

# Few fundamentals on detectors for X and $\gamma$ rays

What is the task of a **detector**?

it converts **the energy** releases by a photon in the **material** of the detector in an **electric signal**.

The electric signal is processed by a suitable **electronics** for the purpose to determine the **energy** of the photon, the **interaction point** (to determine the **origin of the emission**) and, if required, the **time instant** in which the interaction has taken place. **TIMING** => This is important for PET! It's based on timing! (not for the others)

Detector: 1) has to **stop the radiation**. That's why we have seen interaction with matter of rays. 2) **convert energy to electrical signal**. So the signal is then processed. Final information: energy of the photon (nuclear medicine), (not actually true for radiography you integrate xrays whatever the energy).

\*E' L'ENERGIA CHE VARIA CON L'ASSORBIMENTO, comunque riuscendo a misurare l'energia, di fatto fai una spettrografia, nel senso che finisci DI FATTO a contare/integrare nel tempo, cioè hai una valutazione anche dell'intensità

### Detectors with direct conversion:

the energy of the photon is converted in a given quantity of electric charge directly on the detector material. This charge is collected at an output electrode of the detector.

--> they may be NOT very efficient to stop the radiation!!! <--  
a det. NEEDS to be efficient in STOPPING the radiation!! (e.g. Si:  
problem, not efficient stop)

### Detectors with indirect conversion:

the energy of the photon is converted in another physical quantity (e.g. visible photons) and a secondary detector (a photodetector, in the example) is necessary to convert the second physical quantity in an electrical signal.

We split the problem into 2 step, we choose a nice material like scintillator to privilege stopping power :). We can grow as big as we like without worrying. They are passive.

Very nice stopping power. Then served by a PHOTODETECTOR.

**advantage:** the material for the conversion of X/ $\gamma$  can be chosen different from the material which creates the electric signal

**disadvantage:** the cascade of two processes, instead of one, worsens the resolution on the overall conversion

Absorb energy => release el. charge. Can be done in 2 ways.

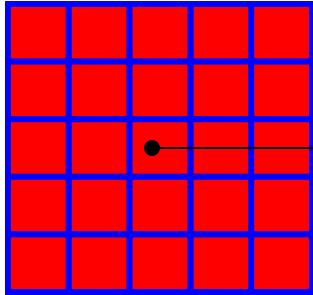
1) Energy to directly electrical charge, then the charge is transferred to an output electrode of the det. This is very challenging, in med. imaging is not the most common case.

2) 2 STEP DETECTOR (most common). First step: conversion in another physical quantity which is not charge, then this second to el signal. e.g.: **SCINTILLATORS**: typically crystals, the rays interact with the mat. and produce a 'cloud' of optical photons, which are then converted. Another eg.: thermal detector (en->heat)

## 2 type of detector

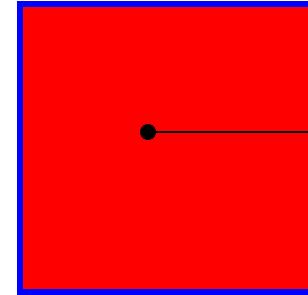
# Imaging detectors

like phonecamera  
**pixel detector**

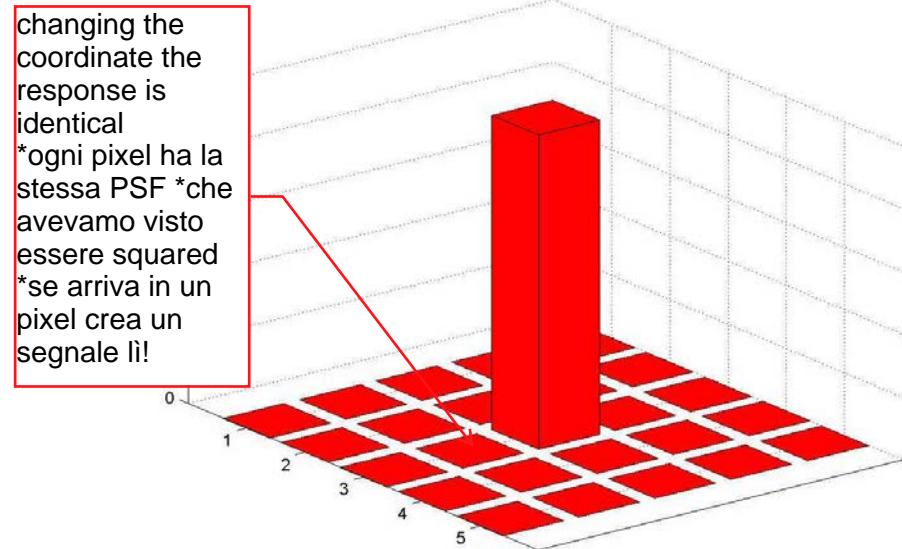


the resolution  
in the image  
is given by the  
dimensions of the  
pixel

'continuous' detector

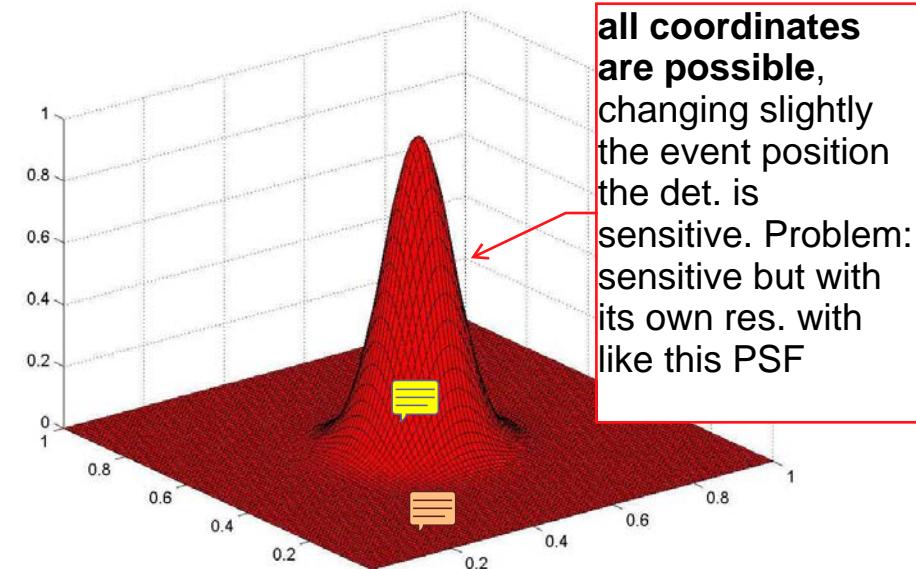


the coord. x,y of the  
determined point  
changes with continuity  
(e.g. with a Gaussian  
shape)

