

Generation IV Nuclear Reactors: Safety and Efficiency

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Abstract

The fourth generation of nuclear reactors represent a series of six novel reactor designs. These consist of supercritical water reactors, very high temperature reactors, sodium-cooled fast reactors, lead-cooled fast reactors, gas-cooled fast reactors and molten salt reactors. The critical aspects of safety and efficiency of new and historical designs are analysed. The most important concepts required to understand these technologies are also introduced. Through literature review it is found that generation IV nuclear reactors are more safe and efficient than historical and current designs. Additionally they are found to be significantly more sustainable than older reactors. However, more investigation is needed to assess their complete environmental impact and usefulness in combating climate change.

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1. Introduction

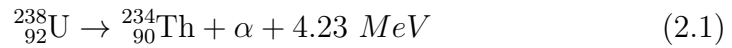
Nuclear power reactors represent a flexible method of energy generation. However, the designs currently in use have fallen behind what can be expected of modern power plants in terms of efficiency and safety. There are fundamentally new reactor designs, which represent a great leap in technological advancement and are grouped into the Generation IV of nuclear reactors. These designs have been developed with efficiency, safety and sustainability in mind. To understand these developments and designs, we will first give a short introduction into the basic concepts and technologies involved in nuclear fission reactors. Then, we will examine the technological developments of nuclear reactors over past generations and give an overview on the reactor designs, which are currently in use. Furthermore, we are going to analyse the fourth generation of nuclear reactors based on the aspects of safety and efficiency. Lastly, we will take a short digression into the relation of climate change and nuclear power.

2. Basic Concepts of Nuclear Power

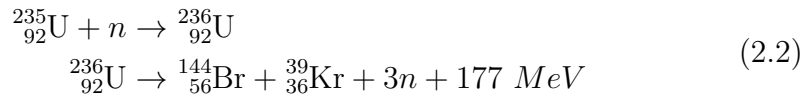
Nuclear power reactors harness the heat generated by splitting atoms of certain elements in a controlled and predictable way. This heat is used to generate electrical power¹.

2.1. Fission

Nuclear fission is the spontaneous or induced reaction, by which an atom is broken up. In the case of nuclear power reactors, these reactions are exothermic. Nuclear radiation such as in equation 2.1 already liberates a large amount of energy.



This power is increased in nuclear reactors by orders of magnitude. Although the effective lifespan is lowered from $4.468 \cdot 10^9$ years to a few months. Therefore, fission is the main reaction through which nuclear reactors generate the majority of their power output. An example of such a reaction is given in equation 2.2.²

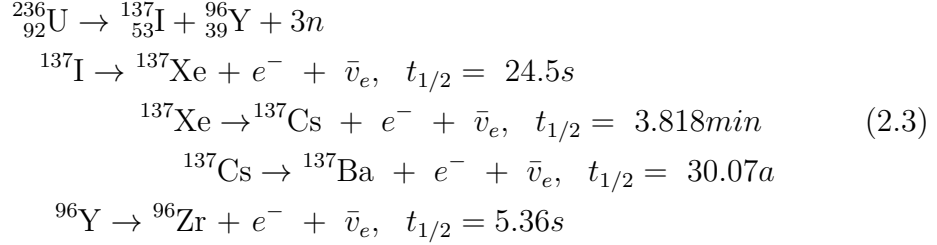


It is important to note that 2.2 is a simplification of the actual decay series of ${}_{92}^{236}\text{U}$ into stable end products. 2.2 is sufficient to understand the principle

¹World Nuclear Association, 2022.

²Basdevant, Rich, and Spiro, 2005, p. 286.

behind nuclear fission. A decay series of $^{236}_{92}\text{U}$ with no intermediates removed is given in 2.3.³



2.2. Nuclear Cross Section

Nuclear cross section describes the probability of a certain nuclear reaction to occur. This aspect needs thorough consideration in the design of nuclear reactors, as the nuclear cross section generally increases with the inverse of the velocities of the reactants⁴.

2.3. Criticality

Criticality is the standard operating condition of a nuclear reactor, in which the neutrons produced by fission events is sufficient to sustain a chain reaction. It is measured using the multiplication factor k . It is semantically defined as in 2.4. For the exact mathematical definition see appendix B. If the factor k equals 1 the reaction is said to be critical. In a critical reaction, the number of neutrons causing a fission event remains constant. If the factor k is less than 1, the number of neutrons is decreasing and the chain reaction is said to be subcritical. If the factor k is greater than 1 the number of neutrons is increasing exponentially and the reaction is

³Basdevant, Rich, and Spiro, 2005, p. 287.

⁴Basdevant, Rich, and Spiro, 2005, p. 108.

supercritical.^{5,6}

$$k = \frac{\text{number of neutrons involved in fission in generation } n}{\text{number of neutrons involved in fission in generation } n - 1} \quad (2.4)$$

In practice, the reactivity ρ is used. It describes the change of the reactor away from the critical state. It is calculated using 2.5.

$$\rho = \frac{k - 1}{k} \quad (2.5)$$

2.4. Safety

Safety is particularly important for nuclear power reactors, as they contain large amounts of radioactive material, which could be released into the environment in the case of an accident. During the ongoing fission reaction, a large amount of radioactive isotopes, of which actinides are the most dangerous are created. Thus safety in nuclear power plants has three main objectives. Firstly, the reactor needs to operate normally without exposing operators and the environment to dangerous levels of radiation. Secondly, accidents need to be prevented as much as possible. Thirdly, in the case of an accident, the consequences need to be minimized. Therefore, for each reactor risks need to be carefully evaluated and their probabilities need to be carefully considered⁷.

2.5. Efficiency

Like other power plants, current nuclear power reactors offer efficiencies between 30% and 35%. However with increased heat and cogeneration the efficiency of nuclear power plants could be increased dramatically⁸.

⁵Basdevant, Rich, and Spiro, 2005, p. 308.

⁶Stacey, 2018, p. 39.

⁷Khalil, 2016, p. 793.

⁸Energy Education, 2022.

2.5.1. Cogeneration

Usually a large amount of energy is lost to the environment in the form of heat. This is usually destructive towards the environment and results in reduced efficiency. This heat could be used in cogeneration to supply heating to other facilities or private housing, thereby reducing the amount of wasted, unused energy⁹.

2.6. Fuel Cycle

Currently, spent fuel from nuclear reactors is sent to reprocessing facilities. There light actinides are separated from the remaining uranium and plutonium. Currently these actinides are treated as waste and stored in facilities to keep them from contaminating the environment. The uranium and plutonium remain in the form of oxides and are reused for mixed oxide fuels (MOX)¹⁰.

2.6.1. Proliferation

A significant risk in the operation of nuclear power reactors is the proliferation of fission products for use in nuclear weapons, as older fast nuclear reactors produce a great deal of $^{239}_{94}\text{Pu}$. Therefore, proliferation resistance is a big consideration in the construction and development of new power reactors and technologies. A possible mitigation is the early removal of fuel, which is only partially spent, from the reactor. This fuel contains nearly no $^{239}_{94}\text{Pu}$, but instead contains $^{238}_{94}\text{Pu}$, which cannot be used in weapons and cannot practically be turned into $^{239}_{94}\text{Pu}$ ¹¹.

