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INITIAL CHARACTERIZATION OF A BGO-PHOTODIODE DETECTOR FOR HIGH RESOLUTION POSITRON EMISSION TOMOGRAPHY

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November 1983

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INITIAL CHARACTERIZATION OF A BGO-PHOTODIODE DETECTOR FOR  
HIGH RESOLUTION POSITRON EMISSION TOMOGRAPHY

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Abstract

Spatial resolution in positron emission tomography is currently limited by the resolution of the detectors. This work presents the initial characterization of a detector design using small bismuth germanate (BGO) crystals individually coupled to silicon photodiodes (SPDs) for crystal identification, and coupled in groups to phototubes (PMTs) for coincidence timing. A 3 mm x 3 mm x 3 mm BGO crystal coupled only to a SPD can achieve a 511 keV photopeak resolution of 8.7% FWHM at -150°C, using a pulse peaking time of 10 μs. When two 3 mm x 3 mm x 15 mm BGO crystals are coupled individually to SPDs and also coupled to a common 14 mm diam PMT, the SPDs detect the 511 keV photopeak with a resolution of 30% FWHM at -76°C. In coincidence with an opposing 3 mm wide BGO crystal, the SPDs are able to identify the crystal of interaction with good signal-to-noise ratio, and the detector pair resolution is 2 mm FWHM.

1. Introduction

In positron emission tomography of the brain, a spatial resolution of 2 mm FWHM is needed to measure the dynamics of blood flow in the cerebral arteries and the uptake and clearance of labeled tracers in small structures<sup>1</sup>. The primary difficulty in designing a positron tomograph with this spatial resolution lies not in the range of the positrons<sup>2,3</sup>, nor the deviations from 180° emission<sup>4</sup>, nor the detection properties of small BGO crystals<sup>5</sup>, but in the size of available PMTs. Approaches to achieve a spatial resolution finer than the size of the PMTs include the use of lightpipes<sup>6,7</sup>, partial coupling of PMTs to various faces of a close-packed array of smaller crystals<sup>7,8</sup>, one dimensional light-proportion position logic<sup>9-13</sup>, selective splitting of light among several PMTs so that the crystal producing the light may be identified<sup>14,15</sup>, the use of pulse shape discrimination for different scintillator materials on the same PMT<sup>16,17</sup>, and grid wires for localized gating of electrons from the photocathode to the first dynode<sup>18-21</sup>.

This paper presents the initial characterization of a detector design using small bismuth germanate (BGO) crystals individually coupled to silicon photodiodes (SPDs) for crystal identification, and coupled in groups to phototubes (PMTs) for coincidence timing<sup>3,22</sup>. Our Monte Carlo computer code<sup>23</sup> calculated that the largest fraction of light is collected when the SPD and PMT are coupled to the full area of orthogonal faces of the crystal (Figure 1).

In addition, this paper describes the use of forward Compton scatters to enhance detection efficiency without sacrificing spatial resolution, and the advantages of position-sensitive SPDs to measure the depth-of-interaction in the crystal.

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2. Properties of Silicon photodiodes

Table 1 lists our measurements of some of the properties of four commercial SPDs. At -100°C, and at reverse bias voltages below breakdown, dark current is below 1 pA for all diodes listed.

For an abrupt diode (i.e. having an abrupt change in donor/acceptor concentration between P-I-N layers), the depletion depth D (in μm) is given by<sup>24</sup>

$$D = 0.5 \sqrt{\rho V_e} \quad (1)$$

where ρ is the resistivity of the silicon in ohm-cm,  $V_e = V_i + V_b$  is the effective diode potential,  $V_i$  is the built-in potential and  $V_b$  is the external bias. The capacitance C (in pF) is given by

$$C = 106 A/D \quad (2)$$

where A is the area in mm<sup>2</sup>. D is limited by the physical thickness of the silicon wafer.

