

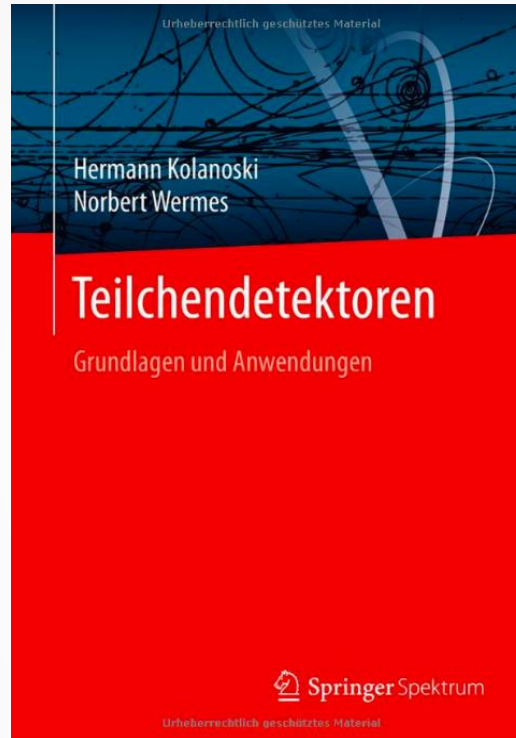
# SCINTILLATORS

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LECTURE 4 PART 3

# REFERENCES

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- “The Physics of Particle  
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# CONTENT

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## 1. Introduction

1. Definitions
2. Scintillation Detector
3. Example: Rutherfords Experiment
4. Scintillation materials and applications
5. Basic properties and requirements
6. Light output
7. Material properties

## 2. Inorganic scintillators

1. Overview
2. Scintillation mechanism
3. Scintillating noble gases

## 3. Organic scintillators

1. Overview
2. Scintillation in organic crystals
3. Organic crystals
4. Organic and liquid plastic scintillators

## 4. Detector Assemblies and Photo Detectors

1. Light guides
2. Scintillating fibres
3. Plastic fibres
4. Photo detectors (overview)
5. Photomultipliers
6. Hybrid Photo Diodes (HPDs)
7. Avalanche Photo Diodes (APDs/SiPMs)

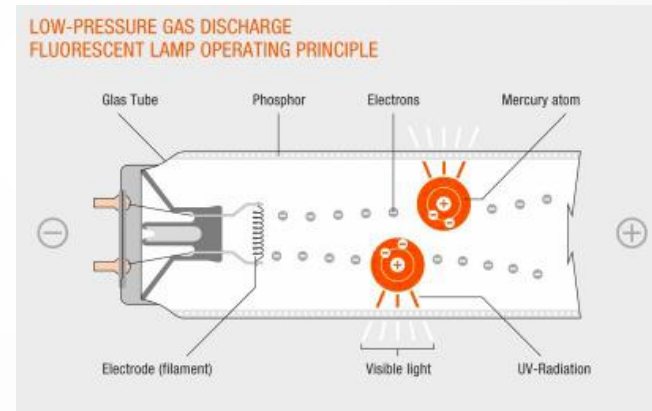
# I. INTRODUCTION

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# I.I DEFINITIONS

- **Luminescence:**  
Emission of photons (visible light, UV, X ray) after absorption of energy.
- Energy deposition in the material by
  - Light → Photoluminescence
  - Heat → Thermoluminescence
  - Sound → Sonoluminescence
  - Electric energy → Elektrolumineszenz
  - Mechanical deformation → Triboluminescence
  - Chemical reactions → Chemoluminescence
  - Living organism → Bioluminescence
  - Ionizing radiation → Scintillation
- **Scintillation:** Emission of photons following the excitation of atoms and molecules by radiation.

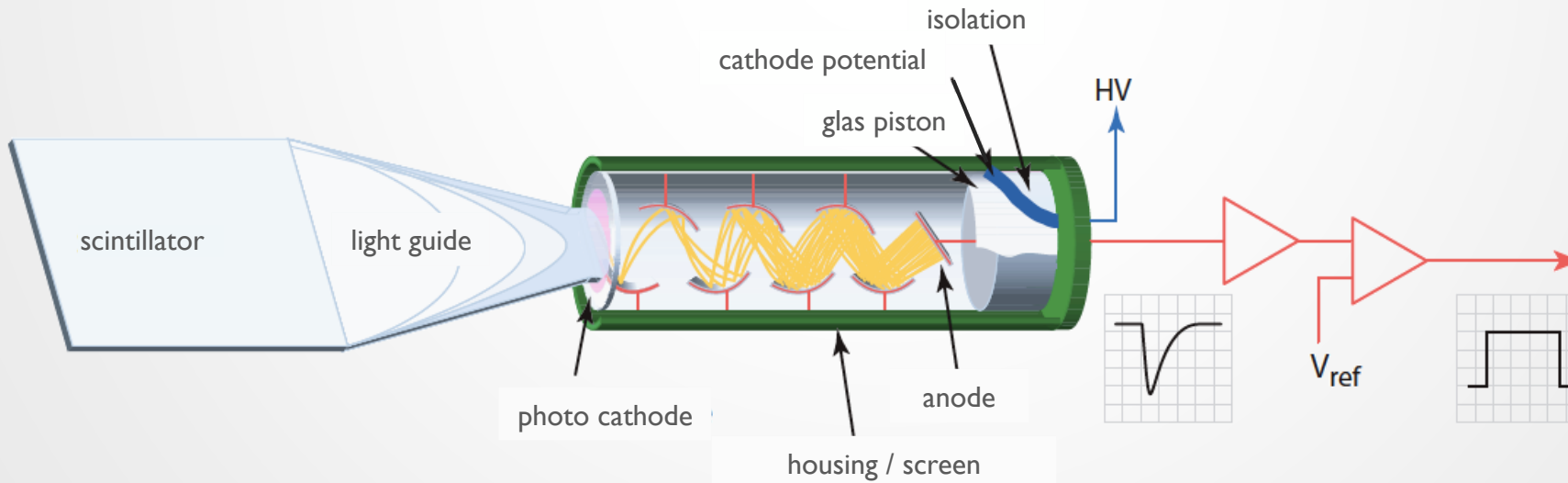
- **Fluorescence:** emission of light by a substance that has absorbed light or another electromagnetic radiation of a different wave length. In most cases the emitted light has a longer wavelength. The emission follows shortly after (10 ns).



- **Phosphorescence:** Similar to Fluorescence, however the re-emission is not immediate. The transition between energy levels and the photon emission is delayed (ms up to hours).

# I.2 SCINTILLATION DETECTOR

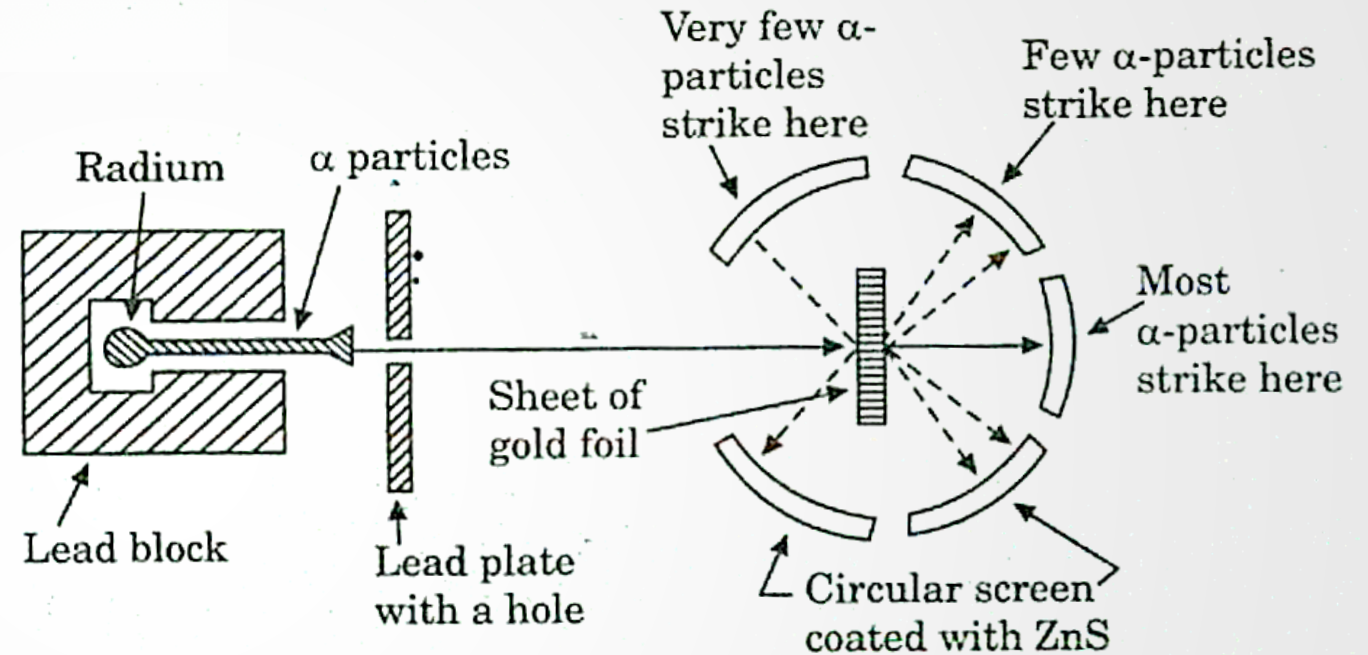
- A scintillation detector consists of a **scintillating material**, coupled to a **light guide**, and a **photo detector**.
- The scintillating material converts  $\gamma$ - and particle-radiation into **light** (visible, UV, sometimes X-rays). Often a **wavelength shifter** is mixed to the primary scintillator.
- The **light guide** leads the light to the photo detector. Again, a **wavelength shifter** is often used to match the wave length to the **response characteristics** of the photo cathode and hence improves the signal.
- The photo detector converts the light into an electric signal. Various photo detectors are applied, e.g. photo multipliers, SiPMs, gaseous detectors.





