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A $^{13}\text{C}(\text{d},\text{n})$ -based epithermal neutron source for Boron Neutron Capture Therapy



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ABSTRACT

Purpose: Boron Neutron Capture Therapy (BNCT) requires neutron sources suitable for in-hospital siting. Low-energy particle accelerators working in conjunction with a neutron producing reaction are the most appropriate choice for this purpose. One of the possible nuclear reactions is $^{13}\text{C}(\text{d},\text{n})^{14}\text{N}$. The aim of this work is to evaluate the therapeutic capabilities of the neutron beam produced by this reaction, through a 30 mA beam of deuterons of 1.45 MeV.

Methods: A Beam Shaping Assembly design was computationally optimized. Depth dose profiles in a Snyder head phantom were simulated with the MCNP code for a number of BSA configurations. In order to optimize the treatment capabilities, the BSA configuration was determined as the one that allows maximizing both the tumor dose and the penetration depth while keeping doses to healthy tissues under the tolerance limits.

Results: Significant doses to tumor tissues were achieved up to ~6 cm in depth. Peak doses up to 57 Gy-Eq can be delivered in a fractionated scheme of 2 irradiations of approximately 1 h each. In a single 1 h irradiation, lower but still acceptable doses to tumor are also feasible.

Conclusions: Treatment capabilities obtained here are comparable to those achieved with other accelerator-based neutron sources, making of the $^{13}\text{C}(\text{d},\text{n})^{14}\text{N}$ reaction a realistic option for producing therapeutic neutron beams through a low-energy particle accelerator.

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1. Introduction

1.1. Background

Boron Neutron Capture Therapy (BNCT) is a radiotherapy modality for the treatment of some types of locally invasive malignant tumors such as head and neck tumors and brain cancer, and other pathologies for which there are only palliative, low-effectiveness or mutilating treatments. The therapy consists in two steps. First and ideally, a highly tumor-selective drug containing ^{10}B is administered to the patient, which has a large capture cross-section for thermal neutrons. Then, the patient is irradiated with epithermal ($0.5 \text{ eV} < E < 10 \text{ keV}$) neutrons, which thermalize as they penetrate the tissues and are captured by ^{10}B predominantly present in tumor cells. Following the capture, high Linear Energy Transfer (LET) and short-range radiation (an alpha particle

and a ^7Li ion) is produced, which damages the targeted cells without harming the surrounding tissue significantly.

One of the challenges in BNCT research has been the implementation of a sufficiently intense neutron source capable of producing a clean epithermal spectrum. Epithermal columns implemented on existing reactor facilities have been used to successfully treat patients with glioblastoma multiforme, intracranial metastatic and subcutaneous melanoma, among others [1–6]. As an alternative to reactor facilities, accelerator-based (AB) neutron sources are under development at a number of institutions [7–15].

AB-neutron sources are in some aspects more advantageous than reactor-based ones. First, the neutron spectrum from certain nuclear reactions is much softer than the one coming from fission, which make it easier to generate the “ideal” epithermal spectrum, and hence to produce a neutron field of better therapeutic quality. Last but not least, because of their much lower cost and level of complexity, and mainly because they permit in-hospital siting.

Several neutron-producing reactions have been proposed for BNCT (Table 1). The $^7\text{Li}(\text{p},\text{n})^7\text{Be}$ reaction is the best option from the point of view of neutronics since it can provide an intense flux

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Table 1
Characteristics of some neutron-producing reactions for BNCT and their target materials.

Reaction	Bombarding Energy [MeV]	Residual Radio-activity	Fraction ^a En < 1 MeV at 0°	Neutron Yield [n/mC]	Target melting point [°C]	Target thermal conductivity [W/m-K]	Reference
⁷ Li(p,n) ⁷ Be ^b	2.3	Yes ^d	100%	5.8×10^{11}	181 °C	85	[17]
⁹ Be(p,n) ⁹ B ^b	4.0	No ^e	50%	1.0×10^{12}	1287 °C	201	[18]
⁹ Be(d,n) ¹⁰ B ^c	1.45	No	69%	1.6×10^{11}	1287 °C	201	[19]
¹³ C(d,n) ¹⁴ N ^b	1.45	No	70%	1.9×10^{11}	3550 °C	230	[20]

^a Percentage of yield at 0° for which the maximum neutron energy is less than 1 MeV.

^b Thick target.

^c 8 μm thick Be target.

^d Decay of ⁷Be: T_{1/2} = 53.22 d. E_γ = 477.60 keV. I_γ = 10.44%.

