

A short Overview on Scintillators

By C. D'Ambrosio (CERN)

Geneva, 13 April 2005





- Lecture 1 - Introduction C. Joram, L. Ropelewski
- Lecture 2 - Tracking Detectors L. Ropelewski, M. Moll
- Lecture 3 - Scintillation and Photodetection C. D'Ambrosio, T. Gys
- 3a A short overview on scintillators (a personal cut)

What are scintillators

Inorganic scintillators

- Main properties

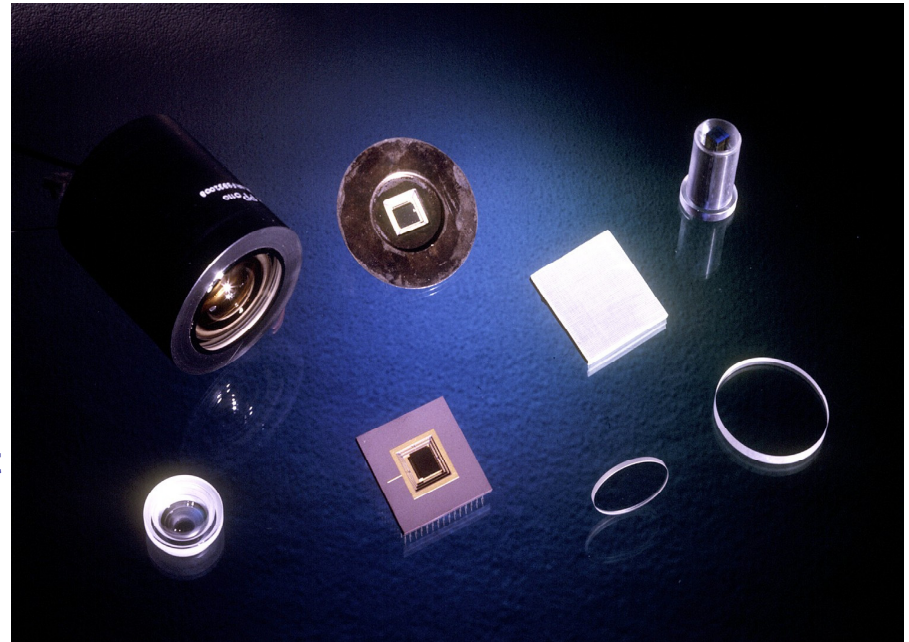
- Applications

Organic scintillators

- Scintillation mechanisms

- Plastic scintillators and their readout

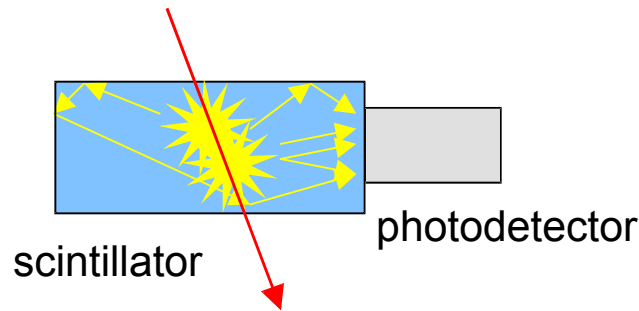
- Scintillating plastic fibres



3b Photodetectors

Lecture 4 - Calorimetry, Particle ID C. Joram

Lecture 5 - Particle ID, Detector Systems C. Joram, C. D'Ambrosio



Energy deposition by a ionizing particle

→generation
 →transmission
 →detection

} of scintillation light

Two categories: Inorganic and organic scintillators

Inorganic
(crystalline structure)

Up to 40000 photons per MeV
 High Z
 Large variety of Z and ρ
 Undoped and doped
 ns to μ s decay times
 Expensive

E.m. calorimetry (e, γ)
 Medical imaging
 Fairly Rad. Hard (100 kGy/year)

Organic
(plastics or liquid solutions)

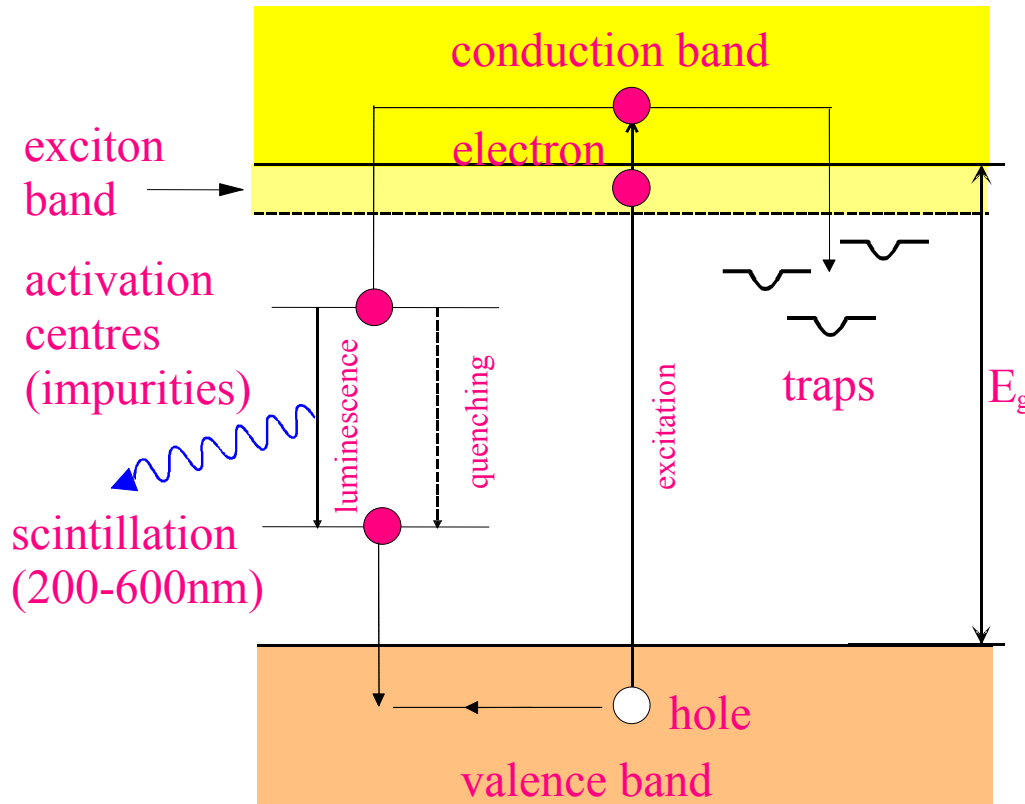
Up to 10000 photons per MeV
 Low Z
 $\rho \sim 1 \text{ gr/cm}^3$
 Doped, large choice of emission wavelength
 ns decay times
 Relatively inexpensive

Tracking, TOF, trigger, veto counters,
 sampling calorimeters.
 Medium Rad. Hard (10 kGy/year)



Inorganic Scintillators

- Basic scintillation mechanisms in crystals and liquefied noble gases
- Temperature dependence of scintillation yield
- Photon absorption processes in crystals
- Table of common scintillators properties
- Applications:
 - X-ray and Gamma Spectroscopy
 - Imaging



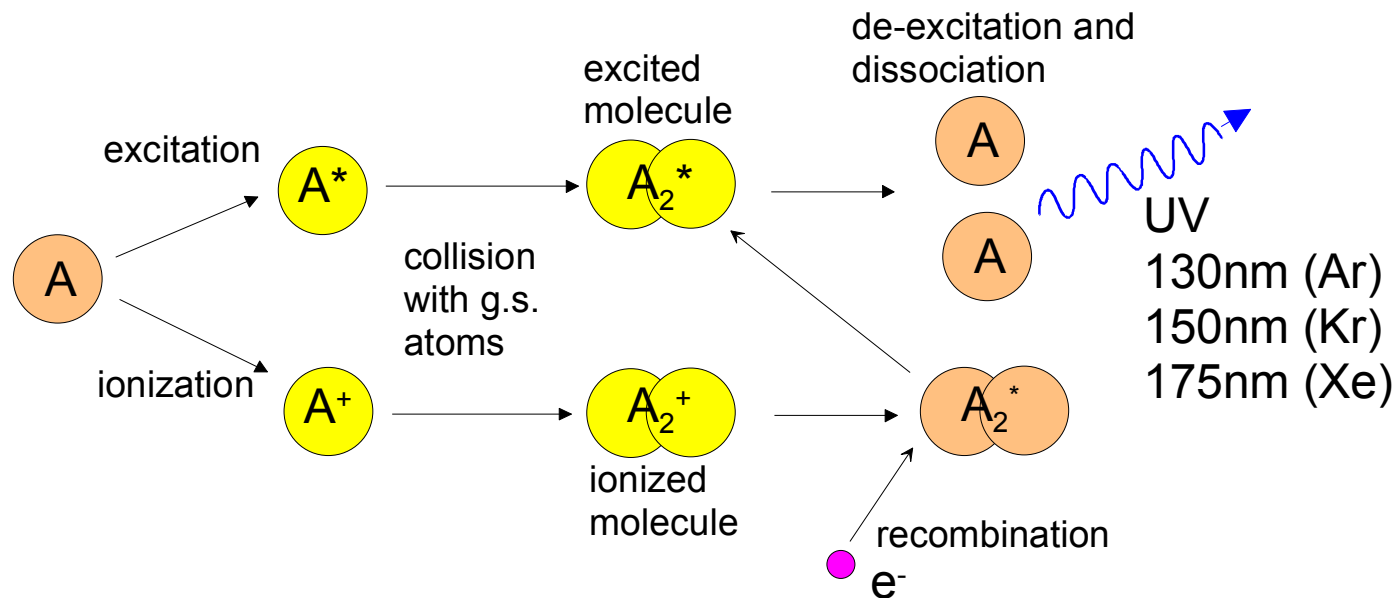
Warning, sometimes ≥ 2 time constants:

