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Pore-scale imaging of hydrogen displacement and trapping in porous media

9 Eike M. Thaysen^{1*}, Ian B. Butler¹, Aliakbar Hassanpouryouzband¹, Damien Freitas¹,

10 *Fernando Alvarez-Borges², Samuel C. Krevor³, Niklas Heinemann¹, Robert Atwood²,*

Katriona Edlmann¹

12	¹ School of Geoscience, Grant Institute, The King's Buildings, The University of Edinburgh,
13	James Hutton Road, Edinburgh, EH9 3FE, United Kingdom
14	² Diamond Light Source Ltd, Harwell Campus, Didcot OX11 0DE, United Kingdom

³ Department of Earth Science and Engineering, Imperial College London, London SW7
 2AZ, United Kingdom

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^{* =} corresponding author email, phone number: <u>eike.thaysen@ed.ac.uk</u>, +34 682079236

18 Abstract

Hydrogen can act as an energy store to balance supply and demand in the renewable energy 19 sector. Hydrogen storage in subsurface porous media could deliver high storage capacities but 20 21 the volume of recoverable hydrogen is unknown. We imaged the displacement and capillary trapping of hydrogen by brine in a Clashach sandstone cylinder at 2-7 MPa pore fluid pressure 22 using X-ray computed microtomography. Hydrogen saturation obtained during drainage at 23 capillary numbers of $<10^{-7}$ was $\sim50\%$ of the pore volume and independent of the injection 24 pressure. Fluid configuration in the pore space was indicative of a water wetting system at all 25 conditions. Capillary trapping of hydrogen via snap-off during secondary imbibition at a 26 capillary number of 2.4×10^{-6} systematically increased with pressure, 20%, 24% and 43% of the 27 initial hydrogen trapped at 2, 5 and 7 MPa, respectively. Injection of brine at increasing 28 capillary numbers up to 9.4x10⁻⁶ reduced capillary trapping. Based on these results, we 29 recommend more shallow, lower pressure sites for future hydrogen storage operations in 30 porous media. 31

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33 Keywords: geological hydrogen storage, µCT, porous media, recovery, drainage, imbibition

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35 Highlights:

• Hydrogen injectivity and recovery in rock is imaged with x-ray computed micro-CT

- Hydrogen recovery decreases with increasing reservoir depth
- Hydrogen recovery increases with increasing brine flow rate
- Hydrogen trapping occurs via snap-off processes
- Nitrogen is a poor proxy for hydrogen

42 **1. Introduction**

The storage of surplus electrical energy could increase the utility of renewable energy sources 43 thereby reducing the environmental impact of energy generation^{1, 2}. Storage mediums like 44 batteries, compressed air, capacitors, or flywheels are only applicable for the short-term and 45 small-scale electricity storage³. The use of hydrogen (H₂) as an energy vector however could 46 47 provide long-term storage to balance the intermittent demand and supply challenges affecting renewable methods³. Considering the low energy density of H_2^4 , storage of H_2 in large storage 48 sites is the only solution for economical, gigawatt to terawatt-scale H₂ storage. Underground 49 storage of H₂ in salt caverns is an established technology⁵, yet, only subsurface porous media 50 (saline aquifers and depleted oil and gas fields), can provide TWh storage capacities that could 51 balance seasonal demands⁴. Relative to cavern storage, inter-seasonal storage in porous media 52 is poorly understood and introduces a range of other complexities², including potential pore-53 clogging by microbial growth⁶, gas loss out of diffuse lateral boundaries, viscous fingering of 54 H₂ into reservoir brines, residual trapping and possible reactions with the primary formation 55 fluid and reservoir minerals⁷⁻¹⁰. Each of these requires consideration of multiphase flow, 56 transport and reaction^{2, 8}. 57

Recent years have seen several studies on H₂ geochemistry¹¹⁻¹³ and the elucidation of many 58 important flow characteristics of H₂ including; Hydrogen relative permeability^{14, 15}, interfacial 59 tension (IFT)^{16, 17}, and H₂/brine/rock contact angles^{14, 16-24}. Yet, additional data describing the 60 H₂ fluid flow in different porous formations and under varying conditions are vital to make 61 accurate predictions of the H₂ plume development and to define optimum production 62 strategies⁸. Of particular relevance is the degree of capillary trapping, which leads to a reduced 63 volume of recoverable H₂ in this way impacting the economic feasibility of the operation⁸. The 64 capillary forces that control capillary trapping also control the relative permeability⁸. As such 65

studies on residual trapping give insight to a range of crucial input parameters for pore-scale
and reservoir H₂ storage models.

The effects of the brine pore fluid pressures and of brine flow rate on capillary trapping of H_2 are hithertho unknown. The brine pore fluid pressure is linked to the reservoir depth via the hydrostatic gradient, hence an investigation of the latter could facilitate the definition of an optimal storage depth for gas recovery. The flowrate affects the capillary number, N_c , via equation 1:

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$$N_C = \frac{q \cdot \mu}{\sigma}$$
 (1)

where *q* is the flow, μ is the viscosity and σ is the interfacial tension (IFT). As N_c increases, viscous forces dominate capillary forces and capillary trapping of the nonwetting phase decreases²⁵. This capillary desaturation with increasing N_c , depends on the rock type²⁶ and on the kind of nonwetting phase²⁵ and is observed around critical capillary numbers of 10⁻⁵ to 10⁻ ^{8 25}.

A non-destructive standard technique for visualization and analysis of wetting and non-wetting 79 phase displacement processes in porous media is x-ray micro-computed tomography $(\mu CT)^{27}$. 80 Pore-scale models are directly reliant on µCT images to build up the basic models for 81 appropriate understanding of gas storage operations²⁸. Previously published μ CT studies on 82 two-phase flow in porous media involving gas have largely focused on supercritical carbon 83 dioxide (sCO₂) in sandstones and limestones, e.g.^{27, 29-34}. Reported saturations of sCO₂ in non-84 aged (i.e. not wettability altered by exposure to oil or organic acids) water-wet rocks range 85 from 30-60% during drainage and 15-30% during imbibition, at N_{Ca} between 10^{-8} to 10^{-6} and 86 10⁻⁸ to 2x10⁻⁵, respectively^{27, 30, 32-34}. Studies using subcritical, gaseous carbon dioxide (CO₂), 87 which could be more readily compared to H₂, are scarce. Yet, the characteristic trapping curves 88 for sCO₂ and CO₂, which show the residual saturation (S_{nnwr}) as a function of initial saturation 89 (S_{nwi}) , are not significantly different³⁵. Saturations of nitrogen (N₂) during drainage and 90

91 imbibition in sandstones with 6-22% porosity is 43-64% and 43%, respectively, at N_C between 92 1-7x10^{-8 36, 37}. Carbon dioxide trapping increases at lower pressures due to decreasing water 93 contact angles³⁸. Unlike in CO₂ storage, trapping is not desirable in geological H₂ storage as it 94 leads to unrecoverable H₂.

