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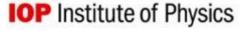
Immediate past – Department of Nuclear Energy, IAEA



23 - 27 September 2019 Trieste, Italy













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• Geological repository

I. Background

TABLE II-3. ELEMENTS TO BE CONSIDERED DURING DEVELOPMENT OR REVISION OF RADIOACTIVE WASTE MANAGEMENT STRATEGY (cont.) **IAEA Nuclear Energy Series** E^5 Case Country A1 Case Country B² No. NW-G-1.1 Technical options to be considered in strategy formulation stage Au TABLE II-3. ELEMENTS TO BE CONSIDERED DURING DEVELOPMENT OR REVISION OF A RADIOACTIVE WASTE MANAGEMENT STRATEGY (cont.) Basic **Policies** and Dis Case Country D⁴ Case Country E⁵ C **Principles** Case Country C3 Case Country A1 Case Country B2 Strategies for LILW **Radioactive Waste** TABLE II-3. ELEMENTS TO BE CONSIDERED DURING DEVELOPMENT OF Liquid wast RADIOACTIVE WASTE MANAGEMENT STRATEGY (cont.) **Objectives** Management (resulting • Chemica Case Country B2 Case Country C3 Case Cour Case Country A1 • Evapora Ion excl Liquid waste conditioning options: All options All options Some options Some option Guides • Membra • Cementation: require require may be may be (filters/r • Bituminization; consideration consideration considered considered Incinera • Polymerization; **Technical** sludge) Vitrification Reports Gaseous v Solid and solidified waste conditioning All options All options All options Some option (resulting options: require require require may be • Off-gas considered Packaging; consideration consideration consideration filters, s • Gas sep • Containerization: • Overpacking: Solid waste · High integrity containers • Fragme Incinera Storage: All options All options All options Some option • Compac · Storage for decay; require require require may be Melting Storage awaiting disposal; consideration consideration consideration considered Storage • Prolonged (long time) storage Disposal of LLW: All options All options may Some options Some opti • Near surface repository; require require may be may be may be • Geological repository considered consideration consideration considered considered Might be Fully required Disposal Disposal of ILW: Requires Requires May be Not applicable Not applicable equired

considered

consideration

consideration



TABLE II–3. ELEMENTS TO BE CONSIDERED DURING DEVELOPMENT OR REVISI RADIOACTIVE WASTE MANAGEMENT STRATEGY (cont.)

	Case Country A ¹	Case Country B ²	Case Country C ³	Case Country D ⁴	Case Country E ⁵
HLW and spent fuel					
Spent fuel storage: • Wet storage in pools; • Dry storage in containers/vaults	All options require consideration	All options require consideration	All options may require consideration	Not applicable	Not applicable
Spent fuel conditioning for disposal:	All options require consideration	All options require consideration	May be considered	Not applicable	Not applicable
High level solid waste processing: • Fragmentation	Requires consideration	Requires consideration	May be considered	Not applicable	Not applicable
High level liquid waste conditioning: • Vitrification; • Packaging for storage/disposal; • Overpacking	All options require consideration	Not applicable	Not applicable	Not applicable	Not applicable
HLW storage: • Storage awaiting disposal; • Long term storage	All options require consideration	All options require consideration (for spent fuel)	Some options may be considered	Not applicable	Not applicable

Conditioning for storage and disposal: | Requires

TABLE II-3. ELEMENTS TO BE CONSIDERED DURING DEVELOPMENT RADIOACTIVE WASTE MANAGEMENT STRATEGY (cont.)

	Case Country A ¹	Case Country B ²	Case Country C ³	Case	///
Disposal of spent fuel/HLW: • Geological repository with/without retrievability	Requires consideration	Requires consideration (for spent fuel)	Some options may be considered	Not a	
Disused sealed radiation sources				International Atomic En	ergy Agency
Repatriation to the original manufacturer	Requires consideration	Requires consideration	Requires consideration	Requires consideration	Not applicable
Processing: • Encapsulation; • Immobilization in metal matrix	All options require consideration	All options require consideration	All options require consideration	All options require consideration	Not applicable

Radioactive waste from nuclear power plants, front and back end fuel cycle facilities, wide use of nuclear R&D facilities, and extensive nuclear applications in industry and medicine.

Requires

Requires

Not applicable

IAEA Nuclear Energy Series

Principles

Objectives

Requires

No. NW-G-1.1

Policies and

Strategies for

Management

Radioactive Waste

Radioactive waste from nuclear power plants, wide use of nuclear R&D facilities, extensive nuclear applications in industry and medicine. No fuel cycle facilities.

Radioactive waste from limited use of nuclear R&D facilities, research reactor, limited use of nuclear applications in industry and medicine. No nuclear power plant, no fuel cycle facilities.

Radioactive waste from limited use of nuclear applications in industry and medicine. No reactors, no fuel cycle facilities, no nuclear R&D.

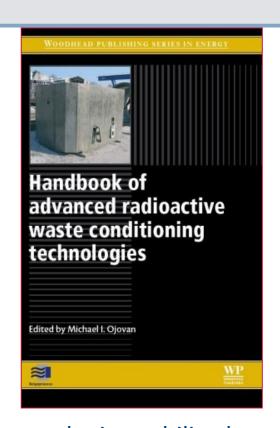
Only NORM waste is generated.



II. Vitreous and crystalline wasteforms

The wasteform is the waste in its physical and chemical form after treatment and/or immobilization (resulting in a solid product) prior to packaging.

A number of matrices have been used for waste immobilization and those include glass, ceramic, cement, polymer and bitumen.



Radioactive and chemically hazardous constituents of waste can be immobilized into a wasteform material through two processes:

- (1) Bound into the material at atomic scale (chemical incorporation), or
- (2) Physically surrounded and isolated by the material (encapsulation).



Important factors for wasteform materials:

Waste loading;

- able to accommodate a significant amount of waste (typically 25-45 weight %) to minimize volume.

Ease of production;

- accomplished under reasonable conditions.

Durability;

- low rate of dissolution to minimize the release of radioactive and chemical constituents.

Radiation stability;

- high tolerance to radiation effects from the decay of radioactive constituents.

Chemical flexibility;

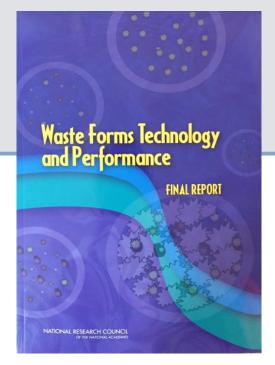
- able to accommodate a mixture of radioactive and chemical constituents with minimum formation of secondary phases.

Availability of natural analogues;

- availability of natural mineral or glass analogues may provide important clues about the long-term performance.

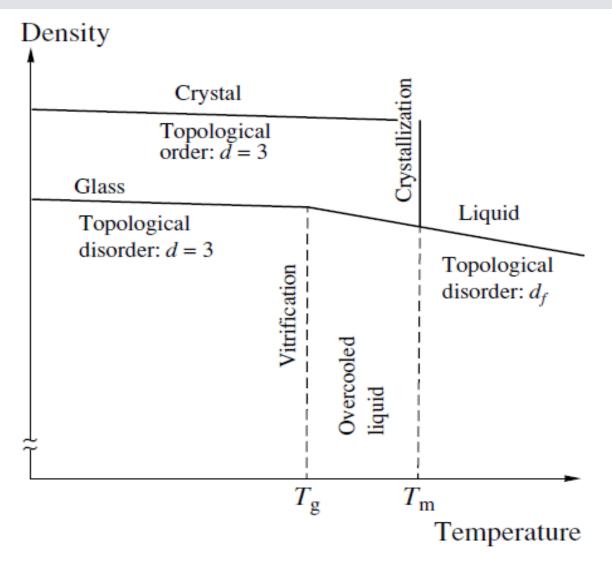
Compatibility with the intended disposal environment.

- compatible with the near-field environment of the disposal facility.





Wasteform	Features	Limitations	Secondary
			waste
Glasses	Proven method to condition liquid HLW	High initial investment and	Off-gases
	as well as ILW and LLW	operational costs	Filters. Scrub
	High flexibility in terms of the glass	Complex technology requiring high	Solutions
	formulation range	qualified personnel	Used Melters
	High reliability of the immobilization	Generally not economical for LLW	
Vitrification	process	and ILW	
	High glass throughput	Need to control off-gases	
	High durability of the final wasteform	Need to control variations in waste	
	Small volume of the resulting wasteform	feed	
		High specific energy consumption	
	Possible to incorporate higher levels of	Limited experience. Most efforts	Filters
	actinides than borosilicate glass	have been research-based. There are	Off-gases
	Waste form is more stable and hence is	not known commercial installations	Scrub
Ceramics	more durable than glass	in operation at present. Generally	Solutions
	Expected to be suitable for long term	considered not economical for LLW	
	isolation since it simulates natural rocks	and ILW. The ceramive (e.g. Synroc)	2
		waste form must be tailored to suit	
		the particular characteristics of the	
		nuclear waste to be immobilized	
Glass-	Combine features of both crystalline and	Limited experience	Off-gases
composite	glassy materials. Higher waste loading.		Filters. Scrub
materials	Higher compatibility		Solutions
	Higher stability compared glasses		Used Melters
			O



Glasses are solid amorphous materials which transform into liquids upon heating through the glass transition e.g. the solid-like behaviour of glasses is separated from liquid-like behaviour at higher temperatures by the glass transition

temperature, T_{ϱ} .

Fig. 2. Changes in the density and Hausdorff dimension of the bond network for configurons in crystalline and amorphous materials depending on temperature.

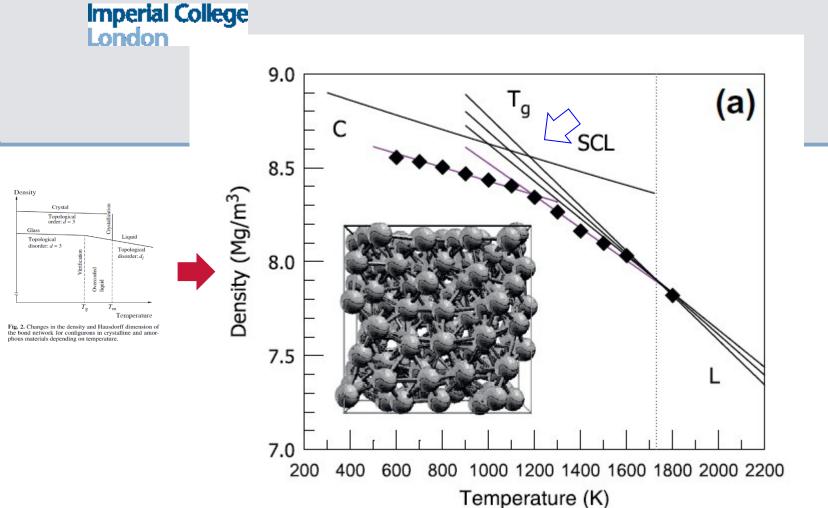
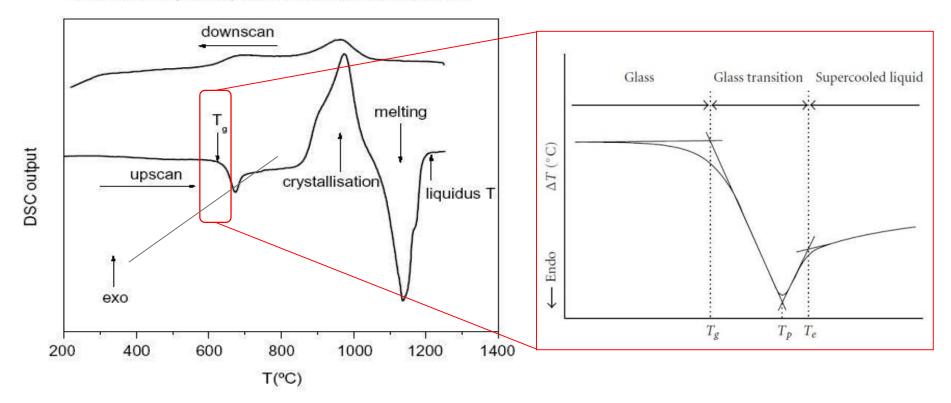


Fig. 1. (a) Solid lines – density versus temperature diagram for Ni according to literature data. Diamonds represent the results of ab initio MD simulation. Several plots for liquid Ni represent data from different literature sources. The insert – atomic structure of Ni cell obtained in an MD simulation at 1000 K. The dotted line represents the liquidus temperature. The data for (a) is taken from Ref. [11] with

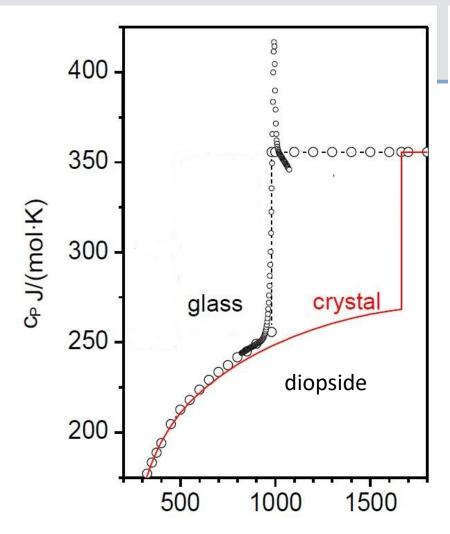
D.V. Louzguine-Luzgin/Journal of Alloys and Compounds 586 (2014) S2–S8

Liquid-glass transition has been considered as a **second order phase transition** in which a supercooled melt yields, on cooling, a glassy structure and properties similar to those of crystalline materials e.g. of an isotropic solid material.

