

Journal of Nuclear Materials 255 (1998) 234-242

journal of nuclear materials

# The influence of nitrogen dioxide on the oxidation of $UO_2$ in air at temperatures below 275°C

Roderick J. McEachern<sup>\*</sup>, Sham Sunder<sup>1</sup>, Peter Taylor, Diane C. Doern, Neil H. Miller, Donald D. Wood

Research Chemistry Branch, Atomic Energy of Canada, Whiteshell Laboratories, Pinawa, Manitoba, Canada ROE 1L0

Received 18 September 1997; accepted 20 January 1998

## Abstract

Specimens of polycrystalline, sintered UO<sub>2</sub> were cut from unirradiated CANDU fuel, and heated in air or air + NO<sub>2</sub> mixtures (up to 1 vol.% NO<sub>2</sub>), to investigate the effects of nitrogen oxides on the rates of oxidation to U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>7</sub> and U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>8</sub>. Oxidized specimens were analyzed by X-ray diffraction (XRD) and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy to determine the extent of surface oxidation. The kinetic expression for the formation of U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>7</sub> was initially parabolic, but switched to linear at long reaction times. The first, parabolic stage of oxidation to U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>7</sub> was accelerated slightly by the addition of small quantities of NO<sub>2</sub> to air, probably because NO<sub>2</sub> increases the oxygen potential of the outermost surface of the UO<sub>2</sub> by forming a thin film of UO<sub>3</sub>. The rate of oxidation in the region of linear kinetics is approximately the same for all atmospheres up to 1.0% NO<sub>2</sub>. The effect of NO<sub>2</sub> on the rate of U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>8</sub>. However, it appears that there is a substantial increase in the rate of formation of higher oxides (U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>8</sub> and possibly also UO<sub>3</sub>) in the presence of NO<sub>2</sub>. These results indicate that the effect of nitrogen oxides (which are formed by radiolysis of air) should be included in detailed models of air oxidation of irradiated fuel. © 1998 Elsevier Science B.V. All rights reserved.

## 1. Introduction

The oxidation of  $UO_2$  to  $U_3O_8$  has been investigated intensively for over 40 years ([1], and references therein). One reason for this sustained interest is that the 36% volume increase, associated with the conversion of  $UO_2$  to  $U_3O_8$ , can cause swelling and splitting of defective fuel elements stored in air at elevated temperatures [2–4]. Therefore, it is important to understand the kinetics of  $U_3O_8$  formation on irradiated  $UO_2$  fuel under dry storage conditions.

Small amounts of nitrogen oxides are known to influence the kinetics of air oxidation of  $UO_2$ . This may be relevant to dry storage of irradiated  $UO_2$  fuel, because  $NO_x$  compounds can be formed by the radiolysis of air in a storage vessel; in the presence of moisture, nitric acid is also formed. Accelerated oxidation of  $UO_2$  powder by  $NO_2-O_2$  mixtures, as compared with pure oxygen, was first reported over 40 years ago [5]. More recently, researchers at Pacific Northwest Laboratories found that the addition of 1%  $NO_2$  to air accelerates the oxidation of unirradiated  $UO_2$  pellets at 215 to 250°C [6–8]; however, variations in sample densities prevented quantitative interpretation of this work.

In addition to accelerating the oxidation of  $UO_2$ , small quantities of  $NO_2$  can apparently cause the oxidation to proceed beyond  $U_3O_8$  to  $UO_3$  [6–8]. Reported values for the density of  $UO_3$  range from 6.67 to 8.54 g cm<sup>-3</sup>, depending on the method of measurement and the crystallographic form of  $UO_3$  [9]. It should be noted that some forms of  $UO_3$  are difficult to distinguish from  $U_3O_8$  by X-ray diffraction (XRD). Oxidation of  $U_3O_8$  in  $NO_2$  apparently yields the densest form,  $\varepsilon$ - $UO_3$ , which would not introduce any additional volume change beyond that for

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author. Present address: PCS Inc., Allan Division, Allan, Sask., Canada S0K 0C0. Tel.: +1-306 257 3312; fax: +1-306 257 4240.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Present address: Chalk River Laboratories, Chalk River, Ontario, Canada K0J 1J0.

<sup>0022-3115/98/\$19.00 © 1998</sup> Elsevier Science B.V. All rights reserved. PII: S0022-3115(98)00036-1

There is evidence that the quantities of nitrogen oxides generated by gamma radiolysis of a limited volume of air are sufficient to accelerate UO<sub>2</sub> oxidation significantly [6]. These findings are not surprising. Nitrogen dioxide is a "more efficient oxidizing agent than oxygen in the temperature range 100–500°C" [10]. As long ago as 1949, Katz and Gruen [11] found that the reaction of U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>8</sub> with NO<sub>2</sub> at 250–350°C yields UO<sub>3</sub>. However, estimates vary widely as to the concentrations of nitrogen oxides likely to be present in a storage vessel [12–14], and their effect on UO<sub>2</sub> oxidation kinetics is difficult to quantify. Here, we describe an attempt to address the latter problem, by specifically measuring the effects of small concentrations (up to 1.0 vol.%) of NO<sub>2</sub> on the two stages of oxidation of UO<sub>2</sub>, i.e., to U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>7</sub><sup>-2</sup> and U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>8</sub>.

