H₂ and Cl₂ Production in the Radiolysis of Calcium and Magnesium Chlorides and Hydroxides

Jay A. LaVerne*,[†] and Lav Tandon[‡]

Radiation Laboratory and Department of Physics, University of Notre Dame, Notre Dame, Indiana 46556, and Chemistry Division, Los Alamos, National Laboratory, Los Alamos, New Mexico 87545

Received: December 22, 2004; In Final Form: February 1, 2005

The production of H₂ has been examined in the γ -ray and 5 MeV He ion radiolysis of CaCl₂·2H₂O, CaCl₂· 6H₂O, Ca(OH)₂, MgCl₂·2H₂O, MgCl₂·6H₂O, and Mg(OH)₂. The highest yield for the formation of H₂ is observed in the γ -radiolysis of MgCl₂·2H₂O (0.72 molecule/(100 eV), 75 nmol/J), but the yield decreases with dose due to the relative instability of the dihydrate. The H₂ yields with the other compounds range from 0.04 to 0.2 molecule/(100 eV) (4.2–21 nmol/J), which is lower than that from pure water or 2 M chloride solutions. There appears to be no relationship between the results for H₂ from waters of hydration with that from aqueous salt brines. No particular trend is observed in the radiation chemical yields of H₂ with respect to the cation or the degree of hydration. The production of Cl₂ is found only in the γ -radiolysis of CaCl₂ with a few weight percent of excess water. No Cl₂ was found in the 5 MeV He ion radiolysis of identical systems. None of the other compounds examined here showed detectable amounts of Cl₂ formation.

Introduction

Very little information exists on the nature of the stable chemical products produced by the passage of ionizing radiation in solid chloride salts despite the importance of these materials in the storage of radioactive materials. Solid-state radiolytic effects such as the production of F, H, or V centers have long been examined in a number of chloride salts, especially NaCl.^{1,2} A variety of studies have also been performed on salt brines, but as shown later there is very little relationship between the radiation chemistry of brine and a solid salt.^{3–15} Pyrochemical processing of plutonium in chloride salt media has been proceeding for many decades. Significant amounts of plutoniumcontaining materials have accumulated that are often associated with large quantities of potassium, sodium, magnesium, and calcium chloride salts.^{16–18} Salt content can be from about 8 to 20 wt %, depending on the degree of calcination. Self-radiolysis of radioactive processed material in storage can lead to the production of H₂ from moisture, which is an important explosion hazard, and Cl₂, which can be converted to HCl giving a corrosion potential. Chloride attack on metal storage containers is well-documented.¹⁹⁻²² The production of gaseous products such as H₂ and Cl₂ is especially important in the storage of processed nuclear materials such as plutonium, which must be stabilized, packaged, and stored for up to 50 years in sealed containers.¹⁸ This issue will also be important for the storage of nuclear waste in geologic salt repositories such as the Waste Isolation Pilot Plant (WIPP), USA, and Gorleben, Germany.

The solid-state effects due to the radiolysis of sodium chloride have been fairly well-characterized, and similar results are expected in the magnesium and calcium chlorides. The main effects of concern to the radiolytic formation of H₂ and Cl₂ are the formation of centers (F, V, and H, etc.); generation and trapping of elemental chlorine in the salt; storage and release of energy; and saturation and annealing effects.^{1,2} Highly colored F centers are formed when electrons produced by the irradiation are trapped in chloride vacancies.²³ Less than 0.1% of electrons are expected to be trapped in this manner.²⁴ F centers are thought to be the source of H₂ observed on dissolving NaCl in water following irradiation.^{25,26} Hydrated electrons, a potential source of H₂, have also been observed when irradiated NaCl is dissolved in water.²⁷ H₂ production following salt solvation is accomplished by the transfer of an energetic species from the solid salt to the water. Similar processes may occur when water is associated with the chloride as in the case of waters of hydration.

