

AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

Gary F. Boothe for the Master of Science
(Name) (Degree)

in Radiological Physics presented on September 3, 1969
(Major) (Date)

Title: Pulse Reader for Ionization Chambers

Abstract approved: Redacted for Privacy
John P. Kelley

A pulse reader for ionization chambers has been developed, tested, and calibrated. An insulated gate field effect transistor (IGFET) was used to detect the pulses and Victoreen Model 362 Pocket Chambers were used as ionization chambers. The energy dependence of the Victoreen Model 362 Pocket Chamber was determined to be zero to -14% for photon energies ranging from 152 keV to 33 keV. The pulse reader was found to be stable at room temperature over a period of two months. Exposures of $30 \text{ mR} \pm 1.0 \text{ mR}$ and exposures as low as $1.0 \text{ mR} \pm 0.5 \text{ mR}$ were measured.

Pulse Reader for Ionization Chambers

by

Gary F. Boothe

A THESIS

submitted to

Oregon State University

in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for the
degree of

Master of Science

June 1970

APPROVED:

Redacted for Privacy

Associate Professor of Electrical Engineering

in charge of major

Redacted for Privacy

Head of Department of General Science

Redacted for Privacy

Dean of Graduate School

Date thesis is presented

September 9, 1969

Typed by Barbara Eby for

Gary F. Boothe

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The author wishes to express his appreciation to Mr. J. P. Kelley for his assistance and guidance during the course of this study.

Thanks are given to Dr. E. Dale Trout, from whom a great deal was learned and to whom I owe a rewarding two years of study.

Special thanks are given to my wife Paula, for her patience, encouragement, and help.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

I.	INTRODUCTION	1
	Objective	1
	Definition of Pulse Reader	1
	Advantages of Pulse Reader	2
	Previous Pulse Readers	3
	Applications of Pulse Reader	4
II.	BASIC THEORY OF PULSE READER	7
III.	CONSTRUCTION OF PULSE READER	16
	Design of Pulse Reader	16
	Description of Components	16
	Ionization Chamber	16
	Socket	19
	Voltage Supply V_i	23
	Biasing Resistors R_2 , R_3 , and R_4	25
	Resistor R_1	26
	Potentiometer R_5	27
	Meter M	27
	Shunt Resistors R_6 and R_7	28
	Transistor T_1	29
	Terminals J_1 and J_2	32
	Switches S_1 , S_2 , S_3 , and S_4	32
IV.	OPERATION OF PULSE READER	34
	Operating Instructions	34
	Circuit Dynamics	35
V.	TESTING OF PULSE READER	37
	Pulse Reader Response to Charged Ionization Chambers	37
	Pulse Reader Response to Radium	41
	Pulse Reader Response to X-Rays	42
	Pulse Reader Stability	53
	Temperature Dependence	53
	Time Dependence	57
	Pulse Reader Precision	58

VI.	CALIBRATION	62
	Method of Calibration	62
	Accuracy of Calibration	64
VII.	DISCUSSION	67
	Evaluation	67
	Recommended Improvements	69
	Read-out System	69
	Eliminating Spurious Voltages	70
	Temperature Effects	70
	Voltage Supply	71
	Changes in Design	71
VIII.	CONCLUSION	73
	BIBLIOGRAPHY	75
	APPENDIX	78

LIST OF FIGURES

<u>Figure</u>		<u>Page</u>
1	Essentials of a pulse reader for ionization chambers.	8
2.	Theoretical pulse developed across a resistor R of 10^{11} ohms when a chamber exposed to ten mR is inserted into the socket.	14
3	Pulse reader for ionization chambers.	17
4	Pulse reader schematic.	18
5	Cross section of Victoreen Model 362 Pocket Chamber.	20
6	Cross section of ionization chamber socket.	22
7	Insulated gate field effect transistor.	30
8	Pulse reader response to charged ionization chambers using biasing resistors, R_2 , R_3 and R_4 .	38
9	Pulse reader response to charged ionization chambers; pulse height measured with oscilloscope.	40
10	Pulse reader response to radium using biasing resistors R_3 and R_4 .	43
11	Pulse reader response to radium using transistor operating currents of 1.0, 2.0, and 5.0 mA.	44
12	Pulse reader response to radium using supply voltages of 42 and 45 volts.	45
13	Pulse reader response to x-rays; 33 keV.	47
14	Pulse reader response to x-rays; 70 keV.	48
15	Pulse reader response to x-rays; 100 keV.	49

<u>Figure</u>		<u>Page</u>
16	Pulse reader response to x-rays; 122 keV.	50
17	Pulse reader response to x-rays; 139 keV.	51
18	Pulse reader response to x-rays; 152 keV.	52
19	Pulse reader energy dependence.	54
20	Pulse reader calibration curve; 152 keV x-rays.	63
21	Photograph of pulse reader for ionization chambers.	78

LIST OF TABLES

Table I	Charging, Exposing, and Reading at the Same Temperature	55
Table II	Charging, Exposing, and Reading at Different Temperatures	56
Table III	Pulse Reader Response Over a Two Month Period	57
Table IV	Precision of Pulse Reader with Single Chamber	59
Table V	Precision of Pulse Reader with Twenty Chambers	60
Table VI	Meter Scale Errors for Indicated Exposures	64

PULSE READER FOR IONIZATION CHAMBERS

I. INTRODUCTION

Objective

It was the objective of this study to develop, test, and calibrate a pulse reader for ionization chambers. The pulse reader was to be constructed using an insulated gate field effect transistor. The pulse reader was to have the capability of accurately measuring radiation exposures from approximately 0.1 mR to 100 mR.¹

Definition of Pulse Reader

A pulse reader measures radiation exposure by measuring the voltage pulse required to recharge an ionization chamber after the chamber has been exposed to radiation.

In the conventional application of an ionization chamber (Hine and Brownell, 1956), the chamber is charged to an initial voltage, V_i . When the chamber is exposed to radiation, some of the charge is dissipated and a smaller final voltage, V_f , remains. The exposure is determined by measuring the difference between the

¹A milliroentgen (mR) is 1/1000th of a roentgen, which is a unit of x or gamma radiation exposure.

initial and final voltages, $(V_i - V_f)$.

In the pulse reader system the chamber is charged to an initial voltage, V_i , as above. When the chamber is exposed to radiation some of the charge is dissipated. The exposure is determined by measuring the height of the voltage pulse that then is required to recharge the chamber to voltage V_i .

Advantages of Pulse Reader

The conventional ionization chamber measuring system has certain disadvantages when small exposures are to be measured. The exposure is determined by measuring the difference between two large voltages. If the exposure is small, this difference will be small and measuring small voltage differences with a high degree of accuracy is difficult. For example, the Victoreen Model 130 chamber (used in conjunction with the Victoreen Condenser R-Meter Model 570) is initially charged to 525 volts. With the Victoreen Model 130 chamber, which measures from zero to 250 mR (Victoreen, n. d. b.), a ten mR exposure will dissipate approximately ten volts. The ten mR exposure must be determined by measuring the difference between 525 volts and 515 volts. If the error in voltage measurement is as low as two percent of full scale of the electrometer voltage, or about ten volts, the error is as large as the voltage difference that is to be measured.

In the pulse reader system, instead of measuring the difference between two voltages, a voltage pulse is measured directly and greater accuracy is attained. It is not necessary to measure the final voltage on the chamber, or even the initial charging voltage. It is only necessary to measure the height of the voltage pulse which is proportional to the exposure received by the chamber.

Previous Pulse Readers

Pulse readers for ionization chambers have been built previously by Roesch, McCall, and Rising (1958) and by Braby (1968).

Roesch, McCall, and Rising employed a driven anode electrometer circuit for the detection of pulses and a pulse stretching amplifier to measure and read out the pulses. Exposures of one mR \pm 20% and ten mR \pm 10% were measured.

Braby employed pulse electronics to measure 1.5 rad \pm 15% with a minimum sensitivity of 0.05 rad.² The equipment used consisted of a voltage follower preamplifier to detect the pulses and a pulse height voltmeter to measure and read out the pulses.

The principal difference between the pulse reader developed in this study and previous pulse readers is that in this study an

²The rad is a unit of absorbed radiation dose.

insulated gate field effect transistor is used to detect the pulses.

The pulse reader in this study is also simpler in design, less expensive, battery operated, small, and completely portable.

Applications of Pulse Reader

In general, a pulse reader extends the sensitivity and increases the accuracy of conventional ionization chambers. Consequently, the pulse reader could have application wherever ionization chambers are used. More specifically, a pulse reader facilitates the measurement of low exposures in small air volumes (Braby, 1967). In the usual application of ionization chambers, the use of small chambers implies a loss of sensitivity. This is due to the fact that the response of a chamber, or the voltage dissipated per mR, depends on the collecting volume of the chamber. If greater sensitivity is desired, larger chambers must be used. Since the pulse reader extends the sensitivity of ionization chamber systems, small air volumes can be used to measure smaller exposures.

One important application of the pulse reader would be in the area of personnel monitoring. Present systems of personnel monitoring include film badges, solid state dosimeters, and conventional ionization chamber systems.

Film badges are only about 10% accurate (U. S. National Bureau of Standards, 1960), and they are quite energy dependent

(Clarke, 1963). Film badge dosimetry is also dependent on the radiation angle of incidence and on the film development process (Hine and Brownell, 1956). Furthermore, the fact that film badges require comparatively elaborate processing is a distinct disadvantage. Typically, films are developed weeks or even months after the exposures have occurred, and as Sievert (1959) has pointed out, it often is desirable to know what exposures have been received immediately after their occurrence.

Solid state dosimeter systems have been expensive when compared to other systems of personnel monitoring. In addition, none of the solid state systems developed at the present time are entirely satisfactory with respect to precision, accuracy, energy dependence, or calibration procedures (Attix and Roesch, 1966).

In the case of conventional ionization chamber systems, adequately small chambers are too insensitive to accurately measure personnel exposures below ten mR.

The pulse reader system offers several distinct advantages for personnel monitoring. Low exposures can be measured quite accurately and conveniently. The type of ionization chamber that can be used with the pulse reader is quite small, durable, easily worn by personnel, and costs only a few dollars each. The total cost of the pulse reader would be relatively low also. The read-out and charging processes are simultaneous, which would facilitate

automation. Recording the exposure on a computer card, and recharging the chamber could be accomplished in a single operation.

II. BASIC THEORY OF PULSE READER

There are essentially four components required for a pulse reader:

1. An ionization chamber.
2. An ionization chamber charging circuit
3. A component to develop the pulse
4. A component to detect and measure the pulse

The schematic in Figure 1 shows the essentials of a pulse reader. Capacitor C_1 represents the ionization chamber which is charged to voltage V_i by the insertion of the chamber into the socket. The socket is represented by another capacitor, C_2 . The pulse is developed by resistor R . The pulse is detected and measured by another circuit as shown in the diagram.

In the steady state condition the socket C_2 is charged to voltage V_i and no current flows through resistor R . When an ionization chamber charged to voltage V_f is inserted into the socket, there is an immediate transfer of charge from socket to chamber. The resultant charge, Q , on the two capacitors in parallel is given by the equation:

$$Q = V_f C_1 + V_i C_2 \quad (1)$$

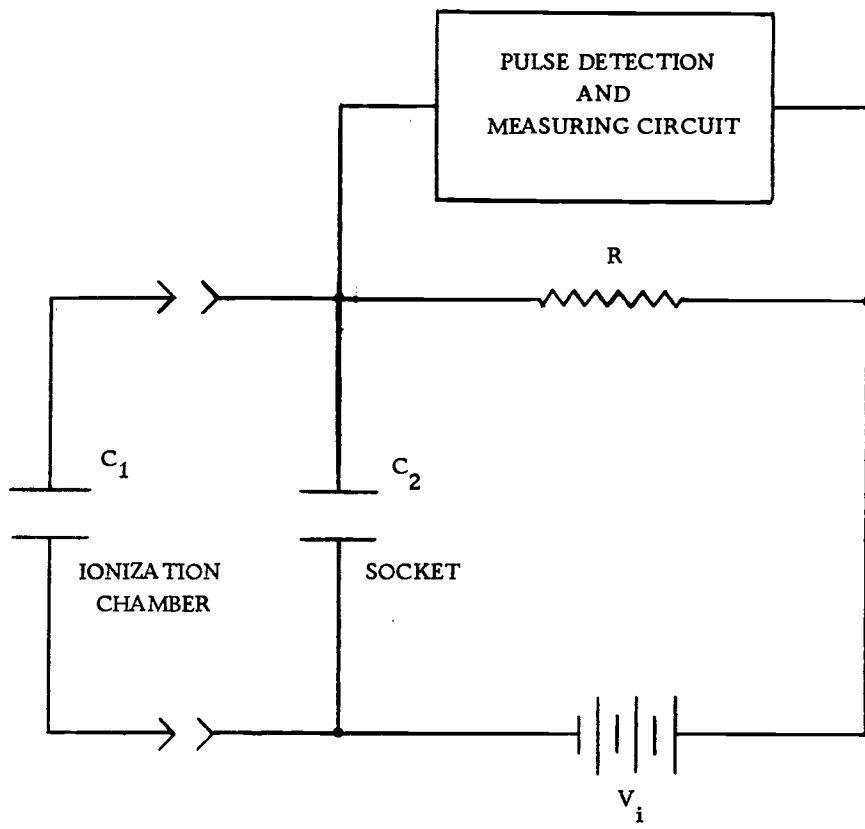


Figure 1. Essentials of a pulse reader for ionization chambers.

The voltage pulse, V_p , developed across R upon the insertion of the chamber into the socket is:

$$V_p = V_i - \frac{V_f C_1 + V_i C_2}{C_1 + C_2} \quad (2)$$

If V_d is the voltage dissipated from the chamber by exposure to radiation, then:

$$V_f = V_i - V_d$$

Substituting the above expression for V_f in equation (2) gives:

$$V_p = \frac{V_d C_1}{C_1 + C_2} \quad (3)$$

From equation (3), the height of the voltage pulse V_p , which is to be detected and measured, depends only on the voltage that is dissipated from the chamber due to radiation exposure and on the capacitances of the chamber and of the socket.

In addition to the capacitances of the chamber and socket there is stray capacitance associated with the wiring and the other components of the circuit. This stray capacitance is in parallel with the socket C_2 and can be assumed to be included in the value of C_2 since capacitances in parallel are additive.

If C_2 (socket and stray capacitance) is very large, then according to equation (3) the pulse developed across R would be very small. On the other hand, if C_2 was zero the pulse would

be at the maximum value of V_d . Obviously, it is desirable to have C_2 as small as possible.

The capacitance of the Victoreen Model 362 Pocket Chamber used throughout this study is approximately five picofarads and the value of C_2 is also about five picofarads (Roesch, McCall, and Rising, 1958). Assuming equivalent values for C_1 and C_2 , equation (3) reduces to:

$$V_p = \frac{V_d}{2} \quad (4)$$

From equation (4), the height of the voltage pulse developed when the chamber is inserted into the socket is one-half the voltage dissipated from the chamber by exposure to radiation.

