





Istituto Nazionale di Fisica Nucleare

# **Data Science Applications** in Physics, Balkan School in **Tirana 2024** Radiotherapy with Hadrons

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#### Outline

- $\circ$  Basics of Hadron Therapy
  - Ion sources: particle accelerators in Medical Physics
  - Spread-Out Bragg Peak and beam modulation
  - Relative Biological Effectiveness
  - Flash Therapy concept
- Boron Neutron Capture Therapy (BNCT)
  - BNCT principles
  - Neutron Sources
  - Dosimetry in BNCT



### Radiotherapy basic principle

Induce the cancer cell death by radiation damage to DNA:

Ionization events produced by radiation flux break direct single/double strand generating free radicals and damaging the DNA to finally induce the cell death radiation damage to DNA





Radiotherapy with Hadrons

#### Photons

- Interactions are all processes that change the energy and/or the direction of the photon and will have direct influence on the shape of photon spectra
- The main processes of interaction of photons with matter are the following:
  - a) Photoelectric absorption,
  - b) Compton scattering,
  - c) Pair production.





Radiotherapy with Hadrons

#### Photons





Photons

• The **attenuation** of a collimated photon beam arriving under normal incidence on a material of thickness x follows an exponential law:

 $\circ I = I_0 e^{-\mu x}$ 





Heavy charged particles: protons

Energy losses mainly due to ionization processes → Bragg peak

$$\frac{dE}{dz} = -4\pi n \frac{\frac{Z_{eff}^2 e^4}{e^4}}{m_e v^2} \left\{ ln \frac{2m_e v^2}{l(1 - (v/c)^2)} - (v/c)^2 \right\}$$

peak position depends on particle energy  $\Rightarrow$  properly selecting the energy, one can reach the "right" depth into the target material





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#### Photons vs Protons

Main difference related to energy delivery



8

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#### Photons vs protons





X-ray (traditional) radiation beam

Proton radiation beam



9

### Hadron therapy

- Cancer therapy based-on irradiation with "hadrons"
- now: protons or Carbon ions
- future: He ions (and possibly other ion types) will be soon used at HIT (Heavy Ion-beam Therapy centre) in Heidelberg, Germany and then at CNAO in Pavia





### Hadron Therapy: brief history

**1954:** first patient with protons in Berkeley, CA, USA

**1957:** first patient with He-ions in Berkeley (2,800 patients)

**1961:** starting of the Harvard cyclotron, where > 9,000 patients were treated with protons

**1975: heavy ions like** Ar, Si and Ne in Berkeley  $\Rightarrow$  non tolerable side effects

**'90s:** the first clinical centres for protons (*Clatterbridge*, *UK*; Loma Linda, CA)

Loma Linda, CA)

1994: C-ion therapy starts in Chiba, Japan1997-2008: the C-ion pilot project at GSI (*Darmstadt*,

*Germany)* 

2009: C-ion therapy starts in Europe (Heidelberg)2012: C-ion therapy starts in Italy (CNAO, Pavia)





### Hadron therapy in the world

104 centres in dec 2019, of which 13 with C-ions (6 Jap, 3 Chi, 2 Ger, 1 Ita, 1 Aus) 38 facilities under construction (*dec 2019*) + 27 planned





protons: ~250,000 C: ~40,000 He: ~2000 other ions: ~1500

https://www.ptcog.ch

patients treated worldwide until 2020: >290k (https://www.ptcog.ch)



12

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### Ion production and acceleration

LINAC less compact (worse for clinical centres) Cyclotrons for proton Synchrotrons for protons and other ions



#### <u>U. Amaldi 2010</u>

13



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## Cyclotron

the particles are held to a *spiral* trajectory by a *static* magnetic field, and are accelerated by a rapidly varying (radiofrequency) electric field.





