



## Research papers

# Effect of relative permeability hysteresis on reservoir simulation of underground hydrogen storage in an offshore aquifer

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## ABSTRACT

Underground hydrogen storage (UHS) in porous media is proposed to balance seasonal fluctuations between demand and supply in an emerging hydrogen economy. Despite increasing focus on the topic worldwide, the understanding of hydrogen flow in porous media is still not adequate. In particular, relative permeability hysteresis and its impact on the storage performance require detailed investigations due to the cyclic nature of H<sub>2</sub> injection and withdrawal. We focus our analysis on reservoir simulation of an offshore aquifer setting, where we use history matched relative permeability to study the effect of hysteresis and gas type on the storage efficiency. We find that omission of relative permeability hysteresis overestimates the annual working gas capacity by 34 % and the recovered hydrogen volume by 85 %. The UHS performance is similar to natural gas storage when using hysteretic hydrogen relative permeability. Nitrogen relative permeability can be used to model the UHS when hysteresis is ignored, but at the cost of the accuracy of the bottom-hole pressure predictions. Our results advance the understanding of the UHS reservoir modeling approaches.

## 1. Introduction

Hydrogen (H<sub>2</sub>) will play a vital role in the future net-zero energy mix and its industrial scale-up will require a range of storage solutions in all dimensions and time scales. Underground H<sub>2</sub> storage (UHS) has been proposed as one storage option which can account for seasonal and regional variations in demand and supply [1]. The H<sub>2</sub> storage demand in Europe in 2050 is expected to be in the range of 63–180 billion Sm<sup>3</sup> (standard cubic meter) under the assumption of 780–2251 TWh total demand [2] and 24 % storage capacity [3]. Relevant underground storage formations include salt caverns, depleted hydrocarbon fields and aquifers [4] as well as more unconventional storage sites such as coal seams and basaltic rocks [5,6]. Salt caverns can accommodate smaller H<sub>2</sub> volumes to meet short-term storage needs, whereas porous reservoirs (i.e. depleted fields and aquifers) can be suitable for larger H<sub>2</sub> volumes in the long-term. Most potential storage sites are considered onshore, but offshore H<sub>2</sub> storage in the North Sea is attractive with regards to existing infrastructure and a growing offshore wind industry [7]. Water electrolysis can use wind-based excess electricity to produce H<sub>2</sub> that can be stored underground for later use.

Technically, the UHS is similar to natural gas storage (UGS) with gas injection at peak supply, followed by gas withdrawal at peak demand in

repeatable annual cycles. To maintain a stable pressure support during withdrawal, cushion gas is required to remain in the reservoir while working gas is cyclically injected and withdrawn [1]. The cushion and working gases can be the same or differ in its type. Pure H<sub>2</sub> has never been stored in porous reservoirs at commercial scale, with town gas storage in aquifers in the 1970s [8,9] and two recent pilot tests of H<sub>2</sub> blends in depleted gas fields [10,11].

Despite technical similarities, low H<sub>2</sub> density and viscosity coupled with high biogeochemical activity hampers direct knowledge transfer [4,12]. H<sub>2</sub> wettability, biogeochemical interactions and reservoir simulations are currently dominating the research literature. It was found out that H<sub>2</sub> is a non-wetting phase in sandstones with pure quartz surfaces and is less wetting than CO<sub>2</sub> [13–16]. An empirical equation of H<sub>2</sub>-brine interfacial tension was derived from experimental measurements under a range of pressure, temperature and brine salinity conditions [17]. Evaluation of caprock interfacial tension and wettability for H<sub>2</sub> storage showed that caprock integrity decreased with increasing pressure, temperature, organic acid concentration and total organic content [18,19]. H<sub>2</sub> geochemical reactivity was suppressed in calcite- and anhydrite-free sandstones [20–22]. Reservoir simulations showed that the UHS performed differently than CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> storage when comparing gas containment and working capacity [23].

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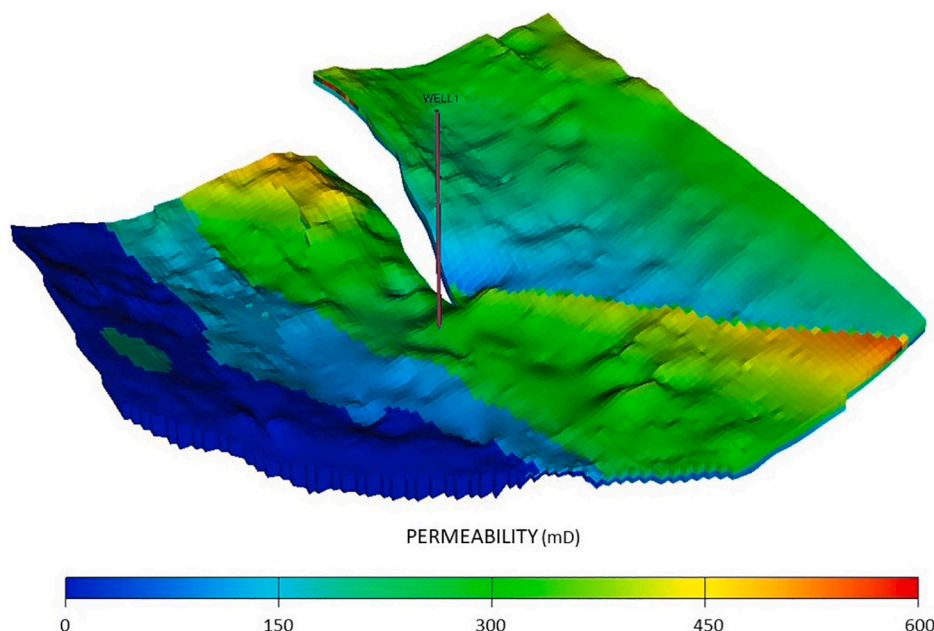
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**Fig. 1.** A sector model of the Johansen formation with the well location and horizontal permeability distribution. The lateral extent of the sector model is around 50 km  $\times$  50 km, with the average grid size of 500 m  $\times$  500 m  $\times$  20 m. Shale layers above the Johansen formation are not shown. The vertical distance is 10 times exaggerated.

Reservoir simulation is a valuable and time efficient tool for decision making and predicting future storage performance under different reservoir management strategies. The UHS reservoir simulation studies mostly focused on feasible strategies to estimate the ultimate H<sub>2</sub> recovery and the impact of cushion gas. The maximum recovery factor of 78 % was achieved for single cycles in a saline aquifer, with the highest H<sub>2</sub> saturation in the near-well area and the reservoir top [24]. H<sub>2</sub> storage in a depleted oil and gas field showed that the gas zone was the most suitable target with a final recovery factor of 87 %, that was reduced to 49 % in the water zone [25]. The cushion-to-working gas ratio varied between 0.15 and 1.5 in a saline aquifer, being the lowest in deeper reservoirs with higher permeability [26]. Among different types of cushion gases: CH<sub>4</sub>, N<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub>, the highest H<sub>2</sub> recovery factor (90 %) was achieved with CH<sub>4</sub> in a depleted oil reservoir [27], whereas N<sub>2</sub> was the most effective cushion gas in a partially depleted gas condensate reservoir with the H<sub>2</sub> recovery factor of 98 % [28]. Screening criteria for site selection were proposed based on the reservoir pressure, dipping angle, storage depth, geothermal gradient and permeability and porosity range [29].