The value of V_d depends on the chamber that is used and the radiation exposure received by the chamber. With the Model 362 Pocket Chamber, a ten mR exposure dissipates 3.09 volts. The value of 3.09 volts was calculated from the definition of the roentgen and from the air volume and capacitance of the chamber in the following manner:

A roentgen is defined as the unit of exposure that produces 2.59×10^{-4} coulombs of charge of either sign in one kilogram of air (International Commission on Radiation Units and Measurements, 1968). The mass of air in the Model 362 Pocket Chamber at standard temperature and pressure (STP) can be calculated from the density of air at STP (1.29×10^{-6} kg/cm³) and from the volume of the

chamber. The volume of the chamber was calculated from dimensions of the chamber which were determined from a radiograph. The volume was found to be approximately five cubic centimeters. The air mass in the Model 362 Pocket Chamber is then:

$$1.29 \times 10^{-6} \text{ kg/cm}^3 \times 5.0 \text{ cm}^3 = 6.46 \times 10^{-6} \text{ kg}$$

The amount of charge dissipated by a ten mR exposure is given by:

$$Q = 2.58 \times 10^{-6} \text{ C/kg} \times 6.46 \times 10^{-6} \text{ kg} = 16.70 \times 10^{-12} \text{ C}$$

The voltage dissipated is given by:

$$V_d = \frac{Q}{c_1} = \frac{16.70 \times 10^{-12} \text{ C}}{5.0 \times 10^{-2} \text{ F}}$$

$$V_d = 3.34 \text{ volts at STP}$$

This is the voltage dissipated at 0°C and 760 mm Hg atmospheric pressure. At some other temperature and pressure a correction factor must be applied (Johns, 1964):

$$\text{Correction factor} = 273/T \times P/760$$

where:

T = actual temperature in degrees absolute

P = actual pressure in millimeters of mercury

At a room temperature of 22°C and at a pressure of 760 mm Hg:

$$\text{Correction factor} = 273/295 \times 760/760 = 0.925$$

$$V_d = 3.34 \times 0.925 = 3.09 \text{ volts at room temperature and 760 mm Hg}$$

Since 3.09 volts are dissipated from the chamber by a ten mR exposure, the voltage pulse expected when the chamber is inserted into the socket would be:

$$V_p = \frac{3.09}{2} = 1.55 \text{ volts}$$

Pulses of 1.55 volts are easily measured, but a problem not yet considered is the duration of the pulses. When the chamber is inserted into the socket the charges on the capacitors C_1 and C_2 (Figure 1) stabilize immediately since the resistance in the circuit is negligible. Current begins to flow through the resistor R until both socket and ionization chamber are recharged to voltage V_i . The instantaneous voltage drop, v , across resistor R is given by:

$$v = V_p e^{-t/R(C_1+C_2)} \quad (5)$$

where:

V_p = maximum and initial size of the pulse
(1.55 volts for a ten mR exposure)

t = time (sec) after the insertion of chamber

The RC time constant, T , (Malmstadt and Enke, 1963) is given by:

$$T = R(C_1 + C_2) \quad (6)$$

Since $(C_1 + C_2)$ is on the order of 10^{-11} farads, the resistance R must be quite large in order to have a pulse with sufficient duration to be measured. From equation (6), if $R = 10^{11}$ ohms, then $T =$ one second. This means that in one second the voltage pulse has decreased to 63% of its initial value, or $v = 0.37 \times V_p$. Figure 2 illustrates the theoretical pulse that is developed across a resistor R of 10^{11} ohms when a chamber previously exposed to ten mR is inserted into the socket.

The necessity of using a very large resistor for R poses a major problem. The input impedance of the pulse detection and measuring circuit must be comparable to and preferably much greater than the value of R . This means that high impedance electrometer tubes must be used, such as the driven anode electrometer employed by Roesch, McCall, and Rising. Or alternatively, if a smaller value of R is used, sophisticated electronics capable of measuring pulses of very short duration must be employed, such as the pulse electronics used by Braby. Another alternative is to use one of the recently developed insulated gate field effect transistors which have input impedances on the order of 10^{13} ohms (Lancaster, 1966). Such a transistor was used in this study for the pulse detection circuit.

To summarize the basic theory of the pulse reader: an ionization chamber is inserted into the socket and becomes charged

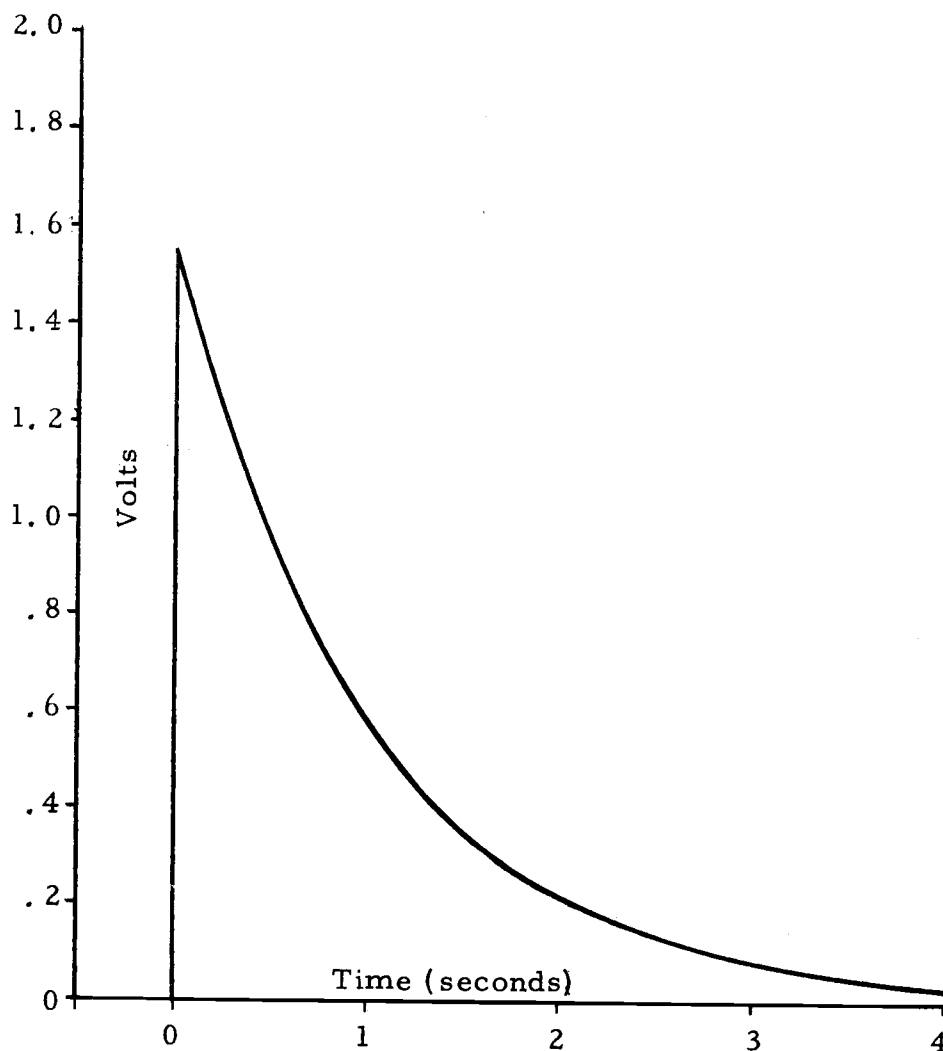


Figure 2. Theoretical pulse developed across a resistor R of 10^{11} ohms when a chamber exposed to ten mR is inserted into the socket.

The initial voltage across R is 1.55 volts and in one second the voltage drops to 0.58 volts. The size and duration of the pulse was calculated assuming a value of 10 picofarads for the total chamber, socket, and stray capacitance, and a value of five cubic centimeters for the chamber collecting volume.

to some fixed voltage, V_i . When the chamber is removed and exposed to radiation some of the voltage, V_d , is dissipated and a voltage, V_f , remains on the chamber. When the exposed chamber is inserted into the socket a voltage pulse, V_p , is developed. The height of the voltage pulse is proportional to the exposure received by the chamber. The value of the voltage pulse is given by:

$$V_p = \frac{(V_i - V_f)}{2} = \frac{V_d}{2}$$

After a time which is determined by the RC time constant of the charging circuit, the chamber will be recharged to voltage V_i and the chamber is ready for use again.

III. CONSTRUCTION OF PULSE READER

Design of Pulse Reader

The completed pulse reader is illustrated in Figure 3. The components are housed in an 11 x 7-1/4 x 6-1/2 inch metal cabinet and the instrument weighs ten pounds. The pulse reader was designed and wired for rigidity and for minimum stray capacitance. All components are securely fastened and wires are as short as possible. Figure 4 is a complete schematic of the pulse reader. The transistor T_1 is mounted in a transistor socket and this socket is mounted directly on the center post of the ionization chamber socket. The outer cylinder of the chamber socket is in direct contact with the cabinet which is represented as ground on the schematic. All resistors are fixed on vector board, which is securely attached to the back of the milliammeter.

Description of Components

Ionization Chamber. A Victoreen Model 362 Pocket Chamber (Victoreen, n. d. c.) was used throughout this study. For maximum utility the chamber should be small and have a flat radiation response over a wide range of photon energies, that is, the chamber should have little energy dependence (Hine and Brownell, 1956). The Model 362 Pocket Chamber is 5-1/2 inches long by 1/2 inch in diameter

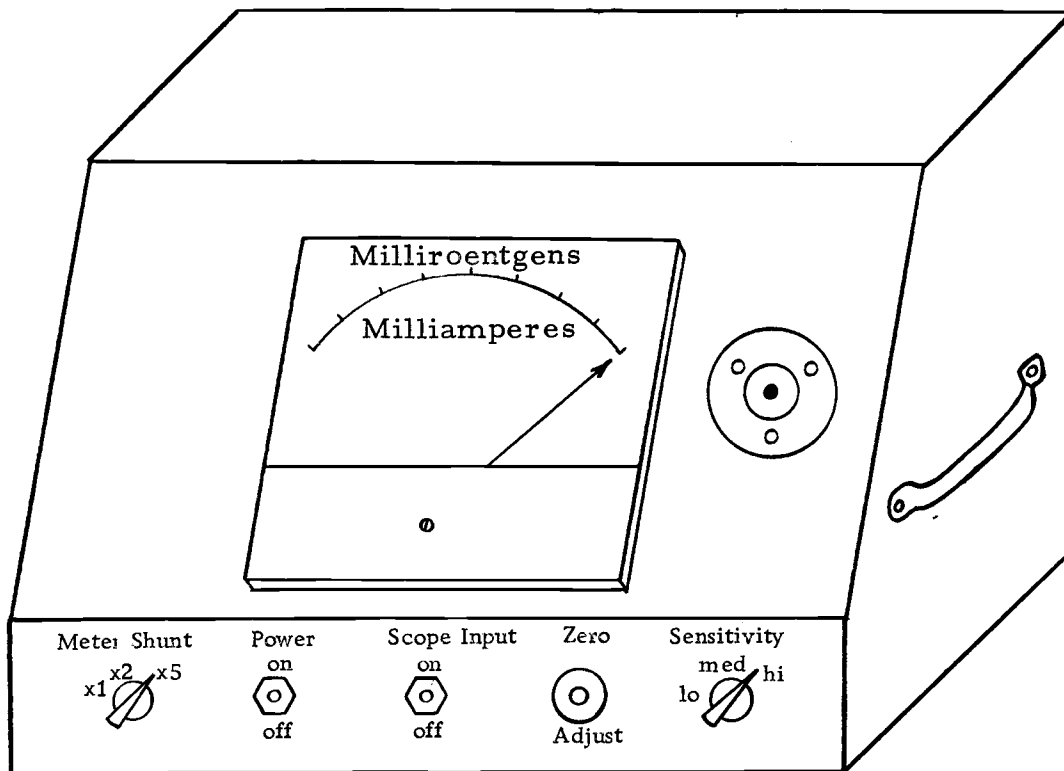


Figure 3. Pulse reader for ionization chambers.

Scale: 1 cm = 3 cm

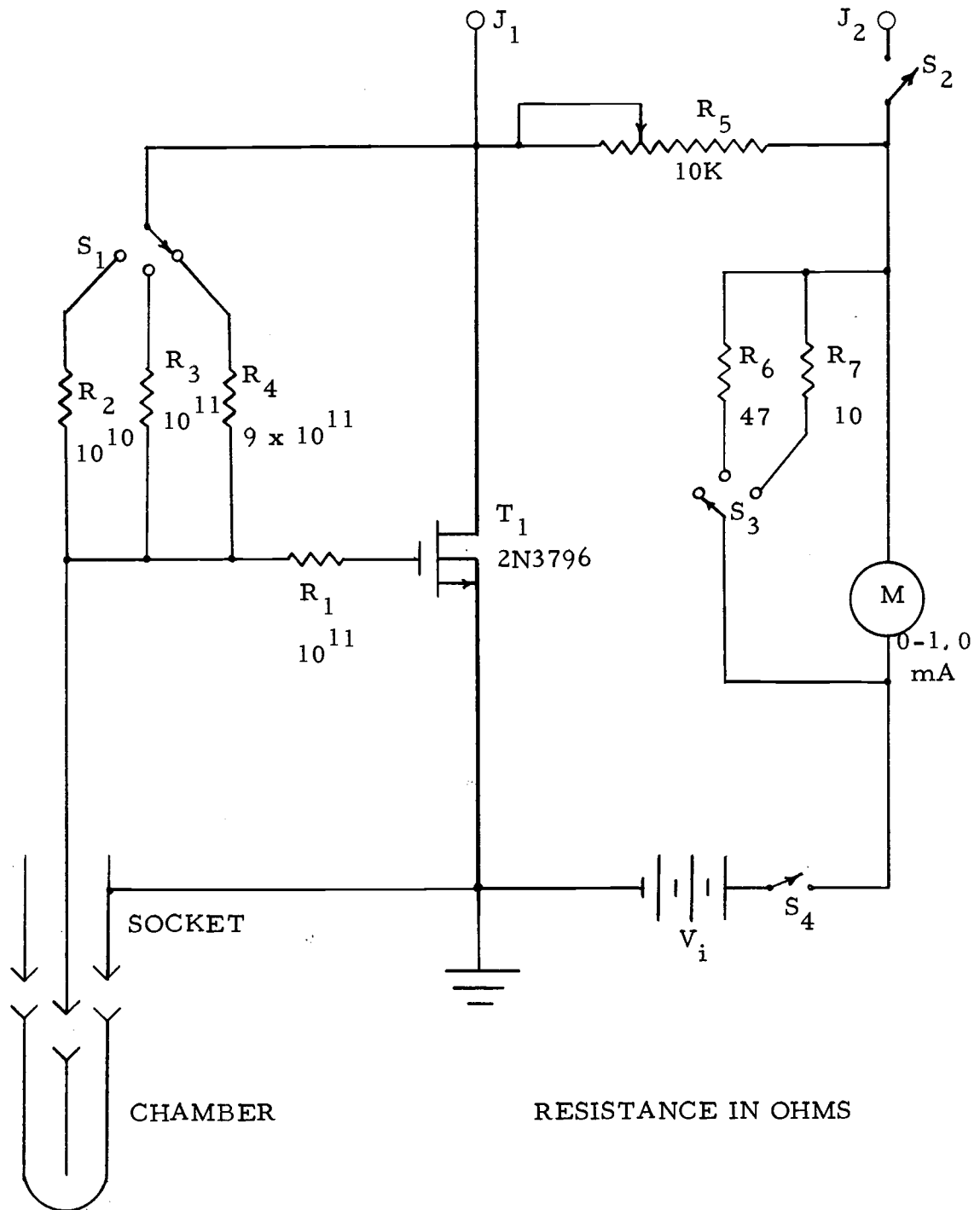


Figure 4. Pulse reader schematic.

and has an energy dependence of about $\pm 15\%$ for photon energies from 1.2 MeV to 30 keV (Victoreen, n. d. c.). In view of these specifications, the Model 362 Pocket Chamber was considered suitable.

Electronically, the Victoreen Model 362 Pocket Chamber is an air dielectric capacitor. It consists of a cylindrical electrode and a wire electrode co-axially positioned in the cylinder. A cross section of the chamber is shown in Figure 5.

Socket. The construction of the socket which receives the ionization chamber is extremely important since spurious voltages are produced when the chamber is inserted into the socket. These spurious voltages must be minimized since they will be detected and measured along with the voltage pulse due to the radiation exposure to the chamber. Since these spurious voltages are not constant or reproducible, it is not possible to compensate for the error by using a simple subtraction factor.

Spurious voltages are due to several factors: contact potential, insulator strain, and a changing electrical field (Braby, 1965).

