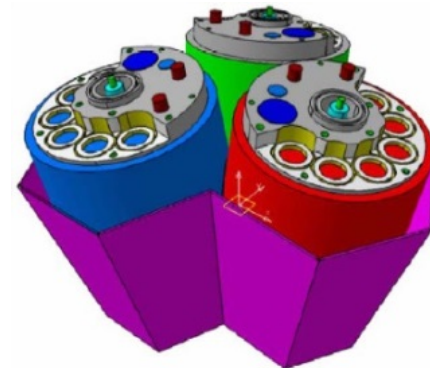
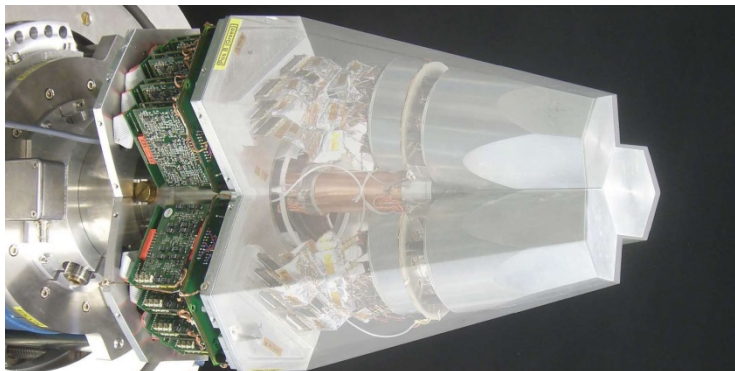
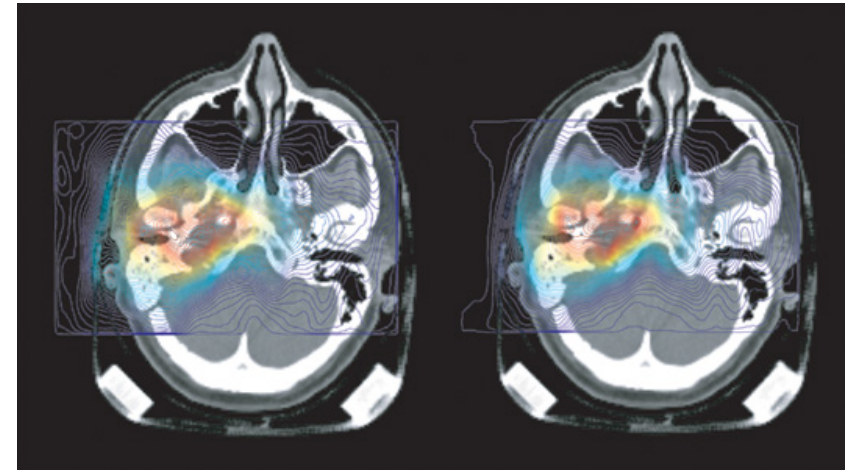
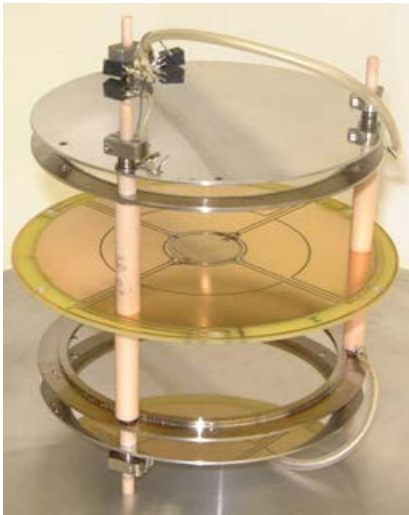


# Particle and Radiation Detectors: Advances & Applications

Lecture: Hans-Jürgen Wollersheim

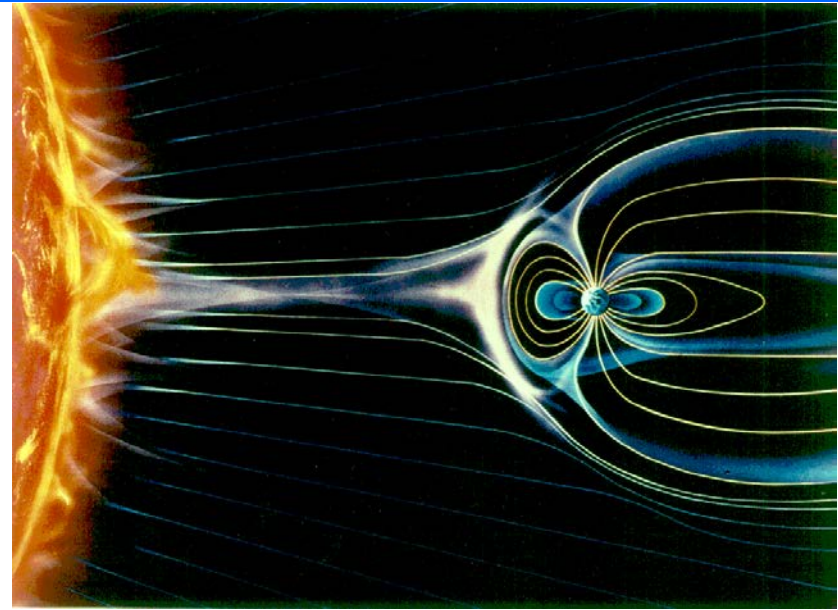
e-mail: [h.j.wollersheim@gsi.de](mailto:h.j.wollersheim@gsi.de)



# Particle Interaction with Matter



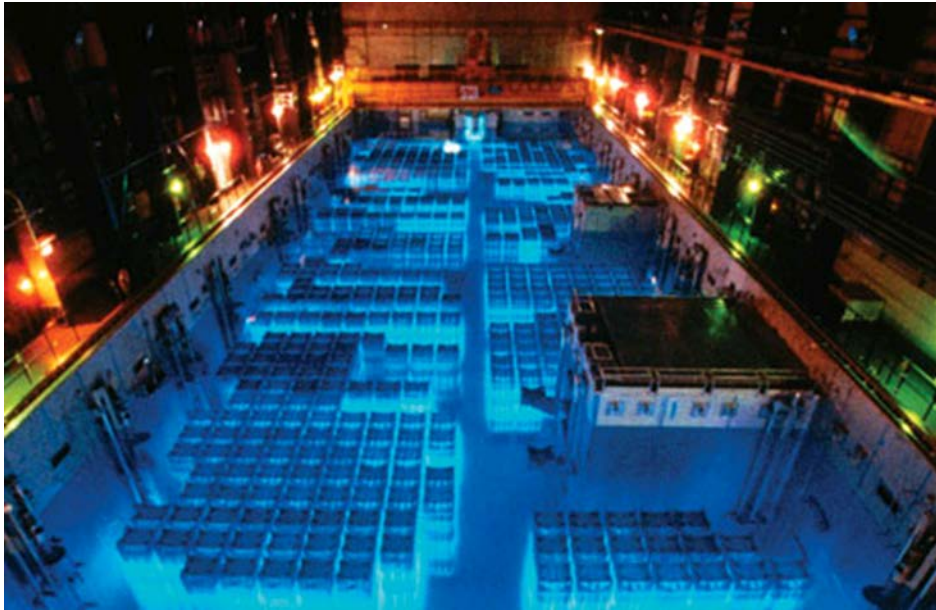
Aurora Borealis



Ionization



# Particle Interaction with Matter



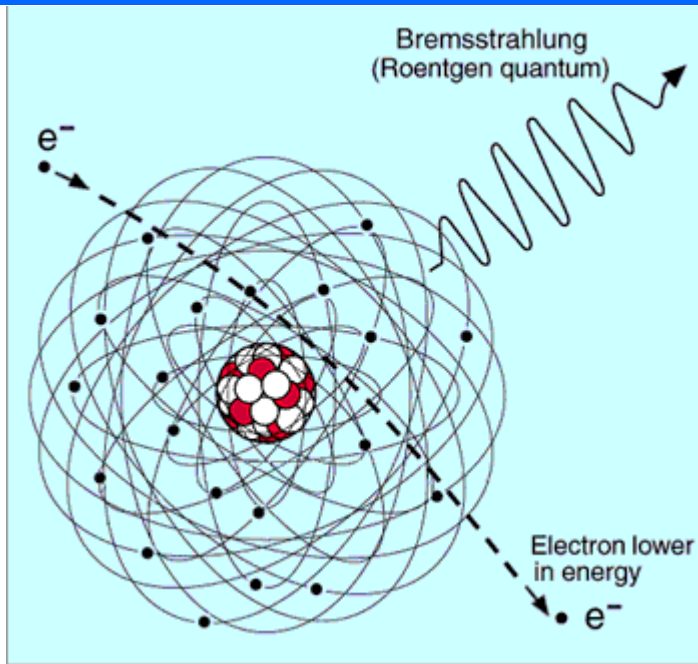
Characteristic glow from a reactor

Cherenkov Light



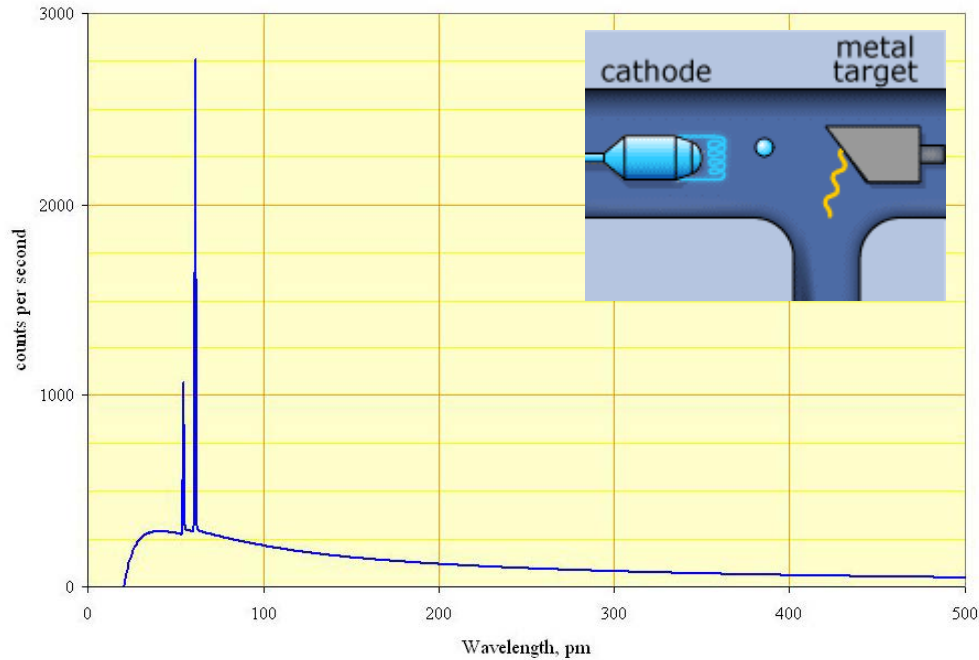
Cherenkov radiation is an effect similar to sonic booms when the plane exceeds the velocity of sound

# Particle Interaction with Matter



Bremsstrahlung or 'braking radiation'

**Bremsstrahlung**



Spectrum of the X-rays emitted by an X-ray tube with a rhodium target, operated at 60 kV. The continuous curve is due to bremsstrahlung, and the spikes are characteristic K lines for rhodium.

