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1 **A fractal model for effective excess charge density in**
2 **variably saturated fractured rocks**

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7 **Key Points:**

- 8 • A conceptual model is proposed to describe effective excess charge density in frac-
9 tured media
10 • The model is based on physical principles and a fractal description of fracture net-
11 works
12 • Model expressions in terms of hydraulic variables are identical to those obtained
13 for classic porous media

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Abstract

Estimating hydraulic properties and monitoring water flow in fractured rocks using self-potential observations essentially relies on our ability to model streaming potential. One of the most promising approaches for modelling electrokinetic couplings is based on the macroscopic quantification of the excess charge which is effectively transported by pore water flow. In this study, we derive a fractal model to predict the effective excess charge density for fully and partially water saturated fractured media. Fractures are conceptualized as parallel plates with a fractal pattern described by the Sierpinski carpet. From the calculation of the excess charge in a single fracture and a flux averaging upscaling procedure, we obtain closed-form expressions for the effective excess charge density. This new analytical model explicitly depends on the fracture water ionic concentration, interface properties, water saturation, porosity and permeability. Model predictions under saturated conditions are compared to published data measured in laboratory during hydraulic fracturing. The model development also shows the independence of the excess charge from the pore shapes: when expressed in terms of hydrological parameters, one can find an expression identical to recently published models for sedimentary porous media using capillary tubes. These results extend the validity of the existing models to fractured rocks and highlight the importance of hydraulic parameters for an accurate modelling of electrokinetic couplings.

Plain Language Summary

Groundwater flow in fractured rocks can be indirectly monitored by measuring the electrical potential distribution in the medium or at its surface. The water flow within each fracture drags electrical charges that produce variations in the electrical field. Then, to quantitatively study the water flow from self-potential measurements, we need a theoretical model that links the hydraulic and electrical properties of fractured rocks. In this study, we present a theoretical development of a key parameter called the effective excess charge density. It quantifies the electrical potential generated by water flow. To calculate this parameter, we assume a fracture network with a fractal distribution, that is, a pattern of fractures that repeats itself at different spatial scales. From the description of the drag of electrical charges in a single fracture we estimate a value of the effective excess charge density which is representative of the whole fractured rock. The model results in rather simple mathematical expressions depending on the chemical composition of water, solid-water interface properties, porosity, degree of saturation, and permeability of the rock. To validate the proposed model, our theoretical predictions are compared with experimental laboratory data. This new model opens-up possibilities of using self-potential data for monitoring complex processes like hydraulic fracturing.

1 Introduction

Fractured rocks are a particular type of porous media usually composed of an impermeable or low-permeable matrix with a network of interconnected fractures. Hydraulic characterization of this type of rocks is of interest for a wide range of problems, including groundwater contamination, hydraulic fracturing, CO₂ sequestration and nuclear waste storage (e.g., Medici et al., 2019; Osipov, 2017; Ren et al., 2017; Bodvarsson et al., 1999). Few geophysical techniques can provide non-invasive means to study the water flow in fractured media but they are mostly still under development. These techniques include the analysis of seismic attenuation produced by wave-induced fluid flow and associated seismoelectrical signals (e.g., Rubino et al., 2013; Jougnot et al., 2013; Rosas-Carbajal et al., 2020), ground penetrating radar (e.g., Shakas et al., 2018), electrical resistivity tomography (e.g., Roubinet & Irving, 2014; Demirel et al., 2018), and the self-potential method (e.g., Roubinet et al., 2016; Jougnot et al., 2020).

63 The streaming potential is the contribution of the self-potential signal that is gen-
 64 erated by fluid flow. One of the first experimental evidences of the electrokinetic poten-
 65 tial generated in fractured rocks is associated with earthquakes. Anomalous variations
 66 of self potential have been observed prior to the occurrence of earthquakes (Sobolev, 1975;
 67 Corwin & Morrison, 1977). Mizutani et al. (1976) proposed an electrokinetic mechanism
 68 for these variations induced by diffusion of groundwater into the dilatant focal region.
 69 Then, Yoshida et al. (1998) provided strong evidences of an electrokinetic origin by demon-
 70 strating that self-potential markedly changes prior to rupture in saturated basalt spec-
 71 imens, whereas no signal is detected in dry basalts. More recently, researches have shown
 72 the interest of in situ streaming potential to detect flow in fractured groundwater reser-
 73 vairs (e.g., Fagerlund & Heinson, 2003; Mainault et al., 2013), identify the orientation
 74 of hydraulically active fracture (Wishart et al., 2006, 2008; Roubinet et al., 2016), or to
 75 localize water leakage resulting from hydraulic fracturing (Revil et al., 2015).