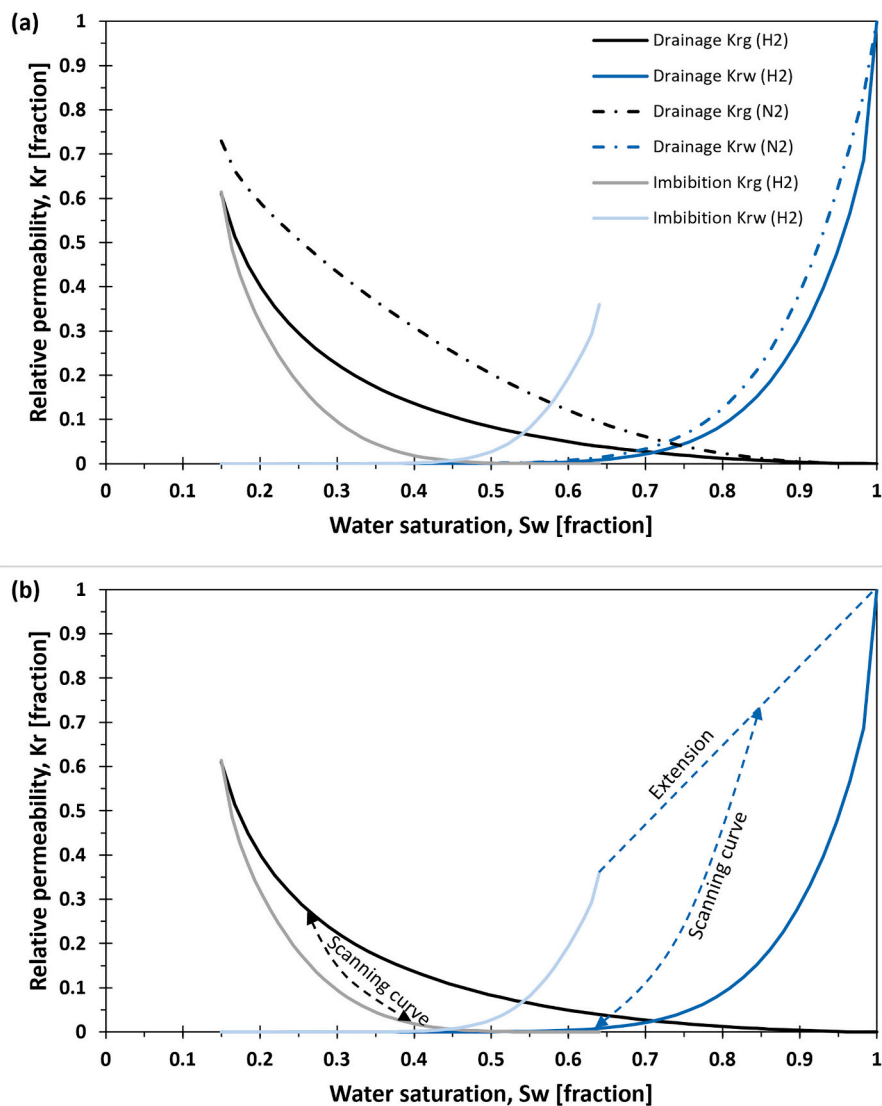
Most UHS studies implemented nonhysteretic relative permeability in reservoir models, not specifically measured for H<sub>2</sub>. Despite being more reliable than analytical methods, the reservoir models require real field and/or experimental data for more accurate predictions. It is still debated whether a proxy gas can be used to accurately model H<sub>2</sub> behavior. The gas-water injection experiments in sandstone core samples showed that N<sub>2</sub> is a poor proxy gas for H<sub>2</sub> [30,31], or it should be used with care [32]. In contrast, the opposite conclusion was drawn from another study stating that N<sub>2</sub> can be used as a proxy gas [33]. On the other hand, cyclic H<sub>2</sub> injection and withdrawal will result in reversible drainage and imbibition processes in the reservoir, indicating that relative permeability hysteresis must be considered in reservoir simulations. Measurements of H<sub>2</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>O drainage and imbibition relative permeability confirmed strong hysteresis both for H<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O [32,34].

Reservoir simulation studies on the impact of H<sub>2</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>O relative permeability hysteresis are scarce. Hysteresis was considered in an aquifer H<sub>2</sub> storage study [35] where relative permeability and capillary pressure were derived from an analytical van Genuchten–Mualem model aimed to represent a typical gas-H<sub>2</sub>O system in a sandstone. The relative

permeability model resulted in a pronounced gas hysteresis, whereas H<sub>2</sub>O showed a minor difference between drainage and imbibition. The impact of hysteresis on H<sub>2</sub> storage efficiency was not evaluated as the model did not include a nonhysteretic case for comparison. One of the first attempts to study the impact of hysteresis on H<sub>2</sub> storage was performed in a synthetic aquifer reservoir [36]. The authors used the experimentally measured drainage H<sub>2</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>O relative permeability [37] and the Killough model [38] to construct imbibition H<sub>2</sub> relative permeability, but hysteresis in H<sub>2</sub>O relative permeability and capillary pressure was neglected. Another study of aquifer storage implemented both H<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O relative permeability hysteresis [39], derived from pore scale modeling without experimental support [40]. A more recent study [41] implemented the measured hysteretic H<sub>2</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>O relative permeability [34], and performed an analytical extrapolation beyond experimental endpoints. No history matching of experimental pressure and production data was performed to confirm the analytical extrapolation and capillary pressure hysteresis was neglected. For imbibition H<sub>2</sub>O relative permeability, they could not find a reliable analytical model and used tabulated experimental data instead.

The abovementioned studies agreed that the absence of relative permeability hysteresis overestimated the H<sub>2</sub> recovery factor but disagreed in terms of H<sub>2</sub>O production. The performance of H<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> storage were significantly different [39], and CO<sub>2</sub> relative permeability cannot be used as a proxy to model the UHS [41]. Note that impact of hysteresis has been extensively investigated for CO<sub>2</sub> storage, indicating that hysteresis is necessary for more accurate modeling approaches [42–45]. Experiences from CO<sub>2</sub> hysteresis studies are not directly applicable for H<sub>2</sub> storage due to the absence of CO<sub>2</sub> withdrawal stage.

In this paper, we use reservoir simulation to study the UHS in an offshore aquifer. We implement the measured hysteretic H<sub>2</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>O relative permeability and capillary pressure with numerical extrapolation from history matching of experimental production and pressure data [32], thus being a more accurate input for reservoir simulations. The Johansen sandstone formation was selected as a storage site with a real geological model built for CO<sub>2</sub> storage studies on the Norwegian continental shelf [46]. We examine the impact of hysteresis and a proxy gas relative permeability on the UHS and compare the results with CH<sub>4</sub> storage. Our findings emphasize the importance of relative permeability



**Fig. 2.** Input relative permeability curves and hysteresis model used in the simulations. (a)  $H_2$ - $H_2O$  (solid curves) and  $N_2$ - $H_2O$  (dashed curves) relative permeabilities were directly taken from the literature dataset, derived from experimental measurements and numerical history matching [32]. The drainage  $H_2$  ( $K_{rg}$ ) and  $H_2O$  ( $K_{rw}$ ) curves are represented by black and dark blue colour, respectively; whereas the imbibition  $K_{rg}$  and  $K_{rw}$  are denoted by grey and light blue, respectively. For drainage, the endpoint  $K_{rg}^*$  at irreducible  $H_2O$  saturation of 0.15 are equal to 0.61 and 0.73 for  $H_2$  and  $N_2$ , respectively. For imbibition, the endpoint  $K_{rw}^*$  at residual  $H_2$  saturation of 0.36 is equal to 0.36. (b) Killough hysteresis model applied to input  $H_2$ - $H_2O$  relative permeability. The dashed curves with arrows represent typical scanning curves starting at arbitrary points. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

hysteresis for accurate modeling of underground  $H_2$  storage in reservoirs.

