

Contents

1	Introduction	3
1.1	Radiation	3
1.2	Radiation Dosimetry	8
1.3	Thermoluminescence Dosimetry	10

1 Introduction

Radiation is used in various fields, including medical treatment, industry, and research. Radiation is a form of energy that can have both beneficial and harmful effects on living organisms. Therefore, it is important to accurately measure and monitor the levels of radiation to which individuals are exposed. Radiation exposure is a major concern in various fields, including medical treatment, industry, and research. Accurate measurement and monitoring of radiation levels are crucial to prevent the harmful effects of radiation exposure. It is crucial to accurately measure and monitor radiation doses to ensure the safety of individuals working with radiation sources and to evaluate the potential risks associated with radiation exposure. **Thermoluminescence dosimetry (TLD)** is a well-established technique that provides reliable and precise measurements of ionizing radiation doses. TLDs use a variety of materials that emit light when exposed to ionizing radiation. Among these materials, nanophosphors show promising properties that make them a potential candidate for use in TLDs. The aim of this research is to investigate the thermoluminescent properties of synthesized nanophosphors for use in radiation dosimetry.

1.1 Radiation

Radiation is an integral part of our natural environment and encompasses various forms of energy emitted by atoms and subatomic particles. It is both a natural phenomenon and a byproduct of human activities, playing significant roles in numerous scientific, medical, and technological fields. While radiation has beneficial applications in areas such as medicine, energy production, and communication, it can also pose risks to human health and the environment. Understanding the nature, types, sources, and effects of radiation is essential for ensuring its safe and responsible use. Radiation is the transfer of energy through electromagnetic waves or subatomic particles. It occurs in various forms, including electromagnetic radiation (such as gamma rays, X-rays, ultraviolet, visible light, and radio waves) and particulate radiation (such as alpha particles, beta particles, and neutrons). Each type of radiation possesses unique properties and interacts differently with matter. Radiation can therefore be classified based on the way it interacts with matter as shown in Figure 1

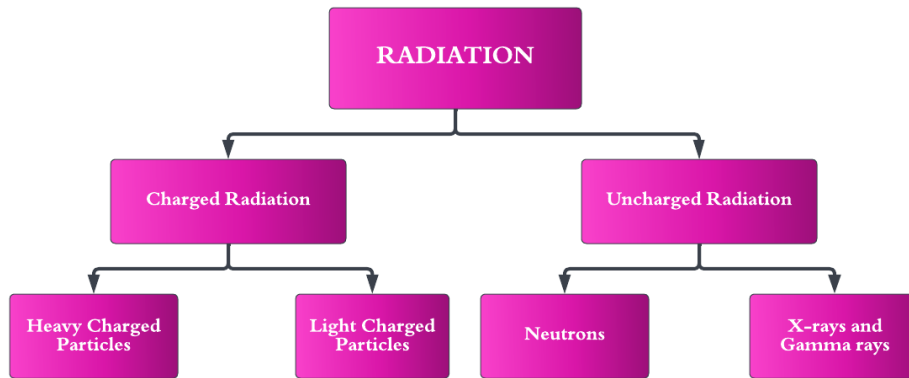


Figure 1: Classification of radiation

• Uncharged Radiation

A.) **X-Ray and Gamma Rays:** Gamma Rays and X-rays interact with matter through 3 main processes :-

- (a) **Photoelectric Effect:** In this process, a photon undergoes an interaction with an absorber atom in which the photon completely disappears. In its place, an energetic *photo-electron* is ejected by the atom from one of its bound shells. The energy of the photo-electron is given by:

$$E_{e^-} = h\nu - E_b$$

where E_b is the binding energy of photo-electron in its original shell.

- (b) **Compton Scattering:** In this process, the incoming γ -ray photon strikes an electron in the absorber medium and the γ -ray is deflected through an angle θ with respect to its original position. The photon transfers a portion of its kinetic energy to the electron, which is known as recoil electron. The amount of energy transferred depends on the angle of scattering θ . The energy of the scattered photon is given by:

$$h\nu' = \frac{h\nu}{1 + \frac{h\nu}{m_0c^2}(1 - \cos \theta)}$$

where m_0c^2 is the rest mass energy of electron.

- (c) **Pair Production:** If the γ -ray energy exceeds twice the rest-mass energy of electron (1.02 MeV), the process of pair production is energetically possible. In this interaction, the γ -ray photon disappears and is replaced by an electron-positron pair.