Y. Yue | Journal of Non-Crystalline Solids 345&346 (2004) 523-527



Differential scanning calorimetric (DSC) measurements on a basaltic glass. 'Exo' means exothermic response to the heating or cooling process. The measurements are performed in argon at the heating and cooling rate 20 °C/min.



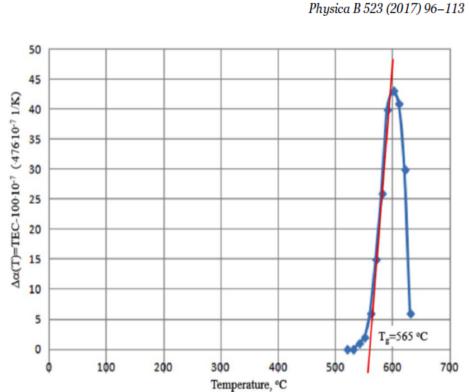
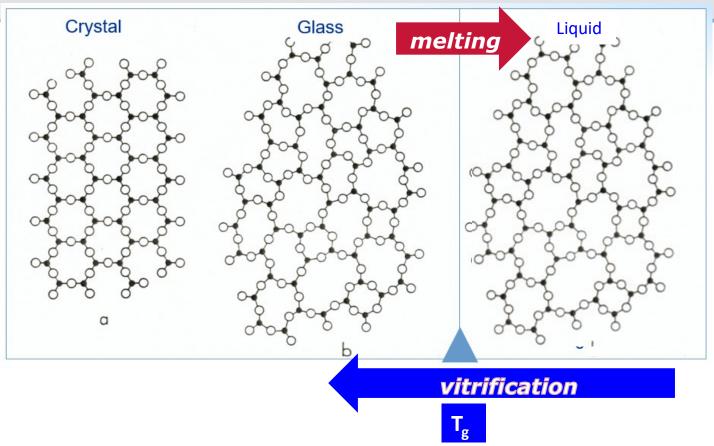


Fig. 4.1. Temperature dependence of deviation of thermal expansion coefficient (TEC) from its value in the glassy state $\Delta\alpha(T) = \text{TEC-}100\cdot10^{-7}$ of a high-sodium borosilicate glass 60. $\text{SiO}_2\cdot10\cdot\text{B}_2\text{O}_3\cdot3\cdot\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3\cdot20.5\cdot\text{ZrO}_2\cdot20\cdot\text{Na}_2\text{O}$ designed for nuclear waste immobilisation near the glass transition temperature $T_g = 565\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ (given in units of $476.10^{-7}\,1/K$).

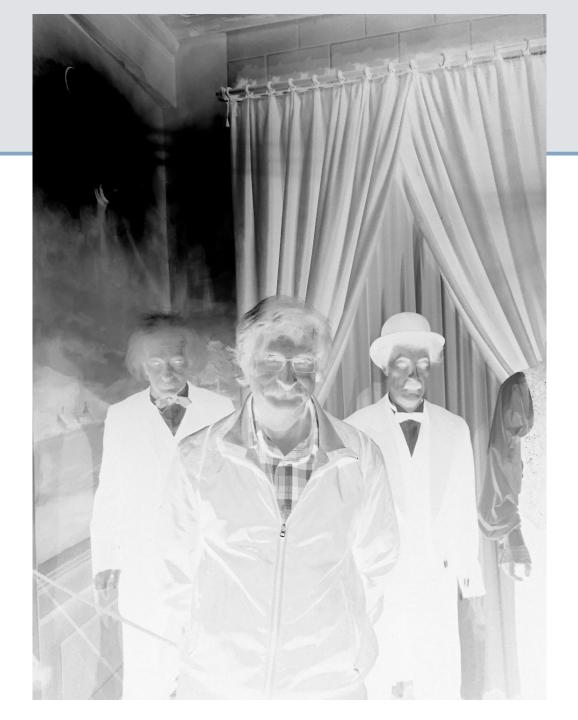
 $C_{\rm p}, \alpha \propto \frac{1}{\left|T - T_{\rm g}\right|^{0.59}}$

M.I. Ojovan / Journal of Non-Crystalline Solids 382 (2013) 79–86

What is structural difference between a Glass and an Liquid?



Glasses are typically formed on rapid cooling of melts so avoiding crystallisation since little time is allowed for the ordering processes.



C. A. Angell and K. J. Rao, "Configurational excitations in condensed matter, and the "bond lattice" model for the liquid-glass transition," *The Journal of Chemical Physics*, vol. 57, no. 1, pp. 470–481, 1972.

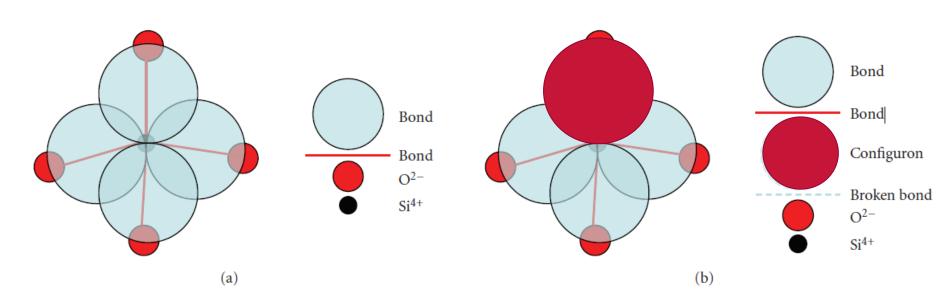
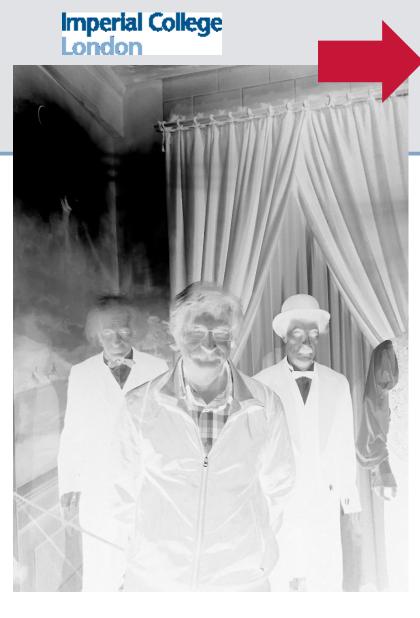


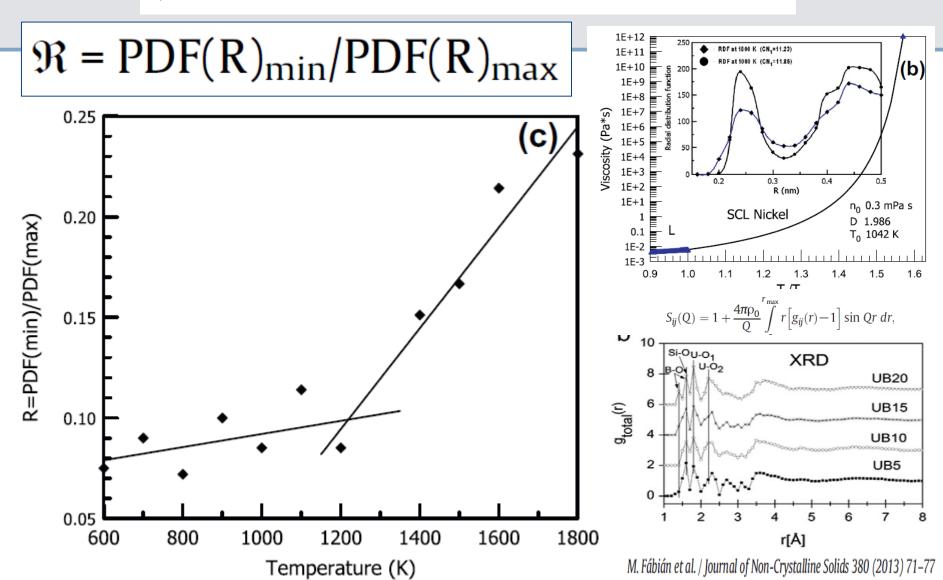
FIGURE 12: (a) Schematic of 4 covalent bonds (b) and one broken bond in SiO₂.

Advances in Condensed Matter Physics Volume 2008, Article ID 817829, 23 pages doi:10.1155/2008/817829



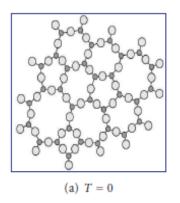


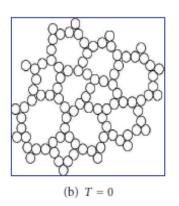
D.V. Louzguine-Luzgin/Journal of Alloys and Compounds 586 (2014) S2-S8

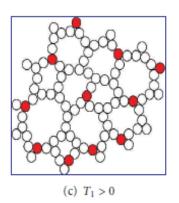


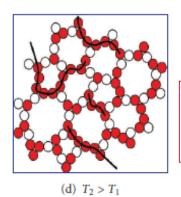
Advances in Condensed Matter Physics

17









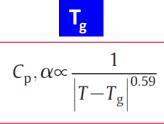


FIGURE 11: Schematic of disordered bond lattice model of an amorphous material: (a) distribution of atoms in amorphous phase at T = 0; (b) distribution of bonds in amorphous phase at T = 0; (c) distribution of bonds in amorphous phase at T = 0; (d) distribution of bonds in amorphous phase at higher temperatures $T_2 > T_1$ when configuron clustering occurs.

M.I. Ojovan. Viscosity and Glass Transition in Amorphous Oxides, Advances in Condensed Matter Physics, **2008**, Article ID 817829, 23 pages (2008). http://www.hindawi.com/journals/acmp/2008/817829/ref/

$$T_{\rm g} = \frac{H_{\rm d}}{S_{\rm d} + R \ln\left[(1 - \phi_{\rm c})/\phi_{\rm c}\right]}$$

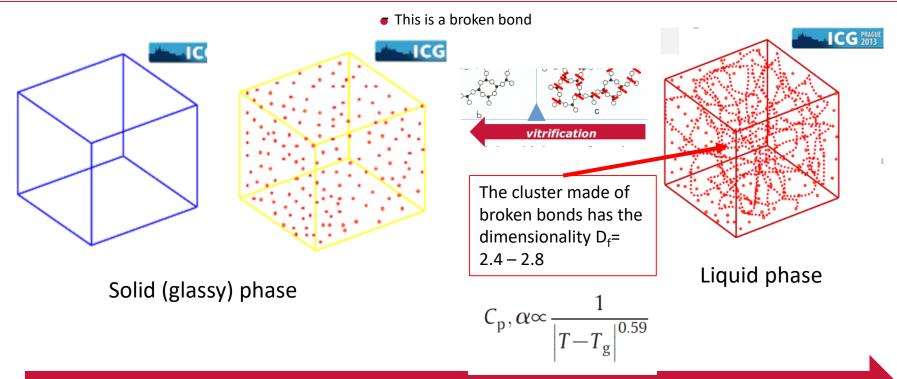


On relaxation nature of glass transition in amorphous materials Damba S. Sanditov^{a,b}, Michael I. Ojovan^{c,d,e}

Physica B **523** (2017) 96–113: The glass transition belongs to a class of critical phenomena generically termed **topological phase transitions** which are amenable to the scaling approach and characterised by diverging length and time at the transition.

