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1 **The Influence of Grain Size Distribution on Mechanical Compaction and**
2 **Compaction Localization in Porous Rocks**

3
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12 **Key Points:**

- 13 • Increasing the polydispersivity of the grain size distribution decreases the stress required
14 for inelastic compaction.
- 15 • Compaction localization is inhibited in synthetic samples with a bimodal polydisperse
16 grain size distribution.
- 17 • A transition from compaction localization to delocalized cataclasis is observed for
18 samples with very polydisperse grain size distributions.

19 Abstract

20 The modes of formation of clastic rocks result in a wide variety of microstructures, from poorly-
21 sorted heterogeneous rocks to well-sorted and nominally homogeneous rocks. The mechanical
22 behavior and failure mode of clastic rocks is known to vary with microstructural attributes such
23 as porosity and grain size. However, the influence of the grain size distribution, in particular the
24 degree of polydispersivity or modality of the distribution, is not yet fully understood, because it
25 is difficult to study experimentally using natural rocks. To better understand the influence of
26 grain size distribution on the mechanical behavior of porous rocks, we prepared suites of
27 synthetic samples consisting of sintered glass beads with polydisperse grain size distributions.
28 We performed hydrostatic compression experiments and found that, all else being equal, the
29 onset of grain crushing occurs much more progressively and at lower pressure in polydisperse
30 synthetic samples than in monodisperse samples. We conducted triaxial experiments in the
31 regime of shear-enhanced compaction and found that the stress required to reach inelastic
32 compaction was lower in polydisperse samples compared to monodisperse samples. Further, our
33 microstructural observations show that compaction bands developed in monomodal polydisperse
34 samples while delocalized cataclasis developed in bimodal polydisperse samples, where small
35 grains were systematically crushed while largest grains remained intact. In detail, as the
36 polydispersivity increases, microstructural deformation features appear to transition from
37 localized to delocalized through a hybrid stage where a compaction front with diffuse bands
38 propagates from both ends of the sample toward its center with increasing bulk strain.

39 Plain Language Summary

40 In nature, sediments like sands and gravels in rivers, are composed of particles which can be all
41 the same size or, more commonly, can be a mixture of lots of different sizes. Once the particles
42 all hold together and the sediments become sedimentary rocks, the range of sizes of the particles
43 can have an impact on how the rock behaves macroscopically under the pressure conditions of
44 the Earth's crust. To explore this effect, we prepared synthetic rocks by sticking together
45 particles of glass in mixture of different sizes which we then deformed under high pressure in the
46 laboratory. Our results show that rocks made of mixture of sizes are systematically weaker than
47 rocks with particles of a single size. Moreover, we found that, under a certain load, rocks
48 deformed in different places in the microstructure depending on the range of sizes of the particles:

49 in rock samples of single-size particles, the deformation is concentrated into discrete bands while
50 the rest of the rock remain intact whereas in samples with particles of two different sizes, the
51 deformation is distributed within the entire volume of the rock.

52

53 **1 Introduction**

54 The varied formation processes and source materials for clastic sedimentary rocks can
55 produce rocks with a wide range of microstructures. For example, the grain size for clastic
56 sedimentary rocks can vary over seven orders of magnitude, from 0.01 μm to up to 10 cm
57 (Guéguen & Palciauskas, 1994). The grain size of sandstones is in the range 0.06–2 mm.
58 Although exceptionally well-sorted sandstones exist, such as the widely-studied Fontainebleau
59 sandstone that has a broadly monodisperse grain size (Bourbié & Zinszner, 1985; Revil et al.,
60 2014; Sulem and Ouffroukh, 2006), these are not representative of the full range of grain size
61 distributions found for natural sandstones (Selley, 2004). Clastic rocks such as sandstones can
62 therefore vary substantially in terms of their grain size and, importantly, grain size distribution.

63 Porosity is known as a first-order control on the strength of sandstones, where sandstones
64 with high-porosity are generally weaker than those with low-porosity (Baud et al., 2014; Chang
65 et al., 2006; Vernik et al., 1993). Moreover, higher porosity favors a transition from a brittle to
66 ductile behavior at lower pressures relative to lower porosity. Whilst high-porosity sandstones
67 fail by shear localization (brittle regime) under relatively low pressure and by cataclastic flow
68 (ductile regime) under high pressure, low-porosity sandstones undergo brittle faulting under a
69 much wider range of pressures (Paterson & Wong, 2005; Scott & Nielsen, 1991; Wong et al.,
70 1997). At stress states between the brittle faulting and cataclastic flow regimes, compaction
71 localization was reported as a transitional failure mode in sandstones with porosity of 0.13–0.28
72 (Baud et al., 2004; Holcomb et al., 2007; Wong & Baud, 2012). However, to this date, no
73 obvious link was found between the level of stress at which compaction bands nucleate and grow
74 and the porosity of the host rock. In fact, Tembe et al. (2008) showed that this level of stress
75 varies considerably for Bentheim, Diemelstadt and Bleurswiller sandstones, which have similar
76 porosities. Yet, large differences in rock compositions make it difficult to unpick the effect of
77 porosity and other microstructural attributes when studying compaction localization.

78 The influence of the mean grain size on the hydromechanical behavior of porous rocks
79 has been explored in the laboratory using natural (Brace, 1961; Fredrich et al., 1990; Guyon et al.,
80 1987; Olsson, 1974; Wasantha et al., 2015) and synthetic rocks (Carbillet et al., 2021), and using
81 numerical modeling (Cil & Buscarnera, 2016; Ghazvinian et al., 2014; Yu et al., 2018). For
82 porous sandstones, experimental laboratory studies using correlation analysis reported that grain

83 size has a significant influence on uniaxial compressive strength, where the larger the grain size
84 the lower the strength (Bell & Culshaw, 1998; Fahy & Guccione, 1979; Wasantha et al., 2015).
85 However, other studies have also showed no significant correlation between mean grain radius
86 and strength (Shakoor & Bonelli, 1991; Ulusay et al., 1994) and, in particular, when compared to
87 the influence of porosity (Palchik, 1999). These conflicting findings might reflect the fact that
88 the same mean grain size can result from very different grain size distributions and is therefore
89 an insufficient metric for encapsulating the effect of the grain size and microstructure, especially
90 for very heterogeneous rocks (Wasantha et al., 2015).

91 To analyze the relationship between the microstructural attributes, such as grain size, and the
92 mechanical behavior of porous rocks, theoretical models have been proposed. To give an
93 example, Zhang et al. (1990) developed an upscaled extension of the Hertzian fracture model
94 which provides an estimate for the critical pressure for the onset of grain crushing under
95 hydrostatic compression. They predict an inverse power law relationship between the critical
96 pressure and the product of porosity and mean grain radius. However, since the model considers
97 a unique value for the grain size, it does not allow for analyzing the influence of grain size
98 distribution on the mechanical compaction of porous rocks.

99 The grain size distribution in a granular system can be characterized in terms of its
100 polydispersivity and modality, which relates to sorting in detrital sedimentary rocks such as
101 sandstones. The granular assembly is termed ‘monodisperse’ if all particles have the same size.
102 Any distribution of particles that deviate from the monodisperse limit is ‘polydisperse’ to
103 varying degrees. Specific polydisperse distributions can be monomodal, bimodal, or polymodal
104 (Torquato, 2002). The grain size distribution has previously been identified as a control on the
105 mechanical behavior and failure mode of lithified sedimentary rocks (Guéguen & Boutéca, 2004;
106 Guéguen & Fortin, 2013). In particular, compaction localization is known to be promoted by
107 microstructural homogeneity (Cheung et al., 2012; Holcomb et al., 2007; Louis et al., 2007a).
108 Numerical studies also attempted to analyze the impact of grain size distribution on the strength
109 of granular materials. For example, Wang et al. (2008) reproduced the broad phenomenology of
110 the brittle-ductile transition using discrete element method (DEM) simulations and showed that a
111 grain size distribution with a low polydispersivity promotes compaction localization in granular
112 materials. However, studying the control of polydispersivity of the mechanical behavior of

113 porous rocks in the laboratory is challenging because changes in polydispersivity are typically
114 accompanied by variations in other microstructural parameters such as the porosity, and are
115 intimately interlinked with attributes such as the mean pore diameter (Torquato, 2002), which
116 also influences mechanical behavior (Xiong et al., 2021; Zhu et al., 2010). Moreover, DEM
117 simulations are often limited to 2D and direct comparisons with experimental data are therefore
118 fraught. To avoid variability issues presented by natural rocks, Carbillet et al. (2021) prepared
119 synthetic sandstones using sintered glass beads, for which the porosity and grain size distribution
120 were controlled independently. They found that, for synthetic samples with a near-monodisperse
121 grain size distribution, increasing the mean grain radius from 112 to 601 μm resulted in a
122 decrease of the stress required for the onset of inelastic compaction by more than a factor of two.

123 The aim of this work is to study the impact of more complex grain size distributions and
124 therefore to extend the work of Carbillet et al. (2021) by preparing and deforming samples with
125 bimodal and monomodal (continuous) polydisperse grain size distributions. We performed
126 hydrostatic and triaxial compression experiments on sintered glass bead samples. The
127 preparation procedure and sample characteristics are described in detail before we present our
128 mechanical and microstructural results. Then we compare the results obtained on polydisperse
129 synthetic samples with those for monodisperse synthetic samples and natural sandstones. Finally,
130 we discuss the influence of grain size distribution on the propensity for compaction localization
131 in porous rocks.

132 **2 Materials and Methods**

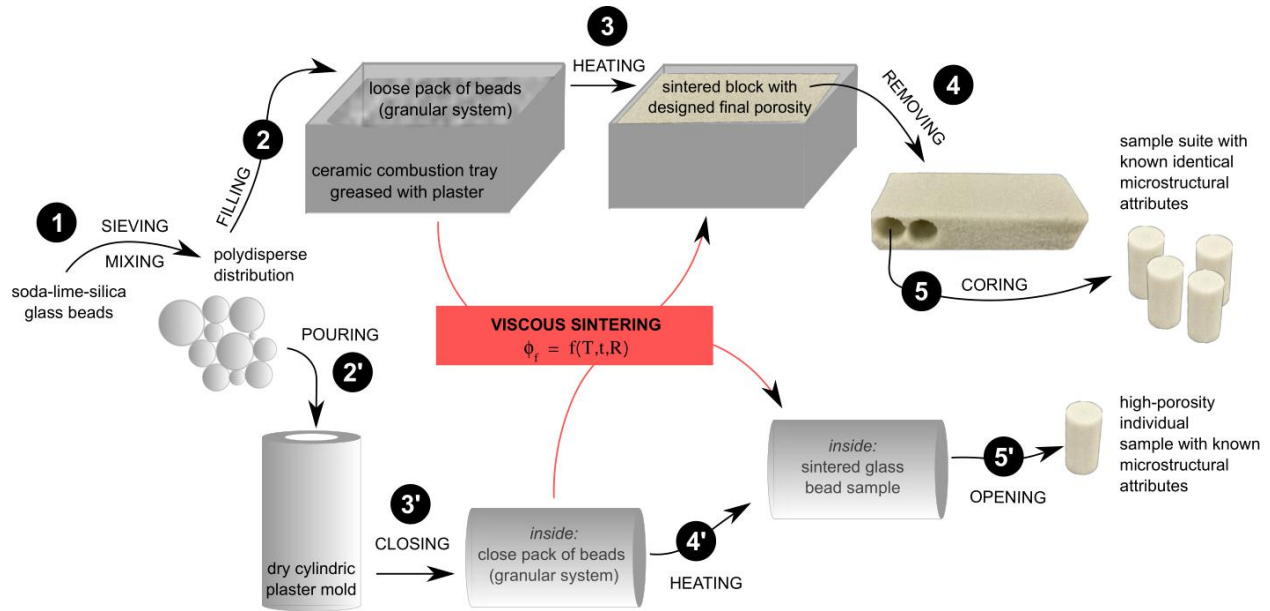
133 2.1 Experimental procedure for the preparation of the samples

134 The synthetic samples used to conduct this work were prepared by the viscous sintering
135 of spherical glass beads, following the method presented in Carbillet et al. (2021). When heated
136 above their glass transition temperature, the beads act as liquid droplets and begin a time-
137 dependent coalescence driven by interfacial tension, a process that progressively decreases the
138 porosity of the system (Wadsworth et al., 2016). The rates of this process are sensitive to the
139 polydispersivity of the glass bead distributions used (Wadsworth et al., 2017).