^e Very short lived ⁹B with no gamma production.

of low energy ($E_n < 1$ MeV) neutrons. However, ⁷Li is poorly suited as a high-power target, making its implementation for BNCT quite difficult (though not impossible). Moreover, the production of radioactive ⁷Be (T_{1/2} = 53 d) is a non-negligible complication to deal with in a hospital environment. In this context, neutron-producing reactions based on ⁹Be or ¹³C come up as an alternative. Both carbon and beryllium have far better thermal and chemical properties than metallic Li, and also, none of the involved nuclear reactions produce residual radioactivity. In the case of ⁹Be(d,n)¹⁰B and ¹³C(d,n)¹⁴N reactions, there is an additional advantage over ⁹Be(p,n)⁹B. Being endothermic (Q = -1.85 MeV), this reaction needs nearly 4 MeV proton energy to provide a sufficiently intense neutron yield. Exothermic ⁹Be(d,n)¹⁰B and ¹³C(d,n)¹⁴N (Q = 4.33 MeV and 5.33 MeV respectively) can be utilized at about 1.45 MeV, implying the smallest possible accelerator [16].

For BNCT purposes, all reactions listed in Table 1 require proton/deuteron beams of a few ten mA's in order to produce an intense enough neutron beam. In particular, deuteron induced reactions on ⁹Be and ¹³C need at least a 30 mA beam current. In this context a low-energy high-current accelerator is under construction at the Argentine National Atomic Energy Commission to work in conjunction with both targets. The accelerator is a 1.45 MV electro-static quadrupole (ESQ) machine capable of producing 30 mA beams of protons and deuterons of 1.45 MeV [13–14,16].

In this work we present a Monte-Carlo simulation study aimed at optimizing the treatment capabilities for BNCT of the neutron beam produced through the above mentioned accelerator and the ¹³C(d,n)¹⁴N reaction. To epithermalize the primary neutron beam, a Beam Shaping Assembly (BSA) based on an Al + PTFE moderator was simulated with the MCNP code [21]. A Snyder head phantom was placed at the beam port, in order to simulate depth dose profiles in tumor and normal tissues. The optimization study we present here consists in determining the moderator size that maximizes (1) the dose deliverable to tumor and (2) the penetration depth in the phantom, under the constraints imposed by the tolerance doses to normal tissues.

The objective of this work is to evaluate the quality of the above mentioned neutron beam in terms of dose deliverable to tumor and healthy tissues. These quantities depend on the characteristics of the neutron beam under free condition. Direct quantities such as the total neutron flux, neutron energy spectrum, gamma ray contamination, directionality of the neutron beam and others, are the so called “free beam parameters” and establish another valid criterion for evaluating whether a neutron beam would be useful for BNCT or not [22]. This criterion is much more restrictive than the one based on doses, since the established values are, in some cases, much more conservative than needed for a useful neutron beam. For this reason, this work is focused on optimizing doses and treatment times, which are the quantities that actually impose a real limitation to a treatment, more than any of the free beam parameters.

1.2. The ¹³C(d,n)¹⁴N reaction

Due to the above mentioned advantages of carbon as a target material, the ¹³C(d,n)¹⁴N is certainly one of the most interesting reactions to produce neutrons through a high current deuteron beam. The lack of residual radioactivity (the residue ¹⁴N is stable) makes it possible to avoid any complication related to radioactive waste management of an activated target and/or the implementation of radioisotope traps. Moreover, the low-bombarding energy required (1.45 MeV) allows the utilization of a smaller (and hence, a less complex and cheaper) accelerator.

Because of the large Q-value (Q = 5.33 MeV) the residue ¹⁴N can be left – even at low-deuteron energies – in several excited states. For deuterons of 1.45 MeV, the ground and the first eight states are energetically accessible, being the highest at about 6.45 MeV. The neutron spectrum, therefore, has a number of peaks – each of them associated to each of the accessible excited states – going up to about ~6.7 MeV where the neutron peak corresponding to the ground state is located. The relative intensity of each peak is difficult to estimate, unless the partial cross sections associated to each excited state are known for all deuteron energies up to 1.45 MeV.

Colonna et al. measured the neutron spectrum for different emission angles for deuterons of 1.5 MeV [20]. At 0°, 70% of the neutrons are emitted with energies below 1 MeV. These neutrons are mostly associated with the fifth and sixth levels in the ¹⁴N residue (at 5.69 and 5.83 MeV). Higher energy peaks from ground to fourth excited states were also observed, coming from the third (4.91 MeV) and the first (2.31 MeV) excited levels mostly. The overall fraction of neutrons with energies higher than 1 MeV is 30%. Most of those neutrons are concentrated in a peak of energy slightly larger than 1 MeV and only 6% of the neutrons emitted with energy greater than 2 MeV. The strong contribution of neutrons below 1 MeV decreases with the emission angle, while an important part of the highest energy neutrons still survives at all angles.