76 The aim of this study is to develop a fractal-based model to describe the electroki-
 77 netic coupling phenomena in fractured media using the effective excess charge approach
 78 (e.g., Revil & Jardani, 2013; Jougnot et al., 2020). This is a key parameter to calculate
 79 streaming potential, that is, the contribution to the self-potential signal due to the drag
 80 of electrical charge by water flow inside fractures. The fracture surfaces are usually elec-
 81 trically charged and form electrical double layer (EDL) at the solid-water interface (e.g.,
 82 Leroy & Revil, 2004). This layer contains an excess of charge in water that compensates
 83 the charge deficiency of the fracture surface. The EDL can be decomposed into the Stern
 84 and diffuse layers. The Stern layer is very thin and contains only counterions that cover
 85 the mineral surface. The diffuse layer contains an unbalanced amount of counterions with
 86 a net excess charge. The streaming current is generated by water flow inside fractures
 87 that drags a fraction of this excess charge. Following the approach originally proposed
 88 by Sill (1983) and modified by Kormiltsev et al. (1998) and Revil et al. (2007), the elec-
 89 trical potential φ (V) distribution and the Darcy velocity \mathbf{v}_D (m s^{-1}) are related through
 90 the following macroscopic equation:

$$91 \quad \nabla \cdot (\sigma \nabla \varphi) = \nabla \cdot (\hat{Q}_v \mathbf{v}_D) \quad (1)$$

92 where, \hat{Q}_v is the effective excess charge density (C m^{-3}) and σ is the electrical conduc-
 93 tivity (S m^{-1}). The streaming potential SP (V) is then the electrical potential differ-
 94 ence between the electrical potential at a given point φ_i and the one at the reference φ_{ref} :
 95 $SP = \varphi_i - \varphi_{ref}$.

96 An alternative approach to quantify the streaming potential is based on the cou-
 97 pling coefficient C_c , a petrophysical property that relates fluid pressure (P) and electri-
 98 cal potential gradients: $C_c = \Delta\varphi/\Delta P$ (Helmholtz, 1879; Smoluchowski, 1903). The cou-
 99 pling coefficient C_c (V Pa^{-1}) is related to \hat{Q}_v through the following relation (e.g., Re-
 100 vil & Leroy, 2004; Jougnot et al., 2012, 2020):

$$101 \quad C_c = -\frac{\hat{Q}_v k}{\sigma \eta} \quad (2)$$

102 where k (m^2) is the permeability of the medium and η (Pa s) the fluid dynamic viscos-
 103 ity.

104 The main assumption of the proposed electrokinetic model is that the fracture net-
 105 work has a fractal pattern. Fractal objects display self-similarity in their geometry, this
 106 means that the pattern observed in a small portion of the object is a replica of the whole
 107 at a larger scale. In nature, fractures exist over a wide range of scales, from microns to
 108 thousands of kilometers, and fractal patterns have been reported by many researchers
 109 (e.g., Bonnet et al., 2001; Okubo & Aki, 1987). In this study, the fracture pattern is de-
 110 scribed by a Sierpinski carpet, which is a plane fractal that contains a self-similar ge-
 111 ometric pattern of holes. This specific fractal pattern has been detected in fractured coal

112 samples using micro X-ray tomography (Zhou et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2019), and success-
 113 fully used to derive constitutive models for variably saturated flow in fractured rocks (e.g.,
 114 Guarracino, 2006; Monachesi & Guarracino, 2011; Wang et al., 2017).

115 The equivalent medium theory is used to estimate the effective excess charge for
 116 fractured media, following the flux-averaging approach proposed by (Jougnot et al., 2012).
 117 First, the effective excess charge in a single fracture is calculated from the spatial dis-
 118 tribution of both the excess charge in the diffuse layer and the water velocity profile. Then
 119 the effective excess charge density at the macroscopic scale \hat{Q}_v is estimated using an up-
 120 scaling procedure based on the integration of the excess charge of all network fractures.
 121 By combining this result and the hydraulic properties derived in Guarracino (2006) and
 122 Monachesi and Guarracino (2011) for the same fracture network, we obtain a closed-form
 123 expression for \hat{Q}_v in terms of permeability, porosity, saturation and electrokinetic pa-
 124 rameters. This modeling strategy has been successfully used for estimating \hat{Q}_v in clas-
 125 sical porous media described by capillary tubes (e.g., Guarracino & Jougnot, 2018; Soldi
 126 et al., 2018, 2020; Jougnot et al., 2019; Rembert et al., 2020).

127 Note that this new effective excess charge density model for fractured media is based
 128 geometric parameters (i.e., fracture aperture, length, recursion-based construction) that
 129 are fundamentally different from capillary tubes (i.e., capillary radius, pore throat). How-
 130 ever, the analytical expressions of both models become identical when expressed in terms
 131 of macroscopic hydraulic parameters (i.e., permeability, porosity and saturation). This
 132 result highlights the intrinsic importance of hydraulic characterization in the analysis
 133 of self-potential in any type of porous media. Interpretation of self-potential data in frac-
 134 tured media is often qualitative and based on a visual correlation between signal anom-
 135 alies and observed fracture orientations. This is the first analytical model that consistently
 136 describes both electrokinetic and hydraulic properties in fractured rocks and represents
 137 a step forward in the quantitative interpretation of self-potential signals.

138 2 Conceptual model

139 2.1 Description of the fractured media

140 To derive the effective excess charge density model we consider the geometrical de-
 141 scription of fractured media proposed by Guarracino (2006). The representative elemen-
 142 tary volume (REV) is assumed to be a cube of volume a^3 (see Fig. 1b). The voids of the
 143 REV are parallel and vertical fractures of length a and aperture b with a horizontal self-
 144 similar pattern described by a Sierpinski carpet (Fig. 1). The upper and lower cut-offs
 145 for the fractal behavior are defined by the largest (b_{max}) and smallest (b_{min}) apertures
 146 observed in the REV.