140 For the purpose of this work, we prepared cylindrical synthetic samples with diameter \emptyset
141 = 20 mm and length $L = 40$ mm starting with different grain size distributions. The experimental

142 procedure for the preparation of the monomodal and bimodal polydisperse synthetic samples is
143 shown in Figure 1. The distributions were designed using spherical glass beads SiLiBeads type S,
144 in three diameter ranges: SiLiBeads #5215 (100–275 μm), SiLiBeads #5218 (300–710 μm), and
145 SiLiBeads #4504 (900–1400 μm) (the number following the # represents the company product
146 code). Beads from these batches were first sieved into 100 μm -diameter intervals. Monomodal
147 and bimodal polydisperse distributions were then prepared by manually mixing known volumes
148 of beads from the different sieved batches in a large plastic tray. These mixed batches were used
149 to prepare synthetic samples with a porosity between 0.25 and 0.35. In the following, we detail
150 the two techniques used for the preparation of the synthetic samples: the procedure for sintered
151 glass beads blocks (Figure 1 (steps 1 to 5)), used to prepare samples with a porosity < 0.35 , and
152 the procedure for individual samples (Figure 1 (steps 1 to 5')), used to prepare samples with a
153 porosity of 0.35.

154 Samples with a porosity < 0.35 were prepared from sintered blocks, similar to the method
155 described by Carbillet et al. (2021). To prepare sintered blocks, beads of known size distribution
156 - designed specifically as described here above - were spooned into a ceramic combustion tray
157 with an interior coated with a 0.5 cm-thick layer of plaster (Figure 1 (step 2)). The plaster layer
158 acts as a non-stick layer and allows for the easy removal of the sintered block. To identify batch-
159 scale inhomogeneities and prevent graded bedding from forming, the mixed beads from the
160 plastic mixing tray were carefully spooned into the ceramic tray, while checking for
161 homogeneity by visual inspection until the tray was full. Then, the tray was placed inside a box
162 furnace. The bead pack was heated at a constant rate of 3 $^{\circ}\text{C min}^{-1}$ to 680 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ (Figure 1 (step 3)),
163 which was then held constant for a certain time depending on the targeted final porosity.
164 Halfway through the dwell period, the tray was rotated in the furnace by 180 $^{\circ}$ of its initial
165 position to reduce any heterogeneities that may arise from the temperature distribution in the
166 furnace. At the end of the allotted sintering time, the block was cooled down to 500 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ at a rate
167 of 1 $^{\circ}\text{C min}^{-1}$ and finally to ambient temperature at a rate of 3 $^{\circ}\text{C min}^{-1}$. Finally, the sintered
168 block was removed from the tray (Figure 1 (step 4)). Samples with a diameter of 20 mm were
169 cored along the horizontal axis of the block (to avoid gravitational effects) and cut and precision-
170 ground to a nominal length of 40 mm (Figure 1 (step 5)).



171

172 **Figure 1** Schematics of the experimental procedure for the preparation of bidisperse and
 173 polydisperse sintered glass bead samples. Two methods were used: the preparation of suites of
 174 identical samples from sintered blocks (1–5) and the preparation of individual sintered samples
 175 (1–5'). A detailed description of each step of these two procedures is given in the main text, with
 176 references to the indices on the figure. For a given glass composition, final porosity ϕ_f is a
 177 function of temperature T , time at high-temperature t , and the grain size distribution (here
 178 marked as a grain size R).

179 Samples with a porosity of 0.35 were prepared individually, using single-use plaster
 180 molds to avoid damage that might result from coring samples from high-porosity sintered blocks.
 181 For each sample, a mixture of plaster and water was molded into a tube closed on one side, with
 182 external dimensions of $\phi = 70$ and $L = 90$ mm and 25 mm-thick walls. The mold was dried on a
 183 hot plate at 50 °C for at least 48 h. Then, the cylindrical mold was filled with a known distribution
 184 of glass beads (Figure 1 (step 2')) and a plastic cylinder with a diameter of 20 mm was used to
 185 compress the bead pack in the tube and flatten its surface. Prior to heating, the mold was closed
 186 using a $\phi = 20$ and $L = 13$ mm disk of low-porosity andesite (which is unaffected by the
 187 temperatures required for sintering, Heap et al., 2018) as an endcap to allow the mold to be
 188 cooked horizontally (Figure 1(3')). This allowed us to prevent gravity forces from generating a
 189 porosity gradient in the axial direction of the cylindrical sample (see Wadsworth et al. (2016) for
 190 a discussion of the effect of compaction gradients for tall samples/systems). The assembly was

191 sintered at 680 °C (Figure 1 (step 4')), using the same workflow used for the sintered blocks.
 192 Once the temperature in the furnace had been reduced to room-temperature, the plaster mold was
 193 taken out of the furnace and the sintered sample was retrieved (Figure 1 (step 5')) by gently
 194 breaking the plaster mold using a hammer. Although the individual sample method allows for a
 195 complete control over the grain size distribution, it could only be used to prepare high-porosity
 196 samples (0.35) because the sample cylindrical geometry is only preserved at incipient stages of
 197 sintering and would slump and change if allowed to sinter further.

198 Here we do not dwell on (or report) the specific times that each sample was sintered for
 199 at high temperature. However, we note that in general, for a given bead size distribution, longer
 200 sintering times will be represented as lower sample porosities, and samples comprising smaller
 201 grains will also sinter more rapidly to lower porosities. The purpose here is simply to output
 202 samples of a range of porosities in such a way that we can reliably reproduce the procedure. The
 203 reader is referred to Wadsworth et al. (2016) for overviews of the kinetics involved for the
 204 purposes of experimental design.

205 2.2 Description of the samples

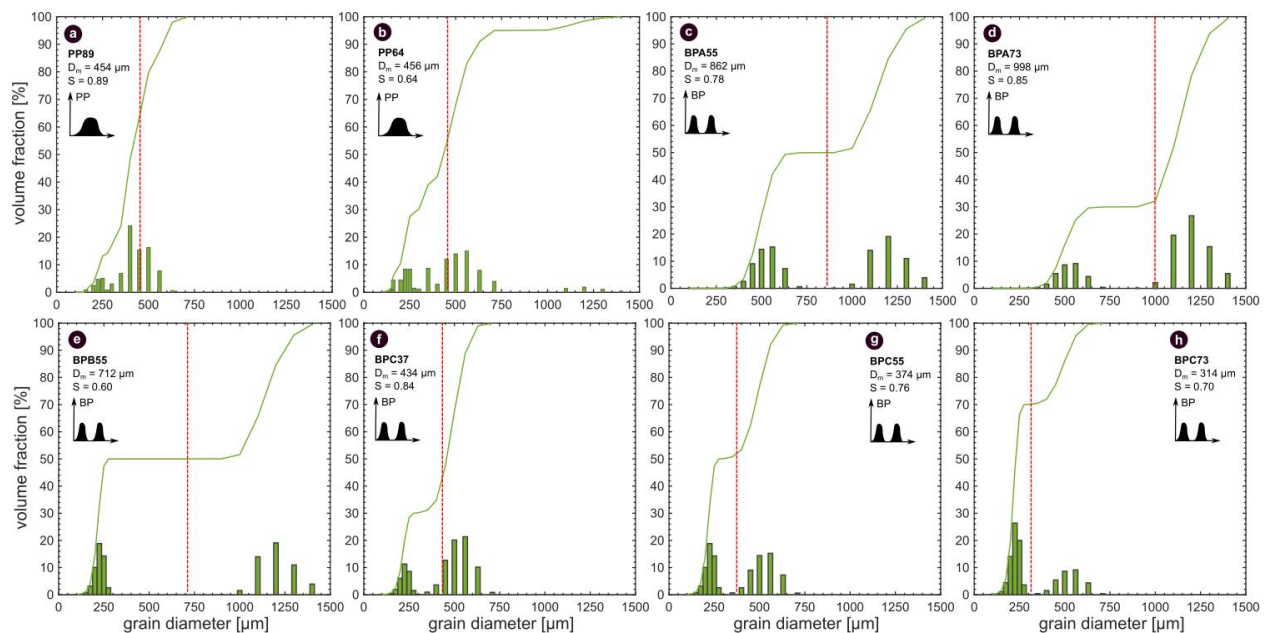
206 The sample dimensions, ϕ and L, and mass m were measured and the total porosity ϕ
 207 calculated using $\phi = 1 - [m/(\rho_s V_b)]$, where the sample bulk cylindrical volume is $V_b =$
 208 $\pi R^2 L$, with $R = \phi/2$, and ρ_s the glass solid density, which is the same before and after
 209 heating to 680 °C and equal to 2.49 g.cm⁻³. The total porosity of the samples used in this study is
 210 between 0.25 and 0.35, with an average uncertainty of +/- 0.005. The microstructural attributes
 211 of the synthetic samples are presented in Table 1. In total, eight different bead size distributions,
 212 presented graphically in Figure 2, were used to prepare synthetic samples. For each distribution,
 213 the first M_1 , second M_2 , and third M_3 moments were calculated (using equation S1 as
 214 described in the supplementary materials) and the degree of polydispersity S was calculated
 215 using $S = M_1 M_2 / M_3$ (Torquato, 2002; Wadsworth et al., 2021). S is in the range 0–1, where 0
 216 is highly polydisperse and 1 is the monodisperse limit.

217 The degree of polydispersity of the distributions varies between 0.60 and 0.89. In
 218 addition, the distributions can be segregated into two categories, depending on type of grain size
 219 distribution: bimodal polydisperse (BP) distributions correspond to samples with two different

220 sizes of grains and monomodal polydisperse (PP) distributions to those with a continuous
 221 variation of grain size with one monomodal peak. In the following, the bimodal and monomodal
 222 polydisperse distributions will be referred to simply as ‘bidisperse’ and ‘polydisperse’ for
 223 simplicity (while noting that the bimodal polydisperse distributions are not strictly bidisperse).
 224 Figure 2 includes small schematics that represent bimodal and monomodal polydisperse
 225 distributions, which will be repeated in the figures presented throughout this manuscript to
 226 facilitate comprehension.

227 For the purpose of the study, two polydisperse distributions (Figure 2a-b) and six
 228 bidisperse distributions were prepared (Figure 2c-h). The polydisperse distributions (a) PP89 and
 229 (b) PP64 have a similar mean grain diameter, approximately $D_m = 455 \mu\text{m}$, but the latter is less
 230 closely clustered, i.e., more polydisperse with a lower S . The bidisperse distributions have
 231 different volume fractions of grains with diameters of 224 (refer to as small beads), 523 (medium
 232 beads), and 1203 μm (large beads).

233

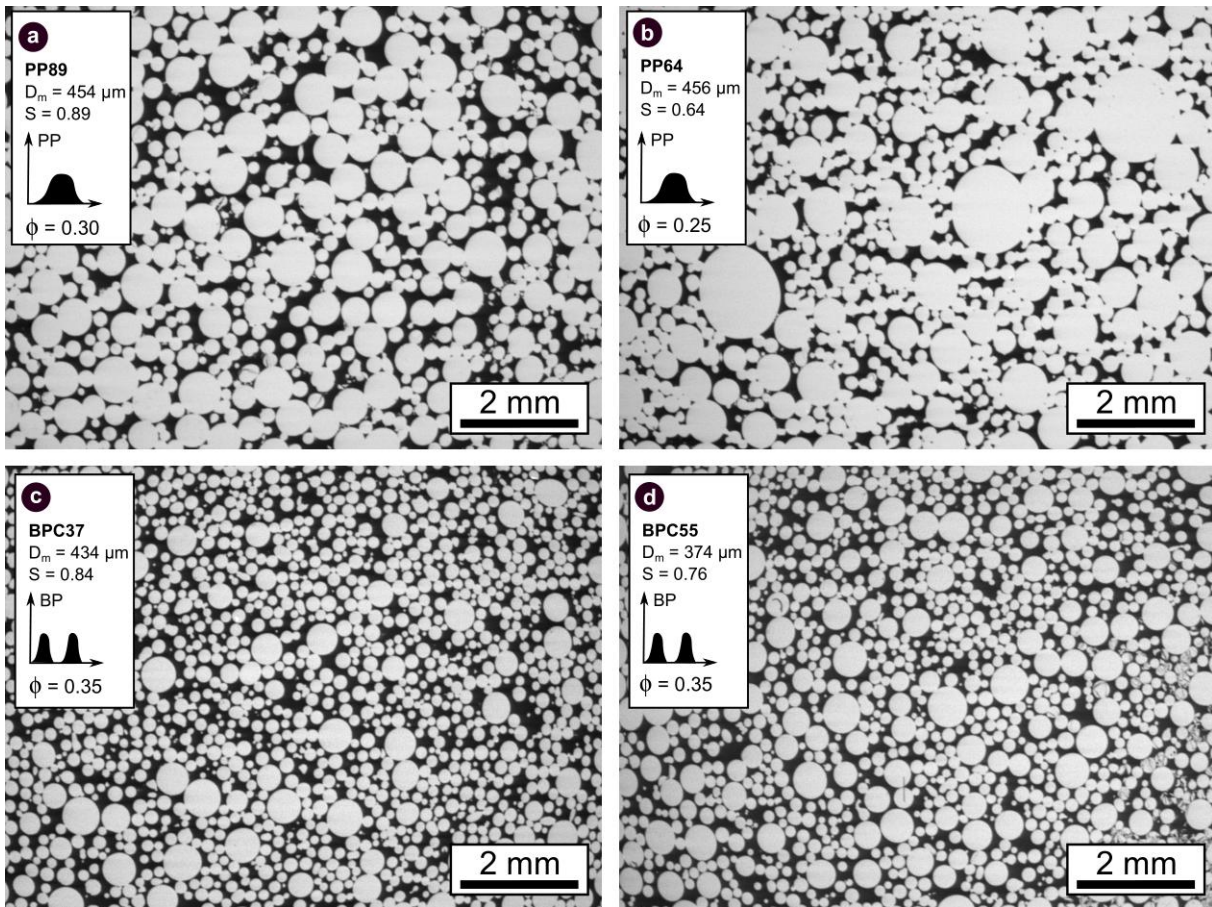


234

235 **Figure 2** Grain size distributions of the synthetic samples. The distributions are presented in
 236 terms of volume fraction against grain diameter, with the cumulative volume fraction (green
 237 solid lines) and the first moment of the distribution M_1 , i.e., the mean grain diameter (here