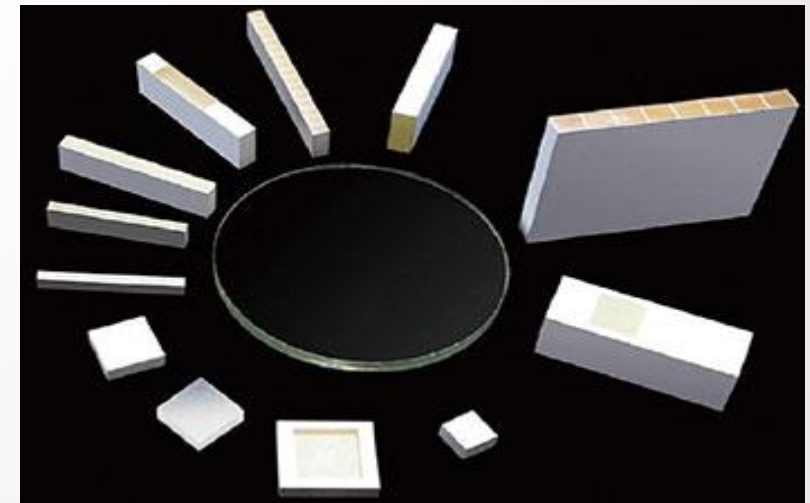
# I.3 EXAMPLE: RUTHERFORDS EXPERIMENT

- Rutherford's scattering experiment:
  - Discovery of atomic nucleus with positive charge which holds most of its mass (1908-1913)
- Experiment:
  - Scattering of  $\alpha$  particles on thin metal (gold) foils
  - Using microscope to count light flashes on ZnS scintillating screen
  - high efficiency (20%) but low transparency to its own light



# I.4 SCINTILLATING MATERIALS AND APPLICATIONS

- Scintillating materials:
  - Inorganic crystals
  - Organic crystals
  - Organic liquids
  - Plastic scintillators
  - Nobel gases (gaseous and liquid)
  - Scintillating glasses (not discussed)
- Applications in nuclear- and particle physics:
  - Trigger detectors for slow detectors (e.g. drift chambers)
  - Time of flight counters (TOF-Counter)
  - Calorimeters – energy measurement
  - Position detectors (scintillating fibres)
  - Detection and spectroscopy of thermal and fast neutrons
  - Neutrino detectors (liquid scintillators)





# I.5 BASIC PROPERTIES AND REQUIREMENTS

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- Advantages:

- **Short rise time** (esp. organic scintillators,  $\sim$  ns)
- Sensitive to deposited energy
- Construction and operation simple  
→ **cheap and reliable**

- Disadvantages:

- **Aging** (especially plastic scintillators)
- **Radiation damage** (especially plastic scintillators)
- **Hygroscopic** – attracts water (especially inorganic crystals, e.g. NaI)
- **Low light output** (especially gaseous scintillators)
- In combination with the optical readout **sensitive to magnetic fields** (e.g. when using photo multipliers)

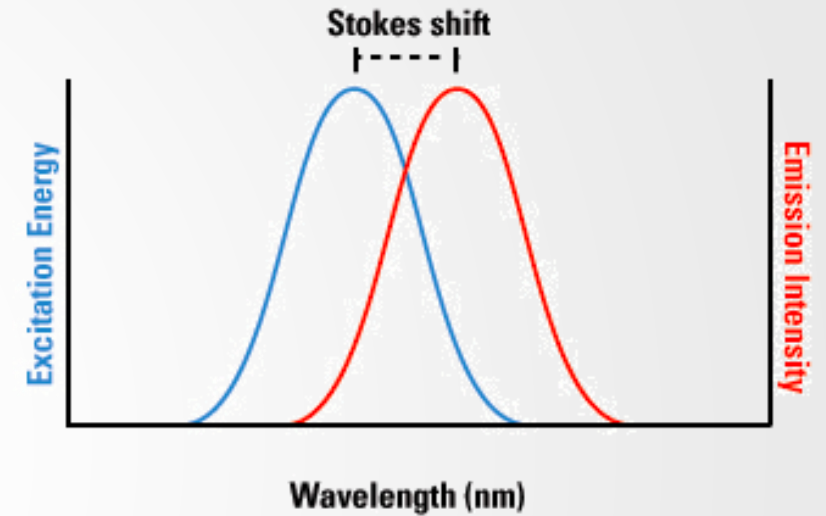
- Many materials show luminescence.

To be useful, the following requirements are important

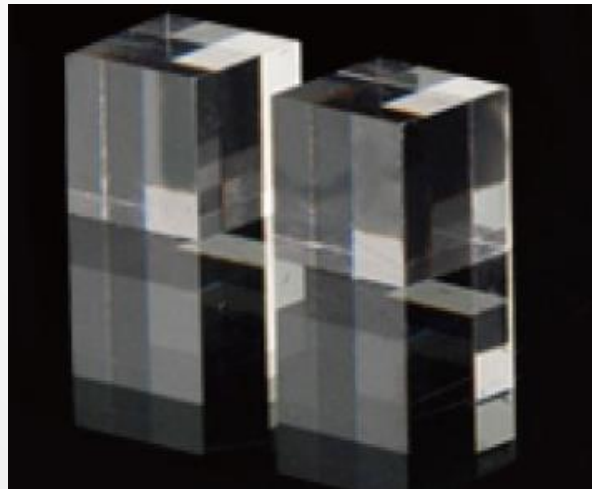
- High light yield  $Y_L$ , i.e. high efficiency to convert the excitation energy into fluorescence:  $Y_L = \langle N_y \rangle / E$
- **Transparency with respect to the own fluorescence light.** Otherwise the light is absorbed within the material itself.
- **emission spectrum** matched to the **spectral sensitivity of the photo detector.**
  - wave length shifter can help
- Refractive index of scintillator close to readout
  - e.g. glass in case of PMT
- Short decay constant.