The fact that most of the neutron spectrum at 0° is concentrated below 1 MeV makes this reaction very attractive for BNCT. These neutrons are relatively easy to epithermalize with a moderation process. The presence of higher energy neutrons at large angles could lead in principle to a high fast neutron contamination (something undesired for BNCT) but through a proper beam shaping it does not necessarily result in a worse beam quality, and actually could be advantageous to increase the penetration depth and the total neutron flux at the beam port.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Beam Shaping Assembly (BSA)

In order to epithermalize the primary neutron spectrum, a Beam Shaping Assembly (BSA) was designed. The BSA is composed

by four nested volumes: the moderator, the neutron reflector, the fast-neutron shield and, gamma shield (Fig. 1). The moderator is a square cross-section volume with a conical-shaped port formed by alternating layers of Al and PTFE of 70 and 125 mm respectively. Within the moderator and after the target, a lead block of 5 cm was added, in order to attenuate gamma rays coming from the de-excitation of the residual nucleus ^{14}N .

The neutron reflector, that delimits the moderator, is made of 15 cm-thick lead walls. Apart from delimiting the beam in the lateral directions, the reflector also acts as a gamma shield for photons produced by neutrons in the BSA materials during the moderation process. In particular, neutron capture in Al, where a prompt gamma ray of 7.72 MeV and a delayed one of 1.78 MeV are produced, is a non-negligible source of undesired gamma radiation.

Surrounding the reflector, there is the fast neutron shield which is a 30 cm thick wall of boronated paraffin (33% paraffin and 67% boric acid H_3BO_3 by weight). In this material, epithermal and fast neutron leakages in the lateral directions are thermalized, and subsequently absorbed in ^{10}B mainly. As a result, gamma rays of 478 keV are emitted in 93% of the boron capture reactions. To attenuate these gamma rays and also those coming from $^1\text{H}(n,\gamma)$, there is the gamma shield, which is made of 15 cm lead walls.

2.2. BSA optimization

To determine the moderator size, depth dose profiles along a Snyder head phantom were simulated with MCNP [21] for a wide range of BSA cross-sections and lengths. Cross-sections from 20×20 to $100 \times 100 \text{ cm}^2$ and lengths from 40 to 100 cm were considered. From these profiles, the following quantities were evaluated:

- Treatment time
- Minimum and peak dose delivered to tumor tissues
- Peak dose delivered to healthy tissues (scalp and normal brain)
- Treatable depth, i.e., the maximum depth along the beam line where the radiobiological weighted dose to tumor tissue is higher than 30 Gy-Eq. This value is based on Laramore's model for the minimum dose capable of controlling a malignant glioma [23]

The optimal moderator size was finally determined by the cross-section and length that maximized the minimum and the peak dose to tumor and also the treatable depth.

2.3. Dose and treatment time calculation

The Snyder phantom [24] was sagittally positioned at the beam port. All tissue compositions were taken from ICRU 46 report [25]. We assumed a boron concentration of 15 and 52.5 ppm in normal and tumor brain respectively; and of 22.5 ppm for scalp [26,27]. For skull a conservative value of 15 ppm was assumed [28].

A number of 0.5 cm diameter spheres along the phantom axis (also aligned with the beam) were considered as measurement cells in our simulations (Fig. 1). For the scalp, which has a smaller thickness, a 0.2 cm diameter cell was used.

We shall use hereafter the term “dose” (in Gy-Eq units) to refer to the radiobiological weighted sum given by:

$$D = w_B D_B + w_T D_T + w_F D_F + w_\gamma D_\gamma \quad (1)$$

where D_B , D_T , D_F , D_γ are the four contributions usually considered in BNCT, namely the “boron”, “thermal”, “fast” and “gamma” absorbed doses respectively [29]. The weighting factors w_i for thermal, gamma and fast doses are the so called Relative Biological Effectiveness' (RBE's). For boron dose the weighting factor is instead called the Compound Biological Effectiveness (CBE) since it not only depends on the radio-sensitivity of the tissue but also on the boron compound and its microdistribution. The RBE's and CBE's factors for the considered biological tissues [26,30] are listed in Table 2.

Depth dose profiles were obtained by simulation of the average neutron and photon fluences (F4 tally) along the Snyder phantom's axis. Through the photon/neutron energy dependent fluence-to-absorbed dose conversion coefficients [31] (implemented with DE and DF cards), each of the D_B , D_T , D_F , D_γ doses were obtained for each measurement cell. Particle weights (WGT cards) were set as the total neutron production (in neutrons/h), in order to obtain the MCNP tally results in Gy/h units. From this, the radiobiological weighted dose rate sum was calculated for each cell, and the treatment time was determined as the maximum time the irradiation could last without exceeding the tolerance limits accepted for healthy brain and scalp. For healthy brain, a peak dose of 11.0 Gy-Eq was adopted [32]. Regarding the scalp, a peak dose of 16.7 Gy-Eq was considered [33]. This value is lower than the usual skin tolerance limit adopted in clinical trials [6], which can go up to 24 Gy-Eq. This choice relies on the fact that the skin tolerance dose decreases as the beam size increases [34]. Due to the shape of the beam port in Fig. 1, a larger skin area would be directly exposed to

