little  
260 mudstone content), emits very few gamma rays, resulting in a low GR reading. As observed on  
261 geophysical log data through the NwH and its equivalent Preesall Halite, the bedded halite contains cm-  
262 metre-scale stringers and beds of shale, while *haselgebirge* facies can contain up to 80% mud content [41,  
263 48]. The lowest end-member GR values within the NwH correspond to pure halite.

264 In the Cheshire Basin, GR logs through the NwH are available for twelve wells. The insoluble content of  
265 the NwH was calculated from the log data for each individual well, by identifying the end-member GR  
266 values predicted to correspond to halite and mudstone (Figure 7). For clean halite, containing very few  
267 or no clay minerals, the 'halite' values were selected based on the average of the lowermost halite values  
268 within the well, while the 'mudstone' values were selected based on an average of the lowermost GR  
269 values of the shale-dominated overburden (Figure 7), or in some cases the underlying Bollin Mudstone  
270 Formation [39]. The GR logs were then normalised between the chosen 'halite' and 'mudstone' values  
271 for each well, so that the resulting volume of clay curves (which represent the fraction of clay minerals in  
272 the mudstone at each discrete logging increment) are comparable between wells. This method assumes  
273 that the insoluble content of the NwH comprises entirely clay minerals, volumetrically the most important  
274 insoluble material and neglects the small amounts of anhydrite or other insoluble minerals, which are  
275 known to be present in small quantities within the NwH.

276 The average insoluble content was then calculated for the main NwH interval from the normalised logs in  
277 each well, and multiplied by the thickness of the layer to generate the overall thickness of insoluble  
278 content. Ideally the analysis would be calibrated to laboratory measurements of insoluble content from  
279 core samples, however no such data were available for the Cheshire Basin. Alternatively, bulk density log  
280 data, which relate to the density of the rock matrix material, porosity and density of pore fluids, were  
281 available for a single well (Burford 1), which was used to test the result from the GR analysis. Using the  
282 typical apparent bulk density of halite (2.04 g/cm<sup>3</sup>) and shale (2.5 g/cm<sup>3</sup>) measured by density logging  
283 tools [49] the density log was normalised and an average insoluble content calculated. The calculated  
284 insoluble content from the GR and bulk density analyses in the Burford 1 well, differed by only 2%,  
285 validating the analyses of insoluble content based only on GR logging.

286 The insoluble content for each wells was plotted in ArcGIS® and used to contour and map the insoluble  
287 content around the basin (Figure 8). The insoluble content percentage increases toward the edge of the  
288 basin due to a combination of factors, including the increased input of terrestrial material from the basin  
289 edges and the reduced amount of halite deposition due to the shallower water depth. This map permits  
290 calculation of an insoluble content for each cavern location for input into the cavern volume and exergy  
291 calculations.

292 The initial insoluble factor, both mapped and estimated average (25%), requires adaptation to account for  
293 the inefficiency of mechanical sweeping (remaining insoluble percentage) and uneven insoluble stacking  
294 (bulking factor). This study adopted mean values from the Preesall gas storage proposal [45] for the  
295 bulking factor (1.5) and remaining insoluble percentage (86.5%). For the estimated average mean  
296 insoluble content of 25%, these give a final insoluble factor of 0.32.

### 297 3.1.3.3 Inaccessible Halite Volumes

298 Clearly, neither the generation of the top and base NwH maps, nor the determination of cavern locations,  
299 take into account areas in which it would not be possible to locate caverns due to land-use considerations  
300 and potentially detrimental geological features. To account for these inaccessible regions of halite, identify  
301 realistic remaining areas of halite for CAES cavern development and calculate potential usable halite and  
302 cavern volumes, a series of buffers were generated. Buffering in Arc GIS produce's fixed distance  
303 exclusion areas for various feature datasets and combines these to produce a total exclusion area. For this  
304 study, and in line with standoff distances used at a number of gas storage facilities, a buffer of 150 m (3x  
305 maximum cavern radius) was applied to the various off-limit cultural, infrastructure and geological feature  
306 datasets (Figure 9). Excluded areas included urban areas, protected areas, major infrastructure such as  
307 roads, rail lines, canals and mines and existing salt cavern gas storage facilities and geological features  
308 such as large faults including the major intrabasinal King Street Fault and areas of wet rock head.

309 The current determination of cavern locations and buffering of inaccessible salt regions can only serve to  
310 assess the general halite resource and any areas selected for further study would require additional detailed  
311 site characterisation before caverns were constructed.

## 312 3.2 Results

313 The study has produced an initial estimate of possible salt storage cavern locations and physical cavern  
314 volumes in the massively bedded Triassic NhW of the Cheshire Basin (Table 3). This data can be used in  
315 an assessment of the potential exergy storage volume using caverns for CAES, related to renewable energy  
316 or conventional energy sources during off peak periods [50].

317 A total theoretical cavern number and volume was initially derived for the optimal CAES depth range  
318 500-1300 m quoted by Kepplinger & Donadei [23]. In addition, cavern numbers and volumes were  
319 calculated for the depth range 500-1500 m, to take into account the latest views on CAES caverns  
320 operating at around 1500 m in Northern Ireland [24]. A further set of cavern data is also derived for the  
321 depths 250-1300 m and 250-1500 m to reflect the gas storage caverns developed at these depths at the

322 Hole House and Hilltop Farm storage facilities in the Cheshire Basin and which operate in the 50-100 bar  
323 window of Crotono and co-workers (Table 1; Figure 1; [23,26]).

