

# Three-dimensional pore-scale modeling of fracture evolution in heterogeneous carbonate caprock subjected to CO<sub>2</sub>-enriched brine

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## Abstract

Fractures in caprocks overlying CO<sub>2</sub> storage reservoirs can adversely impact the sealing capacity of the rocks. Interactions between acidified fluid and minerals with different reactivities along a fracture pathway can affect the chemically-induced changes in hydrodynamic properties of fractures. To study porosity and permeability evolution of small scale (millimeter scale) fractures, a three dimensional pore-scale reactive transport model based on the Lattice Boltzmann method has been developed. The model simulates the evolution of two different fractured carbonate rich caprock samples subjected to flow of CO<sub>2</sub>-rich brine. Results show that the existence of nonreactive minerals along the flow path can restrict the increase in permeability and the cubic law used to relate porosity and permeability in mono-mineral fractured systems is therefore not valid in multi-mineral systems. Moreover, injection of CO<sub>2</sub>-acidified brine at high rates, resulted in a more permeable fractured media compared to the case with lower injection rates. The overall rate of calcite dissolution along the fracture decreased over time, confirming similar observations from previous continuum scale models. The presented 3D pore-scale model can be used to provide inputs for continuum scale models, such as improved porosity-permeability relationships for heterogeneous rocks, and also to investigate other reactive transport processes in the context of CO<sub>2</sub> leakage in fractured seals.

## 1. Introduction

CO<sub>2</sub> storage in geological formations is considered to be a viable option to mitigate anthropogenic carbon emissions and will likely be a component of any large-scale strategy to slow the rate of global warming.<sup>1-2</sup> Once injected into a geological formation, CO<sub>2</sub> will move upwards due to buoyancy and there must therefore be a low permeability caprock to prevent CO<sub>2</sub>

leakage to the surface<sup>3</sup>. Pre-existing fractures in the caprock or fractures that might form due to the injection of large amount of CO<sub>2</sub> may serve as primary pathways for CO<sub>2</sub> leakage and negatively impact the sealing capacity of the caprock<sup>4-7</sup>. When CO<sub>2</sub>-acidified brine is flowing through these fractures, the fracture hydrodynamic properties will change as a result of CO<sub>2</sub>-water-rock interactions<sup>8-9</sup>. Modelling of these interactions together with other coupled processes such as fluid flow can enable us to predict the evolution of fracture permeability and, on a larger scale, caprock integrity<sup>10</sup>. There have been different numerical models developed to study mineral dissolution in fractured rocks<sup>11-20</sup>. Some models were designed to evaluate the effect of fluid transport and reactions on the pattern of fracture evolution and channel formation where only one single mineral was present in the rock. The results showed that at high Peclet (Pe) numbers (relative magnitude of advective transport to diffusive transport), more channels will form, whereas low Pe numbers lead to less channeling and a more uniform dissolution front<sup>14, 17-18</sup>. It has furthermore been shown that dissolution will not be spatially uniform for high Damkohler (Da) numbers (relative magnitude of reaction to transport) and that increased fracture roughness can favor channelization<sup>16-17, 19</sup>. It has also been reported that the fracture porosity evolution is more localized near the flow inlet at high Da numbers, while porosity evolution is uniform along the fracture for low Da numbers<sup>11-12, 16</sup>. These studies have focused on single mineral systems, however, evolution of fracture permeability and morphology may also be dependent on the spatial distribution of minerals when minerals with different reactivities are present in the same system<sup>7, 21</sup>.

It has been shown that preferential dissolution of fast-reacting minerals (while nonreactive minerals are also present in the rock) can create a porous zone around the main fracture where this zone can suppress the permeability enhancement and decrease the overall reaction rate in the

regions near the fracture<sup>21-22</sup>. To predict the fracture evolution behavior in multimineral systems, there is a need to have predictive numerical models. In this regard, a few continuum scale models have been developed to model the effect of this altered layer around a fracture. Deng et al.<sup>6, 23-24</sup>, in a series of work, developed a reduced dimension model and also took into account the erosion and detachment of less/nonreactive minerals. Their model was able to predict the experimental observations indicating that the overall reaction rate is decreasing with time in the altered layer<sup>23</sup>. Recently, Spokas et al.<sup>25</sup> investigated effect of rock mineralogy on reactive fracture evolution using a 2D numerical model which was able to take into account the mechanical deformation. They used the model for different rock mineralogies with different calcite content and their results showed that a banded mineral pattern results in more stabilized transmissivity<sup>25</sup>. The understanding of effects of mineral heterogeneity on the evolution of porous media and reactive fractures can be further improved using pore-scale models that can resolve relevant processes at the microscopic to mm scales<sup>26-28</sup>.

Several pore-scale models have been developed to try to capture the effect of co-existence of minerals with different reactivities on the fracture evolution<sup>29-30</sup>. Molins et al.<sup>30</sup> developed a 2D pore-scale model and reproduced the nonuniform aperture increase, as observed by Ellis et al.<sup>7</sup>, of a single fracture in a mineralogically heterogeneous rock. Also, Chen et al.<sup>29</sup> investigated the permeability evolution of a single 2D fracture in a synthetic binary mineral system.

