



Modélisation de la durabilité des géomatériaux et du transfert de polluants en valorisation ou stockage de déchets industriels et radioactifs

Laurent de Windt

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**Habilitation à Diriger les Recherches
Université Pierre et Marie Curie (Paris VI)
Spécialité : Sciences de la Terre et de l'Univers**

Modélisation de la durabilité des géomatériaux et du transfert de polluants en valorisation ou stockage de déchets industriels et radioactifs

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Soutenue le 20 mai 2011 devant le jury composé de

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Cristal de **DEWINDTITE**^(*)
 $Pb_3(H(UO_2)_3O_2(PO_4)_2)_2 \cdot 12H_2O$

(*) Famille des phosphates, dénommé par le Professeur M.A. Schoep de l'Université de Gand (Belgique) en mémoire de son étudiant Jean DeWindt - un lointain cousin ?, décédé accidentellement dans le lac Tanganyika au Congo (*Cr Acad Sci Paris* 174 (1922), 623-625).

Sommaire

1 Avant-propos et remerciements	3
1.1 De la chimie quantique à la géochimie appliquée	3
1.2 Remerciements	5
2 Contexte et code HYTEC	7
2.1 Contexte et objectifs	7
2.1.1 Le système multi-barrières du stockage de déchets et ses géomatériaux	7
2.1.2 Déchets et milieu naturel, une action réciproque	8
2.1.3 Unité des processus physico-chimiques en jeu	9
2.1.4 Du laboratoire au site, la spécificité du long terme	10
2.2 Le code couplé chimie/transport HYTEC et ses bases de données	11
2.2.1 Principales caractéristiques	11
2.2.2 Bases de données thermodynamiques et cinétiques	14
3 Travaux de recherche publiés	15
3.1 Intercomparaison de codes couplés	15
3.2 Interactions ciment/argile, transfert d'échelles de temps et d'espace	17
3.2.1 Une interface loin de l'équilibre thermodynamique	17
3.2.2 Etude de performances aux échelles du stockage	18
3.2.3 L'analogue anthropique de Tournemire	24
3.3 (Bio)altération des matériaux cimentaires au laboratoire	26
3.3.1 Une approche numérique des tests de lixiviation	26
3.3.2 Les acides biogéniques comme agents de dégradation	30
3.4 Transfert de polluants en stockage, un système couplé	31
3.4.1 Intégration du terme source aux modèles d'évolution du champ proche	31
3.4.2 Migration de radionucléides couplée aux interactions entre ciment et argile	35
3.4.3 Effet de la fracturation sur le confinement des déchets stabilisés . .	36
3.5 Valorisation de MIOM en sous-couches routières, dix ans de site pilote . .	37
3.5.1 Cinétique d'hydrolyse des sous-produits d'incinération et d'aciérie .	38
3.5.2 Evolution géochimique des lixiviats de MIOM à 10 ans	40

4 Perspectives de recherche	45
4.1 Questions scientifiques ouvertes et adaptation méthodologique	45
4.2 Transitoires et couplages THC	46
4.2.1 THC et interactions fer/argile	47
4.2.2 THC et interactions ciment/argile	48
4.3 Réactivité fine des verres nucléaires ou de la chaux avec les matériaux à dominante argileuse	49
4.3.1 Effets d'environnement sur l'altération des verres nucléaires	49
4.3.2 Durabilité des sols argileux stabilisés à la chaux	50
4.4 Interactions complexes entre activités microbiennes et géomatériaux	52
4.4.1 Biodétérioration des ciments en milieu agro-industriel	52
4.4.2 Bioréactivité fer-argile en conditions de stockage	53
4.5 Couplages géochimiques des stockages ou sites pollués avec les aquifères . .	54
4.5.1 Impact sur les ressources en eaux d'un stockage de déchets monolithiques	54
4.5.2 Modélisation couplée du fond géochimique d'un aquifère	54
4.6 Modélisations couplées avec transfert réactif de gaz	55
Bibliographie	59
A Curriculum vitae	67
A.1 Fonctions et expériences professionnelles	67
A.2 Formation	67
A.3 Encadrements académiques	68
A.4 Enseignements	69
A.5 Divers académiques	69
A.6 Publications	70
B Sélection de publications	77
B.1 De Windt et al. (2003). Intercomparison of reactive transport models applied to UO ₂ oxidative dissolution and uranium migration, <i>J Contam Hydrol</i> 61, 303-312.	77
B.2 De Windt et al. (2004). Coupled modeling of cement - claystone interactions and radionuclides migration, <i>J Contam Hydrol</i> 68, 165-182.	88

B.3	De Windt et al. (2007). Long-term reactive transport modelling of stabilised - solidified waste : from dynamic leaching tests to disposal scenarios, <i>J Hazard Mater</i> 139, 529-536.	107
B.4	De Windt et al. (2010). Modeling the degradation of Portland cement pastes by biogenic organic acids, <i>Cement Concrete Res</i> 40, 1165-1174.	116
B.5	De Windt et al. MSWI bottom ash used as basement at two pilot-scale roads : Comparison of leachate chemistry and reactive transport modeling, <i>Waste Manage</i> 31, 267-280.	127

Résumé

Ce mémoire présente mes recherches de modélisation appliquée à la valorisation matière et au stockage de déchets industriels et radioactifs. Le dénominateur commun consiste au couplage avec le code HYTEC des réactions chimiques et des processus hydrodynamiques dans l'optique de la prédiction de la durabilité des géomatériaux soumis aux aléas de leur environnement industriel ou naturel et, réciproquement, du relargage de polluants et leur migration dans les sols et les aquifères.

Travaux de recherche publiés

Dans une première partie orientée numérique, une validation de HYTEC par intercomparaison de codes est développée autour de la dissolution oxydative de UO_2 et de la migration d'uranium en subsurface. Les possibilités de numérisation des tests de lixiviation au laboratoire sont également discutées. Différentes recherches découlant de l'application de HYTEC sont ensuite présentées en détails. L'évolution de l'interface ciment/argile est modélisée dans le cadre d'études de performance des barrières d'un stockage de déchets radioactifs et de l'analogie anthropique du tunnel de Tournemire ; ce qui permet une hiérarchisation des processus physico-chimiques en jeu. Les processus physico-chimiques de tests d'altération d'éprouvettes de pâtes de ciment par des champignons sont analysés en mettant l'accent sur l'hydrolyse et la complexation des acides carboxyliques d'origine biologique. La modélisation des termes-sources et des cinétiques de vieillissement visant à décrire la libération des polluants est discutée en prenant l'exemple de l'altération des pastilles de combustibles nucléaires usés en conditions de stockage par dissolution radiolytique, effet inhibiteur des produits et décroissance radioactive d'une part, et l'exemple de l'effet de la fracturation sur le confinement des déchets stabilisés en décharge d'autre part. Les recherches associées à la valorisation routière de laitiers d'aciérie et de mâchefers d'incinération d'ordures ménagères (MIOM) clôt ce mémoire. Un test de lixiviation est simulé dans le premier cas. Le second cas consiste en l'évolution de la chimie des lixiviats de deux routes pilotes construites en MIOM, avec un retour d'expérience inédit en terme de durée (10 ans).

Perspectives de recherche

Dans le contexte du système multi-barrières d'un stockage de déchets radioactifs, une perspective immédiate est la modélisation des transitoires, notamment l'effet d'un gradient thermique (T) et de la phase de resaturation en eau (H) sur les interactions chimiques (C). Des expériences en cellules de diffusion comprenant de la bentonite Febex compactée, du fer métal (interactions fer/argile) ou du béton (interactions ciment/argile) sont en cours de modélisation. Une autre perspective est la modélisation des effets d'environnement sur les matrices de déchets vitrifiés en privilégiant le modèle mécanistique GRAAL du CEA basé sur l'interphase réactive passivante. Dans le cadre de la modélisation de la biodégradation des géomatériaux, les effets de différents types d'acides biogéniques sur des ciments CEM-I et CEM V sont à l'étude de même que la réactivité fer-argile catalysée par des bactéries sulfato et ferri-réductrices. HYTEC est également en cours d'application pour mieux caractériser les mécanismes chimiques mis en jeu lors des traitements des sols à la chaux dans le contexte de la durabilité des propriétés géotechniques.

Abstract

This report deals with the HYTEC model, coupling chemical and hydrodynamic processes, and its application to the recycling of inorganic wastes and the disposal of hazardous and radioactive wastes. A common feature is the assessment of geomaterial durability while submitted to chemical disturbances by their industrial or natural environment and, reciprocally, the quantification of contaminant fate in soils and aquifers.

Research papers

In a first section numerically oriented, HYTEC is validated by means of an intercomparison exercise based on oxidative UO_2 dissolution and the subsequent migration of U species in subsurface environments. A numerical approach of leaching tests is also discussed. Several researches based on HYTEC follows. The evolution of the cement/clay interface is simulated in the framework of the multi-barrier system of radioactive waste disposal and the Tournemire engineering analog; discriminating between the physical and chemical key processes. The physico-chemical processes of cement biodegradation by fungi are investigated with a focus on acidic hydrolysis and complexation by biogenic carboxylic acids. Modeling of source-terms and ageing with respect to contaminant migration is discussed in the case of the chemical alteration of spent fuel pellets under disposal conditions by considering radiolytic dissolution, inhibiting effect and radioactive decay, and by analyzing the effect of fractures on the containment properties of subsurface disposal facilities of stabilized/solidified waste. Leaching lab experiments applied to steel slag and the chemical evolution of leachate from MSWI subbases of two pilot roads over 10 years are eventually modelled to better estimate the environmental impact of such recycling scenarios.

On-going research

In the straight lines of the modeling of radioactive waste disposal, a first perspective is to investigate the transient states driven by thermal gradient and water resaturation of the near-field barriers and their effects on steel/cement/clay interactions. An other perspective is to model the environment control on the dissolution of vitrified waste by using the GRAAL model (CEA) based on the concept of passivating reactive interface. With respect to biodegradation, the effect of several types of biogenic acids on leaching of CEM-I and CEM V cement pastes will be investigated with HYTEC as well as iron/clay interactions catalyzed by sulfate and iron reducing bacteria. HYTEC modeling of the chemical processes occurring in soil stabilization by lime and the treatment durability in civil engineering is also in progress.

Chapitre 1

Avant-propos et remerciements

1.1 De la chimie quantique à la géochimie appliquée

- **Articles associés**, cfr. *CV en annexe* : (**type A**) *De Windt et al. (1991)*, *Defrancheschi et al. (1992)*, *De Windt et al. (1992)*, *De Windt et al. (1993a)*, *De Windt et al. (1993b)*, *Fischer et al. (1993)*, *De Windt et al. (1994)*, *De Windt et al. (1995)*, *Pisani et al. (1996)*, *Louis-Achille et al. (1998)*, *Louis-Achille et al. (1998b)*, *Louis-Achille et al. (1998c)*, *Louis-Achille et al. (2000)*, *Mathieu et al. (2000)*, *Wakim et al. (2009)*; (**type B**) *De Windt et al. (1998)*, *De Windt et al. (1999)*, *Savoye et al. (2001)*, *De Windt et al. (2005)*;
- **Collaborations** : *CEA*, *universités de Berne (Suisse)*, *Namur (Belgique)* et *Strasbourg*.
- **Thèse** : *co-encadrement de la thèse de V. Louis-Achille (1996-1999)*.

De formation généraliste en sciences chimiques, ma relation avec la recherche scientifique au fil de ma formation (post)doctorale puis de mon parcours professionnel n'a pas été linéaire. J'ai débuté par une recherche de type fondamentale à la direction des Sciences de la Matière au CEA et à l'université de Strasbourg, pour occuper ensuite une fonction de chef de projet à l'IRSN, où j'ai plutôt piloté la recherche de partenaires extérieures, avant de rejoindre Mines-Paristech et Armines en tant que “ingénieur-chercheur” pour m'impliquer dans une recherche au caractère plus appliqué. Les domaines scientifiques ont également évolués en phase avec les différentes fonctions occupées : chimie quantique en début de carrière, géochimie des formations argileuses et stockage de déchets radioactifs dans un second temps, et ces dernières années chimie de l'environnement et durabilité des géomatériaux. Une dominante transversale à ces différentes activités professionnelles a cependant été celle de la modélisation numérique, thème qui occupe une place centrale dans la présente habilitation à diriger des recherches.

Par souci de cohérence et de concision, il m'a cependant fallu faire le choix de ne présenter que les recherches réalisées dans le domaine de la modélisation couplée géochimie/transport avec un focus sur les applications à la valorisation et au stockage de déchets industriels et radioactifs. Néanmoins, comme tout chercheur lambda plus ou moins passionné par

ses recherches, j'ai souhaité mentionner dans cet avant-propos les autres thématiques de recherche ; d'autant que cette période représente pas moins d'une vingtaine d'articles scientifiques (cfr. CV en [Appendix A](#)).

Le sujet de ma thèse en chimie quantique était d'appliquer une transformée de Fourier à l'équation de Schrödinger (au système d'équations opérationnel Hartree-Fock plus précisément) ; ce qui donne en unités atomiques :

$$\left(\frac{\mathbf{p}^2}{2} - E\right)\phi(\mathbf{p}) = - \int d\mathbf{q} \phi(\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{q}) \left(\left(\frac{1}{2\pi}\right)^{3/2} \int e^{-i\mathbf{q}\cdot\mathbf{r}} V(\mathbf{r}) d\mathbf{r} \right) \quad (1.1)$$

où E est l'énergie totale et $V(\mathbf{r})$ représente le potentiel d'attraction noyau-électron et le potentiel de répulsion électron-électron. Cette transformée a permis de calculer numériquement les orbitales d'atomes et petites molécules et d'étudier leurs propriétés dans l'espace des impulsions au lieu de l'espace usuel des positions. En particulier, les orbitales des électrons de valence des anions, plus difficiles à manipuler du fait de leur caractère diffus en périphérie des molécules, se retrouvaient projetées au centre de l'espace des impulsions. En effet, plus les électrons sont éloignés du noyau atomique, plus leur vitesse (ou impulsion) est faible ; donc proche de l'origine des axes de coordonnées. Des détails de ces orbitales ont ainsi pu être analysés avec une précision numérique de plus grande qualité.

Un second champ d'application de la chimie quantique a été d'étudier, par la théorie de la fonctionnelle de densité, les orbitales et états énergétiques des différentes possibilités de substitutions des atomes du réseau cristallin des minéraux de la famille des apatites, telle par exemple l'insertion de Nd dans la britholite $\text{Ca}_9\text{Nd}(\text{PO}_4)_5(\text{SiO}_4)\text{F}_2$ ([figure 1.1-A](#)). Cette recherche se rattachait à la problématique de synthèse de matrice de confinement spécifique de certains radionucléides, particulièrement mobiles ou actifs, pour le stockage à très long terme des déchets radioactifs. ; les apatites présentant de fait des solubilités faibles à très faibles dans la plupart des environnements naturels.

Ma première expérience dans le domaine de la géochimie a été associée au développement de la plate-forme expérimentale du tunnel de Tournemire dans l'Aveyron. Ce tunnel traverse une formation d'argilites du Toarcien ([figure 1.1-B](#)) qui présente de nombreuses similitudes avec les argilites du Callovo-Oxfordien actuellement ciblée par l'ANDRA comme formation hôte potentielle pour le stockage géologique des déchets radioactifs. Dans ce contexte, mon apport a été de renforcer les recherches génériques à caractère géochimique sur les propriétés de confinement des argilites : hydrochimie, circulation des paléofluides, migration et sorption des radionucléides pour l'essentiel.

En mai 2000, j'ai rejoins le Centre de Géosciences de Mines ParisTech (à l'époque le Centre d'Informatique Géologique de l'Ecole des Mines de Paris). J'y occupe, sous la forme de deux mi-temps, le poste d'enseignant/chercheur et celui d'ingénieur de recherche senior à Armines. Ma fonction principale a trait à la recherche, contractuelle ou non. Je participe aussi régulièrement aux enseignement du cycle d'ingénieurs civils (cours d'option), de maîtrise recherche et en formation continue. Les thématiques concernent la chimie environnementale, la chimie des géomatériaux, la migration des polluants, la modélisation numérique en géochimie et transport réactif. L'encadrement de thésards et postdoc est une activité

relativement récente en ce qui me concerne. Un curriculum vitae détaillé est fourni en annexe de ce document, de même qu'une sélection de 5 articles de revues internationales représentatifs de la thématique développée dans ce mémoire.

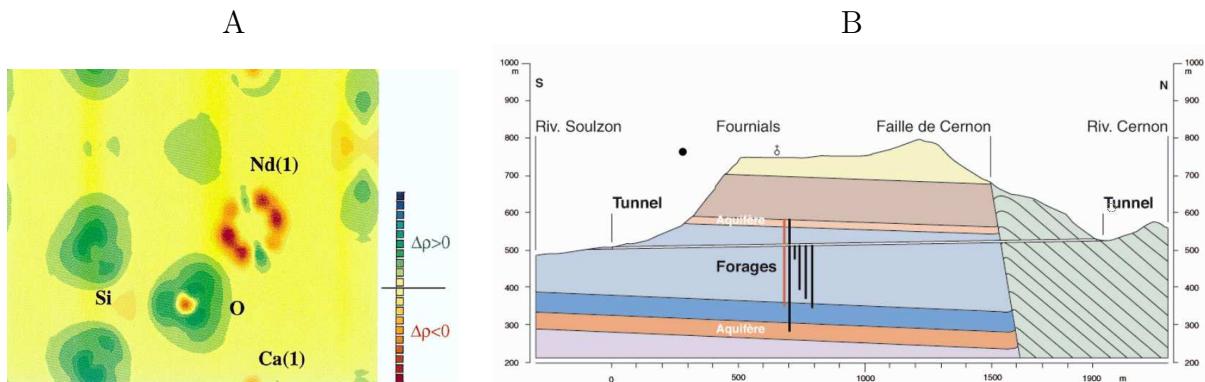


FIGURE 1.1 – A : calcul de la densité de charge différentielle du Nd et SiO₄ dans une britholite ; B : coupe géologique des formations sédimentaires de la plateforme expérimentale du tunnel de Tournemire.

1.2 Remerciements

La génération de jeunes chercheurs à laquelle j'appartenaient (à l'époque ...) s'est trouvée être dans une période intermédiaire, postérieure à la suppression des thèses d'état, mais antérieure à la généralisation des habilitations à diriger des recherches. De plus, on vient de le lire, mon parcours professionnel a été relativement diversifié. De ce fait, le nombre de collègues qui m'ont permis de progresser durant toutes ces années est relativement élevé. Je souhaiterais donc plutôt remercier collectivement - et chaleureusement - tous ceux-ci : le corps enseignant des Facultés Universitaires de Namur (Belgique), mes collègues du SRSIM au CEA, mes collègues du SERGD et SESID à l'IPSN (maintenant IRSN), mes collègues du Centre de Géosciences à Mines-ParisTech, mes collègues du pôle géochimie-transport PGT ... et bien d'autres collègues en France et ailleurs.

Je tiens cependant à remercier plus particulièrement les rapporteurs (Olivier Bildstein, Urs Mäder et Pierre Toulhoat) et membres du jury (Denis Damidot, Guillaume Morin, Jean-Marie Mouchel) pour avoir accepté de donner de leur précieux temps pour évaluer mon habilitation à diriger des recherches.

Ayant un ainé qui termine son collège, j'aurais enfin une pensée reconnaissante pour les professeurs de collège et lycée qui donnent (m'ont donné) la chance de découvrir - et de poser de solides bases - dans le champ de recherche fascinant que sont les sciences physiques au sens général du terme.

Chapitre 2

Contexte et code HYTEC

2.1 Contexte et objectifs

2.1.1 Le système multi-barrières du stockage de déchets et ses géomatériaux

Un des moteurs, scientifique et financier, du développement du code couplé chimie/transport HYTEC a été dès l'origine la modélisation de l'évolution à long terme d'un stockage en milieu géologique profond de déchets radioactifs de moyenne ou haute activité et à vie longue (MA-HAVL). Le concept de sûreté des trois barrières est sous-jacent à toute architecture de stockage ([Toulhoat, 2002](#)). Le principe de barrière fonctionne à double sens : ralentir l'altération des colis de déchets radioactifs par le milieu naturel, puis retarder la migration des radionucléides vers la biosphère ; retard d'autant plus crucial que les radionucléides perdent de leur toxicité dans le temps (par décroissance radioactive) contrairement aux métaux lourds dont la toxicité est pérenne. Le colis de déchets constitue lui-même la première barrière tandis que la formation géologique représente la troisième barrière ; de loin la plus importante en masse. Entre ces deux barrières s'intercalent un système d'ingénierie, la seconde barrière, destiné à renforcer les propriétés de confinement de l'ensemble.

Des matériaux de caractéristiques très diverses seront ainsi introduits au sein du site d'un stockage de déchets radioactifs ([Toulhoat, 2002; Gin, 2006](#)) : verres nucléaires, matrice UO₂, aciers, barrières argileuses, liants hydrauliques en ciment, bétons, ... La roche hôte, l'argile indurée en l'occurrence dans ce document, constitue par ailleurs le matériau majoritaire. Une première constatation est la différenciation minéralogique des composants en matériaux naturels ou assimilés (argilite, bentonite, remblais en bentonite/sable) et en matériaux industriels (acier, béton, verre). Les matériaux du premier groupe sont relativement compatibles entre eux. Les matériaux du second groupe sont chimiquement très différents des argiles et ne sont donc pas stables d'un point de vue thermodynamique en milieu naturel. Dans tous les cas, il s'agit de matériaux de nature inorganique, indépendants de la chimie du carbone, qui seront dénommés dans la suite du texte comme *géomatériaux* pour montrer l'unicité de nature et de propriétés de ces composants tant industriels que

naturels.

La structure du confinement de déchets faiblement radioactifs (FA, [figure 2.1](#)) et industriels dangereux est similaire à celle des déchets radioactifs HAVL, bien que pour des durées relativement plus courtes (paradoxe sociétal, d'ailleurs, au vu de la remarque sur la pérennité de leur toxicité). Les installations de stockage de déchets de classe 1 sont des ouvrages de génie civile complexes. Celles-ci demandent un niveau de performance élevé - ainsi qu'une durabilité - dans le but d'assurer vis-à-vis du milieu environnant un niveau de protection répondant à des critères très stricts ; l'impact sur l'environnement concernant en particulier les sols et les ressources en eau. Ces installations nécessitent dans cet objectif un ensemble composite de trois barrières actives ou passives ([Mohamed and Antia, 1998](#), par ex.) : 1) le déchet, le plus souvent stabilisé/solidifié par des liants hydrauliques, 2) un ensemble de barrière assurant le drainage des lixiviats et la protection à long terme du sous-sol en retardant et atténuant la migration éventuelle d'un panache de polluants, 3) un sous-sol argileux déjà en place.

Dans les deux types de stockage, les processus d'interactions chimiques dans le champ proche seront couplés, plus ou moins fortement selon les cas. Les trois principales perturbations géochimiques à investiguer dans le contexte d'un stockage profond sont, à court terme, l'oxydation par l'oxygène importé (perturbation oxydante) et, à long terme, la migration des panaches alcalins des matériaux cimentaires (perturbation alcaline) ainsi que les effets liés à la corrosion anoxique des aciers (perturbation en fer ferreux et hydrogène). Ces types de perturbations peuvent, dans certains cas, se combiner entre-elles. Un autre aspect important à considérer dans le contexte de ces perturbations chimiques des composants d'un stockage sont les processus tampon de ces perturbations par la roche hôte et les divers géomatériaux du champ proche. Par exemple, les capacités tampon réducteur des formations argileuses profondes sont conséquentes ([Beaucaire et al., 2000](#)).

2.1.2 Déchets et milieu naturel, une action réciproque

La valorisation matière est un second axe majeur de gestion des déchets (co-produits) inorganiques qui sera discuté dans ce mémoire. Le cas des mâchefers d'incinération d'ordures ménagères (MIOM) est emblématique. L'incinération constitue un mode de traitement majeur des ordures ménagères qui, historiquement, a été mis en place principalement pour réduire les volumes et masses de déchets et, dans certaines régions fortement urbanisées, pour limiter l'utilisation de granulats naturels. Les valorisations énergétiques et matières possibles sont toutes deux possibles avec ce genre de traitement. Les MIOM possèdent des caractéristiques géotechniques qui les rendent susceptibles d'être réutilisés en génie civil comme remblai en technique routière, matériaux de construction de barrière sonique, matériau de substitution dans les ciments ([van der Sloot et al., 2001](#)). Les laitiers sidérurgiques sont d'autres matières minérales artificielles produites en grandes quantités par l'industrie de l'acier, dont l'utilisation dans la construction de routes présente un enjeu économique important et permet de limiter leur stockage coûteux.

Encore plus que dans le cas des stockages, où les milieux naturels réceptacles des stockages

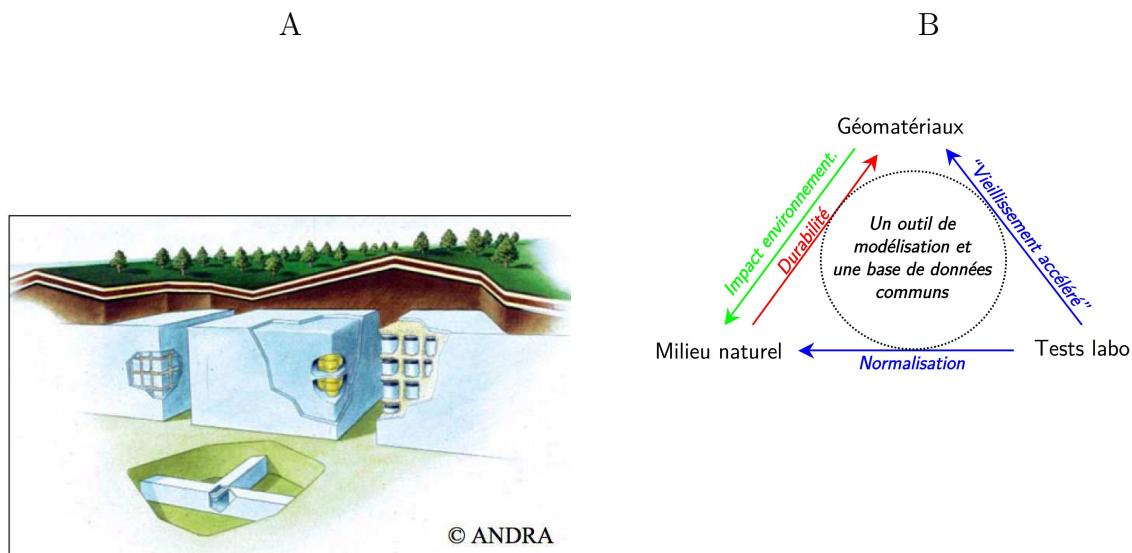


FIGURE 2.1 – A : Représentation schématique d'un système multi-barrières d'un stockage de déchets en subsurface ; **B :** schéma de principe de l'approche suivie dans la présente étude de modélisation.

sont choisis les plus inertes possibles, l'environnement aura une action certaine sur la durabilité des déchets recyclés. La durabilité des géomatériaux dans un milieu naturel est d'ailleurs une demande complémentaire à celle du devenir des déchets. Cette demande générique consiste en la prédiction de la stabilité et/ou de l'altération à long terme de ces matériaux soumis aux aléas de leur environnement industriel ou naturel, dans les contextes stratégiques de l'augmentation de leur durée de vie, de leur décontamination ou de la valorisation des déchets sans impact environnemental significatif. D'autre part, tant d'un point de vue scientifique que des applications, l'étude des interactions - favorables ou défavorables - entre micro-organismes et géomatériaux est en plein développement (Lors, 2010).

2.1.3 Unité des processus physico-chimiques en jeu

En 1909, le biochimiste Danois Sørensen, comprenant que les vitesses de réactions enzymatiques dépendaient de l'activité des ions hydrogènes et non de l'acidité totale, inventait la notion et la mesure du ...pH (Bardez, 2010). Les profils de distribution du pH seront systématiquement rapportés tout au long du document. En premier lieu parce que ce paramètre synthétique est un bon indicateur des transformations minéralogiques et de l'extension du panache alcalin, mais aussi parce qu'il influence fortement la solubilité et la sorption de la plupart des métaux et radionucléides.

Le pH est également représentatif du type de chimie qui est à l'étude ici, c'est-à-dire la chimie des solutions aqueuses complexes comprenant les réactions acido/basique, de complexation et d'oxydo-réduction. Réactions auxquelles se rajoutent les réactions hété-

rogènes des phases solides : dissolution/précipitation, sorption (complexation de surface) et échanges ioniques. L'ensemble de ces réactions est par défaut modélisé dans HYTEC via l'équilibre thermodynamique et ses dépendances en température et modèles de correction d'activité (de plus en plus sophistiqués avec l'augmentation de la force ionique). Se surimposent sur la thermodynamique des contraintes de contrôles cinétiques (Brantley, 2008). Sont ainsi implémentés dans HYTEC une palette de modèles de variation de surface, d'effets catalytique ou inhibiteur des espèces dissoutes ou présentent à la surface des minéraux, de dépendance en température des constantes cinétiques. La chimie prise en compte dans ce document se rattache au domaine de la chimie inorganique pour l'essentiel, avec cependant quelques ouvertures intéressantes sur la chimie des acides carboxyliques.

Deux autres familles de processus physiques seront couplées à cette chimie dans ce document, le transfert de masse par advection et diffusion (hydrodynamique) d'une part, et le transfert de chaleur par convection et conduction (thermique) d'autre part ; toutes deux avec des boucles rétroactives sur la chimie.

Ces processus physico-chimiques ont pour l'essentiel été conceptualisés et traduits en lois mathématiques au XIXème siècle ou au début du XXème. Leur prise en compte n'est donc pas vraiment originale en soi. Les principales raisons pour lesquelles les études présentées dans ce rapport relèvent pourtant de la recherche sont de trois types :

- premièrement, le couplage de ces processus génèrent des comportements parfois nouveaux, souvent difficiles à prévoir a priori ;
- deuxièmement, une démarche interdisciplinaire est conduite en intégrant ce genre de modélisation aux sciences géochimiques et des matériaux, traitant de systèmes complexes naturels (un aquifère, une argile) ou techniques (une route, un béton) ;
- enfin, la simulation numérique s'est rajoutée au couple ancien “théorie/expérience” relativement récemment dans l'histoire de la démarche scientifique et se substitue, dans une certaine mesure, à la démarche expérimentale, l'extrapolant à des échelles d'espace ou de temps inabordables autrement.

Il est important de souligner, même s'il est hors de propos de développer cet aspect ici, qu'une modélisation reste une représentation simplifiée et partielle de la réalité utilisée ; par exemple pour dégager les tendances d'évolution à prendre en compte dans l'évaluation de sûreté d'un stockage. Dans ce contexte, la distinction doit être faite entre les incertitudes sur les processus physico-chimiques (séquence minéralogique, exclusion anionique, colmatage partiel ou total, ...), la distribution statistique des paramètres (teneurs en un minéral donné, perméabilité,...) et les incertitudes numériques (calculs à une ou trois dimensions, effets de la taille des mailles sur le colmatage, ...).

2.1.4 Du laboratoire au site, la spécificité du long terme

L'évaluation de l'impact des déchets en scénario de stockage dans le cas de décharges ou de valorisation des co-produits est principalement basée sur la caractérisation des déchets par des essais de lixiviation en laboratoire. Le couplage entre la diffusion, la dissolution et la précipitation de phases solides, mais aussi de la sorption dans certains cas, des polluants

inorganiques en complique souvent l'interprétation et donc l'extrapolation aux conditions réelles de sites. C'est par exemple typiquement le cas des déchets solidifiés/ stabilisés. L'extrapolation des résultats de laboratoire aux conditions de sites - conditions caractérisées par des rapports solution sur solide bien plus bas, des géométries spécifiques et complexes, des schémas d'infiltration cycliques, etc. - n'est donc pas une démarche immédiate, loin de là ([Kosson et al., 1996](#)). Dans ce cadre, la modélisation géochimique et couplée chimie-transport peuvent être des outils d'aide pour jeter un pont entre les expériences au laboratoire, à court-terme et petites échelles, et les conditions de sites caractérisées par le long terme et sur de grandes dimensions ([figure 2.1](#)). La modélisation aide aussi à discriminer les processus physico-chimiques interdépendants, à combler des manques dans les données expérimentales, et à évaluer le comportement à long terme des déchets, et de leurs barrières de confinement, suivant différents scénarios.

Une autre raison de privilégier la modélisation couplée chimie/transport est le besoin d'estimer le comportement des géomatériaux sur de très, très longues périodes de temps (plus de 100 000 ans) qui échappent complètement aux études expérimentales au sein des stockage de déchets radioactifs. Il s'agit d'une démarche scientifique nouvelle et innovante, qui ne peut faire l'économie de l'étude des mécanismes en jeu ([CEA-Collectif, 2010](#)). C'est le cas par exemple des interactions ciment/argile qui seront discutées en détails dans ce mémoire. Les transferts de masse sont fortement minimisés du fait de très faibles valeurs de porosité, coefficient de diffusion et perméabilité pour les deux types de géomatériaux. Les expériences effectuées au laboratoire sur des périodes nécessairement courtes ne sont donc pas totalement représentatives du comportement à long terme des matériaux. Il est nécessaire de les extrapoler, via la modélisation numérique, aux échelles de temps à très long terme pour estimer au mieux les perturbations des composants d'un stockage profond. Plus techniquement parlant, les capacités techniques des codes couplés chimie-transport permettent de plus en plus de se rapprocher des objets de l'ingénieur et de quitter ainsi le strict champ du scientifique pour devenir des outils techniques de pointe (utilisables en étude de performance par exemple).

2.2 Le code couplé chimie/transport HYTEC et ses bases de données

2.2.1 Principales caractéristiques

HYTEC étant au coeur de ce manuscrit, il n'est pas inutile d'en rappeler les principales caractéristiques avant d'aborder la discussion des travaux de recherche proprement dite. L'outil de simulation HYTEC est l'un des quelques modèles capables d'intégrer l'ensemble de ces processus à des échelles d'espace et de temps représentatives des applications industrielles ([van der Lee et al., 2003](#)). Techniquement, HYTEC est une plate-forme de simulation modulaire et évolutive, principalement composée du module hydrodynamique R2D2 ([Lagneau, 2002](#)) et du module de réaction CHESS ([van der Lee and De Windt, 2002](#)) ainsi que d'un coupleur. HYTEC fonctionne sur une ferme (*cluster*) de multi-processeurs.

Couplage hydrodynamique/chimie

L'équation de base du transport réactif, ou couplé chimie/transport, s'écrit comme suit :

$$\frac{\partial \omega c_i}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \omega \bar{c}_i}{\partial t} = \operatorname{div}(D(\omega) \overrightarrow{\operatorname{grad}} c_i - c_i \vec{U}) \quad (2.1)$$

où c_i et \bar{c}_i représentent respectivement les concentrations mobiles en solution et les concentrations fixées, par sorption ou en tant que solide, des éléments chimiques. U est la vitesse de Darcy, calculée par HYTEC en régime transitoire ou permanent, dans un milieu poreux hydrauliquement saturé ou non, selon les systèmes étudiés. ω est la porosité locale du milieu poreux. Le symbole D associe les coefficients de dispersion α et de diffusion effective D_e , soit $D = \alpha U + D_e$.

HYTEC simule les réactions (bio)géochimiques au sein de chaque maille du modèle en fonction des évolutions de concentrations inhérentes au temps, pour les réactions cinétiques, et au transport des espèces dissoutes. HYTEC gère ainsi simultanément plusieurs centaines d'espèces chimiques. Les réactions chimiques agissent comme un terme source, par désorption ou dissolution, ou comme un terme puit, par sorption ou précipitation ; ce qui modifie en retour le transfert de masse d'un élément à l'autre du maillage.

Pour les calculs en zone non-saturée, il est essentiel de pouvoir relier la saturation, la teneur en eau, la succion et la perméabilité. Les lois de van Genuchten ont ainsi été implémentées dans HYTEC ([Lagneau, 2002](#)).

Équilibre thermodynamique et/ou contrôle cinétique

L'ensemble des réactions chimiques en solution aqueuse est pris en compte par HYTEC, spéciation et oxydo-réduction, dissolution et précipitation de phases minérales et colloïdales, échange ionique et complexation de surface (sorption).

L'équilibre thermodynamique local est résolu en s'appuyant sur les équations de bilan de masse :

$$K = \frac{(C)^{n_c} (D)^{n_d}}{(A)^{n_a} (B)^{n_b}} = e^{\left(\frac{-\Delta_r G^0}{RT}\right)}, \quad (2.2)$$

où les parenthèses correspondent à l'activité des espèces. K et $\Delta_r G^0$ sont respectivement la constante d'équilibre et l'enthalpie libre standard (1 atm, 25 °C) caractéristiques de la réaction. Différentes formulations de corrections d'activité sont disponibles. La formule empirique de Davies tronqué, qui dérive du modèle physico-chimique de Debye-Hückel, est applicable pour des solutions faiblement à modérément minéralisées (force ionique inférieure à 0.5 molal). Les modèles du B-dot et de SIT sont disponibles pour les solutions plus concentrées, en prenant en compte également le changement d'activité de l'eau selon la force ionique.

Les réactions de dissolution/précipitation de minéraux (cinétique hétérogène) et les réactions d'oxydoréduction impliquant le transfert d'électrons sont plus spécialement tributaires de la cinétique réactionnelle. La vitesse de dissolution ou de précipitation d'un

minéral M est souvent modélisée par l'intermédiaire de la loi cinétique suivante :

$$\frac{d[M]}{dt} = k A_v \prod_i (A_i)^{a_i} \left(\left(\frac{Q}{Ks} \right)^p - 1 \right). \quad (2.3)$$

Il s'agit d'une cinétique hétérogène puisque la phase aqueuse et une phase solide interviennent. La variation de la concentration du minéral est proportionnelle à la constante cinétique intrinsèque de la réaction k [mol/m²/s], négative en cas de dissolution et positive en cas de précipitation, et à la surface volumique du minéral A_v . Le terme $((Q/Ks)^p - 1)$ introduit une dépendance de la cinétique en fonction du degré d'écart du système solides/solutés vis-à-vis de l'équilibre thermodynamique. Le terme produit intègre l'activité d'une espèce A_i dissoute et a_i un exposant quelconque, décrit la dépendance de la vitesse de réaction vis-à-vis de la chimie de la solution ou d'espèces de surface des solides. L'espèce agira comme un catalyseur si l'exposant associé est positif, comme un inhibiteur si l'exposant est négatif.

HYTEC permet d'étendre la cinétique aux réactions en phases aqueuses, en particulier les processus d'oxydo-réduction de catalyse microbienne de type Monod ou Hill décrivant le transfert d'électrons entre différents donneurs et accepteurs (cfr. section [section 4.4](#)).

Méthodes numériques

L'algorithme général de couplage suivi par HYTEC consiste en une approche séquentielle, calcul du transport puis de la chimie séparément, mais itérative, c'est-à-dire un aller-retour entre les deux modules jusque convergence pendant un même intervalle de temps. Dans l'optique du couplage, un schéma de discrétisation spatiale en volumes finis a été choisi dans le cadre général de l'approximation des volumes élémentaires représentatifs (VER). Ce schéma en volumes finis est particulièrement bien adapté aux systèmes réactifs. La fabrication du maillage de type Voronoï repose sur un algorithme récursif ([Lagneau, 2002](#)). La discrétisation en espace de l'équation de transport utilise massivement de nombreuses caractéristiques du maillage de Voronoï. La discrétisation en temps de l'équation de transport est basée sur un schéma implicite (partie diffusive-dispersive de l'équation) et de Crank-Nicholson centré (partie advective).

D'un point de vue numérique, le module chimique de HYTEC revient à résoudre un système d'équations non linéaires uniquement exprimé en composantes de bases. Les racines sont calculées par un moteur de résolution dérivé de l'algorithme de Newton-Raphson et fortement optimisé pour les calculs couplés ([van der Lee, 1998](#)). Les composantes pouvant par ailleurs être assimilées aux vecteurs de base orthogonaux d'un espace vectoriel de dimension, le formalisme de l'algèbre matricielle peut être employé pour faciliter la résolution du système d'équation.

HYTEC permet de traiter de configuration 1D à 3D, en coordonnées cartésiennes, radiales ou cylindriques. Le choix de conditions aux limites comprend :

- des conditions aux limites sur des sous-parties du bord du domaine : conditions de Riemann ou Dirichlet pour l'écoulement et le transport, voire conditions mixtes, p.ex.

gradient nul, flux chimique variable imposé par l'écoulement, vitesse nulle, vitesse de Darcy imposée, ruissellement ;

- une variante particulière des conditions d'écoulement que sont le couple de conditions d'infiltration (évacuation du trop plein d'eau en entrée) et de suintement (milieu poreux au contact d'une cavité libre, . . .) ;
- conditions régionalisées, sur des sous-parties du domaine : par exemple un terme source local (et sa solution associée), une charge hydraulique imposée variable ou une concentration imposée variable.

2.2.2 Bases de données thermodynamiques et cinétiques

Une des questions clef préliminaire à chaque travail de modélisation est la suivante : dispose-t-on des données thermodynamiques et cinétiques nécessaires ? Un premier élément de réponse a été d'interfacer HYTEC avec trois bases de données de référence internationale :

- la base EQ3/6 ([Wolery, 1992](#)), base de référence du géochimiste, riche en minéraux de tout type de roche et sur une gamme de température élargie [0 - 300 °C] ;
- la base MINTEQ([Allison et al., 1991](#)), plus adaptée aux problématiques de chimie environnementale, et particulièrement riche en données sur les complexants organiques ;
- la base de données de la NEA ([Guillaumont et al., 2003](#), par ex.) a été sélectionnée pour la chimie en solution et les phases solides de produits de fission et d'actinides.

Ce *corpus* une fois défini, une revue de la littérature scientifique permet le plus souvent d'y intégrer des constantes complémentaires pour des phases solides bien spécifiques, en veillant à préserver au maximum la cohérence d'ensemble des données. Pour les phases cimentaires, citons parmi d'autres sources : [Kulik and Kersten \(2001\)](#) pour les silicates de calcium hydraté, C-S-H, ou [Damidot and Glasser \(1993\)](#); [Perkins and Palmer \(1999\)](#) pour les aluminosulfates. Les données d'échanges cationiques et de sorption (formalisme de la complexation de surface) ont également été tirées de la littérature, par exemple [Bradbury and Baeyens \(1998\)](#); [Wersin \(2003\)](#).

Chapitre 3

Travaux de recherche publiés

3.1 Intercomparaison de codes couplés

- **Articles associés**, cfr. *CV en annexe* : (**type A**) *van der Lee and De Windt (2001)*, *De Windt et al. (2003)*, *van der Lee et al. (2003)*; (**type B**) *van der Lee et al. (2008)*; (**RTI**) *De Windt et al. (2005)*;
- **Collaborations** : nombreuses dans le cadre du pôle géochimie transport (PGT). Le PGT est une structure regroupant plusieurs groupes industriels (EDF, Lafarge, Schlumberger, Total) ou instituts de recherche (Armines, CEA, INERIS, IRSN) ayant un intérêt pour les études et recherches en simulation du transport réactif à différentes échelles.

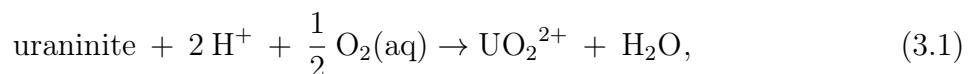
Je me suis impliqué depuis une dizaine d'année dans le co-développement et surtout l'application de la plate-forme de simulation numérique HYTEC. Du point de vue développement, ma première contribution a concerné la conception et l'implémentation des algorithmes de parallélisation du code en utilisant le langage MPI (*Message Passing Interface*) et l'environnement informatique *mpich*. Cet aspect est hors du cadre retenu pour cette habilitation et n'est pas développé ici. Une seconde implication personnelle forte a été la procédure de vérification et validation de HYTEC, en particulier dans le contexte du stockage de déchets radioactifs et de migration d'uranium.

Le développement d'un code de transport réactif se fait en effet en étroite relation avec des actions de vérification et de validation des algorithmes informatiques et numériques ([Trotignon et al., 1997](#)). Cela a été le cas pour HYTEC depuis l'origine, surtout dans le cadre du pôle géochimie transport PGT. La première étape repose sur une procédure de vérification des algorithmes, généralement sur base de solutions (semi)analytiques pour des géométries, hydrodynamiques et chimies simplifiées. Une des caractéristiques des codes couplés étant leur complexité intrinsèque et leur multiplicité de fonctionnalités, une seconde étape de validation par intercomparaison de codes est indispensable.

J'ai été responsable du premier exercice d'intercomparaison du PGT sur base de deux cas de référence en utilisant les codes de transports réactifs CASTEM ([CEA, 1999](#)), CHEMTRAP ([Lucille et al., 2000](#)), PHREEQC ([Parkhurst and Appelo, 1999](#)) et HYTEC. Tous ses

codes utilisent une résolution séquentielle (itérative ou non) du couplage entre la chimie et le transport mais des approches de discrétilisations spatiale et temporelle différentes : éléments finis (EF), volumes finis (VF), ou éléments finis mixtes hybrides (EFMH).

Le premier cas de référence ([figure 3.1-A](#)) a simulé l'infiltration d'une eau de pluie, en équilibre avec l'oxygène de l'atmosphère, dans une zone de subsurface enrichie en uraninite (UO_2) et la migration consécutive de l'uranium dans le milieu naturel. Cette modélisation a introduit de façon générique la modélisation d'un terme-source et la migration de polluants en subsurface. La seconde configuration de référence ([figure 3.1-B](#)) a concerné la dissolution oxydative de pastilles de combustibles nucléaires usés dans le site de *Yucca Mountain*, site caractérisé par une roche hôte d'origine volcanique fortement non saturée et des galeries de stockage à l'air libre ([Wronkiewicz et al., 1996](#)). Dans les deux cas, le moteur d'évolution était la dissolution oxydative d'oxydes de U dans les milieux oxydants ou modérément réducteurs :



et la migration subséquente de U dissous, bien qu'à des échelles de temps sensiblement plus longues. La dissolution de l'uraninite, dans l'état d'oxydo-réduction U(IV), induit une mise en solution de U sous la forme d'ions uranyl U(VI), ces cations étant complexés par les anions sous forme d'hydroxyls ($\text{UO}_2(\text{OH})_3^-$, ...) et carbonates ($\text{UO}_2(\text{CO}_3)_3^{4-}$, ...). HYTEC prévoit dans une seconde étape la précipitation de phases minérales secondaires de U(VI), la plus probable à court terme étant la schoepite ($\text{UO}_3 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$) pour des raisons cinétiques, et à plus long terme des silicates d'uranyl comme la soddyite, $(\text{UO}_2)_2\text{SiO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$, ou l'uranophane, $\text{Ca}[(\text{UO}_2)\text{SiO}_3(\text{OH})]_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$ ([Calas et al., 2008](#), par ex.). Les réactions chimiques associées sont caractérisées par des fronts d'oxydo-réduction aigus, des cinétiques réactionnelles et la sorption sur les phases minérales ou organiques du sols, voire colloïdales ; ces reactions étant plus ou moins fortement couplées au transfert advectif dans ce type de système.

La [figure 3.1-D](#) représente les profils de concentrations en uranium dissous calculés avec précipitation cinétique de schoepite en amont du front de dissolution de l'uraninite. Les codes ont produit des résultats numériques en très bon accord ([figure 3.1-D](#)), malgré la présence de fronts d'oxydo-réduction abrupts généralement problématiques pour les codes couplés. Deux principales sources à l'origine de différences systématiques ont été identifiées : schéma de discrétilisation spatiale et schéma de couplage chimie-transport. L'approche par VF apporte plus de précision sur les masses initiales des géomatériaux au sein d'une zone géométrique donnée suite à l'interpolation sur deux noeuds adjacents. Elle est également plus correcte en ce qui concerne l'implémentation de la rétroaction de la chimie sur la porosité et les paramètres hydrodynamiques.

Ce type d'exercice de validation de HYTEC a été récemment prolongé dans le cadre du *benchmark* de géochimie MOMAS - Modélisations Mathématiques et Simulations Numériques liées aux problèmes de gestion des déchets nucléaires ([Lagneau and van der Lee, 2010a](#)).

3.2 Interactions ciment/argile, transfert d'échelles de temps et d'espace

3.2.1 Une interface loin de l'équilibre thermodynamique

Quelles sont les spécificités de la perturbation alcaline

Les interactions entre ciment et argiles sont le résultat, pour l'essentiel, du couplage fort existant entre le transport de masse diffusif et les réactions chimiques de dissolution/précipitation, voire de sorption, avec une influence non négligeable de la température sur la cinétique des réactions. Dans le cas des ciments de type CEM-I (anciennement de type Portland ordinaire), le panache alcalin n'augmente pas uniquement la concentration en ions hydroxyles des milieux environnants mais aussi en ions K^+ et Na^+ puis, dans une seconde phase, en ions Ca^{2+} et $Ca(OH)^+$. C'est en effet la dissolution progressive des minéraux calciques, portlandite puis C-S-H, qui alimente la perturbation alcaline sur le long terme. La migration du panache alcalin peut conduire à la destruction des minéraux constitutifs des matériaux argileux et modifier significativement la composition de leur eau porale. Ces modifications conduisent à des perturbations plus ou moins prononcées des propriétés hydrodynamiques, mécaniques, y compris l'état de gonflement, et de confinement chimique de ces matériaux argileux.

Cette problématique des interactions ciment/argile à long terme et dans le contexte du stockage de déchets radioactifs a fait l'objet de programmes de recherche dans de nombreux pays en tentant de combiner expériences au laboratoire, analogues naturels ou anthropiques et modélisations numériques ([Gaucher and Blanc, 2006](#)). Les études de base ont surtout été expérimentales ([Adler et al., 1999](#); [Devol-Brown et al., 2007](#); [Dauzeres et al., 2010](#), par ex.), parfois sur site ([Mäder et al., 2006](#)) même si les échelles de temps associées restaient très inférieures à celles du stockage. Peu d'analogues naturels ont mis en jeu ces processus géochimiques très spécifiques, le plus célèbre étant le site de Maquarin en Jordanie ([Steefel and Lichtner, 1998](#)). Quelques analogues dits "anthropiques" ont aussi été caractérisés par des travaux de recherche de caractère minéralogique ([Tinseau et al., 2006](#), par ex.). Des modélisations des expériences ont été conduites conjointement ([Read et al., 2001](#); [Pfingsten et al., 2006](#); [Fernández et al., 2010](#), par ex.). Une autre série de modélisation a permis, dans un certaine mesure, de transposer ces processus à l'échelle de temps d'intérêt du stockage ([Savage et al., 2002](#); [Soler, 2003](#); [Gaucher et al., 2004](#); [Trotignon et al., 2007](#), par ex.); ces dernières simulations étant toutes réalisées en couplant chimie et transport.

Dans cet ensemble, notre contribution a consisté en des études et recherches couplées chimie/transport de performance des barrières du champ proche du stockage de déchets radioactifs, sur des périodes de temps de 100 000 ans, et de l'analogue anthropique du tunnel de Tournemire, dont le temps caractéristique est la dizaine d'années.

3.2.2 Etude de performances aux échelles du stockage

- **Articles associés**, cfr. CV en annexe : (**type A**) *De Windt et al. (2004a), De Windt et al. (2004b)*; (**type B**) *De Windt et al. (2001), Pellegrini and De Windt (2003)*;
- **Collaboration** : IRSN.

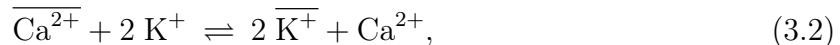
La conception d'un stockage de déchets radioactifs de haute activité et/ou à vie longue dans une formation argileuse profonde devrait mettre en jeu d'importantes quantités de matériaux à base de ciments, composants du champ proche utilisés comme matrice de confinement et barrières ouvragées (cas des déchets B), et comme soutiens mécaniques de scellements d'alvéoles (déchets vitrifiés et combustibles usés) ou de galeries ([Andra\(collectif\), 2005](#)). Les avantages intrinsèques des bétons et matériaux cimentaires (faibles porosité et perméabilité, confinement des radionucléides, résistance mécanique) doivent être mis en balance avec leurs effets potentiellement négatifs de dégradation des performances des autres composants du stockage, en particulier les bentonites, utilisées comme barrières ouvragées autour des conteneurs de colis ou comme scellements, et les argilites constituant la roche hôte. Les effets potentiellement dommageables de la perturbation alcaline quant aux propriétés de confinement des barrières argileuses ont donc été identifiés comme un enjeu majeur à évaluer dans le contexte de la sûreté d'un stockage.

Les interactions ciment/argile sont-elles univoques et bien connues ?

Les recherches sur la perturbation alcaline se sont depuis le début structurée autour de deux axes complémentaires : 1) la physico-chimie des interactions ciment/argile à (très) long terme et 2) la transposition aux concepts de stockage pour des durées (100 000 ans) et des géométries (plurimétriques) réalistes en termes d'ingénierie. En première approximation, trois matériaux prototypes sont considérés dans ce travail orienté sur la perturbation alcaline : ciment CEM-I, bentonite de barrière et roche argileuse indurée (argilite). Les (sur)conteneurs, tubes guides et bouchons en acier, ainsi que les verres nucléaires et le combustible usé n'ont pas été explicitement introduits comme géomatériaux dans les simulations. En conséquence, le couplage potentiel entre la perturbation alcaline et les interactions fer/argile n'a pas été abordé. Dans toutes nos simulations, le ciment est une zone géochimique réactive en soi et n'est pas seulement pris en compte sous forme d'une condition aux limites. Une minéralogie représentative a été prise en compte tant pour les matériaux cimentaires (portlandite, C-S-H, AFm, AFt...) que les matériaux argileux (phases argileuses, carbonates...). Les processus d'échanges cationiques et complexation de surface ont été aussi considérés.

L'incertitude associée aux transformations minéralogiques est particulièrement importante. Une des difficultés majeures dans la modélisation des interactions entre argiles et ciments réside dans la sélection des minéraux susceptibles de se former ou pas. Il existe en effet dans la littérature une relativement large variabilité des minéraux secondaires ([Gaucher and Blanc, 2006](#)), notamment concernant la précipitation de zéolites au fort pouvoir tampon pH. La cinétique de précipitation reste cependant en partie méconnue et, à base tempéra-

ture, pourrait même inhiber la formation de tels minéraux. Autre exemple, la précipitation d'illite et feldspaths au détriment de la montmorillonite, minéraux qui ne présentent pas les mêmes capacités de gonflement et pourraient donc changer les propriétés hydrauliques et mécaniques de l'argile, n'est pas toujours mentionnée bien que les travaux les plus récents semblent converger vers un schéma réactionnel qui inclut la formation de ce type de minéraux. Différents jeux d'hypothèses concernant les phases secondaires, du plus "pénalisant" en termes d'extension de la perturbation alcaline au plus "réaliste" ont été introduits dans les calculs. A titre d'exemple, la [figure 3.2-A](#) montre la sensibilité du calcul de l'extension du panache alcalin vis-à-vis de ces hypothèses. D'intenses transformations minéralogiques se produisent aux interfaces des argiles et ciment ([figure 3.2-B](#)), ces réactions minéralogiques agissant comme un tampon pH au global. L'évolution de la population des ions échangeables ([figure 3.2-C](#)) est également notable



et en compétition parfois avec la minéralogie (cas du K et de l'illitisation par exemple).