Some observational studies have suggested that H_2 is less wetting on rocks than $CO_2^{19, 21}$. At 95 the time of writing two µCT studies, one micro-model study and one nuclear magnetic 96 resonance (NMR) study on H₂ exist: Al-Yaseri et al. $(2022)^{39}$ used NMR to find H₂ S_{nwi} and 97 S_{nwr} of 4% and <2%, respectively, in a Fontainebleau sandstone at 0.4 MPa and ambient 98 temperature. Higgs et al. $(2021)^{16} \mu$ CT-imaged H₂ injection into a 5 mm diameter and 7.6 mm 99 length core of Bentheimer sandstone at pressures of 6.8 to 20.8 MPa and documented 100 decreasing IFT between H₂ and water with increasing pressure (72.5 mN/m at 6.9 MPa to 69.4 101 mN/m at 20.7 MPa). Jha et al. (2021)⁴⁰ conducted a single cycle H₂-brine displacement 102 sequence in a 5 mm diameter and 15 mm length Gosford sandstone, and used µCT to calculate 103 an S_{nwi} of 65% during drainage and a S_{nnwr} of 41% after brine imbibition. Rock samples in Jha 104 et al. (2021)⁴⁰ and Higgs et al. (2021)¹⁶ were sufficiently short for capillary end effects to 105 dominate the flow behaviour, where the wetting phase accumulates close to the production face 106 of the core⁴¹. The experiment by Jha et al. (2021)⁴⁰ was performed at ambient pressure and 107 leaves open the question of variations in H₂ wetting and flow behaviour at reservoir 108 conditions¹⁹. Increasing pore fluid pressures have been reported to increase the gas saturation 109 110 and pore network connectivity for nitrogen (N₂) in a brine wet, aged Bashijiqike tight sandstone (0.6% gas saturation at 2 MPa versus 43% at 8 MPa)³⁶. The effect of N_C increases from 7.7x10⁻ 111 ⁷ to 3.8×10^{-4} on the H₂ flow through a sandstone micro-model at 0.5 MPa was investigated by 112 Lysyy et al. (2022)²⁰ who found that H₂ saturation increased correspondingly from 18% to 113 79%²⁰. 114

115 In this work, we used μ CT to investigate the displacement and capillary trapping of H₂ by brine in 4.7 mm diameter and 54-57 mm length Clashach sandstone cores as a function of gas and 116 brine pore fluid pressure (2-7 MPa) and flow rate (20 to 80 μ l min⁻¹, corresponding to H₂ and 117 brine bulk N_C of 1.7-6.8x10⁻⁸ and 1.2-9.4x10⁻⁶, respectively). We show that the H₂ S_{mvi} is 118 independent of pore fluid pressure but that higher brine pore fluid pressures during secondary 119 imbibition increase capillary trapping of H₂, indicating increased trapping at elevated reservoir 120 depths. Higher flowrates during secondary imbibition on the other hand decrease capillary 121 trapping. Our work advances the current understanding of H₂ flow in porous media by 122 delivering the first realistic estimates on how much H₂ can be recovered from the subsurface 123 after injection, disregarding any H₂ loss by microbial or geochemical reactions, as a function 124 of reservoir depth and flow rate. 125

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127 2. Materials and Methods

128 2.1 Core-flooding experiments

We performed non-steady and steady state, two-phase core flooding experiments with H₂ (purity 99.9995 vol.%, BOC Ltd.) and brine (0.5 M CsCl or 2 M KI, Sigma-Aldrich) in a Clashash sandstone (Permian, Aeolian sandstone from near Elgin in Scotland. Clashach composition: ~96 wt.% quartz, 2% K-feldspar, 1% calcite, 1% ankerite⁴², porosity 11.1-14.4%⁴²⁻⁴⁴) at ambient temperature (~293 K). The Clashach sandstone, with its low mineralogical variability, yet still comparably big pore space, was chosen in order to facilitate the visualization of the injected H₂ and the interpretation of the results.

136 Two types of experiments were carried out: The first set of experiments (from now on referred 137 to as UoE (University of Edinburgh) experiments) was carried out using the μ CT instrument 138 at the University of Edinburgh and were aimed at imaging the displacement and capillary 139 trapping of H₂ by brine as a function of saturation after drainage and imbibition under different experimental conditions. Three UoE experiments were carried out that investigated the effect 140 of injection pressure (2-7 MPa), whereof each was repeated once (UoE exp. 1-3, Table 1). The 141 standard error on the H₂ saturation in the repeated experiments was calculated as the standard 142 deviation devided by the square root of the number of repeated experiments. One UoE 143 experiment looked at the effect of the H₂/brine injection ratio on the H₂ saturation (UoE exp. 144 4, Table 1). This experiment was carried out to evaluate the effect of H₂ injection into aquifers 145 with different magnitudes of brine flow (hydrodynamic aquifers), and to simulate the far field 146 situation, where H₂ and brine move together. Another UoE experiment investigated the effect 147 of secondary drainage and imbibition (UoE exp. 5, Table 1). UoE exp. 6 used N₂ instead of H₂. 148 This experiment was undertaken in order to compare the flow behaviour of the two gases, 149 150 which is of relevance because N₂ is sometimes used as an analogue for H₂, e.g. in permeability measurements^{11,15}. Because rearrangement processes in the pore volume were noted previously 151 for N_2^{36} , UoE exp. 7 (Table 1) was undertaken to examine the stability of H₂ in the rock volume 152 over an experimental duration (10 hours): Ten PV of H₂ were injected into a brine-saturated 153 rock and keeping the pressure constant inside the pressure vessel, with imaging undertaken at 154 the start and after 10 hours. The effect of bulk capillary number on drainage and imbibition 155 was deduced by a comparison of the results from UoE exp. 2 and 5 which used flowrates of 20 156 and 80 μ l min⁻¹, respectively, and 5 MPa injection pressure (Table 1). 157

The second type of experiment (from now on referred to as the 'dry rock experiment'; Table 1) used synchrotron radiation (Diamond Light Source, I12-JEEP tomography beamline) to capture the time-resolved displacement of H_2 by brine in a dry, H_2 -saturated rock. This experiment served as a base of comparison to the displacements of H_2 in wet, brine-saturated rock (UoE experiments).