In this study, we developed a 3D pore-scale reactive transport model based on the Lattice Boltzmann Method (LBM) to simulate mineral dissolution along a fracture in a carbonate rich rock. The model uses the geochemical solver IPHREEQC<sup>31</sup> to compute source-sink terms due to chemical reaction. The use of IPHREEQC provides added flexibility in terms of accounting for complex reaction networks and allows use of more realistic geochemical reaction rates. To

simulate more realistic fracture systems, two different fracture geometries were extracted from X-ray computed tomography data of a fractured rock composed of a mixture of calcite and other nonreactive minerals. We also investigated how the reactive fractures evolved under different influent flow rates. The pore-scale model also allowed for the study of mass transfer between the rock matrix and fracture inside the calcite depleted zone. Finally, since the model is able to track the evolution of fracture geometry due to dissolution, it was used to evaluate the relationship between porosity and permeability in mineralogically heterogeneous dissolving fractures.

## **2. Methods**

### **2.1. Input geometry for simulations**

The input geometries used in this study were taken from one of the X-ray computed tomography (XCT) scanning experiments performed by Ellis et al.<sup>7, 12</sup>. The rock core was from the Amherstburg limestone in northern Michigan, which is a carbonate rich caprock (calcite content ~50%)<sup>10</sup> used for pilot scale CO<sub>2</sub> injection.<sup>32</sup> Ellis and Peters<sup>10</sup> developed a method to map the 3D distribution of calcite content in the core sample by combining XCT and scanning electron microscopy data. The main focus of this prior work was to determine spatial distribution of calcite since it is a fast-reacting mineral that can be abundant in caprock formations and therefore its dissolution can significantly affect the evolution of caprock fractures<sup>33</sup>. To simulate the fracture geometry evolution under different conditions, two different areas of the full 3D geometry were selected: One area with high calcite content and another with low calcite content but similar fracture aperture characteristics. The dimensions of these geometries are 2.16 mm × 2.16 mm × 2.16 mm with a grid resolution of 27 μm. The fracture aperture map, the calcite content and the selected areas are displayed in Figure S3.

## 2.2. Model description

To simulate evolution of the fractured carbonate caprock samples, we needed to solve the governing equations describing fluid flow, chemical species transport and both homogeneous and heterogeneous reactions. Moreover, since our objective was to investigate the effect of dissolution on the hydrodynamic properties of fracture, the model must also take into account the evolution of the rock geometry as the rock is dissolving. In this study, we used a pore-scale LBM based reactive transport model developed by Patel et al. (2014)<sup>34</sup> where they simulated the reaction-diffusion processes including equilibrium reactions. All geochemical calculations are done using IPHREEQC geochemical code, which is coupled with the LBM transport solver. This model was further extended to include the fluid flow solver and also validated with the kinetic reactions in a previous study<sup>35</sup>. In the present work, we employ the 3D version of the model in order to capture fracture dissolution and fluid transport within a 3D pore network. Further details regarding the model development and approach are available in the Supporting Information (SI).

In our 3D simulations, CO<sub>2</sub>-rich brine was injected through the fracture. The brine initially present in the fracture was assumed to be in equilibrium with the calcite minerals in the system while the injected brine had a pH of around 4.6 and was undersaturated with respect to calcite with a saturation index of around -0.9 (the brine compositions are listed in Table S1). The viscosity of brine was 10<sup>-3</sup> Pa.s and diffusion coefficients of all chemical species were equal to 2x10<sup>-9</sup> m<sup>2</sup>/s. In all numerical experiments fluid flow was driven using a constant pressure gradient across the sample and for each geometry, two different pressure gradients (10 Pa.m<sup>-1</sup> and 0.1 Pa.m<sup>-1</sup>) were applied in order to investigate the effect of different flow rates on the fracture alteration. For the geometry with high calcite content these pressure gradients result in Peclet (Pe) numbers of 0.019 and 1.9 corresponding to the lower and higher pressure gradients,

respectively. Also, the Pe numbers for the geometry with low calcite content are 0.017 and 1.7 for the higher and lower pressure gradients, respectively. The Pe number is defined as  $Pe = \frac{u_{avg} \cdot b}{D}$  where  $u_{avg}$  is average pore velocity,  $b$  is characteristic length which is considered to be the mean fracture aperture and  $D$  is diffusion coefficient. These parameters together with initial porosity and permeability of the input geometries are listed in Table S2.

As previously discussed, the CT scan data used in this study did not determine full 3D mineralogy of the core but instead just separated minerals into either calcite or non-calcite groupings. The non-calcite minerals include dolomite, quartz, fluorite, clay minerals and anhydrite<sup>10</sup>. The dolomite amounts to 30%wt of the core plug and the other non-calcite minerals constitute 20%wt of total mineral content<sup>10</sup>. Since the non-calcite minerals are not differentiated throughout the sample including regions 1 and 2 in Figure S3, they are here simply treated as the nonreactive minerals relative to calcite. This is a fair assumption because according to the reported kinetic data for different minerals, the rate constant for calcite dissolution is an order of magnitude larger than dolomite's rate constant and orders of magnitude larger than that of other minerals<sup>33, 36</sup>. Therefore, the non-calcite minerals can be regarded as nonreactive given the time scale of the simulations performed in this work. For reservoir scale simulations or for longer simulation times, however, kinetics of dolomite and other slow reacting minerals can be added to the model.

Calcite is assumed to react according to the following reaction pathways<sup>37-38</sup>



and the reaction rate is described by<sup>30</sup>

$$R_{\text{CaCO}_3} = (k_1 a_{\text{H}^+} + k_2 a_{\text{H}_2\text{CO}_3^*} + k_3) \left(1 - \frac{a_{\text{Ca}^{2+}} a_{\text{CO}_3^{2-}}}{K_{\text{eq,CaCO}_3}}\right) \quad (2)$$

Where  $a_i$  is activity of species  $i$ ,  $R_{\text{CaCO}_3}$  is reaction rate,  $k_1$ ,  $k_2$  and  $k_3$  are reaction rate constants which are equal to 0.89,  $5.01 \times 10^{-4}$  and  $6.6 \times 10^{-7}$  mol/(m<sup>2</sup>.s), respectively. The equilibrium constant of the reaction ( $K_{\text{eq,CaCO}_3}$ ) in Equation (2) is equal to  $10^{-8.49}$ . The equilibrium and reaction rate constants are related to 25 °C.

