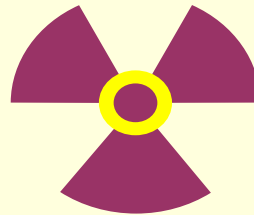


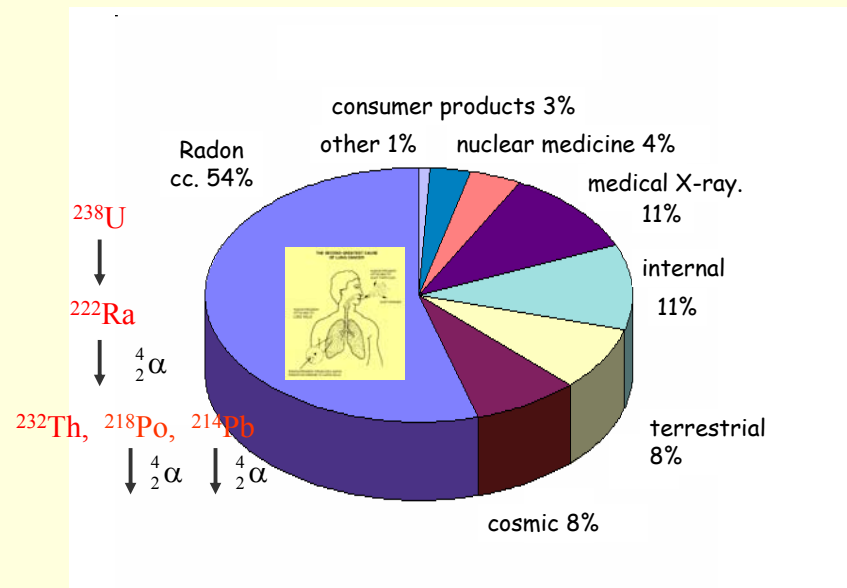
Dosimetry of ionizing radiation



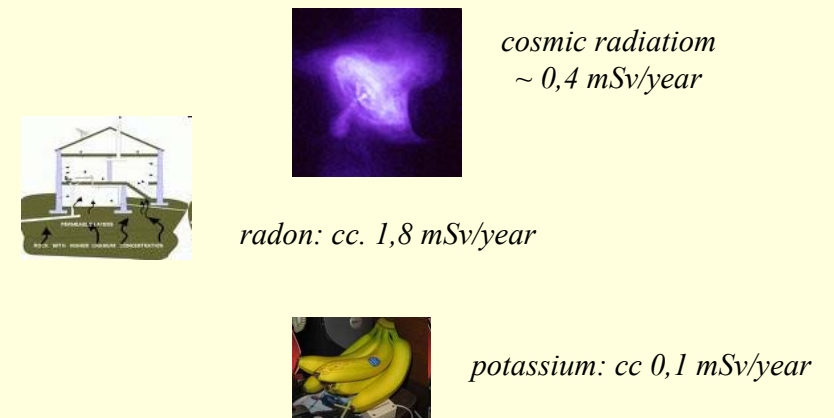
Estimated average of annual dose from natural background and man-made sources is 3.6 mSv.

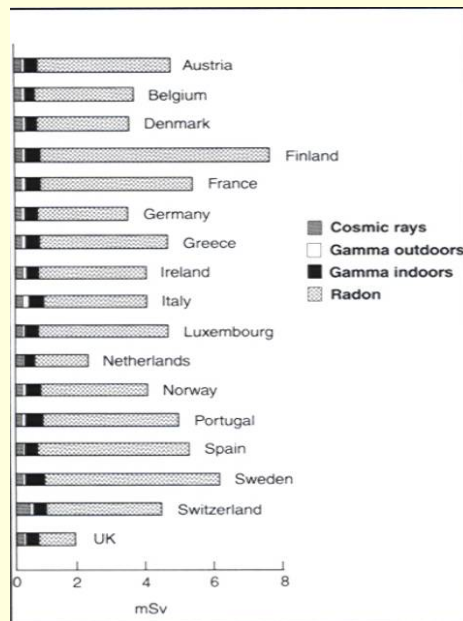


Distribution of annual dose among sources



Sources of natural background





Distribution of naturally occurring background levels of radiation in Europe

The highest known level of background radiation is in Kerala and Madras States in India where a population of over 100,000 people receive an annual dose rate which averages 13 millisieverts.

