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Project Report

Natural Circulation Characteristics at Lo

Conditions through PANDA Experiments

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Abstract

Natural circulation characteristics at low pressure/low power investigations and numerical simulations. The PANDA large-scale data on natural circulation characteristics as a function of several conditions. The new experimental data allow for testing and in computer codes to be used for treating natural circulation loops presents a synthesis of a part of the results obtained within the EU performance of boiling water reactors." It does so by using the showing some examples of numerical simulations performed with t

1. Introduction

In the framework of the EU-Project NACUSP, experiments on the

cooled boiling water reactors (BWR) have been performed in four complement each other, ranging from small-scale to large-scale conditions to the nominal operating conditions for BWRs. The economics of operating and future plants through improved and increased confidence levels on the safety margins regarding the start-up procedures for natural-circulation BWRs.

This paper presents a synthesis of the results obtained from the facility [2] and from the numerical simulations performed with different parameters covers a large spectrum of conditions for the low-pressure especially with regard to the start-up procedures for natural-circulation simplified boiling water reactor (ESBWR)).

2. PANDA Experimental Investigations

2.1. PANDA Facility

The multipurpose thermal-hydraulic test facility PANDA is located in Switzerland. The facility is designed and used for investigating different light water reactor (LWR) designs. PANDA has a modular design with six vessels with a total volume of 460 m³ and four open pools with different pressure vessels are arranged in two vertical columns. The two columns and chamber are interconnected with two large pipes. The wetwell vessels are interconnected at about midplane elevation with one large pipe (GDCS) pool. The sixth vessel is configured to simulate the reactor core performing natural circulation tests at roughly 1 : 1 scale in height. The RPV is 19.2 m in height. The RPV includes a heated section, a riser, a downcomer, and a drywell, height of 1.3 m and does not reproduce the geometry of a real core. The core elements divided into six individually controlled groups. This allows the facility to operate at 1.5 MW. The heaters are distributed over the cross-section to simulate a power range. The riser has a height of 9.5 m (starting at the top of the drywell vessels and are equipped with heaters). The downcomer is insulated in order to minimize heat losses: an insulation layer of 100 mm is placed on top of the drywell vessels and are equipped with heaters. The overall height of the facility is about 19.2 m and 200 °C.

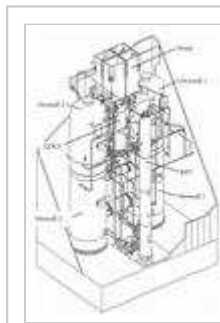


Figure 1: PANDA facility.

The basic instrumentation of the facility includes about 1000 sensors for temperature differences, water levels, flow rates, gas concentrations, fluid levels, etc. The data acquisition system maximum scanning rate is 5 Hz. The facility is remotely controlled from a graphical-display man-machine interface.

2.1.1. PANDA Facility Configuration for Natural Circulation Tests

For the NACUSP project only parts of the PANDA facility were used the RPV natural circulation loop and the condensation/cooling loop (condenser and condenses due to the temperature difference with atmosphere temperature). The pool is open to the atmosphere and water evaporates through the drain line back to the RPV downcomer. A major modification was made in the riser region. A movable ring was attached to the lower edge of the riser to allow for varying the core-inlet hydraulic resistance. The gap height at the bottom of the RPV can be varied in order to obtain the required flow rates. The systems are used for preconditioning the facility and for adding water during test duration.



Figure 2: PANDA configuration for natural circulation

The instrumentation in the RPV has been significantly improved. In addition to the instrumentation used for natural circulation tests, additional K-type thermocouples inside the riser and downcomer measure fluid and wall temperatures. In the range of 100 °C - 150 °C a maximum error of 0.5 °C is achieved. For higher temperatures the error is still less than 1 °C. Three ultrasonic flow meters measure local fluid flow velocities in the downcomer. The measurement error is less than 1%. Absolute pressure and heater power are measured as well. The ultrasonic flow meters allow for the assessment of void fraction in different regions of the downcomer. A TDR probe is used to measure the level swelling due to the presence of steam.

2.2. PANDA Test Matrix

The test matrix allowed the RPV power and pressure to be varied, and the condenser heat removal capacity to be varied. The circulation behavior such as core-inlet hydraulic resistance and RPV power, balanced by a corresponding condenser heat removal capacity, can be varied to match the desired steady state pressure in the RPV. The basic test matrix is shown in Table 1. The maximum energy is removed if the condenser power for the four specified pressure levels is given in Table 1 (or the condenser heat removal capacity is adjusted by lowering the condenser area). Three tests with different power (“low,” “middle,” “high”) and four different pressure levels.

