

# Radioactive isolator leak detector

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## **Introduction:-**

Measuring radioactivity and ionizing radiation is a vast issue with applications in a variety of commercial and scientific industries, as well as in individuals' daily lives. Measurements in non-professional situations (education, citizen science) are often relied on Geiger-Müller detectors [1–3], which are unable to distinguish between various kinds and energy spectrum of the studied radiation. They can only assess intensities in count rates, which is only enough to compare the activity of radioactive sources and predict potentially dangerous levels of exposure. We propose two solid-state ionising radiation detectors based on silicon sensors to expand the existing toolbox and develop a deeper understanding of natural radioactivity. For both detector types, appropriate experiments for detecting terrestrial radiation and everyday sources of radioactivity are addressed below.

The first detector is based on common photodiodes that are inexpensive and readily accessible, and it may be used with a smartphone or tablet through the headset connection. The second employs augmented reality in conjunction with a mobile tablet and is based on sophisticated hybrid pixel detector technology [4]. Because pixel detectors are built up of a matrix of semiconducting diodes, the other detector, which uses discrete photodiodes, also serves as a reduced functional model of one pixel. The sensitivity to radiation outside the visible spectrum of digital cameras incorporated in recent smartphones has been exploited to utilize them as detectors for ionising radiation in physics education settings [5] and radiation dosimetry applications [6]. With pixel sizes on the order of a few micrometers, however, these sensors in mobile consumer devices are insensitive to ionising radiation and can only distinguish between various kinds and energies. The most promising observations show that just two categories can be distinguished: traces of minimum-ionising particles such as air muons and other forms of terrestrial radiation (a, b, g) as a whole [7,8]. As a result, the detector's adaptability is equivalent to that of a Geiger-Müller counter, and it is confined to measuring relative radiation intensity over extended measurement intervals (10 to 25 minutes is advised in [6] even for high ambient dose rates of 10 Sv/h). Furthermore, since matching

smartphone apps must account for the unique features of each image sensor, measurement accuracy is questioned if the program does not provide calibration settings for particular smartphone cameras. Due to technical restrictions such as hot pixels and fluctuating dark noise thresholds [9] induced by continual miniaturization trends, image sensors must be calibrated in a consistent and repeatable manner. [10] just published open source software to get calibrations for spectrometric measurements in the visible region of light and pledges to maintain an open database. We are unaware of any such initiatives in the context of detecting ionizing radiation, which is much more critical given that smartphone cameras are not meant for this function. Furthermore, in order to adapt for changes in mobile operating systems, the application must be updated on a regular basis. For example, the mobile app used in [5] hasn't been updated for iOS devices in three years and doesn't operate with current iPhones or iOS versions (last time checked: 3 September 2019). It is the only one of the six programs examined in [6] that is still accessible in the app store. External radiation sensors with well-known properties are used in our method, which is complemented and supplemented by mobile open source software. A primary focus throughout the project is ensuring a high degree of compatibility and reusability on future mobile platforms.

### **Materials and Procedures:-**

Silicon semiconductors are employed in the radiation sensors used in this study. Only some kinds and energy ranges of ionising radiation are totally absorbed by their thin sensitive layer, which interacts only partly or not at all with X-rays or  $\gamma$ -photons. Figure 1 depicts photon detection probability in thin silicon layers across a broad energy range. If the energy of photons is larger than 100 keV, fewer than 1% of photons create a discernible signal in thin layers of 100 $\mu$ m and less, which is typical for the examined photodiodes. The detection of  $\alpha$ -particles and electrons from  $\beta$ -decays is the emphasis of the provided diode sensor characterization, detector design, and appropriate experiments. Because the examined sources of radiation are low in activity, contributions from X-rays and  $\gamma$ -photons may be ignored in the measured signals.