# Interaction of gamma rays with matter

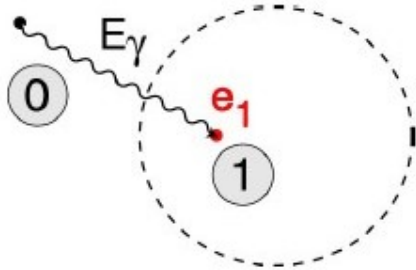
~ 100 keV

~1 MeV

~ 10 MeV

$\gamma$ -ray energy

## Photoelectric

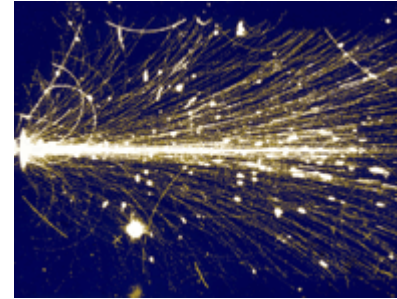


## Isolated hits

Probability of  
interaction depth

# Energy loss – dE/dx

Particles interact differently with matter. Important for detectors is the energy loss per path length. The total energy loss per path length is the sum of all contributions.



$$-\left(\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_{tot} = -\left(\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_{coll} - \left(\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_{rad} - \left(\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_{photoeff} - \left(\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_{compton} - \left(\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_{pair} - \left(\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_{hadron} \dots$$

Depending on the particle type, the particle energy and the material some processes dominate, other do not occur. For instance only charged particles will interact with electrons of atoms and produce ionization, etc.

# Measurement Principles

A measurement requires an interaction of the particle with the material of the detector. The interaction provokes two effects:

- 1<sup>st</sup>      **Creation of a detectable signal**, e.g.  
ionization → charges  
excitation → scintillation  
excitation of phonons → heat
  
- 2<sup>nd</sup>      **Alternation of the particles properties**, e.g.  
energy loss  
change of trajectory due to scattering  
absorption

unwanted side effects. They need to be as small as possible and well understood.

# Measurement Principles

*A particle detector is an instrument to measure one or more properties of a particle ...*

## Properties of a particle

- position and direction
- momentum
- energy
- mass
- velocity
- transition radiation
- spin, lifetime

$x, \vec{x}$

$|\vec{p}|$

$E$

$m$

$\beta$

$\gamma$

## Type of detection principle:

position and tracking

tracking in a magnetic field

calorimetry

spectroscopy and PID

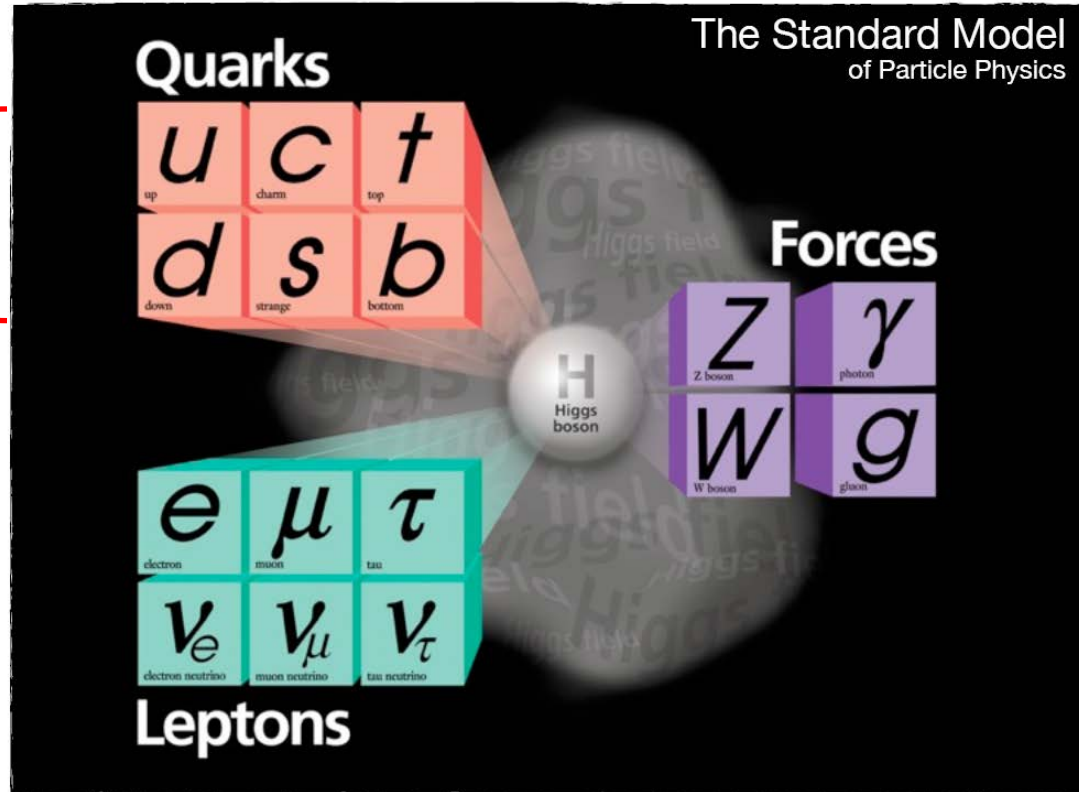
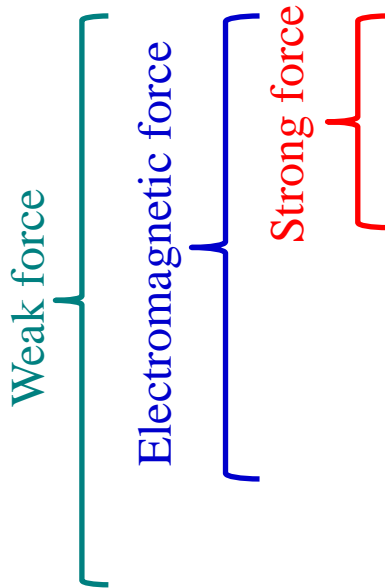
Cherenkov radiation or time of flight

TRD

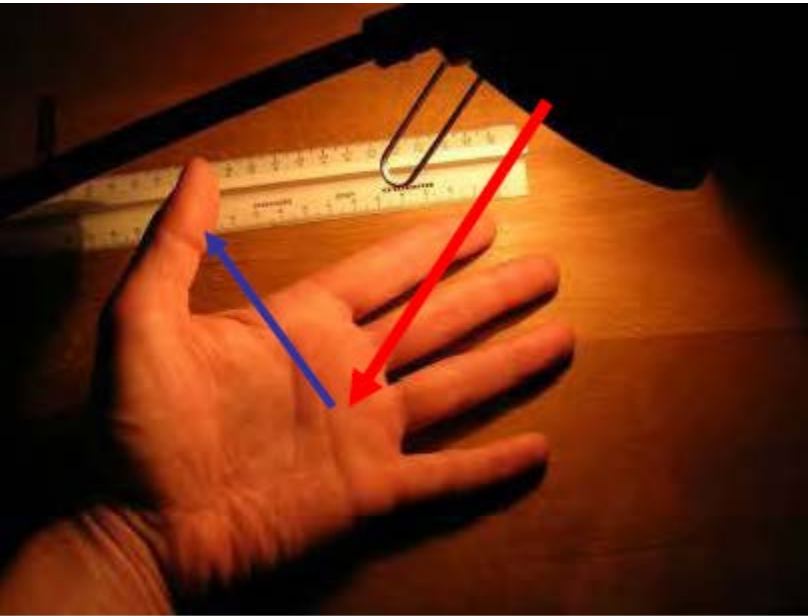




# What is a Particle?



# How do we see Particles?



A light bulb shines on a hand and the different reflections make the fine structure visible.

With a magnifying glass or microscope more details can be seen, but there is a fundamental limit:

The wavelength of the light (1/1000 mm) determines the size of the resolvable objects.

available wavelength

→ electromagnetic waves  $E = \frac{hc}{\lambda}$

LW	3000 m	
MW	300 m	
KW	30 m	
UKW	3 m	
GPS	0.3 m	
Infrared	$10^{-6}$ m	
light	$5 \cdot 10^{-7}$ m	2 eV
UV	$10^{-7}$ m	10 eV
X-ray	$10^{-10}$ m	$10^4$ eV
$\gamma$ -ray	$10^{-12}$ m	$10^6$ eV

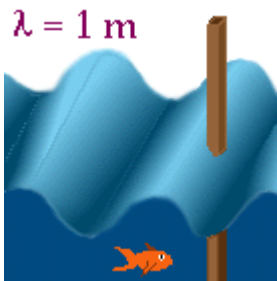
light bulb

→ accelerator

magnifying glass or microscope

→ detector

# Energy, Wavelength and Resolution



wavelength versus resolution

Small objects (smaller than  $\lambda$ ) do not disturb the wave

→ small object is not visible

Large objects disturb the wave

→ large object is visible

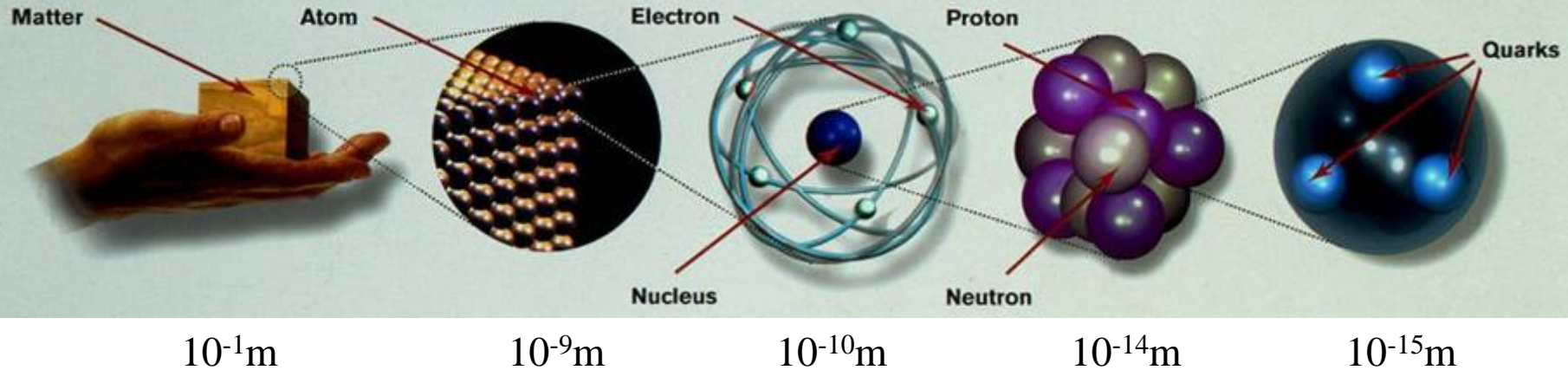
❖ all particles have wave properties:

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{p} = \frac{hc}{\sqrt{E_{kin} \cdot (E_{kin} + 2m_0c^2)}}$$

de Broglie wavelength



Louis de Broglie



$$h \cdot c = 1239.84 \text{ [MeV fm]}$$



# Detection and Identification of Particles

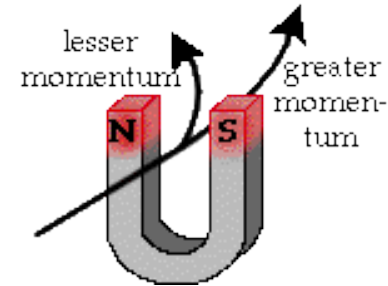
- ❖ **Detection** = particle counting (is there a particle?)
- ❖ **Identification** = measurement of **mass** and **charge** of the particle  
(most elementary particles have  $Ze = \pm 1$ )

❖ **How:**

- charged particles are deflected by B fields such that:

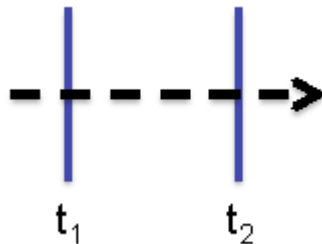


$$\rho = \frac{p}{ZeB} \propto \frac{p}{Z} = \frac{\gamma m_0 \beta c}{Z}$$



$p$  = *particle momentum*  
 $m_0$  = *rest mass*  
 $\beta c$  = *particle velocity*

- **particle velocity** measured with time-of-flight (ToF) method



$$\beta \propto \frac{1}{\Delta t}$$

- ❖ ToF for known distance
- ❖ Ionization  $-\frac{dE}{dx} = f(\beta)$
- ❖ Cherenkov radiation
- ❖ Transition radiation