La migration du panache alcalin suit-elle les lois classiques de la diffusion ?

Les gradients de charge hydraulique et les perméabilités des composants du stockage étant très faibles, le transfert de masse est essentiellement diffusif en champ proche pour un scénario d'évolution normal. Les matériaux cimentaires sont souvent caractérisés par de très faibles coefficients de diffusion effectifs. Cependant, le vieillissement et le stress thermique sous les conditions du stockage, de même que d'inévitables défauts à l'échelle industrielle, pourraient induire un réseau de fissures connectées et faciliter les transferts diffusifs en leur sein. A l'inverse, la diffusion des anions tels les ions hydroxyles peut être significativement ralentie au sein des matériaux argileux compactés suite aux mécanismes d'exclusion électrostatique induits par les surfaces négativement chargées des particules argileuses ([Appelo et al., 2010](#)). L'exclusion anionique diminue cependant lorsque la force ionique des solutions augmente. A noter que le code HYTEC ne permettait pas à l'époque d'assigner un coefficient de diffusion spécifique à chaque espèce. La prise en compte des incertitudes persistantes fut donc en première approximation traitée par l'intermédiaire de deux séries de paramètres de diffusion dans les calculs.

La circulation préférentielle du panache alcalin au sein des zones mécaniquement et hydrauliquement endommagées a aussi été étudié par l'intermédiaire de simulation HYTEC.

Le colmatage est-il un processus certain à plus ou moins longue échéance ?

HYTEC permet de coupler plus intimement chimie et hydrodynamique en y incluant la rétroaction de la chimie sur les paramètres d'écoulements et de transport et pas seulement sur le champ des concentrations ([Cochebin et al., 2008](#)). L'algorithme repose sur la création d'une boucle itérative de couplage entre chimie et porosité au sein de la boucle de couplage chimie-transport ([Lagneau and van der Lee, 2010b](#)). Le couplage repose sur l'hypothèse que la rétroaction de la chimie sur l'hydrodynamique peut être décrite à l'aide

de la seule variable porosité. HYTEC propose plusieurs lois, dont celle d'Archie relative aux coefficients de diffusion :

$$D_e(\omega) = D_e(\omega_0) \left(\frac{\omega - \omega_c}{\omega_0 - \omega_c} \right)^m, \quad (3.3)$$

où ω_c est une porosité critique (résiduelle) en dessous de laquelle le transport diffusif est arrêté, et α est le coefficient d'Archie (généralement compris entre 1 et 3, des milieux les moins consolidés au plus consolidés).

Le ciment et l'argilite sont des matériaux caractérisés par une très faible porosité. Très probable selon différents modélisateurs, observé dans quelques expériences en laboratoire ou certains analogues naturels, l'effet du colmatage de la porosité due à la précipitation de minéraux secondaires est mal maîtrisé. Sur le long terme, les simulations montrent qu'il pourrait fortement ralentir la propagation du panache alcalin et la migration des radionucléides dans la zone d'argile impactée et ainsi favoriser leur confinement ([Pfingsten, 2002](#)). Dans certains de nos calculs, le colmatage se produit en quelques centaines d'années pour toutes hypothèses minéralogiques du fait de la précipitation localisée de minéraux de volumes molaires élevés (C-S-H et zéolites) et de calcite ([figure 3.2-D](#)). A noter que le temps de colmatage est sensible à la taille des mailles (raffinement) du maillage. L'occlusion de la porosité coté argilite s'accompagne généralement d'une ouverture de la porosité coté ciment. La chute de porosité, et conséutivement du coefficient de diffusion, implique un ralentissement, puis un arrêt quasi total, du transfert de matière entre le ciment et l'argilite. Le processus de rétroaction du colmatage sur la diffusion ne se limite pas qu'à la seule interface ciment/argile, il peut se retrouver dans des interfaces associant les produits de dégradation des aciers et des verres nucléaires ([Bildstein et al., 2007](#)).

L'influence de ce colmatage sur le transport des solutés reste toutefois difficile à appréhender dans le cas d'ouvrages de stockage. Sur le long terme, le colmatage peut favoriser le confinement du panache alcalin et des radionucléides ou du moins ralentir leurs migrations au sein de la barrière géologique. Cet effet favorable doit cependant être nuancé du fait de la faible épaisseur de la zone colmatée, dont la pérennité est sujette à caution compte tenu des rejeux mécaniques probables. De plus, les simulations supposent à la fois une homogénéité de la précipitation des minéraux et un colmatage complet de l'espace poral. Il est possible qu'en réalité le colmatage soit moins localisé et plus imparfait (jeux résiduels, etc). Dans ce cas, l'impact sur le transfert de masse au sein de la formation d'argilite serait nettement moins prononcé dans un milieu déjà naturellement caractérisé par de faibles valeurs de porosité et de coefficients de diffusion.

En conclusion, nos recherches ont montré que quatre mécanismes interdépendants contrôlent la propagation des perturbations alcalines dans l'ensemble du système :

1. diffusion des fluides hyperalcalins des ciments ;
2. fort pouvoir tampon du pH associé à d'importantes transformations minéralogiques localisées ;
3. colmatage éventuel de la porosité induit par les changements minéralogiques ;
4. au delà de cette zone de transformation, régulation du pH essentiellement par des processus secondaires tels que les échanges de protons surfaciques.

Bien qu'une hiérarchisation d'ordre générale des processus contrôlant les interactions ciment-argile présente inévitablement des exceptions, il se dégage des simulations discutées dans cette synthèse un ordre d'influence décroissante : colmatage > tampon minéralogique > valeur des coefficients de diffusion et exclusion anionique > dilution 3D = échange de protons. L'influence de la maturité des ciments, jeune ou mature, ne semblerait pas fondamentalement influencer la minéralogie à long terme, bien que l'illitisation soit favorisée à court terme dans le cas de ciments jeunes chargés en hydroxydes de potassium.

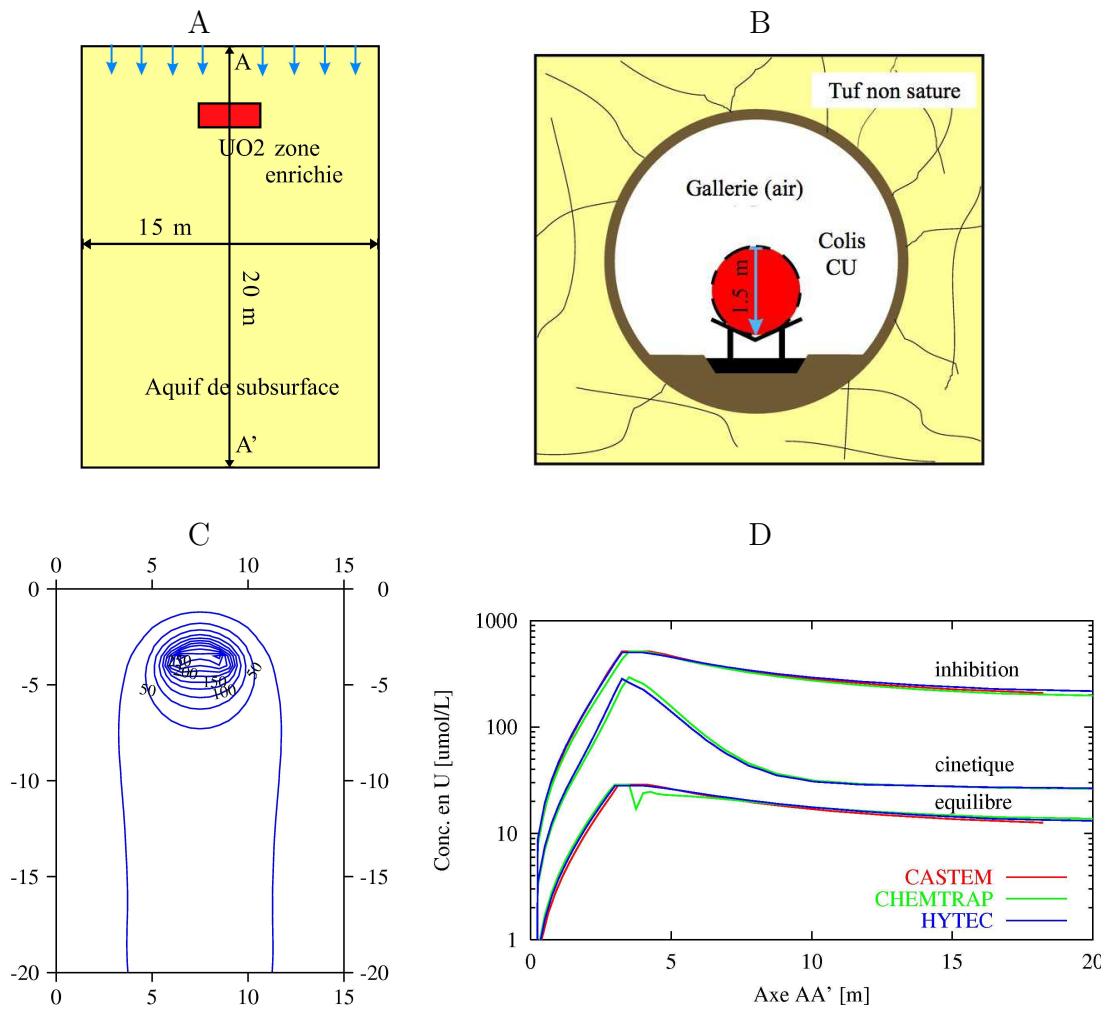


FIGURE 3.1 – A et B : représentation schématique des deux cas d’intercomparaison ; C : concentration en U (umol/L) sous contrôle cinétique et D : comparaison des concentrations en U calculées avec les codes couplés sous différents contrôles cinétiques.

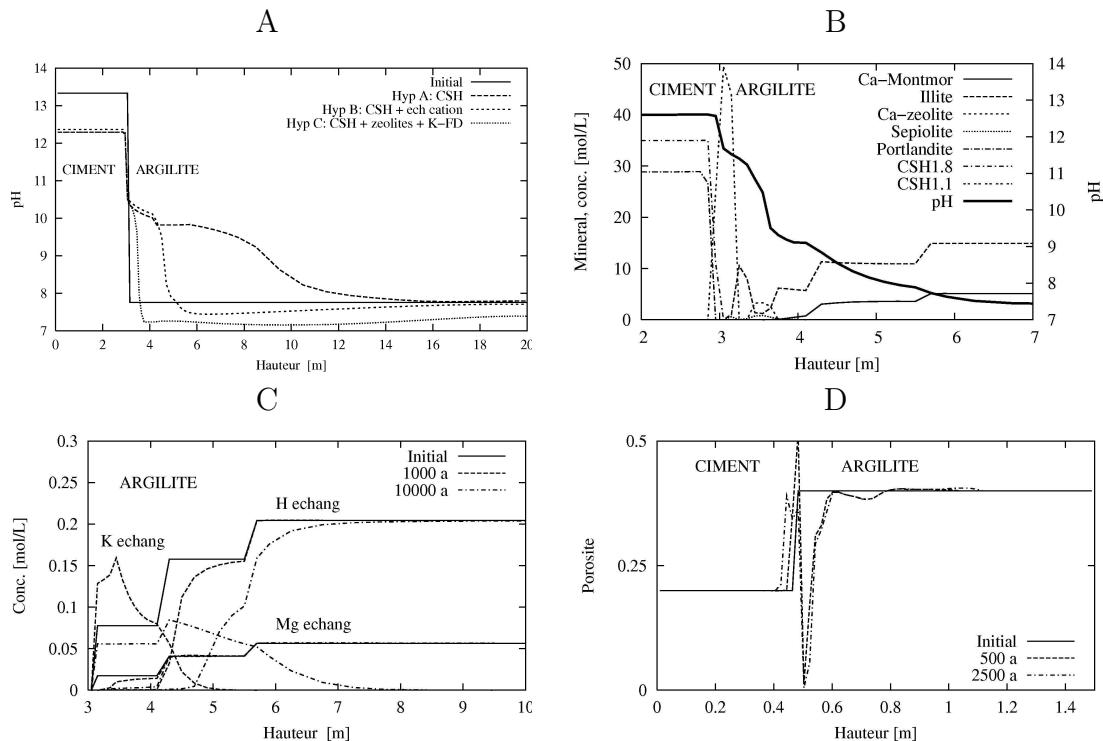


FIGURE 3.2 – A : profils de pH calculés pour les différentes hypothèses minéralogique ; B : évolution de la minéralogie (B) et de la population d’ions échangeables (C) après 10 000 ans ; D : chute de la porosité (colmatage) suite à la précipitation de phases secondaires à l’interface ciment/argile après 500 ans.

3.2.3 L'analogue anthropique de Tournemire

- Articles associés, cfr. CV en annexe : (**type A**) *De Windt et al. (2008)* ;
- Collaboration : IRSN.

Faut-il privilégier une cinétique réactionnelle ou non ?

Certaines incertitudes résiduelles fortes ne pourront être levées que par l’expérience ou les études d’analognes. La station expérimentale de Tournemire présente plusieurs ouvrages traversant l’argilite du Toarcien : un ancien tunnel ferroviaire, des galeries et des forages. Certains de ces ouvrages ont été bétonnés et offrent la possibilité d’étudier les transformations subies *in situ* par l’argilite. L’âge des ouvrages varie de 1 an à plus de 15 ans, ce qui permet l’étude de la perturbation de l’argilite au contact de bétons (Tinseau et al., 2006) pendant une durée supérieure à celle classiquement accessible en laboratoire.

Toutes les simulations de la [sous-section 3.2.2](#) étaient basées sur l’hypothèse de l’équilibre thermodynamique ; la cinétique étant implicitement prise en compte via le découpage en hypothèses minéralogiques, découpage abrupte mais dont le critère sous-jacent est de fait l’inhibition cinétique. Cette approche a ses atouts et ses limites (Berner, 1998; Lothenbach et al., 2010), mais elle se justifie par la durée considérée, le gradient géochimique important prévalant entre ciment et argilite, des rapports roche/eau très élevés, correspondant à de grandes surfaces réactives. De plus, les données cinétiques sont par essence dépendantes du chemin réactionnel et de l’état initial du système contrairement à la stricte thermodynamique, et il n’existe pas de bases de données cinétiques “universelles” comparables aux bases thermodynamiques. Des auteurs ont par contre appliqué le formalisme cinétique en condition de temps et d’hydrodynamique du stockage. Les premiers y associent aussi une démarche de sensibilité aux hypothèses, essentiellement par manque de données ou de fortes incertitudes sur l’applicabilité de celles-ci à leur propre étude. Un tamponnage moins efficace du panache alcalin et une intrusion à plus longues distances de celui-ci pourraient résulter d’un contrôle cinétique des réactions.

HYTEC a permis de modéliser les évolutions minéralogiques du béton de type CEM-II (béton à granulats calcaires) et de l’argilite de Tournemire, tant la matrice saine que le long de fissures centimétriques ([figure 3.3-A](#)) ; une formulation cinétique similaire à celle de l'[équation 2.3](#) de la section [sous-section 2.2.1](#) ayant été retenue. Les calculs ont montré que seule la simulation par contrôle cinétique permet de reproduire les transformations minéralogiques induites par le panache alcalin ([figure 3.3-B](#)), au contraire des simulations à l’équilibre thermodynamique. Le principal effet sur la minéralogie est d’une part de lisser et délocaliser plus en aval les zones de fronts minéralogiques, et d’autres part de modifier les paragénèses secondaires. Citons par exemple la formation de muscovite au dépend des feldspaths potassiques ([figure 3.4-A](#)), ou la quasi inhibition de la précipitation de zéolites tels que la laumontite ([figure 3.4-B](#)). L’approche cinétique minimise aussi l’effet rétroactif du colmatage sur la diffusion. La séquence minéralogique simulée du béton vers l’argilite est : C-S-H/ettringite/carbonate à l’interface béton/argile, suivi par une zone de néoforma-

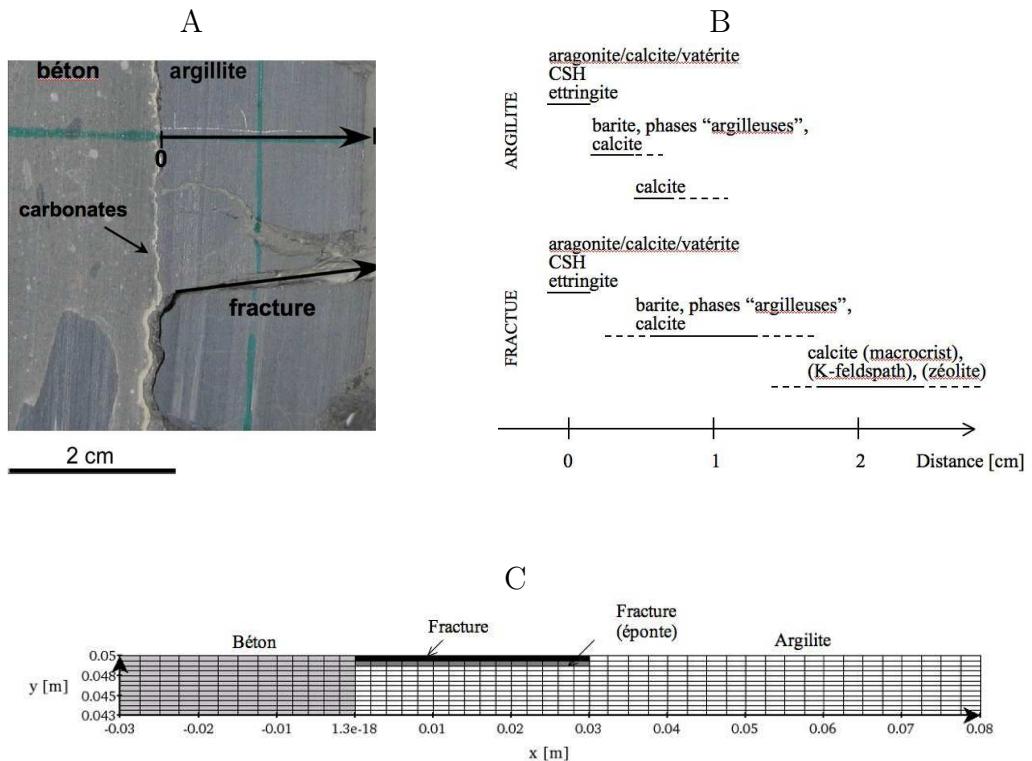


FIGURE 3.3 – A : photographie de l'interface béton/argilite du tunnel de Tournemire ; B représentation schématique de la nature et de la localisation des phases secondaires observées dans la matrice et la fracture ; C : maillage des simulations HYTEC.

tion de phyllosilicates (chlorite, muscovite) et de calcite. Cette figure d'altération en zones contenant des transformations minéralogiques différentes conforte le type d'altération « par front » obtenu en modélisation sur le très long terme. Enfin, l'application de la règle cinétique d'Ostwald permet d'expliquer la précipitation de vatérite métastable au dépend de la calcite à l'interface béton/argile.

L'analogue de Tournemire et cette modélisation ont été retenus comme cas de référence pour un cas de référence international d'intercomparaison (2011-2012) de calculs couplés chimie/transport appliqués à la durabilité des interfaces ciment/argile.

Le savoir-faire acquis sur la modélisation de la physico-chimie des interactions entre matériaux argileux et cimentaires a été transposé aux concepts de stockage des trois grands types de déchets (B, C et CU). D'autres questions que celles discutées dans ce document, le plus souvent techniques, ont ainsi été débattues :

- Quelle est l'extension du panache alcalin pour une alvéole de déchets C, les colis vitrifiés sont-ils atteints ?
- Un panache alcalin local peut-il altérer la fonction hydraulique des scellements de galerie, notamment les clés d'ancrage des bouchons des galeries principales ?
- Y a-t-il un effet de masse/d'échelle induit par les ouvrages cimentaires de très grandes

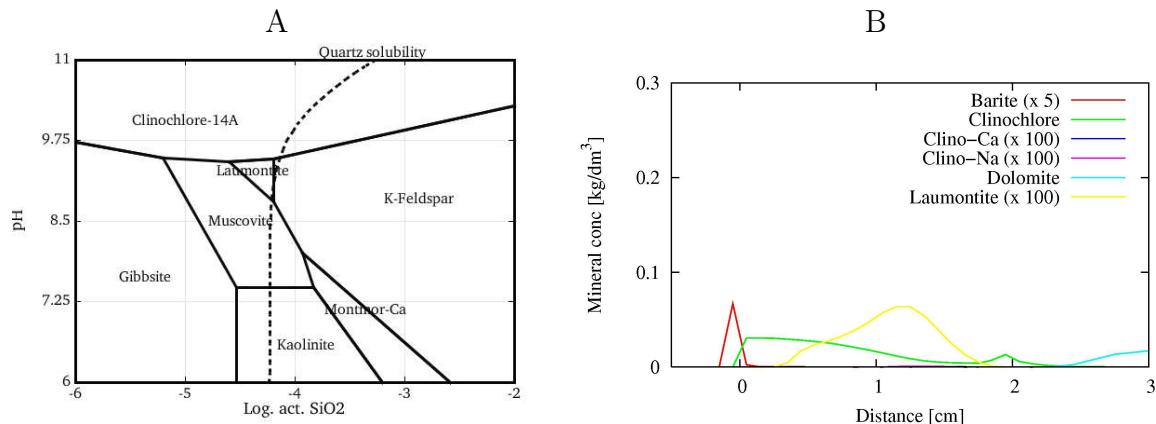


FIGURE 3.4 – A : diagramme de stabilité simplifié calculé avec CHESS à 15 °C (act Al = 10^{-5} , act Ca = 5×10^{-2} , act K : 10^{-4}) ; B : évolution de la minéralogie calculée après 15 ans sous contrôle cinétique (matrice d'argilite).

dimensions (déchets B) ?

- La zone EDZ est-elle un vecteur préférentiel du panache alcalin ?
- La question de l'influence du panache alcalin sur les valeurs de Kd et limite de solubilité est discutée à la section [sous-section 3.4.2](#).

3.3 (Bio)altération des matériaux cimentaires au laboratoire

3.3.1 Une approche numérique des tests de lixiviation

- **Articles associés**, *cfr. CV en annexe* : (**type A**) *De Windt et al. (2007a)*; (**type B**) *Aouad et al. (2010)*;
- **Collaborations** : *école des mines de Douai, INERIS*.

Le principe des essais de lixiviation statique ou batch est la mise en contact d'une quantité de solide avec un volume de solution lixivante (neutre, acide, basique, aqueuse, organique...) dans un récipient fermé vis à vis de l'atmosphère sous agitation ([figure 3.5-A](#)). Ce type d'essai est largement utilisé comme essai de conformité notamment du fait de sa simplicité de mise en oeuvre et de sa rapidité. La solution est filtrée et analysée, les résultats étant ensuite comparés aux seuils réglementaires. On peut citer le test normalisé de capacité de neutralisation acido-basique (CNA) qui permet aussi d'étudier l'influence du pH sur la solubilisation des espèces chimiques, et le test normalisé de détermination des fractions maximales mobilisables (FMM). Les conditions de lixiviation étant généralement assez éloignées des conditions de lixiviation en site réel, ces essais en batch relèvent plutôt de la caractérisation du matériau.

D'autres essais dit essais comportementaux et visant à se rapprocher de conditions réelles ont donc été élaborés. Parmi ceux-ci, on peut citer les colonnes de percolation ([Guyonnet et al., 2008](#)), les dispositifs de carbonatation accélérée, ou encore le dispositif dit de Soxhlet modifié, utilisé pour la présente recherche ([figure 3.5-B](#)). Ces essais présentent, par rapport aux essais statiques, l'avantage de pouvoir suivre l'évolution de la mobilisation élémentaire en fonction du temps ou de la quantité de solution lixivante mise en contact (rapport L/S fréquemment utilisé). Ces tests permettent de dériver divers paramètres intrinsèques tels que des valeurs de coefficients de diffusion. Tout comme les essais statiques, les conditions mises en oeuvre lors de ces essais dynamiques peuvent être différentes de celles rencontrées dans les scénario réels de valorisation, ce qui rend le transfert d'échelle peu aisé.

Le comportement d'un géomatériaux soumis à un test de lixiviation donné, et sa modélisation, dépendent à la fois des propriétés intrinsèques du matériau et des conditions pratiques du test, tels le pH ou le débit de renouvellement de la solution lixivante, la présence ou l'absence d'agitation, etc. Une certaine diversité des résultats, exprimés par exemple en termes de profondeur ou de cinétique d'altération, découle ainsi de la diversité des modes opératoires. Dans ce contexte, une simulation numérique couplée chimie-transport reproduisant le plus fidèlement possible les conditions opératoires peut permettre de transposer les données expérimentales d'une expérience à l'autre, ou d'en retirer les paramètres intrinsèques du matériau.

Les modélisations HYTEC se basent généralement sur des maillages 2D en géométrie cylindrique décrivant la zone du réacteur proprement dite, le mécanisme d'injection de la solution lixivante étant simulée par l'intermédiaire de conditions aux limites du maillage variables dans le temps. Le processus d'homogénéisation par agitation peut s'approcher en fixant des coefficients de diffusion élevés dans la zone décrivant la solution en périphérie du géomatériaux. Il est ainsi possible de reproduire des données expérimentales comme la masse cumulée des majeurs et des polluants en sortie de réacteur, le pH de la solution en régime transitoire ou stationnaire, la profondeur de monolithe altérée, l'évolution de la minéralogie, etc. Ce type de modélisation avec variation des conditions de lixiviation n'a que peu été étudié dans la littérature scientifique et technique ([Halim et al., 2005](#); [Tiruta-Barna et al., 2005](#); [Martens et al., 2010](#), par ex.). Des recherches sur la durabilité des bétons, hors du contexte déchets, relèvent d'une démarche similaire mais plus centrée sur les profils d'altérations minéralogiques ([Mainguy et al., 2000](#); [Moranville et al., 2004](#); [Stora et al., 2009](#), par ex.).

Une telle approche fut appliquée à la modélisation de la lixiviation dynamique d'un déchet monolithique stabilisé au ciment et contenant du Pb à hauteur de 1 % en masse. Les différentes phases solides constitutives de la pâte de ciment ont des propriétés de confinement chimiques des métaux complémentaires ([Atkins and Glasser, 1992](#)). Par exemple, les C-S-H immobilisent plus spécifiquement des métaux lourds divalents tels que le Pb ([Rose et al., 2000](#); [Badreddine et al., 2004](#); [Cornelis et al., 2008](#)). Le modèle géochimique du déchet basé sur les données de compositions chimique et minéralogique a d'abord été validé sur des tests statiques CNA et FMM ([figure 3.6-A-B](#)). Le modèle s'est avéré reproduire de manière très satisfaisante un grand nombre de données expérimentales. Un point clef pour une simulation précise du mécanisme d'altération fut de prendre en compte l'effet

de l'altération minéralogique ([figure 3.6-C](#)) sur la porosité et le coefficient de diffusion des zones altérées du monolithe. Par ailleurs, l'effet du raffinement du maillage sur l'accord expérience/modèle a été analysé en détail dans cette recherche de caractère générique ; en accord sur de nombreux points avec l'étude de [Marty et al. \(2009\)](#) réalisée indépendamment. Enfin, au-delà de l'aspect strictement scientifique, des données opérationnelles tel le calcul de flux d'éléments relâché ([figure 3.6-D](#)) peuvent être quantitativement déduits de telles simulations couplées.

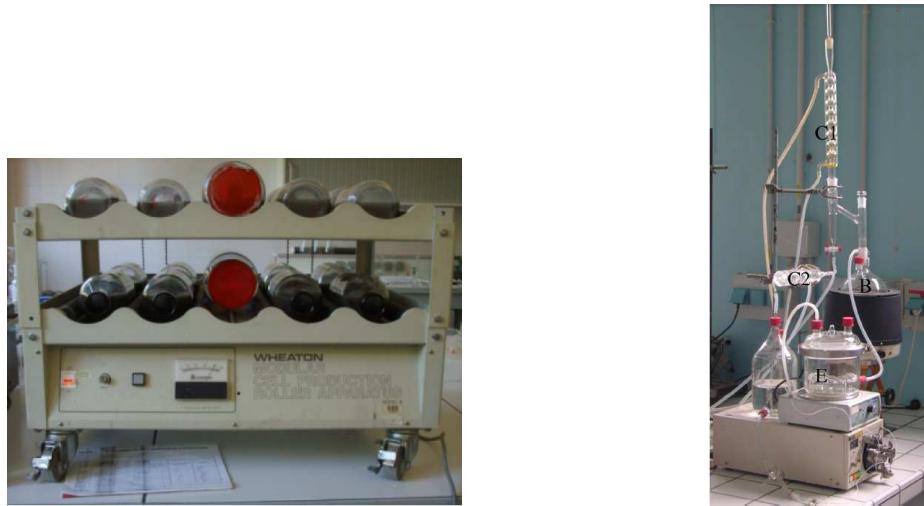


FIGURE 3.5 – Photographie des dispositifs de lixiviation en tests statique (batch) et dynamique en système fermé (d'après R. Badreddine, INERIS).

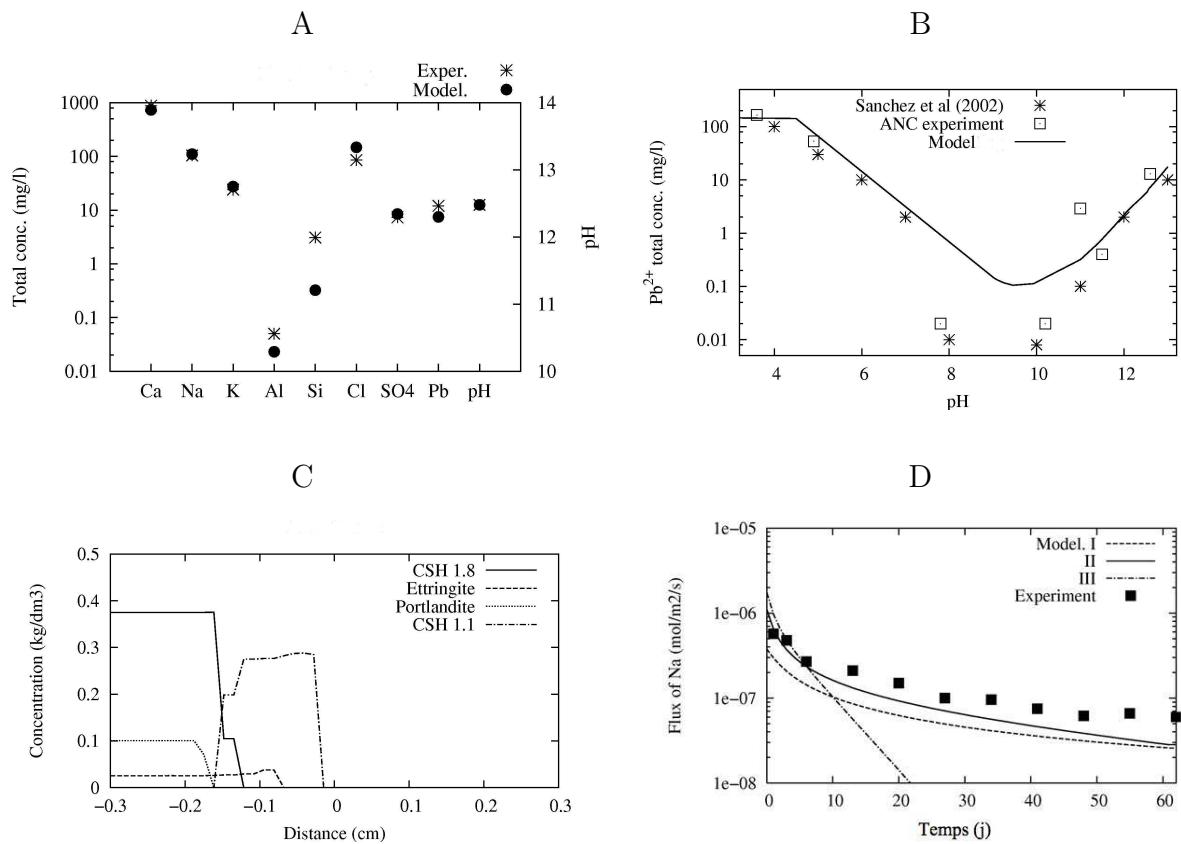


FIGURE 3.6 – A : chimie de la solution du test statique FMM ; B : solubilité du Pb en fonction du pH en test statique CNA ; C : calcul de l’altération minéralogique (coupe 1D) et D : étude de sensibilité du calcul de flux instantané en Na en fonction du coefficient de diffusion.

3.3.2 Les acides biogéniques comme agents de dégradation

- **Articles associés**, cfr. CV en annexe : (**type A**) *De Windt and Devillers (2010)* ;
(**type B**) *De Windt and Devillers (2009c)* ;
- **Collaborations** : école des mines d’Alès.

L’altération chimique des pâtes de ciment et des bétons résulte du transport d’espèces dissoutes (sulfates, . . .) ou gazeuses (CO₂, . . .) agressives depuis l’environnement, de la dissolution des phases solides constitutives et de la formation de produits d’altération (Beddoe and Dorner, 2005) ; ce qui modifie les propriétés mécaniques et de confinement. Ainsi, la mise en solution d’acides organiques par le métabolisme microbien (bactéries, champignons, etc.) accélère généralement l’altération par hydrolyse acide et complexation. Les bases conjuguées des acides organiques sont en effet majoritaires aux pH supérieurs à 7, et peuvent de ce fait complexer les ions des éléments Al et Ca en solution (des ciments entre autres). Au contraire, un effet protecteur de précipitation des sels organiques en surface des pâtes de ciment, tout spécialement l’oxalate de Ca, est parfois observé (Bertron et al., 2005).

La modélisation couplée chimie/transport est un outil intéressant pour estimer la performance à long terme des matériaux à base de ciment lorsqu’ils sont soumis à la biodégradation. La disponibilité de données thermodynamiques (pKa, constantes de complexation des métaux) a permis une modélisation couplée chimie-transport d’un test de biolixiviation induite par le champignon *Aspergillus niger*; le test ayant été appliqué à des pâtes de ciment de type CEM-I durant 15 mois sous conditions aérées (Lajili et al., 2008). Les champignons peuvent aussi avoir une action physique et/ou chimique défavorable sur la durabilité des bétons (Gu et al., 1998). La production d’hyphes mycéliens par les champignons ne fut pas observée ; ce qui implique que l’altération de la matrice cimentaire était pilotée par les attaques chimiques et non par des perturbations d’ordre mécanique. Il est à noter cependant que la modélisation de l’activité métabolique proprement dite échappe dans une très grande mesure aux codes couplés chimie/transport, et la production des différents acides organiques dans le temps fut donc ajustée avec HYTEC sur les données expérimentales.

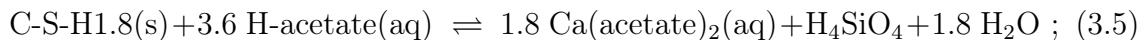
La figure 3.7-A montre que la complexation de Al par les ligands organiques semble prédominer dans la gamme de pH 0 - 10, mais que le complexe hydroxyle Al(OH)₄ est le plus stable sous conditions fortement alcalines. Ceci signifie que la complexation organique est principalement active dans les zones altérées de la pâte de ciment, aux pH plus bas, et joue sur la stabilité des phases secondaires. La modélisation HYTEC a montré que les acides organiques d’origine biologique (acides acétique, butyrique, lactique et oxalique) accélèrent fortement la dissolution des phases cimentaires par hydrolyse acide tandis que les réactions de complexation par ces acides impactent plus spécialement la stabilité des gels secondaires d’aluminium. Le couplage entre l’altération biochimique, la minéralogie, la porosité et la diffusion s’est avéré être un processus incontournable de la modélisation. La simulation de la lixiviation du Ca, du pH du bioréacteur et de l’épaisseur de dégradation des pâtes de ciment est améliorée de manière cohérente (figure 3.8-AB) lorsqu’on tient compte de l’augmentation de la diffusivité dans les zones dégradées (ici via la loi empirique d’Archie).

Il est possible avec les outils de simulation de type HYTEC de calculer l'évolution minéralogique et de se recaler avec les données expérimentales que sont les distributions en profil des teneurs des oxydes (figure 3.8-CD). Trois fronts minéralogiques ont été calculés, qui s'accordent relativement bien avec les observations expérimentales, soit de l'intérieur vers l'interface solution/ciment :

1. un front de dissolution de la portlandite talonné par la décalcification du C-S-H 1.8



2. la formation de C-S-H de plus bas ratio Ca/Si et la dissolution d'ettringite avec formation de gypse et de calcite



3. une zone de gel de Al et Si ;
4. et enfin, la précipitation d'oxalate de calcium, prédict par le modèle mais non observée dans la présente expérience de bioaltération.

La précipitation en profondeur de calcite, et non en périphérie, est également en bon accord avec les observations.

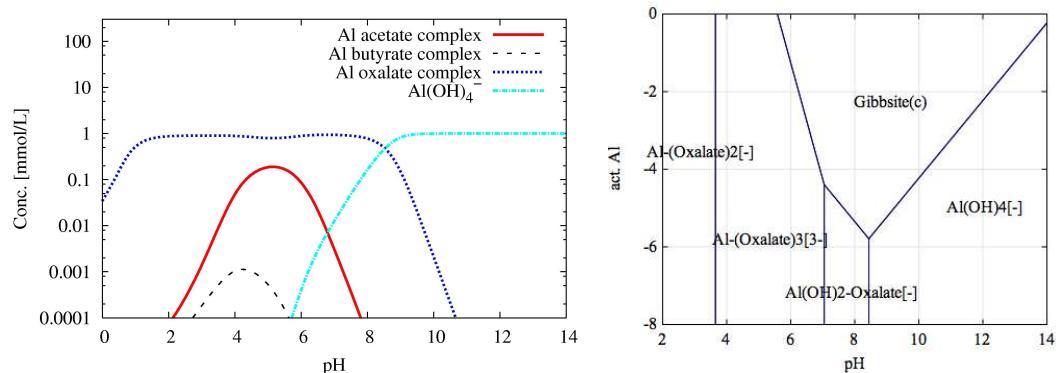


FIGURE 3.7 – A : dépendance en pH de la complexation de Al par les acides organiques et **B** diagramme de solubilité de Al en prenant en compte l'acide oxalique. Les deux graphes ont été calculés avec CHESS à 25 °C pour des concentrations représentatives du test de bioaltération.

3.4 Transfert de polluants en stockage, un système couplé

3.4.1 Intégration du terme source aux modèles d'évolution du champ proche

- Articles associés, cfr. CV en annexe : (**type A**) De Windt et al. (2006), Frugier et al. (2008) ; (**type B**) De Windt et al. (2004c), De Windt et al. (2006) ;

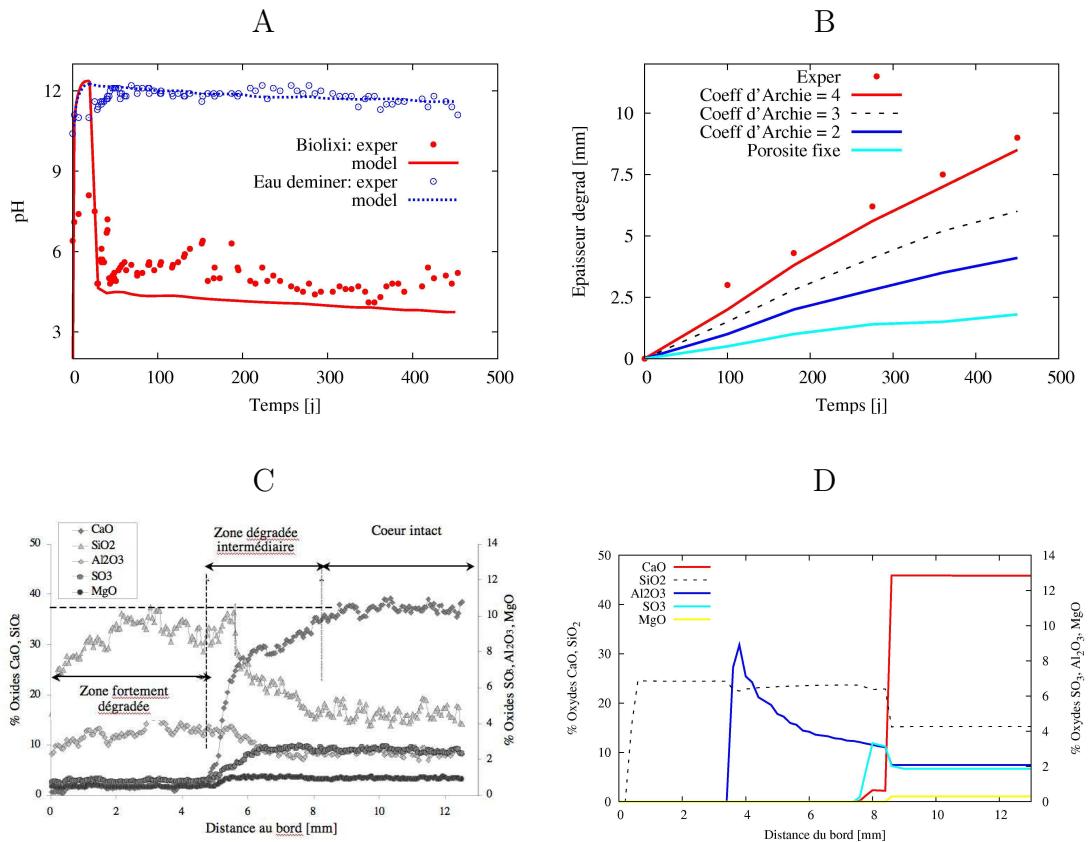
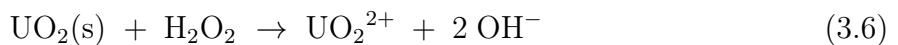


FIGURE 3.8 – A : évolution du pH dans le bioréacteur (eau déminéralisée comme référence), B : effet du coefficient d'Archie sur le calcul de la profondeur dégradée ; C et D : distributions expérimentale et calculée des éléments chimiques de la pâte de ciment après 450 jours de biolixivation.

– Collaborations : CEA, EdF.

La modélisation des termes-sources (verres nucléaires, oxydes d'uranium, résidus miniers, stockages multi-produits...) et des cinétiques de vieillissement visant à décrire la libération des polluants est généralement un élément central dans une étude d'impact environnemental (Toulhoat, 2002). Ce terme source dépend de phénomènes thermiques, hydrologiques, mécaniques, chimiques, radiologiques et biologiques mais, au premier ordre, le couplage des phénomènes chimiques et hydrauliques est le point clef pour la prédiction du terme source.

En particulier, un modèle physico-chimique d'altération des pastilles de combustibles nucléaires usés (CU) a été intégré à une modélisation HYTEC du champ proche d'une alvéole de stockage de CU. Le modèle permet le passage d'une dissolution oxydative des pastilles CU induite par la radiolyse de type α de l'eau (assimilée à une cinétique de production de peroxyde d'hydrogène),



surtout active durant les dix premiers milliers d'années, à une dissolution contrôlée par le milieu réducteur environnant à très long terme. Un modèle d'évolution de surface typique des matériaux frittés ([figure 3.9-A](#)) a aussi été testé afin de mieux décrire les augmentations de surface après désolidarisation des grains d'oxydes d'une pastille.

Les calculs ont montré la possibilité d'une micro zone oxydante à proximité des pastilles générant la précipitation de schoepite en surface des pastilles. La cinétique de production radiolytique α de H_2O_2 peut être inhibée par la formation de cette couche de schoepite, ce qui a été simulé selon l'équation empirique suivante :

$$\frac{d[\text{H}_2\text{O}_2(\text{aq})]}{dt} = k(t) S_{cu} \left(\frac{A^p}{[\text{schoepite}]^p + A^p} \right), \quad (3.7)$$

où S_{cu} est la surface réactive de CU, les paramètres A et p sont choisis de manière à ce que l'inhibition devienne effective à partir d'un seuil d'altération des pastilles de 15 % en masse. Par ailleurs, la corrosion anoxique des aciers des conteneurs de CU conduit à la formation et la diffusion de Fe^{2+} et $\text{H}_2(\text{aq})$, espèces dissoutes qui peuvent également avoir un effet inhibiteur sur la dissolution radiolytique des pastilles de CU ([figure 3.9-B](#)).

La décroissance et filiation radioactives ne procèdent pas de réactions chimiques proprement dites mais de désintégrations nucléaires (des noyaux atomiques). Néanmoins, ces réactions s'apparentent formellement à des réactions d'ordre cinétique et sont gérées par HYTEC :

$$\frac{dc_i}{dt} = -c_i \sum_j p_{i,j}(t) \lambda_{i,j}, \quad \frac{d\bar{c}_i}{dt} = -\bar{c}_i \sum_j p_{i,j}(t) \lambda_{i,j} \quad (3.8)$$

où $p_{i,j}(t)$ et $\lambda_{i,j}$ représentent les proportions relatives et la constante de décroissance (pouvant être nulle pour un isotope stable) de l'isotope j de l'élément chimique i .

Comme l'indiquent les simulations HYTEC, du fait de l'altération progressive des pastilles de CU, une part des ions uranyl diffuse dans le champ proche où ces ions sont réduits et précipitent sous forme d'uraninite ([figure 3.9-C](#)). Dans le modèle, le relâchement des radionucléides (Am, Cs et I) est intimement couplé à l'altération, plus ou moins active selon les scénarios, des pastilles de CU ; la décroissance radioactive des radionucléides étant prise en compte. Les termes sources du Cs et I comprennent une fraction relâchée instantanée aux joints des grains du fritté de UO_2 ([Johnson et al., 2005](#)) et une fraction relâchée de manière congruente à la dissolution de la matrice UO_2 des grains ([Poinssot et al., 2005](#)). La migration du Cs est traduite en terme de profil de concentration mais aussi de flux d'activité en Bq ([figure 3.9-D](#)), information quantitative directement d'intérêt pour les codes d'études de sûreté.

Une démarche similaire a été appliquée à l'évolution des colis de déchets vitrifiés et du relâchement de radionucléides dans le champ proche d'une alvéole de stockage de déchets vitrifiés C. Un accent particulier a été mis sur les mécanismes d'interactions verre/acier corrodé et verre/argile sur base des modèles opérationnels sur les verres de type R7T7. Des calculs de sensibilité ont permis de discriminer les effets des mécanismes de diffusion et de sorption au sein des produits de corrosion (magnétite), ainsi que de précipitation de silice sur la dissolution du verre.

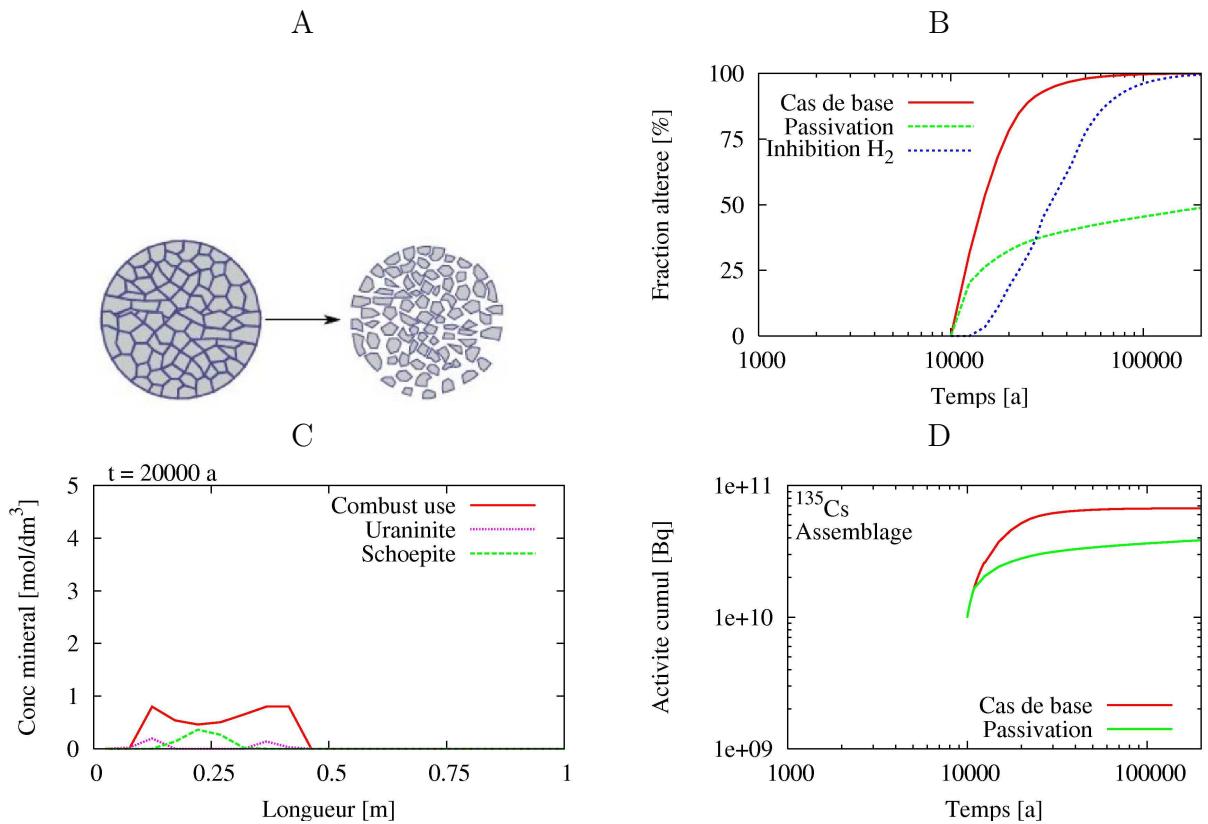


FIGURE 3.9 – A : loi/schéma d'évolution de surface HYTEC pour les matériaux frittés (pastilles de CU dans le cas présent ; B : effet de la passivation par précipitation de schoepite et d'inhibition par H₂ sur la dissolution radiolytique des pastilles de combustibles usés ; C : profils minéralogiques calculés avec les processus d'inhibition ; D : activité cumulée de Cs relargué hors des assemblages et ayant traversé la barrière ouvragée.

3.4.2 Migration de radionucléides couplée aux interactions entre ciment et argile

- Articles associés, *cfr. CV en annexe : (type A) De Windt et al. (2004b)* ;
- Collaboration : IRSN.

L'évaluation du transport de radionucléides et de toxiques chimiques dans les composants d'un stockage, qui constitue une des étapes de l'évaluation de sûreté de ce type d'installation, requiert la prise en compte du comportement chimique de ces solutés. Celui-ci est fortement simplifié dans les modélisations de transport intégrées des études de sûreté et approché par la limite de solubilité (LS)

$$c_i \leq LS \quad (3.9)$$

et le coefficient de distribution (Kd)

$$Kd_i = \frac{F(c_i)}{c_i} = \frac{\omega}{(1 - \omega)\rho_s} \frac{\bar{c}_i}{c_i} \quad (3.10)$$

des éléments chimiques (radionucléides ou toxiques chimiques). La valeur de ces paramètres dépend notamment des conditions physico-chimiques du milieu et doit donc être estimée en tenant compte des évolutions possibles des composants.

Dans la droite ligne de la [sous-section 3.2.1](#) dédiée aux interactions ciment/argile, une des questions qui a été étudiée par la modélisation couplée était la suivante :

Le panache alcalin diminue-t-il les propriétés de confinement chimiques des composants ?

Parmi les minéraux primaires du ciment et de l'argilite, et ceux qui peuvent potentiellement se former au cours du temps, quatre espèces ont été retenues comme susceptibles de sorber les radionucléides : clinoptilolite (une zéolite), C-S-H, illite et montmorillonite. Ce choix est un compromis entre un rôle majeur bien identifié vis-à-vis de la rétention, du fait de leur abondance ou de leurs propriétés intrinsèques, et la disponibilité des données dans la littérature.

Les valeurs de LS et Kd, évoluant au cours des interactions ciment/argile, ont été calculées avec HYTEC pour Cs, Ra, Tc et U. A titre d'exemple, la [figure 3.10-A](#) donne une idée de l'évolution de la LS du Tc induite par la perturbation alcaline. En conséquence de l'évolution du système, la LS de Tc contrôlée par la phase solide $TcO_2 \cdot 1.6H_2O$ diminue dans le ciment avec la baisse de pH mais augmente dans l'EDZ de l'argilite du fait de l'élévation de ce paramètre. Les calculs ont aussi montré que le Kd du Cs fluctue d'un ordre de grandeur ([figure 3.10-B](#)), favorablement ou défavorablement d'un point de vue sûreté. Le bilan des interactions ciment/argile n'est donc pas si défavorable que anticipé car la destruction des minéraux primaires conduit à la précipitation de solides secondaires, solides caractérisés également par des propriétés de rétention (C-S-H, illite et éventuellement zéolites).

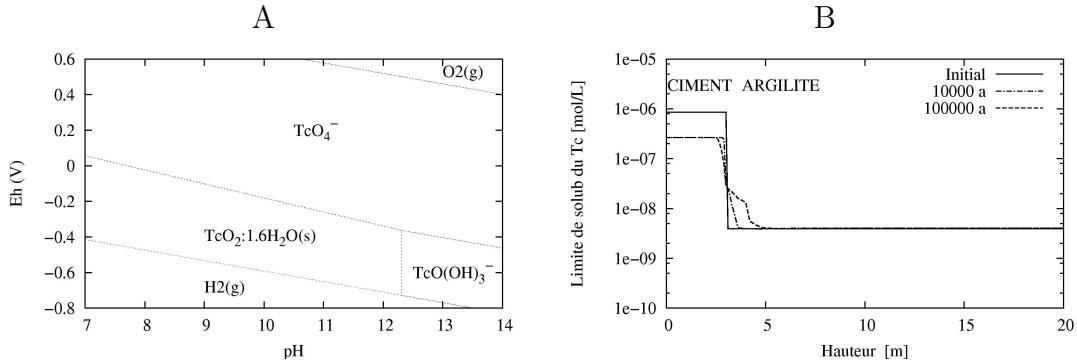


FIGURE 3.10 – *A* : diagramme de Pourbaix du Tc calculé avec CHESS (act = 10^{-7} ; *B* : calcul de la limite de solubilité en tenant compte des interactions chimiques entre le ciment et l'argilite.

3.4.3 Effet de la fracturation sur le confinement des déchets stabilisés

- Articles associés, *cfr. CV en annexe : (type A)* De Windt *et al.* (2007b) ;
- Collaboration : INERIS.

La migration éventuelle de polluants dans une mise en décharge en centre d'enfouissement de classe 1 des monolithes, comme préconisé par la directive européenne 31 du 26 avril 1999, a été investiguée dans ce travail. Ces centres d'enfouissement étant des systèmes complexes, une configuration réaliste mais simplifiée a donc été privilégiée. Il s'agit d'une décharge contenant une couverture altérée permettant l'infiltration des eaux de pluie. Cette décharge comprend des monolithes de déchets solidifiés/stabilisés aux liants hydrauliques, un système de drainage gravitaire, une barrière argileuse normalisée et un aquifère sous-jacent d'écoulement lent.