238 termed D_m ; dashed red lines). Distributions (a) PP89 and (b) PP64 are monomodal polydisperse
239 distributions, and distributions (c) BPA55, (d) BPA73, (e) BPB55, (f) BPC37, (g) BPC55 and (h)
240 BPC73 are bimodal polydisperse distributions. The mean grain diameter D_m and the degree of
241 polydispersivity S of each distribution are given on the corresponding plot, above a schematic
242 which indicates qualitatively the distribution type (monomodal polydisperse, PP, or bimodal
243 polydisperse, BP). For clarity, these schematics will be used throughout the manuscript. S is in
244 the range 0-1, where 1 is the monodisperse limit.

245 Although it does not accurately capture the size of the grains that compose the bidisperse
246 samples, the mean grain diameters of the bidisperse distributions are also indicated in Figure 2
247 (dashed red lines). For simplissity, the naming system used to differentiate between the
248 bidisperse distributions is presented in Table S2, in the supplementary materials. Overall, the
249 samples composed of the largest grains are those prepared using the BPA distributions, and those
250 with the smallest grains are those prepared using the BPC distributions (Figure 2).



251

252 **Figure 3** Microstructure of intact samples with a polydisperse grain size distribution (a) PP89
 253 and porosity of 0.30 and (b) PP64 and porosity of 0.25 and a bidisperse grain size distribution (c)
 254 BPC37 and porosity of 0.35 and (d) BPC55 and porosity of 0.35. The degree of polydispersivity
 255 S is in the range 0-1, where 1 is the monodisperse limit.

256

257 Backscattered scanning electron microscope (SEM) images of synthetic samples with
 258 polydisperse and bidisperse grain size distributions are presented in Figure 3. As predicted
 259 theoretically by viscous sintering theory (Frenkel, 1945; Mackenzie & Shuttleworth, 1949;
 260 Wadsworth et al., 2016), the width of the necks found at grain-to-grain contacts increases
 261 progressively, from a point-contact geometry at high porosity close to the initial packing state of
 262 the beads, to a wide neck with no remnant interface visible at lower relative porosities (compare
 263 Figure 3a with Figure 3b). Similar to the monodisperse synthetic samples prepared previously
 264 (Carbillet et al., 2021), microscopic heterogeneities can be observed in the samples prepared

265 herein, especially in the samples with the highest porosity values (Figure 3c,d). However, 2D
266 porosity measurements performed by image analysis on the micrographs (using a square window
267 of 2 mm of edge-length in ImageJ), yield closely clustered monomodal distributions. As random
268 variations in the microstructure occur on length scales much smaller than the sample lengths, the
269 synthetic samples prepared are statistically homogeneous at the sample scale.

270 2.3 Deformation experiments

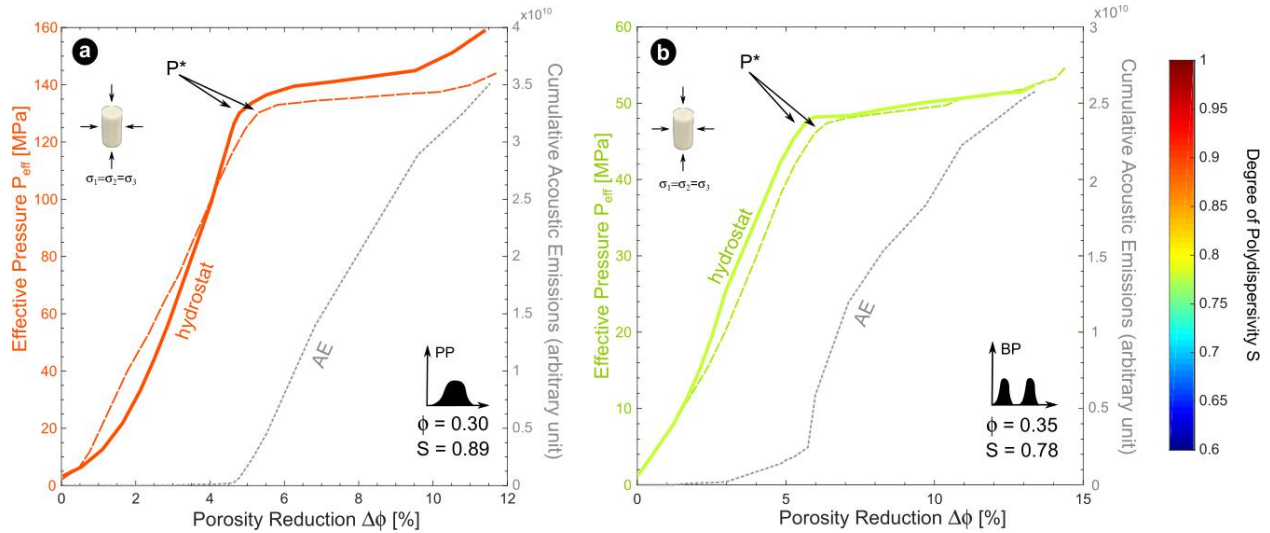
271 For the purpose of this study, we performed two types of deformation experiments:
272 hydrostatic and triaxial compression experiments. All the experiments were performed under
273 saturated and drained conditions using the triaxial press at the Strasbourg Institute of Earth &
274 Environment (France).

275 Prior to testing, all the synthetic samples were dried in a vacuum oven at 40 °C for at
276 least 48 h. The samples were then jacketed with thin (< 1 mm-thick) copper foil and vacuum-
277 saturated with de-aired, deionized water. Samples were then placed between two steel endcaps
278 within a Viton jacket, to ensure the separation between the pore fluid and confining fluid, and
279 mounted in the pressure vessel. The triaxial apparatus contains three servo-controlled
280 independent circuits: a confining pressure P_c circuit (kerosene), a pore pressure P_p circuit
281 (deionized water), and an axial pressure circuit, the latter of which provides the axial load by
282 moving an axial steel piston.

283 During the tests, the applied axial force was measured using a pressure probe in the axial
284 pressure circuit, and the axial displacement of the piston was measured using a linear variable
285 differential transformer (LVDT). Using the initial dimensions of the sample, axial stress and
286 strain were calculated from these values. Porosity change was also calculated from the
287 conversion of pore volume change given by the displacement of the piston in the pore pressure
288 intensifier. Finally, acoustic emissions (AEs) were recorded using a USB AE Node from
289 Physical Acoustics and a piezoelectric transducer (with a frequency bandwidth of 200-900 kHz)
290 attached to the piston. The software AEWin, with a detection threshold for an AE hit set at 28 dB,
291 was used to monitor the acoustic emissions energy, i.e. the area under each received AE
292 waveform.

293 We used the same experimental procedure described in Carbillet et al. (2021) to perform
294 hydrostatic and triaxial experiments. We assume a simple effective pressure law $P_{\text{eff}} = P_c - P_p$
295 and adopt the convention that compressive stress and compactive strain are positive. All
296 experiments, hydrostatic and triaxial, were performed using a constant pore pressure P_p of 10
297 MPa.

298 During hydrostatic compression, the effective pressure P_{eff} was increased in steps
299 (corresponding to an average rate of 10^{-4} MPa.s $^{-1}$) until the pressure required for the onset of
300 grain crushing P^* was reached (Zhang et al., 1990). Pressure steps were varied between 1 and 10
301 MPa depending on the time necessary to reach equilibrium at the previous step, which we
302 assumed to be achieved when the pore volume changed at a rate lower than 10^{-2} s $^{-1}$. Triaxial
303 compression was achieved by superposing an axial pressure to a hydrostatic pressure. First, the
304 sample was placed under hydrostatic conditions by increasing P_{eff} to a target value, with $P_p =$
305 10 MPa, and the system was left to equilibrate overnight. Then, an axial force was applied by
306 advancing the loading piston on top of the sample at a servocontrolled rate corresponding to a
307 strain rate of 10^{-5} s $^{-1}$. The difference between the axial stress (σ_1) and the confining pressure
308 (σ_3) is referred to as differential stress Q (i.e., $Q = \sigma_1 - \sigma_3$). The effective mean stress P was
309 calculated for both hydrostatic and triaxial experiments as the difference between the mean stress
310 and the pore pressure, i.e., $P = (\sigma_1 + 2\sigma_3)/3 - P_p$. All triaxial tests were performed in the
311 ductile regime and samples were deformed up to axial strain considered suitable for subsequent
312 microstructural observations using the SEM, i.e., 4% if the mechanical data showed stress drops
313 (as a result of compaction localization; Baud et al., 2004) and 6% if not. Unloading was also
314 performed at 10^{-5} s $^{-1}$ and the pore and confining pressures were removed slowly to preserve the
315 deformed samples. Polished thin sections for microstructural inspection using an SEM were
316 prepared using selected post-deformation samples.

317 **3 Results: hydrostatic compression**318 **3.1 Mechanical data and microstructural observations**

319

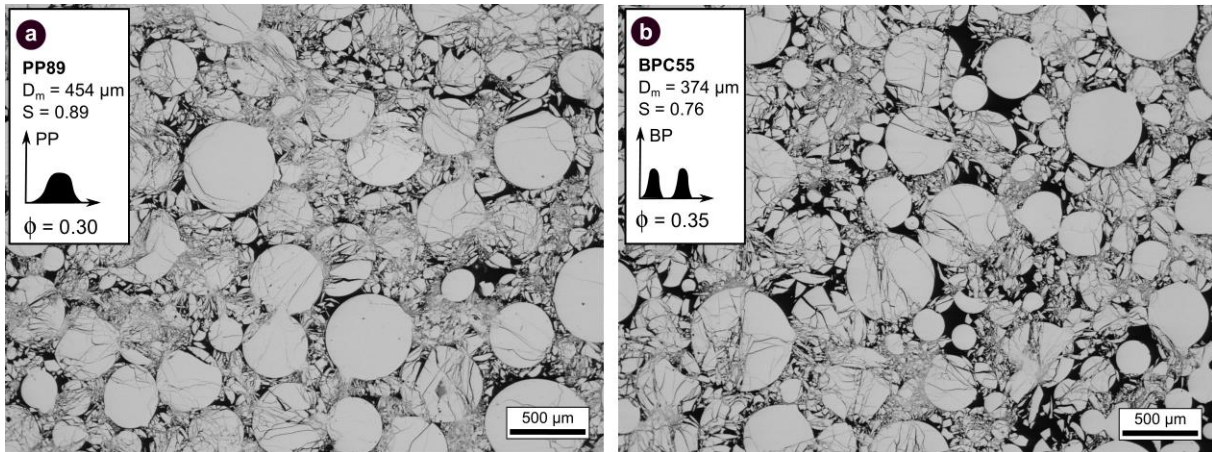
320 **Figure 4** Mechanical data (colored lines) and acoustic emission (AE) energy (gray lines) for the
 321 hydrostatic compression of (a) polydisperse synthetic samples PP8911 (dashed red line) and
 322 PP8916 (bold red line) and (b) bidisperse synthetic samples BPA5521 (dashed green line) and
 323 BPA5531 (bold green line). To demonstrate reproducibility, each panel shows the data for two
 324 experiments performed on samples with identical microstructural attributes.

