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# Determining the porosity and water impregnation in irradiated graphite

1 Names of the authors: J. Comte<sup>1</sup>, C. Guy<sup>1</sup>, L. Gosmain<sup>2</sup>, S. Parraud<sup>3</sup>

2 Title:

Affiliation(s) and address(es) of the author(s):

<sup>1</sup> CEA, DEN, DEC, SA3E, LARC Commissariat à l'Énergie Atomique et aux
 Énergies Alternatives (CEA), Direction de l'énergie Nucléaire, Département d'études
 des combustibles, Service d'Analyses, d'Elaboration, d'Expérimentations et
 d'Examens des combustibles, Laboratoire d'Analyses Radiochimiques et Chimiques,
 Centre de Cadarache, Bâtiment 152, F-13108 Saint Paul lez Durance, France

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<sup>2</sup> CEA, DEN, DDCC, ISN Commissariat à l'Énergie Atomique et aux Énergies
 Alternatives (CEA), Direction de l'énergie Nucléaire, Direction du Démantèlement
 pour les Centres Civil, Installations de Service Nucléaire, centre de Saclay, Bâtiment
 121, F-91191 Gif-sur – Yvette cedex, France

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<sup>3</sup> CEA, DEN, DSN, SEEC, LECD Commissariat à l'Énergie Atomique et aux
Énergies Alternatives (CEA), Direction de l'énergie Nucléaire, Département de
Services Nucléaires, Service d'Exploitation, d'Expertise et de Caractérisation,
Laboratoire d'Expertise et de Caractérisation Destructive, Centre de Cadarache,
Bâtiment 326, F-13108 Saint Paul lez Durance, France

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#### Abstract

Impurities in nuclear graphite can become neutron-activated during operation, generating 23 24 radionuclides and leading to modifications in the microstructure of the graphite due to fast neutrons. The long-term disposal of nuclear graphite waste requires collecting data on the 25 behaviour of long-lived radionuclides in disposal conditions (water-saturated). The release of 26 27 radionuclides in solution depends on a number of physicochemical processes such as water ingress into the graphite structure (radionuclides sites), as well as the solubilisation and 28 29 transport of radionuclides in solution through the graphite pores. Analysis of the impregnation (impregnation speed, impregnation rate) of water in the porous graphite environment 30 31 represents one of the main parameters that will greatly influence the physicochemical processes controlling the release of radionuclides in solution. For this reason, the 32 33 impregnation of irradiated samples from the G2 and St Laurent A2 (SLA2) gas-cooled graphite-moderated reactors was studied, as was the distribution of the porosity. Results show 34 that the geometric density of the samples decreases after irradiation, which is expressed as an 35 36 increase in the total porosity or more precisely in the open porosity. This means that irradiated 37 graphite is mainly a macroporous solid. Nuclear graphite becomes a more hydrophobic 38 material with its open porosity filled by water in just a few days. This is due to the presence of 39 functional groups on the pore surface.

#### 40 Keywords

41 Graphite, nuclear waste, water uptake, radionuclides, porosity, UNGG

### 43 Introduction

44

45 The decommissioning of graphite-moderated nuclear reactors will generate about 230,000 tonnes of graphite waste worldwide [1]. In France, the Commissariat à l'Énergie Atomique et 46 aux Énergies Alternatives (CEA) and Electricité de France (EDF) operated 9 gas-cooled 47 graphite-moderated reactors (UNGG) which have all been shut down for at least 20 years 48 49 now. They were graphite-moderated and fuelled with natural metallic uranium. The decommissioning of these reactors will generate about 23,000 tonnes of irradiated-graphite (i-50 graphite), representing around 81,000 m<sup>3</sup> of conditioned waste in cementitious packages [2]. 51 Some of the impurities contained in the nuclear graphite became neutron-activated during 52 operation, giving rise to numerous radionuclides such as <sup>36</sup>Cl, <sup>14</sup>C, <sup>3</sup>H, etc. 53

According to the French 2006 Act on the sustainable management of radioactive materials 54 55 and waste passed by the French parliament [3], a dedicated shallow disposal concept was 56 chosen as the reference solution for the long-term management of French graphite waste. In this concept of disposal site, the waste will be at term in contact with underground water. 57 58 Thus, it is very important to know and understand underwater graphite behavior in terms of 59 water uptake and hence of radionuclide release. In order to design the best long-term management option for irradiated -graphite, the producers (the CEA and EDF) carried out 60 experimental studies in collaboration with the French national waste management agency 61 62 (Andra) to determine the water uptake kinetic, the rate of water saturation and the 63 radionuclide source term of irradiated graphite.

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Natural graphite is a crystalline allotrope of carbon, made up exclusively of sp2 hybridised carbons. The graphite crystal belongs to the hexagonal system and consists in a compact stacking (AB stacks) of polycyclic aromatic layers (graphene layers). sp2 graphitic materials are most of the time considered as an hydrophobic materiel [4].

69 Nuclear graphite used in UNGG or other graphite-moderated reactors (GCR) is a synthetic 70 material very far from the crystalline structure of the natural graphite. For UNGG reactors, it 71 was manufactured from petroleum coke mixed with coal-based binder pitch heated and extruded into bricks that were heat-treated up to about 2800/3000 °C for graphitization. 72 73 During this step, cleaning agents such as NaF or MgF<sub>2</sub> were used to obtain high-purity nuclear graphite grade [5-6-7]. As a result of the mixing of several carbon compounds, this 74 75 material is structurally heterogeneous at a local scale (more or less anisotropic and not 76 completely graphitized, with internal porosity...). Local heterogeneities in density may be 77 caused either by blowholes or lack of impregnation of the open porosity during the 78 manufacture of the graphite (local drop in density), or by the opposite by the presence of areas 79 very poor in porosity, e.g. due to dense agglomerations of coke grains. Nuclear graphite is 80 more a "carbon-carbon composites" relatively highly graphitised (blend of petroleum coke grains and less highly graphitisable coal-tar pitch) than a monocrystalline natural graphite. 81 82 The graphite blocks made with this material display good mechanical properties and chemical inertness. Some impurities remain at trace level in the nuclear graphite. Nuclear graphite 83 contains small amounts of impurities like oxygen, hydrogen, metals and halogens, among 84 them chlorine. 85

Irradiation of nuclear graphite but also temperature or radiochemical corrosion during reactor
operating, have a major impact on the microstructure of the material at micrometric and
nanometric scales [7-8 -9 -10]

The neutron flux induces displacement cascades of carbon atoms in the graphite matrix leading to structural defects in the material. Indeed, if the neutrons energy is sufficient (E> 0,1 MeV), the carbon atoms are ejected out of their initial position and can be for instance displaced between graphite planes, leading to creation of defects in the structure (interstitials, gaps). In the case of irradiation at low temperature, the consequences of the occurrence of these defects are the accumulation of stored energy (call Wigner energy).