In the following sections we study how fractures evolve under different flow conditions and how the presence of nonreactive minerals along a fracture pathway affects the bulk reaction rate of calcite. Finally, we investigate the fracture evolution by measuring porosity and permeability of the fractured media.

### 3. Results and Discussion

#### 3.1. Fracture evolution pattern

When CO<sub>2</sub>-enriched brine flows through the fracture, it dissolves calcite and causes an increase in local fracture aperture. Figure 1 shows the Ca concentration (mol/L) profiles at  $t = 0.01$  hr,  $t = 2.6$  hr, and  $t = 7.6$  hr for the geometry with high calcite content. In these figures, the light gray is referring to the nonreactive minerals and the red color is representing calcite. Two different cases have been considered to also investigate how the velocity of the influent can affect the fracture evolution. The upper panel in Figure 1 corresponds to the case with lower velocity when the initial Pe number (before reaction) is 0.019 and the lower panel is for the case with an initial Pe number (before reaction) of 1.9. As it can be seen in Figure 1, when Pe number is higher the fluid has a shorter residence time and remains at low pH conditions far from calcite equilibrium. This causes the aperture to increase uniformly along the entire fracture plane. However, when the acidic solution is flowing more slowly, calcite dissolution occurs near the fluid inlet and the



acidic solution only affects the areas around the inlet and the remaining parts of the fracture are unaffected by calcite dissolution. The difference in calcite dissolution, between higher and lower velocity cases, can be better observed at  $t=7.6$  hr in Figure 1.

The same fracture evolution patterns are observed in the case of low calcite content geometries (Figure 2). Higher fluid velocity promotes greater calcite dissolution along the fracture plane but since calcite is less abundant in this scenario the difference in fracture evolutions between the higher and lower velocity cases is not as clear as in models with higher calcite content.

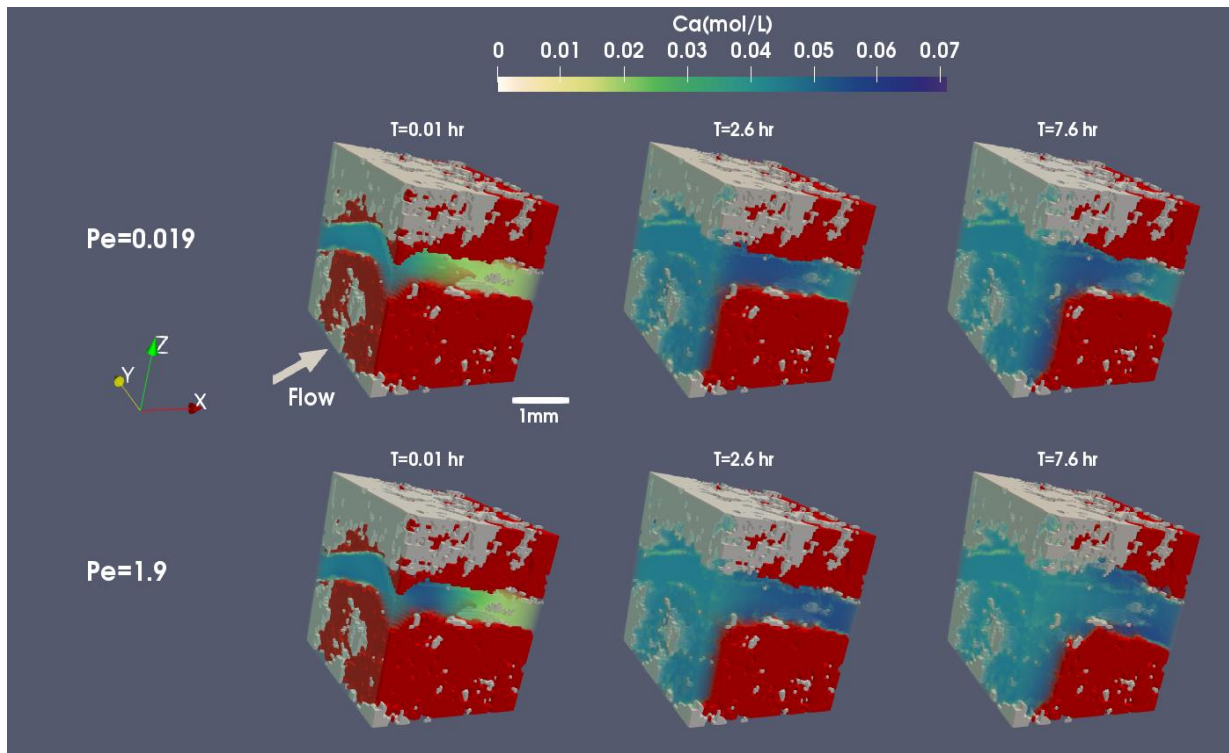


Figure 1. Ca concentration profile at  $t = 0.01$  hr,  $t = 2.6$  hr, and  $t = 7.6$  hr. Upper panel corresponds to the lower injection rate and lower panel is related to the higher injection rate. In the figures red color is showing calcite and the gray coloration refers to nonreactive minerals.