⁹International Atomic Energy Association, 2018.

¹⁰Schullenberg, 2022, pp. 82–84.

¹¹Schullenberg, 2022, p. 87.

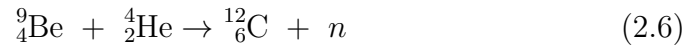
2.7. Components of Nuclear Reactors

2.7.1. Fuel

The reactor fuel is the fissile material used in the fission reaction inside of a reactor. In most cases uranium dioxide (UO_2) pressed into pellets is used for this purpose. These pellets are put into tubular fuel rods. The whole fuel assembly inside the reactor consists of many such rods¹².

2.7.1.1. Startup Neutron Source

As the fission of uranium produces on average 2.4 neutrons per reaction, there does not need to be a constant external influx of neutrons. However, to start this chain reaction inside a new reactor equipped with newly made fuel rods, a neutron source is needed. Usually beryllium combined with an alpha emitter is used for this purpose, as the collision of an α -particle with ${}^9_4\text{Be}$ releases a neutron as part of its reaction, as can be seen in equation 2.6^{13,14}.



¹²World Nuclear Association, 2022.

¹³World Nuclear Association, 2022.

¹⁴Basdevant, Rich, and Spiro, 2005, p. 100.

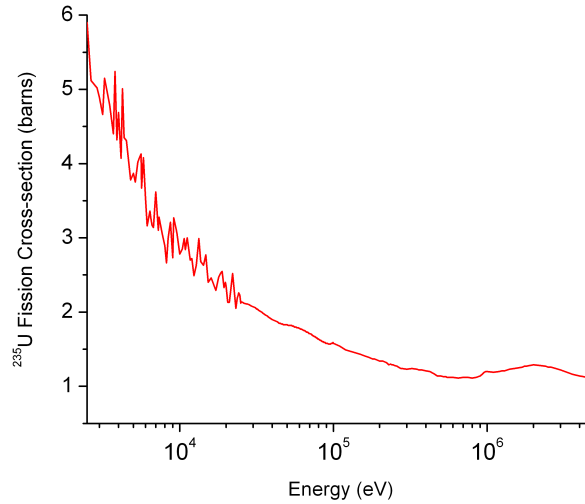


Figure 2.1.: Nuclear cross section of ^{235}U in relation to neutron energy

2.7.2. Moderator

Nuclear fission events release neutrons with energies in excess of multiple MeV, or speeds higher than $10^7 \frac{m}{s}$. However at these speeds the nuclear cross section of the fission reaction is quite low as can be seen in figure 2.1.

Therefore, the emitted neutrons need to be slowed down in order to be useful. These are called thermal neutrons. This is done using a moderator. When passing through a moderator the neutrons are slowed down through collisions with the aforementioned. Although it is important to note that the moderator should absorb as few neutrons as possible to not hinder the chain reaction. For this reason H_2O and graphite are commonly used.¹⁵

2.7.2.1. Fast Reactors

However, there is a category of reactors which harness fast neutrons in their nuclear reaction. These have no moderator and instead make use of fuel,

¹⁵Stacey, 2018, p. 28.

which requires a higher share of ^{235}U as this reduces the chance of neutron capture by ^{238}U and increases the likelihood of a fission event to occur. As actinides are fissile by fast neutrons, fast reactors may reduce the amount of transuranic nuclear waste generated by nuclear power production. There is still ongoing research regarding fast reactors to make them useful for widespread energy production.¹⁶

2.7.3. Control Rods or Blades

In order to regulate the reaction speed inside of a nuclear reactor the number of neutrons inducing nuclear fission needs to be regulated. This is accomplished using control rods. As a single control rod with a circular cross section would lead to very nonuniform fission and temperature dynamics, the control rods are either arranged into cruciform blades or evenly spaced across the reactor in the form of clusters. A typical reactor contains around 50 clusters, each made up of 20 control rods^{17,18}.

These rods or blades contain materials which readily absorb neutrons, such as boron or cadmium. They may either be made of steel enriched with boron or hollow tubes filled with a brittle salt like material, such as cadmium isotopes. Because the amount of fuel inside reactor steadily decreases, the amount of neutrons absorbed needs to be regulated in order for the chain reaction to continue. Therefore, the control rods or blades are mounted on a movable apparatus, which extends or retracts the control rods into or out of the reactor, thereby regulating the amount of neutrons absorbed¹⁹.

2.7.4. Coolant

The coolant is a liquid which circulates inside the nuclear reactor core to extract the thermal energy generated from the fission reactions. In most cases today this liquid is H_2O . In the case of boiling water reactors, the

¹⁶World Nuclear Association, 2022.

¹⁷Stacey, 2018, p. 72.

¹⁸Grayson, 2011.

¹⁹Grayson, 2011.

2. Basic Concepts of Nuclear Power

water is boiled directly inside the core. In all other reactor types, such as pressurized water reactors at least a secondary, separated, coolant circuit is used, which transports the heat away from the primary circuit. When the water is not boiled inside the reactor core, a separate steam generator is used to create the steam, which drives the turbine. The same water which is used as a coolant may also be used as the reactor moderator²⁰.

²⁰World Nuclear Association, [2022](#).

3. Historical Generational Developments of Nuclear Reactors

Nuclear reactors are normally categorised into generations. These generations differentiate reactors based on various technological factors such as cost-effectiveness, safety, commercial applicability and fuel cycle. They present a useful tool in categorizing nuclear reactors, as multiple factors are combined into one single metric. It is important to note that all designs of generations I to III+ consist mainly of variations on designs first developed in the late fourth decade of the 20th century with various incremental improvements added¹. Figure 3.1 shows a timeline of nuclear reactor generations along with important notes on the properties of reactors in this generation. The images show representatives of each generation. It is

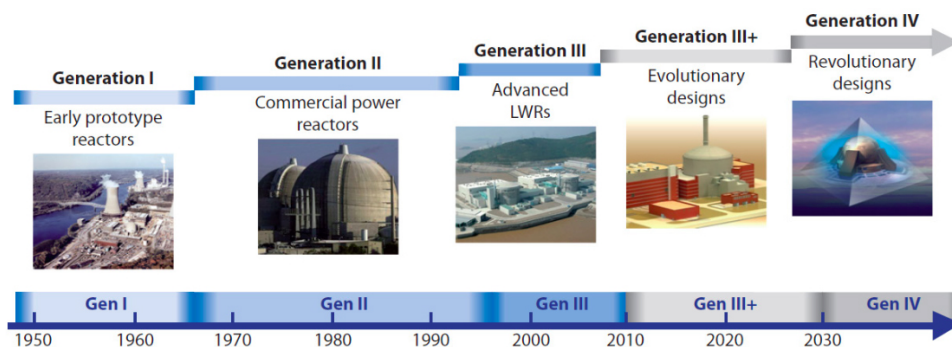


Figure 3.1.: Timeline of nuclear reactor generations

¹Goldberg and R., 2011, pp. 1, 2.

important to remember that the example image for generation IV is not representative, as the reactors of this generation are still in development and have not been built to commercial scale.

