



BNL-220560-2020-JAAM

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To be published in "Journal of Instrumentation"

October 2020

Collider Accelerator Department
Brookhaven National Laboratory

U.S. Department of Energy
USDOE Office of Science (SC), Nuclear Physics (NP) (SC-26)

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Beam characterization at NSRL for radiobiological experiments – phase 1

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ABSTRACT: An experimental campaign was carried out at the NASA Space Radiation Laboratory to perform an additional, independent dosimetric characterization of the beams of protons, helium and carbon ions for radiobiological experiments. The campaign was undertaken by the request and with the support from the National Cancer Institute, US. In this initial phase, the goals were to obtain a first assessment of the dosimetric reproducibility of the beam control system, including analysis of spatial homogeneity and evaluation of ion beam contamination. They should facilitate the design of further experimental campaigns for beam characterization for radiobiological experiments. Measurements included reference dosimetry with comparison of in-house and external ionization chambers and electrometers, lateral-dose profile measurements in air, depth-dose profile in a water tank, evaluation of water equivalent thickness of a HDPE binary range shifter and estimation of impurities of the investigated helium-ion beam. The experiments and results are presented.

KEYWORDS: Dosimetry concepts and apparatus, Detector alignment and calibration methods, Radiotherapy concepts, Instrumentation for heavy-ion therapy

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1 **Background**

2 The increasing number of ion-beam therapy facilities worldwide¹ and their encouraging
3 clinical results have led to a growing interest in research projects connected to ion-beam
4 radiotherapy in the US. Consequently, the NASA Space Radiation Laboratory (NSRL)[1, 2]
5 at Brookhaven National Laboratory — the only US research facility providing high-energy
6 heavy-ion beams – is increasingly used for basic radiobiological research with heavy ions
7 in the context of ion-beam therapy[3]. The results of these experiments may be used to
8 generate a rationale for the clinical use of heavy-ion beams in the US. Therefore, it is of great
9 importance to ensure the limitations of the generated data. Accurate knowledge of beam
10 properties and dosimetry parameters is key for establishing the accuracy of these studies
11 and to enable intercomparison and reproducibility[4, 5]. In this framework, the National
12 Cancer Institute launched a program for an independent characterization of the ion beams
13 delivered at NSRL and used for radiobiological experiments. As part of this initiative, a
14 team of researchers from the German Cancer Research Center (DKFZ) conducted a series
15 of measurements from February 28, 2019 to March 1, 2019 using equipment complementary
16 to devices at NSRL. These first phase experiments focused on reference dosimetry, beam

¹Current facilities in operation and patient statistics as reported by the Particle Therapy Co-Operative Group is available at <https://www.ptcog.ch/>

17 shape and potential contamination of the ion beams, as these are considered key factors for
18 accurate dosimetry.

19 2 Material and Methods

20 2.1 Ion beams

21 NSRL provides ion beams from protons to gold nuclei, which are extracted from the Booster
22 synchrotron of Brookhaven National Laboratory with energies from 50 to 1,500 MeV/n (up
23 to 2,500 MeV for protons). For radiation therapy-related research, the species of interest
24 are protons to neon ions with energies up to around 500 MeV/n available at dose rates up to
25 around 4 Gy/min (depending on ion species and field size). The sources used to produce the
26 ions are either a LINAC (for protons) or the Electron Beam Ion Source (EBIS) equipped
27 with gas sources like helium and a laser ion source for any type of solid target, which can
28 quickly change ion species within a few pulses. Beams produced from the laser ion source
29 are especially susceptible to contamination from other ions with the same charge to mass
30 ratio as the primary ion. Furthermore, traces of atmospheric gases like nitrogen, oxygen,
31 and carbon are almost always present in the source vacuum chamber and are common
32 contaminants. When accelerating helium it is also not unusual to find neon contamination
33 in the gas cylinder supplying the helium gas to the source chamber.

34 The ion beams at NSRL are delivered by a horizontal beamline through a set of mag-
35 netic dipole, quadrupole and octupole lenses, which control the size and shape of the beam
36 to match the desired radiation field. A large tungsten collimator may be used to control the
37 overall field size and additional small collimators may be inserted, if a small pencil-beam is
38 needed. The beam energy can be actively changed by modifying the synchrotron settings,
39 or passively with the use of a binary range shifter placed in the beamline inside the ex-
40 perimental room. The binary range shifter is made of high-density polyethylene (HDPE).
41 Additionally, modulator wheels may be inserted in the beamline to produce a spread-out
42 Bragg peak (SOBP). In the set of experiments reported in this work, the field size was
43 tuned to irradiate a $20 \times 20 \text{ cm}^2$ area, whose fluence homogeneity was monitored with the
44 digital beam imager (DBI). The DBI consists of a luminescence screen which is read out
45 by an optical system and a CCD camera. The DBI is inserted in the beamline just behind
46 the position where measurements are taken, and displays beam uniformity with a typical
47 homogeneity of 3% throughout the inner part of the field.

48 In this first set of investigations, mainly mono-energetic beams were used. One of the
49 available beam modulator wheels was also tested in the measurements. The following ion
50 beams with approximately 20 cm range in water were used in the experiments: 173 MeV
51 protons, 173 MeV/n helium ions, and 326 MeV/n carbon ions.

52 When a beam is requested, the number of ions to be delivered is specified and the
53 irradiation is controlled by a first large area monitor chamber (usually QC3 chamber, see
54 Table 1). The chamber reading is used as a reference signal to control the beam and provides
55 a normalization (i.e dose and ions fluence delivered) for each irradiation that allows a direct
56 comparison between different experiments. The monitor chamber is routinely calibrated

57 against a NIST calibrated ionization chamber prior to each run (usually “EGG600”, see
58 Table 1).

59 2.2 Equipment

60 The laboratory equipment used in the experiments is listed in Table 1. For the reference
61 dosimetry experiments, Far West ionization chambers currently used at NSRL and two
62 Farmer chambers were used in combination with 3 different readout electrometers. Lateral-
63 dose profiles in air were measured with a small-sized cylindrical PinPoint chamber, while
64 depth-dose profiles in water were obtained using a plane-parallel Markus chamber. In both
65 profile measurements, the field chambers were fixed to a motorized arm in a phantom tank
66 allowing accurate positioning of the chamber in the field. Last, a set of 3 Timepix sili-
67 con pixel detectors were mounted as a telescope device, providing an identification of the
68 individual ion tracks for an evaluation of the beam contaminants. The detector technol-
69 ogy named Timepix was developed at the European Organization for Nuclear Research
70 (CERN) within the Medipix2 Collaboration[6, 7]. Its high granularity (pixel dimensions
71 of 55 $\mu\text{m} \times 55 \mu\text{m}$) and a time resolution down to 10 ns facilitates single-particle detection.
72 These features combined with the energy-sensitivity of each pixel have already enabled
73 many applications with respect to ion detection, e.g. for radiation monitoring in space
74 [8–10], for detection and tracking of secondary ions during ion-beam therapy [11–13], or as
75 a part of detection systems developed for ion imaging[14].

76 All equipment from DKFZ (except the Timepix detector equipment) was calibrated and
77 certified in December 2018 by PTW (Freiburg, Germany), to ensure correct functioning and
78 traceability of the measured doses to the German national primary standard for dose, which
79 is also the basis for ion-beam radiotherapy in Germany. The same type of equipment is
80 used routinely at the Heidelberg Ion-Beam Therapy Center in daily clinical practice for
81 ion-beam dosimetry.