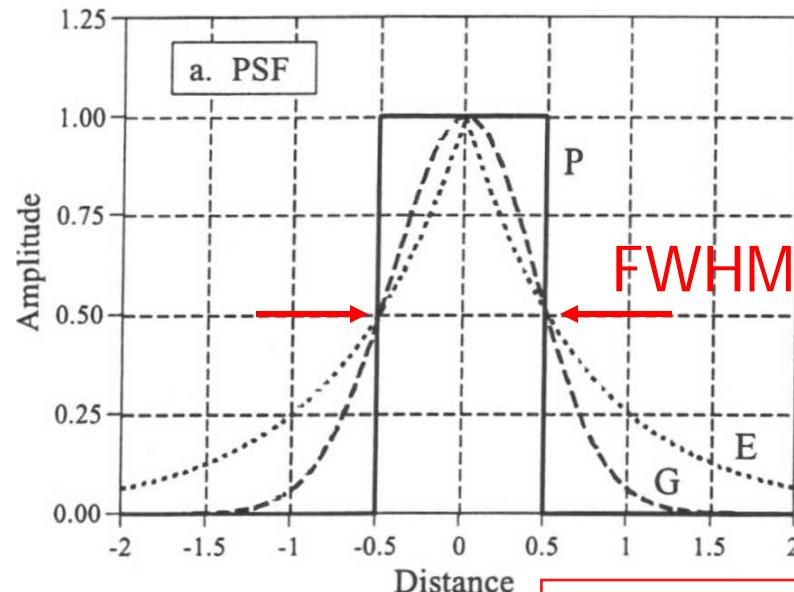


coordinate del pixel detector:  
sempre nel pixel

coordinate del continuous: seguono una **probabilità**, dato un delta impulso arrivante in una posizione



Spatial resolution:  
precision to determine the position of interaction



Energy resolution:  
precision to determine the photon energy

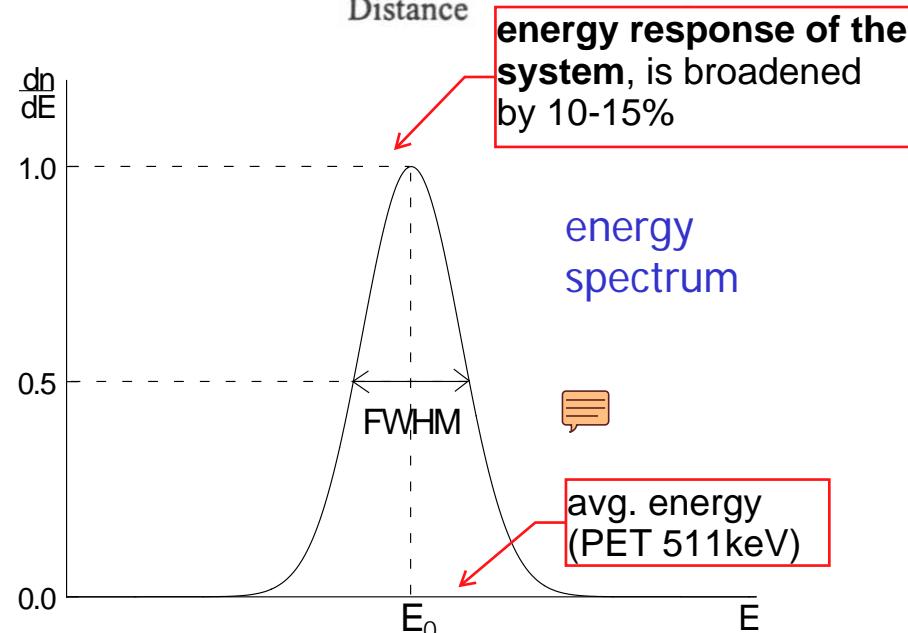
fitted like a gaussian

$$G(E) = \frac{N_0}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(E - E_0)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

given usually in %

$$\text{FWHM} = 2.35 \sigma$$

$$R = \Delta E_{FWHM}/E_0$$



Not only where, but also the reconstruct energy, important for scatter rejection. We want to know if the energy we are collecting is  $E_0$ , indeed if we have compton it means we have a wrong coordinate. So we look at the energy (b/c compton changes it) and we reject the g-ray. Problem: eg. is 470 a bad measurement according to my res, or due to scattering? en. res. influences the capability of rejecting, because the broad it is we simply don't know

DETECTION => CAPABILITY TO STOP THE RAY, IT'S IMPORTANT! (not only generating photons)

## Detection efficiency

for a given source activity (photon flux), how many (valid) events are generated in the detector?

**Detection efficiency** = number of detected events/number of events generated by the source [0-1]

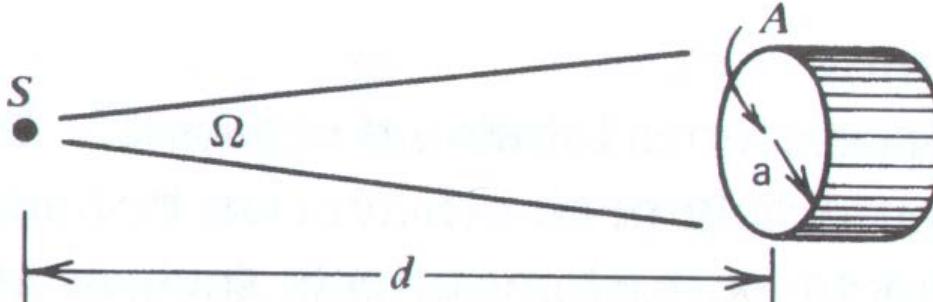
3 contributions

$$\text{Detection efficiency} = \frac{\text{intersect}}{\text{Geometrical efficiency}} \times \frac{\text{stop}}{\text{Absorption efficiency}} \times \frac{\text{delivery}}{\text{'Photopeak' efficiency}}$$

