Demand Driven Deployment Capabilities in Cyclus, a Fuel Cycle Simulator

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Abstract

The present United States' nuclear fuel cycle faces challenges that hinder the expansion of nuclear energy technology. The U.S. Department of Energy identified four nuclear fuel cycle options, which make nuclear energy technology more desirable. Successfully analyzing the transitions from the current fuel cycle to these promising fuel cycles requires a nuclear fuel cycle simulator that can predictively and automatically deploy fuel cycle facilities to meet user-defined power demand. This work introduces and demonstrates demand-driven deployment capabilities in Cyclus, a nuclear fuel cycle simulator. User-controlled capabilities such as supply buffers, facility preferences, prediction algorithms, and installed capacity deployment were introduced to give users tools to minimize power undersupply in a transition scenario simulation. We demonstrate `d3ploy`'s capability to predict future commodities' supply and demand, and automatically deploy fuel cycle facilities to meet the predicted demand. We use `d3ploy` to set up transition scenarios for promising nuclear fuel cycle options.

Keywords: nuclear fuel cycle, python, time series forecasting

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1. Introduction

Nuclear fuel cycle simulators are used to evaluate the impact of alternative nuclear fuel cycles at both high and low resolution. These simulators track the flow of materials through the nuclear fuel cycle, from enrichment to final disposal of the fuel, while also accounting for decay and transmutation of isotopes. By evaluating performance metrics of different fuel cycles, we gain an understanding of how each facility's parameters and technology choices impact the system's performance. Therefore, these results can be used to guide research efforts, advise future design choices, and provide decision-makers with a transparent tool for evaluating Fuel Cycle Options (FCO) to inform big-picture policy decisions [1].

Many fuel cycle simulators automatically deploy reactor facilities to meet a user-defined power demand. However, the user must define a deployment scheme of supporting facilities to avoid gaps in the supply chain resulting in idle reactor capacity. Current simulators require the user to set infinite capacity for supporting facilities but this inaccurately represents reality resulting in misrepresented results. Manually determining a deployment scheme for a once-through fuel cycle is straightforward, however, for complex fuel cycle scenarios, it is not. To ease setting up realistic nuclear fuel cycle simulations, a nuclear fuel cycle simulator must bring dynamic demand-responsive deployment decisions into the simulation logic [2]. Thus, a next-generation nuclear fuel cycle simulator must predictively and automatically deploy fuel cycle facilities to meet a user-defined power demand.

In Cyclus, an agent-based nuclear fuel cycle simulation framework [3], each entity (i.e. `Region`, `Institution`, or `Facility`) in the fuel cycle is an agent. `Region` agents represent geographical or political areas that `Institution` and `Facility` agents reside. `Institution` agents control the deployment and decommission of `Facility` agents and represent legal operating organizations such ass utilities, governments, etc. [3]. `Facility` agents represent nuclear fuel cycle facilities such as mines, conversion facilities, reactors, reprocessing facilities, etc.

CYCAMORE [4] provides basic `Region`, `Institution`, and `Facility` archetypes compatible with CYCLUS.

1.1. Context of Work

The impact of climate change on natural and human systems is increasingly apparent. The production and use of energy contribute to two-thirds of the total Green House Gas (GHG) emissions [5]. Furthermore, as the human population increases and previously under-developed nations urbanize rapidly, global energy demand is forecasted to increase. Power generation technology choices will heavily impact the effects of growing energy demand on climate change. Large scale nuclear power plant deployment has significant potential to reduce GHG production due nuclear energy's low carbon emissions [5].

However, large scale nuclear power deployment faces challenges of cost, safety, and used nuclear fuel [6]. Nuclear power has high capital costs, an unresolved long-term nuclear waste management strategy and perceived adverse safety, environmental, and health effects [6]. The nuclear power industry must overcome these challenges to ensure continued global use and expansion of nuclear energy technology.

The challenges described above are associated with the present once-through fuel cycle in the United States (US), in which fabricated nuclear fuel is used once and placed into storage to await disposal. An evaluation and screening study of a comprehensive set of nuclear fuel cycle options [7] was conducted to assess for promising Evaluation Groups (EGs) with performance improvements compared with the existing once-through fuel cycle (EG01) in the US across a wide range of criteria. Fuel cycles that involved continuous recycling of co-extracted U/Pu or U/TRU in fast spectrum critical reactors consistently scored high on overall performance. Table 1 describes these fuel cycles: EG23, EG24, EG29, and EG30.

The evaluation and screening study assumed the nuclear energy systems were at equilibrium to understand the end-state benefits of each EG [8]. In the current work, our goal is to model the transition from the initial EG01 state to these promising future end-states without assuming equilibrium fuel cycles. To

Fuel Cycle	Open or Closed	Fuel Type	Reactor Type
EG01 (current)	Open	Enriched-U	Thermal Critical
EG23	Closed	Recycled U/Pu + Natural-U	Fast Critical
EG24	Closed	Recycled U/TRU + Natural-U	Fast Critical
EG29	Closed	Recycled U/Pu + Natural-U	Fast Critical & Thermal Critical
EG30	Closed	Recycled U/TRU + Natural-U	Fast Critical & Thermal Critical

Table 1: Descriptions of the current and other high performing nuclear fuel cycle evaluation groups described in the evaluation and screening study [7].

successfully analyze time-dependent transition scenarios, the nuclear fuel cycle simulator tool must automate the transition scenario simulation setup. Therefore, the Demand-Driven Cycamore Archetypes project (NEUP-FY16-10512) was initiated to develop demand-driven deployment capabilities in Cyclus. This capability, `d3ploy`, is a Cyclus `Institution` agent that deploys facilities to meet user-defined power demand.

1.2. Novelty

We utilized time series forecasting methods to effectively predict future commodities' supply and demand in `d3ploy`. Solar and wind power generation commonly use these methods to make future predictions based on past time series data [9, 10, 11, 12]. Industrial supply chain management also use sophisticated time series forecasting techniques to predict demand for quantities of goods in the supply chain [13]. This is a novel approach that has never been applied to nuclear fuel cycle simulators.

1.3. Objectives

The main objectives of this paper are: (1) to describe the demand-driven deployment capabilities in Cyclus, (2) to describe the prediction methods

available in `d3ploy`, and (3) to demonstrate the use of `d3ploy` in setting up EG01-23, EG01-24, EG01-29, and EG01-30 transition scenarios with various power demand curves.

2. Methodology

In CYCLUS, developers have the option to design agents using C++ or Python. The `d3ploy Institution` agent was implemented in Python to enable the use of well-developed time series forecasting Python packages.

In a CYCLUS simulation, at every time step, `d3ploy` predicts the supply and demand of each commodity for the next time step. Commodities refer to materials in the nuclear fuel cycle such as reactor fuel. Upon undersupply for any commodity, `d3ploy` deploys facilities to meet its predicted demand. Therefore, if the simulation begins with user-defined power demand, `d3ploy` deploys reactors to meet power demand, followed by enrichment facilities to meet fuel demand, and so on, to create the supply chain. Based on the demand and supply trends of each commodity, `d3ploy` predicts their future demand and supply, and deploys facilities accordingly to meet the future demand to prevent demand from surpassing supply. Figure 1 shows the logical flow of `d3ploy` at every time step. In subsequent subsections, we describe how to set up a transition scenario using `d3ploy` and the input parameters `d3ploy` accepts.

