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Study of sub-pixel position resolution with time-correlated transient signals in 3D pixelated CdZnTe detectors with varying pixel sizes

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Abstract— We evaluated the sub-pixel position resolution achievable in large-volume CdZnTe pixelated detectors with conventional pixel patterns and for several different pixel sizes: 2.8-mm, 1.72-mm, 1.4-mm and 0.8-mm. Achieving position resolution below the physical dimensions of pixels (sub-pixel resolution) is a practical path for making high-granularity position-sensitive detectors, < 100 μm , using a limited number of pixels dictated by the mechanical constraints and multi-channel readout electronics. High position sensitivity is important for improving the imaging capability of CZT gamma cameras. It also allows for making more accurate corrections of response non-uniformities caused by crystal defects, thus enabling use of standard-grade (unselected) and less expensive CZT crystals for producing large-volume position-sensitive CZT detectors feasible for many practical applications. We analyzed the digitized charge signals from a representative 9 pixels and the cathode, generated using a pulsed-laser light beam focused down to 10 μm (650 nm) to scan over a selected 3x3 pixel area. We applied our digital pulse processing technique to the time-correlated signals captured from adjacent pixels to achieve and evaluate the capability for sub-pixel position resolution. As an example, we also demonstrated an application of 3D corrections to improve the energy resolution and positional information of the events for the tested detectors.

Keywords: CdZnTe, High-granularity detectors, 3D pixelated detectors, Crystal defects, Charge sharing, Charge-loss correction

1. Introduction

1
2 Large-volume, > 1 cm³, position-sensitive CdZnTe (CZT) gamma-ray detectors have been proposed and used in
3 many applications [1]. Among them, a 20x20x15 mm³ 3D position-sensitive detector developed by the Orion
4 radiation measurement group at University of Michigan [2] demonstrated a record breaking energy resolution,
5 high detection efficiency and advanced imaging capabilities. However, these kinds of detectors mainly rely on using
6 premium-grade (selected) CZT material, which has a low production yield and high cost. The proliferation of this
7 highly demanded technology is connected to the growing supply of low-cost material free from crystal defects. The
8 steady supply of such material has yet not been achieved. An alternative (and more economical) approach is to
9 employ more accurate charge-loss (or response non-uniformity) correction techniques, which rely on using high-
10 granularity position sensitive detectors. These techniques allow for using standard-grade materials to reduce the
11 device cost without compromising their performance. High position sensitivity allows us to virtually divide the
12 detector active volume into small voxels and equalize the responses from each voxel. Recently, we demonstrated
13 this approach for 3D pixelated detectors with small-pixel sizes, using charge sharing to enhance position resolution
14 [3]. Using the collected-charge signals generated as a result of the charge sharing is an easy and straightforward
15 approach for achieving sub-pixel resolution. However, its main drawback is that it requires using small pixels and
16 readout channels, which makes this approach impractical for many applications due to system complexity and power
17 consumption in the readout ASIC. A more practical approach involves use of the induced signals from the adjacent
18 pixels to refine the position resolution. In this work, we investigated several commercial pixelated detectors with
19 varying pixel sizes using the time-correlated transient signals.

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The approach of using the induced-charge signals from adjacent pixels to refine the position resolution of events was originally proposed (to the best of our knowledge) by Warburton and employed by several researchers [4-8]. It is applied when the whole charge from the electron cloud is collected on a single pixel. In such cases, the electron cloud induces transient signals on neighboring pixels, and the X-Y coordinates of interaction points can be obtained from the amplitudes of the transient signals. Theoretically, this approach should provide a sub-pixel resolution, but only within a geometrical area limited by the size of the electron cloud. In reality, both types of events occur in pixelated detectors with the relative number of shared events increasing with decreasing pixel size. The total charge from the electron cloud can be collected on a single pixel (single-pixel events), or it can be shared among several pixels (charge-sharing events). This means that both approaches should be combined to evaluate the coordinates of the interaction points in pixelated detectors. In most cases, the researchers used a center-of-gravity algorithm to process the amplitudes of the shaped signals. More advanced algorithms have been proposed [9-10] using the signal waveforms and the maximum-likelihood method to find the best fit to the benchmark waveforms obtained from a calibration run or simulated theoretically and analyzing pulse shapes of strip signals.