RPV pressure (bar)	RPV power (MW)	Condenser power (MW)
1.0	1.0	1.0
1.5	1.5	1.5
2.0	2.0	2.0
2.5	2.5	2.5

Table 1: Basic test matrix (variation of pressure and power)

The core-inlet hydraulic resistance coefficient k has been varied in the range of 30 to 500. A basic value of $k_{basic} = 30$ was used. Selected tests were performed with a high hydraulic resistance ($k_{high} = 500$).

The RPV water level has also been varied: most of the tests were performed with the water level above bottom of RPV. This level represents about the nominal value. Some tests were performed with the water level reduced close to top of riser which is at 11.0 m above RPV bottom.

The following three series of tests with totally 25 experiments have

- (i) B-series tests (BWR-typical core-inlet flow resistance $k =$
 - (a) 12 tests with nominal RPV water level (12.8 m),
 - (b) 2 tests with low RPV water level (11.1 m and 11.4 m)
- (ii) L-series tests (Low core-inlet flow resistance $k = 7$):
 - (a) 3 tests with nominal RPV water level (12.8 m),
 - (b) 1 test with low RPV water level (11.1 m);
- (iii) H-series tests (High core-inlet flow resistance $k = 500$):
 - (a) 6 tests with nominal RPV water level (12.8 m),
 - (b) 1 test with low RPV water level (11.1 m).

An overview of all PANDA tests is included in Table 2.

Table 2: Overview of the PANDA tests and analysis.

2.3. Experimental Results and Analysis

Natural Circulation Modes

The coolant temperature increases in the heated section (core), by given conditions. A rough estimation of the position of the boiling was performed. The temperature measured at the inlet of the core coarsest assumptions were made (no heat losses, uniform radial subcooled boiling). The nondimensional value $z_{boil,b}^*$ reported in Table 2 is the inlet of the core, and divided by the length of the core) ; $z_{boil,b}^* \leq 1$: boiling in the core; $z_{boil,b}^* > 1$: no boiling in the core). This is the case for any test except may be in tests with high core-inlet resistance and

In the same way, a coarse estimation of the height in the riser at which the boiling starts was made. Using the same inlet temperature, calculating the temperature profile in the riser (conserved all along the riser (no heat losses), a distance z_{flash}^* (measured from the inlet of the riser) is estimated and reported in Table 2. For most of the tests, the boiling starts in the upper region or above the riser. Of course, in tests at high core-inlet resistance and tests with low RPV water level (and hence lower pressure head in the lower sections of the riser.

These estimations do not take into account the 3D and local effects on the flow regime actually occurring in the RPV. Some interesting information on the temperature profiles measured in the central axis of the RPV. Two temperature profiles corresponding to the saturation temperature is also plotted on Figure 2, estimated by using the time-averaged RPV pressure and calculated considering the possible presence of void.

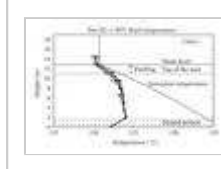


Figure 3: Measured temperature profiles in the

From Figure 3, it is clear that the validity of the comparison with the error in temperature measurements. Due to the data reduction, the measured temperature (Figure 3). The saturation temperature decreases with pressure. Flashing should occur when the coolant reaches saturation. In test H2.1 (shown in Figure 3(a)), the average height of the flashing level is about the level corresponding to the top of the riser. In this case, the temperature profile above this height, where measured temperatures seem to basically confirm the previous coarse prediction (Table 2, $z_{\text{flash}}^* = 1.8$ m) (Figure 3(b)): the fluid temperature clearly following the saturation temperature. To summarize, these different cases and define three classes:

Class 1. flashing above the riser, or perhaps no flashing at all (Figure 3(a));

Class 2. flashing at a lower elevation in the riser;

Class 3. two-phase flow all along the riser (Figure 3(b)). Roughly processed from differential pressure measurements also indicate the top of the riser, and especially for cases with high core-inlet resistance, the largest difference between the swell level (measured by the TDR) and the flashing level from differential pressure measurements. For example, in tests HL5.3 and HL5.4, the flashing level is estimated in the upper region of the riser. In the lower sections, vapor is not present.

Analysis of Flow Velocity Measurements in RPV Downcomer

The natural circulation flow rate is of main interest. Hence, this section reports the results from 3 ultrasonic flow meters in the RPV DC. The sensors are located at an angle of 120° azimuthally between each other.