`d3ploy` aims to minimize the undersupply of power:

$$obj = min \sum_{t=1}^{t_f} |D_{t,p} - S_{t,p}|. \tag{1}$$

where:

D = Demand

S = Supply

p = power

t_f = Number of time steps

M = Number of commmodities

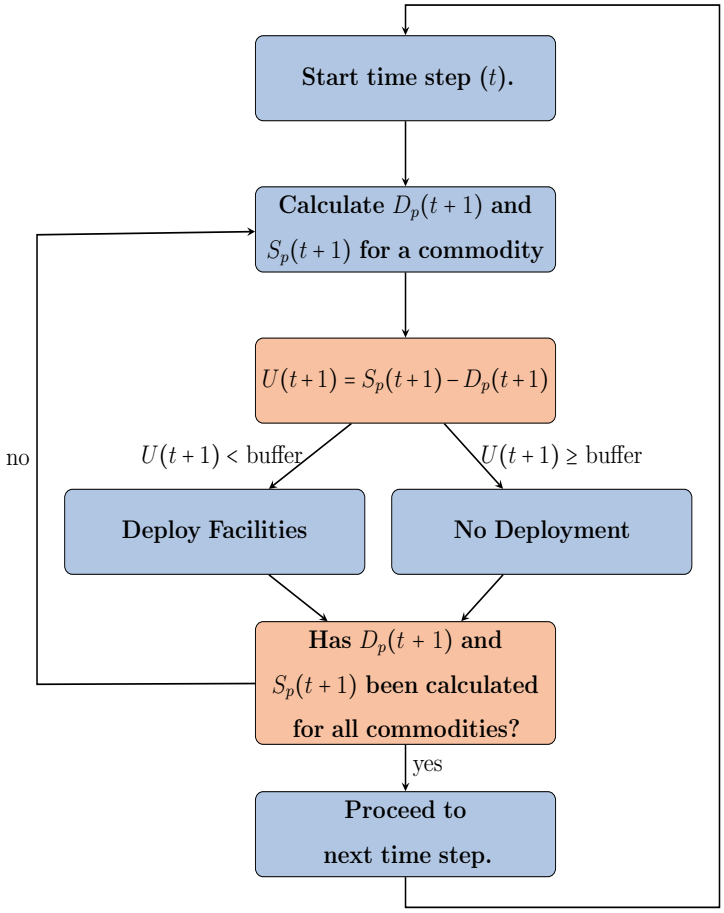


Figure 1: `d3ploy` logic flow at every time step in Cyclus [14].

The sub-objectives are to minimize the number of time steps of undersupply or under-capacity of any commodity:

$$obj = min \sum_{i=1}^{M} \sum_{t=1}^{t_f} |D_{t,i} - S_{t,i}|, \tag{2}$$

and to minimize excessive oversupply of all commodities:

$$obj = min \sum_{i=1}^{M} \sum_{t=1}^{t_f} |S_{t,i} - D_{t,i}|. \tag{3}$$

Minimizing excessive oversupply reflects reality in which utilities avoid undersupply of power on the grid by ensuring power plants are never short of fuel while avoiding expensive oversupply. Nuclear fuel cycle simulators often face power undersupplies due to lack of viable fuel, despite having sufficient installed reactor capacity. Using `d3ploy` to automate the deployment of supporting facilities prevents this.

2.1. Structure

In `d3ploy`, two distinct institutions control front-end and back-end fuel cycle facilities: `DemandDrivenDeploymentInst` and `SupplyDrivenDeploymentInst`, respectively. The reason for this distinction is that front-end facilities meet the demand for commodities they produce, whereas back-end facilities meet supply for the commodities they demand. For example, when a reactor facility demands fuel, `DemandDrivenDeploymentInst` deploys fuel fabrication facilities to create fuel supply. For back-end facilities, the reactor generates spent fuel, and `SupplyDrivenDeploymentInst` deploys waste storage facilities to create capacity to store the spent fuel. Figure 2 depicts a simple once-through fuel cycle and the `Institution` type governing each facility's deployment.

2.1.1. Deployment Driving Method

The user may deploy facilities based on the difference between predicted demand and predicted supply, *or* predicted demand and installed capacity. Using installed capacity instead of predicted supply has two advantages. First, to prevent over-deployment of facilities with an intermittent supply such as

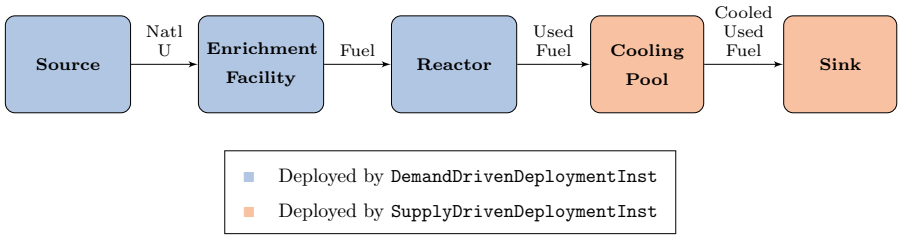


Figure 2: Simple once-through fuel cycle depicting which facilities are deployed by `DemandDrivenDeploymentInst` and `SupplyDrivenDeploymentInst`.

reactors that require refueling. If predicted supply is selected instead of installed capacity, `d3ploy` will deploy surplus reactors during refueling downtimes to meet the temporary power undersupply. Second, to prevent infinite deployment of a facility that demands a commodity no longer available in the simulation. For example, a reprocessing plant that fabricates Sodium-Cooled Fast Reactor (SFR) fuel might demand Pu after depletion of the existing Pu inventory and decommissioning of the LWR reactors that produce it, resulting in infinite deployment of reprocessing facilities in a futile attempt to produce SFR fuel.

2.2. Input Variables

Table 2 lists and gives examples of the input variables `d3ploy` accepts. The user must do the following: define the facilities in the simulation, their respective capacities, the demand driving commodity, its demand equation, the deployment driving method, and prediction method. The user also has the option to define supply/capacity buffers for individual commodities, facility preferences, and facility fleet shares. The subsequent sections describes the buffers, facility preferences, and prediction methods.

2.2.1. Supply/Capacity Buffer

In `DemandDrivenDeploymentInst`, the user has the option to specify a supply buffer for each commodity; `d3ploy` accounts for the buffer when calculating predicted demand and deploys facilities accordingly. In `SupplyDrivenDeployment`

	Input Parameter	Examples
Required	Demand driving commodity	Power
	Demand equation	P(t) = 10000, sin(t), 10000*t
	Facilities it controls	Fuel Fab, LWR reactor, Sink, etc.
	Capacities of the facilities	3000 kg, 1000 MW, 50000 kg
	Prediction method	Power: fast fourier transform Fuel: moving average Spent fuel: moving average
	Deployment driven by	Installed Capacity
Optional	Supply/Capacity Buffer type	Absolute
	Supply/Capacity Buffer size	Power: 3000 MW Fuel: 0 kg Spent fuel: 0 kg
	Facility preferences	LWR reactor = 100-t SFR reactor = t-99
	Fleet share percentage	MOX LWR = 85% SFR = 15%

Table 2: `d3ploy`'s required and optional input parameters with examples.

`Inst`, the user has the option to specify a capacity buffer for specific commodities; d3ploy accounts for the buffer when calculating predicted supply and deploys facilities accordingly. The buffer is defined as a percentage (equation 4) or absolute value (equation 5).

$$S_{pwb} = S_p(1 + d) \tag{4}$$

$$S_{pwb} = S_p + b \tag{5}$$

where:

S_{pwb} = predicted supply/capacity with buffer

S_p = predicted supply/capacity

d = percentage value in decimal form

b = absolute value of the buffer

For example, the user sets the power commodity's absolute supply buffer to be 2000 MW and predicted demand is 10000 MW, `d3ploy` deploys reactor facilities to meet the predicted demand and supply buffer, resulting in a power supply of:

$$\begin{aligned} S_{pwb} &= S_p + a \\ S_{pwb} &= 10000\text{MW} + 2000\text{MW} \\ &= 12000\text{MW} \end{aligned}$$

Using the buffer capability and installed capacity to drive facility deployment in a transition scenario simulation will effectively minimize undersupply of a commodity while avoiding excessive oversupply. This is demonstrated in Section 3.1.

2.3. Facility Preference and Fleet Share

The user has the option to give time-dependent preference equations to facilities' that supply the same commodity. If there are two reactor types, Light Water Reactors (LWRs) and Sodium-Cooled Fast Reactors (SFRs), in a simulation, the user can make use of time-dependent preferences to make the simulation deploy LWRs at earlier times in the simulation, and deploy SFRs at later times in the simulation when there is a power demand. In table 2, the LWR has a preference of $100 - t$, and the SFR has a preference of $t - 99$. t refers to the month timestep. At time step 1, LWR preference becomes 99, while SFR preference becomes -98; therefore a LWR is deployed if there is a commodity shortage. At time step 100, LWR preference becomes 0, while SFR preference becomes 1; therefore a SFR is deployed if there is a commodity shortage. Thus, the transition occurs at the 100^{th} time step.