324 Individual cavern volumes across the all examined depth intervals range from 0.036 to 1.032 mcm. These  
325 minimum and maximum values are found in the 250-1300 and 1500m mapped insolubles range  
326 respectively. The increased usable salt thickness and the larger range in insoluble values either side of the  
327 25% average explain this. Once the total area of halite beds is buffered, against infrastructure and other  
328 features that would prevent a cavern being placed in any particular area, extensive areas of available  
329 halite beds still exist (Table 3) with theoretical caverns that have large (physical) volumes (Table 3). For  
330 the depth range 250-1300 and 1500 m, between ~16,100 and ~16,600 potential locations exist for a 100 m  
331 diameter cavern. For the 500 m and deeper range, this is reduced to between ~7,350 and 7,800 potential  
332 locations for the same 100m cavern diameter.

333 The available cavern volumes have been calculated for the various depth ranges using two methods: an  
334 average 25% insoluble content and the insoluble calculated from geophysical logs and mapped over the  
335 basin. The average of 25% is the industry standard used in the Chester, Winsford and Northwich part of  
336 the Cheshire Basin [39]. It is important to see how volumes calculated using this average vary compared  
337 to the mapped insoluble values because for some basins the spatial borehole data or geological  
338 understanding is not available to create an accurate insoluble distribution map. Overall, the 25% value is  
339 adequate as a first approximation for the insoluble content in the Cheshire Basin, particularly in the deeper  
340 and thicker regions of halite beds. However, as illustrated by the map of calculated insolubles (Figure 8),  
341 the insoluble content of the NwH varies across the Cheshire Basin and final cavern volumes show that for  
342 any one-depth range, using an average 25% insoluble content over estimates the total cavern volumes  
343 available in relation to using mapped insoluble values derived from geophysical logs. This is illustrated  
344 by the 250-1300 m depth range, where the volumes for the total set and reduced caverns are 7,710 and  
345 1,830 mcm for 25% insolubles, compared to 6,200 and 1,400 mcm for the mapped insolubles (Table 2).  
346 Calculations of individual modelled cavern volumes using either the 'standard' 25% content, or that  
347 calculated from the well logs around the Stublach region can be analysed for accuracy by comparisons  
348 with sonar data and cavern volumes published from operational caverns at the Stublach gas storage facility  
349 (Figure 10; [33,34]). The total volume of an operational gas cavern at Stublach is calculated from sonar  
350 data to be 580,000 m<sup>3</sup>, with 210,000 m<sup>3</sup> of this occupied by insoluble residue, leaving a final usable  
351 volume of ~370,000 m<sup>3</sup>. The cavern volumes indicate an insoluble content of 36%, but the actual volume  
352 of insolubles in the halite beds will be slightly lower than this due to the bulking factor. The modelled  
353 caverns in the Stublach region have an insoluble factor range (inclusive of the bulking factor) of 0.29-  
354 0.34, which is in line with the 36% insoluble reduction measured in the Stublach cavern. The modelled  
355 caverns have a reduced volume range of 788,017-1,032,449 m<sup>3</sup>, which is greater than the 370,000 m<sup>3</sup>  
356 cavern volume at Stublach. This is because the storage facility at Stublach only utilises a narrow salt  
357 interval at a depth range of 518-600 m to give a cavern height of 72 m whereas the modelled caverns  
358 maximise the thickness of the halite beds present, with a height range of 212-270 m, following the various  
359 roof and floor salt reductions (Figure 10; [33,34]).

360 To illustrate the areas and physical cavern volumes involved in these figures, a 1% subset of modelled  
361 caverns with a minimum 100m height, in Cheshire, for the 500-1500 m depth range would number  
362 roughly 16 caverns. Cavern height was restricted to 100m and above to align with Huntorf (caverns are  
363 150m high) [16] and active gas storage caverns in the Cheshire Basin (see table 2). A facility of 16 caverns  
364 is in the mid-range of the current UGS facilities in the Cheshire basin which have between four (Hole  
365 House – counting EON and Ineos Holford as one facility) and 20 (Stublach) caverns (Table 2 and Figure  
366 11). Thus, in Cheshire, just 1% of the current available salt could support a viable storage facility and  
367 ignoring cavern distribution, there is the potential for upward of 100 new, ~16 cavern, storage facilities  
368 within the Cheshire basin. This represents a maximum number, as not all cavern locations would likely  
369 be available or suitable in terms of possible land-use issues, or the nature of the halite beds and/or  
370 geological features present.



### 371 3.3 Conclusions

372 We have reviewed storage cavern development in massively bedded halite deposits in the Cheshire area  
373 for compressed air storage and potential cavern volumes that might be generated. The review included  
374 use of a novel technique using Esri's ArcGIS® Geographic Information System software, to derive  
375 potential storage cavern locations and an estimate of the physical volumes that might be available for  
376 storage purposes. The main conclusions from the study are summarised below:

- 377 ○ The study has produced an initial estimate of possible salt storage cavern locations and physical  
378 cavern volumes in the massively bedded Triassic NhW of the Cheshire Basin (Table 2).
- 379 ○ The largest individual cavern volume of 1.015 mcm was found at the depth interval 250-1300m  
380 (also then obviously the 250-1500m depth range). The depth range 250-1500m had the largest  
381 total volume (7930 mcm) and cavern number (16607 caverns). These numbers assume an average  
382 25% insoluble content.
- 383 ○ Infrastructure buffering had a major effect on the total cavern volumes; for the depth range of 500-  
384 1300m the total volume reduced by 73.5% (assuming 25% insoluble content) due to buffering.
- 385 ○ More accurately mapping the insoluble content had a major effect on the total cavern volumes; for  
386 the depth range of 500-1300m the total volume reduced by 19.6% compared to using an average  
387 25% across the whole basin.
- 388 ○ If cavern height is restricted to 100m to align with Huntorf [16] and active gas storage caverns in  
389 the Cheshire Basin (see Table 2), then for the 500-1500 m depth range, there is potential for  
390 approximately 1600 caverns in the Cheshire basin.
- 391 ○ In Cheshire, just 1% of the current available salt could support a viable (100m cavern height)  
392 storage facility and ignoring cavern distribution, there is the potential for upward of 100 new, ~16  
393 cavern, storage facilities within the Cheshire basin.
- 394 ○ Physical cavern volumes can be used in an assessment of the potential exergy storage volume  
395 using caverns for CAES, related to renewable energy or conventional energy sources during off  
396 peak periods [50].

