Toward sub-100 ps TOF-PET systems employing the FastIC ASIC with analog SiPMs

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Abstract—Time-of-flight positron emission tomography (TOF-PET) scanners demand electronics that are power-efficient, lownoise, cost-effective, and possess a large bandwidth. Recent developments have demonstrated sub-100 ps time resolution with elevated power consumption per channel, rendering this unfeasible to build a scanner. In this work, we evaluate the performance for TOF-PET of the FastIC front-end using different scintillators and silicon photomultipliers (SiPMs). FastIC is an 8-channel ASIC developed in CMOS 65 nm capable of measuring the energy and the arrival time of a detected pulse with 12 mW per channel. Using Hamamatsu SiPMs (S13360-3050PE) coupled to LSO:Ce:0.2%Ca crystals of 2 \times 2 \times 3 mm³ and LYSO:Ce:0.2%Ca of 3.13 \times 3.13 \times 20 mm³, we measured a CTR of (95 \pm 3) ps and 156 \pm 4) ps FWHM, respectively. With FBK NUV-HD LF2 M0 SiPMs coupled to the same crystals, we obtained a CTR of (76 \pm 2) ps and (127 ± 3) ps FWHM. We employed FastIC with a TICl pure Cherenkov emitter, demonstrating time resolutions comparable to those achieved with high-power-consuming electronics. These findings shows that FastIC represents a cost-effective alternative that can significantly enhance the time resolution of current TOF-PET systems while maintaining low power consumption.

Index Terms—ositron Emission Tomography, TOF-PET, photodetector technology, SiPM, scintillator, Fast Front-end electronics. ositron Emission Tomography, TOF-PET, photo-detector technology, SiPM, scintillator, Fast Front-end electronics. P

I. INTRODUCTION

New developments in scintillator-based detectors have significantly improved the image quality of time-of-flight positron emission tomography (TOF-PET) scanners, enabling improved lesion detection [1]–[3]. One of the key factors influencing image resolution in these systems is the coincidence time

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Manuscript received W, 2023; accepted X. Date of publication Y; date of current version Z.

resolution (CTR). CTR is affected by all the components of the detection chain, which compromises the scintillator, the optical sensor and the readout electronics [4].

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Silicon photomultipliers (SiPMs) are currently the most popular sensors for TOF-PET detectors due to their compactness, low cost and insensitivity to magnetic fields [5], [6]. These sensors exhibit excellent time resolution and can discern single-photon events [7], [8]. The contribution of SiPMs to the CTR of a PET detector is mainly determined by the photon detection efficiency (PDE) and the single-photon time resolution (SPTR) [9]. For scintillators, the main contributions come from the light transfer efficiency (LTE), the depth of interaction (DOI) and the emission probability of the optical photons, which is mainly governed by the intrinsic light yield (ILY) and the scintillation rise and decay time constants [10], [11]. Additionally, DOI and LTE are influenced by the index of refraction and the geometry of the scintillator [12], [13]. Finally, electronics play a key role in the time resolution performance of a TOF-PET system [14]. The contribution of the readout electronics to the detector time resolution is affected by the electronic noise of the front-end electronics and the slew rate (SR) achieved before discrimination for time pick-off [15], [16]. Due to the intrinsic capacitance of SiPMs, the electronic noise of the output pulses decreases with the area [15], [17]. Additionally, the internal parasitic resistances and capacitances could also affect the electronic jitter [15].

Standard scintillators based on LSO:Ce or LYSO:Ce are commonly employed in TOF-PET detectors due to their excellent timing response [18]. The prompt emission of pure Cherenkov radiators like TICl, TIBr or PbF₂ makes them particularly interesting for fast-timing applications [19]–[22]. Recently, BGO crystals have regained attention due to their ability to generate both Cherenkov and scintillation photons [23], [24]. Other approaches involve the use of heterostructures, which combine standard scintillators like LYSO or BGO with prompt emission scintillators [25], [26]. In the case of SiPMs, technology developed by Fondazione Bruno Kessler (FBK) has demonstrated a PDE close to 70% at 420 nm, a SPTR below 50 ps for a SiPM of 3 x 3 mm² and a crosstalk probability of around 10 % at 20 V of overvoltage [27], [28].

In literature, several application specific integrated circuits (ASICs) have been proposed for the readout of photo-detectors that can be used in PET applications, such as the NINO ASIC [29], the Weeroc family (PETIROC2A and more recently RA-DIOROC) [30], [31], the TOFPET2 [32], [33] ASIC developed by PETsys Electronics [34] and the FlexToT family [14],

This work did not involve human subjects or animals in its research.

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[35]–[38]. The best timing performance reported so-far was achieved using the so-called high frequency (HF) readout [16], [18], [39]. However, this solution implies the use of discrete components and requires a huge power consumption (\sim 720 mW/channel), which makes it almost impossible to be scaled to a large scanner involving tens of thousands detectors. Recent studies have demonstrated the possibility of achieving a similar performance while using lower-power amplifiers [40], [41]. But in this case the signal was digitized with an oscilloscope, meaning that the question on how to implement the proposed approach at the system level still remains open.

Several companies and institutions such as General Electric (GE), United Imaging, Philips, or UC Davis [3], [42]–[44] have developed TOF-PET scanners with a CTR in the range of 250-400 ps. The Siemens Biograph Vision digital PET/CT scanner provides the lowest CTR achieved at the system level, with a value of ≈ 178 ps [45]. Electronics have not been disclosed for those devices.

This work evaluates the application of a multi-channel frontend ASIC, known as FastIC [46], [47]. FastIC is a low-power ASIC designed for fast-timing applications. The study focuses on the evaluation of FastIC in conjunction with different scintillators and SiPMs for TOF-PET scanners. Furthermore, an assessment of the FastIC readout using pure Cherenkov emitters is provided. All measurements were conducted using detectors consisting of one single channel.

In Section II, the main characteristics of the FastIC ASIC and of the SiPMs and scintillators employed are described. Section III details the experimental setups employed. In Section IV, time and energy resolution measurements obtained with scintillators and a Cherenkov radiator are presented. Sections V and VI discuss the results and future improvements.

II. MATERIALS

In this section, the characteristics of the scintillators and SiPMs employed are described. Additionally, the main aspects of FastIC ASIC when configured for single-SiPM read-out mode are explained.

A. Scintillators

A variety of scintillators were used to evaluate the performance of the FastIC ASIC. Table I summarizes their characteristics, including their light yield, manufacturer, peak emission, and decay time. The scintillators were coupled to SiPMs using either Cargille Meltmount glue or Saint-Gobain BC-630 optical grease with refractive indices of $n_D = 1.582$ and $n_D = 1.465$ at 588 nm, respectively. All crystals were wrapped with at least three layers of Teflon. We also evaluated TICI crystal, a semiconductor material, manufactured at Radiation Monitoring Devices, Inc. (RMD, Watertown, MA) with dimensions of $3 \times 3 \times 5$ mm³. TICI produces prompt photon emission through Cherenkov emission, with approximately 19 generated photons for 511 keV gamma depositions [20], [21].

B. Silicon photomultipliers

Several SiPMs were utilized, all with comparable sensitive areas and pixel sizes. The technical specifications and characteristics of the different SiPMs employed are presented in table II.