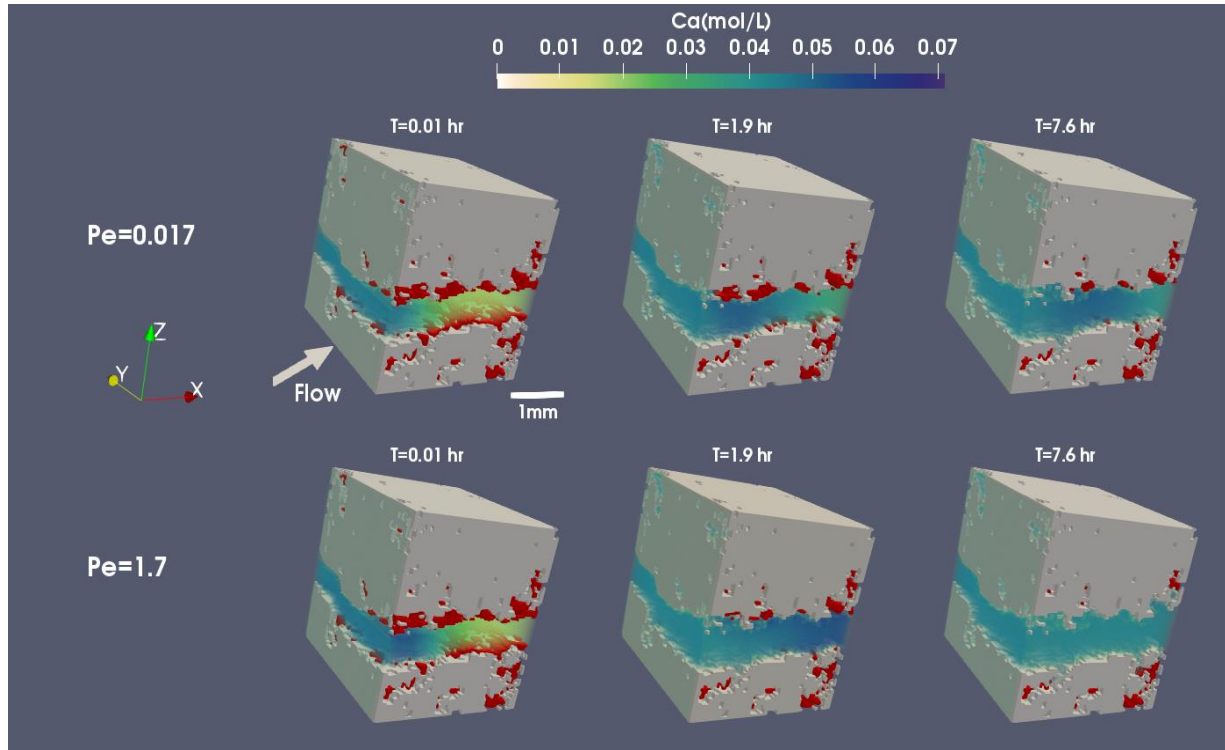


Figure 2. Ca concentration profile at  $t = 0.01$  hr,  $t = 1.9$  hr, and  $t = 7.6$  hr. Upper panel corresponds to the lower injection rate and lower panel is related to the higher injection rate. In the figures red color is showing calcite and the gray coloration refers to nonreactive minerals.

### 3.2. calcite dissolution rate

In order to explore the effect of presence of nonreactive minerals on the bulk dissolution rate, the effluent Ca concentration corresponding to Figures 1 and 2 have been plotted in Figures 3(a) and 3(b). We see here that Ca concentration initially increases until it reaches a maximum and then decreases as the injection of low pH solution continues. This shows the overall rate of calcite dissolution along the fracture decreased over time which confirms similar observations from previous experimental works<sup>6, 23, 39-40</sup>. When the  $\text{CO}_2$ -rich brine is injected into the fractured rock, it dissolves calcite and the dissolution rate is higher at the early stages of the simulation. As

the calcite along the fracture face dissolves, a calcite-depleted zone forms adjacent to the main flow path. Mass transport in these calcite-depleted regions is diffusion-limited meaning that less calcite is accessible to the low pH influent. This leads to greater buffering of pore fluid pH in the calcite-depleted zones, which subsequently causes a decrease in the rate of calcite dissolution.

Figure 3(a) indicates that when the calcite content along the fracture path is higher, the Ca concentration in the effluent is lower for slower flow rates. Some experimental studies showed similar results where they observed lower Ca concentrations for slower flow rates<sup>40</sup>. On the other hand, there are modeling studies<sup>23</sup> which showed a different trend where the Ca concentrations were higher for the slower flow rates. This behavior was attributed to the fact that when the flow rate is higher, the calcite-depleted zone forms more uniformly along the flow path. This means that pH buffering is observed in more areas along the fracture channel which is triggered by the diffusion limitation in the altered layer. When the flow rate is slower, the acidic solution flows more slowly and most of calcite dissolution occurs near the inlet and the calcite-depleted zone is therefore more localized close to the inlet. Hence, in the downstream areas where there is not any altered layer formed, there are still more accessible calcite surfaces close to the fracture face which can react with the low pH solution resulting in greater Ca release. However, as shown in Figure 3(a), in this case the behavior is opposite to prior works<sup>23</sup> with higher Ca concentrations observed at the higher flow rate. This opposite trend is due to the calcite distribution along the fracture channel. As is evident in Figure S3(d), the calcite volume fraction in the geometry increases as we move from the inlet towards the outlet. This prevents formation of an altered layer after dissolution of calcite in the regions near the outlet, which translates into a reduction in pH buffering in these areas since the transport regime is not diffusion-limited. All these characteristics allow for greater access of the reactive fluid to

additional calcite close to the outlet even at the higher flowrates; thus, higher Ca concentrations are observed in the effluent due to more extensive dissolution.

