
HyUSPRe

Hydrogen Underground Storage in Porous Reservoirs

Competition dynamics between different microbial metabolisms to validate simulation models

Prepared by: Anne-Catherine Ahn, Wageningen University
Adrian Hidalgo Ulloa, Wageningen University
Bart P. Lomans, Shell
Diana Z. Sousa, Wageningen University

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Executive summary

Underground storage of H₂ in depleted hydrocarbon reservoirs, salt caverns, and aquifers presents a promising option for energy storage of renewable energy, but also poses challenges due to potential microbial metabolic activities. Microorganisms, particularly those involved in methanogenesis, sulfate reduction, and acetogenesis, can affect H₂ storage in various ways, including consuming stored H₂, producing gas contaminants like hydrogen sulfide (H₂S) and methane (CH₄), inducing microbial-influenced corrosion, and causing pipe and pore clogging through the accumulation of biomass and bio-based solids. Environmental parameters play a crucial role in limiting or completely inhibiting microbial growth and metabolic activity. Understanding the impact of environmental conditions allows for predicting these microbial-influenced risks. One approach to better assess risks in the field is to study microbial activities and community compositions in lab-based incubations. These studies enable to unravel the complex interplay between environmental conditions and microbial behavior.

This report explores the impact of temperature and nutrient addition on microbial activity and community composition during lab incubation experiments using bicarbonate-buffered reservoir brine samples from a potential H₂ storage site. Microbial consumption of H₂ was associated to the formation of CH₄ and acetate, with primarily acetate at 35°C, and CH₄ at 50, 65 and 80°C being produced in the “H₂-only” incubations, and acetate at 35 and 50°C, and CH₄ at 65 and 80°C in the “H₂/CO₂-nutrient supplemented” incubations. No sulfidogenic activity was detected for the reservoir brine samples studied. The extent of H₂ conversion varied with temperature, peaking at 65°C at both conditions, and was enhanced by the addition of minerals and vitamins during the incubation experiments. Analysis of microbial community composition suggested that CH₄ was produced by the hydrogenotrophic methanogens of the Methanobacteria class. Acetate was likely produced through homoacetogenesis and fermentative pathways by members of the Bacillota phylum, including Clostridia, Thermoanaerobacteria, and Moorelia, as well as candidate phylum Acetothermiiia in the “H₂-only” incubations, and by members of Clostridia, Thermanaerobacteria, Moorellia, Thermotogae, and Thermacetogenia, with the later possibly able to also perform syntrophic acetate reduction in combination with the methanogen, in the “H₂/CO₂-nutrient supplemented” incubations. The addition of CO₂ and nutrients led to less complex microbial communities, with certain taxa outcompeting others rapidly. These findings underscore the importance of analyzing the microbiological and geochemical characteristics of potential storage sites and continuously monitoring them during H₂ storage to reduce risks provoked by microorganisms. However, future research should focus on the effects of high partial H₂ pressure to better simulate H₂ storage conditions and to derive valuable insights for potential applications in porous reservoirs.

The raw microbial activity data (H₂ consumption, product formation and pH) collected for this report can be reviewed in the deliverable D3.3 (Database of relevant input parameters from D3.1 and D3.2 for the integrated reservoir and wellbore modelling in WP6), and the modeling of the kinetic parameters from this study is detailed in report D3.2 (Report on the kinetics of microbial growth & activity (specific growth rates, growth yields, K_s values, etc.) as well as generation of biobased solids and their dependences on relevant environmental parameters (e.g. temperature etc.)).

About HyUSPRe

Hydrogen **U**nderground **S**torage in **P**orous **R**eservoirs

The HyUSPRe project researches the feasibility and potential of implementing large-scale underground geological storage for renewable hydrogen in Europe. This includes the identification of suitable porous reservoirs for hydrogen storage, and technical and economic assessments of the feasibility of implementing large-scale storage in these reservoirs to support the European energy transition to net zero emissions by 2050. The project will address specific technical issues and risks regarding storage in porous reservoirs and conduct an economic analysis to facilitate the decision-making process regarding the development of a portfolio of potential field pilots. A techno-economic assessment, accompanied by environmental, social, and regulatory perspectives on implementation will allow for the development of a roadmap for widespread hydrogen storage by 2050, indicating the role of large-scale hydrogen storage in achieving a zero-emissions energy system in the EU by 2050.

