

Insights into the interaction of a shale with CO₂

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Abstract

Caprock formations such as shales, play a key role to safe underground CO₂ storage since they serve as a hydromechanical barrier that prevents migration of the injected CO₂ to the surface. While their hydromechanical response is important to ensure their sealing capacity, interaction with the injected CO₂ involves additional thermo-chemo-mechanical (THMC) phenomena that may threaten the **long-term integrity of the caprock**. The low transport properties of shales make them a suitable caprock material, but at the same time challenging to study due to the very long time scales (**months/years**) that are required for the various ~~thermo-hydro-chemo-mechanical~~ **THMC** processes to manifest. In this work, **long-term** the multiphysical interaction of the Opalinus Clay shale with **liquid and supercritical** CO₂ is studied **in 3D** with live x-ray tomography. ~~Long-term exposure to liquid and supercritical CO₂ targets the investigation of different occurring THMC processes in 3D.~~ 3D analysis reveals the localised response of the coupled **THMC processes that** is often indistinguishable with conventional lab testing protocols. To improve spatial and temporal resolution while applying ~~realistic field-representative~~ pressure and temperature conditions, small size samples are studied. Long-term injection of liquid CO₂ resulted **in** significant fissuring of calcite-rich zones that were for the first time visualised and quantified from the x-ray images. ~~,while~~ **Additionally, a** re-arrangement of the pre-existing micro-fissures in the clay matrix **was** observed. The volumetric response during direct exposure of an Opalinus Clay sample to supercritical CO₂ revealed an initial swelling at pre-~~cracked~~**fissured** zones and initiation of new

micro-fissures at areas of direct contact with the anhydrous CO₂ due to pore water evaporation. Advanced 3D image analysis showed an increasing CO₂ uptake in the caprock material with time, the elevated value of which after pressure release suggests suggesting potential CO₂ trapping in the material.

1 Introduction

Geological CO₂ Storage (GCS) is an efficient way to permanently store large volumes of captured CO₂, by subsurface injection at pressures higher than its critical ~~phase point~~ pressure ($P_{cr, CO_2} = 7.4$ MPa) where it changes from gaseous to liquid state, and above a certain temperature level ($T_{cr, CO_2} = 31.2^\circ\text{C}$) to supercritical. This relatively high pressure level strongly encourages the selection of deep reservoirs (min. 700-800 m depth), where the in situ water/brine pressure equilibrates the injected CO₂ pressure. According to the most recent IPCC report (IPCC, 2022), Carbon Capture and Storage (CCS) is key to reaching net-zero emissions by mid-century and mitigating climate change. Besides, the need to implement CCS in a range of sectors including energy production, manufacturing and industry is underlined in the same report.

The feasibility of the technology relies on successful long-term subsurface storage which depends – at least during the first few decades – on the performance of nearly impermeable geological formations (seal/caprock) that will prevent CO₂ migration to the surface. Caprock formations, typically shales or other tight mudrocks, are highly heterogeneous in mineralogy with low mass transfer properties and high sealing capacity, ~~and their prone~~ However, their response to Thermo-Hydro-Chemo-Mechanical (THMC) loads remains a complex subject that deserves further inquiry.

Shales have been studied since decades by the oil and gas industry, more recently for their use as geological barriers for ~~nuclear~~ radioactive waste storage, but full understanding of their suitability for geological CO₂ storage is still somewhat limited, since CO₂ injection further ~~complexifies~~ complicates an already difficult engineering problem: (i) Unlike ~~oil or~~ water or brine, CO₂ diffusion results in acidification of the in situ brine that can lead to chemical interactions in the caprock and alteration of its mechanical and transport properties (Yang et al., 2022); (ii) CO₂ injection introduces stress state changes in both the reservoir and the overlaying caprock that can cause reactivation of pre-existing faults or creation of new fracture systems (Vilarrasa et al., 2019).

53 Significant progress ~~in~~ on experimental data collection has been achieved ~~in~~ on various scales
54 (Armitage et al., 2010; Houben et al., 2013), related to both geomechanical response (Rutqvist, 2012;
55 Wang and Tokunaga, 2015; Kivi et al., 2022) and chemical interactions (Wollenweber et al., 2010;
56 Hadian and Rezaee, 2020) during exposure to CO₂-rich fluids. Shales are anisotropic ~~in their THM~~
57 ~~response~~ and highly heterogeneous ~~in mineralogy~~ at different scales (micro to macro). ~~with~~ In partic-
58 ular, the strong geomechanical and geochemical couplings ~~of shales that~~ often challenge our ability
59 to distinguish the different occurring phenomena and estimate their time-scale during CO₂ exposure.

60 In recent years, the Opalinus Clay shale has been studied as a potential caprock in the context of
61 geological CO₂ storage (Amann et al., 2013; Favero et al., 2016; Makhnenko et al., 2017; Sciandra
62 et al., 2021), ~~thanks-to because of its~~ favourable properties, such as low porosity (< 20 %), low
63 permeability (in the order of 10⁻²⁰ m²), high clay content (40-80 %), swelling properties and high
64 sealing capacity (Marschall et al., 2005; Crisci et al., 2019; Delage and Belmokhtar, 2022). These
65 favourable properties of Opalinus Clay (and shales more generally) make it a challenging material
66 to study due to the slow flow processes at resolutions that may fall within the measurement error
67 (Minardi et al., 2021).

68 Representative testing of shales remains a big issue. ~~Testing conditions~~ ~~Representative boundaries~~
69 do not only involve ~~the~~ applied ~~level of~~ pressure or temperature but also the spatial and temporal scale
70 of the measurement. ~~While~~ ~~Whereas~~ large scale experiments are generally considered to be more
71 realistic, they can be challenging to properly monitor and analyse since they involve the combination
72 of multiple phenomena ~~occurring that occur~~ under different scales, in particular in heterogeneous
73 materials such as shales. A real scale experimental campaign has been recently completed at the
74 Underground Research Laboratory (URL) in Mont Terri, where CO₂-rich brine has been injected in
75 an existing fault in Opalinus Clay (Zappone et al., 2021). The results have not been conclusive, ~~given~~
76 ~~mainly due to~~ the low applied pressure, the ~~small~~ volume of injected CO₂ and the long time-duration
77 ~~that is~~ required for transport phenomena to manifest ~~in~~ on that scale. In parallel, recent lab-scale
78 experimental results from CO₂ injection tests in Opalinus ~~Clay~~ samples, do not show evidence of
79 significant influence on the ~~material's basic fundamental~~ properties ~~of the material~~ for the given test
80 duration (~~Minardi et al., 2021; Favero & Laloui, 2018~~); grain density, dominant entrance pore size
81 and void ratio, as well as hydraulic conductivity do not vary in a considerable way after exposure to

82 CO₂ over a ~~weekly~~ time-scale of a few weeks (Minardi et al., 2021; Favero & Laloui, 2018). The
83 short duration of these tests together with the ~~chosen~~ sample size could be among the reasons for the
84 absence of measurable evolution.

85 Representative testing conditions and duration are even more challenging when processes of geo-
86 chemical nature are investigated. ~~Indeed, the impact of chemical reactivity of shales in the presence~~
87 ~~of CO₂ remains a very challenging topic.~~ While shales contain minerals reactive to CO₂, current lab
88 measurements are not ~~enough~~ sufficient in identifying chemical interactions directly, since they rely
89 either on post-mortem analysis of fluid composition or mineralogy (Armitage et al., 2013; Elkady and
90 Kavscek, 2020). The indirect interpretation of permeability results before and after CO₂ exposure ~~in~~
91 ~~terms of chemical alterations (dissolution/precipitation)~~ can be ambiguous in terms of chemical al-
92 ~~terations. since~~ This is because they may involve self-compensating mechanisms such as carbonate
93 dissolution, mechanical crushing and inelastic compaction, as shown by various authors who studied
94 fractured caprock samples (Yasuhara et al., 2011; Hashemi and Zoback, 2021). It is thus difficult
95 to build solid conclusions on the impact of chemical interactions on the structural properties of the
96 material, and consequently on its transport and mechanical response.

97 Taking all the above into account, there is a series of issues when testing shales in the context
98 of CO₂ storage: (i) Flow is extremely slow, resulting in long testing durations; (ii) Measured per-
99 meability variations are close to the measurement error; (iii) Reproduction of real site conditions is
100 crucial since injection pressure, and therefore effective stress, has an important impact on properties
101 of the material that drive flow and breakthrough, i.e. connected porosity; (iv) Chemical interactions
102 are limited by the slow transport properties of the material; (v) The testing duration ~~and scale that are~~
103 ~~commonly used are~~ is usually not enough to allow investigation in that direction.

104 In this work, the different coupled processes and phenomena that occur when CO₂ interacts with
105 a shaly caprock material – the Opalinus Clay – are explored based on a series of measurements and
106 observations from real time x-ray tomography. Taking full advantage of this non-destructive tool,
107 new aspects and results are targeted ~~and demonstrated that aim to~~ aiming at improving ~~improve~~ our
108 understanding of the caprock's response while under field-realistic testing conditions. The originality
109 of the presented research relies mainly on two aspects: first, ~~on~~ the study of smaller size samples,
110 where observation period is expected to be shorter, and second, ~~and most importantly on~~ the direct

111 measurement of strain fields and structural alteration from the 3D analysis of the 3D tomographic
112 images. In the following, the proposed methodology, tools and conventions of analysis conventions
113 are presented in detail. The results of two experimental campaigns where Opalinus Clay shale is
114 exposed to either liquid or supercritical CO₂ are presented and discussed. These experiments target
115 different coupled mechanisms, that combined, aim to contribute to a more profound understanding of
116 the overall THMC response of shales with CO₂.

117 2 Methodology, tools and principles of analysis

118 Shales are highly heterogeneous and anisotropic materials, sensitive to thermo-hydro-mechanical
119 THM variations, and with strong multiphysical couplings and very slow transport properties (Mo-
120 hajerani et al., 2014; Favero et al., 2016; Menaceur et al., 2016; Li and Laloui, 2017). Inevitably,
121 representative testing of shales requires the employment of methods and tools that can embrace these
122 particularities. These should include by-means-of controlled applied conditions and full-field mea-
123 surement, i.e. a field record of a quantity (e.g., deformation, density, temperature, etc.) as opposed to
124 point-wise data (Viggiani and Hall, 2008).

125 Taking into account all the above, the exploration development of a new approach in testing shales
126 with in situ x-ray tomography is motivated. In this study, the full-field of micro-structural variations
127 and kinematics of the Opalinus Clay shale when exposed to CO₂ under different boundary condi-
128 tions are targeted with 3D image analysis of real-time x-ray tomographies. Long-duration exposure
129 of Opalinus Clay to injected liquid CO₂ (8 MPa) under confined conditions (10 MPa) aims to re-
130 veal potential chemo-mechanical processes.,while-d Direct exposure ofunjacketed Opalinus Clay to
131 supercritical CO₂ targets the better understanding of localised THM interactions that are otherwise
132 difficult to detect with conventional lab-testing techniques.

133 Despite the classic testing approaches on centimetric size shale samples in the literature, in this
134 work very-small micro-samples (5 mm) are studied in order to first, gain-in improve the temporal reso-
135 lution (partly inspired by small-scale permeability testing equipment (Birmpilis et al., 2019; Birmpilis
136 and Dijkstra, 2021), but also to optimise the quality of x-ray imaging (improved spatial resolution).
137 This approach is challenging for the given material and the given subject. ÷- The pore size of shales
138 is in the order of nanometres and thus impossible to visualise with x-ray micro-tomography (micro-

metric scale). Nonetheless, observation and quantification of microstructural modifications due to interaction with CO₂ can be explored with relatively high scanning resolutions (5-8 $\mu\text{m}/\text{px}$) and fast tomographies thanks to the small size of the sample.

2.1 In situ x-ray micro-tomography and experimental protocol

A few authors have investigated the mineralogical heterogeneity and THM anisotropic behaviour of shales, pointing out the role of the microstructure by employing with the employment of different imaging techniques (Wang et al., 2013; Desbois et al., 2017; Delage & Tessier, 2021). In the case of experimental geomechanics, x-ray tomography is the most widely used technique, with a large range of results stated in literature (Viggiani et al., 2015; Bedford et al., 2017; Vego et al., 2022; Birmipilis et al., 2022). The great advantage of x-ray tomography compared to other techniques for soil characterisation (e.g. SEM microscopy), is the possibility to identify in 3D the specimen's heterogeneity the mineralogical heterogeneity of the specimen in 3D and follow its evolution in time (in situ testing). This X-ray tomography is a very powerful tool that allows a better interpretation of test results, such as measured permeability, fingering-phenomena fissuring, localised deformation or structural modifications (Voltolini and Ajo-Franklin, 2020; Stavropoulou et al., 2020).

