

Title Page

Shielding effectiveness of x-ray protective garment

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1 Shielding effectiveness of X-ray protective garment

2 Abstract

3 Purpose

4 Certification of the X-ray shielding garment is based on attenuation testing on flat material samples.
5 We investigated the difference of shielding effectiveness compared to realistic use when the garment
6 is worn on the body of a staff person.

7 Methods

8 Attenuation factors of X-ray protective aprons have been evaluated for several clinical scenarios with
9 Monte Carlo (MC) calculations based on the ICRP female reference model and an experimental setup.
10 The MC calculated attenuation factors refer to the effective dose E , whereas the measured attenuation
11 factors refer to the personal dose equivalent $Hp(10)$. The calculated/measured factors were compared
12 to the attenuation factors of the identical materials measured under the conditions of the standard IEC
13 61331-1 that is currently in use for the type testing of X-ray protective aprons.

14 Results

15 As a result, for example, at a common tube voltage of 80 kV, the real attenuation factors of a 0.35 mm
16 Pb apron worn by a 3-dimensional body were 38% to 76% higher than when measured under IEC
17 conditions on flat samples. The MC-calculated organ doses show the maximum contribution to E
18 being within the operator's abdomen/pelvis region.

19 Conclusions

20 With our findings, personal X-ray protective garments could be improved in effectiveness

21 Keywords: protective garment, attenuation factor, effective dose, organ doses

22 1. Introduction

23 The attenuation properties of X-ray protective aprons and other garments in practical use are rather
24 complex. In the past, physical investigations have focused on their material properties, particularly
25 lead-free and lead-composite protective clothing [1,2]. What remains to be investigated and put forth
26 is a quantification of the actual attenuation of shielding materials in a realistic environment during
27 clinical use. X-ray protective garments must be manufactured in accordance with the actual
28 international standard IEC 61331-3:2014 [3] wherein the standard lead equivalence values (LEVs) of
29 0.25 mm Pb, 0.35 mm Pb and 0.50 mm Pb have been stated. Type testing of the shielding properties
30 according to the European Personal Protective Equipment (PPE)-regulations [4] and other standards
31 [5] is conducted under beam geometries defined in IEC 61331-1:2014 [6]. Generally, the test
32 procedures demand a broad beam geometry with vertical incidence on a flat sample. In clinical
33 practice, however, scatter radiation originating from the patient impinges on the body of a protected
34 staff person at various angles, leading to longer path lengths for non-vertical incidence as illustrated in
35 Fig. 1. Moreover, the bodies of the staff persons are more equal to cylindric or ellipsoidal surfaces
36 than flat planes. Therefore, it can be assumed that a perpendicular incidence on the apron and the
37 staff's body occurs only in very small regions of the body surface, thus potentially increasing the
38 efficacy of the protective garment. A better understanding of the actual protection efficacy will allow
39 the optimisation of the disposal of protective material around the body.

40 >> Fig. 1

41 Recent literature provides only a few references concerning the effective shielding properties of X-ray
42 protective garment in clinical use. Hiroshige et al. [7] tested seven X-ray protective aprons specified as
43 0.25 mm, 0.35 mm and 0.50 mm LEVs in an experimental and practical field evaluation. Apart from
44 the predictions based on physical transmission measurements, the personal dose equivalent
45 measurements during the interventional procedures resulted in scanty shielding effects. Aprons
46 specified as 0.25 mm Pb and 0.35 mm Pb showed small differences in the protection level. An
47 explanation for this somewhat odd result has not been provided by the authors. Other publications

1 report a reduced shielding efficacy due to material lesions and an inadequate body-fit of the protective
2 aprons [8,9].

3 Saldarriaga Vargas et al. evaluated effective doses when wearing radioprotective garments [10]. Their
4 findings are based on a whole-body exposure of the reference phantom defined in ICRP publication
5 110, [11]. The phantom was covered with a 0.5 mm Pb apron and exposed to a unidirectional X-ray
6 field with discrete photon energies. Their results show the effect of inclined incidence on the effective
7 dose but the potentially higher shielding effect is obviously covered there through the impact of
8 unprotected parts of the body.

9 In the field of patient shielding during X-ray examinations, such as computed tomography (CT), new
10 methods for shielding single radiosensitive body parts, such as the breast, against primary and scatter
11 radiation were conducted [12].

12 Our current work focuses on the effect of realistic spatial incidence of X-ray scatter radiation on the
13 protective clothing worn by the radiological staff persons, especially investigators and operators
14 standing close to the patient. Attenuation factors and LEVs should be higher in practical use than those
15 measured under the conditions of the IEC standard with a perpendicular incidence to the test material.

16 To provide numerical results for the protection efficiency, two approaches were followed:

17 First, the attenuation factors of aprons with LEV 0.25 mm / 0.35 mm / 0.50 mm worn by an Alderson
18 Rando male phantom—representing the operator—were determined at tube voltages of 80 kV, 100 kV
19 and 120 kV, respectively. For this, *Hp(10)* dosimeters were arranged on the front of the phantom torso
20 to provide mean personal dose equivalents under the scatter radiation from a water phantom,
21 representing the patient. Measurements on the operator phantom were performed with various
22 distances from the scatter volume under frontal as well as under a 30° rotated orientation.

23 Second, the effect of inclined incidence on the effective dose *E* was calculated for an ICRP female
24 reference phantom utilising MC simulations for various additional conditions.

25 Finally, we asked for an optimised material disposition around the user's body for radiosensitive
26 organs and tissues.

27 **2. Materials and methods**

28 Nomenclature

29 **LEV** lead equivalence value, expressed in mm Pb

30 ***E*** effective dose

31 ***Hp(10)*** personal dose equivalent

32 **F_E** attenuation factor of the shielding material based on *E*

33 **$F_{Hp(10)}$** attenuation factor of the shielding material based on *Hp(10)*

34 **F_{IEC}** attenuation factor of the shielding material based on the IEC standard

35 **CA_{hor}** horizontal C-arm geometry: beam horizontal, patient standing

36 **CA_{vert}** vertical C-arm geometry: beam vertical, patient in a supine position on the table

37 **DAP** dose area product (Gy*cm²)

38 **DR** dosimeter reading

39 **MC** Monte Carlo calculation

40 **patient phantom** water phantom 25×25×15 cm³ (DIN 6815)

1 **operator phantom** Alderson Rando male phantom (measurements) and ICRP reference female
2 phantom (MC simulation) with orientations:

3 **frontal** operator directly facing the patient

4 **ROT30°** operator turned by 30° around his/her vertical axis to the right

5 α azimuthal-angle coordinate of photon on the shielding cylinder

6

7 z height coordinate of photon on the shielding cylinder

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9 ϕ azimuthal-angle direction of photon emerging from the shielding cylinder

10

11 θ polar-angle direction of photon emerging from the shielding cylinder

12

13 2.1 Laboratory measurements

14 2.1.1 Setup

15

16 Laboratory measurements were conducted on a stationary X-ray unit Titan E (GE), producing a
17 horizontal cone beam with its central beam height fixed 120 cm above the floor (corresponding to
18 CA_{hor}). To eliminate the adverse impact of leakage radiation from the tube housing, the X-ray
19 containment was shielded additionally with an 8 mm lead. The beam quality was defined through tube
20 voltage and an additional filtration of 2.5 mm Al. According to DIN 6815 [13], a water phantom with
21 a length of 25 cm, width of 15 cm and height of 25 cm was located with the entrance plane being 100
22 cm from the focus and the centre being 120 cm above floor (Fig. 2), thus representing the exposure
23 geometry during an X-ray examination of the trunk. The diameter of the circular field at the phantom
24 entrance plane was 20 cm. An Alderson Rando male phantom, representing the operator, was
25 positioned upright in a right angle to the centre beam facing the water phantom (phantom incidence
26 direction frontal). The centre of the torso was positioned at the level of the centre beam. Distances
27 between the water phantom and operator phantom were chosen as 30 cm and 60 cm, representing an
28 operator standing near the patient and an assistance person, respectively. To investigate a position
29 when the operator turns around his/her vertical axis, the operator phantom was additionally rotated by
30 30° (phantom incidence direction ROT30°) (Fig. 2). An overview of the investigated experimental
31 scenarios is provided in Table 1.