This project has two specific objectives. Objective 1 concerns the assessment of the technical feasibility, associated risks, and the potential of large-scale underground hydrogen storage in porous reservoirs for Europe. HyUSPRe will establish the important geochemical, microbiological, flow, and transport processes in porous reservoirs in the presence of hydrogen via a combination of laboratory-scale experiments and integrated modelling; and establish more accurate cost estimates to identify the potential business case for hydrogen storage in porous reservoirs. Suitable storage sites will be identified, and their hydrogen storage potential will be assessed. Objective 2 concerns the development of a roadmap for the deployment of geological hydrogen storage up to 2050. The proximity of storage sites to large renewable energy infrastructure and the amount of renewable energy that can be buffered versus time varying demands will be evaluated. This will form a basis for developing future scenario roadmaps and preparing for demonstrations.

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1. Introduction

The European Union has set the goal of achieving a zero-emissions energy system across Europe by 2050. To enable this transition, it is crucial to widely adopt renewable energy sources like wind and solar power. However, these sources are susceptible to energy production and consumption variations throughout the day and period of the year. In response to this challenge, molecular energy carriers such as hydrogen (H_2) have been proposed for storage of energy surplus. H_2 can be converted back into usable energy, like electricity, when needed. Aboveground storage of H_2 is impractical due to the large volumes required, and meets with spatial planning and environmental constraints. Consequently, attention has turned to underground H_2 storage in depleted hydrocarbon reservoirs, salt caverns and aquifers. However, H_2 can interact with the environment of these subsurface storage sites in complex ways, including potential detrimental effects from microorganisms, which poses a challenge to the effectiveness of H_2 storage (Dopffel et al., 2021).

Hydrogen plays an essential role as an electron donor in anaerobic microbial processes (Claassens et al., 2018), involving H_2 -utilizing sulfate reducers, methanogens, and acetogens (Thaysen et al., 2021). As a result, the storage of H_2 underground may trigger the activity of these microbial groups, potentially leading to detrimental effects on H_2 storage. Microbes, through their metabolic processes, can cause depletion of stored H_2 and the formation of contaminating reaction products like hydrogen sulfide (H_2S) and methane (CH_4) (Dopffel et al., 2021). Moreover, microbial-influenced corrosion (MIC) can occur, causing the deterioration of gas transport infrastructure and the buildup of organic solids (including microbial biomass, extracellular polymeric substances (EPS), and metal sulfides). These solids can obstruct pipelines and the pore spaces of reservoir rocks, diminishing gas injection capacity (Dopffel et al., 2021). A better understanding of the key environmental factors influencing microbial behavior and community composition can facilitate the prediction of these outcomes.

The subsurface environment harbors various extreme conditions, including elevated temperatures, pressures, and salinity (Escudero et al., 2018), as well as restricted pore sizes for passage or colonization (Sharma and McInerney, 1994; Fredrickson et al., 1997). Microbial abundance and activity heavily rely on these environmental parameters. Thaysen et al. (2021) conducted an analysis of the "windows of viability" for microorganisms in subsurface environments using data from 532 different pure strains of acetogens, SSRMs (sulfur species reducing microorganisms), and methanogens. Through this analysis, they established thresholds for potential risks associated with microbial activities in subsurface H_2 storage. Their examination highlighted temperature, either alone or in combination with salinity, as the most significant limiting factor for microbial growth and activity in subsurface environments. Typically, sites with temperatures exceeding $122^\circ C$ are considered sterile, while temperatures between $80^\circ C$ and $94^\circ C$ generally reduce the likelihood of H_2S formation. The analysis demonstrated the boundaries of potential growth by plotting critical temperatures against NaCl concentrations, indicating that storage sites with temperatures above $55^\circ C$ and salinity levels exceeding 1.7 M are optimal for mitigating the risk of microbial impact (Thaysen et al., 2021). However, clear limits for microbial pressure resistance have not yet been defined (Dopffel et al., 2021). It is crucial to understand the thresholds of microbial life, and to evaluate microbial kinetics and the impact on the microbial community composition under various conditions within the window of microbial viability. This approach enables to define site options and allows for risk assessment within this range.

Interest in subsurface H_2 storage is increasing, yet our understanding of the microbial community inhabiting these environments and how they will be influenced by the H_2 storage remains restricted. Currently, little is known about the structure and function of microbial communities present in these habitats. Microbial community analysis plays a crucial role in