For this study, the dual x-ray source in PIXE platform for x-ray micro-tomography (EPFL, Switzerland) is used. Reconstructions are performed with the XAct software provided by RX-Solutions (An-necy, France), with appropriate beam-hardening corrections applied. A cylindrical cell made out of PEEK (polyether ether ketone) is used for the application of the various boundary conditions, that are explained in detail in the following sections. The so called PEEKcell is fixed on the rotating table, as close as possible to the x-ray source, for a maximal use of the x-ray conical beam. All scans are performed in temperature controlled environment of at 21°C. A cylindrical cell made out of PEEK is used for the application of the various boundary conditions, that are explained in detail in the following sections. The so-called 'PEEKcell', The PEEKcell is designed to host 5 mm \times 5 mm cylindrical samples and can sustain a maximal pressure and temperature of 20 MPa and 80°C respectively (Stavropoulou and Laloui, 2022). An entry on each side of the cell (top and bottom) allows the application of confining pressure (top) and pore pressure (bottom) on the sample. The cell is disconnected from the pressure controllers and transported under the given pressure state in the tomograph.

167 To monitor the pressure level during the scans, a pressure transducer is placed on ~~each side both ends~~
 168 (see Fig. 1).

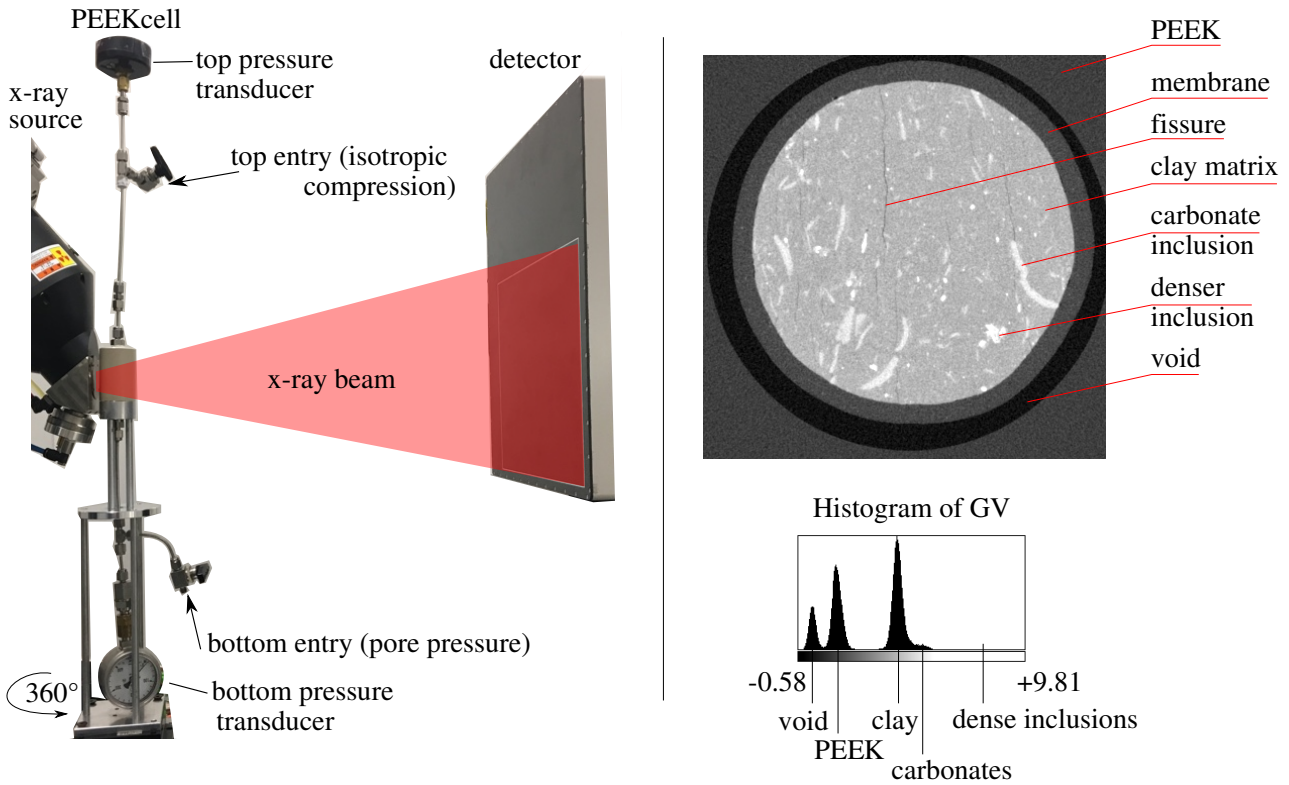


Figure 1: (left:) PEEKcell setup in the x-ray tomograph, (right:) horizontal slice of a reconstructed x-ray image and the corresponding histogram of ~~greyvalues~~ grey values

169 The samples are cut to cylindrical shape of $d = h = 5 \text{ mm}$; ~~first sized down in~~ by cutting rectan-
 170 gular pieces with a saw, ~~and which were~~ then reduced to the desired size manually using fine sand
 171 paper (P240). This technique has been preferred (to a mechanical lathe for example) in order to avoid
 172 overheating the sample during preparation. The resaturation of the samples has been achieved pro-
 173 gressively under free swelling conditions by exposing the samples in a ~~controlled~~ relative humidity
 174 (RH) ~~controlled~~ environment with the use of an appropriate saline solution (Romero, 2001); first to
 175 $\text{RH} = 75 \%$ (NaCl) and then $\text{RH} = 98 \%$ (K_2SO_4) until mass stabilisation. Before testing, samples
 176 have achieved a close-to-full saturation state, corresponding to a measured water content $w_{\text{resat}} = 6.1$
 177 $- 6.8 \%$, i.e. within the range of full saturation (Bossart and Thury, 2011).

178 In this work, ~~first~~ the micro-structural modifications due to long-duration CO_2 exposure are inves-
 179 tigated with post-mortem measurements and analysis, i.e. after removing the applied pressures. Then,
 180 the occurring kinematics on Opalinus Clay that is exposed in direct contact (no sealing membrane)

181 with supercritical CO₂ ~~is~~ ~~are~~ examined with in situ measurements, i.e. while under pressure in the
182 cell. According to the volumetric response of the sample and the corresponding ~~grey values~~ (GV) of
183 the ~~x-ray~~ images, the CO₂ uptake is investigated and visualised. ~~for the first time.~~

184 When supercritical CO₂ is injected, a thermal jacket is used around the cell and the applied tem-
185 perature is monitored with a thermal sensor that is placed between the jacket and the PEEKcell. For
186 achieving a maximal resolution and x-rays penetration the thermal jacket is removed during the scans.
187 Inevitably, this leads to CO₂ phase change from supercritical (lower density) to liquid (higher density)
188 and consequently to a pressure drop under constant volume conditions, i.e. conditions during scan-
189 ning. ~~In order to minimise this pressure drop,~~ The cell is exposed to the ~~scanner's~~ temperature of the
190 ~~scanner~~ (21°C) two hours in advance, while maintaining the pressure at the desired level (pressure
191 pump connected), in order to avoid pressure loss due to phase change during the scan. The possible
192 implications of this CO₂ phase transition before the scans ~~on the given testing campaign~~ are discussed
193 in the corresponding section of direct exposure to supercritical CO₂.

194 2.2 Image analysis

195 The result of an x-ray tomography is a 3D x-ray attenuation map of the scanned sample that is as-
196 sociated to the 3D density map of the material. For instance dense phases in the material (~~non-clay~~
197 mineral inclusions) attenuate more x-rays than lower density phases (e.g. cracks, pores). The different
198 density (attenuation) levels ~~reflect~~ ~~are reflected~~ in the grey level values (~~GV~~) of the reconstructed 3D
199 x-ray image. ~~;~~ ~~h~~ Higher GV corresponds to denser phases and lower GV to ~~lower~~ ~~less dense~~ phases as
200 indicated in Fig. 1-right. Changes in the GV of a ~~scanned~~ sample ~~image~~ in time or due to application
201 of a different load, allow the observation and quantification of localised micro-structural modifica-
202 tions (e.g. crack opening/closing, swelling/shrinking) which can subsequently be translated to 3D
203 strain fields with Digital Volume Correlation (DVC). In this work, the open source SPAM software
204 (Stamati et al., 2020) is used for the DVC analysis.

205 In DVC, two images are required~~;~~, an initial (reference image) and a deformed one. In the case
206 of local-DVC (that is used for the image analysis in this work), a grid with a given node spacing is
207 defined and at each grid point a centred window is extracted. For each of these subvolumes a linear
208 deformation function Φ is calculated so that ~~image~~_{deformed} ($\Phi \cdot x$) = ~~image~~_{reference}(x). The function Φ

accounts for translation, rotation and stretching and its calculation is optimised by solving an iterative problem that minimises error based on the classic sum of squared difference (SSQD). ~~While Whereas~~ DVC can calculate a strain field ~~and~~ that can then be applied ~~it~~ on an image, it does not take into account by definition the variations of ~~the~~ GV due to the corresponding strain. **Deformation-based** GV correction ~~due to deformation as per Stavropoulou et al., (2020)~~ is going to be applied in this work, ~~as per (Stavropoulou et al., 2020) where the aim is aiming~~ to investigate phase changes due to chemical reactions between the in-contact CO₂ with the same material.

~~All scans of each type of test~~ For each type of test, all scans are performed under the same conditions and with the same scanning parameters. Nevertheless, noise, artefacts or other external changes may be present between the different scans ~~(that in some cases are performed in month intervals)~~. To improve the accuracy of image analysis and minimise the GV variations due to measurement conditions rather than real changes in the material, all images from ~~a the same~~ testing campaign are normalised based on GV of materials, the density of which is not supposed to vary between the different scans; (here PEEK and aluminium). ~~The procedure of the GVs~~ GV normalisation ~~is explained in detail in the Appendix and~~ results in scaling the given images so that the voxels that correspond to void are set to GV = 0 and those of PEEK correspond to GV = 1. ~~The followed procedure is explained in detail in the Appendix.~~

Finally, ~~for the strain field calculation,~~ the occasional rigid-body transformation of the sample (translation and rotation) ~~due to transportation and re-installation of the cell in the tomograph,~~ is calculated based on ~~the~~ a single Φ function ~~on~~ for the entire image (so called registration) and removed. DVC is then performed between the reference image and the deformed ones, from which rigid body motion has been corrected. The displacement field is then calculated and ~~translated converted~~ to strain assuming small transformations (see details in Stamati et al., 2020). The above principles and conventions are applied for the analysis of the different series of x-ray scans that are presented in the following.

Correction of x-ray attenuation due to volumetric strain

Taking into account the measured strain field from the DVC analysis, the variation of the x-ray attenuation coefficient (μ_x) in time is corrected and measured. Volumetric strain results in density variation

(and therefore μ_x variation) that is manifested in the GVs level of the deformed image via a linear relationship. A simple example to better understand this reasoning is the case of thermal expansion with no mass transfer, where the density of the material is expected to reduce, and consequently the attenuation field μ_x or GVs to decrease proportionally to the change in density. Any additional GV variation is therefore assumed to be due to additional mass transfer (gain or loss), which in this work is due to CO₂ uptake. After Stavropoulou et al., (2020), the attenuation variation $\Delta\mu$ of a sample is calculated as a function of the mechanical volumetric strain assuming mass conservation:

$$\Delta\mu = -\varepsilon_v \cdot \mu_0 \quad (1)$$

where ε_v is the measured volumetric strain of the sample and μ_0 is the initial attenuation of the image (before loading).

In order to measure the additional changes of GVs due to mass transfer, the calculated strain field is applied on the reference image (e.g. scan 00), while taking into account the corresponding GV correction. Then, simple subtraction of the deformed image (with corrected GVs due to volumetric variation) from the corresponding original image (e.g. 01 minus 00_def_to_01) results in the uptake or loss of mass.

3 Long-term micro-structural modifications

In this section, the long-term chemo-mechanical interactions that can occur between CO₂ and a shaly caprock are explored. ~~Taking into account the small size of the samples (5 mm × 5 mm), first~~ First, a mineralogical analysis of different Opalinus Clay samples is performed with x-ray diffraction (XRD) measurements, in order to evaluate the mineralogical variability ~~given the small size of the samples (5 mm × 5 mm)~~. Then the mineralogical map of an Opalinus Clay sample is studied with SEM-EDX (scanning electron microscopy and energy dispersive x-ray) measurements and the identified mineral locations ~~is are~~ directly compared and identified in the corresponding slices from the x-ray tomography image of the same sample. ~~The goal of this combined analysis is twofold. This combined analysis~~ On one hand, it aims ~~to locate~~ at locating and ~~demonstrate~~ showing the presence of elements in the sample that may favour chemical interactions in the long-term presence of CO₂ (e.g. Ca, C, Si, S, O etc.). ~~that is here investigated with x-ray tomography by means of, and~~ On the other hand,

263 this analysis aims at evaluating the response of the identified mineral phases based on the occurring
 264 micro-structural modifications that are identified from x-ray tomography (fissuring, swelling, self-
 265 sealing etc.).

