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| 1<br>2 | An approach to modelling the impact of <sup>14</sup> C release from reactor graphite in a geological disposal facility           |
|--------|--|
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| 7      | ABSTRACT   |
| 8      | Carbon-14 (C-14) is a key radionuclide in the assessment of a geological   |
| 9      | disposal facility (GDF) for radioactive waste. In the UK a significant proportion of   |
| 10     | the national C-14 inventory is associated with reactor core graphite generated by  |
| 11     | the decommissioning of the UK's Magnox and AGR reactors.   |
| 12     | There are a number of uncertainties associated with the fate and transport of  |
| 13     | C-14 in a post-closure disposal environment that need to be considered when  |
| 14     | calculating the radiological impacts of C-14 containing wastes. Some of these  |
| 15     | uncertainties are associated with the distribution of C-14 containing gaseous  |
| 16     | species such as ${}^{14}\text{CH}_4$ and ${}^{14}\text{CO}_2$ between the groundwater and gaseous release                        |
| 17     | pathways. As part of the C14-BIG programme, a modelling framework has been   |
| 18     | developed to investigate these uncertainties. This framework consists of a   |
| 19     | biogeochemical near-field evolution model, incorporating a graphite carbon-14  |
| 20     | release model, which interfaces with a geosphere/biosphere model. The model  |
| 21     | highlights the potential impact of the microbial reduction of ${}^{14}\text{CO}_2$ to ${}^{14}\text{CH}_4$ ,                     |
| 22     | through the oxidation of H <sub>2</sub> , on C-14 transport. The modelling results could be                                      |
| 23     | used to inform the possible segregation of reactor graphite from other gas   |
| 24     | generating wastes.   |

25 Keywords: carbon-14, graphite, gas generation, geosphere, dose assessment

#### 26 Introduction

Approximately 80,000 tonnes of irradiated graphite will arise from the decommissioning of Magnox and AGR reactors (NDA, 2011, 2014). This graphite contains the majority of the UK intermediate-level waste radioactive waste C-14 inventory (NDA, 2012). C-14 is a key radionuclide in the assessment of a geological disposal facility (GDF) for UK radioactive waste and the radiological consequences of gaseous C-14 transport in particular have been recognised as a potential issue (NDA, 2012).

There are uncertainties associated with the long-term release of C-14 from irradiated graphite which are related to the release mechanisms, the chemical forms, and the total releasable fraction of the C-14 inventory. In particular the partitioning of C-14 between aqueous and gaseous phases could have a significant impact on the transport of C-14 bearing species.

39 The release of C-14 via a gas release pathway in a fractured higher strength host rock is highly dependent on the volumes of non-radioactive gases generated 40 41 within a GDF, since these gases have the ability to drive the transport of the 42 smaller volumes of C-14 bearing gases. Microbiological and corrosion processes 43 may generate gas within a disposal facility and the associated biogeochemical 44 processes have been addressed in detail by several studies (Humphreys et al., 1997; 45 Graham et al., 2003; Suckling et al., 2011). The most mobile C-14 species is likely 46 to be CH<sub>4</sub> since this is not subject to precipitation reactions that will retard the 47 migration of C-14 labelled CO<sub>2</sub>. If C-14 labelled CH<sub>4</sub> reaches the biosphere it will be subjected to microbial oxidation to C-14 CO<sub>2</sub>; once converted to CO<sub>2</sub> the C-14 is 48 49 available for root and foliar uptake by plants (Hoch et al., 2014).

The mechanisms associated with the migration of radioactive gases are strongly influenced by the host rock and could be described by following a twophase flow approach (Kuitunen, 2011; Schwartz, 2012). However, it is difficult to incorporate a complex two-phase flow modelling into assessment level models. Therefore, an alternative approach, which is more suitable for screening studies, is to describe the advection and dispersion processes in the geosphere with a simplified mass pathway (Limer et al., 2010; Towler et al., 2012).

