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Mapping Europe's Natural Hydrogen Potential: A Continental-Scale Geological Prospectivity Assessment

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Abstract

Natural hydrogen, generated by a range of geological processes in the Earth's crust, is emerging as a promising carbon-neutral energy source. However, systematic large-scale assessments of its subsurface occurrence remain limited. This study presents the first continental-scale prospectivity map of natural hydrogen in Europe, integrating geological indicators of hydrogen generation, reservoir quality, and sealing capacity. A comprehensive inventory of ultramafic rock bodies—key indicators of hydrogen potential—is compiled and spatially analysed. To address geological uncertainty, we apply Monte Carlo simulations, yielding conservative, median, and optimistic resource estimates. High-prospectivity regions are identified in Hungary, Denmark, Poland, and Serbia, with many documented hydrogen occurrences aligning with predicted source zones. This spatial assessment provides a critical framework for early-stage exploration, supports future energy security strategies, and highlights key regions for focused research and development in the context of the energy transition.

Keywords: Natural hydrogen; Prospectivity mapping; Serpentinization; Radiolysis; Ultramafic rocks; Geological exploration; Monte Carlo simulation; Energy transition; Europe

1. Introduction

The global transition to carbon-neutral, renewable-based energy systems is essential to mitigate the effects of climate change and limit global warming (Rogelj et al., 2015). The configuration of regional decarbonized energy systems depends not only on the spatial distribution and availability of renewable energy sources but also on demand profiles, infrastructure interconnectivity, and the suitability of specific energy carriers for various applications. Among these carriers, hydrogen has received growing attention due to its versatility in sectors such as transportation, industry, and energy storage (Hanley et al., 2018; McPherson et al., 2018). Despite this potential, over 95% of hydrogen currently in use is derived from fossil fuels, leading to considerable carbon dioxide emissions (IRENA, 2023). Key barriers to scaling up low-carbon hydrogen include the high cost of green hydrogen production and the competitiveness of other renewable-based technologies for many applications (Liebreich et al., 2023).

In this context, natural hydrogen—also known as *white* or *gold hydrogen*—is emerging as a promising, potentially low-cost and low-emission alternative. Generated by geological processes such as serpentinization, radiolysis, and iron oxidation within the Earth's crust, natural hydrogen has long been observed at surface seeps, particularly in tectonic and mid-ocean ridge settings. However, early assessments dismissed the likelihood of significant subsurface accumulations due to the gas's high diffusivity and reactivity (USGS, 1993; Zgonnik et al., 2015).

Renewed interest in the last two decades (Smith et al., 2005; Zgonnik, 2020) has been driven by growing evidence that natural hydrogen may occur more broadly than previously believed. Recent estimates suggest that the subsurface generation of hydrogen may amount to thousands to billions of megatons globally (Ellis & Gelman, 2024). However, the economic viability of these resources remains uncertain, depending heavily on depth, geological setting, and the physical state of the hydrogen—whether free gas or dissolved in formation waters. Cost estimates vary widely: some studies suggest that natural hydrogen could be more affordable than both green and grey hydrogen (Rigollet & Prinzhofer, 2022), while others express scepticism regarding scalability and accessibility (Patonia et al., 2024). Similarly, the question whether natural H₂ could be considered renewable is disputed, with some indicating that it may not be (Brunet & Malvoisin, 2025).

Effective exploration is therefore essential to assess the distribution and extractability of natural hydrogen. Existing detection methods, such as soil gas sampling, are spatially limited and often ambiguous in distinguishing active hydrogen seeps from background signals (Lévy et al., 2023; Aimar et al., 2023). In response, geologically based prospectivity assessments have been proposed to prioritize areas for more detailed investigation. One such effort is the recent prospectivity mapping of the United States by Gelman et al. (2023), which incorporated indicators of hydrogen sources, reservoirs, and seals.

In this study, we apply a similar methodology to construct the first continent-wide natural hydrogen prospectivity map for Europe. We integrate multiple geological datasets, including a comprehensive inventory of ultramafic complexes and updated records of hydrogen occurrences—some previously undocumented. Unlike earlier regional studies (e.g., Donzé et al., 2024; Gaucher et al., 2023), our work offers a systematic assessment of hydrogen generation potential at the continental scale. By addressing geological uncertainty through Monte Carlo

simulations, we provide conservative, median, and optimistic resource estimates. This work aims to support the strategic exploration of natural hydrogen resources in Europe and to contribute to the continent's broader goals of energy transition and resilience.

2. Methodology

To identify regions with high natural hydrogen prospectivity, geological indicators related to hydrogen sources, reservoirs, and seals were integrated using GIS software (QGIS). The selected indicators are listed in Table 1, and their presence was determined based on publicly available geological datasets (e.g., EGDI, IGME) and relevant literature. Following the methodology developed by Gelman et al. (2025), each indicator was assigned a chance of sufficiency (COS) value. The COS represents the fractional probability that a given feature is both present and effective in contributing to hydrogen accumulation. These values were established by a panel of experts, and where indicators overlap with those used in Gelman et al. (2025), the same COS values and spatial buffers were adopted. This approach results in a relative prospectivity score—not a statistical probability—that allows for comparison across regions at a continental scale. It is particularly suited to early-stage exploration where data constraints preclude precise quantification. Details of the calculation procedures for composite layers are provided in Supplementary Material C.2.

To account for geological uncertainty, Monte Carlo simulations ($n = 1,000$) were performed by sampling COS values from triangular probability distributions defined by low, median (mode), and high estimates for each indicator (Table 1). This yields P10, P50, and P90 maps representing optimistic, median, and conservative prospectivity scenarios, respectively. P50 maps are presented in the main text, while P10 and P90 maps are included in Supplementary Material B.

Table 1 | Geological indicators included in the prospectivity analysis, and chance of sufficiency (COS) values for each layer, used in the uncertainty analysis (triangular distribution Monte Carlo simulation).
*Buffer is given a larger radius based on the size of the uranium deposit, see [Supplementary Material C.1](#).

Layer	COS low	COS med	COS high	Spatial buffer
Serpentinization (SER)				
SER1 - Ultramafic rocks (-)	0.5	0.6	0.7	20 km
SER2 - Ultramafic rocks (o)	0.6	0.7	0.8	20 km
SER3 - Ultramafic rocks (+)	0.7	0.8	0.9	20 km
SER4 - Isostatic gravity	0.1	0.4	0.7	-
SER5 - Failed rifts	0.7	0.8	0.9	-
SER6 - Rift-inversion orogens	0.7	0.8	0.9	-
SER7 - Banded iron formations	0.6	0.7	0.8	20 km
SER8 - Every other area	0	0.1	0.2	-
Radiolysis (RAD)				
RAD1 – Uranium occurrence	0.1	0.2	0.3	Varies*
RAD2 - Precambrian craton	0.5	0.7	0.9	100 km
RAD3 - Accreted terranes	0.1	0.2	0.5	100 km
Deep source (DEE)				
DEE1 - Faults	0.1	0.2	0.3	10 km
DEE2 - Suture zones	0.2	0.5	0.8	40 km
DEE3 - High heat flow	0.5	0.7	0.9	-
DEE4 - Heat flow buffer	0.1	0.2	0.3	-

DEE5 - Every other area	0	0.1	0.2	-
Reservoir (RES)				
RES1 - Sedimentary rocks	0.8	0.95	1	-
RES2 – Igneous / Metamorphic rocks	0.7	0.8	0.9	-
RES3 - Sedimentary basins	1	1	1	-
Seal (SEA)				
SEA1 - Subsurface salt	0.9	0.95	1	-
SEA2 - Sedimentary rocks	0.6	0.8	1	-
SEA3 – Igneous / Metamorphic rocks	0.2	0.5	0.8	-
SEA4 - Sedimentary basins	0.1	0.3	0.5	-

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95 3. Results

96 3.1 Sources of natural hydrogen

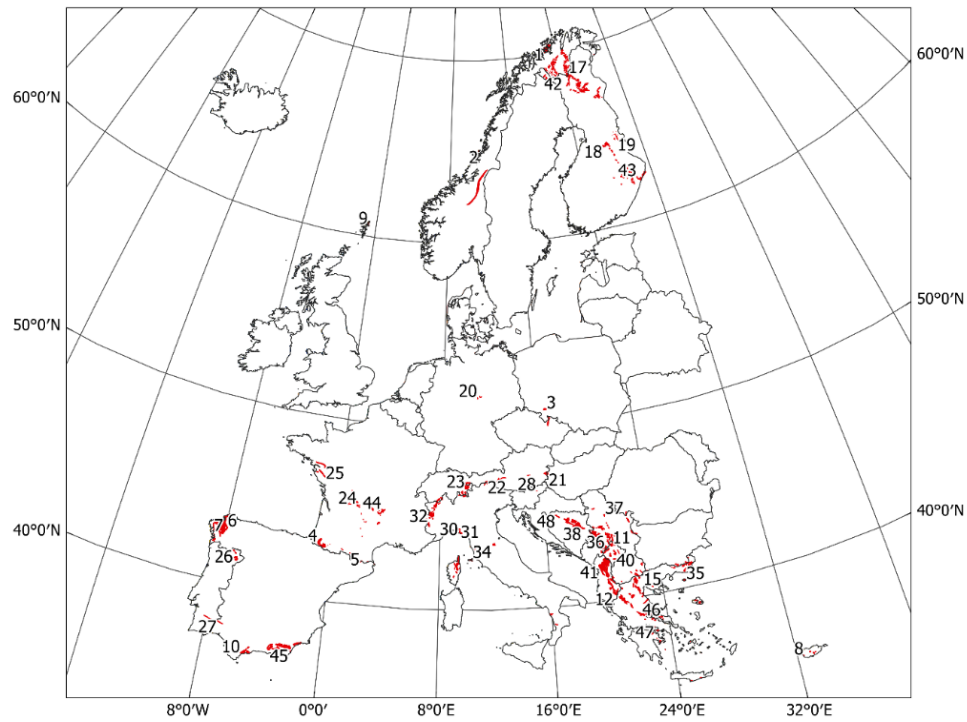
97 3.1.1 Serpentinisation

98 Hydrogen can be produced through serpentinization, a geochemical reaction involving the
99 hydration of ultramafic rocks—typically rich in iron and low in silica—by water. As ultramafic
100 rocks are key precursors for this process, their distribution serves as a primary indicator of
101 hydrogen generation potential.