# I.6 LIGHT OUTPUT

- Only a **few per cent** of the deposited energy is transferred into light.  
The remaining energy is used up by ionisation, etc.
  - Emitted light usually of **lower energy** than deposited energy.  
Light shifted to longer wavelengths (Stokes shift)
  - In addition photons are lost in the scintillator itself (re-absorption) and in the light guide.
- Mean energies required to create a photon:
  - Anthracen ( $C_{14}H_{10}$ )  $\sim 60$  eV
  - NaI:Tl  $\sim 25$  eV
  - Anthracen or NaI are often used as reference material.
  - BGO ( $Bi_4Ge_3O_{12}$ ):  $\sim 300$  eV
    - high Z
    - efficient  $\gamma$  ray absorber



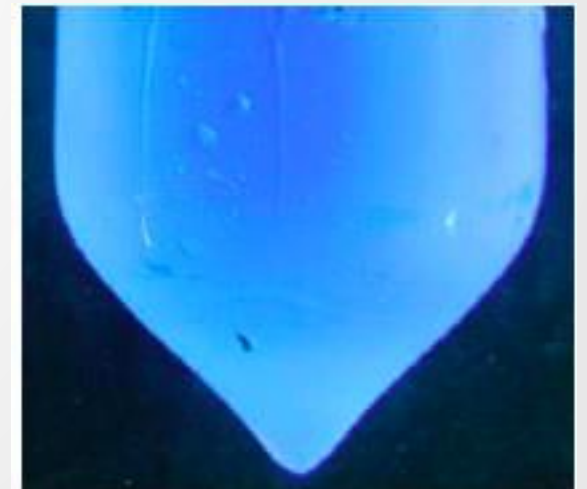
BGO inorganic scintillator



Anthracen organic scintillator



NaI:Tl (Sodium Iodide doped with Thallium) ingot under UV light



# I.7 MATERIAL PROPERTIES

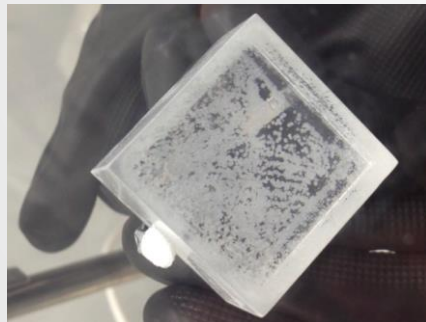
Material	Typ	Density [g/cm <sup>3</sup> ]	max. emission $\lambda$ [nm]	Light output [% Anthracen]	Decay time* [ns]	* main component
NaI:TI	Inorgan. Cristal	3.67	413	230	230	
CsI	Inorgan. Cristal	4.51	400 <sup>‡</sup>	500 <sup>‡</sup>	600 <sup>‡</sup>	
BGO (= Bi <sub>4</sub> Ge <sub>3</sub> O <sub>12</sub> )	Inorgan. Cristal	7.13	480	35–45	350	
PbWO <sub>4</sub>	Inorgan. Cristal	8.28	440–500	≈2.5	5–15	‡ at T = 77 K
Anthracen	Organ. Cristal	1.25	440	100	30	
trans-Stilben	Organ. Cristal	1.16	410	50	4.5	
p-Terphenyl	In liquid solution, plastic	–	440	≈58	5	
t-PBD	In liquid solution, plastic	–	360	–	1.2	
PPO	In liquid solution, plastic	–	355	–	?	

## 2. INORGANIC SCINTILLATORS

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## 2.1 OVERVIEW

- Different types of **inorganic scintillators**:
  - Inorganic crystals
  - Glasses
  - Noble gases (gaseous or liquid)
- Scintillation mechanism is **different** for inorganic crystals, glasses and noble gases.
  - hence, very different response times.
  - inorganic crystals, glasses are rather slow (compared to organic crystals)
  - noble gases: fast
- Inorganic scintillators are relatively radiation hard.

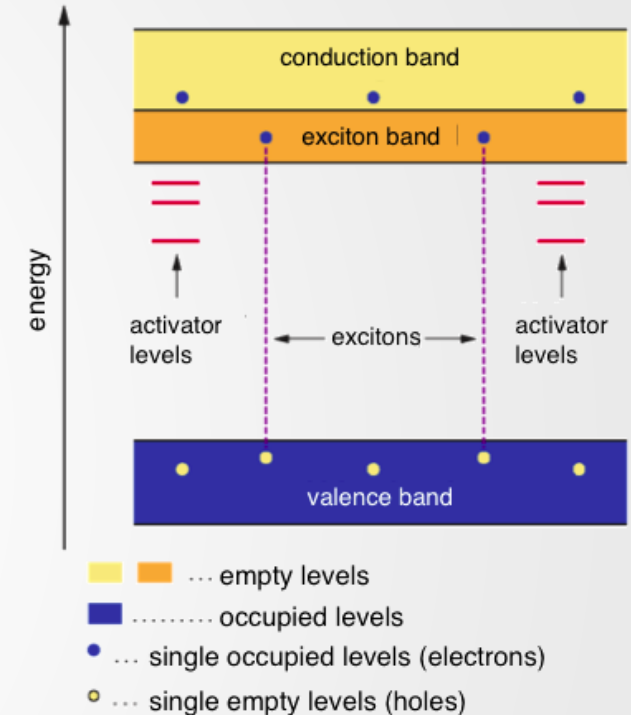


NaI crystal  
after exposure to  
water vapor.

- Important inorganic crystals are:
  - NaI, CsI: as pure crystal or doped with Thallium ((NaI:TI),(CsI:TI))
  - BGO:  $\text{Bi}_4\text{Ge}_3\text{O}_{12}$
  - GSO: Gadolinium silicate ( $\text{Gd}_2\text{SiO}_5$ ), usually doped with Cer
  - $\text{BaF}_2$ ,  $\text{CeF}_3$ ,  $\text{PbWO}_4$
- Emitted light usually at 400–500 nm. (NaI: 303 nm, CsI:TI : 580 nm)
- Advantages:
  - High density, short radiation length  $X_0$
  - High light output :  $\approx 100\%$ – $400\%$  of Anthracen
  - relative radiation resistant: especially:  $\text{CeF}_3$ , GSO,  $\text{PbWO}_4$ , (bad: BGO)
- Disadvantages:
  - Usually slower than organic scintillators: Decay times a few hundred ns, Phosphorescence. Exception:  $\text{CsF}_2 \sim 5$  ns and  $\text{PbWO}_4 \sim 5\text{--}15$  ns.
  - Some are hygroscopic: especially: NaI.  $\text{BGO}$ ,  $\text{PbWO}_4$ ,  $\text{CeF}_3$  are not hygroscopic.

## 2.2 SCINTILLATION MECHANISM (INORGANIC CRYSTALS)

- Inorganic crystals feature a **band structure**:
  - The band gap between valence and conduction band is about 5-10 eV (**Insulator**).
- Absorbed energy excites electrons to the conduction band.
  - Recombination causes the emission of a photon.
  - **Increase the transition probability** by discrete activator levels with doping
- e/h pairs can form excitons (coupled e/h pairs) that recombine and emit photons
- The light output of inorganic crystals is in good approximation linear to the energy deposited by high energy particles.
- Inorganic crystals are perfect devices for homogeneous calorimeters.



Electromagnetic calorimeter of L3 (LEP):  
BGO crystals, short radiation length (1.11 cm),  
very sensitive to temperature ( $-1.5\% / ^\circ\text{C}$ )

Electromagnetic calorimeter of CMS:  
 $\text{PbWO}_4$  crystals, also short radiation  
length, fast and radiation hard.



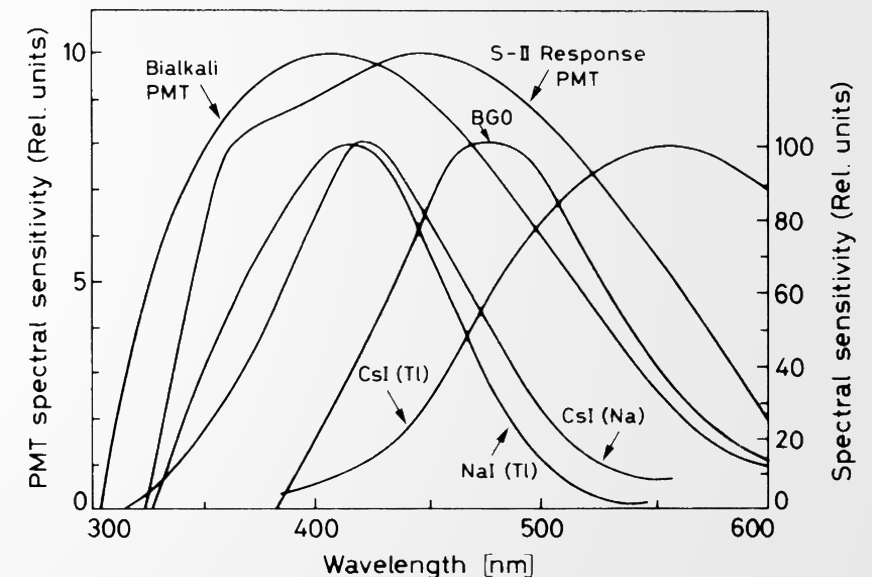


## 2.2 SCINTILLATION MECHANISM (INORGANIC CRYSTALS)

W.R. Leo, *Techniques for Nuclear and Particle Physics Experiments*, Springer, 1987