Risk – loss of life expectancy

Days of average life expectancy lost

Being unmarried male	3500
Smoking (pack/day)	2250
Being unmarried female	1600
Being a coal miner	1100
25% overweight	777
Alcohol abuse	365
Being a construction worker	227
Driving motorcycle	207
1 mSv/year effective dose for 70 years	10
Coffee	6

Relative risk of dying: 1 in a million odds

- Smoking 1.4 cigarettes (lung cancer)
- Eating 40 tablespoons of peanut butter
- Eating 100 charcoal broiled steaks
- 2 days in New York City (air pollution)
- Driving 40 miles in a car (accident)
- Flying 2500 miles in a jet (accident)
- Canoeing for 6 miles
- Receiving 0.10 mSv radiation dose (cancer)

Radiation protection

*Radiation protection lies on the following **principles**:*

Optimization: All exposures should be kept As Low As Reasonable Achievable (ALARA)

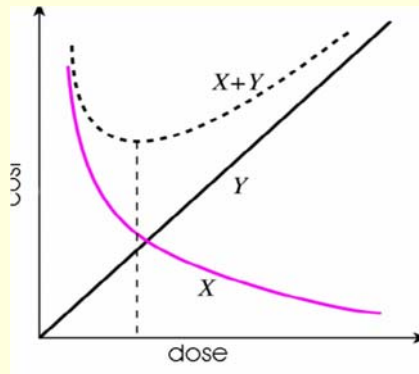
Justification: no practice shall be adopted unless it produces a positive net benefit

Limitation: the effective dose (E) to individuals shall not exceed the limits recommended by the ICRP (maximum permitted doses)

Optimization of radiation protection

ALARA-principle

As Low As Reasonably Achievable



X : cost of radiation protection

Y : cost of treatment

X+Y: total cost

Optimum is the minimum

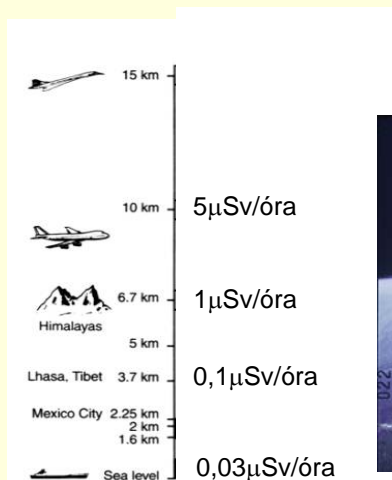
Dose limits in radiation protection



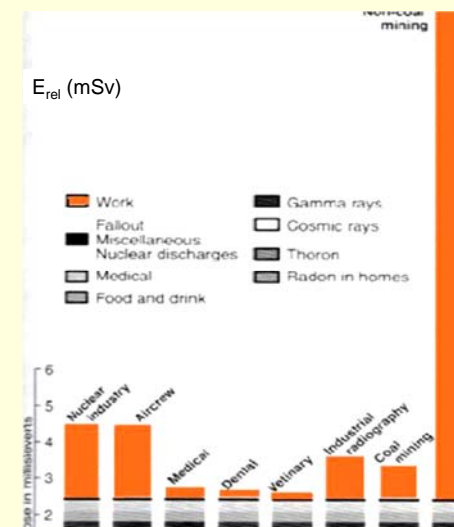
	Occupational (mSv/year)	Population (mSv/year)
Effective dose	20*	1
Dose equivalent (eye lens)	150	15
Dose equivalent (limb/skin)	500	50

