Super prompt critical operations

 $Reactor\ pulse$

By

GUILLAUME L'HER



Department of Nuclear Engineering COLORADO SCHOOL OF MINES

A report submitted for the Nuclear Reactor Laboratory class at the Colorado School of Mines.

OCTOBER 19, 2016

ABSTRACT

hen the positive reactivity added to a critical core is equal to the effective delayed neutron franction, β_{eff} , prompt criticality is achieved. That corresponds to a positive reactivity of 1\$. Super prompt critical states arise when the reactivity insertion is above this one dollar limit. Essentially, in this state of operation, the delayed neutrons do not control the reactor period, and the power grows exponentially.

TRIGA reactors such as the GSTR are able to withstand this power excursion by design, due to the decrease in the thermal non-leakage probability caused by the fuel temperature effect. From pulsing, it is possible to compute the prompt neutron lifetime, the negative temperature coefficient and the specific heat of the core. The Fuchs-Nordheim model approximation will be tested against the experimental values obtained.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

			Page
Li	st of	Tables	iii
Li	st of	Figures	iv
1	The	ory	1
	1.1	Super prompt criticality	. 1
	1.2	Fuchs-Nordheim model	. 2
	1.3	Procedure	. 3
2	Res	ults	5
	2.1	Results	. 5
	2.2	Uncertainties	. 7
3	Con	clusion	9
A	Det	ailed data tables	11
Bi	bliog	raphy	15

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE		Page	
2.1	Neutron lifetime for various prompt reactivity insertion	. 5	
2.2	Negative temperature coefficient for various prompt reactivity insertion	. 6	
2.3	Specific heat of the core for various prompt reactivity insertion	. 7	
A.1	My caption	. 11	

LIST OF FIGURES

Fig	FIGURE		
2.1	Pulses of the GSTR		6
2.2	Negative temperature coefficient vs temperature		7
A.1	Pulse energy as a function of the prompt reactivity inserted		12
A.2	Pulse FWHM as a function of the prompt reactivity inserted		12
A .3	Fuel temperature as a function of the prompt reactivity inserted		13
A.4	Pulse period as a function of the prompt reactivity inserted		13

CHAPTER

THEORY

hen the positive reactivity added to a critical core is equal to the effective delayed neutron franction, β_{eff} , prompt criticality is achieved. That corresponds to a positive reactivity of 1\$. Super prompt critical states arise when the reactivity insertion is above this one dollar limit. Essentially, in this state of operation, the delayed neutrons do not control the reactor period, and the power grows exponentially.

TRIGA reactors such as the GSTR are able to withstand this power excursion by design, due to the decrease in the thermal non-leakage probability caused by the fuel temperature effect. From pulsing, it is possible to compute the prompt neutron lifetime, the negative temperature coefficient and the specific heat of the core. The Fuchs-Nordheim model approximation will be tested against the experimental values obtained.

1.1 Super prompt criticality

TRIGA reactors have a particular fuel design in which a fuel temperature increase causes a negative feedback loop, causing the reactivity to decrease by modifying the thermal non-leakage probability. This is what allows this reactor design to pulse, as opposed to the power reactors, where power generation infers that the fuel high temperature cannot be designed to have such a high negative reactivity feedback.

However, even though a voluntary pulse is not possible in a power reactor, it can happen in a specific accident, rod ejection. In that case, one control rod is ejected suddenly from the core, causing this pulse and damaging the fuel cladding of the neighboring fuel elements.

1.2 Fuchs-Nordheim model

The Fuchs-Nordheim model describes the time behavior of a reactor with a large prompt negative temperature coefficient, the case of the GSTR, when there is a sudden insertion of a large amount of positive reactivity. This model is based on two primary assumptions about the reactor behavior during the pulse, namely that the delayed neutrons can be neglected and that all heat generated remains in the fuel. Those assumptions can be intuitively considered pretty good considering the timescale of a pulse, of the order of tens to hundreds of milliseconds.

The model relates parameters of flux, reactivity, temperature change and energy released. In the following, we will consider the notations given below:

l = Prompt neutron lifetime

 α = Prompt negative temperature coefficient

C = Total heat capacity of the core available to the prompt burst energy release

 $\Delta \bar{T}$ = the change in average core temperature produced by the prompt burst

 Δk_p = The portion of the step reactivity insertion which is above prompt critical.