shedding light on this issue by identifying the microorganisms and quantifying their relative abundance, allowing us to study their functional composition, diversity, and interactions with each other and their surroundings. The composition of microbial communities is highly influenced by environmental conditions, which are linked to the individual growth kinetics and adaptations of each microorganism. Several studies have examined the environmental microbiomes of underground gas storage sites in various locations, including porous reservoirs (Šmigáň et al., 1990; Ivanova et al., 2007; Buriánková et al., 2022), aquifers (Basso et al., 2009; Gulliver et al., 2019; Ranchou-Peyruse et al., 2019, 2021; Kadnikov et al., 2020), and salt caverns (Bordenave et al., 2013; Schwab et al., 2022), filled with different types of gases such as natural gas, town gas, or CO₂. However, there is a scarcity of studies focusing on the effect of H₂ storage on microbial communities in subsurface environments. For this aim, Dohrmann and Krüger (2022) investigated the impact of H₂ injection and withdrawal cycles and temperature variations on a porous reservoir, while Schwab et al. (2023) examined the effect of varying salt concentrations and carbon sources on H₂ oxidation in mixed cultures enriched from materials sourced from various hypersaline aquifers and caverns. However, it is also essential to recognize that the subsurface environment under H₂ storage conditions carries the risk of introducing allochthonous organisms from the surface, as well as surface gases and drilling fluids (Heinemann et al., 2021), which can lead to changes in the microbial community during the operation period. Therefore, understanding the community composition and the effect of different H₂ storage conditions is of tremendous importance for inferring competitive interactions and better monitoring the microbial impact of subsurface H₂ storage.

This report investigates the impact of temperature and the addition of nutrients on the composition of the microbial community associated with the microbial consumption of H₂, and the formation of products in brine samples from a potential H₂ storage site. Amplicon sequence analysis based on the 16S rRNA gene was used to identify the microbial key players in the community composition and to determine which functional group (methanogens, sulfate reducers and acetogens) has advantages over others under certain conditions. The original data regarding microbial H₂ consumption and product formation collected for this report can be found in deliverable D3.3. (Database of relevant input parameters from D3.1 and D3.2 for the integrated reservoir and wellbore modelling in WP6), while the modeling of the kinetic parameters from this study is detailed in report D3.2 (Report on the kinetics of microbial growth & activity (specific growth rates, growth yields, K_s values, etc.) as well as generation of biobased solids and their dependences on relevant environmental parameters (e.g. temperature etc.).

2. Experimental set-up

Reservoir brine samples from a potential hydrogen storage site were incubated under two conditions (“H₂-only” and “H₂/CO₂-nutrient supplemented”) at four different temperatures (35, 50, 65, and 80°C). The studied reservoir corresponds to “case 1”, following the nomenclature used in deliverable D3.3. The reservoir of case 1 has an average temperature of 83°C and samples were retrieved from a sand trap, which was bleed off prior the sampling. The first condition simulates H₂ storage conditions, where the brine was incubated with 100% H₂ and in absence of additional nutrients (“H₂-only” condition). Under this condition, the microbial community only has access to minerals and organics already present in the brine. In the second condition, the brine was incubated with 80% H₂/20% CO₂, and a surplus of various minerals and vitamins was provided (“H₂/CO₂-nutrient supplemented” condition). This condition represents the high-impact scenario for H₂ storage, as it creates a more favorable condition to enhance microbial activities and kinetics. Brine samples were incubated in anaerobic bottles at 1.7 bar, at 35, 50, 65, and 80°C in triplicates, and additionally two blanks (sterilized brine) were added, per condition (Figure 1). For both conditions, 250 mg/l NaHCO₃ (buffer), and 0.48 g/l Na₂S · 9 H₂O (reducing agent) and 0.5 mg/l resazurin (redox indicator) were added. Additionally, nutrients, vitamins and trace elements prepared as previously described (Stams et al., 1993; Plugge, 2005) were added to the “H₂/CO₂-nutrient supplemented” incubations. The starting brine sample was analyzed for its chemical composition, and liquid samples at the start and at the end of incubations were preserved for microbial community composition analysis. Throughout the incubation, headspace samples were analyzed for H₂ and CH₄ quantification, and liquid samples for pH, H₂S, SO₄²⁻ and acetate.

