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1 Zirconium retention for minimizing environmental risk: role

2 of counterion and clay mineral.

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Zr(IV) together with U(IV) are the major components of high-level 11 Abstract: radionuclide waste (HLRW) and spent nuclear fuel (SNF) from nuclear power plants. 12 Thus, their retention in the waste disposal is of great importance for the environmental 13 risk control. Here, the influence of clay minerals on the retention of Zr(IV), as component 14 of the nuclear waste and as chemical analogues of U(IV), has been evaluated. Three clay 15 minerals, two bentonites and one saponite, were hydrothermally treated with three 16 zirconium salts. A structural study at long-range order by X-ray diffraction and short-17 range order by NMR was performed to evaluate the generation of new zirconium phases 18 and degradation of the clay minerals. Three immobilization mechanisms were observed: 19 i) cation exchange of ZrO^{2+} or Zr^{4+} by clay minerals, ii) the precipitation/crystallization 20 21 of ZrO₂, and, iii) the chemical interaction of zirconium with the clay minerals, with the formation of zirconium silicates. 22

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25 **1. Introduction**

The presence of zirconium, Zr(IV), in nuclear waste and reprocessing of nuclear fuel has been widely studied (Coughtrey et al., 1983). Moreover, due to its relatively short half-life, the isotope ⁸⁹Zr (t_{1/2}=78.4 h) is considered as a promising candidate for use as a positron-emitting surrogate for ⁹⁰Y in radioimmunotherapy (Verel et al., 2003), because stable isotopes of that non-essential element have a low order of toxicity for the living organisms (Ghosh et al., 1992). Nevertheless, due to fission reactions, the long half-life isotope ⁹³Zr (t_{1/2}=106 years) is found in radioactive wastes (Ghosh et al., 1992).

In addition, uranium is the major component of high-level radionuclide waste (HLRW) and spent nuclear fuel (SNF) from nuclear power plants, thus, it is essential to analyse the safety of its retention in the waste disposal to minimize the environmental risks. Previously, stable analogues of UO²⁺, ZrO²⁺ chemical simulator, has been employed at laboratory scale (Villa-Alfageme et al., 2015).

Several natural adsorbents have been employed for the treatment of nuclear waste.
Clay minerals have high-affinity adsorption for radionuclides and low water permeability
(Yapar et al., 2015). High sorption capacity, low water solubility, availability, low cost,
high stability under oxidizing and reducing conditions, and high cation exchange capacity
(CEC) have made the clays excellent adsorbent materials.

Regarding the adsorption properties of the clay minerals (Pan et al., 2011), recent
studies highlight the existence of an additional retention mechanism (Alba et al., 2009a;
Trillo et al., 1994). The systematic study of the interaction of the rare earths cations
(REE), such as La, Lu, Nd, Sm – as actinides chemical analogues, with natural and
artificial clay minerals – revealed a reaction mechanism based on the interaction between
the lanthanide cations and the orthosilicate anions of the lamellar structure (Alba et al.,
2011; Alba and Chain, 2005, 2005). At subcritical conditions, 374 °C and 22 MPa,

(Dooley, 2016) an insoluble and chemically stable phase, REE₂Si₂O₇, was generated
(Alba et al., 2009b). This might provide a stable immobilisation mechanism if the sorption
and swelling capacities of the bentonite fail (Alba and Chaín, 2007).

53 Initial storage temperatures in the deep geological repository (DGR) are expected to be greater than 200 °C, with temperatures falling below 150 °C several hundred years 54 55 after emplacement (Ojovan, M.I.; Lee, 2014; Poinssot et al., 1996a). Pressure in DGR is 56 expected to be below the maximum subcritical pressure conditions used in the hydrothermal treatments, ca. 10.13 MPa. Nevertheless, hydrothermal conditions of high 57 pressure and temperature were used to follow, in reasonable times, the reactions. Thus, 58 59 many studies have been carried out by simulating the deep geological disposal at 60 temperatures up to 350 °C to increase the reaction rate (Alba and Chaín, 2007; Beswick et al., 2014; Gibb et al., 2012, 2008; Poinssot et al., 1996a; Savage, D, Chapman, 1982). 61 62 Although many studies have corroborated the chemical interactions between actinides with oxidation state +3, few studies have been carried out to analyse this mechanisms 63

with the cations of oxidation state +4 presents on the HLRW and its influence on the
retention capacity of bentonites for other radionuclides from HLRW and SNF (VillaAlfageme et al., 2015). Also, the type of anion present in a background ionic medium had
an effect on cation selectivity and specific sorption (Sharma and Sharma, 2013a).