102 Due to the lack of a comprehensive ultramafic rock dataset for Europe, a compilation of ophiolitic
103 complexes was used as a proxy. Ophiolites—tectonically emplaced fragments of oceanic
104 lithosphere—often contain ultramafic rocks derived from the Earth's upper mantle. However, not
105 all ophiolites contain ultramafic material, and not all ultramafic rocks are ophiolitic in origin (Zuo
106 et al., 2022; Pomonis & Magganas, 2017). Therefore, a systematic literature review was
107 conducted to verify the composition of individual ophiolites and to identify additional, non-
108 ophiolitic ultramafic bodies. This included analysis of geomagnetic data, cross-sections, and
109 petrological studies. A complete list of identified ultramafic occurrences is provided in Table A1
110 (Supplementary Material).

111 Depth is also a critical factor: serpentinization is most efficient between depths of approximately
112 4 to 21 km, depending on the geothermal gradient (Zgonnik, 2020; Criss, 2019). Accordingly, each
113 occurrence was classified based on depth constraints and assigned a COS value: high (SER3, '+'),
114 medium (SER2, 'o'), or low (SER1, '-'). Figure 1 shows the mapped ultramafic bodies and ophiolite
115 complexes, labeled according to Table A1. These occurrences are concentrated in orogenic
116 zones such as the Alps.

Ultramafic Rocks of Europe



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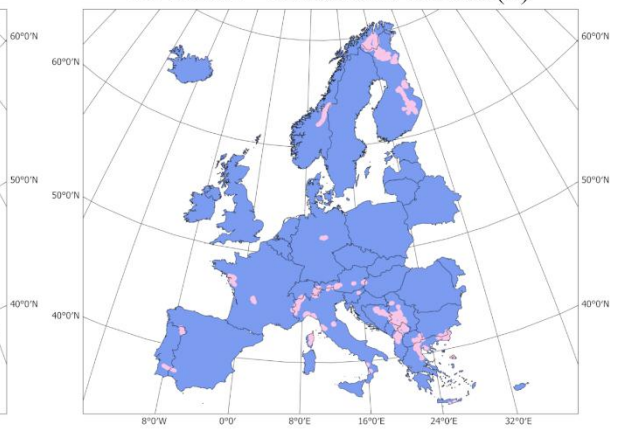
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Figure 1 | Distribution of ultramafic bodies and ophiolitic complexes across Europe. Labels correspond to entries in Table A1. Only ophiolites confirmed to contain ultramafic material are included.

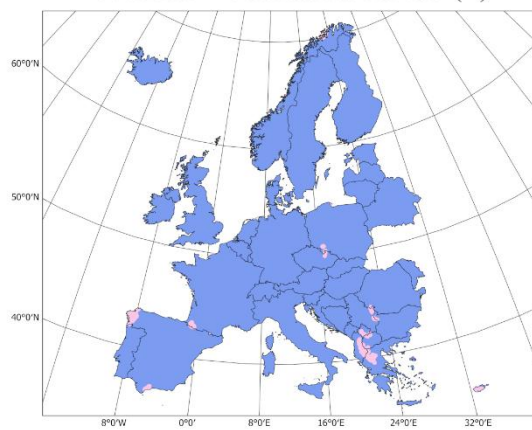
A. SER1 - Ultramafic Rocks (-)



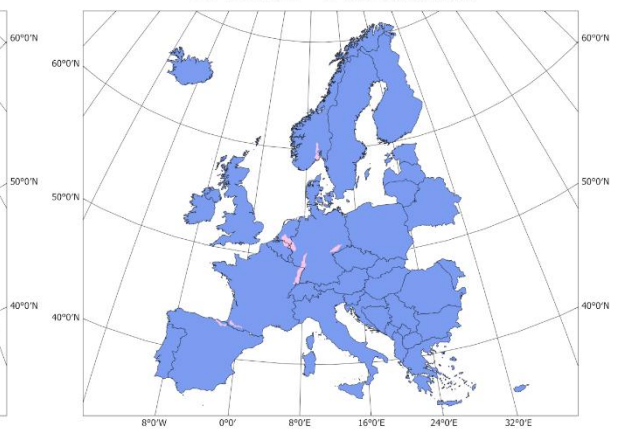
B. SER2 - Ultramafic Rocks (o)



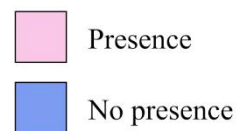
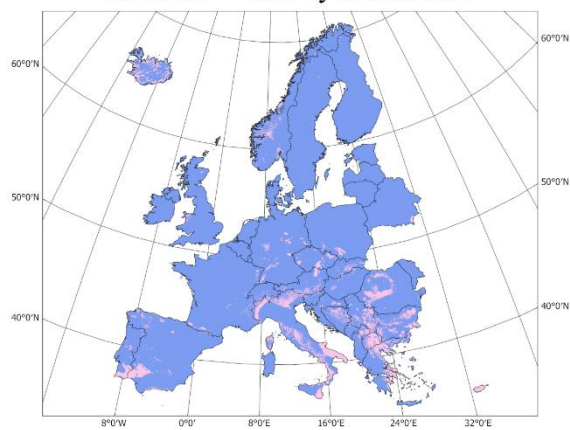
C. SER3 - Ultramafic Rocks (+)



D. SER4 - Failed Rifts



E. SER5 - Gravity Anomalies

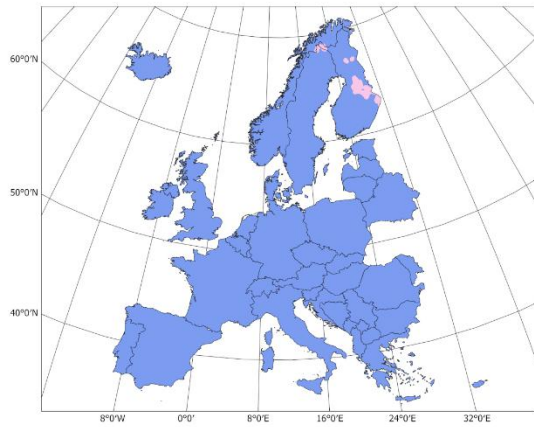


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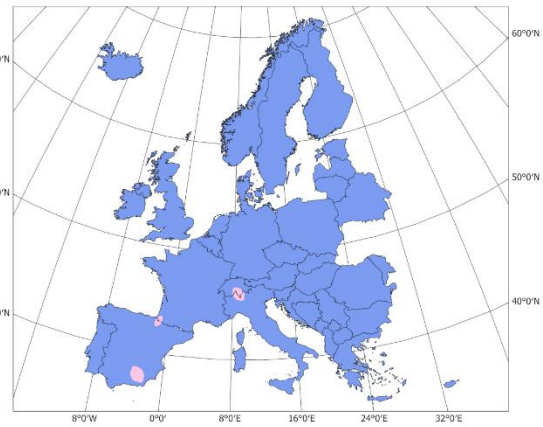
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F. SER6 - Banded Iron Formations



G. SER7 - Rift-inversion Orogens



H. SER8 - Remaining Areas

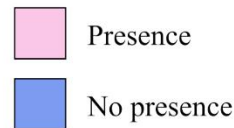
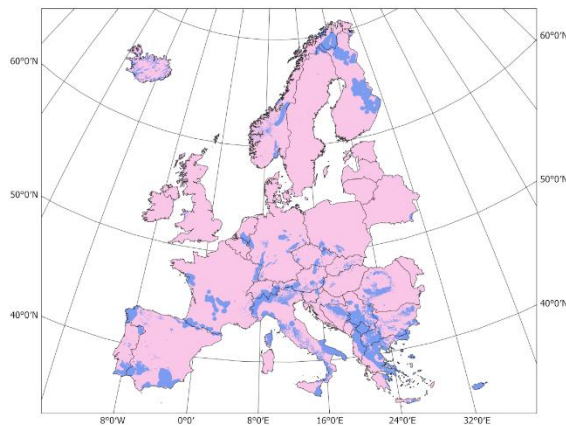


Figure 2 | Geological indicators included in the serpentinization (SER) source layer. **A–C:** Ultramafic bodies with low (SER1), medium (SER2), and high (SER3) COS. **D:** Failed rift systems (SER4). **E:** Gravity anomalies >40 mGal (SER5). **F:** Banded iron formations (SER6). **G:** Rift-inversion orogens (SER7). **H:** Remaining areas.

The serpentinization composite layer comprises eight sublayers (SER1–SER8), as shown in Figure 2. The first three layers (SER1–SER3) reflect the spatial distribution of ultramafic bodies with a 20 km buffer and COS weights based on depth classification. SER4 includes failed rift systems, which can expose mantle rocks via crustal thinning and isostatic uplift (Gillard et al., 2019; Gelman et al., 2025). SER5 represents positive gravity anomalies exceeding 40 mGal, which may indicate dense ultramafic material in the subsurface (Escartin & Cannat, 1999; Bureau Gravimétrique International, 2012). SER6 includes banded iron formations, capable of generating hydrogen through low-temperature oxidation of ferrous iron (Geymond et al., 2022). SER7 identifies rift-inversion orogens—recently proposed as potential hydrogen-rich structures due to mantle exhumation and favorable trapping conditions (Zwaan et al., 2025). SER8 encompasses all other areas not covered by the previous sublayers and is assigned a uniform, low COS value to account for unidentified sources. Figure 3 shows the resulting composite serpentinization source layer, integrating SER1–SER8 using the COS values from Table 1.

