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1 From Nuclear Waste to Hydrogen Production:

2 From Past Consequences to Future Prospect

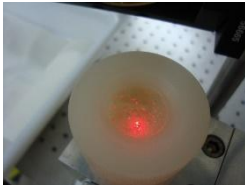
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8 **GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT:**



10 H₂ bubbles produced by the effect of radioactivity onto water (credit: Guillaume Blain in
11 ARRONAX, 2016)

12 **ABSTRACT:**

13 Nuclear wastes may not be considered as unusable materials in the sense that they deliver a free
14 source of energy under the form of ionizing radiations that can be used to produce hydrogen (H₂)
15 through water radiolysis. The current paradigm that define these nuclear wastes as troublesome
16 by-products which no one uses nowadays must be shifted into a new opportunity for pure H₂
17 production with no CO₂ emission. Here, we propose a low-tech method to boost H₂ production
18 by water radiolysis thanks to the catalytic effect of a suspension of TiO₂ nano-particles. We also

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19 demonstrate the relevance of this concept by scaling up our laboratory results. From our
20 calculations, this radiocatalytic process can supply until 60% of the actual global demand in
21 hydrogen ($42.9 \text{ MtH}_2\cdot\text{y}^{-1}$) and open the door, together with the green and white hydrogen
22 productions, to the “Hydrogen century”.

23 **KEYWORDS:** Nuclear Waste, Hydrogen Production, Radiocatalysis, TiO_2 , LowTech Process

24

25 **1. Introduction**

26 To meet the net zero emission scenario of the International Energy Agency, about 300 Mt of
27 hydrogen-based energy has to be produced worldwide by 2050. Currently, water electrolysis
28 using renewable [1; 2] and nuclear electricity [3; 4] is the main industrial process envisioned to
29 produce large amount of hydrogen with low carbon emissions. However, beyond electricity
30 itself, many valuable resources like metals and land space will be consumed by this technology
31 scenario. Until now, water radiolysis, as a serious alternative to produced massive amount of H_2 ,
32 has been ignored. This radiolytic process of hydrogen generation is known for a century [5; 6],
33 but the nuclear energy industry still prefers to envision the use of its electricity (from the so-
34 called warm generator) to produced indirectly H_2 [3; 4], than taking advantage of the radiation
35 delivered by the spent fuel. Water radiolysis occurring naturally in the Earth’s crust is known to
36 be a significant source of H_2 and to support deep microbial ecosystems [6; 7]. So much efforts
37 have been made to manage nuclear wastes that one has forgotten that they offer a free source of
38 radiations available all around the world. There is 390.000 tons of spent fuel worldwide awaiting
39 their final storage facilities (Data for 2017 [8]), and many more to come in a near future as
40 nuclear electricity is seen as good mean to mitigate CO_2 emissions.

41 **2. Material and Methods**

42 Four sets of samples are irradiated under Ar atmosphere to avoid the dioxygen effect: UltraPure
43 water (UP), UltraPure water and ZrO₂ (UP+ZrO₂), UltraPure water and TiO₂ anatase
44 (UP+TiO₂anat), UltraPure water and TiO₂ rutile (UP+TiO₂rutile). Ultrapure water resistivity was
45 measured at 18 MΩ.cm. All solid samples were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (99.9% Purity)
46 and added to the solution with a ratio of 12.5 g.L⁻¹. The solution density is calculated at 1.052
47 g.cm⁻³.

48 **2.1 Irradiation source**

49 γ-Ray irradiations experiments were performed at the ARRONAX cyclotron (Nantes – France)
50 facility. The irradiation cells were made of PEEK (polyether ether ketone), mounted with a
51 rotulex 19/9 glass tube and had an internal volume of 42 mL. The irradiation time range is
52 between 1 to 60 days. γ-Ray irradiation was performed with a GSM D1 (Gamma-Service
53 Medical[®]) irradiator containing a 123 TBq ¹³⁷Cs source. This radionuclide disintegrates in ¹³⁷Ba,
54 which delivers 661.7 keV γ-Ray. A dose cartography has been performed by Fricke dosimetry
55 [9] inside the γ-Ray chamber. The average deposited dose rate inside the aqueous samples is 420
56 Gy.h⁻¹. Such a modest dose rate has to be compared to the 28 kGy.h⁻¹ delivered by high activity
57 long life spent fuel. As γ-Ray is a penetrating radiation, the dose is displayed almost equally
58 everywhere inside the sample.

59

60 **2.2 Gas Measurements**

61 Hydrogen (H₂) has been monitored by micro gas-chromatography (μGC) using a 490-GC
62 (VARIAN[®]) micro gas-chromatograph. A 5 Å molecular sieve column dedicated to H₂
63 separation was used, coupled to a TCD detector. The injection system and the column were

64 purged with argon beforehand. All our chromatographic measurement were repeated 3 times,
65 with a precision of 3 % at the 95 % confidence level.