82 2.3 Reference dosimetry

83 Reference dosimetry measurements were performed to compare the response of the ioniza-
84 tion chambers used at NSRL, Far West Technology “EGG” (S/N 600 and S/N 908), against
85 the calibrated ionization chambers PTW 30013 Farmer. To account for possible impact
86 of the readout, different devices were used, namely the 2 recycling integrators from NSRL
87 (“EGG1” and “EGG2”) and the PTW UNIDOS Electrometer T10021. In all the experiments,
88 the chamber “EGG” (S/N 600) and the recycling integrator “EGG1” were used as reference.
89 Measurements were performed for 173 MeV proton and 326 MeV/n carbon-ion beams. The
90 chambers were mounted with build-up cap and placed at the same distance from the beam
91 window which correspond to the position typically used for the radiobiological experiments
92 (see Figure 1). A second set-up made use of the PTW 30013 Farmer chambers placed in a
93 RW3 slab phantom with the “EGG” chambers located directly upstream of the phantom.
94 The readout from the UNIDOS^{webline} electrometer was accessed remotely using the corre-
95 sponding VNC viewer. In total, 298 measurements from 145 irradiations in 16 runs were
96 performed, accounting for 13 out of the 24 possible permutations of chamber/readout/beam
97 (see Figure 2). Multiple measurements of each permutation were not feasible due to time

Table 1. Laboratory equipment from NSRL and complementary equipment from DKFZ used in the experiments.

Equipment	Comments
Equipment from NSRL	
Far West Technology "EGG" Ionization Chamber	S/N: 600, NIST calibrated ionization chamber, 1 cm ³ nominal sensitive volume, used as reference chamber in the experiments for relative comparisons, in the following denominated as "EGG600"
Far West Technology "EGG" Ionization Chamber	S/N: 908, 1 cm ³ nominal sensitive volume, in the following denominated as "EGG908"
"EGG1" Recycling Integrator	Used as reference electrometer in the experiments for relative comparisons
"EGG2" Recycling Integrator	
Monitor chamber QC1	
Monitor chamber QC3	Large planar ion chamber located approximately 10 cm from vacuum window. Used in combination with QC3 and binary range shifter to measure Bragg curves
Binary Range Shifter	QC3 chamber used to cut-off the irradiation located approximately 500 cm from vacuum window
Luminescence Screen	Set of remotely-driven HDPE layers with thickness varying from 0.25 mm to 128 mm
Beam Modulator Wheel	Scintillator camera
Collimators	Custom made for modulation of 1.2 cm SOBP for carbon-ion beam
	Blocks of tungsten
Equipment from DKFZ	
2 PTW Farmer-type Ionization Chambers	S/N: TM30013-03641 and TM30013-001583, 0.6 cm ³ nominal sensitive volume
2 PTW Markus-type Ionization Chambers	S/N: TM34045-0318 and TM34045-0615, 0.02 cm ³ nominal sensitive volume
1 PTW Pinpoint Ionization Chamber	S/N: TM31014-0015, 0.015 cm ³ nominal sensitive volume
PTW TANDEM Electrometer	S/N: T10011-10365
PTW UNIDOS ^{webline} Electrometer	S/N: T10021-0269
PTW MP3 phantom tank	Remote-controlled 3D acrylic water tank with 20 mm thick walls and a scanning range of 60×50×40.8 cm ³ .
PTW TBA Control Unit	S/N: T41013-0623
PTW TRUFIX base set	S/N: 981150
PTW RW3 slab phantom	Farmer chamber slab 29672/U19
PTW MEPHYSTO mc2 software	Version 1.8.0
3 Timepix detectors	Silicon pixel detectors with 55 μm pixel pitch, 300 μm sensor thickness, first generation; S/N: SPN3-3G1 (E07-W167), SPN3-3F6 (C07-W167), SPN3-3E4 (C08-W167)
1 FitPIX read-out interface	For read-out of Timepix detectors. S/N: FitPIX 0022
Pixel software	For data acquisition and steering of Timepix detectors. Version 1.4.7

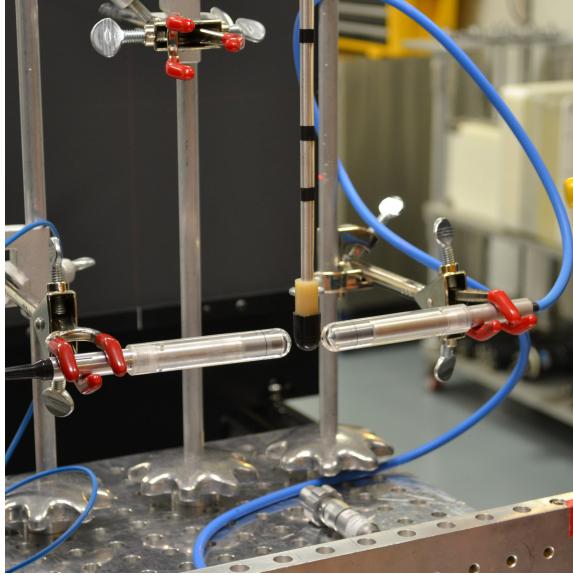


Figure 1. Set-up with the vertically-positioned reference chamber “EGG600” and two horizontally-positioned Farmer chambers.

98 limitations. The primary focus of the experiment was the comparison of the main ioniza-
 99 tion chamber and electrometers from NSRL and PTW for carbon ions. As a secondary
 100 goal, differences between carbon ions and protons as well as between the main and the
 101 second ionization chamber from NSRL were investigated. Measurements were performed
 102 for requested doses of 0.1 Gy (carbon-ion beam) and 0.2 Gy (proton beam). These values
 103 are well within the linear range of the ionization chambers and allow low uncertainty with
 104 shorter delivery time compared to the higher doses used in radiotherapy and radiobiological
 105 experiments.

106 **2.4 Dose profiles**

107 Dose profiles were performed using a MP3 phantom tank mounted with a TBA control unit
 108 for remote positioning of the field chamber mounted inside the tank. A reference chamber
 109 was mounted upstream of the tank and positioned in such a way to not shadow the field
 110 chamber. The readout data were remotely collected using the tbaScan application from
 111 MEPHYSTO software. The electrometer was reset before the data collection in every run.
 112 Measurements were taken on time basis with the time being equal to an integer multiple
 113 of the cycle time of the accelerator. Dose profiles in a plane perpendicular to the beam
 114 axis, henceforth denominated lateral-dose profiles, were taken to evaluate the uniformity of
 115 the dose in the central part of the beam. Lateral-dose profiles in air were measured using
 116 a TM34045 Markus chamber (S/N 0318) as reference chamber and a TM31014 PinPoint
 117 chamber (S/N 0015) as field chamber. Depth-dose profile measurements were performed
 118 by filling the MP3 phantom tank with demineralized water and using 2 TM34045 Markus
 119 chambers (S/N 0318 used as reference chamber, S/N 0615 used as field chamber). Mea-
 120 surements were also performed for a SOBP using a modulator wheel in which case the

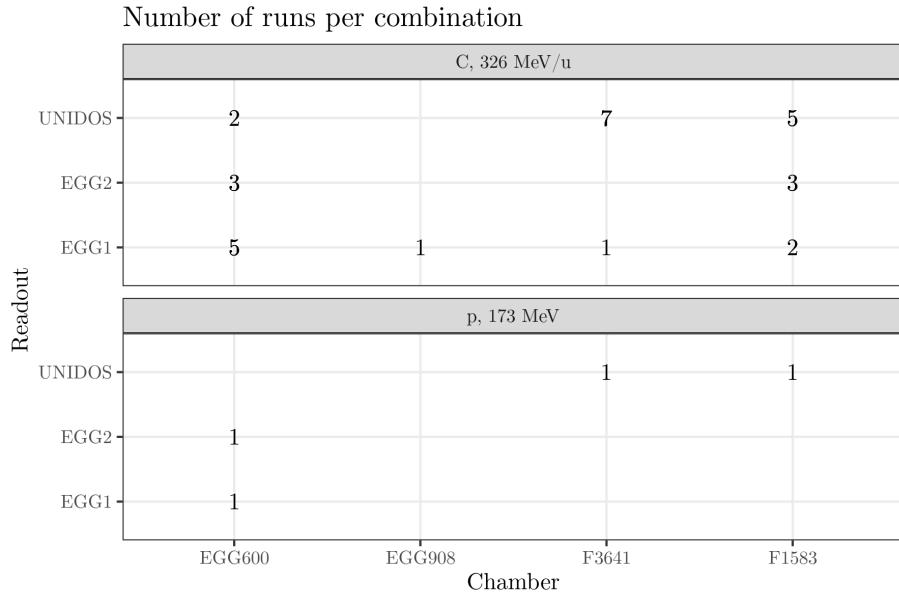


Figure 2. Number of runs per combination of chamber and readout device for carbon-ion beam (upper panel) and proton beam (lower panel).