Recently, we evaluated sub-pixel position resolution of a 3D pixelated detector with a pixel size of 1.72x1.72 mm² and demonstrated the advantage of using the time-correlated approach for enhancing the position resolution [11]. This was done considering single-point interaction events only, which were generated by means of a pulsed laser. In this work, we investigated the position resolution of commercial pixelated detectors with standard patterns of varying pixel sizes (0.8-mm, 1.4-mm, 1.72-mm, and 2.85-mm) and illustrate the application of the response corrections in a pixelated detector. In this work we conduct systematic measurements to evaluate the energy dependencies of position resolution (%FWHM) using pixelated detectors with different pixel sizes. These data help to optimize the pixel size for achieving high-energy resolution (after response corrections) of large-volume CZT detectors, while using a minimum number of readout channels and standard (unselected) grade CZT crystals. Furthermore, this work aims to show the improvements in spectral resolution when applying 3D corrections to a pixelated crystal.

2. EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

The pulsed laser beam system is comprised of a 1-mW laser beam (650 nm wavelength) coupled with a single mode optical 9- μ m fiber and microscope objective. The beam is manually focused on the surface of the detector over the pixels of interest using the same objective. We note, that the short light pulse (in these measurements we could vary the pulse width in the range 10-100 ns) cannot entirely substitute for actual gamma-ray events, but it has several advantages for the measurements conducted in this study; it provides precise timing and the original location of the injected charge, and ability to generate signals equivalent to gamma rays from a wide energy range (100 keV – 2.5 MeV).

The detector being tested was plugged into the test box's motherboard containing 10 charge-sensitive preamplifiers (eV-5093), whose inputs were connected to the pixels of interest in the detector (3x3 area). The detector system was mounted on the motorized X-Y translation stage controlled by a computer.

The detectors mounted on substrates were acquired from two vendors: Redlen Technologies, Inc. and eV Products, Inc. with a large fraction of working pixels (> 50%) to ensure that we could scan over several 3x3 pixel areas for each detector. The pixel sizes varied from 0.8 mm to 2.85 mm as shown in Table 1. The socket board of the readout detector system allows selecting and reading out the signals from any of the pixels. The signals from the nine pixels and the cathode were recorded using two synchronized oscilloscopes: a LeCroy HDO 8058 oscilloscope and a LeCroy 6050 Waverunner. The charge signals, generated by the electron cloud as it drifted between the cathode and the anode, were sampled at 10-ns time intervals (bins) and stored in the oscilloscopes' memories for further analysis. The measurements were taken at room temperature around 21-22 °C. For the energy calibration, we used a standard ¹³⁷Cs source. The high-voltage values were 500 volts per 5 mm in height for each detector.

Table 1. Commercial detectors used in these measurements.