We measured the capacitance of the four SPDs at a temperature of -100°C for approximately 25 voltages from zero to the breakdown voltage. Equations 1 and 2 did not describe these data, but an excellent fit was obtained in all cases when Equation 1 was replaced by the empirical expression

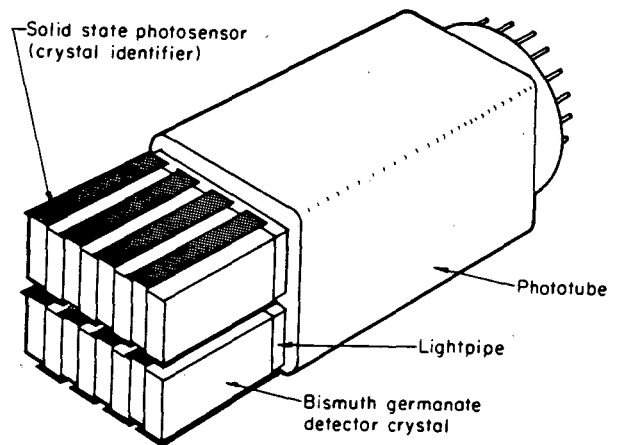
$$D = 0.5 \sqrt{\rho V_e / (1 + V_e/V_d)} \quad (3)$$

where  $V_d$  is a voltage that corresponds to the asymptotic upper limit of D,

$$D \rightarrow D_a = 0.5 \sqrt{\rho V_d} \quad \text{as } V_e \rightarrow \infty \quad (4)$$

and

$$C \rightarrow C_a = 106 A/D_a \quad \text{as } V_e \rightarrow \infty \quad (5)$$



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Figure 1: Schematic of multiple-crystal array where the energy deposited in each crystal is measured by individually coupled silicon photodiodes (SPDs) and the coincident time information is provided by a common phototube (PMT).

Table 1. Characteristics of four commercial silicon photodiodes

Manufacturer	Hamamatsu	Hamamatsu	Hamamatsu	Applied Solar Energy <sup>a</sup>
Model	S1722-01	S1722X	S1863X	H101
Sensitive area	4 mm diam (12.6 mm <sup>2</sup> )	5 mm diam (19.6 mm <sup>2</sup> )	10 mm x 10 mm (100 mm <sup>2</sup> )	2.0 mm diam (3.1 mm <sup>2</sup> )
Breakdown voltage	180 V	200 V	80 V	50 V
Capacitance near breakdown	11.8 pF	7.2 pF	35 pF	3.7 pF
Corresponding depletion depth	113 μm	289 μm	303 μm	89 μm
Capacitance at V <sub>b</sub> = 0V	55 pF	133 pF	309 pF	23 pF
V <sub>b</sub> = 1V	24 pF	81 pF	173 pF	15 pF
V <sub>b</sub> = 2V	20 pF	48 pF	140 pF	9.1 pF
V <sub>b</sub> = 5V	15 pF	29 pF	103 pF	6.0 pF
V <sub>b</sub> = 10V	14 pF	21 pF	80 pF	4.7 pF
V <sub>b</sub> = 20V	13 pF	16 pF	61 pF	4.1 pF
V <sub>b</sub> = 50V	12 pF	11 pF	43 pF	3.7 pF
V <sub>b</sub> =100V	12 pF	8.5 pF	-----	-----
V <sub>b</sub> =200V	-----	7.2 pF	-----	-----
Results of fit by eqn (3):				
Resistivity ρ (ohm-cm)	14,000	4,300	7,700	4,400
Built-in reverse bias V <sub>i</sub>	-0.18 V	-0.28 V	-0.76 V	-0.20 V
V <sub>d</sub>	3.7 V	116 V	93 V	8.4 V
V <sub>e</sub> → ∞ capacitance C <sub>a</sub>	11.8 pF	5.8 pF	25 pF	3.4 pF
V <sub>e</sub> → ∞ depletion depth D <sub>a</sub>	113 μm	354 μm	423 μm	96 μm

<sup>a</sup>Applied Solar Energy Corporation, City of Industry, CA

The best fit parameters ρ, V<sub>i</sub>, and V<sub>d</sub> are given in Table 1. The S1722X and S1863X were fabricated from 500 μm silicon wafers and exhibit the lowest capacitance per unit area (0.35 pF/mm<sup>2</sup>). However, the capacitance could be further reduced through the use of higher resistivity silicon and doping techniques that do not reduce the resistivity of the I-layer.

The semiconductor HgI<sub>2</sub> is also being developed as a scintillation photodetector<sup>25,26</sup>, but is not yet commercially available.