# Detection and Identification of Particles

- ❖ **Detection** = particle counting (is there a particle?)
- ❖ **Identification** = measurement of **mass** and **charge** of the particle  
(most elementary particles have  $Ze = \pm 1$ )

- ❖ **How:**

- **kinetic energy** determined via a calorimetric measurement

$$E_{kin} = (\gamma - 1)m_0c^2 \quad \gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}$$

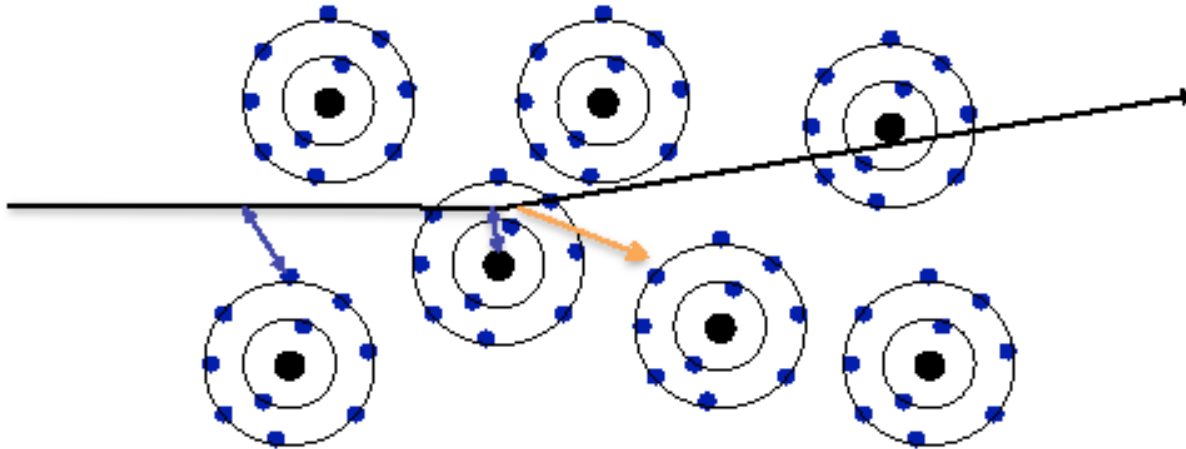
- for  $Z=1$  the **mass** is extracted from  $E_{kin}$  and  $p$
- to determine  $Z$  (**particle charge**) a  $Z$ -sensitive variable is e.g. the ionization energy loss

$$\frac{dE}{dx} \propto \frac{z^2}{\beta^2} \ln(a \cdot \beta^2 \gamma^2) \quad a = \text{material-dependent constant}$$

# Energetic charged particles in matter

Three types of electromagnetic interactions:

1. Ionization (of the atoms of the transversed material)
2. Emission of Cherenkov light
3. Emission of transition radiation



1) Interaction with the atomic electrons. The incoming particle loses energy and the atoms are **excited** or **ionized**.

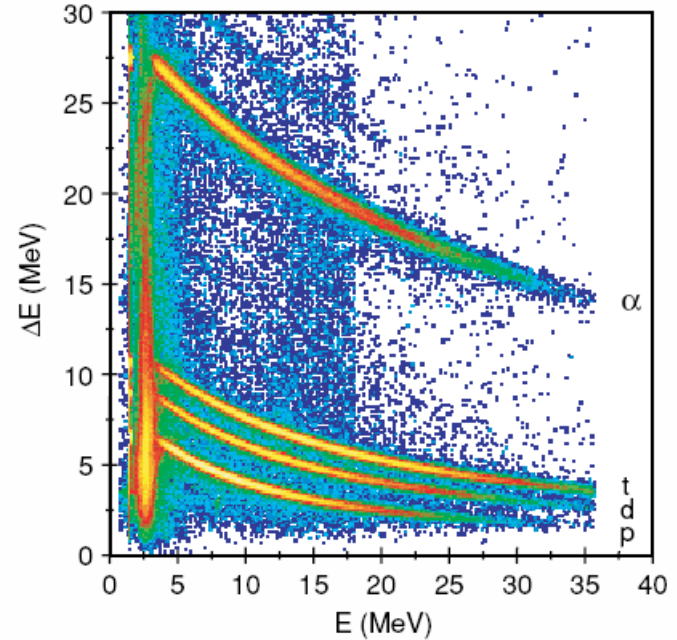
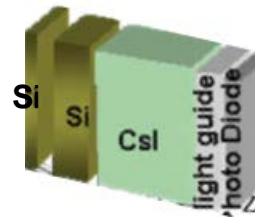
2) Interaction with the atomic nucleus. The particle is deflected (scattered) causing **multiple scattering** of the particle in the material. During this scattering a **Bremsstrahlung** photon can be emitted.

3) In case the particle's velocity is larger than the velocity of light in the medium, the resulting EM shockwave manifests itself as **Cherenkov Radiation**. When the particle crosses the boundary between two media, there is a probability of the order of 1% to produce an X-ray photon, called **Transition Radiation**.

# Energetic charged particles in matter

$$-\frac{dE}{dx} \propto \frac{mz^2}{E}$$

Charged particle identification with segmented or stacked detectors



$$-\frac{dE}{dx} = \frac{4\pi e^4 z^2}{m_0 v^2} nZ \left[ \ln \frac{2m_0 v^2}{I} - \ln \left( 1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2} \right) - \frac{v^2}{c^2} \right]$$

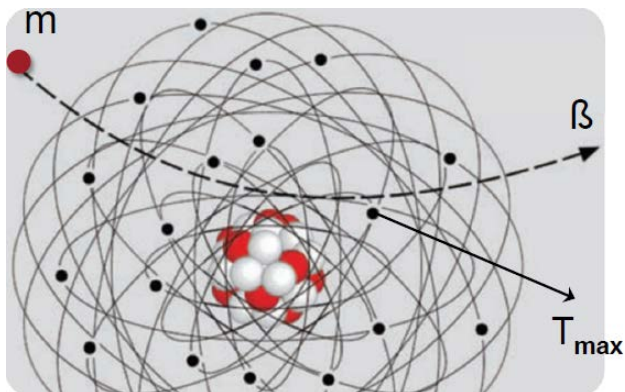
Bethe-Bloch formula

z – projectile atomic number  
 v – projectile velocity  
 $m_0$  - electron mass  
 e – electron charge

n – target number density  
 Z – target atomic number  
 $nZ$  – target electron density  
 I – average excitation and ionization potential

# Energetic charged particles in matter

$\alpha$ -particles are highly ionized and lose their energy very fast by ionization and excitation when passing through matter.

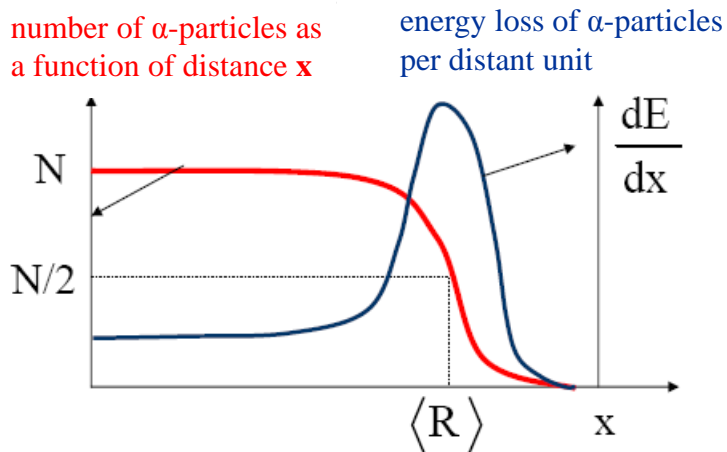


- maximum energy transfer  $T_{max}$  of a projectile with mass  $m$  and velocity  $\beta$  on an electron  $m_e$  at rest

$$T_{max} = \frac{2 \cdot m_e c^2 \cdot \beta^2 \cdot \gamma^2 \cdot m^2}{m^2 + m_e^2 + 2 \cdot \gamma \cdot m \cdot m_e}$$

$$T_{max} = 2 \cdot m_e c^2 \cdot \beta^2 \cdot \gamma^2$$

for all heavy primary particles except electrons and positrons



average range  $\langle R \rangle$  of  $\alpha$ -particles with 5 MeV  
2,5cm in air, 2,3cm in Al, 4,3cm in tissue



# Energy loss and range of charged particles

$$-\frac{dE}{d\varepsilon} = -\frac{1}{\rho} \cdot \frac{dE}{dx} = z^2 \cdot \frac{Z}{A} \cdot f(\beta, I)$$

- $-dE/d\varepsilon$  is independent of the material for equal particles
- the average range for particles with kin. energy  $T$  is obtained by integration

$$\bar{R} = \int_{E_0}^0 \left( \frac{dE}{dx} \right)^{-1} dE$$

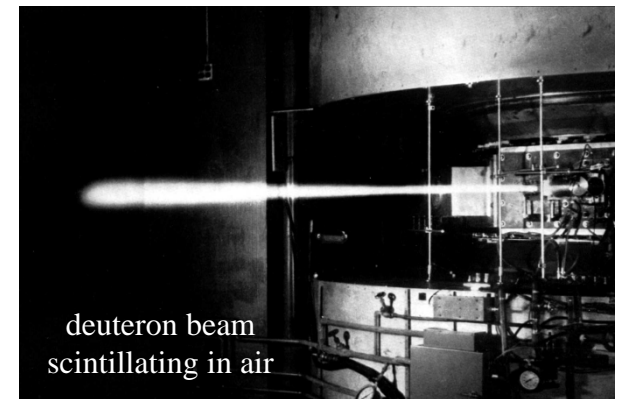
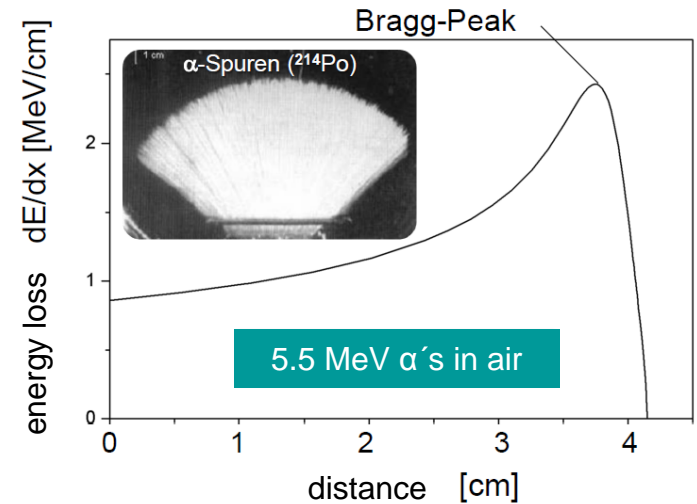
- 7.7 MeV  $\alpha$ -particles in air:  $\bar{R}/\rho \approx 7 \text{ cm}$
- range is not exact but there is **range straggling**, the number of interactions is a statistical process.

