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Short communication: The dissolution of UK simulant vitrified high-level-waste in groundwater solutions

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Short communication: The dissolution of UK simulant vitrified high-level-waste in groundwater solutions

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13 Abstract

Dissolution of a simulant UK nuclear waste glass containing Mg, Ca and Zn was investigated over 35 d at 50 °C in water and simulant groundwater solutions. The dissolution rates were influenced subtly by the groundwater composition, following the trend, from least to most durable: clay > water > granite ≈ saline. Solutions were rapidly silica saturated but boron dissolution rates continued to increase. This is hypothesised to be due to the formation of secondary Mg-silicate precipitates, preventing the formation of a passivating silica gel layer and allowing glass dissolution to proceed at close to the maximum rate.

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Key words: aluminoborosilicate glass, nuclear waste, chemical durability, corrosion, zinc, magnesium,
 calcium, groundwater.

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34 Some reprocessed high-level-waste (HLW) in the United Kingdom will be immobilised in a Ca and Zn 35 oxide modified Mixed Windscale (MW) base glass with a nominal composition of 36 4.2Li₂O·8.6Na₂O·6.0CaO·6.0ZnO·4.2Al₂O₃·23.4B₂O₃·47.6SiO₂ wt.%, referred to as CaZn MW. The 37 transition from regular MW to the CaZn MW base glass has been made to enhance the incorporation 38 of high Mo-content Post-Operational-Clean-Out (POCO) waste from the decommissioning of the 39 highly-active-storage tanks [1, 2]. At present, this glass is being used to immobilise reprocessing 40 wastes only. Investigation of the short-term durability of the CaZn MW glass [3-5], compared with 41 regular MW glass (both incorporating reprocessing waste), shows that the addition of CaO and ZnO 42 improves durability in the short-term [3, 4]. However, there remains uncertainty with regard to the 43 chemical durability of CaZn-glass, especially under conditions representative of geological disposal, including in groundwater and at expected temperatures. The presence of Mg, as both a glass 44 45 component and a key constituent of groundwater, is known to trigger the formation of secondary phases, which accelerate glass corrosion [6-11]. Furthermore, similar effects have been observed for 46 47 glasses incorporating even small quantities of Zn [5, 12].

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This study aims to evaluate the influence of different simulant groundwater solution compositions, compared with pure water, on the dissolution rates of the CaZn MW28 glass (28 wt.% waste loading) in a short-term accelerated leaching experiment, and to identify the role of secondary phases in the dissolution mechanism.

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CaZn MW28 was fabricated from a selection of oxide precursors and 28 wt.% of an inactive HLW 54 55 calcine obtained from the National Nuclear Laboratory (NNL-UK) from the reprocessing of Oxide (o) 56 and Magnox (m) spent nuclear fuel at a ratio of 750:25m. The batch was melted at 1060 °C for 5 57 hours (including 4 hours stirring) and annealed at 500 °C for 1 hour. The measured composition, 58 ascertained by Inductively Coupled Plasma-Optical Emission Spectroscopy (ICP-OES) analysis after 59 total digest of the glass in hydrofluoric acid was (in wt.% (\pm 3 % uncertainty)): 3.2 Al₂O₃, 20.5 B₂O₃, 60 0.8 BaO, 4.9 CaO, 1.2 CeO₂, 0.4 Cr₂O₃, 1.4 Cs₂O, 1.8 Fe₂O₃, 3.3 Gd₂O₃, 0.1 HfO₂, 0.6 La₂O₃, 2.6 Li₂O, 1.5 MgO, 1.9 MoO₃, 6.9 Na₂O, 1.9 Nd₂O₃, 0.3 NiO, 0.6 Pr₂O₃, 0.3 RuO₂, 37.7 SiO₂, 0.4 Sm₂O₃, 0.3 SrO, 0.3 61 TeO₃, 0.2 Y₂O₃, 4.7 ZnO and 2.0 ZrO wt.%. The measured density obtained by helium pycnometry 62 was $2.894 \pm 0.003 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ (uncertainty calculated from the standard deviation of ten measurements). 63 64