Examination of the Ca concentration evolution for the low calcite simulations (Figure 3(b)) demonstrates a similar behavior to that shown in Figure 3(a). However, for the low calcite case the difference in Ca concentration between the higher velocity and lower velocity simulations is less than that for the case of high calcite content. Furthermore, Ca release was greater at longer times for the slower flow rate (compared to higher flow rate) when calcite was less abundant in the model domain. In the low calcite scenario, higher flow velocity results in a faster breakthrough of dissolved Ca and leads to a higher peak in Ca concentration compared to the slower injection scenario. At later simulation times, however, most of the available calcite in the system has been dissolved and Ca concentration decreases. At slower flow rates, calcite remains available near the fracture face and continues to dissolve at later times (especially at the outlet as shown in Figure 2). This results in greater Ca concentration values (at later simulation times) for slower flow rates compared to the high injection rate scenario.

Figures 3(a) and 3(b) also show that the Ca concentration in all scenarios approaches near steady state. This is more evident in Figure 3(b) in which most of the calcite has been dissolved but in Figure 3(a) where there are still more calcite available in the system changes might occur during the later times of simulation.

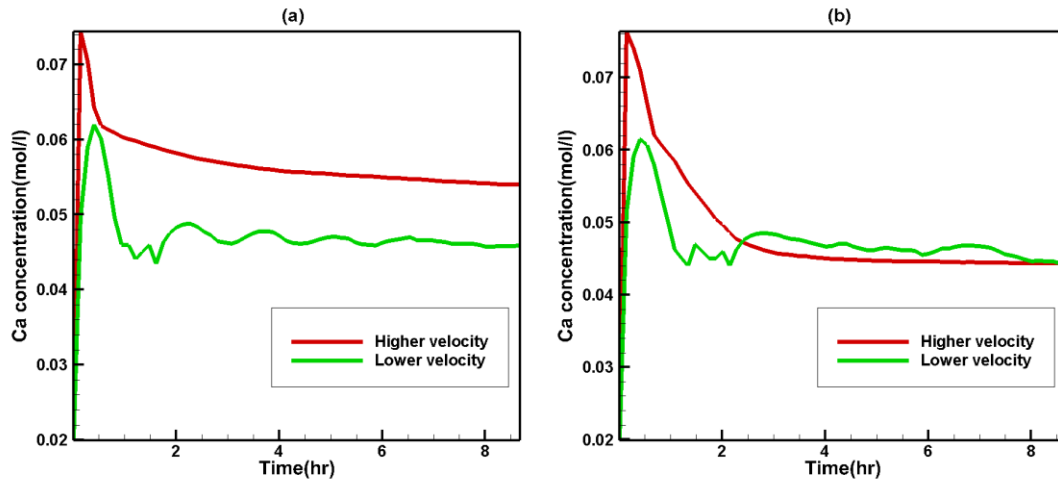


Figure 3. Comparison of Ca concentration at the outlet areas of the geometry with (a) high calcite content and (b) low calcite content at two different injection rates.

### 3.3. Porosity and permeability evolution

The dissolution of calcite leads to an increase in porosity and permeability of the fractured rock. The evolution of normalized permeability (permeability divided by initial permeability) and normalized porosity (porosity divided by initial porosity) are plotted in Figure 4 for both fracture geometries with high and low calcite content. As is evident in Figure 4, the evolution and rate of change in permeability is different depending on the injection velocities. Generally, for the higher fluid flow rates, the permeability increase is more pronounced compared to the case with lower velocity. As discussed in section 3.1, when the velocity is higher, the aperture increase mainly occurs along the fracture plane and consequently, this translates into a greater increase in fracture permeability. However, for the slower flow rate, less dissolution occurs further down the fracture due to the rapid buffering of the injected fluid near the inlet. Therefore, the aperture increase is more localized near the inlet when the injection rate is slow and increased porosity

due to calcite dissolution does not result in a substantial increase in fracture permeability compared to the case with higher injection velocity.

The other observed behavior in permeability evolution is that it increases until it reaches a plateau, which may be representative of the potential permeability increase due to calcite dissolution in a mineralogically heterogeneous rock (Figure 4). In continuum scale models in order to include the effects of reactions on the hydrodynamic properties of the fractured media, we need to relate porosity changes (calculated based on mineral mass from chemical calculations) to changes in permeability. Porosity driven changes to fracture permeability are usually assumed to follow a power law relationship,  $\frac{k}{k_0} = (\frac{\varphi}{\varphi_0})^a$ , in which  $k$  and  $\varphi$  are permeability and porosity with subscript zero indicating the initial values. The exponent,  $a$ , is most often assumed to be 3<sup>41-44</sup>. This cubic relation is valid if the fracture walls are smooth and parallel. Previous pore-scale simulations have confirmed that this cubic relation is valid for systems containing a fracture having smooth and parallel walls while surrounded by monomineral rock matrices<sup>29, 35, 45</sup>. These studies have also indicated that the porosity-permeability relationship may deviate from the cubic trend under different reaction and transport conditions but still they have a power law behavior<sup>29, 35, 45</sup>. The simulations performed in our work, however, show that the porosity-permeability relationship will not follow a power law relation. At longer simulation times when more calcite dissolves, model results demonstrate that fracture permeability begins to approach a constant value even as porosity continues to increase due to calcite dissolution. This behavior is clearer in Figure 4(d), which corresponds to the low calcite content case where most of calcite has been dissolved during the time scale of the simulations.

