

Experimental and numerical analysis of dust resuspension for supporting chemical and radiological risk assessment in a nuclear fusion device

P.Gaudio, A.Malizia, I.Lupelli

Abstract— A recognized safety issue for future fusion reactors fueled with deuterium and tritium is the generation of sizeable quantities of dust. Several mechanisms like plasma disruptions, Edge Localized Modes (ELM) and Vertical Displacement Events (VDE) resulting from material response to plasma bombardment in normal and off-normal conditions are responsible for generating dust of micron and sub-micron length scales inside the VV (Vacuum Vessel) of experimental fusion reactors like the International Thermonuclear Experimental Reactor (ITER). The loss of coolant accidents (LOCA), loss of coolant flow accidents (LOFA) and loss of vacuum accidents (LOVA) are types of accidents expected in experimental fusion reactors like ITER, which may jeopardize the components and the plasma vessel integrity and cause dust mobilization risk for workers and public. In particular the mobilization of the dust and its release outside the VV threatening public safety because it may contain tritium, may be radioactive from activation products, and may be chemically reactive and/or toxic. Understanding of the behavior of dust in an accident scenario will be essential in order to support the prevention and protection activities. A small facility, Small Tank for Aerosol Removal and DUST (STARDUST), was set up to perform experiments concerning the dust mobilization in a volume with the initial condition similar to those existing in ITER VV. The aim of this work was to reproduce a low pressurization rate (300 Pa/s) LOVA event in ITER due to a small air leakage, for two different positions of the leak (equatorial port level and at the divertor port level) in order to evaluate a first re-suspension numerical model by the analysis of the:

- Influence of obstacles and temperature on dust resuspension during both maintenance and operative conditions;
- The velocity field inside STARDUST.

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For the first experimental purpose the dusts used were tungsten (W), stainless steel (SS) and carbon (C), similar to those produced inside the vacuum chamber in a fusion reactor when the plasma facing materials vaporizes due to the high energy deposition. The experimental campaign has been carried out by introducing inside STARDUST facility an obstacle that simulates the presence of objects, like divertor and the limiter-divertor gap inside ITER VV. The walls of the tank are heated at two different temperatures, 25°C 110°C in order to reproduce the maintenance conditions and operative conditions. For the second experimental purpose, local measurements of velocity have been acquired by a capacitive transducer. A two-dimensional (2D) modelling of STARDUST has been set up by using a commercial CFD code (FLUENT), in order to get a preliminary overview of the fluid dynamics behavior during a LOVA event. The results of these simulations were compared against the experimental data for the CFD code validation. For validation purposes, the CFD simulation data were extracted at the same locations as the experimental data were collected. In this work, the computer-simulation data and the comparison with data collected during the laboratory studies will be presented and discussed.

Keywords—Dust mobilization, nuclear fusion safety, LOVA, CFD.

I. INTRODUCTION

A recognized safety issue for future fusion reactors (like ITER) fueled with deuterium and tritium is the generation of sizeable quantities of dust [1-3]. The loss of coolant accidents (LOCA), loss of coolant flow accidents (LOFA) and loss of vacuum accidents (LOVA) are types of accidents that may jeopardize the components and the plasma vessel integrity and cause dust mobilization, risky for workers and public [4]. In order to analyze this problems a small facility STARDUST was set up at University of Rome “Tor Vergata” in collaboration with the ENEA Frascati National Laboratory Fusion Technology Department that reproduce a LOVA event postulated in ITER. Several experiments have been conducted with STARDUST facility in order to reproduce a low pressurization rate (300 Pa/s due to a 0,02 m² wide breach defined by Generic Site Specific Report (GSSR) [5]) LOVA event in ITER for two different positions of the leak, at the equatorial port level and at the divertor port level, in order to perform:

- Dust resuspension experiments (with tungsten (W), stainless steel (SS) and carbon (C), similar to those

produced inside the vacuum chamber in a fusion reactor. These experiments are carried out with STARDUST facility in order to analyze both the influence of obstacles like the divertor or particular geometrical configuration inside the VV (like the LDG1), and the influence of temperature on dust resuspension during maintenance and operative conditions. All the experimental results will be analyzed and discussed;

- Punctual velocity evaluation in order to study the flow field in case of LOVA and its connection with dust mobilization phenomena.

FLUENT was used to simulate the flow behavior for the same LOVA scenarios used during the experimental tests. For the design and licensing of the nuclear fusion power plant Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD) codes are considered an essential tool [6]. Therefore, experimental activities and numerical simulation campaigns have been carried out in strong correlation in order both to understand the capabilities of computational codes and to predict correctly the characteristics of the flows during a LOVA event. A model which could predicts the velocity magnitude for different conditions during a LOVA event in the whole domain is an important tool to support regulatory approval of a fusion device. A two-dimensional (2D) modeling of STARDUST, made with the CFD commercial code FLUENT, will be carried out. A comparison of the experiments data in STARDUST with the numerical simulation results will be shown for CFD code validation. For validation purposes, the CFD simulation data will be extracted at the same locations as the experimental data will be collected. In this paper the computer-simulation data and the comparison with data collected during the laboratory studies will be discussed and presented in order to evaluate a first resuspension numerical model.

II. EXPERIMENTAL SET-UP

STARDUST Facility and LOVA reproduction

The main dimensions of STARDUST(Fig.1) are reported in the following table (Tab.1):



Fig. 1 STARDUST facility

External length of the tank (mm)	920
External diameter of the tank (mm)	506
External diameter of the lids (mm)	570
Thickness of the tank's wall (mm)	5
Thickness of the lid (mm)	14
Quartz lateral windows : distance from the pipe inlet (center of the window) (mm)	182
Diameter of the lateral quartz windows (mm)	84
Diameter of the frontal quartz window in the mobile lid (mm)	79
Internal volume of the tank (m ³)	0,17

Tab. 1 main dimensions of STARDUST [7,8]

A labview software has been developed in order to control all the hardware and to storage automatically the data. These are the steps of program:

- Switch on the heaters (only for 110 °C test)
- The pneumatic-valve is open;
- The vacuum pump is turned on;
- The user can monitor the temperature and pressure conditions and the flow rate during the achievement of the test initial conditions;
- When the initial conditions are reached the program automatically closes the pneumatic-valve and vacuum pump is turned off.
- The inlet section (A or B which represent respectively a window leakage at equatorial port level and at the divertor port level in a fusion plant (Fig.2)) is selected as the path-file for the data storage;
- The air mass flow is set to 27 l/min in order to reproduce a 300 Pa/s LOVA event and feed valve is open.

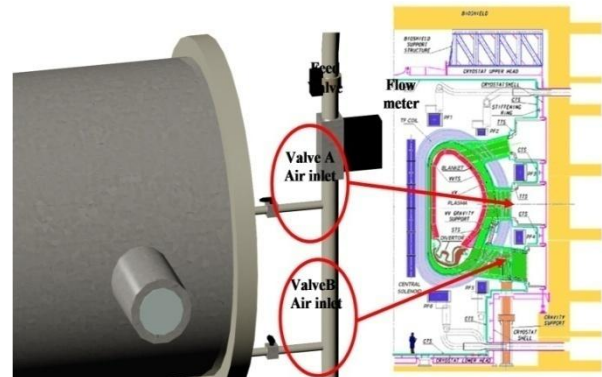


Fig. 2 STARDUST facility [9]

- The acquisition starts, and the data are stored at 50 Hz;
- When the internal pressure equals the external one the program automatically allows the closure of flow meter and the experiment is over.

