

# Evaluation of the expected costs of nuclear accidents

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International Workshop on Nuclear  
Safety

March 23-24, 2015

# Introduction

- Why have costs to be estimated?
  - To compensate victims after the accidents
  - To make better ex ante decisions (location of nuclear power plants, nuclear phase-out, nuclear versus other non-carbon technologies, ...)
- The main differences between ex ante/ex post assessments
  - Economics/cost accounting and cost auditing
  - Uncertainties on future/past
  - Probability x damage/damage
- My paper focuses on the challenges in estimating probabilities of nuclear accidents and on the gap between probabilities of nuclear accidents as calculated by experts and as perceived by people
- On costs of damages see the companion paper by Romain Bizet

# The economic perspective

- Calculating the ex ante social cost
  - Private costs + external costs = social costs
  - Expected cost of accident = probability of accident x cost of accident
- Illustration: car accidents in New Zealand
  - Expected costs of a fatal car crash/vehicle/year: NZD\$1000\$ ( $2.1 \times 10^{-4} \times 4.5 \times 10^6 \$$ ), or NZD \$0.1/km twice less than gas price (Ministry of Transport, 2014)
- Application to nuclear accident
  - Expected cost of a nuclear accident/reactor/year : US\$ 15,000 ( $3 \times 10^{-8} \times 5.10^{11} \$$ ) or US \$0.0015/MWh less than 1 hundredths of fuel costs (Congressional Budget Office, 2008)
  - Even \$1/MWh would not change nuclear competitiveness vis-à-vis other technologies
- But insuperable differences between nuclear accidents and car crashes
  - Lack of data
  - Unknowns unknowns
  - Dreadful event

# A small number of observations

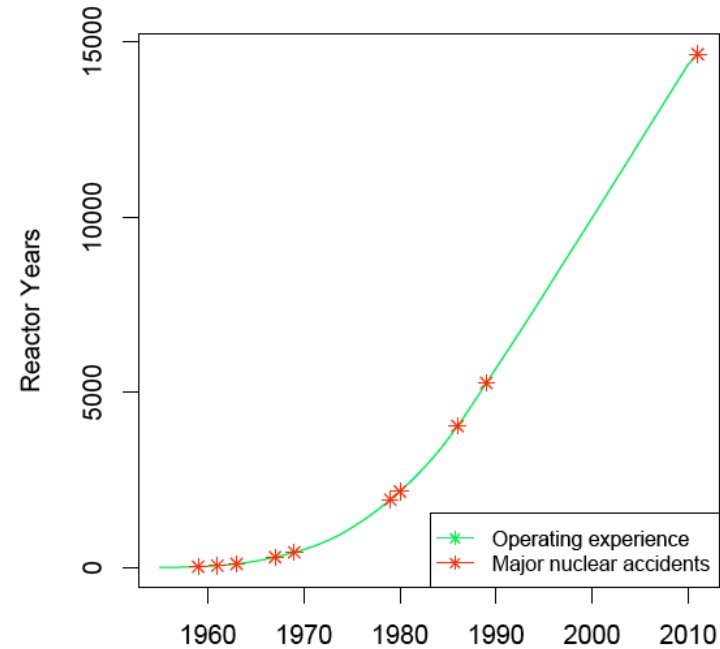
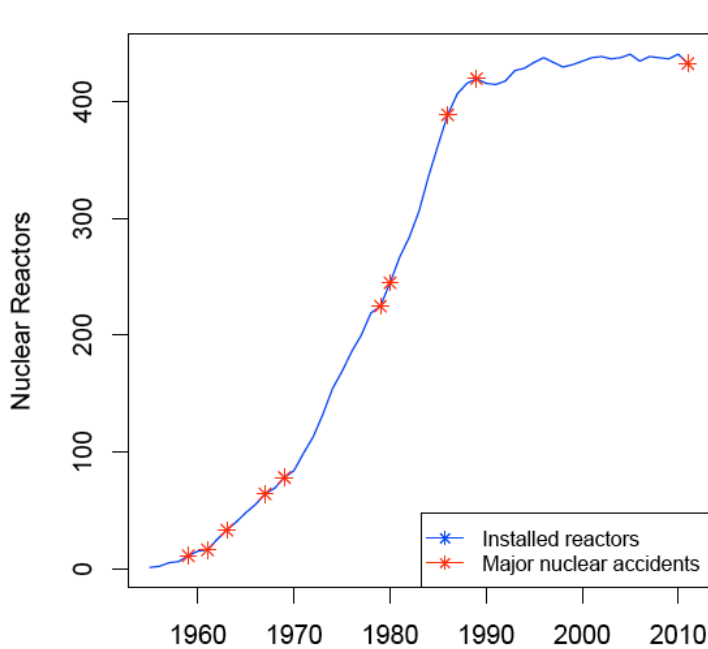