Geometrical efficiency: Geometrical coverage: ratio b/w solid angle &  $4\pi$  (overall solid angle).  
Sphere => g.e. = 1 [è normalizzato]

fraction of photons emitted by the source that enters in the detector

most important contrib.



$$\eta_G = \Omega / 4\pi$$

as large and close as possible

$\Omega$ : solid angle under which the detector intercepts the photons =  $A/d^2$

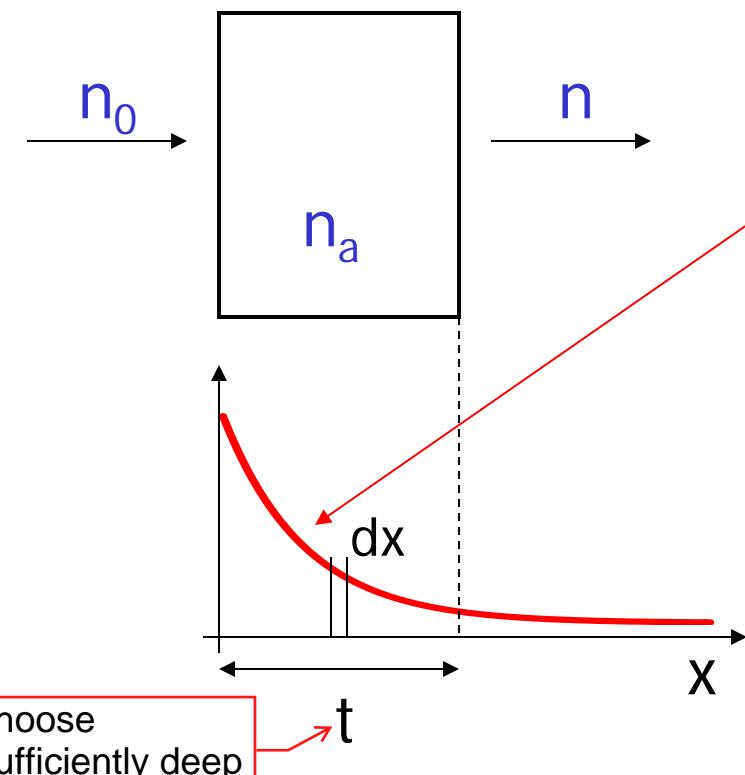
Valid! (eg. no compton, that wont contribute to efficiency).

- 1) the detector has to **INTERSECT** the gamma-r. geometrical coverage.
- 2) Absorption: given that it has intersected geometrically, how many are **stopped** by the detect? (eg. paper wont stop them).
- 3) are the one stopped **delivering** full energy? instead of releasing total en. in the sensor, part is escaping

given the photons entered into the surface A, are they **stopped**? => thickness+mat. type

## Absorption efficiency:

fraction of the photons entering the detector which is actually absorbed



probability a photon is stopped

$$p(x)dx = \mu \exp(-\mu x)dx$$

probability that a photon entering into the detector is absorbed in the thickness  $dx$  at  $x$



⇒ probability that a photon entering into the detector is absorbed in the thickness  $t$ :

as seen, number of photons passing through

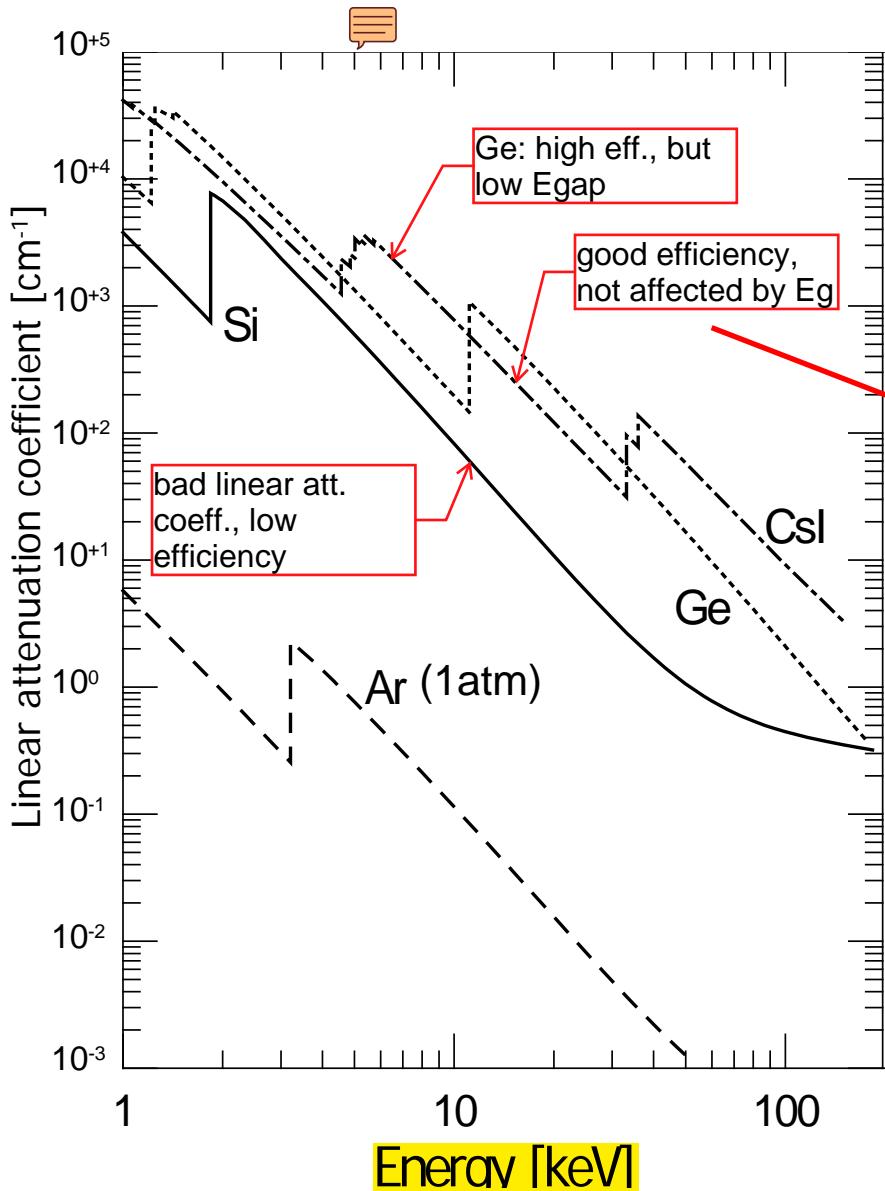
$$\int_0^t p(x) dx = 1 - \exp(-\mu t) = \eta_{abs.}$$