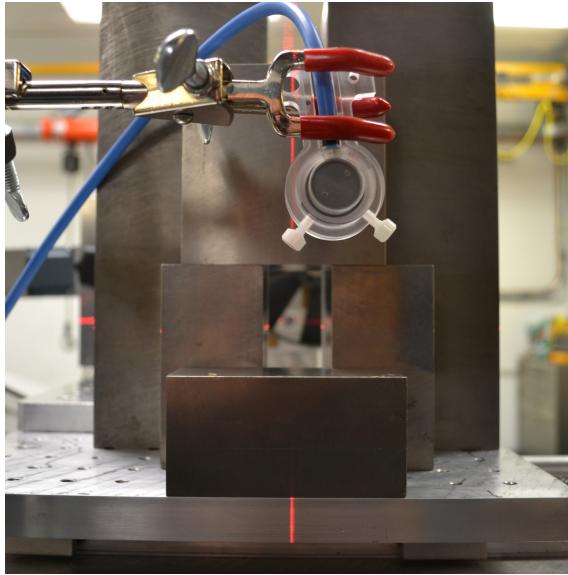


Figure 3. Set-up for measurements of SOBP. The reference TM34045 Markus chamber with build-up cap is displayed upstream of the collimator. The modulator wheel can be seen through the gap of the collimation.

beam was collimated downstream of the reference chamber. The beam modulator wheel and collimators were positioned in such a way that the modulated beam was aligned with the field chamber in the beam-eye-view (cf. Figure 3).

124 **2.5 WET determination of binary range shifter layers**

125 Since the binary range shifter mounted in the beamline is typically used at NSRL to pas-
126 sively change the energy of the ion beam or to measure depth-dose curves for range esti-
127 mation, it is relevant to evaluate the water-equivalent thickness (WET) of the layers. The
128 WET_{*i*} of each layer *i* was estimated by the changes of R₈₀² range in water as follows

$$\text{WET}_i = R_{80,\text{ref}} - R_{80,i}$$

129 where R_{80,ref} corresponds to the range of a 326 MeV/n carbon ion beam in water, and R_{80,*i*}
130 the range after traversing the layer *i*. The estimation of WET could also be used to evaluate
131 the water-equivalent path length (WEPL) in HDPE as follows

$$\text{WEPL} = \frac{(R_{80,\text{ref}} - R_{80})}{\text{layer thickness}}.$$

132 **2.6 Beam impurity**

133 Analysis of contamination for a 173 MeV/n helium-ion beam was performed using a set of
134 Timepix silicon pixel detectors in order to obtain an initial estimation of the purity of the
135 beam. This study is not representative of all beam species at NSRL. However, traces of
136 atmospheric gases in the helium-ion beam indicate possible contaminants in ion beams with
137 the same charge-mass ratio (e.g. carbon-ion beam). The aim was to determine if other ion
138 types heavier than helium ions are present in the requested helium-ion beam, and if so,
139 the relative amount of the contaminants. The presence and quantity of lighter fragments
140 produced inevitably by nuclear fragmentation in beamline elements and air downstream
141 of the synchrotron was not investigated. General aspects of nuclear fragmentation in the
142 context of ion-beam therapy can be found in [15], and current research specific to helium-ion
143 fragmentation in [16–18].

144 The energy deposition of individual ion tracks in the 300-μm-thick silicon layer of the
145 Timepix detectors was measured to differentiate between ion types. In general, the mean
146 energy deposition of mono-energetic ion beams in matter is well described by the Bethe-
147 Bloch equation[19, 20], which is given below without the shell or density correction terms:

$$\left\langle \frac{\Delta E}{\Delta x} \right\rangle = K \rho \frac{Z}{A} \frac{z^2}{\beta^2} \left[\ln \left(\frac{2m_e c^2 \beta^2}{I(1 - \beta^2)} \right) - \beta^2 \right],$$

148 where *z* and β are the charge number and the velocity relative to the speed of light of
149 the projectile ion, respectively. *Z/A*, ρ , and *I* are the charge-mass ratio, density and mean
150 ionization potential of the target material, and *K* is a constant. Since the different ion types
151 (primary ions and potential contaminants) would have the same specific energy, i.e. same
152 velocity, downstream of the synchrotron, the relative energy deposition in the silicon layer
153 of the different ions depends solely on the ratio of the squared charge number of the ions.
154 Due to this z^2 -dependence, well-differentiated energy depositions connected to different ion
155 types are expected.

²R₈₀ is characterized by the depth at the distal dose fall-off where the dose drops to 80% of the maximum dose level.

156 Post-processing of the data has to be carried out to identify and remove spurious signals
157 that are neither caused by incident primary particles nor by contamination ions in the beam
158 (e.g. signals caused by recoil nuclei in silicon or by overlapping/integrated signals of two
159 or more ion tracks). This is necessary to allow for an unbiased quantitative analysis of
160 beam purity. To facilitate this procedure, not only the energy deposition of single ions in
161 one detector was measured, but track identification was performed by using a telescope
162 consisting of three synchronized Timepix detectors. The set of detectors provides for each
163 signal a spatial resolution better than the pixel pitch of 55 μm of the detector. The first
164 detector was used to measure the energy deposition, while the last two detectors were used
165 to measure the arrival time of the impinging particles. The time stamps on the last two
166 detectors were used to identify coincident hits, and these coincidences were connected to
167 the measured energy deposition by back-projection of the corresponding tracks onto the
168 energy detector. In this way, signals due to recoils and other background which are not
169 observed in all three detector layers, as well as overlapping signals from multiple tracks,
170 can be identified and removed. The next step in the analysis is the generation of two-
171 dimensional (2D) histograms of energy deposition in detector 1 on the first axis and the
172 corresponding cluster size (defined as number of adjacent hit pixels) on the second axis.
173 Since the cluster size is an additional parameter that helps to classify different signals, the
174 final differentiation between signals caused by primary helium ions and signals caused by
175 other ion types due to beam impurities is based on the 2D histogram and not only on the
176 energy deposition information.

177 3 Results

178 3.1 Reference dosimetry

179 The dose response in the reference dosimetry measurements was evaluated with respect
180 to the influence of the chamber type, readout device, ion type and set-up geometry. The
181 intrinsic response variability of the ion chambers were not estimated. However, they are
182 expected to be smaller than the uncertainty associated to the chamber correction factors
183 and calibration. For example, the uncertainty budget for the computation of beam quality
184 correction factors k_Q for carbon-ion beams has been estimated as 2.4% [21].

185 The response of the monitor chamber (employed to cut-off the irradiation) was used
186 to evaluate the dosimetric reproducibility of the beam control system. The measured dose
187 shows an average deviation of +0.02% and -0.02% from the requested dose for protons
188 and carbon ions, respectively, with a relative variation of 0.09% and 0.03% (1 standard
189 deviation). The ionization chamber-specific response averaged over different irradiations is
190 presented in Figure 4 for the irradiation with proton and carbon-ion beams using different
191 combinations of the readout devices. In the following, except when explicitly stated other-
192 wise, the results obtained using the RW3 slab phantom are excluded from the analysis to
193 avoid introducing a bias in the response with the Farmer chambers.