Quantitative measurements of dust resuspension

The dusts used in STARDUST are:

- W powder, pure at 99.95%, (mean diameter 0.6 -0.9 μm)
- SS powder of AISI 316, (mean diameter 45 μm)
- C powder (mean diameter 4.5 μm)

5 g of dust has been used in order to achieve a concentration of about 30 g/m^3 in case of complete mobilization. The dusts have been putted on a little aluminium tray of 25 cm^2 by using a sieve in order to avoid heaps. In order to study the effects on the dust mobilization and resuspension due to structures inside the VV of ITER an obstacle was putted inside STARDUST tank (Fig.3) [9]. The obstacle simulates the presence of divertor and the bridge inside the obstacle represents the divertor dome. The obstacle was made in stainless steel.



Fig. 3 The obstacle

The main dimensions are length 39.1 cm and width 30 cm. After a first set of experiments, a slit on the obstacle has been realized in order to analyze the possible variations of the flow field caused by the limiter-divertor gap (Fig.4) [10].

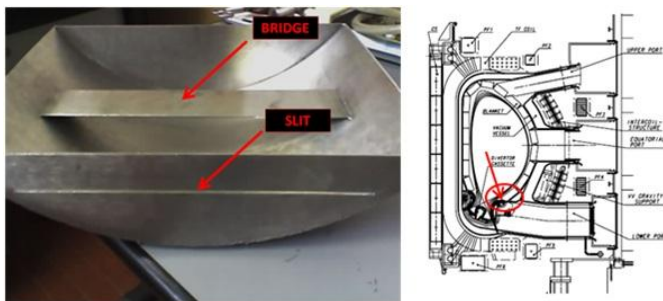


Fig. 4 Slit position on obstacle

The experiments have been performed with an air inlet from the valve A and the valve B, at 110°C and 25°C, in the following configurations:

- Tray without obstacle (Fig.5a) ;
- Tray under obstacle at the bottom part of the tank (Fig.5b);
- Tray inside obstacle, under the bridge (Fig.5c);
- Tray inside obstacle, over the bridge (Fig.5d). [11]

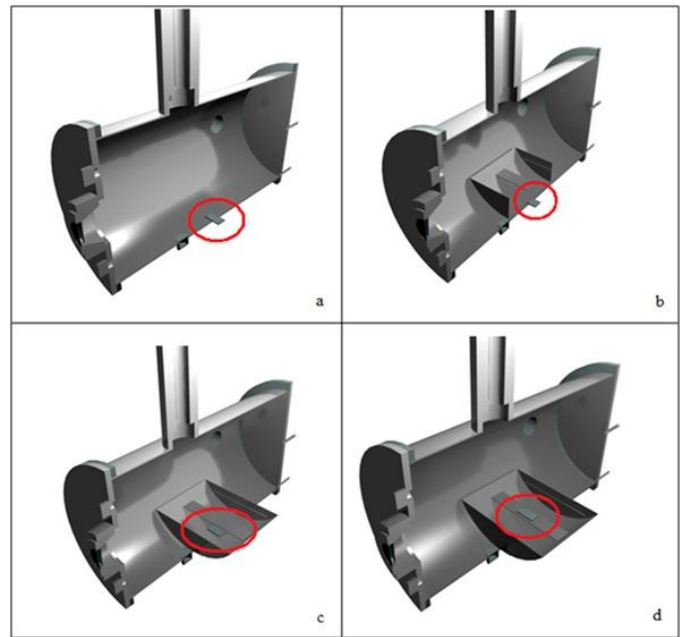


Fig. 5 Different position of tray.

Velocity measurements

In order to analyze the velocity magnitude inside STARDUST in case of LOVA a pressure transducer has been used. The pressure transducer used is a XCQ-093-2PSI Kulite instruments (Fig.6).

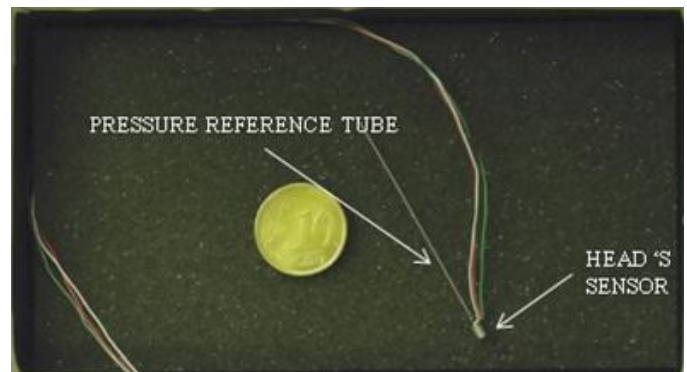


Fig. 6 Pressure transducer

The pressure transducer allows the punctual characterization of velocity flow field values [12]. During these experimental campaign the pressure transducer has been placed where dusts have been placed in the previous experiment:

- Tray without obstacle ;
- Tray under obstacle at the bottom part of the tank;
- Tray inside obstacle, under the bridge;
- Tray inside obstacle, over the bridge.

The experiments have been conducted only at 25°C in order to preserve the sensor integrity [13].

III. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

Quantitative measurements of dust resuspension

In this section the experimental results will be analyzed and discussed. In the following table (Tab.2) the acronyms to identify the experiments are shown:

1 th Letter	W-C-SS	Dust's type (W:Tungsten, C:Carbon, SS : Stainless Steel)
2 th Letter	A - B	Inlet position a : equatorial level b : divertor level
3 th Letter	UO – UB – OB	Tray positions UO (Under Obstacle) : tray under obstacle UB (Under Bridge) : tray inside obstacle, under bridge OB (Over Bridge) : tray inside obstacle, on the bridge
4 th Letter	h - c	Wall temperature h (hot) : wall heated up to 110 °C (operative conditions) c (cold) : wall at 25 °C (maintenance condition)
5 th letter	s	Experiments done with a slit at bridge level to simulate the space between the limiter and the divertor inside ITER
Notes	NoObstacole	Experiments without obstacle

Tab. 2 Dust resuspension experimental setup acronyms

- Four test have been performed for each configuration;
- For each configuration the tray has been in order to take in account an imperfect tray cleaning;
- A 10% error was considered for each experiment in order to take in account the movements due to weighting operations.

Resuspended dust fraction has been calculated with a differential weighed:

$$\%R_d = (D_{iw} - D_{fw}) * 100 / D_{iw}$$

- $\%R_d$ = Percentage of dust resuspended.
- D_{fw} = Final Dust Weighted;
- D_{iw} = Initial Dust Weighted.

Fig.8 shows that the obstacle causes a reduction of mobilized dust for all the three types of dust. It is more sensitive (about 4%) in the case of SS and C at 110 °C, when the tray is placed under the obstacle. Another important aspect has to be taken in account is an increase of dust resuspended in case of cold experiments (at 25 °C) [10].

