

1 The permeability of fractured rocks in pressurised volcanic 2 and geothermal systems

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6 **ABSTRACT**

7 The connectivity of rocks' porous structure and the presence of fractures influence the transfer of
8 fluids in the Earth's crust. Here, we employed laboratory experiments to measure the influence of
9 macro-fractures and effective pressure on the permeability of volcanic rocks with a wide range of
10 initial porosities (1-41 vol. %) comprised of both vesicles and micro-cracks. We used a hand-held
11 permeameter and hydrostatic cell to measure the permeability of intact rock cores at effective
12 pressures up to 30 MPa; we then induced a macro-fracture to each sample using Brazilian tensile tests
13 and measured the permeability of these macro-fractured rocks again. We show that intact rock
14 permeability increases non-linearly with increasing porosity and decreases with increasing effective
15 pressure due to compactional closure of micro-fractures. Imparting a macro-fracture both increases
16 the permeability of rocks and their sensitivity to effective pressure. The magnitude of permeability
17 increase induced by the macro-fracture is more significant for dense rocks. We finally provide a
18 general equation to estimate the permeability of intact and fractured rocks, forming a basis to
19 constrain fluid flow in volcanic and geothermal systems.

20

21 **Introduction**

22 The storage and transport of fluids in the Earth's crust is of primary importance for our understanding
23 of georesources and geohazards. In volcanic settings, fluids both circulate in hydrothermal reservoirs¹
24 commonly exploited for geothermal energy, and drive magma ascent and volcanic eruptions²⁻⁴. Better
25 constraints of how fluids are transported in these systems will help define more accurate models,

26 which in turn could lead to enhanced geothermal exploitation as well as improved prediction of
27 volcanic eruptions.

28 All materials are inherently permeable, as permeability expresses either the diffusion speed at a
29 molecular level or the capacity of a porous structure, at macroscopic level, to carry fluid flow. The
30 permeability of rocks has been central to an extensive body of geoscientific studies since the early
31 efforts of Darcy^{5,6} and is often described in terms of its relationship to porosity⁷⁻¹⁰. In pursuit of a
32 simple model constraining laminar flow in conduits, the Kozeny-Carman¹¹⁻¹⁴ relationship, or
33 modifications thereof, can commonly be employed to explain that permeability increases non-linearly
34 as a function of porosity for a wide range of rocks¹⁵⁻²². This equation describes the evolution of the
35 permeability-porosity relationship by applying a coefficient dependent on the dominant conduit
36 geometry controlling the fluid flow, namely tubular (connected pores) or planar (cracks) conduits^{23,24}.
37 Previous experimental studies have invoked the existence of a percolation threshold for explosive
38 volcanic products around 30% porosity^{18,19,25}, below which rocks are considered impervious, while the
39 percolation threshold for porous media has been mathematically modelled to 59.27% in 2D²⁶ and to
40 31.16% porosity in 3D²⁷ (with circular, and spherical pores, respectively). However, other efforts have
41 demonstrated that fluid flow is promoted at lower porosities by fractures^{19,28-33}, and hence it may not
42 be appropriate to incorporate a percolation threshold when describing the relationship of porosity and
43 permeability. Rather, it may be necessary to use several Kozeny coefficients¹⁶ due to the presence of
44 vesicles (bubbles) and fractures^{15,18,22,34}, and their evolution through multiple processes [including:
45 vesiculation³⁵, shearing^{30,36,37}, fracturing^{4,38,39}, cooling⁴⁰] that force pore coalescence. To describe this
46 complexity Farquharson, et al.¹⁷ proposed that the power law describing the permeability-porosity
47 relationship can be decomposed into two regimes; a dense regime (<14 vol.% pores) for which the
48 permeability is controlled by the connectivity of micro-fractures in the rock and a porous regime (>14
49 vol.% pores) for which vesicles control fluid flow. Such change points have been noted in other
50 lithologies⁴¹, and yet these resolutions still fail to capture the fluid flow in natural volcanic
51 environments (and associated hydrothermal/ geothermal systems), which is channelled through
52 structurally complex pathways, containing highly variable, heterogeneous, and anisotropic porous

