## **TABLE OF CONTENTS**

List of figures	ix
List of tables	xx
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	
1.1 Motivation and objectives.	1
1.2 Layout of the thesis.	2
1.3 References.	4
CHAPTER 2: BACKFILL AND PLUG TEST PROJECT	5 5
2.1 Introduction	
2.2 The Äspö Hard Rock Laboratory (ÄHRL)	6
2.3 Backfill and Plug Test Project (BPTP)	7
2.3.1 Close hydrogeology of the ZEDEX gallery	7
2.3.2 Layout of the test	8
2.3.3 Historical evolution of Backfill and Plug Test Project	10
2.3.4 Instrumentation installed at BPTP	11
2.4 Future work at BPTP	12 13
<ul><li>2.5 Conclusions</li><li>2.6 References</li></ul>	13
CHAPTER 3: BACKFILL EXPERIMENTAL STUDY	33
3.1 Why bentonite/granular material mixtures?	33
3.2 Chemical effects on hydro-mechanical behaviour of active soils	33
3.2.1 Fluid-clay interaction effects on volume change and hydraulic	35
conductivity of swelling clays 3.2.2 Chemical effects on retention properties of swelling clays	33 37
3.2.2 Chemical effects on nicro and macrostructure of active clays	44
3.2.4 Some usual chemical reactions involved in bentonites	46
3.3 Mixture description	47
3.3.1 MX-80 sodium bentonite	47
3.3.2 Crushed granite rock	49
3.4 Compaction tests	49
3.5 Water uptake tests	51
3.5.1 Statically compacted soil specimens	52
3.5.2 Dynamically compacted soil specimens	53
3.6 Backfill water retention properties	54
3.6.1 Tests performed by CT	54
3.6.2 Tests performed by UPC	55
3.6.2.1 Drying path of MX-80 – sand mixture	56
3.6.2.2 Wetting path of MX-80 – sand mixture	56
3.7 Oedometer tests	57
3.7.1 Swelling pressure	59
3.7.2 Void ratio vs effective stress relationship	59
3.7.3 Consolidation coefficient	60
3.7.4 Hydraulic conductivity	61
3.8 Saturated permeability	61
3.9 Chemical analysis of pore water 3.9.1 Collected water from oedometer tests	62
3.9.1 Collected water from bedometer tests 3.9.2 Aqueous extracts from specimens used in water uptake tests	62 63
3.10 Conclusions	64
2.10 COHORDION	UT

3.11 References	67
CHAPTER 4: SATURATED HYDRAULIC CONDUCTIVITY BY MEANS OF	
PULSE TEST	113
4.1 Introduction	113
4.2 Laboratory test scheme and general layout	115
4.3 Specimen preparation	117
4.4 Constant head tests results	117
4.5 Pulse tests results	119
4.6 Simulation of pulse test	120
4.6.1 Gibson's model	121
4.6.1.1 Maximum likelihood estimation technique	122
4.6.1.2 Optimisation procedure	123
4.6.1.3 Reliability of identified parameters	124
4.6.1.4 Analysis of the results	124
4.6.2 Brand & Premchitt model	125
4.6.3 Numerical simulation by using CODE_BRIGHT 4.6.3.1 Validation of CODE_BRIGHT	126
4.6.3.2 Coupled hydro-mechanical analysis of the pulse tests	126 128
4.0.3.2 Coupled hydro-mechanical analysis of the pulse tests  4.7 Laboratory test dismantling	130
4.8 Pulse tests in the ZEDEX gallery	131
4.8.1 Brief description of the system layout	131
4.8.2 Positioning of the mini-piezometers	132
4.8.3 In situ pulse tests	132
4.8.4 Numerical analysis of the pulse tests	134
4.8.5 Compilation of the results	137
4.9 Conclusions	138
4.10 References	140
CHAPTER 5: AN ANALYSIS OF FLOW AT THE ZEDEX GALLERY USING	
A HYDRO-CHEMICAL COUPLED APPROACH	189
5.1 Introduction	189
5.2 Hydraulic conductivity and its mathematical study	190
5.3 Formulation of the reactive transport problem	195
5.4 Geochemical model solved in these calculations	197
5.4.1 Initial geochemical conditions	197
5.5 Summary of backfill experimental characterisation	198
5.5.1 Intrinsic permeability variation with pore fluid chemistry	199
5.5.2 Osmotic suction	200
5.5.3 Matric suction law	200
5.5.4 Non-advective transport	201
5.6 Numerical simulation of a series of water uptake tests	202
5.7 Numerical simulation of the backfill saturation process at ÄHRL	204
5.8 Saturated flow tests at the ZEDEX gallery	207
<ul><li>5.9 "Disturbing" flow effects at the ZEDEX gallery</li><li>5.10 Conclusions</li></ul>	209
5.10 Conclusions 5.11 References	211 212
3.11 References	212
CHAPTER 6: FINAL CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK	249
6.1 Summary and conclusions	249
6.2 Future research work	251
APPENDIX: INTAKE FACTOR OF THE MINI-PIEZOMETER IN SITU	254