65 Crushed glass particles (75 – 150 µm diameter) were prepared and Product-Consistency-Test-B (PCT66 B) experiments, according to ASTM standard C1285-14 [13], were conducted at 50 °C in Ultra-High67 Quality (UHQ) water (18.2 MΩ cm) (initial pH(RT) 7.2) and in three simulant groundwater solutions

(Table 1). The surface area to volume ratio was 2,000 m⁻¹, and duplicate experiments were performed for 1, 3, 7, 14, 28 and 35 days under oxic conditions. Synthetic groundwater solutions were prepared by addition of chemical reagents added to 1 L of distilled water [14], as shown in Table 1. A total of 1.08 g of glass and 10 mL of solution was used. The amount of glass dissolved was measured from the normalised mass of elements (*i*) (g m⁻²) (NL_i), according to:

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$$NL_i = (C_i - C_{i,b})/(f_i \times (SA/V))$$
 (1)

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where C_i and $C_{i,b}$ are the average concentration of element, *i*, in the leachate and blank tests (solution only, no glass), respectively (mg L⁻¹), measured using ICP-OES (ThermoScientific iCAPDuo6300); f_i is the mass fraction of *i* in the glass (unitless) and *SA/V* is the surface area to volume ratio of the total particles (m⁻¹), based on the geometric surface area. Uncertainty in NL_i was calculated by the standard deviation of the sum of uncorrelated random errors (see supplementary data).

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Two different approaches were used to assess the normalised dissolution rate of boron (NR_B, g m⁻² d⁻¹). In the first case, the 1 – 35 d NL_B data were fitted using linear regression, and the uncertainty in NR_B was calculated from a chi-squared fit. In the second the data was fitted using:

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$$NL_B = A \tan^{-1}(t/B)$$
 (2)

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89 where *A* and *B* are fitting constants and *t* is time; an inverse tan fit has previously been found to 90 provide a good empirical fit to the normalised mass loss data for a number of glasses, including the 91 International Simple Glass (ISG) [15, 16]. In this case an "initial" dissolution rate, often defined as the 92 maximum rate of glass dissolution controlled by hydrolysis of the silicate network [17], was 93 calculated by evaluating the slope at t = 0:

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$$dNL_i/dt_{(t=0)}$$
 (3)

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97 The experiments performed here do not involve infinitely dilute conditions, therefore, the "forward" 98 rate, where Q = 0, is not calculated (noting that Q refers to the ion activity product in Transition 99 State Theory applied to glass corrosion [18 - 20]). Thus the rates calculated in Eqn (3) are the 100 inferred rates at t = 0 and are termed "initial" rates for these experiments. After dissolution, dried 101 particles (dried for 14h at 50 °C) were adhered to carbon tabs or mounted in epoxy and ground to

102 reveal a cross-section. Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) and Energy Dispersive Spectroscopy (EDS) were performed using a Hitachi TM3030 SEM (operating at an accelerating voltage of 15 kV) 103 104 and a Bruker Quantax 70, respectively. X-ray diffraction (XRD) was performed on pristine and 35 d 105 altered particles using a Bruker D2 Phaser X-ray diffractometer. An angular range of $10 < ^{\circ}2\theta < 70$ with a 0.02° step size of 0.17° min⁻¹ was used, with a total scan time of 110 minutes. The 106 107 geochemical modelling package PHREEQ-C version 3 was used to calculate the saturation indices of various secondary phases in the leachates at all time points. The concentration of elements in the 108 109 leachate and the leachate pH(RT) were used as input to calculate a range of possible phases 110 saturated in solution according to the Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory (LLNL) database.

