

Report of Cavern and Subsurface Storage

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Authors: Evrim Ursavas, Umur Hasturk, Ece Kayacik, Songul Tekeli, Stuart Zhu, Joost de Vries with contributions from Tatiana Block, Enrique Troncoso

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Managerial Summary

Underground hydrogen storage (UHS) plays a pivotal role in enabling the large-scale integration of green hydrogen and accelerating the transition toward zero-emission energy systems. Among the various UHS technologies, salt caverns stand out due to their technical reliability, operational safety, and relatively low cost. As hydrogen demand increases across sectors such as industry, heating, and transport, developing a robust and flexible storage infrastructure becomes essential to balance the spatial and temporal mismatches between hydrogen production and consumption.

This research investigates the techno-economic feasibility of establishing an underground hydrogen storage network in the Northern Netherlands (NN) by linking potential salt cavern sites with projected hydrogen demand for 2050. The Northern Netherlands is a strategic location for such an assessment, as it combines favorable geological conditions with an emerging hydrogen ecosystem that includes major industrial clusters, renewable energy sources, and planned hydrogen infrastructure.

A Facility Location Problem (FLP) model was developed to determine the cost-optimal configuration of hydrogen storage and transport networks under three alternative demand scenarios (low, medium, and high). The modeling approach was complemented by expert interviews with key stakeholders from research, industry, and government to ensure realistic assumptions regarding technical feasibility, infrastructure planning, and policy dynamics. This integrated methodology bridges a key gap in hydrogen infrastructure planning by analyzing how demand uncertainty, capacity limitations, and cost dynamics interact to shape regional network design.

The results show that hydrogen demand levels decisively influence the structure and feasibility of UHS systems. Under a low-demand scenario, a single site at Zuidwending can accommodate all regional storage needs, whereas medium- and high-demand scenarios require up to nine of the ten candidate salt cavern sites. Although higher demand improves cost efficiency through economies of scale, the limited practical storage capacity of 15.2 TWh compared with a theoretical potential of 43.3 TWh presents a significant constraint for long-term scalability. These findings underscore the need for additional storage solutions, such as depleted gas fields or cross-border integration with German caverns, to ensure system flexibility and resilience.

The analysis further emphasizes the importance of proactive, long-term planning that integrates domestic and international storage strategies. Early inclusion of alternative storage options and clear coordination between public and private stakeholders are crucial to prevent future capacity shortages. Policy stability, well-designed investment incentives, and harmonized regulatory mechanisms will also be essential to accelerate infrastructure deployment and reduce uncertainty for investors.

From a governance perspective, three strategic actions are recommended: (i) introducing phased investment incentives to stimulate early-stage UHS development, (ii) establishing harmonized cross-border regulatory frameworks, particularly with Germany, and (iii) aligning regional storage capacity targets with verified industrial and mobility demand milestones. Implementing these measures can support a coordinated and adaptive rollout of hydrogen infrastructure across Northwest Europe.

By integrating quantitative modeling with stakeholder-informed governance insights, this study provides a decision-support framework for sequencing hydrogen infrastructure investments, aligning storage capacity with projected demand, and informing policy design. The results offer actionable evidence to guide the Northern Netherlands and other hydrogen regions in developing cost-effective, scalable, and resilient underground hydrogen storage systems.

Structuring Hydrogen Storage Networks: Matching Geological

Capacity with Future Demand in the Northern Netherlands

Joost de Vries^a, Songül Tekeli^a, Evrim Ursavaş and Stuart X. Zhu^{*}

^aUniversity of Groningen, Nettelbosje 2, Groningen, 9747 AE, The Netherlands

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ABSTRACT

Underground hydrogen storage (UHS) plays a pivotal role in enabling the large-scale integration of green hydrogen and advancing the transition toward zero-emission energy systems. Among the various UH technologies, salt cavern storage emerges as a particularly attractive option due to its technical reliability, operational safety, and relatively low cost. As hydrogen demand grows across sectors such as industry, heating, and transportation, a robust storage infrastructure is essential to address the spatial and temporal mismatches between production and consumption. This study explores the optimal design of a hydrogen storage network in the Northern Netherlands (NN) by linking potential UHS sites with projected hydrogen demand for the year 2050. A facility location problem (FLP) model is developed and applied to three demand scenarios (low, medium, and high) to determine cost-optimal configurations that minimize transport and storage costs. The model results indicate that under a low-demand scenario, only one storage site is utilized, whereas up to nine out of ten candidate sites are selected under high-demand conditions. However, the available salt cavern capacity proves inadequate in medium and high-demand scenarios, underscoring the need for complementary storage solutions such as depleted gas fields or above-ground tanks. These findings highlight the importance of scenario-based planning and accurate demand forecasting in guiding hydrogen infrastructure investments. Additionally, qualitative insights from five expert interviews inform key model assumptions and scenario development. Aligning UHS strategically with spatially distributed demand centers enhances system flexibility and cost-effectiveness, offering valuable guidance for regional hydrogen network planning.

1. Introduction

Decarbonizing global energy systems is imperative for mitigating greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions and addressing the escalating impacts of climate change. Energy production and consumption currently account for over 70% of global GHG emissions, and demand is projected to rise substantially in the coming decades [62]. According to the International Renewable Energy Agency (IRENA), low-carbon energy sources could supply up to 86% of final energy demand by 2050, a dramatic increase from 17% in 2015 [38]. Achieving this transformation requires the widespread adoption of renewable technologies and low-carbon energy carriers, most notably solar photovoltaics, batteries, heat pumps, and hydrogen [70, 27].

Hydrogen, particularly green hydrogen produced via electrolysis powered by renewable electricity, has gained significant attention as a versatile energy vector capable of decarbonizing hard-to-abate sectors, including heavy industry, long-distance transport, and high-temperature heating [1, 8]. Its potential for large-scale deployment has been reflected in policy and industrial initiatives such as the Clean Hydrogen Partnership [14]. However, the intermittent nature of renewable energy generation poses a major challenge for ensuring the reliability and continuity of hydrogen supply, thereby necessitating large-scale, long-duration energy storage solutions [61].

While hydrogen exhibits a high gravimetric energy density of about 120 MJ/kg, its volumetric energy density is considerably lower than that of conventional fossil fuels [51]. For comparison, natural gas provides approximately 40 MJ/m³, whereas hydrogen delivers only about 9.9 MJ/m³ [40, 49]. This discrepancy requires substantially larger storage volumes, presenting a major barrier to hydrogen's widespread adoption as an energy carrier [45]. When combined with the intermittency of renewable energy sources that supply green hydrogen, it becomes evident that large-scale and long-term applications demand significant storage capacity. As a result, underground geological formations such as salt caverns, saline aquifers, and depleted reservoirs have been identified as promising options for bulk hydrogen storage [46, 32, 81, 45, 47, 82].

Among various storage technologies, underground hydrogen storage (UHS) in salt caverns stands out for its simplicity, high capacity, flexibility, and long-duration storage potential [73, 62, 52]. The Northern Netherlands (NN) offers favorable geological conditions for salt cavern development, alongside a strategic position within the broader European hydrogen network [10]. While prior studies [69, 5, 26, 12, 80] have investigated the technical feasibility of UHS, there is a notable gap in understanding how storage capacity, cost-effectiveness, and spatial network configurations evolve under varying and uncertain hydrogen demand.

While hydrogen supply chain optimization and storage planning have been examined in the literature, most studies focus on national-level system design or techno-economic comparisons of storage technologies rather than the spatial allocation of storage sites. For example, Almansoori and

^{*}Corresponding author
x.zhu@rug.nl (S.X. Zhu)



ORCID

(s):

Shah (2009) [3] and Almansoori et al. [2] developed optimization models for hydrogen supply chains emphasizing cost and carbon trade-offs, while Seo et al. [68] compared centralized and decentralized storage configurations, highlighting resilience–cost trade-offs. Other contributions have modeled hydrogen logistics and distribution pathways [57, 16], assessed the techno-economics of storage and production systems [32, 73, 46, 17], or provided reviews of geological storage potential [82], but few explicitly address the spatial placement of UHS facilities.

Applications of facility location models (FLP) to subsurface storage remain scarce. Some relevant analogues exist in natural gas networks, where FLP-based approaches have been used to optimize storage and pipeline infrastructure [13, 22]. However, to the best of our knowledge, this study presents the first application of an FLP framework to evaluate cost-optimal configurations of UHS in salt caverns, explicitly considering alternative and uncertain hydrogen demand scenarios at a regional scale.

This research advances prior modeling by integrating projected regional hydrogen demand for the Northern Netherlands, the technical constraints of salt cavern storage, and the spatial optimization of the hydrogen network. Expert interviews complement the modeling by refining assumptions and guiding scenario development. In doing so, the study offers new insights into infrastructure requirements for a cost-effective and scalable hydrogen system in the Northern Netherlands, within the broader Hydrogen Energy Applications in Valley Environments for Northern Netherlands (HEAVENN) initiative [15].

The results reveal that while increasing hydrogen demand enhances cost-efficiency through economies of scale, it also introduces capacity constraints that challenge the feasibility of certain network configurations. These findings underscore the need for proactive strategic planning, early policy intervention, and the integration of alternative and cross-border storage solutions. They also highlight critical limitations in current infrastructure planning, particularly the long development timelines for salt caverns and the lack of integration with existing gas networks.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents a review of relevant literature. Section 3 outlines the methodology and FLP model formulation. Section 4 introduces the case study and datasets. Section 5 presents the modeling results, followed by a discussion in Section 6. Section 7 concludes the paper by highlighting policy implications, limitations, and directions for future research.

2. Theoretical Background

This section presents the theoretical and practical foundations of UHS within the context of regional hydrogen economies, with a focus on the Northern Netherlands. It highlights key challenges in hydrogen distribution and storage, emphasizing the potential of salt caverns for large-scale applications and contrasting centralized with decentralized approaches.

2.1. Hydrogen as an Energy Carrier in the Supply Chain

Hydrogen is increasingly recognized as a flexible and low-carbon energy carrier, capable of supporting decarbonization across electricity generation, transport, heating, and hard-to-abate industrial sectors. It is particularly relevant where direct electrification is technically or economically infeasible. In alignment with national climate ambitions, the Dutch Climate Agreement emphasizes the role of green hydrogen, produced via electrolysis powered by renewable electricity, as a cornerstone of the energy transition [19]. Electrolysis continues to gain traction in the Netherlands and across Europe as the primary technology for clean hydrogen production [1, 8].

However, the widespread deployment of hydrogen is constrained by infrastructure-related challenges along the supply chain, particularly in the domains of distribution and storage [57, 56]. Hydrogen demand is projected to expand across multiple sectors including industry, mobility, energy, and the built environment driving the need for integrated and regionally tailored supply chain solutions [65, 54, 9, 11]. Although transportation by tube trailers is currently employed for short distances and pilot projects, long-term distribution is expected to rely heavily on pipeline networks. Recent studies indicate that up to 50% of the existing natural gas infrastructure in the Netherlands could be repurposed for hydrogen transport with limited modifications [64, 61, 6]. Nonetheless, the technical feasibility of such repurposing depends on key factors such as pipeline pressure ratings, material compatibility, and susceptibility to hydrogen embrittlement [20].

Designing efficient hydrogen supply chains requires a careful balance between technical feasibility, economic viability, safety, and environmental performance. Recent modeling efforts emphasize the importance of optimizing hydrogen logistics by integrating these multidimensional criteria [68, 57]. This need becomes even more pronounced at the regional level, where localized demand profiles, infrastructure availability, and sectoral priorities can differ substantially from national averages.

Although several national-level studies identify the industrial, transport, and heating sectors as key drivers of future hydrogen demand in the Netherlands [67, 23, 25, 76], they typically lack the spatial and sectoral resolution required for infrastructure planning at the regional or municipal level. Berenschot [7] report is a rare exception, offering detailed, sector-specific hydrogen demand projections disaggregated by municipality. This study builds on such localized forecasts to address a critical gap in the literature: the lack of regionally tailored hydrogen supply chain analysis. By focusing on the Northern Netherlands, it enables a spatially and sectorally responsive design of hydrogen infrastructure aligned with regional development needs.

2.2. Centralized vs. Decentralized Storage Configurations

The spatial variability of renewable energy resources has accelerated the shift from centralized to decentralized energy systems [48]. Electrolyzers are increasingly colocated with renewable generation units, resulting in geographically distributed hydrogen production and storage networks [53, 8].

Comparative analyses show that centralized hydrogen storage configurations are generally more cost-efficient and require fewer storage sites at the national scale [2, 68]. However, their feasibility is constrained by the regional availability of suitable geological formations, such as salt caverns, and by the infrastructure required to transport hydrogen over long distances. In contrast, decentralized storage systems provide greater operational flexibility and system resilience but typically incur higher capital and operational costs. Therefore, the selection of an optimal storage configuration is highly dependent on regional conditions and system objectives.

Despite these insights, notable gaps remain in integrating geological feasibility with spatially distributed hydrogen demand in infrastructure planning. This study addresses this issue by modeling centralized and decentralized hydrogen storage network configurations in the Northern Netherlands, where favorable salt formations coincide with strong regional hydrogen policy targets.

2.3. Hydrogen Storage Potential in Northern Netherlands

2.3.1. Salt Cavern Storage Potential in the Northern Netherlands

Salt caverns in the Northern Netherlands (NN) present a technically and economically viable solution for large-scale underground hydrogen storage, owing to their impermeability, self-healing characteristics, and proven mechanical stability under cyclic loading conditions [50]. These favorable properties are complemented by the region's access to existing pipeline infrastructure and renewable electricity sources, which are critical for enabling a flexible and integrated hydrogen system.

The regional underground hydrogen storage potential in salt caverns is estimated at approximately 43.4 TWh, based on around 321 identified caverns distributed across ten locations in the Northern Netherlands [75, 39]. However, only a subset of these sites is expected to be technically and economically feasible for development. Practical constraints including surface space limitations, risks of land subsidence, availability of leaching water, and brine disposal requirements, reduce the realistically developable capacity to about 15 TWh by 2050, corresponding to roughly 60 caverns [78, 58]. This practically achievable capacity reflects current technological, spatial, and regulatory conditions, whereas the 43.4 TWh estimate serves as the theoretical upper bound that could become attainable as technologies, permitting processes, and deployment strategies evolve toward 2050.

Experience from global frontrunners supports the feasibility of this trajectory. Currently, four salt cavern hydrogen

storage facilities are operational worldwide. The earliest, in Teesside (UK), has been active since 1972. In the United States, Clemens Dome (since 1983), Moss Bluff (2007), and Spindletop (2016) — all located in Texas — are integrated into industrial hydrogen pipeline networks [20, 59, 41, 43]. Their long-term performance underlines the suitability of salt formations for storing high-purity hydrogen, supported by favorable thermomechanical properties such as low permeability and structural integrity under cycling [34, 71].

A key project in the Dutch context is the Zuidwending site in Groningen, now under development as the Netherlands' first hydrogen-specific salt cavern storage facility. With operations expected to commence in 2026, the site serves as a pilot for hydrogen injection and withdrawal and will inform future large-scale deployment [33, 24].

On a broader scale, international initiatives such as the Advanced Clean Energy Storage (ACES) project in Utah, USA (planned capacity: 300 GWh), and the HyPSTER project in Étretz, France, aim to demonstrate the techno-economic viability of salt cavern storage for green hydrogen [42, 72]. These efforts reinforce the strategic value of salt cavern storage in achieving dispatchability, seasonal balancing, and scalability of hydrogen systems—principles equally relevant to the Northern Netherlands.

2.3.2. Strategic Role of the Northern Netherlands

Hydrogen is increasingly central to national and European decarbonization strategies, with many countries integrating it into their 2030 and 2050 climate frameworks [36, 27, 35, 38]. The Netherlands has committed to becoming a frontrunner in the European hydrogen economy, positioning hydrogen as a core pillar of its energy transition [29, 30].

Within this national context, the Northern Netherlands (NN) plays a particularly strategic role. It has been designated by the Clean Hydrogen Partnership as the EU's flagship "Hydrogen Valley" through the HEAVENN project, which aims to demonstrate an integrated hydrogen value chain from production to distribution and end use [31, 55].

The region's strategic importance stems from several structural advantages. It has direct access to offshore wind energy from the North Sea, a well-developed energy and industrial base, and proximity to domestic and cross-border demand centers. The NN's central location within the European energy network enhances its function as a potential hydrogen corridor for Northwest Europe.

Crucially, the Netherlands also benefits from extensive experience in managing natural gas infrastructure, much of which can be repurposed for hydrogen transport and system balancing [23, 25]. This legacy infrastructure provides a foundation for hydrogen network integration and supports the region's ambitions to facilitate large-scale hydrogen deployment both nationally and at the European level.

Taken together, these attributes make the NN a strategically positioned hub for hydrogen innovation, infrastructure development, and cross-sectoral integration in support of a broader climate-neutral energy system.

2.3.3. Hydrogen Infrastructure and Network Feasibility

A fully integrated hydrogen network, including storage and distribution infrastructure, is not yet in place in the NN. The absence of such a network represents a major barrier to the widespread adoption of hydrogen technologies. Crucially, demand must precede infrastructure development to justify investment and reduce risk [10].

