EPFL

Nuclear Fusion and Plasma Physics



Lecture 10

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Part I Plasma wall interaction

Part II Structural materials



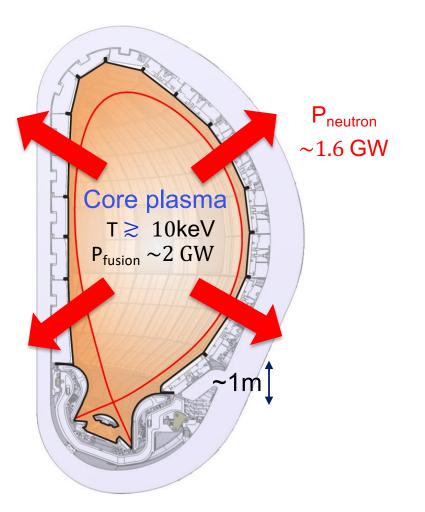


Part I – Plasma-wall interaction

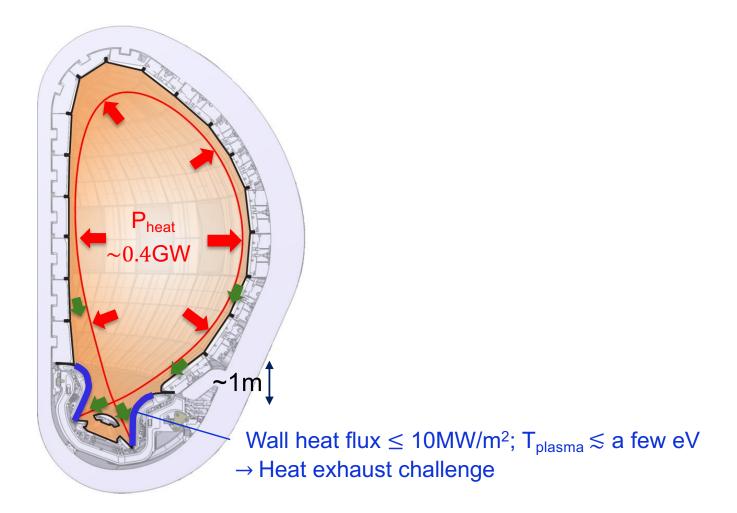
Requirements for reactor first wall Limiters and divertors The plasma scrape off layer Advantages of divertor concept Plasma facing materials for ITER Further challenges for divertors Innovative divertor configurations



EPFL Power on a tokamak reactor first wall



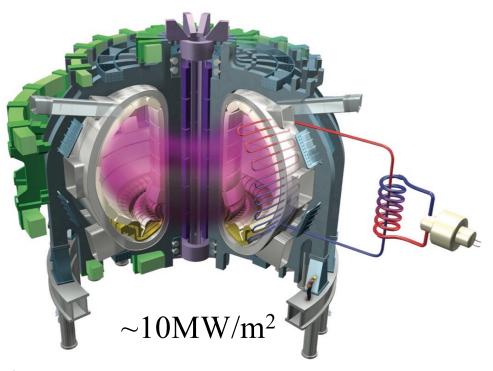
EPFL Power on a tokamak reactor first wall

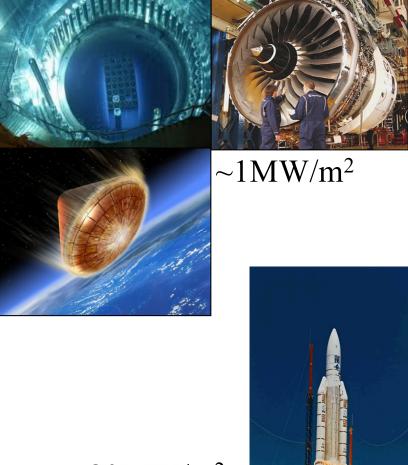


EPFL Requirements for reactor first wall

Withstand very large heat fluxes on the material

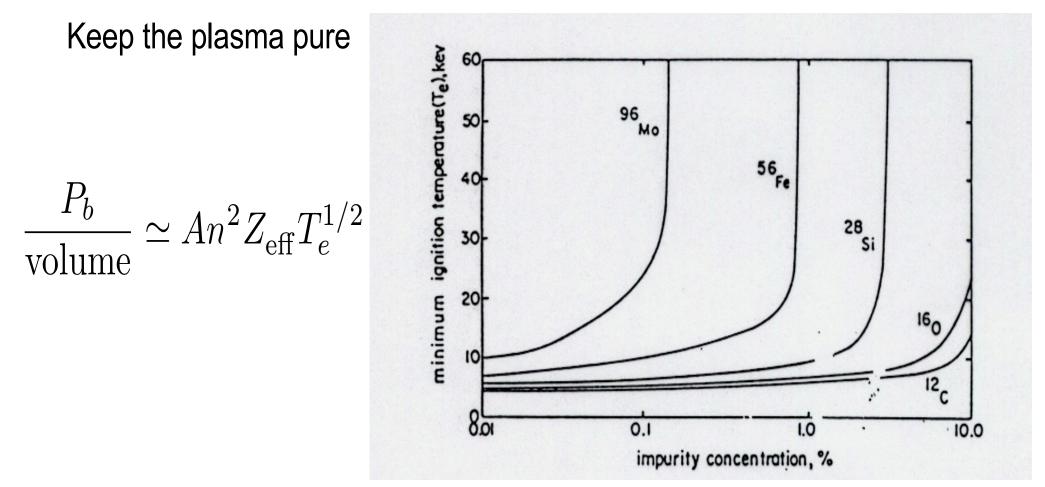
Limit erosion, melting





 $\sim\!\!80 MW/m^2$

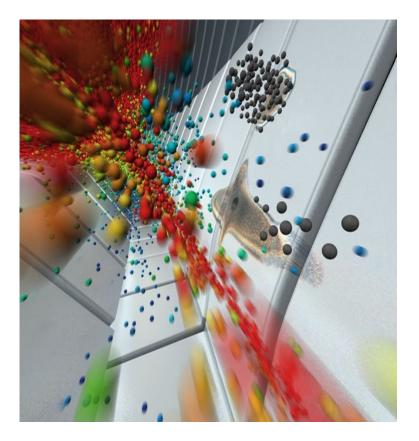
EPFL Requirements for reactor first wall



Minimum ignition temperature goes up with impurity concentration and with the atomic number of the impurity species

EPFL Requirements for reactor first wall

Minimise retention of Tritium (co-deposition with Carbon)



Courtesy of Leena Aho-Mantila and Jyrki Hokkanen (CSC – IT Center for Science Ltd).

number of 400s ITER discharges 250 2500 25000 10²⁸ 1.1.1111 10²⁷ Retained amount (T-atoms) 700 g T level 10²⁶ 10²⁵ 10²⁴ Roth et al. J. Nucl. Mat. 2009 10²³ 10³ 10⁵ 10^e 10 10° 10° Time (s)

Requirements for reactor first wall

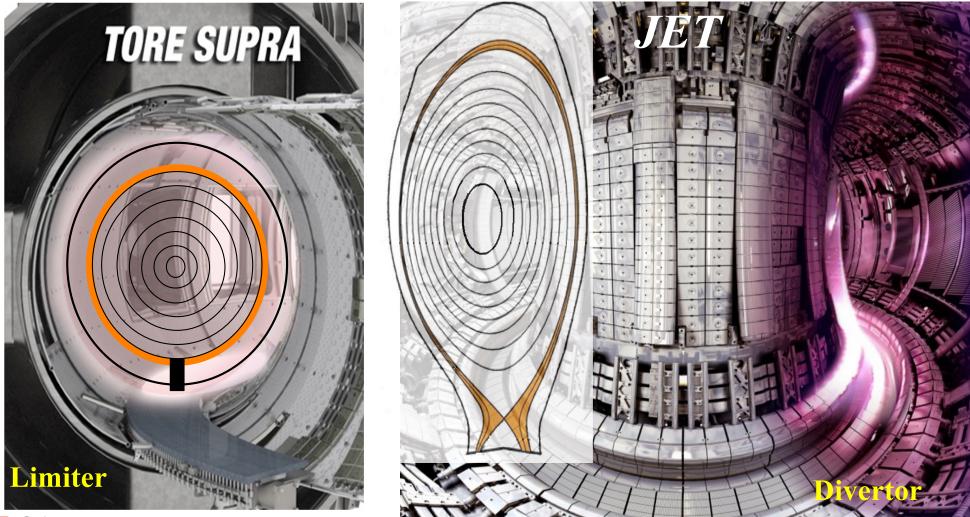
Exhaust fusion & external heating power, withstanding large heat fluxes Keep the plasma pure Minimise retention of Tritium Minimise dust production Provide vacuum containment Remove Helium ashes (pumping)



