



Martin, L., Sanderson, D., Paling, S., Cresswell, A. and Murphy, S. (2022) Advancing dosimetry for dating environmental materials: development of an ultra-sensitive beta dosimeter system and potential for beta autoradiography. *Radiation Measurements*, 154, 106760. (doi: [10.1016/j.radmeas.2022.106760](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.radmeas.2022.106760))

There may be differences between this version and the published version. You are advised to consult the published version if you wish to cite from it.

<http://eprints.gla.ac.uk/272122/>

Deposited on 6 June 2022

Enlighten – Research publications by members of the University of Glasgow
<http://eprints.gla.ac.uk>

Advancing dosimetry for Dating Environmental Materials: Development of an ultra-sensitive beta dosimeter system and potential for beta autoradiography

Martin, L.^{1,2,*}, Sanderson, D.¹, Paling, S.³, Cresswell, A.¹, Murphy, S.¹

¹ Scottish Universities Environmental Research Centre, Glasgow, United Kingdom

² Royal Society Newton International Fellow

³ Boulby Underground Laboratory, Saltburn-by-the-Sea, United Kingdom

*Presenting Author: loic.martin@glasgow.ac.uk

Abstract

Beta Dose Rate heterogeneity is a recognized source of uncertainty when applying luminescence dating to heterogeneous samples, such as coarse crystalline rocks and clast-rich sediments. Simulations have shown that a combination of a heterogeneous distribution of minerals and radioactive elements can lead to complex dose distributions, overdispersion and potentially to bias in equivalent dose determinations. However setting realistic conditions for such simulations remains difficult, and there are at present only a few experimental validation cases for such simulated systems. Project ADDEM is investigating means of linking Monte Carlo simulations of dose rate to specific minerals with direct observations using high sensitivity phosphor plates and laser scanning imaging systems in combination with phase mapping. To overcome some of the limitations of autoradiographic imaging of low level beta dose distributions work has been undertaken using Landauer alumina OSL phosphor screens in combination with a laser scanning system developed at the Scottish Universities Environmental Research Centre (SUERC). Preliminary excitation spectra, emission band characterisation and time resolved measurements were undertaken, confirming the potential to recording low doses using asynchronous stimulation at 635 nm coupled with blue band detection. Taking advantage of the slow decay of the luminescence signal the scanning equipment has been configured for pulsed stimulation and asynchronous detection to maximise signal to background ratios. Exploratory work was calibrated using a ⁶⁰Co facility capable of calibrating doses in the μ Gy to mGy range. A series of powdered granulite/basalt mixtures of known mean activity and dose rate (Dr) have also been used to calibrate the phosphor screens. To reduce background levels during autoradiographic signal accumulation rock slices are being exposed in the Zeplin shield of the STFC Boulby Underground Laboratory, in an environment which is essentially free from cosmic ray muon background.

Simulations have been conducted providing preliminary deconvolution parameters in order to either reconstruct the beta dose rate (β Dr) distribution received by the grains in the sample, or retrieve the radioactive element distributions in the minerals of the sample, providing the data required for representative simulations of β Dr.

This paper outlines the spectroscopy and sensitivity verification of the autoradiography system, confirming its prospects for measuring spatially resolved β Dr distributions with single pixel lower detection limit of 130 μ Gy and spatial resolution of 150 μ m. Prospects are outlined.

Keywords: beta dose rate; Alumina OSL dosimeter; mapping; simulation; pulsed OSL.

1. Introduction

Beta dose rate (β Dr) heterogeneity in unconsolidated sediments and rocks is a known source of overdispersion in luminescence dating (Nathan et al., 2003). As aliquot sizes have been reduced in response to improved sensitivity in dating analyses it has been highlighted as one of the main sources of overdispersion of equivalent doses, in particular when single grain analyses are involved (Duller et al., 1999). However, β Dr distribution is still difficult to characterize because of the low dose rates of natural samples, the sub-millimetre variations of beta dose rates, and uncertainties associated with in-grain luminescence sensitivity distributions.

45 Several attempts have been made to map β Dr distributions using phosphor dosimeters (Rufer and
46 Preusser, 2009; Guérin et al., 2012b; Smedley et al., 2020), measurements of β radiation emitting elements
47 (Jankowski and Jacobs, 2018) or semi-conductor detector cluster Timepix (Romanyukha et al., 2017). Despite the
48 new insights that these studies have brought to β Dr heterogeneity, quantification of results remains difficult either
49 because of the lack of a suitable calibration method, of low dosimeter sensitivity leading to large uncertainties, or
50 limitations to spatial resolution on the scale of individual grains and subgrains.

51 Different approaches aiming to model the beta dose rate distribution instead of measuring it have also
52 been developed. Dose point kernel modelling coupled to 3D phase mapping (Plachy and Sutton, 1982) and Monte
53 Carlo modelling (Nathan et al., 2003; Mayya et al.; 2006, Guérin et al.; 2012a; Martin et al., 2015; Martin et al.,
54 2018) have both shown the capability of modelling beta dose rate distributions of heterogeneous samples. However,
55 the reliability of these methods strongly depends on the exactness of the input data of the model. Therefore they
56 require extensive characterization of samples with a sub-millimetre resolution to be able to resolve the beta dose
57 rate heterogeneity, which in turn is limited by the accuracy and resolution of available methods. In addition, only a
58 few experimental validations of the results of these models for luminescence dating samples have been carried out
59 (Nathan et al., 2003; Cunningham et al., 2012).

60 The characterization of beta dose rate heterogeneity, in term of intensity and spatial distribution, requires
61 high sensitivity (sub-mGy level), high resolution (sub-mm) and a calibration method adapted to imaging. As a first
62 part of the project ADDEM (Advancing dosimetry for Dating Environmental Materials) we investigated carbon
63 doped alumina ($\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3\text{:C}$) OSL dosimeter films developed by Landauer Ltd (Glenwood, IL, USA) (Endo et al., 2012)
64 for implementing an ultra-sensitive β autoradiography system suitable for heterogeneous natural samples used in
65 luminescence dating. The properties of this phosphor dosimeter in terms of excitation, decay time and dose
66 response have been investigated for the first part of project ADDEM. These data have been used to improve the
67 signal to noise ratio in a high-resolution laser scanning OSL system. Initial results of Monte Carlo models to
68 calibrate the phosphor response and deconvolve the image to determine the β Dr distribution in the sample are
69 presented.

70 **2. Sample and methodology**

71 **2.1 Dosimeter film and samples**

72 $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3\text{:C}$ is known to be a highly efficient dosimeter for both Optically stimulated Luminescence (OSL) and
73 Thermoluminescence (TL) (McKeever et al., 1999). Although it is well studied in the context of dosimetry for
74 radiation workers, involving Gy level dose or higher (McKeever et al., 1999), fewer studies have considered the
75 sensitivity and dose response curve at mGy and sub-mGy levels (Markey et al., 1995; McKeever and Akselrod,
76 1999; Kalchgruber et al., 2003). The film used for this study is a 47 μm thick deposit of $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3\text{:C}$ grains in a polyester
77 binder on a 75 μm thick polyester substrate (Fig. 1). The grains have been measured to be about 15 μm in diameter.
78 The substrate is translucent, allowing luminescence emission in all direction. This film was provided to Scottish
79 Universities Environmental Research Centre (SUERC) as a 22.5 cm by 28 cm sheet that can be cut to the required
80 sizes.

81 **Figure 1**

82 In addition to the high sensitivity of this material a linear dose response curve- is expected from mGy to
83 Gy level. Its linearity for sub-mGy level is investigated during this study. The small thickness of the film will benefit
84 the imaging resolution, as it limits the spreading of beta radiation in the thickness of the sensitive layer, decreasing
85 the need for deconvolution corrections for dose mapping. It is reusable, which combined with the possibility of
86 cutting it to sizes suitable for particular samples makes it practical for regular measurement. The dimensions of the
87 pieces of film cut for this study ranged from 5 mm to 20 mm.

88 A series of powders of homogenised granulite and of basalt have been prepared at SUERC for use as a
89 new generation of internal dose rate standards (Sanderson personal communication). Here the end members and

90 mixtures of 50 % and 25 % - 75 % in mass of each have been used, their contents of radioactive elements have
91 been measured by high resolution gamma spectrometry and ICPMS analysis and will be reported elsewhere.
92 Meanwhile table 1 gives the working concentrations of the materials used here. These powders were used for an
93 experiment of exposure of the $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3:\text{C}$ film to beta dose rate. An inert powder of sodium carbonate Na_2CO_3 was
94 used for blank measurements.

95 **Table 1**

96 **2.2 Equipment and method**

97 2.2.1 Excitation spectrometer

98 Excitation spectra were recorded using the SUERC spectrometer originally developed for research on
99 detection of irradiated foods (Sanderson, 1991), and later applied to studies of feldspars (Clark, 1992; Clark and
100 Sanderson, 1994). Fig. 2 shows a simplified schematic diagram. It uses a 300 W Xenon Cermax lamp as a light
101 source, which incorporates a parabolic reflector resulting in high intensity forward beams. A stepper motor driven
102 Applied Photophysics monochromator, with adjustable slit widths and order sorting filters on entrance and exit for
103 wavelength selection, followed by collimating optics leading to the sample chamber is used. Samples are
104 illuminated on an inclined samples stage. Luminescence is detected using filtered single photon counting tubes
105 (Electron Tubes 9883 QA/QB) with fast amplifier discriminators and recorded using a 2000 channel Ortec
106 multichannel scalar (MCS) system. For this work the PMT was filtered with BG1/BG3 filters to record the near UV
107 and blue emission of the alumina films, with the stimulation light filtered by a 470 nm long pass filter. The
108 luminescence signals from a 5x5 mm piece of $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3:\text{C}$ film, beta irradiated with 100 Gy, was recorded while the
109 monochromator wavelength was decremented from 750 nm to 480 nm. In earlier work a pyroelectric radiometer
110 was used to normalise the measured spectra (Clark, 1992, Clark and Sanderson, 1994). Here intensity measured
111 were normalized using the theoretical intensity spectra of the Xenon lamp. The excitation spectrum obtained is
112 presented in Fig. 6.

