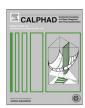
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An overview of thermochemical modelling of CANDU fuel and applications to the nuclear industry



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ABSTRACT

Thermodynamic models of complex chemical systems provide an elegant and cost effective means to predict chemical interactions of materials and to provide guidance to experimental research to minimise costs. Starting in 1995 at the Royal Military College of Canada, a thermodynamic treatment of irradiated nuclear fuel has been developed that not only describes the thermochemistry of the fuel at elevated temperatures during a potential Loss-of-Coolant Accident (LOCA), but it can also be used to help predict the oxidation environment for fresh fuel measurements, irradiated fuel behaviour, the aqueous chemistry of fuel debris in coolant, nuclear waste disposal, and other systems involving nuclear fuel. Furthermore, this treatment was supported by several experimental campaigns at the Canadian Nuclear Laboratories and the Institute of Transuranium Elements for validation purposes. This paper will trace the development of this treatment and demonstrate its current practice and future potential in the general context of performance and safety of nuclear fuel.

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1. Introduction

In 1995, under the initial leadership of B.J. Lewis and W.T. Thompson, a concerted effort to develop a thermodynamic treatment* of nuclear fuel behaviour began at the Royal Military College of Canada (RMCC). The development of the RMCC nuclear fuel thermochemical treatment (RNFTT), which began under modest beginnings, has subsequently blossomed and has produced several journal papers [1–5], many graduate theses [6–14], numerous conference papers [15–18], other notable technical work [19,20], and, most importantly, a new generation of researchers that have begun to contribute to the field in both industry and academia. Furthermore, the nuclear fuel group at RMCC has fostered collaborations with many research groups and industrial partners both in Canada (e.g., Canadian Nuclear Laboratories (CNL), the CANDU®† Owners Group, and many others) and abroad (e.g.,

Oak Ridge National Laboratories, Los Alamos National Laboratories, Sandia National Laboratories, Institute of Transuranium Elements, Commissariat à l'énergie atomique et aux énergies alternatives (CEA) Cadarache, and CEA Saclay). This manuscript gives an overview of the development of the RMCC treatment of irradiated nuclear fuel with applications of direct interest to the nuclear industry, which has been developed on the FACT/FactSage computational framework [21,22].

2. Development of a thermochemical treatment of irradiated CANDU nuclear fuel

2.1. The beginning

In a nuclear reactor, atoms of $^{235}_{92}U$ capture a thermal neutron forming $^{236}_{92}U$, which is unstable and undergoes nuclear fission, which is often written by the following reaction:

$${}^{235}_{92}U + {}^{1}_{0}n \rightarrow {}^{236}_{92}U \rightarrow 2 \text{ fission fragments} + x \left({}^{1}_{0}n \right) + heat$$
 (1)

where n represents a neutron, and x can have a value of 2 or 3 [23]. The initially heavy nucleus splits into two lighter nuclei, known as fission fragments, which initially have very high kinetic energy. This kinetic energy is quickly dissipated in the fuel in the form of

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^{*} In this paper the term "model" is used to represent a particular phase, whereas "treatment" refers to an assemblage of models that together represent a system. Thus, a model is necessarily a subset of a treatment.

 $^{^{\}dagger}$ CANDU® CANadian Deuterium Uranium is a registered trademark of Atomic Energy of Canada Limited (AECL).

heat and once the fission fragments come to rest, they are then referred to as fission products. The heat from this reaction is used indirectly to generate steam and is ultimately converted to electricity via steam turbines[‡]. The neutrons generated in fission, as given in Eq. (1), sustain the process. The two fission products that are produced from a single fissile atom begin to alter the chemistry of the fuel, which impacts the analysis of the burned fuel and the potential consequences during a deviation from normal operating conditions. The yield inventory of fission products represents the better part of the periodic table through a complex kinetic sequence of events involving nuclear depletion, decay, and transmutation, and their concentration changes with respect to time spent in the reactor (i.e., the "burnup" of the fissile isotopes). Since the fission products have varying propensities to chemically react with oxygen in the initially pure UO₂ fuel, secondary phases may form, including gas, perovskites (that have the structure of the calcium titanium oxide compound), noble metals, etc. Understanding the changes in chemical reactions is commensurate to understanding changes in nuclear reactions and their inter-relationship with respect to burnup.

It is important to understand the behaviour of fission products because they can be responsible for problems within the reactor core. For example, the accumulation of fission product gases in the gap between the fuel and the sheath (cladding) affects susceptibly to fuel failure, such as iodine-induced Stress Corrosion Cracking (SCC). If the cladding were to fail, the fission products would escape to the coolant, thereby raising radiological concerns during operation. The fuel must then be removed, which can be appropriately mitigated but adds additional costs to operation. Furthermore, following a severe accident, there is a legitimate concern of fission products being released to the environment as was the case at Fukushima Daiichi and Chernobyl, which can cause health concerns with certain radioisotopes, notably iodine [24,25].

Classification of fission products based on volatility and chemical properties tends to partition the fission product elements into three or four groups. For example, based on their significant radioactive contributions in the event of a LOCA, Prussin et al. [26] classified fission products in three distinct groups:

- 1. Inert/Noble gases- Xe and Kr.
- 2. Volatiles I, Br, Cs, Rb, Te, Se, and Sb.
- 3. Non-volatiles (*i.e.*, Not-so-volatile) Ba, Sr, Mo, Tc, Ru, Rh, Pd, Y, La, Ce, Pr, Nd, Pm, Sm, Eu, Np, Pu, Zr, and Nb.