147 A Sierpinski carpet can be geometrically constructed by using recursive algorithms
 148 that cut out of the carpet successively smaller pieces in each recursion level (Tyler & Wheatcraft,
 149 1990; Guarracino, 2006). In this study we remove rectangular pieces of length a and aper-
 150 ture b from the carpet in order to obtain fractures with a self-similar pattern. Fig. 2 shows
 151 the first 3 levels of recursion for a network of parallel fractures assuming $a = 3$ cm and
 152 $b_{max} = 1$ cm.

153 The geometric pattern of Sierpinski carpet is characterized by the fractal dimen-
 154 sion D that can vary between 1 and 2. Assuming that the fracture network is formed
 155 by parallel fractures, the fractal dimension can be expressed in terms of the largest frac-
 156 ture aperture b_{max} (Guarracino, 2006):

$$157 \quad D = \frac{\log\left(\frac{a^2}{b_{max}^2} - \frac{a}{b_{max}}\right)}{\log\left(\frac{a}{b_{max}}\right)}. \quad (3)$$

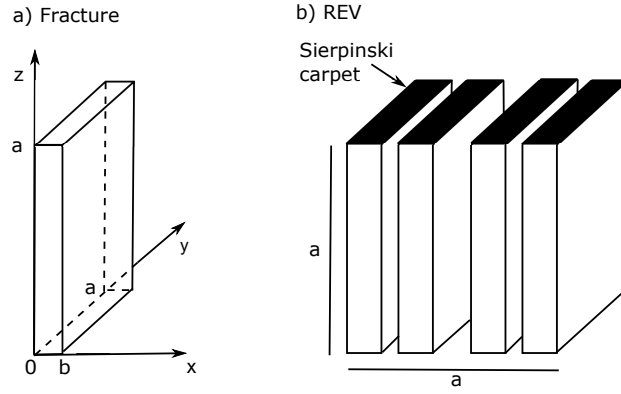


Figure 1. (a) Fracture of aperture b and length a ; (b) Representative elementary volume (REV) of the fractured medium.

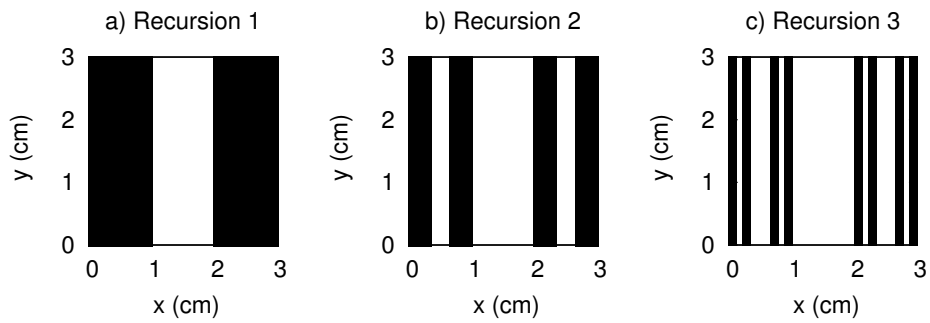


Figure 2. Fracture network generated by 3 recursion levels of a Sierpinski carpet of $D = 1.63$.

158 Note that the lower limiting value $D = 1$ corresponds to a fracture network whose max-
 159 imum aperture fills half of the REV ($b_{max} = a/2$) and the upper limiting value $D =$
 160 2 corresponds to an unfractured REV ($b_{max} = 0$). Then, fractal dimension can be used
 161 as an indicator of the fracturation degree of the rock matrix.

162 The fractures of Sierpinski carpet whose apertures are within the infinitesimal range
 163 b and $b + db$ cover the following area:

$$164 \quad dA = (2 - D)a^D b^{1-D} db. \quad (4)$$

165 The velocity distribution inside a single fracture of aperture b and length a under
 166 laminar flow conditions can be described by:

$$167 \quad v(b, x) = \frac{\rho_w g}{8\eta} [b^2 - (b - 2x)^2] \frac{\Delta h}{a}, \quad (5)$$

168 where x (m) is the distance from the fracture wall ($x = 0$) to the center of the fracture
 169 ($x = b/2$), ρ_w the water density (kg/m^3), g the gravitational acceleration (m/s^2), η the
 170 dynamic viscosity (Pa s), and Δh the pressure or tension head drop across the REV (m).
 171 The average velocity \bar{v} (m/s) in the fracture has the following expression:

$$172 \quad \bar{v}(b) = \frac{\rho_w g}{12\eta} b^2 \frac{\Delta h}{a}. \quad (6)$$

173 The macroscopic hydraulic properties of the fractured media can be described in
 174 terms of the geometrical parameters of a fracture network. In Guarracino (2006) and Monachesi
 175 and Guarracino (2011) the following expressions for porosity ϕ , permeability k , saturation
 176 S and relative permeability k_r are obtained:

$$177 \quad \phi = \frac{1}{a^{2-D}} (b_{max}^{2-D} - b_{min}^{2-D}) \quad (7)$$

$$178 \quad k = \frac{2 - D}{12a^{2-D}(4 - D)} (b_{max}^{4-D} - b_{min}^{4-D}) \quad (8)$$

$$179 \quad S(h) = \frac{h^{D-2} - h_{max}^{D-2}}{h_{min}^{D-2} - h_{max}^{D-2}}, \quad h_{min} \leq h \leq h_{max} \quad (9)$$

$$180 \quad k_r(S) = \frac{[(b_{max}^{2-D} - b_{min}^{2-D})S + b_{min}^{2-D}]^{\frac{4-D}{2-D}} - b_{min}^{D-4}}{b_{max}^{4-D} - b_{min}^{4-D}} \quad (10)$$

181 where h is the tension head (positive), $h_{min} = 2\sigma \cos(\beta)/\rho g_w b_{max}$, $h_{max} = 2\sigma \cos(\beta)/\rho_w g b_{min}$,
 182 σ is the surface tension of water, and β the contact angle.