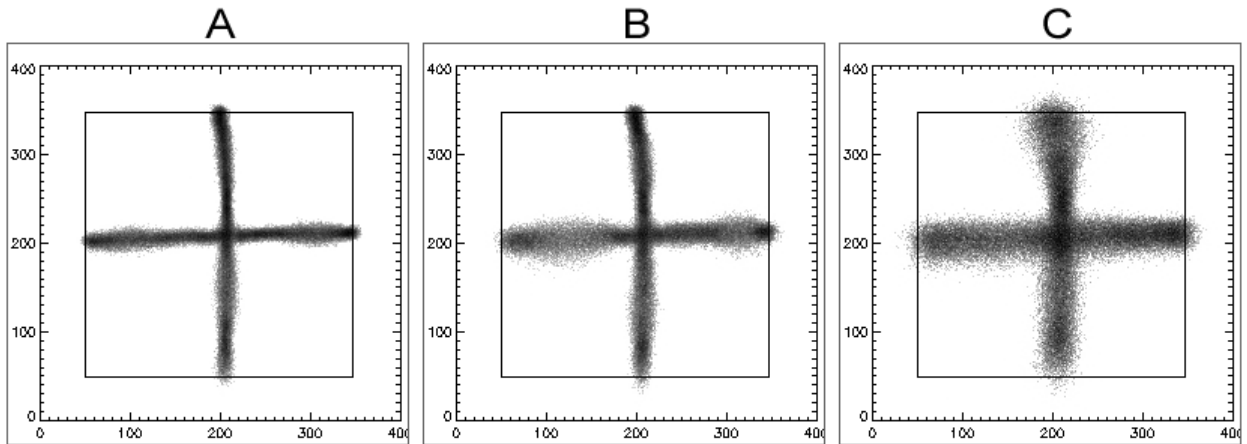
| Manufacturer | Dimensions (mm ³) | Pixel pattern | Pixel Size (mm) | Nominal Size (mm) | Position resolution at energy corresponding to 662 keV (μ m) |
|--------------|-------------------------------|---------------|-----------------|-------------------|---|
| eV Products | 10x10x10 | 11x11 | 0.80 | 0.50 | 53.54 |
| eV Products | 15x15x5 | 10x10 | 1.40 | 1.12 | 75.10 |
| Redlen Tech. | 20x20x10 | 11x11 | 1.72 | 1.22 | 109.80 |
| eV Products | 15x15x10 | 5x5 | 2.85 | 2.50 | 140.30 |

66 For each event (laser pulse), we captured 10 waveforms from all 9 pixels (a central pixel plus 8 neighbors) and
 67 the cathode. The scan area was selected to ensure that the central pixel has the strongest signal, meaning that we
 68 covered the actual area of the central pixel. The boundaries of this area are not necessarily matched to the
 69 geometrical pixel boundaries because of the local non-uniformity of the electric field. After the carriers reach the
 70 anodes (collected by one or several pixels), all the waveforms plateau at either a close-to-zero level (if no charge has
 71 been collected at these pixels) or at some positive level proportional to the amount of collected charges (charge
 72 sharing). Using these levels we can identify the charge sharing versus single-pixel events and locate the actual
 73 physical boundaries between the neighboring pixels, i.e., when the levels measured from two adjacent pixels are
 74 equal. We also performed linear scans across the middle of the 3 pixels along the X and Y directions.
 75

76 3. Data Analysis

77 For each beam position we captured 500 sequential waveforms and evaluated their X-Y coordinates using the
 78 time-correlated sample amplitudes from the recorded waveforms. For each coordinate, we selected two time-
 79 correlated samples: A_x^1 and A_x^2 for X and A_y^1 and A_y^2 for Y from the corresponding waveforms. Each pair was selected
 80 at a time at which the sample was the highest. In other words, one of A_x^1 and A_x^2 (and similarly of A_y^1 and A_y^2) is the
 81 maximum sample of the two corresponding waveforms. By selecting the highest amplitude of the time-correlated
 82 samples, we minimize the statistical (electronic) noise. As previously demonstrated [11] in our evaluation of one
 83 single pixel size (1.72) this gives the highest variation range, so we can expect to achieve the best position
 84 resolution.