32 >>Fig 2

33

34 2.1.2 Dosimeters

35

36 The operator phantom was equipped with four calibrated $Hp(10)$ personal dosimeters EPD Truedose
37 (Thermo Fisher Scientific™) positioned at the sternum (A), in front of both lungs (B, D) and at the
38 centre of the abdomen (C) (Fig. 3). Each detector was orientated at its actual position tangentially to
39 the phantom surface. The mean value of the four dosimeter readings should provide a mean personal
40 dose **equivalent** $Hp(10)$ as an average over the phantom torso and also an estimate of the effective dose
41 [14]. During all test measurements, the dosimeters remained in their position on the skin surface in
42 order to also detect the backscatter of the body. This is an important criterion to measure the relevant
43 $Hp(10)$ doses [15].

44 >>Fig.3

45

1 2.1.3 Attenuation measurements

2 X-ray protective sheets of pure lead polymer material were taken from commercially available aprons
3 with nominal LEVs of 0.25 mm, 0.35 mm and 0.50 mm LEV and prepared to cover the phantom body.
4 Before each measurement, it was ensured that the shielding material was positioned flat on each of the
5 detectors.

6 First, attenuation ratios, LEVs and attenuation factors F_{IEC} of the shielding materials were evaluated
7 for flat samples according to the IEC standard at 80 kV /100 kV /120 kV tube voltage. Identical tube
8 voltages were applied for the measurements of the $Hp(10)$ doses at the operator phantom surface with
9 and without the shielding sheets. From this, the mean attenuation factors were calculated.

10

11 2.2 Monte Carlo Simulations

12 The particle transport in the water phantom (patient) and the ICRP reference female model (operator)
13 (ref. [11]) were simulated with a user code to the Monte Carlo transport code EGSnrc in version V4-2-
14 3-0 [16]. The technical simulation parameters of the code and the physics used agree with those of
15 [17]. For instance, photons (electrons) are followed until their energy drops below 2 keV (20 keV),
16 where the remaining kinetic energy is then deposited locally. For active bone marrow and endosteum,
17 dose coefficients are deduced by applying the so-called 3-factor formalism [18], where the dose
18 enhancement factors are taken from ICRP Publication 116 [19]. The soundness of the Monte Carlo
19 code in providing accurate dose values has been verified [20]. The X-ray spectra have been obtained
20 using SpekCalc [21] for all the cases of Table 1.

21 The simulation of the exposure scenario has been divided into three steps and is sketched in Fig. 4:

- 22 I. Irradiation of the patient and recording of all the emitted photons **traversing** the virtual plane
23 in a 20 cm distance.
- 24 II. Projecting the trajectories of the recorded photons on a cylindrical apron and reducing the
25 statistical particle weight proportional to the attenuation caused by the particle track length
26 through the apron.
- 27 III. Exposing the operator with the resulting field of attenuated scatter photons and computing
28 organ and effective doses [22].

29 In step I, the symmetry of the emitted scatter field is exploited by mapping photons emitted from the
30 left and bottom border of the water phantom to the right and top border, respectively. Since the virtual
31 scoring plane can be rotated, only one simulation is necessary to obtain both the CA_{hor} as well as the
32 CA_{vert} case. In step II, no Monte Carlo simulation is performed, i.e., scattering in the air and apron are
33 ignored. For patient-operator distances of 30 cm and 60 cm, the results of step II are the distribution
34 functions $\Phi(\alpha, z, \varphi, \vartheta, E)$ of photons emitted by the cylindrical apron, where α (azimuthal angle of the
35 shielding cylinder) and z (height coordinate of the shielding cylinder) define the position of the photon
36 in the cylinder coordinates, φ and ϑ are the azimuthal and the polar angles, respectively, of the particle
37 direction in the spherical reference system and E is the particle energy. The distribution functions Φ
38 are then used to sample the distribution of the photons impinging on the operator being oriented either
39 frontal or ROT30°. The effective dose is computed from the organ doses using the weighting factors
40 of ICRP Publication 103 [22].

41 The diameter and position of the cylindrical apron have been fitted to the model such that it closely
42 encircles the waist of the model. The apron extends from the bottom to the top of the model. Since the
43 arms are not inside the apron, they have been removed from the model. The setup for CA_{vert} , operator
44 irradiated frontal at a distance of 30 cm is depicted in Fig. 4. An overview of the MC-investigated
45 scenarios is shown in Table 1 and Fig. 5. Table 1 also contains the beam conditions of computed
46 tomography (CT). For the beam directions CA_{vert} and CA_{hor} , the centre of the phantom was positioned
47 at a height of 87.5 cm above the floor. Effective doses and attenuation factors were calculated without

1 and with in situ shieldings of 0.25 mm Pb / 0.35 mm Pb / 0.50 mm Pb. Further, the organ doses and
2 their contribution to the effective dose E were calculated for the tube voltage of 100 kV both with and
3 without 0.25 mm Pb shielding. As a special scenario, an additional shielding of the lower body was
4 investigated.

5 >> **Fig.4**

6 >> **Table 1**

7 >> **Fig 5**

8

9 **3. Results**

10 3.1 IEC attenuation factors

11 The measured attenuation factors F_{IEC} , based on the IEC standard, of the shieldings applied to the
12 operator phantom are shown in Table 2. It has been proved that the factors comply with the nominal
13 LEVs.

14 3.2 Phantom measurements

15 Depending on the orientation of the operator phantom, the four dosimeters A–D showed different
16 readings. Especially in case of the ROT30° incidence—because of the different inclination of the
17 photon paths to the protective material and anisotropy of the $Hp(10)$ detectors—the readings differ
18 (Fig. 6). Hence, for calculating the attenuation factors, the **mean value** of the four readings with and
19 without shielding **was considered**.

20 >>**Fig.6**

21 Table 2 presents the attenuation factors $F_{Hp(10)}$ calculated **as mean value** from the four dosimeter
22 readings with and without shielding material for the different scenarios described in Table 1. The
23 $Hp(10)$ based attenuation factors are significantly greater than the corresponding IEC factors presented
24 in the same table. Hence the IEC rating underestimates the real attenuation in practical use.