- 111
- 112 Table 1. Composition of three synthetic solutions representative of generic repository groundwaters (GW) [14].
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	Concentration (mmol L^{-1})				
Element	Granitic GW [21]	Saline GW [21]	Clay GW [22]		
Na	2.8	140	55		
К	0.1	2.1	1.1		
Ca	0.5	19.9	7.5		
Mg	0.2	0.4	5.7		
Cl	2.1	173	52.5		
HCO ₃	2.0	2.0	-		
SO4 ²⁻	0.1	4.0	15		
SiO ₂	0.2	-	-		
pH(RT)	8.2	7.7	6.5		

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The measured NL_B (commonly used as an indicator for glass corrosion since boron does not 115 116 participate in alteration layer formation), showed that dissolution of CaZn MW28 glass followed the 117 trend, from the least to the most durable after 35 d: clay > UHQ > granite \approx saline (Fig. 1a). The dissolution rate of boron, NR_B, calculated using the two fitting methods described above are given in 118 119 Table 2 and Fig. S1a. For all solutions except for the saline groundwater, the dissolution rate of 120 boron calculated using the linear regression method between 1 and 35 d was approximately the same (within error) as that calculated at t = 0 using the inverse tan fit (Table 2). The similarity in the 121 122 calculated rates suggests that for the granite, clay and UHQ solutions, the NR_B for the 35 d duration 123 of the experiment was similar to the inferred initial rate (at t = 0), i.e. close to the maximum 124 dissolution rate of the glass [12].

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126 The NL_{si} (Fig. 1b and S1b) increased rapidly before slowing; this is typically observed when glass 127 undergoes the "rate drop" caused by the formation of a passivating silica gel layer before transition

128 into the residual rate (Stage II) of dissolution [23]. However, the NL_B data indicated that there was no rate drop. Considering that the glass dissolved at the "initial" rate (as at t = 0), this behaviour can be 129 130 attributed to rapid saturation of the solutions with respect to silica, and the almost immediate precipitation of secondary silicate phases, thus preventing the formation of a passivating silica gel 131 layer and allowing dissolution to proceed at a rapid rate. In previous studies, the drop in NL_{si} was 132 133 attributed to the formation of Mg-silicate phases [10, 11]. Indeed, there was a decrease in the NL_{Mg} 134 for clay, UHQ and granite solutions. It seems reasonable to suggest that the formation of secondary Mg-silicate phases may, therefore, drive enhanced glass dissolution, at a relatively rapid rate (similar 135 136 in magnitude to the "initial" rate, governed by silicate network hydrolysis), with the source of the 137 Mg from both the solution and the glass (since this behaviour was also observed in UHQ where the only source of Mg was the glass). 138

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In contrast, for the saline groundwater, the NR_B calculated using the linear regression method was considerably lower than the inverse tan fit, suggesting that the dissolution reaction of the glass in this solution was passivated by the formation of a silica gel layer, as typically observed in borosilicate glass dissolution. This was confirmed by the NL_{Si} data (Fig. 1b), which reached a residual rate at ~7 d. It is interesting to note that in this solution, the NL_{Mg} *increased*, rather than decreased. This is discussed further below.

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Fig. 1. (a - e) Normalized mass loss (NL) of elements, i, from CaZn MW28 particles during 35 d PCT-B leaching at 50°C in various groundwater compositions (errors bars are calculated from the sum of uncorrelated random errors); and f) pH(RT) measurements of the leachate. (pH(RT)_{t=0}: UHQ 7.2, granite 8.2, saline 7.7, clay 6.5).

168 Table 2. Normalised dissolution rate of boron (NR_B) calculated between 1 and 35 d for all experiments using a chi-square fit

and between 14 and 35 d for the saline groundwater solution (since this was the linear part of the dissolution reaction) and
 the NR_{B & Si} "initial rate" as calculated at t=0 using an inverse tan fit.