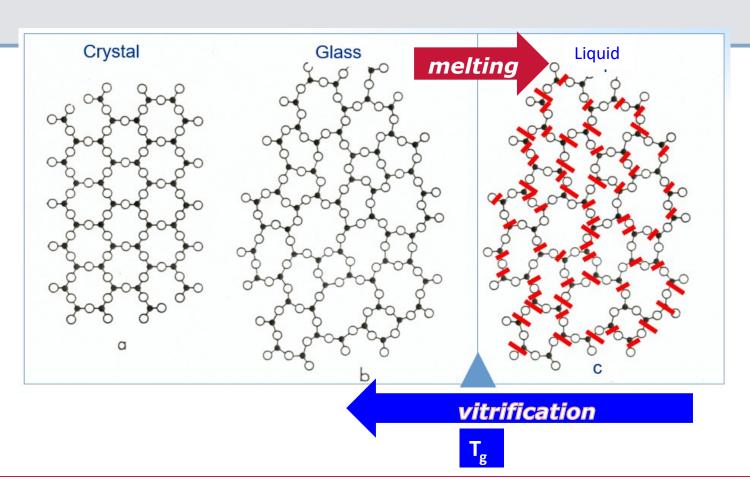
Structurally the difference between glasses and liquids become evident for broken bonds (configurons).

They form percolation clusters in liquids, whereas in glasses they are point-type defects



melting

M.I. Ojovan / Journal of Non-Crystalline Solids 382 (2013) 79–86



Structurally the difference between glasses and liquids becomes evident if we consider broken bonds!

Type of Glass	Majo	r Structural Components	Comments
		Atomic structure of a French nuclear	Ease of processing, melt
		waste glass: unshaded region shows	temperatures 1150-
		formation of a (Na,Cs) ₂ MoO ₄ cluster.	1200°C to minimize
			volatility; cold cap
	(SiO ₄) ⁻⁴ , (BO ₄) ⁻⁵ ,		production if feasible
	(BO ₃) ⁻³ and some		minimizes volatility; most
Alkali	$(AlO_4)^{-5}$ and $(FeO_4)^{-1}$		waste cations highly
	⁵ structural units to		soluble in glass; overall
Borosilicate	which alkali,	·	waste solubility 25-40
	alkaline earth, and	L C A C Y	wt%; made by Joule
	waste species		Heated Melting (JHM),
	bond.		Advanced JHM known as
			AJHM, Cold Crucible
			Induction Melting (CCIM)
			or Hot Isostatic Pressing
		SiO PO PO AIO 7nO MoO	(HIP).
		SiO ₄ BO ₄ BO ₃ AlO ₄ ZnO MoO ₄	
		Na+ Ca2+ Others: Cs+, K+, Li+	

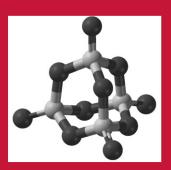
Imperial College

Alkali Aluminophosphate (PO₄)⁻³and (AlO₄)⁻⁵ structural units to which alkali, alkaline

earth, and waste

species bond

Atomic structure of phosphate glass with P₄O₁₀ cage like structures which provides the basic building block for phosphate glass formers.



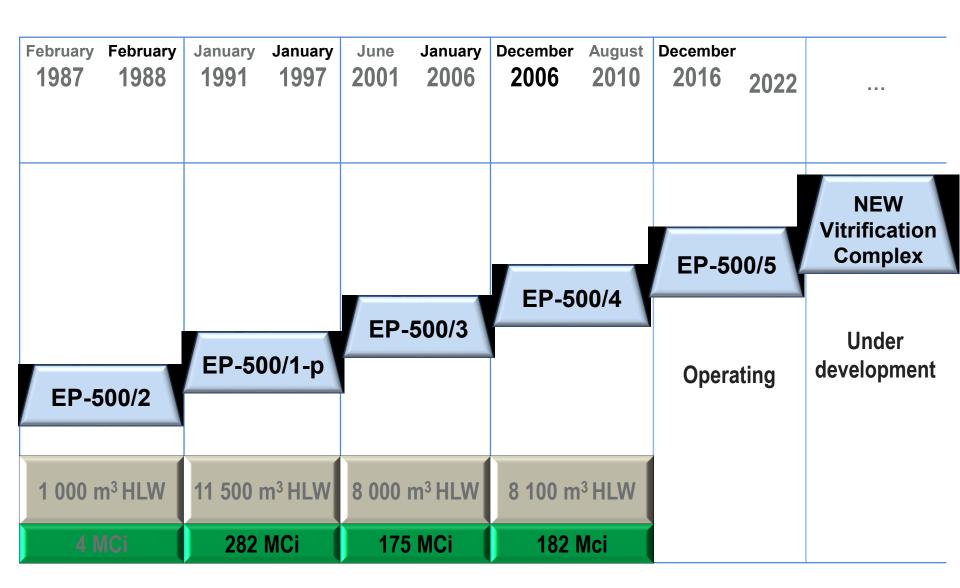
0.24 Na,O 0.25 N

than silicate or borosilicate systems; most cations readily incorporated; accommodates >10 wt% sulfate; corrosive to materials of construction; tendency to devitrify; durability comparable to borosilicate glass if alumina content is sufficient; composition ~ 24-27 Na₂O, 20-24, Al₂O₃ + Me_mO_n, 50-52 P₂O₅ where Me_mO_n is an actinide or rare earth oxide; JHM, AJHM, CCIM.

Melts at lower temperatures

Glass production temperature



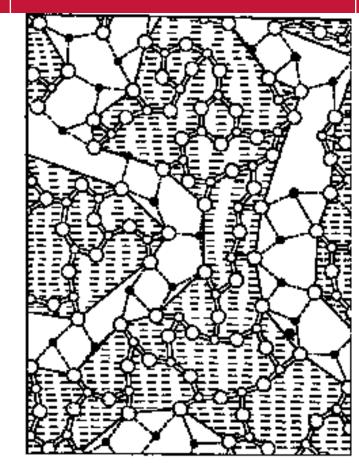


Aluminosilicate
glasses
and/or
alkali
aluminosilicate
glasses
to borosilicate
glasses when (BO₄)⁻⁴ and (AlO₄)⁻⁵
structural units to
which alkali,
alkaline earth, and
control of the control of t

⁵ are present)

Modifying Cations (MC)

Atomic structure of a simple generic $M_2O_3(G_2O_3)_2$ glass (M is modifying cations, G represents tetrahedral cations). The shaded regions are the PR regions. The un-shaded regions represent the percolation channels or DR regions (from).



C Network Pomers (G)

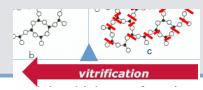
Oxygen stoms

Melt temperature of

1600°C causes blatilization of idionuclides; waste ading dependent n rapid cooling, e.g. D wt% UO, if poled rapidly while 10 wt% if cooled owly; improved urability over orosilicate glass; CIM, HIP



Waste vitrification is attractive because of:





- High capability of glass to immobilise various elements,
- •Simple production technology adapted from glass production industry,
- Small volume of the resulting wasteform,
- High chemical durability of glasses in natural environment and
- High tolerance of glasses to radiation damage.

Vitrification of Radioactive Wastes

Nuclear energy continues to receive considerable attention as a potential solution to issues such as global warming. However, the management of radioactive nuclear waste remains an obstacle to a true 'Nuclear Renaissance.'

James C. Marra* and Michael I. Ojovan** discuss.

Glass International April 2014

Vitrification:

Vitrify: to convert (something) into glass or a glass-like substance, typically by exposure to heat.

Late Middle English: From French vitrifier or based on Latin vitrum 'glass'.

Facility	Waste type	Melting	Operational period	Performance	
		process			
R7/T7, La Hague, France	HLW	IHC ¹	1989/1992	6555 tonnes in 16885 canisters, 262·10 ⁶ TBq to 2012	
AVM, Marcoule, France	HLW	IHC	1978 – 2012	1357 tonnes in 3306 canisters, 22·10 ⁶ TBq to 2012	
R7, La Hague, France	HLW	CCM ²	2010 –	GCM: U-Mo glass	
				76 tonnes in 190 canisters to 20	12
WVP, Sellafield, UK	HLW	IHC	1990 –	2200 tonnes in 5615 canisters, 33·10 ⁶ Ti	
DWPF, Savannah River, USA	HLW	JHCM ³	1996 –	6300 tonnes in 3591 canisters	,
				1.8·10 ⁶ TBq to 2012	
WVDP, West Valley, USA	HLW	JHCM	1996 – 2002	570 tonnes in 570 canisters,	
				0.9·10 ⁶ TBq	
EP-500, Mayak, Russia	HLW	JHCM	1987 –	~6200 tonnes, 643 10 ⁶ Ci	
CCM, Mayak, Russia	HLW	CCM	Pilot plant	18 kg/h by phosphate glass	
Pamela, Mol, Belgium	HLW	JHCM	1985 – 1991	500 tonnes in 2201 canisters, 0.5·10 ⁶ TBq	
Karlsruhe, Germany	HLW	JHCM	2009 – 2010	55 tonnes in 140 canisters,	
				0.8·10 ⁶ TBq	
Tokai, Japan	HLW	JHCM	1995 –	70 tonnes in 241 canisters (110 L), 0.4·10 ⁶ Ci to 2007	
Radon, Russia	LILW	JHCM	1987-1998	10 tonnes	
Radon, Russia	LILW	CCM	1999	> 30 tonnes	
Radon, Russia	ILW	SSV ⁴	2001 – 2002	10 kg/h, incinerator ash	
Bohunice, Slovakia	HLW	IHC	1997 –	1.53 m ³ in 211 canisters	Michael I. Ojovan William E. Lee Stepan N. Kalmykov
WIP, Trombay, India	HLW	IHPTM ⁵	1985-2002, 2002 –	Оторин к. Киппукоч	
AVS, Tarapur, India	HLW	IHPTM	2006 –	10 tonnes in 100 canisters, 0.15·10 ⁶ TBq An Introduction to Nuclear W	
WIP, Kalpakkam, India	HLW	JHCM	Testing	Immobilisa	
WTP, Hanford, USA	LLW	JHCM	1998 –	~ 1000 tonnes to 2000	
VPC, SEPEC Site, China	HLW	JHCM	Testing	## # MA	
Taejon, Korea	LILW	CCM	Testing		26

Radiation durability of glass is very high and is above orders of GGy.

250

An Introduction to Nuclear Waste Immobilisation

Table 17.2 Typical Properties of Glasses for Nuclear Waste Immobilisation

Glass Type	•	Compressive Strength, (MPa)	NR ^a (10 ⁻⁶ g/cm ² day)	TEC ^b , (1/K)	T _{max} ^c , K (°C)	Damaging Dose ^d (Gy)
Borosilicate	2.7	22-54	0.3 (Cs)	8×10^{-6}	≥823 (550)	>109
Phosphate	2.6	9-14	0.2 (Sr) 1.1 (Cs) 0.4 (Sr)	1.5×10^{-6}	≥723 (450)	>109

aIAEA test protocol for 28th day.

bTEC — thermal expansion coefficient.

 $^{^{}c}T_{max}$ is the maximum allowed temperature of glass representing the limit of its thermal stability. T_{max} is defined as the temperature above which the radionuclide NR's increase $> 10^{2}$ times. By definition $T_{max} < T_{g}$.

^dIrradiation has a small impact on glasses and the damaging dose is the absorbed dose above which the radionuclide NRs increase several times.



