

# Measurement of tritium in the free water of milk: spotting and quantifying some biases and proposing ways of improvement

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1	MEASUREMENT OF TRITIUM IN THE FREE WATER OF MILK
2	SPOTTING AND QUANTIFYING SOME BIASES AND PROPOSING WAYS OF IMPROVEMENT
3	
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16	
17	Abstract
18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28	As one of the three natural isotopes of hydrogen, tritium is ubiquitous and might potentially be present in any water or organic molecule that constitutes a biological matrix. Milk is one of the most frequently monitored foodstuffs in the vicinity of chronic release of radionuclides, as it is a very common product and also because it integrates deposition on large areas of grass at a local scale. Different parameters have been studied to assess their impact on the reliability of tritium measurements. The volume of the sample, the technique used to extract the water and the level of dehydration modulate the results but in different ways: dispersion of results, under- or overestimation of the tritium activity. The influence of sample storage and preparation has also been investigated. Methodological improvements of tritium measurements in the free water of milk are proposed.
29	Key words
30	Tritium measurement
31	Free water

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Isotopic fractionation

33 Environment

- 35 Highlights
- 36 Biases in tritium assay are caused by the conditions in which the water is extracted
- 37 Isotopic fractionation does not fit with the Rayleigh formula when milk is distilled
- Recommendations are made to improve tritium activity measurement

#### Introduction

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Among the unstable isotopes released by the nuclear industry, the quantities of tritium 41 42 reaching the environment are usually small and generally fit easily with regulatory limits. As 43 tritium was massively released during the atmospheric nuclear tests between 1945 and 1980, it 44 has become widely dispersed in the environment and in food chains. Its quantity in the 45 atmosphere peaked in 1963 and has been decreasing ever since. It is now mainly localized in 46 the water of oceans (about 99 %) (Jacobs, 1968; Weaver et al., 1969)(UNSCEAR, 2008). Nevertheless, tritium, along with <sup>14</sup>C and noble gases remain the dominant radionuclides 47 48 released into the atmosphere by the nuclear industry. The main anthropic sources are weapon 49 facilities, nuclear power plants, reprocessing facilities, the production and use of labelled 50 compounds for medical use, research or even self-powered lighting products and research 51 facilities for nuclear fusion (Guétat et al., 2008; IRSN/DEI, 2010).

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- Being an isotope of hydrogen, tritium can be incorporated into almost all components of biological systems: water (HTO) or organic molecules (Diabaté and Strack, 1993) (so-called Organically Bound Tritium or OBT). When dealing with OBT, two categories of atomic bonds are generally distinguished:
  - binding to a nitrogen, oxygen or sulphur atom, i.e. labile bonds. It can easily be
    exchanged with labile hydrogen of other functional groups or molecules in its
    near vicinity, especially water; this fraction is called exchangeable Organically
    Bound Tritium (eOBT).
  - binding to a carbon atom. Such covalent bounds are stable and therefore hydrogen atoms (or isotopes) are incorporated in the metabolic cycle of each molecule with more or less complex and lengthy features. This latter type of

64	bound tritium is known as non-exchangeable Organically Bound Tritium				
65	(neOBT).				
66					
67	Exposure of individuals depends on the type of the tritiated molecule(s) incorporated as well				
68	as on its/their metabolism. When tritium originates from tritiated water release and is further				
69	integrated in the food chain by, for example, going through photosynthesis (see further detail				
70	in Boyer et al., 2009), some simplifications are considered to define a single "dose per unit				
71	1 intake factor" (ICRP 1989, 1997):				
72	- considering exchangeable/non exchangeable proportions to be equal,				
73	- considering an average biological half-life of 40 days for all non-exchangeable				
74	tritium of all organic molecules.				
75					
76	When using liquid scintillation counting, measurements of tritium specific activity on water				
77	allow the lowest decision threshold to be reached. Laboratories that measure tritium in				
78	environmental samples frequently use a same protocol:				
79	- extraction of the free water of the sample and measure (Free Water Tritium),				
80	then				
81	- on the one hand: oxidisation of the dry fraction resulting in the production of				
82	combustion water, then measurement of total organic tritium (i.e. the sum of				
83	eOBT and neOBT),				
84	- on the other hand: isotopic exchange of hydrogen isotopes by washing the dry				
85	fraction with tritiated water, thus a second extraction of water to measure (if				
86	possible) eOBT and oxidisation of the "washed" and dried fraction to measure				
87	the neOBT as combustion water.				
88					

Frequently, eOBT is not measured but deduced from the following simple relation:

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$$eOBT = OBT - neOBT$$
 (1)

Every isotope or inaccuracy effect in every step of the procedure may induce errors in the measurement of the specific activity of extracted free water and of OBT (Baumgärtner and Kim, 1990; Kim and Baumgärtner, 1991).