Contact potential is the potential difference that is developed when two different metals are placed in contact. These potentials can be as high as one volt (West and Thomson, 1964), and this would add a significant error to the pulse measurement. Consequently, the metal parts of the socket must be a type that result in low contact

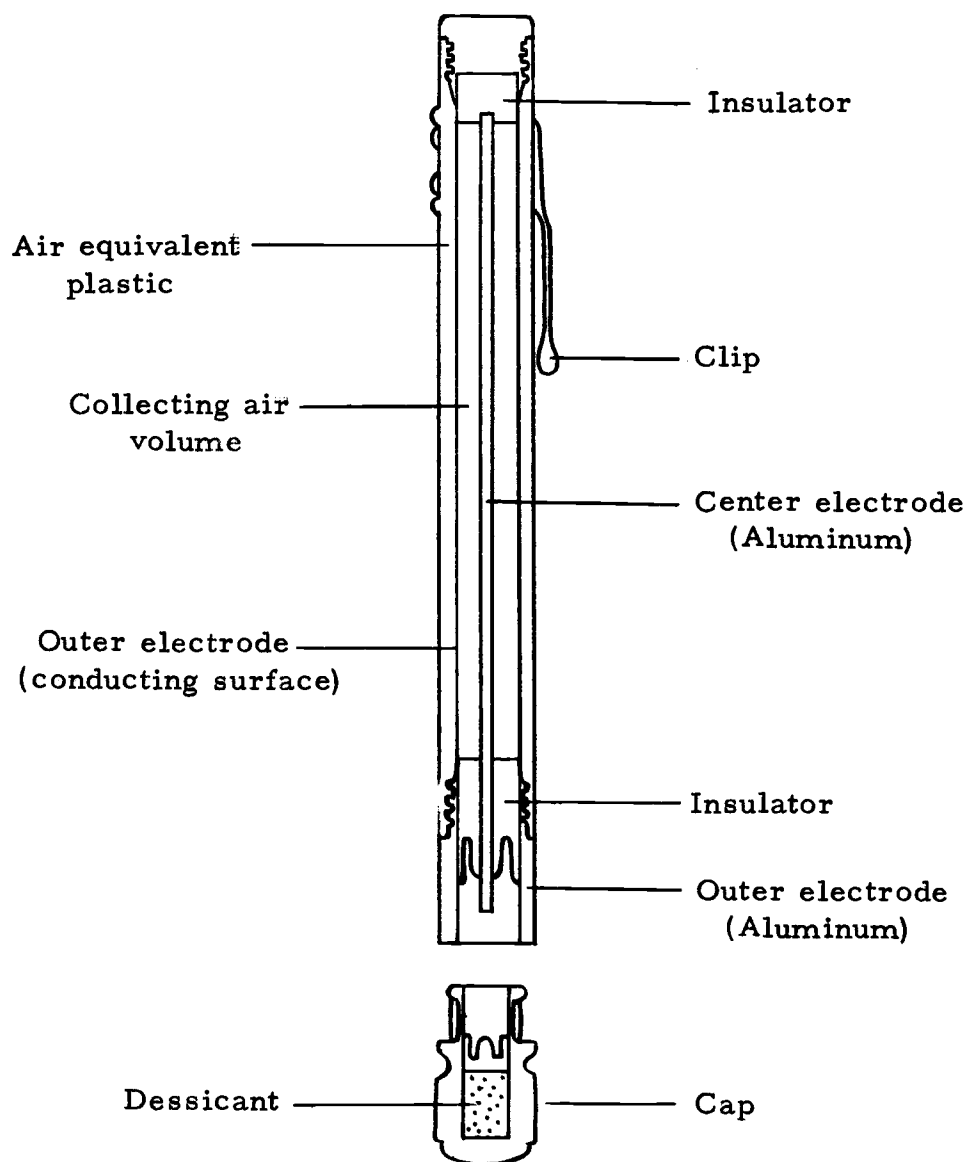


Figure 5. Cross section of Victoreen Model 362 Pocket Chamber.

Scale: 1 cm = 1 cm

potential when the chamber is inserted.

When insulators are strained, voltages are created due to the polarization of the material. This effect is called the piezoelectric effect (West and Thomson, 1964). Although these voltages are usually quite small, on the order of millivolts, they are a source of error and should be minimized. Consequently, the socket must receive the chamber in such a way that no appreciable strain is placed on either the chamber insulator or the socket insulator.

The electric field in the socket must be the same whether the chamber is in or out of the socket. If not, the change in the electric field caused by the insertion of the chamber will produce voltages. To avoid a change in field, the socket must be rigid and have essentially no moving parts.

Several sockets were tested and the one found to be the most suitable with regard to spurious voltages was a socket that was built at Battelle Northwest Laboratory. Figure 6 shows a cross section of this socket which was used in the pulse reader. The socket is a stainless steel cylinder with a polystyrene insulator. Three phosphor bronze springs contact the outer electrode of the ionization chamber and a brass center post contacts the center electrode of the chamber. In the final construction of the pulse reader, this socket produced spurious voltages equivalent to less than 0.5 mR.

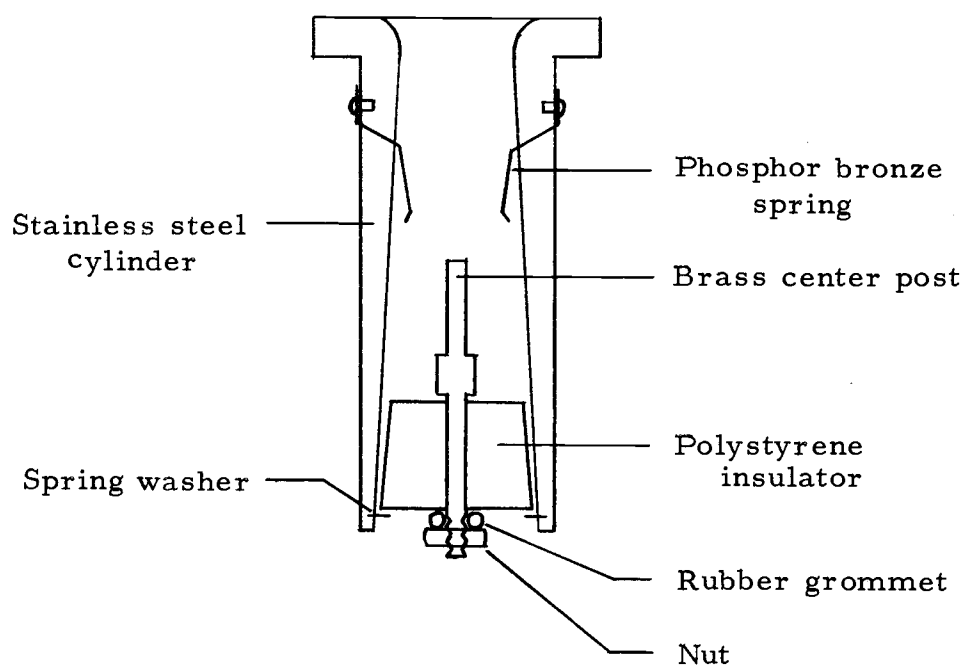


Figure 6. Cross section of ionization chamber socket.

Scale: 1 cm = 1 cm

Voltage Supply V_i . Two 22.5 volt Burgess 5156 zinc-carbon dry batteries were used. These batteries supply charging voltage for the insulated gate field effect transistor T_1 . The batteries are multi-terminal, which allows a selection of voltages up to 45 volts. Each battery has terminals which provide 3, 6, 12, 13-1/2, 16-1/2, 18, 19-1/2 and 22-1/2 volts.

The initial chamber voltage must be low enough so that the insulated gate field effect transistor is not damaged, yet high enough for good collection efficiency (Hine and Brownell, 1956). If the voltage on the chamber is too low, ion pairs produced by radiation will recombine, and the dissipated voltage will be somewhat lower than expected. With the Victoreen Model 362 Pocket Chamber, an initial charge of 45 volts is sufficient for over 99% collection efficiency at an exposure rate as high as nine R per second. If the chamber is discharged to a level as low as ten volts, exposure rates as high as 500 mR per second still would result in a collection efficiency of 99%. These values of collection efficiency and exposure rate were calculated from the expression given by Attix and Roesch (1966).

$$f = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{q}{6} \left[\frac{m(a-b)^2}{V_i} \cdot \frac{a/b + 1}{a/b - 1} \cdot \frac{\ln a/b}{2} \right]^2} \quad (7)$$

where:

- f = collection efficiency
- q = exposure rate
- m = 35.4
- V_i = chamber voltage (volts)
- a = radius of outer electrode of chamber (cm)
- b = radius of inner electrode of chamber (cm)

The chamber radii a and b were measured from a radiograph of the Model 362 Pocket Chamber and found to be 0.4 cm and 0.1 cm respectively.

The actual value of V_i is not as important as the requirement that the voltage remain constant. If the value of V_i changes between the time the chamber is charged and the time the chamber is read, erroneous results will be obtained. Also, the response of the transistor T_1 which facilitates the measurement of pulses is dependent on the value of V_i . If V_i changes, the calibration of the pulse rader will also change.

Ideally, mercury batteries would be used for voltage supply V_i since mercury batteries remain at a constant voltage throughout their lifetime (Malmstadt and Enke, 1963). Zinc-carbon batteries were used in this study however, since they are comparatively inexpensive and since their voltage could be expected to remain relatively constant due to the small current load that would be demanded. The zinc-carbon batteries proved to be satisfactory for the duration of this study.

Biasing Resistors R_2 , R_3 , and R_4 . These are Victoreen Hi-Meg Precision Deposited Carbon Resistors (Victoreen, 1968). These resistors, which are selected by switch S_1 , develop the pulse that is to be measured. The resistors are essentially biasing resistors for the insulated gate field effect transistor.

It is necessary to use resistors on the order of 10^{10} to 10^{11} ohms so that the pulses have sufficient duration to be measured. The most important requirement of these resistors is that their values remain constant. If their values change, the response of the transistor T_1 changes and this changes the calibration of the pulse reader. Victoreen Hi-Meg resistors are noted for their stability and accuracy and therefore, were chosen for use in the pulse reader.

When R_2 (10^{10} ohms) is biasing the transistor, the pulses have an RC time constant of 0.1 second. This is too fast to allow the pulses to be read easily with the milliammeter, however, the response of the meter is the most linear when R_2 is used. Also, reading and recharging the ionization chambers can be accomplished rapidly. Measuring the pulses can be facilitated by using an oscilloscope connected across R_5 .

When R_3 (10^{11} ohms) is used, the RC time constant of the pulses is one second. These pulses are long enough to be read with the milliammeter and not too much time is required for the

recharging process. For these reasons, R_3 was chosen as the biasing resistor for the calibration of the pulse reader. The milliroentgen scale of the milliammeter is only applicable when R_3 is biasing the transistor.

When R_4 (9×10^{11} ohms) is used, the RC time constant of the pulse is nine seconds. The meter response is slow and it is easy to read the pulses with the milliammeter. However, the recharging process takes the most time.

The sensitivity of the pulse reader is increased by increasing the value of the biasing resistor. However, the value of the biasing resistor must be small compared to the value of the input impedance of the insulated gate field effect transistor, which is about 10^{13} ohms. If the value of the biasing resistor is too large, the transistor will be cut off. With the use of R_1 , which is described below, the maximum value of the biasing resistor is 9×10^{11} ohms.

Resistor R_1 . This is also a Victoreen Hi-Meg resistor. The resistor adds to the input impedance of the transistor so that the 9×10^{11} ohm resistor, R_4 , can be used to increase the sensitivity and to increase the duration of the pulses. Without R_1 and with R_4 biasing the transistor, only a very small current can be drawn by the transistor (less than 0.1 milliamperes), and the transistor is essentially cut off. However, with R_1 and with R_2 or R_3 biasing the transistor, the sensitivity of the pulse reader is decreased by about

20%. That is, if either R_2 or R_3 is used as the biasing resistor and if R_1 is removed from the circuit, the sensitivity of the instrument is 20% higher than if R_1 is left in the circuit.

Potentiometer R_5 . This is a 10K ohm precision potentiometer that serves as the load for transistor T_1 and serves as a zero adjust. In the normal operation of the pulse reader, R_5 is adjusted such that the transistor draws one milliampere, which corresponds to zero on the milliroentgen scale of the meter M.

Meter M. This is a Simpson zero to one d-c milliammeter. The meter monitors the transistor current and measures the inverted current pulse which results from the insertion of the chamber into the socket. The meter is essential as a current monitor since the response of the transistor T_1 is dependent on the current drawn. The meter also serves as a read-out system and has been calibrated to read in mR when biasing resistor R_3 is used, when the operating current of transistor T_1 is one milliampere, and when the supply voltage is 45 volts.

The meter has certain disadvantages as a read-out system. The meter response can never be precisely linear since the voltage pulse that is being measured is varying with time. The voltage pulse reaches a maximum and begins to decrease before the meter registers the maximum pulse height. Therefore, the observed meter deflection will always be less than the theoretical meter

deflection. With larger voltage pulses the meter deflection will be greater and the deviation from a linear response will be greater.

Other disadvantages of using the meter as a read-out system are that the read-out display is temporary and that a reading can not be stored or repeated. If a mistake is made in reading the meter, the chamber can not be re-inserted and read again.

In spite of these disadvantages, the meter served as an adequate read-out system for the purposes of this study.

Shunt Resistors R_6 and R_7 . These resistors are shunts for the meter M. They extend the range of the zero to one milliammeter. When R_6 is selected by switch S_3 , the current indicated by the meter should be multiplied by two, and when R_7 is selected, the multiplication factor is five. When S_3 is in the x 1 position, no shunt is in the circuit and the actual value of the transistor current is indicated by the meter.

The transistor response depends on the operating current of the transistor; the use of R_6 and R_7 allows the selection of different operating currents. Various tests made during the course of this study indicate that optimum operating current for this pulse reader design is one mA. Using larger currents slows the meter response, but the load on the batteries is greater and overall sensitivity is decreased so that less meter response is obtained for a given exposure.

Transistor T₁. This is an insulated gate field effect transistor, Motorola 2N3796. The insulated gate field effect transistor (IGFET) is a fairly recent development (Lancaster, 1966). The most prominent feature of this transistor is its high input impedance of from 10^{13} ohms to 10^{15} ohms, and this feature makes this transistor suitable for use in the pulse reader. Figure 7 shows the basic construction of the insulated gate field effect transistor.

The Motorola 2N3796 is a p-channel transistor which consists primarily of p-type and n-type silicon. A p-type material is a semiconductor that is deficient in electrons, and an n-type material is a semiconductor that has an excess of electrons (Wiesner, 1964). The actual size of the transistor is approximately the size of a pin head, but when the transistor is placed in a Type TO-18 can, the entire component is the size of a large pea. The small size allows the transistor socket to be mounted directly on the center post of the ionization chamber socket, which reduces the stray capacitance.

As shown in Figure 7 (a) the transistor consists of a p-type substrate into which two identical n-type regions have been diffused. The source and drain terminals are formed by making contact to the two n-type regions. Between the two n-type regions a one picofarad capacitor is formed by the p-type substrate, a silicon dioxide insulator, and a metallic gate terminal.

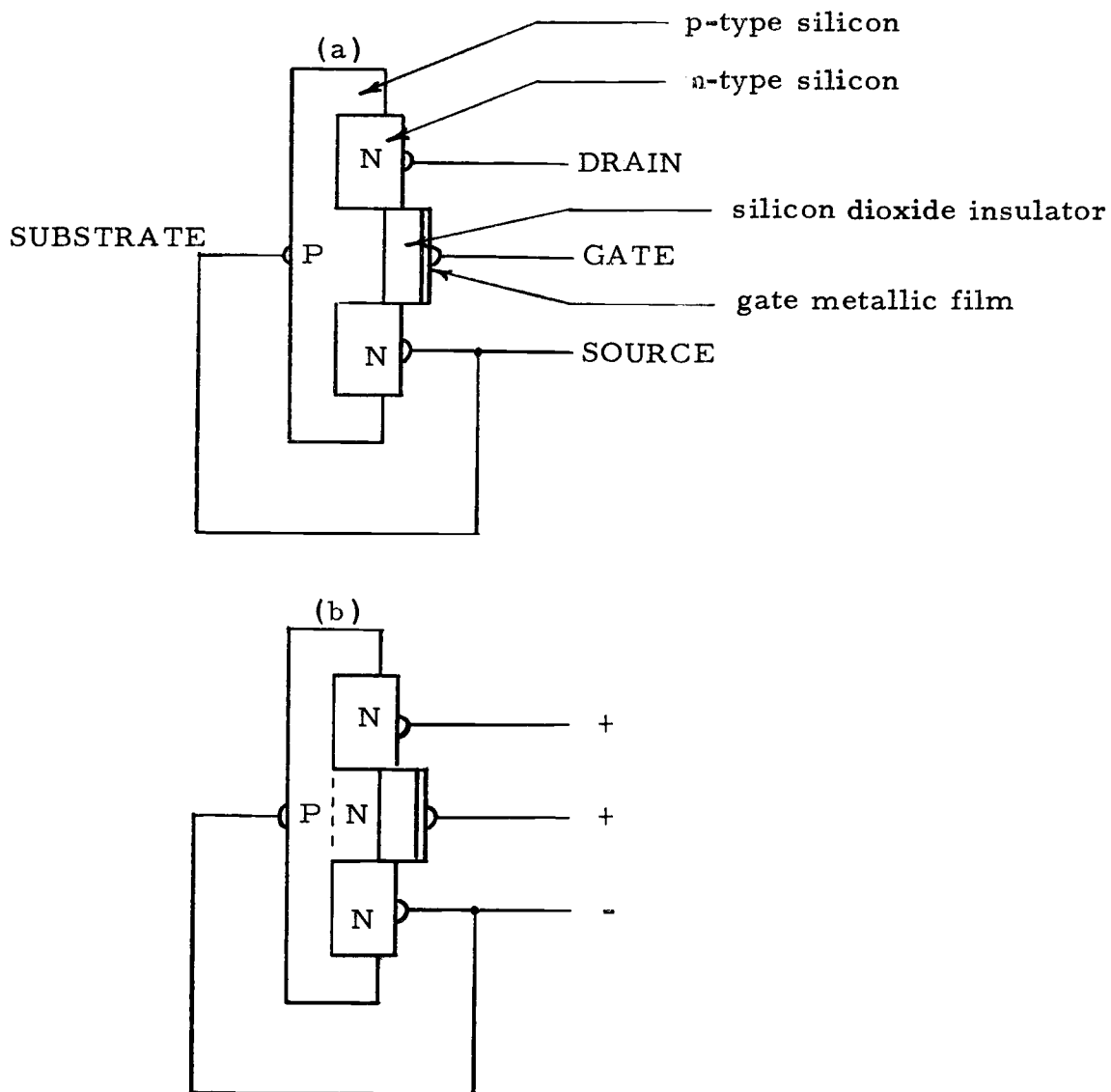


Figure 7. Insulated gate field effect transistor.