113 **Figure 2**

114 2.2.2 Time resolved OSL reader

115 Time resolved OSL measurements were made here using diode stimulation, based on pulse generators
116 and transistor driven systems developed in earlier work (Sanderson & Clark, 1994). A schematic of the system
117 used here is shown in (Fig. 3). A TTL oscillator module capable of generating 5 V diode pulses with adjustable
118 pulse widths (down to 1 μs) and delays between pulses ranging from 12 μs to 1.2 s was used. For this study
119 clusters of 3 LEDs of 635 nm wavelength were used to stimulate the sample. The OSL signal is collected by a
120 photomultiplier with a 3 mm BG3 filter. While not completely eliminating the within-pulse background from the 635
121 nm diodes, this detection band filtration is enough to protect the photomultiplier while allowing more than 80 % of
122 the luminescence signals from the $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3:\text{C}$ film to pass. While the use of a more efficient wavelength in the 525 nm
123 to 550 nm range would have produced more luminescence per unit of time, this would have been too close to the
124 main emission band of $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3:\text{C}$ and therefore requiring a larger thickness of BG3 filter (12 mm minimum) in order
125 to protect the photomultiplier. This would significantly decrease the luminescence signal passing through the filter,
126 at the point that the signal measured is not significantly more than with the 635 nm stimulation and 3 mm BG3 filter.
127 In addition, for the laser scanning system that is described below, the use of 525 nm to 550 nm wavelength laser
128 increases the risk of damaging the photomultiplier in case of a direct beam reflection. It also prevents the possibility
129 of doing successive imagings of the same irradiation, as the bleaching of luminescence signal by the laser would
130 also be significantly faster than with the 635 nm laser stimulation.

131 The detection during a defined time window was synchronised by starting MCS capture at the beginning
132 of each stimulation pulse using the TTL drive signal. The counts from each stimulation pulse were then registered
133 in the MCS and used to define the luminescence relaxation decay times. Similar systems were used by Markey et
134 al. (1995) or Yukihiro and McKeever (2006) to perform time resolved analysis of $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3:\text{C}$. The time resolved

135 analysis of a 5x5 mm piece of Al₂O₃:C film irradiated with 100 Gy is presented on Fig.7, recorded using 130ms
136 stimulation pulses with a 1500 ms delay, over about 20 min.

137 **Figure 3**

138 2.2.3 Laser scanning imaging OSL reader

139 The imaging OSL readers from Sanderson et al. (2001) (Fig. 4) were designed to map the luminescence
140 signal from a sample pixel by pixel. The sample is placed on a support on a plate moved by two perpendicular
141 stepper motor axes (X and Y axis). Based on the review of the excitation and time resolved spectrometry of the
142 alumina film one of these systems has been configured with a 635 nm 5 mW Acculase model laser from Global
143 Laser LTD (Abertillery, UK), and detection band photon counting with BG3 filtration. The laser has a beam size at
144 nearest focus of < 50 µm, bringing the beam from a working distance of 10 cm at a 45° angle results in a spot size
145 <100 µm at this stage of the work. The luminescence is recorded by a photomultiplier above the sample, then the
146 plate moves one step for the next measurement. Setting the system up in this way allows the luminescence signal
147 measured from the sample during the decay after stimulation to be optimised while using a pulsed OSL (pOSL)
148 protocol (Markey et al.,1995; McKeever and Akselrod, 1999, Yukihiro and McKeever, 2006). The stimulation
149 sequence is composed of successive stimulation pulses followed by measurements of the luminescence signal
150 during its decay. This protocol was chosen in consideration of the properties of the OSL film determined by the
151 previous analysis (see Results part). The measurements on each point are preceded by several dark count
152 measurements. This succession of dark count measurement is used to determine if a luminescence or
153 phosphorescence signal persists from the previous measurement, by comparison of dark count prior to the start of
154 any measurement and by checking if the signal is decaying. No significant signal remaining from the previous point
155 of measurement was observed in this study. The average dark count was calculated as the mean value over
156 successive measurements.

157 **Figure 4**

158 2.2.4 Irradiation of dosimeter films

159 In order to estimate the signal from sub-mGy doses and to test the linearity of the film response to dose,
160 a piece of 10x15 mm film was irradiated using a ⁶⁰Co gamma source with doses from 139 ± 8 to 739 ± 33 mGy.
161 The piece of film was covered a 3 mm of aluminium sheet during gamma irradiation in order to generate charge
162 particle equilibrium. Before each irradiation, the sample was bleached under white light, through a GG 495 nm long
163 pass filter to cut UV wavelength and reduce charge transfer from deep traps during bleaching. It was then scanned
164 with the laser scanning OSL reader using 500 µm steps and a sequence of 300 ms of dark count measurement
165 followed by 100 repetitions of the cycle “60 ms of laser stimulation – 30 ms of measurement during the
166 luminescence signal decay”. The resulting images can be observed in Fig. 8, while the calibration curve resulting
167 from the integrated signals over the image is presented in Fig. 9. Limits of detection and of quantification resulting
168 from these results are illustrated in Fig. 10 .

169 2x2 cm pieces of dosimeter film were exposed to powdered samples of granulite-basalt mixtures (table 1)
170 and pure sodium carbonate, the last one being used as blank. They were bagged in pairs in dark polyethylene 75
171 µm thick bags, which is enough to shield from the alpha particles and protect the phosphor from light exposure,
172 with the sensitive parts turned outwards. The bagged dosimeter films were placed in the centre of 5 cm diameter
173 by 1.8 cm high cylindrical plastic containers filled by the powder samples, according to the geometry presented in
174 Fig. 5a. This ensures that the bagged films are surrounded by at least 5 mm of powder on every side, which is
175 enough to create an infinite matrix condition in regard of the beta dose rate. The containers were placed in a 10
176 cm thick lead castle with a 1.5 mm inner layer of copper (Fig. 5b), for shielding from the environmental X-rays and
177 gamma radiation, as well as from the soft cosmic component. The exposure time was about 1 year and 4 months.
178 The dose rates were estimated using the radioactive element contents from table 1, and the conversion factors
179 from Cresswell et al. (2018). The beta attenuation factors by the dosimeter and protective layer were calculated

180 from modelling, as well as the gamma dose rate contribution (table 2). Each calculated dose was adjusted
181 considering the exact time of exposure within an uncertainty of one day. They were read with the laser scanning
182 OSL reader using 250 μm steps and a sequence of 300 ms of dark count measurement followed by 100 repetitions
183 of the cycle “60 ms of laser stimulation – 30 ms of measurement during the luminescence signal decay”. They were
184 then bleached for 48 h under non-UV white light and scanned again to measure the background signal. The results
185 of counts per pixel compared to the estimated dose are plotted on Fig. 11a. Equivalent gamma dose for the
186 measured luminescence signal were obtained by irradiating the same dosimeter film with a calibrated ^{60}Co gamma
187 source: each film was exposed to a dose of 900 μGy and their luminescence signal was measured again using
188 the same protocol; the ratios of powder exposure signal to the gamma source exposure signal were used to
189 calculate the gamma doses equivalent to the powder exposure signal. These equivalent doses are compared with
190 the calculated exposure dose on Fig. 11b.

191 **2.3 Modelling**

192 Monte Carlo simulations of the irradiation of the film were conducted to calculate the attenuation during
193 exposure of the sample and to investigate the correspondence between the mapped OSL signals and the D_r
194 distribution in the sample. There were conducted using the Geant4 toolkit (Agostinelli et al., 2003; Allison et al.,
195 2016), that already have been successfully used in the context of luminescence dating (Guérin et al., 2012a; Martin
196 et al., 2015; Martin et al., 2018). The simulation code allows stacking different types of slices: radioactive mineral,
197 phosphor, phosphor substrate, phosphor cover, absorber. The composition and density of each type can be
198 adjusted. The phosphor layer is divided into pixels of adjustable size, each pixel records the dose received from
199 the radioactive mineral layer. The distribution of radioactivity in this layer can be uniform or follow certain patterns
200 such as a rectangle, a dot or a sphere. The spectra for the beta and gamma emissions of ^{40}K , of U-series and of
201 Th-series were constructed using the Geant4 database, whose data comes from the Evaluated Nuclear Structure
202 Data File (ENSDF) which is maintained by the National Nuclear Data Center, Brookhaven National Laboratory
203 (USA). It is noted that emission spectra in other nuclear databases vary from the ENSDF used here, as recently
204 discussed by Cresswell et al. (2019), but these differences have not currently been considered. The PENELOPE
205 code for low-energy particle physics (Baró et al., 1995; Ivanchenko et al., 2011) was used for calculating the beta
206 interactions through matter.