164 Table 1: Overview over experiments

Experiment	Type of x-	Description	Sample	H ₂ /brine	Flowrate	Injection	Confining	Pore volumes	Repetitions of
	ray source			injection ratio(s)	(µl min ⁻¹)	Pressure (MPa)	Pressure (MPa)	injected	experiment
UoE exp. 1	laboratory	Primary drainage and imbibition in non-steady state displacements of H ₂ and brine	1	-	20	7	9	10	l entire repetition, l repetition on drainage only
UoE exp. 2	laboratory	Primary drainage and imbibition in non-steady state displacements of H ₂ and brine	1	-	20	5	9	10	1
UoE exp. 3	laboratory	Primary drainage and imbibition in non-steady state displacements of H ₂ and brine	1	-	20	2	9	10	1
UoE exp. 4	laboratory	Simultaneous, steady state injections of H ₂ and brine	1	1:4, 1:1, 4:1	20	5	9	10	-
UoE exp. 5	laboratory	Primary and secondary drainage and imbibition in non-steady state displacements of H ₂ and brine	1	-	80	5	9	10	-
UoE exp.6	laboratory	Non-steady state displacements of N_2 and brine	1	-	20	5	9	10	-
UoE exp.7	laboratory	H ₂ stability	1	-	80	5	9	10	-
Dry rock	synchrotron	Non-steady state, brine injection into dry, H ₂ saturated rock	2	-	5	5	10	10	-

which was a scaled-up version of the cell described by Fusseis et al. (2014)⁴⁵. In UoE experiments a carbon-fibre reinforced PEEK pressure vessel was used to permit good x-ray transparency. The dry rock experiment used an aluminium pressure vessel to comply with the health and safety requirements at Diamond Light Source. The specifications of the pressure vessels of PEEK and aluminium were engineered with safety factors of 2 times or more over and above the maximum applied confining pressure (10 MPa; Table 1).

Rock cores for the experiments were obtained by diamond drill coring with a water-flushed 172 chuck, followed by preparation of the core ends by grinding on a lathe. Experiments used a set 173 of four high-pressure pumps (Cetoni NemesysTM, flowrate range 0.072 nl s⁻¹ to 13.76 ml s⁻¹): 174 One for the injection of H₂, one for the injection of brine, one to hold the backpressure and one 175 for the confining pressure (Fig. 1). A bespoke manifold system composed of high-pressure 1/8" 176 177 and 1/16" 316 stainless steel and 1/16" PEEK tubing (Swagelok, Top Industrie and Cole Parmer, respectively) connected the pumps to the core-flood cell (Fig. 1). Additional pressure 178 transducers (ESI Technology; accuracy 0.1% full-scale) were coupled to the flow system at the 179 180 inlet and outlet to allow for higher precision pressure monitoring than was possible using the integral pressure gauges in the syringe pumps. Cyclic H₂ and brine injections used a Clashach 181 outcrop sample without further cleaning of 4.7 mm diameter and a relatively long length of 54-182 57 mm to avoid the influences of capillary end effects^{46, 47}. To prevent leakage of H_2 into the 183 confining fluid, the rocks were jacketed in aluminium foil and poluolefin heatshrink tubing and 184 185 sealed with silicone adhesive between the conical-ended pistons within the pressure vessel. In UoE experiments, a water-wet rock was first saturated with brine (0.5 M CsCl) at a flow rate 186 of 70 µl min⁻¹. Afterwards, H₂ was injected (drainage) into the brine-saturated rock at flow 187 rates of 20-80 μ l min⁻¹, based on desired capillary-regime N_C of 1.7-6.8x10⁻⁸ (The viscosity of 188 H_2 is 9.01 µPa s at 298K and 4.7 MPa⁴⁸ and the IFT between H_2 and water is 72.6 mN m⁻¹ at 189 298K and 5 MPa^{49, 50}). Subsequently, the brine was reinjected (imbibition) at flow rates of 20-190



Figure 1: Experimental setup showing the manifold system that connected the X-ray transparent pressure vessel to a set of four high-pressure Cetoni NemesysTM pumps: one to inject H_2 , one inject brine, one to maintain backpressure and one to maintain confining pressure. The materials for the connections were 316 stainless steel (black), HPLC (green) and PEEK or carbon fibre reinforced PEEK (blue). The pressure vessel consisted of carbon fibre reinforced PEEK in UoE experiments and of aluminium in the dry rock experiment (see text). Pressure and flow rate control was achieved with the Q-mix software.

192 80 μ l min⁻¹, resulting in N_C of 2.35-9.45x10⁻⁶ (using the same IFT between H₂ and water of 193 72.6 mN m⁻¹ at 5 MPa and 298 K^{49, 50} and a viscosity of 1.247 Pa s at 5 MPa that was estimated 194 from the reported 1.2503 Pa s and 1.233x10⁻³ Pa s at 0.1 MPa and 25 MPa, respectively, and 195 298 K⁵¹). The N_C the N₂ experiment was 3.5x10⁻⁸ (using an IFT of 73 mN m⁻¹ between N₂ and 196 water 1t 298K and 10 MPa³⁵ and a viscosity of 1.89x10⁻⁵Pa s at 5 MPa and 295K⁴⁸). Each 197 injection used ten pore volumes to ensure completely flushing of the sample cores with the 198 injected fluid.

199 In the dry rock experiment, H_2 was directly injected into a dry rock at a flow rate of 70 μ l min⁻

¹. Subsequently, the brine (2 M KI) was injected at a flow rate of 5 μ l min⁻¹, resulting in N_C of

- 201 $5x10^{-7}$ (using the same IFT between H₂ and water of 72.6 mN m⁻¹ at 5 MPa and 298 K^{49, 50} and
- 202 a viscosity of 1.07×10^{-3} Pa s for 0.6 M KI and 293 K⁴²).

The combined application of an x-ray transparent core holder and μ CT allowed the visualization of the fluid saturation distributions at pore scale at each injection step. The difference in the x-ray attenuation coefficient of the fluids (H₂ and 0.5 M CsCl/ 2 M KI) provided an excellent contrast between the two fluid phases and the rock on the acquired μ CT images, combined with the respective radiation energy in the two different laboratories.

3D volumes were acquired from the lower central portion of the sample to avoid the impact of 208 capillary end effects on fluid saturation^{46, 47}. For the UoE experiments, image acquisition used 209 a µCT instrument built in-house at the University of Edinburgh, comprising a Feinfocus 10-210 211 160 kV reflection source, a Micos UPR-160-air rotary table and a Perkin-Elmer XRD 0822 1 MP amorphous silicon flat panel detector with a terbium doped gadolinium oxysulfide 212 scintillator. Data acquisition software was developed in-house. The following settings were 213 214 used for UoE experiments: 120 keV, 16 W, 2 seconds exposure time, 1200 projections and 2 frames per stop. The voxel size was 5.4 μ m³. In the dry rock experiment, time-resolved imaging 215 of the H₂ and brine displacement processes was achieved by means of a 65 keV monochromatic 216 beam detected by a high-resolution imaging camera with optical module 2 (PCO.edge 5.5, 7.91 217 x 7.9 µm/pixel with FoV 20 mm x 12 mm) using 17-25 milliseconds exposure time and 900 218 projections. The voxel size was 7.9 µm³. 219

220 *2.2 Image analysis*

Tomographic reconstructions were undertaken by filtered back projection using Octopus 8.9⁵² on a GPU accelerated workstation. All subsequent image processing and analysis of tomographic data was performed using Avizo Version 9.1.1 (FEI, Oregon, USA). Data from UoE experiments were processed using a non-local means filter⁵³. Processing of the dry rock experiment used a combination of median filter and unsharp mask to reduce image noise.Segmentation of UoE experiment data used a global threshold on the 2D greyscale image histogram, and encompassed two phases. In the water-saturated scans, water and rock were 228 treated as two discrete phases. In scans after brine and H₂ injections, the H₂ was treated as one phase and the brine and rock as a single separate phase, following protocols of Andrew et al. 229 $(2014)^{32}$. Holes and spots which were at the resolution limit of the data were removed from all 230 datasets (applied thresholds corresponded to 3^3 and 5^3 voxels, respectively). Based on the 231 segmented image of the water-saturated scan in UoE experiments, a pore size distribution was 232 calculated. The 3D image was separated into individual pores and throats using Avizo's 233 'separate objects' module, which calculates a chamfer distance map of the pore-space and then 234 applies a marker based watershed algorithm to the distance map to define discrete pore bodies 235 236 as catchment basins separated by the watershed which marks the location of pore throats (SI Figure S1d). Supporting information Figure S1 shows the work flow for the water-saturated 237 238 scan.