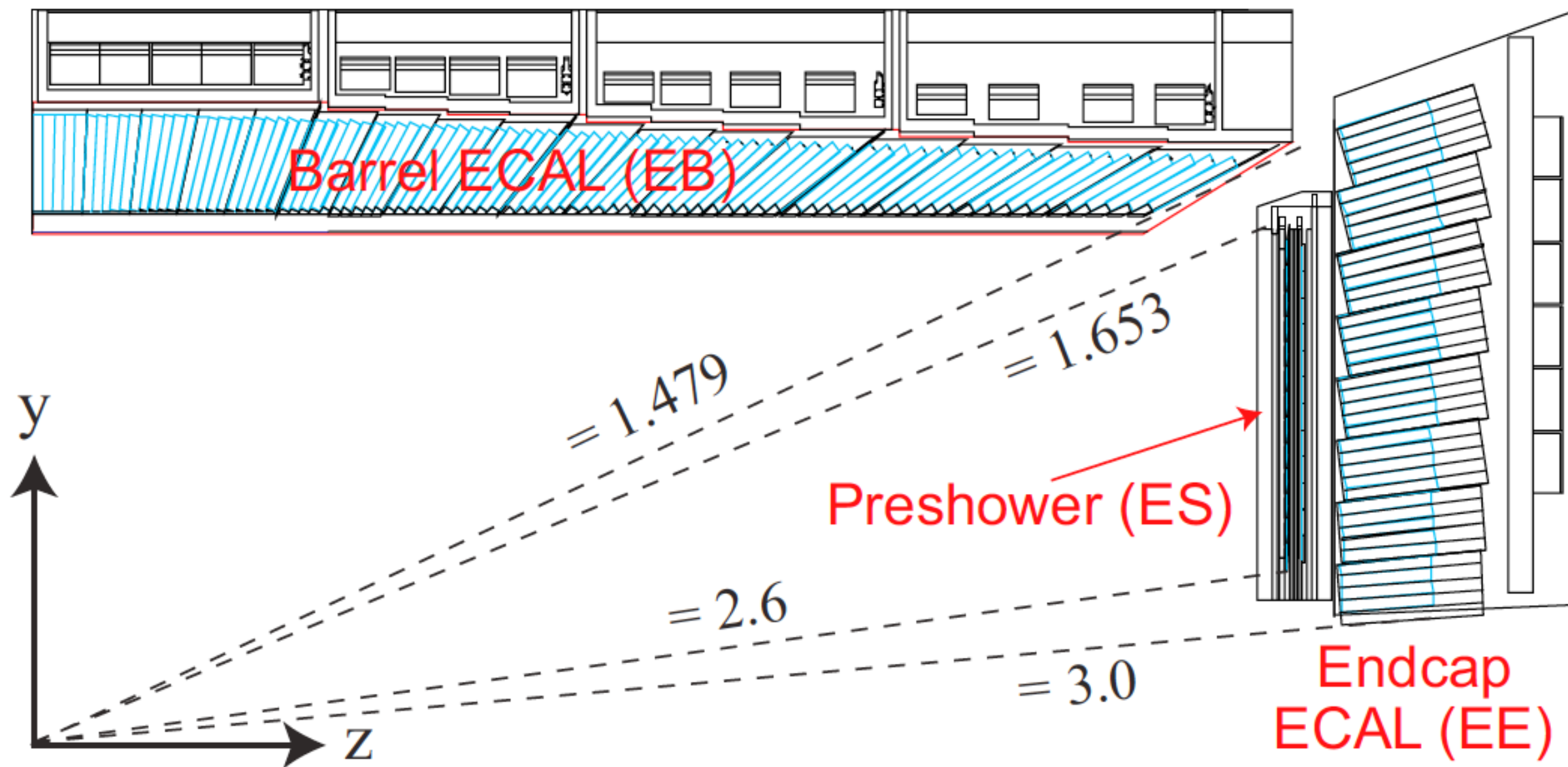
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- e/h pairs can form excitons (coupled e/h pairs) that recombine and emit photons
- The light output of inorganic crystals is in good approximation linear to the energy deposited by high energy particles.
- Inorganic crystals are perfect devices for homogeneous calorimeters.

Emission spectra of various inorganic crystals (right axis) and spectral sensitivity of two typical photo multipliers (left axis)



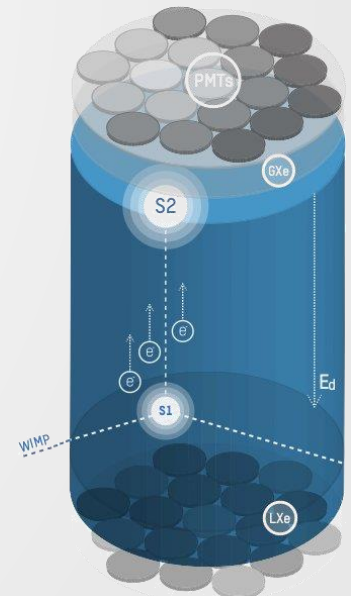
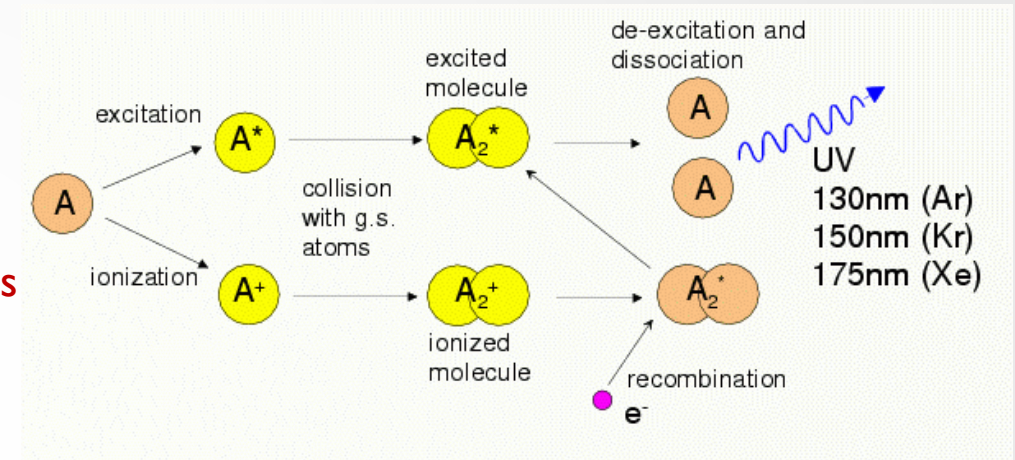
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length, fast and radiation hard.



## 2.3 SCINTILLATING NOBLE GASES

- Scintillating gases used: Helium, Xenon, Krypton and Argon
  - Argon**: cheap, simple to purify on industrial scale
  - Krypton**: expensive, shorter radiation length.
  - Xenon**: very expensive (depending on purity fluctuates up to 1kEUR/kg)
- The fluorescence mechanism in noble gases is a **purely atomic process** and the life time of the excited states is therefore short.
- Scintillating noble gas detectors are **very fast**, response time  $\leq 1$  ns.
- The emitted light is in the **UV range**. In this range classic photomultipliers are not sensitive. The use of **wave length shifters** is mandatory (e.g. as coatings on the walls)
- Due to the relative low density the light yield of gaseous scintillators is low. Can be compensated by high pressure operation (up to 200 atm).
- Liquid noble gas scintillators used in direct detection DM experiments: e.g. XENON100 at LNGS, Italy, 161 kg LXe, 242 PMTs (picture) or Xenon1t (3500kg LXe)
  - detect direct scintillation (S1) and ionization signal that causes delayed signal (S2)