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Solution	B dissolution rate 1 - 35 d (NR _B / g m ⁻² d ⁻¹)	R ²	B initial rate (NR _B / g m ⁻² d ⁻¹)	R ²	Si initial rate (NR _{Si} / g m ⁻² d ⁻¹)	R ²
Clay	$(2.82 \pm 0.23) \times 10^{-2}$	0.999	$(2.8 \pm 0.7) \times 10^{-2}$	1.000	$(1.4 \pm 0.3) \times 10^{-2}$	0.975
UHQ	$(2.43 \pm 0.32) \times 10^{-2}$	0.882	$(2.0 \pm 0.5) \times 10^{-2}$	0.986	$(3.0 \pm 0.5) \times 10^{-2}$	0.975
Granite	$(1.54 \pm 0.12) \times 10^{-2}$	0.994	$(1.6 \pm 0.5) \times 10^{-2}$	0.988	$(1.5 \pm 0.2) \times 10^{-2}$	0.983
Saline	$(1.67 \pm 0.14) \times 10^{-2}$	0.421	$(4.8 \pm 0.5) \times 10^{-2}$	0.995	$(4.0 \pm 0.5) \times 10^{-2}$	0.989
Saline 14-35 d	$(0.46 \pm 0.42) \times 10^{-2}$	0.947	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a

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Analysis of the glass surface after dissolution by SEM / EDS (Fig. 2, Supplementary Figure 2) 174 175 confirmed the enrichment of Mg (and Al) at the surface of the glass leached in clay groundwater, 176 and a series of precipitates, approximately $2 - 5 \mu m$ in size, with a clay-like morphology, were first observed after 28 d of dissolution (Fig. 2b). X-ray diffraction (Fig. 3) analysis of glass dissolved for 35 177 178 d in each of the solutions did not reveal distinct crystalline phases (except for halite (NaCl), PDF 02-179 0818, in the saline groundwater), which is unsurprising given the low quantity of surface precipitates. Crystalline RuO₂ (PDF 21-1172) was observed in the pristine glass and in all glasses after 180 181 35 d of leaching; this is an expected feature of the waste glass being studied. It was not possible to 182 observe a silica gel layer on the surface of the glass samples at the resolution employed, with the 183 possible exception of the glass corroded in the saline solution which, after 35 d, appeared to show a 184 "peeled" dehydrated gel layer with the glass surface underneath (Fig. S2d).







Fig. 3. XRD traces of CaZn MW28 particles pre- and post-35 d PCT-B leaching at 50 °C in UHQ and groundwater
 compositions.

191 Further indication that there was rapid onset of silica saturation in all solutions, and that Mg-silicate 192 phases may have precipitated, is given by PHREEQ-C geochemical modelling of the solution leachates. Figure 4 shows that the solutions of all experiments were predicted to be saturated with 193 respect to a number of phyllosilicate phases, rich in Mg, including saponite (Mg_{3.165}Al_{.33}Si_{3.67}O₁₀(OH)₂) 194 and sepiolite (Mg₄Si₆O₁₅(OH)₂·6H₂O). Additionally, they were saturated with respect to a range of Ca-195 196 bearing zeolites including mesolite $(Na_2Ca_2(Al_2Si_3O_{10})_3\cdot 8H_2O)$, scolecite $(CaAl_2Si_3O_{10}\cdot 3H_2O)$ and 197 laumonite (CaAl₂Si₄O₁₂·4H₂O)) at every time point, in accordance with the observed reduction in the 198 NL_{Ca}, which was particularly evident for the granite and saline groundwaters. 199



200

Fig. 4. PHREEQ-C geochemical modelling of the leachate from CaZn MW28 post 35 d PCT-B tests at 50 °C in (a) UHQ water;
 (b) granite; (c) saline and; (d) clay groundwater solutions. The measured input pH(RT) range of each data set is provided.
 Chemical formulae for each phase is provided in Table S1.