- Irradiation temperature is also known to affect the grahite structure during irradiation.
  A temperature between 200°C up to 500°C has been found to "heal" some defects,
  especially the small ones [11 12]. Defects can migrate and interstitial atoms could
  locally form new carbon layers.
- 101 $CO_2$  radiolysis, mainly initiated through gamma irradiation, induces radiolytic102corrosion processes at the gas/graphite interfaces with as consequence a growth of the103pore size [6 7 13] and a decrease of the density.

104  $CO_{2(g)} + h\nu \rightarrow CO(g) + O^*(g)$ 

105  $O^* + C(s) \rightarrow CO(g)$ 

106 Which taken together is equivalent to the Boudouard reaction:

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$$CO_{2(g)} + C(s) \rightarrow 2 CO(g)$$
  $\Delta H = + 172 kJ mol^{-1}$ 

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• To avoid or limit the radiolytic corrosion, corrosion inhibitors, such as methane, have been introduced into the coolant during operations, but their radiolytic decomposition leads to the build-up of undesired carbonaceous deposits. Recent analysis of irradiated graphite from two Magnox reactor cores highlighted the presence of a carbonaceous deposit on the exposed surfaces of the graphite bircks [14].

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On a chemical point of view the modification of the C bonding induced by irradiation, radiolytic corrosion or by corrosion inhibitors on the surface lead to the creation of functional group [15 - 16 - 17 - 18]. More precisely, series of carbon–oxygen functional groups have been identified on the surface of irradiated graphite [16 - 18 - 19].

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As a consequence the structure (porosity, microstructure and nanostructure) and the surface properties (presence of functional group) of the irradiated graphite are modified and the kinetic of water impregnation must be determined experimentally. That requires also an accurate knowledge of the irradiated graphite property. To assure a phenomena interpretation of water uptake the resulting porosity of the sample must be also determined. It must therefore be emphasized that the graphites used in the context of the UNGG reactor type are materials

126 that must be more regarded as "carbon composite" (coke + binder) than as homogeneous 127 materials.

The i-graphite of two different reactors -G2 and SLA2 – were investigated for this study. 128 129 These reactors were chosen due to the different characteristics of their graphite stack and their operating conditions, particularly the type of coke used for the graphite manufacturing, the 130 neutron and thermal power levels, the  $CO_2$  pressure and the thermal history of the graphite 131 132 during reactor operation). Irradiated and unirradiated samples from both reactors were 133 available for comparative studies.

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#### Material and methods 135

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Graphite samples 137

G2-42

16.60-16.80

#### 139 Graphite from the French UNGG G2 reactor

G2 was the first gas-cooled graphite-moderated reactor designed to produce both electricity 140 and plutonium. It was operated by the CEA from 1958 until 1980 at Marcoule in the south of 141 142 France [20-21-22]. The graphite used in the G2 reactor was manufactured by Pechiney SA in 143 France. Purified and impregnated, this special coke graphite was used to build the active core of G2. This graphite can be considered as similar to "grade A" graphite previously used in the 144 145 UK Magnox reactors. During operation, the graphite temperature ranged from 140°C to 380°C. 146

147

148 Within the framework of this study, the irradiated samples chosen were cored in the middle of 149 the pile, as shown in Figure 1. Three of them were taken from the moderating part of the core

(numbers 27, 32 & 42 in Figure 1). Unirradiated samples were also studied. 150

The main characteristics of the irradiated samples from G2 are shown in Table 1. 151

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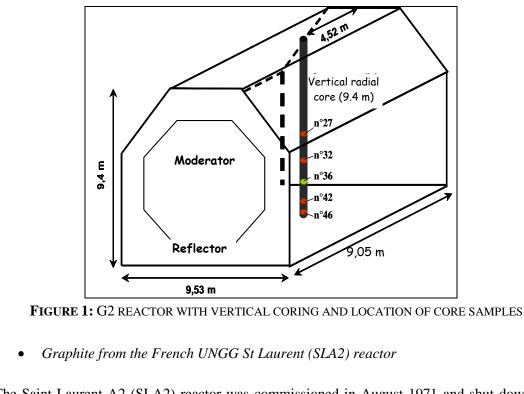
Fast fluence Sampling Initial Sample Thermal Dimensions height in the E>0.1 MeV mass No. history (°C) (mm)  $(n.cm^{-2})$ reactor (m) (g)  $4.7.10^{21}$ 942 G2-27 13.60-13.80 327 H=160 ø=63  $4.7.10^{21}$ 863 G2-32 14.60-14.80 320 H=150 ø=63

 $4.0.10^{21}$ 

845

H=150 ø=63

**TABLE 1:** IRRADIATED SAMPLES FROM THE G2 MODERATOR



The Saint-Laurent A2 (SLA2) reactor was commissioned in August 1971 and shut down in 159 1992. Its thermal power was 1700 MW. The gross electrical power was 530 MWe [23]. The 160 graphite stack of the SLA2 reactor was cylindrical in shape with a vertical axis, a diameter of 161 162 15.73 metres and a height of 10.2 metres. The total mass of graphite was 2,440 tonnes. The graphite in the SLA2 stack (moderator or reflector) was made from LIMA coke, which 163 underwent one impregnation and was purified using MgF<sub>2</sub>. All the graphite was manufactured 164 by the Pechiney/SERS between May 1966 and November 1967. The operating temperature 165 166 ranged between 240°C (top) and 470°C (bottom).