Usually, water is extracted from fresh samples or after isotopic rinsing by at least one of the following four techniques:

- filtration: it allows quick and easy recovery of the main part of the dry matter, except soluble molecules which are in the filtrate. The bias induced depends on the filtration technique (i.e. characteristics of the filter) and on the nature of the sample. Retentate and distillate both need further treatment prior to measurement.

distillation: it is performed under atmospheric pressure or under reduced pressure, it allows the recovery of almost pure water. Under reduced pressure, it is possible to completely distil at lower temperature (which induces less degradation of organic samples), to prevent the risk of contamination of extracted water by pyrolitic products (Wood et al., 1993) and to limit the isotopic effect during evaporation.

azeotropic distillation extracts water at lower temperatures than distillation. As it uses organic compounds, it is more difficult to perform and it can additionally induce contamination of the dry matter by hydrocarbons.

- Freeze drying: i.e. extraction of water via sublimation; it has the same advantages as distillation under reduced pressure. The size of the apparatus, the temperature of the cold trap (usually > -20°C) and the time required to completely extract the water may induce biases by condensing atmospheric vapour before starting or during the process.

Repetition of measurements performed in our laboratory on the free water of a given tritiated milk obtained by distillation under reduced pressure or by freeze-drying, have shown certain systematic errors and dispersion of the values beyond the basic uncertainties of the measurements. The reasons underlying these differences have been sought and improvements of the reliability of tritium measurements are proposed.

Four possible hypothetical origins of the observed differences in measured specific activities were identified:

- the influence of sample storage: as ambient levels of tritium at the Valduc Centre of the French Atomic Agency can be higher than those of the environment where the samples were collected, they may become significantly more tritiated during their storage.
- the influence of the technique of water extraction: the usual techniques of dehydration differ from each other by their conditions of pressure, temperature and the apparatus used. These different factors may lead to biases in the measurement.
- the influence of the mass of sample: as each water removal technique has a specific dead volume and a specific geometry, the global yield of dehydration

138	can be influenced and thus be the origin of a bias in the measurement of specific
139	activity.
140	- the influence of the final degree of dehydration: if isotopic fractionation occurs
141	during water removal, the final level of dehydration will influence the specific
142	activity measured.
143	
144 145	1 Materials and Methods
146	Water was extracted from nineteen aliquots of the same milk sample (collected in the vicinity
147	of the Valduc Centre of the French Atomic Agency) using three different dehydration
148	techniques. The experiments were completed with twenty-one measurements performed on
149	milks collected for our routine activity. Each time, weights of fresh milk, of dry matter and of
150	collected water were noted.
151	
152 153	1.1 Analytical method
154	Specific tritium activities were measured by liquid scintillation counting (PerkinElmer Tri-
155	Carb 2910 TR) with an overall precision (2 $\sigma$ ) of $\pm$ 17 %. The scintillator used was Ultimagold
156	LLT (Packard). Quenching effects of the measuring system were carefully examined and the
157	results measured corrected accordingly.
158	
159 160	1.2 Storage of samples
161	The commercially available source water Volvic is considered to have very low levels of
162	tritium. It is commonly used in laboratories as a blank. In order to check if storage of samples

163	in Valduc induced biases in the measurement of the specific activity, samples of Volvic water			
164	were stored in different conditions and their specific activity was been measured after 6 h, 16			
165	h, 24 h, 48 h, 96 h, 1 week, 2 weeks, 3 weeks or 30 days of storage.			
166				
167	Modifications in the	e conditions of storage were performed to test the influence of the		
168	temperature and the type of bottle in which the samples were stored.			
169				
170	Four sets of nine samples of 50 mL of Volvic water were stored in 150 mL polyethylene			
171	bottles at -25°C, 3°C, 20°C and 40°C.			
172				
173	Five other sets of ni	ne samples of Volvic were stored in different kind of bottles:		
174	-	50 mL of Volvic water in 150 mL high density polyethylene (HDPE)		
175		bottles,		
176	-	150 mL of Volvic water in the same kind of bottles,		
177	-	50 mL of Volvic water in the same bottles placed in double welded		
178		vinyl bags,		
179	-	20 mL of Volvic water in 20 mL glass bottles,		
180	-	20 mL of Volvic water in 20 mL HDPE bottles (usually used for		
181		scintillation counting)		
182				
183	1 L of Volvic water	was also stored in an open 1.5 L bottle. 10 mL were sampled after 6 h, 16		
184	h, 24 h, 48 h, 96 h, 1 week and 2 weeks of storage. This experiment was shorter than the			
185	others since there was no water left in the bottle after the seventh sampling (due to			
186	evaporation and aliquot removal).			

The results presented below are the means of four repetitions.

# 1.3 Techniques of water removal

### 1.3.1 Comparison of common techniques

- Three commonly used techniques of dehydration were compared pairwise:
- distillation under reduced pressure using a distillation bridge with a Liebig condenser
- distillation under reduced pressure with a rotating evaporator (Buchi Rotavapor R200 or Buchi Rotavapor RE 121 equiped with Buchi 471 Oil bath)
  - freeze drying using a Heto Drywinner PL3000.

