

# Modelling dynamic processes in a nuclear reactor by state change modal method

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**Abstract.** Modelling of dynamic processes in nuclear reactors is carried out, mainly, on the basis of the multigroup diffusion approximation for the neutron flux. The basic model includes a multidimensional set of coupled parabolic equations and ordinary differential equations. Dynamic processes are modelled by a successive change of the reactor states, which are characterized by given coefficients of the equations. It is considered that the transition from one state to another occurs instantaneously. In the modal method the approximate solution is represented as eigenfunction expansion. The numerical-analytical method is based on the use of dominant time-eigenvalues of a multigroup diffusion model taking into account delayed neutrons.

## 1. Introduction

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## 2. Problem statement

The neutron flux is modelled in multigroup diffusion approximation. The neutron dynamics is considered in the bounded convex two-dimensional or three-dimensional area  $\Omega$  ( $\mathbf{x} = \{x_1, \dots, x_d\} \in \Omega$ ,  $d = 2, 3$ ) with boundary  $\partial\Omega$ . The neutron diffusion is described by:

$$\begin{aligned} V(t) \frac{d\phi}{dt} + (D(t) + S(t))\phi &= R(t)\phi + B(t)\mathbf{c}, \\ \frac{d\mathbf{c}}{dt} + \Lambda(t)\mathbf{c} &= Q(t)\phi. \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

Where vectors  $\phi = \{\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_G\}$ ,  $\mathbf{c} = \{c_1, c_2, \dots, c_M\}$  and matrices:

$$\begin{aligned} V &= (v_{gg'}), \quad v_{gg'} = \delta_{gg'} v_g^{-1}, \quad D = (d_{gg'}), \quad d_{gg'} = -\delta_{gg'} \nabla \cdot D_g \nabla, \\ S &= (s_{gg'}), \quad s_{gg'} = \delta_{gg'} \Sigma_g - \Sigma_{s,g' \rightarrow g}, \quad R = (r_{gg'}), \quad r_{gg'} = (1 - \beta) \chi_g \nu \Sigma_{fg'}, \\ B &= (b_{gm}), \quad b_{gm} = \tilde{\chi}_g \lambda_m, \quad \Lambda = (\lambda_{mm'}), \quad \lambda_{mm'} = \lambda_m \delta_{mm'}, \\ Q &= (q_{mg}), \quad q_{mg} = \beta_m \nu \Sigma_{fg}, \quad g, g' = 1, 2, \dots, G, \quad m, m' = 1, 2, \dots, M, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\delta_{gg'}$  is the Kronecker symbol. We shall use the set of vectors  $\phi$ , whose components satisfy the albedo boundary conditions:

$$D_g \frac{\partial \phi_g}{\partial n} + \gamma_g \phi_g = 0, \quad g = 1, 2, \dots, G, \quad (2)$$

where  $n$  — outer normal to the boundary  $\partial\Omega$ .

Here  $\phi_g(\mathbf{x}, t)$  — neutron flux of  $g$  group at point  $\mathbf{x}$  and time  $t$ ,  $G$  — number of energy groups,  $v_g$  — effective velocity of neutrons in the group  $g$ ,  $D_g(\mathbf{x})$  — diffusion coefficient,  $\Sigma_{rg}(\mathbf{x}, t)$  — removal cross-section,  $\Sigma_{s,g' \rightarrow g}(\mathbf{x}, t)$  — scattering cross-section from group  $g'$  to group  $g$ ,  $\beta$  — effective fraction of delayed neutrons,  $\chi_g$ ,  $\tilde{\chi}_g$  — spectra of prompt and delayed neutrons,  $\nu \Sigma_{fg}(\mathbf{x}, t)$  — generation cross-section of group  $g$ ,  $c_m$  — density of sources of delayed neutrons of  $m$ -type,  $\lambda_m$  — decay constant of sources of delayed neutrons,  $M$  — number of types of delayed neutrons, and  $\beta_m$  is a fraction of delayed neutrons of  $m$ -type:

$$\beta = \sum_{m=1}^M \beta_m.$$

The Cauchy problem is formulated for equations (1) when

$$\phi(0) = \phi^0, \quad \mathbf{c}(0) = \mathbf{c}^0, \quad (3)$$

where taken into account  $\phi^0 = \{\phi_1^0, \phi_2^0, \dots, \phi_G^0\}$ ,  $\mathbf{c}^0 = \{c_1^0, c_2^0, \dots, c_M^0\}$ .