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HPK S13360-3050CS/PE/VE sensors share similar technical attributes, differing primarily in their respective window materials. The S13360-3050CS SiPM, featuring a silicone resin window (n_D =1.41), exhibits superior sensitivity to near UV spectrum compared to the S13360-3050PE/VE, which has an epoxy resin window (n_D =1.55). The S14160-3050HS SiPM sensor also incorporates a silicone window, exhibiting similar PDE behaviour as the S13360-3050CS. The S14160-3050HS displays marginally lower PDE at 410 nm, but better SPTR compared to the S13360-3050CS/PE/VE [18]. Furthermore, both the S13360-3050VE and S14160-3050HS sensors integrate through-silicon via (TSV) technology, eliminating the need for wiring on the photosensitive area side.

Additionally, we evaluated new SiPMs developed by Fondazione Bruno Kessler (FBK), the FBK NUV-HD low field 2 non-mask (LF2 NM), FBK low field 2 mask 0 (LF2 M0), and FBK NUV-HD-metaltrenches low field mask 0 (MT LF M0) SiPMs. FBK NUV-HD LF2 NM and FBK NUV-HD LF2 M0 SiPMs are modified versions of the standard FBK NUV-HD [8], where the electric field has been engineered to be confined within the single photon avalanche diode (SPAD) [28]. This new engineered electric field improves the time resolution of the SiPMs [28]. The FBK NUV-HD LF2 NM and FBK NUV-HD LF2 M0 SiPMs differ primarily in that the latter employs a metal mask applied to the SPAD. This metal mask increases the fast component in the SPAD signal due to the increased quenching capacitance and helps to transport the electrical signal more efficiently to the SiPM anode, resulting in improved single photon time resolution [28]. FBK NUV-HD-MT LF M0 SiPM incorporates metal-filled deep trenches that isolate each SPAD, effectively confining the emitted photons during avalanche within the SPAD. These emitted photons have a high probability of being reflected by the metal trenches, thus not affecting neighboring SPADs. This significantly reduces crosstalk (approximately 10% at 20 V of overvoltage) compared to FBK NUV-HD, allowing for slightly improved photon detection efficiencies and better time resolution across a wider bias voltage range, particularly advantageous for large system applications [27].

C. FastIC

FastIC is an 8-channel ASIC developed in CMOS 65 nm technology that can be used for the readout of positive and negative polarity sensors with intrinsic gain, like photomultiplier tubes (PMTs), SiPMs or michochannel plates (MCPs). It has different configurations that are detailed in [46]. The configuration used in this study is shown in Fig. 1. In this configuration, each input signal outputs a signal with two binary pulses (see Fig. 2). The first binary pulses encoded the time of arrival (ToA) information in its rising edge and the width of the second pulse encode the amplitude information. To accomplish this, three copies of the input signal are produced in the input stage: one is used to extract the time information by using a time discriminator, another one is used for extracting the amplitude information and the last copy is

Composition	Manufacturer	Peak Emission (nm)	Effective decay time (ns)	ILY(ph keV ⁻¹)
LSO:Ce:0.2%Ca ^a	Agile	420	31.5	39.2
LYSO:Ce ^b	EPIC	420	42	29
LYSO:Ce ^c	Saint-Gobain	420	36	33.2
LYSO:Ce:0.2%Cad	Crystal Photonics Inc.	420	40	45
LYSO:Ce ^a	Crystal Photonics Inc.	420	38.6	41.1

TABLE I: Intrinsic characteristics of different scintillators used.

^b EPIC Crystal datasheet: https://www.epic-crystal.com/oxide-scintillators/ ^c Saint-Gobain datasheet: https://www.crystals.saint-gobain.com/ ^d Crystal Photonics Inc., Florida, United States.

TABLE II: Specifications of the SiPMs employed.

SiPM	Size (mm ²)	SPAD size (μm^2)	Breakdown(V)	Bias $(\mathbf{V})^a$	PDE (%)(λ nm)	Intrinsic SPTR (ps)
HPK S13360-3050CS/PE/VE ^a	3x3	50x50	51.8	62	62 (410)	135 ± 8
HPK S14160-3050HS ^a	3x3	50x50	38.0	48	60 (410)	117 ± 6
FBK NUV-HD LF2 NM	3.12x3.2	40x40	32.9	38	65 a (410)	65 ± 2 ^b
FBK NUV-HD LF2 M0	3.12x3.2	40x40	32.8	38	65 ^a (410)	50 ± 2^{b}
FBK NUV-HD-MT LF M0	3x3	40x40	32.5	42.5	68 ^c (420)	-

^a From [18]

^b From [28]

^c From [27]

used to produce a trigger, where the same type of discriminator used in the time branch is used. Additionally, FastIC has the capability to accept external trigger signals to validate the energy measurement. In the following, the architecture, signal generation, and FastIC module are explained in detail.

1) FastIC architecture: FastIC architecture is based on a three-branch signal processing which provides a precise timestamp, a linear energy measurement and triggering (see Fig. 1). The front-end stage consists of a low input impedance (approximately 20 Ω up to a few hundreds of MHz) high performance current mirror with two control feedbacks to ensure proper DC operation, maintain a linear behavior over the entire dynamic range and keep low the input impedance over the signal bandwidth. Moreover, it is compatible with a detector capacitance ranging from few pF to nF. The input stage has sufficient gain-bandwidth (GBW) to preserve pulse shapes as narrow as 5 ns full width half maximum (FWHM) unaltered, and low noise to guarantee single-photon detection with low electronic jitter contribution. Lastly, the input stage has a power consumption of approximately 3 mW. The input stage produces three copies of the input signal read out from the SiPM, with different amplification factors.

The time branch is connected to a leading-edge current comparator allowing to measure the ToA down to the single SPAD signal level. This branch determines the contribution of the ASIC to the time resolution. A non-linear time over threshold (ToT) measurement can also be provided. This nonlinear ToT provides a non-linear relation with respect to the number of detected photons, allowing to distinguish between the first few SPADs signals. A binary pulse is generated when the input signal crosses a fixed threshold, both on the rising and falling edges. This threshold can be adjusted by changing an internal register using the slow control mechanism via serial I2C bus available in the ASIC. The ToA is encoded in the rising edge and the ToT in the width of the generated binary pulse. It processes all the pulses that crosses the discriminator threshold. Its maximum rate is mainly limited by the shape of the input signal. Additionally, the leading edge comparator provides an indirect measurement of the collected charge encoded in the pulse width of the time signal. However, it is important to remark that this charge measurement based on the signal width is non-linear with respect to the number of detected photons, which complicates its use as an energy estimation, especially for large input signals.

The energy processing branch generates a binary pulse where the pulse width encodes the peak amplitude information of the detected signal, which is directly proportional to the collected charge. The peak amplitude of a SiPM provides a linear measurement of the number of detected photons as long as the SiPM response remains linear. The energy acquisition architecture is as follows. An attenuated (and configurable) copy of the input current is converted into voltage by using a transimpedance amplifier (TIA) with adjustable gain. The dynamic range is primarily constrained by the voltage headroom of this stage, which is determined by the low voltage rail of 1.2 V used in CMOS 65 nm technology. The TIA is designed with a GBW large enough to cope with fast signals down to 5 ns at FWHM, suitable for fast sensors such as PMTs or MCPs [46].

The signal pulse shape is conditioned through passive polezero cancellation and a first-order active integrator. The shaper circuit is designed to extend the duration of the rising edge of the input signal, effectively increasing its peaking time. This adjustment reduces the signal requirements (bandwidth and slew rate) of the subsequent stages. Additionally, it shortens the falling edge to reduce the recovery time or tail of the input signal. This helps mitigate pile-up effects resulting from correlated and non-correlated SiPM noisy pulses, such as dark counts, after-pulses, and delayed crosstalk.