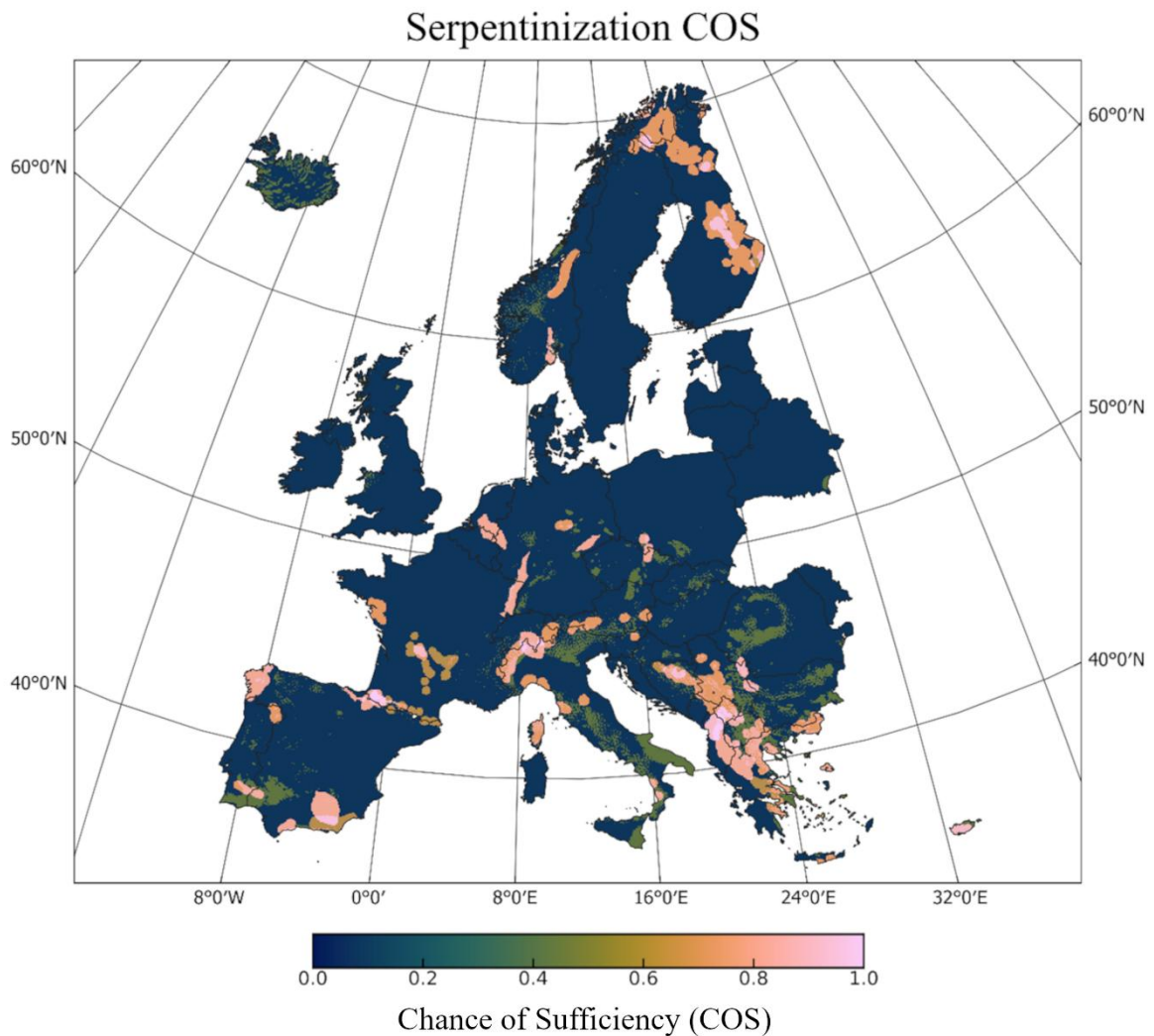
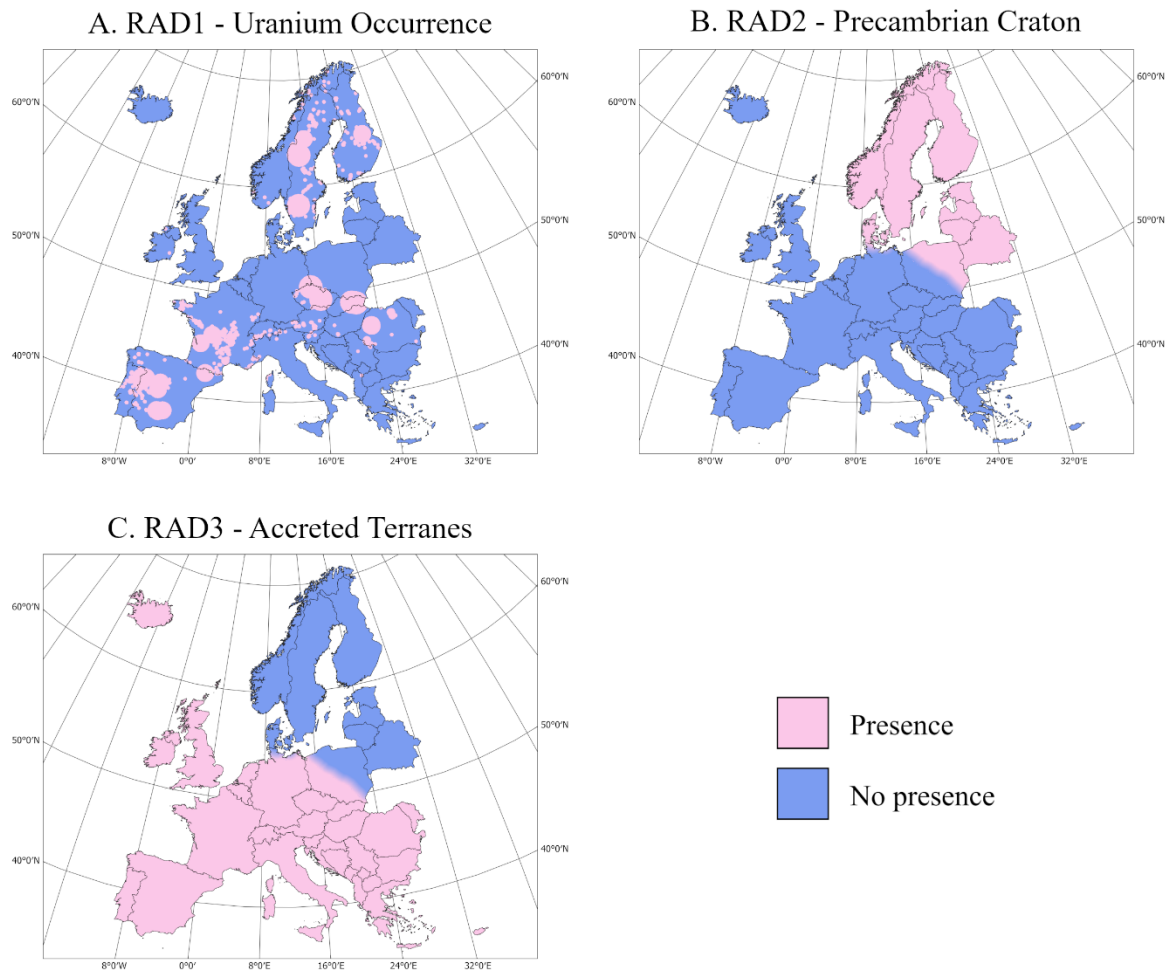


Figure 3 | Composite COS map for serpentinization sources, based on SER1–SER8.

3.1.2 Radiolysis

Radiolysis involves the dissociation of water molecules by ionizing radiation, forming reactive species that recombine to produce molecular hydrogen. This process occurs in the presence of radioactive materials such as uranium and thorium. Three geological indicators were included (Figure 4): RAD1: Documented uranium occurrences across Europe, buffered according to deposit size (EGDI, 2021). RAD2: The East European Craton—composed of stable, uranium-enriched Precambrian basement rock (Asch, 2005; Lollar et al., 2014). RAD3: Accreted terranes, representing geologically younger regions with variable radiogenic potential and less time for hydrogen accumulation (Gelman et al., 2025). This layer serves as the inverse of RAD2. Phanerozoic granitoids were excluded due to limited data coverage across Europe and their low expected contribution. Figure 5 presents the composite COS map for radiolysis sources, constructed from RAD1–RAD3 and corresponding COS values from Table 1.



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Figure 4 | Geological indicators for radiolysis (RAD) source layer. **A:** Uranium occurrences (RAD1). **B:** East European Craton with 100 km buffer (RAD2). **C:** Accreted terranes with 100 km buffer (RAD3).