In (a) no voltage is on the gate and the transistor is off. In (b) the gate is biased positively and the transistor is on.

The source and substrate are connected to a negative potential and the drain is connected to a positive potential. With no positive gate voltage, no current will flow between drain and source since the n-p-n configuration will not conduct. With a positive voltage on the gate which implies a positive charge on the gate terminal end of the gate capacitor, a negative charge builds up on the substrate end of the gate capacitor. The negative charge causes the p-type region between drain and source to become more like n-type material. The transistor then becomes an n-n-n configuration as shown in Figure 7(b), and the transistor conducts. The extent to which the transistor conducts is directly proportional to the amount of positive voltage on the gate.

In the normal operation of the pulse reader, the source is at ground potential and the drain is at approximately +45 volts (disregarding any voltage drop across R_5 , meter M, and other components). The gate is also at +45 volts, and so is the ionization chamber socket. The positive bias on the gate causes the transistor to conduct and the milliammeter indicates the current being drawn. When an exposed ionization chamber is inserted into the socket, a negative pulse is developed by the biasing resistor and this pulse is felt on the gate of the IGFET. This causes the transistor to conduct less, and the minimum current drawn is proportional to the voltage pulse

on the gate, which is proportional to the radiation exposure received by the ionization chamber.

As in the case with most transistors, the IGFET is temperature sensitive (Motorola, 1967). Also, there may be long term changes in the transistor that affect its performance. Temperature and other effects were not measurable in this study. The pulse reader was operated at room temperatures, and during the limited time of this study, the transistor was stable.

Terminals J₁ and J₂. These terminals are jacks to which an oscilloscope can be connected. The oscilloscope was used to study and measure the pulses detected by the transistor and developed across R₅. The height of the pulse observed is proportional to the radiation exposure received by the chamber, and the oscilloscope can be used as a read-out system instead of meter M.

Switches S₁, S₂, S₃, and S₄. Switch S₁ selects the biasing resistor for the transistor T₁. The switch is labeled "Sensitivity". The "lo", "med", and "hi" positions select R₂, R₃, and R₄ respectively.

Switch S₂ facilitates changing from one read-out system to another. With S₂ closed, terminals J₁ and J₂ are connected across R₅. The switch is labeled "Scope Input".

Switch S₃ selects the shunt resistor for the milliammeter. The switch is labeled "Meter Shunt". The xl position selects no

shunt resistor, the x2 position selects resistor R_6 , and the x5 position selects resistor R_7 .

Switch S_4 is the on-off switch for the pulse reader. The switch prevents battery drain when the pulse reader is not in use. The switch is labeled "Power".

IV. OPERATION OF THE PULSE READER

Operating Instructions

The instrument is operated by first turning the switch designated "Power" to the "on" position. If the meter is to be used to read an exposure, no meter shunt should be used and the biasing resistor should be R_3 . Therefore, the switch designated "Meter Shunt" should be in the x1 position and the switch designated "Sensitivity" should be in the "med" position. Also, the voltage supply should be 45 volts. The zero to one d-c milliammeter should be zeroed (adjusted to zero on the mR scale of the meter or 1.0 mA on the milliampere scale of the meter) with the control designated "Zero Adjust." A chamber can then be inserted and after a few seconds the meter will again read zero mR. The chamber is now charged and can be removed and exposed to radiation. To read the exposure, insert the chamber into the socket and read the maximum meter deflection in milliroentgens.

The operation of the pulse reader is similar to the above when other shunt resistors, other biasing resistors, or different supply voltages are used. However, the milliroentgen scale of the meter is no longer calibrated.

When the meter shunt switch is placed in the x2 or x5 position, the current indicated on the mA scale of the meter should be multiplied

by a factor of two and five respectively. When the sensitivity switch is in the "lo" position, R_2 is selected as the biasing resistor. When the sensitivity switch is in the "hi" position, R_4 is the biasing resistor. Various voltages can be selected by choosing the proper battery terminals of the voltage supply.

Circuit Dynamics

The following description of circuit operation applies when the resistor R_3 is used and when no meter shunt is used. The operation of the circuit is similar when either R_2 or R_4 is used for transistor biasing and when either R_6 or R_7 is used for a meter shunt.

When the power switch is turned to the on position, current begins to flow through R_3 and the ionization chamber socket begins to charge. As the ionization chamber socket charges, a positive potential develops on the gate of the transistor T_1 . This causes the transistor to conduct. After sufficient time, the ionization chamber socket is fully charged. This charge will actually be somewhat less than the battery voltage V_1 , due to the IR drop across R_5 . The final voltage on the socket will also be the potential on the gate of the IGFET. The potentiometer R_5 is used to adjust the final transistor current to one milliamper. When an exposed chamber is inserted into the socket, the charge on the chamber and

the charge on the socket immediately equalize. The reduced positive charge of the socket and chamber is felt almost immediately on the gate of the IGFET. (The gate capacitor discharges through R_1 with a time constant of 0.1 second.) The reduced positive gate potential causes the transistor to conduct less current, which is indicated by the response of meter M. Current begins to flow through R_3 and the combined capacitors of chamber and socket begin to charge. Eventually, the chamber and socket are fully charged and the transistor is again drawing one milliamperere of current.

V. TESTING OF PULSE READER

Pulse Reader Response to Charged Ionization Chambers

A method of testing the theory and operation of the pulse reader was devised without having to expose chambers to radiation. A socket nearly identical to the socket used in the pulse reader was charged to various voltages using a variable voltage source. A chamber inserted into this socket becomes charged to whatever voltage is selected and this simulates radiation exposure to the chamber. The chamber is then read with the pulse reader and the height of the pulses corresponding to various chamber voltages can be determined.

Figure 8 is a plot of current pulse versus chamber voltage when biasing resistors R_2 , R_3 , and R_4 are used. Operating current for the transistor is one milliamperere and supply voltage is 45 volts. The sensitivity of the pulse reader is indicated by the slope of the curve; the steeper the slope the greater is the sensitivity. The graph indicates that the pulse reader is most sensitive when R_4 is used and least sensitive when R_2 is used. The graph also indicates that the actual initial chamber voltage (and drain voltage for the transistor) is 39 volts instead of 45 volts. This is due to the voltage drop across R_5 .

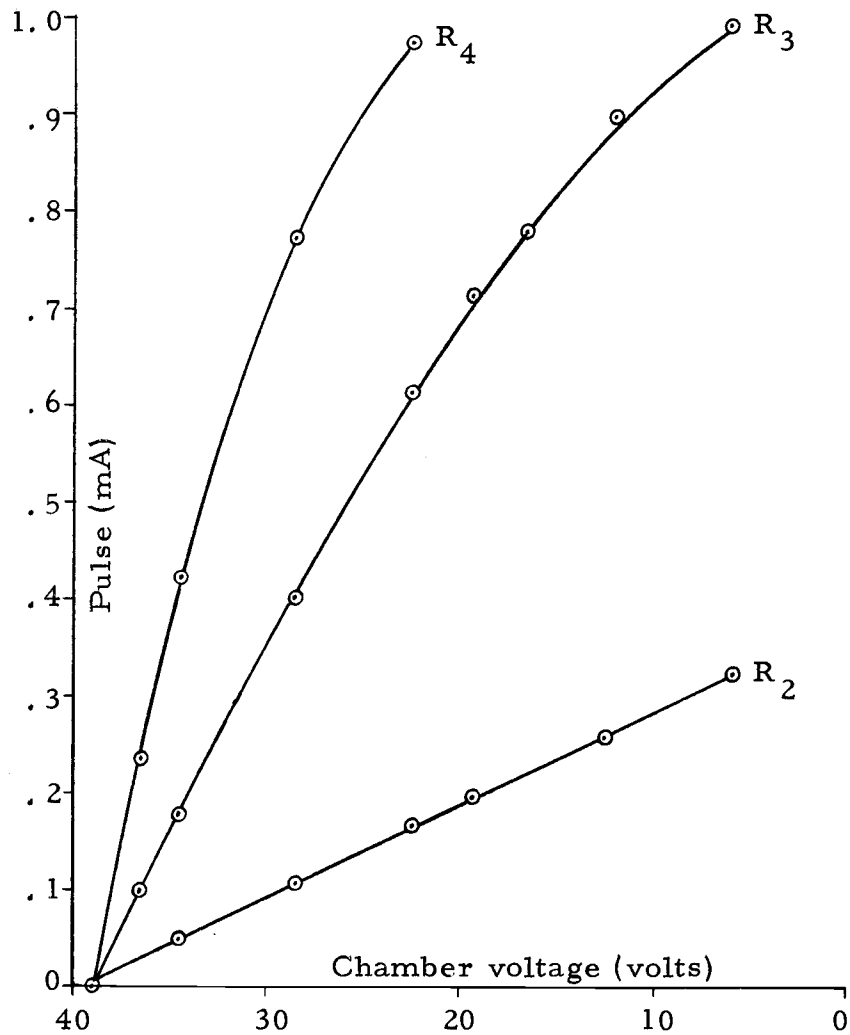


Figure 8. Pulse reader response to charged ionization chambers using biasing resistors R_2 , R_3 , and R_4 .

Transistor current: 1.0 mA

Supply voltage: 45 volts

Date: February 26, 1969

In section II it was calculated that a ten mR exposure would dissipate 3.09 volts from the Model 362 Pocket Chamber. If the initial chamber voltage is 39 volts, then the final chamber voltage after a ten mR exposure would be:

$$V_f = 39.00 - 3.09 = 35.91 \text{ volts}$$

According to Figure 8, a chamber charged to 35.91 volts produces a pulse of 0.13 mA when R_3 is used, and if all the preceding theory and calculations are correct, this 0.13 mA pulse should correspond to a ten mR exposure. It can be seen from Figure 20, which is the pulse reader calibration curve, that a pulse of 0.13 mA is actually equivalent to an 8.0 mR exposure. This shows good agreement between theory and observation.

The fact that the response is not linear when either R_3 or R_4 is used as the biasing resistor does not imply that the transistor is non-linear in its response. Rather, the deviation from linearity is due to the variation of the voltage pulses with time.

To illustrate how a different type of read-out system can be employed to measure the pulses, an oscilloscope was used to view the pulses developed across R_5 when chambers charged to various voltages were inserted into the socket. A plot of pulse height as measured from the oscilloscope versus chamber voltage is given in Figure 9. Biasing resistor R_2 was used, operating current was one

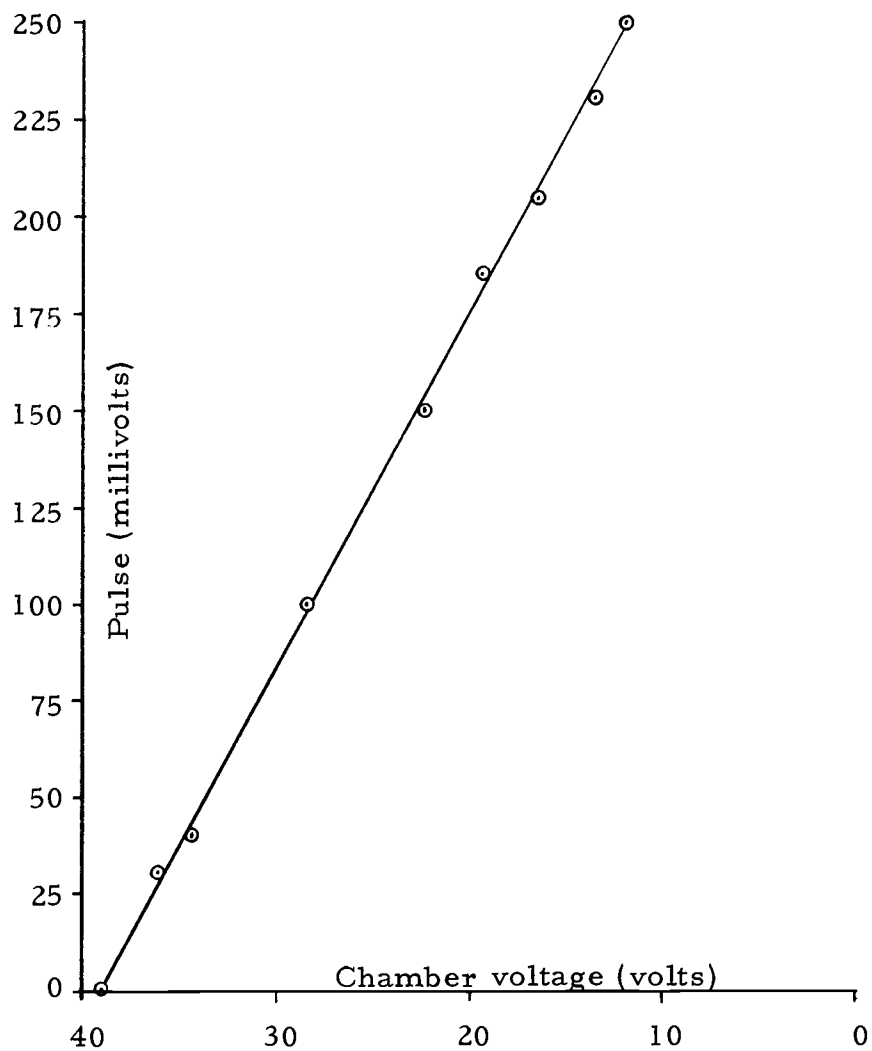


Figure 9. Pulse reader response to charged ionization chambers, pulse height measured with oscilloscope.

Biasing resistor: R_2

Transistor current: 1.0 mA

Voltage supply: 45 volts

Date: April 14, 1969

mA, and the supply voltage was 45 volts.

The response observed with the oscilloscope is linear. Since a chamber charged to 35.91 volts is approximately equivalent to a chamber exposed to ten mR, it can be seen from Figure 9 that a ten mR exposure produces about a 30 millivolt pulse across R_5 . A one mR exposure would then produce a pulse of 3.0 millivolts. Since pulses much smaller than one millivolt are easily amplified by conventional amplifiers (Malmstadt and Enke, 1963), it appears that it would be theoretically possible to measure exposures much smaller than one mR with the pulse reader if a suitable amplifier and an adequate read-out system were used.

Pulse Reader Response to Radium

A two milligram Victoreen Radium Standard, Model 540B (Serial no. 261) was used to study the pulse reader response to radium radiation. The data shown in Figures 10, 11, and 12 were obtained by exposing five chambers simultaneously and averaging the readings obtained from the chambers. Each chamber was placed three centimeters from the surface of the lead cylinder which serves as the source container. A stop watch was used to measure the exposure time. The exposure rate was measured with the calibrated pulse reader and found to be 1.67 mR per minute.

This exposure rate agrees with measurements made with a survey meter.

Figure 10 shows the pulse reader response to radiation when biasing resistor R_3 or R_4 is used. Figure 11 shows how the response varies when different operating currents are used, and Figure 12 shows how the response of the pulse reader varies when different supply voltages are used.

The radium response graphs show that the sensitivity of the pulse reader can be adjusted by changing the biasing resistor, the operating current, or the supply voltage.

Pulse Reader Response to X-Rays

The purpose of this test was to check the energy dependence of the pulse reader. X-rays with effective energies of 33, 70, 100, 122, 139, and 152 keV were used to expose a single chamber. Effective energies were estimated from half-value layer determinations (Trout, Kelley, and Lucas, 1960). Exposures were measured with a Victoreen Model 555 Radicon II Integrating Ratemeter, using either chamber IMA or IOLA. Chamber IMA was used to measure the 70, 100, 122, 139, and 152 keV x-rays, and chamber IOLA was used to measure the 33 keV x-rays. Exposure rates were always less than two mR per second. Exposures were corrected for temperature, pressure, and for energy dependence of the IOLA or the IMA chamber.