Studies suggest that approximately 50% of the existing Dutch natural gas network could be repurposed for hydrogen transport, depending on pipeline material and operating pressures [61]. Polyethylene pipes, commonly used in recent installations, are compatible with hydrogen and exhibit long lifespans of 50–100 years. Conversely, older steel pipelines may be susceptible to hydrogen embrittlement unless operated at low pressure [71, 20].

Retrofitting existing infrastructure presents an economically viable and environmentally favorable approach to hydrogen distribution [28]. Despite these advantages, large-scale pipeline construction has yet to begin, primarily due to high upfront costs and demand uncertainty. Establishing a robust hydrogen network thus hinges on long-term policy support and reliable demand projections [71, 20].

2.4. Cost Considerations of Salt Cavern Hydrogen

Storage

While salt caverns are widely regarded as one of the most technically suitable options for large-scale hydrogen storage, significant cost uncertainties continue to limit their commercial deployment. A widely used metric for economic assessment is the Levelized Cost of Storage (LCOS), which encompasses capital expenditure (CAPEX), operational expenditure (OPEX), infrastructure requirements, and energy losses incurred over the facility's operational lifetime [63]. However, the absence of standardized cost estimation methodologies across studies has resulted in a broad spectrum of LCOS values reported in the literature [43, 68, 34].

The major cost components of UHS in salt caverns include cavern development, compression and pressurization infrastructure, and gas purification systems such as drying units and pressure swing adsorption (PSA) technologies. Early cost estimates by Lord et al. [43] suggest that total capital costs, inclusive of surface and subsurface installations, could amount to approximately €1.54 per kilogram of hydrogen. However, this figure is now considered outdated and highly sensitive to assumptions about plant size, geological conditions, and technology maturity.

Due to the site-specific nature of cavern construction and the technological complexity involved, the potential for cost reductions through economies of scale remains limited [44, 59]. This underscores the need for more robust and transparent component-level cost modeling.

More recent evaluations, such as those by Det Norske Veritas (DNV) [18], advocate for focusing on the most reliably estimable components of the hydrogen value chain, particularly storage and transport costs. These are summarized in Table 1.

Overall, while cost estimates for salt cavern-based hydrogen storage remain highly variable, a component-based approach enables more transparent and comparable evaluations. Such detail is critical for investment planning, project design, and policy support mechanisms aimed at scaling up UHS infrastructure.

2.5. Facility Location Optimization in Hydrogen

Networks

While the optimization of natural gas infrastructure has been extensively investigated [4, 66], research on hydrogen network optimization remains at an early stage [16]. The development of an integrated hydrogen network—including the strategic allocation of storage facilities—can be conceptualized using the FLP framework. The FLP aims to determine the optimal siting and number of facilities that minimize total system cost or maximize service efficiency given spatially distributed demand [13].

In the context of hydrogen system planning, the FLP functions as a multi-criteria decision-making (MCDM) tool that incorporates both technical and policy-oriented constraints [37]. It allows decision-makers to evaluate alternative storage configurations under uncertainty and to align infrastructure development with long-term demand trajectories and governance objectives.

The model developed in this study applies the FLP framework to assess the optimal number and location of UHS sites in the Northern Netherlands, based on projected hydrogen demand through 2050. Multiple demand scenarios are explored to test the robustness of network configurations and to derive practical recommendations for infrastructure development. This study thus contributes to the growing body of literature on hydrogen infrastructure optimization and provides decision-support insights for initiatives such as HEAVENN, where aligning geological potential with spatial demand is a key planning challenge.

Although the mathematical structure of the FLP employed here follows the conventional formulation established in natural gas infrastructure studies, its application is specifically adapted to the hydrogen context and the regional characteristics of the Northern Netherlands. The model integrates hydrogen demand projections, salt cavern capacity constraints, and policy-relevant capacity targets to identify cost-optimal configurations under varying long-term scenarios. The contribution of this work therefore lies not in developing a new optimization algorithm but in contextualizing and applying the FLP approach to a real-world hydrogen valley setting. Future research should extend the model to incorporate hydrogen-specific operational aspects—such as material embrittlement, cyclic injection and withdrawal behavior, and hybrid storage systems combining salt caverns with depleted reservoirs.

2.6. Contribution

This study makes several key contributions to the literature on hydrogen infrastructure planning and regional energy system modeling.

Table 1
Levelized Cost of Underground Hydrogen Storage and Transportation

Function	Item	Cost (EUR/kg)
Levelized cost of hydrogen storage	Pressurization	± €0.32/kg
	Storage CAPEX (cushion gas)	
	Storage OPEX	
	Losses	
Levelized cost of transportation	Transportation CAPEX	± €0.004/kg per 1 km
	Transportation OPEX	
Total		± €0.324/kg

First, it advances the methodological frontier by being, to the best of our knowledge, the first to apply a facility location problem (FLP) framework to the spatial placement of underground hydrogen storage (UHS) sites. The proposed model integrates salt cavern storage capacities and regional hydrogen demand within a unified location–allocation framework, addressing a critical gap in existing studies. Whereas prior research has typically examined storage feasibility and demand distribution separately, this study captures their spatial interdependencies through expert-validated, scenario-based analyses, providing a more realistic foundation for regional-scale hydrogen storage planning.

Second, the study enhances the modeling framework with insights derived from expert interviews. These inputs refine key assumptions, clarify technical and policy constraints, and contextualize the interpretation of results within real-world planning environments—thereby strengthening the model’s practical relevance.

Third, it contributes to applied regional planning by producing spatially optimized deployment scenarios under alternative demand growth and policy trajectories. The resulting insights are particularly relevant for hydrogen valley initiatives such as HEAVENN and comparable European projects, where strategic investment decisions must consider both subsurface constraints and evolving demand patterns.

Taken together, these contributions establish an integrated decision-support framework that links expert knowledge, geological resource availability, spatial optimization, and long-term energy demand. The approach provides policymakers and regional planners with a tool to design scalable and resilient hydrogen infrastructure consistent with broader decarbonization objectives.

3. Research Methodology

Mathematical Model

This study employs an FLP formulation for hydrogen infrastructure planning in the NN. Municipality-level demand projections are integrated with the optimization of both the number and placement of UHS facilities to determine the least-cost system configuration. The model minimizes total system cost, comprising CAPEX for UHS development and hydrogen transportation costs, while ensuring that regional

demand is met within predefined capacity and service distance constraints. It also accounts for the limited availability of suitable salt cavern sites and the need for large-scale storage to balance intermittent renewable supply with end-use demand.

The FLP is formulated as a mixed-integer linear program that identifies the cost-optimal configuration of UHS sites and the associated pipeline network. The objective is to minimize total system cost, defined as the sum of (i) CAPEX for UHS development and (ii) transport cost from storage sites to demand nodes, capturing the economic trade-off between infrastructure investment and distribution.

Objective Function

$$\text{Minimize} \quad \sum_i C G_i z_i + \sum_{i,j} \sum_{x_{ij}} V x_{ij} L_{ij} \quad (1)$$

The first term represents the fixed cost of constructing UHS facilities, where C is the unit capital cost of storage development (€/TWh), G is the storage capacity at site i , and z_i is a binary decision variable indicating whether a facility is built. The second term represents the cost of hydrogen transmission through pipelines between storage and demand nodes, where V is the unit transport cost per kilometer (€/TWh·km), x_{ij} is the volume of hydrogen transported from storage node i to demand node j , and L_{ij} is the distance between them. Together, these terms capture the total economic cost of the storage network.

Constraints

$$\sum_j x_{ij} \leq G_i z_i \quad \forall i \in S \quad (2)$$

$$\sum_{i \in S} G_i z_i \geq T \quad (3)$$

$$z_i = 0, 1 \quad \forall i \in S : L_{ij} \leq \delta \quad (4)$$

$$x_{ij} = 0 \quad \forall i \in S : L_{ij} > \delta \quad (5)$$

Constraint (2) ensures that the hydrogen delivered from any storage site does not exceed its capacity. Constraint (3) requires total installed storage capacity to meet or exceed total system demand T . Constraints (4) and (5) enforce the maximum allowable service distance δ , ensuring that hydrogen is only supplied to demand nodes within a feasible range.

Model Components

Decision Variables

- z_{co}^i : Binary variable, equals 1 if a UHS facility is constructed at node i , 0 otherwise.
- x_{no}^j : Quantity of hydrogen transported from storage i to demand node j .

Sets and Indices

- S : Set of potential storage (supply) nodes.
- F : Set of hydrogen demand nodes.

Parameters

- C : Unit capital cost of UHS development (€/TWh).
- V : Unit transportation cost per kilometer (€/TWh·km).
- N_i : Hydrogen demand at demand node i .
- G_i : Storage capacity of node i .
- L_{no}^j : Distance between storage node i and demand node j .
- T : Total hydrogen demand in the system.
- δ : Maximum allowable service distance from storage to demand node.

Model Assumptions

- Subsurface hydrogen pipelines are assumed to follow straight-line (bird-flight) distances between demand and storage nodes.
- All UHS facilities are assumed to have uniform technical characteristics.
- There is no upper limit on the number of UHS facilities; capacity constraints determine the optimal number and placement.
- Only salt cavern locations are considered viable for UHS.
- Hydrogen demand must be served immediately upon need (no time delay).
- A service distance threshold limits the maximum distance between a storage facility and the demand it serves.

Hydrogen transport distances between storage and demand nodes are modeled using straight-line (Euclidean) distances. This simplification is common in strategic-level facility location analyses and provides a transparent approximation of routing at regional scale. Given the Netherlands' flat topography and relatively compact geography, the deviation between Euclidean and actual pipeline routes is expected to be minor. To evaluate the potential influence of this assumption, Section 5.5 includes a sensitivity analysis in which route multipliers of 1.2, 1.3, and 1.4 were applied to emulate more realistic routing conditions. The results show that although total system costs increase with longer effective routes, the spatial configuration of the least-cost hydrogen network remains stable. Incorporating route-specific pipeline data, repurposing feasibility, and detailed cost constraints represents a key avenue for future model refinement.

4. Case Study Overview

To identify the optimal hydrogen location-allocation network, a case study was conducted in the NN. This analysis aims to determine the ideal number and configuration of UHS locations, with a focus on minimizing overall system costs while meeting regional hydrogen demand.

4.1. UHS Specifications

Hydrogen storage in salt caverns is increasingly recognized as a technically viable and scalable solution for balancing supply-demand mismatches in renewable-based hydrogen systems. While the theoretical storage potential in the Netherlands is substantial, practical deployment is constrained by geological, spatial, and economic factors. Insights from both the literature and stakeholder interviews confirm that hydrogen demand is projected to grow significantly as the market matures [67, 76, 23].

The Northern Netherlands region has been identified as particularly promising for underground hydrogen storage due to its favorable subsurface geology. Gasunie, in collaboration with Nobian, is currently developing the country's first hydrogen storage facility in Zuidwending [33]. The construction involves the development of caverns at depths of around 1,500 meters, with timelines ranging from 3 to 4 years for cavern formation and 6 to 8 years for full operational readiness [21].

According to TNO [77, 78], national storage capacity in salt caverns is estimated to range from a lower bound of approximately 1.3 to 4.3 TWh, requiring 17 to 34 caverns, up to an upper bound of 15 to 26 TWh under high-demand scenarios, which could necessitate nearly 200 caverns. These estimates are based on technical criteria, including geological spacing constraints of 100 to 150 meters between cavern walls and the top of the salt structure.

This range of potential capacity has informed the scenario development and spatial planning components of the present study, particularly in relation to the sizing and allocation of UHS facilities across the Northern Netherlands.

Table 2

Levelized cost of underground hydrogen storage (UHS)

Cost (EUR/kg)	
Function–Cost UHS	
<i>Levelized cost of hydrogen storage</i>	
Pressurization	±0.32
Storage CAPEX (cushion gas)	±0.32
Storage OPEX	±0.32
Losses	±0.32
<i>Levelized cost of transportation</i>	
Transportation CAPEX	±0.004 per km
Transportation OPEX	±0.004 per km
Total	±0.324

4.2. Cost Assumptions and Uncertainties

Cost estimations for hydrogen storage remain uncertain due to evolving technologies and limited empirical data. Most stakeholders interviewed during this study were reluctant to provide specific figures, underscoring substantial unknowns regarding cavern construction and topside facilities.

Only storage and pipeline transportation costs were included in the model, as these are more consistently reported across studies.

According to Det Norske Veritas (DNV) [18], the levelized cost of hydrogen storage in salt caverns—including pressurization, cushion gas, storage CAPEX and OPEX, and transportation—is approximately €0.324 per kg. This benchmark, also referenced in Berenschot [7], is widely cited in the literature and was validated through stakeholder interviews as a realistic reflection of current industry practice.

The study area—Friesland, Groningen, and Drenthe—covers a geologically consistent region of roughly 11,400 km² (about 27% of the Netherlands), where major subsurface

heterogeneity is not expected. Consequently, applying a uniform benchmark cost across sites represents a deliberate and transparent simplification suited to the model's regional scope and comparative purpose, rather than an uncritical assumption. This approach ensures model transparency and tractability while maintaining consistency with established data sources.

Nevertheless, we acknowledge that real-world costs may vary due

to site-specific geological, regulatory, and scale-related factors. To explicitly account for this uncertainty, Section 5.5 tests the influence of cost variation by adjusting underground hydrogen storage CAPEX by ±30% and pipeline routing factors between 1.2–1.4. The results show that UHS consistently remains an integral element of the least-cost network configuration across all tested cases, confirming that the study's principal conclusions are robust and policy-relevant even under substantial parameter variation.

Table 2 summarizes the applied cost components and corresponding unit values used in the model.

Data for this study were collected from multiple sources, including peer-reviewed literature and technical reports (e.g., [39, 7]). These quantitative and documentary sources provided the basis for model parameters such as hydrogen

demand projections, potential storage capacities, and cost assumptions.

To complement the quantitative data and incorporate real-world practitioner perspectives, five semi-structured interviews were conducted with stakeholders actively engaged in the hydrogen transition in the Northern Netherlands. Participants were selected based on domain expertise, institutional responsibilities, and availability. Table 3 summarizes anonymized interviewee labels (A–E), organizational roles, sectoral affiliations, and interview durations. This sample represents a cross-section of factors from industry, infrastructure operators, and local government.

Each interview was recorded, transcribed, and thematically analyzed using an inductive coding framework to identify recurring technical, economic, and governance themes relevant to hydrogen storage network design. The interviews provided qualitative insights into issues such as permitting timelines, regulatory fragmentation, public acceptance, and infrastructure readiness—factors that strongly influence the real-world feasibility of UHS deployment.

Although most interviews were conducted prior to finalizing the facility-location model and therefore did not directly influence its mathematical structure, they play a complementary role in contextualizing the quantitative analysis. Stakeholder input informed assumptions about realistic development timelines and institutional constraints, and it guided the framing of demand scenarios by highlighting practical limitations on how quickly UHS capacity can be scaled. Accordingly, the modeling and interview components are designed as interconnected but distinct elements: the FLP model provides quantitative insights into cost-optimal network configurations, while the interviews interpret how these outcomes align with existing governance, permitting, and societal conditions in the Northern

Netherlands. While the stakeholder interviews were conducted primarily before finalizing the facility location model, their insights remain essential to interpreting and contextualizing the quantitative findings. The interviews illuminate practitioner perspectives on permitting delays, regulatory fragmentation, and public acceptance—factors that strongly shape the feasibility of underground hydrogen storage but fall outside the scope of the optimization framework. Accordingly, the modeling and interview components are presented as complementary yet interdependent elements of the study: the FLP model quantifies cost-optimal network configurations, whereas the interviews situate these results within the broader implementation landscape. This integrated framing ensures that the qualitative evidence enriches the study's policy and practical relevance, even though it does not directly alter model parameters or structure.

