



**APPENDIX E**  
**PREVIOUS STUDIES OF**  
**PANEL-CLOSURE SYSTEM MATERIALS**

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In researching the available literature relating to panel-closure system designs and materials, studies on both long-term and short-term barrier performance were evaluated. The intended function of the main concrete barrier described in this report is to provide short-term (35 years) barrier capability until the repository host rock reconsolidates around the barrier. However, studies on long-term barrier performance were found useful for the panel-closure system material compatibility evaluation performed for this document. The results of these studies provided insight into the complex issues to be considered for selecting an appropriate concrete and grout for the panel-closure system.

Stormont (1987) studied small-scale seal performance tests (SSSPT). The SSSPTs were designed as in situ experiments to evaluate the performance of candidate seal materials. Barrier systems consisted of the barrier itself, the barrier-rock interface, and the surrounding rock. The system performance was evaluated using thermal/mechanical and fluid flow (both gas and brine) data generated by testing under expected repository conditions. Thermal, mechanical, and hydrologic performance of the barriers was evaluated. Test Series A consisted of a bulkhead constructed of salt-based concrete. Regarding hydration of the concrete, stresses and strains induced in the rock and the barrier were a result of hydration. Stresses and strains also resulted from the salt creep and from the panel-closure system material. Evaluation of these stresses and strains yielded information about the stability of the barrier system and the structural/fluid flow relationship. The permeabilities of the barrier material with respect to gas and brine were important for evaluating the potential for a repository breach scenario. Test Series A was conducted in geologic horizons that included bedded halite and interbeds of clay and anhydrite.

Three types of concrete were evaluated for the Test Series A study: salt-free concrete, salt concrete, and expansive salt-based concrete. The latter proved to yield the most favorable results due to its significant expansive properties, which create a tight interface; its workability (about 4 hours); and for its ability to inhibit dissolution of surrounding salt during cement hydration.

Stormont (1988) also studied the performance of grout and concretes as constituents of main concrete barriers for the panel-closure system. The use of cementitious grouts within the disturbed rock zone adjacent to the main barrier was determined to be detrimental at times, as it could facilitate fracture propagation. To prevent the load reaction causing the fracture propagation, Stormont proposed the emplacement of rigid concrete at the main barrier location. Stormont's investigations of concrete to form the actual main barrier indicated that concrete is impermeable, and any associated leakage across the barrier would occur at the concrete/rock interface zone. Leakage could be attributed to concrete shrinkage and the integrity of the rock itself. However, Stormont noted that the presence of halite in the host rock would result in compressional forces exerted on the concrete barrier over time, with little or no leakage occurring.

SSSPT performed by Stormont (1988) and Finley and Tillerson (1992) evaluated salt-based concrete, bentonite, and salt blocks for barrier performance. In the salt-based concrete barriers, both brine and gas migration across the barrier-rock interface were retarded by salt creep adjacent to the barrier and the expansive properties of the salt-based concrete. The salt-based concrete barriers also withstood significant back-pressure forces. Bentonite and salt blocks did not perform as satisfactorily with respect to their load-bearing capacities or fluid permeabilities.

Hansen et al. (1994) discussed barrier materials for vertical shaft environments in terms of the barriers' long- and short-term components. The single long-term component envisaged in their studies was reconsolidated salt, especially engineered to achieve a barrier function in approximately 100 years. However, short-term materials included concrete, bentonite, grout, chemical seal rings, and potential alternatives, although the alternatives were not included in a reference barrier design. Each barrier component had a functional requirement to prevent the passageways from becoming the preferred passageways for transport of brines or gases to or from the repository. Short-term components provided barriers to brine and groundwater inflow to the consolidating and long-term members and to the repository. The composition of each selected barrier was based on experience in the mining industry, assurance of function through test results, and compatibility with the stratigraphy in which the barrier was placed. The authors looked at specific geologic horizons with respect to their ability to prevent brine and gas flow.

Test Series B (Peterson et al., 1987) more likely approximated the configuration of the proposed panel barrier, which will be emplaced in a horizontal drift leading to the waste-

emplacement panels. The type of material used in the testing was a salt-saturated expansive concrete, as was used in Test Series A.

In both the A and B test series, the parameter of primary interest was the barrier permeability. For calculational purposes, it was assumed that all flow goes through the barrier. However, some flow may enter the surrounding formation as well, although it is difficult to determine and quantify. Factors affecting measured flow rates through the barrier would include the pressure under which the brine was flowing. If a brine was saturated with respect to its liquid phase at ambient conditions, added pressures may decrease its saturation and encourage dissolution of the surrounding halite.

In one test, barrier brine flow rate decreased slowly with time; this is an important consideration when modeling long-term response. Possible mechanisms causing this decrease include precipitation, healing, or creep closure of open pore spaces. Estimates of brine and gas permeabilities depend strongly on the degree of pore saturation.