194 Figure 5 shows the influence of the chamber type. The dose response of the chamber
195 EGG600 was, on average, 2.5% higher than the requested dose. The dose response of
196 the chambers EGG908, F3641 and F1583 were lower than the requested dose by 3.2%,

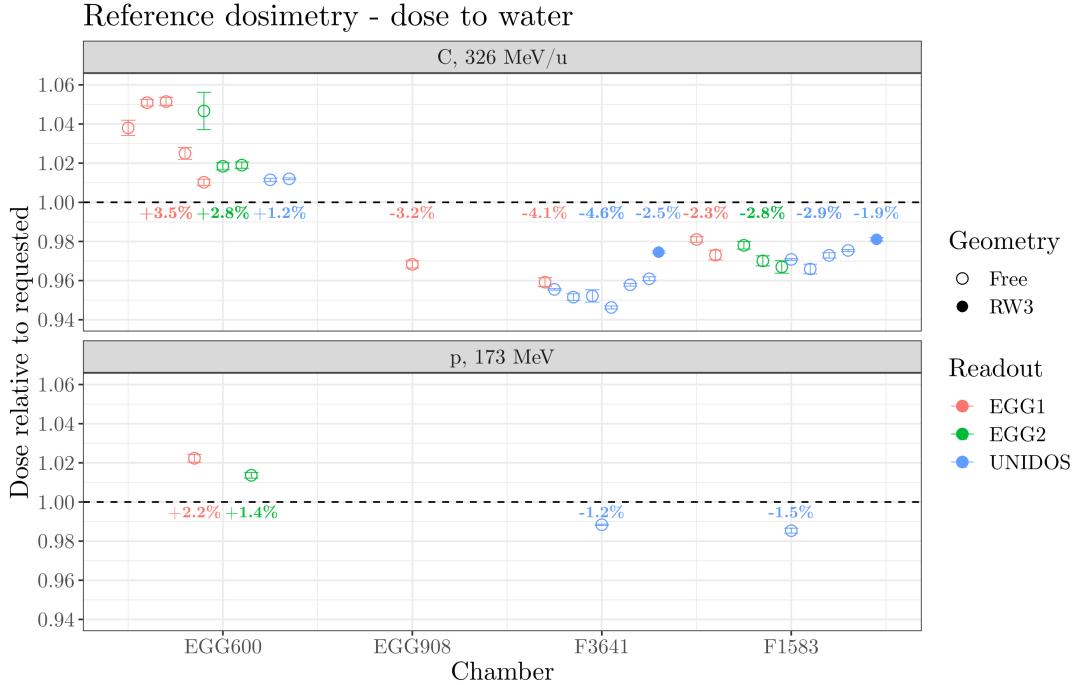


Figure 4. Mean dose response data over different runs for the “EGG” ionization chambers S/N 600 (EGG600) and S/N 908 (EGG908) and Farmer chambers S/N TM30013-03641 (F3641) and S/N TM30013-001583 (F1583). Colours are used to differentiate the readout device. Filled circles represent the measurements with the Farmer chamber placed inside the RW3 slab phantom.

3.7% and 2.5%, respectively. Approximately 5–6% difference between chamber EGG600 and the other chambers was observed. Tukey multiple pairwise-comparisons was used to evaluate the significance of the differences. Except for the pair comparison between EGG908 and each of the Farmer chambers, all other differences among the chambers are mutually significant.

Figure 6 shows the influence of the readout device on the response of the ionization chambers. The dose response obtained with the readout EGG1 is, on average, 1.3% higher than the requested dose. In contrast, the other two readouts show average dose response lower than the requested dose, -0.5% for EGG2, and -2.5% for UNIDOS. Mutually significant differences in the response depending on the readout device were observed. The response with UNIDOS is on average approximately 4% lower than the response using EGG1. Differences between EGG1 and EGG2 are smaller (1.8%).

The influence of the readout device segmented per chamber type is shown in Figure 7. The results show that the main effect observed for the dependence of the chamber response on the readout device is driven by the response of the chamber EGG600. In contrast, the response of the Farmer ionization chambers is substantially less sensitive to the specific readout device used.

Figure 8 shows the influence of the beam on the chamber response for 4 specific combinations of chamber and readout. Significant differences between the response to proton

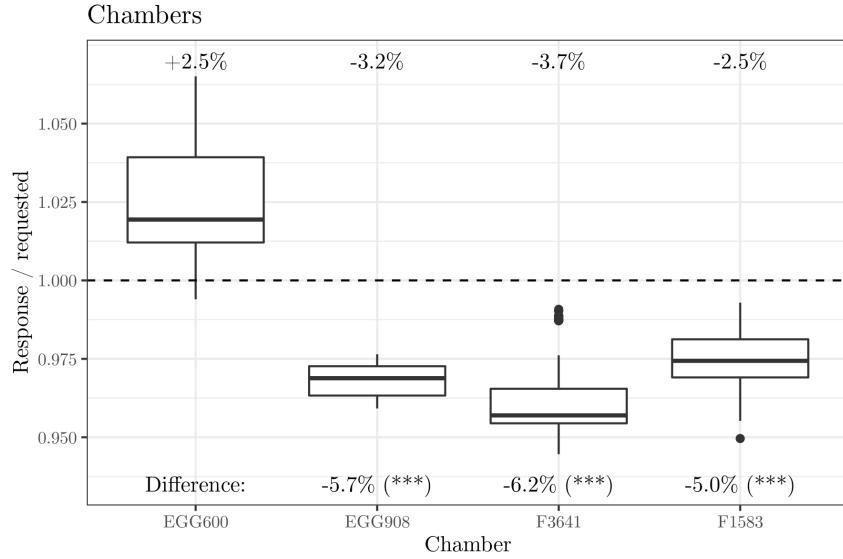


Figure 5. Influence of chamber type on the chamber dose response. Values on the top indicate the deviation w.r.t. the requested dose, while values on the bottom evaluate the significance of the difference in the results w.r.t. the results obtained with the reference chamber EGG600.

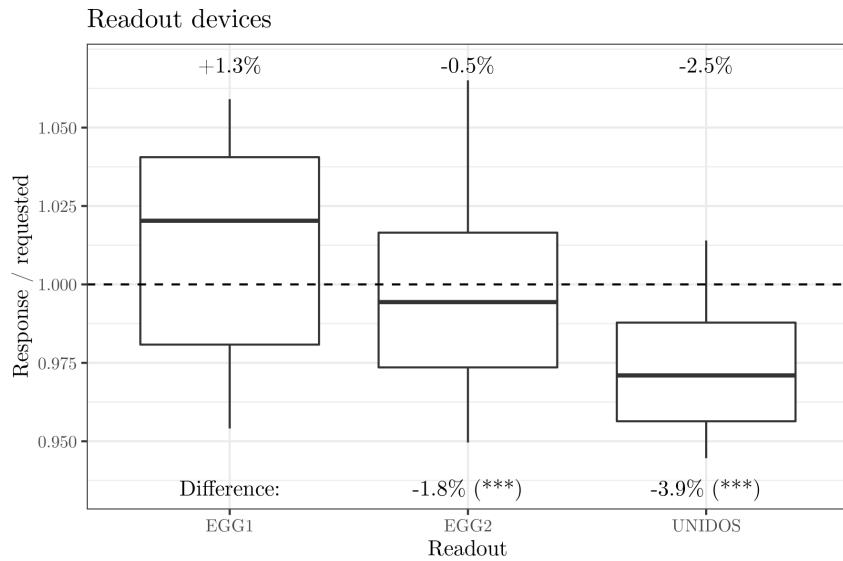


Figure 6. Influence of readout device on the chamber dose response. Values on the top indicate the deviation w.r.t. the requested dose, while values on the bottom evaluate the significance of the difference in the results w.r.t. the results obtained with the reference readout EGG1.

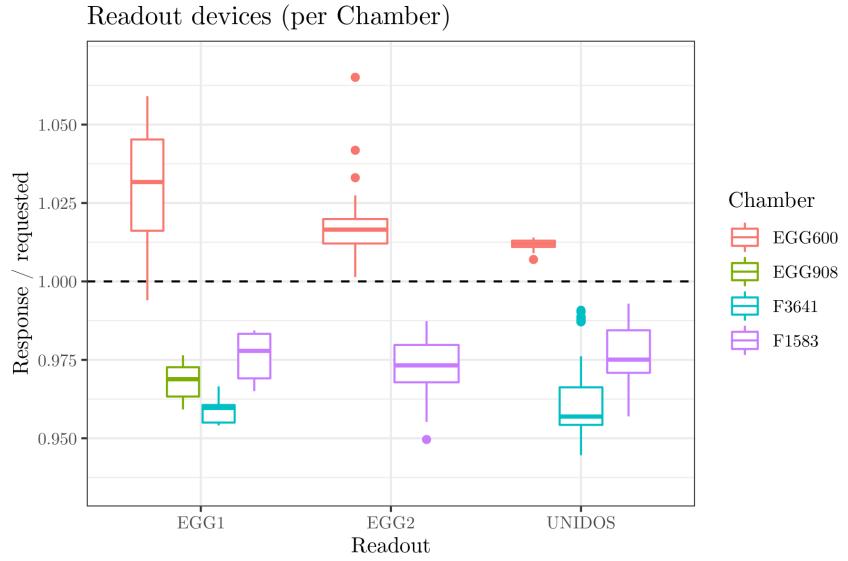


Figure 7. Influence of readout device on the chamber dose response segmented per chamber type.