"entering" photons

choose material with larger Z

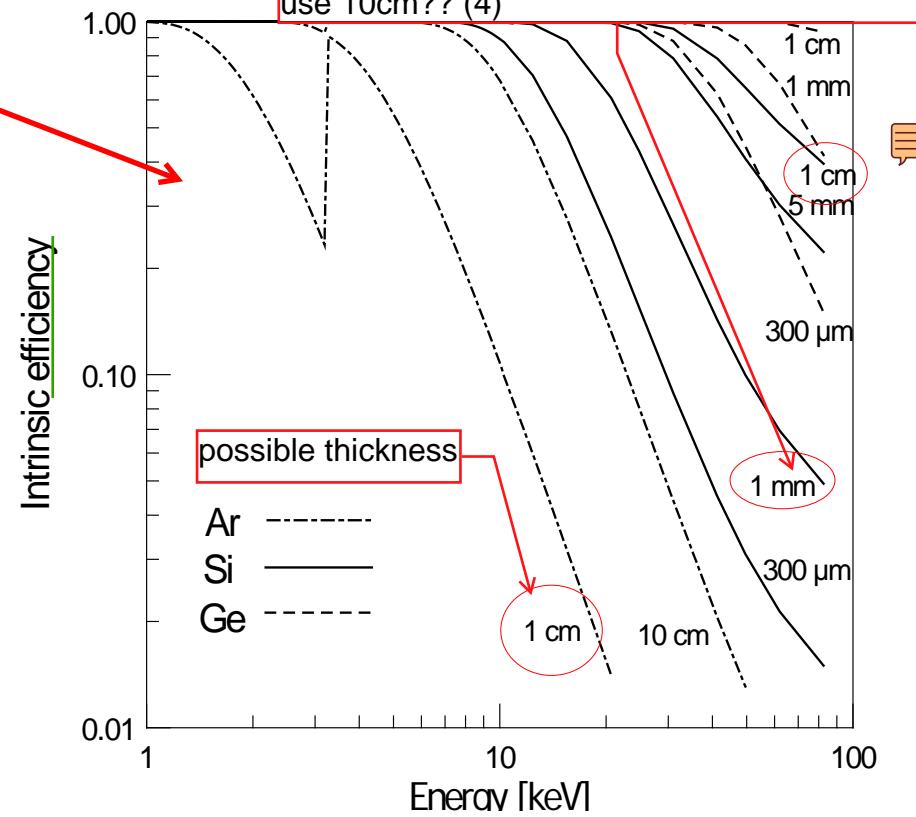
IN MEDICAL THIS IS CLOSE TO 80% OR 90%! We have to tune this to reach at least 80%, it's unacceptable to give activity to the patient and then simply transmst photons away from the det.

## Come scegliere lo stopping material



linear attenuation coefficient ( $\mu$ )  
for different materials used for  
detectors

1mm of Si is efficient up to 10keV. Then it stops to be eff. anyway increasing the thickness like 1cm you get to 100keV, so for mammography it can be used.. why dont we use 10cm?? (4)



$\eta_{abs}$  for different thickness

Gasses are bad. adv: we can make it very thick. **Si** is not efficient mat (it's nice b/c it's a direct conversion). **Germanium**: direct conv. and efficient in linear att. PROBLEM: SMALL ENERGY GAP! the step may be done by charges just due to **thermal energy**. electrons in valance band may have sufficient energy to jump over the EnGap to Conduction band.. they just mix up with the signal electrons generated by electrons!! :( bad! measured by putting it in dark.. but we'd subtract an avarage! we have a variation on top of the noise. EnGap in semiconductor to use in medical images is a KEY number. The larger the more likely we can use it in room temp.



## 'Photopeak' Efficiency



- fraction of photons that have interact in the detector and that have released completely their energy (and therefore provide a peak in the energy spectrum in correspondence of the energy of the incoming photon)
  - photons absorbed by photoelectric effect release completely their energy in the detector (with the exception of those interactions in which the fluorescence photon of the material escapes from the detector: *escape peak*)
  - most probable in PET w/t 511keV
  - the interactions occurring by Compton effect imply a partial absorption of the energy of the primary photon in case the secondary photon leaves the detector without further interactions
    - \*invece che secondary.. lo puoi pensare come l'originale rallentato. Se alla fine viene assorbito è ok, se riesce a fuggire è una riduzione della efficiency
- ⇒ to increase the efficiency it is necessary to size suitably the detector in order to maximize the probability that also the Compton photon is also absorbed in the material by photoelectric effect or by a second Compton interaction (note: Compton photons always have less energy than the primary photon)

Photopeak: when a g-ray interacts with a det. material, which is now granted by the "previous" 2 efficiencies; if gamma-ray has an energy E0, is desirable that the full en. E0 is deposited into the material. ITS NOT GRANTED THAT IF YOU HAVE AN INTERACTION WITH THE MATERIAL THE FULL ENERGY IS RELEASED IN THE MATERIAL: photoelectric effect, compton effect.. etc. One thing is interaction, another is release of the full energy. Name comes from: if the total en. is released and you make an histogram of the en we have a peak on E0 broadened by the en. res. of the detector.