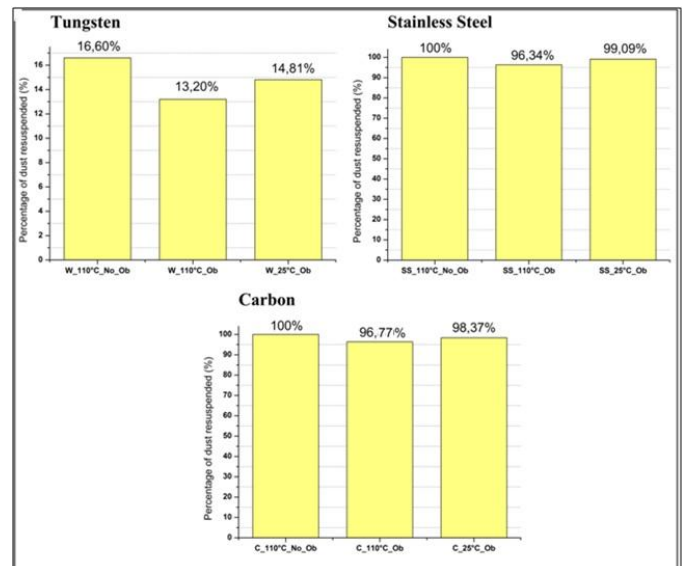


Fig.8 Tray in the bottom part of the tank, inlet B, Twall (110 °C and 25 °C), with and without obstacle

When the tray is placed inside the obstacle, and under the bridge (Fig.9) the quantity of mobilized dust is higher when the air inlet is at the divertor level (valve B). The slit seems to have a negative effect on dust mobilization. The local turbulence effect plays an important role in this reduction.

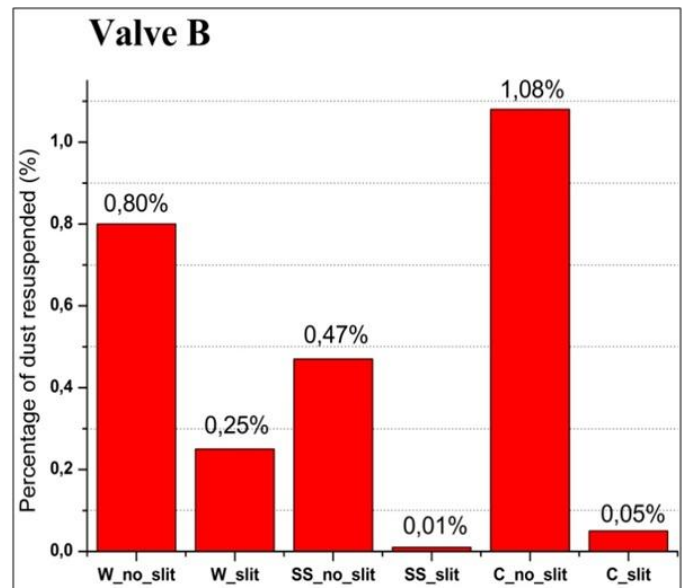


Fig.9 Slit effects on dust resuspension_Valve B experiments_Tray inside obstacle, under the bridge

For the experiments conducted with the tray inside the obstacle and under the bridge the quantity of mobilized dust is smaller (around 2% less) also with the slit on the obstacle and the air inlet is at the equatorial level (valve A). The comparison between the experiments at room temperature (walls at 25 °C) and hot conditions (walls at 110 °C) shows a higher mobilization for the cold tests. Fig.10 shows the test case in which the tray is placed inside the obstacle over the bridge and the air inlet is from the valve at the equatorial level (valve A).

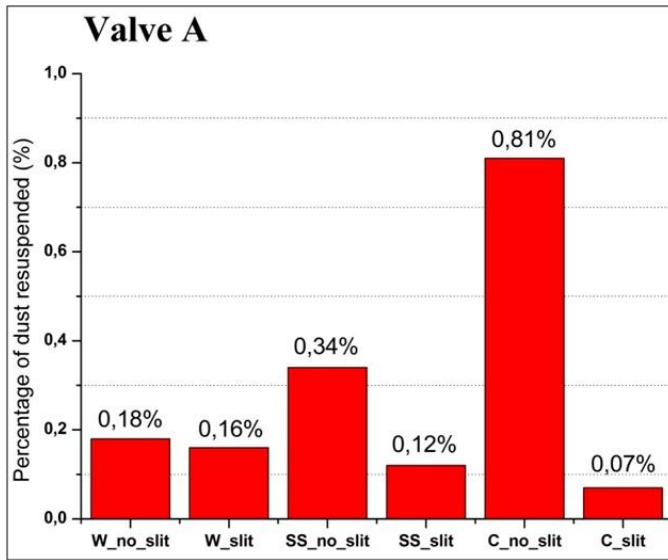


Fig.10 Slit effects on dust resuspension_Valve A experiments_Tray inside obstacle, over the bridge

Velocity measurements

In order to evaluate the punctual velocity the compressibility of air has to be taken into account:

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{2\gamma R \bar{T}}{M(\gamma - 1)} \left[\left(\frac{P_{\Delta} + P_s}{P_s} \right)^{\frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma}} - 1 \right]} \quad [14]$$

Where:

- γ : ratio of the fluid specific heat at constant pressure to the fluid specific heat at constant volume (c_p/c_v) and is approximately 1.4 for air;
- R : universal gas constant ($8,314 \text{ J K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$) ;
- \bar{T} : mean temperature ;
- M : air molecular mass ($28,968 \text{ g/mol}$);
- P_s : static pressure ;
- P_{Δ} : differential pressure ($P_{\Delta} = P_T - P_s$).measured respectively from sensor head and pressure reference tube.
- P_T : total pressure

The differential pressure is automatically measured by the pressure transducer. Static pressure is measured by Pirani and Edwards pressure gauges. Temperature value is the mean one obtained by thermocouples.

Pressure transducer without obstacle and under obstacle, valve A

These experiments have been conducted by placing the tray with pressure transducer on the bottom part of tank without obstacle and under the obstacle both with inlet A. The comparison between maximum velocity values (and the parameters measured at maximum velocity values instant) is showed in Tab.3.

Exp	Time	Vel.	Internal Pressure	Vel. Error
	sec	m/s	Pa	%
A_UO_c	2	162,35	305,63	10,88
A_NoObstacle_c	2,88	214,21	311,19	13,80

Tab. 3 Maximum experimental velocity values for A_UO_c and A_NoObstacle_c

The velocity results show a maximum velocity reduction of almost 24% between the first configuration (A_UO_c) and the second one due to the screening effect of obstacle [15].

Pressure transducer without obstacle and under obstacle, valve B

These experiments have been conducted by placing the tray with pressure transducer in the bottom part of tank without obstacle and under obstacle both with inlet B. The results are shown in Tab. 4.

Exp	Time	Vel.	Internal Pressure	Vel. Error
	sec	m/s	Pa	%
B_UO_c	2,16	270,75	313,98	16,65
B_NoObstacle_c	1,48	296,29	122,84	17,70

Tab. 4 Maximum experimental velocity values for B_UO_c and B_NoObstacle_c

The velocity results show a maximum velocity reduction of 9% between the values measured in the first configuration (B_UO_c) and the second one (B_NoObstacle_c) due to the screening effect of obstacle [10,15].

Pressure inside obstacle, under the bridge, valve B, with and without slit

These experiments have been conducted by placing the tray with pressure transducer inside the obstacle, under the bridge and in the same position after the application of a slit with inlet B. The results are shown in Tab.5.