# 2. Experimental

Disks of polycrystalline UO<sub>2</sub> were prepared by slicing pellets of unirradiated CANDU fuel with a low-speed diamond saw. Specimens were prepared with different surface finishes for experiments focusing on the two stages of oxidation. The formation of  $U_3O_7$  proceeds by a diffusion-controlled uniform layer-thickening mechanism, which is best studied on a highly polished surface [15,16]. Therefore, specimens of UO2 were polished with successively finer media, concluding with 0.05-µm particle-size alumina, in order to examine the effect of NO<sub>2</sub> on the rate of  $U_3O_7$  formation. The formation of  $U_3O_8$ , in contrast, proceeds by a nucleation-and-growth mechanism. Previous experience has shown that this occurs most reproducibly on relatively rough surfaces [17-19]. Therefore, some UO<sub>2</sub> specimens were prepared with a 400-grit finish to examine the effect of  $NO_2$  on the rate of  $U_3O_8$  formation.

Compressed, non-standard gas mixtures (air plus 0.1, 0.5, and 1.0 vol.% NO<sub>2</sub>) were supplied by Canadian Liquid Air. Specimens were oxidized in a slow-flowing stream (~ 5 ml min<sup>-1</sup>) of the air/NO<sub>2</sub> mixtures, or in flowing air, in a small (200 cm<sup>3</sup>), vented glass cell mounted inside a Ney Vulcan 3-130 oven, as shown schematically in Fig. 1. The temperature of the oven at the UO<sub>2</sub> sample location (on the floor of the cell) was calibrated relative to the location of the built-in (control) thermocouple, and corrected temperatures are reported herein. Actual temperatures



Fig. 1. Illustration of the apparatus used to oxidize  $UO_2$  in the presence of air/NO<sub>2</sub> mixtures.

atures were up to 6°C lower than the nominal set-point value. Experimental temperatures (nominally 225–275°C) and durations ( $\sim 1-60$  h) were selected on the basis of previous experience to yield enough of the target oxidation products to be analyzed by XRD, with complementary surface analysis by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). A few low-temperature (e.g., 150°C) short-duration tests were also performed in order to probe the very early stages of oxidation by XPS alone.

Selected specimens from many of the  $U_3O_7$  formation tests were examined by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy, using a PHI-5300 ESCA system, as described elsewhere [20–23]. The XPS spectra were excited using Al-filtered Mg K  $\alpha$  radiation from a source operating at 300 W. The energy scale of the spectrometer was calibrated using the following line positions of noble metals: Au 4f<sub>7/2</sub>, 84.0 eV; Ag 3d<sub>5/2</sub>, 368.3 eV; and Cu 2p<sub>3/2</sub>, 932.56 eV [24–26]. The UO<sub>2</sub> pellet was mounted on an XPS sample holder (PHI Model 190) and out-gassed by pumping for at least 30 min in the side-arm of the spectrometer, before introducing it into the analysis chamber to record its spectra.

Most specimens from the  $U_3O_7$  formation tests, and all of those from the  $U_3O_8$  formation tests, were examined by XRD, using a Rigaku Rotaflex diffractometer equipped with a 12-kW rotating-anode Cu K $\alpha$  source and a diffracted-beam monochromator. Whenever the same specimen was examined by both XPS and XRD, the XPS work was done first, because this technique is more sensitive to surface contamination, which could potentially occur during transfer and handling.

## 3. Results and discussion

# 3.1. Experiments on the kinetics of $U_3O_7$ formation

#### 3.1.1. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy

Low-resolution survey spectra were recorded for the 0to 1100-eV region to determine the elements present in the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The nature of the product of the first stage of UO<sub>2</sub> oxidation varies with the oxidizing conditions and the type of fuel [1]; for example, irradiated light-water reactor fuel forms a cubic  $U_4O_{9+y}$  phase rather than tetragonal  $U_3O_7$ . Because the experiments described here were performed with unirradiated UO<sub>2</sub> fuel, we refer to the intermediate product as  $U_3O_7$ .

sample surface and to check for surface contamination. High-resolution spectra were recorded for the U 4f, O 1s and C 1s regions and the valence bands (0–20 eV), to determine the chemical state of these elements (the carbon signal was due to ubiquitous hydrocarbons present on solid surfaces). The C 1s band was used to correct for charging, by assuming a binding energy value of 284.8 eV for this peak [20,25]. Spectra were recorded at more than one escape angle [24,26] for most of the samples to determine the changes, if any, in the degree of oxidation of the UO<sub>2</sub> samples with surface depth (the XPS sampling depth is a few nanometres).

The band due to the U  $4f_{7/2}$  core level is very sensitive to the chemical state of the uranium atoms, and can be quantitatively resolved into U<sup>6+</sup> and U<sup>4+</sup> components, as described elsewhere ([22–24,27] and references therein). The relative area of the U<sup>6+</sup> and U<sup>4+</sup> peaks is a direct measure of the oxidation state of the uranium atoms in the sample surface. Results obtained from the analysis of the U  $4f_{7/2}$  band were verified by analyzing the relative intensities of the bands in the valence region. Table 1 gives a summary of all the XPS results, expressed as both U<sup>6+</sup>/U<sup>4+</sup> ratio and % U<sup>6+</sup>, obtained by analyzing the U

Table 2  $U^{+6}/U^{+4}$  ratios for various uranium oxides

Formula	$U^{+6}/U^{+4}$ ratio	% U <sup>+6</sup>	
UQa	0.0	0.0	
$U_4O_9$	0.33	25.0	
$U_3O_7$	0.5	33.3	
$U_2O_5$	1.0	50.0	
$U_3O_8$	2.0	66.7	
UO <sub>3</sub>	$\infty$	100.0	

 $4f_{7/2}$  band. Table 2 lists the expected values of these quantities for various known oxides of uranium.