4.3. Mapping of UHS Nodes

The total UHS capacity of approximately 43.4 TWh presented in Table 4 and visualized in Figure 1 corresponds to the cumulative potential of all identified salt cavern sites across the three provinces of the NN (Friesland, Groningen,

Table 3
Details of Stakeholder Interviews

Label	Interviewee	Position	Organization Category	Duration (min)
A	Interviewee A	Principal Consultant Hydrogen in Energy Systems	Technical Consultancy	59:43
B	Interviewee B	Head Hydrogen	Gas Infrastructure Operator	54:17
C	Interviewee C	Principal Consultant Hydrogen in Energy Systems	Local Government	41:47
D	Interviewee D	CEO	Private Data Infrastructure	31:14
E	Interviewee E	Policy Officer for Energy Transition	Local Government	45:03

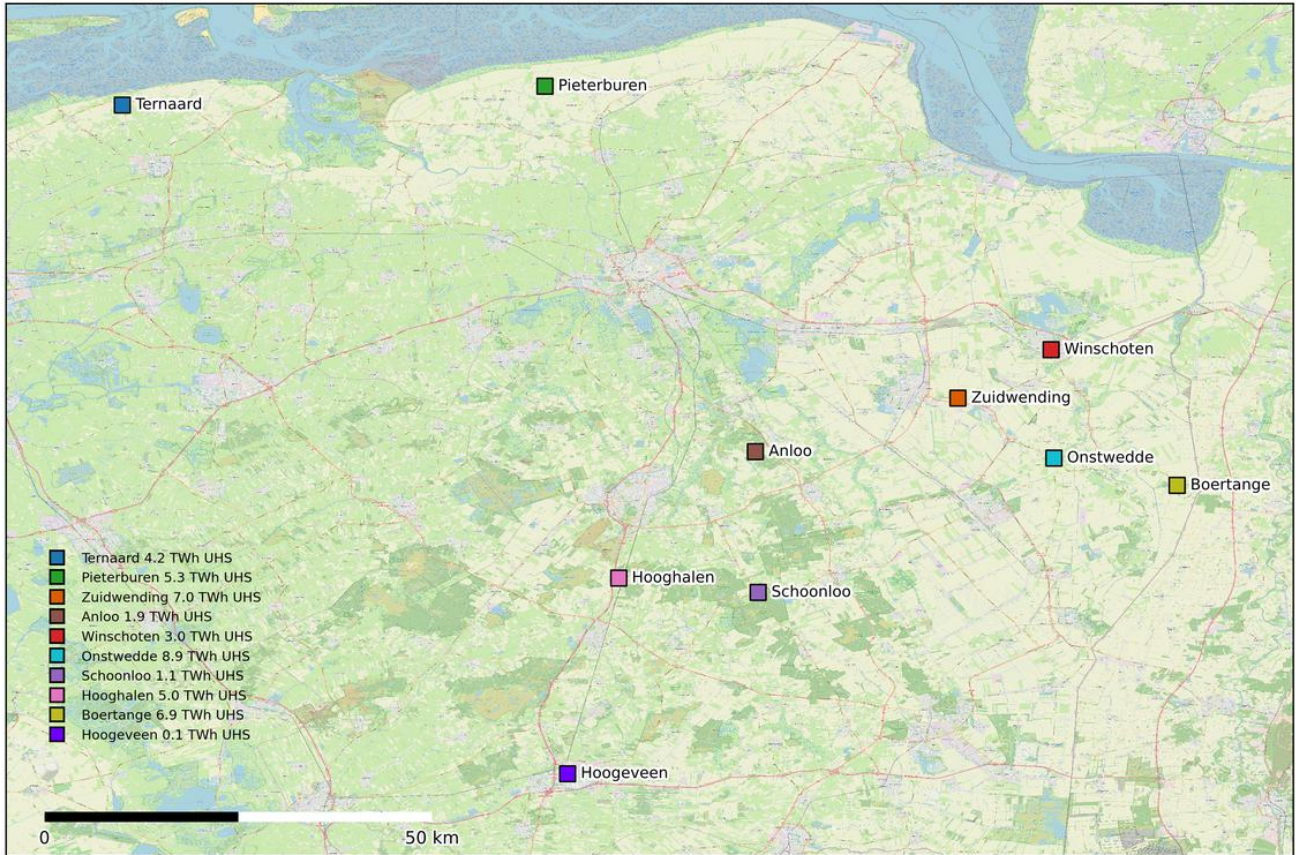


Figure 1: Spatial distribution of salt cavern UHS sites across Friesland, Groningen, and Drenthe with a combined theoretical storage capacity of 43.4 TWh

and Drenthe), as reported in TNO [75, 78], and Juez-Larre et al. [39]. These studies identify around 321 individual caverns, which together constitute the region's theoretical storage potential of 43.4 TWh. This theoretical value represents the upper bound of subsurface storage capacity in the NN and provides the basis for scenario development and system design in this study.

4.4. Identification of Hydrogen Demand Nodes

Hydrogen demand in the Northern Netherlands (NN) is anticipated to arise across three primary end-use sectors: industry, mobility, and spatial (residential) heating. However, consistent and disaggregated sector-specific data at the municipal level is currently lacking. To overcome this

limitation, the present study draws on the regional hydrogen demand projections provided by Berenschot [7], which offer detailed, municipality-level estimates for the year 2050.

Within the modeling framework, each of the 49 municipalities in the NN is treated as a unique demand node, collectively constituting the set F . These nodes represent the spatial distribution of hydrogen demand and are integrated into the FLP model. A full list of the identified demand nodes is provided in Appendix A. The corresponding distances between each demand node F^i and potential underground hydrogen storage location S_j , expressed in kilometers (L_{ij}), are presented in Appendix C, forming the set of realizable arcs within the model.

Table 4

Set of UHS nodes S and the capacity Gi of every node in the sets

Salt Cavern Location	# Caverns	Capacity (TWh)
Groningen	230	31.1
Zuidwending	52	7.0
Winschoten	22	3.0
Pieterburen	39	5.3
Onstwedde	66	8.9
Boer tange	51	6.9
Friesland	31	4.2
Ternaard	31	4.2
Drenthe	60	8.1
Anloo	14	1.9
Hooghalen	37	5.0
Hoogeveen	1	0.1
Schoonloo	8	1.1
Total	321	43.4

4.5. Scenario Framework and Demand Modeling

To address long-term uncertainty in hydrogen infrastructure planning, this study develops three overarching demand scenarios: Low, Medium, and High, each featuring four governance-based sub-scenarios. These sub-scenarios incorporate four future energy system scenarios developed under the Integrale Infrastructuurverkenning 2030–2050 (II3050) framework: *Regional Control*, *National Control*, *European Control*, and *International Control* [74].

The four II3050 scenarios reflect different governance approaches to the energy transition. In the Regional Control scenario, local communities take the lead, prioritizing circularity, decentralized renewable generation (solar, wind, geothermal), and reduced industrial activity, resulting in near self-sufficiency with green gas and hydrogen used to cover peak demand. The National Control scenario features strong central government coordination, the largest build-out of solar and wind capacity, and extensive electrification across sectors, with imports and green hydrogen supporting a stable industrial base. The European Control scenario is driven by EU-wide carbon pricing, leading to industrial growth through hybrid electrification, CCS, and a mix of blue and green hydrogen, alongside increased imports and continued gas use in various sectors. In the International Control scenario, market forces dominate, favoring cost-effective global hydrogen imports over domestic production, with hydrogen playing a key role in hybrid energy systems and supporting industry, while the role of green gas is minimal.

Demand projections for Friesland, Drenthe, and Groningen provinces under each sub-scenario were derived from the Berenschot (2020) study [7] and are presented in Table 5. All the scenarios, sub-scenarios and demand per municipality can be found in Appendix B.

5. Results

The results and outputs of the FLP model simulations under each predefined demand scenario are presented and discussed in this section. For each sub-scenario within the low, medium, and high demand trajectories, a distinct hydrogen storage network configuration is derived. The analysis differentiates between the theoretical storage potential and the practically achievable capacity, acknowledging both technical feasibility and real-world implementation constraints.

5.1. Results Low-demand Scenario 2050

In the 2050 low-demand scenario, annual hydrogen demand in the Northern Netherlands is projected to range from 0.31 TWh under the regional sub-scenario to 5.5 TWh under the international sub-scenario (Table 6). Notably, these demand levels remain well below the total storage capacity of the Zuidwending facility, which is estimated at 7 TWh. Consequently, Zuidwending is the sole underground hydrogen storage site utilized across all sub-scenarios in this low-demand case.

Consequently, the overall network structure and associated storage costs remain unchanged across all sub-scenarios (regional, national, European, and international) within the low-demand scenario. Since the same UHS location is used and its capacity is fixed, the levelized storage cost remains constant. However, the hydrogen distribution cost varies between sub-scenarios, reflecting differences in total demand volumes and the distances over which hydrogen must be transported. This spatial variation in transport cost is illustrated in Figure 2.

As a result, the spatial configuration of the hydrogen network remains identical across the regional, national, European, and international sub-scenarios in the low-demand case, as illustrated in Figure 3.

5.2. Results Medium Demand Scenario 2050

In the medium demand scenario for 2050, the demand for hydrogen in the NN increases and is expected to vary between 13.41 and 35.70 TWh. The number of UHS facilities increases, resulting in significantly higher hydrogen demand, as the hydrogen market and developments begin to mature. The results are shown in Table 7. The increase in demand is directly reflected in the costs. The total cost of the national medium-demand sub-scenario amounts to approximately 376 million euros, whereas the total cost of the national sub-scenario in the low-demand scenario was 83 million euros, even though the demand has increased nearly ninefold. This cost reduction indicates that as demand increases, the ratio of demand to cost becomes more favorable because the costs of storing and distributing hydrogen decrease significantly for every sub-scenario in the medium demand scenario.

The service distance in kilometers in the medium demand scenario decreased by more than 50% compared to the low demand scenario. This can be explained by the fact that the overall demand for hydrogen has increased, necessitating more UHS to supply the demand locations. The addition of

Table 5

Hydrogen demand per province in 2050 based on Berenschot (2020) and II3050 scenarios

Scenario	Friesland(TWh)	Drenthe(TWh)	Groningen(TWh)	Total NN (TWh)
Low demand scenario				
Regional	0.11	0.09	0.11	0.31
National	0.98	0.85	1.26	3.09
European	1.24	1.05	1.71	4.00
Inter national	1.62	1.64	2.44	5.70
Medium demand scenario				
Regional	4.83		4.71	13.41
National	8.86	3.87	11.46	28.08
European	9.69	7.75	13.38	31.25
Inter national	10.16	8.19	15.28	35.70
		10.26		
High demand scenario				
Regional	9.55		9.32	26.52
National	16.75	7.64	21.66	53.06
European	18.13	14.65	25.05	58.51
Inter national	18.70	15.33	28.12	65.71
		18.89		

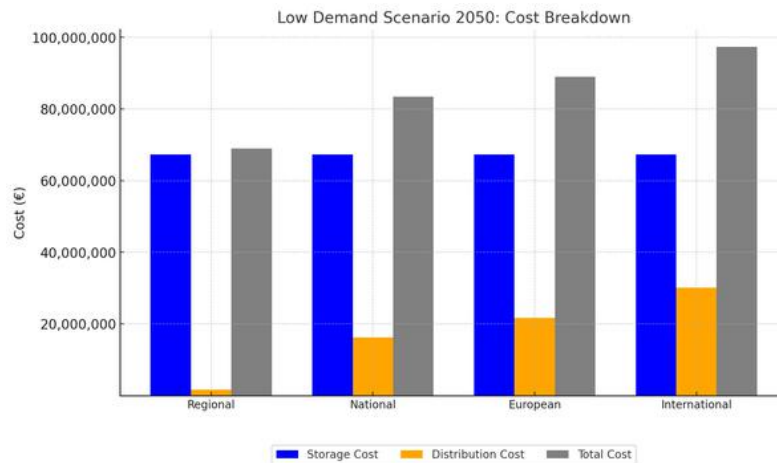


Figure 2: FLP Model Results of Low Demand Scenario

Table 6

Results for the low demand scenario

Scenario	Hydrogen Demand (TWh)	Service Distance (km)	Storage Facilities	Storage Cost (€)	Distribution Cost (€)	Total Cost (€)
Regional	0.31	125.73	1	67,267,267.27	1,683,974.40	68,951,241.6
National	3.09	125.73	1	67,267,267.27	16,177,016.55	83,444,283.81
European	4.00	125.73	1	67,267,267.27	21,704,195.36	88,971,462.62
Inter national	5.70	125.73	1	67,267,267.27	30,077,585.43	97,344,852.70

Table 7

Results for the medium demand scenario

Scenario	Hydrogen Demand (TWh)	Service Distance (km)	Storage Facilities	Storage Cost (€)	Distribution Cost (€)	Total Cost (€)
Regional	13.41	66.62	4	136,456,456.46	47,979,093.10	184,435,549.55
National	28.08	66.64	6	283,483,483.48	92,616,330.54	376,099,814.02
European	31.25	60.13	7	320,960,960.96	106,191,095.90	427,152,056.86
Inter national	35.70	59.76	8	349,789,789.79	125,027,308.45	474,817,098.24

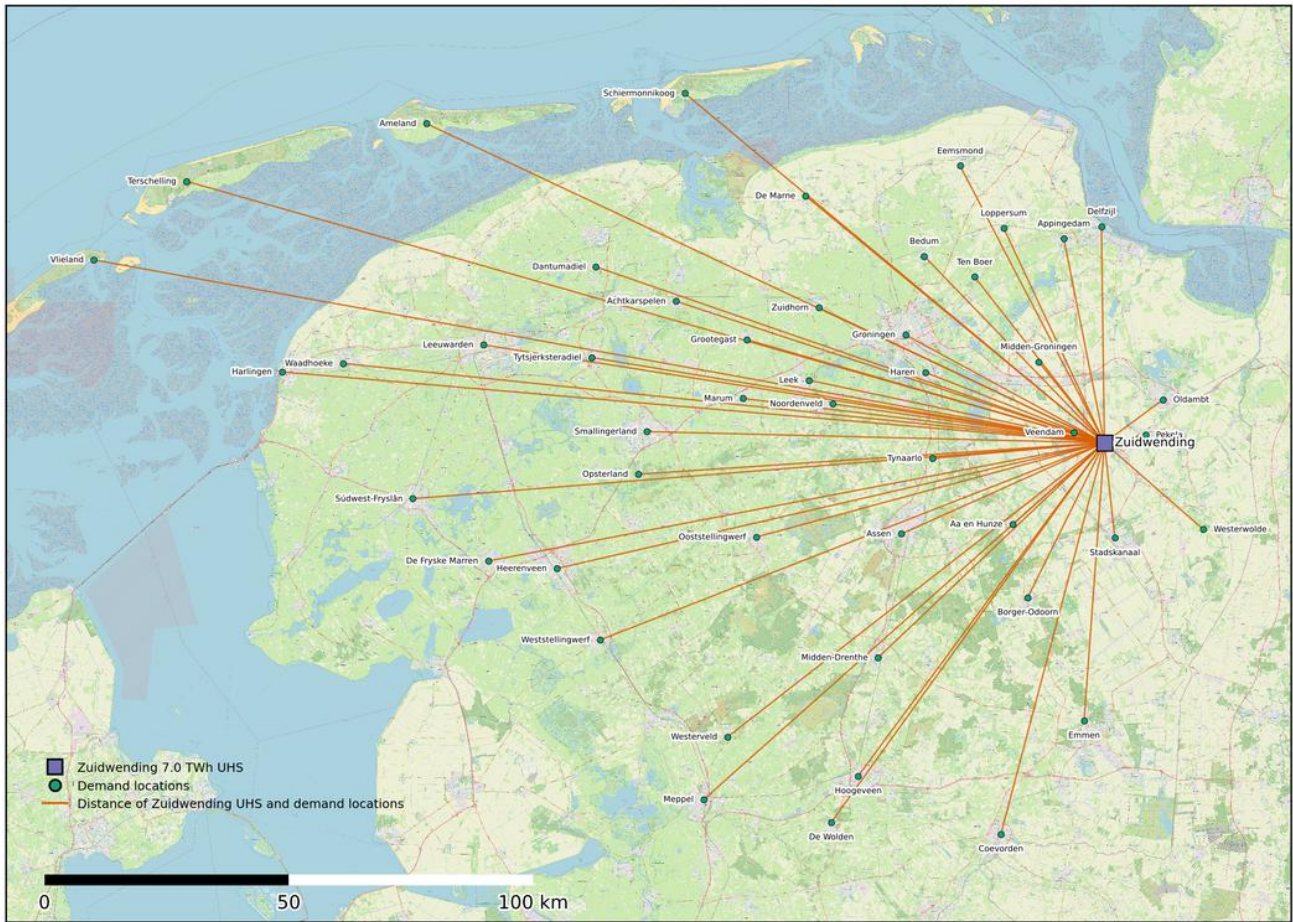


Figure 3: Results of Low Demand Scenario

more UHS locations results in a broader distribution, thereby shortening the distances to demand locations. Despite the shorter distances, the increase in transport costs can be explained by the larger volumes of hydrogen that need to be transported.

The hydrogen network structure and UHS locations for the different sub-scenarios in the medium demand scenario can be seen in Figures 5, 6, 7, 8, and the associated cost in Figure 4. Looking at the demand and available capacity, only the regional sub-scenario in the medium demand scenario is feasible with the practical capacity of 15 TWh. The other three sub-scenarios in the medium demand scenario have too high demand, exceeding the 15 TWh capacity. In these three sub-scenarios, the combined capacity of the UHS is insufficient to meet the demand.

5.3. Results High Demand Scenario 2050

In the high-demand scenario, the hydrogen market is assumed to be well-developed and completely mature by 2050. The hydrogen demand is expected to vary between 26.52 and 65.71 TWh. The number of UHS increases further, and three of the four sub-scenarios within the higher demand scenarios become infeasible because demand exceeds the available capacity at the UHS locations. The constraint

no longer satisfied in these three sub-scenarios. The required UHS facilities ranges from seven to nine across all sub-scenarios

As the model seeks to satisfy as much hydrogen demand as possible at minimal total system cost, it continuously optimizes the trade-off between opening additional storage facilities and extending service distances. With increasing demand, the cost-efficiency of the system improves, reflected in a more favorable demand-to-cost ratio, although the marginal gains diminish as total demand rises.