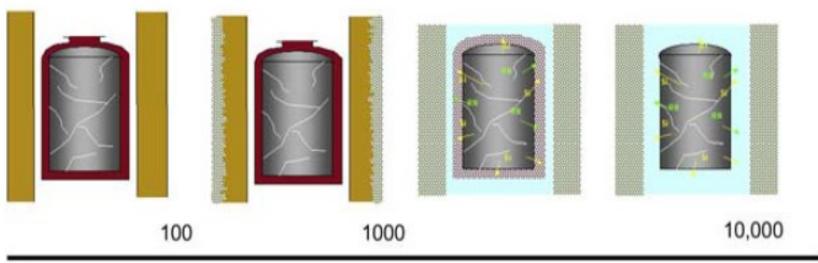


Figure 23.5 Schematic of alteration to packaged glass wasteform in wet repository environment with time (in years). *Courtesy Stephane Gin, CEA France*.

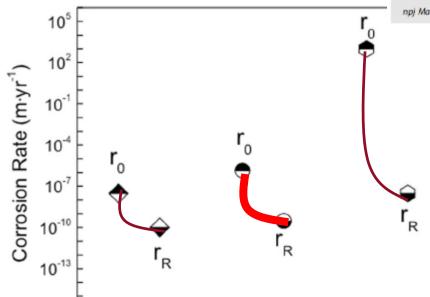
REVIEW ARTICLE OF

A comparative review of the aqueous corrosion of glasses, crystalline ceramics, and metals

Gerald S. Frankel , John D. Vienna², Jie Lian³, John R. Scully⁴, Stephane Gin⁵, Joseph V. Ryan², Jianwei Wang⁶, Seong H. Kim , Wolfgang Windl¹ and Jincheng Du 6⁸

A comparative review of the aqueous corrosion GS Frankel et al.

Ceramic



All materials can suffer from environmental degradation; the rate and extent of degradation depend on the details of the material composition and structure as well as the environment. The corrosion of silicate glasses, crystalline ceramics, and metals, particularly as related to nuclear waste forms, has received a lot of attention. The corrosion phenomena and mechanisms of these materials are different, but also have many similarities. This review compares and contrasts the mechanisms of environmental degradation of glass, crystalline ceramics, and metals, with the goal of identifying commonalities that can seed synergistic activities and advance the current knowledge in each area.

npj Materials Degradation (2018)2:15; doi:10.1038/s41529-018-0037-2

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Journal of Nuclear Materials

Journal of Nuclear Materials 484 (2017) 357-366

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/jnucmat

Modelling aqueous corrosion of nuclear waste phosphate glass

Pavel P. Poluektov ^a, Olga V. Schmidt ^a, Vladimir A. Kascheev ^a, Michael I. Ojovan ^{b,*}

Fig. 7 Summary of estimates of initial rates of corrosion, r_0 , and residual or steady state rates, $r_{\rm R}$, for ceramics, glasses and corrosion-resistant metal alloys. The very high initial rate shown for metal passivation is a consequence of the very short timescale (μ s) over which such rates can be measured for metals

Glass

Metal

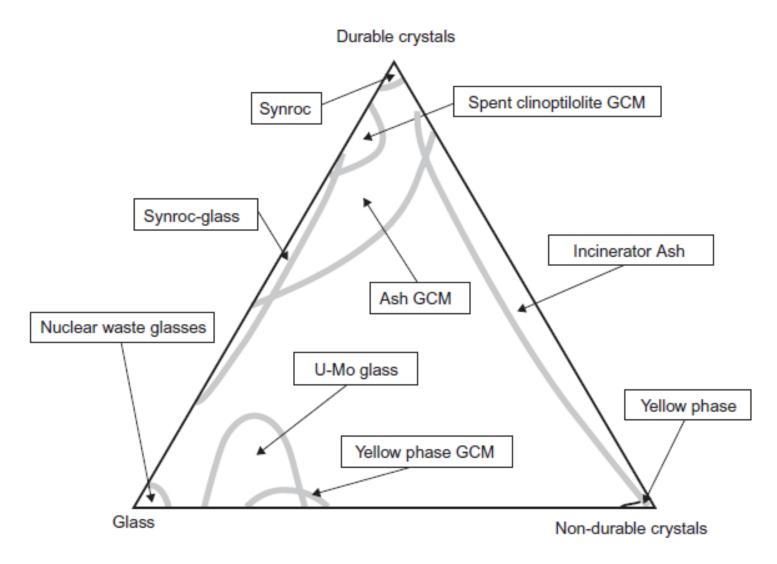
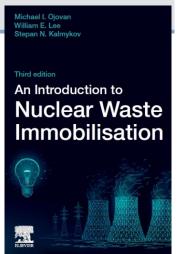


Figure 18.7 Phase composition of nuclear wasteforms.



II-B. Ceramics



	MATERIALS FOR VOL. 1
	Crystalline Materials
	Crystalline Materials Actinide Immobilisation
	B. E. Burakov M. Ojovan W. E. Lee
4 ⁽¹⁾	
	Imperial College Press
	Imperial Conege riess

Table 20.2 Potential ceramic wasteforms for actinide immobilisation

Composition type	Mineral name	Ideal formula
Simple oxides	Zirconia	ZrO_2
Complex oxides	Pyrochlore	(Na,Ca,U) ₂ (Nb,Ti,Ta) ₂ O ₆ , Gd ₂ Zr ₂ O ₇
-	Murataite	(Na,Y) ₄ (Zn,Fe) ₃ (Ti, Nb) ₆ O ₁₈ (F,OH) ₄
	Zirconolite	CaZrTi ₂ O ₇
	Perovskite	CaTiO ₃
Silicates	Zircon	ZrSiO ₃
	Thorite	ThSiO ₃
	Garnet	$(Ca,Mg,Fe^{2+})_3(Al,Fe^{3+},Cr^{3+})_2(SiO_4)$
	Britholite	$(Ca,Ce)_5(SiO_4)_3(OH,F)$
	Titanite	CaTiSiO ₅
Phosphates	Monazite	LnPO ₄
_	Apatite	$Ca_{4-x}Ln_{6+x}(PO_4)_{\gamma}(O,F)_2$
	Xenotime	YPO_4
	NZP^{a}	$NaZr_2(PO_4)_3$
	Th-pyrophosphate ^a	$Th_4(PO_4)_4P_2O_7$

^aThese phases do not occur naturally.

B.E. Burakov, M.I Ojovan, W.E. Lee. Crystalline Materials for Actinide Immobilisation, Imperial College Press, London, 198 pp. (2010).

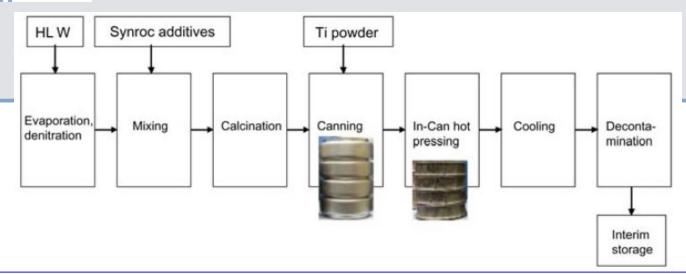


Table 20.3 Sintering parameters for some host ceramics

Mineral	Monazite	Zircon	Zirconolite	Zirconia	Apatite	Synroc
Temperature, °C	900 - 1200	1450	1300-1800	1400 - 1600	700	1100-1300
Pressure, MPa	29		150	80	25	14-21

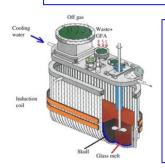


Table 20.5 Melting parameters for some host ceramics

Mineral	Murataite	Zirconia	Zirconolite	Perovskite	Hollandite	Synroc B and C
T, °C	1400-1500	2650	1530	1975	1600	1400-1550

The Australian Nuclear Science and Technology Organisation (Ansto) said on 9 April that construction of a first-of-a-kind facility to immobilise waste from the production of molybdenum-99 (Mo-99) is expected to be completed in early 2020. The new facility will use Ansto Syrnoc technology to immobilise waste from Mo-99 production, known as SyMo. The Mo-99 is produced in Ansto's OPAL multipurpose reactor. "Today, Ansto Syrnoc combines waste form design and process technologies to immobilise and terminate nuclear wastes creating a technology validated for intermediate level liquid waste." said Gerry Triani, Ansto Syrnoc Technical Director. "Its also a flexible platform technology that can be modified to suit other weats tereans."

In Australia the **'SyMo'** Facility (<u>Sy</u>nroc-<u>Mo</u>lybdenum) will operate a world first process line utilising a **fully integrated HIP based technology**; https://www.neimagazine.com/news/newsansto-to-complete-new-mo-99-waste-facility-in-2020-7156356

Print Email

Liquid Wet Dryer Calciner



Waste form additives



CAN PROCESSING

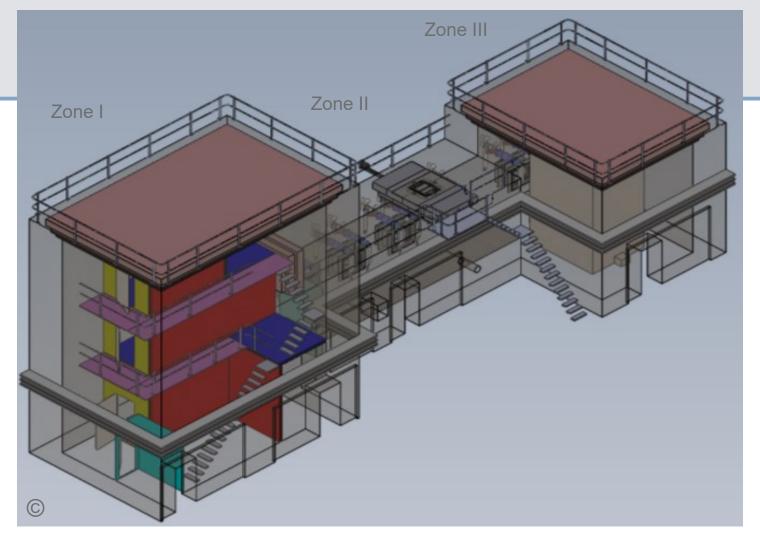






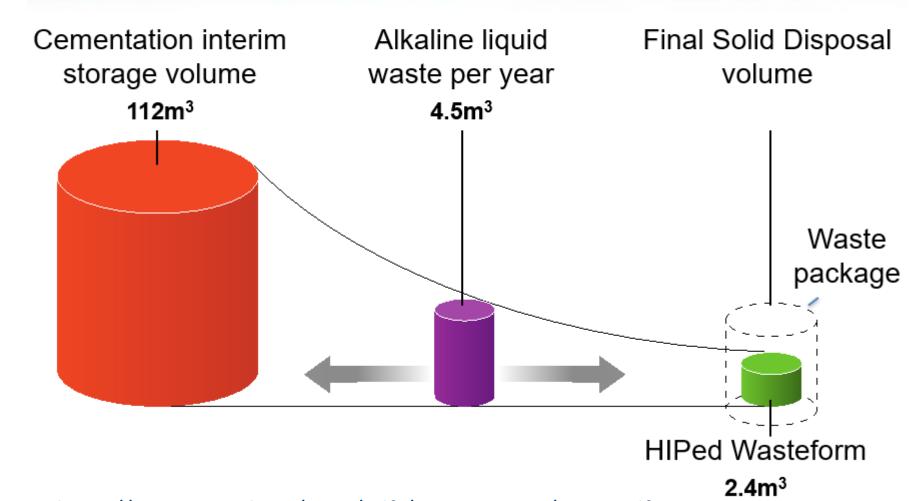






G Triani, R.L. Holmes, D.T. Chavara, E.R. Vance, M Smith, A Abboud, B Bigrigg, N Scales, D.J. Gregg. Synroc Waste Treatment Plant for fission-based Molybdenum-99 Production. Report presented at MRS Symposium on Scientific Bases for Nuclear Waste Management. Sydney 2017.

Comparison of consolidated volume



See: https://mo99.ne.anl.gov/2018/pdfs/presentations/S8-P1.pdf
https://mo99.ne.anl.gov/documents/Feasibility Review Report030914.pdf



Ansto to complete new Mo-99 waste facility in 2020

16 April 2019



The Australian Nuclear Science and Technology Organisation (Ansto) said on 9 April that construction of a first-of-a-kind facility to immobilise waste from the production of molybdenum-99 (Mo-99) is expected to be completed in early 2020. The new facility will use Ansto Synroc technology to immobilise waste from Mo-99 production, known as SyMo. The Mo-99 is produced in Ansto's OPAL multipurpose reactor. "Today, Ansto Synroc combines waste form design and process technologies to immobilise and terminate nuclear wastes creating a technology tailored for intermediate level liquid waste." said Gerry Triani, Ansto Synroc Technical Director. "It is also a flexible platform technology that can be modified to suit other waste streams."