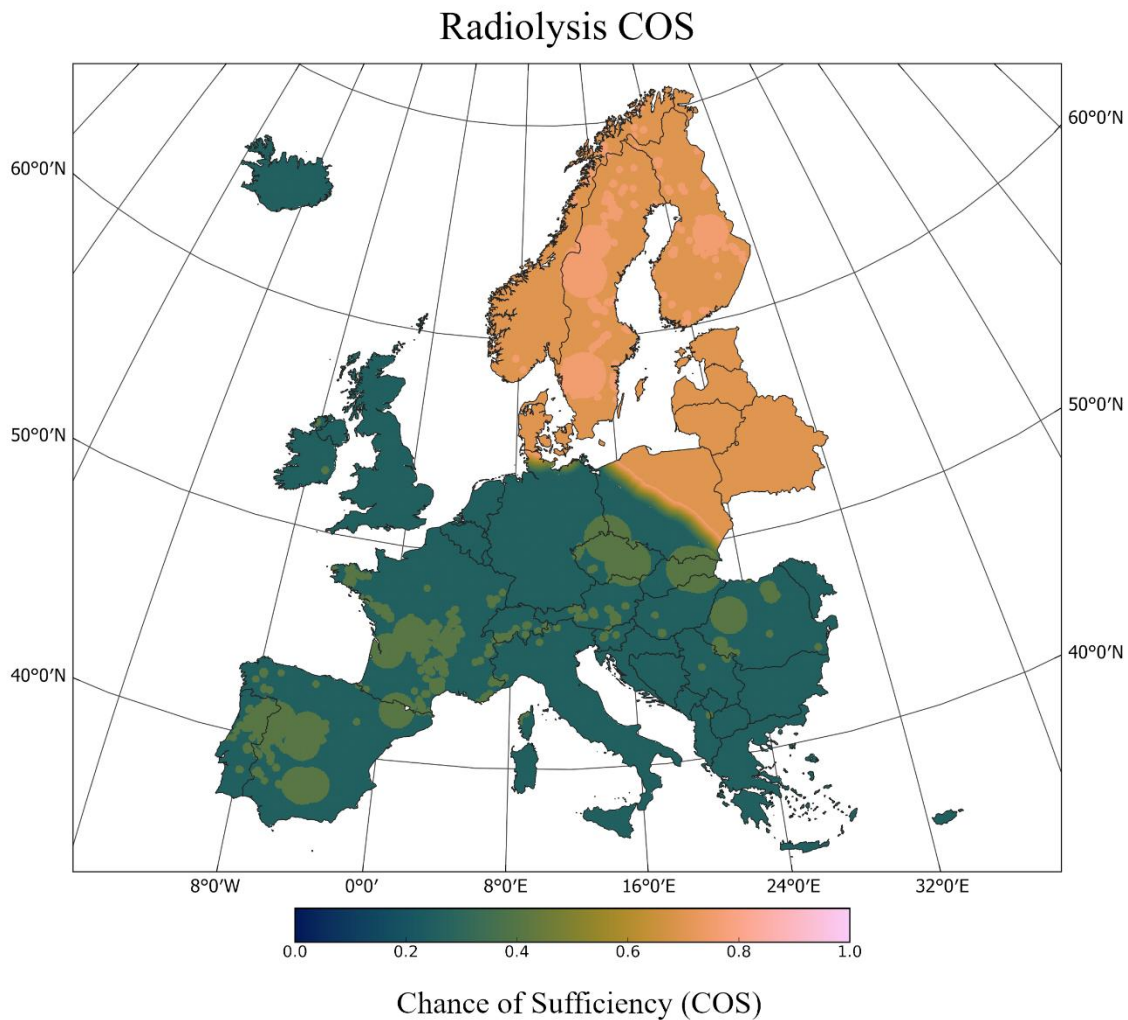
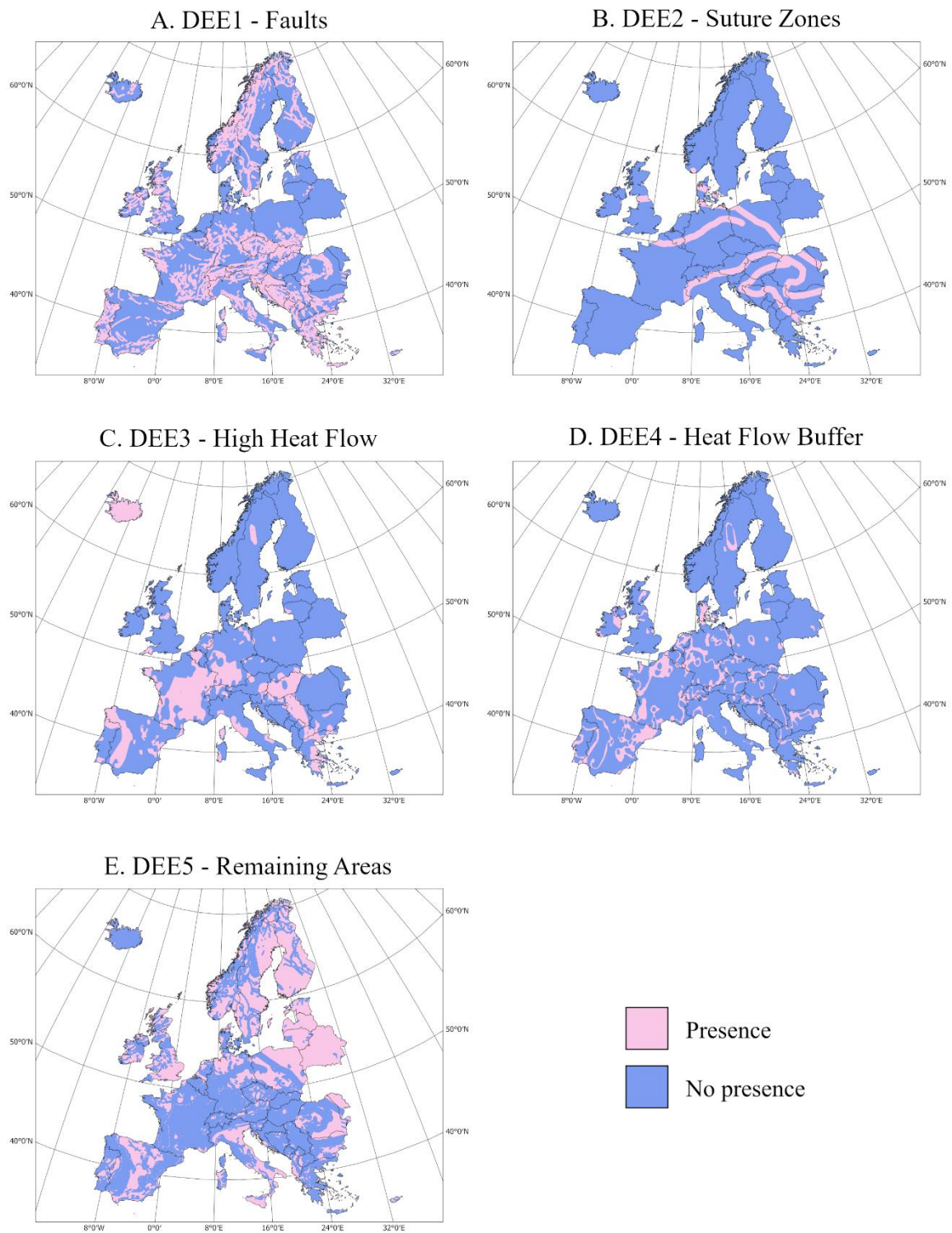


Figure 5 | Composite COS map for radiolysis sources based on layers RAD1–RAD3.

A clear spatial differentiation is observed between the East European Craton and the younger, geologically complex regions of central and western Europe. High COS values dominate in Scandinavia and the Baltic states, consistent with extensive, long-lived radiolytic environments.

3.1.3 Deep sources

Hydrogen generated in the Earth's mantle via degassing or deep serpentinization may migrate upward through the crust. The identification of migration pathways and thermal regimes is critical in assessing this deep source potential. The deep source composite layer includes five indicators (Figure 6): DEE1: Major fault systems with a 10 km buffer, representing conduits for upward gas migration (Liu et al., 2023). DEE2: Suture zones—boundaries between tectonic terranes—which are favorable for fluid transport (Lefeuvre et al., 2024). DEE3: Regions of elevated heat flow (>80 mW/m²), associated with enhanced hydrothermal circulation and gas mobility (Chamorro et al., 2013). DEE4: A transition buffer zone (70–80 mW/m²), assigned lower COS values. DEE5: Residual areas not covered by the above features, with a minimal COS value assigned to account for unknown sources. The composite deep source layer, shown in Figure 7, reflects increased hydrogen prospectivity in regions with dense fault networks and elevated heat flow, particularly in Iceland and parts of France.



176

177 **Figure 6 | Geological indicators for deep source (DEE) potential. A:** Faults with 10 km buffer
 178 (DEE1). **B:** Suture zones with 40 km buffer (DEE2). **C:** Heat flow $>80 \text{ mW/m}^2$ (DEE3). **D:** Transition
 179 heat flow zone ($70\text{--}80 \text{ mW/m}^2$, DEE4). **E:** Residual areas (DEE5).

