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## Impact of initial structural heterogeneity on long term swelling behavior of MX80 bentonite pellet/powder mixtures

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1 **Impact of initial structural heterogeneity on long term swelling**  
2 **behavior of MX80 bentonite pellet/powder mixtures**

3

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**29 Abstract:**

30 To better understand SEALEX in situ tests result's carried out at Tournemire Underground  
31 Research Laboratory , the hydro-mechanical behavior of a pellet/powder MX80 bentonite  
32 mixtures prepared at a dry density of  $1.49 \text{ Mg/m}^3$  were investigated by means of  $\mu$ -CT  
33 observations and laboratory small scale infiltration tests. Radial and axial swelling pressures  
34 as well as relative humidity were monitored while wetting. Two configurations were  
35 considered: for the first, a pellet/powder mixture was prepared following a specific protocol to  
36 minimise initial structural heterogeneity; the second one was specially designed to study a  
37 strong heterogeneous mixture distribution.  $\mu$ -CT observations performed on the two samples  
38 during hydration revealed an apparently homogeneous sample for the first mixture after 100  
39 days of hydration. For the second specimen, several voids were still observed after 40 days of  
40 hydration. A comparison was made between the in situ and mock-up tests. It was observed  
41 that the evolutions of radial and axial swelling pressures depend on the initial heterogeneous  
42 distribution of the mixture. This heterogeneity is due to the different dry density values at the  
43 vicinity of the different sensors. The final values of axial swelling pressures were different for  
44 both configurations for the same global dry density.

45 **Keywords:** heterogenous structural distribution, Microfocus X-ray Computed Tomography,  
46 Sealex in situ tests, MX80 bentonite pellet powder mixture

47

**48 1. Introduction**

49 Bentonite high density pellet and powder mixture is being evaluated as possible sealing  
50 materials in deep geological repositories. In spite of the operational advantages related to the  
51 use of the mixture (e.g. ease of handling and minimisation of technological gaps), structural  
52 heterogeneities resulting from the installation process constitutes a matter of concern and  
53 require special approaches to adequately describe the material behaviour during hydration. In

54 this context, the Institute of Radiation protection and Nuclear Safety (IRSN) has launched  
55 SEALEX project to investigate the long-term hydraulic performance of sealing systems in  
56 normal and critical scenarios, as well as different core compositions. A series of *in-situ*  
57 experiments have been performed in IRSN's Underground Research Laboratory (URL –  
58 Tournemire, France) (Mokni & Barnichon, 2016; Mokni, 2016). This work focuses on the last  
59 sealex test in which a mixture of pellets and powder of bentonite with a proportion of 80/20 in  
60 dry mass was investigated. Based on the design of the in-situ experiments, two laboratory  
61 mock-up tests (1/10<sup>th</sup> scale) were performed aiming at studying the hydro-mechanical  
62 behavior and the structure changes of the material during hydration.

63 The hydro-mechanical behavior of different configurations of sealing plugs has been  
64 investigated at both laboratory and field scales (Mokni & Barnichon, 2016; Mokni, 2016,  
65 Wang et al., 2012, 2013; Saba et al., 2014). The relationship between swelling pressure and  
66 bentonite dry density of the material is an important result from these investigations  
67 (Börgesson et al., 1996; Dixon et al., 1996; Lloret et al., 2003; Imbert and Villar, 2006;  
68 Karnland et al., 2008; Gens et al., 2011; Villar et al., 2012 ; Wang et al., 2013; Saba et al.,  
69 2014; Schanz & Al-Badran, 2014). However, this relationship was mainly established based  
70 on the axial swelling pressure of the bentonite-based materials, and a few results of radial  
71 swelling pressure were considered for this purpose. Additionally, very few experiments  
72 focused on the evolution of dry density heterogeneity upon hydration and its influence on the  
73 swelling behavior. Furthermore, few investigations have been conducted on the hydro-  
74 mechanical behavior of bentonite pellet/powder mixture which is one of candidate sealing  
75 materials (Imbert and Villar, 2006; Van Geet et al. 2005; Molinero et al. 2016). This material,  
76 consisting of a mixture of low-density bentonite powder and highly compacted bentonite  
77 pellets, is obviously highly heterogeneous in its initial state. Molinero et al., (2016)  
78 demonstrated that preparing samples of a mixture of MX 80 bentonite pellet/powder at the

79 same target dry density with the same fabrication protocol does not ensure an initial  
80 homogenous structural distribution. The degree and distribution of heterogeneity might vary  
81 during hydration; thus, the average dry density might be not sufficient to characterize its final  
82 state. Another important characteristic of the bentonite mixture is the multimodal nature of its  
83 porous network which governs its overall hydromechanical properties.

84 The aim of this work is to investigate the effect of initial heterogeneous structural  
85 distributions on the swelling capacity and microstructural evolution of the bentonite  
86 pellet/powder mixture upon hydration. To account for possible structural heterogeneities  
87 resulting from the installation process in real disposal repositories, two configurations were  
88 considered. In the first configuration, the specimen consists of a mixture of MX80 bentonite  
89 pellet and powder with a proportion of 80/20 in dry mass, similarly to the SEALEX in-situ  
90 test. Special effort has been made to minimize initial structural heterogeneities. In the second  
91 configuration, a highly heterogeneous specimen, with half consisting of MX80 bentonite  
92 pellet and half of MX80 bentonite pellet/powder mixture was tested. The results of the small  
93 scale tests are presented along with the results of *in situ* SEALEX test. Comparison of the  
94 small scale laboratory tests and the in-situ experiments provides useful information regarding  
95 the test scale effect.

96

## 97 **2. Materials**

98 The studied soil is a mixture of MX80 bentonite pellet and powder (80/20 in dry mass). The  
99 bentonite investigated comes from Wyoming, USA. It was provided by the Laviosa-MPC  
100 company under the commercial name Expangel SP7 for pellets and SP30 for the powder. The  
101 MX80 bentonite has a smectite content of 80% with some inclusions of crystals (quartz,  
102 calcite and pyrite). The cation exchange capacity (CEC) is 98 meq/100g, with Na<sup>+</sup> as major

103 exchangeable cation (52 meq/100g, with also 1.2 meq/100g for  $K^+$ , 10 meq/100g for  $Mg^{2+}$   
104 and 37 meq/100g for  $Ca^{2+}$ ). The liquid limit is 560%, the plastic limit is 62% and the unit  
105 mass is  $2.77 \text{ Mg/m}^3$  (Saba et al. 2014).

106 Pellets of bentonite were produced by Laviosa-MPC company by compacting a powder of  
107 MX80 bentonite in a mould of 7 mm in diameter and 7 mm in height. Compaction was  
108 performed at a water content of  $6\pm 1\%$  by applying instantaneously the compaction effort,  
109 resulting in a pellet dry density  $\rho_d = 2.06\pm 0.06 \text{ Mg/m}^3$ , corresponding to a void ratio  $e =$   
110  $0.30\pm 0.07$ . The pellets were stored in the laboratory in a hermetic plastic box at  $20^\circ\text{C}$ . The  
111 initial suction ( $s = 135 \pm 3 \text{ MPa}$ ) was measured in the laboratory with a chilled mirror dew  
112 point tensiometer (Decagon WP4C), corresponding to an initial water content  $w = 7.25\%$ ,  
113 slightly higher than the fabrication water content value ( $6\pm 1\%$ ), due to further hydration after  
114 fabrication.

115 The MX80 bentonite powder was produced by crushing pellets. An initial water content of  
116  $3.17\%$  was found in the laboratory after drying at  $105^\circ\text{C}$  for 24h, corresponding to an initial  
117 suction  $s = 190.9 \text{ MPa}$  (measured with a chilled mirror dew point tensiometer – Decagon  
118 WP4).

### 119 **3. Methods**

120 In order to investigate the HM behavior of the mixture an in situ test and four mock up  
121 infiltration tests have been performed. At small scale, two kind of experimental cells have  
122 been designed: two stainless steel cells equipped with relative humidity and swelling pressure  
123 sensors to investigate the macrostructural hydro-mechanical behaviour of the material and two  
124 Polymethyl methacrylate cells to investigate microstructural changes of the mixture while  
125 wetting by means of Microfocus X-ray Computed Tomography ( $\mu\text{-CT}$ ) observations.  $\mu\text{-CT}$  is  
126 a non destructive 3D imaging technique increasingly used to investigate various materials

127 intended as geological and engineered barriers in deep geological repositories like Boom and  
128 Opalinus clays (e.g. Chen et al 2014; Van Geet et al., 2008), compacted bentonite (e.g.  
129 Kozaki et al., 2001; Suuronene et al., 2014), and compacted bentonite mixtures (Van Geet et  
130 al, 2005; kawaragi et al., 2009; Saba et al., 2014).

131

### 132 **3.1. SEALEX in situ test**

133 The last SEALEX in-situ performance test namely PT-N4 has been performed, aiming at  
134 investigating the long term homogenisation of seals composed of the mixture of MX80  
135 bentonite pellets and powder. When installing the experiment, a horizontal borehole ( $0 \pm 2^\circ$ ),  
136 with a 60 cm diameter and 540 cm long was prepared by excavation in the Tournemire URL  
137 operated by IRSN, located in a Mesozoic sedimentary basin on the western edge of the French  
138 Causses ( Mokni et al., 2016). The bentonite-based core with a total length of 120 cm consists  
139 of a granular mixture of bentonite pellets and powder in a ratio of 80/20 (in dry mass). The  
140 bentonite core was constructed using an auger conveyor; vibration was applied through the  
141 auger itself in order to achieve the target dry density of  $1.49 \text{ Mg/m}^3$ .

142 The core was confined between two fixed stainless steel lids, namely upstream and  
143 downstream lids, which provided both hydraulic and mechanical closures (Figure 1). The lids  
144 consist of a stainless steel circular plate and a cylindrical stainless steel tube welded all around  
145 its periphery. It has a series of three rubber inflatable cushions (O-ring) all around and passing  
146 for the hydration tubings. The hydration at both sides of the lids (upstream and downstream)  
147 is based on special geotextile mats fed with water distribution tubes. The reduction in  
148 thickness of the mats due to the swelling of the buffer is limited to 4 MPa. The hydration  
149 system is equipped with a water distribution panel fed by a weighed stainless steel water tank  
150 connected with inflow lines to both hydration surfaces (downstream and upstream). The

151 confining system consists of a support tube inserted into the cylindrical tube of the  
152 downstream lid up to rest against the circular plate and of a closure plate (1400 mm in  
153 diameter) placed at the outer face of the borehole and secured by four bolts anchored to the  
154 rock.

155 In order to avoid potential flow paths along cables and sensors, and thereby, to limit the  
156 disturbance of the clay core as much as possible, wireless sensors were used. Three types of  
157 sensors were installed within the seal: 5 total pressure cells (Kulite BG-1-0234-6 MPa), 8 pore  
158 pressures sensors (Kulite ETM-200-375-1 MPa) and 8 relative humidity sensors  
159 (commercially-available Sensirion SHT75) (Figure 2). Three total pressure sensors were  
160 installed on the surface of the core at 60 cm from the downstream saturation face in order to  
161 measure the radial swelling pressure. Two total pressure sensors were installed at 0 and 120  
162 cm from the downstream saturation face to measure axial swelling pressure. Hydration was  
163 performed by injecting synthetic water with the same chemical composition as the pore water  
164 of the Callovo-Oxfordian claystone from the ANDRA underground research laboratory in  
165 Bure (Table 1). Injection was carried out using a counter pressure of 0.2 MPa during few  
166 hours, and then the backward pressure was released.

