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WESTINGHOUSE NON-PROPRIETARY CLASS 3

Subscale Brine Test Program Report

Analysis Committee

PA-ASC-1188

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Subscale Brine Test Program Report

PA-ASC-1188

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November 2015

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1 EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Westinghouse and the Pressurized Water Reactor Owners Group (PWROG) have designed and built the subscale brine test facility to investigate the influence that fibrous debris collection at the core inlet has on density-driven mass transport between the core and lower plenum regions of a reactor vessel. The goal of the test program was to obtain concentration distribution data in the core and lower plenum regions of the test facility such that the exchange flow rate across the core inlet geometry could be calculated. Debris bed pressure drop data was also collected throughout the testing. The experiments will provide insight into the physical phenomena occurring in a reactor vessel following a postulated large cold leg break (CLB) loss-of-coolant accident (LOCA) and the results will be used to justify an in-vessel debris limit for the large CLB scenario.

A number of natural convection experiments and analyses have been completed that are relevant to the subscale brine testing. In Section 3, these experiments and analyses are reviewed to introduce the physical phenomena of buoyancy-driven exchange (countercurrent) flow which is the primary mechanism for core-to-lower plenum mass transport investigated by the subscale brine testing.

The subscale brine testing is intended to study the density-driven flow patterns governed by the concentration gradient of boron solutes that develop between the core and lower plenum. While it would be preferable to use varying concentrations of borated solution as the working fluid, the subscale test facility is not able to operate at the conditions necessary to study the borated solution concentrations of interest, nor is it equipped to insulate against the heat losses associated with elevated temperatures. Additionally, there are difficulties associated with the accurate measurement of these solution concentrations. Instead, various borated solution at room temperature. Justification of this approach and selection of the aqueous salt solution is provided in Section 4.

The test facility was constructed at the Westinghouse thermal hydraulic test laboratory located in Churchill, Pennsylvania. The design consists of a 4 inch inner-dimension, square cross-section flow column that houses the tested fuel geometry, which is roughly one-quarter of a full-area fuel assembly. The vertical column was fabricated with clear polycarbonate sidewalls to provide optical access. For testing, debris-laden flow was injected from the bottom of the test column and directed upwards through the fuel geometry. Brine was injected downstream of the simulated core region using a sparger designed to uniformly inject the brine across the entire test column cross-section. Additional details associated with the brine test facility design, operation, and test conditions are contained in Section 5.

In the testing, the density gradient that develops between the core and the lower plenum due to the build-up of boron solutes in the core was simulated using a potassium bromide (KBr) solution. Flow through the test column was scaled based on the boil-off rate calculated for prototypic Post-LOCA conditions. For tests that had brine injection, the flow rate was reduced during each test consistent with the decay heat curve. For tests conducted with debris only (no brine injection) the flow rate was held constant at a value consistent with decay heat boil-off

calculated at 20 minutes post-LOCA. Fibrous debris loadings of 2.5 – 22.5 grams per full-area fuel assembly (g/FA) arriving at the core inlet were considered in the testing, which is consistent with the range of debris loads expected to enter the reactor vessel following a large CLB scenario. A limited number of tests were completed with fibrous and particulate debris to understand the impact that particulate debris has on the resulting debris bed and the core-to-lower plenum buoyancy-driven exchange process.

A total of 46 production experiments were completed using the subscale brine test facility. The test program was broken into two test series. Test Series 1 was completed using a core inlet geometry representative of Westinghouse fuel components, and Series 2 was completed using a geometry representative of AREVA fuel components. Section 6 presents the detailed test matrix, and Sections 7 through 11 present and analyze the test data obtained during the program, which includes tests conducted with debris injection only, brine injection only, and tests with both debris and brine injection.

The subscale brine test program was successful in improving the state of knowledge of densitydriven mass transport between the core and the lower plenum in the presence of in-vessel debris. The testing considered a broad range of conditions prototypic of those expected to occur following a postulated large CLB LOCA and considered both Westinghouse and AREVA core inlet geometries by using prototypic fuel components.

The debris only test results demonstrate that debris beds formed under low-flow conditions prototypic of a large CLB scenario result in minimal head loss with the maximum pressure drop achieved across the debris bed being less than []^{a,c} when experimental uncertainty was considered. The addition of particulate debris was shown to have [

]^{a,c} for the low fibrous debris

loadings considered in this testing.

The brine test results demonstrate [

]^{a,c} Densimetric

Froude number provides the relative importance of inertia to buoyancy forces. As Froude number reduces buoyancy forces become more dominate. In this scenario, a reduction in upward liquid velocity or an increase in density difference results in a reduction in Froude number. [

]^{a,c} ·

2 INTRODUCTION

Westinghouse and the PWROG have designed and built the subscale brine test facility to investigate the influence that fibrous debris collection at the core inlet has on density-driven mass transport between the core and lower plenum regions of a PWR reactor vessel. The goal of the test program was to obtain concentration distribution data in the core and lower plenum regions of the test facility such that the exchange flow rate across the core inlet geometry could be calculated. Debris bed pressure drop data was also collected throughout the testing. The experiments will provide insight into the physical phenomena occurring in a reactor vessel following a postulated large CLB LOCA and the results will be used to justify an in-vessel debris limit for the large CLB scenario.

The subscale brine test facility is an adiabatic, separate effects test facility that takes advantage of an existing test apparatus constructed by Westinghouse and the PWROG for resolution of invessel debris effects under Nuclear Regulatory Commission (NRC) Generic Safety Issue 191 (GSI-191) (Reference 2-1). The brine test facility was designed to simulate the post-LOCA density gradient that exists between the core and lower plenum by using a high density brine solution that is injected downstream from the core inlet geometry. The injected brine will create the necessary density gradient to transport mass through the core inlet geometry. The testing investigated how this density-driven transport mechanism is influenced by the presence of debris collection at the core inlet.

This report provides details of the test facility design, the experimental setup, and the results obtained. Analysis is provided to quantify the influence of in-vessel debris on the density-driven mass transport (exchange rate) between the core and the lower plenum regions of a reactor vessel.

2.1 BACKGROUND

Assessment of post-LOCA long-term core cooling (LTCC) has gained considerable regulatory attention over the last decade. Extended power uprates (EPUs) have provided the opportunity for the NRC to challenge some of the common approaches, assumptions and simplifications used in the analyses that support the plant methods and timing for boric acid precipitation control (BAPC). The entire U.S. PWR fleet uses boron as a reactivity control method and is subject to the potential for BAP in the reactor vessel under certain post-LOCA scenarios. The common approach for demonstrating adequate BAPC in a post-LOCA scenario includes the use of simplified methods with conservative boundary conditions and assumptions. These methods are used with limiting scenarios in calculations that determine the time at which appropriate operator action must be taken to initiate an active boric acid dilution flow path or alternately, to show that BAP will not occur.

Prior to 2004, the majority of PWR licensees used Westinghouse topical report CENPD-254, "Post LOCA Long Term Cooling Model" (Reference 2-2) or a similar method to demonstrate adequate BAPC. However, this topical report has since been suspended for use by the NRC due to the discovery of non-conservative modeling assumptions (Reference 2-3). Licensees who relied on CENPD-254-P or similar methods were requested by the NRC to perform an

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evaluation to confirm that sufficient margin exists and that they remain in compliance with the regulations and their design basis.

In response to the NRC request, and in accordance with the stated NRC expectations, the PWROG funded a program to review and qualitatively evaluate the BAPC analysis-of-record (AOR) for each participating licensee to confirm that post-LOCA BAP would not occur and those regulatory requirements are met. As suggested by the staff, these evaluations used insights from analyses performed for the Waterford 3 EPU, along with recent analyses for the Beaver Valley and Ginna EPUs, to show that existing calculations are conservative and post-LOCA BAP would not occur with the existing plant mitigation measures. The results from this evaluation were submitted to the NRC in OG-06-200 (Reference 2-3), which concluded that sufficient margin exists in the methodology and assumptions to prevent the boric acid concentration in the reactor vessel from exceeding the solubility limit before established operator actions are completed.

