

MCNP simulation of mixed isotopes Betavoltaic Nuclear Batteries

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1. Introduction

New energy sources are being constantly developed and improved. Nuclear batteries fit in this scenario, being a technology that produces electricity through radioactive decay. In circumstances where maintenance is difficult or impossible, like as space exploration, oil production, or even in a heart pacemaker, the goal of these systems is to deliver dependable energy [1]. There are many nuclear batteries types. Among those, betavoltaic nuclear batteries (BNB) are of particular interest due to the prospects for use in microelectromechanical systems (MEMS). New generation MEMS and semiconductor devices require short-term power supplies and long operating times [2]. Often these devices are installed in places where maintenance is difficult or when data is necessary even with a power shortage [3-5].

Paul Rappaport proposed using semiconductor materials to generate electricity from beta decay energy in 1953. Atoms in a semiconductor are ionized by beta particles released by a radioactive source, resulting in decompensated charge carriers. Charges move in one direction when a p-n structure's electric field is present, producing an electric current [6].

Nuclear batteries use radioactive isotopes with half-lives that range from a couple to hundreds of years. Unfortunately, the technology has contradicting characteristics. The shorter the half-life, higher the emitted power will be. The longer the half-life is, longer the shelf life will also be [7]. Also, betavoltaic cells' power density is far lower than that of their galvanic

counterparts. Despite this, betavoltaic started being employed in low-load electronic circuits in the 1970s. [6].

Various betavoltaic microbattery models based on various semiconductor materials and radioactive sources are currently being researched. The majority of the radioisotopes used in this field are challenging to manufacture, purify, and only a small number have the features required for their usage [8].

So far, mostly Pm^{147} , Ni^{63} , and H^3 were used for fabricating BNBs. They were, up to now, proposed as a single isotope source. Mixing isotopes might allow the end battery to have a higher shelf-life and power.

The objective of this work is to create an MCNP® routine to calculate particle number of mix isotope battery and compared with the unmixed version. Combining the isotopes strengths may minimize their disadvantages and create a better product.

2. Materials

The isotopes used for comparison will be presented next.

Pm^{147} is an ideal candidate for use in nuclear batteries due to its favorable power density (340.37 mW/g from Pm_2O_3) and low biological hazard as a result of the emission of very few low-energy gamma photons [9]. Pm^{147} is mainly produced by nuclear activation of highly enriched targets of the parent nucleus Nd^{146} or as a product of nuclear reprocessing. Figure 1 show a summary of its characteristics.

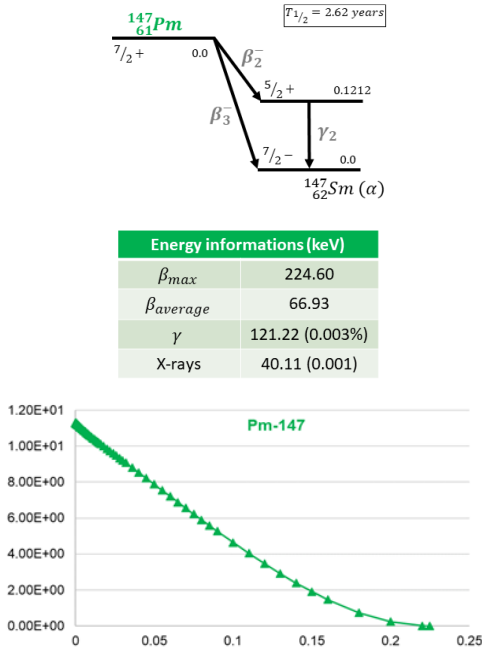


Fig. 1: Pm^{147} energy emission spectrum and information

Ni^{63} is produced artificially in a high flux isotope production nuclear reactor through the (n,γ) reaction using enriched Ni^{62} or natural Ni as target [10]. Mostly enriched targets are used to minimize the need for purification. It has a low power density, 5.80 mW/g, but it has a long half-life, thus a higher shelf-life. It has even lower biological hazard (no gamma photons). Figure 2 show a summary of its characteristics.

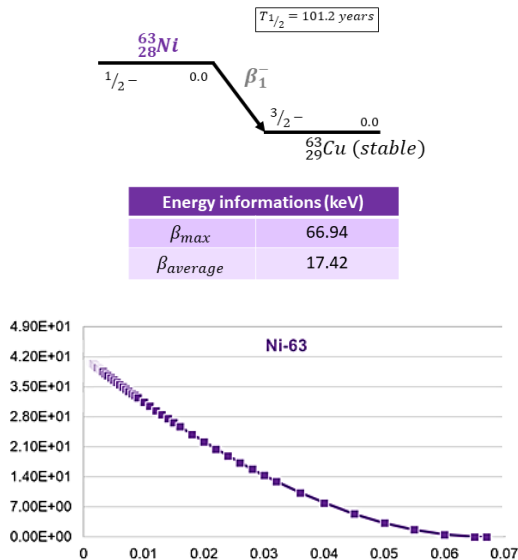


Fig. 2: Ni^{63} energy emission spectrum and information

Tritium can be recovered from reactor water and then reacted to a molecule for source fabrication. During the operation of pressurized water reactors (PWR's) a significant amount of tritiated water is continuously generated and extracted. H^3 has a high power density, 324.91 mW/g, but it has an even longer half-life than Ni^{63} . It also has lower biological hazard (no gamma photons) [11, 12]. Figure 3 show a summary of its characteristics.

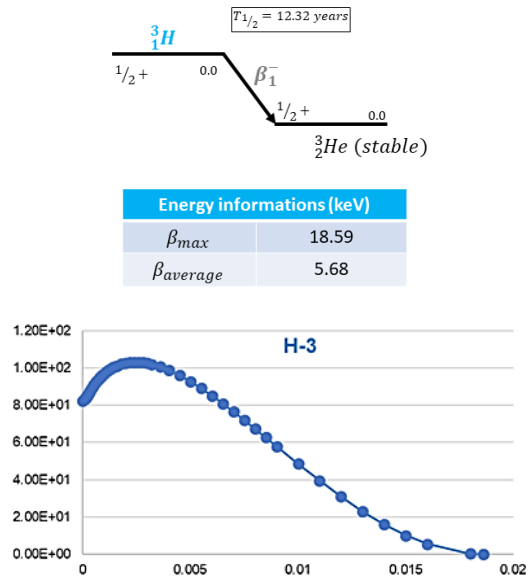


Fig. 3: H^3 energy emission spectrum and information.

3. Methodology

The radiation quantification was performed by MCNP6® Monte Carlo Code. MCNP6® is a general-purpose, continuous-energy, generalized- geometry, time-dependent, Monte Carlo radiation-transport code designed to track many particle types over broad ranges of energies. The code was developed by Los Alamos National Laboratory, USA. Figure 4 show the geometries used in the program input.



Fig. 4: Input geometry. Surface area is 10x10 cm, the backing aluminum base has 0.01 cm. Source thickness varied.

Tally f2 (flow of particles through a surface) was used to calculate the number of particles flowing through the source top surface area. The beta decay spectrums (presented in figs. 1-3) were obtained in ICRP Decdata program. Radioactivity used varied in percentage for each isotope. Different thickness values were used respecting the thickness self-absorption cut-off.

Table 1 shows the composition of the materials used and density.

Table 1: Material compositions used in MCNP6 simulations

Material	Atomic composition	Density (g/cm ³)	Reference
Backing material	Al 100%	2.70	[13]
¹⁴⁷ Pm ₂ O ₃	Pm ¹⁴⁷ 100% O 100%	6.61	[14]
⁶³ Ni	Ni ⁶³ 100%	8.9	[15]
³ H ₂ O	H ³ 100% O 100%	1.21	[16]
Air (wgt fraction)	C 0.000124 N 0.755268 O 0.231781 Ar 0.012827	0.001205	[17]

4. Results

3.1 Flow of particles

- a) Figure 5 shows the results for Pm¹⁴⁷ and H³ Battery mix;
- b) Figure 6 shows the results for Ni⁶³ and H³ Battery mix;
- c) Figure 7 shows the results for Ni⁶³ and Pm¹⁴⁷ Battery mix;

*BOO: Beginning of Operation

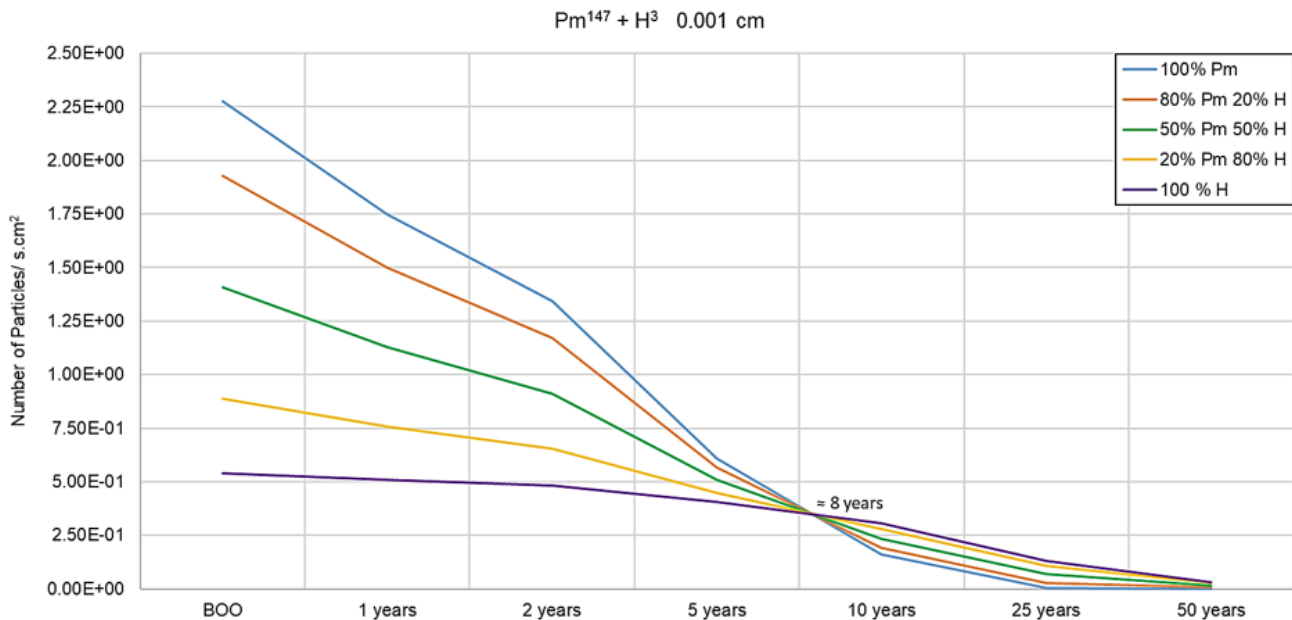


Fig. 5: Pm¹⁴⁷ and H³ Battery mix battery graph at number of particles generated in a time lapse. Source thickness was 0.001 cm.

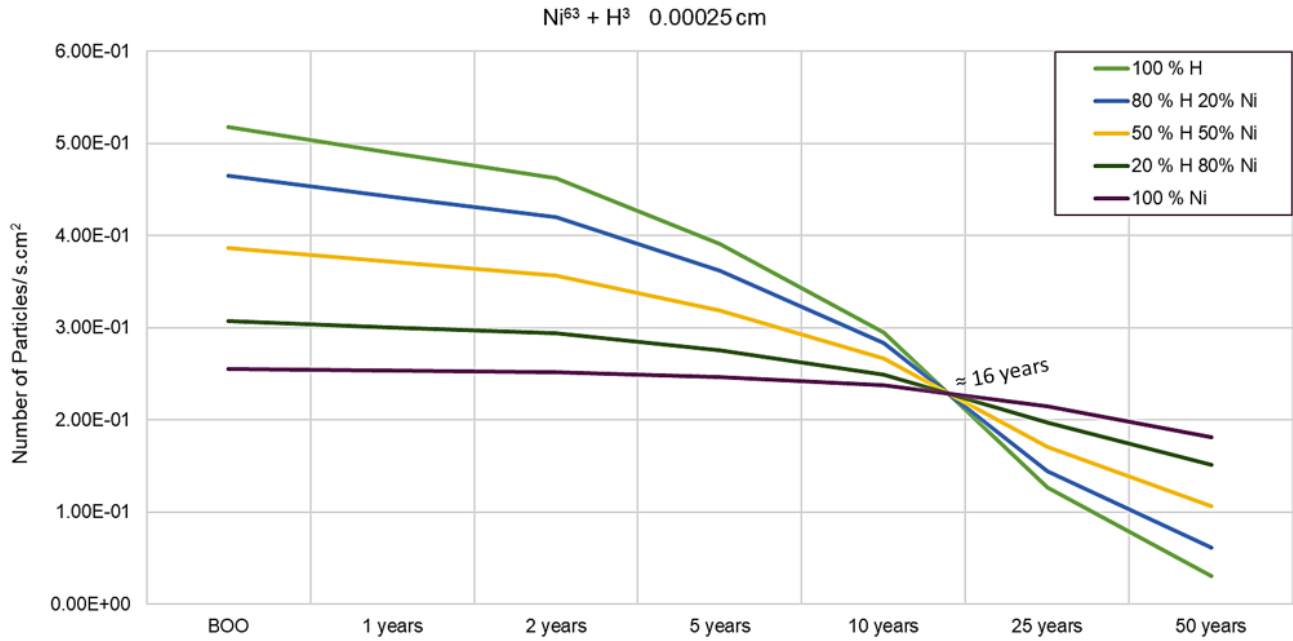


Fig. 6: Ni^{63} and H^3 Battery mix battery graph at number of particles generated in a time lapse. Source thickness was 0.00025 cm.

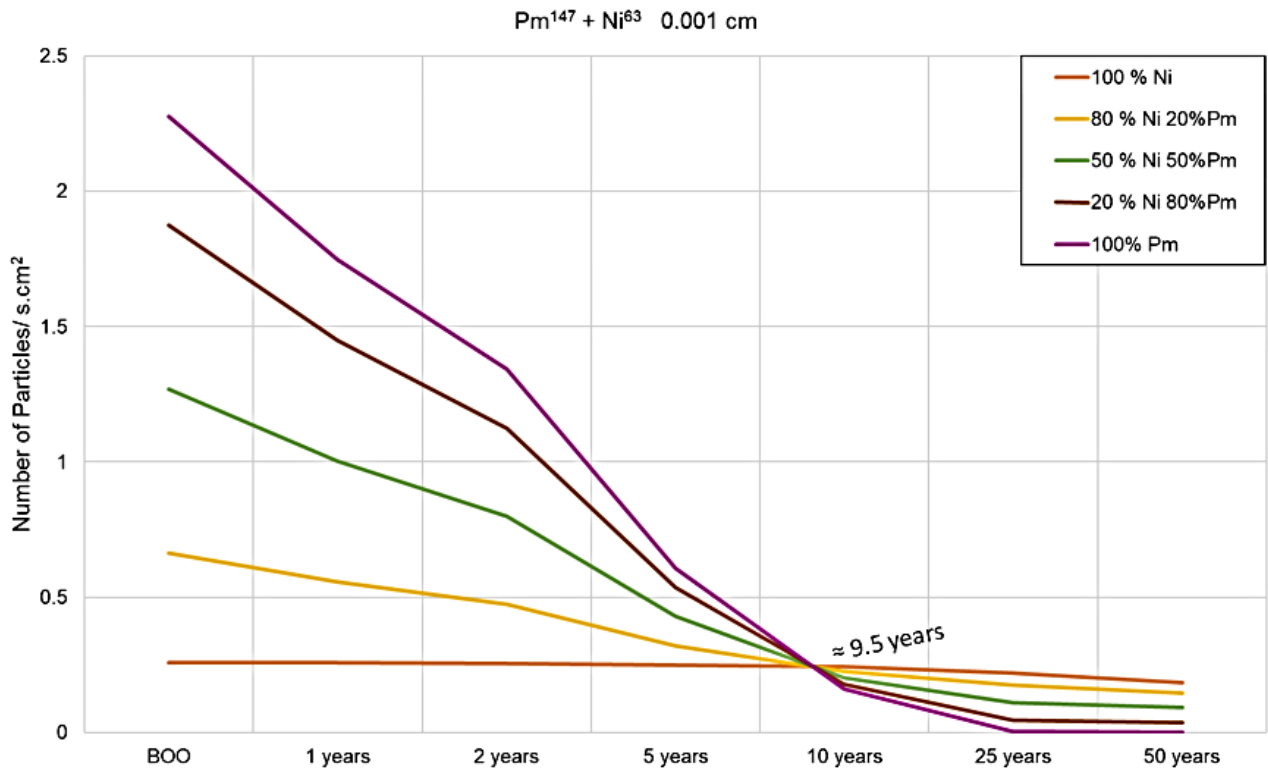


Fig. 7: Ni^{63} and Pm^{147} Battery mix battery graph at number of particles generated in a time lapse. Source thickness was 0.001 cm.

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