B.) **Neutrons:** Neutrons are generally difficult to detect as their interaction with matter is very less and can travel large distances without causing any interactions and hence can be detected only through indirect methods depending on its speed. **Slow Neutrons** do not directly interact with detector atoms, however they have a high probability of causing neutron induced nuclear reactions which in turn produce secondary particles/radiation which can be detected. While **Fast Neutrons** with high Kinetic Energies are mainly detected through scattering. For example, for reactions with moderators like hydrogen, the recoil neutrons become secondary radiation. If Kinetic Energy of neutrons is sufficiently high, inelastic collisions occur with detector atoms causing nucleus to excite to higher states, the excited nucleus quickly de-excite to release radiation, which can then be detected.

- **Charged Radiation** Charged particles interact with matter through *Coulomb Forces* between the radiation and the detector. These particles interact simultaneously with many electrons and in one such encounter, the electron receives sufficient impulse from Coulomb force of the passing particle to excite the electron to higher state (*excitation*) or completely remove the electron from the atom (*ionization*). The average energy loss is given by the **Bethe-Bloch**[12] formula:

$$\frac{dE}{dx} = -K \frac{Z}{A} \frac{\rho}{\beta^2} \left\{ \ln \frac{2mc^2\beta^2 E_M}{I^2(1 - \beta^2)} \right\}$$

where β is the velocity (in units of c) of particle, $K = \frac{2\pi N z^2 e^4}{mc^2}$ and $E_M = \frac{2mc^2\beta^2}{1 - \beta^2}$ is the maximum energy transfer allowed.

Sources of Radiation

Sources of radiation can be categorized into two main groups [2]: natural sources and artificial (or man-made) sources. The average annual radiation dose is shown in figure 2

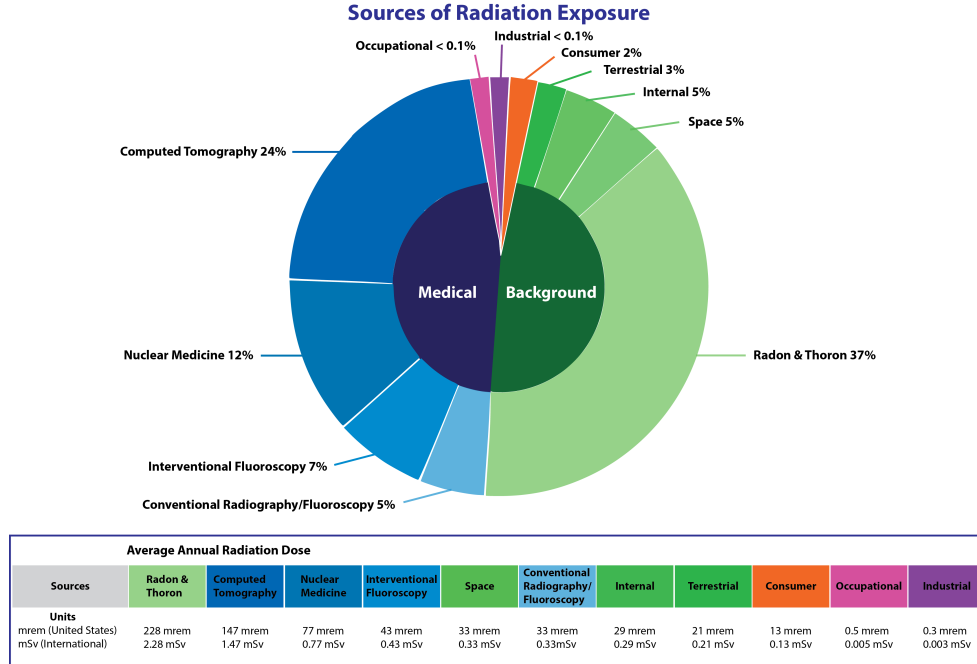


Figure 2: Average Annual Radiation Dose[13]

A.) Natural Sources of Radiation:

- **Cosmic Radiation:** High-energy particles, such as protons and atomic nuclei, that originate from outer space and reach the Earth's atmosphere.
- **Terrestrial Radiation:** Naturally occurring radioactive elements present in the Earth's crust, such as uranium, thorium, and radon gas.
- **Radon Gas:** A radioactive gas that is released from the decay of uranium and thorium in rocks, soil, and water. It can accumulate in buildings, particularly in basements and poorly ventilated areas.
- **Radioactive Isotopes in the Environment:** Small amounts of radioactive isotopes, such as potassium-40 and carbon-14, are naturally present in the environment and contribute to background radiation.