Several empirical and semi-empirical formulae have been proposed to compute range of  $\alpha$ -particles in air.

$$R_{\alpha}^{\text{air}} [\text{mm}] = \begin{cases} e^{1.61\sqrt{E_{\alpha}}} & \text{for } E_{\alpha} < 4 \text{ MeV} \\ (0.05E_{\alpha} + 2.85)E_{\alpha}^{3/2} & \text{for } 4 \text{ MeV} \leq E_{\alpha} \leq 15 \text{ MeV} \end{cases}$$

$$R_{\alpha}^{\text{air}} [\text{cm}] = \begin{cases} 0.56E_{\alpha} & \text{for } E_{\alpha} < 4 \text{ MeV} \\ 1.24E_{\alpha} - 2.62 & \text{for } 4 \text{ MeV} \leq E_{\alpha} < 8 \text{ MeV} \end{cases}$$

Scaling the range of other materials  $R_{\alpha}^x = 3.37 \cdot 10^{-4} R_{\alpha}^{\text{air}} \frac{\sqrt{A_x}}{\rho_x}$

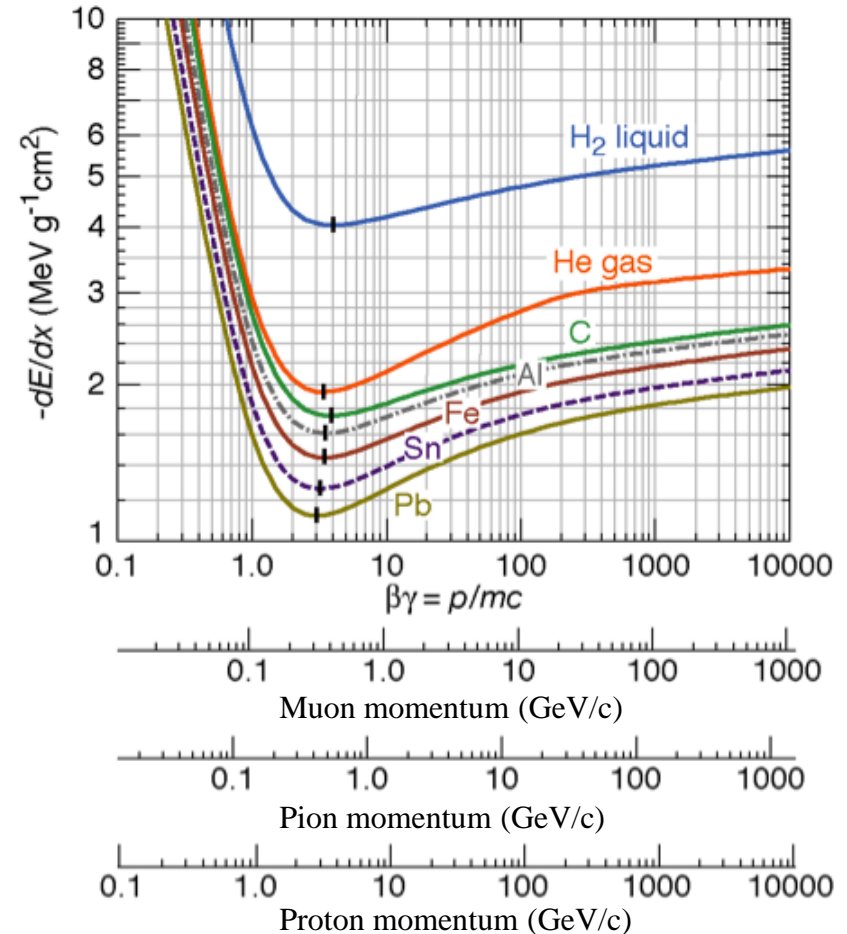


# Interaction of charged particles in matter

**Bethe-Bloch formula** describes the energy loss of heavy particles passing through matter

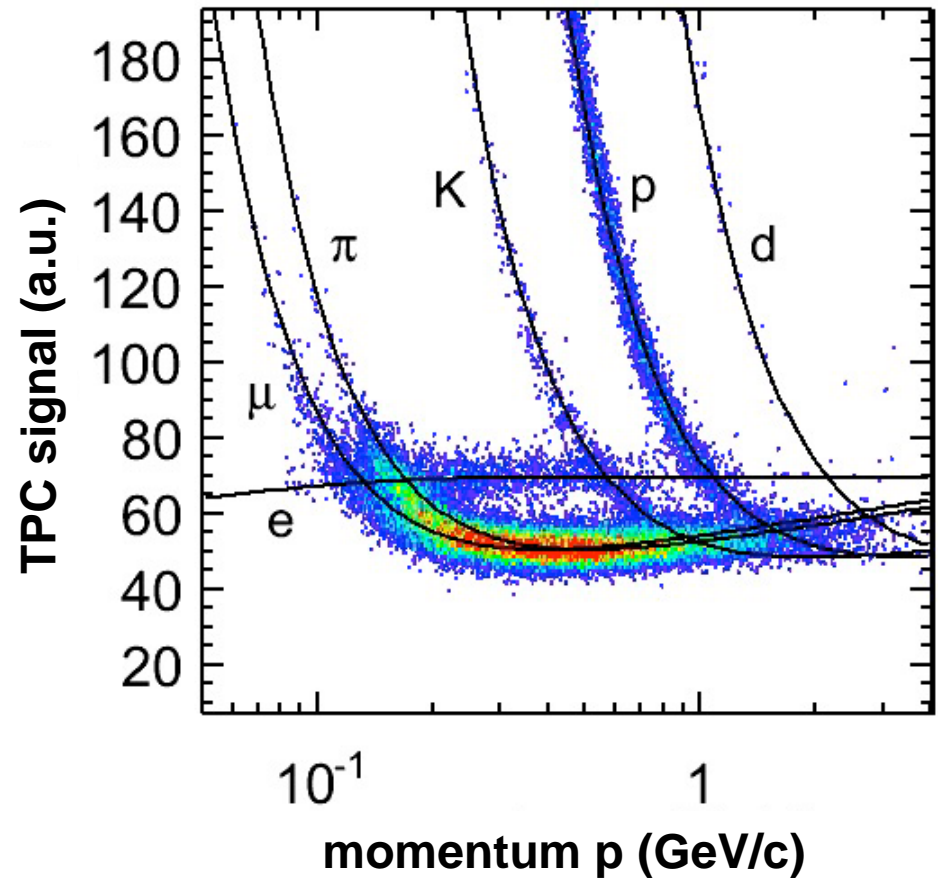
$$-\frac{dE}{dx} = \underbrace{4 \cdot \pi \cdot r_e^2 \cdot N_a \cdot m_e c^2}_{= 0.3071 \text{ MeV g}^{-1}\text{cm}^2} \cdot \rho \cdot \frac{Z}{A} \cdot \frac{z^2}{\beta^2} \cdot \left[ \frac{1}{2} \ln \left( \frac{2 \cdot m_e c^2 \cdot \gamma^2 \cdot \beta^2 \cdot T_{max}}{I^2} \right) - \beta^2 - \delta - 2 \cdot \frac{C}{Z} \right] \approx z^2 \cdot \frac{Z}{A} \cdot f(\beta, I)$$

- ❖ Specific energy loss rate  $\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{dE}{dx}$  for muons, pions and protons in different materials
- ❖ Dependence on mass  $A$ , charge  $Z$  of target nucleus
- ❖ Minimum ionization: 1-2 MeV/g cm<sup>2</sup> [H<sub>2</sub>: 4 MeV/g cm<sup>2</sup>]



# Energy loss of charged particles – $dE/dx$ for different particles

- ❖  $dE/dx$  for heavy particles in this momentum regime is well described by Bethe-Bloch formula, i.e. the dominant energy loss is collisions with atoms
- ❖  $dE/dx$  for electrons does not follow Bethe-Bloch formula. The dominant process is Bremsstrahlung



[ALICE TPC, 2009]

# Energy loss for electrons and positrons

$e^\pm$  are exceptional cases due to their low mass.

They will be deflected significantly in each collision.

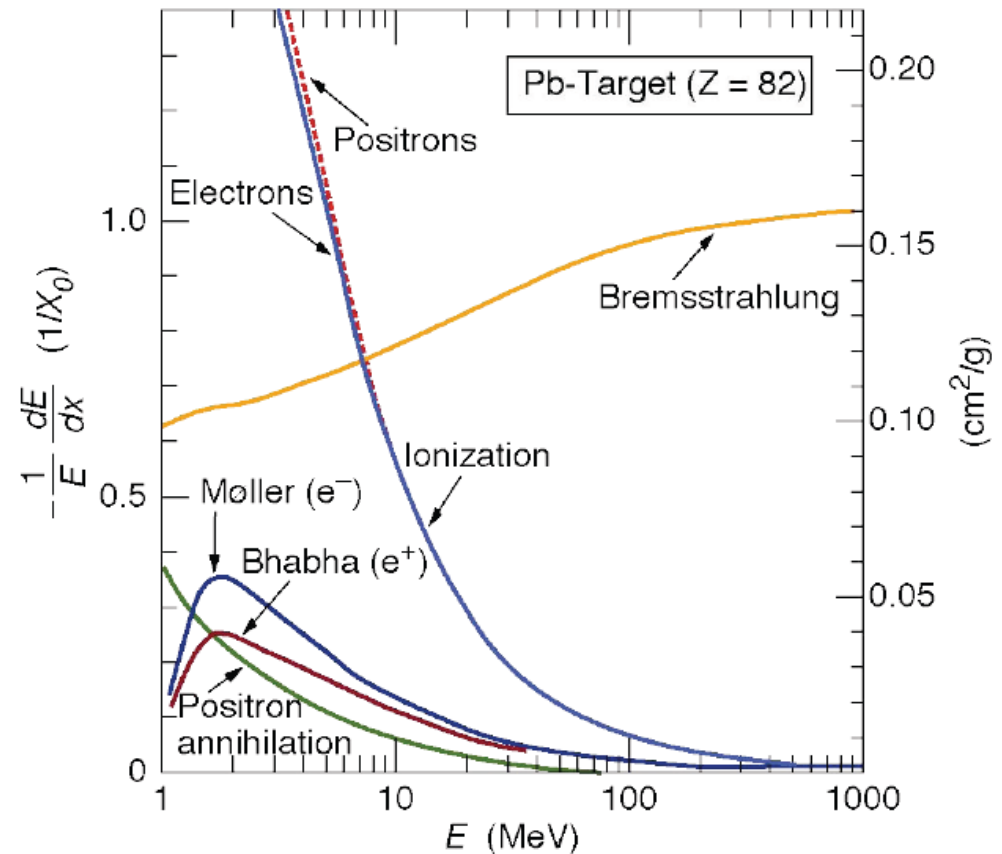
In addition to the energy loss due to **ionization**, the energy loss due to **Bremsstrahlung** is of importance.

$$-\left(\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_{tot} = -\left(\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_{coll} - \left(\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_{rad}$$

For high energies the energy loss due to Bremsstrahlung is given by

$$-\left(\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_{rad} \propto E \quad \text{and} \quad -\left(\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_{rad} \propto \frac{1}{m^2}$$

Other particles like **muons** also radiate, especially at higher energies.