325

326 Examples of the mechanical and AE data for hydrostatic compression experiments
 327 performed on the samples with a polydisperse and bidisperse grain size distribution are shown in
 328 Figures 4(a) and 4(b), respectively. We first note that the experiments are reproducible between
 329 samples with identical microstructural attributes (Figure 4). The results for polydisperse and
 330 bidisperse samples are qualitatively similar and show four phenomenological stages. First, the
 331 porosity decreases non-linearly as P_{eff} is increased and no AEs are recorded. Then, the porosity
 332 decreases broadly linearly with increasing P_{eff} whilst the AE activity remains low. When P_{eff}
 333 reaches a threshold value, the critical pressure for grain crushing P^* (Zhang et al., 1990), AE
 334 activity suddenly increases and, concomitantly, the slope of the mechanical data decreases. The
 335 values for P^* are compiled in Table 3. Beyond P^* , the porosity decreases substantially as P_{eff} is

336 increased (porosity decreases by up to 6% for a 10 MPa increase in P_{eff}) and the samples
 337 undergo a bit of hardening (Figure 4).

338 The microstructures of a polydisperse sample and a bidisperse sample deformed under
 339 hydrostatic compression to beyond P^* are presented in Figure 5. The SEM images show that the
 340 substantial porosity reduction beyond P^* is due to extensive distributed grain crushing, which
 341 affects all grains, whatever their size, and despite the differences in initial porosity and
 342 polydispersity. Further, no differences were observed between the polydisperse and the
 343 bidisperse synthetic samples in terms of the microstructural features that develop under
 344 hydrostatic compression (Figure 5).



345

346 **Figure 5** Representative backscattered scanning electron microscope images showing the
 347 microstructure of synthetic samples deformed under hydrostatic loading up to an effective stress
 348 beyond P^* for (a) a polydisperse grain size distribution and porosity of 0.30 and (b) a bidisperse
 349 distribution and a porosity of 0.35. Extensive grain crushing is observed for both types of
 350 distributions. Black: porosity, gray: glass.

351

352 **Table 1** Microstructural attributes of the synthetic samples and critical stress values for the onset
 353 of inelastic compaction under triaxial conditions (C*) and hydrostatic conditions (P*).

Sample	Porosity ϕ +/- 0.005	Polydispersivity S (0: polydisperse limit; 1: monodisperse limit)	Mean Grain Diameter D_m [μm]	Confining Pressure P_c [MPa] (P_p =10 MPa)	Critical Stress C*	
					Differential Stress Q [MPa]	Effective Mean Stress P [MPa]
PP8915	0.297			70	67	72
PP8914	0.301			90	61	90
PP8913	0.290			110	47	106
PP8912	0.297			130	30	120
		0.89	454			
PP8911	0.291			hydrostatic loading	0	136
						P*
PP8916	0.303			hydrostatic loading	0	139
						P*
PP6414	0.256			50	76	55
PP649	0.252	0.64	456	80	83	88
PP6410	0.249			110	77	116

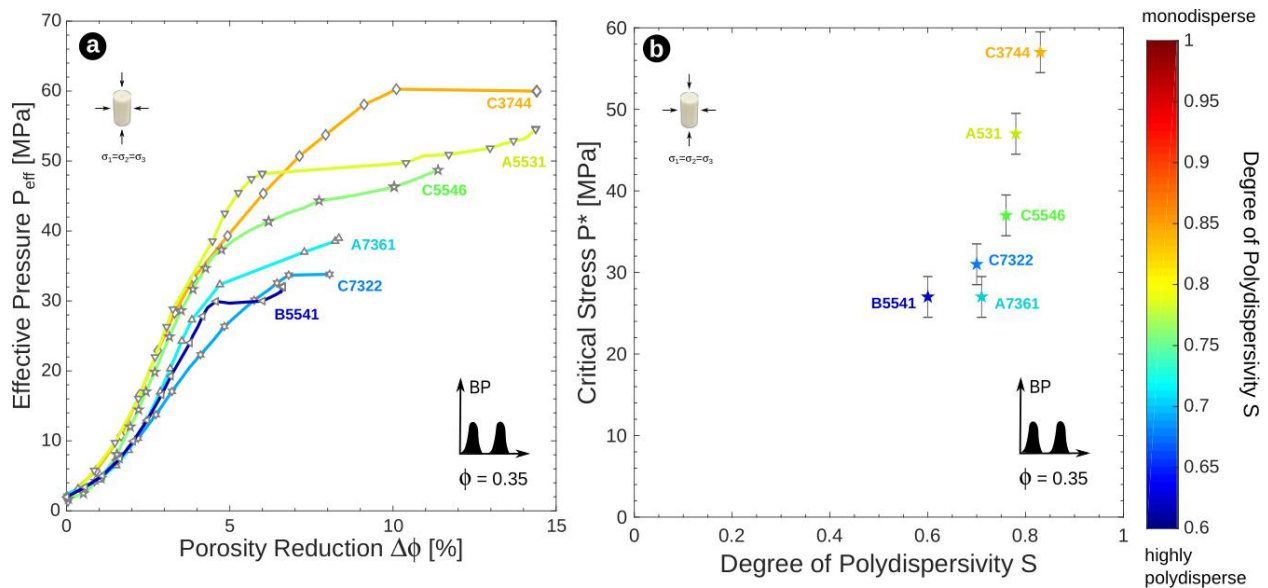
PP641	0.251			140	70	133
PP643	0.257			170	46	165
PP642	0.253			hydrostatic loading	0	170
						P*
BPA5521	0.361			hydrostatic loading	0	47
		0.78				P*
		(bidisperse)	862			
BPA5531	0.360			hydrostatic loading	0	48
						P*
BPA7361	0.357			hydrostatic loading	0	27
		0.71				P*
		(bidisperse)	726			
BPB5541	0.351			hydrostatic loading	0	27
		0.60				P*
		(bidisperse)	712			
BPC3742	0.354			35	12	20
		0.83				P*
		(bidisperse)	434			
BPC3744	0.357			hydrostatic loading	0	53
						P*

BPC5543	0.350		35	15	30
		0.76 (bidisperse)	374		P*
BPC5546	0.352		hydrostatic loading	0	45
BPC7321	0.360		25	12	17
		0.70	314		P*
BPC7322	0.361		hydrostatic loading	0	31

354

355

3.2 Influence of polydispersity

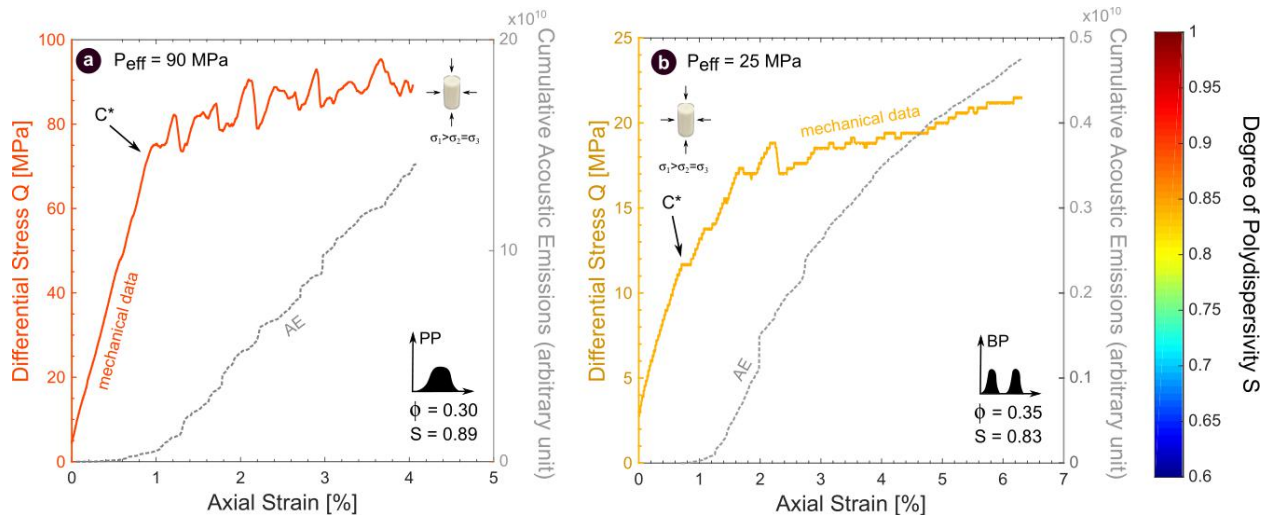


356

357 **Figure 6** Mechanical data for the hydrostatic compression of bidisperse synthetic samples with a
 358 porosity of 0.35. (a) The hydrostatic curves are shown as the effective pressure against the
 359 porosity reduction, using a colormap for the degree of grain size distribution polydispersity.

360 The name of the grain size distribution of each sample is indicated at the end of the
361 corresponding hydrostat and corresponds to both Table 1 and Figure 2. (b) The critical stresses
362 for the onset of grain crushing (P^*) are plotted against polydispersivity.

363 The bidisperse samples deformed under hydrostatic compression, which have a porosity
364 of approximately 0.35, span a large range of polydispersivity (0.60–0.83). Figure 6 presents the
365 results of the hydrostatic tests conducted on the bidisperse samples. Overall, our mechanical data
366 show that changing the polydispersivity S from 0.60 to 0.83 (i.e., towards a more monodisperse
367 distribution) increases the pressure required for the onset of grain crushing P^* from 27 to 57
368 MPa (Figure 6). Figure 6(b) shows that the evolution of P^* with S is well described by a
369 positive linear slope over the range of polydispersivity investigated. Therefore, our results
370 suggest that the higher the polydispersivity of the grain size distribution (i.e. the lower the value
371 of S), the lower the stress required for the onset of grain crushing.

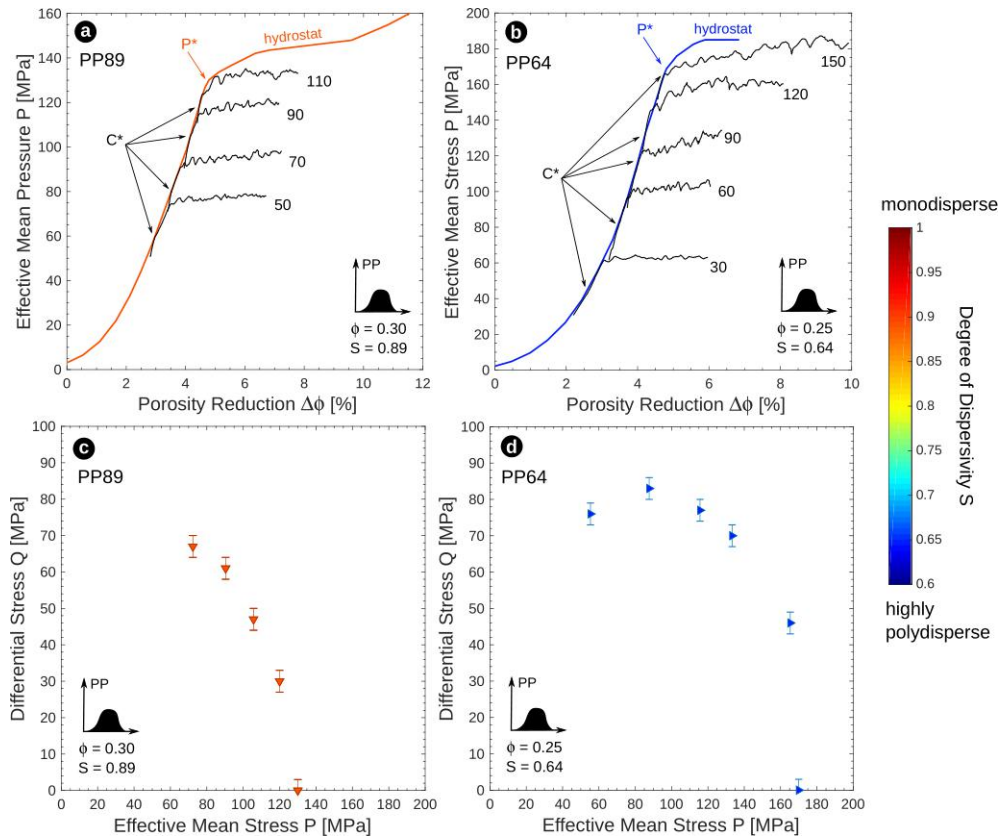
372 **4 Results: triaxial compression**373 **4.1 Mechanical data**

374

375 **Figure 7** Mechanical data (solid lines) and cumulative acoustic emission energy (dashed gray
 376 lines) for triaxial tests performed on (a) a polydisperse synthetic sample PP8914 and (b) a
 377 bidisperse synthetic sample BPC3742 in the ductile regime.

