

The Physics of Particle Detectors

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Summer Term 2017

Ruprecht-Karls-University, Heidelberg

Scintillation Detectors

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Scintillation detectors in general



- principle of scintillation detector
 - dE/dx converted into visible light
 - detection via photo sensor (photomultiplier, human eye)
- detect radiation via scintillation
 - one of the oldest methods of particle detection
 - example: particle hits ZnS screen → flash of light
- main features
 - sensitivity to energy deposit
 - fast time response
 - pulse shape discrimination → PID

Scintillation detectors in general



- requirements

- high efficiency for conversion of deposited energy to fluorescent radiation
- transparency to its fluorescent radiation to allow the transmission of light
- emission of light in a spectral range detectable for photosensors
- short decay time to allow fast response

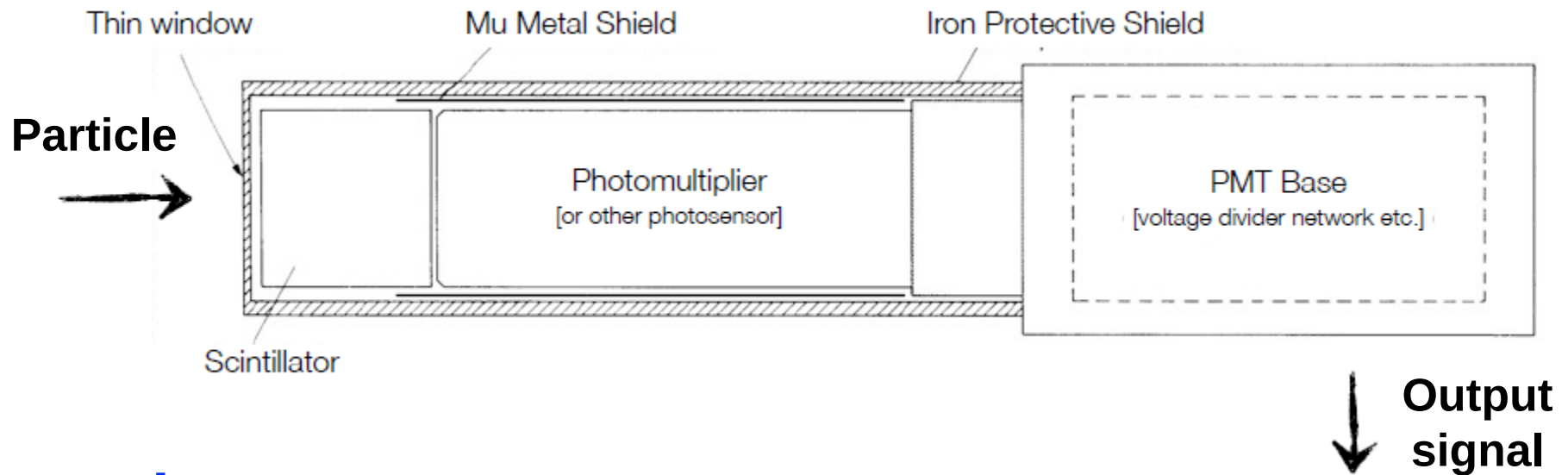
- scintillating materials

- inorganic crystals
- organic crystals
- polymers (plastic scintillators)