As expected, the total costs increase substantially under high demand conditions. The international sub-scenario, for example, reaches a total cost of approximately 732 million euros, nearly double that of the highest-cost medium demand scenario (474 million euros). This increase is primarily driven by the larger volume of hydrogen handled and the longer transport distances, particularly evident in the European sub-scenario, where the average service distance exceeds 125 km. Compared to the low demand scenario, which had a maximum total cost of 148 million euros, the cost increase in the high demand scenario is nearly fivefold.

$$\sum_{i \in F} N_{x_{ij}} \leq$$

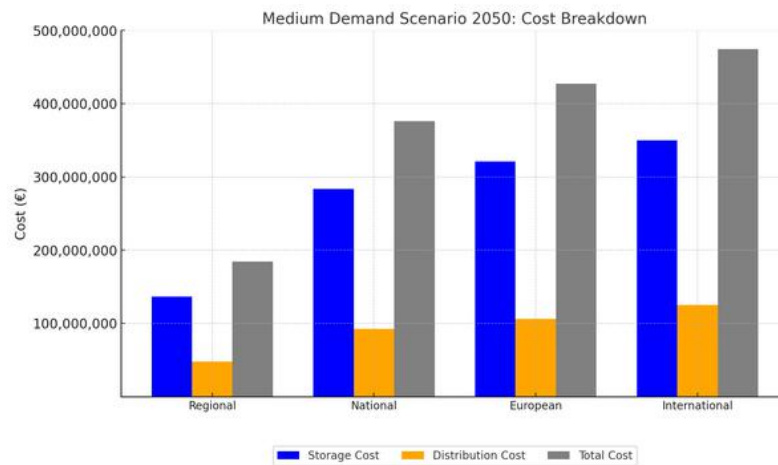


Figure 4: FLP Model Results of Medium Demand Scenario

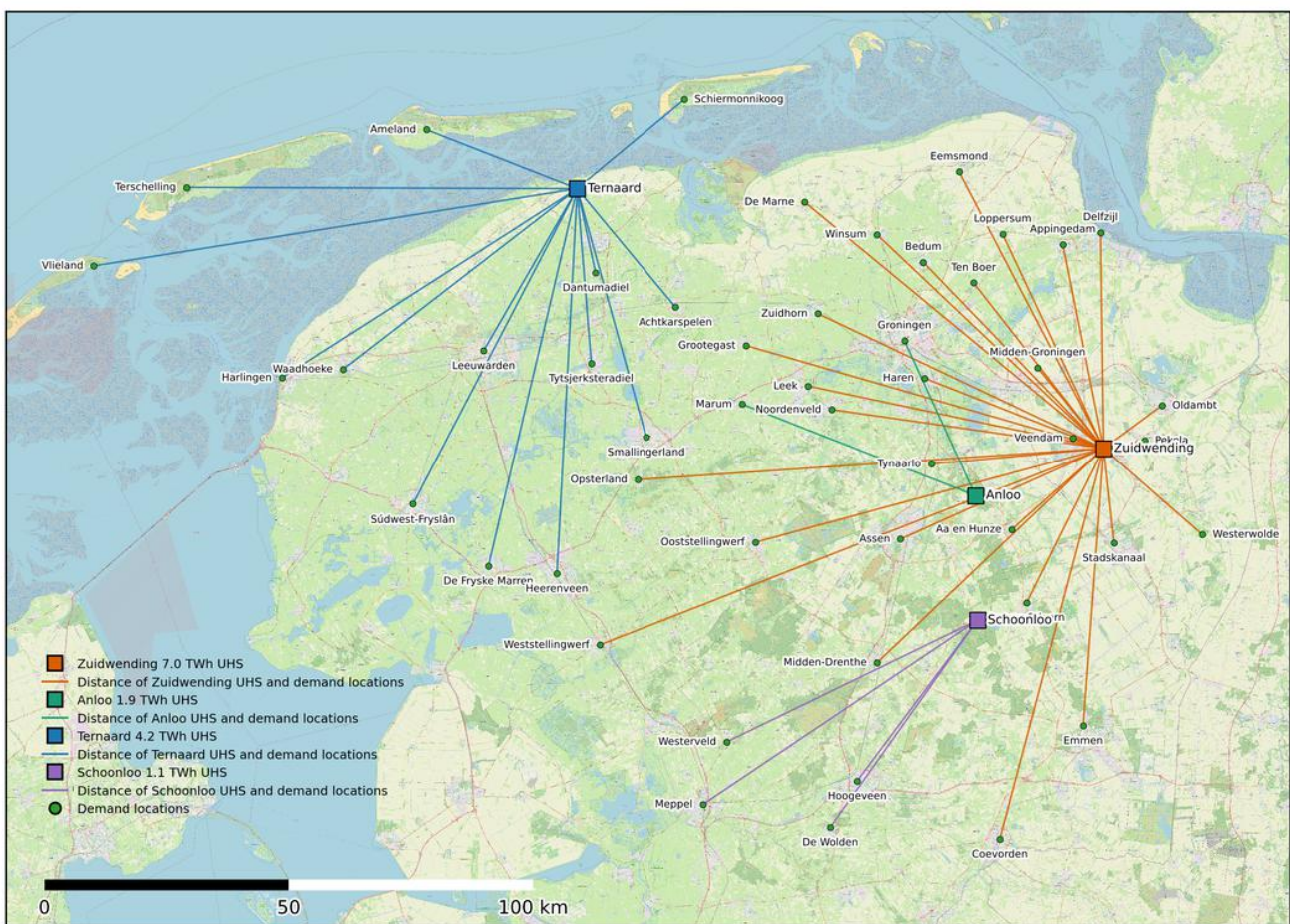


Figure 5: Results of Medium Demand Scenario-Regional

Despite the increase in absolute costs, the results indicate that economies of scale continue to moderate cost intensity. The cost per unit of hydrogen stored and transported does not increase proportionally with demand. For instance, while the international sub-scenario's demand is nearly twice that of the medium regional sub-scenario, its total cost is only about

four times higher. This demonstrates that, as infrastructure scales, cost-efficiency per TWh improves, especially when UHS facilities are strategically located to optimize network performance.

However, the increase in service distances, particularly in the European scenario, suggests a growing geographical

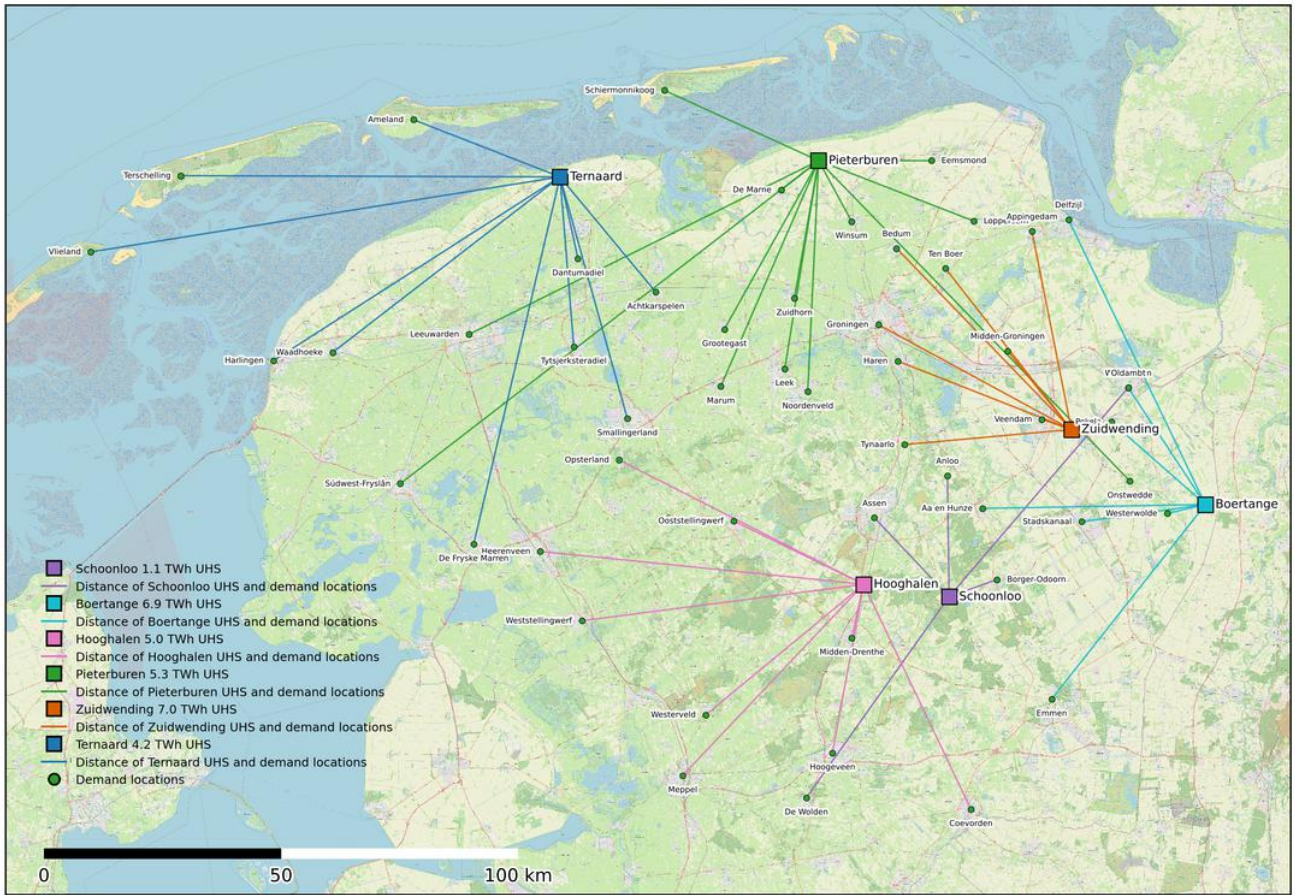


Figure 6: Results of Medium Demand Scenario-National

Table 8
Results for the high demand scenario

Scenario	Hydrogen Demand (TWh)	Service Distance (km)	Storage Facilities	Storage Cost (€)	Distribution Cost (€)	Total Cost (€)
Regional	26.52	69.02	7	267,627,040.87	84,264,240.04	351,891,280.91
National	53.06	83.56	9	416,096,096.10	235,307,264.96	651,403,361.05
European	58.51	125.21	9	416,096,096.10	273,710,718.25	689,806,814.35
Inter national	65.71	73.10	9	416,096,096.10	316,358,662.64	732,454,758.74

mismatch between UHS locations and hydrogen demand centers. This stands in contrast to the medium demand scenario, where shorter average service distances (as low as 59.76 km) were achievable due to a denser and more regionally distributed network of storage facilities. Under high demand, maintaining spatial optimization becomes more difficult, highlighting the increasing importance of integrated spatial planning for hydrogen infrastructure.

A crucial finding is that three of the four sub-scenarios in the high demand case become infeasible under the current theoretical storage capacity constraints. Specifically, the constraint $\sum_{i \in I} x_{ij} \leq C_{ij}$ is violated in the national, European and international demand exceeding the available UHS capacity. Only the

regional sub-scenario remains feasible within the defined storage limits.

The infeasibility of these sub-scenarios aligns with insights from the literature and expert interviews. TNO [78] and an interview with Company X both emphasized that the available UHS capacity in salt caverns is unlikely to be sufficient to meet future hydrogen demand alone. Company X explicitly noted: “To offer flexibility and cover the future hydrogen demand, many salt caverns, and possibly depleted gas fields as strategic storage facilities are needed.” This implies that in addition to expanding the UHS network, the integration of repurposed natural gas infrastructure or cross-border coordination particularly with Germany, which reportedly has a higher availability of salt cavern storage is essential. According to Company X, several German storage

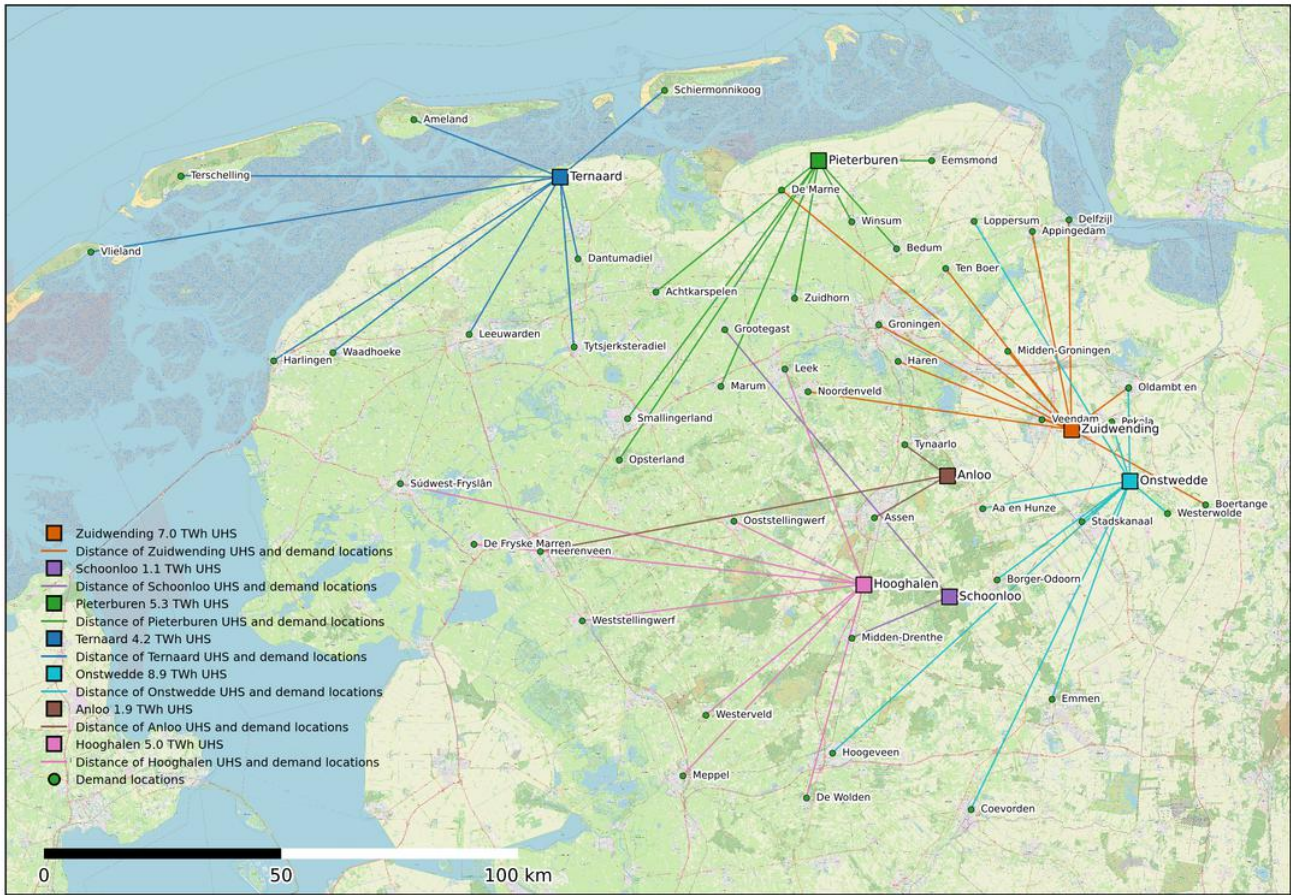


Figure 7: Results of Medium Demand Scenario-European

fields have already been leached and could potentially offer a near-term solution.

Figures 10 through 13 present the FLP model results for each sub-scenario, and the associated costs are visualized in Figure 9.

5.4. Relation between Hydrogen Demand and Total Cost

As hydrogen demand increases, the combined cost per TWh for storage and transport decreases significantly. This trend reflects the presence of economies of scale in hydrogen infrastructure development. Specifically, the cost of storage at a UHS location is largely fixed and determined by the facility's maximum capacity. When the actual hydrogen demand served is below this capacity, the cost per TWh increases, as the infrastructure is underutilized. Conversely, higher utilization of each UHS facility leads to a lower unit cost of storage and distribution.

Importantly, storage costs are incurred upon commissioning a UHS facility, regardless of the volume of hydrogen it ultimately stores. Therefore, lower demand leads to higher cost per unit of hydrogen. This effect is clearly illustrated in Table 9, which presents the cost per TWh of hydrogen for each scenario. For example, in the low demand scenario,

the unit cost can exceed 220 million euros per TWh in the regional sub-scenario. In contrast, under high demand conditions, this value drops below 12 million euros/TWh in the international sub-scenario.

These results underline a critical insight: the development of a hydrogen backbone is most cost-effective under conditions of high and sustained demand. When demand is low, the fixed costs of infrastructure are spread over a smaller volume of hydrogen, making such investments economically unattractive. Therefore, from a techno-economic standpoint, large-scale hydrogen infrastructure becomes increasingly viable and financially justified as demand scales up.