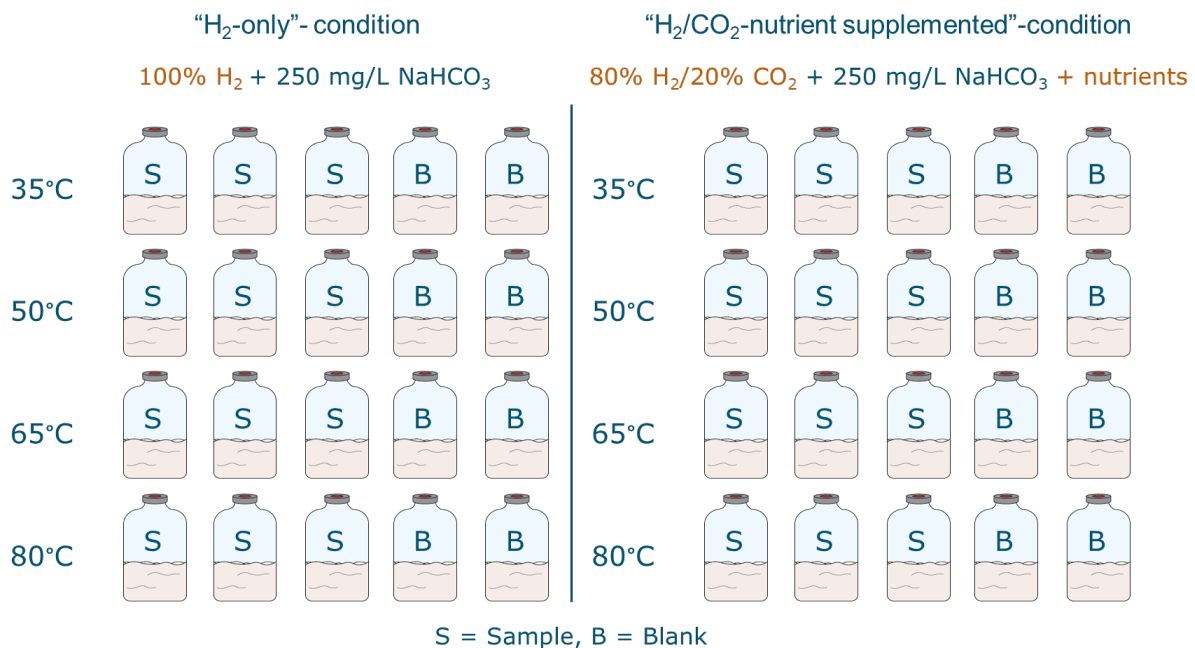


Figure 1. Schematic representation of experimental set-up.

Chemical analysis of metal concentrations of the starting brine sample was determined using an ICP-OES (Perkin Elmer Avio 500, USA). During incubation, the concentrations of H₂ and CH₄ in the gaseous phase were measured by gas chromatography with a thermal conductivity detector (GC-TCD) on a CompactGC4.0 (Interscience, The Netherlands). HS⁻ concentrations in the liquid phase were quantified using the methylene blue method (Standard methods for the examination of water and wastewater, 2017). These values (and the pH) were used to calculate ‘total sulfide’ concentration, corresponding to the sum of dissolved and gas-phase

sulfide (referred to as H₂S throughout this report). SO₄²⁻ was measured using ion exchange chromatography Dionex ICS-2100 (Dionex, USA) equipped with a Dionex IonPac AS17 column (Dionex). Concentrations of acetate and other volatile fatty acids were determined using High-Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC) on a Shimadzu Prominence LC2030C Plus (Shimadzu Corporation, Japan) equipped with a UV/Vis detector. Genomic DNA was extracted from samples for molecular analysis with the DNeasy PowerSoil Pro Kit (Qiagen, The Netherlands) with 0.1 mm G2 DNA/RNA extraction enhancer beads (Ampliqon, Denmark). Amplicon sequencing was performed at Novogene sequencing the 16S rRNA gene V4 region (2 x 250 bp) with the universal primers 515F (5'-GTGCCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA-3') and 806R (5'-GGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAAT-3') on an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 platform (Illumina, San Diego, USA). Within QIIME2 (version 2023.9), amplicon sequence variants (ASVs) were determined using the DADA2 algorithm and taxonomy was assigned to representative ASVs based on the Silva 138 99% OTUs 16S rRNA gene database.

3. Results

3.1 Physical and chemical conditions of the subsurface reservoir

Case 1's reservoir is at an average temperature of 83°C, with an initial pressure of 116 bar, and the brine sample had an average pH upon receipt of 7.34. The chemical composition includes 0.049 mM SO_4^{2-} , 1 mM acetate, and no formate. The elemental composition of the brine showed 104.65 mg/L sodium, 3.68 mg/L of sulfur, and 0.69 mg/L of boron (see Table 1). Other dissolved elements examined in this analysis were below the quantification limit.

Table 1. Elemental composition of the initial case 1 sample.

Element	Concentration (mg/L)
S	3.68
Al	< 2
Ba	< 0.2
Ca	< 20
Cd	< 2
Co	< 0.2
Cr	< 2
Cu	< 2
Fe	< 2
K	< 20
Li	< 2
Mg	< 2
Mn	< 2
Na	104.65
Ni	< 2
Pb	< 0.2
Zn	< 2
B	0.69
P	< 0.2

3.2 Microbial activity and community composition

Brine incubations were performed under two conditions. "H₂-only" incubations were cultivated with a 100% H₂ headspace and in the absence of additional nutrients, whereas "H₂/CO₂-nutrient supplemented" incubations were cultivated with an 80% H₂/20% CO₂ headspace, and a surplus of various minerals and vitamins to enhance growth. In both incubation conditions, consumption of H₂ and production of CH₄ and acetate were observed. However, the rates of H₂ consumption and the proportions of products varied depending on the temperature and condition. This variation is also reflected in the microbial community composition, which allows inferring the microorganisms potentially responsible for the different metabolic activities.