266 Table 1 shows the mineralogical composition of four sister Opalinus Clay samples (shaly facies)
 267 from XRD measurements. The fit was optimised on one sample and to increase comparability, the
 268 next fits were done by keeping all refined parameters and replacing the data file on the current model.
 269 ~~Even though the results are quite approximate, a~~ A similar quartz and clay content is measured for
 270 all samples except for illite that presents variations up to 8 %. In the lower illite-rich samples a
 271 higher calcite content is measured with values that vary among the different samples from 13 % to
 272 24 %. ~~The different content values that are presented for sample A (in bold), are measured after~~
 273 ~~long-term exposure to CO₂. The mineral content of sample A (in bold) is measured after long-term~~
 274 ~~exposure to CO₂.~~ It presents a high ~~clay calcite~~ calcite content that is unclear if it is affected in any way by its
 275 previous interaction with CO₂ since its overall mineral content falls within the variability of the other
 276 three untreated samples. ~~Even Nevertheless, even~~ after long-term CO₂ exposure, ~~its the~~ mineralogical
 277 composition of sample A does not vary in a significant way compared to the other three untreated
 278 samples. Sample A is used to compare the results from all different ~~analysis imaging~~ tools that are
 279 employed for this study.

Opalinus Clay (wt %)	A	X	Y	Z
Calcite	21	13	16	24
Quartz	13	13	14	11
Chlorite	15	15	13	17
Kaolinite	3	2	2.5	1.5
Illite	45.5	53.5	52	45.5
Siderite	2	2	2	11.5
Pyrite	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5

Table 1: Mineralogical composition of four sister Opalinus Clay samples based on x-ray diffraction

280 The mineralogical nature of the non-clay inclusion phases of the x-ray tomography images are
 281 identified with SEM-EDX measurements. ~~In order to confirm the mineralogy of the inclusions iden-~~
 282 ~~tified from x-ray tomography, sample A has been subjected to a SEM-EDX analysis.~~ The height of
 283 the sample is carefully reduced to the height of the horizontal slice of Fig. 2 (a) using ~~again light~~
 284 sandpaper (the traces of which are apparent in the SEM images). Figure 2 presents the combined

285 information obtained ~~both from from both~~ x-ray tomography and SEM-EDX at the same horizontal
 286 slice. In Fig. 2 (a) ~~the x-ray slice~~, the different GV levels ~~of the x-ray slice~~ highlight the distribution
 287 of the different inclusions in the clay matrix, the mineralogy of which is identified from the EDX
 288 analysis. ~~In fact, t~~ There are two sets of inclusions as revealed from the GV histogram plotted in
 289 Fig. 2 (b). ~~This is more clear when a bilateral filter is applied (red histogram) that unveils a second~~
 290 ~~peak that represents the lower GV inclusions.~~ This becomes more significant by taking into account
 291 that a second peak representing the lower GB inclusions is visible after the applications of a bilateral
 292 filter.

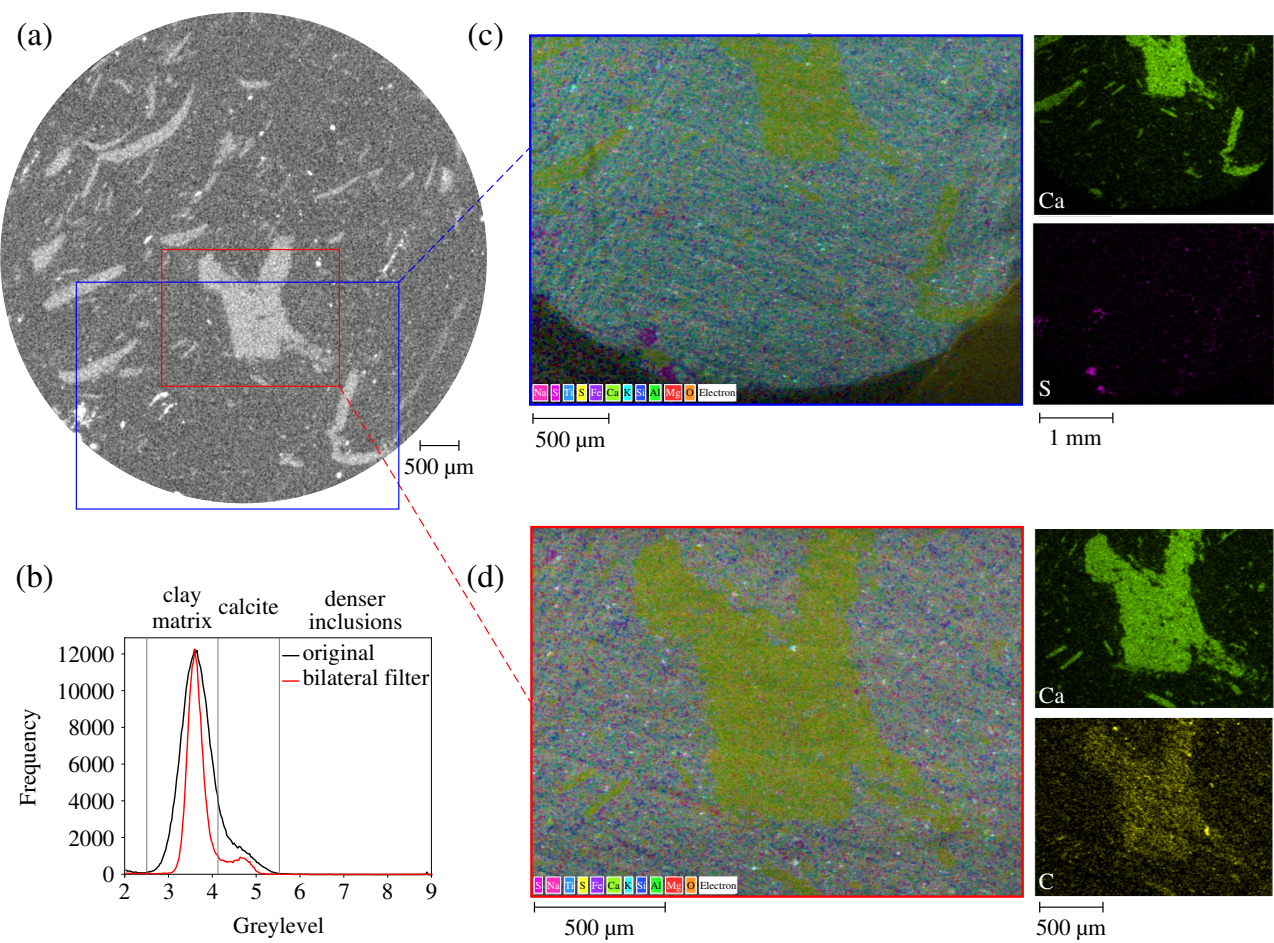


Figure 2: Identification of the inclusions mineralogy combining x-ray tomography and SEM-EDX – (a) horizontal x-ray tomography slice, (b) histogram of GV levels of the top horizontal slice, (c) SEM-EDX map corresponding to the blue window of the x-ray slice highlighting all identified elements and the areas rich in Ca and S, (d) SEM-EDX map corresponding to the red window of the x-ray slice highlighting all identified elements and the areas rich in Ca and C

293 These lower GV level inclusions are rich in calcium (Ca) and carbon (C), i.e. **calcite (CaCO_3)**,
 294 as revealed from the EDX images (Fig. 2 (a) and (d)). ~~This type of These carbonate~~ inclusions are

295 therefore more prone to ~~undergo dissolution~~ react (dissolve) in the presence of CO₂. The denser
296 inclusions (~~whiter brighter~~ inclusions in Fig. 2 (a) at the bottom left of the sample) seem to be rich
297 in sulphur (S) (see Fig. 2 (c)), a main element of pyrite (FeS₂) the density of which is very high.
298 ~~This supplementary EDX measurement reveals that the information from the 3D x-ray images is even~~
299 ~~richer than what has widely been used for now.~~

300 Sample A is the same sample that has been used in (Stavropoulou and Laloui, 2022).; ~~i~~ It has
301 first been scanned in the x-ray tomograph under unconfined conditions, then after application of
302 confinement (10 MPa) ~~followed by CO₂ injection~~ CO₂ was injected up to a pressure of 8 MPa (pixel
303 size 7.8 μm). After CO₂ breakthrough, it has been ~~let held~~ under constant volume conditions in the
304 PEEKcell for 9 months and scanned again in the x-ray tomograph after pressure release (same pixel
305 size and scanning parameters). It is important to mention that there has been pressure loss during these
306 9 months that has not been properly monitored: ~~during the last 5 months the confining pressure has~~
307 ~~been reduced to half and the CO₂ pressure to 1 MPa.~~ Nevertheless, the results present great interest
308 and possible impact of this pressure loss is discussed in Section 5. ~~that is not necessarily impacted by~~
309 ~~this pressure loss.~~

310 Figure 3, shows a horizontal and vertical slice of two x-ray scans of sample A, initially and after
311 9 months of CO₂ exposure, both in unconfined conditions. ~~The micro-fissures have been manually~~
312 ~~highlighted in black for more clarity, but the entire volumes can be found at their original form in~~
313 ~~the supplementary material. The initial image of the sample reveals a vertical bedding orientation ac-~~
314 ~~cording to the orientation of the pre-existing fissures in the clay matrix.~~ In its initial state, the sample
315 contains a series of pre-existing fissures in the clay matrix of vertical orientation, i.e. similar to the
316 bedding orientation. After 9 months of CO₂ exposure there are two important observations to be
317 pointed out. First, clear fissures in the carbonate phases have been formed ~~revealing the~~ suggesting
318 calcite dissolution for the first time from x-ray images and under ~~non-extreme (if not realistic)-testing~~
319 ~~realistic pressure and temperature~~ conditions. In addition to the fissuring of the carbonate inclusions,
320 a disappearance of the initially pre-existing fissures in the clay matrix is observed. ~~This can be ex-~~
321 ~~plained first, by means of self-sealing behaviour of the material under long duration application of~~
322 ~~confinement. Another possible mechanism could be related to precipitation of Si-rich zones that are~~
323 ~~not distinguishable from the x-ray images, since they have similar density with the clay minerals.~~

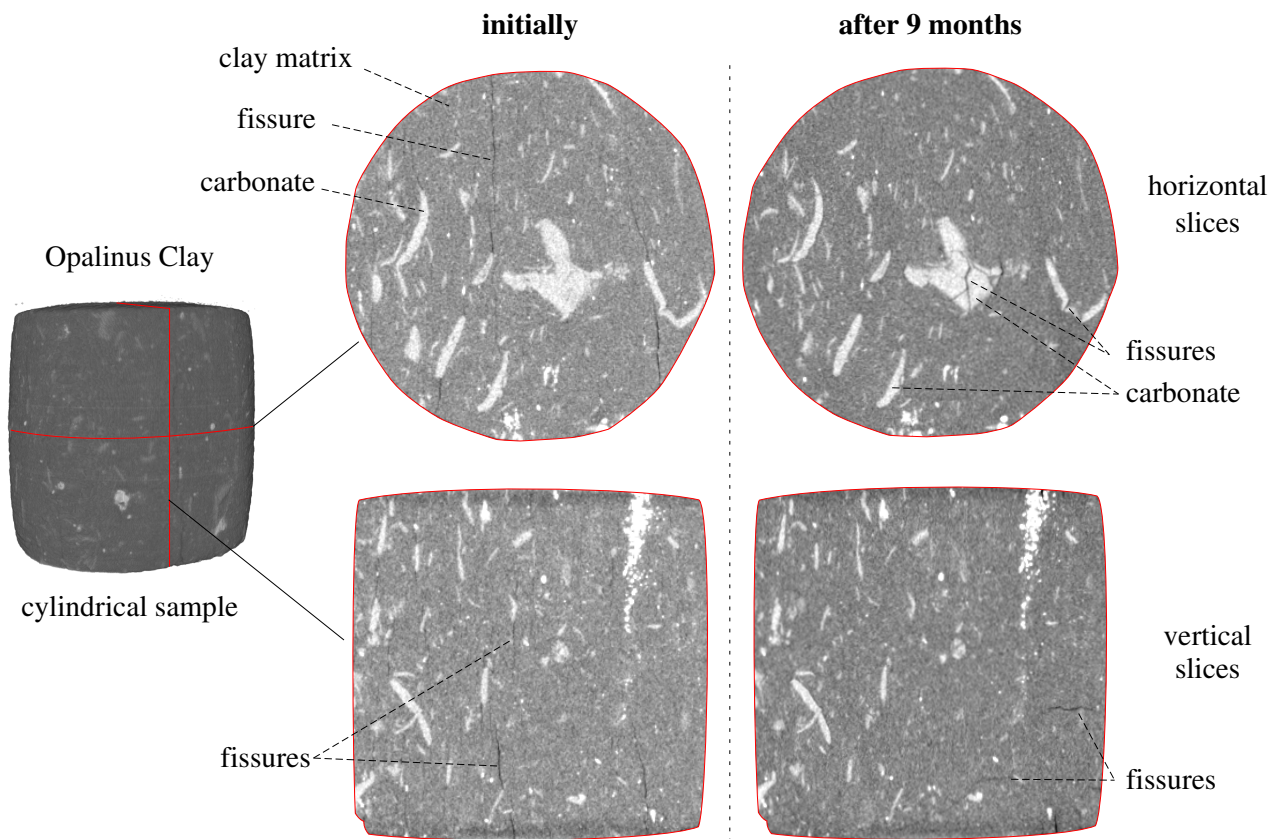


Figure 3: Horizontal and vertical slices of x-ray tomography on the same Opalinus Clay sample with highlighted fissures (in black) under unconfined conditions at its initial state (left) and after 9 months CO₂ exposure (right). The horizontal slices (top) highlight the fissuring of the carbonate phase due to dissolution and the self-sealing of the clay matrix pre-existing fissures under long-term confinement; the vertical slices (bottom) highlight the fissure rearrangement and change of orientation that took place in time.