Equal quantities of samples were used in each group of paired samples. In the first technique, the sample was introduced in a 1 L Erlenmeyer flask in a water bath at 55°C. The flask was fitted with a splash head (to prevent or limit the sample from spurting in the apparatus during distillation). The distillate was collected from a Liebig condenser containing a flow of 3°C thermostated water. Its dead volume was  $0.69 \text{ mL} \pm 0.25 \text{ mL}$ . The distillation bridge was connected to a Vacuubrand ME 2C pump working at full capacity. The condensate was recovered in an Erlenmeyer also at in a water bath at 3°C. At the end of dehydration, the first water bath was heated to 70 °C.

Distillation under reduced pressure was also conducted using rotating evaporator. This technique differs from the previous one by the apparatus used. One of the major differences between them is the geometry of the condenser: a rotating evaporator is equipped with a diagonal spiral condenser which has a dead volume of about 7 mL. Samples are introduced in a 1 L flask which is then connected to a rotating evaporator (Buchi Rotavapor R200 or Buchi

213 Rotavapor RE 121 equiped with Buchi 471 Oil bath) connected to a pump (Vacuubrand ME 2C) which is also used at its full capacity. Condensed vapours are recovered in a flat-215 bottomed flask. As with the previous technique, the water bath was thermostated first at 55°C 216 and then at 70°C. The water flowing in the condenser was thermostated at 3°C.

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Freeze drying was performed with a modified Heto Drywinner PL 3000. Samples were introduced in acrylic pots connected to a manifold which is connected to a glass insert. The insert was placed in the cold trap of the Heto Drywinner PL 3000 (temperature: - 55 °C) to allow the required decontamination of the cold trap between samples thus avoiding "memory effects". The manifold was also connected to the pump (Adixen Pascal 1005) used for general vacuum applications. Pressure in the system was < 0.5 hPa. After complete dehydration of the samples, the glass insert was removed from the system and immediately sealed to avoid contamination of the extracted water with atmospheric moisture until the ice has completely thawed.

Dehydration techniques were compared by pairwise to improve the power of the statistic tests (9 repetitions to compare freeze drying and rotating evaporator and 8 for freeze drying vs.

distillation bridge and 8 for rotating evaporator vs. distillation bridge).

# 1.3.2 Test of the reliability of freeze drying and distillation

- The specific activity of tritiated pure water (type 3 produced by RiOs 3 Water Purification
- 232 System (Merck Millipore)) were measured in three cases:
- without other treatment,
- after being distilled under reduced pressure using a distillation bridge (as described above),
- 236 after being freeze-dried (in the conditions described above). For each case, 3 aliquots of 49.9 g  $\pm$  0.1 g were prepared.

## 1.3.3 Influence of ambient atmosphere on freeze drying

To detect possible external contamination, two kinds of experiments were performed:

Measurement of the specific activity of water extracted by freeze drying in two different ambient atmospheres: one in the Valduc Centre (in the conditions described above) and one in Besançon (25-France) where the specific activity of the atmosphere in HTO is below the decision threshold. The milk was separated into 7 samples of 51.23 g  $\pm$  0.45 g. They were frozen in Valduc in plastic bottles inserted in double welded vinyl bags. Three were freezedried in Valduc, three in Besançon and one was distilled using a distillation bridge in the Valduc Centre in the conditions described above. Freeze drying at Besançon was performed in a Cosmos 20k (Cryotec). Vaccum was generated by a pump (Adixen Pascal 2005-Ci) working at full capacity. After the end of freeze drying, the water was recovered by heating the condenser. The specific activity of each recovered water sample was measured in the Valduc Centre and compared.

Empty freeze drying: Drywinner Heto PL 3000 was used empty three times for 5-7 days at Valduc Centre. A commercial bubbling system (MARC 7000-SDEC France) was used to monitor the atmospheric tritium levels during the third repetition. After the end of freeze drying, the mass of the cold trap was measured and compared to its mass when empty. Then, 10 mL of non-tritiated water was inserted into the cold trap to recover possible traces of water trapped during freeze drying. The specific activity of the water in the cold trap was measured, taking into account the dilution and compared to the specific activity of the water in the pots of the bubbling system.

# 1.4 Sample mass

To test the influence of the quantity of the sample on the reliability of measures, 6 masses were considered (about 15, 30, 60, 120, 240 and 480 g) and samples were treated by two of the three previously presented methods: distillation under reduced pressure using a distillation bridge or a rotating evaporator. Most of the sets were composed of two samples prepared with the distillation bridge and one with the rotating evaporator. The central point at 30-38 g was composed of three more samples treated with the rotating evaporator. The highest mass was only composed of one measurement since in other repetitions milk spurted throughout the apparatus until there was none left.