B.) Artificial (Man-Made) Sources of Radiation:

- **Medical and Dental Procedures:** Diagnostic imaging techniques like X-rays, computed tomography (CT) scans, and nuclear medicine procedures involve the use of ionizing radiation.
- **Radiation Therapy:** High-energy radiation, such as X-rays or gamma rays, used to treat cancer and other medical conditions.
- **Nuclear Power Plants:** Nuclear fission in reactors generates heat and electricity but also produces low-level radiation during normal operation and potential radioactive releases during accidents.
- **Industrial Applications:** Industrial radiography, gauging, and research activities that involve the use of radiation for inspection, measurement, and scientific experiments.

A chart depicting the levels of ionizing radiation is given below figure 3

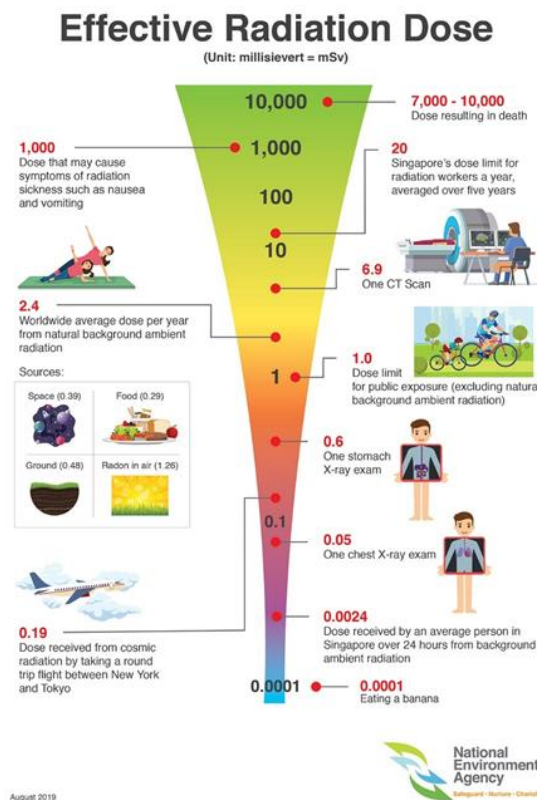


Figure 3: Effective Radiation Dose [1]

Effects of Radiation

The effects of radiation on living organisms can be divided into two main categories: deterministic effects and stochastic effects. These effects depend on various factors, including the type of radiation, the dose received, and the duration of exposure. Here is an overview of the different effects of radiation:

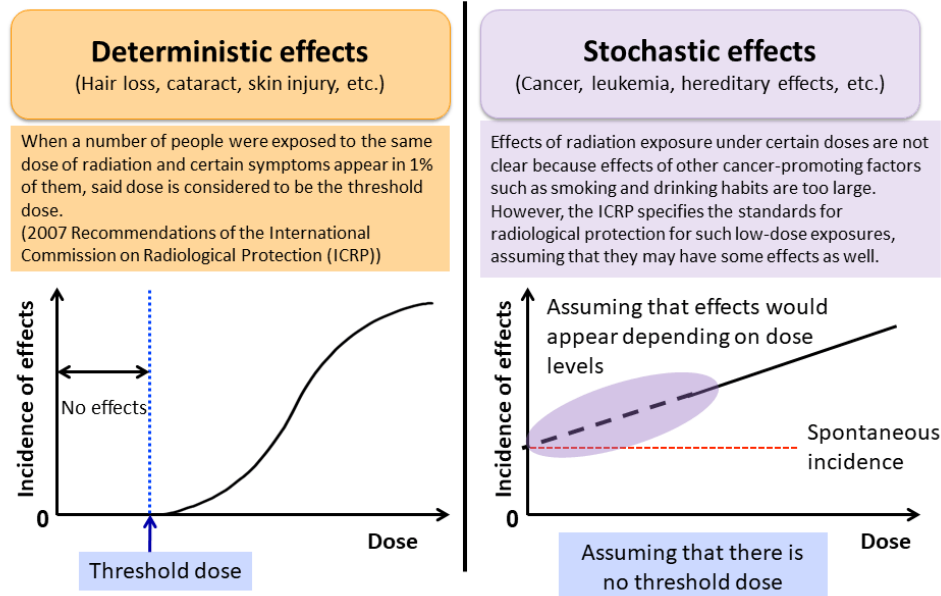


Figure 4: Deterministic and Stochastic Effects of Radiation [11]

A.) **Deterministic Effects:** Deterministic effects, also known as non-stochastic effects, occur when an individual is exposed to high levels of radiation. These effects have a clear threshold dose below which no adverse effects are observed. As the dose increases above the threshold, the severity of the effects increases. Key deterministic effects include:

- **Radiation Sickness:** At high doses, radiation can cause radiation sickness, also known as acute radiation syndrome. Symptoms may include nausea, vomiting, fatigue, diarrhea, loss of appetite, and decreased blood cell counts. The severity and onset of symptoms depend on the radiation dose received.
- **Skin Burns:** High doses of radiation can cause severe burns on the skin, similar to thermal burns. These burns can be painful and may require medical attention.
- **Organ Damage:** Radiation exposure can result in damage to specific organs, such as the gastrointestinal system, cardiovascular system, and reproductive organs. The severity of organ damage depends on the dose received and the sensitivity of the organ to radiation.