5.5. Sensitivity Analysis and Model Validation

To strengthen the credibility of the FLP model and validate its predictive performance, we complement our optimization results with a structured sensitivity analysis and benchmarking against existing studies (e.g., [75, 39, 78]). The sensitivity analysis is conducted on the *Medium Demand Scenario – National* configuration, which serves as the reference case, to evaluate how variations in key parameters affect the structure and cost of the hydrogen storage network. This approach allows us to verify the robustness of the model's outcomes and assess whether the main findings remain stable under parameter uncertainty.

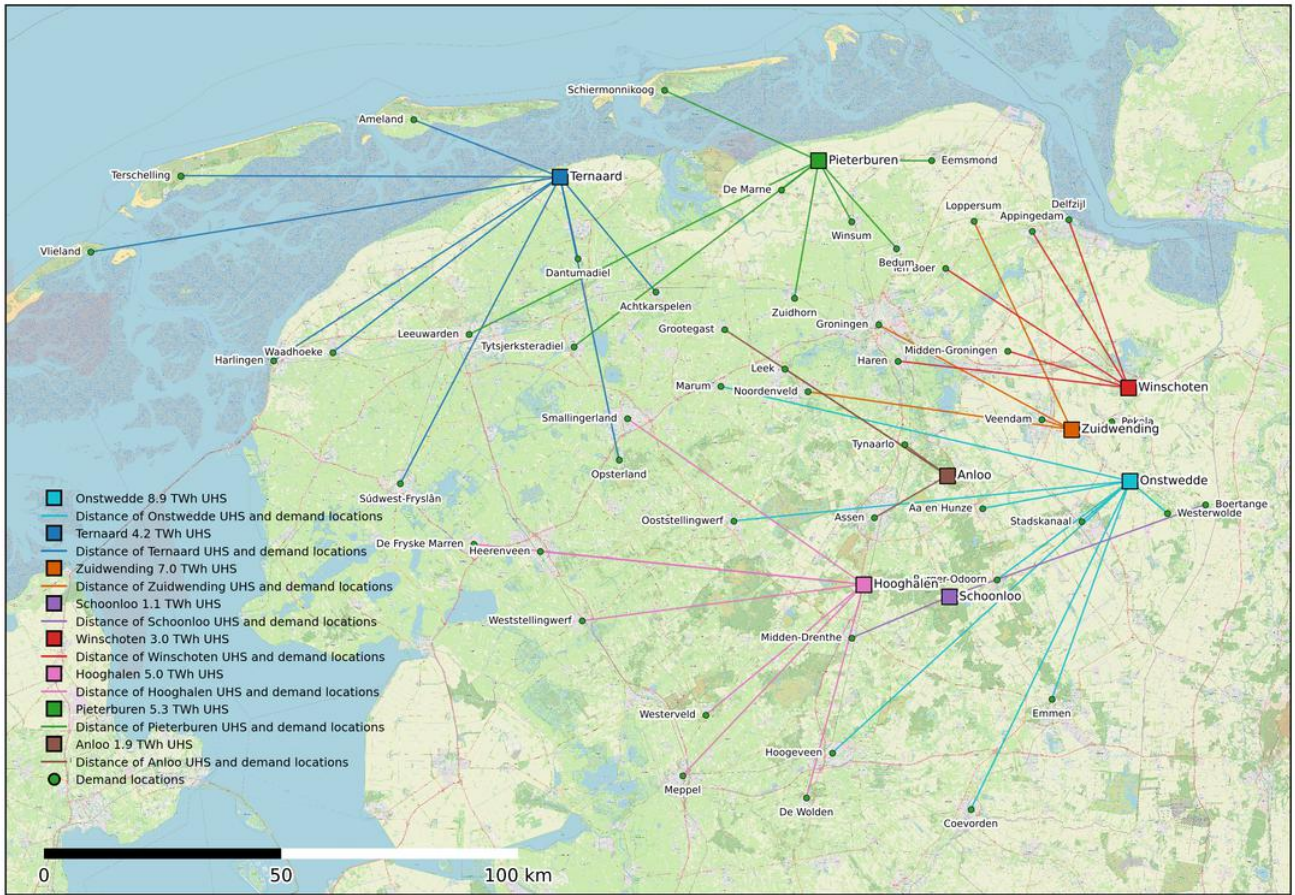


Figure 8: Results of Medium Demand Scenario-International

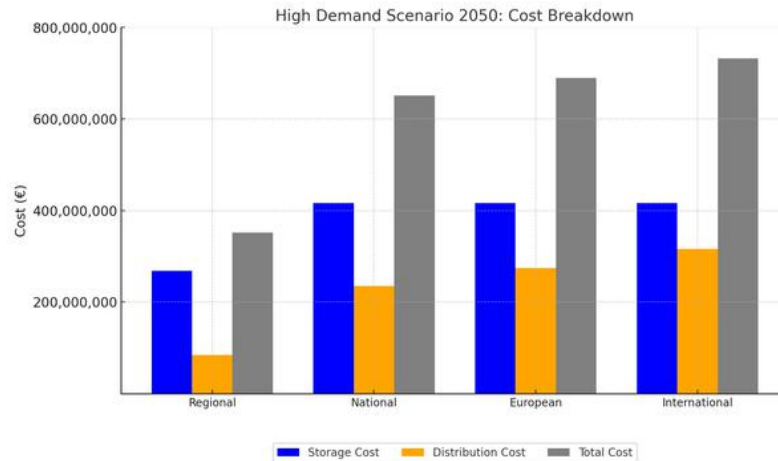


Figure 9: FLP Model Results of High Demand Scenario

The analysis focuses on two critical parameters: (i) pipeline routing distance and (ii) UHS CAPEX. While the base model assumes straight-line (Euclidean) distances and nominal storage costs, actual routing often deviates due to spatial constraints, and storage costs vary depending on cavern size and number. To capture these uncertainties, route

factors of 1.2, 1.3, and 1.4 are applied to simulate increasingly indirect routing, and UHS CAPEX is varied by – 30%, 0%, and +30% to reflect cost uncertainty. Additionally, both the theoretical storage potential (43.4 TWh) and the practically achievable capacity (15 TWh) are considered as

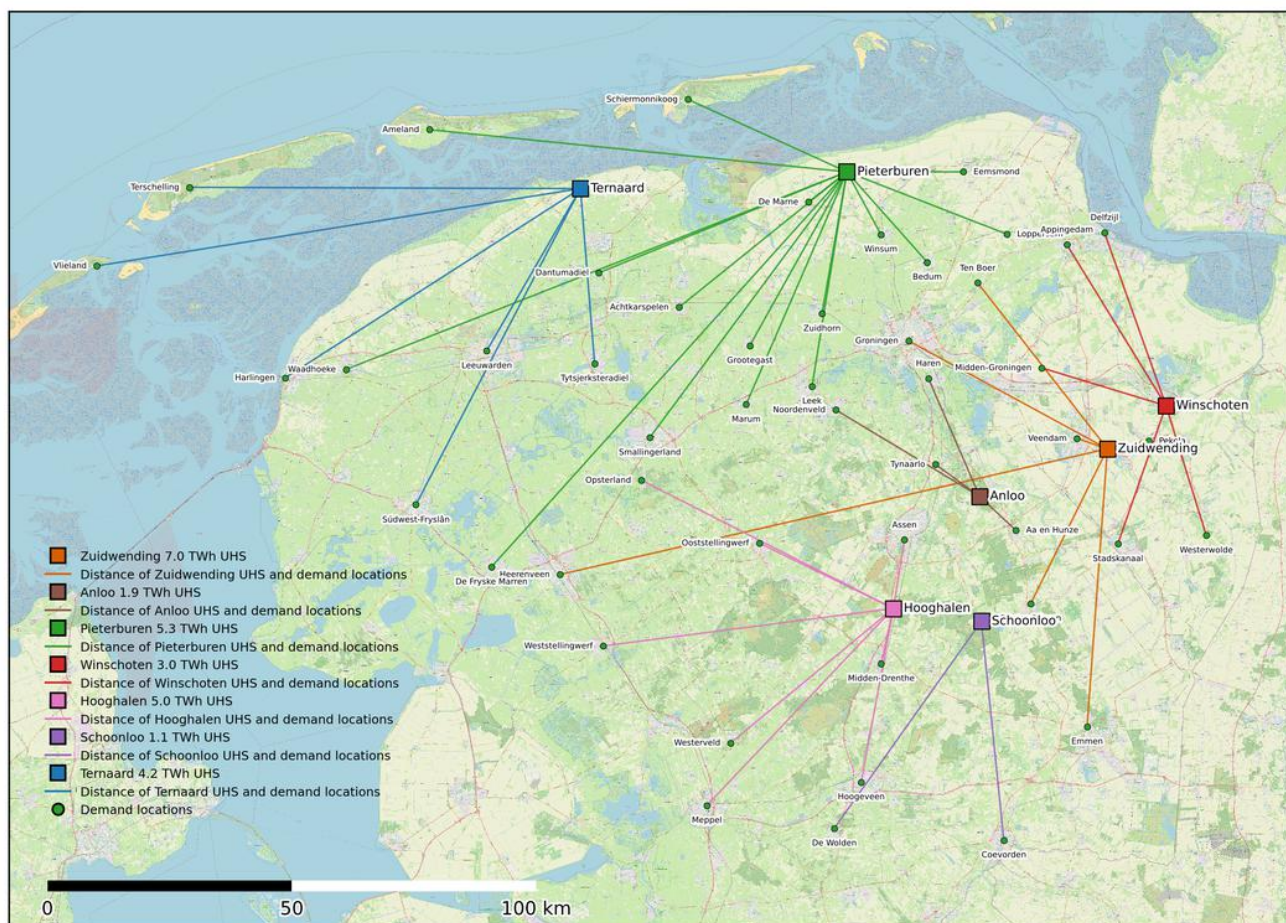


Figure 10: Results of High Demand Scenario – Regional

Table 9
Cost per TWh of hydrogen (storage & transportation)

Scenario	€
Low demand	
Regional	222,423,360.21
National	27,004,622.59
European	22,242,865.66
Inter national	17,078,044.33
Medium demand	
Regional	13,750,975.03
National	13,396,149.93
European	13,667,214.78
Inter national	13,299,072.82
	13,268,901.99
High demand	
Regional	12,276,731.27
National	11,789,554.17
European	11,146,777.64
Inter national	

boundary conditions to account for the range between technical potential and real-world deployment. These variations result in 12 distinct sensitivity scenarios.

Table 10 summarizes the results for all scenarios. Across all twelve cases, UHS remains an integral part of the least-cost system configuration, with between five and seven facilities consistently deployed, even under the most unfavorable conditions (+30% CAPEX). This outcome highlights the structural robustness of UHS integration. In contrast, pipeline routing assumptions emerge as a significant cost driver. Increasing the route factor from the baseline (1.0) to more realistic values (1.3–1.4) increases total system costs by approximately 30–40 million €, depending on storage cost levels.

The total system cost ranges from 295.37 million € in the lowest-cost scenario (route factor = 1.0, CAPEX = –30%) to 505.98 million € in the most expensive scenario (route factor = 1.3, CAPEX = +30%). The cost per unit of hydrogen stored ranges from approximately 10.52 million €/TWh to 18.02 million €/TWh. Demand coverage remains constant at 28.08 TWh in all scenarios, while the maximum service distance (≤187.6 km) remains far below the conventional 1000 km constraint, indicating that distance is not a limiting factor. The network structure adapts slightly across cases, with total storage capacity fluctuating between 28.4 TWh

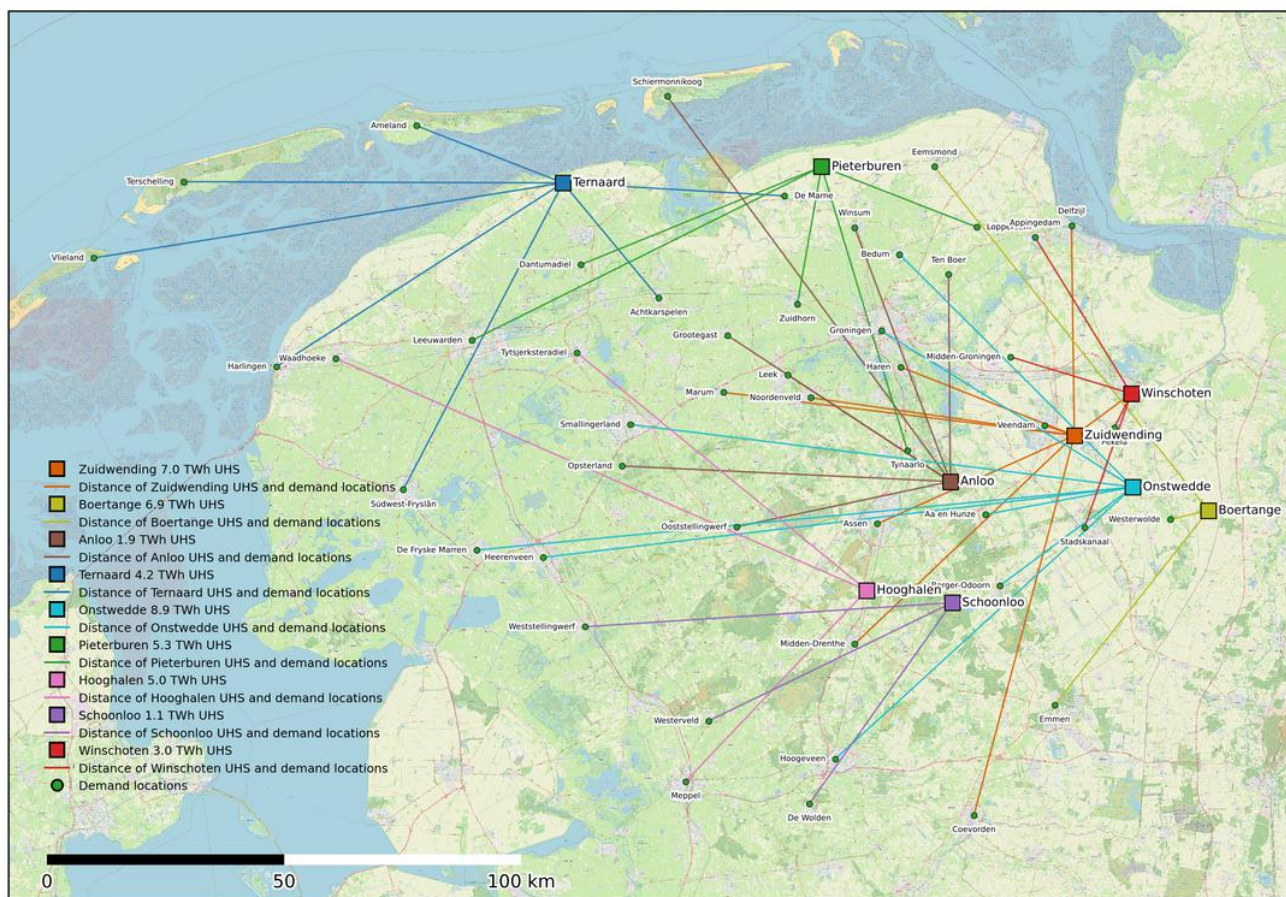


Figure 11: Results of High Demand Scenario – National

and 31.4 TWh as the FLP locally optimizes capacity and site selection in response to parameter changes.

These findings confirm that UHS is a robust and indispensable component of the hydrogen energy system design. Even with a 30% increase in CAPEX, UHS remains part of the least-cost solution. By contrast, pipeline routing uncertainty exerts a strong influence on system costs, underscoring the importance of careful spatial planning, permitting, and integration with existing infrastructure. The incorporation of both practical capacity (15 TWh) and technical potential (43.4 TWh) as boundary conditions further enhances the realism of the system assessment. The results of the sensitivity analysis are illustrated in Figure 14, which visualizes how these variations influence total system costs relative to the base case.

6. Discussion

The results of the FLP modeling for the hydrogen storage network in the Northern Netherlands (NN) reveal key insights into the techno-economic dynamics of large-scale hydrogen infrastructure deployment by 2050. The

scenario-based approach—ranging from low to high demand—provides a comprehensive view of how hydrogen demand interacts with UHS configuration, costs, and feasibility constraints.

Although uniform cost assumptions were necessary for model tractability, their implications were explicitly tested through sensitivity analysis. Varying UHS CAPEX by $\pm 30\%$ and pipeline routing multipliers by 1.2–1.4 resulted in only moderate changes in total system cost and did not alter the spatial configuration of the least-cost network. This indicates that the principal insights of the study—specifically, the centrality of underground storage and the importance of spatially optimized deployment—remain robust under substantial cost uncertainty.