25 3.3 Uncertainties of measurements

26 Uncertainties of the dose measurements were due to the dose reproducibility of the X-ray unit
27 (exposition uncertainty) and the reproducibility of the dosimeter readings (response uncertainty). The
28 standard deviation (SD) of the personal dosimeters readings was tested using repeated Cs137-Isotope
29 expositions and resulted in a value of 0.9% (note: the EPD Truedose dosimeter is specified for the
30 Gamma energy of 662 keV). For low doses in the range of 5 – 10 μ Sv, the dosimeter resolution of 0.1
31 μ Sv has also been considered (<2% resolution error). The SD of the X-ray expositions was 0.6%
32 (tested by repeated measurements using a precision dosimeter). The total SD of the attenuation factors
33 $F_{Hp(10)}$ was calculated by the error propagation law (2x exposition, 2x dosimeter response, 1x
34 resolution for signal <10 μ Sv), resulting in a value of 2.51%. The standard deviation of the IEC
35 attenuation factors F_{IEC} was determined with reference lead foils (99.9% purity) and accounts to 2.5%.
36 Hence, the SD of the ratio $F_{Hp(10)}/F_{IEC}$ results in 3.54 %. The determined SDs were not extra reported
37 or depicted with the presentation of the measured data.

38 >>**Table 2**

39

40 3.4 Monte Carlo simulations

1 The attenuation factors F_E for horizontal (CA_{hor}) and vertical (CA_{vert}) beam geometry were calculated
 2 for different orientations of the operator reference phantom (frontal / ROT30°) and three tube voltages
 3 80 kV / 100 kV / 120 kV. The results are reported in Table 2 together with the measured attenuation
 4 factors $F_{Hp(10)}$ and the IEC-factors.

5 Attenuation factors F_E were also evaluated for beam conditions used in the CT applications featuring
 6 higher filtrations, Table 2. It was found that the factors for a 60 cm **distance between operator phantom**
 7 **and water phantom**, are generally 5% – 10% lower than those for 30 cm.

8 The attenuation factors $F_{Hp(10)}$ and F_E were set in relation to the attenuation factors F_{IEC} , Table 3.
 9 The results disclose that the ratios F_E/F_{IEC} and $F_{Hp(10)}/F_{IEC}$, respectively, grow with an increasing LEV.

10 >>Table 3

11 Exemplified Fig. 7 shows the results for a 0.35 mm Pb apron and the common ROT30° modality
 12 depicted as a graph. The curves feature attenuation factors based on $Hp(10)$ and E , compared to the
 13 IEC attenuation factors F_{IEC} measured on flat samples.

14 >>Fig. 7

15 3.5 Calculation of organ doses

16 As can be seen in the visualisation of the skin doses behind 0.25 mm Pb of the mathematical reference
 17 phantom (Fig. 8), mainly the organs in the region pelvis/abdomen are affected from the scatter
 18 radiation originating from the patient. The dose maximum for all the investigated scenarios occurs in
 19 the region at the tabletop level. At this body region, most of the radiosensitive tissues (colon, stomach,
 20 urinary bladder, red bone marrow) are situated. Table 4 presents the contributions of the individual
 21 organ doses to the effective dose for an operator standing near the patient in the case of a 100 kV tube
 22 voltage, ROT30° incidence, being unprotected and protected with 0.25 mm lead protection.

23 >>Fig 8

24 >>Table 4

25 3.6 Additional shielding of the lower body

26 From Table 4 it can be seen that the major part of E originates from the lower body. If the operator
 27 wears a 0.25 mm Pb all-over apron and the lower body is shielded additionally with a 0.25 mm Pb
 28 from the pubis to the sternum, attenuation factors F_E rise by 32% to 50 % compared to the attenuation
 29 factors of an all-over apron of 0.35 mm Pb featuring an approximately identical weight (Table 5 and
 30 Fig. 9). Additionally, if the breast is shielded, from Table 4 it can be seen that around 80% of the
 31 effective dose arises within this body region.

32 >>Table 5

33

34 >>Fig. 9

35 4. Discussion

36 As a result of the phantom measurements and MC-simulations, it can be stated that the attenuation
 37 factors of lead aprons based on the effective dose E and the **personal dose equivalent $Hp(10)$** are
 38 significantly higher than that measured according to the IEC standard. For a typical scenario during
 39 interventions (80 kV/ ROT30°/0.35 mm Pb), the attenuation factors are 38% / 76% (CA_{vert}/CA_{hor})
 40 higher compared to the attenuation factors resulting from the IEC testing of flat samples. The
 41 enhancement is mainly due to the three-dimensional surface of the in-situ shielding causing longer

1 transmission paths through the shielding material. Hence, attenuation factors and LEVs become
2 effectively higher than that of the flat samples and a vertical incidence.

3 It can be stated that the attenuation factors resulting from the scenario ROT30° based on $H_p(10)$ and
4 the corresponding MC-calculated factors based on E (Fig. 7) are in good accordance. However, for the
5 frontal scenario, the MC-evaluated attenuation factors range between the IEC and the $H_p(10)$ based
6 factors. The differences to the ROT30° scenario might be explained through the anatomic formed
7 protective apron in the case of the Alderson phantom versus the cylindric shielding assumed for the
8 MC-calculations. The individual location of the organs relative to the incident field and their different
9 weighing factors may also explain the differences between F_E and $F_{H_p(10)}$

10 A real advantage of the shielding efficacy arises in the optimisation of material disposition with
11 respect to organs with high w_T -factors as bladder, stomach, colon, gonads. Patients are mostly found in
12 the supine position on the examination table, and thus, the source of scatter radiation is located directly
13 vis-à-vis of the critical organs of the examiner/operator. It seems self-evident to concentrate the
14 shielding material within this body region.

15 Following this approach, in the future, optimised shielding aprons providing equal protection with
16 respect to E could be lighter than aprons with uniformly disposed shielding material.

17

18

19 **5. Conclusions**

20 Our results underpin the thesis that the attenuation of protective garment worn on the body is higher
21 than that gained from the IEC compliant measurements on flat samples. Considering this factor, X-ray
22 protective aprons, especially if they are optimised with respect to radiosensitive organs and the
23 modalities of medical procedures, could be lighter than they are currently. In detail, a concentration of
24 material covering the lower part of the body from the gonads to the breast, connected with a reduction
25 of material on the remainder of the body could improve the protective efficacy and/or lower the
26 weight.

27

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Tables

Table 1 Overview on the different scenarios investigated with electronic dosimeter readings (DR) and Monte Carlo calculations (MC) employing an Alderson phantom and an ICRP female reference phantom, respectively, as operator phantom and a water phantom as patient phantom. Centre beam level was 87.5 cm for MC and 120 cm for DR.