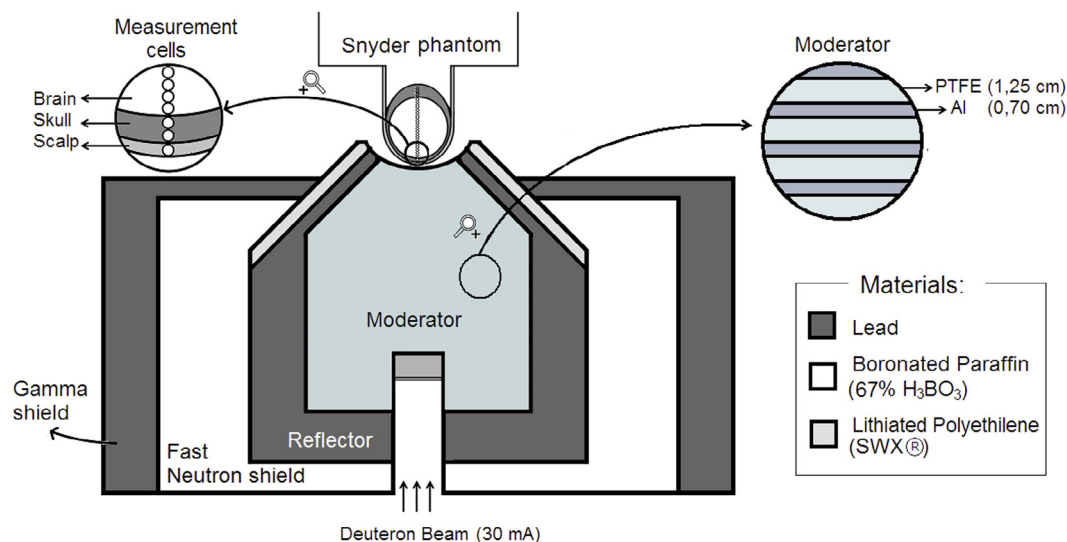


Figure 1. Beam Shaping Assembly design with the Snyder head phantom considered for computational dosimetry.

Table 2

Weighting factors considered for the relevant tissues [26,30].

Weighting Factor	Scalp	Skull	Normal Brain	Tumor
w_B	2.5	1.3	1.3	3.8
w_T	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.2
w_F	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.2
w_γ	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0

the neutron beam, compared to a flat port of the same diameter. For this reason, a more restrictive tolerance limit was adopted in this work.

2.4. Dose distribution and homogeneity

Tumor dose homogeneity achievable with the optimal BSA was studied. For this purpose, dose volume histograms (DVHs) were calculated for a set of hypothetical brain tumor cases. A tumor of 15.5 cm^3 (i.e., diameter of $\sim 3 \text{ cm}$) was simulated, and the center of the tumor was located at different positions on and off the phantom axis for each case. Two depths were considered: 3.0 cm and 4.5 cm. The first depth corresponds to the point where the thermal neutron flux (and hence, the boron dose) is maximum. The second one corresponds to a deeper position, for which the point of maximum dose falls outside of the tumor volume. For both depths, the tumor was located 1–4 cm off axis.

To calculate DVHs, the whole brain in the Snyder phantom was divided into 13,377 voxels of $0.5 \times 0.5 \times 0.5 \text{ cm}^3$ each. For each voxel the dose was calculated as described in Section 2.3.

2.5. Free beam parameters

IAEA's beam quality parameters under free conditions [22], namely thermal-to-epithermal neutron flux ratio, fast dose per epithermal neutron (or "fast component") and gamma dose per epithermal neutron (or "gamma component"), were simulated for the optimized BSA. A 2 cm sphere was placed at the beam port axis, where thermal, epithermal, fast neutron, and also photon fluences were simulated. Through fluence-to-dose conversion coefficients, absorbed doses in water were obtained for fast neutrons and gamma rays. Fast and gamma components were calculated then as the ratio between the corresponding dose and the epithermal flux.

3. Results

3.1. BSA optimization

Both the peak and the minimum tumor doses, as well as the treatable depth are maximized when the moderator length is from 65 to 70 cm and the cross-section is from $35 \times 35 \text{ cm}^2$ to $45 \times 45 \text{ cm}^2$. For this set of configurations, the peak tumor dose ranges from 55 to 57 Gy-Eq and the treatable depths are from 5.8 to 6.3 cm. For a tumor of 15.5 cm^3 on the beam axis the minimum tumor dose ranges from 45 to 49 Gy-Eq. Treatment times are from 2 h to 2 h and 20 min.