Un certain degré de fissuration du matériau peut être induit par le vieillissement thermique. Des observations réalisées sur des monolithes stockés depuis une dizaine d'années en décharge ont montré un état de fissuration important (Yvon *et al.*, 2006). L'origine de cette fissuration découle en partie, selon ces auteurs, de la montée en température. Trois cas de référence ont donc été comparés : test-A) des monolithes sans fissure aucune, test-B) des monolithes parcourus de quelques fractures importante d'extension métrique, et enfin test-C) des monolithes présentant une fissuration généralisée. Ces différents états ont été associés à des paramètres hydrodynamiques de plus en plus dégradés. Dans le dernier cas, une représentation en double porosité du milieu poreux a été retenue pour les simulations HYTEC :

$$\frac{\partial \omega^f c^f}{\partial t} = \nabla \cdot (D_d^f \nabla c^f - c^f U^f) + \frac{8D_e^m}{L^2} (c^f - c^m) \quad (3.11)$$

$$\frac{\partial \omega^m c^m}{\partial t} = - \frac{8D_e^m}{L^2} (c^f - c^m) \quad (3.12)$$

En pratique, un modèle physico-chimique élaboré sur la base des essais de lixiviation dynamique a servi de terme source pour une simulation de transfert de polluants (panache alcalin, Cl, SO₄, Pb) au niveau de la décharge sur une durée de 100 à 10 000 ans selon les cas. Sans fissuration, les blocs monolithiques forment une barrière physique très efficace à l'infiltration. Les macrofractures permettent une circulation canalisée au cœur des déchets et augmentent un peu le débit au niveau du drain de collecte principal. Le régime hydraulique est par contre significativement dopé si la pluie peut percoler depuis toute la surface de la couverture du fait d'une fissuration globalisée. La quantité de portlandite, Ca(OH)₂, constituant les déchets stabilisés est très élevée et n'est que très peu réduite par la percolation des eaux de pluie ; ce qui explique que le pH reste élevé même avec un degré de fissuration important. La chute de pH est donc principalement induite par la migration des ions alcalins et de leurs contre-ions hydroxyle (Na-K-OH). Cependant, la fracturation peut favoriser la diffusion de gaz carbonique dans le milieu, ce qui induit une baisse de pH et la précipitation de carbonates secondaires dans les macro-fractures et/ou en périphérie du drain.

La mobilité de Pb, le polluant témoin dans notre contexte, est clairement fonction du couplage du régime hydrodynamique et des variations de la chimie. Les teneurs cumulées collectées au niveau du point bas du système de drainage sont fournies à la [figure 3.11-A](#). Dans le cas du scénario le plus défavorable de fissuration généralisée, un plafonnement est noté sans correspondre cependant à un épuisement (moins de 0.1 % du stock total en Pb est relargué après 100 ans) contrairement aux éléments facilement mobilisables comme Na. La diminution du pH dans les eaux interstitielles des monolithes et macro-fractures implique en effet une diminution de la teneur interstitielle en Pb, et donc une décroissance d'origine chimique de la masse relarguée au cours du temps ([figure 3.11-B](#)).

Les investigations récentes de site par prélèvement de carottes au sein de décharges de déchets monolithiques en France (projet PASSIFY) et aux Pays-Bas (étude ECN en cours) n'ont pas confirmé la présence de fractures et fissures, y compris sur des échantillons mis en place il y a plus de 10 ans. Ce serait donc le scénario de type A qui serait le plus représentatif, du moins à moyen terme.

3.5 Valorisation de MIOM en sous-couches routières, dix ans de site pilote

La norme européenne ENV 12 920 (1997) propose une méthodologie en plusieurs étapes d'évaluation d'impact environnemental qui s'applique à n'importe quel type de déchet inorganique dans l'objectif de sa valorisation comme matériau : 1) définition et caractérisation du déchet, 2) description du scénario de valorisation, 3) recherche des mécanismes d'altération, 4) modélisation du comportement et 5) validation expérimentale sur site. Le modèle défini dans l'étape 4 doit subir une démarche de validation « en conditions réelles d'exposition », les plus proches possible du scénario visé car il est très difficile de reproduire ou de simuler ces conditions à l'échelle du laboratoire. Cette démarche de validation se base donc sur des tests à plus grandes échelles (typiquement une route pilote).

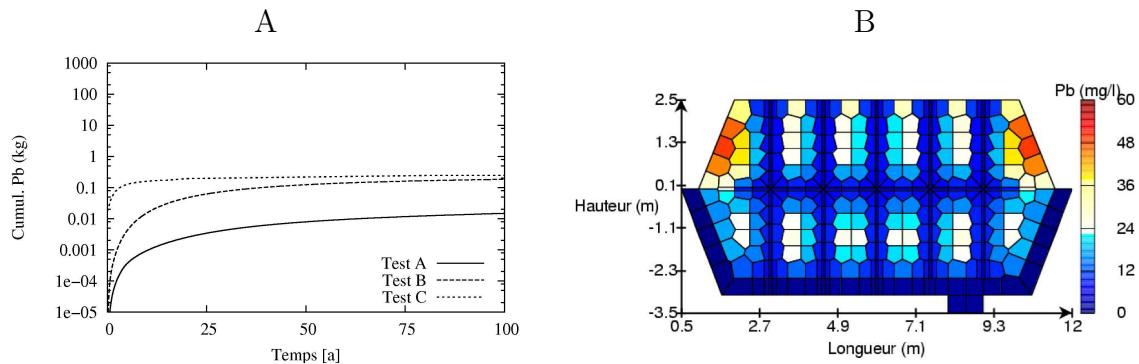


FIGURE 3.11 – *A* : masse cumulée en Pb relarguée au niveau du collecteur calculée pour les différents scénarios ; *B* : distribution spatiale de la concentration en Pb dissous dans le scénario avec macro-fractures.

3.5.1 Cinétique d'hydrolyse des sous-produits d'incinération et d'aciérie

- Articles associés, cfr. CV en annexe : (**type A**) *De Windt et al. (2011a)* ;
- Collaborations : CNRS-CEREGE ;
- Thèse : co-encadrement de la thèse de *P. Chaurand (2003-2006)*.

La valorisation en génie routier des laitiers d'aciérie de conversion (LAC) relève typiquement de cette démarche. Le laitier LAC est coulé en fosse et refroidi dans un parc de stockage. Il forme ainsi une roche artificielle, qui est concassée et criblée (classée suivant la granulométrie) pour produire des granulats pouvant être recyclés en sous-couches routière. Si l'évaluation des propriétés mécaniques des laitiers LAC a fait l'objet de nombreuses recherches dans ce contexte, les risques environnementaux sur le long terme sont encore peu connus. D'autres types de déchets solides de la métallurgie, comme les phases vitreuses obtenues dans la métallurgie du Pb ([Seignez et al., 2007](#)), sont à l'étude dans la même perspective.

Les travaux expérimentaux de [Chaurand et al. \(2007\)](#) ont permis de quantifier et d'expliquer le comportement à la lixiviation du laitier LAC, c'est-à-dire son altération lors du contact avec l'eau (hydrolyse) et le relargage éventuel de ses éléments. Les laitiers LAC étudiés se composaient principalement de Ca, Fe et Si; Mn, Mg, Al, P et Ti étant également présents à des teneurs significatives ([Chaurand et al., 2007](#)). Parmi les constituants des laitiers LAC potentiellement toxiques, deux métaux, le Cr (2400 ppm) et le V (690 ppm) présentaient les concentrations les plus élevées ([Chaurand et al., 2006](#)). Ces deux éléments sont généralement présents à l'état de traces dans les laitiers LAC mais ont cependant un pouvoir polluant non négligeable. Les phases solides primaires constituant les grains de laitiers LAC sont des phases de type brownmillerite, $\text{Ca}_{2-x}\text{Fe}_{1.6}\text{Al}_{0.6}\text{Cr}_{0.013}^{\text{III}}\text{O}_5$, la larnite (belite, C_2S), $\beta\text{-Ca}_2\text{SiO}_4$, des phases de type chaux, $\text{Ca}_{1-x}\text{Fe}_x\text{O}$, et des phases de type wüstite, $\text{Fe}_{0.4-x}\text{Mn}_{0.3}\text{Mg}_{0.3}\text{Cr}_{0.015}^{\text{III}}\text{O}$. La calcite, CaCO_3 , qui est plutôt une phase

secondaire précoce est aussi présente. La distribution en taille des grains des laitiers LAC a été caractérisée en détail.

Deux tests de lixiviation statique consistant en une mise en contact de grains de laitier LAC avec une solution d'eau Milli-Q pour deux rapports L/S (10 et 100) ont été simulés avec CHESS. Dans ces tests, le pH correspond donc au pH naturel (basique) des laitiers LAC. Les flacons de lixiviation étaient soumis à une agitation mécanique continue pendant toute la durée du test (15 ou 31 jours). Des prélèvements de faibles volumes et la mesure du pH ont été réalisés à intervalle de temps régulier.

La modélisation indique que les phases minéralogiques qui composent le laitier LAC (formées à hautes températures) sont très fortement sous-saturées vis-à-vis de la solution aqueuse ; ce qui nécessite donc la prise en compte de cinétiques réactionnelles de dissolution (d'hydrolyse), par exemple,



dans les simulations des tests statiques. Les constantes cinétiques ont été ajustées en fonction des rares données de la littérature sur des phases analogues (Brantley, 2008), des courbes de relargage des éléments lors des essais de lixiviation statique et des résultats des caractérisations cristallochimiques et de surface. L'étude cristallochimique des laitiers LAC avant et après lixiviation, nous a permis de comparer qualitativement les vitesses de réactions des différentes phases minéralogiques présentes dans les laitiers LAC.

La modélisation CHESS a permis :

- de reproduire les paragenèses minéralogiques observées en simulant la dissolution cinétique (hydrolyse) des phases primaires et la précipitation à l'équilibre thermodynamique des phases secondaires (C-S-H, hydroxydes, spinelles) contrôlant la solubilité de certains éléments (figure 3.12-B) ; autrement dit les cinétiques de dissolution des phases primaires sont limitantes vis-à-vis des cinétiques de formation des phases secondaires ;
- d'en extraire des estimations de constantes cinétiques intrinsèques des phases primaires, qui restent encore très mal connues ;
- de reproduire la régulation du pH par les minéraux reproduisant l'effet tampon basique des laitiers LAC (figure 3.12-C) ;
- de montrer que l'effet du rapport liquide sur solide (L/S) est plus complexe qu'une simple dilution du fait de l'effet rétroactif du pH sur les processus de dissolution/précipitation ;
- d'expliquer, en partie, par le couple Fe(II)/Fe(III) les conditions d'oxydo-réduction du système ;
- de modéliser de manière satisfaisant les courbes de relargage des éléments, s'étalant pourtant sur plusieurs ordres de grandeur ;
- de montrer que la modélisation du comportement du Cr est associée aux phases de type spinelle mais reste délicate car cet élément est intrinsèquement très sensible aux conditions d'oxydo-réduction (figure 3.12-D).

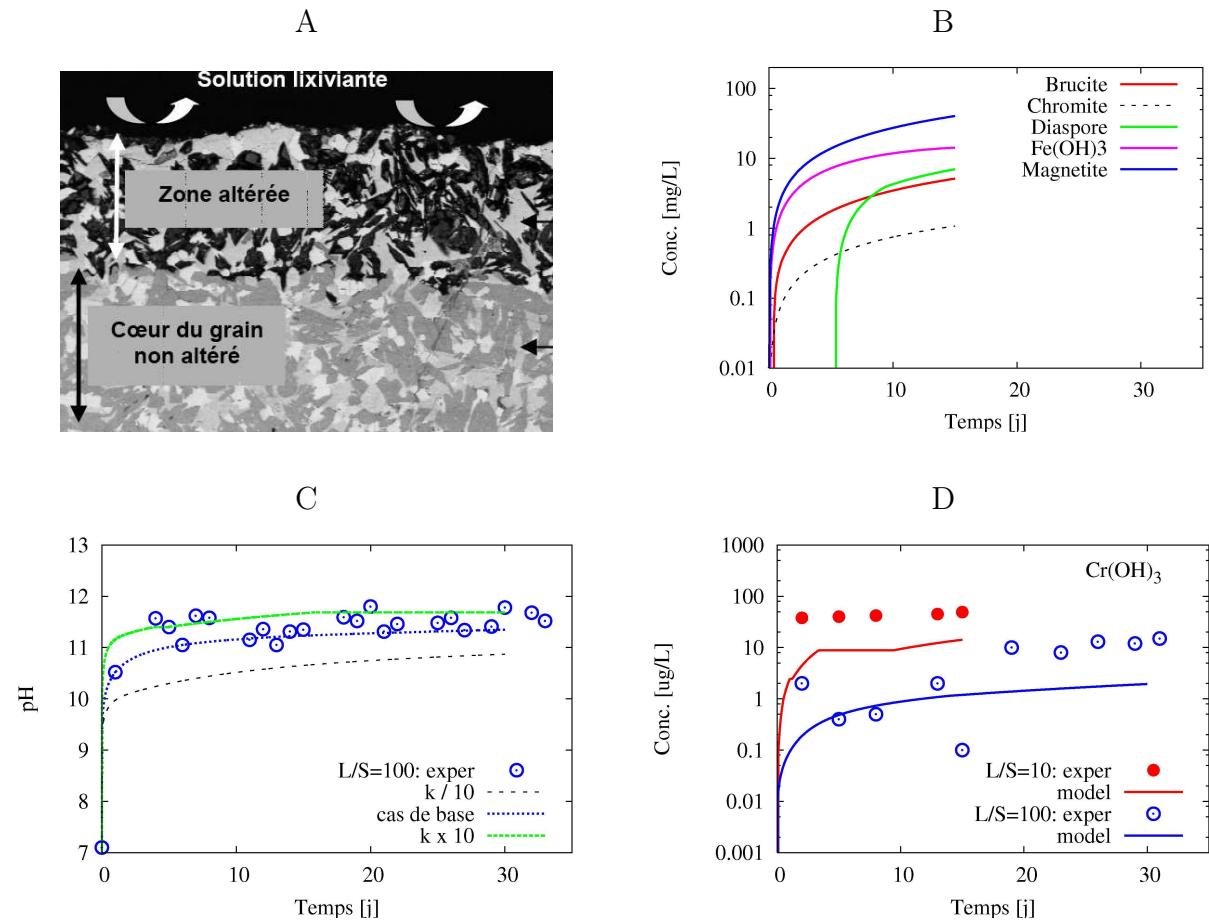


FIGURE 3.12 – *A* : photographie MEB de la pellicule d’altération d’un grain de laitier (P. Chaurand, CEREGE) ; *B* : précipitation de phases secondaires ; *C* : évolution du pH en fonction des constantes cinétiques et *D* : concentration en Cr dans la solution du test statique.

3.5.2 Evolution géochimique des lixiviats de MIOM à 10 ans

- Articles associés, cfr. CV en annexe : (**type A**) *Dabo et al. (2009)*, *De Windt et al. (2011b)*; (**type B**) *Dabo et al. (2008)*;
- Collaborations : INERIS, université de Luleå (Suède) ;
- Thèse : encadrement de la thèse de *D. Dabo (2006-2008)*.

D'un point de vue minéralogique, les mâchefers d'incinération d'ordures ménagères (MIOM) sont des matériaux hétérogènes et variables mêlant des phases reliques (non transformées au cours du processus d'incinération), primaires (formées dans le four ou à la trempe) et secondaires (héritées de l'étape de maturation ou évoluant en cours d'utilisation) sous forme plus ou moins bien cristallisées (Piantone et al., 2004). Ba, Cu, Pb, et Zn sont des métaux toxiques dont les teneurs dépassent généralement les 1000 ppm dans les MIOM.

L'utilisation des MIOM en technique routière constitue la filière de valorisation la plus fréquente de ces géomatériaux et concerne 90 % de la quantité recyclée en France. Les MIOM sont généralement mis en oeuvre en remblai et couche de fondation ou de forme de l'ordre de 25 à 50 cm. La perméabilité relativement faible des revêtements routiers minimise l'infiltration d'eau de pluie mais ne l'exclut pas complètement. Les MIOM utilisés en techniques routières sont donc potentiellement soumis à la lixiviation par les eaux atmosphériques et pourraient être une source de pollution diffuse (par mobilisation de métaux, notamment) qu'il convient, dans un souci de protection de l'environnement, de quantifier ([Kosson et al., 1996](#)).

Deux sections de route construites avec des bases en MIOM ont été instrumentées dans ce but, sur la commune d'Hérouville en Ile-de-France durant 10 ans ([figure 3.13](#)), et à Davå en Suède durant 6 ans ([Lidelöw and Lagerkvist, 2007](#)). Un intérêt fort de ces expérimentations en grandeur réelle réside dans l'apport d'un retour d'expérience sur l'utilisation des MIOM en sous-couche routière quasiment inédit en terme de durée. En plus de l'analyse des percolats routier, des prélèvements de carottes dans la sous-couche routière ont été réalisés afin d'évaluer d'éventuelles modifications minéralogiques.

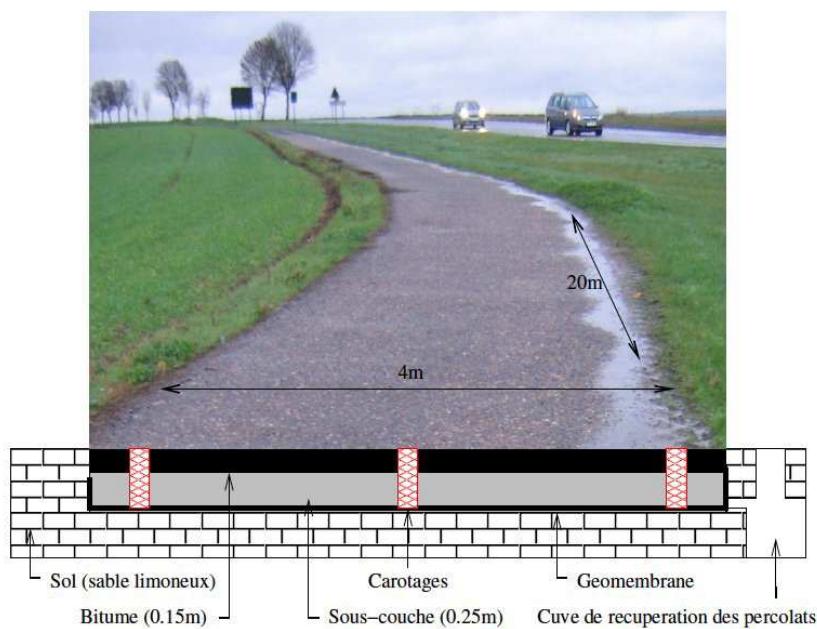


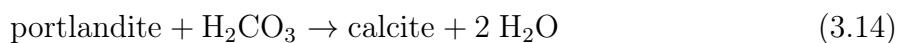
FIGURE 3.13 – Photographie et schéma en coupe de la section de route instrumentée.

Des modélisations couplées chimie/transport ont été récemment réalisées en relation avec des expériences en colonnes ou des pilotes de tailles plurimétriques ([Dijkstra et al., 2008](#); [Guyonnet et al., 2008](#)), mais à notre connaissance pas encore sur site et qui plus est sur une décennie. L'intérêt d'appliquer le même modèle à deux sites, différents tant en termes de produits utilisés qu'en termes de configurations et de climats, est d'évaluer le caractère généralisable, voire opérationnel, du modèle. Le choix des phases minérales primaires les plus réactives et des minéraux néoformés a été une étape essentielle qui a été réalisée à

partir :

- des données minéralogiques ;
- des tests statiques de type FMM ;
- d'une analyse des indices de saturations des eaux de site ;
- d'une analyse de la chimie des eaux de site via des diagrammes de solubilité (par ex. [figure 3.14-A](#)) ;
- mais encore des informations tirées d'une littérature abondante.

Sur le site d'Hérouville, le pH et la concentration de la majorité des éléments (SO_4 excepté) chutent rapidement durant les deux premières années. Cette diminution se produit aussi à Davå mais de façon plus modérée. Ces tendances sont globalement bien reproduites par le modèle, tant pour les majeurs que les mineurs, à condition d'introduire un apport de CO_2 atmosphérique. La carbonatation est de fait un processus clef vis-à-vis de la maturation des MIOM et de leur potentiel polluant ([Van Gerven et al., 2005](#)). Différents processus tampon alcalin vont successivement jouer durant cette attaque par l'acide carbonique ([Meima and Comans, 1999](#)). Les simulations indiquent que l'évolution du pH dans les percolats routiers ([figure 3.14-B](#)) est conditionnée initialement par la dissolution de la portlandite (seulement dans le cas d'Hérouville),



puis successivement par les équilibres thermodynamiques avec les C-S-H, produit typique de l'altération des phases primaires ([Speiser et al., 2000](#)), ou la pseudo-wollastonite, et à plus long terme la calcite en équilibre avec la pression atmosphérique. L'hydroxyde d'aluminium, l'ettringite et la monohydrocalcite ($\text{CaCO}_3 : \text{H}_2\text{O}$) sont également susceptibles de contrôler la chimie des eluats, en accord avec l'étude de [Bodénan et al. \(2010\)](#). Sur site, les modifications minéralogiques observées résident essentiellement dans la disparition de l'ettringite, potentiellement selon le processus suivant :



La quantité de CO_2 dissoute dans l'eau de pluie avant infiltration est insuffisante que pour expliquer les baisses importantes de pH observées dans les lixiviats. La carbonatation est donc probablement liée à des phénomènes de diffusion gazeuse du CO_2 atmosphérique, processus mis en évidence expérimentalement par analyse isotopique ([Fléhoc et al., 2006](#)).

Le Ba est contrôlé par la solubilité de la barite (BaSO_4). La mobilité du Cu ([figure 3.14-C](#)) est clairement conditionnée par la matière organique durant les premières années, probablement via les acides fulviques, puis par la solubilité de la tenorite (CuO). Pour le Pb, le seul contrôle par la solubilité de phases secondaires permet de simuler à Hérouville la chute de concentration de deux ordres de grandeur en relation avec la décroissance du pH de 12.5 à 10 environ, mais maximise les valeurs mesurées sur site ([figure 3.14-D](#)). D'autres processus, telle la co-précipitation ou la sorption, devront être pris en compte dans une étape ultérieure du modèle.

Les calculs HYTEC indiquent que l'influence de la température sur le chimisme des lixiviats reste très limité dans le domaine 5 - 30 °C, à l'exception des fluides les plus alcalins. Les

résultats de terrain et la modélisation montrent la nécessité de prendre en compte les passages préférentiels d'eau de ruissellement en bordure de route dans la construction du modèle, la couche asphaltée limitant significativement les infiltrations. Du point de vue de l'impact environnemental, ce travail de recherche suggère un impact relativement faible de l'utilisation des MIOM en technique routière sur le moyen terme si la composante asphaltée reste intègre. Malgré des percolats routiers agressifs vis à vis de l'environnement la première année (alcalins et chargés), les concentrations baissent en effet très nettement pour atteindre des valeurs proches de celles rencontrées sur la route de référence construite avec du matériau conventionnel, sauf en ce qui concerne les sulfates.

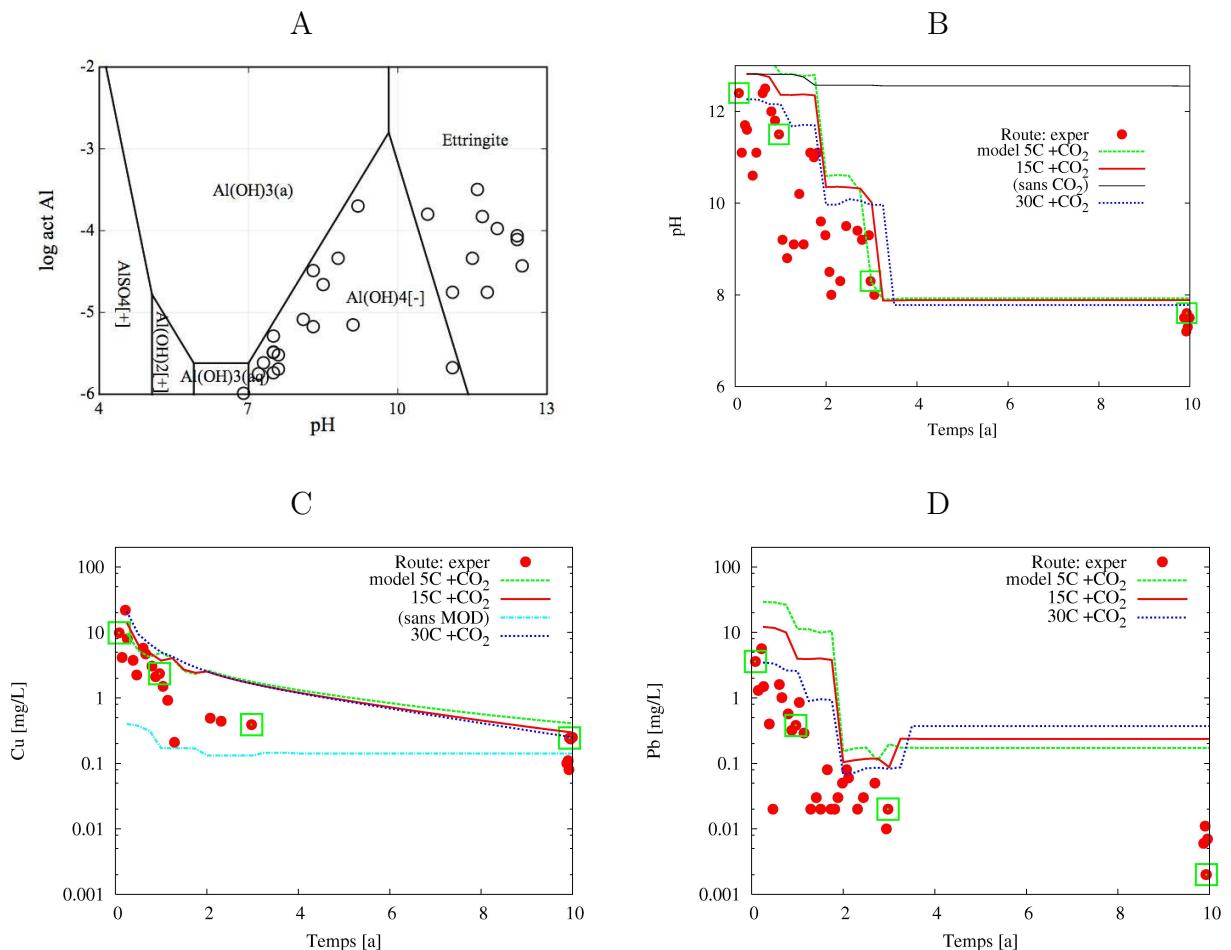


FIGURE 3.14 – A : concentrations en Al mesurées dans les lixiviat routiers et reportées sur un diagramme de solubilité calculé avec CHESS ; B : évolution du pH (B) et des teneurs en Cu (C) et Pb (D) des lixiviat avec effets de la température et du CO_2 .

Chapitre 4

Perspectives de recherche

4.1 Questions scientifiques ouvertes et adaptation méthodologique

Difficultés d'ordre scientifique

Les divers travaux que j'ai synthétisés au chapitre précédent découlent d'une démarche de recherche appliquée où l'originalité tient en bonne partie au couplage de processus déjà bien caractérisés individuellement et à leur transposition à des échelles d'espace ou de temps relativement peu explorées jusqu'à présent. D'autre part, ces recherches participent à leur manière au développement du champ scientifique, né après la seconde guerre mondiale, qu'est la simulation numérique des systèmes complexes naturels et d'ingénierie.

Nonobstant, certains aspects des présents travaux ont participé à lever certains verrous scientifiques. La modélisation de la biodégradation des géomatériaux est par exemple une domaine de recherche en plein développement, comme en témoignent les articles très récents de Lors et al. (2009); Leemann et al. (2010). Ce type de recherche recouvrant la chimie organique des acides carboxyliques et la chimie inorganique est d'un intérêt plus large que le seul domaine des matériaux, citons des travaux récents et fondamentaux sur la dissolution des minéraux des sols par ces acides biogéniques (Cama and Ganor, 2006).

D'autres part, les présentes recherche en modélisation couplée des interactions réciproques entre un géomatériaux et son environnement me permettent de pointer un certain nombre de difficultés d'ordre scientifique qu'il est pourtant important de prendre en compte dans plusieurs situations concrètes. En ce qui concerne mes activités de recherche à court et moyen termes, voici quelques points dominants :

- l'influence du transitoire thermique et de resaturation hydrique sur l'évolution géochimique d'un système complexe ciment/fer/argile, notamment l'évolution physico-chimique des interfaces en jeu ;
- la réactivité fine des verres nucléaires (stockage de déchets radioactifs) ou des liants hydrauliques (génie routier) avec les matériaux à dominantes argileuses, notamment la question compliquée de la structure des gels d'altération ou du lien entre les cinétiques

chimiques et les propriétés géotechniques ;

- les interactions complexes entre activité microbienne et géomatériaux, où un point de dialogue certain entre ces deux sciences passe par une traduction des métabolismes complexes en processus réactionnels et paramètres clefs de la chimie des solutions (pH, Eh, tampon) ;
- les phénomènes géochimiques couplés du transfert de polluants en trace au sein d'aquifères ;
- le couplage additionnel avec le transfert biphasiques et la thermodynamique des échanges eau-gaz qui est une des frontières actuelles en modélisation du transport réactif ([Xu et al., 2008](#)).

Spécificités méthodologiques

La confrontation des modèles avec des résultats expérimentaux ou de site va rester une étape clef dans la validation de mes démarches de modélisation à plus long terme. Lorsque nécessaires, des développement d'un cas expérimental (simplifié) où les phénomènes recherchés peuvent être observés et quantifiés ont été mis au point avec les collègues expérimentateurs. Un point essentiel est de déterminer si la modélisation validée sur cette expérience permet de devenir prédictive pour d'autres échelles de temps et d'espace d'une part, et de juger de la capacité de la modélisation couplée à représenter le ou les processus en cours d'autre part. Dans mon cas, ceci est particulièrement pertinent dans les simulations du stockage de déchets radioactifs, où chronologiquement j'ai d'abord développé des modélisations à long terme et intégrées.

Un travail conséquent de compilation et croisement/validation de données physiques et thermodynamiques (pKa, constantes de complexation, solubilité des sels, volumes massiques) est par ailleurs indispensable pour analyser la spéciation des ions dans les milieux à dominante organique, notamment les solubilités apparentes et le rôle de la complexation des acides biogéniques. Une mise à jour de notre base de données thermodynamiques des phases solides est également à l'oeuvre grâce aux activités de recherche de la décennie 2000-2010 sur la thermodynamique des phases cimentaires et argileuses, compilées sous la forme de bases étendues et cohérentes : CEMDATA de l'équipe de Lothenbach ([Matschei et al., 2007](#), par ex.), THERMODDEM du BRGM ([Blanc et al., 2010](#)) et THERMOCHIMIE de l'ANDRA.

Enfin, il m'a semblé souhaitable de revenir partiellement à des études plus génériques sur la géochimie des interactions eaux/roche dans les aquifères pour ne pas perdre de vue la dynamique des systèmes naturels au profit des seuls géomatériaux.

4.2 Transitoires et couplages THC

- **Collaborations** : IRSN, université de Madrid (Espagne) ;
- **Thèse** : co-encadrement de la thèse de E. Torrès (en 2009), les expériences ayant été réalisées dans le cadre de la thèse au CIEMAT.

L'identification et l'extension à long terme des perturbations géochimiques qu'induisent les matériaux cimentaires et en acier sur les argilites et les bouchons d'alvéole en bentonite ont fait l'objet d'un nombre important de recherches. Ce sous domaine de l'évolution des composants d'une alvéole de stockage est raisonnablement bien maîtrisé aujourd'hui. Néanmoins, l'influence du transitoire thermique conjugué à la phase de resaturation hydrique d'un système complexe ciment/fer/argile restent moins bien caractérisé, notamment à l'interface entre ces géomatériaux.

4.2.1 THC et interactions fer/argile

Le montage expérimental retenu ([figure 4.1-A](#)) consiste en des cellules de diffusion intégrant un gradient thermique (T) s'échelonnant de 25 à 100 °C, une phase de resaturation en eau (H), du fer métal sous forme de poudre et de la bentonite Febex compactée (C). HYTEC est utilisé pour modéliser ces expériences sur 15 mois. L'objectif recherché est de mieux comprendre les schémas réactionnels conduisant aux phases solides observées, de discriminer les effets cinétiques et thermodynamiques, de calibrer certains paramètres cinétiques ; tout en prenant le mieux possible en compte les gradients thermiques et processus hydrodynamique tels que la resaturation en eau. Les résultats de ces expériences sont représentatifs dans une bonne mesure du transitoire d'oxydo-réduction et de son couplage avec la corrosion des aciers faiblement alliés en situation de stockage. Ces résultats pourront également être comparés à ceux des expériences sur site de corrosion de plaquettes d'acier mises en contact avec de l'argilite Toarcienne qui ont d'autre part été conduites dans la station expérimentale du tunnel de Tournemire de l'IRSN.

Les diagrammes de Pourbaix et le calcul des indices de saturation calculés avec la base de données ont permis de mettre en évidence de façon préliminaire les différents chemins réactionnels possibles pour les produits de corrosion. La [figure 4.1-B](#) montre les indices de saturation des produits de corrosion calculés en tout début d'expérience à 100 °C. La magnétite est la phase solide secondaire la plus stable ; la pyrite étant également un minéral secondaire potentiel d'un point de vue strictement thermodynamique. L'hydroxyde de fer ferreux et la sidérite complètent ainsi le spectre de produits de corrosion de type Fe(II), produits attendus en milieux réducteur à l'échelle de temps des présentes expériences. Cette paragénèse est en accord avec celle considérée dans les calculs de performances du système acier/argile, la néoformation de silicates de Fe, côté matériaux argileux, étant également probable à long terme ([Bildstein et al., 2006](#)).

Cependant, le critère de précipitation différentielle des produits de corrosion avec la température est cinétique et non thermodynamique. A 100 °C, la production d'hydroxydes de fer ferreux se substitue à la rouille verte,



qui évolue, selon la réaction de Schikorr,



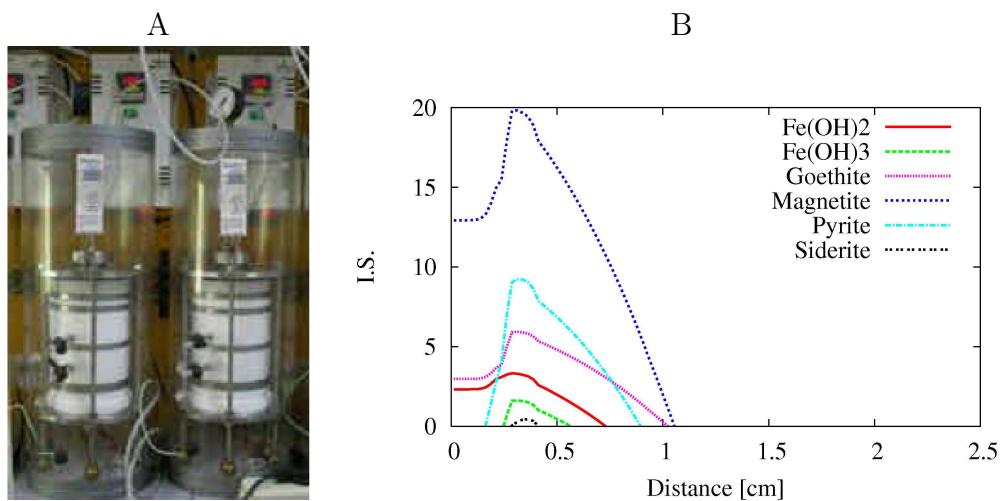


FIGURE 4.1 – *A* : Photographie des cellules pour l'étude des interactions entre géomatériaux sous gradient thermique et resaturation (E. Torres, CIEMAT) ; *B* : indices de saturation des produits de corrosion calculés en tout début d'expérience autour de l'interface acier/bentonite FEBEX.

en magnétite qui devient la phase majoritaire à long terme. La paragenèse des produits de corrosion à 50 et 100 °C sera modélisée avec HYTEC, de même que le couplage ou compétition entre la diffusion de Fe(II), la formation de produits de corrosion et l'échange ionique. Les taux de corrosion de l'acier déduits de la modélisation seront comparés à ceux de la littérature (Féron et al., 2008). Le rôle potentiel passivant de la magnétite vis-à-vis de la corrosion du fer métal sera par ailleurs analysé au regard de la durée caractéristique de l'expérience.

4.2.2 THC et interactions ciment/argile

L'influence d'un gradient thermique conjugué à une phase de resaturation d'un système ciment/argile, sur l'interface entre bétons et matériaux argileux est aussi étudié avec ce système expérimental en cellules.

Deux échantillons cylindriques de béton de type CEM-I et de bentonite Febex en contact ont été soumis à un gradient de température de 25 à 100 °C dans des cellules similaires à celle de la figure 4.1-A. Initialement désaturés, les échantillons ont été progressivement réhydratés par une eau d'un site argileux. Les cellules ont été démantelées après 6, 12 et 18 mois d'interactions. L'observation d'une précipitation non attendue de portlandite à l'interface béton/bentonite est inhabituelle. Une surconcentration en sels dans les zones de la bentonite aux températures plus élevées est également observée, ce qui impliquerait un effet potentiel d'accélération de corrosion des composants métalliques en situation de stockage. La dégradation du béton est significative, principalement du fait de la migration d'ions sulfate.

HYTEC sera utilisé pour modéliser ces expériences en utilisant les options thermiques et non saturé du code. Des premiers calculs ont mis en évidence un contrôle cinétique des phases néoformées, notamment avec une minimisation de la saponitisation de la bentonite et l'absence de précipitation de zéolite malgré une température relativement élevée. Les effets du gradient thermique et de la resaturation seront déconvolus.

4.3 Réactivité fine des verres nucléaires ou de la chaux avec les matériaux à dominante argileuse

4.3.1 Effets d'environnement sur l'altération des verres nucléaires

- **Collaboration :** CEA ;
- **Thèse :** encadrement de la thèse de M. Debure (depuis 2009).

Cet axe de recherche réalisé en étroite collaboration avec le CEA s'inscrit dans la continuité de mes travaux de modélisation sur l'évolution des colis de déchets et du relâchement de radionucléides dans une alvéole de stockage de déchets vitrifiés C. Le CEA a publié récemment une synthèse des connaissances sur l'altération du verre nucléaire de référence SON68, ce qui l'a conduit à proposer le modèle mécanistique GRAAL pour décrire la cinétique d'altération des verres (Frugier et al., 2008). Ce modèle, qui a été implémenté dans HYTEC, est basé sur les hypothèses simplificatrices suivantes (voir aussi la figure 4.2-A) :

- seule la diffusion de l'eau dans l'interphase réactive passivante (IRP) est considérée comme limitante. Un coefficient apparent de diffusion est utilisé pour simuler à la fois la diffusion de l'eau dans l'IRP et la diffusion des éléments hydrolysés et solvatés du verre en solution. Ce coefficient est fonction de la température et du pH de la solution en contact ;
- les zones de diffusion de l'eau dans le verre et d'échange proton-alcalin sont donc ignorées ;
- la réactivité de l'IRP avec la solution est décrite par un équilibre thermodynamique, la précipitation de phases secondaires en surface de l'IRP ou en solution pouvant maintenir dans le temps l'altération du verre.

A ce jour, le modèle GRAAL permet de prédire le comportement du verre mis initialement en contact avec de l'eau pure et en fonction de l'évolution temporelle de la composition chimique de la solution (Frugier et al., 2009; Rajmohan et al., 2010). Il convient de compléter cette description en prenant en compte les matériaux d'environnement (les argiles, l'acier et ses produits de corrosion) et la diffusion des espèces dissoutes dans le système multi-barrières (Bildstein et al., 2007). En particulier, l'effet du Mg en solution sur l'altération du verre est encore incertain, soit accélérateur, soit inhibiteur de dissolution, selon les auteurs. Se pose donc naturellement la question de sa présence dans les phases minérales de l'environnement du colis dans une formation argileuse et de la possibilité de ces dernières à se dissoudre ou réagir pour réalimenter la solution en magnésium. Dans

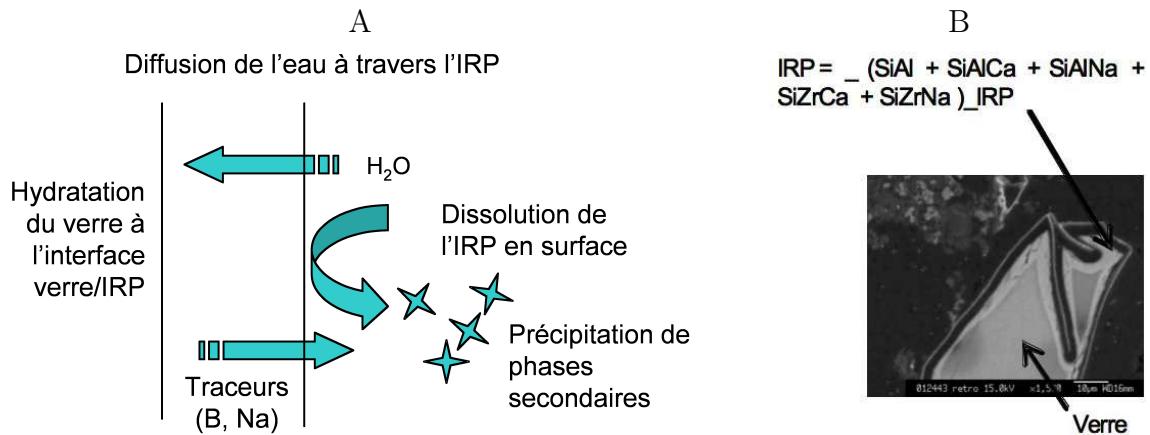
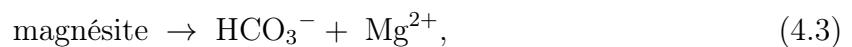


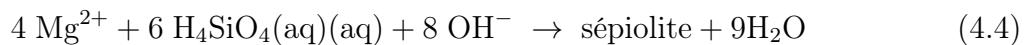
FIGURE 4.2 – A : Mécanismes d'altération de verres pris en compte dans le modèle GRAAL (Frugier et al., 2008) ; **B :** photographie MEB d'une section polie d'un grain de verre altéré indiquant la formation d'une interface réactive passivante (thèse en cours de M. Debure).

l'argilite, le Mg existe sous forme de carbonates (dolomite) ainsi que dans les phases argileuses à la fois en tant que cation de structure et comme cation échangeable. Une première série d'expériences a déjà mis en évidence une réactivité significative entre un verre simple ($SiBNaAlCaZr$) et de la magnésite, $Mg(CO_3)$. Une seconde phase de recherche vise à étudier la réactivité du verre avec la dolomite et puis la fraction argileuse de l'argilite du Callovo-Oxfordien.

La modélisation HYTEC/GRAAL des expériences avec la magnésite a déjà été réalisée. Les observations au MEB ont bien mis en évidence la formation de la pellicule d'atlérature (figure 4.2-B). Lors de comparaisons avec l'expérience, il s'est avéré que le modèle devait prendre en compte les variations de pH et de concentration des éléments en solution en fonction du temps. La dissolution de magnésite enrichit en effet la solution en Mg :



tandis que la précipitation des silicates de Mg abaisse le pH suivant une réaction du type :



Le Ca réagit avec les ions bicarbonates pour former de l'aragonite ; le Mg inhibant la précipitation de calcite. Le Ca est aussi progressivement remplacé par le Na dans l'IRP en tant que compensateur des charges de Al et Zr. Ce bilan de matière en éléments calculé par HYTEC est en bon accord avec le profil obtenu par TOF-SIMS.

4.3.2 Durabilité des sols argileux stabilisés à la chaux

– Collaboration : ANR TerDOUEST (LCPC)

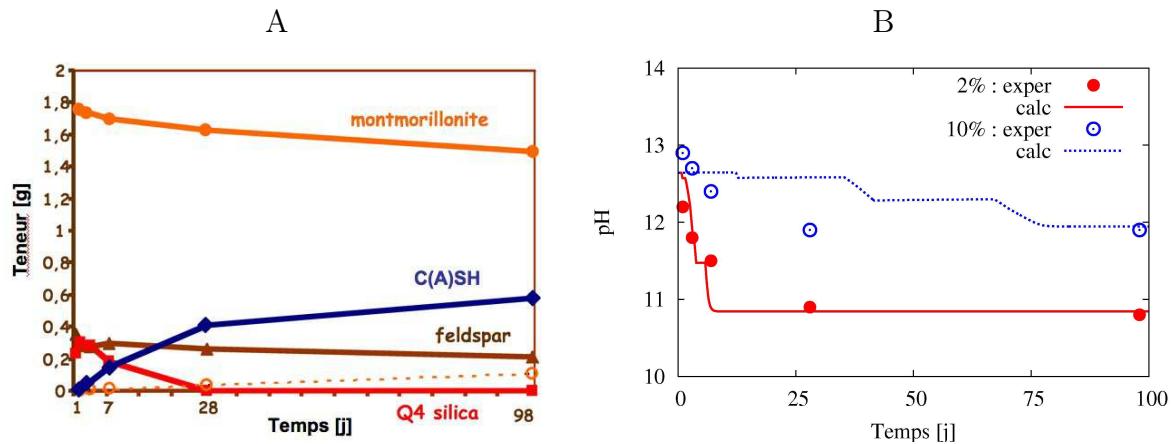


FIGURE 4.3 – Cinétique de traitement à la chaux de sols argileux. *A* : évolution des phases minéralogiques déterminée par la RMN du ^{29}Si (E. Pomakhina et D. Deneele, LCPC) ; *B* évolution dans le temps du pH des solutions interstitielles en fonction des teneurs en chaux (simulation préliminaire CHESS).

Le projet d’application de HYTEC dans le cadre de l’ANR TerDOUEST (Terrassements Durables - Ouvrages En Sols Traités) concerne le traitement des sols, à la chaux et aux liants hydrauliques, procédé qui permet de progresser notamment dans le réemploi des sols actuellement considérés comme « inaptes » et qui sont mis en dépôt. Le cœur des ouvrages en sol traité peut être, en effet, soumis à une circulation d’eau qui peut altérer les composés issus des réactions pouzzolanique et hydraulique. Dans ce contexte, transposable aux sols pollués stabilisés, il s’agit de comprendre et conceptualiser les mécanismes chimiques et physiques mis en jeu lors des interactions entre les phases argileuses des sols et les liants (échanges cationiques, prise pouzzolanique), puis de les transposer en termes de durabilité des effets du traitement.

Les cinétiques des interactions en solution aqueuse de la chaux avec la kaolinite et la bentonite Agromont (montmorillonite, feldspath et cristobalite) ont été caractérisées par diffraction de rayons X et par résonance magnétique nucléaire du solide (RMN), entre autres dans le cadre de la thèse de Maubec (2010) et du postdoc de E. Pomakhina. La RMN du ^{29}Si a notamment permis de suivre dans le temps la formation des phases cimentaires de type C-S-H, comme le montre la figure 4.3-A. Les bases de données thermodynamiques des minéraux argileux, phases cimentaires et pouzzolaniques sont bien documentées en ce qui concerne la dissolution/précipitation et les échanges ioniques, moins en ce qui concerne la cinétique de ces réactions. Une modélisation CHESS sous contrôle cinétique est en cours. Elle devrait permettre de reproduire les évolutions de la chimie des solutions (figure 4.3-B) en fonction de la minéralogie, mais aussi les modifications des cations échangeables et de la charge surfacique des particules argileuses, ayant un impact sur la cohésion des matériaux stabilisés.

4.4 Interactions complexes entre activités microbiennes et géomatériaux

- **Collaboration** : CEA, IRSN, université de Toulouse ;
- **Thèse** : encadrement de la thèse de C. Chautard (depuis 2010) et co-encadrement de la thèse de S. Larreur-Cayol (en 2011).

De multiples micro-organismes sont actifs dans des environnements et des conditions physico-chimiques très variées, même pour de faibles apports nutritifs. L'activité bactérienne dépend des conditions physico-chimiques (température, pH, teneur en oxygène, en ions sulfates,...), mais peut aussi réciproquement modifier la géochimie du milieu par des moyens très divers. Ce fait conduit à prendre de plus en plus en considération les micro-organismes dans les modélisations des processus géochimiques dans les sols et les aquifères de subsurface, le stockage de déchets et de gaz, ou encore la bioaltération des matériaux et des déchets ([Aouad et al., 2008](#)). Par exemple, la réduction des sulfates est un processus important des environnements profonds réalisé par les bactéries dites BSR. C'est un des premiers métabolismes identifiés dans les milieux profonds tels que les aquifères et les réservoirs pétroliers. Les bactéries jouent un rôle dans la corrosion en modifiant localement les conditions de pH et de potentiel d'oxydo-réduction ([CEA-Collectif, 2010](#)).

4.4.1 Biodétérioration des ciments en milieu agro-industriel

Les effluents agricoles et agroalimentaires (jus d'ensilage, lisiers, mélasses, etc.) sont des milieux très agressifs pour les structures en béton telles que les silos de stockage, les installations de production ou de traitement... Ces effluents, aux compositions complexes et variables, sont responsables d'attaques acides sur les matériaux cimentaires. En effet, il existe une large gamme d'acides dans ces effluents : acide acétique et autres acides gras volatils, acides lactique, malique, succinique, tartrique, citrique etc dont les concentrations peuvent atteindre quelques dizaines de grammes par litre. Ces acides proviennent des plantes ou fruits eux-mêmes et/ou sont issus du métabolisme des microorganismes présents dans les effluents. Ces acides ont des propriétés chimiques très diverses et des agressivités différentes vis-à-vis de la matrice cimentaire. Afin de bien comprendre les mécanismes de dégradation des matrices cimentaires par les acides organiques et mettre au point des bétons performants dans ces environnements, il faut mettre en évidence les liens existants entre les propriétés chimiques des acides et leur agressivité vis-à-vis des matériaux cimentaires. Les expériences réalisées à l'université de Toulouse montrent clairement les effets très contrastés des différents type d'acides sur la dégradation des éprouvettes de ciment CEM-I ([figure 4.4-AB](#)).

L'approche expérimentale et une phase préliminaire de modélisation ont abouti à des résultats quasi-similaires en termes de profondeurs d'altération minéralogique relatives des différents acides ([figure 4.4-C](#)) et de mécanismes de dégradation. En particulier, la préci-

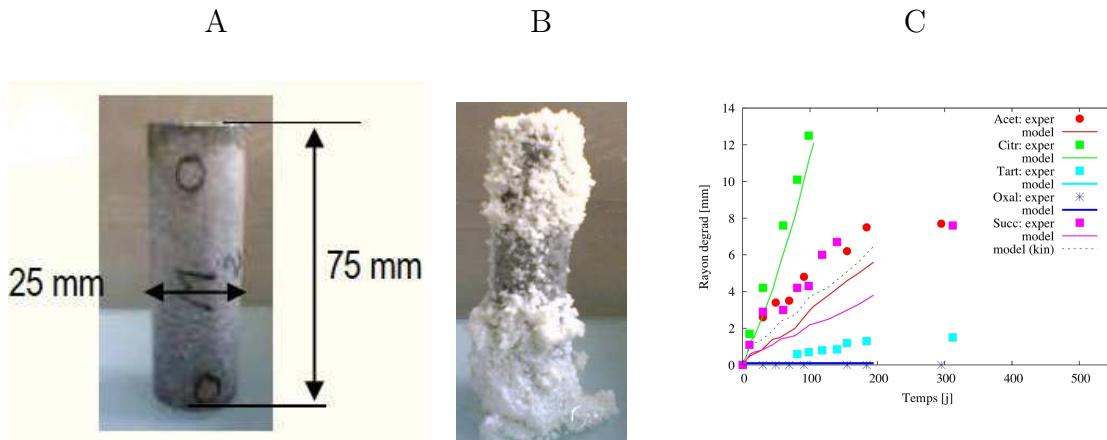
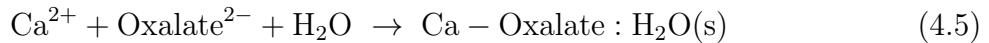


FIGURE 4.4 – Photographies d’une éprouvette de ciment non altérée par une solution d’acide oxalique (*A*) et altérée par l’acide citrique (*B*) (A. Bertron, Univ. Toulouse) ; *C* : profondeurs d’altération de la pâte de ciment après 1 an de lixiviation pour les différents acides organiques (simulation préliminaire HYTEC).

pitation de sels d’oxalate de Ca



colmate la porosité et stoppe toute altération ultérieure des éprouvettes. Un écart modèle/expérience significatif apparaît cependant en ce qui concerne l’acide citrique, particulièrement agressif en laboratoire. Une prise en compte incomplète des propriétés physiques des sels de citrate dans la modélisation pourrait en être la cause. Dans un second temps, l’intérêt de l’approche numérique sera d’estimer les comportements des bétons en milieux complexes en termes de mélanges d’acides biogéniques et d’effet de paramètres externes comme la température ou d’agitation de certains milieux, conditions souvent difficilement reproductibles en laboratoire.

4.4.2 Bioréactivité fer-argile en conditions de stockage

En vue de disposer d’observations expérimentales réalisées en conditions contrôlées, une expérimentation de percolation d’une eau porale synthétique de Tournemire à travers un échantillon d’argilite présentant une hétérogénéité de structure et dans lequel est incluse une pièce d’acier non allié sera programmée pour une durée d’environ un an en présence de bactéries ferriréductrices et sulfato-réductrices en vue de tester leur influence sur la réactivité fer/argile en milieu hétérogène. Les expériences s’effectueront au CEA et à l’IRSN. L’espace résiduel entre la pièce d’acier et l’argilite pouvant être propice au développement de bactéries, il s’agira en premier lieu d’observer la corrosion de cette pièce en présence ou non des bactéries. Le cas échéant, la formation d’un biofilm sur la surface de la pièce d’acier sera étudiée.

Une partie des fonctionnalités de modélisation biogéochimique implémentées dans HYTEC

sera mise à contribution : cinétique sur les réactions d'oxydo-réduction en solution, cinétique enzymatique avec ses termes de Monod et d'inhibition de Hill selon une fonction de type selon les valeurs des paramètres a et b :

$$\frac{d[E]}{dt} = [B] \prod_k \left(\frac{[S_k]^{a_k}}{K_k^{a_k} + [S_k]^{a_k}} \right)^{b_k} \quad (4.6)$$

avec $[B]$ un terme fonction de la biomasse, $[E]$ et $[S_k]$ les concentrations d'une espèce (de base ou dérivée) et K la constante de demi-saturation.