For the microbial community composition, it is important to consider that taxonomic assignments at lower levels may be uncertain. Assignments at the class level are more reliable, but the report also discusses functional properties at the genus level, which should be approached with caution.

3.2.1 “H₂-only” condition

The “H₂-only” incubations were cultivated with NaHCO₃ and 100% H₂. At 35, 50, and 65°C, H₂ consumption occurred along with the generation of CH₄ and acetate. No significant H₂ consumption was detected at 80°C, compared to sterile controls. The observed loss in H₂ in the incubations and in the sterile controls is likely due to the escape of gas during sampling and through the stopper during the incubation. CH₄ production increased at higher temperatures, particularly between 50 and 80°C. Acetate was primarily generated at 35°C and to a lesser extent at higher temperatures, except for 80°C. No significant H₂S production was observed at any temperature for the “H₂-only” incubations.

The microbial community composition at the beginning and end of the “H₂-only” incubations at the different temperatures identified the microorganisms potentially responsible for the observed activities. Due to low quality, the sequencing data from the incubations at 80°C were excluded from this report.

The initial composition of the incubations revealed a predominant relative abundance of the archaeal class Methanobacteria, along with bacteria of the genus *Thermolithobacter* (classified as Incertae Sedis within the Bacillota), the candidate phylum Acetothermiia, and the class Bacilli. Additionally, the microbial community also comprised members from classes such as Clostridia, Thermoanaerobacteria, Moorellia, Thermotogae, Thermacetogenia, and Bacteroidia, albeit in smaller proportions.

Based on the sequencing results, CH₄ production was attributed in all sequenced temperature conditions of the “H₂-only” incubations to hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis by Methanobacteria. In this process, the methanogens utilized H₂ and HCO₃⁻ (as CO₂) provided to the culture or H₂ and CO₂ produced through fermentation during the incubation. However, acetate production occurred via homoacetogenesis and fermentative pathways likely carried out by members of the Bacillota phylum, including Clostridia, Thermoanaerobacteria, and Moorellia, and those from the candidate phylum Acetothermiia, encountered in those samples. Clostridia, predominantly represented by the genus *Eubacterium* at 35°C, was probably the primarily responsible for the acetate production at this temperature, as species of this genus are known for its acetogenic capacities with most species favouring growth at a temperature range between 30 and 45°C (Wade, 2011). Conversely, lower levels of acetate produced at 50°C and 65°C were likely the result of activity from strains of the Thermoanaerobacteria and the Moorellia class, and the Acetothermiia phylum.

Methanobacteria members were present at all three temperatures. The largest proportion in the relative abundance analysis was observed at 50°C, but these methanogens composed the majority of the community at both 50 and 65°C. Methanobacteria are typically encountered in deep subsurface high-pressure environments (Kotelnikova and Pedersen, 1997; Miettinen et al., 2015; Ranchou-Peyruse et al., 2021). To this class, the amplicon analysis assigned only the genus *Methanothermobacter*. This genus is known to be thermophilic, with the fastest growth observed between 55 and 65°C, and they are known to perform methanogenesis using H₂ and CO₂. Some strains can also use formate as an electron donor (Wasserfallen et al., 2000; Shima and Thauer, 2021). *Methanothermobacter* also includes isolates originating from petroleum reservoirs, and it has been suggested that in these environments, methanogenesis by *Methanothermobacter* is coupled with syntrophic acetate oxidation (Cheng et al., 2011).

Clostridia comprise the majority of the community at 35°C, at which the highest amounts of acetate were produced, with only minor proportions at 50 and 65°C. The analysis primarily detected in the incubations members of the genus *Eubacterium* and, to a lesser extent, *Soehngenia*. Members of the genus *Eubacterium* are heterogeneous (Wade, 2006), with some

isolates previously identified as homoacetogenic strains within an underground gas storage (UGS) environment (Tarasov et al., 2011; Vigneron et al., 2017). Conversely, the genus *Soehngenia* includes fermenters capable of producing acetate, H₂, and CO₂, and also includes representatives isolated from oilfields (Parshina et al., 2003; Nazina et al., 2020).

Members of the class Thermoanaerobacteria increased in proportion at higher temperatures and constituted the second largest microbial proportion at 65°C. At 35°C, this class is primarily represented by the genus *Thermoanaerobacterium*, while at 50 and 65°C, it includes mainly the genera *Thermoanaerobacter* and *Caldanaerobacter*. The genera *Thermoanaerobacter* and *Thermoanaerobacterium* comprise thermophilic, obligate anaerobic bacteria that ferment polysaccharides and carbohydrates, commonly found in deep subsurface environments. They mainly produce L-lactic acid, acetic acid, ethanol, CO₂, and H₂ (Shaw et al., 2010). Similarly, the genus *Caldanaerobacter* consists of fermentative thermophilic bacteria, isolated from oil reservoirs. Members of this genus are obligate organotrophs and ferment various sugars, peptides, and polysaccharides, generating acetate, L-alanine, H₂, and CO₂ as the main products (Fardeau et al., 2004; Kozina et al., 2010).