This study used twelve samples from two different fuel channels (F10M16-C20 and F7M15-C19) located at a radius of 5 m and 2.95 m respectively from the reactor centre with variable sampling heights (see **Table 2** and **Figure 2**). Three samples per channel were chosen for structural characterisations and three for water impregnation tests.

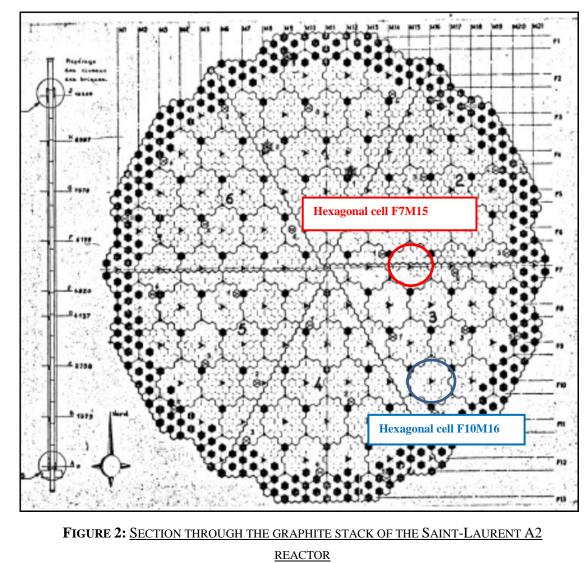
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2	<b>TABLE 2:</b> IRRADIATED SAMPLES FROM THE SLA2 MODERATOR							
	Sample		Sampling	Thermal	Fast fluence	Initial	Approximate	
	No.	Channel	height in the	history (°C)	E>0.1 MeV	mass	dimensions	
	110.		reactor (mm)	motory (C)	$(n.cm^{-2})$	(g)	(mm)	
	SLA2-43	F10M16-C20	1680	430	$\sim 2.0.10^{21}$	23	H=50 ø=19	
	SLA2-44	F10M16-C20	2070	435	$\sim 2.3.10^{21}$	23	H=50 ø=19	
	SLA2-53	F10M16-C20	6500	330	$\sim 3.0.10^{21}$	20	H=50 ø=19	
	SLA2-55	F10M16-C20	7280	310	$\sim 2.8.10^{21}$	19	H=50 ø=19	
	SLA2-58	F10M16-C20	8660	270	$\sim 1.9.10^{21}$	23	H=50 ø=19	
	SLA2-60	F10M16-C20	9260	250	$\sim 1.4.10^{21}$	24	H=50 ø=19	
	SLA2-122	F7M15 – C19	1080	440	$\sim 1.5.10^{21}$	25	H=50 ø=19	
	SLA2-124	F7M15 – C19	2070	455	$\sim 2.3.10^{21}$	25	H=50 ø=19	
	SLA2-129	F7M15 – C19	4480	400	$\sim 3.3.10^{21}$	24	H=50 ø=19	
	SLA2-135	F7M15 – C19	7280	310	$\sim 2.8.10^{21}$	22	H=50 ø=19	
	SLA2-138	F7M15 – C19	8660	270	$\sim 1.9.10^{21}$	24	H=50 ø=19	
	SLA2-139	F7M15 – C19	9260	250	$\sim 1.4.10^{21}$	24	H=50 ø=19	



- 177 The main characteristics of the G2/SLA2 reactor and graphite are given in **Table 3** and Table

TABLE 3: OPERATING CONDITIONS OF THE G2 AND SLA2 REACTORS

Reactor	G2	SLA2	
First criticality	July 1958	June 1971	
Shutdown	February 1980	May 1992	
Thermal power (MW)	260	1700	
CO <sub>2</sub> pressure (MPa)	1.5	28.5	
Mass of graphite stack (tonnes)	1,500	2,200	
Graphite temperature during operation	140-380°C	240-470°C	

#### TABLE 4: CHARACTERISTICS OF THE G2 AND SLA2 REACTOR GRAPHITE (BEFORE

IRRADIATION)					
Reactor	G2 Moderator	SLA2			
Coke	Special A grade coke NaF cleaned	LIMA coke MgF <sub>2</sub> cleaned			
Graphite density	~1.71	~1.68			
Capture section (mbarn)	3.95	3.75			
Thermal expansion coefficient (25-525°C) α(//)	1.25.10 <sup>-6</sup> K <sup>-1</sup>	2.4.10 <sup>-6</sup> K <sup>-1</sup>			
Anisotropy ratio $\alpha(\perp)/\alpha(//)$	2.3	1.6			
Compression (//)	27 MPa	42 MPA			
Ash content (ppm)	106 to 125	98			

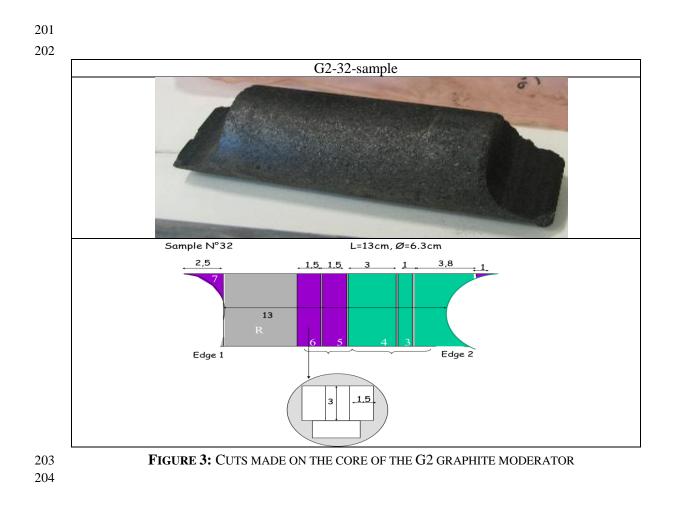
### **Origin and preparation of samples**

#### Graphite from the French UNGG G2 reactor

Each sample was considered as homogeneous from a neutronic and thermal point of view.
Successive slices of about 1 to 3 cm were cut using a wire saw in a glove box (Figure 3).
Some slices were re-cut to obtain smaller samples for porosity measurements. The dimensions of unirradiated and irradiated samples used for the water uptake tests are given in Table 5.
Other samples were used for porosity measurements.