### Cyclotron



 $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{q} \mathbf{v} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{v} \text{ perp. } \mathbf{B} \Rightarrow \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{q} \mathbf{v} \mathbf{B}$  $ma = mv^2/R = qvB \Longrightarrow$  $\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{mv}/\mathbf{qB}$ 

H. Lorentz, Nobel in 1902

increasing  $v \Rightarrow R$  increases  $\Rightarrow$  spiral trajectory

- advantage: the particles are accelerated many times, so the output ٠ energy can be many times the accelerating voltage
- disadvantage: the final value of v is limited by B and by the radius R, • because *high v needs large R*



### Syncroton



![](_page_16_Picture_2.jpeg)

17

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### The Spread-Out Bragg Peak (SOBP)

a tumour is larger than a single Bragg peak  $\rightarrow$  many different peaks are summed up *(beam "modulation")*, producing the "Spread-Out Bragg Peak (SOBP)"

![](_page_17_Figure_2.jpeg)

![](_page_17_Picture_3.jpeg)

### Beam modulation

Passive energy modulation: the beam energy is changed by attenuation through pieces of different thicknesses

![](_page_18_Figure_2.jpeg)

Active energy modulation: the beam energy is variable and dynamically adjusted to the dose required in each scan slide

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![](_page_18_Picture_6.jpeg)

### Beam modulation

Bragg peak of proton beam within therapeuthic energy range.

![](_page_19_Figure_2.jpeg)

![](_page_19_Picture_3.jpeg)

Heavy ions have higher "relative biological effectiveness" (RBE) than photons and protons

RBE = photon dose / ion dose to obtain the same biological effect

![](_page_20_Figure_3.jpeg)

![](_page_20_Picture_4.jpeg)

Heavy ions have higher "relative biological effectiveness" (RBE) than photons and protons

![](_page_21_Figure_2.jpeg)

![](_page_21_Picture_3.jpeg)

22

Dose(Gy)

...and why heavy ions produce more complex DNA damage?

 $dE/dx \propto z^2 \rightarrow$  Heavy ions have higher z thus the stopping power is higher

![](_page_22_Picture_3.jpeg)

![](_page_23_Figure_0.jpeg)

Radiotherapy with Hadrons

![](_page_23_Picture_3.jpeg)

...and why heavy ions produce more complex DNA damage?

 $dE/dx \propto z^2 \rightarrow$  Heavy ions have higher z thus the stopping power is higher

Why just C-ions?

![](_page_24_Figure_4.jpeg)

Where,

OER (oxygen enhancement ratio) = Dose without Oxygen / Dose with Oxygen = Dose in hypoxia / Dose in air

Takeaway More O  $\rightarrow$  Less Repair  $\rightarrow$  More Damage

Also, higher dose due to bigger fragmentation tail effect

![](_page_24_Picture_9.jpeg)

![](_page_25_Figure_1.jpeg)

Radiotherapy with Hadrons

![](_page_25_Picture_4.jpeg)

## He-ion therapy

- Lower dose in the fragmentation tail region with respect to C-ion beams  $\rightarrow$  less dose in healthy tissue
- Higher LET, and RBE with respect to proton beams
- Lower lateral spread (fwhm)  $\rightarrow$  more focused beams and localized therapy

![](_page_26_Figure_4.jpeg)

![](_page_26_Picture_5.jpeg)

27

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## FLASH therapy

**FLASH radiotherapy** is a technique involving the delivery of ultrahigh dose rate radiation to the target. FLASH has been shown to reduce radiation-induced toxicity in healthy tissues without compromising the anti-cancer effects of treatment compared to conventional radiation therapy.

**High dose rate:** > 40 Gray/sec (possible); > 100-150 Gray/sec (likely)

Reproducible effect

- Dose / pulse (> 1.5 Gy & few pulses)
- Dose rate in the pulse ( $\geq 106 \text{ Gy/s}$ )
- Overall time (< 100 ms)

Dose/fraction No dose limiting effect observed in animal models between 25-41 Gray

![](_page_27_Figure_8.jpeg)

#### \* ROS: Reactive oxygen species

![](_page_27_Picture_10.jpeg)

### FLASH therapy

![](_page_28_Figure_1.jpeg)

![](_page_28_Picture_2.jpeg)

### Summary

- Hadron Therapy: particle therapy based-on irradiation with hadrons
- Localized delivery dose → tumor scanning by changing the beam energy (SOBP)
- High RBE and LET (dE/dx  $\propto z^2$ )
- Lower lateral spread (fwhm) when using heavy ions → more focused beams and localized therapy

![](_page_29_Picture_5.jpeg)

is a high-linear energy transfer (LET) radiotherapy exploitable for cancer treatment, based on the nuclear capture and fission reactions that occur when <sup>10</sup>B is irradiated with thermal and epithermal neutrons.