## **LIST OF FIGURES**

Figure 2.1	KSB-3 proposal for a deep repository (Ericsson, 1999).	16
Figure 2.2	Location of the Swedish Island of Äspö, where the Äspö Hard Rock Laboratory is placed (SKB, 1996b).	16
Figure 2.3	Schematic final layout of the Äspö Hard Rock Laboratory. Different experiments are being carried out in different tunnels (SKB, 1996a).	17
Figure 2.4	Location of the ZEDEX gallery where Backfill and Plug Test is being carried out and	
Figure 2.5	other different tests in the ÄHRL (Gunnarsson et al. 2001).  Three-dimensional visualisation of the ZEDEX gallery showing the main	17
	components of the project (Gunnarsson et al. 2001).	18
Figure 2.6	Mapping of observed fractures at the ZEDEX gallery after its excavation. The area where main fractures are, was backfilled with crushed granite and isolated from the other part of the tunnel by means of a concrete wall. The Backfill and Plug Test was	10
Figure 2.7	developed behind this wall (Stenberg & Gunnarsson, 1998).  Different steps during the cycle of a layer construction. a) Placement of the backfill.	19
-	b) Pushing the backfill in its position. c) Compaction close to the roof. d) to f) Backfill compaction by means of the slope compactor specially designed for this purpose (Gunnarsson et al. 2001).	20
Figure 2.8	Designed facility to compact the backfill close to the roof (Gunnarsson et al. 2001).	20
Figure 2.9	Designed facility to compact the backfill far away from the roof (Gunnarsson et al. 2001).	21
Figure 2.10	Geometry of a section of compacted backfill at the ZEDEX gallery (Clay Technology, 1998).	22
Figure 2.11	Standardised pattern of density measurements in the backfill layers and the	
T: 0.10	arrangement of the cable corridors for tubes and connexions of the devices placed in the backfill (Gunnarsson et al. 2001).	22
Figure 2.12	Average dry specific weight measured in the central part of different layers at sections A3 and A4 by means of nuclear gauges (Gunnarsson et al. 2001).	23
Figure 2.13	Dry specific weight measured close to the roof of section A3. It can be observed the important differences after the compaction process close to the rock. Dry specific weight near the rock was measured by means of a penetrometer instead of a nuclear	
Figure 2.14	gauge (Gunnarsson et al. 2001).  Measured average water content in sections A3 and A4 during the construction of the	23
	barrier (Gunnarsson et al. 2001).	24
Figure 2.15	Three permeable mats were placed between two sections in order to inject and collect water (Clay Technology, 1997).	24
Figure 2.16	Detail of the three permeable mats placed after the compaction of one of the layers (Gunnarsson et al. 2001).	25
Figure 2.17	Vertical section of ZEDEX gallery showing the final layout and numbering of sections and mats (Goudarzi et al. 2002).	25
Figure 2.18	Cable arrangement in a 30/70 layer after compaction (Gunnarsson et al. 2001).	26
Figure 2.19	Coordinate system used to locate all the devices installed in backfill (Clay Technology, 1997).	26
Figure 2.20	Final arrangement of the thirteen mini-piezometers (DPPS) installed by AITEMIN in	
Figure 2.21	section A4 (after AITEMIN, 1999).  Designed mini-piezometer or DPPS (AITEMIN, 1999).	27 28
Figure 2.22	Wescor PST-55 placed in situ at one of the layers at the ZEDEX gallery (Gunnarsson	
Figure 2.23	et al. 2001). It can be observed that is very close to the surface of the layer. Glötzl total pressure cell placed in situ at one of the layers of backfill in the ZEDEX	28
Figure 2.24	gallery (Gunnarsson et al. 2001). Glötzl pore water pressure cell placed in situ at one of the layers of backfill in the	29
	ZEDEX gallery (Gunnarsson et al. 2001).	29
Figure 2.25	Evolution of measured total suction by three psychrometers located at section A3 (Goudarzi et al. 2002).	30
Figure 2.26	Evolution of measured total suction by three psychrometers located at section A4 (Goudarzi et al. 2002).	30
Figure 2.27	Measured evolution of injected water pressure at mats D3, D4 and D5 (Goudarzi et	
	al. 2002).	31

Figure 2.28	Injected water flow rate of water at mats D2 to D6 during the first 3 years of the saturation process (Goudarzi et al. 2002).	31
Figure 2.29	Monitored backfill total pressure in sections A3 and A4 at the host rock (Goudarzi et al. 2002).	32
Figure 3.1	Comparison of the deformation due to an external loading and the osmotic consolidation at constant vertical load after soaking the soil specimen to brine (Barbour & Yang, 1993).	75
Figure 3.2	Swelling pressure test on strongly compacted MX-80 sodium bentonite (Karland, 1997). At the beginning, distilled water is used to saturate the specimen. After full saturation brine is injected and an important reduction of the swelling pressure was	
Figure 3.3	observed.  Total suction obtained by means of psychrometers in compacted specimens of different bentonite/sand ratio when specimens were mixed and hydrated with distilled water and at a dry specific weight of 16.6 kN/m³ (Mata et al. 2002).	75 76
Figure 3.4	Total suction obtained by means of psychrometers in compacted specimens of different bentonite/sand ratio when specimens were mixed and hydrated with salt water containing 16 g/L of salt and at a dry specific weight of 16.6 kN/m³ (Mata et al.	
Figure 3.5	2002). Total suction obtained by means of psychrometers in compacted specimens of different bentonite/sand ratio when specimens were mixed and hydrated with distilled	76 77
Figure 3.6	water at a dry specific weight of 13.7 kN/m³ (Mata et al. 2002). Total suction obtained by means of psychrometers in compacted specimens of different bentonite/sand ratio when specimens were mixed and hydrated with salt water containing 16 g/L of salt and at a dry specific weight of 13.7 kN/m³ (Mata et al.	//
Figure 3.7	2002). Difference between total suction of the salt water case and the distilled water case at $\gamma_d = 16.6 \text{ kN/m}^3$ and the predictions with the model presented in equation 6 (after Mata et al. 2002).	77 78
Figure 3.8	Difference between total suction of the salt water case and the distilled water case at $\gamma_d = 13.7 \text{ kN/m}^3$ and the predictions with the model presented in equation 6 (after Mata et al. 2002).	78
Figure 3.9	Measured matric suction of a mixture of 30% of MX-80 sodium bentonite and 70% of crushed granite as a function of water content (Johannesson et al. 1999). It can be observed that measured matric suction when specimens were hydrated with salt water (Äspö water) was smaller than measured matric suction when specimens were hydrated with distilled water. A change of backfill macrostructure due to salt water effects is the most probable explanation.	79
Figure 3.10 Figure 3.11	Scheme of coupled flows occurring while a non-active soil is saturated with water containing only one chemical species. Meaning of symbols is referred to the text. Evolution of four psychrometers placed at different sections of compacted backfill at	79
	the ZEDEX gallery (Goudarzi et al. 2002). An increase of total suction is observed in those psychrometers.	80
Figure 3.12	Total suction evolution in a bentonite free backfill (0/100 by mass) when specimens were hydrated with distilled water and salt water (Äspö water ≈ 12 g/L). Wescor PST-55 psychrometer was used to determine the total suction (Johannesson et al. 1999). Below 500 kPa it is necessary to perform a large number of measurements to obtain reliable results with this equipment.	80
Figure 3.13	Pore size distribution of two different soil packings after MIP test in compacted Boom clay (Romero, 1999). The results of the MIP tests were normalised and	
Figure 3.14	translated to degree of saturation of the intruded mercury during the test, $S_{r_{mv}}$ . Proposed simple model of the evolution of the degree of saturation of the intruded mercury during a MIP test in a soil following equation (10). $D_m$ is the pore size or	81
Figure 3.15	diameter at which the intruded volume of mercury reaches a maximum. Matric suction of a soil from the exponential relation between the pore size of the soil structure and the degree of saturation of the intruded mercury (equation 10). This model has only one parameter closely related to the entrance pore size at which the maximum volume of mercury was intruded (D = $\delta$ /2) The three curves correspond to	82
	the three non-wetting degree of saturation curves previously depicted in figure 3.14.	83