- fast recombination (ns- μ s) from activation centers
- delayed recombination due to trapping (μ s-ms)

• full control of growth, doping and impurities is imperative to optimize light yield, transmission and decay time

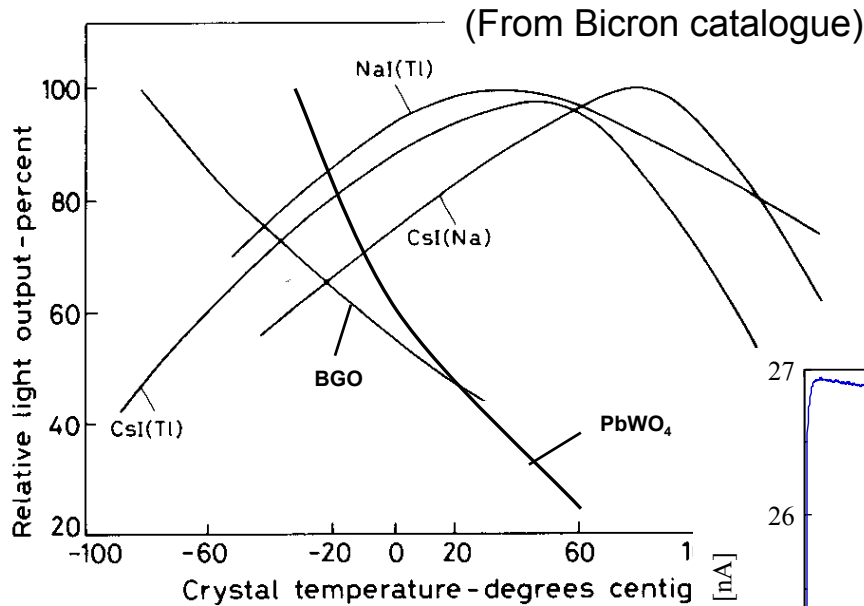
Liquefied noble gases

Liquefied noble gases: LAr, LXe, LKr



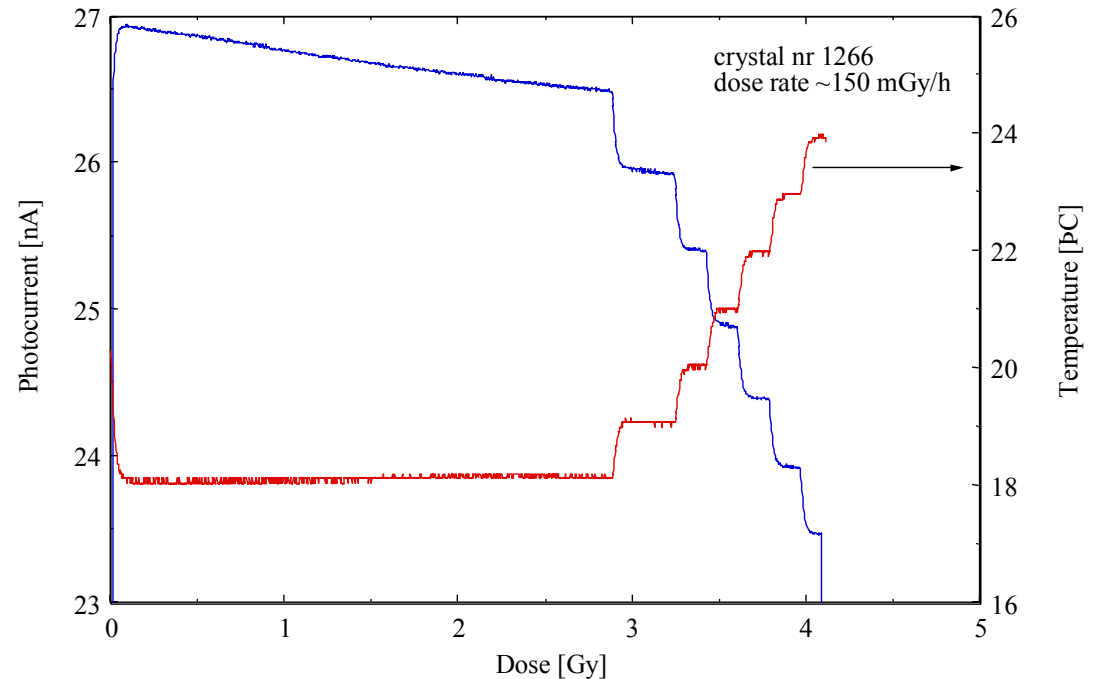
Also here one finds 2 time constants: from a few ns to 1 μ s.

Light output of crystals depends on temperature



Low dose irradiation of an **old** PbWO_4 crystal and check of the temperature dependence of its light yield (1996). The blue curve is the photocurrent generated by the irradiation and the red curve is the temperature of the sample.

The PbWO_4 crystal is used in CMS ECAL and its $\sim 2\%$ light yield decrease per $^\circ\text{C}$ asks for temp. control and monitoring





The intensity I of a gamma beam traversing a target of thickness d is

$$I = I_0 e^{-\mu d}$$

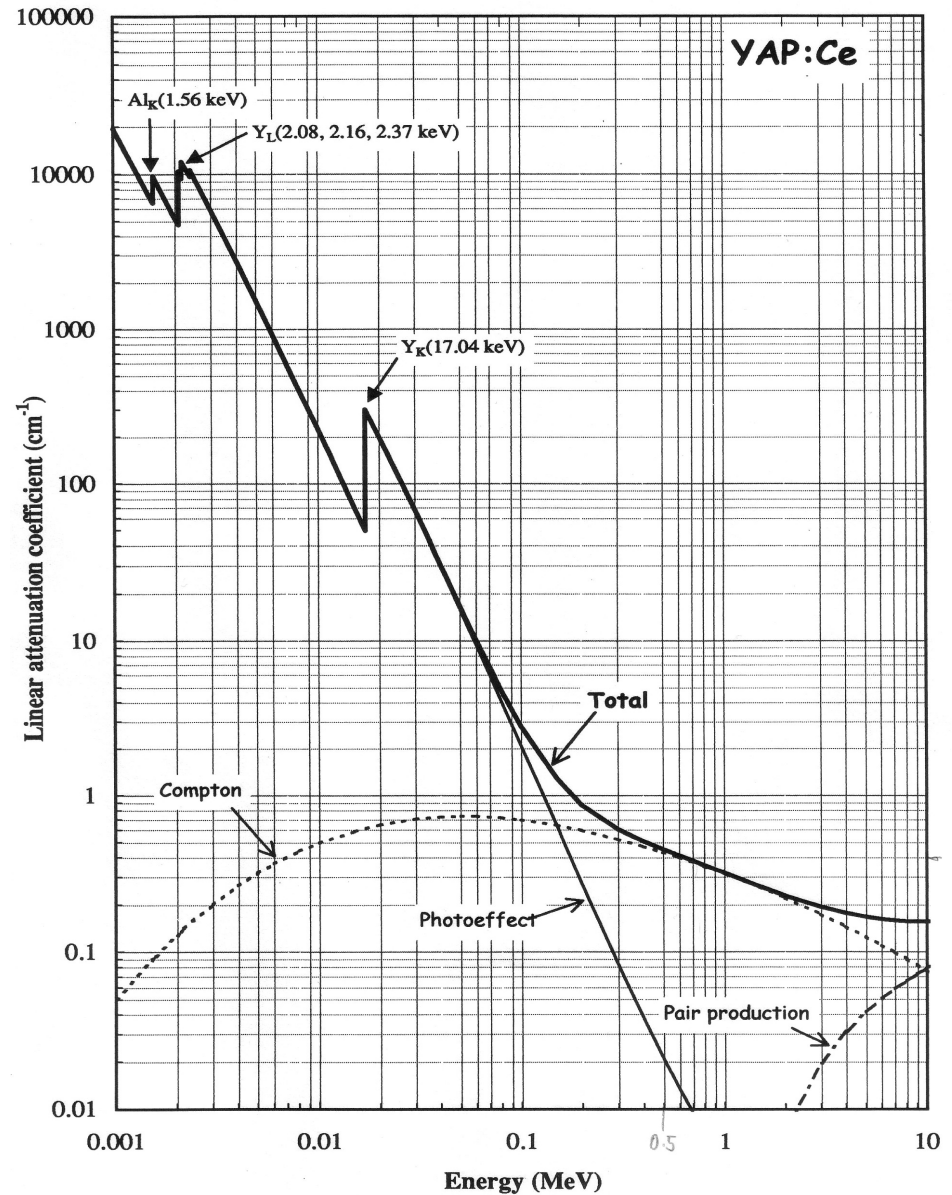
Where μ is the sum of three processes taking place in the material:

Photoel. Abs. $\rightarrow Z^4$ to $Z^5 \rightarrow E^{-3.5}$ to E^{-1}

Compton scatt. $\rightarrow Z \rightarrow E^{-1}$

Pair production $\rightarrow Z^2 \rightarrow \ln E$

(curve will extend to higher energies, see Christian's talk)





Properties of some crystal scintillators

Scintillator composition	Density (g/cm ³)	Index of refraction	Wavelength of max.Em. (nm)	Decay time Constant (μs)	Scinti Pulse height ¹⁾	Notes
NaI(Tl)	3.67	1.9	410	0.25	100	2)
CsI	4.51	1.8	310	0.01	6	3)
CsI(Tl)	4.51	1.8	565	1.0	45	3)
CaF ₂ (Eu)	3.19	1.4	435	0.9	50	
BaF ₂	4.88	1.5	190/220 310	0,0006 0.63	5 15	
BGO	7.13	2.2	480	0.30	10	
CdWO ₄	7.90	2.3	540	5.0	40	
PbWO ₄	8.28	2.1	440	0.020	0.1	
CeF ₃	6.16	1.7	300 340	0.005 0.020	5	
GSO	6.71	1.9	430	0.060	40	
LSO	7	1.8	420	0.040	75	
YAP	5.50	1.9	370	0.030	70	

1) Relative to NaI(Tl) in %; 2) Hygroscopic; 3) Water soluble



Most common applications of inorganic scintillators

3a Scintillators

- Calorimetry (for HEP, see Christian's lecture)
- X-ray and gamma spectroscopy
- Imaging
 - Positron Emission Tomography (PET) in medical imaging
 - Gamma Imaging (Anger camera) (see Thierry's talk)
- Monitoring in nuclear plants
- Oil wells, Mining, etc.

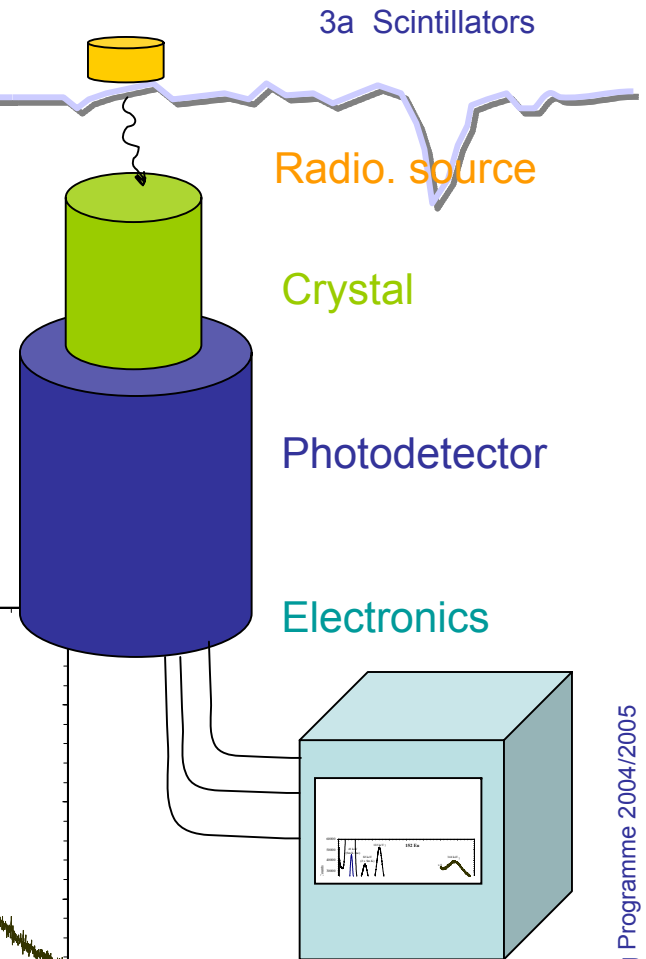
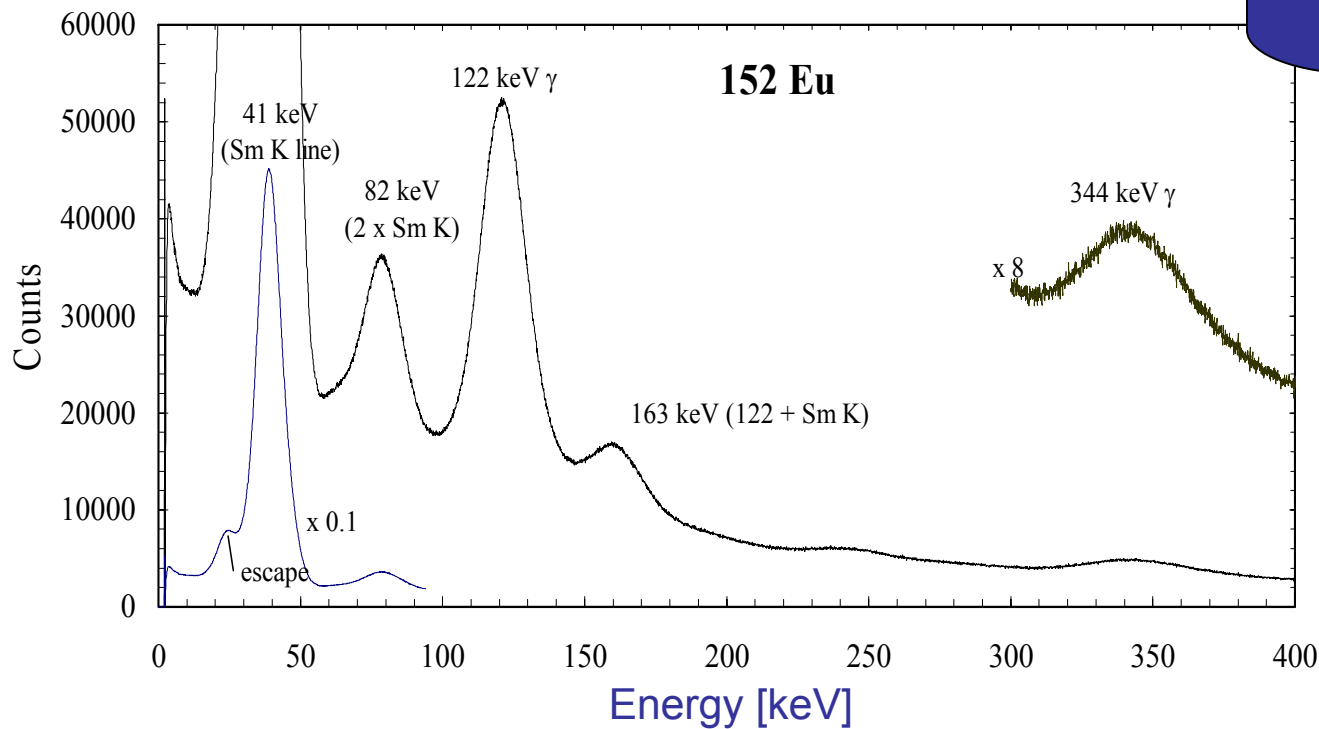


X-ray and gamma spectroscopy

The simple set-up:

each detected gamma provides an amplitude signal, which fills a pulse-height spectrum.

We can **monitor** radiation, **study** atomic or nuclear spectra, **research and characterize** new crystals, **test** new photo-detectors, **produce** special probes, etc..



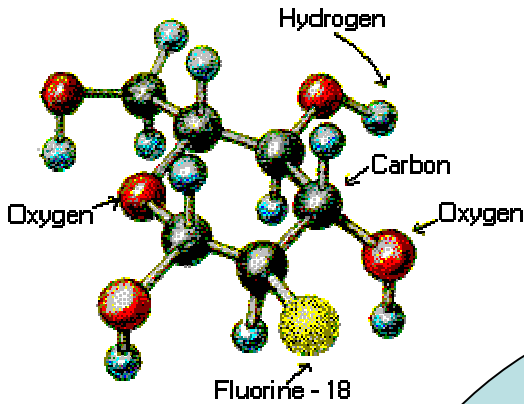
Irradiation of a YAP(Ce) crystal by ^{152}Eu on a HPD



Positron Emission Tomography (PET)

<http://www.medical.philips.com/main/products/pet/products/gemini/clinicalimages/10/index.asp>

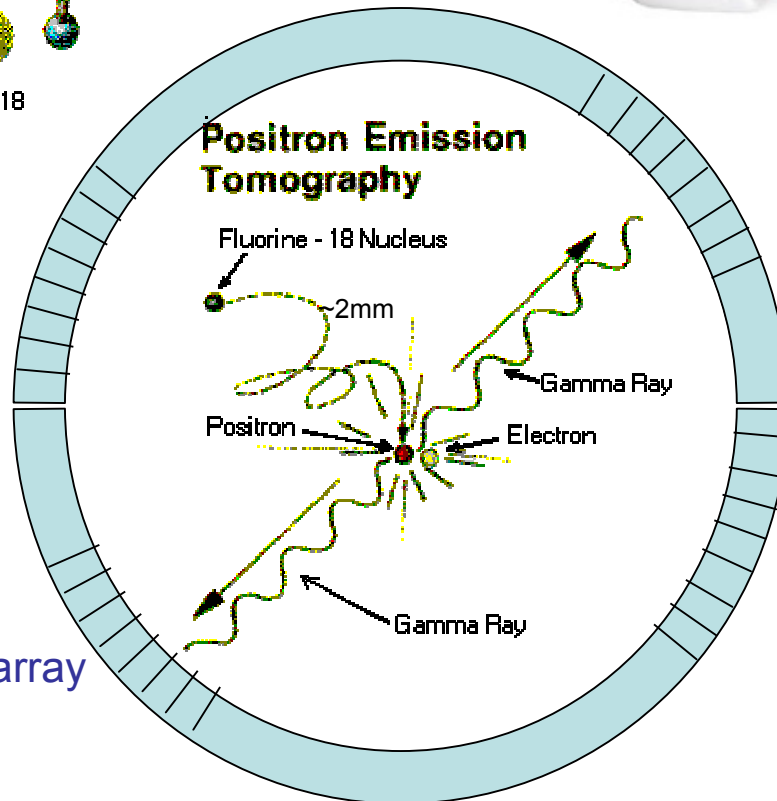
2-fluoro-2-deoxy-D-glucose "FDG"



<http://www.triumf.ca/welcome/petscan.html>



NOT TO SCALE!!