53 networks, overprinted by complex fracture networks that enhance connectivity across all scales⁴²⁻⁴⁵.
54 The effect of fractures on the overall permeability of a rock depends on the fracture's characteristics⁴⁶
55 (e.g., size, roughness), the fracture system's geometry^{1,47} (i.e., direction of the fault with respect to the
56 fluid flow), whether the fracture system is dilatant versus compactional⁴⁸⁻⁵⁰, and whether the fracture
57 has in-filled fragmental material^{32,51,52}. The presence of fractures can induce permeability anisotropy
58 by opening localised pathways for fluid flow^{1,28,46-48,53}, for example, as observed along the shear
59 margins of ascending magma²⁹. Even prior to macroscopic failure, the nucleation, propagation and
60 coalescence of micro-fractures as material is loaded (and strained) increases the permeability, and
61 permeability anisotropy of rocks^{54,55}. The development of permeability anisotropy through damage
62 accumulation⁵⁶⁻⁵⁸ can alter intrinsic properties of geothermal, hydrothermal and magmatic reservoirs,
63 including the mode of heat transfer/ fluid flow⁵⁹. To understand the impact of macro-fractures, Lucia
64 ⁶⁰, modelled the permeability of a system made of impermeable cubic samples separated by fractures
65 with variable widths and determined that fracture spacing has a significant impact on the permeability
66 of the system. In light of the importance of fractures on the development of permeable fluid flow, we
67 hereby present the results of a series of experiments tackling the effect of fractures on permeability in
68 rocks with variable initial porous structures (and starting permeabilities) and model the extensive
69 dataset by adapting this cubic method⁶⁰ to account for fluid flow through fractured rocks.

70

71 **Material and methods**

72 In order to assess the influence of fractures on permeability of rocks with a range of initial permeable
73 porous networks (consisting of micro-fractures and vesicles), we selected a variety of extrusive
74 volcanic rocks from six volcanoes (Ceboruco, Mexico; Volcán de Colima, Mexico; Krafla, Iceland;
75 Mount St. Helens, USA; Pacaya, Guatemala; Santiaguito, Guatemala), and tested their permeability,
76 both intact and fractured, as a function of effective pressure (calculated as the difference between the
77 confining pressure and the average pore pressure).

78 70 cylindrical rock discs, 26 mm diameter and 13 mm thick were cored and prepared from the
79 samples collected. The porosity of each disc was then calculated using quantification of the samples'
80 volume (based on their dimensions) and determination of the samples skeletal volume using an
81 AccuPyc 1340 helium pycnometer from Micromeritics with a 35 cm³ cell (providing sample volumes
82 with an accuracy of ±0.1%). Permeability of the variously porous (1.2-41.7 vol. %) samples was then
83 measured under ambient pressure, using a handheld TinyPerm II mini-permeameter^{61,62} from New
84 England Research Inc., which utilises the pulse decay method by imposing air flow (746.13 ml)
85 through an aperture of 8 mm (in contact with the sample). This method provides rock permeability
86 determination with an accuracy >0.2 log units of permeability at low porosities, to 0.5-1 log units at
87 higher porosities (verified by our dataset which includes 6-10 repeats of each measurement, see
88 Supplementary Information). Then, for a subset of 7 samples (with porosities spanning 1.2 to 30.0
89 vol. %), the permeability was measured as a function of confining pressure (5-30 MPa, at 5 MPa
90 increments) using the steady-state flow method in a hydrostatic pressure cell developed by Sanchez
91 Technologies. Here, confining pressure was applied by silicon oil, and water flow was induced by
92 applying a pore pressure differential (ΔP) of 0.5 MPa (inflow of 1.5 MPa and an outflow of 1 MPa)
93 across the sample (i.e., at an average pore pressure of 1.25 Mpa), and the flow rate (Q) was measured
94 and used to compute the permeability (k) using Darcy's law:

$$95 \quad k = \frac{Q\mu L}{A\Delta P} \quad (1)$$

96 where μ is the water viscosity, L is the sample thickness and A is the sample cross-sectional area^{5,6}. A
97 further six unconfined measurements were made in the hydrostatic cell for direct comparison with the
98 ambient pressure measurements of the TinyPerm (see Supplementary figure 2). In these
99 measurements, a ΔP of 0.015MPa (inflow 0.17 MPa and outflow at atmospheric pressure of 0.155)
100 was used, and the samples were double-jacketed to prevent fluid loss (as the inflow exceeded the
101 confining pressure). All specimens (70 measured at ambient pressure and 7 measured under confined
102 conditions) were then axially and perpendicularly wrapped in electrical tape before being fractured
103 using the Brazilian tensile testing method⁶³ at a displacement rate of 0.25 $\mu\text{m/s}$ in an Instron 5969