The U<sup>6+</sup>/U<sup>4+</sup> ratio for freshly polished samples, using the procedure described in Section 2, indicates slight oxidation of the UO<sub>2</sub> surface. The observed values of around 0.3 are significantly higher than those typically observed ( $\leq 0.05$ ) for pellets subjected to a brief, vigorous polishing procedure used in our previous studies [20,22,23]. This suggests that the prolonged, fine polishing procedure used in the present study leads to some surface oxidation of UO<sub>2</sub>. We believe that this increased oxidation seen after

Table 1 XPS results on  $UO_2$  oxidation from the analysis of U  $4f_{7/2}$  band

Sample number	$NO_2$ mol%	Conditions		$U^{6+}/U^{4+}$ ratio		% U <sup>6+</sup>			
		Time (h)	Temp. (°C)	Escape angle		Escape angle			
				$\overline{25^{\circ}}$	45°	65°	$\overline{25^{\circ}}$	45°	65°
1	a				0.48	0.45		32.3	31.1
1a	а			0.38	0.32	0.15	27.5	24.2	13.0
S1	а				0.38			27.5	
S2	b				0.05			4.5	
2	0.0	5	269		0.84	0.56		45.7	35.7
2b	0.0	15	269	0.86	0.47	0.33	46.2	32.0	24.8
3	0.1	5	269		6.7	2.6		87.0	71.8
4	0.5	5	269		191	220		99.5	99.5
5	1.0	5	269		13	4.5		92.9	81.7
6	0.0	15	245		1.41	0.56		58.5	35.7
7	0.1	15	245		5.0	4.81		83.3	82.8
8	0.5	15	245		11.3	5.79		91.8	85.3
9	1.0	15	245		21.8	7.38		95.6	88.1
10	0.0	15	224		0.98	0.56		49.4	35.8
11	0.1	15	224		4.4	2.7		81.5	72.8
12	0.5	15	224		6.7	2.4		87.0	70.6
13	1.0	15	224		1.30	0.77		56.5	43.5
13a	1.0	15	224	2.55	1.78	1.34	71.8	64.0	57.3
14	0.0	15	200		0.64	0.45		39.2	31.2
15	0.1	16.5	200		2.2	0.76		68.8	43.3
16	0.5	15	200		3.4	1.3		77.0	56.5
17	1.0	15	200		4.8	1.24		82.8	55.4
18	0.0	4	150		0.99			49.7	
19	1.0	4	150		1.23			55.2	

<sup>a</sup>Freshly polished UO<sub>2</sub>.

<sup>b</sup>Prepared by extensive rough polishing (600-grit), using the method described in Refs. [22,23].

'fine polishing' is a result of the longer polishing time (i.e., longer exposure to air), along with local surface heating and perhaps also an increase in the surface reactivity of the UO<sub>2</sub> sample. The decrease in the  $U^{6+}/U^{4+}$ ratio with increasing photoelectron escape angles (Table 1) indicates that this oxidation is limited to the outermost few molecular layers, and is therefore well below the detection limit for XRD analysis. Fig. 2 compares the XPS spectrum for the U 4f region of a finely polished UO<sub>2</sub> surface, prepared during this study (sample 1a), with that of a  $UO_2$ surface subjected to brief polishing with a 600-grit SiC abrasive paper (i.e., the method described in Refs. [22,23]). Fig. 3 compares the analyses of the U  $4f_{7/2}$  bands of these two samples. The three smooth curves overlaid on each spectrum represent the calculated  $U^{6+}$  and  $U^{4+}$  components (centred at about 381.1 eV and 379.8 eV, respectively) and their sum. Note the much larger U<sup>6+</sup> component observed for the highly polished specimen.

The data in Table 1 show that the presence of  $NO_2$  in air increased the average surface oxidation state of uranium in UO<sub>2</sub> specimens at all oxidation temperatures used in the present study. Fig. 4 compares the analyses of the U  $4f_{7/2}$  bands of two UO<sub>2</sub> samples subjected to oxidation in air alone, and in air containing 1% NO<sub>2</sub>; note the much larger U<sup>6+</sup> component of the spectrum in the latter case. At temperatures  $\geq 200^{\circ}$ C, the presence of NO<sub>2</sub> in air leads to the formation of a thin layer of oxide with a  $U^{6+}/U^{4+}$  ratio greater than 2, i.e., a surface composition beyond  $U_3O_8$  and approaching  $UO_3$  (Table 2). This highly



Fig. 2. XPS Spectra for the U 4f Region of UO<sub>2</sub> disks prior to oxidation. (Upper) Highly polished specimen, as described in Section 2 (sample 1a of Table 1). (Lower) Specimen subjected to brief, vigorous polishing with 600-grit SiC abrasive paper as described in Refs. [22,23] (sample S2 of Table 1).