EPEL

EPFL Limiter and divertor configurations

Direct contact of plasma with vessel wall must be limited to well-defined areas, which take the power carried by particles and not radiated by plasma





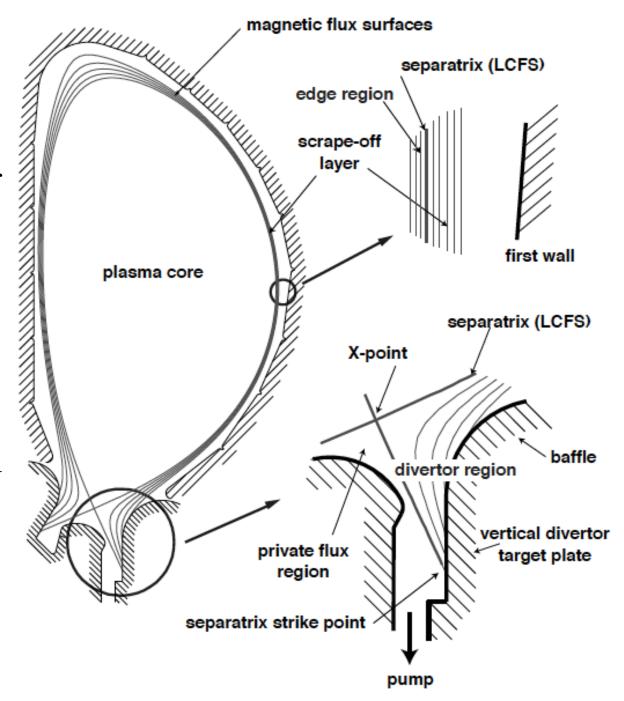


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The divertor concept

The Scrape-Off-Layer (SOL) is the outer layer of plasma in direct contact with the material wall

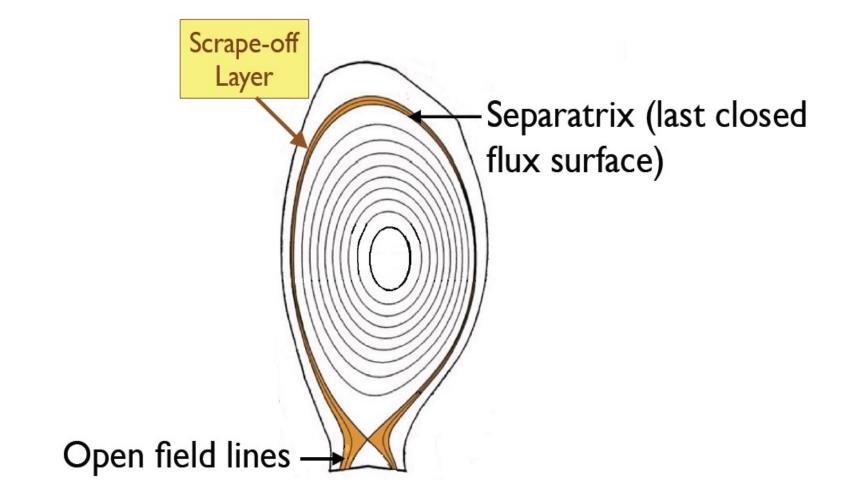
The SOL thickness results from balance between cross-field and parallel dynamics



EPFL Advantages of divertor concept -1-

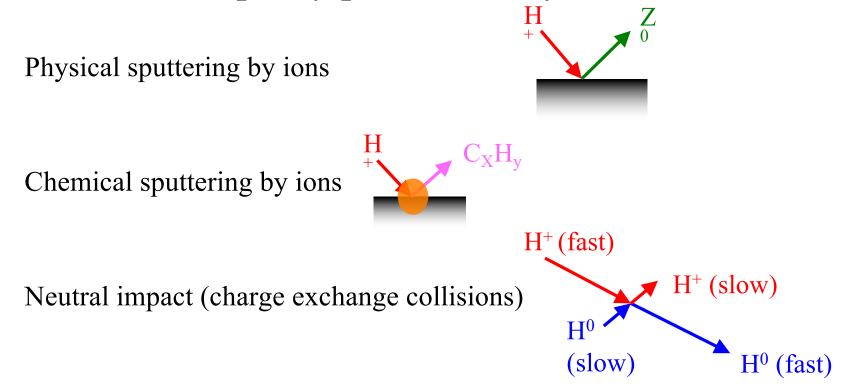
Long connection length parallel to B (= length of field line before it touches the wall, e.g. in ITER \sim 150m) reduces parallel power flux arriving to target

Parallel gradient of T allows low T in divertor chamber (~5eV)



EPFL Advantages of divertor concept -2-

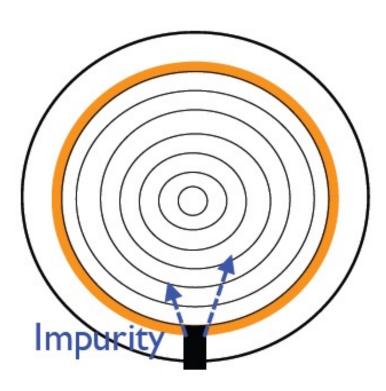
Because of lower plasma temperature, reduction in erosion and impurity production by

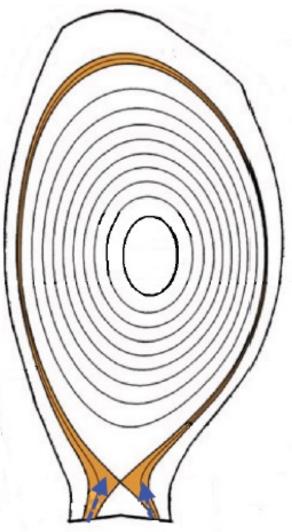




EPFL Advantages of divertor concept -3-

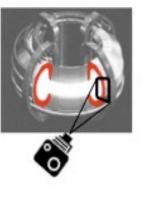
Reduction in impurity transport back to core plasma