186 2.2 Electrokinetic properties of a single fracture

187 The first step to derive the macroscopic effective excess charge density is to esti-
 188 mate the effective excess charge of a single fracture. Let us consider a fracture of aper-
 189 ture b and length a (see Fig. 1a) saturated by a binary symmetric 1:1 electrolyte (e.g.,
 190 NaCl) in a laminar flow regime.

191 The excess charge distribution \bar{Q}_v in the diffuse layer at a distance x of wall frac-
 192 ture can be expressed as (Guarracino & Jougnot, 2018):

$$193 \quad \bar{Q}_v(x) = N_A e_0 C^0 \left[e^{-\frac{e_0 \psi(x)}{k_B T}} - e^{\frac{e_0 \psi(x)}{k_B T}} \right], \quad (11)$$

194 where N_A is the Avogadro's number (mol^{-1}), e_0 the elementary charge (C), C^0 the ionic
 195 concentration far from the mineral surface (mol/m^3), ψ the local electrical potential in

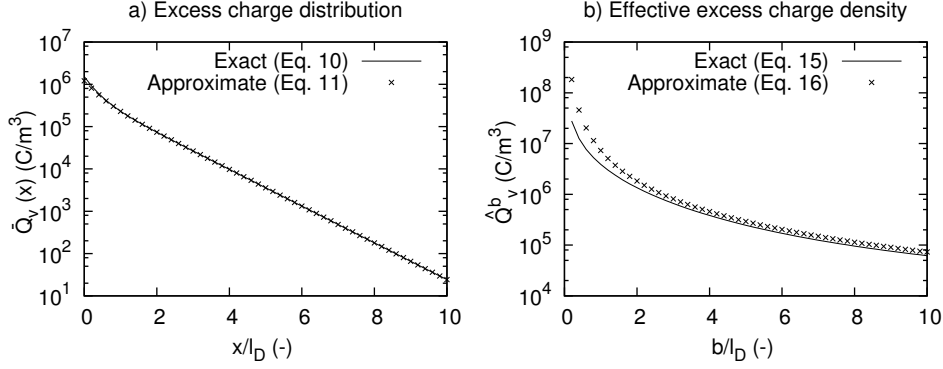


Figure 3. (a) Exact and approximate expressions of the excess charge distribution $\bar{Q}_v(x)$; (b) exact and approximate expressions of the effective excess charge \hat{Q}_v^b for a single fracture of aperture b . The assumed values of ionic concentration, absolute temperature and ζ -potential are $C^0 = 1.0 \text{ mol/m}^3$, $T = 293.15 \text{ K}$ and $\zeta = -0.07 \text{ V}$. The distance x and aperture b are scaled by the Debye length l_D .

196 the fracture water (V), k_B the Boltzman constant (J/K), and T is the absolute temper-
 197 ature (K).

198 In this study, the exponential terms of (11) are approximated by a four-term Tay-
 199 lor series. Under this approximation, the excess charge distribution can be expressed as:

$$200 \quad \bar{Q}_v(x) = -2N_A e_0 C^0 \left[\frac{e_0}{k_B T} \psi(x) + \frac{1}{6} \left(\frac{e_0}{k_B T} \psi(x) \right)^3 \right]. \quad (12)$$

201 Figure 3a shows the excellent agreement between exact and approximate excess charge
 202 distributions described by Eq. (11) and (12), respectively.

203 For the thin double layer assumption the local electrical potential can be expressed
 204 (Hunter, 1981):

$$205 \quad \psi(x) = \zeta e^{-\frac{x}{l_D}}, \quad (13)$$

$$206 \quad l_D = \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon k_B T}{2N_A C^0 e_0^2}}, \quad (14)$$

208 where ζ (V) is the ζ -potential on the shear plane, l_D the Debye length (m) which rep-
 209 represents a characteristic thickness of the diffuse layer, and ϵ the water dielectric permit-
 210 tivity (F/m).

211 Based on the ideas presented in Guarracino and Jougnot (2018), the effective ex-
 212 cess charge density \hat{Q}_v^b carried by the water flow in a single fracture of aperture b is de-
 213 fined by:

$$214 \quad \hat{Q}_v^b = \frac{2}{\bar{v}(b)ab} \int_0^{b/2} \bar{Q}_v(x) v(b, x) a dx. \quad (15)$$

215 Then, by substituting (5), (6) and (12) in (15) we obtain:

$$216 \quad \hat{Q}_v^b = -\frac{24N_A e_0 C^0}{(b/l_D)^2} \left(\frac{e_0 \zeta}{k_B T} \right) \left[1 - \frac{2l_D}{b} + e^{-\frac{b}{2l_D}} \left(\frac{2l_D}{b} + \frac{b}{2l_D} \right) \right] \\ - \frac{12N_A e_0 C^0}{(b/l_D)^2} \left(\frac{e_0 \zeta}{3k_B T} \right)^3 \left[1 - \frac{2l_D}{3b} + e^{-\frac{3b}{2l_D}} \left(\frac{2l_D}{3b} - \frac{3b}{4l_D} \right) \right]. \quad (16)$$