~~Prakash et al., (2022) pointed out a more pronounced precipitation activity in zones parallel to the direction of the bedding plane. Self-sealing and precipitation are two phenomena independent from each other and they can occur at different time scales.~~

For a better understanding of the micro-structural modification of the sample after long-term CO₂ exposure, the orientation of the minimum eigenvectors of the moment of inertia is calculated for each identified inclusion and micro-fissure. This corresponds to the (longest axis) of the inclusions and micro-fissures each labeled inclusion or micro-fissure. have been plotted in The 3D orientations together with their projection in the 2D plane, as shown are plotted in Fig. 4. Both types of orientation plots are presented for a better demonstration of the result of each studied phase. The 3D histogram is more comprehensible for the cracks' orientation of the cracks and the 2D projection for the inclusions. For this analysis, a bilateral filter has been applied on the two images to reduce noise and to smoothen the

edges between the different phases (clay/cracks, clay/inclusions). In this way a better segmentation of the phases of interest (cracks and inclusions) can be achieved.

Even though these results could be optimised from a quantitative point of view, the overall shape modification of the two segmented phases is realistic.

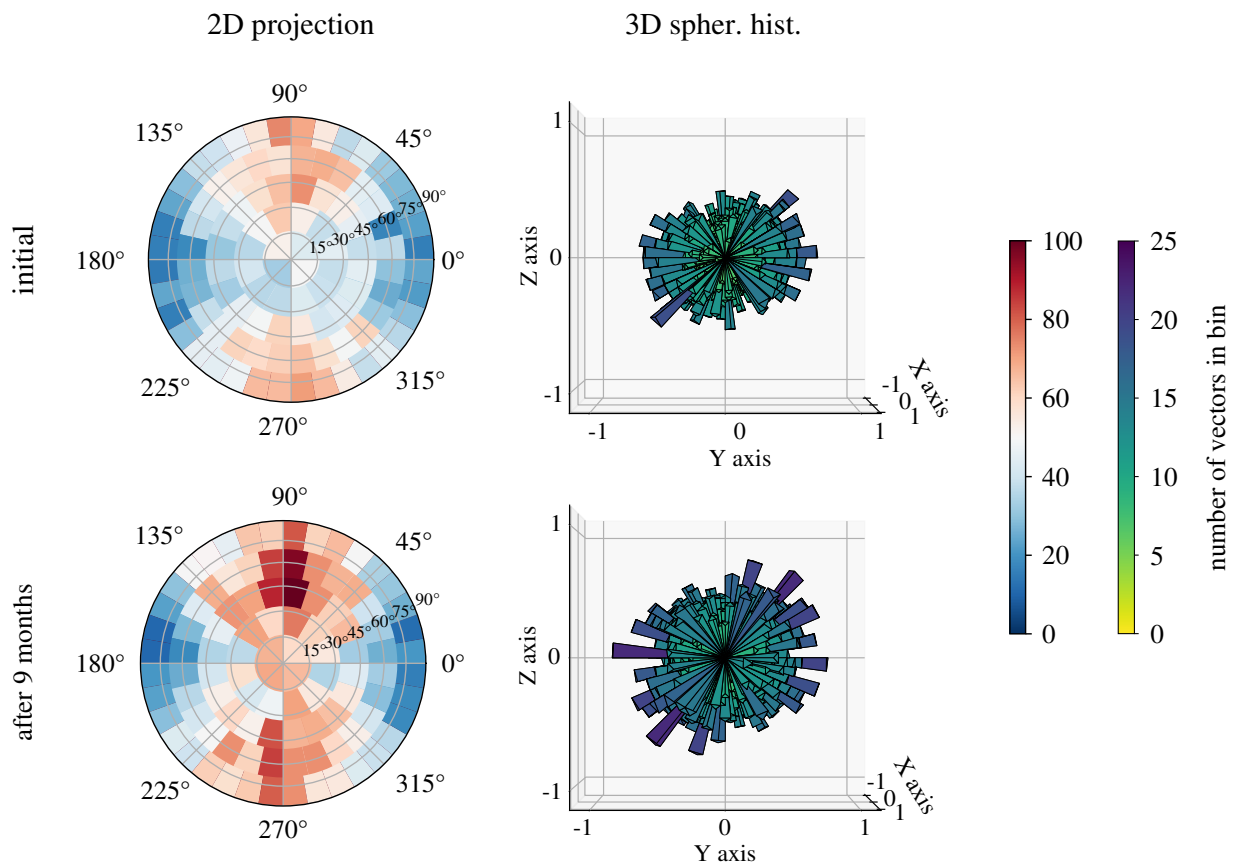


Figure 4: 2D projection (left) and spherical histogram (right) of the minimum eigenvectors of sample S02 inclusions, initially and after 9 months exposure to CO₂

The 2D projection of the ~~min.~~ minimum eigenvectors of the inclusions reveals a preferential orientation along the vertical axis – i.e. axis parallel to the bedding plane – both initially and after 9 months exposure (Fig. 4). The vertical axis of the 2D plots is parallel to the Y axis of the spherical histograms that are plotted in this view to demonstrate the ~~vectors'~~ orientation of the eigenvectors on the ZY plane. After 9 months exposure to CO₂ the population of inclusions is increased as demonstrated by both plots ~~on the right at the bottom~~ of Fig. 4. This increase in the number of inclusions is ~~a clear~~ considered as an indication of carbonate dissolution that resulted in inclusion fissuring and consequently identification of more numerous inclusion particles. The main orientation axis after dissolution remains vertical, suggesting that fissuring ~~due to dissolution in the carbonate particles~~

has mainly occurred along their shortest axis and therefore perpendicularly to the bedding plane.

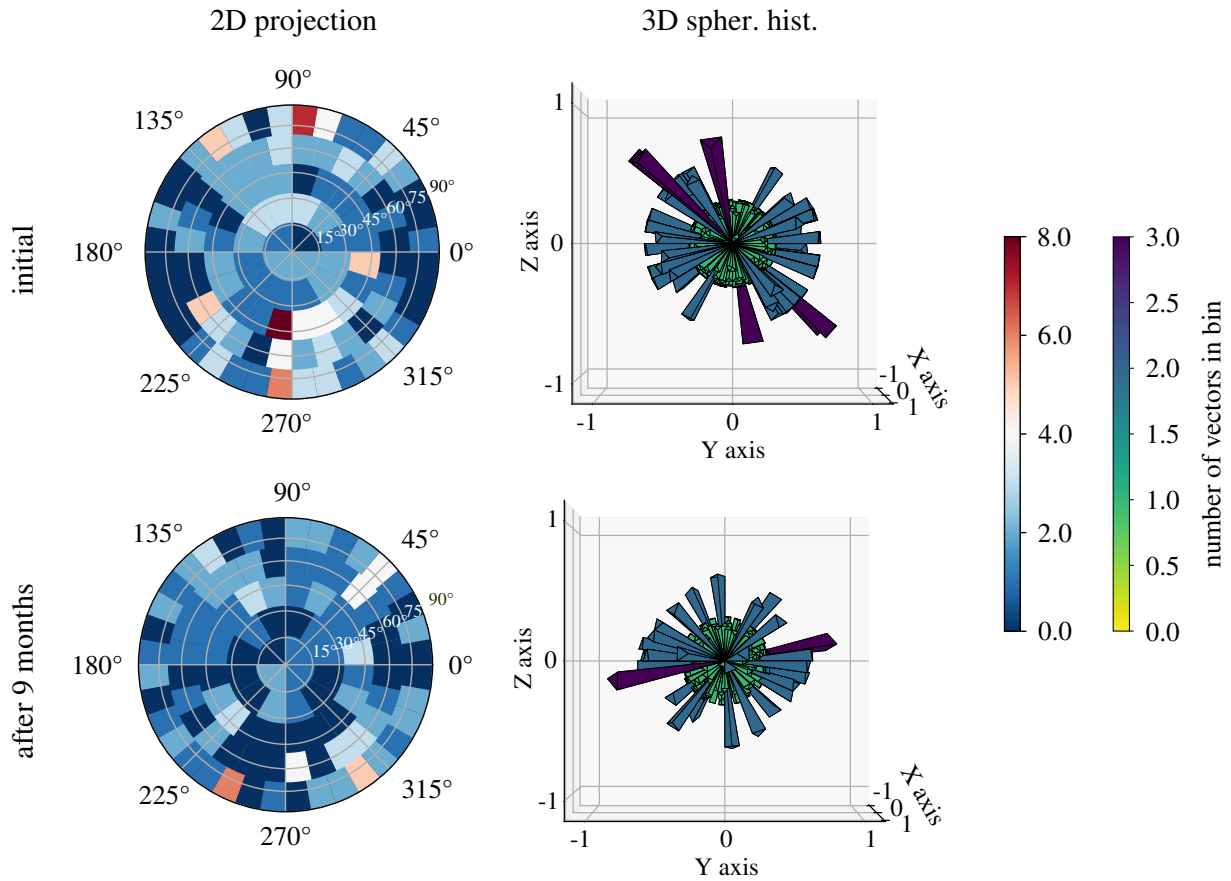


Figure 5: Spherical histogram of the minimum eigenvector of the inclusions and the cracks in sample A, initially and after 9 months exposure to CO₂ (colour represents the number of projected points per bin divided by the median number of points in all bins)

In a similar way, the 2D projection and the spherical histograms of the minimum eigenvector of the sample's identified cracks in the sample and their 2D projection are plotted in Fig. 5: initially and after 9 months of CO₂ exposure. The initial shape of the 3D histogram initially reveals the preferential orientation of the micro-fissures parallel to the bedding plane. sample's anisotropy with a preferential orientation parallel to the bedding plane. This is confirmed by the high number of vectors projected on the vertical axis of the 2D plot. —even though the low number of cracks make it harder to evaluate. Interestingly, the shape of the 3D crack histogram on the right is very different, confirming the observations and assumptions discussed from Fig. 3. After 9 months of CO₂ exposure, the shape of the 3D crack histogram is modified. First, On one hand, the number of cracks is reduced, validating the self-sealing (or precipitation) response of the sample after long duration confinement. most importantly,

and on the other hand, the orientation of the main pre-existing cracks has been totally modified and is no more is no longer parallel to the bedding. It is not clear whether these new fissures are the result of alteration of the pore fluid's pH that enhances further chemical reactions between minerals that are not detectable from x-rays and CO₂, or whether they are related to mechanical impact from CO₂ breakthrough (see 3D volumetric response after breakthrough in Stavropoulou and Laloui, 2022). In either case, this result points out a potential rearrangement of the fissure network after long-term CO₂ exposure that has not been previously discussed. Most importantly, these results show how little we still know regarding the coupled long-term THMC response of the caprock/CO₂ interaction at the micro-scale and their implications to the large scale response. Longer duration testing under realistic boundary conditions are required for a better understanding of the complex mechanisms that occur.