Radiation that is intensely ionising, such as  $\alpha$ -particles, interacts aggressively and is absorbed completely within a few tenths of micrometers [11]. Lighter charged particles, such as electrons, are absorbed up to a maximum energy value of around 1 keV/ $\mu$ m to 1.5 keV/ $\mu$ m per traversing sensor material [11,12]. Ionising radiation absorption causes released charges in the sensitive volume of silicon: one electron-hole pair is created for every 3.64 eV of

ionisation energy. These charges generate a tiny current pulse that may be amplified and transformed into a voltage pulse proportionate to the deposited energy across the sensor chip.

### **Detector of Particles:-**

This detector is based on the BPX61 photodiode, which uses a positive-intrinsic-negative (PIN) layer combination type photodiode to detect light in the visible range. Photodiodes have been suggested for radiation detection since the 1960s and 1970s. Dousse and Rhême demonstrated in 1983 that this diode, made by Siemens at the time, could conduct exact a-spectrometry with a peak resolution of 18 keV full width at half maximum (FWHM) under vacuum circumstances and with modern nuclear physics apparatus. Do-it-yourself (DIY) magazines developed electrical circuits for amateurs and enthusiasts to monitor the local radiation environment after the Chernobyl nuclear accident in 1986. Our circuit is based on the same premise as the PocketGeiger.

After the Fukushima Daiichi nuclear tragedy, the project was launched to help citizen scientific projects with a low-cost, easy-to-build instrument. The BPW34 series of PIN-type photodiodes explored here and in other citizen science initiatives has a  $\sim 10\mu\text{m}$  thick intrinsic layer (at 0V bias) that is presently made by Osram and Vishay. When operated in total darkness (a metal casing is used to hide the detector from light and electromagnetic interference radiation), this layer is sensitive to ionising radiation, and its sensitivity may be boosted further by providing a reverse bias voltage. The signal pulses are compatible with a high amplification factor ( $>10^7$ ) when combined with a high amplification factor ( $>10^7$ ).

Headset sockets on smartphones include an external microphone input. PIN diodes are normally employed exclusively as ionising radiation counters in this mode. The circuit depicted in Figure 2a, on the other hand, is optimized to monitor the energy spectra of impinging particles. To adapt the tiny signals of electrons, as well as the big pulses of  $\alpha$ -particles, to the normal signal-recording circumstances for headset microphones, we chose an enhanced low-noise operational amplifier, alternative time constants, and another PIN diode:  $\sim 1\text{V}$  and a sampling rate of 48 kHz. This permits complete sampling of the pulse waveforms at the circuit's output, which are  $\sim 1\text{ ms}$  broad. The diodes' sensitivity area is  $7.02\text{mm}^2$  in each example.

The silicon sensors within the transparent BPW34 and BPX61 diode packages have the same optical characteristics for sensing the visible spectrum of light, according to the datasheets. Characterizing 10 distinct diodes using capacitance versus voltage (C-V) measurements, as shown in Figure 3a, proved the silicon chips' commonality. The capacitance fluctuation is within  $\pm 15$  percent for the observed reverse bias voltage range of 0V to 25V, which is well matched to usual doping variations in manufacturing processes. Doping profiles obtained from our C-V measurement curves (cf. the diode characterisation section in the data analysis repository) reveal an effective doping concentration of  $4 \cdot 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ , which is half of the 2007 values published for the BPW34F. Using a different approach, Bayhan et al. reported an even greater value for the BPW34 in 2016. These disparities might be explained by recent production adjustments or an indication that real process variability are greater than the range covered by the ten diodes we tested. Two manufacturers provide the BPW34 diode family, which comes in a variety of plastic packaging that acts as a filter for different light wavelengths (we investigated the BPW34 and BPW34F models from Vishay and the BPW34FA from Osram). Only Osram sells the BPX61 diode at the moment. It costs more than the plastic-packaged BPW34 because of its metal housing, but it has a glass pane that can be readily removed to make the detector sensitive to  $\alpha$ -particles. If you don't care about detecting  $\alpha$ -radiation and only want to count radioactivity, the BPW34F is the best choice since its black epoxy container absorbs much of the visible light spectrum and facilitates shielding. The width of a PIN diode's depletion zone under reverse bias circumstances may be calculated using the parallel plate capacitor equation. The depletion layer width  $d$  is described by the following formula, which depends on the applied voltage, the permittivity of silicon  $\epsilon$ , and the sensitive area of the diode  $A$ :