If an insertion of reactivity is made, the reactor power will initially increase as $e^{\frac{t}{\tau}}$, where τ is the period and t the time.

(1.1)
$$\tau = \frac{l}{\Delta k_p}$$

(1.2)
$$\Delta k_p = (p\$ - 1) * \beta_{eff}$$

Using the assumption of constant heat capacity and adiabatic conditions, we can obtain that the reactor temperature will rise by $\frac{\Delta k_p}{lt}$ until the reactivity insertion beyond prompt critical is just compensated by the fuel temperature rise. The reactor power peaks at this time and then falls while the core temperature continues to increase to a maximum value double the temperature at peak power.

(1.3)
$$\Delta \bar{T} = \frac{2\Delta k_p}{\alpha} = \frac{E}{C}$$

The total energy release during the pulse is given by:

(1.4)
$$E = \frac{2C\Delta k_p}{\alpha}$$

The peak power is:

$$(1.5) P_{max} = \frac{C(\Delta k_p)^2}{2l\alpha} + P_0$$

However, we have that $P_0 \ll P_{max}$, so the initial power value can be neglected.

From the equations derived above, we can say that the energy release from a pulse vary linearly with the prompt reactivity insertion, and the peak power vary as the second power of the prompt reactivity insertion. Both the energy release and the peak power depend on the specific heat of the core C.

Moreover, the full width at half maximum can be linked to the prompt reactivity insertion:

(1.6)
$$FWHM = \frac{4l\cosh^{-1}(\sqrt{(2)})}{\Delta k_D}$$

From equation 1.6, one can deduce the prompt neutron lifetime:

$$(1.7) l = \frac{FMWH * \Delta k_p}{4\cosh^{-1}(\sqrt{(2)})}$$

The negative temperature coefficient and the specific heat of the core can be approximated for the TRIGA fuel by:

(1.8)
$$\alpha = 11 * 10^{-5} + 8 * 10^{-8} (\bar{T} - T_{ini})$$

(1.9)
$$C_p = (740 + 1.48(\bar{T} - T_{ini})) * N$$

N = Number of fuel elements in the core (125)

Those approximations will be compared to the measurements made in the results section.

1.3 Procedure

In order to pulse the reactor, it must first be in a critical state. At that point, the transient rod is pneumatically withdrawn from the core, in a very short time span. As soon as the rod extraction caused a positive reactivity insertion higher than a dollar, the reactor enters the super prompt critical state and the power increases extremely quickly to a high value. In a TRIGA reactor, the fuel temperature negative reactivity feedback then kicks in and counteracts the reactivity insertion from the rod withdrawal.

The final steady state depends on the reactivity insertion and the fuel itself (its heat transfer characteristics notably). If no action is performed after the pulse, the reactor would stabilize at a power depending on the initial value. A rule of thumb states that you need 0.25 cents of reactivity per kW. Hence, a pulse of \$2.50 would, without a SCRAM, stabilize the power at 1000 kW. However, that is true considering a low initial power. Had the initial power been higher, the steady state of the reactor would stabilize at higher power, exceeding the license limits.

Consequently, before pulsing the reactor, the automatic SCRAM on high power needs to be checked. The pulse rod should drop within a seconds of its extraction, and the other three control rods after 15 seconds. In order to do so, it is possible to simulate a high power peak by sending a current to the NPP1000 detector. Due to the high power increase, it is also important to monitor the fuel temperature, to make sure the fuel cladding doesn't suffer any unexpected stress.

Once the checks are done, the pulses can be initiated by putting the reactor in a stable critical state. Using the transient rod calibration curve, it is possible to obtain the desired height to be extracted from the core to generate a given pulse reactivity insertion. The results, mainly the power readings, are then automatically computed by the control computer and can be analyzed.

RESULTS

n this section, the prompt neutron lifetime, the negative temperature coefficient and the specific heat of the core will be measured and compared to the approximate values usually used. The results are based on the data given by the computer for the power as a function of time and the fuel temperature.

2.1 Results

The higher the prompt reactivity inserted, the higher the peak power and the thinner its distribution. Figure 2.1 shows the pulse for various insertion of positive reactivity, with a maximum peak power obtained of 1.2 GW.