In minor proportions, the class Moorellia is found in the community with the highest percentage in the relative abundance composition at 50°C, followed by 65°C. Members of the genus *Moorella* are known acetogenic bacteria, including thermophilic strains previously detected in oil reservoirs. These strains have been shown to grow on various carbon sources, including H₂/CO₂, CO, sugars, formate, and methanol, serving as substrates (Redl et al., 2020; Hidalgo et al., 2021; Jia et al., 2023).

The class designation Incertae Sedis signifies that the broader relationships are unknown or undefined, under which the genus *Thermolithobacter* was consistently associated with the incubations at all temperatures. This genus currently comprises only two described thermophilic and lithotrophic species isolated from terrestrial hot springs, and its closest family is Incertae Sedis XVI. These strains are capable of oxidizing H₂ coupled with the reduction of iron(III) oxide to magnetite at temperatures ranging from 50 to 75°C. Additionally, hydrogenic oxidation of CO has been observed in this genus (Sokolova et al., 2007; Sokolova and Wiegel, 2014). A strain closely related to this genus was also identified in an incubation study of an oil field (Cheng et al., 2013).

The candidate phylum Acetothermiia is detected at similar proportions at the different temperatures, but little is known about their physiology and ecological importance. Members of this phylum are thermophilic and have also been detected in the deep biosphere. Based on genome analysis, an anaerobic chemoheterotrophic lifestyle has been proposed, in which the bacterium obtains its energy and carbon through the fermentation of peptides, amino acids, and simple sugars, resulting in the formation of acetate, formate, and H₂ (Hao et al., 2018; Bergsten et al., 2021).

3.2.2 “H₂/CO₂-nutrient supplemented” condition

In the “H₂/CO₂-nutrient supplemented” incubations, which were cultured with 80% H₂/20% CO₂, NaHCO₃, and additional nutrients to boost microbial growth, H₂ consumption rates were higher compared to the “H₂-only” incubations, with the highest rates observed notably at 65°C. In contrast to the “H₂-only” incubations, acetate production was higher, peaking at 50°C instead of 35°C.

The microbial community structure unveiled the microorganisms responsible for the various processes observed in the “H₂/CO₂-nutrient supplemented” incubations at varying temperatures. Samples for community analysis were taken at the start of the incubation and

at the end of each cycle before the headspace of the incubation bottles was gas exchanged again with 80% H₂/20% CO₂. The sequencing data from the incubation samples at 80°C was of poor quality and thus omitted from this report.

The relative abundance composition at the start of the “H₂/CO₂-nutrient supplemented” incubations resembled the one for the “H₂-only” incubations. The initial makeup showed a significant presence of the archaeal class Methanobacteria, alongside bacteria from the genus *Thermolithobacter* (categorized as Incertae Sedis within the Bacillota), the candidate phylum Acetothermiia, and the class Bacilli. Moreover, the microbial community also included classes like Clostridia, Thermoanaerobacteria, Moorellia, Thermotogae, Thermacetogenia, and Bacteroidia, although in smaller amounts.

With the addition of supplementary nutrients, methanogens of the class Methanobacteria appeared to be outcompeted at 35°C by acetogenic members of the Clostridia class, mainly associated with the genera *Sporobacterium* and *Eubacterium*, as well as by the class Thermoanaerobacteria, mainly represented by the genus *Thermoanaerobacterium*. This reflects the absence of CH₄ production and the abundant formation of acetate at this temperature. Based on the composition of the acetogens, it can be hypothesized that acetate was partly produced by homoacetogenesis by *Eubacterium* species and potentially through the fermentative pathway involving *Sporobacterium* and *Thermoanaerobacterium* (assuming the presence of organics in the brine).

The competition between acetogens and methanogens at 50°C followed a similar pattern, but occurred more gradually, with methanogens still abundantly present at T1 (end of first incubation cycle), but almost absent at T2 (end of second incubation cycle). This change in the community reflects a low CH₄ production observed until T1, but almost no CH₄ production at T2 as methanogens decreased in abundance and were largely replaced by acetogens from the Thermoanaerobacteria. These acetogens likely outcompeted the Clostridia at this temperature. Thermoanaerobacteria were primarily composed of fermentative acetogens from the genus *Thermoanaerobacterium*, followed in proportion by *Thermoanaerobacter* and *Caldanaerobacter*. Small proportions in the community were also occupied by the classes Moorellia and Thermacetogenia, both possibly capable of homoacetogenesis and the fermentative acetogenic pathway. Thermacetogenia may also perform syntrophic acetate oxidation (Hattori et al., 2000; Keller et al., 2019), along with the genus *Tepidanaerobacter* within the class Thermovenabulia (Sekiguchi et al., 2006; Westerholm et al., 2011). In cases where syntrophic acetate oxidation occurs, acetate is converted to H₂ and CO₂, which are subsequently transformed to CH₄ by hydrogenotrophic methanogens.