85 As an example, Figure 1 shows scans at three different energies for the largest pixel-size detector tested (eV
 86 Products, Inc., 15x15x10 mm³ volume and 2.85-mm pixel size). Each broad line consists of the overlapping
 87 Gaussian-like distribution of the estimated locations for each position of the laser beam. The FWHM of these
 88 distributions were used to estimate the position resolution at specific amounts of injected carriers. The amount of the
 89 locally injected carriers depends on the cathode contact and surface properties. The varying widths of the beam
 90 images display the different amounts of charge injected along the beam pass.
 91



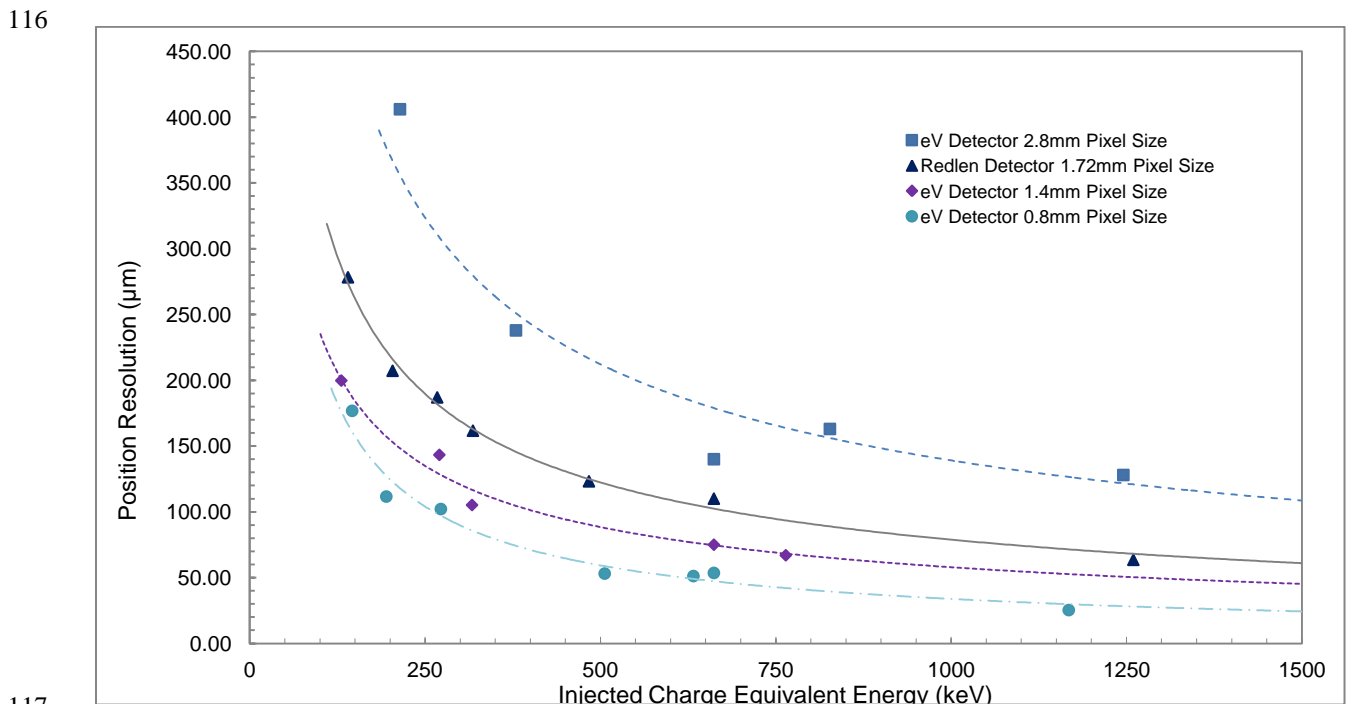
92 Figure 1. Position resolution evaluation of a 2.8-mm pixel size eV Products detector for three different energies. The line width
 93 gives the position resolution, which is estimated to be (a) 100 μm for an energy corresponding to 2 MeV. The resolution (b) is
 94 $\sim 128 \mu\text{m}$ for a corresponding energy of 1.2-MeV, and (c) approximately 237 μm for a corresponding energy of 400 keV.
 95