## TABLE 5: GEOMETRICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLES FROM G2 FOR WATER UPTAKE TESTS

	Reference			Mass	Average dimensions	Surface	Volume
Graphite	sample	Form	Water uptake test	(g)	(cm)	cm <sup>2</sup>	cm <sup>3</sup>
	5-1	cube	А	7.2085	1.5*1.5*2.0	16.3±0.4	4.41±0.13
	5-2	cube	А	3.6199	1.5*1.4*1	10.5±0.2	2.25±0.06
TT ' 1' / 1	5-3	cube	В	10.477	1.5*1.4*2.9	21.5±0,8	6.33±0.21
Unirradiated graphite	5-8	cube	В	10.9432	1.5*1.5*2.9	22.0±0.3	6.59±0.13
graphite	5-9	cube	В	11.9068	3*2.9*0.85	27.2±0.5	7.30±0.22
	5-10	cube	А	15.526	3.01*1.07*2.88	29.8±0.4	9.22±0.22
	5-11	cube	А	10.7028	1.5*1.4*2.9	21.5±0.8	6.39±0.25
	G2-27	Cube	А	12.1629	1.53*1.53*3.02	23.2±0.4	7.07±0.10
		Cylinder	В	80.0304	6.32*1.53	93.1±1.3	48.0±0.7
Irradiated	G2-32	Cube	А	10.5228	1.47*1.46*3.12	22.5±0.6	6.66±0.14
graphite		Cylinder	В	72.0947	6.32*1.40	90.5±1.4	43.9±0.7
	C2 42	Cube	А	13.2756	1.61*1.52*3.12	24.4±0.4	7.64±0.11
	G2-42	Cylinder	В	82.044	6.32*1.50	92.5±1.3	47.1±0.7

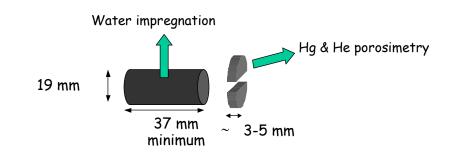


#### • *Graphite from the French UNGG SLA2 reactor*

206 Initially irradiated samples were in the form of cylindrical cores (approximate dimensions: 207 diameter 19 mm / height 50 mm) with a bevelled end corresponding to the outer surface of the 208 209 brick (Figure 4). In order to perform density and water uptake measurements, it was necessary 210 to re-machine the samples. For density measurements, samples were cut into semi-circles of 211 about 10 mm thick. For the six samples chosen for the impregnation tests, these semi-circles were used to measure porosity (helium pycnometry and mercury porosimetry). The rest of the 212 213 core, i.e. about 40 mm long, was kept for continuous water impregnation tests. Figure 4 shows how the samples were divided up for the different characterisations. 214

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#### 216 217

218 FIGURE 4: SLA2 GRAPHITE SAMPLES AND THEIR DISTRIBUTION FOR THE DIFFERENT

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The dimensions of the entire sample used for water impregnation tests after cutting are indicated in Table 6.

ANALYSES

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#### TABLE 6: GEOMETRICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLES FROM SLA2

	Reference			Mass	Average dimensions	Surface	Volume
Graphite	sample	form	Water uptake test	(g)	Diam.*L. (mm*mm)	cm <sup>2</sup>	cm <sup>3</sup>
I In inne di ste d	Z1	cylinder	А	4.0085	12*21	10.1±0.3	2.35±0.03
Unirradiated	Z2	cylinder	А	7.7454	12*41	17.7±0.4	4.63±0.02
graphite	XY1	cylinder	А	7.5475	12*39	17.1±0.4	$4.44 \pm 0.02$
	SLA2-44	cylinder	А	21.9988	19*48	34±1	13.6±0.4
	SLA2-55	cylinder	А	17.9422	19*39	29±1	11.1±0.3
Irradiated	SLA2-58	cylinder	А	22.1746	19*47	33.5±0.9	13.2±0.3
graphite	SLA2-124	cylinder	А	22.0483	19*50	35.7±1.1	$14.2 \pm 0.4$
	SLA2-135	cylinder	А	23.1589	19*51	36.1±1.9	14.5±0.8
	SLA2-138	cylinder	А	22.0355	19*50	35.4±2.7	14.1±1.1

### 227 Materials and methods

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#### Water uptake methodology

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The study involved monitoring the change in the mass of samples immersed in water over time. Two techniques were used: continuous measurements for immersed samples suspended from a precision electronic balance (Test A), and intermittent measurements of the mass variations in immersed samples placed in experimental vessels (Test B).

In the first case, the sample was hung from a Sartorius balance beam and fully immersed in a container filled with ultrapure water. This configuration made it possible to continuously measure any changes in the apparent mass of the samples in water. As the water impregnates the sample, the buoyant force decreases and the apparent mass increases, which therefore makes it possible to determine the water mass having impregnated the sample. Measurements were taken over periods of about 10 to 40 days depending on the sample.

In order to determine the long-term impregnation kinetics, the samples were placed in reaction vessels filled with ultrapure water while making sure the S/V remained the same. The sample masses were measured regularly as follows: the sample was removed from the reaction vessel, gently wiped with paper towelling to remove the surface layer of water, weighed, and then put back in the reaction vessel.

246

#### 247 *Density measurements*

Geometric densities were obtained by measuring the dimensions of the samples with a sliding calliper (uncertainty of 0.1 mm) by recording several readings per level, and weighing samples on a precision balance. The propagation of uncertainties, notably on average values, was calculated in accordance with standard engineering techniques.