B.) **Stochastic Effects:** Stochastic effects, also called probabilistic effects, are random in nature and occur without a clear dose threshold. They are associated with long-term exposure to low or moderate doses of radiation. The probability of these effects occurring increases with higher radiation doses, but their occurrence is not guaranteed. Key stochastic effects include:

- **Increased Risk of Cancer:** Prolonged exposure to radiation, even at low doses, can increase the risk of developing cancer. Ionizing radiation has the potential to damage DNA, leading to genetic mutations that can initiate cancerous growth. The types of cancer that may develop depend on the irradiated organs and tissues.
- **Hereditary Effects:** Radiation exposure can also affect future generations. High doses of radiation to reproductive cells (sperm or eggs) can increase the risk of genetic mutations and hereditary disorders in offspring.

It is important to note that the likelihood and severity of both deterministic and stochastic effects depend on factors such as the type of radiation (e.g., gamma rays, alpha particles), the duration of exposure, and the sensitivity of the exposed individual or organism. To protect individuals and mitigate the effects of radiation, radiation protection guidelines and regulations are implemented in various fields, including medicine, industry, and nuclear power. These measures aim to minimize radiation exposure, optimize radiation practices, and ensure the safety of workers and the general public.

Applications Of Radiation

Radiation has numerous applications across various fields, including medicine, industry, agriculture, research, and energy production. Here are some notable applications of radiation:

- **Medical Imaging:** Radiation is widely used in medical imaging techniques to diagnose and monitor diseases. X-rays and computed tomography (CT) scans utilize ionizing radiation to create detailed images of the body's internal structures, aiding in the detection of fractures, tumors, and other abnormalities.
- **Radiation Therapy:** Radiation therapy, also known as radiotherapy, is a common treatment modality for cancer. High-energy radiation, such as X-rays or gamma rays, is precisely targeted to destroy cancer cells and shrink tumors. Techniques like external beam radiation therapy and brachytherapy are used to deliver radiation to specific areas of the body.
- **Nuclear Medicine:** In nuclear medicine, small amounts of radioactive substances called radiopharmaceuticals are administered to patients for diagnostic and therapeutic purposes. These substances emit gamma rays that can be detected by imaging devices to create functional images of organs and tissues, aiding in the diagnosis and treatment of various conditions.
- **Industrial Applications:** Radiation is utilized in various industrial applications, including non-destructive testing (NDT) and quality control. Radiography techniques, such as X-ray and gamma-ray imaging, are employed to inspect welds, detect flaws in structures, and assess the integrity of materials without damaging them. Radiation is also used for sterilization of medical equipment, food preservation, and insect control in agriculture.
- **Research and Scientific Studies:** Radiation plays a crucial role in scientific research, enabling scientists to study the properties and behavior of materials, molecules, and subatomic particles. Techniques such as X-ray crystallography, neutron scattering, and positron emission tomography (PET) are employed to investigate the structure, composition, and dynamics of various substances.
- **Energy Production:** Nuclear power plants generate electricity by harnessing the energy released from nuclear reactions. Controlled fission of radioactive isotopes, such as uranium-235, produces heat, which is then converted into electrical energy. Nuclear energy provides a reliable and low-carbon source of power, contributing to the global energy mix.
- **Radiation Therapy for Food Preservation:** Ionizing radiation is used to preserve food by inhibiting the growth of bacteria, molds, and insects. This technique, known as food irradiation, can extend the shelf life of perishable foods, improve food safety, and prevent the spread of foodborne illnesses.

It is worth noting that the application of radiation is carefully regulated to ensure safety and minimize potential risks. Strict guidelines, protocols, and safety measures are in place to protect individuals, the environment, and public health in all areas where radiation is used.

