

Iodine local environment in high pressure borosilicate glasses: An X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy and X-ray absorption spectroscopy investigation

Yann Morizet, Valentin Jolivet, Nicolas Trcera, Tomo Suzuki-Muresan,

Jonathan Hamon

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1	IODINE LOCAL ENVIRONMENT IN HIGH PRESSURE BOROSILICATE
2	GLASSES: AN X-RAY PHOTOELECTRON SPECTROSCOPY AND X-RAY
3	ABSORPTION SPECTROSCOPY INVESTIGATION
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5	Yann MORIZET ^{1,2,2} , Valentin JOLIVET ^{1,2,2} , Nicolas TRCERA ² , Tomo SUZUKI-
6	MURESAN ³ , Jonathan HAMON ¹
7	
8	¹ Institut des Matériaux Jean Rouxel (IMN), Université de Nantes, UMR CNRS 6502, 2 rue
9	de la Houssinière, BP32229, 44322 Nantes Cedex 3, France
10	
10	
11	² Université de Nantes, Nantes Atlantique Universités, Laboratoire de Planétologie et
12	Géodynamique de Nantes (LPGN), UMR CNRS 6112, 2 rue de la Houssinière, 44322 Nantes
13	Cedex, France
1 /	
14	
15	³ SUBATECH (IMT Atlantique, CNRS/IN2P3, Université de Nantes), BP 20722, 44307
16	Nantes Cedex 3, France
17	
18	⁴ Synchrotron SOLEIL, L'Orme des Merisiers, Saint Aubin, BP 48, F-91192 Gif-sur-Yvette
19	Cedex, France
20	
21	
22	

- 23 *Corresponding author: Yann Morizet
- 24 Postal address:
- 25 Laboratoire de Planétologie et Géodynamique (LPG), UMR-CNRS 6112, Université de
- 26 Nantes.
- 27 2 rue de la Houssinière, 44322 Nantes Cedex (FRANCE)
- 28 phone: +33 (0) 2 5112 5491
- 29 fax: +33 (0) 2 5112 5268
- 30 *E-mail: <u>yann.morizet@univ-nantes.fr</u>

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32 Keywords

Nuclear waste glasses, Iodine dissolution mechanism, X-ray Absorption Spectroscopy, X-ray
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35 Abstract

The ¹²⁹I radioactive isotope is a by-product of nuclear plants activity. Owing to its strong volatility, there is currently no ideal protocol to immobilize ¹²⁹I in nuclear waste borosilicate glasses. Recently, we have proposed the use of high-pressure syntheses to dissolve iodine in various glass compositions; however, I speciation and dissolution mechanism could not be determined.

We have adopted an approach combining X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS) and X-ray 41 Absorption Spectroscopy (XAS) methods to determine I speciation and molecular 42 43 environment in glasses containing from 0.5 to 2.5 mol.% I. The XPS spectra reveal that I is mostly dissolved as iodide (>85% Γ) with a small proportion of elemental iodine (<15% I^0) 44 and the absence of iodate species (I^{5+}) . For borosilicate glasses, the XAS results and 45 subsequent spectrum simulations suggested that Na and Ca are involved in the I⁻ vicinity with 46 averaged derived coordination number (CN) of 3.6 and 2.0 and bond length to the nearest 47 neighbour (r_{X-I}) 2.98 and 2.85 Å, respectively. These results suggest that the coexistence of 48 both Γ and I^{5+} species is not requested for electric neutrality but instead, we explain the I 49 50 speciation by the possible interplay with oxygen species from the borosilicate matrix. In addition, the results imply that the borosilicate network is affected by the I dissolution. 51

52

53 **1. Introduction**

Among the many radioactive elements produced by anthropic nuclear activities, iodine (I) is 54 one important element representing a serious glitch in the effort for immobilizing radioactive 55 waste. One particular isotope (¹²⁹I) requires a special attention because of 1) its long half-life 56 (>15 Ma) and 2) its high mobility and volatility in environment. In particular, the high I 57 concentrations in surface water and atmosphere in industrial countries [1,2] is a health issue 58 59 considering that I can easily integrate the food chain and fix into living organisms [3,4]. Therefore, there is a need for a solution able to immobilize durably this isotope collected from 60 nuclear waste. 61

In a recent review, *Riley et al.* [5] provide an exhaustive view of the different methods used to 62 immobilize radioactive I in solid matrices. Either crystalline materials (e.g. [4,6-8]) or nuclear 63 waste glasses (e.g. [9-11]) could be used, however, it appears that there is currently no ideal 64 solution allowing the immobilization of radioactive I in a permanent and safe manner. For 65 instance, classical melting devices operating at ambient pressure do not allow the I retention 66 in significant concentrations in vitrified matrix [12]. At best, under ambient pressure 67 conditions a concentration <0.7 mol.% I can be retained in borosilicate glasses as shown in 68 69 previous works [9-11]. *Riley et al.* [10] reached almost 0.5 mol.% I in borosilicate glasses using sealed ampoules (i.e. inside pressure above ambient pressure). 70

71 One potential solution to circumvent the strong I volatility during glass melting is to consider

the I conditioning in borosilicate glass matrix under extreme conditions: high-pressure.

73 Recent investigations [13-15] suggest that I solubility dramatically increases as the

confinement pressure increases. For instance, *Jolivet et al.* [15] reached I solubility up to 2.5

mol.% in nuclear waste glass compositions held at 1.5 GPa pressure. *Cicconi et al.* [14]

dissolved ~4 mol.% I in B_2O_3 -rich glass compositions held at pressure of 150 MPa; however,

their investigated compositions (~60 wt.% B₂O₃) were less relevant for the I immobilization
in nuclear waste matrices. A comparable behaviour was also observed as a function of
pressure for I in boron-free silicate glasses compositions with applications to Earth Sciences
[16,17]. *Leroy et al.* [17] showed that I solubility can reach up to 1.5 mol.% in Si-poor H₂Orich silicate glasses synthesised at 3.5 GPa.