Figure 3.16	Evolution of total suction using the model depending on salt concentration and degree of saturation (equation 14) when a representative volume of soil (REV) is hydrated with salt water. It can be observed the importance of the parameter $\beta$ on the behaviour of the soil. Small values of $\beta$ (high air entry values) provide a "normal"	
	retention curve with a decreasing suction when the degree of saturation decreases. However, high values of $\beta$ (low air entry values) correspond to retention curves in which the osmotic suction increases faster than matric suction decreases.	83
Figure 3.17	Shape of the total water potential in a clayey soil (low value of $\beta$ - equation 12) taking into account the effect of the variation of total concentration of salts (by wetting the soil structure with salt water or by drying paths).	84
Figure 3.18	Shape of the total water potential in a granular soil (high value of $\beta$ - equation 12) taking into account the effect of the variation of total concentration of salts (by wetting the soil structure with salt water or by drying paths).	84
Figure 3.19	Schematic representation of the fabric of an expansive soil. a) Soil structure compacted wet of optimum. b) Soil structure compacted dry of optimum. c) Elementary particle arrangement in a parallel configuration (Alonso et al. 1987).	85
Figure 3.20	Mercury intrusion porosimetry tests for bentonite/sand ratio of 70/30 and compacted at a dry specific weight of $\gamma_d = 16.6 \text{ kN/m}^3$ . The specimens were not freeze-dried (after Mata et al. 2002).	86
Figure 3.21	Mercury intrusion porosimetry tests for bentonite/sand ratio of 70/30 and specimens compacted at a dry specific weight of $\gamma_d = 13.7 \text{ kN/m}^3$ . The specimens were not freeze-dried (after Mata et al. 2002).	86
Figure 3.22	Conceptual representation of the three different processes related to sorption in solid matter (Appelo & Postma, 1993).	87
Figure 3.23	Conceptual representation of the main chemical species in the bentonite-water system. The system is divided in two main parts: internal pore water (between the clay particles or in the micropores) and external water (in the pores or macropores)	
Eiguro 2 24	where the accessory minerals are, for instance (Olin et al. 1995).	87 88
Figure 3.24 Figure 3.25	Grain size distribution of the 30/70 backfill.  Modified Proctor test performed in the backfill by Clay Technology (Börgesson et al. 1996) and UPC.	88
Figure 3.26	Results of Standard Proctor tests performed in two different soils in order to check the influence of brine on their compacting behaviour (Ridley et al. 1984).	89
Figure 3.27	Comparison of the backfill compaction tests performed with distilled water at two different levels of energy.	89
Figure 3.28	Comparison of the backfill compaction tests performed with salt water at two different levels of energy.	90
Figure 3.29	Comparison of the results of the backfill compaction tests at the same energy level (simple energy was applied) but when salt content in the hydrating water was changed.	90
Figure 3.30	Comparison of the results of the backfill compaction tests at the same energy level (double energy was applied) but when salt content in the hydrating water was	0.1
Figure 3.31	changed.  Backfill within CIEMAT's metallic mould before to its static compaction. A water uptake test with distilled water was performed in this specimen after compaction (CIEMAT, 2002).	91 91
Figure 3.32	General layout of the water uptake test performed in backfill by CIEMAT (CIEMAT, 2002).	92
Figure 3.33	Evolution of injected water volume in two backfill specimens. One specimen was saturated with salt water and the other one was saturated with distilled water. It was clear that salt water speeded up the backfill saturation (CIEMAT, 2002). Also, it can	-
	be observed a leakage ( $\approx 0.1 \text{ cm}^3/\text{h}$ ) that clearly affected the tests. This leakage	
Figure 3.34	should be taken into account when performing numerical simulations of those tests. Evolution of backfill water content after water uptake tests performed with distilled	92
	water as permeant (CIEMAT, 2002).	93
Figure 3.35	Evolution of backfill water content after water uptake tests performed with salt water containing 12 g/L of salt as permeant (CIEMAT 2002)	93

Figure 3.36	Evolution of dry specific weight of specimens hydrated with salt water containing 12 g/L of salt. Moreover, the initial dry specific weight distribution was measured in	
	order to check the effect of friction during the static compaction on this parameter	0.4
Figure 3.37	(CIEMAT, 2002).  A backfill specimen after being hydrated during 100 days with distilled water. When	94
rigule 3.37	the specimen was extruded from the cylindrical mould, the water content was	
	measured in five different slices (CIEMAT, 2002).	94
Figure 3.38	Comparison of water content profiles after 198 hours of the beginning of the	
	saturation phase of backfill specimens when salt concentration was changed in the	
E: 2.20	hydrating water (Clay Technology, 1998 and 1999).	95
Figure 3.39	Comparison of water content profiles after 1007 hours of the beginning of the	
	saturation phase of backfill specimens when salt concentration was changed in the hydrating water (Clay Technology, 1998 and 1999).	95
Figure 3.40	Results of the backfill retention experiments carried out by means of vapour transfer	)3
8	technique. These experiments were performed by Clay Technology (Johannesson et	96
	al. 1999).	
Figure 3.41	Results of the backfill retention experiments using the Wescor PST-55 transistor	
T: 0.40	psychrometer (after Johannesson et al. 1999).	97
Figure 3.42	Compilation of experimental results obtained by Clay Technology when measuring	
	the matric and total suction by means of different techniques in the backfill (Clay Technology, 1999).	97
Figure 3.43	Summary of the drying and wetting retention curves obtained in the MX-80 – sand	91
1 1gure 5.45	mixture. In addition, the matric suction curve measured by Clay Technology is	
	provided.	98
Figure 3.44	General layout used to perform the oedometer tests in UPC laboratory.	98
Figure 3.45	Scheme of the modified Rowe's cell.	99
Figure 3.46	Loading and unloading cycles performed in one of the Rowe cells. These cycles were	
	fit with a mathematical expression and used to take into account the cell deformation	99
Figure 3.47	during the consolidation steps.  Loading and unloading cycles performed in the other Rowe cell. These cycles were	77
1 19410 3.17	also fit with a mathematical expression and used to take into account the cell	
	deformation during the consolidation steps.	100
Figure 3.48	Displacements and swelling pressure evolution of the specimen number 1 (0 g/L salt	
	content and 16.6 kN/m <sup>3</sup> ). B is the Skempton B parameter. p <sub>a</sub> is the air pressure	
	applied as external load to the specimen in order to keep the vertical displacement	101
	close to zero, and $p_w$ is the water back pressure applied to the specimen while its saturation.	101
Figure 3.49	Displacements and swelling pressure evolution of the specimen number 1 (16 g/L salt	
8	content and 16.6 kN/m <sup>3</sup> ). B is the Skempton B parameter. p <sub>a</sub> is the air pressure	
	applied as external load to the specimen in order to keep the vertical displacement	
	close to zero, and p <sub>w</sub> is the water back pressure applied to the specimen while its	102
F: 2.50	saturation.	
Figure 3.50	Evolution of the consolidation process during loading steps for specimen number 1 (0 g/L and 16.6 kN/m <sup>3</sup> ).	103
Figure 3.51	Evolution of the consolidation process during loading steps for specimen number 3	103
1 15410 5.51	(16 g/L and 16.6 kN/m <sup>3</sup> ).	103
Figure 3.52	Effective stress versus void ratio relations for the highest dry specific weight (16.6	
	kN/m <sup>3</sup> ) and different salt concentrations in the water used to saturate the soil	
	specimens.	104
Figure 3.53	Effective stress versus void ratio relations for the highest dry specific weight (13.7 LN/m <sup>3</sup> ) and different self-concentrations in the water weed to seturate the seil	
	kN/m³) and different salt concentrations in the water used to saturate the soil specimens.	104
Figure 3.54	Calculated soil compressibility from the void ratio variations measured (highest dry	104
1 1941 0 3.3 1	specific weight, 16.6 kN/m <sup>3</sup> ).	105
Figure 3.55	Calculated soil compressibility versus void ratio from the void ratio variations	
	measured (lowest dry specific weight, 13.7 kN/m³).	105
Figure 3.56	Compression index calculated in the loading branch for the soil specimens initially	107
Figure 3.57	compacted at 16.6 kN/m <sup>3</sup> .  Compression index calculated in the loading branch for the soil specimens initially	106
1 15u10 J.J/	compacted at 13.7 kN/m <sup>3</sup> .	106
	•	