![](_page_30_Figure_2.jpeg)

![](_page_30_Picture_3.jpeg)

#### Why B-10 for the therapy?

<sup>10</sup>B(n, $\alpha$ ) has a high capture reaction cross section at thermal/ephitermal energies  $\rightarrow$  increase dose delivery efficiency.

 $\sigma \approx 3800$  b around thermal neutron energy

![](_page_31_Figure_4.jpeg)

![](_page_31_Picture_5.jpeg)

- The reaction channel is 94% through  $7Li^* + \alpha$ , and  $\gamma(478 \text{ keV})$  is emitted which can be used to monitoring the treatment dose.
- α range between up to 11 µm damaging the full cell with high LET
  → Hadron Therapy at level of single cell.

![](_page_32_Figure_3.jpeg)

	Energy (MeV)	Range (µm)
α	1.47-178	9-11
7Li	0.84-101	4 - 5
γ	0.48	

![](_page_32_Picture_5.jpeg)

- The **SELECTIVITY** at cell level depends on microscopic distribution of <sup>10</sup>B
- Selectivity: lethal dose only in the tumour; sparing effect of healthy tissue.
- Dose in healthy tissues  $D_S \propto C_S \cdot \Psi_n$  and in tumour tissues  $D_T \propto C_T \cdot \Psi_n$  then: Therapeutic ratio is  $T = C_T / C_S$  (T > 1.0)
- T is the boron concentration ratio between tumuor and healthy tissues and clinical studies give as good compromise  $T \sim 3.0$  or more.

![](_page_33_Figure_5.jpeg)

![](_page_33_Picture_6.jpeg)

- Another reactions occurs with the main elements that compound the tissue: **hydrogen**, **carbon**, **nitrogen** and **oxygen**.
- ${}^{1}H(n,n')$  p emission at various E,  ${}^{1}H(n,\gamma)$  low LET.
- 14N(n,p)14C high LET.

![](_page_34_Figure_4.jpeg)

![](_page_34_Picture_5.jpeg)

Not only  ${}^{10}B...$ generally, (n, $\gamma$ ) reactions loss the cell-level selectivity; few radionuclides and/or toxic elements (such as Cd, Gd, Hg, U, Pu, Am,  ${}^{3}H...$ );

few nuclides are noble gases (**He**, **Xe**) few nuclides are key elements in weapons (**U**)

Nuclide	Interaction	Cross section $\sigma_{tb}$ (b)	<b>Recoil nucleus</b>	Q-val (MeV)
<sup>3</sup> He	(n,p)	5,333	3H	0,764
<sup>6</sup> Li	(n,α)	940	3H	4,78
<sup>10</sup> B	(n,α)	3,835	7Li	2,79
113Cd	(n,γ)	20,600	same of entrance ch	
135Xea	(n,γ)	2,720,000	"	
<sup>149</sup> Sm	(n,γ)	42,080	"	
<sup>151</sup> Eu	(n,γ)	9,200	"	
155Gd	(n,γ)	61,100	"	
157Gd	(n,γ)	259,000	"	7,94
147Hf	(n,γ)	561	دد	
<sup>199</sup> Hg	(n,γ)	2,150	"	
<sup>235</sup> U <sup>a</sup>	(n,f)	681	fission fragments	< 200
<sup>241</sup> Pu <sup>a</sup>	(n,f)	1,380	"	
<sup>242</sup> Am <sup>a</sup>	(n,f)	8,000	"	
Dellasether	NORTH .	1077 B (1)70 C (1)		

\*Radioactive

![](_page_35_Picture_5.jpeg)