Beam quality / mean energy	LEV of the applied shieldings (mm Pb)	Distance water phantom to operator phantom	Incidence rel. to the operator phantom	Beam direction (DR)	Dosimetry DR	Beam direction (MC)	Dosimetry MC
80 kV + 2.5 Al = 42.9 keV	0	30 cm	frontal	CA _{hor}	+	CA _{hor} /CA _{vert}	+
	0.25		ROT30°	CA _{hor}	+	CA _{hor} /CA _{vert}	+
	0.35	60 cm	frontal	CA _{hor}	+		o
	0.50		ROT30°		o		o
100 kV + 2.5 mm Al = 49.2 keV	0	30 cm	frontal	CA _{hor}	+	CA _{hor} /CA _{vert}	+
	0.25		ROT30°	CA _{hor}	+	CA _{hor} /CA _{vert}	+
	0.35	60 cm	frontal	CA _{hor}	+		o
	0.50		ROT30°		o		o
120 kV + 2.5 Al = 54.5 keV	0	30 cm	frontal	CA _{hor}	+	CA _{hor} /CA _{vert}	+
	0.25		ROT30°	CA _{hor}	+	CA _{hor} /CA _{vert}	+
	0.35	60 cm	frontal	CA _{hor}	+		o
	0.50		ROT30°		o		o
120 kV + 2.5 Al + 0.2 Cu = 63.5 keV	0	30 cm	frontal	Computed Tomography			+
	0.25		ROT30°				+
	0.35	60 cm	frontal				+
	0.50		ROT30°				+

Legend:

DR = Values from dosimeter reading

MC = Values from Monte Carlo simulations

o = Measurement/calculation not performed

+ = Measurement/calculation performed

Table 2 Attenuation factors $F_{Hp(10)}$ calculated from means of 4 $Hp(10)$ dosimeter readings (DR) and attenuation factors F_E from MC-calculations (MC) under various scenarios (kV, distance water phantom – Alderson phantom (DR) or ICRP reference phantom (MC), beam incidence direction to the Alderson phantom (DR) or ICRP reference phantom (MC)) for 0.25/0.35/0.50 mm Pb shieldings. Outmost right column: Measured attenuation factors F_{IEC} on flat samples acc. to IEC 61331-1:2014

Beam quality / mean energy	LEV mm Pb	Method (see legend)	30 cm		60 cm		F_{IEC}
			frontal	ROT30° - Attenuation factors -	frontal	ROT30°	
80 kV + 2.5 Al = 42.9 keV	0.25	DR	26.1	24.3	21.3	-	14.9
		MC	16.8 / 18.9	17.0 / 20.8	-	-	-
	0.35	DR	59.6	47.4	47.7	-	26.3
		MC	36.6 / 42.5	37.2 / 47.5	-	-	-
	0.50	DR	157.7	127.6	133.7	-	55
		MC	104.2 / 125.2	105.9 / 143.3	-	-	-
100 kV + 2.5 mm Al = 49.2 keV	0.25	DR	13.7	13.2	12.7	-	8.85
		MC	9.6 / 10.6	9.7 / 11.3	-	-	-
	0.35	DR	26.7	24.4	24	-	14.2
		MC	17.5 / 19.8	17.7 / 21.4	-	-	-
	0.50	DR	56.5	49.8	47.6	-	26.0
		MC	38.5 / 44.8	39.1 / 49.5	-	-	-
120 kV + 2.5 mm Al = 54.5 keV	0.25	DR	10.2	10.3	8.8	-	6.7
		MC	8.0 / 8.2	8.0 / 8.6	-	-	-
	0.35	DR	17.9	16.1	15.0	-	10.4
		MC	14.1 / 14.5	14.2 / 15.4	-	-	-
	0.50	DR	36.8	33.1	30.0	-	18.9
		MC	29.3 / 30.0	29.5 / 32.1	-	-	-
120 kV + 2.5Al +0.2Cu = 63.5 keV	0.25	MC	7.1 / 7.2	7.1 / 7.5	6.4 / 6.7	6.5 / 6.9	-
	0.35		12.2 / 12.5	12.5 / 13.1	10.9 / 11.4	11.1 / 11.9	-
	0.50		25.2 / 25.6	25.7 / 26.9	22.0 / 23.0	22.4 / 24.1	-
Legend: DR = Values from dosimeter readings (CA_{hor}) MC = Values from Monte Carlo simulations (CA_{vert} / CA_{hor})							

Table 3 Ratios of attenuation factors F_E/F_{IEC} , and $F_{Hp(10)}/F_{IE}$. Denotation: CA_{vert}/CA_{hor} , single values: CA_{hor}

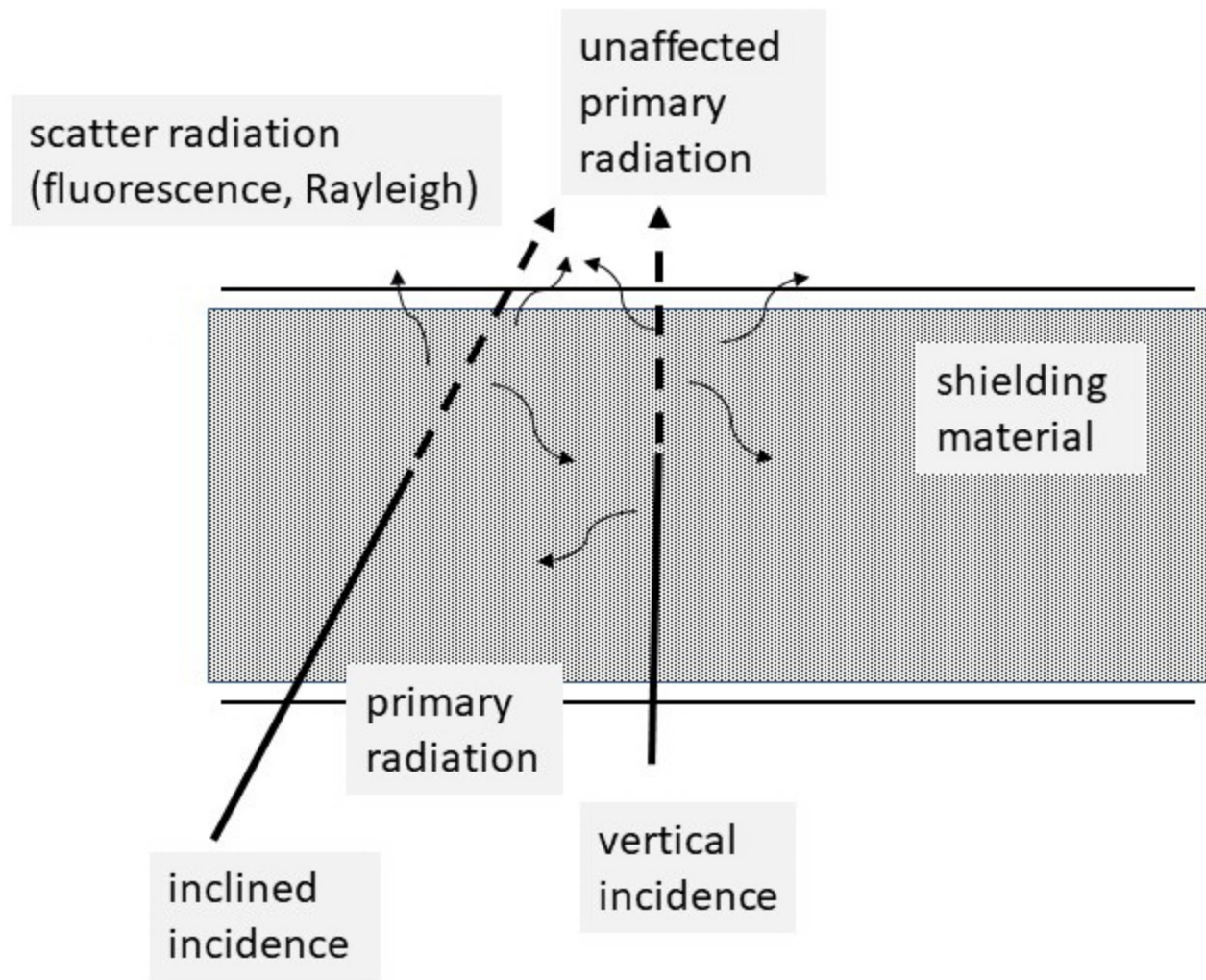
kV		0.25 mm Pb			0.35 mm Pb			0.50 mm Pb		
		frontal, 30 cm	frontal 60 cm	ROT30°, 30 cm	frontal, 30 cm	Frontal 60 cm	ROT30°, 30 cm	frontal, 30 cm	frontal 60 cm	ROT30°, 30 cm
80	DR	1.75	1.42	1.63	2.26	1.81	1.80	2.86	2.43	2.32
	MC	1.12/1.26		1.14/1.39	1.36/1.57		1.38/1.76	1.89/2.27		1.92/2.60
100	DR	1.54	1.43	1.49	1.88	1.69	1.71	2.17	1.83	1.91
	MC	1.08/1.20		1.10/1.27	1.23/1.39		1.25/1.51	1.48/1.72		1.50/1.90
120	DR	1.52	1.31	1.52	1.72	1.44	1.54	1.94	1.58	1.75
	MC	1.19/1.22		1.19/1.28	1.35/1.39		1.36/1.47	1.55/1.59		1.56/1.70