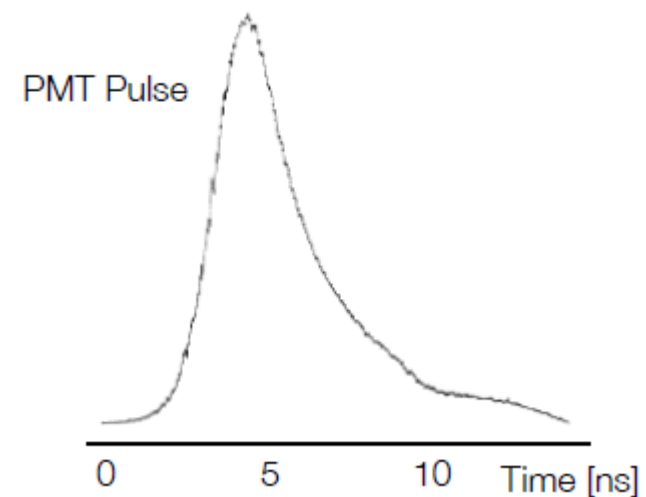
TAPS BaF₂ crystals

Basic Detector Setup



■ topics

- scintillators
- propagation of light
- photon detection
- applications



Inorganic crystals



- PbWO_4 crystals from the CMS electromagnetic calorimeter



Inorganic crystals

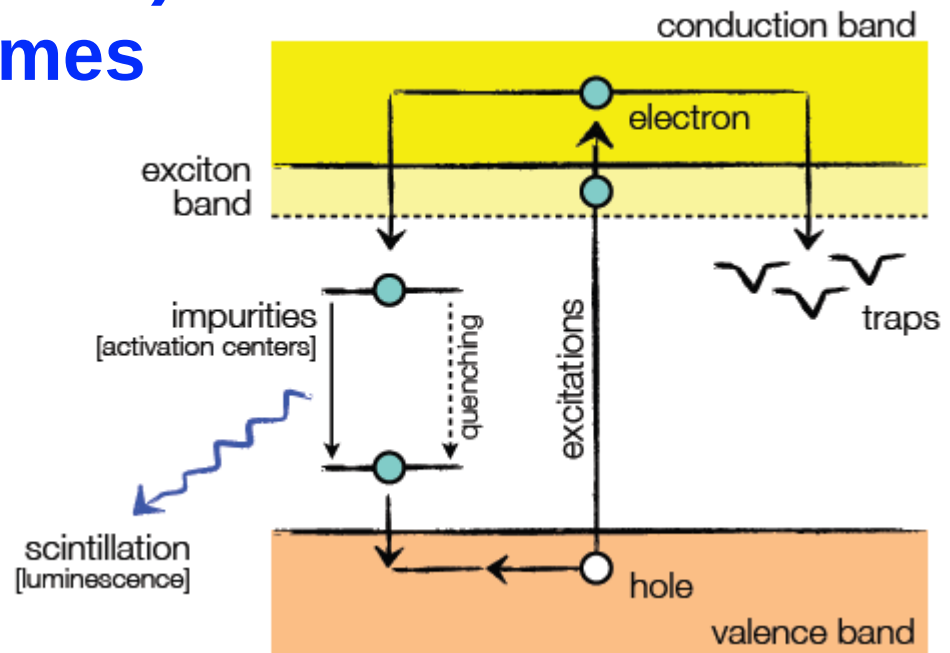


- crystals (electric insulators) with impurities (sometimes introduced via doping, e.g. NaI(Tl))

- sodium iodide (NaI)
- cesium iodide (CsI)
- barium fluoride (BaF_2)
- lead tungstate (PbWO_4)

- working principle

- energy deposit via ionization
→ promote electrons into higher bands
- energy transfer to impurities
- emission of scintillation photons



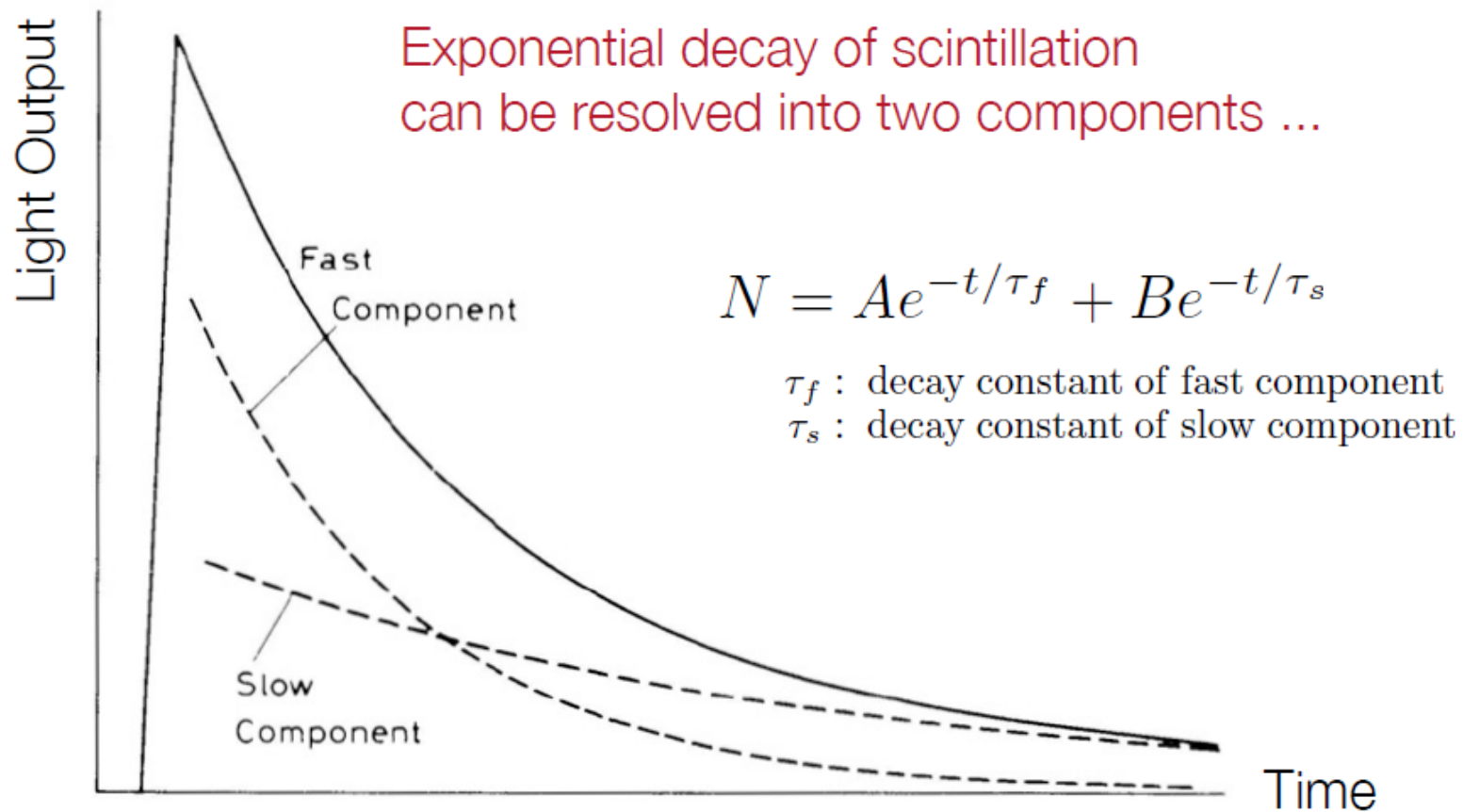
Energy bands in
impurity activated crystal
showing excitation, luminescence,
quenching and trapping