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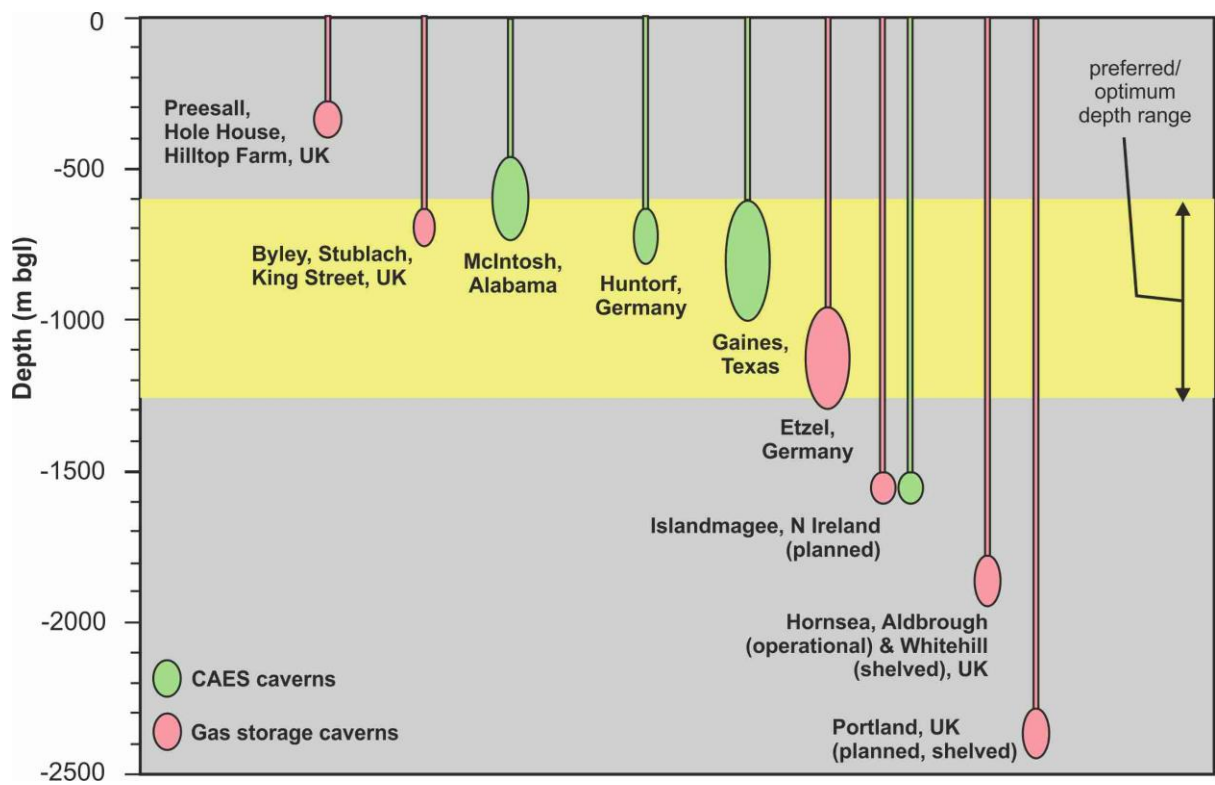
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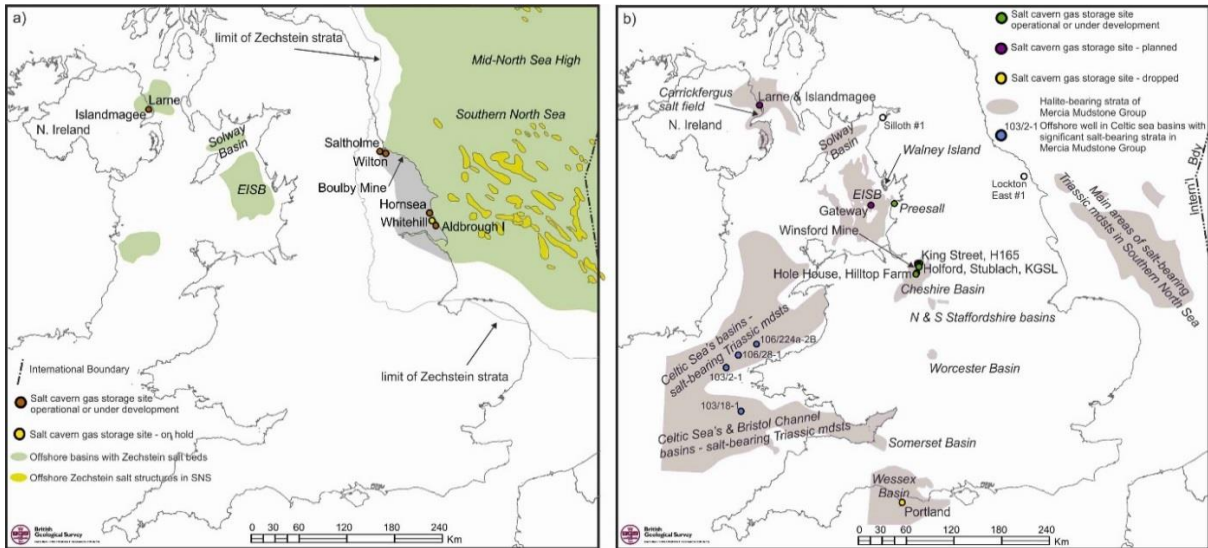
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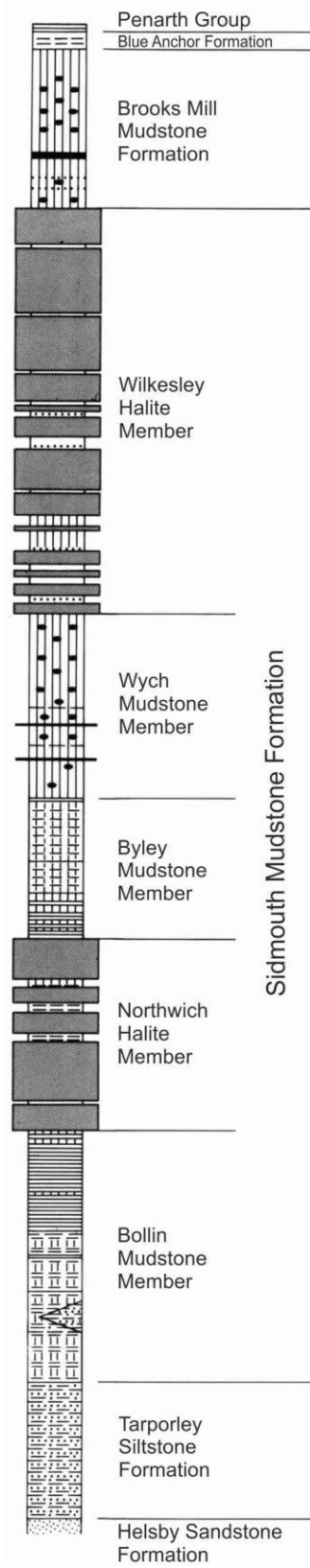