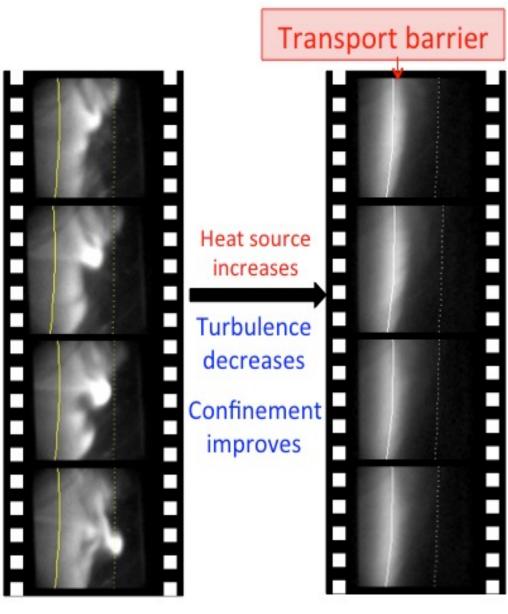


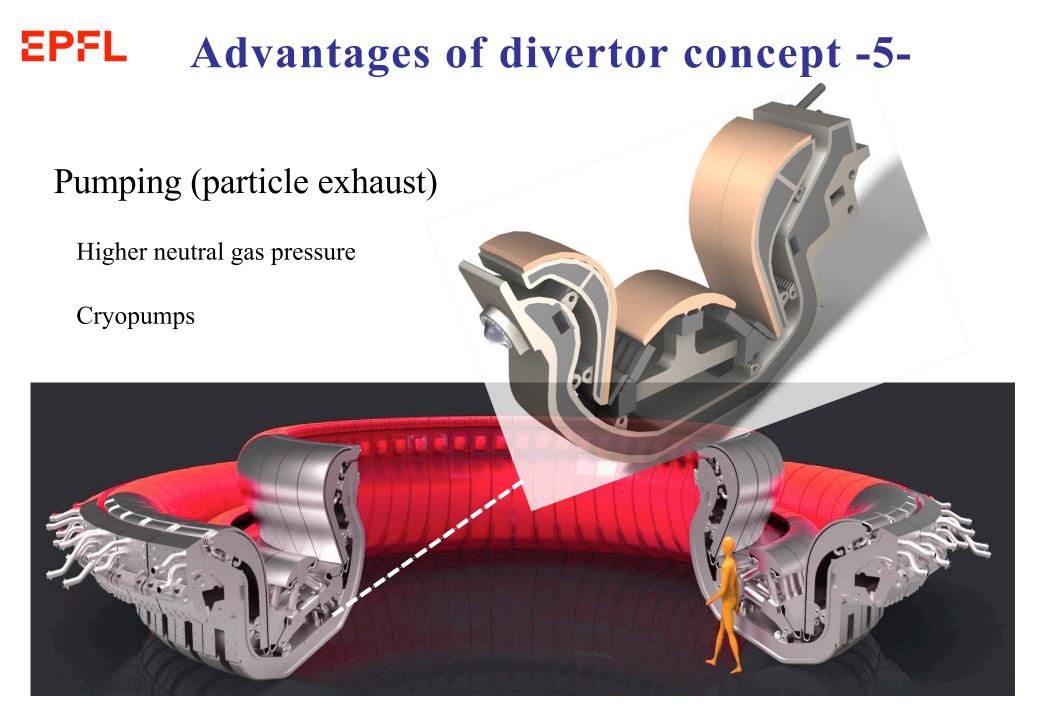


EPFL Advantages of divertor concept -4-

Easier access to high confinement regimes











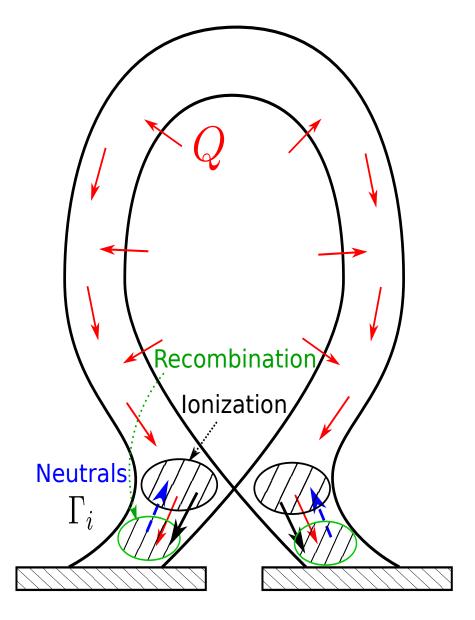
EPFL Advantages of divertor -6- *detachment*

At ~5eV $\sigma_{\text{ionisation}} < \sigma_{\text{charge exchange}}$

Energy is transferred from ions to neutrals, which spread power deposition (*neutral cushion*)

T is further reduced and e-i volumetric recombination occurs close to the targets

Low energy flux to the target as most of power is dissipated in radiation



EPFL Advantages of divertor -6- *detachment*

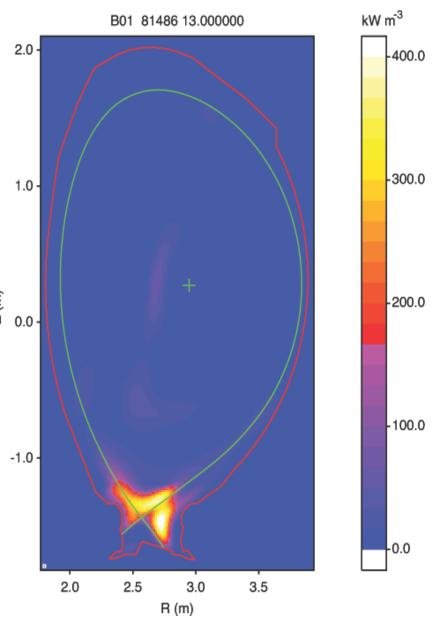
At ~5eV $\sigma_{\text{ionisation}} < \sigma_{\text{charge exchange}}$

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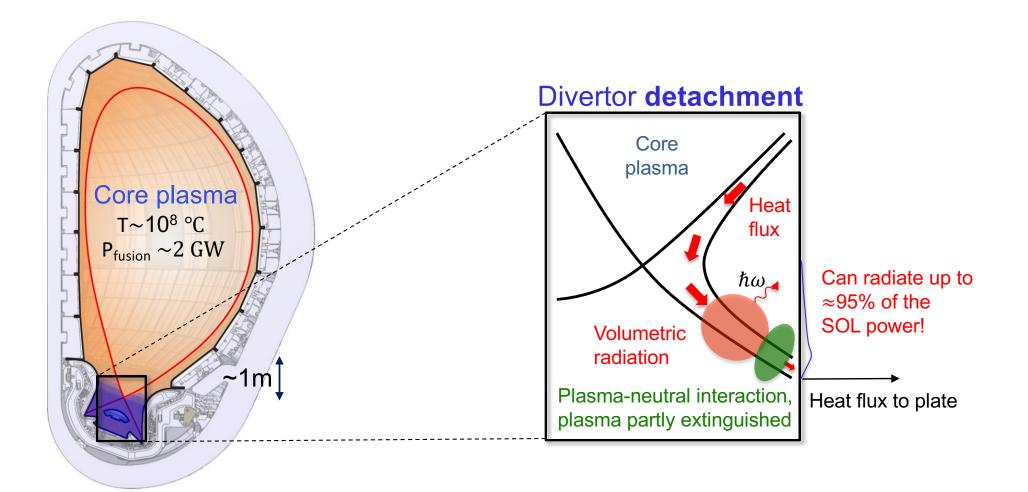
T is further reduced and e-i volumetric recombination occurs close to the targets

Low energy flux to the target as most of power is dissipated in radiation





EPFL Advantages of divertor -6- *detachment*



Plasma detachment on TCV

Internal baffles creating a divertor chamber of variable closure for plasma and heat exhaust control

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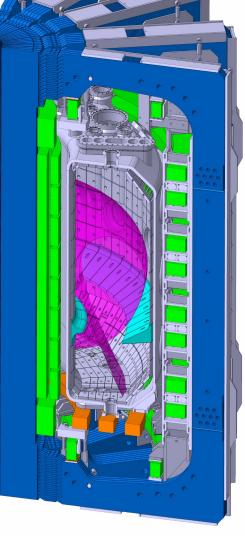
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The results show higher neutral and plasma pressure in the divertor, as expected, and easier plasma detachment

MANTIS CIII (465nm) emission <n_>=8x10¹⁹m⁻³ <n_>=8x10¹⁹m⁻³ 0.2 ٥ -0.2 [m] Z -0.4 -0.6 1.0 1.2 0.6 1.0 1.2 0.8 0.6 0.8 R [m] R [m]