# 1.5 State of dehydration

The weight of fresh milk before treatment, and of dry matter and water after dehydration on the other hand, provide correlation between the mass of water extracted from milk and the specific activity measured.

"Sequential distillations" of milk were performed. The apparatus used in these experiments is illustrated in **Fig. 1**. A sample of about 300 mL was introduced in a 1 L Erlenmeyer flask in a 55°C bath. The flask was connected to a splash head to prevent or limit the sample from spurting into the apparatus during distillation. When the system is under reduced pressure, vapours flow to a condenser at 3°C and connected to a Vacuubrand ME 2C pump working at full capacity. The condensed vapour then falls into a dropping funnel. Each 10-30 mL (23 mL on average), it is opened to let the water flow into a 50 mL Erlenmeyer. Once the dropping funnel is empty, it is closed to collect the next aliquot and the water is collected from the 50 mL Erlenmeyer and weighed. The experiment is pursued until the sample is completely dry.

288	When possible, the dry matter of the sample is freeze-dried to collect any water which could		
289	remain. The specific activity of each aliquot is measured.		
290			
291	Fig. 1: Apparatus used for "sequential distillations"		
292			
293	Sequential distillations were carried out on four different milks collected for our routine		
294	measurements		

# 2 Results and discussion

2.1	Influence	of	samples	storage
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Only one set of samples showed any significant change in its specific activity during storage: the Volvic water stored in an open bottle (**Fig. 2**). The specific activity of the water increased until it reached equilibrium with the atmospheric water vapour ( $178.5 \pm 133.0 \text{ Bq L}^{-1}$ ) after two weeks.

Fig. 2: Specific activity of Volvic water stored in an open bottle versus duration of storage. The first point having a specific activity under the limit of detection was plotted as having a specific activity of 0 Bq L<sup>-1</sup>.

All the other results of the experiments remained below the decision threshold (2.8 Bq L<sup>-1</sup>) during storage.

This proves that storage in well closed plastic or glass bottles is able to prevent the marking of the samples from the laboratory environment even in the case of the relatively tritiated atmosphere of a nuclear centre. Nevertheless, to avoid any cross contamination, we decided to store samples at -20°C (to preserve organic matter during storage) and in double packaging (bottle + sealed vinyl pocket or double sealed vinyl pocket) to avoid any unintentional marking.

317	2.2 Influence of the technique of dehydration
318 319	<ul><li>2.2.1 Comparison of three common techniques</li><li>The specific activity of water extracted from milks using the three techniques previously</li></ul>
320	described was measured (mean: 60.4 g). The three techniques were not performed on each of
321	the collected milk samples. Fig. 3 shows how the results are distributed.
322	
323	Fig. 3: Comparison of the distributions of measured specific activities of water extracted using the three
324	different methods described in this study. Central boxes represent the values from the lower to upper quartile.
325	Middle lines represent the median. Vertical lines extend from the minimum to the maximum value of each
326	population, which are represented by horizontal lines at their extremity. The specific activity of the water
327	extracted by freeze drying is significantly higher than the specific activity of the water extracted by each of the
328	two distillation methods tested (Wilcoxon test, $p < 0.01$ ). Differences between the two techniques of distillation
329	were not significant.
330	
331	On the one hand, both methods of distillation (distillation bridge and rotating evaporator)
332	gave similar median concentrations but the rotating evaporator technique showed a standard
333	deviation 22 % higher than the distillation bridge. On the other hand, the measured specific
334	activities of water extracted by freeze drying were 40% higher when compared to the results
335	obtained with a rotating evaporator.
336	Three experiments were performed to explain these results.
337	
338 339	<ul><li>2.2.2 Reliability of distillation and freeze drying</li><li>The specific activity of pure water was measured with or without a complementary treatment</li></ul>
340	(i.e. distillation or freeze drying) performed in the Valduc Centre. The results of this
341	experiment are presented in <b>Fig. 4</b> .

342 343 Fig. 4: Comparison of specific activities measured on water with and without treatment (distillation or freeze 344 drying) 345 346 Distillation had no significant incidence on the measured specific activity of extracted water 347 (+ 2.9 %) whereas freeze drying led to a clear increase (+ 42.9 %). 2.2.3 Influence of ambient atmosphere on freeze drying 348 First, to test the effect of ambient air during freeze drying, two sets of three 50 g-aliquots of 349 350 the same milk sample were freeze-dried, one set in Besancon and one in the Valduc Centre. 351 Freeze drying in both the Valduc Centre and Besançon led to almost complete extraction of 352 the water, i.e. 88% of the weight of the total sample without any significant difference 353 between samples (standard deviation: 0.09 %). Nevertheless, the comparison of the specific 354 activities of the two sets of samples did show significant differences (see Fig. 5). 355 356 Fig. 5: Specific activities of water extracted from milk by means of freeze drying performed in Besançon and in 357 the Valduc Centre. 358 359 This difference can only be explained by a (de)marking of the extracted water by the 360 condensation of atmospheric water vapour. This phenomenon can occur during freeze drying 361 by leaks in the apparatus, or before freeze drying by condensation of atmospheric water on the 362 frozen sample or even after freeze drying when the vacuum is broken to recover the 363 condensed water. Note that the observed deviation after freeze drying in Besançon is high regarding the little difference of specific activities between atmospheric water (< 5.8 Bq L<sup>-1</sup>) 364 365 and free water of milk (about 20 Bq L<sup>-1</sup>). 366 367 The apparatus used in the Valduc Centre avoided the risk of exchange during melting of 368 frozen condensate but this was not the case in Besançon. This can explain why the impact of 369