In scans following brine and H_2 injections in UoE experiments, the segmented image was analysed in 3D using the 'labeling' and 'label analysis' modules to identify, label and measure the volume of each H_2 cluster. Hydrogen cluster size distributions were compared to the pore size distribution to evaluate the H_2 connectivity and identify trapping mechanisms during brine imbibition.

244 2.3 Capillary pressure

Recovered Clashach cores were submerged in 25% w/v NaOH solution (Fisher Scientific) for 245 2 hours to remove the aluminium foil from the core surface, and rinsed in successive milli-Q 246 water, acetone and ethanol ultrasonic baths. Subsequently, the cores were cut and squared to 247 the dimensions of 25 mm, overlapping the µCT visualized rock volumes, and cleaned 248 249 ultrasonically with milli-Q water to remove grinding products. Mercury injection capillary pressure (MICP) was performed on the cleaned cores, using a micromeritics automated 250 mercury injection equipment (Autopore IV 9500) to estimate the capillary pressure-saturation 251 relationship and pore size distribution. The pressure range tested was from vacuum to 379 MPa. 252

253 **3. Results**

254 *3.1 Characterization of the pore space*

The μ CT-evaluated porosity of the 255 Clashach sandstone from the segmented 256 volume of the water-saturated rock was 257 12.5% to 13.5%, depending on the imaged 258 region of the rock core. The MICP-259 260 evaluated pore throat size distribution showed a large number of very small pore 261 throats with $<5 \mu m$ radius and a small 262 number of small to intermediate size pore 263



Fig. 2. μ CT-derived pore size distribution (grey) and MICP-derived pore throat size distribution (transparent blue). Note that MICP derived counts were multiplied by a factor of 20 to facilitate visualization of the results. All plots used a bin size of 30.

throats (>5 to 90 μ m) (Fig. 2). The largest pore throat had a radius of 195 μ m (Fig. 2). The μ CT-evaluated size distribution of the pores evidenced a narrow pore size distribution with comparably small pores with radii <50 μ m (Fig. 2, 4a).

267 *3.2 Hydrogen wetting behaviour and stability in UoE experiments*

Hydrogen sat in the centre of the pore bodies. Residual brine sat in corners, pore throats (Fig. 3b and c) and, as a subtraction of the water saturated scan from the H₂-and brine filled rock revealed, in thin films around the grains (Fig. 3d). The injected H₂ remained stable within the pore volume under no-flow conditions and at constant pore fluid pressure over a time period of 10 hours which was the maximum experimental duration (SI Fig. S2).

273 *3.2 Effect of pore fluid pressure on hydrogen connectivity, saturation and recovery*

- Hydrogen saturation during drainage was independent of the pore fluid pressure with 49.8%,
- 51.7% and 39.7%-52.6% saturation at pore fluid pressures of 2, 5 and 7 MPa, respectively (Fig.
- 4a-c, f, SI Fig. S3). Hydrogen connectivity during drainage generally showed one large,



Fig. 3: (a) Water-saturated Clashach sandstone with the water shown in black and the rock in different shades of grey. (b) and (c) Brine-saturated Clashash sandstone after injection of H_2 . H_2 (black) fills the centre of the pores while the brine (dark grey) remains in corners and small pore throats around grains. (d) and (e) Subtraction of the waterwet scan from the brine-saturated scan after H_2 injection, following registration of the brine-saturated scan after H_2 injection to the waterbrine thin films around grains. The rim around the Al foil in (d) is caused by continued shrinkage of the Al foil onto the rock during the experiments.







connected cluster at all pore fluid pressures except for one out of three images at 7 MPa which showed three large disconnected clusters (Fig. 5, SI Fig. S3). During drainage, the largest H₂ cluster had a volume of $1 \times 10^8 \ \mu m^3$ at all pore fluid pressures except for the one run at 7 MPa with the disconnected clusters were the largest volume was $7 \times 10^7 \ \mu m^3$ (Fig. 5e).



Fig. 5: (a) Pore size distribution as derived from the micro-CT image of the water-wet rock. Hydrogen cluster size distributions after drainage and imbibition in experiments at 20 μ l min⁻¹ flowrate and pore fluid pressures of 2 MPa (b), 5 MPa (c) and 7 MPa (d), and cumulative pore size and H₂ cluster size (CS) distributions at different pore fluid pressures (e), where squares, triangles and rhombi mark the distinct repeat experiments. (f) Hydrogen cluster size distribution after drainage for all experiments and (g) Hydrogen cluster size distribution after drainage for all experiments of ~10⁸ µm³ that exist after drainage in (b)-(d). A decrease in the biggest cluster volume after imbibition in (b)-(d) along with an increase in the number of small clusters marks the change in H₂ structure during the drainage and imbibition processes. Histogram plots in (a)-(d), (f) and (g) used a bin size of 10.

Hydrogen clusters during drainage were at all pore fluid pressures much larger than discrete pores with a maximum volume of $1.3 \times 10^6 \ \mu m^3$ (Fig. 5e, a). Comparing all H₂ cluster size distributions during drainage (Figure 5f) reveals that all drainage curves, including two of the distributions at 7 MPa (squares and rhombi), have largely the same distribution, however one of the three distributions at 7 MPa (triangles) is distinct. This outlier experiment corresponds to the experiment showing a lower S_{nwi} (Fig. 4c).

Capillary trapping of H₂ during imbibition seemed independent of the pore fluid pressure with 310 10%, 12% and 4-21% of trapped H₂ at 2, 5 and 7 MPa, respectively (Fig. 4a-c,f, SI Fig. S3), 311 corresponding to 20%, 22% and 11-43% of the initially injected H₂. During imbibition, large 312 H₂ clusters were broken down into smaller clusters (Fig. 5a-d), in line with the visual changes 313 of the H₂ clusters (Fig. 4a-c and f). The largest H₂ clusters after imbibition remained above the 314 maximum pore size during all experiments except for one experiment at 7 MPa (triangles in 315 Fig. 5g, Fig. 5a), showing that not only was H₂ trapped in discrete pore bodies but also as larger 316 H₂ ganglia. The break-down of the largest H₂ clusters during imbibition caused the number of 317 clusters in the size range log 4 to log 6 μ m³ to increase while the number of very small clusters 318 of log 2-4 µm³ typically decreased (Figs. 5b-d). Comparing all H₂ cluster size distributions 319 during imbibition (Figure 5g) shows that the distributions at 2 and 5 MPa are largely the same 320 while the imbibition distributions at 7 MPa are distinct. 321

Injections of H₂ and brine into the same rock volume and at the same flow rates and pore fluid pressures of 2-5 MPa were repeatable with small standard errors between 0.01-0.66% (Fig. 4a and b, Fig. 5b and c). At 7 MPa very distinct S_{nwi} and S_{nwr} were measured (Fig. 4c and f); During drainage the standard error was 4.8% at an average H₂ saturation of 47.4%. The standard error during imbibition was 8.5% at an average saturation of 12.9%. The pressure differences between inlet and outlet during these experiments were within the error of the pressure sensors 328 of 0.1% full-scale.