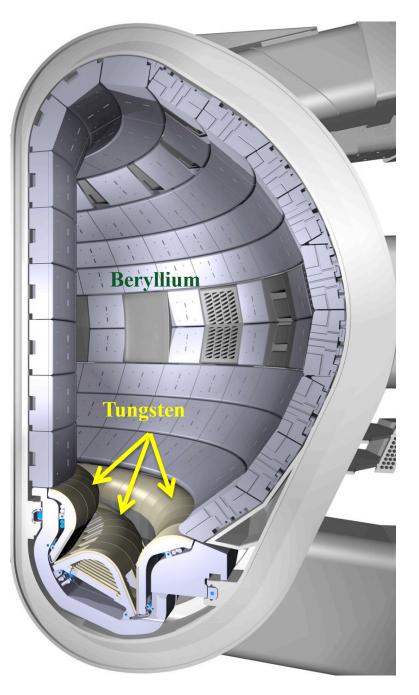


EPFL First wall materials for ITER

ITER divertor will be made of W Low T-retention, high threshold for sputtering

Walls will be made of beryllium Low-Z, low T-retention, good oxygen getter

Materials chosen also to minimise deterioration of thermo-mechanical properties under neutron irradiation

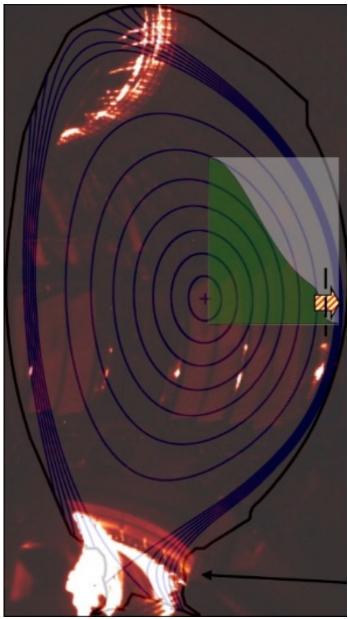


EPFL Further challenges for divertors Transients

Edge Localised Modes, ELMs Large edge gradients give rise to instabilities that generate outwards bursts of energy and particles → large thermal loads

Ex. ELMs in ITER

- 15MJ in 0.2ms over $6m^2$
- → 10GW/m²
- \rightarrow surface temperature ~ 6000° C
- \rightarrow melting





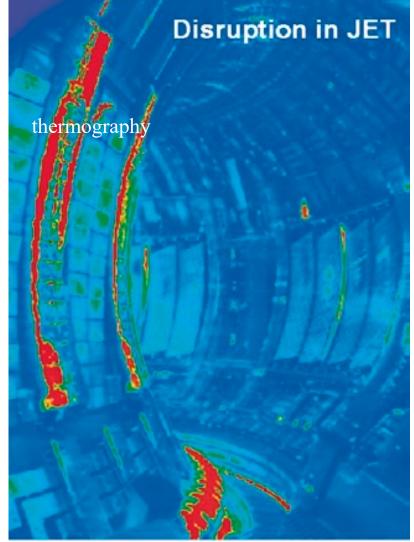


EPFL Further challenges for divertors Transients

Disruptions Sudden loss of plasma leading to large deposition of energy on walls

Ex. ITER full energy disruptions: peak energy densities on divertor of 5-20 MJ/m⁻² over 3ms W divertor lifetime exceeded in ~300 disruptions

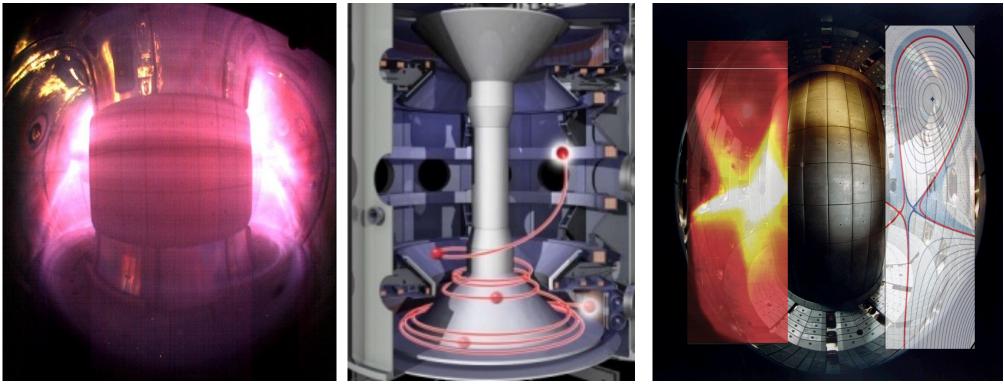
We don't have materials that withstand for sufficiently long time these thermal loads, therefore we need to act on plasma to avoid or mitigate these violent transient events





EPFL Innovative divertor configurations

New divertor configurations are explored for DEMO and reactors Limit material erosion, increase radiated power with detached plasma, keep plasma pure Ex. of alternative concepts: liquid metal, super-X, snowflake, ...



Liquid metal walls Compass (CZ)

Super-X divertor MAST-U (UK)

Snowflake divertor TCV (CH)



Summary of part I

Reactor first wall must satisfy a number of stringent requirements

Divertor concept is adopted as it has several advantages

New divertor configurations are explored for DEMO and reactors

Plasma wall interaction results from integration of plasma, atomic and materials physics



Part II – Structural materials

Requirements for fusion materials Fusion vs. fission Effects of 14 MeV neutrons Evolution of materials properties Candidate structural materials How to test fusion materials



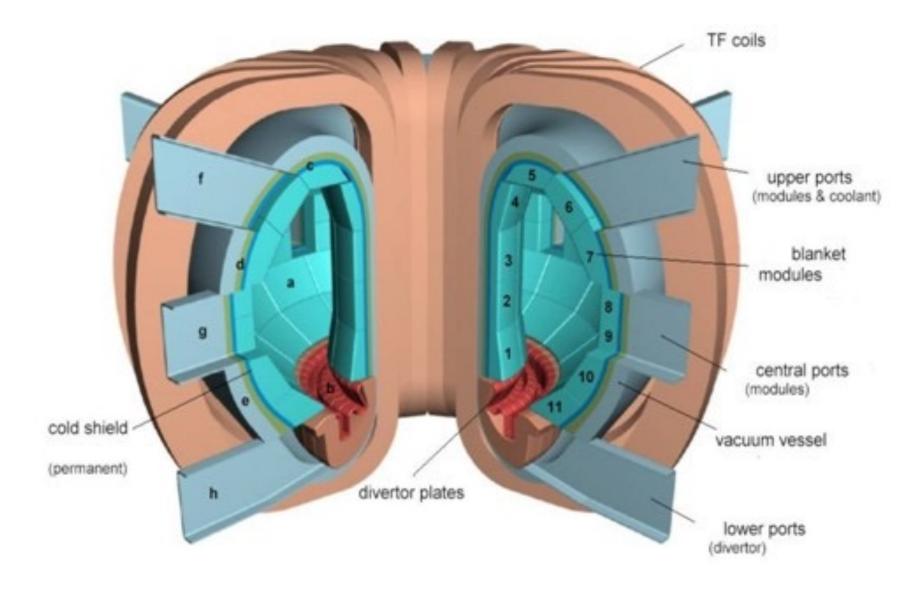


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Part II – Structural materials