After the signal conditioning, the peak detector and hold (PDH) block captures the peak amplitude, which corresponds to the maximum signal value. Simultaneously, a linear ramp (created by a constant current charging a capacitor) is generated and serves as a threshold for a rail-to-rail voltage

^a From [18]



Fig. 1: The block diagram illustrates FastIC's single readout channel for SiPMs suitable for TOF-PET applications.

discriminator. The linear ramp is compared with the detected peak to encode the energy response in the pulse width of a binary signal. Therefore, the time duration of the binary pulse generated by the comparator is linearly proportional to the detected peak amplitude (i.e. the amount of fired SPADs of the input signal) since both the ramp and the peak amplitude are linear. The pulse generation of the energy measurement is controlled by a synchronous finite state machine (FSM), and as a result, the system requires a clock signal to manage the data acquisition process. The same scheme for linearly extracting the amplitude information was used in the HRFlexToT ASIC, but the FastIC uses a synchronous FSM [14]. The maximum hit rate per channel of the linear energy measurement mode is limited to 2 MHz, determined by the duration of the ramp.

FastIC allows for three possibles way to validate events in the energy acquisition process: one way is by using the time signal, another one by using an external trigger signal and the last one is by using the internal trigger signals. The internal trigger signals are generated using the same type of comparator that is used in the time branch. Each channel has a low-level trigger option with a configurable threshold, thereby reducing the acquisition of non-significant data, such as dark counts, residual radiation, or low-energy signals. Additionally, a high-level (or cluster) trigger is generated by summing the input signals from all channels before the comparator. This trigger can be used in crystal configurations where the signal is distributed across multiple channels [48]. Furthermore, the internal trigger signal is accessible as an OR combination of the trigger signals from each channel.

Time and energy information are encoded as two consecutive pulses as shown in Fig. 2. The output driver can be configured as either CMOS single-ended or differential scalable low-Voltage signaling (SLVS) modes. Additionally, a speed analog driver capable of driving capacitive loads can be used to monitor the TIA, Shaper, and Peak Detector outputs, which is useful for debugging or waveform sampling. A differential SLVS output is available providing a logic OR between the time signals of all channels. This feature is valuable in cases where the significant signal is present only in the fastest channel, such as pixelated crystals, for example. Internal registers for controlling the ASIC's various configurations can be managed through a serial I2C bus. Finally, the total power consumption in single readout mode is approximately 12 mW per channel with the default configuration.

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2) FastIC signal generation: Fig. 2 summarizes the generation of the time and energy signals. The time signal is generated when the input signal's rising edge crosses the discriminator threshold ThTime, providing a ToA measurement. Its falling edge is produced when the input signal crosses back the discriminator threshold. Therefore, the width of the time signal contains non-lineal ToT information about the input signal. For SiPMs, this non-linear ToT measurement is on the order of hundreds of nanoseconds, so it is arbitrarily shortened to avoid overlap with the energy signal.

The energy signal requires a trigger (i.e. validation) signal to start the acquisition process. As previously stated, this is intended to avoid processing undesired events and, as a result, reduce unnecessary data processing. When an event is detected by any of the triggers, the peak detector holds the maximum amplitude of the shaper output (V_{PDH}) . After sampling the peak, a linear ramp begins with a DC level below the quiescent voltage of the PDH output. The rising edge of the energy pulse occurs when the ramp crosses the start of conversion threshold, labeled as Th_{SoC} . The falling edge of the energy pulse occurs when the ramp voltage crosses the value captured by the PDH. The end of conversion is detected when the ramp crosses the final threshold, labeled as Th_{EoC} . In this stage, the synchronous FSM prepares the system for a new acquisition by discharging the peak detector (setting the peak detector to operate in tracking mode) and resetting the ramp (the ramp will start again for a new event).

Two scenarios are foreseen for the generation of the energy



Fig. 2: Schematic representation of the generation of the FastIC time plus energy output signal and the energy acquisition mechanism employed to provide a linear ToT response.

pulse. In the absence of signal, for instance, when another channel has triggered the acquisition or when using an external trigger, the falling edge is generated when the ramp crosses the quiescent level of the PDH. This pulse, known as the pedestal or minimum energy pulse, captures baseline variations of the signal at the PDH stage. This pedestal must be acquired before operation (calibration phase) and must be subtracted from the energy pulse during data analysis for a precise energy measurement. In the other scenario, the energy measurement is achieved when the ramp crosses the peak voltage captured by the PDH (V_{PDH}).

3) FastIC Module: A custom module was designed for testing the FastIC ASIC. It consists of a stack of two printed circuit boards (PCBs), as shown in Fig. 3a. The Front-End board contains two FastIC ASICs, in order to handle up to 16 channels. Additionally, this PCB also contains power regulators and multiple connectors. The low-voltage terminal powers the ASICs, while the high-voltage terminal biases the SiPMs. This PCB is also equipped with multiple connectors that enable a direct connection to the input channels of the FastIC ASICs, allowing for the direct attachment of the SiPMs to the PCB.

Fig. 3b offers a detailed view of the control board located on the bottom. The bottom PCB houses an FPGA mainly used for slow control of the ASIC through a serial I2C bus and thereby it enables to configure the registers of the ASIC. It also contains a USB driver to communicate with a computer for the data analysis. Data acquisition can be performed by either reading the output signals from the Front-End board with an oscilloscope/digitizer or by employing an FPGA-based time-to-digital converter (TDC). This Control Board includes an FPGA-based TDC IP core with 17 channels, one for the trigger and sixteen for individual outputs. This block converts binary input signals into digital form by using the built-in fast carry-sum logic of the FPGA, known to be the highest-speed FPGA delay element. For this application, a Speed Grade 7 Intel MAX 10 FPGA was utilized, resulting in a differential non-linearity (DNL) or jitter of approximately 66 ps FWHM. In this work, the TDC is only employed to measure the energy resolution achieved with the FastIC, but its use can be extended for CTR measurements. We avoid using this TDC in CTR measurements to prevent a significant degradation in time resolution, which would mask the benefits of FastIC.

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III. METHODS

This section provides a comprehensive outline of the experimental configurations employed for assessing the performance of FastIC. A thorough description is provided for the energy spectroscopy and the CTR measurements for scintillators and Cherenkov radiators.

A. Energy resolution

The energy resolution was studied using a detector composed of an HPK S13360-3050PE SiPM coupled to a LYSO:Ce:0.2%Ca crystal of $3.13 \times 3.13 \times 20$ mm³. The crystal and the SiPM were coupled using Meltmount. The sensor signal was read by a FastIC ASIC and digitized by a TDC implemented in an FPGA.

The linearity of the energy branch was previously evaluated using an arbitrary waveform generator to inject an electrical pulse that emulated the SiPM response, achieving a linearity error of less than 3% across its entire dynamic range, which extends up to approximately 20 mA [47]. In SiPMs, the output pulse is proportional to the number of fired SPADs when this number is significantly different from the total number of SPADs in the device. When the number of fired SPADs crosses a certain number, the detector saturates. This number depends on the availability of SPADs to detect succeeding photons while a portion of the SPAD population is recovering from the detection of the preceding photons [49]. In this This article has been accepted for publication in IEEE Transactions on Radiation and Plasma Medical Sciences. This is the author's version which has not been fully edited and content may change prior to final publication. Citation information: DOI 10.1109/TRPMS.2024.3414578



Fig. 3: FastIC module designed to test the FastIC ASIC. a) Picture of the complete module showing the front-End board with two FastIC ASICs. b) Picture of the control board containing an Intel MAX 10 FPGA.