66 **2.3 Radiolytic yield calculation (G-value)**

67 The G-value is defined as the number of species formed or consumed per unit of deposited
68 energy. It is the main parameter used to express the production of one chemical species via the
69 radiolysis mechanism. It is expressed in the international system by mol.J⁻¹ and is calculated at a
70 time t after transition of the ionizing irradiation according to:

$$71 \quad G(X) = \frac{X_t}{\rho D} \quad (1)$$

72 where X_t is the concentration of the species X at the time t (mol.L⁻¹), ρ is the density of the
73 irradiated solution (kg.L⁻¹) and D the absorbed dose (in Gy; 1 Gy = 1 J.kg⁻¹ of water).

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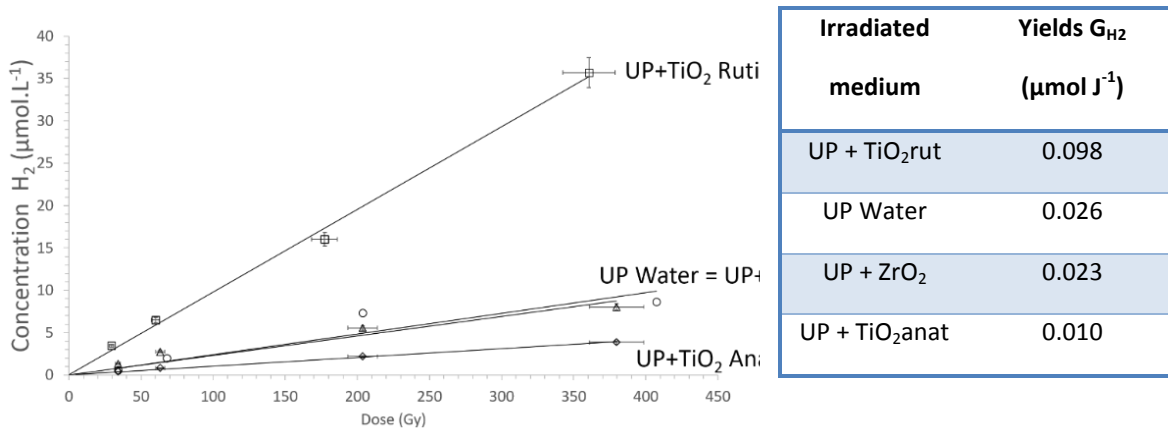
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76 **Results**

77 Liquid water is exposed to a γ source (Cs¹³⁷) in order to mimic the γ-ray from the radioactive
78 waste. Hydrogen production is precisely measured for each irradiation time and applied dose
79 rate. Titanium dioxide rutile or anatase phase powders, chosen for its photocatalytic effect [10-
80 18], are added to the solution. Tetravalent oxide (zirconium) is also tested to underline the
81 specific surface properties of TiO₂ with respect to H₂ generation [16; 17; 19-23].

82 **Figure 1** presents the evolution of the radiolytic production of H₂ as a function of the applied
83 dose, which is itself a function of time as the dose rate of the γ-source is constant. From these
84 results one can easily observe that rutile-bearing experiment produced 4 times more H₂ than all
85 the other ones whether they contain only water, or another polytype of TiO₂ or ZrO₂. To our
86 knowledge, this is the highest H₂ yield measured so far in pure water solution.

87 This enhanced production of H₂ is specific to the TiO₂ rutile which confirms its radiocatalytic
 88 properties. Interestingly, a parallel can be made with its photocatalytic properties. Indeed, it is
 89 well described in the literature [10; 15; 18] that in the presence of UV-Visible solar radiation the
 90 TiO₂ surface in contact with water solution promote the formation of H[•], OH[•], O₂^{•-} and HO₂[•]
 91 radicals, i.e. the same species involved in the water radiolysis mechanisms [6]. Moreover, in
 92 photocatalytic experiment, TiO₂ rutile was already identified as a scavenger of the OH[•] radical to
 93 enhance H₂ production on the contrary to ZrO₂ [17].