Therefore, the main goal of this study was to examine the influence of clay minerals on the retention of Zr(IV), as component of the nuclear waste and as chemical analogous of U(IV). Then, the potential use of bentonites and a pure saponite for decontamination or retention of HLRW at various environmental solutions were evaluated.

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73 2. Experimental section

74 2.1. *Materials*

The examined clay minerals were 2:1 phyllosilicates, two bentonites (FEBEX and MX-80) considered as suitable buffer material in HLRW repositories (Rao and Ravi, 2013) and one saponite because previous studies demonstrated that trioctahedral smectites with aluminium in tetrahedral sheet enhanced their HLRW retention capacity (Alba et al., 2001, 2001).

The FEBEX bentonite was extracted from the Cortijo de Archidona deposit (Almería, Spain). The processing at the factory consisted of disaggregation and gently grinding, drying at 60 °C and sieving by 5 mm (ENRESA, 2006, 2000). The montmorillonite content of the FEBEX bentonite was 90-92 % (Fernandez et al., 2004). Based on chemical analyses, the structural formula or unit-cell formula of the Ca conditioned FEBEX smectite is (Fernandez et al., 2004):

86 $(Ca_{0.5}Na_{0.08}K_{0.11})(Si_{7.78}Al_{0.22})(Al_{2.78}Fe^{III}_{0.33}Fe^{II}_{0.02}Mg_{0.81})O_{20}(OH)_4.$

The MX-80 bentonite was extracted from Wyoming (USA) and was supplied in the
form of powder (Madsen, 1998). The MX-80 batch used in this investigation was mainly
composed of montmorillonite (83%) (Villar et al., 2012). Based on chemical analyses,
the structural formula or unit-cell formula of MX-80 smectite is (Montes-H et al., 2005):
(Na_{0.36}Ca_{0.20})(Si_{7.96}Al_{0.04})(Al_{3.1}Mg_{0.56}Fe^{III}_{0.18}Fe^{II}_{0.16})O₂₀(OH)4.

Saponite, SapCa-2, has been obtained from the Source Clay Minerals Repository
University of Missouri (Columbia) and it has the following chemical formula (Alba et al.,
2001): Na_{0.61}K_{0.02}Ca_{0.09} (Si_{7.2}Al_{0.8})^{IV}(Mg_{5.79}Fe_{0.15})^{VI}O₂₀(OH)₄. Before to be used, the
saponite was sodium homoionized.

ZrO(NO₃)₂·7H₂O (99 % of purity), Zr(SO₄)₂·4.5H₂O (99.999 % of purity) and
ZrOCl₂·8H₂O (98 % of purity), which are commercially available from Sigma-Aldrich,
were used in this work as possible chemical analogues of uranyl and tetravalent actinides
presents in HLRW (Chapman and Smelllie, 1986).

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101 2.2. Hydrothermal reaction

Three hundred milligrams of the above clay minerals were added to 3.65 mmol of 102 103 zirconium salts (mmol zirconium:mmol smectite 11.2 ± 0.6), suspended in 50 ml of water and heated, in a stainless steel reactor, at 300 °C for 1 week; the experimental details are 104 105 summarized in Table 1. The reaction products were collected by filtering, washed with 106 distilled water and dried at room temperature. It is well-known that in geochemical processes of waste degradation and waste/rock interaction, the expected temperatures 107 reach up to about 200 °C. However, several studies devoted to simulating deep geological 108 109 disposal conditions use temperatures of up to 350 °C to increase the reaction rates (Mather et al., 1982; Savage and Chapman, 1982). 110

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2.3. Characterization techniques

X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were obtained at the X-ray laboratory (CITIUS, 113 114 University of Seville, Spain) on a Bruker D8 Advance instrument equipped with a Cu Ka 115 radiation source operating at 40 kV and 40 mA. Diffractograms were obtained in the 20 range of $3-70^{\circ}$ with a step size of 0.015° and a step time of 0.1 s. 116

Single-pulse (SP) MAS NMR spectra were recorded in the Nuclear Magnetic 117 Resonance Unit at the University of Cordoba (Spain) on a Bruker AVANCE WB400 118 spectrometer equipped with a multinuclear probe. Powdered sample was packed in 3.2 119 mm zirconia rotors and spun at 10 kHz. ²⁹Si MAS NMR spectra were acquired at a 120 frequency of 79.49 MHz, using a pulse width of 2.7 μ s ($\pi/2$ pulse length = 7.1 μ s) and 121 delay times of 3 s. ²⁷Al MAS NMR spectra were recorded at 104.26 MHz with a pulse 122 width of 0.92 μ s ($\pi/2$ pulse length = 9.25 μ s) and a delay time of 0.1 s. The chemical shift 123 values were reported in ppm from tetramethylsilane for ²⁹Si and from a 0.1 M AlCl₃ 124

solution for ²⁷Al. Spectra were simulated using the DMFIT software (Massiot et al.,
2002), Gaussian-Lorentzian model was used for all the peaks, and linewidth, position and
amplitude were the fitted parameters.