**Figure 1.** Schematic to illustrate the depths of operational and proposed global gas storage caverns in relation to operational and proposed global CAES caverns based on [23].



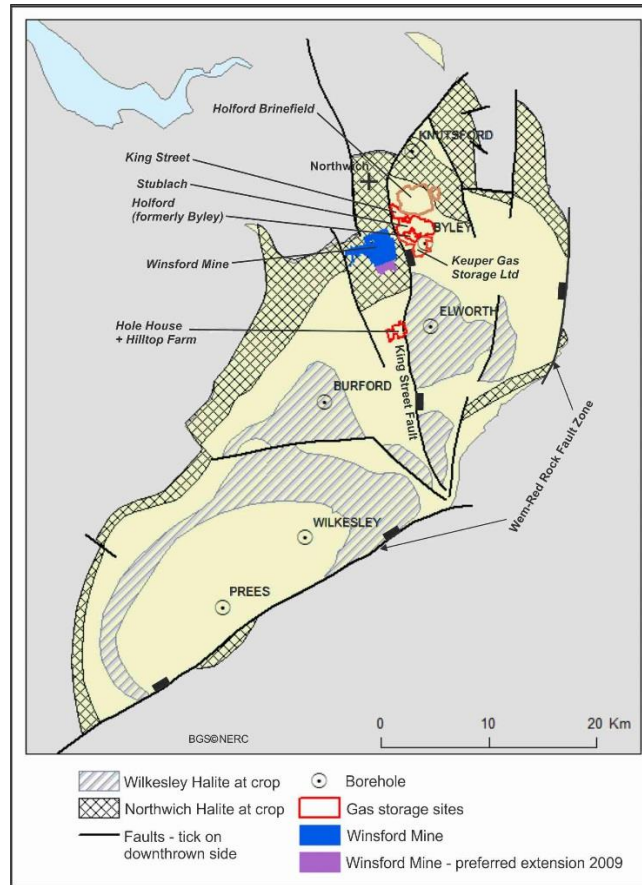


**Figure 2.** General map of UK Permian and Triassic basins containing massively bedded halite deposits and the location of the main UGS facilities (based upon [5]). a) principal Permian salt basins, b) principal Triassic salt basins - note thin, aerially restricted, onshore lateral equivalents of thick offshore Triassic halites, proved in boreholes in eastern England (e.g. Lockton East #1), the Fylde and the Carlisle Basin in NW Cumbria (e.g. Silloth #1), are not shown. Abbreviations: SNS – Southern North Sea, Intern’l Bdy – International Boundary