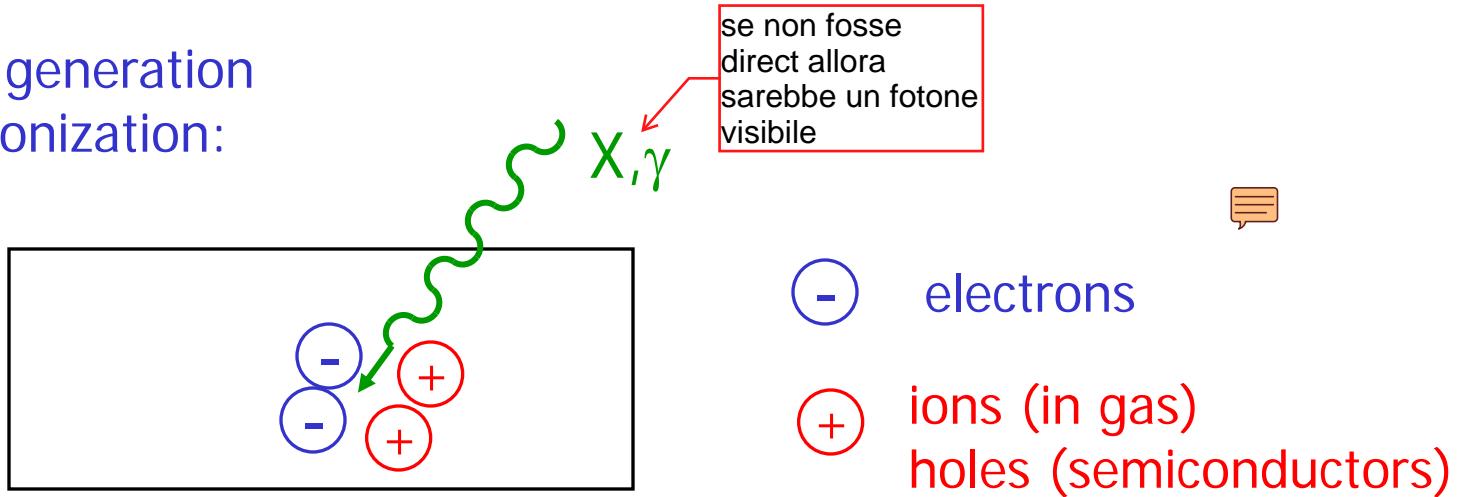
...provided that the det. has absorbed en E0 (cascade of 3 steps) => how much charge is created? (output electrode)

## Conversion *energy* → *electrical charge*

### CASO: DIRECT CONVERSION

for a given energy released by a detected photon, how much charge is created in the detector?

mechanism of generation of carriers by ionization:



Following the photon absorption in the material by one of the possible mechanisms (photoelectric, Compton, e-/e+ generation), the energy absorbed by the material causes the creation of electron-ion (hole) pairs. The creation of couples is related to a chain mechanism of further ionizations started by the first electron to which the energy has been released. The ionizations are due also to the re-absorption of possible fluorescence or Compton photons.

Direct conv. det.: energy released by g-rays create ions(gas) or el-holes pairs. NOT LISTED INDIRECT CONV. DET.

For one gamma-ray we don't have the creation of one el/hole pair for eg., but a generation of multiple cloud of charges. This is possible b/c the initial electron ejected in photoelectric-effect, it's very energetic [en gamma ray is not all absorbed for the ejection, but the surplus is transferred to the electron \*Ekinetic] and it goes around the crystal creating multiple couples of el/holes.

".. it's always better to have a larger signal" b/c when we have a signal there's always an intrinsic fluctuation :) [AUDIOOOOO]  
[S/N => sigma= sqrt(N) => n/sqrt(n)] **spiegazione:** signal dictated by poisson statistics => the fluctuation of the signal is sqrt(N), so if I calculate SNR = N / sqrt(N). So it's ALWAYS better to have a laerge signal!!! (\*N è la media?)

The generated charge si proportional to the photon energy:

$$Q = qE/\varepsilon$$

(q: e- charge)

conv. factor, we want it smaller  
energy E

the conversion factor  $\varepsilon$  is with good approx. independent from the energy and from the mechanism which has provided the absorption (generated charge amount proportional only to the energy released to the electrons responsible for the ionization)

the conversion factor  $\varepsilon$  determines the sensitivity of the detector and depends strongly on the type of material used

few examples:

Argon

$\varepsilon \sim 26$  eV for e-/ion pair

physically speaking: the cost the conversion to generate an el/hole pair. [NOT RELATED TO EN TO PASS FROM V->C, IT'S MUCH MORE COMPLEX AND FIGURE OF MERIT OF MANY THINGS!!]

Silicon

$\varepsilon \sim 3.6$  eV for e-/h pair

small in semiconductor, b/c the eg is small

Se-amorphous

$\varepsilon \sim 20$  eV for e-/h pair

bad in terms of signal gen :( large en. cost

CsI+PMT

$\varepsilon \sim 25$  eV for e-/h pair (scintillator+photodiode:  
indirect conversion)

**IMPORTANT:** independently that the energy released in material has been released by compton/photoel/pair, they count the same. Epsilon is not depneding from these, is just depeding on the material. Once the en. released in the material, we dont pay attention anymore about the mechanism that has released it, and we have a production of charge according to this factor.

## Few notes on detector materials:

detto prima:

- Silicon is an optimum material but is efficient only up to 10 –30 keV because of limited thickness that can be depleted in practice
- Germanium has a worse technology and has to be cooled to reduce the dark current
- gas detectors are intrinsically low efficient but they can be still used for X rays because they can be fabricated of large dimensions (even few tens of cm)
- scintillator materials, like CsI (see later), are not able to create charge by ionization but they are also used (indirect conversion) thanks to their optimal efficiency