3.1. Generation I

The first generation of nuclear reactors consists primarily of research reactors and primitive nuclear power plants. These reactors are regarded as “proof of concept” in the USA. All reactors of this generation have been decommissioned or are undergoing deconstruction because their technological level is far behind that of newer reactors. Therefore, they have very low cost-effectiveness and operational safety².

3.2. Generation II

The second generation of nuclear reactors represent the first efforts to produce nuclear reactors primarily designed for commercial viability. They comprise mainly boiling water reactors (BWR), pressurised water reactors (PWR), Canadian deuterium uranium reactors (CANDU) and advanced gas-cooled reactors (AGR). They are designed for an operational lifetime of 40 years. Generation II reactors are the most common generation for boiling water reactors and pressurised water reactors around the world, which can be categorised under the term light water reactor (LWR). These reactors feature more advanced safety features compared to generation I reactors. These safety features have the ability to automatically prevent grievous incidents in the operation of the nuclear reactor, such loss of power or operator error.

Designs from this category require comparatively large electrical power grids. And feature advanced safety envelopes based on western standards. New reactors of this generation are mainly built in China, Russia and the

²Goldberg and R., 2011, p. 3.

Republic of Korea. Their fuel cycle requires high level waste repositories for ultimate disposition³.

3.3. Generation III

In essence nuclear reactors of the third generation are the same designs as in the second generation with evolutionary improvements added. These reactors feature improved fuel economy, thermal efficiency and safety. These designs shift away from active safety systems to passive safety systems. They also feature a more standardised design, which leads to more economical construction costs. Designs such as the advanced boiling water reactor (ABWR) belong to this generation⁴.

3.4. Generation III+

As implied by the name, nuclear reactors of the III+ generation feature another set of incremental improvements over the third generation. The main focus of these improvements lay in the improved safety of reactor systems, as less operator intervention and fewer active components are utilized in reactor safety systems. These new safety systems utilize effects such as gravity to function. This leads to improved safety, because a total failure of these safety systems is very unlikely compared to those of earlier generations. These reactors also have a higher expected operating lifetime of up to 60 years. The power plants of this generation also have increased fuel burn up. This has the benefit of reduced fuel consumption and waste generation. Many reactors of this generation of differing designs are in operation and construction around the globe⁵.

³Goldberg and R., 2011, pp. 4–6.

⁴Goldberg and R., 2011, pp. 5, 6.

⁵Goldberg and R., 2011, pp. 7–11.

4. Common Nuclear Reactor Types in Current Use

4.1. PWR – Pressurized Water Reactor

Pressurized water reactors harness H_2O as coolant and commonly also as moderator. However, they have at least two coolant circuits. The water in the primary coolant circuit is under a large pressure in order to remain liquid even at the high temperatures generated inside the reactor core. Between the primary and secondary coolant circuit lay a steam generator, which turns the cool water supplied in the secondary circuit into steam used to drive turbines. Special attention needs to be drawn to the fact, that primary and secondary circuit are never directly connected and therefore no radioactive material can be passed from inside the reactor core through the steam generator. Therefore only the reactor components which are situated before the steam generator need to be under containment.^{1,2} A simplified schematic representation of a pressurized water reactor can be seen in 4.1. The turbine and cooling systems of every schematic are not shown, as this would exceed the scope of the explanations given herein and not contribute to the understanding of the reactor type shown.

¹World Nuclear Association, 2022.

²Khalil, 2016, pp. 14–84.

4. Common Nuclear Reactor Types in Current Use

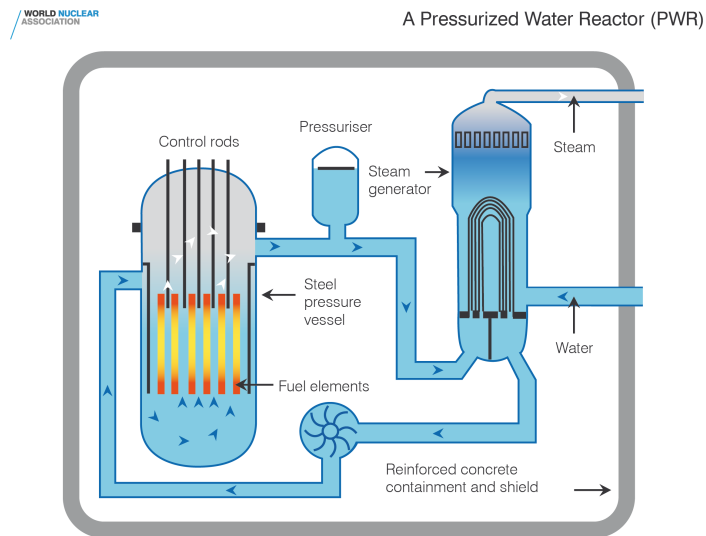


Figure 4.1.: Schematic representation of a pressurized water reactor

4.2. BWR – Boiling Water Reactor

Boiling water reactors are characterized by their mode of steam production. In comparison to pressurized water reactors, these reactors boil the water directly inside the reactor core. This has the advantage of significantly increasing the simplicity of reactor construction, because there is no need for a steam generator or secondary coolant loop. Like pressurized water reactors, boiling water reactors most commonly employ water as their moderator. Because the coolant water unavoidably comes into direct contact with the fuel rods, radioactive isotopes are leaked into the coolant water and also the turbines. But as these isotopes almost unanimously consist of ^{16}N , which has a short half life of 7 seconds, the access radiation is almost completely depleted after power generation. But due to the further spread of radioactive material a greater area of containment needs to be constructed for the nuclear power plant³. A schematic representation of a boiling water reactor is shown in 4.2

³Khalil, 2016, pp. 85–140.

4. Common Nuclear Reactor Types in Current Use

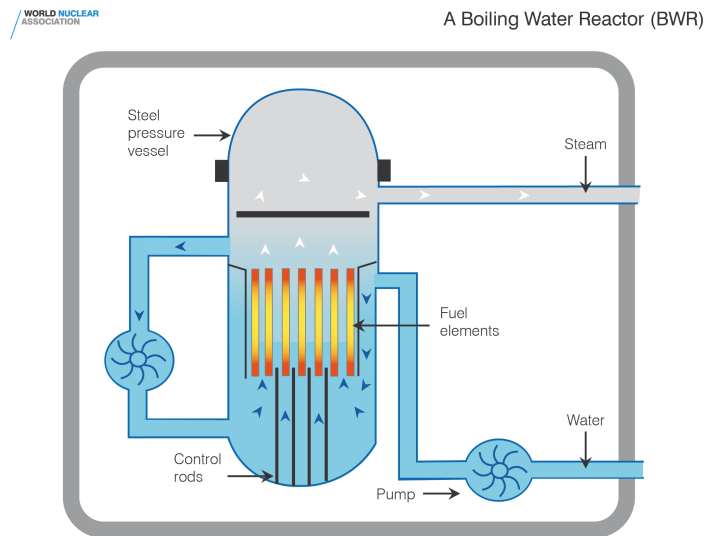


Figure 4.2.: Schematic representation of a boiling water reactor

4.3. PHWR – Pressurized Heavy Water Reactor

Pressurized heavy water reactors also called CANDU for Canadian deuterium uranium reactor, utilize heavy water (${}^3_1\text{H}_2\text{O}$ – also called D_2O) as coolant and moderator. The cylindrical fuel elements, which consist of multiple small fuel rods welded together, as shown in 4.4, rest inside zirconium alloy pressure tubes, through which the cooling heavy water flows. Many of these tubes are contained inside the calandria. The calandria itself is an enclosed chamber, which contains low pressure, low temperature heavy water used only as moderator. Because only the heavy water inside the zirconium alloy pressure tubes is under high pressure, the calandria need not be able to withstand the pressures, which are exerted upon the vessels housing pressurize water reactors and heavy water reactors. The only parts which need to withstand high mechanical stress are the pressure tubes, which can more easily be mass manufactured, due to their repetitiveness. Another advantage of this design is that single tubes can be refueled during reactor operation, as they can be disconnected, while other reactor designs need to be shut down completely before a change of fuel rods can occur. Pressurized