A different and more specific classification scheme based on the chemical state of the fission products has been provided by Kleykamp [27–30] and others [31]. The four classes are:

- 1. Fission gases and other volatile fission products Kr, Xe, Br and I.
- 2. Fission products forming metallic precipitates Mo, Tc, Ru, Rh, Pd, Ag, Cd, In, Sn, Sb, and Te.
- 3. Fission products forming oxide precipitates Rb, Cs, Ba, Zr, Nb, Mo, and Te.
- 4. Fission products dissolved as oxides in the fuel matrix Sr, Zr, Nb, Y, La, Ce, Pr, Nd, Pm, Sm, and Eu.

It should be noted that this classification scheme places some elements (*e.g.*, Mo and Nb) in more than one category. This is due to the fact that transitions from one group to the next are based on solubility limits of the given fission products and also to changes in the chemical potential of oxygen during fuel burnup. It will be seen that one of the most important features of the RNFTT is that

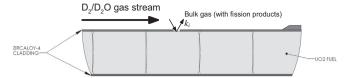


Fig. 1. A schematic diagram of a Fission Product Release Model [6].

the analysis is not limited by these classification schemes, which was the case prior to its development.

At the beginning of the development of the RNFTT, the question to be solved was what would be the source term, which describes the source of radiological release to the environment during an accident, in the unlikely event of a LOCA in a CANDU reactor[§] [32–34]. This problem was simplified to determine which chemical species would be released to the surrounding bulk gas for an oxide fuel rod, when the Zircaloy-4 cladding was breached and a gas flow of hydrogen/deuteride and steam interacted with the fuel rod at elevated temperatures. This analysis, shown in Fig. 1, became the basis for a fission product release model to support safety analyses.

Olander [35] and Cubicciotti [36–39] were early pioneers at trying to understand and predict the chemical changes occurring in the fuel as a result of irradiation. Fig. 2 depicts a conceptual representation of irradiated fuel, which illustrates some of the dominant phases.

The link between Figs. 1 and 2 is that the changes in fuel chemistry illustrated in Fig. 2 affect the chemical reactions that occur between the H_2/H_2O gas flow and the inventory of the fuel (as illustrated in Fig. 1). Thus, these changes affect the transport properties (k_i in Fig. 1) of resultant species as they are released from the fuel through defects in the cladding and into the surrounding void of the fuel channel.

Initial calculations (and all subsequent ones) were performed using the FACT (now called FactSage) suite of programmes [21,22]. Specifically, the FACT compound database was expanded by an extensive literature search that added approximately 100 species to the private database. Gibbs energy minimisation calculations to compute the equilibria of the system were performed using the EQUILIB programme for various temperatures and 1 atm of hydrostatic pressure. The resulting chemical speciation and ensuing transport behaviour [1,6] were initially based on three assumptions:

- 1. The gas is an ideal solution phase; therefore, for each species, i, the partial pressure of that gas is equal to the mole fraction of that present multiplied by the total pressure of the system (*i.e.*, $p_i = X_{i(vapour)}p_{tot}$).
- 2. All metallic liquids form an ideal metallic liquid solution, if they form a solution phase at all, therefore the activity of the liquid is equal to its mole fraction (i.e., $a_{i \ (in \ liquid)} = X_{i \ (in \ liquid)}$).
- 3. All solids (*i.e.*, intermetallics, oxides, and spinels) are treated as pure separate phases, in other words with a specific defined stoichiometry.

While assumption 1 is generally valid, the experimental literature is replete with examples showing that the microstructure

[‡] The configuration of the reactor varies with the specific type of the reactor.

 $^{^{\}S}$ A LOCA in a commercial CANDU reactor is classified as a Design Basis Event (likelihood estimated to be 10^{-2} to 10^{-5} years per year) – *in other words an extremely rare occurrence*, but for licencing and safety concerns, it is a scenario that must be considered and planned against. On December 10, 1994, Unit 2 at the Pickering Nuclear Generating Station experienced a LOCA – the only one to have ever occurred in a CANDU reactor. What is noteworthy about that event is that this reactor was functioning normally again within 6 months – *the only time in industry that this has occurred*. Regulatory documents 2.5.2, 2.4.1, and 2.4.2 cover this type of accident scenario.

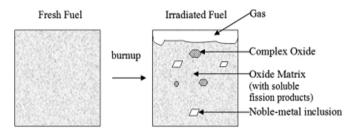


Fig. 2. Simplified representation of irradiating UO₂ nuclear fuel, after Olander [35].

of irradiated fuel contains various non-ideal solid solution phases (e.g., noble metal inclusions [26–31,35,40] and grey oxide phases [35,40,41]), that form as the fission products react with each other in the presence of UO₂. This means that assumption 2, while useful as a first approximation, is generally not true. To address the deficiencies inherent in assumption 2, improvements to the initial treatment focussed on creating solution models for identified solid solution phases. Thus, the improved fuel treatment would later incorporate models that capture the non-ideal behaviour of these additional phases.

Finally, assumption 3 was maintained as valid, since in the absence of any solution data, or evidence of solution behaviour, compounds that might form would be identified. In some cases, when a compound was postulated as a result of a typical calculation to be expected to form, it led to a targeted search in the literature to determine if there was any evidence of a distinct phase of that nature, or if there was need of a refined assumption (i.e., a solution phase).

