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CHERNOBYL ACCIDENT: ASSESSING THE DATA

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Abstract: *Data presented in the official Soviet report to the IAEA on the Chernobyl reactor accident are critically assessed. Special attention is given to the derivation of release fractions from fallout measurements, a procedure which is demonstrated to involve large elements of uncertainty. Further comments relate to estimates of plume rise and deposition velocity. A comparison is made with the predictions of previously published theoretical reactor safety studies.*

Chernobyl Accident: Assessing the Data

by Bent Sørensen

The first comprehensive Soviet report on the Chernobyl accident¹ estimates that noble gasses plus $3.5 \pm 1.75\%$ of the remaining core inventory escaped to the environment. The isotopic composition of the release is reproduced in Table 1. The report states that total release for each isotope has been obtained on the basis of integrated fallout data for the entire European territory of the Soviet Union. Neither primary nor regionally aggregated fallout data are presented in the report. It is of interest to assess the accuracy of this procedure for estimating the total release fractions, by performing the same kind of integration for the measured fallout outside the Soviet territory. National data have been collected and published by the WHO².

Figures 1 and 2 show the results of applying this procedure for the two significant isotopes ^{131}I and ^{137}Cs . National data are reported to the WHO in somewhat different formats, involving in some cases incremental fallout between successive days and in other cases only accumulated values. In some cases, fallout data have already been averaged over a number of regional measuring stations. The spot values included in Figures 1 and 2 represent accumulated values for single locations or locally averaged data. All data have been corrected for radioactive decay, so that they pertain to the time of the accident start, 26. April 1986 at 1:24h local time.

The isotopic deposition data have been further averaged over each 10 deg latitude by 20 deg longitude quadrant, and integrated. Figures 1 and 2 give integrated values for each quadrant and for the entire area outside the Soviet Union. The latter estimate is 10^{18} Bq of ^{131}I and 6×10^{16} Bq of ^{137}Cs . The corresponding values for the Soviet territory, similarly referred back to the accident start, are 742×10^{15} Bq of ^{131}I and 37×10^{15} Bq of ^{137}Cs . Thus the Soviet estimate of the total release fraction for iodine and cesium may be low by a factor of two or more.

The deposition estimates are uncertain at each step of the calculation: a) The local data may not be representative. b) The measuring stations are not uniformly spaced and thus the integration without any weight factor describing the density

of measurements may be biased. c) Similarly, the large scale quadrant averaging may conceal areas without data, which might have altered the integrated totals if such data had been available.

By considering the spot data of Figures 1 and 2 as being representative for smaller and larger regions around the measurement location, the totals for deposition outside the Soviet Union can be made to range from about 5 times less than the quoted values to about twice these values.

This indicates that the sampling of areas underlying the estimates of Figures 1 and 2 might have involved a bias in the upward direction for the total fallout outside the Soviet Union. There are no reasons for assuming that the uncertainties involved in the intra-Soviet evaluation have been any smaller than the ones described above. If the Soviet handling of their fallout data involved a downward bias for the totals, then the true ratio between fallout outside and inside the Soviet Union could be smaller than the value near unity found in this study.

In all these cases, the combined fallout within and outside the Soviet Union would be considerably larger than the release values estimated by the Soviet report¹, indicating that the correct release fraction could be about twice the one quoted in the Soviet report, or 7% of the core minus noble gases.

Comparing Chernobyl releases and reactor safety studies

Along with the Soviet estimates of accumulated fractions of the reactor core inventory, which escaped to the atmosphere during the first 10 days of the Chernobyl accident¹, Table 1 shows the accident category that would be assigned to the accident on the basis of release fractions, by the Rasmussen study³ and by the Birkhofer study⁴, both pertaining to light water reactors (PWRs or BWRs). In other words, the model category indicated for each reactor safety model study is the one calculated to give rise to release fractions similar to those observed (or rather those inferred from the Soviet fallout data, as discussed above). For different isotope groups, Chernobyl is seen to correspond to one among the 3 most severe accident categories, except for the Chernobyl release of plutonium and other actinides, which exceeds the worst possible case in the reactor safety studies by a factor 10.