#### Neutron Capture Therapy timeline

- **1932:** neutron discovery by Chadwick (Nobel prize 1935)
- **1935:** description of  ${}^{10}B(n,\alpha){}^{7}Li$  reaction by Taylor&Goldhaber
- 1936: Locher proposes the use of neutron capture reactions in cancer treatment
- 1940: Kruger published the first experiment on BNCT (in vitro tumour fragments treated with boric acid + n-irr => in living animals); Zahl et al. Perform the first in vivo BNCT on mouse sarcoma
- **1950's:** first CLINICAL trials (brain tumours)

![](_page_36_Picture_6.jpeg)

Thermal neutron flux as function of depth inside a tissue equivalent phantom due to primary beams of thermal (< 0.5 - 1 eV) VS epithermal (0.5 eV - 10 keV) neutrons

- High flux/fluence of thermal **n** at <sup>10</sup>B loaded V-Target depth
- epithermal n: skin-sparing effect → increased beam penetration by <E<sub>0</sub>> and forward direction (collimation)

Always epithermal n? Which E?

thermal **n** for shallow tumours (skin melanoma). and preclinical investigation (cells, small animals)  $\begin{bmatrix} 0.0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  VS epithermal **n** for deep seated tumours (brain tumours)

![](_page_37_Figure_6.jpeg)

![](_page_37_Picture_7.jpeg)

Beam design objectives (for clinical BNCT): to produce an epithermal fluence at beam port within a reasonable treatment time (about 1h) sufficient to have a high enough thermal  $\mathbf{n}$  fluence at tumour depth with the less possible contamination by other radiation (non-thermal n, photons...)

![](_page_38_Figure_2.jpeg)

Geometrical and energy
neutron ratios

![](_page_38_Picture_4.jpeg)

Other important features of the beam:

- variable dimension (typically circular shape)
- protruding collimator  $\rightarrow$  to improve patient positioning
- Beam always fix → the patient must place and adapt

![](_page_39_Figure_5.jpeg)

![](_page_39_Picture_6.jpeg)

Fig. 2.1 A lateral field irradiation setup using the long protruding collimator in the MIT FCB and an air gap of 3 cm  $\,$ 

![](_page_39_Picture_8.jpeg)

#### Some lucky numbers:

IAEA TecDoc-2001					
10 <sup>9</sup>					
0.05 (5%					
2x10 <sup>-13</sup>					
2x10 <sup>-13</sup>					
0.7					

**Table 2.1** Suggested performance characteristics of epithermal neutron irradiation facilities for BNCT of brain tumors (or comparable soft tissue) using the tumor-targeting agent BPA and associated weighting factors [14]

Characteristics	D 1 10 11 C C DDA		
Characteristics	Desired facility performance for BPA		
Neutron and photon beam contamination	$<2 \times 10^{-12} \text{ Gy cm}^{2a}$		
Advantage depth (useful penetration)	>8 cm		
Energy	$\sim 0.4 \text{ eV} < E < \sim 10-20 \text{ keV}$		
Collimation (calculated current to flux ratio)	$J/\phi > 0.75$		
Beam aperture	Adjustable size and shape, 0–16 cm diam. for brain		
Intensity, epithermal neutron flux	$\geq 2 \times 10^9 \text{ n cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-16}$		
Treatment time	~10 min		
Patient positioning	Beam placement on any part of the body facilitated by a long protruding collimator, large irradiation room, visual field alignment tools		
Beam control	Fluence delivery to ±1 % of prescription		
	Safety interlocks to protect staff and patient		
Patient support	Visual and audio communication for monitoring patient, rapid egress during emergencies		
	Neutron and photon beam contamination Advantage depth (useful penetration) Energy Collimation (calculated current to flux ratio) Beam aperture Intensity, epithermal neutron flux Treatment time Patient positioning Beam control Patient support		

AD = Advantage Depth = depth at which the tumour total dose equals the maximum dose to healthy tissue

<sup>a</sup>Equivalent to  $2.8 \times 10-12$  Gy cm<sup>2</sup> when applying weighting factors of 3.2 and 1.0 for photons and neutrons respectively

<sup>b</sup>Higher intensities are desirable for tumors with deeper target volumes or when using more advanced compounds with lower uptake in tissue (but with improved selectivity) to keep irradiation times as short as possible