94
 95 **Figure 1.** Hydrogen production vs. dose, i.e. vs. the contact time between solution and γ -ray
 96

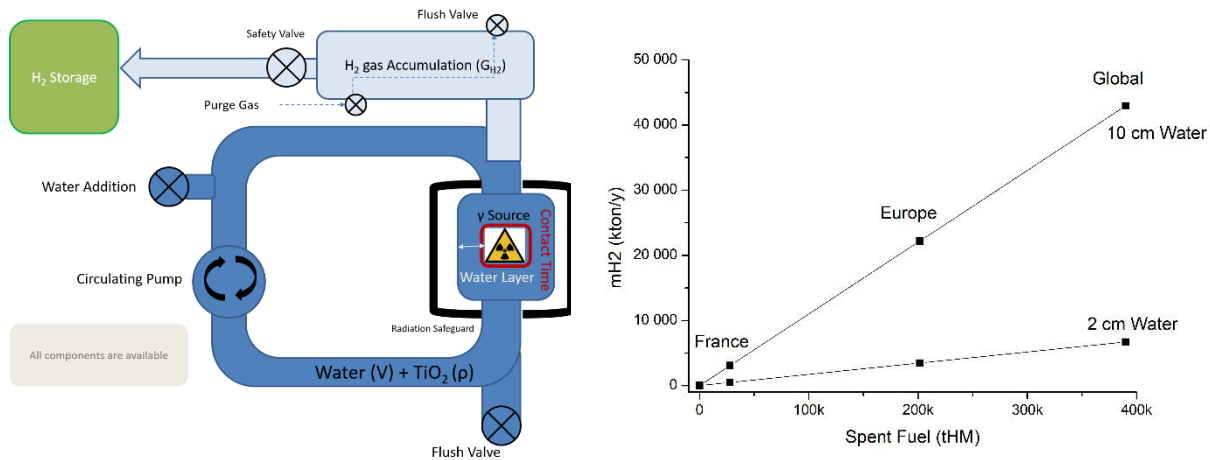
97 The **Equation (1)**, (SI) is established with specific parameters which must be taken into account
 98 for an industrial H₂ radiolytic production as follow:

99
$$m_{H_2} = G_{H_2} \times \rho \times D_R \times T \times V_{sol} \times M \quad (2)$$

100 where m_{H2} is the dihydrogen production (in g), ρ is the density of the irradiated solution (1.05
 101 kg.L⁻¹, in the case of the TiO₂ rutile suspension), D the absorbed dose (in Gy, corresponding to
 102 the product of Dose Rate D_R of the γ -source in Gy.h⁻¹ and the contact time t in h), V_{sol} the
 103 irradiated volume of the solution (in L), G_{H2} is the H₂ radiolytic yield (mol.J⁻¹) and M the molar
 104 weight of H₂ (2.016 g.mol⁻¹).

105 From the G-value determined for the TiO₂ rutile system (0.1 μmol.J⁻¹) and **Equation (1)**, one can
 106 upscale the H₂ production derived from our experiment lab conditions to realistic industrial
 107 process. Here, we envision to circulate an aqueous suspension of TiO₂ rutile around a vitrified
 108 high-level radioactive waste (Figure 2A). The water circulation circuits is connected to a
 109 degasser in order to retrieve H₂ produced by water radiolysis. The HL Radwaste size is
 110 considered as 135x44 cm with a mass of 500 kg and a dose rate D_R = 14 kGy.h⁻¹. These results
 111 are calculated for two options with a different thickness of the water layer around the waste:
 112 either 2 cm (V_{sol} = 46 L), either 10 cm (V_{sol} = 294 L) which corresponds to the average
 113 penetration depth of the Cs γ-radiation.

114
 115



116
 117

118 **Figure 2.** A : Scheme of H₂ production unit where the high level nuclear waste is surrounded
 119 by a water container connected to a recirculation circuit and a degasser to recover H₂. The
 120 thickness of the water layer surrounding the waste package should be around 2 to 10 cm to
 121 maximize the effect of the γ-radiation penetration. B : Total H₂ radiolytic production via nuclear
 122 waste inventory vs data sheet from AIEA [8] (Data inventory at 31th December 2016) with 10
 123 and 2 cm for the water layer thickness around the waste.

124

125 The following important comments can be made from this calculation (see Eq. 2):

- 126 • G_{H_2} : From our lab results we have used the $0.1 \mu\text{mol.J}^{-1}$ value, but many yield
127 improvement can be proposed by scavenging processes which, for example, consumes
128 hydroxyl radical and enhances the H_2 production [24; 25].
- 129 • ρ : The density of pure water is 1 kg.L^{-1} , but one must take into account the density of the
130 aqueous suspension of TiO_2 rutile (1.05 kg.L^{-1}). This TiO_2 quantity could be optimized to
131 enhance the yield of H_2 production.
- 132 • γ Source: In our experimental lab we have used a classical ^{137}Cs source (Dose Rate = 420
133 Gy.h^{-1}) which is the main γ source emitting in the spent fuel for the first part of
134 radioactive decay (30 years). That is the reason why, from an industrial point of view, the
135 more efficient radioactive source is the High Activity-Long Life spent fuel actually
136 storage in different power plant (390 ktons) with an average dose rate calculated from
137 literature data [26] to 28 kGy.h^{-1} per ton. So we can extend the actual experiment to the
138 spent fuel due to the same source term (^{137}Cs) in both cases with a difference between the
139 dose rate (28 vs. 0.420 kGy.h^{-1}).
- 140 • Contact Time: This time is the duration when the volume of solution is under the effect of
141 the irradiation. In this study, we have performed experiments lasting up to 2 months and
142 confirmed that the H_2 production occurs continuously with the TiO_2 surface scavenging
143 the OH° species without poisoning [17]. Such a phenomenon does not happen with
144 ultrapure water only as the Allen chain stops the H_2 production process [6]. Thus, we
145 have chosen to calculate the H_2 production over one year to compare with other industrial
146 processes.