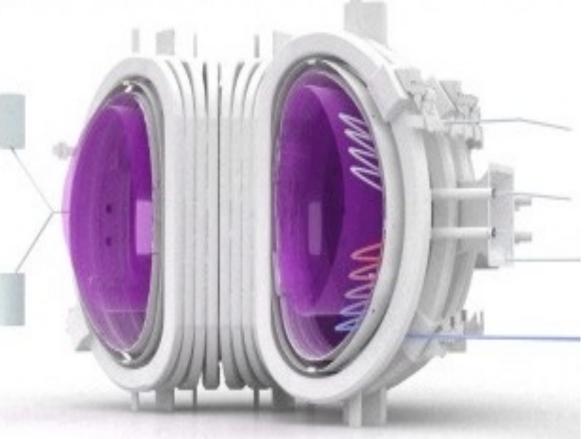
Main irradiated components



EPFL Requirements for structural materials

Withstand very large fluxes of 14.1MeV neutrons

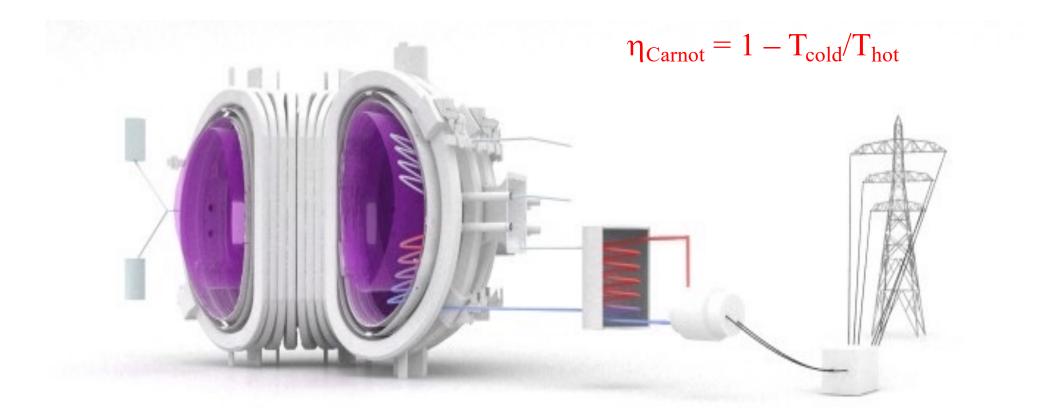
Ex. DEMO flux ~ 10^{19} - 10^{20} neutrons m⁻²s⁻¹ fluence ~ 5MW y m⁻² (fluence is the integral of flux)



As low activation as possible

EPFL Requirements for structural materials

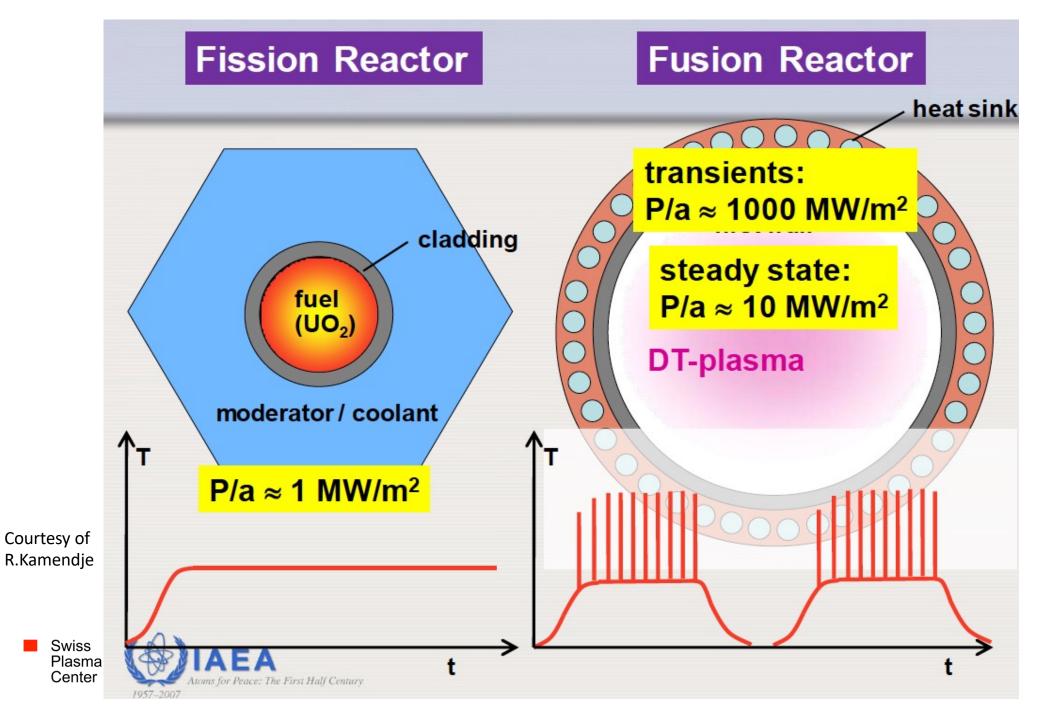
Operate at the highest possible temperatures to optimise thermal efficiency of power plant



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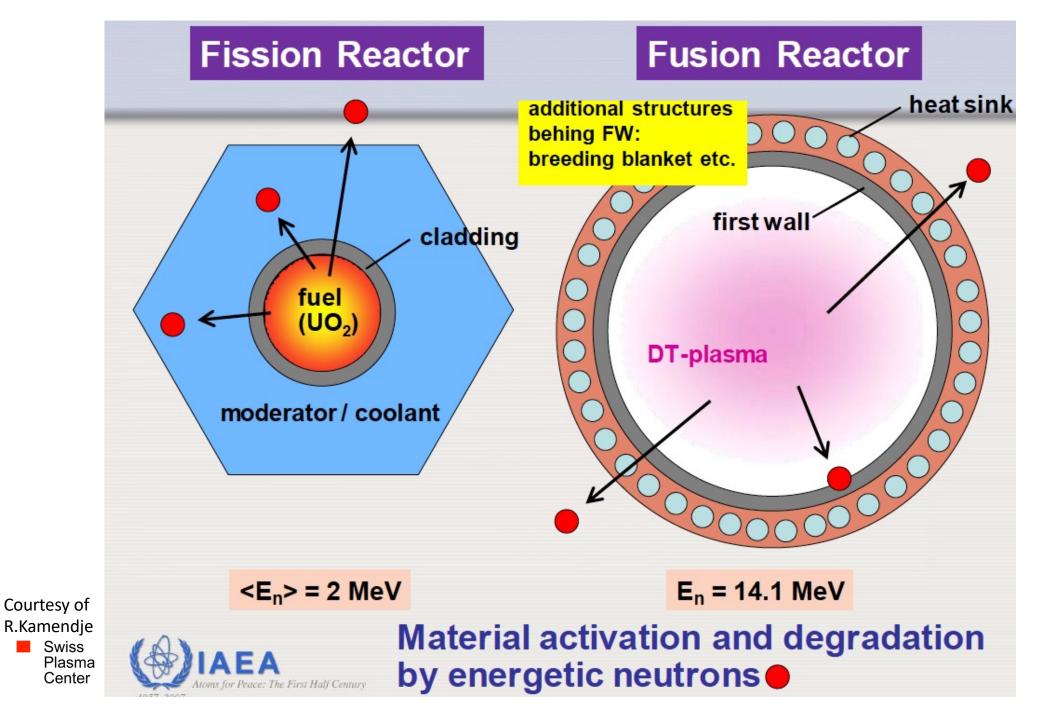


Fusion vs. fission





Fusion vs. fission



EPFL Effects of 14MeV neutrons

The 14MeV neutrons produce

atomic displacement cascades

transmutation nuclear reactions



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Atomic displacement

Mechanical effect of neutron of energy E_n hitting atom of mass M at rest in lattice

$$m_n = (2E_n/m_n)^{1/2}$$
 M

Max energy transfer $E_{max} = E_n \frac{4m_n M}{(m_n + M)^2} \sim E_n \frac{4m_n}{M}$

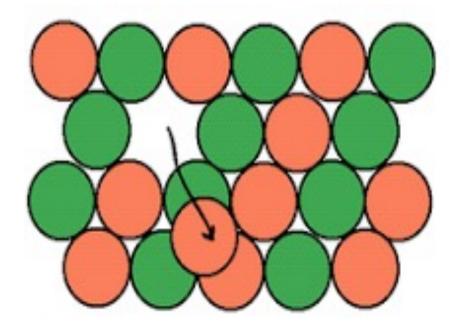
Ex. iron M = 56 amu, $E_n = 14.1 \text{MeV} : E_{max} = 14.1 \times \frac{4}{56} \text{MeV} \sim 1 \text{MeV}$ Note: $E_{max} >> E_{Wigner}$ (~25eV) (threshold energy for displacement)

 \rightarrow iron atom is displaced and ejected from lattice

Atomic displacement

Point structure defects

The ejected atom leaves behind a vacancy and goes to an interstitial location (Frenkel pair)