![](_page_40_Picture_8.jpeg)

![](_page_41_Picture_1.jpeg)

- b) Accelerator based sources
- c)  $^{252}$ Cf source
- d) Compact neutron generators

Radiation source and compact generators are not suggested due to low neutron flux Nuclear reactor and AB most used neutron sources for BNCT

![](_page_41_Picture_6.jpeg)

![](_page_41_Picture_7.jpeg)

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#### a) Nuclear reactors

- Complex to install, maintain and dismantle, high costs and bad public opinion.
- Not so common and diffuse technology (in particular in Italy).
- Generally ("NCT history") used for other goals such as radiopharmaceutical production  $\rightarrow$  conflicts or limitations in the availability of the beam for medical use.
- Usually are located far from hospitals  $\rightarrow$  long road transfer of the patient during the BNCT procedure.

![](_page_42_Figure_6.jpeg)

![](_page_42_Picture_7.jpeg)

Radiotherapy with Hadrons

b) Accelerator based sources Neutron production by nuclear reaction of charged particles accelerated at low energy with determinate target

![](_page_43_Figure_2.jpeg)

#### Advantages compared to nuclear reactors:

- Nice public opinion
- Located directly inside hospitals
- Easier to install, operate and remove
- Costs comparable to those of conventional RT accelerators
- Neutron energy spectrum at beam port (without moderation or filters) is already less contaminated than that coming from a nuclear reactor (soft spectrum → no or less "nonthermal" neutron contamination)

![](_page_43_Picture_9.jpeg)

#### b) Accelerator based sources

Most useful nuclear reactions for neutron production:

<sup>7</sup>Li(p,n)<sup>7</sup>Be and <sup>9</sup>Be(p,n)<sup>9</sup>B  $\rightarrow$ hight neutron yields, low  $E_{th}$ , no neutron contamination with  $E_n >$ 1 MeV **Table 3.1** For different neutron-producing reactions, the table lists the threshold and bombarding energy, the total thick target neutron production for different bombarding energies, the percentage for which the maximum neutron energy is less than 1 MeV, and the maximum and minimum neutron energies [17, 22, 39, 40]

Reaction	E <sub>th</sub> (MeV)	$E_{\rm in}$ (MeV)	Total production (n/mA s)	Fraction $E_n < 1 \text{ MeV} (\%)$	E <sub>nmax</sub> (keV)	$E_{\rm nmin}$ (keV)
7Li(p,n)7Be	1.880	1.880	0	100	30	30
		1.890	$6.3 \times 10^{9}$	100	67	0.2
		2.500	$9.3 \times 10^{11a}$	100	787	60
		2.800	$1.4 \times 10^{12b}$	92	1,100	395
9Be(p,n)9B	2.057	2.057	0	100	20	20
		2.500	$3.9 \times 10^{10}$	100	574	193
<sup>9</sup> Be(d,n) <sup>10</sup> B	0	0	0	50	3,962	3,962
		1.500	$3.3 \times 10^{11}$	50	4,279	3,874
$^{13}C(d,n)^{14}N$	0	0	0	75	4,974	4,964
		1.500	$1.9 \times 10^{11}$	70	6,772	5,616
12C(d,n)13N	0.327	0.327	0	100	4	3
		1.500	$6.0 \times 10^{10}$	80	1,188	707
d(d,n)3He	0	0	0	0	2,451	2,451
		0.120	$3.3 \times 10^{8c}$	0	2,898	2,123
		0.200	$1.1 \times 10^{9}$	0	3,054	2,047
t(d,n)4He	0	0	0	0	14,050	14,050
		0.150	$4.5 \times 10^{10}$	0	14,961	13,305

<sup>a</sup>Average between the values reported in Colonna et al. [17] and Lee and Zhou [39, 40]

<sup>b</sup>Allen and Beynon [2]

<sup>c</sup>Ganda et al. [22]

![](_page_44_Picture_9.jpeg)