Radiation Protection and Safety

Radiation protection and safety encompass a range of measures and practices aimed at minimizing radiation exposure and ensuring the safety of individuals, the public, and the environment [14]. The principles of radiation protection are based on the **ALARA** principle, which stands for "*As Low As Reasonably Achievable*," as shown in figure 5



Figure 5: Principle of ALARA [10]

Here are some key aspects of radiation protection and safety:

- **Dose Limits:** Regulatory authorities and international organizations establish dose limits that specify the maximum allowable radiation doses for individuals in different contexts. These limits vary depending on factors such as occupation, public exposure, and medical procedures. Compliance with dose limits is essential to prevent excessive radiation exposure.
- **Risk Assessment and Management:** Radiation risks are assessed and managed by conducting thorough risk assessments. This involves evaluating the potential hazards associated with radiation sources, estimating the likelihood and magnitude of exposures, and implementing appropriate control measures to mitigate risks.
- **Shielding and Containment:** Shielding materials, such as lead, concrete, and steel, are used to attenuate radiation and protect individuals from exposure. Proper shielding design and construction are crucial in areas where radiation sources are used, such as medical facilities and nuclear power plants. Additionally, containment measures ensure that radioactive materials are safely stored and handled to prevent their release into the environment.
- **Personal Protective Equipment (PPE):** Personal protective equipment, such as lead aprons, gloves, and goggles, is utilized to protect individuals who work with or around radiation sources. PPE helps to reduce radiation exposure to specific body parts and ensures that workers adhere to safety protocols.
- **Training and Education:** Comprehensive training and education programs are essential for individuals who work with radiation sources. This includes radiation safety training, radiation protection protocols, proper handling and storage of radioactive materials, and emergency response procedures. Continuous education and awareness campaigns help maintain a strong safety culture.
- **Monitoring and Dosimetry:** Regular monitoring of radiation levels and individual doses is conducted to ensure compliance with safety standards and detect any potential overexposures. Dosimeters, such as **Thermoluminescent dosimeters (TLDs)** and electronic personal dosimeters (EPDs), are used to measure and record radiation doses received by individuals.
- **Regulatory Compliance and Inspections:** Regulatory bodies oversee and enforce radiation safety regulations. They conduct inspections, audits, and assessments to ensure that radiation practices comply with safety guidelines. Non-compliance can result in penalties, fines, or the suspension of operations.
- **Emergency Preparedness and Response:** Preparedness for radiation emergencies, such as accidents or incidents involving radiation sources, is crucial. Emergency response plans, evacuation procedures, and communication protocols are established to protect the public and mitigate the consequences of such incidents.

It is important to note that radiation protection and safety require a multidisciplinary approach involving collaboration among regulatory bodies, radiation safety officers, medical professionals, researchers, and workers handling radiation sources. Continuous improvement, adherence to best practices, and staying up-to-date with advancements in radiation protection are vital to ensuring the safe and responsible use of radiation.

1.2 Radiation Dosimetry

Radiation Dosimetry [6] is the science and practice of measuring and assessing the dose of ionizing radiation received by an object or an individual. It plays a crucial role in radiation protection, medical diagnostics, and therapeutic applications. By accurately quantifying radiation doses, dosimetry enables the evaluation of potential health risks, optimization of radiation procedures, and adherence to safety standards.

Measurement Techniques

Dosimetry measurement techniques[3] are used to directly or indirectly quantify the dose of ionizing radiation received by an object or an individual. These techniques vary depending on the type of radiation, the purpose of measurement, and the specific application. Here are some commonly used dosimetry measurement techniques:

- **Ionization Chambers:** Ionization chambers are widely employed in radiation dosimetry. They consist of a gas-filled chamber where ionization occurs when radiation interacts with the gas molecules. The resulting ion pairs are collected, and the electrical current generated is proportional to the radiation dose. Ionization chambers are versatile and can measure both high and low radiation doses accurately.

- **Thermoluminescent Dosimeters (TLDs):** TLDs are solid-state dosimeters that utilize the phenomenon of thermoluminescence. When exposed to ionizing radiation, certain crystals or materials trap energy within their lattice structure. Heating the TLD causes the trapped energy to be released as light, which is measured and correlated to the radiation dose. TLDs offer high sensitivity and can be used for personal and environmental dosimetry.
- **Film Dosimeters:** Film dosimeters use radiation-sensitive films, such as radiographic films or photographic emulsions, to measure radiation doses. The films darken when exposed to radiation, and the degree of darkening is related to the absorbed dose. Film dosimeters are commonly used in medical imaging, industrial radiography, and radiation therapy verification.
- **Solid-State Detectors:** Solid-state detectors employ semiconductor materials, such as silicon or germanium, to measure radiation doses. These detectors produce an electrical signal in response to ionizing radiation. Examples of solid-state detectors include diode detectors, silicon detectors, and metal oxide semiconductor field-effect transistors (MOSFETs). Solid-state detectors offer high precision, small size, and real-time dose measurement capabilities.
- **Scintillation Detectors:** Scintillation detectors utilize scintillating materials that emit light when exposed to radiation. The scintillation light is converted into electrical signals using photomultiplier tubes or photodiodes. Scintillation detectors are commonly used in nuclear medicine, environmental monitoring, and high-energy physics research.
- **Optically Stimulated Luminescence (OSL) Dosimeters:** OSL dosimeters use similar principles to TLDs but employ different materials. OSL dosimeters contain optically sensitive materials that store radiation energy. When exposed to light, the stored energy is released as luminescence, which is proportional to the radiation dose. OSL dosimeters are widely used in personal and environmental dosimetry.
- **Biological Dosimeters:** Biological dosimeters measure the biological effects of radiation on living cells or tissues. These dosimeters include techniques such as chromosomal aberration analysis, cytogenetic biodosimetry, and biological marker assays. Biological dosimeters are particularly useful in radiation accidents or emergencies to assess radiation exposure and estimate potential health risks.
- **Environmental Monitoring Instruments:** Environmental monitoring instruments, such as Geiger-Muller counters and scintillation detectors, are used to measure ambient radiation levels in the environment. These instruments provide real-time or continuous monitoring of radiation doses in occupational settings, nuclear facilities, or areas with potential radioactive contamination.