The velocity signals were sampled at a frequency of 0.5 Hz for the analysis. It is noted that the time constant of the sensors was set to 6 seconds. The power spectral density (APSD) of the signals was calculated to identify the dominant frequencies. The autocorrelation function (ACF) was used to calculate the decay rate parameter to quantify the stability of the system: if $DR < 1$, the system is stable. In practice, the DR values presented in Table 2 were estimated by using the first maxima of the ACF (Figure 4(c)). Cross-power spectral density was also calculated to examine coherence, possible phase shifts between the sensors.

An overview of the results of the analysis performed can be found in Table 3, given in the first columns of this table. Mean values of the velocities are also reported. V_{123} is the average of the three mean velocities. I_{123} is the intensity of the velocity fluctuations, and was calculated as follows:

$$I_{123}(\%) = 100 \cdot \frac{(\text{Var}_{12})}{V_1^2}$$

where Var_{123} represents the average of the 3 variances of the signals. This result in very high values for the tests with very low natural circulation expected to be higher (e.g., test H2.3).

Concerning the spectral analysis, the frequency and the corresponding phase shift are possible. The value “0” in the column “ $\Delta\phi$ ” of Table 2 means that no phase shift was observed, that is, the three velocity signals were oscillating in phase. The DR was estimated from the ACF and is also reported in Table 2. The results of the ACF signals from the sensor measuring the total pressure in the RPV and the two sensors measuring the flow velocity characterize some of the tests. Looking at the spectra and at the estimation of DR values, the PANDA tests can be categorized in two groups.

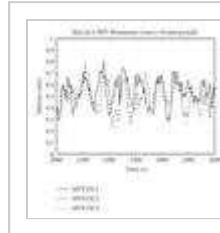


Figure 4: Analysis of flow velocity signals in the time domain.

1st Group

The rows in Table 2 corresponding to these tests are greyed. An excerpt of the raw velocity signals recorded during this test is shown in Figure 4. The results. An excerpt of the raw velocity signals recorded during this test is shown in Figure 4. The results show that the three sensors oscillate “together,” that is, with a high degree of synchronization. This was confirmed by looking at the phase of the complex cross-power spectrum. Just simply looking at a number of raw signals recorded over the course of the test, it was observed that the measured variables (temperatures, pressure in the RPV, condenser outlet temperature) all oscillate at the same frequency. The ACF obtained from velocity signal 1 is shown in Figure 5. The results show a stable behavior ($\text{DR} = 0.64$) can be estimated from this graph.

2nd Group

An illustration of this group is given using test B3.3 results. Observations of this case show rather *random* behavior. In some other tests belonging to this group, it is possible to observe significant phase shifts between the sensors. Figure 5(b) shows the power spectrum. Using a logarithmic scale, the low-frequency components are more prominent. Moreover, the ACF does not really allow a DR value to be derived (actually, very close to 0) compared to the tests of the first group.

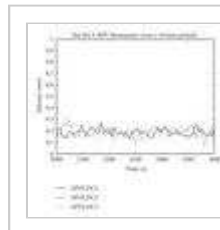


Figure 5: Analysis of flow velocity signals in the time domain.

It was also observed that these two characteristic modes of behavior were observed as a function of time during the course of the tests. For tests L8.3 and L8.4, the results were very similar to successive (1-hour long) time periods and it clearly showed that, the results were very similar.

Some data from other sensors (condenser feed and drain flow rate) were processed using the same approach as for the velocity data. For the tests from Class 4, the oscillation period was found to be at the same oscillation frequency. No peak can be found for the time-averaged spectrum of these tests (e.g., test B3.3), the condenser feed flow and DC flow rate spectrum whereas no such peak was observed for the velocity signal (concerning the analysis of RPV pressure signals). This indicates that the riser, not influencing the main circulation flow. These cases fall con

From the expected mechanism of the flow oscillations, the fluid transit time of the enthalpy perturbations in the adiabatic section, should be related to the oscillation period. From Figure 11, it is clear that the oscillation period is equal to the total transit time can be evaluated as the sum of the transit time in the adiabatic section and the transit time in the heated section [3]. In PANDA, no velocity measurement is available in the riser, was made by simply using the time-averaged value of the velocity in the riser and the flow area ratio between the riser and the DC.

Following this simplified approach, the oscillation period was found to be equal to the fluid transit time (Figure 6). The simple way in which the transit time was evaluated is based on the phase flow in the riser. Hence, it is likely that our assessment over the oscillation period to be quite consistent with those presented for the CIRCUS facility is likely to be twice the transit time.