Table 20.4 Comparison of Synroc matrix parameters with nuclear waste glasses

Parameter		Phosphate glass	Borosilicate glass	Synroc	
				Sintered	Melted
Density, g/cm ³		2.6	2.6	4.35	3.8-4.4
Heat conductivity, W/m	K	0.74	1.1	2.1	1.7
Temperature conductivity	y, cm ² /s	2.9×10^{-3}		10^{-2}	
Linear dilatation coefficient, 10 ⁻⁶ , 1/K		1.5	8.1	10.5	8-10
Heat capacity, J/g K		0.96	0.9	0.55	0.5 - 0.7
Compressive strength, MPa		10	80	547	500-600
Microhardness, GPa			7.2	8.4	8.0 - 8.5
NR, g/cm^2 day Cs		1.1×10^{-6a}	10^{-4}	$< 3 \times 10^{-6}$	5×10^{-5}
,	Sr	4×10^{-7a}	7×10^{-6}	6.5×10^{-7}	10^{-6}
	An		10^{-5}	$10^{-7} - 10^{-8}$	$10^{-7} - 10^{-8}$

^aData for room temperature.

II-C. GCM's

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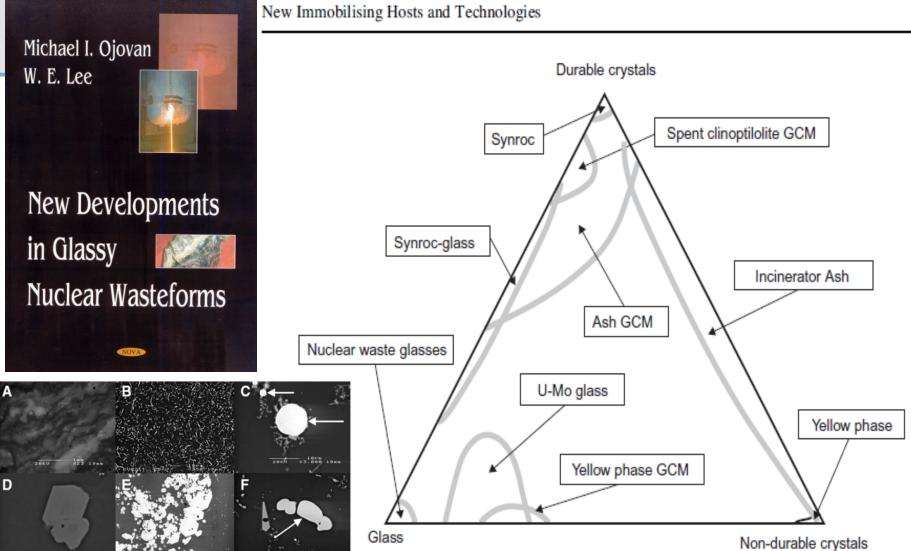


Figure 19.8 Gas bubbles (A) and crystalline phases (B-F) in an as-cast British Magnox waste simulant glass. (B) RuO₂, (C) Pd, (D) Cr, Fe, Ni-spinels, (E) lanthanide- Phase composition of nuclear wasteforms. rich phase and (F) Zr-rich phase. Courtesy P.B. Rose, ISL, University of Sheffield.



Glass composite materials (GCM's) are used to immobilise glass-immiscible waste components such as sulphates, chlorides, molybdates and refractory materials requiring unacceptably high melting temperatures. GCM's comprise both vitreous and crystalline components.

Table 19.4 Approximate solubility limits of elements in silicate glasses

Element	Solubility limit, wt.%
Al, Si, P, Pb	25
Li, B, Na, Mg, K, Ca, Fe, Zn, Rb, Sr, Cs, Ba, Fr, Ra, U	15-25
Ti, Cu, F, La, Ce, Pr, Nd, Gd, Th, Bi, Zr	5-15
Mn, Cr, Co, Ni, Mo	3-5
C, S, Cl, As, Se, Tc, Sn, Sb, Te	1-3
H, He, N, Ne, Ar, Br, Kr, Ru, Rh, Pd, Ag, I, Xe, Pt, Au, Hg, Rn	Less than 0.1



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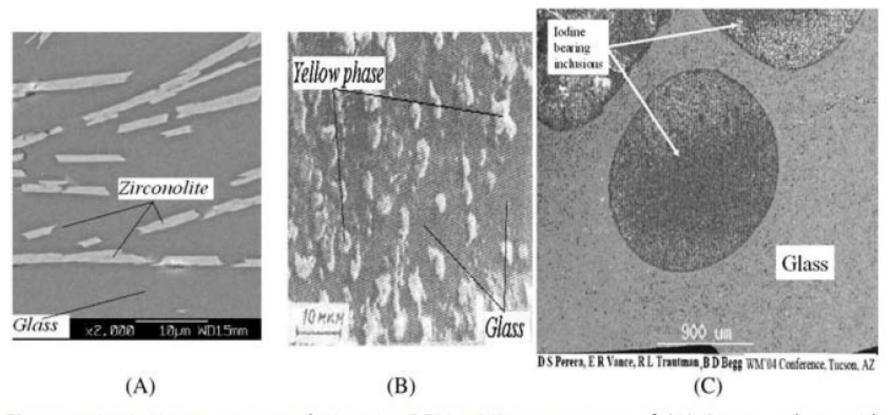


Figure 19.12 Waste encapsulation in GCMs: Microstructure of (A) Synroc-glass with zirconolite crystalline phase; (B) GCM for immobilising yellow phase; (C) GCM for immobilising iodine. *GCM*, Glass-composite material. *Courtesy Dan Perera, ANSTO*.

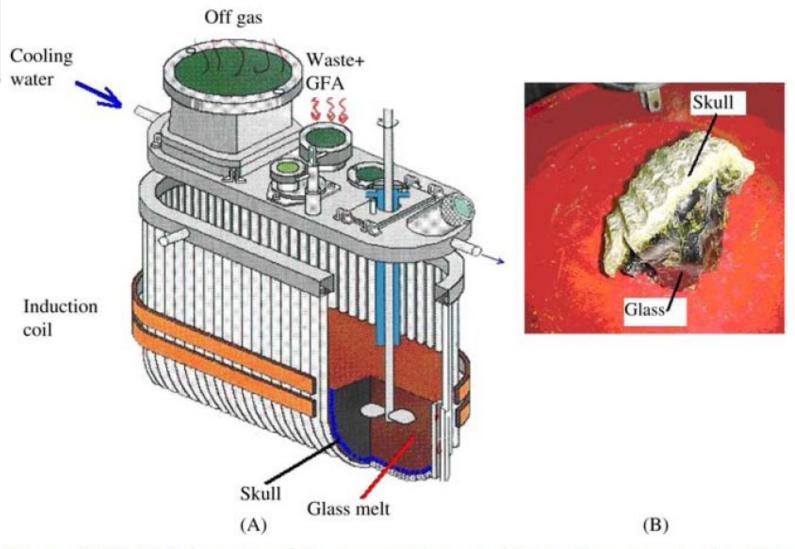
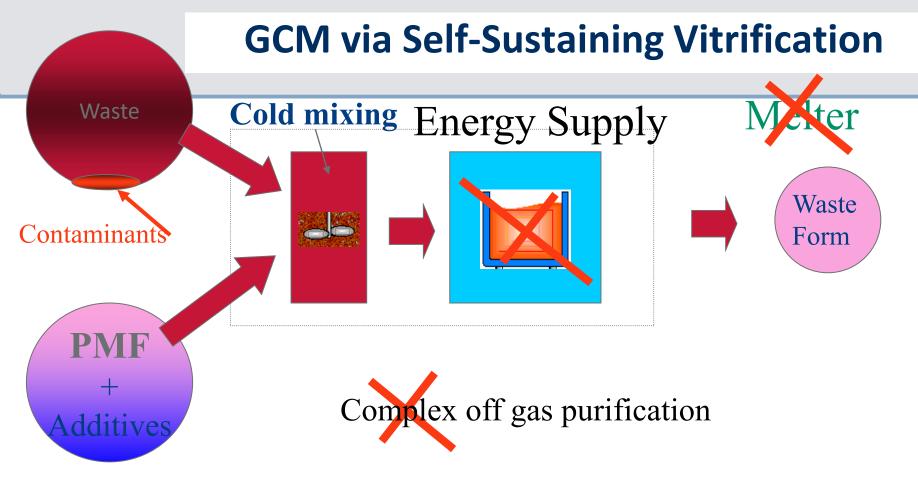


Figure 19.26 (A) Schematic of Russian stainless steel CCM. The stirrer in this CCM enables production of GCM. (B) A sample of glass from the CCM: the white layer is a part of the glass forming batch (skull) that remains unmelted. *GCM*, Glass-composite material; *CCM*, cold crucible melters.

Table 19.10 Basic properties of borosilicate glasses and Russian yellow phase glass-composite material (GCM)

	Parameter	Borosilicate glasses for high sodium waste	GCMs
Waste oxi	de content, wt.%	30-35	30-35 + up to 15 vol.% of yellow phase
Viscosity,	Pa s, at 1200°C	3.5 - 5.0	3.0-6.0
	, Ω m, at 1200°C	0.03 - 0.05	0.03-0.05
Density, g		2.5 - 2.7	2.4 - 2.7
Compressi	ve strength, MPa	80-100	50-80
Ŧ	¹³⁷ Cs	$10^{-5} - 10^{-6} $ $10^{-6} - 10^{-7}$	$\sim 10^{-5}$
tes	⁹⁰ Sr		
y, Icy	Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni	$\sim 10^{-7} - 10^{-8}$	
da nal gen	Rare earth elements	$\sim 10^{-8}$	$\sim 10^{-8}$
n Ag	(REE), Actinides		
rma rma rgy	(An)		
e, g nte	Na	$10^{-5} - 10^{-6}$ $< 10^{-8}$	$10^{-4} - 10^{-5}$
rate y I c E	В	$<10^{-8}$	$\leq 10^{-8}$
ch -da mi	SO_4^{2-}	$\sim 10^{-5} - 10^{-6}$	$\sim 10^{-4} - 10^{-5}$ with up to
Leach rate, g/cm day, (28-day International Atomic Energy Agency test)			15 vol.% yellow phase





SSV produces Waste Forms without external power supply ensuring <u>minimisation</u> of emission of contaminants (carry over).

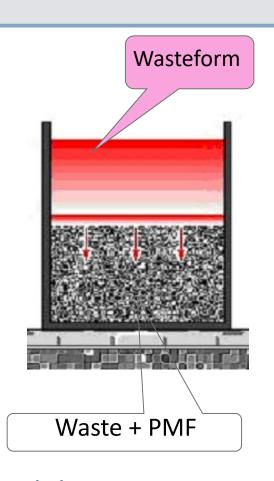


Waste + PMF (+Additives) → Wasteform + Heat

Waste: a mixture of metal oxides including contaminants.

PMF: a specially designed blend of heat generating components.

Additives can be required to enhance the efficiency of process and to obtain a high quality wasteform



Suitable PMF composition ensures an efficient immobilising process and a qualitative wasteform.

The waste should be:

- 1. In a powder form to enable good mixing with PMF;
- 2. Dry enough to avoid release of large amounts of gas on melting.

Examples:

Ashes produced by incinerating hazardous (toxic and radioactive) waste,

Soils contaminated both by heavy metals and radionuclides, Spent inorganic ion-exchangers.