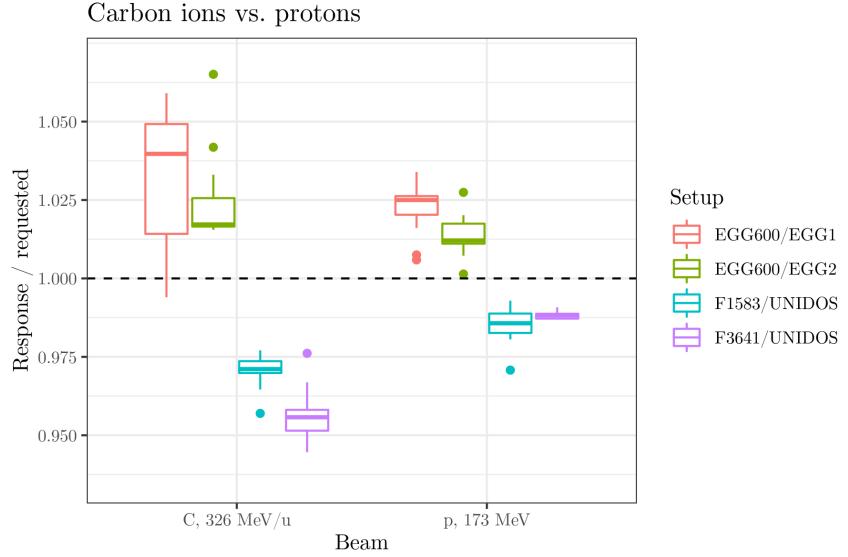


Figure 8. Influence of ion beam on the chamber response for 4 combinations of chamber and readout device.

and carbon-ion beams are observed. The response to protons is smaller for the EGG600 chamber with respect to the response to carbon ions, while the opposite effect is observed for the Farmer ionization chambers.

Figure 9 shows the influence of the geometry set-up on the response of the Farmer ionization chambers, i.e., free in air, or mounted inside the RW3 slab phantom. As expected, the variability of the chamber response is substantially reduced when the chamber is placed inside the RW3 slab phantom, followed by an increase of the response which is in line with

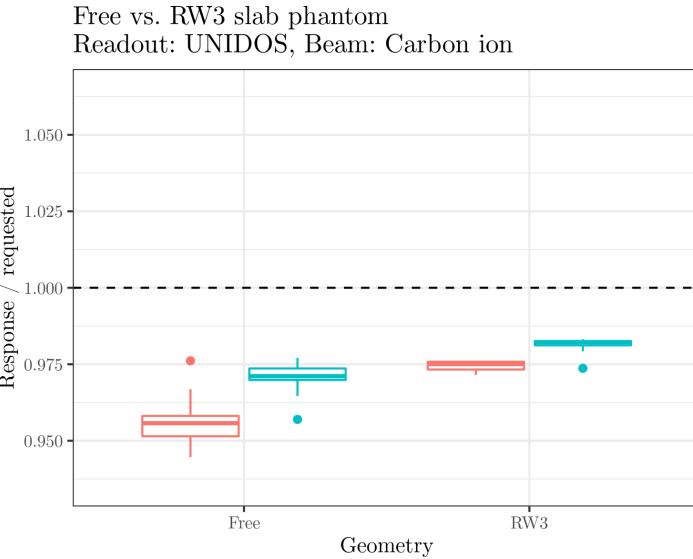


Figure 9. Influence of geometry on the dose response of the Farmer chambers using the UNIDOS readout for irradiation with carbon-ion beam.

223 the increase of stopping power due to the increase of material in the beam path.

224 The variability of the chamber response were evaluated with respect to chamber type
225 and readout used. In each case, the variabilty was first corrected for the observed linear
226 trend of the response as a function of time of irradiation for a given run. No significant
227 differences in variability were observed due to the chamber type (see Figure 10). Regarding
228 the impact of the readout device, UNIDOS shows significantly (3 fold) less variability across
229 all chambers in comparison to the readout devices EGG1 and EGG2 (see Figure 11).

230 3.2 Lateral-dose profiles

231 Field homogeneity was evaluated by means of lateral-dose profile measurements in a $10 \times 10 \text{ cm}^2$
232 central region. Figure 12 shows the lateral-dose profiles for 173 MeV proton and 326 MeV/n
233 carbon-ion beams in the horizontal and vertical direction normalized to the response at
234 the center of the field. The variation (1 standard deviation) of the chamber response for
235 protons is 1.9% and 4.4% in the horizontal and vertical direction, respectively. For carbon
236 ions, the variation is significantly lower corresponding to 1.1% and 0.8% in the horizontal
237 and vertical directions, respectively. Despite the large uncertainty in the chamber response,
238 a significant ($p < 0.05$) underlying dependence of the chamber response on the position in
239 the field was observed for all cases. In particular, a large increase of dose towards the edge
240 of the field (up to 15% higher at 50 mm distance from the center of the field) was observed
241 for the proton beam in the vertical direction.

242 3.3 Depth-dose profiles and range in water

243 Figure 13 shows the measured depth-dose profiles for the 173 MeV proton beam. It should be
244 emphasized that the beam settings at NSRL are manually adjusted in contrast to pre-defined

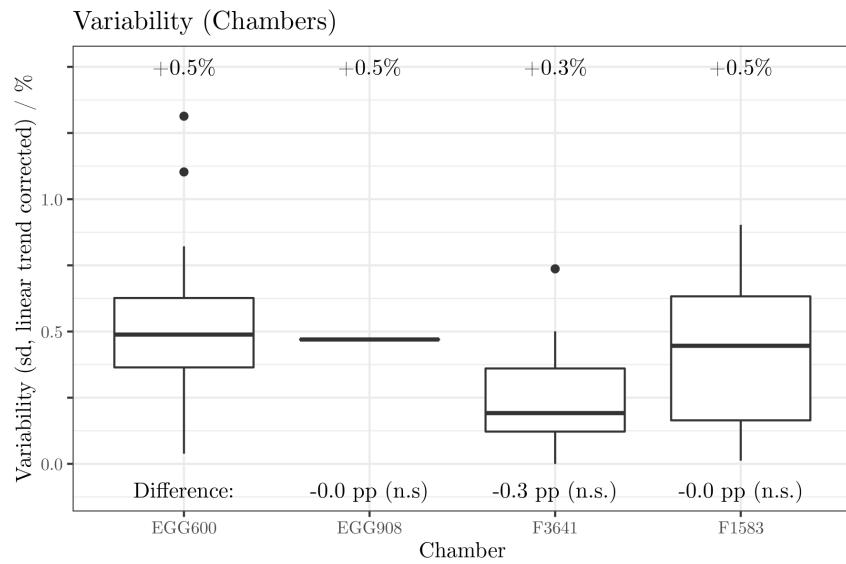


Figure 10. Influence of chamber type on response variability. The response variability is corrected by the linear trend of the response as a function of time of irradiation.