The neutron lifetime is computed by using the full-width at half maximum values, obtained from the data. Table 2.1 gives the results for various prompt criticality insertion values. The approximate value used is $38 \, \mu s$, which seems correct for low prompt reactivity insertion, and thus for critical states. However, the higher the prompt reactivity insertion, the higher the neutron lifetime observed.

Prompt reactivity insertion (\$)	Neutron lifetime $l(\mu s)$
1.5	39.98
1.75	44.28
2.0	45.99
2.3	49.30
2.3	48.55

Table 2.1: Neutron lifetime for various prompt reactivity insertion

The negative temperature coefficient can be computed from the average change in temperature

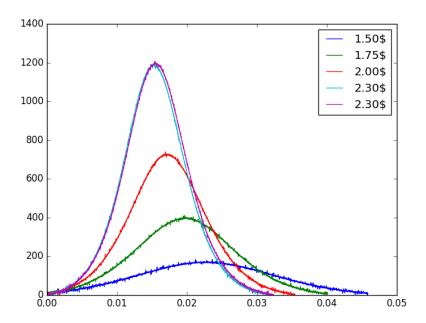


FIGURE 2.1. Pulses of the GSTR.

in the core and the prompt reactivity inserted. The average core temperature is obtained by approximation on the peak fuel temperature, considering a factor two between the peak factor and the average, hence a perfect temperature gradient in the core. The values obtained are presented in table 2.2, with an average of $9.3*10^{-5}$. This is quite far from the approximation from equation 1.8, with an error between 15 and 35%.

We can see on figure 2.2 that the negative temperature coefficient varies linearly with the average core temperature, with a \mathbb{R}^2 value of 0.998.

(2.1)
$$\alpha = 4.38 * 10^{-5} + 3.486 * 10^{-7} (\bar{T} - T_{ini})$$

Prompt reactivity insertion (\$)	Average ΔT (Celsius)	α (\$/Celsius)	Estimate
1.5	92.7	$7.5*10^{-5}$	$1.17*10^{-4}$
1.75	120.8	$8.7*10^{-5}$	$1.20*10^{-4}$
2.0	147.2	$9.5*10^{-5}$	$1.22*10^{-4}$
2.3	174.5	$1.0*10^{-4}$	$1.24*10^{-4}$
2.3	174.2	$1.0*10^{-4}$	$1.24*10^{-4}$

Table 2.2: Negative temperature coefficient for various prompt reactivity insertion

The specific heat of the core can also be measured for various prompt reactivity insertion following Fuchs-Nordheim model. Table 2.3 shows the results, with an error between 2 and 8%

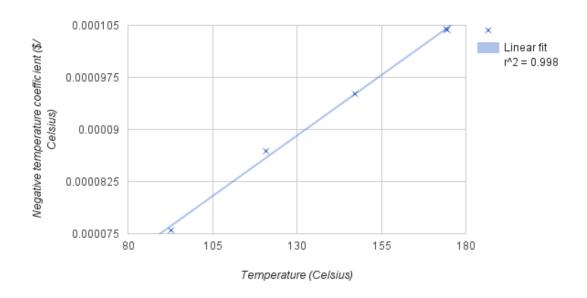


FIGURE 2.2. Negative temperature coefficient vs temperature.

between the measured value and the estimate, the measured value using the average negative temperature coefficient calculated previously.

Prompt reactivity insertion (\$)	Specific heat of the core $(W.s/Celsius)$	Estimate
1.5	112280	109657
1.75	123245	114855
2.0	129377	119724
2.3	133916	124774
2.3	131243	124731

Table 2.3: Specific heat of the core for various prompt reactivity insertion

It is possible to see on figures A.1 to A.4 that the experiments agrees with the trend predicted by the Fuchs-Nordheim model. Indeed, the fuel temperature and the pulse energy correlates linearly with the prompt reactivity insertion (respectively $R^2 = 0.998$ and $R^2 = 0.999$). Moreover, the inverse dependance of the FWHM and the pulse period with the prompt reactivity insertion is confirmed.

The peak power also clearly shows a second degree polynomial trend, on figure 2.1.