Fig. 4: Schematic representation of the experimental setup employed to evaluate the energy resolution.

case, the saturation effect of the S13360-3050PE SiPM was corrected employing the method detailed in [14]. This method calibrates the energy response measured in ns into keV by performing a linear regression of several calibration points. In this case, the characteristics peaks of the ²²Na source were employed, i.e., the 511 and 1.27 MeV photoelectric peaks and their corresponding Compton edge and backscatter peaks.

B. Coincidence Time Resolution using scintillators

The CTR was evaluated using the standard setup for TOF-PET detector assessment [14], [18] (see Fig. 5). In our setup, inorganic scintillators were coupled to SiPMs using Meltmount. The same setup was also employed to compare the performance of the FastIC with respect to HRFlexToT.

The setup operates as follows: a ²²Na source positioned in the center emitts a positron that is annihilated with an electron, resulting in the emission of two gamma photons



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Fig. 5: Schematic representation of the experimental setup for gamma coincidence measurements.

with anti-parallel linear momenta. These photons are converted by inorganic scintillators in optical photons that are collected by the analog SiPM generating an electronic signal. This signal is then processed by the FastIC. Time and energy outputs from each FastIC board are connected to an Agilent MSO9404 (4 GHz, 10GSa/s, 8 bits ADC) oscilloscope where the time delay between both time signals and the width of both energy signals are measured (Fig. 5). The time signal is obtained from the logic OR between the time signals from all channels (which corresponds to a single channel since only one SiPM is connected). The energy is obtained from the individual output per channel. In the scope, a 25 ns time coincidence window was set between both energy signals (Fig. 5). All measurements were taken in a light-tight box with the temperature stabilized at 18 °C and were saved in the PC for offline analysis.

Furthermore, a rate vs threshold scan (see Fig. 6) was performed under dark conditions for each SiPM connected to the FastIC board to determine the time threshold registers associated with different signal levels, such as single SPAD events, two SPAD events, and so forth. The time threshold comparator was set at single SPAD signal level for all measurements, while the internal trigger comparator was set to its maximum value to mitigate dark count interference.



Fig. 6: Stair-case plot obtained in dark conditions showing the correlation between signal level and threshold for the time discriminator.

Only gamma events with a measured energy within $[\mu - 0.5\sigma, \mu + \sigma]$ (with μ and σ the mean value and the standard deviation of the photopeak) were accepted. When a symmetrical $1\sigma_{\mu}$ range was applied, the CTR only degraded by a few picoseconds, falling within the margin of uncertainty. Finally, the resulting time delay distribution was fitted to a Gaussian function, and the CTR was determined as the FWHM of the Gaussian fit.

Small scintillator crystals of size $2 \times 2 \times 3 \text{ mm}^3$ were used to study the time resolution limits of FastIC. Additionally, CTR was investigated with crystals of different sizes, with a focus on 20 mm long crystals similar to those used in commercial TOF-PET systems. A comparative study of the time resolution of crystals from different manufacturers was conducted. To perform this evaluation, a setup similar to the one shown in Fig. 5 was used. In this case, one detector was composed of LSO:Ce:0.2%Ca measuring $2 \times 2 \times 3 \text{ mm}^3$ while the other detector had the crystal under study. This detector had a detector time resolution (DTR = CTR/ $\sqrt{2}$) of 67 ± 3 ps. Both crystals were coupled to HPK S13360-3050PE SiPMs using Meltmount. Therefore, any differences in time resolution between the crystals can be attributed to their intrinsic timing properties (see Table I).

C. Time resolution using pure Cherenkov radiators

In this case, an LSO:Ce:0.2%Ca crystal measuring $2 \times 2 \times 5$ mm³ coupled with BC-630 grease to an HPK S13360-3050CS SiPM was used as a reference detector. This reference detector had a DTR of 78 ± 3 ps. Both the Cherenkov radiator and the LSO:Ce:0.2%Ca crystal were wrapped in Teflon to maximize light collection. Signal acquisition was conducted similarly to that of scintillator detectors. In these measurements, the internal trigger discriminator threshold was set at the two SPAD signal level for the Cherenkov detector to reduce the rate of accidental triggers caused by dark counts. The time discriminator threshold for the reference detector and Cherenkov detector was set to the single SPAD signal level for optimal time measurement.

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The same energy window was applied to the reference detector spectra, discarding all events with measured energies out of the range $[\mu - 0.5\sigma, \mu + \sigma]$. Then, another energy window was applied to the Cherenkov detector spectra to select the desired events. The time distribution obtained by selecting these events was fitted to an exponentially modified Gaussian function that accounts for the characteristic long tail that appears in this detector. This tail is caused by photons that arrive later due to reflections in the back and sides of the crystal [19].

IV. FASTIC PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

Building upon previous findings [47], we delve into specific aspects of FastIC performance. Firstly, we discuss the results related to energy resolution. Subsequently, we compare the performance of FastIC with respect to HRFlexToT across a wide range of overvoltages. Then, we present detailed CTR measurements using various types and lengths of scintillators. Finally, an evaluation of FastIC readout with Cherenkov radiators is presented.

A. Energy resolution

Fig. 7 shows the energy spectrum of the ²²Na radiation source after calibration. The detector consisted of a LYSO:Ce:0.2% Ca crystal of size $3.13 \times 3.13 \times 20$ mm³ coupled to an HPK S13360-3050PE SiPM and read by FastIC. SiPM was biased at 3 V of overvoltage. In this measurement, only the energy signal from the FastIC output was recorded. This allows for a linear ToT measurement of the SiPM signal amplitude. In Fig. 7, the two characteristics peaks can be seen from ²²Na decay, one at 511 keV corresponding to the gamma photon emitted after the positron annihilation and another one at 1.27 MeV corresponding to gamma photon emmitted by the ²²Ne unstable state. Compton edges from each gamma photon can also be appreciated. The assessed energy resolution was 9 % FWHM at 511 keV.

B. CTR performance of the FastIC vs HRFlexToT

In Fig. 8, the performance of FastIC over a wide range of overvoltages was compared to HRFlexToT [14] when both were connected to HPK \$13360-3050CS coupled to



Fig. 7: Energy spectra obtained from ²²Na after calibration. The red line represents the Gaussian fit applied to the 511 keV photopeak. A LYSO:Ce:0.2%Ca crystal of $3.13 \times 3.13 \times 20$ mm³ was coupled to HPK S13360-3050PE SiPM, which was biased at 3 V of overvoltage. This measurement was performed using the energy path (linear ToT) of the FastIC.

LSO:Ce:0.2%Ca crystals measuring $2 \times 2 \times 5 \text{ mm}^3$. The crystals were coupled to the SiPMs using Saint Gobain BC-630 optical grease. With both electronics, the CTR improves with the SiPM overvoltage up to 6 V, reaching a plateau thereafter. HRFlexToT achieved a minimum CTR of 120 ± 3 ps at 8 V of overvoltage, while FastIC yielded a minimum CTR of 107 ± 3 ps at 7 V overvoltage, representing an improvement of around $\approx 11\%$.



Fig. 8: Measured CTR as a function of SiPM's overvoltage for HRFlextot and FastIC. For both ASICs the same LSO:Ce:0.2%Ca crystals measuring $2 \times 2 \times 5$ mm³ and HPK S13360-3050CS SiPMs were employed.

C. CTR performance using different scintillators

This subsection presents the CTR performance of FastIC when coupled with various combinations of SiPMs and scintillators.