Figure 3.58	Consolidation coefficient versus void ratio for the high dry specific weight.	107
Figure 3.59	Consolidation coefficient versus void ratio for the small dry specific weight.	107
Figure 3.60	Estimated hydraulic conductivity for the high dry specific weight.	108
Figure 3.61	Estimated hydraulic conductivity for the small dry specific weight.	108
Figure 3.62	Summary of the hydraulic tests performed by Clay Technology (Clay Technology, 2000) in order to estimate backfill saturated permeability. Equipment of different diameters was used in the study. Äspö water (12 g/L) and distilled water were injected to saturate the specimens. Initial water content of the specimens was close to 13% excepting the one, which is marked as its initial water content was 6.5%.	109
Figure 3.63	Comparison of backfill hydraulic conductivity estimated from the oedometer tests performed by UPC in compacted specimens at dry specific weight of 16.6 kN/m <sup>3</sup> and different salinity and the results obtained by Clay Technology. It is important to point out that Äspö water contains 12 g/L of salt.	109
Figure 3.64	Distribution of soluble sodium after the infiltration tests or water uptake tests when backfill specimens were hydrated with distilled water (CIEMAT, 2002).	110
Figure 3.65	Distribution of soluble sodium after the infiltration tests or water uptake tests when backfill specimens were hydrated with salt water containing 12 g/L of NaCl and	
Figure 3.66	CaCl <sub>2</sub> , 68/32 by mass (CIEMAT, 2002).  Distribution of soluble calcium after the infiltration tests or water uptake tests when healtfill gracing many ware hydroted with distilled water (CIEMAT, 2002).	110
Figure 3.67	backfill specimens were hydrated with distilled water (CIEMAT, 2002). Distribution of soluble calcium after the infiltration tests or water uptake tests when backfill specimens were hydrated with salt water containing 12 g/L of NaCl and	111
Figure 3.68	CaCl <sub>2</sub> , 68/32 by mass (CIEMAT, 2002). Concentration of soluble Na in different sections of the clay specimen after the water	111
Figure 3.69	uptake tests. A comparison of distilled and saline water used for each duration (10, 25, 50 and 100 days) is depicted (CIEMAT, 2002). Concentration of soluble Ca in different sections of the clay specimen after the water	112
riguic 3.07	uptake tests. A comparison of distilled and saline water used for each duration (10, 25, 50 and 100 days) is depicted (CIEMAT, 2002).	112
Figure 4.1	Side view of the designed mini-piezometer. Dimensions in millimetres (AITEMIN, 1999).	143
Figure 4.2	DPPS calibration performed in the laboratory. A GDS pressure system was used to perform this calibration.	144
Figure 4.3 Figure 4.4	Scheme of the pulse test in laboratory.	144
Figure 4.4	Side view of the cell used to carry out constant and variable head tests in laboratory. Dimensions in mm.  Layout used to perform constant and variable at the designed cell. Two GDS pressure	145
riguic 4.5	systems, the high speed valve and the acquisition system are the main important components of this make up. The large reservoirs were isolated to decrease temperature effects.	145
Figure 4.6	Monitored water pressure evolution in the cell due to daily temperature variations.	143
Figure 4.7	The variations are produced by the thermal deformations of the cell.  Compacted backfill specimen into the cell. Two stainless steel tubes (incoming and outgoing water from the DPPS) and a cable with the electric connexions came out from the backfill. A porous filter was placed at the top of the specimen and then the	146
	cell was closed.	146
Figure 4.8	Cell deformability calibration performed with de-aired water. C <sub>w</sub> represents the effect of water compressibility within the cell.	147
Figure 4.9	Computed values of the cell compressibility, $K_{cell}^{computed}$ , with different values of steel	
Figure 4.10	bulk modulus. This relationship was used to estimate the necessary or equivalent steel bulk modulus after the cell compressibility had been determined. The value of the Poison's ratio was always 0.3.  Boundary and initial conditions of the constant head test performed in the cell.	147 148
Figure 4.11	Hydraulic conductivity vs maximum hydraulic gradient: dry specific weight of the specimen was 15.9 kN/m <sup>3</sup> and de-ionised water was used to saturate it. Darcy's Law was validated for this material and at this range of gradients.	149