BINDING ENERGY (eV)

Fig. 3. Analyses of U 4f7/2 bands in the XPS spectra of UO2 disks prior to oxidation. (Upper) Highly polished specimen, as described in Section 2 (sample 1a of Table 1). (Lower) Specimen subjected to brief, vigorous polishing with 600-grit SiC abrasive paper as described in Refs. [22,23] (sample S2 of Table 1).

oxidized layer is very thin, as indicated by the generally lower values of the  $U^{6+}/U^{4+}$  ratio at higher escape angles. The one exception is specimen 4 (5 h at 269°C



BINDING ENERGY (eV)

Fig. 4. Analyses of U  $4f_{7/2}$  bands in the XPS spectra of UO<sub>2</sub> disks heated at 200°C for 15 h in: (upper) air + 1% NO<sub>2</sub> (sample 17 of Table 1); (lower) air alone (sample 14 of Table 1).

with 0.5% NO<sub>2</sub>), which is essentially fully oxidized (> 99%  $U^{6+}$ ) within the depth accessible to analysis by XPS.

We did not attempt to determine a depth profile of the  $U^{6+}/U^{4+}$  ratio near a specimen surface, because ion-milling (sputtering) causes rapid reduction of  $U^{6+}$  back to  $U^{4+}$ . Although we are thus unable to give a more detailed description of the changes in the surface composition during oxidation, it is quite clear from the data given in Table 1 that the UO<sub>2</sub> samples experienced increased oxidation in the presence of NO<sub>2</sub>.

As noted above, several researchers have reported that NO<sub>2</sub> is capable of oxidizing lower oxides of uranium to UO<sub>3</sub>. Presumably, when the NO<sub>2</sub> is present at low concentrations and moderate temperatures, formation of UO<sub>3</sub> is limited to a surface film, below which a thicker layer of intermediate oxides can form by diffusion of oxygen into the underlying UO<sub>2</sub> crystal structure. This process is similar to the normal mechanism of air oxidation ([1] and references therein). Oxidation reactions with NO<sub>2</sub> commonly involve its reduction to NO [10,11]. The surface reaction of UO<sub>2</sub> with NO<sub>2</sub> can be represented by reaction (1) or the simplified mechanistic expression (2):

$$UO_2 + NO_2 \rightarrow UO_3 + NO \tag{1}$$

 $U^{4+}$ (surface) + NO<sub>2</sub>(adsorbed)  $\rightarrow$   $U^{6+}$ (surface)

$$+ O^{2-}(surface) + NO(gas).$$
 (2)

It is well known that NO is rapidly converted to  $NO_2$  by oxygen, even at low temperatures (Eq. (3)):

$$2NO + O_2 \rightarrow 2NO_2. \tag{3}$$

Thus, small quantities of  $NO_2$  probably catalyse the reaction of oxygen with  $UO_2$ , rather than acting independently as an additional strong oxidant.

#### 3.1.2. X-ray powder diffractometry

Previous work has shown that XRD can be used successfully for the study of surface oxidation of UO<sub>2</sub>, when the oxidized layer is between 0.1 and 2.0 µm thick [15,28]. The XRD patterns of the samples oxidized in this study generally showed progressive oxidation of  $UO_2$  to  $\beta$ -U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>7</sub> (or a similar phase), much as described in Ref. [15]. A representative XRD pattern is shown in Fig. 5a. The thickness of the surface layer of U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>7</sub> was determined by measuring the integrated intensity  $I(UO_2)$  of the [200] diffraction maximum of UO<sub>2</sub> (d = 0.2735 nm,  $2\theta =$ 32.72°) relative to the intensity,  $I(U_3O_7)$  of the [002] peak for  $U_3O_7$  (d = 0.2689 nm,  $2\theta = 33.29^\circ$ ). The [200] diffraction maximum of  $U_3O_7$  (d = 0.2773 nm,  $2\theta = 32.26^{\circ}$ ) was negligible, because it was greatly diminished by preferred orientation. This phenomenon, and similar effects on other  $U_3O_7$  peaks, has been discussed elsewhere [15]. The XRD peaks used in the present analysis were chosen because they showed the best resolution of  $U_3O_7$  from the  $UO_2$ substrate. Also, being relatively low-angle features, they



Fig. 5. Representative X-ray diffraction patterns of UO<sub>2</sub> specimens oxidized in air+0.1% NO<sub>2</sub>: (a) at 269°C for 2 h, showing typical U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>7</sub> features (x); (b) at 275°C for 6 h, showing typical broad features associated with U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>8</sub> or UO<sub>3</sub> (o).

provide a sensitive measure of layer thickness in the convenient range from 0.1 to 0.5  $\mu$ m.