329 3.3 Effect of hydrogen/brine injection ratio on

330 hydrogen connectivity and saturation

331	We studied the effect of the H_2 /brine injection
332	ratio on the H ₂ saturation in order to evaluate
333	the effect of H ₂ injection into hydrodynamic
334	aquifers, and to evaluate what happens in the
335	far field, where fluids will be moving together.
336	The results showed that the H ₂ saturation and
337	H ₂ interconnected pore volume increased with
338	increasing H ₂ /brine injection ratio from 32.6%
339	at 4 μ l min ⁻¹ H ₂ plus 16 μ l min ⁻¹ brine to 43.2%
340	at 16 μ l min ⁻¹ H ₂ plus 4 μ l min ⁻¹ brine (Fig. 6).
341	The H ₂ clusters in simultaneous injection
342	experiments occupied many of the same pore
343	spaces as the clusters after H ₂ in the non-
344	steady state experiments at the same pressure
345	and total flowrate (Fig. 4b, Fig. 6, SI Fig. S5),
346	and even at the lowest H ₂ brine injection ratio
347	of 4 μ l min ⁻¹ H ₂ plus 16 μ l min ⁻¹ brine, the H ₂
348	clusters were large, and spanning multiple
349	pores. The percolation threshold, i.e. one
350	connected path from inlet to outlet, was
351	apparently only reached at 100% H ₂ injection
352	(Fig. 4b vs. Fig. 6, SI Fig. S5). The pressure



Fig. 6: Effect of H₂/brine injection ratio on H₂ saturation and H₂ connectivity during simultaneous H₂ and brine injection at 5 MPa (a) 4 μ l min⁻¹ H₂ plus 16 μ l min⁻¹ brine, (b) 10 μ l min⁻¹ H₂ plus 10 μ l min⁻¹ brine, (c) 16 μ l min⁻¹ H₂ plus 4 μ l min⁻¹ brine. Discrete H₂ clusters were rendered in colours, where mainly one color marks one large, connected cluster and different colors indicate several, not connected clusters. With increasing injection ratio H₂ saturation and H₂ connectivity increase.

differences between inlet and outlet 353 during the simultaneous injection 354 experiments were up to 0.05 MPa. 355 The H₂ cluster volume distributions 356 were similar at different H2:brine 357 injection ratios (Fig. 7a). However, with 358 increasing ratio the smallest H₂ clusters 359 of volume ~log 2 µm³ decreased in 360 361 number while the number of intermediate size (log 2.5 to log 6.25 362 μ m³) H₂ clusters and the volume of the 363 biggest cluster increased (Fig. 7a), 364 confirming observations of increasing 365 H₂ saturation and connectivity with 366 increasing injection ratio (Fig. 6). 367



Fig. 7. (a) H_2 cluster size distributions during simultaneous injections of H_2 and brine at flowrate ratios of 16:4, 10:10 and 4:16 µl min⁻¹ H_2 :brine and 5 MPa injection pressure. As the flowrate ratio of H_2 to brine increased, the number of intermediate size H_2 clusters increased and the radius of the biggest cluster increased. (b) Effect of flowrate during brine imbibition. All plots used a bin size of 10.

368 *3.4 Effect of flowrate on hydrogen saturation and recovery*

375

- At constant pore fluid pressure of 5 MPa, increases in the flowrate during drainage from 20 μ l min⁻¹ to 80 μ l min⁻¹, corresponding to bulk N_C of 1.7 x10⁻⁸ to 6.8x10⁻⁸, respectively, decreased the H₂ saturation from to 51.7% to 47.7% (Figure 4b and d). Correspondingly, increases in the brine flowrate during imbibition from 20 μ l min⁻¹ to 80 μ l min⁻¹, corresponding to bulk N_C of 2.4x10⁻⁶ and 9.4x10⁻⁶, respectively, reduced the S_{nwr} from 11.5% to 7.2% (Fig. 4b and d).
- 374 In line with this, the H₂ cluster size distributions at the two flowrates showed that larger clusters
- $6.75 \,\mu\text{m}^3$ at 20 μl min⁻¹; Fig. 7b). At both flowrates the largest H₂ clusters were still bigger than

were mobilized at 80 µl min⁻¹ (maximum cluster sizes of log 6.25 µm³ at 80 µl min⁻¹ vs. log

377 the largest pore of $<\log 6 \ \mu m^3$ (Fig. 7b vs. Fig 6a), indicating that H₂ was trapped also as larger 378 ganglia.

379 *3.5 Secondary drainage and imbibition*

Secondary drainage and imbibition did not significantly change the H₂ saturation (47.9% and 7.0%) compared to primary drainage and imbibition (47.6% and 7.3%), based on results at 5 MPa and 80 μ l min⁻¹ flowrate (SI Fig. S4, Fig. 4d-e).

383 *3.6 Dry rock experiment*

In the dry-rock experiment, the brine entered the H_2 -filled dry rock via piston-like displacement, (Fig. 8b), eventually recovering the H_2 entirely (Fig. 8d). Before all H_2 was recovered, there was an intermediate stage where previously brine-filled pores (Fig. 8b) showed several very small H_2 bubbles (Fig. 8d).

388 *3.7 Comparison to nitrogen*

The N₂ saturation was similar to the H₂ saturation during drainage (48.7% vs. $51.7 \pm 0.66\%$, respectively) but N₂ saturation after brine imbibition was much higher (33.9% vs. $11.5 \pm 0.64\%$, respectively; Fig. 4e, SI Fig. S6). The N_c of H₂ and N₂ during drainage were 1.7×10^{-8} and 3.5×10^{-8} , respectively.

393

394 4. Discussion

395 *4.1 Pore space*

The μ CT-evaluated porosity of the Clashach sandstone from the segmented volume of the water-saturated rock of 12.5-13.6% was within the range of the published porosities of 11.1-14.4% for Clashach sandstone⁴²⁻⁴⁴. The distributions of pore size and pore throat size as evaluated by μ CT and MICP, respectively, suggested that mostly small pores of <50 μ m radii were joined by very small throats of <5 μ m radii with a few small to intermediate size throats



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Fig. 8. The dry-rock experiment summarized. (a) H₂-saturated, dry rock, (b) scan during brine imbibition shortly
after appearance of the first brine in the rock, (c) scan during brine imbibition after 115 minutes, with several
small, isolated H₂ bubbles inside pore bodies (d), and (e) brine-saturated rock after two hours of imbibition
showing 100% recoverability of H₂.