A strong correlation emerges between hydrogen demand and network cost efficiency. As demand increases, the leveled cost per TWh of hydrogen storage and transport decreases markedly, reflecting economies of scale. Fixed infrastructure costs are distributed more efficiently across higher throughput volumes. In the low-demand regional scenario, unit costs exceed €220 million per TWh, while in the high-demand international scenario this figure drops below €12 million per TWh. This highlights the economic inefficiency of underutilized infrastructure and underscores

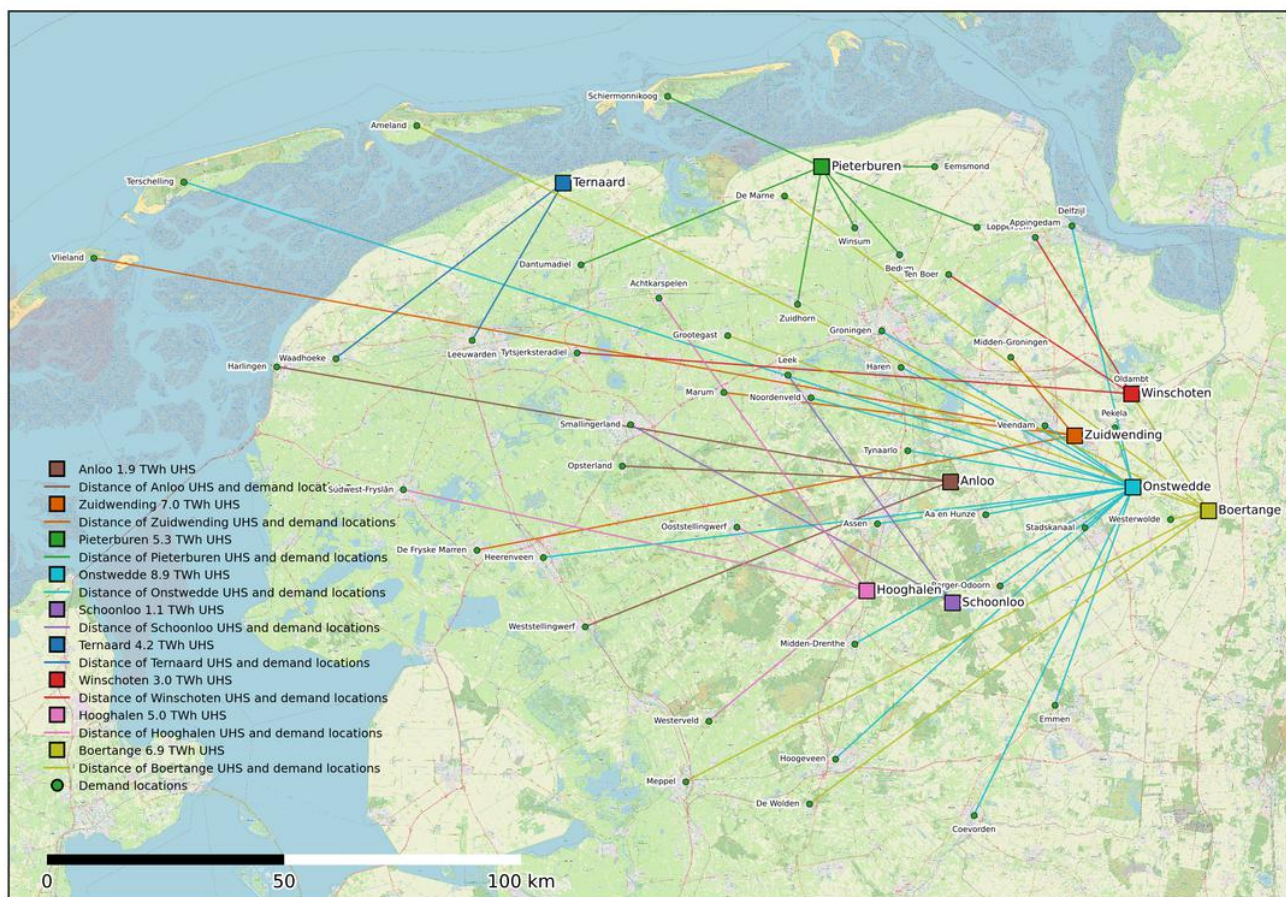


Figure 12: Results of High Demand Scenario – European

Table 10
Sensitivity analysis results for the Medium Demand Scenario – National.

Scenario	Description	UHS Costs [€]	Distribution Costs [€]	Total Cost [€]	Capacity [TWh]	Cost/TWh	Facilities	Demand [TWh]	Distance [km]
1	Route factor 1.0, UHS cost -30%	211,219,219.22	84,149,444.29	295,368,663.50	31.4	10,518,827.05	7	28.08	100.52
2 (Base)	Base scenario	283,483,483.48	92,616,330.54	376,099,814.02	29.5	13,393,868.02	6	28.08	66.64
3	Route factor 1.0, UHS cost +30%	368,528,528.53	90,319,089.43	458,847,617.96	29.5	16,340,727.14	6	28.08	65.09
4	Route factor 1.2, UHS cost -30%	203,819,819.82	107,938,998.87	311,758,818.69	28.4	11,102,522.03	6	28.08	103.06
5	Route factor 1.2, UHS cost base	279,639,639.64	119,586,969.79	399,226,609.43	29.1	14,217,471.85	7	28.08	120.63
6	Route factor 1.2, UHS cost +30%	363,531,531.53	119,301,528.23	482,833,059.77	29.1	17,194,909.54	7	28.08	127.65
7	Route factor 1.3, UHS cost -30%	191,039,039.04	119,384,196.79	310,423,235.83	28.4	11,054,958.54	5	28.08	86.63
8	Route factor 1.3, UHS cost base	283,483,483.48	115,243,516.52	398,727,000.00	29.5	14,199,679.49	6	28.08	95.03
9	Route factor 1.3, UHS cost +30%	392,264,264.26	113,717,571.70	505,981,835.96	31.4	18,019,296.15	7	28.08	187.64
10	Route factor 1.4, UHS cost -30%	211,219,219.22	121,993,835.04	333,213,054.26	31.4	11,866,561.76	7	28.08	120.23
11	Route factor 1.4, UHS cost base	283,483,483.48	124,170,684.50	407,654,167.98	29.5	14,517,598.57	6	28.08	102.34
12	Route factor 1.4, UHS cost +30%	368,528,528.53	124,931,393.22	493,459,921.75	29.5	17,573,359.04	6	28.08	114.07

that large-scale UHS development becomes financially viable only once demand reaches a critical threshold.

However, higher demand levels also introduce feasibility constraints. Under the high-demand scenario, three out of four sub-scenarios become infeasible given the assumed total salt cavern capacity of 15 TWh. Even with optimal facility siting, the available or planned storage capacity in NN is insufficient to meet future hydrogen demand. Only the regional sub-scenario remains within feasible limits, suggesting that substantial expansion or diversification of storage capacity will be required to support a mature hydrogen economy.

This finding aligns with warnings from industry and prior studies, such as Van Gessel et al. [79], which emphasize the need for complementary storage solutions. Stakeholder interviews also confirmed that repurposing depleted gas fields or integrating cross-border storage (e.g., in Germany) will be essential for long-term system resilience. Papadakis and Ahluwalia [60] similarly argue that growing hydrogen demand will necessitate multiple storage types to ensure supply security and operational flexibility.

Across the twelve modeled scenarios, consistent structural patterns emerge. In the low-demand case, a single facility—Zuidwending—meets the region's storage needs. Its

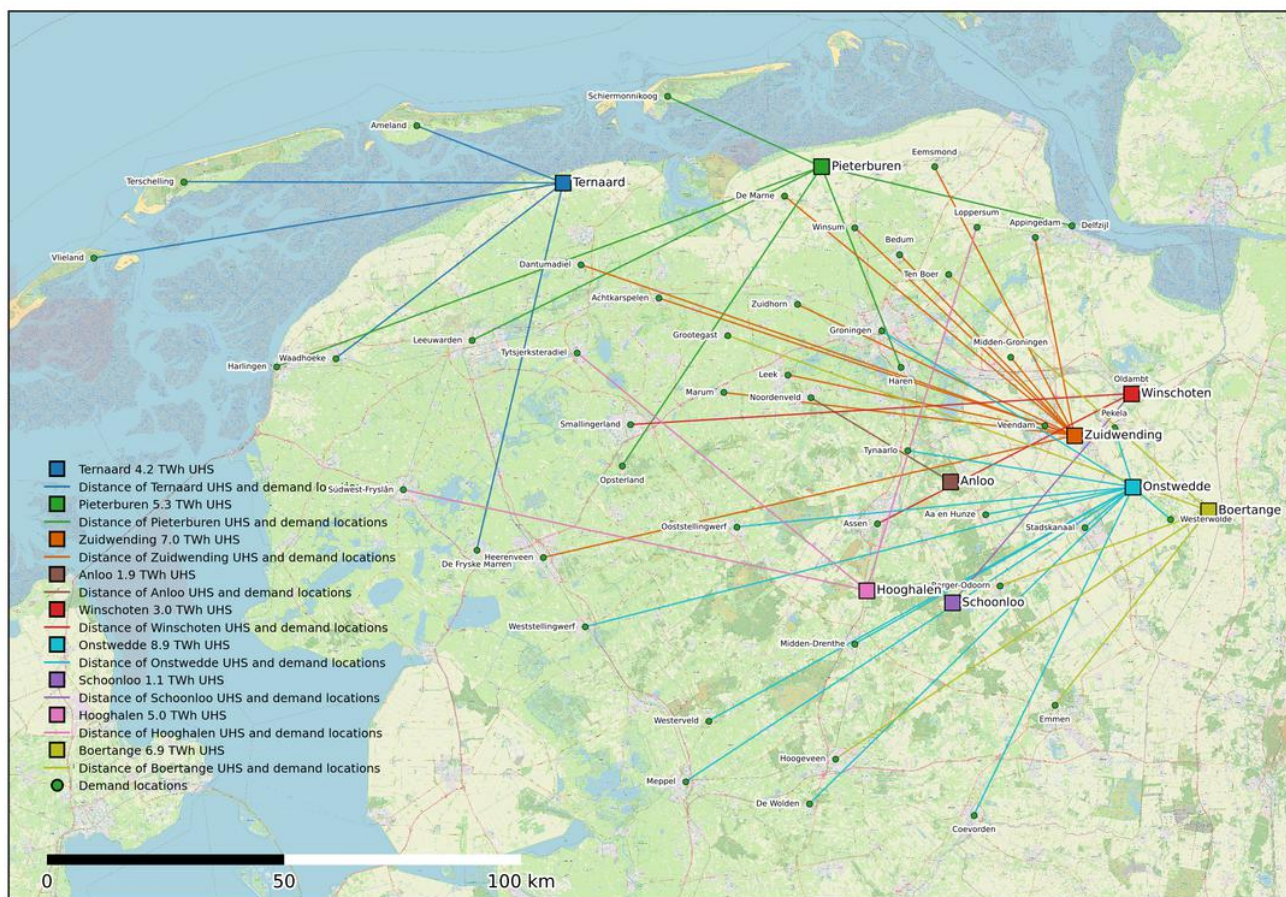


Figure 13: Results of High Demand Scenario – International

7 TWh capacity is sufficient across all sub-scenarios, underscoring its strategic role in early deployment. In the medium-demand scenario, four to eight UHS sites are required, improving the balance between supply and demand and yielding a more favorable cost-to-demand ratio. In contrast, the high-demand scenario exceeds the combined capacity of all candidate sites, necessitating either additional cavern development beyond NN or the repurposing of depleted gas reservoirs.

The consistent exclusion of the Hoogeveen site from all model outcomes also warrants attention. With a maximum capacity of just 0.1 TWh, Hoogeveen is not selected under any scenario, indicating that small-capacity sites are economically inefficient even when located closer to demand centers. The model systematically favors larger, more cost-effective facilities, emphasizing the importance of economies of scale in UHS planning.

Spatial optimization patterns further illustrate how network design evolves with demand. In the medium-demand scenario, the average service distance decreases by more than 50% compared to the low-demand case, indicating improved geographic coverage and distribution efficiency.

However, in the high-demand scenario—particularly under the European sub-scenario—service distances increase

again, reflecting the growing difficulty of maintaining spatial efficiency as the network expands to meet dispersed demand hotspots. These results suggest that spatial optimization yields diminishing returns as the system scales, reinforcing the need for future UHS development near industrial demand clusters.

Stakeholder interviews also highlighted that cavern development is both time- and resource-intensive. Constructing a single salt cavern can take up to a decade due to geological logging, permitting, topside installation, and brine disposal requirements [58]. TNO [79] estimates that no more than 60 caverns can realistically be developed by 2050, emphasizing the urgency of early strategic siting decisions. Furthermore, societal resistance linked to historical gas extraction in NN could present additional challenges to timely implementation.

These practitioner perspectives complement the quantitative results by highlighting real-world constraints—such as permitting delays, regulatory fragmentation, and public acceptance—that shape the feasibility of hydrogen storage deployment beyond purely techno-economic considerations.

These findings carry several policy and planning implications. First, early and coordinated policy action is essential

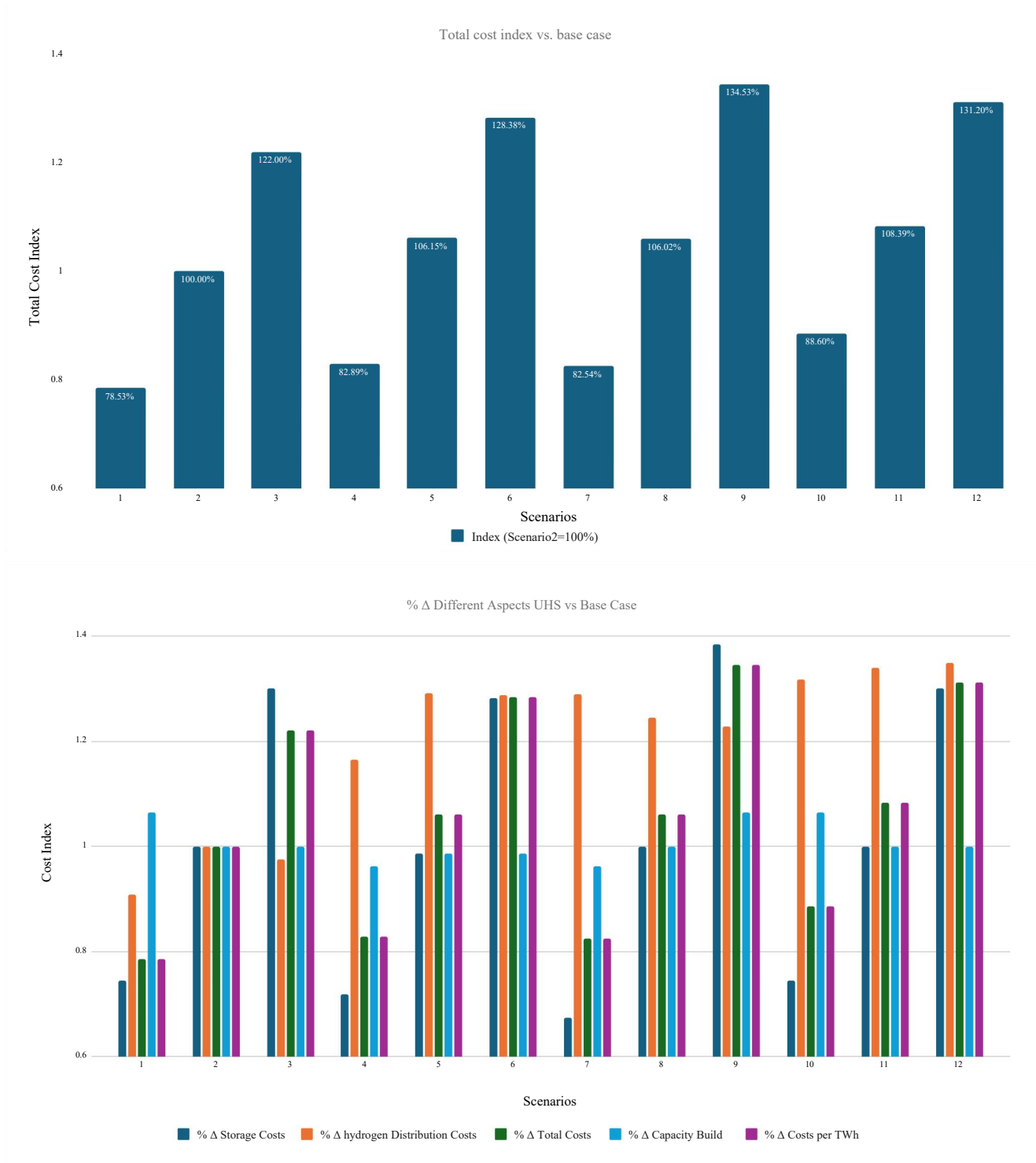


Figure 14: Total system cost index across 12 sensitivity scenarios relative to the base case (top) and percentage deviation of total system cost from the base scenario (bottom).

to align storage capacity expansion with projected hydrogen demand. Second, cost efficiency improves markedly at higher demand levels, supporting policies that promote hydrogen adoption in industry and heavy transport. Third, addressing feasibility constraints requires both technological

and regulatory interventions, such as enabling storage in depleted gas fields and fostering cross-border UHS integration.

Uncertainty in future hydrogen demand remains a major barrier to effective infrastructure planning. Current projections for 2030 and 2040 are fragmented and lack governance clarity across regional, national, and EU levels. Stakeholders

emphasized the need for an authoritative roadmap to prevent misaligned investments and ensure coherent development of hydrogen infrastructure.