57 The impact of C-14 release from graphite in geological disposal has been 58 addressed in several studies. Bracke and Muller (2008) discussed possible 59 scenarios for the release pathways and the associated processes towards a less 60 conservative approach in the release of C-14 from a low-level waste repository. 61 Smith et al. (2012) presented a comparison of five models used to predict uptake of 62 C-14 to agricultural crops, within the international BIOPROTA framework. Towler 63 et al. (2012) presented an analysis related to UK graphite in a deep repository 64 during the EC CARBOWASTE project. The analysis presented in these studies has 65 demonstrated that in principle, it should be possible to safely dispose of irradiated 66 graphite wastes in isolation, in a wide range of disposal systems, including near-67 surface, shallow and deep geological disposal, and in a wide range of host rocks.

As part of the C14-BIG programme, a modelling framework has been developed that goes beyond that modelled by Towler et al. (2012) by integrating a range of gas generation processes with recent insights into the speciation of C-14 leaching from reactor graphite (Baston et al., 2014). This framework consists of a biogeochemical near-field evolution model, incorporating a graphite C-14 release

- 73 model, which interfaces with a geosphere/biosphere model developed in a GoldSim
- 74 (GoldSim, 2010) simulation environment.

#### 75 Model description

#### 76 Near field Processes

## 77 *C-14 release from reactor graphite*

The release of C-14 from graphite is modelled using the approach recently presented by Baston et al. (2014). The conceptual model considers three fractions; a rapidly releasable fraction loosely bound to the graphite surface, a slowly releasable fraction from the graphite porosity and a retained fraction that is immobilised in the graphite structure. The released C-14 is further speciated into  $CO_2$ , CO and CH<sub>4</sub> before being released into the aqueous or gaseous phases. The conceptual model is illustrated in Fig. 1 and the release rate is calculated as:

$$q = (k_{ca}F_{ca}e^{-k_{ca}t} + k_{cc}F_{cc}e^{-k_{cc}t})A_0e^{-\lambda_c t}$$
(1)

85 where q is the release rate of C-14 from graphite [TBq/a],  $k_{ca}$  and  $k_{cc}$  are the rate 86 constants for the rapid and the slow release [a<sup>-1</sup>], respectively,  $F_{ca}$  and  $F_{cc}$  are the 87 rapidly and the slowly releasable fraction respectively,  $A_0$  is the initial activity of 88 C-14 in the graphite [TBq],  $\lambda_c$  is the radioactive decay rate of C-14 [a<sup>-1</sup>] and t is 89 time [a].

- 90 <Fig. 1>
- 91 Corrosion

- 92 The corrosion of steel is modelled under anaerobic, saturated conditions via
- 93 the following reaction scheme (Suckling et al., 2011):
- $94 \qquad 3Fe + 4H_2O \rightarrow Fe_3O_4 + 4H_2$
- 95 Steel corrosion is modelled by zero-order kinetics and is given by:

$$-\frac{\mathrm{dQ}}{\mathrm{dt}} = \frac{\mathrm{\rho} r \mathrm{A}}{\mathrm{M}} \tag{2}$$

96 where Q is the mass of steel [mol],  $\rho$  is the density of steel [kg/m<sup>3</sup>], M is effective 97 molecular mass of steel [kg/mol], r is the corrosion rate under anaerobic conditions 98 [m/a] and A is the surface area of steel [m<sup>2</sup>].

## 99 Microbial degradation

100 Cellulose is the only class of organic waste considered within the model. The 101 microbial degradation of polymeric organics such as cellulose follows a generic 102 sequence of events (Rittmann and McCarty, 2001), where first the polymer is 103 converted into soluble intermediates. These are then subject to microbial oxidation 104 reactions depending on the prevailing geochemical conditions. The microbial 105 degradation of polymeric substrates and the subsequent generation of gas is a rather 106 complex process involving an array of microbial species. Representation of this 107 process can be simplified by the fact that the conversion of polymeric substrates to 108 their soluble intermediates is often the rate limiting factor in the gas generation 109 process (Rittmann and McCarty, 2001), allowing the microbial oxidation of 110 polymers to be coupled directly to the reduction of the relevant terminal electron 111 acceptors. This approach has been applied in other modelling studies (McNab and 112 Narasimham, 1994; Postima and Jacobsen, 1996; Suckling et al., 2011), since it 113 simplifies the model by reducing the number of kinetic parameters required. In the