407 of >5 to 90 μ m radii in between (Fig. 2). The largest pore throat of 195 μ m radius was probably 408 measured at the surface of the rock core where the drilling process affected the pore space. The 409 pore throat distribution for our Clashach sandstone sample was very similar to the pore throat 410 distribution for Berea sandstone⁵⁴. Compared to the pore throat distributions for Bentheimer sandstone and Doddington sandstone⁵⁴, our Clashach sandstone sample showed smaller pore
 throat sizes. Limestones generally show a wider pore throat size distributions than sandstones⁵⁴.

413 *4.2 H₂ flow behaviour and trapping mechanisms*

Hydrogen behaved as a non-wetting phase, filling the centre of the pores, with residual brine 414 in the pore corners and throats (Fig. 3b and c), indicating a water wetting system. The largest 415 H₂ cluster was much larger than discrete pores at any pore fluid pressure during drainage (Fig. 416 5), indicating a good connectivity of the H_2^{55} . Hydrogen trapping occurred via snap-off of H_2 417 ganglia (Fig. 9). Snap-off competes with piston-like, i.e. pore-filling, displacement during the 418 419 displacement of a non-wetting fluid by a wetting fluid in porous media²¹, and is known as the swelling of water in the corner layers of a pore throat during water invasion in water-wet porous 420 rocks until the threshold capillary pressure is exceeded, resulting in spontaneous filling of the 421 throat with water and disconnection of the non-wetting phase which can lead to trapping²¹. 422 Brine films around grains were not directly visible in the tomographic images (Fig. 3b and c) 423



Fig. 9: Example of a snap-off event. (a) Labelled H_2 -filled volume after drainage (orange), spanning over several pores, and total pore space (transparent blue) showing one large interconnected H_2 -filled pore volume. (b) Labelled H_2 -filled volume after brine imbibition (different coloured shades) and the total pore space (transparent blue) showing several, not connected H_2 ganglia and the snapped-off H_2 droplet (cobalt blue) in the centre, left hand side. (c) Pore body visualisation of the same volume.

425 but were revealed by subtraction of the water-saturated scan from the brine-saturated scan after H₂ injection, following the registration of the brine-saturated scan after H₂ injection to the 426 water-wet scan (Fig. 3d and e). Figures 3d and 3e suggest that brine films were discontinuous 427 428 and very thin. When H₂ was injected into a dry rock, 100% of the injected H₂ could be recovered (Fig. 8e) which substantiated the theory that sub-resolution brine films around grains and snap-429 off of H₂ ganglia caused decreased H₂ recovery in experiments using an initially brine saturated 430 rock (UoE experiments). The occurrence of several very small H₂ bubbles in the dry-rock 431 experiment (Fig. 8d) indicated Roof snap-off⁵⁶ of H₂ ganglia. 432

433 *4.3 Effect of pore fluid pressure and hydrogen/brine injection ratio*

We observed no dependence of the H₂ saturation during drainage on pore fluid pressure, 434 considering that 2 out of 3 experiments at 7 MPa showed the same the same H₂ saturation of 435 ~50 % as at 2 and 5 MPa (Fig. 4a-c,f, and SI Fig. S3). The one experiment at 7 MPa which had 436 only 39.7% H₂ saturation (Fig. 4c, SI Fig. S3 and blue triangles in Fig. 5f) did also not have 437 438 the same H₂ cluster size distribution as the remaining experiments (Fig. 5f), despite using the same experimental settings as for all other experiments at 7 MPa, and the log archives of the 439 pore fluid pressures and injected volumes revealed no abnormalities. A shift in the distribution 440 441 of cluster sizes can indicate a change in wettability, regardless of the measured H₂ saturation. Yet, as two of the results at 7 MPa showed a similar distribution as at the other pressures, it 442 seems likely that this experiment is an outlier. The experiment was acquired after a filament 443 change on the µCT apparatus, which implied that a slightly different part of the same rock core 444 was imaged (13.6% vs. 12.5% porosity). Yet, in principle this should not have affected the 445 446 results significantly, and subsequent experiments did return to show ~50% H₂ saturation, e.g. the H₂ stability experiment (SI Fig. S2). 447

The observed constant drainage H₂ saturations with increasing pore fluid pressures from 2 to 7
MPa are in line with a lack of a dependence of the H₂ wettability on pressure increases from 2-

10 MPa in Berea and Bentheimer sandstone¹⁸, with only very small increases of \sim 3-6° in the 450 H₂ contact angles at pressure increases from 2 to 7 MPa in Basalt²¹ and clay²⁴ and quartz¹⁹, and 451 with a previous findings of no change in the characteristic trapping curves for CO₂ and N₂ at a 452 wide range of pressure and temperature conditions³⁵. The general anticipation of an increase in 453 gas saturation with injection pressure^{57, 58} may still be valid over pressure ranges larger than 454 the one investigated here. At unchanged wettability, the S_{nwi} is controlled by the capillary 455 pressure which in turn is controlled either by the fractional flow (during simultaneous injection) 456 or by the viscous force pressure drop (during single fluid phase injection). Thus, the 457 458 independence of the S_{nwi} from the pore fluid pressure indicates that the viscous pressure drop is not being significantly altered by the changing pressure, e.g., the H₂ viscosity change is not 459 having a major impact on the force required to drive flow. Significant loss of H₂ from the gas 460 461 phase at higher pressures by dissolution into the brine is precluded by the low solubility of H₂ of ~0.02 mol kgw⁻¹ at 2.5 MPa⁵⁹. The H₂ stability experiments showed that H₂ saturation at 5 462 MPa did not change over a time period of ten hours (49.55% at time zero vs. 49.53% ten hours 463 464 after; SI Fig. S2), evidencing a stable result and no H₂ loss by dissolution.

Looking at the S_{nwr} data only (Fig. 4a-c,f), there was no clear dependency on pore fluid pressure 465 during imbibition. Any change may, however, have been masked by the high variation between 466 the two results at 7 MPa (4-21% Fig. 4c and f). Considering that the experiment at 7 MPa with 467 the low S_{nwi} of 40% could be identified as an outlier (see the discussion in the beginning of 468 section 4.3, and Fig. 5f, blue triangles) and that the S_{nwr} is a function of the S_{nwi} where a lower 469 S_{nwi} will tend to overestimate recovery^{54, 60}, we may disregard the S_{nwr} of 4%. The large increase 470 in trapped H₂ in the second full primary drainage and secondary imbibition experiment at 7 471 MPa (Fig. 4f) was probably due to the poorer initial H₂ connectivity⁶⁰. The H₂ cluster size 472 distribution for this experiment showed an increase in the number of intermediate size clusters 473 compared to the other experiments (Fig. 5g, darkyellow squares), without however shifting the 474

cluster distribution, suggesting no wettability change. This indicates that variation in one or
more of the other thermophysical properties –density, viscosity, or IFT – have resulted in the
impact on the pore scale fluid configuration (Figure 10). Meanwhile, a poorer initial H₂
connectivity was not confirmed by the third repetition of primary drainage at 7 MPa (SI Fig.
S3g). More experiments at 7 MPa are needed to confirm the result of increased trapping at
higher pore fluid pressures.