* Over the average of 5 years but maximum 50 mSv/year

Cosmic ray contributions to dose rate as the function of the altitude



Relative risk of various professions



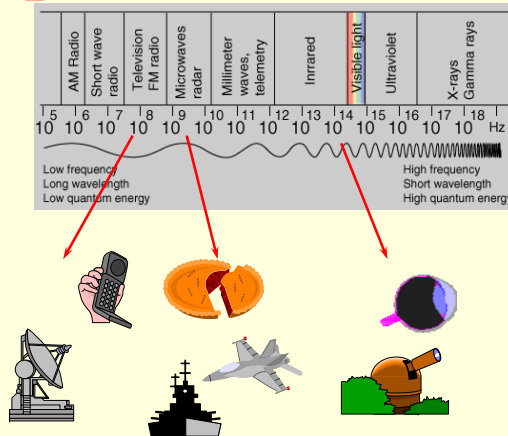
Detection of radiation - dose measurement

• What? α^{++} p^+ (n) β γ ν

• How much energy?

• How much intensity?

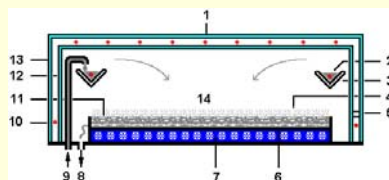
• How good accuracy?



Measuring devices

Alteration of a physical parameter \sim absorbed dose

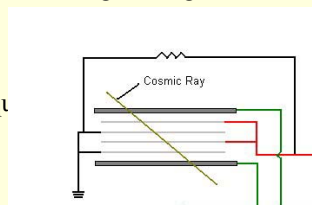
Detection of particles



- **Cloud chamber**
supersaturated vapor of water or alcohol

- **Spark chamber**
high voltage wires

- **Bubble chamber**
superheated transparent liquid (H₂, Ar, Xe)



Types of Dosimeters

- * Electronic Dosimeters – radiation generates free charges – electric signal is detected

Gas-filled detectors

Scintillation detectors

Semiconductor detectors

- * Chemical detectors – based on radiation induced chemical processes

Film Badges

- * Solid state detectors – based on physical behavior of crystals

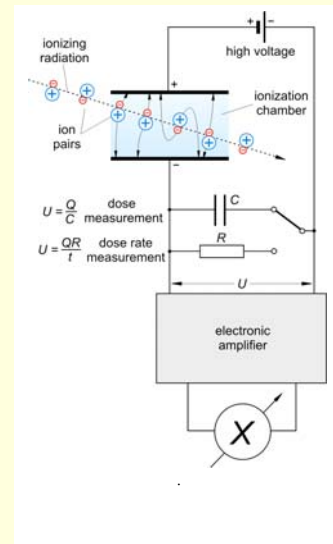
Thermo Luminescent Dosimeters – TLD (LiF, CaF₂, BeO, Al₂O₃)

Electronic Dosimeters

Ionization chambers

Dose measurement: the voltage U that is produced by collected charge Q on the capacitor C is proportional to the total amount of the separated charges.