## 2. Numerical methods

### 2.1. The Johansen simulation model

The Johansen formation on the Norwegian continental shelf was selected as a storage site in our study. We used an open-license geological sector model with heterogenous porosity and horizontal permeability distribution of 0.1–0.29 (average 0.15) and 0.01–875 (average 97) mD, respectively [46]. The vertical permeability was set to 10% of the horizontal one. The sector model was discretized into  $100 \times 100 \times 11$  grid cells with an average grid size of  $500 \text{ m} \times 500 \text{ m} \times 20 \text{ m}$  (Fig. 1). The sandstone reservoir was represented by five grid layers, vertically connected to five shale layers above and one shale layer below the reservoir. The model was constructed with a non-zero dipping angle and five faults with the transmissibility multipliers of 0.1. A more detailed description of the Johansen formation and its geological model can be found elsewhere [47].

We used a commercial black-oil ECLIPSE reservoir simulator to construct a dynamic model of the Johansen formation. The model was

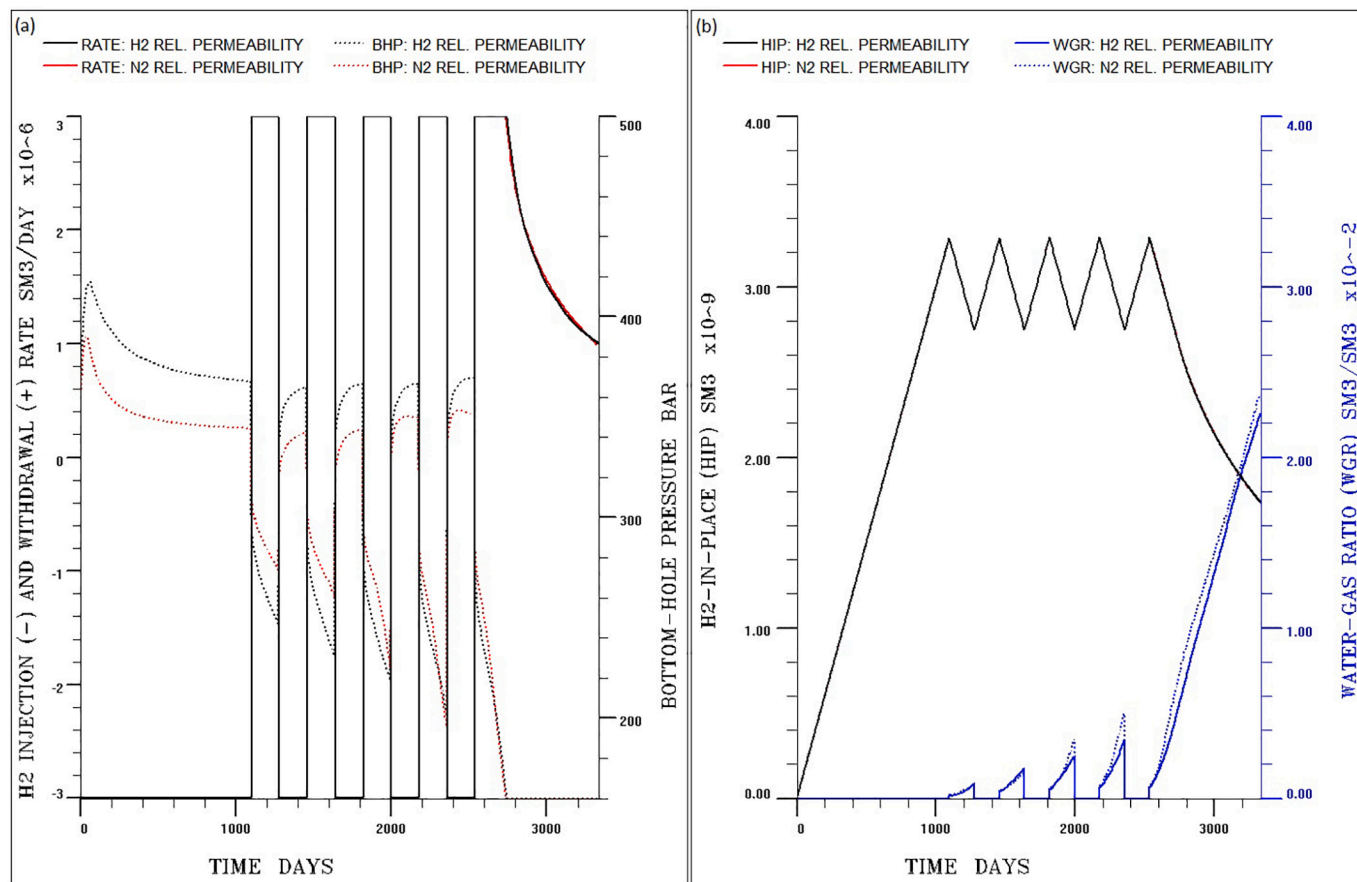
governed by Darcy's law and mass conservation and contained two components: gas and water. Diffusion, dissolution and biogeochemical reactions were not included to focus on the UHS hydrodynamics. The model was initiated with no-flow boundary conditions and pressure of 313.1 bar at 3100 m true vertical depth. The gas and water densities and viscosities were extracted from an open-source database for a pressure range of 50–500 bar and reservoir temperature of 94 °C [48]. Relative permeability and capillary pressure were directly taken from the literature  $H_2$  dataset, derived from history matched experimental measurements in a sandstone with permeability of 107 mD [32]. The rock type and its permeability are comparable to the Johansen sandstone reservoir with the average model permeability of 97 mD, making the literature dataset reliable for our  $H_2$  storage study. Both nonhysteretic and hysteretic relative permeabilities and capillary pressures were considered, described next.

### 2.2. Relative permeability hysteresis model

Drainage relative permeability and capillary pressure functions were implemented in a nonhysteretic case, where two different sets of relative permeabilities were tested:  $H_2$ - $H_2O$  and  $N_2$ - $H_2O$  (Fig. 2a). In a hysteretic case, drainage and imbibition relative permeability and capillary

**Table 1**  
Summary results of H<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> storage schemes with different relative permeability (K<sub>r</sub>) input.