### 167 3.2. Experimental mock-up tests

#### 168 *Mock-up tests to investigate microstructural evolution of the mixture*

169 The evolution of the microstructural distribution of the material upon hydration was  
170 investigated by means of Microfocus X-ray Computed Tomography observations ( $\mu$ -CT). A  
171 special set-up consisting of a transparent PMMA (Polymethyl methacrylate) cell was designed  
172 (Figure 4). It has 60 mm of inner diameter and 120 mm of height, which corresponds to 1/10<sup>th</sup>  
173 scale of the SEALEX *in situ* tests. The mixture is prepared inside the cell, between two pore  
174 stones and filter papers. The rigid PMMA cell (30 mm thick) and the blocked piston ensure a

175 constant-volume hydration condition. The mixture is saturated from both top and bottom  
176 sides, as in the SEALEX *in situ* experiments. More details on the experimental cell could be  
177 found in Molinero et al., (2018).

178  $\mu$ -CT scans were carried out on both mixtures at initial state and during hydration by using an  
179 “Ultratom” microtomograph (RX Solutions, France). Images were reconstructed using the  
180 software Xact (RX Solutions). The source is a microfocus X-ray tube Hamamatsu L10801  
181 and the imager is a Paxscan Varian 2520V (1960 x 1536 square pixels 127  $\mu$ m size).

182 The X-ray source parameters were 160 kV and 120 $\mu$ A; the voxel size was 50  $\mu$ m. The  
183 samples were scanned using 5760 projections in helical mode. After reconstruction, 2800  
184 horizontal slices were obtained (16 bit images, 1499 x 1499 pixels). An external metal filter  
185 consisting of a 1.5mm thickness cooper plate was used in the  $\mu$ -CT source. This filter allows  
186 reducing the low energy photon component of the X-ray beam, reducing the beam hardening  
187 effect.

#### 188 *Mock-up tests to Investigate hydro-mechanical behavior of the mixture*

189 Two identical small-scale infiltration cells (mock-up tests, Figure 3) were designed in order to  
190 investigate the hydro-mechanical behavior of the mixture. The dimensions correspond to 1/10  
191 of *in situ* SEALEX experiments (60 mm in diameter and 120 mm in height). The confined  
192 saturation conditions for the pellet/powder bentonite mixture are ensured by a rigid structure  
193 and a piston blocked by a screw. The material was saturated from both sides (top and bottom)  
194 as in the SEALEX *in situ* experiment. Six total pressure sensors were installed in the cell  
195 (SP20, SP40, SP60, SP80 and SP100), which allowed the measurement of the radial swelling  
196 pressures at different positions ( $h = 20, 40, 60, 80, \text{ and } 100$  mm from the bottom side). The  
197 accuracy of the sensors is  $\pm 1\%$ . A force transducer was installed under the cell base,  
198 monitoring the axial swelling pressure. The relative humidity was also recorded by using five

199 relative humidity sensors (RH31, RH51, RH71, RH91 and RH111) placed at different heights  
200 in the cell ( $h = 31, 51, 71, 91$  and  $111$  mm, see Figure 3).

201

### 202 *Sample preparation and adopted protocol*

203

204 To account for possible structural heterogeneities resulting from the installation process in  
205 real disposal conditions, two configurations were considered at the same global dry density of  
206  $1.49 \text{ Mg/m}^3$ . In the first configuration, the specimen (samples 1 and 1a) consists of a mixture  
207 of MX80 bentonite pellet and powder with a proportion of 80/20 in dry mass, similarly to  
208 SEALEX in-situ test. A special preparation protocol was adopted to minimize initial structural  
209 heterogeneities in terms of particle arrangement (Molinero Guerra et al., 2016). It consists in  
210 filling the cell by packets corresponding to one layer of pellets spread over the base of the  
211 cylinder and by adding the corresponding amount of powder (taking into account the  
212 proportion 80% pellets – 20% powder in dry mass) (Figure 5a). In the second configuration, a  
213 highly heterogeneous specimen (samples 2 and 2a) consisting of a mixture of MX80 bentonite  
214 pellet and powder prepared at different proportions was tested (Figure 5b). In this case, the  
215 half bottom part of the cell was filled with a 66.7% pellet/33.3% powder mixture (proportions  
216 in dry mass) – corresponding to a dry density of  $1.79 \text{ Mg/m}^3$ , to ensure that all inter-pellet  
217 voids are filled with powder. On the contrary, the top half of the cell was filled with only  
218 pellets of bentonite at a dry density of  $1.19 \text{ Mg/m}^3$ . The latter case simulates possible defects  
219 that might results from *in situ* installation process (e.g segregation, existence of zones with an  
220 assembly of pellets with no powder filling the voids or zones with an accumulation of  
221 powder)

222 All the tests started by opening the water inlet valves. At the beginning, air in the base or in  
223 the piston was evacuated by opening the air outlet valve until no air bubble was observed in

224 the pipes. Water was then injected through both the top and the bottom of the sample. Values  
225 of radial and axial swelling pressure as well as relative humidity were recorded automatically  
226 by a data logger. The volume of injected water was also monitored during hydration.

#### 227 **4. Mock up tests experimental results**

##### 228 *Microstructural observations*

229 The microstructural evolution during hydration was investigated by  $\mu$ -CT observations on two  
230 MX 80 bentonite pellet and powder samples (named sample 1a and sample 2a). Sample 1a  
231 was prepared to minimise initial heterogeneities and sample 2a was strongly heterogeneous.

232 Figure 6 shows the vertical  $\mu$ -CT sections of sample 1a at different times. The initial state  
233 shows the presence of larger voids between the pellet and the porous stone at the top of the  
234 mixture, most probably due to segregation during the sample fabrication. Note also the  
235 presence of large inter-pellet voids which are not filled with powder, particularly in the  
236 peripheral part of the specimen. After 2 days of hydration, the top large inter-pellets voids are  
237 completely sealed due to the vicinity to the hydration front. During hydration, the poly-  
238 disperse assembly of the highly compacted pellets and powder is progressively lost. Inter-  
239 pellet voids are still observed after 56 days of hydration, even though the pellets located at the  
240 furthest position from both hydration fronts have already swollen at this time. An apparently  
241 global homogeneous sample is observed after 100 days of hydration at the considered  
242 resolution (50  $\mu\text{m}/\text{voxel}$ ). At this time, almost all the voids are completely sealed.

243 Figure 7 shows a zoom of an assembly of pellets located at the middle of sample 1a. These  
244 observations allow better understanding the pellets structural changes during hydration. After  
245 11 days of hydration, liquid water has not reached this section but hydration is ensured by  
246 vapor transfer. Several cracks can be observed within the pellets. These cracks will play the  
247 role of preferential paths for vapor transfer during saturation. After 27 days, new cracks are

248 observed and the pellets are progressively degraded. The initial granular structure is almost  
249 lost after 56 days but some inter-pellet voids are still observed.

250 Figure 8 shows the vertical  $\mu$ -CT sections of the highly heterogeneous sample 2a during  
251 wetting. A clear distinction can be observed between the top and bottom halves of the sample.

252 For the 100-pellet/0-powder mixture (situated between 60 mm and 120 mm from the bottom  
253 hydration front), the initial granular structure completely disappears after 1 day of hydration.

254 Pellets shape can be hardly distinguished; but several large voids can still be observed. After

255 40 days, the voids are almost sealed by swollen bentonite. A view of the structural evolution

256 of the mixture at a horizontal section located within the looser upper part of the sample at 110

257 mm from the bottom hydration front is shown in Figure 9. Initially, an assembly of pellets

258 with larger inter-pellet voids not filled with powder can be observed. After 30 min of

259 hydration, the shape of pellets is completely lost as they swell instantaneously. After 90 min

260 of hydration, all voids are completely sealed, resulting in an apparently homogeneous

261 bentonite mixture. More details on image analysis of  $\mu$ -CT observation of sample 1a could be

262 found in Molinero et al. (2018)

263 For the denser lower part of sample 2a ( 66.7-pellet/33.3-powder), only pellets in contact

264 with the bottom porous stone start swelling after 1 day of hydration, but no significant

265 changes are observed in the rest of the sample (Figure 14). Unlike the looser upper part of the

266 sample where the material was rapidly inundated with water, for the denser lower part it is

267 suspected that saturation occurs by advection of liquid water and diffusion of vapor. After 5

268 days, a homogenous saturated bentonite layers is formed at the bottom boundary of the

269 sample. At this layer, large macro voids are invaded by the swollen bentonite and the

270 hydraulic conductivity becomes very low, favoring the saturation of the remaining

271 unsaturated zones by vapor transfer. Interestingly, the material located at the limit between the

272 denser and looser part (at 60 mm from the bottom) starts swelling rapidly after 5 days since it

273 is also hydrated by water coming from the looser part. Significant changes are observed after  
274 35 days. In the looser part, most inter-pellets voids are already sealed, while in the denser part  
275 an increase of the thickness of the outer apparently homogenous bentonite layer is observed.  
276 However, after 40 days, several inter-pellets voids are still identified in the looser part; but  
277 they are progressively sealed, as it is observed within the outer layer closer to the hydration  
278 front (Figure 15). Simultaneously, at the denser part of the sample, the pellet shape can be still  
279 noticeable. Unfortunately, the  $\mu$ -CT observations were stopped at 40 days.

### 280 *Mechanical results*

281 Figure 10 displays the swelling pressure evolution of the two investigated samples (sample 1  
282 and 2) after 300 days of hydration. Two distinct hydro-mechanical responses can be identified  
283 for both mixtures. For sample 1 (Figure 10a), the pattern of behavior is very similar in all  
284 positions ( SP 20, 40, 60, and 80). The swelling pressure increases at different rates depending  
285 on the distance to the hydration front, then reaches a nearly stationary value after 200 days.  
286 Nevertheless, a negative rate is observed at the beginning of the hydration process at SP40.  
287 This negative rate can be related to a rearrangement of the material structural distribution at  
288 this zone at the beginning of the hydration process. After 300 days, the highest radial swelling  
289 pressure (4.6 MPa) is measured at SP80 located at 40 cm from the top hydration face. At  
290 SP60 the magnitude of the swelling pressure is lower and reaches 3.8 MPa after 300 days. At  
291 SP100 located at 20 mm from the top hydration front a different behaviour is observed. The  
292 swelling pressure increases very rapidly and reaches a peak of about 2.1 MPa (a zoom is  
293 presented in Figure 11). After about 5 hours a significant decrease of the swelling pressure  
294 occurs, to a minimum value of 1.5 MPa. The swelling pressure increases again at slower rate  
295 and reaches a value of 2.55 MPa after 60 days. Afterwards, the swelling pressure increases  
296 and is stabilized at 3.3 MPa after 200 days. The peak occurrence followed by a decrease  
297 corresponds to the reorganisation of the microstructure characterized by the collapse of the

298 macrospheres between the bentonite grains. It is worth noting that the horizontal swelling  
299 pressure measurements are strongly influenced by the local microstructural distribution at the  
300 vicinity of the sensors. The non-peak occurrence at SP40, SP60, and SP80 suggest that the  
301 sensors were placed in zones where high density pellets are tightly arranged with few or no  
302 grains of bentonite powder in between of them. Similar trends were observed for the axial  
303 swelling pressure. However, in this case no macrostructural collapse is observed, indicating  
304 that collapse in some zones is compensated by the non-collapsing behavior of other zones.

305 A different pattern of behavior is observed for the highly heterogeneous mixture (sample 2,  
306 Figure 10b). At SP20 located within the denser bottom part of the mixture, a fast increase of  
307 the swelling pressure is observed at the beginning of the test, reaching a peak value of 6.1  
308 MPa. Then, it decreases until a value of 3.6 MPa after 75 days of hydration. Swelling pressure  
309 increases slightly between 150 and 300 days of hydration, being 3.8 MPa the highest value.  
310 On the contrary, at SP40 the swelling pressure increases gradually, and then reaches a nearly  
311 stationary value after 100 days.