4.5 Couplages géochimiques des stockages ou sites pollués avec les aquifères

4.5.1 Impact sur les ressources en eaux d'un stockage de déchets monolithiques

- **Collaboration** : *the sustainable landfill fundation (SLF) et ECN (Energy research Centre of the Netherlands).*

Dans la continuité de la [sous-section 3.4.3](#), cette étude de caractère appliquée concerne l'admission de déchets monolithiques solidifiés/stabilisés en installation de stockage de déchets du point de vue de l'impact sur les eaux souterraines. Des premiers calculs HYTEC, qui demandent encore à être finalisés, ont montré que :

- les paramètres physico-chimiques clefs tels que le pH peuvent être estimés sur l'ensemble du système de stockage ([figure 4.5-A](#)) ;
- plus on simplifie les calculs, plus on aboutit à des estimations d'impact élevées (majoration des impacts), la très grande majorité des études d'impact n'intégrant pas la complexité des processus géochimiques et leur couplage à l'hydrodynamique ([figure 4.5-B](#)) ;
- le relâchement des sels, et en particulier les sels de chlorures, peuvent être influencés par la présence de certaines phases minérale comme les sels de Friedel ([Birnin-Yauri and Glasser, 1998](#)) ;
- il est possible de relier cette modélisation de site à la modélisation des tests dynamiques normalisés via HYTEC dans une approche de type modélisation inverse.

Scientifiquement, cela nécessitera entre autres de reconsidérer la thermodynamique des phases cimentaires AFm sur base des données les plus récentes ([Matschei et al., 2007](#)) : monosulfoaluminate, $\text{Ca}_4\text{Al}_2\text{SO}_4(\text{OH})_{12}$, monocarboaluminate, $\text{Ca}_4\text{Al}_2\text{CO}_3(\text{OH})_{12} \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$, et sel de Friedel $\text{Ca}_4\text{Al}_2\text{Cl}_2(\text{OH})_{12} \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$.

4.5.2 Modélisation couplée du fond géochimique d'un aquifère

- **Collaboration** : *Direction des Applications Militaires du CEA.*

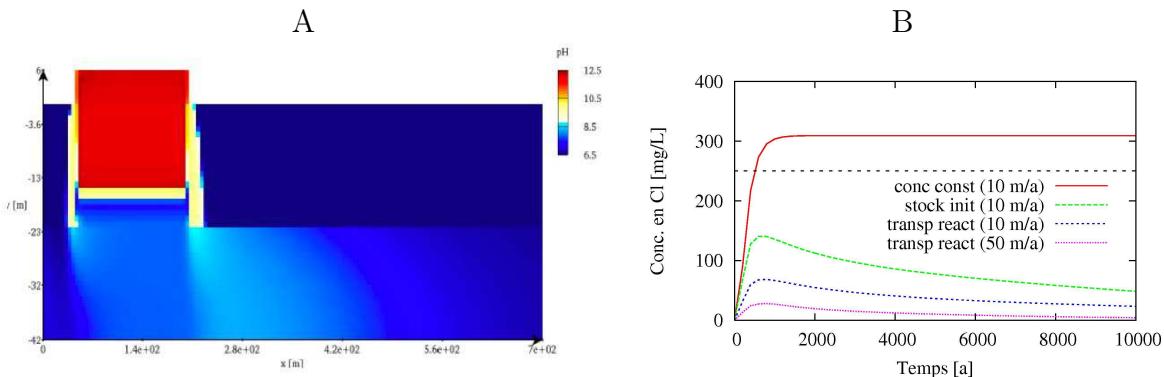


FIGURE 4.5 – Stockage de déchets monolithiques : *A* profil de pH après 1000 ans, le panache alcalin atténuant la dissolution des sels de Friedel ; *B* évolution de la concentration en chlorures calculée pour différents types de terme-source.

– Postdoc : encadrement de Arnaud Mangeret (2010).

Une modélisation couplée géochimie-transport du fond géochimique local d'un aquifère crayeux de la Marne est en cours en prenant en compte une échelle kilométrique du bassin-versant hydrogéologique. Il s'agit d'une étude de site générique utile pour caractériser d'éventuelles contaminations dans d'autres configurations. Le transfert des éléments dissous dépend tant des interactions eaux-roches caractéristiques du fond géochimique local que des processus de transport dans la zone non saturée et le réseau de fractures de la zone saturée de cet aquifère de subsurface ; ce qui nécessite une modélisation couplée chimie/hydrodynamique.

Les processus géochimiques qui font l'objet d'une recherche plus approfondie sont la cinétique des réactions incongruentes de dissolution d'une solution solide de calcite enrichie en Mg et Sr (Gillon et al., 2010), ainsi que l'origine d'anomalies naturelles en Ba et U. Une modélisation inverse des profils des teneurs en Sr et Mg et de leurs rapports vis-à-vis du Ca a permis d'encadrer les constantes apparentes de dissolution incongruente aux échelles de temps séculaires (figure 4.6).

4.6 Modélisations couplées avec transfert réactif de gaz

Le couplage avec le transfert des gaz, la thermodynamique des échanges eau-gaz et écoulements biphasiques est en cours d'implémentation dans HYTEC dans le cadre du PGT (figure 4.7). J'y participe en termes de vérification et application comme pour les précédents développements de HYTEC. La première phase comprend le transfert diffusif dans la porosité non saturée par type de molécules gazeuses et un bilan de masse rigoureux sur la phase gaz. Les équations d'état incluent la loi des gaz parfait et de Henry mais aussi, afin de tenir compte des effets de non-idealité à des pressions élevées, un passage aux lois cubiques de type Peng-Robinson (Peng and Robinson, 1976) :

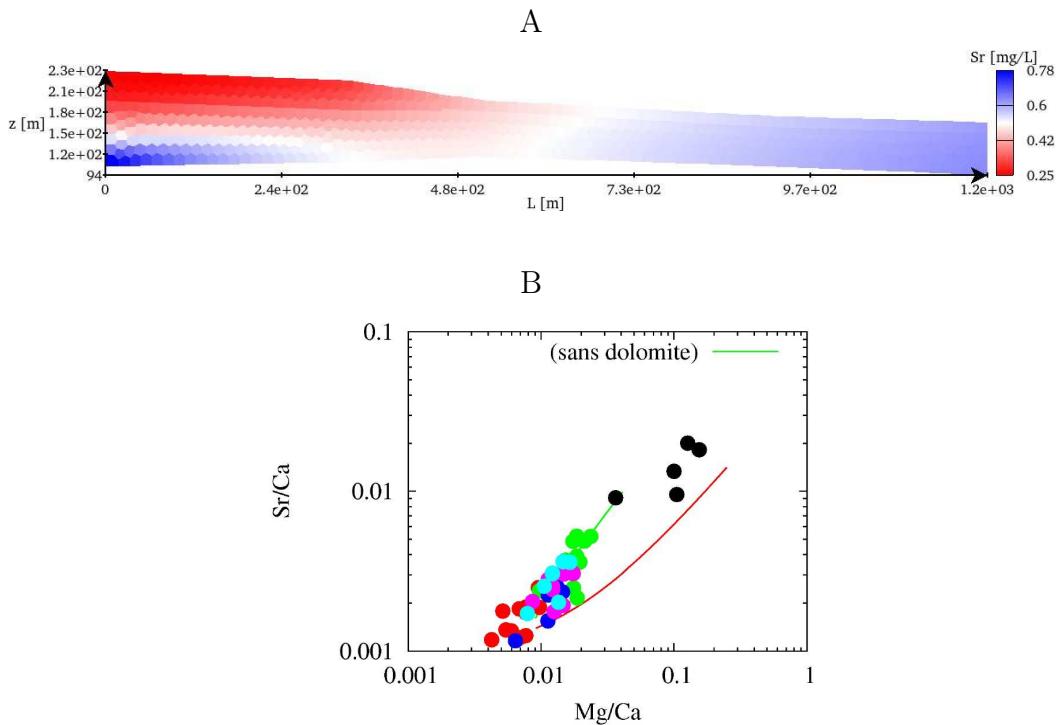


FIGURE 4.6 – Evolution du fond géochimique d’un aquifère crayeux : *A* profil 2D des teneurs en Sr dissous dans le réseau de fracture calculé en état stationnaire ; *B* évolution des rapports molaires Mg/Ca et Sr/Ca calculés et mesurés le long d’une ligne d’écoulement.

$$P = \frac{RT}{v - b} - a(T)v(v + b) + v(v - b) \quad (4.7)$$

où a et b sont eux-mêmes des fonctions semi-empiriques déterminées par nature de gaz, dépendantes notamment de la température et pression critiques.

Les premières applications programmées relatives à la thématique de ce mémoire sont la carbonatation atmosphérique des matériaux cimentaires et des mâchefers, ainsi que la consommation de l’oxygène atmosphérique (transitoire oxydant et son effet sur la corrosion oxique des aciers) et la migration d’hydrogène (générée par la corrosion anoxique des aciers) dans une alvéole de stockage de déchets radioactifs.

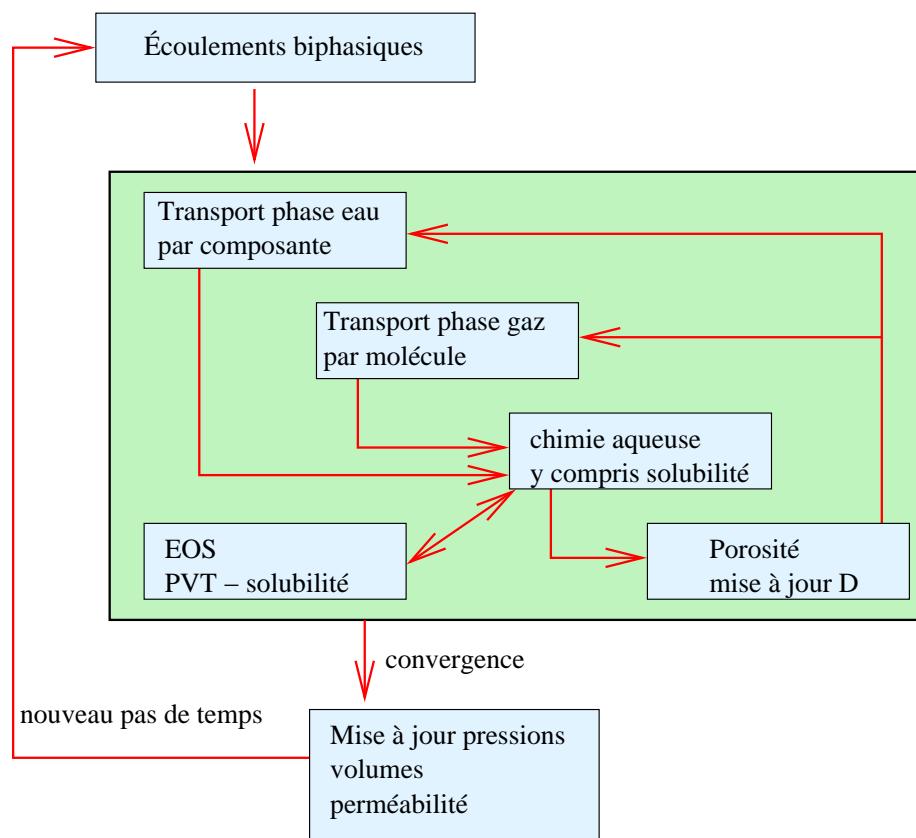


FIGURE 4.7 – Algorithme général de HYTEC pour la résolution du transport réactif en mode biphasique avec phase gazeuse.

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Annexe A

Curriculum vitae

Laurent DE WINDT

Né le 12 octobre 1967, à Rocourt (Belgique)
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A.1 Fonctions et expériences professionnelles

- Depuis 2000 : maître de recherche (mi-temps), Centre de Géosciences, Mines-ParisTech (France).
- Depuis 2000 : ingénieur de recherche (mi-temps), ARMINES – Association pour la recherche et le développement des méthodes et processus industriels (Paris, France).
- 1996-2000 : chef de projet, Institut de Radioprotection et de Sûreté Nucléaire, Département de Protection de l'Environnement (Fontenay-aux-Roses, France).
- 1994-95 : chercheur post-doctoratal en thermodynamique chimique (1994-1995), Université de Strasbourg (France) et centre de recherche IBM (Italie).

A.2 Formation

- 1991-1993 : doctorat en chimie-physique, Université Pierre et Marie Curie Paris VI (France).
- 1987-1990 : maîtrise en chimie, Facultés universitaires de Namur (Belgique).

A.3 Encadrements académiques

Thèses : directeur de thèse

- Chautard, C. (depuis 2010). Bioréactivité fer-argile dans les stockages de déchets radioactifs, Mines-ParisTech (France).
- Debure, M. (depuis 2009). Modélisation de l'altération de verres nucléaires en conditions de stockage, Mines-ParisTech (France).
- Dabo, D. (2006-2008). Comportement à long terme des mâchefers d'incinération d'ordures ménagères en valorisation routière, Mines-ParisTech (France).

Thèses : co-encadrement

- Larreur-Cayol, S. (en 2011). Altération des bétons en milieux agricoles et agro-industriels, Université Paul Sabatier - Toulouse III (France).
- Torres, E. (en 2009). Etudes des interactions acier/bentonite sous gradients hydrique et thermique, Université de Madrid (Espagne).
- Chaurand, P. (2003-2006). Apport de la cristallochimie et de la spéciation du chrome et du vanadium à la modélisation de l'altération des granulats artificiels (sous-produit d'aciérie), Université d'Aix-Marseille (France).
- Louis-Achile, V. (1996-1999). Modélisation du confinement de radionucléides par les apatites et monazites, Université Paris VI (France).

Postdoc : encadrement

- Mangeret, A. (2010). Modélisation couplée géochimie-transport du fond géochimique local de l'aquifère crayeux des Monts de Champagne (Marne), Mines-ParisTech (France).

Mémoires et travaux d'étude

- Rebischung, F. (2009). Modélisation d'expériences de percolation d'un fluide alcalin au sein de l'argilite de Tournemire, mémoire ingénieur civil, Mines-ParisTech (France).
- Collectif (2006). Impacts environnementaux de la filière énergétique uranium – stockage des déchets en subsurface et en milieu géologique profond, Mines-ParisTech (France).
- Vallée, O. (2005). Impact environnemental du recyclage des mâchefers d'incinération d'ordures ménagères, mémoire ingénieur civil, Mines-ParisTech (France).
- Collectif (2005). Impacts environnementaux de la filière énergétique uranium – centrales nucléaires en fonctionnement et en déconstruction, MIG, Mines-ParisTech (France).
- Beauplé, G. (2005). Modélisation de l'évolution des colis vitrifiés en situation de stockage, DEA, université de Paris XI (France).
- Collectif (2004). Impacts environnementaux de la filière énergétique uranium – traitement et résidus des minerais d'uranium, MIG, Mines-ParisTech (France).
- Rouger, G. (2004). Hypothèse de formation des grès de Fontainebleau durant la période glaciaire du Quaternaire, mémoire ingénieur civil, Mines-ParisTech (France).

- Lavergne, L. (1997). Etude de la matière organique du Toarcien et du Permien, DEA, Université de Poitiers (France).
- Gressin, O. (1996). Purification et étude des propriétés d'échanges cationique de l'argilite de Tournemire, DEA, Université Paris XI (France).

A.4 Enseignements

- Modélisation géochimique appliquée aux problèmes d'environnement (depuis 2001), formation continue (Mines-ParisTech), 2 x 3 jours/an.
- Modélisation couplée chimie-transport, applications aux géomatériaux et transferts de polluants (depuis 2003), maîtrise recherche (Université Paris VI), 12 heures/an (1 ECTS), et formation continue (Mines-ParisTech), 3 jours/an.
- Géochimie pour l'ingénieur : chimie environnementale dont microbiologie, stockage et valorisation des déchets miniers et industriels, qualité des eaux et des sols (2004-2007), 2ème année cycle ingénieurs civils (Mines-ParisTech), 18 heures/an (2 ECTS).
- Introduction aux Métiers de l'Ingénieur Généraliste MIG : impact environnemental de la filière énergétique uranium (2004-2006), 1ère année cycle ingénieurs civils (Mines-ParisTech), 3 semaines/an (5 ECTS).
- Méthodes informatiques en chimie (1998-2005), licence de chimie (Université d'Evry Val d'Essonne), 21 heures/an (3 ECTS).

A.5 Divers académiques

Thèses : rapporteur

- Burnol, A. (2009). Influence des transformations minéralogiques sur la mobilité de l'arsenic dans les milieux anoxiques. Application au cas des eaux souterraines du Delta du Bengale, Université Joseph Fourier - Grenoble I (France).
- Verney-Carron, A. (2008). Etude d'analogues archéologiques pour la validation des modèles de comportement à long terme des verres nucléaires, Institut National Polytechnique de Lorraine (France).
- Lidelöw, S. (2008). Environmental assessment of construction with recycled materials. Luleå University of Technology (Sweden).

Selecteur pour revues internationales

- Activité de reviewing pour les revues suivantes : *Environmental Science and Technology, Geochimica and Cosmochimica Acta, Géotechnique, Journal of Contaminant Hydrology, Journal of Environmental Management, Journal of Environmental Quality, Journal of Geochemical Exploration, Journal of Hazardous Materials, Journal of Industrial Ecology, Physics and Chemistry of the Earth, Waste Management*.

Sociétés savantes

- Membre de la Société Chimique de France.

ANR en cours

- SEARCH - Stockage d'Electricité par Air comprimé avec Récupération de la CHaleur de compression.
- TERDOUEST - Terrassements Durables - Ouvrages en sols traités.

Congrès internationaux

- **Conférence invitée**, Cementitious Materials for Waste Treatment, Disposal, Remediation and Decommissioning, SRNL, USA (2006).
- **Comité scientifique et organisateur/rapporteur de session**, Sustainable management of waste and recycled materials in construction (WASCON), Lyon, France (2009) ; Intercontinental Landfill Research Symposium (ICLRS), Copper Mountain, USA (2008).
- **Une vingtaine de communications orales** dans des congrès internationaux : stockage et valorisation des déchets, durabilité des géomatériaux, modélisation couplée chimie/transport.

A.6 Publications

Revues internationales avec comité de lecture (type A)

1. De Windt, L., Dabo, D., Lidelöw, S., Badreddine, R., Lagerkvist, A. (2011b). MSWI bottom ash used as basement at two pilot-scale roads : Comparison of leachate chemistry and reactive transport modeling, *Waste Management* 31, 267-280.
2. De Windt, L., Chaurand, P., Rose, J. (2011a). Kinetics of steel slag leaching : Batch tests and modeling, *Waste Management* 31, 225-235.
3. De Windt, L., Devillers, P. (2010a). Modeling the degradation of Portland cement pastes by biogenic organic acids, *Cement and Concrete Research* 40, 1165-1174.
4. Dabo, D., Badreddine, R., De Windt, L., Drouadaine, I. (2009). Ten-year chemical evolution of leachate and municipal solid waste incineration bottom ash used in a test road site, *Journal of Hazardous Materials* 172, 904-913.
5. Wakim, J., Hadj-Hassen, F., De Windt, L. (2009). Effect of aqueous solution chemistry on the swelling and shrinkage of the Tournemire shale, *International Journal of Rock Mechanics and Mining Sciences* 46, 1378-1382.
6. De Windt, L., Marsal, F., Tinseau, E., Pellegrini, D. (2008). Reactive transport modeling of geochemical interactions at a concrete/argillite interface, Tournemire site (France), *Physics and Chemistry of the Earth* 33, 295-305.

7. Frugier, P., Gin, S., Minet, Y., Chave, T., Bonin, B., Godon, N., Lartigue, J.E., Jollivet, P., Ayral, A., De Windt, L., Santarini, G. (2008). SON68 nuclear glass dissolution kinetics : Current state of knowledge and basis of the new GRAAL model, *Journal of Nuclear Materials* 380, 8-21.
8. De Windt, L., Badreddine, R., Lagneau, V. (2007b). Long-term reactive transport modelling of stabilised/solidified waste : from dynamic leaching tests to disposal scenarios, *Journal of Hazardous Materials* 139, 529-536.
9. De Windt, L., Badreddine, R. (2007a). Modelling of long-term dynamic leaching tests applied to solidified/stabilised waste, *Waste Management* 27, 1638-1647.
10. De Windt, L., Schneider, H., Ferry, C., Catalette, H., Lagneau, V., Poinssot, C., Poulesquen, A., Jegou, C. (2006b). Modeling radionuclide source-terms and release in a spent nuclear fuel disposal, *Radiochimica Acta* 94, 787-794.
11. De Windt, L., Pellegrini, D., van der Lee, J. (2004b). Coupled modeling of cement/claystone interactions and radionuclides migration, *Journal of Contaminant Hydrology* 68, 165-182.
12. De Windt, L., Pellegrini, D., van der Lee, J. (2004a). Reactive transport modeling of a spent fuel repository in a stiff clay formation considering EDZ, *Radiochimica Acta* 92, 841-848.
13. De Windt, L., Burnol, A., Montarnal, P., van der Lee, J. (2003). Intercomparison of reactive transport models applied to UO₂ oxidative dissolution and uranium migration, *Journal of Contaminant Hydrology* 61, 303-312.
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15. van der Lee, J., De Windt, L. (2001). Present state and future modeling of geochemistry in hydrogeological systems, *Journal of Contaminant Hydrology* 47, 265-282.
16. Louis-Achille, V., De Windt, L., Defranceschi, M. (2000). Calculation of electronic structures of minerals : the apatites group as a relevant example, *International Journal of Quantum Chemistry* 77, 991-1006.
17. Mathieu, R., Pagel, M., Clauer, N., De Windt, L., Cabrera, Boisson, J.-Y. (2000). Paleofluid circulations records in shales : a mineralogical and geochemical study of calcite veins from the experimental Tournemire tunnel site, *European Journal of Mineralogy* 12, 377-390.
18. Louis-Achille, V., De Windt, L., Defranceschi, M. (1998c). Local density calculation of structural and electronic properties of fluoroapatite, *Computational Material Science* 10, 346-350.
19. Louis-Achille, V., De Windt, L., Defranceschi, M. (1998b). Local density calculation of structural properties and cohesive energy for ScPO₄, YPO₄ and the apatite Ca₁₀(PO₄)₆F₂, *Journal of Molecular Structure* 426, 217-224.
20. Louis-Achille, V., De Windt, L., Defranceschi, M. (1998a). Total energy pseudopotential calculation in local density approximation for BPO₄, *Computational Material Science* 10, 346-350.

21. Pisani, L., De Windt, L., Clementi, E. (1996). Comments on the topic computation of large molecules, *International Journal of Quantum Chemistry* 58, 219-240.
22. De Windt, L., Hofmann, D.W.M., Pisani, L., Clementi, E. (1995). Extension of the Coulomb-Hole- Hartree-Fock theory to molecules, *International Journal of Quantum Chemistry* 53, 131-147.
23. De Windt, L., Delhalle, J., Defranceschi, M, Fischer, P., Fripiat, J.G. (1994). A Combined analytical and numerical strategy to solve the atomic Hartree-Fock equations in momentum space, *Journal of Computational Physics* 111, 266-274.
24. De Windt, L., Defranceschi, M., Delhalle, J. (1993b). Electronic structure of Li⁻ and F⁻ calculated directly in momentum space, *Theoretica Chimica Acta* 86, 487-496.
25. De Windt, L., Defranceschi, M., Delhalle, J. (1993a). Variation-Iteration method in momentum space : Determination of Hartree-Fock atomic orbitals, *International Journal of Quantum Chemistry* 45, 609-618.
26. Fischer, P., De Windt, L., Defranceschi, M., Delhalle, J. (1993). Electronic structure of H₂ and HeH⁺ computed directly in momentum space, *Journal of Chemical Physics* 99, 7888-7898.
27. De Windt, L., Fripiat, J.G., Delhalle, J., Defranceschi, M. (1992). Improving the one-electron states of ab initio LCAO-GTO calculations in momentum space. Application to Be and B⁺ atoms, *Journal of Molecular Structure* 254, 145-159.
28. Defranceschi, M., De Windt, L., Fripiat, J.G., Delhalle, J. (1992). L'espace des impulsions : un espace pour le calcul et l'analyse de la structure électronique, *Journal of Molecular Structure* 258, 179-196.

Chapitre de livre et encyclopédie technique

1. De Windt, L., van der Lee, J., Schmitt, J.-M. (2005). Modélisation en géochimie des eaux. Concepts et applications aux problèmes d'environnement, *Techniques de l'Ingénieur* AF6530.
2. De Windt, L., Cabrera, J., Boisson, J.-Y. (1999). Radioactive waste containment in indurated claystones : Comparison between the chemical containment properties of matrix and fractures, in *Chemical containment of waste in the geosphere*, Metcalfe, R. & Rochelle, C.A. Eds, *Geological Society of London Special Publication* 157, 167-181.

Revues nationales avec comité de lecture (type B)

1. De Windt, L., Defranceschi, M., Delhalle, J. (1991). Importance of the orthogonalization procedure in ab initio numerical momentum space calculations, *Annales de la Société Scientifique de Bruxelles* 105, 609-618.

Actes de colloques, congrès avec comité de lecture (type B)

1. Aouad, G., De Windt, L., Damidot, D. (2010). 3D simulation of the leaching of cement-based materials in order to compare different leaching tests, *CONMOD 2010 Proceedings*, 174-178.
2. De Windt, L., Devillers, P. (2009). Coupled modeling of cement paste degradation by microbial activity, Concrete in aggressive aqueous environments, *RILEM Publication 63*, 196-203.
3. Dabo, D., Raimbault, L., Badreddine, R., Chaurand, P., Rose, J., De Windt, L. (2008). Characterisation of glassy and heterogeneous cementing phases of municipal solid waste of incineration (MSWI) bottom ash, AusIMM Publications, *Ninth International Congress for Applied Mineralogy Proceedings*, Brisbane (Australia), 95-100.
4. van der Lee, J., De Windt, L., Lagneau, V. (2008). Present state and application of reactive transport models in cement-based porous media, *CONMOD 2008 Proceedings*, Delft (Netherland), 10 p.
5. De Windt, L., Leclercq, S., van der Lee, J. (2006a). Assessing the durability of nuclear glass with respect to silica controlling processes in a clayey underground disposal, *Materials Research Society Proceedings* 932, 313-320.
6. De Windt, L., Catalette, H., Gras, J.M. (2004a). Reactive transport modeling of radionuclide source-terms in an underground spent fuel disposal, *Materials Research Society Proceedings* 807, 743-748.
7. Pellegrini, D., De Windt, L. (2003). Assessment of geochemical containment properties in the near field of a deep underground repository, *Materials Research Society Proceedings* 757, 19-25.
8. De Windt, L., van der Lee, J., Pellegrini D. (2001). Reactive transport modeling of pH buffering in cement - clay systems, *Water-Rock Interaction Proceedings (Balkema Ed.)*, 1315-1318.
9. Savoye, S., De Windt, L., Beaucaire, C., Bruno, G., Guitard, N. (2001). Are artificial tracers conservative in argillaceous media? The Tournemire claystone case, *Water-Rock Interaction Proceedings (Balkema Ed.)*, 1383-1386.
10. De Windt, L., Cabrera, J., Boisson, J.-Y. (1998). Hydrochemistry in an indurated argillaceous formation (Tournemire site, France), *Water-Rock Interaction Proceedings (Balkema Ed.)*, 145-148.

Actes de colloques, congrès sans comité de lecture

1. De Windt, L., Bleijerveld, R., Humez, N., Keulen, A., Magnié, M.C., Ruat, P., Simons, D.J. (2009b). Re-visiting acceptance criteria calculations for monolithic waste landfill with reactive transport modeling : Application to total dissolved salts (TDS), *International Solid Waste Conference Proceedings*, Lisbon (Portugal), 8 p.
2. De Windt, L., Dabo, D., Lidelöw, S., Badreddine, R., Lagerkvist, A. (2009a). Reactive transport modelling of leachate evolution of MSWI bottom ash used as road

- basement, Hérouville (France) and Dåva (Sweden) sites, *WASCON Conference Proceedings*, Lyon (France), 8 p.
3. Dabo, D., Badreddine, R., Drouadaine, I., De Windt, L. (2008). Evaluation of the environmental impact of MSWI bottom ash reused in road construction : a ten-year field experimentation, in *WasteEng 08 Proceedings*, Patras (Greece).
 4. van der Lee, J., De Windt, L., Lagneau, V., Goblet, P. (2002). Presentation and application of the reactive transport code HYTEC, *Computational methods in water resources Proceedings*(Elsevier Ed.), 599-606.
 5. De Windt, L., van der Lee, J., Pellegrini, D. (2002). Fully coupled modeling of radio-nuclides migration in a clayey rock disturbed by alkaline plume, *TrePro'02 Modeling of Coupled Transport Reaction Processes Proceedings* FZKA 6721, Karlsruhe (Germany), 5-8.
 6. van der Lee J., De Windt, L. (2002). Colloids in fractured and porous hydrogeologic medium, *TrePro'02 Modeling of Coupled Transport Reaction Processes Proceedings* FZKA 6721, Karlsruhe (Germany), 112-119.
 7. De Windt, L., Lagneau, V., van der Lee, J. (2001). Modélisation couplée chimie/transport des stockages de déchets en milieux argileux, *Industrie minérale et environnement Proceedings*, Paris (France), 73-76.
 8. Cabrera, J., De Windt, L., Bruno, G., Rejeb, A., Genty, A., Volant, P. (2000). The argillaceous indurated media as a potential geological barrier for deep radioactive waste disposal : studies at the experimental IPSN Tournemire site, *SAFEWASTE 2000 Proceedings*, France, 607-623.
 9. De Windt, L., Cabrera, J., Boisson, J.-Y. (1997). Fluid transfers pathways effects on matrix and fracture hydrochemistry in Tournemire shales (Aveyron, France). *Proceedings of OECD/NEA International Workshop on Use of Hydrogeochemical Information in Testing Groundwater Flow Models*, Borgholm (Sweden), 281-288.
 10. Boisson, J.-Y., Cabrera, J., De Windt, L. (1996). Investigating faults and fractures in an argillaceous formation at the IPSN Tournemire research site. In *Proceedings of OECD/NEA-E.C. International Workshop on Fluid Flow Through Faults and Fractures in Argillaceous Formation*, Berne (Switzerland), 207.
 11. Bassot, S., Stammose, D., De Windt, L., Dubois, C. (1996). Study of an uranium mill tailings site : characterization of the source term and modelling, *Wastes Management Proceedings*, Tucson (USA), 10 p.

Notes de cours

1. De Windt, L., Raimbault, L., Schmitt, J.-M. Géochimie pour l'ingénieur, de la cosmochimie à la qualité des eaux : cours et travaux dirigés, option cycle ingénieurs civils, Mines-ParisTech, 98 p.
2. De Windt, L., Schmitt, J.-M., van der Lee, J. Modélisation géochimique appliquée aux problèmes d'environnement : cours et travaux dirigés, formation continue, Mines-ParisTech, 156 p.

3. Lagneau, V., van der Lee, J., De Windt, L. Modélisation couplée chimie-transport, principes et applications aux géomatériaux et transferts de polluants en milieux naturels : cours et travaux dirigés, maîtrise, Université Paris VI, et formation continue, Mines-ParisTech, 70 p.

Rapports techniques

- Une cinquantaine de rapports techniques, nationaux et internationaux.

Annexe B

Sélection de publications

B.1 De Windt et al. (2003). Intercomparison of reactive transport models applied to UO₂ oxidative dissolution and uranium migration, *J Contam Hydrol* 61, 303-312.



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Intercomparison of reactive transport models applied to UO₂ oxidative dissolution and uranium migration

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Abstract

Oxidative dissolution of uranium dioxide (UO₂) and the subsequent migration of uranium in a subsurface environment and an underground waste disposal have been simulated with reactive transport models. In these systems, hydrogeological and chemical processes are closely entangled and their interdependency has been analyzed in detail, notably with respect to redox reactions, kinetics of mineralogical evolution and hydrodynamic migration of species of interest.

Different codes, where among CASTEM, CHEMTRAP and HYTEC, have been used as an intercomparison and verification exercise. Although the agreement between codes is satisfactory, it is shown that the discretization method of the transport equation (i.e. finite elements (FE) versus mixed-hybrid FE and finite differences) and the sequential coupling scheme may lead to systematic discrepancies.

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Keywords: Reactive transport; Uranium dioxide; Oxidative dissolution; Uranium migration; Intercomparison

1. Introduction

Oxidative dissolution of uraninite and spent fuel, and the subsequent migration of uranium, are relevant processes for accidental radioactive pollutions and the disposal of spent nuclear fuel. A resembling leaching behaviour of uraninite and spent fuel has been observed under oxic or mildly reducing conditions (Bruno et al., 1995; Cachoir et al.,

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1996; Wronkiewicz et al., 1996; Serrano et al., 1998). Uranium dioxide (UO_2) is readily oxidized to UO_{2+x} ($x \leq 0.67$) and then to uranyl-oxide hydrates such as becquerelite and schoepite. This transient process is kinetically favored, but thermodynamically unstable, and depending on the chemical composition of leachates, followed by the formation of uranyl silicates (soddyite) and/or alkali-alkaline earth silicates (bolwoodite, uranophane) as end products. The actual mobility of uranium is the result of competition between aqueous ligands (carbonates, hydroxyls, phosphates, sulfates, organics), precipitation of secondary uranium minerals and sorption on solid phases (clays, ferric hydroxides, humic substances). In soils, uranium migration is usually restricted to a few tens of centimeters, but can be enhanced by colloidal transport and carbonate complexation (van der Lee et al., 1992; Elless and Lee, 1998).

The hydrogeological and chemical reactions of deep-underground or subsurface systems are closely entangled, and transport models coupled with chemistry are increasingly used to simulate the dissolution and migration processes (van der Lee and De Windt, 2001). The main objective of this paper is to present an intercomparison study using different reactive transport codes, where among CASTEM (CEA, 1999), CHEMTRAP (Lucille et al., 2000), HYTEC (van der Lee and De Windt, 2001) and PHREEQC (Parkhurst and Appelo, 1999). To a lesser extent, the hydrogeochemical behaviour of such systems characterized by strong redox fronts and kinetics is also discussed. The first case study concerns the leaching of a uranium-enriched zone by rainwater infiltration, and the second is the spent fuel degradation in a waste storage disposal under oxidizing conditions.

2. Reactive transport modeling

CASTEM, CHEMTRAP and HYTEC combine chemical reactions with hydrogeological processes such as groundwater flow, advective transport with dispersion, diffusion, and for HYTEC, colloidal transport. Chemical processes include, among others, aqueous speciation and redox reactions, interface reactions (surface complexation, ion exchange) and dissolution/precipitation of solids (colloids, minerals). The models make use of thermodynamic databases, hence several hundreds of simultaneously reacting species can be considered. As the codes become increasingly complex, a comprehensive verification process is essential. Comparing numerical results with analytical solutions verifies that the numerical algorithms correctly reflect the mathematical concepts and provides insight into the inherent approximations. The set of analytical solutions, however, is restricted for reactive transport codes. Only the benchmarking between peer codes allows verifying and testing the performances of the global procedures (numerical behaviour, input and database management) for more complex applications.

In CASTEM, discretization of the transport equation is based on mixed-hybrid finite elements, MHFE, with a constant concentration in the center of each element (Chavant and Roberts, 1991). CHEMTRAP and HYTEC use a finite element (FE) approach with concentrations defined at the nodes and a linear interpolation between adjacent nodes. Both approaches are well suited for irregular regions and to locate nodes where improved accuracy is needed. FE ill-defines the initial mass of minerals and geometrical boundaries

of geochemical zones (defined by a certain number of elements) due to the interpolation procedure between adjacent nodes. Finite differences or the mixed-hybrid FE approaches are more precise with respect to this point.

Each model couples geochemistry with transport according to the sequential iterative approach: chemistry and transport are solved one after the other within a single time step (Yeh and Tripathi, 1989; van der Lee and De Windt, 2001). Since the two sets of equations are interdependent, iterations are required to increase the accuracy to an acceptable level.

The three models use the assumption of local thermodynamic equilibrium (mass balance) and an improved Newton–Raphson procedure to solve the algebraic set of equations. In addition, CHEMTRAP and HYTEC, which share the same chemical engine (van der Lee, 1998), provide a mixed kinetic/equilibrium approach with respect to dissolution and precipitation:

$$\frac{dS}{dt} = A_v k \prod_i [C_i]^{a_i} \left(\frac{Q}{K} - 1 \right) \quad (1)$$

where A_v is the surface in contact with the solution (m^2/l), k is the rate constant ($\text{mol}/\text{m}^2/\text{s}$) and Q/K is the ratio between the saturation state of the solid and its equilibrium constant. The term $\prod_i [C_i]^{a_i}$ is solution dependent with $[C_i]$ being the activity of species (catalysis if a_i is positive or inhibition otherwise). Since CASTEM does not include kinetics and CHESS is common to both CHEMTRAP and HYTEC, we completed the set of models with PHREEQC (Parkhurst and Appelo, 1999) for the second test case. This code uses an explicit finite difference algorithm for calculation of 1D advective–dispersive transport, a mixed kinetic/equilibrium approach and a noniterative sequential coupling scheme.

As proposed in the study of CRWMS-MO (1998), the EQ3/6 data set of Wolery (1992) was selected and enriched with experimental data for uranyl silicates (Nguyen et al., 1992). The rate constant for the uranyl minerals was derived according to Eq. (1) from experimental results at room temperature (Bruno et al., 1995; Pérez et al., 1997). Although probably relevant, no temperature correction was attempted here. The oxidative dissolution rate of spent fuel was derived from the study of Gray et al. (1992). The data used for the uranium minerals are reported in Table 1. The intrinsic constants of Gabriel et al.

Table 1
Reactions, equilibrium constants and rate coefficients used for the uranium minerals

Reaction	Log K_{eq}	Rate coefficient ($\text{mol}/\text{m}^2/\text{s}$)
$\text{UO}_2 + 2\text{H}^+ + 1/2\text{O}_2(\text{aq}) \rightleftharpoons \text{UO}_2^{2+} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	29.12 (25 °C), 24.15 (70 °C)	$4 \times 10^{-8} \times (\text{H}^+)^{0.14}$ $(\text{HCO}_3^-)^{0.26}$
Boltwoodite + 3 H^+ $\rightleftharpoons \text{Na}^+ + \text{SiO}_2(\text{aq}) + \text{UO}_2^{2+} + 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$	5.82 (25 °C)	1×10^{-12}
Schoepite + 2 H^+ $\rightleftharpoons \text{UO}_2^{2+} + 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$	4.84 (25 °C), 3.69 (70 °C)	1×10^{-11} (1) or $5 \times 10^6 \times (\text{H}^+)^2$ (2)
Soddyite + 4 H^+ $\rightleftharpoons \text{SiO}_2(\text{aq}) + 2\text{UO}_2^{2+} + 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$	5.74 (25 °C)	5×10^{-10}
Uranophane + 6 H^+ $\rightleftharpoons \text{Ca}^{2+} + 2\text{SiO}_2(\text{aq}) + 2\text{UO}_2^{2+} + 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$	9.42 (25 °C)	5×10^{-13}

(1, 2), respectively, for the first and second benchmarks.

(1998) were used to model surface complexation of UO_2^{2+} and UO_2OH^+ on goethite (specific surface = $60 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$) and hydrous ferric oxides (specific surface = $100 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$). The densities of low and high affinity sites were, respectively, of 3.75 and $0.095 \mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2$.

3. Subsurface migration of uranium

The configuration of the first benchmark is shown by Fig. 1. Rainwater infiltrates in a subsurface aquifer and leaches a zone enriched in uraninite. Rainwater is in equilibrium with the atmosphere (fugacity $\text{O}_2 = 0.2$, fugacity $\text{CO}_2 = 3 \times 10^{-4}$). For reasons of simplicity, the unsaturated zone was neglected, and dissolved oxygen does not react with any redox species before reaching UO_2 . Calcite and quartz are the main minerals of the aquifer, and goethite is present at a lower content (2.5%). The aquifer has a relatively high pH (9.0–9.5) and low carbonate contents ($\sim 2 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mol/l}$). The enriched zone of the aquifer has an average weight content in UO_2 of 5%. The percolation rate was set to 2.5 m/year for a porosity of 40%. The longitudinal and transverse dispersivities were, respectively, 1 and 1.5 m. A 1D grid (32 nodes) along the symmetrical axis and a 2D grid (19×32 nodes) were used with Dirichlet conditions at the upper parts. Temperature was fixed to 25°C .

Fig. 2A shows the 2D concentration profiles of dissolved oxygen ($\text{O}_2(\text{aq})$) after 100 years as an indicator of redox conditions. UO_2 acts as a reducing buffer and the oxidative dissolution of UO_2 , which is assumed to be in equilibrium in this case, depletes the oxygen content of the groundwater. The dissolved uranium concentration ($\text{U}(\text{aq})$) depends on precipitation of secondary uranium minerals, sorption on the solid phase, dispersion and dilution. Under all circumstances, $\text{UO}_2(\text{OH})_3^-$ remains the predominant species in the solution. Fig. 2B illustrates that $\text{U}(\text{aq})$ is controlled by kinetic precipitation of schoepite

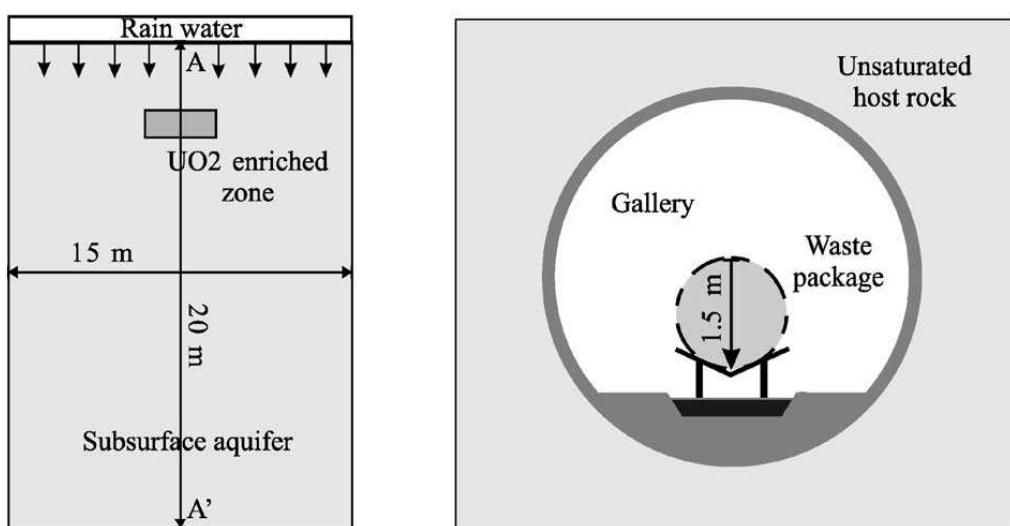


Fig. 1. Layout of the benchmarks.

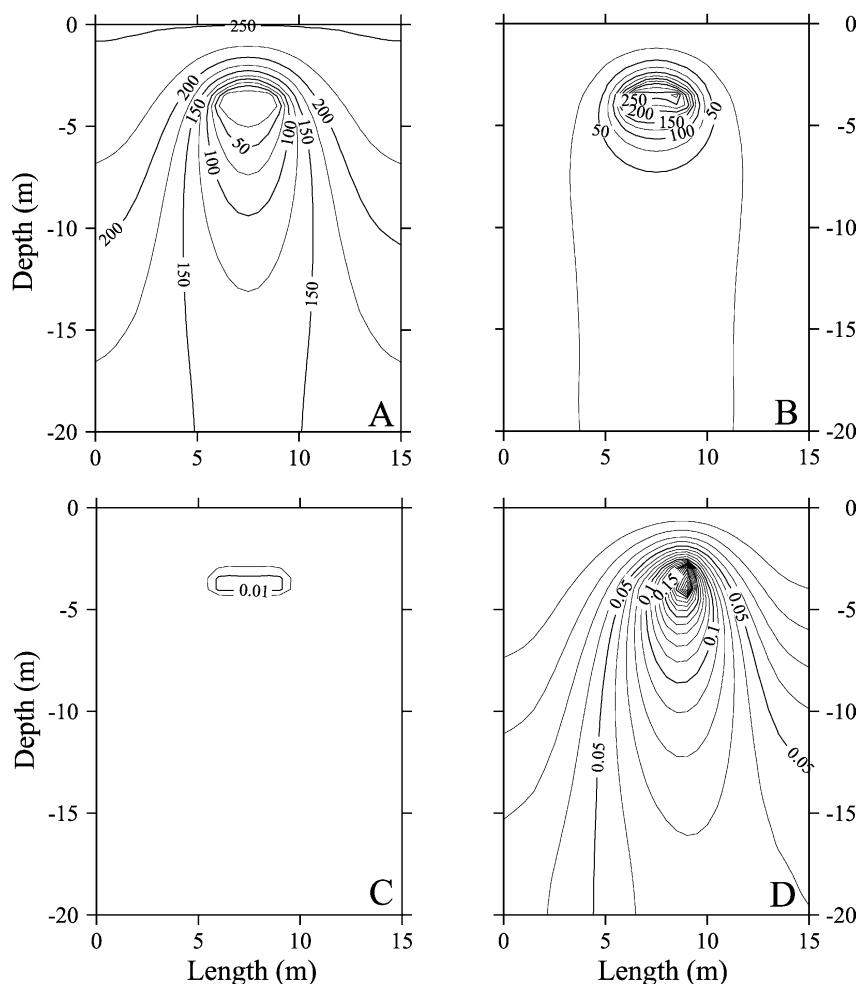


Fig. 2. Concentration profiles ($\mu\text{mol/l}$) calculated with HYTEC after 100 years: (A) dissolved oxygen, (B) mobile uranium controlled by schoepite kinetic precipitation, (C) mobile uranium controlled by uranophane precipitation and sorption on goethite, (D) same as (C) and asymmetric colloidal transport by hydrous ferric oxides.

which replaces, *in situ*, the uraninite when assuming equilibrium conditions. Under kinetic control ($A_v = 1 \text{ m}^2/\text{l}$ arbitrarily), schoepite precipitation occurs more downstream.

At equilibrium, uranophane is the most stable mineral, and the uranium solubility is reduced by four orders of magnitude (Fig. 2C). Downstream migration is slowed down due to sorption on goethite surfaces; this kind of retention is likely to occur in most subsurface systems. Colloidal transport, however, may act like a vehicle for uranium and for heavy or toxic metals in general, which tend to strongly sorb on these particles. Modeling of uranium migration including the colloidal effect is possible with HYTEC, and the results are illustrated by Fig. 2D. As 50 mg/l of hydrous ferric oxides (HFO) colloids migrate downwards from the upper right corner, the mobility of uranium is moderately enhanced. Note that colloidal transport is significant only when uranium is strongly, eventually irreversible sorbed on HFO—otherwise, retention by mineral goethite dominates.

Concentration profiles calculated with CASTEM, CHEMTRAP and HYTEC in 1D and along the 2D symmetry axis are compared and shown in Fig. 3. The agreement between codes is satisfactory despite some small discrepancies in UO_2 and $\text{U}(\text{aq})$ concentrations. Not shown here, tracer profiles compare very well. The discrepancy is also reflected by comparing the calculated time needed for total dissolution of UO_2 . The time depends on whether the simulation has been performed in one or two dimensions: 270 and 170 years (CASTEM), 280 and 165 years (CHEMTRAP), 290 and 185 years (HYTEC). The important difference between 1D and 2D grids is due to the 2D dispersion of $\text{O}_2(\text{aq})$ which more correctly simulates the attack of UO_2 both at the front and laterally. This effect also explains the increase of the $\text{O}_2(\text{aq})$ concentration along the 2D symmetry axis. The discretization method partly explains the discrepancies. The mass distribution is correctly localized for MHFE (concentrations defined by elements), but is overestimated for FE

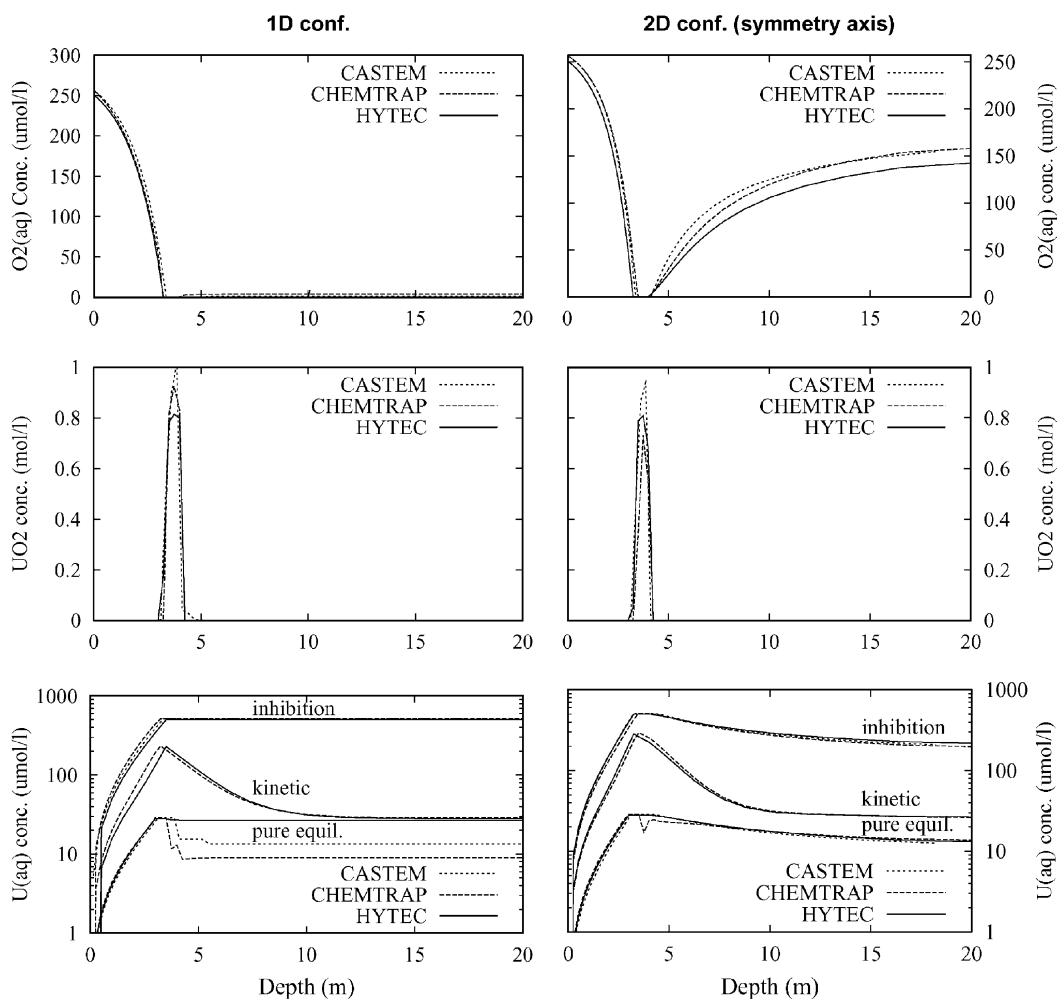


Fig. 3. Calculated concentration profiles of dissolved oxygen, uraninite and dissolved uranium after 100 years in 1D (left) and 2D (right) configurations. Precipitation of schoepite is either at equilibrium, kinetic or prevented (inhibition).

(linear interpolation between nodes). An approximative weighting factor (0.8), estimated from geometrical considerations, was therefore applied to FE simulations. Deviations between CHEMTRAP and HYTEC come from the use of, respectively, triangular and rectangular FE. Obviously, this type of discrepancy decreases with the grid resolution. A second source of error is the iterative coupling scheme of the model. This source is particularly relevant for the numerically ‘stiff’ cases (e.g. schoepite precipitation at equilibrium in 1D) which presents the greatest discrepancies in U(aq) and an erroneous reprecipitation of UO₂ down-stream, as computed by CASTEM. The differences between results remain, however, acceptable small, and the three codes deal reasonably well with sharp redox fronts, often problematic for reactive transport codes (Bäverman et al., 1999).

4. Spent fuel leaching

Thick, unsaturated host rock could possibly host an underground repository for nuclear spent fuel provided arid climates (e.g. Yucca Mountain). A possible engineering design would be the disposition of corrosion-resistant waste packages in open-air galleries (oxidizing conditions). After a very long period of time, package and cladding failures could occur exposing the spent fuel to natural waters. The dripping flow of such waters would be, however, very weak. The waste packages are unsaturated too, and therefore homogeneously in contact with atmospheric oxygen. Fig. 1 schematically illustrates the geometry, which is reduced to a 1D column for the current source term modeling. Due to the very weak dripping flow, a constant flux was imposed as boundary condition. Constant concentrations (Dirichlet condition) will indeed overestimate the flux from the host rock. The hydrogeological and geochemical parameters are given in Table 2, and an average temperature of 70 °C was assumed.

In the specific context of the present HYTEC calculations, the chemical process is controlled by the combination of permanent oxidative dissolution and precipitation kinetics of uranyl phases. After 5000 years, the phase transformation of spent fuel to schoepite is completed throughout the package. Uranophane precipitates at the expense of schoepite with a maximum concentration of 10⁻¹ mol/l at the package top. Soddyite and boltwoodite-Na also precipitate for a while, but disappear on the long term. The mineralogical sequence is globally in agreement with the experiments of Wronkiewicz et al. (1996). Note that secondary hindrance mechanisms, such as precipitation of schoepite around the fuel pellets or water lack in some parts of the waste, may increase significantly. A comparison between the results obtained by HYTEC and PHREEQC is

Table 2
Hydrogeological and geochemical parameters of the second benchmark

Hydrogeology	pore velocity = 3.36 cm/year, dispersion/diffusion coefficient = 1 × 10 ⁻⁹ m ² /s
Dripping solution	pH = 8.2, [Na ⁺] _T = 1.99 mmol/l, [Ca ²⁺] _T = 0.094 mmol/l, [SiO ₂] _T = 1.36 mmol/l, [Cl ⁻] _T = 0.94 mmol/l
Gases	fugacity CO ₂ = 0.001, fugacity O ₂ = 0.20
Spent fuel	content = 450 g/l of water, specific surface = 39 cm ² /g
Secondary minerals	nucleation surface = 100 cm ² /l, specific surface = 6 cm ² /g

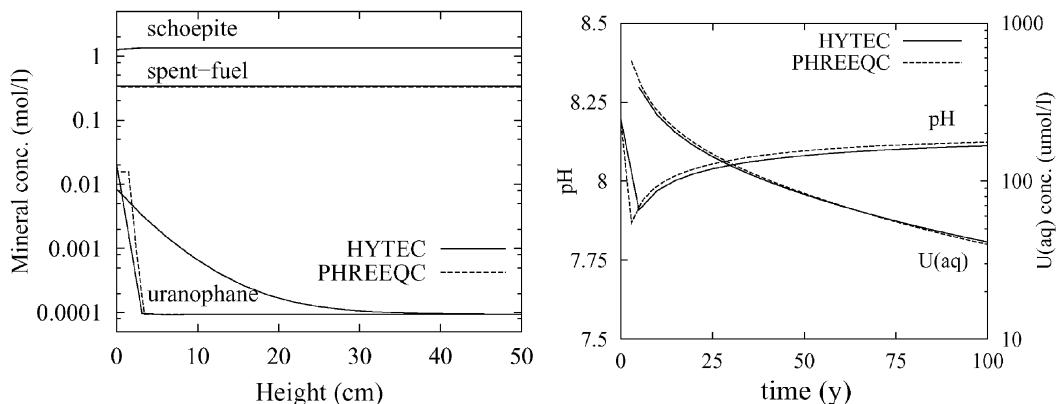


Fig. 4. Evolution of the mineralogical composition over the whole package after 100 years, and time profiles of pH and dissolved uranium concentration at the bottom. Height stands for a vertical section through the package.

shown in Fig. 4. The grid size is of 51 nodes. Not shown here, CHEMTRAP produces results virtually identical to HYTEC, which is expected, since the system is dominated by geochemistry and both codes share the same geochemical model CHESS. The mineralogical compositions calculated after 100 years by HYTEC and PHREEQC are in very good agreement. For uranophane, the two profiles close to the left axis correspond to precipitation at equilibrium and the other to kinetic precipitation. Time series of pH and U(aq) concentration compare fairly well. At the bottom of the waste packages (source term), the change in pH is small (≤ 0.5), and the U(aq) concentration progressively decreases to become constant (10^{-5} mol/l) after consumption of all UO_2 . Due to the weak water flux, the U source term would be constantly tiny.

