




Detector technology

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Aim of this talk



You can know the name of a bird in all the languages of the world, but when you're finished, you'll know absolutely nothing whatever about the bird... So let's look at the bird and see what it's doing - that's what counts. I learned very early the difference between knowing the name of something and knowing something.

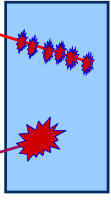
Richard Feynman, Nobel Prize Physicist, 1918 - 1988

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Principle of a radiation detector

A radiation detector converts the energy of ionizing particles into charge pulses

Alpha-particle
Proton
Electron



X-ray
Gamma-ray

Interaction => Ionization track

Free charge carriers

- gas-filled detectors
- semi-conductors

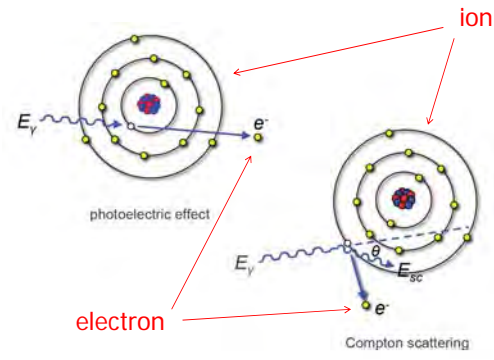
Conversion to luminescence

- Scintillator + photosensor

=> electric signal

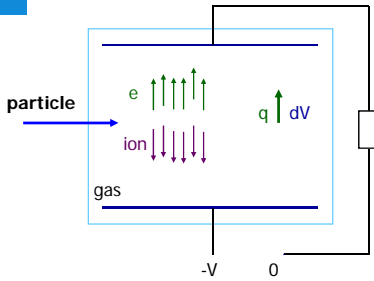
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Interactions of gamma photons (gas)



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Ionization chamber: gas



charge transport

↓

signal formation

$dq = qdV/V$

$i = dq/dt$

Example:

- free-air dose meter

particle

gas

e^-

ion


$q \uparrow dV$

$-V$ 0

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Gas-filled detectors: examples

Geiger-Muller detector (saturation detection)



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Interaction of gamma's (semiconductor)

photoelectric effect

Compton scattering

hole

electron

E_γ

e^-

E_{sc}

θ

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Semiconductor detector

charge transport

↓

signal formation

$$dq = (q_e dV_1 + q_h dV_2) / V$$

$$i = dq/dt$$

Examples:

- silicon diode
- germanium detector

reverse bias, fully depleted

n+ contact

particle

p-n junction

e^-

h^+

$q_e dV_1$

$q_h dV_2$

-V 0

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Semiconductor detectors e.g. in digital radiography

X-Ray

Direct Conversion

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Principle of a scintillation detector

Alpha-particle
Proton
Electron

X-ray
Gamma-ray

Scintillation photons

electric signal

scintillator photosensor

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Components of a scintillation detector

Scintillators	Light sensor
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> inorganic crystals organic plastics glass liquid gas 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> human eye photomultiplier tubes photodiodes avalanche photodiodes silicon photomultipliers CCDs gas-filled detectors etc ...

good for efficient gamma detection

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Inorganic scintillation crystals

CsI (TI)

NaI (TI)

BGO

CdWO₄

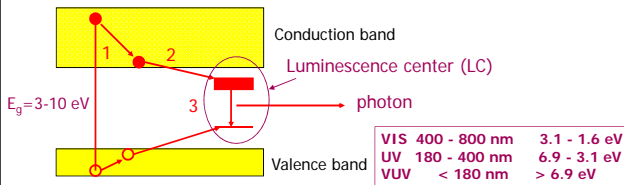
Various, under UV excitation

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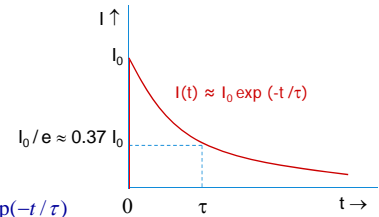
The scintillation process

Three phases:

1. The interaction phase + thermalization phase (ps)
2. The charge carrier and energy migration phase (ns-ms)
3. The luminescence phase (ns-μs)



Scintillation pulse shape (simple case)



$$\text{Intensity } I(t) = I_0 \exp(-t/\tau)$$

$$\text{with } I_0 \text{ given by } \int_0^\infty I(t) dt = E_\gamma Y$$

where E_γ is the absorbed gamma energy (in MeV) and Y the scintillator light yield (in photons/MeV)

Important scintillator parameters

- high light output Y (photons/MeV)
- fast scintillation speed τ (ns)
- good energy resolution R_{FWHM} (%)
- high density for γ detection ρ (g/cm³)
- large size of crystal 10-100-1000 cm³
- low cost per cm³
- low afterglow (low phosphorescence)
- low background count rate (low intrinsic activity)
 - absence of radioactive isotopes