condensed atmospheric vapour was so significant in Besançon whereas the differences in

specific activities remained small. In laboratories specifically equipped for measurement of tritium (for example with a small cold trap which can be isolated from the atmosphere while the condensed water is recovered), the biases would be, at worst, in the measurement uncertainty interval.

Secondly, empty freeze dryings were run in the Valduc Centre. They showed recovery of water with a significant specific activity. The results are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Mass and specific activity of water recovered after empty freeze dryings performed in the Valduc Centre

Centre		
Duration of freeze drying		Specific activity of the
(h)	Mass of recovered water (g)	recovered water (Bq L-1)
168	0.4	200
168	0.0	No measurement
146	0.8	257

The results of the first and third freeze dryings fit well with the results presented in **Fig. 4**. For example, 0.8 mL of "parasite" water with a specific activity of 257 Bq L<sup>-1</sup> can explain an overestimation of the specific activity of about  $+ 4 \text{ Bq L}^{-1}$  in a sample of 47.5 mL in which the specific activity is about 23 Bq L<sup>-1</sup>.

Nevertheless, the mass of water collected during freeze drying appears variable, as does its specific activity. This indicates that an intermittent mechanism (most probably depending on atmospheric conditions) leads to the pollution phenomenon.

In the third repetition, the specific activity of the recovered water was about 257 Bg L<sup>-1</sup> where 390 391 the specific activity of atmospheric vapour measured by bubbling during freeze drying was only 90.8 Bq L<sup>-1</sup>. This means in our opinion that, in addition to a possible leak in the 392 apparatus (before the cold trap), four other ways of contamination might be suspected: 393 394 as the sample is frozen before freeze drying, atmospheric water is able 395 to condense at its surface in the time lapse between storage and 396 introduction into the freeze drying system; 397 the water vapour in the air present in the freeze drying system (about 6 398 L in the case of the Heto Drywinner PL 3000) is prone to condense 399 starting from the moment when the cold trap is at its set-point 400 temperature to the instant when vacuum is established in the system; 401 the water vapour in air that fills the freeze drying system when the 402 vacuum is broken at the end of freeze drying can also condense in the 403 cold trap; 404 some exchanges may occur from the atmosphere to the condensed water 405 while the water melts in the cold trap for recovery. 406 407 It appears that during the different steps of a freeze drying process, some atmospheric water 408 can be condensed or exchange and therefore be mixed to the extracted free water of the 409 samples. The efficiency measured in water recovery is of the order of 97 %. The mass of 410 external water cannot be identified in the different tests because it surely compensates sample

water which is lost at the same time. This phenomenon was fortunately discovered due to the

marking of extracted water during freeze drying may occur in other laboratories with very low

ambiance in the Valduc Centre that is sufficiently tritiated to be measured. Nevertheless,

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tritiated atmosphere. In that case, the water extracted would be "demarked" with non-tritiated 414 415 water, even if it is within the uncertainty interval of measure. 416 417 One way to limit the deviation due to this pollution of the extracted water would be to freeze 418 dry larger samples to dilute the effect in the water extracted from the sample or to operate 419 freeze drying in a dry atmosphere. 420 2.3 Influence of the mass of sample in distillation techniques 421 422 423 The free water of nineteen aliquots from the same milk sample was extracted by distillation 424 using a rotating evaporator or a distillation bridge. The results of this series of experiments are 425 presented in Fig. 6. As expected, the nineteen specific activities measured are well described 426 by a Gaussian distribution. Uncertainties ranged from 14 % for higher specific activities to 427 17 % for lower specific activities. 428 429 Fig. 6: Specific activity of extracted water as a function of the mass of treated samples and normality of the distribution of density of measured specific activities 430 431 432 Small samples (< 60 g) and large samples ( $\ge 60 \text{ g}$ ) present almost the same average value, 433 respectively 22.3 Bg L<sup>-1</sup> and 22.8 Bg L<sup>-1</sup>, but different standard deviations: 2.17 Bg L<sup>-1</sup> and 0.88 Bq L<sup>-1</sup>. The variation of these average values may be explained by differences in the 434 435 proportions of water extracted in each case (respectively 84.4% vs. 85.9 %). 436 437 Treating very large samples (> 100 g) is not easy: experimentally we observe that the milk is 438 boiling and spurting very rapidly after the beginning of each repetition. This phenomenon is 439 prone to contaminate both extracted and condensed water. Treating small samples allowed the