312 At SP60 located at the limit between the denser and the looser part of sample 2, a fast increase  
313 of swelling pressure is recorded, with a rate higher than that at SP40, until reaching a peak at  
314 1.6 MPa. Then, the swelling pressure decreases slowly to a value of 1.2 MPa. After 72 days,  
315 an increase is observed again with the same rate as at SP40. After 300 days of hydration, a  
316 swelling pressure of 2 MPa is measured.

317 The lowest swelling pressure increase rate and magnitude are observed at SP80 and SP100  
318 respectively, located at the upper looser part of sample 2 ( $1.19 \text{ Mg/m}^3$ ), at 40 and 20 cm from  
319 the upper hydration front. At SP80, the radial swelling pressure increases very slowly until  
320 reaching a value of 0.3 MPa after 75 days of hydration. Then, an increase of swelling pressure  
321 is observed until 100 days, where an almost constant value of 1.2 MPa is reached. The lowest  
322 swelling pressure magnitude is recorded at SP100 where a value of about 0.6 MPa is reached

323 after 60 days and remains constant till 300 days. For all sensors, after 230 days a fluctuation is  
324 observed for all sensors, which could be due to problems in the system acquisition during the  
325 test.

326 For the axial swelling pressure, as in sample 1, it increases slowly and reaches a nearly  
327 stationary value after almost 100 days. However, in this case the magnitude of the swelling  
328 pressure is lower (1.1 MPa in this case against 2.3 MPa for sample 1).

329 Figure 12 displays the profiles of swelling pressure at different times for both samples. For  
330 sample 1 (Figure 12a), the curves have a quasi-parabolic shape with a symmetry at 60 mm.  
331 This trend is not observed for the highly heterogeneous sample 2 (Figure 12b). In this case,  
332 the highest swelling pressure value is reached at the bottom of the mixture, in the denser part  
333 of the specimen. Figure 13 displays the swelling pressure profiles after 300 days of hydration  
334 for both samples. A relatively constant radial swelling pressure is observed for sample 1, in  
335 the range from 3.3 to 4.4 MPa. On the contrary for the highly heterogeneous sample 2, the  
336 swelling pressure tends to decrease from the bottom to top. The highest value is observed at  
337 20 mm from the bottom hydration face, where the sample has a high initial density of 1.79  
338  $\text{Mg/m}^3$ .

### 339 *Hydraulic results*

340 Figure 14 shows the evolution of Relative Humidity (RH) measured at different distances  
341 from the hydration faces for both samples. For sample 1 (Figure 14a), once hydration started,  
342 the relative humidity at RH31 located at 31 mm from the bottom hydration face and at RH111  
343 located at 9 mm from the top hydration face increases rapidly and reaches 100% after 20 and  
344 13 days respectively. At RH71, located at 49 cm from the top hydration face started to  
345 increase, relative humidity started to increase after about 45 days, indicating that the  
346 increasing rate of RH is dependent on the distance from the wetting ends.

347 For sample 2 (Figure 14b), two patterns of behavior can be distinguished. For sensors RH71,  
348 RH91 and RH111 located within the upper looser part of the sample, RH increases  
349 instantaneously at the beginning of the test, reaching 100% for RH91 and RH111 and 80% for  
350 RH71. Then, a decrease is observed for the three sensors until 92%, 87% and 58% for RH111,  
351 RH91 and RH71, respectively. Subsequently, RH increases again until saturation at 4, 30 and  
352 40 days for RH111, RH91 and RH71 respectively. Different trends are observed at RH51 and  
353 RH 31 located within the denser bottom part of sample 2. At these sensors RH increases  
354 progressively until reaching 100% after 20 (RH 31) and 40 days (RH 51), respectively.

355 The volume of injected water is displayed in Figure 15 for both samples. The top and bottom  
356 volumes of injected water were measured separately during the saturation process. In both  
357 cases, a higher volume is injected through the top due to the presence of larger voids at this  
358 level combined with the gravity effect. Additionally, larger water volumes were injected  
359 through the top and bottom for sample 2.

360 After 300 days, the total volume of injected water is 184.6 cm<sup>3</sup> for sample 1 and 230.4 cm<sup>3</sup> for  
361 sample 2. These volumes are higher than the theoretical water volume (155 cm<sup>3</sup>) calculated by  
362 considering a global dry density of 1.49 Mg/m<sup>3</sup>.

## 363 **5. Comparative analysis and discussions**

364 Since no information is available about the structural distribution of the bentonite  
365 pellet/powder mixture in SEALEX *in situ* test PTN4, comparison of the latter to both mock up  
366 tests, allows better interpretation of PTN4 results. The mock up tests are considered as  
367 extreme cases since they were performed on a highly heterogeneous sample (sample 2) and on  
368 an ideally prepared sample (sample 1) (specific preparation protocol to minimize the  
369 heterogeneities as much as possible).

370 *Injected volume of water*

371 The flooding phase in PTN4 was performed in 2 steps: First, a back pressure of 0.2 MPa was  
372 applied, in 2 hours. Second, the back pressure was removed, and the upper level of the water  
373 in the tank was constantly maintained at 1m above the axis of the borehole (*i.e.* 1 m water  
374 head). Figure 16 shows the evolution of injected water volume over time. Interestingly, a  
375 backward flow into the tank induced by bentonite swelling is observed. After a slight increase  
376 in rate during the first months, the water intake slowed down to a very low rate and reached  
377 95 L after 780 days. A close examination of the hydration system revealed the presence of  
378 entrapped air within the hydration lines which prevented further water intake. Purging of the  
379 tubings allowed for further water intake. A total amount of 125 L of synthetic water was  
380 injected into the system after 1400 days.

381 In order to compare the evolution curves at different scales (PTN4 versus mock up tests), the  
382 water volumes were normalized considering the maximum water volume that can be injected  
383 in both mock up and *in situ* tests (158 l for PTN4, 0.158 l for mock up tests). Assuming that  
384 the *in situ* test is an intermediate case in between the two extreme cases studied in the  
385 laboratory (mock up 1 and 2), an up scaling time scale ratio of 30 (in situ/mock up tests) was  
386 found from the normalized water volume (Figure 17).

387 Even though both mock up test samples were prepared at the same mean dry density, larger  
388 injection rate and water volume were observed in sample 2. At the beginning of the test, the  
389 injection rate is higher for sample 2 because the permeability is higher in the looser upper part  
390 of the sample. The difference between injected water volume in sample 2 and the theoretical  
391 value may be related to the low water density ( $1.00 \text{ Mg/m}^3$ ) considered. This value can be  
392 much higher for high plasticity materials as the MX80 (Marcial, 2003; Villar and Lloret,  
393 2004; Lloret and Villar, 2007; Jacinto et al., 2012).

394

395 *Relative humidity evolution*

396 In PTN4, 8 relative humidity sensors were installed in the bentonite core at 22, 52, 82 and 112  
397 cm from the downstream hydration face (Figure 2). Sensors RH52 (1, 2) placed at 52 cm from  
398 the downstream lid was malfunctioning since the beginning of the hydration phase.  
399 Additionally, data from several operating sensors were not available during several time  
400 periods due to a temporary problem in the data acquisition units. The variations with time of  
401 relative humidity measured at different sections are displayed in Figure 18. In situ data are  
402 compared to those from both mock up tests using time scale factor of 30. Once the hydration  
403 started, at sensors RH22 (1,2) and RH112 (1,2) located at 22 and 112 cm from downstream  
404 hydration face in PTN4, the relative humidity increased progressively and reached 95% after  
405 450 days. A faster RH increasing rate is observed in both mock up tests at sensor RH22  
406 located closer to the bottom and top hydration faces, respectively. This difference is mainly  
407 attributed to the different sensors positioning within the in situ and laboratory tests. Indeed, in  
408 the mock up tests RH sensors were located at the interface between the sample and the cell,  
409 where there is almost no bentonite powder filling the inter-pellets voids (Figures 6 and 8),  
410 while in the *in situ* test RH sensors were installed in the bentonite-based core at a distance of  
411 about 12.5 cm from the host rock.

412 The  $\mu$ -CT observations of sample 1 (Figure 6) revealed that after 56 days in the central zone  
413 of the sample pellets were clearly distinguishable, indicating that pellets swelling and  
414 hydration are still progressing. Nevertheless, RH measurements suggests full saturation of the  
415 mixture after almost 45 days ( Figure 14a). This indicates that the saturation of the highly  
416 compacted pellets ( $2.2 \text{ Mg/ m}^3$ ) is a slower process. This phenomenon was identified as water  
417 transfer between the macrostructure and the microstructure, the rate being controlled by  
418 several microstructural parameters (e.g. Gens et al, 2011, Alonso et al, 2011).

419

420 Different evolution trends are observed at RH82 (1,2) (Figure 18c). Similarly to RH71 and  
421 RH 91 located within the looser upper part in sample 2, a fast increase of RH is observed at  
422 the beginning of hydration until reaching 100%, prior to a rapid drop. Then, RH increases  
423 again gradually. This suggests that the structural distribution of the bentonite-based core at the  
424 vicinity of the RH sensors is comparable to the upper looser part in sample 2. Since no  
425 powder exists in this zone, this behavior can be associated to structural changes of the  
426 granular pellets during wetting: initially, water comes instantaneously through the large inter-  
427 pellet voids, which leads to rapid RH increase. Simultaneously, there is a water transfer from  
428 the large inter-pellet voids to the highly compacted pellets voids. As pellets saturation  
429 progresses, they lose their initial granular structure due to swelling, and invade the inter-pellet  
430 voids (Figures 8 and 9). The prevailing suction at the vicinity of the sensors is no longer the  
431 initial one measured just upon hydration but corresponds to that of the swollen pellets which  
432 is much higher. Saturation of the pellets is a slower process and RH increases again gradually.

#### 433 *Swelling pressure evolution*

434 The in situ radial and axial swelling pressure evolutions are depicted in Figure 19 and 20  
435 respectively, together with the normalized curves of mock up tests. Figure 19 compares the  
436 evolution of PTN4 radial swelling pressure measured by three total pressure sensors installed  
437 on the surface of the bentonite core at 60 cm from the downstream saturation face. It is  
438 observed that the swelling pressures increased over time at different rates, depending on the  
439 sensors positions. The highest swelling pressure increasing rate is measured at sensor SP60  
440 (1) located on the top of the radial cross section. The value reached at 1200 days is almost 2.4  
441 MPa. On the contrary, the same lower swelling pressure evolutions rates are recorded at SP60  
442 (2) and SP60 (3) and lower values are reached after 1200 days of hydration (1.3 MPa at SP60  
443 (2) and 1.2 MPa SP60 (3)). The measured differences suggest a heterogeneous structural  
444 distribution within the *in situ* mixture core, resulting from the field installation process

445 adopted. This observation is confirmed when comparing the radial swelling pressures  
446 measured at the same position in both mock up tests: different swelling pressure increasing  
447 rates and magnitudes were measured even though both tested samples were fabricated at the  
448 same global dry density ( $1.49 \text{ Mg/m}^3$ ).

449 Figure 20 shows the evolution of axial swelling pressure measured by a sensor placed at the  
450 downstream hydration face in PTN4. No reliable data have been provided by the total  
451 pressure sensor at 120 cm, at the upstream hydration face. The plot shows that the swelling  
452 pressure increased at a constant rate and reached 1.4 MPa after 1200 days. Lower values are  
453 obtained in the laboratory mock up tests. This difference is closely related to the measurement  
454 methods. In the *in situ* test, the sensors placed at upstream and downstream measured the axial  
455 swelling pressures locally, while in the mock up tests, the force transducer installed under the  
456 cell base ensure the measurement of the global axial swelling pressure.