### 3. ORGANIC SCINTILLATORS

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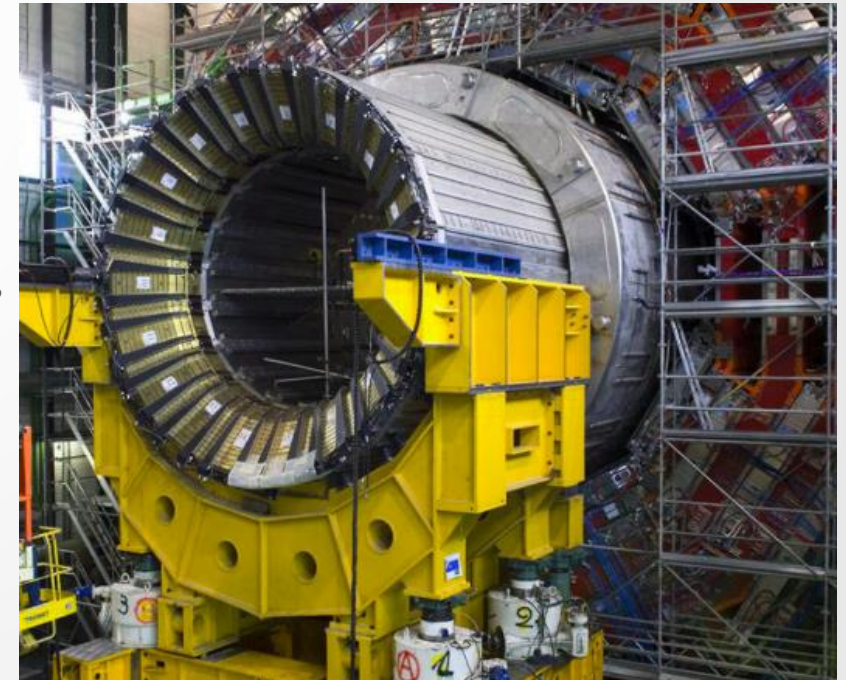
# 3.1 OVERVIEW

- three important types of **organic scintillators**:
  - Organic crystals
  - Organic liquids
  - Plastic scintillators
- Organic scintillators are aromatic hydrocarbon compounds (containing benzene ring compounds)
- The scintillation mechanism is due to the transition of electrons between molecular orbitals → organic scintillators are fast ~ few ns.
- Organic crystals consist of only one component
- Liquid- und Plastic scintillators are usually composed of 2–3 components:
  - Primary scintillator
  - Secondary scintillator as wave length shifting component (optional)
  - Supporting material

coincidence detector  
using scintillation light  
from cosmic muons

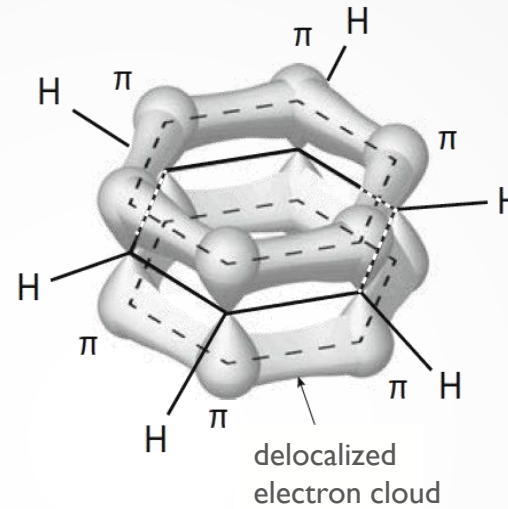


CMS hadron  
calorimeter  
(SCSN-81 plastic  
scintillator,  
440nm peak  
emission)

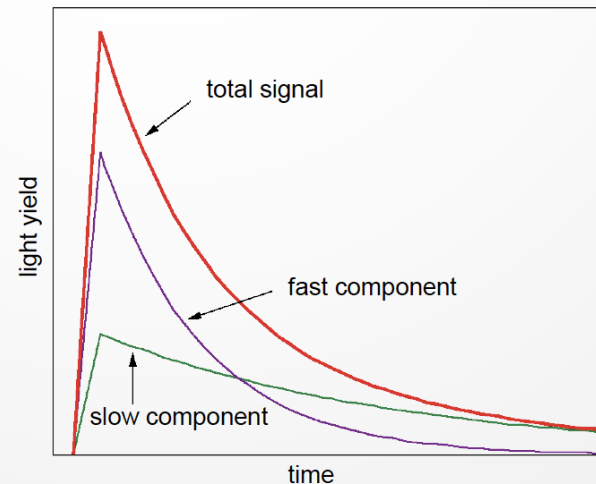


# 3.2 SCINTILLATION IN ORGANIC MATERIALS

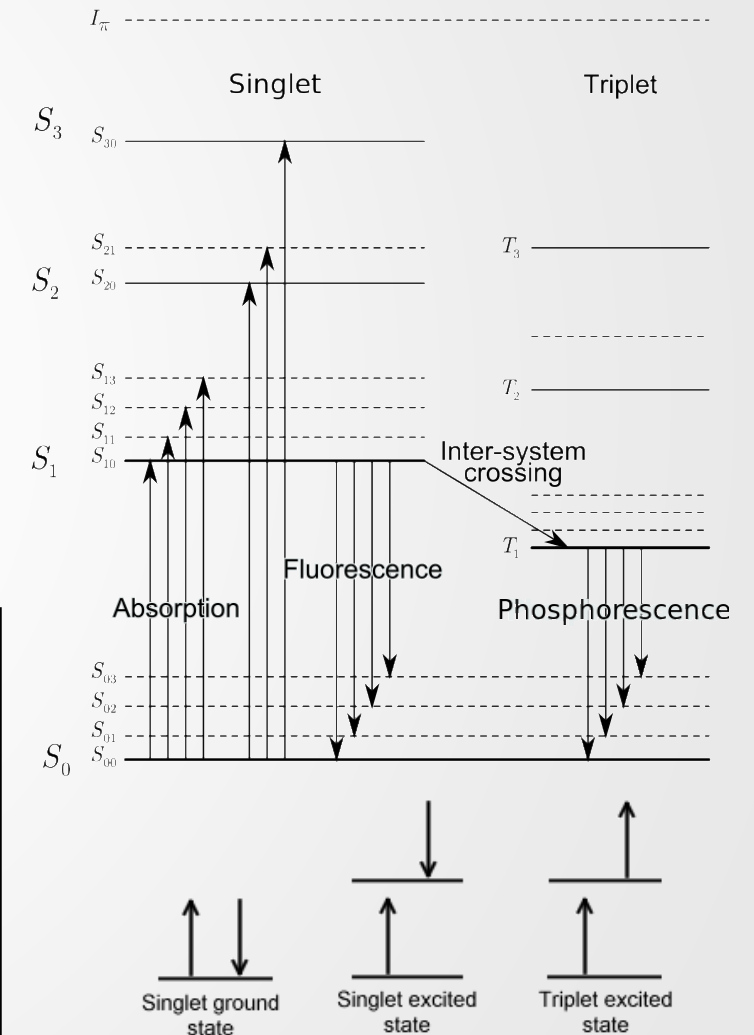
- defined by electron configuration of large carbon molecules:  $\sigma$  and  $\pi$  orbitals
  - Organic = carbon atoms
- Benzene\* ( $C_6H_6$ ):
  - p-orbital contains weakly bound  $\pi$ -electrons
  - fine structure from molecular vibrational and rotational modes
- Scintillation principle:
  - Excitation to  $S_{1,i}$   $S_{2,i}$   $S_{3,i}$  levels
  - radiation-less drop to  $S_1$  ( $\sim ps$ )
  - desired** O(ns) **fluorescence** from  $S_1 \rightarrow S_0 \sim 3-4$  eV, 400-300 nm)
  - a fraction of molecules can transit transition-less to meta-stable triplet states and cause **undesired** O(ms) **phosphorescence**.



typical scintillator signal shape



$\pi$  electron states of benzene

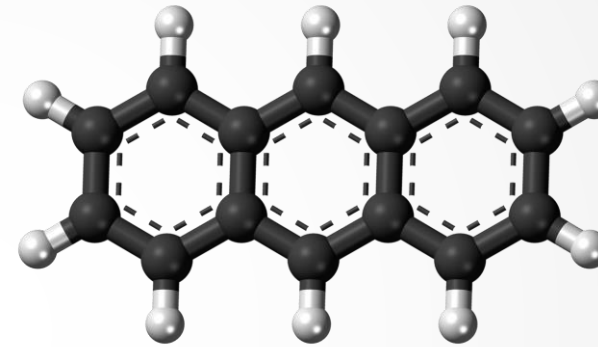




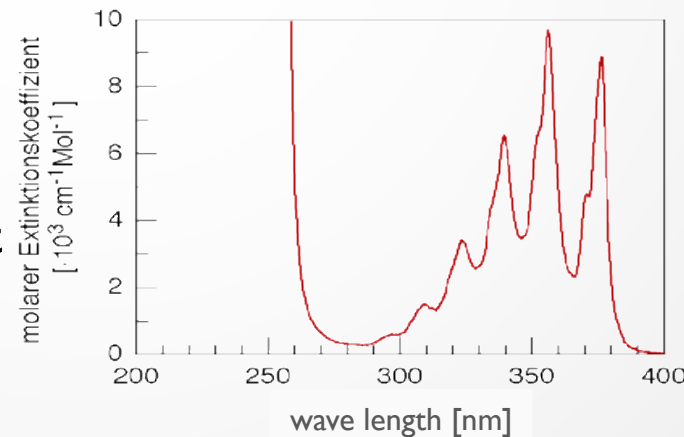
# 3.3 ORGANIC CRYSTALS

- Important organic scintillating crystals:
  - Naphtalen ( $C_{10}H_8$ )
  - Anthracen ( $C_{14}H_{10}$ )
  - Stilben ( $C_{14}H_{12}$ )
- Advantages: Fast fluorescence:  $\sim 3$  ns  
(exception: Anthracen  $\sim 30$  ns)
- Mechanically strong  
(exception: Stilben is brittle)
- Disadvantages: Anisotropic light output  
depending on the orientation of the crystal wrt  
to the incident radiation: “channeling”
- Mechanically difficult to process (fragile)