114 model reported here, organic degradation is modelled by the following reaction:

$$C_n H_a O_b \rightarrow \frac{4n - a + 2b}{8} CO_2 + \frac{d}{8} CH_4 + \frac{a - 4n + 2b}{4} H_2 CO_2$$

115 where d=4n+a-2b (for cellulose: n=6, a=10, b=5, d=24).

116 The degradation of cellulose is modelled by first-order reaction kinetics:

$$-\frac{\mathrm{dC}}{\mathrm{dt}} = \mathrm{kC} \tag{3}$$

where C is the mass of polymer [mol] and k is the degradation rate constant under
anaerobic conditions [a<sup>-1</sup>].

Microbial metabolism of corrosion derived hydrogen follows a first-orderreaction kinetics and is coupled to the reduction of carbon dioxide:

$$121 \qquad 4H_2 + CO_2 \rightarrow CH_4 + 2H_2O$$

The microbial consumption of hydrogen and the generation of hydrogen from corrosion have independent reaction rates. If the rate of microbial hydrogen metabolism is higher than that of corrosion and the associated hydrogen generation, then the rate of corrosion becomes the limiting process.

Microbes utilize part of the degraded organic material to produce new biomass of the composition  $C_5H_7O_2N$ . Microbes are also subject to natural turnover since cells have finite lifetimes and the model assumes that a fraction of the dead biomass is recycled to the organic material. The production rate of biomass is controlled by the degradation rate of the organic material and the decay rate of biomass, and is given by:

$$\frac{\mathrm{dX}}{\mathrm{dt}} = Y \frac{\mathrm{dC}}{\mathrm{dt}} - DX \tag{4}$$

where X is the biomass [mol], Y is the biomass yield coefficient, and D is the
biomass decay rate [a<sup>-1</sup>].

The microbial groups required to catalyse the above processes are assumed to be present within the repository. This can be justified on the basis that microbes will enter the repository during the construction and operational phases, and in the waste and the groundwater entering the repository.

138 Microbial activity in the near field of a cementitious GDF will be influenced 139 by the ambient pH conditions. In a homogenous highly alkaline environment 140 (pH>12.5) (NDA 2010a), microbial activity is unlikely (Humphreys et al., 2010), 141 and in this case only corrosion and cellulose hydrolysis will proceed. In a 142 heterogeneous near field, lower pH niches (between 10 and 12.5) may occur, 143 allowing microbial activity to take place. Microbial activity at pH values lower 144 than pH 12.5 has been demonstrated by experimental work carried out as part of 145 the C-14 BIG project (Rout et al. 2015) which has shown that microbially driven 146 organic degradation and associated methane generation can occur at pH 11.0 in 147 completely mixed systems.

#### 148 Chemical Processes

The model does not simulate an evolving near-field chemistry or take into account temperature variations, rather a scenario based approach is employed to simulate qualitatively different near-field evolutions. In addition, the model does not take into account any potential disequilibria between C-14 and C-12 and the model implicitly assumes initial isotopic equilibrium in all phases. One key process considered by the model is carbonation, where dissolved  $CO_2$  has the potential to be retained in the near field via carbonation reactions with cementitious materials

156 within the GDF (NDA, 2010a). Carbonation is important since it has the potential

157 to retain C-14 in the near-field through the precipitation of C-14 bearing CO<sub>2</sub>.

158 Additional aspects of near field modelling

In the modelling approach presented here, the generation of biogenic and C-14 bearing gases in a GDF is influenced by microbial activity, metal corrosion and the release of C-14 from graphite. The migration of C-14 to the geosphere/biosphere environment follows a groundwater pathway or a gas pathway and is influenced by the magnitude of groundwater flow and the partitioning of gas between the solution and the gaseous phase. The relevant modelling assumptions are discussed below.