Only gas-flow tests were performed in the B Series. All of the barriers leaked (though at slow rates) in the B Series tests. No leakage occurred at the barrier/formation interface. Leaks were associated with a small formation fracture and with an instrumentation bundle. Gas-flow tests performed approximately one year later indicated no leakage associated with the barriers.

Test Series C (Stormont et al., 1987) consisted of salt and salt-bentonite block barrier material emplaced in a horizontal drift within almost pure halite. Four barriers were composed of salt blocks, and four barriers consisted of salt-bentonite blocks. Four of the barriers, two representing each type of material described above, were evaluated without instrumentation, for fluid flow and permeability testing. Instrumentation and cabling are often leak paths for such testing. The instrumentation used in the other barriers measured deformations and pressures and provided other important data. The data suggest that crushed salt provides very little resistance to closure until the crushed salt is very dense. Deformation experiments were designed to verify or refute this evidence.

Principal advantages to salt-block emplacements as opposed to mechanical or pneumatic backfilling were that initial porosity of the crushed or granular salt was minimized, reducing the time required for effective or complete salt consolidation. This in turn reduced the likelihood of brine influx from the surrounding strata that could impede the consolidation



process. Block emplacements also allowed considerable control over production and emplacement. Blocks could be tailored to achieve certain properties, such as addition of bentonite or moisture.

Experiments with different types of blocks indicated that the relative density of the blocks increased with the maximum particle size used. Further, blocks cured in humid environments became extremely friable and unviable. Within the Waste Isolation Pilot Plant (WIPP) facility, the humidity of the ventilation air is below the critical humidity of 75 percent (the air will take moisture from the salt).

Blocks cured at ambient conditions were the most resilient in that they resisted chipping and shattering. Their "toughness" was a result of the development of an indurated "skin" from particle caking. Caking occurs when moisture at particle contacts is evaporated, resulting in bridging and microcrystalline growth that essentially cements the particles together. However, an indurated skin may also hinder consolidation at the interfaces between blocks from a lack of available water believed necessary for rapid consolidation.

The purpose of adding bentonite to salt blocks was to reduce the permeability without requiring extensive consolidation. Data collected indicated that permeabilities to brines and water fell off to microdarcy values somewhere between 25 and 50 percent bentonite by weight. For this experiment, a 1:1 ratio of salt to bentonite was used. Over 90 percent of the bentonite was composed of the clay mineral montmorillonite. Water was also introduced into the mixture.

Salt/bentonite blocks cured in the humid environment took sufficient moisture from the air to become extremely friable, and therefore, unviable. Under covered conditions, less moisture was lost. Salt/bentonite blocks were also tougher than salt-only blocks. Also, greater amounts of moisture contributed to a tougher block than the addition of less moisture.



The use of mortars was necessary to fill the voids between the blocks and the borehole wall. Mortar was generally only emplaced into the interface and not between blocks. The mortars were composed of the same materials as the blocks.

In summary, both types of blocks were found to lose excessive moisture to the dry mine atmosphere unless they were covered between the time of production and the time of emplacement. Initial fluid flow testing of the salt/bentonite barriers revealed that erosion

along the block/rock interface occurred when the brine was introduced too rapidly to allow the bentonite to take up the water and swell to shut down flow paths. Subsequent testing with slower introduction of brine confirmed this result, that is, salt/bentonite blocks could be effective barriers to brine flow. Structural measurements provided data to test laboratory models of salt consolidation. To date, the measurements do not contradict model predictions of the barriers providing little resistance to hole closure until they become very dense.

The concrete and grout used in the above-referenced study were developed by Gulick and Wakeley (1989). They proposed expansive salt-saturated concrete (ESC) and grout mixtures that yielded favorable results for suitability as panel barrier and grout materials during the in-place testing at the WIPP repository. The grout composition was summarized in the text of this report in Section 2.2.1. The formulation for the ESC is shown in Table E-1.

**Table E-1**  
**Expansive Salt-Saturated Concrete**



| Component          | Percent of Total Mass |
|--------------------|-----------------------|
| Class H cement     | 9.03                  |
| Chem comp III      | 6.03                  |
| Cal seal (plaster) | 1.80                  |
| Class C fly ash    | 5.10                  |
| Fine aggregate     | 34.11                 |
| Coarse aggregate   | 34.58                 |
| Sodium chloride    | 2.50                  |
| Defoaming agent    | 0.21                  |
| Sodium citrate     | 0.11                  |
| Water (iced)       | 6.60                  |

Class H cement is a standard oil-well cement. It has been used extensively in grouts and concretes in underground applications. Class C fly ash contributes expansive properties to the concrete. Cal Seal (a plaster of paris manufactured by Haliburton) also develops expansive properties in mixtures containing Class H cement. Expansive components that are added to the concrete or grout mixtures enhance bonding between the concrete or grout and the host rock. The addition of sodium chloride to the mixture is necessary to assure that the water

content of the concrete or grout is in equilibrium with the host rock. This prevents dissolution, and also inhibits or reduces deterioration of the concrete or grout. Defoaming agents inhibit air entrainment in the concrete or grout mixture.

## ***References***

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