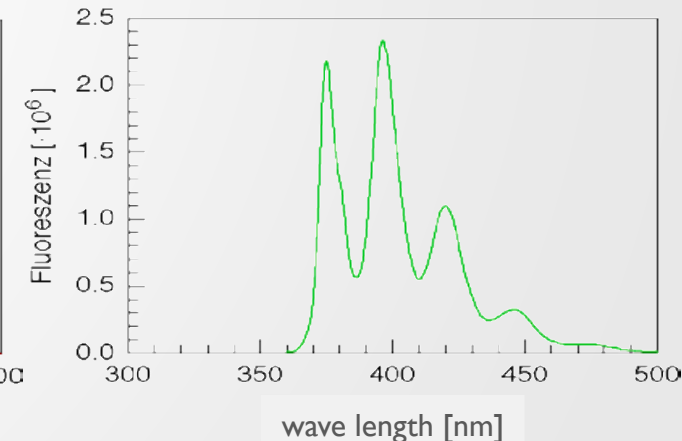
Anthracen molecule



Absorption profile

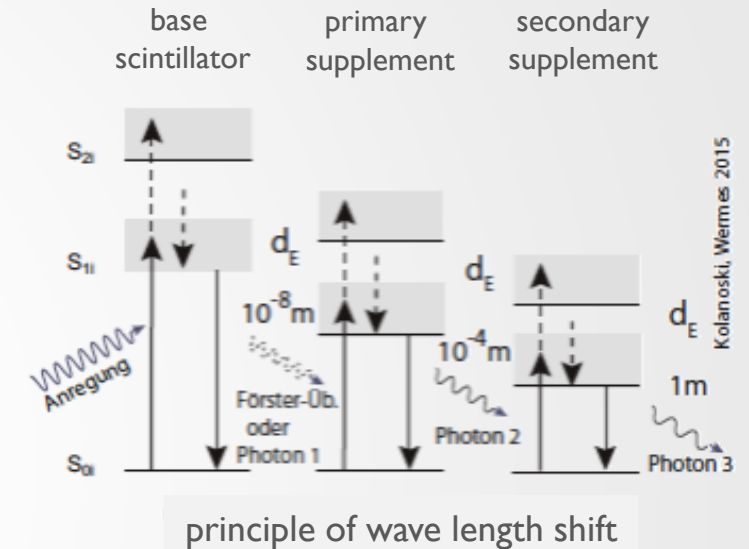


Emission profile



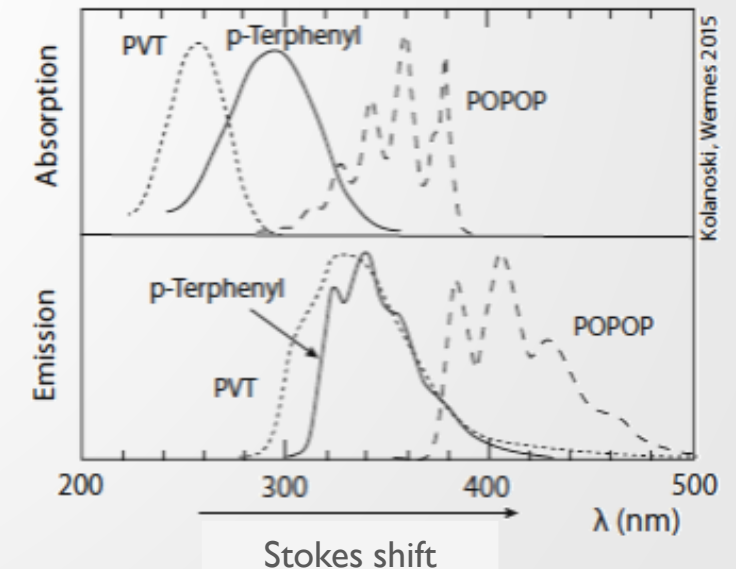
# 3.4 ORGANIC LIQUID AND PLASTIC SCINTILLATORS

- Important liquid scintillators:
  - p-Terphenyl ( $C_{18}H_{14}$ ), POPOP ( $C_{24}H_{16}N_2O_2$ ), PBD ( $C_{24}H_{22}N_2O$ ), DPO( $C_{15}H_{11}NO$ )
  - Mixture of one or several organic scintillators in an organic solvent (typically 3g/l solvent).
  - Average distance to molecule of a different solvent should be below the emission wavelength
- Solvents for liquid scintillators:
  - Benzol ( $C_6H_6$ ), Toluol ( $C_7H_8$ ), Xylol ( $C_8H_{10}$ ), Phenylcyclohexan ( $C_{12}H_{16}$ ), Triethylbenzol, Decalin ( $C_{10}H_{18}$ )
- Can polymerize (low efficiency scintillators Polystrol, Polyvenyltoluol, Polymethylacrylat)
- properties of these 'plastic scintillators'
  - Fast fluorescence: ca. 3–4 ns,
  - any possible detector shape
  - not very radiation resistant
- Easy use of additives
  - wave length shifter
  - increase neutron cross section
- wide range of detector applications



frequently used combinations

liquid	Benzol	p-Terphenyl	POPOP
	Toluol	DPO	BBO
	Xylol	PBD	BPO
plastic	Polyvinylbenzol (PVB)	p-Terphenyl	POPOP
	Polyvinyltoluol (PVT)	DPO	TBP
	Polystyrol (PS)	PBD	BBO/DPS



## 4. DETECTOR ASSEMBLIES AND PHOTO DETECTORS

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## 4.1 LIGHT GUIDES

Light guide: flat top  
couples to scintillator,  
round bottom to  
photo detect

Full system consisting of:  
scintillator (light-tight packed),  
light guide, photomultiplier



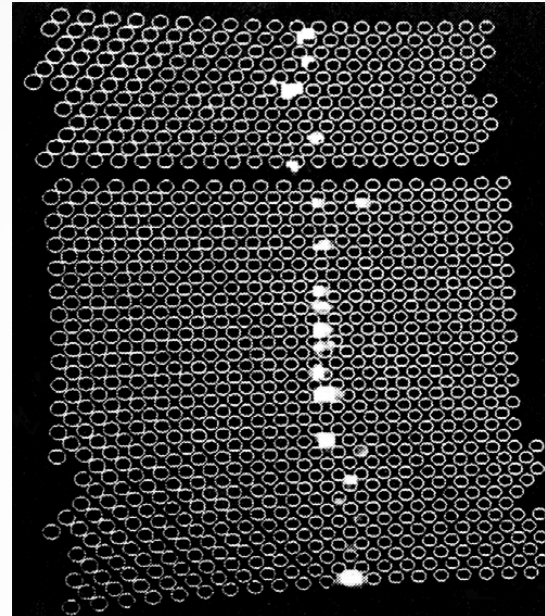
CERN Microcosm Ausstellung  
Photo: M. Krammer