217 Under the thin double layer assumption, the thickness of the electrical diffuse layer
 218 is assumed small compared to fracture aperture ($l_D \ll b$) and Eq. (16) can be approx-
 219 imated by:

$$220 \quad \hat{Q}_v^b = \frac{12N_A e_0 C^0}{(b/l_D)^2} \left[-2 \frac{e_0 \zeta}{k_B T} - \left(\frac{e_0 \zeta}{3k_B T} \right)^3 \right]. \quad (17)$$

221 Figure 3b shows the very good agreement for $b/l_D > 3$ between exact and approximate
 222 excess charge described by Eq. (16) and (17), respectively. In capillary tube models the
 223 thin double layer assumption is valid so long as the capillary radius is greater than 200
 224 l_D (Jackson & Leinov, 2012). Assuming that the fracture aperture is 2 times the cap-
 225 illary radius, the validity of the thin double layer assumption for fracture models can be
 226 state for apertures $b > 400l_D$. Moreover, if we consider that in monovalent electrolyte
 227 concentrations between 1 mol/m³ and 100 mol/m³ the Debye length ranges from approx-
 228 imately 1 nm to 10 nm (Jackson & Leinov, 2012), the minimum aperture in the REV
 229 should be $b_{min} > 0.4 \cdot 10 \text{ m}^{-6}$ for $l_D = 1 \text{ nm}$ and $b_{min} > 4 \cdot 10 \text{ m}^{-6}$ for $l_D = 10 \text{ nm}$.

230 It is important to remark that Eq. (17) is almost identical to the equation obtained
 231 by Guarracino and Jougnot (2018) for the effective excess charge density \hat{Q}_v^R carried by
 232 the water flow in a single capillary tube of radius R , which reads as follows:

$$233 \quad \hat{Q}_v^R = \frac{8N_A e_0 C^0}{(R/l_D)^2} \left[-2 \frac{e_0 \zeta}{k_B T} - \left(\frac{e_0 \zeta}{3k_B T} \right)^3 \right]. \quad (18)$$

234 Note that the quotient between (17) and (18) yields to the following relation between
 235 the radius R and the aperture b :

$$236 \quad \frac{\hat{Q}_v^b}{\hat{Q}_v^R} = \frac{3}{2} \left(\frac{R}{b} \right)^2. \quad (19)$$

237 The above relation is identical to the one obtained by the quotient between the average
 238 velocity in the capillary tube (Poiseuille velocity) and the average velocity in the frac-
 239 ture given by (6), indicating that the effective excess charge strongly depends on the flow
 240 properties.

241 2.3 Electrokinetic properties of a fractured rock

242 In order to obtain the effective excess charge density in terms of the macroscopic
 243 hydraulic properties of the fractured rock, we consider the REV described in Section 1.
 244 Suppose that the fractured media is initially fully saturated and is drained by a tension
 245 head h (m). If we assume that the fractures drain at capillary pressure then the frac-
 246 ture of maximum aperture b_h drained by tension head h can be estimated as:

$$247 \quad b_h = \frac{2\sigma \cos(\beta)}{\rho g_w h}. \quad (20)$$

248 Note that only the fractures of the REV which are fully saturated ($b_{min} \leq b \leq$
 249 b_h) contribute to water flow. Then the effective excess charge density of the fractured
 250 rock \hat{Q}_v^{REV} can be computed as:

$$251 \quad \hat{Q}_v^{REV} = \frac{1}{v_{BD} a^2} \int_{b_{min}}^{b_h} \hat{Q}_v^b \bar{v}(b) dA(b) \quad (21)$$

252 where $v_{BD} = \frac{\rho_w g}{\eta} k k_r(S) \frac{\Delta h}{a}$ is the Buckingham-Darcy's velocity (Buckingham, 1907),
 253 a^2 the cross-sectional area of the REV, and $dA(b)$ the area covered by fractures of aper-
 254 ture b defined by Eq. (4).

255 Substituting (17), (6) and (4) in (21) yields:

$$256 \quad \hat{Q}_v^{REV} = N_A e_0 C^0 l_D^2 \left[-2 \frac{e_0 \zeta}{k_B T} - \left(\frac{e_0 \zeta}{3k_B T} \right)^3 \right] \frac{a^{D-2}}{k k_r(S)} (b_h^{2-D} - b_{min}^{2-D}). \quad (22)$$

Table 1. Geometric and hydraulic parameters of fracture networks

	b_{max} (m)	b_{min} (m)	D (-)	ϕ (-)	k (m ²)	$\hat{Q}_v^{REV,sat}$ (C/m ³)
Fracture network 1	$8.0 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$8.0 \cdot 10^{-6}$	1.861	0.493	$2.76 \cdot 10^{-7}$	$1.010 \cdot 10^{-4}$
Fracture network 2	$5.7 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$5.7 \cdot 10^{-6}$	1.921	0.361	$8.88 \cdot 10^{-8}$	$2.304 \cdot 10^{-4}$
Fracture network 3	$4.4 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$4.4 \cdot 10^{-6}$	1.946	0.275	$3.82 \cdot 10^{-8}$	$4.082 \cdot 10^{-4}$