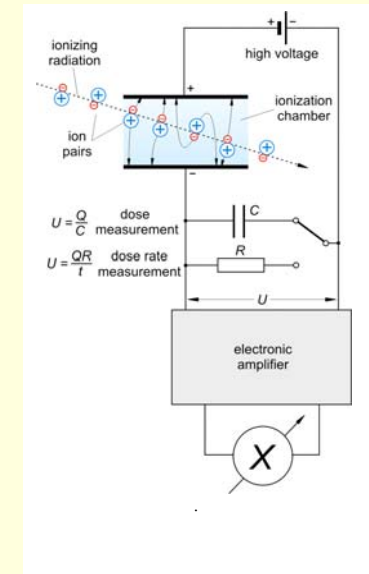
$$U = \frac{Q}{C} \sim X$$



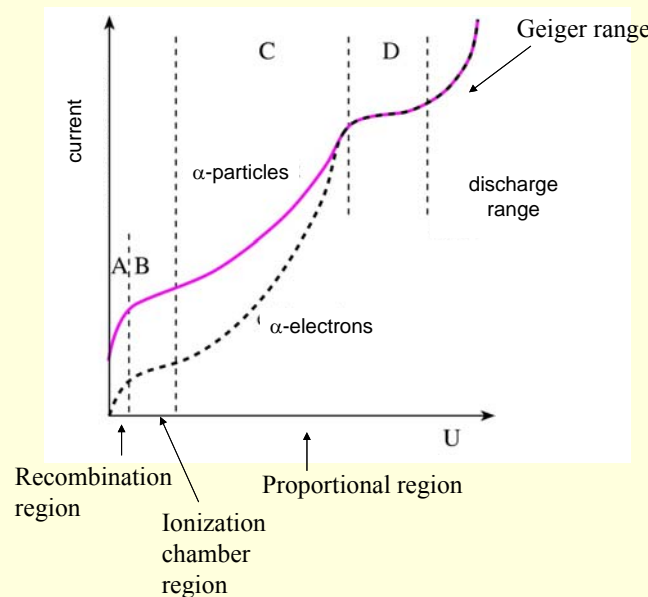
Ionization chambers

Dose rate measurement: the potential drop is measured on a large resistance R , that is proportional to the charge Q that flows through at unit time.

$$U = \frac{QR}{t} \sim \frac{X}{t}$$



Ionization chambers



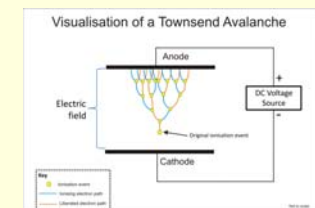
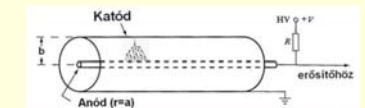
The dependence of ionization on voltage

Ionization chambers— Geiger-Müller counter

- Inert gas filling
- High accelerating voltage

Avalanche effect between electrodes

Current pulse



Number of current pulses \sim number of ionising particles

Multiwire chamber



Nobel prize
in Physics
2002

Georges Charpak
1924 -2010

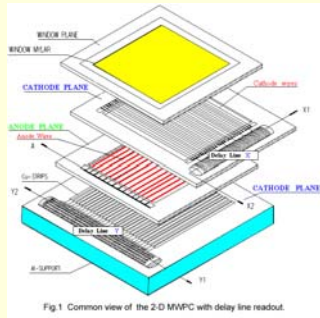
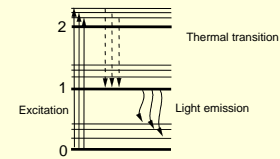


Fig.1 Common view of the 2-D MWPC with delay line readout.

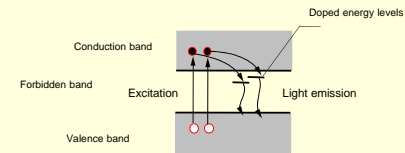
- electric current proportional to the energy of the detected particle
- localised cascade of ionization
- spatial sensitivity!

Scintillation detectors

Plastic scintillators



Scintillation crystals

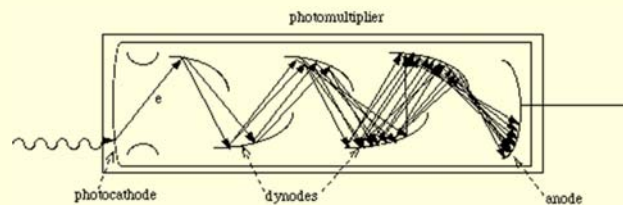


- Liquid scintillators
- Plastic scintillators
- Solid state scintillators

Scintillation detectors

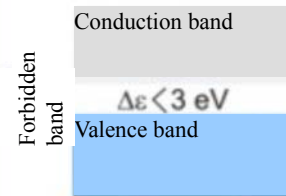
Light pulses → electric signals

1. Photoelectric effect
2. Amplification - Multiplication of secondary electrons



Semiconductor detectors

Semiconductors
(e.g. Ge, Si)