Figure 4.12	Measured incoming and outgoing water volume from the backfill specimen hydrated with de-ionised water. Average maximum gradient in the cell was 4. It is obvious how daily temperature variations can affect the outgoing volume of water due to cell the grant deformations.	150
Figure 4.13	thermal deformations.  Measured incoming and outgoing water volume from the backfill specimen when maximum applied gradient in the cell was 8. It is clear that during the day the shape of the curve is flat, which means that the cell increased its volume and the specimen	
Figure 4.14	had larger water storing.  Measured incoming and outgoing water volume from the backfill specimen when	150
	maximum applied gradient in the cell was 16.	151
Figure 4.15	Measured incoming and outgoing water volume from the backfill specimen when maximum applied gradient in the cell was 25.	151
Figure 4.16	Measured incoming and outgoing water volume from the backfill specimen when maximum applied gradient in the cell was 50.	152
Figure 4.17	Measured incoming and outgoing water volume with de-ionised water and a	102
Figure 4.18	maximum applied gradient in the cell of 100. This figure shows how the bigger the driving force, the smaller the effects of daily temperature variations on the flow tests. Evolution of different variables during a constant head flux performed in the radial cell. This test was performed in the cell after the six constant head tests previously	152
	carried out in order to check the saturation of the specimen and the effectiveness of	
Figure 4.19	the thermal isolation of the cell.  Evolution of the computed hydraulic conductivity. It is clearly observed that the	153
C	increase of injecting water pressure from 750 kPa to 800 kPa in the DPPS did not change the calculated hydraulic conductivity.	154
Figure 4.20	Zoom of the first 30 days of the evolution of incoming and collected water in the last constant head test performed in the cell. It confirmed that the backfill was fully	
	saturated.	154
Figure 4.21	Dimensionless comparison among the no-flow pulse tests (number 1 and 2) and the prescribed water pressure pulse tests (3 and 4).	155
Figure 4.22	Geometry of the problem solved by Gibson (1963). Spherical tip in an isotropic,	
Figure 4.23	homogenous and elastic infinite medium.  Some curves calculated after programming the solutions provided by Gibson (1963)	155
-	when $\mu$ < 4.	156
Figure 4.24	Some curves calculated after programming the solutions provided by Gibson (1963) when $\mu > 4$ .	156
Figure 4.25	Contour plot of the objective function of the synthetic case generated with the Gibson	
	model. It is also shown the trajectory followed by the optimisation procedure starting from $\mu^* = 100$ and $\log C^* = -4$ .	157
Figure 4.26	Zoom of the surrounding area to the minimum of the generated objective function for	
Figure 4.27	the synthetic case.  Contour map of the objective function of pulse test number 3 using Gibson's model.	157
1 1guic 4.27	For real pulse tests double logarithmic axis were chosen.	158
Figure 4.28	Contour map of the objective function of pulse test number 4 by means of Gibson model.	158
Figure 4.29	Validation of the numerical code. Solution of the Cryer problem for different	
Figure 4.30	Poisson's coefficients. Comparison of the analytical solution by Gibson and the predicted numerical results	159
8	for the same parameters in the soil in contact with the spherical piezometer. Gibson	
	theory only provides with liquid pressure. Numerical results include also porosity and mean stress.	160
Figure 4.31	Mechanical and flow boundary conditions in both kind of pulse tests.	161
Figure 4.32	Comparison of the numerical simulation of the pulse number 1 and the pulse	171
Figure 4.33	measured.  Comparison of the numerical simulation of the pulse number 2 and the pulse	161
Eiguro A 2 A	measured.	162
Figure 4.34	Comparison of the numerical simulation of the pulse number 3 and the pulse measured.	162
Figure 4.35	Comparison of the numerical simulation of the pulse number 4 and the pulse	1.62
	measured.	163

Figure 4.36	Analytical proof of the influence of the amount of water when back-analysing parameters. Gibson's solutions are used to qualitatively explain the influence of leakages or erroneous water volume measurements.	163
Figure 4.37	Porosity distribution at various times for pulse number 3 (prescribed water pressure	103
	boundary condition). The GDS pressure system required 4.57 seconds to increase the water pressure within the mini-piezometer.	164
Figure 4.38	Total mean stress distribution at various times for pulse number 3 (prescribed water pressure boundary condition).	164
Figure 4.39	Summary of the obtained hydraulic conductivities by means of the three different experimental methods used in this work. Data provided by Clay Technology (CT) has been added to complete this figure (Börgesson et al, 1996; Johannesson et al, 1999).	165
Figure 4.40	Picture of the mini-piezometer within the backfill specimen. It can be seen the large particles of granite. Over the mini-piezometer a metallic hat is placed to protect it while compacting the backfill.	165
Figure 4.41	General layout installed by AITEMIN to perform pulse tests in the ZEDEX gallery (AITEMIN, 1999).	166
Figure 4.42	Acquisition and control system of the thirteen mini-piezometers and all the valves involved in the layout (AITEMIN, 1999). This system is placed within the control office managed by Clay Technology at the third level of the Äspö HRL	167
Figure 4.43	External part of the control system of the mini-piezometers (AITEMIN, 1999).	168
Figure 4.44	Detail of the process of DPPS installation in the backfill. A dummy was used to create the hole for the DPPS when backfill was compacted (AITEMIN, 1999).	169
Figure 4.45	Detail of a DPPS placed perpendicularly to the layer (AITEMIN, 1999).	170
Figure 4.46	Detail of a DPPS placed in parallel with the layer (AITEMIN, 1999).	170
Figure 4.47	Distribution of relative water pressure at DPPS placed at layer 2 section A4. The measurements were performed in a pressure transducer located in the valve panel in the acquisition and control system (late March 2003).	171
Figure 4.48	Distribution of relative water pressure at DPPS placed at layer 3 section A4. The measurements were performed in a pressure transducer located in the valve panel in the acquisition and control system (late March 2003).	171
Figure 4.49	Distribution of relative water pressure at DPPS placed at layer 4 section A4. The measurements were performed in a pressure transducer located in the valve panel in the acquisition and control system (late March 2003).	172
Figure 4.50	Evolution of water pressure at DPP3 during the campaign of pulse tests at late March. Four pulse tests were carried out in this sensor. The pulse simulated was the fourth one, which was carried out the 29 <sup>th</sup> .	172
Figure 4.51	Evolution of water pressure at DPP5 during the campaign of pulse tests at late March. Three pulse tests were carried out, and the simulated one was the first one.	172
Figure 4.52	Evolution of water pressure at DPP7 during the campaign of pulse tests at late March. Two pulse tests were performed and the second pulse test was simulated as it started from steady conditions. The transient in the first pulse test makes difficult its	175
Figure 4.53	numerical analysis.  Evolution of water pressure at DPP8 during the campaign of pulse tests at late March.	173
S	Three pulse tests were carried out in this sensor. It is clear that the precision of the transducer is around 5 kPa. The third pulse test is hard to notice. After three pulse tests in this device, a constant head test was performed. The first pulse test was	
Figure 4.54	numerically simulated.  Evolution of water pressure at DPP9 during the campaign of pulse tests at late March.  Two pulse tests were carried out in this sensor.	174 174
Figure 4.55	Evolution of water pressure at DPP10 during the campaign of pulse tests at late March. Two pulse tests were carried out in this sensor. The first one was numerically	
Figure 4.56	simulated. Evolution of water pressure at DPP11 during the campaign of pulse tests at late	175
Figure 4.57	March. The pulse test performed on 27 <sup>th</sup> was not simulated. Evolution of water pressure at DPP11 during the campaign of pulse tests at late	175
1-1guic 4.3/	March. The pressure transducer broke down after two hours of the beginning of the pulse test on 27 <sup>th</sup> .	176