One of the margins credited in the evaluation presented in OG-06-200 was the lower plenum volume. However, the closure of GSI-191 has brought crediting this margin into question due to a potential technical issue regarding the influence of in-vessel debris following a postulated large CLB. The potential technical issue, as identified by the NRC, centers on whether a debris bed formed at the core inlet, could cut off communication between the core and lower plenum and prevent the transport of high concentration boric acid into the lower plenum. This must be addressed for the evaluations contained in OG-06-200 to remain valid for plants in which lower plenum volume was credited.

This test program is intended to investigate the impact of in-vessel debris on the transport of mass between the core and the lower plenum. Ultimately, the results from this program will be used to define an in-vessel fibrous debris limit for the large CLB scenario such that communication between the core and lower plenum will continue.

2.2 PROTOTYPIC SCENARIO

For typical plant designs (Westinghouse 2-loop Upper Plenum Injection (UPI) plants excluded), the limiting scenario for BAP is a large cold leg (pump discharge) break where the downcomer is eventually filled and the excess safety injection (SI) flows out of the break. The SI flow into the core region is largely limited to that quantity boiled-off in the core to remove decay heat. The steam generated in the core travels around the intact hot leg(s) (or through the Reactor Vessel Vent Valves (RVVVs) in B&W-designed plants) to exit the break. Boric acid left behind accumulates in the core region and the boric acid concentration in the core region increases. Eventually, the core region boric acid concentration increases to the point that it is high enough to overcome the kinetic energy associated with the upward flow from the lower plenum needed to replace boil-off. At this point, buoyancy-driven mass transport occurs between the core and the lower plenum. Higher concentration boric acid from the core region is exchanged with lower concentration boric acid from the lower plenum. During this time, the core and upper plenum are filled with a two-phase mixture whose liquid content is dependent on the degree of voiding in the core and upper plenum region. The degree of voiding is a function of the core decay heat, the reactor coolant system (RCS) pressure, and the pressure drop around the loop (or through

the RVVVs), as it affects the hydrostatic balance between the downcomer head and the collapsed liquid level in the core. At low RCS pressures and high decay heat levels, the boiling in the core is vigorous, and the volume of liquid in the core region is smaller. As the decay heat drops off, the boiling becomes less vigorous and more liquid is retained in the core region.

Westinghouse U.S. 2-loop plants differ from typical PWR designs because they utilize low pressure upper plenum safety injection (i.e., UPI). For these plants, the limiting large break LOCA BAP scenario is a hot leg break where the cold leg high pressure SI may be terminated at or prior to sump recirculation. This scenario is relevant only with the very conservative assumption that all UPI flow in excess of core boil-off bypasses the core region and flows directly out of the break (i.e., no mixing in the core and upper plenum). Under this scenario, buoyancy-driven mass transport from the core to the lower plenum is still relevant and will increase the effective mixing volume used to predict the build-up of boric acid in the reactor vessel.

2.3 POST-LOCA BORIC ACID PRECIPITATION ANALYSIS METHODOLOGY

For Westinghouse-designed and CE-designed plants, BAP calculations are used to determine the appropriate time to switch some or all the emergency core cooling system (ECCS) sump recirculation flow to the hot leg or to otherwise show that BAP will not occur. For B&W-designed plants, BAP calculations are used to justify plant-specific active boric acid dilution methods or limitations on the dilution methods (e.g., plant specific auxiliary pressurizer spray flows, protection of the sump screens, prevention of potential water-hammer scenarios in the decay heat piping, challenges to Net Positive Suction Head (NPSH) limits for Low Pressure Injection (LPI) pumps, hot and cold fluid mixing limits, prevention of BAP inside the decay heat cooler).

Current post-LOCA boric acid analysis methodologies do not consider the effects of GSI-191 invessel debris. The current analysis methods assume that the coolant entering the reactor vessel is free of any debris constituents. Further, the analyses do not account for any effects that invessel debris may have on the mixing and transport phenomena associated with BAP.

The NRC has identified the lack of GSI-191 considerations in the current post-LOCA analysis methodologies as a potential technical issue. The technical issue is focused on the impact of invessel debris on the effective mixing volume used to calculate the build-up of boric acid in the reactor vessel. Typical Westinghouse methods assume that the lower plenum volume is part of the effective mixing volume and if the lower plenum volume is removed, the build-up of boric acid in the reactor vessel is accelerated. Providing additional experimental information to help address this potential technical issue is the focus of this testing activity.

2.4 REFERENCES

- 2-1 WCAP-17788-P/NP (Proprietary/Non-Proprietary), "Comprehensive Analysis and Test Program for GSI-191 Closure (PA-SEE-1090) – Subscale Head Loss Test Program Report," July 2015.
- 2-2 CENPD-254-P, "Post-LOCA Long Term Cooling Evaluation Model," June 1980.

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- 2-3 NRC letter dated November 23, 2005, D. S. Collins to G. C. Bischoff, "Suspension of NRC Approval for use of Westinghouse Topical Report CENPD-254-P, Post LOCA Long Term Cooling Model, Due to Discovery of Non-Conservative Modeling Assumptions During Calculation Audit."
- 2-4 OG-06-200, "Suspension of NRC Approval for Use of Westinghouse Topical Report CENPD-254-P, Post LOCA Long Term Cooling Model, Due to Discovery of Non-Conservative Modeling Assumptions During Calculation Audit, PA-ASC-0290," June 2006.

3 REVIEW OF PREVIOUS WORK

A number of natural convection experiments and analyses have been completed that are relevant to the subscale brine testing. In this section, these experiments and analyses are reviewed to introduce the physical phenomena of buoyancy-driven exchange (countercurrent) flow which is the primary mechanism for core-to-lower plenum mass transport investigated by the subscale brine testing.

3.1 BUOYANCY-DRIVEN EXCHANGE FLOW THROUGH SMALL OPENINGS IN A HORIZONTAL PARTITION

In Reference 3-1, Epstein completed an experimental study of buoyancy-driven exchange flow through a single opening in a horizontal partition. In the experiments, a density-driven exchange flow was obtained by placing brine in a tank above the partition and fresh water in a second tank below the partition. For opening aspect ratios (L/D) in the range of 0.01 to 10, where *L* and *D* are the length of the opening and the diameter of the opening, respectively, Epstein concluded that the exchange flow rate, for all practical purposes, was independent of viscosity. This enables the purely buoyancy-driven volumetric exchange rate, Q_{cc} , to be correlated with respect to Froude number (dimensionless exchange rate) and the aspect ratio:

$$\frac{Q_{cc}}{(D^5 g \,\Delta \rho/\bar{\rho})^{1/2}} = \frac{0.055 \left[1 + 400 (L/D)^3\right]^{1/6}}{\left(1 + 0.00527 \left[1 + 400 (L/D)^3\right]^{1/2} \left[(L/D)^6 + 117 (L/D)^2\right]^{3/4}\right)^{1/3}} \quad \text{Eq. 3-1}$$

where the left hand side of Eq. 3-1 is the densimetric Froude number with g being the gravitational constant, $\Delta \rho$ the density gradient between the two fluids, and $\bar{\rho}$ the average density.

Also in Reference 3-1, Epstein extended the experimental study to consider buoyancy-driven exchange flow between two compartments separated by a horizontal partition with two openings, which can result in more complex flow patterns than those observed in the experiments that considered a single opening.

For flow through each opening in a multi-opening system, the flow may be unidirectional and form a convective loop, as illustrated in Figure 3-1(a). On the other hand, simultaneous unidirectional flow and countercurrent (bidirectional) flow may occur, as illustrated in Figure 3-1(b). Under certain conditions, it is also possible to obtain bidirectional flow through all openings, as illustrated in Figure 3-1(c). It is relevant to note that the bidirectional flow shown in Figure 3-1(b) is different from that encountered in a system with a single opening in that in the former case the upward flow rate is not equal to the downward flow rate. With downward unidirectional flow occurring in opening 2, continuity demands that the upward flow exceed the downward flow within opening 1.

It is apparent from Epstein's work (Reference 3-1) that the flow within any opening of a multiopening system may be bidirectional if the unidirectional flow established throughout the system is not high enough to prevent the opposing flow in the opening. In other words, some minimal unidirectional, "purging" or "flooding" velocity is required to prevent countercurrent flow within the opening. In the flow configuration shown in Figure 3-1(a), the strength of the unidirectional convective loop is sufficient to prevent the downward flow of the heavier liquid into opening 1 and the upward flow of lighter liquid into opening 2. To the contrary, in the situation depicted in Figure 3-1(b), the loop flow is not strong enough to oppose the downward movement of the heavier fluid at opening 1.