The possible upwards revision of the release fractions discussed above would for some isotope groups move the accident up to the next, more severe accident category.

The duration of the radioisotope release at Chernobyl was longer than expected, and the rate of decay heat release correspondingly lower. However, the burning of 250 t of graphite over 10 days gave an average heat release of about 8.5 MW, similar to that of 'category 2' accidents in Table

1.

The frequency of accidents with radionuclide releases similar to those from Chernobyl is estimated to be about one in a million reactor-years (Birkhofer study⁴) and up to ten in a million reactor-years (Rasmussen study³). The reactor study accidents with releases similar to those from Chernobyl all involve core meltdown. The Soviet report¹ concludes, based on its own model calculations, that the temperature was never high enough for the core to melt. Yet the radionuclide release fractions strongly suggest that a level of core degradation similar to a meltdown must have occurred. This conclusion is also reached by other recent studies, one on the basis of the analysis of "hot spot" particles observed in Sweden⁵, the other by interpreting the origin of ^{110m}Ag fallout in Holland and elsewhere⁶.

Plume rise, dispersion and deposition of radioactivity

Following the Chernobyl accident, radioactive depositions and activity in air have been measured in all parts of Europe and at some locations outside Europe. The WHO summary of these data were used in Figures 1 and 2. In order to understand the atmospheric transport and deposition pattern, model calculations have been performed⁷⁻⁹. These serve not only to test the model assumptions, but also allows estimation of fallout in areas where observations are missing. If the models compare well with measurements in the

regions where measurements have been performed, the model results for other regions gain credibility. The model efforts published so far do exhibit a general resemblance to the data, but no detailed agreement.

Reasons for the discrepancies are to be sought in the poor knowledge of the source term, particularly as regards the detailed time dependence of the release. The models used are trajectory models, which under the meteorological conditions prevailing during the critical periods of the accident exhibit strong sensitivity to the 'effective height' of the release (plume rise), to timing of the release sequence, and to deposition velocities for wet and dry deposition on surfaces of varying roughness.

Plume rise. The model of Briggs and Gifford¹⁰ predicts a transitional plume rise (i.e. disregarding the initial jet stage/explosion) comprising a momentum, a buoyancy and a radioactivity part. In the first hour, each of these parts would in isolation lead to predicted plume rises of 200-600 m, 1200 m and about 50 m, respectively. In obtaining these estimates, a source area of 300 m², an initial vertical plume velocity of $(0.14 \Delta T)^{1/2} \text{ ms}^{-1}$ and an average wind speed of 5 ms⁻¹ have been assumed. The release temperature increase ΔT (relative to ambient) has been taken from a calculation made in the Soviet report¹. It starts at 1500 deg, declines to 600 deg but then rises sharply to 1900 deg on the sixth day, after which it slowly diminishes. The

combined plume rise of 1000-1500 m is dominated by the effect of the burning graphite.

The Soviet report indicates a measured plume height exceeding 1200 m on the second day, but claims that it diminished to below 400 m the following days. Although the lower part of the plume may have been close to the ground at this time (as suggested by measurements of sharply rising dose rates in the nearby town of Pripyat¹), the much higher altitudes implied by continuing graphite burning appear consistent with the pattern of transport of radioactivity to other parts of Europe⁷⁻⁹.

A part of the plume could have reached still higher altitudes, notably during the initial, explosive release, and later because of variations in discharge rate ('bursts'), low wind velocities or exceptionally stable atmospheric conditions that allow plume rise to continue beyond the assumed 1 h period. Indeed, a tail of the plume must have reached heights above 5000 m in order to account for the observed fallout in Japan and in the USA⁷.