At 65°C, the community composition stabilized from T2 onwards. Throughout, Methanobacteria predominantly comprised the community, reflecting the robust CH₄ production, which was observed at this temperature. Following Methanobacteria, Thermotogae were the primary acetogens, with Thermacetogenia and Thermoanaerobacter (genera *Caldanaerobacter* and *Thermoanaerobacterium*) present in smaller amounts. All three are capable of performing the fermentative acetogenic pathway, and Thermacetogenia can also perform syntrophic acetate oxidation, potentially explaining the decrease in acetate after T1. However, all three acetogens decreased further in abundance from T2 onwards.

At 35°C, the class Clostridia is predominantly composed of the genera *Sporobacterium* and *Eubacterium*. *Sporobacterium* consists of strictly chemo-organotrophic, anaerobic bacteria reported to perform fermentative acetogenesis using crotonate, methanol, and a wide range of aromatic compounds. They thrive optimally between 25 and 45°C. Currently, the genus comprises only one species, which was isolated from an olive mill wastewater treatment digester (Mechichi et al., 1999; Mechichi and Patel, 2015).

Members of the sulfate-reducing bacteria belonging to the *Desulfofundulus* genus within the Desulfomaculalia were also detected at 50°C, despite the absence of detected sulfide. They are capable of utilizing sulfate, sulfite, and thiosulfate as electron acceptors, coupled with growth either chemoorganoheterotrophically on organic acids, fatty acids, benzoate, and alcohols to produce acetate or CO₂, or chemolithoautotrophically using H₂/CO₂ and formate. This genus includes thermophilic strains, and has been previously found in oil reservoirs and the deep subsurface (Nazina et al., 1988; Watanabe et al., 2018, 2020).

The class Thermotogae comprised according to the sequencing data, the second largest relative portion of the community at 65°C, with the genera *Ferrodobacterium* and *Pseudothermotoga* present in similar proportions. The phylum Thermotogae encompasses extremely thermophilic anaerobic bacteria, with optimal growth temperatures reaching up to 80°C. Both genera engage in fermentative metabolism and have been identified in various geothermal environments, including oil reservoirs (Javier-Lopez et al., 2023). *Ferrodobacterium* are thermophiles (60-80°C) with a glycolytic metabolism that utilizes a wide range of carbohydrates such as glucose, sucrose, starch, and lactose, producing lactate, acetate, H₂, and CO₂ as end products (Patel et al., 1985; Javier-Lopez et al., 2023). Similarly, *Pseudothermotoga* are thermophiles that grow around 60-70°C and ferment sugars, primarily yielding acetate, CO₂, and H₂ as end products (Bhandari and Gupta, 2014; Farrell et al., 2021).

At 50 and 65°C, small relative portions of the community were attributed to the newly identified family Thermacetogeniaceae. These anaerobic thermophiles, represented by the genus *Thermacetogenium*, possess a dual metabolic capability. They can produce acetate through the fermentation of substrates like formate or by reducing CO₂ with H₂. Additionally, they can also function as acetate-oxidizing bacteria. This can occur either alone by coupling acetate oxidation to sulfate or thiosulfate reduction, or in a syntrophic relationship with a methanogen under methanogenic conditions. In this syntrophic process, acetate is converted to H₂ and CO₂, which the methanogen then utilizes to produce CH₄ (Hattori et al., 2000; Keller et al., 2019).

The class Thermovenabilia, to which the genus *Tepidanaerobacter* was assigned, was present in the incubations at T1 of 50°C. Bacteria of *Tepidanaerobacter* grow thermotolerant in a range of 20-55°C and chemoorganotrophically on various carbohydrates. In co-culture with a hydrogenotrophic methanogen, strains are either capable of degrading alcohol and lactate syntrophically or performing syntrophic acetate-oxidation (Sekiguchi et al., 2006; Westerholm et al., 2011).