The user also has the option to specify percentage-share for facilities that provide the same commodity. For example, if there are two reactor types, mixed oxide (MOX) LWRs and SFRs, in a simulation, the user can make use of percentage-share specifications to determine the percentage of power supplied by each reactor. When MOX LWR has a share of $s\%$ and SFR has a share of

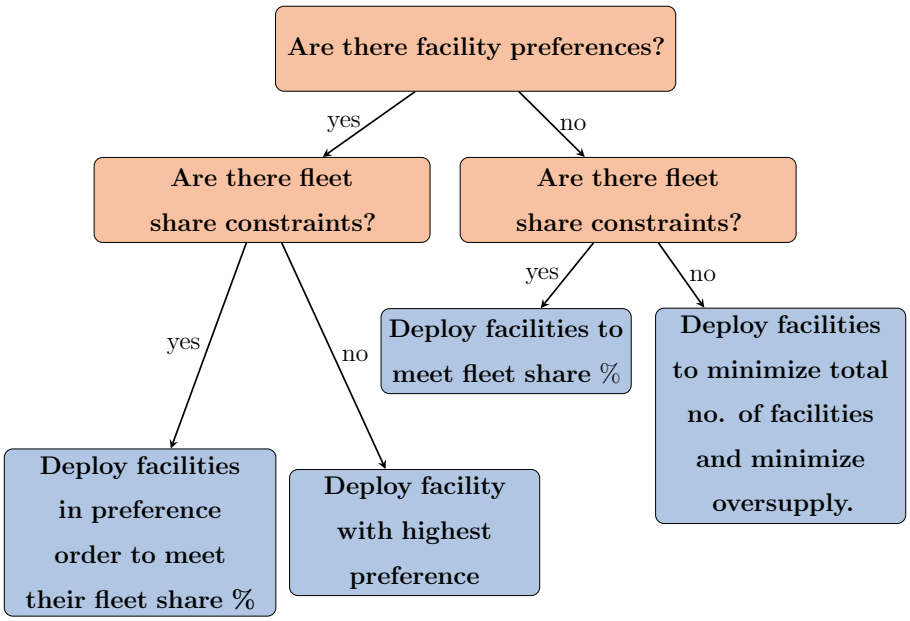


Figure 3: Logical flow of how `d3ploy` selects which facility to deploy when there are multiple facilities offering the same commodity.

$(100-s)\%$, MOX LWR deployment constrains to $s\%$ of total power demand and SFR deployment constrains to $(100-s)\%$ of total power demand.

The year the transition begins is selected by customizing facility preferences to begin preference for advanced reactors at a certain year, and the sharing capability determines the percentage share of each type of reactor to transition to. Therefore, when `d3ploy` predicts an undersupply of a commodity it deploys facilities in order of preference, starting at the highest and moving down if the facility percentage share is already met. If a facility type does not have any preferences, `d3ploy` deploys available facilities to minimize the number of deployed facilities and oversupply of the commodity.

Figure 3 shows the logical flow of how `d3ploy` selects which facility to deploy when there are multiple facilities offering the same commodity.

2.4. Prediction Methods

`d3ploy` records supply and demand values at each time step for all commodities to provide time-series data for `d3ploy`'s time series forecasting methods to predict future supply and demand for each commodity. The time series forecasting methods investigated include non-optimizing, deterministic-optimizing, and stochastic-optimizing methods. Non-optimizing methods are techniques that harness simple moving average and autoregression concepts which use historical data to infer future supply and demand values. Deterministic-optimizing and stochastic-optimizing methods are techniques that use an assortment of more sophisticated time series forecasting concepts to predict future supply and demand values. Deterministic-optimizing methods give deterministic solutions, while stochastic-optimizing methods give stochastic solutions.

Depending on the scenario in question, each forecasting method offers distinct benefits and disadvantages. The various methods are compared for each type of simulation to determine the most effective prediction method for a given scenario. The following sections describe the prediction methods.

2.4.1. Non-Optimizing Methods

Non-optimizing methods include: Moving Average (`MA`), Autoregressive Moving Average (`ARMA`), and Autoregressive Heteroskedasticity (`ARCH`). The `MA` method calculates the average of a user-defined number of previous entries in a commodity's time series and returns it as the predicted value (equation 6).

$$Predicted\ Value = \frac{V_1 + V_2 + ... + V_n}{n} \tag{6}$$

where:

$$\begin{aligned} V &= \text{Time series value} \\ n &= \text{length of timeseries} \end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

The `ARMA` method combines moving average and autoregressive models (equation 8). The first term is a constant, second term is white noise, the third term is the autoregressive model, and the fourth term is the moving average model. The `ARMA` method is more accurate than the `MA` method because of the inclusion of the autoregressive term.

$$X_t = c + \epsilon_t + \sum_{i=1}^{p} \varphi_i X_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{q} \theta_i \epsilon_{t-i} \tag{8}$$

where:

$$\begin{aligned} c &= \text{constant} \\ \varphi &= \text{parameters} \\ \epsilon_t &= \text{white noise} \\ p &= \text{equation order} \end{aligned} \tag{9}$$

The `ARCH` method modifies the original moving average term (described in equation 8). This modification makes the `ARCH` method better than the `ARMA` method for volatile time-series data [15]. The StatsModels [16] Python package is used to implement `ARMA` and `ARCH` methods in `d3ploy`.

2.4.2. Deterministic-Optimizing Methods

Deterministic methods include Fast Fourier Transform (`FFT`), Polynomial Fit (`POLY`), Exponential Smoothing (`EXP-SMOOTHING`), and Triple Exponential Smoothing (`HOLT-WINTERS`). The `FFT` method computes the discrete Fourier transform of the time series to predict future demand and supply values (equation 10). This method is implemented in `d3ploy` using the SciPy [17] Python package.

$$X_k = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x_n e^{-i 2\pi k n / N} \tag{10}$$

where:

$$k = 0, ..., N - 1$$

$$N = \text{No. of data points}$$

The `POLY` method models the time series data with a user-defined nth degree polynomial to determine future demand and supply values. This method was implemented in `d3ploy` using the NumPy [18] Python package. The `EXP-SMOOTHING` and `HOLT-WINTERS` methods use a weighted average of time-series data with exponentially decaying weights for older time series values [19] to create a model to determine future demand and supply values. The `EXP-SMOOTHING` method excels in modeling univariate time series data without trend or seasonality, whereas the `HOLT-WINTERS` method applies exponential smoothing three times, resulting in higher accuracy when modeling seasonal time series data. The StatsModels [16] Python package was used to implement both of these methods in `d3ploy`.

2.5. Stochastic-Optimizing Methods

There is one stochastic-optimizing method: step-wise seasonal method (`SW-SEASONAL`). The method was implemented in `d3ploy` by the auto Auto-Regressive Integrated Moving Averages (ARIMA) method in the pmdarima [20] Python package. The ARIMA model is a generalization of the Autoregressive Moving Average (ARMA) model to make the model fit the time series data better.

3. Results

To demonstrate `d3ploy`'s capability conduct transition scenario analysis effectively and meet the objectives described in section 1.3, this section (1) demonstrates `d3ploy`'s capability in simple transition scenarios, (2) compares the use of different prediction methods in EG01-EG23, EG01-EG24, EG01-EG29, and EG01-EG30 transition scenarios, and (3) demonstrates successful `d3ploy` setup of EG01-EG23, EG01-EG24, EG01-EG29, and EG01-EG30 transition

	Input Parameters	Simple Transition Scenario
Required	Demand driving commodity	Power
	Demand equation [MW]	$t < 40 = 1000, t \geq 40 = 1000 + 250t$
	Available facilities	`Source`, `Reactor`, `Sink`
	Prediction method	`FFT`
	Deployment driving method	Installed Capacity
Optional	Buffer type	Absolute
	Buffer size	Power: 2000MW, Fuel: 1000kg

Table 3: `d3ploy`'s input parameters for the simple transition scenario with linearly increasing power demand.

scenarios. The input files and scripts to reproduce the results and plots in this paper are found in [21] and [22].