207 Simulations of the exposure of two OSL films protected by a 75 μm thick dark plastic bag to granulate
208 powder (composition given in table 1, density 2.0 $\text{g}\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}$) were conducted (Fig. 5a). The resulting beta attenuation
209 coefficients are presented in Table 2. The gamma dose contribution to the exposure dose of the films was simulated
210 from each position of the powder container, in order to investigate both the contribution from the powder in the
211 same container as the film and the contribution from powder in the other containers (Fig. 5b). The backscattering
212 effect was taken into account by reproducing the lead and copper shielding where the containers were placed
213 during the film exposure.

214 In order to investigate the difference of the D_r distribution in the samples and the D_r distribution received
215 by the phosphor film, two simulations of a virtual sample made of a K-feldspar half-part irradiating an inert quartz
216 half using the ^{40}K beta spectrum were set up: the first with a quartz layer of negligible thickness (1 μm) between
217 two 5mm thick slices of samples (Fig. 5c) in order to determine the natural spreading of D_r in it, the second
218 represents an OSL film protected by an alpha-thick dark low-density polyethylene (PDTE) bag and placed between
219 two 5 mm thick slices of samples (Fig. 5d) in order to observe the D_r spreading resulting from the exposure to beta
220 emissions. The results are compared on Fig. 12.

221 **Figure 5**

222 **3. Results**

223 **Figure 6**

224 The sensitivity to excitation of the OSL film increases from the 750 nm wavelength, where it is almost
225 negligible, to the 475 nm (Fig. 6). This is in agreement with previous measurements of the Al₂O₃:C excitation
226 spectrum by Chruścińska (2016). Although it seems more efficient to stimulate this phosphor in lower wavelengths
227 around 500 nm, it would be too close to the Al₂O₃:C main emission peaks around 330 nm and 425 nm (Yukihara
228 and McKeever, 2006). This would lead to either significant risk of damaging the photomultiplier or using thick of
229 optical filters reducing the luminescence signal measured.

230 **Figure 7**

231 The time resolved OSL analysis of the phosphor indicates two slowly decaying components of the
232 luminescence signal, with time constants of 24.0 ± 0.1 ms and 248 ± 13 ms respectively (Fig. 7). These two
233 components were previously measured by Summer (1984) as well as by Markey et al. (1995) to approximately
234 35 ms, corresponding to the F-center lifetime, and to approximately 545 ms at 25°C, this second component
235 being temperature dependant according to measurements from room temperature to 100 °C from Markey et al.
236 (1995). Though of the same order of magnitude, the decay constants measured in this study at ambient
237 temperature are significantly shorter than those measured by Markey et al. (1995). The reason for this difference
238 is not clear but will be investigated in further studies.

239 **Figure 8**

240 Maps of the luminescence signals from the gamma irradiations (Fig. 8) indicate a homogeneous signal in
241 this piece of film, with some statistical variations. A significant background signal can be seen on the blank image;
242 this background cannot be bleached either using white light or the laser stimulation.

243 The luminescence signal corresponding to the edge of the film is lower than the signal in the central part,
244 probably resulting from the laser beam stimulating an area overlapping the sample and the support filter. For this
245 reason, when integrating the signals from multiple pixels, the outermost 2 pixels (corresponding to an area up to 1
246 mm away from the edge) were not taken into account. The calibration curve resulting from these integrations
247 indicates a linear response of this OSL film to dose (Fig. 9), as was previously observed by Markey et al. (1995).
248 The 2σ uncertainties indicated on the abscise axis results from the quadratic sum of the relative uncertainties on
249 the gamma source calibration and on the exposure time. The uncertainties on the signal counts were calculated
250 as the quadratic sum of the absolute values of the uncertainties on the dark count, on the background counts and
251 on the luminescence counts (whose standard deviation was estimated as the square root of the counts), all
252 integrated over an area of approximately 35 mm². The final uncertainties remain under 2 % at 2σ and therefore
253 cannot be seen on Fig. 9.

254 **Figure 9**

255 The dark count integrated over the same area as the OSL signal ranged from 87 to 124 counts per point
256 of measurement (corresponding to a 3 s measurement), with a maximum standard deviation of 18 counts. The
257 average background signal was measured on the blank to 123 counts per point of measurement, with a standard
258 deviation of 10 counts after quadratic subtraction of the dark count standard deviation during this analysis. The
259 limits of detection L_{det} and the limits of quantification L_{qt} are calculated for different surface of integration on Fig. 10.
260 The formula used for calculating these values are:

$$261 \quad L_{det} = 3(\Delta_{DC}^2 + \Delta_{BG}^2)^{0.5} \cdot (N-1)^{-0.5} \quad (1)$$

$$262 \quad L_{qt} = 10(\Delta_{DC}^2 + \Delta_{BG}^2)^{0.5} \cdot (N-1)^{-0.5} \quad (2)$$

263 Where Δ_{DC} is the maximum standard deviation of the dark count, Δ_{BG} is the standard deviation of the background
264 measurement, and N is the number of measured points that were integrated. The measurements presented on Fig.
265 9 were integrated over an area of about 560 measurement points, resulting in a L_{det} of 5 μ Gy and a L_{qt} of 18 μ Gy.

266 **Figure 10**

267 **Table 2**

268 The simulations calculated a significant attenuation of the beta dose rate, resulting from the shielding by the
269 protective layer and by the substrate of the Al₂O₃:C as well as from the missing radiation from the volume occupied
270 by the dosimeters and plastic bags (Table 2). This attenuation is different for the different beta spectra. An average
271 value of attenuation factor can be calculated to 0.66 ± 0.01 considering the proportion of radioactive elements in
272 the granulite powder or to 0.65 ± 0.01 considering the proportion of radioactive elements in the basalt powder or in
273 a typical sediment (Aitken, 1985). The gamma dose contribution represents 7 % to 8 % of the total exposure dose,
274 with 87 % to 58 % of the gamma dose (for the granulite powder and the basalt powder respectively) coming from
275 the same container as the film, the rest of the gamma dose contribution coming from the other containers.

276 **Figure 11**

277 Fig. 11a seems to indicate a linear response to dose of the pieces of film exposed to the powder samples.
278 The lower slope than for the gamma irradiated film results (Fig. 9) may indicate a variability in signal to dose
279 response of the film. The intercept (with a value of 94 ± 31 cps) indicates the environmental dose received by the
280 sample during the time of exposure, corresponding to 304 ± 99 μ Gy, equivalent to a dose rate of 0.23 ± 0.08 mGy.y⁻¹.
281 This is compatible with the hard cosmic radiation component at sea level. Fig. 11b shows a good consistency
282 between the calculated exposure doses and the equivalent gamma doses, with a ratio of 1.02 ± 0.07 determined
283 by the slope value.

284 **Figure 12**

285 The dose profile obtained from simulation of exposure highlight a difference of spatial distribution between
286 the dose in the sample and the dose received by the phosphor (Fig. 12). This difference is due to the non-negligible
287 thickness of the detector and its cover compared to the average beta range: it represents an inert layer of 272 μ m
288 where the beta particles from the sample spread, that will result in an effect comparable to a blurring on the image
289 obtained by laser scan of the dosimeter. Because of this, the beta dose rate image should require a deconvolution
290 or another method in order to take in account the decreasing of apparent variation of the dose rate due to the
291 blurring effect.

292 **4. Discussion**

293 This Al₂O₃:C OSL film is sensitive enough to detect sub-mGy doses, with a linear dose response from
294 μ Gy to mGy levels (Fig. 9 and fig. 11). The significant background signal may limit the accuracy for low dose
295 mapping. Further studies will investigate the possibility of bleaching this background signal using temperature or
296 different stimulation wavelengths. Unfortunately, the polyester nature of the substrate and the binder limit the
297 temperature to the which the film can be exposed.

298 When comparing the OSL signals from the gamma irradiated film (Fig. 9) and the film pieces exposed to
299 the powder samples (Fig. 11a), it appears that the second is about 30% lower for the same dose. Several
300 hypotheses are currently under investigation in order to explain this difference in response. The most likely is that
301 the sample support used for the films exposed to powder was different than the support used for the gamma
302 irradiated piece of film, what put the firsts 3 mm further from the photomultiplier than the second, resulting in a
303 smaller solid angle for the luminescence photon to reach the detector. The comparison between the calculated
304 exposure doses and the equivalent gamma dose shows a good correlation (Fig. 11b), which validates the beta and
305 gamma contributions calculated by simulations (Table 2) and indicates that the sensitivity of the film to gamma
306 exposure is similar to beta exposure.

307 The sub-mGy L_{qt} (422 μ Gy per measurement point) enables the possibility of a pixel-by-pixel calibration
308 of the measurement for long enough exposure time, leading to high resolution mapping of Dr. This L_{qt} can be
309 brought under 100 mGy by integrating areas of about 20 pixels, in order to limit the time of exposure to sample to
310 a few weeks. This corresponds to areas of 5 mm² for 500 μ m pixels (equivalent to a resolution of 2.24 mm) or 0.45
311 mm² for 150 μ m pixels (equivalent to a resolution of 0.67 mm). A strategy to benefit from this would be to identify
312 the homogeneous areas and to integrate the signal over these, in order to lower the L_{qt} and to increase the accuracy

313 of the D_r measurement for these areas. However this may not be always possible in the case of heterogeneous
314 sample exposure. It is always possible to obtain higher resolutions and accuracy by longer exposure time, or with
315 sample with a higher radioactivity such as granite and granulite.