481



Fig. 10: Density (green line), viscosity (red line), and interfacial tension (blue line) of hydrogen versus depth (Hassanpouryouzband et al. 2021)⁶¹.

482

Given a hydrostatic gradient of ~10 MPa/km an increase of the S_{nwr} with increasing pore fluid pressure, as suggested by the second experiment at 7 MPa (Fig. 4f), would indicate that deeper aquifers are less favourable for H₂ storage operations. However, unlike our non-steady state experiments which showed barely any pressure difference between inlet and outlet, in a real H₂ storage operation, the well pressure is significantly higher than the reservoir pressure and the brine is not injected, but naturally flowing into previously H₂-saturated rock when the H₂ is recovered- again due to a pressure difference. Our displacement study results are hence applicable to the fringe of the H₂-saturated zone, only, where pressure differences are very small. A decreased H₂ recovery with depth would not align well with other criteria for an economical and safe H₂ storage operation, such as a lower cushion gas requirement with elevated depth⁵ and reduced risks for H₂-linked microbial activity at higher depths due to higher temperatures⁶.

The pressure/depth effect on our results can be further related to the variation of key pore-scale 495 displacement parameters for H₂ with depth (Fig. 10): The IFT of H₂ reduces with depth whereas 496 497 the H₂ viscosity increases, both of which in theory should augment the displacement of H₂ with water and reduce the $S_{nwr}^{62, 63}$. However, increased S_{nwr} with decreasing IFT and increasing 498 viscosity has also been demonstrated⁶⁴ which may be due to a simultaneously increased 499 likelihood of unstable displacement/ non-uniform fronts^{10, 65} during both drainage and 500 imbibition processes at decreasing IFT and increasing viscosity, based on the augmenting effect 501 of both parameters on N_C (Eq. 1). Such unstable displacement processes at higher pore fluid 502 503 pressures, addition to a variation in the thickness of the brine thin films with pressure, may explain the decrease in interconnected H₂-filled pore volume from one large cluster at 2-5 MPa 504 to three clusters at 7 MPa and have lead to increased snap-off and trapping during imbibition 505 (Fig. 4f). 506

The S_{nwr} of 10-21% was significantly less than the previously reported H₂ S_{nwr} of 41% for a sandstone under ambient conditions⁴⁰. As mentioned previously, the short length rock sample in Jha et al. (2021)⁴⁰ suggests that their results were affected by capillary end effects⁴⁶. However, the applied the relatively high bulk brine N_C of 2.4x10⁻⁶ may have mobilised more residual H₂ than under strict capillary regime conditions.

512 During simultaneous injection of H_2 and brine, which may be representative of H_2 injection 513 into hydrodynamic aquifers or simulate the far field conditions, H_2 saturation and H_2

514 interconnected pore volume increased with increasing H₂/brine injection ratio (Fig. 6). This indicated that a lower brine flow is favoured over high flow environments in terms of 515 optimising the H₂ storage operation. The structure was apparently not percolating in any of the 516 simultaneous injection experiments as opposed to during 100% H₂ injection (Fig. 6 vs. Fig. 517 4b), yet considering significant pressure differences of up to 0.05 MPa between inlet and outlet 518 in simultaneous injection experiments which were not observed in experiments injecting 100% 519 H₂, the connections between the H₂ clusters may have been broken when the injection (and 520 thereby the pressure gradient) was stopped for the scan. 521

522 *4.4 Effect of capillary number on initial and residual saturation*

Classical pore-scale displacement theory predicts little change in residual phase saturation in 523 response to increases in flow rate until N_C exceeds $10^{-6} - 10^{-5}$. However, for most subsurface 524 reservoirs there will be rapid decreases at N_C of 10⁻⁴ or more, when viscous forces become 525 dominant⁵⁴. The bulk brine N_C applied in this study (2.4-9.4x10⁻⁶) was within the range of little 526 saturation change but exceeded the threshold of $N_C < 10^{-6}$ for which the flow generally is said 527 to be capillary dominated⁵⁴. This may indicate that viscous forces caused a significant effect of 528 N_C on the S_{nwr} in our experiments (Fig. 4b and d), and these forces are likely to be even greater 529 at local scale than at bulk⁵⁴. The H₂ cluster size distribution after imbibition at N_C = 9.4x10⁻⁶ 530 was shifted with respect to the distribution at $N_{\rm C}=2.4 \times 10^{-6}$ (Fig. 7b), indicating a change in the 531 wetting behaviour and supporting previous findings of preferential desaturation of larger 532 clusters at higher Nc^{66} . 533

We observed a 4% decrease in S_{nwi} in our experiments when bulk N_C was increased from 1.7x10⁻⁸ to 6.8x10⁻⁸ (Fig. 4b and d). Critical nonwetting phase N_C of 2x10⁻⁸ and 10⁻⁵ during imbibition have been reported for water–gas systems and water-oil systems, respectively⁶⁷, indicating that the threshold of $N_C < 10^{-6}$ for capillary dominated flow⁵⁴ is not rigid. However, considering reported increases in the H₂ saturation after drainage with increasing N_C from

539 7.7×10^{-7} to 7.7×10^{-5} ²⁰, and acknowledging the small observed difference in S_{nwi} , we cannot 540 exclude that the effect of flow rate was down to experimental variability.

541 4.5 Comparison to nitrogen

The N₂ saturation was comparable to the H₂ saturation during drainage at similar N_C of 1-3x10⁻ 542 ⁸ but the S_{nwr} after imbibition was ~20 % higher for N₂ than for H₂ (Fig. 4b and e). Using N₂ as 543 544 a proxy for H₂ in experimental drainage and imbibition studies is hence not advisable. 545 Considering the high degree of N₂ trapping, the use of N₂ as a cushion gas for H₂ storage operations which could reduce operational costs⁸ seems favourable. Our results are lower than 546 547 a reported 64% initial N₂ saturation during drainage and 43% residual N₂ saturation during brine (200 g/L NaI +15 g/L CaCl₂) imbibition in a Berea sandstone (20-22% porosity) at 5.5 MPa 548 and 20°C³⁷, and higher than 43% N₂ saturation during drainage in a Bashijiqike tight sandstone 549 (5.6% porosity) at 8 MPa and ambient temperature³⁶. The trend in the differences of the N_2 550 saturation in the above studies follows the same trend as the differences in the porosities of the 551 552 studied sandstones, with the Clashach sandstone (14% porosity) being intermediate between the two other rocks. This indicates that porosity differences between the different rock types 553 applied in the above experiments defined the observed N₂ saturations, yet differences in the 554 pore throats dimensions may equally have contributed or caused this. Hence S_{nwi} and S_{nwr} 555 depend strongly on (the local conditions within) each rock, and these rock type/local effects 556 may mask any effect of injection conditions. However, trends in the rock-specific behaviour 557 will be controlled by pressure and flow conditions. It follows from this that any rock selected 558 for H₂ storage operations has to be very well characterized, in particular with respect to 559 560 porosity, turtoisity and capillary pressure curves.