204

205 It is widely understood that Ca can be readily incorporated into silica gel layers, which has the effect 206 of strengthening the gel layer and making it more resistant to dissolution in the short-term [11, 24– 207 29]. The only experiment in which a silica gel layer was observed (and inferred from NL_i data) was 208 that performed in the saline solution, which had an initial Ca concentration of 19.9 mmol L⁻¹ (Table

209 1). Unlike the other groundwaters, the NL_{ca} was negative in the saline solution; since NL_i values are calculated by subtracting the concentration of Ca in the blank solution (Eqn. 1), this indicates that 210 211 there was significant removal of Ca from the solution, either into the silica gel layer (Fig. S2d) or secondary precipitates. Furthermore, in contrast to all of the other solutions, the NL_{Mg} in the saline 212 213 solution appeared to increase rather than decrease (Fig. 1d), suggesting that Mg leached from the 214 glass and remained in solution rather than participating in silica gel charge compensation or secondary precipitate formation. This is in agreement with Aréna et al. [26] who reported that Ca 215 216 incorporation into the gel layer of the ISG dissolved in Mg-rich clay groundwater was favoured over 217 Mg incorporation.

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Interestingly, the clay groundwater contained significantly more Ca than the UHQ and granite 219 220 solutions, yet the NL_{Ca} did not decrease, indicating that it was not removed from solution. This highlights the competition for Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ to form secondary silicate precipitates [16, 29–30], that 221 favour Mg over Ca. This can be attributed to the more negative Gibbs Free Energy of hydration for 222 Mg ($\Delta G_{Hvd}(Mg^{2+})$ -1830 kJ mol⁻¹, compared with ($\Delta G_{Hvd}(Ca^{2+})$ of -1505 kJ mol⁻¹ for Ca) [31], which 223 shows that Mg-silicates are thermodynamically more likely to form. Although Ca has a more 224 favourable adsorption constant than Mg ($K_{ads} = 10^{-5.9}$ for Ca compared with $10^{-6.2}$ for Mg) and a 225 higher ligand exchange rate ($K_{ex} = 10^{8.5}$ for Ca and $10^{5.2}$ for Mg), both of which favour the 226 incorporation of Ca within the silica gel layer of corroding glass [29, 32], if Mg ions react with 227 228 dissolving silica from the glass before a gel layer can form, there can be no Ca-silica gel layer.

229

The observation that the NL_{Mg} was significantly greater in the saline groundwater compared to all other solutions investigated may also be explained by the lower pH imposed by the saline system (Fig. 1f), inhibiting the formation of Mg-silicate phases [26]. This is consistent with the study by Thien *et al.* [8], who found that the precipitation of saponite $(Ca_{0.25}(Mg,Fe)_3((Si,Al)_4O_{10})(OH)_2 \cdot nH_2O)$, was more efficient at pH 9, while at pH < 9, Mg was partially incorporated into the gel in a charge compensating role.

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Previous studies have shown the propensity for the precipitation of Zn-silicate phases, such as hemimorphite $(Zn_2(SiO_4) \cdot H_2O)$, upon the dissolution of Zn-containing MW glasses [33-34]. Furthermore, the hydrated zinc silicate phase, zincsilite $(Zn_3Si_4O_{10}(OH)_2 \cdot 4(H_2O))$, was proposed to form upon SON68 dissolution [35]. The Gibbs Free Energy of hydration of Zn^{2+} is more negative than that of Mg²⁺ ($\Delta G_{Hyd}(Zn^{2+})$ is -1955 kJ mol⁻¹ and $\Delta G_{Hyd}(Mg^{2+})$ is -1830 kJ mol⁻¹), indicating that if Mgsilicates are capable of forming, then it is highly likely that Zn-silicates will also form, should Zn be

dissolved from the glass. In a simple ternary borosilicate glass composition containing Zn, it was
hypothesised that the precipitation of Zn-silicate prevents the re-condensation of silica to form a gel
layer, sustaining glass dissolution [12], which agrees well with the behaviour observed in the present
study.