1) Timing perfomance with short crystals: Fig. 9 displays the CTR measurement for the FBK NUV-HD LF2 M0 coupled to LSO:Ce:0.2%Ca crystals measuring $2 \times 2 \times 3$ mm³ using Meltmount. In this measurement, the overvoltage was set at 6.1 V and the time discriminator threshold was at the single SPAD signal level. Fig. 9 a) and 9 b) present the energy spectra for each detector. The 511 keV photopeak corresponds to pulse widths of \sim 270 ns. The Compton edge is found at pulse widths of ~ 250 ns. We attribute the peak at low pulse widths (below 50 ns) to a combination of dark counts and optical crosstalk. Additionally, another peak can be observed in both spectra towards the end of the spectra, with a width value larger than the photopeak. This peak appears due to the 1.27 MeV gamma photon corresponding to the ²²Ne unstable state. In Fig. 9 c), the time distribution of the events resulting from the acceptance energy window (see section III.B) is shown. These acceptance windows are shown in green in Fig 9 a) and 9 b). Additionally, the computed CTR is displayed, being 76 ± 2 ps.

A CTR of 95 \pm 3 ps was obtained when using HPK S13360-3050PE SiPMs, as illustrated in Fig. 10 c). Fig. 10 a) and b) present the energy spectra of the sodium source. In this measurement, the peak caused by a mix of dark counts and crosstalk does not appears. This discrepancy may be attributed to the fact that we employed a higher threshold in the trigger detector compared to the configuration with FBK NUV-HD LF2 M0 SiPMs, resulting in the exclusion of these events. The employment of a higher threshold arose due to a constraint in FastIC: the same register controls the step size of both the trigger and time discriminator thresholds in FastIC. Given that FBK NUV-HD LF2 M0 SiPMs produce smaller singlephoton signals, we had to make adjustments to the step value used in the time discriminator threshold for these SiPMs. Consequently, these adjustments changed the maximum value at which the trigger discriminator threshold could be set, being lower for the case of FBK SiPMs.

In table III, we present the achieved CTR for different sensors, along with the corresponding overvoltage settings for each SiPM. In general we found better results with the LSO:Ce:0.2%Ca crystal than with the LYSO:Ce one. This can be attributed to the superior time constants exhibited by the former crystal when compared to the latter (see table I). This is already reported in [18]. Another point is that we have found better results with the new FBK sensors in comparison to the Hamamatsu Sensors. This advancement enables achieving a CTR below 80 ps for the FBK NUV-HD LF2 M0 SiPM. This reduction in CTR can be attributed to the lower intrinsic SPTR performance of the FBK SiPMs (see table II) [28]. Additionally, the FBK NUV-HD LF M0 SiPM appears to yield similar results than FBK NUV-HD LF NM SiPM. This is in accordance with results reported in [28]. Finally, the FBK NUV-HD LF MT provides a similar time resolution to the FBK NUV-HD LF2 M0 when using a LYSO:Ce crystal. Note that



Fig. 9: CTR measurement with LSO:Ce:0.2%Ca measuring Fig. 10: CTR measurement with LSO:Ce:0.2%Ca measuring $2 \times 2 \times 3$ mm³ coupled to FBK NUV-HD LF2 M0 SiPM at $2 \times 2 \times 3$ mm³ coupled to HPK S13360-3050PE SiPM at 8 V 6.1 V of overvoltage.

of overvoltage.

the operating overvoltage of the MT SiPM could be extended up to 18 V excess bias voltage due to its much lower crosstalk. In the case of Hamamatsu SiPMs, all three yield similar time resolution, with the CTR being around 95 ps. This suggest that the use of TSV in HPK S13360-3050VE and HPK S14160-3050HS sensors does not degrade CTR performance.

2) CTR using LYSO:Ce:%0.2Ca of different lengths: CTR measurements for LYSO:Ce:0.2%Ca crystals of different lengths coupled to FBK NUV-HD LF2 M0 SiPM through Meltmount are presented in Fig. 11. The crystals had a crosssection of $3.13 \times 3.13 \text{ mm}^2$. The best overvoltage setting was employed for each case. As expected and as it was shown in [50], the CTR increases with the crystal length. This phenomenon arises from the fact that as the crystal length increases, the depth of interaction (DOI) and travel time spread of the optical photons exert a larger impact on CTR [19]. Futhermore, as the crystal length increases, the light transfer efficiency deteriorates, leading to a reduction in the number of photons reaching the photodetector [51]. The asymptotic behavior is induced by the gamma interaction probability, which decays exponentially from the entrance of the crystal until the interaction length of approximately 12 mm [50].

Fig. 12 and 13 depict the CTR measurements for the LYSO:Ce:0.2%Ca crystal measuring $3.13 \times 3.13 \times 20$ mm³, when coupled to the FBK NUV-HD LF2 M0 SiPM and the HPK S13360-3050PE SiPM, respectively. Upon comparing both measurements, it can be deduced that the FBK NUV-HD LF2 M0 SiPM outperforms the HPK S13360-3050PE in terms of time resolution, which is consistent with the measurements of the LSO:Ce:0.2%Ca crystal of size $2 \times 2 \times 3$ mm³.

3) Performance evaluation of scintillators from various manufacturers: In table IV, we present the CTR results obtained using LYSO crystals from different manufacturers. The variations in CTR between these measurements are attributable to the contribution of the LYSO crystal, as the reference detector remained constant. The LYSO:Ce crystal, measuring $3 \times 3 \times 20$ mm³ from EPIC, achieved a time resolution of 125 ± 4 ps. Meanwhile, using a similar-sized



Fig. 11: Measured CTR for different crystal lengths using FBK NUV-HD LF2 M0 SiPMs. The crystals used were LYSO:Ce:0.2%Ca with sections of 3.13×3.13 mm².

LYSO:Ce crystal from Saint-Gobain resulted in a CTR of 120 \pm 4 ps. Similarly, the LYSO:Ce:0.2%Ca crystal, sized at $3.13 \times 3.13 \times 20$ mm³ from Crystal Photonics, also exhibited a CTR of 120 ± 4 ps. Consequently, all three crystals demonstrated comparable timing performances and no significant difference was found between them.

D. Effects of the energy window selection on the time resolution

As previously detailed in section III, only events with measured energies within the range $[\mu - 0.5\sigma, \mu + \sigma]$ (where μ represents the mean value and σ denotes the standard deviation of the photopeak) were selected for all data analysis to demonstrate the ASIC's performance within a systematic energy window. Table V displays the achieved CTR when varying the energy window for LSO:Ce:0.2%Ca crystals measuring $2 \times 2 \times 3$ mm³ and LYSO:Ce:0.2%Ca crystals measuring $3.13 \times 3.13 \times 20$ mm³, both connected to FBK NUV-HD LF2 M0 SiPMs. All measurements employs the FBK NUV-

TABLE III: The CTR was measured for various SiPMs when coupled to an LSO:Ce:0.2%Ca from Agile or LYSO:Ce crystal from CPI, both measuring $2 \times 2 \times 3$ mm³, each operating at its optimal overvoltage setting.