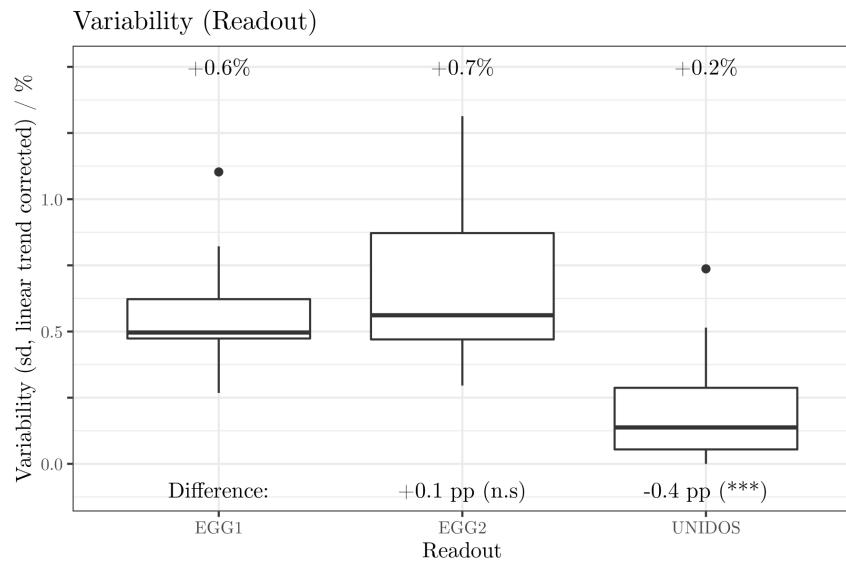


Figure 11. Influence of readout type on response variability. The response variability is corrected by the linear trend of the response as a function of time of irradiation.

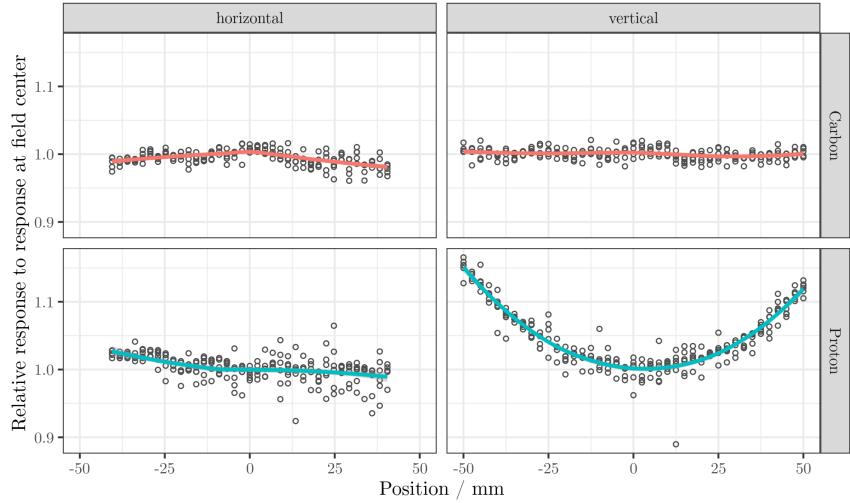


Figure 12. Chamber response relative to the response at the center of the field for 173 MeV proton and 326 MeV/n carbon-ion beams measured in horizontal and vertical direction.

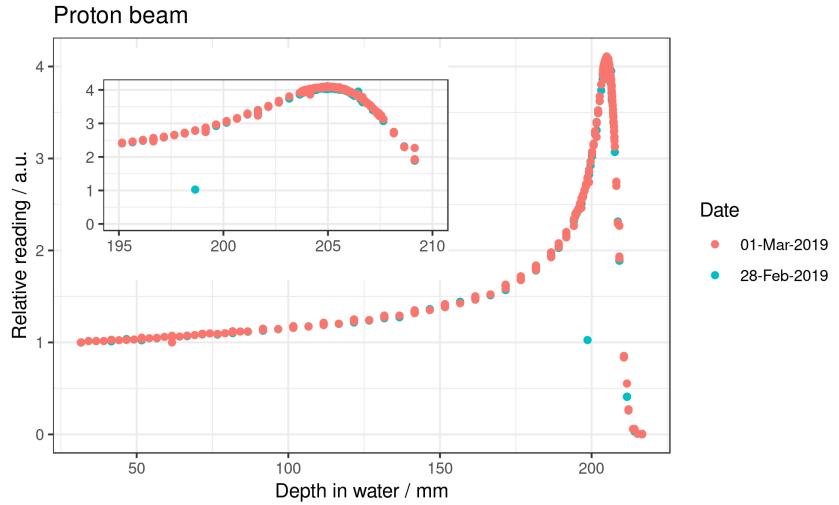


Figure 13. Depth-dose profile in water for the 173 MeV proton beam.

245 settings used in clinical facilities. Therefore, it is relevant to evaluate the reproducibility of
 246 the measurements. The results could be well reproduced in the two consecutive days with
 247 range in water of $R_{80} = 207.2 \pm 0.5$ mm in water (i.e., only 0.2% variation of range). The
 248 relative readings were obtained by averaging the chamber readings over three spills taken in
 249 sequence. During the measurements on February 28th, 2019 for the depth of 198.65 mm for
 250 the proton beam, the beam spill dropped over a period of two spills affecting the average
 251 relative reading as observed in Figure 13.

252 Figure 14 shows the measured depth-dose profiles for the 173 MeV/n helium-ion beam.
 253 Differently from the proton beam, the helium-ion beam was not stable compromising
 254 the measurements. The Bragg curve could only be measured in one day of the exper-

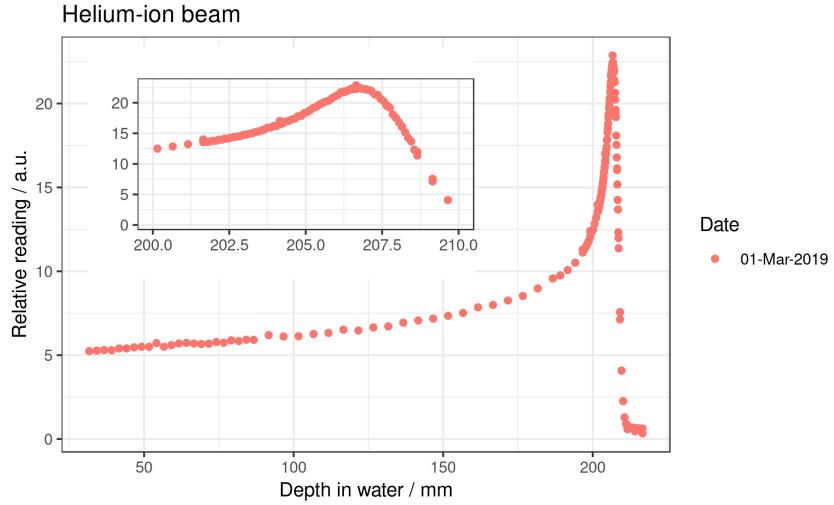


Figure 14. Depth-dose profile in water for 173 MeV/n helium-ion beam.

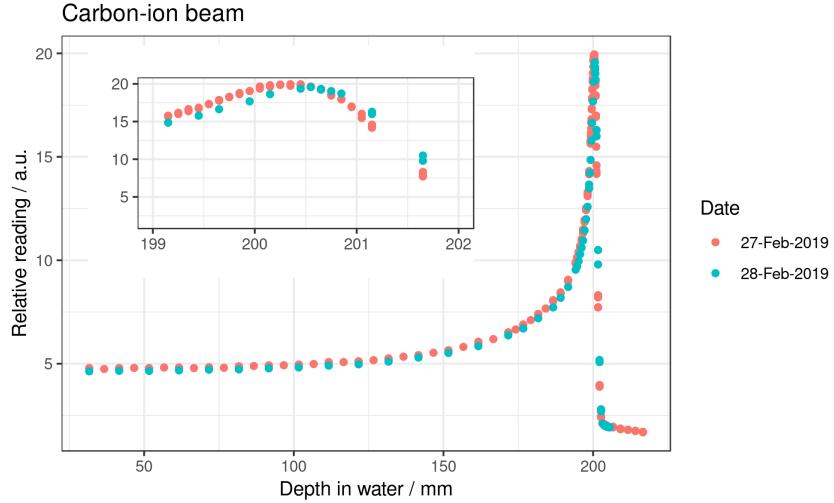


Figure 15. Depth-dose profile in water for 326 MeV/n carbon ion beam.

255 imental campaign. The 173 MeV/n helium-ion beam was observed to have a range of
 256 $R_{80} = 207.4 \pm 0.6$ mm in water.

257 Figure 15 shows the measured depth-dose profiles for 326 MeV/n carbon-ion beam. The
 258 range in water was observed to be $R_{80} = 201.2 \pm 0.2$ mm indicating a variation of R_{80} of only
 259 0.1% in different days.