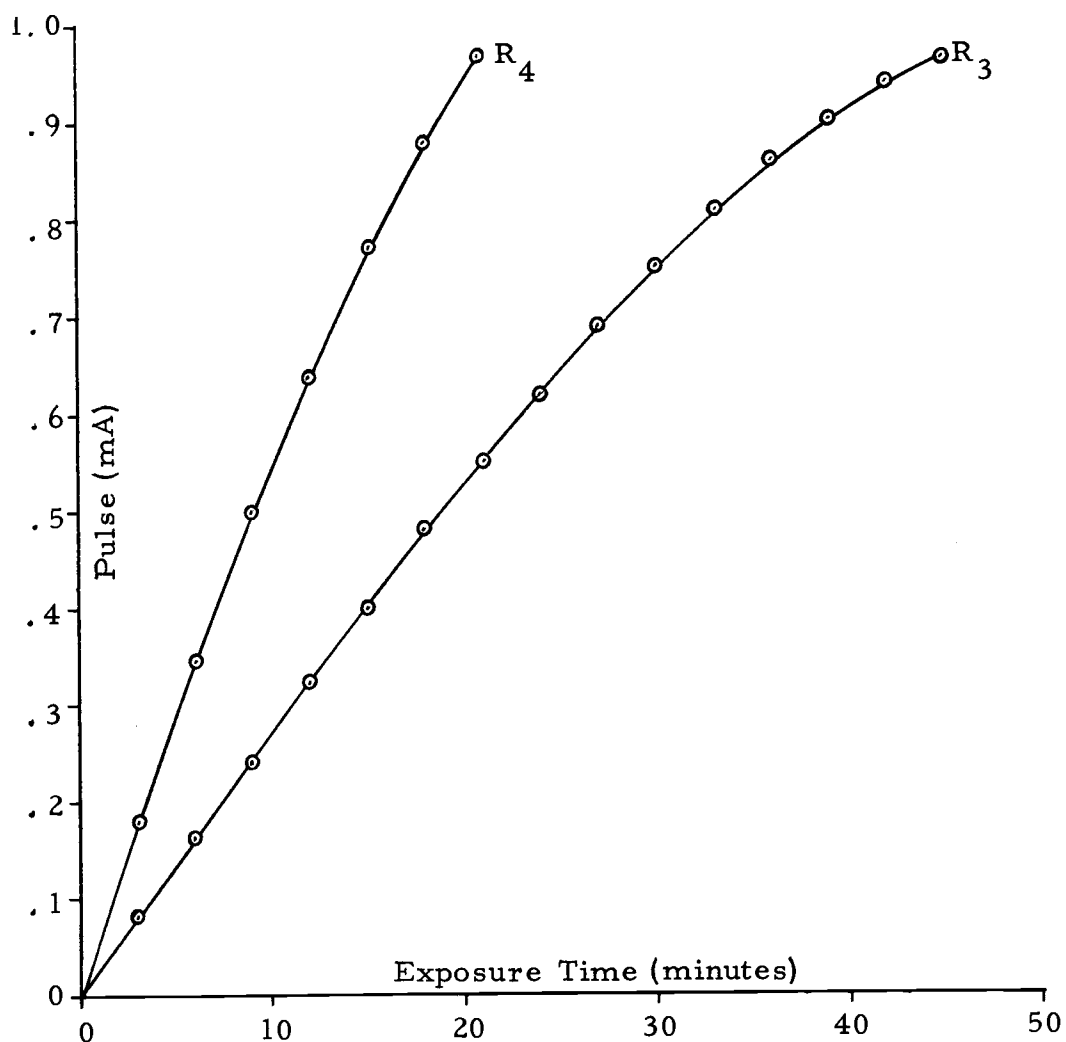


Figure 10. Pulse reader response to radium using biasing resistors R₃ and R₄.

Transistor current: 1.0 mA
Supply voltage: 45 volts

Victoreen Radium Standard
Model 540B, Serial no. 261
Source container to chamber
distance: 3 cm

Date: March 4, 1969
Temperature: 22°C
Pressure: 766 mm Hg

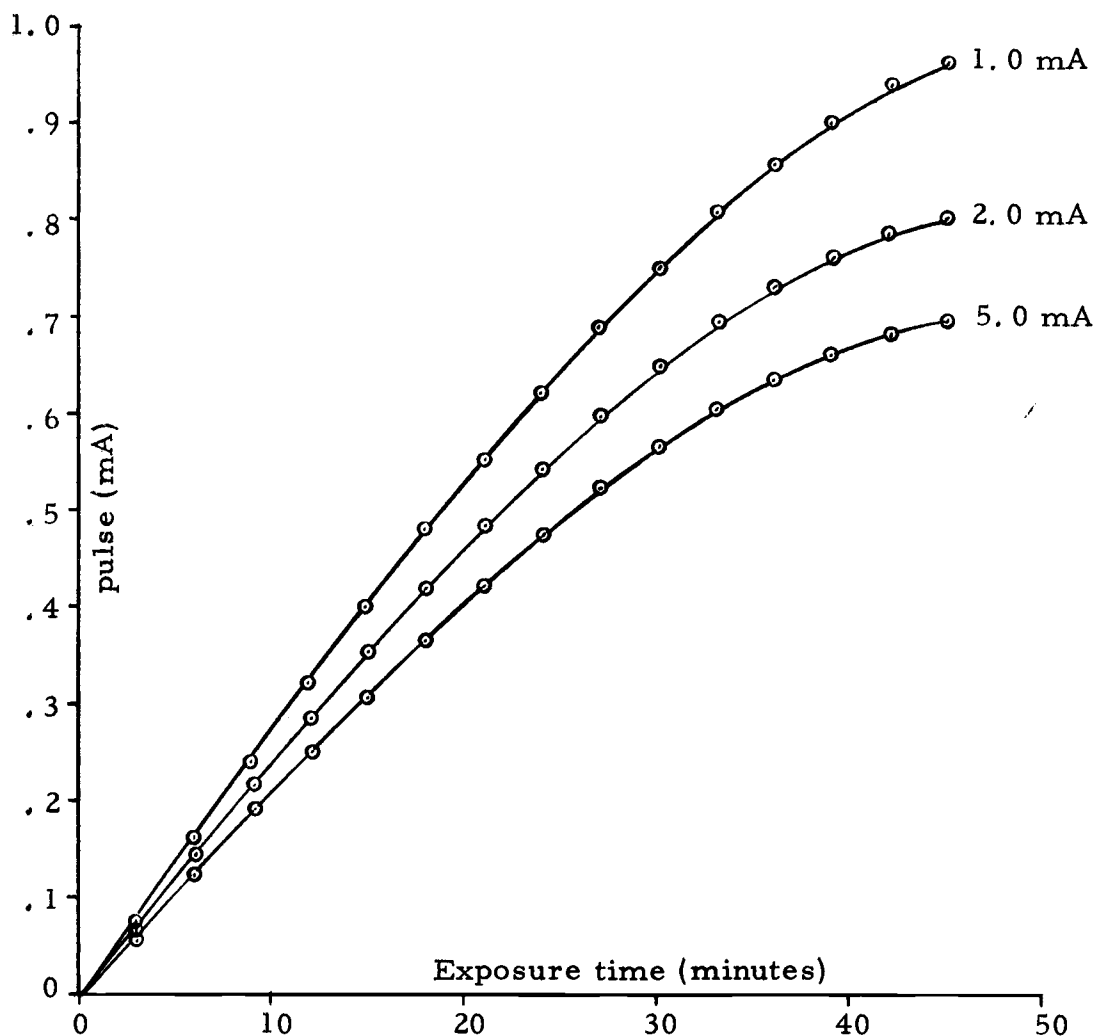


Figure 11. Pulse reader response to radium using transistor operating currents of 1.0, 2.0, and 5.0 mA.

Supply voltage: 45 volts
 Biasing resistor: R_3

Victoreen Radium Standard
 Model 540B, Serial no. 261
 Source container to chamber
 distance: 3 cm

Date: January 24, 1969
 Temperature: 23°C
 Pressure: 756 mm Hg

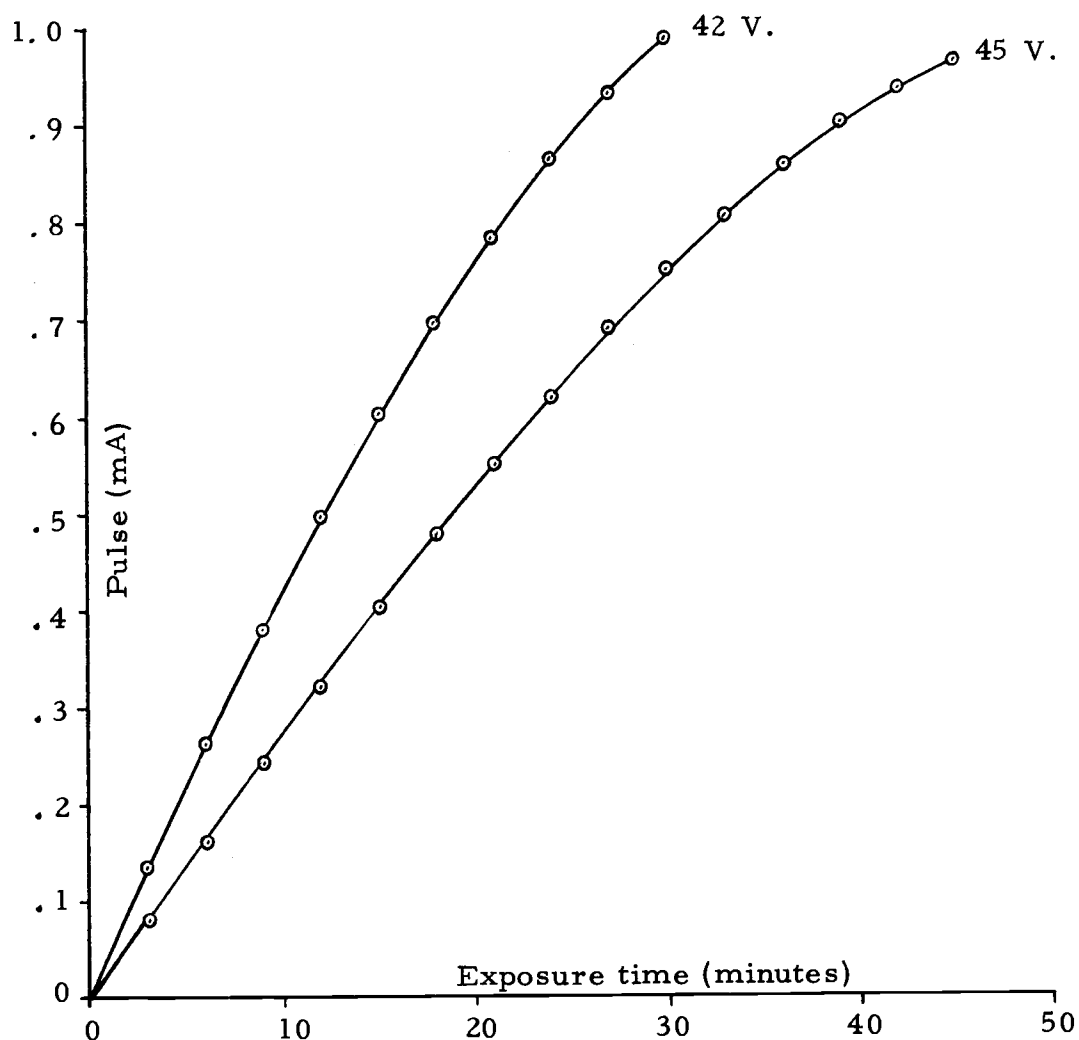


Figure 12. Pulse reader response to radium using supply voltages of 42 and 45 volts.

Biassing resistor: R_3
 Transistor current: 1.0 mA

Victoreen Radium Standard
 Model 540B, Serial no. 261
 Source container to chamber
 distance: 3 cm

Date: June 27, 1969
 Temperature: 23°C
 Pressure: 760 mmHg

A General Electric Maximar 100 was used to produce the 33 keV x-rays. Data were collected under the following operating conditions:

Tube voltage: 100 kVp
Tube current: 0.5 mA
Total filtration: 3.00 mm Al
Cone: 10 cm diameter and 30 cm from source to end of cone
Source to filter distance: 7.0 cm
Source to chamber distance: 400 cm

Figure 13 is a plot of the pulse reader response to 33 keV x-rays. Biasing resistor R_4 was used, the operating current for the transistor was 1.0 mA, and the pulse reader voltage supply was 45 volts.

A General Electric Maxitron 300 was used to produce the 70 to 152 keV x-rays. Data were collected under the following operating conditions:

Tube voltage: 100, 150, 200, 250 and 300 kVp for 70, 100, 122, 139, and 152 keV respectively.
Tube current: 2.0 mA
Total filtration: 4.00 mm Cu
Field size at chamber: 10 x 10 cm
Source to chamber distance: 290 cm

Figure 14, 15, 16, 17, and 18 are plots of the pulse reader response to the 70 to 152 keV x-rays. The biasing resistor R_4 was used, transistor current was one mA, and the pulse reader supply voltage was 45 volts.

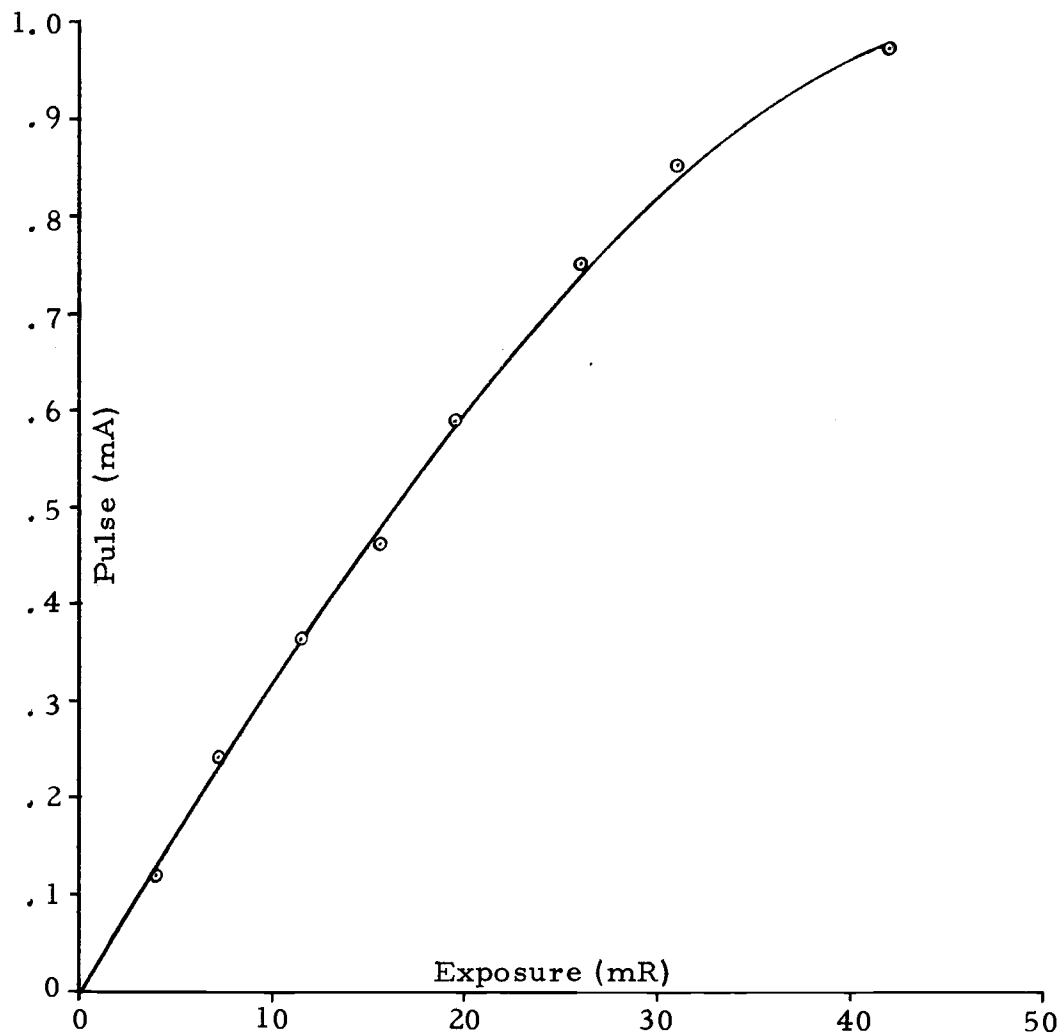


Figure 13. Pulse reader response to x-rays: 33 keV

Biasing resistor: R_4

Transistor current: 1.0 mA

Supply voltage: 45 volts

Date: May 9, 1969

Temperature: 23°C

Pressure: 763 mm Hg

Tube voltage: 100 kVp

Tube current: 0.5 mA

Total filtration: 3.0 mm Al

Cone: 10 cm diameter, 30 cm
from source to end of
cone

Source to filter distance: 7 cm

Source to chamber distance:

400 cm

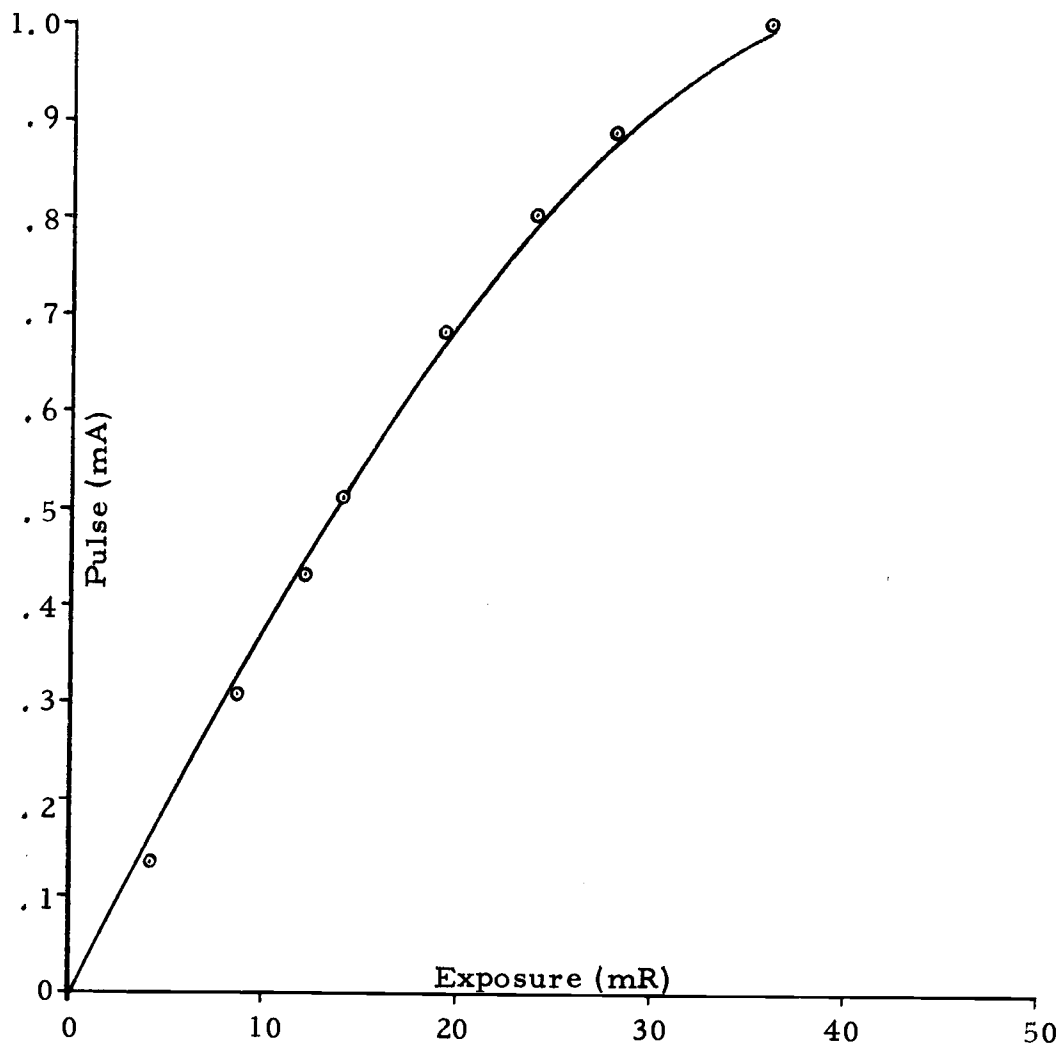


Figure 14. Pulse reader response to x-rays; 70 keV

Biassing resistor: R_4
Transistor current: 1.0 mA
Supply voltage: 45 volts

Date: May 9, 1969
Temperature: 23°C
Pressure: 763 mm Hg

Tube voltage: 100 kVp
Tube current: 2.0 mA
Total filtration: 4.0 mm Cu
Field size at chamber:
10 x 10 in cm
Source to chamber distance:
290 cm

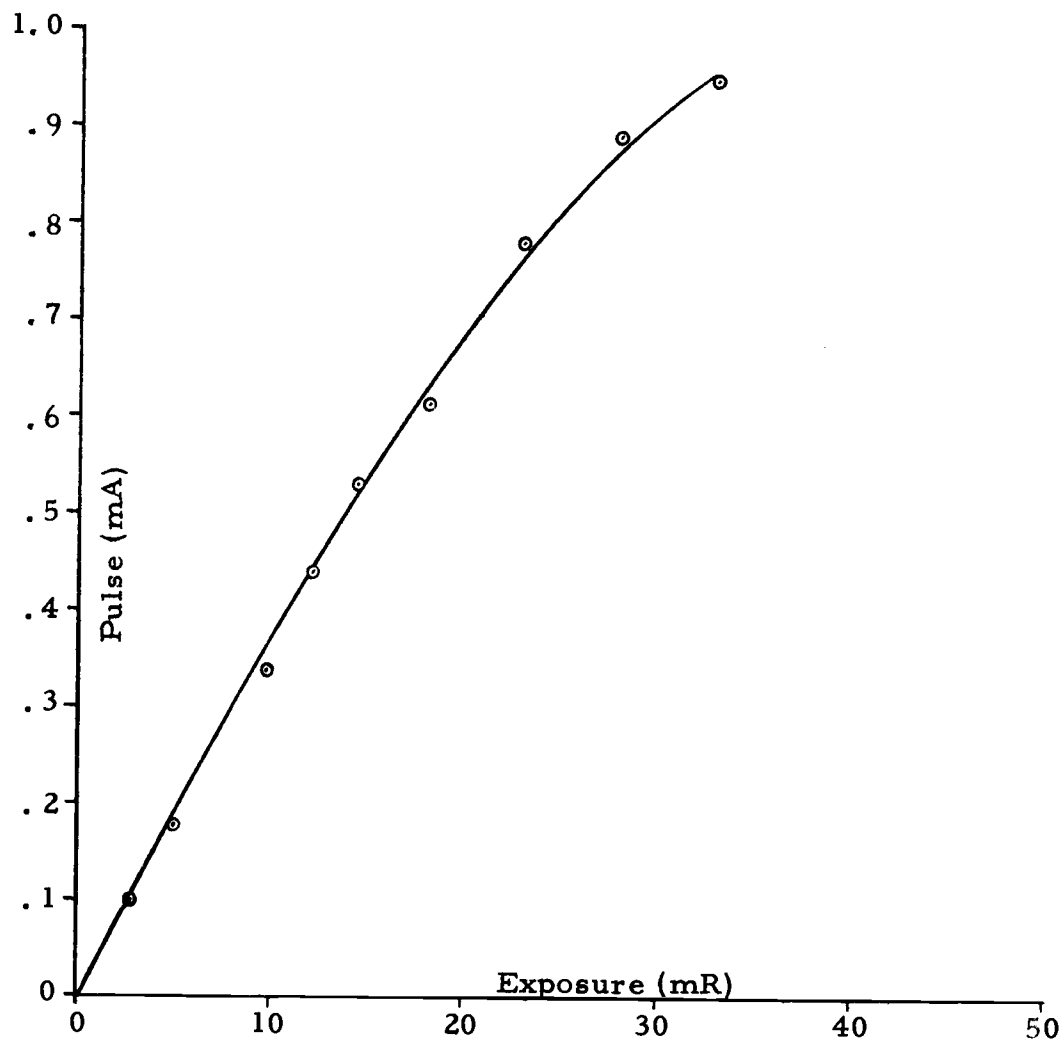


Figure 15. Pulse reader response to x-rays; 100 keV

Biassing resistor: R_4
 Transistor current: 1.0 mA
 Supply voltage: 45 volts

Date: May 9, 1969
 Temperature: 23°C
 Pressure: 763 mm Hg

Tube voltage: 150 kVp
 Tube current: 2.0 mA
 Total filtration: 4.00 mm Cu
 Field size at chamber:
 10 x 10 in cm
 Source to chamber distance:
 290 cm

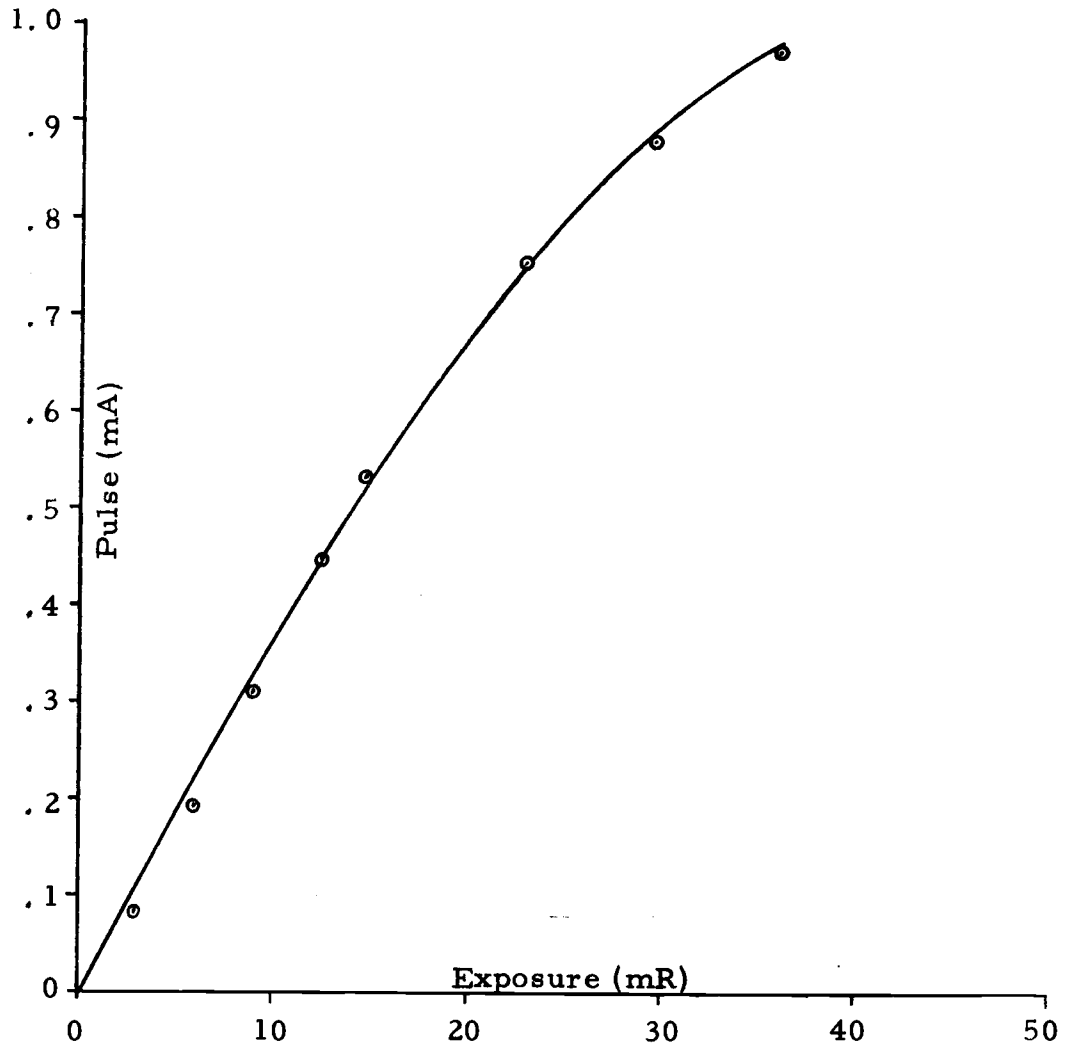


Figure 16. Pulse reader response to x-rays; 122 keV

Biasing resistor: R_4
 Transistor current: 1.0 mA
 Supply voltage: 45 volts

Date: May 9, 1969
 Temperature: 23°C
 Pressure: 763 mm Hg

Tube voltage: 200 kVp
 Tube current: 2.0 mA
 Total filtration: 4.00 mm Cu
 Field size at chamber:
 10 x 10 in cm
 Source to chamber distance:
 290 cm

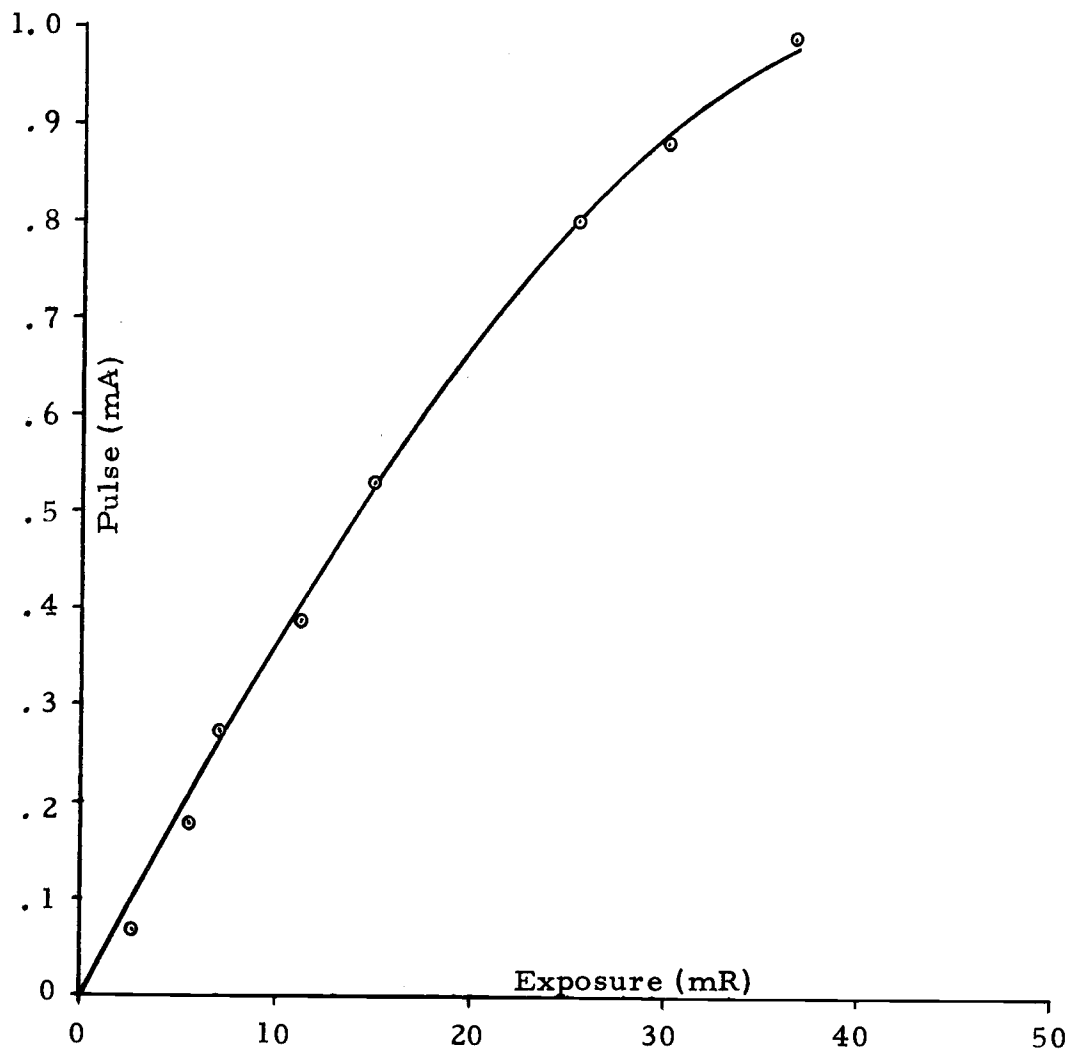


Figure 17. Pulse reader response to x-rays; 139 keV

Biasing resistor: R_4

Transistor current: 1.0 mA
Supply voltage: 45 volts

Date: May 9, 1969
Temperature: 23°C
Pressure: 763 mm Hg

Tube voltage: 250 kVp
Tube current: 2.0 mA
Total filtration: 4.00 mm Cu
Field size at chamber:
10 x 10 in cm
Source to chamber distance:
290 cm