The thickness,  $\tau$ , of the U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>7</sub> layer on the oxidized specimens was calculated using the approximation (Eq. (4)) derived from Ref. [15], where  $\theta$  is the Bragg angle of the XRD peak and  $\mu$  is the linear absorption coefficient of U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>7</sub> for Cu K $\alpha$  X-rays,  $3.9 \times 10^5$  m<sup>-1</sup>:

$$\frac{I(U_3O_7)}{\left[I(UO_2) + I(U_3O_7)\right]} \approx 1 - \exp(-2\mu\tau\operatorname{cosec}\theta).$$
(4)

The calculated  $U_3O_7$  layer thicknesses, arranged by oxidation time, temperature and atmosphere, are presented in Table 3 and representative plots are shown in Figs. 6

Table 3 Calculated thicknesses of  $U_3O_7$  layers formed on  $UO_2$  specimens oxidized in air or in air/NO<sub>2</sub> mixtures

Temp.	Time	$U_3O_7$ layer thickness ( $\mu$ m)					
(°C) (ł	(h)	Air	0.1% NO <sub>2</sub>	0.5% NO <sub>2</sub>	1% NO <sub>2</sub>		
224	3	0.096	0.139	0.198	0.247		
	6	0.147	0.203	0.297	0.375		
	9	0.187	0.249	0.339	0.433		
	12	0.217	0.270	0.392	0.456		
	15	0.240	0.298	0.421	0.482		
245	1	_	0.075	0.219	0.163		
	2	-	0.141	0.273	0.198		
	3	0.245	0.261	0.436	0.291		
	6	0.303	0.288	0.486	0.429		
	9	0.337	0.340	_	0.480		
	12	0.375	0.381	_	0.503		
	15	0.430	0.431	_	0.551		
269	1	0.131	0.226	0.258	0.329		
	2	0.215	0.275	0.329	0.378		
	3	0.254	0.319	0.402	0.414		
	4	0.317	0.345	0.384	0.438		
	5	0.335	0.373	0.429	0.465		



Fig. 6. Thickness of  $U_3O_7$  layer formed on  $UO_2$  disks heated in flowing air or air/NO<sub>2</sub> mixtures for various periods of time at 224°C.

and 7. The data indicate two stages in the  $U_3O_7$  growth kinetics: parabolic up to a thickness of about 0.3  $\mu$ m, and linear beyond. This is consistent with several reports cited in Ref. [1]. The parabolic stage dominates in the 224°C data (Fig. 6), and the linear stage is predominant in the 269°C data (Fig. 7).

The parabolic reaction kinetics can be fitted to Eq. (5):

$$\tau = \left(kt\right)^{1/2},\tag{5}$$

where t (s) is the time and k (m<sup>2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) is the empirically determined parabolic rate constant. The initial stage of the oxidation reaction was parabolic (Figs. 6 and 7), so the value of k was calculated, for each temperature and concentration of NO<sub>2</sub>, by a least-squares fit of the first two data points (plus the origin) to Eq. (5). The resulting rate constants are presented in Table 4. In a few cases (air + NO<sub>2</sub> at 269°C), where reaction rapidly reached the linearkinetics stage, this procedure tends to underestimate k; this is indicated in Table 4 by presenting the k values as upper limits.



Fig. 7. Thickness of  $U_3O_7$  layer formed on  $UO_2$  disks heated in flowing air or air/NO<sub>2</sub> mixtures for various periods of time at 269°C.

The linear portion of the reaction kinetics was fitted to Eq. (6):

$$\tau = k't, \tag{6}$$

where the linear rate constant k' (m s<sup>-1</sup>) was determined by linear regression of the last three data points in the reaction curve (e.g., Figs. 6 and 7). The rate constants thus calculated are presented in Table 4. In the case of some of the data for 224°C, the experiment was terminated before the reaction had clearly switched to linear kinetics; the corresponding linear rate constants presented in Table 4 are given as upper limits only.

Examination of the results summarized in Table 4 reveals that the parabolic stage of  $U_3O_7$  growth is dependent on NO<sub>2</sub> concentration, but the linear stage is not. The parabolic stage is consistent with rate-control by chemical diffusion of oxygen through the product layer. This diffusion appears to be accelerated by the formation of an outermost film of highly oxidized material in the presence of NO<sub>2</sub> (see Section 3.1.1). The presence of 1% NO<sub>2</sub> enhances the rate of the diffusion-controlled  $U_3O_7$  formation reaction by about a factor of 2 to 4.

In contrast to the parabolic kinetics, the rate of the linear stage of  $U_3O_7$  layer growth appears to be independent of NO<sub>2</sub> concentration (Table 4), at least at the low concentrations studied herein. McEachern and Taylor [1] concluded that this stage is "a multifarious process involving cracking and both grain-boundary and intragranular oxidation". We suggest that the linear kinetic stage observed in the present study is the result of relatively rapid transport of both O2 and NO2 through a microcracked outer region, followed by diffusion-controlled oxygen transport through an intact, inner region approximately 0.3  $\mu$ m in thickness. The rate of U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>7</sub> formation is thus limited by the rate of cracking (which allows rapid transport of oxidants to the interior of the sample) which is not dependent on the concentration of NO2 in the oxidizing atmosphere.

We recognize that the calculated values of k and k' would be improved if more data were available for each combination of temperature and atmosphere. However, experimental limitations, in particular the need to cool and remove specimens for XRD, restricted the frequency of sampling and analysis.