$$d(V) = \frac{\epsilon \epsilon_0 A}{C(V)}.$$

Radioactivity and ionizing radiation measurement is a broad topic having applications in a wide range of commercial and scientific fields, as well as in people's everyday lives. Geiger-Müller detectors [1–3], which are unable to discern between distinct types and energy spectrums of the examined radiation, are often used in non-professional circumstances (education, citizen science). They can only estimate count rate intensities, which is insufficient to compare radioactive source activity and anticipate potentially unsafe levels of exposure. To enhance the current toolkit and build a better knowledge of natural radioactivity, we propose two solid-state ionising radiation detectors based on silicon sensors.

Appropriate experiments for detecting terrestrial radiation and ordinary sources of radioactivity are covered below for both detector types.

The first detector is based on affordable and widely available photodiodes, and it may be used with a smartphone or tablet through the headset connection. The second, which is based on advanced hybrid pixel detector technology [4], uses augmented reality in combination with a mobile tablet. The alternative detector, which employs discrete photodiodes, likewise functions as a simplified functional model of one pixel since pixel detectors are made up of a matrix of semiconducting diodes. The sensitivity of digital cameras built in modern smartphones to radiation beyond the visible spectrum has been exploited to use them as ionising radiation detectors in physics education settings [5] and radiation dosimetry applications [6]. However, since these sensors in mobile consumer devices have pixel sizes on the order of a few micrometers, they are insensitive to ionising radiation and can only discriminate between different types and energies. The most promising findings suggest that there are only two types of traces: traces of minimum-ionising particles like air muons and other kinds of terrestrial radiation ( $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ ) in general [7,8]. As a consequence, the detector's adaptability is comparable to that of a Geiger-Müller counter, and it is limited to detecting relative radiation intensity over long time periods (10 to 25 minutes is recommended in [6], even for high ambient dose rates of 10 Sv/h). Furthermore, measurement accuracy is questioned if the application does not give calibration settings for specific smartphone cameras, since matching smartphone apps must account for the unique properties of each image sensor. Image sensors must be calibrated in a consistent and repeatable way due to technological constraints imposed by continuous downsizing advances, such as hot pixels and shifting dark noise thresholds [9]. [10] has recently released open source software for obtaining calibrations for spectrometric measurements in the visible range of light, as well as a commitment to maintain an open database. We're not aware of any such attempts in the area of detecting ionizing radiation, which is even more crucial considering that smartphone cameras aren't designed for this purpose. Furthermore, the application must be updated on a regular basis in order to react to changes in mobile operating systems. For example, the iOS app used in [5] hasn't been updated in three years and is incompatible with modern iPhones and iOS versions (last time checked: 3 September 2019). It is the only software from the six studied in [6] that is still available in the app store. In our technique, we employ external radiation sensors with well-known features, which are supported and enhanced by mobile open source software. Throughout the project, guaranteeing a high level of compatibility and reusability on future mobile platforms has been a top priority.

### **Procedures and Materials:-**

The radiation sensors utilized in this investigation are made of silicon semiconductors. Just some types and energy ranges of ionising radiation are completely absorbed by their thin sensitive layer, which interacts with X-rays and  $\gamma$ -photons only partially or not at all. Figure 1 shows the likelihood of photon detection in thin silicon layers across a wide energy range. When photons have an energy greater than 100 keV, less than 1% of photons generate a discernable signal in thin layers of 100 $\mu$ m or less, which is typical of the photodiodes studied. The presented diode sensor characterisation, detector design, and suitable experiments are focused on the detection of  $\alpha$ -particles and electrons from  $\beta$ -decays. Contributions from X-rays and  $\gamma$ -photons may be omitted in the observed signals due to the low activity of the investigated sources of radiation.