457 No peaks of swelling pressure are observed in the *in situ* test, while this particular behavior  
458 characterized by a peak occurrence followed by a decrease of the swelling pressure are  
459 observed in the mock up tests: at sensors SP100 (mock up 1) and SP20 (mock up 2),  
460 suggesting the appearance of local collapse of the macrospores between the bentonite grains  
461 in the latter case (Alonso et al., 2011; Gens et al., 2011). The non-peak occurrence in PTN4  
462 suggests that the sensors were placed in zones where high density pellets are tightly arranged  
463 with a few or no grains of bentonite powder in between.

464 For both *in situ* and laboratory tests, the final values of axial swelling pressure are lower than  
465 those measured radially. A high anisotropic coefficient  $C_a$  (defined as the horizontal swelling  
466 pressure divided by the axial pressure) ranging from 1.25 and 1.65 is obtained for mock up 1  
467 (Figure 21). This means that sample 1 is only homogeneous in terms of particle arrangement  
468 but anisotropy of the soil fabric is not encountered. For mock up 2 (sample 2), the values of  
469  $C_a$  range from 0.5 to 2.9. This strong anisotropy is obviously induced by the highly

470 heterogeneous structural distribution in sample 2. Similarly in PTN4, significant Ca values are  
471 obtained (Figure 21), confirming that the installation process greatly influenced the structural  
472 distribution of the mixture. Different values are obtained for the three sensors located at 60  
473 mm as their responses are different. The values are near one for SP60(1) and SP60(2) and  
474 between the two mock-up tests for SP60(3). This suggests that high heterogeneity exists in  
475 several zones PTN4, where pellets are assembled with no or few bentonite powder filling the  
476 inter-pellets large voids.

## 477 **6. Conclusion**

478 In the SEALEX project initiated by IRSN, the performance test PT-N4 was conducted to  
479 investigate the long term hydro-mechanical behavior of a mixture of pellet and powder of  
480 MX80 bentonite (80/20 in dry mass). In this test, the bentonite-based core was fully equipped  
481 with wireless sensors in order to measure the radial and axial swelling pressure as well as  
482 relative humidity at different positions during the saturation process. In parallel, 1/10 mock-  
483 up tests were performed in the laboratory in order to further investigate the effect of the initial  
484 structural distribution of the mixture on the HM behavior.

485 Two different samples were tested, aiming at investigating different possible responses  
486 depending on the initial pellet/powder distribution. The first one consists of a pellet/powder  
487 mixture with a proportion of 80/20 in dry mass, fabricated with a special protocol which  
488 allows a relatively homogeneous sample. The second one was specially fabricated to  
489 investigate a strong heterogeneous distribution: the lower half of the sample was prepared  
490 with a mixture in which all the inter-pellet voids were filled with grains of powder, while the  
491 upper half of the sample was filled only with pellets of bentonite. A heterogeneous evolution  
492 of the swelling pressure was found for both mixtures, especially for the second one, for which  
493 different swelling pressure values were found after 300 days of hydration. This heterogeneity

494 is due to the different initial dry density values in the vicinity of different sensors, which  
495 depends on the pellet/powder distribution. The final value of axial swelling pressure was  
496 different for both mixtures even though the global dry density was the same. This means that  
497 the axial swelling pressure depends also on the pellet/powder distribution. Therefore, special  
498 attention has to be paid to establish the relationship between swelling pressure and dry density  
499 of the material, in which the axial swelling pressure is usually considered.

500  $\mu$ -CT observations carried out on the two samples while wetting revealed that an apparently  
501 homogeneous sample was obtained for the first mixture after 100 days of hydration. However,  
502 for the second specimen, several voids were still observed after 40 days of hydration,  
503 concentrated in the looser part of the sample. No voids were observed in the horizontal  
504 sections of the mixture near the hydration front for the looser part after 90 min of hydration.  
505 Therefore, more time is necessary to reach a homogeneous sample for the second mixture.

506 A comparison was performed between the laboratory tests and the SEALEX in-situ test. A  
507 factor scale of 30 was considered while comparing both tests, based on the volume of water  
508 injected during wetting. The different protocols followed in order to obtain the in-situ mixture  
509 and the investigated material in the laboratory explains the differences between the results,  
510 especially for the axial swelling pressure.

511

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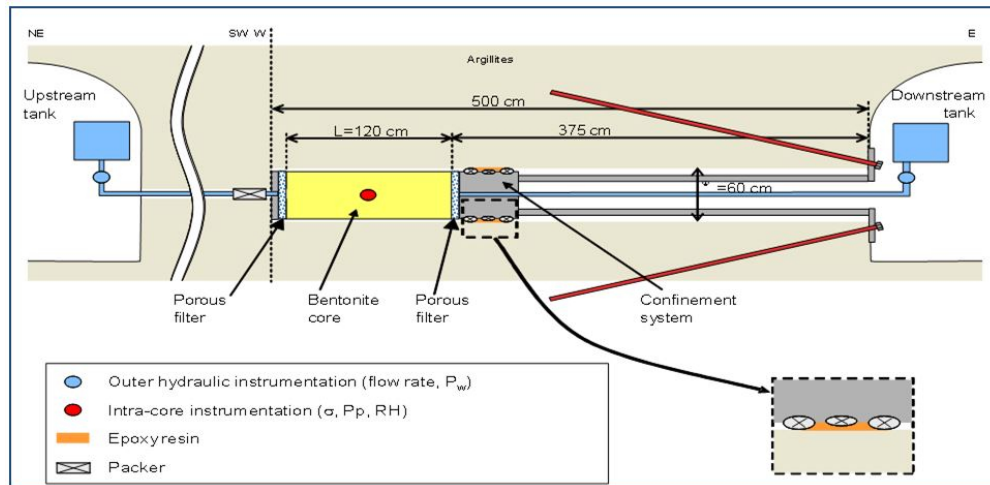


Fig. 1. Layout of the SEALEX in situ test (Modified from Mokni et al. 2016)

341x168mm (72 x 72 DPI)

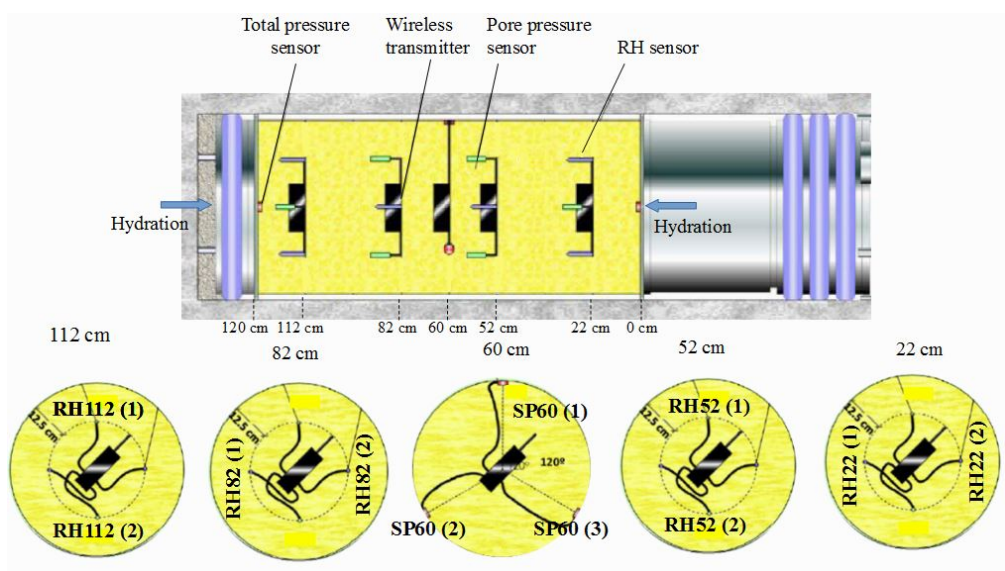


Fig. 2. Distribution of the relative humidity and swelling pressure sensors in the seal of SEALEX test.

355x200mm (72 x 72 DPI)

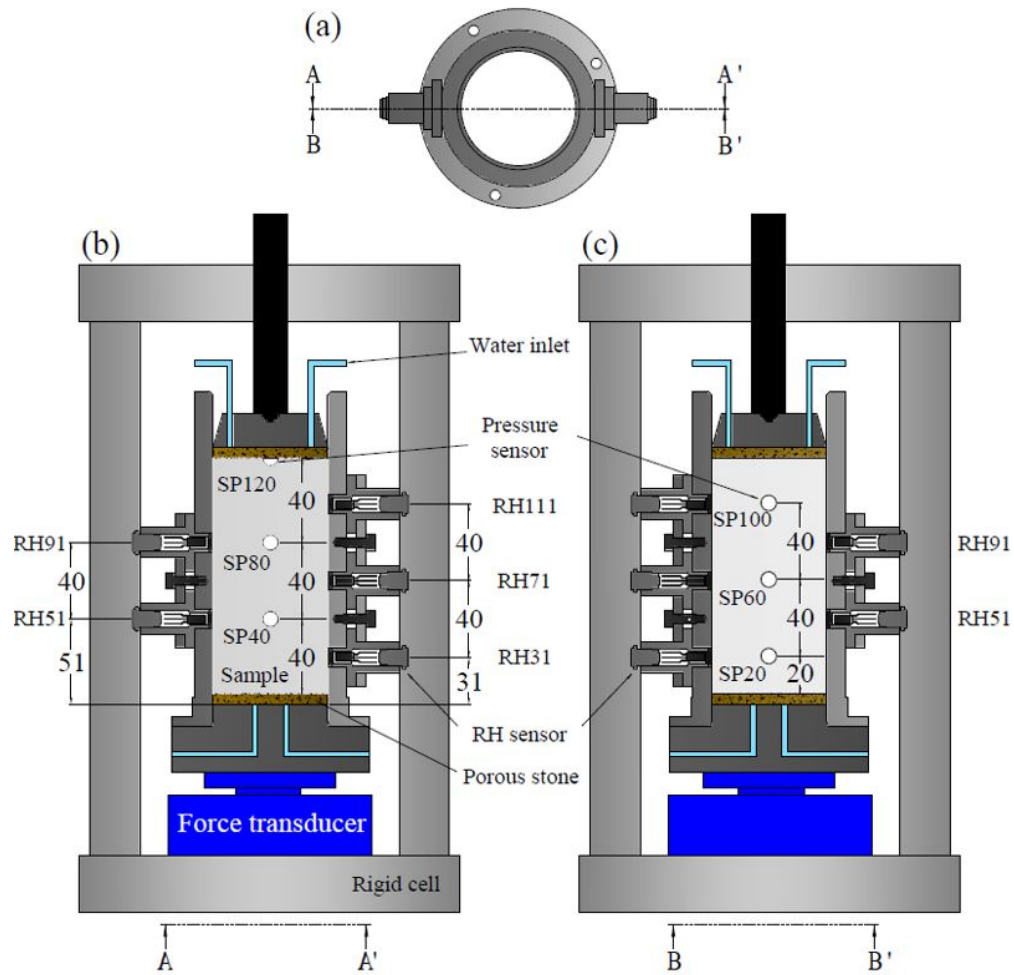


Fig. 3. Layout of the mock-up test cell (a) top view; (b) section A-A'; (c) section B-B'.