## 4.2 SCINTILLATING FIBRES

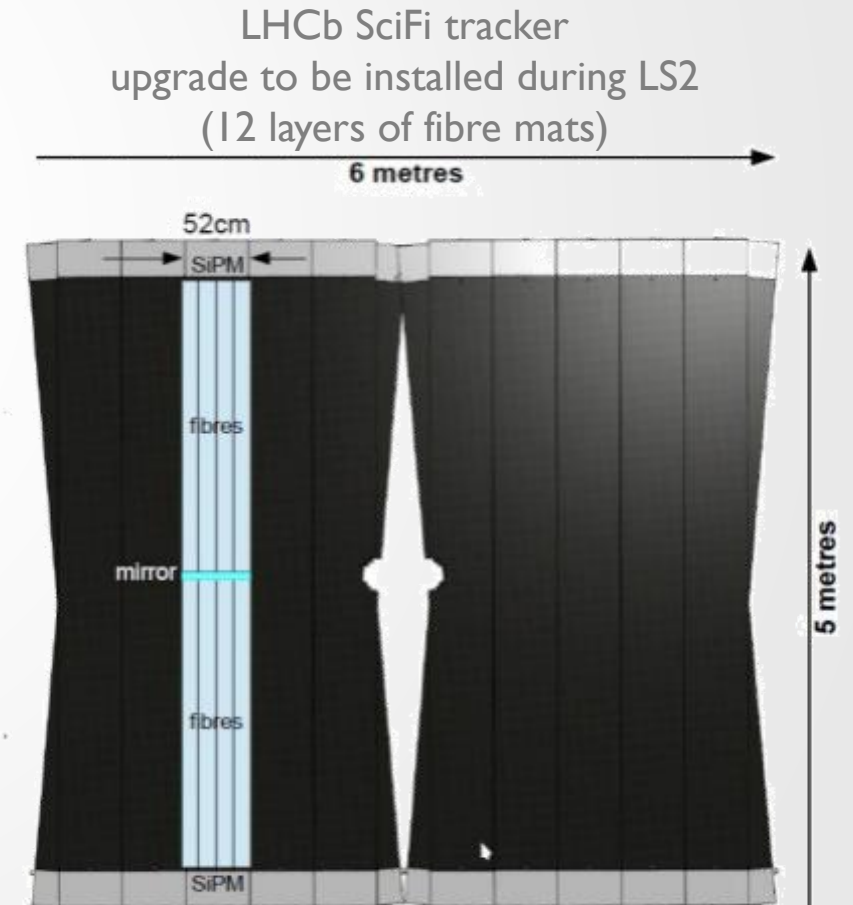
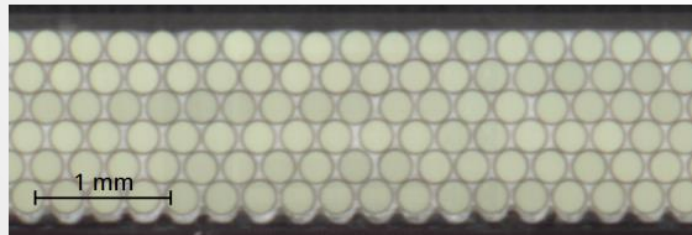
arXiv:1710.08325

- Different fiber technologies:
  - Plastic fibers
  - Glass fibers
  - Capillaries, filled with scintillating liquid
- Scintillating fibers are used in:
  - Calorimeters
  - Pre-shower detectors
  - Position sensitive detectors



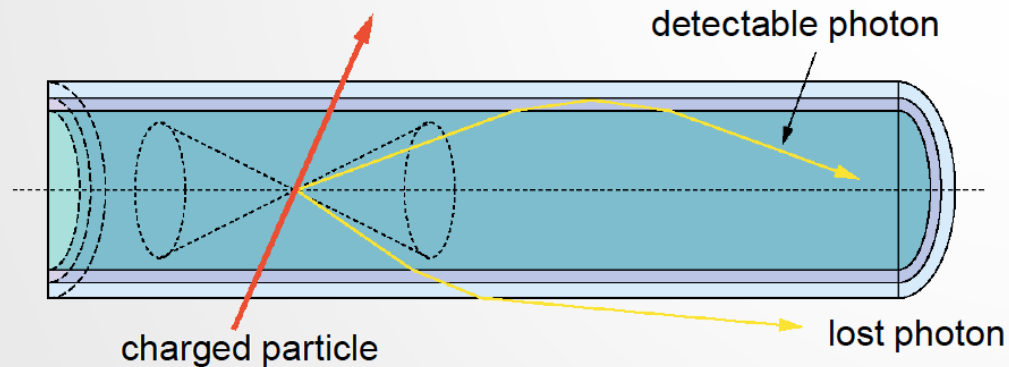
Particle track in a stack of scintillating fibers.  
Fiber diameter 1 mm.

Cross section of scintillating fibre mat with 6 fibre layers

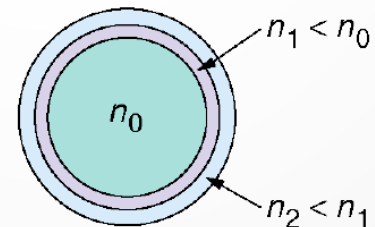


## 4.3 PLASTIC FIBRES

- Core made of Polystyrol or Polyvinyltoluol (refraction index  $n_0$ ). Inserted is a primary scintillator and often a wave length shifter additive.
- The core is surrounded by at least one thin sheet of a material with refraction index  $n_1 < n_0 \rightarrow$  total reflection at the boundary.
- Only a small fraction of the emitted light remains in the fiber and is forwarded by total reflection.



Longitudinal and cross section of a scintillating fiber with two sheets. Shown is a traversing charged particle with 2 emitted photons and the allowed opening angle for total reflection.



Scintillating fibers for the MINOS detector (Fermilab), fiber diameter 1 mm

Scintillating fibers for the electromagnetic calorimeter of the CHORUS experiment (SPS, CERN)





## 4.4 PHOTO DETECTORS (OVERVIEW)

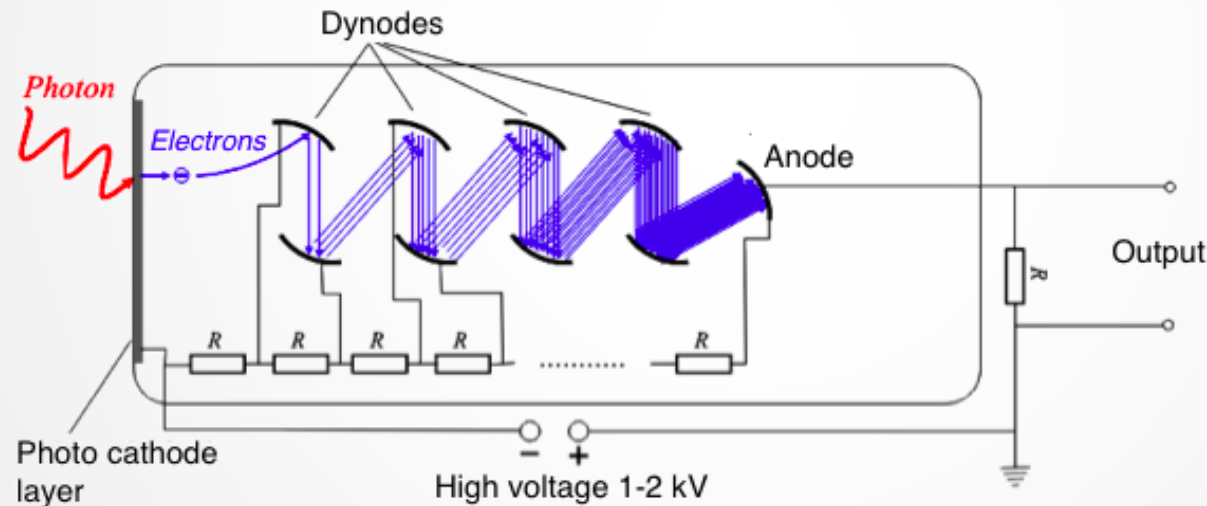
Image: Hamamatsu

- Different photo detectors used to read light from scintillators and transform it into electric signals:
  - “Classical” Photomultipliers
  - “New” silicon devices: APD, SiPM
  - Hybrid Photon Detectors HPD
  - Gaseous Detectors
- can give only few examples!