Intensely ionising radiation, such as  $\alpha$ -particles, interacts aggressively and is totally absorbed within a few tenths of micrometers [11]. Lighter charged particles, such as electrons, are absorbed up to 1 keV/ $\mu$ m to 1.5 keV/ $\mu$ m per traversing sensor material [11,12]. Ionising radiation absorption creates released charges in the sensitive volume of silicon: for every 3.64 eV of ionisation energy, one electron-hole pair is formed. These charges produce a small current pulse, which may be amplified and turned into a voltage pulse proportional to the energy deposited across the sensor chip.

### **Particles Detector:-**

This detector is based on the BPX61 photodiode, which detects light in the visible range using a positive-intrinsic-negative (PIN) layer combination type photodiode. Since the 1960s and 1970s, photodiodes have been proposed for radiation detection. Dousse and Rhême proved in 1983 that under vacuum conditions and with current nuclear physics equipment, this diode, built by Siemens at the time, could perform precise  $\alpha$ -spectrometry with a peak resolution of 18 keV full width at half maximum (FWHM). After the Chernobyl nuclear disaster in 1986, DIY magazines designed electrical circuits allowing amateurs and enthusiasts to monitor the local radiation environment. The principle of our circuit is the same as that of the PocketGeiger.

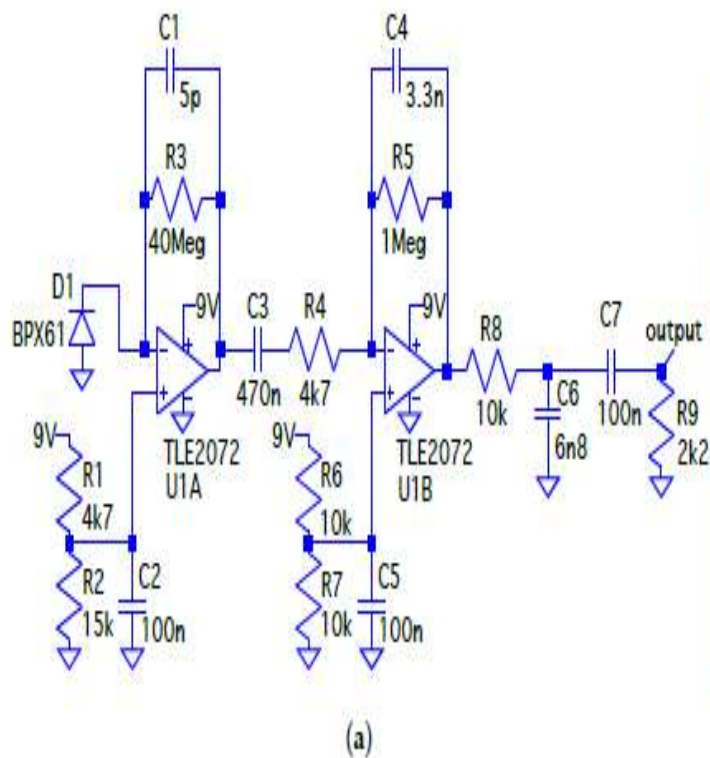
Following the Fukushima Daiichi nuclear disaster, the initiative was created to provide a low-cost, easy-to-build tool to citizen scientific projects. Osram and Vishay now manufacture the

BPW34 family of PIN-type photodiodes used in this and other citizen science projects, which has a  $\sim 10\mu\text{m}$  thick intrinsic layer (at 0V bias). This layer is sensitive to ionising radiation when operated in utter darkness (a metal case is employed to shield the detector from light and electromagnetic interference radiation), and its sensitivity may be increased further by applying a reverse bias voltage. When paired with a high amplification factor ( $>10^7$ ), the signal pulses are compatible with a high amplification factor ( $>10^7$ ).

An external microphone input is available on smartphone headset sockets. In this mode, PIN diodes are often used only as ionising radiation counters. On the other hand, the circuit represented in Figure 2a is designed to track the energy spectrum of impinging particles. We picked an upgraded low-noise operational amplifier, different time constants, and another PIN diode:  $\sim 1\text{V}$  and a sampling rate of 48 kHz to adapt the small signals of electrons, as well as the huge pulses of  $\alpha$ -particles, to the regular signal-recording conditions for headset microphones. This allows for comprehensive sampling of the  $\sim 1\text{ ms}$  wide pulse waveforms at the circuit's output. In each case, the sensitivity area of the diodes is  $7.02\text{mm}^2$ .