3.2.3 Comparison of community composition between “H₂-only” and “H₂/CO₂-nutrient supplemented” conditions

The addition of supplementary nutrients generally resulted in a decrease in the overall diversity evenness in the samples, while certain classes experienced a significant boost, allowing them to outcompete others. At 35 and 50°C, the nutrient supplementation stimulated the growth of Thermoanaerobacteria, leading to a reduction in the relative abundance of the methanogens from Methanobacteria. However, at 65°C, members of Methanobacteria dominated over all other strains present in the “H₂-only” incubations, including Thermoanaerobacteria, Moorellia, *Thermolithobacter* (Incertae Sedis), and Acetothermia, leaving only Thermotogae to establish themselves in this incubation. The class Acetothermia was outcompeted in all samples with added nutrients.

Comparing the starting culture to those of the incubations, it is evident that at all three temperatures, both in the “H₂-only” and the “H₂/CO₂-nutrient supplemented” incubations, strains of the class Bacilli were outcompeted by hydrogenotrophic archaea and bacteria.

4. Conclusions

This report investigates the impact of temperature and nutrient supplementation on microbial activity and community composition using incubation experiments with HCO_3 -buffered brine samples from a potential H_2 storage site. Incubations under both " H_2 -only" and " H_2/CO_2 -nutrient supplemented" conditions revealed microbial activity, including H_2 consumption and the production of CH_4 and acetate, with no detectable H_2S . However, rates and proportions of these processes varied with temperature and nutrient availability. Interestingly, this case study showed an interplay between methanogenesis and acetogenesis. Linking the chemical analysis with the microbial community composition analysis allowed us to hypothesize that CH_4 was likely produced by the hydrogenotrophic methanogens from the genus *Methanothermobacter*, while acetate was likely produced via homoacetogenesis and fermentative pathways, leading to a disbalance in stoichiometry of H_2 consumption when only hydrogenotrophic pathways were considered.

In the " H_2 -only" incubations, limited H_2 consumption occurred at 35, 50, and 65°C, accompanied by CH_4 and acetate production, albeit with variations. Additionally, CH_4 production led to a significant increase in pH, reasonably limiting further microbial activity. *Methanothermobacter* members (class Methanobacteria) are potentially responsible for CH_4 production, while acetate production occurred via homoacetogenesis and fermentative pathways likely by members of the Bacillota phylum, including Clostridia, Thermoanaerobacteria, and Moorellia, as well as candidate phylum Acetothermiia. It has to be emphasized that these " H_2 -only" incubations were HCO_3 -buffered and therefore the microbial community could have used the bicarbonate as carbon source for the methanogenesis or homoacetogenesis in the brine samples.

In the " H_2/CO_2 -nutrient supplemented" incubations, H_2 consumption rates were notably higher than in the " H_2 -only" incubations, especially at 65°C. Acetate production increased significantly, particularly at 35 and 50°C, resulting in a decrease in pH and inhibition of further microbial activity. CH_4 production was prominent at 65°C, which corresponded with changes in the relative abundance of the microbial community composition at different temperatures. However, CO_2 and nutrient supplementation led to less complex microbial communities, with certain taxa outcompeting others rapidly. *Methanothermobacter* members were again dominant and potentially responsible for hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis, while acetate was predominantly formed through homoacetogenesis and fermentative pathways by members of Clostridia, Thermoanaerobacteria, Moorellia, Thermotogae, and Thermacetogenia. The latter, particularly prominent at 65°C, could possibly perform syntrophic acetate reduction in combination with *Methanothermobacter*, explaining the reduction of acetate over time at this temperature.

Translating these results to a potential H_2 storage application in Case 1's reservoir, which has a temperature of 83°C, we can hypothesize that the microbial risks of H_2 consumption would be very low. This is based on the observation that no H_2 consumption occurred during a four-month period in the " H_2 -only" incubations at 80°C. However, it is expected that CH_4 will form *in situ*, as observed in those incubations, and its concentrations will likely continue to increase due to the absence of immediate substrate limitations, given the large surface areas in the reservoir's pore systems. The higher H_2 consumption and product formation rates in incubations with CO_2 and nutrient addition highlight the importance of analyzing the chemical composition of the reservoir's brine and rock beforehand. Including these data in the decision-making process for selecting a potential H_2 storage site is crucial.

Overall, the results highlight the complex interplay between environmental conditions, nutrient availability, and microbial community composition. Understanding these interactions is crucial

for predicting subsurface ecosystem dynamics and potential applications such as subsurface H₂ storage. Further research into the metabolic capabilities of dominant microbial groups and their response to environmental changes is required for a comprehensive understanding of subsurface microbial ecosystems. Additionally, future studies should also focus on the effects of high partial H₂ pressure to better simulate H₂ storage conditions and to derive valuable insights for potential applications in porous reservoirs. Despite its limitations, this report emphasizes the importance of comprehending microbial activities and community compositions in subsurface environments to estimate risks and optimize H₂ storage strategies, in line with the European Union's objective of realizing a sustainable energy future.

5. References

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