3.2. Dose performance for the optimized configuration

Fig. 2 shows the depth dose profiles for healthy and tumor tissue obtained for a $65 \times 45 \times 45 \text{ cm}^3$ moderator. The first two points in the healthy tissue dose profile correspond to the measurement points at scalp and skull respectively. For this BSA configuration, the minimum tumor dose is higher than 45 Gy-Eq for a tumor of about 15.5 cm^3 on the beam axis. This value is quite higher than the minimum dose capable of controlling a malignant glioma established by Laramore. The tumor peak dose and treatable depth are 57 Gy-Eq and 6.2 cm respectively. The peak and mean doses for

normal brain are 11.0 Gy-Eq and 4.5 Gy-Eq respectively. For scalp, the peak dose is 14.8 Gy-Eq. The treatment time resulted in 2 h.

Fig. 3 shows depth profiles of dose rate for healthy tissues obtained for each dose contribution. In healthy brain, the boron dose (due to non-specific boron uptake) is the main contribution up to about 5 cm in depth. For scalp (first point in the profile) the boron dose is quite higher than for skull (second point) and also for healthy brain because of the higher boron uptake in this tissue (22.5 ppm for scalp against 15 ppm for skull and brain). Gamma dose, which is the second largest, is mainly due to radiative capture on hydrogen present in biological tissues but also includes all gamma rays produced in the BSA during the moderation process. The hump and valley at the second point for the thermal and fast dose profiles respectively are due to the different composition of the biological tissues. Thermal dose mainly comes from neutron capture on ^{14}N . The mass percentage of this isotope in bone is nearly 50% higher than for healthy brain, and therefore the small hump is observed. Fast dose is mainly due to neutron scattering on ^1H . The valley at the second point in the fast dose profile is due to the relatively low concentration of ^1H in bone (nearly half the one for scalp and brain).

Concerning dose to scalp, the dominant contribution is the boron dose followed by gamma and fast dose.

3.3. Dose distribution and homogeneity

Table 3 shows the minimum, mean and peak doses delivered to the tumor for each of the cases considered. The minimum and the mean dose to normal brain are also included. DVHs for some representative cases are shown in Fig. 4.

The best performance in terms of dose homogeneity is for a tumor centered on the phantom axis (i.e., along the beam line) at 3 cm in depth, where the thermal neutron flux is maximum. As the center of the tumor is moved off-axis or deeper into the phantom, both the maximum and minimum dose decreases consistently with the reduction of thermal flux in those directions.

3.4. Free beam parameters

Fig. 5 shows the neutron spectrum at the beam port for a $65 \times 45 \times 45 \text{ cm}^3$ moderator under free beam condition.

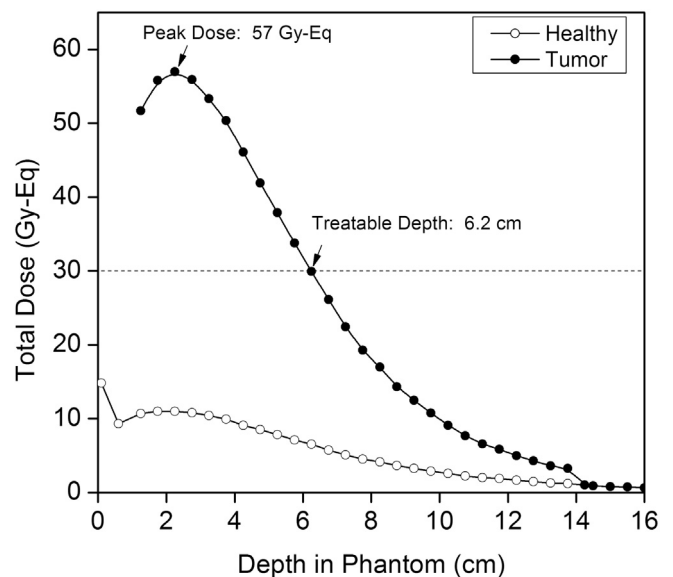


Figure 2. Total healthy tissue and tumor dose profiles for a $65 \times 45 \times 45 \text{ cm}^3$ moderator. The treatable depth and the peak tumor dose are indicated.

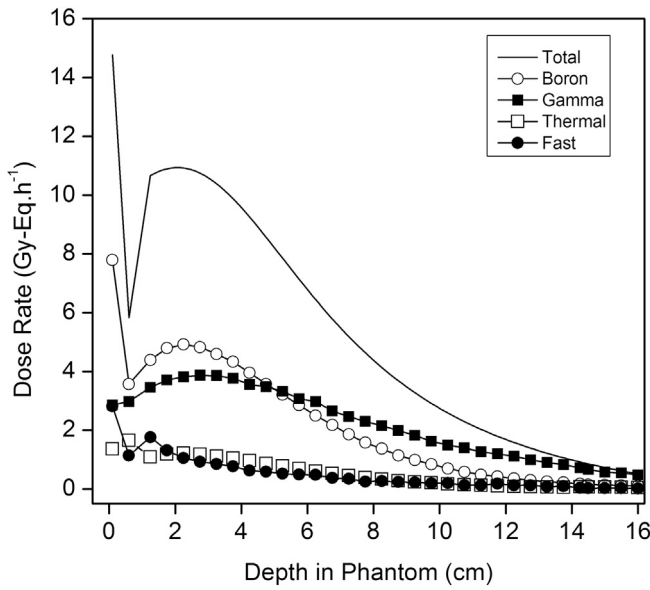


Figure 3. Depth profiles of dose rate components for a $65 \times 45 \times 45 \text{ cm}^3$ moderator.