4. Common Nuclear Reactor Types in Current Use

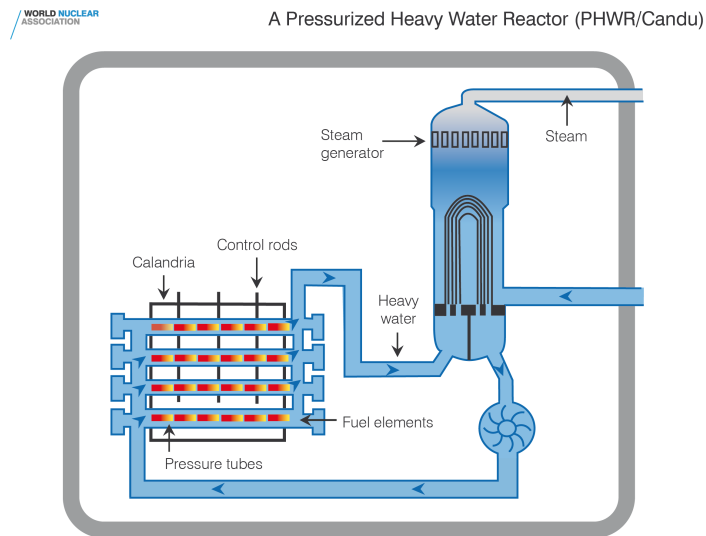


Figure 4.3.: Schematic representation of a pressurized heavy water reactor

heavy water reactors can also operate on unenriched natural uranium⁴. For a simplified representation of a reactor of this type see figure 4.3.



Figure 4.4.: Fuel element as used in PHWR

⁴Khalil, 2016, pp. 141–198.

5. Generation IV

Nuclear reactor systems of the fourth generation are a set of six novel reactor designs created with set goals in mind. This development effort is lead and governed by the Generation IV International Forum (GIF). The GIF has 14 Members: Argentina, Australia, Brazil, Canada, China, Euratom, France, Japan, Korea, the Russian Federation, South Afrika, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States of Amerika. The goal of the GIF is to motivate research and development on new reactor systems¹.

5.1. Goals

Goals have been defined for nuclear reactor systems of the fourth generation. These goals can be categorised into four sections: Economics, Sustainability, Safety and Reliability and, Proliferation Resistance².

5.1.1. Economics

Generation IV nuclear reactors will have a lower total life-cycle cost when compared to nuclear reactors of previous generations. This means that the energy produced by these nuclear reactor systems over their lifetime is higher in relation to the cost involved in building and operating such a power plant. Additionally, these reactor systems will have comparable financial risks to other energy projects, which is especially important to

¹Generation IV International Forum, 2021, p. 6.

²Pirotto et al., 2016, p. 38.

make Generation IV systems competitive in the marketplace. This also includes viability for a wider range of different ownership models and a wider array of possible energy supply roles³.

5.1.2. Sustainability

It is important for nuclear reactor systems of the fourth generation to make effective use of the resources involved in building and operating such a system. Another area of importance is the reduction and effective management of nuclear waste⁴.

5.1.3. Safety and Reliability

In nuclear reactors of previous generations a compromise between safety and reliability needs to be met, because these designs have not been created with safety primarily in mind. Therefore an increase in safety mostly coincides with reduced reliability, because these measures increase the complexity of the nuclear reactor and also decrease the amount of valid operating states. Because Generation IV nuclear reactors are designed from the ground up with inherent safety systems, no compromise needs to be struck. Most of these novel designs feature passive protection against failure modes such as overheating⁵.

5.1.4. Proliferation Resistance and Physical Protection

Proliferation resistance and physical protection are important to make the deployment of nuclear reactors attractive. Generation IV reactors are designed to make them the most unattractive option for creating fissile material for use in nuclear weapons. Therefore, their fuel cycle must produce

³Generation IV International Forum, 2021, p. 6.

⁴Pioro et al., 2016, p. 38.

⁵Generation IV International Forum, 2021, p. 6.

5. Generation IV

as few actinides as possible, which is also beneficial for the sustainability of such systems⁶.

⁶Piolo et al., 2016, p. 39.

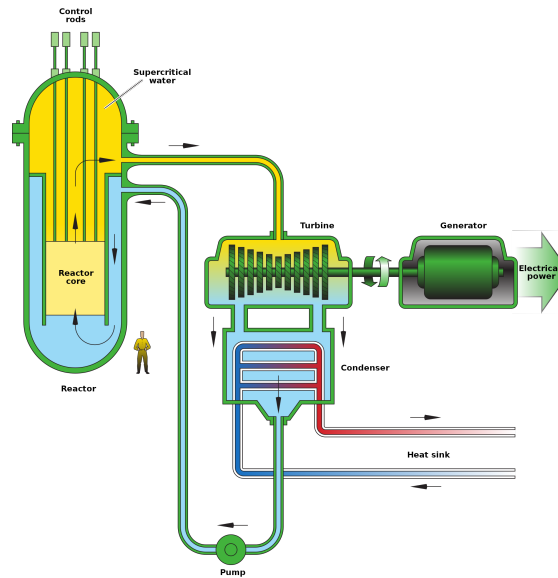


Figure 5.1.: Schematic representation of a supercritical water reactor

5.2. Reactor Types

5.2.1. Supercritical Water Reactors

Construction wise, supercritical water reactors are very similar to boiling water reactors. They use light water for the cooling and moderation of the reactor. The main difference is the aggregate state change of the water used as the coolant. In a boiling water reactor, the water changes aggregate state at the set boiling point. In a supercritical water reactor, the coolant is heated beyond the critical temperature of 374°C . Therefore, there is no difference in the density of liquid particles and steam. This effectively creates a homogenous mass of H_2O , where no clear distinction of steam and liquid water can be made. This state is called supercritical and should not be confused with the term of criticality used in nuclear physics⁷. The effect of supercriticality is well illustrated by the phase change diagram of water shown in figure 5.2. A schematic representation of a supercritical boiling water reactor is shown in figure 5.1.

⁷Pirotto et al., 2016, pp. 206–236.