283x280mm (72 x 72 DPI)

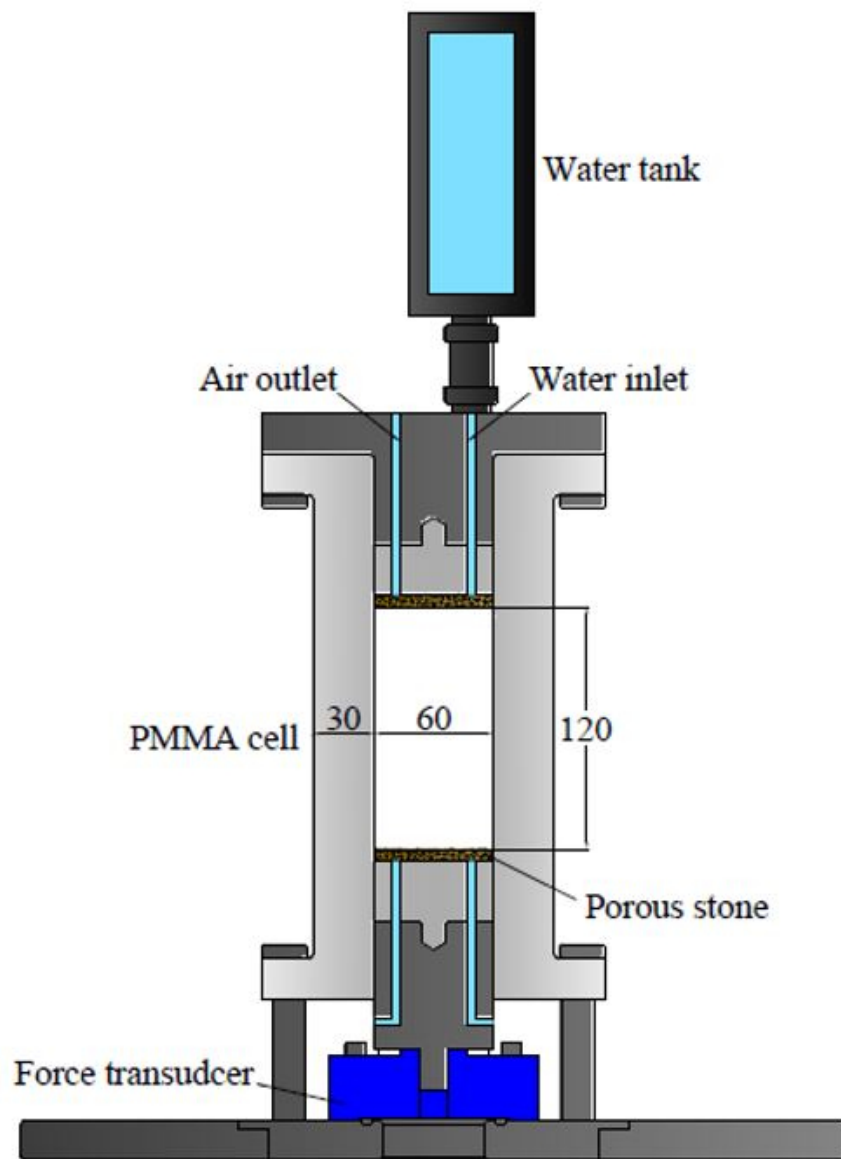


Fig. 4. Layout of the transparent PMMA cell.

175x242mm (72 x 72 DPI)

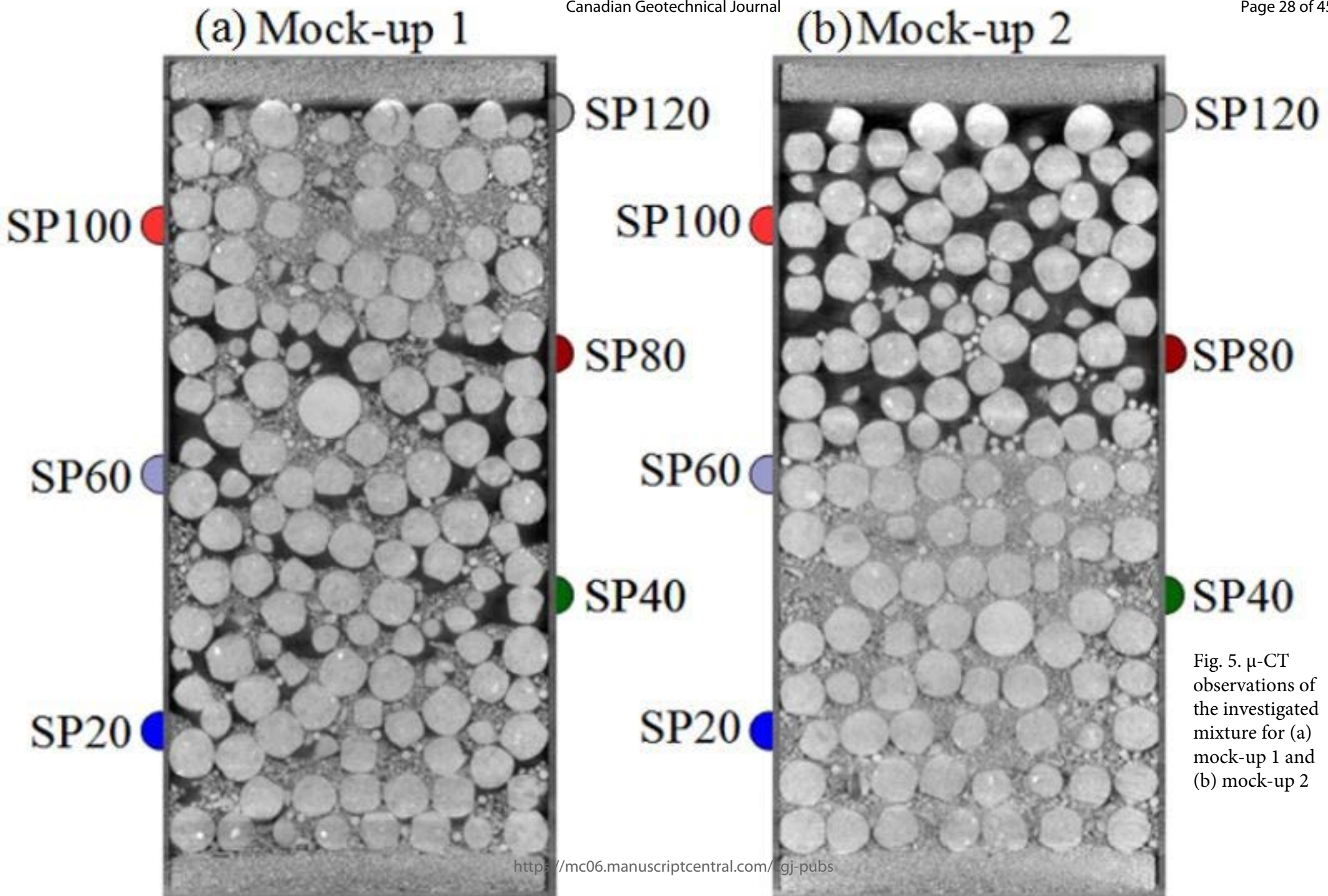


Fig. 5.  $\mu$ -CT observations of the investigated mixture for (a) mock-up 1 and (b) mock-up 2

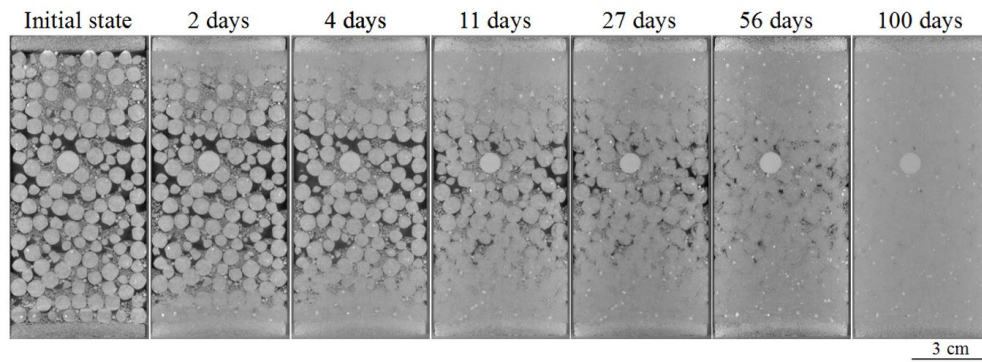


Fig. 6. Evolution of the patterns of vertical sections of sample 1a while wetting.

482x177mm (72 x 72 DPI)

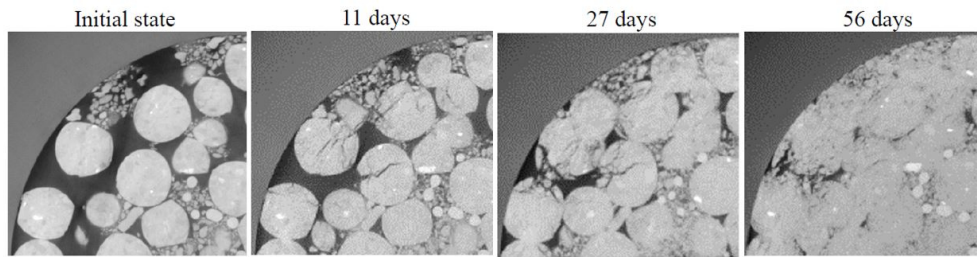


Fig. 7. Zooms at 60 mm from the bottom of the sample1a at different times.

443x117mm (72 x 72 DPI)

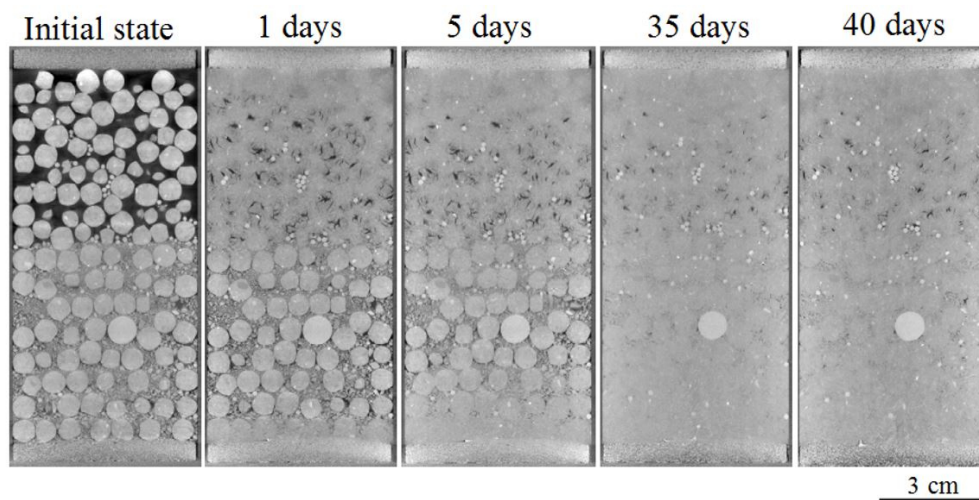


Fig. 8. Evolution of the patterns of vertical sections of sample 2a upon wetting.

408x210mm (72 x 72 DPI)

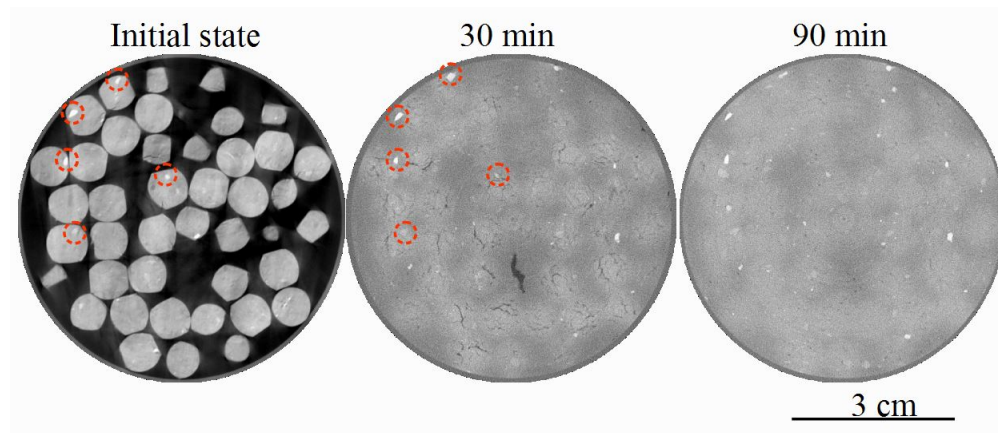


Fig. 9. Horizontal sections at 110 mm from the bottom of sample 1a. White points within the section correspond to the high density materials inserted into the mixture for image calibration.