5. Conclusions

Reactive transport models offer the mean of studying geochemically complex systems in a hydrodynamic context. As permanent progress is achieved with regards to both conceptual and mathematical aspects of the model, a verification protocol and standard test cases are needed in addition to analytical solutions. Benchmarking between peer codes also allows to verify the code behaviour. In this context, calculations of UO_2 dissolution and uranium migration have been performed with CASTEM, CHEMTRAP, HYTEC and PHREEQC. The numerical results are fairly in good agreement, although the discretization approach and coupling algorithm lead to systematic discrepancies. In complement, 1D simulations, which are still commonly performed due to CPU limitations, are often unable to correctly model the systems and a 2D geometry becomes essential. For the proposed applications, it has been shown that the geochemical reactions are closely related to the hydrodynamic processes, especially when the reactions are kinetically controlled, colloid migration is active or the contaminant source significantly disturbs the geochemistry of the migration field. Use of reactive transport models is therefore effective to gain a conceptual and quantitative understanding of such natural and multibarrier systems.

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Coupled modeling of cement/claystone interactions and radionuclide migration

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Abstract

The interactions between cement and a clayey host-rock of an underground repository for intermediate-level radioactive waste are studied with the reactive transport code HYTEC for supporting performance assessment. Care is taken in using relevant time scales (100,000 years) and dimensions. Based on a literature review, three hypotheses are considered with respect to the mineralogical composition of the claystone and the neo-formed phases. In the long term, the pH is buffered for all hypotheses and important mineral transformations occur both in cement and the host-rock. The destruction of the primary minerals is localized close to the cement/claystone interface and is characterized by the precipitation of secondary phases with retention properties (illite, zeolite). However, beyond the zone of intense mineral transformations, the pore water chemistry is also disturbed over a dozen meters due to an attenuated but continuous flux of hydroxyl, potassium and calcium ions. Four interdependent mechanisms control the profile in the whole system: diffusion of the alkaline plume, mineralogical buffering, ion exchange and clogging of the pore space at the cement/claystone interface. The migration of a selected group of radionuclides (Cs, Ra, Tc and U) is explicitly integrated in the simulations of the strongly coupled system. Theoretical profiles of distribution coefficient (K_d) and solubility limit values are derived from the simulations, and their sensitivity with respect to the system evolution is estimated.

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Keywords: Cement; Clay; Radioactive waste; Radionuclide migration; Reactive transport

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1. Context and objectives

Argillaceous media are being investigated in several countries as one of the geological formations that could possibly host an underground repository for radioactive waste due notably to their favorable hydraulic and chemical containment properties. Design options of disposal facilities may include large amounts of cementitious material for waste immobilization, for minimizing corrosion and radionuclide migration and for supporting cavities such as drifts and vaults. For purposes of safety assessment, these positive features have to be balanced against the potentially negative effects of cement degradation on the performance of the geological barrier in the near-field. The pore water chemistry of most cements is characterized by high amounts of alkaline and hydroxyl ions ($\text{pH} \geq 13$). The migration of the cement pore water into the surrounding media leads to the formation of an alkaline plume. Accordingly, local destruction of minerals constitutive of the host-rock can occur as well as a substantial modification of the hydraulic and retention properties of host-rock in near-field.

Performance assessment of radioactive waste disposal requires modeling long-term migration of radionuclides through the engineered barriers and the geological environment since the considered time scales, of several thousands of years, are out of range of any direct experiments. Such integrated transport modeling addresses the most significant features and processes at scales representative of the disposal site but usually requires a simplified representation of the later. Hence, geochemical and hydrodynamic processes are usually accounted for in an independent manner. The chemical complexity is reduced to distribution coefficients (K_d) and solubility limits (SL) that are assigned to components of the repository. These input parameters are generally assumed to be constant in time, although the components may be progressively disturbed by waste degradation and the geochemical interaction between engineered barriers and the geological medium (Sagar et al., 2002; Savage, 1994).

Considerable progress has been made in the field of reactive transport models and computer codes which offer the possibility of simulating geochemically complex systems in a hydrodynamic context (van der Lee and De Windt, 2001). This type of process level modeling can provide essential information to integrated performance assessment regarding the potential evolution of the near-field geochemistry, the relevance and coupling of processes, the interpretation of radionuclide containment at a mechanistic level and the estimation of K_d and SL value evolution in time and space. It therefore provides direct information for assessing the pros and cons of engineered barriers with regard to radionuclide migration and allows backing up the simplifications made in PA modeling.

In this respect, a rigorous model has been developed using the reactive transport code HYTEC to assess the geochemical evolution of an argillaceous host-rock due to interactions with cementitious waste and backfill materials. The considered system is an underground disposal for intermediate level radioactive waste (ILW) in stiff clay. Care has been taken to use design hypotheses and time scales consistent with the repository projects developed to date. Based on a literature review, the sensitivity of the system evolution is assessed with respect to the variability of the experimental results. The impact of precipitation and dissolution of minerals on porosity and diffusion is studied, illustrating how both hydrological and chemical processes occur interdependently. At last, simulation

of Cs migration within the coupled evolving system, together with the derivation of Kd and SL values for Cs, Ra, Tc and U, enables some evaluation of the consequences of geochemical evolutions in near-field on the containment properties of the repository. These radionuclides have been selected mainly on the basis of data availability and interest for safety. Actually, they are present not only in ILW but also in spent fuel, disposal of which may include a cementitious engineered barrier as well, and they contribute to the dosimetric impact especially for the spent fuel case. This selection of radionuclides is thus studied as an example that is safety relevant, but should however not be considered here as the hierarchy of the radionuclides to be treated in priority with respect to safety issues.

2. Model assumptions and thermodynamic data

2.1. Site and model features

The studied system is a simplified representation of the near-field of an ILW repository in a deep argillaceous formation derived from the various repository designs studied at present time. The host-rock formation properties are those of stiff clays such as can be found in France and Switzerland (De Windt et al., 1999): a strongly indurated claystone and with a low porosity. Diffusion is the predominant migration mechanism. The hydrogeological parameters are provided in Table 1. Identical parameters for anionic and cationic species were used in the reactive transport code (HYTEC, see below), which is a simplification for clayey materials when considering partial anion exclusion may occur in the smallest pores. Waste disposal design comprises horizontal tunnels perpendicular to handling drifts. The tunnels are 100 m long, 6 m in diameter and 26 m apart (see Fig. 1). The nuclear waste is immobilized in a cementitious matrix. The cylindrical containers (1 m in diameter) are aligned in four rows in each tunnel. It is assumed that the tunnels are entirely filled with cement, i.e. the same type of cement is used for the waste and the engineered barrier. An ordinary Portland cement (OPC) is considered, of which porosity and diffusion coefficients are detailed in Table 1. In accordance with field observations (Cabrer et al., 1999), an excavation damaged zone (EDZ) is defined around the tunnels as a strongly fractured zone (EDZ-I, 1 m thick) and a disturbed transition zone (EDZ-II, 1.5 m thick), with higher porosities and pore diffusion coefficients than the undisturbed clayey rock (see Table 1). The temperature is 20 °C, representative of thermal conditions prevailing in host-rock since ILW waste does not generate significant thermal output.

Table 1
Hydrogeological parameters

	Porosity	D_p (m ² /s)	D_{eff} (m ² /s)
Cement	0.20	1.0×10^{-10}	2.0×10^{-11}
Host-rock	0.15	1.0×10^{-10}	1.5×10^{-11}
EDZ-I	0.35	1.0×10^{-9}	3.5×10^{-10}
EDZ-II	0.20	2.5×10^{-10}	5.0×10^{-11}

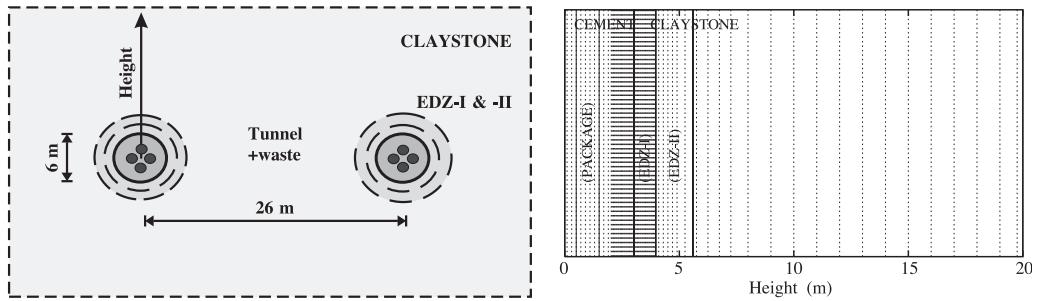


Fig. 1. Schematic two-dimensional vertical cross-section of the horizontal tunnels (left) and two-dimensional grid used in the calculations with location of cement, waste package, EDZ and claystone zones (right). In the figures, “height” means the vertical direction, towards the upper aquifer.

In our study, the OPC interstitial water is a K–Na–OH fluid in equilibrium with portlandite (25% weight), ettringite (15%) and a calcium silicate hydrate with a Ca/Si ratio of 1.8 (60%). The ionic strength is about 0.22 and the value is 13.3 at 20 °C. In the calculations, the cement was considered as a reactive geochemical zone in itself and not as a constant boundary condition. The argillaceous rock is a claystone with high contents in clay minerals, mainly illite (22% weight) and interstratified illite/smectite (28%). Quartz (30%), calcite (15%), dolomite (3%), pyrite (1%) and organic matter (1%) are also present. The organic matter was assumed to be mature, i.e. non-reactive, and was therefore not taken into account in the simulations. In our model, Ca-montmorillonite represents the smectitic part of the claystone. The pore water has a pH of 7.7 with sodium, chloride and sulfate as major ions; its ionic strength is about 0.075. The cation exchange capacity (CEC) is 20 meq/100 g of rock, Ca being the dominant exchangeable cation: Ca (77%, in equivalent fraction), Na (19%), Mg (3.5%), K (0.5%). At the in situ pH, the exchangeable proton concentration was estimated to be close to 10% of the CEC as in Cranga et al. (1998). The pore water is in equilibrium with the minerals and the exchangeable ions related to the clay minerals.

The reactive transport code HYTEC (van der Lee et al., 2003), based on the geochemical code CHESS, was used to simulate the cement/claystone interaction processes. HYTEC simulates advective, dispersive and diffusive transport for solutes and colloids using a finite element approach. A wide range of processes such as aqueous chemistry, redox, dissolution/precipitation, surface complexation and ion exchange can be modeled at equilibrium or with kinetic control. In HYTEC, transport is coupled to chemistry according to:

$$\frac{\partial \omega c_i}{\partial t} = \nabla(D \cdot \nabla c_i) - \nabla(c_i U) - \frac{\partial \omega \bar{c}_i}{\partial t}, \quad (1)$$

where c_i and \bar{c}_i are respectively the mobile and immobile concentration of a species per unit volume of solution, ω is the porosity, U is the Darcy velocity and D is the hydrodynamic dispersion coefficient (or effective diffusion coefficient when velocity is zero, like in this study). The fixed fraction is evaluated by chemical calculations, whereas the aqueous fraction is a function of the transport processes. Chemistry and transport are

coupled through a sequential iterative algorithm with an adaptive time step. In addition, the HYTEC code is strongly coupled, e.g. the hydrology (flow and diffusion) may change when mineral precipitation or dissolution changes the local porosity thus allowing to account for clogging in a rigorous manner. A one-dimensional grid of 75 nodes, refined at the cement/claystone interface (grid spacing of 5 cm), was used for the HYTEC calculations presented herein, as shown in Fig. 1. Depending on the chemical complexity, as discussed below, and for the 100,000 years of simulated duration, the CPU time typically ranged from 1 to 5 days with a 1800 GHz processor. Nevertheless, significant reduction of the calculation time can be achieved by using parallel computing techniques. Parallelization of HYTEC is actually under development.

2.2. Thermodynamic data

The EQ3/6 thermodynamic database (Wolery, 1992) was selected for the study and enriched with additional data. Table 2 provides all the details regarding the mineral thermodynamic data. “Calcium and silicate hydrate” (CSH) is a generic term that includes a wide variety of poorly crystallized phases of continuous Ca/Si ratio. Three discrete CSH species of increasing Ca/Si ratio, CSH 0.8, CSH 1.1 and CSH 1.8, were introduced to simulate the degradation of the cement phases. Their formation constants were adjusted in order to fit experimental results obtained at 25 °C (Stronach and Glasser, 1997). The cation exchange data, related to the clay minerals, are given in Table 3. Two types of exchange sites were considered: a main site experimentally characterized at the in situ (~ 7.7) and a second site in lower concentration but active at higher. It has been verified that the model was not significantly sensitive to the uncertainties in the selectivity coefficients. The exchange reactions with $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})^+$ ions were neglected in the calculations due to lack of data.

The calculations of radionuclide solubility and sorption were based on the local equilibrium assumption, and specific data have been introduced for the radionuclides. The thermodynamic constants have been taken from the EQ3/6 database for caesium (Cs) and radium (Ra) and from the NEA database (Rard et al., 1999; Grenthe et al., 1992) for technetium (Tc) and uranium (U). Table 2 summarizes the pure solid phases that are assumed to control the solubility of Ra, Tc and U, according to Berner (1999), Bruno and Sellin (1992) and Glasser (2001). Co-precipitation with CSH and/or sulphoaluminates can occur, but in the absence of thermodynamic data, such a reaction was not considered in the calculations. Disregarding this process is a priori conservative assumption since co-precipitation usually lowers the radionuclide solubilities. Among the primary and secondary minerals potentially existing in the cement and the claystone, five of them were assumed to play a key role in radionuclide sorption: clinoptilolite, CSH 1.1, CSH 1.8, illite and montmorillonite. Table 3 provides the data used in the calculations. Retention by CSH is commonly modeled according to the surface complexation theory, whereas cation exchange models are used for clay minerals and zeolites. There are two main types of site for caesium retention by illite (Poinssot et al., 1999): a site of low concentration but very high affinity and a second site of high concentration but lower affinity. Radioactive decay and decay chains are not implemented in HYTEC. However, the decay may be neglected for Cs ($T_{1/2}$ ^{135}Cs = 2×10^6 y), Tc ($T_{1/2}$ ^{99}Tc = 2×10^5 y) and the U series over 100,000

Table 2
Reactions and equilibrium constants for minerals

Mineral	Reaction	LogK		Reference
		0 °C	25 °C	
Brucite	$Mg^{2+} + 2H_2O \rightarrow Mg(OH)_2 + 2H^+$	−18.09	−16.30	[1]
Calcite	$Ca^{2+} + HCO_3^- \rightarrow CaCO_3 + H^+$	−2.23	−1.85	[1]
Clinoptilolite	$1.75Ca^{2+} + 3.5Al^{3+} + 14.5SiO_2(aq) + 18H_2O \rightarrow Ca_{1.75}Al_{3.5}Si_{14.5}O_{36}:11H_2O + 14H^+$	7.34	7.01	[1]
Coffinite	$U^{4+} + SiO_2(aq) + 2H_2O \rightarrow USiO_4 + 4H^+$	7.32	8.05	[4]
CSH 0.8	$0.8Ca^{2+} + SiO_2(aq) + 1.6H_2O \rightarrow CSH\ 0.8 + 1.6H^+$	−	−11.07	[2]
CSH 1.1	$1.1Ca^{2+} + SiO_2(aq) + 2.2H_2O \rightarrow CSH\ 1.1 + 2.2H^+$	−	−16.69	[2]
CSH 1.8	$1.8Ca^{2+} + SiO_2(aq) + 3.6H_2O \rightarrow CSH\ 1.8 + 3.6H^+$	−	−32.58	[2]
Dolomite	$Ca^{2+} + Mg^{2+} + 2HCO_3^- \rightarrow CaMg(CO_3)_2 + 2H^+$	−3.41	−2.51	[1]
Ettringite	$2Al^{3+} + 6Ca^{2+} + 3SO_4^{2-} + 38H_2O \rightarrow Ca_6Al_2(SO_4)_3(OH)_{12}:26H_2O + 12H^+$	−68.98	−62.54	[1]
Goethite	$Fe^{3+} + 2H_2O \rightarrow FeO(OH) + 3H^+$	−1.52	−0.53	[1]
Hydrotalcite	$2Al^{3+} + 6Mg^{2+} + HCO_3^- + 16H_2O \rightarrow Mg_6Al_2CO_3(OH)_{16} + 17H^+$	−	−99.56	[3]
Illite	$2.3Al^{3+} + 0.6K^+ + 0.25Mg^{2+} + 3.5SiO_2(aq) + 5H_2O \rightarrow K_{0.6}Mg_{0.25}Al_{2.3}Si_{3.5}O_{10}(OH)_2 + 8H^+$	−11.39	−9.03	[1]
Kaolinite	$2Al^{3+} + 2SiO_2(aq) + 5H_2O \rightarrow Al_2Si_2O_5(OH)_4 + 6H^+$	−9.02	−6.81	[1]
Magnetite	$Fe^{2+} + 2Fe^{3+} + 4H_2O \rightarrow Fe_3O_4 + 8H^+$	−13.90	−10.47	[1]
Montmorillonite	$1.67Al^{3+} + 0.165Ca^{2+} + 0.33Mg^{2+} + 4SiO_2(aq) + 4H_2O \rightarrow Ca_{0.165}Mg_{0.33}Al_{1.67}Si_4O_{10}(OH)_2 + 6H^+$	−3.67	−2.50	[1]
Natrolite	$2Al^{3+} + 2Na^+ + 3SiO_2(aq) + 6H_2O \rightarrow Na_2Al_2Si_3O_{10}:2H_2O + 8H^+$	−21.21	−18.52	[1]
Portlandite	$Ca^{2+} + 2H_2O \rightarrow Ca(OH)_2 + 2H^+$	−	−22.82	[2]
Pyrite	$Fe^{2+} + 1.75HS^- + 0.25SO_4^{2-} + 0.25H^+ \rightarrow FeS_2 + H_2O$	26.50	24.65	[1]
Quartz	$SiO_2(aq) \rightarrow SiO_2$	4.63	4.00	[1]
RaCO ₃	$Ra^{2+} + HCO_3^- \rightarrow RaCO_3 + H^+$	3.29	3.00	[1]
RaSO ₄	$Ra^{2+} + SO_4^{2-} \rightarrow RaSO_4$	11.18	10.45	[1]
Scolecite	$2Al^{3+} + Ca^{2+} + 3SiO_2(aq) + 7H_2O \rightarrow CaAl_2Si_3O_{10}:3H_2O + 8H^+$	−18.84	−15.88	[1]
TcO ₂ (c)	$TcO^{2+} + H_2O \rightarrow TcO_2 + 2H^+$	−	8.40	[5]
TcO ₂ :1.6H ₂ O(s)	$TcO^{2+} + 2.6H_2O \rightarrow TcO_2:1.6H_2O + 2H^+$	−	4.40	[5]
Uraninite	$U^{4+} + 2H_2O \rightarrow UO_2 + 4H^+$	3.57	4.84	[4]

[1]: Wolery (1992), [2]: Stronach and Glasser (1997) and Lagneau (2000), [3]: Crovisier et al. (1985), [4]: Grenthe et al. (1992) and [5]: Rard et al. (1999).

years. The half-live of ²²⁶Ra is 1600 years only, but this radionuclide is a permanent product of the 4N+2 decay chain (²³⁸U).

3. Modeling cement/claystone interactions

A rather large variety of precipitated secondary minerals is found in the experimental literature on cement/rock interactions. Dissolution of smectite minerals has been observed (Bauer and Berger, 1998; Hodgekinson and Hughes, 1999; Huertas et al., 2000; Savage et al., 1992), especially for high pH conditions (≥ 13) and for moderately high temperatures (≥ 70 °C). Precipitation of C(A)SH, carbonates (e.g. calcite), hydroxides (e.g. brucite,

Table 3
Surface complexation and ion exchange data

Mineral	Equation	LogK (25 °C)
CSH ^a	$\equiv \text{CSH}-\text{OH} \rightarrow \equiv \text{CSH}-\text{O}^- + \text{H}^+$	-12.3
	$\equiv \text{CSH}-\text{OH} + \text{Na}^+ \rightarrow \equiv \text{CSH}-\text{ONa} + \text{H}^+$	-12.1
	$\equiv \text{CSH}-\text{OH} + \text{Ca}^{2+} \rightarrow \equiv \text{CSH}-\text{Ca}^+ + \text{H}^+$	-9.4
	$\equiv \text{CSH}-\text{OH} + \text{Cs}^+ \rightarrow \equiv \text{CSH}-\text{OCs} + \text{H}^+$	-11.3
	$\equiv \text{CSH}-\text{OH} + \text{Ra}^{2+} \rightarrow \equiv \text{CSH}-\text{Ra}^+ + \text{H}^+$	-9.4
	Site density = CSH-OH = 8 μmol/m ²	
Clinoptilolite ^b	$\text{K}^+ + \overline{\text{Na}} \rightarrow \text{Na}^+ + \overline{\text{K}}$	1.1
	$\text{Ca}^{2+} + 2 \overline{\text{Na}} \rightarrow 2 \text{Na}^+ + \overline{\text{Ca}}$	-0.1
	$\text{Cs}^+ + \overline{\text{Na}} \rightarrow \text{Na}^+ + \overline{\text{Cs}}$	1.7
	$\text{Ra}^{2+} + 2 \overline{\text{Na}} \rightarrow 2 \text{Na}^+ + \overline{\text{Ra}}$	0.1
	CEC = 250 meq/100 g	
Illite–Montmorillonite	Main site (90% CEC) ^c	
	$\text{K}^+ + \overline{\text{Na}} \rightarrow \text{Na}^+ + \overline{\text{K}}$	0.8
	$\text{Ca}^{2+} + 2 \overline{\text{Na}} \rightarrow 2 \text{Na}^+ + \overline{\text{Ca}}$	0.7
	$\text{Mg}^{2+} + 2 \overline{\text{Na}} \rightarrow 2 \text{Na}^+ + \text{Mg}$	0.5
	$\text{Cs}^+ + \overline{\text{Na}} \rightarrow \text{Na}^+ + \overline{\text{Cs}}$	2.0
	$\text{Ra}^{2+} + 2 \overline{\text{Na}} \rightarrow 2 \text{Na}^+ + \overline{\text{Ra}}$	0.7
	Secondary site (9–10% CEC) ^d	
	$\text{H}^+ + \overline{\text{Na}} \rightarrow \text{Na}^+ + \overline{\text{H}}$	7.0
	$\text{Ca}^{2+} + 2 \overline{\text{Na}} \rightarrow 2 \text{Na}^+ + \overline{\text{Ca}}$	1.0
	Strong affinity site for Cs (1% CEC of illite) ^c	
	$\text{Cs}^+ + \overline{\text{Na}} \rightarrow \text{Na}^+ + \overline{\text{Cs}}$	5.0
	CEC–Illite = 30 meq/100 g	
	CEC–Montmorillonite = 90 meq/100 g	

^a Vialis-Terrisse (2000), Ra approximated by Ca, specific surface = 50 m²/g in our calculations.

^b Ames (1964), Ra approximated by Sr.

^c De Windt et al. (1999) for major ions, Ra approximated by Sr, Poinssot et al. (1999) for Cs (strong affinity site only for illite).

^d Cranga et al. (1998).

hydrotalcite) and sulphates (e.g. ettringite) have almost always been noticed (Adler et al., 1999; Bateman et al., 1999; Hodgekinson and Hughes, 1999; Huertas et al., 2000; Karnland, 1997; Read et al., 2001; Savage et al., 1992; Steefel and Lichtner, 1998). Precipitation of sepiolite, a magnesium phyllosilicate, was observed by Adler (2001) and Read et al. (2001). In the case of fresh cements, as assumed in this study, the high pore water content in potassium can induce the precipitation of illite and/or the illitization of the smectitic clay minerals (Adler et al., 1999; Adler, 2001; Huertas et al., 2000). Concurrently, precipitation of K-feldspar has also been reported (Bauer and Berger, 1998; Chermak, 1993; Hodgekinson and Hughes, 1999) but was not considered in the present paper. In the long term, precipitation of zeolites at low temperature is still a debated question. Zeolites have nevertheless been observed in low contents in experiments or in higher proportions in natural analogues (Bateman et al., 1999; Huertas et al., 2000; Smellie, 1998; Steefel and Lichtner, 1998; Savage et al., 2002). When clay minerals such as illite and smectite are present, ion exchange occurs and influences the overall geochemistry (Adler, 2001; Karnland, 1997).

3.1. Mineralogical evolution

A problematic issue in modeling cement/rock interactions is selecting the mineralogical transformations that may occur. Considering the whole set of minerals introduced in the EQ3/6 database generally leads to unrealistic results. Dedicated experiments or literature review have to support the modeling. According to the above literature review, three hypotheses specified in Table 4 were introduced in our calculations, from the most consensual to the particular cases. This was done in order to obtain a general trend and to assess the sensitivity of the alkaline plume and the claystone degradation with respect to the experimental variability or uncertainty. The effect of the mineralogical reaction scheme on the alkaline plume buffering was a point of particular interest. Another one was to assess the potential loss of radionuclide containment properties of the multi-barrier system. For instance, the destruction of clay mineral may lead or not to new phases with important retention capability. Since precipitations of CSH, hydroxides and carbonates are almost always observed (for kinetic reasons), the first hypothesis (hyp. A) for calculation is to let only these minerals precipitate during the reactions. Precipitation of illite (or potassic feldspar), commonly observed due to the massive input of potassium ions by Portland cement, is also introduced in hypothesis A. When clay minerals such as illite and smectite are present, ion exchange will occur and influence the overall geochemistry. Therefore, a second hypothesis (hyp. B) is to add this process to the previous calculation. This permits pointing out the specific contribution of “sorption” reactions to the alkaline plume buffering. Though less plausible at low temperature for kinetic reasons, precipitation of more crystallized phases than CSH, such as sepiolite and zeolites, and the neoformation of montmorillonite (smectitization), were nevertheless considered as a third hypothesis (hyp. C). This last hypothesis also accounts for ion exchange and/or surface complexation for CSH, clay minerals and zeolites (see Table 3).

All simulations were based on the local equilibrium assumption. Although presenting some limitations (Berner, 1998), there are many justifications for a thermodynamic equilibrium approach. The time scales considered are very long, up to 100,000 years, whereas many chemical reactions reach equilibrium within a few months or years: ionic exchange, dissolution/precipitation of carbonates, sulfates, hydroxides and CSH. Furthermore, the chemical gradients between cement and claystone are very strong, speeding up the geochemical reactions. Another reason is that cement and claystone present very high surface/water ratios due to the small pore size. Finally, kinetic data are by nature dependent

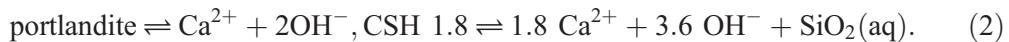
Table 4
Mineralogical hypotheses considered in the simulations

	Non clay minerals ^a	Clay minerals
Hypothesis A	CSH	illite = equilibrium, smectite = dissolution only
Hypothesis B	CSH and cation exchange/surface complexation	illite = equilibrium, smectite = dissolution only
Hypothesis C	CSH + sepiolite + zeolites and cation exchange/ surface complexation	illite and smectite = equilibrium

^a Carbonates, hydroxides, oxides and sulfates are in equilibrium for all hypotheses.

on the reaction sequence (inhibition or catalyzing effects, etc.). These data are not very well characterized and may change during reaction, e.g. with the evolution of the reactive surface. Kinetics were nevertheless indirectly taken into account in the present study through the mineralogical hypotheses of Table 4, which correspond to kinetic inhibitions of secondary mineral precipitation.

The pH distribution is followed as a key indicator of the degree of mineralogical transformations and the alkaline plume extension, and because it influences sorption and solubility of many elements. Fig. 2 provides the pH profiles calculated over a period of 100,000 years for hypotheses A to C in a one-dimensional configuration. The profile of a non-reactive tracer, initially present in the cement zone, is also given for comparison purposes. In the figures, “height” means the vertical direction, towards the upper aquifer. The mass transfer is very slow and decreases with time as expected for diffusive transport. The discontinuities in the curve, especially at 1000 years, are due to different diffusion coefficients assigned to cement, EDZ-I, EDZ-II and host-rock. In the cement, the pH progressively drops from 13.3 to 12.6 due to diffusion-driven removal of sodium and potassium ions. The pH is then buffered by the dissolution of portlandite and CSH 1.8, successively:



The relation between pH and CSH stability depends on the Ca/Si ratio: the higher the concentration in Ca, the higher the pH of stability. As a result, CSH 1.1 precipitates abundantly at the interface in both the cement and the claystone (Fig. 3). The global evolution of, from 13.3 to 10.5 at the interface, is in good agreement with common observations related to cement aging.

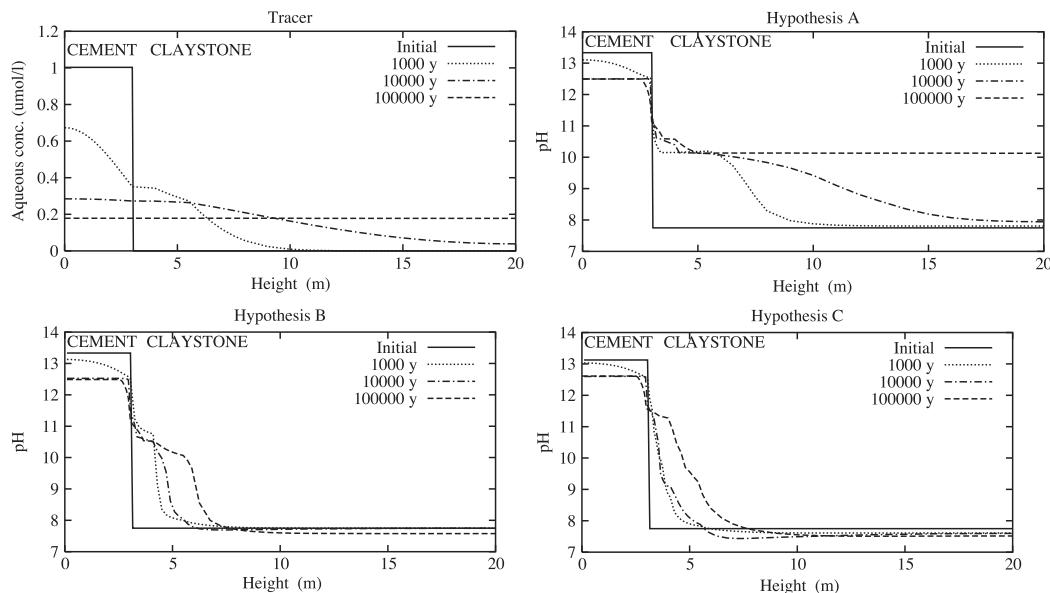


Fig. 2. Evolution over a period of 100,000 years: profiles of the unreactive tracer concentration and profiles of pH for the different mineralogical hypotheses.

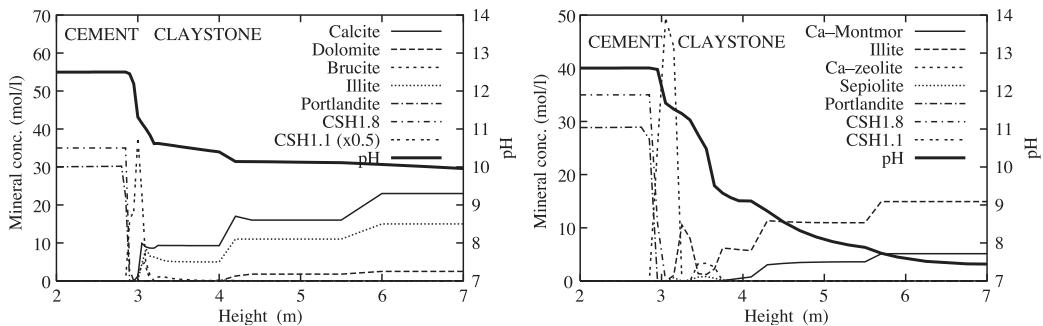


Fig. 3. Mineralogical fronts and related pH profiles after 10,000 years at the interface and within the claystone for hypotheses A (left) and C (right).

As clearly illustrated by Fig. 2, the alkaline plume is buffered close to the interface at a value of 11.5 or below. Farther from the interface, the extension of the attenuated alkaline plume depends on which mineralogical hypothesis is used. Fig. 3, representative of hypotheses A and C, explains the origin of this buffering, i.e. mineral dissolution and precipitation. The step-like shape of the mineral concentrations is a consequence of the porosity values assigned to each zone as detailed in Table 1: the higher the porosity, the smaller the concentration of minerals if expressed in moles per liter of pore water. CSH 1.1 and brucite (or hydrotalcite) abundantly precipitate at the interface at the expense of primary cement and claystone minerals, thus controlling pH:



A moderate precipitation of illite, favored by the flux of potassium ions from the cement, also participates to pH buffering. Montmorillonite remains essentially unchanged. Farther from the interface, the combination of dolomite dissolution and calcite precipitation has been experimentally observed and seems specific to claystones and marls (Adler et al., 1999).

For hypothesis C, a second zone of pH buffering is located at the front of montmorillonite transformation into illite and Ca-zeolite. This illitization process is induced by both the flux of potassium ions from the Portland cement and the destabilization of montmorillonite. Sepiolite is more stable than brucite and precipitates close to the interface. Regarding zeolites, scolecite is thermodynamically predicted in simulations, but chabazite, phillipsite or clinoptilolite are more commonly observed (Smellie, 1998). In the present simulations, clinoptilolite was considered as the most representative species due to the availability in literature of radionuclide exchange constants for this mineral. Zeolites are less stable than CSH at the interface where pH and calcium contents are higher.

3.2. Cation exchange processes

In addition to mineral transformations, cation exchange represents a second source of pH buffering. This is shown in Fig. 2. The pH profile for hypothesis B is significantly

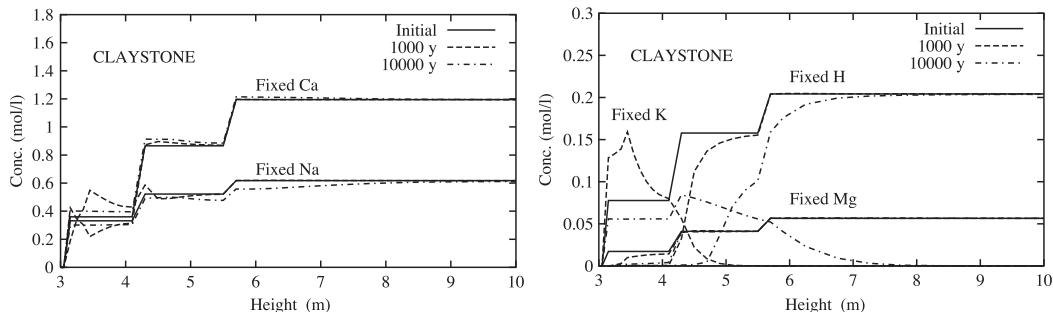


Fig. 4. Evolution of exchangeable ion concentrations over a period of 10,000 years for hypothesis B.

delayed with respect to hypothesis A. The single difference between both assumptions is the integration of cation exchange processes within the type B simulation. Fig. 4 helps to explain the relation existing between pH and exchange mechanisms. The alkaline plume leaving the cement does not only raise the concentration of hydroxyl ions (OH^-) but also that of K^+ and, in the long term, Ca^{2+} . A fraction of these cations is retained by the clay minerals according to exchange reactions with the fixed Na^+ and protons. The exchanged protons neutralize the hydroxyl ions and consequently control the alkaline pH as long as the source of exchangeable ions is not depleted. The exchange between aqueous Ca^{2+} and fixed Mg^{2+} contributes to the precipitation of brucite in addition to dolomite dissolution.

3.3. Clogging at the cement/claystone interface

Precipitation of calcite or minerals with a high molar volume, such as CSH and zeolites, may lead to a significant decrease of the pore volume at the cement/claystone interface. Clogging is plausible based on experimental evidences (Adler, 2001) and natural observations (Smellie, 1998). The change in porosity can be calculated by HYTEC from the evolution of the mineral concentrations in the system, knowing their molar volume. The effective diffusion coefficient is then related to porosity according to Archie's law (Lagneau, 2000). Fig. 5 gives an illustration of the clogging process taking into account the feedback of chemistry on transport (a detailed analysis is by Lagneau and van der Lee, in preparation). Fig. 5 corresponds to a zoom at the cement/claystone interface after 2500 years for hypothesis C. Localized in the claystone, clogging is usually associated with a

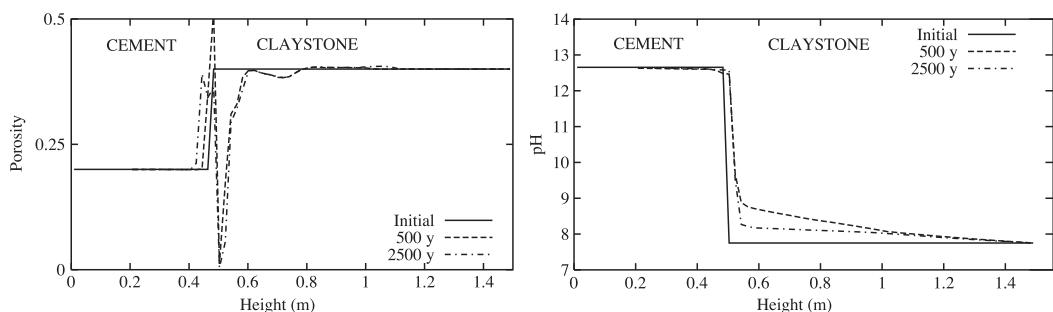


Fig. 5. Zoom at the interface: a strong decrease of the porosity stops the alkaline plume propagation (hypothesis C).

porosity increase in the cement close to the interface due to portlandite dissolution (see for instance Read et al., 2001). After a transient phase, the cement and claystone subsystems become isolated from each other due to a virtually total sealing of the claystone. Consequently, the diffusion of the high plume is strongly reduced, slowing down or even stopping further geochemical evolution of the system. Clogging of the pore space at the cement/claystone interface could be a favorable process for safety, for it limits the perturbation of the geological media and the potential migration of radionuclides (especially for those radionuclides which show no or little sorption). However, this result should be considered with care. The clogged area is relatively thin and may thus be mechanically fragile. The model assumes a homogeneous precipitation within a representative elementary volume and a complete sealing of the pore space. Clogging is more heterogeneously distributed and imperfect in reality.

4. Migration of radionuclides

A direct method to assess the radionuclide mobility is to apply a full mechanistic model which explicitly introduces a radionuclide source in the simulation with ad hoc assumptions on inventory, canister failure, release rate, migration pathway, etc. This method is illustrated in the present paper through the calculation of Cs migration in the context of an early waste package failure just after the resaturation phase. The feedback of chemistry on porosity and diffusion is not introduced in the calculations.

Although Cs is highly soluble, its source term concentration was fixed to the best estimated values of 10^{-5} mol/l from Berner (1999) based on ILW inventory. Over 100,000 years, Cs progressively diffuses from the waste into the cement and the clayey host-rock. This is illustrated by Fig. 6 for a one-dimensional simulation based on hypothesis C including sorption sites. However, in comparison to the diffusion of a perfect tracer from the waste packages (Fig. 2), the migration of Cs is efficiently delayed by sorption processes (Fig. 6). Cs is retained by CSH in the cement, illite and montmorillonite in the claystone, and zeolite at the interface. The concentrations of all these minerals change with time. At the beginning, the fixed concentration of Cs in the cement is relatively high compared to the claystone since the source is inside the cementitious backfill. The aqueous concentrations are relatively high as well ($\sim 10^{-5}$ mol/l), i.e. the affinity of CSH for Cs is

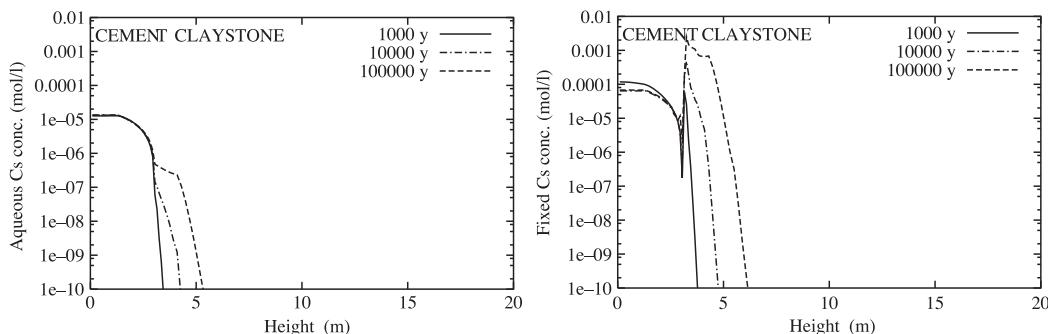


Fig. 6. Evolution of the aqueous and fixed fractions of Cs during its migration from the waste canisters.

weak. Very low aqueous concentrations ($< 10^{-7}$ mol/l) are calculated in the claystone due to the strong affinity of illite for Cs. At low aqueous Cs concentrations, the sites of high affinity but low density dominate the sorption reaction.

5. Derivation of Kd and solubility limit values

In integrated level transport codes used for performance assessment, each element is transported independently from the others and the full complexity of chemistry is reduced to a condition on the solubility limit (SL),

$$c_i \leq SL \quad (4)$$

and a single term, Kd_i , the distribution coefficient of element i :

$$Kd_i = \frac{F(c_i)}{c_i} = \frac{\omega}{(1 - \omega)\rho_s} \frac{\bar{c}_i}{c_i}. \quad (5)$$

The term $F(c_i)$ is the fixed quantity of the element per solid mass (e.g. mol/kg or g/g). The terms c_i and \bar{c}_i are respectively the total aqueous and fixed quantities of the element per unit volume of solution (e.g. mol/m³ or g/ml). In this paper, Kd_i parameters are given in m³/kg units. At last, ρ_s is the density of the solid material (2450 kg/m³ for the Portland cement and 2750 kg/m³ for the host-rock).

Both \bar{c}_i and c_i are mechanically calculated by HYTEC at any position and any time. Kd and SL values can therefore be calculated based on the results of modeling of cement/claystone interactions. If radionuclides are assumed to be present over the whole domain at any time, SL and Kd profiles can be built. In practice, a calculation without radionuclides is launched and, at predefined times, all the geochemical information needed to calculate the solubility or the aqueous and fixed fractions of an element is saved for each node of the grid. The calculated profiles evolve in time due to the cement/claystone interactions. Their deviation with respect to the constant values used as input data in integrated performance assessment codes can thus be estimated in that way.

5.1. Caesium and radium

Aqueous concentrations have to be fixed in order to calculate the Kd parameter. The previous best estimate value of 10^{-5} mol/l was used for the Cs source-term, whereas a concentration of 10^{-8} mol/l was set for the Ra source-term; this is slightly below its theoretical maximum solubility for the undisturbed claystone. Fig. 7 shows Kd values for Cs calculated in one dimension for hypothesis C including sorption sites. As already pointed out, the concentrations of the sorbing minerals, and therefore site concentrations, evolve due to the cement/claystone interactions. The initial Kd values calculated with HYTEC are in good agreement with the experimental values of Bradbury and Baeyens (1997a,b) for both cement ($Kd_{Cs} \sim 10^{-3}$ m³/kg) and rocks similar to the reference claystone ($Kd_{Cs} \sim 1$ m³/kg). The retention of Cs is much more effective in claystone than in cement due to the high affinity of Cs for illite. Within claystone, the competitive

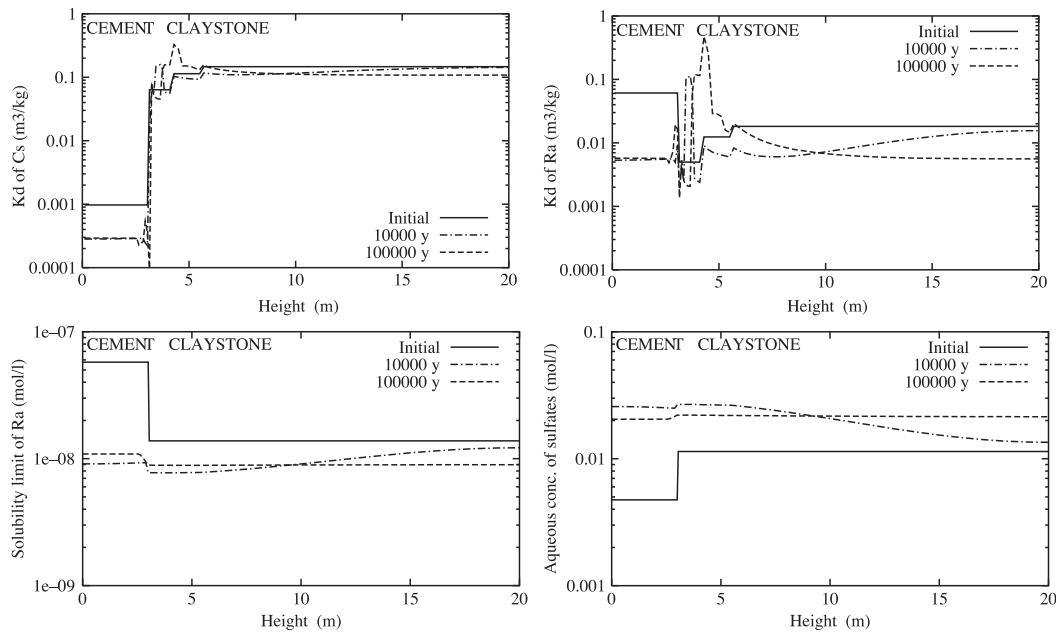


Fig. 7. Derivation of Kd profiles for Cs and Ra and SL profiles for Ra (hypothesis C). Sulfate aqueous concentration controls Ra solubility.

effect with calcium and potassium ions diffusing from cement leads to a decrease in Kd (up to one order of magnitude). However, after 5000 years of interaction, the formation of zeolite significantly raises Kd. The Kd decrease in time within the cement is directly related to the re-protonation of silanol type sites of CSH and the increase of calcium concentration due to the drop.

Compared to the very long simulated duration, the initial ^{226}Ra inventory will rapidly become negligible due to the relatively short half-life of this nuclide. A direct simulation of Ra migration over this period, as it has been done for Cs, would not be correct. In equilibrium with ^{238}U , ^{226}Ra is nevertheless permanently produced and its presence may contribute to the dosimetric impact of repository on very long-time frames. The potential change of the Kd and SL parameters due to the cement/claystone interactions has been evaluated in this respect. As shown in Fig. 7, the initial Kd calculated with HYTEC in the cementitious barrier is higher than the value of $10^{-2} \text{ m}^3/\text{kg}$ reported by Bradbury and Baeyens (1997a). However, the calculated Kd rapidly drops to such a value with decreasing and increasing Ca aqueous concentration. In the claystone, the initial Kd calculated with HYTEC is in good agreement with the best experimental estimate of Bradbury and Baeyens (1997b) ($\text{Kd} \sim 2.5 \cdot 10^{-2} \text{ m}^3/\text{kg}$). The evolution with time of the KdRa profile is similar to the Cs one: decrease in the claystone due to K and Ca competition is significantly compensated, though, by the precipitation of clinoptilolite close to the interface. The SL obtained for Ra in case of hypothesis C is given in Fig. 7. This parameter is in agreement with data commonly found in literature for natural media. The claystone pore water is not far from saturation with RaCO_3 , which may become the limiting phase in more carbonated waters. In the context of this study, the solubility of Ra is only controlled by RaSO_4 in both cement and claystone. The aqueous sulfate

concentration progressively increases, as shown in Fig. 7. This is due to the dissolution of ettringite at the cement/claystone interface. The radium SL decreases accordingly in the cement (from 6×10^{-8} to 1×10^{-8} mol/l).

5.2. Technetium and uranium

The solubilities of many radionuclides, and in particular uranium, are significantly lowered under reducing conditions compared to oxidizing ones. The redox state of common Portland cement is poorly constrained. In the context of waste disposal, low Eh values may be imposed by specific blending additives, e.g. iron blast furnace slag, and/or the corrosion of the steel containers, which leads to magnetite formation. Eh values as low as -400 mV have been measured in blended Portland cements (Glasser, 2001). Magnetite was used to fix the cement Eh potential in the present calculations. For neutral or slightly alkaline conditions, Eh is controlled by mineral paragenesis formed by goethite and pyrite (Beaucaire et al., 2000). At higher, magnetite and pyrite will dominate. These three minerals were considered in the calculations: magnetite in the cementitious material, goethite and pyrite in the host-rock. The calculated initial redox potential is -540 mV for cement and -210 mV for the claystone. The redox potential decreases with time in the claystone consequently to the alkaline plume propagation.

The theoretical SL of Tc and U is shown in Fig. 8 for hypothesis C. There is initially a difference of more than two orders of magnitude between the theoretical solubility of Tc in cement and claystone pore waters. Uranium is less soluble than technetium. The HYTEC

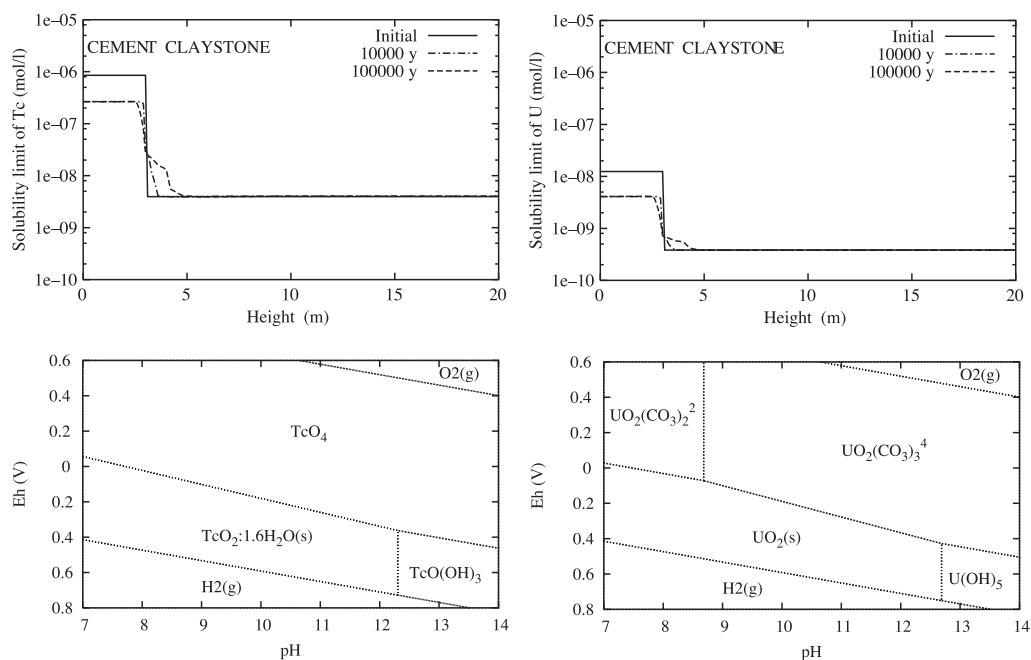


Fig. 8. Derivation of solubility limits for Tc and U (hypothesis C, with redox Eh = -0.3 V) and solubility diagrams for Tc and U calculated according to the NEA database ($T = 20$ °C, $[\text{HCO}_3^-] = 1e-3$, $[\text{Tc}] = 1e-7$, $[\text{U}] = 1e-8$).

calculations lead to results for Tc and U which are in good agreement with the compilations of Berner (1999) and Bruno and Sellin (1992). For both elements, the solubility is controlled by the balance between complexation with hydroxyl ligands ($Tc(OH)_3^-$ and $U(OH)_5^-$ in cement, $Tc(OH)_2$ (aq) and $U(OH)_4$ (aq) in claystone) and the precipitation of silicate mineral (coffinite) or oxides ($TcO_2 \cdot 1.6H_2O(s)$, uraninite $UO_2(s)$), as shown in Fig. 8. The choice of $TcO_2 \cdot 1.6H_2O(s)$ is a realistic but rather conservative assumption. The solubility of Tc would be reduced by four orders of magnitude if well-crystallized TcO_2 was the controlling phase. The SL decreases with the drop inside the cement, whereas the propagation of the attenuated alkaline plume in claystone increases the solubility limits in the EDZ zone by a factor of 10. However, the solubility of technetium, and to a lesser extent of uranium, is very sensitive to the redox potential, Eh. If the redox conditions become less reducing than calculated from the couple goethite/pyrite, Tc and U solubilities will increase significantly in the cement and moderately in the disturbed claystone. For example, at a pH of 12 and an Eh of -250 mV, the dominant redox species are Tc(VII) and U(VI) and the solubilities of Tc and U are about 10^{-4} and 10^{-6} mol/l, respectively.

No Kd values were computed for Tc and U due to lack of thermodynamic sorption data under reducing conditions. Experimental results indicate a high retention of U by cement and rocks similar to the reference claystone; Kd values of about $1\text{ m}^3/\text{kg}$ are reported by Bradbury and Baeyens (1997a) in both materials. Similar values are found in literature for Tc in strongly reducing conditions, but there is no significant Tc retention in mildly reducing and oxidizing conditions.

6. Conclusions

The current progress in reactive transport modeling brings promising application of coupled C–H codes to performance assessment of nuclear repositories. This is especially interesting when assessing near-field evolution where a strong coupling between geochemical and hydrogeological processes is expected. Radionuclide migration can be introduced in the simulations. Theoretical Kd and solubility-limit profiles can be formally calculated, and their sensitivity estimated with respect to the system evolution, provided that the corresponding thermodynamic data are available. Indeed, the lack of such data, for instance actinide sorption under reducing conditions, constitutes today a limit to this type of process level modeling.

In the present study, four interdependent mechanisms are shown to control the pH profile in the near-field system: diffusion of the alkaline plume, mineralogical buffering, ion exchange and clogging of the pore space at the cement/claystone interface. After 100,000 years, the pH is partially buffered whatever the mineralogical hypotheses and important mineral transformations occur around the interface, both in cement and host-rock, over only a few meters. However, the destruction of the primary minerals is characterized by the formation of new phases with retention properties (illite, zeolite). Farther in the host-rock, the pore water chemistry is disturbed over some 10 m due to an attenuated but continuous flux of hydroxyl, potassium and calcium ions. Variations of one order of magnitude are calculated for the Kd and the solubility limits of the selected

radionuclides (Cs, Ra, Tc and U). This is within the range of commonly found uncertainties on such transport parameters. Nevertheless, this finding cannot be generalized to other radionuclides. Moreover, reactivity of organic matter and Eh poising in high pH media are critical aspects, with respect to their potential effect on actinide solubility, which need to be further investigated. At last, work is in progress to simulate in two dimensions other configurations of disposal facilities for so-called altered scenarios, e.g. accounting for advection in addition to diffusion within EDZ that may change the intensity and expansion of the alkaline perturbation.