One critical aspect is to clarify the I dissolution mechanism into the glass structure. Previous
works [10] proposed a generic equation for I dissolution in borosilicate glasses:

$$3I_2^{fl} + 3Na_2O^m \rightarrow 5NaI^m + NaIO_3^m \qquad \text{Eq. 1}$$

In this reaction, a diiodine molecule (I_2) from the fluid phase interacts with the Na⁺ cations to 85 form iodide (NaI) and iodate (NaIO₃) within the glass. In the proposed mechanism, Na is a 86 charge compensating cation to the BO₄ units within the structure [18-20]. Hence, removing 87 88 network modifying Na⁺ is likely to induce the interconversion of BO₄ to BO₃ units in order to compensate the excess negative charges. However, the question remains debated, especially 89 as this mechanism is greatly function of the bulk chemical composition [18] and possibly 90 influenced by the intensive conditions for I-bearing glass synthesis. There is the coexistence 91 92 of different I oxidation states in Eq. 1: -1 in NaI and +5 in NaIO₃. In other words, the structural analysis of I-bearing glass samples should reveal the presence of both I⁻ and I⁵⁺ 93 species in order to satisfy the electrical charge neutrality. 94

Eq. 1 has been established based on XAS results [10] and to some extent, Raman

96 spectroscopic results [13]. The XAS (both X-ray Absorption Near-Edge Structure, XANES;

97 and Extended X-ray Absorption Fine Structure, EXAFS) is of particular interest as it probes

- the local environment for a given element. It has been successfully applied for the
- 99 investigation of I local environment in various materials at both the K- and L-edges:
- 100 crystalline [4,21-23]; organic [24-26]; solution [27] and glass [9-11,14,28-30].

To the specific case of borosilicate glasses, the study of *McKeown et al.* [11] is a landmark 101 102 work. In a series of various borosilicate glasses typical of nuclear waste application, they determined the local environment of dissolved I (up to 0.66 mol.%) using K-edge XAS 103 measurements at 33,169 eV. They applied the fingerprinting method (with crystalline 104 standards) to investigate the I K-edge XANES spectra and modelled the I K-edge EXAFS 105 spectra. Their results demonstrate that I dissolves in borosilicate glasses as I⁻ with a next 106 nearest neighbour at a distance of ~ 3.04 Å. They suggest that the next nearest charge 107 compensating cation is Na⁺ and based on the EXAFS treatment that the coordination number 108 for I is ~4. These results apply to borosilicate glasses synthesised at ambient pressure. The 109 110 effect of pressure is known to induce bond length and coordination changes (e.g. [31-34]); 111 therefore, the results obtained by McKeown et al. [11] may not apply to the case of borosilicate glasses synthesised under high-pressure conditions. 112

In the present work, we have investigated the I local environment using L_3 -edge XAS (both 113 XANES and EXAFS). We have studied a series of borosilicate glasses synthesised under 114 high-pressure conditions (0.5-1.5 GPa) and reported in the work of Jolivet et al. [15]. In 115 addition, one sample having Na-free composition was also investigated for determining the 116 117 local environment around iodine atoms in the case of Ca surrounding. The range of I content in the studied glasses is 0.5 to 2.5 mol.%. The I local environment was determined using 118 119 fingerprinting method for the XANES part and modelling of the EXAFS part using standard 120 crystalline structure. Based on these results and previous literature data, we propose a discussion on the I dissolution mechanisms in borosilicate glasses synthesised under pressure 121 conditions. 122

123 **2.** Analytical methods

124 2.1 Starting samples

Several types of glass composition were used for this work. The samples as well as the 125 126 synthesis method are fully described in *Jolivet et al.* [15]. The investigated compositions are two aluminoborosilicate glasses, International Simple Glass (ISG, [35]) and a Low Activity 127 Waste (LAW) glass called NH, and one boron-free aluminosilicate glass, TY. The 128 aluminoborosilicate glass compositions are in the system SiO₂-Al₂O₃-B₂O₃-CaO-Na₂O; the 129 ISG composition contains additional ZrO₂ (~1.7 mol.%). The TY aluminosilicate glass 130 131 composition is in the system SiO₂-Al₂O₃-CaO-Na₂O. Except for ISG (issued from an industrial batch), the NH and TY compositions were prepared from a mixture of oxides (SiO₂, 132 B₂O₃, Al₂O₃, CaO) and sodium carbonate (Na₂CO₃). The powder mixtures were carefully 133 134 ground into an agate mortar and were melted twice in a Pt crucible at 1150°C for 1 h for NH 135 and at 1500°C for 20 h for TY (see [15] for details). Because the compositions studied by Jolivet et al. [15] are both Na- and Ca-bearing glasses, discriminating the I local environment 136 between either Ca or Na is rendered difficult. Whereas the local charge compensation for I⁻ by 137 Na^+ cation is currently well admitted, the potential role for Ca^{2+} is currently not recognized. 138 Therefore, we also investigated one glass composition C35 that is a Na-free Ca-rich glass. 139 This investigated glass has the following composition: 31.8 SiO₂, 29.2 B₂O₃, 4.9 Al₂O₃, 32.5 140 mol.% CaO; as provided by the analyses from Scanning Electron Microscopy coupled with 141 142 Energy Dispersive X-ray Spectroscopy (SEM EDS).

We conducted the high-pressure experiments in a piston cylinder apparatus at temperatures between 1300 and 1500°C and for pressures between 0.5 and 1.5 GPa using the pressurizing protocol described in *Jolivet et al.* [15]. The volatile-free glass powder were mixed with a known amount of solid I₂. The mixture was loaded in a Pt capsule that was then sealed by arcwelding. The run duration was ~4h and the sample was quenched to room temperature by cutting off the power. The recovered samples consisted in clear glass covered with a dark residue suggesting an I excess during the experiments. The I excess was removed by cleaning in ethanol the glass samples. All the synthesised glasses was characterized by SEM EDS and
the I content ranges from 0.5 to 2.5 mol.% as reported in *Jolivet et al.* [15]. The I content
measured in C35 is 1.6 mol.%. The details of the sample composition are reported in *Jolivet et al.*al. [15] and are given in *Supplementary Material* and the I content measured for each glass is
given in *Table 1*.