The deviation from a power law permeability-porosity relationship observed in Figure 4 may be attributed to the non-smooth fracture in the system and presence of nonreactive minerals in

the matrix. To investigate the effect of smoothness of the fracture on porosity and permeability evolution, we performed a simulation on the fracture geometry with high calcite content where all nonreactive minerals were replaced with calcite. Simulation results from this mono-mineralogical scenario (Figure S10) displayed a normalized porosity-permeability relation that did not show a power law relation. This confirms that when the fracture wall is non-smooth, the porosity-permeability relationship will not follow a power law trend. Figure S10 also compares the porosity and permeability evolution for the case containing nonreactive minerals with the case containing only calcite. This comparison indicates that the presence of nonreactive minerals in the rock matrix results in lower permeability increase for a given amount of porosity increase due to creation of porous and tortuous zones around the fracture. Figure S10 shows that the difference in permeability evolution between mono- and multi-mineral cases becomes more visible as more calcite is dissolved. This indicates that the negative effect on permeability enhancement, caused by presence of nonreactive minerals, is more pronounced at the later times of simulation.

Figures 4(c) and 4(d) at  $t = 11$  hr show that for lower and higher velocity cases, the permeability values are the same (Figure 4(d)) but the porosities are not (Figure 4(c)). The larger porosities observed in the higher velocity scenario can be attributed to the dissolution of the calcite from the mixed mineral matrix adjacent to the fracture pathway. Although this dissolution results in increased porosity, a majority of this new porosity is within the rock matrix and does not contribute to the permeability enhancement and that is why same permeability values are observed.

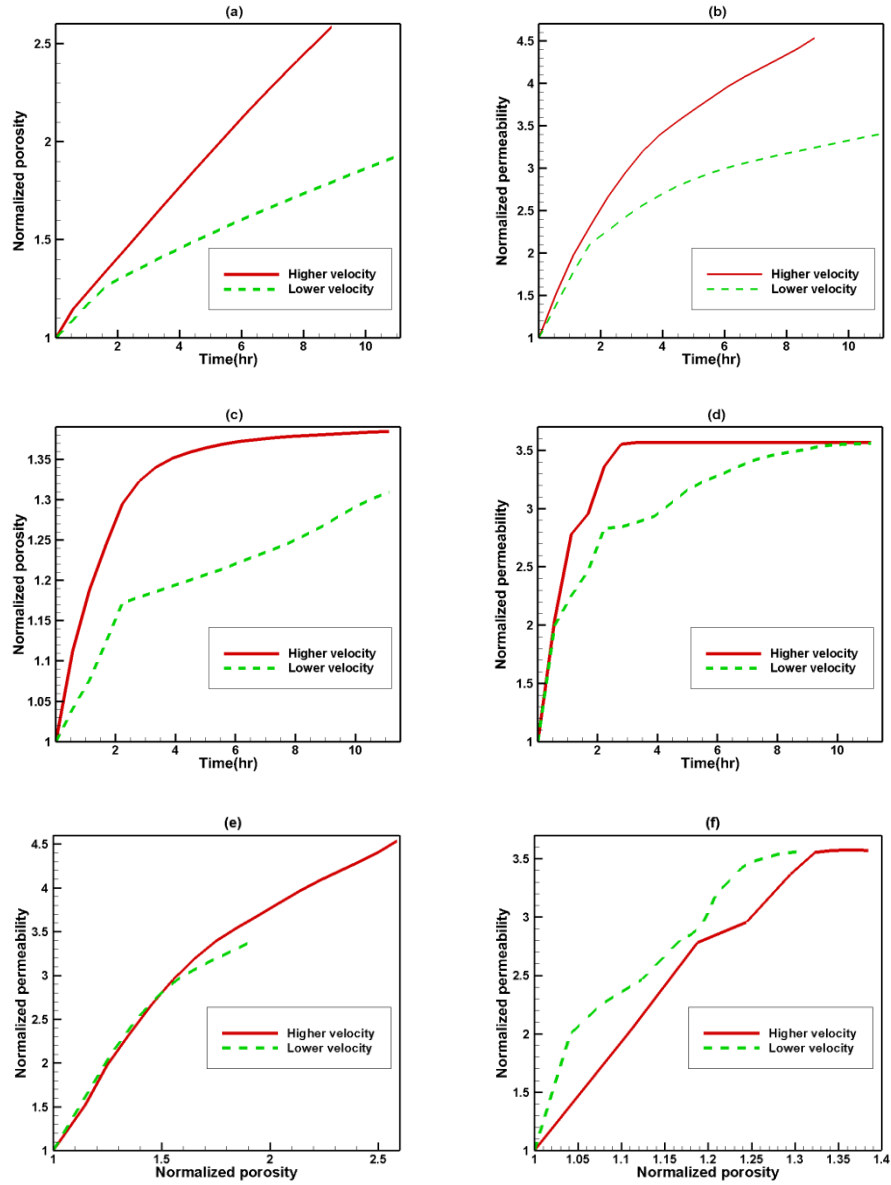


Figure 4. Plots (a) and (c) show normalized porosity vs time for geometries with high and low calcite content, respectively. Plots (b) and (d) display normalized permeability vs time for the geometry with high calcite and low calcite content, respectively. Normalized permeability vs normalized porosity are indicated in (e) and (f) for geometries with high and low calcite content, respectively. Normalized permeability is defined as permeability divided by initial permeability and normalized porosity is equal to porosity divided by initial porosity.