3.1. Demonstration of `d3ploy`'s capabilities

We conducted a simple transition scenario simulation with linearly increasing power demand to demonstrate `d3ploy`'s capabilities and inform input parameter choices when setting up complex many-facility transition scenarios. This simulation only includes three facility types: `source`, `reactor`, and `sink`. The simulation begins with ten `reactor` facilities (`reactor1` to `reactor10`). These reactors have staggered cycle lengths and lifetimes to prevent simultaneous refueling and setup gradual decommissioning. `d3ploy` deploys `new reactor` facilities to fill power supply gap created when the initial `reactor` facilities decommision. Table 3 shows the `d3ploy` input parameters for this simulation.

Figures 4, 5a, and 5b demonstrate `d3ploy`'s capability to deploy reactor and supporting facilities to minimize undersupply when meeting linearly increasing power demand and subsequent secondary commodities demand. In Figure 4 there exists no time steps in which the supply of power falls under demand, meeting the main objective of `d3ploy`. By using a combination of the `FFT` method for predicting demand and a power supply buffer of 2000MW (the

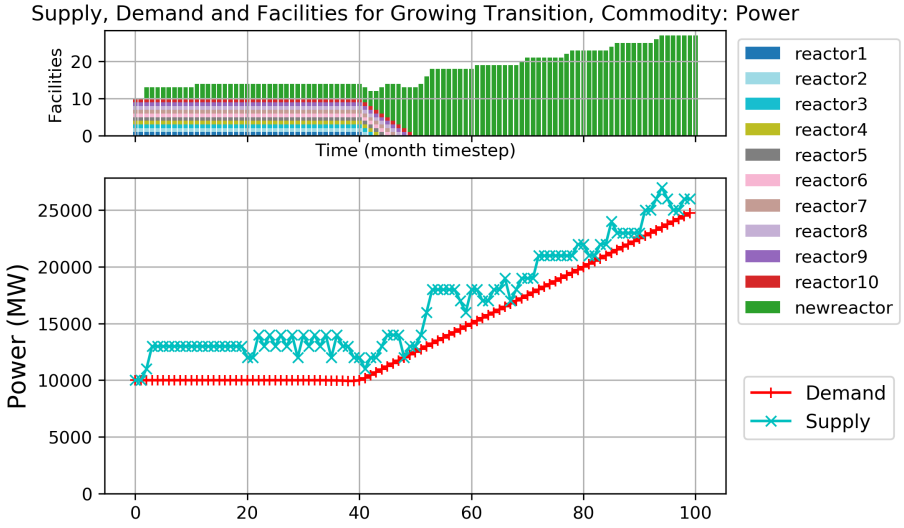
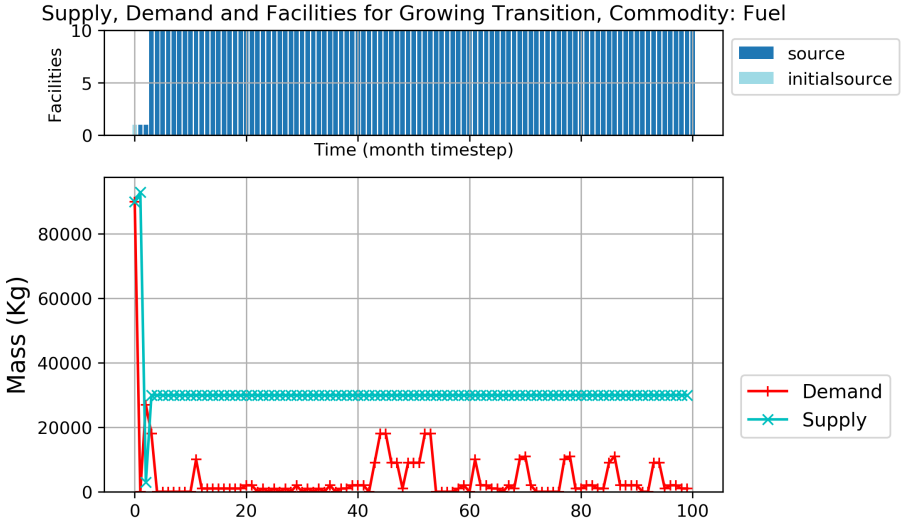


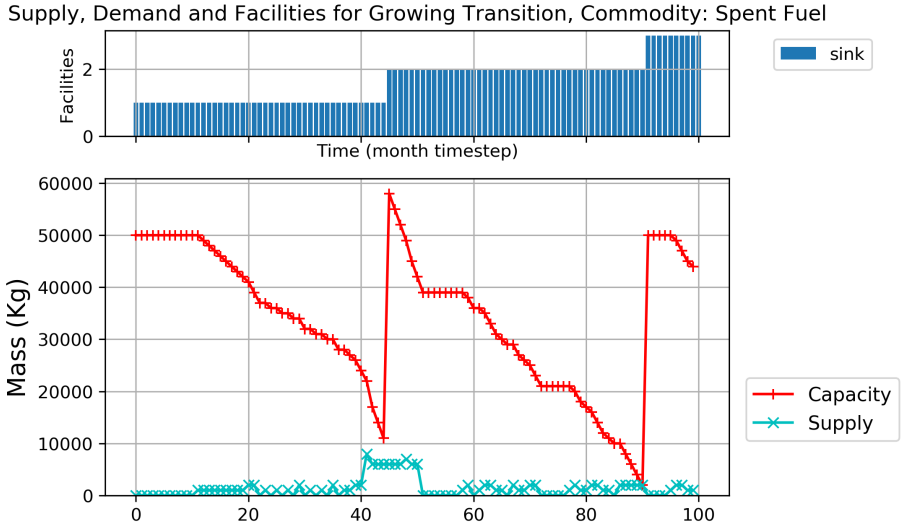
Figure 4: Power demand and supply, and reactor facility deployment plot for a simple linearly increasing power demand transition scenario with three facility types: `source`, `reactor`, and `sink`. Power demand is a user-defined equation and power is supplied by the reactors. Power undersupply was avoided entirely.

capacity of 2 reactors), we minimized the number of undersupplied time steps for every commodity.

In figure 5a, a large-throughput source facility is initially deployed to meet the large initial fuel demand for the commissioning of ten reactors. By having a large-throughput source facility exist for the first few time steps, `d3ploy` does not deploy supporting facilities that become redundant at later times in the simulation. This reflects reality in which reactor manufacturers accumulate an appropriate amount of fuel inventory before starting up reactors. There is one time step in which a power undersupply exists after the decommissioning of the large initial facility; this is unavoidable as the prediction methods in `d3ploy` are unable to foresee this sudden drop in demand.



(a) Fuel demand and supply, and source facility deployment plot. Fuel is demanded by reactors and supplied by source facilities. There is only one time step with undersupply of fuel.



(b) Spent fuel demand and supply, and sink facility deployment plot. Spent Fuel is supplied by reactors and the capacity to store them is provided by sink facilities. There are no time steps with under-capacity of sink space.

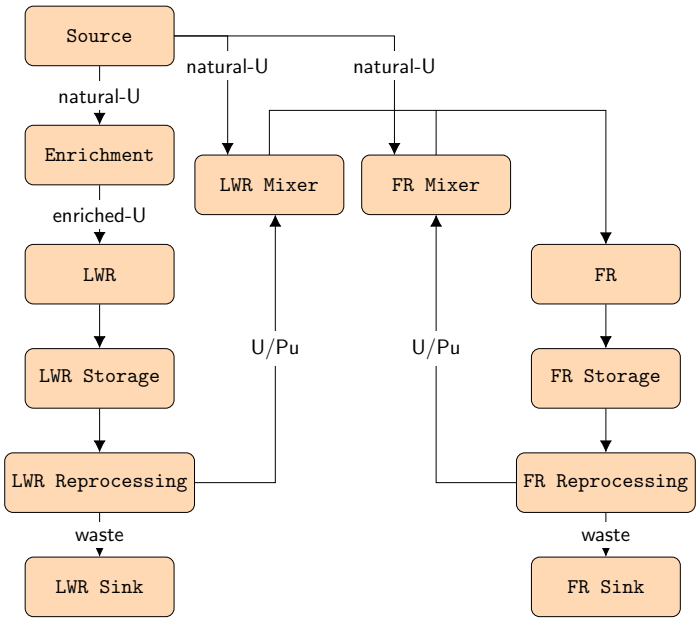
Figure 5: Simple linearly increasing power demand transition scenario with three facility types: `source`, `reactor`, and `sink`.