440x189mm (72 x 72 DPI)

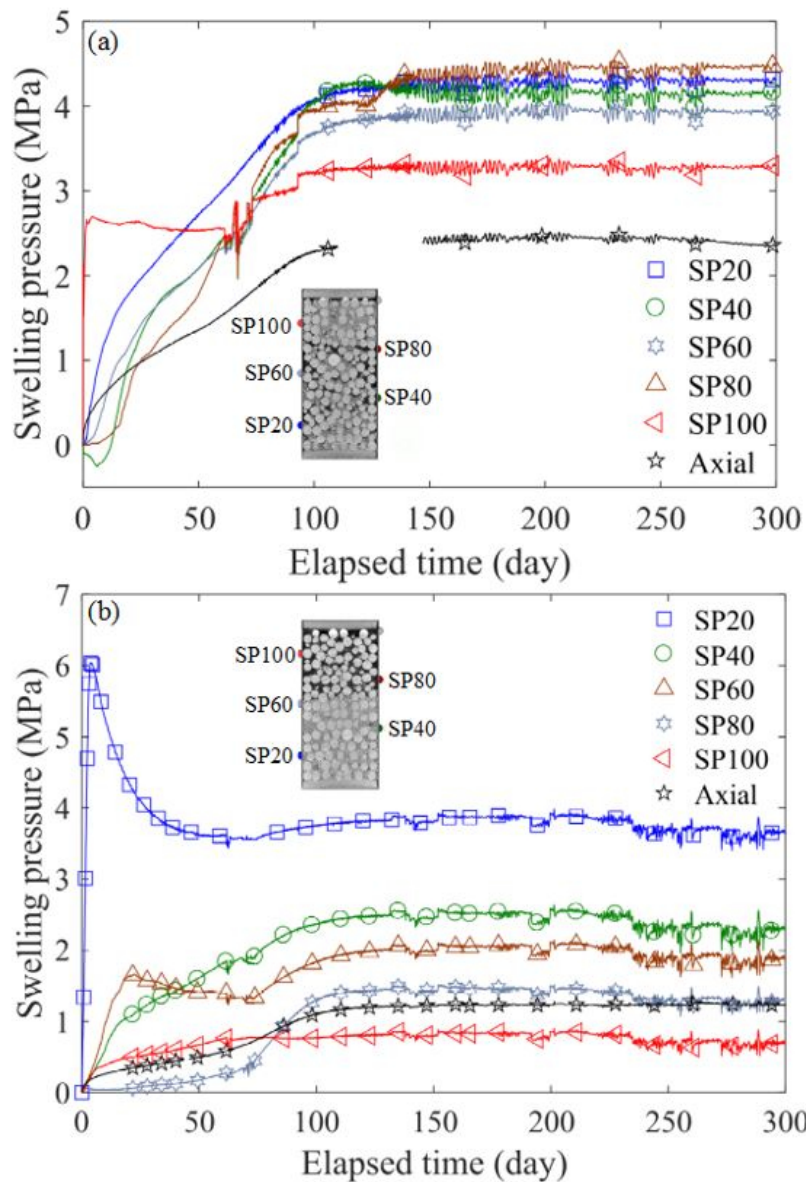


Fig. 10. Evolution of swelling pressure with time – results of mock-up tests - for (a) sample 1 with a proportion of 80-pellet/20-powder and (b) sample 2: proportion of 65-pellet/35-powder for the lower half and 100-pellet/0-powder for the upper half.

196x291mm (72 x 72 DPI)

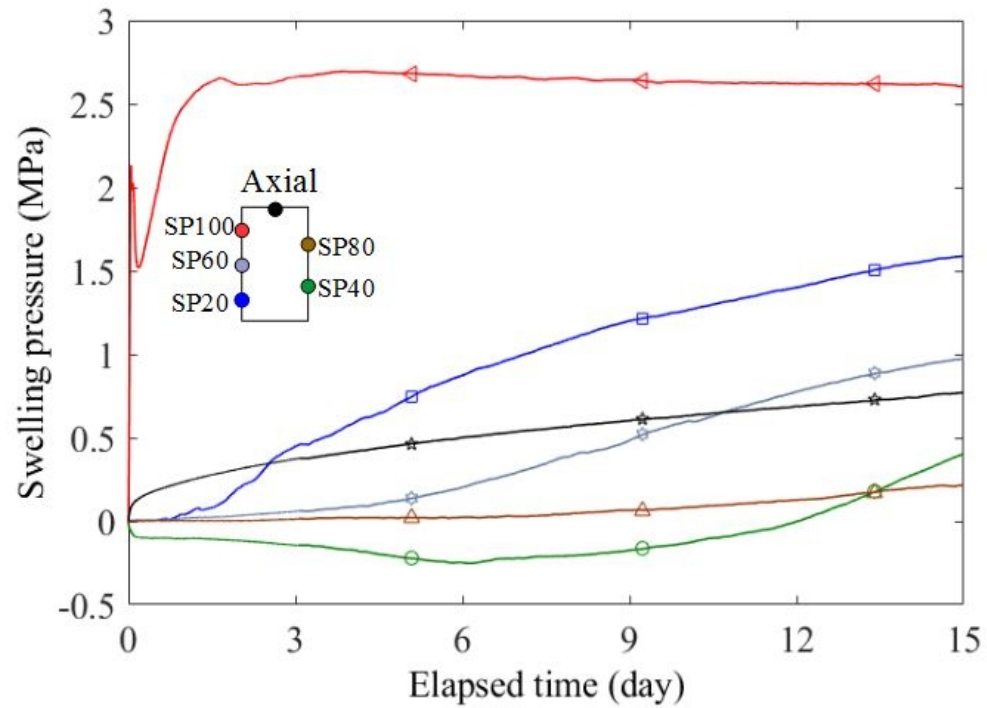


Fig11. Evolution of the swelling pressure in sample 1 – zoom on the first 15 days.

143x101mm (120 x 120 DPI)

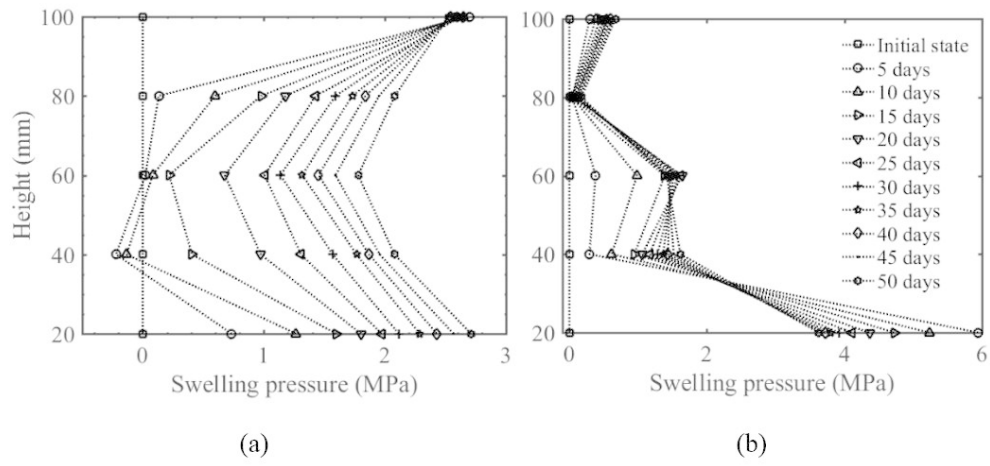


Fig. 12. Radial swelling pressure profiles in (a) sample 1 and (b) sample 2.

372x179mm (72 x 72 DPI)

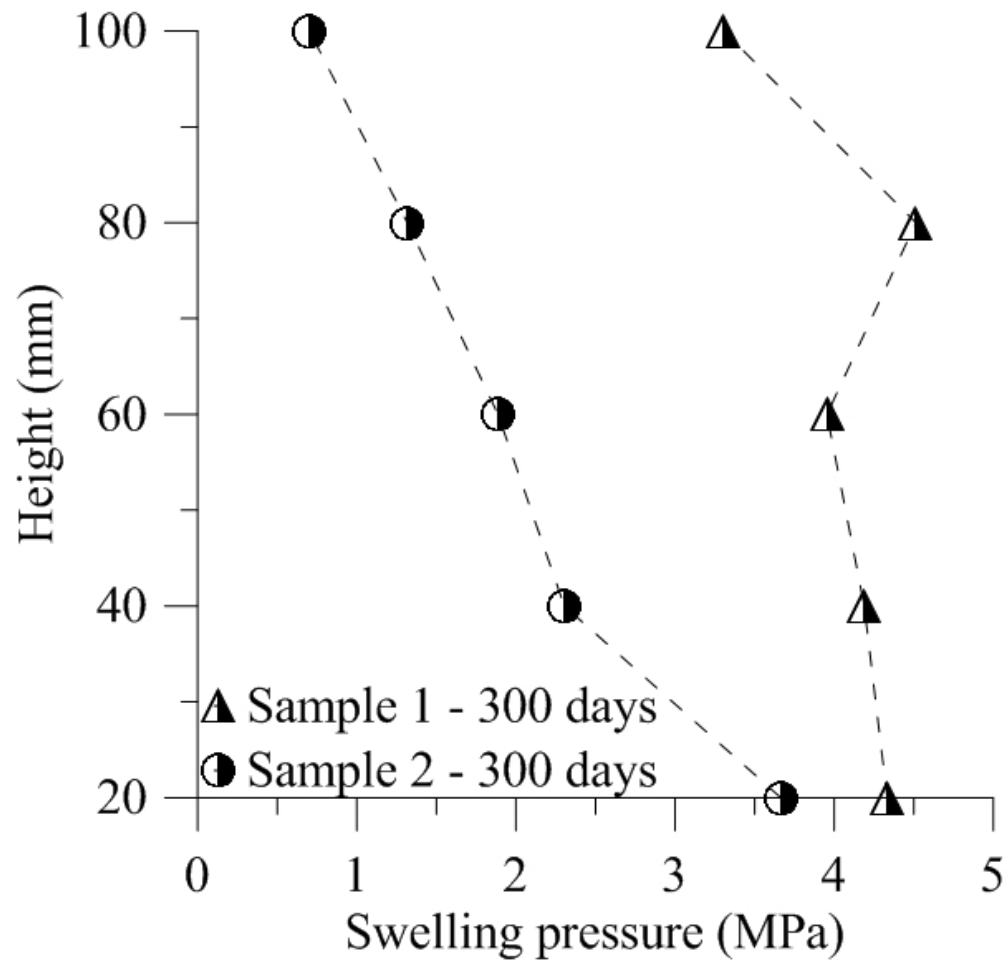


Fig. 13. Radial swelling pressure profiles after 300 days of hydration in samples 1 and 2.