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Long-term reactive transport modelling of stabilized/solidified waste: from dynamic leaching tests to disposal scenarios

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Abstract

Environmental impact assessment of hazardous waste disposal relies, among others, on standardized leaching tests characterized by a strong coupling between diffusion and chemical processes. In that respect, this study shows that reactive transport modelling is a useful tool to extrapolate laboratory results to site conditions characterized by lower solution/solid (L/S) ratios, site specific geometry, infiltration, etc. A cement stabilized/S/S waste containing lead is investigated as a typical example. The reactive transport model developed in a previous study to simulate the initial state of the waste as well as laboratory batch and dynamic tests is first summarized. Using the same numerical code (HYTEC), this model is then integrated to a simplified waste disposal scenario assuming a defective cover and rain water infiltration. The coupled evolution of the S/S waste chemistry and the pollutant plume migration are modelled assessing the importance of the cracking state of the monolithic waste. The studied configurations correspond to an undamaged and fully sealed system, a few main fractures between undamaged monoliths and, finally, a dense crack-network in the monoliths. The model considers the potential effects of cracking, first the increase of rain water and carbon dioxide infiltration and, secondly, the increase of L/S ratio and reactive surfaces, using either explicit fracture representation or dual porosity approaches. © 2006 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

Keywords: Crack; Landfill; Leaching test; Reactive transport; Stabilized/solidified waste

1. Introduction

The reduction of the inorganic wastes impact on the environment (soil, superficial and subsoil water) and their best management require the evaluation of their short and long-term behaviours in disposal and recycling scenarios. Two types of leaching tests are usually used in such a purpose. Waste characterization tests are static experiments, performed on short duration, useful for determining the intrinsic properties of the waste with respect to one or several controlled parameters. Dynamic leaching tests run on relatively long durations and aim at estimating the long-term evolution of the waste. Coupling between diffusion, dissolution, and sometimes sorption, processes is often encountered in dynamic leaching, typically with stabilized/solidified (S/S) waste [1]. Extrapolation of laboratory results to site conditions – with lower solution/solid ratios, site specific geometry, cyclic infiltration, etc. is therefore not a straightforward task.

In that context, geochemical and reactive transport modelling can be a useful tool to bridge the gap between the short-term, small-scale laboratory experiments and the long-term, large-scale site conditions [2,3]. Reactive transport modelling has two main aspects [4]: modelling of hydrodynamic processes under saturated and unsaturated conditions, inducing mass-transfer and dispersion of chemical species (transport), and modelling of geochemical processes between water, solutes, solids and gas (reactivity). Both aspects are present simultaneously and continuously, and they are interdependent. Geochemical reactions depend on the mobility of the reactants and the residence time. Conversely, the transport depends on the chemical source-term and hydrodynamic properties of the medium may change as minerals precipitate or dissolve. Practically, that duality also means that the same code can be used for gradually simulating batch tests, dynamic tests and site conditions.

A S/S waste with a hydraulic cement binder containing lead had been chosen to illustrate the methodology, progressing from leaching tests and physical characterization of the waste to source-term and disposal simulations. The second section of the paper introduces the reactive transport model, developed in a companion paper [5], to simulate the initial state of the waste as

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well as laboratory batch and dynamic tests. In the third section, this model is then integrated to an hazardous waste simulation using the same numerical code (HYTEC). A pessimistic scenario is considered by assuming a defective cover and rain water infiltration. The coupled chemical evolution of S/S waste in the disposal and fate of the pollutant plume in the leachate collector are modelled assessing the importance of the cracking state of the monolithic waste. The reason for supporting such an investigation of crack effects is two-fold. On one hand, the assumption of fracture and cracking occurrence have some physical reliability under disposal conditions. Ageing and temperature stress may disturb joint sealing between monolithic blocks but also destabilize poorly crystallized cement phases to eventually induce a network of connected cracks in the cement-based matrix [6,7]. On the other hand, the comparison of different cracking states is a relevant application of reactive transport model since cracks and fractures both increase rain water and carbon dioxide infiltration as well as L/S ratio and reactive surfaces of waste materials.

2. Reactive transport code and thermodynamic data

2.1. Reactive transport code

All the calculations were done with the reactive transport code HYTEC [8]. This numerical code simulates advective and diffusive transport of solutes and chemical reactions (aqueous chemistry, dissolution/precipitation and sorption) at equilibrium or with kinetic control. Transport is coupled to chemistry according to the following equation:

$$\frac{\partial \omega c_i}{\partial t} = \nabla \cdot (Dd \nabla c_i - c_i U) - \frac{\partial \omega \bar{c}_i}{\partial t}$$

where the dispersive/diffusive coefficient, $Dd = De + \alpha U$. The term De is the effective diffusion coefficient, α the dispersivity, U the Darcy velocity, ω is the porosity, c_i and \bar{c}_i are the mobile and immobile concentrations of a element per unit volume of solution respectively. The fixed or solid fraction is evaluated by the chemical calculations, whereas the aqueous fraction is a function of the transport processes only. From a numerical point of view, chemistry and transport are coupled through a sequential iterative algorithm. Chemistry is solved by the basis component method according to an improved Newton–Raphson algorithm. The flow and transport module is based on the representative elementary volume (REV) approach with finite volume calculation.

HYTEC is commonly used for transport in porous media under saturated and unsaturated conditions. This standard configuration was used for undamaged waste monoliths (dynamic leach test in Section 3.3 and test-case A in Section 4.1). However, fracture flow can also be taken into account by HYTEC using an explicit fracture representation or a dual porosity approach. The former approach is applicable for main fractures which can be introduced in the calculation grid explicitly. This method was used for test-case B (see Section 4.1), considering a few main fracture crossing the disposal. When the fracture density becomes too high as to be represented by grid nodes, such as in test-case C, dual porosity is an interesting option allowing

for introducing fracture flow effect in a REV formalism. In its simplest form, the fractured zones are formally represented by square block-matrix of side L , where diffusion only occurs, and an implicit network of fracture subjected to an average advective flow. Omitting the chemical source-term, $\partial \omega \bar{c}_i / \partial t$, the transport equation is split up into a fracture component, f , and a block-matrix component, m :

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial \omega^f c^f}{\partial t} &= \nabla \cdot (Dd^f \nabla c^f - c^f U^f) + \frac{8De^m}{L^2}(c^f - c^m) \\ \frac{\partial \omega^m c^m}{\partial t} &= -\frac{8De^m}{L^2}(c^f - c^m).\end{aligned}$$

2.2. Thermodynamic data

Chemical reactions were calculated assuming local thermodynamic equilibrium. The B-dot activity model was used for ionic strength correction. The MINTEQ thermodynamic database [9] was selected for the study and enriched with additional data for cement phases such as calcium silicate hydrate (CSH) of different Ca/Si ratio (CSH 1.7, CSH 1.1 and CSH 0.8), ettringite and Friedel's salt (see Table 1). The formation of $Pb(OH)_2$ as a pure hydroxide, which is present in both the MINTEQ and HATCHES [10] databases, should be considered as a simplified formulation of more complex hydrous phases. A fitting procedure of the ANC results (Section 3.1) led to a formation constant ($\log K$) equal to -11 , close to the HATCHES value ($\log K = -11.9$).

3. Modelling of the long-term leaching tests

3.1. Material and experiments

The porous reference material was obtained by solidification (1% PbO by weight) with a proportion of 3/4 siliceous sand and 1/4 Portland cement CEM-I, a common industrial process for hazardous waste stabilization. The water/cement ratio was 0.6. These components were cold mixed and cured at room temperature during 28 days. Calcium silicate hydrates (CSH), portlandite and sulfo-aluminates constitute the main cement solid phases. The S/S waste was cut in small cubic monoliths (4 cm by side). The mean total porosity was about 15% according to Hg porosimetry measurement (75% of the total porosity being related to pore diameters $\leq 1 \mu\text{m}$). An effective diffusion coefficient of $3 \times 10^{-12} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ was fitted by modelling the release profiles of sodium. An identical diffusion coefficient was assigned to all the other elements in a first approximation.

Two batch leaching tests were carried out on finely crushed materials in an airtight device to avoid carbonation. A 48 h liquid/solid contact time was chosen. The first one, the acid neutralization capacity test (ANC), was used to determine lead solubility as a function of pH. The second batch test, related to the maximum mobile fraction (MMF) test, was applied to better characterize the initial chemistry of the waste pore fluids. Typically, batch test have high liquid by solid ratio (L/S = 10 and 50 ml/g here) as well as high reactive surface areas.

Table 1
Reactions and equilibrium constants for minerals used in the calculations

Mineral	Reaction	Log K (25 °C)	Reference
Brucite	$Mg^{2+} + 2 H_2O \rightarrow Mg(OH)_2 + 2 H^+$	-16.8	[9]
Calcite	$Ca^{2+} + CO_3^{2-} \rightarrow CaCO_3$	8.5	[9]
CSH 0.8	$0.8 Ca^{2+} + H_4SiO_4 - 0.4 H_2O \rightarrow CSH 0.8 + 1.6 H^+$	-11.1	[18, fit]
CSH 1.1	$1.1 Ca^{2+} + H_4SiO_4 + 0.2 H_2O \rightarrow CSH 1.1 + 2.2 H^+$	-16.7	[18, fit]
CSH 1.8	$1.8 Ca^{2+} + H_4SiO_4 + 1.6 H_2O \rightarrow CSH 1.7 + 3.6 H^+$	-32.6	[18, fit]
Ettringite	$2 Al^{3+} + 6 Ca^{2+} + 3 SO_4^{2-} + 38 H_2O \rightarrow Ca_6Al_2(SO_4)_3(OH)_{12} \cdot 26H_2O + 12 H^+$	-56.9	[19]
Friedel's salt	$4 Ca^{2+} + 2 Al^{3+} + 2 Cl^- + 16 H_2O \rightarrow Ca_4Al_2Cl_2(OH)_{12} \cdot 4H_2O + 12 H^+$	-73.0	[20]
Gibbsite	$Al^{3+} + 3 H_2O \rightarrow Al(OH)_3 + 3 H^+$	-8.8	[9]
Gypsum	$Ca^{2+} + SO_4^{2-} + 2 H_2O \rightarrow CaSO_4 \cdot 2H_2O$	4.9	[9]
Hydroalcite	$2 Al^{3+} + 4 Mg^{2+} + 10 H_2O \rightarrow Mg_4Al_2O_4(OH)_6 + 14 H^+$	-73.8	[21]
Portlandite	$Ca^{2+} + 2 H_2O \rightarrow Ca(OH)_2 + 2 H^+$	-22.7	[9]
Anglesite	$Pb^{2+} + SO_4^{2-} \rightarrow PbSO_4$	7.8	[9]
Cerussite	$Pb^{2+} + CO_3^{2-} \rightarrow PbCO_3$	13.1	[9]
Hydrocerussite	$3 Pb^{2+} + 2 CO_3^{2-} + 2 H_2O \rightarrow Pb_3(CO_3)_2(OH)_2 + 2 H^+$	17.5	[9]
Laurionite	$Pb^{2+} + Cl^- + H_2O \rightarrow PbClOH + H^+$	-0.6	[9]
Litharge	$Pb^{2+} + H_2O \rightarrow PbO_2 + 2 H^+$	-12.7	[9]
Pb(OH) ₂	$Pb^{2+} + 2 H_2O \rightarrow Pb(OH)_2 + 2 H^+$	-11.0	*
Pb(OH) ₃ Cl	$2 Pb^{2+} + Cl^- + 3 H_2O \rightarrow Pb(OH)_3Cl + 3 H^+$	-8.8	[9]

* Adjusted log K from the HATCHES database [10].

Unlike batch tests, the dynamic leaching test used non destructured samples. Consequently, the reactive surface is much lower and more realistic than in batch tests. The global L/S ratio is close to 10. The monolithic waste samples were submitted within a reactor to a permanent renewal flow of the leaching solution; a pure water solution which was regenerated in closed loop by evaporation and recondensation at room temperature. This closed system prevented, or at last minimized, CO₂ uptake. Two flow rates, 5 and 250 ml/h, were applied during two months. In addition, the system was modified to mimic cyclic wetting and drying in open condition with respect to the atmosphere. The cycle was similar to a renewal rate of 250 ml/h. Mineralogical and microstructural studies, performed before and after the tests, relied upon bulk chemical analysis, X-ray diffraction, and scanning electron microscopy (SEM).

3.2. Modelling of pore water and lead solubility

Determining as accurately as possible the initial state (mineralogy and pore water chemistry) of the waste is a prerequisite

for applying the model to different experimental or site conditions. The pore water chemistry of S/S waste was indirectly determined from the MMF test and mineralogy [5]. A local equilibrium approach was considered in a first approximation due to high reactive surfaces of the crushed material. Sodium ions were assumed to be both dissolved in pore fluids and sorbed on CSH surfaces, whereas potassium ions were only introduced in pore fluids. The pH was calculated such as to maintain the electroneutrality of the solution which depends itself on the dissolved contents in alkaline ions (present as NaOH and KOH in pore fluids) and portlandite equilibrium. In our model, this last mineral controls the calcium concentration in pore water. Dissolved silica is only controlled by CSH 1.7 whereas sulfate and aluminium are in equilibrium with ettringite. Chloride was supposed to be present in pore water as well as in a Friedel's salt. The first leaching step is reported in Fig. 1. There is globally a good agreement between modelling and experiment, specially for pH which is a key chemical parameter for pollutant release. The extrapolation of these results leads to a pore water chemistry in the S/S waste enriched in Na-K as major cations and Cl-OH

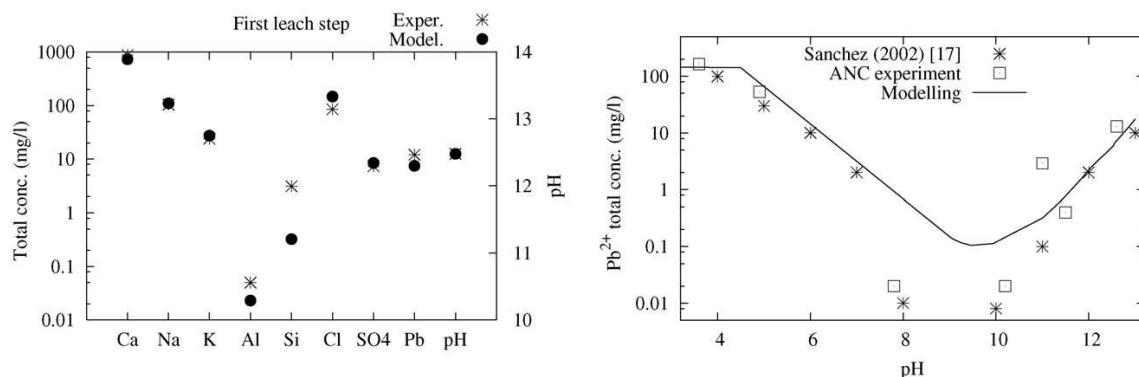


Fig. 1. Evolution of aqueous concentrations and pH during the first step of the sequential MMF test (left) and solubility of lead with pH (closed system) [17].

Table 2

Initial pore water chemistry of the S/S waste and the rain water used in the simulations

Total concentration (mg/l)	S/S waste	Rain water
Na ⁺	14950	1
K ⁺	4100	0.2
Ca ²⁺	50	1
Al ³⁺	0.3	–
Pb ²⁺	59	–
H ₄ SiO ₄	100	0.008
Cl [–]	5050	1
SO ₄ ^{2–}	1250	1
pH	13.4	6.35

as major anions (see Table 2); pH 13 is related to the alkaline fraction of the pore water.

Fig. 1 reports the dependency of lead solubility with pH in closed condition according to literature, the ANC test and modelling. These results are not essential for estimating the initial pore water chemistry but rather for modelling the release of lead during dynamic leaching tests characterized by a broader range of pH. Noting that the scale is logarithmic, the agreement modelling/experiment is globally satisfactory. The amphoteric behaviour is correctly reproduced, with a solubility minimum found between pH 8 and 10 and a significant increase of solubility in both acidic and alkaline conditions. Modelling indicates that aqueous hydroxide complexes, Pb(OH)₂ and Pb(OH)₃[–], are the main aqueous species under the alkaline conditions encountered in cement-based waste. Although trace content in oxide and hydroxide are found in cement-based materials, the bulk

of lead is incorporated in the matrix of the CSH phases [11]. Sorption processes were not considered here for simplicity and scarcity of sorption mechanistic data. However, globally, lead solubility seems to be controlled by secondary formation of anglesite in the acidic domain, bixleite over the range pH 6–10, and lead hydroxide at higher pH. This analysis holds for the test in closed conditions, otherwise (hydro)cerusite controls the solubility over a wide range of pH.

3.3. Modelling of the long-term leaching tests

Modelling was done for the 250 ml/h rate only. To reduce computation time, a cylindrical geometry was used instead of a complete 3D-geometry with a grid size node of 0.15 mm and taking care to minimize errors linked to this cylindrical geometry. Zero-flux conditions were defined at the boundaries of the reactor. No boundary conditions were assigned to the monolithic waste surface. Therefore, pollutant diffusion as well as surface mineralogy can evolve according to the type of circulating fluids.

Fig. 2 shows the evolution of pH over two months in the reactor. Globally, the modelling (250 ml/h only) is in fair agreement with experiment. During the first day, diffusion of the alkaline plume (Na–K–OH) and portlandite dissolution keeps pH at a value of 11 in the reactor. Then, a steady-state comes from the balance between portlandite dissolution and the injection of pure water in the reactor vessel. The higher the rate, the lower the pH in the reactor. In the 250 ml/h case, the pH progressively drops by one unit or more. The cumulative mass releases of Na and Ca for the closed system reactor are also reported in Fig. 2. They are

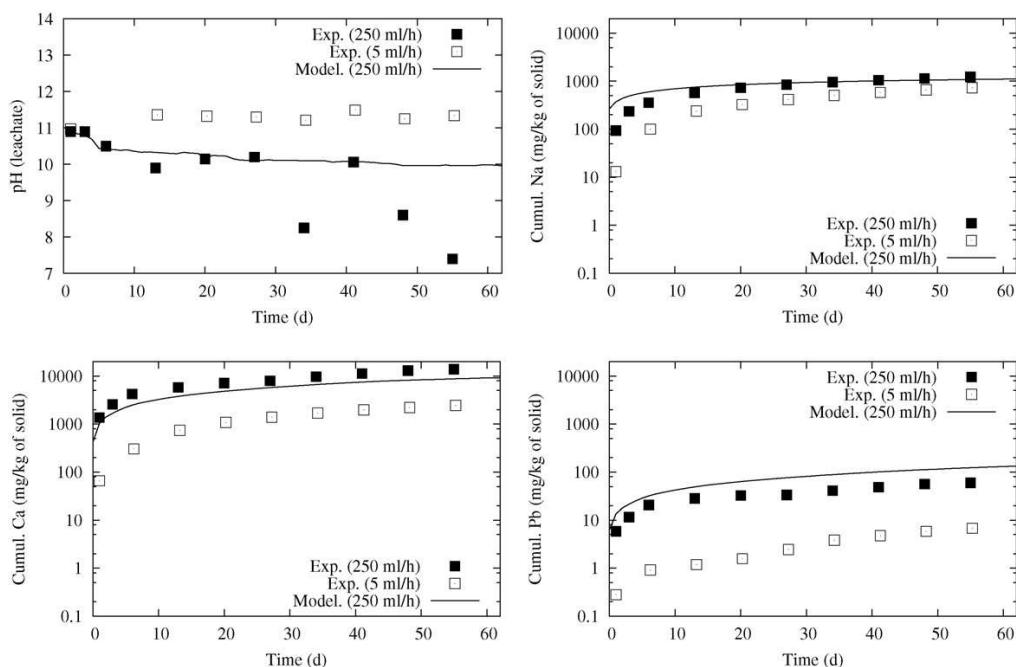


Fig. 2. Evolution of pH and cumulative mass of Na, Ca, Pb (dynamic leaching test in closed conditions).

emblematic of the different leaching behaviours of elements. Na is mainly present in the pore fluid whose stock is progressively exhausted by diffusion, explaining the plateau in the release profile. Ca shows a release dominated by the dissolution of one or several solid phases. Its initial content in the pore fluid is indeed relatively low, and it is the dissolution of portlandite and CSH which feed the leachate, essentially through alteration of the monolithic surface [12,13]. Notwithstanding these contrasted behaviour, there is a good agreement of experimental and modelling results. A good agreement is also achieved for Pb despite the chemical complexity of this element. About 0.5% of the total amount is eventually leached. The calculated mineralogical modifications were restricted to the external surface of the waste monolith with portlandite and CSH 1.7 dissolution and a potential precipitation of CSH of lower Ca/Si ratio. Calcite precipitation was also predicted to continuously occur at the periphery of the monolith under open conditions only, in agreement with SEM observations performed after the dynamic leaching tests.

4. Application to a waste disposal scenario

4.1. Scenario and disposal main features

Hazardous waste repositories are complex engineering facilities. A high level of performance and durability is required by legislation to ensure environmental protection, this demand being usually fulfilled with a multi-barriers approach. The simulation of such systems in all their complexity was out of the scope of the present paper. Our objective was only to illustrate how modelling may be used to extrapolate laboratory results to site conditions. In that respect, the disposal conditions was restricted to a subsystem zoom on the waste and the drainage system assuming a defective cover and therefore rain water infiltration. The simulations consisted in a 2D vertical profile including a micro-disposal (12×6 m) of metric-scale S/S monoliths with

a leachate collector at its base (see Fig. 3). The grid node size was 0.1 m. Zero-flux conditions was defined at the boundaries of the collector. No boundary conditions was assigned to the monolithic waste surface.

An average rain water of 740 mm/year was considered, typical of Northern France oceanic climate. One day of the 250 ml/h dynamic leach test roughly corresponds to one equivalent year of rain water infiltration. However, extrapolation of dynamic test to site conditions is far to be straightforward. Among other problems, this strongly depends on the cracking state of the waste as discussed below. The effective infiltration rate of rain water through the defective cover was fixed to 330 mm/year assuming Northern France oceanic climate. This is close to the upper value of Tiruta-Barna et al. [13] for a similar configuration. This is a critical value of the model. A rate ten times lower will roughly lead to a ten times lower release of non or slightly reactive elements. On the other hand, chemical processes, such as carbonation by atmospheric CO₂, are much less sensitive to the infiltration rate. The chemistry of rain water used for the simulation is reported in Table 2. Finally, the partial desaturation state of the monoliths in the waste disposal was not explicitly considered in a first approximation, assuming rain water infiltration in a fully saturated media. However, atmospheric CO₂ penetration within fractures and cracks was partly taken into account in the chemical module.

The chemistry and the mineralogy of the waste monoliths were set exactly identical to those of the small cubic samples used in the dynamic leaching tests. In addition, a very low permeability can be assigned to such undamaged cement-based monoliths [14]. However, ageing and temperature stress under disposal condition may induce a network of connected micro-cracks in the cement-based matrix [7]. Such a network may increase diffusion and leaching [7,12,15]. This process—not taken into account in the laboratory experiments with therefore a possible under-estimation of the long-term environmental impact—was assessed according to a sensitivity analysis. Test-

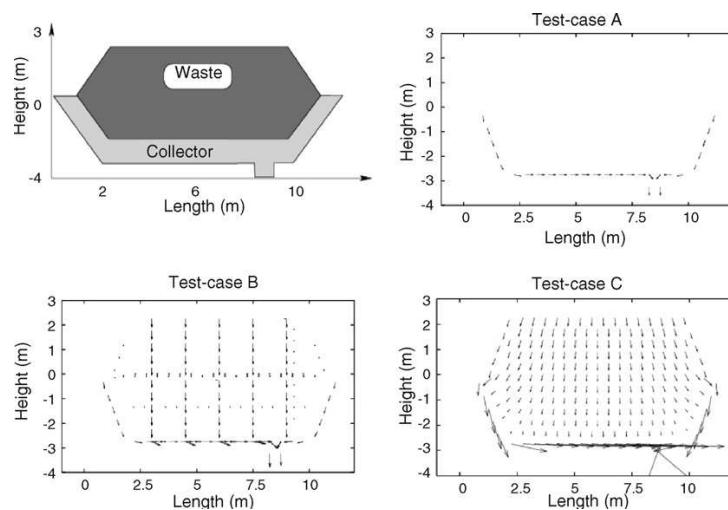


Fig. 3. Darcy flow velocity (units in m/year) in the waste/collector system according to the three monolith states; test-case C corresponds to flow within the crack-network.

Table 3

Hydrodynamic parameters of the waste disposal for the three test-cases (ω stands for porosity and De for effective diffusion coefficient)

	ω (%)	De (m^2/s)	Rain water infiltration
Monolithic waste			
Test-case A = undamaged matrix	15	3×10^{-12}	No infiltration
Test-case B = with fractures ^a	80	8×10^{-10}	Infiltration in the main fractures only
Test-case C = block-matrix ^b	15	3×10^{-12}	Infiltration within the crack-network over the whole upper waste surface
Cracks ^c	2	2×10^{-11}	
Collector	100	1×10^{-9}	

^a Parameters for the fractures only, the matrix parameters are identical to test-case A.^b 10 cm by side L .^c 2% porosity corresponds to an average fracture width of 2 mm.

case A considered undamaged monoliths without any cracks (see Table 3). In test-case B, monoliths showed an undamaged matrix but presented some transversal, and more or less connected, multi-centimetric fractures. At last, test-case C assumed monoliths with a dense network of micro-cracks. Such cracks in cement-based materials generally interconnect flow path and increase permeability by many orders of magnitude [16]. The physical containment of the disposal system decreases from test-cases A to C.

4.2. Long-term disposal evolution and pollutant fates

The HYTEC code was used to simulate – in a coupled way – flow and transport through the system, the initial chemistry and mineralogy of S/S waste and their evolution, and the cumulative release of elements in the leachate collector. Fig. 3 exhibits the Darcy flow velocities calculated for the different test-cases.

Without micro-cracks, the monoliths are an efficient physical barrier against infiltration. The equivalent L/S ratio is almost nil corresponding to the pore water on solid mass ratio only. The occurrence of transversal fractures results in a channelized circulation within the waste zone and increase moderately the rate at the collector basement. The L/S increases locally in the fracture environment but remains globally low. Infiltration is, on the contrary, significantly emphasized if rain water can percolate from the entire waste surface into the crack-networks, as pessimistically assumed in the dual porosity calculation of test-case C. The L/S increases too but moderately. However, comparatively, the reactive surface area increases much more when the monoliths are subdivided in block-matrix of 10 cm by side L .

Fig. 4 gives a typical example of system evolution modelling, with pH and aqueous lead profiles calculated after 100 years for all test-cases. The analysis of test-case B is the most informative due to its intermediate behaviour between test-cases A and C.

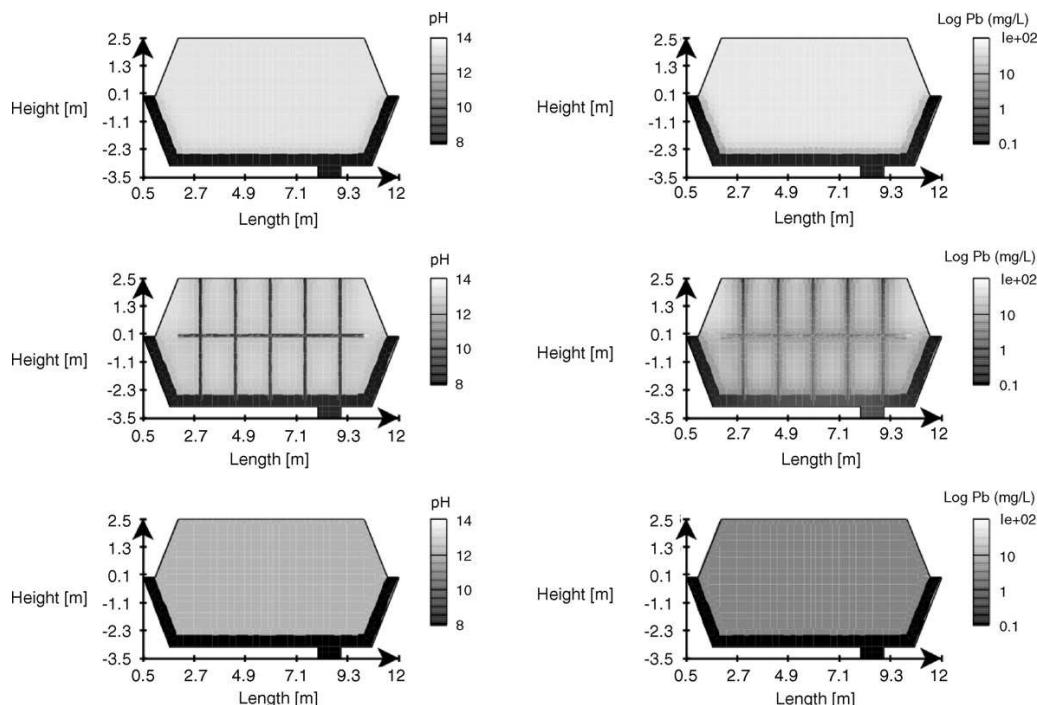


Fig. 4. Calculated pH and lead solubility after 100 years for test-case A (top), B (middle) and C (bottom); test-case C corresponds to the block-matrix.

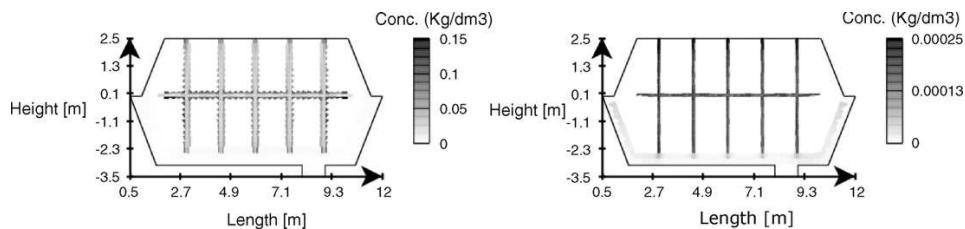


Fig. 5. Precipitation of calcite (left) and cerussite (right) after 100 years for test-case B.

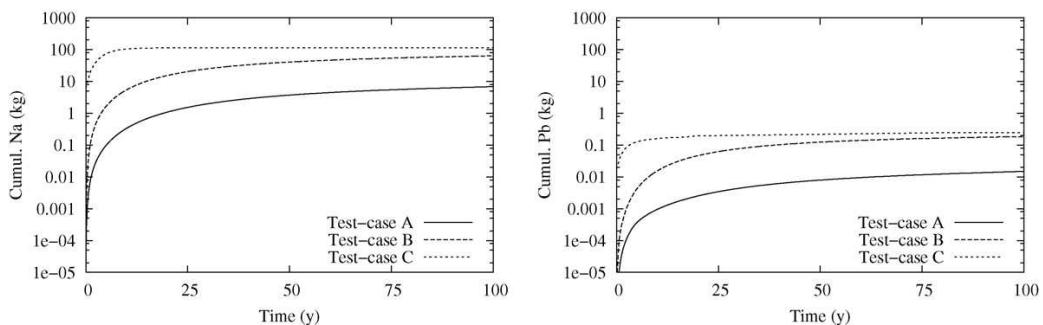


Fig. 6. Na and Pb cumulative masses calculated at the collector base for all the test-cases.

In test-case B, the pH slowly decreases in the monolith matrix owing to the diffusion of alkaline ions in the main fractures and their subsequent advective transport to the collector bottom. The huge quantity of portlandite buffers on the long term the pH around 12.3, as in the MMF batch tests. This is the overall process. However, pH is lower in the fracture environment due to water infiltration but, above all, CO_2 penetration. CO_2 reacts with portlandite yielding calcite precipitation (carbonation) in the surrounding matrix, as shown in Fig. 5. Calcite precipitation and lowering of pH are commonly observed in experiments, like for instance in the present dynamic leach test performed in open-conditions. The potential sealing effect at the fracture walls induced by calcite precipitation was not considered in the calculations. Lead diffusion from the matrix induces cerussite precipitation in the fracture (Fig. 5). By comparison, test-case A shows neither significant pH evolution nor calcite precipitation. Lead solubility remains therefore high in such strongly alkaline pore water but, at the same time, cannot migrate outside the waste. In test-case C, the alkaline ions are quickly leached away and lead solubility drops as pH decreases. Calcite precipitation occurs preferentially at the bottom of the waste zone. Again, sealing or self-healing of micro-cracks raises the possibility of sealing effect and, consequently, hindrance of pollutant release.

Fig. 6 gives the calculated cumulative mass releases of Na and Pb collected in the drainage system according to the three test-cases. As indicated by the dynamic leach tests, Na can be assimilated to a tracer in cement-base waste. This cation is thus a relevant quantitative indicator of the effect of the hydrodynamic regime on chemical species release. The generalized cracking state leads to a full exhaustion of the Na stock after a few dozen years. By comparison, the complete release of Na in the dynamic leach test takes about one month in agreement with smaller block

size (4 cm compared to 10 cm in test-case C). To the opposite, in the case of undamaged waste, the release is efficiently restrained and restricted to those monoliths located at the waste bottom. The transversal fractures permit an internal but partial drainage of the waste zone and leads to intermediate results between test-cases A and C. With regard to lead, damaged monoliths can, at the extreme, release one-hundred times more masses than undamaged S/S waste. However, even in test-case C, less than 0.1% of the total Pb waste inventory is released ultimately. Indeed, if the hydrodynamics of test-case C clearly favors lead mobility, at the same time this configuration leads to a quicker pH drop and therefore a sharper decrease of lead solubility in the matrix. The mobility of lead in the overall system, fracture and matrix, is a combination of both aqueous chemistry and hydrodynamics.

5. Conclusions

The studied S/S cement-based waste was characterized by minimal mass-transfers due to weak values of porosity, diffusion coefficient and permeability, at least in the absence of connected micro-cracks. A reactive transport model was used to assess its long-term behaviour in the scope of waste disposal or even recycling. The model was based on batch and dynamic leaching tests as well as mineralogical investigations. Coupling between hydrodynamic and chemical processes was required to simulate the complexity of waste evolution and pollutant fate in both the dynamic leach tests and the disposal scenario. Despite the chemical complexity of cement-based waste, the capability of a single and consistent model to simulate – to some levels of accuracy – a variety of experimental conditions (batch or dynamic test) and flow patterns brings confidence in its application to long-term, large-scale site conditions. Furthermore, this methodological

approach is enforced by the technical possibilities of reactive transport codes to deal with realistic geometries, boundary conditions and hydrodynamic regimes. With this respect, it should be noted that the waste disposal configuration and scenario were clearly simplified. In particular, the effect of the crack-network was exaggerated for the purpose of reactive transport illustration. Further studies are in progress, taking into better account unsaturated conditions, carbonation effect and, more technically, the role of clay liners.

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B.4 De Windt et al. (2010). Modeling the degradation of Portland cement pastes by biogenic organic acids, *Cement Concrete Res* 40, 1165-1174.



Modeling the degradation of Portland cement pastes by biogenic organic acids

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ABSTRACT

Reactive transport models can be used to assess the long-term performance of cement-based materials subjected to biodegradation. A bioleaching test (with *Aspergillus niger* fungi) applied to ordinary Portland cement pastes during 15 months is modeled with HYTEC. Modeling indicates that the biogenic organic acids (acetic, butyric, lactic and oxalic) strongly accelerate hydrate dissolution by acidic hydrolysis whilst their complexation of aluminum has an effect on the secondary gel stability only. The deepest degradation front corresponds to portlandite dissolution and decalcification of calcium silicate hydrates. A complex pattern of sulfate phases dissolution and precipitation takes place in an intermediate zone. The outermost degraded zone consists of alumina and silica gels. The modeling accurateness of calcium leaching, pH evolution and degradation thickness is consistently enhanced whilst considering increase of diffusivity in the degraded zones. Precipitation of calcium oxalate is predicted by modeling but was hindered in the bioleaching reactor.

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1. Introduction

Concrete and cement-based materials operate in chemically aggressive conditions that may damage cement microstructures and limit the material service life. The activities of microorganisms can generate such aggressive aqueous solutions in several specific environments. The main mechanisms of biodegradation usually relate to hydrate alteration and mineralogical transformation by ion exchange between acidic effluents and the cement-based material. Bacteria catalyze the generation of sulfuric acid by hydrogen sulfide oxidation in sewage disposals, which strongly impacts the durability of concrete sewer pipes (e.g. [1,2]). Bacteria and fungi metabolisms produce biogenic carboxylic acids in agro-industrial environments (silage effluents, liquid manure), which can severely damage concrete floors and storage structures (e.g. [3,4]).

A case study of the detrimental impact of microorganisms on ordinary Portland cement matrices has been previously investigated by means of a bioleaching test with the fungus *Aspergillus niger* [5]. Fungi are liable to colonize cement matrices and lead to either a direct (physical) attack by the biofilm coating the material, which results in hyphae penetrating through the accessible pores, and/or to an indirect (chemical) attack by their metabolites [6]: chemical attack is predominant [7,8]. The major organic acids secreted by the fungal culture during the studied bioleaching test consisted of acetic, butyric, lactic and oxalic acids. Cement pastes experienced a substantial leaching of calcium and a

significant mechanical degradation highlighted by the drastic decline in Young's modulus.

The complexities arising from having many dissolved and mineral species as well as coupling with advection and diffusion mechanisms are now readily handled by reactive transport codes. These numerical tools can be used to investigate degradation processes at the laboratory scale (leaching tests) as well as to assess of the long-term behavior of similar materials at field scales in view of performance and service life modeling. Many studies have already dealt with the modeling of decalcification of cement-based materials in leaching tests by pure water [9–14] or ammonium nitrate solutions [15]. Complex relationships between microstructural changes and effective diffusivity have been developed in some models [11,12,14]. However, to our knowledge, reactive transport modeling has never been applied for examining the generic case of biogenic acid degradation of cement matrices. Small organic acids have been reported to be important in the weathering of soil due to their ability to complex aluminum [16]. An important question is, therefore, to determine whether microorganism attack is a special case of acid attack on concrete [17], or whether complexation by the conjugated bases is effective too. Another question is the protective effect of organic salt (mainly calcium oxalate) precipitation at the cement surface against biodegradation [4,18].

Thermodynamic data to permit the calculation of interaction between commonly-found organic acids (acetic, butyric, oxalic) and hydrated phases as well as ions in the pore solution of cement at 25 °C are readily available. This paper aims at modeling the fungal bioleaching test [5] with the HYTEC reactive transport model [19] by taking into account: i) the production of organic acids by microorganisms, ii) the chemical mechanisms occurring both in the cement pore water and the bioleaching reactor, iii) the mineralogical alteration of the cement

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Table 1

Composition of the fungal culture medium; the components considered in the calculations are in bold.

Components	mg/L	Components	μg/L
KH₂PO₄	136	CuSO ₄ ·5H ₂ O	0.5
Na₂HPO₄	60	BH ₃ O ₃	1
MgSO₄·7H₂O	70	MnSO ₄ ·H ₂ O	1
NH₄NO₃	100	ZnSO ₄ ·7H ₂ O	1
CaCl₂	10	Mo ₇ (NH ₄) ₆ O ₂₄ ·4H ₂ O	10
FeSO ₄ ·7H ₂ O	0.2	Co(NO ₃) ₂ ·6H ₂ O	1
Glucose	10000		

matrix, and iv) the coupled evolution of porosity and diffusivity. The chemical effects (acidity, complexation, salt precipitation) of the biogenic organic acids are analyzed in details, and the model capacity for simulating the extent of cement degradation is estimated with a view to further applications of material performance with respect to biodegradation.

2. Bioleaching test

2.1. Microorganism and culture medium

The acidophilic fungus *A. niger* is ubiquitous and commonly found in soil environments. It is known to colonize mortar [20], and is consequently a suitable candidate for assessing the durability of cement materials with respect to bioleaching phenomena. The composition of the fungal growth medium used in this study is given in Table 1. The fungal culture medium provided the essential nutritional elements needed by the microorganisms for growth and, due to the phosphates, buffered the lixiviating solution in contact with the cement paste in order to prevent alkaline pH. Glucose was supplied as a carbon source (substrate), in order to ensure optimum favorable conditions for fungal growth.

2.2. Cement pastes

The bioleaching test was conducted on pastes made with a Portland cement (CEM-I 52.5 N CP2) whose chemical composition is given in Table 2. The water/cement mass ratio of the pastes was 0.5. The hardened cement paste specimens were cylindrical in form, 220 mm high and 110 mm in diameter. The specimens were demolded 24 h after casting and stored at 20 °C for 27 days in a basic solution (NaOH = 3 g/L, KOH = 10 g/L, corresponding to a pH of 13.6) in order to limit all preliminary leaching of portlandite. A 23% porosity of the cement paste at 28 days was determined by mercury intrusion porosimetry after drying at 50 °C until constant mass.

2.3. Bioleaching protocol

The followed bioleaching procedure provided an accelerated simulation of fungal attack on cement pastes. A set of 12 cement paste specimens were put in contact with the microbial growth medium and *A. niger* in a bioleaching reactor at 20 °C. The test was performed under aerobic condition in order to enhance fungal growth. The L/S mass ratio –

Table 2

Chemical composition and mineralogy of the hydrated ordinary Portland cement (w/c = 0.5) considered in the calculations.

Oxide	Experiment	Modeling	Mineralogy	Modeling
Al ₂ O ₃	2.9 [wt.%]	2.8 [wt.%]	C-S-H 1.8	49 [wt.%]
CaO	43.3	46.4	Etringite	9.5
MgO	0.4	0.3	Hydrogarnet	2
SiO ₂	14.7	15.5	Hydrotalcite	1.5
SO ₃	1.7	2	Portlandite	22
Others	4	–	(Pore water)	16
Water	33	33		

K₂O and Na₂O are 0.05 and 0.025 wt.%, respectively (both for experiment and modeling).

mass of the leaching solution divided by the exchange surface of the solid – was 10 g/cm². Every 2 weeks, 20% of the leaching (reactor) solution was renewed. *A. niger inoculum* was added regularly to the leaching solution at the same frequency. Two cement paste samples were extracted every 12 weeks for analysis and an adjustment of the leaching solution was done to maintain a constant L/S ratio over time. A control leaching test was also performed in parallel with demineralized water for the sake of comparison.

The analyses carried out on the leaching solution included the measurement of electrical conductivity, pH, calcium (by inductively coupled plasma), and biogenic organic acids (by high performance liquid chromatography). The degradation of the cement matrix was examined by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) combined with energy dispersive X-ray (EDX) analysis of polished section. The instrument used was a FEI QUANTA 200 equipped with an Oxford Inca Energy Dispersive X-ray system for chemical analysis of cement paste samples extracted every 12 weeks. Changes in elements along three transverse lines on the specimen surface were carried out. Analyses were performed under a tension of 15 kV in empty low mode. The depth of interaction depends on the density of elements. The optimal resolution (129 eV) was determined on manganese. The peak of interaction was 2 μm³.

3. Modeling approach and data

3.1. Reactive transport modeling

To describe the evolution of the mineral phases in time and in space requires the coupling of chemistry with hydrodynamic migration processes. HYTEC has been developed for the purpose of solving migration and chemical processes and can be used for calculating profiles as a function of time, type of attack solution and cement composition [19]. HYTEC is based on a finite volume scheme with representative (homogenized) elementary volumes (REV) for mass transport and a sequential iterative operator-splitting method for coupling between chemistry and transport. Diffusion is the main transport mechanism considered in the present study. This mass transport process is coupled to chemistry according to the following equation under water-saturated conditions (as for the present bioleaching protocol):

$$\frac{\partial \omega c_i}{\partial t} = \nabla \cdot (D_e \nabla c_i) - \frac{\partial \omega \bar{c}_i}{\partial t}, \quad (1)$$

where the term D_e is the effective diffusion coefficient, ω is the porosity, c_i and \bar{c}_i are the mobile and immobile concentrations of element per unit volume of solution, respectively. The fixed or solid fraction is evaluated by the chemical calculations, whilst the aqueous fraction is a function of diffusion only.

The porosity is explicitly included in Eq. (1) since this entity is subjected to change in time and space when mineral precipitation or dissolution modifies the local porosity. Thus, HYTEC accounts for pore clogging by carbonation, or on the contrary, for porosity increase by leaching of hydrates. The change in specific volume of the cement phases can be calculated by HYTEC from the evolution of the mineral concentrations in the system, knowing their density. Several porosity-diffusion relations are found in the literature, some being specific to cements and concretes. The empirical Archie's law is easy to implement in reactive transport models and applicable to a wide range of materials. A modified version of Archie's law was consequently used in a first attempt at modeling the feedback of chemistry on mass transport:

$$D_e(\omega) = D_e(\omega_0) \left(\frac{\omega - \omega_c}{\omega_0 - \omega_c} \right)^m, \quad (2)$$

where ω_0 is the initial porosity, ω_c is a critical porosity threshold under which diffusion stops and m is an empirical Archie's coefficient.

More complex and precise relationships to predict the macroscopic diffusivity can be developed. For example, homogenization models allow to obtain macroscopic diffusion coefficients of cementitious materials taking into account the microscopic properties [12,14]. These models are more complex to include in reactive transport models since they need information about microscopic geometries of matrix-forming minerals. Archie's law provides a simple approach to reproduce the expected tendencies of Portland cement leaching. A zero porosity threshold and an Archie's coefficient of 4 were used in this study, as discussed in Section 4.3.

3.2. Configuration and hydrodynamic data

The configuration of the bioleaching reactor was simplified to a one-dimensional section (parallelepiped nodes) including the cement paste and the bioleaching reactor. The node size of the calculation grid was set to 0.2 mm. This simplified configuration complied with the experimental L/S (10 g/m²) and the renewal rate of the bioleaching solution.

In the model, the initial porosity, ω_0 , of the cement pastes was rounded up to 25% and the effective diffusion coefficient, $D_e(\omega_0)$, was set to 3×10^{-12} m²/s. HYTEC only takes into account a common coefficient for both cationic, neutral and anionic species. These porosity and effective diffusion coefficient values are close to data published on similar CEM-I paste (w/c~0.5, [11,12]). Temperature was fixed to 20 °C in both the cement paste and the bioleaching reactor zones of the calculation grid.

3.3. Thermodynamic data and initial mineralogy

The chemical reactions were calculated assuming thermodynamic equilibrium, i.e. chemical reactions are assumed to be instantaneous compared to diffusion, and using the B-dot activity model for ionic strength correction. One essential step of the modeling was to select

Table 4

Equilibrium constants of reactions (mass balance equations) corresponding to the formation of the Al–Ca–Mg-hydroxyl complexes considered in the calculations.

Species	Reaction	LogK (25 °C)	Ref.
Al-hydroxyl ²⁺	$\text{Al}^{3+} + \text{OH}^- \rightarrow \text{AlOH}^{2+}$	9.0 ^a	[21]
Al-(hydroxyl) ⁺	$\text{Al}^{3+} + 2\text{OH}^- \rightarrow \text{Al}(\text{OH})^+$	17.7	[21]
Al-(hydroxyl) ₃	$\text{Al}^{3+} + 3\text{OH}^- \rightarrow \text{Al}(\text{OH})_3$	25.3	[21]
Al-(hydroxyl) ₄ ⁻	$\text{Al}^{3+} + 4\text{OH}^- \rightarrow \text{Al}(\text{OH})_4^-$	33.3	[21]
Ca-hydroxyl ⁺	$\text{Ca}^{2+} + \text{OH}^- \rightarrow \text{CaOH}^+$	1.3	[21]
Mg-hydroxyl ⁺	$\text{Mg}^{2+} + \text{OH}^- \rightarrow \text{MgOH}^+$	2.2	[21]

^a The formation constants are given in terms of OH⁻ to allow for a direct comparison with the organic complex data of Table 3.

relevant data for the acid/base and complexation properties of the main organic acids (acetic, butyric, lactic, oxalic). The MINTEQ thermodynamic database [21] – release 2.20 – was selected due to its dataset of organic acids. This database includes most of the relevant thermodynamic constants but a few ones were taken from the HATCHES database [22]. Tables 3 and 4 detail the equilibrium formation constants of the Al–Ca–Mg organometallic and hydroxyl complexes used in the present calculations. These formation constants are very close to the values selected independently for discussing the effects of organic acids on the dissolution of silicate minerals [23]. Data on lactic complexes were lacking in both the MINTEQ and HATCHES databases.

The MINTEQ database was also enriched with additional thermodynamic constants for cement-type minerals, as reported in Table 5. The decalcification of calcium and silicate hydrate (C–S–H), which implies a progressive decrease of their Ca/Si ratio during degradation. A discrete approach of C–S–H dissolution was used by considering C–S–H 1.8, C–S–H 1.1 and C–S–H 0.8. Aluminum hydroxide (gibbsite) and silica gel (amorphous SiO₂) were considered as ultimate degradation stages. AFm (calcium monosulfo-aluminate), AFt (ettringite), CH (portlandite) and C₃AH₆ (hydrogarnet) and hydrotalcite were also introduced in the database. Acetate and butyrate salts of calcium are known to be soluble [4]. By contrast, calcium oxalate solubility is low [29] and this mineral was included in the database. Data on aluminum oxalate were lacking in both the MINTEQ and HATCHES database.

The mineralogy of the hydrated cement paste considered in the modeling was based on the measured chemical composition and XRD

Table 3

Equilibrium constants of reactions (mass balance equations) corresponding to the formation of the Al–Ca–Mg organic complexes considered in the calculations.

Species	Reaction	LogK (25 °C)	Ref.
H-acetate	$\text{H}^+ + \text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2^- \rightarrow \text{C}_2\text{H}_4\text{O}_2$ ($\text{C}_2\text{H}_4\text{O}_2 = \text{CH}_3\text{COOH}$)	4.8	[21]
Al-acetate ²⁺	$\text{Al}^{3+} + \text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2^- \rightarrow \text{AlC}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2^+$	2.6	[21]
Al-(acetate) ⁺	$\text{Al}^{3+} + 2\text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2^- \rightarrow \text{Al}(\text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2)_2^+$	4.3	[21]
AlOH-acetate ⁺	$\text{Al}^{3+} + \text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2^- + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{AlOHC}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2^+ + \text{H}^+$	-0.2	[21]
Al ₂ (OH) ₂ -acetate ³⁺	$2\text{Al}^{3+} + \text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2^- + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{Al}_2(\text{OH})_2\text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2^{3+} + 2\text{H}^+$	-2.4	[21]
Ca-acetate ⁺	$\text{Ca}^{2+} + \text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2^- \rightarrow \text{CaC}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2^+$	1.2	[21]
Ca-(acetate) ₂	$\text{Ca}^{2+} + 2\text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2^- \rightarrow \text{Ca}(\text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2)_2$	4.0	[22]
Mg-acetate ⁺	$\text{Mg}^{2+} + \text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2^- \rightarrow \text{MgC}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2^+$	1.3	[21]
H-butyrate	$\text{H}^+ + \text{C}_4\text{H}_7\text{O}_2^- \rightarrow \text{C}_4\text{H}_8\text{O}_2$ ($\text{C}_4\text{H}_8\text{O}_2 = \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{COOH}$)	4.8	[21]
Al-butyrate ²⁺	$\text{Al}^{3+} + \text{C}_4\text{H}_7\text{O}_2^- \rightarrow \text{AlC}_4\text{H}_7\text{O}_2^+$	2.2	[21]
Ca-butyrate ⁺	$\text{Ca}^{2+} + \text{C}_4\text{H}_7\text{O}_2^- \rightarrow \text{CaC}_4\text{H}_7\text{O}_2^+$	0.9	[21]
Mg-butyrate ⁺	$\text{Mg}^{2+} + \text{C}_4\text{H}_7\text{O}_2^- \rightarrow \text{MgC}_4\text{H}_7\text{O}_2^+$	1.0	[21]
H ₂ -oxalate	$2\text{H}^+ + \text{C}_2\text{O}_4^{2-} \rightarrow \text{C}_2\text{H}_2\text{O}_4$ ($\text{C}_2\text{H}_2\text{O}_4 = \text{HOOC-COOH}$)	5.4 ^a	[21]
H-oxalate ⁻	$\text{H}^+ + \text{C}_2\text{O}_4^{2-} \rightarrow \text{C}_2\text{HO}_4^-$	4.2	[21]
Al-oxalate ⁺	$\text{Al}^{3+} + \text{C}_2\text{O}_4^{2-} \rightarrow \text{AlC}_2\text{O}_4^+$	7.7	[21]
Al-(oxalate) ₂ ⁻	$\text{Al}^{3+} + 2\text{C}_2\text{O}_4^{2-} \rightarrow \text{Al}(\text{C}_2\text{O}_4)_2^-$	13.4	[21]
Al-(oxalate) ₃ ⁻	$\text{Al}^{3+} + 3\text{C}_2\text{O}_4^{2-} \rightarrow \text{Al}(\text{C}_2\text{O}_4)_3^-$	17.0	[21]
Al-Hoxalate ²⁺	$\text{Al}^{3+} + \text{C}_2\text{O}_4^{2-} \rightarrow \text{AlC}_2\text{HO}_4^+$	7.5	[21]
AlOH-oxalate	$\text{Al}^{3+} + \text{C}_2\text{O}_4^{2-} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{AlOHC}_2\text{O}_4 + \text{H}^+$	2.6	[21]
AlOH-(oxalate) ₂ ⁻	$\text{Al}^{3+} + 2\text{C}_2\text{O}_4^{2-} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{AlOHC}_2\text{O}_4^- + \text{H}^+$	6.8	[21]
Al(OH) ₂ -oxalate ⁻	$\text{Al}^{3+} + \text{C}_2\text{O}_4^{2-} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{Al}(\text{OH})_2\text{C}_2\text{O}_4^- + 2\text{H}^+$	-3.1	[21]
Ca-oxalate	$\text{Ca}^{2+} + \text{C}_2\text{O}_4^{2-} \rightarrow \text{CaC}_2\text{O}_4$	3.2	[21]
Ca-(oxalate) ₂ ⁻	$\text{Ca}^{2+} + 2\text{C}_2\text{O}_4^{2-} \rightarrow \text{Ca}(\text{C}_2\text{O}_4)_2^-$	8.1	[22]
Mg-oxalate	$\text{Mg}^{2+} + \text{C}_2\text{O}_4^{2-} \rightarrow \text{MgC}_2\text{O}_4$	3.6	[21]
Mg-(oxalate) ₂ ⁻	$\text{Mg}^{2+} + 2\text{C}_2\text{O}_4^{2-} \rightarrow \text{Mg}(\text{C}_2\text{O}_4)_2^-$	5.1	[22]

^a Corresponding to pK_{a1} = 1.2 and pK_{a2} = 4.2 for the oxalic dicarboxylic acid.

Table 5

Equilibrium constants of reactions (mass balance equations) corresponding to the formation of the solid phases and volumic weights considered in the calculations.