3.2. Comparison of Prediction Methods

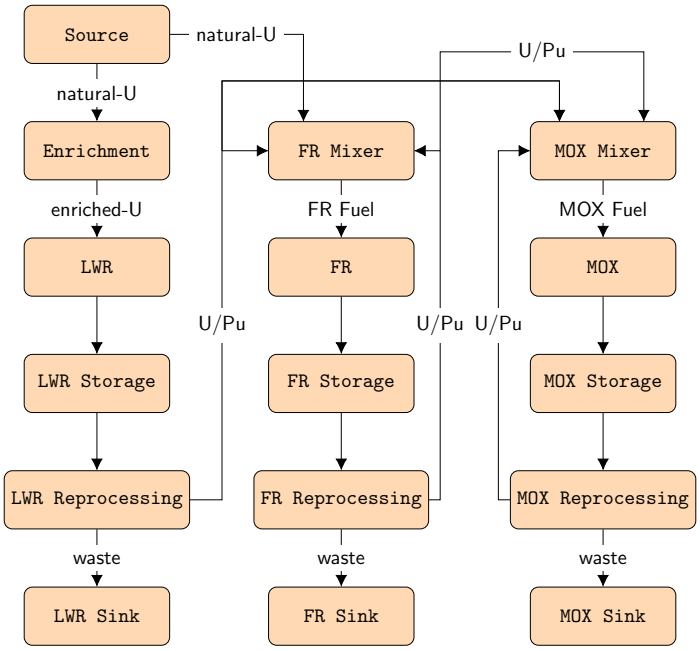
EG01-EG23, EG01-EG24, EG01-EG29, and EG01-EG30 transition scenarios are set up in Cyclus using `d3ploy`. EG01-23 and EG01-29 transition scenario simulations have a constant power demand, while EG01-24 and EG01-30 have a linearly increasing power demand. We identified the most effective d3ploy prediction method for each scenario by comparing the results of using each prediction method in each scenario. Similar to the simple transition scenario, these transition scenario simulations begin with an initial fleet of LWRs that start progressively decommissioning at the 80-year mark, after which `d3ploy` deploys SFRs and MOX LWRs to meet the power demand. Figure 6 shows the setup of facilities and mass flows for EG01-23 and EG01-29 in Cyclus. In EG01-23 and EG01-29, recycled plutonium from LWR spent fuel produces SFR fuel. EG01-24 and EG01-30 are similar to EG01-23 and EG01-29, respectively, with the exception that all transuranic elements are recycled.

In Figure 7, each histogram represents the number of time steps with undersupply or under capacity for all commodities for each prediction method. Table 7 shows the total number of time steps with power undersupply for constant power EG01-23 and EG01-29 transition scenarios and linearly increasing power EG01-24 and EG01-30 transition scenarios for each prediction method. Figure 7 demonstrates that the `POLY` method perform the best for the EG01-23 transition scenario, with the smallest bars on the plot, indicating that they have the fewest number of time steps with undersupply and under capacity of commodities. We conducted a similar analysis for the constant power EG01-29 scenario, and as seen in Table 7, the `POLY` prediction method also performed best for minimizing undersupply of power.

In Figure 8, each histogram represents the number of time steps with undersupply or under capacity for all commodities for each prediction method. Figure 8 demonstrates that the `FFT` method perform the best for the EG01-24 transition scenario. We conducted a similar analysis for the linearly increasing power EG01-30 scenario, and as seen in Table 7, the `FFT` prediction method also performed best for minimizing undersupply of power.



(a) EG01-EG23.



(b) EG01-EG29.

Figure 6: Facility and mass flow of the transition scenarios EG01-EG23 and EG01-EG29 in Cyclus.

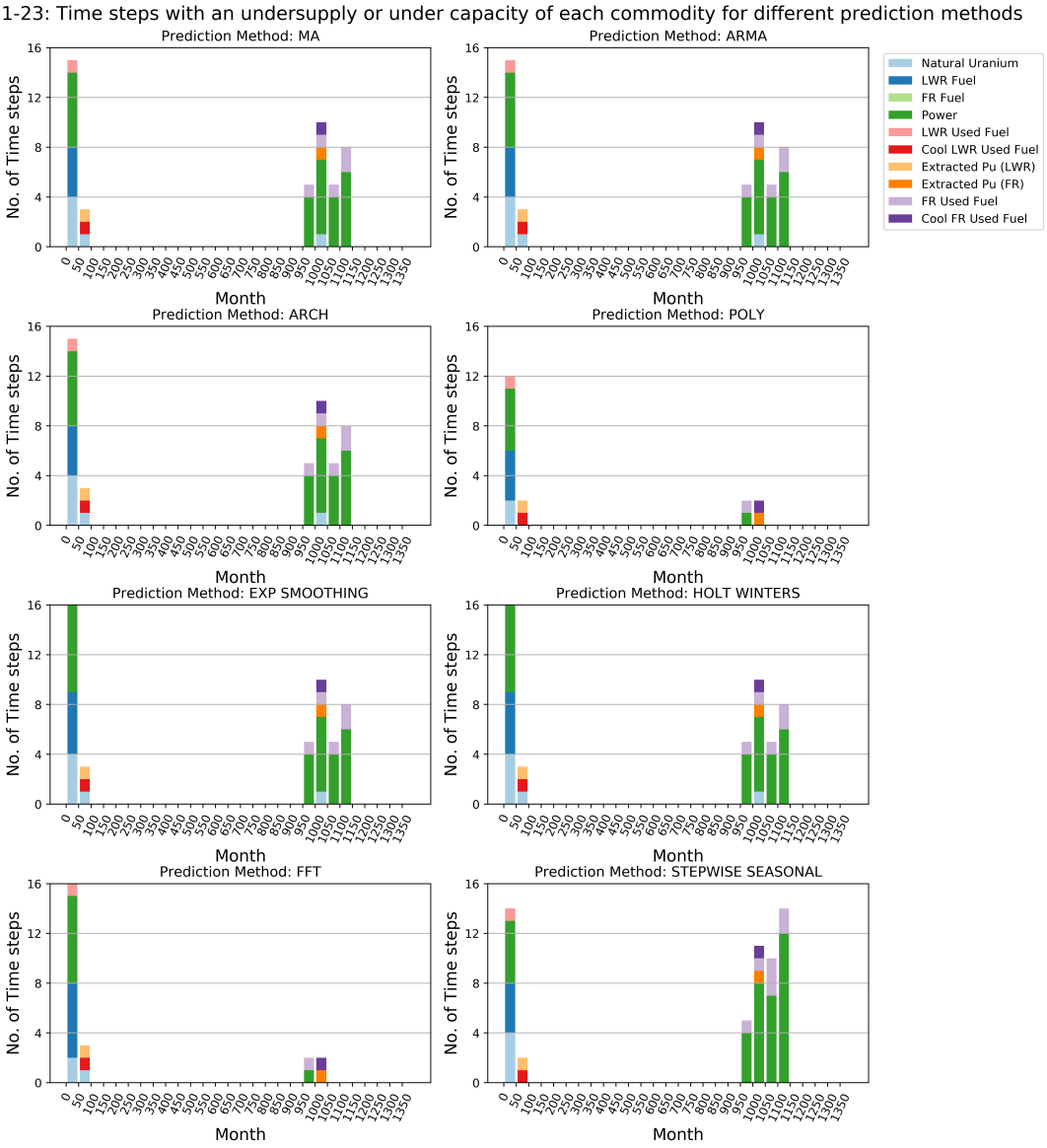


Figure 7: EG01-23 transition scenario with constant power demand. Each subplot shows the total number of time steps in which there exists undersupply and under capacity of commodities for each prediction method. The different colors represent different commodities. The `POLY` method performs the best, with the least number of time steps with undersupply and under capacity.