2.2. The first refinement: noble metal system (Mo-Tc-Ru-Rh-Pd)

The reception to the first set of calculations [42] was one of cautious optimism. The potential of the nascent treatment was recognised, but so were the deficiencies inherent in the assumptions from the list above, particularly assumption 2. Previous experimental work [26–31,40] had clearly identified the presence of noble metal inclusions, also termed "white" inclusions, because of their appearance in metallographic investigations. Given that the nuclear research community at the time felt that the behaviour of molybdenum acted as an indicator for the chemical behaviour of uranium [5,43], a thermodynamic evaluation of the so-called Noble Metal System (*i.e.*, Mo, Tc, Ru, Rh, and Pd) would greatly improve the overall fuel treatment.

Collaboration between AECL (now CNL) Whiteshell Laboratories and Chalk River Nuclear Laboratories was initiated. The evaluation of the noble metal alloy system was incorporated into the treatment [3,7] and calculations incorporating this new work were shown to improve the treatment of irradiated nuclear fuel [7].

2.3. The second refinement: modelling the U-O system

Although the Uranium–Oxygen system is the most important binary system in the RNFTT, since it contains the UO₂ fuel, this system was the second modelled [2,4,17–19]. A computed phase diagram showing the important UO_{2 $\pm x$} region, representing the fuel, is shown in Fig. 3 with experimental data-points superimposed [5].

Of note is that the thermodynamic model for $UO_{2\pm x}$ accounts for the deviation from ideal stoichiometry of the fluorite UO_2 phase, by including hypothetical UO and UO_3 species dissolved in UO_2 , to determine the x in $UO_{2\pm x}$ in both hypo- and hyper-stoichiometric regimes.

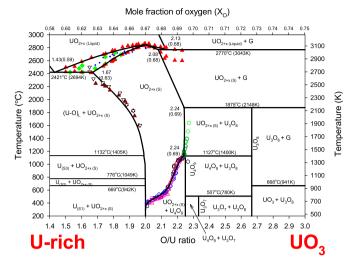


Fig. 3. A partial U–O diagram concentrating on the $UO_{2\pm x}$ region, compared to experimental data. Diagram from Thompson et al. [5].

Table 1Oxides that can be dissolved into the urania matrix, categorized by cation charge.

1 ⁺ cation	2 ⁺ cation	3 ⁺ cation	4 ⁺ cation
Cs ₂ O Rb ₂ O	SrO BaO	$\begin{array}{c} \text{Ce}_2\text{O}_3 \\ \text{Dy}_2\text{O}_3 \\ \text{Ho}_2\text{O}_3 \\ \text{La}_2\text{O}_3 \\ \text{Nd}_2\text{O}_3 \\ \text{Pr}_2\text{O}_3 \\ \text{Sm}_2\text{O}_3 \\ \text{Y}_2\text{O}_3 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} CeO_2 \\ MoO_2 \\ NbO_2 \\ NpO_2 \\ PuO_2 \\ TeO_2 \\ ZrO_2 \end{array}$

2.4. Additional fission and activation products

With the completion of a robust model for the fluorite $UO_{2\pm x}$ phase, further refinement to the treatment was possible. One advantage of this treatment is that it allowed for easy incorporation of dissolved oxides within the urania matrix. Experimental values determined by Kleykamp [44], and work by Imoto [41], Lyon and Baily [45], Belyaev [46], and Chikalla et al. [47] were incorporated into the model using Henrian dilution parameters. In this manner, the oxides shown in Table 1 were taken into account [9].

2.5. Other phases in irradiated fuel

Two other major phases have been identified in post-irradiation examination of irradiated fuel, one an oxide phase and the other metallic in nature. The oxide inclusions, termed the "grey oxide" phase with a perovskite structure [41], take the form (Ba,Sr) (U,Pu,Zr,RE * ,Mo)O $_3$ or $_4$. It has been noted that these oxides result from the limited solubility of BaO and SrO in the UO $_{2+x}$ solid solution phase [35]. Kleykamp [27] also observed that Cs can also form these types of oxides and it has been assumed that Rb would do likewise, as they are both alkali metals [48]. Thus, the treatment includes a solution consisting of an ideal mixture of CsMoO $_4$ and RbMoO $_4$.

The other metallic phase is of the form (U,Pu) (Pd,Rh,Ru)₃ [41]. In post-irradiation examination of fast-breeder reactor fuels [41,49,50], the presence of (U,Pu)Pd₃ was observed. However, it has also been noted that URh₃ and URu₃ are possible [51], hence

^{**} Here RE stands for rare-earth and represents some of the common actinoid or lanthanoid metals.

the formulation stated earlier. The current treatment considers this phase as an ideal solution of UPd₃, URh₃, and URu₃. Currently at the University of Ontario Institute of Technology (UOIT), a thermodynamic assessment of the U-Pd-Rh-Ru quaternary system that accounts for non-ideal behaviour is being completed [52–54] to add further refinement to the treatment.

3. Experimental work to support model development and validation

Many years of development have led to a large robust thermodynamic treatment of nuclear fuel that required experimental work to ascertain its validity and identify possible areas of improvement. Section 3.1 summarizes some of the experimental activities in regards to fuel oxidation. Sections 3.2 and 3.3 outline two follow-on investigations, conducted at RMCC and UOIT that have enhanced the RNFTT.