Mineral	Reaction	LogK (25 °C)	Density (kg/m ³)	Ref.
Calcite	$\text{Ca}^{2+} + \text{CO}_3^{2-} \rightarrow \text{CaCO}_3$	8.5	2.7×10^3	[21]
Ca-Oxalate	$\text{Ca}^{2+} + \text{C}_2\text{O}_4^{2-} \rightarrow \text{Ca-C}_2\text{O}_4\text{H}_2\text{O}$	8.8	2.2×10^3	[21]
C-S-H 0.8	$0.8\text{Ca}^{2+} + \text{H}_2\text{SiO}_4 \rightarrow 0.4\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow$ C–S–H 0.8 + 1.6H ⁺	-11.1	2.2×10^3	[24 ^b]
C–S–H 1.1	$1.1\text{Ca}^{2+} + \text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4 + 0.2\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow$ C–S–H 1.1 + 2.2H ⁺	-16.7	2.2×10^3	[24 ^a]
C–S–H 1.8	$1.8\text{Ca}^{2+} + \text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4 + 1.6\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow$ C–S–H 1.8 + 3.6H ⁺	-32.6	2.2×10^3	[24 ^a]
Ettringite	$2\text{Al}^{3+} + 6\text{Ca}^{2+} + 3\text{SO}_4^{2-} + 38\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow$ $\text{Ca}_6\text{Al}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3(\text{OH})_{12}\cdot26\text{H}_2\text{O} + 12\text{H}^+$	-56.9	1.8×10^2	[25]
Gibbsite	$\text{Al}^{3+} + 3\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{Al}(\text{OH})_3 + 3\text{H}^+$	-8.8	2.4×10^3	[21]
Gypsum	$\text{Ca}^{2+} + \text{SO}_4^{2-} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{CaSO}_4\cdot2\text{H}_2\text{O}$	4.9	2.3×10^3	[21]
Hydrogarnet	$2\text{Al}^{3+} + 3\text{Ca}^{2+} + 6\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow$ $\text{Ca}_3\text{Al}_2(\text{OH})_{12} + 12\text{H}^+$	-78.9	3.0×10^3	[26 ^b]
Hydrotalcite	$2\text{Al}^{3+} + 4\text{Mg}^{2+} + 10\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow$ $\text{Mg}_4\text{Al}_2\text{O}_4(\text{OH})_6 + 14\text{H}^+$	-73.8	2.1×10^3	[27]
Monosulfo-aluminate	$2\text{Al}^{3+} + 4\text{Ca}^{2+} + \text{SO}_4^{2-} + 12\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow$ $\text{Ca}_4\text{Al}_2\text{SO}_4(\text{OH})_{12} + 12\text{H}^+$	-73.0	1.9×10^3	[28]
Portlandite	$\text{Ca}^{2+} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2 + 2\text{H}^+$	-22.7	2.2×10^3	[21]
Silica gel	$\text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4 \rightarrow \text{SiO}_2 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$	2.8	2.1×10^3	[21]

^a The constant was fitted on the experimental data.

^b Constant of katoite.

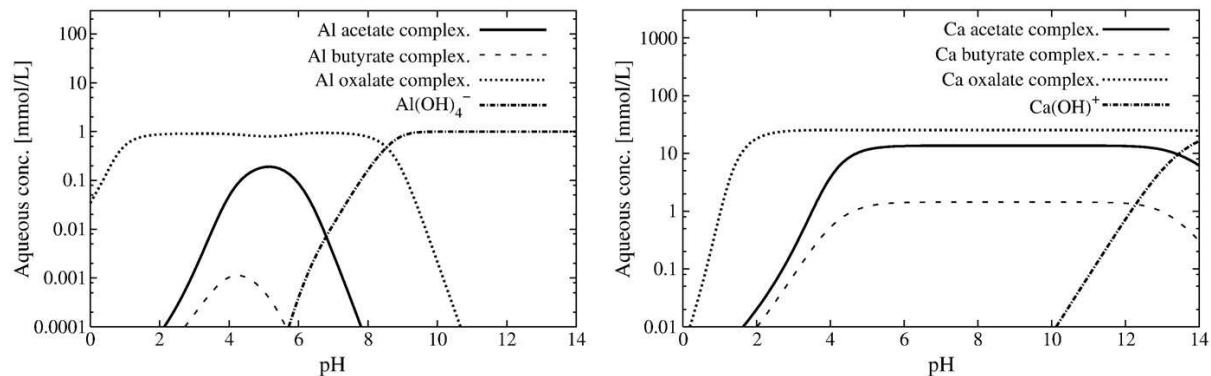


Fig. 1. Calculated pH dependency of aluminum and calcium complexation by organic acids at 25 °C; the metal and organic acid concentrations are representative of the bioleaching test.

analysis (Table 2): C–S–H 1.8 (55% by weight content), portlandite (25%), ettringite (11%), hydrogarnet (2.5%) and hydrotalcite (2%). The calculated pore water chemistry was typical of a Portland cement with a pH above 13.

4. Modeling results and discussion

4.1. Organic acid chemistry

The major organic acids secreted by the fungal culture during the bioleaching test consisted of 4 carboxylic acids: acetic, butyric, lactic and oxalic acids. Acetic ($pK_a = 4.75$), butyric ($pK_a = 4.80$), lactic ($pK_a = 3.9$) and oxalic ($pK_{a1} = 1.2$, $pK_{a2} = 4.2$) acids are all weak acids though the first oxalic acid function is relatively strong.

In aqueous solution, Al^{3+} and Ca^{2+} cations are complexed by the conjugated bases of the organic acids (i.e. acetate, butyrate and oxalate anions). Fig. 1 reports the pH dependency of aluminum and calcium complexation calculated with HYTEC for concentrations representative of the present bioleaching test. Aluminum complexation by organic acid ligands is predominant in the pH range 0 to 10, but the hydroxyl complex $\text{Al}(\text{OH})_4^-$ is the most stable species at alkaline pH. This means that the presence of organic acids should not significantly modify aluminum chemistry in the pore water of the cement paste. Their effect should become dominant when pH drops below 10 in the degraded cement zones. Wang et al. [16] experimentally showed that acetate complexation did not significantly modify gibbsite precipitation, but that oxalate interacted more strongly with aluminum and increased the aluminum hydroxide solubility between pH 4 and 9. By contrast, complexation of calcium by organic acid ligands is effective in the full pH range since the hydroxyl complex $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})^+$ is relatively weak. At equivalent concentrations, oxalate has the greatest affinity for both aluminum and calcium whereas butyrate presents the weakest affinity. The range of acidity constants (pK_a) also implies that oxalate complexes are formed at lower pH ($pH \geq 2$) than acetate and butyrate ones ($pH \geq 5$).

Fig. 2 presents solubility diagrams for aluminum and calcium calculated with HYTEC in pure water and in oxalic acid solutions, at concentrations representative of the bioleaching test. Gibbsite was used as a substitute for the alumina gel formed during bioalteration (Section 4.4). Gibbsite solubility is particularly low in the pH range 5–9, which promotes alumina gel formation in degraded cement layers. Ettringite dissolution is the main aluminum source in the present case. By comparison, the apparent gibbsite solubility is clearly enhanced in the presence of oxalic acids at acidic and neutral pH, but not at alkaline pH. The behavior of calcium is significantly different. Strongly soluble (at least in the absence of carbonates or sulfates), calcium becomes relatively insoluble in the presence of

oxalic acids. The higher the oxalate concentration, the more efficient is complexation, and the higher the apparent calcium solubility.

4.2. Evolution of chemistry in the bioleaching reactor

Fig. 3 shows the evolution over time of the concentration of the main biogenic organic acids produced by the fungal culture. Minor contents in citric, formic, gluconic and propionic acids were analyzed. However, the predominant organic acids were acetic, butyric, lactic and oxalic acids during all the duration of the bioleaching test. The temporal evolution of the biogenic acid concentrations was typical of microbial activity in a batch culture media, with a preliminary exponential growth followed by a stationary regime whereby production and destruction of organic acids are counterbalanced. During the transitional regime, the total quantity of organic acids progressively increased to level off between 300 and 400 mmol/L. This concentration level is high but comparable to the concentration of organic acids in aggressive agricultural environments (silage, slurry etc.).

The fluctuations of organic acid concentration were partly due to the difficulty of maintaining a constant input of glucose during all the experiment. The concentrations of oxalic and butyric acids were relatively constant (Fig. 3). The proportion of lactic acids was below 10% of total acids for the first 8 months and then increased to reach 30% of total acids. In parallel, acetic acids followed an inverse trend compared with lactic acids. This phenomenon could be explained by a change in the metabolism of the microorganisms present in the lixiviating solution as from the 8th month which favored the production of lactic acid to the detriment of acetic acid. The detailed modeling of the microbial activity is very complex and is far beyond the objectives of this paper. The production rate of the various organic acids was fitted on the measured experimental data considering average stationary concentrations without fluctuation. The well balanced inversion at 8 months between acetic and lactic acid concentrations was not introduced in the model due to the lack of data on lactate complexes. Acetic acid was assumed to be a reasonable substitute for lactic acid in the present study.

The dissolved calcium concentration and pH in the bioleaching reactor are also reported in Fig. 3. Their evolutions over time closely followed the production curve of the biogenic organic acids, which indicates that cement bioleaching actually corresponds to a chemical attack by organic acids. The stationary pH within the bioleaching reactor was weakly acidic, varying between 4 and 5, with occasional increases in pH probably due to a lack of glucose in the fungal growth medium. When there is a shortage of glucose, the organic acids produced by the fungi may, in their turn, be assimilated and degraded, which could explain these increases in pH. The pH of the bioleaching reactor was significantly lower than the pH of the control test, which was around 12. In parallel, the concentration of dissolved calcium also

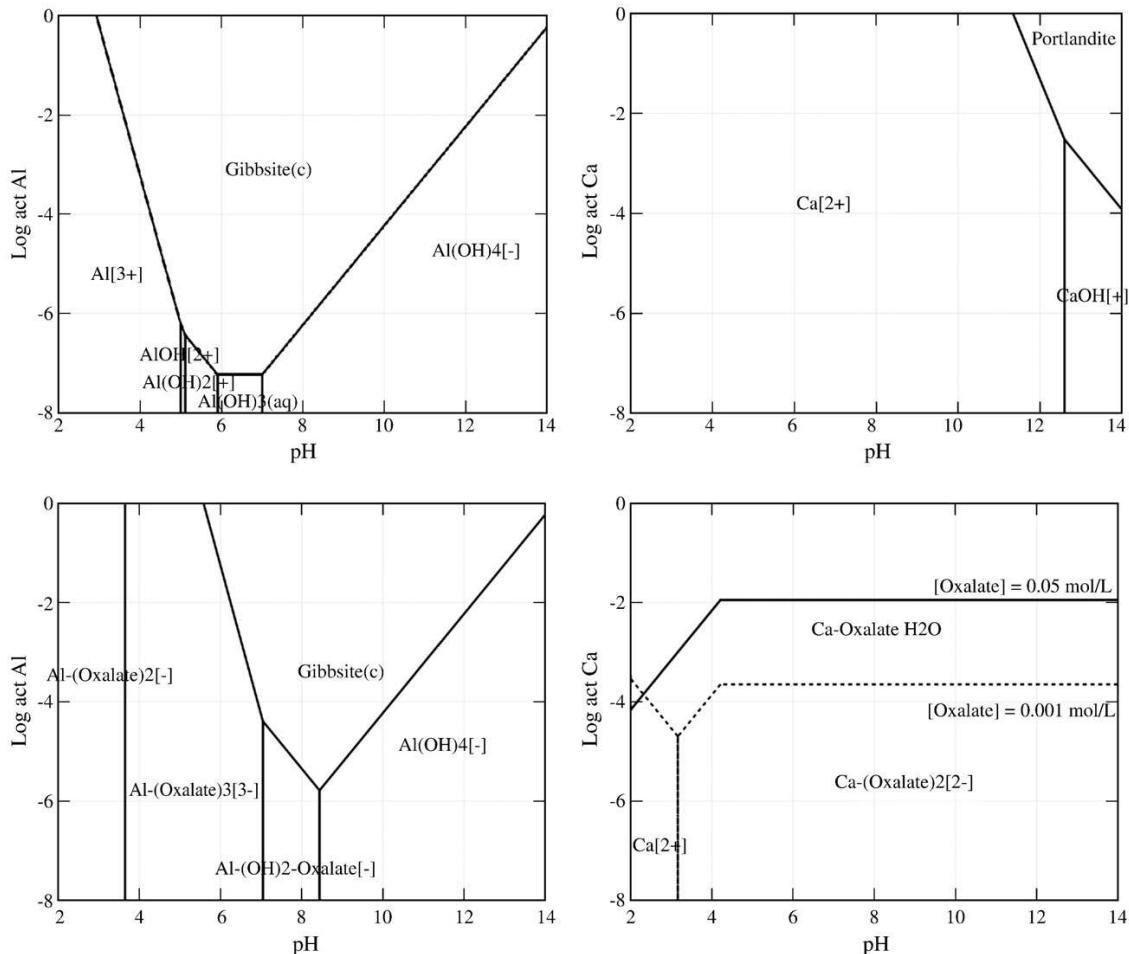


Fig. 2. Calculated solubility diagrams for aluminum and calcium in pure water (top graphs) and with dissolved oxalic acids (bottom graphs) at 25 °C; oxalic acid concentrations are set to 0.001 mol/L for aluminum, 0.001 mol/L and 0.05 mol/L for calcium.

showed an increasing trend and reaches a value of 100 mmol/L. The total amount of leached calcium was high compared to the control test; i.e. 20 times higher in average, as shown in Fig. 3.

The modeling results are in good agreement with the experimental data. In particular, the model correctly reproduces the strong contrast in leached calcium and pH between the bioleaching test and the control test. For both pH and leached calcium, the stationary plateau is due to the balance between leaching and renewal of the solution. The model failed to simulate the early pH trend and would have required a better description of the early production of organic acids. The calculated initial pH value of the H_2PO_4^- - HPO_4^{2-} buffer ($\text{pH} < 8$) is correct. Nevertheless, the buffering capacity is not efficient enough to neutralize the alkaline peak at the early stage (notably, the fast lixiviation of K^+ and Na^+ alkalis) in the calculations. Furthermore, the calculated pH is systematically lower than the bioleaching data by one pH unit. Obviously, the complexity of the microorganism activities cannot be reduced to the single production of four biogenic acids though this simplification works reasonably well in the present modeling study.

4.3. Degradation depths

The concentration gradient between the reactor solution and the cement pore water provokes ionic diffusion, in particular the biogenic organic acids readily diffuse into the cement pores bringing about

hydrate dissolution. The measured thickness of the degraded zone (i.e. characterized by hydrate leaching compared to the initial mineralogy of the cement paste) after 15 months of bioleaching was about 8–9 mm. The thickness of the degraded zone was 5 times larger than the degradation thickness found in the control test (1.5 mm). Experimentally, the thicknesses of the degraded zone were determined by optical microscopy and distribution of oxides along a transverse (Section 4.5). It is worth noting that hyphae of the fungi were not observed to penetrate the cement paste surface [5]. Hence, cement alteration was driven by chemical attack and not by physical disruption.

The agreement between the calculated and experimental depths was strongly dependent on the law that couples mineralogical evolution, porosity and diffusion. The consistency, and interdependency, between the calculated degraded thickness and the calculated pH of the bioleaching reactor is worth noting. The better the degraded thickness, the better the pH value is. As shown in Fig. 4, a fixed porosity approach obviously underestimates the degradation depth. The degradation of cement and concrete is controlled by the effective diffusion coefficient. The smaller the coefficient, the lower the exchange of dissolved ions with the leaching solution and the slower the degradation. It is thus essential to correctly estimate the initial diffusion coefficient but, in addition, to consider the enhancement of the diffusion process in the degraded zones. The application of Archie's

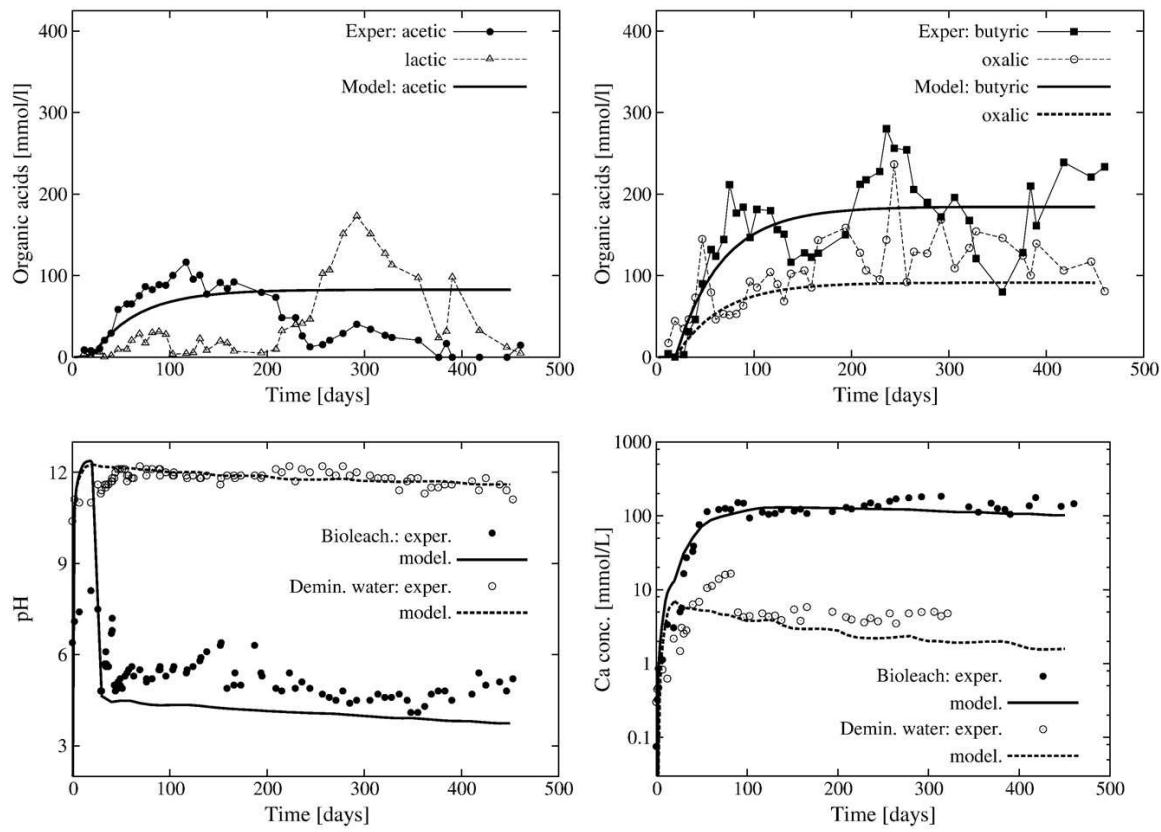


Fig. 3. Top: experimental and fitted evolution over time of the dissolved organic acids; bottom: experimental and calculated evolutions over time of the reactor chemistry (pH and dissolved calcium), comparing the bioleaching test and the control test (demineralized water).

relationship increased the quality of the modeling (Fig. 4). An Archie's coefficient between 2 and 3 and a zero porosity threshold have been commonly used for modeling the degradation of cement-based materials [30,31]. However, the degradation stage was so advanced in the present case that an Archie's power of 4 better matched the very open porous gel structure found in the most degraded zone of the cement matrix.

The degraded layer had almost no protective effect (diffusive barrier) in the present experiment, both experimentally and by calculation, as

indicated by the almost linear increase of degradation depths with time in Fig. 4. Highly porous cored layers consisting mainly of silica gel have been mentioned in literature [17,32]. The leaching process was shown to produce an extreme coarsening of the pore size distribution and to a large increase in porosity, boosting the transport of ions in the degraded layer. In these experimental studies, effective diffusion coefficient of degraded cement and mortar was more than one order of magnitude larger than the values of the non degraded material. In the present

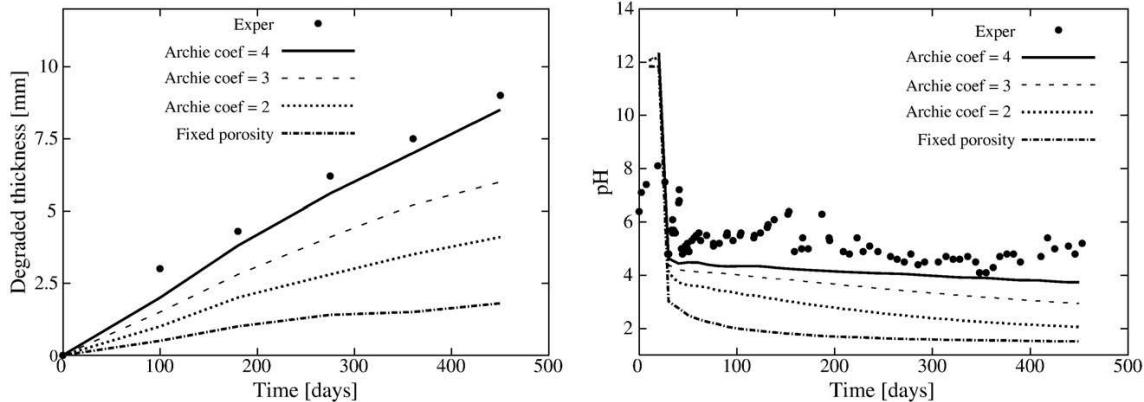


Fig. 4. Effect of the Archie's coefficient m (Eq. (2)) on the calculated biodegradation thickness inside the cement paste (left) and on the calculated pH in the bioleaching reactor (right) for coupled chemistry/diffusion calculations; a fixed porosity approach corresponds to a zero Archie's coefficient.

study, the calculated effective diffusion coefficient of the most degraded layer ($D_c \sim 1.5 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$) was 50 times higher compared to the initial value. The calculated porosity increases from 25% in the sound zone to approximately 65% in the most degraded layer. This agrees relatively well with the experimental values: the porosity of the sound zone and the most degraded zone were 23% and 56%, respectively.

4.4. Modeling of the mineralogy of the degraded zones

Fig. 5 shows the mineralogical profiles calculated along a transverse after 450 days of bioleaching. Three distinct zones can be identified from the sound zone to the edge of the cement paste: i) the sound zone itself, ii) an intermediate less degraded zone, distinguished by a dense structure [5], and iii) an outermost strongly degraded zone, characterized by a much open porosity [5].

4.4.1. Intermediate degraded zone

The deepest degradation front corresponds to portlandite dissolution and decalcification of the primary calcium silicate hydrate due to reaction

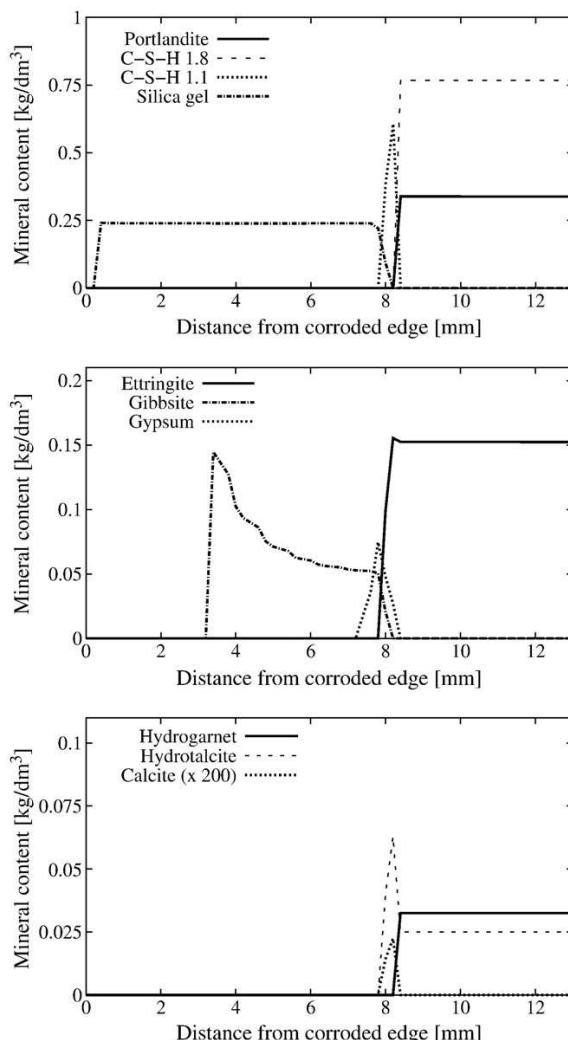
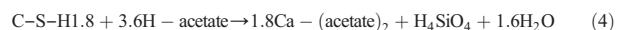
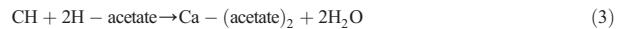
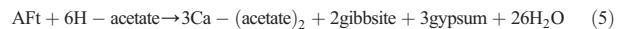


Fig. 5. Calculated mineralogical profiles along a transverse from the edge of the cement paste after 450 days of bioleaching.

with the organic acids. For instance, in the case of acetic acid, the chemical equations globally write as follows:



The hydroxyl ions contained in the hydration products are neutralized by the protons of the organic acids. The constitutive ions are consequently dissolved in the pore solution, and then re-precipitate, or diffuse towards the cement paste surface. A complex pattern of sulfate phases dissolution and precipitation also takes place in the intermediate degraded zone. Ettringite dissolution yields gibbsite and gypsum precipitation:



A significant increase of XRD peaks supported such a re-precipitation of ettringite [5]. The occurrence of the present successive leaching fronts (portlandite, then C-S-H, and eventually ettringite) is a common observation of cement degradation by acid attack [17]. Finally, hydrotalcite is dissolved simultaneously to portlandite. The potential transient re-precipitation of hydrotalcite is most probably a modeling artifact.

Carbon dioxide released during microbial respiration can lead to a complementary carbonic acid attack (or carbonation mechanism):



Experimentally, XRD patterns indicated a precipitation of calcite in the intermediate degraded zone [5]. Calcite precipitation was also predicted by modeling at the boundary of the sound zone (**Fig. 5**). The only source of carbon dioxide in the calculation was linked to the renewal solution that was assumed to be in equilibrium with the atmosphere. Obviously, this weak source only yielded small amounts of calcite. In reality, the higher the microbial respiration, the stronger the production of carbon dioxide and the greater the precipitation of calcite. However, the lack of accurate data on microbial respiration in the present study did not allow for a quantitative estimation of biogenic-induced calcite precipitation.

4.4.2. Outermost strongly degraded zone

Both experimentally [5] and in the calculations, the outermost degraded layer was made up of alumina and silica gels. The silica gel was represented in the modeling by the amorphous SiO_2 solid phase. The formation of alumina gel (substituted by gibbsite in the calculations) is induced by the dissolution of ettringite and hydrogarnet, according to Eq. (5). The alumina gel close to the edge is re-dissolved at a later stage in the calculations (**Fig. 5**) but not in reality, as discussed in the next section. The formation of alumina and silica gels is in agreement with the study of Bertron et al. who have investigated the effect of organic acids on cement pastes in an agricultural context [4,32]. These authors have reported decalcification of the degraded zone, progressive dissolution of all crystallized phases and the possible formation of a silica gel enriched with silicon, aluminum and iron in the superficial layer. According to literature [17], a small amount of calcium remains within the gel layer at pH between 4 and 7 but is completely leached for lower pH. This observation was correctly verified in the present study, both experimentally and by modeling.

4.5. Oxide compositions along a transverse

Fig. 6-graph A shows the measured quantitative oxide compositions along a transverse from the sample edge for a cement paste subjected to bioleaching for 450 days. Despite some noise resulting from the heterogeneity of hydrated cement paste, calcium content gradually

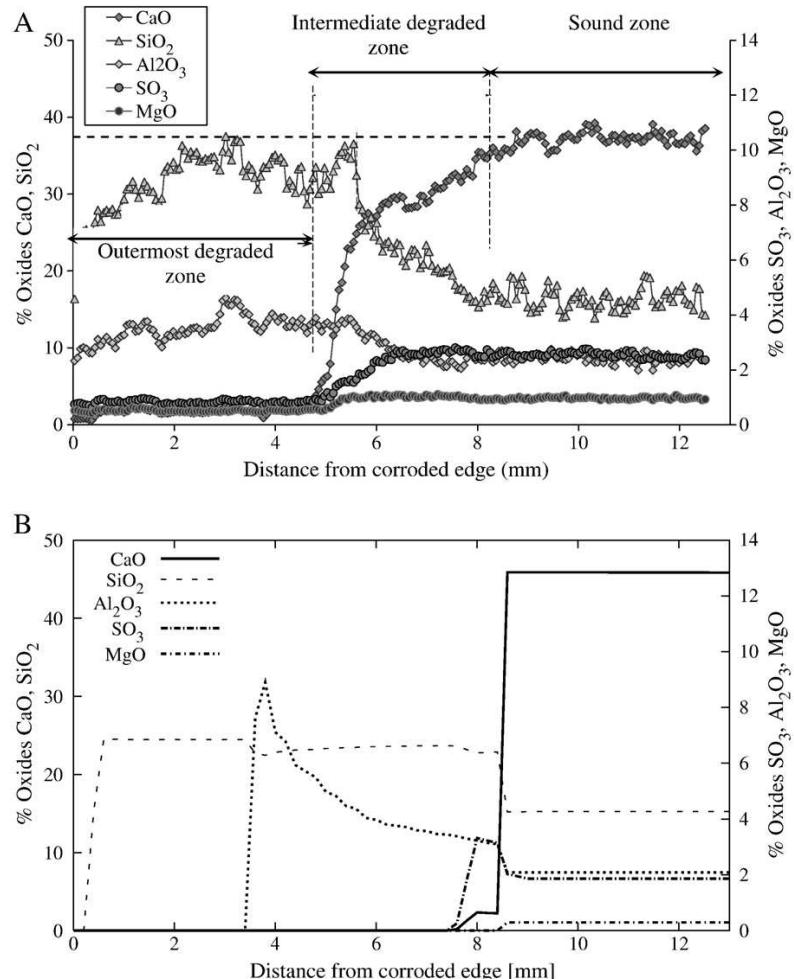


Fig. 6. Experimental (A) and calculated (B) distributions of chemical elements (expressed as oxides) along a transverse from the edge of the cement paste subjected to bioleaching for 450 days.

decreases in the intermediate degraded zone. In the outermost strongly degraded zone, the percentage silicon and aluminum contents significantly increase compared to the sound zone due to the drastic depletion of calcium and sulfate.

Fig. 6-graph B shows the calculated profiles of oxide compositions along the same transverse. The location of the non degraded sound zone is well reproduced as well as the general profile of silicon oxide, which significantly increases in the most degraded zone. A relative enrichment of the intermediate zone in sulfate is calculated similarly to the measured profile. The calculated depletion in magnesium takes place deeper in the cement paste compared to experiment. The silicon oxide content of the most degraded zone was identical to the sound zone in the modeling. A complete depletion of silica occurred both in calculations and experimentally at the outermost zone of the cement paste, over about 0.2 mm.

Though the calculated mineralogical transformations were in agreement with the literature, the model failed to simulate the actual thickness of the intermediate degraded zone, which was about 1 mm in the calculation but 2.5 mm in reality. The combination of representative (homogenized) elementary volumes and thermodynamic equilibrium seems to spatially concentrate the C-S-H decalcification process (Section 4.4) that may be in reality more heterogeneous and/or partly controlled by kinetics. A second major discrepancy between modeling and experiment concerned the width of the aluminum profile in the

outermost degraded zone. The precipitation of the aluminum gel, which was substituted by gibbsite in the present modeling, was a sensitive matter in the present calculations. Contrarily to experiment, the aluminum profile is not distributed over the whole degraded layer. As shown in Fig. 6, aluminum is fully leached over the first 3.5 mm of the degraded zone even without considering any aluminum complexation by the organic acids. Moreover, the alumina gel would be totally leached within the intermediate degraded zone, but still present in the intermediate zone, if aluminum complexation was taken into account. This can be interpreted according to the aluminum solubility diagrams of Section 4.1 (Fig. 2): gibbsite precipitation is hindered at pH below 4 in pure water, but as soon as pH drops below 6 in the presence of oxalates. The lack of gibbsite precipitation in the modeling is thus due to the relatively low calculated pH value (pH=4). In addition, the mixed alumina/silica gel might not be properly modeled by an independent combination of amorphous SiO₂ and gibbsite, as assumed in the present modeling work.

4.6. Remarks on the biogenic organic acid aggressiveness

A complementary calculation was performed without considering aluminum and calcium complexation by acetate, butyrate and oxalate. The degradation depth at 450 days of bioleaching was identical to the one

calculated by considering complexation. This indicates that cement degradation was essentially driven in the modeling by the acidic function of the organic acids (i.e. an acidic hydrolysis) and that complexation had no effect on the degradation depth. This is supported by published experimental works where the formation constants of organometallic complexes (acetic, butyric and lactic acids) had been shown to have no significant effect on the acid attack intensity (decalcification) on Portland cement pastes [4]. On the other hand, as discussed above, aluminum complexation has a significant effect in the modeling on the stability of the alumina gel layer that is formed in the degraded layer, or at least in the proportion of aluminum inserted into the silica gel.

No precipitation of calcium acetic/lactic/butyric salts was observed in the experiments of Bertron et al. mentioned in the previous paragraph [4]. By contrast, recent complementary experiments on cement attack by oxalic acid solutions showed an early precipitation of calcium oxalate salts at the surface of the cement pastes [18]. These oxalate crystals accumulated in the pores of the cement matrix. Such a localized precipitation seemed to have blocked the pores and to act as a barrier against diffusion, thus limiting calcium leaching. In the present bioleaching study, a significant precipitation of calcium oxalate was also calculated by HYTEC at the external boundary of the silica gel in a thermodynamic equilibrium approach. This led to a dramatic decrease of calcium concentration in the reactor in disagreement with the experimental data. Moreover, X-ray diffraction analysis [5] did not indicate any significant formation of calcium oxalates apparently because these crystals were not sufficiently abundant. Only SEM examination of the degrading cement paste specimens pointed out a very few occurrences of calcium oxalate crystals in zone 1 [5]. The reason for the weak calcium oxalate formation is unknown. Consequently, the present modeling did not consider this process in a first approximation.

5. Conclusion

Ordinary Portland cement pastes were severely attacked during bioleaching with an *A. niger* fungal culture, especially by biogenic organic acids (acetic, butyric, lactic and oxalic), and to a lesser extent respiration-induced carbonic acid. Biodegradation was not affected by any physical disruption such as hyphae penetration. The availability of thermodynamic data on organic acids (pK_a , aluminum, calcium, magnesium complexes) has allowed for a coupled chemical and hydrodynamic modeling of this bioleaching test. The production rate of the various organic acids was fitted on the measured experimental data considering average stationary concentrations without fluctuation. The HYTEC model has then been applied to both the bioleaching and control tests. It has been shown that organic acids react with hydrates (portlandite, C-S-H, and ettringite) leading to several degraded zones. The deepest degradation front corresponds to portlandite dissolution and decalcification of calcium silicate hydrates. A complex pattern of sulfate phases dissolution and precipitation takes place in an intermediate zone. The outermost degraded zone consists of alumina and silica gels.

The coupling of (bio)chemical alteration, porosity and diffusion evolutions is a key step. The modeling accurateness of calcium leaching, pH evolution and degradation thickness has been enhanced in a consistent manner whilst considering increase of diffusivity in the degraded zones. Modeling has indicated that cement biodegradation is essentially driven by acidic hydrolysis and not by complexation. Nonetheless, aluminum complexation by acetate and oxalate may have an effect on the stability of the alumina gel layer that is formed in the degraded layer, or in the proportion of aluminum inserted into the silica gel. A massive precipitation of calcium oxalate has been predicted by modeling at the surface of the cement pastes but was in reality hindered in the bioleaching reactor.

This study has demonstrated that reactive transport models can be applied to assess durability and long-term performance of cement-based materials subjected to biodegradation. However, a set of improvement are still required. Complementary thermodynamic data are still needed

(e.g. lactate complexes, aluminum salts) upstream of calculations. The calculated mineralogical fronts were too sharp compared to experiment, claiming for kinetics and/or heterogeneous modeling of the degradation front.

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B.5 De Windt et al. MSWI bottom ash used as base-
ment at two pilot-scale roads : Comparison of lea-
chate chemistry and reactive transport modeling,
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MSWI bottom ash used as basement at two pilot-scale roads: Comparison of leachate chemistry and reactive transport modeling

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ABSTRACT

The recycling of municipal solid waste incineration bottom ash as aggregates for road basement requires assessing the long-term evolution of leachate chemistry. The Dåva (Sweden) and Hérouville (France) pilot-scale roads were monitored during 6 and 10 years, respectively. Calculated saturation indices were combined to batch test modeling to set a simplified geochemical model of the bottom ash materials. A common reactive transport model was then applied to both sites. At Hérouville, pH and the concentration of most elements quickly drop during the first two years to reach a set of minimum values over 10 years. The decrease is less pronounced at Dåva. The evolutions of pH and major element concentrations are fairly well related to the following pH-buffering sequence: portlandite, C-S-H phases or pseudo-wollastonite and, finally, calcite in equilibrium with atmospheric CO₂. Al(OH)₃, barite, ettringite and monohydocalcite may also control leachate chemistry. Cu release is correctly modeled by DOM complexation and tenorite equilibrium. Temperature has no significant effect on the modeling of leachate chemistry in the range 5–30 °C, except at high pH. Effects at road edges and roadside slopes are important for the release of the less reactive elements and, possibly, for carbonation processes.

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1. Introduction

The recycling of municipal solid waste incineration bottom ash (MSWI BA), as aggregates for road and car-park construction, may impact the environment – both soil and water resources – by releasing salts and heavy metals into the leachates (e.g. Kosson et al., 1996). Therefore, characterizing the long-term evolution of the leachate chemistry is an important facet of the environmental impact assessment of such reuse scenarios. Recently, in complement to a large body of data obtained with batch and column tests, a few reliable field data have been acquired in large scale experiments for several years (Åberg et al., 2006; Flyhammar and Bendz, 2006; Hjelmar et al., 2007; Lidelöw and Lagerkvist, 2007; Dabo et al., 2009). The intrinsic mineralogical heterogeneity of MSWI BA, as well as the variability in the climatic events, especially the rainwater infiltration regime, complicate the interpretation of leachate chemistry.

Several geochemical modeling studies have been published to interpret leachate evolution from MSWI BA submitted to batch and column lab tests (e.g. Meima and Comans, 1997; Park and Batchelor, 2002; Astrup et al., 2006; Dijkstra et al., 2008; Hyks et al., 2009). By contrast, only a few modeling studies have been devoted to MSWI BA weathering occurring at pilot-scale applications,

either in lysimeter cell (Guyonnet et al., 2008; Mostbauer and Lechner, 2006) or landfill (Johnson et al., 1999; Baranger et al., 2002). However, such situations substantially differ from a road basement configuration. Edge effects that are typical of road structures cannot be correctly reproduced for instance. To the authors' knowledge, only Apul et al. (2007) have developed a reactive transport model relevant for road basements but the complexity of the chemical processes has been simplified to a set of K_d parameters.

This paper aims at presenting the results of modeling of leachate from two pilot-scale road basements containing MSWI BA: the Dåva site in Sweden (Lidelöw and Lagerkvist, 2007) and the Hérouville site in France (Dabo et al., 2009), monitored for 6 and 10 years, respectively. The comparison of these two sites that were developed independently helps to shed light on common processes, but also discrepancies, in view of rationalizing leachate emission. In the first part of the paper, calculated saturation indices and solubility diagrams are combined to batch test modeling to set a simplified geochemical model of the two bottom ash materials. The second part of this paper attempts to develop a reactive transport model applicable to field conditions. A reactive transport model can help to identify and discriminate between the main hydrodynamic and geochemical processes and can be an useful tool for environmental impact assessments. The pH-buffering processes, and their effect on the evolution of leachate chemistry (major elements and trace metals) over time, are more particularly investigated.

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2. Pilot-site configurations, material properties and batch tests

2.1. Configurations of the pilot-sites

The Dåva experimental road was built during the summer of 2001 at the Dåva power plant in Umeå (Sweden) and was used mainly by trucks for transport of incineration residues. Fig. 1 provides for schematic representation of the site. The road is 7 m wide and 80 m long. A 0.4 m thick subbase layer of MSWI BA is covered by a 15 cm base layer of rock crushed rock (gravel) and a 10 cm thick asphalt layer. Uncovered roadside slopes were built with the same bottom ash without being covered by asphalt. The average yearly precipitation in the area was about 600 mm per year during the sampling period, of which 40–50% fell as snow.

The Hérouville test road was built in 1997 in the Parisian Region (France) and characterized by a low traffic, about 10 vehicles per day. As schematically shown in Fig. 1, the road is 4 m wide and 20 m long and contains a 25 cm thick subbase layer of MSWI BA covered by a 15 cm thick asphalt cover. A polyethylene drainage liner (geomembrane) is located at the bottom of the subbase layer. The road is fully embedded in a cultivated loamy and sandy soil. The depth of the local aquifer varied seasonally, between 3 and 7 m beneath the road. The local average precipitation rate was about 700 mm/year for the 1998–2008 period. There was an initial leachate production due to water discharge by gravity during the very first weeks. Next, leachate volume was fairly well correlated to local precipitation in terms of intensity and frequency (Dabo et al., 2009). Leachate production was most probably linked to preferential flows since the geomembrane did not completely cover the road sides or edges, allowing lateral water infiltration into the subbase layer.

The methodology of leachate monitoring and sampling is presented into details in Lidelow and Lagerkvist (2007) for the Dåva site and in Dabo et al. (2009) for the Hérouville site. The Hérouville road was monitored in two stages, from 1997 to 2000, and then again in 2007 to evaluate leachate chemistry after 10 years of utilization. MSWI BA samples were also collected by drilling after 10 years in the road subbase at Hérouville.

2.2. MSWI bottom ashes

The Swedish MSWI BA originated from the Dåva power plant in Umeå (Sweden). The plant was mainly fueled with MSW and small

fractions of sorted industrial wastes such as wood, rubber and plastic. The bottom ash was screened to remove magnetic material and particles greater than 50 mm, and then weathered outdoor in heaps for 6 months. Compared with composition ranges of MSWI BA (Jeong et al., 2005), the material contained relatively large amounts of Cu and Zn, but small amounts of Al.

The French MSWI BA came from a municipal waste incineration facility located in the Parisian Region. Compared to the Swedish ash, metallic aluminum was also removed from the bottom ash in addition to magnetic materials and the storage was shorter (<3 months) corresponding to a lower stage of MSWI BA maturation. Compared with others MSWI BA (Jeong et al., 2005), the French bottom ash had relatively large amounts of Cu, Pb and Zn but relatively low contents of As, Cd and Hg.

2.3. Batch leaching tests

The model of the initial mineralogy of MSWI BA was partly derived from a set of batch leaching tests. A compliance test was applied to the Dåva bottom ash, consisting in a two-stage batch test at L/S 2 for 6 h and subsequently L/S 8 for 18 h according to the European standard EN 12457-3. Prior to the test, the samples were crushed and sieved to a particle size 95 wt.% < 4 mm. Contrarily to the standard test, the MSWI BA of the Hérouville site was neither crushed nor dried to prevent as much as possible any chemical artifacts. The L/S ratio ranged from 1 to 100. The batch tests were performed during 48 h with distilled water in an airtight device, to avoid carbonation, under permanent agitation. Distilled water was used as a leachant, i.e. the leaching pH was dictated by the material itself. The leaching tests of Hérouville were made in 2008 and, therefore, the MSWI BA did not strictly correspond to the material used for the test road construction in 1997. However, both bottom ashes came from the same incineration facility without any significant change in the bottom ash production but a slight evolution of municipal waste sorting.

3. Modeling approach and data

3.1. Reactive transport code and thermodynamic database

All the calculations were done with the reactive transport code HYTEC (van der Lee et al., 2003) that couples advective and diffusive transport of solutes to chemical reactions. The flow and trans-

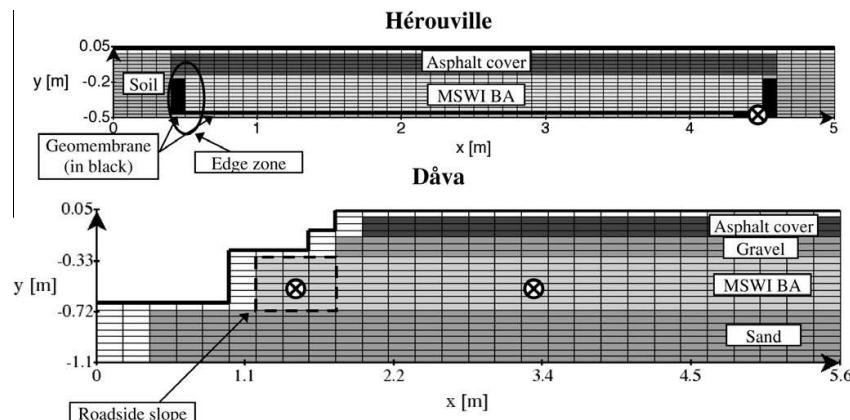


Fig. 1. Schematic representation of the two pilot-scale roads and modeling grids with the sampling collectors marked by the symbol \otimes . Due to symmetry, half a cross section is sufficient for the Dåva grid. The black upper boundary condition of rainwater infiltration and the grid nodes in white are used to simulate the partial runoff of rainwater at the surface.

port module is based on the representative elementary volume (REV) approach with finite volume calculation. The Davies model was used for activity correction with an ionic strength limit of 0.5 mol/L.

The MINTEQ thermodynamic database (version 3.12, Allison et al., 1991) was selected and enriched with additional data for cement phases, as reported in Table 1. Calcium silicate hydrate (C-S-H) phases formed during weathering of bottom ash are usually poorly crystallized phases (Speiser et al., 2000). The saturation indices were calculated for both crystalline and amorphous C-S-H phases. The former were nevertheless used in the calculations because their formation constants were known at different temperatures, which allowed for analyzing temperature-dependency in the range 5–30 °C. The solid Pb(OH)₂ was considered as a simplified formulation of more complex hydrous phases formed at alkaline pH (see De Windt and Badreddine, 2007).

The dissolved organic matter (DOM) of MSWI BA is known to have a strong affinity for Cu. A simple model was used to simulate the complexation process. Fulvic acids were assumed to be the responsible ligands for Cu-binding and to constitute 15 wt.% of the measured dissolved organic carbon (DOC), according to van Zoomeren and Comans (2004). Since there is no specific model for metal–fulvic interaction implemented in HYTEC, EDTA (ethylene-diamine-tetra-acetic acid) was considered as a substitute for the fulvic fraction. This molecule, that holds carboxylic acid functional groups as fulvics, is also a strong Cu complexant. The ther-

modynamic constants for EDTA acid/base properties and Cu complexation were taken from the MINTEQ database.

3.2. Solubility-controlled modeling

One of the major difficulties encountered in the modeling of MSWI BA chemical reactivity is their wide-ranging mineralogical composition. They are composed of quenched glass and relic glass (about 50% by weight), native metals (Al, Fe) and a broad spectra of minerals such as silicates (e.g. feldspars, gehlenite, pseudo-wollastonite, quartz), carbonates (e.g. calcite), sulfates (e.g. ettringite, gypsum), aluminum and iron (hydr)oxides (e.g. gibbsite, magnetite). Furthermore, a given trace element is distributed among several solid phases. A second reason of modeling complexity is that many primary minerals formed during combustion, as well as glassy phases formed during quenching, remain permanently undersaturated (i.e. thermodynamically not stable) under meteoric weathering conditions. For instance, gehlenite was found to be strongly undersaturated with respect to leachate whatever the pH (Section 4.2). Therefore, modeling their long-term evolution requires kinetic parameters (e.g. intrinsic rate constant, specific surface distribution) that are specific to each type of phases and are generally unknown.

One way to (partially) manage this modeling complexity is to only consider those minerals characterized by fast kinetics of reaction (e.g. calcite, C-S-H, ettringite, portlandite) that have been

Table 1
Thermodynamic equilibrium constants of the solid phases considered in the calculation of saturation indices and the reactive transport modeling.

Mineral	Reaction of formation	Log K 0 °C	25 °C	Ref.
Amorphous Al(OH) ₃	Al ³⁺ + 3H ₂ O → Al(OH) ₃ (am) + 3H ⁺	-12.2	-10.4	a
Calcite	Ca ²⁺ + CO ₃ ²⁻ → CaCO ₃	8.4	8.5	a
C-S-H 0.8	0.8Ca ²⁺ + H ₄ SiO ₄ - 0.4H ₂ O → C-S-H 0.8 + 1.6H ⁺	-	-11.1	b
C-S-H 1.1	1.1Ca ²⁺ + H ₄ SiO ₄ + 0.2H ₂ O → C-S-H 1.1 + 2.2H ⁺	-	-16.7	b
C-S-H 1.8	1.8Ca ²⁺ + H ₄ SiO ₄ + 1.6H ₂ O → C-S-H 1.8 + 3.6H ⁺	-	-32.6	b
Ettringite	2Al ³⁺ + 6Ca ²⁺ + 3SO ₄ ²⁻ + 38H ₂ O → Ca ₆ Al ₂ (SO ₄) ₃ (OH) ₁₂ ·26H ₂ O + 12H ⁺	-63.3	-56.9	c,d
Foshagite	4Ca ²⁺ + 3H ₄ SiO ₄ - H ₂ O → Ca ₄ Si ₃ O ₉ (OH) ₂ + 8H ⁺	-71.4	-65.9	d
Friedel's salt	4Ca ²⁺ + 2Al ³⁺ + 2Cl ⁻ + 12H ₂ O → Ca ₄ Al ₂ Cl ₂ (OH) ₁₂ ·4H ₂ O + 12H ⁺	-	-73.0	e
Gehlenite	2Ca ²⁺ + 2Al ³⁺ + H ₄ SiO ₄ + 3H ₂ O → Ca ₂ Al ₂ SiO ₇ + 10H ⁺	-64.6	-56.8	a
Gibbsite	Al ³⁺ + 3H ₂ O → Al(OH) ₃ + 3H ⁺	-10.3	-8.8	a
Gypsum	Ca ²⁺ + SO ₄ ²⁻ + 2H ₂ O → CaSO ₄ ·2H ₂ O	4.9	4.8	a
Halite	Na ⁺ + Cl ⁻ → NaCl	-1.5	-1.6	a
Hillebrandite	2Ca ²⁺ + H ₄ SiO ₄ + H ₂ O → Ca ₂ (OH) ₂ SiO ₃ + 4H ⁺	-40.0	-36.8	d
Monosulfoaluminate	2Al ³⁺ + 4Ca ²⁺ + SO ₄ ²⁻ + 12H ₂ O → Ca ₄ Al ₂ SO ₄ (OH) ₁₂ + 12H ⁺	-	-73.0	f
Monohydrocalcite	Ca ²⁺ + CO ₃ ²⁻ + H ₂ O → CaCO ₃ ·H ₂ O	7.6	7.7	d
Pseudo-wollastonite	Ca ²⁺ + H ₄ SiO ₄ - H ₂ O → Ca ₅ SiO ₁₆ (OH) ₂ ·4H ₂ O + 10H ⁺	-15.3	-13.9	a
Portlandite	Ca ²⁺ + 2H ₂ O → Ca(OH) ₂ + 2H ⁺	-24.7	-22.7	a
Quartz	H ₄ SiO ₄ → SiO ₂ + 2H ₂ O	4.4	4.0	a
Sylvite	K ⁺ + Cl ⁻ → KCl	-0.5	-0.9	d
Thaumasite	6Ca ²⁺ + 2H ₄ SiO ₄ + 2CO ₃ ²⁻ + 2SO ₄ ²⁻ + 28H ₂ O → Ca ₆ (SiO ₃) ₂ O ₁₆ (CO ₃) ₂ (SO ₄) ₂ ·30H ₂ O + 4H ⁺	-	1.6	g
Tobermorite	5Ca ²⁺ + 6H ₄ SiO ₄ - 2H ₂ O → Ca ₅ SiO ₁₆ (OH) ₂ ·4H ₂ O + 10H ⁺	-67.0	-63.8	d
Anglesite	Pb ²⁺ + SO ₄ ²⁻ → PbSO ₄	7.9	7.8	a
Barite	Ba ²⁺ + SO ₄ ²⁻ → BaSO ₄	10.4	10.0	a
Cerussite	Pb ²⁺ + CO ₃ ²⁻ → PbCO ₃	13.5	13.1	a
Cu(OH) ₂	Cu ²⁺ + 2H ₂ O → Cu(OH) ₂ + 2H ⁺	-9.7	-8.6	a
Hydrocerussite	3Pb ²⁺ + 2CO ₃ ²⁻ + 2H ₂ O → Pb ₃ (CO ₃) ₂ (OH) ₂ + 2H ⁺	-	17.5	a
Malachite	2Cu ²⁺ + CO ₃ ²⁻ + 2H ₂ O → Cu ₂ CO ₃ (OH) ₂ + 2H ⁺	4.1	5.2	a
Pb(OH) ₂	Pb ²⁺ + 2H ₂ O → Pb(OH) ₂ + 2H ⁺	-	-11.0	h
Pb ₂ (OH) ₃ Cl	2Pb ²⁺ + Cl ⁻ + 3H ₂ O → Pb ₂ (OH) ₃ Cl + 3H ⁺	-	-8.8	a
Tenorite	Cu ²⁺ + H ₂ O → CuO + 2H ⁺	-8.7	-7.6	a
Witherite	Ba ²⁺ + CO ₃ ²⁻ → BaCO ₃	8.6	8.6	a

^a MINTEQ, Allison et al. (1991)

^b Fit from Stronach and Glasser (1997).

^c Perkins and Palmer (1999).

^d EQ3/6, Wolery (1992).

^e Bothe and Brown (2004).

^f Damidot and Glasser (1993).

^g Schmidl et al. (2008).

^h Adjusted, see De Windt and Badreddine (2007).

identified in the abundant literature on MSWI BA. These minerals are usually the by-products of the hydrolysis of the primary oxides formed during waste combustion. The dissolution and precipitation of the selected solid phases, characterized by fast kinetics, were assumed to be at thermodynamic equilibrium in the subbase layers. However, as discussed throughout the paper, the control of leachate chemistry by the primary phase pseudo-wollastonite was also considered as a modeling option. Kinetic rate constants have been published for wollastonite under alkaline pH conditions (Golubev et al., 2006). The mean data is about 10^{-9} mol/m²/s at 25 °C. Kinetics required to estimate reactive surfaces, but this rate constant probably neither corresponds to a fast or to a slow kinetics of dissolution at the time scale of interest (from day to week). By simplicity, thermodynamic equilibrium was also assumed for pseudo-wollastonite in the model.

A second and complementary modeling approach is to consider that the solubility of trace metals is also controlled by secondary phases without explicitly considering the dissolution of primary source-terms. Mineral depletion of trace elements, after which sorption processes would take over, is assumed not to take place within the time frame of the measurements. Solubility control by secondary phases is a common fact in natural environment and has been experimentally demonstrated in the field of MSWI BA (e.g. Piantone et al., 2004). The solubility-controlling phase usually varies according to the solution chemistry (e.g. hydroxides at high pH vs. carbonates at neutral pH). Sorption on Al and Fe oxyhydroxides is another important controlling process for trace metals. However, this mechanism was not considered in the present study since the trace element concentrations were systematically fixed by one or several secondary minerals. In principle, trace element concentrations are over-estimated in a solubility-controlled approach based on pure phases. Taking into account sorption processes or solid solution formation would decrease the calculated concentrations.