153x147mm (100 x 100 DPI)

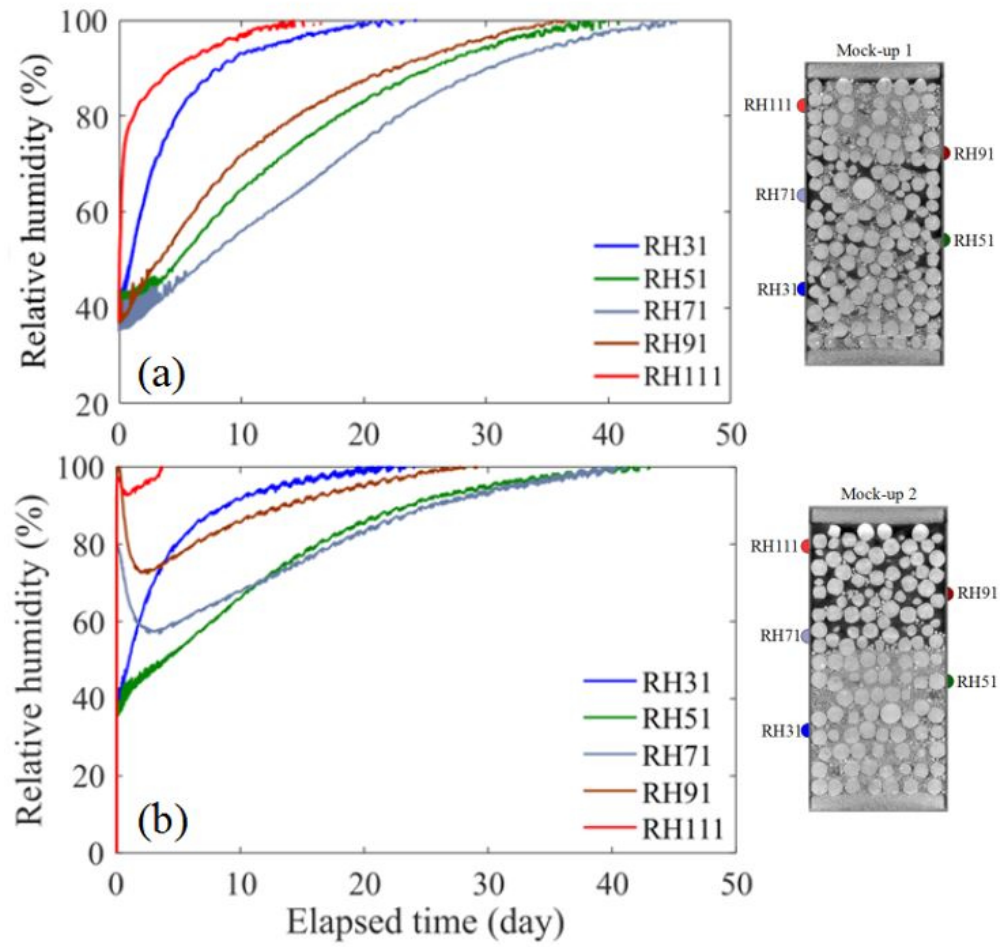


Fig. 14. Evolution of relative humidity in (a) sample 1 and (b) sample 2.

259x253mm (72 x 72 DPI)

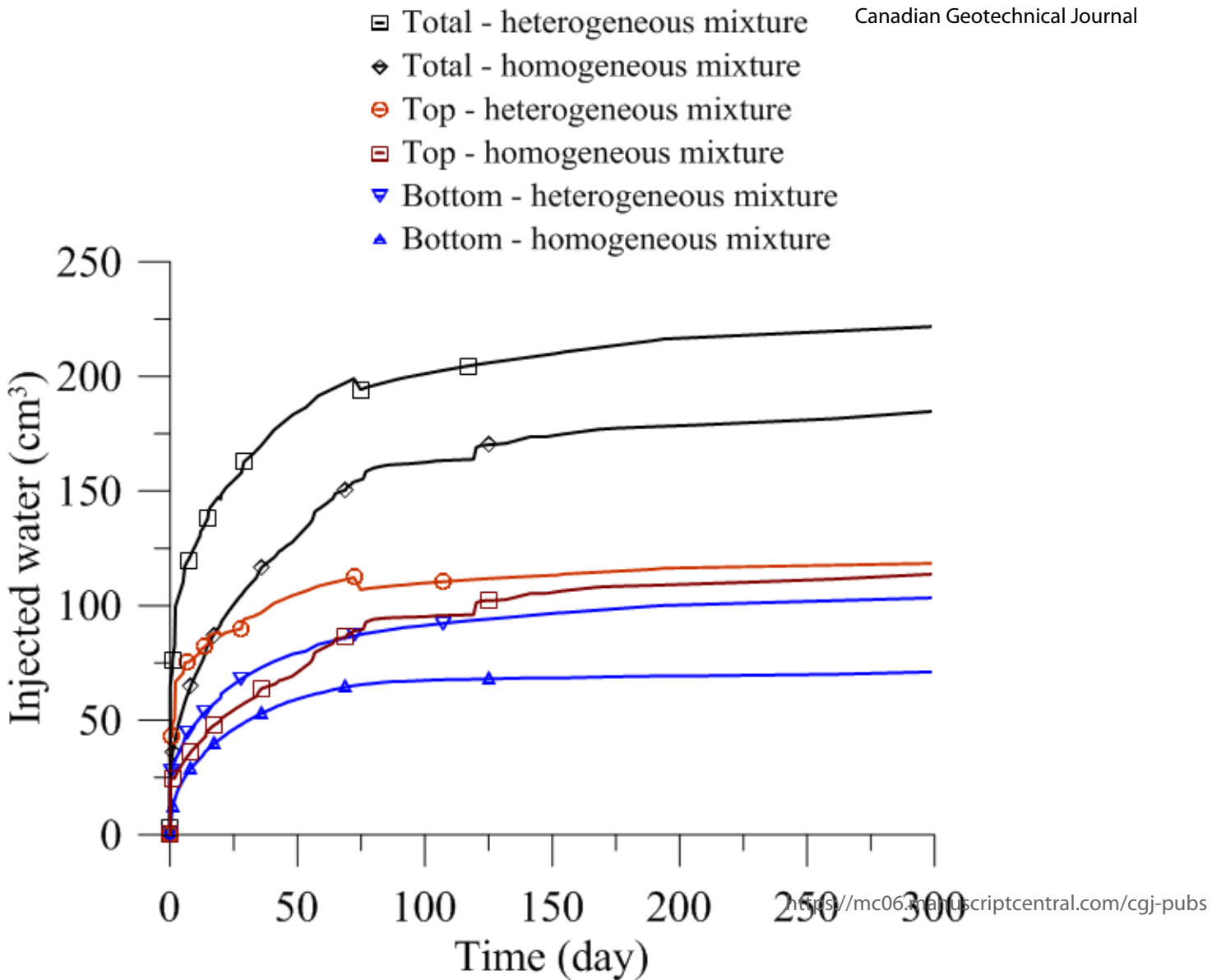


Fig. 11. Volumes of injected water into sample 1 and sample 2 while hydration.

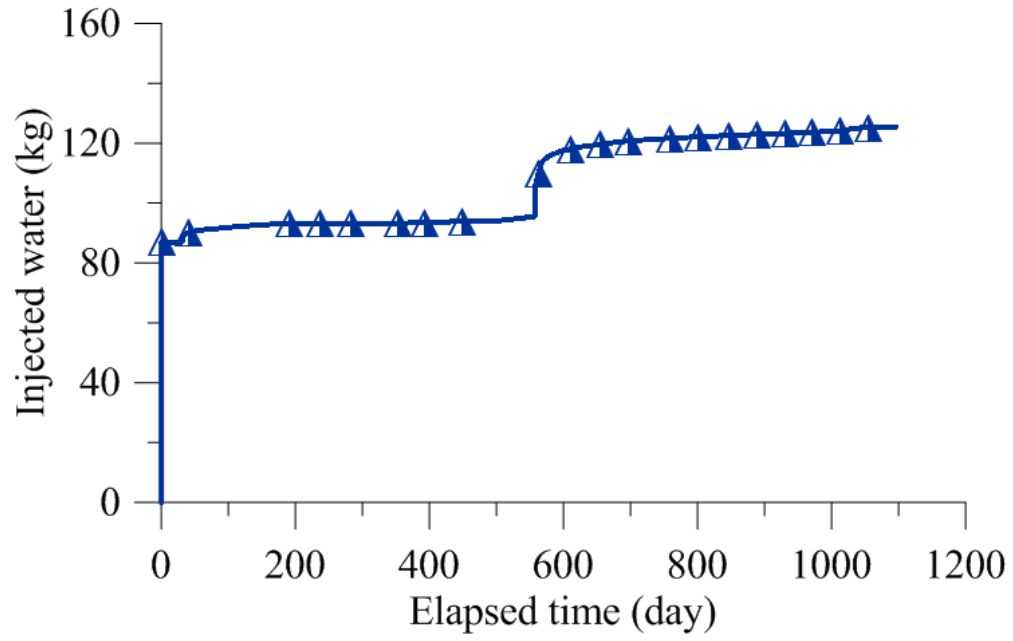
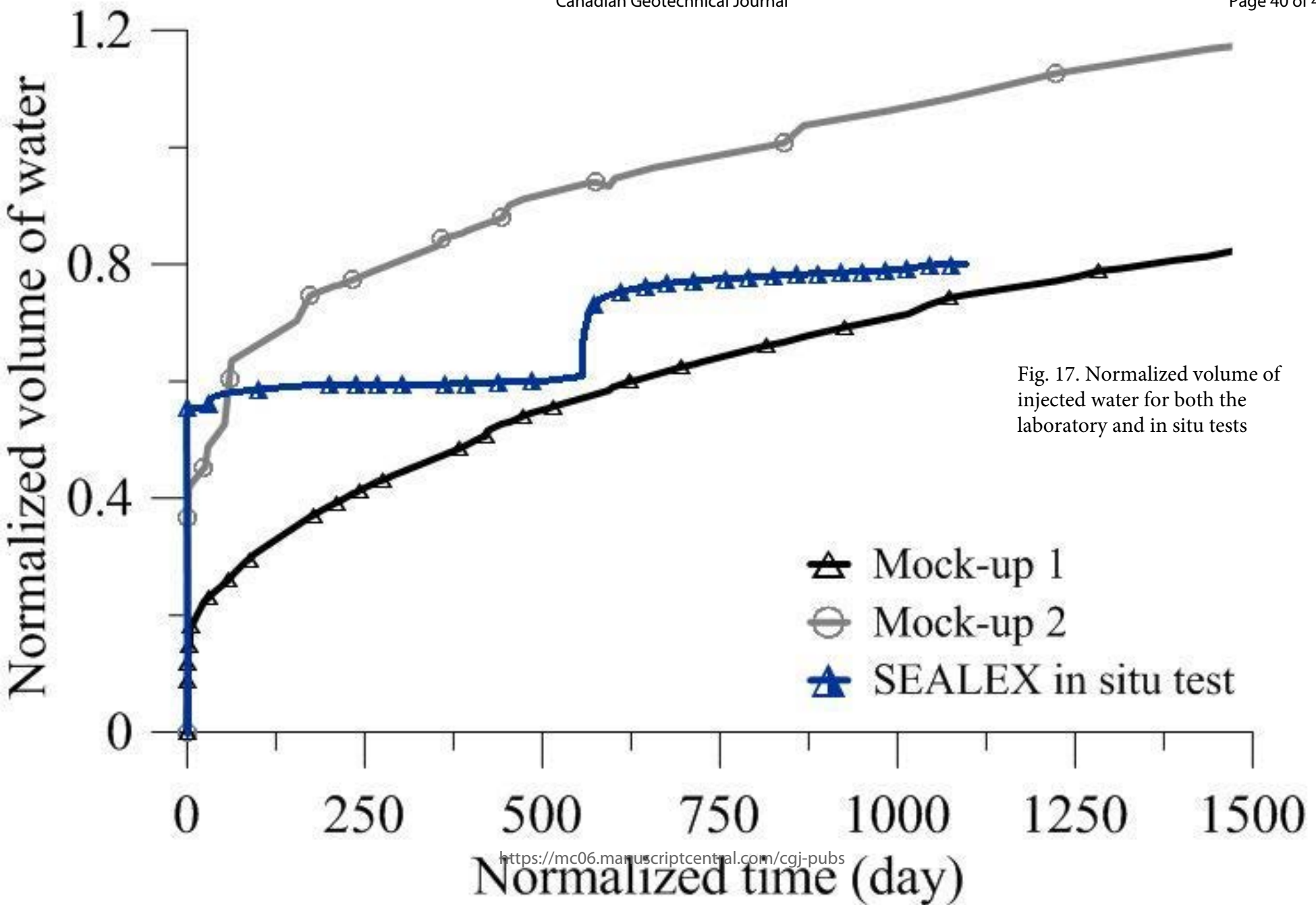


Fig. 16. Injected volume of water in the SEALEX in situ test PTN4.