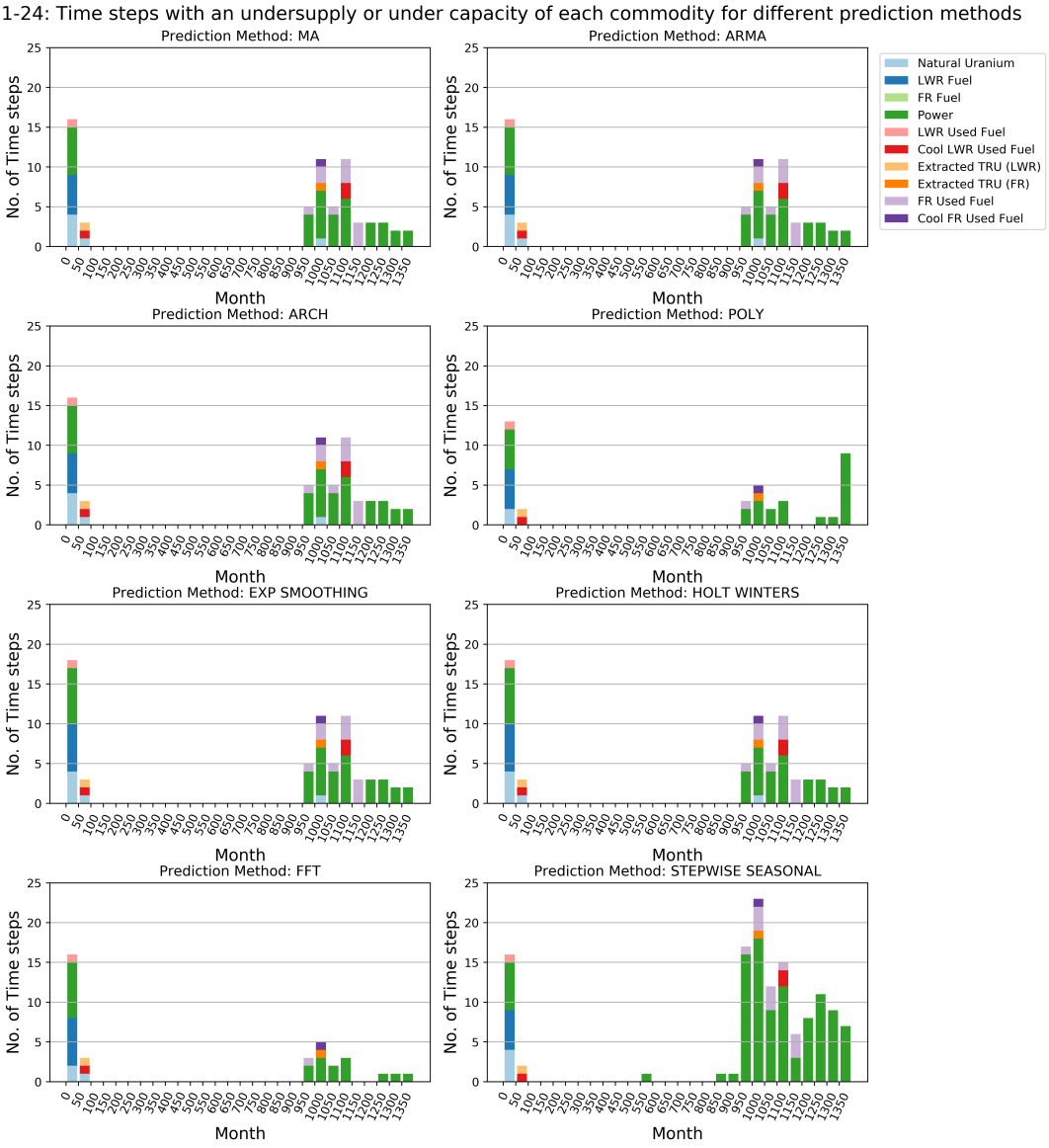


Figure 8: EG01-24 transition scenario with linearly increasing power demand. Each subplot shows the total number of time steps in which there exists undersupply and under capacity of commodities for each prediction method. The different colors represent different commodities. The `FFT` method performs the best, with the least number of time steps with undersupply and under capacity.

No. of Time Steps with Power Undersupply for Each Transition Scenario				
Algorithm	**EG01-EG23**	**EG01-EG24**	**EG01-EG29**	**EG01-EG30**
`MA`	26	36	15	24
`ARMA`	26	36	15	24
`ARCH`	26	36	15	21
`POLY`	6	65	4	9
`EXP-SMOOTHING`	27	37	16	25
`HOLT-WINTERS`	27	37	16	25
`FFT`	8	20	5	9
`SW-SEASONAL`	36	107	14	51

Table 4: Total number of time steps with undersupply of power for the EG01-EG23, EG01-24, EG01-29, EG01-30 transition scenarios for different prediction methods.

Figures 7, 8, and Table 7 show that the `POLY` method performs best for constant power transition scenarios, and the `FFT` method performs best for linearly increasing power transition scenarios. Undersupply and under-capacity of commodities occur during two main time periods: initial demand for the commodity and during the transition period. To further `d3ploy`'s primary objective of minimizing the power undersupply, sensitivity analysis of the power supply buffer is conducted with the best-performing prediction method for each transition scenario.

3.3. Sensitivity Analysis

We conducted a sensitivity analysis of the power buffer size for the EG01-EG23, EG01-24, EG01-29, and EG01-30 transition scenarios. Varying the power buffer size does not impact the number of undersupply time steps for the EG01-EG23 and EG01-EG29 constant power demand transition scenarios with the `POLY` prediction method. In Table 7, there are 6 and 4 time steps in which there is power undersupply for the EG01-EG23 and EG01-29 transition scenarios, respectively. As seen in figure 7, these undersupply time steps occur at the beginning of the simulation and for one time step when the transition

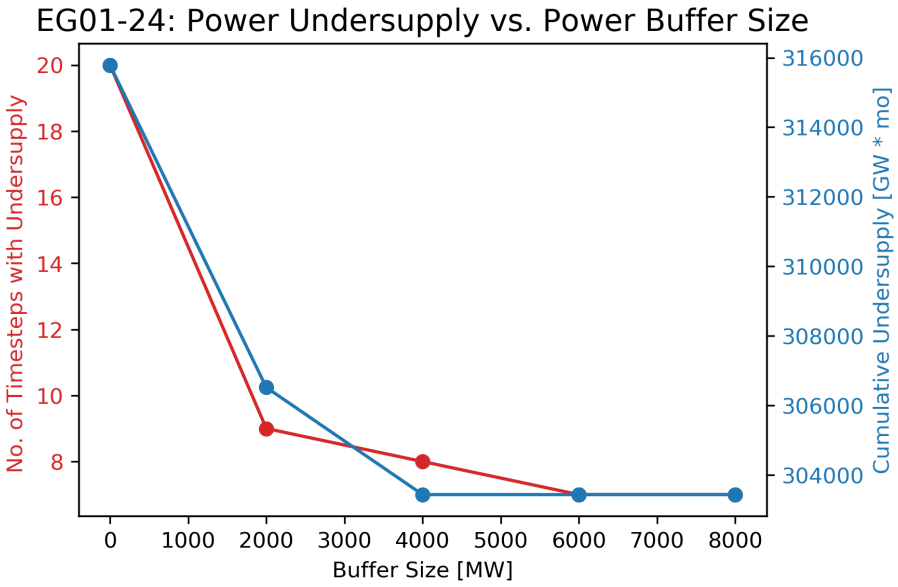
begins. We expected this since without time-series data at the beginning of the simulation, `d3ploy` takes a few time steps to collect time-series data about power demand to predict and start deploying reactor and supporting fuel cycle facilities. When the transition begins, power is undersupplied for one time step, following this, `d3ploy` accounts for the undersupply by deploying facilities to meet power demand. Therefore, we minimized the power undersupply for constant power EG01-EG23 and EG01-EG29 transition scenarios with a 0MW power supply buffer.