440 use of larger vessels compared to the sample volume: a difference of a factor of 5 between the 441 volumes of the Erlenmeyer flask and the sample is sufficient to limit spurting. 442 Each distillation technique also showed its own limitations with regard to the mass of the 443 samples treated. 444 445 Fig. 7: Proportion of water extracted (in % of weight of total sample) versus mass of sample treated. The mean 446 proportion of free water obtained was evaluated by measuring the dry mass of each sample remaining after 5 h in 447 a forced-air oven at 102°C. 448 449 While the rotating evaporator efficiently dehydrates only samples between 100 g and 400 g, 450 the distillation bridge is efficient for a larger range of sample volumes (only one dehydration 451 was not complete as it was interrupted to soon) (Fig. 7). 452 453 In these experiments, distillations of 60-100 g milk samples under reduced pressure using a 454 distillation bridge gave the best results with a limited dispersion of the measured specific 455 activities. 2.4 Influence of the state of dehydration 456 457 458 The specific activities measured were viewed with respect to the state in which each 459 experiment was ended. The results are presented in Fig. 8. The specific activity appears to 460 increase slightly with the degree of dehydration but neither Spearman's nor Student's 461 correlation tests revealed a correlation between the two parameters. 462 463 Fig. 8: Specific activity of extracted water versus the degree of dehydration 464 The line shows the same relationship modelled by relation (10) with p = 0.04,  $\alpha = 1.14$ , and  $\beta = 11.7$ .

Further experiments were then carried out with sequential distillations performed on different milks. The results are shown in Fig. 9 and Fig. 10. To facilitate comparison of the results, specific activities are expressed as relative activities (1 corresponds to the mean specific activity at the end of each sequential distillation) and levels of water extraction are expressed as a % of the total mass of sample at the end of each distillation. In Fig. 9 the specific activity of each aliquot seems to follow a two-component function.

Fig. 9: Specific activity of aliquots of extracted water versus the proportion of water extracted

The line plots the variation modelled with equation (11) with p = 0.04,  $\alpha = 1.14$ , and  $\beta = 11.7$ . Each type of label represents a set of repetition. Four repetitions were performed on one sample of milk (squares), two on a second sample (triangles) and lozenges represent a set performed on a third sample. Mean specific activity of extracted water = 1.

Fig. 10: Mean specific activity versus proportion of water extracted. The solid line was computed using relation (10) with p = 0.04,  $\alpha = 1.14$ , and  $\beta = 11.7$ . Each type of label represents a repetition set. Four repetitions were performed on one sample of milk (squares), two on a second (triangles) and lozenges represent a set performed on a third. Mean specific activity of extracted water = 1

Isotopic fractionation during distillation is generally described by means of the Rayleigh equation that was first derived for fractional distillation of mixed liquids (Rayleigh and Strutt, 1902).

 $\frac{1}{487}$ 

488 where:

 $n_0$ : is the initial number of all moles of all species in the sample  $n_0$ : is the number of all moles of all species in the residual sample  $n_0$ : is the initial mole fraction of HTO in the sample

492 X: is the mole fraction of HTO in the residual sample

α: is the vapour-liquid fractionation factor

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495 Kim and Baumgärtner (1997) reported that tritium enrichment on distillation of pure

496 HTO/H<sub>2</sub>O can be calculated using the Rayleigh formula taken under the following form (3):

$$497 \qquad 4V_r = 4V_o \left(\frac{V_o}{V_r}\right)^{\frac{1}{c}} \tag{3}$$

498 Where:

499  $A_r$ : is the specific activity of residual water

 $A_0$ : is the initial specific activity of the water sample

 $V_r$ : is the volume of residual water

 $V_0$ : is the initial volume of water in the sample

503 α: is the vapour-liquid fractionation factor

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Under equilibrium vaporization conditions, α may be equivalent to the vapour pressure isotope effect (VPIE) that can be calculated theoretically (Van Hook, 1968) or determined experimentally (Baumgärtner and Kim, 1990) under given approximations. The VPIE corresponds to the definition provided in (4) and is considered equivalent to the separation factor ignoring the corrections accounting for both a non-ideal liquid and gas phases (Jancso and Van Hook, 1974; Kakiuchi, 2000):

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$$VPIE = \frac{P_{H_2O}}{P_{HTO}} \approx \alpha = \frac{(X_T / X_H)_L}{(X_T / X_H)_V}$$
(4)

 $P_{\rm H2O}$  and  $P_{\rm HTO}$  are the vapour pressures of pure water and pure tritiated water, respectively,

X<sub>T</sub> and X<sub>H</sub> stand respectively for the molar fractions of HTO and water, in the liquid (L) and

vapour (V) phase.