### 3. Characteristics of the BGO-photodiode detector

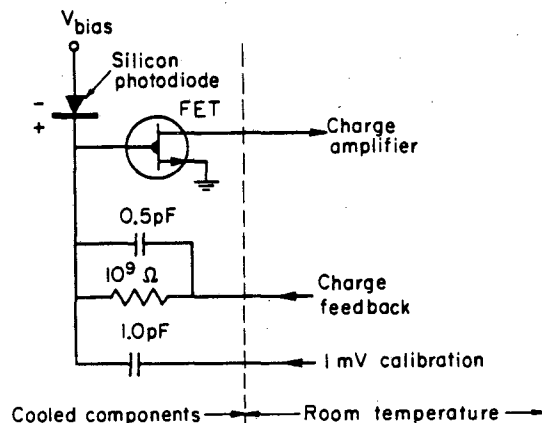
#### 3.1 Photopeak amplitudes and resolutions vs gamma ray energy

As described in Reference (27), a selected 3 mm x 3 mm x 3 mm BGO crystal (Harshaw Chemical Co., Solon, Ohio) was coupled to a Hamamatsu S1722-01 SPD and coated with a dry MgO reflector. Below -50°C, dark current is low and does not significantly contribute to amplifier noise. Using a 4393 FET, a SPD reverse bias of 10 V, a temperature of -150°C, and a pulse peaking time of 0.5 μs, the amplifier noise is 560 e<sup>-</sup> FWHM. The noise is reduced by longer peaking times, and is 300 e<sup>-</sup> FWHM at τ = 10 μs. The capacitive load of the charge amplifier (Figure 2) includes 15 pF from the FET and 12 pF from the SPD.

The best photopeak resolution was observed at a temperature of -150°C and a peaking time of 10 μs. Under these conditions, the photopeak amplitude and resolution were measured for several gamma ray energies (Table 2). A typical <sup>22</sup>Na spectrum (Figure 3) shows the 511 keV and 1275 keV photopeaks with FWHM = 8.7% and 5.4%, respectively.

#### 3.2 Intrinsic luminosity and light collection from BGO

To determine the intrinsic luminosity of BGO, we used a 10 mm x 10 mm x 3 mm deep BGO crystal with one 10 mm x 10 mm face polished and the other 5 faces roughened and painted black. In such a crystal, only photons within a +45° cone can escape total internal reflection in the BGO (n=2.15) and enter the PMT window (n=1.52).



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Figure 2: Circuit diagram of cooled components of charge amplifier. Subsequent pulse shaping consisted of equal RC integration and differentiation.

Table 2. Photopeak response of a 3 x 3 x 3 mm<sup>3</sup> BGO crystal and a S1722-01 SPD at -150°C,  $\tau=10 \mu\text{s}$ , and 10V reverse bias

Source	$E_\gamma$ (keV)	photopeak amplitude (e <sup>-</sup> )	photopeak FWHM	amplitude per $E_\gamma$ (e <sup>-</sup> /keV)
<sup>133</sup> Ba	80	870	46%	10.9
<sup>57</sup> Co	122	1,290	38%	10.5
<sup>133</sup> Ba	356	4,080	13%	11.5
<sup>22</sup> Na	511	5,990	8.7%	11.7
<sup>137</sup> Cs	662	7,800	7.2%	11.8
<sup>22</sup> Na	1275	15,100	5.4%	11.8
<sup>60</sup> Co	1332	15,800	5.3%	11.9

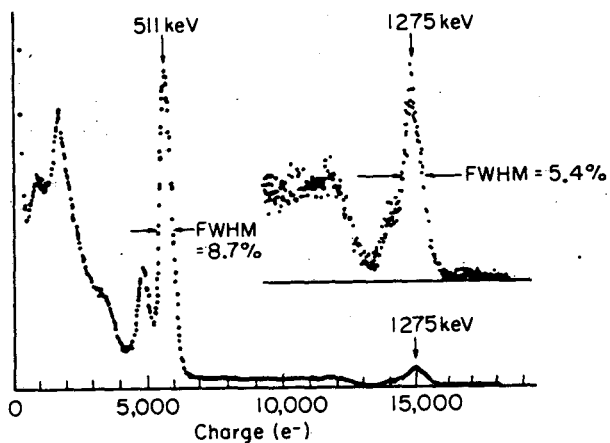


Figure 3: Pulse height spectrum from <sup>22</sup>Na taken with a 3 mm x 3 mm x 3 mm BGO crystal and a S1722-01 SPD, using a peaking time of 10  $\mu\text{s}$  and at a temperature of -150°C.