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#### 253 Helium pycnometry

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255 The non-destructive technique known as pycnometry by helium displacement is used to 256 measure the internal volume of a porous material and to deduce its density from its mass. The 257 measurement principle relies on the properties of helium, which behaves like an ideal gas. It is first pressurised within a reference chamber of a known volume before opening the 258 pressurised chamber (sample) of a known volume. Pressure changes are associated with the 259 porosity of the sample. Gas fills up the open porosities of the sample, while only the dense 260fraction and the sealed porosities of the sample remain inaccessible. The cells being used 261 allow measurements on samples ranging from 1 to 10 g. 262

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#### 265 *Mercury porosimetry*

The destructive technique known as porosimetry by mercury intrusion is designed to determine the distribution of the pore sizes within a porous material (solid or powder). The measurement principle relies on the properties of a non-wetting liquid at ambient temperature, such as mercury. Mercury needs to be forced to penetrate the pores of a porous material. Any intrusion pressure, P, which is necessary for mercury to penetrate a pore with a diameter, d, is

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$$P = \frac{4\gamma\cos\theta}{d} \tag{1}$$

- 274
- 275 where P is the intrusion pressure of mercury (Pa)
- 276  $\gamma$  is the surface tension of mercury (*Pa/m*)
- 277  $\theta$  is the wetting angle of mercury on pore surface (°)
- d is the pore diameter (m)

The pressure applied to the mercury is increased by increments and the volumes of mercury 279 penetrating the porous solid are recorded at each increment. The cumulative pore volume is 280 then obtained as a function of the intrusion pressure or the diameter of the pores. The 281 derivative gives the pore distribution of the solid. Knowing the density of the solid, the total 282 quantity of mercury introduced into the solid can be used to determine the total porosity. This 283 method of study has some drawbacks. In particular, the high pressure (about 400 MPa) 284 285 applied to the mercury for it to penetrate the finest pores (a few nanometres in diameter) may alter the material studied. For this reason, the main advantage of this technique is its ability to 286 determine the pore size distribution. The use of Laplace's law amounts to considering all the 287 pores as cylinders, which is far removed from reality. Moreover, it must be assumed that the 288 289 only sensitive factor is the diameter of the pore entrances. But significant hysteresis phenomena may conceal the actual pore structure. However, this technique is very useful for 290 comparing different materials and provides a conventional representation of the pore 291 292 structure.

During this study, a Micromeritics porosimeter (Model 9420 in a glove box,) was used to record measurements in a radioactive environment on inactive or irradiated samples.

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- 296

297 **Results and discussion** 

298299 Part 1 - Density and porosity

300

#### 301 Density

The results are shown in Table 7 for the G2 samples and in the Table 8 for the SLA2 samples. As mentioned earlier, the G2 graphite cores were recut to obtain specific samples for water impregnation tests and specific samples were used for porosity measurements. The geometric density readings from prismatic and cylindrical lamellae proved to be consistent for all the irradiated samples (Table 7).

307 In case of the SLA samples, only one semi-circular disc was used for helium and mercury 308 porosity measurements. Due to the lack of irradiated samples and the relatively small 309 dimensions, it was not possible to perform reproducibility studies for the density and porosity 310 measurements.

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#### TABLE 7: DENSITY AND POROSITY OF THE SAMPLES FROM G2

	Average density $(\rho_G)$	ρ <sub>s</sub> Helium	Total porosity Ref <i>d=2.266</i>	Open porosity $(1-\rho_{G/}\rho_{S})$	Sealed porosity
UNIRRADIATED Coke special (average n=8)	$1.69\pm0.06$	$2.15 \pm 0.05$	25.9 ± 0.9	21.7 ± 1.2	4.9 ± 1.4
G2-27-1	1.67±0.05	2.17±0.09	26.3±0.6	22.9±1.1	3.4±1.2
G2-27-3	1.62±0.04	2.18±0.05	28.5±0.4	25.7±1.3	2.8±0.8
G2-27-7	1.65±0.05	2.27±0.09	27.2±0.7	27.3±1.3	-0.1±1.4
G2-27-8	1.68±0.05	2.22±0.09	25.9±0.6	24.3±1.1	1.7±1.3
G2-27 MEAN	1.66±0.06	2.21±0.09	27.0±0.6	25.0±1.1	1.9±1.3
G2-32-1	1.67±0.05	2.16±0.09	26.5±0.7	22.91±1.1	3.5±1.3
G2-32-3	1.62±0.05	2.19±0.05	28.5±0.7	26.0±1.0	2.5±0.8
G2-32-6	1.65±0.05	2.18±0.09	27.1±0.7	24.3±1.1	2.8±1.3
G2-32-7	1.67±0.05	2.17±0.09	26.4±0.7	23.0±1.1	3.4±1.3
G2-32 MEAN	1.65±0.05	2.18±0.09	27.1±0.7	24.0±.1.1	3.1±1.5
G2-42-1	1.71±0.05	2.11±0.09	24.5±0.7	19.1±0.9	5.4±1.2
G2-42-3	1.71±0.05	2.18±0.09	24.5±0.6	21.6±0.9	3.0±0.6
G2-42-6	1.69±0.05	2.17±0.09	24.3±0.7	20.8±1.0	4.9±1.1
G2-42-7	1.70±0.05	2.14±0.09	24.8±0.7	20.5±1.0	5.8±1.1
G2-42 MEAN	1.70±0.06	2.15±0.09	24.5±0.7	20.5±1.0	4.8±1.1