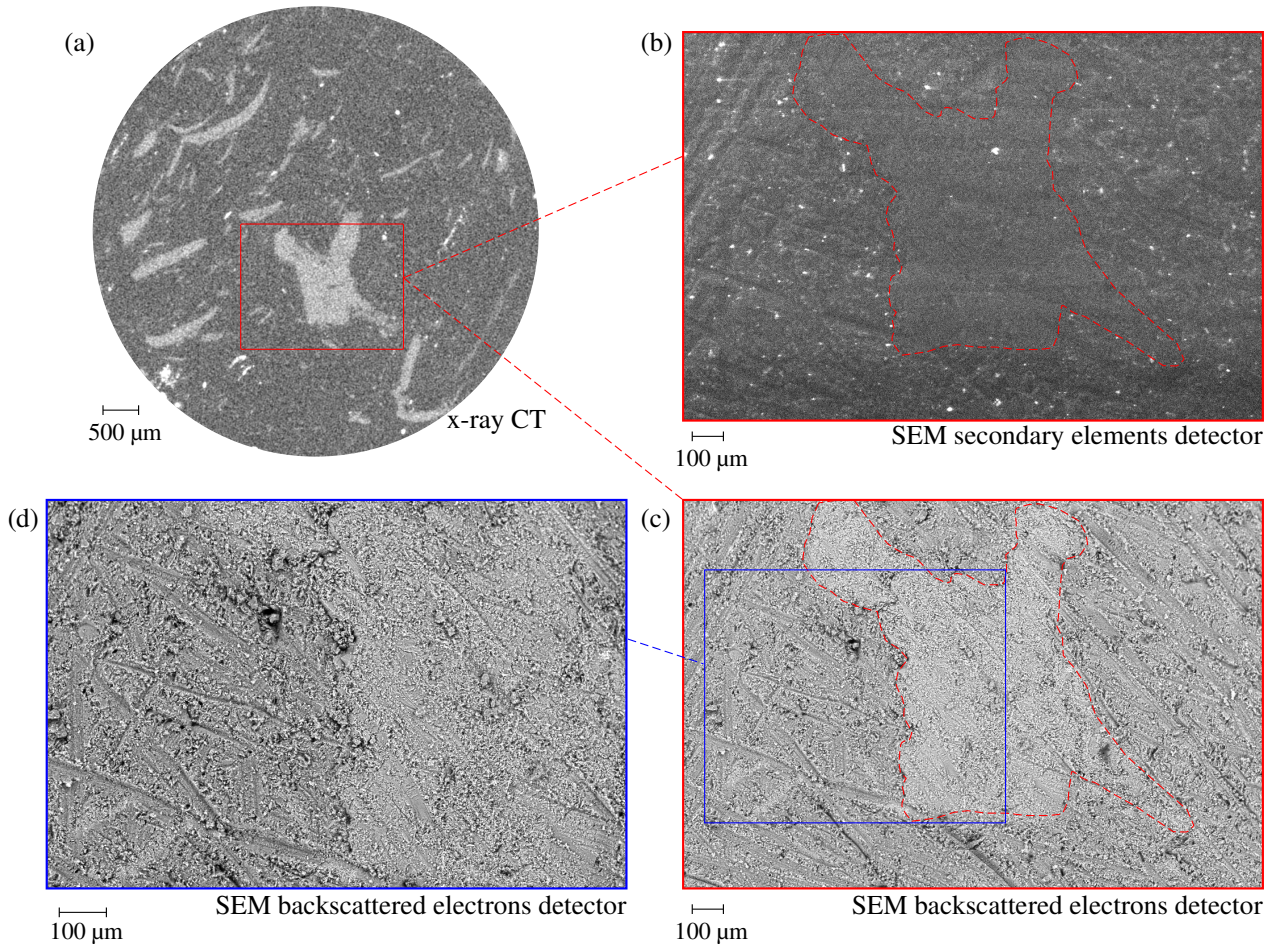


Figure 6: Horizontal slice of the Opalinus Clay sample A from different imaging tools, (a) x-ray computed tomography, (b) corresponding SEM slice scanned with a secondary elements detector, (c) corresponding SEM slice scanned with a backscattered electrons detector, (d) magnified selected region of (c)

Finally, in the aim of a better visualisation of the texture of the carbonic inclusions, the SEM

image of the same (unpolished) slice with Fig. 2 is presented in Fig. 6. For the SEM images, two detectors have been used: (top) a secondary elements detector that basically illustrates the surface topography, and (bottom) a backscattered electrons detector that shows a Z contrast, i.e. lighter elements (such as Si, Al, O, K) are darker and heavier elements (here Ca or C) are brighter. The secondary elements detector does not reveal any information regarding the targeted inclusion other than the fewer sandpaper traces that are ~~very more~~ obvious on the softer clay matrix. On the other hand, the backscattered electrons detector provides a better distinction between the two phases. The higher resolution of SEM allows a better visualisation and understanding of the interface between the carbonate inclusion and the clay matrix that is otherwise not visible ~~with x-rays from the x-ray images. While Even though~~ the resolution is still in the micrometric scale and no nanometric pores can be detected in either types of images, a distinct calcite/clay interface of increased porosity is revealed in the zoomed area of the bottom SEM image (blue window). These results confirm the findings of Minardi et al. (2021) on carbonate rich Opalinus Clay shale that identified a bimodal pore size distribution, with a second dominant pore size between 50-100 μm corresponding to the interface of carbonate/clay particles. ~~The high inter-particle porosity can serve as a preferential CO_2 pathway and eventually enhance geochemical interactions, in this case carbonate dissolution.~~

4 Direct exposure to supercritical CO_2

In this part, the interaction of an Opalinus Clay sample with supercritical CO_2 is evaluated in time by means of quantitative 3D x-ray image analysis. Theunjacketed (no membrane) caprock sample is exposed from all sides (equilaterally) to direct contact with supercritical CO_2 (at $p = 10 \text{ MPa}$ and $T = 34^\circ\text{C}$) pressure and temperature conditions respectively. ~~and regular x-ray scans (resolution 5.38 $\mu\text{m}/\text{px}$) are performed~~ For the study of its volumetric and micro-structural response regular x-ray scans (resolution 5.38 $\mu\text{m}/\text{px}$) are performed. The water saturated sample is mounted in the PEEKcell and a first scan (00) is performed under ~~initial~~ ambient unconfined conditions. CO_2 is then introduced in the cell in direct contact with the sample. The target pressure and temperature are applied and maintained stable over a period of 56 days. ~~Then, the target pressure and temperature are applied and the sample is let to interact with the in-contact CO_2 .~~ Further scans of the sample are performed while under pressure in the PEEKcell after 13 days (scan 01), 30 days (scan 02) and 56

days (scan 03) of CO₂ exposure. ~~as well as~~ A final scan is performed after the release of pressure and temperature (scan 04 at 56 days).

4.1 Volumetric response

The 3D volumetric response of the caprock material under the above mentioned conditions ~~are is~~ evaluated and quantified by means of DVC analysis. As explained earlier, to properly compare and analyse the acquired images, the occasional rigid-body transformation (translation and rotation) is removed so that the images are well aligned, as shown in the left column of Fig. 7. The middle vertical slice of the tested sample reveals the pre-existence of 3 principal **horizontal** fissures parallel to each other and parallel to the bedding orientation of the sample, i.e. perpendicular to the vertical axis of the sample. These micro-fissures ~~of with an initial max. maximum~~ aperture of $\approx 30 \mu\text{m}$ may have been induced during sample preparation and/or during resaturation under free swelling conditions. Their existence is not necessarily an issue for the given study. ~~On the contrary they can provide important insight into the impact of their presence upon interaction with CO₂. For instance, an increasing opening of the bottom fissure can be observed in time, directly from the x-ray slices in Fig. 7 (left). Moreover, the creation and propagation of additional new micro-fissures at the bottom of the sample can be observed with time, as highlighted in the same slices. Looking more closely at the microstructure of the middle slice in Fig. 7 an increase of the bottom principal pre-existing fissure can be observed, as well as the creation and propagation of additional new micro-fissures at the bottom of the sample; between the bottom left inclusion structure and the lower principal fissure.~~

For a more quantitative analysis of the localised response of the sample, the volumetric strain is calculated in 3D between each scan and the initial state of the sample (scan 00) that is used as reference. For the DVC analysis, the chosen parameters (half window size, node spacing etc.) are detailed with the additional provided data online. The map of the calculated volumetric strain of ~~each the middle vertical scan slices is~~ presented on the right column of Fig. 7. ~~where the corresponding middle vertical slice is shown—i~~ It must be noted that the **reported** values of measured volumetric strain, total (ϵ_{vol}) and maximum ($\epsilon_{\text{vol,max}}$), correspond to the entire 3D volume. In all scans a more pronounced expansion is measured on the location of the lowest pre-existing micro-fissure ($\epsilon_{\text{vol,max}}$). Only after 2 months of CO₂ exposure (scan 03) a slight expansive activity may be measured around

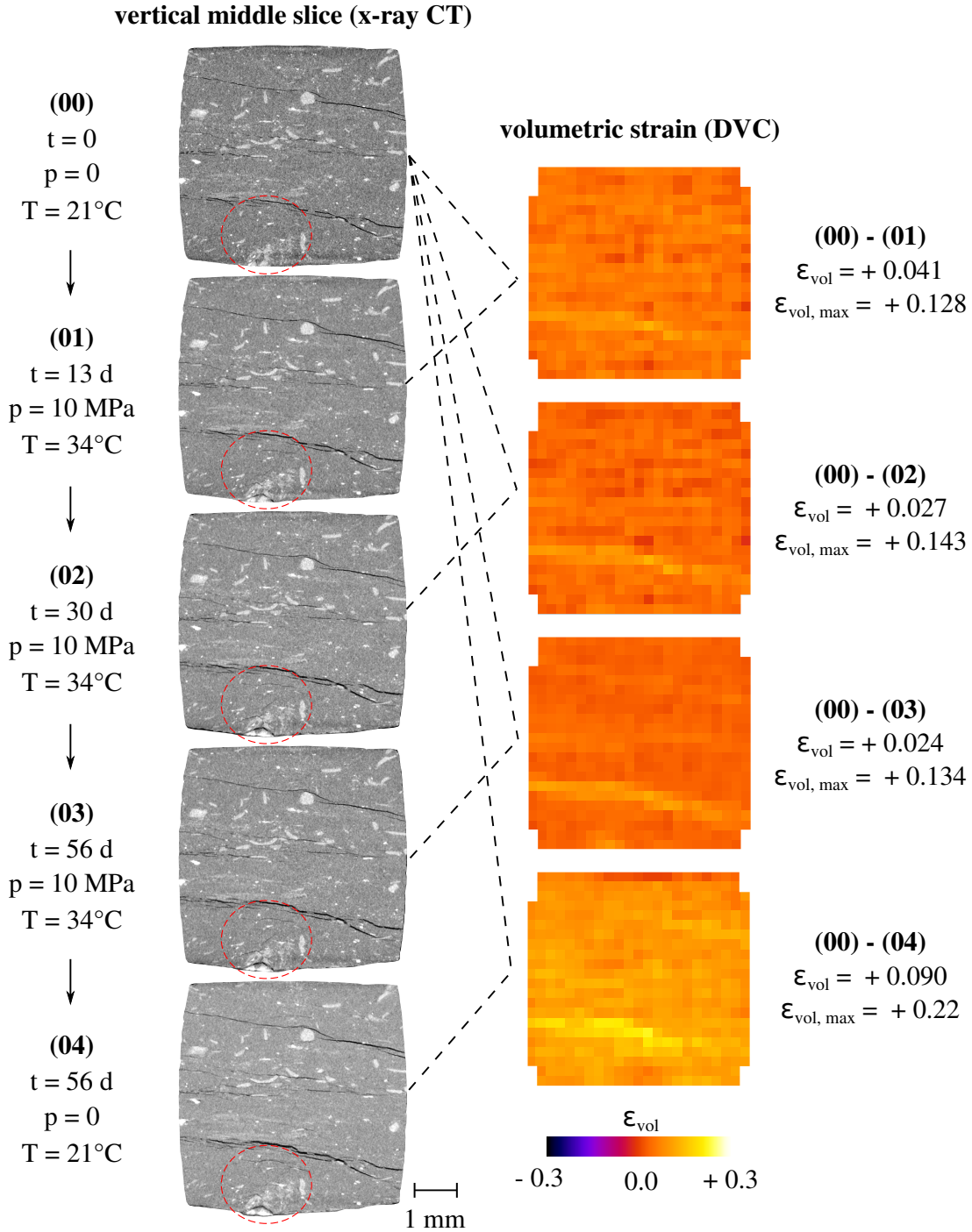


Figure 7: Volumetric response ~~of the middle vertical slice~~ of the Opalinus Clay sample in time after exposure to supercritical CO₂ – left: middle vertical slice of the x-ray CT image with highlighted in red the zone of increased cracking activity, right: corresponding map of volumetric strain from DVC analysis

the other two pre-existing ones. The overall expansive response of the sample (positive ϵ_{vol}) is clearly dominated by the expansion of the fissures. ~~that remains mostly constant in time. For the rest of the material it is hard to observe a clear pattern, nevertheless~~ A distinct pattern is absent in the rest of the material, but the calculated volumetric strain reveals an initial expansion ($\epsilon_{vol00-01} = + 0.041$) that in

time reduces ($\epsilon_{vol00-02} = + 0.027$) and stabilises ($\epsilon_{vol00-03} = + 0.024$). Finally, upon pressure decrease, the material expands in a more pronounced way ($\epsilon_{vol00-03} = + 0.090$), not only at the lower crack zone but everywhere in the sample due to stress relaxation. These results are discussed in detail in a following section.

The interpretation of this response is not straightforward since the sample is subjected to complex THMC boundary conditions. In theory, the application of constant pressure equilaterally and directly in contact with a fully water saturated sample is not supposed to affect the applied effective stress that should remain zero. In other words, since CO_2 is injected equilaterally in theunjacketed sample, the concept of effective stress is not valid, neither is the concept of hydraulic fracturing with the increase of pore pressure as it is the same with the applied skeleton pressure. However, the presence of pre-existent fissures suggests that the sample cannot be realistically fully saturated and that matric suction must be present locally in the fissured and partially saturated zones. Upon high pressure CO_2 exposure suction breakdown occurs locally (decrease of effective stress) and the sample swells until stabilisation at full saturation — water + CO_2 . This interpretation can confirm the initial volumetric activity that eventual stabilises in time.