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129 **3. Results**

130 *3.1. Reactivity of bentonites*

The XRD pattern of raw FEBEX and MX-80 (Fig. 1a and 1e) exhibit typical reflections of montmorillonite. The basal spacing d_{001} , which corresponds to a value of about 1.49 nm is associated to the bilayer hydrated Ca²⁺ in the smectite clay interlayer of FEBEX (El Mrabet et al., 2014) and ca. 1.21 nm due mainly to one-layer hydrate typical of monovalent alkaline cations for MX-80 (Grim, 1968). Additionally, reflection of quartz and tridymite are observed being more evident in the XRD pattern of MX-80.

The XRD patterns of the reacted FEBEX with Zr⁴⁺ or ZrO²⁺ (Fig. 1b-d) show the total 137 disruption of the montmorillonite framework and the impurities of quartz and tridymite 138 with the appearance of new crystalline phases. The main observed crystalline phase is 139 baddeleyite, monoclinic ZrO₂, which is accompanied by minor phases such as zircon, 140 ZrSiO₄ and cubic ZrO₂. Additionally, reflections of kaolinite are observed in the XRD of 141 the FEBEX treated with ZrO(NO₃)₂, Zr-N-FEB-1, and Zr(SO₄)₂, Zr-S-FEB-1 (Fig. 1c and 142 1d). Finally, the XRD patterns of Zr-C-FEB-1 and Zr-N-FEB-1 (Fig. 1b and 1c) show a 143 background due to the presence of non-crystalline phases. 144

The XRD patterns of MX-80 after hydrothermal reactions (Fig. 1e-h) show also that the main crystalline phase is baddeleyite, accompanied by minor phases such as kaolinite, ZrSiO₄ and cubic ZrO₂. The reaction with ZrO(NO₃)₂ and Zr(SO₄)₂ (Fig. 1g and 1h) provoke the total disruption of the montmorillonite framework. Whereas, the XRD pattern of Zr-C-MX-1 (Fig. 1f) exhibits small reflection of montmorillonite with a $d_{001}=1.40$ nm, in agreement with previous data reported for smectites saturated with multivalent cations (Ravina and Low, 1977) and small reflections of the quartz and tridymite. Finally, the XRD patterns of Zr-C-MX-1 and Zr-N-MX-1 (Fig. 1f and 1g) show a background due to the presence of non-crystalline phases.

²⁹Si MAS NMR spectra of the untreated bentonites (Fig. 2a) show two set of signals, the main one is in the range of -100 to -80 ppm and is due to Q³(mAl), typical environment of smectite, and the second one is in the range of -100 to -115 ppm and is due to Q⁴(mAl) of the impurities (Engelhardt, G.; Michel, 1987). The deconvolution parameters of the ²⁹Si MAS NMR spectra (Table 2 and 3) show that the Si smectite environments are different in the two bentonites.

For FEBEX bentonite, the smectite contribution to the ²⁹Si MAS NMR spectrum (Fig. 2a, left) reaches 90.2%, with two signals at -93.85 ppm, Q³(0Al), and -87.32 ppm, Q³(1Al), which are compatible with dioctahedral configuration and isomorphical substitution of Si by Al in the tetrahedral sheet (Alba et al., 2001).

The ²⁹Si MAS NMR spectrum of MX80 (Fig. 2a, right) shows a symmetric signal at -93.66 ppm due to Q³(0Al), reaching 77.8 % of the total Si of the spectrum. The absence of Q³(1Al) environment is due to the lack of substitution of Si by Al in the tetrahedral sheet. In both bentonites, the ²⁹Si MAS NMR spectra are compatible with their mineralogical composition (Montes-H et al., 2005).