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TABLE 8: DENSITY AND POROSITY OF THE SAMPLES FROM SLA2

	AVERAGE DENSITY $(\rho_G)$	ρs Helium	Total porosity Ref <i>d=2.266</i>	Open porosity (1-ρ <sub>G</sub> /ρ <sub>S)</sub>	Sealed porosity
UNIRRADIATED (average n=8)	$1.69\pm0.03$	2.12±0.05	25.7 ±0.9	20.7±0.7	5.0±1.0
SLA2-43	$1.58\pm0.04$	2.11±0.05	$30.2\pm0.9$	25.1±1.1	5.2±1.3
SLA2-44	$1.61 \pm 0.05$	$2.04 \pm 0.05$	$29.1\pm0.9$	21.3±1.2	7.8±1.3
SLA2-53	$1.61\pm0.04$	2.12±0.05	28.9 ±0.9	24.0±1.2	4.9±1.2
SLA2-55	$1.62\pm0.04$	2.13±0.07	$28.6\pm0.8$	24.2±1.0	4.4±1.4
SLA2-58	$1.68\pm0.04$	2.05±0.15	$26.0\pm0.7$	18.3±1.4	7.7±1.6
SLA2-60	$1.73\pm0.04$	2.09±0.05	$23.7\pm0.8$	17.2±1.2	6.4±1.6
SLA2-122	$1.67\pm0.04$	2.12±0.05	$26.3 \pm 0.9$	21.2±1.2	5.1 ±1.6
SLA2-124	$1.55\pm0.05$	2.05±0.15	31.5 ± 1.1	24.3±1.9	7.2±2.1
SLA2-129	$1.59\pm0.04$	2.13±0.05	$29.8\pm0.9$	25.4±1.4	4.5±1.2
SLA2-135	$1.60\pm0.09$	2.02±0.15	29.2 ± 1.7	20.8±1.7	8.5±1.9
SLA2-138	$1.56\pm0.12$	2.15±0.18	31.0 ± 2.4	27.3±2.4	3.7±2.6
SLA2-139	$1.63\pm0.04$	2.12±0.05	$28.1\pm0.9$	23.1±1.2	4.6±1.7

317

It can be seen that the irradiated graphite densities are mostly slightly lower than those of the unirradiated graphite. This decrease in density is associated with an increase in open porosity, and is certainly related to the wear of graphite under irradiation (radiolytic corrosion by the CO<sub>2</sub> coolant).

There are some exceptions: sample No. 42 from G2, whose density can be considered as identical as before irradiation, was the first moderator core sample taken at the limit of the reflector. The porosity values are almost identical to those determined for the inactive brick. It was not as irradiated and was exposed to a lower temperature than the two others. This leads us to believe that radiolytic corrosion may be considered as negligible in this area (at the boundary between the reflector and the moderator).

Two SLA2 samples (SLA2-58 and 60) revealed an equivalent or higher density than those determined for unirradiated graphite, together with a very low open porosity. These samples must have come from a batch manufactured with a higher level of impregnation.

In the other case of the G2 or SLA moderator samples, it could be seen that the increase in the 331 332 total porosity was linked to an increase in the open porosity. More precisely, it appears that the open porosity level generally correlates with the neutron fluence received by the samples, 333 and therefore with the position in the graphite stack. The level of closed porosity remains 334 constant or slightly higher than the reference in the case of SLA2 samples, whereas the sealed 335 336 porosity decreased in the case of G2. It is more complex to assess the variation in closed porosity according to the position of the samples in the core. In light of these results, the 337 decrease in sample density definitely results from the radiolytic corrosion of the graphite. 338

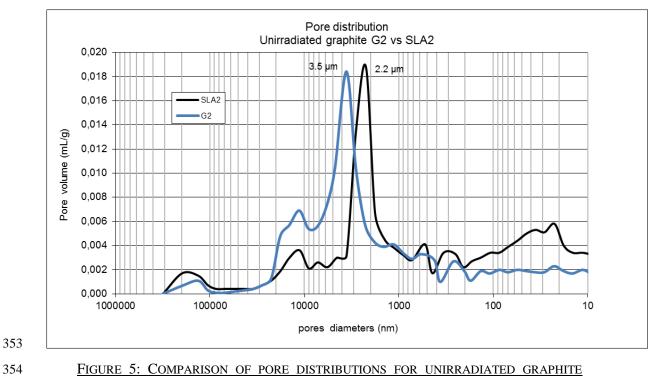
#### 339 *Pore size distribution*

The variation in pore volume according to the diameter of the pores and the pore distribution of the samples are shown in Figure 5 for unirradiated samples, in Figure 6 for the G2 sample,

and in Figure 7 for SLA2 samples **Erreur ! Source du renvoi introuvable.** 

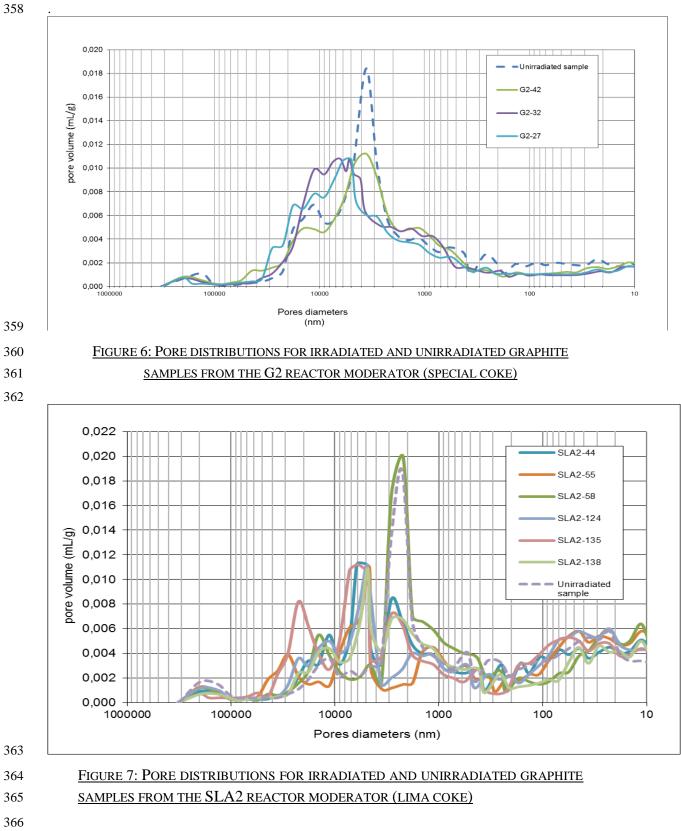
343 It can be seen that the pore size distribution for unirradiated samples differs between the two 344 types of graphite. For G2 graphite (special coke graphite), around 75% of the total porous 345 volume of the sample lies within a pore diameter range between 1 and 30  $\mu$ m with a 346 maximum distribution oscillating towards 3.5  $\mu$ m.