# Bremsstrahlung

$$-\left(\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_{rad} = \frac{E}{X_0}$$

$X_0$  is the radiation length. It is the mean distance over which a high-energy electron loses all but 1/e of its energy by Bremsstrahlung

fit to data:

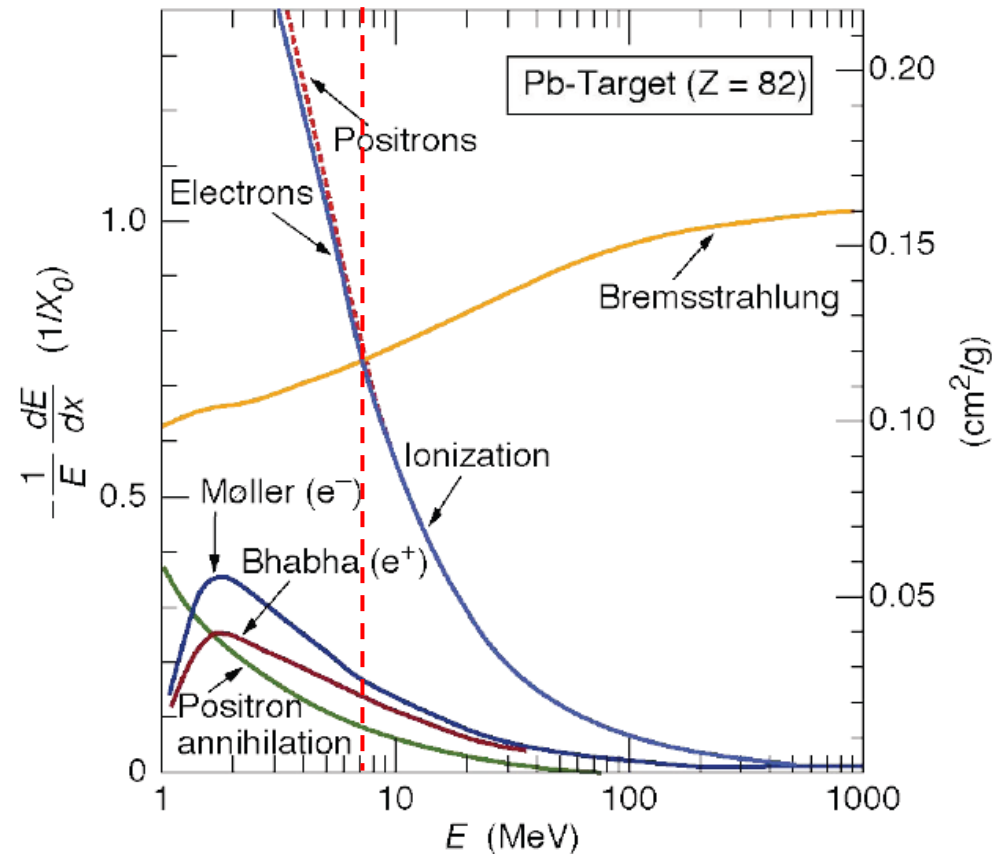
$$X_0 = \frac{716.4 \cdot A}{Z \cdot (Z + 1) \cdot \ln(287/\sqrt{Z})}$$

Usual definition for the critical energy  $E_c$  (electron)

$$\left(\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_{ionization} = \left(\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_{bremsstrahlung}$$

$$E_c(e^-) = \begin{cases} \frac{610 \text{ MeV}}{Z + 1.24} & \text{for solids and liquids} \\ \frac{710 \text{ MeV}}{Z + 0.92} & \text{for gases} \end{cases}$$

**example:** Pb ( $Z=82$ ,  $\rho = 11.34 \text{ [g/cm}^3\text{]}$ )  $\rightarrow E_c = 7.34 \text{ MeV}$



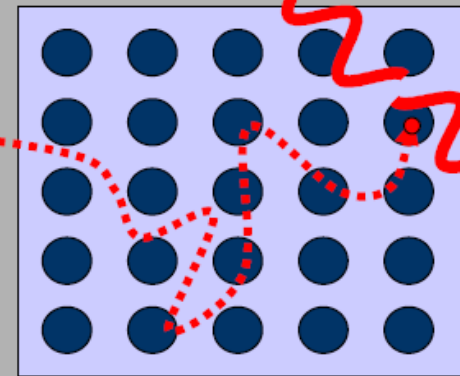
# Comparison between electrons ( $\beta^-$ ) and positrons ( $\beta^+$ ) on their way through matter

electron

positron

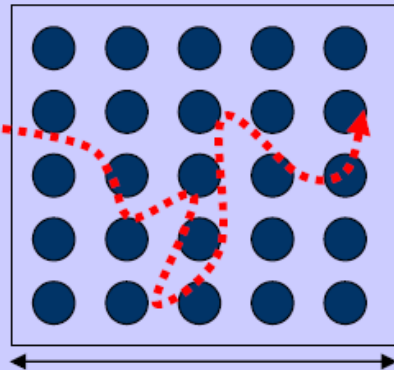
$\gamma, 0.511 \text{ MeV}$

source



$\gamma, 0.511 \text{ MeV}$

detector



X

# Cherenkov radiation

$$-\frac{dE}{dx} = \underbrace{4 \cdot \pi \cdot r_e^2 \cdot N_a \cdot m_e c^2 \cdot \rho}_{= 0.3071 \text{ MeV g}^{-1}\text{cm}^2} \cdot \frac{Z}{A} \cdot \frac{z^2}{\beta^2} \cdot \left[ \frac{1}{2} \ln \left( \frac{2 \cdot m_e c^2 \cdot \gamma^2 \cdot \beta^2 \cdot T_{max}}{I^2} \right) - \beta^2 - \delta - 2 \cdot \frac{C}{Z} \right]$$

$\delta \equiv$  polarization of medium

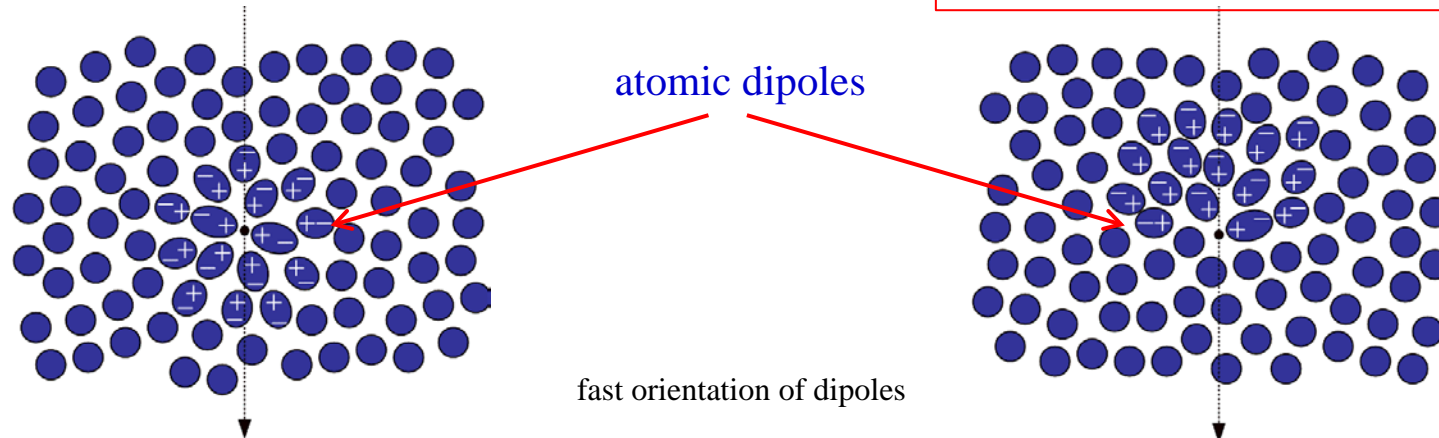
Cherenkov radiation is emitted if the particle velocity  $v$  is larger than the velocity of light in the medium.

$$v > \frac{c}{n}$$

$c \cdots$  speed of light in vacuum  
 $n \cdots$  refraction index of medium

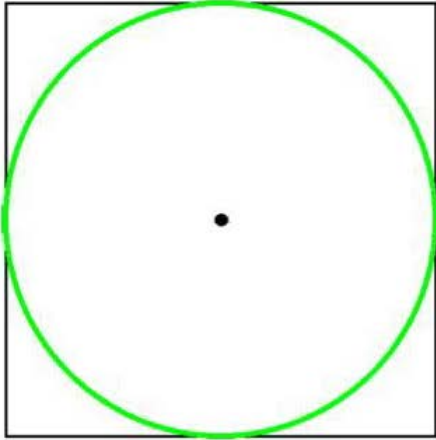
$v < c/n$  symmetric orientation  
 $\rightarrow$  no resulting dipole field

$v > c/n$  asymmetric orientation  
 $\rightarrow$  resulting dipole field  
 change of dipole field  $\rightarrow$  **radiation**

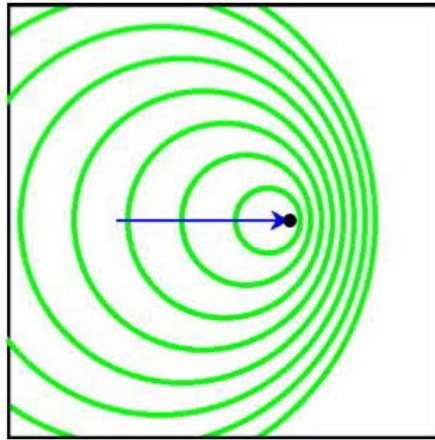


# Cherenkov radiation

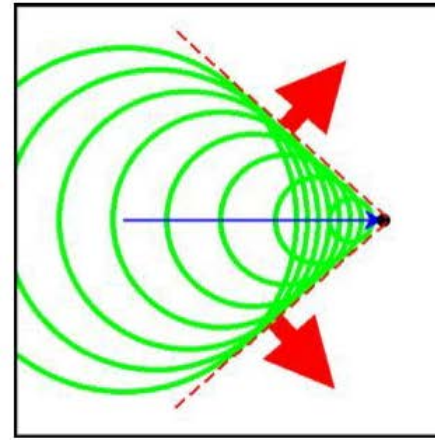
$$\beta = 0$$



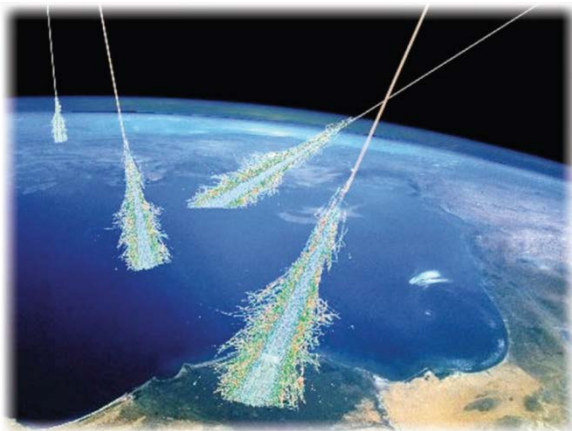
$$\beta \leq \frac{1}{n}$$



$$\beta \geq \frac{1}{n}$$

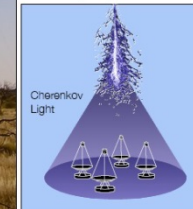


Pavel Alekseyevich  
Cherenkov



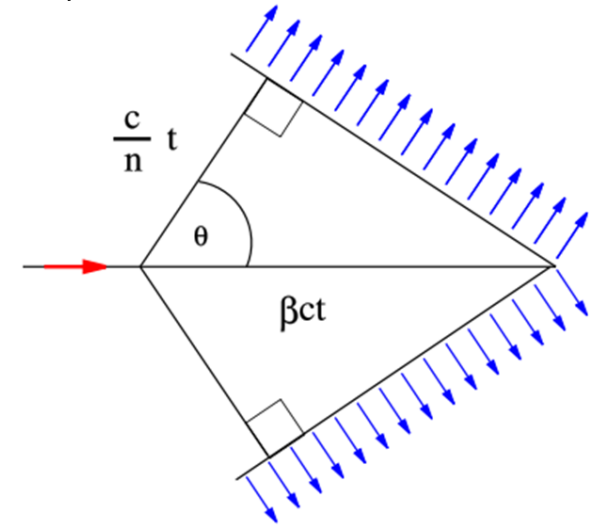
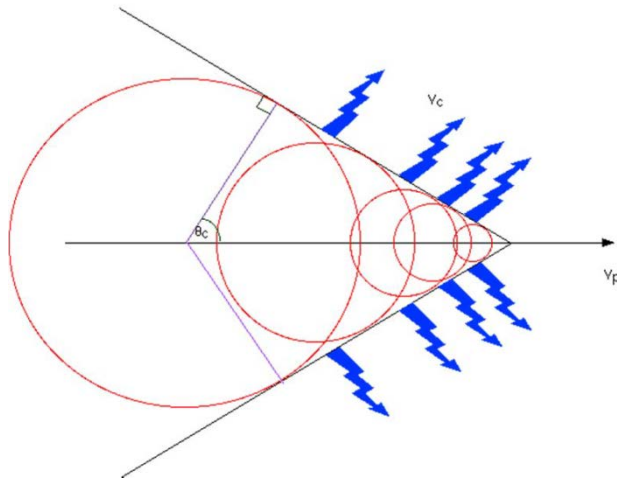
Hess Telescopes  
Namibia