Finally, the consistent underutilization of small-capacity sites suggests the need for a differentiated infrastructure hierarchy. Large-scale sites should serve as strategic backbone nodes, while smaller facilities could play niche roles—for example, in balancing local grids, providing emergency reserves, or supporting decentralized hydrogen ecosystems.

Assumptions regarding straight-line routing were tested using route multipliers up to 1.4, confirming that while total system costs increase, the least-cost network configuration remains stable. This supports the validity of using simplified distance assumptions for strategic-scale analyses. Future research should incorporate detailed pipeline routing data, repurposing costs, and dynamic flow modeling to better capture temporal variability and operational constraints.

7. Conclusion

This study assessed the techno-economic feasibility of

developing an UHS network in the NN under alternative hydrogen demand scenarios for 2050. By extending a FLP model with region-specific demand projections and insights from literature and stakeholder consultations, the research addresses a critical gap in hydrogen infrastructure planning—namely, the interaction between demand uncertainty, storage capacity constraints, and cost-optimal network configuration.

The results demonstrate that future hydrogen demand levels will decisively shape the structure, feasibility, and cost efficiency of UHS networks. Under low-demand conditions, a single facility at Zuidwending is sufficient; however, medium- and high-demand scenarios require a substantially expanded network, activating up to nine of the ten candidate sites. Although higher demand enhances cost efficiency through economies of scale, the limited capacity of salt caverns emerges as a major bottleneck, rendering several configurations infeasible without supplementary storage solutions.

These findings highlight the need for proactive, long-term planning that integrates both domestic and cross-border storage strategies. Early inclusion of alternative storage options—such as depleted gas fields or cavern facilities in neighboring regions like Germany—will be essential to ensure adequate system flexibility and resilience. Coordinated policy support and strong public-private collaboration are likewise critical to reduce investment uncertainty and accelerate infrastructure deployment.

Beyond reaffirming established relationships between scale economies and storage capacity constraints, this study contextualizes them within the specific regional and policy environment of the Northern Netherlands—a key hub in Europe's emerging hydrogen economy. By quantifying these dynamics within a spatially explicit network framework, the research provides actionable, region-specific evidence to guide investment sequencing and infrastructure rollout.

The integration of stakeholder perspectives further grounds the analysis in practical governance and regulatory contexts, underscoring that technical feasibility must be accompanied by institutional readiness. Accordingly, the findings point to three strategic recommendations for policymakers: (i) implementing phased investment incentives to stimulate early-stage UHS development; (ii) establishing harmonized regulatory mechanisms for cross-border storage integration, particularly with Germany; and (iii) aligning regional storage capacity targets with verified industrial and mobility demand milestones. Together, these measures translate model insights into a concrete roadmap for achieving a cost-effective and resilient hydrogen storage system in Northwest Europe.

The study's scope is limited to the Dutch context and does not account for potential international hydrogen flows that could influence network design. Future research should therefore examine integration with existing natural gas infrastructure and explore the scalability of UHS networks across transnational hydrogen corridors.

This analysis focused primarily on salt caverns due to their technological maturity and data availability. Future research should extend the assessment to include other potential underground hydrogen storage formations, such as depleted gas reservoirs and deep saline aquifers. The Northern Netherlands hosts several depleted hydrocarbon fields that could provide substantial additional storage capacity and seasonal flexibility. However, their suitability depends on factors such as caprock integrity, residual gas composition, and geochemical reactivity. A comparative techno-economic and risk-based evaluation of these alternatives would provide valuable insights for developing an integrated and resilient hydrogen storage portfolio for the region.

The present study applies a conventional FLP framework, with its main contribution lying in the contextual adaptation of this approach to hydrogen storage network planning in the Northern Netherlands. The model captures spatially explicit hydrogen demand patterns, geological constraints, and policy-relevant capacity considerations, while intentionally simplifying transport routing and omitting time-dependent storage dynamics consistent with the study's strategic scope. Future work should extend the framework to include (i) material embrittlement and the associated retrofit costs of repurposed infrastructure, (ii) dynamic injection and withdrawal constraints reflecting cyclic operation of salt caverns and depleted reservoirs, and (iii) hybrid storage configurations that combine multiple geological formations. Integrating these elements would enhance the model's technical realism and provide deeper insights into the operational design of hydrogen storage networks.

Advancing the practical implementation of UHS in a decarbonizing Europe will require close alignment between technical modeling, regulatory development, and societal engagement. By integrating quantitative modeling with stakeholder-informed governance insights, this study provides a decision-support framework for sequencing hydrogen infrastructure investments, coordinating cross-border regulation, and aligning regional storage capacity with

verified demand trajectories. Overall, the scenario-based modeling approach presented here offers a flexible, data-driven framework to support adaptive hydrogen infrastructure planning consistent with long-term energy transition and climate neutrality objectives.

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Appendices

A. Set of Demand Nodes

Table 11: Demand Nodes (Municipalities)

ID	Municipality	ID	Municipality
1	Achtkarspelen	26	Noordenveld
2	Ameland	27	Tynaarlo
3	Dantumadiel	28	Westerveld
4	DeFryskeMarren	29	DeWolden
5	Harlingen	30	Delfzijl
6	Heerenveen	31	Appingedam
7	Leeuwarden	32	Loppersum
8	Ooststellingwerf	33	Groningen
9	Opsterland	34	Bedum
10	Schiermonnikoog	35	Haren
11	Smallingerland	36	Midden-Groningen
12	Súdwest-Fryslân	37	Oldambt
13	Terschelling	38	Pekela
14	Tytsjerksteradiel	39	Stadskanaal
15	Vlieland	40	Veendam
16	Waadhoeke	41	Zuidhorn
17	Weststellingwerf	42	Westerwolde
18	AaenHunze	43	TenBoer
19	Assen	44	DeMarne
20	Borger-Odoorn	45	Grootegast
21	Coevorden	46	Marum
22	Emmen	47	Eemsmond
23	Hoogeveen	48	Leek
24	Meppel	49	Winsum
25	Midden-Drenthe		

B. Total Demand (T) in PJ, TWh, and kg for Each Demand Node in the Set of F

Table 12: Total hydrogen demand per node under Low Demand Scenario (Friesland)

Municipality	BuurtCode	PJ				TWh				kg			
		Regional	National	European	Int'l	Regional	National	European	Int'l	Regional	National	European	Int'l
Achtkarspelen	GM0059	0.02	0.20	0.24	0.32	0.01	0.06	0.07	0.09	166833.50	1668335.00	2002002.00	2669336.00
Ameland	GM0060	0.00	0.01	0.03	0.06	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.00	83416.75	250250.25	500500.50
Dantumadiel	GM1891	0.01	0.06	0.08	0.15	0.00	0.02	0.02	0.04	83416.75	500500.50	667334.00	1251251.25
De Fryske Marren	GM1940	0.03	0.31	0.45	0.60	0.01	0.09	0.13	0.17	250250.25	2585919.25	3753753.75	5005005.01
Harlingen	GM0072	0.01	0.07	0.12	0.15	0.00	0.02	0.03	0.04	83416.75	583917.25	1001001.00	1251251.25
Heerenveen	GM0074	0.04	0.20	0.43	0.52	0.01	0.06	0.12	0.14	333667.00	1668335.00	3586920.25	4337671.00
Leeuwarden	GM0080	0.08	0.84	0.72	0.89	0.02	0.23	0.20	0.25	667334.00	7007007.01	6006006.01	7424090.76
Ooststellingwerf	GM0085	0.02	0.08	0.13	0.25	0.01	0.02	0.04	0.07	166833.50	667334.00	1084417.75	2085418.75
Opsterland	GM0086	0.02	0.10	0.14	0.17	0.01	0.03	0.04	0.05	166833.50	834167.50	1167834.50	1418084.75
Schiermonnikoog	GM0088	0.00	0.00	0.05	0.07	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.00	0.00	417083.75	583917.25
Smallingerland	GM0090	0.04	0.20	0.22	0.33	0.01	0.06	0.06	0.09	333667.00	1668335.00	1835168.50	2752752.75
Súdwest-Fryslân	GM1900	0.06	0.55	0.72	0.90	0.02	0.15	0.20	0.25	500500.50	4587921.25	6006006.01	7507507.51
Terschelling	GM0093	0.00	0.02	0.04	0.07	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.00	166833.50	333667.00	583917.25
Tytsjerksteradiel	GM0737	0.02	0.45	0.48	0.55	0.01	0.13	0.13	0.15	166833.50	3753753.75	4004004.00	4587921.25
Vlieland	GM0096	0.00	0.00	0.11	0.14	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.04	0.00	0.00	917584.25	1167834.50
Waadhoeke	GM1949	0.03	0.33	0.30	0.43	0.01	0.09	0.08	0.12	250250.25	2752752.75	2502502.50	3586920.25
Weststellingwerf	GM0098	0.02	0.09	0.20	0.23	0.01	0.03	0.06	0.06	166833.50	750750.75	1668335.00	1918585.25
Total		0.40	3.51	4.46	5.83	0.11	0.98	1.24	1.62	3336670.00	29279279.28	37203870.54	48631965.30

Table 13
Total hydrogen demand per node under Low Demand Scenario (Drenthe)

Municipality	BuurtCode	PJ				TWh				kg			
		Regional	National	European	Int'l	Regional	National	European	Int'l	Regional	National	European	Int'l
Aa en Hunze	GM1680	0.02	0.58	0.46	0.54	0.01	0.16	0.13	0.15	166834	4838172	3837171	4504505
Assen	Borger- GM0106	0.05	0.26	0.35	0.60	0.01	0.07	0.10	0.17	417084	2168836	2919586	5005005
Odoorn	GM1681	0.02	0.08	0.11	0.23	0.01	0.02	0.03	0.06	166834	667334	917584	1918585
Coevorden	GM0109	0.02	0.12	0.19	0.33	0.01	0.03	0.05	0.09	166834	1001001	1584918	2752753
Emmen	GM0114	0.06	0.34	0.46	0.94	0.02	0.09	0.13	0.26	500501	2836169	3837171	7841175
Hoogeveen	GM0118	0.04	0.57	0.57	0.79	0.01	0.16	0.16	0.22	333667	4754755	4754755	6589923
Meppel	Midden- GM0119	0.02	0.26	0.51	0.70	0.01	0.07	0.14	0.19	166834	2168836	4254254	5839173
Drenthe	GM1731	0.02	0.49	0.40	0.51	0.01	0.14	0.11	0.14	166834	4087421	3336670	4254254
Noordenveld	GM1699	0.02	0.11	0.39	0.58	0.01	0.03	0.11	0.16	166834	917584	3253253	4838172
Tynaarlo	GM1730	0.02	0.12	0.09	0.22	0.01	0.03	0.03	0.06	166834	1001001	750751	1835169
Westerveld	GM1701	0.01	0.06	0.13	0.24	0.00	0.02	0.04	0.07	83417	500501	1084418	2002002
De Wolden	GM1690	0.02	0.08	0.11	0.21	0.01	0.02	0.03	0.06	166834	667334	917584	1751752
Total		0.32	3.07	3.77	5.89	0.09	0.85	1.05	1.64	2669336	25608942	31448115	49132466

Table 14

Total hydrogen demand per node under Low Demand Scenario (Groningen)

Municipality	BuurtCode	PJ				TWh				kg			
		Regional	National	European	Int'l	Regional	National	European	Int'l	Regional	National	European	Int'l
Delfzijl Appingedam	GM0010	0.01	0.06	0.09	0.20	0.00	0.02	0.03	0.06	83417	500501	750751	1668335
Loppersum	GM0003	0.01	0.07	0.21	0.26	0.00	0.02	0.06	0.07	83417	583917	1751752	2168836
Groningen	GM0024	0.01	0.03	0.06	0.10	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.03	83417	250250	500501	834168
Bedum	GM0014	0.14	1.68	1.80	2.71	0.04	0.47	0.50	0.75	1167835	14014014	15015015	22605939
Haren Midden-	GM0005	0.01	0.33	0.28	0.32	0.00	0.09	0.08	0.09	83417	2752753	2335669	2669336
Groningen Oldambt	GM0017	0.01	0.07	0.10	0.17	0.00	0.02	0.03	0.05	83417	583917	834168	1418085
Pekela	GM1952	0.04	0.37	0.46	0.68	0.01	0.10	0.13	0.19	333667	3086419	3837171	5672339
Stadskanaal	GM1895	0.02	0.15	0.18	0.34	0.01	0.04	0.05	0.09	166834	1251251	1501502	2836169
Veendam	GM0765	0.01	0.08	0.33	0.40	0.00	0.02	0.09	0.11	83417	667334	2752753	3336670
Zuidhor n	GM0037	0.02	0.10	0.09	0.21	0.01	0.03	0.03	0.06	166834	834168	750751	1751752
Westerwolde	GM0047	0.02	0.09	0.08	0.20	0.01	0.03	0.02	0.06	166834	750751	667334	1668335
Ten Boer	GM0056	0.01	0.06	0.56	0.70	0.00	0.02	0.16	0.19	83417	500501	4671338	5839173
De Marne	GM1950	0.02	0.92	0.75	0.84	0.01	0.26	0.21	0.23	166834	7674341	6256256	7007007
Grootegast	GM0009	0.00	0.03	0.04	0.07	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.02	0	250250	333667	583917
Mar um	GM1663	0.01	0.03	0.04	0.08	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.02	83417	250250	333667	667334
Eemsmond	GM0015	0.01	0.06	0.07	0.12	0.00	0.02	0.02	0.03	83417	500501	583917	1001001
Leek	GM0025	0.01	0.11	0.70	0.84	0.00	0.03	0.19	0.23	83417	917584	5839173	7007007
Winsum	GM0022	0.01	0.18	0.17	0.24	0.00	0.05	0.05	0.07	83417	1501502	1418085	2002002
	GM1651	0.01	0.07	0.05	0.13	0.00	0.02	0.01	0.04	83417	583917	417084	1084418
Total	GM0053	0.01	0.05	0.10	0.16	0.00	0.01	0.03	0.04	83417	417084	834168	1334668
		0.39	4.54	6.16	8.77	0.11	1.26	1.71	2.44	3,253,253	37,871,205	51,384,718	73,156,490

Table 15

Total hydrogen demand per node under Medium Demand Scenario (Friesland)

Municipality	BuurtCode	PJ				TWh				kg			
		Regional	National	European	Int'l	Regional	National	European	Int'l	Regional	National	European	Int'l
Achtkarspelen	GM0059	0.87	1.82	1.88	2.01	0.24	0.50	0.52	0.56	7256829.84	15163361.89	15652704.87	16742414.33
Ameland	GM0060	0.00	0.09	0.23	0.38	0.00	0.03	0.07	0.10	0.00	758168.09	1956588.11	3139202.69
Dantumadiel	GM1891	0.43	0.55	0.63	0.94	0.12	0.15	0.17	0.26	3628414.92	4549008.57	5217568.29	7848006.72
De Fryske Marren	GM1940	1.30	2.82	3.52	3.76	0.36	0.78	0.98	1.05	10885244.77	23503210.94	29348821.63	31392026.87
Harlingen	GM0072	0.43	0.64	0.94	0.94	0.12	0.18	0.26	0.26	3628414.92	5307176.66	7826352.44	7848006.72
Total		17.40	31.90	34.87	36.57	4.83	8.86	9.69	10.16	145136596.89	266117001.25	290879432.18	305025861.13

Table 16
Total hydrogen demand per node under Medium Demand Scenario (Drenthe)

Municipality	BuurtCode	PJ				TWh				kg			
		Regional	National	European	Int'l	Regional	National	European	Int'l	Regional	National	European	Int'l
Aa en Hunze	GM1680	0.87	5.27	3.60	3.39	0.24	1.46	1.00	0.94	7,256,829.84	43,973,749.49	30,001,017.67	28,252,824.19
Assen Borger-	GM0106	2.17	2.36	2.74	3.76	0.60	0.66	0.76	1.05	18,142,074.61	19,712,370.46	22,826,861.27	31,392,026.87
Odoorn	GM1681	0.87	0.73	0.86	1.44	0.24	0.20	0.24	0.40	7,256,829.84	6,065,344.76	7,174,156.40	12,033,610.30
Coevorden	GM0109	0.87	1.09	1.49	2.07	0.24	0.30	0.41	0.57	7,256,829.84	9,098,017.14	12,391,724.69	17,265,614.78
Emmen	GM0114	2.61	3.09	3.60	5.90	0.72	0.86	1.00	1.64	21,770,489.53	25,777,715.22	30,001,017.67	49,180,842.10
Hoogeveen	GM0118	1.74	5.18	4.46	4.95	0.48	1.44	1.24	1.38	14,513,659.69	43,215,581.40	37,175,174.07	41,332,835.38
Meppel Midden-	GM0119	0.87	2.36	3.99	4.39	0.24	0.66	1.11	1.22	7,256,829.84	19,712,370.46	33,261,997.85	36,624,031.35
Drenthe	GM1731	0.87	4.45	3.13	3.20	0.24	1.24	0.87	0.89	7,256,829.84	37,150,236.64	26,087,841.45	26,683,222.84
Noordenveld	GM1699	0.87	1.00	3.05	3.64	0.24	0.28	0.85	1.01	7,256,829.84	8,339,849.04	25,435,645.41	30,345,625.98
Tynaarlo	GM1730	0.87	1.09	0.70	1.38	0.24	0.30	0.20	0.38	7,256,829.84	9,098,017.14	5,869,764.33	11,510,409.85
Westerveld	GM1701	0.43	0.55	1.02	1.51	0.12	0.15	0.28	0.42	3,628,414.92	4,549,008.57	8,478,548.47	12,556,810.75
De Wolden	GM1690	0.87	0.73	0.86	1.32	0.24	0.20	0.24	0.37	7,256,829.84	6,065,344.76	7,174,156.40	10,987,209.41
Total		13.92	27.90	29.48	36.94	3.87	7.75	8.19	10.26	116,109,277.51	232,757,605.08	245,877,905.68	308,165,063.81