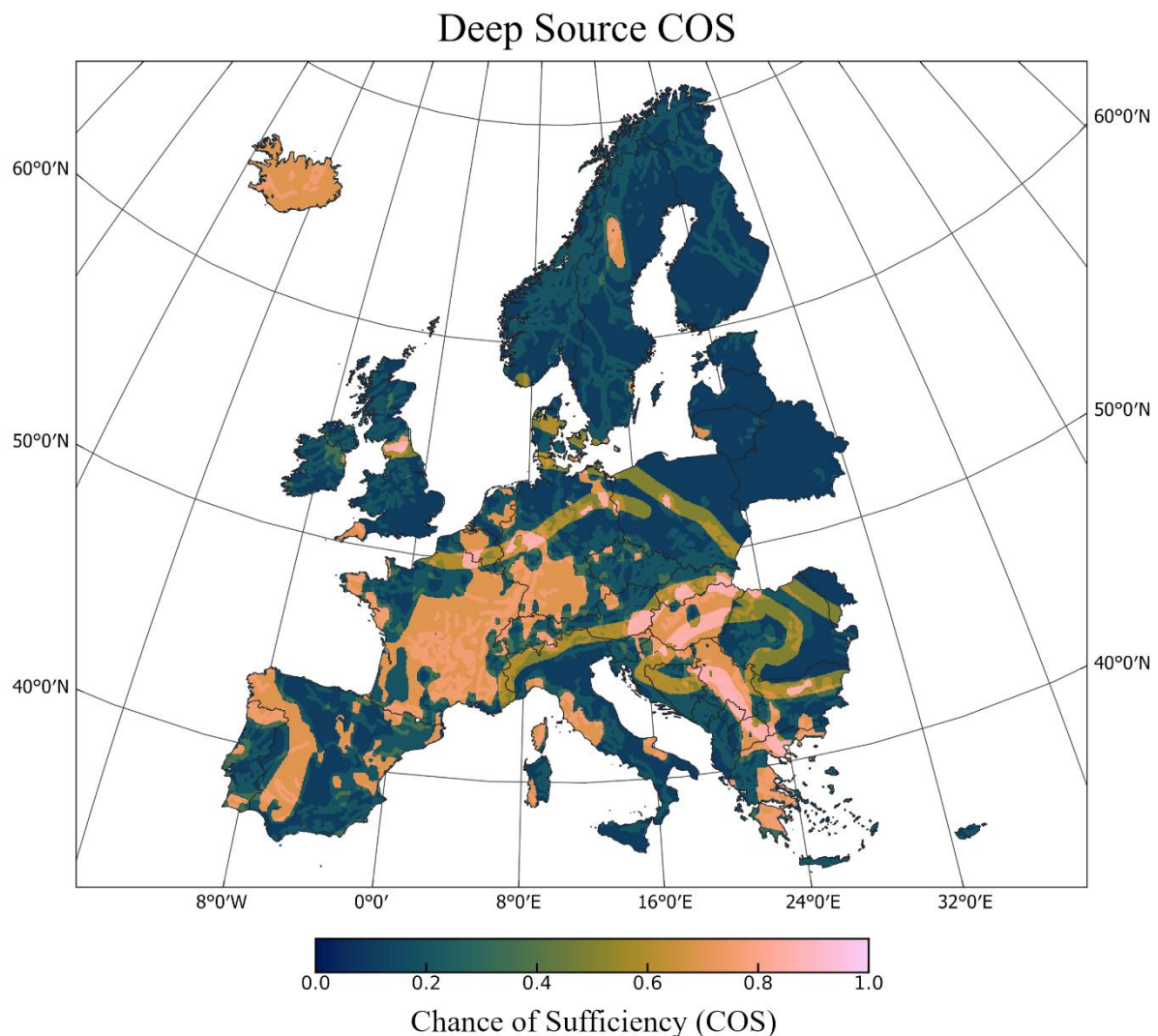


Figure 7 | Composite COS map for deep source hydrogen potential, based on DEE1–DEE5.

The three hydrogen source components—serpentinization, radiolysis, and deep-source processes—were integrated to produce a composite source map, shown in Figure 8. This layer reflects the overall chance of sufficiency (COS) for hydrogen generation across Europe, accounting for multiple geological processes and their respective indicators.

The influence of the East European Craton, a stable Precambrian geological unit, is clearly visible in the composite map due to its high radiolytic potential. Additionally, several Balkan countries display elevated COS values, highlighting regions with potentially favorable conditions for natural hydrogen generation. However, it is important to note that hydrogen generation alone is insufficient to define prospectivity. The viability of these regions depends on the presence of adequate reservoir and seal formations, which are addressed in the following section.

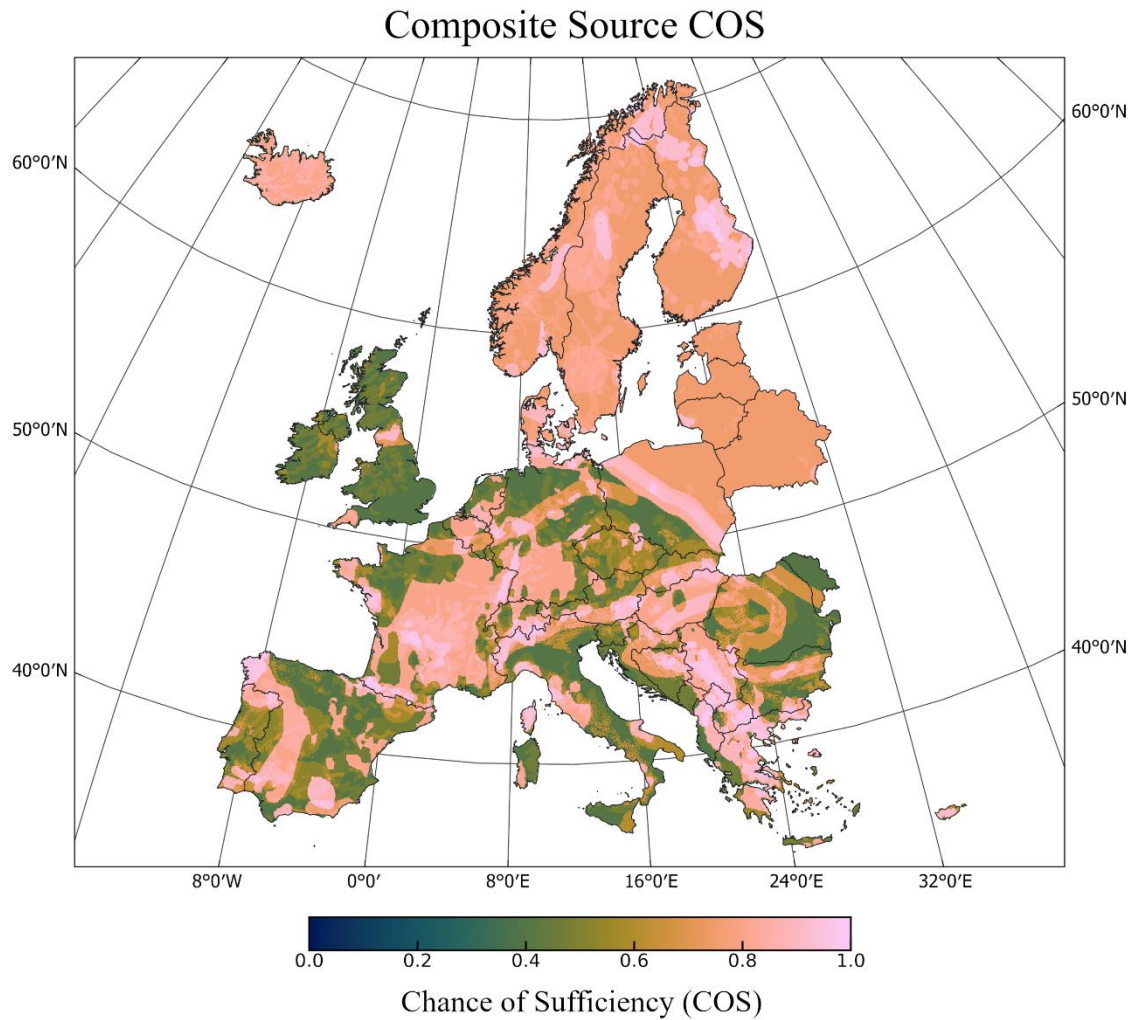
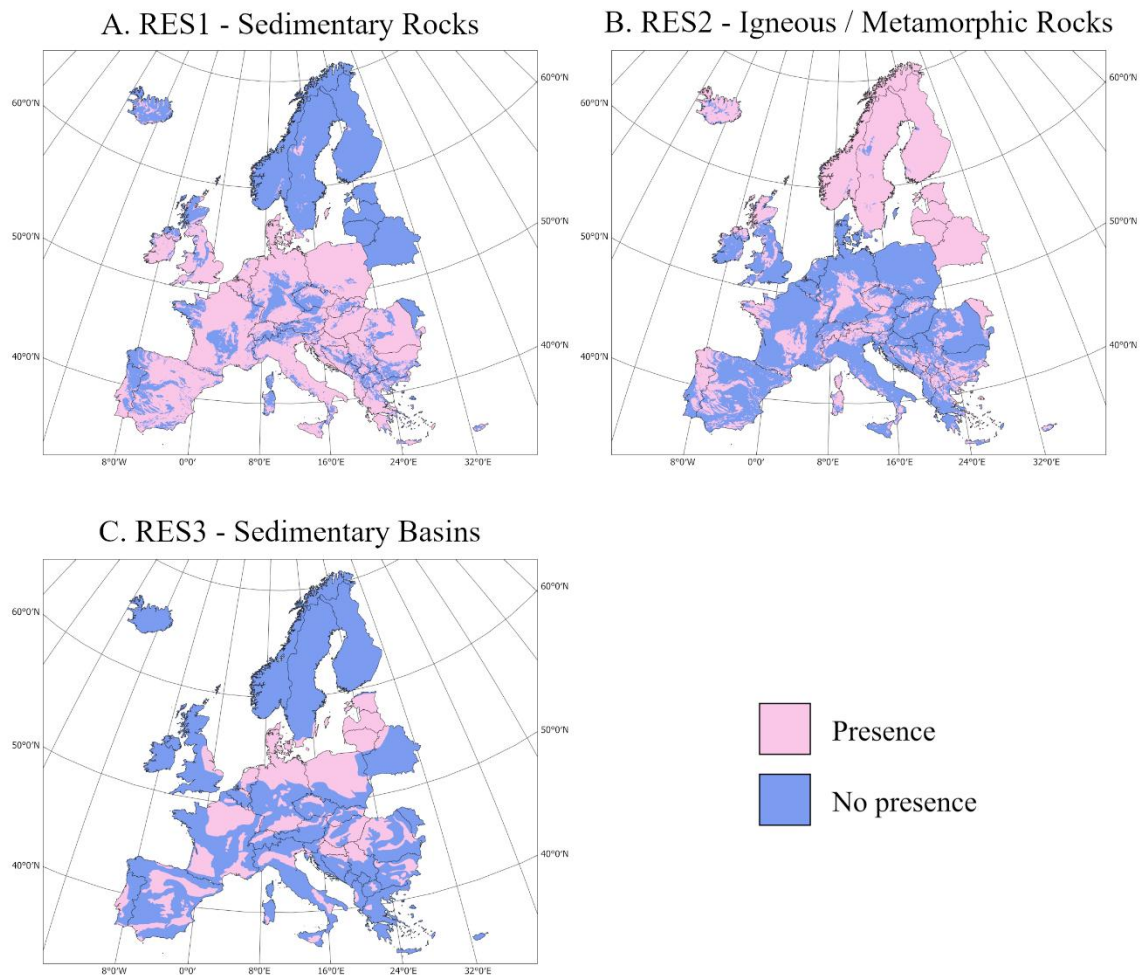


Figure 8 | Composite COS map for hydrogen source potential, combining the serpentinization, radiolysis, and deep-source subcomponents.