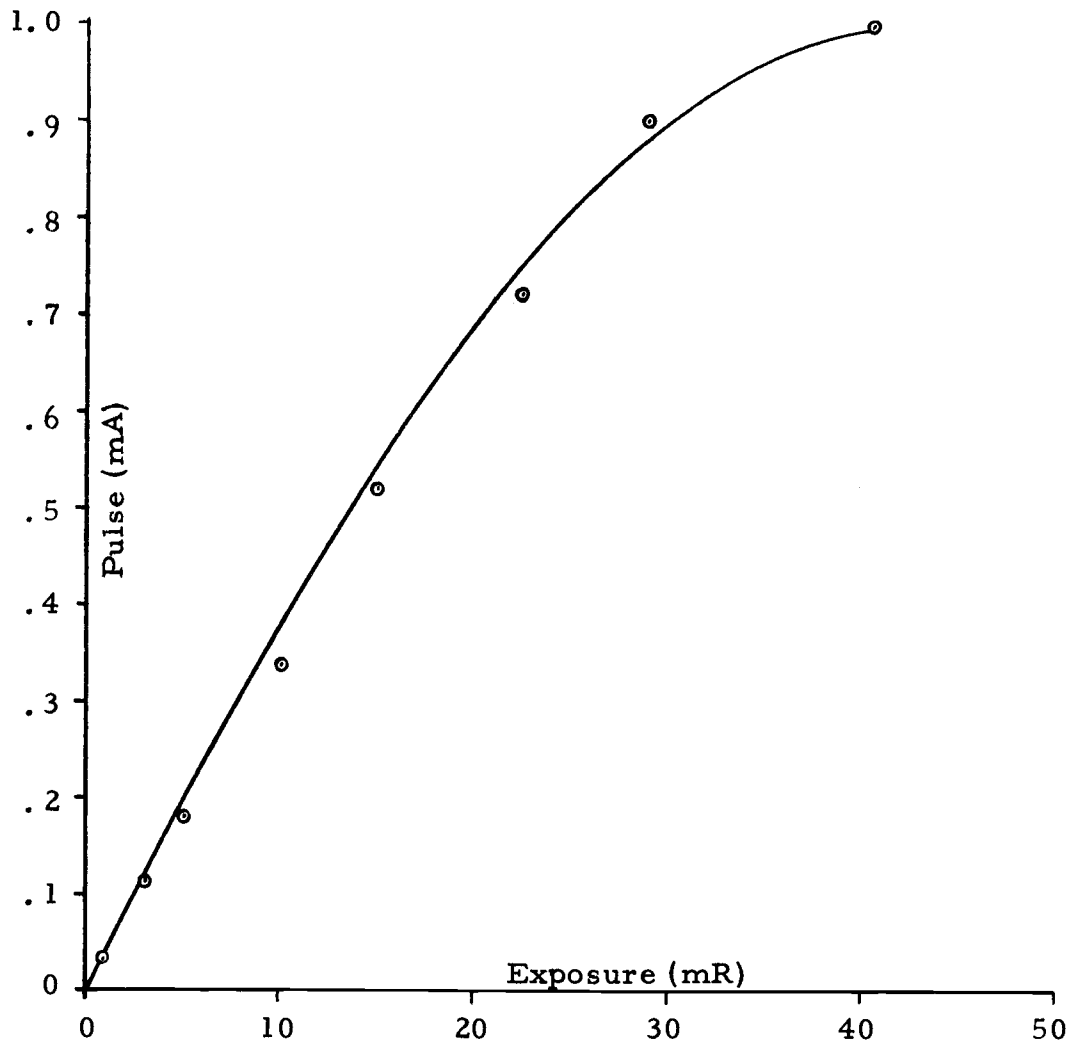


Figure 18. Pulse reader response to x-rays; 152 keV

Biassing resistor: R_4
 Transistor current: 1.0 mA
 Supply voltage: 45 volts

Date: May 9, 1969
 Temperature: 23°C
 Pressure: 763 mm Hg

Tube voltage: 300 kVp
 Tube current: 2.0 mA
 Total filtration: 4.00 mmCu
 Field size at chamber:
 10 x 10 in cm
 Source to chamber distance:
 290 cm

Figure 19 is a plot of the relative pulse reader response versus effective x-ray energy. The response at 15 mR with 152 keV x-rays was set equal to unity and the relative responses at 15 mR for the other x-ray energies were determined from the graphs in Figures 14 through 18. It can be seen from Figure 19 that the energy dependence of the pulse reader is approximately 14% for x-ray energies between 33 keV and 152 keV. This energy dependence is within the Victoreen specifications for the Model 362 Pocket Chamber. The specifications give the energy dependence as $\pm 15\%$ for energies between 30 keV and 1.2 MeV.

Pulse Reader Stability

Temperature Dependence. The temperature dependence of the pulse reader was investigated after the instrument had been calibrated to read in mR with 152 keV x-rays. The purpose of the investigation was to determine if the pulse reader calibration would change with a change in temperature. A Victoreen Radium Standard, Model 540B (Serial no. 261) was used since this source produces a constant radiation field. A single chamber (Victoreen Model 362 Pocket Chamber, Serial no. 24450) was exposed to the radium source for 18 minutes. The chamber was placed three centimeters from the source container. All exposures were corrected to a temperature of 22°C and a pressure of 760 mm mercury.

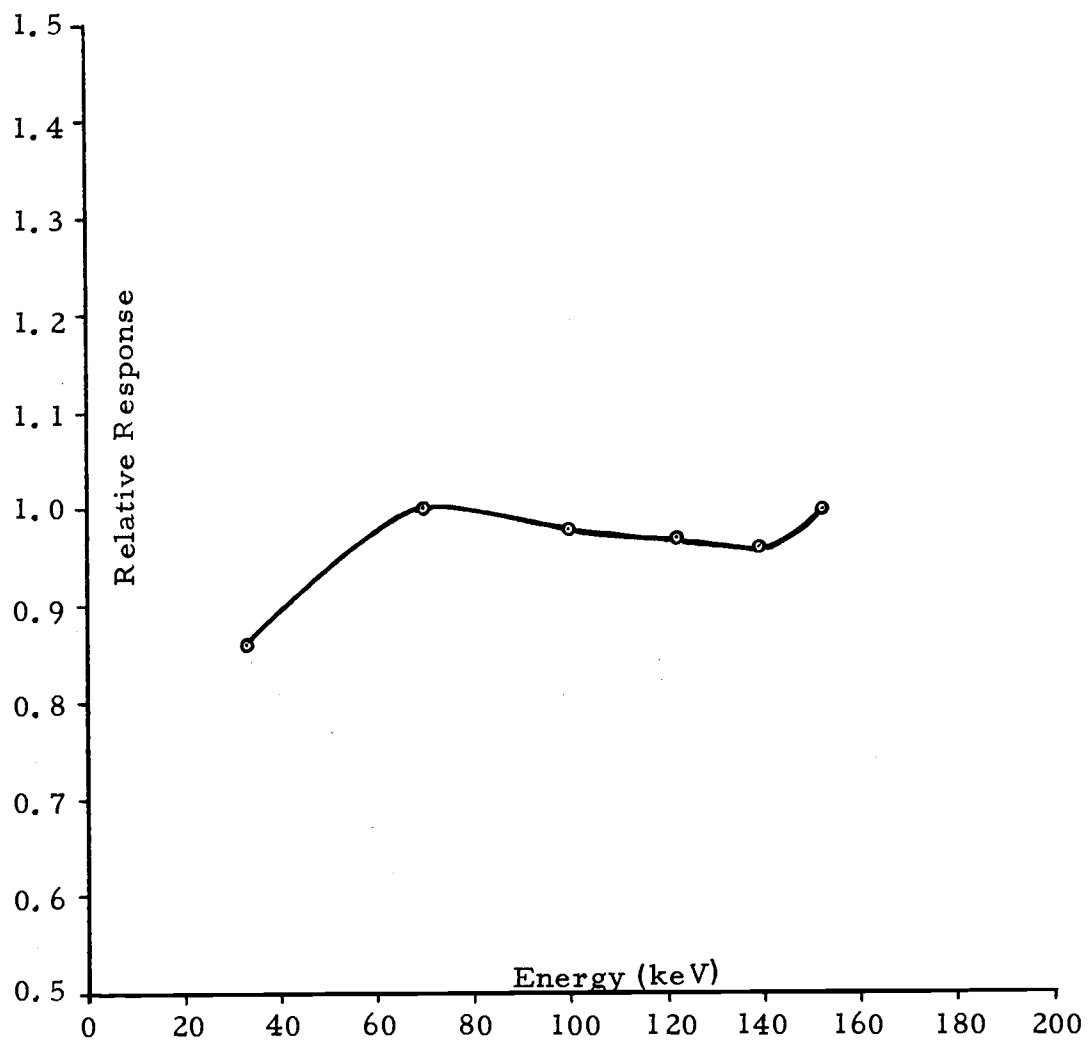


Figure 19. Pulse reader energy dependence.

The data in Table I were collected over a period of twelve hours. For each exposure, the charging, exposing, and reading of chambers were performed at the same temperature.

The average of the exposures in Table I is 29.9 mR and the standard deviation is 0.57 mR. The data indicate that the pulse reader temperature dependence when chambers are charged, exposed, and read at the same temperature is not significant when compared to the precision of the pulse reader which was measured to be ± 1.0 mR for exposures of 30 mR.

TABLE I. CHARGING, EXPOSING, AND READING
AT THE SAME TEMPERATURE

Temperature ($^{\circ}$ C)	Exposure (mR)
21.0	29.6
22.0	30.0
23.0	30.0
23.5	29.0
24.0	31.0
26.0	29.6
27.0	29.9
28.0	30.1

The pulse reader response when chambers are charged, exposed, and read at different temperatures was also investigated. The data in Table II were collected over a period of four hours. The different temperatures were obtained by using a Revco freezer or by using two different rooms that were at different temperatures.

The average of the exposures in Table II is 29.6 mR and the standard deviation is 0.93 mR. The data indicate that the pulse reader response does not vary significantly when charging, exposing, and reading the chamber are performed at different temperatures ranging from 20°C to 29°C.

It should be noted that the zero of the meter changes slightly when the temperature of the pulse reader changes. If the meter is zeroed at 25°C and the temperature is then raised to 28°C, the meter will read 5.0 mR. Care must be taken to keep the meter zeroed when reading exposures and when charging chambers.

TABLE II. CHARGING, EXPOSING, AND READING AT DIFFERENT TEMPERATURES

Charging Temperature (°C)	Exposing Temperature (°C)	Reading Temperature (°C)	Exposure (mR)
27.5	27.5	24.0	28.9
24.0	28.0	21.0	30.4
28.0	28.0	25.0	29.2
25.0	28.0	28.0	30.4
28.0	28.0	20.0	28.3
29.0	29.0	20.0	30.5

There is little doubt that temperature effects on the pulse reader do exist. The values of the Victoreen Hi-Meg resistors change slightly with temperature and there are temperature effects on the insulated gate field effect transistor. Significant temperature effects were not measurable in this study since the temperature

range investigated was small and the temperature effects were of the same magnitude as the precision of the pulse reader.

Time Dependence. The purpose of this test was to investigate any changes in the pulse reader calibration over a period of time. Five chambers were exposed simultaneously to the Victoreen Radium Source, Model 540B for 18 minutes. The exposures were determined by averaging the five chamber readings. The chambers were placed three centimeters from the surface of the source container. All exposures were corrected to a temperature of 22°C and a pressure of 760 mm of mercury.

The data in Table III were collected over a period of two months. The data indicate that the pulse reader is stable for the period of time investigated.

TABLE III. PULSE READER RESPONSE OVER
A TWO MONTH PERIOD

Date	Temperature (°C)	Pressure (mm Hg)	Corrected Exposure (mR)
June 6, 1969	22.0	756.0	30.0
June 16, 1969	23.0	758.7	29.8
June 27, 1969	23.0	760.1	31.0
June 30, 1969	23.0	759.9	30.1
July 7, 1969	21.0	758.5	30.0
July 9, 1969	23.0	760.0	31.0
July 22, 1969	26.0	761.0	29.6
July 23, 1969	28.0	758.7	30.7
July 24, 1969	30.0	759.1	30.7
July 28, 1969	24.0	761.8	29.1
July 31, 1969	24.0	763.4	28.9
August 1, 1969	25.0	763.5	29.2
August 4, 1969	23.5	762.5	29.0

Pulse Reader Precision

The precision of the pulse reader with a single chamber and with 20 different chambers was established after the pulse reader had been calibrated using 152 keV x-rays. The Victoreen Radium Standard, Model 540B was used as the radiation source. Exposures were corrected to a temperature of 22°C and a pressure of 760 mm of mercury.

The data in Table IV for a single chamber (serial no. 24450) were collected by making repetitive 18 minute exposures. The average of the 20 readings is 30.80 mR and the standard deviation is 0.927 mR. For a single chamber the precision of the pulse reader is approximately \pm one mR for exposures of 30 mR.

The data in Table V for twenty different chambers were also collected by making 18 minute exposures. The chambers were exposed one at a time and during the exposures each chamber was placed in the same position with respect to the radium source.

The average of the 20 readings in Table V is 31.00 mR and the standard deviation is 3.08 mR. The precision of the pulse reader with different chambers is about \pm three mR for exposures of 30 mR.

Exposures as low as one mR can be measured with the pulse reader with an error of about \pm 0.5 mR. The precision and

TABLE IV. PRECISION OF PULSE READER
WITH SINGLE CHAMBER

Trial	Exposure (mR)
1	31.0
2	29.0
3	29.8
4	30.0
5	28.0
6	30.0
7	30.0
8	30.5
9	31.0
10	31.0
11	31.0
12	30.0
13	30.5
14	30.5
15	30.5
16	31.0
17	31.0
18	31.0
19	29.5
20	30.0

TABLE V. PRECISION OF PULSE READER
WITH TWENTY CHAMBERS

Chamber #	Exposure (mR)
24450	30.0
24250	30.0
24531	33.0
24989	31.5
24696	33.0
23047	28.5
22521	33.0
22904	30.0
22940	28.5
21528	33.0
31916	33.0
31921	30.0
25064	30.0
25127	31.0
25159	31.0
25188	28.5
25318	33.0
25340	33.0
24296	31.5
24314	28.5

sensitivity of the instrument is limited by the fact that spurious voltages are produced when the chamber is inserted into the socket. These spurious voltages produce readings that are always less than 0.5 mR.

VI. CALIBRATION

Method of Calibration

The pulse reader was calibrated with 152 keV x-rays. The biasing resistor used during the calibration was R_3 , the transistor operating current was one mA, and the supply voltage was 45 volts. The calibration curve is shown in Figure 20.

A General Electric Maxitron 300 was used to produce the x-rays. Data were collected with a single chamber (Serial # 24450) under the following operating conditions:

Tube voltage = 300 kVp
Tube current = 2.0 mA
Total filtration = 4.00 mm Cu
Field size at chamber = 10 x 10 cm
Source to chamber distance = 290 cm
Temperature = 22°C
Pressure = 756.0 mm Hg

The exposures were measured using a Victoreen Model 555 Radicon II Integrating Ratemeter, with chamber Model IMA, serial no. 115. The exposure rate was approximately two mR per second. The exposures were corrected for temperature, pressure, and for energy dependence of the IMA chamber.