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In order to fit with our experiments, residual volume  $(V_r)$  and specific activity  $(A_r)$  were

replaced in (3) by extracted volume (V<sub>e</sub>) and specific activity (A<sub>e</sub>) using relations (5) and (6).

520 Equation (7) is thus obtained:

$$V_e = V_0 - V_r \tag{5}$$

$$V_{a}A_{c} = A_{0}V_{0} - A_{r}V_{r} \tag{6}$$

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524 By considering (3):

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$$V_{e}A_{e} = A_{0}V_{0} \left(1 - \left(\frac{V_{0}}{(V_{0} - V_{e})}\right)^{\frac{-1}{\alpha}}\right)$$
 (7)

Lastly, each aliquot sampled during the distillation has a specific activity  $(A_{(1-2)})$  which is the

mean value of (7) between  $V_1$  and  $V_2$ , respectively the volume of water extracted at the

beginning and at the end of the extraction of the given aliquot (8):

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Equation (8) fits experimental data provided by distillation of pure HTO/H<sub>2</sub>O (Fig. 11). In these experiments,  $\alpha$  was evaluated at 1.14 which is 6.7 % higher than expected in our experimental conditions (Baumgärtner and Kim, 1990). This difference may be explained by the specificities of the apparatus used which seem to increase the height by the equivalent of a theoretical plate (HETP) and thus  $\alpha \Box$  (Fukada, 2004) $\Box$ 

**Fig. 11 :** Extraction of HTO during distillation of pure  $HTO/H_2O$  versus proportion of free water extracted Lines are calculated by equations (7) and (9). Triangles and circles correspond to experimental values. Mean specific activity of extracted water = 1

Conversely, with samples of milk, at percentages of free water extracted higher than ~ 95 %, (7) and (8) generally fail at modelling the observed experimental behaviour of the relative activity of extracted water, due to the drastic increase in relative activity measured at the end of the water extraction process (Fig. 9). When most of the water is extracted from the milk, the remaining part of the sample in the boiler is likely to behave as a non-ideal solution. It is thus necessary to introduce a correction in (7) and thus in (8). Such a correction may be obtained in two main ways: a complete theoretical description of the sources of non-ideality or a blind parameterization of the observed effect. As for the theoretical description, in its simplest form a model may at least take account of two kinds of water, cosphere (hydration) water in the immediate neighbourhood of solute particles or molecules and bulk water which retains the properties of the pure solvent (Jancso and Van Hook, 1974). In this part of the study, we will try to parameterize the observed effect and confine our work to the consequences of this behaviour on the metrology of tritium specific activity.

To take account of the drastic increase observed at the end of the water extraction, equation (7) is parameterized by introducing two dimensionless free parameters p and  $\beta$  in the following manner:



The specific activity of an aliquot is thus given by (10):



The experimental data presented in Fig. 9 can be modelled using relation (10). The best values for p,  $\alpha$ , and  $\beta$  (which are respectively 0.04, 1.14, 11.7) were estimated by a function in the R software (R Core Team, 2012) which carries out minimization of a function (f) using a Newton-type algorithm. In R software, this function is called nlm. Each first aliquot of the different repetitions has a variable specific activity as compared to the mean final specific activity of the set. This is most probably an artefact linked to the experimental conditions. It is noticeable in Fig. 10 that this value has a perceptible impact on the mean specific activity of, say the 4-5 first aliquots. Using the model based on relation (9) we learn that even with a (hypothetically) perfect dehydration apparatus, if the dehydration is interrupted when 10% of water remains (a situation that may happen if the temperature is too low, the pressure too high or the dehydration simply is uncompleted); the measured specific activity of the extracted water should thus be underestimated by about 9 %.

# 2.5 The dead volume, an example of a combination of sources of biases

In light samples (ranging from 15 g to 60 g), the measured specific activities of water extracted with a rotating evaporator were systematically lower than those obtained with a distillation bridge. Additional experiments were performed to explain this particular point. The rotating evaporator condenser indeed has a dead volume estimated to be 7.0 mL  $\pm$  1.2 mL. In other words, 7 mL must reach the condenser before the first drop of distillate is observed and 7 mL remain in the condenser at the end of distillation. A model of the time-course of the specific activities in the condenser and in the distillate during distillation based on an isotopic fractionation was set up.

Let us now consider the following assumptions as axiomatic:

- as described above isotopic fractionation exists,

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- in the condenser of the rotating evaporator, equilibrium between vapour and condensed phase is instantaneous,
  - each mass of vapour that flows up from the boiler to the condenser gets rid of the same mass of condensed vapour to the distillate.