Characteristics of radioactive wastes

Cha	racteristic	Ash residue	Soil	Clinoptilolite
	SiO ₂	28.10	75.28	68.02
	P_2O_5	19.21	-	_
	CaO	25.80	0.73	2.71
e,	Na ₂ O	4.47	1.51	1.57
wast	K ₂ O	6.40	2.79	3.01
Content in the waste, Wt.%	Fe ₂ O ₃	2.90	4.91	1.44
ntin Ma	$\mathrm{Al_2O_3}$	3.65	7.63	11.34
onte	CuO	1.53	0.17	_
Ŭ	MgO	5.14	1.44	0.53
	MnO	1.11	1	0.06
	SO₃	1.76	-	0.32
	LOI at 900°C	•	5.51	11.11



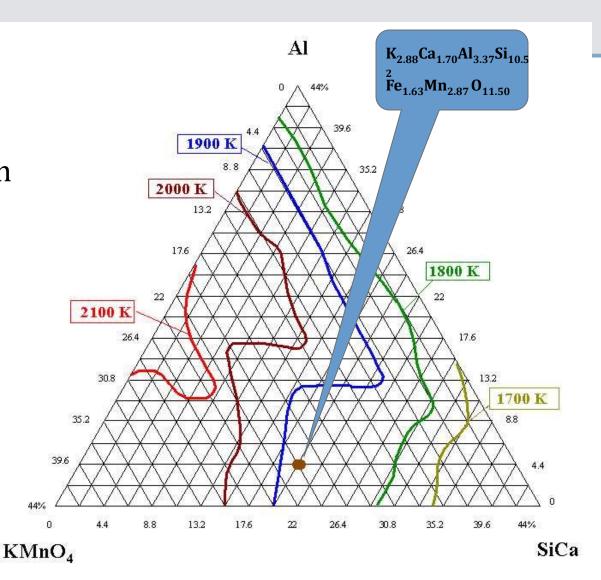
Characteristics of radioactive wastes

Cha	r acteristic	Ash residue	Soil	Clinoptilolite
٠,	$\Sigma \beta$ by $^{137}\mathrm{Cs}$	10 ⁵ -10 ⁶	10 ³ -10 ⁵	10 ³ –10 ⁵
ivits	∑α by ²³⁹ Pu	10 ⁵ -10 ⁷	≤10 ³	-
Specific radioactivity, Bq/kg	Σβ by ⁹⁰ S1+ ⁹⁰ Υ	7.7•10 ⁵	3.6•10 ³	4.6•10 ⁵
ific 1 B	¹³⁷ Cs	1.3•10 ⁵		7.0•10 ⁵
Speci	90Sr	1.5•10 ⁵		7.0•10 ⁵
V 1	²³⁸ U	3.2•10 ⁴		1.8•10 ²

Thermodynamic simulation is applied to design PMF and model immobilisation process.

These result in determining the appropriate PMF composition and PMF/waste ratio.

Equilibrium temperatures in a composition of ash and PMF.

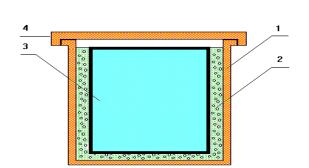


Self-sustaining immobilisation was performed for waste to PMF ratios of 0.82 - 1.50.

Double wall crucible-containers made of carbon steel of 3, 5 and 10 dm³ volumes were used.

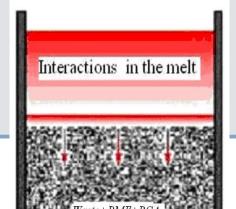






1-carbon steel drum, 2-refractory backfill, 3-waste+PMF mixture, 4-lid.







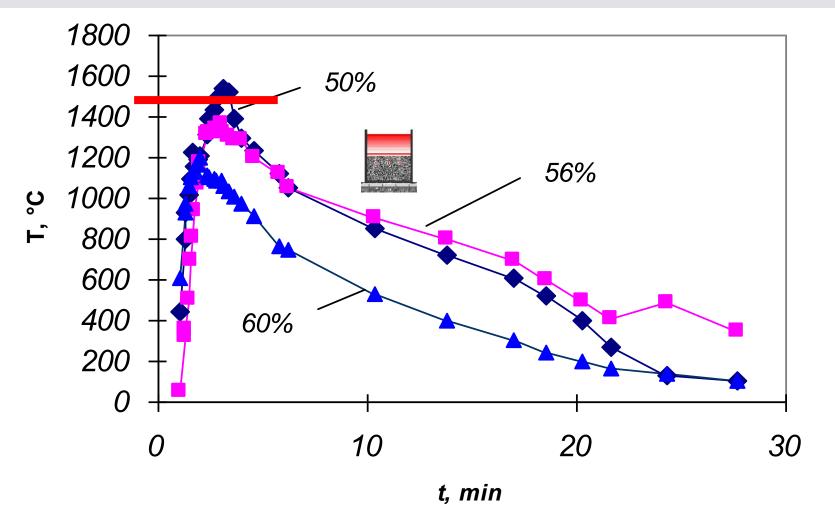
Propagation velocity of the combustion wave is about 1 mm/s.



SSV Process.



Container ready for ignition.



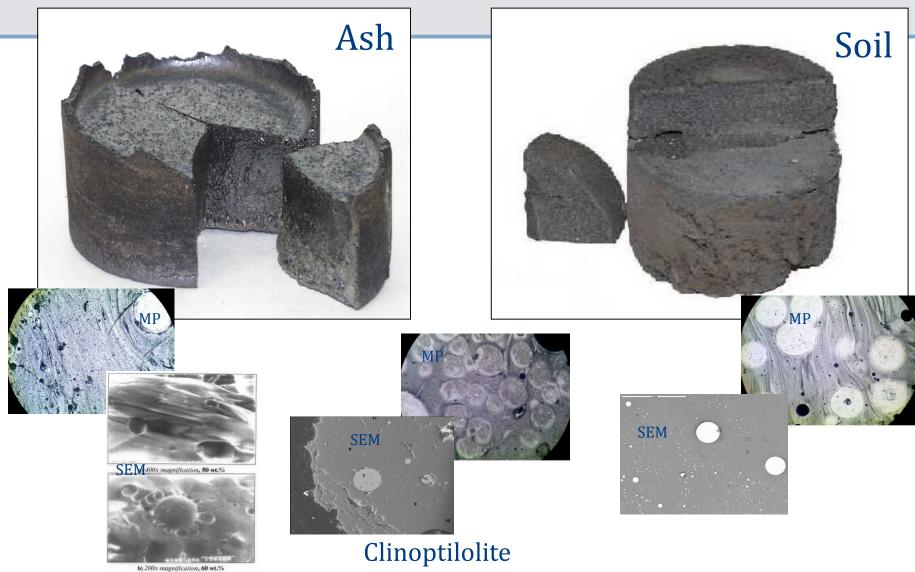
Thermograms of self-sustaining vitrification. Left for ash residue for PMF/ash wt. ratios as 1 - 50/50, 2 - 44/56, 3 - 40/60.

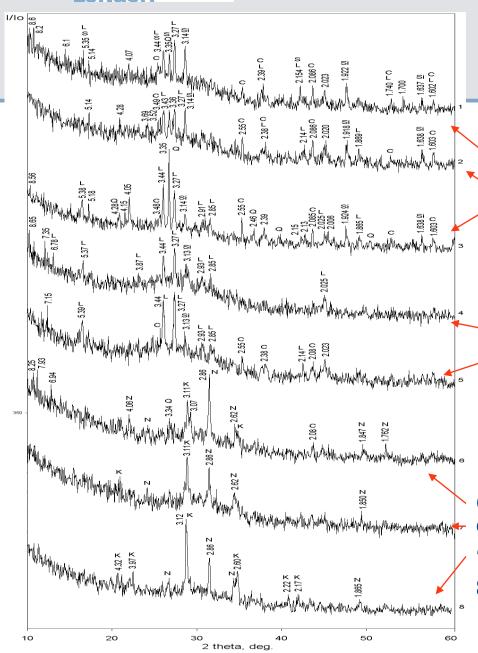
Parameters of SSI

Waste content, wt. %			Maximum process	Aerosols carryover,	¹³⁷ Cs carryover,
Ash residue	Soil	Clinoptilolite	temperature, °C	wt. %	%
50 -	-	-	1530	1.9	0.9
56 -	-	-	1350	1.4	0.4
60 -	-	-	1200	1.0	0.3
-	45	-	1900	2.2	3.1
-	50	-	1620	1.8	1.9
•	56	-	1530	1.0	1.3
	-	50	1564	3.6	0.8
	-	55	1476	2.4	1.1

GCM'S









C- corundum,
K- calcilite,
L- leicite,
S- sillimanite,
Nnagelshmidtite, Q
- quartz.

4– clinoptilolite 50 %, 5–55 %,

1- soil 45 %,

2– 50 %,

3-56%

6 – ash residue 60 %, 7 –56 %, 8 –50 %. Evidence of high temperature interaction between components of the PMF

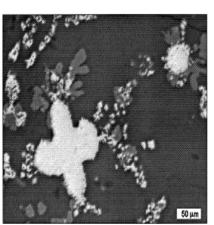
Vitrified product phases able to incorporate waste elements.

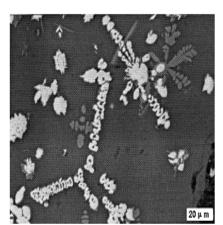
Phases	Potential contaminants
Glassy	Pb, Zn, Rb, Sr, Cs, Ra, U, La, Ce, Pr, Th, Co, Ni, Mo, and up to 1-3 wt.%: C, S, Cl, As, Se, Tc, Sn, Sb, Te.
Nagelschmidtite Ca7(PO4)2(SiO4)2	Sr, REE ^{III} , An ^{III,IV} (U, Pu), Pb, S
Sodium-calcium silicophosphate Na ₂ Ca ₄ (PO ₄) ₂ (SiO ₄)	Sr, REE ^{III} , An ^{III,IV} (U, Pu), Pb, S
Kaliophilite (K[AlSiO4])	K, Rb, Cs, Fe

Characteristics of the end product							
Waste co	ntent,					hing rate,	
wt. %			Density, Compressive		g/c	m²-day	
Ash residue	Soil	Clinoptilo- lite	g/cm ³	strength, MPa	¹³⁷ Cs	²³⁹ Pu	
50	-	-	2.8	20	9.0·10 ⁻⁶	5.4·10 ⁻⁶	
56		-	2.8	17	4.9·10 ⁻⁶	2.8·10 ⁻⁶	
60	-	-	3.0	16	7.9·10 ⁻⁵	7.0·10 ⁻⁵	
	45	-	2.4	10	1.0·10 ⁻⁵		
	50	-	2.0	10	8.1.10-6		
-	56	-	1.5	8	2.1.10-6	-	
-		50	1.85	12	~ 6·10 ⁻⁶	-	
•		56	1.74	9	~ 8·10 ⁻⁶	-	

Additives were found to incorporate long-lived isotopes of carbon, uranium, plutonium (actinides) in the target crystalline phases (e.g. carbides, zirconolite, zirconia).

Waste + PMF +Additives → Waste Form + Heat





SEM images in backscattered electrons of the material produced using exothermic mixture. White - zirconia, gray - metal, dark-gray - vitreous phase.

70 65 60 55 50 45 40 35 30 25 2 theta, deg

XRD pattern of the material produced using exothermic mixture.

B - baddeleyite, T - tetragonal zirconia.

Leaching rate (g/m²·d) for mineral-like block (MCC-1 test at 90 °C during 7* and 28** days).

	Our material*	Synroc-C	Waste glass PNL 76- 68**
Mass	0.01	0.005**	0.42
Al	0.01	<0.01**	n.a.***
В	0.75	-	1.12
Ca	0.012	0.0065**	0.068
Се	$5,1\cdot10^{-4}$	10-4-10-3*	n.a.
K (Cs)	0.15	(0.033)**	(1.03)
Si (Ti)	7 10 4 (1 10 4)	(<5·10 ⁻⁵)**	0,73
Zr	$< 1 \cdot 10^{-3}$	<6.10-4*	-



GCM OBTAINED VIA SINTERING

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Host Borosilicate Glass melting and Characterisation

•DTA, XRD and ICP-AES analysis



Impregnation of Cs on natural clinoptilolite and characterisation

•DTA, XRD and ICP-AES analysis





Sintering of pellets

- Sintered at 750°C for 2 hours with 2°C/min heating and cooling rate
- Both Cs-Clino and glass size<75μm.
- 13mm diameter pellet using 78.3 Mpa.
- Glass to Cs-clino ranging from 1:1 up to 1:10 glass to Cs-clino vol. ratio

Leaching Test

- Based on ASTM C1220-98 standard.
- In deionized water, at 40°C for 7 days.
- surface area to volume ratio (S/V)=10.0m⁻¹.