Epstein has shown in Reference 3-1 that an expression for the exchange flow rate for the unidirectional flow configuration shown in Figure 3-1(a) can be obtained by application of the Bernoulli equation. The derivation is not repeated here but assuming there is no net volumetric flow to each compartment and that the entrance loss coefficients for the openings are the same and equal to 1/2, the following equation can be written to determine the unidirectional volumetric flow rate, Q_u :

$$Q_u = 0.805 \left[\frac{A_1^2 g \Delta \rho L}{\rho_L + \rho_H (A_1/A_2)^2} \right]^{1/2}$$
 Eq. 3-2

where A_1 and A_2 are the areas of openings 1 and 2, respectively. *L* is the length of the gravitational head of the system, and ρ_L and ρ_H are the light and heavy fluid densities, respectively. The coefficient of 0.805 on the right hand side of Eq. 3-2 has been reduced by 30% of the value derived from the Bernoulli equation. This was done based on experimental results obtained in Reference 3-1 which showed that the exchange flow was about 70 percent of the theoretical predicted by Eq. 3-2 when a coefficient of 1.15 was used. Apparently additional contractions and losses reduce the exchange flow rate through the system (Reference 3-1).

3.2 COMBINED BUOYANCY-DRIVEN EXCHANGE FLOW AND FORCED FLOW THROUGH SMALL OPENINGS IN A HORIZONTAL PARTITION

Reference 3-2 is a continuation of the work completed by Epstein in Reference 3-1 and provides an empirical formula for the one-way (unidirectional) purging flow rate that is necessary to prevent countercurrent exchange flow (bidirectional) within a single opening in a horizontal partition. The empirical correlation developed yields the magnitude of the buoyant component of this combined flow in terms of the pure countercurrent flow rate determined in Reference 3-1 and the flooding flow rate for the opening. Reference 3-2 also demonstrates, through an experimental study, that the correlation for combined flow through a single opening can be extended to successfully predict the convection patterns that develop within more complex geometries with multiple openings.

As a means of introducing the empirical correlation for simultaneous forced flow and reverse buoyancy-driven flow through a horizontal partition, Reference 3-2 first considers the simpler case of combined flow in an opening in a vertical partition. Using hydraulic theory, Reference 3-2 determined that the buoyancy-driven component of combined convection, Q_{BF} , through a single opening in a vertical partition can be represented by the following expression:

$$Q_{BF} = Q_{cc}(1 - Q_u/q)^m$$
 Eq. 3-3

where Q_{cc} is the purely buoyancy-driven exchange flow rate across the partition (i.e., the exchange flow rate without a forced convection component), Q_u the one-way (unidirectional) buoyancy-driven exchange flow rate, q the flooding, or purging, flow rate and m some constant exponent. It is noted that the buoyant flow $Q_{BF} \rightarrow 0$ as the flooding limit $Q_u = q$ is approached and that the condition of purely buoyantly-driven countercurrent flow is reached when $Q_u = 0$.

In view of the mingling of the heavy and light fluid streams in a vertical orientation, it is not possible to derive a similar functional relationship that is applicable to openings in horizontal partitions. However, it is reasonable to assume that Q_{BF} through openings in a horizontal partition will conform closely to Eq. 3-3.

With the theoretical groundwork complete, Reference 3-2 performs a series of combined flow experiments to determine empirical correlations for the flooding flow rate and the constant exponent contained in Eq. 3-3. Similar to the expression for purely buoyantly-driven exchange flow found by Epstein in Reference 3-1, the expression for the flooding flow rate is:

$$\frac{q}{(D^5 g \,\Delta \rho / \bar{\rho})^{1/2}} = \frac{0.19 \left[1 + 4000 (L/D)^3\right]^{1/9}}{\left(1 + 0.05091 (L/D)^{16/7} \left[1 + 4000 (L/D)^3\right]^{4/9}\right)^{1/4}}$$
Eq. 3-4

And the constant value for the exponent, m, in Eq. 3-3 is 2.3.

In the case of a multi-opening system like that shown in Figure 3-1, Reference 3-2 has shown that Eq. 3-3 is also applicable. In the case where the flooding flow rate, q, is greater than the unidirectional flow Q_u , Figure 3-1(b) applies and the total exchange flow, Q, is:

$$Q = Q_u + Q_{BF}$$
 Eq. 3-5

Solving Eq. 3-5 for Q_{BF} and substituting into Eq. 3-3 yields:

$$Q = Q_u + Q_{cc}(1 - Q_u/q)^{2.3}$$
 Eq. 3-6

Conversely, if the flooding flow rate is less than the unidirectional flow, Figure 3-1(a) applies and the total exchange flow rate is only the unidirectional flow:

$$Q = Q_u$$
 Eq. 3-7

3.3 CORE-TO-LOWER PLENUM BORON TRANSPORT MODEL

Using the empirical relations presented in the previous section, a two-region model has been created to predict the boric acid concentrations in the core and lower plenum by assuming liquid-density-gradient-gravity-driven exchange flow through the lower core plate. Each region is assumed to be well mixed and therefore, the boric acid concentration and temperature in each region is assumed to be uniformly distributed throughout. The core is assumed to be at saturation temperature while the lower plenum can be either saturated or subcooled, depending on the user specified initial condition. In this scenario, the flow required to make-up for boil-off is defined as the unidirectional flow, Q_u , (i.e., an externally supplied flow) and bidirectional flow is present in all of the lower core plate holes such that the total exchange flow rate is determined using Eq. 3-5. The problem is depicted schematically in Figure 3-2.





Inception of boric acid transport is determined by two factors. First, the density gradient between the core and lower plenum due to solute concentration differences must overcome the density gradient caused by the temperature difference between the core and lower plenum if subcooling exists in the lower plenum region. Second, since there is upflow through the reactor vessel due to the makeup of liquid boil-off, the buoyancy-driven exchange flow in the downward direction must be larger than the boil-off flow rate in the upward direction such that the downward flow can penetrate through the lower core plate and into the lower plenum. By modeling the inception in this fashion, both the effects of subcooling in the lower plenum and upward liquid kinetic energy due to the makeup of boil-off are accounted for.

It is expected that if a debris bed forms at the core inlet, it will provide an additional resistance to the inception of boric acid transport. This resistance is currently not accounted for in the two-region boric acid transport model.

The volumetric flow of make-up water through the lower plenum and into the core is Q_u , which is equal to the boil-off rate, and the source concentration (weight fraction) of boric acid into the lower plenum from the sump is denoted by the symbol M_o. The quantity of interest is the

concentration of boric acid in the core, M_1 , as a function of time, t, within the core region. In order to predict this concentration, the following simplifying assumptions are made:

- 1. The lower plenum and core regions are well mixed and the boric acid concentration and temperature profiles within these regions are spatially uniform.
- 2. The lower core plate represents the only resistance to buoyancy-driven transport between the core and lower plenum.
- 3. The Boussinesq approximation is invoked such that the variation of liquid density with liquid temperature and solute concentration appears only in the buoyancy terms and all other terms that contain density are represented with an effective density which is defined as the average density between the core and lower plenum.
- 4. The water in the core instantaneously rises to saturation temperature and remains there throughout the transient.
- 5. The volumetric coefficient of thermal expansion of water, β and the boric acid expansion coefficient, k are known.

The boil-off flow, Q_u through the vessel is essentially an externally supplied flow that passes through the lower core plate and carries boric acid into the core region. Initially, the boric acid concentration in the core increases with time at a rate directly proportional to Q_u . However, when the boric acid in the core becomes sufficiently concentrated, the density of the core solution exceeds that of the solution in the lower plenum. This density difference induces a buoyancy-driven, countercurrent downflow of the heavier core liquid and consequential upflow of the lighter liquid through the openings in the lower core plate.