H centers are formed when electrons are stripped from the chloride anions to give radicals that then diffuse to form molecular chlorine anions trapped at interstitial sites.² Several studies have tried to measure Cl₂ production because of its immense corrosive potential. Minute amounts of Cl₂ has been detected in the radiolysis of NaCl to very high (> 10^7 Gy) doses.²⁸ Other studies irradiated NaCl or MgCl₂•6H₂O to 7 MGy, dissolved them in water, and searched for hypochlorite.²⁹ Cl₂ formation was suggested, but no accurate quantitative measurements were made. Monitoring the headspace with a mass spectrometer during the radiolysis of solid NaCl again suggested the presence of Cl₂, but without quantitative measurement.³⁰ Cl₂⁻ was observed in radiolysis of concentrated MgCl₂ aqueous solutions.³¹ No consensus on the formation or yield of Cl₂ in the radiolysis of solid chloride salts has emerged. On the other hand, excellent spectroscopic studies have been performed recently on various chlorine species following the radiolysis of aqueous solutions of NaCl, MgCl2, and multicomponent brines.^{15,32} The formation of chlorine species may lead to the oxidiation of actinide species (Pu, Am, Cm, Np, and U) to higher oxidation states if they are present.^{10,33}

In this work, the formation of gaseous H_2 from the radiolysis of CaCl₂·2H₂O, CaCl₂·6H₂O, MgCl₂·2H₂O, and MgCl₂·6H₂O was examined. Cl₂ formation from the hydrated, anhydrous, and wet calcium and magnesium chlorides was also examined. The irradiations were performed with both γ -rays and 5 MeV helium

[‡] Los Alamos National Laboratory.

ions (α -particles) in order to examine the effect due to the linear energy transfer (LET = stopping power, -dE/dx) of the radiation and to mimic the conditions in mixed storage with high concentration of γ -emitting actinides (Am, Np, etc.) along with α -emitting actinides such as Pu, Am, and U, etc. Calcination of the chlorides is expected to reduce the chlorides to the oxides.^{18,34} The presence of water can then form hydroxides. For this reason, H₂ production was examined in the γ -ray and 5 MeV helium ion radiolysis of Mg(OH)₂ and Ca(OH)₂ powders. The experiments give fundamental knowledge related to the mechanism for the formation of H₂ from hydroxides and from waters of hydration and provide useful information for the management of packaged nuclear materials and waste.

Experimental Section

The salts used in this work were as follows: calcium chloride anhydrous, CaCl₂ (Alfa Aesar, ACS grade); calcium chloride dihydrate, CaCl₂·2H₂O (Aldrich, 99.99%); calcium chloride hexahydrate, CaCl₂·6H₂O (Aldrich, 98%); calcium oxide, CaO (Aldrich, 99.995%); calcium hydroxide, Ca(OH)₂ (Aldrich, 99.995%); magnesium chloride anhydrous, MgCl₂ (Alfa Aesar, ACS grade); magnesium chloride hexahydrate, MgCl₂·6H₂O (Aldrich, 99.99%); magnesium oxide, MgO (Aldrich, 99.99%); and magnesium hydroxide, Mg(OH)₂ (Alfa Aesar) powders. The oxides, hydroxides, and anhydrous chlorides were baked at 100 °C for 24 h to remove adsorbed water. No major changes in these compounds occur under this drying condition as suggested by the relatively small weight changes. The hydrates were dried under vacuum at room temperature or in a drybox with Drierite (calcium sulfate). No difference in the two drying techniques was observed. Variation in weight was used to confirm that only excess water was removed and not waters of hydration. Drying the hydrates at temperatures of 100 °C often resulted in the loss of waters of hydration. Magnesium chloride dihydrate, MgCl₂·2H₂O, was made by baking the hexahydrate at 100 °C under vacuum. The change in weight corresponds to formation of the dihydrate. Furthermore, the dried compound dissolves in water, whereas magnesium oxide does not.

The heavy ion radiolysis experiments were performed using the facilities of the Nuclear Structure Laboratory of the University of Notre Dame Physics Department. ⁴He ions were produced and accelerated using a 10 MV FN Tandem Van de Graaff. After acceleration, the ions were energy and chargestate selected magnetically. The window assembly was the same as reported earlier and gave a beam diameter of 6.4 mm with a uniform flux across the sample surface.^{35,36} Energy loss of the helium ions in passing through all windows was determined from a standard stopping power compilation.³⁷ The samples were irradiated with completely stripped ions at a charge beam current of about 1.5 nA. Absolute dosimetry was obtained from the product of the integrated beam current and the particle energy. The ranges of the helium ions are smaller than the sample thickness, so the ions are completely stopped in the sample and the radiation chemical yields represent all processes from the initial particle energy to zero and are therefore track-averaged yields. The sample cell ($\phi \sim 1$ cm, $L \sim 0.3$ cm) was made of quartz with a thin ($\sim 4-6$ mg/cm²) mica window epoxied to the front for the beam entrance. Inlet and outlet ports allowed the cell to be purged before and after the irradiation. Irradiations were performed at room temperature (23 °C), and the dose rate was sufficiently small that no significant macroscopic heating was observed; see below.