Relative importance depends on application

Properties of some inorganic scintillators

scintillator	mass density	index of refraction	decay constant	emission (nm)	ph/MeV
NaI (at 30 K)	3.67	1.75	60	303	76000
NaI(Tl)	3.67	1.75	230	415	38000
CsI(Tl)	4.51	1.75	3340	540	65000
BaF ₂	4.89	1.5	630	310	9500
(valence e ⁻ to core)			0.6	220	1400
Bi ₄ Ge ₃ O ₁₂ (BGO)	7.13	2.15	300	480	8200
PbWO ₄	8.28	2.20	10	470	100
Lu ₂ SiO ₅ :Ce (LSO)	7.4	1.8	47	420	25000
YAlO ₃ :Ce (YAP)	5.37	1.95	27	370	18000
LaCl ₃ :Ce	3.7	1.8	35	350	50000
LaBr ₃ :Ce	5.1	2.1	17	380	70000

Properties of some inorganic scintillators

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TABLE 7-2
Properties of Some Scintillator Materials Used in Nuclear Medicine

Property	NaI(Tl)	BGO	LSO(Ce)	GSO(Ce)	CsI(Tl)	BaF ₂	Plastic [†]
Density (g/cm ³)	3.67	7.13	7.40	6.71	4.51	4.89	1.03
Effective atomic number	50	74	66	59	54	54	12
Decay time (nsec)	230	300	40	60	1000	0.8, 620*	2
Photon yield (per keV)	38	8	20-30	12-15	52	10	10
Index of refraction	1.85	2.15	1.82	1.85	1.80	1.56	1.58
Hygroscopic	Yes	No	No	No	Slightly	No	No
Peak emission (nm)	415	480	420	430	540	225, 310*	Various

*BaF₂ has two components: a fast-decaying component and a slow-decaying component.
[†]Typical values—there are many different plastic scintillators available.
 BGO, Bi₄Ge₃O₁₂; GSO, Gd₂SiO₅:Ce; LSO, Lu₂SiO₅:Ce.

S.R. Cherry, J.A. Sorenson, M.A. Phelps, Physics of Nuclear Medicine, 3rd ed., 2003

Photomultiplier tubes

The main PMT elements

- photocathode
 - photon → photoelectron
 - quantum efficiency (e.g. ~25%)
- electron-optics
 - focusing of photoelectron on the first dynode
 - preservation of time information
- multiplication stage
 - 6 to 12 dynodes
- charge pulse at anode output

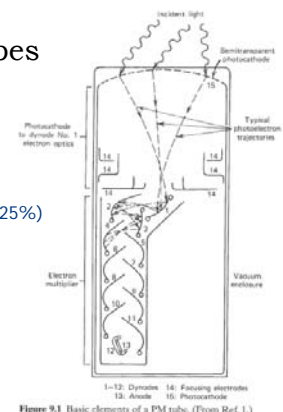
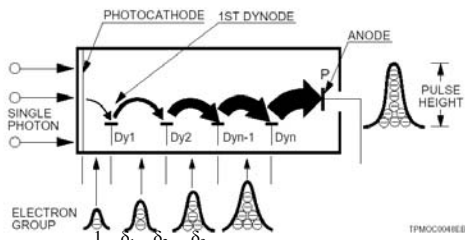


Figure 9.1 Basic elements of a PM tube. (From Ref. 1.)

Conversion and multiplication



Quantum efficiency of photocathode 0.01 – 0.4 photoelectrons/photon
 Overall electron gain is sensitive to applied voltage (typically 1 kV – 2.5 kV)
 Secondary emission factor of dynodes δ typically 4-8
 Typical gain = 10^6 - 10^7 (number of dynodes $N = 8$ - 12)

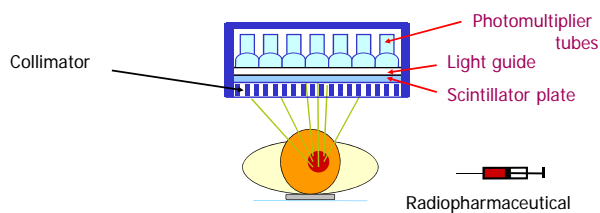
Scintillation detectors in nuclear medicine

- Gamma camera (planar scintigraphy)
- SPECT scanner (single photon emission computed tomography)
- PET scanner (positron emission tomography)
- Time-of-Flight PET (TOF-PET)