It is worth noting that dosimetry measurement techniques are often complemented by data analysis, calibration, and quality assurance procedures to ensure accurate and reliable results. The choice of dosimetry technique depends on factors such as the radiation type, dose range, required sensitivity, portability, and specific dosimetry application.

Types of Radiation Dosimetry

Radiation dosimetry encompasses different types of radiation and corresponding dosimetry techniques:

- **External Beam Dosimetry:** This type of dosimetry is employed in external beam radiation therapy, diagnostic imaging (e.g., X-rays, CT scans), and radiation protection. It focuses on measuring radiation doses delivered from an external radiation source to a specific target or region of interest.
- **Internal Dosimetry:** Internal dosimetry involves the assessment of radiation doses from internal radiation sources, such as radioactive materials ingested, inhaled, or injected into the body. It requires the estimation of radionuclide uptake, distribution, and elimination to calculate the radiation dose received by specific organs or tissues.
- **Environmental Dosimetry:** Environmental dosimetry aims to evaluate radiation doses in the environment, particularly in occupational settings or areas with potential radioactive contamination. It includes monitoring radiation levels in air, water, soil, and other environmental media to assess potential exposure risks.

Applications of Radiation Dosimetry:

Radiation dosimetry has numerous practical applications:

- **Radiation Therapy:** In cancer treatment, radiation dosimetry is crucial for accurately delivering therapeutic radiation doses to tumor sites while minimizing radiation exposure to healthy tissues. Precise dosimetry measurements ensure effective treatment planning and monitoring of radiation therapy procedures.
- **Radiation Protection:** Dosimetry is essential for ensuring the safety of workers in radiation-related occupations. Occupational dosimetry involves monitoring radiation doses received by individuals to ensure compliance with safety regulations and implement necessary protective measures.
- **Radiological Accidents and Emergency Response:** Dosimetry plays a vital role in assessing radiation doses received by individuals involved in radiological accidents or emergencies. It aids in triaging patients, determining appropriate medical treatments, and evaluating potential long-term health effects.
- **Radiological Research:** Dosimetry is instrumental in research involving radiation, such as studying the effects of radiation on biological systems, evaluating radiation shielding materials, and optimizing radiation therapy techniques.

In summary, radiation dosimetry is an indispensable field that enables the measurement and assessment of radiation doses. By employing various measurement techniques, dosimetry contributes to radiation protection, medical treatments, emergency response, and scientific research. Accurate dosimetry practices are vital in ensuring the safe and effective use of ionizing radiation in various applications while minimizing potential health risks.

1.3 Thermoluminescence Dosimetry

Thermoluminescence Dosimetry (TLD) is a technique used to measure and assess radiation doses by exploiting the thermoluminescent properties of certain materials. It is widely employed in various fields, including medical radiation therapy, industrial radiation safety, environmental monitoring, and personal dosimetry.