96 4. Results and Discussion

97 Fig. 2 shows the dependencies of the spatial resolution, % FWHM, on the amount of injected charge (converted
 98 into the deposited energy equivalents) for different pixel sizes. As previously mentioned, we used a ¹³⁷Cs source to
 99 convert the signal amplitudes into the deposited energies, and based on geometrical consideration, the position
 100 resolution scales proportionally to the pixel sizes. The amplitudes of the signals induced on the adjacent pixels
 101 increase with larger pixel areas resulting in a higher signal-to-noise ratio. One could expect that the position
 102 resolution reaches a minimum at a certain pixel size. However, as seen from the plot, the largest pixel size (2.8 mm)
 103 yields a poor position resolution compared to the smaller pixel sizes. A high signal-to-noise ratio impacts the
 104

105 recorded waveforms and the amplitudes from the anodes, which affect the time-correlation technique and the
 106 position resolution. A small pixel size is affected by electron-cloud diffusion and electrostatic repulsion of the
 107 electrons, which alters the electron cloud before it reaches the anodes, whereas a large pixel size minimizes charge-
 108 sharing events.

109 Comparing the 1.72-mm and 1.4-mm pixel detectors with a corresponding nominal pixel size of 1.22 mm and
 110 1.12 mm respectively, shows a difference of 0.10 mm. However, this 0.10-mm difference presents a higher spatial
 111 resolution of approximately 35 μm which becomes more apparent at the lower energies. We note that although the
 112 smaller pixel size presents the highest spatial resolution, it is also the smallest crystal at $10 \times 10 \times 10 \text{ mm}^3$. An 11×11
 113 grid requires a higher number of readout channels, which presents a challenge for the application specific integrated
 114 circuit (ASIC). An even smaller pixel size would be heavily affected by charge-sharing events and diffusion as
 115 previously discussed.



117 Figure 2. Position-resolution evaluation measurements at various gamma energies for all four pixelated detectors.
 118

119 Fig. 3 illustrates an application of the 3D corrections to improve the spectral response measured from a
 120 representative pixel of a $20 \times 20 \times 5 \text{ mm}^3$ detector with a pixel size of 1.72 mm. The detector was irradiated with an
 121 uncollimated ^{137}Cs source. To reduce a number of stored waveforms, we used a high threshold to remove low-
 122 energy Compton events. In these measurements, we read only 10 signals. We could apply the correction technique
 123 to the area over a single selected pixel, and we could repeat the measurements for each selected pattern. The Z
 124 position determination is carried out by measuring the drift time directly from the waveforms [12]. This information
 125 allowed us to virtually divide the detector's volume (in this case the volume associated with one representative
 126 pixel) into a large number of small voxels and selectively apply a small scaling correction to the signal amplitudes
 127 captured from the individual voxels. The 3D lookup matrix with scaling coefficients was generated once for each
 128 detector prior to its use. This is done by aligning the photopeaks in the ^{137}Cs spectra acquired from each voxel
 129 during a calibration. In this case, we used $10 \times 10 \times 10$ voxels. As seen, the energy resolution improves from about 2%
 130 FWHM at 662 keV down to 1.6% after the drift-time (1D) correction and to 1.0% after the 3D corrections,
 131 accordingly.