Figure 4.58	Zoom of the pulse test performed at DPP13. Water pressure increment within the mini-piezometer was very fast and water pressure was almost constant during the injection period ( $t_0 = 20$ °). After closing the valve, the dissipation process started.	
	After 7000 seconds from the beginning of the pulse test the pressure transducer broke down.	176
Figure 4.59	Experimental measurement of the flexibility of 5 meters of stainless steel. A first loading, unloading and a reloading were performed. The calibration was performed with a GDS system pressure. Deformation of GDS system and water within the GDS were subtracted from the measurements.	177
Figure 4.60	Geometry, boundary and initial conditions (both mechanical and flow) used in the numerical simulation of the in situ pulse tests by means of CODE_BRIGHT.	178
Figure 4.61	Geometry used in the simulation of in situ pulse tests of devices close to the rock. Mechanical and flow boundary conditions were the same as those presented in figure 4.60.	179
Figure 4.62	Location of DPP3 in layer 2 of section A4. It is relatively close to the host rock and	
Figure 4.63	its position is parallel to the face of the compacted layer. Contour map of the objective function, J, of pulse test performed in DPP3 by using the Gibson's model.	179 180
Figure 4.64	Pulse test performed in DPP3 and its comparison with the analytical solution by Gibson's model and the finite element simulation. Similarity between both solutions	
Figure 4.65 Figure 4.66	is evident, however, the parameters were slightly different among them.  Location and position of sensor DPP5 close to the roof of layer 3 in section A4.  Contour map of the objective function, J, of pulse test performed in DPP5 by using	180 181
	the Gibson's model.	181
Figure 4.67	Pulse test performed in DPP5 and its comparison with the analytical solution by Gibson's model and the finite element simulation.	182
Figure 4.68	Location and position of sensors DPP7 and DPP9 close to the center of layer 3 in section A4.	182
Figure 4.69	Contour map of the objective function, J, of pulse test performed in DPP7 by using the Gibson's model.	183
Figure 4.70	Pulse test performed in DPP7 and its comparison with the analytical solution by Gibson's model and the finite element simulation. Similarity between both solutions is good, obtained using similar parameters.	183
Figure 4.71	Location and position of sensors DPP8 and DPP10 close to the host rock at layer 3 in section A4.	184
Figure 4.72	Comparison between the calculated dissipation process by means of the finite element code and the measured water pressure at sensor DPP8.	184
Figure 4.73	Contour map of the objective function, J, of pulse test performed in DPP9 by using the Gibson's model.	185
Figure 4.74	Comparison between the calculated dissipation process by means of the finite element code and the measured water pressure at sensor DPP9.	185
Figure 4.75	Detail of the second pulse test performed at sensor DPP9. It is clear that both models are not able to reproduce the beginning of the dissipation process.	186
Figure 4.76	Results of a withdrawal pulse test performed in Grimsel (Switzerland) in the granitic host formation (Martínez-Landa et al. 2003). The measurements were compared with the analytical solution by Bredehoeft and Papadopulos (1980). It is clear that the	100
	evolution of the recovery of water pressure in the borehole does not follow the pattern of the model.	186
Figure 4.77	Comparison of the measurements of the withdrawal pulse test performed in Grimsel and a numerical flow model, which introduces the effect of a fracture (Martínez-Landa et al. 2003). By considering flow in fractured media, the dissipation process	100
Figure 4.78	was properly reproduced.  Comparison between the calculated dissipation process by means of the finite	187
1 1gui 5 4.70	element code and the measured water pressure at sensor DPP10. Gibson's model was not applied to this pulse test due to the big error of the measurements.	187
Figure 4.79	Map of backfill local permeability after the analysis of the in situ pulse tests by using the finite element code.	188
Figure 4.80	Map of backfill compressibility after the analysis of the in situ pulse tests by using the finite element code.	188

Figure 5.1	Hypothetical models for salinity-dependent intrinsic permeability after Mehnert & Jennings (1985).	216
Figure 5.2	a) Flocculation flow model: rotation and deformation of the clusters forming divergent channels. b) Flow through a single divergent channel. (Hueckel et al. 1997).	216
Figure 5.3	Equilibrium concentrations of NaX and CaX <sub>2</sub> in MX-80 bentonite for two total dissolved salt concentrations in injected water at a bentonite/water ratio of 15 kg/m <sup>3</sup> (after Muurinen & Lehikoinen, 1998).	217
Figure 5.4	Variation of intrinsic permeability with salt concentration in injected water in the three oedometer tests performed in compacted backfill specimens. It was assumed that total salt concentration in injected water was very close or it was representative of the pore fluid concentrations.	217
Figure 5.5	Shape of the empirical model for the saturated hydraulic conductivity taking into account the concentration of chemical species in pore fluid and the variation of void ratio. Hydraulic conductivity axis is in log scale.	218
Figure 5.6	Contour map of the objective function of the retention curve assuming the Van Genuchten model. Only two parameters were back-analysed. Values in the contours are in MPa <sup>2</sup> .	218
Figure 5.7	Matric suction (wetting path) for the bentonite-sand mixture and its comparison with the matric suction relationship measured by Clay Technology (1997). The fit of this last retention curve was used in the calculations.	219
Figure 5.8	Results of different diffusion tests on bentonite – sand mixtures at different densities after compaction, dry and wet specimens and varying the sand content of the mixtures (Miehe et al. 2000). The bentonite used in these test is a calcium bentonite	
Figure 5.9	(calcigel). Dry specific weights were not provided, only the compaction pressure. Evolution of chloride diffusion estimated after tests performed in compacted	219
Figure 5.10	specimens of MX-80 sodium bentonite (Kim et al. 1993). Numerical simulation of the water uptake tests performed in the backfill hydrated with saltwater (16 g/L). The diffusion used was $2 \cdot 10^{-10}$ m <sup>2</sup> /s.	220
Figure 5.11	Calculated evolution of the total analytical concentration of salt in the pore water, during the saturation process.	221
Figure 5.12	Evolution of the intrinsic permeability calculated when the 16 g/L water uptake test was simulated with this formulation. It can be observed that hydraulic conductivity reached a maximum value close to the water inlet and then, decreased.	221
Figure 5.13	Time evolution of the calculated intrinsic permeability during the saturation process of a 10 cm length backfill specimen (WUT). X is the distance from the water inlet.	222
Figure 5.14	Time evolution of the calculated degree of saturation during the saturation process of a 10 cm length backfill specimen (WUT). X is the distance from the water inlet. Saturation of the specimen is reached after 5000 hours, however, chemical	
Figure 5.15	equilibrium has not been reached yet (after 9000 hours, see figure 5.13). Numerical simulation of the water uptake tests performed in the backfill hydrated with saltwater (16 g/L). The diffusion used was $2 \cdot 10^{-9}$ m <sup>2</sup> /s. The fit was even better	222
Figure 5.16	than the obtained by using the lower backfill diffusion. Evolution of the intrinsic permeability calculated when the 16 g/L water uptake test was simulated with this formulation using a diffusion value of $2 \cdot 10^{-9}$ m <sup>2</sup> /s. It can be observed that hydraulic conductivity kept on uniformly increasing during the wetting	223
Figure 5.17	process showing a different evolution to the case with a smaller diffusion. Time evolution of the calculated intrinsic permeability during the saturation process of a 10 cm length backfill specimen (WUT) using a backfill diffusion of $2 \cdot 10^{-9}$ m <sup>2</sup> /s.	223
Figure 5.18	X is the distance from the water inlet. It is clear the difference calculated response when increasing the diffusion. Chemical equilibrium is reached after 5500 hours. Time evolution of the calculated degree of saturation during the saturation process of a 10 cm length backfill specimen (WUT). X is the distance from the water inlet. Backfill saturation is reached after 6000 hours of the beginning. In this case,	224
Figure 5.19	chemical equilibrium and water potential equilibrium are reached at similar times.  Injected water pressure at mats placed between the sections of backfill at the ZEDEX	224
1 15010 3.17	gallery (after Goudarzi et al. 2002).	225