Now, introducing the subscript "cond." to denote the activity (or the mass) in the condenser; from the beginning of the distillation to the extraction of a mass of water equal to the mass of water in the dead volume, we have:

$$A_{conit} = A_{exi} \tag{11}$$

As soon as the dead volume of the condenser is filled:

$$602 (12)$$

We consider that no water flows into the distillate until the dead volume of the condenser is full and introduce the subscript "dist." to denote a specific activity of the distillate, thus:

$$607 \qquad (13)$$

This model was tested on the different data sets of our results as well as with an experiment where the condenser was first saturated with untritiated water before distilling tritiated water.

All sets of results are well-fitted by the present model. It shows how the measured specific

activity (measured in the distillate) is modified by the loss of water in the dead volume (Fig. 12) for a known dead volume (7 mL in this example).

**Fig. 12**: Modelled evolution of specific activity of water in different compartments during the distillation of a 20 g sample of milk (Mean specific activity of extracted water = 1).

This influence depends on the mass of the sample and on its specific activity (Fig. 13). For samples of milk lower than 10 g, the bias is less than 3 %. Actually, as there is only 8.7 g of water in 10 g of milk and the dead volume of the condenser being estimated to 7 mL (7 g), the few drops that flow out from the condenser has a specific activity that is fully representative of water extracted from the sample. For samples with  $15 \text{ g} \leq M \leq 75 \text{ g}$ , the underestimation of the specific activity is about - 6 %. The latter is in good agreement with the results presented in Fig. 8 which represents how specific activities of different samples are distributed as a function of their final rate of dehydration. Lastly, using samples larger than 200 g is a necessary condition to obtain a deviation that remains below 3 % when using a rotating evaporator.

**Fig. 13:** Bias due to the rotating evaporator versus mass of sample. The model described above was tested with different masses of sample (from 7 g to 10 000 g) to determine how the modelled bias induced by the dead volume of the condenser

# 3 Conclusion

In this study we show that each methodological aspect tested (water removal technique, mass of sample and final state of dehydration) is able to induce a bias in the specific activity measured in the extracted water. In most environmental monitoring situations, these biases

remain close to the uncertainty of measurement when liquid scintillation is used in the usual conditions (i.e. about 15% when measuring a sample of 10 mL with an activity of 20 Bg.L<sup>-1</sup> water mixed with 10 mL of UltimaGold LLT (Pointurier et al., 2003) for 200 minutes). Nevertheless, some of these biases can produce systematic underestimations of the actual specific activity. First, it was shown that in the conditions of this study the water extracted by freeze drying had a specific activity significantly higher than the water extracted using a distillation technique based on the same milk sample. This is explained by a pollution of the extracted water by atmospheric water before, after or during the freeze drying process. This particular behaviour became apparent due to the fact that atmospheric water in the Valduc centre is has slightly elevated ambient levels of tritium. Caution must thus be taken to avoid marking during freeze drying, especially when the specific activity of the sample is not of the same order of magnitude as the specific activity of the atmospheric vapour. An easy and economic way to prevent this phenomenon would be to freeze dry larger samples (at least 100 g) which would dilute the effect of atmospheric water condensation. A more suitable way nevertheless would be to operate freeze drying in a dry atmosphere and to break the vacuum with dry gas.

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When dehydration is performed by distillation under reduced pressure, the dead volumes of the devices (especially those of the condenser) have to be limited as they can induce a bias in the estimation of the mass of extracted water as well as and in the measurement of specific activities. It appears that using a distillation bridge suits a wider range of samples masses than a rotating evaporator, the latter should be preferred for large samples (> 300 mL).

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Lastly, in this study a fractionation effect during dehydration proved to be more significant than expected. This shows the necessity to perform dehydration until there is no water left in

the sample. When a fraction of water cannot be extracted without taking the risk of damaging the dry matter, the residual fraction of water should be estimated and the specific activity measured corrected using formula (9) proposed in this work.

The effects of the different sources of biases must be summed. For instance, if a distillation using a rotating evaporator (dead volume of 7 mL) of a sample of 20 mL of milk is interrupted when 10 % of water remains in the matrix, the measured specific activity would be about 91 % of the real specific activity and the standard deviation of this result would be 11 % additionally increase by the uncertainty of measure (about 15 % in usual conditions). Overall, this would lead to a global underestimation of about 10 % and an uncertainty of  $\pm$  26 %.

In the literature, VPIE has been shown to decrease while temperature increases without differences being measured between vaporization and sublimation (Baumgärtner and Kim, 1990). It has also been shown that a link exists between isotopic fractionation during extraction of water and a three-layer model for bound water (Kim and Baumgärtner, 1997) (described by Drost-Hansen). The results gathered herein using milk samples show fractionation behaviour which can be described by a two-component formula, each component being based on specific Rayleigh distillation processes. These results bring to mind the features of two fractions of water that coexist in milk: the first one (96%) that acts as pure water (free water) and the second (4%) which presents an isotopic separation factor  $\beta$  equal to 11.7 much higher than that of pure water;  $\alpha = 1.14$ . The fraction described here by the isotope separation factor  $\beta$  may be bound water.

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