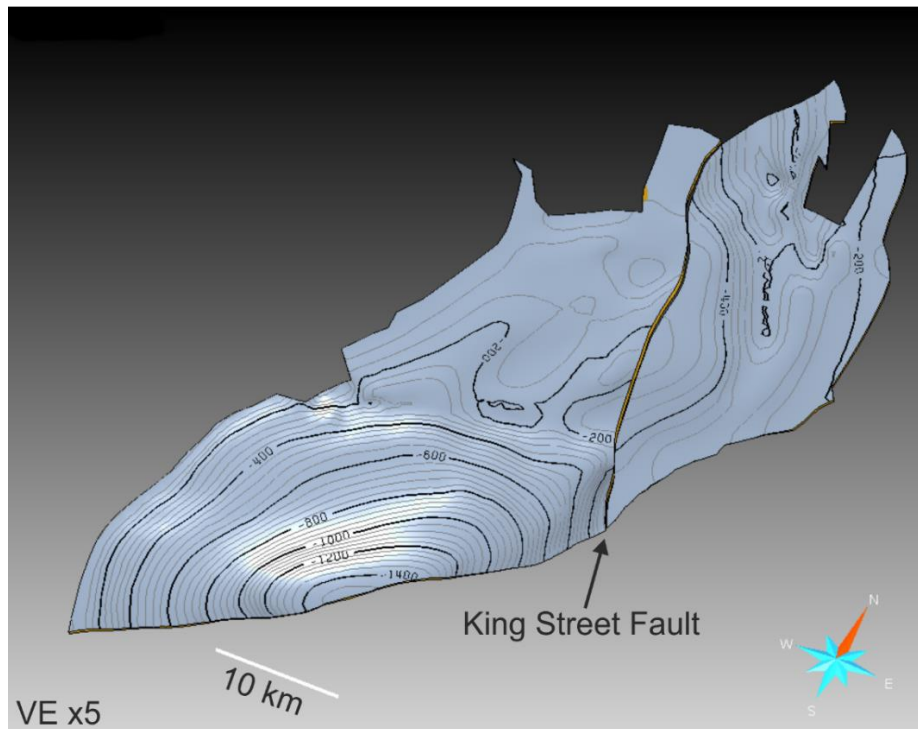


**Figure 3.** The succession in the Mercia Mudstone Group of the Cheshire Basin based upon [28,29,30].

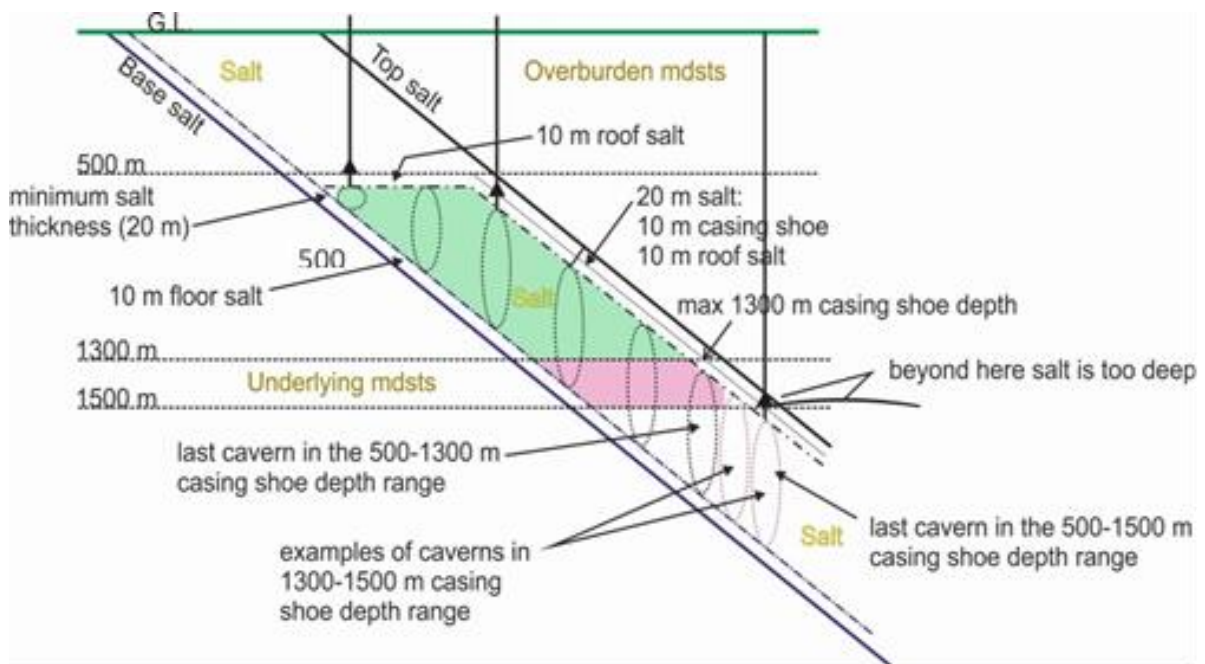




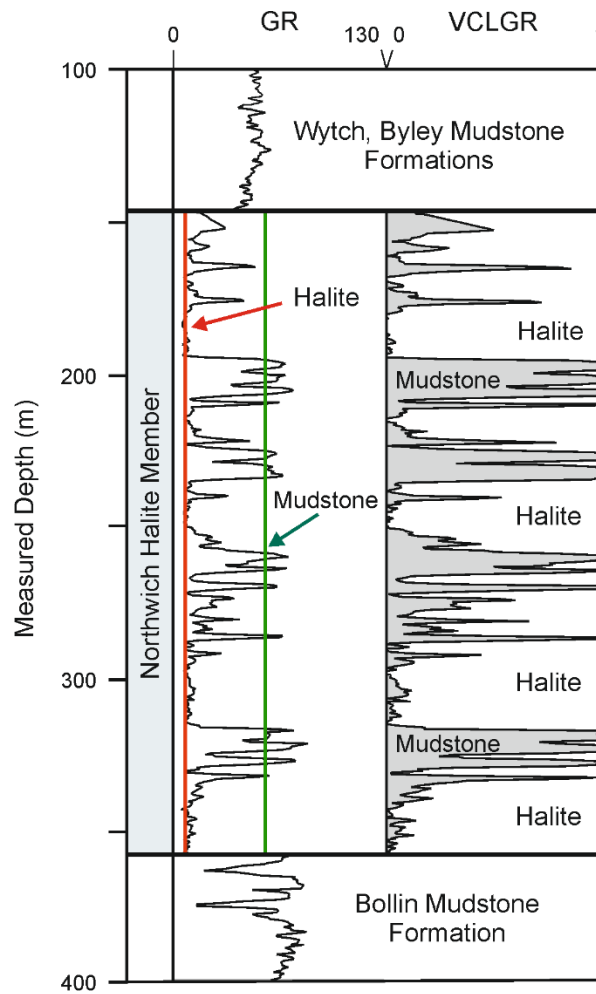
**Figure 4.** General location map of the two main bedded Triassic halites in the Cheshire Basin plus the deep boreholes, working Winsford mine and salt cavern gas storage sites based upon [27].