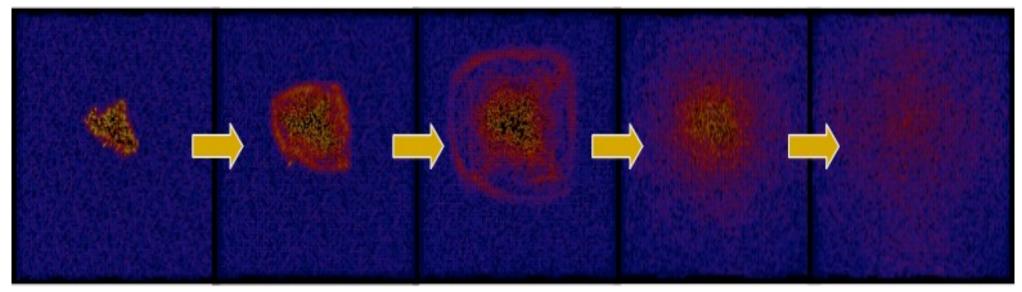


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EPFL Atomic displacement cascades

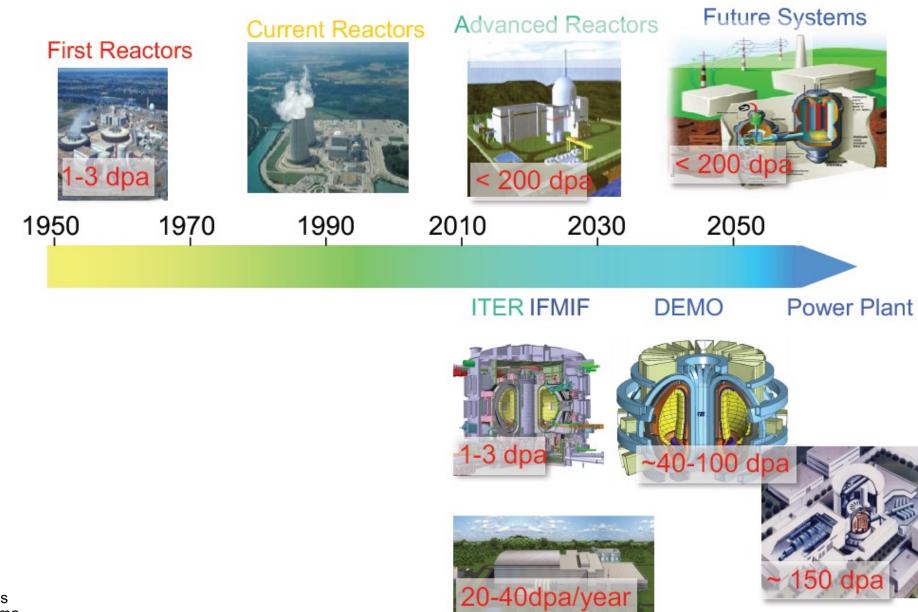
As $E_{max} >> E_{Wigner}$, the primary knock-on atom initiates a series of other knock-on events, leading to an atomic displacement *cascade* Vacancies and interstitials form clusters (swelling) The strength of the material is affected



Damage is quantified in average number of displacements per atom (dpa) during the working life of a material

dpa is proportional to neutron fluence (time integrated flux)

EPFL Neutron induced dpa in fission and fusion

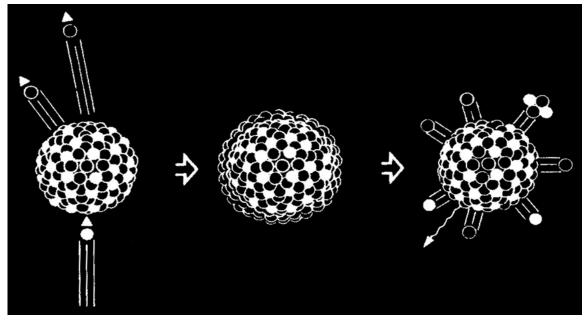


EPFL Transmutation nuclear reactions

Nuclear reactions between fusion neutrons and lattice atoms Generation of of radioactive atoms and of He and H

⁵⁶Fe + n → ⁵³Cr + α (n energy threshold 2.9MeV)

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{}^{56}Fe + n \rightarrow {}^{56}Mn + p
(n energy threshold 0.9MeV)
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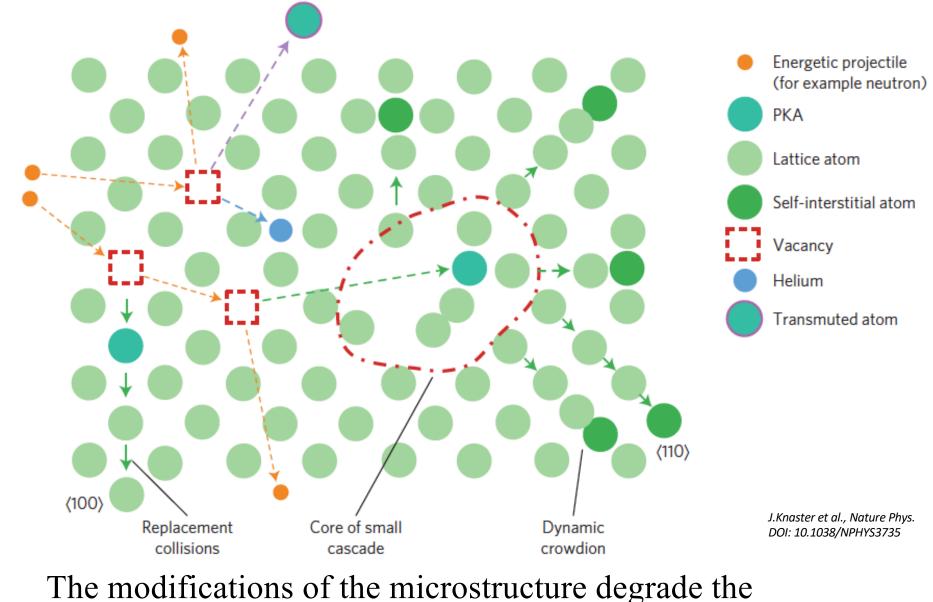
Individual He and H atoms tend to coalesce, forming gas bubbles that weaken the material

Effect is quantified in atomic parts per million (appm) of He or H

in fusion the *appm/dpa* ratio is much higher than in fission:

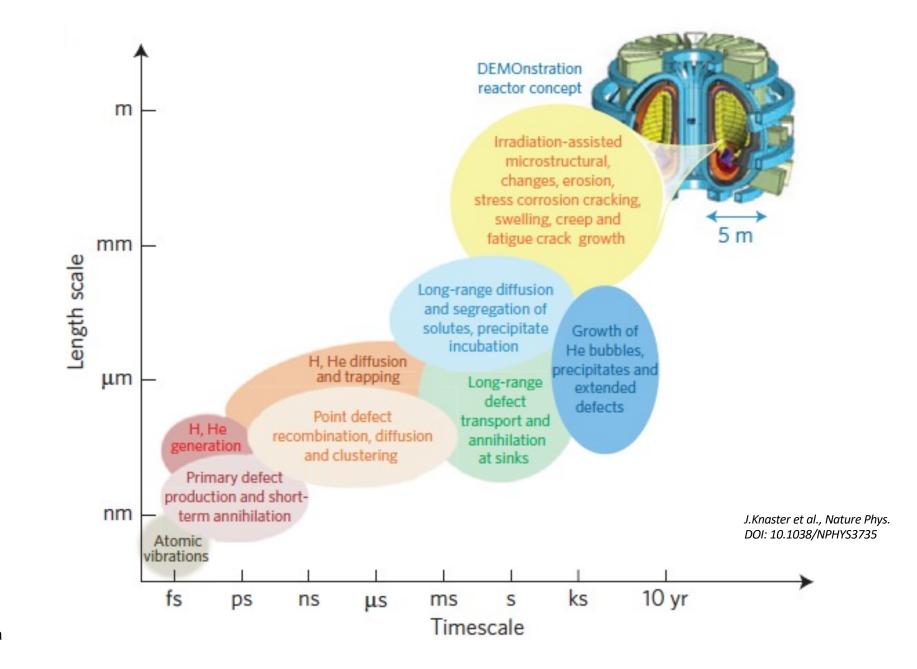
~10-15 *appm* He/*dpa* and ~40-50 *appm* H/*dpa*