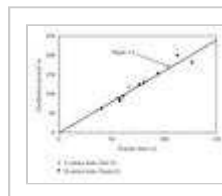


Figure 6: Period of oscillation versus fluid tran

Discussion

The differentiation between the two groups of tests is based on DR values. The validity and the accuracy of this method can be questioned. The stability parameters and can be compared to the ACF-based method. The velocity time traces were processed using a more sophisticated method properly applied to our signals yielded about the same DR values. The main result from this analysis that all tests are stable.

However, by having a closer look to the tests, the different flow regimes can be defined, can be related to the previous findings regarding the stability. The plots in Figure 3 partly illustrate the

Class 4 (Figure 3(a)). High inlet subcooling and relatively low (or high) flow rates is likely that flashing occurred only above the riser, the natural circulation is stable. This would explain why, in some of these tests, contrary to the velocity signal, no peak in their spectrum and allow the derivation of DR values. In some of these tests (notably those performed at the lowest powers)

Class 5. These tests, performed at relatively high power and low inlet subcooling, identified oscillation period and DR values could be derived from the velocity signal. The flow rates were measured in these tests, which indicate the core heat production and of a low inlet resistance. According to our estimation, the flashing did in the upper half of the riser.

Class 6 (Figure 3(b)). Very stable behavior was found for these tests. Under these conditions, the flashing front fluctuates close to the level of two-phase natural circulation. The measured flow rates are among the highest for the given flow resistance. Looking at the parameters (notably the expected pressure drop) and at the characteristic temperature profiles (Figure 3(b)), it can be assumed in these cases.

The presented classification gives a rather coherent picture of the experimental observations with the expected phenomenology. The characterization of the tests (from single-phase to two-phase flow) is what is reported in the literature. Test BLL5.3, which shows a D condition.

The test matrix allowed the variation of the RPV water level. How the flow behavior cannot be clearly assessed. Comparing tests B5.3 and D5.3 shows a stabilizing effect.

3. ATHLET Simulations

3.1. Thermal-Hydraulic Model

The thermal-hydraulic code ATHLET [4], which has been developed at the Reaktorsicherheit mbH), was used for the calculation of selected experiments (Section 2). The ATHLET input dataset models all main parts of the circulation experiments (Figure 7).

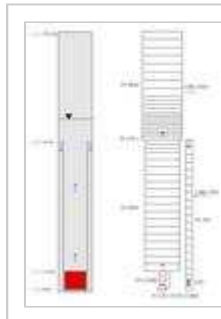


Figure 7: Schematic representation (a) and (b) of the ATHLET model components.

The ATHLET model consists of the lower plenum (P1-LP-1), the riser (P1-RIS1), upper plenum (P1-UP-1), downcomer (P1-DWC1), and isolation condenser (IC). The isolation condenser (IC) is not modeled. Therefore, a valve at the lower end of the downcomer (VLV, see Figure 7) is modeled, modeling the IC-fer and given enthalpy (only drain line). In all control volumes, the continuity, energy, and momentum equations are used. A valve at the lower end of the downcomer (VLV, see Figure 7) is modeled, modeling the IC-fer and given enthalpy (only drain line). In all control volumes, the continuity, energy, and momentum equations are used. A valve at the lower end of the downcomer (VLV, see Figure 7) is modeled, modeling the IC-fer and given enthalpy (only drain line). In all control volumes, the continuity, energy, and momentum equations are used.

3.2. Steady State Calculation

At first, a steady state calculation with constant boundary conditions is performed. In these calculations, the pressure losses, heat losses, the RPV water level, and the power are adjusted. The steady state calculation starts with zero power. After the power is increased with time. For the calculations, it was not possible to reach a steady state, because the form-loss coefficients are changed within the algorithm.

calculation. Therefore, a valve at the lower end of the downcomer core-inlet flow resistance. The cross-section of this valve was 1 corresponding to the measured data. The steady state calculation example, the results of the steady state calculation for Test B 8.3 are in Figure 8.

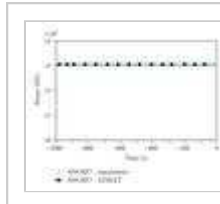


Figure 8: Core power (MW.RP.7), system downcomer velocity (MVE.DC.1) for test B 8.3:

3.3. Transient Calculations

From the PANDA test matrix, 5 experiments were selected for transient conditions calculated with ATHLET in comparison to the measured data over a period of 5 hours. The experimental data in Table 3 represent the ATHLET simulations correspond to the end of the steady state calculation.