Local modification of the effective stress is not the only mechanism that may take place upon exposure of a shale sample to supercritical CO_2 . Temperature increase ($34^\circ C$) induces thermal expansion to the sample that can indeed justify the rather isotropic expansion measured in scan 01. Another important aspect that has been little discussed in the literature is the dessication of the material when in contact with CO_2 . Indeed, the pore water of the material evaporates in the anhydrous CO_2 resulting desaturation which can result to further crack opening (expansion) and pore collapse in the clay matrix. This dessication effect could explain the lower volumetric expansion in time until eventual equilibrium. This little discussed interaction can occur in real field conditions at the bottom of the caprock formation in contact with the buoyant CO_2 , leading to partial desaturation of the caprock and threaten its mechanical integrity and sealing capacity.

To better understand the impact of the afore mentioned coupled THM mechanisms, the evolution of the fissures volume in the different scans is presented in Fig. 8. For their calculation, the same GV threshold has been used for all the normalised scans. Once again, segmentation of shale images is a difficult exercise, the optimisation of which is out of the scope of this study. The obtained results are

considered sufficient to demonstrate the overall behaviour of the material. While the volumetric increase of the pre-existing fissures has already been identified from the calculated volumetric maps of the entire sample, Fig. 8 clearly demonstrates the creation and propagation of a new family of fissures at the bottom of the sample. These new fissures demonstrate in a very clear way the dessication effect of anhydrous CO₂ explained above. Additional chemo-mechanical mechanisms may contribute to the initiation of these micro-fissures that are impressively localised in a calcite-rich area at the bottom of the sample (see x-ray images in Fig. 8). Eventual dissolution aspects are hard to interpret since preferential fissuring patterns in calcite-rich zones may primarily be due to increased porosity between the calcite and the clay mineral interface (as shown in Fig. 6).

4.2 CO₂ uptake

The visualisation and quantification of CO₂ penetration in the material is presented in this part, based on analysis of the GV evolution of the x-ray images after correction for volumetric strain (Stavropoulou et al., 2020). After the in-depth analysis of the microstructural response of the caprock material during direct contact with supercritical CO₂, an attempt to visualise and quantify the CO₂ penetration in the material is attempted in this part of the study. The analysis is based on the evolution of the x-ray images GVs after correction due to volumetric strain as per Stavropoulou et al., (2020). This approach is quite ambitious challenging in the context of CO₂ uptake, since the density variations due to supercritical CO₂ invasion are very slight (unlike the case of a denser fluid). This is why normalisation of the images' GVs is imperative for this kind of analysis (see Appendix).

Taking into account the measured strain field from the DVC analysis, the variation of the x-ray attenuation coefficient (μ_x) in time is corrected and measured. Volumetric strain results in density variation (and therefore μ_x variation) that is manifested in the GVs level of the deformed image via a linear relationship. A simple example to better understand this reasoning is the case of thermal expansion with no mass transfer, where the density of the material is expected to reduce, and consequently the attenuation field μ_x or GVs to decrease proportionally to the change in density. Any additional GV variation is therefore assumed to be due to additional mass transfer (gain or loss); in this work due to CO₂ uptake. According to Stavropoulou et al., (2020), the attenuation variation of a sample is calculated as a function of the mechanical volumetric strain assuming mass conservation:

$$\Delta\mu = -\varepsilon_v \cdot \mu_0 \quad (2)$$

where ε_v is the measured volumetric strain of the sample and μ_0 is the initial attenuation of the image (before loading).

In order to measure the additional changes of GVs due to mass transfer, the calculated strain field is applied on the reference image (scan 00), while taking into account the corresponding GV correction. Then, simple subtraction of the deformed image (with corrected GVs due to volumetric variation) from the corresponding original image (e.g. 01 minus 00-def to 01) results in the uptake or loss of mass. The result of this analysis is presented in Fig. 8, where the chosen colourbar represents density (in terms of GV) increase (red) or decrease (blue).

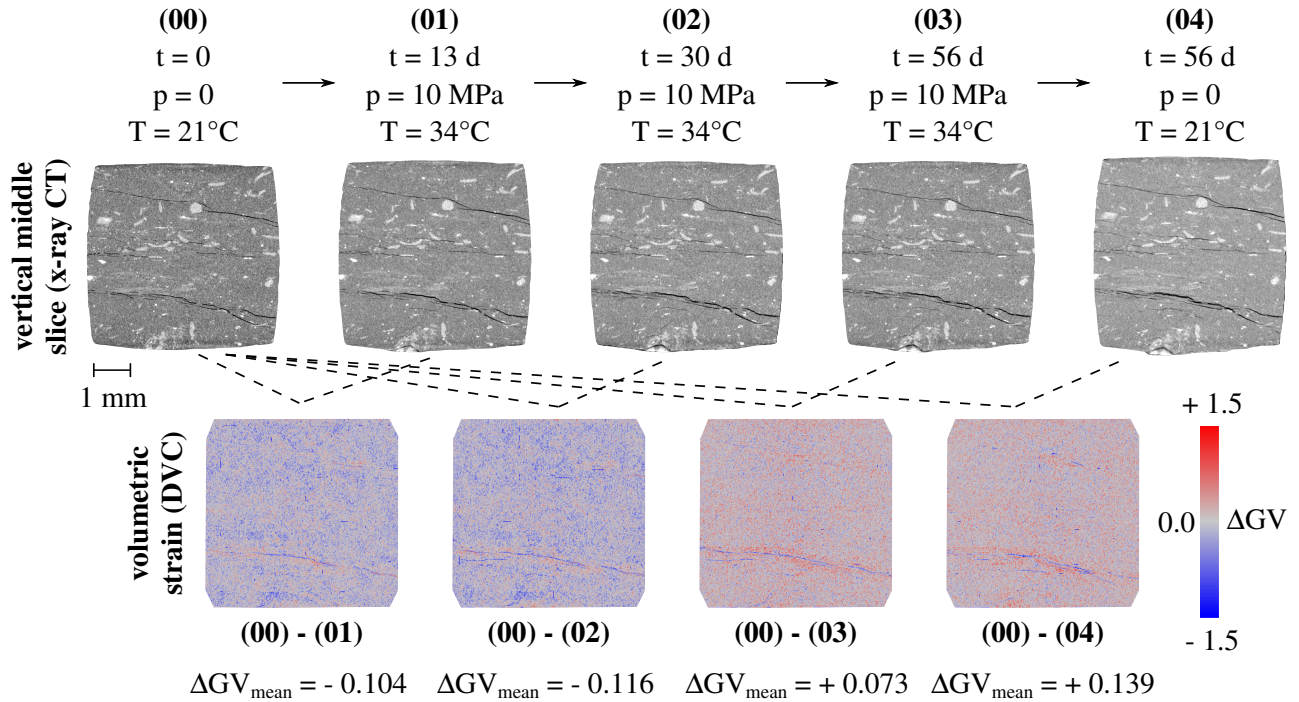


Figure 8: Fields of the grey value changes of the caprock material in time after removing the changes due to volumetric strain – the chosen colourbar represents density (in terms of GV) increase (red) or decrease (blue)

The maps of the GV variation are presented in Fig. 8. show a density decrease overall during the first month of exposure (00-01 and 00-02). A density decrease is observed overall during the first month of exposure (00-01 and 00-02). This response can be supported by the desaturation discussed

earlier; in fact, invasion of anhydrous CO₂ in the material partially occurs through water evaporation, therefore the material is filled up with a fluid of lower density. While Even though these results are somewhat noisy, for precise conclusions, nevertheless a more pronounced ~~density decrease~~ density decrease is obtained , during the first month at the lower part of the sample where ~~crack initiation~~ crack initiation occurs. On the other hand, around the zones of the ~~pre-existing fissures~~ pre-existing fissures a ~~density increase~~ density increase is measured; In this case the ~~non-saturated~~ zones around the fissures ~~might have been~~ are possibly filled in with CO₂. It has to be noted that this approach is even less accurate around ~~in~~ the crack locations. This is because the obtained fields are the result of the subtraction between the initial least fissured image (00) with a future deformed image (e.g. 02) that has more fissures. ~~—t~~ The application of the calculated deformation field on 00 cannot create these new fissures, ~~this is why directly on the fissures the density will be always decreasing (blue) and therefore, the density will always be decreased in the direct vicinity of the fissures (blue).~~

Two months after CO₂ exposure, the overall density of the material ~~eventually increases in a relatively homogeneous way~~ increases homogeneously, if not ~~with~~ more noticeably around the lower pre-existing fissure. It is interesting to notice that between scans 02 and 03 the volumetric activity that was measured is almost negligible. This density increase under constant volume reveals the saturation of the material with CO₂. ~~Indeed, u~~ Unlike the previous two fields, here the material seems to be in equilibrium indicating that CO₂ has invaded it in its entity. Final CO₂ pressure release (00-04) leaves the sample with an overall increased density, in particular at the zones around the fissures and at the bottom. This final result may indicate chemo-mechanical or CO₂ trapping phenomena that occurred during the two months exposure. The different results are discussed in the following section. ~~This is a first attempt to visualise CO₂ invasion in a caprock material and even though it is quantitative in terms of GV levels, their physical interpretation in terms of e.g. actual CO₂ volume increase or water decrease requires further studies and measurement for the calibration of the different phases' GV's.~~

5 Discussion

5.1 Long-term CO₂ exposure

Long-duration exposure of Opalinus Clay to CO₂ showed micro-structural modifications, both in the clay matrix and the carbonate zones in the material. When CO₂ is placed in contact with the pore water of the shaly caprock material, it results in acidification of the pore fluid – by means of diffusion – and therefore in alteration of the chemical equilibrium. For instance, pre-existing carbonate crystals might be dissolved by the acidic fluid and enhance the transport properties of the material (Busch et al., 2008; Espinoza et al., 2011; Jia et al., 2018).

In this study, the identified cracks in the calcite zones of Opalinus Clay after long-term interaction with CO₂ are associated to dissolution effects. Even though calcite dissolution has not been previously observed to result in fissuring, the fissures in the calcite zones of the material reveal a localised activity within these zones. Calcite dissolution in shales is mainly identified indirectly by post-mortem analysis either of injected fluids or solid samples. In this work, the visualisation of large calcite inclusions allow the observation of micro-structural modifications that occur locally, within the area of interest (i.e. the calcite zones). Possible desaturation of the sample is not likely to explain the creation of these localised fissures, since dessication cracks in shales appear mainly within the clay matrix or at the interface of the clay matrix with other inclusions (calcite, pyrite etc.). Fissuring in the clay matrix is however not observed even after total pressure release (unconfined conditions). On the contrary, the number of pre-existing fissures initially in the sample is reduced. This is additionally ensuring for the potential impact of progressive pressure loss during these 9 months of exposure. Pressure loss may result in desaturation and fissuring of the sample (usually parallel to the bedding orientation) that have not been observed at the given resolution of this study.

Fissure closure can be explained by means of hydromechanical self-sealing behaviour of the material under long-term confinement. The self-sealing response of shales is one of the main properties for which this material is studied as a potential sealing material in a broader context of underground storage, such as radioactive waste, CO₂ or hydrogen storage (Bossart et al., 2019; Di Donna et al., 2022, Yu et al., 2022). Hou et al., (2022) discussed the self-sealing response of caprock materials in terms of mineral precipitation. They showed that in illite-rich shale precipitation took place in quartz,

553 i.e. Si-rich zones. In the current study, Si-rich zones are unfortunately not distinguishable from the ei-
554 ther SEM or x-ray images. Prakash et al., (2022) pointed out a more pronounced precipitation activity
555 in zones parallel to the direction of the bedding plane. This is in line with the identified orientation of
556 fissures in the sample before and after confinement and CO₂ exposure. The pre-existing fissures that
557 were parallel to the bedding orientation disappear, and the fewer fissures after long-term confinement
558 and CO₂ exposure are in their majority no longer parallel to the bedding. Other works have shown that
559 incorporation of supercritical CO₂ in micro-structural interlayers can induce the beneficial swelling
560 of smectitic clays (Alemu et al., 2011; Busch et al., 2016). This aspect is discussed in more detail in
561 the following section, in association to the measured volumetric response of the material.

562 Finally, it is not clear whether these new fissures are the result of further chemical reactions due
563 to alteration of the pore fluid's pH, or whether they are related to mechanical impact from previ-
564 ous CO₂ breakthrough (see 3D volumetric response after breakthrough in Stavropoulou and Laloui,
565 2022). In either case, this result points out a potential rearrangement of the fissure network after
566 long-term CO₂ exposure that has not been previously discussed. Most importantly, these results on
567 the micro-structural modifications show how little we still know regarding the coupled long-term
568 THMC response of the caprock/CO₂ interaction at the micro-scale and their implications to the large
569 scale response. Longer-duration testing under realistic boundary conditions are required for a better
570 understanding of the complex mechanisms that occur.