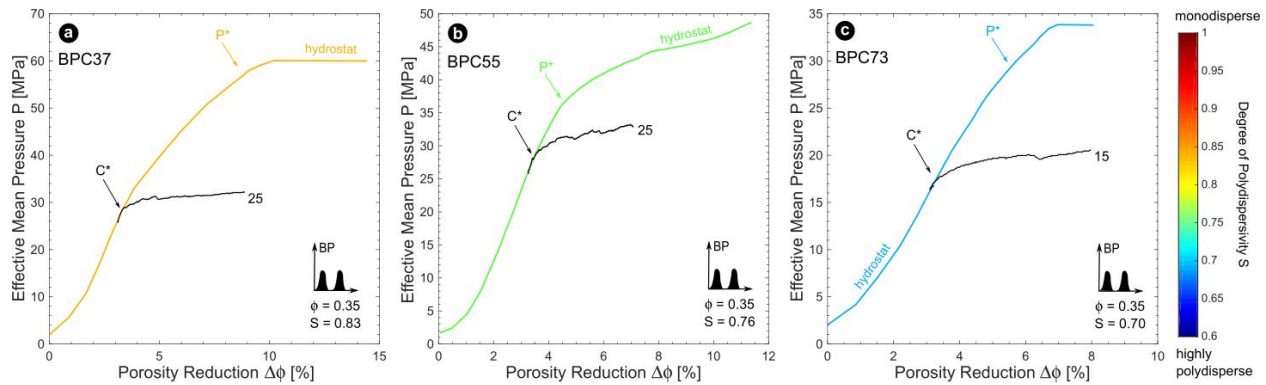
378

379 An example of the mechanical (solid colored lines) and AE (dashed gray lines) data for
 380 triaxial deformation experiments performed on samples with a polydisperse and bidisperse grain
 381 size distribution is shown in Figures 7(a) and 7(b), respectively. Qualitatively speaking, the data
 382 show a first stage where the axial strain increases linearly with Q and where the AE activity is
 383 low. In a second stage, the slope of the stress-strain curves deviates from linearity and there is an
 384 acceleration in AE activity, marking the transition to the inelastic regime of deformation. The
 385 critical stress for inelastic deformation, the onset of shear-enhanced compaction, is termed C^*
 386 (labeled on Figure 7). The values for C^* for all experiments are compiled in Table 1. Beyond C^* ,
 387 the mechanical data for polydisperse and bidisperse samples deformed in the ductile regime are
 388 different: the stress-strain curves for polydisperse samples show numerous stress drops,
 389 concomitant with small bursts in AE activity, whilst the stress-strain curves for bidisperse
 390 samples show far fewer, and less pronounced, stress drops (Figure 7).



391

392 **Figure 8** Hydrostatic and triaxial mechanical data for polydisperse (PP) synthetic samples. The
 393 effective mean stress-porosity reduction curves for triaxial tests (black lines) are compiled with
 394 the corresponding hydrostatic curve (colored lines) for samples with a grain size distribution
 395 PP89 (a) and PP64 (b). The effective pressures applied during the triaxial tests are indicated at
 396 the end of each corresponding curve. The critical stress values (C^* and P^* compiled in Table 1)
 397 are plotted in the P-Q stress space where they map out the compactive yield caps for the
 398 distributions (c) PP89 and (d) PP64.



399

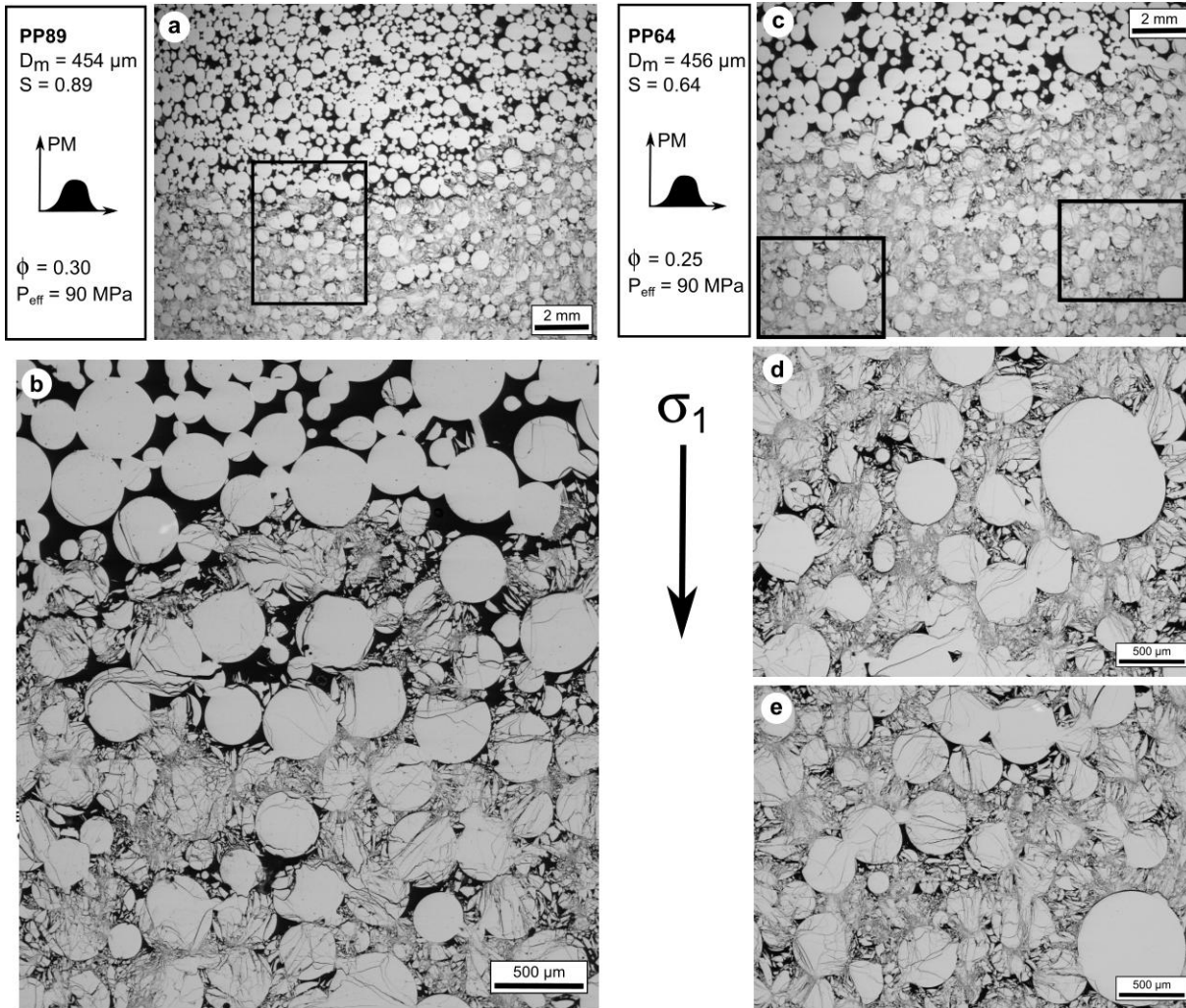
400 **Figure 9** Hydrostatic (colored lines) and triaxial mechanical data (black lines) presented as the
 401 effective mean stress against the porosity reduction for bidisperse (BP) synthetic samples with a
 402 grain size distribution (a) C37, (b) C55 and (c) C73. The effective pressures applied during the
 403 triaxial tests are indicated at the end of each corresponding curve.

404 The complete mechanical dataset for polydisperse samples and bidisperse samples are
 405 shown in Figures 8 and 9, respectively. The effective mean stress-porosity reduction curves for
 406 triaxial tests are compiled with the corresponding curve for hydrostatic pressurization. When
 407 plotted in the differential stress-effective mean stress space, the values for the stress required to
 408 reach C^* and P^* map out compactive yield caps for the two polydisperse grain size distributions
 409 investigated. The yield caps for our polydisperse samples have an elliptical shape (Figure 8c,d).
 410 In detail, the polydisperse samples with a porosity of 0.25 have a higher compactive yield stress
 411 values than those with a porosity of 0.30 (Figure 8a,b). As a result, the compactive yield cap for
 412 the polydisperse samples with a porosity of 0.25 is comparatively larger than that with a porosity
 413 of 0.30 (Figure 8c,d).

414 When comparing the mechanical datasets for polydisperse and bidisperse samples, we
 415 notice more, and larger, stress drops in the mechanical data for the polydisperse samples than in
 416 those for the bidisperse samples (Figures 7, 8, and 9). These stress drops, and the concomitant
 417 surges in AE activity, are mechanical instabilities that often result from the occurrence of
 418 compaction localization (Baud et al., 2004). In the following, to further interpret our mechanical
 419 data, we present microstructural observations made on the polydisperse and bidisperse samples
 420 post-deformation.

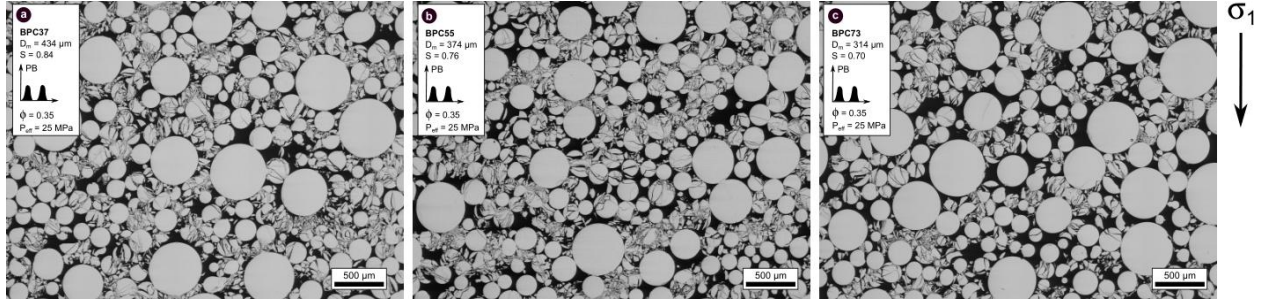
421 4.2 Microstructural observations

422 The deformation features observed in polydisperse and bidisperse samples deformed in
423 the ductile regime are presented in Figures 10 and 11, respectively. In the polydisperse samples,
424 mechanical compaction was found to form a front growing from both ends of the samples and
425 advancing towards the center with increasing axial strain (Figure 10a,c). For the polydisperse
426 sample with a higher relative value of S (i.e., closer to monodisperse), 200–500 μm -thick
427 compaction bands were observed in the deformed zones, close to the boundary between the
428 largely intact material and the deformation front (Figure 10b). This observation suggests that
429 mechanical compaction took place by growth of compaction bands perpendicular to the
430 maximum principal stress from the ends of the sample first, and then progressively towards the
431 center. For the polydisperse sample with a lower value of S (0.64), i.e., the more disperse sample,
432 the presence of compaction bands in the deformed zones is more ambiguous. However, very
433 tortuous bands of crushed beads appear to have formed without pervasively crushing of largest
434 grains (Figure 10d,e). In the bidisperse samples, delocalized cataclasis was observed (Figure 11).
435 Regardless of the relative percentage of large grains compared to small grains, our
436 microstructural observations reveal that the larger grains remained intact but that the smaller
437 grains were extensively crushed. This observation is in agreement with our mechanical data,
438 where the stress-strain curves for the bidisperse samples show almost no stress drops (Figure 7).



439

440 **Figure 10** Representative backscattered scanning electron microscope images of the
 441 microstructure of polydisperse synthetic samples deformed under triaxial compression up to
 442 stresses beyond C^* . At a degree of polydispersivity $S = 0.89$ and porosity of 0.30 (a),
 443 mechanical compaction features spread from the ends towards the center of the sample and form
 444 (b) compaction bands. At a degree of polydispersivity of $S = 0.64$ and a porosity of 0.25, (c)
 445 mechanical compaction spread from the extremities towards the center of the sample, (d,e)
 446 without affecting the bigger grains. Black: porosity, gray: glass.