$\gamma$ -ray detection





# Cherenkov radiation



threshold velocity:  $\beta \geq \frac{1}{n}$

threshold angle:  $\cos \theta_c = \frac{1}{\beta \cdot n}$

$$\gamma = (1 - \beta^2)^{-1/2} \geq \frac{n}{\sqrt{n^2 - 1}}$$

Parameters of typical radiators

medium	n	$\beta_{thr}$	$\theta_{max}(\beta = 1)$	$N_{ph}(eV^{-1}cm^{-1})$
air	1.000283	0.9997	1.36	0.208
isobutene	1.00127	0.9987	2.89	0.941
water	1.33	0.752	41.2	160.8
quartz	1.46	0.685	46.7	196.4

Note: Energy loss due to Cherenkov radiation very small compared to ionization (<1%)

# Interaction of gamma rays with matter

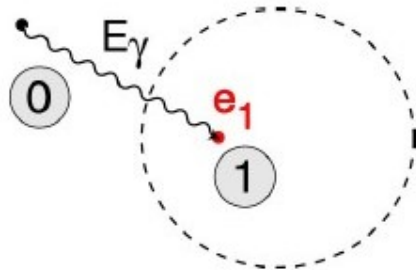
~ 100 keV

~1 MeV

~ 10 MeV

γ-ray energy →

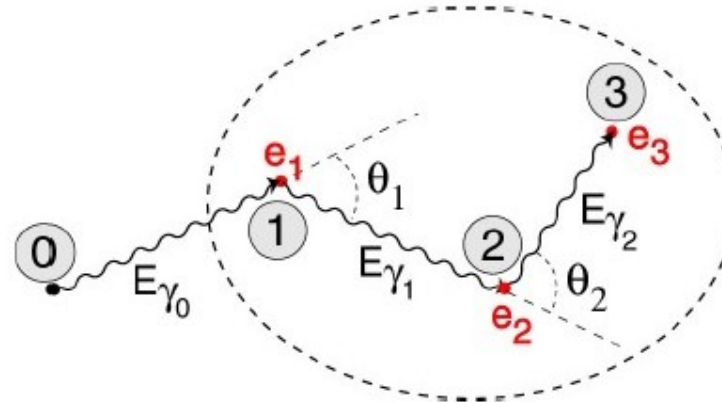
## Photoelectric



Isolated hits

Probability of interaction depth

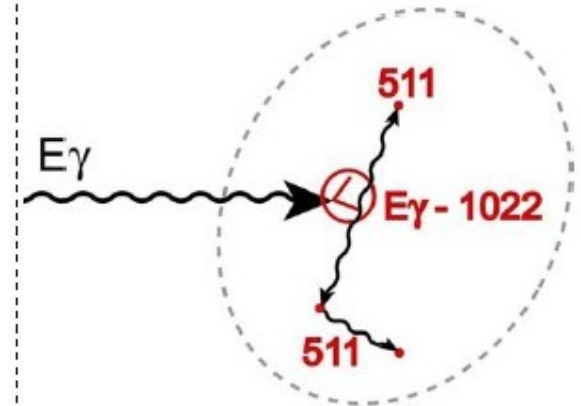
## Compton Scattering



Angle/Energy

$$E_{\gamma'} = \frac{E_{\gamma}}{1 + \frac{E_{\gamma}}{m_0 c^2} (1 - \cos\theta)}$$

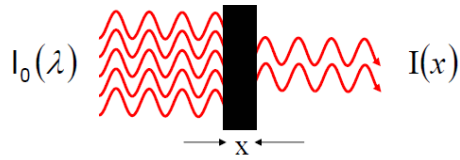
## Pair Production



Pattern of hits

$$E_{1st} = E_{\gamma} - 2 mc^2$$

# Interaction of gamma rays with matter

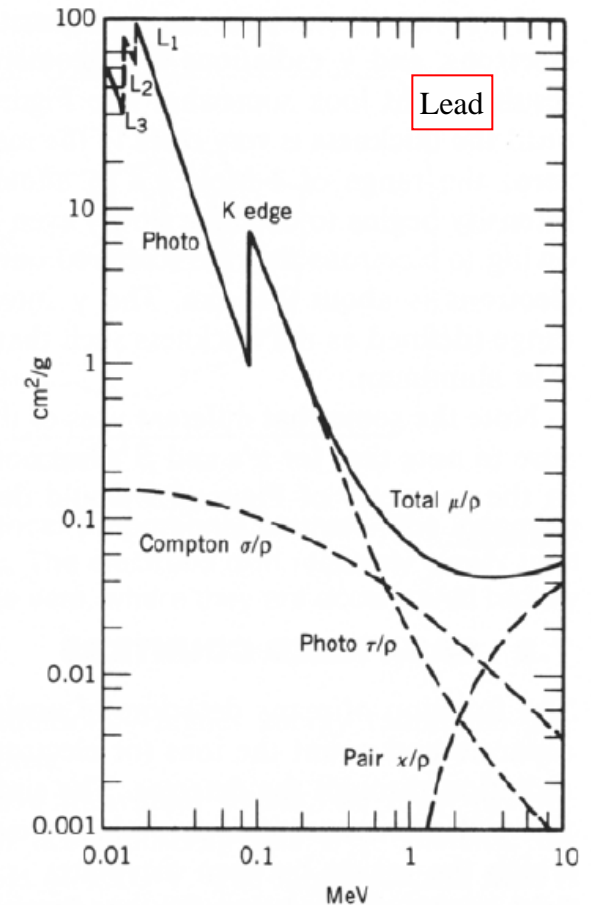
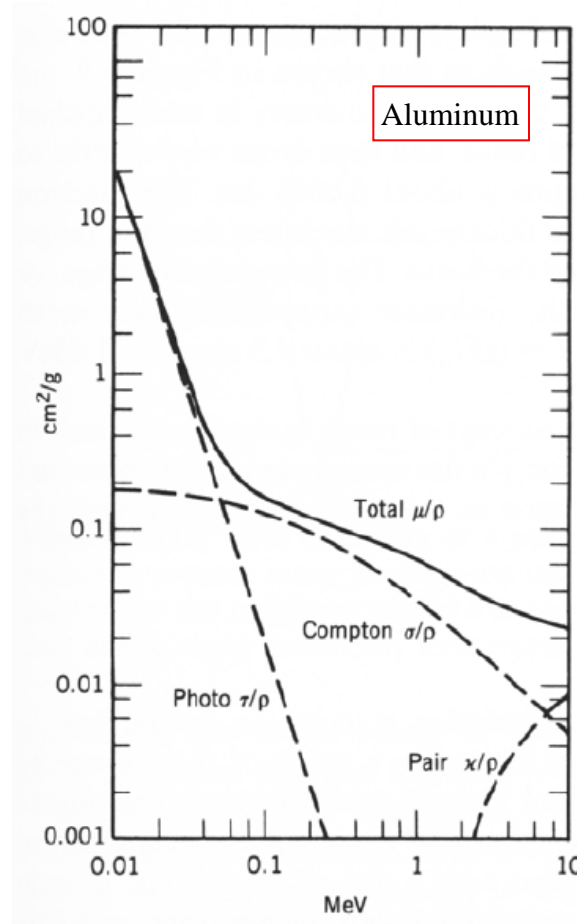


$$I(x) = I_0(\lambda) \cdot e^{-\frac{\mu(\lambda, Z)}{\rho} \rho \cdot x}$$

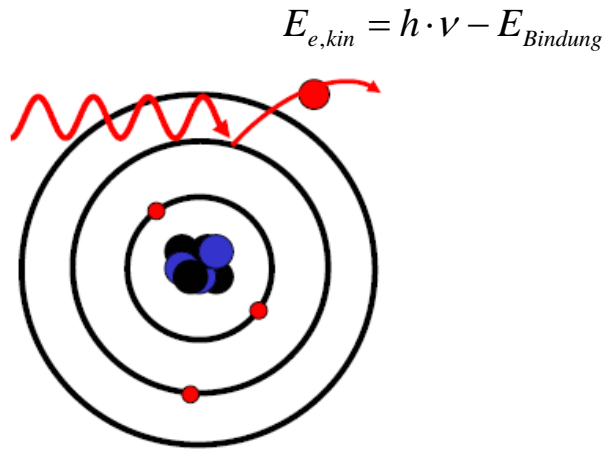
total absorption coefficient:  $\mu/\rho$  [ $\text{cm}^2/\text{g}$ ]

$$\frac{\mu_{total}}{\rho} = \sum_{i=1}^3 \sigma_i$$

- i=1 photoelectric effect
- i=2 Compton scattering
- i=3 pair production

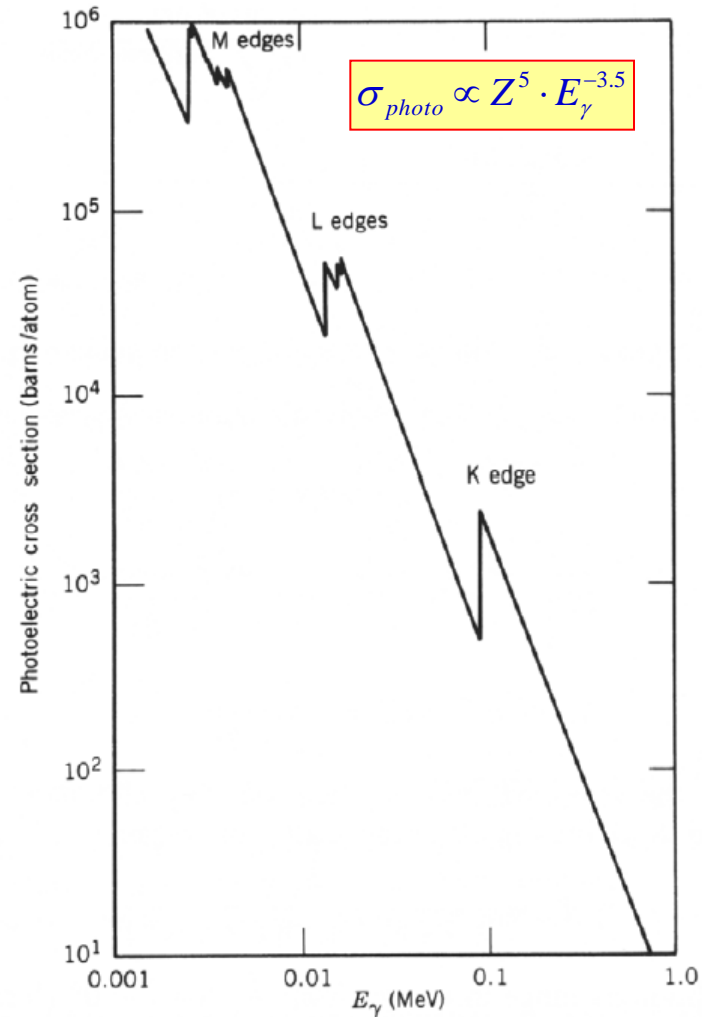


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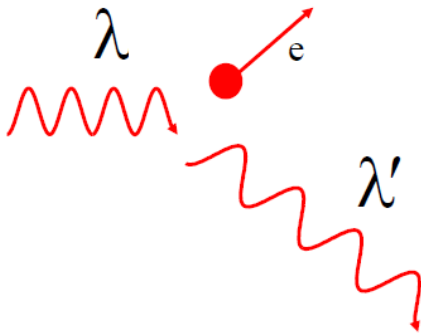


## Photo effect:

Absorption of a photon by a bound electron and conversion of the  $\gamma$ -energy in potential and kinetical energy of the ejected electron. (Nucleus preserves the momentum conservation.)