571 **5.2 THMC response**

572 The volumetric response of Opalinus Clay to direct equilateral exposure of supercritical CO₂ pre-
573 sented an increased activity around the zones of the three pre-existing micro-fissures. First, an overall
574 volumetric expansion was measured (scan 01) resulting from the temperature increase for the appli-
575 cation of supercritical conditions, i.e. from ambient 25°C to 34°C. This initial expansion may be
576 additionally related to smectite swelling upon exposure to supercritical CO₂ (Busch et al., 2016).
577 Expansion was then followed by compaction until stabilisation of the volumetric strain in time, with
578 some elevated values around the bottom fissure and the bottom of the sample.

579 The interpretation of this response is not straightforward since the sample is subjected to complex
580 THMC boundary conditions. In theory, the application of constant pressure equilaterally and directly

581 in contact with a water saturated sample is not supposed to affect the applied effective stress that
582 should remain zero. In other words, since CO₂ is provided equilaterally on theunjacketed sample,
583 the concept of effective stress is not valid, neither is the concept of hydraulic fracturing with the in-
584 crease of pore pressure, as it is the same with the applied skeleton pressure. However, the presence of
585 pre-existing fissures suggests that the sample is in reality not fully saturated and that matric suction
586 (negative pore pressure) must be present locally in the fissured and partially saturated zones. Upon
587 introduction of high pressure CO₂, suction breakdown occurs locally (decrease of effective stress)
588 and the sample swells until stabilisation at full saturation – water + CO₂. This hydromechanical
589 interpretation can confirm the initial volumetric activity that eventually stabilises in time. Zhang et
590 al. (2018) have previously addressed evolution of the axial effective stress of partially water saturated
591 montmorillonite upon injection of supercritical CO₂ (10 MPa and 44°). They evaluated the swelling
592 stresses of the material under different levels of confinement and attributed them to expansive smec-
593 tite response. Otherwise, smectite swelling has been mostly observed under unconfined conditions
594 (Schaefer et al., 2012; De Jong et al., 2014; Michels et al. 2015). In this study, the boundary conditions
595 are different but closer to unconfined conditions, with zero effective stress globally but not necessarily
596 locally.

597 Another important aspect that has been discussed little in the literature is the dessication of the
598 material when in contact with CO₂ (Espinoza and Santamarina, 2010; Miri and Hellevang, 2016; Cui
599 et al. 2021). The pore water of the material evaporates in the anhydrous CO₂ resulting desaturation
600 which can result to further crack opening (expansion) and pore collapse in the clay matrix. Dessication
601 could explain the lower volumetric expansion in time until eventual equilibrium. This little discussed
602 interaction can occur in real field conditions at the bottom of the caprock formation in contact with
603 the buoyant CO₂, leading to partial desaturation of the caprock and threaten its mechanical integrity
604 and sealing capacity.

605 To better understand the impact of the afore mentioned coupled THM mechanisms, the volumetric
606 evolution of the fissures in the different scans is calculated and presented in Fig. 9. For this calculation,
607 the same GV threshold has been used for all the normalised scans. Whereas the volumetric increase
608 of the pre-existing fissures has already been identified from the calculated volumetric maps of the
609 entire sample, Fig. 9 reveals the creation and propagation of a new family of fissures at the bottom of

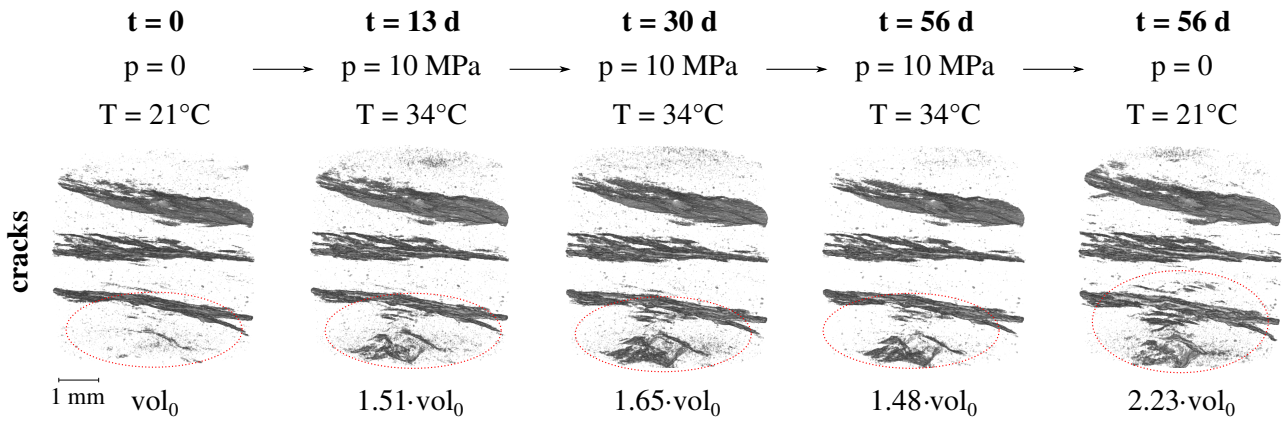


Figure 9: Evolution of pre-existing fissures and appearance of new ones (encircled zones) after direct exposure to supercritical CO₂ (illustration in 3D)

the sample. These new fissures demonstrate in a clear way the dessication effect of anhydrous CO₂ explained above. Additional chemo-mechanical mechanisms (such as dissolution) may contribute to the initiation of these micro-fissures that are noticeably localised in a calcite-rich area at the bottom of the sample (see x-ray images in Fig. 7). Eventual dissolution aspects are hard to interpret since preferential fissuring patterns in calcite-rich zones may be due to the increased porosity between the calcite interfaces and the clay mineral interface (as shown in Fig. 6).

Phenomena related to pore fluid alteration, e.g. water evaporation in the anhydrous CO₂, alteration of the pore fluid pH due to CO₂ diffusion or eventual invasion of CO₂ in the material, have been addressed by measuring the evolution of the density (GV) of the material in time while accounting for the corresponding volumetric strain. The density decrease that is observed overall during the first month of exposure (see Fig. 8 00-01 and 00-02) can be explained by the desaturation of the sample discussed earlier. Invasion of anhydrous CO₂ in the material partially occurs through water evaporation, therefore the material is filled up with a fluid of lower density. The following density increase, can be attributed to both pore fluid changes and CO₂ uptake in the material. Geochemical interactions between the invading supercritical CO₂ and the solid matrix of the material cannot be easily argued from the obtained results. For example, potential swelling of smectite has already been accounted and corrected in the given density maps and all density changes are related to mass-related changes (uptake or loss). This is a first attempt to visualise CO₂ invasion in a caprock material and even though it is quantitative in terms of GV levels, the physical interpretation in terms of e.g. actual CO₂ volume increase or water decrease requires further studies and measurement for the calibration

630 of GVs of the different phases.

631 **5.3 Implications for geological CO₂ storage**

632 In this work, a series of coupled phenomena that take place in a shaly caprock material have been
633 addressed and discussed based on qualitative and quantitative measurements of 3D x-ray tomog-
634 raphy images. The various THMC mechanisms that have been demonstrated, are related to some
635 extent to the equivalent testing conditions: stress state, CO₂ pressure and time exposure, water satu-
636 ration/dessication, mineral dissolution and precipitation. However, field conditions are different than
637 these testing conditions. For instance, the levels of effective stress in a CO₂ storage site are much
638 higher, in the order of 10 to 20 MPa (depending on the storage depth). Consequently, the stress state
639 of the material has an impact on the appearance of fissures. The fissures in the calcite-rich zones of
640 the material have been visualised in an unconfined sample state (scan taken after pressure release).
641 Similarly, dessication fissures due to water evaporation in the invading anhydrous CO₂ might not
642 manifest (at the given resolution) under elevated levels of effective stress. However, drying of the
643 caprock due to interaction with undissolved CO₂, is a phenomenon that might take place at the in-
644 terface between the reservoir and the caprock due to the buoyant tendency of CO₂. Dessication of
645 the caprock can have implications that can threaten the caprock integrity and sealing capacity, for
646 example, facilitate CO₂ breakthrough. The exact CO₂ breakthrough pathway in the caprock is not
647 easy to predict because of the high micro-structural heterogeneity of the material. The connected
648 pore space (including fissures) is supposed to drive flow and breakthrough phenomena, however, the
649 different competing mechanisms (e.g. dessication, local effective stress modification) may result in
650 the collapse of initially conductive pathways and the creation of new ones. There has been previous
651 evidence of such phenomena in gas migration tests (Harrington et al. 2012; Cuss et al., 2014). The
652 results of this study and their interpretation, demonstrate the importance of considering the different
653 localised effects for a better understanding of the long-term response of shales in the context of geo-
654 logical CO₂ storage. Macroscopic or averaged measurements and observations that do not take into
655 account the micro-structural heterogeneity of shales, are limited for the development representative
656 constitutive and numerical models.

6 Conclusions

In this work the interaction between the Opalinus Clay, a caprock representative material, with CO₂ is studied with x-ray tomography imaging. The different results and observations reveal the complex response of this material due to multiple coupled phenomena that occur in parallel. Exposure to supercritical CO₂ implies temperature increase of the material that results in thermal expansion (TM coupling). This expansion leads to inevitable desaturation of the material (TH coupling). At the same time, the live observation of the caprock material in time revealed another important aspect when anhydrous CO₂ is in contact with the water saturated sample. The pore water evaporates in the anhydrous CO₂ causing further dessication of the material that starts fissuring. Fissures, whether pre-existing in the material or new ones, play an important role on the CO₂/caprock interaction. They drive most of the volumetric and hydraulic phenomena: swelling, desaturation, uptake, breakthrough. In the field, fissures in the caprock formation could found around the injection wellbore or fault zones, but their impact is still not well understood, in particular under realistic field conditions.

The long-term impact of CO₂ on the micro-structure of the a shaly material (the Opalinus Clay) is for the first time visualised with x-ray tomography on a solid sample and under non-extreme temperature and pressure conditions (< 40°C and 10 MPa respectively). Fissuring of calcite-rich zones after 9 months of CO₂ exposure is associated to dissolution-related effects (CM coupling). Calcite dissolution is identified in carbonate-rich zones that after 9 months of exposure they were fissured (CM coupling). The mineralogical composition of these denser inclusions in the x-ray images has been confirmed from SEM-EDX measurements. Segmentation and labelling of the inclusions before and after long-duration CO₂ exposure confirmed an increased number of inclusions due to breakage (dissolution) fissuring, the mean orientation of which did not significantly evolve. A similar analysis has been made on the fissure network in the clay matrix of the sample before and after long-term exposure. The principal crack orientation in the sample is initially parallel to the bedding orientation of the shaly material. These fissures close with the application of confinement as shown in (Stavropoulou and Laloui, (2022) but very interestingly they do not re-appear 9 months later, after pressure release. This result demonstrates the self-sealing response of Opalinus Clay that can be attributed to a series of mechanisms: long-term hydromechanical loading (HM coupling), expansive smectitic response, mineral precipitation of Si-rich zones (CM couplings). In addition to the closure of pre-existing fis-

686 sures, the ~~9-months~~ x-ray scan after 9 months revealed the appearance of ~~some~~ new micro-fissures
687 in the clay matrix (other than the fissures in the calcite zones), surprisingly in a perpendicular direc-
688 tion to the bedding. This aspect of potential re-arrangement of the fissure network of the material
689 is demonstrated for the first time and could be ~~due related~~ to additional chemo-mechanical mech-
690 anisms within the clay matrix or related to CO₂ breakthrough that due to self-sealing of the initial
691 micro-fissures initiated a new optimal pathway throughout the sample. ~~The preferential pathway of~~
692 ~~CO₂ breakthrough is not yet well understood in such heterogeneous microstructures and may induce~~
693 ~~fissuring of different orientation than the in-situ bedding.~~

694 Finally, the CO₂ uptake in the caprock material has been investigated by combining the calculated
695 strain fields and the GV variation of the acquired x-ray images. CO₂ penetration in the sample has
696 been identified two months after initial exposure. It is hard to interpret the multi-phase fluid interac-
697 tion in the porous space of the material prior to two months due to the multiple THMC phenomena
698 that take place simultaneously and often counteract each other. It is ~~interesting-to-note~~ significant that
699 after CO₂ release the density of the sample remained increased compared to the initial two months
700 earlier, revealing potential CO₂ trapping in the material.