Deposition. Dry and wet (rain-related) deposition rates are in most model calculations determined by a single parameter each. For dry deposition it is the ratio of the deposition rate and the radionuclide concentration in air. This number v_d is found in experiments to depend strongly on particle size^{11,12}. The Chernobyl data should provide new information

on v_d and particle size spectrum. Outside the USSR, data from Southern UK¹³ lead to values of $v_d = 3 \times 10^{-3} \text{ ms}^{-1}$ for ^{131}I and $v_d = 4 \times 10^{-4} \text{ ms}^{-1}$ for ^{137}Cs , which would suggest particles of diameter below $1 \mu\text{m}$ (the reactor safety studies^{3,4} both used $v_d = 10^{-2} \text{ ms}^{-1}$). Spherical particles of diameter around $1 \mu\text{m}$ were in Sweden found in 'hot spot' fallout of unusual composition⁵. Generally, one expects larger particles to deposit closer to the release point. Unfortunately, the Soviet report does not disclose figures that would allow the deposition velocity closer to Chernobyl to be extracted.

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Table 1 Chernobyl radionuclide release fractions, and the accident category of two reactor safety studies, predicted to give releases similar to those observed. The lowest category number generally corresponds to the most severe accident. Also indicated are release characteristics and calculated accident frequencies.

Isotope group	Chernobyl ¹	Birkhofer ⁴	Rasmussen ³		
Xe-Kr	1	FK1-4	PWR1	BWR1	
I-Br	0.20	FK2	PWR3	BWR1	
Cs-Rb	0.10-0.13	FK2	PWR3	BWR1-3	
Te-Sb	0.15	FK2	PWR3	BWR2-3	
Ba-Sr	0.04-0.056	FK1-2	PWR2	BWR1-2	
Ru-Mo	0.023-0.029	FK1-2	PWR1-2	BWR3	
Ce	0.023-0.028	} 10 × FK1	10 × PWR1	6-10 × BWR1	
Pu, Cm, Np	0.030-0.032				
Release duration(h)	240	1-3	0.5-3	2-3	
Heat release(MW)	8.5	{ 150 (FK1)	150 (PWR1)	40 (BWR1)	
		{ 4 (FK2)	50 (PWR2)	9 (BWR2)	
Calculated proba-		} 2 (FK1)	0.9 (PER1)	1 (BWR1)	
bility (10 ⁻⁶ y ⁻¹)			} 0.6 (FK2)	8 (PWR2)	6 (BWR2)
				4 (PWR3)	20 (BWR3)

Figure captions

Fig. 1 Summary of ^{131}I fallout measurements². The data have been accumulated and referred back to accident start on 26. April 1986 (i.e. disregarding decay). Unit: 10^3Bq m^{-2} . Boldface numbers indicate area integrated values for each quadrant. Unit: 10^{15} Bq. Their uncertainty is considerable.

Fig. 2 Same as Fig. 1 but for ^{137}Cs .