According to the datasheets, the silicon sensors in the transparent BPW34 and BPX61 diode packages have the same optical properties for detecting the visible spectrum of light. The universality of silicon chips was shown by comparing 10 different diodes using capacitance versus voltage (C-V) measurements, as illustrated in Figure 3a. For the measured reverse bias voltage range of 0V to 25V, the capacitance fluctuation is within  $\sim 15\%$  percent, which is well suited to typical doping changes in manufacturing processes. Doping profiles derived from our C-V measurement curves (see the data analysis repository's diode characterisation section) suggest an effective doping concentration of  $4 \times 10^{12}\text{ cm}^{-3}$ , which is half of the 2007 values for the BPW34F. Bayhan et al. reported an even higher value for the BPW34 in 2016 using a different technique. These discrepancies might be due to recent manufacturing changes or an indicator that genuine process variability is bigger than the range covered by the 10 diodes we examined. The BPW34 diode family is made by two manufacturers and comes in a variety of plastic packaging that works as a filter for various light wavelengths (we investigated the BPW34 and BPW34F models from Vishay and the BPW34FA from Osram). The BPX61 diode is currently only available from Osram. Because of its metal housing, it costs more than the plastic-packaged BPW34, but it contains a glass pane that can be easily removed to make the detector sensitive to  $\alpha$ -particles. The BPW34F is the ideal option if you don't care about detecting  $\alpha$ -radiation and only want to count radioactivity since

its black epoxy container blocks most of the visible light spectrum and makes shielding easier. The parallel plate capacitor equation may be used to determine the width of a PIN diode's depletion zone under reverse bias conditions. The following formula, which relies on the applied voltage, the permittivity of silicon  $\epsilon$ , and the sensitive area of the diode  $A$ , describes the depletion layer width  $d$ :



### Hybrid Pixel Detector:-

The hybrid pixel detector utilized in some of the subsequent tests is based on a Timepix readout chip with a sensitive area of 1.4 cm 1.4 cm split into 256 pixels 256 pixels and a sensitive area of 1.4 cm 1.4 cm divided into 256 pixels 256 pixels. Depending on the parameters and applied calibration, the circuit contained in each pixel measures throughout a broad energy range, in our instance from 4 keV to around 2MeV per pixel. Because the calibration was done using low-energy photon sources up to 60 keV, the accuracy of higher-energy  $\alpha$ -particle traces is compromised by an inaccuracy of up to 20%. (as measured for 10MeV lithium ions in). The iPadPix prototype, as described in, uses a 300m thick silicon sensor coupled to the Timepix chip to capture the following metrics. The data is sent to a computer over WiFi and then analyzed using Python software. The key differences between this detector and the PIN diode detector described in Section include greater energy sensitivity towards the lower end, the ability to distinguish between a larger number of



different particle types, and a bigger sensitive area and volume. In comparison to the examined photo diodes, the hybrid pixel detector's sensor surface is 28 times bigger and the sensitive layer is six times thicker. The sensitivity to g-photons is still rather low (cf. Figure 1). Following the categories and technique developed in, different particle types are distinguished based on the geometrical form and energy profile of recorded ionisation patterns in the pixel matrix. These hybrid detectors do not have the same restrictions as image sensors used in consumer products in such settings since they are particularly intended to detect ionising radiation.

#### Conclusion:-

As stated in this article, advances in the material of radioactivity detector machines that are portable, compact, and simple to use, or user friendly, have been made. The radiation isolation leak may be checked or rechecked using this gadget. Which is not good for the human body since prolonged exposure to radiation causes radiation sickness (also known as radiation poisoning or acute radiation syndrome) and even death. This is why the imaging room is isolated, and the isolation should be tested using this equipment at least once.

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