The basic principle of thermoluminescence dosimetry involves the use of thermoluminescent materials, which are crystalline or amorphous substances capable of storing energy when exposed to ionizing radiation. These materials can be in the form of powders, pellets, or chips. Common thermoluminescent materials include lithium fluoride (LiF), calcium fluoride (CaF_2), and aluminum oxide ($Al_2O_3 : C$). A Thermoluminescence Dosimeter is shown in figure6

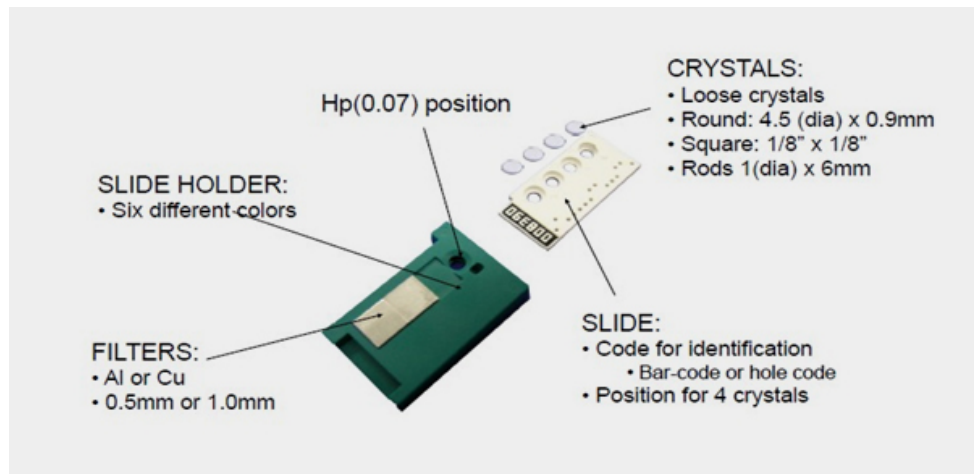


Figure 6: A thermoluminescent dosimeter [8]

Thermoluminescence

Thermoluminescence (TL) is a luminescence phenomenon[4] of an insulator or semiconductor which can be observed when the solid is thermally stimulated. In order for a material to be thermoluminous, it must first be an insulator or a semiconductor because metals do not show thermoluminescence. Secondly, energy must have been absorbed by the substance at some point while it was exposed to ionising radiation. Thirdly, heating the material causes the luminescence emission to occur. Thus, a thermoluminescent material is one that, when subjected to ionising radiation, absorbs some energy that is then stored. When the substance is later heated, the accumulated energy is released in the form of luminescence.[5]

There are many models that explain the phenomenon of thermoluminescence[7], one such model is the one trapping—one recombination centre model[9] that uses the energy band theory of solids. The majority of the

electrons in an ideal crystalline semiconductor or insulator are found in the valence band. The conduction band, which is above the valence band and is separated from it by the so-called forbidden band gap (separated by energy E_g), is the highest band that electrons can inhabit. However, when a crystal has structural flaws or the lattice contains impurities, it is possible for electrons to have energies that are not permitted in a perfect crystal. In a simple TL model two levels are assumed, one situated below the bottom of the conduction band and the other situated above the top of the valence band as shown in figure 7.

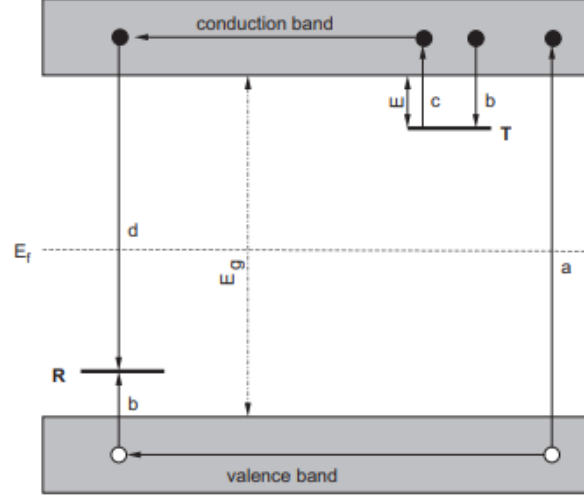


Figure 7: Energy band model showing the electronic transitions in a TL material according to a simple two-level model.[4]

The highest level is situated above the equilibrium Fermi level (E_f) and thus empty in the equilibrium state, i.e. before the exposure to radiation and the creation of electrons and holes. It is therefore a potential electron trap. The other level is a potential hole trap and can function as a recombination centre. The absorption of radiant energy with $h\nu$ results in ionisation of valence electrons, producing energetic electrons and holes which will, after thermalisation, produce free electrons in the conduction band and free holes in the valence band. The free charge carriers recombine with each other or become trapped.

An amount of energy will be generated in the case of direct recombination, which may stimulate a luminescent centre (which might coincide with the recombination centre). Under the influence of light emission, the luminescent centre relaxes (returns to the ground state). However, in semiconductors and insulators a certain percentage of the charge carriers is trapped. As the free electrons and holes are created and annihilated in pairs, there must be an equal population of trapped holes. Because the normal equilibrium Fermi level E_f is situated below level T and above level R (as shown in figure 7), these populations of trapped electrons and holes represent a non-equilibrium state.