In figure 4(f) the normalized permeability, at a given normalized porosity, is higher for the lower velocity case. In the lower velocity case, it takes more time to reach a specific normalized porosity compared to the higher velocity case where it takes less time to have the same normalized porosity. For example, for the lower velocity case, it takes 7.7 hr to reach the normalized porosity of 1.24, while for the higher velocity we see normalized porosity of 1.24 at 1.6 hr. At  $t=7.7$  hr (for the lower velocity case), calcite dissolution is greater compared to the calcite dissolution at  $t=1.6$  hr (for the higher velocity case) even along the flow direction. This causes a higher permeability for the lower velocity case. Previous studies reported different results showing higher permeability for higher injection rates but those works were related to 2D simulations<sup>46</sup> or 3D simulations<sup>47</sup> for non-fractured media which might be the reason for having different results compared to our simulations.

### **3.4. 2D versus 3D simulations**

3D simulations performed in this study account for the topographical features of the fracture and areal changes in aperture in addition to the mass transfer between the fracture and rock matrix. These are the features which were not simultaneously present in previously developed one and two dimensional models used to simulate fracture evolution during mineral dissolution<sup>12, 29, 48-49</sup>. 1D models can be used as a simple and computationally efficient modeling approach to simulate large domains and long time-scales and can provide insight regarding the important interplay between physical processes such as mineral dissolution and mass transfer<sup>33</sup>. However, such 1D models are unable to capture 2D variation in parameters such as fracture aperture along the fracture plane. These variations have been simulated using some 2D models that consider areal aperture changes in the fracture plane<sup>12, 23, 49-50</sup>. However, in these 2D models processes such as

fracture-matrix mass transfer are not included. There are other categories of 2D models which consider the mass transfer between fracture and matrix but lack the inclusion of areal topographical variations<sup>29, 35</sup>. 3D models are the most sophisticated approach to modeling flow through porous or fractured media but these models are usually computationally expensive, especially if one does not want to simplify the model chemistry. One possible option that can reduce this bottleneck might be to run several 2D simulations (with each having a 2D geometry along the flow direction and perpendicular to fracture plane) across the fracture plane and then taking the average behavior of the simulations as being most representative of 3D model system. To this end we selected nine different 2D-slices (along the flow direction and perpendicular to the fracture plane) from each 3D geometry with low and high calcite content and then injected the acidified brine into these 2D domains at both the low and high injection rates.

Figure 5 compares calcite dissolution for layer 50 from 3D simulation with the calcite dissolution for the same layer as investigated with 2D simulation. As is evident from Figure 5, the discrepancy between 2D and 3D simulations is not very large. When calcite content is high, the discrepancy between 2D and 3D simulations is smaller for the low injection rate scenario. For the case with lower calcite content, however, the calcite dissolution patterns are similar for both high and low injection rate because of the low amount of calcite initially present in the domain. When injection flow rate is high, all of this low calcite mass will be dissolved quickly leading to similar calcite dissolution patterns for the case of low calcite content even when flow rate is high. The dissolution pattern for the different layers can be seen in Figures S11-S18. The similarity between 2D and 3D simulations shows that it could be plausible to run a set of 2D simulations and then obtain the porosity and permeability evolution curves for different 2D layers and then average the results to obtain an equivalent porosity and permeability evolution

curve for the 3D geometry. Figures S19-S22 indicate the data points related to the porosity and permeability evolution for different 2D simulations (for different layers) and also the porosity and permeability evolution curve for the 3D simulation. It should be mentioned that a simple arithmetic average of 2D simulations cannot produce the porosity and permeability evolution curve of the 3D simulation since in the 3D simulations the presence of less tortuous zones will make it easier for the fluid to flow in these regions and hence, when averaging these layers, the permeability in these layers should have a different weight.