$$\frac{n}{n_0} = e^{-\frac{\Delta\epsilon}{kT}}$$

$$\sigma \approx e^{-\frac{\Delta\epsilon}{2kT}}$$

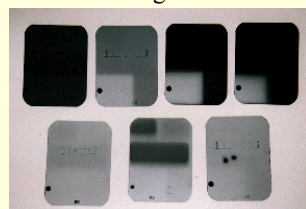
Conductivity ~ number of excitations

Chemical processes

Film badges

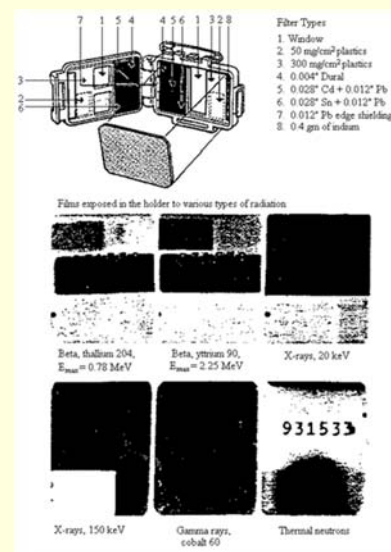


It measures darkening of the developed photographic film that was exposed to ionizing radiation.

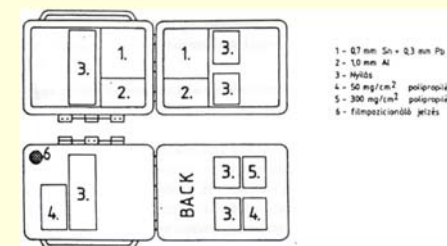


Darkening of the developed photographic film is proportional to the dose rate of the ionizing radiation and to the irradiation time.

Film badges



Darkening depends on the type and energy of radiation, and the thickness and material of absorber.

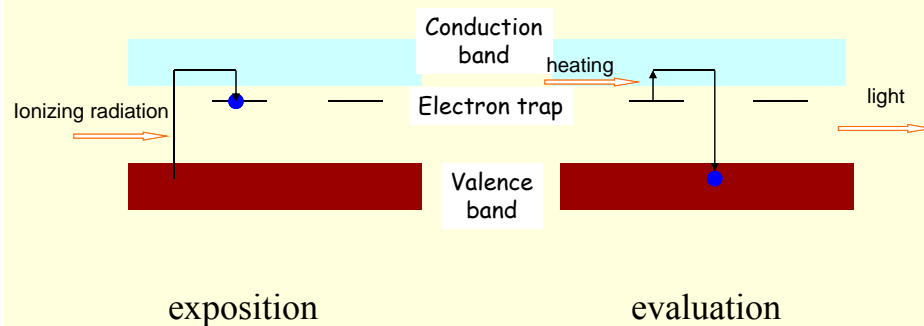


Solid phase detectors

Thermoluminescent dosimeter



Band structure on electronic transitions



Calculation of the dose in case of γ - radiation

The absorbed dose in air (D_{air}) for any γ - radiating isotope

$$D_{\text{air}} = K_{\gamma} \frac{\Lambda t}{r^2}$$

Λ : activity of the isotope preparation
 t : time of exposition
 r : distance from the source
 K_{γ} : dose constant
 (specific γ - ray constant)

$$[K_{\gamma}] = \frac{\mu\text{Gy} \cdot \text{m}^2}{\text{h} \cdot \text{GBq}}$$

Damjanovich, Fidy, Szöllősi: Medical Biophysics

II. 4.

4.1

4.2

4.3

4.4

4.5

In the frame: 184. 186.

Manual :Dosimetry