Scintillation detectors in nuclear medicine

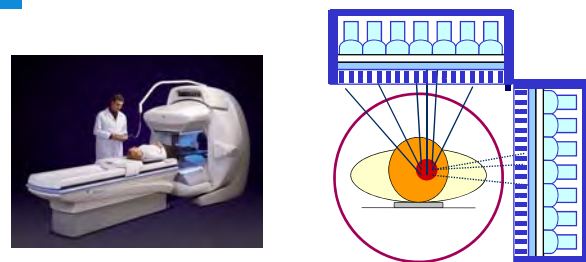
Simplest case:
 planar scintigraphy

2D position sensitive
 detector: gamma camera



Single Photon Emission CT (SPECT)

rotation

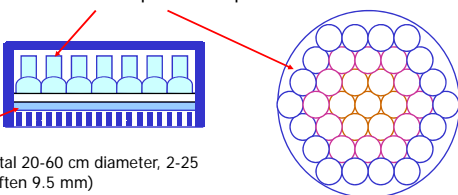


Gamma camera

NaI:Tl crystal
 of gamma camera



7 to 61 photomultipliers



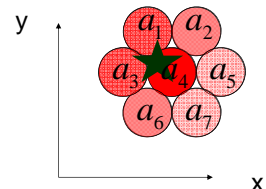
NaI:Tl^+ crystal 20-60 cm diameter, 2-25 mm thick (often 9.5 mm)

Position Estimation (Anger logic)

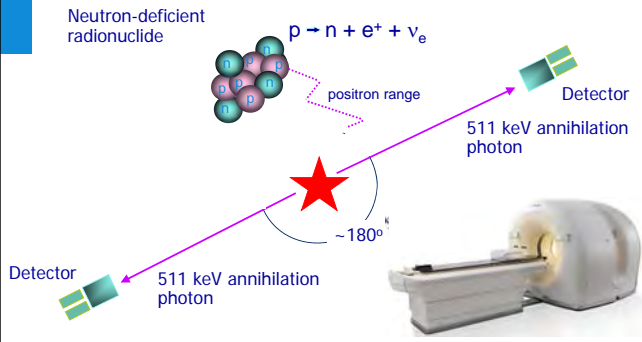
$$\begin{aligned} a_1 &= 0.8, & a_2 &= 0.5 \\ a_3 &= 0.8, & a_4 &= 1 \\ a_5 &= 0.3, & a_6 &= 0.5 \\ a_7 &= 0.1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Energy: } E = \sum_{k=1}^7 a_k$$

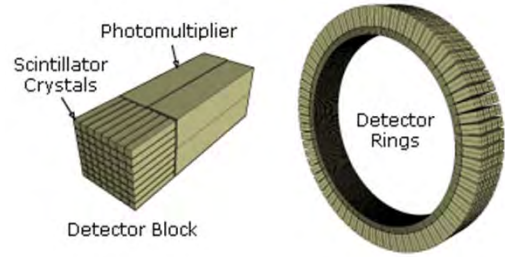
$$\text{Position: } X = \frac{1}{E} \sum_{k=1}^7 a_k x_k \quad Y = \frac{1}{E} \sum_{k=1}^7 a_k y_k$$



Positron emission tomography (PET)



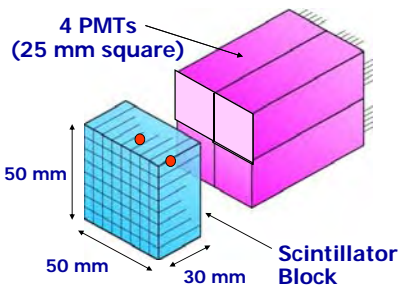
PET detectors: classic "block" detector



- Several block detectors are assembled into a ring
- A scanner may consist of several detector rings

PET detectors: classic "block" detector

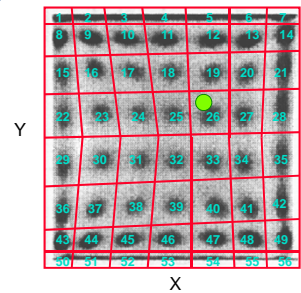
- Saw cuts direct light toward PMTs.
- Depth of cut determines light spread at PMTs.
- Crystal of interaction found with Anger logic (i.e. PMT light ratio).