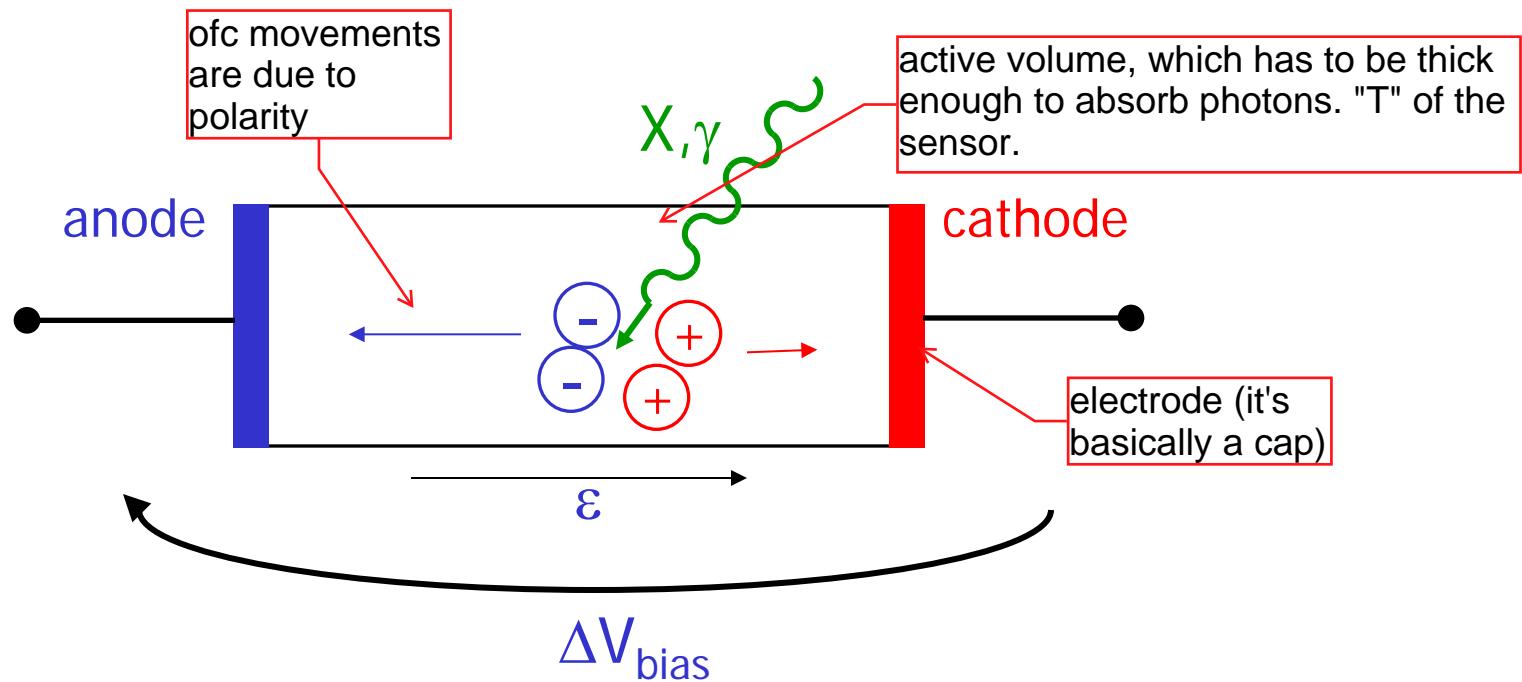
this was not told yet:

- there are semiconductor materials with high Z more efficient than Si (CdTe, HgI<sub>2</sub>, ...) but with problems of charge trapping. Moreover, the fabrication technology is still in the development phase

problem: a lot of impurities => trapping effect

ONLY FOR DIRECT

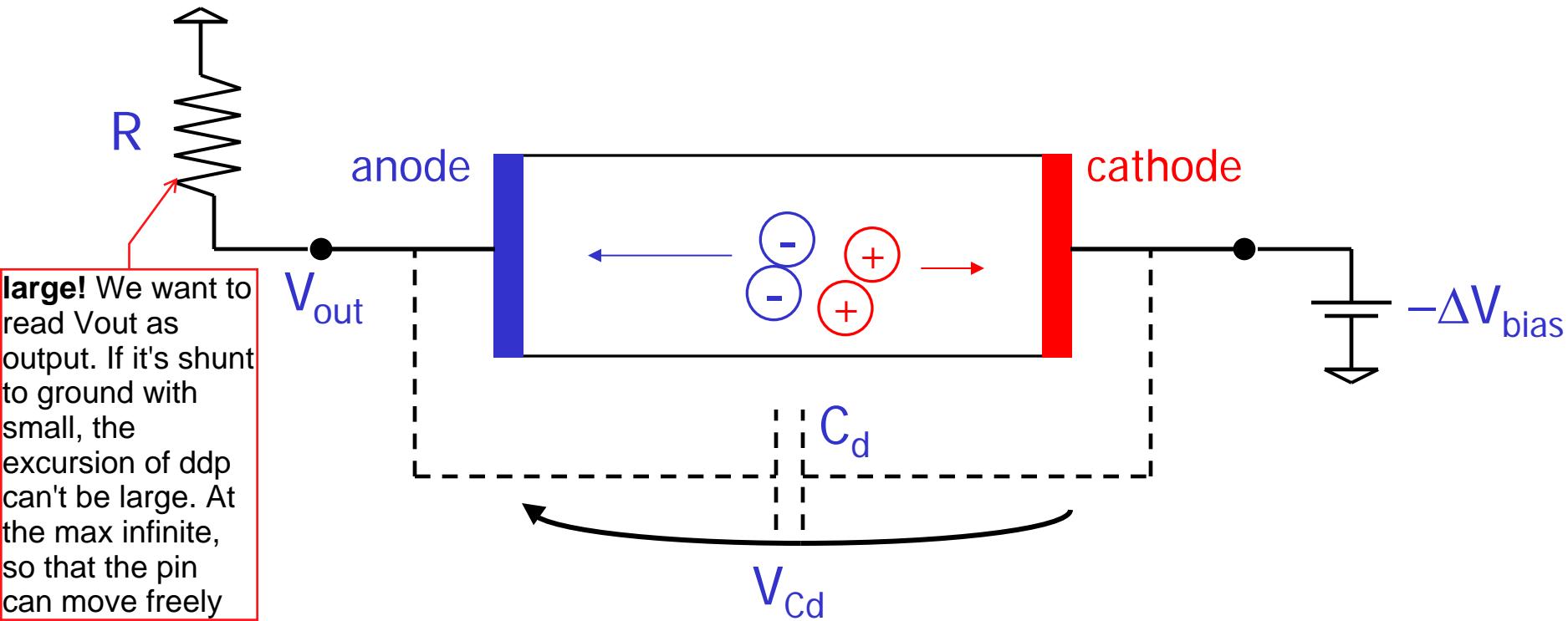
## Principle of a basic ionizing detector



the electric field  $\varepsilon$  generated by the application of the potential difference is responsible for the separation of the e- from the positive charges (ions or holes) and it makes the e- drift toward the anode and the positive charges toward the cathode

**IONIZING det:** the en. of photon is absorbed, and we have creation of couples of pos/neg charges. problem: they have to be separated and collected. Principle: not only material that creates charges pairs, but apply an elect. field which causes separation of charges. The charge separate -> induce signal in the two electrodes. At the end we have add a potential difference across the two plates. This is valid for many material. It can be a gas for example. **Gas** container + electrodes. In case of gas the positive charges are IONS (neg is electrons). **Semiconductor:** pn junction (reversely biased), positive charges: holes, volume must be depleted by mobile charges.