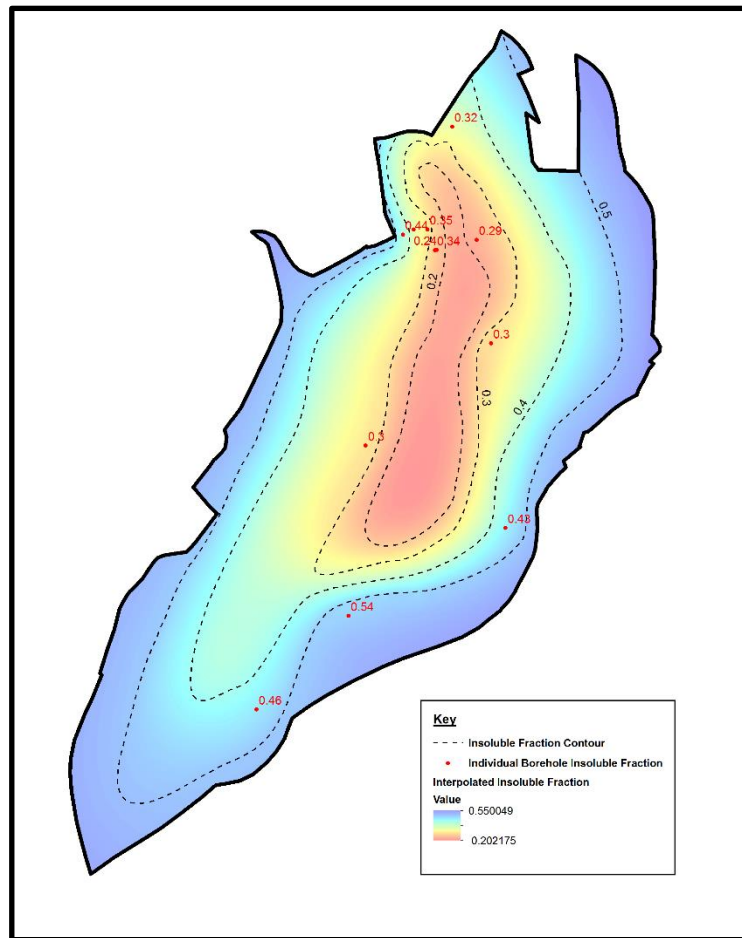
**Figure 5.** Screenshot of the GOCAD model of the depth to top of the Northwich Halite Member. Contours are in metres below ground level.



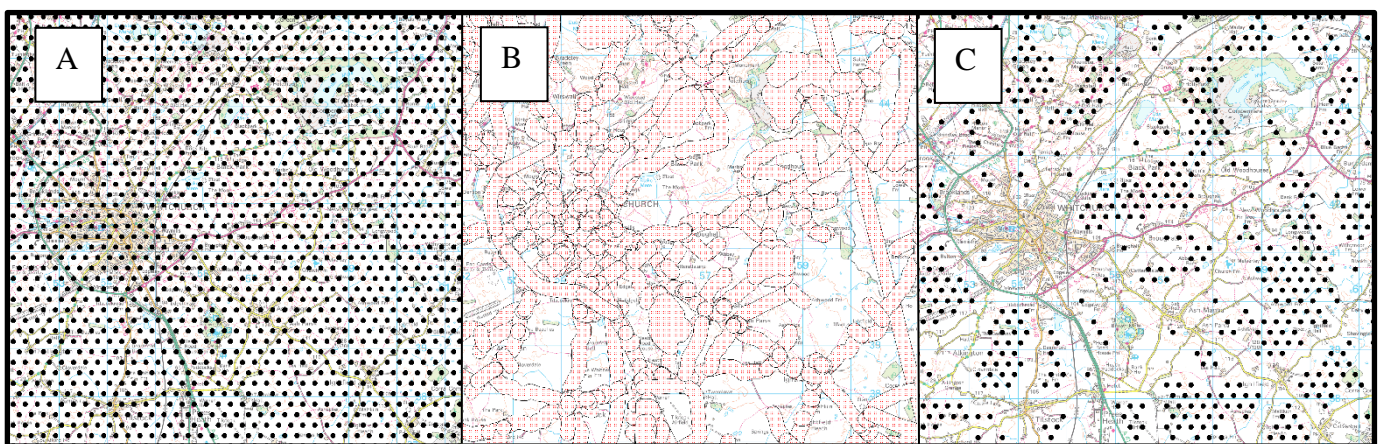
**Figure 6.** Illustration in section of the calculation of the volume of salt available for storage cavern construction in the depth ranges 500-1300 m and 500-1500 m, where casing shoe is set at 500 m, where top halite is greater, a minimum of 10 m into the halite beds.