To compare, the clinical neutron spectrum from reactor FiR1 in Finland [35,36] was also included. Both spectra were normalized to fit the same scale. Thermal and fast neutrons represent 16% and 7% of the total respectively, while epithermal neutrons are 77%.

IAEA’s free beam parameters obtained for the same configuration are listed in Table 4. Fast neutron and gamma components are 4.7×10^{-13} and $7.2 \times 10^{-13} \text{ Gy.cm}^2$ per epithermal neutron respectively, both within the accepted values (2.5 to $13 \times 10^{-13} \text{ Gy.cm}^2$ per epithermal neutron). The thermal-to-epithermal neutron flux ratio is 0.21, which is higher than the recommended value (0.05), but still low enough to not impose a limiting factor from dose to scalp. Regarding this, it should be stressed that the real limitations to a treatment come from the maximum tolerable doses in the different healthy tissues, which are not exceeded with the reaction discussed here. We will address this issue later in the Section 4.

4. Discussion

To assess dose performances obtained here, we shall consider the optimized ${}^7\text{Li}(p,n){}^7\text{Be}$ -based source reported in Ref. [37] (30 mA of 2.3 MeV protons on a ${}^7\text{Li}$ target). The primary spectrum from this neutron source is neutronically superior to the one from ${}^{13}\text{C}(d,n){}^{14}\text{N}$. First, because the primary spectrum is much softer,

Table 3
Minimum, mean and maximum tumor doses obtained for a $\sim 3 \text{ cm}$ diameter tumor centered at different points within the Snyder phantom. The minimum, mean and maximum doses to healthy brain are 1.2 Gy-Eq, 4.2 Gy-Eq, and 11.0 Gy-Eq respectively for all cases.

Depth	Case	Tumor Dose (Gy-Eq)			
		Min.	Mean	Max.	
3 cm	On axis	#0	45.4	50.1	54.3 ^a
	1 cm off-axis	#1	44.3	49.7	54.3
	2 cm off-axis	#2	40.6	48.2	54.1
	3 cm off-axis	#3	35.5	45.5	53.1
	4 cm off-axis	#4	30.1	41.9	50.6
4.5 cm	On axis	#5	39.1	45.7	54.2
	1 cm off-axis	#6	37.7	45.4	54.1
	2 cm off-axis	#7	37.0	44.7	53.1
	3 cm off-axis	#8	35.9	43.3	51.3
	4 cm off-axis	#9	32.9	40.9	49.1

^a This value is slightly lower than the one in Fig. 2 because the volume of the voxels are larger than the volume of the measurement cells considered for the dose profiles.

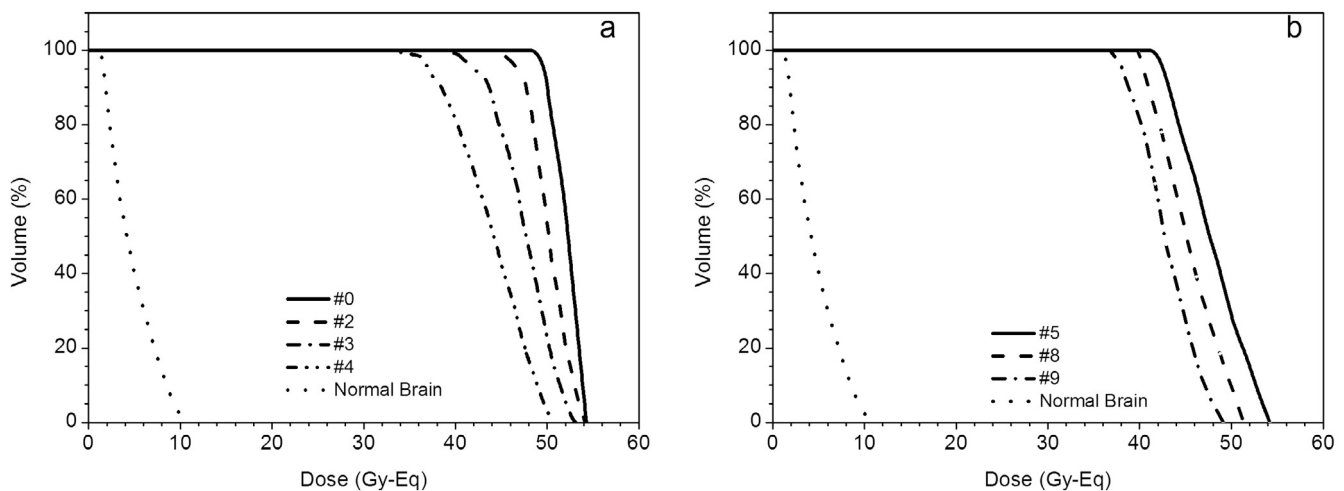


Figure 4. Dose Volume Histograms (DVH) for tumor and healthy brain. (a) A 15.5 cm^3 tumor centered at a depth of 3 cm: case #0 = on beam axis, case #2, #3 and #4 = 2, 3 and 4 cm off-axis respectively. (b) The same tumor centered at a depth of 4.5 cm: case #5 = on beam axis, case #8 and #9 = 3 and 4 cm off axis respectively.