The ²⁷Al MAS NMR spectra of the untreated bentonites (Fig. 3a) show a main resonance centred at ca. 0 ppm, due to octahedral Al environment and compatible with the dioctahedral character of both bentonites (Engelhardt, G.; Michel, 1987). Additionally, a small signal between 50 and 70 ppm is observed, due to Al in tetrahedral coordination (Engelhardt, G.; Michel, 1987). In both samples, a signal at 50–70 ppm is made of two resonances; the main one at ca. 57 ppm is due to q⁴ environment of impurities, and, the very small one at ca. 65 ppm, in FEBEX, was due to q³ environment
in smectite phase (Engelhardt, G.; Michel, 1987).

After the treatment, a complete transformation of the ²⁹Si MAS NMR spectra is
observed (Fig. 2b-d).

The ²⁹Si MAS NMR spectra after the hydrothermal treatment of both bentonites with
ZrOCl₂, (Fig. 2b) are characterized with very broad bands.

The Zr-C-FEB-1 spectrum is the convolution of four peaks (Table 2). The peak at -181 95.85 ppm corresponds to the $Q^{3}(OAI)$ Si environment of the remnant montmorillonite. 182 The absence of $Q^3(1AI)$ and the shifts of $Q^3(0AI)$ indicate the leaching of the tetrahedral 183 184 aluminium (Alba et al., 2001). The signal at the lowest frequency, ca. 111 ppm, corresponds to the Q⁴(0Si) environment typical of tridymite (Mackenzie, H.J.D.; Smith, 185 2002). The two other peaks correspond to zirconium silicate phases. The peak at ca. -81 186 ppm corresponds to zircon, Q⁰, (Cota et al., 2013) and accounts with the 1.1 % of the total 187 Si environment. Finally, the peak at ca. 103 ppm corresponds to Si Q⁴(1Zr) (Ferreira et 188 al., 2001; Lin and Rocha, 2004; Mackenzie, H.J.D.; Smith, 2002) and accounts with the 189 190 3.2 % of the total Si environment.

Due to the low S/N ratio of the Zr-C-MX-1 spectrum, it is not deconvoluted. It is characterized by a broad symmetric band at ca. 104 ppm that could be interpreted that the main Si environment is Q⁴(1Zr) environment (Ferreira et al., 2001; Lin and Rocha, 2004; Mackenzie, H.J.D.; Smith, 2002) although it can not be quantified.

The ²⁷Al MAS NMR spectra of Zr-C-FEB-1 and Zr-C-MX-1 (Fig. 3b) are characterized by a broad signal at ca. 0 ppm of aluminium in octahedral coordination (Engelhardt, G.; Michel, 1987) due to the Al in the octahedral sheet of the remnant montmorillonite. The ²⁹Si MAS NMR spectra after the hydrothermal treatment of both bentonites with ZrO(NO₃)₂ (Fig. 2c) are characterized by a main narrow signal at high frequency accompanied of broader signals at lower frequency. The spectra are deconvoluted in six peaks (Table 2 and 3). In both bentonites, signals corresponding to zirconium silicates are observed: i) one at ca. 81 ppm of ZrSiO₄, 4.4 % for Zr-N-FEB-1 and 3.5 % for Zr-N-MX-1; and; ii) two peaks at ca. -104 ppm and ca. -88 ppm due to Q⁴(1Zr) and Q⁴(2Zr), respectively. The total Q⁴(nZr) is 14.5 % for Zr-N-FEB-1 and 44.6 % for Zr-N-MX-1.

The signal of montmorillonite is absent in Zr-N-MX-1 but a signal at -95 ppm, Q³(0Al) is observed in Zr-N-FEB-1. In both bentonites, a new Q³ environment is observed at ca. -91 ppm that corresponds to the transformation of montmorillonite, 2:1 phyllosilicate, to kaolinite, 1:1 phyllosilicate (Mantovani et al., 2009). It accounts with a 66.8 % for Zr-N-FEB-1 and 38.4 % for Zr-N-MX-1.

Finally, signals at ca. -111 ppm for both bentonites and at ca. -108 ppm for MX-80 are observed as due to tridymite and quartz (Mackenzie, H.J.D.; Smith, 2002), respectively.

The hydrothermal treatment of both bentonites resulted in 27 Al MAS NMR spectra (Fig. 3c) with a unique aluminium symmetric resonance at ca. 0 ppm, due to sixcoordinated aluminium. The position at ca. 0 ppm and the low quadrupolar line shape of the band (symmetry band) are compatible with aluminium in the octahedral sheet of kaolinite (Engelhardt, G.; Michel, 1987). The absence of both tetrahedral resonances is compatible with the disruption of the smectite framework (or its dissolution) and with the dissolution of the q⁴ impurities of the initial samples.