Gas type	Input K <sub>r</sub>	Gas withdrawn [Million Sm <sup>3</sup> ]					Gas recovery factor	
		1st cycle	2nd cycle	3rd cycle	4th cycle	5th cycle	1st cycle	Final
H <sub>2</sub>	Drainage H <sub>2</sub> -H <sub>2</sub> O	540	540	540	540	1560	16 %	68 %
H <sub>2</sub>	Drainage N <sub>2</sub> -H <sub>2</sub> O	540	540	540	540	1550	16 %	68 %
H <sub>2</sub>	Hysteretic H <sub>2</sub> -H <sub>2</sub> O	451	390	388	393	391	14 %	37 %
CH <sub>4</sub>	Hysteretic H <sub>2</sub> -H <sub>2</sub> O	436	378	376	380	380	13 %	37 %



**Fig. 3.** Nonhysteretic case of H<sub>2</sub> storage with two different simulation inputs: H<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> relative permeabilities. (a) H<sub>2</sub> injection (negative values) and withdrawal (positive values, solid curves on the primary x-axis) rates and the bottom-hole pressure (BHP, dashed curves on the secondary x-axis). The first injection period lasted for 1095 days, and the prolonged fifth withdrawal period began after 2538 days. The constant injection/withdrawal rates of 3 million Sm<sup>3</sup>/d were maintained until the prolonged fifth withdrawal period, characterized by a rate reduction due to a BHP limit of 180 bar. (b) H<sub>2</sub> volume in place (HIP, black and red curves on the primary x-axis) and water-gas ratio (WGR, blue curves on the secondary x-axis). The HIP remained in the same range during the cyclic injection and withdrawal, whereas the WGR increased with the increasing number of cycles. The H<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> relative permeabilities showed similar results, except for the BHP development. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

pressure were applied for both gas and water using the Killough hysteresis model [38]. The hysteresis model implies that relative permeability functions follow a scanning curve when drainage or imbibition processes are reversed (Fig. 2b). The same scanning curve is applied for both drainage and imbibition when the injection process is reversed at any point on the scanning curve. Non-wetting phase (H<sub>2</sub>) scanning curves are calculated based on an interpolative method that requires Land trapping model [49] and bounding drainage and imbibition curves as input. In the absence of experimental bounding data, the scanning curves can be estimated using a parametric interpolation method, which requires an input free parameter. In our case, the ECLIPSE simulator generated scanning curves from experimental drainage and imbibition data [32]. Wetting phase (H<sub>2</sub>O) scanning curves additionally require a free parameter (set to 1 in our model), even if experimental bounding

curves are given. The H<sub>2</sub>O scanning curve may deviate beyond a region enclosed by the drainage and imbibition curves if the imbibition curve initial gradient is small. To keep H<sub>2</sub>O scanning curve inside the region of drainage and imbibition curves, the ECLIPSE simulator runs a correction scheme based on the reduced portion of the imbibition curve.

### 2.3. Storage scenarios

We evaluated four storage scenarios with both nonhysteretic and hysteretic relative permeability curves (Table 1). In the nonhysteretic cases, we examined the effect of relative permeability on the H<sub>2</sub> storage performance by comparing two different inputs: drainage H<sub>2</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>O and N<sub>2</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>O relative permeabilities. In the hysteretic cases, the same set of drainage and imbibition H<sub>2</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>O relative permeabilities was



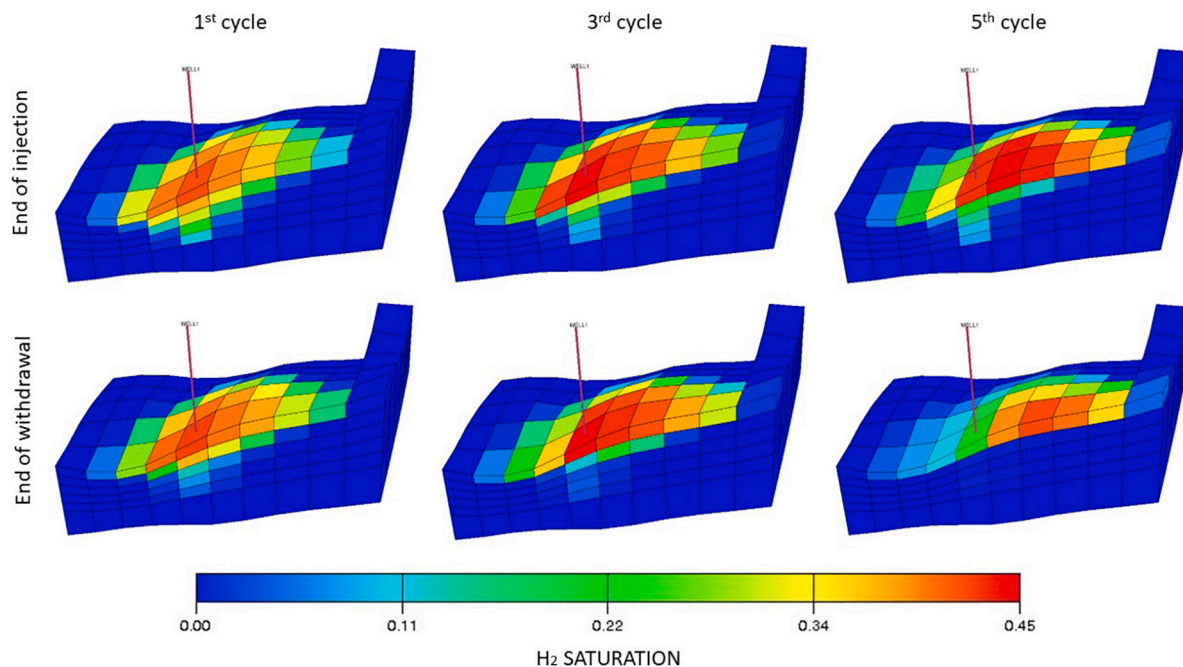


Fig. 4. Vertical slice of the 3D simulation grid part showing H<sub>2</sub> distribution by the end of injection (top) and by the end of withdrawal (bottom) after the 1st, 3rd and 5th cycles in the nonhysteretic case. The H<sub>2</sub> plume formed a cone-like shape with a stable lateral extent which contracted vertically during withdrawal, with the highest H<sub>2</sub> saturation at the top well perforation. Vertical distance is 10-times exaggerated.