## 3. State change modal method

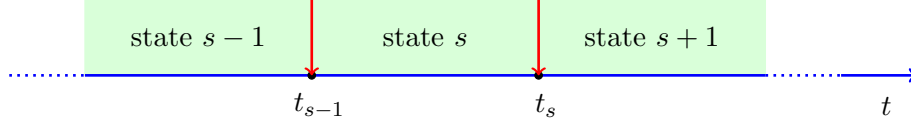
The nuclear reactor is always non-stationary. The limiting case of reaching a steady state (critical reactor) is observed only for certain coefficients of the equations system (1). We will use the following simplified description of the dynamic processes in a nuclear reactor.

In selected time interval, the non-stationary neutron flux is determined by the nuclear reactor state. The state of the reactor is characterized by the constant coefficients of the system of multigroup diffusion equations (1). Dynamic processes in a nuclear reactor can be considered as a change of states (see Fig.1). At a certain time  $t = t_s$ ,  $s = 1, 2, \dots$  an instantaneous change of state occurs. The state  $s$  is defined by the parameters in equations (1):

$$V(t) = V(t_s), \quad D(t) = D(t_s), \quad S(t) = S(t_s), \quad R(t) = R(t_s), \quad B(t) = B(t_s),$$

$$\Lambda(t) = \Lambda(t_s), \quad Q(t) = Q(t_s), \quad t_{s-1} < t \leq t_s, \quad s = 1, 2, \dots$$

Simulation of the dynamic behavior of the reactor consists in solving the sequence of subtasks for the individual states of the reactor. The initial condition for the state  $s$  (at  $t = t_{s-1}$ ) is the final state of the reactor for the state  $s - 1$ .



**Figure 1.** State change scheme.

An approximate description of the non-stationary process at a separate stage is based on modal approximation. An approximate solution is sought in the form of decomposition in eigenfunctions of time and  $\alpha$ -eigenvalue problem. Finite-element approximation in space is used.

Let's  $\mathbf{u} = \{\phi, \mathbf{c}\}$ . Rewrite the system of equations (1) as

$$\mathbf{B} \frac{d\mathbf{u}}{dt} + \mathbf{A}\mathbf{u} = 0, \quad t_{s-1} < t \leq t_s, \quad (4)$$

with constants

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} D(t_s) + S(t_s) - R(t_s) & -B(t_s) \\ -Q(t_s) & \Lambda(t_s) \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} V(t_s) & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{pmatrix},$$

where  $I$  is the identity matrix. Initial conditions:

$$\mathbf{u}(t_{s-1}) = \mathbf{u}^s. \quad (5)$$

After approximating over the space by the finite element method from (4), (5) we turn to the Cauchy problem for a linear system of ordinary differential equations with constant coefficients:

$$\mathbf{B}_h \frac{d\mathbf{u}_h}{dt} + \mathbf{A}_h \mathbf{u}_h = 0, \quad t_{s-1} < t \leq t_s, \quad (6)$$

$$\mathbf{u}_h(t_{s-1}) = \mathbf{u}_h^s, \quad (7)$$

where  $h$  is the discretization parameter. The main feature of the problems we are considering is that the matrices  $\mathbf{A}_h$  and  $\mathbf{B}_h$  are real and asymmetric.

The modal approximation corresponds to the representation of the approximate solution ( $\mathbf{u}_h \approx \mathbf{u}_N$ ) of problem (6), (7) in the following form

$$\mathbf{u}_N(\mathbf{x}, t) = \sum_{n=1}^N a_n(t) \mathbf{w}_n(\mathbf{x}), \quad (8)$$

where  $N$  is the number of dominant eigenvalues of the spectral problem,  $\mathbf{w}_n(\mathbf{x})$  — corresponding eigenfunctions.