Radiolysis with γ -rays was performed using a Shepherd 109 ⁶⁰Co source at the Radiation Laboratory of the University of



Figure 1. Dose dependence of H₂ production in the radiolysis of CaCl₂· 2H₂O: (\blacksquare) γ -rays; (\bigcirc , \bigcirc) 5 MeV ⁴He ions. The slopes of the fitted lines correspond to *G*-values of 0.20 and 0.21 molecule/(100 eV), respectively.

Notre Dame. The dose rate was 150 Gy/min, as determined using the Fricke dosimeter.³⁸ The sample cell was made from a quartz cuvette with inlet and outlet ports for purging the sample before and after irradiation. The same cuvette was used for both dosimetry and sample irradiation. The ambient temperature of the irradiation chamber was about 30 °C, and samples would rise to this temperature during long irradiations.

Hydrogen was determined using an inline technique with a gas chromatograph. Ultrahigh purity argon was used as the carrier gas with a flow rate of about 50 mL/min. The argon passed through a constant flow regulator, an injection septum, and a four-way valve and into a 3 m $5 \times$ molecular sieve column of an SRI 8610C gas chromatograph with a thermal conductivity detector. Calibration of the detector was performed by injecting pure gases with a gastight microliter syringe. The sample cell was connected to the gas analysis system using the four-way valve, which was used to purge the sample and then isolate it during irradiation. Following the irradiation, the four-way valve was opened and the radiolytic gases analyzed. Estimated error in gas measurements is estimated to be about 10%.

Samples for molecular chlorine determination from γ radiolysis were placed in Pyrex tubes ($\phi \sim 1 \text{ cm}, L \sim 10 \text{ cm}$), purged with argon, and heat-sealed. Following irradiation the tubes were broken, the solid mixed with water, and Cl₂ determined by the DPD colorimetric technique, EPA Method 330.5, using a Chemetrics I-2001 analytical kit.³⁹ This technique involves the hydrolysis of Cl₂ to the hypochlorite ion or hypochlorous acid followed by reaction with KI at pH 4 or less to give iodine. Iodine reacts with N,N-diethyl-p-phenylenediamine, DPD, to give a red color with two wide absorption bands at 510 and 550 nm. Calibration was performed with known NIST traceable Cl₂ standards. Error in Cl₂ determination is estimated to be 10%. Helium ion radiolysis was performed in cells similar to that used for H₂ measurements, and following irradiation the sample was transferred to a closed vessel containing water.

Results and Discussion

H₂ **Production from Calcium Compounds.** H₂ production in the radiolysis of CaCl₂·2H₂O and Ca(OH) ₂ with both γ -rays and 5 MeV helium ions gave linear responses as a function of total adsorbed dose. A typical response for CaCl₂·2H₂O is shown in Figure 1. The slopes of the dose responses shown in Figure 1 are proportional to the radiation chemical yields, or *G*-values.

TABLE 1: Radiolytic Yields of H_2 with γ -rays and 5 MeV He Ions^{*a*}

	γ-rays	5 MeV He
CaCl ₂ •2H ₂ O	0.20	0.21
CaCl ₂ •6H ₂ O	0.098	0.038
2 M CaCl ₂	0.49	0.77
Ca(OH) ₂	0.20	0.051
MgCl ₂ •2H ₂ O	$0.72 (0.51)^c$	$0.38 (0.22)^c$
MgCl ₂ •6H ₂ O	0.042	0.14
$Mg(OH)_2$	0.051	0.038
2 M MgCl ₂	0.56	1.34
CeO_2^b	0.018	0.018
ZrO_2^b	0.08	0.018
$\mathrm{UO}_2{}^b$	0.018	0.018

^{*a*} In units of molecule per 100 eV. ^{*b*} With 1 wt % water adsorbed.^{29,30} ^{*c*} High-dose yield in parentheses.