3.1. Coulometric titration experiments and comparison of the RNFTT

The RNFTT has been compared to experimental measurements to illustrate its capabilities for predicting fuel oxidation behaviour [12,43]. Predictions of the RNFTT were compared to measured Coulometric Titration (CT) data for fuel oxidation experiments, which measured accurately the amount of oxygen acquired by $\rm UO_2$ and SIMFUEL†† samples exposed to various oxygen potentials [55]. The CT experimentation was performed at CNL.

The CT apparatus, which is shown in Fig. 4, is comprised of two Zirox GSM5-EL CT cells and a central sample furnace. One cell is located upstream of the sample furnace and one downstream of the sample furnace.

The Zirox GSM5-EL CT cell is composed of a ceramic tube of zirconia doped yttria with platinum electrodes on the inside and outside walls. The ceramic material conducts exclusively by O²⁻ ions making possible, by a known electrolytic current, the introduction of a known quantity of the oxygen to a gas mixture flowing through the tube. The oxygen reacts with the hydrogen to form water vapour, thereby altering the partial pressure of oxygen in the gas stream. The oxygen partial pressure altered in the CT cell can be measured using the open circuit voltage (*i.e.*, the Electromotive Force – EMF) of another solid state cell in series. A voltage feedback loop is used to control current through the CT cell to maintain a pre-specified oxygen potential.

From this study, it was concluded that the chemical interactions of molybdenum with other elements have a large impact on the oxidation behaviour of the fuel. Furthermore, these interactions are important for the accurate prediction of phase stability. Therefore, careful attention must be taken in modelling the compound oxide phases as well as the treatment of solubility of MoO_2 in the $\text{UO}_{2\,\pm\,x}$ solid solution phase. These significant considerations were employed to bring the treatment predictions and measured results into better alignment with experimental measurements and have been the focus of further investigations on the ternary compound oxide phases (e.g., UMoO_6) at the RMCC, as outlined below.

3.2. Experimental investigation of UMoO₆

Crystallographic data can be found in the literature for over 20 ternary U-Mo-O compounds. However, only very limited thermodynamic data exists for UMoO $_6$, UMoO $_5$, β -UMo $_2$ O $_8$, U $_2$ MoO $_8$, UMo $_7$ O $_{22}$, and UMo $_{10}$ O $_{32}$ [56]. Furthermore, the dominant manufacturing methods for these ternary compounds used solid-state methodologies and it is unclear if reactant impurities within the products affected the thermodynamic measurements.

To investigate these shortcomings, a novel aqueous synthesis method for UMoO $_6$ [57,58] was examined whereby uranyl (UO $_2$ ²⁺) and molybdate (MoO $_4$ ²⁻) salts were reacted in aqueous solution with subsequent precipitation, and followed by a multi-stage drying process. The U and Mo were matched in atomic proportions during the aqueous synthesis, and drying produced UMoO $_6$ of a high purity.

Preliminary thermodynamic studies of the high purity UMoO₆ product compound found a decomposition temperature and enthalpy of formation within the uncertainty range of comparable measurements documented in recent studies [59]. The aqueous synthesis proposed by Barry et al. [57] identified a series of unique crystal structures for the intermediate compounds resultant from drying (shown in Fig. 5) with X-Ray Diffraction (XRD) characterisation results, shown in Fig. 6 compared to those found in the literature [60,61].

It should be noted that the XRD pattern from Barry et al. [57] differs completely from the literature and the details of this are examined at length in Barry et al. [57]. However, in the case of Fedoseev et al. [61] the differences are most likely due to contamination. In the case of Juenke and Bartram [60] the method of synthesis is different. It has been determined that the pattern shown in Fig. 6 is a metastable structure of UMoO₆, that will degenerate if exposed to temperature and then produce the pattern from Juenke and Bartram [60].

Barry et al. [57] also found that reactant contamination of products produced by solid-state manufacturing has little impact on some thermochemical measurements. Further investigation of the manufacturing process and measurement of the thermochemical properties of the other ternary compounds (e.g., UMoO₅, β -UMo₂O₈, U₂MoO₈, UMo₇O₂₂, and UMo₁₀O₃) is underway at RMCC.

4. Integrating thermodynamic calculations in multi-physics codes for engineering applications

Many numerical investigations of nuclear fuel behaviour rely on an understanding of various thermochemical properties, such as phase equilibria, phase composition, oxygen chemical potential, and several other pertinent parameters. These investigations typically predict fuel behaviour on a continuum scale using finite element codes to simulate engineering applications related to nuclear fuel performance and safety. Multi-physics simulations typically involve solving partial differential equations representing heat and mass transport coupled with structural mechanics and sometimes lower-length scale models. Thermochemical calculations often provide – either directly or indirectly – material properties, boundary conditions, and source terms to the aforementioned simulations.

The following sub-sections provide examples of how thermochemical treatments have been used in multi-physics simulations to predict nuclear fuel behaviour to support engineering performance and safety analyses. Details are provided on what specific role(s) thermodynamic calculations play within a multi-physics framework. Three different simulations are presented, including the evolution of fuel chemistry throughout the course of

^{††} SIMFUEL is short for simulated fuel. It is designed to act as a replacement for real fuel in experimental work since it replicates the chemical state and microstructure of irradiated fuel by replacing radioactive isotopes of key fission products with their radioactively benign counterparts that share the same number of protons. Thus, SIMFUEL is chemically similar to irradiated fuel, without the radioactivity concerns [53].