Let us define eigenfunctions and eigenvalues as the solution of the  $\alpha$ -eigenvalue problem:

$$\mathbf{A}_h \mathbf{v} = \lambda \mathbf{B}_h \mathbf{v}. \quad (9)$$

In the general case, eigenfunctions and eigenvalues of the spectral problem (9) are complex. Taking into account the validity of the matrix coefficients  $\mathbf{A}_h$ ,  $\mathbf{B}_h$  complex eigenvalues appear as pairs of complex conjugate numbers. For example, we have a pair of  $n, n+1$ :

$$\lambda_{n+1} = \text{Re}\lambda_n - i\text{Im}\lambda_n.$$

Then in the representation (8) we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} a_n(t)\mathbf{w}_n(\mathbf{x}) &= b_n \text{Re}(\exp(-\lambda_n(t - t_{s-1}))\mathbf{v}_n(\mathbf{x})), \\ a_{n+1}(t)\mathbf{w}_{n+1}(\mathbf{x}) &= b_{n+1} \text{Im}(\exp(-\lambda_n(t - t_{s-1}))\mathbf{v}_n(\mathbf{x})). \end{aligned}$$

A special attention should be paid to define the coefficients  $a_n(t_{s-1}) = b_n$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots, N$ . For this, the initial condition (7) is involved. For example, in the case of real eigenvalues, we have

$$\mathbf{u}_h^s(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N_h} b_n \mathbf{v}_n(\mathbf{x}).$$

This representation is not very suitable for practical use with modal approximation, when we work only with dominant eigenfunctions.

The initial condition includes two components  $\mathbf{u}_h^s(\mathbf{x}) = (\phi_h^s(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{c}_h^s(\mathbf{x}))$ . Dynamic behaviour of these components is due to different time-scale processes. Delayed neutrons source determines slow processes, when  $\mathbf{c}(\mathbf{x}, t)$  changes slightly with the reactor state change. In contrast, neutron flux  $\phi(\mathbf{x}, t)$  determines fast processes when the reactor state changes. By virtue of this separation of dynamic processes, we model the slow phase of the dynamics of the reactor with modal approximation and orientate ourselves on the approximate prediction of the initial state for delayed neutrons, only the function  $\mathbf{c}_h^s(\mathbf{x})$  is approximated. The approximation  $\phi_h^s(\mathbf{x})$  is not of interest to us; we do not model a fast phase of the state change.

The standard approach for the decomposition of the function  $\mathbf{u}_h^s(\mathbf{x})$  over the system of non-orthogonal functions  $\mathbf{v}_n(\mathbf{x})$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots, N_h$  consists in using the biorthogonal system of functions [26, 9]. Consider the spectral problem adjoint to (9)

$$\mathbf{A}_h^T \tilde{\mathbf{v}} = \lambda \mathbf{B}_h^T \tilde{\mathbf{v}}. \quad (10)$$

The eigenfunctions of problems (9) and (10) are orthogonal [31, 40] in the sense of the equality

$$(\mathbf{B}_h \mathbf{v}_n, \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_m) = 0, \quad m \neq n, \quad m, n = 1, 2, \dots, N_h,$$

where  $(\cdot, \cdot)$  means corresponding scalar product. In view of this, one can obtain

$$b_n = \frac{1}{(\mathbf{B}_h \mathbf{v}_n, \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_n)} (\mathbf{u}_h^s, \mathbf{B}_h \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_n), \quad n = 1, 2, \dots, N_h. \quad (11)$$

With known solutions of the spectral problems (9), (10) the solution is represented in the form (8), (11).

In the approximate solution of problem (6), (7) only the first  $N$  coefficients  $b_n$  in (11) are used (see (8)):

$$\mathbf{c}_h^s(\mathbf{x}) \approx \sum_{n=1}^N b_n \mathbf{c}_n(\mathbf{x}), \quad (12)$$

where  $\mathbf{v}_n(\mathbf{x}) = (\phi_n(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{c}_n(\mathbf{x}))$ . In this case, the spectral problems (9), (10) are solved for  $N$  dominant eigenvalues. The solution of the adjoint spectral problem is involved only for calculating the initial condition coefficients.

The most favourable case – when we use single delayed neutron group —  $M = 1$  (see 2). In common case we have to rely on the second level to distinguish fast and slow processes. Delayed neutrons groups differ in their characteristic times, which depend on constants  $\lambda_m, m = 1, 2, \dots, M$  (see 2). At asymptotic stage the relatively slow processes prevail. It is due to the longest-lived delayed neutron precursor — the smallest  $\lambda_m, m = 1, 2, \dots, M$ . Other groups are not taken into account using the modal approach.