257 Finally, combining (7), (9) and (22) we obtain the following expression for \hat{Q}_v^{REV} :

$$258 \quad \hat{Q}_v^{REV} = N_A e_0 C^0 l_D^2 \left[-2 \frac{e_0 \zeta}{k_B T} - \left(\frac{e_0 \zeta}{3k_B T} \right)^3 \right] \frac{\phi S}{k k_r(S)}. \quad (23)$$

259 The equation (23) is the main finding of this study since it predicts the effective
 260 excess charge density from both electrokinetic and macroscopic hydraulic parameters such
 261 as ionic concentration, ζ -potential, Debye length, porosity, saturation and permeability.
 262 This equation is identical in form to the equation obtained by Soldi et al. (2018) for a
 263 porous medium described by a capillary tubes model with a fractal pore size distribu-
 264 tion. Note that although the effective excess charge densities of both models at the pore
 265 scale and REV shapes are different, the expressions of effective excess charge density \hat{Q}_v^{REV}
 266 in terms of macroscopic properties (ϕ , S , k and k_r) are identical. This result shows that
 267 Eq. (23) is valid for both sedimentary and fractured porous media. The overall depen-
 268 dence of the effective excess charge is also consistent with numerous previous studies (see
 269 a data compilation in Fig. 4.2 of Jougnot et al., 2020) and the empirical relationship
 270 proposed by Jardani et al. (2007).

271 To facilitate the analysis of the model we express \hat{Q}_v^{REV} as the product of the sat-
 272 urated effective excess charge density $\hat{Q}_v^{REV,sat}$ (C/m³) and the relative effective excess
 273 charge density $\hat{Q}_v^{REV,rel}$ (dimensionless):

$$274 \quad \hat{Q}_v^{REV}(S) = \hat{Q}_v^{REV,sat} \hat{Q}_v^{REV,rel}(S) \quad (24)$$

275 where

$$276 \quad \hat{Q}_v^{REV,sat} = N_A e_0 C^0 l_D^2 \left[-2 \frac{e_0 \zeta}{k_B T} - \left(\frac{e_0 \zeta}{3k_B T} \right)^3 \right] \frac{\phi}{k}, \quad (25)$$

$$277 \quad \hat{Q}_v^{REV,rel}(S) = \frac{S}{k_r(S)}. \quad (26)$$

279 Note that the relative effective excess charge density defined by Eq. 26 does not depend
 280 on electrokinetic parameters but only on hydraulic variables.

281 3 A synthetic example of fractured rocks

282 In this section, we predict the effective excess charge density for different fracture
 283 networks generated by Sierpinski carpets. Consider a cubic REV of side $a = 4$ cm and
 284 the patterns of fractures shown in Fig. 4, where the maximum apertures are successively
 285 reduced: a) $b_{max} = a/5$, b) $b_{max} = a/7$ and c) $b_{max} = a/9$. Fractal dimensions of Sier-
 286 pinski carpet are estimated from (3). The minimum aperture b_{min} of each fracture net-
 287 work is considered to be 3 orders of magnitude less than the maximum aperture (i.e. $b_{min} =$
 288 $10^{-3} b_{max}$). Porosity (ϕ) and permeability (k) values are computed using (7) and (8). The
 289 geometric and hydraulic parameters of fracture networks are listed in Table 1. It can be
 290 observed that by reducing the aperture, the fractal dimension increases while both poros-
 291 ity and permeability decrease.

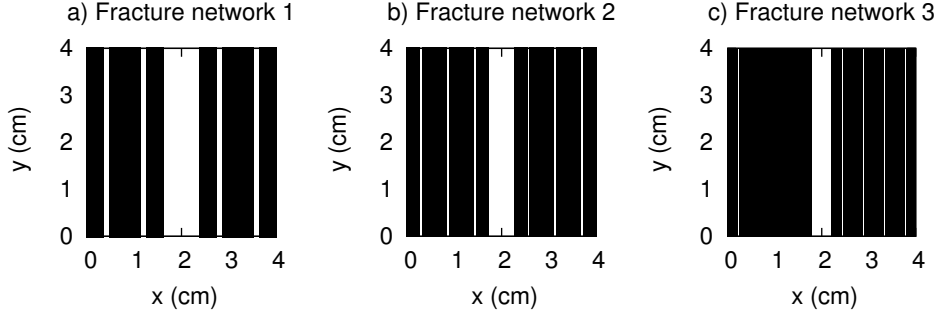


Figure 4. Parallel fracture networks generated by 2 recursion levels of Sierpinski carpets: (a) $D = 1.861$; (b) $D = 1.921$; (c) $D = 1.946$.