Figure 5.20	Geometry solved in the two dimensions problems and location of the six psychrometers studied. However, in these two-dimensional calculations, granite was not considered because its little influence on the results. A3(1) means section A3,	
	first layer.	225
Figure 5.21	Evolution of the total suction measured in 3 psychrometers placed at section A3 at the ZEDEX gallery (after Goudarzi et al. 2002).	226
Figure 5.22	Evolution of the total suction measured in 3 psychrometers placed at section A4 at the ZEDEX gallery (after Goudarzi et al. 2002).	226
Figure 5.23	Evolution of osmotic, $\pi$ , matric, $\psi_m$ , and total suction, $\psi_t$ , in a representative elementary volume of soil being saturated by salt water. Soil diffusion is high enough to assure that advective flow of water and salts and non-advective flow of ions have similar times.	227
Figure 5.24	Comparison between the computed values of the total suction by means of the hydrochemical simulation and the measured total suction in 3 psychrometers in section A3. Backfill molecular diffusion used was $2 \cdot 10^{-10}$ m <sup>2</sup> /s.	227
Figure 5.25	Comparison between the computed values of the total suction by means of the hydrochemical simulation and the measured total suction in 3 psychrometers in section A4. Backfill molecular diffusion used was $2 \cdot 10^{-10}$ m <sup>2</sup> /s.	228
Figure 5.26	Comparison between the computed values of the total suction by means of the hydrochemical simulation and the measured total suction in 3 psychrometers in section A3. Backfill molecular diffusion used was $2 \cdot 10^{-9}$ m <sup>2</sup> /s.	228
Figure 5.27	Comparison between the computed values of the total suction by means of the hydrochemical simulation and the measured total suction in 3 psychrometers in section A4. Backfill molecular diffusion used was $2 \cdot 10^{-9}$ m <sup>2</sup> /s.	229
Figure 5.28	Equivalent fraction of the exchangeable cation NaX in the backfill at 1450 days when backfill molecular diffusion was $2 \cdot 10^{-10}$ m <sup>2</sup> /s.	229
Figure 5.29	Equivalent fraction of the exchangeable cation NaX in the backfill at 1450 when backfill molecular diffusion was $2 \cdot 10^{-9}$ m <sup>2</sup> /s.	230
Figure 5.30	Equivalent fraction of the exchangeable cation $CaX_2$ in the backfill at 1450 days when backfill molecular diffusion was $2 \cdot 10^{-10}$ m <sup>2</sup> /s	230
Figure 5.31	Equivalent fraction of the exchangeable cation $CaX_2$ in the backfill at 1450 days when backfill molecular diffusion was $2 \cdot 10^{-9}$ m <sup>2</sup> /s	230
Figure 5.32	Molar concentration of Na <sup>+</sup> in backfill liquid phase at 1450 days when backfill molecular diffusion was $2 \cdot 10^{-10}$ m <sup>2</sup> /s.	231
Figure 5.33	Molar concentration of Na <sup>+</sup> in backfill liquid phase at 1450 days when backfill molecular diffusion was $2 \cdot 10^{-9}$ m <sup>2</sup> /s.	231
Figure 5.34	Molar concentration of $Ca^{2+}$ in backfill liquid phase at 1450 days when backfill molecular diffusion was $2 \cdot 10^{-10}$ m <sup>2</sup> /s.	231
Figure 5.35	Molar concentration of $Ca^{2+}$ in backfill liquid phase at 1450 days when backfill molecular diffusion was $2 \cdot 10^{-9}$ m <sup>2</sup> /s.	232
Figure 5.36	Backfill intrinsic permeability after 1450 days when backfill molecular diffusion was $2 \cdot 10^{-10}$ m <sup>2</sup> /s.	232
Figure 5.37	Backfill intrinsic permeability after 1450 days when backfill molecular diffusion was $2 \cdot 10^{-9}$ m <sup>2</sup> /s.	232
Figure 5.38	Computed backfill osmotic suction at 1450 days when backfill molecular diffusion was $2 \cdot 10^{-10}$ m <sup>2</sup> /s.	233
Figure 5.39	Computed backfill osmotic suction at 1450 days when backfill molecular diffusion was $2 \cdot 10^{-9}$ m <sup>2</sup> /s.	233
Figure 5.40	Geometry solved in the two dimensions problems and location of the six psychrometers studied when host rock was considered in the calculations. Water pressure in the rock was prescribed to 0.4 MPa and water coming from the mat contained 6 g/L of salts. EDZ is the altered granite rock after the excavation of the gallery.	234
Figure 5.41	Comparison between the computed values of the total suction by means of the hydrochemical simulation and the measured total suction in 3 psychrometers in section A3. Backfill molecular diffusion used was $2 \cdot 10^{-9}$ m <sup>2</sup> /s. In this case, host rock was considered as shown in figure 5.40. It is clear that no important differences appear if rock is considered far from the boundaries.	234