The state change modal method is based on the following calculating scheme.

**Off-line calculation.** Calculation of the coefficients of the mathematical model of the multigroup diffusion approximation for the isolated reactor states, which is performed in advance. The status passport also includes calculated dominant eigenvalues and eigenfunctions of the  $\alpha$ -eigenvalue problem (9). These data can be supplemented by dominant eigenvalues and eigenvalues of the conjugate eigenvalue problem (10).

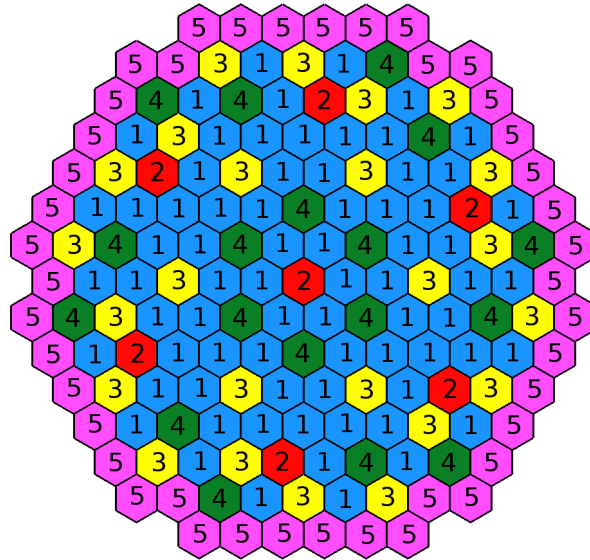
**On-line calculation.** Real-time modeling is carried out on the basis of the modal solution of the problem (6), (7). The coefficients in the representation (12) are calculated from the initial condition using (11). The solution for other time intervals is determined according to (8).

#### 4. The test: the dynamics of the VVER-1000 reactor during the transition from the supercritical mode to the subcritical mode

A test problem for a VVER-1000 reactor without a reflector [11] is considered in the two-dimensional approximation ( $\Omega$  is a reactor core cross-section). A two-group approximation is used taken into account delayed neutrons.

##### 4.1. General description

The geometric model of the VVER-1000 core consists of a set of hexagonal-shaped cassettes and is shown in Fig.2, where fuel assemblies of various types are shown. The assembly "wrench" size is 23.6 cm.



**Figure 2.** Geometric model of the VVER-1000 reactor core.

For an approximate solution of the problem, regular triangular grids are used. The number of triangles per cassette  $\kappa$  varies from 6 to 96.

**Table 1.** Diffusion neutronics constants for VVER-1000

Material	1	2	3	4	5
$D_1$	1.38320e-0	1.38299e-0	1.39522e-0	1.39446e-0	1.39506e-0
$D_2$	3.86277e-1	3.89403e-1	3.86225e-1	3.87723e-1	3.84492e-1
$\Sigma_1 + \Sigma_{s,1 \rightarrow 2}$	2.48836e-2	2.62865e-2	2.45662e-2	2.60117e-2	2.46141e-2
$\Sigma_2$	6.73049e-2	8.10328e-2	8.44801e-1	9.89671e-2	8.93878e-2
$\Sigma_{s,1 \rightarrow 2}$	1.64977e-2	1.47315e-2	1.56219e-2	1.40185e-2	1.54981e-2
$\nu \Sigma_{f1}$	4.81619e-3	4.66953e-3	6.04889e-3	5.91507e-3	6.40256e-3
$\nu \Sigma_{f2}$	8.46154e-2	8.52264e-2	1.19428e-1	1.20497e-1	1.29281e-1

The supercritical state of the reactor is characterized by a set of coefficients, which are given in Table 1. The following boundary conditions (3) are used:  $\gamma_g = 0.5$ ,  $g = 1, 2$ . The following delayed neutrons parameters are used: one group of delayed neutrons with effective fraction  $\beta_1 = 6.5 \cdot 10^{-3}$  and decay constant  $\lambda_1 = 0.08 \text{ s}^{-1}$ . Neutron velocity  $v_1 = 1.25 \cdot 10^7 \text{ cm/s}$  and  $v_2 = 2.5 \cdot 10^5 \text{ cm/s}$ .