155 2.2 X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy

X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy was performed for several samples (see *Table 1*) to
determine the I speciation in our glasses with the aim to provide constraints for the EXAFS
simulations. Several crystalline standards (NaI, NaIO₃ and CaI₂O₆) were also analysed,
serving as a fingerprint for I speciation in the glasses. We could not acquire XPS spectra for
solid crystalline I₂ and CaI₂ owing to the sublimation of I₂ under high vacuum conditions and
the poor stability of CaI₂.

We carried out the XPS analyses with two spectrometers: a Kratos Nova and a Kratos Axis 162 Ultra using a monochromatic Al Ka radiation operating at 1486.6 eV (15 kV, 20 mA) with a 163 charge neutralizer. The glass chips (\sim 3x3 mm²) showing a surface fracture from the bulk of 164 the experimental charge were loaded into the sample chamber and at high vacuum ($<10^{-8}$ 165 mbar). The sample surface was not prepared and the analysis was conducted on a raw glass 166 surface, hence avoiding possible surface contamination. The spot size on the sample is 167 $300x700 \ \mu\text{m}^2$ area of analyses. We recorded survey spectra at a pass energy of 160 eV 168 corresponding to an overall instrument resolution measured on silver Fermi edge of 1.95 eV 169 and a step of 0.5 eV from -5 to 1200 eV. High resolution spectra of Na 1s, I 3d, O 1s, Ca 2p, 170 171 C 1s core levels were recorded with an instrument resolution measured on silver Fermi of 0.49 eV and a step of 0.1 eV at a pass energy of 20 eV. The calibrations were performed on 172 the adventitious C 1s in the binding energy at 284.8 eV [36,37]. All spectra were treated with 173

CasaXPS© software. All spectra were fitted with a U2 Tougaard function [38] for the 174 175 background and with a pseudo-Voigt function with a Lorentzian ratio of 50% for the various peaks. Although, the associated error on the different components provided by the CasaXPS© 176 177 fitting package is relatively low owing to the good quality of the XPS spectra, we believe that the simulations are accurate to within 10% of the derived value. Only the I $3d_{5/2}$ peak in the I 178 3d region with the highest intensity was fitted as compared to the one for the I $3d_{3/2}$. The 179 obtained peak position did not show dependency on I content or glass composition. Therefore, 180 determining the exact nature of the charge-compensating cation (i.e. Na^+ or Ca^{2+}) 181 surroundings I atoms could not be possible. We obtained several acquisitions for each 182 183 element. We did not find any modification of each individual acquisition suggesting that the glass is stable under the X-ray beam. 184

185 2.3 X-ray Absorption Spectroscopy

We collected the I L₃-edge XAS spectra on LUCIA beamline at SOLEIL synchrotron 186 187 operating with a current of 450/500 mA and an energy of 2.75 GeV [39]. The energy of the 188 incoming photons was selected by using double crystal monochromator Si(111). The XAS spectra on the glass were collected in fluorescence mode with a silicon drift diode detector. 189 To avoid the self-absorption effect, the geometry of the beamline was set to a low angle 190 191 between the sample surface and the detector (2°) . The energy calibration of the incoming photons was achieved on titanium foil by selecting the first inflexion point of the spectrum at 192 4966 eV. We used in our experiment an unfocused beam with a size of $4x2 \text{ mm}^2$ for 193 maximizing the count rate. The glass powder samples were stuck on a copper plate using 194 carbon tape and acquisition were conducted under vacuum conditions. Prior to acquisition, the 195 196 region of interest for the X-ray fluorescence lines had to be optimised to avoid interferences arising from the proximity between Ca K-edge fluorescence line (~3691 eV) and the I L₃-197 edge fluorescence line (~3926 eV). The optimisation of the fluorescence region was 198

conducted such as that the higher tail of the Ca fluorescence line did not contribute to the I
signal. However, we suspect that removing the contribution of the Ca fluorescence line
appears to be incomplete, especially for C35 in which Ca is 20 times more concentrated than
I.

203 The XAS spectra were collected at the L_3 -edge of I in the range 4510-4850 eV. For each 204 point, the counting time was 10 s. We collected at least three spectra on each sample in order 205 to obtain an average spectrum with a good signal to noise ratio. The recorded scans are identical and the presented spectra correspond to an average of the different scans. A slight 206 207 colouring of the glass powder is observed after XAS acquisition. Several acquisitions were 208 also made on crystalline standards for comparison and fingerprinting of the XAS glass 209 spectra: NaI, CaI₂, I₂, NaIO₃, CaI₂O₆. In these crystalline compounds, the I oxidation state varies from -1 in iodides to +5 in iodates. As a result, the XAS signal (XANES and EXAFS) 210 can be used for constraining the I oxidation state in the borosilicate glasses. Because 211 crystalline iodides (NaI and CaI₂) are highly sensitive to H₂O adsorption, the crystalline 212 213 sample powders were stored in a sealed glove box and quickly loaded into the vacuum 214 chamber for XAS analysis. We did not observe any visible sign of phase transformation under X-ray beam; moreover, repetitive scans on the crystalline powders were almost identical. 215 216 Both XANES and EXAFS spectra were simulated to determine the I speciation in glasses and the first coordination sphere around I atoms. The XAS spectra were reduced by using the 217 218 DEMETER package [40,41]. The normalisation and the merge of the XAS spectra as well as the background removal were carried out with the Athena software [40,41]. In addition, the 219 self-absorption effect was checked using the Fluo software implemented in Athena [40,41]. 220 221 The first coordination sphere to I atoms was obtained from the simulation of the EXAFS signal by using the single scattering signals determined with known crystalline structure. We 222 used k²-weighted signal function in the k-space and the simulation of the EXAFS region was 223

done using the Artemis software [41]. A description of the EXAFS fitting protocol is providedlater in the Discussion section.

We simulated the ISG, NH, TY and C35 XANES spectra following the method described by *Schlegel et al.* [25] using a linear combination of the crystalline compound spectra. Linear
fitting combinations were performed in the range 4540-4590 eV with the implemented tool in
Athena software. It should be emphasised that the choice of crystalline structure for EXAFS
or XANES spectrum simulations is based on the results obtained by the XPS, which provides
the I speciation in the investigated glasses.