316 The environmental background D_r during exposure is another parameter that can limit the accuracy of the
317 measurement. Fig. 11 shows that it is necessary to set up a blank in order to measure this environmental D_r
318 contribution, but it is better to shield against environmental radiation as much as possible to preserve the accuracy
319 of the measurement. Samples under exposure can be placed in containers thick enough to shield them from beta
320 radiation from other samples. The use of a lead shield can efficiently cut the gamma radiation and the soft
321 component of cosmic radiation, while X-rays from atomic deexcitation and from Bremsstrahlung radiation can be
322 efficiently shielded using inert copper. Using such shielding, we can see on fig. 11 that the environmental
323 background can be reduced to about $0.23 \pm 0.08 \text{ mGy}\cdot\text{y}^{-1}$, which is the order of magnitude of the hard component
324 of cosmic radiations at sea level. Unfortunately, this is still enough to produce OSL signal of the same order of
325 magnitude as the dark count of the photomultiplier or as the observed background signal of the $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3:\text{C}$ film. This
326 would lead to higher limit of detection and quantification, significantly reducing the accuracy of sub-mGy level
327 measurements.

328 The reduction of the highly penetrating cosmic radiation component is more problematic as it needs
329 several meters of rock to be significantly attenuated. In order to benefit from an environment extremely clean from
330 cosmic radiation, OSL film exposures to granulite slices are currently underway in the STFC Boulby Underground
331 Laboratory (Saltburn-by-the-Sea, UK). This laboratory is built 1.1 km underground, efficiently reducing the cosmic
332 radiation D_r to a negligible level with a muon reduction factor of 10^6 (Murphy and Paling, 2012). Each sample and
333 film were placed in pure quartz containers of 1 mm thickness, so each is separated from surrounding samples by
334 2 mm of quartz which is enough to absorb more than 99% of the natural beta radiation. The samples are shielded
335 from X-rays and gamma radiation by pure copper bricks of 5 cm to 10 cm thickness (Fig. 13a) and by a 20cm thick
336 Zeplin lead shield (Fig. 13b).

337 **Figure 13**

338 The simulation results from Fig. 12 point out a major issue of the beta dose rate imaging: the dose
339 distribution on the image can be different from the dose distribution in the sample, depending on the detector
340 characteristics and geometry. This may indicate that the quantification of beta dose rate distribution from previous
341 studies that did not consider this effect may be biased (Romanyukha et al. 2017; Smedley et al., 2020); in particular
342 the beta dose rate dispersion could be underestimated. It is noticeable that even if the distribution of the dose
343 received in the phosphor is different than in the sample, the calibrated dose value resulting from the integration
344 over the whole sensitive area (with the exclusion of the edge potentially affected by edge effect) should be the
345 same (equal to half of the infinite matrix dose of the radioactive part in the case of this modelling). The only
346 difference is the higher spreading of the beta in the detector, resulting in what could be described as a "blurring
347 effect" in the imaging of the dose distribution. Simulations adapted to the geometry of sample exposure could be
348 used to calculate deconvolution parameters, such as point spread functions, in order to deconvolve the dose image
349 for reconstructing the dose distribution in the sample.

350 **5. Conclusion**

351 This study demonstrates the high potential of Landauer's $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3:\text{C}$ OSL dosimeter films for imaging the
352 beta dose rate, in combination with the developed protocol of laser scanning pulsed OSL and with Monte Carlo
353 simulation for calculating attenuation factors and eventual deconvolution parameters. It presents a linear dose
354 response from μGy to mGy level, and a limit of quantification per point in the sub-mGy level. Quantification below
355 $100 \mu\text{Gy}$ can be achieved by integrating over a few pixels. This is enough to obtain an accurate D_r image of natural
356 samples over a few weeks to a few months of exposure time, especially if benefiting from a very low environmental
357 background such as is reachable in underground laboratories. A high resolution of $150 \mu\text{m}$ can be achieved using

358 the described laser scanning OSL reader, but the necessity to integrate the signal over several pixels in order to
359 reach an acceptable accuracy may reduce this resolution for low dose exposure.

360 Experiments are currently under way in order to test the imaging of beta dose rate of heterogeneous
361 samples. It will benefit from the ultra-low environmental background reachable at the STFC Boulby Underground
362 Laboratory, and of image deconvolution processing with parameters obtained from the beta simulation results.
363 Future work will also apply the techniques described here to rock samples.

364

365 **Acknowledgements**

366 This research has been funded by the Royal Society through a Newton International Fellowship. The authors are
367 thankful to Frances Pearce from Landauer for providing the dosimeter sheet.

368

369 **References**

370

371

- 372 Agostinelli, S., Allison, J., Amako, K., Apostolakis, J., Araujo, H., Arce, P., Asai, M., Axen, D., Banerjee, S.,
373 Barrand, G., Behner, F., Bellagamba, L., Boudreau, J., Broglia, L., Brunengo, A., Burkhardt, H., Chauvie, S.,
374 Chuma, J., Chytracsek, R., Cooperman, G., Cosmo, G., Degtyarenko, P., Dell'Acqua, A., Depaola, G., Dietrich, D.,
375 Enami, R., Feliciello, A., Ferguson, C., Fesefeldt, H., Folger, G., Foppiano, F., Forti, A., Garelli, S., Giani, S.,
376 Giannitrapani, R., Gibin, D., Cadenas, J.J. Gomez, Gonzlez, I., Abril, G. Gracia, Greeniaus, G., Greiner, W.,
377 Grichine, V., Grossheim, A., Guatelli, S., Gumplinger, P., Hamatsu, R., Hashimoto, K., Hasui, H., Heikkinen, A.,
378 Howard, A., Ivanchenko, V., Johnson, A., Jones, F.W., Kallenbach, J., Kanaya, N., Kawabata, M., Kawabata, Y.,
379 Kawaguti, M., Kelner, S., Kent, P., Kimura, A., Kodama, T., Kokoulin, R., Kossov, M., Kurashige, H., Lamanna,
380 E., Lampen, T., Lara, V., Lefebure, V., Lei, F., Liendl, M., Lockman, W., Longo, F., Magni, S., Maire, M.,
381 Medernach, E., Minamimoto, K., de Freitas, P. Mora, Morita, Y., Murakami, K., Nagamatu, M., Nartallo, R.,
382 Nieminen, P., Nishimura, T., Ohtsubo, K., Okamura, M., O'Neale, S., Oohata, Y., Paech, K., Perl, J., Pfeiffer, A.,
383 Pia, M.G., Ranjard, F., Rybin, A., Sadilov, S., Salvo, E. Di, Santin, G., Sasaki, T., Savvas, N., Sawada, Y.,
384 Scherer, S., Sei, S., Sirotenko, V., Smith, D., Starkov, N., Stoecker, H., Sulkimo, J., Takahata, M., Tanaka, S.,
385 Tcherniaev, E., Tehrani, E. Safai, Tropeano, M., Truscott, P., Uno, H., Urban, L., Urban, P., Verderi, M.,
386 Walkden, A., Wander, W., Weber, H., Wellisch, J.P., Wenaus, T., Williams, D.C., Wright, D., Yamada, T.,
387 Yoshida, H., Zschesche, D., , 2003. Geant4—a simulation toolkit. Nuclear Instruments and Methods in Physics
388 Research Section A: Accelerators, Spectrometers, Detectors and Associated Equipment, 506(3), 250-303.
- 389 Aitken, M.J., 1985. Thermoluminescence Dating. Academic Press, London, 378 p.
- 390 Allison, J., Amako, K., Apostolakis, J., Arce, P., Asai, M., Aso, T., Bagli, E., Bagulya, A., Banerjee, S., Barrand,
391 G., Beck, B.R., Bogdanov, A.G., Brandt, D., Brown, J.M.C., Burkhardt, H., Canal, Ph., Cano-Ott, D., Chauvie, S.,
392 Cho, K., Cirrone, G.A.P., Cooperman, G., Cortés-Giraldo, M.A., Cosmo, G., Cuttone, G., Depaola, G., Desorgher,
393 L., Dong, X., Dotti, A., Elvira, V.D., Folger, G., Francis, Z., Galoyan, A., Garnier, L., Gayer, M., Genser, K.L.,
394 Grichine, V.M., Guatelli, S., Guèye, P., Gumplinger, P., Howard, A.S., Hřivnáčová, I., Hwang, S., Incerti, S.,
395 Ivanchenko, A., Ivanchenko, V.N. , Jones, F.W., Jun, S.Y., Kaitaniemi, P., Karakatsanis, N., Karamitros, M.,
396 Kelsey, M., Kimura, A., Koi, T., Kurashige, H., Lechner, A., Lee, S.B., Longo, F., Maire, M., Mancusi, D., Mantero,
397 A., Mendoza, E., Morgan, B., Murakami, K., Nikitina, T., Pandola, L., Paprocki, P., Perl, J., Petrović, I., Pia, M.G.,
398 Pokorski, W., Quesada, J.M., Raine, M., Reis, M.A., Ribon, A., Ristić Fira, A., Romano, F., Russo, G., Santin, G.,
399 Sasaki, T., Sawkey, D., Shin, J.I., Strakovsky, I.I., Taborda, A., Tanaka, S., Tomé, B., Toshito, T., Tran, H.N.,
400 Truscott, P.R., Urban, L., Uzhinsky, V., Verbeke, J.M., Verderi, M., Wendt, B.L., Wenzel, H., Wright, D.H., Wright,
401 D.M., Yamashita, T., Yarba, J., Yoshida, H., 2016. Recent developments in GEANT4. Nuclear Instruments and
402 Methods in Physics Research A 835, 186–225.

403 Baró, J., Sempau, J., Fernández-Varea, J.M., Salvat, M., 1995. "PENELOPE": an algorithm for Monte Carlo
404 simulation of the penetration and energy loss of electrons and positrons in matter. Nuclear Instruments Methods
405 in Physics Research B 100 : 31-46.