- b) Accelerator based sources<sup>7</sup>Li(p,n)<sup>7</sup>Be
- Q-val = -1.644 MeV
- Eth(p) = 1.88 MeV (forwarded n in m.c.s. with E about 30 keV in the l.s.) → at higher E, forwarded neutron emission is more likely
- Resonance of the cross section (at 580 mb) at E = 2.25 MeV → if I work a tiny harder, @ 2.3 MeV:
  - Emax(n) = 573 keV
  - Emin(n, at 180°) = 35 keV
  - Emean(n) = 233 keV
  - thick target (p-beam stopper)

![](_page_45_Figure_9.jpeg)

Fig. 3.1 Reaction cross section for  $^{7}Li(p,n)$  for different proton bombarding energies. The pronounced resonance is at 2.25 MeV [42]

![](_page_45_Picture_11.jpeg)

- b) Accelerator based sources<sup>7</sup>Li(p,n)<sup>7</sup>Be
- High I (tens of mA) to produce n-epithermal fluxes required in BNCT → 1 kW/cm<sup>2</sup> vs 180.5 °K melting point and 85 W/mK thermal conductivity → LIQUID target?!
- after irradiation Li is activated (477 keV  $\gamma$  from Be-7)
- Li is highly reactive with O (sealed system)

![](_page_46_Figure_5.jpeg)

Fig. 3.1 Reaction cross section for <sup>7</sup>Li(p,n) for different proton bombarding energies. The pronounced resonance is at 2.25 MeV [42]

![](_page_46_Picture_7.jpeg)

- b) Accelerator based sources<sup>9</sup>Be(p,n)<sup>9</sup>B
- To have high BNCT neutron fluxes, E(p) at least 2 times the Eth → Eth(n)\_Be > Eth(n)\_Li, energy spectrum is harder than in Li-target
- Low permeability of H: thick targets (p-beam stoppers) load H thus leading to blistering (target damage)
- Main advantage over Li target: no activation and better thermal properties

![](_page_47_Figure_5.jpeg)

![](_page_47_Picture_6.jpeg)

#### Accelerator based sources for BNCT: examples

#### TAE-Lifescience (USA) $\rightarrow$ CNAO, PV and BNCT clinical center, China

![](_page_48_Picture_2.jpeg)

- low En spectrum: 2.5 MeV protons, 10 mA
- solid Li target (proprietary technology)
- electrostatic tandem accelerator
- TLS's AlphabeamTM system  $\rightarrow$  <u>https://taelifesciences.com/alphabeam-neutron-system/</u>

![](_page_48_Picture_7.jpeg)

### Accelerator based sources for BNCT: examples

Neutron Therapeutics (USA)  $\rightarrow$  Helsinki, FI & Birmingham, UK (but not for clinical BNCT)

![](_page_49_Picture_2.jpeg)

- 2.6 MeV electrostatic proton accelerator
- Operation at 30 mA
- rotating, solid Li target (proprietary technology)
- in-treatment room CT for positioning validation
- nuBeam suite → <u>https://www.neutrontherapeutics.com/technology/</u>

![](_page_49_Picture_8.jpeg)

#### Accelerator based sources for BNCT: examples

#### INFN-RFQ: MUNES project (MUltidisciplinary NEutron Source)

Accelerator type	LINAC
Particle	Proton
p input energy	0.08 MeV
p output energy	5 MeV
Frequency	252.2 MHz
Proton current	Up to 50 mA
Beam power	Up to 250 kW
RF power consumption	< 800 kW
Operative power density on Be target	700 W/cm2
Time structure	Continuous wave (CW)
Neutron converter	Be
Neutron source intensity	1014 s-1
Total accelerator length	7.2 m

![](_page_50_Picture_3.jpeg)

![](_page_50_Picture_4.jpeg)

![](_page_50_Picture_5.jpeg)

#### **Components of the total dose**

In BNCT we must correctly account for four separate radiation components, which have different biological characteristics and spatial distributions

- Incident neutrons (D<sub>n</sub>) Leading to dose deposition via (n,p) and capture reactions
- Photons  $(D_v)$ • Incident with the beam and internally generated – mainly 2.2 MeV from <sup>1</sup>H (n,  $\chi$ )
- Thermal neutrons (Dp or  $D_{TH}$ ) • Mainly from  ${}^{14}N(n,p){}^{14}C$  reactions
- **Boron dose (D<sub>B</sub>)** from  ${}^{10}B(n, \alpha)^7Li$  reactions