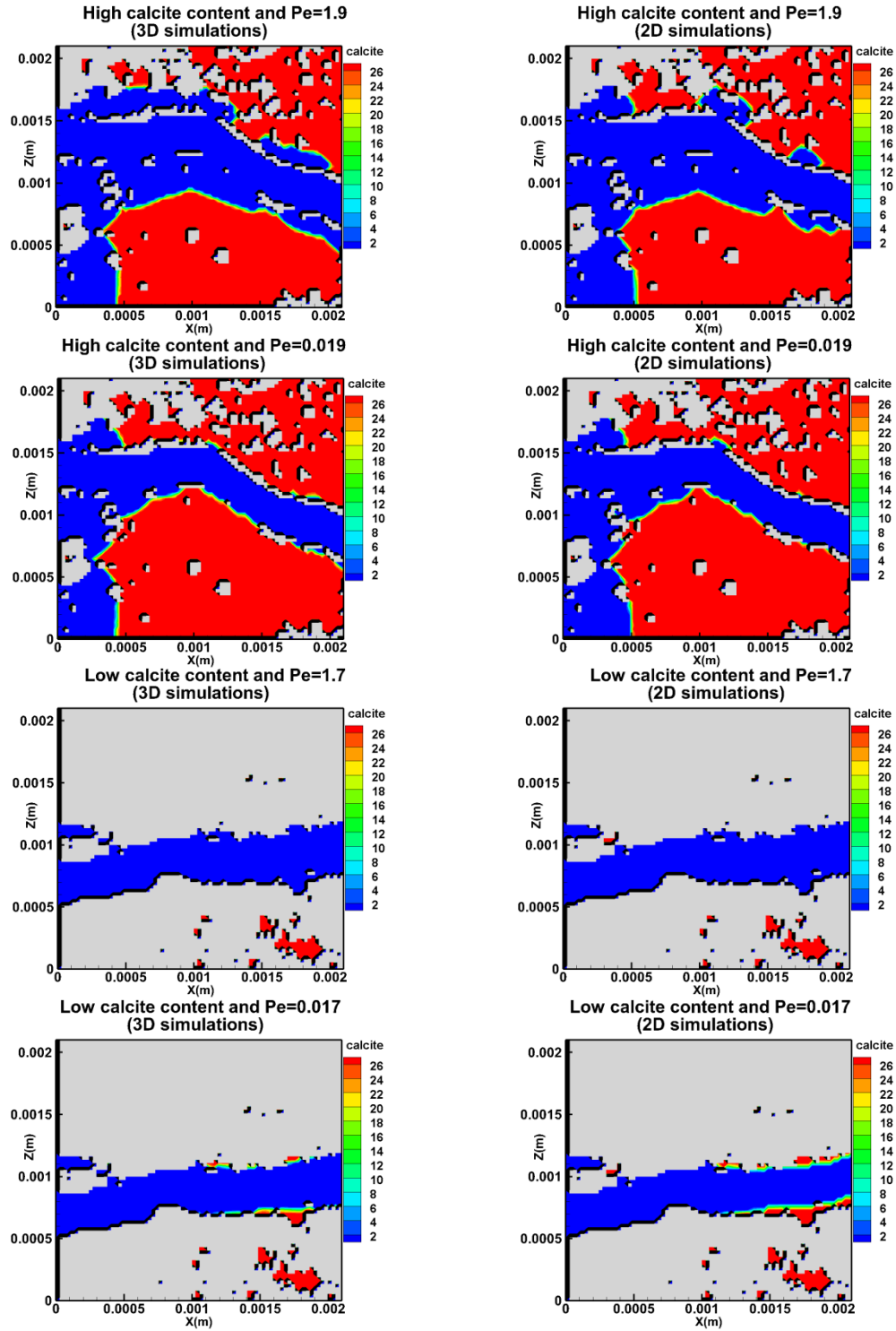


Figure 5. calcite mass (mol/L) for layer 50 at time = 8.3 hr. The left panels are related to the 3D simulations and right panels correspond to the 2D simulations.

#### 4. Environmental Implications

Fractures are the main leakage pathways in the caprocks of CO<sub>2</sub> storage sites. It is therefore important to predict how their hydrodynamic properties change when their constituting minerals are in contact with CO<sub>2</sub>-acidified brine. In this regard, pore-scale models, resolving processes at small scales, can play an important role to shed light on how factors such as mineral heterogeneity can affect the porosity and permeability of the fractures in the seals. By using a novel pore-scale model, this study has demonstrated that the co-existence of minerals with vastly different reactivities can lead to formation of porous layers around the main fracture, a finding that confirms previous experimental and numerical studies reporting formation of this layer<sup>7, 10, 22-24, 29, 40, 49</sup>. Results showed that the overall calcite dissolution rate decreases as the altered layer forms around the fracture. This is similar to the findings in previous experimental studies<sup>6, 23, 39</sup> performed on heterogeneous carbonate rocks. Moreover, injection of acidic fluid at different flow rates indicated that at lower flow rates, overall dissolution rate becomes slower which is consistent with results obtained in prior experimental works<sup>40</sup>. Plotting the normalized permeability vs normalized porosity indicated that the altered layer can restrict the increase in fracture permeability along a dissolving fracture. This behavior also confirms the porosity-permeability relations reported in previous studies<sup>29</sup>. The porosity-permeability relations obtained here show that the general cubic law, which is most applicable for mineralogically homogeneous smooth fractures in large models, is not valid for multi-mineral fractured systems. Using these types of simplified porosity-permeability relationships in large scale models may thus lead to an overestimation in increased fracture permeability for a given increase in porosity.

At reservoir scales, where fractured rocks may be modeled as discrete fractures, alteration of properties of individual fractures should be properly modeled<sup>24</sup>. The pore-scale model presented

in this study can be used as a tool to provide inputs to reservoir scale models such as improved porosity-permeability relationships. In the context of caprock integrity, the pore scale model can be used to better simulate the transport processes involved in CO<sub>2</sub> leakage in fractured seals where the spatial distribution of different reactive minerals are known through use of various imaging techniques.

At the reservoir scale, there is a need for more computationally efficient models<sup>49</sup>. Comparison of calcite dissolution patterns for different layers in 2D and 3D simulations in our work showed that one might perform several 2D simulations (with different 2D layers, along the fracture and perpendicular to the fracture plane, as input geometry for 2D simulations) instead of one 3D simulation. This may serve to reduce the computational challenges associated with 3D pore scale simulations while still, within uncertainty, achieve the same qualitative and quantitative results as the full 3D simulations.

In this study we treated all non-calcite minerals as non-reactive given the short time scale of the simulations. In the longer time scales, other slow reacting minerals can be treated as reactive. In that case, the evolution of fracture geometry and its hydrodynamic properties might be more complex as there may be secondary precipitation triggered by dolomite reaction as seen by previous studies<sup>51</sup> (for non-fractured media).

457 ASSOCIATED CONTENT

458 **Supporting Information**

459 The supporting information is available free of charge.

460 The details of the Lattice Boltzmann model for fluid flow and species transport equations;  
461 table summarizing influent and initial concentrations; table listing initial fracture porosity and  
462 permeability; fracture aperture and calcite content maps; figures showing the initial Ca and pH  
463 profiles; figures indicating temporal evolution of pH; plots comparing normalized porosity and  
464 normalized permeability values for multi-mineral and mono-mineral cases; Figures indicating the  
465 calcite dissolution pattern for different layers of 3D geometry obtained by performing 3D and 2D  
466 simulations; and figures showing the temporal evolution of porosity and permeability for 3D  
467 simulation as well as 2D simulations for different layers of 3D geometry.

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615 GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT

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