## HOW TO READ THE SIGNAL

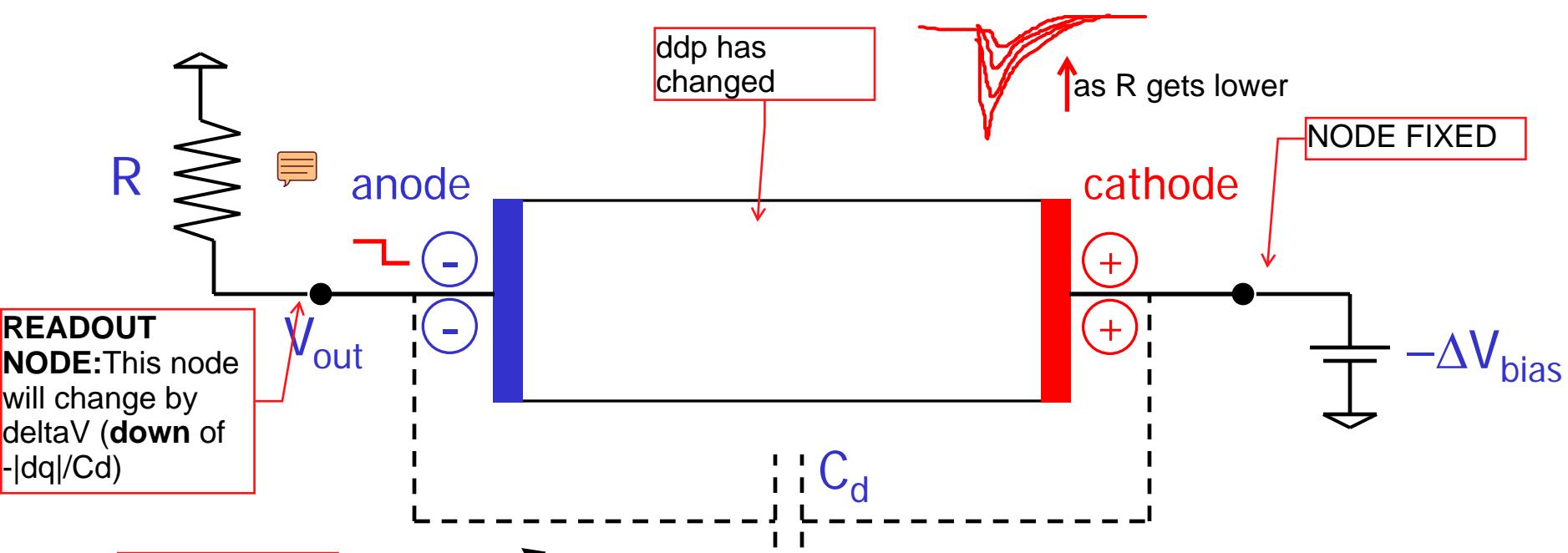


hypothesis: 1)  $R$  very large (at the limit  $\infty$ )

2) transient of charge of  $C_d$  to  $\Delta V_{bias}$  ended  $\Rightarrow V_{out}=0$

$\Rightarrow$  the charge induced on the electrodes by the motion of the charges acts to modify the voltage across  $C_d$ .  $V_{Cd}$  (initially equal to  $\Delta V_{bias}$ ) decreases and  $V_{out}$  becomes negative  
 (one supposes that the charge induced on the anode does not discharge to ground by means of  $R$ )

network RC classico, con  $C$  che inizia a caricarsi se all'inizio è scarico, con flowing di current su  $R$ . Una volta che è carico a  $\Delta V_{bias}$ ,  $V_{out} = 0V$ . (serie di  $R$ ,  $C$ , batteria). e la corrente diventa 0. [il componente è considerato  $C$ ]. quindi l'inizio è un transiente di un RC. Questo  $V_{bias}$  è il nostro electric field che volevamo per separare le charges.



\*Vbias

when the charges have reached the electrodes:

$$V_{Cd} = V_{Cd \text{ initial}} + \Delta V_{Cd} \quad \Delta V_{Cd} = -|\Delta Q|/C_d$$

$$\Delta V_{out} = \Delta V_{Cd} = -|\Delta Q|/C_d$$

extra charge  
(as the charge  $-\Delta Q$  has modified the total amount of charge present on the electrodes of  $C_d$ )

$$|\Delta Q| = qE/\epsilon \rightarrow \Delta V_{out} = -qE/(C_d\epsilon)$$

like to have small both.

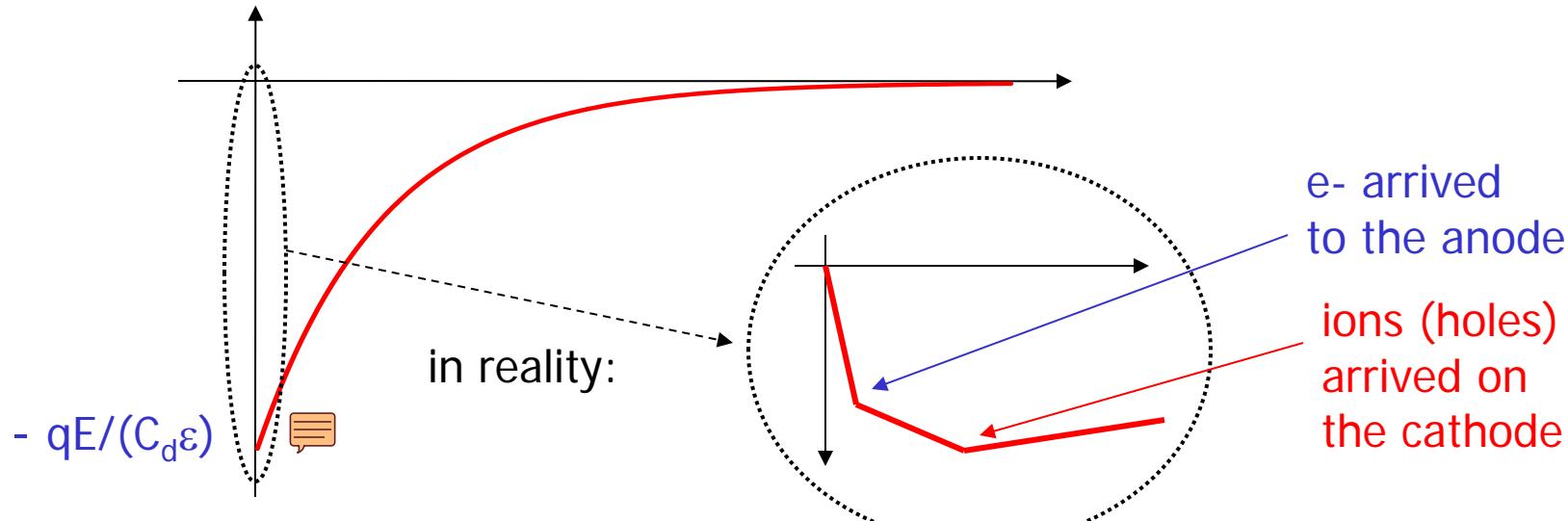
We have an EXTRA voltage across the capacitor! contribution. "extra" deltaV. drawn with the same sign as bias voltage, ofc it's negative. by the eq of cap we obtain the extraV. I connect Vout to an non inverting amplifier, for example (we need high impedance!!). if R is very large, the charge accumulated, we have a step and nothing happens. Otherwise, if R is low, the charge accumulated will flow in R.