From the data in Figure 20, the milliammeter scale was calibrated to read in milliroentgens. The scale reading is from zero to 60 mR. The meter scale was made linear, but as the calibration curve shows, the meter response deviates slightly

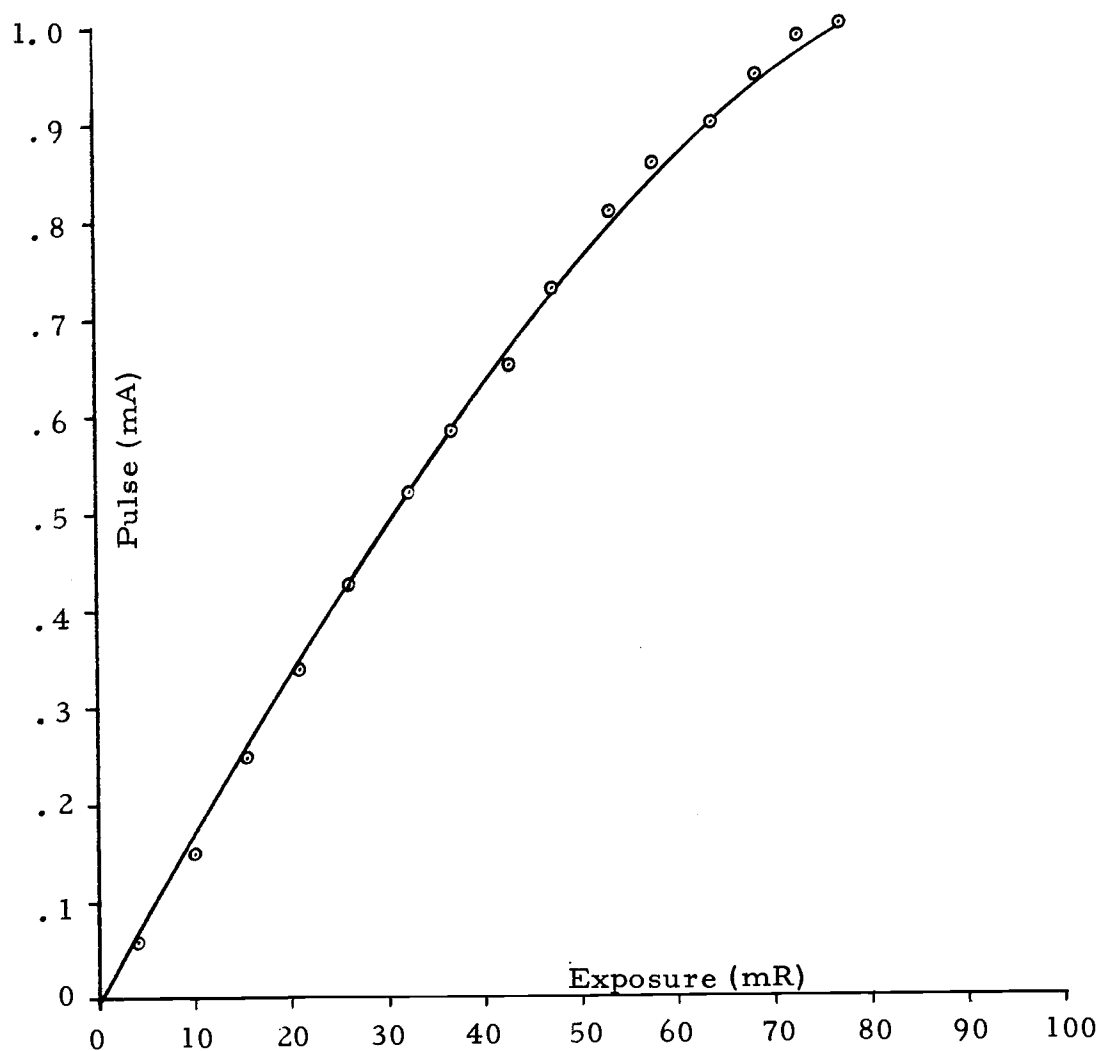


Figure 20. Pulse reader calibration curve; 152 keV x-rays.

Biassing resistor: R_3

Transistor current: 1.0 mA

Supply voltage: 45 volts

Victoreen Model 362 Pocket
Chamber, Serial no. 24450

Date: June 6, 1969

Temperature: 22°C

Pressure: 756 mm Hg

Tube voltage: 300 kVp

Tube current: 2.0 mA

Total filtration: 4.00 mm Cu

Field size at chamber:

10 x 10 cm

Source to chamber distance:

290 cm

from linearity. The meter scale errors for various indicated exposures are given in Table VI.

TABLE VI. METER SCALE ERRORS FOR INDICATED EXPOSURES

Indicated Exposure (mR)	Meter Error
60	13% low
50	5% low
40	2% low
30 or less	0%

Accuracy of Calibration

The error of the Victoreen Model 555 chamber IMA is given by Victoreen as $\pm 5\%$. Since the precision of the pulse reader with a single chamber is ± 0.1 mR or about 3% for a mid-scale reading of 30 mR, the mid-scale error of the pulse reader can be as low as 8% under the following conditions:

1. A correction is made for meter scale errors. These errors are given in Table VI.
2. A correction is made for energy dependence. This correction factor can be estimated from the data in Figure 19.
3. A correction is made for the temperature and pressure effects on the ionization chamber. The correction factor is given by:

$$\text{Correction factor} = T/295 \times 760/P$$

where T is the temperature in degrees absolute and P is the pressure in mm of mercury during the time the chamber is exposed. The pulse reader was calibrated at 22°C (or 295°A) and at 760 mm Hg pressure.

If the above conditions are not met the error of the pulse reader is greater than 8%, and the errors could be as high as 15% or 20%. Furthermore, since the pulse reader was calibrated with a single chamber, the use of different chambers could also introduce an additional error as high as 10%.

A Radium Chemical Corporation radium needle (serial no. 28972) was used to check the calibration of the pulse reader. The radium needle had 0.97 mg of radium encapsulated in 1/2 mm of platinum, and had been calibrated by the National Bureau of Standards. A single chamber (serial no. 24450) was placed 20 cm from the needle and exposed for 30 minutes. The actual exposure was calculated from the specific activity and radiation level of radium (National Bureau of Standards, 1960) in the following manner:

Exposure rate = 0.825 R/hr for one Ci at one meter

$$0.97 \text{ mg} \times 10^{-3} \text{ g/mg} \times 0.98 \text{ Ci/g} = 0.925 \text{ mCi}$$

Exposure rate = 0.825 x 0.95 = 0.784 mR/hr at one meter

$$\text{Exposure rate} = \frac{0.784 \times 25}{60} = 0.327 \text{ mR/min at 20 cm}$$

Exposure = 0.327 x 30 = 9.81 mR for 30 min at 20 cm

The exposure indicated by the pulse reader and corrected for temperature and pressure was 9.22 mR. This is only a 6% discrepancy from the true exposure, and some of this error can be attributed to energy dependence of the Model 362 chamber.

VII. DISCUSSION

Evaluation

The pulse reader constructed in this study can measure exposures from zero to 60 mR with a precision of \pm one mR for mid-scale readings. Exposures down to one mR can be measured with a precision of \pm 0.5 mR.

These specifications are good considering the fact that the essential components are a pocket chamber, a transistor, a resistor, a battery, and a milliammeter. The total cost of all the components of the pulse reader is less than one-hundred dollars. The pulse reader was constructed as an experimental instrument rather than a laboratory instrument, and the insulated gate field effect transistor presumably has never been used before in a pulse reader.

In order to appreciate the results of this study, the size of the current pulses being detected and measured by the pulse reader must be considered. When a chamber previously exposed to ten mR is inserted into the socket, the voltage drop across the biasing resistor is 1.55 volts, but the current pulse through the resistor is extremely small. For example, if R_3 is used as the biasing resistor, the maximum size of the current pulse is 1.55×10^{-11} amperes. The current pulse at the output of the transistor is

0.16×10^{-3} amperes. In effect then, the pulse reader has multiplied a current pulse by a factor of 9.7×10^6 or nearly ten million times. This is a respectable multiplication factor for even the most sophisticated amplifiers.

There are several disadvantages and shortcomings of the pulse reader constructed in this study. The read-out system is inadequate and the precision and sensitivity of the instrument is limited.

The response of the milliammeter which was used as the read-out system is not linear. This results in meter scale errors if the scale is linear, or necessitates the use of a non-linear meter scale which would be difficult to construct and read. Furthermore, the response of the meter is brief and temporary. If a reading is read incorrectly, it cannot be repeated.

It was the objective of this study to construct a pulse reader capable of accurately measuring exposures as low as 0.1 mR. However, the sensitivity and the precision of the pulse reader are limited due to the spurious pulses produced when the chamber is inserted into the socket. These pulses vary from zero to 0.5 mR. Consequently, exposures below one mR cannot be measured accurately with the present design of the pulse reader.

The pulse reader described in this study is not suitable as a laboratory instrument or as a personnel monitoring system due

to the above shortcomings. However, there are many improvements that could be made to increase the precision, sensitivity, and utility of the instrument. The following suggestions are for improvements that would make the pulse reader a more useful and a more valuable instrument.

Recommended Improvements

Read-out system. A more sophisticated read-out system could be used. Preferably, the system would amplify the voltage pulses or current pulses at the output of the IGFET and store them until they are discarded. Some of the systems that could be applicable include: (1) A pulse stretching amplifier such as the amplifier found in most oscilloscopes. (2) A preamplifier and peak reading voltmeter such as the one used by Braby (1967). (3) An analog to digital converter that would convert the height of the pulses to numbers (Smith, 1967). (4) A circuit that would integrate the pulses. The area under the pulse is proportional to the radiation exposure just as is the height of the pulses, however, the area is not a linear function of the exposure. Integrating the pulses would have an advantage in that it would be possible to integrate out the spurious voltage pulses to some extent (Roesch, McCall, and Rising, 1958).

Eliminating Spurious Voltages. Perhaps the most important improvement to be made on the pulse reader is the elimination of the spurious pulses that are produced when the chamber is inserted into the socket. One recommendation is to use a socket and ionization chamber that have the same type of metal parts, since this would reduce contact potential. Another suggestion is to employ dry reed switches. The chamber and socket could be completely insulated from all the components until a dry reed switch is thrown, which would connect the chamber and socket to the pulse reader circuit. A problem that may be encountered would be leakage from the socket when it is not connected to the charging voltage supply.

Temperature Effects. If a more sensitive pulse reader were to be constructed, it is probable that temperature effects on the transistor would have to be eliminated. These effects could be eliminated by the use of matched pairs of IGFET's (Lancaster, 1966). These transistors are made from the same chip of silicon and are housed in the same can. They are identical in every respect. It would be possible to devise a circuit such that a change in one of the transistors due to temperature or other effects, would be compensated for by an identical change in the other transistor.

Matched pairs of transistors are available for about thirty dollars from Fairchild Semiconductor, Motorola Semiconductor, Texas Instruments, Inc., and a few other manufacturers.

Voltage Supply. If a more sensitive pulse reader is to be built, mercury batteries should be used to insure voltage stability. It is essential that the initial charging voltage remains constant, and this requirement becomes more critical as lower exposures are measured.

Changes in Design. The basic design of the pulse reader developed in this study is probably not the optimum design, although many other circuits were tried and these either did not work at all or resulted in a loss of sensitivity. Additional Hi-Meg resistors can be placed between the gate and drain or between the socket and source. This increases the duration of the pulses but results in a loss of sensitivity. The resistor R_1 can be removed from the circuit to increase the sensitivity but the value of the biasing resistor is then limited to 10^{11} ohms. The socket must be grounded and the entire device must be shielded for stability. Stray capacitance must be minimized by using short leads and rigid construction.

Despite the above restrictions on the design of the pulse reader, there are some changes that could improve the performance of the instrument. It might be feasible to place a switch between the biasing resistor and the drain of the transistor. Normally, the switch would be closed, but when an ionization chamber was inserted into the socket, the switch would open. With the switch open, the chamber and the socket would not begin to re-charge and the RC

time constant of the pulse would be determined by the gate impedance of the transistor (10^{13} ohms) and the capacitances of chamber and socket (10^{-11} farads). This would give a time constant of 100 seconds. There would be no need for a Hi-Meg biasing resistor, since the gate impedance of the transistor would develop the pulse.

Different biasing resistors, different operating currents, and different supply voltages could be used to find the optimum response for a different type of read-out system. Larger ionization chambers could be used to increase the sensitivity of the pulse reader, and the use of higher quality chambers would reduce the variation among individual chambers.

VIII. CONCLUSION

The pulse reader developed, tested, and calibrated in this study used an insulated gate field effect transistor for the detection and measurement of pulses. Victoreen Hi-Meg resistors were used to develop the pulses and the Victoreen Model 362 Pocket Chamber was used as the ionization chamber. The response of the pulse reader to charged ionization chambers agreed well with the theoretical predictions. The response of the instrument was found to vary with the supply voltage, the resistance of the biasing resistor, and the operating current of the transistor. The energy dependence of the device was found to be 14% for photon energies from 33 keV to 152 ke V. The pulse reader was found to be stable over a period of two months. The precision of the pulse reader with a single ionization chamber was determined to be \pm one mR for exposures of 30 mR. The variation among chambers was determined to be \pm 10%. The instrument was calibrated with 152 keV x-rays to read from zero to 60 mR. The accuracy of the calibration was estimated as \pm 8%.

The major consequence of this study is the demonstration of the fact that the recently developed insulated gate field effect transistor can be used successfully in a pulse reader. The study indicates that with certain improvements, a more useful pulse

reader could be developed that would extend the sensitivity and increase the accuracy of conventional ionization chambers.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Arnson, M. H. and Charles F. Kezer, 1957. One-hundred electronic circuits. Vol. 1. Pittsburg, Pittsburg Instrument Publishing Company, 150 p.
- Attix, Frank H. and William C. Roesch (eds.). 1966. Radiation dosimetry. Vol. 2. 2d ed. New York, Academic Press. 462 p.
- Braby, L. A. 1965. Pulse reader for ion chambers. In: Hanford Radiological Sciences Research and Development annual report for 1964. Hanford, Washington. n. p. (BNWL-36)
- _____ 1967. Ion chamber with integral switches for pulse reading. In: Hanford Radiological Sciences Research and Development annual report for 1966. n. p. (BNWL-36)
- _____ 1968. Pulse read ion chamber system. Health physics 15:351-356.
- Clark, George L. (ed.). 1963. The encyclopedia of x-rays and gamma rays. New York, Reinhold Publishing Corporation. 1149 p.
- Hine, G. J. and G. L. Brownell (eds.). 1956. Radiation dosimetry. New York, Academic Press. 932 p.
- International Commission on Radiation Units and Measurements. 1968. Radiation quantities and units. Washington, D. C., ICRU Publications. 8 p.
- Johns, H. E. 1964. The physics of radiology. 2d ed. Springfield, Ill., Charles C. Thomas. 767 p.
- Lancaster, Donald E. 1966. The insulated gate transistor. Electronics World 76:34-36.
- Malmstadt, H. E. and C. O. Enke. 1963. Electronics for scientists. New York, W. A. Benjamin. 619 p.
- Motorola Semiconductors. 1965. Silicon n-channel MOS field effect transistor. Phoenix, Arizona. 4 p.

- Radio Corporation of America. 1967. RCA transistor manual. Harrison, New Jersey. 544 p.
- Roesch, W. C., R. C. McCall and F. L. Rising. 1958. A pulse reading method for condenser ion chambers. *Health Physics* 1:340-344.
- Sievert, Rolf M. 1947. Two automatic methods for measuring condenser chambers. *Acta Radiologica* 28:784.
- _____ 1959. A method for the automatic recording of ionizing radiation. *Acta Radiologica*, sup. 188, p. 224-234.
- Smith, Ralph J. 1967. *Circuits, Devices and Systems*. New York, Wiley and Sons. 776 p.
- Trout, E. D., J. P. Kelley and A. C. Lucas, 1960. Determination of half-value layer. *American Journal of Roentgenology* 84:729-740.
- U. S. National Bureau of Standards. 1960. Protection against radiation from sealed gamma sources. Washington, D. C. 70 p. (Handbook 73)
- _____ 1962. Radiation quantities and units. Washington, D. C. 8 p. (Handbook 84) (International Commission on Radiological Units and Measurements (ICRU). Report 10a).
- _____ 1963. Radiobiological dosimetry. Washington, D. C. 26 p. (Handbook 85).
- _____ 1964. Physical aspects of irradiation. Washington, D. C. 106 p. (Handbook 85).
- U. S. Public Health Service, 1960. Radiological Health handbook. Washington, D. C. 568 p.
- Victoreen Instrument Company. 1967. Instruction manual. Model 555, Radicon II, Integrating ratemeter. Cleveland, Ohio. 90 p.
- _____ n. d. a. Instruction manual. Model 570 Condenser r-meter. Cleveland, Ohio. 12 p.

_____ n. d. b. Radiation standardization of measurement.
Cleveland, Ohio. 12 p.

_____ n. d. c. Operating instructions. Model 362.
Indirect reading dosimeter. Cleveland, Ohio. 2 p.

Victoreen Instrument Division. 1968. Victoreen carbon film
resistors. Cleveland, Ohio. 5 p.

West, Charles A. and Robb M. Thomson. 1964. Physics of solids.
New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company. 436 p.

Wiesner, Patrick E. 1964. Practical transistor theory. New York,
Howard W. Sams and Company. 128 p.

APPENDIX



METERSHUNT
X1 X2 X5

POWER
ON
OFF

SCOPE INPUT
ON
OFF

ZERO ADJUST

SENSITIVITY
LO MED HI