We varied the power buffer size for the EG01-24 and EG01-30 linearly increasing power demand transition scenarios. Figures 9a, 9b, and Table 5 show that increasing the buffer size increases the robustness of the supply chain by minimizing power undersupply. These undersupply time steps occur at the beginning of the simulation and for one time step when the transition begins. We expected this since without time-series data at the beginning of the simulation, `d3ploy` takes a few time steps to collect time-series data about power demand to predict and start deploying reactor and supporting fuel cycle facilities. Therefore, a buffer of 6000MW and 8000MW minimizes the power undersupply for EG01-EG24 and EG01-EG30, respectively.

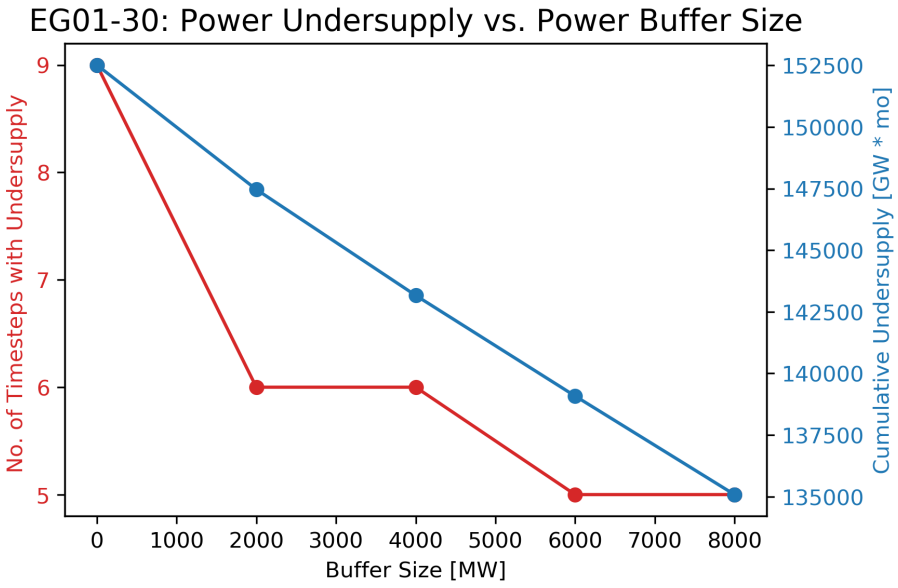
3.4. Best Performance Models

Table 6 shows the `d3ploy` input parameters for EG01-EG23, EG01-EG24, EG01-EG29, and EG01-EG30 transition scenarios that minimize the undersupply of power and undersupply and under-capacity of the other commodities in the simulation. The need for commodity supply buffers is a reflection of reality in which a supply buffer is usually maintained to ensure continuity in the event of an unexpected failure in the supply chain.

Figures 10 and 11 show time-dependent deployment of reactor and supporting facilities for the EG01-23 constant power demand and EG01-30 linearly increasing power demand transition scenarios, respectively. `d3ploy` automatically deploys reactor and supporting facilities to set up a supply chain to meet power demand during a transition from LWRs to SFRs for EG01-23, and from LWRs to MOX



(a) EG01-24: Power buffer size vs. cumulative undersupply



(b) EG01-30: Power buffer size vs. cumulative undersupply

Figure 9: The effect of sensitivity analysis of power buffer size on cumulative undersupply of power for EG01-EG24 and EG01-EG30 transition scenarios with linearly increasing power demand using the `FFT` prediction method.

Buffer [MW]	**Undersupply**	**EG01-24**	**EG01-30**
0	Time steps [#]	20	9
	Energy $[GW \cdot mo]$	315791	152517
2000	Undersupplied [#]	9	6
	Energy $[GW \cdot mo]$	306520	147166
4000	Time steps [#]	8	6
	Energy $[GW \cdot mo]$	303438	143166
6000	Time steps [#]	7	5
	Cumulative $[GW]$	303438	139083
8000	Time steps [#]	7	5
	Energy $[GW \cdot mo]$	303438	135083

Table 5: The effect of sensitivity analysis of power buffer size on cumulative undersupply of power for EG01-EG24 and EG01-EG30 transition scenarios with linearly increasing power demand using the `FFT` prediction method.

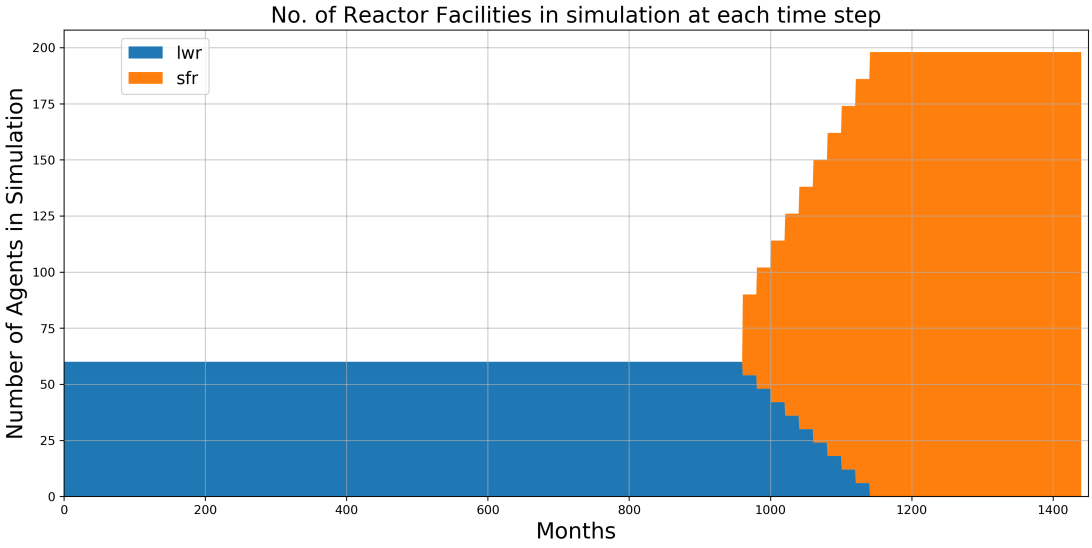
LWRs and SFRs for EG01-30. EG01-24 and EG01-29 facility deployment plots are similar to EG01-23 and EG01-30, respectively, therefore they are not shown.

Input Parameter	Simulation Description			
	EG01-23	**EG01-24**	**EG01-29**	**EG01-30**
Demand Driving Commodity	Power	Power	Power	Power
Demand Equation [MW]	60000	60000 +250t/12	60000	60000 +250t/12
Prediction Method	`POLY`	`FFT`	`POLY`	`FFT`
Deployment Driving Method	Installed Capacity	Installed Capacity	Installed Capacity	Installed Capacity
Fleet Share Percentage	MOX: 85% SFR: 15%	MOX: 85% SFR: 15%	MOX: 85% SFR: 15%	MOX :85% SFR: 15%
Buffer type	Absolute			
Power Buffer Size [MW]	0	6000	0	8000