Severe damages at short range order are observed after the hydrothermal treatment of
bentonites with Zr(SO₄)₂, being more severe in Zr-S-FEB-1 than in Zr-S-MX-1 (Fig. 2d).
No ²⁹Si MAS NMR signal is observed in the Zr-S-FEB-1 spectrum (Fig. 2d, left).

However, a very broad symmetric signal is observed at ca. 104 ppm in the Zr-S-MX-1 spectrum (Fig. 2d, right), that could be interpreted as the main Si environment corresponded with Q⁴(1Zr) environment (Ferreira et al., 2001; Lin and Rocha, 2004; Mackenzie, H.J.D.; Smith, 2002) but the low spectral resolution has not allowed the quantification. The ²⁷Al MAS NMR spectra of both bentonites have a very low S/N ratio and show a very broad band at ca. 0 ppm due to aluminium in octahedral coordination (Engelhardt, G.; Michel, 1987).

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3.2. Reactivity of saponite

Fig. 4 shows the XRD pattern of the saponite before and after hydrothermal reaction with zirconium species. The original saponite (Fig. 4a) shows a pattern that is made up of the two distinct types of reflections, general and basal reflections. The basal spacing of 1.21 nm of saponite corresponds to the one-layer hydrated Na⁺ (Grim, 1968).

The remnant smectite after the hydrothermal reactions with ZrOCl₂ (Fig. 4b), show basal spacing up to 1.41 nm, in agreement with previous data reported for smectites saturated with multivalent cations (Ravina and Low, 1977). Additionally, the XRD patterns show new reflections corresponding to baddeleyite and minor reflections of zircon (ZrSiO₄) and cubic ZrO₂.

After the hydrothermal treatment with ZrO(NO₃)₂ and Zr(SO₄)₂, the XRD patterns (Fig. 4c and 4d) show the total disruption of the saponite framework and, in both cases, the XRD patterns match with baddeleyite and zircon. Whereas baddeleyite is the dominant crystalline specie of Zr-N-SAP-1 (Fig. 4c), the dominant crystalline specie of Zr-S-SAP-1 was zircon (Fig. 4d).

Finally, the XRD patterns of Zr-C-SAP-1 and Zr-N-SAP-1 (Fig. 4b and 4c) show a
background due to the presence of non-crystalline phases.

The ²⁹Si MAS NMR spectrum of the starting saponite (Fig. 5a, left) is characterized 249 by three main signals at -95.8, -90.8 and -85.0 ppm corresponding to Q³(mAl), $0 \le m \le 2$, 250 in an intensity ratio of 10:4.6:0.22 (Alba et al., 2001) (Table 4). From these results, the 251 252 Si/Al ratio can be calculated (Engelhardt, G, Lohse, U, Lippmaa, E, Tarmak, M, Magi, 1981) as 8.9, which is in good agreement with the chemical composition, Si/Al=9.0. The 253 ²⁷Al MAS NMR spectrum of the untreated saponite (Fig. 5a, right) shows a unique signal 254 centred at 65 ppm due to tetrahedral aluminium, q³(3Si) (Engelhardt, G.; Michel, 1987). 255 When the saponite is hydrothermally treated ZrOCl₂ (Fig. 5b, left), the main ²⁹Si 256 signal is centred at ca. -95 ppm, Q³(0Al) with a broad band in the chemical shift range of 257 $Q^{3}(1AI)$, in an intensity ratio 10:5.5. The deconvolution of the spectrum (Table 4) shows 258 a signal at ca. -81 ppm corresponding to zircon accounting with the 4.3 % of the total Si 259 environment and might be due to the chemical reaction of ZrO^{2+} with the saponite. The 260 two sets of signals at ca. 60 ppm and ca. 0 ppm, in the ²⁷Al MAS NMR spectrum (Fig. 261 5b, right), indicate the partial conversion of the aluminium from tetrahedral to octahedral 262 263 coordination (Engelhardt, G.; Michel, 1987).

The ²⁹Si MAS NMR spectrum of Zr-N-SAP-1 (Fig. 5c, left) is characterized by a 264 broad band in the range between -120 and -70 ppm. This band is the convolution of six 265 peaks (Table 4). The peak at ca. -82 ppm corresponds to zircon (Cota et al., 2013) and 266 accounts with the 10.7 % of the total Si environment. And the four peaks at lower 267 chemical shifts correspond to Si Q⁴(mZr), $0 \le m \le 2$, (Ferreira et al., 2001; Lin and Rocha, 268 2004; Mackenzie, H.J.D.; Smith, 2002); those zeolites were not observed by XRD 269 because they are amorphous. The ²⁷Al MAS NMR spectrum (Fig. 5c, right) is 270 characterized by a narrow signal at ca. 0 ppm due to aluminium in octahedral coordination 271 (Engelhardt, G.; Michel, 1987) and corroborates the total disruption of the saponite 272 273 framework as previously observed by XRD.