#### 4.2. Supercritical state: $\alpha$ -eigenvalue problem

Below the results of a numerical solution of the  $\alpha$ -eigenvalue problem (9) are presented. The dominant eigenvalues  $\alpha_n = \lambda_n^{(\alpha)}$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots, N$  are searched for at

$$\text{Re}\lambda_1^{(\alpha)} \leq \text{Re}\lambda_2^{(\alpha)} \leq \dots \leq \text{Re}\lambda_N^{(\alpha)} \leq \dots \leq \text{Re}\lambda_{N_h}^{(\alpha)}.$$

Similar calculations of the eigenvalues for the VVER-1000 test problem without delayed neutrons can be found in [3].

**Table 2.** Eigenvalues  $\alpha_n = \lambda_n^{(\alpha)}$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots, 5$

$p$	$\kappa$	$\alpha_1$	$\alpha_2, \alpha_3$	$\alpha_4, \alpha_5$
1	6	-0.22557	$0.04241 \mp 3.08808\text{e-}06i$	$0.06588 \mp 4.80449\text{e-}07i$
	24	-0.82690	$0.03777 \mp 5.37884\text{e-}06i$	$0.06489 \mp 1.37315\text{e-}06i$
	96	-1.74998	$0.03619 \mp 5.69002\text{e-}06i$	$0.06456 \mp 1.40299\text{e-}06i$
2	6	-2.10154	$0.03592 \mp 4.96474\text{e-}06i$	$0.06452 \mp 1.21320\text{e-}06i$
	24	-2.46601	$0.03562 \mp 5.78277\text{e-}06i$	$0.06445 \mp 1.40897\text{e-}06i$
	96	-2.50375	$0.03559 \mp 5.80693\text{e-}06i$	$0.06444 \mp 1.41324\text{e-}06i$
3	6	-2.47975	$0.03561 \mp 5.83718\text{e-}06i$	$0.06445 \mp 1.41869\text{e-}06i$
	24	-2.50294	$0.03559 \mp 5.80783\text{e-}06i$	$0.06444 \mp 1.41341\text{e-}06i$
	96	-2.51280	$0.03558 \mp 5.80954\text{e-}06i$	$0.06444 \mp 1.41362\text{e-}06i$

The results of solving the spectral problem (9) for the first eigenvalues  $\alpha_n = \lambda_n^{(\alpha)}$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots, N$ ,  $N = 5$  on different computational grids using different finite element approximations

are shown in Table 2. The eigenvalues  $\alpha_2, \alpha_3, \alpha_4, \alpha_5, \alpha_9, \alpha_{10}$  of the spectral problem (9) are complex with small imaginary parts, the eigenvalues  $\alpha_1, \alpha_6, \alpha_7, \alpha_8$  are real.

In our example, the main eigenvalue is negative and therefore the major harmonic will increase, and all others will fade. This demonstrates the regular mode of the reactor operation. The value  $\alpha = \lambda_1^{(\alpha)}$  itself determines the neutron flux amplitude and is directly related to the reactor period in the regular regime.

**Table 3.** Eigenvalues  $\alpha_n = \lambda_n^{(\alpha)}$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots, 10$  for direct and adjoint problems

$n$	$\alpha_n$ for problem (14)	$\alpha_n$ for problem (??)
1	-2.51280117966	-2.51280117972
2,3	$0.0355815000364 \mp 5.80954455861\text{e-}06$	$0.0355815000365 \mp 5.80954421646\text{e-}06$
4,5	$0.0644427013767 \mp 1.41362187449\text{e-}06$	$0.0644427013767 \mp 1.41362190730\text{e-}06$
6	0.0702618501639	0.0702618501639
7	0.0714652882224	0.0714652882164
8	0.0726456060606	0.0726456060606
9,10	$0.0734708921578 \mp 4.02332269037\text{e-}08$	$0.0734708921578 \mp 4.02332146248\text{e-}08$

#### 4.3. Adjoint spectral problem

Analogous data were obtained for approximate solution of the adjoint spectral problem (10). The eigenvalues of the spectral problems (9) and (10) coincide. Their difference from each other is an indirect measure of the accuracy of the numerical solution. Data on the dominant eigenvalues, which are given in Table 3 ( $k = 96$ ,  $p = 3$ ), show that the eigenvalues of the main and adjoint spectral problems are close to each other with good accuracy.