Exp	Time	Vel.	Internal Pressure	Vel. Error
	sec	m/s	Pa	%
B_UB_c_s	2	167,85	296,27	11,21
B_UB_c	2,5	179,63	436,63	11,90

Tab. 5 Maximum experimental velocity values for B_UB_c_s and B_UB_c

The velocity results show a maximum velocity reduction of almost 6,5 % between the values measured in the first configuration (B_UB_c_s) and the second one (B_UB_c) due to the turbulence effects of the slit that reduce velocity on the tray.[10,15]

Pressure inside obstacle, over bridge, valve A with and without slit

These experiments have been conducted by placing the tray with pressure transducer inside the obstacle, over the bridge

and in the same position after the application of a slit at the bridge level that reproduce the space between limiter and divertor with inlet A. The results are shown in Tab.6.

Exp	Time	Vel.	Internal Pressure	Vel. Error
	sec	m/s	Pa	%
A_OB_c_s	2,5	176,71	473,76	11,74
A_OB_c	2,16	183,25	282,34	12,11

Tab. 6 Maximum experimental velocity values for A_OB_c_s and A_OB_c

The velocity results show a maximum velocity reduction of almost 3,5 % between the values measured in the first configuration (A_OB_c_s) and the second one (A_OB_c) due to the turbulence effects of the slit that reduce velocity on the tray.[10,15]

IV. NUMERICAL SIMULATIONS

Introduction

For the design and licensing of the nuclear fusion power plant Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD) codes are considered an essential tool [16]. A two-dimensional (2D) modelling of STARDUST has been carried out. FLUENT, a commercially available CFD solver together with the GAMBIT mesh generator, was used to simulate the flow behaviors for the same scenarios used during the laboratory tests. The results of these simulations were compared against the experimental data for CFD code validation. For validation purposes, the CFD simulation data were extracted at the same locations as the experimental data were collected.

Governing equations and thermodynamic models

Nomenclature

- x, y, z : coordinated axis
- p : static pressure (Pa)
- \vec{v} : velocity vector (m/s)
- u_i : component of velocity vector
- ρ : density
- S_m : is the mass added to the continuous phase from the dispersed second phase and any user-defined sources.
- μ : molecular viscosity (Pa·s)
- $\rho \vec{g}$: gravitational body force
- \vec{F} : external body force vector (N/m^3) that arise from interaction with the dispersed phase
- I : unit tensor
- $\bar{\tau}_{eff}$: stress tensor.

The governing equations in a compressible turbulent flow can be written as follows in which gravity effects are included. The implemented fluid-dynamic model is based on the fully compressible formulation of the continuity equation and momentum equations:

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} + \nabla(\rho v) = S_m$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho \vec{v}) + \nabla \cdot (\rho \vec{v} \vec{v}) = -\nabla p + \nabla \cdot \mu \left[(\nabla \vec{v} + (\nabla \vec{v})^T) - \frac{2}{3} \nabla \cdot \vec{v} I \right] + \rho \vec{g} + \vec{F}$$

Turbulence is a main key for this kind of problems. The aim of this work is to get a preliminary overview of the fluid dynamics behavior of a LOVA event. The RNG-based $k - \varepsilon$ model has been chosen because its robustness. Also, the model chosen improves the accuracy for rapidly strained flows than the standard $k - \varepsilon$ model.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho k) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}(\rho k u_i) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left(\alpha_k \mu_{eff} \frac{\partial k}{\partial x_j} \right) + G_k + G_b - \rho \varepsilon - Y_M + S_k$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho \varepsilon) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}(\rho \varepsilon u_i) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left(\alpha_\varepsilon \mu_{eff} \frac{\partial \varepsilon}{\partial x_j} \right) + C_{1\varepsilon} \frac{\varepsilon}{k} (G_k + C_{3\varepsilon} G_b) - C_{2\varepsilon} \rho \frac{\varepsilon^2}{k} - R_\varepsilon + S_\varepsilon$$

In these equations, G_k represents the generation of turbulence kinetic energy due to the mean velocity gradients, G_b is the generation of turbulence kinetic energy due to buoyancy, Y_m represents the contribution of the fluctuating dilatation in compressible turbulence to the overall dissipation rate. The quantities α_k and α_ε are the inverse effective Prandtl numbers for k and ε , respectively. S_k and S_ε are user-defined source terms. The model constants $C_{1\varepsilon}$, $C_{2\varepsilon}$ and $C_{3\varepsilon}$ have values derived analytically by the RNG theory. The RNG-based $k - \varepsilon$ turbulence model is derived from the instantaneous Navier-Stokes equations, using a mathematical technique called "renormalization group" (RNG) methods. The analytical derivation results in a model with constants different from those in the standard $k - \varepsilon$ model, and additional terms and functions in the transport equations for k and ε . The additional term in the ε equation given by:

$$R_\varepsilon = \frac{C_\mu \rho \eta^3 (1 - \eta/\eta_0)}{1 + \beta \eta^3} \cdot \frac{\varepsilon^2}{k}$$

$$\eta \equiv S_k / \varepsilon; \eta_0 = 4.3; \beta = 0.012$$

A more comprehensive description of RNG theory and its application to turbulence can be found in [17]. This model was developed to better handle low Re regions. In low flow regions, in the beginning of the LOVA event, the dissipation rate can become small and cause unrealistically high turbulent viscosities. RNG theory provides an analytically-derived differential formula for effective viscosity that accounts for low-Reynolds-number effects. The turbulent viscosity is calculated as:

$$d\left(\frac{\rho^2 k}{\sqrt{\varepsilon \mu}}\right) = \frac{1.72 \hat{v} d \hat{v}}{\sqrt{\hat{v}^3 - C_v - 1}}$$

where μ is again the molecular viscosity, C_v is a constant, and \hat{v} is the ratio of turbulent to molecular viscosity.

$$\hat{v} = \frac{\mu_t}{\mu}, \quad C_v \approx 100, \quad \mu_t = \rho C_\mu \frac{k^2}{\varepsilon}$$

where C_μ is an empirical constant. Therefore, the turbulence will vary with the eddy scale. Effective use of this feature does, however, depend on an appropriate treatment of the near-wall region. Traditionally, there are two approaches to modeling the near-wall region. In one approach, the viscosity-affected inner region (viscous sublayer and buffer layer) is not resolved. Instead, semi-empirical formulas called "wall functions" are used to bridge the solution variables at the near-wall cells and the corresponding quantities on the wall, or in other terms the viscosity-affected region between the wall and the fully-turbulent region. In another approach, the turbulence models are modified to enable the viscosity-affected region to be resolved with a mesh all the way to the wall, including the viscous sublayer. This is called the "near-wall modeling" approach. In most high-Reynolds-number flows, the wall function approach substantially saves computational resources, because the viscosity-affected near-wall region, in which the solution variables change most rapidly, does not need to be resolved. The wall-function approach, however, is inadequate in situations where the low-Reynolds-number effects are pervasive and the assumptions underlying the wall functions cease to be valid. Such situations require near-wall models that are valid in the viscosity-affected region and accordingly integrable all the way to the wall. In this case a enhanced wall treatment, with near wall refinement, has been chosen. Enhanced wall treatment is a near-wall modeling method that combines a two-layer model with enhanced wall functions. The two-layer approach is used to specify both ε and the turbulent viscosity in the near-wall cells. In this approach, the whole domain is subdivided into a viscosity-affected region and a fully-turbulent region. In the fully turbulent region the RNG-based $k-\varepsilon$ model is employed. In the viscosity-affected near-wall region the one-equation model of Wolfstein [18] is employed. The demarcation of the two regions is determined by a wall-distance-based, turbulent Reynolds number:

$$\text{Re}_y \equiv \frac{\rho y \sqrt{k}}{\mu}$$

where y is the wall-normal distance calculated at the cell centers. The two-layer formulation for turbulent viscosity is used as a part of the enhanced wall treatment, in which the two-layer definition is smoothly blended with the high-Reynolds-number μ_t definition from the outer region, as

proposed by Jongen [19]. To have a method that can extend its applicability throughout the near-wall region (i.e., viscous sub-layer, buffer region, and fully-turbulent outer region) it is necessary to formulate the law-of-the wall as a single wall law for the entire wall region. The code achieves this by blending the logarithmic (turbulent) laws-of-the-wall using a function suggested by Kader [20]. This approach allows the fully turbulent law to be easily modified and extended to take into account other effects such as pressure gradients or variable properties. The enhanced turbulent law-of-the-wall for compressible flow with heat transfer and pressure gradients has been derived by combining the approaches of White and Cristoph [21] and Huang et al. [22]. The production of turbulence kinetic energy, is computed using the velocity gradients that are consistent with the enhanced law-of-the-wall ensuring a formulation that is valid throughout the near-wall region.