232 **3. Results**

233 *3.1 Iodine speciation by XPS*

We determined the I oxidation state using the XPS technique. The XPS spectra for crystalline 234 compounds and glasses are shown in Fig. 1. We chose to represent only the $3d_{5/2}$ from the I 235 doublet peak for clarity and because it is the most intense peak compared to the $3d_{3/2}$ [42-44]. 236 237 For crystalline powders, there is an obvious distinction in the XPS spectra between the I 238 oxidation states and therefore I local environment. For NaI in which I is present as -1 oxidation state, there is a peak located at ~619 eV; for NaIO₃ and CaI₂O₆ in which I is present 239 as +5 oxidation state, there is a peak located at ~624 eV. For I-bearing glasses studied here, 240 we observe in all the cases a single prominent peak located at ~619 eV (ranging from 619.0 to 241 619.4 eV obtained from the simulated spectra) and the absence of a peak at ~624 eV. The 242 presence of the peak at 619 eV suggests that I is dissolved in the glass mostly as I⁻ species. A 243 keener scrutiny reveals a peak at 624.4 eV for NH23-2 implying a small proportion of I^{5+} 244 species within the glass. For several samples, we also observe a slight asymmetry on the high-245 energy side of the 619 eV peak. We interpret this asymmetry as the possible presence of I_2 246 species [45]. This suggests the possible presence of I dissolved in glasses as I₂ species. 247

Furthermore, most of the investigated samples were clear glass indicating the absence of I_{2} filled bubbles. Brownish bubbles were only identified in TY glass samples and were interpreted as bubbles filled with residual I_{2} .

251 Subsequent simulation of the I $3d_{5/2}$ peak reveals that I₂ is present as a dissolved species in

glass. In NH23-2 glass, we have identified the presence of I^{5+} at a total I fraction of 3.0%. The

253 results of the simulations are shown in *Table 1* with the I speciation and the XPS spectrum

simulations are provided in *Supplementary Material 1*. In all investigated glasses, the

quantitative simulation of the peak reveals that I is present on average as 95.6% I and 4.1%

 I_0 , presumably I_2 . The determination of the I speciation will be used for constraining the

simulations conducted on both the L_3 -edge XANES and EXAFS.

Scrutinizing the I local environment with XPS simulations appears complicated, as the I $3d_{5/2}$ peak position does not change as a function of glass composition. For instance, for C35 (i.e. Na-free) for which the surrounding cation for Γ is Ca²⁺ exhibits a peak maximum at 619.2 eV comparable to the peak position observed for the other glasses that are Na- and Ca-bearing compositions.

263 $3.2 I L_3$ -edge XANES

L₃-edge XANES spectra for crystalline and I-bearing glasses are shown in *Fig. 2*. We provide 264 the entire set of spectra in Supplementary Material 2. In Fig. 2, all spectra exhibit a main 265 266 absorption edge located at \sim 4563 eV. There is no pre-edge peak observed. The crystalline I₂ spectrum is relatively featureless whereas the spectrum for other salts shows a distinguishable 267 edge peak at ~4563 eV, roughly symmetric except for NaI in which the edge peak seems to be 268 a composition of several components. For iodates (NaIO₃ and CaI₂O₆), there is a strong 269 270 shoulder with a maximum at ~4574 eV. This peak is not clearly visible for NaI, however, we 271 observe a peak at ~4570 eV and a broad feature extending up to ~4590 eV in the EXAFS

272 region. For the iodates, there is a strong broad asymmetric peak with a maximum at ~4592 eV
273 and corresponding to the beginning of the EXAFS region.

We followed the description provided by *Schlegel et al.* [25] for a tentative of assignment. The peaks at ~4563 and ~4574 eV are attributed to the transition to 5d levels. The broad features observed are assigned to 2p to d transitions [14]. We did not attempt to determine the I oxidation state for crystalline compounds [46,47] as there is no apparent change in the edge position, and also because the line broadening is important at the L edge for heavy elements such as I. Instead, we use the crystalline spectra to decipher the I local environment in the studied glasses.

The I L₃-edge XANES spectra are reported for six glass samples. It should be emphasised that within a glass series (ISG, NH or TY) we did not observe any significant difference in between the spectra (see *Supplementary Material 2*) suggesting that I has comparable local environment for all samples of a given series. As observed in *Fig. 2*, the C35 XANES spectrum contrast to the spectra for NH and ISG, therefore indicating that the I local environment in C35 is not the same as the one in ISG and NH glasses. This observation appears in contrast to the XPS results showing that I is dissolved as Γ , regardless of the glass

composition. However, the XPS method only provides first level of information (i.e. I

oxidation state) and does not scrutinize the next nearest neighbour to the I atoms.

The XANES spectra for ISG and NH look alike to the spectrum of NaI and to a lower extent to CaI₂. This suggests that ISG and NH spectra are possibly a combination of both NaI and CaI₂ XANES spectra. There is a well-marked peak at ~4563 eV as well as a broad peak with a maximum at ~4574 eV and a broad shoulder at ~4585 eV. Together, these features could witness the presence of Ca- and/or Na-iodates or a mixture between iodates and Ca- and/or Na-iodides; however, the XPS results obtained on those samples do not indicate the presence

of IO_3^- molecular species in the glass structure. We did not observe the presence of 296 unaccounted crystalline phase in the bulk of the glass as shown by the X-ray diagram obtained 297 [15]. Therefore, the XANES signal recorded corresponds to the I local environment in the 298 glass. The XANES spectrum for C35 that is Na-free glass composition has common features 299 with the XANES spectrum for CaI₂, however, as observed in *Fig. 2*, it appears unlikely that the 300 C35 spectrum will be reproduced with only the spectrum from CaI₂. This observation 301 302 emphasises the difficulty to reproduce XANES spectrum for glasses with the sole use of XANES spectrum from crystalline compounds. 303