Test	Time (h)	Core Power (MW)	Downcomer Velocity (m/s)	IC-Feed Mass Flow (kg/s)	Drain Line Mass Flow (kg/s)
B 8.3	0	1.0	0.5	1.0	0.5
B 8.3	1	1.0	0.5	1.0	0.5
B 8.3	2	1.0	0.5	1.0	0.5
B 8.3	3	1.0	0.5	1.0	0.5
B 8.3	4	1.0	0.5	1.0	0.5
B 8.3	5	1.0	0.5	1.0	0.5

Table 3: Initial conditions for the selected PANDA Calculation, Add. Calc. = Additional ATHLET calculation.

Each transient calculation starts from a steady state calculation and shows the behavior with respect to natural circulation stability after a short disturbance to stimulate oscillations in the loop (see Figure 9). The response of the mass flow is shown.

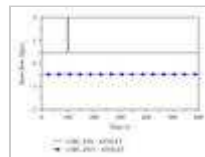


Figure 9: Mass flow in IC-feed and drain line (RIS1).

As in the experiments, the DC velocities were used to calculate the transient behavior, the spectrum, and the autocorrelation function (see Figure 10, Test B 3.3). Both calculations predict stable behavior and no limit cycle. The drain line mass flow leads to flow oscillations with decreasing amplitude due to the higher core-inlet loss coefficient ($k = 30$) used in the B 8.3 test. In the ATHLET simulations, an oscillation period and also a decay rate were observed. Table 4 gives a comparison between measured and calculated tests.

Test	Time (h)	Oscillation Period (s)	Decay Ratio (%)
B 8.3	0	100	100
B 8.3	1	100	100
B 8.3	2	100	100
B 8.3	3	100	100
B 8.3	4	100	100
B 8.3	5	100	100

Table 4: Oscillation period and decay ratio for the selected PANDA Calculation, Cal. = ATHLET calculation).



Figure 10: DC velocity, spectrum, and autocorrelation for tests B 8.3 and B 3.3.

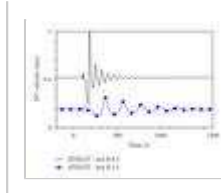
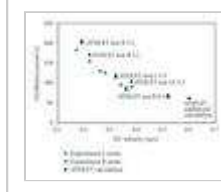


Figure 11: Oscillation period as a function of ATHLET simulations.



The experiments and also the ATHLET calculations show that the velocity. This behavior is illustrated in Figure 11. The results of the the experimental data.

To demonstrate the ability of ATHLET to calculate an unstable calculation with a core-inlet loss coefficient of $k=7$, a higher core initial conditions for this calculation are given in Table 3. The result strong oscillations caused by flashing in the riser section. Figure 12 and the autocorrelation function. The oscillations have a period of t

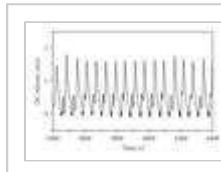


Figure 12: DC velocity, spectrum, and autocorrelation function calculation with higher core power and lower R

In Figure 13, the calculated temperature distribution over the he seconds. At this time, the dynamic behavior becomes unstable. production takes place. Only above the middle of the riser section, flashing-induced oscillations occur.

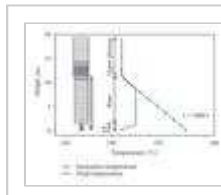


Figure 13: Temperature distribution over the calculation).

4. Conclusions

In the PANDA facility, 25 tests have been carried out in order to stability, under low-pressure/low-power conditions. Some parameters varied, such as the RPV power and pressure, the core-inlet hydraulic

An analysis of the data from three ultrasonic sensors installed at was presented. The power spectra show, in a few tests, a major peak of the flow rate seems to be of the order of twice the transit time show that these cases are stable. The tests for which more flat spectra more stable.

A phenomenological classification has been applied according to single-phase circulation (with possibly flashing above the riser), to of the riser, or two-phase flow along the complete riser length. The natural circulation flow under low-pressure conditions represent notably because the height of the riser in PANDA is approximately have been used for assessing the capabilities and limitations of circulation characteristics at low pressure/low power.

The ATHLET simulations show stable behavior for the selected PA damped and no limit-cycle oscillations occur. The calculated period experimental results. With help of the additional calculation, it could an unstable behavior. In this case, strong oscillations occur, caused

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