The implemented CFD model solves the energy equation in the following form:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho E) + \nabla \cdot (\vec{v}(\rho E + p)) = \nabla \cdot \left(k_{\text{eff}} \nabla T - \sum_j h_j \vec{J}_j + (\vec{\tau}_{\text{eff}} \cdot \vec{v}) \right) + S_h$$

where k_{eff} is the effective conductivity, and \vec{J}_j is the diffusion flux of species j . The first three terms on the right hand side of equation represent energy transfer due to conduction, species diffusion, and viscous dissipation, respectively, includes the heat of chemical reaction, and any other volumetric heat sources. Heat transfer has been modelled using the Reynolds analogy, but for the RNG model, the effective thermal conductivity used in the energy equation is $k_{\text{eff}} = \alpha_c \mu_{\text{eff}}$ where α (inverse of the turbulent Prandtl number) is calculated from Eq:

$$\left| \frac{\alpha - 1,3929}{\alpha_0 - 1,3929} \right|^{0.6231} \left| \frac{\alpha - 2,3929}{\alpha_0 - 2,3929} \right|^{0.3679} = \frac{\mu}{\mu_{\text{eff}}}$$

with $\alpha_0 = i / \text{Pr} = k / \mu c_p$

Therefore, the turbulent Prandtl number is not constant as in the standard $k-\varepsilon$ model, but it depends on the molecular Prandtl number. Developed analyses have been conducted in transitory regime with an real gas assumption according to the Aungier-Redlich-Kwong real gas model [23]. Thermo-physical properties of the air are assumed to be varying with the kinetic theory assumption.

Gas model

Some engineering problems involve fluids that do not behave as ideal gases. For example, at very high-pressure or very low-temperature conditions the flow cannot typically be modeled accurately using the ideal-gas assumption. Therefore, the real gas model allows to solve accurately for the fluid flow and heat transfer problems where the working fluid behavior deviate from the ideal-gas assumption. An equation of state is

a thermodynamic equation, which provides a mathematical relationship between two or more state functions associated with the matter, such as its temperature, pressure, volume, or internal energy. One of the simplest equations of state for this purpose is the ideal gas law, which is roughly accurate for gases at low pressure gas region of the PT and PV diagrams. Ideal gas behavior can be expected when $P/P_c \ll 1$. Introduced in 1949, the Redlich-Kwong equation of state was a considerable improvement over other equations of that time. It is an analytic cubic equation of state and is still of interest primarily due to its relatively simple form. The original form is

$$P = \frac{RT}{V-b} - \frac{\alpha_0}{V(V+b)T_r^{0.5}}$$

- R= universal gas constant divided by molecular weight;
- V=specific volume;
- T=temperature;
- T_r =reduced temperature;
- α_0 e b are constants related directly to the fluid critical pressure and temperature.

ANSYS FLUENT has adopted the modified form from Aungier [24]. The Aungier-Redlich-Kwong equation has improved accuracy compared to the original form. This model employs a cubic equation of state of the following form [24] :

$$P = \frac{RT}{V-b+c} - \frac{\alpha(T)}{V(V+b)}$$

$$\alpha(T) = \alpha = \alpha_0 T_r^{-n}$$

$$c = \frac{RT_c}{P_c + \frac{\alpha_0}{V_c(V_c+b)}} + b - V_c$$

$$n = 0,4986 + 1,1735\omega + 0,4754\omega^2$$

$$\alpha_0 = 0,42747R^2 T_c^2 / P_c$$

$$b = 0,08664R T_c / P_c$$

$$R = \frac{R_u}{MW}$$

- P = absolute pressure (Pa);
- V = specific volume (m^3/kg);
- T = temperature (K);
- T_c = critical temperature (K);
- P_c = critical pressure (Pa);
- V_c = critical specific volume (m^3/kg);
- ω = acentric factor.

Enthalpy, entropy, and specific heat are computed in terms of the relevant ideal gas properties and the departure functions. The departure function F_{dep} of any conceptual property F is defined as [25] :

$$F_{dep} = F_{ideal}(T, P) - F(T, P)$$

where F_{ideal} is the value of the property as computed from the ideal gas relations. The departure function F_{dep} can be derived from basic thermodynamic relations and the equation of state. Following the above definition, the enthalpy H for the Aungier-Redlich-Kwong model is given by the following equations [24]:

$$H_{dep} = H_{ideal} - H_{dep}$$

$$H_{dep} = -PV + RT - \frac{1}{b} \left(T \frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial T} - \alpha \right) \ln \left(\frac{V+b}{V} \right)$$

The specific heat c_p for the Aungier-Redlich-Kwong model can be derived by differentiating the equation for enthalpy with respect to T , and is given by:

$$c_p = c_{p,ideal} - c_{p,dep}$$

$$c_{p,dep} = -P \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T} \right)_p + R + \frac{d\alpha}{dT} \frac{(1+n)}{b} \ln \left(\frac{V+b}{V} \right) - \alpha(1+n) \frac{\left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T} \right)_p}{V(V+b)}$$

The entropy for the Aungier-Redlich-Kwong model is computed from the following equations

$$S = S_{ideal} - S_{dep}$$

$$S_{dep} = -R \ln \left(\frac{V-b+c}{V_0} \right) - \frac{1}{b} \frac{d\alpha}{dT} \ln \left(\frac{V+b}{V} \right)$$

Pre-processing

The geometry of the computational model has been created using Gambit software. For the discretization of the overall domain, 59056 quadrilateral cells have been adopted. An important feature when discretising the computational domain is to have a sufficient refinement along the direction of velocity gradient, namely normal at the inlet section in our case. The characteristics of the grid used in simulations is listed in Tab. 7. and a grid sketch is presented in Fig.11

Initial Mesh	
Cells	59056
Faces	120783
Nodes	61727
Maximum cell squish	0,296055
Maximum aspect ratio	4,38624

Tab.7 : Mesh characteristics

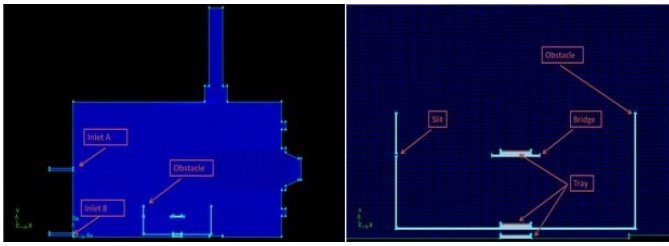


Fig.11 Grid sketch

Grid independence is an important stage in CFD modeling. Grid independence was achieved by using a solution adaptive refinement, as cells can be added where they are needed in the mesh. The initial grid was adapted by putting more cells in the areas where the density gradient is higher than a chosen level. This process was repeated until the results became grid independent. Fig.12 shows three 2D meshes: Mesh at 0.5s of 48649 cells, Mesh at 2s of 55432 cells, and Mesh at 4s of 219709 cells.