Radiation chemical yields are traditionally given in units of molecules of product per 100 eV of total energy deposited in the medium. The *G*-values reported here for helium ions are track-averaged yields since the ions are completely stopped in the sample. Figure 1 shows that the radiation chemical yields of H₂ from CaCl₂•2H₂O are nearly the same (~0.2 molecule/ (100 eV)) for both γ -rays and 5 MeV helium ions. A similar value is observed in the γ -radiolysis of Ca(OH)₂, as shown in Table 1. The 5 MeV He ion radiolysis of Ca(OH)₂ gives a significantly lower yield (~0.05 molecule/(100 eV)). Linear responses to dose are observed for both of these compounds with both types of radiation, indicating straightforward radiolytic processes are responsible for H₂ production.

The yield of H₂ in the radiolysis of water is about 0.45 molecule/(100 eV) and mainly due to reactions of the hydrated electron or its precursor.⁴⁰ H₂ yields in the radiolysis CaCl₂. 2H₂O are about half of this value, indicating the compound readily decomposes to give H₂. Ionizing radiation deposits energy to the electrons of a medium so most of the initial energy loss is to the CaCl₂ moiety. Presumably energy is transferred to the water resulting in the formation of the oxide or hydroxide, but no specific analysis was performed. H₂ yields with the 5 MeV He ion radiolysis of Ca(OH)₂ are lower than that observed with γ -rays even though samples were irradiated under identical conditions. There is no reason to assume that the decomposition of Ca(OH)₂ in helium ion radiolysis is less than in γ -radiolysis, so radical or other reactive precursors to H₂ must be recombining in the high LET helium ion track to give other products. No O₂ was observed in these systems as also suggested in earlier studies by Jenks and Walton.⁴

The γ -radiolysis of CaCl₂·6H₂O is complicated by heating of the sample by the source. With long irradiations, the sample temperature increased to that of the γ source, which was about 30 °C. A previous work reports that CaCl2·6H2O acts like a single compound with a melting point at about 29 °C.⁴¹ The heat capacity of this compound was shown to start rising at about 25 °C, indicating some structural changes occurring at very near room temperature. Short doses with new samples repetitively gave yields of 0.098 and 0.038 molecules of H₂ per 100 eV of energy absorbed for γ -rays and 5 MeV helium ions, respectively. Under longer irradiations, higher doses, the yields in γ -radiolysis increased and approached the yield found with 2 M aqueous solutions. The samples visually appeared to be melted in γ -radiolysis. An increase in H₂ yields could be observed in helium ion radiolysis, especially at higher dose rates. No visual change to the sample was observed in the 5 MeV He radiolysis, but the penetration is only expected to be about 15 μ m. The heating of such a small volume would be difficult to observe or measure. Sample heating by the heavy ion irradiation



Figure 2. Temperature dependence of H_2 production in the radiolysis of CaCl₂·6H₂O with γ -rays. The lower line shows the yield at 22 °C, while the upper line shows the yield in 2 M aqueous CaCl₂ solution.

must be due to low-level heating due to the slow transport of heat from the irradiation zone. On the other hand, the 5 MeV He ion radiolysis of CaCl₂·6H₂O at higher temperatures is expected to give H₂ yields approaching that observed in 2 M CaCl₂ solutions. A temperature of 30 °C is certainly expected in many nuclear material storage conditions, and the variation of H₂ yields as the CaCl₂·6H₂O melts is significant.

An attempt was made to estimate the relative heating with respect to dose with γ -rays by measuring the temperature rise of the sample, and the results are shown in Figure 2. The lack of good thermal conductivity probably leads to an uneven heating of the sample, so the present method of estimating temperature rise is crude and intended to only show the general increase in H₂ yield as the sample approaches its melting point. An increase in H₂ yield to about 0.57 molecule/(100 eV) was observed in He radiolysis. The variation in H₂ yield between the 2 M solutions and the solid compounds show that data from salt brine studies are not suitable for relatively dry solid salts. This is true although 2 M MgCl₂ and 2 M CaCl₂ solutions give similar radiation chemical yields of H₂ to those obtained by previous researchers.^{4,42} The radiation chemistry of the brines are characterized by the chloride anion reaction with excited water to give H₂.3-6