The spectral problems under consideration are characterized by small imaginary parts of the eigenvalues. Therefore, we can expect that the eigenfunctions of problem (9) are close to orthogonal. As illustration, Table 4 contains data for the scalar products  $(\phi_1^{(n)}, \phi_1^{(m)})$  for the first 10 eigenfunctions. For convenience of comparison, the eigenfunctions are normalized in  $L_2(\Omega)$ . The maximum non-orthogonality (for  $(\phi_1^{(1)}, \phi_1^{(7)})$ ) does not exceed 10 %. The biorthogonality condition of the eigenfunctions of the fundamental functions (see (9)) and the adjoint spectral problems (see (10)) is valid with approximately the same accuracy. This observed error can be related to an approximate calculation of eigenvalues and eigenfunctions.

Within the modal method, we can not rely on high accuracy when considering a relatively small number of dominant eigenvalues. Therefore, in the example under consideration, we can assume that the eigenvalues are real, and the corresponding eigenfunctions are orthogonal. Instead of (11) coefficients are used

$$b_n \approx \frac{1}{(\mathbf{c}_n, \mathbf{c}_n)} (\mathbf{c}_h^s, \mathbf{c}_n), \quad n = 1, 2, \dots, N, \quad (13)$$

to approximate the initial condition.

#### 4.4. Subcritical state

In the supercritical mode, due to the sufficiently large magnitude of the main eigenvalue, the regular regime of the reactor is rapidly developing, where

$$\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}, t) \approx a_1 \exp(-\alpha_1 t) \mathbf{v}_1^0(\mathbf{x}).$$

**Table 4.** Scalar product  $(\phi_1^{(n)}, \phi_1^{(m)})$ ,  $n, m = 1, 2, \dots, 10$

$n \backslash m$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	1.0e-00	1.3e-08	2.2e-08	-3.8e-08	9.8e-09	-1.8e-09	1.0e-02	-3.2e-09	-2.2e-08	1.6e-09
2	1.3e-08	1.0e-00	-1.6e-08	-1.6e-08	1.4e-08	4.1e-08	1.2e-09	-2.0e-07	-3.1e-03	7.5e-03
3	2.2e-08	-1.6e-08	1.0e-00	-9.8e-09	-1.1e-08	-1.8e-08	1.1e-08	-3.3e-08	-7.5e-03	-3.1e-03
4	-3.8e-08	-1.6e-08	-9.8e-09	1.0e-00	-3.9e-10	-1.1e-08	1.4e-08	4.0e-09	3.0e-09	-1.1e-08
5	9.8e-09	1.4e-08	-1.1e-08	-3.9e-10	1.0e-00	2.9e-09	-1.6e-08	-1.9e-08	6.3e-09	6.3e-09
6	-1.8e-09	4.1e-08	-1.8e-08	-1.1e-08	2.9e-09	1.0e-00	-4.2e-09	-5.6e-03	4.1e-08	-1.2e-07
7	1.0e-02	1.2e-09	1.1e-08	1.4e-08	-1.6e-08	-4.2e-09	1.0e-00	-2.1e-09	-1.8e-08	8.0e-09
8	-3.2e-09	-2.0e-07	-3.3e-08	4.0e-09	-1.9e-08	-5.6e-03	-2.1e-09	1.0e-00	-5.2e-08	2.3e-07
9	-2.2e-08	-3.1e-03	-7.5e-03	3.0e-09	6.3e-09	4.1e-08	-1.8e-08	-5.2e-08	1.0e-00	-5.5e-07
10	1.6e-09	7.5e-03	-3.1e-03	-1.1e-08	6.3e-09	-1.2e-07	8.0e-09	2.3e-07	-5.5e-07	1.0e-00

Here  $\mathbf{v}_1^0(\mathbf{x})$  is the first mode of the supercritical state. We consider the problem with the transition from this supercritical state at  $t_0 = 0$  to the subcritical state.

The subcritical stage is characterized by a 15% increase in the coefficient  $\Sigma_2$  for material 4 in the VVER-1000 test diffusion constants (see Table 1). Thus, the dynamics of the reactor is as follows:

$$\Sigma_2 \longrightarrow 1.15\Sigma_2 \quad (\text{material 4}).$$

The initial state is characterized by specifying the initial conditions at  $t_0 = 0$  as

$$\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}, 0) = \mathbf{v}_1^0(\mathbf{x}). \quad (14)$$

The calculational results of the dominant eigenvalues for the subcritical state are presented in Tables 5. In this case even the first eigenvalues not significantly differ from each other.