# 3.2. Experiments on the kinetics of $U_3O_8$ formation

We have fewer data to report for the second step of oxidation (to  $U_3O_8$ ) than for the first step (to  $U_3O_7$ ). The number of experiments was limited by time, and by the availability of specialty gas mixtures. Specifically, the experiments required flowing air/NO<sub>2</sub> mixtures, which would be difficult to maintain for the very long reaction times (weeks near 250°C; months near 200°C; years near 150°C) required to measure  $U_3O_8$  formation by XRD at lower temperatures [1,17,19,22,23]. Moreover, since our

Table 4 Parabolic (k) and linear (k') rate constants for the formation of  $U_3O_7$  on the surface of  $UO_2$  in air and air/NO<sub>2</sub> mixtures . . . .  $(a \rightarrow)$ 

Model	Temp (°C)	Rate constant"					
		Air	0.1% NO <sub>2</sub>	0.5% NO <sub>2</sub>	1.0% NO <sub>2</sub>		
Parabolic	224	$9.47 \times 10^{-19}$	$1.87 \times 10^{-18}$	$3.93 \times 10^{-18}$	$6.25 \times 10^{-18}$		
	245	$4.69 \times 10^{-18}$	$2.32 \times 10^{-18}$	$1.13 \times 10^{-17}$	$6.08 \times 10^{-18}$		
	269	$5.84 \times 10^{-18}$	$< 1.17 \times 10^{-17}$	$< 1.61 \times 10^{-17}$	$< 2.30 \times 10^{-17}$		
Linear	224	$< 2.45 \times 10^{-12}$	$< 2.27 \times 10^{-12}$	$< 3.81 \times 10^{-12}$	$2.27 \times 10^{-12}$		
	245	$3.06 \times 10^{-12}$	$4.22 \times 10^{-12}$	$4.64 \times 10^{-12}$	$3.28 \times 10^{-12}$		
	269	$1.13 \times 10^{-11}$	$7.50 \times 10^{-12}$	$3.75 \times 10^{-12}$	$7.08 \times 10^{-12}$		

<sup>a</sup>The parabolic rate constant, k, is in units of m<sup>2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>; the linear rate constant, k', is in units of m s<sup>-1</sup>.

main concern is the effect of NO2 on oxidation at temperatures below 200°C, there was little to gain from examining the reaction at temperatures in excess of 300°C. Thus, the effect of NO<sub>2</sub> on the rate of U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>8</sub> formation was examined only at 275°C.

\_

Table 5

Kinetic parameters F and  $\kappa$  for UO<sub>2</sub> surfaces oxidized to U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>8</sub> at 275°C in air and air/NO2 mixtures

Time (h)	F	$\kappa$ (h <sup>-3</sup> )
7	0	$3.2 \times 10^{-5}$
15	0.348	
23	0.414	
31	0.487	
17.6	0.315	$3.9 \times 10^{-5}$
25.6	0.417	
33.6	0.472	
8	0.155	$1.8 \times 10^{-4}$
16	0.499	
4	0	$5.5 \times 10^{-5}$
24	0.536	
8	0.065	$8.1 \times 10^{-5}$
18	0.381	
6	0.765	$6.8 \times 10^{-3}$
6	0.516	$3.3 \times 10^{-3}$
2	0.000	$1.6 \times 10^{-3}$
4	0.259	
6	0.239	
6	0.000	$9.6 \times 10^{-4}$
12	0.914	
6	0.000	$9.2 \times 10^{-4}$
12	0.892	
6	0.877	$1.0 \times 10^{-2}$
2	0.000	$1.5 \times 10^{-3}$
4	0.036	
6	0.278	
	Time (h) 7 15 23 31 17.6 25.6 33.6 8 16 4 24 8 18 6 6 2 4 6 12 6 12 6 12 6 2 4 6 2 4 6 6 2 4 6 6 2 4 6 6 6 2 4 6 6 6 7 6 7 6 7 6 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7	Time (h) $F$ 70150.348230.414310.48717.60.31525.60.41733.60.47280.155160.49940240.53680.065180.38160.76560.51620.00040.25960.23960.000120.91460.89260.87720.00040.03660.278

Values for 0.0% NO<sub>2</sub> are taken from Table 2 of Ref. [19], where they are listed as  $\alpha(t)$ .

F is the fraction of the sample surface oxidized to  $U_3O_8$  within the XRD sampling depth (1–2  $\mu$ m).

The rate constant  $\kappa$  is a composite for both the nucleation and growth of  $U_3O_8$  defined by Eq. (7) and described by McEachern et al. [19].

After oxidation in air or air/NO<sub>2</sub>, the samples were cooled to room temperature, and the XRD spectra were recorded. The XRD data were used to estimate the fraction, F, of  $UO_2$  converted to  $U_3O_8$  within the outermost  $1-2 \mu m$  analyzed by XRD, following the procedure described by Choi et al. [18]. Calculated values of F as a function of time, temperature, and oxidizing atmosphere are summarized in Table 5.

It has been shown recently [19] that the formation of U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>8</sub> on the surface of a UO<sub>2</sub> specimen can be represented by the following kinetic expression for two-dimensional nucleation and growth:

$$F = 1 - \exp\left\{-\frac{\pi\kappa t^3}{3} + \frac{\pi^2\kappa^2 t^6}{180} - \frac{11\pi^3\kappa^3 t^9}{45\,360} + \frac{5\pi^4\kappa^4 t^{12}}{399\,168}\right\},\tag{7}$$

where F is the fraction of the surface oxidized to  $U_3O_8$ , t is time, and  $\kappa$  is a composite rate constant that incorporates the rates of both nucleation and growth of U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>8</sub>. The kinetic data on the rate of U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>8</sub> formation were fitted to Eq. (7) by varying the value of  $\kappa$  to minimize the sum of the squares of deviations between experimental and calculated values of F. The resulting calculated values of  $\kappa$  are presented in Table 5. The variation in  $\kappa$  as a function of NO<sub>2</sub> concentration is illustrated in Fig. 8.