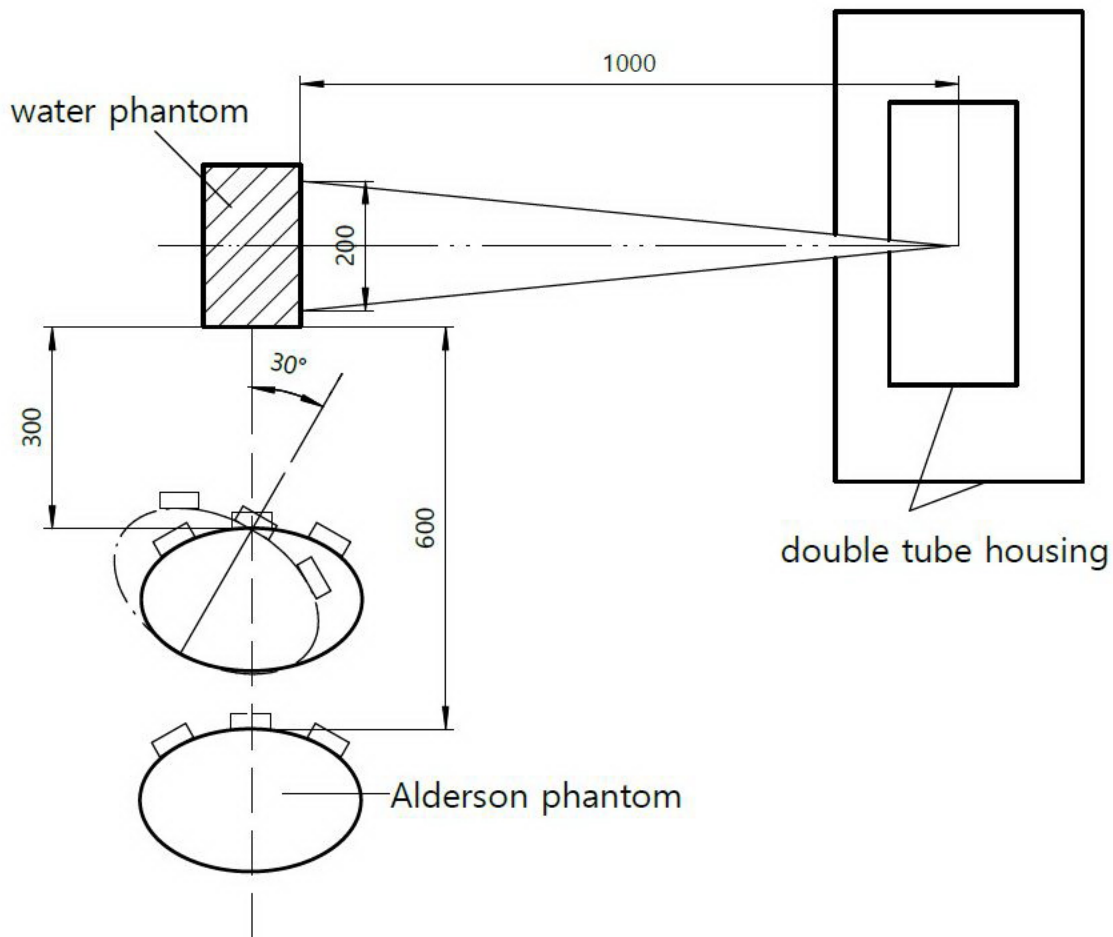
Table 4 Contribution of organ doses (%) to E referring to the modalities of Fig. 5 (operator ROT30°) with no protection and with 0,25 mm Pb shielding, respectively. The bold figures show the contributions of organs/tissues from the lower part of the body. (*) only parts of the organs/tissues are situated in the lower body. w_T organ weighting factors acc. to ICRP 103 [22]

	Operator ROT30°/100 kV	w_T	Contribution to effective dose E			
			no apron		0,25mm Pb	
			CA_{hor}	CA_{vert}	CA_{hor}	CA_{vert}
active bone marrow		0,12	6,0%*	5,9%*	7,7%*	7,2%*
colon wall		0,12	22,6%	19,7%	24,8%	21,4%
lungs		0,12	5,3%	6,0%	4,4%	5,7%
stomach wall		0,12	17,0%	19,0%	17,1%	19,8%
breast, total		0,12	13,6%	14,5%	7,4%	10,1%
remainder		0,12	9,1%*	9,9%*	9,8%*	10,2%*
gonads		0,08	6,8%	5,7%	10,5%	8,3%
urinary bladder wall		0,04	10,8%	9,0%	11,5%	8,8%
oesophagus		0,04	1,2%	1,4%	1,1%	1,5%
liver		0,04	2,6%	2,6%	2,3%	2,6%
thyroid		0,04	2,5%	2,7%	1,6%	2,1%
endosteum		0,01	0,6%	0,9%	0,8%	0,8%
brain		0,01	0,2%	0,2%	0,1%	0,2%
salivary glands		0,01	0,6%	0,8%	0,3%	0,5%
skin, total		0,01	1,2%	1,6%	0,8%	0,8%