3.2 Potential reservoirs

For hydrogen to accumulate in economically viable quantities and contribute meaningfully to the energy transition, the presence of a porous and permeable reservoir is essential. Accordingly, sedimentary rocks, which typically exhibit such characteristics, are given higher COS values and are mapped in layer RES1 (Asch, 2005; Maiga, 2023). In contrast, layer RES2 represents igneous and metamorphic rocks, which generally exhibit lower porosity and are assigned lower COS values. Additionally, layer RES3 maps the extent of sedimentary basins, which are considered favourable due to their thick accumulations of sedimentary sequences that may host large-scale reservoirs (Gelman et al., 2025). These three reservoir-related indicators are shown in Figure 9, and their integration results in the composite reservoir COS map, displayed in Figure 10.



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Figure 9 | Geological indicators used for reservoir assessment (RES). A: Sedimentary rocks (RES1); B: Igneous/metamorphic rocks (RES2); C: Sedimentary basins (RES3). Data sources are listed in Table A.2 (Supplementary Materia).

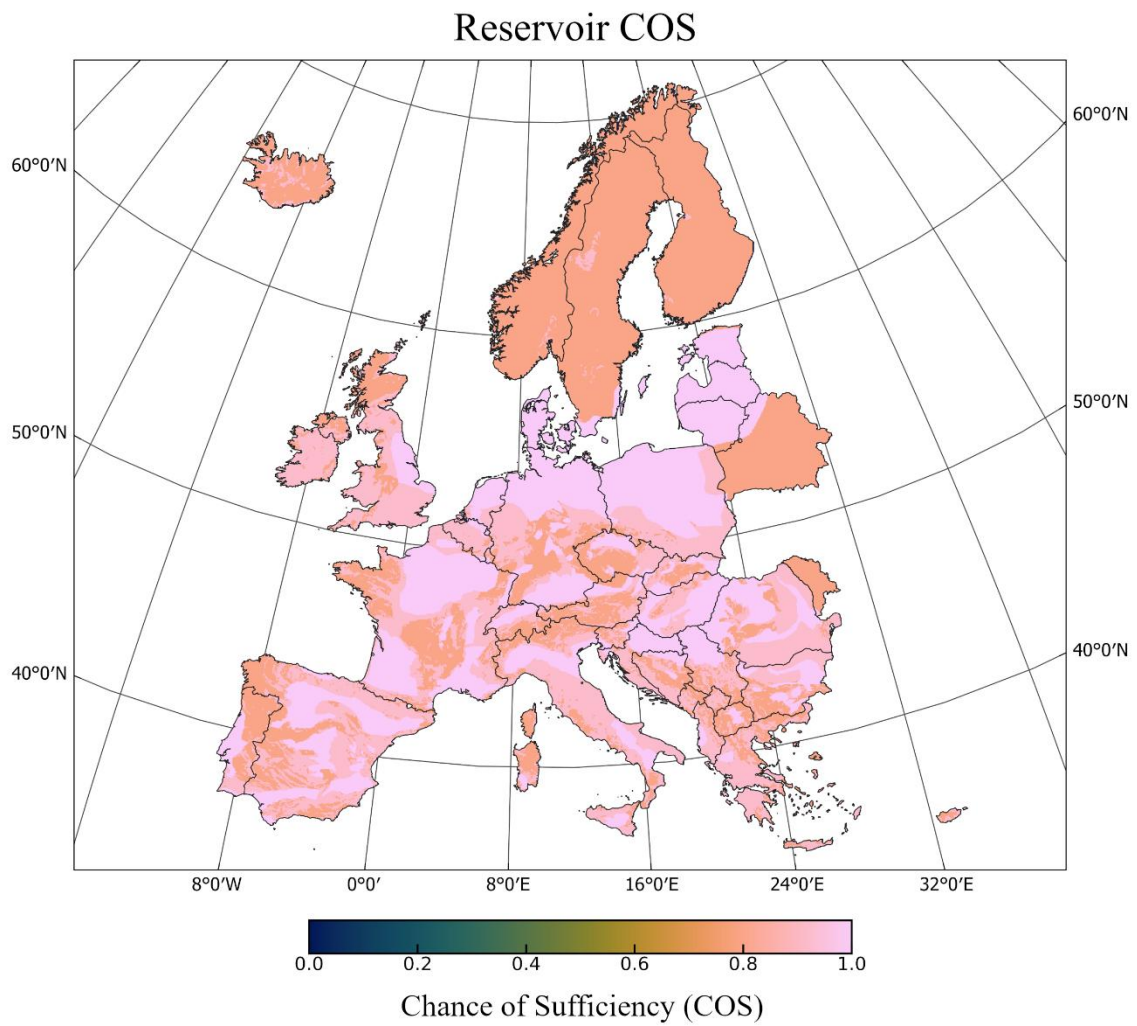
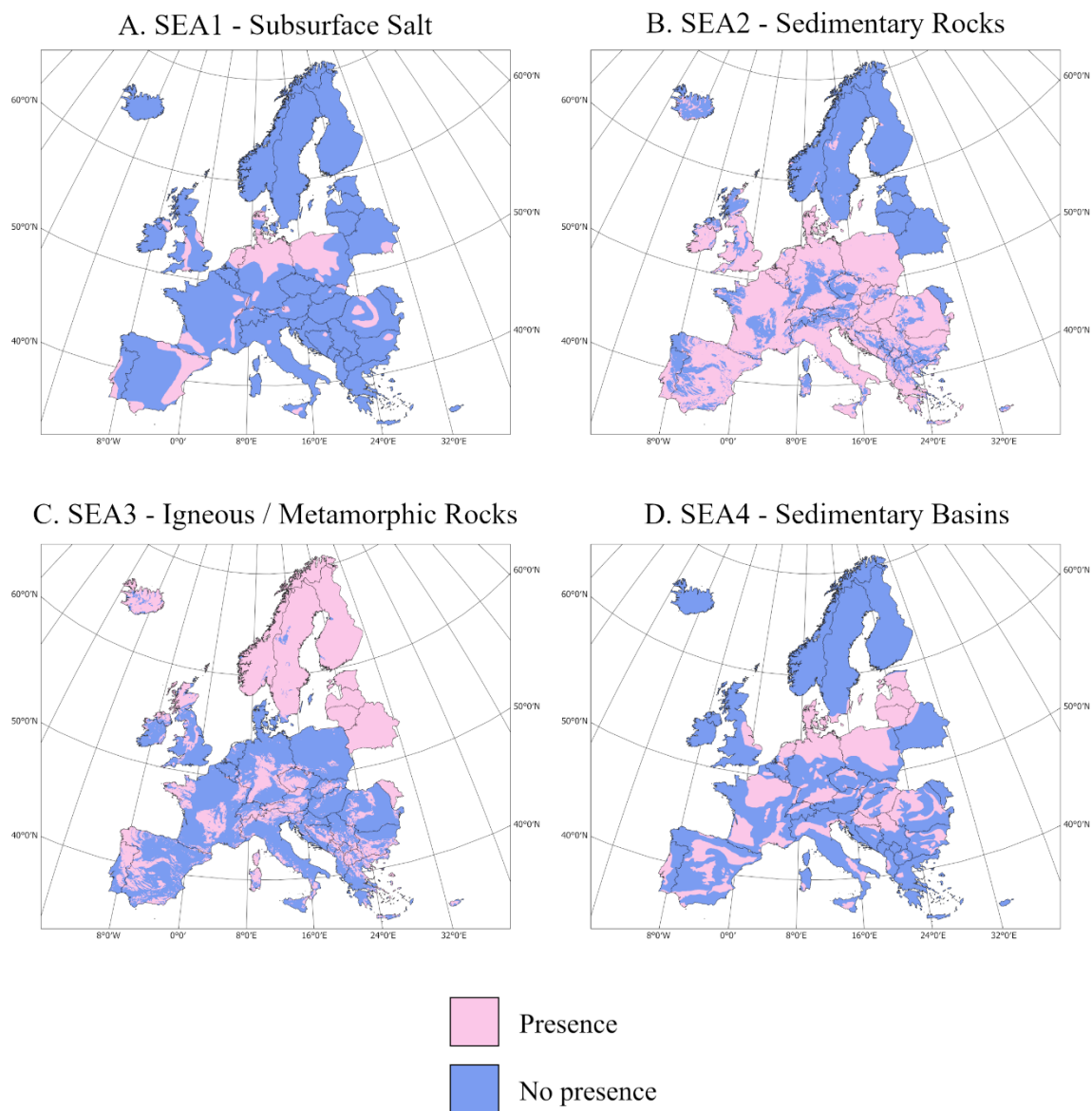


Figure 10 | Composite COS map for reservoir suitability, based on layers RES1–RES3 and the COS values in Table 1.

214 3.3 Seals

215 Effective hydrogen accumulation also requires a subsurface seal to prevent upward migration
216 and escape to the atmosphere. The most effective of these are salt layers, mapped as SEA1, due
217 to their extremely low permeability and proven sealing capabilities (Beauheim & Roberts, 2002).
218 In addition, SEA2–SEA4 mirror the lithologies and structures used in the reservoir analysis (RES1–
219 RES3), but with COS values adjusted to reflect their sealing potential (Gelman et al., 2025).
220 Sedimentary rocks and basins, in particular, may contain interbedded shale or evaporite layers
221 that can act as effective seals. These indicators are shown in Figure 11, and their integration
222 yields the composite seal layer shown in Figure 12.