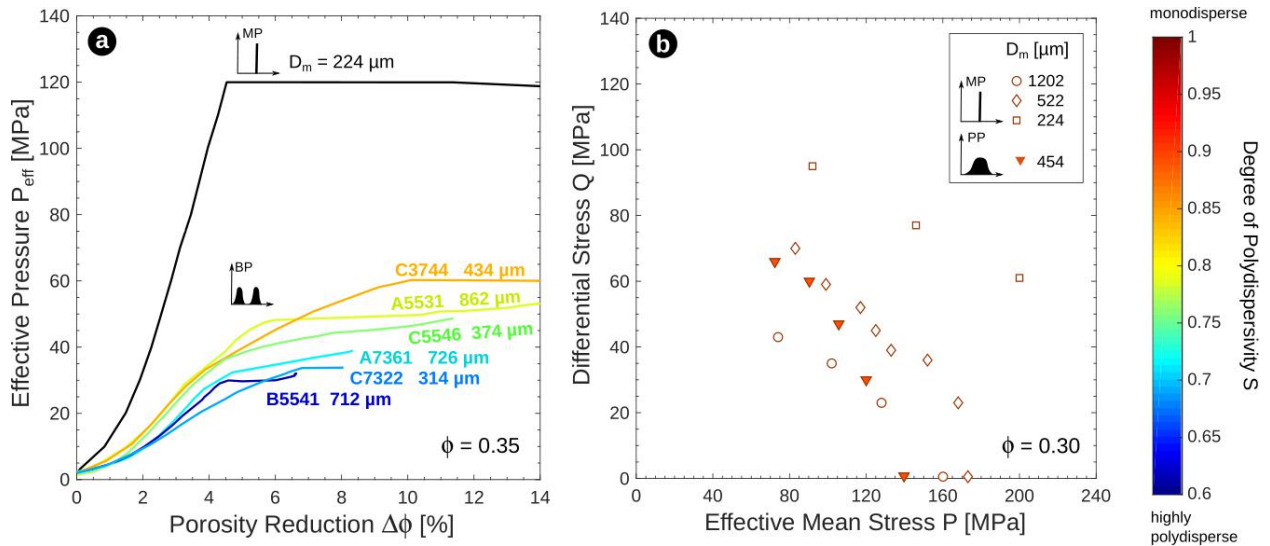


447

448 **Figure 11** Representative backscattered scanning electron microscope images of the
 449 microstructure of bidisperse synthetic samples deformed under triaxial compression up to
 450 stresses beyond C^* . From (a) to (c), the ratio of small grains to big grains decreases. For all
 451 distributions, distributed compaction, where small grains are crushed while bigger grains remain
 452 intact, is observed. Black: porosity, gray: glass.

453 5 Discussion

454 5.1 Comparison between polydisperse and monodisperse sintered glass beads samples



455

456 **Figure 12** (a) Hydrostatic curves for synthetic samples with a porosity of 0.35 and with
 457 bidisperse (BP, colored curves) and monodisperse (MP, black curve) grain size distributions. (b)
 458 Compactive yield caps of synthetic samples with a porosity of 0.30 and polydisperse (PP, solid
 459 triangles) and monodisperse (open symbols) grain size distributions. The mean of the grain size

460 distributions is given as D_m and the degree of polydispersivity S is colorcoded using the
461 colorscale on the right.

462 The deformation of sintered glass bead samples with monodisperse grain size
463 distributions and different mean grain diameters have been studied by Carbillet et al. (2021). In
464 the following, we compare the results reported in Carbillet et al. (2021) with those collected for
465 bidisperse and polydisperse synthetic samples in this study. Figure 12 shows a comparison of
466 mechanical data obtained on monodisperse, bidisperse, and polydisperse samples under
467 hydrostatic and triaxial compression. When submitted to hydrostatic loading, bidisperse and
468 monodisperse synthetic samples behave differently in two main aspects: (1) at constant porosity,
469 the stress required to reach P^* is higher for a sample with a monodisperse distribution than for all
470 samples with a bidisperse distribution, whatever the polydispersivity; (2) while the transition to
471 inelastic deformation at P^* is associated with a sharp increase in the reduction of porosity for the
472 monodisperse sample, this transition is more progressive for the bidisperse samples. The
473 difference in the stress required to reach P^* might be partly due to a difference in the mean or
474 characteristic grain size, which was found to be negatively correlated to the stress required for
475 the onset of inelastic compaction (Carbillet et al., 2021). In Figure 12(a), the mean grain
476 diameter of the monodisperse sample is 224 μm whereas the mean grain diameters of the
477 bidisperse samples are in the range 314–998 μm . Moreover, complexities might arise from the
478 fact that our bidisperse synthetic samples are prepared with variable proportions of large,
479 medium, and small beads (Figure 2, Table S2). Therefore, the differences in strength due to
480 changes in the grain size are integrated with those due to changes in the polydispersivity of the
481 grain size distribution. For instance, we note that P^* is slightly higher for the distribution BPC73
482 than for BPA73 although the latter is less polydisperse and therefore expected to be lower. The
483 difference in P^* might be explained by the fact that the distribution BPA73 contains 70 vol% of
484 large beads and 30 vol% of medium beads while the distributions BPC73 contains no large beads
485 but 70 and 30 vol% of medium and small beads, respectively. However, over the ranges of grain
486 size and polydispersivity investigated, our data suggest that the degree of polydispersivity has a
487 stronger control over P^* than the mean grain size for bidisperse samples. Moreover, although
488 differences in the relative proportion of large grains to small grains might explain some of the
489 difference in P^* , it is not sufficient to explain the very low P^* values found for the bidisperse
490 samples compared to monodisperse samples.

491 When comparing the compactive yield cap for polydisperse samples with those for
492 monodisperse samples we observe that, for a same porosity and similar mean grain diameter, the
493 stresses required to reach C^* are lower for the polydisperse synthetic samples (Figure 12(b)).
494 This observation concurs with the result that samples with a very disperse grain size distribution
495 undergo inelastic compaction at lower stress states than those with a more closely clustered
496 distribution, closer to the monodisperse limit. When we consider the results for monodisperse
497 samples only, it appears that a much larger reduction in stress results from the increase in mean
498 grain diameter. Therefore, according to the compilation in Figure 12(b), the mean grain size
499 appears to exert a higher-order control on the critical stress for the onset of shear-enhanced
500 compaction than the degree of polydispersivity. However, this observation is limited to the
501 ranges of grain size and polydispersivity investigated in the present study, which are much
502 smaller than those observed in natural porous rocks (Carbillet et al., 2021).

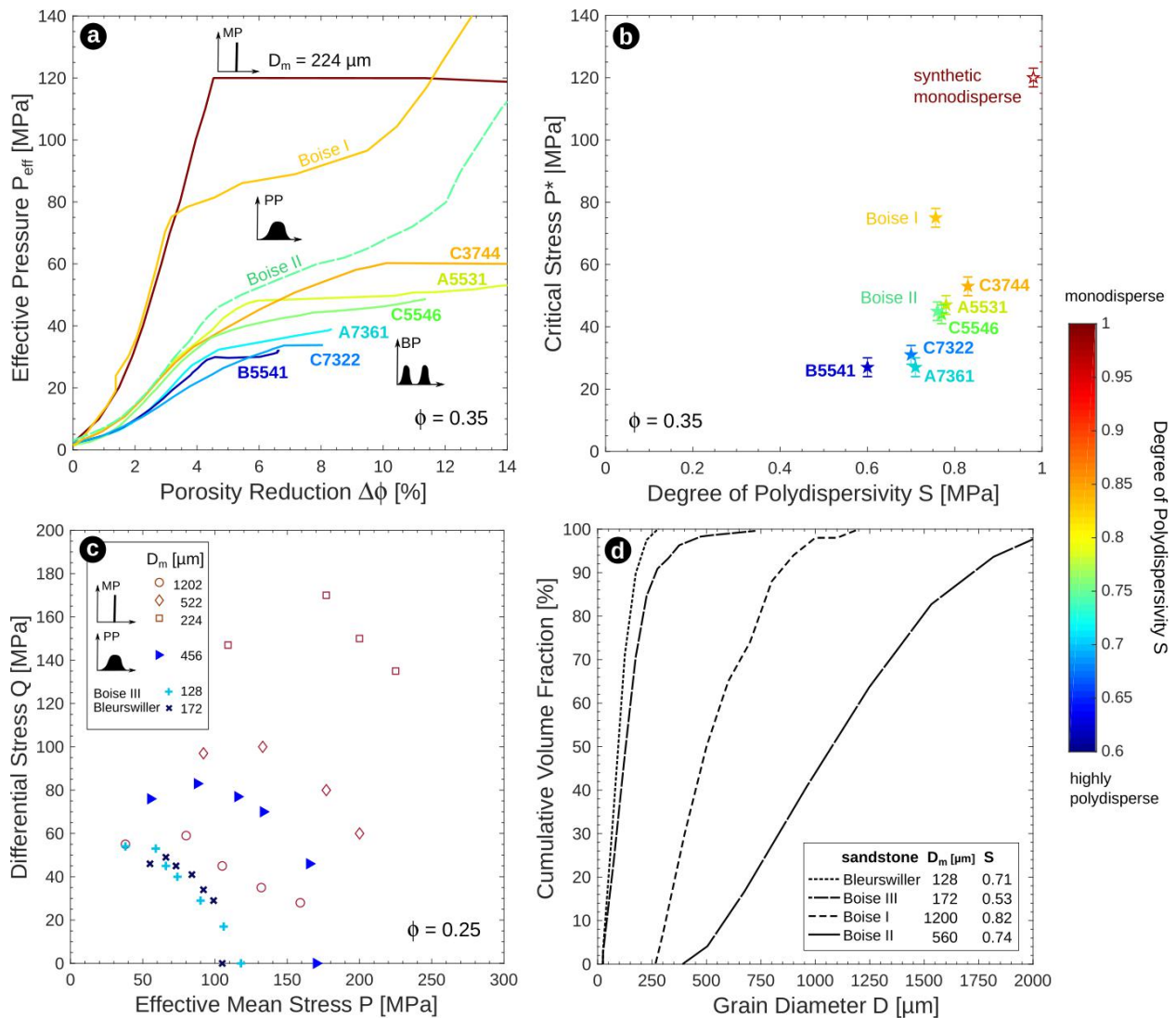
503 Under an externally applied stress, the bulk mechanical response of granular rocks is
504 controlled by the arrangement of forces at the grain-scale, i.e., by the morphology of the force
505 chain network, defined as the subset of grain-to-grain contacts carrying the largest forces in the
506 system (Guéguen & Boutéca, 2004). Indeed, mechanical deformation is predicted to occur in the
507 strong force network, which carries a force larger than the average force in the system (Zhang et
508 al., 2017). Moreover, discrete element simulations suggest that the strong network only involves
509 a selected number of grains within the microstructure (Peters et al., 2005; Vallejo et al., 2005).
510 To probe the influence of the grain size distribution of granular materials on the geometry and
511 distribution of the force chains, diverse methods of numerical modeling have been developed
512 over the past decades (Papadopoulos et al., 2018). In this study, the mechanical data obtained
513 using simplified two-phases granular samples suggest that increasing the polydispersivity of the
514 grain size distribution decreases the stress require to reach inelastic compaction. This is in
515 agreement with the results from both Lan et al. (2010) and Peng et al. (2017) who reported that
516 numerical samples with a more monodisperse grain size distribution fail at higher stress under
517 uniaxial compression. However, Muthuswamy and Tordesillas (2006) also found that straight
518 force chains with a higher degree of branching, which results in a macroscopically stronger
519 granular material, are more likely to form in more polydisperse samples, which in their case also
520 have a lower average packing density. In detail, the microstructural data show that deformation
521 affects the small grains more than the large grains, suggesting that force chains would develop

522 preferentially in smaller particles. This finding is in agreement with the fractal comminution
523 model developed by Sammis and Ashby (1986) which stipulates that the distribution of contacts
524 is such that smaller grains can cushion the larger particles and shield them from tensile stress
525 concentrations. As a result, crushing would preferentially develop in the smaller grains while
526 larger grains remain intact. Desu and Annabattula (2019) also reported that smaller grains in a
527 polydisperse assembly have a lower coordination number, the influence of which on the grain
528 strength was measured by Saadi et al. (2017), who showed that grains with a higher coordination
529 number were stronger.

530 Therefore, the lower critical stress values found for bidisperse and polydisperse synthetic
531 samples (Figure 12) are likely due to the homogeneity of the monodisperse sample compared to
532 the bidisperse and polydisperse samples. As the shape and elastic properties of all glass beads are
533 the same, most grains in the monodisperse samples are crushed at the same critical state of stress
534 under hydrostatic compression (Figure 12(a)). On the contrary, in the bidisperse and polydisperse
535 samples, normal forces induced at the grain contacts likely reach the critical value at different
536 values of the externally applied effective pressure, resulting in an earlier and more gradual
537 transition to inelastic deformation for the bulk sample. This can explain some of the differences
538 between the shape of the hydrostatic curves in Figure 12(a).