PET detectors: Anger logic

- Identify crystal of interaction using lookup table
- Position given by crystal ID

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	A	9	1	B	14	
15	7	13	1	21		
22	23	24	25	26	27	28
29	30	31	32	33	34	35
36	8	37	4	41		
43	5	45	4	49		
50	51	52	53	54	55	56

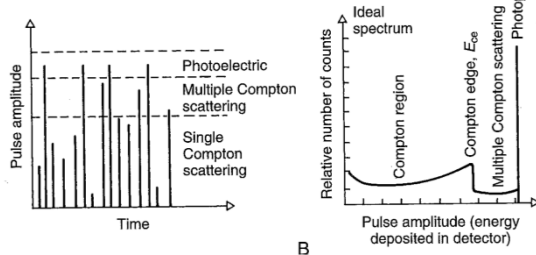


Energy: $E = A + B + C + D$

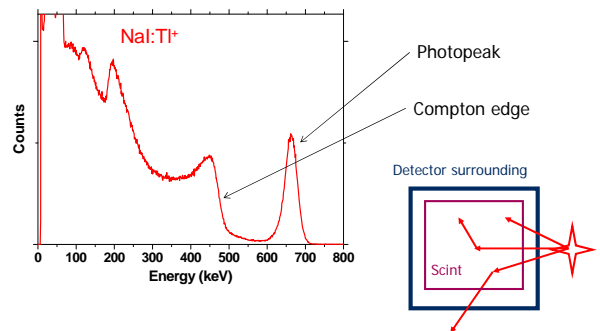
Position: $Y = (A + B) / E$
 $X = (B + D) / E$

Energy: pulse height spectrum

The height (amplitude) of the charge pulses produced by a scintillation detector are proportional to the number of scintillation photons detected and, thus, to the energy of the energy deposited by the gamma photon



Example: NaI:Tl pulse height spectrum



Scattering in patient

line of response (LOR)
incorrect LOR
Compton scattering

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Energy discrimination energy window

NaI(Tl) detector resolution, 18.3 keV (13.1%) FWHM

20% window
140 keV

Primary
Total
Object scatterer

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PET: coincidence detection

detector d1
detector d2
Tube or Line Of Response (LOR)
Coincidence window
time
Coincidences

$|t_1 - t_2| < \Delta t?$ yes coincidence
 $\Delta t < 10 \text{ ns}$

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Random coincidences

e.g. scattering out of system
incorrect LOR

Random coincidences:
 $R \sim 2\tau S^1 S^2$ where 2τ is the width of the coincidence time window and S^1 and S^2 the singles rates of two opposing detectors
 \Rightarrow detector timing resolution must be $\leq \tau$
 \Rightarrow high time resolution (\sim ns) needed!

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Time-of-flight PET

LOR
Annihilation
511 keV
 t_2
 t_1
 $t_2 - t_1$

without TOF
with TOF

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Time-of-flight PET: concept of CRT

The accuracy of source position localization along line of response depends on the coincidence resolving time (CRT)

$\Delta x = \text{uncertainty in position along LOR} = c \cdot \text{CRT} / 2$, where c is the speed of light.

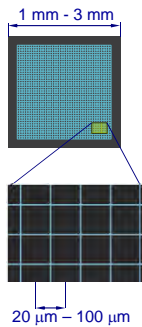
The TOF benefit is proportional to $\Delta x / D$, where D is the effective patient diameter.

\Rightarrow The smaller the CRT, the better.

State-of-the-art: CRT \approx 500 ps $\Rightarrow \Delta x \approx$ 7.5 cm.

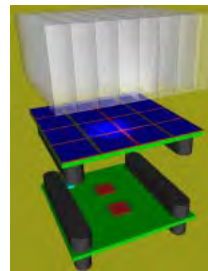
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Silicon Photomultiplier (SiPM)



- Array of many single-photon avalanche diodes (microcells) connected in parallel
- Increasingly interesting as replacement for PMTs:
 - high gain ($\sim 10^6$)
 - high PDE
 - compact and rugged
 - transparent to γ -photons
 - fast response (ns)
 - insensitive to magnetic fields

SiPM-array based PET detectors



For example:

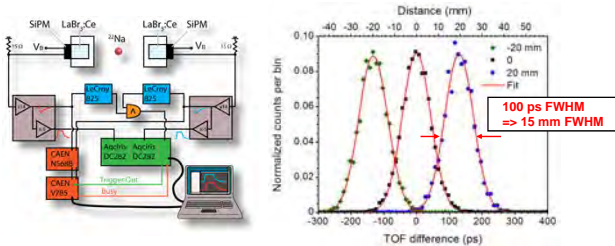
- crystal matrix composed of e.g. 4 mm x 4 mm x 20 mm crystals
- each crystal coupled 1-to-1 to an individual SiPM

=> high spatial resolution
=> high energy resolution
=> excellent timing

100 ps barrier broken using SiPMs

Made possible by the combination of:

- Small $\text{LaBr}_3:\text{Ce}$ crystals (3 mm x 3 mm x 5 mm)
- Silicon Photomultipliers (Hamamatsu MPPC-S10362-33-050C)
- Digital Signal Processing (DSP)



Multimodality: PET + MRI

Now: avalanche photodiodes (APDs)
Next generation systems: SiPMs !!!