Figure 5.42	Comparison between the computed values of the total suction by means of the hydrochemical simulation and the measured total suction in 3 psychrometers in section A4. Backfill molecular diffusion used was $2 \cdot 10^{-9}$ m <sup>2</sup> /s. In this case, host rock was	
	considered as shown in figure 5.28. It is clear that no important differences appear if	225
Figure 5.43	rock is considered or not far from the boundaries. Evolution of total flow rate of water collected at mat D4 when injected water pressure was reduced in this mat up to 0.1 MPa. A comparison of the results when both molecular diffusions were used is shown. The reduction of water pressure takes place after 4.07 years (1485 days) of the beginning of the saturation process. Water is	235
	collected at mat D4 after 4.2 years of the beginning of the saturation process.	235
Figure 5.44	Evolution of intrinsic permeability in a perpendicular line from mat D3 to D5 in sections A3 and A4 for both molecular diffusions. It is necessary to point out that the origin of time in this figure is the beginning of the saturation process.	236
Figure 5.45	Evolution of osmotic suction along section AB-BC when injected water pressure was reduced in this mat up to 0.1 MPa and water contained 12 g/L of salts.	237
Figure 5.46	Evolution of equivalent fraction of exchangeable NaX along section AB-BC when injected water pressure was reduced in this mat up to 0.1 MPa and water contained 12	238
Figure 5.47	g/L of salts. Evolution of equivalent fraction of exchangeable CaX <sub>2</sub> along section AB-BC when injected water pressure was reduced in this mat up to 0.1 MPa and water contained 12	
Eiguro 5 49	g/L of salts.	239
Figure 5.48	Evolution of concentration of ion sodium in pore fluid along section AB-BC when injected water pressure was reduced in this mat up to 0.1 MPa and water contained 12 g/L of salts.	240
Figure 5.49	Evolution of concentration of ion calcium in pore fluid along section AB-BC when injected water pressure was reduced in this mat up to 0.1 MPa and water contained 12 g/L of salts.	241
Figure 5.50	Evolution of concentration of ion chloride in pore fluid along section AB-BC when injected water pressure was reduced in this mat up to 0.1 MPa and water contained 12 g/L of salts.	242
Figure 5.51	Evolution of water pressure measured in different boreholes excavated in the actual position of section A3 in the ZEDEX gallery (Goudarzi et al. 2002).	243
Figure 5.52	Evolution of the measured water pressure at two different boreholes that were excavated from the ZEDEX gallery in section A3 (Goudarzi et al. 2002).	243
Figure 5.53	Evolution of total suction of two Wescor PST-55 psychrometers placed at the section A3 at the ZEDEX gallery (Goudarzi et al. 2002). Both psychrometers measured similar saturation evolution. When free water got in the devices, they might break	
Figure 5.54	down.  Evolution of total suction of two Wescor PST-55 psychrometers placed in the section	244
rigure 5.54	A3 at the ZEDEX gallery (Goudarzi et al. 2002). It can be observed that different evolution of the saturation process is being monitored.	244
Figure 5.55	Evolution of total suction of two Wescor PST-55 psychrometers placed at the section A3 at the ZEDEX gallery (Goudarzi et al. 2002) compared with the predicted results by the code. It can be observed that the model assumed is able to explain the evolution of psychrometer W10 where water comes from the mats, but it is not able	
	to predict the evolution observed in psychrometer W12.	245
Figure 5.56	Detail of the gallery closed to the ZEDEX gallery entrance. As water bearing	246
Figure 5.57	fractures are not present in the area of the picture, the formation seems to be "dry". Detail of the main gallery excavated by TBM at the third level (-450 m below the ground surface). Water flows through a fracture. Therefore, there is a part where	246
Figure 5.58	oxidation processes occur and other part where granite seems to be "intact". Wider view of the main tunnel excavated by TBM. It is also clear that there are water	247
Figure 5.59	bearing fractures and non-connected fractures.  Discontinuity between two horizontal layers in an embankment. The soil is a	248
	sedimentary silt and the compactor used was a vibratory soil compactor (Mata et al. 2002b).	248
Figure A.1	Simplified geometry of a simple packer system within a borehole. This is one of the most common geometries when performing flow tests in boreholes.	257

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1	Final disposition of all devices installed in section A4 at ZEDEX gallery (Gunnarsson et al. 2001 and AITEMIN, 1999).	13
Table 3.1	Details of the preparation of the specimens of different bentonite and sand mixtures. $S_s$ is the specific surface of the mixture, obtained as bentonite content by mass regarding specific surface of pure sodium bentonite. Therefore sand is assumed chemically inert. $w_f$ is the final density at a relative humidity of 47%.	38
Table 3.2	Mineralogical composition of MX-80 bentonite (Müller-Vonmoos & Kahr, 1983).	48
Table 3.3	Chemical composition of the MX-80 bentonite (after Van Olphen & Fripiat, 1979).	49
Table 3.4	Exchangeable cation in mEq/100g of MX-80 bentonite.	49
Table 3.5	Summary of the optimum water content and dry specific weight obtained after the	.,
	Proctor compaction tests with distilled and salt water.	51
Table 3.6	Saturated salt solutions used in the determination of wetting and drying paths in the backfill (Johannesson et al. 1998).	55
Table 3.7	Salts used in the determination of the main wetting path of the bentonite-sand mixture. ( <sup>1</sup> Suction and concentration for saturation available in Lide & Frederikse, 1997). <sup>2</sup> Suction and concentration available in Romero, 1999).	57
Table 3.8	Initial conditions of the six backfill tested specimens in oedometer tests.	58
Table 3.9	Swelling pressure measured for the six backfill specimens. NS means no swelling	20
	pressure was measured.	59
Table 3.10	Pre-consolidation pressure measured for the six backfill specimens.	60
Table 3.11	Estimated results by using the Casagrande's t <sub>50</sub> method for the six specimens at a	
	void ratio of 0.5. $e^{as}$ is the void ratio after saturation.	61
Table 3.12	Results of the chemical analysis performed in pore water collected from soil specimen numbers 1, 2 and 3. Clay Technology (1999) provided data of 6 g/L mixing water.	63
Table 3.13	Results of the performed chemical analysis on collected pore fluid from soil specimen numbers 1, 2 and 3. Clay Technology (1999) provided data of 6 g/L mixing water. $I = 0.5 \sum_{i} C_i z_i^2$ is the ionic strength in mol/L and $z_i$ is the charge of the ion.	03
	$C = \sum_{i} C_{i}$ is the total molar concentration of chemical species in the pore fluid.	63
Table 4.1	Results from six constant head tests performed in the cell at different hydraulic	
	gradients.	118
Table 4.2	Results from the constant head test performed when the cell had been thermally	
T 11 40	isolated.	119
Table 4.3	General data of the pulse tests carried out. t <sub>0</sub> is the time the system pressure needed to	120
Table 4.4	increase the water pressure inside the DPPS (or the injection time).	120
Table 4.4	Results obtained when pulse tests were analysed by means of the cylindrical equalization chart.	125
Table 4.5	Results obtained when pulse tests were analysed by means of the cylindrical	123
1 4010 4.3	equalization chart.	126
Table 4.6	Constitutive parameters used in the pulse test simulations by means of	120
14010 1.0	CODE BRIGHT.	128
Table 4.7	General data of the pulse tests carried out in section A4. $t_0$ is the time that the valve,	120
	which connects the system and the mini-piezometer, was open (the injection time). p <sub>0</sub>	
	and $p_m$ are relative water pressure.	134
Table 4.8	Parameters used in the direct calculations performed in order to analyse the pulse tests carried out in the ZEDEX gallery.	137
Table 5.1	Main variables and processes simulated by the implemented THMC formulation	
1 autc 3.1	(Guimarães, 2002).	196
Table 5.2	Chemical analysis of the injected hydration water in the BPTP (Clay Technology,	170
10010 5.2	1999).	197
Table 5.3	Scheme of the solved geochemical model during the simulation of backfill hydration.	197
Table 5.4	Backfill initial geochemical conditions used in the computations.	198

Table 5.5	Backfill parameters used in the two-dimensional simulations. Backfill parameters used in the 2D simulations were the same as those used in the simulation of the water uptake test with 16 g/L, excepting backfill mechanical dispersivity, due to its dependency on the geometry, and $k_0^*$ because of the reduction of average dry specific	
	weight at the backfill compacted in situ at the ZEDEX gallery.	205
Table 5.6	Materials properties used in the two-dimensional simulations when host rock was considered.	207