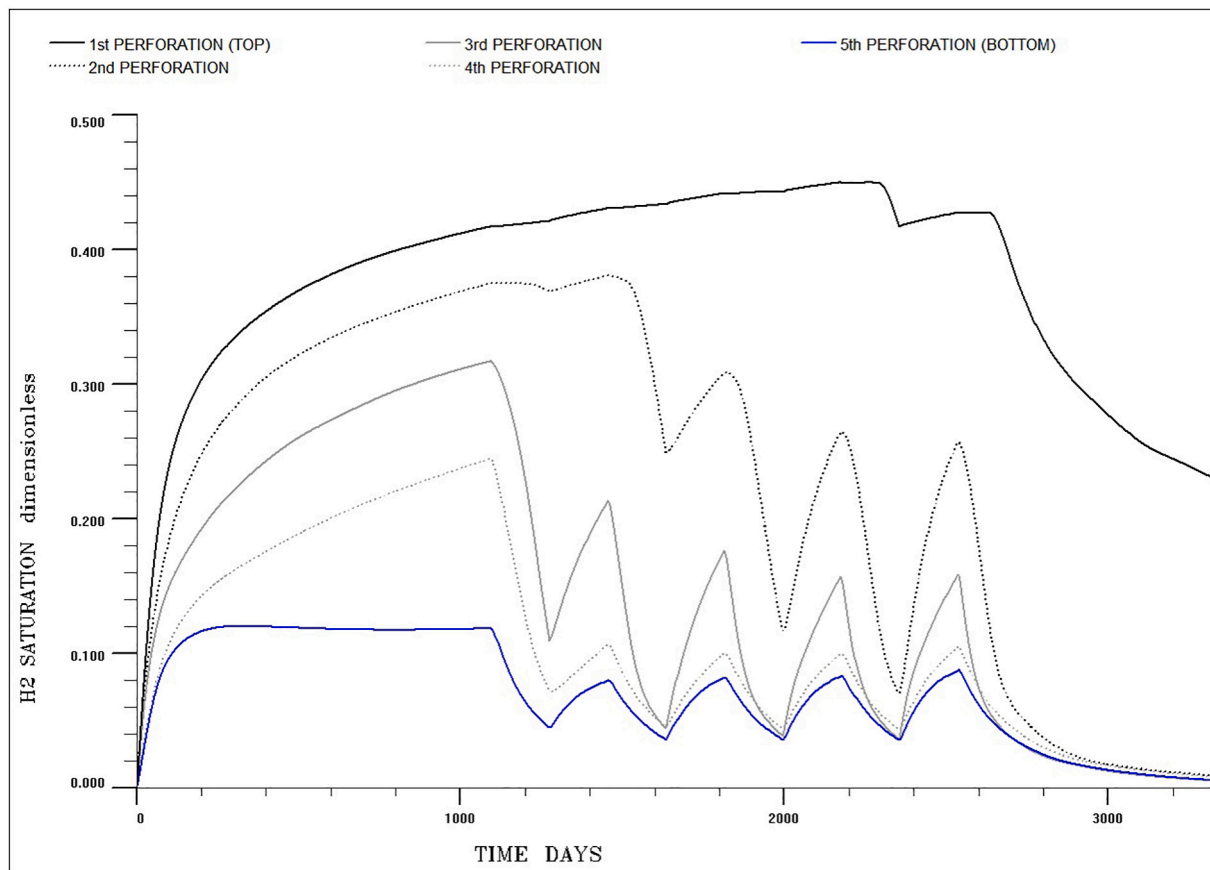
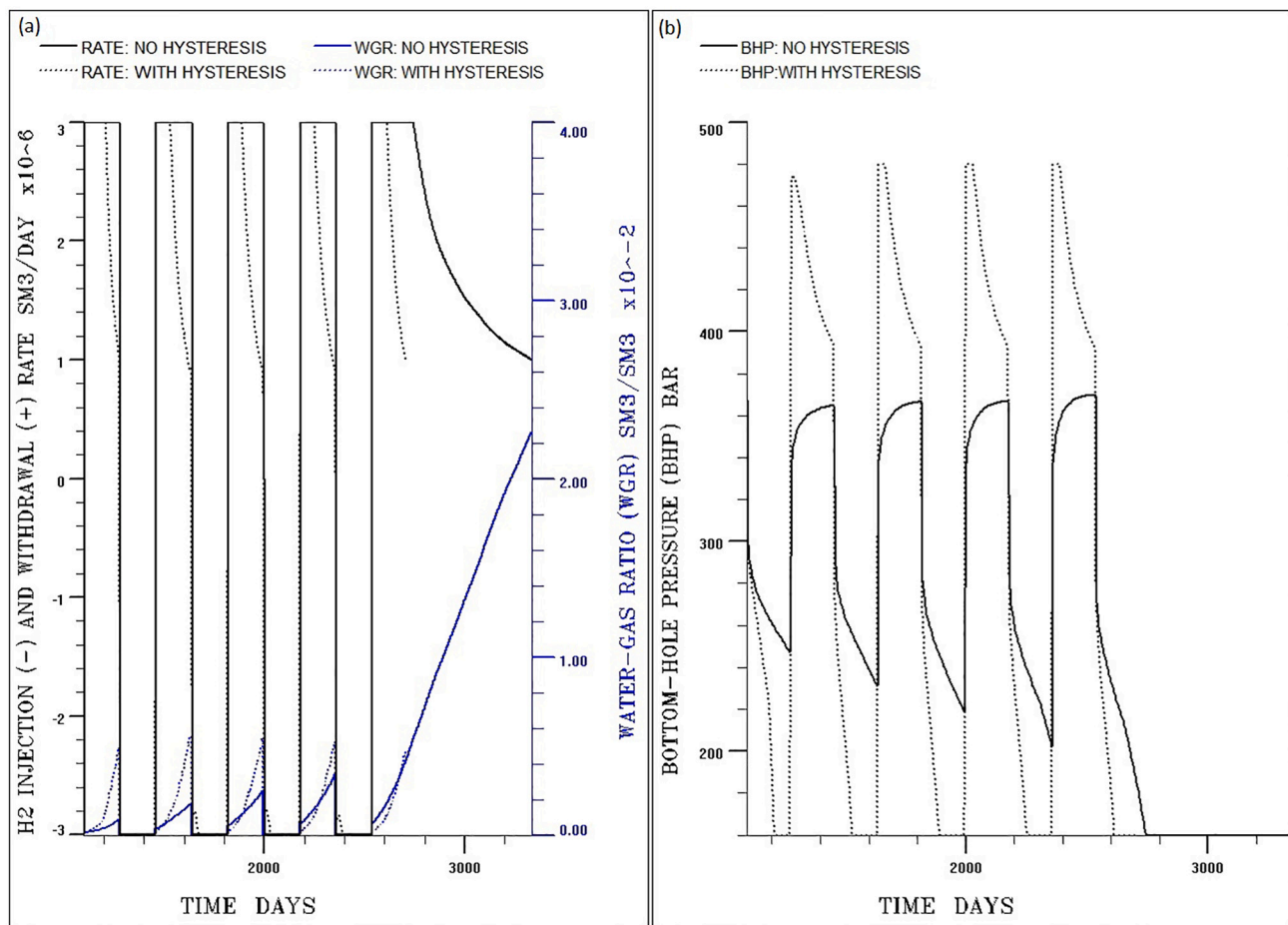


Fig. 5. H<sub>2</sub> saturation in the well perforations, numbered from top (1st) to bottom (5th). The H<sub>2</sub> saturation increased with increasing number of cycles in the 1st perforation but decreased in the 2nd and 3rd perforations due to water upconing.



**Fig. 6.** Effect of relative permeability hysteresis on the storage performance. (a) H<sub>2</sub> injection (negative values) and withdrawal (positive values, black curves on the primary x-axis) rates and water-gas ratio (WGR, blue curves on the secondary x-axis). (b) Bottom-hole pressure (BHP). The hysteresis resulted in lower withdrawal and injection rates caused by the lower and upper BHP limits, respectively. The WGR increased and remained nearly constant in the hysteretic case. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

implemented to compare the H<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> storage.

All storage scenarios followed the same operation scheme: Five injection-withdrawal cycles at the rate of 3 million Sm<sup>3</sup>/d, with H<sub>2</sub> acting as both cushion and working gas. The first cycle started with a 36-month long initial filling with gas, followed by a six-month withdrawal period. The three subsequent cycles were repeated annually, with equally long injection and withdrawal periods of six months. The fifth cycle consisted of a six-month injection period, followed by a prolonged withdrawal period until the economic limit of 1 million Sm<sup>3</sup>/d was reached [25]. A single vertical well for injection and withdrawal was placed in the center of the reservoir model through the five grid blocks where the permeability and porosity ranged between 74 and 278 mD and 0.17–0.21, respectively. The well operation was controlled by the bottom-hole pressure (BHP), constrained to 480 and 160 bar during injection and withdrawal, respectively. The BHP constraints were equal to  $\pm 50\%$  of the initial reservoir pressure where the upper BHP limit was below the typical fracture pressure on the Norwegian continental shelf [50]. When the BHP limits were reached, the injection/withdrawal rates were reduced to maintain constant BHP.