An attempt was made to measure the production of H₂ from CaO and MgO with small amounts of adsorbed water in order to compare with previous results on CeO₂, ZrO₂, and UO₂.^{43,44} There is partial or complete conversion of both magnesium and calcium chloride salts to CaO and MgO under some of the conditions associated with plutonium processing for storage.34,45 The H₂ yields were found to increase with increasing water weight percent for both CaO and MgO powders. However, when these oxides are left for long periods of time in humid conditions they slowly convert to the corresponding hydroxides. Calcium oxide converts to the hydroxide more rapidly than does magnesium oxide, which may be the reason that H₂ yields with Ca(OH)₂ are higher than Mg(OH)₂.⁴⁶ At low water loadings, it could never be ascertained that the oxides had adsorbed water or that a small fraction had simply converted to the hydroxides and the results represented that found with mixtures. Total H₂ yields from CeO₂, ZrO₂, and UO₂ are significantly lower than the hydrates or hydroxides examined here; see Table 1. Hydroxides may have a substantial contribution to H₂ formation in certain waste storage conditions.

H₂ **Production from Magnesium Compounds.** The production of H₂ in Mg(OH)₂ was found to be linear with dose for



Figure 3. Dose dependence of H_2 production in the radiolysis of MgCl₂·2H₂O: (**II**) γ -rays; (**O**) 5 MeV ⁴He ions. The dashed lines show the low-dose limiting yields.

both types of irradiation. *G*-values for H₂ of 0.051 and 0.038 molecule/(100 eV) were determined for γ -rays and 5 MeV helium ions, respectively; see Table 1. The yield with 5 MeV He ions is comparable to those found in the radiolysis of Ca(OH)₂. However, the H₂ yield in the γ -radiolysis of Ca(OH)₂ is considerably greater than that of Mg(OH)₂. Previous work has shown that Mg(OH)₂ is converted to MgO with radiolysis, but the mechanism is not established.⁴⁷ The formation of water may predominate over the production of H₂ in the radiolysis of Mg(OH)₂ since MgO is relatively inert.⁴⁶

There is a variation of about a factor of 3 in the H₂ yields between the calcium and magnesium chloride hexahydrates. No obvious trend exists for the yields as a function of cation or radiation type. Even the relative H₂ yields in CaCl₂·6H₂O decrease from the γ -radiolysis to the 5 MeV He ion radiolysis, while the inverse is found for MgCl₂·6H₂O. In many of the solids examined here, the H₂ yield in γ -radiolysis is greater than or equal to that in 5 MeV He radiolysis. This result is very different from that of liquid water or the salt brines, which again shows that the results with salt brines cannot be used to predict the yields in solid salts.

The radiolysis of MgCl₂•2H₂O with γ-rays and 5 MeV helium ions exhibit nonlinear responses as a function of dose; see Figure 3. H₂ yields are found to decrease with increasing dose. The G-values measured at the lowest doses in this work are 0.72 and 0.38 molecule/(100 eV) for γ -rays and 5 MeV helium ions, respectively. These values decrease to 0.51 and 0.22 molecule/ (100 eV), respectively, and may be slowly approaching the yields observed with MgCl2·6H2O or Mg(OH)2 as the dihydrate decomposes. This finding is similar to an earlier work that suggested heating the samples to liquefaction temperature leads to the release of H₂.⁴ All the H₂ yields for MgCl₂·2H₂O are high, indicating the relative ease of this system to radiolytically decompose. Hydrogen yields are probably highly dependent on the presence and form of water on the salts, i.e., adsorbed, absorbed, water of hydration, or inclusion fluid and on the storage temperature of the nuclear material.^{8,13}

Cl₂ Production from Calcium Compounds. Previous results in the literature are inconclusive in showing the formation of Cl₂ in the radiolysis of chloride salts.^{28–33} A trace of gaseous Cl₂ was detected in the radiolysis of NaCl.³⁰ However, gaseous Cl₂ is extremely reactive, especially with water or metal surfaces, and difficult to observe reliably using gas sampling techniques. HCl may be even more important for corrosion effects. It may also be formed in the radiolysis of these compounds but not



Figure 4. Production of Cl_2 as a function of dose from $CaCl_2$ for various amounts of added water: (\blacksquare) 1.5 and (\bigcirc) 5.5 wt % water.

detected using the present technique. The present experiments focused on the determination of Cl_2 trapped or otherwise associated with the solid salts. Of course, any loss of Cl_2 to the cell walls or atmosphere will not be observed in the experiments reported here. A further search for Cl_2 will have to be undertaken in which both the solid and gas phases are sampled. The results reported here are meant to be a survey for possible Cl_2 formation in the solid salt.