223

224 **Figure 11 | Geological indicators used for seal assessment (SEA). A: Subsurface salt (SEA1); B: Sedimentary**
225 **rocks (SEA2); C: Igneous/metamorphic rocks (SEA3); D: Sedimentary basins (SEA4). Data sources are**
226 **listed in Table A.2 (Supplementary Materia).**

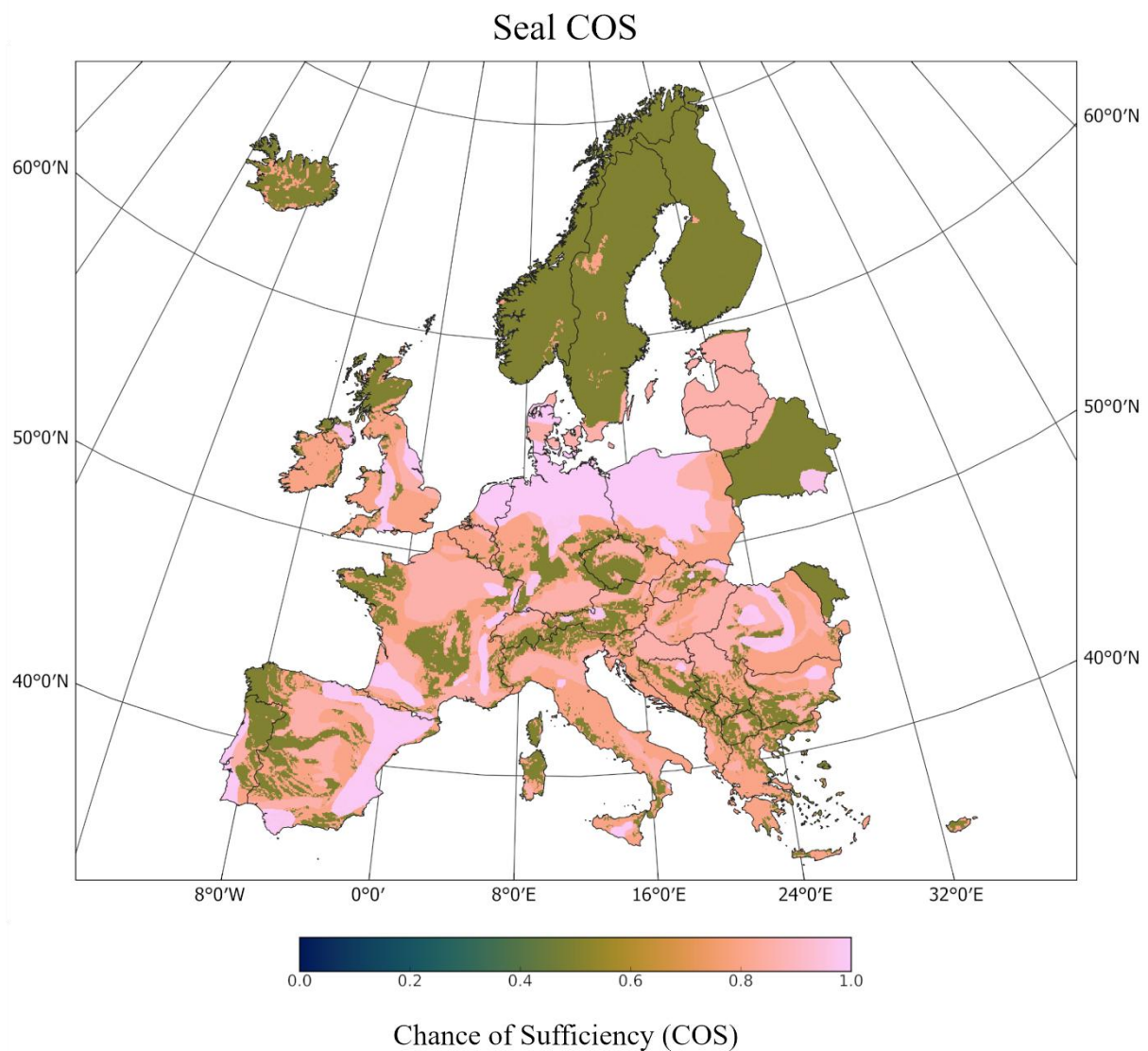


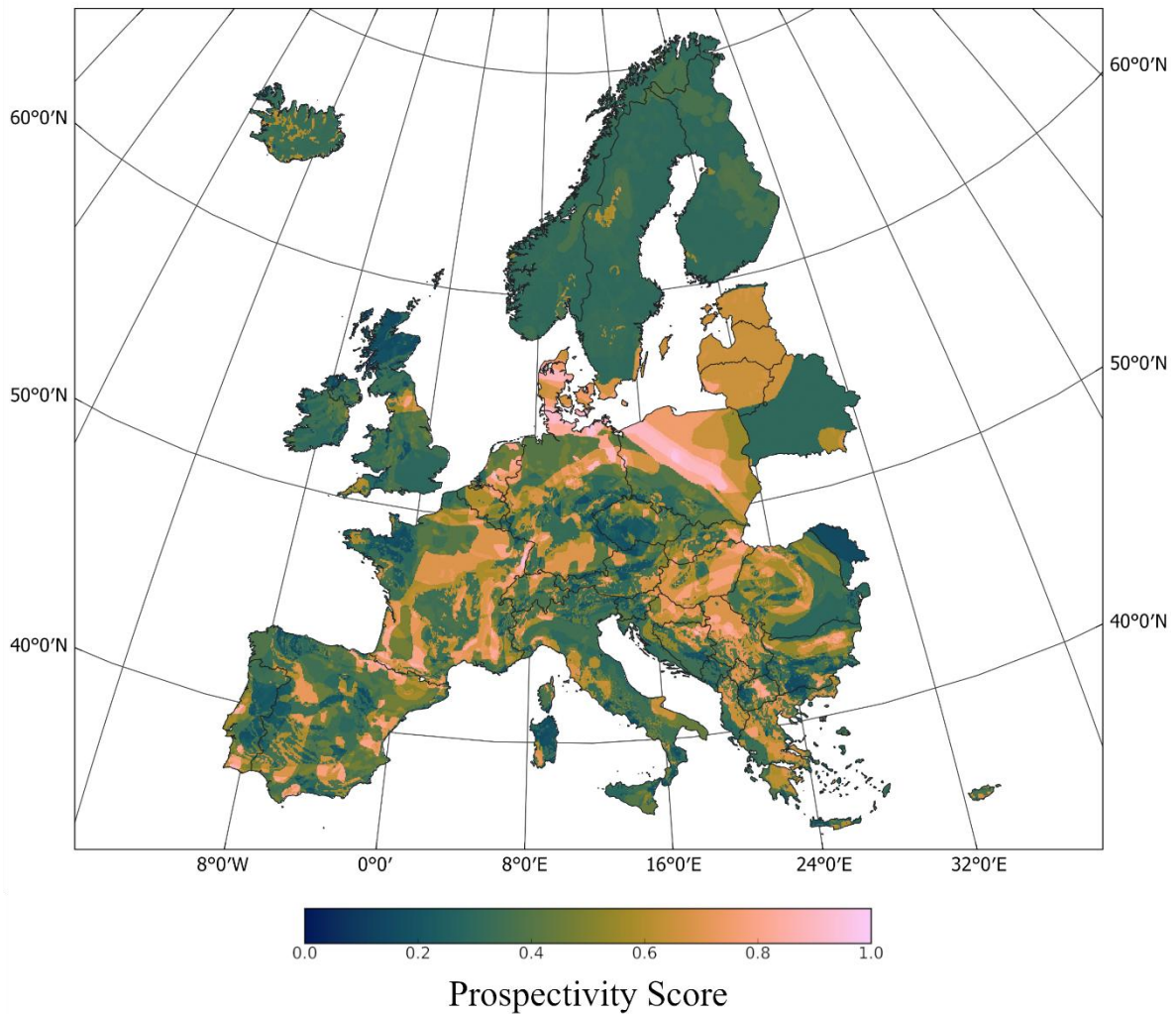
Figure 12 | Composite COS map for seal potential, based on layers SEA1–SEA4 and COS values in Table 1.

3.4 Prospectivity of natural hydrogen

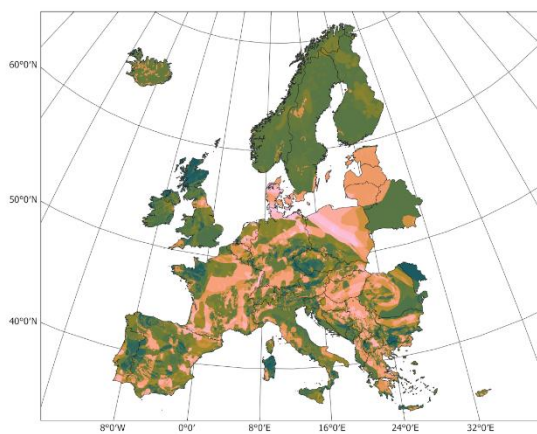
The final prospectivity map (Figure 13) is produced by integrating the composite source, reservoir, and seal layers. This map represents the overall chance of sufficiency (COS) for hydrogen prospectivity across Europe, reflecting regions where hydrogen generation potential coincides with suitable trapping and storage conditions.

The highest prospectivity scores are identified in Poland, Denmark, Hungary, and Serbia. Other countries, including France and Germany, show moderate to high potential in localized regions. Notably, while Scandinavia exhibits a high source potential—primarily driven by radiolysis within the Precambrian craton—its overall prospectivity is moderated by lower COS values for reservoir and seal suitability.