2.2 Uncertainties

CHAPTER

CONCLUSION

he project targeted by this report was to qualify the role of Xenon, a fission product neutron absorber, in the reactivity present in the core. In order to do so, the core was run at full power for a period of eight hours, allowing for Xenon buildup, though far from equilibrium concentration, and then shut down. During the shut down state, a Xenon buildup happens from the decay of Iodine. The goal is to detect the amount of antireactivity caused by the Xenon, and its evolution, when the reactor is started up again the next day.

This shows that the Xenon population indeed increases during the shutdown. Due to logistical reasons (time), the Xenon peak cannot be observed, and has to be inferred from theory. This gives an estimated maximum Xenon antireactivity of around 1.25\$ 15 hours after the initial startup, 7 hours after the shutdown. The antireactivity then decreases with the flux, considering that the GSTR has more than enough excess reactivity to overcome the presence of Xenon at the time of start-up the next day.

Had we tried to start up the reactor 7 hours after running it at full power for two days straight, it is likely that the core could not have gone critical.



DETAILED DATA TABLES

his appendix presents the raw data from the experiment in table A.1. It then explicits the various calulcation steps in table A.1.

Table A.1: My caption

Reactivity (\$)	FWHM (ms)	Pulse energy (MWs)	Pulse period (ms)	Fuel temperature peak (C)
2.3	9.80E+00	1.30E+01	2.88E+00	3.84E+02
2.3	9.95E+00	1.33E+01	2.93E+00	3.85E+02
2	1.21E+01	9.81E+00	3.55E+00	3.30E+02
1.75	1.55E+01	6.94E+00	4.56E+00	2.78E+02
1.5	2.10E+01	4.06E+00	6.17E+00	2.21E+02

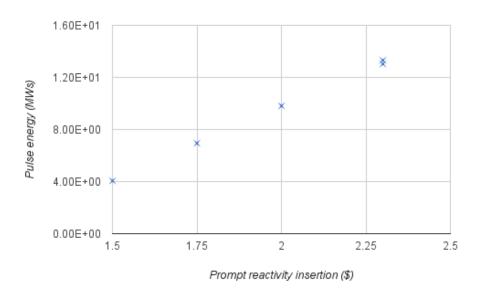


FIGURE A.1. Pulse energy as a function of the prompt reactivity inserted.

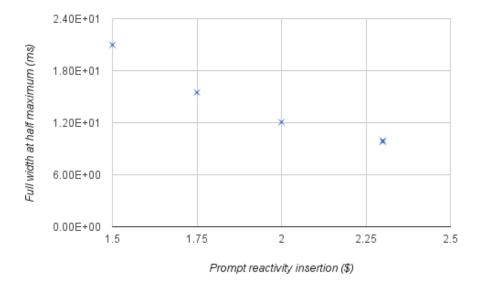
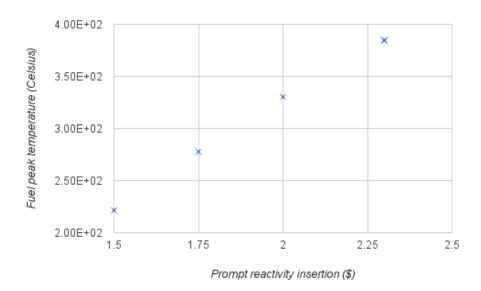


FIGURE A.2. Pulse FWHM as a function of the prompt reactivity inserted.



 $\label{Figure A.3.} Fuel \ temperature \ as \ a \ function \ of \ the \ prompt \ reactivity \ inserted.$

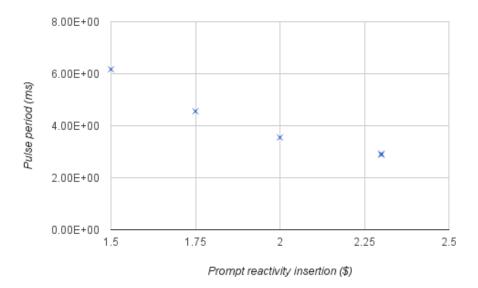


FIGURE A.4. Pulse period as a function of the prompt reactivity inserted.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

 $\cite{Mathematical Mathematical Section Poisoning of Section Proposed Pro$

Handouts.

Accessed: 2016-10-05.