Fig. 8. Variation in the composite rate constant,  $\kappa$ , for U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>8</sub> formation, as a function of NO2 concentration of the oxidizing atmosphere at 275°C.

Examination of Fig. 8 reveals that the presence of NO<sub>2</sub> in the oxidizing atmosphere results in a striking increase in the rate of formation of  $U_3O_8$ . The rate constant  $\kappa$  is about two orders of magnitude greater in the presence of NO<sub>2</sub> than in air at 275°C. Moreover, there does not appear to be any correlation between  $\kappa$  and the concentration of  $NO_2$  in the range 0.1 to 1.0 vol.%. These results raise the possibility that even small quantities of radiolytically generated NO<sub>2</sub> may increase the rate of  $U_3O_8$  growth on the oxidized surfaces of UO2 fuel fragments by a substantial amount. It must be noted, however, that an increase in the rate constant,  $\kappa$ , by two orders of magnitude does not increase the rate of formation of U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>8</sub> by two orders of magnitude. The complex nature of Eq. (7) does not lead to a simple linear relationship between  $\kappa$  and the rate of  $U_3O_8$  formation; rather, an increase in  $\kappa$  by *three* orders of magnitude results in an increase in the rate of formation of U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>8</sub> by approximately one order of magnitude.

The results reported herein on the impact of NO<sub>2</sub> on the oxidation of unirradiated UO2 are supported by recent work described by Sunder and Miller [22,23]. The value of the composite  $U_3O_8$  formation rate constant for air oxidation at 150°C has been estimated as  $1.67 \times 10^{-17} \text{ h}^{-3}$  by McEachern et al. [19]. This value of  $\kappa$  corresponds to a value of F of 0.109 after 21.5 years. In contrast, Sunder and Miller [22,23] found that UO<sub>2</sub> disks placed in sealed ampoules (air atmosphere) at 150°C in a gamma field of  $\approx$  15 Gy h<sup>-1</sup> displayed an average value of  $F = 0.109^{-3}$ after 1.84 years. Thus, the rate of U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>8</sub> production in the Sunder and Miller experiments [22,23] is approximately one order of magnitude greater than the results calculated by McEachern et al. [19]. We believe that this is due to the presence of radiolytically generated NO<sub>2</sub> in the former experiments.

Disks of  $UO_2$  that have undergone air oxidation to F values greater than 0.5 generally display U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>8</sub> powder formation and spalling [18,19]. However, visual observation of the disks oxidized under NO2 atmospheres at 275°C did not reveal any evidence for powder formation or spalling, even though many of them had a high degree of surface oxidation (Table 5). It thus appears that the presence of NO<sub>2</sub> may alter the morphology of the  $U_3O_8$ , making it less prone to spalling. Alternatively, surface oxidation may have gone beyond  $U_3O_8$  to  $UO_3$  (Section 3.1.1). It was not possible to determine, from the XRD patterns, whether the surface  $(1-2 \ \mu m)$  oxidation was to  $U_3O_8$  or  $UO_3$  because several of the reported  $U_3O_8$  and UO<sub>3</sub> oxidation patterns are very similar [29]. The peaks in the XRD patterns of the ultimate oxidation product in air/NO<sub>2</sub> are too broad (because of small crystallite size)

<sup>3</sup> Average value of the three samples L, P and Q described in Table 3 of Ref. [23].

to distinguish among such patterns. This point is illustrated by a representative XRD pattern in Fig. 5b.

#### 4. Conclusions

Oxidation of UO<sub>2</sub> disks in air or air/NO<sub>2</sub> atmospheres at 224 to 269°C initially displayed formation of U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>7</sub> by parabolic kinetics, but then switched to linear kinetics after the formation of an oxide layer ca. 0.3  $\mu$ m thick. The parabolic rate constant increased with the concentration of NO<sub>2</sub>, but the effect is not dramatic; in the presence of 1% NO<sub>2</sub>, the rate of formation of U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>7</sub> is 2–3 times faster than in the presence of air. In contrast to the case of parabolic kinetics, the formation of U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>7</sub> in the linearkinetic region appears to be independent of the concentration of NO<sub>2</sub>.

Examination of the surface of  $UO_2$  disks oxidized under air/NO<sub>2</sub> atmospheres by XPS revealed a thin film of highly oxidized material with a composition beyond  $U_3O_8$  and approaching  $UO_3$ . The high oxygen potential of this film may be responsible for the accelerated formation of  $U_3O_7$  in the parabolic (diffusion-controlled) kinetic regime.