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![](_page_51_Picture_8.jpeg)

![](_page_51_Picture_10.jpeg)

![](_page_51_Picture_11.jpeg)

![](_page_51_Picture_12.jpeg)

#### **Present Method of Biological Dose Transformation:** Weighted dose D<sub>W:</sub>

```
D_{\mathbf{W}} = W_{\mathbf{n}} D_{\mathbf{n}} + W_{\gamma} D_{\gamma} + W_{\mathbf{TH}} D_{\mathbf{TH}} + W_{\mathbf{B}} D_{\mathbf{B}}
```

Where the D values are absorbed doses for each dose component, and the W values are weighting factors

This method relies on weighting factors that are fixed - whereas in reality they will change for different dose levels applied

![](_page_52_Picture_5.jpeg)

#### **BNCT** reactions deliver dose in high density events

The density of the ionisation delivered is described via the quantity Linear Energy Transfer (LET)

![](_page_53_Figure_3.jpeg)

![](_page_53_Figure_4.jpeg)

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#### Values derived for Weighting factors

	Wn	Wγ	W <sub>TH</sub>	W <sub>B</sub>
		•		(for BPA)
Tumour	3.2	1.0	3.2	3.8
Skin	3.2	1.0	3.2	2.5
Other Tissue	3.2	1.0	3.2	1.3

Typical (assumed) <sup>10</sup>B concentrations 15  $\mu$ g/g in Blood and Brain, 52.5  $\mu$ g/g in Tumour

![](_page_54_Picture_4.jpeg)

#### Values derived for Weighting factors

	Wn	Wy	W <sub>TH</sub>	W <sub>B</sub>
				(for BPA)
Tumour	3.2	1.0	3.2	3.8
Skin	3.2	1.0	3.2	2.5
<b>Other Tissue</b>	3.2	1.0	3.2	1.3

Typical (assumed) <sup>10</sup>B concentrations 15  $\mu$ g/g in Blood and Brain, 52.5  $\mu$ g/g in Tumour

#### Measurements and MCNP, Weighted Doses (for healthy brain tissue)

![](_page_55_Figure_5.jpeg)

![](_page_55_Picture_6.jpeg)

# Recommendations for the Dosimetry of Boron Neutron Capture Therapy

#### NRG 21425/03.5539

Published in 2003: Emphasis on *recommendations* and production of a document reflecting a distillation of knowledge on practical measurement techniques in BNCT

![](_page_56_Picture_4.jpeg)

#### 2003 Recommendations – Summary of scope

#### In-air beam characterisation

- Neutron spectrum
- Neutron beam profile in air
- Photon beam profile in air

#### **In-phantom beam calibration**

- Define reference phantom (geometry and material)
- Define reference depth
- Recommend methods for determination of dose components
- Show translations from dose to water to dose to ICRU reference brain (can be applied to any other tissue as required)

#### **Beam Monitoring Systems and MU calibration**

In-air measurements are intended for validation of beam design calculations, to validate codes used to determine dose-conversion factors in-phantom

Birmingham accelerator moderator system

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![](_page_58_Picture_2.jpeg)

![](_page_58_Picture_3.jpeg)

Radiotherapy with Hadrons

In-phantom dosimetry

![](_page_59_Picture_2.jpeg)

Leads to beam monitor chambers

Ionisation chamber

Reference water phantom (40 x 40 x 20 cm)

12 cm beam aperture

![](_page_59_Picture_7.jpeg)

![](_page_60_Figure_1.jpeg)

![](_page_60_Picture_2.jpeg)

#### Alternative Methods for validation

The use of alternative or back-up dosimetry methods was a consistent theme in dosimetry protocols in the past..

ICRU 1969 - Made recommendations which were very similar to those contained in HPA 1969. They reviewed the accuracy attainable with 4 methods of determining absorbed dose at a point

- Absolute ion chamber method relying on the Bragg-Gray principle as per HPA 1969 ie a dosemeter with a traceable calibration
- Fricke ferrous sulphate dosimetry
- Calorimetry

AAPM 1971. Recommended the use of alternative methods such as Fricke dosimetry and the absolute Bragg-Gray cavity chamber to cross-check the traceable ion chamber method.