5. Generation IV

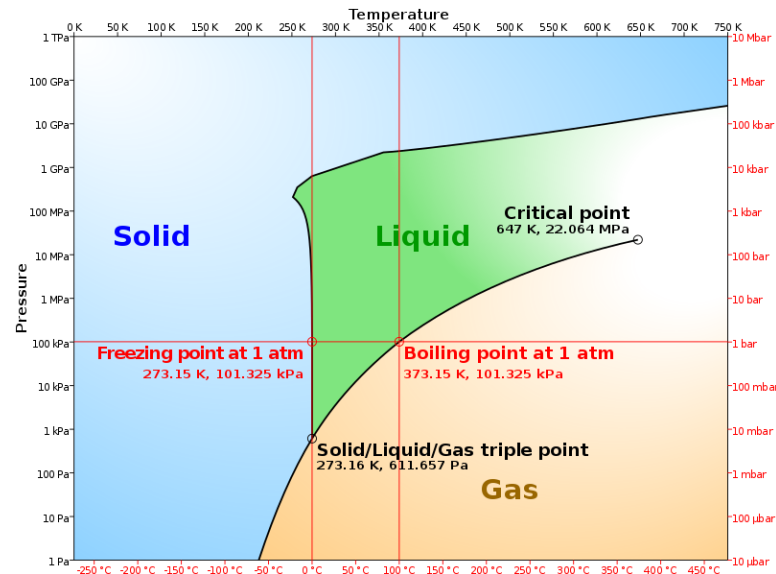


Figure 5.2.: Phase change diagram of H₂O

5.2.1.1. Efficiency

The main advantage of supercritical water reactor lay in the increased efficiency compared to boiling water reactors because the turbines are operated at higher temperature and pressure and because the turbine exhaust is fed into the reactor without the need to dump thermal energy to liquefy it again. This is expected to increase the thermal efficiency from $\approx 35\%$ to $\approx 45\%$. Such a system is already used for the energy generation of many coal power plants built since 1990⁸.

5.2.1.2. Safety

Because of the great similarity to boiling water reactors, supercritical water reactors are comparable in safety to the aforementioned. However, because no reactor of this type has been built to date, little research has been conducted on the practical safety of those systems. Additionally, due to the

⁸Schullenberg, 2022, pp. 30–51.

temperature and density gradient in the coolant inside the core itself, the moderating coolant absorbs fewer neutrons in the top section of the reactor. Therefore, an additional moderator needs to be installed at points of higher coolant temperature⁹.

5.2.1.3. Disadvantages

Supercritical water reactors have the same unsustainable fuel cycle of boiling water reactors, because they operate on enriched uranium fuel and generate nuclear waste. Therefore they are not considered appropriate for wide scale adoption. This is also reflected in the small amount of research efforts that have gone into this system. An additional disadvantage of such a system is the need for the coolant to be superheated for safe operation and the high operation pressure which is exerted on the reactor vessel¹⁰.

⁹Schullenberg, 2022, pp. 52–53.

¹⁰Schullenberg, 2022, pp. 52–53.

5.2.2. Very High Temperature Reactors

Very high temperature reactors operate at temperatures far exceeding normal reactor operating limits. Higher reactor temperatures are of advantage because they increase efficiency significantly. Because materials usually used in fuel elements such as zircalloy or steel corrode or melt at temperatures above 650°C, these materials cannot be used for their construction. The only materials such as ceramics can be used for such a purpose¹¹.

5.2.2.1. Fuel Elements

To allow for increased temperatures, the fuel elements inside a very high temperature reactor are made from ceramic uranium dioxide spheres and coated with graphite and silicon carbide (SiC). These particles have a diameter of 0.9 mm. These gas tight particles are called TRISO (TRistructural-ISOTropic) particles. The particles are then arranged into cylindrical graphite pellets with a diameter of 24mm or spheres with a diameter of 60mm. The pellets are usually used in graphite block type reactor cores, which closely resemble those of traditional reactor cores such as RBMK reactors¹². However, the fuel spheres are used in pebble bed type reactors, which will be explained in section 5.2.2.3.

5.2.2.2. Very High Temperature Reactors with Prismatic Core

An example of a reactor, which uses the graphite block type core configuration is shown in figure 5.3. This type of reactor is moderated by graphite and cooled with helium. As a coolant, helium has a lower thermal capacity compared to water, but because helium can be used at higher operating temperatures, it's use is advantageous for high core temperatures. Additionally helium has close to no ability to moderate neutrons. In such a reactor configuration the prism shaped core is surrounded by a graphite reflector and a pressure vessel. The primary turbine is located in a secondary pressure vessel and directly driven by the helium, which is heated by the reactor

¹¹Schullenberg, 2022, p. 55.

¹²Schullenberg, 2022, p. 56.

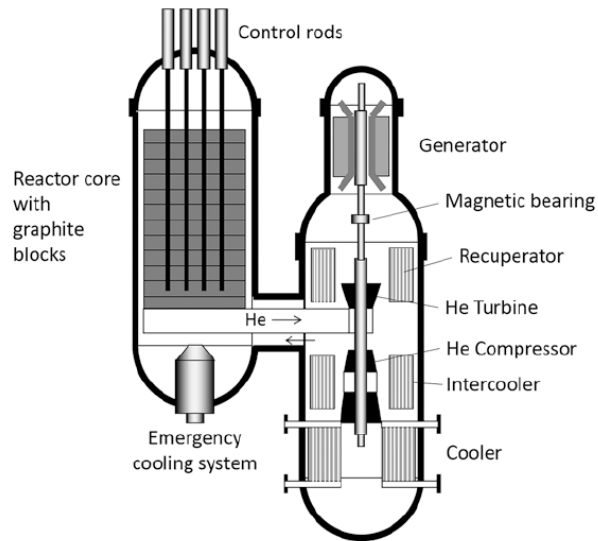


Figure 5.3.: Schematic representation of a very high temperature reactor

core. Heat exchangers are used to transfer the remaining heat from turbines into a water based cooling loop for additional energy extraction¹³.

5.2.2.3. Pebble Bed Reactors

The reactor core of a pebble bed reactor is made up of around 500000 individual fuel spheres. These spheres rest loosely inside the graphite reflector which is contained by a pressure vessel. The graphite reflector contains the control rods, because in previous research efforts control rods inside the core were blocked by jammed spheres. New fuel spheres can be continuously fed in from the top side of the reactor, while spent fuel is extracted from the bottom end funnel. Therefore the reactor can be operated and refueled without the shutdowns normally required. Helium is blown through the reactor core by a pump. A heat exchanger is used to extract the generated heat from the nuclear reactor¹⁴. Such a reactor core is illustrated in 5.4.

¹³Chapin, 2005.

¹⁴Schullenberg, 2022, pp. 60–62.