Table 17
Total hydrogen demand per node under Medium Demand Scenario (Groningen)

Municipality	BuurtCode	PJ				TWh				kg				
		Regional	National	European	Int'l	Regional	National	European	Int'l	Regional	National	European	Int'l	
Delfzijl	Appingedam	GM0010	0.43	0.55	0.70	1.25	0.12	0.15	0.20	0.35	3,628,414.92	4,549,008.57	5,869,764.33	10,464,008.96
Loppersum		GM0003	0.43	0.64	1.64	1.63	0.12	0.18	0.46	0.45	3,628,414.92	5,307,176.66	13,696,116.76	13,603,211.65
Groningen		GM0024	0.43	0.27	0.47	0.63	0.12	0.08	0.13	0.17	3,628,414.92	2,274,504.28	3,913,176.22	5,232,004.48
Bedum		GM0014	6.09	15.27	14.07	17.00	1.69	4.24	3.91	4.72	50,797,808.91	127,372,239.91	117,395,286.53	141,787,321.38
Haren	Midden-	GM0005	0.43	3.00	2.19	2.01	0.12	0.83	0.61	0.56	3,628,414.92	25,019,547.13	18,261,489.02	16,742,414.33
Groningen	Oldambt	GM0017	0.43	0.64	0.78	1.07	0.12	0.18	0.22	0.30	3,628,414.92	5,307,176.66	6,521,960.36	8,894,407.61
Pekela		GM1952	1.74	3.36	3.60	4.27	0.48	0.93	1.00	1.18	14,513,659.69	28,052,219.50	30,001,017.67	35,577,630.46
Stadskanaal		GM1895	0.87	1.36	1.41	2.13	0.24	0.38	0.39	0.59	7,256,829.84	11,372,521.42	11,739,528.65	17,788,815.23
Veendam		GM0765	0.43	0.73	2.58	2.51	0.12	0.20	0.72	0.70	3,628,414.92	6,065,344.76	21,522,469.20	20,928,017.92
Zuidhor	n	GM0037	0.87	0.91	0.70	1.32	0.24	0.25	0.20	0.37	7,256,829.84	7,581,680.95	5,869,764.33	10,987,209.41
Westerwolde		GM0047	0.87	0.82	0.63	1.25	0.24	0.23	0.17	0.35	7,256,829.84	6,823,512.85	5,217,568.29	10,464,008.96
Ten Boer		GM0056	0.43	0.55	4.38	4.39	0.12	0.15	1.22	1.22	3,628,414.92	4,549,008.57	36,522,978.03	36,624,031.35
De	Marne	GM1950	0.87	8.36	5.86	5.27	0.24	2.32	1.63	1.46	7,256,829.84	69,751,464.71	48,914,702.72	43,948,837.62
Grootegeest		GM0009	0.00	0.27	0.31	0.44	0.00	0.08	0.09	0.12	0.00	2,274,504.28	2,608,784.15	3,662,403.14
Marum		GM1663	0.43	0.27	0.31	0.50	0.12	0.08	0.09	0.14	3,628,414.92	2,274,504.28	2,608,784.15	4,185,603.58
Eemsmond		GM0015	0.43	0.55	0.55	0.75	0.12	0.15	0.15	0.21	3,628,414.92	4,549,008.57	4,565,372.25	6,278,405.37
Leek		GM0025	0.43	1.00	5.47	5.27	0.12	0.28	1.52	1.46	3,628,414.92	8,339,849.04	45,653,722.54	43,948,837.62
Winsum		GM1651	0.43	1.64	1.33	1.51	0.12	0.45	0.37	0.42	3,628,414.92	13,647,025.70	11,087,332.62	12,556,810.75
		GM0022	0.43	0.64	0.39	0.82	0.12	0.18	0.11	0.23	3,628,414.92	5,307,176.66	3,260,980.18	6,801,605.82
		GM0022	0.43	0.45	0.78	1.00	0.12	0.13	0.22	0.28	3,628,414.92	3,790,840.47	6,521,960.36	8,371,207.17
Total		GM0053	16.96	41.26	48.16	55.01	4.71	11.46	13.38	15.28	141,508,181.97	344,208,315.00	401,752,758.35	458,846,792.81

Table 19
Total hydrogen demand per node under High Demand Scenario (Drenthe)

Node	Quality	PJ				TWh				kg			
		Regional	National	European	Int'l	Regional	National	European	Int'l	Regional	National	European	Int'l
Assen	GM1680	1.72	9.96	6.73	6.23	0.48	2.77	1.87	1.73	14346826.19	83109327.48	56164864.83	52001143.87
Beilen	GM1681	4.30	4.47	5.12	6.93	1.19	1.24	1.42	0.74	14346826.19	47463325.51	20534207.42	27541236.48
Borger-Odoorn	GM1681	1.72	1.37	1.61	2.66	0.48	0.38	0.45	3.01	14346826.19	18167440.95	96955955.23	13876075.74
Coevorden	GM0109	1.72	2.06	2.78	3.81	0.48	0.57	0.77	2.53	28693458.28	11674409.50	36955955.23	13876075.74
Emmen	GM0114	5.16	5.84	6.73	10.85	1.43	1.62	1.87	1.64	14346826.19	70213052.53	48839012.90	491120150.91
Hoogeveen	GM0118	3.44	9.79	8.34	9.12	0.96	2.72	2.32	14346826.19	145762113.87	170168087.55	55164864.83	45
Meppel	GM0119	1.72	4.47	7.46	8.08	0.48	1.24	2.07	14346826.19	37255905.42	62269741.45	67408890.20	
Midden-Drenthe	GM1731	1.72	8.42	5.85	5.89	0.48	2.34	1.63					
Noordenveld	GM1699	1.72	1.89	5.71	6.70	0.48	0.52	1.59					
Tynaarlo	GM1730	1.72	2.06	1.32	2.54	0.48	0.57	0.37	0.71	14346826.19	17195033.27	10988777.90	21185651.21
Westerveld	GM1701	0.86	1.03	1.90	2.77	0.24	0.29	0.53	0.77	7173413.09	8597516.64	15872679.19	23111619.50
DeWolden	GM1690	1.72	1.37	1.61	2.42	0.48	0.38	0.45	0.67	14346826.19	11463355.51	13430728.55	20222667.06
Total		27.52	52.74	55.18	68.00	7.64	14.65	15.33	18.89	229549219.02	439906267.88	460307696.57	567197661.83

Table 20
Total hydrogen demand per node under High Demand Scenario (Groningen)

Municipality	BuurtCode	PJ				TWh				kg				
		Reg	Nat	EU	Int	Reg	Nat	EU	Int	Reg	Nat	EU	Int	
Delfzijl	Appingedam	GM0010	0.86	1.03	1.32	2.31	0.24	0.29	0.37	0.64	7,173,413.09	8,597,516.64	10,988,777.90	19,259,682.91
Loppersum		GM0003	0.86	1.20	3.07	3.00	0.24	0.33	0.85	0.83	7,173,413.09	10,030,436.08	25,640,481.77	25,037,587.79
Groningen		GM0024	0.86	0.52	0.88	1.15	0.24	0.14	0.24	0.32	7,173,413.09	4,298,758.32	7,325,851.93	9,629,841.46
Bedum		GM0014	12.04	28.86	26.35	31.28	3.34	8.02	7.32	8.69	100,427,783.32	240,730,465.81	219,775,558.04	260,968,703.49
Haren	Midden-	GM0005	0.86	5.67	4.10	3.69	0.24	1.57	1.14	1.03	7,173,413.09	47,286,341.50	34,187,309.03	30,815,492.66
Groningen	Oldambt	GM0017	0.86	1.20	1.46	1.96	0.24	0.33	0.41	0.55	7,173,413.09	10,030,436.08	12,209,753.22	16,370,730.48
Pekela		GM1952	3.44	6.36	6.73	7.85	0.96	1.77	1.87	2.18	28,693,652.38	53,018,019.26	56,164,864.83	65,482,921.91
Stadskanaal		GM1895	1.72	2.58	2.63	3.93	0.48	0.72	0.73	1.09	14,346,826.19	21,493,791.59	21,977,555.80	32,741,460.95
Veendam		GM0765	0.86	1.37	4.83	4.62	0.24	0.38	1.34	1.28	7,173,413.09	11,463,355.51	40,292,185.64	38,519,365.83
Zuidhor	n	GM0037	1.72	1.72	1.32	2.42	0.48	0.48	0.37	0.67	14,346,826.19	14,329,194.39	10,988,777.90	20,222,667.06
Westerwolde		GM0047	1.72	1.55	1.17	2.31	0.48	0.43	0.33	0.64	14,346,826.19	12,896,274.95	9,767,802.58	19,259,682.91
Ten Boer		GM0056	0.86	1.03	8.20	8.08	0.24	0.29	2.28	2.24	7,173,413.09	8,597,516.64	68,374,618.06	67,408,890.20
De	Marne	GM1950	1.72	15.80	10.98	9.70	0.48	4.39	3.05	2.69	14,346,826.19	131,828,588.42	91,573,149.19	80,890,668.24
Grootegast		GM0009	0.00	0.52	0.59	0.81	0.00	0.14	0.16	0.22	0.00	4,298,758.32	4,883,901.29	6,740,889.02
Mar um		GM1663	0.86	0.52	0.59	0.92	0.24	0.14	0.16	0.26	7,173,413.09	4,298,758.32	4,883,901.29	7,703,873.17
Eemsmond		GM0015	0.86	1.03	1.02	1.39	0.24	0.29	0.28	0.38	7,173,413.09	8,597,516.64	8,546,827.26	11,555,809.75
Leek		GM0025	0.86	1.89	10.25	9.70	0.24	0.52	2.85	2.69	7,173,413.09	15,762,113.83	85,468,272.57	80,890,668.24
Winsum		GM1651	0.86	3.09	2.49	2.77	0.24	0.86	0.69	0.77	7,173,413.09	25,792,549.91	20,756,580.48	23,111,619.50
		GM0022	0.86	1.20	0.73	1.50	0.24	0.33	0.20	0.42	7,173,413.09	10,030,436.08	6,104,876.61	12,518,793.89
Total		GM0053	0.86	0.86	1.46	1.85	0.24	0.24	0.41	0.51	7,173,413.09	7,164,597.20	12,209,753.22	15,407,746.33
			33.54	77.99	90.16	101.24	9.32	21.66	25.05	28.12	279,763,110.68	650,545,425.47	752,120,798.64	844,537,095.79

C. Distance in km between demand node F_i and storage node S_i

Table 21: Pairwise distances (km) between demand locations F and storage locations S .

Distance in km	Storage location S									
	Zuidwending	Winschoten	Pieterburen	Onstwedde	Boertange	Ternaard	Anloo	Hooghalen	Hoogeveen	Schoonloo
Demand location F										
Achtkarspelen	55.26	60.82	26.32	64.48	74.46	18.84	43.52	45.37	62.55	53.51
Ameland	91.59	96.09	51.11	101.13	111.01	19.75	80.86	81.65	96.02	90.54
Dantumadiel	65.89	71.28	32.67	75.15	85.12	10.52	54.09	54.79	70.43	63.49
De Fryske Marren	77.08	85.20	65.09	83.56	92.91	47.62	60.67	49.77	52.80	60.72
Harlingen	101.19	107.99	73.10	109.35	119.27	42.86	86.44	79.92	86.64	90.63
Heerenveen	69.02	77.27	60.55	75.27	84.55	47.34	52.49	41.26	45.14	52.22
Leeuwarden	77.02	83.49	49.13	85.56	95.55	22.89	63.04	59.13	70.30	69.25
Ooststellingwerf	44.33	52.73	46.70	50.49	59.86	48.62	27.71	18.38	32.06	29.01
Opsterland	57.36	65.04	45.35	64.74	74.48	36.46	41.62	34.80	46.04	45.31
Schiermonnikoog	66.71	69.34	21.28	76.58	85.88	17.00	60.22	67.21	86.41	73.31
Smallingerland	56.17	63.43	40.45	64.09	73.98	31.61	41.14	36.59	49.80	46.61
Súdwest-Fryslân	85.20	92.87	66.64	92.40	102.03	43.62	69.29	60.13	64.70	71.07
Terschelling	116.73	122.31	80.14	125.77	135.78	47.65	103.83	100.53	110.19	110.68
Tytsjerksteradiel	63.73	70.20	38.70	72.33	82.34	21.44	49.97	47.46	61.09	57.11
Vlieland Waadhoeke	125.73	131.94	92.22	134.35	144.34	59.76	111.77	106.38	113.40	116.97
Weststellingwerf	93.83	100.55	65.76	102.10	112.03	36.16	79.26	73.36	81.25	83.96
Aa en Hunze	66.62	75.26	65.36	71.75	80.49	56.15	49.89	36.09	36.05	46.75
Assen	15.06	23.96	48.49	19.01	28.27	67.75	6.08	17.88	36.45	11.97
Borger-Odoorn	27.33	36.09	45.60	32.70	41.98	58.52	10.68	8.55	30.35	13.79
Coevorden	21.22	29.45	57.48	20.98	28.10	75.04	14.61	16.94	30.41	6.46
Emmen	49.92	57.16	84.36	46.38	48.91	95.52	42.54	31.72	19.08	27.20
Hoogeveen	34.31	40.68	74.19	29.42	31.50	90.72	31.32	28.01	28.77	18.43
Meppel	51.06	59.65	74.95	51.21	56.96	80.64	38.14	21.80	0.00	24.80
Midden-Drenthe	66.12	75.01	79.71	68.08	74.88	77.37	50.86	33.51	19.33	40.85
Noordenveld	38.39	47.26	60.44	40.52	47.98	68.95	23.91	6.96	14.84	13.43
Tynaarlo	33.66	40.49	29.12	42.29	52.30	41.30	20.61	25.41	45.95	31.55
Westerveld	21.20	29.19	37.38	28.91	38.86	54.99	6.70	18.45	40.21	20.10
De Wolden	58.87	67.79	71.53	61.52	68.88	70.51	43.19	26.05	16.85	34.40
Delfzijl	57.66	66.22	80.68	57.58	62.99	84.59	44.72	28.13	6.63	31.40
Appingedam	26.47	22.48	32.27	33.89	39.91	64.14	35.73	52.87	73.86	50.00
Loppersum	25.49	23.15	28.25	33.87	40.87	59.72	32.63	49.44	70.74	47.38
Groningen	29.03	28.65	20.91	38.28	46.23	52.29	32.28	47.97	69.68	47.58
Bedum	27.74	32.53	21.96	37.44	47.19	44.17	20.97	32.92	54.61	35.58
Haren	31.76	34.09	14.74	41.61	50.68	43.26	29.39	42.68	64.43	44.55
Midden-Groningen	23.60	29.32	27.11	33.07	42.96	48.42	15.79	28.60	50.39	30.55
Oldambt	12.80	15.94	33.74	22.59	31.69	60.45	17.49	34.71	55.62	32.00
Pekela	8.93	0.00	48.35	11.82	17.72	76.34	25.43	41.76	59.65	34.88
Stadskanaal	5.15	4.83	49.44	7.84	15.85	76.04	21.83	37.54	54.96	30.23
Veendam	11.75	17.97	56.35	8.01	15.85	78.90	17.97	28.76	43.20	19.31
Zuidhor	3.93	11.62	43.06	13.60	23.33	67.99	13.91	30.78	50.01	25.37
Westerwolde	38.69	43.61	17.58	48.27	58.12	33.21	29.58	37.23	57.82	42.53
Ten Boer	16.15	16.67	62.58	6.27	4.96	87.61	28.27	39.56	52.34	29.64
De Marne	25.79	27.51	20.94	35.54	44.35	49.84	26.14	41.26	63.03	41.52
Groetegast	47.41	50.30	5.94	57.28	66.62	27.87	41.67	50.90	71.56	55.59
Mar um	45.62	51.51	24.31	54.73	64.73	28.21	33.71	36.78	55.43	44.22
Eemsmond	44.64	51.47	30.98	53.11	63.11	33.27	30.80	30.92	48.61	39.32
Leek	38.19	37.84	14.16	47.52	55.46	46.69	39.75	54.18	75.97	55.11
Winsum	37.02	43.45	26.54	45.90	55.91	37.21	24.60	29.08	49.11	35.59
	38.18	40.69	8.67	48.05	57.22	37.06	34.28	45.90	67.35	49.02