3.3.1 Model Equations

In accordance with the assumptions presented in the previous section, the following linear expression for the density difference, $\Delta \rho_{21}$ between the liquid in the lower plenum (region 2) and the reactor core (region 1) can be written as:

$$\Delta \rho_{21} = \rho \beta (T_2 - T_{sat}) + \rho k (M_1 - M_2)$$
(3-8)

where T and M refer to the temperature and boric acid weight fraction, respectively. p is the effective constant density of the liquid solution in the vessel and is defined as the average between the lower plenum and core densities:

$$\rho = \frac{\left(\rho_1 + \rho_2\right)}{2} \tag{3-9}$$

The term Q_u represents the net upward flow through the lower core plate required for make-up due to boil-off of liquid in the core region. It is the difference between the actual upward flow

through the plate, Q and the buoyancy-driven downward flow from the core to the lower plenum, Q_{BF} . A volumetric flow balance across the lower core plate requires that:

$$Q_u = Q - Q_{BF} \tag{3-10}$$

The countercurrent flow occurs within each opening (hole) in the lower core plate. Denoting N as the number of holes in the plate and assuming that each hole in the plate has the same diameter, Q_u/N may be regarded as an externally imposed, upward forced flow opposite to the downward buoyant flow, Q_{BF}/N in each opening. This is the flow pattern that was studied experimentally by Epstein and Kenton as described in Section 3.2.

The time histories of the solute concentrations, M_i , and the temperatures, T_i , in each region are given transient solute mass and liquid energy balances. Applying the correlations for Q_{BF} along with Eq. 3-10, the transient mass and liquid energy balances can be simplified to form a set of nonlinear equations that are functions of T_i , M_i , Q_{BF} , and Q_u which can be solved numerically for a set of given initial and boundary conditions.

3.3.2 Inception Criteria

In view of Eq. 3-8, when $\Delta \rho_{21} \leq 0$ the system is stably stratified and the buoyancy-driven back flow, Q_{BF} is zero, that is:

$$Q_{BF} = 0$$
 when $\Delta \rho_{21} \le 0$ (3-11)

Also, when the destabilizing density difference, $\Delta \rho_{21}$ is positive but small, the buoyancy-driven back flow is not large enough to penetrate the upward makeup flow, Q_u through the core plate and the net downward transport rate is again zero:

$$Q_{BF} = 0 \qquad \text{when } q_{21} \le Q_u \tag{3-12}$$

Eqs. 3-11 and 3-12 define the inception criteria for the transport of higher concentration boric acid from the core to lower plenum. If the liquid in the lower plenum is not subcooled, then $\Delta p_{21} \ge 0$ and Eq. 3-12 is the only criterion that has to be met, and transport between the core and lower plenum will occur sooner in the transient. If subcooling exists in the lower plenum, $\Delta p_{21} \le 0$ and the concentration gradient between the core and lower plenum will have to overcome the oppositely opposing temperature gradient in addition to Eq. 3-12, and inception will occur later in the transient.

3.3.3 Plant Simulation

Using a typical Westinghouse 3-loop PWR plant model, an analysis using the boron transport model described above is performed to estimate the boric acid concentration gradient required to initiate buoyancy-driven exchange flow across the lower core plate. This analysis is performed using 10 CFR 50 Appendix K decay heat, prototypic dimensions, and it assumes the exchange flow from the core mixes in the entire lower plenum volume. The lower plenum liquid

temperature is set to 130°F. The application of subcooling in the lower plenum results in a larger concentration gradient between the core and lower plenum at the inception time which in turn delays the onset of exchange flow.

Results from this simulation show that the inception to buoyancy-driven transport from the core to the lower plenum occurs within 1000 seconds (0.28 hours) following the postulated LOCA when the concentration gradient between the core and lower plenum is roughly 8.5 wt% boric acid. This result is consistent with observations from available experimental data which indicates an approximate 8.5 wt% concentration gradient at the inception time. A comparison of this run to results from a typical licensing basis calculation is provided in Figure 3-3 (see Reference 3-3 for a discussion on typical licensing basis BAP calculations). As the figure shows, the core boric acid concentration from the prediction using the core-to-lower plenum boron transport model initially increases at a faster rate compared to the typical licensing basis calculation, because the effective mixing volume is smaller. After the inception time, the core concentration build-up rate slows as the lower plenum concentration begins to increase. Just after 10000 seconds, the core boric acid concentration predicted with the boron transport model crosses the concentration predicted by the licensing basis calculation and remains below it for the remainder of the transient. The lower plenum concentration trend follows the core concentration but remains roughly 8.5 wt% lower for the remainder of the transient. The hot leg switchover time predicted using the boron transport model is 8.32 hours which is almost 2 hours longer than that predicted by the licensing basis type calculation.

If communication (exchange flow) between the core and lower plenum begins before a resistive debris bed forms, some credit can be taken for the lower plenum volume. In addition, when the core boric acid concentration becomes high enough to overcome the temperature gradient between the core and lower plenum, as well as the upward force generated by the upward makeup flow, the system becomes unstable. This instability may generate oscillations in the flow field, around the core inlet which could serve to breakup or prevent a debris bed from forming. It is shown in Figure 3-4 that the magnitude of the countercurrent exchange flow between the core and lower plenum overcomes that required to replace boil-off within the first 10000 seconds of the transient. Given that the countercurrent exchange flow is greater than the upward flow required to replace boil-off, it can be postulated that the exchange flow would break-up any existing debris bed or prevent one from forming. This behavior will be investigated as part of the subscale brine testing.



Figure 3-3 Predicted Boric Acid Concentration Build-Up from Boron Transport Model



Figure 3-4 Boil-off Rate Compared to the Core-to-Lower Plenum Exchange Flow Rate Predicted by the Boron Transport Model

3.4 REFERENCES

- 3-1 Epstein, M. "Buoyancy-Driven Exchange Flow Through Small Openings in Horizontal Partitions," J. Heat Transfer 110, pp. 885-893, 1988.
- 3-2 Epstein, M. and Kenton, M. A. "Combined Natural Convection and Forced Flow through Small Openings in a Horizontal Partition: With Special Reference to Flows in Multi-Compartment Enclosures," J. Heat Transfer 111, pp. 980-987, 1989.
- 3-3 OG-13-205, "NRC Technical Concerns Regarding Boric Acid Precipitation in the Presence of In-Vessel Fibrous Debris and the Consequential Effects on Long-Term Core Cooling (PWROG PA-SEE-1090 and PA-SEE-1072)," May 2013.

4 SELECTION OF WORKING FLUID

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The subscale brine testing is intended to study the density-driven flow patterns governed by the concentration gradient of boron solutes that develop between the core and lower plenum. While it would be preferable to use varying concentrations of borated solution as the working fluid, the subscale test facility is not able to operate at the conditions necessary to study the borated solution concentrations of interest, nor is it equipped to insulate against the heat losses associated with elevated temperatures. Additionally, there are difficulties associated with the accurate measurement of these solution concentrations. Instead, various borated solution at room temperature, an approach which has been used with success in the density-driven experiments of Epstein (Reference 3-1), Epstein and Kenton (Reference 3-2), and Mercer and Thompson (Reference 4-1).

4.2 WORKING FLUID PROPERTIES

The goal of the brine testing is to gain insight into the behavior of the RCS coolant near the core inlet under large CLB conditions. Therefore, the choice of working fluid at room temperature should replicate as closely as possible the properties of varying concentrations of borated solutions at 212°F and near atmospheric conditions. The primary thermodynamic properties of interest for this buoyancy-driven experiment are density and viscosity.

Four different aqueous salt solutions are examined: sodium chloride (NaCl), potassium bromide (KBr), potassium chloride (KCl), and sodium bromide (NaBr). All properties of these salt solutions are found in Reference 4-2. The boric acid (H₃BO₃) densities and viscosities are found in Reference 4-3.

4.2.1 Density

Figure 4-1 presents comparisons of the density and density gradient between varying concentrations of the four salt solutions and boric acid. Because this is a buoyancy-driven experiment, it is the density gradient, rather than the absolute value of the density, that is most important. Therefore, the working fluid should cover the full range of density gradients resulting from boric acid concentrations between zero and the solubility limit defined in Reference 4-3. Figure 4-1 shows that this is the case for all four salt solutions. The solubility limits for buffered and unbuffered boric acid at 212°F are contained in Table 4-1 below.