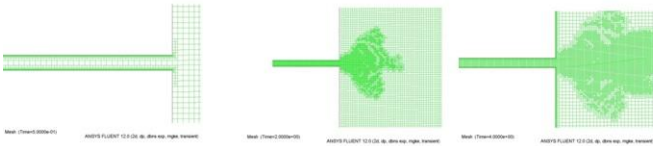


Fig.12 Mesh 2D with adaptation

The last one shown above supplied reasonable performances in terms of CPU time. A mesh boundary layer was also considered on the wall of the model so that the mesh density can be increased to sufficiently resolve the boundary layer, without substantially increasing the total number of nodes. The boundary layer has been created dynamically by wall-refinement in order to improve the performance of the mesh. The wall-refinement consists of thinner cells in the vicinity of the wall, ranging from 0,1875mm thick (attached to the wall) growing up to 3mm. The resulting grid is shown in Fig.13.

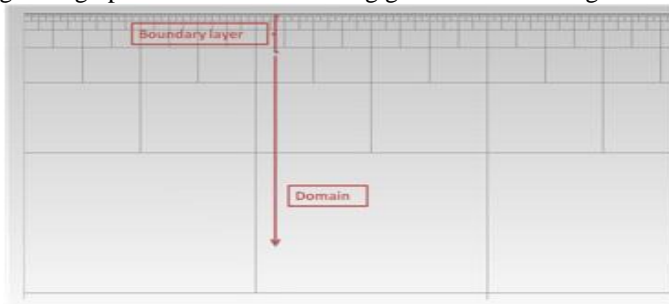


Fig.13 Boundary layer

The basic parameters of the simulation are showed in Tab.8 :

Representative System Parameters	
Molar mass (Air) [kg/kmol]	28,966
Inlet Temperature [K]	292,75
Inlet Pressure [Pa]	280000
Internal Temperature [K]	292,16767
Internal Pressure [Pa]	99,16735
Wall temperature [K]	300,15
Wall temperature (Heated Wall) [K]	383,15

Tab.8 Representative System Parameters

In the $k-\varepsilon$ based model, we need to specify the turbulence length scale as well as turbulence intensity. Typical value of turbulence intensity is chosen to be between 5% and 10%. There is no noticeable difference in the results if turbulence intensity is varied in the range as showed in Tab.9.

Turbulence Parameter (k-ε RNG)	
Turbulence Intensity	5%
Turbulence Length Scale [mm]	0,63

Tab.9 Turbulence parameters

A commonly used set-up of boundary conditions was configured. The gas inlet was taken as a experimental mass-flow inlet with a inlet function given in Fig. 14 in order to take into account the time necessary for the opening of the inlet valve and the time necessary to reach the regime of the mass flow rate. All the other surfaces are treated as adiabatic walls with a no-slip boundary condition.

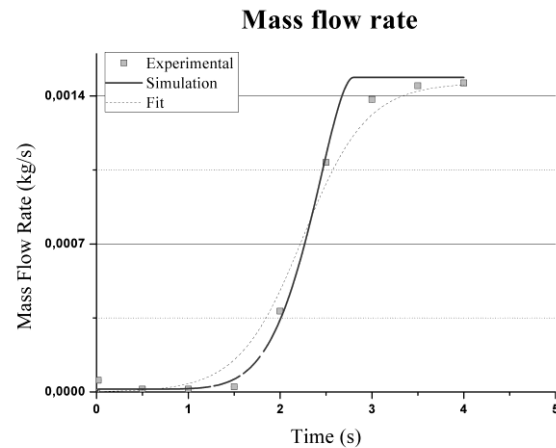


Fig.14 Flow rate function (experimental and simulated)[20]

For the 110°C and 25°C tests temperature conditions are set at the lateral walls.

Numerical schemes and parameters

Simulations have been carried out with the 2D, with a virtual third dimension, density-based solver in a unsteady formulation available in FLUENT. A second order Third-Order MUSCL discretization scheme has been used for momentum, turbulent kinetic energy, turbulent dissipation rate, and energy. Gradients are estimated by the Green-Gauss node based method. The solution process is iterative and a convergence criterion is required. Convergence was assumed for each time step as all residuals fall below 10^{-3} , and a maximum of 200 iterations per time step was considered if the residuals failed to pass these thresholds (Fig.15).

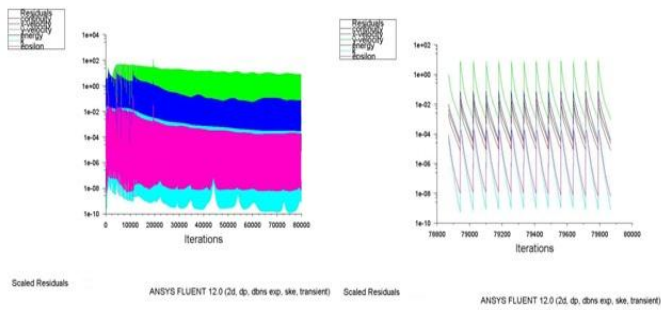


Fig.15 Residuals

While time steps of 0.02s would have been sufficient in order to account the transient and compare the simulation with the experimental data, convergence concerns implied to use a time step no greater than 1e-5s in all simulations.

V. NUMERICAL RESULTS-SIMULATION WITH AND WITHOUT OBSTACLE

Fig.16 illustrates the velocity magnitude in the whole domain at the end of simulation when the flow is totally expanded:

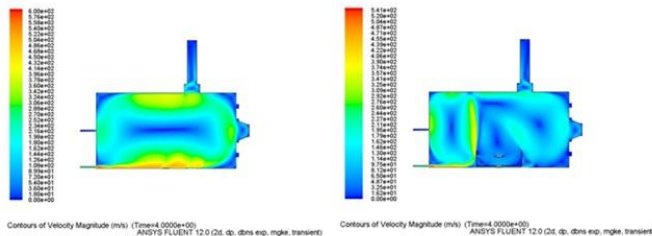


Fig.16 Velocity magnitude

The maximum velocity was about 600m/s. At the end of the inlet tube an expanding airflow with Mach Number $M = 3 \div 3.66$ (for the different tests) was realized. In the following table (Tab.10) the velocity magnitude values at 2s in different experimental configuration are showed.

Tray Position		No Obstacle (25C)	Obstacle no Slit (25C)	Obstacle and Slit (25C)	No Obstacle (110C)	Obstacle no Slit (110C)	Obstacle and Slit (110C)
Velocity Magnitude Inlet Valve A [m/s]	Over bridge		69,259	68,554		90,116	89,240
	Under Bridge		32,84	32,92		44,79	44,90
	Under Obstacle	See Bottom of the Tank	131,183	131,709	See Bottom of the Tank	163,342	163,99
	Bottom of the Tank	150,868			187,853		
Velocity Magnitude Inlet Valve B [m/s]	Over bridge		30,124	29,561		39,214	38,481
	Under Bridge		59,279	59,122		86,221	73,616
	Under Obstacle	See Bottom of the Tank	147,599	147,807	See Bottom of the Tank	201,284	201,568
	Bottom of the Tank	384,997	-	-	413,573	-	-

Tab.9 Velocity magnitude at 2s for different positions

Static pressure output

The models used for the simulation were:

- Real gas based Standard k-ε;
- Ideal gas based k-ε;
- RNG-based k-ε turbulence.