## Effect of R: discharging C

R discharge the charge accumulated on the capacitance and restores  $V_{out}$  to 0

$$\Delta V_{out}(t) = - qE/(C_d\epsilon) \exp(-t/\tau)$$

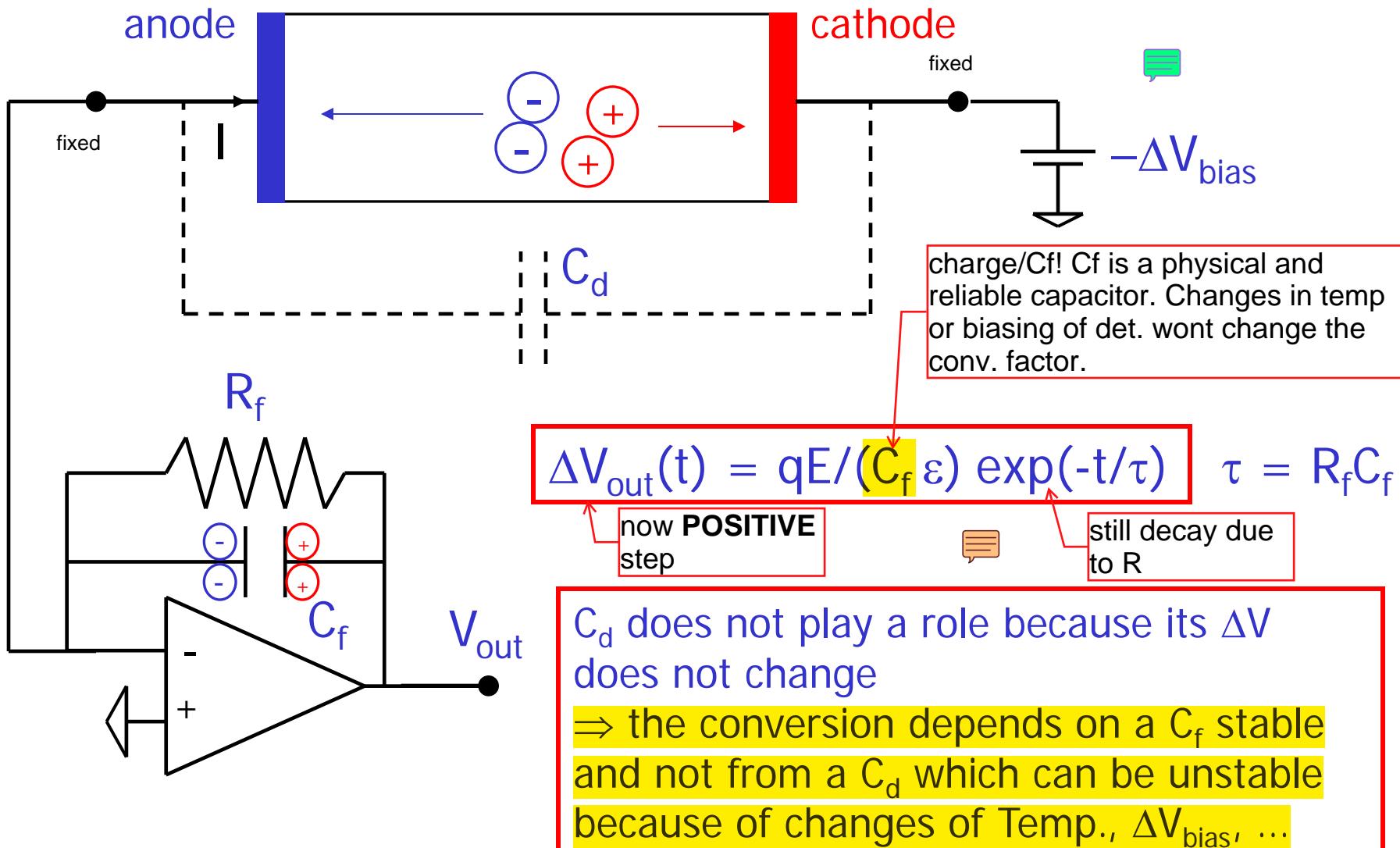
$$\tau = RC_d$$



- the discharge is needed to restore the detector to the equilibrium conditions, ready to receive a new pulse 
- further amplification and filtering of the signal has to use the signal front where the amplitude is the highest

R large: the larger the larger the step. **DRAWBACKS: pileup of pulses**: The events arrives randomly distributed in time (**characteristics of g/xrays**) distributed with poisson statistics. If we have a pulse, and a very large R, the tail of the amplitude of one pulse is "sitting" on the tail of a previous pulse. with a digitalizer we can subtract knowing a priory the shape (described indeed by the formula) and reconstruct correctly; or use small R

## Alternative configuration: the charge preamplifier



we dont integrate the charge across the det. itself, it's no more collected to R the anode, it's connected to virtual ground of an integrator. So now the ddp across Cd cannot change anymore. One is biased, the other to virtualGND. The signal is no more generated as variation of ddp, but the electrons do not change the anode voltage, they flow into the Cf!!(they cant go into -) THE CONVERSION IS MADE ON CF, TOTALLY FREE TO MOVE!