## 4.5 PHOTOMULTIPLIERS

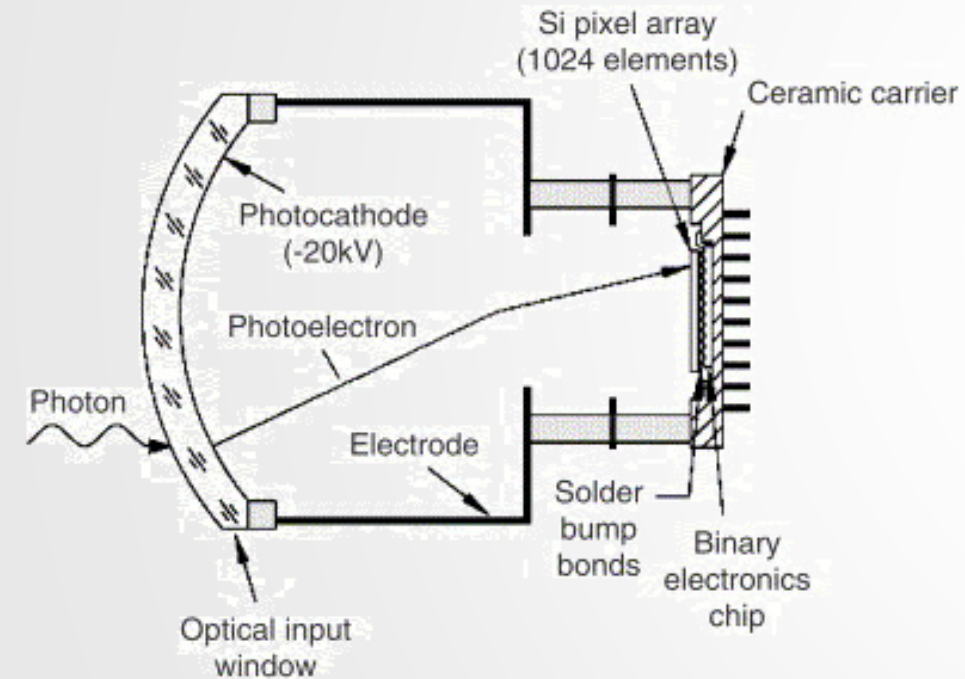
- Photons hitting the photo cathode release electrons (**photoelectric effect**).
  - The electrons are accelerated towards the 1<sup>st</sup> dynode and produce secondary emission.
  - This process is repeated at each dynode and finally the largely amplified electrons reach the anode.
- Quantum efficiency 10 – 30% (probability that a photon leads to e- emission), depending on wave length, entry window material, photo cathode.



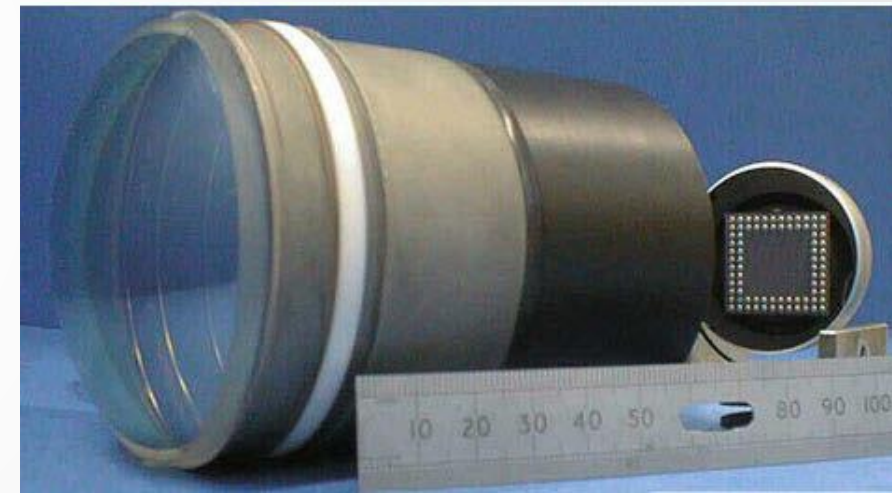
- Advantages: high amplification gains  $10^4 - 10^7$
- Disadvantage: sensitive to magnetic fields

## 4.6 HYBRID PHOTO DIODES

- Photoelectrons are accelerated in vacuum (20 kV) and detected with a silicon hybrid pixel detector.



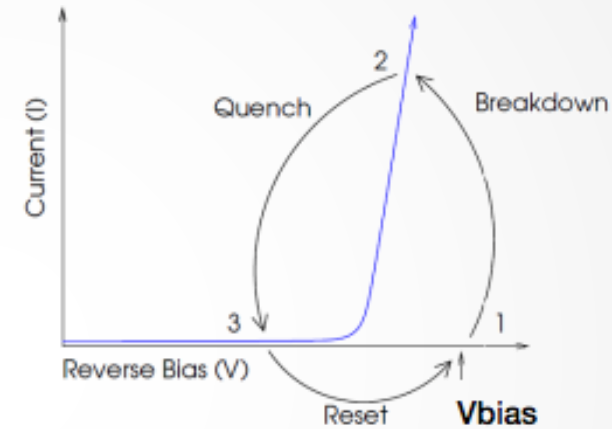
HPD from LHCb RICH



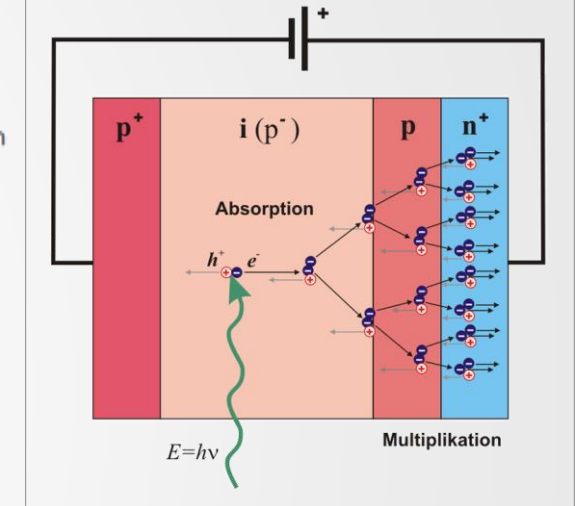
## 4.7 APD/SiPM

- Avalanche Photo Diodes (APDs) are silicon devices operated in reverse bias mode in the breakdown regime.
- Geiger mode APDs (G-APD) operate in full breakdown (caused by secondary ionization). The current limited by quenching resistor.
  - G-APDs can detect single photons!
  - assembled in matrix (SiPM)
- general properties
  - high gain in the range of  $10^5$  to  $10^7$
  - Work at low bias voltage  $\sim 50$  V
  - Low power consumption
  - Insensitive to magnetic fields
  - Radiation hard
  - Tolerant against accidental illumination
  - cheap
  - but high dark counts

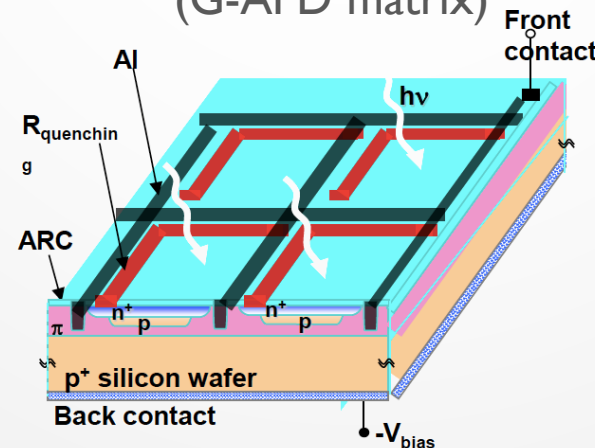
APD operating principle



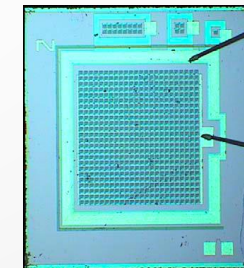
APD schematic



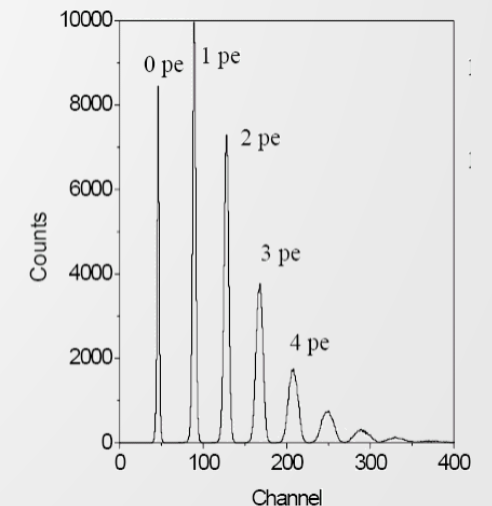
SiPM  
(G-APD matrix)



SiPM  
(1mm)



SiPM dark count rate



# THE END!

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