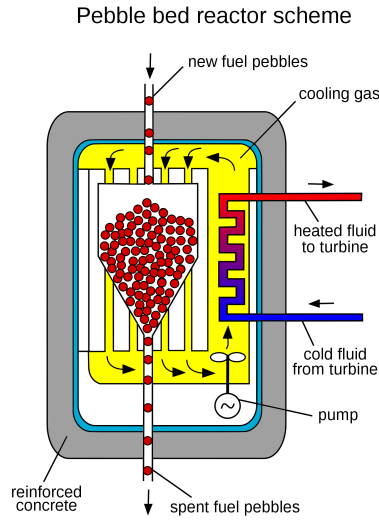


Figure 5.4.: Schematic representation of a pebble bed reactor

5.2.2.4. Safety

A great advantage of such a reactor is the inherent safety it provides. This means that the core need not have a emergency cooling system, because the fuel pebbles can survive heat in excess of 1600°C meaning that a core meltdown is virtually impossible. If the helium cooling fails, the core only needs to be cooled from the outside to dissipate the heat created. Another advantage of this reactor type is that no direct contact between the coolant and fissile material is possible due to the coating of the fuel spheres. Therefore, in the event of coolant loss no radioactive material can be leaked into the surrounding environment¹⁵. Because they utilize fuel, which is only enriched to 8%, they have the same proliferation resistance as the pressurized water reactors currently in use¹⁶.

¹⁵Chapin, 2005, pp. 18–21.

¹⁶Chapin, 2005.

5.2.2.5. Efficiency

Because very high temperature reactors operate at elevated temperatures and may make use of turbines operated directly by the coolant gas, they have comparatively high thermal efficiencies of 42%. They, however, are expected to reach efficiencies in excess of 50% with further developments¹⁷.

¹⁷Schullenberg, 2022, p. 62.

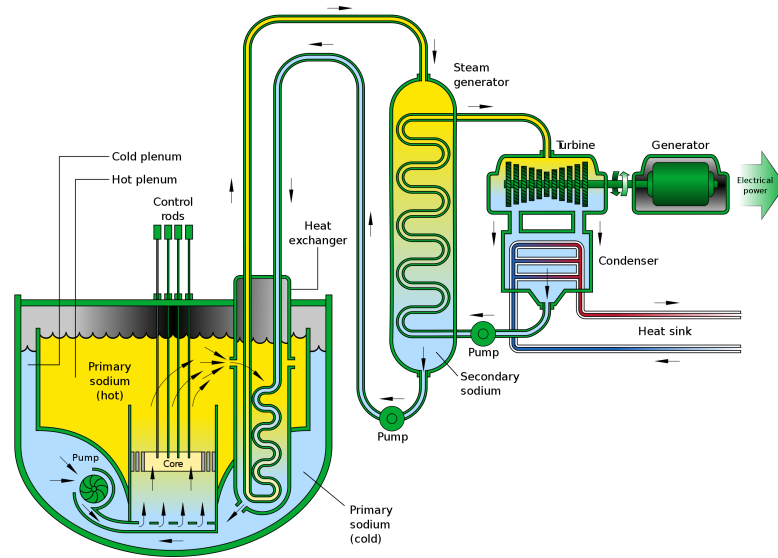


Figure 5.5.: Schematic representation of sodium-cooled fast reactor

5.2.3. Sodium-Cooled Fast Reactors

Sodium cooled fast reactors already have a working history of 60 years. Like all fast reactors, they make use of fast neutrons with energies exceeding 3keV. Because fast neutrons have a nuclear cross section which is lower than that of thermal neutrons by 500%, a neutron flux ten times greater than that of thermal neutron based reactors is required to achieve a comparable energy density¹⁸. Sodium-cooled fast reactors utilize sodium as the primary and secondary coolant. Sodium has little capability to interact with neutrons. It is therefore well suited for fast reactors. Compared to water, sodium has a thermal conductivity greater than that of water by a factor of 100. Because it has a melting point of 98°C and a boiling point of 883°C it is possible to operate the reactor at an entry temperature of 400°C and an exit temperature of 550°C while keeping the pressure at 1atm. Sodium is also very compatible with stainless steel, leading to no erosion of the reactor hull. The core itself is made up of conventional fuel rods and submerged in a circulating pool of liquid sodium. To increase the energy of the neutrons

¹⁸Stacey, 2018, pp. 120–122.

the fuel rods are mounted closer together to minimise the already small moderating effect of the coolant¹⁹. Figure 5.5 illustrates such a reactor.

5.2.3.1. Fuel

Because of the high energy neutrons, a large amount of plutonium in the form plutonium dioxide PuO_2 is added to the fuel. The mixed oxide fuel is made up of 15% Pu_2 with the rest being UO_2 . During the reactor operation more plutonium is created as a fission product. Most notably, more fissile fuel is created from natural uranium than is consumed in the process. Additionally the actinides created by the reaction are recycled in further fission reactions leading to a closed fuel cycle. No transuranic waste is created by fast reactors. The primary factor limiting the lifetime of fuel elements is the damage caused to the fuel containing tubes caused by the high neutron flux²⁰.

5.2.3.2. Safety

Because of the low operation pressure the risk of containment failure is kept at a minimum. Additionally, the chance of environmental pollution is reduced because there remains little to no radioactive transuranic waste to be stored away. The primary operating risk is the high reactivity of sodium, especially with water. Therefore even contact with miniscule amounts of H_2O , such as those in the atmosphere, could lead to catastrophic chemical explosions. Great care needs to be taken to protect the cooling sodium from water. Additionally, caution needs to be exercised to keep the sodium coolant below its boiling point of 883°C to avoid the creation of a positive void coefficient, which would create a fatal super critical state. Lastly, reactors of this type have a self regulating property, as the core expands with increased heat. This allows more neutrons to escape the core, reducing reactivity²¹.

¹⁹Schullenberg, 2022, pp. 94–110.

²⁰Schullenberg, 2022, p. 111.

²¹Generation IV International Forum, 2021, pp. 30–37.

5.2.3.3. Efficiency

Sodium-cooled fast reactors can reach high thermal efficiencies comparable to those of other fast reactors. Also, to reduce mechanical failures, electrodynamic pumps can be used to propel the molten sodium instead of mechanical pumps, reducing the amount of moving parts and thereby increasing reliability²².

²²Generation IV International Forum, [2021](#), pp. 30–37.

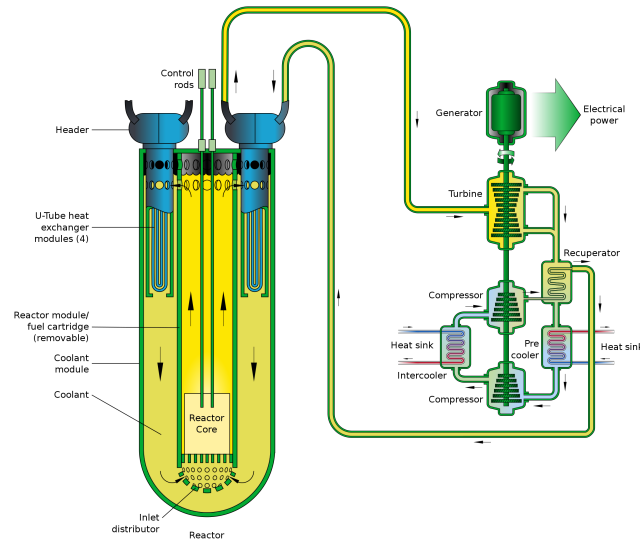


Figure 5.6.: Schematic representation of sodium-cooled fast reactor

5.2.4. Lead-Cooled Fast Reactors

The construction of lead cooled fast reactors is very similar to that of sodium-cooled fast reactors, as can be seen in figure 5.6. For the sake of brevity, only the differences to sodium-cooled fast reactors will be illustrated, while the parallels are omitted.