**Figure 7.** Image showing specification of clean 'halite' and 'clay' left track shows original GR log from Burford 1 well, while right-hand track displays normalised volume of clay log.

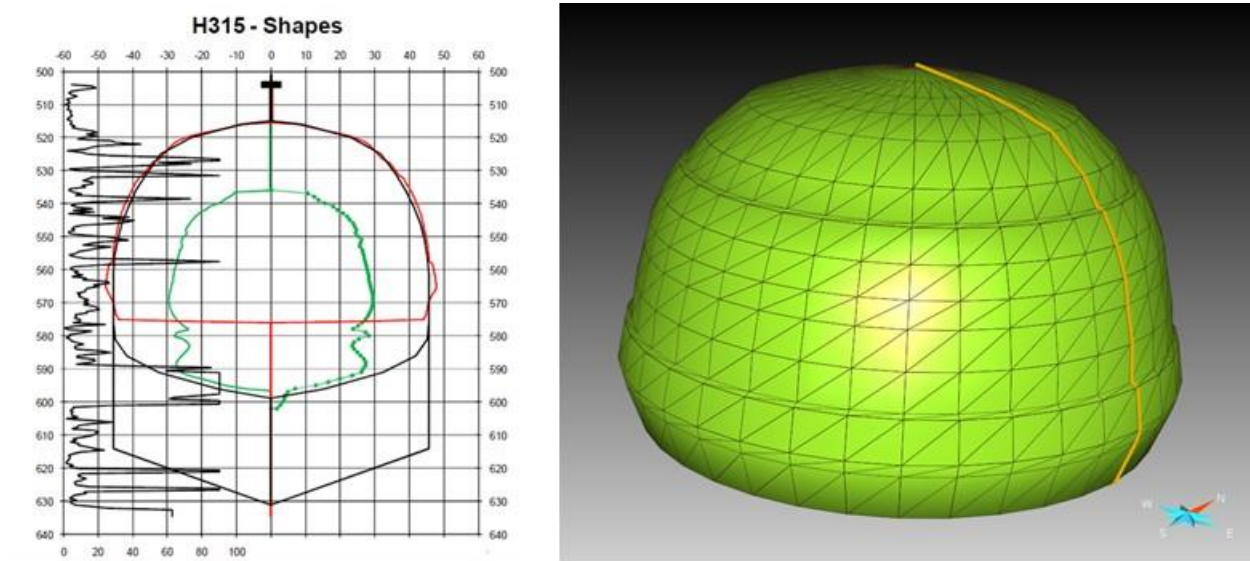


**Figure 8.** Mapped insoluble fraction and distribution in the Northwich Halite Member of the Cheshire Basin



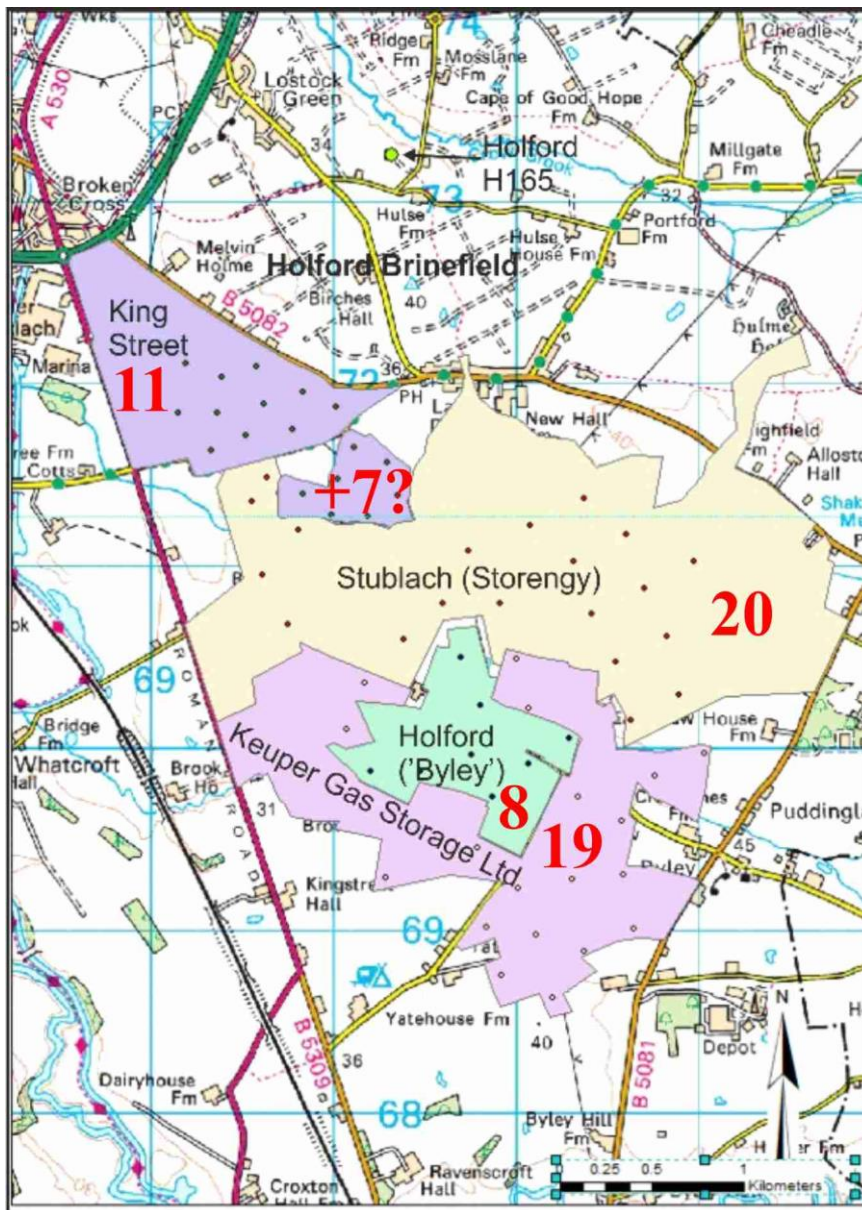
**Figure 9.** Example of buffers applied in an area of the Cheshire Basin to identify potential viable cavern locations and derive possible cavern volumes for CAES and exergy storage

calculations. A – All caverns with no infrastructure consideration. B – Infrastructure buffers. C- Final caverns after removing caverns that are not viable due to lying under infrastructure.