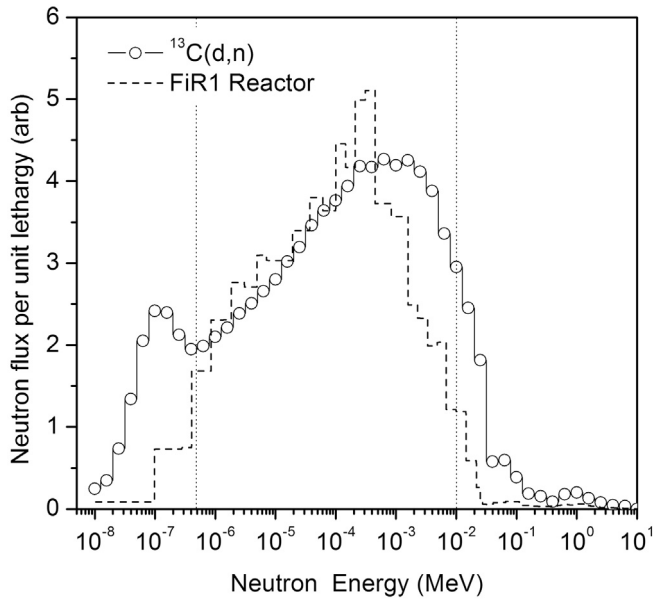


Figure 5. Free beam neutron spectrum at the beam port for a $65 \times 45 \times 45 \text{ cm}^3$ moderator. Reactor FiR1 clinical neutron spectrum [35] is shown in dashed line. The dotted vertical lines indicate the usual division into thermal ($<0.5 \text{ eV}$), epithermal ($0.5 \text{ eV}–10 \text{ keV}$) and fast ($>10 \text{ keV}$) energies.

with neutron energies $<600 \text{ keV}$; and second, because the neutron yield is significantly higher (5.8×10^{11} against 1.9×10^{11} neutrons/mC). Despite the neutronic advantages of the ${}^7\text{Li}(p,n)$ over ${}^{13}\text{C}(d,n)$, dose performances are comparable, as shown in Table 5.

In Ref. [37] the authors define the treatable depth as the maximum depth for which the Tumor Control Probability (TCP) for a tumor of 1 cm^3 is 98%. This TCP corresponds to a tumor dose of 38 Gy-Eq. To simplify the comparison we include in Table 5 the parameter “Depth $D_{98\%}$ ” which is the treatable depth as defined in Ref [37]. This is just another alternative to the definition given above in Section 2, using Laramore’s model.

The main difference between both neutron sources is in treatment time, being of only 1 h for the ${}^7\text{Li}$ case, consistently with

the fact that the neutron yield for this source is more than twice the one from ${}^{13}\text{C}(d,n){}^{14}\text{N}$.

For the ${}^{13}\text{C}(d,n)$ source, the treatment time resulted in 2 h, which is probably too long for a single scheme treatment. There is, though, no impediment to split the treatment into two sessions; it was actually practiced in clinical work [38] and it may be advantageous from a biological point of view [39]. Another approach is to increase the deuteron beam intensity, something which by no means is out of reach of present technology.

It is important to mention that limiting the treatment time to 1 h is possible by using a smaller moderator ($55 \times 45 \times 45 \text{ cm}^3$). In this case, peak doses to tumor, normal brain and scalp are 50 Gy-Eq, 11.0 Gy-Eq and 15.7 Gy-Eq respectively. Dose performances would no longer be optimized, but would still be acceptable.

Dose component analysis in 3.2 showed that the boron dose (due to non-specific uptake) is the largest one, both for scalp and healthy brain. This is consistent with the fact that a thermal contamination is present in the neutron spectrum at the beam port (Fig. 5). This thermal component can be reduced by adding a thin layer of lithium carbonate enriched in ${}^6\text{Li}$ at the beam port. Table 6 shows the results obtained for a 1 mm and a 2 mm layer added to the optimal configuration ($65 \times 45 \times 45 \text{ cm}^3$ moderator) respectively.

The thermal to epithermal flux ratio is significantly reduced. As a consequence, the dose to scalp is reduced in about 20% and the depth $D_{98\%}$ is slightly increased, reaching comparable values (or even better) than the ones for the Li target. Moreover, with a 2 mm layer, the thermal-to-epithermal neutron flux ratio becomes comparable to the one at FiR1 clinical beam. These results suggest that the beam quality can probably still be improved through further BSA optimization which is planned for future work.