Table 4-1 Buffered and Unbuffered Bor	ic Acid Solubility Limits	
Coolent	Boron Concentration	
Coolant	ppm	wt%
Boric Acid	47,121	27.0
Boric Acid, NaOH (pH 7)	113,532	64.9
Boric Acid, NaOH (pH 10)	69,891	40.0
Boric Acid, TSP	67,753	38.8
Boric Acid, NaTB	51,552	29.5

Comparison of Salt Solutions at 20 C against Boric Acid at 100 C





4.2.2 Dynamic Viscosity

Data for the viscosity of boric acid solutions at 212°F is limited. With points at 0, 1.44, and 25.7 wt% boric acid, it is assumed that a linear relationship exists over the full range of concentrations.

The viscosity for all four salt solutions is approximately two to five times that of the boric acid solution being simulated as shown in Figure 4-2. This is due to the dependence of viscosity on temperature and the difference between the test facility and post-LOCA liquid temperatures in the reactor vessel. Without being able to replicate the absolute viscosity, it's important that the relative trend of viscosity as a function of mass percent be similar to that of boric acid. In other words, as the solution concentration increases, so should the dynamic viscosity. Sodium Bromide seems to best fit this goal, as it has a nearly linear increasing viscosity over the range of interest, whereas NaCl has a non-linear increasing relationship, KCl has a slightly decreasing then increasing relationship, and KBr has a decreasing relationship.





These differences in the absolute viscosity can be put into perspective through dimensional analysis. Tritton makes clear that when the Grashof number (Gr) is large, viscous forces are negligible compared with the buoyancy and inertial forces (Section 14.5 of Reference 4-4):

$$Gr = \frac{g \cdot \beta \cdot (C_1 - C_0) \cdot L^3}{v^2}$$
(4-1)

where,

$$\beta = -\frac{1}{\rho} \left(\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial C} \right)_{T,p} \tag{4-2}$$

and

g is the acceleration due to gravity

 C_0 is the concentration of the species at position 0

 C_1 is the concentration of the species at position 1

L is the characteristic length

- u is the kinematic viscosity
- ρ is the fluid density
- ${\boldsymbol C}$ is the concentration of the species

While the viscosity of the boric acid solution being simulated may be as much as five times greater than that of the salt solution, it is still a relatively small value. With the kinematic viscosity being on the order of $\sim 10^{-7}$ m²/s, squaring this term results in a large Grashof number under the conditions being tested. Such a finding is again consistent with Tritton, who stated that even for very small temperature differences (1°C), the Grashof number for water will be on the order of $\sim 10^{3}$, causing vigorous convection currents to arise.

A sample calculation reflecting the brine testing conditions is provided in order to demonstrate the dominance of buoyant forces. A characteristic length of 0.5 inches is used in the following calculations, as this reflects the length of the bottom nozzle, which serves as the separation between the corresponding chemical concentrations.

$$\beta = \frac{1}{1000 \frac{kg}{m^3}} \times \frac{99.6 \frac{kg}{m^3}}{29.27 \text{ wt\%}}$$
$$Gr = \frac{(9.81 \frac{m}{s^2})(0.0034 \text{ wt\%}^{-1})(1.0 - 0.0 \text{ wt\%})(0.0127 m^3)}{(3.214 \times 10^{-7} \frac{m^2}{s})^2}$$

 $Gr = 1.281 \times 10^6 @0.5wt\% H_3 BO_3$

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The same calculation is performed for KBr:

$$\beta = \frac{1}{1000 \frac{kg}{m^3}} \times \frac{374.3 \frac{kg}{m^3}}{40.0 wt\%}$$
$$Gr = \frac{(9.81\frac{m}{s^2})(0.0094 wt\%^{-1})(1.0 - 0.0wt\%)(0.0127m^3)}{\left(7.648 \times 10^{-7} \frac{m^2}{s}\right)^2}$$

 $Gr = 1.908 \times 10^5 @0.5wt\% KBr$

This calculation is performed at varying solute concentrations in order to generate Figure 4-3, which shows the Grashof numbers much greater than 1 over the full range of concentrations analyzed. It is noted that using a larger length scale would only result in higher values of Grashof number.





It's also important to consider that in the proposed brine testing, the salt solution will be injected in the presence of a counter-current flow, in which the Froude number (Fr) can be used to predict the onset of density-driven flow by providing the relative importance of inertia to buoyancy forces (Reference 4-4).

$$Fr = \sqrt{\frac{\overline{\rho} \cdot U^2}{g \cdot L \cdot \Delta \rho}}$$
(4-3)

Where $\overline{\rho}$ is the average density between the two fluids, U the fluid velocity, and $\Delta \rho$ the density difference of the two fluids.

The formulation of the Froude number reinforces the fact that so long as the density gradient is equivalent between the salt solution and the boric acid solution being simulated, the fluid behavior will be similar as well.

4.2.3 Electrical Conductivity

The electrical conductivity will serve as the means of concentration measurement. Data for aqueous KBr as a function of concentration is provided in Section 5-71 of Reference 4-2, and is repeated in Table 4-2 below.

Table 4-2 Electrical Conductivity of Aqueous Potassium Bromide		
Concentration (wt%)	Conductivity (mS/cm)	
0.5	5.2	
1	10.2	
2	19.5	
5	47.7	
10	95.6	
15	144	
20	194	

The conductivity is also provided in Figure 4-4 for convenience. A linear fit is made by omitting the data above 10 wt%. The resulting fit has an R^2 value of 0.9997. Based on the figure, the linear curve fit reasonably represents the data above 10 wt% as well.

4-6



Figure 4-4 Potassium Bromide (KBr) Conductivity versus Concentration

4.3 CONCLUSIONS

The use of a salt solution to model the buoyancy-driven behavior of a differing fluid is a common approach, employed by Epstein (Reference 3-1), Epstein and Kenton (Reference 3-2), Mercer and Thompson (Reference 4-2), and Steckler et al. (Reference 4-5). Steckler showed through dimensional analysis that for Reynolds numbers greater than $\sim 10^4$, the molecular transport terms of the governing equations become negligible. Based on these insights and the comparisons of density and viscosity, as well as the electrical conductivity, it was determined that all four salt solutions would well suit the needs of this testing. However, due to practical purposes, potassium bromide (KBr) is selected as the working fluid for the brine testing.

A linear fit is performed in Eq. 4-4 below for the density gradient of KBr as a function of wt% KBr. Similarly, a linear fit is performed between the wt% of KBr at 68°F versus wt% boric acid at 212°F in Eq. 4-5. Given a wt% of KBr, the solution to Eq. 4-5 represents the wt% of boric acid that would produce the same density gradient. For example, a 3 wt% solution of KBr at 68°F would produce the same density gradient as a 12.78 wt% solution of boric acid at 212°F. This trend is shown graphically in Figure 4-5.

$$\Delta \rho_{KBr} = 0.0092 \times wt\%_{KBr} - 0.0132 \tag{4-4}$$

$$wt\%_{H_3Bo_3} = 4.7213 \times wt\%_{KBr} - 1.3837$$
 (4-5)



Figure 4-5 Boric Acid Concentration versus Potassium Bromide (KBr) Concentration

4.4 REFERENCES

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- 4-2 David R. Lide, CRC Handbook of Chemistry and Physics, CRC Press, 89th Edition, 2008.
- 4-3 WCAP-17021-NP, Rev. 1, "Summary of Tests to Determine the Physical Properties of Buffered and Un-buffered Boric Acid Solutions," January 2010.
- 4-4 D. J. Tritton, "Physical Fluid Dynamics," Oxford Science Publications, Second Edition, 1988.
- 4-5 K. D. Steckler, H. R. Baum, J. G. Quintiere, "Salt Water Modeling of Fire Induced Flows in Multicompartment Enclosures," NBSIR 86-3327, 1986.

5 TEST FACILITY DESCRIPTION

5.1 OVERVIEW

The test facility was constructed at the Westinghouse thermal hydraulic test laboratory located in Churchill, Pennsylvania. Figure 5-1 shows a schematic of the subscale brine test facility. The design consists of a 4 inch inner-dimension, square cross-section column that houses the tested capture geometry. The vertical column was fabricated with clear polycarbonate sidewalls to provide optical access. For all testing, flow was injected from the bottom of the test column and directed upwards through the tested capture geometry. Brine was injected downstream of the simulated core region using a sparger designed to uniformly inject the brine across the entire flow column cross-section.