406 Chruścińska, A., 2016. Optical depth of traps in AL₂O₃:C determined by the variable energy of stimulation OSL
407 (VES-OSL) method. Radiation Measurements 90, pp. 94-98. DOI: 10.1016/j.radmeas.2016.01.032.

408

409 Clark R.J., 1992, Photostimulated Luminescence as an Archaeological dating tool, PhD thesis, University of
410 Glasgow, <https://theses.gla.ac.uk/74653/>

411

412 Clark, R.J., Sanderson, D.C.W., 1994. Photostimulated luminescence excitation spectroscopy of feldspars and
413 mica. Radiation Measurements 23, 641-646.

414

415 Cresswell, A.J., Carter, J., Sanderson, D.C.W., 2018. Dose rate conversion parameters: Assessment of nuclear
416 data. Radiation Measurements 120, pp. 195-201. DOI: 10.1016/j.radmeas.2018.02.007

417 Cresswell, A.J., Sanderson, D.C.W. & Carter, J., 2019. Review of nuclear data for naturally occurring
418 radionuclides applied to environmental applications. Eur. Phys. J. Plus 134, 69.
419 <https://doi.org/10.1140/epjp/i2019-12437-1>

420 Cunningham, A.C., DeVries, D.J., Schaart, D.R., 2012. Experiment and computational simulation of beta-dose
421 heterogeneity in sediment. Radiation Measurements 47, 1060-1067

422 Duller, G.A.T., Bøtter-Jensen, L., Murray, A.S., Truscott, A.J., 1999. Single grain laser luminescence (SGLL)
423 measurements using a novel automated reader. Nuclear Instruments and Methods B 155, 506-514.

424 Endo, A., Katoh, T., Kobayashi, I., Joshi, R., Sur, J., Okano, T., 2012. Characterization of optically stimulated
425 luminescence dosimeters to measure organ doses in diagnostic radiology, Dentomaxillofac Radiol. 41-3, pp.
426 211–216.

427 Guérin, G., Mercier, N., Nathan, R., Adamiec, G. and Lefrais, Y., 2012a. On the use of the infinite matrix
428 assumption and associated concepts: a critical review. Radiation Measurements 47, 778 – 785.

429

430 Guérin, G., Discamps, E., Lahaye, C., Mercier, N., Guibert, P., Turq, A., Dibble, H.L., McPherron, S.P.,
431 Sandgathe, D., Goldberg, P., Jain, M., Thomsen, K., Patou-Mathis, M., Castel, J.-C., Soulier, M.-C., 2012b. Multi-
432 method (TL and OSL), multi-material (quartz and flint) dating of the Mousterian site of Roc de Marsal (Dordogne,
433 France): correlating Neanderthal occupations with the climatic variability of MIS 5–3. Journal of Archaeological
434 Science 39, 3071-3084.

435 Ivanchenko, V., Apostolakis, J., Bagulya, A., Abdelouahed, H.B., Black, R., Bogdanov, A., Burkhard, H., Chauvie,
436 S., Cirrone, P., Cuttone, G., Depaola, G., Di Rosa, F., Elles, S., Francis, Z., Grichine, V., Gumplinger, P., Gueye,
437 P., Incerti, S., Ivanchenko, A., Jacquemier, J., Lechner, A., Longo, F., Kadr, O., Karakatsanis, N., Karamitros, M.,
438 Kokoulin, R., Kurashige, H., Maire, M., Mantero, A., Mascialino, B., Moscicki, J., Pandola, L., Perl, J., Petrovic, I.,
439 Ristic-Fira, A., Romano, F., Russo, G., Santin, G., Schaelicke, A., Toshito, T., Tran, H., Urban, L., Yamashit, T.,
440 Zacharatou, C., 2011. Recent improvements in Geant4 electromagnetic physics models and interfaces. Progress
441 in Nuclear Science and Technology 2, 898-903.

442 Jankowski, N. R., Jacobs, Z., 2018. Beta dose variability and its spatial contextualisation in samples used for
443 optical dating: An empirical approach to examining beta microdosimetry. Quaternary Geochronology, 44, pp. 23-
444 37.

445 Kalchgruber, R., Fuchs, M., Murray, A. S., & Wagner, G. A., 2003. Evaluating dose-rate distributions in
446 natural sediments using α -Al₂O₃: C grains. Radiation Measurements, 37(4-5), 293-297.

447 Mayya, Y.S., Morthekai, P., Murari, M.K., Singhvi, A.K., 2006. Towards quantifying beta microdosimetric effects
448 in single-grain quartz dose distribution. *Radiation Measurements* 41, 1032-1039.

449 Martin, L., Mercier, N., Incerti, S., Lefrais, Y., Pecheyran, C., Guerin, G., Jarry, M., Bruxelles, L., Bon, F., Pallier
450 C., 2015. Dosimetric study of sediments at the Beta dose rate scale : characterization and modelization with the
451 DosiVox software. *Radiation Measurement* 81, 134-141

452 Martin L., Fang F., Mercier N., Incerti S., Grün R., Lefrais Y., 2018. 2D modelling: A Monte Carlo approach for
453 assessing heterogeneous β Drs in luminescence and ESR dating: Paper I, theory and verification. *Quaternary*
454 *Geochronology* 48, pp. 25-37

455 McKeever, S.W.S., Akselrod, M.S., 1999. Radiation dosimetry using pulsed optically stimulated luminescence of
456 $Al_2O_3:C$. *Radiation Protection Dosimetry* 84, pp. 317–320.

457 McKeever, S.W.S., Akselrod, M.S., Colyott, L.E., Agersnap Larsen, N., Polf, J.C., Whitley, V. (INVITED), 1999.
458 Characterisation of Al_2O_3 for Use in Thermally and Optically Stimulated Luminescence Dosimetry, *Radiation*
459 *Protection Dosimetry*, Volume 84, Issue 1-4, pp. 163–166, <https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordjournals.rpd.a032709>

460 Markey B. G., Colyott L. E. and McKeever S. W. S., 1995. Time-resolved optically stimulated luminescence from
461 $Al_2O_3:C$. *Radiation Measurements* 24, pp. 457-46

462 Murphy, A. and Paling, S., 2012. The Boulby Mine Underground Science Facility: The Search for Dark Matter,
463 and Beyond. *Nuclear Physics News* 22:1, pp. 19-24. DOI: 10.1080/10619127.2011.629920

464 Nathan, R.P., Thomas, P.J., Jain, M., Murray, A.S., Rhodes, E.J., 2003. Environmental dose rate heterogeneity
465 of beta radiation and its implications for luminescence dating: Monte Carlo modelling and experimental validation.
466 *Radiation Measurement* 37, 305-313.

467 Plachy, A. L., Sutton, S. R., 1982. Determination of the Dose-rate to Quartz in Granite. *PACT* 6, pp.188-194.
468

469 Romanyukha, A. A., Cunningham, A. C., George, S. P., Guatelli, S., Petasecca, M., Rosenfeld, A. B., Roberts, R.
470 G., 2017. Deriving spatially resolved beta dose rates in sediment using the Timepix pixelated detector. *Radiation*
471 *Measurements* 106, pp. 483-490. DOI: 10.1016/J.RADMEAS.2017.04.007

472 Rufer, D., Preusser, F., 2009. Potential of autoradiography to detect spatially resolved radiation patterns in the
473 context of trapped charge dating. *Geochronometria* 34, 1-13.

474 Sanderson, D.C.W., 1991. Photostimulated luminescence (PSL): A new approach to identifying irradiated foods,
475 EUR 13331 report, pp. 159-167

476 Sanderson, D.C.W., Clark, R.J., 1994. Pulsed photostimulated luminescence of alkali feldspars. *Radiation*
477 *Measurements* 23, 633-639

478 Sanderson D.C.W., Carmichael L.A., Murphy S., Whitley V., Scott E.M., Cresswell A., 2001. Statistical and
479 Imaging Methods for luminescence detection of irradiated Ingredients, Food Standards Agency, London, Project
480 CSA 5240. Available from <http://eprints.gla.ac.uk/58359>

481

482 Smedley, R. K., Duller, G. A. T., Rufer, D., & Utley, J. E. P., 2020. Empirical assessment of beta dose
483 heterogeneity in sediments: Implications for luminescence dating. *Quaternary Geochronology*, 56, [101052].
484 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.quageo.2020.101052>

485 Summers, G. P., 1984. Thermoluminescence in single crystal $\alpha-Al_2O_3$. *Radiation Protection Dosimetry* 8, 69-80

486 Yukihiro, E. G. and McKeever, S. W. S., 2006. Spectroscopy and optically stimulated luminescence of $Al_2O_3:C$
487 using time-resolved measurements. *Journal of Applied Physics* 100, issue 8; <https://doi.org/10.1063/1.2357344>