2 x 511 keV energy

γ - γ co-linearity

time coincidence

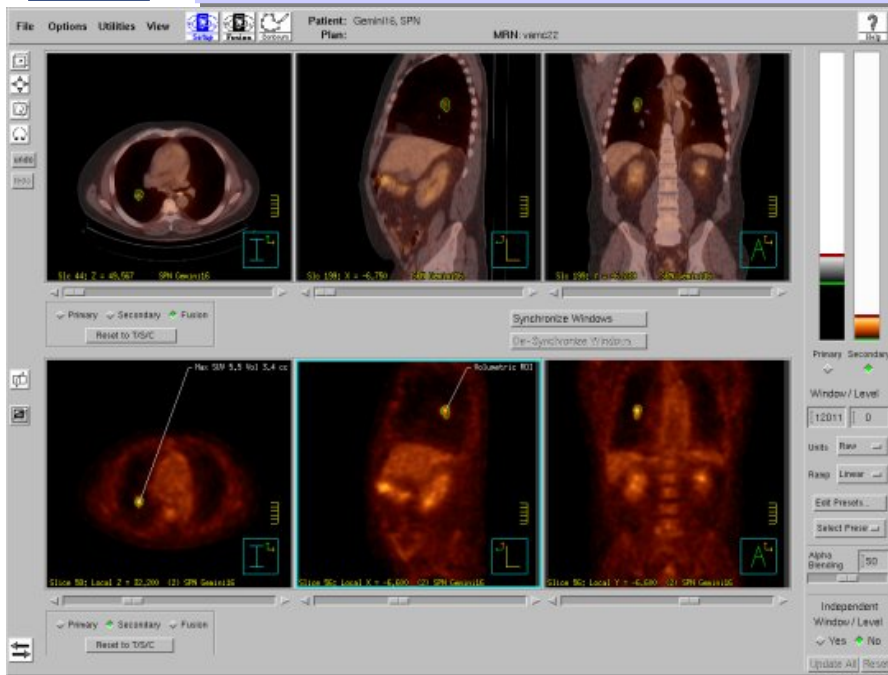
reconstruct functional image

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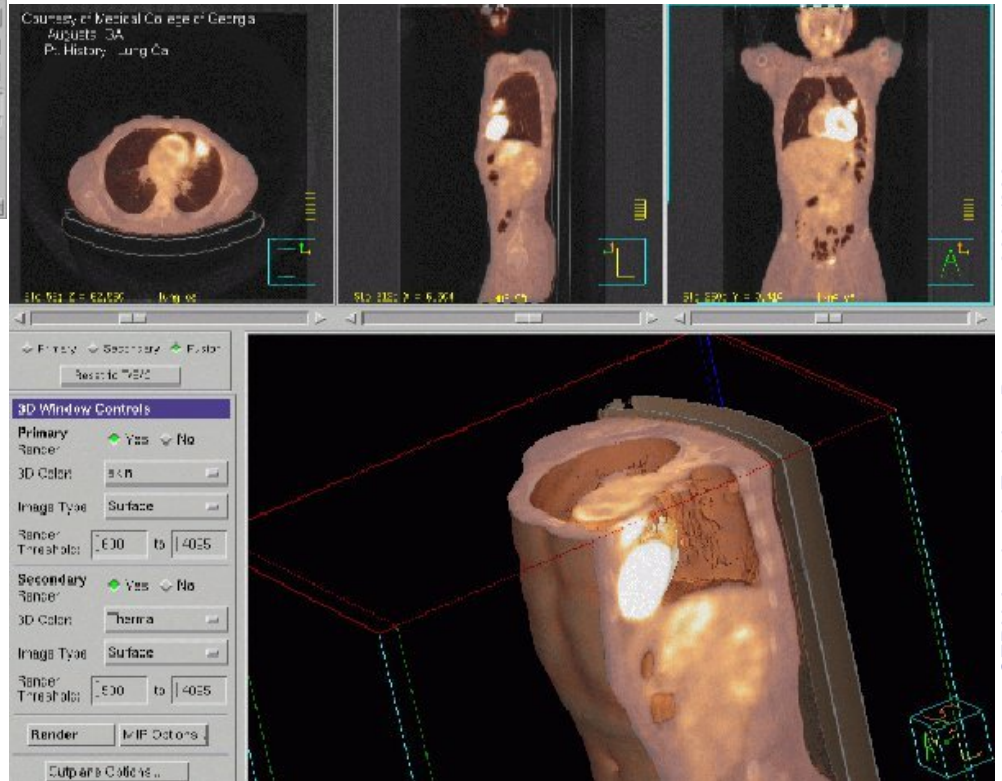


PET images to be found on the web

3a Scintillators



<http://www.medical.philips.com/main/products/pet/products/gemini/clinicalimages>



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Main R&D on inorganic scintillators

3a Scintillators

- Higher densities for higher Z (improve photoabsorption)
- High light yield (NaI(Tl) light yield still unchallenged)
- Short decay time (improve time resolution)
- Improve light coupling with photon detector
- More radiation hard
- Inexpensive, “easy” to manufacture, reproducible
- Large size, easy handling and “machinable”

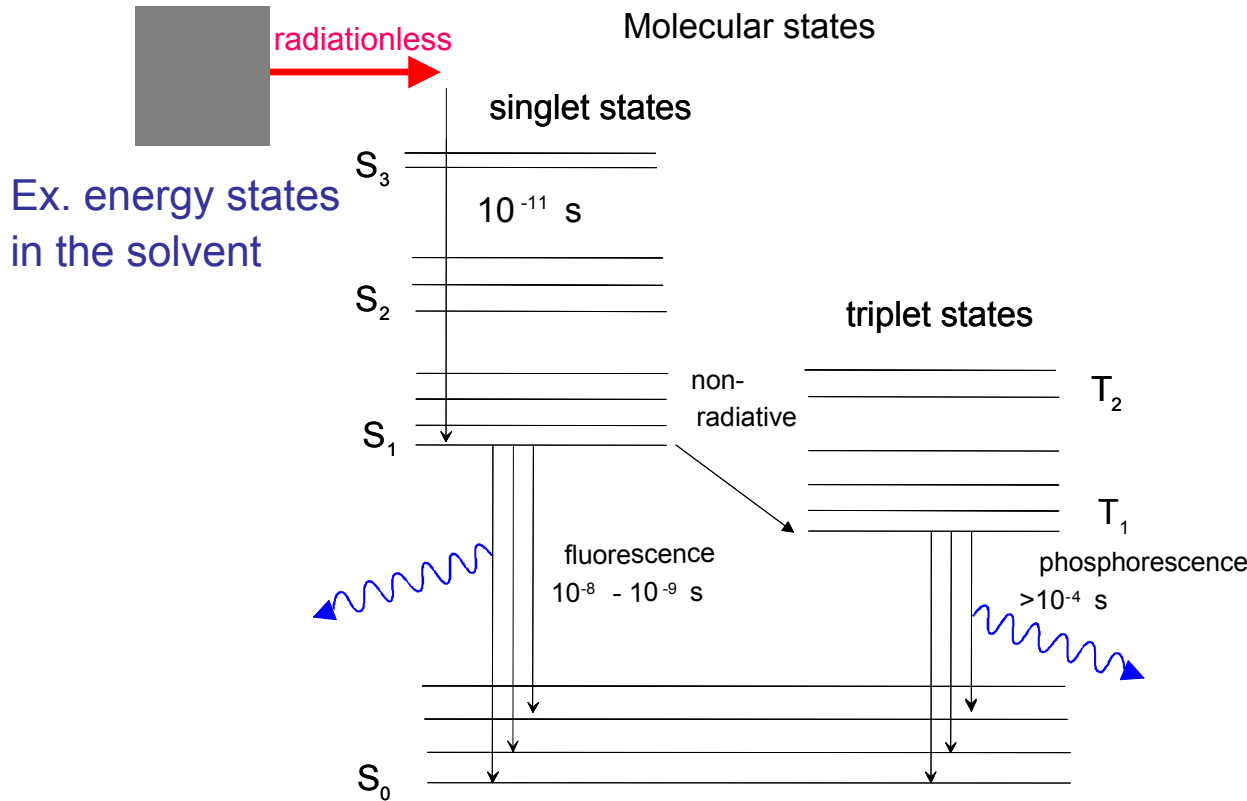


Organic Scintillators

- Basic scintillation mechanisms in organic scintillators
- Förster energy transfer and self absorption
- One dopant and two dopants scintillators
- Readout of scintillators
- Applications of organic scintillators
- Example: small diameter scintillating fibres and their readout

They **usually** consist of a solvent + scintillator and a secondary fluor as wavelength shifters.