Radiolytic chlorine production was examined for all the chlorides in this work. The salts were either dry or loaded with known amounts of water, irradiated, and then dissolved in water and chlorine determined. Chlorine was never observed in any of the dried salts at doses up to about 1 MGy. This dose corresponds to *G*-values of Cl₂ production in γ -radiolysis of less than 0.002 molecule/(100 eV). Significantly higher doses may lead to observable Cl₂, but those doses are far too large for normal radiation chemistry studies. An exhaustive search of the appropriate conditions for Cl₂ formation was not made, but a few systems did lead to measurable and reproducible Cl₂ production.

CaCl₂ was dried and then reloaded with known amounts of water and irradiated with γ -rays. The production Cl₂ was very dependent on the amount of water present. No Cl₂ was observed when water was absent. The *G*-value for Cl₂ rose to 0.035 molecule/(100 eV) at 1.5 wt % water loading and decreased to a value of 0.013 molecule/(100 eV) at 5.5 wt % water loading; see Figure 4. There appears to be optimum water loading for producing Cl₂. A small amount of water or OH groups is probably required to stabilize Cl₂ formation on the salt, but water decomposition products may dominate at higher water concentrations. Gaseous Cl₂ may be predominately formed with no water. The yield of H₂ with CaCl₂·2H₂O is relatively high, indicating that decomposition to H₂ may be preferred over that to Cl₂. Another possibility for the low production of Cl₂ is due to the preferential formation of HCl.

In the 5 MeV He ion radiolysis, no Cl₂ was observed in any CaCl₂ or MgCl₂ system. These systems included the same water loadings that gave observable Cl₂ production with γ -radiolysis. Either the Cl₂ yield with α -particles is very low or they have a very different water loading dependence than that observed with γ -radiolysis.^{18,48} It is also possible that the 5 MeV He ion radiolysis leads to more production of gaseous Cl₂ than in γ -radiolysis or in more favorable conditions for the production of HCl. A thorough search may eventually discover the optimum

conditions for observing Cl_2 formation, but the Cl_2 yields associated with the solid phase are certainly low for the salts examined here.

Conclusions

These experiments have examined the production of H₂ in the radiolysis of CaCl₂·2H₂O, CaCl₂·6H₂O, Ca(OH)₂, MgCl₂· 2H₂O, MgCl₂·6H₂O, and Mg(OH)₂. Radiation chemical yields of H₂ do not show any particular trend with respect to the cation or the degree of hydration. The radiolysis of MgCl₂·2H₂O leads to the greatest yield for the formation of H₂, but the yields from both γ -radiolysis and helium ion radiolysis decrease with dose due to the radiolytic instability of the dihydrate. The H₂ yields with the other compounds are between 0.04 and 0.2 molecule/ (100 eV), which is considerably lower than that from pure water or 2 M chloride solutions. However, these yields are considerably greater than that observed in the bulk radiolysis of CeO₂ and ZrO₂ with adsorbed water.

Molecular chlorine was determined in association with the solid salt and not in the gas phase. The production of Cl_2 is found only in the γ -radiolysis of $CaCl_2$ with a few weight percent of excess water loading. No Cl_2 was found in the 5 MeV He ion radiolysis of identical systems. None of the other compounds examined here showed detectable amounts of Cl_2 formation.

Acknowledgment. The authors thank Professor A. Aprahamian for making the facilities of the Notre Dame Nuclear Structure Laboratory available. The latter is funded by the National Science Foundation. The 94-1 Program from Los Alamos National Laboratory of the U. S. Department of Energy supported the work described herein. The DOE Nuclear Materials Stewardship Program, through the Nuclear Materials Project Office in the Albuquerque Operations Center, supports the 94-1 Program. This contribution is NDRL-4576 from the Notre Dame Radiation Laboratory, which is supported by the Office of Basic Energy Sciences of the U. S. Department of Energy.

References and Notes

(1) Spinks, J. W. T.; Woods, R. W. An Introduction to Radiation Chemistry; John Wiley and Sons: New York, 1990.