104 uniaxial press. This technique generally induces one well-defined axial, tensile fracture through a
105 diametrically-compressed cylinder⁶⁴. [Note that the tape was used to prevent dislocation or shearing of
106 the two main fragments generated by tensile testing and only samples with well-defined macro-
107 fractures were employed in permeability analysis]. Following this, the permeability of all 70 fractured
108 samples was measured with the TinyPerm and for the aforementioned 7 samples (initially selected for
109 permeability measurements in the hydrostatic cell) the permeability was again measured as a function
110 of confining pressure in the hydrostatic cell.

111 The relative permeability change induced by the presence of a fracture was further modelled using the
112 theoretical formulation developed for a fractured body by Lucia⁶⁰ and modified herein for the effect
113 of a variably permeable host material. Finally, thin sections of the rocks were prepared using a
114 fluorescent dyed epoxy for microstructural analysis using a UV light source in reflected mode in a
115 DM2500P Leica microscope.

116

117 **Results**

118 **Permeability at ambient pressure**

119 We observe that permeability varies as a function of porosity, increasing by approximately four orders
120 of magnitude (at ambient pressure) for intact samples across the range of porosities tested (1.2-41.7
121 %; Fig. 1). This non-linear relationship between permeability (κ) and porosity (Φ), can be described
122 by:

$$123 \quad \kappa = 3 \times 10^{-17} \Phi^{3.11} \quad (2)$$

124 which constrains the dataset with a coefficient of determination (R^2) of 0.75. This relationship agrees
125 well with that described in previous studies^{18,19}, and suggests that it is not necessary to fit this dataset
126 with two regressions.

127 Using Brazilian tensile tests, we imparted a macro-fracture which resulted in a net increase in
128 permeability for all porosities tested (Fig. 1). Across the range measured, the variability in
129 permeability as a function of porosity (four orders of magnitude prior to fracturing) decreased to less
130 than 2 after imparting a macro-fracture (Fig.1). The permeability of the fracture-bearing rocks (κ_{fr}) as
131 a function of initial porosity is described by:

$$132 \quad \kappa_{fr} = 6 \times 10^{-13} \Phi^{0.64} \quad (3)$$

133 Ultimately, the presence of a fracture modifies the relationship between permeability and porosity,
134 with the permeability of fractured porous samples falling across a much narrower range than the
135 permeability of the intact samples (i.e. much less sensitive to the initial rock porosity; Fig. 1). In
136 detail, we note a relative increase in permeability of up to four orders of magnitude by imparting a
137 fracture, as noted in previous work^{33,63}. This increase is most pronounced for samples with low initial
138 porosity (≤ 11 vol. %). Contrastingly, the permeability of the more porous rocks (≥ 18 vol. %)
139 increases only slightly due to the presence of a macro-fracture, while intermediate porosity samples
140 (11-18 %) show variable behaviour.

141

142 **Permeability at variable effective pressures**

143 For the subset of samples measured in the hydrostatic cell, the permeability of intact and fractured
144 rocks decreases non-linearly with increasing effective pressure (Fig. 2; see also Supplementary Fig.
145 1). When plotting the data from the hydrostatic cell in porosity-permeability space, we observe similar
146 trends to that measured at atmospheric pressure (Fig. 1, 3a, Supplementary Fig. 3). We demonstrate a
147 generally good agreement between measurements made using the handheld TinyPerm device and the
148 hydrostatic cell by conducting a targeted set of measurements at ambient pressure in the hydrostatic
149 cell (see Supplementary Fig. 2).