A traversing ionizing particle releases energy in the solvent. Then, energy flows **radiationless*** to the scintillator. Finally, light emitted by the scintillator is absorbed (**radiative transfer****) and re-emitted at longer wavelength by the secondary fluor.



A fluor has its absorption and emission spectra shifted. The two peaks difference is called **Stokes shift**

***fast and local energy transfer via non-radiative dipole-dipole interactions (Förster transfer).**

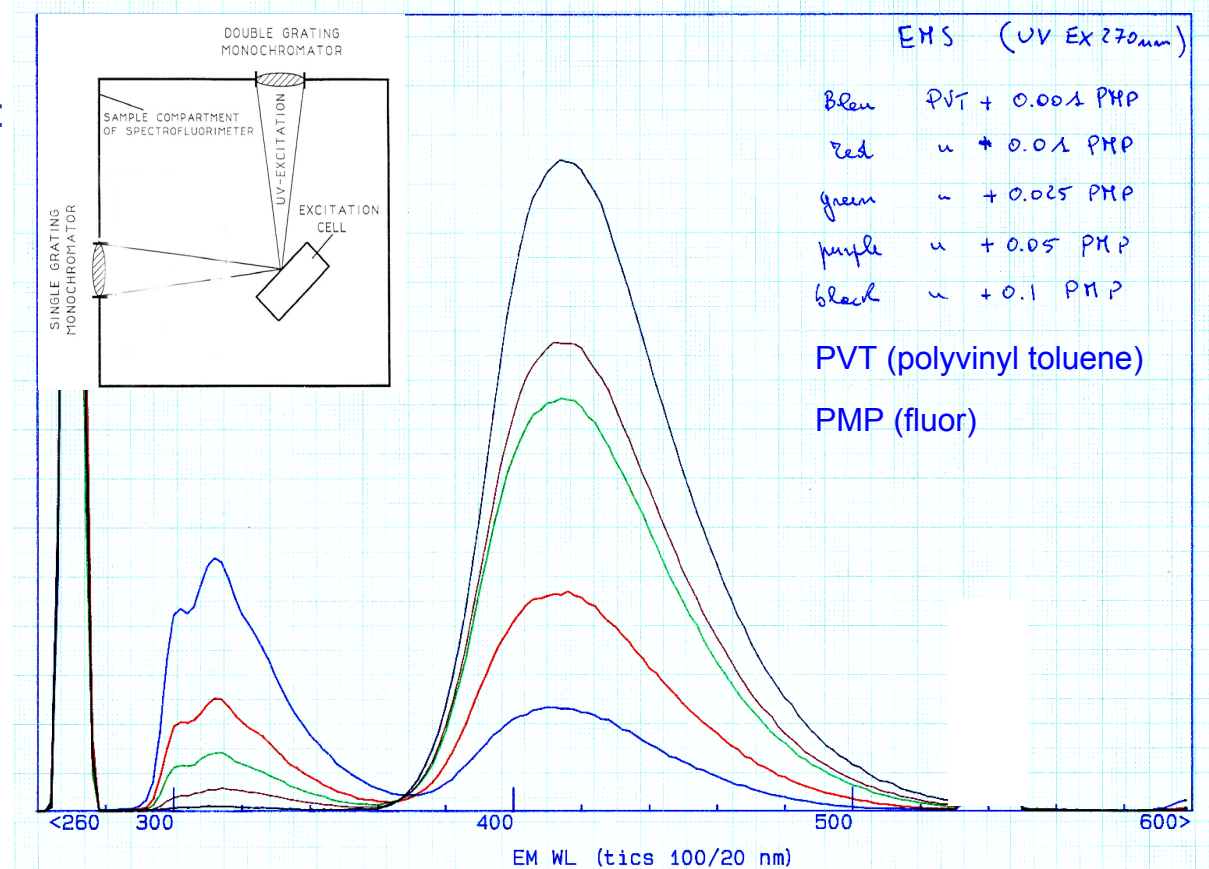
****~1/R² light attenuation**

Efficient Förster transfer asks for high concentrations of scintillator:

$$k_{D \rightarrow A} \propto \frac{1}{\tau_D R_{DA}^6} \int \frac{f_D(\nu) \epsilon_A(\nu)}{\nu^4} d\nu$$

where the integral is the overlap between Acceptor abs. and Donor emission spectra and R is the D-A distance

But...



Self-absorption increases with doping concentration, that is smaller light yields and shorter attenuation lengths:

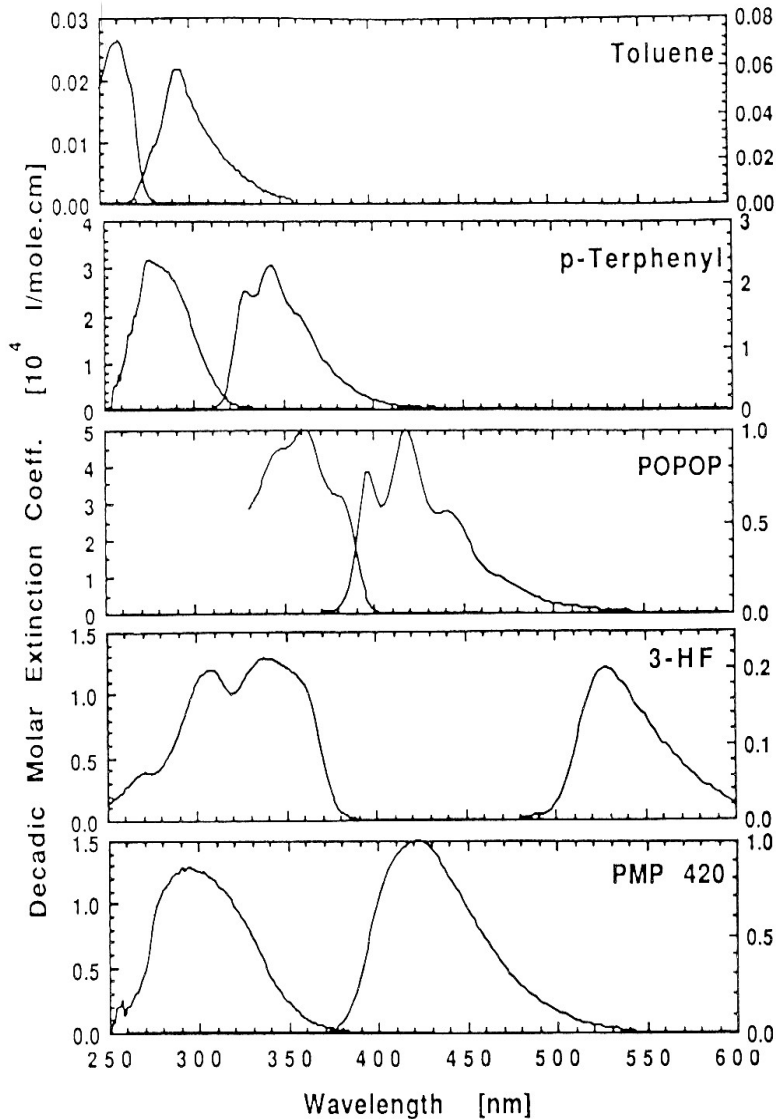
Therefore, add a low concentration wavelength shifter (2 dop. Scheme) **or**

Find large Stokes shift dopants (1 dop. Scheme, ex. 3hf, pmp)