Figure 1 (1.5 column): Geometry and composition of the Landauer Al₂O₃:C OSL film

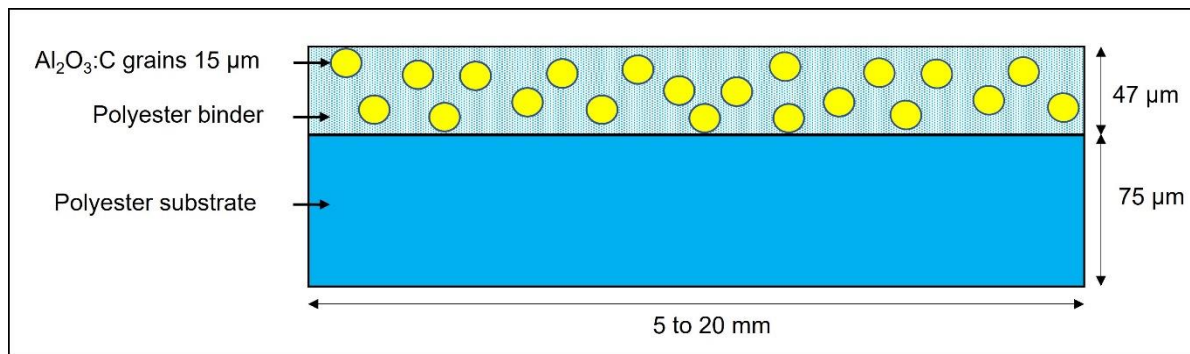


Figure 2 (single column): excitation spectrometer schematic

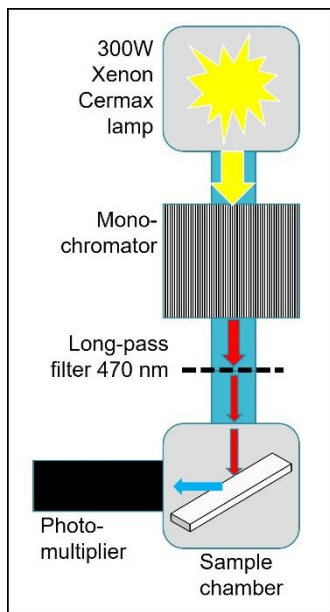


Figure 3 (single column): Time resolved OSL reader schematic

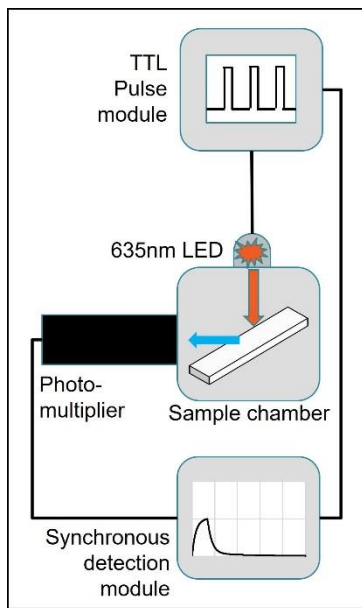


Figure 4 (single column): Laser scanning imaging OSL reader schematic

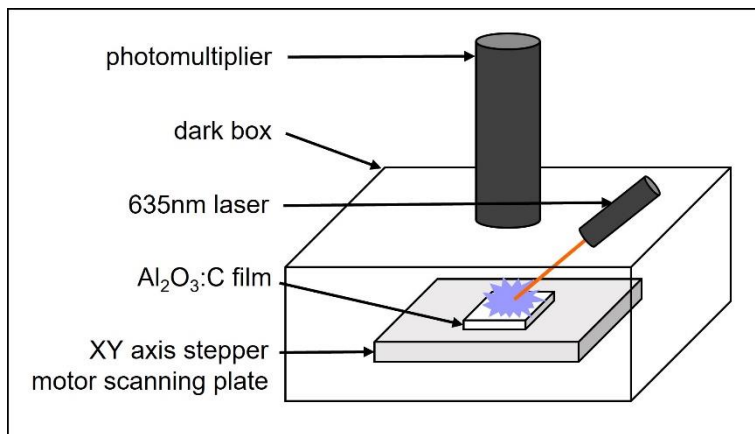
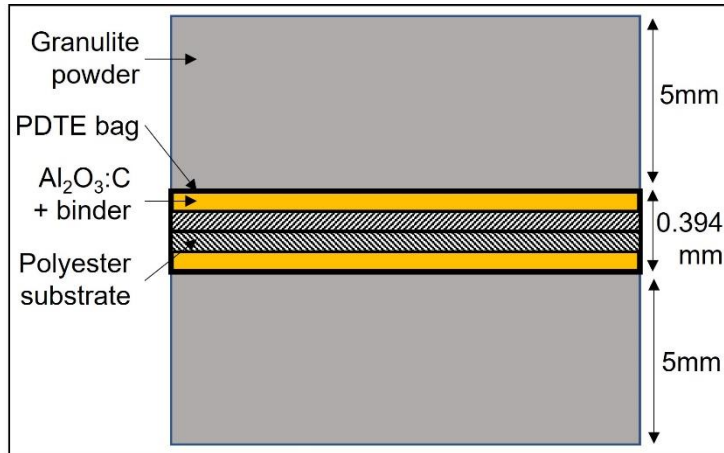
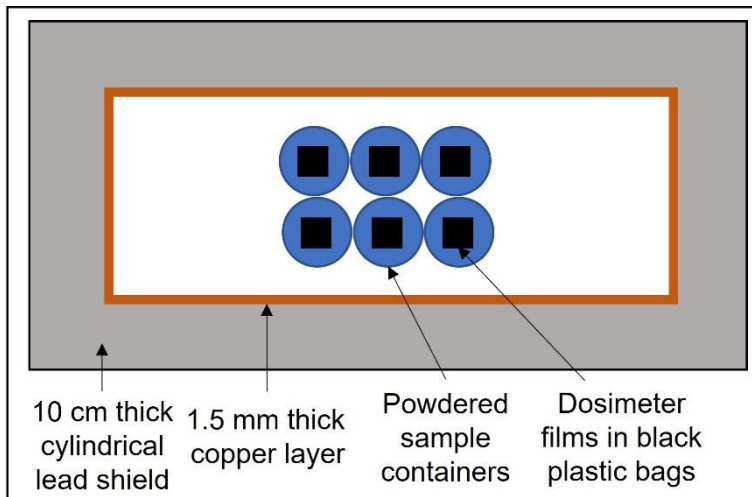


Figure 5 (single column): Geometries of the Geant4 simulations

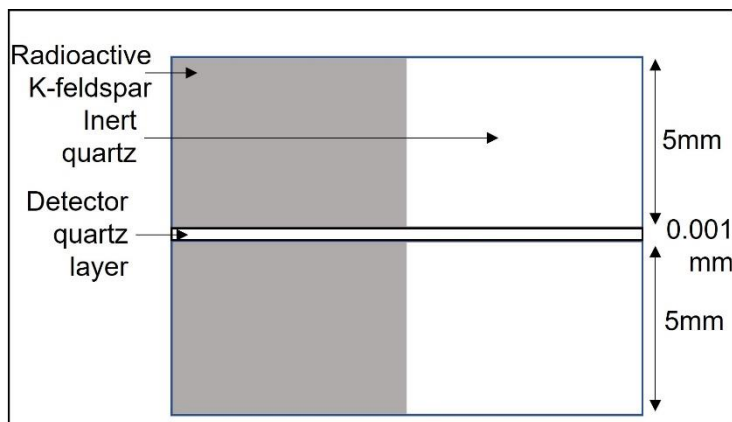
a – Dosimeter exposure to powdered sample



b – Sample containers in the environmental radiation shield



c – Dose rate distribution in a K-feldspar-Quartz sample



d – Dosimeter exposure to a K-feldspar-Quartz sample

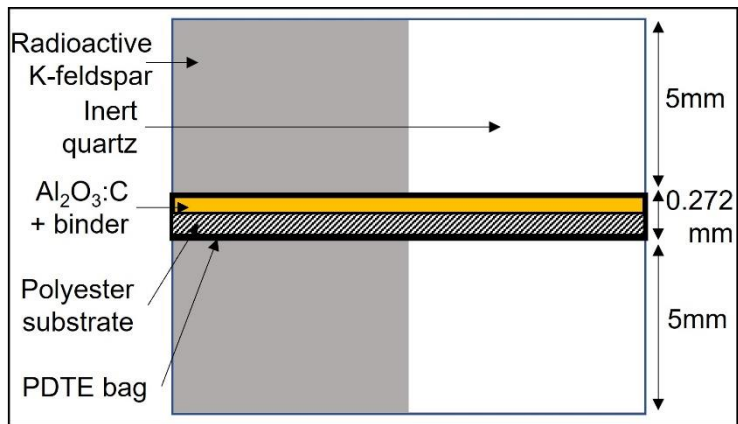


Figure 6 (single column): Excitation spectrum of the Al₂O₃:C film

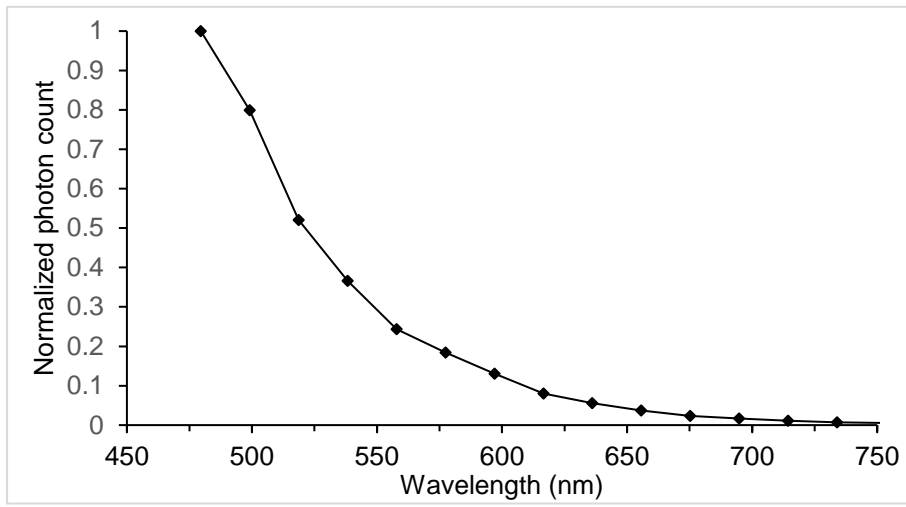


Figure 7 (single column): Pulse stimulated OSL of the $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3:\text{C}$ film. The pulse duration is 130ms and the delay between pulses is 1500ms. The signal decay after the pulse is best fitted by a double exponential decay with half-time constants of 24.0 ± 0.1 ms and 248 ± 13 ms