The two main problems of using sodium as a coolant can be solved by replacing it with another metal. Lead is well suited for such an application due to its relatively high melting point of 327°C and the high boiling temperature of 1750°C . Therefore it is impossible for the lead to start boiling inside the reactor, because the fuel assemblies and the reactor hull would be destroyed first. Another advantage is the ability of lead to naturally circulate through the core because of the differences in density of lead at different temperatures. Because of the relatively high melting temperature great caution needs to be exercised as to not freeze the coolant inside the reactor. To mitigate this possibility the alloy lead-bismuth may be used. Lead-bismuth consists of 55.5 mass % lead and 44.5 mass % bismuth. This alloy has a low melting temperature 124°C , but also a decreased boiling point of 1670°C . Except for the higher nuclear cross section of lead-bismuth,

the two coolants can be used interchangeably. To further examine lead and bismuth as coolants close attention needs to be drawn towards the individual isotopes of these metals²³.

5.2.4.1. Coolant Isotopes

As can be seen from table 5.2.4.1, $^{204}_{82}\text{Pb}$ has a higher nuclear cross section of neutron absorption compared to bismuth, but because naturally occurring lead consists of a mixture of the lead isotopes listed in 5.2.4.1 in the ratios given, its total cross section of neutron absorption is lower compared to bismuth. Through neutron capture $^{206}_{82}\text{Pb}$ and $^{207}_{82}\text{Pb}$ are converted to $^{208}_{82}\text{Pb}$ during the nuclear reactor operation. Through further neutron absorption $^{209}_{82}\text{Pb}$ can be created, which decays to $^{209}_{83}\text{Bi}$ and ultimately $^{210}_{84}\text{Po}$, a strong alpha emitter. $^{210}_{84}\text{Po}$ decays to $^{206}_{82}\text{Pb}$. Thereby the coolant is not only contaminated, but there is a significant safety risk for the operating personell, but due to the short half life of the relevant isotopes, one only has to await the decay of the isotopes if disposal is necessary²⁴.

Isotope	$^{204}_{82}\text{Pb}$	$^{206}_{82}\text{Pb}$	$^{207}_{82}\text{Pb}$	$^{208}_{82}\text{Pb}$	$^{209}_{83}\text{Bi}$
Abundance (%)	1.4	24.1	22.1	52.4	100
Half-Life (years)	$1.4 * 10^{17}$	Stable	Stable	Stable	$2 * 10^{19}$
Nuclear cross section (mbarn)	703	26.6	622	0.23	32.4

Table 5.2.4.1

5.2.4.2. Safety

Because lead is not susceptible to explosive reactions with water and because it mitigates the problem of a positive void coefficient it is better suited as a coolant for a fast reactor. Additionally, in the case of a breach in the reactor vessel, the leaking lead solidifies below melting temperature and thereby stops further evacuation of the reactor chamber. The main problem of safety in operation is the danger of irradiation caused by the contamination of

²³Piolo et al., 2016, pp. 137–174.

²⁴Schullenberg, 2022, pp. 115–134.

the lead coolant through the generation of radioactive isotopes, mainly $^{210}_{84}\text{Po}$ ²⁵.

5.2.4.3. Efficiency

The efficiency and fuel cycle benefits are identical to those of sodium-cooled fast reactors. See chapter 5.2.3.

²⁵Schullenberg, 2022, p. 132.

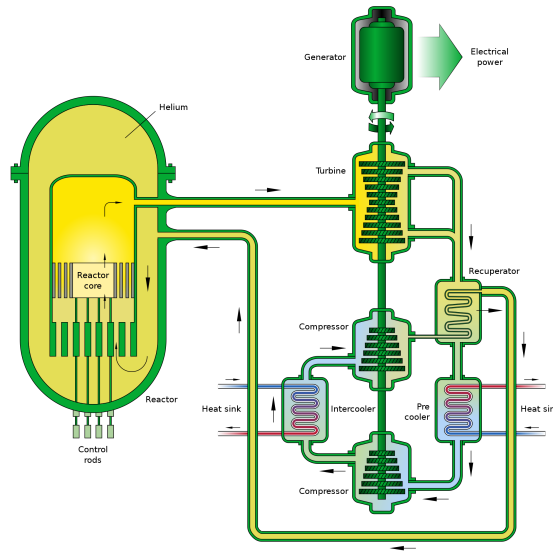


Figure 5.7.: Schematic representation of a gas-cooled fast reactor

5.2.5. Gas-Cooled Fast Reactors

Gas-cooled fast reactors employ a gas, in all relevant cases helium, as the coolant. Thermodynamically, they bear a great similarity to helium-cooled very high temperature reactors. But, because they are fast reactors, the core design varies greatly. The core assembly is very similar to sodium-cooled fast reactors, where mixed oxide fuel is housed in stainless steel tubes. Attempts to use the more economical and safe TRISO pellets have failed because of damages caused by high neutron flux. Because of its very low density, helium has no ability to moderate neutrons with a cross section of neutron absorption of 0 mbarn. This makes it the ideal coolant for a fast reactor. However, if operated at 70 atm of pressure, the flow rate of the reactor coolant needs to be 500 times as high compared to a sodium-cooled fast reactor to achieve comparable heat transfer rates²⁶.

²⁶Schullenberg, 2022, pp. 135–144.

5.2.5.1. Safety

Because of the high flow rates required to keep the reactor operational, active pumps need to be employed to move the coolant helium through the core. Because of the high pressure it is very difficult to design a passive safety system for such a reactor and no tested solution has been found yet, because no such system has ever reached criticality. However, because helium is chemically inert, no corrosion of the reactor vessel can be expected. Additionally, no positive void coefficient can occur because helium already has no ability to moderate neutrons²⁷.

5.2.5.2. Efficiency

The efficiency and fuel cycle benefits are identical to those of sodium-cooled fast reactors. See chapter 5.2.3

²⁷Schullenberg, 2022, pp. 135–144.