260 Figure 16 shows the depth-dose profile obtained by modulation of 217 MeV/n and
 261 326 MeV/n carbon-ion beams using an in-house-machined modulator wheel. A relatively
 262 flat 25 mm-wide spread-out Bragg peak is achieved with the modulation indicating the
 263 capability of producing SOBP beams necessary for radiobiological experiments.

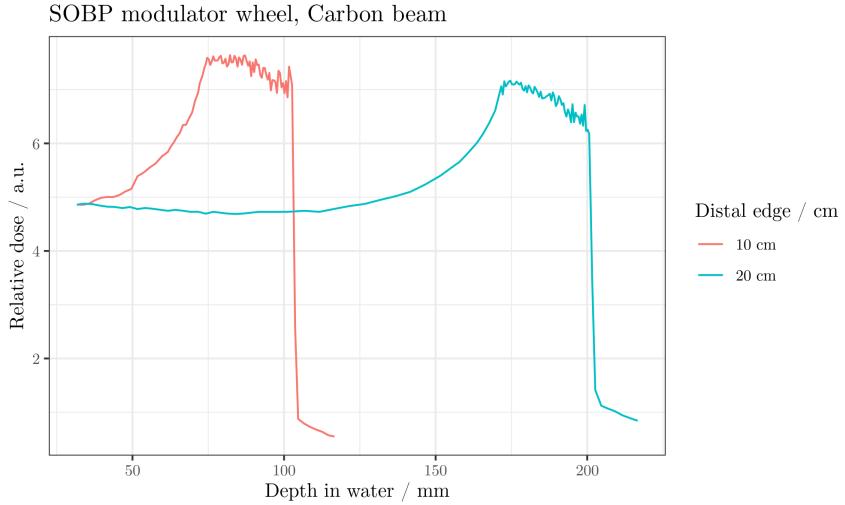


Figure 16. Depth-dose profile in water for 217 MeV/n and 326 MeV/n carbon-ion beam with an in-house-machined modulator wheel.

Table 2. Nominal thickness of binary range shifter layers, range in water (R_{80}), and WET.

Thickness (mm)	R_{80} (mm)	WET (mm)
0.25	201.05	0.1
0.5	200.85	0.3
1	200.35	0.8
2	199.25	1.9
4	197.15	4.0
8	192.95	8.2
16	184.75	16.4
32	168.35	32.8
64	135.25	65.9
128	70.55	130.6

264 3.4 WET of HDPE layers

265 The estimated WET of the individual HDPE layers of the binary range shifter is shown
 266 in Table 2 along with their nominal thickness. Unexpected small WET was observed for
 267 the thin layers indicating a WEPL of HDPE smaller than unity. Since the uncertainty in
 268 the WET as well as in the machined thickness of the HDPE layers are larger for the thin
 269 layers, only layers with nominal thickness $t \geq 8$ mm were selected to evaluate the WEPL
 270 of HDPE. This approach resulted in a mean value of 1.025 for the WEPL of the HDPE
 271 used in the range shifter.

272 Figure 17 shows the depth-dose profile measured in water with the Markus ionization
 273 chamber and the water-equivalent Bragg profiles obtained for carbon-ion beam using the
 274 binary range shifter and the two large planar ion chambers QC1 and QC3.

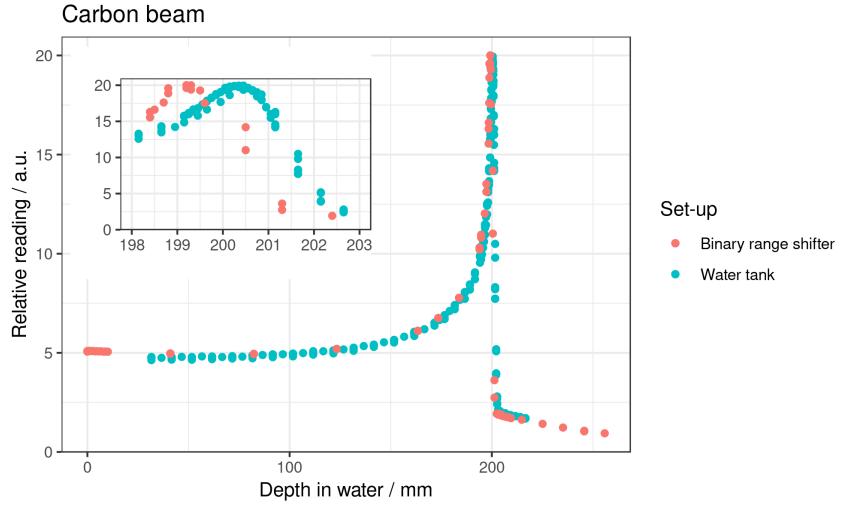


Figure 17. Depth-dose profile in water for 326 MeV/n carbon-ion beam and corrected Bragg curve obtained with the binary range shifter.

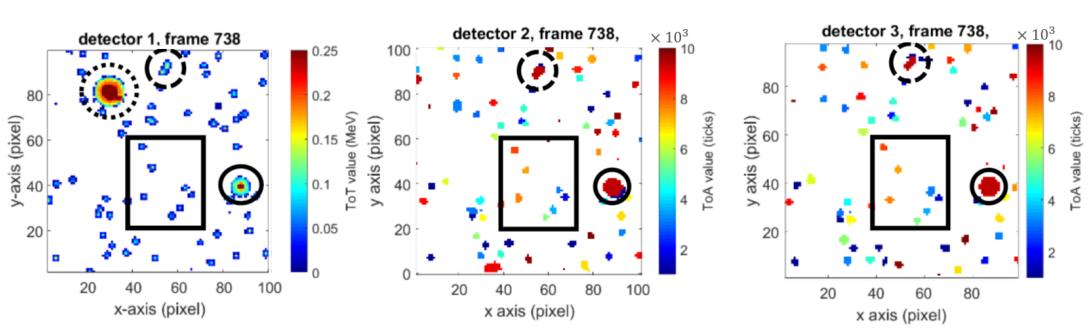


Figure 18. Example of raw data signals measured in detector 1, 2, and 3 within a time window of 1 ms. Squares indicate matched signals caused by primary helium ions; full circles indicate three matched signals that are assigned to an impurity ion; the dotted circle indicates a signal on detector 1 that is most likely caused by a recoil nucleus; and the dashed circles indicate overlapping signals of two ions. Signals marked by dotted and dashed circles are rejected from further analysis.

275 3.5 Purity of the helium-ion beam

276 The results of the purity analysis of a 173 MeV/n helium-ion beam is presented below.
 277 Figure 18 shows one data set of a 1 ms-long acquisition, where signals of primary helium
 278 ions (full square), a signal of a heavier ion due to impurities (full circle), and two types
 279 of rejected signals (dashed/dotted circles) are marked. The assignment of the signals to
 280 heavier ions is based on the much higher energy deposition in detector 1 compared to the
 281 energy deposition of the primary helium ions in that detector. The dotted circle indicates
 282 a signal that is only measured in detector 1 and is most probably a recoil nucleus, being
 283 rejected from the further analysis. The dashed circles indicate overlapping signals of two
 284 ions. The summed energy deposition of the two ions could be mistakenly registered as the
 285 energy deposition of an impurity ion, and therefore these signals are also rejected.

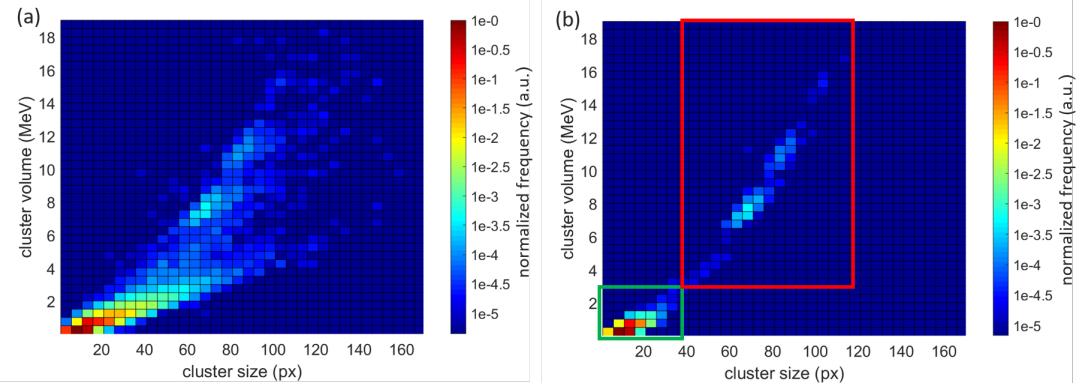


Figure 19. Two-dimensional histograms of measured signals, in which they are sorted by their size and their energy deposition. Panel (a): signals measured by detector 1 before the identification and rejection of unwanted background (e.g. recoil nuclei or overlapping signals). Panel (b): signals measured by detector 1 after identification and rejection of unwanted background. The signals in the red square can be related to beam impurities with significantly higher energy depositions than the primary helium ions marked by the green square.