Two / One Dopant scheme

Abs. and emission spectra

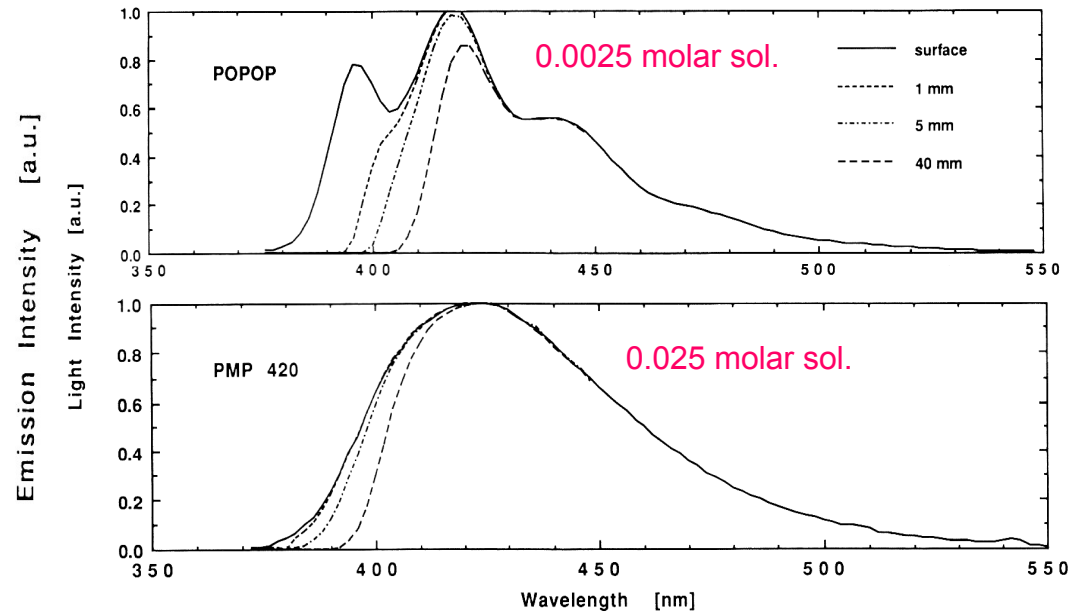


solvent + scintillator + wave shifter

Förster Radiative

Förster

solvent + large stokes shift scintillator

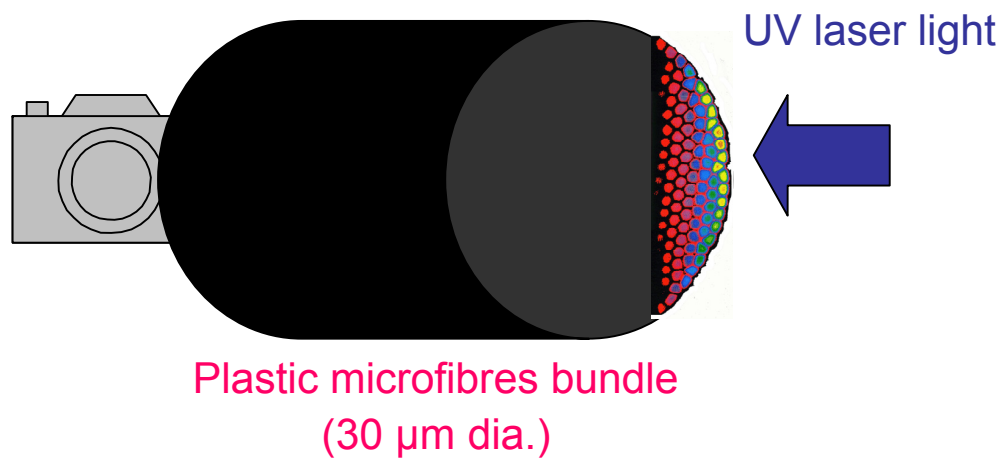


Dopants in toluene: large Stokes shift dopants feature a much smaller self-absorption

Application of the two types of doping

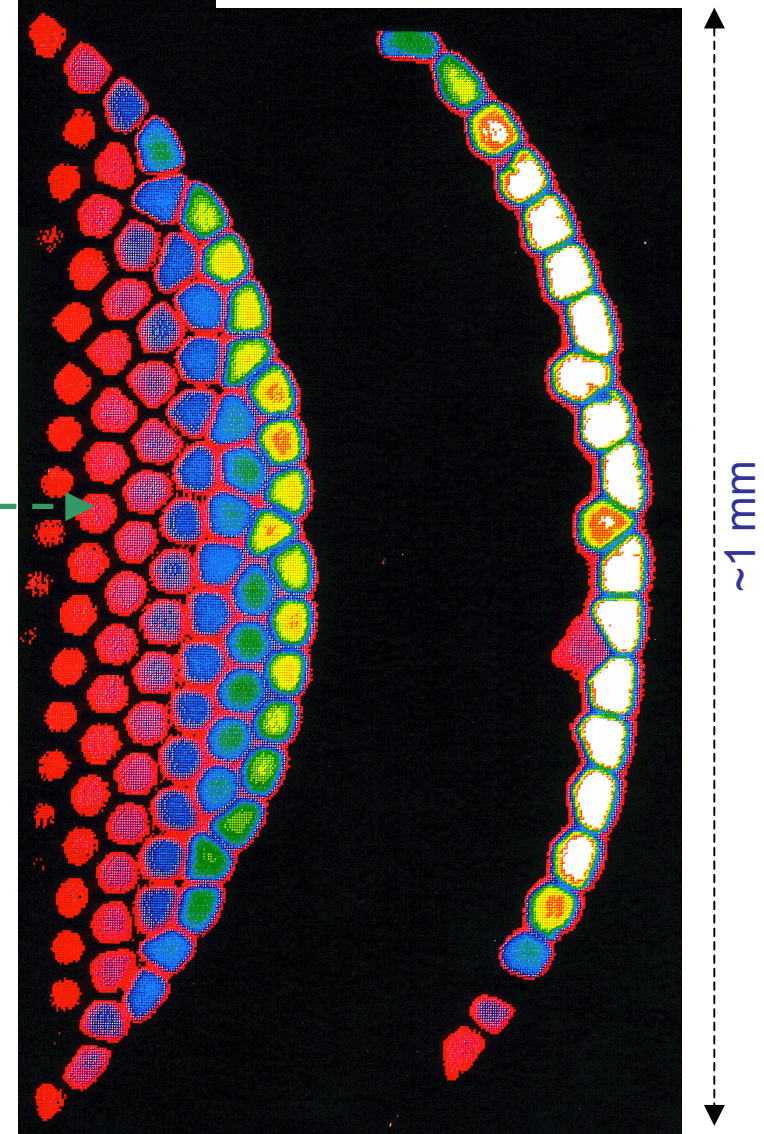
The **two dopants** scheme is the most common: it is applied to all plastic scintillators, down to ~ 1 mm fibres.

The **one dopant** scheme is needed to keep the light emission local (only Förster transfer) as it is the case for small diameter fibres



2 dop. Scheme (PS+p-Ter+POPOP) — — — — —

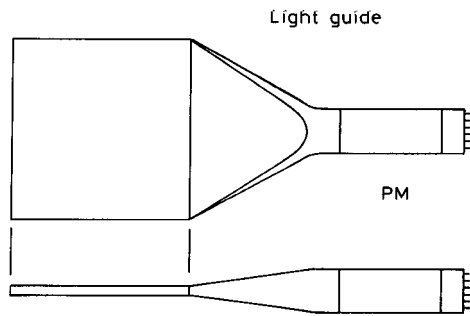
1 dop. Scheme (PS+PMP)



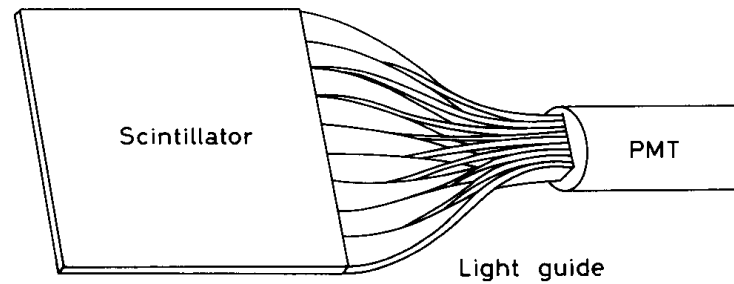
Readout has to be adapted to geometry, granularity and emission spectrum of scintillator.

Geometrical adaptation:

- Light guides: transfer by total internal reflection (+outer reflector)