Table : Core melt downs from 1955 to 2011 in Cochran (2011)

Year	Location	Unit	Reactor type
1959	California, USA	Sodium reactor experiment	Sodium-cooled power reactor
1961	Idaho, USA	Stationary Low Reactor	Experimental gas-cooled, water moderated
1966	Michigan, USA	Enrico Fermi Unit 1	Liquid metal fast breeder reactor
1967	Dumfrieshire, Scotland	Chapelcross Unit 2	Gas-cooled, graphite moderated
1969	Loir-et-Cher, France	Saint-Laurent A-1	Gas-cooled, graphite moderated
1979	Pennsylvania, USA	Three Mile Island	Pressurized Water Reactor (PWR)
1980	Loir-et-Cher, France	Saint-Laurent A-1	Gas-cooled, graphite moderated
1986	Pripyat, Ukraine	Chernobyl Unit 4	RBKM-1000
1989	Lubmin, Germany	Greifswald Unit 5	Pressurized Water Reactor (PWR)
2011	Fukushima, Japan	Fukushima Dai-ichi Unit 1,2,3	Boiling Water Reactor (BWR)

INES	3	4	5	6	7
Observations	20	13	5	1	2

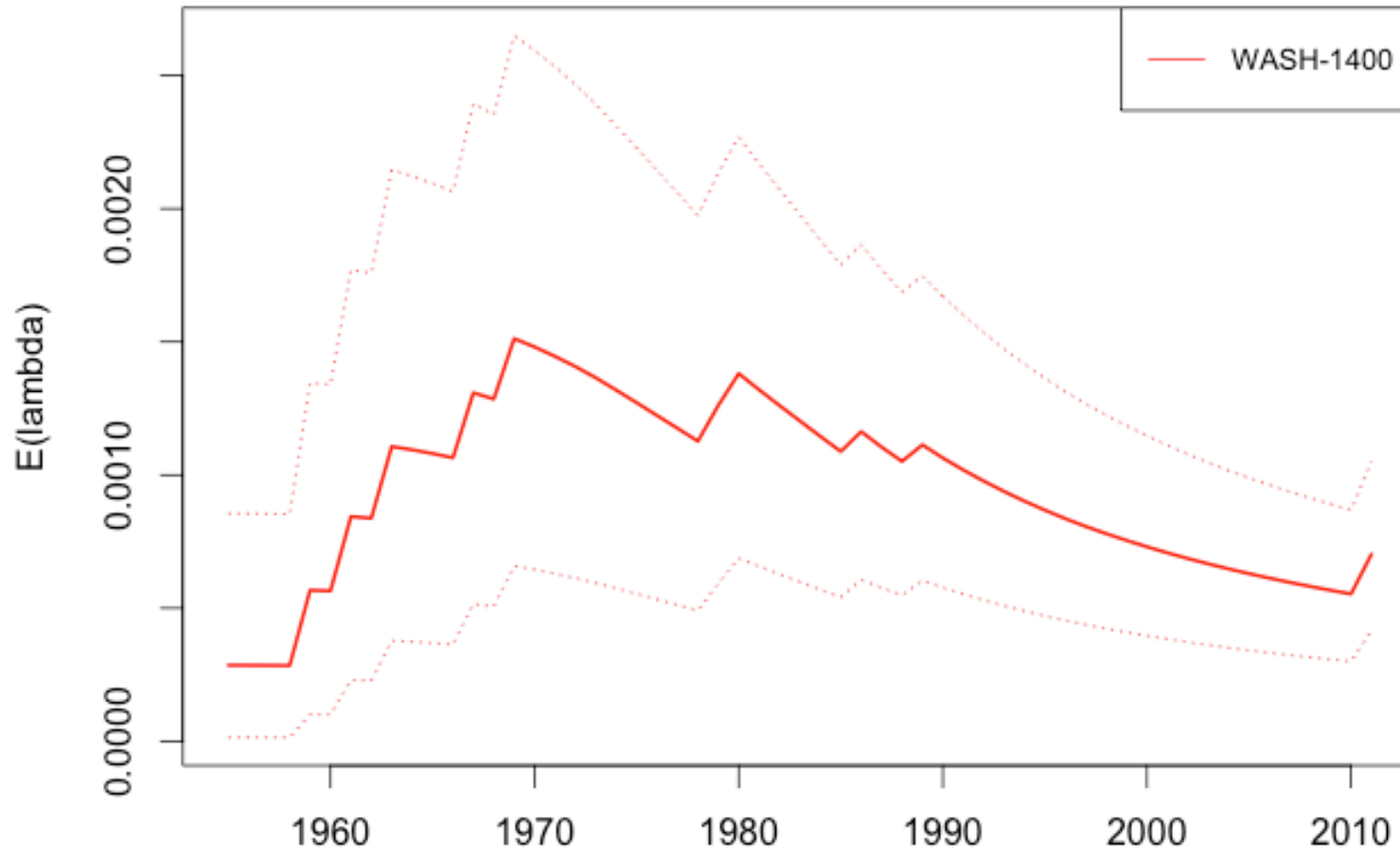
# Estimating probabilities of nuclear accident from frequencies is a nonsense

- Observed frequencies
  - INES>3:  $1,6 \cdot 10^{-3}$  per reactor.year
  - Core meltdowns:  $8.3 \cdot 10^{-4}$  per reactor.year
  - INES 7:  $2.7 \cdot 10^{-4}$  per reactor.year
- Is 0,11 the probability of an INES7 in 2015 on the planet?  
( $[1-(1-2.7 \times 10^{-4})^{435}]$ ; Poisson distribution)
- No! We cannot assume that observed events are representative, that reactors (models and locations) are identical, that events are independent, that safety is time-invariant, etc...