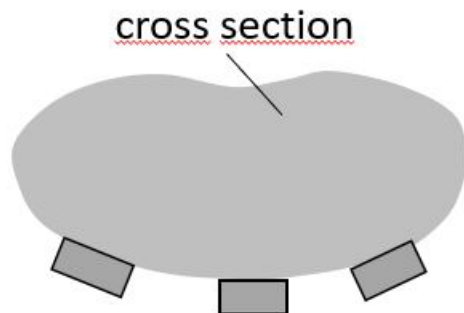
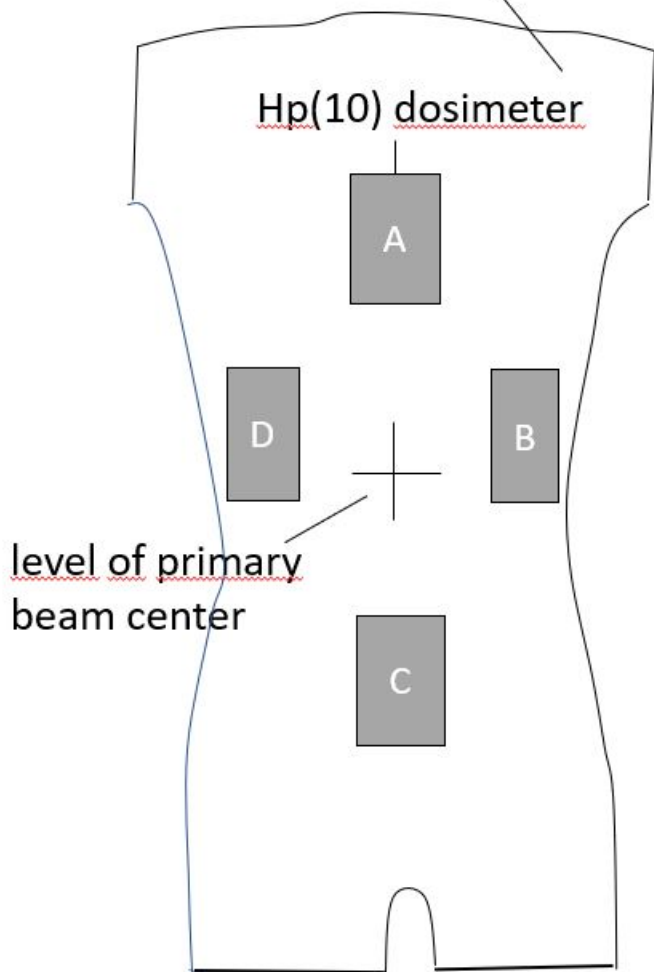
Table 5 Attenuation factor F_E a) for a 0,35 mm Pb overall apron and b) a 0,25 mm Pb overall apron plus 0,25 mm additional shield of the lower body (Fig 9). Orientation and distance of the operator phantom is indicated. Denotation beam direction: CA_{vert}/CA_{hor} .

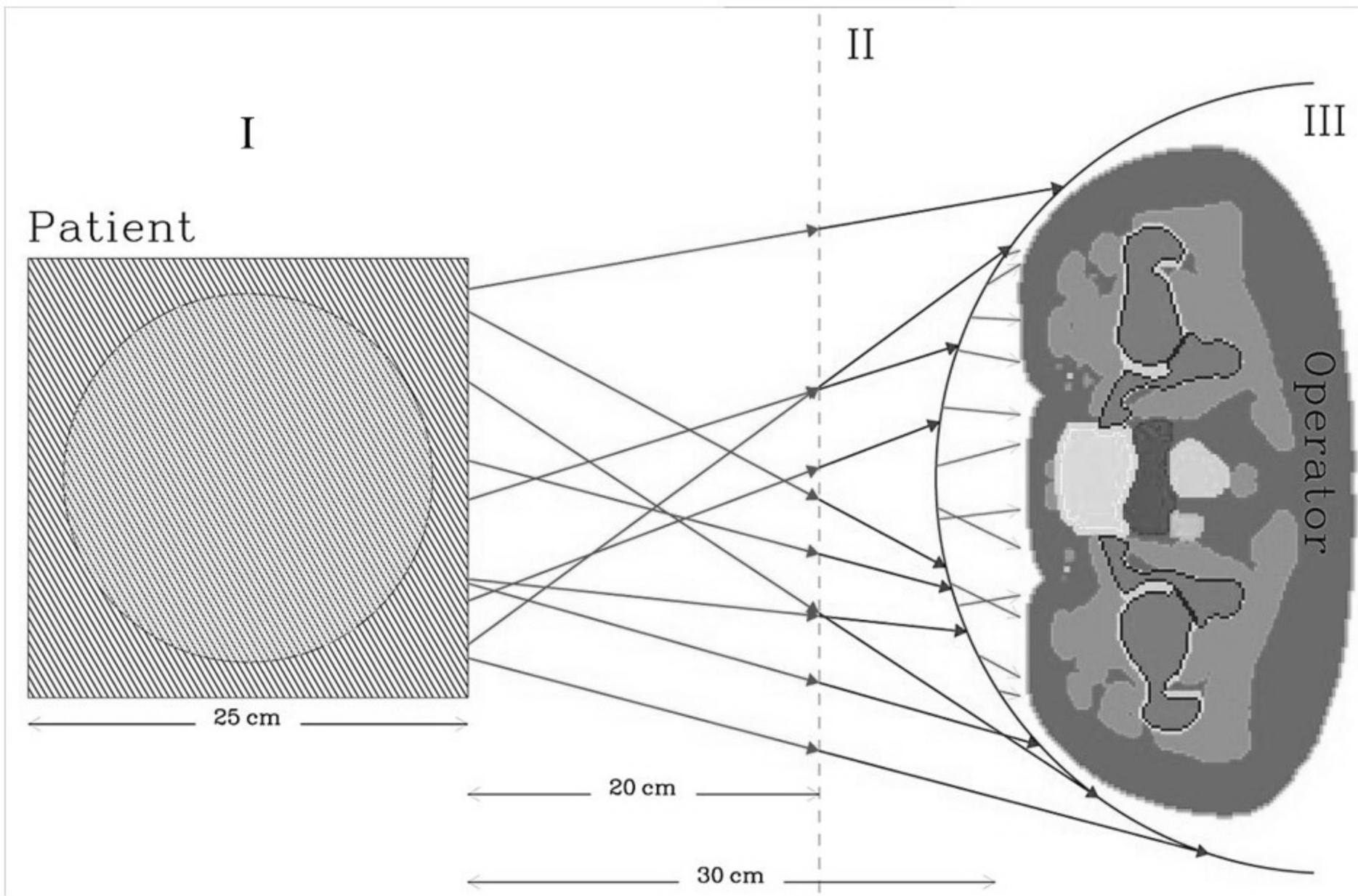
Tube voltage	a) 0.35 mm Pb		b) 0,25 + 0,25 mm Pb	
	frontal 30 cm	ROT30°, 30 cm	frontal 30 cm	ROT30°, 30 cm
F_E	17,5/19,8	17,7/21,4	23,2/29,4	23,9/32,2