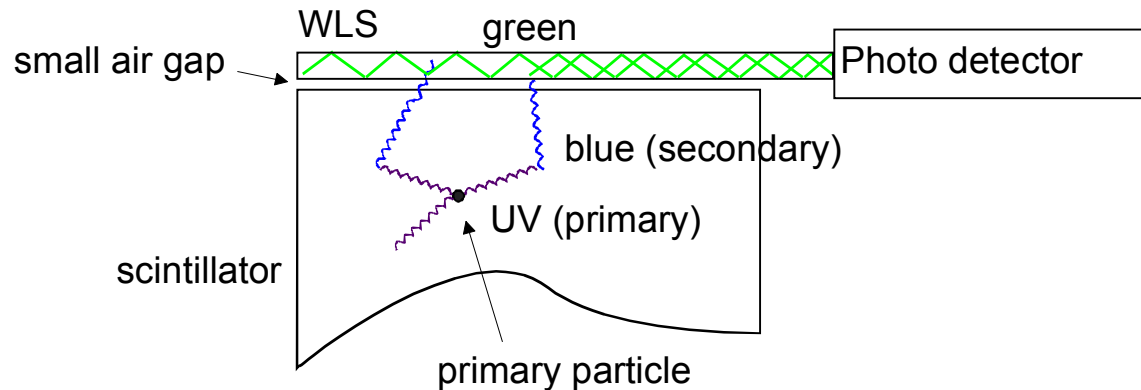


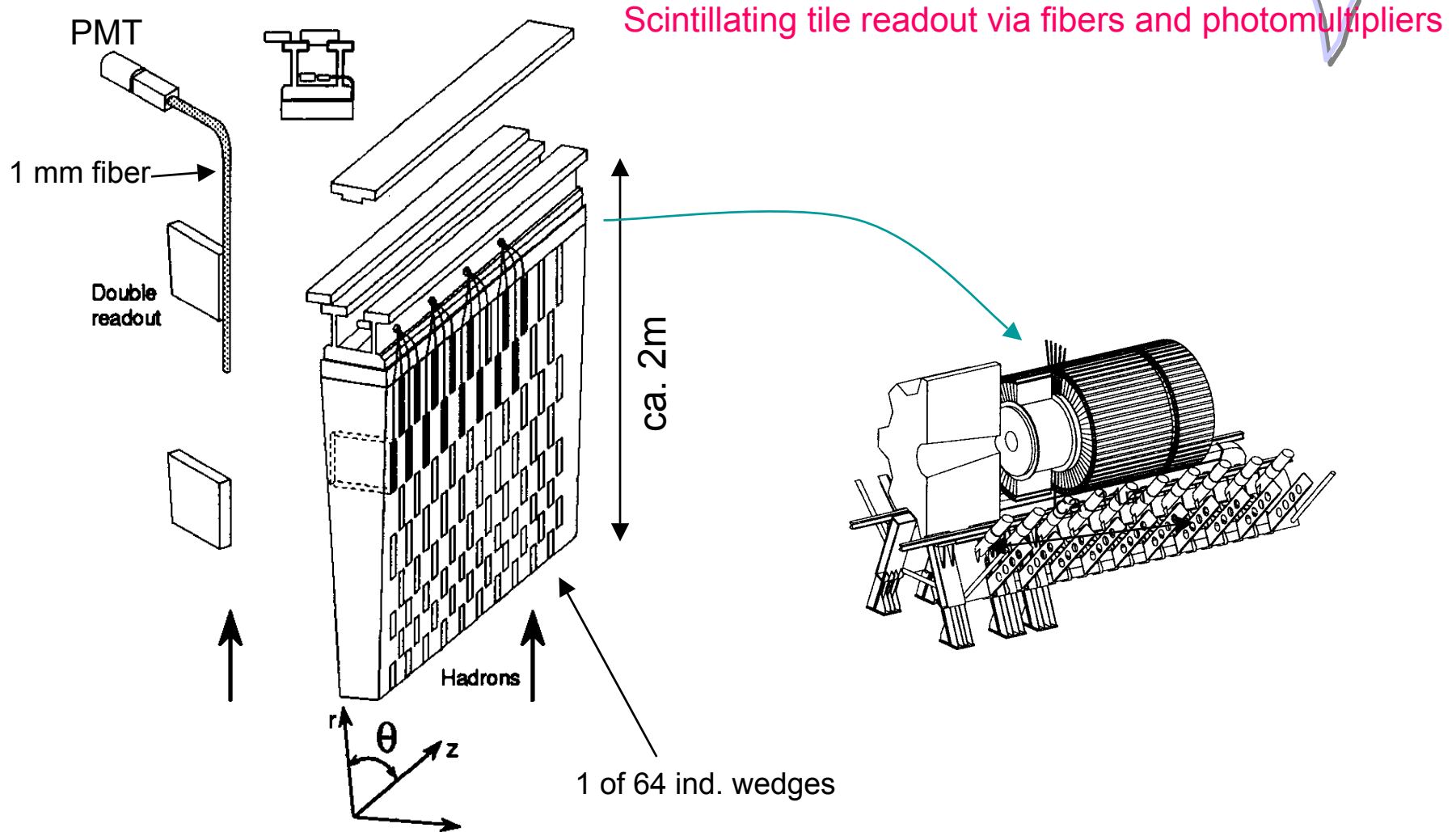
“fish tail”



adiabatic

- wavelength shifter (WLS) bars





Periodical arrangement of scintillator tiles (3 mm thick) in a steel absorber structure

(ATLAS TDR)

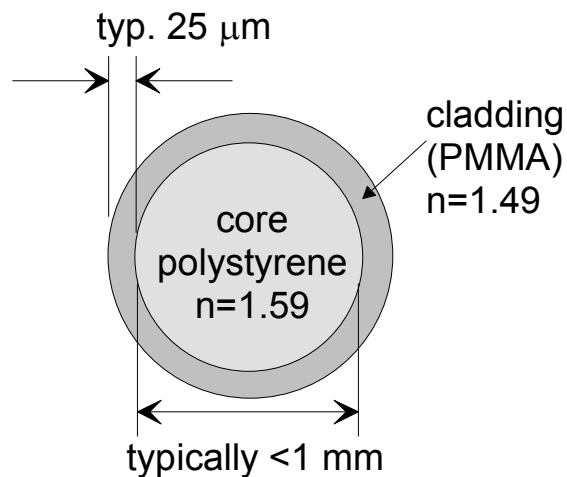


Most common applications of organic scintillators

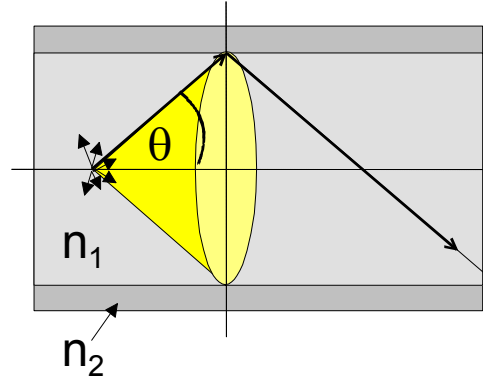
Large volume liquid or solid detectors (in form of tiles): underground experiments, sampling calorimeters (**HCAL** in CMS or **ATLAS**, etc.), counters, light guides.

High precision, small volume active targets and fibre tracking (UA2, D0, CHORUS).

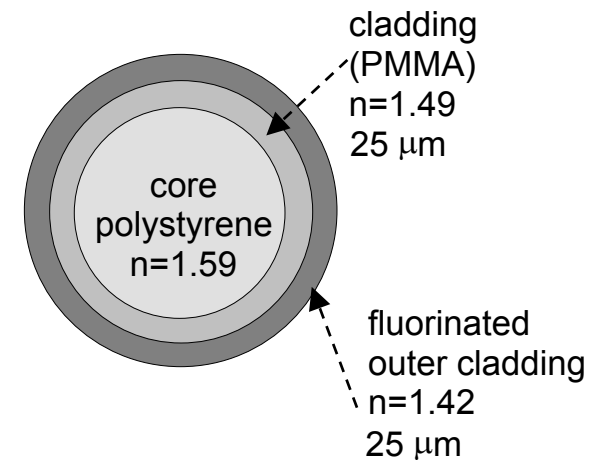
As an example, a **scintillating plastic fibre** working principle:



light transport by total internal reflection



Double cladding system
(developed by RD7)



$$\frac{d\Omega}{4\pi} = 0.5 (1 - \cos^2 \theta) = 3\%$$

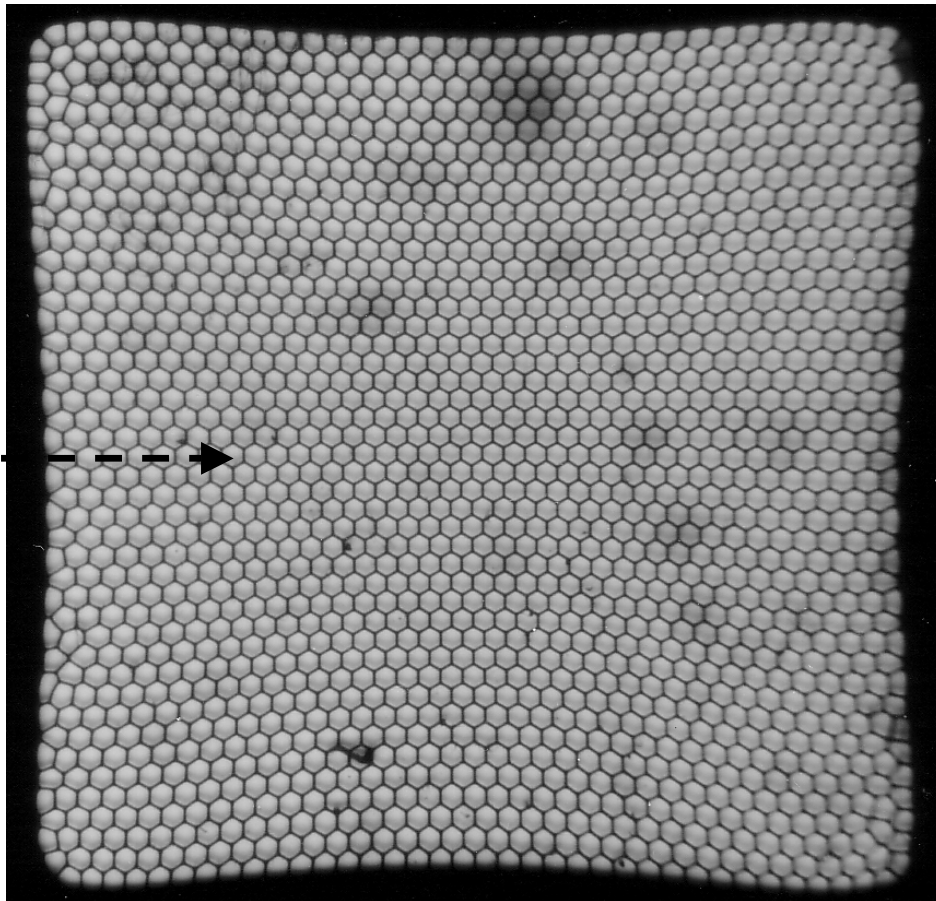
$$\theta \leq \arccos \frac{n_2}{n_1} \approx 69.6^\circ$$

$$\frac{d\Omega}{4\pi} = 0.5 (1 - \cos^2 \theta) \approx 5.3\%$$



Small diameter scintillating fibres

Developed in RD7, they consist of bundles of hexagonal fibres (typ. 60 μm dia., 2.5 mm bundle size)