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248 In the granite groundwater solution there was no Zn detected, suggesting that Zn was not released 249 to solution (Fig. 5). In the UHQ, saline and clay groundwater solutions, however, it was possible to 250 measure Zn in solution but the concentrations were close to the detection limit of the instrument 251 (approx. 0.01 ppm) and, as such, had large errors associated with their values. Despite the absence 252 of evidence for Zn-silicates in SEM/EDS and XRD analyses in this short duration study, geochemical modelling of all solutions showed that Zn₂SiO₄ was predicted to be stable. While it is highly unlikely 253 254 that this phase would form under the hydrothermal conditions of the dissolution experiments 255 performed here, it shows that Zn-silicate phases could be stable.

256



257

Fig. 5. Normalised mass loss of Zn (NL_{zn}) from CaZn MW28 particles during 35 d PCT-B leaching at 50°C in various
 groundwater compositions calculated from elemental concentration values (ppm) at the limits of instrument detection.

261 This study highlights the fact that different groundwaters exert a subtle influence on the short-term 262 dissolution rate of CaZn MW28 glass. Rapid onset of silica saturation and Mg-silicate precipitation [9], as predicted by geochemical modelling of the solutions and tentatively identified by SEM/EDS, is 263 264 the postulated reason for elevated dissolution rates, where Mg from both the glass and the solution 265 likely prevents the re-condensation of silica to form a gel layer, sustaining glass dissolution at a rate 266 similar in magnitude to the "initial" rate. The same solubility limiting phases were predicted to form 267 in all solutions (Fig. 4), therefore, the differences in dissolution rate may be attributed to the kinetics 268 of formation and the quantity of the elements in each solution. The exception is saline groundwater,

which may have promoted the formation of a passivating silica gel layer (Fig. S2d), did not show a
propensity for Mg-silicate formation and had amongst the lowest dissolution rates.

271

272 The dissolution behaviour observed here is not well described by any of the accepted dissolution 273 rate definitions: the initial rate is widely defined as the congruent, linear release of elements at the 274 maximum rate controlled by hydrolysis of the silica network [17]; the residual rate occurs once the 275 solution is saturated with respect to silica and glass dissolution is no longer driven by silicate 276 hydrolysis but by diffusion processes (of ions through the silica gel layer) [17], while the massive 277 precipitation of secondary silicates (almost exclusively zeolite phases) and rapid dissolution of the 278 glass is known as "rate resumption", which is typically associated with a significant pH increase [36]. 279 In contrast, in the groundwater solutions of the present study, the CaZn MW28 glass apparently 280 underwent "initial" rate dissolution while under conditions of silica saturation, promoted by aggressive precipitation of secondary Mg-phyllosilicate phases, with no change in pH. Seemingly all 281 282 of the currently defined stages of dissolution occurred simultaneously, thus an alternative definition for such behaviour is required. 283

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285 As radioactive waste geological disposal programmes mature, and dissolution rates are determined 286 in increasingly complex groundwater solutions, this study serves to highlight the need for further 287 investigation of systems containing divalent cations and their influence on glass dissolution 288 behaviour. This is also important for new glass compositions developed to progress the decommissioning of nuclear facilities, such as the incorporation of Zn in POCO glass compositions. In 289 290 particular, further detailed studies of the role of Mg and Zn-silicate precipitation in glass dissolution, 291 in conjunction with appropriate thermodynamic databases, are required to understand whether Zn-292 silicate influences glass dissolution by the same mechanism, and to the same magnitude, as Mg-293 silicate precipitation, and to determine if there is an additive [37] or competitive effect when both 294 Mg and Zn are present.