561 *4.6 Suitability of the Clashach sandstone for hydrogen storage*

562 It has been postulated that the low viscosity of H₂ will cause the gas to travel swiftly, making it little suitable for displacing brine¹⁰ and causing low H₂ injectivity. In this work, we showed 563 that from an injectivity and recovery perspective, untreated Clashach sandstone is suitable for 564 underground H₂ storage. However, sandstones aged by exposure to humic acids may be more 565 suitable analogue rocks for experimental investigations of H₂ storage in porous media¹⁹. 566 Considering that aging has previously been shown to alter the wettability of H₂ brine-quartz 567 systems from highly water-wet toward intermediate-wet¹⁹ the stated H₂ saturations for our 568 untreated outcrop Clashach sandstone are expected to increase during drainage and decrease 569 570 during imbibition, further the increasing suitability for H₂ storage.

571

572 **5.** Conclusion

In this work, a prima facie examination of H₂ flow and displacement processes in porous rock 573 was carried out as a function of capillary numbers of 1.2-6.8x10⁻⁸ for H₂ and 2.4-9.5x10⁻⁶ for 574 brine, and of pore fluid pressures between 2-7 MPa. Results showed no clear relation between 575 pore fluid pressure and H_2 saturation with ~50% of the pore space saturated with H_2 during 576 drainage at all pressures, and 20%, 24% and 43% of the initial H₂ trapped at 2, 5 and 7 MPa, 577 respectively, during imbibition at a capillary number of 2.4x10⁻⁶, indicating that higher 578 pressure, i.e. deeper reservoirs are less favourable for H₂ storage. Injection of brine at higher 579 580 capillary numbers reduced capillary trapping and increased H₂ recovery. Hydrogen recovery was distinct from N₂ recovery, suggesting that N₂ is a poor proxy for H₂. Based on these results, 581 we recommend more shallow, lower pressure sites for future H₂ storage operations in porous 582 583 media. Future work should aim to measure the influence of pressures above 7 MPa, elevated temperatures and rock aging on H₂ and brine displacement processes at a range of different 584 capillary numbers. Dynamic experiments using synchrotron light sources are recommended to 585 586 examine displacement mechanisms closely.

588 Author Contributions

The experimental kit was built by Butler and Thaysen. Experiments were carried out by Thaysen, Butler, Hassanpouryouzband, Freitas. Alvarez-Borges, Atwood and Humphreys were the supporting beamline scientists during the experiments at Diamond Light Source. Image reconstruction and tomographic analysis was carried out by Thaysen. Interpretation of the results was by Thaysen, Butler, Hassanpouryouzband, Krevor and Heinemann. The manuscript was written by Thaysen with review by Butler, Krevor Heinemann, Hassanpouryouzband, Freitas and Edlmann. All authors have given approval to the final version of the manuscript.

596

597 **Declaration of interest**

598 The authors declare no competing interest.

599

600 Funding Sources

Thaysen, Butler, Hassanpouryouzband, Heinemann and Edlmann gratefully acknowledge the funding support from the Engineering and Physical Science Research Council (EPSRC) HyStorPor project [grant number EP/S027815/1] and from the Fuel Cells and Hydrogen 2 Joint Undertaking (JU) under grant agreement No 101006632. The JU receives support from the European Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme and Hydrogen Europe and Hydrogen Europe Research. This work was enabled and carried out with the support of Diamond Light Source, Beamline I12-JEEP 101006632 (proposal mg26730-1).

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609 ACKNOWLEDGMENT

We would like to thank Thomas Connolley for any correspondence and help with setting up the experiments at Diamond Light Source, and Alexis Cartwright-Taylor for assistance and discussions around the experimental results.

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810	Supplementary Information
811	Pore-scale imaging of hydrogen displacement and trapping in porous
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814	Eike M. Thaysen ^{2*} , Ian Butler ¹ , Damien Freitas ¹ , Aliakbar Hassanpouryouzband ¹ , Fernando
815	Alvarez-Borges ² , Samuel C. Krevor ³ , Niklas Heinemann ¹ , Robert Atwood ² , Katriona
816	$Edlmann^1$
817	¹ School of Geoscience, Grant Institute, The King's Buildings, The University of Edinburgh, James Hutton Road,
818	Edinburgh, EH9 3FE, United Kingdom
819	² Diamond Light Source Ltd, Harwell Campus, Didcot OX11 0DE, UK
820	³ Department of Earth Science and Engineering, Imperial College London, London SW7 2AZ, United Kingdom
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SI Figure S1: Image processing workflow for UoE experiments. (a) The image after reconstruction and filtering.
(b) The image after segmenting using a global threshold. (c) The outer part of the rock core touching the Al foil
was removed through application of a mask, and a chamfer distance map of the pore space was calculated by
assigning each voxel the distance from it to the nearest pore wall. (d) This was then used to separate the pore
space into individual pores by calculating the water-shed basins of the distance map.



831 SI Figure S2: H_2 stability at 7 MPa injection pressure and a flow rate of 20 µl min⁻¹ (capillary number 2*10⁻⁸) at 832 time zero (a) and after ten hours (b). Red circles indicate subtle differences in the hydrogen filled pore volume 833 after ten hours. The difference in the hydrogen saturation for the total scanned rock volume was within error at 834 49.55% % and 49.53% for time 0 and after ten hours, respectively.





SI Figure S3: Enlarged view of 3D renderings of H_2 with saturation percentages in UoE experiments. Discrete clusters were rendered in colours, where mainly one colour marks one large, connected cluster and different colours indicate several, not connected clusters. **(a-d)** Effect of pore fluid pressure on H_2 clusters and saturation after drainage and after primary imbibition. **(a)** 2 MPa, **(b)** 5 MPa and **(c-e)** 7 MPa, all at a constant flow rate of 20 µl min⁻¹ corresponding to capillary numbers of $1.7x10^{-8}$ and $2.4x10^{-6}$, respectively.. Experiments were repeated once. For experiments at 2 MPa and 5 MPa averages and standard errors for the H_2 saturation are reported. For experiments at 7 MPa, due to the discrepancy in the results, both results are visualized **(c-d)**.



Drainage

SI Figure S4: Cyclic H₂ injection into Clashach sandstone at 5 MPa and 80 μ l min⁻¹ corresponding to a capillary number of 9.4x10⁻⁶, showing no significant differences in H₂ saturation and H₂ connectivity after primary drainage and imbibition as compared to after secondary drainage and imbibition.



SI Figure S5: Comparison of the distribution of the H₂ clusters in the pore space between simultaneous H₂ and brine injection experiments (**a-c**) and the two repetitions of the non-steady state H₂ injection (**d**) and (**e**), all at 5 MPa and a total flow rate of 20 μ l min⁻¹.



SI Figure S6: Nitrogen clusters and saturations during drainage and imbibition at 5 MPa pore fluid pressure and a flowrate of 20 µl min⁻¹