701 Figure 10 ~~sums-up~~ highlights the different coupled mechanisms that have been identified in this
702 work to occur during the CO₂/caprock interaction. These topics require undoubtedly further investiga-
703 tion with long-term experiments under continuously monitored conditions. Analysis of the response
704 using a non-destructive tool, i.e. x-ray tomography allows the 3D study of the material ~~locally, in~~
705 ~~zones where the different phenomena are prone to occur while-under-realistic-conditions.~~ For in-
706 stance, the evolution of calcite inclusions within the sample or sealing of pre-existing fissures in the
707 clay matrix are visualised and quantified locally in the sample, unlike previous studies where such
708 interactions have been discussed from more macroscopic/averaged results. The study of small shale
709 samples has significantly contributed to the better understanding of the various coupled phenomena,;
710 first by achieving better time resolutions, ~~under non-extreme temperature and pressure conditions,~~
711 and then by studying the ~~material's~~ response of the material under high spatial resolutions in 3D ~~that~~
712 ~~revealed, revealing~~ mechanisms previously undetectable with conventional testing methods and reso-
713 lutions. These phenomena include the volumetric reponse and water evaporation during exposure to
714 supercritical CO₂, the localised chemo-mechanical interactions in calcite-rich zones, the CO₂ uptake

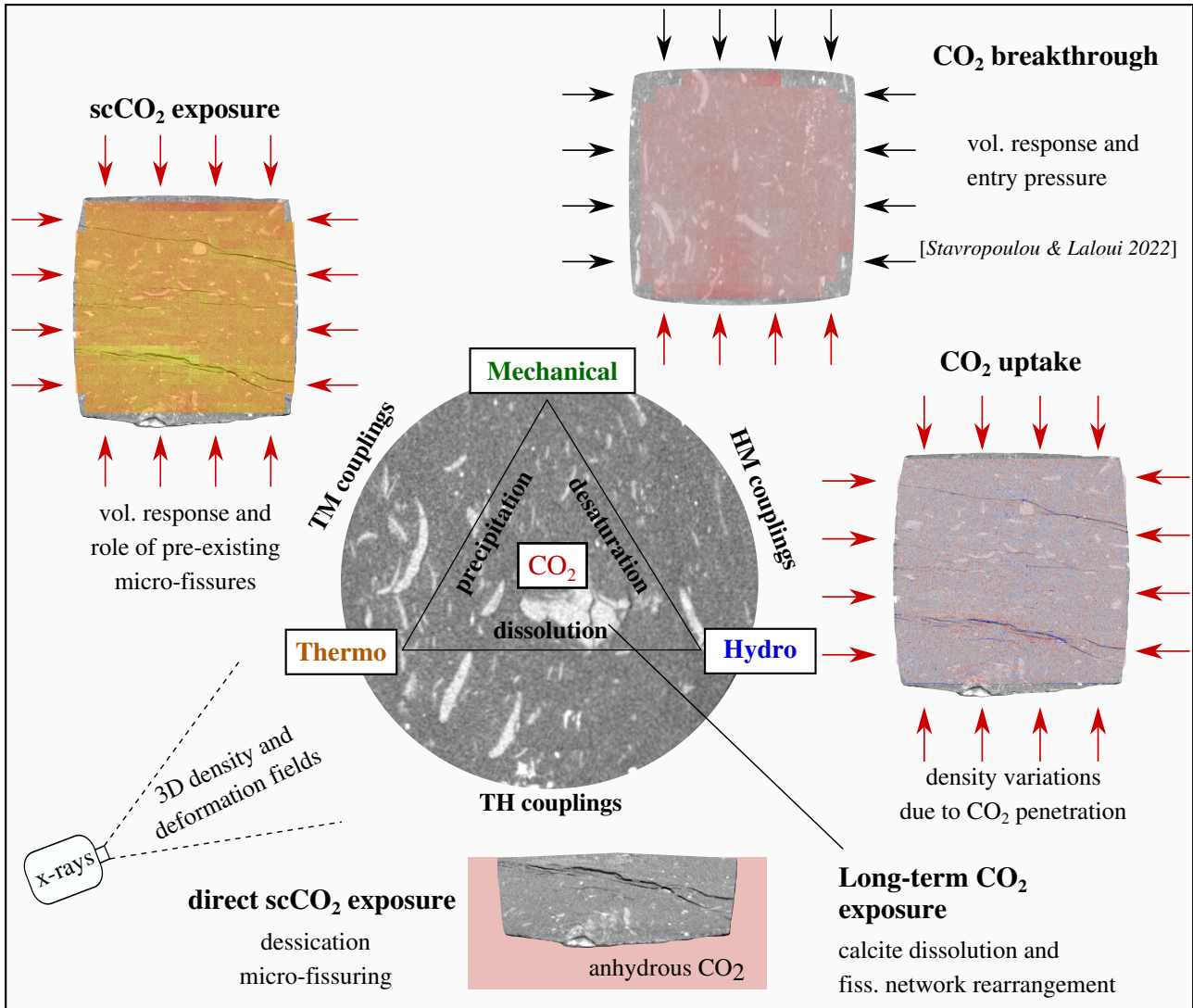


Figure 10: Coupled THMC mechanisms studied with in situ x-ray imaging on small size shale samples

and the role of micro-fissures in the material, and the volumetric response upon CO₂ breakthrough.

7 Data availability

The 3D x-ray images that have been used in this paper are provided online in Zenodo [link TBC].

Additional data or results can be provided by the Authors upon reasonable request.

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722 well as the Mont Terri laboratory and SwissTopo for providing the tested Opalinus Clay material.

723 Appendix A: Normalisation of x-ray tomographies

724 For the analysis of the attenuation evolution of the images, the different scans are normalised using
 725 always as reference scan 00. The objective of this normalisation is to set to zero the voxels that
 726 correspond to void in order to be able to more reliably detect density variations. The normalisation
 727 is performed considering the parts of the image that are not supposed to vary in density with time;
 728 **i.e.** PEEK and Aluminium. Since the void attenuation is changing with the introduction of CO₂, the
 729 ratio of the greyvalues (GV) between Aluminium, PEEK and air is considered constant as shown in
 730 Fig. A1.

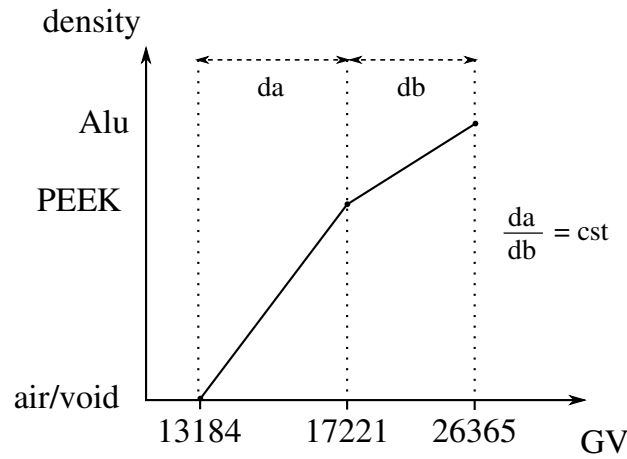
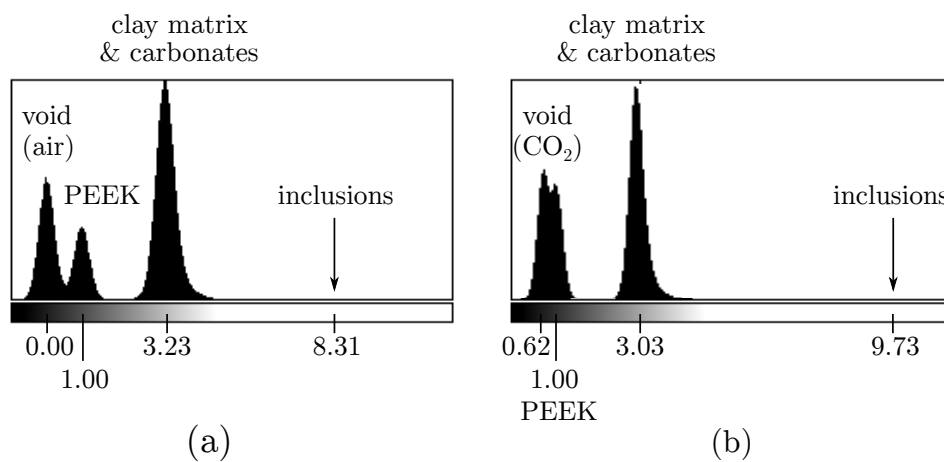


Figure A1: Measured greyvalues as a function of corresponding density in scan 00

GV (32b)	Void	PEEK	Aluminium	da	db	da/db
00	13184 (832)	17221 (833)	26365 (900)	4037	9144	0.44149
01	13113	17195 (841)	26442 (910)	4082	9247	0.44149
02	13191	17237 (839)	26403 (907)	4046	9166	0.44149
03	13450	17330 (613)	26119 (693)	3880	8789	0.44149
04	13445	17287 (602)	25990 (699)	3842	8703	0.44149

Table A1: Measured (normal font) and calculated (bold font) mean greyvalues (and standard deviation/error in the parenthesis) of the parts of the scan that are not expected to vary in density with time for the normalisation of the images

731 This ratio is calculated from the reference scan 00 (first row of Table A1) and considered constant
 732 in order to deduce the air greyvalue of the rest of the scans. The computed GV of air (first column
 733 of Table A1) is then subtracted from each scan, which is then divided by the corresponding PEEK
 734 value so that PEEK average value is 1 for the sake of simplicity. The histogram of scan 00 after
 735 normalisation is shown in Fig. A2-a, while the histogram after CO₂ introduction (scan 003) is changed
 736 to that in Fig. A2-b. The GV normalisation of the different scans can improve the volumetric analysis
 737 (DVC) and it is indispensable for the detection of density variations.



A2: Greyvalues histogram of normalised (a) scan 00 (no CO₂) and (b) scan 01 (with CO₂)

738 Appendix B: Segmentation of the x-ray images

739 The different steps for the segmentation for the different types of phases are illustrated in Fig. B1.
 740 First, a bilateral filter is applied on the original image in order to smoothen the zones of similar
 741 phases and sharpen the edges between different phases (Fig. B1-a).

742 The distributions of the GV levels before and after the application of this filter are plotted in
 743 Fig. B2. ~~a more narrow~~ A narrower distribution is obtained after the bilateral filter, providing more
 744 precision for the selection of each GV range for the segmentation of the different phases. The resulted
 745 segmented slices of the inclusions and the micro-fissures after the application of a threshold GV range
 746 are shown in Fig. B1-b and c, respectively. In the case of the inclusions, a double cycle of dilation
 747 and erosion of the binary image has been applied in order to reduce noise. This is not possible for a
 748 further noise reduction of the noise of the fissures segmented image due to their 1 pixel thickness.

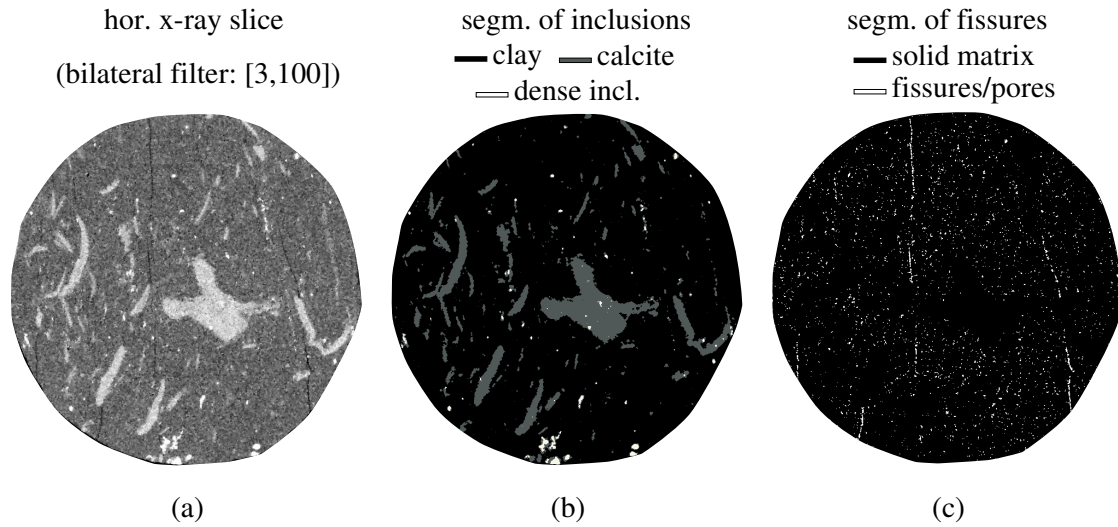
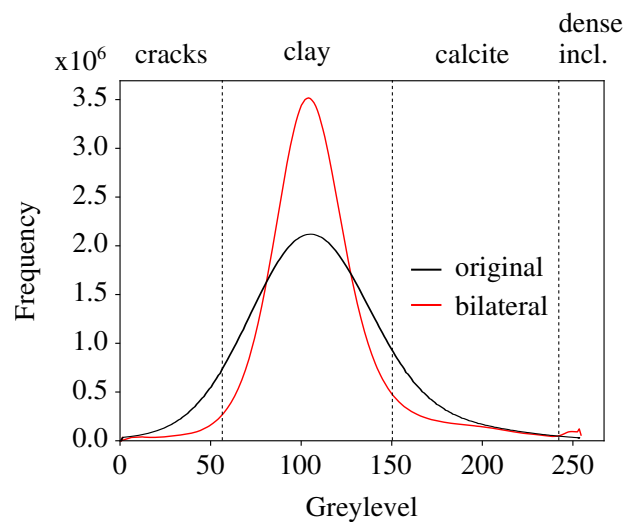


Figure B1: Horizontal slices after the (a) application of a bilateral filter, (b) segmentation of the two types of inclusions (calcite and denser inclusions), (c) micro-fissures



B2: Greyvalues histogram of the original horizontal x-ray slice and after the application of bilateral filter of Fig. B2 (a)

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