Our Monte Carlo computer code calculated that 12.7% of the scintillation photons will exit the black BGO crystal, assuming a scattering length of 1 m, an absorption length of 1 m, and a diffuse reflectivity of 3%. Suppressing either the scattering or absorption changed the collection fraction by less than 0.2%. This insensitivity is due to the short paths (avg = 3.5 mm) that the photons travel in the crystal before they are either collected or absorbed. Changing the assumed reflectivity to 0% and 6% resulted in collection fractions of 12.0% and 13.3%, respectively.

At a temperature of -100°C, the black BGO crystal has a 662 keV photopeak amplitude of 2800 e<sup>-</sup> using a Hamamatsu S1863X SPD. Assuming a quantum efficiency of 65%<sup>28</sup>, we conclude that  $2,800 / (0.13 \times 0.65) = 33,000$  photons are produced in the BGO crystal, or 50 photons per keV. Since each photon has approximately 2.6 eV, this corresponds to an intrinsic energy efficiency of  $50 \times 2.6 \text{ eV per keV} = 13\%$ .

At a temperature of +20°C, a polished 3 mm x 3 mm x 3 mm deep BGO crystal coated with MgO reflector has a 662 keV photopeak amplitude of 3,200 e<sup>-</sup> using a S1722 SPD. At -100°C the amplitude is 8,000 e<sup>-</sup>, which is a 2.5-fold increase. At +20°C the intrinsic luminosity of BGO is thus  $33,000 / 2.5 = 13,200$  photons or 20 photons per keV ( $20 \times 2.6 \text{ eV per keV} = 5\%$  energy efficiency).

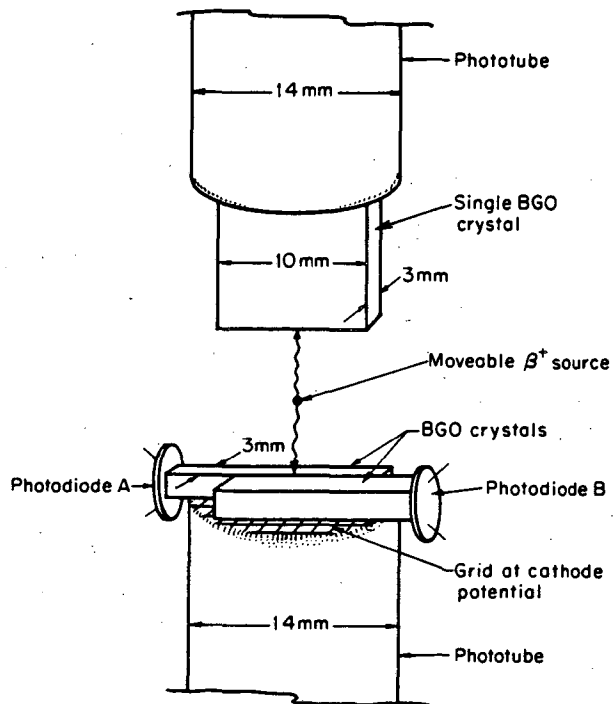
We have used a PMT to measure the light output of a good-quality NaI(Tl) crystal relative to a black NaI(Tl) crystal, as well as the BGO crystals discussed above. The white NaI(Tl) crystal is 30 mm diam x 30 mm deep and has a 662 keV photopeak resolution of 8.5% FWHM. Its output is 2.5X larger than a 12 mm x 12 mm x 3 mm deep NaI(Tl) crystal painted black, which has a calculated collection fraction of 18%. The collection fraction for the white NaI(Tl) crystal is thus  $18\% \times 2.5 = 45\%$ . Its output is also 8 times larger than a BGO crystal having a similar collection fraction. Since the bi-alkali photocathode used has about 30% more quantum efficiency for NaI(Tl) (420 nm) than for BGO (480 nm), the luminosity ratio between the two materials is about 6. Thus the intrinsic luminosity of NaI(Tl) at 20°C is about 120 photons per keV and the intrinsic efficiency is about  $120 \times 3.0 \text{ eV per keV} = 36\%$ . The energy efficiency for light exiting the crystal is  $36\% \times 45\% = 16\%$ , in reasonable agreement with the 13% measured by Van Sciver<sup>29,30</sup>.