304 Nonetheless, in Fig. 3 we propose an attempt of XANES simulations using the method of linear combination described by Schlegel et al. [25] to reproduce the XANES spectrum for the 305 306 glasses. We strongly emphasise that this approach represents only an attempt and is by no 307 mean an absolute result. The reason being that we simulate a XANES spectrum for a glass using XANES spectra obtained on crystalline compounds: NaI, CaI₂, I₂, NaIO₃ and CaI₂O₆, 308 shown in Fig. 2. The simulation results are also provided in Table 1. The first step of the 309 simulation involved using the entire set of spectra for crystalline compounds without 310 constraints (except for C35 glass that is Na-free glass composition). We tested all the possible 311 combinations to obtain the fit using the Linear Fitting Combination package. The entire set of 312 simulation is provided in Supplementary Material 2. The combination results involving 313 negative parameters were discarded. We limited the possible combination to three 314 independent components. From *Fig. 3*, it can be observed that the simulated spectra do not 315 reproduce entirely the measured I-bearing glass spectra. As mentioned, it appears difficult to 316 317 completely reproduce the XANES glass spectra with the XANES crystalline spectra as it does not take into consideration the variations in bond length or bond angle that is a specificity of 318 disordered glass materials (e.g. [48-52]). 319

The XANES spectrum for TY33 is reproduced with a combination of NaI (~66%), CaI₂ 320 321 (~14%), and a non-negligible proportion of I_2 (~21%). Considering that TY33 contains 0.5 mol.% I, the proportion of $I_2 \sim 0.1$ mol.%. The presence of I_2 appears consistent with the fact 322 323 that TY glass samples showed a slight brownish colouring (see *Jolivet et al.* [15]). As shown in Table 1, the XANES simulation invoked the presence of iodate for several samples showing 324 the highest I content. Except for NH23-2, this result does not appear consistent with the XPS 325 results; however, at low concentration the presence of NaIO₃ would not be detected by XPS 326 measurements. For NH and ISG glasses, the XANES spectra are reproduced with a 327 combination of NaI and CaI_2 to more than 90% in proportion. The XANES simulations 328 329 suggest the presence of I_2 in ISG and TY glasses. The ISG33-2 appears to be a particular case 330 as the simulated amount of I_2 is relatively high (~40%); although this is not consistent with 331 the observed XPS results (see *Table 1*) suggesting that only 3.3% of I is dissolved as I_2 . A small contribution of iodate (CaI₂O₆) is suggested in all NH glasses. If we consider NH23-2 332 with 2.5 mol.% I dissolved, the proposed speciation will correspond to \sim 2.2 and \sim 0.3 mol.% 333 334 of iodide and iodate, respectively. For C35, the XANES spectrum is reproduced with a contribution of 92.9 and 7.1% from CaI₂ and CaI₂O₆, respectively. This result is consistent to 335 a certain extent to the XPS result that suggests I to be dissolved as I species, although, the 336 presence of I^{5+} has not been identified. 337

From the general point of view the results illustrated in *Fig. 3* are consistent with the XPS results given in *Table 1*. The most important discrepancy is observed for ISG33-2 with ~40% I₂ observed by XANES against 3% by XPS. In detail, it appears complicated to extract reliable I species proportions from the simulation of the XANES spectrum owing to the difficulty in simulating adequately the I L₃ XANES spectra for a glass with crystalline compounds; therefore there is a large error associated to the derived proportion from XANES simulation.

Although the associated error to the simulation is probably large and the spectra are not 345 reproduced adequately, it tends to discriminate the different iodide species present in the 346 glass. Invariably, the best linear combination induces the presence of NaI and CaI₂ suggesting 347 that both iodide species are present in the glasses. This aspect is also strengthened by the fact 348 that I can dissolve in the structure of the Na-free Ca-rich C35 glass composition. For instance, 349 we failed to simulate the spectra with one and not the other iodide crystalline spectrum. 350 Nonetheless, in the current work and the subsequent XANES simulations, we propose that 351 both Na^+ and Ca^{2+} are involved into the charge compensation of the I species. 352

353 $3.3 I L_3$ -edge EXAFS

I L₃-edge EXAFS spectra are shown in Fig. 4 for several glasses. We classified the spectra as a 354 function of the I content and glass composition: from TY33 with 0.5 mol.% I to NH23-2 with 355 2.5 mol.% I. The spectrum for C35 is also added as this sample highlights the role of Ca^{2+} 356 cations in the surrounding of I⁻ species. *Fig.* 4A represents the k²-weighted data. *Fig.* 4B 357 represents the amplitude of the radial distribution function (RDF) as obtained from the Fourier 358 transforms of the oscillatory k^2 -weighted EXAFS signal in the k-space. As a compromise 359 between short and long distance, we chose to use the k^2 oscillatory signal of the $\gamma(k)$ function. 360 In the k-space, the signal to noise ratio (S/N) of the oscillatory signal is changing between 361 each sample. It appears that there is an increase in the S/N with increasing I content. For 362 instance, the NH23-2 with 2.5 mol.% I has a good S/N whereas TY33 with 0.5 mol.% the S/N 363 is relatively poor. Owing to the data quality and in order to keep for each sample analysis the 364 same range in the k-space spectra, the region used for the Fourier Transform of the EXAFS 365 spectra is set between 2.5 and 6.7 Å⁻¹. This limit at 6.7 Å⁻¹ corresponds to the higher point 366 usable for the data with the poor quality. 367

In Fig.4B, the amplitude signal shows an intense peak with a maximum around 2.5 Å. This 368 369 peak corresponds to the I first neighbour atoms. Surprisingly, the peak maximum is at higher position for C35: 2.82 Å, suggesting a longer distance to first neighbour. In addition, for C35 370 we observe a prominent peak located close to 1.5 Å that we explain by the possible existence 371 of I^{5+} . This I^{5+} could be due to an evolution of the sample under the high energy of the X-ray 372 beam during XAS acquisition. It appears consistent with the suggested result of the XANES 373 374 fit but not with the XPS result that has a lower energy flux. In order to minimize the possible artefacts in the signal for this peak in the fitting procedure, we applied a background filter in 375 the R space between 0 and 1.5 Å. The RDF peaks below 2.5 Å do not correspond to any 376 377 contribution from backscattering shells. In our case, the perturbations from the Ca excitation in the glass (~500 eV below the I L₃-edge) can be considered weak compare to the noise due 378 to the amorphous structure of the glass that decreases the EXAFS signal quickly after the 379 380 threshold. The peak for TY33 is very weak and strongly overlapped with satellite scattering signal. As inferred earlier, the low S/N in the k-space will affect the definition of the I nearest 381 neighbour in the R-space. Regardless of the glass chemical composition and I content, it 382 appears that the peak maximum, which does not correspond to the actual distance between I 383 atoms and its surrounding, are roughly identical to within <0.1 Å in radial distance. For 384 instance, in borosilicate glasses NH23-1 (1.9 mol.% I) has a peak maximum at 2.42 Å 385 whereas the ISG22-2 (1.2 mol.% I) has a peak maximum at 2.40 Å. The boron-free TY33 has 386 a peak maximum at 2.45 Å comparable to the one observed for borosilicate glasses NH and 387 ISG. 388