	LSO:Ce:0.2%Ca 2x2x3 mm ³	LYSO:Ce 2x2x3 mm ³
SiPM	CTR (ps) [overvoltage (V)]	CTR (ps) [overvoltage (V)]
FBK NUV-HD LF2 M0	$76 \pm 2 \ [6.1]$	95 ± 3 [6.0]
FBK NUV-HD LF2 NM	82 ± 5 [6.1]	-
FBK NUV-HD-MT LF M0	-	94 ± 3 [17.0]
HPK S13360-3050VE	95 ± 3 [7.0]	-
HPK \$14160-3050HS	96 ± 3 [4.5]	-
HPK \$13360-3050PE	95 ± 3 [8.0]	-



Fig. 12: CTR measurement with LSO:Ce:0.2%Ca measuringFig. 13: CTR measurement with LSO:Ce:0.2%Ca measuring $3.12 \times 3.12 \times 20 \text{ mm}^3$ coupled to FBK NUV-HD LF2 M0 SiPM $3.12 \times 3.12 \times 20 \text{ mm}^3$ coupled to FBK NUV-HD LF2 M0 SiPMat 8.1 V of overvoltageat 9 V of overvoltage

TABLE IV: Comparison of different LYSO crystals of commercial size using a reference detector with a LSO:Ce:0.2%Ca of size $2 \times 2 \times 3$ mm³. The SiPMs used were the HPK S13360-3050PE.

Crystal (Manufacturer)	Size (mm ³)	CTR (\pm 4 ps FWHM)
LYSO:Ce:0.2%Ca (Crystal Photonics)	$3.13 \times 3.13 \times 20$	120
LYSO:Ce (Saint-Gobain)	$3 \times 3 \times 20$	120
LYSO:Ce (EPIC)	$3 \times 3 \times 20$	125

HD LF2 M0 SiPMs and at least 20K events were employed to compute the CTR.

A minor degradation in CTR is observed when expanding the energy window from 1σ to 3σ from the mean photopeak value, while the fraction of employed coincidence events increases by a factor of 2. Furthermore, expanding the selected window towards the higher-energy side of the photopeak enhances the sensitivity without degrading the time performance, aligning with expectations [18]. Lastly, a larger fraction of detected events is observed for larger crystals, as expected due to the increased crystal longitude, which increases the probability of interaction between the gamma photon and the crystal.

E. CTR perfomance using pure Cherenkov radiators

In Fig. 14, we present the CTR measurement using a TICl crystal measuring $3 \times 3 \times 5$ mm³, coupled to HPK S13360-3050CS. This measurement was conducted with an overvoltage of 5 V, and the FastIC time discriminator threshold was set at the level of a single SPAD signal. In Fig. 14 a), the energy spectra recorded by the reference detector can be seen. Fig. 14 b) displays the energy spectra recorded by the

Cherenkov detector when selecting coincidences detections with the 511 keV events detected by the reference detector, as highlighted with the green window in Fig. 14 a). The peaks corresponding to events from 2 to 8 triggered SPADs can be clearly identified. Events with 0 triggered SPADs have a nonzero energy width. This is due to the fact that the pedestal of the energy signal was not subtracted. This minimum energy value in absence of an event is designed to be used to calibrate channel to channel variations, as explain in section II. In Fig. 14 c), we show the time distribution of events corresponding to 8 triggered SPADs, as highlighted in the blue window in Fig. 14 b), resulting in a CTR of 340 ± 11 ps. Finally, in Fig. 15, the CTR obtained when selecting the events for each number of triggered SPADs is presented. This curve exhibits the same traits as those reported for TICl in [21] and for TIBr in [22], a pure Cherenkov emitter with very similar properties.

Looking at the coincidence time delay as function of the number of triggered SPADs shown in Fig. 16 a), time walk effects can be observed. This time walk arises from the fact, that the signal slope generated by the SiPM increases with the number of triggered SPADs. Since the FastIC uses a leading-edge comparator, events with higher number of fired

 80 ± 2

 80 ± 2

 127 ± 4

 130 ± 4

 130 ± 4

 129 ± 4

 129 ± 4

 131 ± 4

 130 ± 4

 131 ± 4

11

nergy wi	indows.			
]	Crystal [Size (mm ³)]	Energy window	CTR (ps FWHM)	Fraction of events employed (%)
	LSO:Ce:0.2Ca [2x2x3]	$[\mu - 0.5\sigma, \mu + \sigma]$	76 ± 2	1,9
		$[\mu - \sigma, \mu + \sigma]$	77 ± 2	3.0
		$(FWHM)[\mu-1.18\sigma, \mu+1.18\sigma]$	78 ± 2	3.7
		$[\mu - 1.5\sigma, \mu + 2\sigma]$	79 ± 2	5.0
		$[\mu$ -1.5 σ , μ +5 σ]	79 ± 2	5.3
		$[\mu-2\sigma, \mu+2\sigma]$	79 + 2	56

 $(FWTM^{a})$ [μ -2.15 σ , μ +2.15 σ]

 $\frac{[\mu-3\sigma, \ \mu+3\sigma]}{[\mu-0.5\sigma, \ \mu+\sigma]}$

 $[\mu - \sigma, \mu + \sigma]$ (FWHM)[μ -1.18 σ, μ +1.18 σ]

 $[\mu - 1.5\sigma, \mu + 2\sigma]$

 $[\mu - 1.5\sigma, \mu + 5\sigma]$

 $[\mu-2\sigma, \mu+2\sigma]$ (FWTM^a) $[\mu-2.15\sigma, \mu+2.15\sigma]$

[μ-3σ, μ+3σ]

TABLE V: CTR performance and fraction of employed events with respect to the total number of acquired events for different energy windows.

^a The FWTM stands for the full width tenth maximum.

LYSO:Ce:0.2Ca [3.13x3.13x20]



Fig. 14: Measured CTR between the reference and the Cherenkov detector. a) and b) shows the energy spectra for the reference and Cherenkov detector, respectively. c) displays the time distribution of the detected delay times with the Gaussian fitted function.

SPADs cross the threshold at shorter times. This behaviour is well understood and has been previously reported with laser measurements [7], sole Cherenkov radiators [19] and also for a mixture of Cherenkov radiation and standard scintillation [52]. To correct the time walk, the CTR and the mean measured energy for the different peaks in the energy spectra were calculated, obtaining one point for each number of triggered SPADs (red points in Fig. 16 a)). An exponential function was fitted to these points (red dashed line in 16 a)). Using this exponential fitted function to correct the time walk allowed to significantly improve the measured CTR in terms of FWHM from 520 \pm 5 ps to 435 \pm 6 ps when using all event recorded in the Cherenkov detector (Fig. 16 b)) . Furthermore, the CTR decreased from 431 ± 7 ps to 387 ± 7 ps after time walk correction (Fig. 17), when using a narrower event selection window in the Cherenkov energy spectra (from a minimum of 6 triggered SPADs and beyond. Fig. 17 (c)).

5.8

6.3

2.9

4.5

5.2

7.1

7.5

8.1

8.5

9.3



Fig. 15: CTR as a function of the number of triggered SPADs for the Cherenkov detector.



Fig. 16: a) 2D histogram of time of arrival and energy width with the fitted function shown, as well as the points used for the fitting. b) Time distribution after time walk correction when using all event recorded in the Cherenkov detector.



Fig. 17: a) Time distribution without time walk correction. b) Time distribution after time walk correction c) Energy spectra recorded by Cherenkov detector when selecting in coincidence the 511 keV events. The green window shows the events selected for the computation of the time distributions showed in a) and b).

V. DISCUSSION

The new multipurpose FastIC ASIC has demonstrated excellent timing and energy resolution, with a power consumption per channel on the order of ≈ 12 mW. When utilizing FastIC, a CTR below 100 ps can be achieved for short crystals, approaching 70 ps for a short LSO:Ce:0.2%Ca crystal of 2 $\times 2 \times 3$ mm³ coupled to the FBK NUV-HD LF2 M0 SiPMs. The use of FastIC in combination with these new SiPMs demonstrates impressive timing resolution even for 20 mm long LYSO crystals, providing a CTR below 130 ps. In this regard, the results indicate that LYSO crystals from different manufacturers yield similar time resolution. Additionally, we have demonstrated that FastIC can process pulses generated by prompt photons produced by Cherenkov radiators.