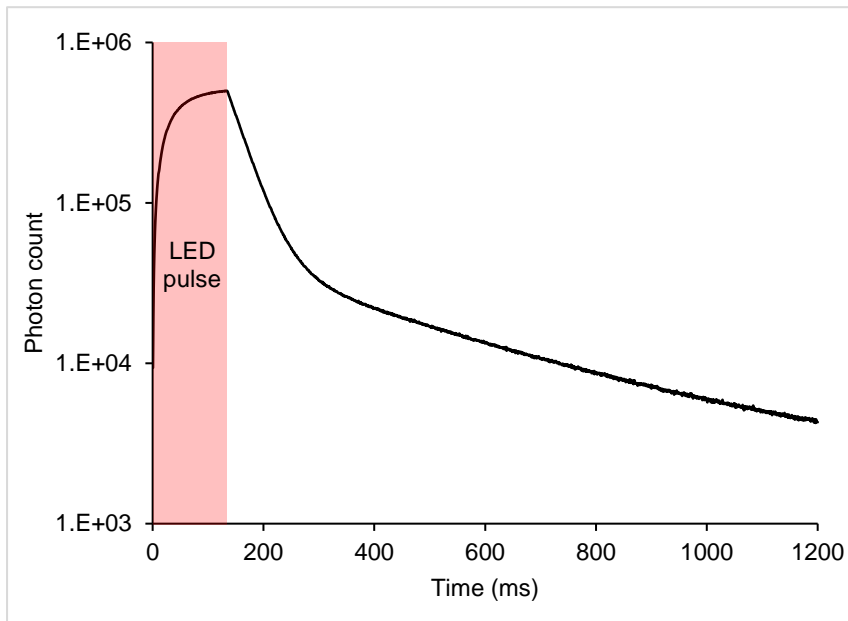


Figure 8 (2 columns): OSL imaging of a piece of $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3\text{:C}$ film. The dark counts were not subtracted. The background from the sample support can be observed around the piece of film and is not significantly higher than the dark counts value, indicating that there is no significant scattering of the laser beam nor luminescence from the support. A high-count pixel can be seen out of the film area, near the top right corner of the 295 μGy image. Its origin is under investigation and they are removed from analysis when occurring in the film area. It can be seen that the piece of film lightly shifted between scanning, due to the support that have been improved since.

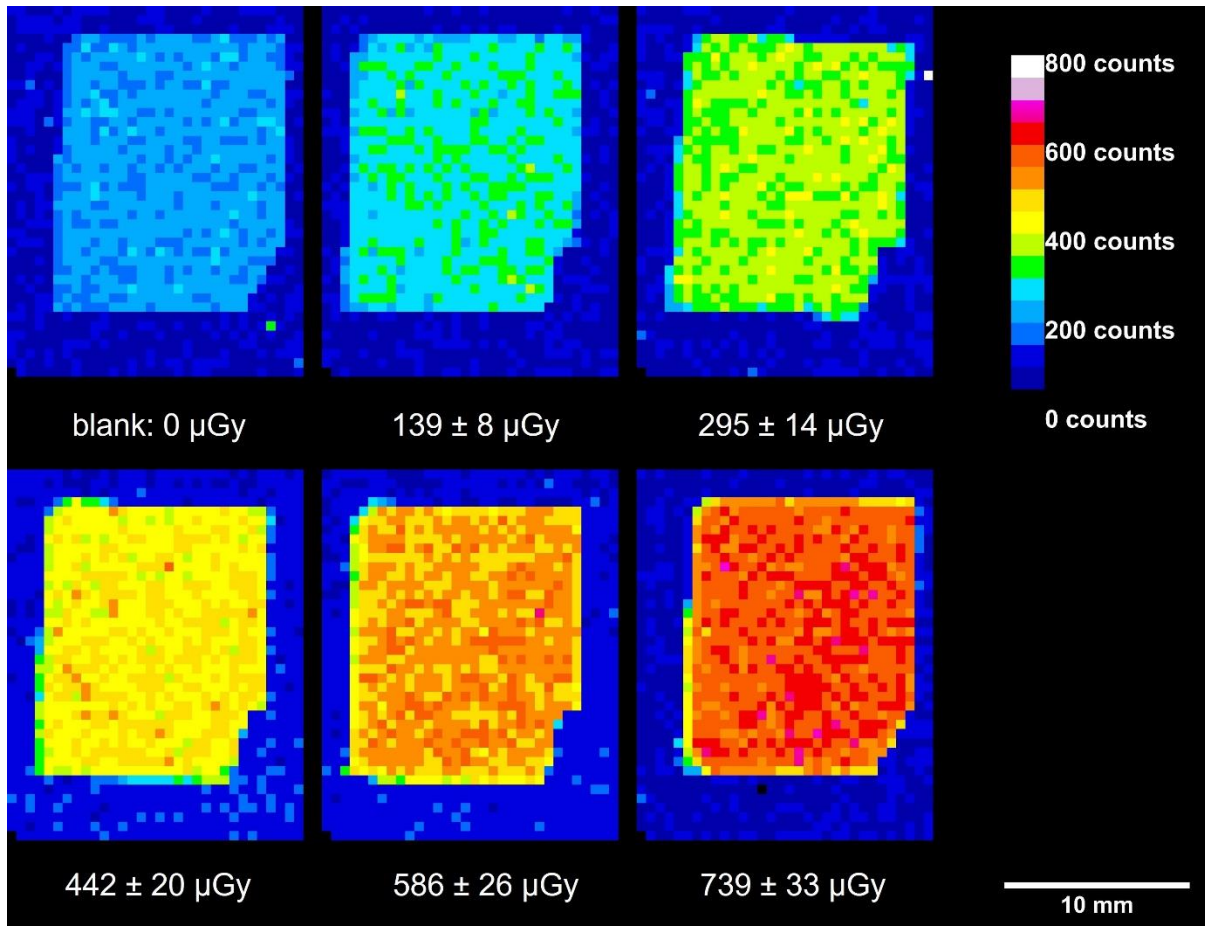


Figure 9 (1.5 column): OSL signal of piece of Al₂O₃:C film irradiated by a ⁶⁰Co gamma source. *The uncertainties on the gamma dose are provided at the 95% confidence level. The uncertainties on the average counts per pixel are negligible.*

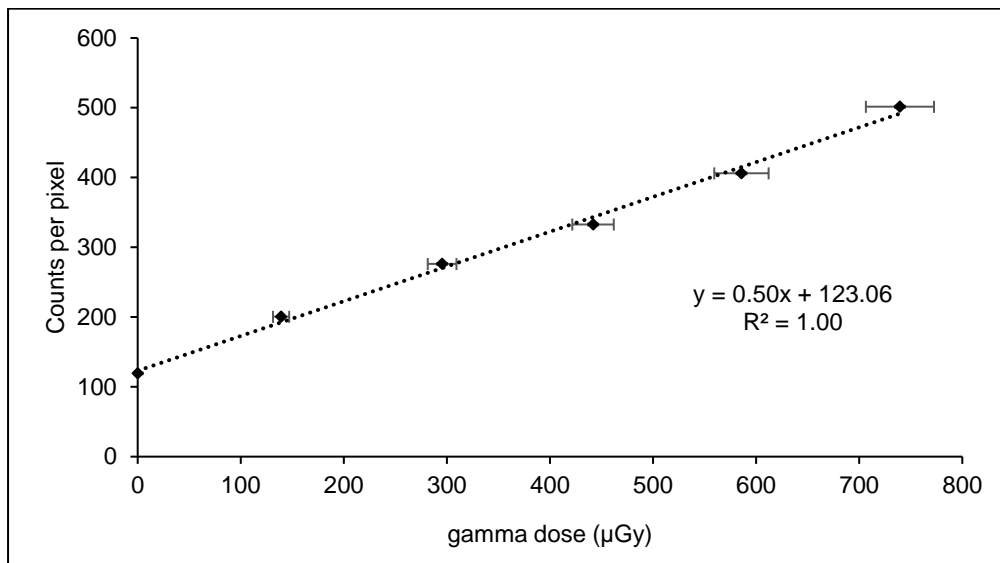


Figure 10 (single column): Detection and quantification limits for a piece of Al₂O₃:C film