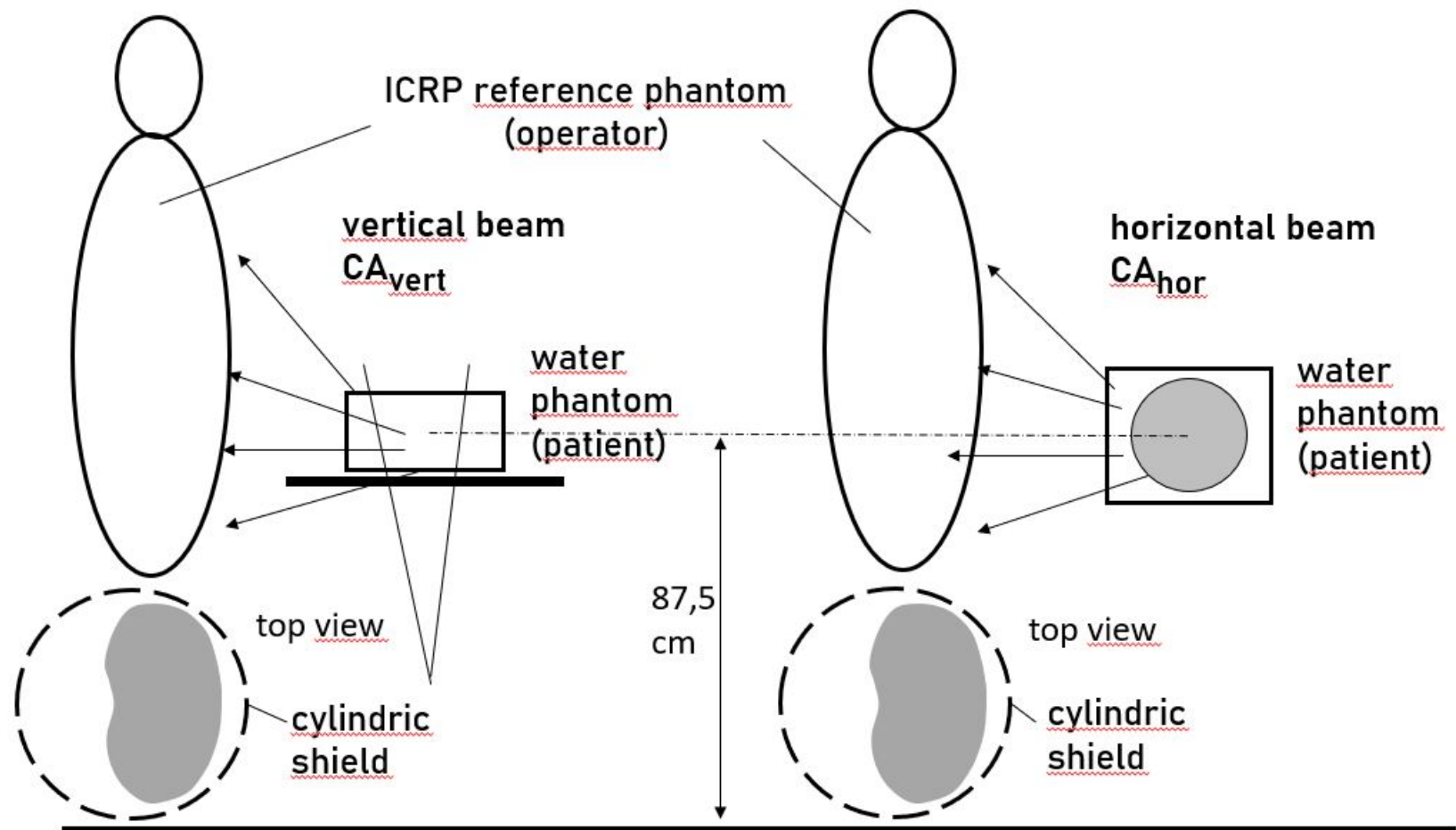


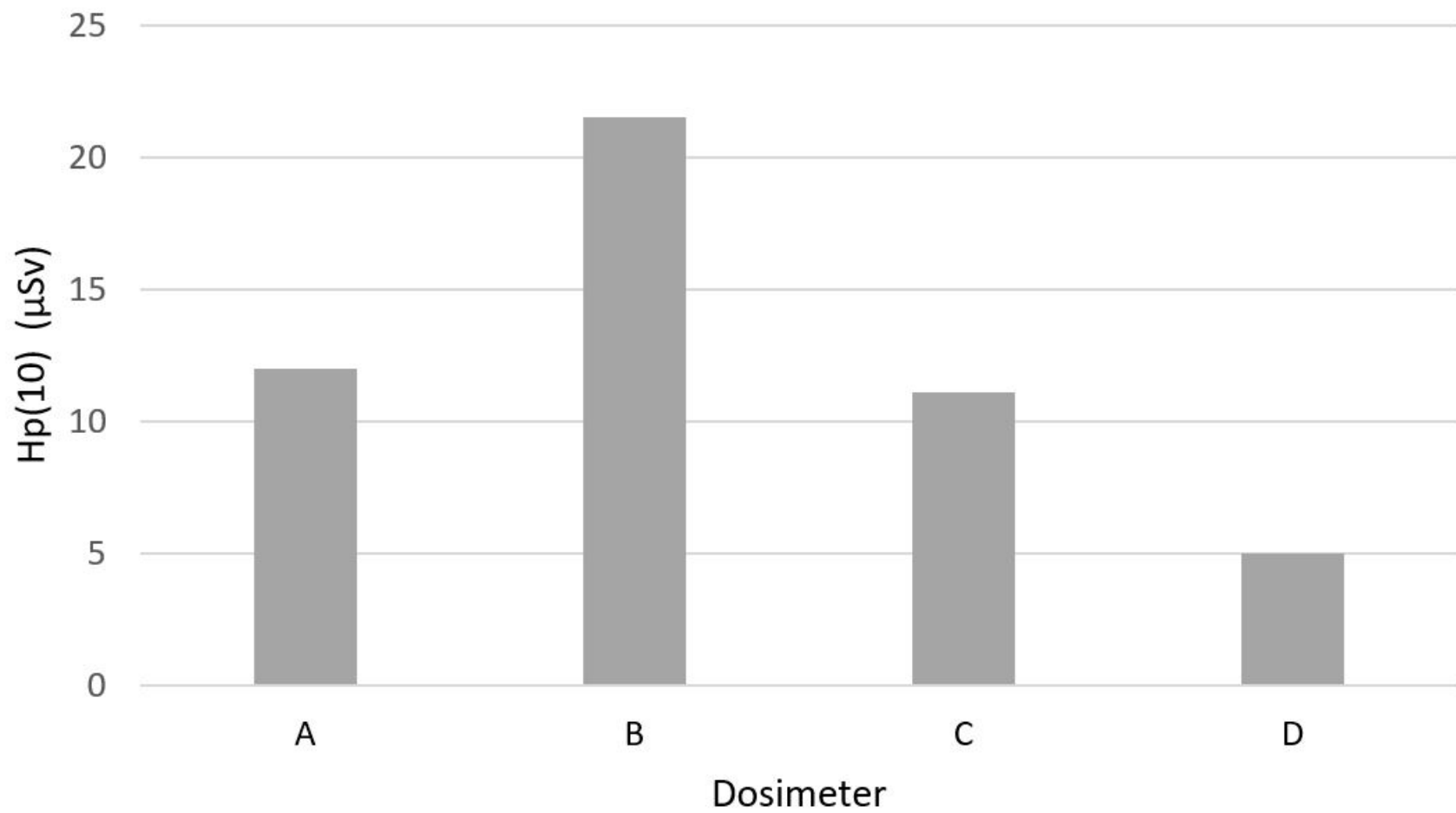


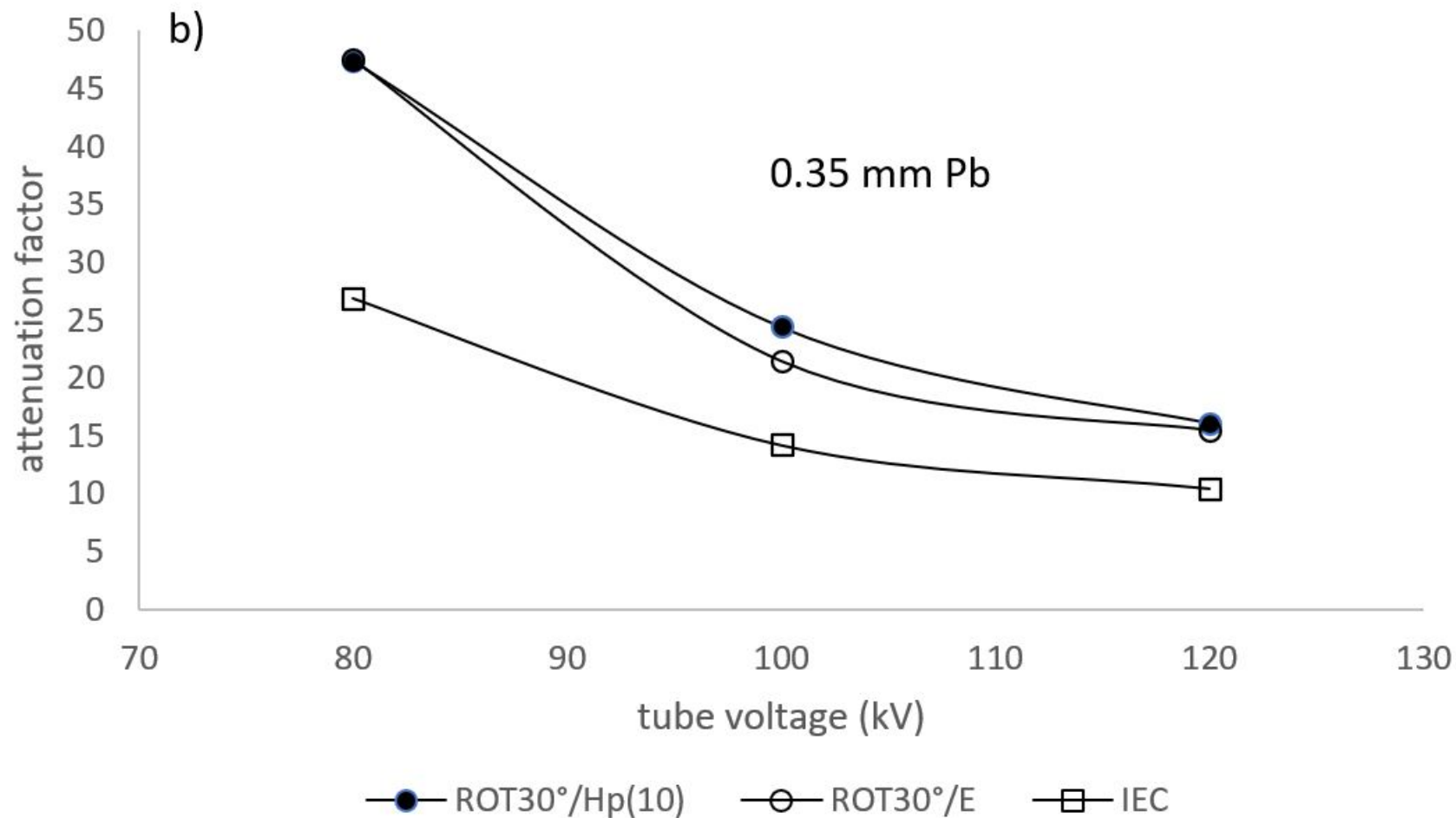
Alderson Rando phantom



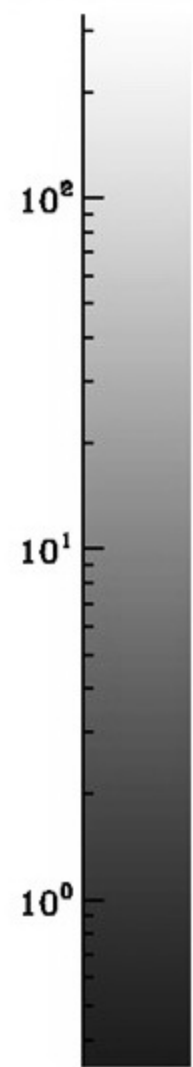








$\mu\text{Gy}/(\text{Gy cm}^2)$



CA_{hor}
frontal incidence



CA_{vert}
frontal incidence



CA_{hor}
ROT 30°



CA_{vert}
ROT 30°



CA_{hor}
ROT30°

CA_{vert}
ROT30°

$\mu\text{Gy}/(\text{Gy cm}^2)$

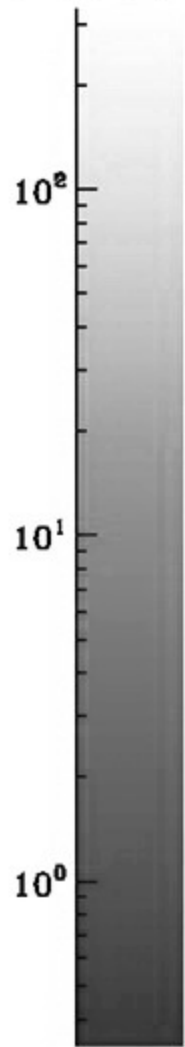


Fig. 1 Components of X-radiation traversing the shielding material. Vertical incidence occurs only in a selective direction.

Fig. 2 CA_{hor} setup for the measurement of $Hp(10)$ -based attenuation factors of X-ray shielding aprons. $Hp(10)$ doses were measured with 4 dosimeters at 3 distances/orientations of the Alderson phantom (operator phantom). Dimensions in mm.

Fig. 3 Arrangement of the 4 $Hp(10)$ dosimeters mounted on the front of the operator phantom torso

Fig. 4 Cross-section of the Monte Carlo simulation scenario at the central height of the water phantom (87.5cm) for the case of a supine patient being X-rayed (CA_{vert} geometry) and the operator being 30cm away directly facing the patient (frontal incidence). The exposure simulation of the operator is divided into three steps indicated by Roman numerals (see text for more details).

Fig. 5 CA_{hor} and CA_{vert} scenarios were investigated with MC-simulation (schematically). Effective dose E was calculated with and without the cylindrical shield to get the effective attenuation factors based on E .

Fig. 6 Dosimeter readings at 80 kV behind 0.25 mm Pb, operator orientation $ROT30^\circ$

Fig. 7 Comparison of the attenuation factors of a 0.35 mm Pb apron evaluated from a) MC-simulations based on E , b) phantom measurements based on $Hp(10)$ and c) IEC standard conditions. Beam geometry: CA_{hor} , operator orientation: $ROT30^\circ$.

Fig. 8 Visualisation of the skin doses for 100 kV tube voltage under different scenarios behind 0.25 mm Pb protection of a female operator standing 30 cm from the patient. Beam geometry and incidence direction are indicated. The scale bar represents the logarithm of the ratio skin dose operator/DAP patient ($\mu\text{Gy}/(\text{Gy}\cdot\text{cm}^2)$).

Fig. 9 Visualisation of the skin dose distribution of the female operator at 100 kV. Applied shielding: 0.25 mm Pb all over plus 0.25 mm Pb of the lower body. Beam geometry and operator incidence direction are indicated. Scale bar, see Fig.8.