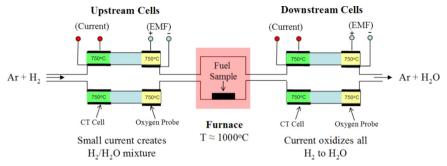


Fig. 4. Schematic diagram of the coulometric titration apparatus.

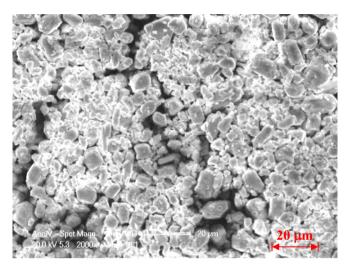


Fig. 5. SEM image of metastable UMoO₆ (labelled Compound 2 in Fig. 6) [57].

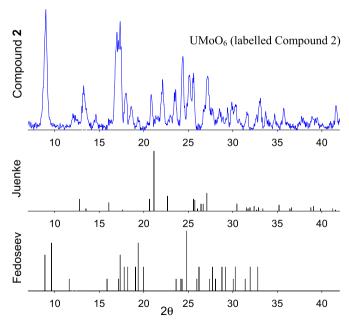


Fig. 6. Powder-XRD of metastable $UMoO_6$ compound (labelled Compound 2) [57], compared to that published for $UMoO_6$ obtained by the solid state synthesis of Juenke et al. [60] and aqueous synthesis method of Fedoseev et al. [61].

irradiation under normal operating conditions, oxidation of defective fuel under abnormal conditions, and non-congruent melting of nuclear fuel during a severe accident.

4.1. Irradiated fuel chemistry under normal operating conditions

The temporal and spatial evolution of coupled thermochemical and nuclear reactions of irradiated fuel has been simulated for the first time by Piro et al. [62]. In this work, a multi-physics framework was provided by the Advanced Multi-Physics (AMP) code [63], which coupled heat transfer calculations on a three dimensional mesh, with isotopic calculations performed with Origen-S [64] and thermochemical calculations with Thermochimica [65]. Elemental concentrations computed from nuclear physics calculations in Origen-S and temperatures computed by heat transfer calculations with AMP provide the necessary input to Gibbs energy minimisation calculations in Thermochimica^{‡‡}. The thermodynamic treatment described in Section 2 was then used to predict phase equilibria in the fuel.

Fig. 7 illustrates a contour plot of the oxygen chemical potential in a three dimensional fuel pellet using the aforementioned computational framework. Although some conventional approaches have computed the spatially varying oxygen chemical potential in the fuel, they were limited to fresh fuel under the assumption of a single phase and were unable to capture multicomponent multi-phase equilibria. This work includes the fission products and the minor phases that are formed. An advantage of being able to predict the spatially varying oxygen chemical potential is to provide it as input to oxygen transport calculations and other transport mechanisms.

In combination with predicting the chemical potentials of all the system components, this framework also predicts the formation of various phases in the fuel. Fig. 8 shows the predicted radial variation of phases that are formed in irradiated nuclear fuel, which includes a dominant fluorite oxide phase, inert gas, hexagonal closed packed noble metal phase, and several other minor phases. The radial variation of phases in Fig. 8 is due to a combination of a temperature gradient (decreases from r/r_0 =0 to 1) and a gradient of fission product concentrations (increases from r/r_0 =0 to 1).

An advantage of this framework is that incorporation of chemical effects on the fuel surface with the neighbouring zirconium alloy cladding (which houses the fuel) is relatively straightforward. This may be used to better understand and predict the potential for SCC to take place in the cladding, which is a very important failure mechanism that constrains operational performance and manoeuvrability. Furthermore, this approach may give credence to designing alternate mitigation strategies that may alleviate current constraints on performance, which has a direct impact on revenue during commercial operation.

^{‡‡} The hydrostatic pressure was assumed constant at 1 atm for these simulations, which is a reasonable assumption given the known insensitivity and uncertainties associated with the overall approach.

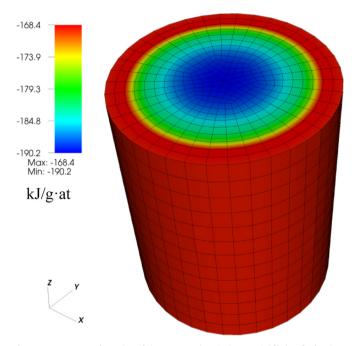


Fig. 7. A contour surface plot of the oxygen chemical potential [k]/g at] of a three dimensional nuclear fuel pellet is shown. This calculation is based on UO_2 fuel with an initial enrichment of 3.5% ^{235}U , a constant specific power of 15 kW/kg and burnup of 30 GWd/t(U). This corresponds to a parabolic temperature profile that corresponds to a maximum of \sim 750 °C at the centre and \sim 285 °C on the outer surface. More details are provided by Piro and Besmann [66].

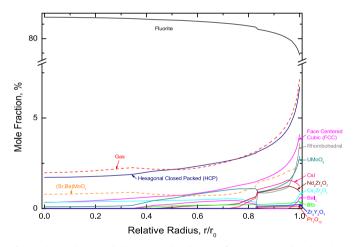


Fig. 8. The predicted radially varying distribution of phases in irradiated nuclear fuel is shown. The calculation of phase equilibria shown here includes a parabolic temperature distribution (with a maximum of ~ 600 °C at $r/r_0=0$ and minimum of ~ 285 °C at $r/r_0=1$) and a non-uniform distribution of 24 chemical elements (generally with a minimum at $r/r_0=0$ and maximum at $r/r_0=1$, except for U). More details are provided by Piro et al. [62].