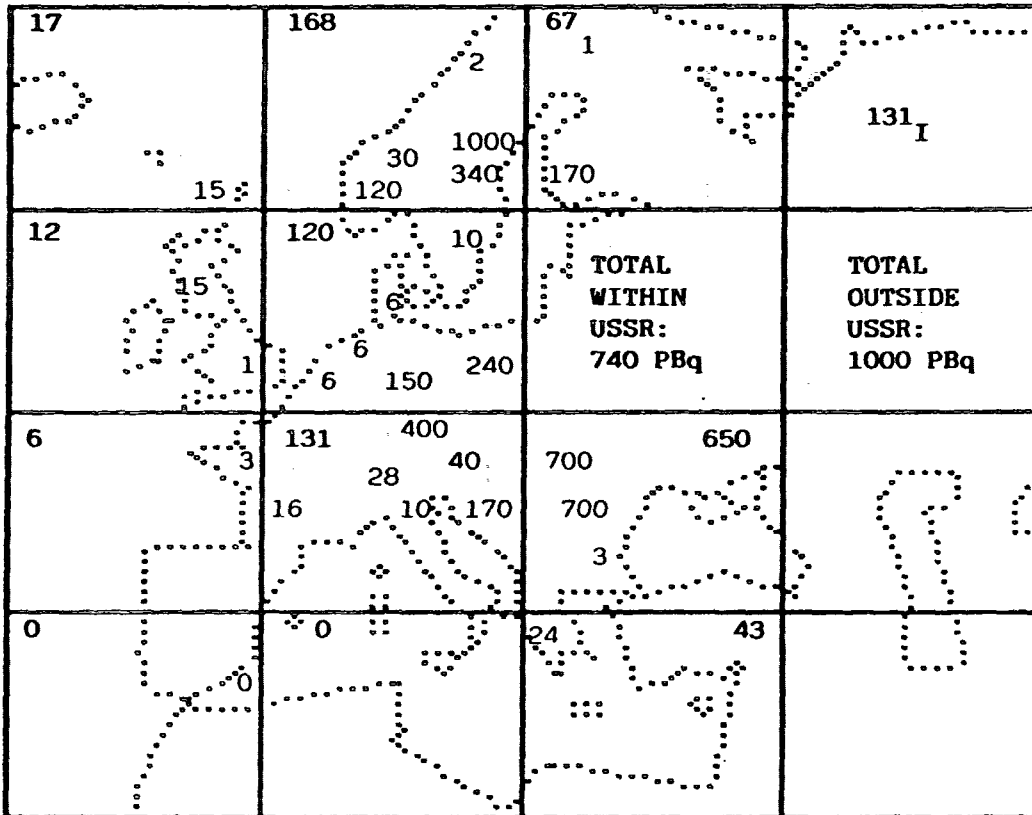


Fig. 1

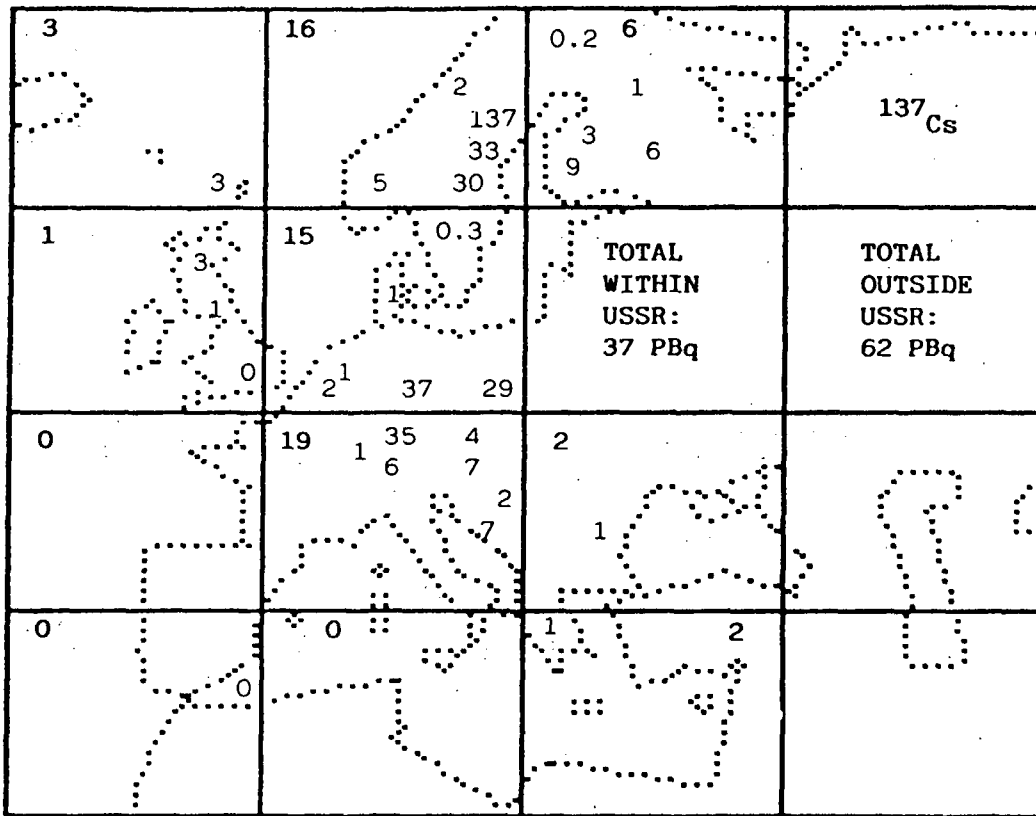


Fig. 2

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