![](_page_61_Picture_8.jpeg)

#### Summary of Recommended in-phantom measurement techniques

#### Gamma ray and epithermal neutron dose measurements

• Reference method

Paired ionisation chamber technique. Measurements are performed with Mg(Ar) and TE(TE) chambers.

#### • Supplementary method

No definite recommendation; however tissue equivalent proportional counter micro-dosimetry and the thermo luminescence detector technique are considered

#### **Boron and Nitrogen Dose**

• Reference method

A set of activation foils consisting of a gold (diluted in aluminium), and manganese is recommended.

• Supplementary methods

Gold foils with and without cadmium cover.

![](_page_62_Picture_12.jpeg)

### Properties of a good BNCT agent

The BNCT agent refers to the to the drug in charge to deliver the <sup>10</sup>B into the cancer cell granting the selectivity of the treatment. The requirement for these agent are:

- Low systemic toxicity;
- Tumor concentration 20-35 µg of <sup>10</sup>B/g of tumor (~10<sup>9</sup> atoms of <sup>10</sup>B for tumor cell);
- Tumor tissue/normal tissue concentration ratio between 3÷5:1;
- Tumor tissue/blood concentration ratio of 5:1;
- Easily monitored.

![](_page_63_Picture_7.jpeg)

### Chemical properties of <sup>10</sup>B

- Not radioactive, 20% of natural boron
- Many boron compounds can be synthesized having hydrolytically stable linkages between
- Boron and other elements such as C, O, and N
- Its small atomic size permits its replacement of carbon in many organic structures,
- Isosteres that offer the potential for simulating biologically those compounds from which they are derived.
- Boron clusters that possess remarkable hydrolytic and metabolic stability (e. g. carboranes).

![](_page_64_Picture_7.jpeg)

### Boron BNCT agents

#### **First generation**

- borace, boric acid, sodium pentaborate
- Advandages: commercialy availables, tumor concentrations, not toxics
- Bad results in brain tumour due to thermal neutron flux delivered inadequate and its differentials transient reached unity within a relatively short period
- Low selectivity

#### Second generation

- Sulfur derivatives supplied by DuPont (chemical industry): **BSH** 
  - High boron content and non-toxic. BSH also contains some dimer which increases the concentration of boron but is toxic
  - Acceptable tumor/blood concentration ratio
  - Positive clinical trials. BSH approved by Japanese authorities in 2020
- **BPA**: derivative of amino acids, for this reason it is considered interesting for BNCT because it is aromatic and lipophilic and can therefore guarantee good concentrations in tumor tissue.
  - Positive clinical trials, even superior to BSH.
- Problem: Poor selectivity for both BSH and BPA

![](_page_65_Picture_14.jpeg)

### Boron BNCT agents

#### Third generation

Strategies:

- modulation of properties through small structural variations
- use of multiple agents to exploit a synergistic effect Example: carboranes

![](_page_66_Figure_5.jpeg)

![](_page_66_Picture_6.jpeg)

Figure 8. NCT compound design.

- Three isomeric forms.
- High chemical and metabolic stability: possibility of preparing many derivatives by modulating their properties and use in vivo.
- Greater possibility of interaction with the active site.

Recent studies have used nanobiosensores boron dopped

![](_page_66_Picture_12.jpeg)

#### Summary

- BNCT high-linear energy transfer radiotherapy based on the nuclear capture and fission reactions  ${}^{10}B(n, \alpha)^{7}Li$
- BNCT can be considered as hadron herapy inside cell (products:  $\alpha$  and <sup>7</sup>Li)
- The selectivity at cell level depends on microscopic distribution of  ${}^{10}\mathrm{B}$  (T ~ 3.0 or more)
- Accelerator based (AB) and nuclear reactors are the main neutron sources for BNCT. More advantages from the clinical point of view for AB-BNCT
- Several components of the total dose during the treatment. Main contribution from boron dose

![](_page_67_Picture_6.jpeg)