4.2. Oxidation of defective fuel under abnormal conditions

Higgs et al. [4] showed that thermodynamic calculations have also played a supporting role in predicting the oxidation of nuclear fuel. Under abnormal conditions, the cladding that normally protects the fuel from the surrounding heavy water coolant may defect, permitting oxidation of both the fuel and the inner surface of the cladding. In addition to important mechanisms of releasing radioactive materials to the coolant (*i.e.*, fission product gases and fuel debris), the presence of water vapour degrades heat transfer across the fuel-clad gap. Furthermore, the oxidation process itself yields a hyperstoichiometric fuel that has a lower thermal conductivity, which further increases fuel temperatures. Also,

hyperstoichiometric fuel has a lower incipient melting temperature, as shown in the phase diagram in Fig. 3 which further increases the risk of a more severe situation under defective conditions.

In the work by Higgs et al. [4], fuel oxidation simulations were performed in the COMSOL Multi-physics environment, which coupled heat transfer and solid-state diffusion of oxygen in a two dimensional axisymmetric framework. A simplified thermochemical model of UO_{2+x} provided a relationship between temperature, composition and the oxygen chemical potential. Thus, local temperature and oxygen concentrations from heat and mass transport calculations provided input to this thermochemical model, which then predicted the oxygen chemical potential that was used to drive oxygen transport through the solid fuel matrix and in the vapour phase of $\mathrm{H_2/H_2O}$ present in the fuel cracks. Furthermore, the changes in the local fuel stoichiometry provided input to various non-linear material and physical models, such as thermal conductivity, specific heat capacity and kinetic reaction rates on the fuel surface.

Results of the aforementioned coupled numerical framework are shown in Fig. 9, which illustrates predictions of the oxygenmetal ratio of the fuel with respect to experiments that were performed at CNL. In this particular case, a defective fuel element was used with open blisters and a faulty end-cap (as identified below), which permitted water to come into contact with the fuel. Overall, thermochemical modelling of non-stoichiometric nuclear fuel played an integral role in predicting the oxidation behaviour of defective fuel.

4.3. Non-congruent melting of nuclear fuel during a severe accident

The third and final scenario that is presented that demonstrates the role of thermodynamic modelling in multi-physics applications simulates non-congruent melting of hyperstoichiometric uranium dioxide fuel. In the work of Welland et al. [67], numerical simulations were performed in the COMSOL Multi-physics platform, that coupled time dependent heat and mass transport calculations with a phase field model, as derived from the theory of irreversible processes. As previously mentioned, the initially stoichiometric $\rm UO_2$ fuel may become hyperstoichiometric following a fuel defect. This reduces the thermal conductivity while also decreasing the incipient melting temperature, which together reduces the margin to fuel melting. These matters are of great importance in the context of safety analyses under upset and accident conditions.

From a numerical point of view, there are some similarities in this approach with that taken by Higgs et al. [4], whereby heat transfer and solid state diffusion calculations are closely coupled with a thermochemical representation of UO_{2+x} fuel. However, an important difference is the extension of the same thermochemical treatment to capture phase changes, which is provided by a phase field model. Together, the simulation framework is able to predict local temperatures, oxygen content and compositions of phases, which may be either solid, liquid, or an interfacial region. The overall thermochemical representation is fully self-consistent among all material behaviours.

Simulations performed by Welland et al. [67] were compared to laser-flash melting experiments that were conducted by Manara et al. [68] at the Institute for Transuranium Elements in Germany, and were generally in good agreement. In brief, these experiments heated a $\rm UO_{2+x}$ sample with a laser, producing a self-crucibled molten pool under a high hydrostatic pressure of inert gas. The temperature was measured using a fast optical pyrometer.

A sequence of times in the experiment is shown in Fig. 10 that illustrates the changes in the local oxygen content in the fuel. The laser heats the sample from the top and is being applied during

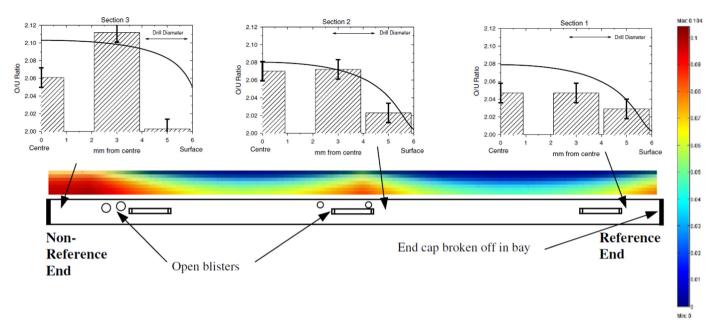


Fig. 9. Numerical predictions by Higgs et al. [4] of the oxygen-metal ratio in defective fuel are compared to oxidation experiments performed at the Chalk River Laboratories.