Finally, the ²⁹Si MAS NMR spectrum of Zr-S-SAP-1 (Fig. 5d, left) is characterized by a broad symmetric band at ca. -81 ppm corresponds to zircon (Cota et al., 2013) and accounts with the 100 % of the total Si environment. No signal in the ²⁷Al MAS NMR spectrum (Fig. 5d, right) is observed due to the total breakdown of the saponite framework and leaching of the aluminium to the supernatant.

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280 4. Discussion

After the hydrothermal treatment, in general, the main phase was ZrO₂, as previously reported for the heating of zirconium salt solutions (Kim and Kim, 1995). The monoclinic polymorph is more abundant than the cubic one (Fig. 1 and 4). The prevalence of the monoclinic polymorph is in good agreement with the stability range of ZrO₂ observed in the thermal decomposition of zirconium salts to generate ZrO₂ (Stefanic et al., 1996).

286 The precipitation of Zr as oxide was accompanied by the disruption of the smectite framework that generated amorphous phases as noticed by the background of the XRD 287 288 patterns (Fig. 1 and 4). In the case of bentonites, the original montmorillonite was transformed to kaolinite, as previously observed in bentonites that reacted with chemical 289 analogous of actinides (Osuna et al., 2015). Other additional effects on the remnant 290 smectites were: i) the swelling of the interlayer space associated to the replacement of 291 original monovalent and/or divalent cations by trivalent cations leached from the 292 framework, as observed by ²⁷Al MAS NMR (Fig. 3 and Fig. 5 right), or tetravalent 293 cations from zirconium solutions, ZrO^{2+} or Zr^{4+} ; and; ii) the dissolution of the impurities 294 (quartz and tridymite), as previously reported in acid hydrothermal treatment (Osuna et 295 al., 2015). 296

The disruption of 2:1 phyllosilicate structure is quantified by ²⁹Si MAS NMR (Tables
2, 3 and 4) and it depends on the clay mineral stability in acid media and on the reaction

degree. In the case of bentonites, the montmorillonite was transformed to kaolinite and 299 generated zirconium silicates such as orthosilicates, Q⁰, and tectosilicates, Q⁴. The 300 amount of remnant montmorillonite was higher in Zr-N-FEB-1 than in Zr-N-MX-1, but 301 302 the transformation to kaolinite was higher in FEBEX, probably due to its higher content on montmorillonite. In the case of FEBEX, the formation of zirconium silicates was lower 303 due to its higher transformation in kaolinite because crystallization of different secondary 304 305 phases such as the oxide of zirconium instead of silicates is favoured in presence of kaolinite (Poinssot et al., 1996b). The lower octahedral isomorphic substitution of the 306 montmorillonite component of MX80 and the presence of Na⁺ instead of Ca²⁺ in its 307 308 interlayer space seem to favour the chemical reaction of bentonite with zirconium (Osuna 309 et al., 2015).

The reaction progress of saponite in $ZrOCl_2$ was similar to bentonite FEBEX (Table 2 and 3), ca. 4.3 % of zirconium silicate was formed. The reaction of saponite with ZrO(NO₃)₂ and Zr(SO₄)₂ produced a 100 % of Si reaction to form zirconium silicate. For Zr-N-SAP-1 the main silicate was a tectosilicate and a orthosilicate, ZrSiO₄, was the unique silicate formed for Zr-S-SAP-1. In any case, the reactivity of saponite to form zirconium silicate was higher than for bentonites due to tetrahedral substitutions and the trioctahedral character of the smectite (Alba et al., 2001, 2001).

Sharma and Sharma (Sharma and Sharma, 2013b) reported that the type of anion present in a background ionic medium had an effect on cation selectivity and specific sorption of inorganic anions could modulate the negative surface charge, and, then its reactivity. Here, the phase evolution was also influenced by the counterion; the $SO4^{2-}$ favoured the formation of zirconium silicates (Fig. 4d and 5d) whereas Cl⁻ and NO3⁻ favoured the formation of ZrO₂ (Fig. 4b, 4c, 5b and 5c). It was reported by Bleier and Cannon (Bleier, A.; Cannon, 1986) that the nuclei and primary crystallites of hydrous ZrO_2 are formed through the bridging of zirconium species by OH ligands in ZrOCl₂ or ZrO(NO₃)₂ solutions and particles of hydrous ZrO₂ are subsequently precipitated through the aggregation of these crystallites.