**Figure 10.** Examples of shape of cavern constructed in the Northwich Halite at Stublach based upon [23, 24]. Final 2D cavern shape from cavern H315 (left, red outline) and 3D cavern shape (right), constructed from 2D section (left, red outline). Illustrates the lost volume due to insoluble in the halite beds.





**Figure 11.** Illustration of the areas and cavern numbers of salt cover-hosted gas storage facilities in Cheshire (refer to Table 2). The number of caverns associated with the four storages illustrates the figures calculated for CAES are similar to those resources already developed for individual gas storage, illustrating the potential area that might be involved.

**Table 1.** CAES capital costs after [26].

<b>Geological Storage Type</b>	<b>Storage/reserve capacity cost (\$/kWh)</b>
Salt cavern – solution mining	1-5
Salt ‘cavern’ – dry mining	10
Porous rock – aquifer	0.1
Hard rock – existing mine	10
Hard rock – excavated cavern	30
Abandoned mine – limestone, coalmine etc.	10

**Table 2.** Summary of UK salt cavern gas storage facility design and operational parameters.

Facility/Status/Operator		Number of caverns	Cavern depths – top/base (m, bgl))	Pressure range – min./max. (bar)	Cavern volume – physical (m <sup>3</sup> )	Total cavern volume – physical (mcm)	Working gas volume (mcm)
Operational	<i>Hornsea (Scottish and Southern Energy)</i>	9	~1780-1830 – 1880-1930	Min = 120 Max = 270	~220,000	~1.98	325
	<i>Aldbrough I (Statoil and Scottish &amp; Southern Energy)</i>	9	~1780-1830 – 1880-1930	Min = 120 Max = 270	~270,000	~2.43	325
	<i>Holford H165 (Ineos Enterprises)</i>	1	350/420	Min = ~70 Max = 85	175,000	0.175	3.83
	<i>Hole House (EDF Trading)</i>	4	300/400	Not available	Not available	Not available	50-75
	<i>Hilltop Farm/Hole House ext. (EDF Trading)</i>	10	~240-380	Min = 29 Max = 45	600,000-650,000	~6.25	100
	<i>Holford (EON Gas Storage UK)</i>	8	570-610/670-700	Min = 40 Max = 105	~370,000	~2.96	160
	<i>Stublach (Storengy)</i>	20	~500/600	Min = 30 Max = 101	~330,000	~6.60	400
Under construction or consented	<i>Gateway (Gateway Gas Storage Ltd)</i>	20	~624	Min = 36 Max = 120	~1,000,000	~20	1500
	<i>Islandmagee (Islandmagee Storage Limited)</i>	7	~1500	Min = 120 Max = 250	480,000	~3.36	500
	<i>Whitehill (EON Gas Storage UK)</i>	10	~ 1730-1830	Min = 100 Max = 345	250,000	~2.50	400
	<i>King Street Energy (King Street Energy Ltd)</i>	11 (+7?)	~320-420	Min = not known Max = 66	500,000-850,000	~5.50	348-630
	<i>Preesall (Halite Energy Ltd)</i>	19	340-456/413-618	Min = 33 Max = 92	58,000-860,000	6.8	324
	<i>Keuper Gas Storage (Keuper Gas Storage Ltd)</i>	19	~650-750	Min. = 43.8 Max. = 123	314,000	~5.97	500
	<i>Portland (Portland Gas)</i>	8	~ 2400/2500	Min = brine hydrostatic (halmostatic) pressure Max = 440	~250,000	2.00	1000
<b>Totals</b>		155			5,159,000	66.53	5,886

**Table 3.** Summary of cavern numbers and volumes for the various depth ranges 250-1500 m, using two different insolubles values to calculate remaining cavern (physical) volumes. Volumes quoted are in million cubic metres (mcm).



		Depths of casing shoe											
		250-1300m			250-1500m			500-1300m			500-1500m		
		Range (mcm)	Total (mcm)	Number	Range (mcm)	Total (mcm)	Number	Range (mcm)	Total (mcm)	Number	Range (mcm)	Total (mcm)	Number
25% Average Insolubles	Full	0.075-1.015	7,710	16,151	0.075-1.015	7,930	16,607	0.076-0.882	3,750	7,356	0.076-0.882	3,980	7,835
	Reduced	0.076-0.982	1,830	3,880	0.076-0.982	1,900	4,034	0.086-0.877	992.0	1,936	0.086-0.877	1,070	2,099
Mapped Insolubles	Full	0.036-1.032	6,200	16,151	0.036-1.032	6,320	16,607	0.045-0.919	2,920	7,356	0.045-0.919	3,050	7,835
	Reduced	0.036-0.994	1,400	3,880	0.036-0.994	1,440	4,034	0.045-0.918	734.0	1,936	0.045-0.918	777.0	2,099