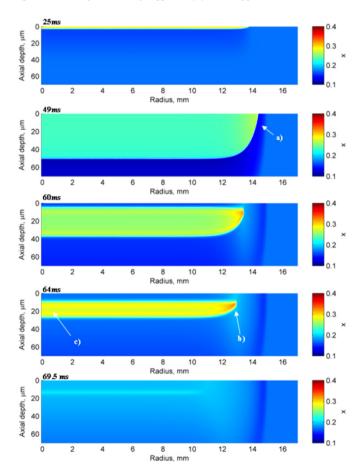


Fig. 10. Simulation results of changes in oxygen concentration at five different periods in time in initially $UO_{2.17}$ fuel. Point (a) corresponds to oxygen depletion ahead of the liquid phase, point (b) shows the local spikes in oxygen concentration due to solidification, and (c) illustrates local oxygen rich regions in the liquid due to axial solidification. Figure copied from Welland [11].

the first two time steps shown in Fig. 10. The laser power is rapidly decreased for the remaining three times. Thus, the highest temperature in the fuel is near the surface where the laser is heating the sample. Comparing the surface plots at times 25 and 49 ms,

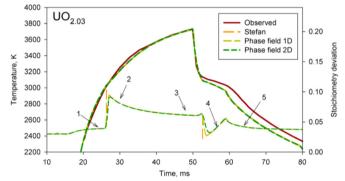


Fig. 11. Numerical predictions of surface temperature and composition of UO_{2.03} fuel are compared to laser flash measurements. Figure copied from Welland [11].

oxygen has migrated up the temperature gradient under the effect of thermodiffusion.

Fig. 11 compares the predicted evolution of fuel surface temperature with pyrometry measurements throughout the course of the experiment with $\rm UO_{2.03}$ fuel. First, the laser heats the fuel up until about 48 ms into the experiment where the power is reduced. Initially, the fuel surface is entirely solid and initially melts at about 3080 K. Upon cooling, a two phase region is found stable on the surface between about 50 and 60 ms, which then completely solidifies.

The computational framework by Welland [11] to simulate non-congruent melting of fuel is generally in good agreement with laser flash melting experiments, which gives confidence in the general approach and has important implications on safety analyses. The overall approach rests on a self-consistent representation of the thermochemistry of the fuel, which has provided material properties and boundary conditions for the multi-physics framework.

5. Current and future applications deriving from the treatment

5.1. New SCC mitigation techniques for CANDU nuclear reactor fuels
In the early 1970s, the mitigation of SCC failures of Zircaloy-4

fuel cladding in CANDU nuclear reactors resulted in the application of graphite based coatings, commonly referred to as CANLUB§§ [69]. Ongoing investigations are attempting to ascertain whether the chemical impurities in the CANLUB coating benefit SCC mitigation [70,71]. One potential mechanism involves the sequestering of iodine via its reaction with alkali (or alkaline earth) metal oxide impurities within the CANLUB. Simple calculations using the RMCC thermodynamic fuel treatment indicate that alkali (or alkaline earth) metal iodides (i.e., NaI) within the coating may limit the overall gaseous iodine available for interaction with Zircaloy-4 cladding (Eq. (2)). Furthermore, the oxygen produced in the reaction may repair existing cracks in the protective ZrO₂ layer (Eq. (3)); the negative value of Gibbs energy of reaction (ΔG^0) indicates product-favoured reactions. Consequently, alkali (or alkaline earth) metal impurities may be advantageous in mitigating SCC where CANLUB protective cladding coatings are used.

$$Na_2O_{(s)} + I_{2(g)} \leftrightarrow 2NaI_{(s)} + \frac{1}{2}O_{2(g)}$$

 $\Delta G^0 = -199 \text{ kJ} \text{ at } 327 \text{ °C } \text{ and } 1 \text{ atm}$ (2)

$$Zr_{(s)} + O_{2 (g)} \leftrightarrow ZrO_{2 (s)}$$

$$\Delta G^0 = -982 \text{ kJ at } 327 \text{ °C and } 1 \text{ atm}$$
 (3)

5.2. Measuring thermodynamic properties of aqueous systems at elevated Temperatures

Assessing and evaluating thermochemical data have been an ongoing effort during the development of the RNFTT. The compound database in the FACT (and FactSage) programmes has incorporated thermochemical data from many sources (e.g., the JA-NAF tables [72,73], Barin, Knacke, and Kubaschewski [74], Cordfunke and Konings [75], and Gurvich et al. [76], to name but a few). But, there are certain situations where the quality of the data is open to interpretation. For example, the RNFTT has also been applied to other situations than in-reactor conditions, notably to aqueous systems. One difficulty in these applications is that the thermochemical data for aqueous species is often estimated or extrapolated from room temperature data to much higher temperatures [77]. Under normal operating conditions within a reactor, the coolant is kept liquid by applying a large hydrostatic pressure (approximately 100 atm) to achieve temperatures between 250 and 300 °C. Conversely, most aqueous data are measured at 25 °C and 1 atm [72,78].

While not directly part of the RNFTT, interactions between the cladding and the fuel have long been recognised as important in influencing the chemistry of the fuel. Thus, the behaviour of the principle components of Zircaloy-4 cladding material (*i.e.*, Zr, Sn, and Nb) are of interest, and how these metals interact with the coolant at elevated temperatures and pressures. One method of examining these conditions for aqueous systems is to construct a Pourbaix diagram [79]. The case of Sn illustrates how uncertainties in the estimated data for the standard entropy, S⁰, when extrapolated to elevated temperatures, can lead to different diagrams, as shown in Fig. 12.