- 147 • Molar Weight: We have expressed the H₂ production in term of mass to compare with
148 other H₂ production methods already used.
- 149 • Volume of the solution (V): It is the key point for the H₂ radiolytic production. The H₂O
150 concentration (55.5 mol.L⁻¹) exposed to the radiation kinetically forces the H₂ production.
151 That is the reason why higher is the irradiated volume, higher is the H₂ production. The
152 H₂ radiolytic production kinetic occurs at μs scale [6]. Therefore, for both cases (2 and 10
153 cm water layer corresponding to the average penetration depth of γ-ray), we have
154 calculated the water flow rate accounting for the waste package geometry (46 and 294
155 L.s⁻¹, respectively).
- 156 • Production of H₂: For the 2 and 10 cm water layer, the production of radiolytic H₂ is
157 respectively 6.7 and 42.9 MtH₂ per year if we used the totality of spent fuel actually
158 stored in the world (value in 2017). This H₂ production can further be enhanced, as
159 underlined in previous occurrences, by optimizing the irradiated solution volume, G_{H₂}-
160 value, TiO₂/water ratio and water composition.

161

162 3. Discussion: Consequences for low-carbon Hydrogen production

163 From the hydrogen industry side, the global quantity of pure H₂ calculated in **Figure 2** (6.7 and
164 42.9 MtH₂.y⁻¹) represents about 10 and 60 % of the actual global H₂ production (70 MtH₂.y⁻¹,
165 with only 0.6 MtH₂.y⁻¹ being supplied as “green hydrogen” from renewable energy sources in
166 2019 [2]). Moreover, the so-called “green hydrogen” need high quantity of low-carbon
167 electricity, metals such as Cu, Co, Ni or Li and pure water to be relevant. In the radiolytic
168 production, the system proposed here can be considered as “low tech” due to : (i) a very modest
169 electricity need (just to circulate solution and not to initiate electrolysis), (ii) only Titanium

170 required as metal oxide native form and it is considered as the ninth more abundant element in
171 the earth's crust [27], (iii) many kind of water can be used (wastewater, seawater for example)
172 and (iv) all materials needed are commercially available without rare or strategic metals being
173 involved. Nevertheless, research and development on irradiated solution volume, G_{H_2} -value,
174 TiO_2 /water ratio and water composition remains to be carried out to enhance the global
175 production H_2 yield of the radiolytic process.

176

177 **4. Conclusion and Perspectives**

178 In this work, a new paradigm is proposed: spent nuclear fuel may not be seen as useless waste
179 but as a new unused free-carbon energy source via the H_2 radiolytic production by a lowtech
180 process. This system displays many advantages in addition to the classical “green hydrogen”
181 ones:

- 182 • The nuclear production energy is a decarbonized one, so the wastes produced via this
183 technology too.
- 184 • The long-live radioactivity delivered by nuclear waste allows to use it for many centuries
185 (> 300 years) with a low technology process.
- 186 • All spent nuclear fuel wastes produced from the start of the nuclear industry in 50's can
187 be used by this process (in 2017, 390 ktons).
- 188 • By the revival of the nuclear industry in the world (at least two-fold more in 2050), more
189 and more unused nuclear wastes will be available for this H_2 production process.
- 190 • At the contrary to the “green hydrogen” process which proposes to convert electricity in
191 hydrogen, which could be used for other decarbonized sectors, and reconvert it to

192 electricity with loss of yield; the radiolytic process proposes to convert unused nuclear
193 waste in electricity via the hydrogen production.

- 194 • Calculations from our experiments yield an H₂ production ranging give between 6.7 and
195 42.9 MtH₂.y⁻¹, depending on the water layer thickness considered around the waste. Its
196 represents between 10 to 60 % of the global demand in hydrogen and at least 10-fold the
197 present day actual production of “green hydrogen”.

198 However, many parameters remain to be optimized to improve the H₂ production yield. These
199 parameters are as follow: irradiated solution volume, initial G_{H₂}-value, TiO₂/water ratio and
200 water composition in order to accommodate the results presented here to the industrial realities.

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203

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208

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