(2) Soppe, W. J.; Donker, H.; Garcia Celma, A.; Prij, J. J. Nucl. Mater. 1994, 217, 1.

(3) Borisova, E. N.; Bugaenko, L. T.; Byakov, V. M. High Energy Chem. 1978, 12, 185.

(4) Jenks, G. H.; Walton, J. R. Radiation Chemistry of Salt-Mine Brines and Hydrates; Report ORNL-5726; Oak Ridge National Laboratory: Oak Ridge, TN, 1981.

(5) Borisova, E. N.; Bugaenko, L. T.; Troshchilova, T. F. *High Energy Chem.* **1982**, *16*, 90.

(6) Gray, W. J. Adv. Ceram. 1984, 8, 57.

(7) Jain, H.; Ahn, T. M.; Soo, P. Nucl. Chem. Waste Manage. 1985, 5, 345.

(8) Jockwer, N.; Gross, S. Natural, Termal and Radiolytical Gas Liberation in Rock Salt as a Result of Disposed High-Level Radioactive Waste. *Scientific Basis for Nuclear Waste Management IX. 9th International Symposium*, Stockholm, Sweden; Material Research Society: Pittsburgh, PA, 1985.

(9) Aleksandrov, A. B.; Gusev, A. L.; Petrik, N. G. Russ. J. Phys. Chem. 1987, 61, 102.

(10) Büppelmann, K.; Kim, J. I.; Lierse, C. Radiochim. Acta 1988, 44/ 45, 65.

(11) Grigorev, A. E.; Kaletsinski, E.; Pikaev, A. K. *High Energy Chem.* **1990**, *24*, 354.

(12) Ponomarev, A. V.; Markarov, I. E. *High Energy Chem.* **1992**, *26*, 323.

(13) Akram, N.; Blanchard, J. C.; Toulhoat, P.; Gaudez, M. T.; Interrante, C. G.; Pabalan, R. T. Compared Study of Radiolysis-Induced Gas Liberation in Rock Salt from Various Origins. *Scientific Basis for Nuclear Waste Management XVI*; Materials Research Society: Boston, MA 1992.

(14) Kelm, M.; Pashalidis, I.; Kim, J. I. Appl. Radiat. Isot. 1999, 51, 637.

(15) Hartmann, T.; Paviet-Hartmann, P.; Wetteland, C.; Lu, N. Radiat. Phys. Chem. 2003, 66, 335.

(16) Tandon, L.; Penneman, R. A.; Eller, P. G. Information Search on Chloride Salt Radiolytic Effects in Plutonium Storage Environments; Report LA-UR-99-2488; Los Alamos National Laboratory: Los Alamos, NM, 1999.

(17) Tandon, L.; Penneman, R. A.; Eller, P. G.; Mason, R. E. Radiolysis of Chloride Salts in Plutonium Storage Environments; Report LA-UR-00-5172; Los Alamos National Laboratory: Los Alamos, NM, 2000.

(18) DOE Standard "Stabilization, Packaging, and Storage of Plutonium-Bearing Materials"; DOE-STD-3013-2004; U. S. Department of Energy: Washington, D.C. 2004.

(19) Szempruch, R. W. Plutonium Storage Phenomenology; Report WHC-SA-3017-FA; Westinghouse Hanford Co.: Richland, WA, 1995.

(20) Eller, P. G.; Szempruch, R. W.; McClard, J. Summary of Failures of Plutonium Storage Containers; Report LA-UR-99-2896; Los Alamos National Laboratory: Los Alamos, NM, 1999.

(21) Plutonium Storage Safety at Major Department of Energy Facilities; Technical Report DNFSB/TECH-1; Defense Nuclear Facility Safety Board: Washington, DC, 1994.

(22) Haschke. J. M.; Martz, J. C. Plutonium Storage. In *Encyclopedia* of *Environmental Analysis and Remediation*; Meyers, R. A., Ed.; John Wiley and Sons: New York, 1998.

(23) Burns, W. G.; Williams, T. F. Nature 1955, 175, 1043.

(24) Wardle, M. W. Color-Center and Radiation-Damage Effects in Alkali Halides Irradiated to High Particle Fluence. Ph.D. Thesis, University of Delaware, 1975.