**Table 5.** Subcritical state:  $\alpha_n = \lambda_n^{(\alpha)}$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots, 5$

$p$	$\kappa$	$\alpha_1$	$\alpha_2, \alpha_3$	$\alpha_4, \alpha_5$
3	96	0.02122	$0.05376 \mp 2.20951\text{e-}06i$	$0.06763 \mp 1.04756\text{e-}06i$

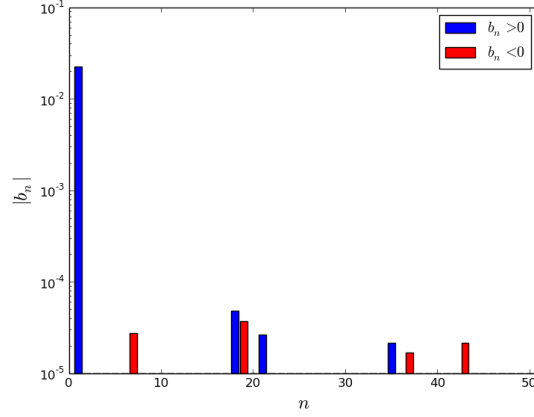
For an approximate solution, we use the following formulation:

$$\mathbf{u}_N(\mathbf{x}, t) = \sum_{n=1}^N b_n \exp(-\text{Re } \alpha_n t) \mathbf{v}_n(\mathbf{x}), \quad (15)$$

where the coefficients  $b_n$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots, N$  are calculated according to the given initial condition (13). These coefficients for  $N = 50$  are shown in Fig.3. As we see, an approximate solution can be described by first mode only.

We distinguish two phases of the dynamic process: fast and slow. In the fast phase, the initial condition (14) is rearranged to the initial condition, which corresponds to (15): from the function  $\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}, 0)$  to the function  $\mathbf{u}_N(\mathbf{x}, 0)$ . The slow phase is associated with the evolution of

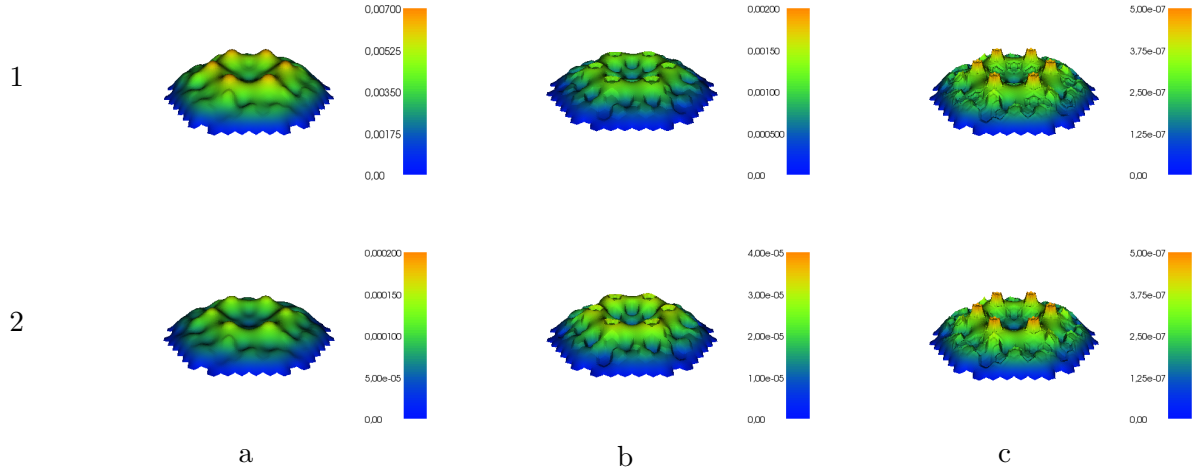




**Figure 3.** Approximate solution coefficients (15).

the solution according to (15). Within the state change modal technology, the fast phase is not modeled at all.

The beginning and the end of the fast phase are illustrated through the calculational data shown in Fig. 4. The results were obtained with  $N = 10$ . We can note very small changes in the topology of the initial and reconstructed initial conditions. Let us pay attention to the substantial restructuring of the solution, which is illustrated by large changes in the neutron flux amplitudes for the first and second groups.