150 The influence of a macro-fracture on the permeability of the rocks tested here is similar at higher
151 effective pressures as it is at atmospheric pressure, with the permeability increase that results from

152 fracturing being more significant in the initially denser rocks (Fig. 3a). We further see that the
153 influence of effective pressure on permeability is most pronounced in the densest rocks ($\leq 11\%$
154 porosity), while more porous rocks ($\geq 18\%$) are less susceptible to changes in pressure (Fig. 2, 3a);
155 this supports previous studies, which examined the influence of pore closure under confining pressure
156 on a range of rock types, suggesting the process is dominated by the closure of micro-fractures^{4,65-70}.

157

158 **Microstructures in intact samples**

159 Microstructural analysis was conducted on thin sections impregnated with fluorescent green-dyed
160 epoxy (highlighting the porous network of the rocks) to assess the reasons for the relative impact of a
161 fracture on volcanic rocks at low and high porosities (Fig. 4). The rocks tested here were chosen for
162 their chemical and mineralogical distinctions so as to widen the applicability of the findings of the
163 influence of the porous network on permeability across a range of volcanic rocks and environments.
164 The porous networks of the densest rocks (Fig. 4a, b) are dominated by an intricately connected
165 network of micro-fractures, linking the vesicles present in the rock⁷¹. Close examination of the
166 photomicrographs show no overall preferential alignment (i.e., anisotropy) of the microfractures, but
167 do highlight preferred fracture developments along planes of weakness in phenocrysts. In contrast, the
168 porous networks of the more porous rocks (Fig. 4c,d) appear dominated by the connectivity of
169 vesicles of different sizes and shapes. These porous rocks exhibit few microfractures, and those which
170 are present are primarily developed in phenocrysts (Fig. 4c, d). Such a contrasting architecture of the
171 porous networks in dense and porous volcanic rocks has been observed in other studies^{24,33,72} and may
172 be at the origin of the non-linearity in permeability-porosity relationships discussed in previous
173 studies^{17,24,72} and in the relative effect of a fracture on the permeability of rocks as observed here. As
174 such, we seek to test the applicability of fracture permeability modelling to describe the permeability
175 relationships constrained in our experiments.

176

177 **Fractured rock permeability analysis**

178 The permeability of fractures as a function of width can be modelled using the early work of Lucia ⁶⁰,
179 in which the geometrical proportion of a fracture set arrangement is applied to a cubic body. The
180 relationship is based on the principal of a pressure differential (ΔP) across a fracture with given length
181 (L) and width (w), according to:

$$182 \quad \Delta P = \frac{12\mu v L}{w^2} \quad (4)$$

183 where μ and v are the viscosity and velocity of the fluid flowing through the fracture, respectively.
184 Lucia ⁶⁰ later modified the equation to obtain a system permeability (κ_s) formulation, which includes
185 the area of the fracture as well as the surrounding rock:

$$186 \quad \kappa_s = \frac{1}{12} \frac{A_f}{A_s} w^2 \quad (5)$$

187 where A_f and A_s are the cross sectional areas of the fracture and the sample, respectively. Considering
188 the host rock permeability (κ_ϕ), our cylindrical sample geometry and the near rectangular fracture
189 geometry (produced in this study through Brazilian tests), Equation 5 can be further modified to:

$$190 \quad \kappa_s = \kappa_\phi + \frac{1}{6} \frac{w^3}{\pi r} \quad (6)$$

191 in which κ_ϕ is the permeability of intact samples (each at a given porosity) and r is the aperture
192 radius of the permeameter (i.e., 4 mm for the TinyPerm and 13 mm for the hydrostatic cell).

193 Using this relationship, we model the macro-fracture width (i.e., the coloured curves in Fig. 1) for
194 rocks with different initial porosities and permeabilities. The permeability measurements on fractured
195 samples coincide with the modelled permeability for rocks hosting a fracture of some 0.06-0.07 mm
196 wide. We apply this analysis to the permeability obtained at each effective pressure (Fig. 3a,
197 Supplementary Fig. 3), to constrain the evolution of fracture width as a function of effective pressure.
198 The boxplot (Fig. 3b) shows the modelled fracture widths for our range of porosities with increasing
199 pressure. All boxes have been defined by finding the closest modelled fracture width to each
200 permeability measurement at each effective pressure (see Fig. 1 and Supplementary Fig. 3). The

201 analysis suggests that the fracture closes non-linearly with effective pressure⁷³, corresponding to the
 202 measured non-linear decrease in permeability, with most of the fracture closure occurring within the
 203 first 5 MPa of confinement for all samples, irrespective of initial porosity (Fig. 3b).

204 In light of this constraint, and given the knowledge of the bulk fracture density (volume of macro-
 205 fracture/ volume of host rock), we rewrite the above permeability equations to provide a general
 206 formulation for the permeability of a fractured system (κ_s) as a function of the permeability of the
 207 intact system (κ_ϕ), bulk fracture density (ρ_f), average fracture length (\bar{l}) and width (\bar{w}) over an
 208 area of interest (A_i):

$$209 \quad \kappa_s = \kappa_\phi + \frac{\rho_f \bar{l} \bar{w}^3}{A_i} \quad (7)$$

210 This formulation, expresses the permeability evolution of the intact system and constrains the impact
 211 of fractures on the overall permeability of the system. We can further expand this formulation to
 212 include the empirical description of the effect of effective pressure on the permeability of the intact
 213 rock (Eq 8.) as well as on the fracture width (Eq 9.; see equations S2-7 in Supplementary Information)

$$214 \quad \kappa_\phi = (2.93 \times 10^{-12} P_{eff}^{-1.07}) \Phi^{(1.64 P_{eff}^{0.06})} \quad (8)$$

215 And

$$216 \quad w = (2.33 \times 10^{-22} P_{eff}^2 - 2.67 \times 10^{15} P_{eff} + 3.39 \times 10^{-7}) \Phi^{(5 \times 10^{-4} P_{eff}^{-0.174})} \quad (9)$$

217 where P_{eff} is the effective pressure in Pascals and each coefficient has different pressure dependent
 218 unit described in Supplementary Information. Thus we can rewrite Equation 7 to:

$$219 \quad \kappa_s =$$

$$220 \quad (2.93 \times 10^{-12} P_{eff}^{-1.07}) \Phi^{(1.64 P_{eff}^{0.06})} +$$

$$221 \quad \frac{\rho_f \bar{l} [(2.33 \times 10^{-22} P_{eff}^2 - 2.67 \times 10^{15} P_{eff} + 3.39 \times 10^{-7}) \Phi^{(5 \times 10^{-4} P_{eff}^{-0.174})}]^3}{A_i} \quad (10)$$

222 providing us with an empirical description of rock permeability as a function of effective pressure,
223 porosity, fracture density and geometry to be tested in various applications.

224

225 **Discussion**

226 Understanding the permeability of volcanic rocks, and especially fractured volcanic rocks, is crucial
227 to our models of fluid flow in shallow volcanic and hydrothermal systems^{2,74}. Here, a combination of
228 extensive permeability testing and fluid flow modelling is used to demonstrate the ability to simulate
229 the permeability of intact and fractured rocks and of fracture closure with confinement. In our fitting
230 of the permeability-porosity relationship, we employed a single power law (as demonstrated by
231 previous studies^{15,18,19,22,34}) as the regression is sufficient to fit the non-linear dataset accurately,
232 without the need to invoke a change point. From microstructural examination (Fig. 4), we find that the
233 connectivity of the porous network evolves due to the interplay of micro-cracks and few vesicles at
234 low porosity, to enhanced pore interconnection at 11-18 % porosity (an observation which may share
235 similarities with previously invoked change points¹⁷) and finally more complete coalescence at
236 porosities ≥ 18 %. We emphasise that the porosity-permeability relationship of volcanic rocks results
237 from a succession of processes undergone by the magma and the rock (i.e., vesiculation and pore
238 collapse, fragmentation, sintering, shearing, cooling, contraction, etc) and as a result the porosity-
239 permeability relationship does not describe a single generation mechanism, but rather reflects a
240 combination of the above, which may have differing importance at different porosities. As
241 permeability measurements accrue and widen the scatter at all porosities, evidence suggests that a
242 simple power law, with acknowledgement of the scatter, remains an effective means to estimate the
243 permeability of volcanic systems with wide ranging porous structures.

244 Across the range of porosities tested, the presence of a macro-fracture increases the permeability of
245 volcanic rocks, although to different degrees, depending on the porosity of the rock. The impact of
246 fractures on the resultant system permeability is greatest for low porosity rocks, where permeability
247 can increase by up to four orders of magnitude, which can be ascribed to a decrease in the tortuosity

248 of the dominant fluid pathway by addition of a macro-fracture⁶³. This increase in permeability as a
249 result of fracturing has previously been noted^{33,52,75}. Here, we show that the initial porosity of the
250 samples has little influence on the resultant system permeability once a fracture is introduced. Matthäi
251 and Belayneh⁷⁶ classified the influence of a fracture on a rock permeability as either 1) fracture
252 carries all the fluid flow; 2) fracture carries as much fluid flow as the host rock; or 3) fracture has a
253 negligible impact on the permeability. Based on the findings presented here, we relate this
254 classification to the relative magnitudes of permeability changes imparted by a fracture on rocks with
255 different porosities: Regime 1 relates to dense rocks with $\leq 11\%$ porosity; regime 2 to rocks with ~ 11 -
256 18% pores and regime 3 to the most porous rocks ($\geq 18\%$), in which the presence of a macro-fracture
257 imparts little change on the permeability of the system (Fig. 3). Interestingly, we find that the porosity
258 thresholds for regime changes remain unaffected by changes in effective pressure, although the
259 magnitude of permeability increase by inducing a fracture (i.e. the fracture width) is itself pressure
260 dependent.

261 We provide an experimentally based, permeability model to describe the permeability of macro-
262 fractured volcanic rocks with a range of existing permeable porous structures, which, using
263 appropriate upscaling techniques^{33,77,78}, may be adapted to a range of geological systems⁶⁰. Utilisation
264 of the simple formulation provided may help constrain or reassess a variety of processes for which an
265 understanding of fluid flow pathways developed via multiple processes is crucial. For example, the
266 percolation threshold of explosive volcanic products^{18,19,25} may be modified significantly by
267 fracturing. Previous works have demonstrated that outgassing in volcanic materials occurs through a
268 network of fractures that localise and enhance fluid flow^{19,28-33}, and gas monitoring at active volcanoes
269 supports heterogeneous degassing models controlled by fractures in often low-permeability host
270 rocks⁷⁴. Further, at the volcano-hydrothermal system of Soufrière Hills volcano (Montserrat),
271 Edmonds, et al.⁷⁴ surmise that cyclicity/ fluctuations in gas emissions result from fractures
272 undergoing episodic closure or sealing, leading to permeability changes in regions with high
273 permeability anisotropy near conduit margins^{28,29,79}. Our findings concur with these outgassing
274 observations, as pore pressure (hence effective pressure) regulates the permeability of intact and

275 fractured rocks. In this scenario, efficient outgassing may promote the lowering of pore pressure (i.e.,
276 effective pressure increase), fostering the ability for fractures to shut and subsequently heal⁸⁰. It must
277 be noted that this sealing will be dependent upon any fracture infill, which may either form a rigid
278 network serving to maintain the permeable pathway, or may be subject to compaction or sintering,
279 influencing the evolution of permeability^{32,52}. Sealing may inhibit further fluid flow and promote
280 creation of momentarily impermeable, dense magma plugs^{30,74,81}, which may then allow pore pressure
281 build-up (i.e., effective pressure decrease), which if sufficient, may open (or reactivate) fractures or
282 trigger fragmentation⁸². Thus, we advise testing of the formulation constrained here in anticipation
283 that it may increase constraints on fluid migration and storage in volcanic, hydrothermal and
284 geothermal systems.

285

286 **Conclusions**

287 We present a large permeability dataset, targeted to investigate the effects of porosity, fractures and
288 effective pressure on the permeability of variably porous volcanic rocks. We observe non-linear
289 relationships between porosity and permeability of both intact and fractured rocks as well as between
290 the width of a fracture (and permeability of a fractured rock) and effective pressure. We propose a
291 general formulation to constrain the permeability of intact and fractured rocks as a function of
292 pressure, porosity and fracture density. This study aims to incorporate heterogeneities, such as
293 fractures, in our modelling of the permeability evolution of dynamic and heterogeneous volcanic
294 environments.