#### 4. Crystal identification with silicon photodiodes

To demonstrate the use of SPDs to identify individual BGO crystals, we used the test set-up shown in Figure 4. The upper PMT was coupled to a single 3 mm x 10 mm x 30 mm deep BGO crystal. The lower PMT was coupled to two 15 mm x 3 mm x 3 mm wide BGO crystals. Each of the lower crystals was also coupled to an S1722-01 SPD. The separation between opposing detectors was about 25 cm, and a <sup>22</sup>Na line source was placed between them. A wire mesh at cathode potential was placed between the crystals and the front face of the lower PMT to prevent coupling of PMT pulses to the very sensitive charge amplifiers. If this precaution is not taken, the charge amplifiers detect artifact pulses whose amplitudes depend on the PMT voltage. The lower PMT, BGO crystals, SPDs, and associated charge amplifier components (Figure 2) were cooled to -76°C with an 8 liter, three-stage refrigeration unit (FTS Systems, Inc., Stone Ridge, NY).

Figure 5 shows the pulse height spectra from SPD B taken with a gated pulse height analyzer. The gate pulse was derived from a coincidence between the two phototubes using thresholds of 400 keV. When the <sup>22</sup>Na source is directly between the upper BGO crystal and crystal A (source position -1.5 mm), the pulse height spectrum seen on SPD B consists primarily of noise pulses (Figure 5a). When the source is directly between the upper crystal and crystal B (source position +1.5 mm), the pulse height spectrum consists primarily of 511 keV photopeak pulses (Figure 5c). The photopeak resolution is 30% FWHM, poorer than the resolution given in Table 2, due to the higher temperature, light losses in the longer crystals, and the sharing of light with the PMT.

Figure 6 shows the coincident response of opposing 3 mm wide BGO crystals as the <sup>22</sup>Na source was moved in 0.25 mm steps along a line between them. The curve marked phototube is the coincident response of the two PMTs. Since the lower PMT cannot distinguish between the two BGO crystals, the response is relatively broad with a FWHM of 2.9 mm. The curve marked photodiode A is the coincident response of the two PMTs and SPD A, determined as the number of counts



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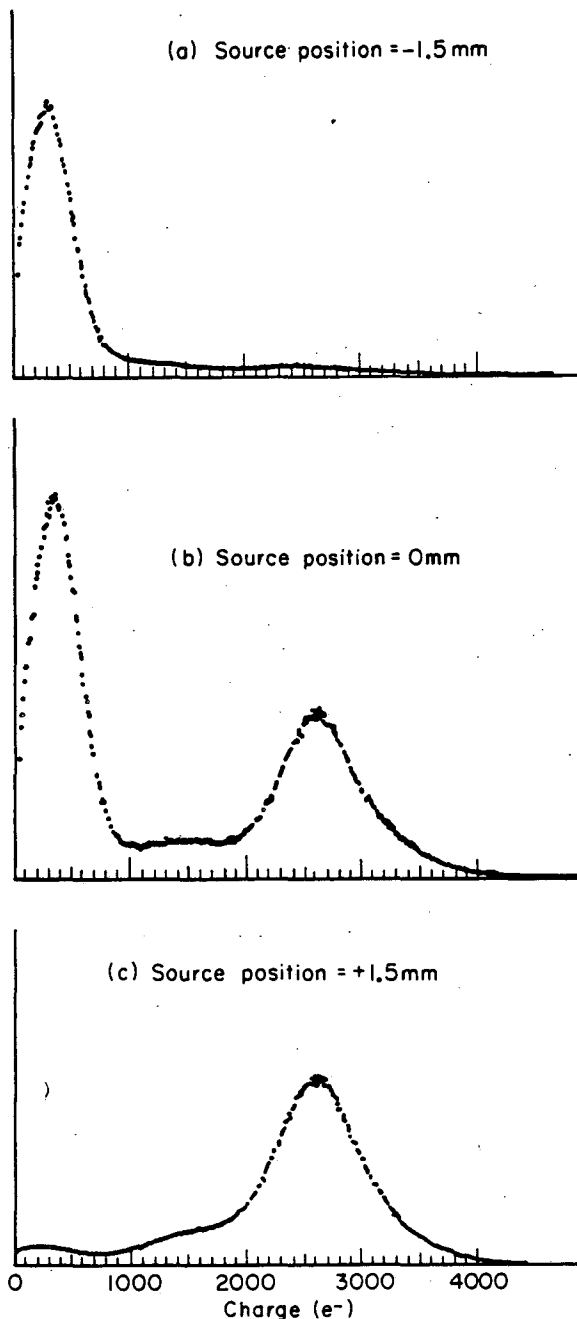
Figure 4: Sketch of experimental set-up where two crystals are coupled to a common PMT and coupled individually to SPDs.

above 310 keV in the SPD A pulse height spectrum as seen by the gated pulse height analyzer. The curve marked photodiode B is the coincident response of the two PMTs and SPD B. The curve marked photodiode A + B is the sum of the photodiode A and photodiode B curves and is equal to 90% of the phototube curve. The 10% difference is primarily due to Compton scattering in one of the lower crystals followed by photoelectric absorption in the other crystal.