Figure 19 shows the comparison of the 2D histograms of measured signals sorted by their energy deposition and their cluster size obtained (a) prior and (b) after applying the rejection of unwanted background. The background visible in Figure 19(a) would bias the determination of the amount of impurities if not suppressed underlining the importance of background-suppression. In Figure 19(b) a clear distinction between primary helium ions and contamination ions is visible as indicated by the green and red squares. The red square includes signals with energy depositions and cluster sizes above 3 MeV and 40 px, respectively. These energy depositions above 3 MeV by the contamination ions are significantly higher than the energy depositions by the primary helium ions (99.996% of helium ions have energy depositions below 2 MeV).

Figure 20 presents a three dimensional visualization of the background-suppressed signals shown in Figure 19(b). It facilitates the visual identification of the different contributions from primary helium ions and beam impurities.

The evaluation of the amount of impurity ions (inside the red square in Figures 19(b) and 20(a)) with respect to the amount of helium ions (inside the green square) yields

$$\frac{\text{Impurities}}{\text{Helium ions}} = \frac{(0.503 \pm 0.022 \text{ stat} \pm 0.005 \text{ sys}) \times 10^3}{(272.91 \pm 0.52 \text{ stat} \pm 0.38 \text{ sys}) \times 10^3}$$

corresponding to a contamination level of $0.184 \pm 0.008 \text{ stat} \pm 0.002 \text{ sys}\%$ where the uncertainty is divided into statistical and systematic contributions. The statistical uncertainty comprises the count statistics based on the Poisson distribution. The systematic uncertainty is calculated by varying the vertices of the rectangles in the 2D histogram that are used to quantify the amount of primary helium ions and impurity ions (cf. Figures 19 and 20).

To identify the ion types of the contaminants, the mean energy deposition of the different contamination peaks $\langle \Delta E_{\text{cont}} \rangle$ (cf. Figure 20 (a)) can be compared with the

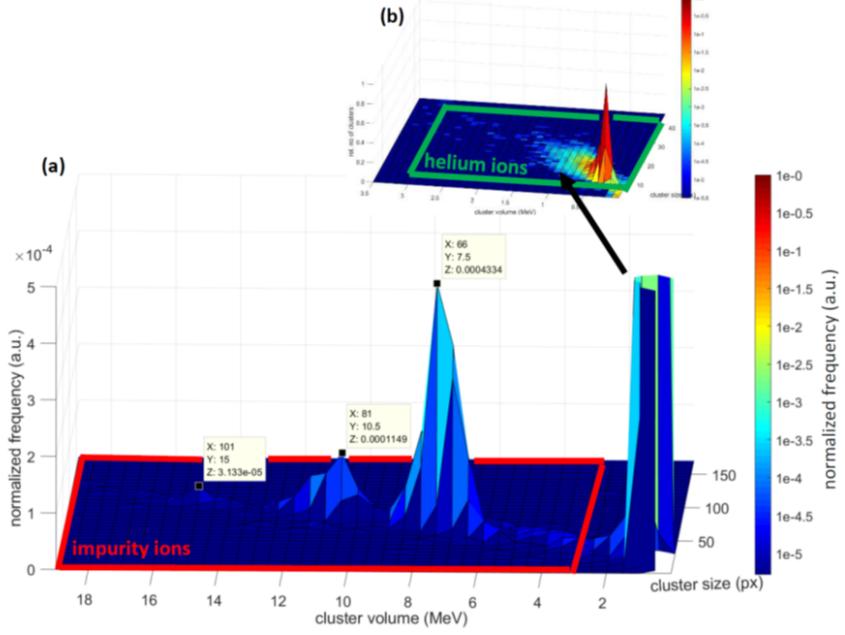


Figure 20. Distribution of the relative number of clusters as a function of cluster volume and cluster size. To make the peak heights of the beam impurities visible (about three orders of magnitude lower than the peak for primary helium ions), the scale of the relative number of clusters (vertical axis) in panel (a) was set to 5×10^{-4} . At this scale, the peak of the helium ions is drastically clipped. The inset (b) shows the unclipped distribution of helium clusters.

309 mean energy deposition of the primary helium ions $\langle \Delta E_{\text{He}} \rangle$. Taking the ratio of the
 310 Bethe-Bloch equation (see Section 2.6) for the contaminant and for helium ions, the atomic
 311 number of the contaminants z_{cont} can be derived as

$$z_{\text{cont}} = \sqrt{z_{\text{He}}^2 \frac{\langle \Delta E_{\text{cont}} \rangle}{\langle \Delta E_{\text{He}} \rangle}}.$$

312 The mean energy depositions in the measurements were $\langle \Delta E_{\text{He}} \rangle = (0.41 \pm 0.03) \text{ MeV}$,
 313 $\langle \Delta E_{\text{cont,I}} \rangle = (7.63 \pm 0.53)$ and $\langle \Delta E_{\text{cont,II}} \rangle = (11.02 \pm 0.77)$ for helium ions, and the
 314 two most abundant contaminants. The uncertainties were estimated based on a previous
 315 study on energy deposition of ions with therapeutic initial energies for the exact same
 316 detector [22]. Accounting for the mean energy depositions of the ions, the derived equation
 317 for the atomic number of a contaminant and error propagation, we obtained within 95%
 318 confidence intervals the atomic numbers of the contaminants as 8.6 ± 0.9 and 10.4 ± 1.0 . These
 319 contaminants are most likely oxygen and neon ions, respectively, as these ions can be
 320 delivered at the same rigidity as the helium ions. Besides, neon is known to be a likely
 321 contaminant as it is hard to remove all the neon from the helium supply gas.

322 **4 Conclusions**

323 Measurements of reference dosimetry comparing ionization chambers and electrometers
324 from NSRL and calibrated complementary devices were performed for proton and carbon-
325 ion beams. The dose response of the monitor chamber used to cut-off the irradiation
326 indicates a highly stable beam. The dose response of the chamber EGG600 was, on average,
327 2.5% higher than the requested dose. Relative deviations of the order of 6% on the measured
328 dose was observed across chambers, while the choice of readout device may result in relative
329 differences of measured dose up to 4%. Significant differences between the response to
330 proton and carbon-ion beams are observed depending on the particular ionization chamber.
331 Lateral-dose profile measurements in air in the central $10 \times 10 \text{ cm}^2$ region showed large
332 dependence of the chamber response on the position in the field for the irradiation with
333 protons. Conversely, for the irradiation with carbon ions, the irradiation field is more
334 homogeneous with small dose variations. However, more data are needed to quantify this
335 variation and obtain an uncertainty estimate. Regarding depth-dose measurements, results
336 indicate high reproducibility with R_{80} varying by only 0.2% for proton beams and 0.1% for
337 carbon-ion beams. The WET values of the layers of the binary range shifter were estimated
338 and a mean WEPL of 1.025 for HDPE was obtained. Contamination of the helium beam
339 was evaluated and the presence of ions heavier than helium is less than 0.2%.

340 **Acknowledgments**

341 We would like to thank NIH for the financial support. The support from PTW/PTW US, in
342 special, Axel Hoffmann, with the logistic of the equipment from DKFZ is highly appreciated.
343 The work at NSRL is supported by NASA (Contract No. T570X) and performed under the
344 United State Department of Energy Contract No. DE-AC02-98CH10886.

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