EPFL The two effects together



Swiss Plasma Center macroscopic chemical, physical and mechanical properties

EPFL Irradiation time and length scales



EPFL Evolution of materials properties

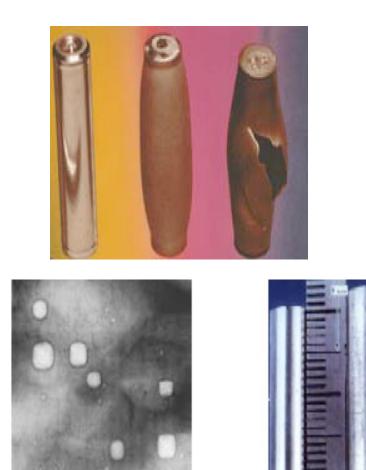
Change in the chemical composition

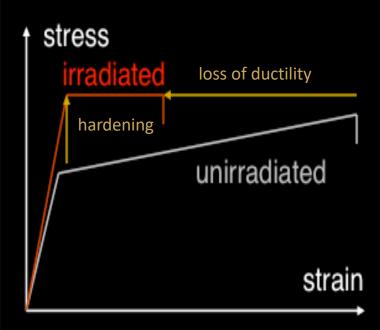
Physical properties – important for functional materials Decrease of electrical conductivity and of thermal conductivity

EPFL Evolution of materials properties

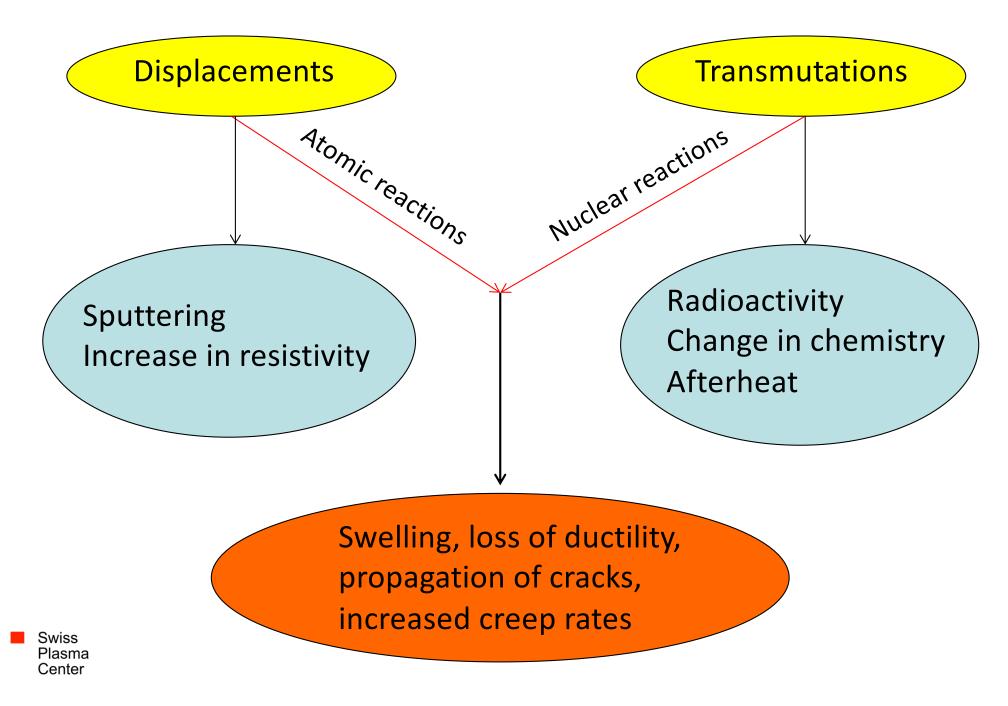
Mechanical properties – important for structural materials

Loss of creep strength, change in ductile to brittle transition temperature Embrittlement (hardening, loss of ductility, loss of fracture toughness) Change in mechanical dimensions (swelling)





EPFL Overview of radiation effects in fusion



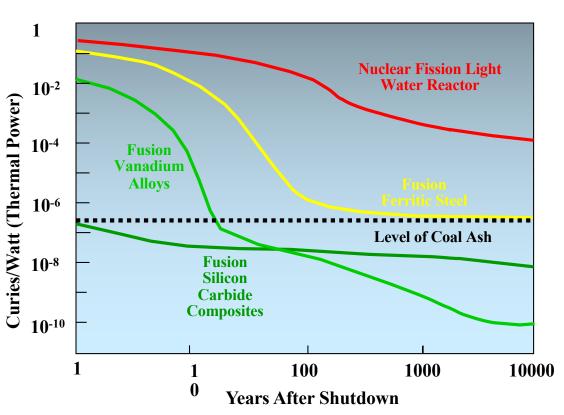
EPFL Structural materials for fusion

Candidate structural materials must have a chemical composition based on low activation elements: Fe, Cr, V, Ti, W, Si, C

Based on safety, waste disposal, and performance, the leading candidate structural materials are

Reduced activation ferritic/martensitic steels (ex. EUROFER 97)

Vanadium alloys Tungsten alloys SiC/SiC composites (but dpa/fluence is 3 times larger in SiC than in steel)



EPFL Fusion needs large amounts of steel

Ex. present version of European DEMO

Components	Steel	Quantity needed / tons
Blanket	EUROFER	~ 2,180
Divertor Cassette Body	EUROFER	~ 1,170
Vacuum Vessel	SS (ITER grade)	> 10,000
Superconducting Coils	SS (ITER grade)	~ 29,300
Cryostat	SS (ITER grade)	~ 15,300
BoP	SS	~ 4,500

> 3,300 tons EUROFER > 62,450 tons SS

EPFL The need to test materials for fusion

Experimental knowledge of materials behavior in fusion reactor conditions is very limited

Extrapolations from current conditions to fusion regime is much larger for fusion materials than for core plasma parameters

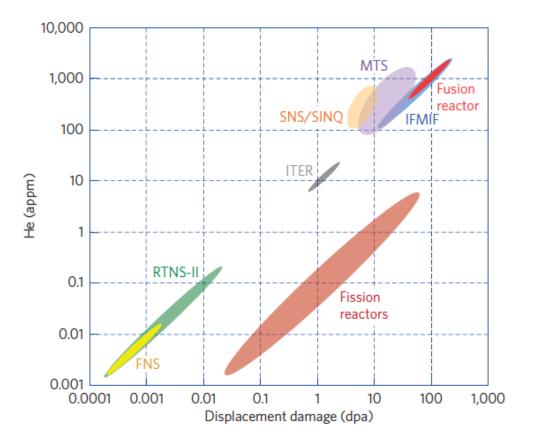


Figure 4 | Graph showing the correlation of dpa_{NRT} versus appm of He generated for the different possibilities of testing materials (alternative and IFMIF) compared with fusion reactor conditions. MTS, Materials Test Station spallation source at Los Alamos National Laboratory; RTNS-II, Rotating Target Neutron Source-II, previously at Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory; SINQ, Swiss Spallation Source at Paul Scherrer Laboratory; SNS, Spallation Neutron Source at Oak Ridge National Laboratory; FNS, Fusion Neutron Source at Japan Atomic Energy Agency. Figure modified from ref. 31, © 2014 Annual Reviews.