← - - - - 10 mm - - - - →

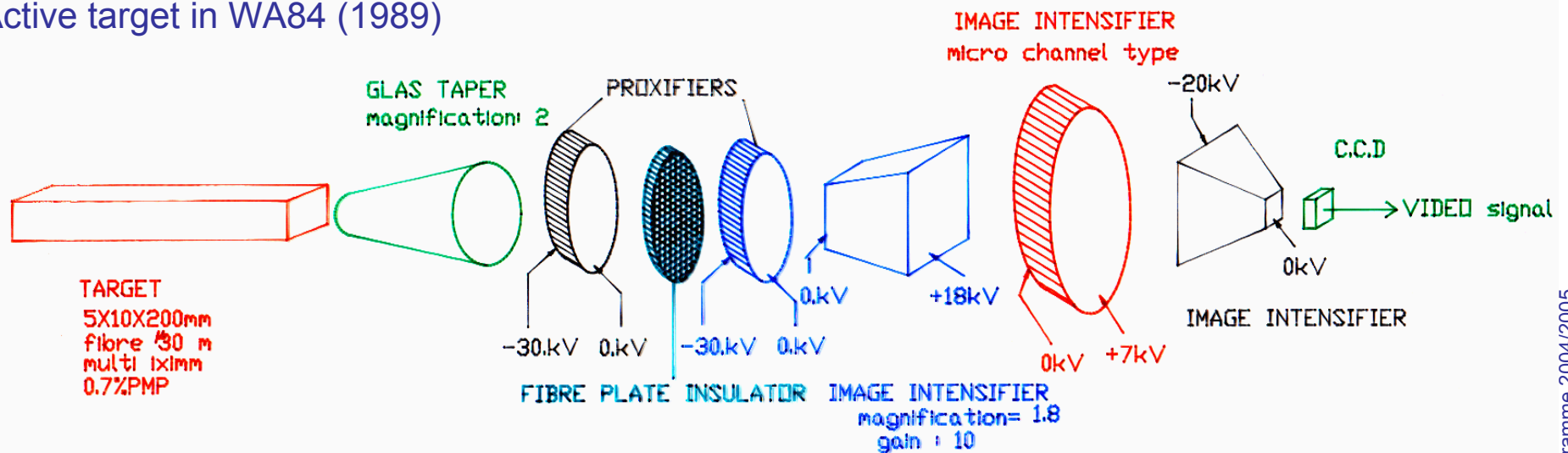
Images of tracks from 5 GeV/c pions (1989)

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Beautiful tracks with only **2.2% of X_0** and **>20 hits**, but...

The readout of fibres is a key point for the whole system

Active target in WA84 (1989)

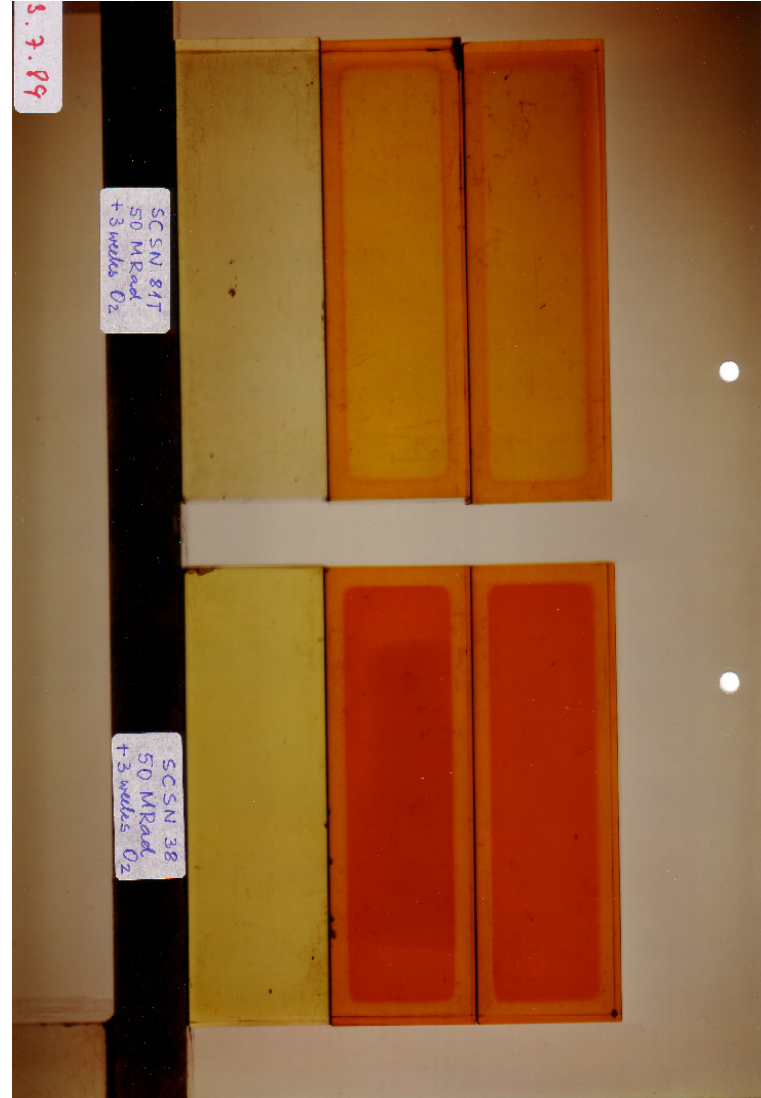
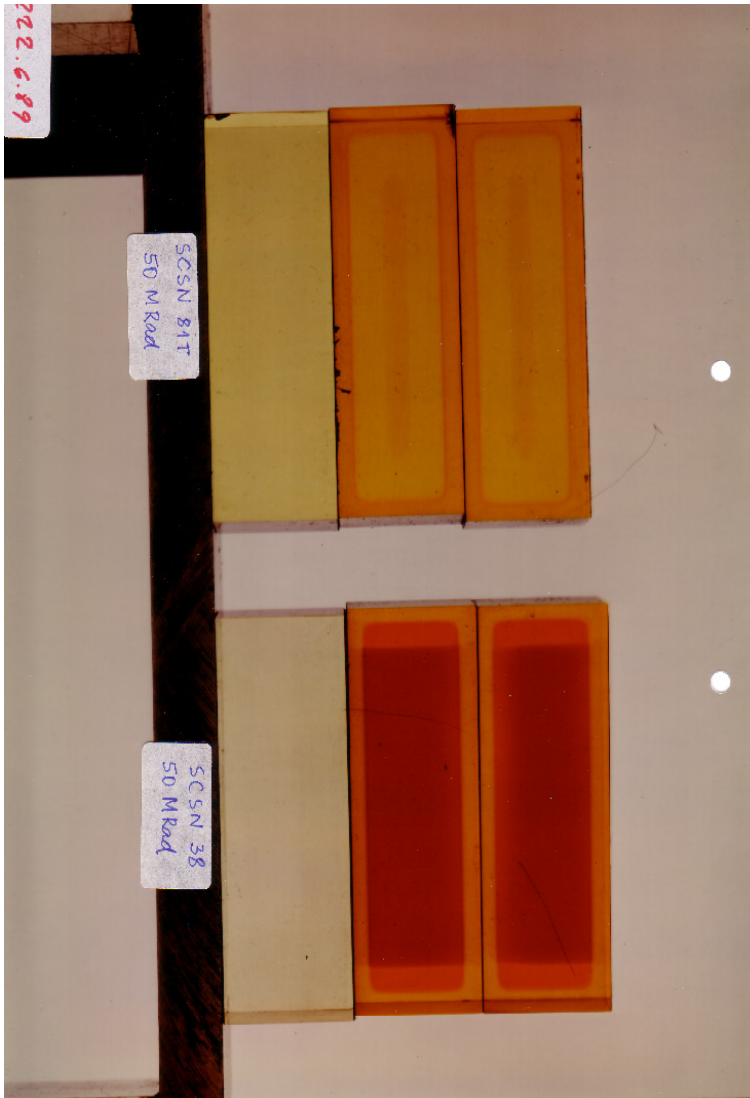


For a tracker, the readout has to match the high granularity of the fibres and bunch crossing time, but stay in the experiment's budget, size, etc.: **a real challenge.**

The **ISPA tube** was especially developed for this (see **Thierry's talk**)

500 kGy irradiation of SCSN81T and SCSN38 from Kuraray

and after 3 weeks recovery in an oxygen-rich atmosphere





R&D on organic scintillators

3a Scintillators

- **New dopants** with better light yield and larger Stokes shift
- High granularity **readout** of fibres
- **Larger attenuation lengths** in plastic fibres
- New **radiation hard** plastics to stand 100 kGy/year dose



References

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