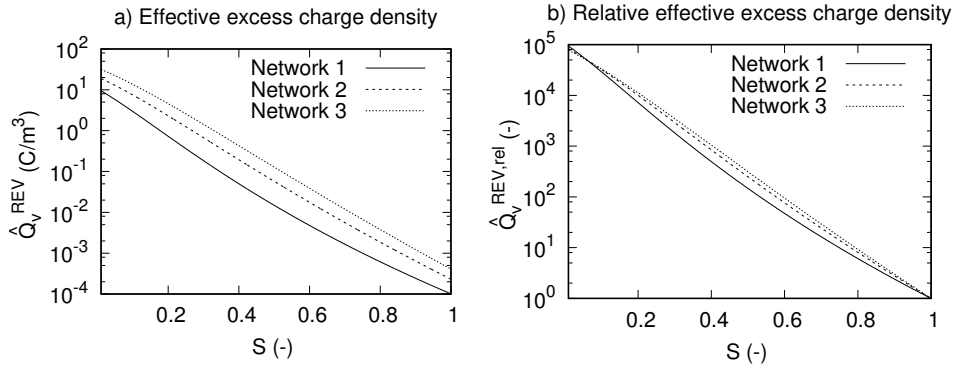


Figure 5. (a) Effective excess charge density versus saturation; (b) Relative effective excess charge density versus saturation.

292 To estimate the effective excess charge density we consider a ionic concentration
 293 $C^0 = 1 \text{ mol/m}^3$, ζ -potential $\zeta = -0.07 \text{ V}$ and absolute temperature $T = 293.15 \text{ K}$.
 294 The Debye length computed using (14) is $l_D = 9.65 \cdot 10^{-9} \text{ m}$, which is 3 orders of mag-
 295 nitude less than the minimum fracture aperture b_{min} . Saturated effective excess charge
 296 density values ($\hat{Q}_v^{REV,sat}$) are estimated from (25) and listed in Table 1. The values of
 297 $\hat{Q}_v^{REV,sat}$ increase the smaller the fracture apertures and the greater the number of frac-
 298 tures (see patterns of Fig. 4). Also note that fractal dimension D goes to 2 for small val-
 299 ues of b_{max} .

300 Fig. 5 shows the influence of saturation degree on effective excess charge density
 301 \hat{Q}_v^{REV} and relative density $\hat{Q}_v^{REV,rel}$ for the fracture networks depicted in Fig. 4. The
 302 values of \hat{Q}_v^{REV} and $\hat{Q}_v^{REV,rel}$ increase approximately 5 orders of magnitude with the de-
 303 crease of saturation. The maximum \hat{Q}_v^{REV} value is reached when saturation tends to zero,
 304 i.e.:

$$305 \lim_{S \rightarrow 0} \hat{Q}_v^{REV}(S) = N_A e_0 C^0 l_D^2 \left[-2 \frac{e_0 \zeta}{k_B T} - \left(\frac{e_0 \zeta}{3 k_B T} \right)^3 \right] \frac{12}{b_{min}^2}. \quad (27)$$

306 Note that the maximum value of \hat{Q}_v^{REV} depends on the electrokinetic parameters and
 307 on the factor $12/b_{min}^2$, which is the inverse of the permeability of the fractures with min-
 308 imum aperture.

4 Application of the model to experimental self-potential data

In this section the saturated effective excess charge density model $\hat{Q}_v^{REV,sat}$ is confronted to the coupling coefficient C_c data obtained by Moore and Glaser (2007) for microcracked Sierra granite samples. These authors investigated the self potential response during hydraulic fracturing in the laboratory and determined C_c for different injection pressures. They found that C_c is approximately constant for pressures smaller than 2 MPa but then increases with pressure drop up to 80% just prior to hydraulic fracturing. This increasing C_c is related to the dilatancy of microcracks at high pressures, which causes an increase in permeability. In their study, permeability values are measured as a function of pressure drop (P) and the following exponential law is fitted to data:

$$k(P) = 10^{-18} e^{2.5 \cdot 10^{-4} P} \quad (28)$$

where k is in m^2 and P in kPa. The change of C_c with pressure drop P is described by the following best fit equation to seven samples of Sierra granite:

$$\Delta C_c(P) = 1.83 e^{3.73 \cdot 10^{-4} P} \quad (29)$$

where ΔC_c is expressed as the percentage of the value of C_c at zero pressure drop. Prior to hydraulic fracturing the rock resistivity decreases by up to 2%, which is near to the practical limits of detection.

In order to apply our model to the data of Moore and Glaser (2007), C_c is estimated from $\hat{Q}_v^{REV,sat}$ by substituting (25) in (2):

$$C_c = N_A e_0 C^0 l_D^2 \left[-2 \frac{e_0 \zeta}{k_B T} - \left(\frac{e_0 \zeta}{3 k_B T} \right)^3 \right] \frac{\phi}{\sigma \eta}. \quad (30)$$

The coupling coefficient defined by Eq. (30) does not depend explicitly on permeability, but on porosity. Unfortunately, the variation of porosity with pressure drop was not measured during the laboratory test. However, porosity can be estimated from permeability by combining Eq. (7) and (8). If we assume that $b_{min} \ll b_{max}$, the following relation is obtained:

$$\phi = \left[\frac{12(4-D)}{a^2(2-D)} k \right]^{\frac{2-D}{4-D}}. \quad (31)$$

Finally, combining (31), (28) and (30), and assuming that both the electrical conductivity and dynamic permeability do not depend on pressure, the following expression for the variation of C_c is obtained:

$$\Delta C_c(P) = 100 \left[\left(e^{2.5 \cdot 10^{-4} P} \right)^{\frac{2-D}{4-D}} - 1 \right]. \quad (32)$$

Note that the above equation is expressed as a percentage of the initial value and only depends on the fractal dimension D .