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- 296

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306	
307	Data availability
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309 310	The raw data required to reproduce these findings are available upon request.
311	
311	
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411 Appendix. Supplementary data

413 Uncertainty in NL_i was calculated by the standard deviation of the sum of uncorrelated random
414 errors [16] according to:

[S1]

416
$$\sigma_f = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}\right)^2 \sigma_i^2}$$

418 where σ_f is the standard deviation of $f(x_i)$, where x_i is the parameter pertaining to element *i* and σ_i is 419 the standard deviation of parameter x_i . Substituting Equation 1 (main text) into Equation S1, and

420 using a relative error,
$$\hat{\sigma}_{NL_i} = \frac{\sigma_{NL_i}}{NL_i}$$
 gives:

422
$$\widehat{\sigma}_{\mathrm{NL}_{i}} = \sqrt{\frac{\left(\widehat{\sigma}_{\mathrm{C}_{i,S}} \mathrm{C}_{i,S}\right)^{2} + \left(\widehat{\sigma}_{\mathrm{C}_{i,b}} \mathrm{C}_{i,0}\right)^{2}}{\left(\mathrm{C}_{i,S} - \mathrm{C}_{i,0}\right)^{2}}} + \widehat{\sigma}_{\mathrm{f}_{i}}^{2} + \widehat{\sigma}_{SA/V}^{2}$$
[S2]

424 from which the experimental uncertainty on r_i can be derived. Relative errors of 10%, 10%, 3% and
425 15% were ascribed to C_i, C_{i,o}, f_i and SA/V respectively.





b)



449Figure S1. (a) Inverse tan empirical fit to the normalised mass loss (B & Si) data; and (b) PCT-B tests for CaZn450MW28 at 50°C, SA/V = 2,000 m $^{-1}$, in various groundwater solutions and UHQ water. Note the additional data451point at 112 d for the UHQ test only. Uncertainty in NL_i was calculated by the standard deviation of the sum of452uncorrelated random errors (Eqns. 1, S1 & S2).



Figure S2. BSE-SEM images of the CaZn MW28 glass surface after 35 d of dissolution in groundwater at 50°C showing (a) and (b) the range of crystalline phases precipitated on the surface of glass dissolved in clay groundwater; (c) the absence of a distinct gel layer at the surface of the glass dissolved in clay groundwater (cross section image); (d) possible evidence for a dehydrated silica gel layer peeled back from the glass surface, in addition to halite crystallites for glass dissolved in saline groundwater; (e) glass surface from the UHQ water and (f) granite tests, which did not show any surface precipitation or gel layers (the bright phases are crystallite of RuO₂).

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Table S1. Chemical formulae for all predicted phases from PHREEQ-C geochemical modelling

Mineral phase	Chemical formula
Analcime	NaAlSi ₂ O ₆ ·H ₂ O
Beidellite - (Ca,Mg)	(Ca,Mg) _{0.165} Al _{2.33} Si _{3.67} O ₁₀ (OH) ₂
Beidellite - Na	Na _{0.61} Al _{4.7} Si _{7.32} O ₂₀ (OH) ₄
Clinochlore - 14 Å	$Mg_5Al_2Si_3O_{10}(OH)_8$
Laumonite	$CaAl_2Si_4O_{12} \cdot 4H_2O$
Lawsonite	$CaAl_2Si_2O_7(OH)_2 \cdot H_2O$
Mesolite	Na _{0.676} Ca _{0.657} Al _{1.99} Si _{3.01} O ₁₀ ·2.647H ₂ O
Saponite – Ca	Ca _{0.165} Mg ₃ Al _{0.33} Si _{3.67} O ₁₀ (OH) ₂
Saponite – H	H _{0.33} Mg ₃ Al _{0.33} Si _{3.67} O ₁₀ (OH) ₂
Saponite – Mg	Mg _{3.165} Al _{0.33} Si _{3.67} O ₁₀ (OH) ₂
Saponite – Na	Na _{0.33} Mg ₃ Al _{0.33} Si _{3.67} O ₁₀ (OH) ₂
Scolecite	$CaAl_2Si_3O_{10}\cdot 3H_2O$
Sepiolite	Mg ₄ Si ₆ O ₁₅ (OH) ₂ ·6H ₂ O
Zinc silicate	Zn ₂ SiO ₄

Short communication: The dissolution of UK simulant vitrified high-level-waste in groundwater solutions

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Declaration of interests

 \boxtimes The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

□The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: