



**IAEA**

International Atomic Energy Agency

# Joint ICTP-IAEA School on LoRa Enabled Radiation and Environmental Monitoring Sensors



## Characterization of Radiation Sensors

Iain Darby

Head, Nuclear Science & Instrumentation Laboratory

NAPC/PH

[i.darby@iaea.org](mailto:i.darby@iaea.org)

[nsil@iaea.org](mailto:nsil@iaea.org)

<https://at.linkedin.com/in/idarby>

LinkedIn

<https://www.facebook.com/iain.darby.662>



# What can we measure ?

- A hit
  - The amount of energy in the hit
  - When the hit occurred
  - Perhaps
    - Where the hit occurred
    - If many hits occurred

Put simply - ENERGY & TIME ... *that's all folks!*



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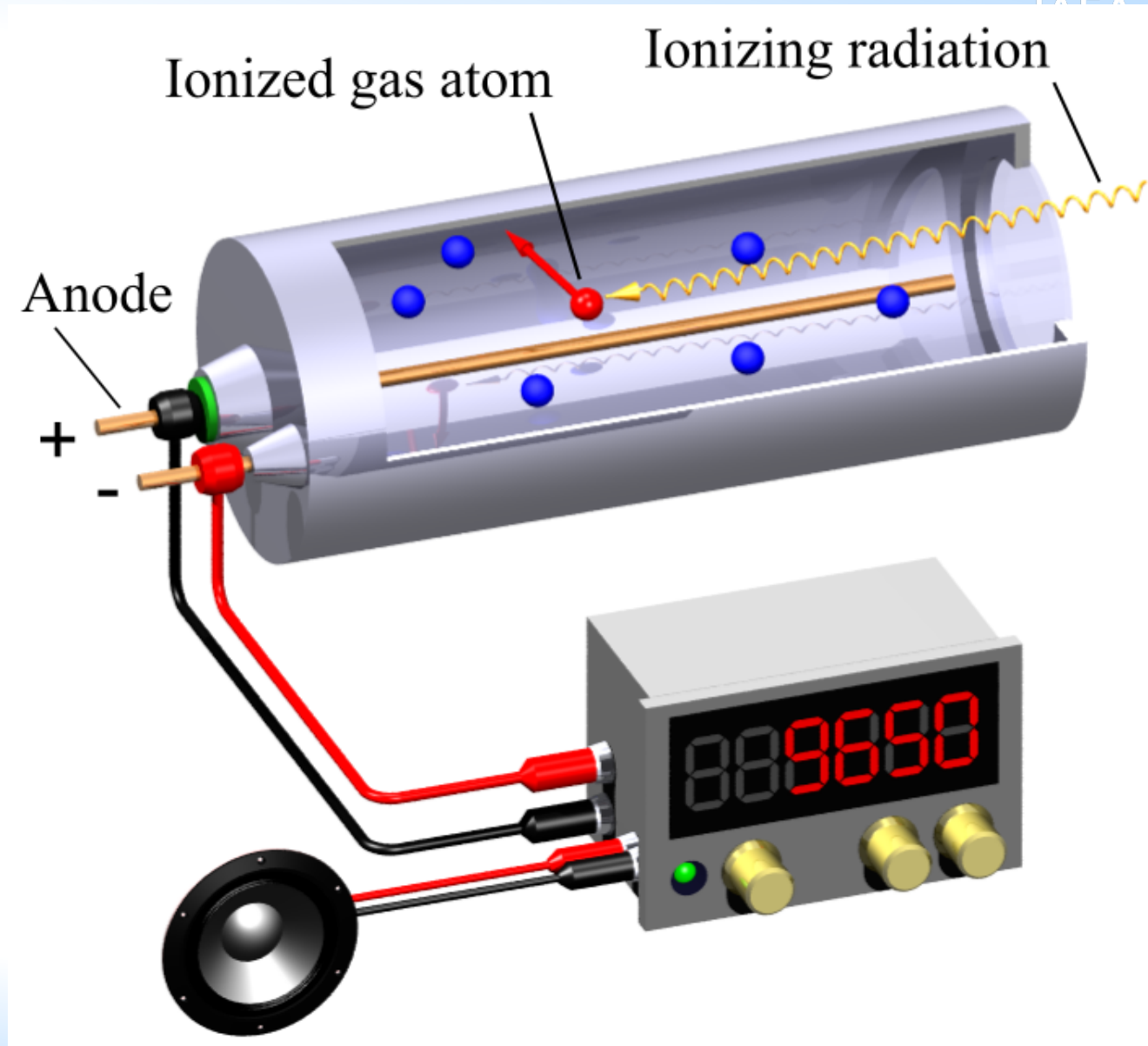
# Counting system

**example Geiger Muller Tube**

# Geiger Muller

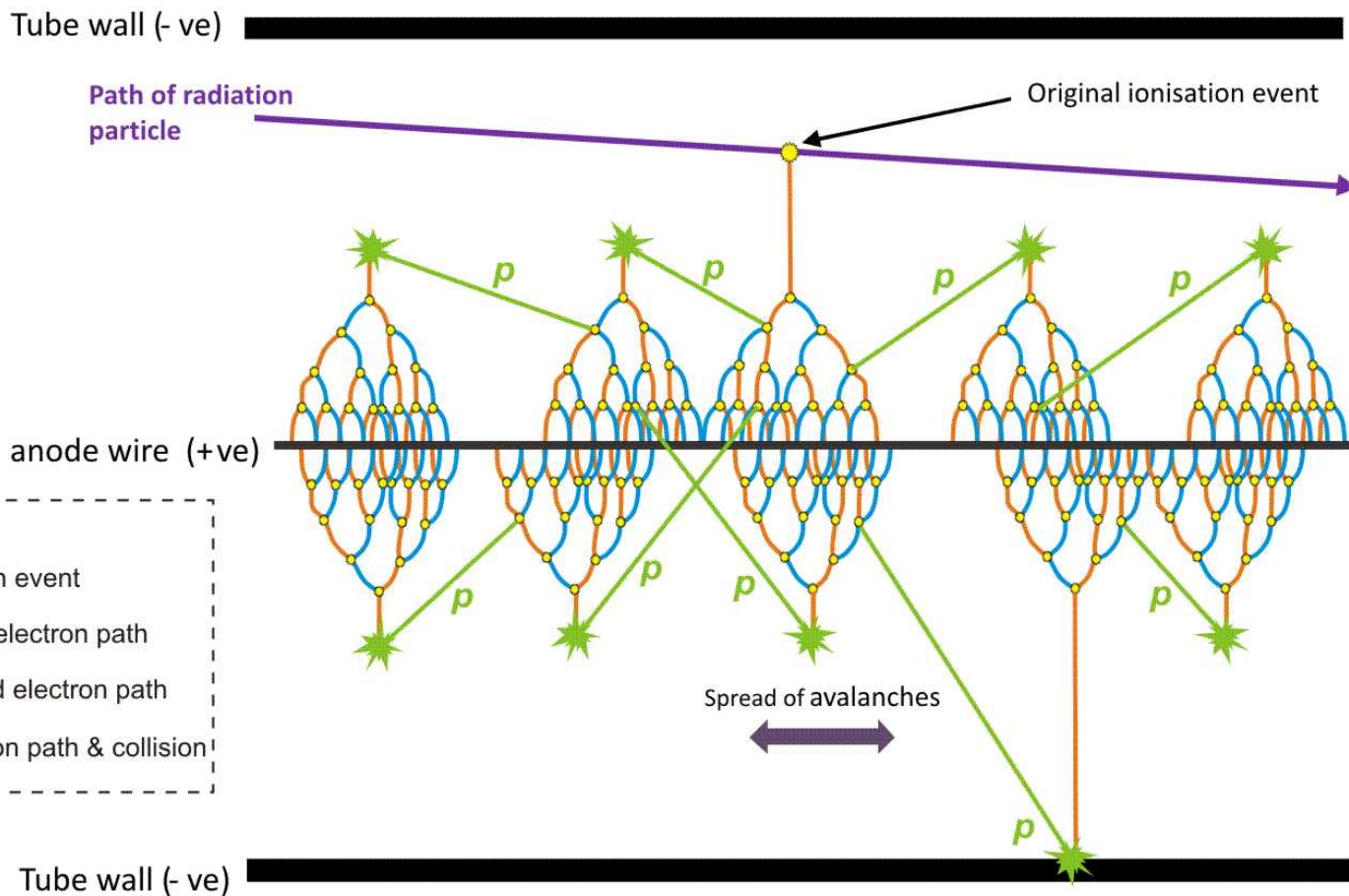


# Geiger Muller



# Geiger Muller

## Spread of avalanches in a Geiger-Muller tube

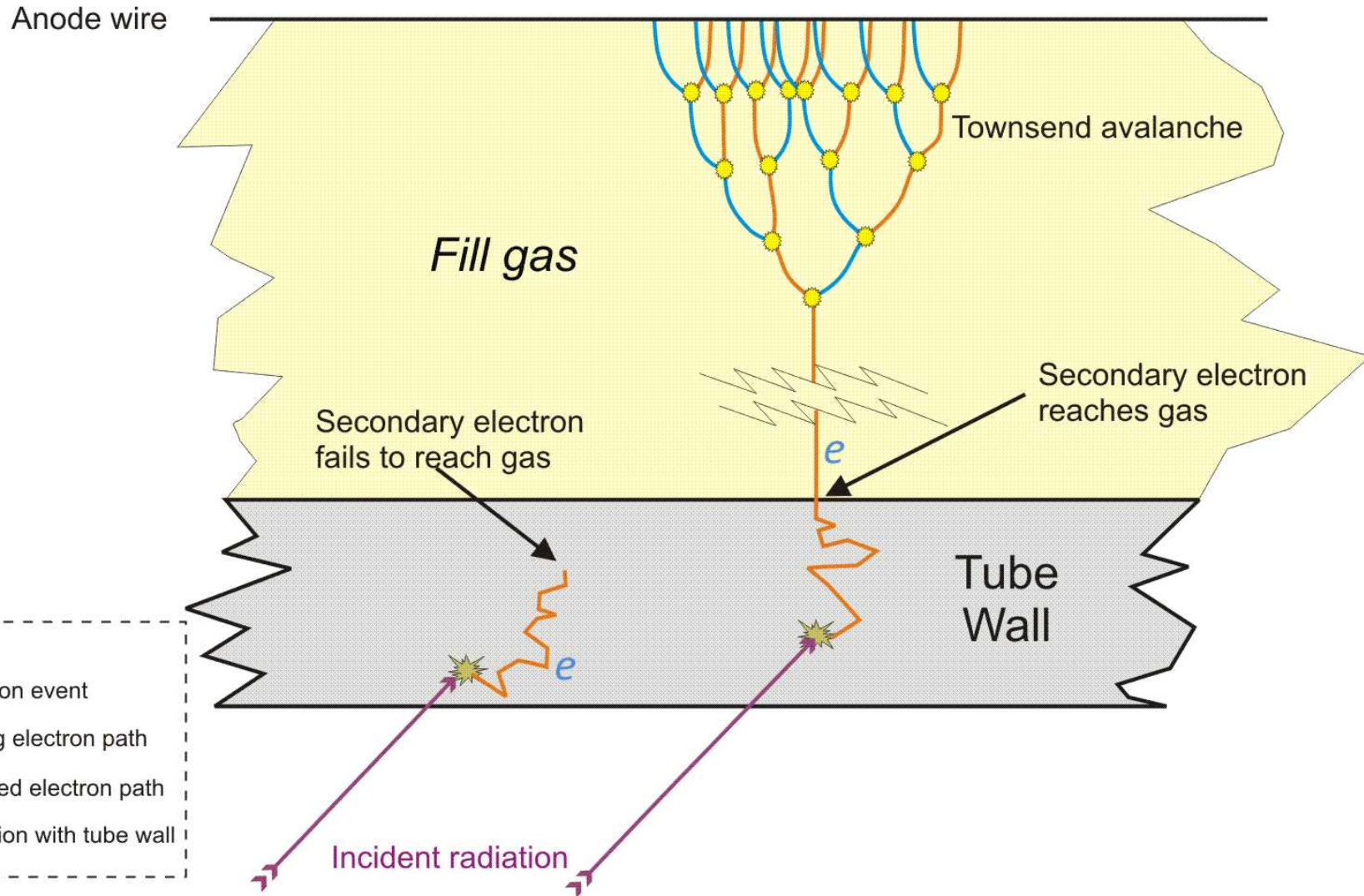


### Key

-  Ionisation event
-  Ionising electron path
-  Liberated electron path
-  UV photon path & collision

Not to scale

# Interaction of gamma radiation with G-M tube wall

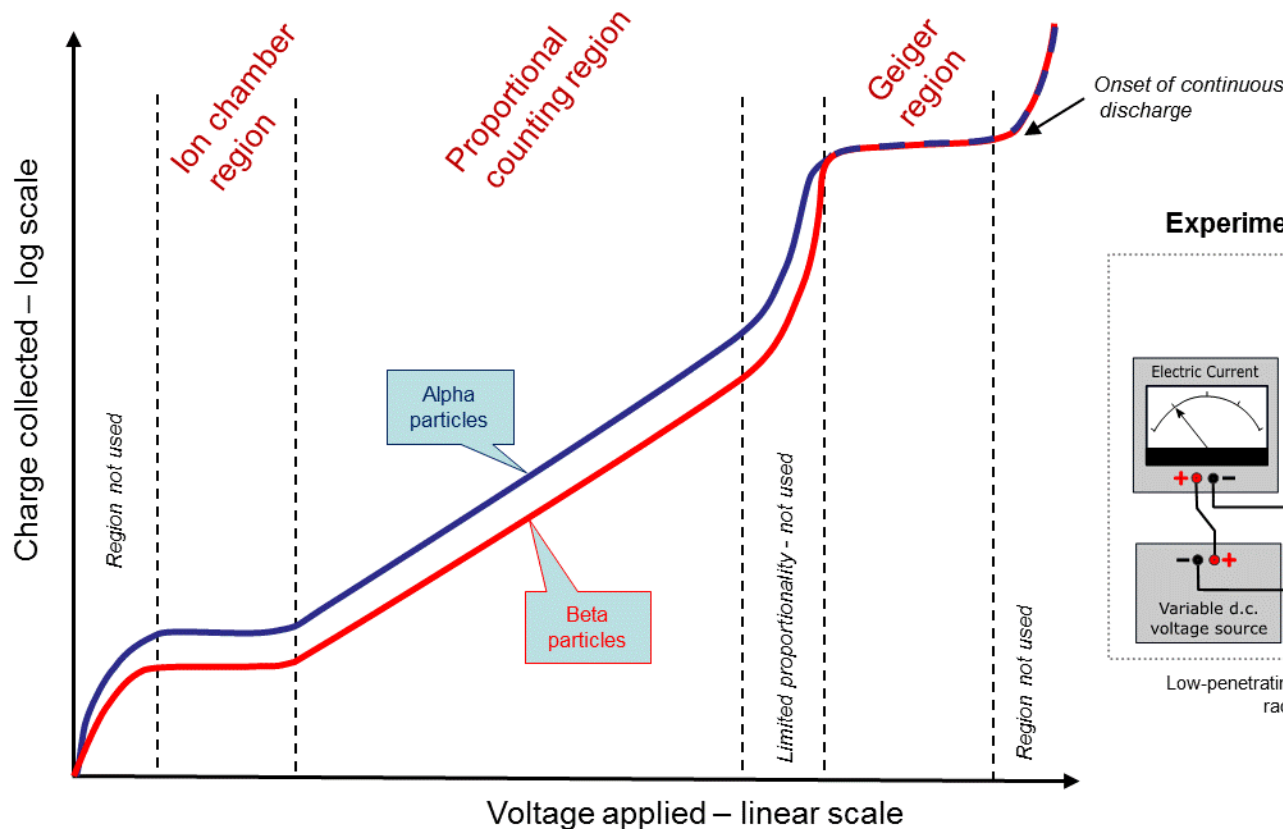


# Practical Gaseous Ionisation Detection Regions

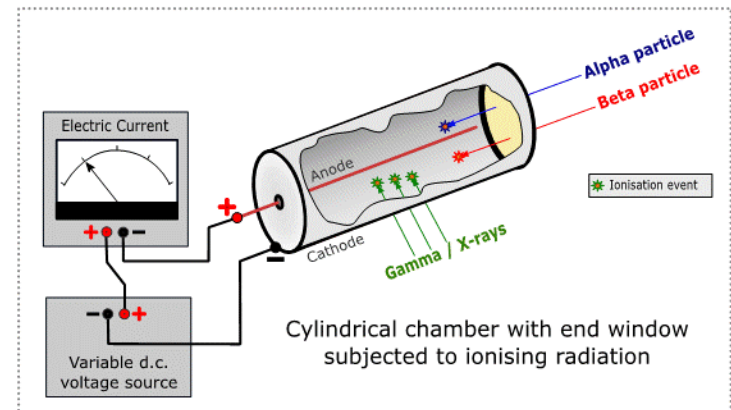
This diagram shows the relationship of the gaseous detection regions, using an experimental concept of applying a varying voltage to a cylindrical chamber which is subjected to ionising radiation. Alpha and beta particles are plotted to demonstrate the effect of different ionising energies, but the same principle extends to all forms of ionising radiation.

The ion chamber and proportional regions can operate at atmospheric pressure, and their output varies with radiation energy. However, in practice the Geiger region is operated at a reduced pressure (about  $1/10^{\text{th}}$  of an atmosphere) to allow operation at much lower voltages; otherwise impractically high voltages would be required. The Geiger region output does not differentiate between radiation energies.

Variation of ion pair charge with applied voltage

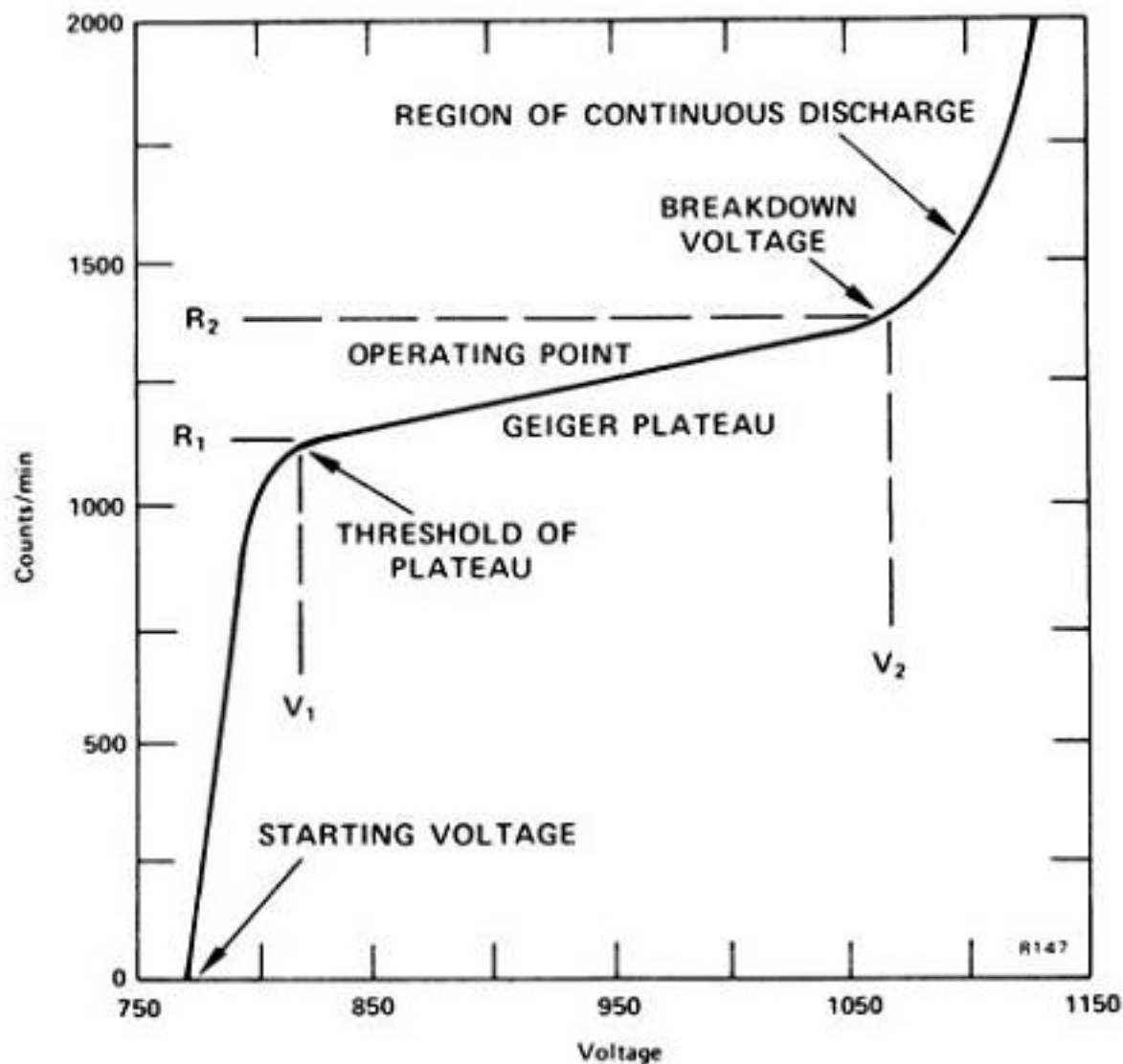


Experimental set-up of a cylindrical chamber

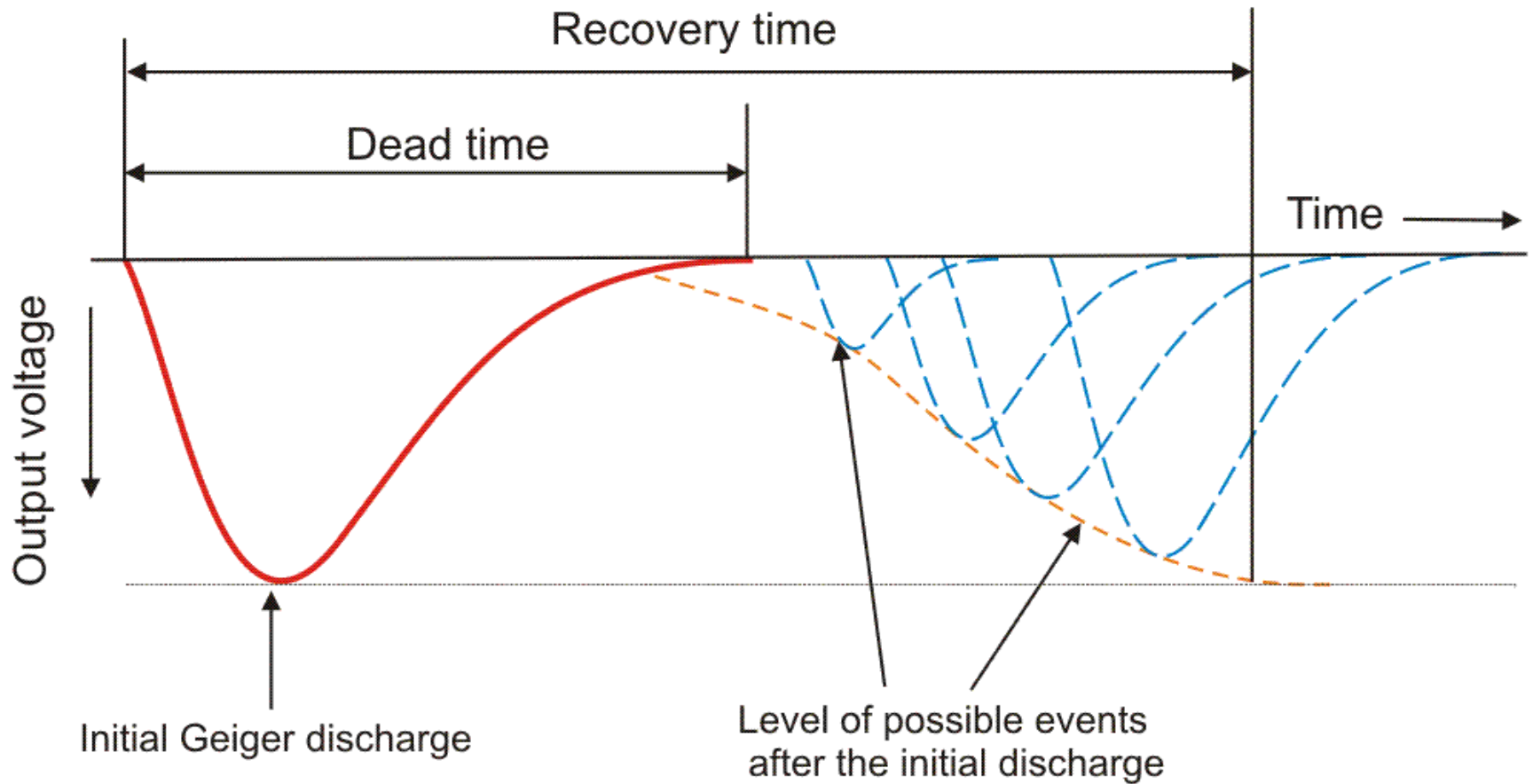


Low-penetrating radiation enters via an end window, but high-penetrating radiation can also enter via the cylinder side wall.

# Geiger Muller



# Dead time of a Geiger-Muller tube



# Geiger Muller

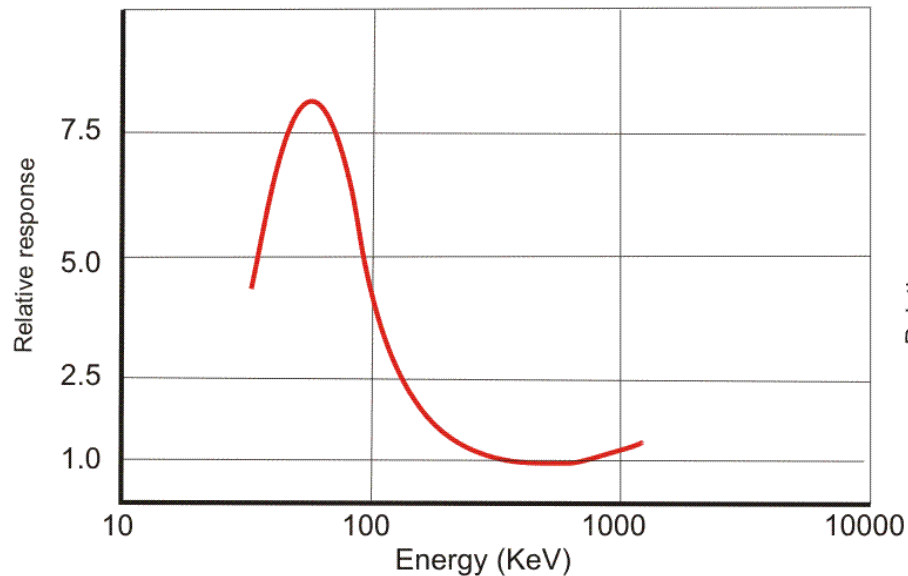


# Geiger Muller

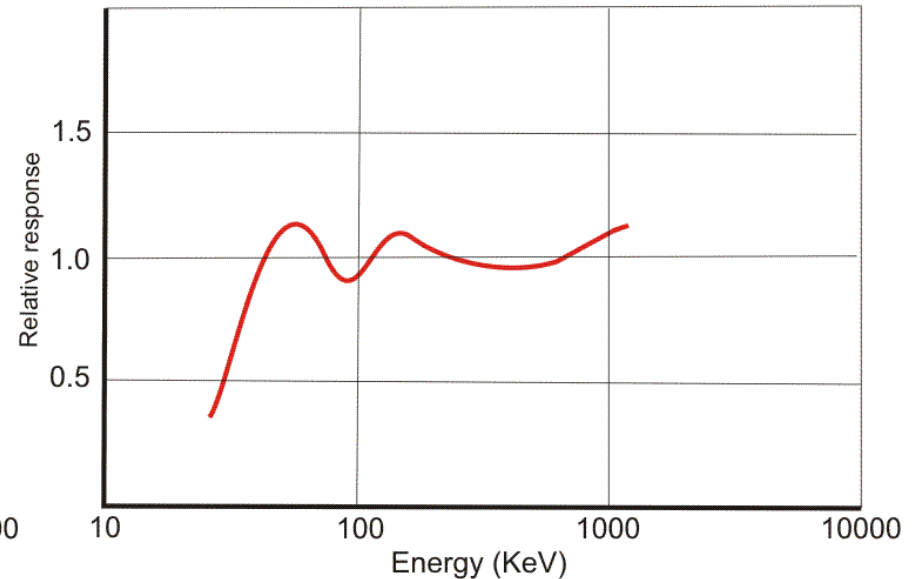


## Geiger-Muller tube energy compensation

Uncompensated tube (ZP1320)



Compensated tube (ZP 1321)



Typical energy responses referenced to  $^{137}\text{Cs}$



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# Spectrometer - “Energy Measurement”

## Scintillator

P. Schotanus

SCIONIX Holland B.V.

P.O. Box 143, 3980 CC BUNNIK

The Netherlands

Tel. +31 30 6570312

Fax. +31 30 6567563

[sales@scionix.nl](mailto:sales@scionix.nl)

[www.scionix.nl](http://www.scionix.nl)



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## Basic interaction processes in crystals:

(X-ray /  $\gamma$  radiation)

- Photoelectric effect  
=> Total absorption of  $\gamma$ -ray
- Compton effect  
=> photon energy partly absorbed
- pair production ( $E \geq 1.02$  MeV)

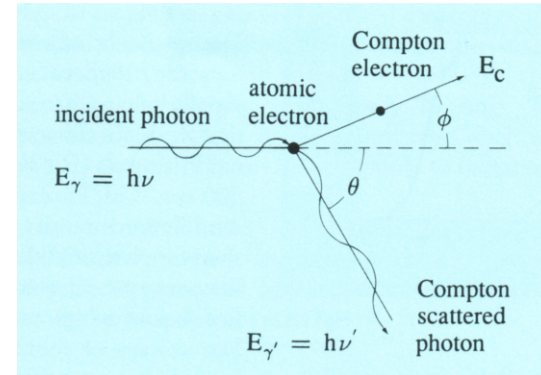
$$E_{\gamma'} = \frac{E_{\gamma}}{1 + \alpha(1 - \cos\theta)}$$

with

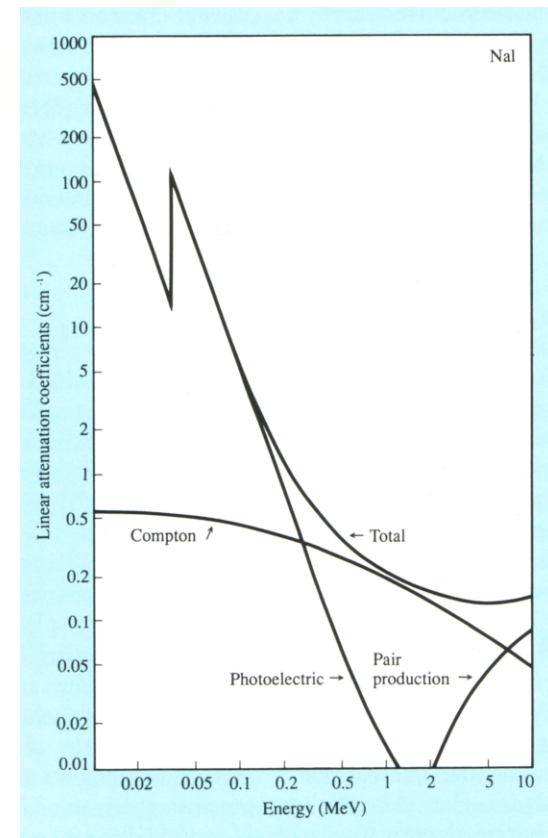
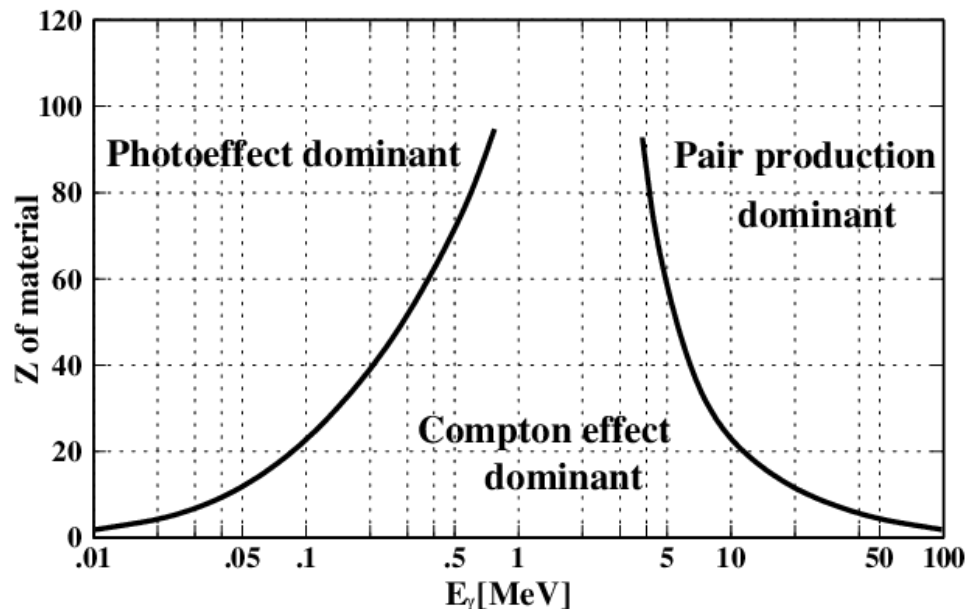
$$\alpha = E_{\gamma}/0.511$$

and  $E_{\gamma}$  and  $E_{\gamma'}$  in MeV.

$$E_c(\max) = \frac{E_{\gamma}}{1 + 0.511/2E_{\gamma}} \text{ MeV.}$$



## Relative importance effects dependent on Z of material (crystal)



## Various processes in scintillation detectors

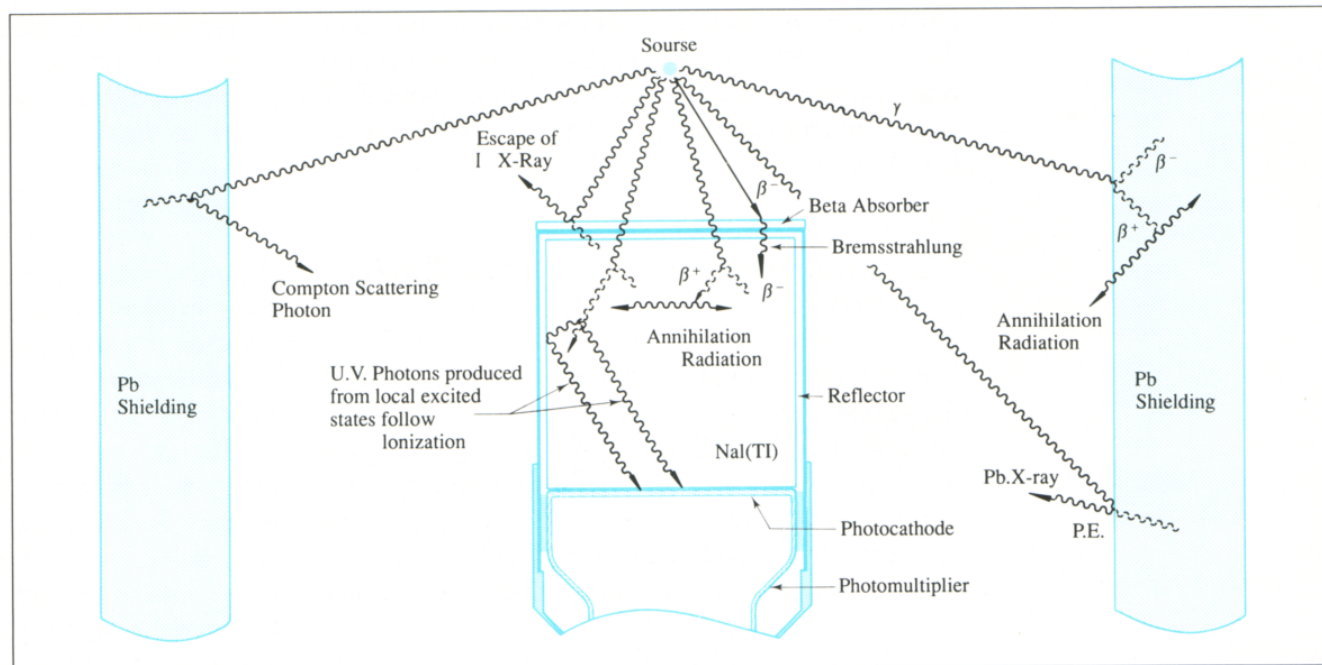
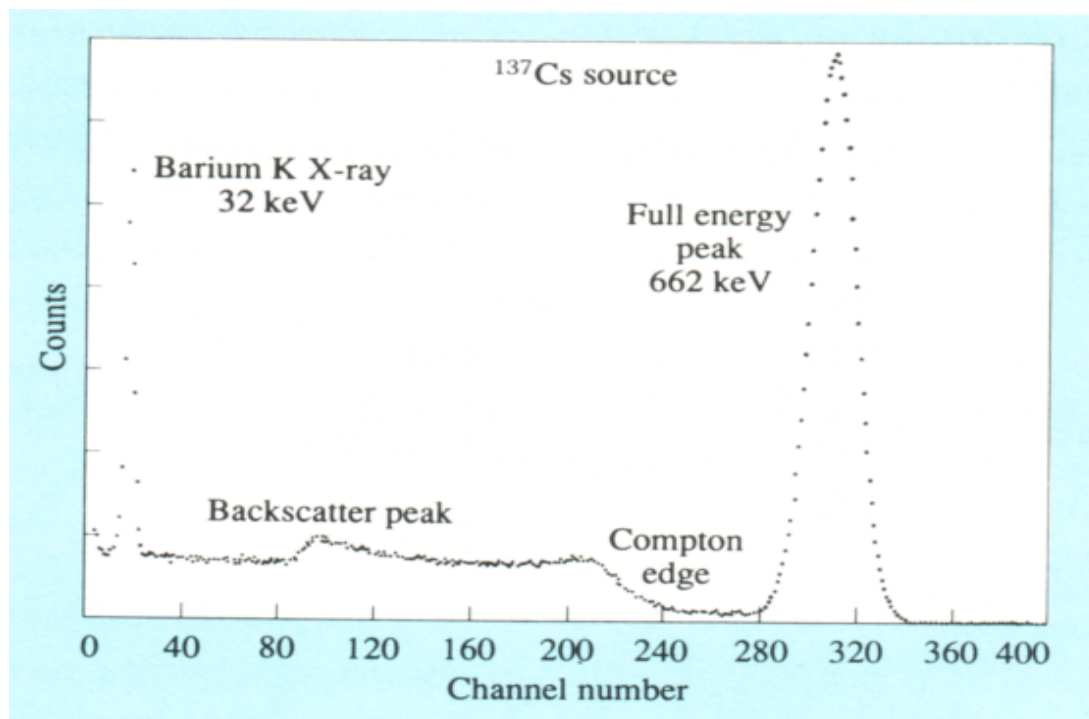
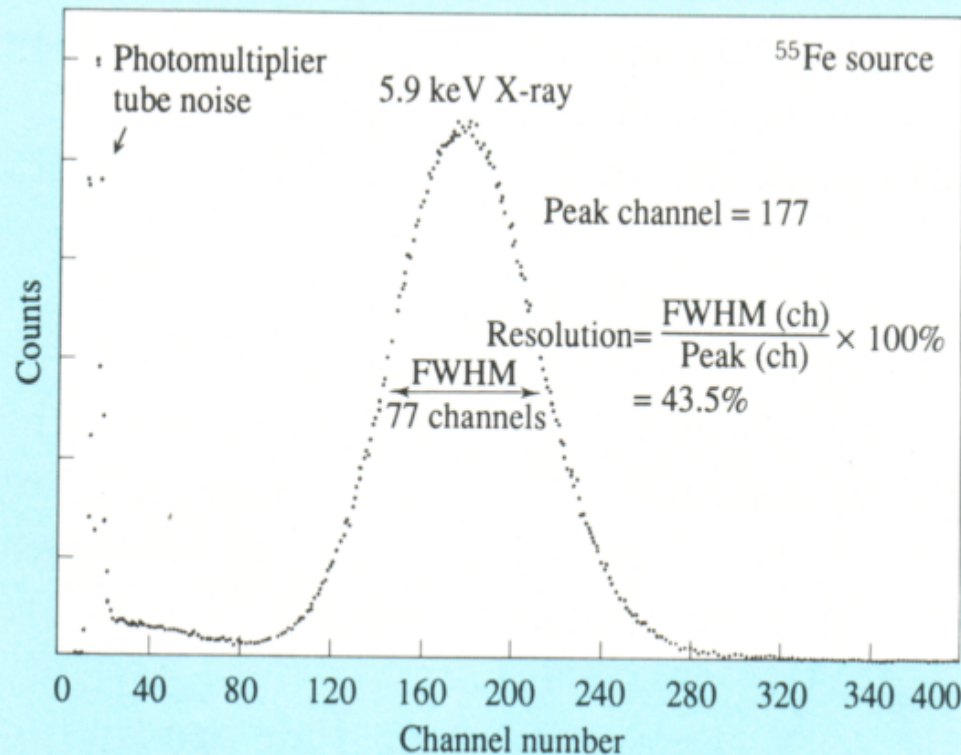


Fig. 1.6.

## Pulse height spectrometry:

Typical pulse height spectrum from scintillation crystal.





## Energy resolution:

the number of channels between the two points at half the maximum intensity of the photopeak, divided by the channel number of the peak mid-point, multiplied by 100%.

Influenced by:

1. Intrinsic effective line width (non proportionality)
2. Photoelectron statistics
3. Light collection uniformity + PMT effects

$$\left(\frac{\Delta E}{E}\right)^2 = \underbrace{\left(\frac{\Delta E}{E}\right)_{\text{sci, intr}}^2}_1 + \underbrace{\left(\frac{\Delta E}{E}\right)_{\text{stat, N}}^2}_2 + \underbrace{\left(\frac{\Delta E}{E}\right)_{\text{PMT, sci}}^2}_3$$

**For low energies (e.g. 140 keV), contribution 2 and 3 most important.**

**Physical Properties**  
**of the most**  
**Common Scintillation Materials**

Material	Density [g/cm <sup>3</sup> ]	Emission Maximum [nm]	Decay Constant (1)	Refractive Index (2)	Conversion Efficiency (3)	Hygroscopic
<b>NaI(Tl)</b>	3.67	415	0.23 $\mu$ s	1.85	100	yes
<b>CsI(Tl)</b>	4.51	550	0.6/3.4 $\mu$ s	1.79	45	no
<b>CsI(Na)</b>	4.51	420	0.63 $\mu$ s	1.84	85	slightly
<b>CsI(undoped)</b>	4.51	315	16 ns	1.95	4 - 6	no
<b>CaF<sub>2</sub>(Eu)</b>	3.18	435	0.84 $\mu$ s	1.47	50	no
<b><sup>6</sup>Li - glass</b>	2.6	390/430	60 ns	1.56	4 -6	no
<b><sup>6</sup>LiI(Eu)</b>	<b>4.08</b>	<b>470</b>	<b>1.4 <math>\mu</math>s</b>	<b>1.96</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>yes</b>
<b>CsF</b>	4064	390	3 - 5 ns	1.48	5 -7	yes
<b>BaF<sub>2</sub></b>	4.88	315 220	0.63 $\mu$ s 0.8 ns	1.50 1.54	16 5	no
<b>YAP(Ce)</b>	5.55	350	27 ns	1.94	35 - 40	no
<b>GSO(Ce)</b>	6.71	440	30 - 60 ns	1.85	20 - 25	no
<b>BGO</b>	7.13	480	0.3 $\mu$ s	2.15	15 - 20	no
<b>CdWO<sub>4</sub></b>	7.90	470/540	20/5 $\mu$ s	2.3	25 - 30	no
<b>PbWO<sub>4</sub></b>	8.28	420	7 ns	2.16	0.10	no
<b>Plastics</b>	1.03	375/600	1 -3 ns	1.58	25 - 30	no

- (1) Effective average decay time for  $\gamma$ -rays.  
(2) At the wavelength of the emission maximum.  
(3) Relative scintillation signal at room temperature  
for  $\gamma$ -rays when coupled to a Photomultiplier Tube  
with a Bi-Alkali Photocathode

## Important characteristics of scintillators

- Density and Atomic number (Z)
- Light output intensity and wavelength
- Decay time (duration of light pulse)
- Mechanical and optical properties
- Cost

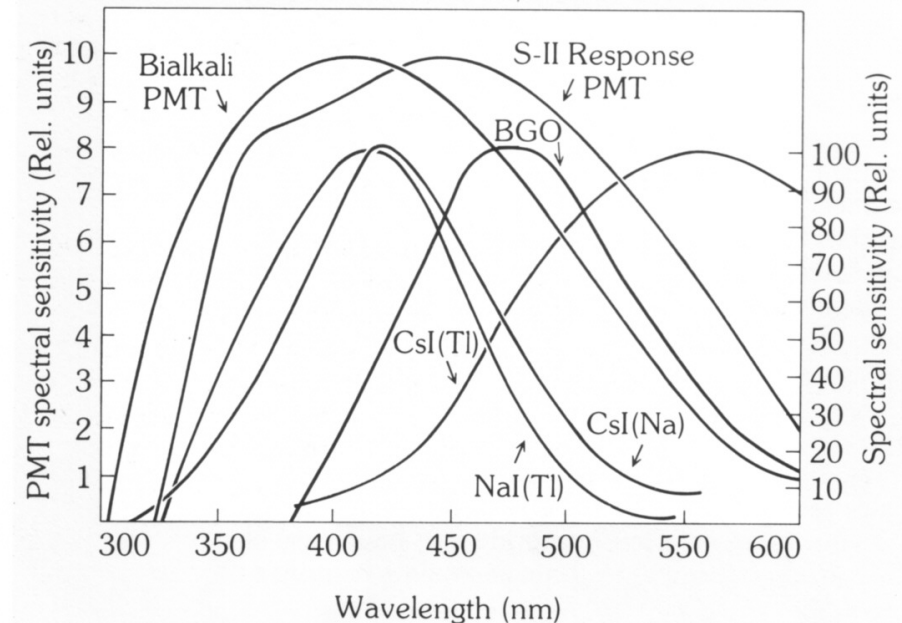
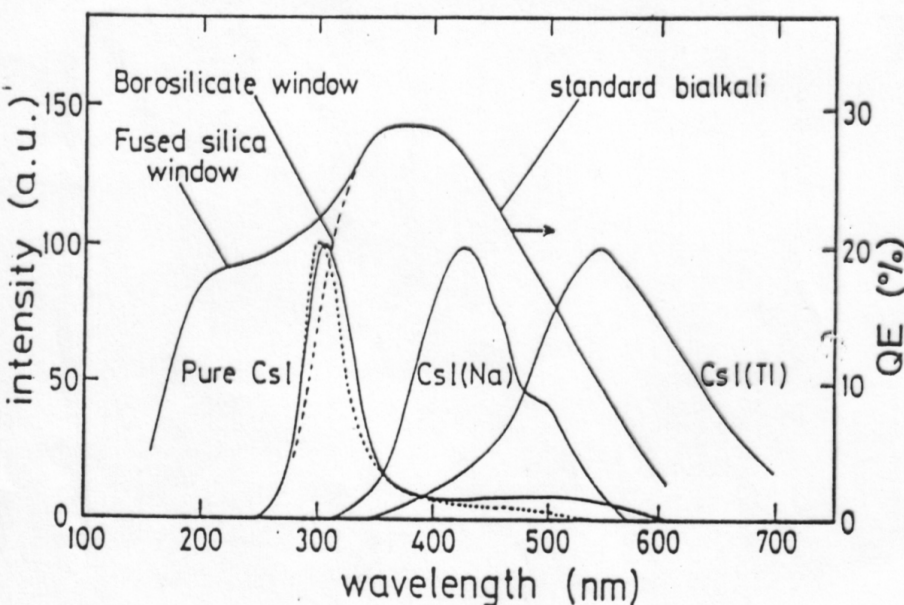


Fig. I.1. NaI(Tl), CsI(Tl) and CsI(Na) and BGO emission spectra. The emission curves have been normalized to 100% for illustrative purposes. Harshaw/Filtrol Research Laboratory Report.

Often broad emission bands (mechanism)

Some principles and criteria :

### **Photon detection :**

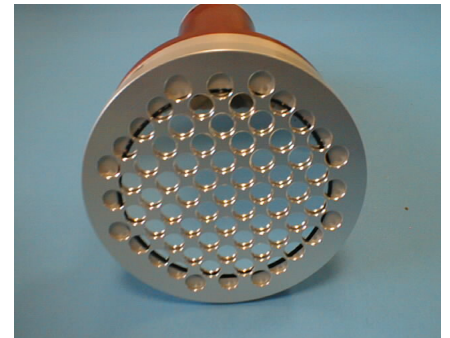
Density (mass) to allow certain efficiency

1. Spectroscopy requires photo-electric effect (higher Z)
2. Dynamic range in relation to decay time of scintillator :  
NaI(Tl) < 500 kHz  
YAP:Ce ~ 4 MHz

Higher count rates problematic in counting mode → DC current mode

### **Particle detection ( alphas/betas – heavy ions)**

1. Optical window thickness ! ( mylar windows required)
2. Total absorption of heavy ions will provide peaks
3. Energy per MeV less than for photons, scintillator dependent (0.1 - 0.95)



## Detection of scintillation light:

- A. 1. Photomultiplier Tubes
2. Semiconductor devices (photodiodes, APDs)

### 1. PMTs

Photoelectron production

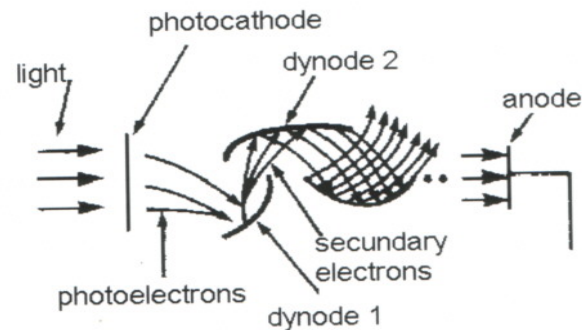
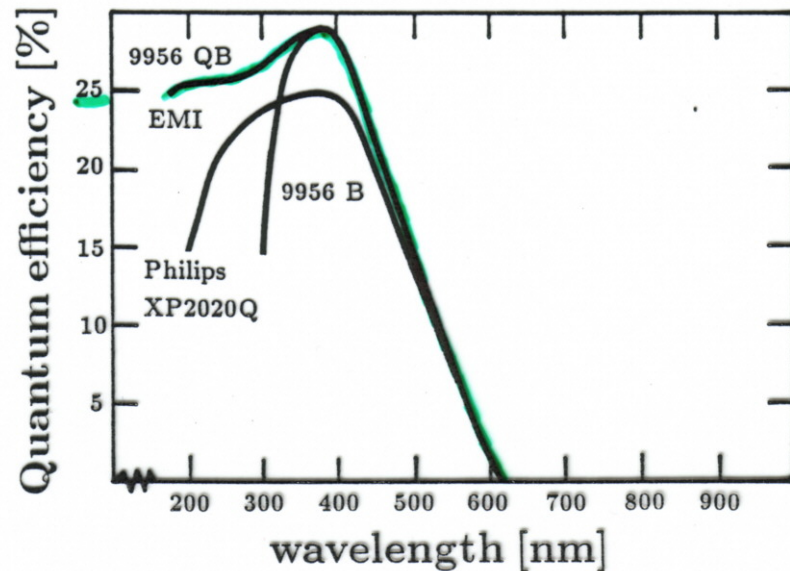
In thin photocathode layers

(e.g. Cs/Sb/K/Se)

+ electron multiplication on

Structure of dynodes via  
secondary emission.

(Dynodes CuBe or Cs/Sb)



Focussing of electrons very important.

- venetian blind (standard)
- linear focuses (fast)
- circular cage (inexpensive)
- teacup (good PHR)
- box-and-grid (simple)
- proximity mesh (magnetic immunity)

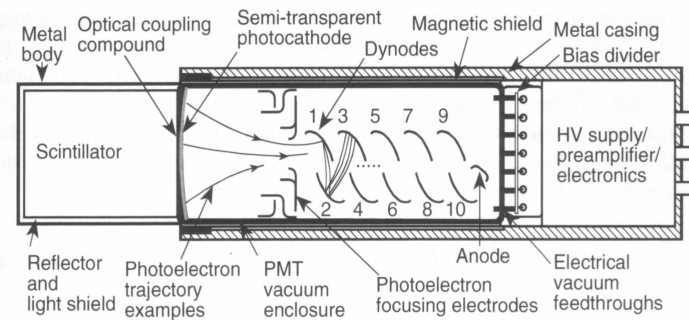
Choice depends on application.

## Temperature drifts of PMTs

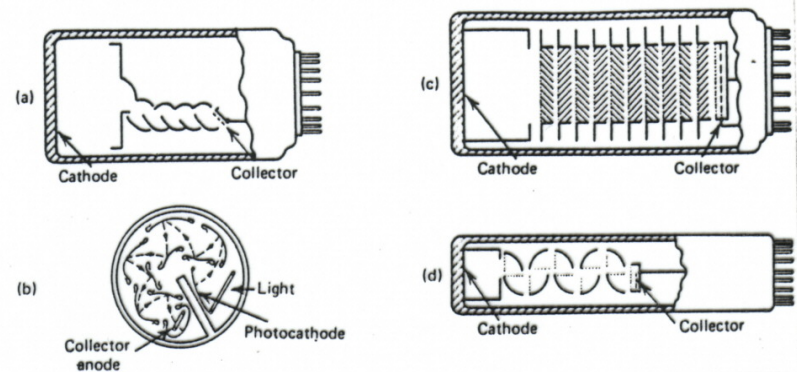
Gain drift of order 0.2% per degree K.

Gain of a PMT not 100 % reproducible

Max. gain or order  $10^6$



**Figure 4.20** Schematic representation of a complete scintillation detector comprising a scintillator, a head-on photomultiplier tube, a bias divider for the dynode voltages and an electronics unit with preamplifier and possibly a high-voltage supply



**Table 2.1.** Properties of different photomultiplier structures

Type of structure	size	gain	timing	linearity	magnetic immunity
	smallest volume	maximum overall	fastest	highest pulsed current	best
Venetian blind	3	2	3	3	3
Circular cage	①	4	2	2	①
Box and grid	2	3	4	4	2
Linear focussed	4	①	①	①	4

Note: the numbers indicate the order of preference for a certain application; 1 = best, 4 = worst.

## Advantages of PMTs:

- high gain => large signal
- standard devices
- fast response

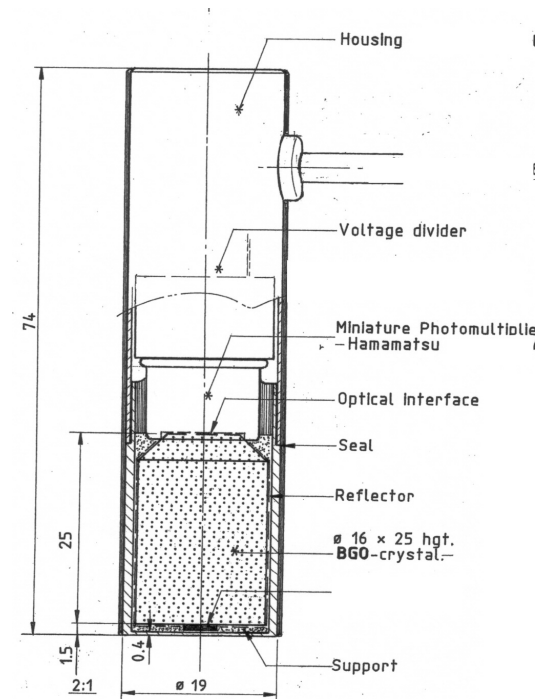


Detector gain drift due to temperature effects :

- Crystal
- light detection device

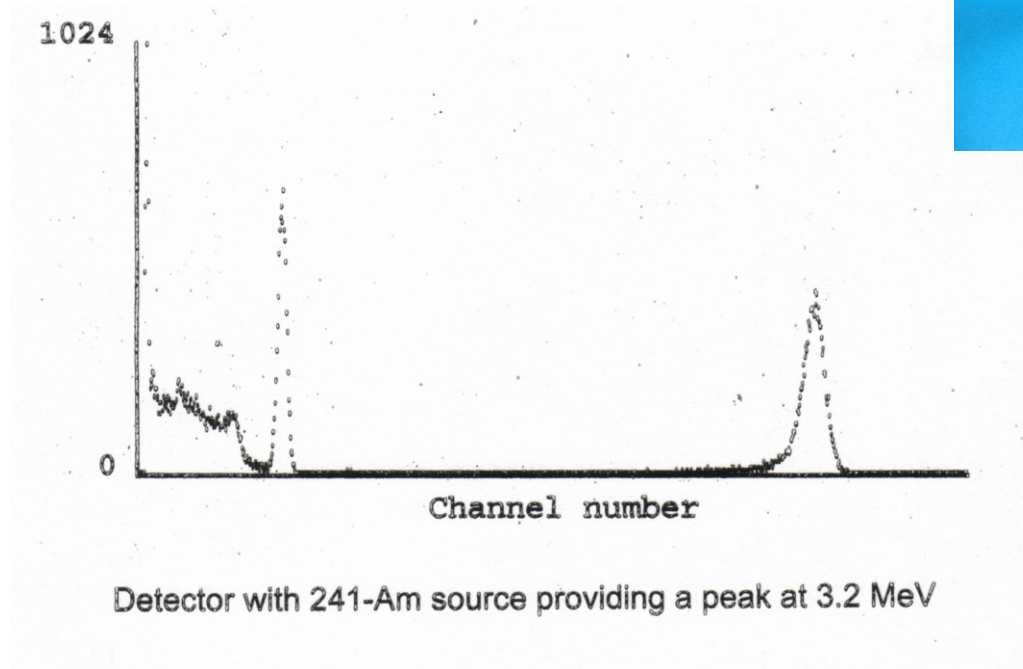
## Disadvantages of PMTs:

- fragile & bulky / recently: - low profile  
- miniature
- high voltage required (kVs) / recent developm. integrated HV.suppl.
- magnetic field sensitive
- 40K background from glass
- gain drifts
- Only sensitive  $\leq 600$  nm



## Stabilisation:

- Radioactive pulsers (Alpha emitters)
- LED pulsers
- hardware stabilisation on peak
- software stabilisation on peak



# SEMICONDUCTOR DETECTORS

- PIN photodiodes (standard)
- Avalanche photodiodes (new in large areas)
- Drift photodiodes (getting better and larger)
- Silicon PMTs

All above devices:  
compact, rugged and insensitive to magnetic fields  
Si High quantum efficiency in 500 nm area  
Overlaps well with emission CsI(Tl), CdWO<sub>4</sub>.

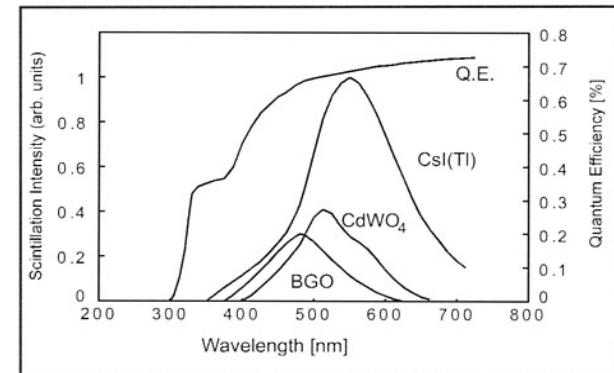
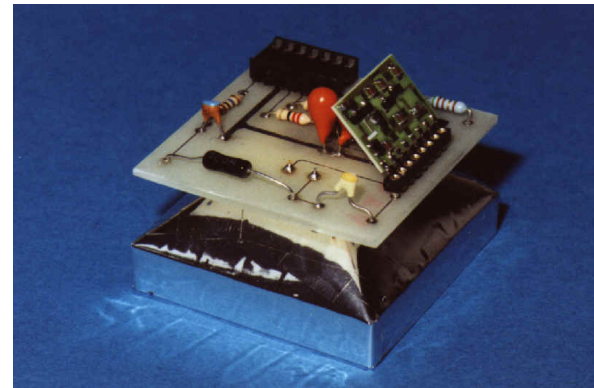


Fig. 4.3 Quantum efficiency curve of a silicon photodiode together with the emission spectrum of CsI(Tl), CdWO<sub>4</sub> and BGO.

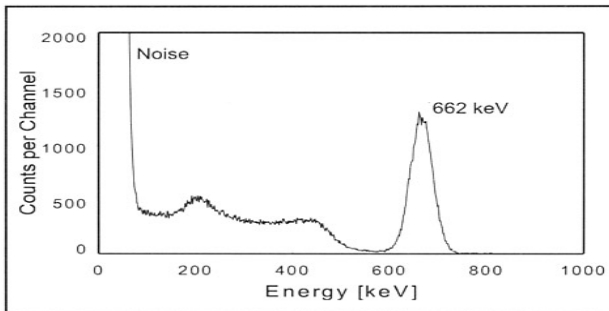


Fig. 4.4 Example of a pulse height spectrum of 662 keV gamma rays absorbed in a photodiode scintillation detector equipped with an 18x18x25 mm<sup>3</sup> CsI(Tl) scintillation crystal.

Example pulse height spectrum of 662 Kev y-rays absorbed in an 18 x 18 x 25 mm CsI(Tl) crystal coupled to an 18 x 18 mm<sup>2</sup> photodiode.

Noise determines low energy limit e.g.:

10 x 10 x 10 mm CsI(Tl) + 10x10 mm PIN diode  
has lower energy limit of about 37 keV.

Most important advantage of PIN photodiodes is  
their stability (calibration + resolution!)

Noise is limiting factor for application

Optimum wafer thickness is 200 – 300  $\mu\text{m}$

Main contribution to energy resolution (cm size diodes)  
is Capacitive noise diode/preamp

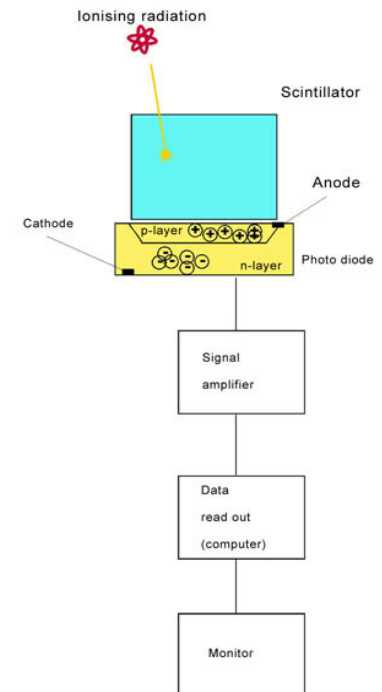
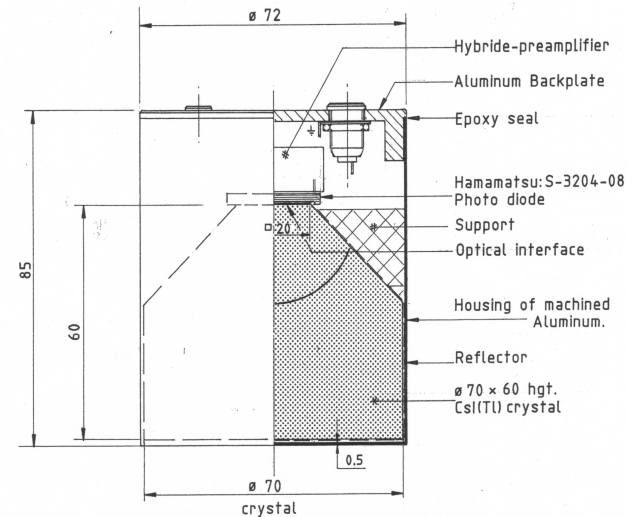
Max. usable surface 28 x 28 mm

high resistivity silicon + good quality / low noise preamps

=> low noise combination Si-photodiode/preamp.

Typical noise:

10 x 10 mm	390 ENC (900 electrons)
18 x 18 mm	550 ENC (1300 electrons)
28 x 28 mm	1050 ENC (2500 electrons)



Very few crystals with high light output  $\geq 500$  nm

scintillator with the highest light yield

$\geq 500$  nm is CsI(Tl).

$\Rightarrow 3 - 4 \cdot 10^4$  e-h pairs per MeV  $\gamma$ -rays

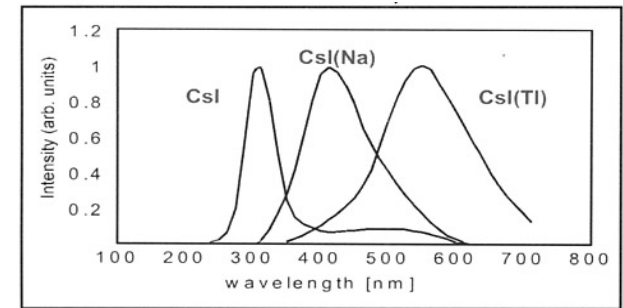
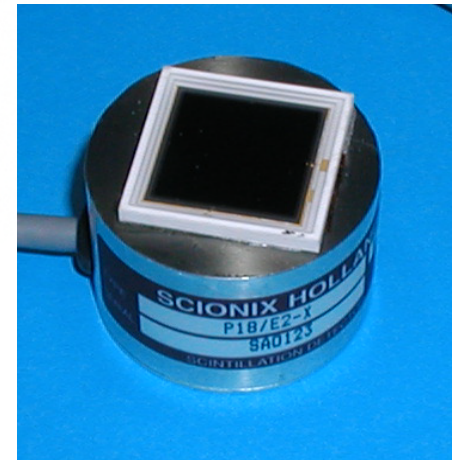
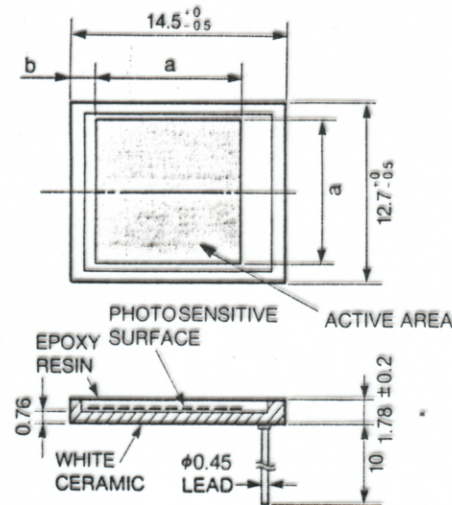


Fig. 3.2 Emission spectra of CsI, CsI(Na) and CsI(Tl) scaled on maximum emission intensity. Also a typical quantum efficiency curve of a bialkali photocathode is shown.

## PIN SILICON PHOTODIODES.

Properties:

- No amplification (unity gain device)  
(therefore) Very stable signal
- Low voltage operation
- noisy
- $\mu$ s filtering necessary



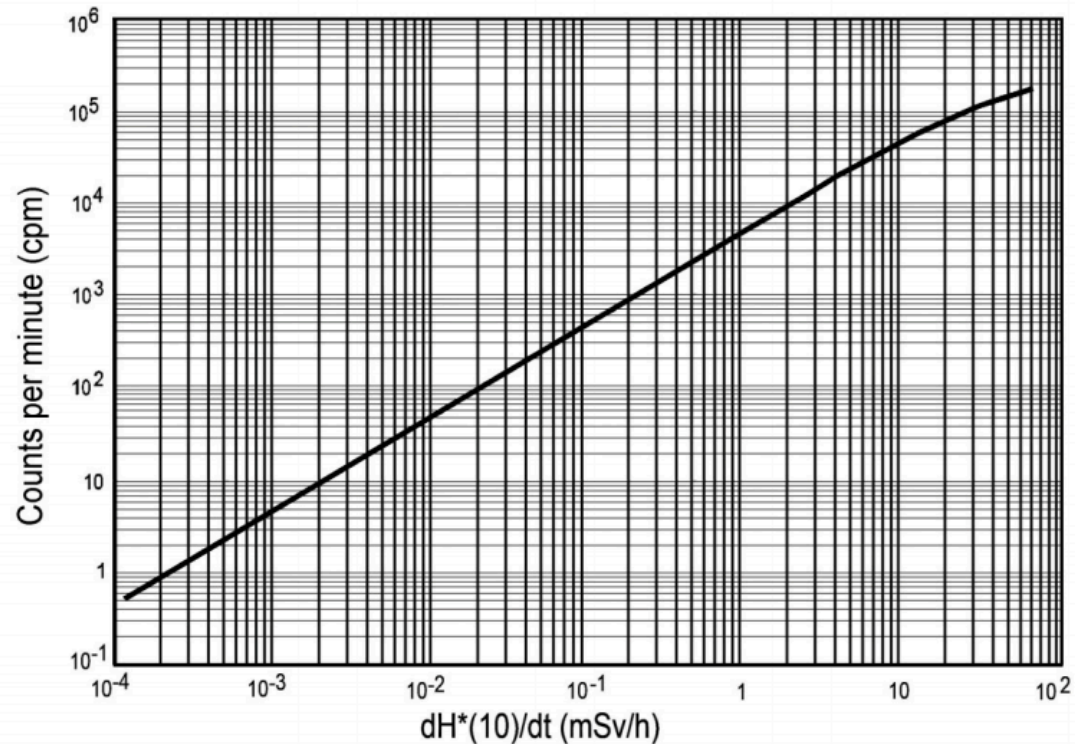
# Exercises

- Is this detector ok to use?

# Teviso BG51



## BG51 Sensor Linearity



## Radiation Sensor BG51

- Nuclear Beta and Gamma Radiation Sensor
- Ultra Low Power Requirement

$dH^*(10) / dt$  = Radiation dose equivalent rate for Cs-137 and Co-60 (mSv/h)

# Exercises

- What's the dose?

# bGeigie Nano (LND 7317)



## ELECTRICAL SPECIFICATIONS

RECOMMENDED OPERATING VOLTAGE (VOLTS)	500
RECOMMENDED ANODE RESISTOR (MEG OHM)	4.7
OPERATING VOLTAGE RANGE (VOLTS)	475-675
MAXIMUM PLATEAU SLOPE (%/100 VOLTS)	10
MINIMUM DEAD TIME (MICRO SEC)	40
GAMMA SENSITIVITY C060 (CPS/MR/HR)	58
TUBE CAPACITANCE (PF)	3
WEIGHT (GRAMS)	125
MAXIMUM BACKGROUND SHIELDED 50MM PB + 3MM AL (CPM)	30
MAXIMUM STARTING VOLTAGE (VOLTS)	425
MINIMUM ANODE RESISTOR (MEG OHM)	3.3

# bGeigie Nano (LND 7317)

Feature	Description
Dual use modular design	main unit can be taken out of case for $\alpha$ -, $\beta$ -detection, for careful use as surface contamination spot meter
Operating range	$\mu\text{Sv/h}$ : .000 to 1,000 ; mR/hr: .000 to 100 ; CPM: 0 to 350,000
Accuracy	+/- 10% typical, +/- 15% maximum [* as with Onyx ?]
Temperature range	-20 to +50 C, -4 to +122 F [* as with Onyx ?]
Calibration	Cesium-137 (gamma from daughter metastable Barium)
Gamma sensitivity	334 CPM per $\mu\text{Sv/h}$ (3340 CPM per mR/hr) referenced to Cs-137
Certifications	(in progress, TBA*)

# Exercises

- How do we set up a spectrometer with an energy range of 1.2 & 2.4MeV
  - How would we cut off the energy to 2MeV
  - For a strong source how could we cut the counting rate?



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*Division Physical & Chemical Sciences*

*Physics Section*

*Further Information: [nsil@iaea.org](mailto:nsil@iaea.org)*

*Thank you!*