Hence, the distance between I and its surrounding for ISG, NH and TY would change

between 2.8 and 3.0 Å; and is possibly higher for C35. The estimated distance for ISG, NH

and TY is lower than the distance observed in iodide crystalline compounds: $r_{Na-I} = 3.24$ Å

392 [51] and $r_{Ca-I} = 3.12$ Å [54]; however consistent with the distance reported in *McKeown et al.*

[11] of 3.04 Å in Na-bearing borosilicate glasses synthesised at ambient pressure. This
distance was attributed to I atoms surrounded by several Na atoms [10,11]. The estimated
distance to the nearest neighbour also seems consistent with the XANES simulation results
(*Fig. 3*) suggesting Ca and Na as the nearest neighbour to iodide species.

The objective in the treatment of the EXAFS spectra is to obtain an estimate on the 397 parameters for the first coordination sphere around I atoms: the average distance and the 398 coordination number to I atoms to the nearest neighbour. It should be emphasised that the 399 reported spectrum simulations and associated results represent only one possible solution. The 400 I EXAFS simulations were conducted in the radial distance range between ~1.5 and ~3.5 Å 401 (see Fig. 5). We could not investigate the signal to longer distance for several reasons: 1) the 402 EXAFS S/N ratio did not allow it as shown in Fig. 4A and 2) the proximity of the L₂-edge line 403 404 (~4850 eV) prevents from acquiring a long EXAFS signal. In order to obtain further information about I second or third neighbours, we would require a longer k-space acquisition 405 than actually acquired. Due to the extremely low signal, we did not attempt to simulate the 406 EXAFS spectra for TY glass samples but only on ISG, NH and C35 glass spectra. To conduct 407 the simulations, we used standard crystalline structures taken from Crystallographic Open 408 409 Database ([55] and references therein): NaI and CaI₂. These structures were chosen in 410 agreement with the XPS results and XANES simulations that suggest the presence of mostly iodide species dissolved in the glass structure. The presence of I_2 and CaI_2O_6 was not 411 considered in the simulation owing to the low abundances observed by XPS (see *Table 1*). For 412 the particular case of C35, we only used the scattering path from CaI_2 considering that the 413 glass composition is Na-free. 414

Prior to the simulation, the EXAFS spectra were calibrated for the scattering amplitude and corrected for the edge position [56]. We simulated the spectrum obtained on CaI₂ with the CaI₂ crystalline model. We obtained $S_0^2 = 0.984$ and $\Delta E_0 = -7.73$ eV. We took the single

scattering paths of each structure as given by the FEFF calculations in Artemis. For NaI, the 418 path Na to I has Coordination Number (CN_{Na-I}) = 6, r_{Na-I} = 3.236 Å; for CaI₂, CN_{Ca-I} = 3, r_{Ca-I} 419 = 3.117 Å. As McKeown et al. [11] derived an average CN_{Na-I} in their studied glasses close to 420 4, we choose a $CN_{Na-I} = 4$ and $CN_{Ca-I} = 2$ as starting guess prior to the simulations. The 421 simulations are conducted in several steps: 1) the optimization of the distance to the first 422 neighbour (r_{X-I}) is conducted with fixed initial coordination numbers (CN_{X-I}) and Debye-423 Waller attenuation factor (σ^2); 2) the optimization of the σ^2 is conducted at fixed CN_{X-I} and r_{X-I} 424 I; 3) the optimization of the CN_{X-I} is conducted at fixed σ^2 and r_{X-I} . Each category of 425 parameter (r, σ^2 or CN) is optimized for the whole set of scattering paths in the same time. We 426 427 repeated the procedure several times until obtaining the best possible fit of the radial distance signal. We did not place any restraints on the parameter values to solve the EXAFS equation. 428

429 **4. Discussion**

430 *4.1 Local environment of iodine in aluminoborosilicate glasses*

EXAFS simulations are shown in *Fig. 5* for NH23-2, ISG22-2 and C35. We present for each sample the fit of the RDF total amplitude (*Fig. 5A*) and the imaginary part (*Fig. 5B*). The fitting results (CN_{X-I}, r_{X-I} and σ^2_{X-I}) are given in *Table 1* and *Supplementary Material 2*.

434 The results obtained on the nearest neighbour distance to I are comparable to the previous

results from *McKeown et al.* [11]. For the iodide species (Ca-I and Na-I) and in the case of Na

and Ca-bearing glasses (NH, ISG and TY), we obtain distances changing from 2.76 to 3.01 Å.

437 On average the distance between I^{-} and Ca^{2+} is shorter than the distance to Na^{+} , which can be

438 explained by the higher cationic charge of calcium for an equivalent ionic radius (1.20 and