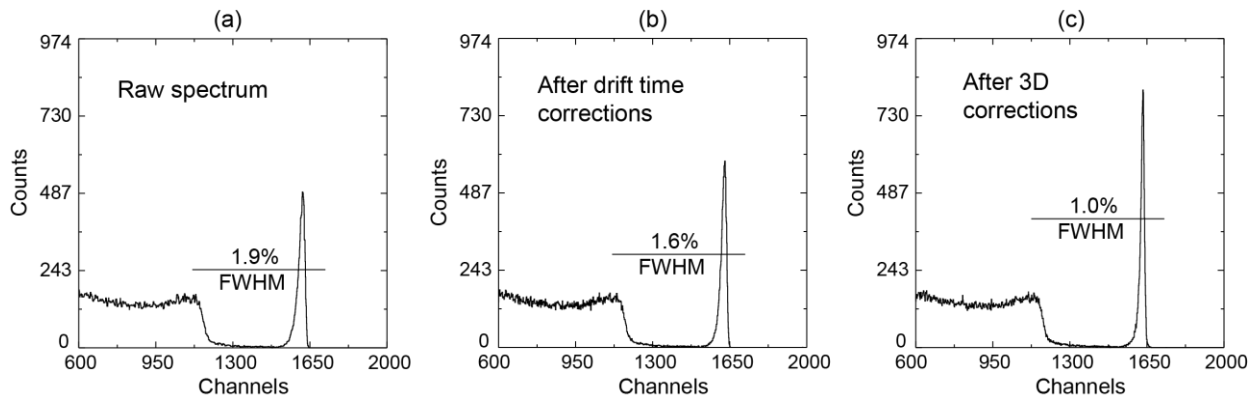


Figure 3. (a) Shows the raw ^{137}Cs spectrum measured from a representative pixel. Only single-pixel charge collection events were selected. (b) Shows the same spectrum after applying the drift-time (or Z-correction). As seen, a relative FWHM of the photopeak has improved from 1.9% down to 1.6%. After applying the 3D corrections (employing the time-correlated samples from adjacent pixels to evaluate X-Y coordinates), we achieved 1.0%. (c) The electronic noise evaluated using the baseline of the waveforms was $\sim 3\text{-}4$ keV or $\sim 0.6\%$ HWHM at 662 keV. We note that different data files were used for the voxels calibration and for presenting the results.

The detector selected for these demonstration measurements (supplied by eV Products, Inc.) was made from a CZT crystal grown by the High-Pressure Bridgman method (HPB) [13]. CZT crystals grown by this manufacturer typically have a very high mu-tau product, $>10^{-2}$ cm^2/V , but suffer from Tellurium (Te) inclusions whose diameters can exceed 30 μm . Te inclusions are the main cause of response non-uniformity in HPB-grown spectroscopy grade CZT crystals, which is difficult to correct because of the very small scale of response variations and their cumulative effect, which increases proportionally to the electron cloud drift distance. In this experiment, we have chosen the 5-mm-thick detector to reduce the latter effect. Segmenting the area into a smaller number of sub-pixels did not improve the energy resolution, since we reached the limit of the position resolution as demonstrated in Fig. 1. However, further improving the electronic noise (e.g., making a detector/ASIC hybrid) will make it possible to achieve better position resolution at 662 keV and, respectively, a finer segmentation.

5. Conclusion

Finding an optimal pixel size to maximize the position resolution, while mitigating the electronic noise, signal amplitude loss, charge-sharing events and electron-cloud diffusion, continues to be an ongoing effort. We investigated the position resolution of commercial pixelated detectors with standard patterns of varying pixel sizes (0.8 mm, 1.4 mm, 1.72 mm, and 2.85 mm) and illustrated the application of the response corrections in a pixelated detector. Our results indicate that a smaller pixel size yields a higher position resolution. However this requires a larger number of readout channels and thus poses a challenge for the data processing and heating dissipation. Increasing the pixel size to 1.12 mm (nominal) results in a reduction in position resolution of approximately 30 μm for low and high energies from the smallest pixel size (0.8 mm). Furthermore, increasing the nominal pixel another 0.10 mm will result in a further reduction of position resolution of ~ 30 μm . It is important to note that transient signals allow us to treat charge-sharing and single-point interaction events the same way. However, using a more accurate response function or applying geometrical corrections will lead to further improvement of the position resolution for all evaluated pixel sizes. We should note that results with a pulsed laser beam cannot substitute those with gamma-rays and in the latter case the resolution is expected to degrade further. Applying corrections yield an increase in the spectral resolution that varies depending on the quality of the crystal, but the presented results show an improvement of 0.9% FWHM. Further testing is needed to continue improving the 3D corrections in pixelated detectors.

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