A study of the Sn system was performed at UOIT [80] to investigate these properties. Using the apparatus shown in Fig. 13, measurements of $E_{\rm H}$ and pH were made of a series of Sn solutions at 85 °C. The total metal concentration of the solution was determined via inductively-coupled plasma emission spectroscopy

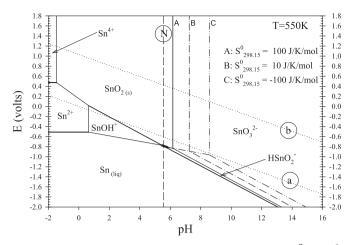


Fig. 12. The Sn Pourbaix diagram at 550 K showing the effect of varying S^0 for SnO_3^2 . Metallic tin is stable as a liquid. The concentration of all aqueous species is 10^{-6} mol L^{-1} . Note that the lines marked (a) and (b) indicate the hydrogen saturation and oxygen saturation lines, respectively. Neutral pH is indicated by the line marked (8).

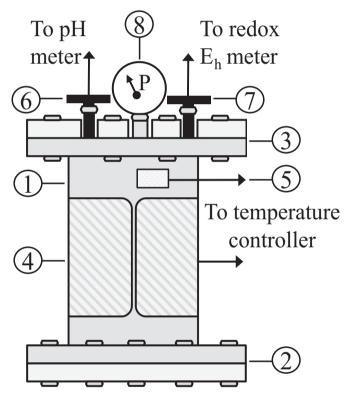


Fig. 13. Schematic diagram of the reaction vessel for elevated temperature solubility measurements. 1. Teflon-lined vessel body; 2 and 3. 316 stainless steel blind flanges; 4. band heater; 5. K-type thermocouple; 6, and 7. elevated temperature pH and ORP electrodes; 8. pressure gauge [80].

or flame atomic absorption spectroscopy depending on the range of expected concentrations. This allows direct comparison to the Pourbaix diagram.

As determined by the test electrodes, the temperature limit for the operation of the vessel shown in Fig. 13 is approximately 115 °C. Currently, a test vessel using more resistant electrodes is being designed, to push the maximum temperature upwards toward 250 °C.

5.3. Aqueous chemistry of actinoids

In the event of defective fuel, as described in Section 4.2, fuel

 $[\]S\S$ CANLUB is short form for CANDU LUBricant, a proprietary graphite based material that serves as an interlayer between CANDU UO2 fuel and the surrounding cladding.

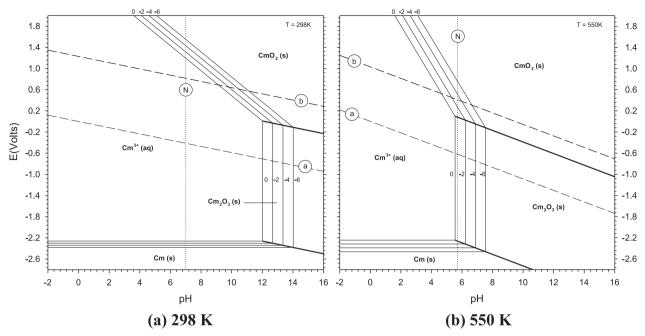


Fig. 14. Cm Pourbaix diagrams shown for 1, 10^{-2} , 10^{-4} , and 10^{-6} mol L⁻¹. Figure copied from Piro et al. [81] (a) 298 K (b) 550 K.

debris may be expelled from a fuel element to the surrounding coolant and circulate in the Primary Heat Transport System (PHTS). Although the quantity of uranium that is soluble in the coolant under normal conditions is less than 1 ppb [79], the same generalisation may not apply to higher atomic number actinoids – namely Neptunium, Plutonium, Americium, and Curium – that are produced via neutron activation and decay. A particular concern during maintenance or decommissioning of the PHTS is the leaching of some of these actinoids from the debris into the coolant, where they could remain trapped in irregularities (e.g., crevices) within the PHTS [81]. Therefore, when the coolant is expelled, these actinoids may not be discharged, leading to unexpected radiation exposure for workers during maintenance or decommisioning. Thus, it is important to understand the solubility of the actinoids in water in this context.

The RNFTT was used to investigate the aqueous chemistry of the (U,Np,Pu,Am,Cm – H_2O) system to better understand this behaviour. It was concluded that small quantities of Cm will dissolve in the coolant (~ 100 ppm, as can be seen in Fig. 14b) while the other actinoids are predominantly stable as solid oxides [81]. Moreover, these analyses demonstrated that during dryout, where the electrochemical potential and pH increase, CmO₂ precipitates [81]. This behaviour is graphically illustrated in the Cm Pourbaix diagrams shown in Fig. 14 below at 298 and 550 K, respectively.

6. Summary and future work

The development of the RNFTT, founded by Thompson and Lewis [5], has evolved over time to capture the behaviour of irradiated fuel thermochemistry that bear on many practical engineering applications. The initial impetus of its development was to better understand the chemical behaviour of radioactive fission products following an accident. Later, it evolved into a more comprehensive multi-component and multiphase treatment of irradiated nuclear fuel. Several experimental campaigns have been pursued to provide validation under various conditions. Also, the treatment as a whole and some specific sections of the treatment have been integrated into multi-physics codes to simulate various aspects of nuclear fuel performance and safety.

Finally, the RNFTT is a robust platform for the investigation of chemical stability in nuclear fuel. It has been applied to assist our understanding of fuel behaviour and has afforded a deeper insight to nuclear fuel safety and design. Other than relatively minor improvements to the RNFTT itself, the future work envisioned involves applying the model to industrial and research applications.

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