# What abouts PSAs?

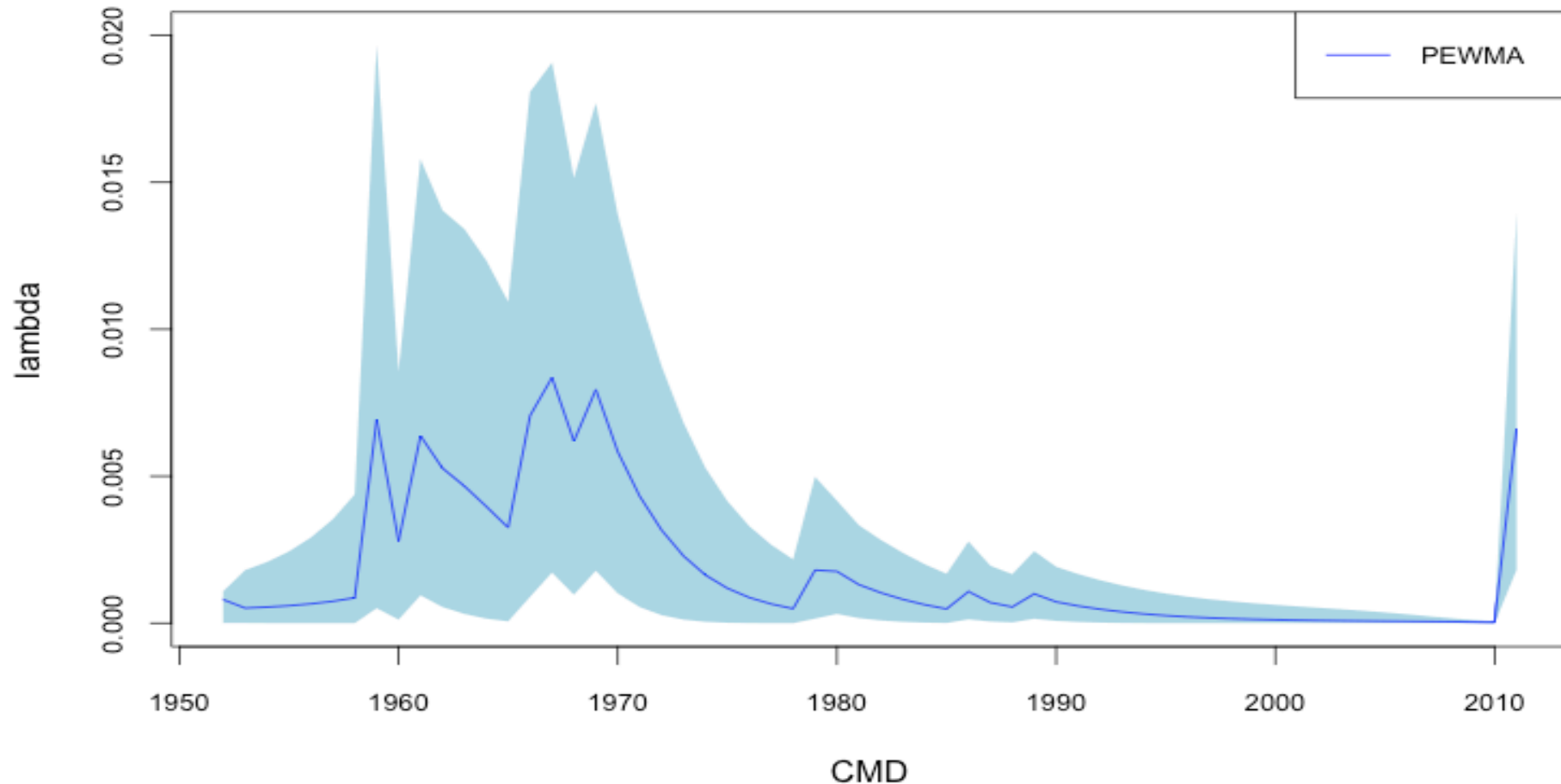
- Knowledge on nuclear accidents is not limited to the observation of past accidents
- Probabilistic Safety Assessments: for instance, the Core meltdown frequency of the UK EPR is estimated to  $10^{-6}$  per year and the Core damage with early containment failure to  $3.9 \times 10^{-8}$
- PSAs aggregate a huge amount of knowledge that can complement observed frequencies of accidents
- But PSAs have strong limitations
  - Limited scope (specific initiating events, specific cascade of failures)
  - They are not designed to obtain a single number and its confidence interval but to pinpoint local safety weaknesses and remedies
  - They assumed perfect compliance with safety standards and regulatory requirements
- PSAs figures are much more lower than observed frequencies (CDF  $8.3 \times 10^{-4}$  versus  $10^{-5}$ )

# An attempt to combine observations of accidents and PSAs 1/2



Bayesian Poisson Gamma model, Escobar-Rangel and Lévêque, *Safety Science*, (2014)

# An attempt to combine observations of accidents and PSAs 2/2



Poisson Exponentially Weighted Moving Average (independence parameter: 0,82)  
Escobar-Rangel and Lévêque, *Safety Science*, (2014)

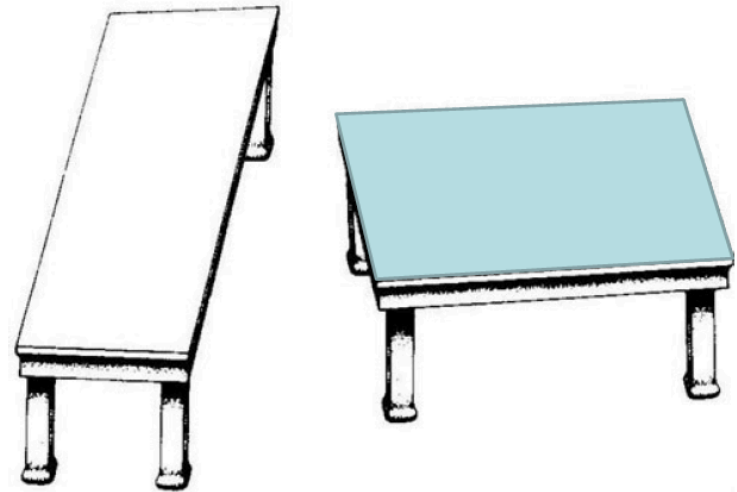


# Uncertainties prevail

- There is no magic number to make a rationale decision (as in car crashes)
  - No means can be inferred from observed frequencies
  - The probability of a nuclear accident differs according to the design and the location of reactors but also according to institutional characteristics (independent regulator, liability rules, experience of operators, etc.)
  - We do not know the probability distribution of nuclear accident
- Probabilistic analysis requires to know the unknowns
  - New theories of probabilities could shed some light

# Data are also required on perceived probabilities

- Experimental psychology studies (e.g., D. Kahneman, 2011) show that our perception of probabilities is biased
- For instance, the probability of a 0,0001 loss is perceived lower than a probability of 1/10.000 (the so-called denominator neglect heuristic)



# Theory of decision under uncertainties and human behavior

- Historically, the economic theory of decision has progressed in complexifying the utility function to take observed behavior into consideration
- Concave utility function to explain risk-aversion (Bernouilli, 1738)
- Allais paradox (1955) can be explained with a weighted utility that is non linear in probabilities: overestimation of low probabilities and underestimation of high probabilities
- Ellsberg paradox (1961) shows that people are averse to ambiguity (i.e., they prefer risk to uncertainties)

# How to balance probabilities as calculated by experts and as perceived by people in decision-making? 1/2

- How to take the perception biases into consideration in estimating the nuclear social cost of accident?
- Nuclear accident is a
  - Rare event, hence perceived probability is overestimated
  - Ambiguous event, hence our minds select on the highest value of probability and damages
  - Dread event, hence we neglect the denominator and focus on the event itself which leaves a strong footprint
- Consequently, whenever decision making is based on *perceived probabilities*
  - Overinvestment in nuclear safety
  - Premature phase-outs (e.g., German decision after Fukushima-Daiichi)
  - Distorted choice between alternative power technologies (coal or hydro are perceived less dangerous)

## How to balance probabilities as calculated by experts and as perceived by people in decision-making? 2/2

- Conversely, whenever decision-making is based on *calculated probabilities*, people may fight against new plants and whenever they succeed investments would have been made for nothing and a huge amount of money would have been lost (e.g., the shut down of the Superphénix reactor in France)
- How to balance perceived probabilities and calculated probabilities in estimating the expected cost of nuclear accident?
  - Institutional design: NSAs deliver calculations and Government and Congress integrate perceptions through the policy process
  - Quantifying risk aversion and probabilities biases

# Conclusive research suggestions

- Progress in ex ante estimating the costs of nuclear accidents to nurture nuclear policy decisions (new builds, phase-out, NPPs location, etc.) requires new approaches
- Elaborating and applying methods to combine
  - Pure observations on accidents and other pieces of knowledge
  - Probabilities as calculated by experts and as perceived by people

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The Economics and  
Uncertainties of  
Nuclear Power

Cambridge University  
Press  
January, 2015