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328 5. Conclusions

The structural analysis has demonstrated that the hydrothermal treatment not only caused the cation exchange of ZrO^{2+} or Zr^{4+} by clay minerals, but also two other mechanisms, the precipitation/crystallization of ZrO_2 and the chemical interaction with the clay minerals, with the formation of zirconium silicates, were involved.

333 The nature of the clay and the counterion influences the main retention mechanisms,

334 precipitation and chemical reaction, and the structure of the new zirconium phases.

335 Thus, the formation of new zirconium insoluble phases, oxides and silicates, points

out the efficiency of the clay mineral barrier for the building of a safe HLRW disposal.

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338 Declaration of Competing Interest

339 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal

340 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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468

Table 1

Samples and experimental variables

	adsorbent	sorbent Zirconium source			_			
samples	Saponite	FEBEX	MX80	ZrOCl ₂	$ZrO(NO_3)_2$	$Zr(SO_4)_4$	pН	g salt
Zr-N-SAP-1							1.4	1.303
Zr-N-FEB-1							1.4	1.303
Zr-N-MX-1							1.4	1.303
Zr-C-SAP-1							1.4	1.175
Zr-C-FEB-1							1.4	1.175
Zr-C-MX-1							1.4	1.175
Zr-S-SAP-1							1.0	1.330
Zr-S-FEB-1							1.0	1.330
Zr-S-MX-1							1.0	1.330

Table 2

 $^{29}\mathrm{Si}$ MAS NMR fit parameters of FEBEX before and after treatments

1	8 ()	E 11 (II)	0/	• .•
samples	δ (ppm)	Fwhh (Hz)	%	assignation
FEB	-87.3 ± 0.1	200±33	5.0 ± 0.6	$Q^{3}(1Al)$
	-93.85±0.01	391±2	85±1	$Q^{3}(0Al)$
	-108.52 ± 0.09	461±23	9.8 ± 0.4	quartz
Zr-C-FEB-1	-81.06 ± 0.1	140 ± 25	1.1 ± 0.1	zircon
	-95.9±0.1	1187±19	69±1	$Q^{3}(0Al)$
	-102.9 ± 0.2	304±56	$3.2{\pm}0.9$	$Q^4(1Zr)$
	110.9 ± 0.2	1034±32	26.6 ± 0.9	tridymite
Zr-N-FEB-1	-82±2	1033±164	4.4 ± 0.5	zircon
	-88.5 ± 0.5	542±138	10 ± 1	$Q^4(2Zr)$
	-91.05 ± 0.01	168±5	67±5	kaolinite
	-95.0 ± 0.1	281±42	9±1	$Q^{3}(0Al)$
	-103.4 ± 0.4	613±109	4.3 ± 0.4	$Q^4(1Zr)$
	-111.1±0.2	421±48	4.8 ± 0.5	tridymite
Zr-S-FEB-1	n.s.			
4				

n.s.= not signal

	-				
samples	δ (ppm)	Fwhh (Hz)	%	assignation	
MX	-93.66±0.02	727±4	77.8±0.3	$Q^{3}(0Al)$	
	-101.4 ± 0.1	257±29	2.6 ± 0.3	Q^4	
	-107.83 ± 0.02	111±7	4.7 ± 0.5	quartz	
	-109.64 ± 0.05	240±7	15.0 ± 0.5	tridymite	
Zr-C-MX-1		v.b			
Zr-N-MX-1	-82.0 ± 0.5	626±109	3.5 ± 0.7	zircon	
	-91.22±0.01	159.5±1.4	38.4 ± 0.5	kaolinite	
	-91.50±0.06	778±22	41.0 ± 0.9	$Q^4(2Zr)$	
	-103.5±0.1	330±44	3.6±0.4	$Q^4(1Zr)$	
	-107.58 ± 0.02	166±7	7.3 ± 0.3	quartz	
	-110.87 ± 0.08	297±16	6.1±0.3	tridymite	
Zr-S-MX-1		v.b			
v b = vow broad					

²⁹Si MAS NMR fit parameters of MX-80 before and after treatments

v.b.= very broad

Table 3.

Table 4.