539

5.2 Comparison to natural porous rocks



540

541 **Figure 13** Comparison between mechanical data obtained on sintered glass bead samples and
 542 mechanical data reported for natural sandstones. (a) The hydrostatic curves of the bidisperse
 543 synthetic samples compared to that of a monodisperse synthetic sample (Carbillet et al., 2021)
 544 and of Boise I (Zhang et al., 1990) and Boise II (Baud et al., 2000) sandstones. (b) P^* values are
 545 presented as a function of the degree of polydispersity and fitted using a linear regression. (c)
 546 Critical stress values reported for monodisperse synthetic samples (Carbillet et al., 2021) and for
 547 Boise III and Bleurswiller sandstones (Cheung et al., 2012) are compiled with those for
 548 polydisperse samples. (d) The grain size distributions of the natural sandstones which our

549 synthetic samples are compared to were used to derive the mean grain diameter D_m and
550 polydispersivity S . The latter is colorcoded using the colorbar on the right.

551

552 Carbillet et al. (2021) showed that sintered glass bead samples, which can be prepared to
553 contain independently controlled and predefined porosities and grain size distributions, are
554 suitable analogs for natural sandstones. Therefore, we consider that the results presented in this
555 study can be compared with those reported for natural sandstones of similar porosity to gain
556 insights into the influence of grain size distribution on the mechanical behavior of natural porous
557 rocks. In Figure 13, mechanical data for monodisperse, bidisperse, and polydisperse synthetic
558 samples are compiled with mechanical data for Bleurswiller sandstone (France) and three
559 sandstones from Boise (Idaho, USA), which we refer to as Boise I, Boise II, and Boise III. Boise
560 I is a coarse-grained and poorly-sorted sandstone with a porosity of 0.35 that is composed of 40
561 vol% quartz and has a clay content of 6 vol% (Krohn, 1988). Zhang et al. (1990) studied the
562 hydrostatic behavior of Boise I and reported a value of 75 MPa for P^* (Figure 13a). Boise II,
563 with a similar porosity of 0.35 and composed of 67 vol% quartz and a clay content of 13 vol%,
564 was studied by Baud et al. (2000) under both triaxial and hydrostatic compression and reported a
565 value of 42 MPa for P^* (Figure 13a). Using thin sections of the Boise I and Boise II sandstones
566 studied by Zhang et al. (1990) and Baud et al. (2000), respectively, we performed a grain size
567 analysis following the method of Heap et al. (2017) to determine the grain size distributions and
568 compute the corresponding degrees of polydispersivity. Our findings are summarized in Figure
569 13(d). We also compare our results to those published in Cheung et al. (2012) for Bleurswiller
570 and Boise III sandstones, both with a porosity of approximately 0.25 and very similar
571 petrological compositions with approximately 60 vol% quartz and a clay content of 11 vol%. We
572 determined the mean grain diameter D_m and polydispersivity S using the grain size distributions
573 reported by Cheung et al. (2012) for these two sandstones (Figure 13d).

574 Comparing the hydrostatic curves of Boise I and II with those for bidisperse and
575 monodisperse synthetic samples, several observations can be made. First, at a fixed porosity of
576 0.35, the stress required to reach the onset of grain crushing for Boise I is higher than that for
577 Boise II, which are both higher than that for bidisperse synthetic samples and lower than that for
578 a monodisperse synthetic sample. Such an observation cannot be solely explained by differences

579 in the mean grain diameter, which was found to be a first-order control microstructural parameter
580 by Carbillet et al. (2021). Indeed, the mean grain diameters for Boise I and Boise II were
581 estimated to be 1200 and 560 μm , respectively, while the monodisperse and bidisperse samples
582 have grain diameters of 224 μm and 314–998 μm , respectively. Considering the influence of
583 mean grain diameter only, the pressure required for P^* would be expected to be higher for Boise
584 II than for Boise I, both being lower than that for the monodisperse synthetic sample and falling
585 in the same range than that for the bidisperse samples. However, the complexities that arise in
586 the compilation in Figure 13b highlight a possible influence of the degree of polydispersivity and
587 the modality of the grain size distribution. Boise I and Boise II both have a monomodal grain
588 size distribution (Figure 13d) but a degree of polydispersivity lower than that of the
589 monodisperse sample ($S = 0.98$) and the hydrostatic curves reported for these two natural
590 sandstones are indeed found to fall between the those for the bidisperse and monodisperse
591 synthetic samples. Moreover, the polydispersivity found for Boise II is 0.74 whereas it is 0.82 for
592 Boise I, for which P^* is higher. Therefore, the compilation in Figure 13 suggests, in agreement
593 with our results on synthetic samples, that the more monodisperse the grain size distribution, the
594 higher the pressure required to reach P^* . The second observation is that there are important
595 differences in the shape of the hydrostatic curves of Boise sandstones and of the monodisperse
596 synthetic samples, especially in terms of the sharpness of the transition to inelastic compaction
597 (i.e., P^*). The shape of the hydrostatic curves reported for Boise sandstones are much more
598 comparable to those for the bidisperse samples than the monodisperse sample. As discussed in
599 the previous section, such an observation is likely due to the heterogeneity of the microstructure
600 of the natural sandstones and the distribution of grain-grain contacts in comparison to the highly
601 homogeneous monodisperse synthetic sample with fewer average grain-grain contacts.

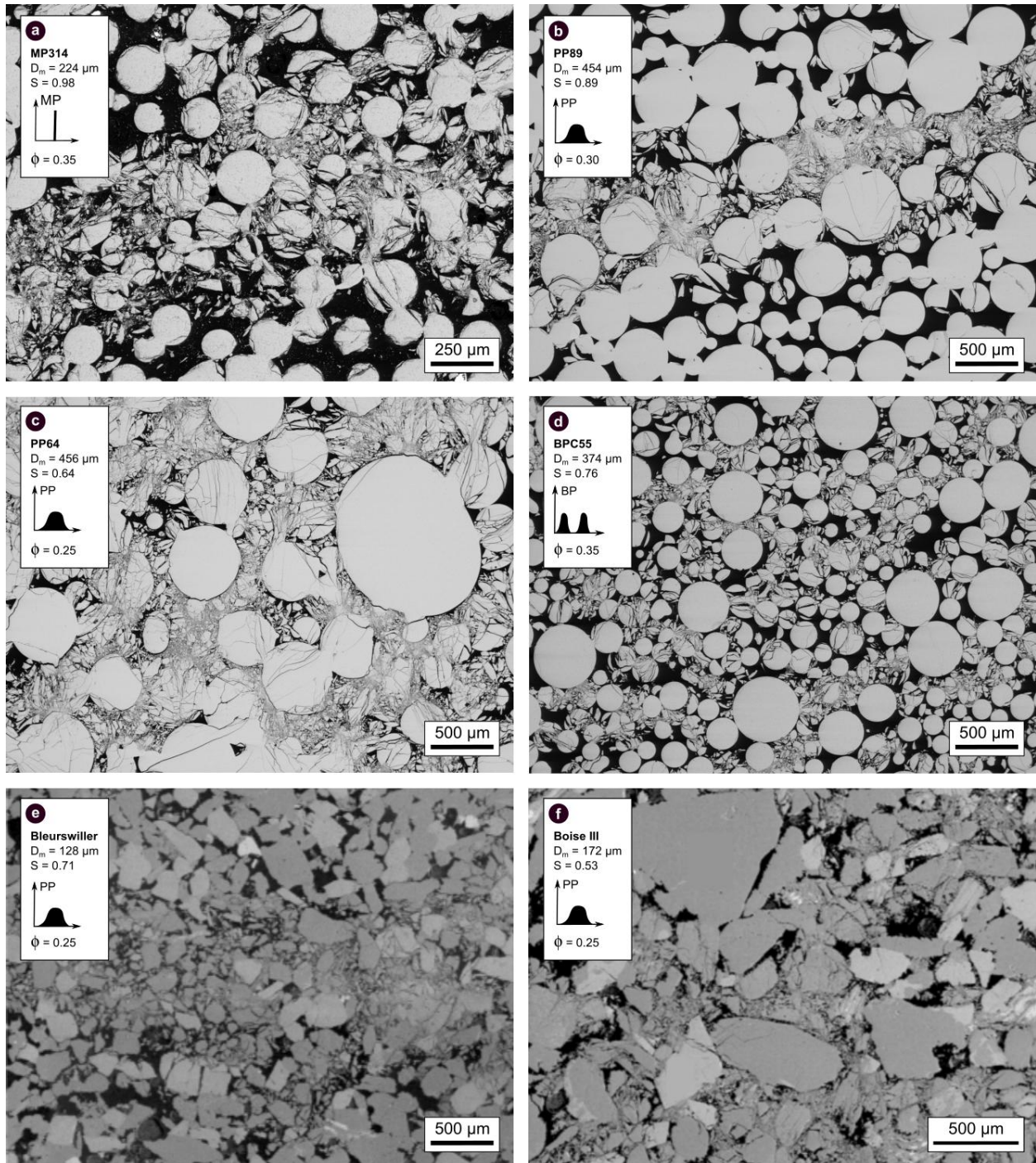
602 Figure 13 also includes a compilation of the compactive yield caps for polydisperse
603 samples, monodisperse synthetic samples (Carbillet et al., 2021), and Bleurswiller and Boise III
604 sandstones (Cheung et al., 2012). This compilation reveals that, at a fixed porosity of 0.25, the
605 stresses required to reach inelastic compaction (C^* and P^* values) are much lower for the two
606 natural sandstones than that for all our synthetic samples, whatever their polydispersivity. Such
607 an observation cannot be explained by their mean grain diameters: Bleurswiller and Boise III
608 both have lower mean grain diameters (172 and 128 μm , respectively) than the synthetic samples,
609 which should result, according to Carbillet et al. (2021), in higher critical stress values than those

610 for the synthetic samples. Moreover, although Bleurswiller and Boise III have very different
611 degrees of polydispersivity, their compactive yield caps are almost superposed. Therefore, Figure
612 13c also highlights the importance of other microstructural parameters, which control on the
613 compactive strength may be stronger than that of dispersivity. Overall, although one can learn
614 from the comparison of results found for polydisperse and bidisperse synthetic samples and for
615 natural rocks, such comparison also emphasizes the complexity of the mechanical behavior of
616 natural rocks. Indeed, the observations made using simplified two-phases materials for which
617 microstructural attributes can be controlled cannot simply be transposed to natural rocks, for
618 which multiple microstructural attributes can vary widely and simultaneously. Therefore,
619 synthetic and numerical samples provide us with means not only to deconvolve and study the
620 isolated influence of microstructural attributes, but also to explore the cross-property
621 relationships (Cilli & Chapman, 2021; Torquato, 2002).

622

623

5.3 Compaction localization



624

625 **Figure 14** Backscattered scanning electron microscope images of the microstructure of sintered
 626 glass bead samples with (a) a monodisperse grain size distribution, (b)(c) a polydisperse
 627 distribution and (d) a bidisperse distribution compared to that found in Bleurswiller and Boise

628 sandstones (Cheung et al., 2012), after triaxial testing in the regime of shear-enhanced
629 compaction. The type of distribution, mean grain diameter and degree of polydispersivity of each
630 sample are indicated on the corresponding micrograph.

631

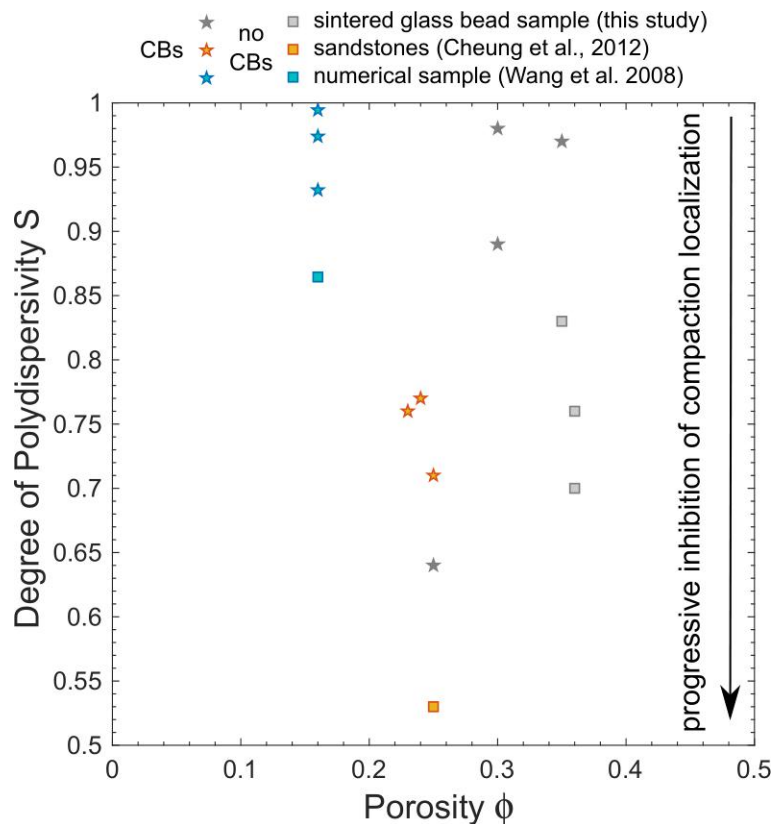
632 Compaction localization has been extensively studied in the past decades because their
633 presence can significantly reduce rock permeability and therefore compartmentalize fluid flow
634 (Baud et al., 2012; Olsson et al., 2002; Taylor & Pollard, 2000; Vajdova et al., 2004).
635 Compaction bands have been observed in natural rocks in the field (Aydin & Ahmadov, 2009;
636 Eichhubl et al., 2010; Fossen et al., 2007, 2011; Tudisco et al., 2015) but also in natural rocks
637 deformed in the laboratory (Baud et al., 2004; Bésuelle et al., 2003; Charalampidou et al., 2013;
638 Fortin et al., 2006; Louis et al., 2006; Louis et al., 2007b; Olsson, 1999; Wong et al., 2001) as
639 well as in numerical samples submitted to compressive states of stress (Marketos & Bolton, 2009;
640 Nguyen et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2008). Holcomb et al. (2007) reviewed the state of knowledge
641 on localized compaction and highlighted the need for identifying the microstructural parameters
642 that can promote or inhibit compaction localization. Before and since then, experimental studies
643 on natural and numerical samples showed that compaction bands were more likely to develop in
644 samples with more uniform grain size distributions and, more generally, in more homogeneous
645 samples (Cheung et al., 2012; Das et al., 2011; Katsman et al., 2005; Louis et al., 2009; Louis et
646 al., 2007a; Wang et al., 2008).

647 Figure 14 shows the microstructure of synthetic samples with different grain size
648 distributions and of Bleurswiller and Boise sandstones deformed to beyond the onset of shear-
649 enhanced compaction C^* . Discrete compaction bands can be seen in a monodisperse synthetic
650 sample with a porosity of 0.35 and a mean grain diameter of 224 μm (Figure 14a), in a
651 polydisperse synthetic sample with a porosity of 0.30 and a mean grain diameter of 454 μm
652 (Figure 14b), and in Bleurswiller sandstone with a porosity of 0.25 and a mean grain diameter of
653 128 μm (Figure 14e). Although the discrete bands in the monodisperse and polydisperse sample
654 are 2–3 and 1–2 grains-thick, respectively, we note that the thickness of the bands is
655 approximately 500 μm in both samples (Figure 14a,b). In the polydisperse sample, the discrete
656 bands appear to propagate not only but mostly in the smaller grains of the assembly, the size of
657 which might therefore control the band thickness. Microstructural observations on the more

658 polydisperse sample (Figure 14c) with a porosity of 0.25 and grain diameter of 456 μm are
659 somehow ambiguous: compactive deformation is found to progress as a front from both ends of
660 the sample, within which small intersecting bands are seen between intact larger grains. Our
661 microstructural observations are in agreement with observations previously reported for natural
662 sandstones and results of numerical simulations of granular porous rocks. Indeed, where
663 compaction localization is observed in natural sandstones and numerical samples, compaction
664 bands appear to form first from the extremities of the sample and progress towards the center
665 with increasing axial strain (Baud et al., 2004; Heap et al., 2015; Tembe et al., 2008; Townend et
666 al., 2008; Wong et al., 2001). Using X-ray tomography and computational simulations to study
667 compaction localization in a high-porosity limestone, Wu et al. (2020) also reported similar
668 compaction band patterns, where compaction fronts initiate from the two ends of samples and
669 progress toward the center with progressive axial strain increments. Delocalized cataclastic flow
670 is observed in all the bidisperse samples (Figure 14d), whatever their degree of polydispersivity.
671 Similarly, delocalized compaction, where small grains are crushed and large grains are intact,
672 was observed in Boise sandstone (Figure 14f; Cheung et al., 2012). Using a discrete element
673 model for the development of compaction localization in granular rocks, Wang et al. (2008) also
674 reported very similar results where discrete compaction bands grow in relatively homogeneous
675 granular aggregates, more diffuse compaction localization develops in more heterogeneous
676 assemblies and is ultimately inhibited in very heterogeneous aggregated which fail by distributed
677 cataclastic flow. Katsman et al. (2005) observed a similar evolution in the failure
678 micromechanics in network assemblies with either no disorder, small or large disorder.

679 Overall, our results suggest that there exists a continuous transition from localized to
680 delocalized compaction as the polydispersivity of the grain size distribution increases (i.e. when
681 S decreases). Such an observation might be due to the pore space morphology, where local
682 heterogeneities in the pore space, reduced as the width of the grain size distribution increases, act
683 as stress concentrators and promote the growth of compaction bands. Xiong et al. (2021)
684 reported that a high ratio between the number of macropores and micropores promotes
685 compaction localization. Abdallah et al. (2021) also found, using digital image correlation on
686 deformed Saint Maximin limestone samples, that porosity heterogeneities control the initiation
687 and propagation of compaction bands, which tend to grow in the high-porosity areas of the
688 samples. On the contrary, Baud et al. (2015) reported that the compaction bands formed in

689 Bleurswiller sandstone propagated so as to avoid porosity clusters, which were thought to act as
 690 barriers to the growth of compaction bands. Since our synthetic samples are simplified two-phase
 691 materials, the grain and pore size distributions are intimately related via pore size functions (e.g.,
 692 see Wadsworth et al., 2016). For a given mean grain size, broadly speaking, the effect of
 693 increasing the width of a grain size distribution is to even further broaden the pore size
 694 distribution and to translate it to smaller mean pore sizes, relative to the situation for a
 695 monodisperse pore size distribution. This implies that continuously increasing the
 696 polydispersivity of a system of grains would distribute and tighten the pore spaces relative to a
 697 monodisperse system at the same grain size and porosity, which in turn appears to inhibit
 698 compaction band formation. However, there is clearly a fundamental difference between
 699 monomodal and bimodal polydisperse systems that cannot be captured by the S metric alone
 700 (e.g., Figure 14). Indeed, our mechanical and microstructural data for bidisperse samples do not
 701 show any evidence for compaction localization, although their degree of polydispersivity lies in
 702 the range in which compaction bands were observed in monomodal polydisperse samples.
 703 Therefore, these data highlight the fact that the parameter S underestimates the microstructural
 704 heterogeneity of the bidisperse samples in comparison to the monomodal polydisperse samples.



706 **Figure 15** The influence of the degree of polydispersivity and the porosity on the propensity for
707 compaction localisation. Results for sintered glass bead samples are compiled with that reported
708 for numerical samples by Wang et al. (2008) and that for natural sandstones by Cheung et al.
709 (2012).

710

711 Figure 15 presents a plot of the degree of polydispersivity against porosity for samples
712 that failed by compaction localization or by cataclastic flow. Taking into account the results of
713 Cheung et al. (2012) for natural sandstones and Wang et al. (2008) for numerical samples,
714 compaction bands are observed at degrees of polydispersivity down to 0.71, a transitional
715 deformation regime between discrete compaction bands and delocalized cataclasis is observed at
716 $S = 0.64$, and delocalized compaction is reported at $S = 0.53$. Although bidisperse synthetic
717 samples have degrees of polydispersity in the range where compaction bands would be expected,
718 they do not exhibit any form of compaction localization. This could likely be explained by the
719 fact that the parameter S does not encompass differences in terms of the modality of the grain
720 size distribution and therefore underestimates the degree of heterogeneity of the microstructure
721 of bidisperse samples. Moreover, Desu and Annabattula (2019) reported that the larger the
722 difference in size between the grains, the stronger the effect of the grain size distribution on the
723 contact force distributions. Thus, the effect of mixing grains with very different sizes, as is the
724 case for the bidisperse samples, would likely always lead to the inhibition of compaction
725 localization. Where delocalized compaction is observed (Figure 5.12(d)(f)), it appears as though
726 the deformation is concentrated on the smaller grains whilst larger grains remain intact. As
727 previously discussed, such an observation might be explained by the high coordination number
728 of larger grains in a polydisperse assembly, rendering these large grains more difficult to break.

729 **6 Conclusions**

730 Clastic sediments found in the Earth's crust are formed by the accumulation of individual
731 minerals and rock fragments rounded by transport and sorted by deposition. However, structural
732 heterogeneity is still encountered in these sedimentary rocks, which span a wide range of
733 porosity, grain and pore size and shape, and/or petrological composition. Within the crust, the
734 microstructural attributes of a clastic rock determine its mechanical response to the in-situ state

735 of stress. Therefore, understanding the influence of microstructural parameters on the mechanical
736 behavior and failure mode of porous crustal rocks is critical for industrial applications such as
737 hydrocarbon and geothermal reservoir monitoring and management but also, for instance, for
738 assessing the risk of natural hazards such as slope collapses and landslides.

739 In a previous study, Carbillet et al. (2021), we used sintered glass bead samples with
740 monodisperse grain size distributions to study the influence of porosity and grain size on the
741 mechanical compaction of porous rocks. In the present study, we extend that work using
742 synthetic porous materials to investigate the effect of changing the type (modality) and width of
743 the grain size distribution on mechanical behavior, while keeping other microstructural attributes
744 constant. In the following, we provide a brief summary of our results on the influence of the
745 grain size distribution on the mechanical behavior of porous clastic rocks.

746 Under both hydrostatic and triaxial compression, the stress required to reach inelastic
747 compaction is lower for bidisperse and polydisperse synthetic samples than for monodisperse
748 synthetic samples. We suggest that this result might be explained by changes in the morphology
749 of the force chain network, where more uniform grain size distributions promote the formation of
750 a more homogeneous contact force network within the microstructure, resulting in a
751 macroscopically stronger sample.

752 Our microstructural data also show that compaction localization is inhibited in synthetic
753 samples with a bidisperse grain size distribution. Indeed, we observed distributed cataclastic flow
754 in the bidisperse samples deformed under triaxial compression, where the largest grains
755 remained intact while the smaller grains were extensively crushed. In polydisperse samples, our
756 microstructural observations suggest that a progressive transition might occur from compaction
757 localization to delocalized cataclasis as the polydispersivity of the grain size distribution
758 increases. Indeed, discrete compaction bands are observed in the less polydisperse sample, in
759 agreement with the mechanical data, while the deformation features observed in the more
760 polydisperse sample are found in compaction fronts at both ends of the sample but within which
761 deformation features are more diffuse. As for the bidisperse samples, the largest grains are found
762 to remain intact in the most deformed zones in the polydisperse samples with a high
763 polydispersivity. These results might seem counterintuitive since the degree of polydispersivity
764 of bidisperse samples is closer to 1 (monodisperse limit) than that of the polydisperse samples.

765 One would therefore expect compaction localization to also occur in the bidisperse samples as
766 well. Yet, we believe that these results actually highlight the fact that the parameter S
767 underestimates the heterogeneity of our bimodal grain size distributions, for which compaction
768 localization was consistently inhibited. Therefore, our results suggest that well-sorted sandstones
769 could develop discrete compaction bands, acting as barriers for fluid flow and therefore leading
770 to a compartmentalization of fluid flow. On the contrary, more heterogeneous and poorly-sorted
771 sandstones would limit the development of compaction localization and thus occurrences of fluid
772 pressurization in, for instance, hydrocarbons or geothermal reservoirs.

773 In this study, we attempt to understand how the grain size distribution of porous rocks
774 may influence their mechanical behavior. Although we provide results that help sharpen our
775 understanding of its influence, polydispersivity remains a frontier property to work with as it
776 exists in and amongst other complex parameters. For example, changing the polydispersivity also
777 generally changes the mean pore diameter, a key influence on mechanical behavior. Furthermore,
778 as it is controlled by many other parameters such as the grain sphericity, grain stiffness, and
779 packing density, a single contact force distribution can be associated with a variety of grain size
780 distributions. We suggest that future work on synthetic materials look at the influence of other
781 microstructural attributes such as the grain shape distribution or the cement content on the force
782 chains network and resulting failure mode and, more generally, on the mechanical behavior of
783 porous rocks.

784

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791 **Open Research**

792 The data supporting the manuscript's analysis and conclusions is available at
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794

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