Figure 5-1 Subscale Brine Test Facility Process Flow Diagram

For all brine testing, the primary flow rate was set using the debris injection system (DIS) injection pump, which was controlled throughout each test using a variable frequency drive. The DIS injection pump drive was controlled to follow a predetermined flow rate curve based on decay heat. The main coolant loop pump (Pump 1) was only used during pre- and post-test operations.

Downstream of the test column, all debris that penetrated the test geometry was collected in a high capture efficiency bag filter (Filter 1). Post-test weight from the bag filter allowed debris penetration to be directly quantified. Given the low flow rates through the test column, pump 3 was used as a booster pump to increase the flow rate through the filter, which was required to achieve efficient capture by the bag filter.

Brine testing was completed using a once-through configuration. De-ionized water supplied by the main coolant tank was used as the source coolant and was injected by the DIS into the test column inlet. Brine solution exiting the test column was collected in the discharge tank. The brine supply tank provided the source for the brine injection system. The brine injection tank was mixed to ensure uniform brine concentration during the test duration.

5.2 DEBRIS INTRODUCTION

In general, industry testing of sump strainers and fuel components has not included debris concentration as a controlled variable. However, some efforts have been made to control debris injection such that slugs of debris did not reach the filtering area. For example, NUREG/CR-6917 (Reference 5-1) described a series of tests performed for sump strainer conditions. The strainer inlet conditions were maintained at somewhat controlled concentrations by distributing the debris along a flexible pipe segment and shaking the pipe segment to suspend the debris before initiating flow. However, this method of debris addition likely resulted in an uncontrolled distribution of debris along the pipe segment. In addition, re-circulating debris within the loop would have resulted in a time-varying concentration profile.

The WCAP-16793-NP-A, Revision 2 fuel assembly test program (Reference 5-2) controlled the concentration of fibrous debris with manual additions to a tank with uncontrolled mixing patterns. This method of debris addition resulted in non-uniform debris concentrations reaching the test assembly. The variation of concentration with time was likely a saw-tooth pattern in which peak concentrations would be difficult to calculate. Furthermore, since the method of debris addition was manual, the impact on test-to-test variation may have been significant.

To address these issues, a DIS that controls the concentration of debris reaching the test column at any point in time was designed. One of the design requirements of the DIS was to allow controlled injections over time intervals consistent with those expected during recirculation mode of a PWR. To meet this objective, an online dilution system that allowed control of debris injection over time was designed.

Figure 5-2 and Figure 5-3 show schematics of the DIS. Debris was injected to the test column with an online dilution system that provided a predetermined concentration feed of particulate and fiber debris. The main components of the DIS included two tanks with mixers, an injection

pump, a clean water addition pump, a circulation pump and a 4-way solenoid-operated control valve.

Each tank was stirred with an impeller mounted 15 degrees off axis and centered at one-third of the tank diameter from the bottom of the tank. All piping and fittings within the DIS maintained a 0.5 inch inside diameter (ID) throughout. Clear fluorinated ethylene propylene (FEP) tubing was selected for smooth inner surface and ability to evaluate potential debris trapping with good optical access. Figure 5-4 shows a photograph of the DIS.

The DIS was operated in either an injection mode, shown in Figure 5-2, or a circulation mode shown in Figure 5-3. During injection, contents from the high concentration tank (HCT) were pumped to the low concentration tank (LCT) and into the test column. During circulation mode, the LCT continued to inject to the test column, while the HCT remained isolated. Turning the 4-way valve shown in Figure 5-2 and Figure 5-3 switched between the injection and circulation mode and modulation of the 4-way valve controlled the dilution rate and injection concentration. In this manner, flow was maintained through all of the DIS tubing at all times, which prevented any settling in the tubing.

Before each test, both tanks were filled with water from the primary test loop. For ideal mixing, the DIS tanks were filled to a depth equal to the tank diameter. Before debris introduction into the system, all pumps were circulated at max flow for a period of time, which purged the DIS of any air pockets. All the previous actions were accomplished with the DIS operating in injection mode. After purging the lines, the DIS was switched to circulation mode such that the HCT was isolated from the test loop. Debris was then prepared and added to the HCT. The HCT mixer impeller was turned on at high speed to disperse the debris homogenously in the tank. During this operation, air bubbles could be intentionally entrained into the tank to enhance mixing. After debris dispersion, the HCT and LCT impellers were set at a low speed, sufficient to maintain a homogenous debris suspension without settling, but low enough to prevent vortexing and air entrainment in the un-baffled tanks. During this phase, the circulation pump continued recirculating the contents of the HCT, which was isolated from the test loop by the 4-way valve shown in Figure 5-3. This allowed any air transported to the sample lines during the high speed mixing process to be swept out.

Once this process was complete, all three pumps shown in Figure 5-3 were set to the desired initial flow rate with the DIS still in circulation mode. At this point, no debris had been injected into the test loop. To initiate debris injection, the 4-way valve was turned and DIS switched to injection mode. Debris was pumped from the HCT to the LCT as shown in Figure 5-2. Concurrently, the clean water addition pump was switched from the LCT to the HCT. This prevented debris settling in the circulation loop piping.

The DIS flow rate was automatically controlled by a control program after starting each experiment. The software used a predetermined input file that defined the flow rate throughout the course of each experiment.



Figure 5-2 Debris Injection Schematic (Injection Mode Alignment)

Figure 5-3 Debris Injection Schematic (Circulation Mode Alignment)

a,c



Figure 5-4 Debris Injection System

5.2.1 Debris Constituents

The brine testing utilized fibrous and particulate debris constituents. Chemical debris was not considered because the focus of this testing is on the time period before hot leg switchover (or other active boron dilutions actions). The chemical effects testing provided in WCAP-17788, Vol. 5 (Reference 5-3) has demonstrated that the formation of chemical products occurs after the time period considered in this testing. The fibrous debris constituent was **NUKON**[®] base wool supplied by Performance Contracting Incorporated (PCI) and was from the same batch used in the subscale head loss test program (Reference 2-1). The method for preparing the fibrous debris for introduction into the test was identical to the method used by the subscale head loss program which is described in detail in Reference 2-1.

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The particulate debris selected is identical to that used in the subscale head loss program as well. The particulate is a black silicon carbide powder supplied by UK Abrasives. A particulate size distribution was used in the brine testing as shown in Table 5-1. This size distribution was defined based on test results documented in Section 5.2.6 of Reference 2-1. Evidence was provided that the [$]^{a,c}$ particulate resulted in the most restrictive debris bed since these particle sizes maximized the effects of particle straining and packing density. This distribution is a broad size distribution that is weighted more heavily with particulate diameters of [$]^{a,c}$ Furthermore, the particulate size distribution also included a tail of smaller particulate in an attempt to further maximize particle packing.



5.3 BRINE INTRODUCTION

A brine injection system was used to introduce brine solution into the test column. The brine supply system consists of a 100 gallon brine supply tank, a tank mixer, a positive displacement pump, and a sparger used to inject brine into the test column. All piping and fittings within the brine injection system maintained a 0.5 inch inside diameter (ID) throughout. Clear fluorinated ethylene propylene (FEP) tubing was selected, consistent with that used in the DIS.

The sparger used for dispersing the brine solution into the core region was be made from 1/8 in. schedule 40 stainless steel pipe with a cap on one end. The pipe has an OD of 0.405 in. and inside diameter of 0.269 in. For injecting the brine solution, the pipe contains 6 drilled holes, oriented at 45° off vertical, to evenly disperse the brine solution throughout the core region. The 6 holes were sized to control the exiting fluid velocity through the holes to be less than 2 ft/s.

At an injection rate of 1 gpm, this yields a volumetric flow rate of:

$$1\frac{gal}{\min} \times \frac{1ft^3}{7.48gal} \frac{1}{60} \frac{\min}{\sec} = 2.228 \times 10^{-3} ft^3 / \sec$$

For a hole diameter of 3/16 in, the total flow area is:

$$6 \times \frac{\pi}{4} \cdot \left(\frac{0.1875}{12}\right)^2 = 1.15 \times 10^{-3} \ ft^2$$

Dividing the total flow rate by the flow area yields a fluid exit velocity of 1.94 ft/sec. This value is sufficient to induce mixing in the subscale core region but is low enough to minimize any impact on the buoyancy-driven process being studied.