## 5. Tomograph Design Factors

### 5.1 Advantages of position sensitive photodetectors

There are three primary advantages to the use of depth-of-interaction information: (1) Parallax error due to penetration in the crystals from off-axis sources can be essentially eliminated. (2) By rotating all crystals in the same direction (Figure 7), it is possible to use the penetration effect to achieve essentially continuous sampling without detector motion. (3) Time-of-flight tomographs suffer from a loss in timing resolution because the scintillation photons travel more slowly than the incident annihilation photons. As a result, the timing resolution is significantly poorer for long crystals than for shorter crystals, resulting in a trade-off between timing resolution and detection efficiency<sup>31</sup>. By knowing the depth of interaction, the timing resolution can be improved for long, efficient crystals.



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Figure 5: Pulse height spectra for photodiode B of Figure 4, gated by coincidences between two >400 keV PMT pulses. The 3 mm wide upper BGO crystal and the 1.2 mm diam <sup>22</sup>Na source define a narrow beam of annihilation photons.

(a) At a source position of -1.5 mm the beam intersects crystal A and the SPD B spectrum consists primarily of noise pulses.

(b) At a source position of 0 mm the beam intersects both crystals A and B.

(c) At a source position of +1.5 mm the beam intersects crystal B and the SPD B spectrum consists primarily of 511 keV photopeak pulses.



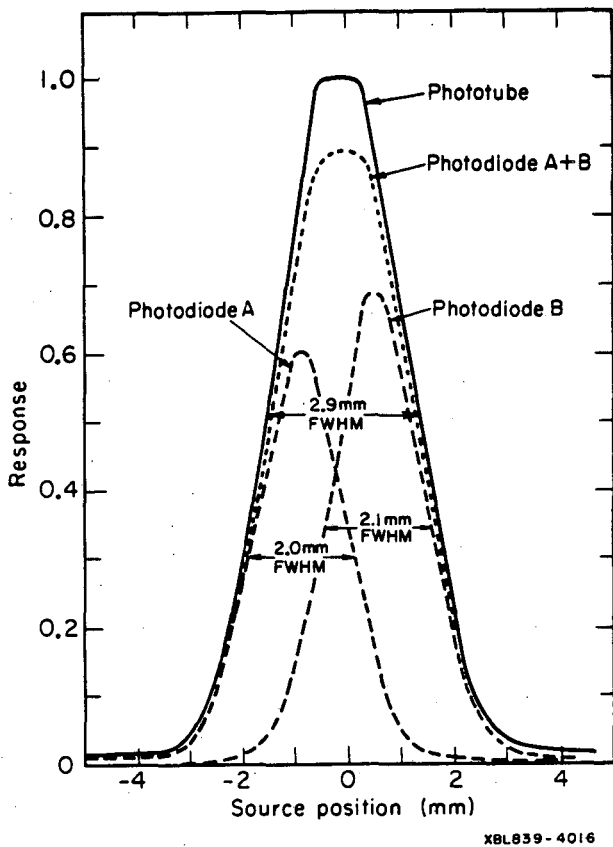


Figure 6: Coincident response function as a line source of  $^{22}\text{Na}$  is moved between the opposing crystals shown in Figure 4. Phototube curve is response for two PMTs in coincidence. Photodiode A and Photodiode B curves are responses when the respective photodiode is in coincidence with both phototubes. Photodiode A+B curve is the sum of Photodiode A and Photodiode B curves.

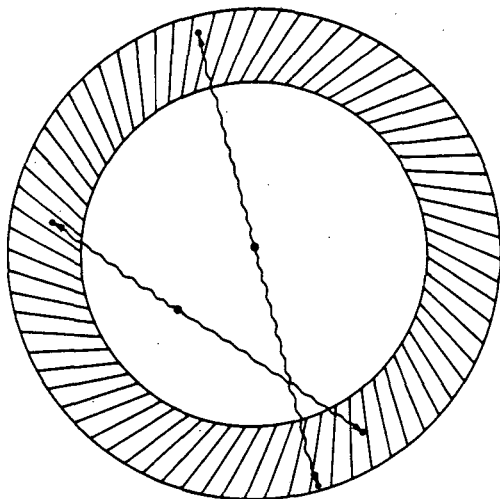


Figure 7: Scheme for rotating all crystals of a stationary positron detector ring so that depth-of-interaction information can be used to provide continuous linear sampling.