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Maximum energy of the scattered electron:

$$T(e^-)_{\max} = E_\gamma \cdot \frac{2 \cdot E_\gamma}{m_e c^2 + 2 \cdot E_\gamma}$$

Energy of the scattered  $\gamma$ -photon:

$$E_\gamma' = \frac{E_\gamma \cdot m_e c^2}{m_e c^2 + E_\gamma \cdot (1 - \cos \theta)}$$

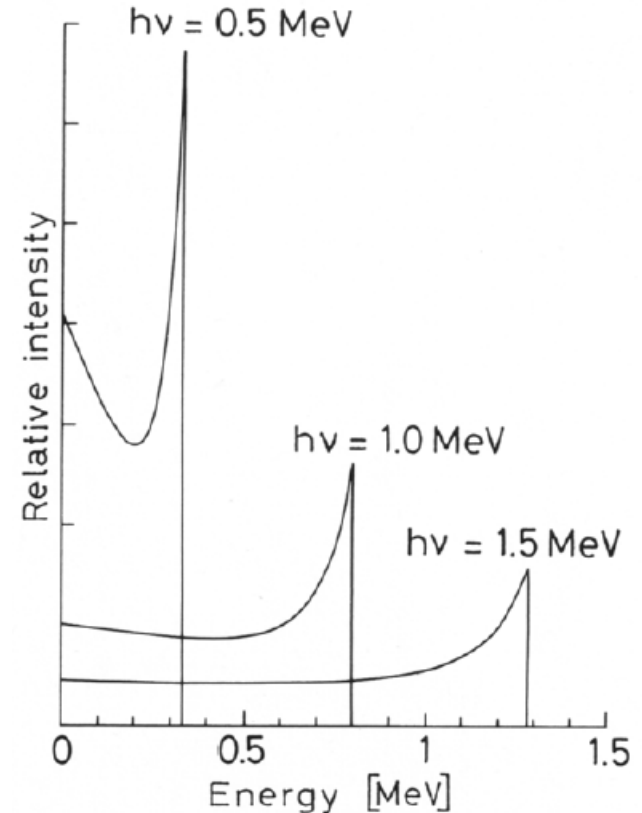
$$\cos \theta = 1 + \frac{m_e c^2}{E_\gamma} - \frac{m_e c^2}{E_\gamma'}$$

Special case for  $E \gg m_e c^2$ :  
 $\gamma$ -ray energy after  $180^\circ$  scatter is approximately

$$E_\gamma' = \frac{m_e c^2}{2} = 256 \text{ keV}$$

## Compton scattering:

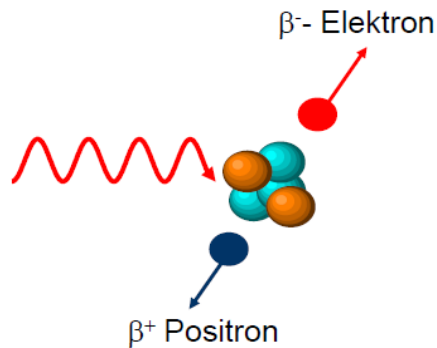
Elastic scattering of a  $\gamma$ -ray on a free electron. A fraction of the  $\gamma$ -ray energy is transferred to the Compton electron. The wave length of the scattered  $\gamma$ -ray is increased:  $\lambda' > \lambda$ .



Gap between the incoming  $\gamma$ -ray and the maximum electron energy.

$$E_{\text{kin}}^{\max} = E_\gamma - E_\gamma' = E_\gamma \cdot \frac{2 \cdot E_\gamma / m_e c^2}{1 + 2 \cdot E_\gamma / m_e c^2}$$

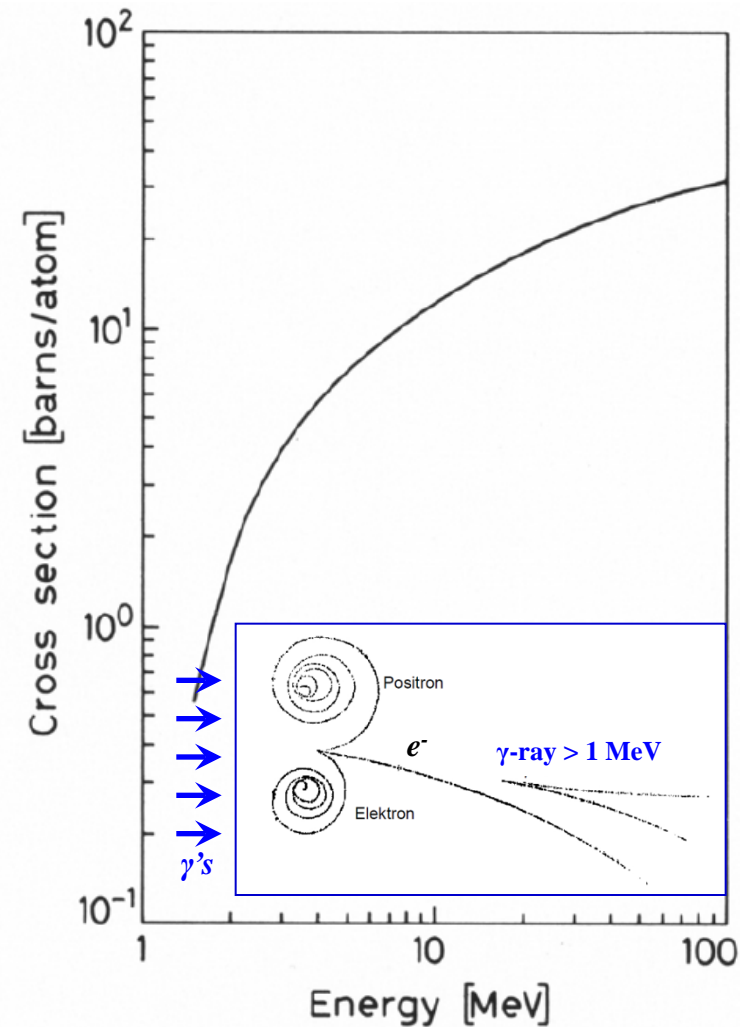
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## Pair production:

If  $\gamma$ -ray energy is  $\gg 2m_0c^2$  (electron rest mass 511 keV), a positron-electron pair can be formed in the strong Coulomb field of a nucleus. This pair carries the  $\gamma$ -ray energy minus  $2m_0c^2$ .

Pair production for  $E_\gamma > 2m_e c^2 = 1.022 \text{ MeV}$

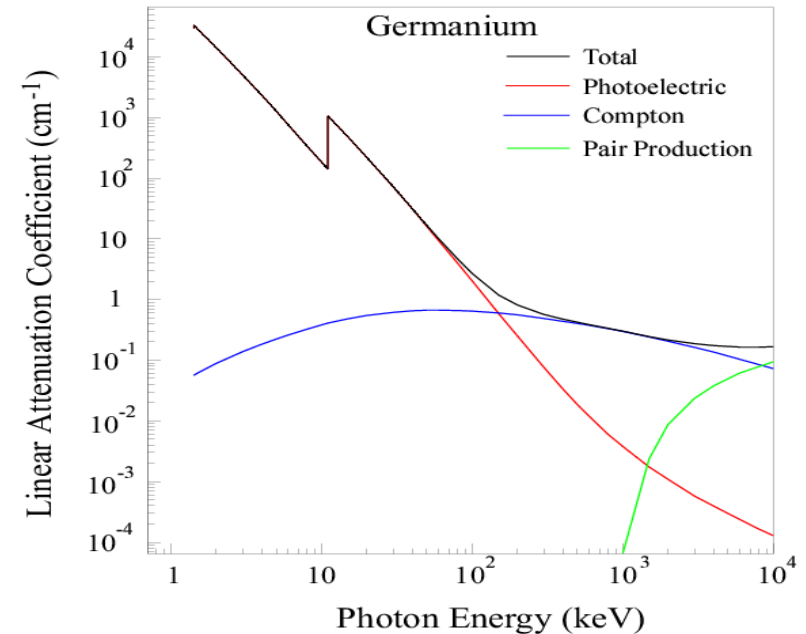
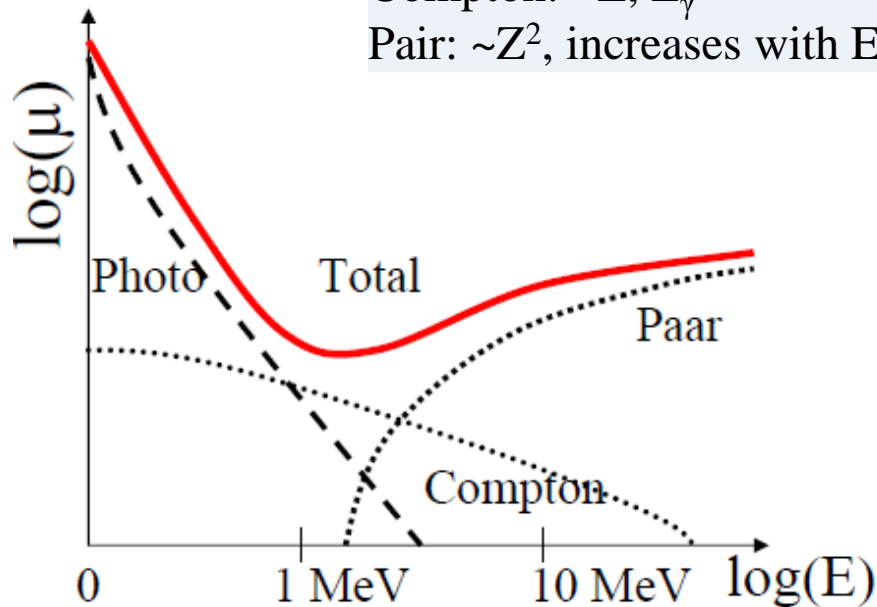


picture of a bubble chamber

# Gamma-ray interaction cross section

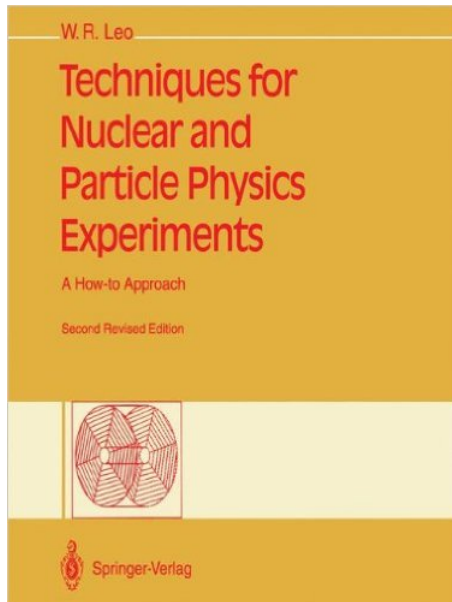
All three interaction (photo effect, Compton scattering and pair production) lead to an attenuation of the  $\gamma$ -ray or X-ray radiation when passing through matter. The particular contribution depends on the  $\gamma$ -ray energy:

Photo effect:  $\sim Z^{4-5}, E_{\gamma}^{-3.5}$   
Compton:  $\sim Z, E_{\gamma}^{-1}$   
Pair:  $\sim Z^2$ , increases with  $E_{\gamma}$

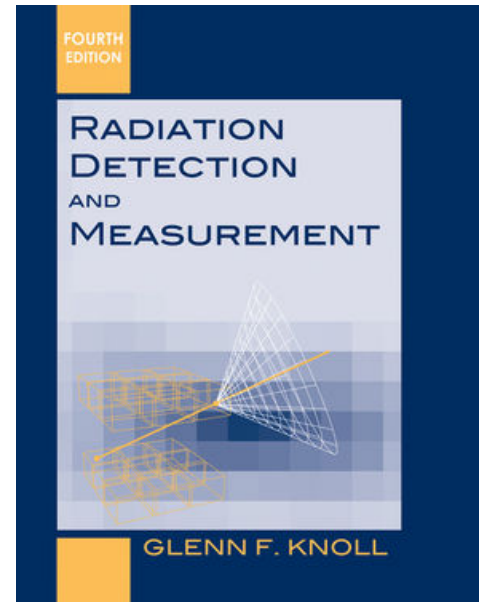


The absorption attenuates the intensity, but the energy and the frequency of the  $\gamma$ -ray and X-ray radiation is preserved!