The best CTR obtained using FastIC was 76 ± 2 ps. This is close to the CTR of 60 ± 3 ps obtained in [18] for the same LSO:Ce:0.2%Ca crystal of $2 \times 2 \times 3$ mm³ crystal coupled to the previous FBK SiPM technology (NUV-HD), connected to a HF front-end electronic and digitized using a fast oscilloscope [39] (table VI). The timing performance degraded to 127 ± 4 ps for a LYSO:Ce:0.2%Ca crystal measuring $3.13 \times 3.13 \times 20$ mm³ coupled to the FBK NUV-HD LF2 M0. This behavior was expected, as DOI and optical travel transfer effects have a bigger impact on timing resolution when increasing crystal length [50]. Measurements performed with the HF electronics and digitized with a fast oscilloscope yielded a CTR of 107 ± 3 ps for an LYSO:Ce:0.2%Ca crystal of $3 \times 3 \times 20$ mm³ coupled to FBK NUV-HD LF2 M0 [28].

The performance difference between both electronics could arise from various sources. One possible explanation could be that HF has lower electronic noise ($\sigma_{\text{elec.noise}}$) than FastIC. This implies that HF may have a lower electronic jitter contribution, as this contribution scales as $\sigma_{\text{elec.noise}}$ /SR. Another explanation could be attributed to the electronics bandwidth. A low bandwidth may affect the rising edge of the SiPM's signal, subsequently impacting the SR of the signal. HF has a 1.5 GHz bandwidth [39], whereas FastIC has a bandwidth in the order of hundred's of MHz. Although, the effective bandwidth also depends on the parasitic inductance and SiPM's capacitance [53] and thus the differences in the electronics bandwidth could be less significant. Additionally, the setup with HF electronics and a fast oscilloscope features an ideal comparator in the sense that the time of arrival is extracted through an offline leading edge comparator algorithm after measuring the analog response of the SiPM with an oscilloscope. This differs from FastIC, which includes a current comparator on-chip that affects the time response, i.e., it adds jitter to the measurement (see fig. 1).

In Table VI, a comparison of the performance demonstrated by several ASICs for fast-timing applications and the HF electronics measured by other groups is presented. In this work, we demonstrated that with FastIC we could improve the CTR with respect to its predecessor, HRFlexToT, by $\approx 11\%$. It's worth noting that the HRFlexToT consumes only ≈ 3.5 mW/ch compared to the ≈ 12 mW/ch of the FastIC. The FastIC has a larger power consumption for several reasons. First, it provides a differential output, whereas the HRFlexToT has a single-ended output. The differential transmission has a larger power consumption, but it improves the signal integrity due to lower crosstalk in the signal transmission path. Moreover, the FastIC is a multipurpose ASIC capable of processing fast short pulses of a few ns FWHM, which is typical of PMTs, and thus requiring more power to have a larger bandwidth in the energy processing chain. In contrast, the HRFlexToT is specifically designed for PET applications. Therefore, the power consumption of the FastIC could be optimized if it were modified to work exclusively for PET applications. Lastly, a common advantage of both ASICs compared to HF electronics is that time and energy information are encoded in a single processing channel, whereas in HF electronics, energy and time are processed separately, requiring twice the resources.

Recent measurements with Radioroc ASIC from Weeroc demonstrated a CTR of ≈ 83 ps when using LYSO:Ce:0.2%Ca crystals measuring $2 \times 2 \times 3$ mm³ coupled to Broadcom NUV-MT SiPMs, and ≈ 127 ps when extending the size of the LYSO crystal to $3 \times 3 \times 20$ mm³. Although both crystals and SiPMs in this measurement differed from those employed for the evaluation of the FastIC ASIC, their performance was rather similar, allowing for a fair comparison between the ASICs. However, the performance of FastIC using a 20 mm long LYSO crystal could be deteriorated due to a potential loss of light, as the dimensions of the crystal section (3.13×3.13 mm²) are similar to those of the SiPM (3.12 × 3.2 mm²).

Table VI also details that FastIC outperforms the wellknown TOF-PET ASIC called TOFPET2, designed by PETsys Electronics. However, TOFPET2 includes an internal TDC for data digitization, while FastIC requires an external TDC implemented in an FPGA to build a system (or an oscilloscope for experimental evaluation). The usage of an external FPGA-based TDC to build a complete detector module was successfully studied with the HRFlexToT [54] and FastIC [55]. Therefore, this proves the scalability of the FastIC for building a system, despite not having an internal TDC.

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4	2)

	D	Crystal (Producer)	SiPM	Data acquisition		
ASIC	rower (mW/channel)	size(mm ³)	[size(mm ²)]	method ^e	CTR (ns)	Reference
ASIC	(Invv/channel)	LYSO:Ce:Ca (TAC)		inctiou	CIR (ps)	Kelerence
TOFPET2	8.2	3×3×19	Broadcom NUV-MT [3.8×3.8]	TDC ≈ 20 ps ^a	157 ± 1	[56], [57]
-		LSO:Ce:Ca (AGILE)				
HRFlexToT	3.5	2×2×5	HPK S13360-3050CS [3×3]	Oscilloscope	120 ± 3	This work
		LSO:Ce:Ca (AGILE)		Oscilloscope		
HF readout	720	$2 \times 2 \times 3$	FBK NUV-HD [4×4]	+ ideal comparator	60 ± 3	[18]
		LYSO:Ce:Ca (TAC)		Oscilloscope		
HF readout	143	3×3×20	FBK NUV-HD LF2 M0 [3×3]	+ ideal comparator	107 ± 3	[28]
		LYSO:Ce:Ca (TAC)		Oscilloscope		
HF readout	143	$2 \times 2 \times 3$	Broadcom NUV-MT [3.8×3.8]	+ ideal comparator	56 ± 2	[56]
		LYSO:Ce:Ca (TAC)		Oscilloscope		
HF readout	143	3×3×19	Broadcom NUV-MT [3.8×3.8]	+ ideal comparator	95 ± 2	[56]
		LYSO:Ce:Ca (TAC)				
Radioroc	b	$2 \times 2 \times 3$	Broadcom NUV-MT [4×4]	Oscilloscope	83 ± 3	[31], [58]
		LYSO:Ce:Ca (TAC)				
Radioroc	b	$3 \times 3 \times 20$	Broadcom NUV-MT $[4 \times 4]$	Oscilloscope	127 ± 3	[31], [58]
		LSO:Ce:Ca (Agile)				
FastIC	12	$2 \times 2 \times 3$	FBK NUV-HD LF2 M0 [3.12×3.2]	Oscilloscope	76 ± 2	This work
		LYSO:Ce:Ca (CPI)				
FastIC	12	$3.13 \times 3.13 \times 20$	FBK NUV-HD LF2 M0 [3.12×3.2]	Oscilloscope	127 ± 2	This work
		LSO:Ce:Ca (AGILE)				
FastIC	12	$2 \times 2 \times 5$	HPK \$13360-3050CS [3×3]	Oscilloscope	107 ± 3	This work
		LYSO:Ce:Ca (CPI)				
FastIC	12	$3.13 \times 3.13 \times 20$	HPK \$13360-3050PE [3×3]	Oscilloscope	156 ± 4	This work
		LSO:Ce:Ca (AGILE)				
FastIC+	12.5	2×2×3	FBK NUV-HD LF2 M0 [3.12×3.2]	TDC ≈ 22 ps ^c	$\approx 87^d$	Estimated
		LYSO:Ce:Ca (CPI)				
FastIC+	12.5	3.13×3.13×20	FBK NUV-HD LF2 M0 [3.12×3.2]	TDC $\approx 22 \text{ ps}^c$	$\approx 134^d$	Estimated

TABLE VI: State-of-the-art of different ASICs suitable for TOF-PET applications. The HF readout is also shown to illustrate the time resolution limits that can be achieved.