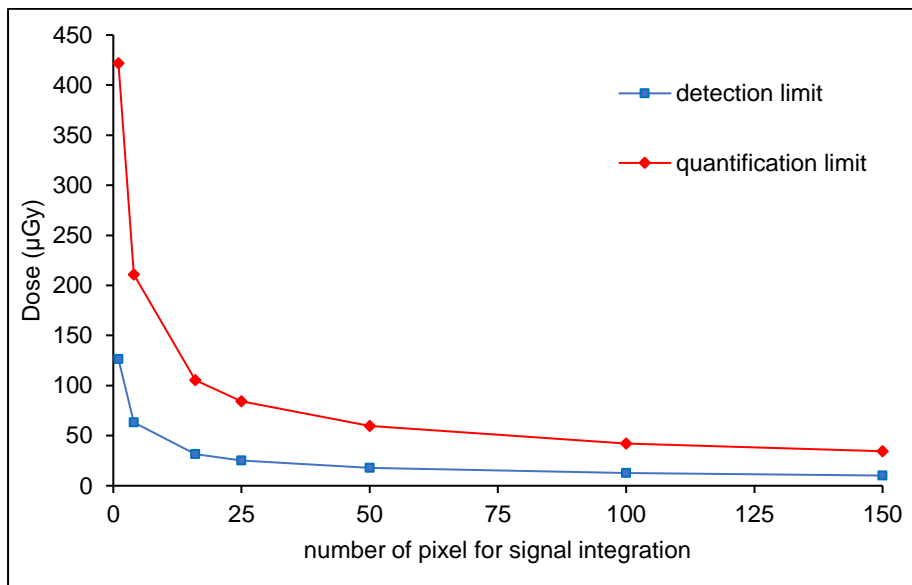
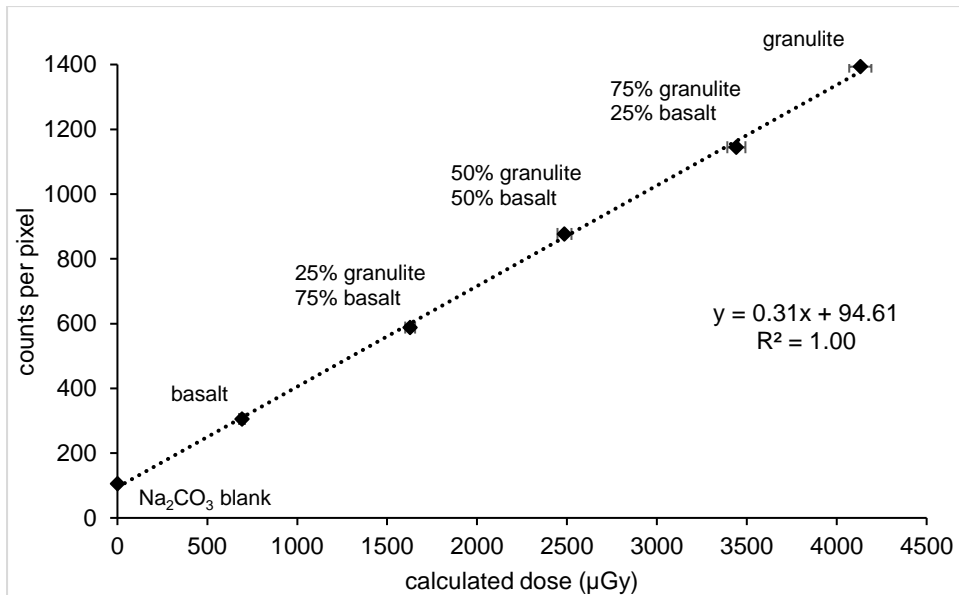


Figure 11 (1.5 column): Calibration curve and comparison of calculated dose with equivalent gamma dose. The counts were averaged over the whole surface of the dose image recorded by the dosimeter except the edges, for a total of about 5500 pixels of 250 μm per image. The dark count and the phosphor background signal were subtracted from the results of graph a, so the remaining offset of 94 ± 31 cps corresponds to the environmental background dose. This environmental background was additionally subtracted for graph b in order to highlight only the relation between calculated doses and equivalent gamma doses. The uncertainties on the calculated dose are provided at the 95% confidence level.

a - OSL signal from exposure of dosimeter film pieces to powder samples. The uncertainties on the average counts per pixel is inferior to 1%.



b – Comparison of the calculated dose for each sample exposure with the equivalent gamma dose. The additional uncertainty on the normalized dose is due to the uncertainty on the gamma source dose rate (145 ± 7 μGy.h⁻¹)

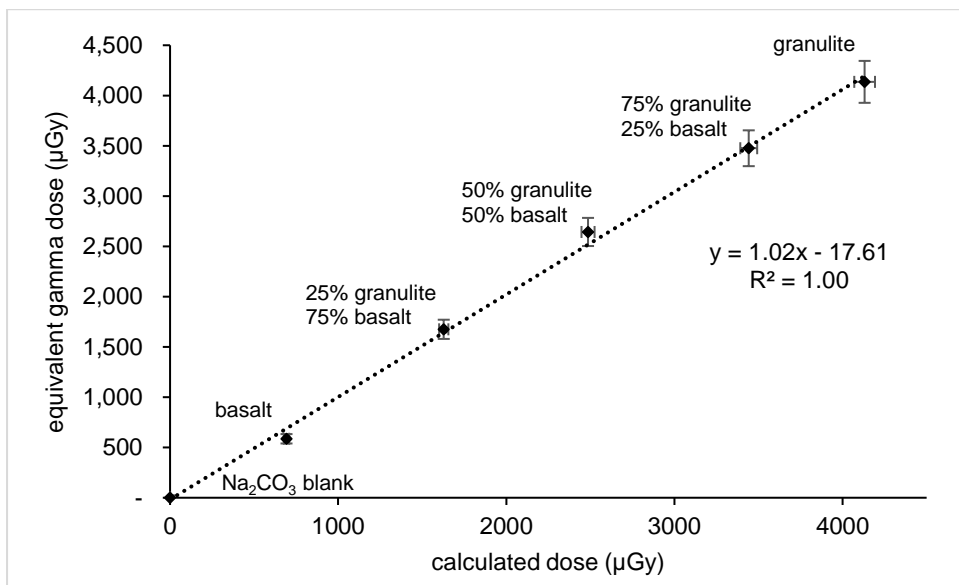


Figure 12 (1.5 column): beta dose profiles from Geant4 simulations

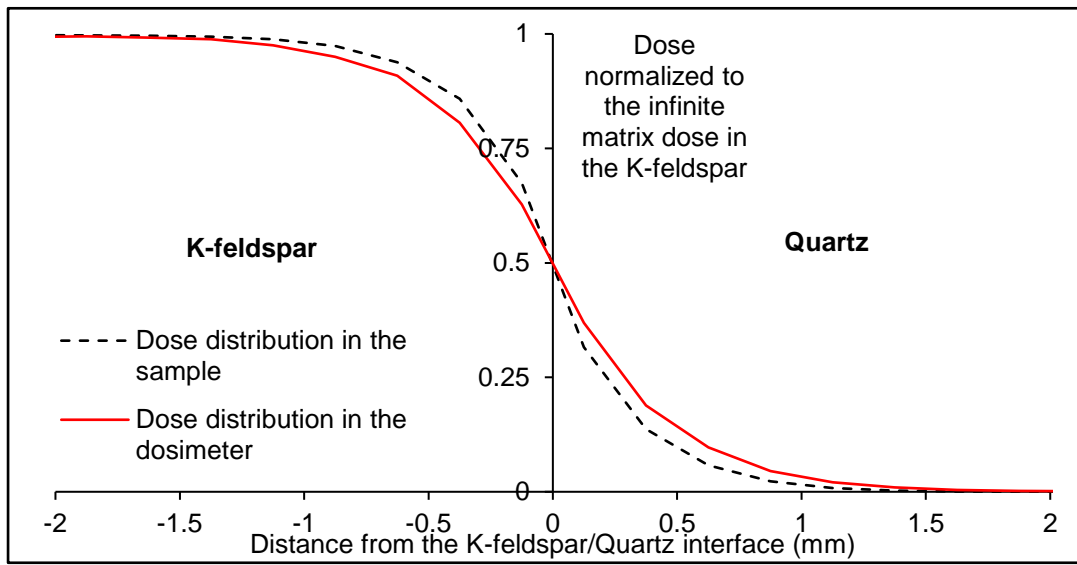


Figure 13 (single column): Environmental radiation shielding at the STFC Boulby Underground Laboratory

a – 5 cm thick copper brick shielding



b – Zeplin lead shield



Table 1 (single column): Radioactive element contents in the powder samples. *The uncertainties are provided at the 95% confidence level.*

Powder composition	K content (wt.%)	U content (ppm / mg.kg ⁻¹)	Th content (ppm / mg.kg ⁻¹)
Granulite 100%	3.46 ± 0.06	6.90 ± 0.12	16.9 ± 0.3
Granulite 75% - Basalt 25%	2.71 ± 0.05	5.50 ± 0.11	13.7 ± 0.2
Granulite 50% - Basalt 50%	1.96 ± 0.04	4.09 ± 0.10	10.5 ± 0.2
Granulite 25% - Basalt 75%	1.21 ± 0.03	2.69 ± 0.09	7.35 ± 0.2
Basalt 100%	0.46 ± 0.02	1.28 ± 0.08	4.2 ± 0.1

Table 2 (single column): beta dose rate attenuation during dosimeter film exposure to powder samples. *These values were calculated by simulation. The uncertainties are provided at the 95% confidence level.*

spectra	Beta attenuation factor*	Gamma dose rate contribution*
⁴⁰ K	0.680 ± 0.002	0.0402 ± 0.0006
U-series	0.638 ± 0.001	0.1447 ± 0.0004
Th-series	0.581 ± 0.001	0.1169 ± 0.0004
Granulite **	0.66 ± 0.01	0.101 ± 0.001
Basalt **	0.65 ± 0.01	0.169 ± 0.002
Typical sediment ***	0.65 ± 0.01	0.128 ± 0.001

* Given as ratio of the corresponding infinite matrix dose rate of the sample

** See table 1 for radioactive element contents

*** ⁴⁰K 1 %, U 3 ppm, Th 10 ppm (Aitken, 1985)