The model assumes, for simplicity in run time, constant (in time and space) values of rock permeability and hydraulic gradient and uses Darcy's law to estimate groundwater inflow and outflow in the near field. C-14 bearing species dissolved in the groundwater entering the far field from the near field constitutes the groundwater release pathway.

170 The gas generated in the near field is partitioned between the solution and the 171 gas phase using Henry's law. The gas phase is hosted in an assumed headspace 172 within the repository (Humphreys et al., 1997; Graham et al., 2003). The aqueous 173 phase is in equilibrium with the headspace gases and it is assumed that there is a 174 perfect mixing between the gases both in the headspace and the aqueous phase. The 175 carbonate chemistry associated with carbon dioxide solubility is not modelled 176 explicitly. Rather the carbonation process is modelled as a sink term for carbon 177 dioxide removal, an approach consistent with other gas generation models 178 (Rodwell 2004). A fractured higher strength host rock is assumed to host the 179 repository and as such is assumed not to represent a significant barrier to gas

migration (NDA, 2010c). Gas is released to the far field via the headspace based on
the mean near field gas pressure, which is determined by assuming that hydrostatic
conditions exist. This release of C-14 bearing gases to the far field constitutes the
gaseous release pathway.

## 184 Far field modelling

The migration of C-14 from the near field follows the groundwater or the gaseous release pathway through the geosphere before entering the biosphere environment. A detailed representation of the geosphere/biosphere system is beyond the scope of the model presented here. The model presented here simplifies these processes in order to understand the impact of a number of near field assumptions around the transformation and release of C-14 with the aim of informing future methodological developments.

192 Fig. 2 shows the groundwater and gas pathway of C-14 from the repository to 193 the biosphere. Along the groundwater pathway, the model considers a constant 194 groundwater flow and advection and dispersion processes through a homogeneous 195 and isotropic geological medium. Groundwater abstraction is modelled from a near 196 surface aquifer system. The model allows dissolved C-14 species to be released 197 into the gas phase as the groundwater approaches the surface since water pressure 198 decreases along with associated solubility of C-14 bearing gases. Gaseous species 199 released from the groundwater are assumed to travel to the biosphere through faults 200 in the higher strength host rock following mostly a vertical elevation. The 201 migration of the free gas phase generated in the near field and in the groundwater 202 pathway is controlled by a constant gas flow rate depending on rock permeability,

203 flow area and pressure difference according to the Darcy flow equation.

204 <Fig. 2>

205 The biosphere environment is simulated by using three discrete model 206 compartments: the soil-plant, the animal uptake and the human uptake. The soil-207 plant compartment is based on the enhanced RIMERS model (Thorne, 2005) and is 208 interfaced both with the gas and the groundwater pathway. Within the soil compartment, <sup>14</sup>CH<sub>4</sub> in the free gas phase is conservatively assumed to be fully 209 metabolised by microbes to <sup>14</sup>CO<sub>2</sub>. The animal and the human uptake 210 211 compartments are based on the ingestion rates of particular food sources and the C-212 14 dose coefficients; these are only interfaced with the groundwater pathway. The 213 biosphere is modelled in line with the approach described by Limer et al. (2010).

## 214 Scenarios description

The modelling framework is applied to an assumed repository at a depth of 650 m containing intermediate level radioactive wastes based on the UK inventory. Fully saturated and anaerobic conditions are assumed from the beginning of the simulation since only the post-close environment is considered here. The initial inventory data and associated model parameters are specified in Table 1.

220 <Table 1>

A scenario based approach is employed to investigate the release and transport of the C-14 associated with reactor graphite. In Scenario A, graphite is assumed to be segregated from the other wastes and packaged in concrete. Carbonation is assumed to dominate the behaviour of carbon dioxide and processes such as
corrosion and microbial activity which may influence C-14 transport are
considered to be negligible.