### 3. Results and discussion

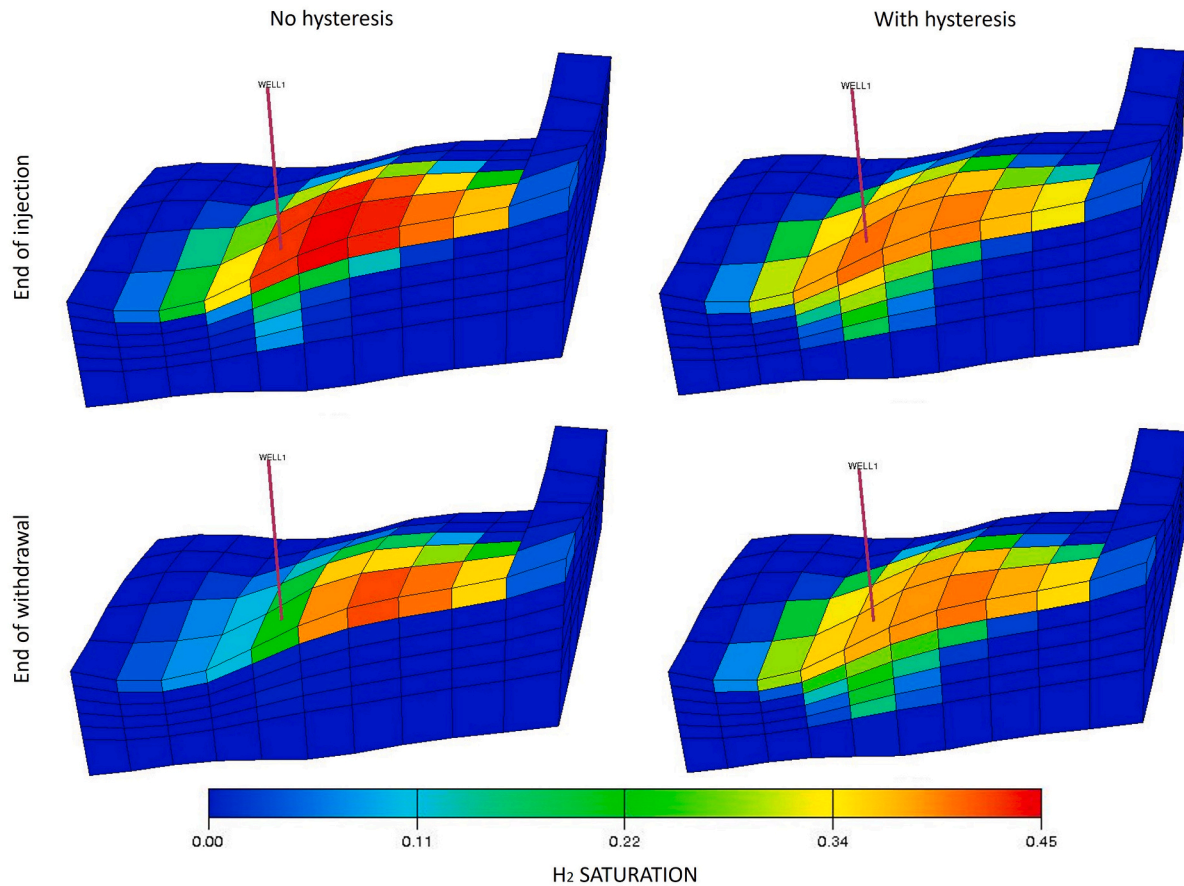
#### 3.1. Maximum working gas capacity and recovery factor

The first injection period maintained a pre-defined H<sub>2</sub> injection rate of 3 million Sm<sup>3</sup>/d, but with a nonmonotonic BHP (Fig. 3a). An initial

sharp increase in BHP by 110 bar from the initial reservoir pressure reversed to a gradually declining trend as the H<sub>2</sub> plume expanded away from the injector. The withdrawal periods were characterized by an initial sharp decrease in BHP, followed by a more gradual trend. The endpoint BHP decreased with an increasing number of cycles, due to increasing water production with a resulting increase in the bottom-hole saturation of incompressible water (Fig. 3b).

The maximum working gas capacity was 540 million Sm<sup>3</sup> (~1.6 TWh) in all six-month withdrawal periods, achieved with nonhysteretic H<sub>2</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>O relative permeability (Table 1). The working gas capacity was equivalent to 16 % of the total H<sub>2</sub> volume injected during the first injection period and corresponded to 0.9 % of the predicted lower-end H<sub>2</sub> storage demand in Europe in 2050 [3]. The working-to-total gas volume ratio was consistent with the reported literature range of ~15–30 % when using H<sub>2</sub> cushion gas in aquifer storage [23–25,36]. Note that the working gas capacity increases if H<sub>2</sub> is replaced by other cushion gases, albeit with a decrease in H<sub>2</sub> fraction in the withdrawn gas mixture [25,27,36].

The maximum final H<sub>2</sub> recovery factor was 68 % by the end of the prolonged fifth withdrawal period which lasted for 795 days until an economic limit of 1 million Sm<sup>3</sup>/d was reached (Table 1, Fig. 3a). Constant withdrawal rate of 3 million Sm<sup>3</sup>/d was maintained for 207 days, followed by a declining rate due to the lower BHP limit. Comparable recovery factors (69–75 %) were reported for aquifer storage where the BHP upper limit was set to  $\geq 50\%$  of the initial reservoir pressure [36,51]. In contrast, a significantly lower recovery factor (49



**Fig. 7.** Effect of relative permeability hysteresis on the H<sub>2</sub> distribution by the end of injection (top) and by the end of withdrawal (bottom) after the 5th cycle in the nonhysteretic (left) and hysteretic cases (right). After injection, the H<sub>2</sub> saturation was more concentrated in the near-well area in the nonhysteretic case due to decreased residual trapping. After withdrawal, the H<sub>2</sub> saturation accumulated in all perforated layers in the hysteretic case due to less H<sub>2</sub> volume withdrawn.

%) was estimated for the isolated water zone in a depleted hydrocarbon field because the upper BHP limit was set to the initial reservoir pressure [25]. Discrepancies in the recovery factors show that the BHP constraints are among the crucial parameters affecting the H<sub>2</sub> storage efficiency.

### 3.1.1. Effect of proxy gas relative permeability

N<sub>2</sub> relative permeability was evaluated as the simulation input and showed no significant impact on working gas capacity and recovery (Table 1, Fig. 3). An initial 10 % decrease in BHP during the first injection period diminished with an increasing number of cycles to a 5 % difference by the end of the fifth injection period. The results suggest that N<sub>2</sub> relative permeability can be used as proxy in reservoir simulations in the absence of H<sub>2</sub> relative permeability data. However, a mismatch between the measured and simulated BHP may be expected during real storage projects. For comparison, CO<sub>2</sub> relative permeability failed to accurately model the UHS [41].