Each pressure static trend obtained by the different models has been compared with the experimental one is shown in Fig.17:

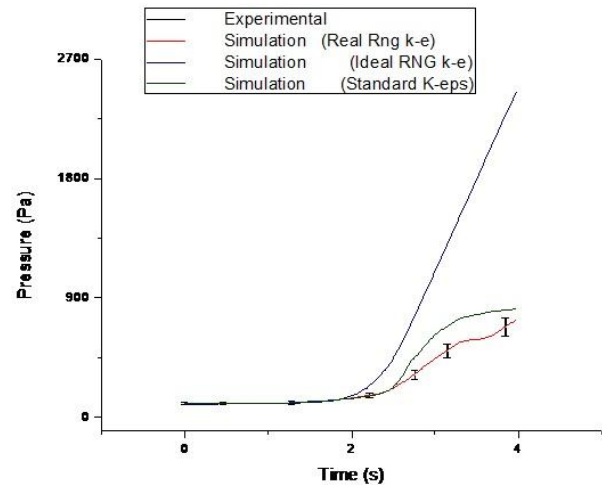


Fig.17 Pressurization rate (experimental and simulated)[15]

It can be seen that the coupling of real gas assumption and RNG-based k-ε turbulence model could be used to simulate the LOVA event better than the real gas based Standard k-ε and the ideal gas based k-ε because the numerical pressure static numerical results match with the experimental ones better than the other models.

VI. NUMERICAL AND EXPERIMENTAL DATA COMPARISON

Obstacle influence in dust mobilization

The experimental results obtained at an assigned temperature, for both the valve A and the valve B, show a reduction of dust resuspended when the tray is placed under the obstacle. Hence it is possible to state that the divertor causes the diminution of mobilized dust for W and C for a leakage from both the equatorial and the divertor port level. In case of a leakage at the divertor port level the influence of the obstacle is bigger than at the equatorial one. The effect of the presence of the obstacle on the mobilization, i.e. the reduction of the resuspension due to the divertor, is shown in Fig. 18 for the valve A and the valve B. All the variations of the velocity magnitude and the mobilization shown in this section refer to the configuration with the tray under the obstacle (Tab.10).

Divertor effect (valve A)			
	Without obstacle	With obstacle	Variation between the configurations (%)
Tungsten (mobilization %)	0,20	0,20	0,00
Carbon (mobilization %)	1,10	0,60	-0,50
Simulation velocity (m/s)(at 2 sec)	187,85	163,34	-13,048
Experimental velocity (m/s)	214,21	162,35	-24,210
Divertor effect (valve B)			
	Without obstacle	With obstacle	Variation between the configurations (%)
Tungsten (mobilization %)	16,60	13,10	-3,50
Carbon (mobilization %)	100,00	98,40	-1,60
Simulation velocity (m/s)(at 2 sec)	413,47	201,28	-51,319
Experimental velocity (m/s)	296,29	270,754	-8,619

Tab.10 Percentage variation due to the obstacle

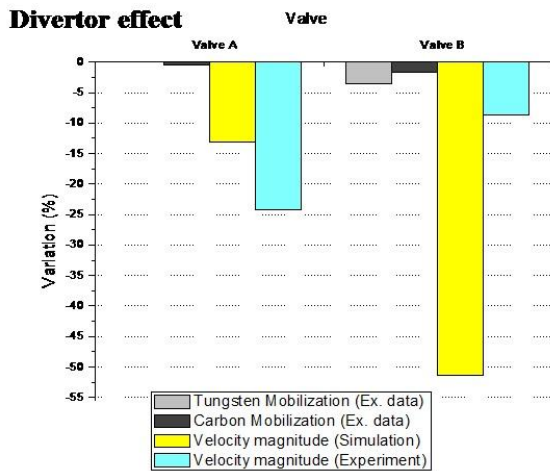


Fig.18 Effect of the divertor: comparison between experimental dust mobilization and velocity magnitude

For both dusts used and for both valves there is a reduction of the mobilization related to the reduction of the velocity magnitude. The previous graph also shows the bigger influence of the divertor on the mobilization and the velocity, when a LOVA occurs from divertor port level.

Temperature influence in dust mobilization

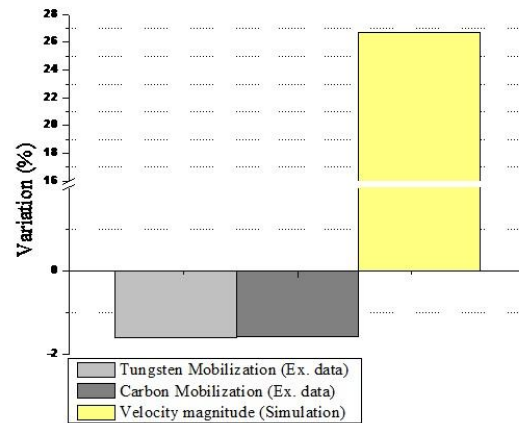
The experimental results obtained at different temperatures (raising from 25°C, during maintenance conditions, to 110°C, operative conditions) show for the valve B (the higher dust mobilization experimental configuration) a reduction of dust resuspended when the temperature increases despite of a higher velocity magnitude obtained by the numerical analysis. The effect of the temperature is shown in Fig. 19 for valve B. All the variations of the velocity magnitude and the mobilization shown in this section refer to the configuration with the tray under the obstacle (Tab.11).

Temperature effects (valve B)			
	Hot condition	Cold condition	Variation between the configurations (%)
Tungsten (mobilization %)	13,2	14,81	-1,61
Carbon (mobilization %)	96,8	98,37	-1,57
Simulation velocity (m/s)(at 2 sec)	201,28	147,60	26,67

Tab.11 Percentage variation between cold and hot wall's condition

In case of a LOVA occurring during operative conditions, the mobilization is lesser than the maintenance conditions one. The result of the numerical analysis seems to be in contrast with the experimental evidences. It can be explained with the higher relative humidity value at lower temperature that may influence the dust agglomeration properties, causing the increase of the air-dust impact surface.

Temperature effect - Valve B

Fig.19 Effect of the increase of the temperature (from $T_{wall} = 25^{\circ}\text{C}$ to $T_{wall} = 110^{\circ}\text{C}$): comparison between dust mobilization and simulated velocity magnitude

Slit influence in dust mobilization

The experimental results obtained at a assigned temperature, show a reduction of dust resuspended in case the tray is placed over the bridge (inlet from the valve A) and under the bridge (inlet from the valve B) if a slit is applied on the obstacle at the bridge level (Tab.12). The effect of the slit is shown in Fig.20 and Fig.21.