²⁹Si MAS NMR fit parameters of saponite before and after treatments

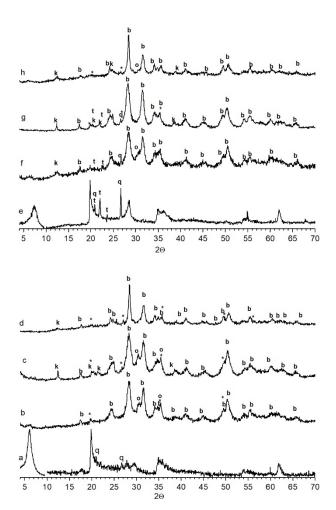
samples	δ (ppm)	Fwhh (Hz)	%	assignation
SAP	-85.9 ± 0.2	588±31	1.5 ± 0.3	$Q^{3}(2Al)$
	-90.80 ± 0.01	645±6	31.1±0.3	$Q^{3}(1Al)$
	-95.78 ± 0.01	196±11	67.4 ± 0.2	$Q^{3}(0Al)$
Zr-C-SAP-1	-81.4 ± 0.1	455±37	4.3±0.3	zircon
	-90.79 ± 0.06	516±12	34±1	$Q^{3}(1Al)$
	-95.54 ± 0.02	381±3	61.8 ± 0.9	$Q^{3}(0Al)$
Zr-N-SAP-1	-82.1 ± 0.2	533±21	10.7 ± 0.7	zircon
	-85.4 ± 0.1	207±45	3.2 ± 0.7	$Q^4(2Zr)$
	-92.9 ± 0.1	843±27	24±2	$Q^4(2Zr)$
	-101.6 ± 0.1	947±39	27±2	$Q^4(1Zr)$
	-110.57 ± 0.05	761±8	36±2	$Q^4(0Zr)$
Zr-S-SAP-1	-82.09±0.07	1678±15	100.0 ± 0.0	zircon

471 CAPTION OF FIGURES

472 Fig. 1. XRD of bentonite FEBEX and MX-80, before and after the hydrothermal

- treatment in presence of zirconium aqueous solution: a) FEB; b) Zr-C-FEB-1; c) Zr-N-
- 474 FEB-1; d) Zr-S-FEB-1; e) MX; f) Zr-C-MX-1; g) Zr-N-MX-1; and; h) Zr-S-MX-1.
- 475 *=zircon (ZrSiO₄) PDF 04-007-5058; o=cubic ZrO₂ PDF 04-015-0098; k=kaolinite PDF
- 476 00-001-0527; b=baddeleyite (monoclinic ZrO₂) PDF 00-037-1484; t=tridymite PDF 04-
- 477 011-3620; and; q=quartz PDF 00-003-0419.
- 478 Fig. 2. ²⁹Si MAS NMR spectra of bentonite FEBEX (left) and MX-80 (right) before and
- after the hydrothermal treatment in presence of a zirconium aqueous solution: a) FEB or
- 480 MX-80; b) Zr-C-FEB-1 or Zr-C-MX-1; c) Zr-N-FEB-1 or Zr-N-MX-1; and; d) Zr-S-
- 481 FEB-1 or Zr-S-MX-1.
- 482 Fig. 3. ²⁷Al MAS NMR spectra of bentonite FEBEX (left) and MX-80 (right) before and
- 483 after the hydrothermal treatment in presence of a zirconium aqueous solution: a) FEB or
- 484 MX-80; b) Zr-C-FEB-1 or Zr-C-MX-1; c) Zr-N-FEB-1 or Zr-N-MX-1; and; d) Zr-S-
- 485 FEB-1 or Zr-S-MX-1.
- 486 Fig. 4. XRD of saponite before and after the hydrothermal treatment in presence of
- 487 zirconium aqueous solution: a) SAP; b) Zr-C-SAP-1; c) Zr-N-SAP-1; and; d) Zr-S-SAP-
- 488 1. *=zircon (ZrSiO₄) PDF 04-007-5058; o=cubic ZrO₂ PDF 04-015-0098; and;
- 489 b=baddeleyite (monoclinic ZrO₂) PDF 00-037-1484
- 490 Fig. 5. ²⁹Si and ²⁷Al MAS NMR spectra of saponite before and after the hydrothermal
- 491 treatment in presence of a zirconium aqueous solution: a) SAP; b) Zr-C-SAP-1; c) Zr-N-
- 492 SAP-1; and; d) Zr-S-SAP-1.

FIG. 1



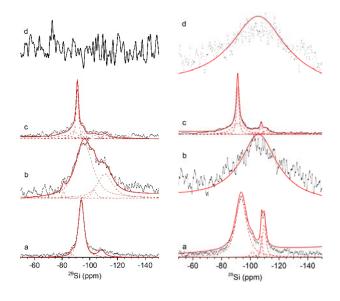


FIG. 3