### 3.1.2. Hydrogen plume dynamics

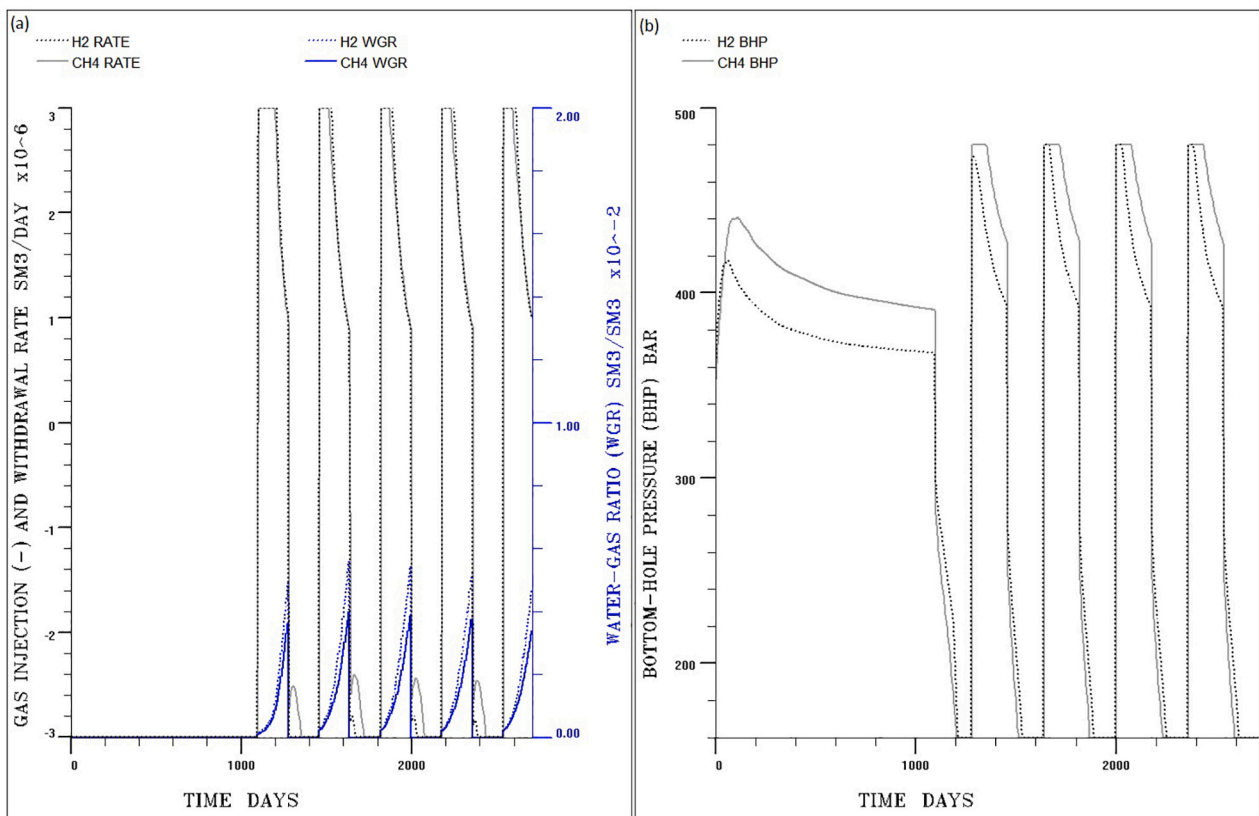
The H<sub>2</sub> plume developed a cone-like shape in vertical direction, governed by gravitational effects (Fig. 4). The maximum H<sub>2</sub> saturation was established in the top perforation ( $S_g = 0.42$ ), with a gradually decreasing H<sub>2</sub> saturation toward the plume boundaries (minimum  $S_g = 0.06$ ). The withdrawal periods were characterized by an upward shrinking of the H<sub>2</sub> plume, leading to water upconing in the well. No lateral movement of the H<sub>2</sub> plume was observed because the injected and withdrawn H<sub>2</sub> volumes were equal for all six-month periods. A stable lateral distribution is beneficial for H<sub>2</sub> storage because it minimizes the risk of leakage at the reservoir boundaries. The observed H<sub>2</sub>

plume dynamics was consistent with the literature [24,35,36,51].

The H<sub>2</sub> saturation in the top perforation increased with an increasing number of cycles, from 0.42 to 0.45 by the end of the first and fifth injection periods, respectively (Fig. 5). In contrast, the H<sub>2</sub> saturation decreased in the second and third perforations, whereas this effect was suppressed in the lower perforations. This demonstrates that water upconing is more pronounced in the middle part of the well. The final H<sub>2</sub> distribution by the end of the prolonged fifth withdrawal period accumulated at the reservoir top.

### 3.2. Effect of relative permeability hysteresis

Implementation of relative permeability hysteresis reduced the working gas capacity and final recovery factor, compared with the nonhysteretic case (Table 1). The working gas capacity after the first cycle decreased from 540 to 451 million Sm<sup>3</sup>, with a further reduction to 393 million Sm<sup>3</sup> after the fifth cycle. The duration of the prolonged fifth withdrawal period was shortened by 627 days, yielding a significant reduction in the final H<sub>2</sub> recovery factor from 68 % to 37 % (Table 1). The reduction in the working gas capacity and recovery factor was attributed to reaching the lower BHP during withdrawal, leading to a reduction in the withdrawal rates to maintain constant pressure (Fig. 6). The BHP decrease was governed by the inflow performance relationship in Eclipse reservoir simulator:  $Q_g = T_w \cdot M_g \cdot (p_{grid} - p_{BHP} - p_{head})$ , where  $Q_g$  is the H<sub>2</sub> withdrawal rate,  $T_w$  is the grid connection transmissibility factor,  $M_g$  is the H<sub>2</sub> mobility,  $p_{grid}$  is the grid connection pressure,  $p_{BHP}$  is the BHP, and  $p_{head}$  is the pressure head between the grid connection and bottom hole. The BHP must reduce to maintain a constant H<sub>2</sub> withdrawal rate at the reduced H<sub>2</sub> mobility caused by lower H<sub>2</sub> relative



**Fig. 8.** Effect of gas type on the storage performance using the hysteretic relative permeability. (a) Gas injection (negative values) and withdrawal rates (positive values, black curves on the primary x-axis) and water-gas ratio (WGR, blue curves on the secondary x-axis). (b) Bottom-hole pressure (BHP). The injection and withdrawal rates were similar, whereas CH<sub>4</sub> storage resulted in lower WGR and higher injection BHP. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

permeability.

A higher BHP during injection (Fig. 6b) was due to the reduced H<sub>2</sub> mobility, requiring higher pressure to maintain the same injection rate as in the nonhysteretic case. The upper BHP limit was reached in the third-fifth injection periods, reducing the H<sub>2</sub> injection rates to 2.8 million Sm<sup>3</sup>/day before gradually returning to 3 million Sm<sup>3</sup>/day after the first 25 days. The water-gas ratio (Fig. 6a) was nearly constant by the end of withdrawal periods, but about six times higher than in the nonhysteretic case in the first cycle, diminishing to a 1.5 times difference in the fourth cycle.

Reduction in the working gas capacity and recovery factor due to hysteresis agreed with other reservoir simulation studies of H<sub>2</sub> storage in aquifers [36,39]. The authors reported a 15 % reduction in the working gas capacity after the first cycle, but the difference with the nonhysteretic case decreased with increasing number of cycles. The final recovery factor was reduced by 5 percentage points after the fifth cycle, from 69.1 % to 64.1 % [36] and from 31 % to 26 % [39]. The reduction in storage efficiency in the hysteretic case was explained by the increased residual trapping, making the disconnected H<sub>2</sub> phase more difficult to mobilize. A higher reduction in the H<sub>2</sub> recovery factor was reported after the 10th cycle, from 98 % to 82–84 % depending on the hysteresis model [41]. Low recovery factors between 7 % and 36 % and their dependency on the injection rate were reported for a one-cycle storage scheme with a caprock present [35]. This was likely caused by a short duration of the withdrawal stage (one year) compared to the injection stage (three years) and hysteresis, but a direct comparison with the nonhysteretic case was missing.