In the case of the SLA2 samples manufactured with LIMA coke, it appears that unirradiated graphite has two types of distribution: around 35% of the pores in the mesoporous domain (pore diameter between 1 and 300 nm), and 40% of the total porosity in the macroporous zone between 1 to 4  $\mu$ m with a peak at around 2.2  $\mu$ m. These results are in accordance with some characterisations performed on other types of nuclear graphite [24].



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355 356 SAMPLES FROM THE SLA2 REACTOR MODERATOR (LIMA COKE) AND THE G2 REACTOR MODERATOR (SPECIAL COKE)



A general increase in the macroporosity could be seen in the G2 graphite after irradiation (pore diameters ranging between 1 and 30  $\mu$ m), including a wider pore size distribution mostly for the G2-27 (68% porosity) and G2-32 (72% porosity) samples with a modification in the average pore radius in the distribution. The average radius increased from 3.5  $\mu$ m on inactive samples to 4.3  $\mu$ m for sample G2-42, then to 5.4  $\mu$ m for sample G2-32, before reaching 5.7  $\mu$ m for sample G2-27.

374 Overall, it appears that the fraction of pores in the mesoporosity domain (pore diameter 375 between 1 and 300 nm) is not affected in the case of SLA2 irradiated samples. The intensity 376 of the peak in porosity at about 1-4  $\mu$ m decreases. Finally, there is a third porosity zone 377 around 10  $\mu$ m, but with greater scatter (varying from 5 to 20  $\mu$ m) according to the samples.

378

379 Irradiated samples from two reactors and with different neutron flux or temperatures were characterised, as were unirradiated samples. Generally speaking, irradiation leads to a 380 relatively minor change in the characteristics of the graphite, the average wear being less than 381 5%, although it reaches close to 8% locally. Overall, a decrease in the density could be 382 383 observed, associated with an increase in open porosity mainly in the macroporous domain. The results are not significant enough to distinguish any general variations in closed porosity. 384 These changes in the characteristics are associated with the radiolytic corrosion of graphite, 385 corrosion which is all the greater when the samples are subjected to high fluences and 386 387 irradiation temperatures.

388 Part 2 - Water up-take 389

390

#### Unirradiated samples 391

392 393 The water uptake kinetics for unirradiated samples are presented in Figure 8. It can be seen 394 that the water uptake kinetics are slower for the G2 samples than for the SLA2 samples. Moreover, only less than half of the total open porosity, even after more than 700 days of 395 impregnation, was filled for the G2 samples. Unirradiated SLA2 graphite presents a slightly 396 different behaviour. The water impregnation rate is faster but, at the end, water uptake seems 397 398 to be limited to around 70% of the total porosity. The water impregnation kinetics for the two 399 types of graphite were relatively high during the first phase lasting about 150 days and then they slowed down dramatically. 400

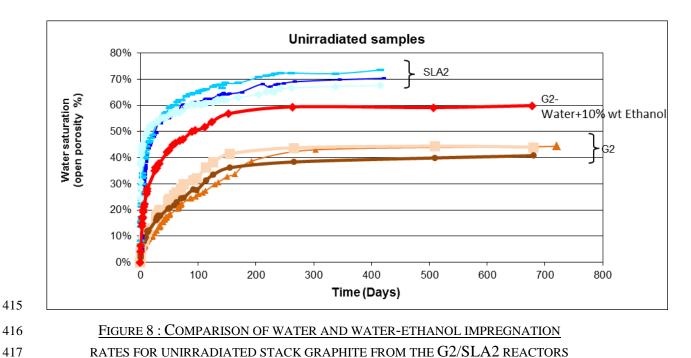
401 A connection can be established between these two steps of the impregnation process and the pore distribution of nuclear graphite using mercury intrusion porometry. The first rapid-filling 402 step relates to the filling of the macroporosity that represents 65% of the total open porosity in 403 404 the case of the SLA2 graphite samples (35% of the pores are in the mesoporosity domain pore 405 diameter between 1 and 300 nm). For G2 graphite, the water does not fill all the macroporosity of the sample. This difference cannot only be attributed to the diameter of the 406 pores but also to the hydrophobic phenomena. To check this assumption, some 407 408 complementary experiments were performed in an ethanol-water mixture. Adding ethanol (10 409 wt%) improves impregnation: the kinetics and saturation rate increased significantly. Adding 410 ethanol to water helps lower the surface tension (Table 9) of the mixture and therefore 411 promotes its impregnation in a hydrophobic solid.

412

Solution	Surface tension (mN/m)
Water	72.8
Ethanol	22
Water+10% wt Ethanol	52

413

TABLE 9: SURFACE TENSION AT 20°C

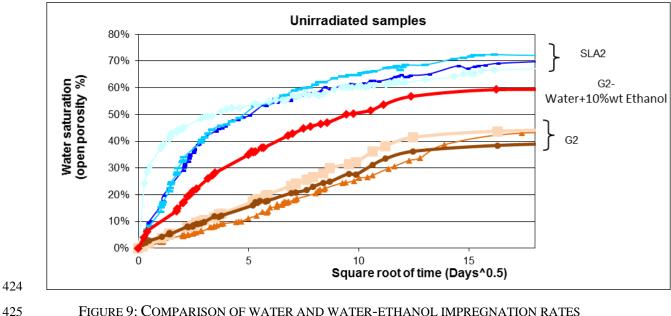


418 *Considering the uncertainty on the measurement of the sample volumes, open porosities and mass gains, a relative uncertainty of* 

10% was attributed

419 420

In the ethanol-water mixture, water uptake in the G2 samples is faster as illustrated in Figure
9 versus the square root of time, and the saturation of the open porosity increases from 40% to
60%.