# Literature



❖ Recommended Textbook



❖ Recommended Textbook



# Some Nuclear Units

**Nuclear energies** are very high compared to atomic processes, and need larger units. The most commonly used unit is the MeV.

$$1 \text{ electron Volt} = 1 \text{ eV} = 1.6 \cdot 10^{-19} \text{ Joules}$$

$$1 \text{ MeV} = 10^6 \text{ eV}; 1 \text{ GeV} = 10^9 \text{ eV}; 1 \text{ TeV} = 10^{12} \text{ eV}$$

However, the **nuclear size** are quite small and need smaller units:

Atomic sizes are on the order of  $0.1 \text{ nm} = 1 \text{ Angstrom} = 10^{-10} \text{ m}$ . Nuclear sizes are on the order of femtometers which in the nuclear context are usually called fermis:

$$1 \text{ fermi} = 1 \text{ fm} = 10^{-15} \text{ m}$$

**Atomic masses** are measured in terms of atomic mass units with the carbon-12 atom defined as having a mass of exactly 12 amu. It is also common practice to quote the rest mass energy  $E=m_0c^2$  as if it were the mass. The conversion to amu is:

$$1 \text{ u} = 1.66054 \cdot 10^{-27} \text{ kg} = 931.494 \text{ MeV}/c^2$$

$$\text{electron mass} = 0.511 \text{ MeV}/c^2; \text{proton mass} = 938.27 \text{ MeV}/c^2; \text{neutron mass} = 939.56 \text{ MeV}/c^2$$



**Mass data:** [www.nndc.bnl.gov/qcalc/](http://www.nndc.bnl.gov/qcalc/)

# Some Nuclear Units

Quantity	HEP units	SI Units
length	1 fm	$10^{-15}$ m
energy	1 GeV	$1.602 \cdot 10^{-10}$ J
mass	1 GeV/c <sup>2</sup>	$1.78 \cdot 10^{-27}$ kg
$\hbar = h/2\pi$	$6.588 \cdot 10^{-25}$ GeV s	$1.055 \cdot 10^{-34}$ Js
c	$2.988 \cdot 10^{23}$ fm/s	$2.988 \cdot 10^8$ m/s
$\hbar c$	0.1973 GeV fm	$3.162 \cdot 10^{-26}$ Jm

## Natural units ( $\hbar = c = 1$ )

mass	1 GeV
length	$1 \text{ GeV}^{-1} = 0.1973 \text{ fm}$
time	$1 \text{ GeV}^{-1} = 6.59 \cdot 10^{-25} \text{ s}$

# Relevant Formulae

The relevant formulae are calculated if  $A_1, Z_1$  and  $A_2, Z_2$  are the mass number (amu) and charge number of the projectile and target nucleus, respectively, and  $T_{lab}$  is the laboratory energy (MeV)

$$E = T_{lab} + m_0 \cdot c^2$$

$$m \cdot c^2 = T_{lab} + m_0 \cdot c^2$$

$$\frac{m_0 \cdot c^2}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}} = T_{lab} + m_0 \cdot c^2$$

beam velocity:

$$\beta = \frac{\sqrt{T_{lab}^2 + 1863 \cdot A_1 \cdot T_{lab}}}{931.5 \cdot A_1 + T_{lab}}$$

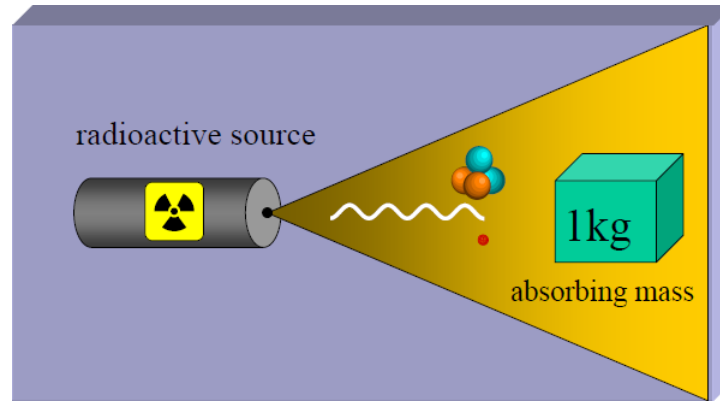
Lorentz contraction factor:

$$\gamma = (1 - \beta^2)^{-1/2}$$

$$\gamma = \frac{931.5 \cdot A_1 + T_{lab}}{931.5 \cdot A_1}$$

$$\beta \cdot \gamma = \frac{\sqrt{T_{lab}^2 + 1863 \cdot A_1 \cdot T_{lab}}}{931.5 \cdot A_1}$$

# Radiation protection



$$\text{absorbed dose} = \frac{\text{absorbed energy}}{\text{mass}}$$

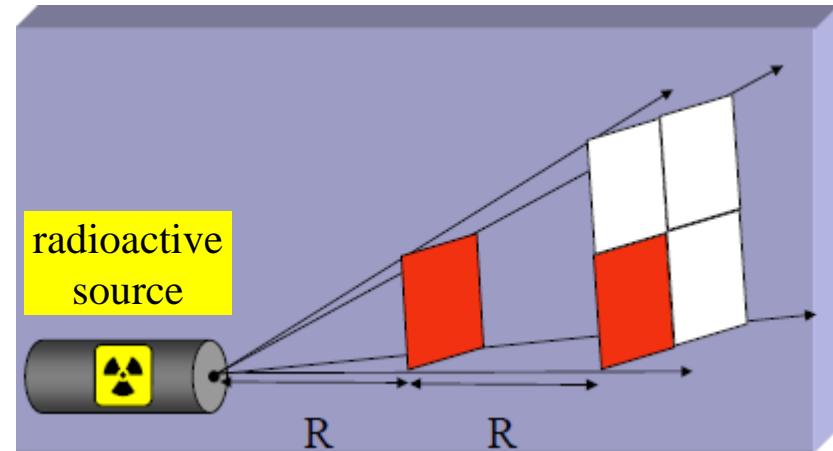
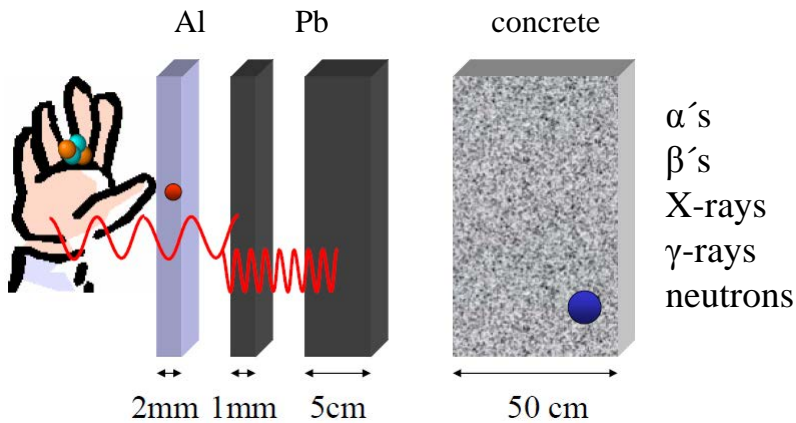
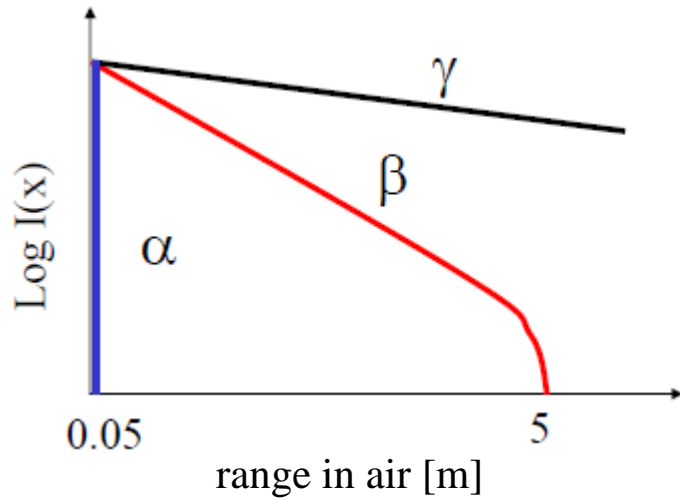
$$1 \frac{\text{Joule}}{\text{kg}} = 1 \text{ Gray (Gy)}$$

The biological dose, sometimes also known as the dose equivalent is expressed in units of Sieverts [Sv]. This dose reflects the fact that the biological damage caused by a particle depends not only on the total energy deposited but also on the rate of energy loss per unit distance traversed by the particle.

$$\text{equivalent dose} = \text{energy dose} \cdot \text{quality factor } Q$$

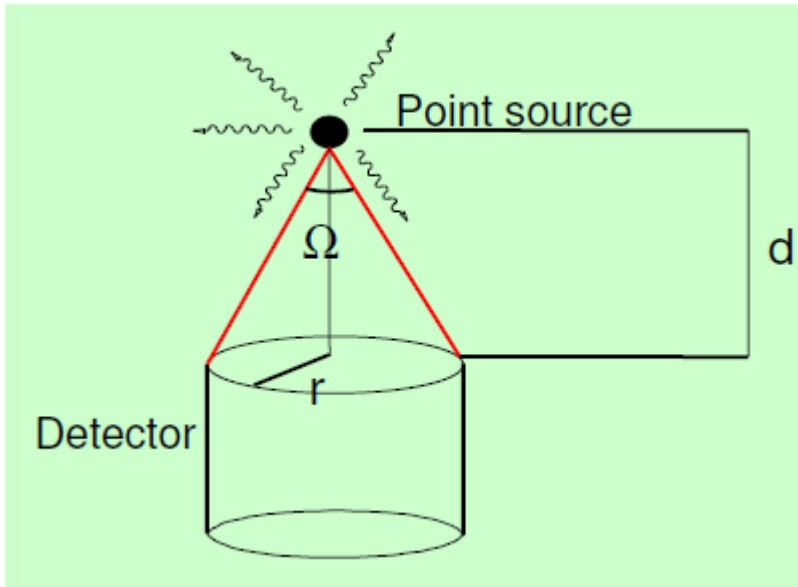
radiation	quality factor Q
X-ray, $\gamma$ , $\beta$	1
thermal neutrons	2.3
fast neutrons	10
$\alpha$ -particles, heavy ions	20

# Radiation protection

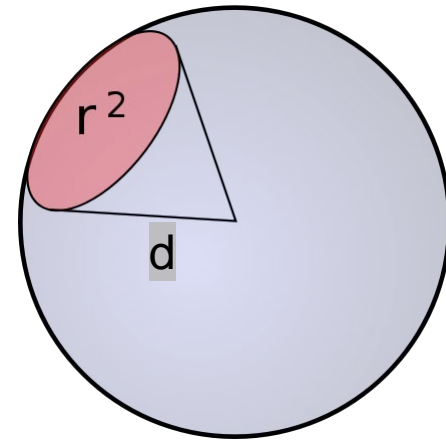


$$\Omega = \frac{a^2}{4\pi \cdot R^2} = \frac{\pi \cdot r^2}{4\pi \cdot R^2}$$

# Solid angle



$$1 \text{ Ci} = 3.7 \cdot 10^{10} \text{ Bq}$$



$$\frac{\Omega}{4\pi} \cong \frac{\pi r^2}{4\pi d^2} = \left(\frac{r}{2d}\right)^2$$

$\Omega$  = solid angle between source and detector (sr)

For a point source:

$$\frac{\Omega}{4\pi} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{d}{\sqrt{d^2 + r^2}}\right)$$

<b>d (cm)</b> $r = 3\text{cm}$	$\Omega/4\pi$ [%]	$\Omega/4\pi$ [%]
5	7.13	55
10	2.11	2.25
15	0.97	1