189x120mm (100 x 100 DPI)



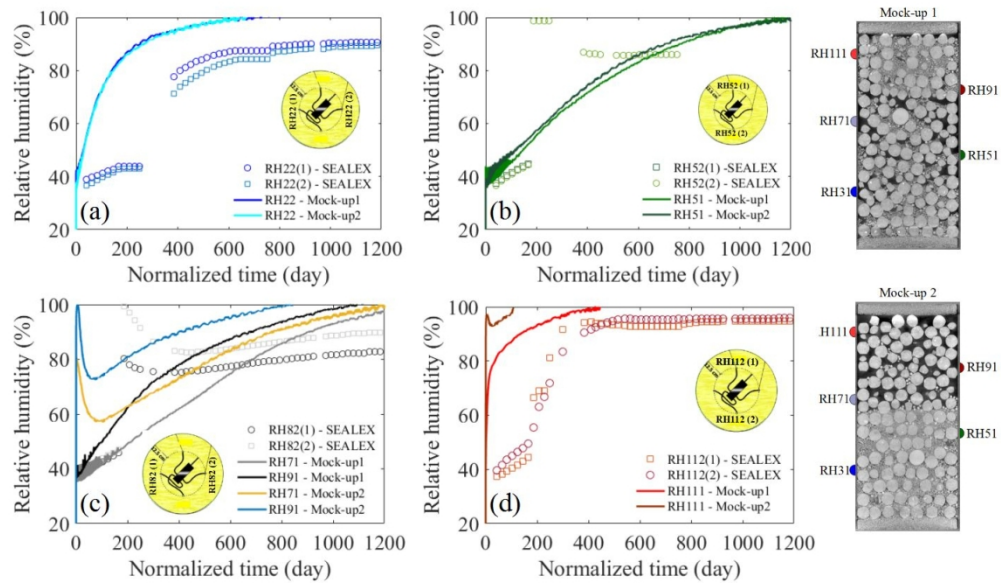


Fig. 18. Comparison of relative humidity results between SEALEX in-situ results and mock-up tests. (a) RH22; (b) RH52 for SEALEX test and RH51 for mock-up tests; (c) RH82 for mock-up tests, RH71 and RH91 for mock-up tests; (d) RH112 for SEALEX test, RH111 for mock-up tests.

503x295mm (72 x 72 DPI)

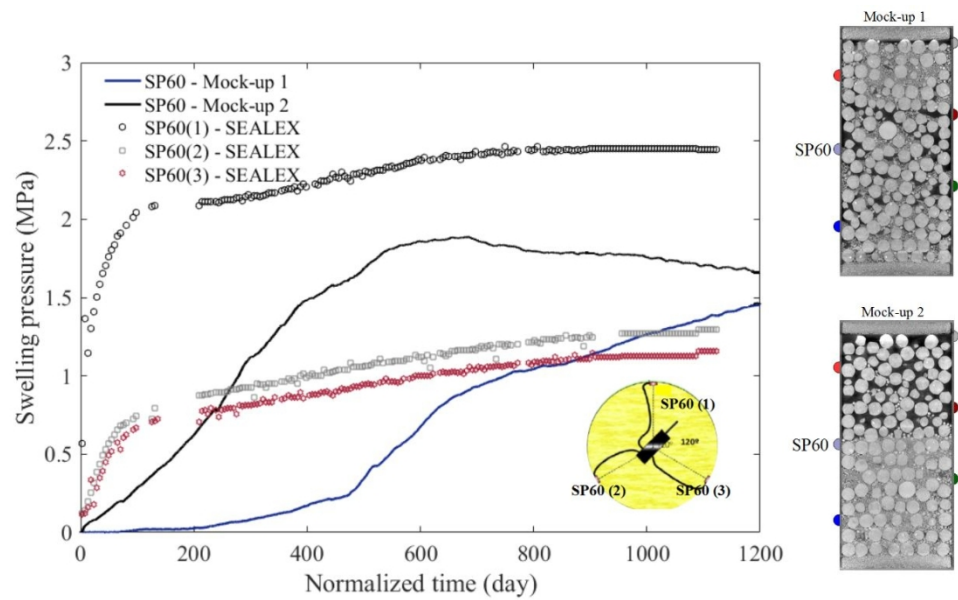


Fig. 19. Comparison of swelling pressure results at 60 mm from the bottom hydration front for SEALEX in-situ test and mock-up 1 test.

455x271mm (72 x 72 DPI)

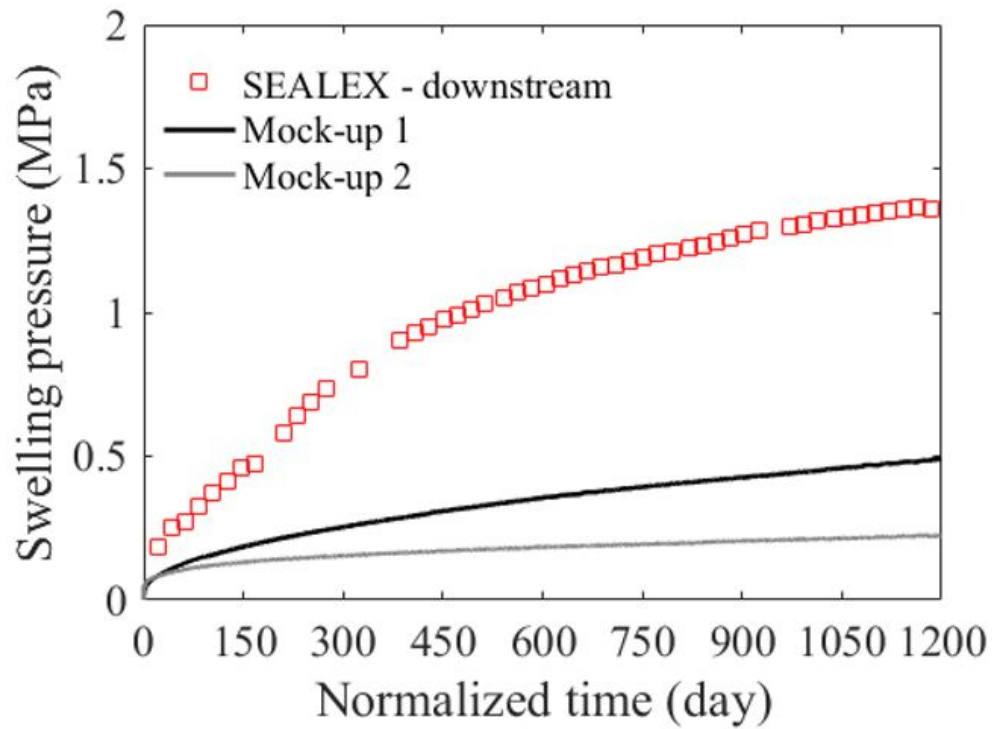


Fig. 20. Comparison of axial swelling pressure between SEALEX in-situ test and mock-up 1 test.

232x179mm (72 x 72 DPI)

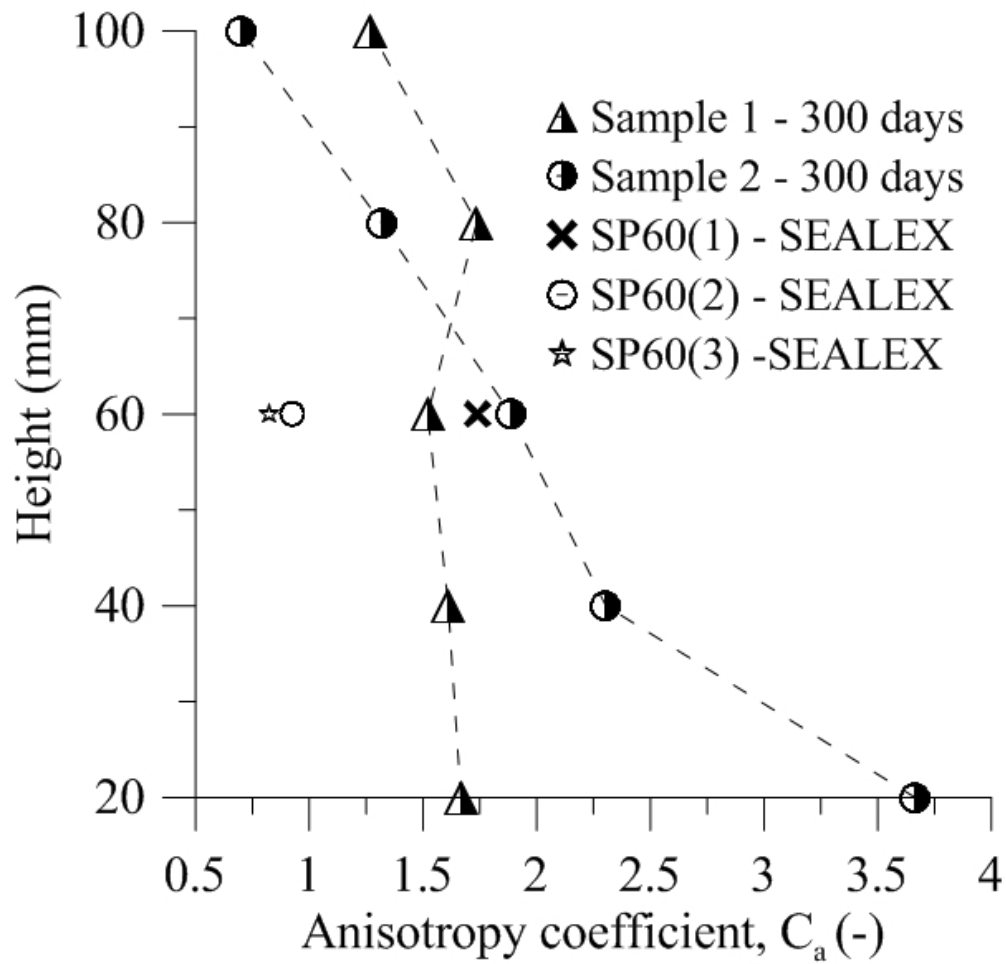


Fig. 21. Anisotropy coefficient  $C_a$  for mock-up tests and in situ SEALEX test.

153x148mm (100 x 100 DPI)

Table 1. Chemical composition of the synthetic water

Components	NaHCO <sub>3</sub>	Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub>	NaCl	KCl	CaCl <sub>2</sub> 2H <sub>2</sub> O	MgCl <sub>2</sub> ·6H <sub>2</sub> O	SrCl <sub>2</sub> ·6H <sub>2</sub> O
Mass (g) per litre of solution	0.28	2.216	0.615	0.075	1.082	1.356	0.053

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