**Figure 4.** Function  $u(x,0)$  (string 1) and function  $u_N(x,0)$  (string 2): a — neutron flux of group 1, b — neutron flux of group 2, c — delayed neutrons source.

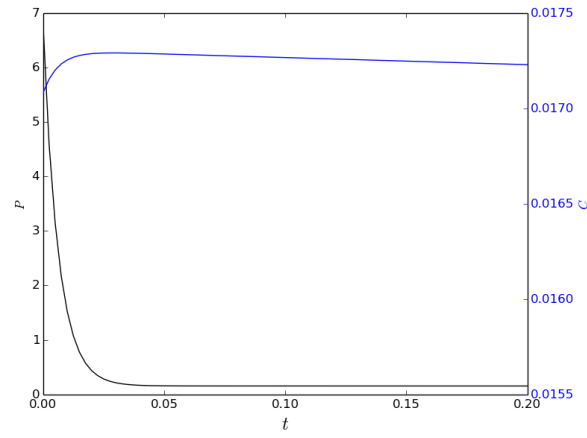
#### 4.5. Comparison with the nonstationary problem solution

An approximate solution, obtained using modal approximation, can be compared with the dynamic problem solution (1). Fully implicit scheme on a uniform grid in time with a sufficiently small step  $\tau = 0.0025$  is used (see details in [4]). The dynamics of the neutron power of the

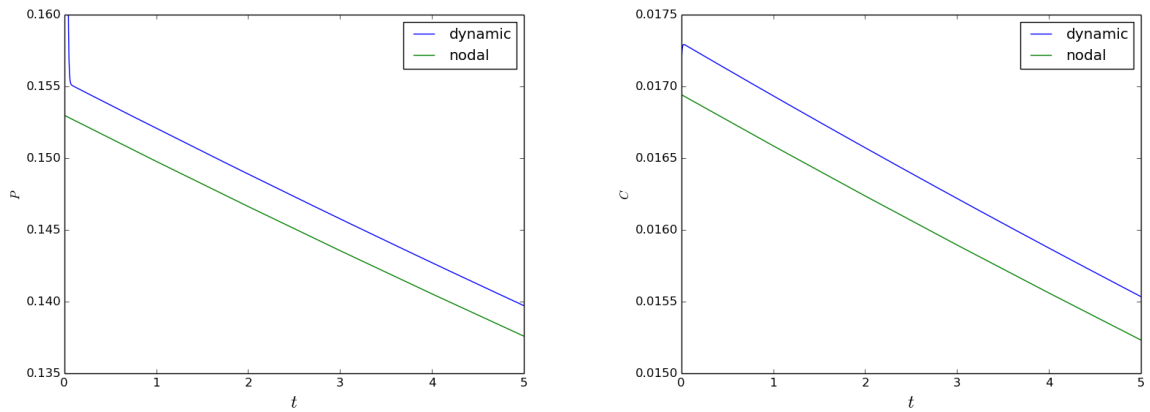
nuclear reactor  $P$  and the delayed neutrons source  $C$  at the initial stage during the transition from the critical state to the subcritical in the case of a symmetric perturbation is shown in Fig.5. Here

$$P(t) = \int_{\Omega} (\nu \Sigma_{f1} \varphi_1 + \nu \Sigma_{f2} \varphi_2) d\mathbf{x}, \quad C(t) = \int_{\Omega} c(\mathbf{x}, t) d\mathbf{x}.$$

There is a rapid change in neutron power over a short period of time, while the delayed neutrons source changes rather slow. The dynamics of the slow phase is illustrated in Figs. 6. Here the solution of full equations (dynamic in Figs. 6), and the modal approximation solution (nodal) are presented. We see that the integral characteristics of the reactor dynamics at slow stage are calculated with good accuracy.



**Figure 5.** Fast stage of reactor state: neutronic power.



**Figure 6.** Slow stage of reactor state: neutronic power and delayed neutrons source

## 5. Conclusions

The problem of simulation of reactor dynamic processes is considered on the basis of multigroup neutron diffusion equations accounting for delayed neutrons. The modal approximation is used: an approximate solution is represented as an expansion on limited number of dominant eigenfunctions of the  $\alpha$ -eigenvalue spectral problem.

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