Dose performance for a ${}^7\text{Li}(p,n)$ -based neutron source was reported by Herrera et al. [40], where treatment plans for a group of patients diagnosed with glioblastoma multiforme (GBM) were optimized. There too, a tumor dose lower limit of 30 Gy-Eq is adopted, based on Laramore’s model and on clinical results reported by Yamamoto et al. [41]. Concerning dose to healthy brain, a mean whole brain dose between 5 and 7 Gy-Eq was associated to 50% of somnolence in different clinical experiences [32,41,42].

Table 4

Free beam parameters for the optimal configuration ($65 \times 45 \times 45 \text{ cm}^3$ moderator). The corresponding values reported for reactor FiR1 clinical beam [35] are also included when available (in brackets).

Parameter	Value	Recommended Value [22]:
Fast neutron component:	D_F/ψ_E	$4.7 \times 10^{-13} \text{ Gy.cm}^2/\text{epithermal neutron}$ [1.4×10^{-13}]
Gamma ray component:	D_γ/ψ_E	$7.2 \times 10^{-13} \text{ Gy.cm}^2/\text{epithermal neutron}$
Thermal-to-Epithermal neutron flux ratio:	ϕ_T/ϕ_E	0.21 [0.06]

ψ_E = Epithermal neutron fluence.

ϕ_E = Epithermal neutron flux.

ϕ_T = Thermal neutron flux.

Table 5

Dose performance comparison between a ${}^{13}\text{C}(d,n){}^{14}\text{N}$ -based neutron source and a ${}^7\text{Li}(p,n){}^7\text{Be}$ -based one.

	Peak Dose [Gy-Eq]			Depth $D_{98\%}$ ^d	Treatment Time
	BT ^a	NB ^b	S ^c		
${}^{13}\text{C}(d,n){}^{14}\text{N}$ (1.45 MeV, 30 mA)	57.0	11.0	14.8	5.2 cm	2 h
${}^7\text{Li}(p,n){}^7\text{Be}$ (2.3 MeV, 30 mA) [37]	56.7	11.0	12.4	5.4 cm	1 h

^a BT: Brain tumor.

^b NB: Normal Brain.

^c S: Scalp.

^d $D_{98\%}$: Maximum depth along the beam axis for which the Tumor Control Probability (TCP) is higher than 98% for a tumor of 1 cm^3 .

Table 6
Free beam parameters and dose performances obtained for the optimal configuration ($65 \times 45 \times 45 \text{ cm}^3$ moderator) when a 1 mm and a 2 mm layer of Li_2CO_3 (95% ^6Li) is added at the beam port.

	1 mm	2 mm	Without Li_2CO_3
Thermal-to-epithelial neutron flux ratio:	0.11	0.07	0.20
Epithelial flux ^a : [$n_{\text{epi}}/\text{cm}^2\text{-s}$]	2.1×10^8	2.0×10^8	2.2×10^8
Peak Doses:			
[Gy-Eq]			
	Tumor		
	Scalp		
	Normal Brain		
Depth $D_{98\%}$ ^b	[cm]		
Treatment time			

^a Relative uncertainties are 0.1%.

^b Absolute uncertainties are 0.05 cm.

Results in 3.3 show that it is possible to deliver more than 30 Gy-Eq to a relatively large tumor (3 cm diameter) located either on or off axis. A whole brain mean dose lower than 5 Gy-Eq was obtained for all evaluated cases. These results suggest that dose performances comparable to those reported in clinical work may be obtained through proper beam optimization based on a treatment planning system.

5. Conclusions

The $^{13}\text{C}(d,n)^{14}\text{N}$ reaction was evaluated as an epithermal neutron source for Accelerator-Based Boron Neutron Capture Therapy. Through a 30 mA beam of deuterons of 1.45 MeV this reaction can produce a sufficiently intense neutron beam to deliver a significant dose to tumor tissue up to 6.2 cm in depth. A peak dose of 57 Gy-Eq is feasible in a fractionated scheme of two sessions of 1 h each, while keeping all the doses to healthy tissues below the tolerance limits. With the exception of treatment time, dose performances achieved here are comparable to those obtained through the optimal $^7\text{Li}(p,n)^7\text{Be}$ reaction, something which can be compensated by increasing the deuteron beam intensity.

Finally, it is important to emphasize the advantages that a $^{13}\text{C}(d,n)$ – based neutron source would imply. In addition to the suitable thermomechanical properties of ^{13}C as a target, this reaction does not produce residual radioactivity, which means a significant advantage for the aim of implementing BNCT in a hospital environment. Last but not least, the low deuteron energy required (1.45 MeV) compared to other neutron producing reactions, implies the smallest possible, and hence, less costly, accelerator for BNCT.

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