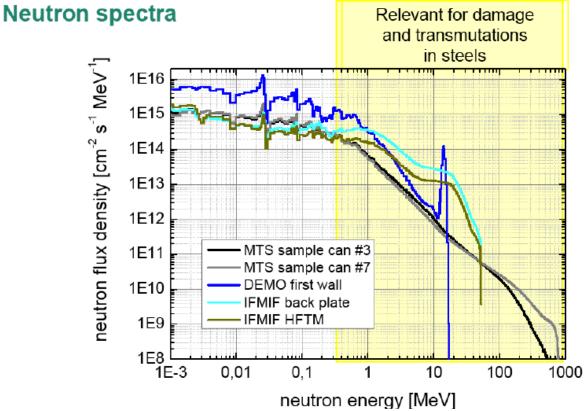
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J.Knaster et al., Nature Phys. DOI: 10.1038/NPHYS3735

EPFL The need to test materials for fusion

Urgency of fusion materials tests is universally recognized

But how can we produce the relevant spectrum of neutrons ? Volumetric neutron sources, e.g. low fusion gain tokamak producing DT neutrons Accelerator based irradiation facilities (e.g IFMIF), producing neutrons from $Li + d \rightarrow Be + n$

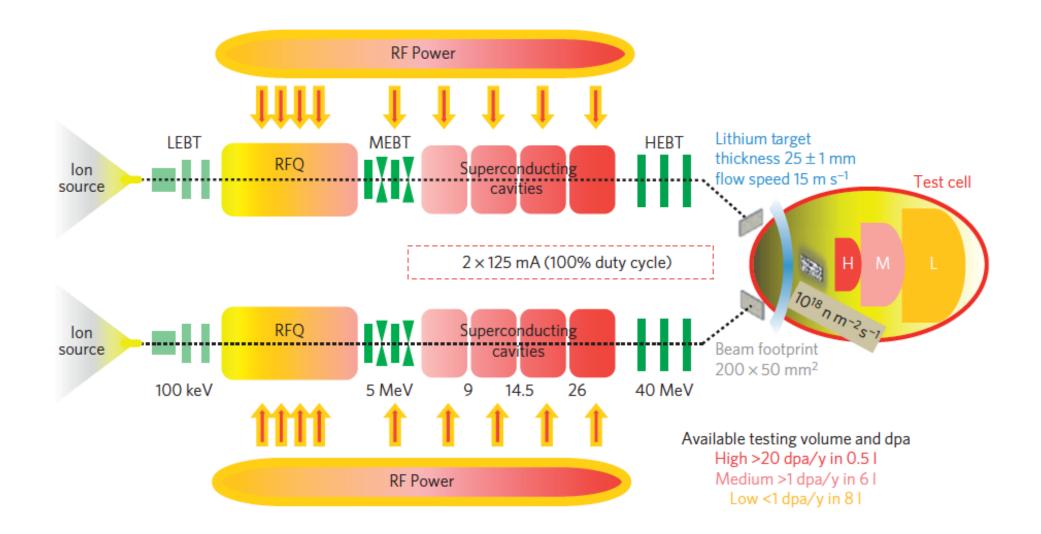




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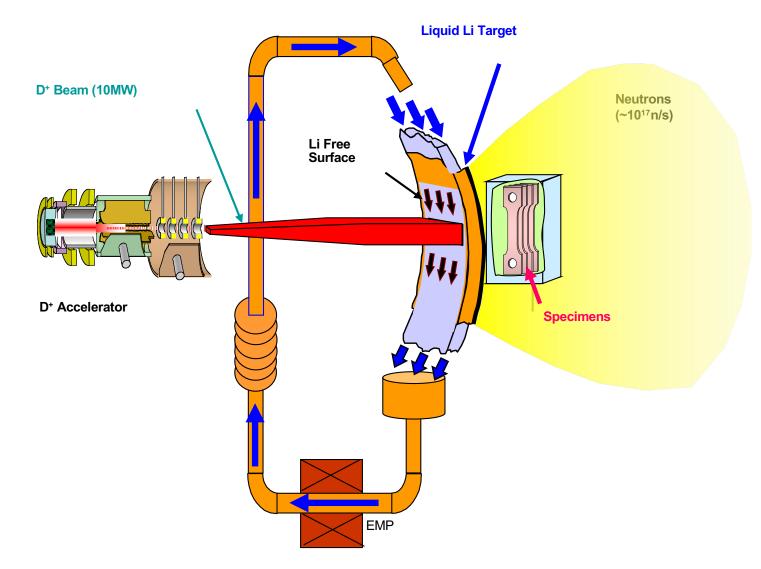
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IFMIF irradiation test facility



Must extrapolate results obtained in small volume (0.51 at ^{Swiss} Plasma 20dpa/y) to large reactor: small specimen test technology

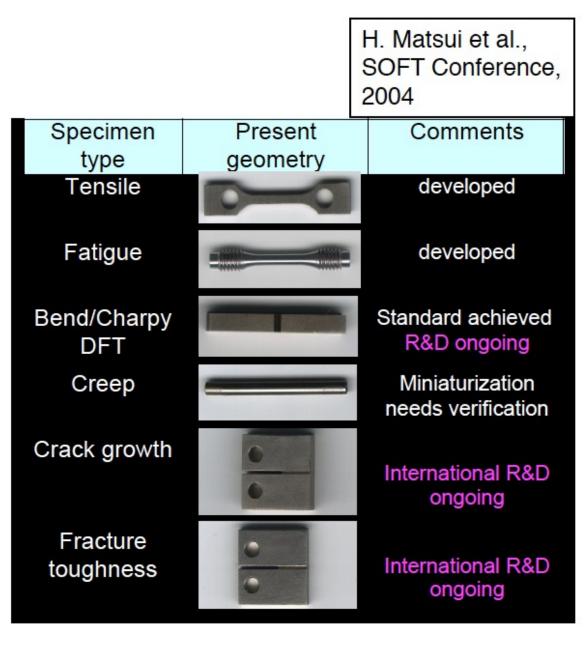




Small specimen test technology

 On the basis of miniaturized specimens,
 0.5 liter (high flux test module) is sufficient to get within 15-20 years a representative test matrix up to about 150 dpa for a variety of materials.

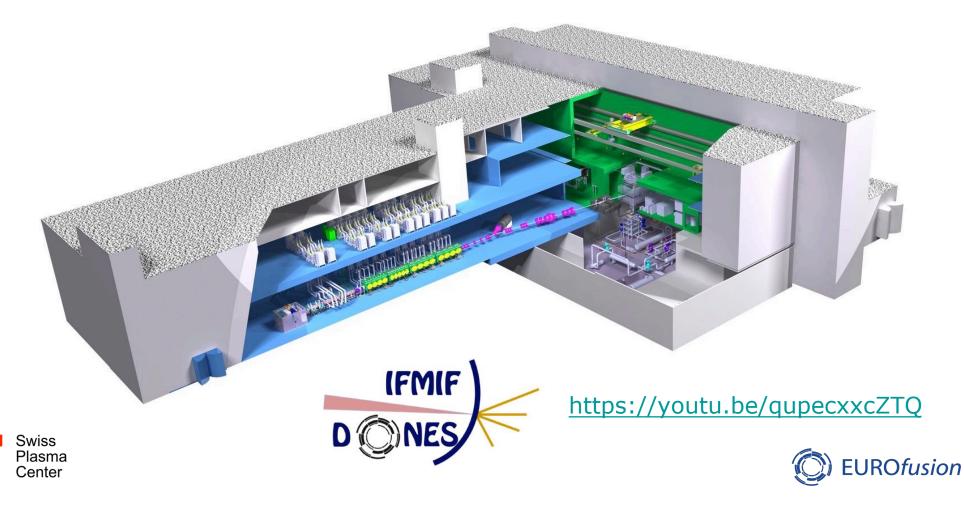
1 cm





EU irradiation test facility

DONES - Demo Oriented Neutron Source in Grenada (Spain) Under development to start material tests for DEMO Based on IFMF concept – just one accelerator instead of two, half size of irradiated volume





Summary of part II

Fusion structural materials must satisfy stringent requirements

Material properties affected by n-irradiation, but exp. knowledge of effects is incomplete

Need tests of candidate materials

Material science plays a crucial role in fusion energy research