5.4 FLOW CONTROL

5.4.1 Main Flow

For the main column flow, two flow curves were defined for the brine testing. The first flow decay curve was defined to reduce the flow from a starting value of 0.8 gpm to [$]^{a,c}$ during the debris injection phase of the test. The starting value scaled to the prototypic system is roughly 3 gpm/FA while the end value is roughly [$]^{a,c}$ These flow rates are consistent with those expected during large CLB conditions. The second flow curve was defined to follow the same trend of the first flow control curve only that it continued to decrease after [$]^{a,c}$ was reached. Both flow control curves are shown in Figure 5-5.



5.4.2 Brine Injection Flow

The brine injection flow rate was held constant during the experiments. The brine injection flow rate was controlled by the brine injection pump speed. Since a positive displacement pump was used for brine injection, the flow rate is accurately relatable to the pump speed. Testing completed during the shakedown phase determined the pump speed necessary to achieve the prescribed brine injection flow rate of 0.5 gpm. The pump speed corresponding to 0.5 gpm was programmed into the pump controller and used during the duration of the test program.

5.5 TEST COLUMN

The debris-laden flow from DIS is injected directly upstream of the test column as shown in Figure 5-6. Debris was delivered from the DIS as described in Section 5.2 via a 0.5 inch inner diameter tube to the 1 inch test column inlet. This geometry aided in mixing and provided a uniform distribution of debris entering the test column. For the brine tests, there is no flow from the primary loop piping shown in Figure 5-6 expect during pre- and post-test activities.

a,c

Figure 5-6 Debris Injection Mixing Upstream of Test Column

The debris-laden flow was then passed through a custom 1 inch circular to 4 inch innerdimension, square cross section diffuser as shown in Figure 5-6. This provided a smooth, steep transition to prevent debris from settling on the bottom surface of the diffuser. This geometry also prevented recirculation regions and promoted a uniform debris distribution entering the test column.

Dimensions for the test column are provided in Figure 5-7. The test column was designed to maintain a length-to-diameter (L/D) ratio of 10, corresponding to approximately 40 inches, upstream and downstream of the capture geometry.



Figure 5-7 Dimensioned Drawing of Test Column

5.6 TEST GEOMETRY

5.6.1 Westinghouse Core Inlet Geometry

A center cut of the bottom nozzle (BN), which underlays an 8 x 8 P-grid cut-out, was used for the Westinghouse core inlet geometry brine tests. Several options for a BN cut-out from a full-area BN were considered. However, a single cut-out, with the same dimensions of the subscale test column, would not provide an optimal match of the open flow area ratio. Therefore, a design including [$]^{a,c}$ flow holes with a diameter of [$]^{a,c}$ which is within the tolerance of the Westinghouse RFA BN design was selected. The design includes blocked areas consistent with the location of thimble tubes within the fuel assembly. Table 5-2 shows important dimensions of the tested BN. Figure 5-8 through Figure 5-12 show drawings of the BN and assembled test geometry with grids installed.

Table 5-2 Summary of Tested Westinghouse Bottom Nozzle				
	Value	Units		
BN flow hole diameter	a,c	in		
Total number of BN flow holes				
Total open flow area		in ²		
Open flow area ratio		%		
Test column flow area		in ²		
Ratio of test column inlet flow area to installed FA inlet flow area ¹		%		
Note: ¹ This value is used to scale results from the test geometry to a full-area fuel assembly				

5.6.2 AREVA Core Inlet Geometry

Similar to the Westinghouse test geometry, a central section of a prototypic AREVA lower end fitting was utilized in the brine testing. The AREVA lower end fitting is essentially a screen that serves the same purpose of the Westinghouse BN/P-grid combination in that it is intended to provide structural integrity for the fuel assembly and is designed to capture debris under normal operating conditions. Above the lower end fitting was the same 8 x 8 rod bundle used for the Westinghouse core inlet geometry tests. The rod bundle contained a central region of a prototypic HMP grid properly distanced from the lower end fitting. The rod bundle also contained a Westinghouse RFA grid at the top of the bundle to provide structural support and to keep the rods aligned.

a,c

a,c

Figure 5-8 Selected Westinghouse Bottom Nozzle Section

Figure 5-9 Test Section Top View Showing BN Flow Holes with Respect to Simulated Fuel Rods





a,c

a,c

a,c



5.7 DEBRIS FILTRATION

Downstream of the 1 inch test column outlet, a single bag filter housing and filter insert were placed in-line for capturing all debris that penetrated the test geometry. Due to the requirement to maintain reasonable pressures in the test column, and considering the small particulate debris filtration requirements, a #2 bag filter and housing were selected. Based on the requirement that the filtration system should efficiently capture debris with size distributions at or below 10 μ m, an Eaton **TOPLINE**TM filter housing fitted with **ACCUGAF**TM bag filters was selected. The **TOPLINE** housing is assembled from cast 304 stainless steel components, which results in a smooth internal surface with no weld seems. The entrance design to the housing essentially eliminates debris trapping locations and the bag seal prevents debris bypass.

All tests used Eaton **ACCUGAF** polypropylene bag filters. Specifications for the selected bag types are provided in Table 5-3. Bag selection for individual tests was based on injected particle size distribution.

TOPLINE and ACCUGAF are trademarks or registered trademarks of Eaton Filtration, LLC. Other names may be trademarks of their respective owners.

Table 5-3 ACCUGAF Bag Filter Specifications					
	Particle Size at Common Removal Efficiencies (µm)				
Filter Model	>60%	>90%	>95%	>99%	>99.9%
AGF-51	0.2	0.6	0.8	1.5	5
AGF-55	1	2	3	5	15

Commercially-available #2 bag filter housings with guaranteed 1µm particulate capture come standard with a 2 inch diameter inlet pipe. As a result, it was necessary to provide additional flow upstream of the bag filter housing such that debris could not settle within the piping entering the housing at the lowest tested flow rates. This was accomplished without generating additional debris capture locations by combining a small flow rate from Pump 3, as shown in Figure 5-1, upstream of the bag filter housing with the primary loop flow. The flow was combined in an annular passage with the primary flow entering on the inner portion of the piping. This prevented the velocity in the bag filter housing inlet from dropping below the settling velocity for entrained debris.

5.8 WATER CHEMISTRY

5.8.1 Main Coolant Supply

Testing was conducted using de-ionized (DI) water as the primary fluid. The main test loop supply tank was filled with 250 gallons of DI water before filling any other piping segments or the test column. Therefore, the total water inventory in the system is 250 gallons. At room temperature conditions, this corresponds to a total mass of 944.7 kg of DI water.

5.8.2 Brine Solution

Based on the conclusions in Section 4.5, potassium bromide (KBr) was used for the brine solution.

The KBr was provided in dried granular form and was added to DI water in the brine supply tank for mixing. To determine the appropriate KBr mass to be added, the mass of the water must be determined. Using 75 gallons of DI water, the volume of water is:

75
$$gal \times \frac{1}{7.48052} \cdot \frac{ft^3}{gal} = 10.026 ft^3$$

At ambient conditions (68°F, 14.7 psia), water has a density of 62.32 lbm/ft³. At 2.2046 lbm/kg, this results in:

10.026
$$ft^3 \times 62.32 \frac{lb_m}{ft^3} \times \frac{1}{2.2046} \frac{kg}{lb_m} = 283.417 \ kg \text{ of water.}$$

With the water mass known, the amount of KBr addition needed to reach the desired source concentration can be calculated. For example, in order to create a 20.0 wt% KBr solution, x kg of KBr need to be dissolved into the 75 gallons of DI water:

$$\frac{x}{x + 283.417 \cdot kg} = 0.2 \Longrightarrow x = 70.85 \text{ kg KBr}$$

5.9 POST-TEST INSPECTION AND CLEANUP

Back-flushing the test loop after each test aided in the loop cleanup process and was also used to characterize debris trapped on the capture geometry. After completion of each experiment, the inlet and outlet of the test column were realigned such that flow could be reversed through the test column. Pumped flow was initiated and the back-flow was directed through a second bag filter housing. During this phase, pulsed air injections were performed, injecting compressed air just below the test geometry, through dedicated taps located on the wall of the test column to aid in breaking up the debris bed.