In Scenario B, the release of C-14 is modelled alongside the generation of hydrogen from the corrosion of steel packaging and waste components. Microbial activity is assumed to be negligible due to the ambient pH of the repository and once again the behaviour of carbon dioxide is assumed to be dominated by carbonation.

In Scenario C, a biotic environment is considered and microbial activity is modelled, alongside corrosion and the release of C-14 from graphite. In this scenario two cases are examined, in the first case, (C1), microbial activity is able to utilise carbon dioxide in the metabolism of corrosion hydrogen and the generation of methane with only excess carbon dioxide being removed by carbonation. In the second case (C2) all the carbon dioxide generated during cellulose degradation is removed by carbonation.

#### 239 Results

240 The three scenarios considered generated different radiological dose profiles when modelled up to  $10^5$  years (Fig. 3). In scenario A, the dose remains below 0.01 241 242  $\mu$ Sv/a with the groundwater release pathway dominating over the gaseous release 243 pathway. The release of C-14 via the gas pathway is low in scenario A, due to the 244 absence of a driving force associated with the generation of bulk gases by 245 corrosion and organic degradation. Releases to the biosphere via the groundwater 246 pathway are low due to the combined impacts of low near-field conductivity, 247 carbonation, dispersion and radioactive decay.

Scenarios B and C2 have broadly similar dose profiles, the increased doses over and above those seen in scenario A are due to the generation of bulk gases which in turn drive the release of C-14 bearing gases. The doses are slightly higher in scenario C2, than those in scenario B; the difference being due to the higher gas volumes generated by microbial activity in scenario C2.

In scenario C1, the dose is significantly higher than that simulated in the other scenarios. This is largely due to the microbial reduction of C-14 bearing  $CO_2$  to C-14 bearing  $CH_4$ . This contrasts with the other scenarios where the majority of the C-14 bearing  $CO_2$  is retained in the near field via carbonation reactions with cement.

258 <Fig. 3>

259 Fig. 4 shows the groundwater and the gas components of the effective dose for 260 scenario C1, which are related with the groundwater pathway and the gas pathway, 261 respectively. The gas component increases earlier and is the only component of the 262 dose for almost 1000 years. After this time, the groundwater component also 263 becomes an important contribution to the peak dose estimate. The double peak in 264 the gas component is related to changes in the volumes of non radioactive gases 265 generated in the near field and driving the release of C-14 bearing gases. The start 266 of the second peak represents the point at which corrosion derived hydrogen begins 267 to appear alongside microbially generated methane (Fig. 5). This occurs when the 268 supply of CO<sub>2</sub> derived from organic waste degradation is not sufficient to account 269 for all the hydrogen generated by corrosion.

270 <Fig. 4>

<Fig. 5>

272 Discussion and conclusions

273 The modelling work reported here highlights a number of key processes that 274 influence the radiological assessment of the disposal of reactor graphite and the 275 associated C-14. The approach aligns with the opinions expressed by Bracke and 276 Muller (2008) who argued for less conservative approaches to C-14 assessment 277 modelling. The results are also in agreement with those of Towler et al. (2012) who 278 took a different approach to represent a similar system. The modelling framework 279 reported here could help inform the possible segregation of reactor graphite from 280 other gas generating waste forms to minimise C-14 transport via the gas pathway.

281 The work also highlights the significance of the potential role of microbial 282 reduction of C-14 bearing CO<sub>2</sub> to C-14 bearing CH<sub>4</sub> through the oxidation of 283 corrosion hydrogen in increasing the mobility and possible radiological impacts of 284 C-14. The importance of this process is being emphasised by experimental 285 evidence for the release of C-14 from graphite as CO<sub>2</sub> (Baston et al., 2014). 286 Assessment and modelling studies have generally reduced the calculated impact of 287 this process by invoking carbonation as a mechanism for the diversion of C-14 288 bearing CO<sub>2</sub> into an immobilised and biologically inert form (Jackson and Yates, 289 2011; Towler et al., 2012; Hoch et al., 2008). The modelling results reported here 290 indicate that microbial generation of C-14 bearing CH<sub>4</sub> is only significant when 291 microbes have access to C-14 CO<sub>2</sub> prior to carbonation. In this case, the conversion 292 of  $CO_2$  to  $CH_4$  becomes controlled by the availability of  $H_2$  generated by corrosion. 293 The importance of carbonation as an attenuating process for C-14 transport should 294 also be viewed in the context of experimental evidence of the direct utilisation of

calcite by hydrogen oxidising microbes under neutral and alkaline conditions(Suzuki et al., 2014; Virden and Kral, 2010).