Microstructural Analysis

• Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) and Energy Dispersive X-Ray Spectroscopy (EDS) analysis.





Table 1 Cs-clino parameters

Analyses	Results
ICP-MS (wt%)	Cs - 21.0
XRD	Potassium sodium aluminium silicate hydrate
	$KNa_{2}Ca_{2}(Si_{29}Al_{7})O_{72} \cdot 24H_{2}O$
Mean particle size (mm)	0.564
Density (g cm ⁻³)	2.00 ± 0.23

Table 2 Properties of borosilicate glass used as matrix

Composition (wt%)	Oxide	Batcha	ICP^b
	SiO ₂	50.05	50.43
	Na_2O	16.72	14.00
	CaO	16.61	16.80
	Al_2O_3	2.60	2.74
	TiO_2	1.56	1.58
	B_2O_3	9.34	10.37
	Li ₂ O	3.12	2.46
	K_2O	_	0.75
	Total	100	99.13
$T_{\rm g}$ (°C)	488 ± 2		
Density (g cm ⁻³)	2.60 ± 0.10		

^a Calculated from batch composition.

^b Calculated based on elemental composition obtain by ICP-AES.

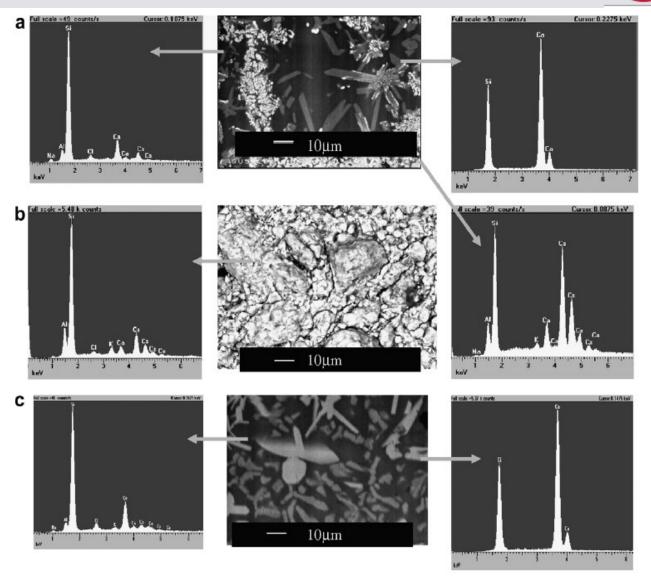


Fig. 1. BEI image and EDS of each phase of (a) GCM wasteform with 1:1 glass to Cs-clino volume ratio (b) sintered Cs-clino only and (c) sintered borosilicate only.

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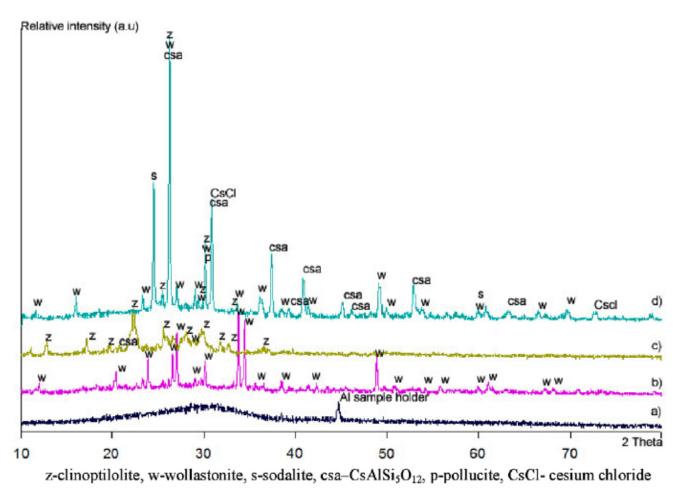


Fig. 2. XRD of (a) unheat-treated host glass, (b) sintered host glass only, (c) sintered Cs-clino only and d) sintered GCM wasteform with 1:1 glass to Cs-clino volume ratio after 2 h at 750 °C.





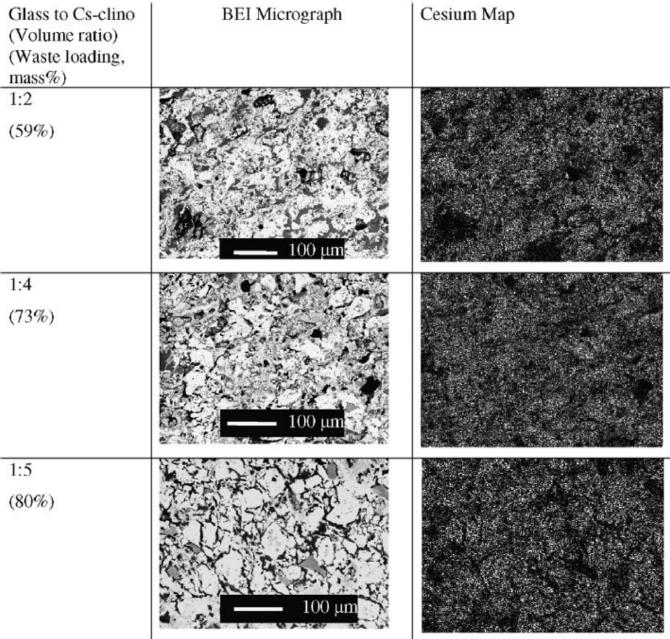


Fig. 3. Microstructural changes and Cs distribution in the GCM wasteform with increased waste loading.

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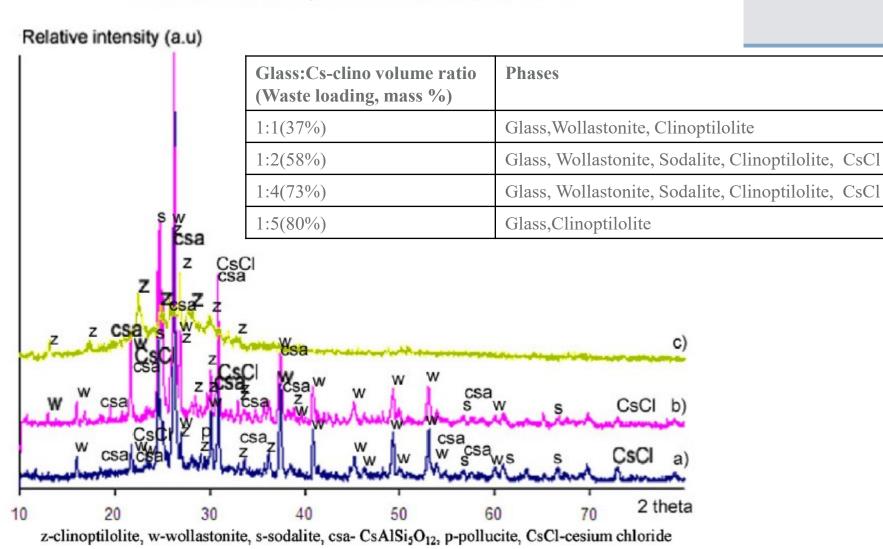


Fig. 4. XRD of GCM with glass to Cs-clino volume ratio respectively (a) 1:2, (b) 1:4 and (c) 1:5 after 2 h at 750 °C.

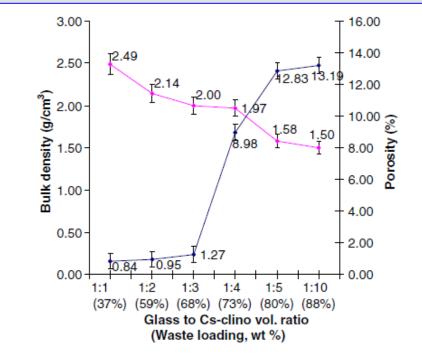


Fig. 5. Bulk density and porosity of glass composite wasteform with the increase of waste loading.

•Up to waste loading ~73% mass microstructure of the GCM ensures complete encapsulation of clinoptilolite particles and NR_{Cs} of the GCM below $6.35 \cdot 10^{-6}$ g/cm² day.

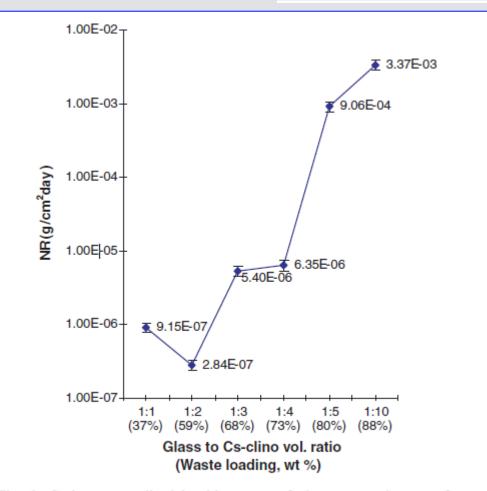
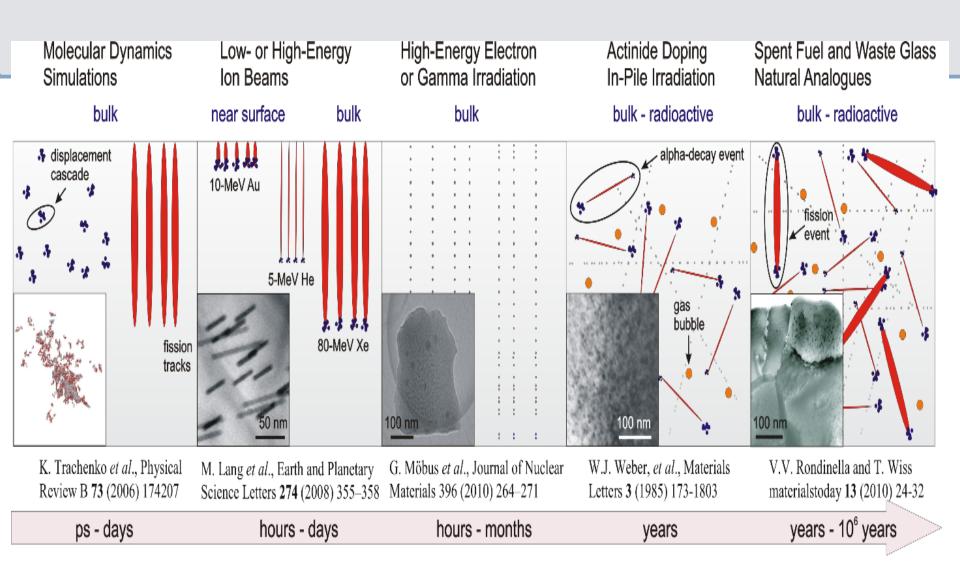


Fig. 6. Cesium normalized leaching rates of glass composite wasteform with the increase in waste loading.



III. Radiation effects









Joint ICTP/IAEA Workshop on radiation effects in nuclear waste forms and their consequences for storage and disposal

12 - 16 September 2016

Miramare, Trieste, Italy



- Role of irradiation at different stages of material use in the nuclear industry;
- Nuclear waste forms and envisaged irradiation storage and disposal conditions;
- Behaviour of materials containing actinides and long lived radionuclides;
- Experimental techniques to investigate and simulate radiation effects;

 Theoretical (commutational methods to investigate and simulate radiation effects)

Co-Sponsors

ernational Atomic Energy Agency (IABA) Vienna, Austria.



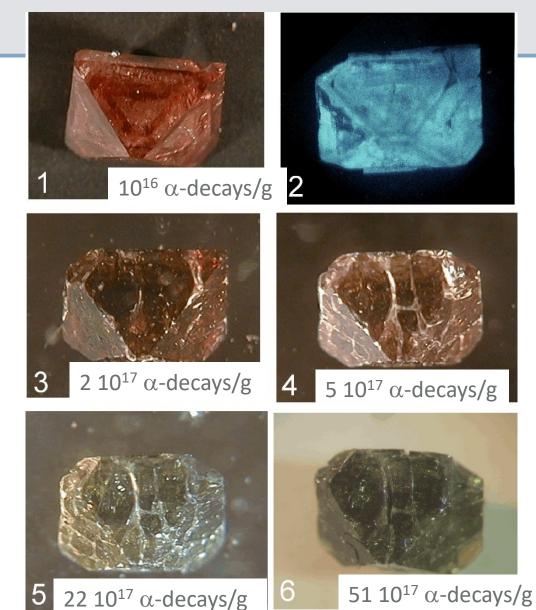
Directors

Michael I. OJOVAN (LAEA, Austria)

Neil C. HYATT (University of Sheffield, UK)



I. Zircon (Zr0.977Pu0.023)SiO $_4$ containing 2.4 wt.% ²³⁸Pu



2



II. Pu-monazite, PuPO₄

containing

7.2 wt. % ²³⁸Pu

is very unstable under self-irradiation.