After back-flushing, the upper flange of the test column was disconnected and a pressure washer wand was inserted through the flange into the test column. The pressure washer was used to remove any debris remaining trapped on the test geometry after back flushing. After pressure washing was completed, the configuration was restored and the column back-flushed again to force debris dislodged by the pressure washer to the bag filter housing.

If debris was still visible on the test geometry, the geometry was removed from the column and cleaned. Debris removed from the test geometry during this process was collected and filtered using the same bag filter used for back-flushing.

Particular attention was made to cleaning and inspection of the DIS. After each test was completed, the content of debris in the DIS tanks was calculated to be lower than 0.1% of the content at the beginning of the test. Such content is negligible in terms of impact on the test results, since it is of the same order of the precision achieved when debris is weighted for addition in the HCT.

5.10 INSTRUMENTATION

Table 5-4 provides a list of the instrumentation used for this test program. The location of flow and temperature instrumentation did not change throughout the course of testing. The location of these instruments with respect to the main test facility components is shown in Figure 5-1. The HCT and LCT level sensors monitored the DIS tank levels continuously throughout each experiment and provided feedback for tank level control.

The location of differential pressure instrumentation was modified throughout the course of the test program. For the Westinghouse core inlet geometry tests, DP1H and DP1L measured differential pressure across the bottom nozzle/P-grid combination and DP2H measured the differential pressure across the first spacer grid. For the AREVA core inlet geometry tests, DP1H and DP1L measured differential pressure across the first spacer grid. For the AREVA core inlet geometry tests, DP1H and DP1L measured differential pressure across the lower end fitting and the first spacer grid. DP2H was not used to measure differential pressure in the AREVA core inlet geometry tests.

Conductivity probes were used to measure brine concentration in the brine supply tank and test column. As shown in Table 5-5, three conductivity probe calibrations were performed throughout the test program and the range and accuracy is dependent on the calibration. In Table 5-5, Calibration 1 is applicable to tests completed from 2/10/2015 to 3/2/2017, Calibration 2 applies to tests completed from 3/3/2015 to 4/7/2015, and Calibration 3 applies to tests completed from 4/8/2015 to 4/15/2015.

Table 5-4	Instrumentation Summary				
ID #	Description	Туре	Range	Accuracy ¹	
F1	Primary flow rate	Magnetic flow meter	0 - 100 gpm	± 0.258% rate	
P1	Upstream pressure	Pressure transducer	0 - 36 psid	± 0.289 psi	
DP1H	High-range differential pressure	Pressure transducer	0 - 20 psid	± 0.169 psi	
DP2H	High-range differential pressure	Pressure transducer	0 - 36 psid	± 0.289 psi	
DP1L	Low-range differential pressure	Pressure transducer	0 - 2 psid	± 0.0206 psi	
Level 1	HCT level	Ultrasonic	1.0 - 14.125 in	± 0.17 in	
Level 2	LCT level	Ultrasonic	1.25 - 12.25 in	± 0.16 in	
T1	DIS inlet temperature	T-type thermocouple	32 - 201°F	± 2.394°F	
T2	Downstream temperature	T-type thermocouple	32 - 201°F	± 2.394°F	
CP1/CP1a	24 in column conductivity	Conductivity Probe			
CP2	36 in column conductivity	Conductivity Probe			
CP3	55.25 in column conductivity	Conductivity Probe			
CP4	42 in column conductivity	Conductivity Probe			
CP5	12 in column conductivity	Conductivity Probe	I able 5-5		
CP6	61.25 in column conductivity	Conductivity Probe			
CP7	83.75 in column conductivity	Conductivity Probe			
CP8	Brine tank conductivity	Conductivity Probe			
Note 1: These values account for instrument measurement accuracy and analog to digital converter accuracy.					

Table 5-5	Conductivity Probe Range and Accuracy						
ID #	Calibration 1			Calibration 2		Calibration 3	
	Range (wt% KBr)	Accuracy	Range (wt% KBr)	Accuracy	Range (wt% KBr)	Accuracy	
CP1/CP1a	20	± 0.5 wt% KBr	20	± 0.5 wt% KBr, ≤ 10 wt% KBr ± 0.75 wt% KBr, > 10 wt% KBr	20	± 0.5 wt% KBr, ≤ 6 wt% KBr ± 12% of Reading, > 6 wt% KBr	
CP2	20	± 0.5 wt% KBr	20	± 12% of Reading	20	± 0.5 wt% KBr	
CP3	20	± 0.5 wt% KBr	20	\pm 21% of Reading	20	± 0.5 wt% KBr, ≤ 11 wt% KBr ± 10% of Reading, > 11 wt% KBr	
CP4	20	± 0.5 wt% KBr	20	± 23% of Reading	20	± 0.5 wt% KBr	
CP5	15	± 0.5 wt% KBr	15	± 20% of Reading	15	± 0.5 wt% KBr	
CP6	20	± 0.5 wt% KBr	20	\pm 13% of Reading	20	± 0.5 wt% KBr	
CP7	20	± 0.5 wt% KBr	20	\pm 15% of Reading	20	± 0.5 wt% KBr	
CP8	20	± 0.5 wt% KBr	20	\pm 20% of Reading	15	± 0.5 wt% KBr, ≤ 6 wt% KBr ± 0.75 wt% KBr, > 6 wt% KBr	

5.10.1 Concentration Measurement

An evaluation of methods of on-line detection of solution concentration was performed that considered auto-titration, inductive-coupled plasma-mass spectrometry (ICP-MS), Raman spectroscopy, and conductivity. The evaluation concluded that, based on the functional requirements for the brine testing, conductivity has the greatest potential for measuring solute concentration because of the ability to perform on-line measurements without removing a sample, the relatively inexpensive costs, and the ability to use multiple sensors in a relatively simple fashion.

5.10.1.1 Measurement Principal

The principal of measuring concentration variations in a liquid via conductivity is well established. Commercial concentration sensors are normally used to measure the concentration of bulk liquid and are large in size. In the current application, physical size restrictions require a miniature sensor.

When two electrodes are inserted into a solution as shown in Figure 5-13, the conductance between the two electrodes is proportional to the number of ions present in the conducting solution. Therefore, a measure of the conductance will give a direct reading of the solution concentration. If DC voltage is applied to the electrodes, the results can be interpreted simply because only the resistance between the two electrodes is included. However, these two electrodes are under a continuous oxidizing or deoxidizing condition and the solution composition is changing by electrolysis. If alternating voltage is applied to the electrodes, both resistance between the electrodes and inductance in the circuit must be included, which is quite difficult to be determined. To minimize these problems, a low frequency rectangular wave is utilized. In both positive and negative portions of the wave, the voltage can be taken as DC which eliminates the need to include circuit inductance, but the electrodes are under an alternating oxidizing and deoxidizing condition, which limits the effects of electrolysis on the solution composition.





A fast response micro-conductivity probe supplied by Micro Electrodes Inc. was selected for the brine tests. The MI-915 conductivity probe has an 1/8 inch body diameter that can be easily installed in the subscale flow column. The probes have a measurement range that corresponds to an extrapolated KBr concentration that exceeds the solubility limit of KBr. Integration hardware supplied with the conductivity probe allows the raw signal to be input directly into the existing subscale data acquisition system where the data will be added to the subscale data record.

Calibration of the probes was completed using 500 mL standards at KBr concentrations of 1, 5, 10, 15, and 20 wt%. The probes were dipped in the standards and at least 5 data points were collected after the probe reading stabilized. In most cases, more than 10 data points were collected, and during the original calibration 30 data points were collected. The data points were then averaged to determine a single value for each KBr concentration and the values were used to generate calibration curves that correlate the probe output signal to wt% KBr.

As shown in Table 5-4, eight conductivity probes were used in the subscale brine testing. Seven conductivity probes were used to measure brine concentration in the subscale test column and an eighth probe was used to measure the brine supply tank concentration. Figure 5-14 shows the location of the conductivity probes in the test column.







5.11 REFERENCES

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