- 439 1.24 Å for Na⁺ and Ca²⁺, respectively; [57]). We observe that the derived r_{X-I} are
- systematically lower than the one reported in *McKeown et al.* [11] (i.e. 3.04 Å). One reason for
- these lower I to first neighbour distances could be due to the intensive conditions (i.e. high-

pressure) at which our glasses were held considering that high-pressure conditions are known 442 to influence the local environment of cations [31-33]. On the other hand, as suggested, the 443 derived r_{Ca-I} in the case of C35 is larger (3.60 Å) than the one derived for ISG and NH glasses. 444 This aspect is currently unexplained; however, it should be pointed out that the C35 glass 445 composition is significantly different from the ISG and NH glass compositions. It has more 446 B₂O₃ (~30 mol.%) and less SiO₂ (~30 mol.%) as compared to ISG and NH that could 447 therefore greatly influence the glass structure. Furthermore, it is currently well-accepted that 448 the distribution of network modifying cations within the glass structure is strongly affected by 449 the nature of those cations in the so-called mixed alkali or alkaline-earth effect [58-61]. In the 450 451 case of Na and Ca-mixed silicate glass compositions (for instance similar to ISG, NH and TY), it has been shown that there is a strong intermixing between Ca^{2+} and Na^{+} cations; in 452 other words the oxygen negative charge compensation is preferably accomplished by both 453 454 cations rather than only one sort of cation. As such, C35 represents a very peculiar glass composition that cannot be readily compared to ISG and NH ones. Nevertheless, it has the 455 456 advantage to show that it is possible to find local environment of Γ species surrounded by Ca^{2+} as a charge compensation cation. 457

We have reported the change in the derived r_{X-I} as a function of I content in Fig. 6A. The point 458 459 representative of C35 glass is not reported considering that this glass composition is not similar to the NH and ISG ones. From Fig. 6A, we do not observe a clear pattern as a function 460 of I content, however, it seems that the highest r_{X-I} are observed for the highest I content. For 461 462 instance, in ISG glasses there is a slight increase in both Ca-I and Na-I bond lengths. We also observe that the r_{X-I} bond distances are systematically higher for NH glass than for ISG glass. 463 464 It suggests that the I local environment is probably a function of the glass bulk composition. Typically, the difference observed in r_{Ca-I} (>0.1 Å) might be explained by the change in Ca 465 content: 5.7 and 8.0 mol.% CaO in ISG and NH, respectively. This would also be consistent 466

467 with the higher r_{Ca-I} (3.60 Å, see *Table 1*) observed for C35 having 32.5 mol.% CaO.

468 Although, r_{Na-I} seems less affected (<0.1 Å) for a larger variation in Na₂O content: 12.6 and

469 24.2 mol.% Na₂O in ISG and NH, respectively. Considering the small number of investigated

470 compositions and samples, further work is currently requested to investigate the possible

471 change of r_{X-I} as a function of both I content and glass bulk composition.

472 In a similar manner, we have plotted the change in the CN_{X-I} values derived for iodide as a

473 function of I content in *Fig. 6B*. The normalised CN_{X-I} derived from the fit of the EXAFS

signal provided in *Table 1*. For Ca, the CN changes from 1.5 to 2.2. For Na, the CN changes

from 2.3 to 4.2. The derived CN_{Na-I} of 2.3±0.2 is anomalously low and is obtained for ISG31

476 glass sample having a low I content (0.8 mol.%) and synthesised at the lowest pressure (0.5

477 GPa). As shown in *Fig. 6B*, we do not observe any correlation between the derived CN and the

478 I content. The CN_{Ca-I} exhibits the lowest variation in coordination number. The average CN_{Na-}

479 I and CN_{Ca-I} (not including the C35 value of 1.5) are 3.6±0.6 and 2.0±0.1, respectively. The

480 higher CN_{Na-I} is consistent with the lower positive charges of Na as compared to Ca to

481 compensate the negative charges of the iodide.

482 The obtained CN values cover the lower end range reported in *McKeown et al.* [11] (*Fig.* 7). We

483 plotted the obtained normalised CN_{X-I} values as a function of the obtained r_{X-I} values for

484 iodide species in *Fig. 7*. We also reported the experimental data points from *McKeown et al.*

[11] for comparison. We observe that our I-bearing glasses synthesised under high-pressure

486 conditions have comparable r_{X-I} bond length as the one reported in *McKeown et al.* [11]. The

487 derived CN_{X-I} have a narrower range as compared to the values reported in *McKeown et al.*

488 [11]. The possible reasons for lower CN_{X-I} values could be: 1) the intensive pressure

489 conditions are responsible for the lower derived CN_{X-I} ; 2) the higher dissolved I content

490 induces a lower global charge compensation in the surrounding of I⁻ species.

491 We applied bond valence theory using the bond valence parameters reported in *Brese and* 492 *O'Keeffe* [62]. We used the following equation that relates the I valence (v_{X-I}) to the bond 493 length (d_{X-I}):

494
$$v_{X-I} = exp\left(\frac{R_{X-I}-d_{X-I}}{b}\right)$$
 Eq. 2

Where X is the cation (i.e. Na⁺ or Ca²⁺), r_{X-I} is the bond valence parameter: 2.56 and 2.72 for 495 Na^+ and Ca^{2+} , respectively; b is a constant 0.37. The valence v_{X-I} is related to the CN with the 496 following relation v = z/CN, where z is the cation charge. Using the average CN derived from 497 EXAFS simulation (i.e. 3.6 and 2.0 for Na and Ca); we obtain d_{X-I} of 3.03 and 2.72 Å for Na-I 498 499 and Ca-I bond length, respectively. These values are in good agreement with the obtained values in *Table 1* from EXAFS. The calculated d_{X-I} value for Ca-I bond appear lower than the 500 one derived from EXAFS (2.85±0.09 Å on average for Ca-I). Bond valence theory calculates 501 a bond length without considering possible surrounding perturbation, however, Na⁺ and Ca²⁺ 502 cations do not only share their positive charges to Γ anions but also to oxygen atoms from the 503 504 silicate and borate networks within the glass [63]. Thus, due to the perturbation brought by surrounding oxygen atoms, the measured distance to I by EXAFS is expected to be different 505 from the one calculated with the bond valence theory. 506

507 4.2 Iodine dissolution mechanism during a high-pressure experiment under oxidizing
508 conditions

In the present work, we have shown that I is mostly dissolved as iodide species (Γ). This
behaviour was expected and is consistent with previous studies on the I dissolution
mechanisms in borosilicate glasses [9-11,13] and the chemical reaction for I dissolution
represented by Eq. 1 in which an I₂ molecule from the fluid phase interacts with Na atoms in
the melt phase to form both NaI and NaIO₃ in the melt. Based on the XANES and EXAFS

results, we propose an additional reaction involving the Ca as a possible nearest neighbour forI such as:

516
$$6I_2^{fl} + 6CaO^m \to 5CaI_2^m + CaI_2O_6^m$$
 Eq. 3

However, these two chemical reactions suffer from the fact that iodates are not observed in our glasses or at extremely low concentrations; lower than the 1/5 ratio in Eq. 1 and 3. In the absence of I^{5+} dissolved as iodate or the absence of cation capable of changing its oxidation state (e.g. Fe changing from Fe²⁺ to Fe³⁺, [10]), there is an excess of negative charges due to the reduction of I_2^{fl} into I^{-} . One possible solution is to invoke an exchange between I and oxygen from the melt with oxygen released in the fluid phase during the experiments such as:

523
$$I_2^{fl} + O^{2-,m} \to 2I^{-,m} + O_2^{fl}$$
 Eq. 4

Unfortunately, we have no way to test this hypothesis, besides we were not able to measure 524 the O_2^{fl} concentration at the capsule opening after the experiments. The nature of oxygen that 525 can be involved in this reaction is still to be determined [19,64-67]. At first level of 526 knowledge, the obvious candidate is to use Non-Bridging Oxygen (NBO) in the melt 527 structure, however, it could be NBOs from the silicate network or from the borate network 528 [19,65]. Jolivet et al. [15] suggested that the I dissolution is accompanied by a change in the 529 530 distribution of boron species (i.e. BO₃ and BO₄). Based on the Raman spectroscopic results, they also showed that the silicate network appears unaffected by the I dissolution. In that case, 531 we expect an interplay between I atoms and the borate network with an increase in the BO₃ 532 533 species and decrease in BO₄. If it is currently observed for ISG glass samples, it is the opposite of NH glass samples: BO₄ increases with increasing I content and BO₃ decreases. In 534 any case, further experimental work is currently required using ¹⁷O NMR to determine the 535 nature of the oxygen involved in the dissolution mechanisms of iodine as I species. 536

537 **5. Conclusion**

In the subsequent work, we have investigated the local environment of I atoms dissolved in
glasses of various compositions synthesised under high-pressure conditions. To do so, we
used two complementary spectroscopic methods: XPS and I L₃-edge XAS. The studied
glasses are from three different compositions fully detailed in *Jolivet et al.* [15]. The range of I
investigated is 0.5 to 2.5 mol.%.

With the XPS, we show unambiguously that I is mostly dissolved as iodide (Γ) species. However, we could also observe small proportions of other species such I₂ and CaI₂O₆. Such a speciation is also confirmed with the modelling of the I L₃-edge XANES using simple spectrum linear combination. In addition, it also infers that Na⁺ is not the only nearest neighbour of I atoms and we propose that Ca²⁺ cations are also acting as a charge balancing cations to the negative charges on Γ .

The simulation of the EXAFS spectra suggests that on average I anions has a bond length of 549 2.98 to 2.85 Å to the nearest neighbour, either Na^+ or Ca^{2+} . This range of values is consistent 550 with previous investigations. We derived a coordination number to Na of 3.6 and to Ca of 2.0. 551 The main outcome of those results is that Ca is able, like Na, to dissolve I in its surrounding. 552 This new observation is likely due to the high pressure conditions used for synthesising the I⁻ 553 554 bearing borosilicate glasses. Although the question of I-bearing glass matrix is to be determined, we show that solubilizing I in glass matrix at high pressure is a promising 555 protocol to immobilize radioactive ¹²⁹I in nuclear waste glasses. 556

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744

745 **Figure caption**

Figure 1: XPS spectra in the I $3d_{5/2}$ energy region obtained on I-bearing glasses of ISG and

747 NH compositions from *Jolivet et al.* [15] along with XPS spectra for crystalline compounds:

NaI, NaIO₃ and CaI₂O₆. The peak at ~619 eV is attributed to Γ species and the peak at ~624

749 eV is attributed to I^{5+} species.

Figure 2: I L₃-edge XANES spectra for I-bearing glasses (ISG, NH, TY and C35) and solid

crystalline compounds (I_2 , NaI, CaI₂, NaIO₃ and CaI₂O₆) in the 4540-4600 eV region. The

strong feature at 4563 eV corresponds to the white line and is visible on almost all spectra

 $rac{1}{2}$ except I₂ that exhibits relatively featureless spectrum. There are two broad peaks located at

~4574 and 4590 eV are assigned to transitions in the 5d levels and 2p to d, respectively.

- 755 Figure 3: Linear Combination Fitting of the I L₃-edge XANES spectra for I-bearing glasses
- (A, TY33; B, ISG22-2; C, NH23-2; and D, C35) with spectra from crystalline compounds.
- 757 The residual from the fit is also shown. The derived proportion of each component is reported

and is a combination of NaI, CaI_2 , I_2 and to a lower part CaI_2O_6 (see *Table 1*).

- Figure 4: Typical I L₃-edge EXAFS spectra for investigated glasses and represented in the k-
- space (A) and R-space (B). Spectra are stacked with increasing I content from TY33 (0.5

mol.%) to NH23-2 (2.5 mol.%). In addition, spectrum from C35 (1.6 mol.%) is also reported.

The strong peak at ~2.5 Å corresponds to the actual EXAFS signal for the nearest neighbour
of the I atoms.

Figure 5: Examples of I L₃-edge EXAFS simulation of the RDF for NH23-2 (A), ISG22-2 (B)

- and C35 (C). The simulation of the imaginary part of the EXAFS signal is also shown. The
- simulation are conducted in the 1.5 to 3.5 Å region to derive the CN_{X-I} and r_{X-I} . We used
- single scattering paths from crystalline structure: NaI and CaI₂, in agreement with the

observed components from XANES simulations. The EXAFS fitting results are reported in*Table 1*.

Figure 6: Change in the derived r_{X-I} in Å (A) and CN_{X-I} (B) from EXAFS simulations as a

function of I content in mol.%. The data are reported for Ca-I and Na-I and for ISG and NH

glass compositions. The error bars on each point is determined from the EXAFS fitting

results.

- Figure 7: Change in the I CN as a function of r_{X-I} in Å. Data are obtained from EXAFS
- simulations of the I-bearing studied glasses (ISG and NH) and are compared to the data
- obtained by *McKeown et al.* [11]. The values for crystalline compounds are also shown.