The increased water-gas ratio due to hysteresis was consistent with one study [41]. In contrast, two other studies reported a decreased water-gas ratio [36,39], likely caused by lower water relative

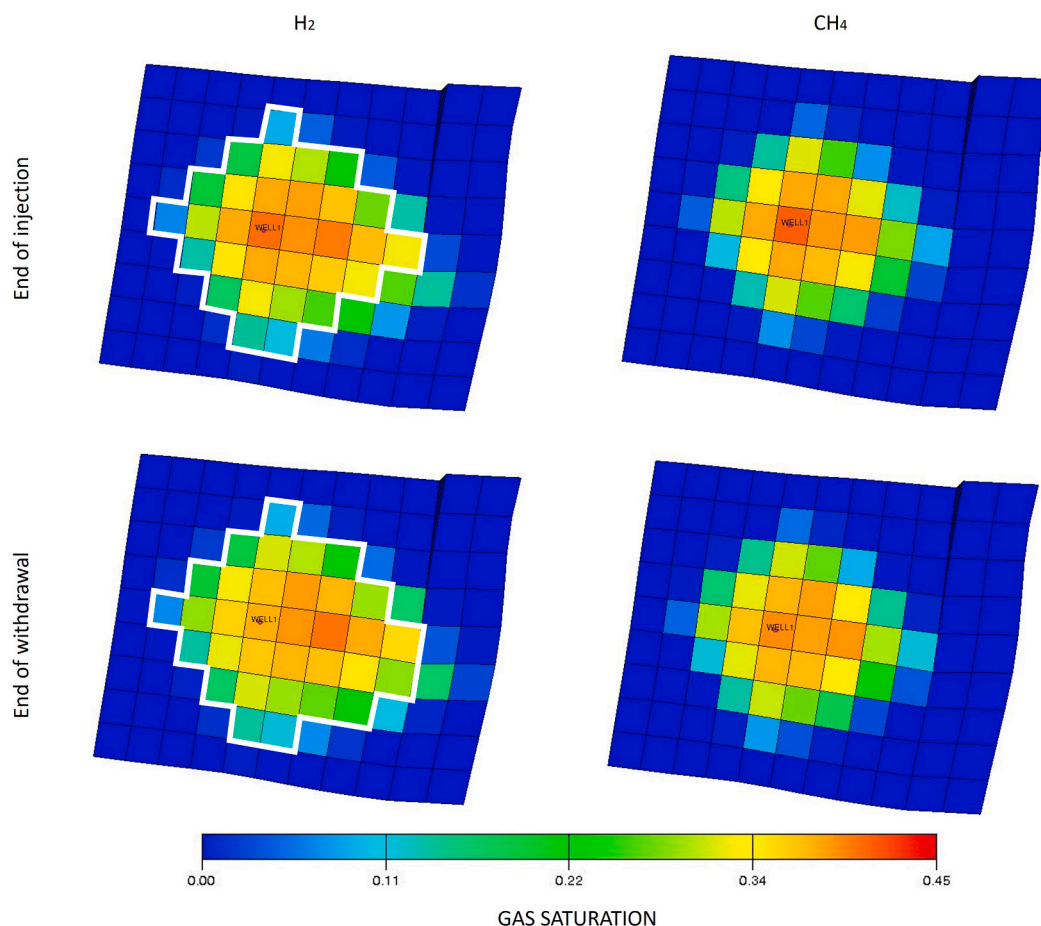
permeability and/or inclusion of a shut-in period. Lower imbibition water relative permeability at the endpoint (<0.20) than in our study (0.36) led to lower water mobility, whereas a shut-in period contributed to a higher H<sub>2</sub> concentration in the near-well area prior to withdrawal. Discrepancies between different studies imply that there is no universal rule regarding the water production handling, which seems to depend on input parameters and operational conditions. Detailed pre-screening with reservoir simulations is therefore required when planning real storage projects.

The H<sub>2</sub> plume dynamics was comparable to the nonhysteretic case, with a vertical contraction during withdrawal and a stable lateral extent (Fig. 7). However, in the nonhysteretic case the vertical H<sub>2</sub> distribution was more concentrated in the well perforations, with 0.03 higher H<sub>2</sub> saturation in the top perforation after the fifth injection period, compared to the hysteretic case. This was because of the decreased residual trapping, enabling more H<sub>2</sub> to mobilize and accumulate in the near-well area. In the hysteretic case, the unrecovered H<sub>2</sub> after the prolonged fifth withdrawal period accumulated not only in the top layer, but also in the lower layers in a cone-like shape.

### 3.3. Effect of gas type: H<sub>2</sub> vs CH<sub>4</sub> storage

We used the hysteretic H<sub>2</sub> relative permeability to compare H<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> storage schemes. The working gas capacity and final recovery factors were comparable (Table 1), but with differences in the BHP and water-gas ratio (Fig. 8). The CH<sub>4</sub> injection resulted in higher BHP and longer injection duration at the BHP upper limit (Fig. 8b), leading to smaller injected CH<sub>4</sub> volumes (Fig. 8a). Higher BHP raises the operating costs, and is therefore disadvantageous from an economic perspective [44]. The water-gas ratio by the end of every cycle was on average 28 %





**Fig. 9.** Effect of gas type on its top-view distribution by the end of injection (top) and by the end of withdrawal (bottom) after the 5th cycle for H<sub>2</sub> (left) and CH<sub>4</sub> (right). The CH<sub>4</sub> plume contours are drawn in white on the left images to compare with the H<sub>2</sub> plume. The CH<sub>4</sub> plume shape appeared to be more uniform, with a less lateral spreading on the right boundary.

lower for CH<sub>4</sub> storage, due to a reduced water-gas mobility ratio. The CH<sub>4</sub> plume lateral spreading was ~500 m shorter than the H<sub>2</sub> plume on the right boundary due to the minor reservoir dipping (Fig. 9). CH<sub>4</sub> is less buoyant, thus less subjected to upslip migration.

Our results indicated that H<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> exhibited a similar performance under the examined conditions, contrary to a single available comparison study [23]. The authors reported a 39 % reduction in the maximum working gas capacity for H<sub>2</sub> storage, caused by a higher wellhead pressure and explained by the difference in the gas physical properties. The discrepancies with our results could be due to the presence of reservoir oil in their study. CH<sub>4</sub> developed a partial miscibility with the reservoir oil, resulting in a higher oil production during CH<sub>4</sub> withdrawal compared with H<sub>2</sub>. Moreover, the authors observed a significantly larger lateral extent of the H<sub>2</sub> plume compared to CH<sub>4</sub>, due to reservoir heterogeneity and an increasing amount of unrecovered H<sub>2</sub> with the increasing number of cycles.

#### 4. Conclusions

We investigated the impact of the measured and history matched relative permeability hysteresis on H<sub>2</sub> storage in an actual aquifer using a black-oil reservoir simulator. Nonhysteretic relative permeability overestimated the working gas capacity and final recovery factor. Implementation of hysteresis reduced the working gas capacity from 540 million Sm<sup>3</sup> (~1.6 TWh) to 388–451 million Sm<sup>3</sup> and final recovery factor from 68 % to 37 %. The H<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> storage showed comparable working gas capacities and recovery factors when using hysteresis, but CH<sub>4</sub> storage yielded lower water production and higher bottom-hole

pressure. Drainage N<sub>2</sub> relative permeability can substitute for missing H<sub>2</sub> data, albeit at the decreased reliability of the bottom-hole pressure predictions. Our results imply that relative permeability hysteresis must be considered to avoid an overestimation of the storage performance and that knowledge transfer from CH<sub>4</sub> to H<sub>2</sub> storage is feasible from a hydrodynamic perspective.

#### CRedit authorship contribution statement

**Maksim Lysy:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing – original draft. **Martin A. Fernø:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Funding acquisition. **Geir Ersland:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Funding acquisition.

#### Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

#### Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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