The effect of  $NO_2$  on the rate of formation of  $U_3O_8$  is more dramatic than on U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>7</sub> formation, but it is also more difficult to study, because of the long reaction times and high variability in the extent of the oxidation reaction. Our preliminary data obtained at 275°C suggest that the presence of NO2 in dry air may increase the composite nucleation-and-growth rate constant,  $\kappa$ , for U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>8</sub> formation by about two orders of magnitude, even for low concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub>. The corresponding increase in the rate of production of U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>8</sub> is close to an order of magnitude. Thus, radiolytically generated NO2 might accelerate the formation of U<sub>3</sub>O<sub>8</sub> on defective elements of used (irradiated) fuel under nominally dry air storage conditions. This would at least partly offset the increased resistance of used fuel, as compared with unirradiated UO2, to U3O8 formation [1,18].

### Acknowledgements

The authors appreciate critical review of this document by L.H. Johnson and J.C. Tait. This work was funded by AECL through the Underlying Chemistry research program.

#### References

- [1] R.J. McEachern, P. Taylor, 254 (1998) 87. 281-I (1997).
- [2] D.G. Boase, T.T. Vandergraaf, Nucl. Technol. 32 (1977) 60.
- [3] R.E. Einziger, J.A. Cook, Nucl. Technol. 69 (1985) 55.
- [4] J. Novak, I.J. Hastings, E. Mizzan, R.J. Chenier, Nucl. Technol. 63 (1983) 254.

- [5] J.S. Anderson, L.E.J. Roberts, E.A. Harper, J. Chem. Soc., (1955) 3946.
- [6] T.K. Campbell, E.R. Gilbert, G.D. White, G.F. Piepel, B.J. Wrona, Nucl. Technol. 85 (1989) 160.
- [7] E.R. Gilbert, G.D. White, C.A. Knox, Proc. of International Workshop on Irradiated Fuel Storage: Operating Experience and Development, held in Toronto, ON, 1984, p. 551.
- [8] G.D. White, C.A. Knox, E.R. Gilbert, A.B. Johnson, Jr., Proc. of NRC Workshop on Spent Fuel/Cladding Reaction During Dry Storage, held in Gaithersburg, MD, NUREG/CP-0049, 1983, p. 102.
- [9] H.R. Hoekstra, S. Siegel, J. Inorg. Nucl. Chem. 18 (1961) 154.
- [10] I.R. Beattie, in: A.A. Eldridge et al. (Eds.), Mellor's Comprehensive Treatise on Inorganic and Theoretical Chemistry, Vol. VIII, Suppl. II, Sec. XXVII. Longmans, Green, London, 1967.
- [11] J.J. Katz, D.M. Gruen, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 71 (1949) 2106.
- [12] A.H. Spellar, E.O. Maxwell, R.J. Pearce, Proc. of B.N.E.S. Conference on Gas Cooled Reactors Today, Vol. 4, held in Bristol, UK, 1982, p. 25.
- [13] A.B. Johnson, Jr., E.R. Gilbert, D.R. Oden, D.L. Stidham, J.E. Garnier, D.L. Weeks, J.C. Dobbins, Proc. Waste Management '85, Vol. 1, Tucson, AZ, 1985, p. 513.
- [14] K.M. Wasywich, C.R. Frost, Proc. of 3rd Intl. Conf. on High Level Radioactive Waste Management, Las Vegas, 1992, p. 1166.
- [15] P. Taylor, E.A. Burgess, D.G. Owen, J. Nucl. Mater. 88 (1980) 153.

- [16] P. Taylor, D.D. Wood, A.M. Duclos, J. Nucl. Mater. 189 (1992) 116.
- [17] R. McEachern, J. Nucl. Mater. 245 (1997) 238.
- [18] J.-W. Choi, R.J. McEachern, P. Taylor, D.D. Wood, J. Nucl. Mater. 230 (1996) 250.
- [19] R.J. McEachern, J.-W. Choi, M. Kolar, W. Long, P. Taylor, D.D. Wood, J. Nucl. Mater. 249 (1997) 58.
- [20] S. Sunder, G.D. Boyer, N.H. Miller, J. Nucl. Mater. 175 (1990) 163.
- [21] S. Sunder, J.J. Cramer, N.H. Miller, Mater. Res. Soc. Symp. Proc. 257 (1992) 449.
- [22] S. Sunder, N.H. Miller, J. Nucl. Mater. 231 (1996) 121.
- [23] S. Sunder, N.H. Miller, Report, AECL-11351, COG-95-296 (1995).
- [24] C.D. Wagner, W.M. Riggs, L.E. Davis, J.F. Moulder, G.E. Muilenberg, Handbook of X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy, Perkin-Elmer, Eden Prairie, MN, 1979.
- [25] N.S. McIntyre, S. Sunder, D.W. Shoesmith, F.W. Stanchell, J. Vac. Sci. Technol. 18 (1981) 714.
- [26] D. Briggs, M.P. Seah (Eds.), Practical Surface Analysis by Auger and X-Ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy, Wiley, Chichester, UK, 1983.
- [27] S. Sunder, D.W. Shoesmith, M.G. Bailey, F.W. Stanchell, N.S. McIntyre, J. Electroanal. Chem. 130 (1981) 163.
- [28] P.A. Tempest, P.M. Tucker, J.W. Tyler, J. Nucl. Mater. 151 (1988) 251.
- [29] L.E. Thomas, R.W. Knoll, L.A. Charlot, J.E. Coleman, E.R. Gilbert, Report, PNL 6640 (1989).