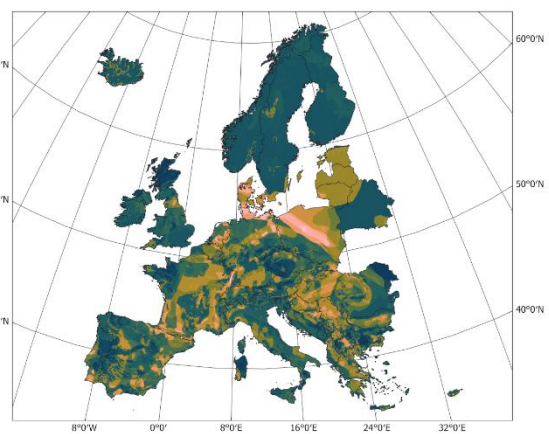
A. Hydrogen Prospectivity (P50)



B. P10 Prospectivity



C. P90 Prospectivity



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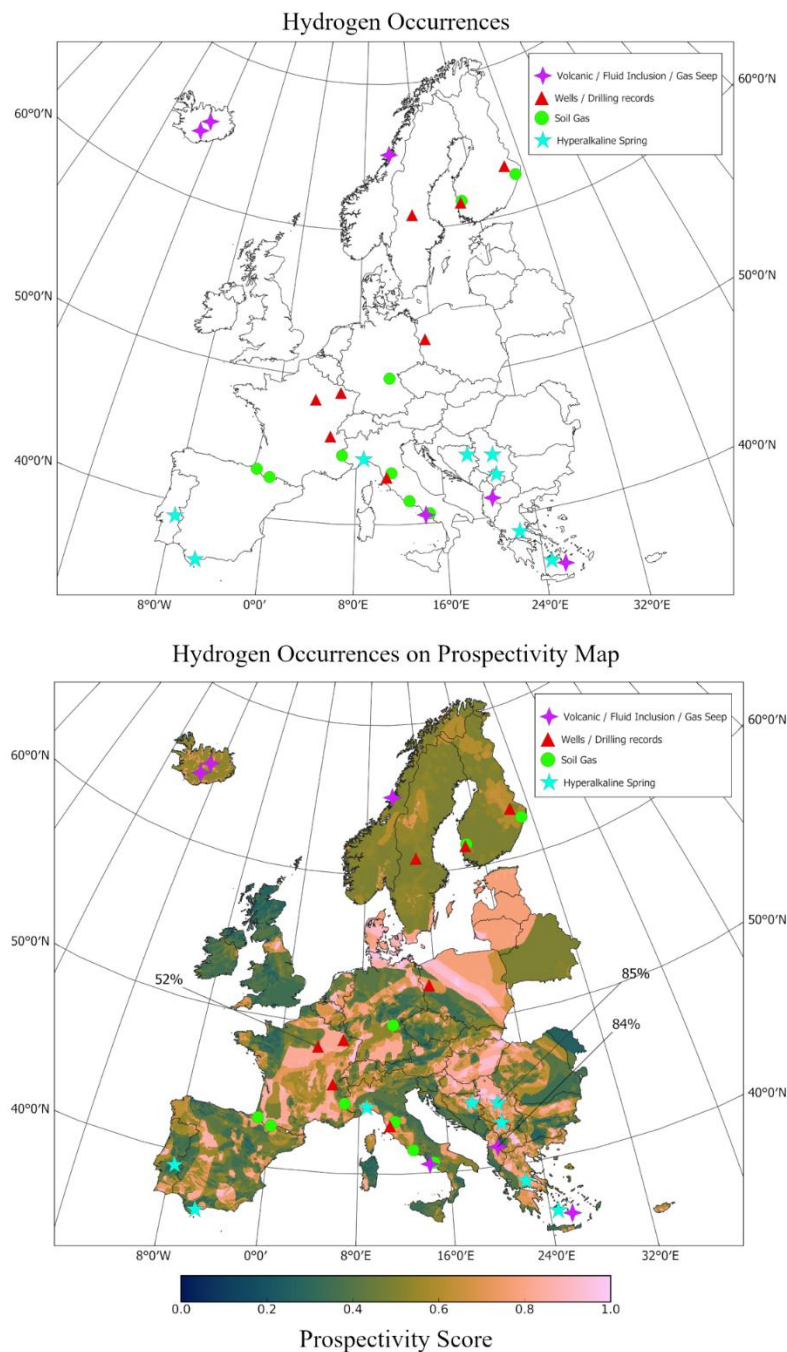
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Figure 13 | Final natural hydrogen prospectivity map, derived by integrating the composite source, reservoir, and seal layers using the methodology described in Section 2.

243

244 3. 5 Validation against known hydrogen occurrences

245 To evaluate the reliability of the prospectivity model, the final map was compared with known
246 natural hydrogen occurrences compiled from the literature (Table A.3). These occurrences are
247 displayed in Figure 14, overlaid on the prospectivity map. For each documented occurrence, the
248 maximum local prospectivity score (as derived from the P50 map in Figure 13) was extracted and
249 recorded in Table A.3. The degree of spatial correlation between known hydrogen sites and
250 regions of high predicted prospectivity provides qualitative support for the model's validity.



251

Figure 14 | Comparison of known hydrogen occurrences (icons) with the final prospectivity map. Occurrence data sources are listed in Table A.3 (Supplementary Materia). The lower panel overlays occurrences on the COS map shown in Figure 13.

A substantial number of documented natural hydrogen occurrences coincide with regions of high predicted prospectivity, particularly in Italy, the Balkans (e.g., Serbia, Albania), and Greece. Although Scandinavia displays a moderate overall prospectivity, the known occurrences there align with localized areas of elevated COS values. Conversely, some high-prospectivity regions—such as Denmark and Hungary—currently lack confirmed hydrogen occurrences, underscoring their potential as priority targets for future exploration and validation efforts.

4. Discussion

This study presents the first continent-scale natural hydrogen prospectivity map for Europe, integrating geological indicators of hydrogen generation, accumulation, and sealing. The map aligns well with recently documented occurrences of natural hydrogen, such as in Albania (Lévy et al., 2023), lending credibility to the methodology and underlying assumptions. By offering geological context for these occurrences, the results not only help explain observed hydrogen emissions but also highlight regions where generation potential coincides with viable reservoirs and seals.

Regions with the highest predicted prospectivity include Denmark, Hungary, France, Poland, North Macedonia, and Serbia. For some of these areas, hydrogen potential has already been recognized. For example, the Lorraine region of France was recently targeted in a 2024 exploration campaign (Meillaud & King, 2023; Waltham, 2024), and assessments are ongoing in Denmark (Geocenter Denmark, 2025). In contrast, other promising regions such as Hungary have received little to no attention in this context. The abundance of deep hydrogen source indicators and potential reservoir structures in Hungary suggest it should be prioritized in future field investigations.

Conversely, areas like Norway, Sweden, and Finland—despite exhibiting strong indicators for hydrogen generation (particularly radiolysis)—show moderate to low overall prospectivity. This is primarily due to the limited presence of sedimentary reservoirs and sealing formations across the Fennoscandian Shield, where crystalline basement rocks dominate (Rosberg & Erlström, 2021). This contrasts with findings from North America, where radiolytic hydrogen in cratonic settings is considered more viable due to the presence of thick sedimentary cover (Marshak & van der Pluijm, 2020; Gelman et al., 2025). Nevertheless, recent research suggests that in-situ hydrogen generation via geological stimulation of ultramafic rocks may offer a path forward even in shield regions (Templeton et al., 2024). The compilation of ultramafic bodies provided in this study (Supplementary Material A.1) can therefore serve not only for passive exploration but also as a guide for potential stimulation-based approaches.

This study is subject to several limitations. First, offshore areas were excluded, despite their significant potential. For instance, the failed rift basins beneath the North Sea—characterized by thick sedimentary sequences and abundant salt structures—may present ideal conditions for hydrogen generation, migration, and trapping (Rathey & Hayward, 1999). Second, hydrogen migration processes were not explicitly modelled. Subsurface migration is critical for

understanding accumulation potential, especially in faulted or rifted terrains. Previous studies have successfully applied hydrocarbon-based flow path models to hydrogen (Gelman et al., 2025), and numerical simulations have demonstrated fault-facilitated hydrogen transport (Donzé et al., 2022). Integrating such migration models with offshore data would provide a more complete prospectivity assessment.

Advancements in remote sensing and machine learning also offer promising avenues for improving exploration efficiency. Algorithms trained on surface expressions of hydrogen (e.g., vegetation anomalies, gas seepage signatures) could help refine subsurface targeting in high-COS regions identified in this study (Ohio State University, 2023).

Finally, this analysis relied on Europe-wide datasets, which, while suitable for a first-order screening study, vary in quality and resolution. These compilations often reflect heterogeneous national datasets with differing classification standards, completeness, and scale. As such, detailed national-scale analyses in high-prospectivity countries—particularly those currently underexplored—are essential next steps. Expanding and standardizing datasets on key parameters, such as subsurface uranium distribution, would greatly enhance the resolution and reliability of future continent-wide assessments.

5. Conclusions

This study presents the first continent-scale prospectivity assessment for natural hydrogen in Europe, offering a foundational spatial framework for early-stage exploration. By integrating indicators of hydrogen generation—through serpentinization, radiolysis, and deep-sourced processes—with assessments of potential reservoirs and sealing formations, a comprehensive map of relative hydrogen prospectivity was developed.

A novel element of this work is the systematic compilation of ultramafic rock bodies across Europe, serving as a critical input for evaluating serpentinization potential. The integration of multiple geological datasets and Monte Carlo-based uncertainty modelling enabled the identification of several high-prospectivity regions, most notably in Hungary, Denmark, Poland, Serbia, and parts of France and North Macedonia. These results are consistent with many known hydrogen occurrences and also highlight underexplored regions where field validation and further research are urgently warranted.

While the study focuses on onshore areas and does not incorporate dynamic hydrogen migration models, it provides a crucial first-order screening tool. The methodology and datasets developed here can be used as a basis for more detailed national assessments and support future incorporation of offshore data, geochemical modelling, and migration pathway simulations.

In the context of the energy transition, natural hydrogen represents a potentially low-cost, carbon-free energy source. Its viability will ultimately depend on resource accessibility, renewability, regulatory frameworks, and technological developments in detection, stimulation, and extraction. By identifying regions where favourable geological conditions overlap, this study supports strategic exploration planning and emphasizes Europe's potential to harness natural hydrogen as part of a broader transition toward sustainable and secure energy systems.

CRediT statement

FHJW: Methodology, software, formal analysis, investigation, visualisation, writing original draft.
JMM: Conceptualisation, supervision, writing – review & editing.

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