3.3. Flow and transport parameters

The main objective of the pilot-sites was leachate sampling and the hydrodynamic properties of the road components were relatively poorly characterized. Only the hydraulic conductivity at water saturation of the 10-year old bottom ash was estimated at Hérouville after removal of the asphalt cover ($K_{sat} \sim 5 \times 10^{-6}$ m/s). The same value was assumed for the Dåva bottom ash. The hydraulic conductivities of the sandy and gravel materials were taken from the literature (Guymon, 1994). The hydraulic conductivities of the asphalt covers (i.e. runoff on the pavement vs. infiltration) were then adjusted (Table 2) to fit the chloride release profiles, in the roadside slope and under the asphalt pavement, assuming that precipitations were distributed evenly over the year. Differences between the horizontal and vertical hydraulic conductivity were neglected for all the layers of the road base. The pres-

ence of preferential flow paths within the subbase layer was not investigated. However, the asphalt cover of the Dåva and Hérouville roads did not present any effective cracks after 6 and 10 years, respectively. The preferential flow pathway along the geomembrane observed in the Hérouville pilot-site was simulated by setting a higher hydraulic conductivity at the bottom of the MSWI BA subbase. The calculations were performed under water saturated conditions. A detailed unsaturated modeling linked to daily precipitation data was more costly in terms of computer time and could not be compared to site data since the leachates were sampled every 2 weeks only.

4. Mineralogical model of the MSWI BA

The geochemical model of the MSWI BA was built on taking into account: (i) ash mineralogy, determined on the basis of both mineralogical analysis (XRD and SEM) of the Hérouville ash (Dabo et al., 2009) and literature review, (ii) calculated saturation indices for Dåva and Hérouville field leachates, and (iii) batch test modeling.

4.1. Brief literature review of solubility-controlling minerals

According to the literature (Johnson et al., 1999; Meima and Comans, 1997; Dijkstra et al., 2008), there are three main sequences controlling the leachate concentrations in major elements during MSWI BA weathering: (i) portlandite and gypsum for fresh unweathered bottom ash with leachate pH greater than 12, (ii) ettringite, gibbsite and gypsum for quenched bottom ash with pH close to 10.5, and (iii) calcite in equilibrium with atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) for carbonated bottom ash with pH close to 8 (the mineral formulae can be found in Table 1). It is likely that other cement-type phases are also active with respect to pH in the range 10.5–12. Thaumasite can contribute to pH-buffering at pH around 10 (Mostbauer and Lechner, 2006). However, this phase is generally present at a low content in MSWI BA compared to other sulfates like gypsum or ettringite (Piantone et al., 2004). Friesel's salt (equivalent to hydrocalumite) represents the Cl pole of the AFm cement-type phases. Its high molar content in hydroxyl ions could buffer the pH of leachate in the alkaline domain. The potential role of C-S-H in the alkaline pH range is mentioned by several authors (Johnson et al., 1999; Speiser et al., 2000; Piantone et al., 2004). Regarding the primary phases, wollastonite is the most likely to control Si concentration. For instance, Bodénan et al. (2010) indicated that leachate of boiler ash from a MSW fluidized-bed incinerator was close to thermodynamic equilibrium with this phase. This controlling process was assessed as an option of the mineralogical model of bottom ash. Pseudo-wollastonite, its low pressure polymorph, was considered to be more representative of the incineration (oven) conditions.

4.2. Saturation indices of leachates

Some insights into the chemical processes occurring in the two pilot-scale roads were investigated with the geochemical module (named CHESS) of HYTEC by calculating saturation index (SI) of leachate with respect to primary and secondary minerals as well as by comparing field data with stability domains of Al-SO₄ minerals. Due to uncertainties, leachate is assumed to be in thermodynamic equilibrium with respect to a given mineral if the SI of this mineral ranges between -0.5 and 0.5 log unit. A positive SI (super-saturation or over-saturation state) indicates that the given mineral may precipitate as a secondary mineral. A negative SI (under-saturation state) indicates that the given mineral is not stable with respect to leachate chemistry and may dissolve provided the

Table 2
Transport parameters used in the reactive transport calculations.

	Hydraulic conductivity K (m/s)	Pore diffusion coefficient D_p (m ² /s)	Effective porosity ω (%)
<i>Hérouville</i>			
Asphalt cover	2×10^{-7}	—	—
BA subbase	5×10^{-6}	10^{-10}	30
BA pathway (geomembrane)	10^{-3}	10^{-9}	30
<i>Dåva</i>			
Asphalt cover	5×10^{-6}	—	—
Gravel and sand	10^{-5}	10^{-9}	30
BA subbase	5×10^{-6}	10^{-9}	30

mineral is effectively present in the material. Table 3 tabulates SI calculated for a selection of representative leachates. The selected data are denoted by square symbols in Figs. 5–7 and 9 that report the evolution with time of major and trace element concentrations in leachates (discussed in Section 5). As shown in Table 3, the pH of the selected leachates decreased with time. Leachate temperatures during sampling were close to 18 °C at Hérouville and ranged from 8 to 24 °C at Dåva.

Gehlenite, pseudo-wollastonite and quartz are all primary minerals of MSWI BA. Gehlenite is systematically not stable (undersaturated) with respect to all leachates. Pseudo-wollastonite is slightly supersaturated at alkaline pH but undersaturated (i.e. thermodynamically unstable) at neutral pH. The opposite is true for quartz. At neutral pH, leachates are not far from equilibrium with quartz (and slightly undersaturated with respect to chalcedony that is most likely to precipitate at low temperature).

Portlandite is close to equilibrium or the saturation point ($SI = -0.3$) with respect to the very early leachates at Hérouville, which is consistent with the highest pH measured on site ($pH = 12.4$). In the very first months, the SI of Friedel's salt are supersaturated with respect to the alkaline and Cl-enriched leachates. As indicated by strongly negative SI, it becomes quickly unstable (among others, due to Cl leaching) and should dissolve. The SI of ettringite are positive at $pH \geq 11$, but strongly negative below $pH 10$. Ettringite precipitation is therefore likely during the first years, whereas dissolution should occur on the long-term. Thaumasite can precipitate from the early alkaline leachates of Hérouville ($SI \sim 3$) but not at moderately alkaline to neutral pH. At Hérouville,

all the C-S-H phases, either crystalline or amorphous, are clearly close to equilibrium at alkaline pH but strongly undersaturated at slightly alkaline to neutral pH. The higher the pH is, the higher the Ca/Si is. C-S-H 1.8 and 1.1 are supersaturated at pH 12.4, but only C-S-H 1.1 at pH 11.4. Tobermorite ($Ca/Si = 0.8$) is the only stable phase at pH 11.4. All C-S-H phases are significantly undersaturated at neutral pH conditions.

Gypsum is always undersaturated with respect to leachates, whatever the pH or temperature. At Hérouville, amorphous $Al(OH)_3$ and gibbsite are clearly undersaturated in the alkaline pH range 12.5–10.5 whereas the former is not far from equilibrium at neutral pH. At Dåva, gibbsite is supersaturated at all pH values while amorphous $Al(OH)_3$ is not far from equilibrium at $pH \leq 10.5$. Calcite is close to saturation in the long-term leachates at Hérouville ($pH \sim 8$) while systematically supersaturated ($SI \sim 1$) in any other leachates, especially at alkaline pH. Monohydrocalcite is close to saturation at alkaline pH. The same conclusion have recently been drawn for alkaline leachates of a boiler ash from a MSW fluidized-bed incinerator (Bodénat et al., 2010).

At Dåva, barite is systematically close to equilibrium whatever the pH and the temperature (whereas witherite is always undersaturated). Tenorite is supersaturated at alkaline pH and close to equilibrium (Hérouville) or undersaturated (Dåva) on the long-term. Cu-hydroxide is close to equilibrium at $pH \sim 11$. The interaction between Cu and dissolved organic matter (DOM) was not taken into account in SI calculations. The leachates are undersaturated with respect to any secondary Pb phases, whatever the pH, temperature or time; especially at Dåva. For instance, the

Table 3
Calculated saturation indices (SI) for a selection of leachates representative of successive weathering stages (the solid phases considered in the batch and reactive transport modeling are in bold).

	Hérouville				Dåva (slope)				Dåva (pav.)
Time	+7 days	+250 days	+3 years	+10 years	+13 days	+250 days	+3 years	+6 years	+3 years
<i>Cement-type phases</i>									
C-S-H 0.8	-0.6	-0.3	-4.0	-5.1	-	-	-	-5.7	-
C-S-H 1.1	0.8	0.2	-5.5	-7.0	-	-	-	-7.5	-
C-S-H 1.8	0.8	-1.5	-11.9	-14.2	-	-	-	-14.5	-
Tobermorite^a	4.7 (0.8)	4.2 (0.7)	-4.0 (-0.7)	-26.7 (-4.5)	-	-	-	-30 (-5)	-
Foshagite^a	1.6 (0.5)	-2.5 (-0.8)	-25 (-8.3)	-29.5 (-9.8)	-	-	-	-31.5 (-10.5)	-
Hillebrandite	0.6	-2.5	-14.4	-16.6	-	-	-	17.3	-
Thaumasite	3.1	-7.4	-21.4	-9.2	-	-	-	-13.8	-
Ettringite	6.3	0.1	-14.5	-16.7	1.5	-2.6	-0.1	-18.6	-2.8
Monosulfoal.	1.4	-4.8	-19.4	-22.6	-4.7	-6.1	-5.3	-23.4	-8.4
Friedel's salt	2.3	-2.6	-17.5	-23.5	2.1	-5.4	-3.1	-21.1	-1.9
Portlandite	-0.3	-2.9	-9.7	-10.5	-4.3	-4.8	-4.4	-10.7	-5.9
<i>Other phases (major elements)</i>									
Al(OH)₃ (am)	-3.9	-3.0	0.0	-0.5	-1.0	0.6	-0.8	-0.4	-0.1
Calcite	-	-	-	0.1	1.0	-	1.2	-0.9	0.8
Monohydrocalc.	-	-	-	-0.7	0.2	-	0.4	-1.7	0.0
Gehlenite	-6.4	-7.7	-14	-17.2	-	-	-	-17.7	-
Gibbsite	-2.2	-1.3	1.7	1.1	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.3	1.7
Gypsum	-0.9	-1.1	-1.3	-0.6	-0.9	-1.5	-1.4	-1.5	-1.5
P-wollastonite	1.2	0.7	-4.5	-5.7	-	-	-	-6.4	-
Quartz	-3.3	-1.3	0.4	0.1	-	-	-	-0.6	-
<i>Other phases (trace elements)</i>									
Barite	-	-	-	-	0.4	-0.1	0.4	0.4	0.6
Witherite	-	-	-	-	-2.9	-	-2.2	-4.1	-2.3
Anglesite	-9.7	-7.8	-3.2	-4.6	-8.4	-7.4	-8.4	-5.5	-7.3
Cerussite	-	-	-	-2.1	-4.8	-	-3.9	-3.2	-3.1
Hydrocerussite	-	-	-	-7.7	-9.8	-	-7.7	-9.8	-6.1
Litharge	-1.9	-2.3	-4.3	-7.5	-4.4	-3.5	-4.0	-7.5	-4.1
Pb(OH)₂(s)	-0.1	0.2	-2.1	-5.4	-2.1	-1.7	-1.7	-5.3	-1.5
Pb₂(OH)₃Cl	-1.1	-0.8	-1.7	-8.2	-2.7	-2.4	-4.4	-7.8	-2.3
Cu(OH)₂^b	1.0	0.4	-0.5	-0.8	0.1	0.0	-0.9	-1.8	0.0
Malachite ^b	-	-	-	0.4	-3.9	-	-5.2	-2.7	-2.7
Tenorite^b	2.1	1.6	0.5	0.2	1.0	1.0	0.2	-0.7	1.0

^a The SI given in parenthesis are normalized to 1 atom of Si for comparison with the other C-S-H phases.

^b The interaction between Cu and the dissolved organic matter is not taken into account for the SI calculations.

leachate are significantly undersaturated with respect to cerussite ($\text{SI} \leq -2$) and hydrocerussite ($\text{SI} \leq -7$), in agreement with the study of Mostbauer and Lechner (2006). Pb-hydroxide makes exception since it is close to equilibrium in the alkaline domain during the first year at Hérouville.

4.3. Plot of Al and SO_4 solubility diagrams

Plotting the leachate data on calculated Al and SO_4 solubility diagrams is a complementary tool for data analyzing. The diagrams were made with CHESS and the present database, for chemical conditions representative of leachate. Despite a recurrent under-saturation state, amorphous Al(OH)_3 formation is relatively well corroborated by the plot of field data on the Al solubility diagram (Fig. 2). In particular, Al concentration is strongly correlated to pH in the range 10–6. It is worth noting that the Dåva field data match the ettringite solubility limits in both Al and SO_4 solubility diagrams fairly well. In agreement with SI calculation, the SO_4 field data are systematically below the gypsum solubility limit.

4.4. Batch test modeling and initial mineralogy

Fig. 3 shows the experimental and modeling data of batch tests applied to the Hérouville and Dåva MSWI bottom ashes. The mineralogical model was mainly derived from the tests related to the Hérouville ash. The evolution of pH with L/S was well reproduced by modeling (Fig. 3a), provided a few amount of portlandite (Table 4) was introduced in the initial mineralogy to simulate the highest pH values. C-S-H phases were then taken into account to model the subsequent evolution of pH and Ca concentration. In cement chemistry, to a given pH of solution corresponds a given Ca/Si ratio of C-S-H (e.g. Blanc et al., 2010). Hillebrandite ($\text{Ca/Si} = 2.0$) was considered in the present case. Results of similar quality were,

however, obtained when pseudo-wollastonite was substituted to hillebrandite. Normalized Cl releases are perfectly in a (horizontal) line, both experimentally and in the modeling (Fig. 3b). This is indicative of a conservative behavior or, equivalently, that pore water is the main source of Cl. On the opposite, the evolutions of Ca and SO_4 releases with L/S are representative of solubility-controlling processes. The model fairly well simulates Ca release with L/S increase. For SO_4 , the experiment/model agreement is satisfactory at $L/S = 5, 10$ and 100 but the model fails to simulate the lowest L/S . Considering a small amount of gypsum improved the agreement.

In order to reduce the number of fitted parameters, the modeling of DOM release behavior was also derived from batch test data (available for Hérouville only). As shown in Fig. 3b, the experimental values of DOC slightly increases with L/S . DOC release is thus not fully conservative. Nevertheless, in a first approximation, pore water was assumed to the single source of DOM in the model. This initial value was derived from the batch test at $L/S = 1$, the closest to L/S in the basement ($L/S \sim 0.2$). The agreement between the measured and calculated leached Cu at $L/S = 10$ was also clearly improved while considering Cu-DOM interactions (Fig. 3c); which "validates" the EDTA approximation discussed in Section 3.1. Fig. 3c shows the full batch data set at $L/S = 10$. Beside Cl and pH, which were adjusted to batch data, the model correctly matches the experimental data (Al excepted, with an underestimation of two orders of magnitude).

Table 4 gives the proportions in the raw MSWI BA of the reactive minerals of interest for the modeling. As discussed, halite, sylvite and portlandite contents were quantitatively derived from batch leaching tests. The content in C-S-H phase, or pseudo-wollastonite as a second option, was derived from the pH evolution with increasing L/S . The contents in calcite, ettringite and quartz were semi-quantitatively estimated from XRD analyses. C-S-H

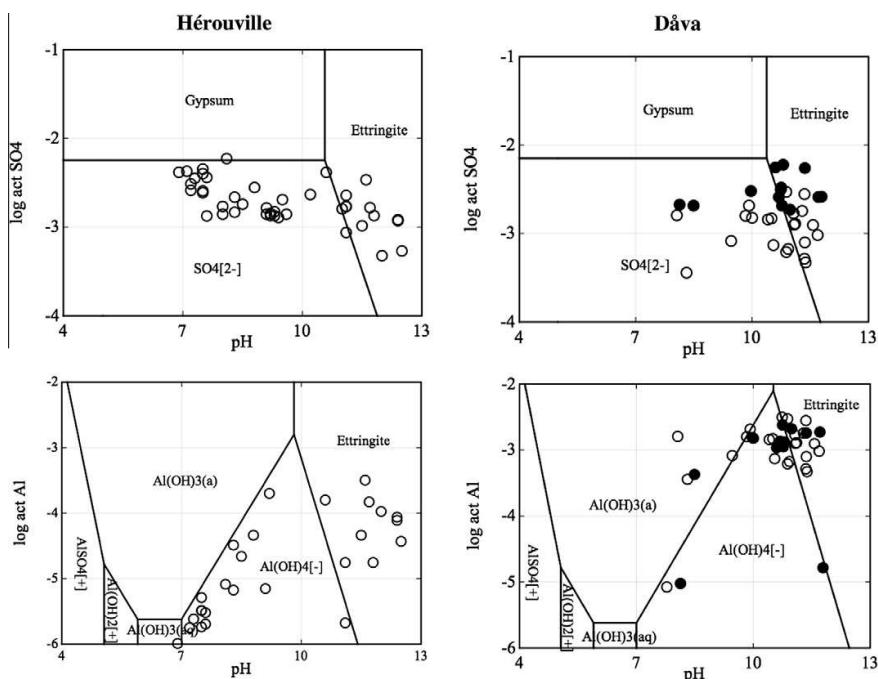


Fig. 2. Plot of the leachate experimental data on SO_4 and Al solubility diagrams calculated at 25 °C for conditions representative of the leachate (Hérouville: tot. $\text{Al}^{3+} = 3 \times 10^{-5}$, tot. $\text{Ca}^{2+} = 2.5 \times 10^{-3}$, tot. $\text{SO}_4^{2-} = 1 \times 10^{-3}$; Dåva: tot. $\text{Al}^{3+} = 1 \times 10^{-4}$, tot. $\text{Ca}^{2+} = 1 \times 10^{-3}$, tot. $\text{SO}_4^{2-} = 1 \times 10^{-3}$). In the Dåva case the symbols ○ and ● stand for leachate collector under the slope and the road, respectively.

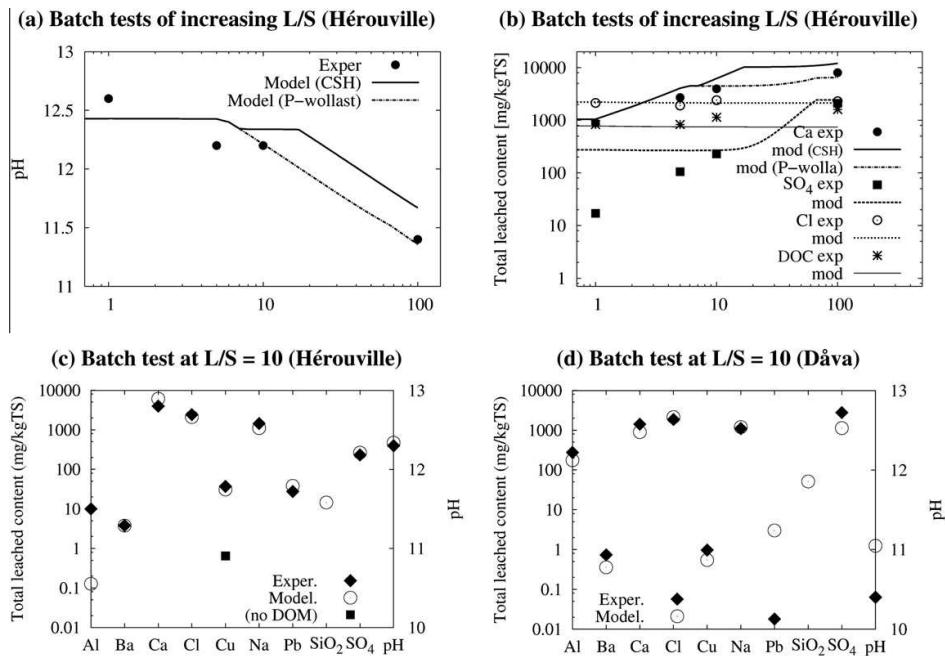


Fig. 3. Experimental and modeling data of batch tests applied to the Hérouville and Dåva MSWI bottom ashes.

Table 4

Initial mineralogical content of the MSWI BA considered for the batch and reactive transport modeling.

	Hérouville (wt.%) ^a	Dåva (wt.%)	Hérouville (wt.%)	Dåva (wt.%)
Calcite	10	10	Halite	0.28
Hillebrandite or P-wollastonite	2.5	–	Portlandite	1
Tobermorite or P- wollastonite	–	2.5	Sylvite	0.08
Ettringite	1	1	Litharge	0.1
Gypsum	0.05	0.05	Tenorite	0.1
			pH	10

^a wt.% of dried MSWI BA.

phases are considered as modeling analogues to simulate the pH transient stage in the range 12–10.5, though they themselves derived from the hydrolysis of primary alkaline phases (Section 3.2). Trace metals were introduced as (hydr)oxide (Cu, Pb) at an arbitrary low content (0.1% by weight) though high enough to ensure that mineral depletion of trace elements did not take place within the modeled time frame. The other solid phases that could possibly precipitate during the modeling of the system evolution are written in bold in Table 3.

For the Dåva bottom ash, the compliance batch test at $L/S = 10$ was only available. In a first approximation, the mineralogical set assumed for the Hérouville material was applied to the Dåva material. This makes sense for the potential secondary phases that may precipitate under the road conditions, which are not fundamentally different from the Hérouville site. This is also partly justified for the initial mineralogy since MSWI BA described in the literature share many similarities. However, some specific adjustments were required. Firstly, halite and sylvite contents were directly derived from batch test. Secondly, the higher maturation stage of the Dåva bottom ash induced a lower pH (pH = 11 instead of 12.3). This pH could be simulated assuming portlandite depletion and C-S-H of lower Ca/Si ratios. The best pH adjustment was obtained with

tobermorite, although pH was under-estimated by 0.5 pH unit (Fig. 3d). The mineralogical model of the Dåva MSWI BA is given in Table 4. Globally, the modeling of the batch test is satisfactory for most elements (including Al); excepted Pb that is over-estimated by two orders of magnitude (Fig. 3d).

5. Leachate evolution and reactive transport modeling

5.1. Water flow field

Fig. 1 shows the grids used in the reactive transport calculations and the location of the leachate collectors. A full cross section was required for modeling the Hérouville road due to the asymmetric location of the sampling system (at the right-hand side of the road), which generated a dissymmetric water flow. Half a cross section was sufficient for the symmetric Dåva road. The calculated water flow field is given in Fig. 4. At Dåva, the runoff at the surface of the pavement goes towards the ditch with a maximum water infiltration calculated for the uncovered slopes. This is in agreement with field measurement where the majority of leachate was produced in the roadside slopes. At Hérouville, modeling leads to runoff on the pavement and a moderate water infiltration at the road edges. The model also took into account the initial leachate production that occurred during the very first weeks due to water discharge by gravity. The infiltrated water at the road edges was further canalized by the geomembrane towards the collector. This artifact of the sampling system was correctly reproduced by the model.

5.2. Release of Cl, Na and DOC

5.2.1. Field data

Fig. 5 shows the evolution with time of the leachate concentrations of Cl, Na and DOC at the sampling points. At Hérouville,

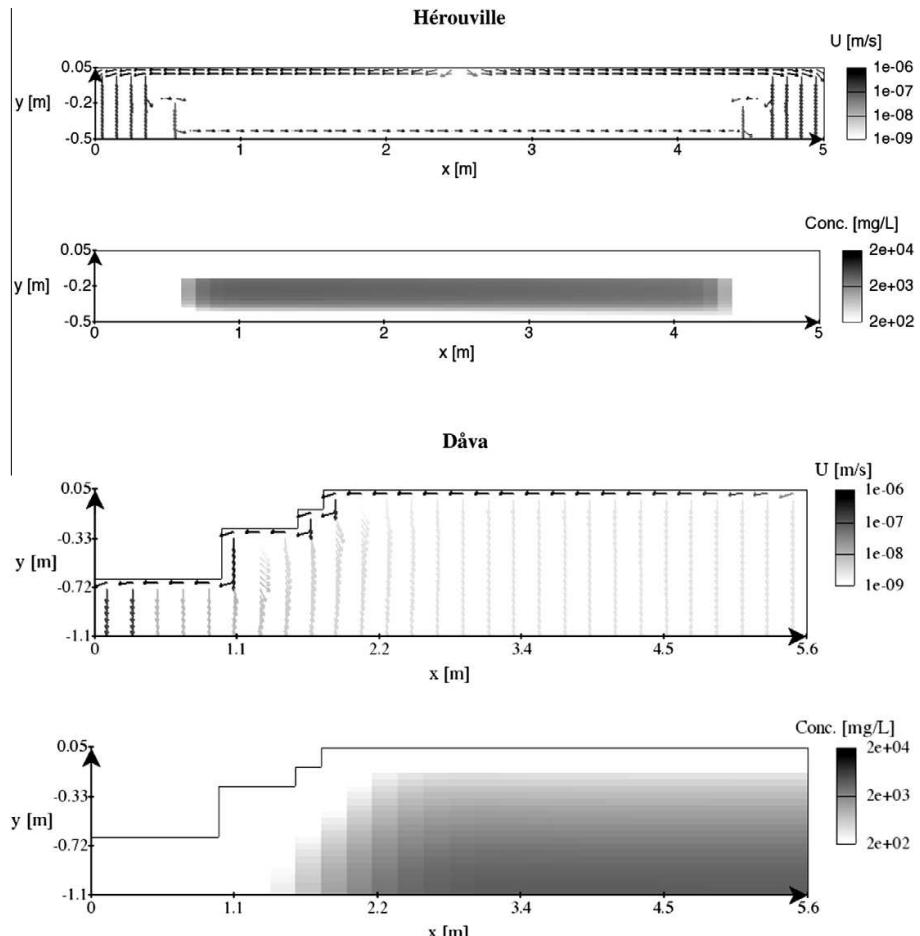


Fig. 4. Calculated average annual Darcy flow and Cl concentration profiles after 3 years of leaching. The upper vectors correspond to water runoff at the surface of the asphalt towards the soil (Hérouville) or the ditch (Dåva).

Cl and Na leachate concentrations are initially about 1000 mg/L and progressively decrease over time to reach a mean value of 100 mg/L after 10 years. The initial values are higher at Dåva, about 10,000 mg/L. Data scattering is more pronounced at Hérouville than at Dåva. Edge effects are important for Cl and Na releases. While the asphalt cover is a barrier against rainwater percolation through the bottom ash layer, Cl and Na releases are much more pronounced in the uncovered slopes at Dåva or driven by lateral inflows at Hérouville. Lateral inputs have been theoretically assumed to be a major source of leachate production by different authors (Kosson et al., 1996; Apul et al., 2007). The increase of Cl concentrations after 5 years in the roadside slope at Dåva would be due to engineering works performed during this period.

At Hérouville, DOC leachate concentrations are about 1000 mg/L the first month and rapidly decrease over time to reach a mean value of 10 mg/L after 10 years. DOC distribution is scattered. At Dåva, the initial DOC leachate concentrations are about 100 mg/L and decreases to 10 mg/L. The contrasted leaching between the roadside slope and under the pavement is noticeable, but field DOC concentrations decrease more slowly than the corresponding Cl and Na ones.

5.2.2. Modeling

Fig. 4 gives a 2D picture of the Cl plumes calculated after 3 years. Cl ions have been leached away at the edges and roadside slopes but preserved from leaching by the asphalt cover. The barrier effect of the geomembrane at Hérouville can also be noticed in the figure. Despite the simplified hydrodynamic modeling approach, the Cl field data are well fitted by the model (Fig. 5); supporting the modeling assumption that Cl was non reactive (conservative) and mainly present in the initial pore water. Diffusion inside the bottom ash layer below the pavement is combined to weak lateral flows. Na release is closely related to Cl release which is demonstrated by the very good agreement between the field data and calculated curve (fitted on the chloride content only). However, the molar ratio Na/Cl that is initially close to unity increases over time progressively. This suggests another sources of Na release on the long-term, such as the slow dissolution of glassy particles.

In the modeling of the Hérouville site, DOC release is similar to the release of dissolved chloride salts. The calculated data represent an upper limit to field data. Such an upper limit might validate the assumption that the main source of DOC is also the initial pore water of the MSWI BA.

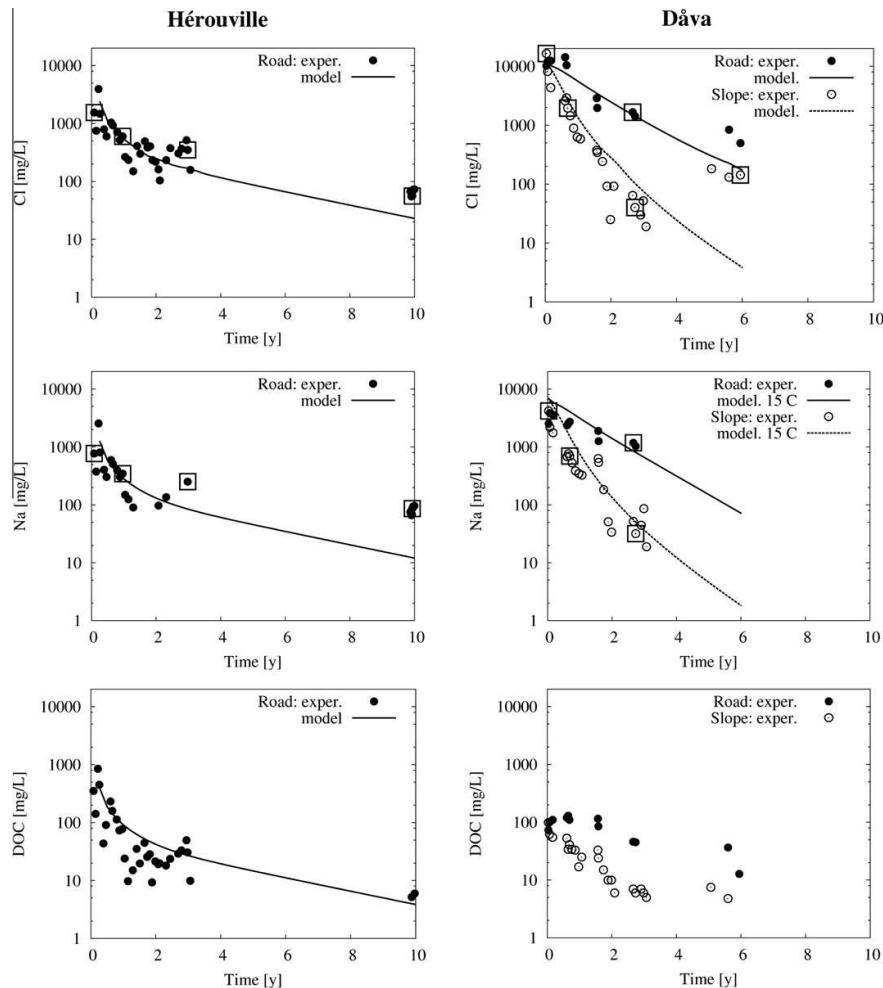


Fig. 5. Evolution with time of the leachante concentrations of Cl, Na and dissolved organic carbon (DOC) at the sampling points. The saturation indices of the leachates surrounded by the square symbols are reported in Table 3.

5.3. Evolution of pH with time

5.3.1. Field data

Fig. 6 shows the pH field data plotted as a function of time. The pH values are significantly more scattered than Cl concentrations. However, at Hérouville, pH clearly decreases over the first three years, starting with very alkaline pH (>12), followed by an intermediate stage of moderately alkaline pH (11.5–9.5), to reach a long-term pH value of about 7.5. At Dåva, pH remains within the range 11.5–10.5 during the first four years but eventually drops to 8 in the roadside slopes. The permanently high pH of the leachate beneath the asphalt cover demonstrates that carbonation was hampered by limited infiltration and gas exchange and that microbial production of CO₂ can be neglected. Similarly, batch tests applied to 10-year old drilled core samples inside the subbase at Hérouville indicated that carbonation was still in progress (Dabo et al., 2009). A similar situation has also been reported in a 10-year old asphalt road with steel slag of electric arc furnace (Suer et al., 2009). The slag from the pavement edge showed traces of carbonation and

leaching processes, whereas the road centre material was nearly identical to fresh slag, in spite of an accessible particle structure.

5.3.2. Modeling

The two driving forces for the long-term evolution of the bottom ash chemistry considered in this modeling study are: (i) the transport of dissolved species by rainwater infiltration (mostly at the edges) as well as diffusion (mostly inside the subbase layer), as introduced in the discussion of Cl release, and (ii) the neutralization of alkalinity by reaction with carbon dioxide (CO₂), which might have a strong effect on ash mineralogy and on the pH evolution of leachates. Diffusion of gaseous CO₂ from the atmosphere into the road sides and basement can occur since the MSWI BA is not water saturated in reality. To a lesser extent, microbiological degradation (respiration) of the MSWI BA may also yield in situ production of CO₂ (Rendek et al., 2006).

At Hérouville, a preliminary calculation indicates that pH would remain constantly high (Fig. 6, "no CO₂" legend), in contrast with field data, if dissolved CO₂ in rainwater was considered as the only

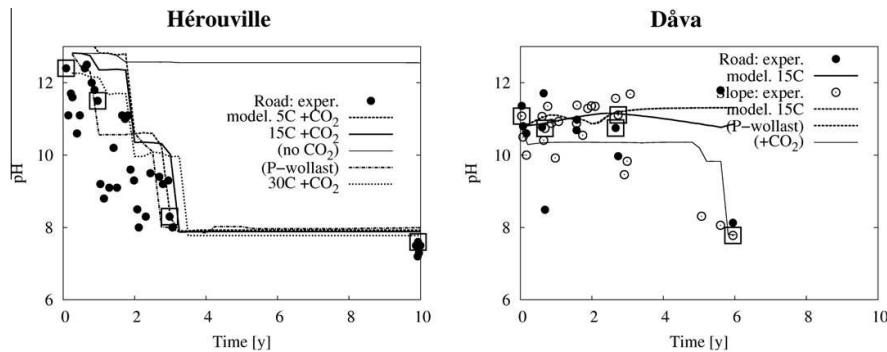
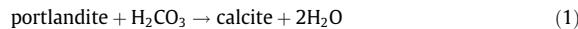
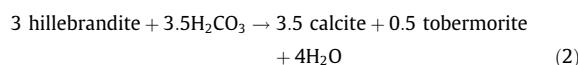


Fig. 6. Evolution with time of leachate pH at the sampling points assessing temperature effect and CO_2 inputs. The saturation indices of the leachates surrounded by the square symbol are reported in Table 3.

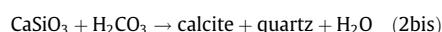
input of CO_2 . The same conclusion can be drawn from the comparison of Ca field data and modeling (Fig. 7, “no CO_2 ” legend). Since gaseous diffusion cannot be modeled by HYTEC, the carbonation process was simulated through a permanent input of CO_2 to the system according to a zero order rate: $d[\text{CO}_2]/dt = k$. The rate constants k were adjusted to fit as best as possible the evolution of pH with time under Hérouville edge zones (which locations are specified in Fig. 1). Though a direct physical meaning cannot be assigned to this constant, the adjusted input rate was about 50 mmol/dm³/year. The calculated pH profiles resulting from the progressive carbonation of MSWI BA is in better agreement with the field data. Note that the temperature of reference in the present discussion is 15 °C. Temperature effect is further discussed in Section 6. The calculated profile constitutes an upper envelop of field data. In the modeling, the pH is buffered around 12.5 by portlandite equilibrium during the first months of leachate emission while this mineral is progressively leached out and carbonated according to the following reaction:



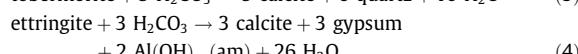
H_2CO_3 denotes the dissolved form of carbon dioxide. Decalcification of C-S-H of high Ca/Si ratio takes place once portlandite is fully depleted, buffering the pH in the range 12–10.5:



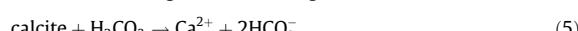
An equivalent reaction can be associated to pseudo-wollastonite in the same pH domain:



In a third stage, the dissolution of C-S-H of low Ca/Si ratio, and to a lower extent ettringite, keeps pH in the range 10.5–9.5:



These reactions seem to have been active at least during the first two years at the Hérouville pilot-site. On the long-term, equilibrium of calcite with atmospheric CO_2 pressure (4×10^{-4} atm) buffers pH around 8 according to the following reaction:



The mineralogical transformations controlling pH through reactions (1)–(4) are reported in Fig. 8. The amount of calcite, which is an end-product of reactions (1)–(4), increases from 10 to 13.5 wt.% in the edges.

At Dåva, the best agreement of modeling with the field data was obtained without assuming an additional input of CO_2 beside rainwater content. However, as a modeling variant, the data measured after 6 years in the roadside were finely reproduced by fixing an atmospheric input rate of 50 mmol/dm³/year approximately. C-S-H and ettringite carbonation is so completed after 6 years, leading to a pH around 8 in agreement with reaction (5).

5.4. Release of major elements

5.4.1. Field data

At Hérouville, leachate Ca concentrations decrease from 1000 to 100 mg/L during the first year and then remain constant. SO_4 concentrations are scattered around a mean value of 150 mg/L but show a slightly increasing trend on the long-term. Al concentrations are low, ranging between 0.1 and 10 mg/L, and become even lower after 10 years. Si concentrations are more or less constant, around 5 mg/L. At Dåva, Al concentrations are one order of magnitude higher but eventually drop to a value similar to Hérouville once pH becomes neutral. The maximum Ca concentrations are also about 100 mg/L but many values are one order of magnitude smaller. SO_4 concentrations are characterized by a decreasing trend during the first year and a convergence to a range of values similar to Hérouville ones. Si concentrations are one order of magnitude lower than the values measured at Hérouville. CO_3 concentrations are relatively constant over time, around 10 mg/L.

5.4.2. Modeling

At Hérouville, the evolution with time of Ca leachate concentrations is in straight relation with pH-buffering, as shown in Fig. 7. Ca concentration is first controlled by portlandite dissolution, then C-S-H and ettringite dissolutions and, eventually, calcite solubility in equilibrium with atmospheric CO_2 . The modeling results are in good agreement with the field data though systematically maximized. At Dåva, the modeling overestimates field data. Similar trends are obtained when the C-S-H phases are substituted by pseudo-wollastonite.

The evolution of SO_4 concentration is driven both by hydrodynamics and chemical processes. The early decrease during the first year at both sites is similar to Cl release. A soluble fraction (CaSO_4) is evacuated by water discharge and rainwater infiltration. The calculated SO_4 concentration is then controlled by ettringite, as long as the pH remains above 10, and by secondary gypsum when pH decreases to 8. The thermodynamic equilibrium approach produces step-like increase in SO_4 concentrations coupled to pH evolution. Ettringite dissolution yields gypsum and Al-hydroxide precipitation according to reaction (4), as shown in Fig. 8. At

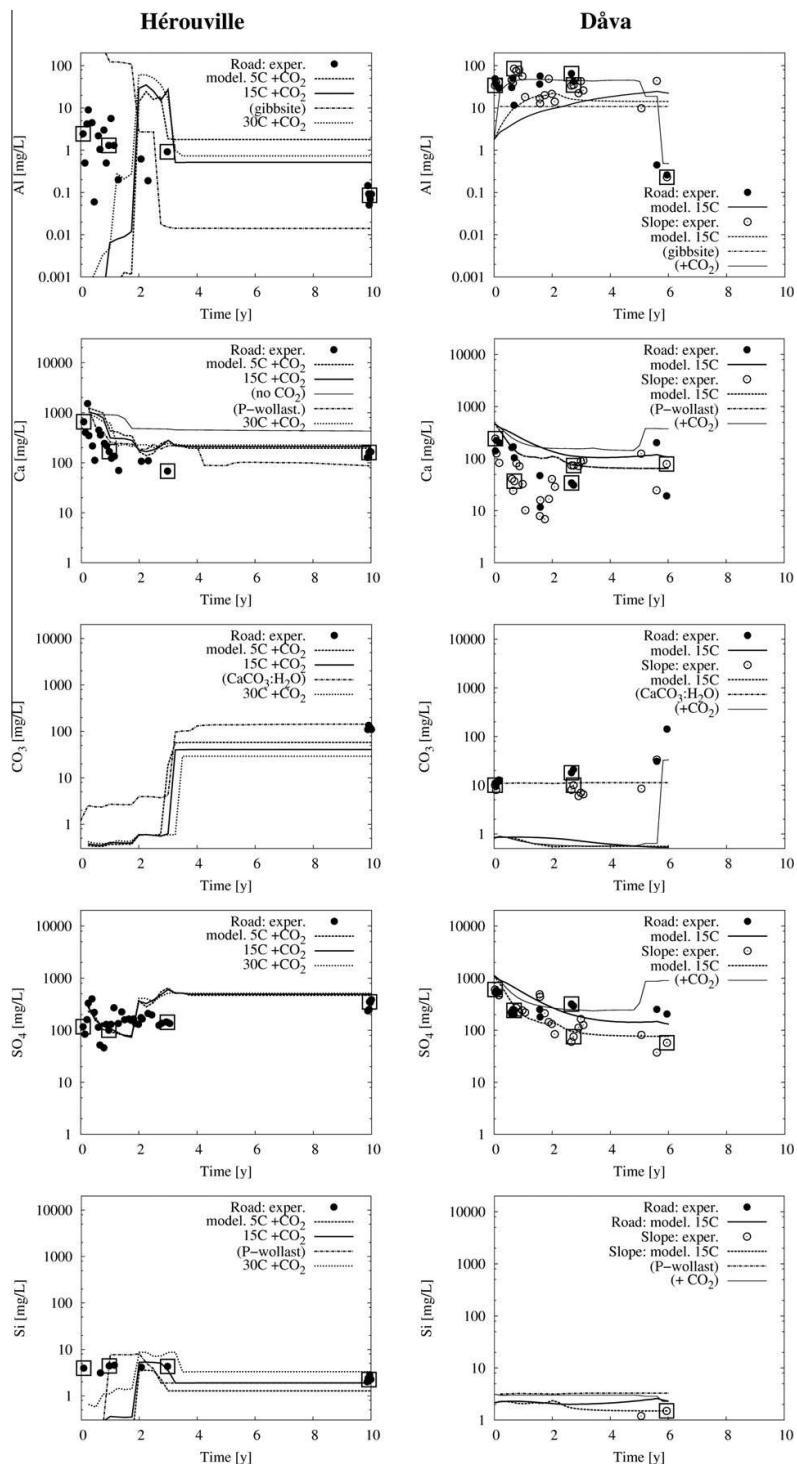


Fig. 7. Evolution with time of major element concentrations in the leachates at the sampling points assessing temperature effect, CO₂ inputs and mineralogical variants of the model. The saturation indices of the leachates surrounded by the square symbol are reported in Table 3.

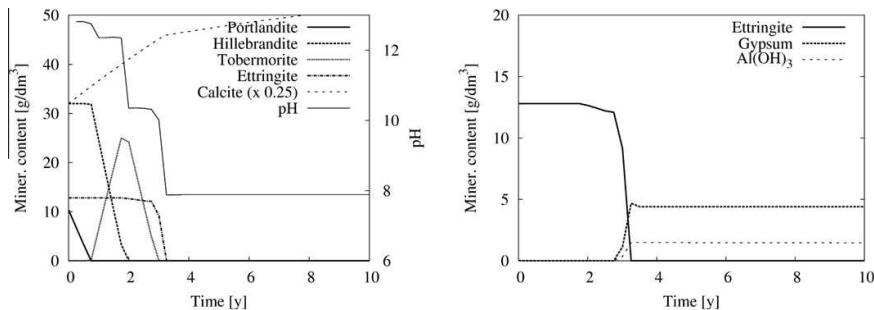


Fig. 8. Calculated mineralogical evolution of the MSWI bottom ashes close to the sampling point at Hérouville. Left: evolution with time of the pH-buffering minerals. Right: transformation of ettringite into calcite, gypsum and aluminum hydroxide.

Hérouville, XRD analysis indicated ettringite depletion in the 10-year old samples contrarily to the fresh samples (Dabo et al., 2009). According to the SO₄ solubility diagrams of Fig. 2, SO₄ concentrations should be lower at high pH, in conjunction with ettringite equilibrium, but should increase when pH decreases during carbonation to reach gypsum saturation. This is roughly the case at Hérouville but not at Dåva.

The evolution with time of Al leachate concentrations is reported in Fig. 7. Constraining Al concentration by ettringite equilibrium is very sensitive to pH. At Hérouville, the model clearly fails to simulate field data with both ettringite or gibbsite Al control. This was already the case in the modeling of batch tests (Section 4.4). The theoretical very low concentrations calculated with ettringite may, in reality, be out-competed by the numerous secondary mineralogical transformations occurring at field. Moreover, Bodénan et al. (2010) reported important fluctuation of ettringite Si suggesting this phase did not reach equilibrium during leaching experiment applied to bottom ash from MSW fluidized-bed incinerator. At Dåva, the calculated concentrations may represent a lower limit to field data (equivalently with ettringite or gibbsite). When pH falls below 10, the precipitation of amorphous Al(OH)₃ decreases Al concentrations at both sites.

At Dåva, CO₃ solubility control by calcite underestimates by one order of magnitude field data at alkaline pH; the agreement being much better at neutral pH. Dijkstra et al. (2008) modified the formation constant ($\log K$) of calcite according to the generally observed calcite super-saturation in leachate from incineration residues. In the present case, the model nicely reproduces field data in the alkaline range when monohydrocalcite is substituted for calcite (in agreement with the study of Bodénan et al., 2010). CO₃ concentrations are better simulated with the calcite solubility control when the pH drop induced by CO₂ "atmospheric" input is taken into account at the Dåva roadside. At Hérouville, the calculated carbonate content of the leachate at neutral pH are underestimated by a factor of 3. This small discrepancy is related to the slight overestimation of both Ca concentration and pH by the model that induces a decrease of CO₃ through the solubility product of calcite.

At the most alkaline pH values (Hérouville site), the Si solubility control by C-S-H leads to a clear underestimation of field data. Likewise Al, this is induced by the corresponding high Ca concentrations and the thermodynamic equilibrium approach. Once pH and Ca concentration have sufficiently decreased, after 2 years, Si concentration becomes controlled by tobermorite and the model generates data much closer to field. The field data are correctly simulated over a wider pH range when pseudo-wollastonite is substituted for C-S-H phases. At neutral pH, Si concentrations are well reproduced by quartz (or chalcedony) solubility. At

Dåva, tobermorite solubility leads to satisfactory results for Si over the full period; quartz becoming a possible controlling phase when pH drops to 8.

5.5. Release of Ba, Cu and Pb

5.5.1. Field data

Fig. 9 shows the evolution with time of Ba, Cu and Pb concentrations in the leachates at the sampling points (Ba was not measured at Hérouville). At Dåva, Ba leachate concentrations do not vary with time and remain within the range 0.02–0.1 mg/L. The mean concentration in the roadside slopes is slightly smaller than the mean concentration measured below the asphalt cover. Cu leachate concentrations range from 10 to 0.05 mg/L. There is clear decrease of Cu concentration with time at Hérouville and the Dåva roadsides, which is most probably linked to the release of DOM (Fig. 5). The two sites differ significantly with respect to Pb leachate concentrations. The Hérouville site is characterized by a fast decrease over the first two years, from 5 to 0.01 mg/L; Pb leachate concentrations remaining relatively constant on the long-term. Most of the Pb concentrations at Dåva are below 0.01 mg/L without any obvious evolution with time.

5.5.2. Modeling

The agreement between field and calculated data is particularly good in the case of Ba. The modeling of Ba concentration is intrinsically linked to the modeling of SO₄ concentration through the solubility product of barite. The good agreement demonstrates the global consistency of the present model. However, on the contrary, any degradation of the quality of SO₄ modeling content will affect the quality of Ba modeling.

There is a good agreement between field and calculated Cu concentrations when the Cu–DOM interaction is taken into account in the model (Hérouville site only). Cu release is clearly driven by the combination of transport due to DOM complexation and tenorite equilibrium. It is worth mentioning that tenorite is always in equilibrium, even with respect to the initial leachates in which the apparent solubility is enhanced by DOM complexation. The theoretical curve represents an upper limit for field data, identically to DOC modeling (Section 4.3). At Dåva, field data are not far from tenorite solubility on the long-term when a substantial fraction of DOM has been leached out.

At Hérouville, the calculated Pb leachate concentrations are in reasonable agreement with field data. There is also a decrease of two orders of magnitude during the first two years, which is linked to pH evolution in the range 12.5–10 (at least in the model). While carbonation progressively lowers pH, Pb solubility is successively controlled in the model by: Pb(OH)₂(s) in the pH range 13–11,

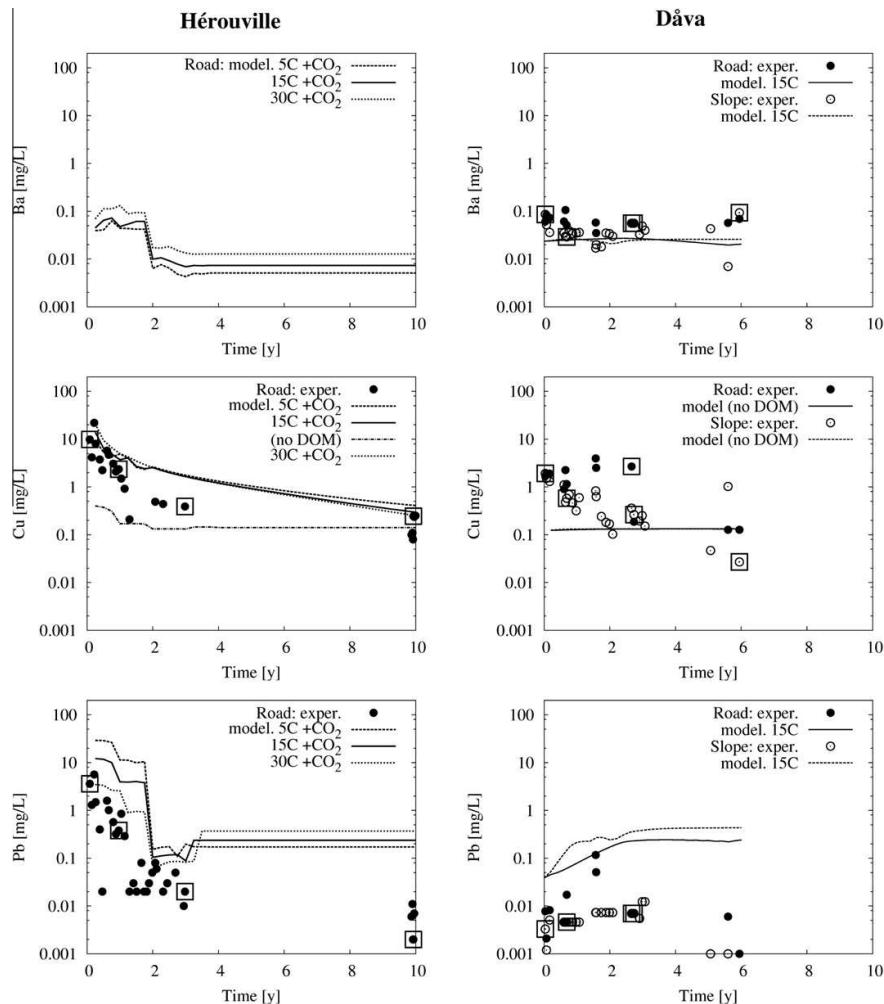


Fig. 9. Evolution with time of Ba, Cu and Pb concentrations in the leachates at the sampling points assessing temperature effect and Cu complexation by dissolved organic matter (DOM). The saturation indices of the leachates surrounded by the square symbol are reported in Table 3.

Pb₂(OH)₃Cl in the range 11–9.5 and cerussite at pH < 9. Nevertheless, the model fails to reproduce the low Pb concentrations, either at neutral pH at Hérouville or for the full pH range at Dåva. This was already the case in the modeling of the compliance batch test (Section 4.4). Pb co-precipitation with calcite or sorption on Al–Fe-hydroxides have been observed in the Hérouville MSWI BA (Dabo et al., 2008).

6. Water residence time and temperature effects

The scattering of leachate data may partly come from variations in water residence time depending on the precipitation regime. Indeed, considering in the model an annual rate of rainwater infiltration combined with a thermodynamic equilibrium is a source of uncertainty with respect to pH and element concentrations. Some of the precipitation events are more intense and lead to faster leachate transfers inside the road basement (e.g. Dabo et al., 2009). Fast transfers mean low residence times and, therefore, an incomplete dissolution of the solubility-controlling minerals (i.e. thermodynamic equilibrium is not reached). An improved model-

ing would, therefore, require a kinetic approach for the selected minerals despite their relatively fast kinetics. Field under-saturation may also result from dilution due to the mixing of MSWI BA leachate with rainwater flowing in preferential pathways.

To a lesser extent, seasonal variations of temperature may also produce data scattering. For that purpose, pH and element concentrations of the Hérouville leachates were calculated at 5, 15 and 30 °C (Figs. 6, 7 and 9). The differences between the profiles are directly linked to the temperature-dependency of the thermodynamic equilibrium constants in the present modeling approach (i.e. potential catalyzing effects of temperature on microbial kinetics are not analyzed here). Temperature effect on pH is effective for leachates in equilibrium with portlandite, pH decreases by one unit when temperature rises from 5 to 30 °C. There is no significant temperature effect at slightly alkaline and neutral pH. Temperature effect on the leachate concentrations of major and trace elements is weak in the range 5–30 °C, except for Pb whose solubility is strongly dependent on pH. Pb concentration decreases by one order of magnitude from 5 to 30 °C at strongly alkaline pH; temperature effect is much weaker otherwise.

7. Conclusions

The comparison of leachate chemistry at the Hérouville and Dáva pilot-scale roads helps to shed light on common processes, but also discrepancies, in view of rationalizing the leachate long-term evolution. Calculated saturation indices and solubility diagrams have been combined to batch test modeling to set a simplified geochemical model of the two bottom ash materials. A common reactive transport model has then been applied to both pilot-scale roads.

At Hérouville, pH and the concentration of most major and trace elements quickly drop during the first two years to asymptotically reach a set of minimum values over 10 years. The decrease is less pronounced at Dáva. The evolution of pH and major element concentrations are fairly well related to the following pH-buffering sequence: portlandite (Hérouville only), C-S-H or pseudo-wollastonite and, finally, calcite in equilibrium with atmospheric CO_2 . Al(OH)_3 , barite, ettringite, monohydrocalcite may also control leachate chemistry. Cu release is correctly modeled by DOM complexation and tenorite equilibrium. At Hérouville, Pb concentration decreases by two orders of magnitude in the pH range 12.5–10. The solubility-controlled approach fails to reproduce the lowest Pb concentrations, requiring sorption or co-precipitation modeling. Temperature has no significant effect on the modeling of the leachate chemistry in the range 5–30 °C, except at high pH. Effects at road edges and roadside slopes have been shown to be important for the release of the less reactive elements and, possibly, for carbonation processes driven by atmospheric CO_2 inputs.

The relevancy of the C-S-H/pseudo-wollastonite approximation to simulate the pH transient stage in the range 12–10.5 should be further investigated experimentally. The reactive transport model may be an useful tool for environmental impact assessments, but this still requires to take into account other potential contaminants. Further developments of HYTEC are needed for implementing existing gas transport models to better assess carbonation at field scale.

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