Strong swelling was seen and even breaking into separate pieces.

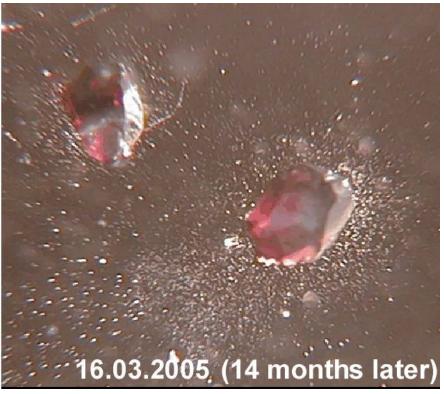




Single crystals Eu-monazite, $(Eu_{0.937}Pu_{0.063})PO_4$ with 4.9 wt.% ²³⁸Pu.

7 years after synthesis at accumulated dose $52 \cdot 10^{17} \alpha$ -decay/g





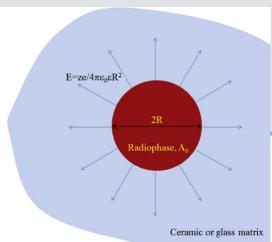
Mechanical destruction: Is that a result of alpha-decay?

What is the mechanism of aerosol/colloid formation?

M.I. Ojovan, B.E. Burakov, W.E. Lee. Radiation-induced Microcrystal Shape Change as a Mechanism of Wasteform Degradation. *Journal of Nuclear Materials* **501C** (2018) 162-171.

Experiments with actinide-containing insulating wasteforms such as devitrified glasses containing ²⁴⁴Cm, Ti-pyrochlore, single-phase La-monazite, Pu-monazite ceramics, Eu-monazite and zircon single crystals containing ²³⁸Pu indicate that mechanical self-irradiation-induced destruction may not reveal itself for many years (even decades). The mechanisms causing these slowly-occurring changes remain unknown therefore in addition to known mechanisms of wasteform degradation such as matrix swelling and loss of solid solution we have modelled the damaging effects of electrical fields induced by the decay of radionuclides in clusters embedded in a non-conducting matrix. Three effects were important: (i) electric breakdown; (ii) cluster shape change due to dipole interaction, and (iii) cluster shape change due to polarisation interaction. We reveal a critical size of radioactive clusters in non-conducting matrices so that the matrix material can be damaged if clusters are larger than this critical size. The most important parameters that control the matrix integrity are the radioactive cluster (inhomogeneity) size, specific radioactivity, and effective matrix electrical conductivity. We conclude that the wasteform should be as homogeneous as possible and even electrically conductive to avoid potential damage caused by electrical charges induced by radioactive decay.





Journal of Nuclear Materials 501 (2018) 162-171



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Radiation-induced microcrystal shape change as a mechanism of wasteform degradation



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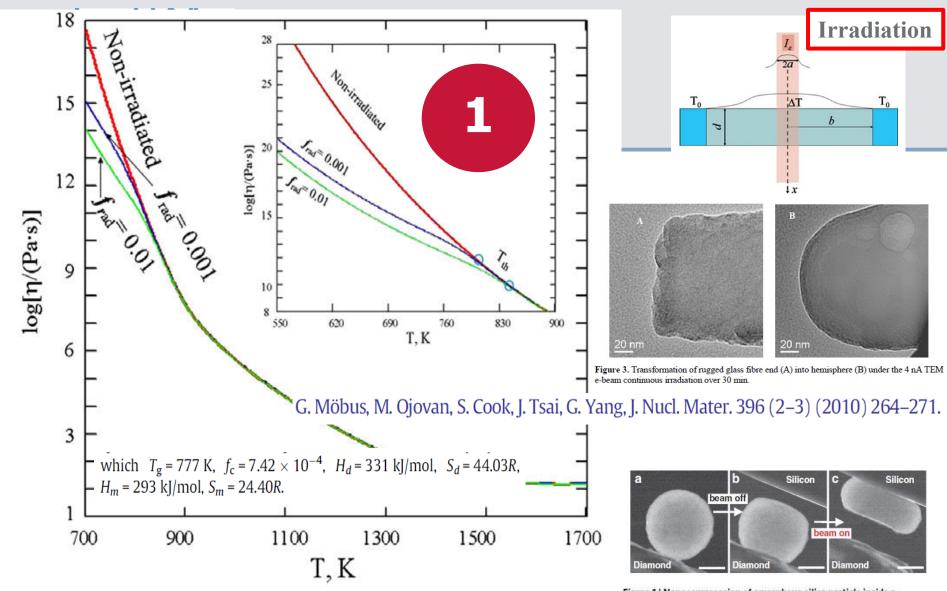
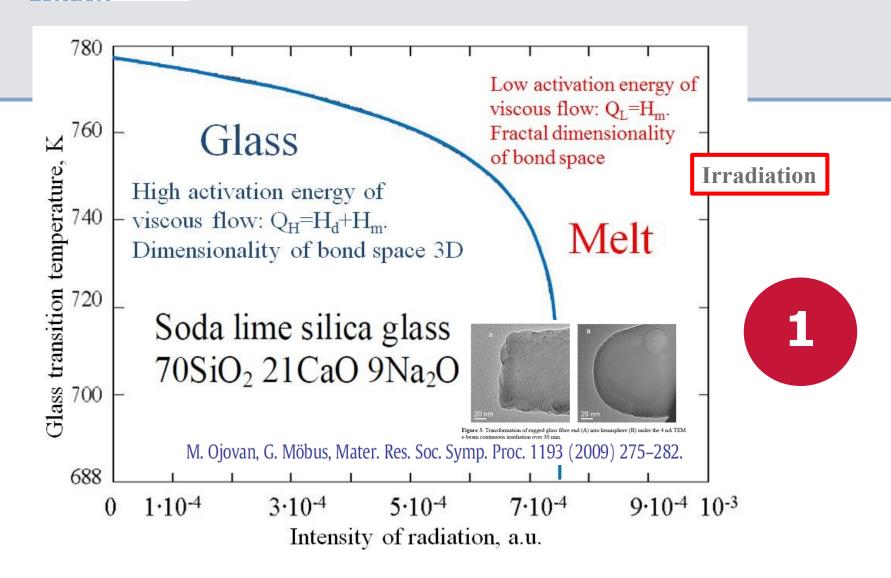


Fig. 9. Viscosities of non-irradiated and electron beam irradiated amorphous soda lime silicate system $70\text{SiO}_221\text{CaO9Na}_2\text{O}$ as a function of temperature for two dimensionless electron flux densities ($f_{rad} = \alpha_e I_e$) 0.01 and 0.001.

Figure 1 | Nanocompression of amorphous silica particle inside a transmission electron microscope (TEM). Two consecutive compression runs were performed with the electron beam being off and on, respectively.

K. Zheng et.al., Nature Communications, **1:24**, 1 (2011).





STABILITY OF THE METASTABLE GLASSY STATE

Phase separation, bubble formation in nuclear glasses ...

Modification of the glass viscosity

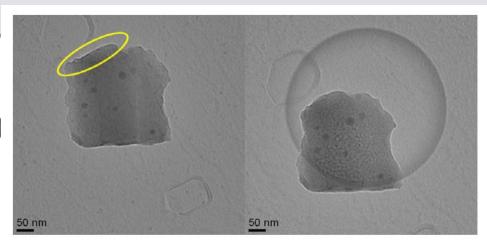
- Very high dose rate (10 orders of magnitude higher than expected in HLW glass)
- Bond Breaking

Favors oxygen bubbles and phase separation

$$\eta_R(T) = \eta(T) / \left[1 + \alpha_e I_e \left[1 + C \exp(D / RT)\right]\right]$$

 $\eta(T)$ viscosity of an non-irradiated material, α_e efficiency of electron beam bond breaking and annihilation $A_e\,I_e$ dimensionless electron flux density

Ojovan, Mater. Res. Soc. Symp. Proc. Vol. 1193 (2009) MÖbus, JNM 396 (2010)



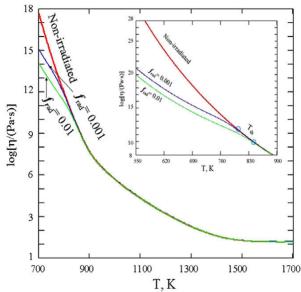


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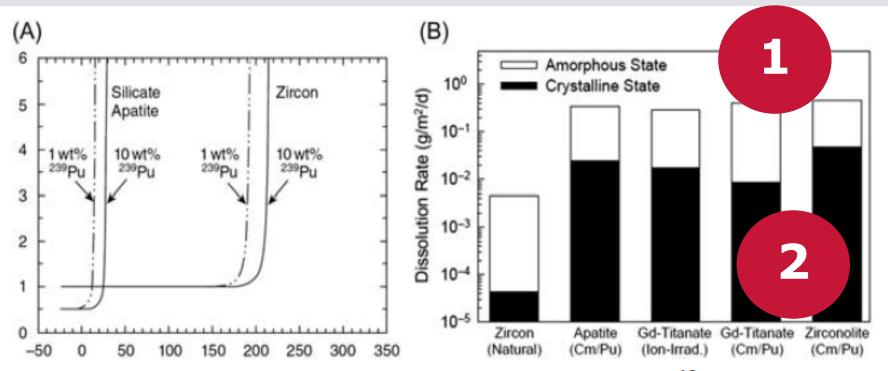
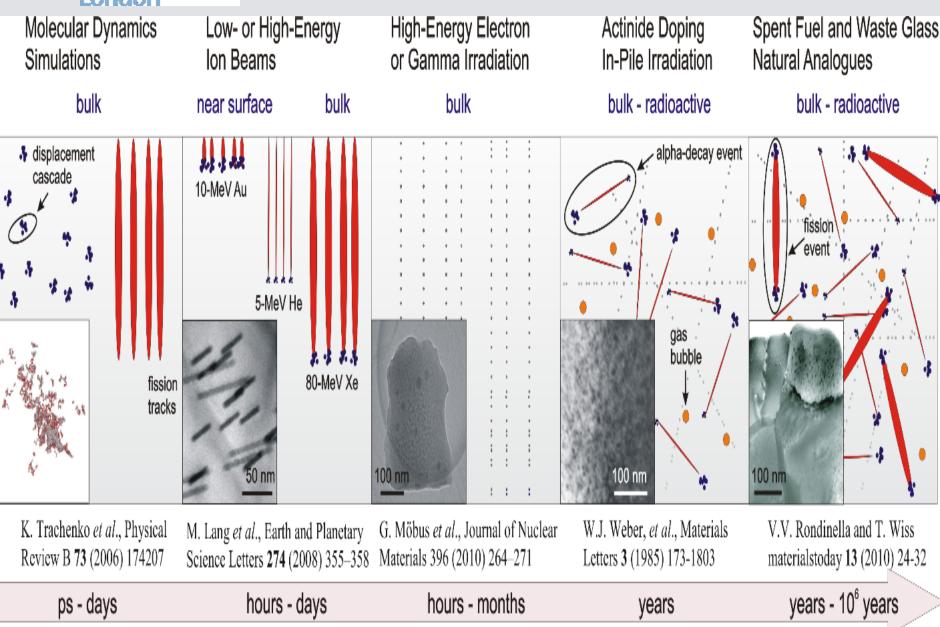


Figure 23.16 (A) Critical amorphisation dose (vertical axis: $\times 10^{19}$ alpha-decays per g) as a function of materials temperature (horizontal axis: $^{\circ}$ C). (B) Wasteform dissolution rate increases caused by radiation amorphisation. *Courtesy William J. Weber, University of Tennessee, US.*





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