^a This is the expected jitter (in FWHM) obtained using the following equation: $TDC_{jitter}=2.35 \cdot (Time_{bin}/\sqrt{(12)})$.

^b Power consumption has not been disclosed yet. Its predecessor, the Citiroc, has a power consumption of 7 mW per channel.

^c Simulated jitter was obtained based on transient simulations of the entire TDC readout.

^d This is a theoretical number obtained by adding quadratically the contribution of the analog part and the digital part, i.e., $CTR_{total} = \sqrt{CTR_{analog}^2 + CTR_{TDC}^2}$. CTR_{analog} is the correspondent measured value.

^e Note that HF readout outputs an analog signal, and an ideal comparator is used to measure the CTR. The rest of the electronics in the table, i.e, all ASICs, include an internal comparator to obtain the timestamp, which outputs a binary signal that can be acquired either by an oscilloscope or by a TDC.

New FBK SiPMs allow to achieve a lower CTR compared to HPK sensors, thanks to an improved SPTR performance (see table II). In this context, the low crosstalk demonstrated by FBK metal-trench technology enables to use a much higher overvoltage. However, applying larger overvoltages does not necessarily result in better CTR performance, which aligns with the findings presented by Merzi et al. in [27]. In their study, they only saw a marginal improvement in CTR performance when substituting the FBK NUV-HD with the FBK NUV-HD-MT. Nevertheless, the FBK NUV-HD-MT LF M0 exhibited a broader minimum compared to the FBK NUV-HD LF2 M0, i.e., the best CTR performance is achieved for a larger range of overvoltages when using the MT technology [27]. This broader minimum will be advantageous for systems with hundreds of SiPMs not having the same break-down voltage by reducing the precision needed to bias all sensors for optimum performance. Additionally, measurements performed using FBK SiPMs without a mask (FBK NUV-HD LF2 NM) exhibit slightly similar performance to the SiPMs with mask M0. This is in accordance with Gundacker et al. in [28] where they obtained similar performance for both SiPMs when using the HF connected to the oscilloscope.

Experimental measurements show that FastIC can detect the low light intensity generated by pure Cherenkov radiators, being able to replicate results obtained with high-consumption readout electronics [21] with an ASIC that could be suitable for building scanners. Nevertheless, there is room for improvement in the timing performance. The surface treatment of the TICl crystal, for example, is deemed crucial for obtaining a good time performance [20] and obtain measurements closer to those reported with LSO/LYSO crystals.

These measurements (or in general with any other Cherenkov radiator such as TlBr or PbF2) can be further improved by applying several strategies. First, new FBK SiPMs could be used instead of the HPK sensors, due to their better PDE and SPTR [18], [27], [28] and consequently better CTR, as shown throughout this work. Second, a source of degradation could come from the event selection. Both noncorrelated and correlated noise sources, such as dark counts, after-pulses, and crosstalk, can lead to the accumulation of pulses (pile-up), which in turn makes event selection more challenging when considering peak amplitudes, as explored in this work. The application of a first-order high-pass RC circuit between the SiPM and the input of the ASIC will reduce the effective FWHM of the detector response, thereby reducing pile-up effects and enabling better event selection for time walk corrections. Another strategy could involve using the rise time of the input signal to correct the time walk, as

presented in [19]. However, this technique would require the implementation of a second comparator with low jitter in the ASIC to obtain a second timestamp for computing the rise time of the signal. Lastly, this work demonstrated the ability of the FastIC to detect low-intensity prompt emission light, opening the possibility to enhance the BGO timing performance by detecting Cherenkov photons produced in BGO [59].

FastIC+ will be the successor of FastIC, incorporating an integrated TDC per channel. Preliminary studies indicate that this TDC will introduce a jitter contribution of approximately \approx 22 ps (FWHM) without significantly increasing the overall power consumption per channel (around 5% larger). Consequently, the TDC is expected to have a minimal effect on the time resolution compared to FastIC, as shown in Table VI. Finally, the evaluation of FastIC at the single-pixel level shows promising results compared to the newly produced Siemens Biograph Vision X, which has a CTR of \approx 178 ps [45]. Preliminary studies estimate a CTR of \approx 134 ps for a 20 mm long crystal (see Table VI) when using the FastIC+ASIC.

All our measurements were done with single-channel detectors, primarily aimed at identifying the time resolution limits of FastIC in comparison to other electronics. However, time resolution will degrade when testing detectors with a larger number of channels. This degradation is caused by inter-crystals crosstalk, optical crosstalk from SiPM and light sharing due to the coupling material [60]. Internal crosstalk within the ASIC has been measured as negligible by injecting an electrical signal in one channel and detecting negligible signal in adjacent channels. Further measurements involving detector arrays remain a topic for future research. A thorough evaluation of FastIC+ with single and multiple channels is a topic for future work.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

To achieve a sub-100 ps TOF-PET scanner, significant advancements are required in read-out electronics, all while maintaining low power consumption, a compact form factor and cost-effectiveness. The newly developed versatile read-out ASIC, known as FastIC, demonstrates low power consumption (\approx 12 mW) per channel and the capability to achieve remarkable results in terms of timing performance and energy resolution. Specifically, a CTR of 76 ± 2 ps was achieved when employing FBK NUV-HD L2 M0 SiPMs in conjunction with LSO:Ce:0.2%Ca crystals measuring $2 \times 2 \times 3$ mm³. For larger clinical-scale crystals $(3.13 \times 3.13 \times 20 \text{ mm}^3)$, a CTR of 127 ± 4 was obtained using LYSO:Ce:0.2%Ca crystals produced by Crystal Photonics Inc. The energy resolution obtained when the same LYSO:Ce:0.2%Ca crystal was coupled to the HPK S13360-3050PE SiPM was 9%. In addition to these achievements, the evaluation of the TlCl pure Cherenkov emitter demonstrated the ability to detect low-light events with a time resolution comparable to those reported in the literature using HF electronics.

An upcoming version of the ASIC, known as FastIC+, will integrate a TDC with a time jitter of ≈ 22 ps FWHM. Further exploration into 2.5D/3D integration is planned to reduce the

effects of interconnection parasitics between the ASIC and sensor.

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We would like to express our gratitude to Alberto Gola and his group (FBK, Italy) for providing the SiPM samples and engaging in fruitful discussions. Additionally, we extend our thank to Rok Pestonik (JSI, Slovenia) for providing the LYSO crystals from Crystal Photonics Inc. and for the valuable discussions. Lastly, we thank Bruce Chai from Crystal Photonics Inc. for providing an small size LYSO sample for the measurements and RMD Inc. for providing the TlCl crystal.

The authors acknowledge financial support from Grant PDC2021-121442-100 funded by MCIN/AEI/ 10.13039/501100011033 and by "ERDF A way of making Europe".

We also acknowledge financial support from the State Agency for Research of the Spanish Ministry of Science and Innovation through the "Unit of Excellence María de Maeztu 2020-2023" award to the Institute of Cosmos Sciences (CEX2019-000918-M).

All authors declare that they have no known conflicts of interest in terms of competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have an influence or are relevant to the work reported in this paper.

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