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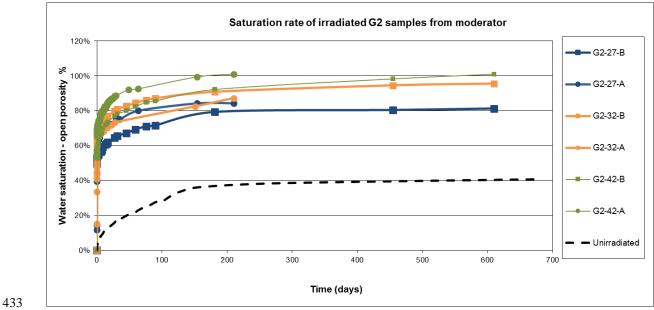
FIGURE 9: COMPARISON OF WATER AND WATER-ETHANOL IMPREGNATION RATES FOR UNIRRADIATED STACK GRAPHITE FROM THE G2/SLA2 REACTORS

To conclude, the water uptake in unirradiated graphite not only depends on the pore size distribution, but also on the initial surface state.

429 Irradiated samples

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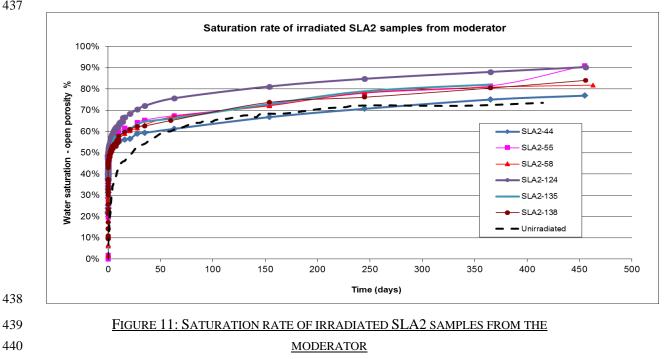
- 431 The results obtained on irradiated graphite are presented in Figure 10 for G2 and Figure 11 for
- 432 SLA2.

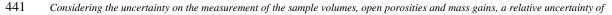


434

#### FIGURE 10: SATURATION RATE OF IRRADIATED G2 SAMPLES FROM THE MODERATOR

435
 436
 437
 Considering the uncertainty on the measurement of the sample volumes, open porosities and mass gains, a relative uncertainty of 10% was attributed





442 10% was attributed

These differences between nuclear graphite from different origins are reduced when considering irradiated samples. Irradiated graphite is a more hydrophilic material than the unirradiated one. It is evidenced in Figure 10 that the porosity is rapidly filled in the first 30 to 50 days and then this slows down to reach 75% to around 100% of the open porosity.

447 At the same time, the curve in Figure 10 shows that the difference in size between the G2 448 samples does not seem to modify the total rate of open porosity, but only the water 449 impregnation kinetics.

450

451

These results show that irradiation increases the water impregnation kinetics and the saturation rate of the graphite. The original behaviour of unirradiated graphite is completely erased by the irradiation time in the reactor. Two reasons can explain this difference:

- First, irradiation modifies the macroporosity of the different types of graphite, particularly by widening the mean pore diameter as shown in the mercury intrusion porosimetry spectrums, which may facilitate water impregnation. Irradiated graphite was mainly a macroporous solid (about 80% of the total porosity with an apparent pore diameter ranging between 1 and 30 μm).
- Second, it is known that irradiation and radiolytic corrosion result in breaking the C-C
   bonds in the graphite crystallites and/or grain boundaries to form more hydrophilic C H or C-O bonds at the surface.
- 463 These two phenomena lead to faster and higher impregnation.
- 464

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467 468

### 469 **Conclusion**

470

471 In the framework of the studies on the disposal of graphite waste from UNGG reactors, it is necessary to obtain reliable data on the behaviour of long-lived radionuclides when graphite 472 will be water-saturated in disposal conditions. Water impregnation in irradiated graphite is the 473 474 first step of a process that leads to the release of radionuclides contained in the graphite. If this step is slow and low, it can control both the kinetics and the release rate of radionuclides 475 in solution. Impregnation tests were therefore performed on unirradiated and irradiated 476 477 graphite samples from the G2 and St Laurent A2 reactors which had been previously 478 characterised by geometric density measurements, He pycnometry and Hg porosimetry.

479 Characterisation of the structural (or microstructural) properties and the water uptake 480 experiments of unirradiated graphite made it possible to determine that they do not have the same pore size distribution and most probably have a different surface effect depending on 481 their origin. The SLA2 graphite was seen to have two types of porous distribution, i.e. around 482 35% of pores in the mesoporous domain (pore diameter between 1 and 300 nm) and 40% of 483 484 the total porosity in the macroporous zone (pore diameter between 1-5  $\mu$ m). G2 graphite presents a quasi-single macroporous distribution. Moreover, SLA2 graphite appears to be 485 486 more hydrophilic than G2 graphite.

In general, irradiation induces a small modification in the characteristics of graphite. In both 487 cases, it appears that the geometric density of the samples decreases under irradiation, which 488 is expressed as an increase in total porosity, more precisely in the open porosity. The pore size 489 in the macroporous domain increases (total fraction and average diameter), whereas the 490 mesoporous fraction does not seem to be affected by irradiation. This variation appears to be 491 correlated with the neutron flux. This is a consequence of radiolytic corrosion of the graphite 492 under CO<sub>2</sub> irradiation. Results from water uptake experiments show that the graphite becomes 493 494 more hydrophilic after irradiation. The original behaviour of unirradiated graphite seems to be 495 completely erased by their time in the reactor. This is probably due to the combined effects of temperature and irradiation, which lead to radiolytic corrosion of graphite and the presence of 496 497 functional groups on the surface, which seems to modify the surface tension. The 498 impregnation kinetics are faster and the saturation rate is close to 100% with regard to open 499 porosity.

500 Considering the leaching behaviour of radionuclides in nuclear graphite under disposal 501 conditions, these results show that the open porosity can be considered as being filled with 502 water in a hundred days. Water penetration can be considered as a limiting factor for the most 503 mobile radionuclides (leaching under <100 days), but not for the non-mobile radionuclides. 504 Moreover, the porosity of irradiated graphite in storage conditions will be saturated by the 505 water site which is alkaline water. A possible chemical degradation in the surface compounds 506 by this aggressive media is to be considered.

507

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