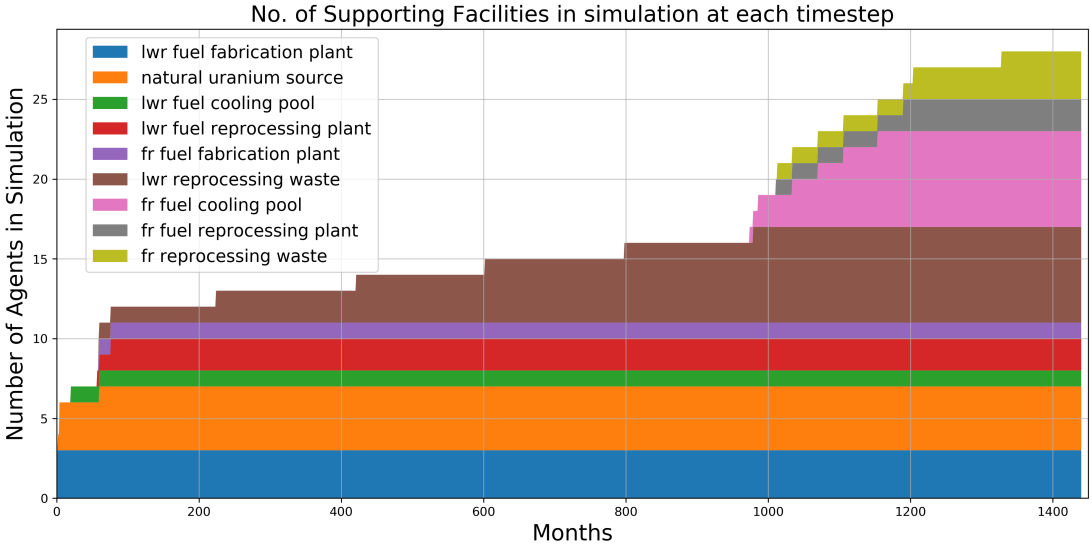
Table 6: `d3ploy`'s input parameters for EG01-EG23, EG01-EG24, EG01-EG29, and EG01-EG30 transition scenarios that minimizes undersupply of power and minimizes the undersupply and under-capacity of the other facilities.

	No. of Time Steps with Undersupply			
Transition Scenario	EG01-EG23	EG01-EG24	EG01-EG29	EG01-EG30
Commodities				
Natural Uranium	2	3	1	1
LWR Fuel	4	6	1	2
SFR Fuel	0	0	2	2
MOX LWR Fuel	-	-	2	2
Power	6	7	4	5
LWR Spent Fuel	1	1	1	1
SFR Spent Fuel	1	1	1	1
MOX LWR Spent Fuel	-	-	1	1

Table 7: Undersupply/capacity of key commodities for the best performing EG01-EG23,24,29,30 transition scenarios.

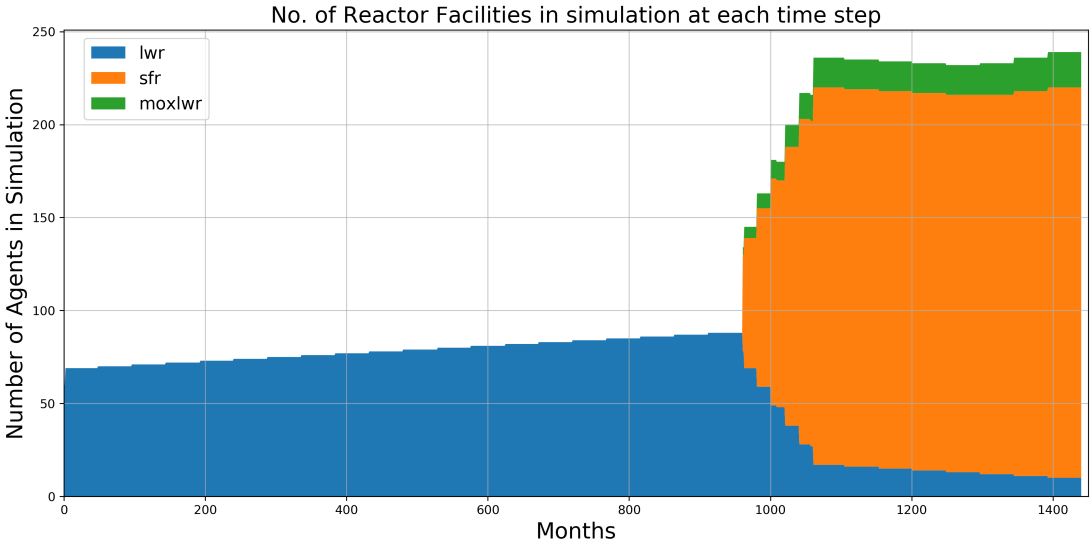


(a) EG01-23: Reactor Deployment

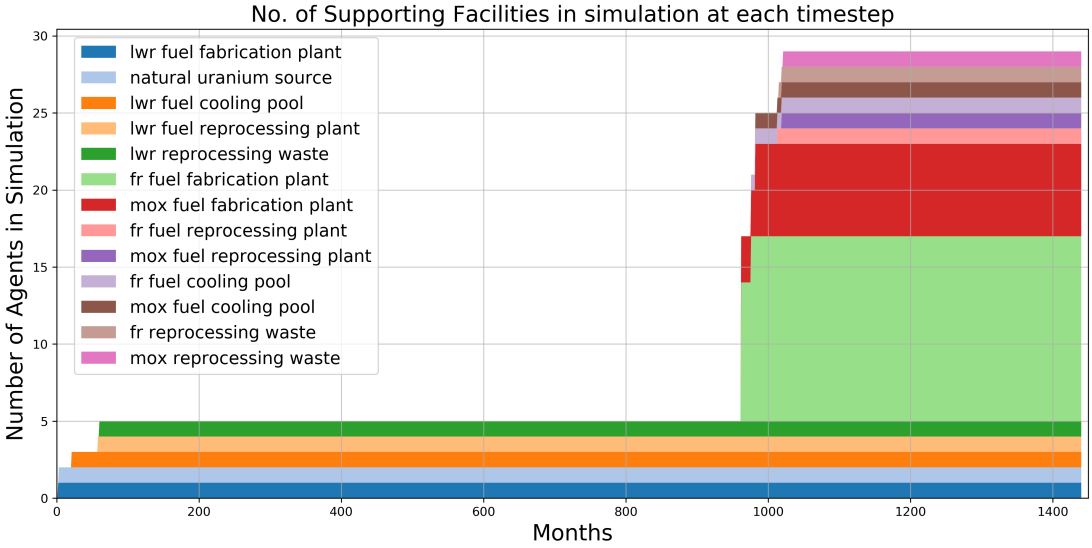


(b) EG01-23: Supporting Facility Deployment

Figure 10: Time dependent deployment of reactor and supporting facilities in the EG01-23 constant power demand transition scenario. `d3ploy` automatically deploys reactor and supporting facilities to setup a supply chain to meet constant power demand of 60000 MW during a transition from LWRs to SFRs.



(a) EG01-30: Reactor Deployment



(b) EG01-30: Supporting Facility Deployment

Figure 11: Time dependent deployment of reactor and supporting facilities in the EG01-30 linearly increasing power demand transition scenario. `d3ploy` automatically deploys reactor and supporting facilities to setup a supply chain to meet linearly increasing power demand of $60000 + 250t/12$ MW during a transition from LWRs to MOX LWRs and SFRs.

4. Conclusion

In this paper, we demonstrate that with careful selection of `d3ploy` parameters, we can effectively automate the setup of constant and linearly increasing power demand transition scenarios for EG01-23, EG01-24, EG01-29, and EG01-30 with minimal power undersupply. Using `d3ploy` to set up transition scenarios is more efficient than the previous efforts that required a user to manually calculate and use trial and error to set up the deployment scheme for the supporting fuel cycle facilities. Transition scenario simulations set up this way are sensitive to changes in the input parameters resulting in an arduous setup process since a slight change in one input parameter would result in the need to recalculate the deployment scheme to ensure no undersupply of power. Therefore, by automating this process, when the user varies input parameters in the simulation, `d3ploy` automatically adjusts the deployment scheme to meet the new constraints.

5. Future Work

We simulate transition scenarios to predict the future; however, when implemented in the real world, the transition scenario tend to deviate from the optimal scenario. Therefore, Nuclear Fuel Cycle (NFC) simulators must be used to conduct sensitivity analysis studies to understand the subtleties of a transition scenario better to reliably inform policy decisions. Previously it was difficult to conduct sensitivity analysis with Cyclus as users have to manually calculate the deployment scheme for a single change in an input parameter. By using the `d3ploy` capability, sensitivity analysis studies are more efficiently conducted to determine how variation in different input parameters impact the progress and final state of a transition scenario.

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