SLIT EFFECT (Valve A)			
	Without slit	With slit	Variation between the configurations (%)
Tungsten (mobilization %)	0,20	0,18	-0,02
Carbon (mobilization %)	0,81	0,07	-0,74
Simulation velocity (m/s)(at 2 sec)	90,11	89,24	-0,971
Experimental velocity (m/s)	183,25	176,71	-3,569

SLIT EFFECT (ValveB)			
	Without slit	With slit	Variation between the configurations (%)
Tungsten (mobilization %)	0,80	0,25	-0,55
Carbon (mobilization %)	1,08	0,05	-1,03
Simulation velocity (m/s)(at 2 sec)	86,22	73,62	-14,619
Experimental velocity (m/s)	179,63	167,85	-6,555

Tab.12 Slit influence

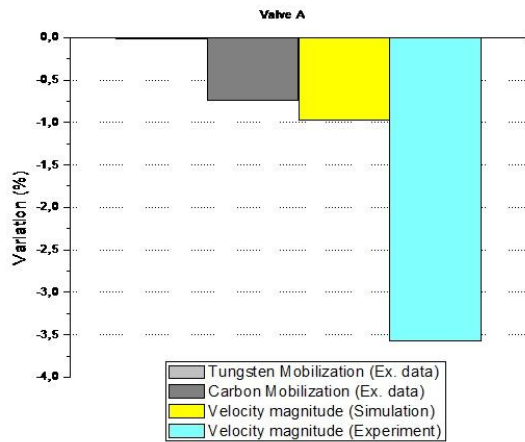


Fig.20 Effect of the slit: comparison between experimental dust mobilization and simulated and experimental velocity magnitude – Valve A

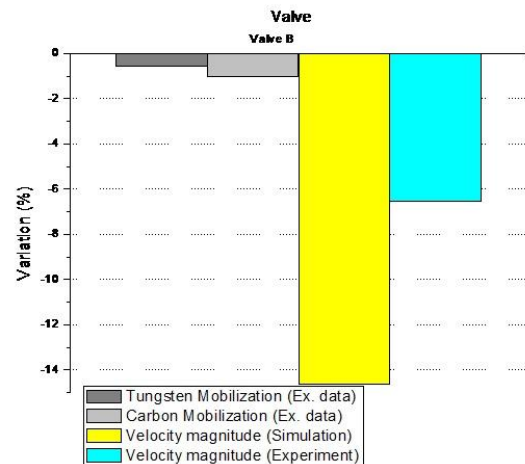


Fig.21 Effect of the slit: comparison between experimental dust mobilization and simulated and experimental velocity magnitude – Valve B

The limiter-divertor gap seems to have a negative effect on the dust mobilization. The local turbulence effect appears to play an important role in this reduction as shown in numerical results.

VII. CONCLUSION

By means of STARDUST facility a simulated low pressurization rate (300 Pa/s) LOVA event in ITER due to a small air leakage for two different positions of the leak has been carried out in order to evaluate the influence of obstacles and different temperature conditions on dust resuspension. For the experiments done with the dust inside the tank (with and without obstacle) the most important evidences were:

- The obstacle causes a diminution of mobilized dust for all the three types of dust. It is more sensitive (about 4%) in the case of SS and C at 110 °C, when the tray is placed under the obstacle.
- When the tray is placed inside the obstacle and under the bridge the quantity of mobilized dust is up to 3% maximum when the air inlet is at the divertor level (valve B). The slit seems to have a negative effect on the dust mobilization. From the experiments conducted with the tray inside the obstacle and in both configuration (under and over the bridge, Valve A) the quantity of mobilized dust is smaller also in the case when there is the slit on the obstacle. The local turbulence effect plays an important role in this reduction;
- Another important aspect that has to be taken into account is an increase of dust resuspended in case of cold experiments (at 25 °C), made to simulate a LOVA during maintenance conditions.

By placing the pressure transducer in the same position of the tray (in maintenance conditions) the variation of the velocity measured in different experimental configurations is in accordance with the dust mobilization which means that the previous considerations are correct. A two-dimensional (2D) modeling of STARDUST has been carried out. For validation purposes (the correspondence between dust and flow lines is guaranteed by the Stokes Number only for Tungsten and Carbon), the CFD simulation data were extracted at the same locations as the experimental data were collected. The velocity variations of the numerical simulation are in accordance with the velocity experimental variations and the dust resuspended variations [except for the case of the tray under the obstacle], valve B, at different temperatures (raising from 25°C to 110°C) that show a reduction of dust resuspended when the temperature increases despite of a higher velocity magnitude obtained by the numerical analysis. The result of the numerical analysis seems to be in contrast with the experimental evidences. It can be explained with the higher relative humidity value at lower temperature that may influence the dust agglomeration properties, causing the increase of the air-dust impact surface. It is possible to conclude by saying that:

- For both dusts used and for both valves there is a reduction of the mobilization related to the reduction of the velocity magnitude. The previous graph also shows the bigger influence of the divertor on the

mobilization and the velocity, when a LOVA occurs from divertor port level ;

- In case of a LOVA occurring in operative conditions, the mobilization is lesser than the maintenance conditions one;
- The limiter-divertor gap seems to have a negative effect on the dust mobilization. The local turbulence effect appears to play an important role in this reduction.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

We would like to thank the personnel of Dipartimento di Ingegneria Meccanica of "Tor Vergata" University for their support. We know we have found a lot of new friends during this season. Special thanks to Riccardo Quaranta, fundamental one to conclude this task and special friend. I would like to thank the complete staff of the Dottorato di Ricerca di Elettronica Quantistica e Plasm. They were fantastic and very patient to attend and help solving our several requests. Special thanks to Professor Carlo Bellecci, Professor Sergio Martellucci, Dr. Maria Richetta, Dr. Michela Gelfusa, Renato Marchetti and Eugenio Penco for all the support. We would like to thank our colleagues of the ENEA Frascati, specials thanks to Dr. Maria Teresa Porfiri and Rodolfo Borelli. We would like to thank also our colleagues of the Joint European Torus.

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Research job started with an international collaboration in LITE (LIDAR In-Space Technology Experiment 10–19 September 1994) mission. During this period, in joint with the LITE mission, he was involved in an intensive Lidar Measurements campaign in Potenza and Napoli. As INFN student he worked for two years on absorption coefficient problems. During these years he projected and developed an absorption cell to study the interaction of a laser beam with samples of pollutants gases. He collected a wide absorption data base on several pollutants gases as: Freon 11, Freon 12, Methane, Ethylene, etc.



From 1996 to July 1998

INFN (National Institute on the Physics of Matter now CNR) Researcher. He was involved in project, development and improvement of a ground based CO₂ Lidar/Dial system. He made several measurements campaign to study water vapour and ozone cycle and Planetary Boundary Layer (PBL) height measurements

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CRATI s.c.r.l. Researcher. In this period, in collaboration with the Quantum Electronic and Plasma Laboratory of the University of Rome "Tor Vergata", he worked to the project and development of a mobile Lidar/Dial setup. He made several measurements campaigns to test the mobile system and to study diffusion into the atmosphere of a plume emitted from factory chimneys. In this period he studied the possibility to inject a CW CO₂ Laser into a TE laser at the aim of future Lidar doppler applications.

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Research technician at University of Rome "Tor Vergata". He worked to develop and improve a Lidar/Dial setup and he is involved in the measurements of water vapour cycle and columnar atmospheric contents. He studies aerosol plume emitted by forest fire and its interaction with laser beams. He also studies how to improve the performances of laser sources adopted for Lidar/Dial applications. He studied the possibility to use the Lidar/Dial systems to detect forest fire and reduce the false alarm. At this aim he projected a compact mobile Lidar Dial setup. He begins to work in the field of laser plasma interaction system. He developed a laser plasma system based

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- Analysis of Joint European Torus (JET) procedures and instrumentations used to control loss of vacuum in the plasma chamber.

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