295

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520 **Figure Captions**

521 **Fig. 1.** The permeability of intact and fractured rocks. Permeability-porosity relationships (black
522 lines) for both intact (solid circles) and fractured (open circles) samples at ambient pressure. Coloured
523 lines represent the modelled permeability of fractured rocks as a function of fracture width and rock
524 porosity, derived from eq. 6 (See Fractured rock permeability analysis section). The convergence of
525 the permeability values for intact and fractured samples at high porosities indicates that the effect of a
526 fracture on permeability lessens with porosity increase, where the fluid flow is dominated by
527 increasingly high pore interconnectivity. The data and model suggests that the fractures
528 experimentally generated are ca. 0.06-0.07 mm wide.

529 **Fig. 2.** Rock permeability as a function of effective pressure. The data show the relationship between
530 permeability and effective pressure for 6 of the 7 samples (intact and fractured) with a) 1.2 %
531 porosity, b) 7.0% porosity, c) 11.0% porosity, d) 14.3% porosity, e) 20.2% porosity, and f) 30.3%
532 porosity. The impact of fracturing on a system's permeability is much more pronounced at lower
533 porosities than at higher porosities. Results show that the effect of a fracture on permeability is
534 dampened with an increase in effective pressure (beyond ca. 5-10 MPa), as shown by extrapolation of
535 the best fit (dotted and dashed curves) of the permeability dataset conducted with the pressure vessel
536 (circles). The last sample tested (porosity very close to the sample in e)) is shown in Supplementary
537 Figure 1.

538 **Fig. 3.** Permeability – porosity – effective pressure relationship for intact and fractured rocks. a)
539 Distribution of permeability and connected porosity data compiled as a function of effective pressure
540 (darker colours represent higher pressures). The dashed and dotted curves display the best fits
541 obtained for the intact and fractured samples, respectively, at ambient pressure (from Fig. 1). The
542 measurements conducted at pressure trend towards those made at ambient pressures suggesting
543 fracture closure even under modest confinement. b) Boxplot showing the modelled fracture widths
544 generated in samples with different porosities (Φ) and calculated evolution at different effective
545 pressures. The grey zone displays the fracture width – effective pressure region for the porosity range
546 11-18 vol. %, using a least squares regression.. The circles show the median of the fracture width
547 distribution obtained by finding the closest value of the best fit, at each pressure step, to the calculated
548 fracture width for our range of porosity.

549 **Fig. 4.** Microstructures of the permeable porous networks. Photomicrographs of 4 samples with
550 varying connected porosities impregnated with green dyed, fluorescent epoxy, examined under UV
551 light. a) The connectivity of the densest rock, an andesite from Ceboruco (CBD_0; 1.2% porosity) is
552 primarily controlled by micro-fractures; b) The porous network of a Colima andesite with an
553 intermediate porosity (COL_P2; 13.3%) showing a higher number of vesicles, connected to each other
554 by micro-fractures; The connectivity of the more porous rocks from Ceboruco, c) an andesite with
555 25.1% porosity (CBD_6); d) an andesite with 38.4% porosity (CBD_10) is observed to be primarily
556 controlled by vesicle coalescence.

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562 **Author Contribution Statement**

563 A. Lamur led the project, conducted the majority of the experiments, analysed the data, prepared all
564 the figures and wrote the manuscript.

565 J. E. Kendrick helped conceptualise the project, provided rock samples, supervised the work and
566 revised the manuscript and figures.

567 G.H. Eggertsson conducted some experiments in the hydrostatic cell and revised the manuscript.

568 R. J. Wall participated in the initial phase of experimentation and revised the manuscript.

569 J. D. Ashworth performed some measurements using the TinyPerm and revised the manuscript.

570 Y. Lavallée helped conceptualise the project, provided rock samples, supervised the work, and revised
571 the manuscript and figures.

572 **Additional information**

573 *Competing Financial Interest*

574 There are NO competing financial interests attached to this manuscript.