By increasing the temperature of the TL material above T_0 , the return to equilibrium can be accelerated. The likelihood of detrapping will rise as a result, and the electrons will then be liberated from the trap and enter the conduction band. Until it undergoes recombination at the recombination centre R, the charge carrier migrates through the crystal's conduction band. In the simple model this recombination centre is a luminescent centre where the recombination of the electron and hole leaves the centre in one of the higher excited states. Return to the ground state is coupled with the emission of light quanta, which give rise to the phenomena of **Thermoluminescence**.

Process of Thermoluminescence Dosimetry

The TLD typically involves the following steps:

1. **Pre-Irradiation:** The thermoluminescent material is first subjected to a controlled pre-irradiation process. This step ensures that any residual luminescence from previous radiation exposures is removed, allowing the material to return to its baseline state.
2. **Irradiation:** The pre-irradiated thermoluminescent material is then exposed to ionizing radiation. The type of radiation and its energy will depend on the specific application and purpose of the dosimetry measurement.
3. **Post-Irradiation:** After irradiation, the thermoluminescent material retains energy in the form of trapped electrons within defects or lattice imperfections. The sample is carefully protected from any light exposure to prevent the release of the stored energy prematurely.

4. **Heating Process:** When the thermoluminescent material is heated, the trapped electrons are released from their energy states and recombine with the trapped holes, resulting in the emission of light in the form of thermoluminescence. The emitted light is proportional to the radiation dose received by the material.
5. **Light Detection:** The emitted thermoluminescent light is detected using specialized photomultiplier tubes, photodiodes, or other light-detecting devices. The detected light signal is then converted into an electrical signal for further analysis.
6. **Analysis and Dose Calculation:** The electrical signal is analyzed to determine the intensity or luminescent response of the thermoluminescent material. This response is correlated with a calibration curve or conversion factors established through calibration with known radiation doses. By comparing the luminescent response to the calibration curve, the radiation dose received by the material can be determined.

Applications of TLD

Thermoluminescence dosimetry (TLD) has numerous applications in various fields where accurate measurement of radiation doses is essential. Some of the key applications of thermoluminescence dosimetry are:

- **Radiation Therapy:** In medical radiation therapy, TLD is used to measure the radiation dose delivered to patients during treatments such as external beam radiation therapy or brachytherapy. TLD allows for precise and reliable dose verification, ensuring that the prescribed radiation dose is accurately delivered to the target area while minimizing exposure to healthy tissues.
- **Occupational Radiation Monitoring:** TLD is extensively used in industries involving radiation sources, such as nuclear power plants, radiography facilities, and research laboratories. Workers who are potentially exposed to ionizing radiation wear TLD badges or rings, which contain TLD materials. These dosimeters are then analyzed to assess the radiation dose received by the workers, ensuring compliance with safety regulations and maintaining a safe working environment.
- **Environmental Radiation Monitoring:** TLD is employed in environmental radiation monitoring to assess radiation levels in the environment, including soil, air, and water. It helps identify potential sources of radiation and monitor any changes or increases in radiation levels that could pose risks to human health or the environment. TLD is particularly valuable in assessing long-term exposure and cumulative dose assessments in environmental studies.
- **Personal Dosimetry:** TLD is used in personal dosimetry to measure individual radiation exposure in various settings. This includes personnel working with radiation sources in nuclear facilities, research laboratories, and industrial settings. TLD badges or rings worn by individuals capture their radiation exposure, which can be analyzed to assess dose levels and ensure compliance with safety regulations.
- **Radiation Protection:** TLD is employed in the design and evaluation of radiation shielding materials and techniques. It allows for the measurement of radiation doses behind shielding materials to ensure their effectiveness in reducing exposure. TLD is also used in quality assurance tests for radiation protection equipment, such as lead aprons and protective barriers, to verify their performance and ensure proper shielding.
- **Radiation Emergency Response:** In the event of a radiological incident or accident, TLD can be used to assess the radiation doses received by affected individuals. TLD badges or rings can be distributed to emergency responders and workers involved in recovery operations, providing valuable data on their radiation exposure and guiding appropriate medical interventions.
- **Archaeological Dating:** TLD is utilized in archaeological dating to determine the age of ancient artifacts and geological samples. By measuring the thermoluminescence emitted from the material, the accumulated radiation dose can be estimated, providing insights into the time since the material was last heated or exposed to sunlight.

Thermoluminescence dosimetry offers several advantages, including high sensitivity, wide dynamic range, and excellent tissue-equivalent properties. It is capable of measuring both high and low radiation doses, making it suitable for various applications. Additionally, TLD materials have good reproducibility and stability, allowing for reliable and accurate dose measurements over time.

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