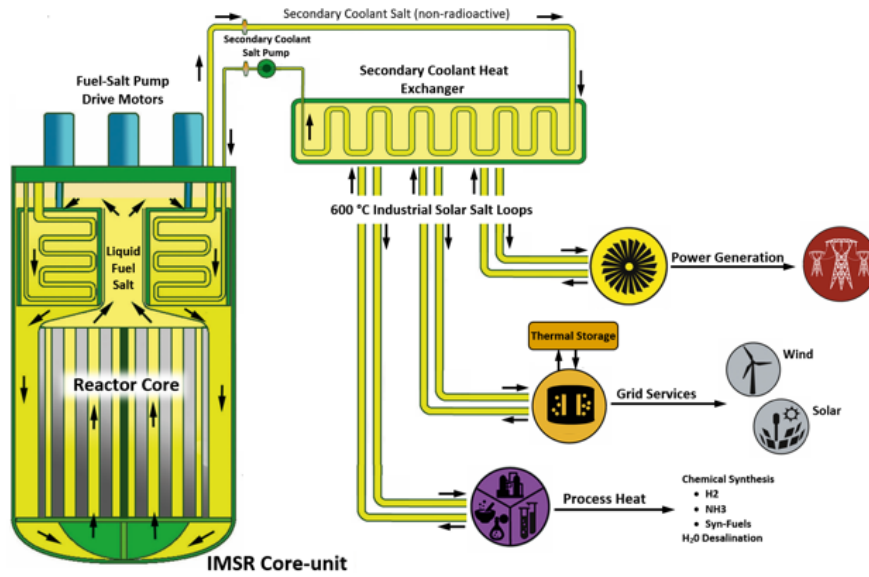


Figure 5.8.: Schematic representation of a molten salt reactor

5.2.6. Molten Salt Reactors

Molten salt reactors are a class of reactors where the fuel is not present inside the core as a solid but rather as a liquid. In such a configuration the salt used as fuel also functions as the primary coolant simultaneously. Because the melting points of the salts used are 400°C to 500°C the core operates at temperatures ranging from 650°C to 700°C. However the pressure inside the reactor and coolant systems does never exceed 1atm meaning that the pressure inside the reactor is never above atmospheric pressure. If operation with thermal neutrons is desired, graphite is used as the moderator²⁸. An illustrative schematic of such a reactor is shown in 5.8.

5.2.6.1. Fuel

Uranium dioxide is not suitable as a fuel for molten salt reactors because it has a melting point around 1000°C. Therefore a mixture of different fluoride

²⁸Schullenberg, 2022, pp. 147–152.

containing salts is used. The main salts used are Lithium Fluoride (LiF) and Beryllium Fluoride (BeF₂). The fissile material is present in the form of Uranium Fluoride (UF₄). If the reactor is operated using thermal neutrons, unenriched uranium may be used as fission fuel.

5.2.6.2. Safety

Because the reactor core is already in the liquid phase during normal operation, a core meltdown is not possible. Additionally, if an emergency condition is detected, the contents of the core can be dumped into special containers where the reactive mass becomes subcritical and is allowed to cool off. It is also possible to change the fuel contents during regular core operation, thereby making a core shutdown unnecessary. This also allows for more streamlined fuel cycles, as the components composing the molten salt fuel can be separated directly in a secondary plant, thereby bypassing the need for separate reprocessing facilities and creating the possibility to remove fission products and simultaneously introduce new fission fuel during reactor operation. Lastly, gaseous substances such as Iodine and Xenon Isotopes are not well soluble in liquid salt when compared to water. Therefore, it is easier to extract and capture them²⁹. If the reactor does not make use of a moderator and instead uses fast neutrons, it has the advantage of a negative void effect. This means that as the heat inside the reactor rises, the reactivity of the reactor decreases, thereby creating a passive safety feature. Fast molten salt reactors are the only fast reactors with such a property³⁰.

5.2.6.3. Efficiency

Because of the higher operating temperature, molten salt reactors are more efficient at generating electrical power. Additionally, because the fuel composition can be varied considerably during operation and because

²⁹Serp, 2014.

³⁰Schullenberg, 2022, p. 164.

unwanted isotopes can be extracted or eliminated in a targeted fashion, they may also profit from high economic viability³¹.

5.2.6.4. Disadvantages

Because the liquid fuel comes into contact with a greater deal of moving mechanisms such as pumps, a greater area of containment and more remote operation and servicing is needed to operate such a reactor³².

³¹Pioro et al., 2016, pp. 159–161.

³²Serp, 2014.

6. Nuclear Power and Climate Change

It is agreed upon that climate change presents an issue for human society as a whole. Currently carbon emissions produced by energy generation, especially through fossile fuels, present the biggest problem in reaching the goals set forth in the paris agreement¹. Therefore a large consensus has formed, that nuclear energy should at least be taken into consideration in combating climate change². The lifecycle carbon footprint of nuclear energy is among the lowest compared to other energy sources on the market. According to estimations around 12 grammes of CO₂ are emitted for every kilowatt hour of produced electricity. This value lies even below solar energy with 40 g/kWh and coal power with 820 g/kWh³. However, it is not possible to scale nuclear power reactors currently in use to a global scale, because of the need for rare materials in the construction of such a plant, their inefficient fuel cycle and the difficulty of finding a suitable location⁴. But generation IV nuclear reactors are developed to be more scalable and easily buildable. It is, however, still uncertain as to what degree even the newest technological developments can be scaled⁵.

¹United Nations Climate Change Secretariat, [2022](#).

²International Atomic Energy Association, [2022](#).

³IPCC Working Group III, [2014](#).

⁴Abbot, [2011](#).

⁵Generation IV International Forum, [2021](#).

6.1. Fuel

Often times the shortage of fissile material is cited the limiting factor for the sustainability of nuclear power generation through fission. This however only takes reactors operating on the fission of ^{235}U into account. It has been shown that fast neutron reactors can turn fertile isotopes such as ^{238}U into fissile fuel at a faster rate than they consume it. This means nuclear power generation can be sustained on the abundantly available ^{238}U , which is projected to be practically inexhaustible⁶.

⁶Lightfoot et al., 2006.

7. Conclusion

It is safe to conclude that generation IV nuclear reactors represent a considerable improvement over older, obsolete systems. Especially molten salt reactors present a viable and attractive solution for global energy provision because of their flexibility and effectiveness. Therefore they represent a viable alternative to the older less efficient and safe power reactors. Because of the mitigation of the fuel issue through fast reactors, at least a fuel shortage will not be a problem in foreseeable future. Therefore they may play an important role in the aversion of climate change. Furthermore, because the decision horizon for measures necessary to avert global warming get closer by the day, it may at some point be a necessary bridge gap solution.

Appendix

Appendix A.

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A.1. Figures

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A.2. Equations

A.2.1. Own Creation

Equations 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 2.4 and 2.6 were typeset by the author with information taken from¹.

¹Oka and SpringerLink (Online service), 2014.

Appendix B.

Six Factor Formula

$$k = \eta f p \varepsilon P_{FNL} P_{TNL} = k_{\infty} P_{FNL} P_{TNL} \quad (\text{B.1})$$

Equation B.1 is used to calculate the multiplication factor k where¹:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Thermal Fission Factor : } \eta &= \frac{\nu \sigma_f^F}{\sigma_a^F} \\ \text{Thermal Utilisation Factor : } f &= \frac{\Sigma_a^F}{\Sigma_a} \\ \text{Resonance Escape Probability : } p &\approx \exp \left(- \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N N_i I_{r,A,i}}{(\bar{\xi} \Sigma_p)_{mod}} \right) \\ \text{Fast Fission Factor : } \varepsilon &\approx 1 + \frac{1-p}{p} \frac{u_f \nu_f P_{FAF}}{f \nu_t P_{TAF} P_{TNL}} \\ \text{Fast Non-Leakage Probability : } P_{FNL} &\approx \exp \left(-B_g^2 \tau_{th} \right) \\ \text{Thermal Non-Leakage Probability : } P_{TNL} &\approx \frac{1}{1 + L_{th}^2 B_g^2} \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B.2})$$

¹Basdevant, Rich, and Spiro, 2005.

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