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## List of Tables

395 Table 1. Wastes in the assumed repository and the parameters of the modelling

396 framework

394

| Parameter  | Value                 | Reference            |
|--|-----------------------|----------------------|
| Graphite radioactivity [TBq]                           | 6000                  | Limer et al. (2010)  |
| Cellulose mass [Mmol]                                  | 9.3                   | NDA (2010c)          |
| Steel mass [Mmol]                                      | 1298                  | NDA (2010c)          |
| Rapidly releasable fraction of C-14                    | 1.5 10-4              | Baston et al. (2014) |
| Slowly releasable fraction of C-14                     | 5 10 <sup>-2</sup>    | Baston et al. (2014) |
| Fraction of C-14 released as CH <sub>4</sub>           | 10 <sup>-2</sup>      | Baston et al. (2014) |
| Fraction of C-14 released as CO                        | 5 10 <sup>-3</sup>    | Baston et al. (2014) |
| Rate of rapid release of C-14 [a <sup>-1</sup> ]       | 50                    | Baston et al. (2014) |
| Rate of slow release of C-14 $[a^{-1}]$                | $2.5 \ 10^{-3}$       | Baston et al. (2014) |
| Steel corrosion rate[µm/a]                             | 10-2                  |                      |
| Surface area of steel [km <sup>2</sup> ]               | 10                    |                      |
| Cellulose degradation rate $[a^{-1}]$                  | 5 10-4                | Walke et al. (2011)  |
| Hydrogen metabolism rate [a <sup>-1</sup> ]            | 250                   | Walke et al. (2011)  |
| Biomass yield coefficient [-]                          | 0.23                  | Walke et al. (2011)  |
| Biomass decay rate [a <sup>-1</sup> ]                  | 10                    | Walke et al. (2011)  |
| Recycling fraction of dead biomass                     | 0.9                   | Walke et al. (2011)  |
| H <sub>2</sub> solubility [mol/m <sup>3</sup> /atm]    | 0.79                  |                      |
| CH <sub>4</sub> solubility [mol/m <sup>3</sup> /atm]   | 1.42                  |                      |
| CO <sub>2</sub> solubility [mol/m <sup>3</sup> /atm]   | 34.17                 |                      |
| Length of repository [m]                               | 1500                  | NDA (2010b)          |
| Width of repository [m]                                | 1000                  | NDA (2010b)          |
| Height of repository [m]                               | 20                    |                      |
| Height of headspace [m]                                | 0.04                  |                      |
| Permeability in the near field [m <sup>2</sup> ]       | 10 <sup>-16</sup>     |                      |
| Permeability in the far field [m <sup>2</sup> ]        | 3.3 10 <sup>-12</sup> |                      |
| Hydraulic gradient of groundwater [-]                  | 0.001                 | Limer et al. (2010)  |
| Porosity in the near field [-]                         | 0.1                   |                      |
| Porosity in the far field [-]                          | 0.28                  |                      |
| Dispersivity [m]                                       | 10                    |                      |
| Diffusivity [m <sup>2</sup> /s]                        | 4.3 10 <sup>-10</sup> |                      |
| Length of the groundwater pathway [m]                  | 6000                  |                      |
| Release area of the gas pathway [m <sup>2</sup> ]      | $18 \ 10^{6}$         |                      |
| Flow area of the groundwater pathway [m <sup>2</sup> ] | 20000                 |                      |
| Flow area of the gas pathway $[m^2]$                   | 9                     |                      |

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