Figure 6 shows the fit of Eq. (32) to the experimental data obtained by Moore and Glaser (2007). If we assume a constant fractal dimension, the best fit of our model is obtained for $D = 1.67$ (solid line in Fig. 6). However, the fractal dimension is expected to vary with pressure P . The increase in permeability with P prior to hydraulic fracturing can be explained by dilatancy of microcracks (Moore & Glaser, 2007). According to our model, fractal dimension decreases with increasing aperture (see Table 1) and therefore with increasing pressure. Let us assume the following linear relationship between fractal dimension and pressure: $D(P) = 2 - \alpha P$, where α is a fitting parameter. This relationship for D provides a better fit of Eq. (32) to the experimental data, as is shown in Fig. 6 with a dashed line ($\alpha = 4.8 \cdot 10^{-5}$).

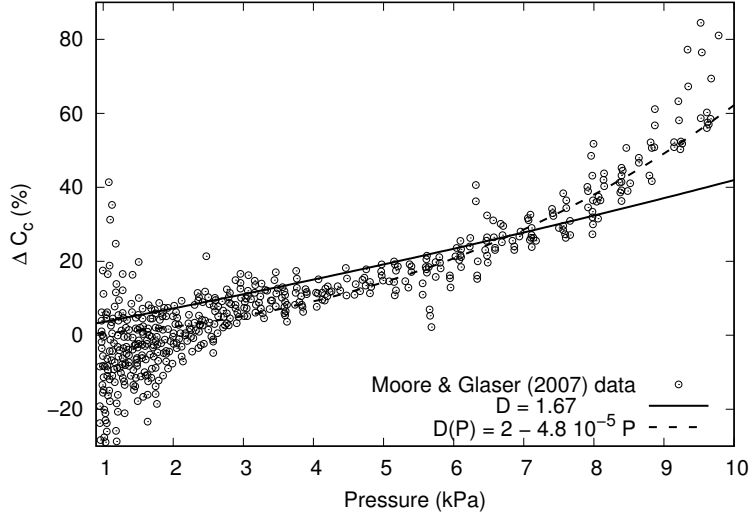


Figure 6. Variation of coupling coefficient with pressure $\Delta C_c(P)$. The empty circles are the experimental data obtained by Moore and Glaser (2007). The best fit of the proposed models to experimental data are displayed with solid (constant D) and dashed (D linearly dependent on P) lines.

5 Discussion and conclusions

In this study, we developed a fractal model to estimate the effective excess charge density in fully and partially saturated fractured rocks. The porous medium is described using the Sierpinski carpet, a classical fractal object that contains a self-similar geometric pattern of fractures. The mathematical procedures to estimate the effective parameters are based on the ideas presented in Guarracino and Jougnot (2018) for a classical capillary tubes model. The accuracy of the posed model has been tested to be correct for fracture apertures greater than 3 times the thickness of the electrical diffuse layer, i.e. $b > 3l_D$. This condition is fully satisfied under the thin double layer assumption which is valid for apertures $b > 400l_D$ (Jackson & Leinov, 2012).

The effective excess charge density model has a closed-form analytical expressions that depends on chemical parameters of the fracture water (ionic concentration, ζ -potential and Debye length) and hydraulic parameters (porosity, saturation and permeability). When expressed as these parameters, the model becomes identical to the ones derived by Guarracino and Jougnot (2018) and Soldi et al. (2018) for sedimentary porous media using capillary tubes. This result allows the extension of the validity of the models for classic porous media to fractured media. In addition, the model highlights the dependence of the effective excess charge density to the hydraulic properties. In this sense, Eq. (23) combined with the water flow models derived by Guarracino (2006) and Monachesi and Guarracino (2011) constitute a very good alternative to estimate the effective excess charge density since all the model expressions are obtained for the same fractal pattern of fractures. However, the proposed model can be combined with any constitutive model for water flow in fractured rocks (e.g., Guarracino & Quintana, 2009).

It is worth mentioning that due to the configuration of the geometry that we considered to develop the model, there is no exchange of water or ions between the fracture network and the matrix. This makes our model different from the numerical schemes proposed in Roubinet et al. (2016) or DesRoches et al. (2017). We redirect the reader to these references for fractured media in which this exchange occurs and cannot be neglected.

379 The synthetic tests show that the effective excess charge density increases with the
 380 decrease of both the fracture apertures and the degree of saturation. Finally, we show
 381 that the model is able to describe experimental data under fully saturated conditions for
 382 a published data set of coupling coefficient values measured in laboratory during hydraulic
 383 fracturing. Unfortunately, no experimental data are available to test model predictions
 384 under partially saturated conditions.

385 To the best of our knowledge, this is the first analytical model that consistently
 386 describes both electrokinetic and hydraulic properties in fully and partially saturated frac-
 387 tured rocks. The model provides simple explicit relations between effective excess charge
 388 density, porosity, permeability and saturation. These relations not only increase our gen-
 389 eral understanding of the electrokinetic phenomenon in fractured rocks, but also provide
 390 theoretical basis for quantitatively study of water flow using self-potential data.

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397 Data Availability Statement

398 This theoretical paper only uses previously published data (Moore & Glaser, 2007).
 399 The Fortran source code to estimate the effective excess charge density in fractured rocks
 400 and coupling coefficient data extracted from Moore and Glaser (2007) have been archived
 401 in the Hydrogeophysics community of Zenodo and can be found at: [https://doi.org/
 402 10.5281/zenodo.5732504](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5732504).

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