(25) Rabe, J. G.; Rabe, B.; Allen, A. O. J. Phys. Chem. 1966, 70, 1098.
(26) Jenks, G. H.; Sonder, E.; Bopp, C. D.; Walton, J. R.; Lindenbaum,
S. J. Phys. Chem. 1975, 79, 871.

(27) Gopinathan, C.; Damle, P. S.; Hart, E. J. J. Phys. Chem. 1972, 76, 3694.

(28) Akram, N.; Gaudez, M. T.; Toulhoat, P.; Monig, J.; Palut, J. M. *Disposal of Radioactive Waste: Gas Generation and Release from Radioactive Waste Repositories*, Proceedings of a Workshop Organized by the Nuclear Energy Agency, Aux-en-Provence, France, Sept. 23–26, 1981; Nuclear Energy Agency: Paris, France; pp 130–141.

(29) Kelm, M.; Bohnert, E. Radiochim. Acta 1996, 74, 155, 1996.

(30) Dydik, R. I.; Karavan, Yu. V.; Stasyuk, S. V.; Tsal', N. A. Sov. Phys. Solid State 1971, 12, 2951.

(31) Grigorev, A. E., Makarov, I. E.; Pikaev, A. V. Khimiya Vysokikh Energii 1987, 21, 123.

(32) Kelm, M.; Pashalidis, I.; Kim, J. I. Appl. Radiat. Isot. 1999, 51, 637.

(33) Lu, N.; Paviet-Hartmann, P.; Palmer, P. D.; Hartmann, T.; Conca, J. L.; Strietelmeier, E. A.; Parker, G. R. Stability of 239Pu(VI) in Synthetic WIPP Brines, Chloride Solutions, and Hydrochloric Acid: A Report of the WIPP Actinide Chemistry Project; Report LA-UR-02-4165; Los Alamos National Laboratory: Los Alamos, NM, 2002.

(34) Smith, D. M.; Neu, M. P.; Garcia, E.; Morales, L. A. Hydration of Plutonium Oxide and Process Salts, NaC1, KC1, CaC1₂, MgC1₂: Effect of Calcination on Residual Water and Rehydration. Report LA-UR-99-261; Los Alamos National Laboratory: Los Alamos, NM, 1999.

(35) LaVerne, J. A.; Schuler, R. H. J. Phys. Chem. 1987, 91, 5770.

(36) LaVerne, J. A.; Schuler, R. H. J. Phys. Chem. 1987, 91, 6560.

(37) Ziegler, J. F.; Biersack, J. P.; Littmark, U. The Stopping Power

and Range of Ions in Solids; Pergamon: New York, 1985.

(38) Pastina, B.; LaVerne, J. A. J. Phys. Chem. A 1999, 103, 1592.

(39) Environmental Protection Agency. Chlorine, Total Residual. Methods for Chemical Analysis of Water and Wastes. Report 330.5-1; U. S. Department of Commerce: Washington, D.C. 1983.

(40) Pastina, B.; LaVerne, J. A.; Pimblott, S. M. J. Phys. Chem. A 1999, 103, 5841.

(41) Feilchenfeld, H.; Fuchs, J.; Kahana, F.; Sarig, S. Sol. Energy 1985, 34, 199.

(42) Kelm, M.; Bohnert, E. Nucl. Technol. 2000, 129, 119.

(43) LaVerne, J. A.; Tandon, L. J. Phys. Chem. B 2002, 106, 380.

(44) LaVerne, J. A.; Tandon, L. J. Phys. Chem. B 2003, 107, 13623.

(45) Lawrence, A. D.; Bu, J. Chem. Eng. Sci. 2000, 55, 6129.

(46) Cotton, F. A.; Wilkinson, G. Advanced Inorganic Chemistry; Interscience Publishers: New York, 1972.

(47) Shpak, A. P.; Kalinichenko, E. A.; Lytovchenko, A. S.; Kalinichenko, I. A.; Legkova, G. V.; Bagmut, N. N. *Phys. Chem. Miner.* **2003**, *30*, 59.

(48) Tandon, L. Radiolysis of Salts and Long-Term Storage Issues for Both Pure and Impure PuO_2 Materials in Plutonium Storage Containers; Report LA-13725-MS; Los Alamos National Laboratory: Los Alamos, NM, 2000.