Fortunately, several manufacturers have developed the technology for producing position-sensitive SPDs. In these SPDs, leads are provided to each side of the P or N layer and the resistivity of that layer divides the signal according to the center of intensity of the incident light. Note that for BGO crystals of the shape shown in Figure 1, a two-segment SPD does not produce signals that are proportional to the position of interaction. Our calculations and experimental simulations using two PMTs indicate that the photons exiting the crystal have a spatially diffuse component and a sharper component corresponding to the  $+45^\circ$  total internal reflection escape cone. For interactions over most of the crystal, the escape cone falls only on one PMT and (except for a narrow region between the PMTs) the resulting signals are very insensitive to position.

### 5.2 Time-of-Flight positron tomography

$\text{BaF}_2$  is the material of choice for time-of-flight positron tomography<sup>32</sup>, but the spatial resolution is presently limited by the size of high-quality PMTs necessary for sub-nanosecond timing. A fast PMT with a UV window could be coupled to groups of small  $\text{BaF}_2$  crystals to detect the sub-nanosecond emission at 220 nm, and UV sensitive SPDs could be coupled individually to detect the slower 630 ns component at 300 nm.

### 5.3 Use of forward Compton scatters

Detector systems that reject multiple detector interactions do not suffer from a loss in resolution due to Compton scattering in the detectors. However, by increasing the complexity of the event trigger, it is possible to include forward Compton events and so increase the detection efficiency without degrading the spatial resolution.

Our Monte Carlo computer code was used to calculate the probability for one and two crystal photopeak events for a linear array of 3 mm x 10 mm x 30 mm deep BGO crystals (Table 3). Whenever two crystals are involved, and one has  $<170$  keV energy deposition, it is almost always the crystal of first interaction. By including such events, the calculated photopeak efficiency is increased from 59% to 66% with little loss in spatial resolution.

## 6. Conclusions

Spatial resolution in positron emission tomography can approach 2 mm FWHM by using small BGO crystals individually coupled to cooled silicon photodiodes (SPDs) for crystal identification and coupled to a common phototube for coincident timing information. When a 3 mm x 3 mm x 3 mm BGO crystal is coupled only to a SPD at  $-150^\circ\text{C}$ , the 511 keV photopeak resolution is 8.7% FWHM. Two 3 mm x 3 mm x 15 mm BGO crystals coupled to a common PMT can be readily identified at  $-76^\circ\text{C}$  by SPDs, even though the 511 keV photopeak resolution has been degraded to 30% FWHM by the higher temperature, light losses in the longer crystals, and the sharing of light with the PMT. The resulting detector pair resolution of 2 mm FWHM demonstrates the potential for a new class of ultra-high resolution positron emission tomographs.

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Table 3. Probability of 511 keV photopeak events involving 1 or 2 crystals in a linear array of 3 mm x 10 mm x 30 mm deep BGO crystals<sup>a</sup>

Event	Signature <sup>b</sup>	Probability	Localization <sup>c</sup>
Single crystal photopeak	$E_1 = 511 \text{ keV}$	59.0%	Unique
Forward ( $<60^\circ$ ) scattering in crystal 1	$E_1 < 170 \text{ keV}$ $E_2 = 511 - E_1$	6.8%	Unique
Non-forward ( $60^\circ$ to $180^\circ$ ) scattering in crystal 1	$170 < E_1 < 340$ $E_2 = 511 - E_1$	8.3%	Ambiguous
Multiple scattering in crystal 1, simulating forward scattering in crystal 2	$340 < E_1 < 511$ $E_2 = 511 - E_1$	0.7%	Erroneous

<sup>a</sup>10 mm x 30 mm crystal faces touching as shown in Figure 1, photons incident on 3 mm x 10 mm faces

<sup>b</sup> $E_1$  is the energy deposition in crystal of first interaction (crystal 1)  
 $E_2$  is the energy deposition in crystal of second interaction (crystal 2)

<sup>c</sup>Assuming photoelectric or single Compton-photoelectric events

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