Inorganic crystals: time constants

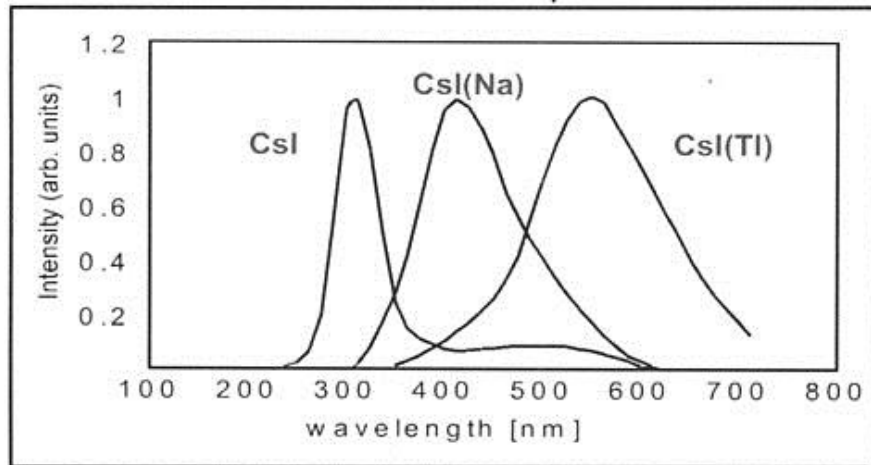


- time constants

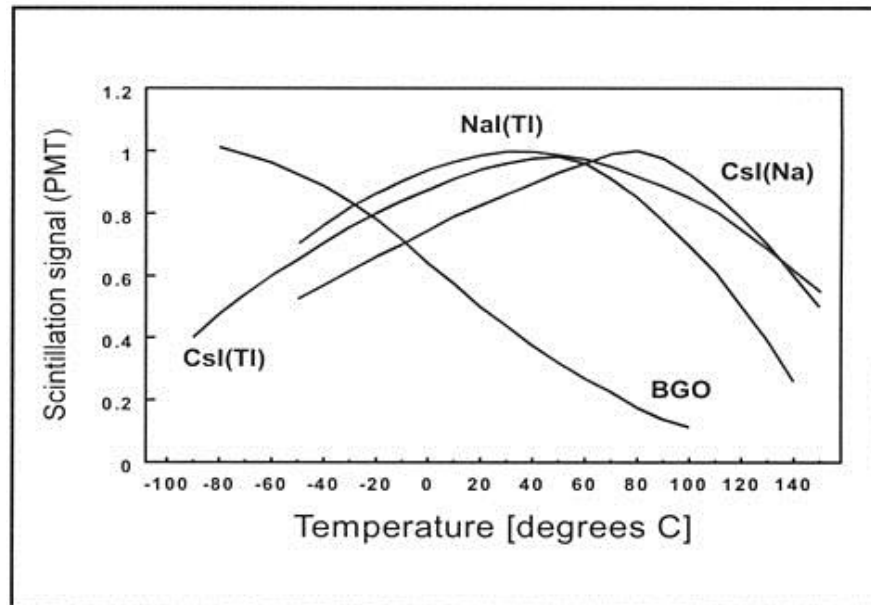
- fast: recombination from activation centers [ns - μ s]
- slow: recombination from traps [ms - s]



Inorganic crystals: light output



- scintillation spectra of undoped and doped CsI crystals

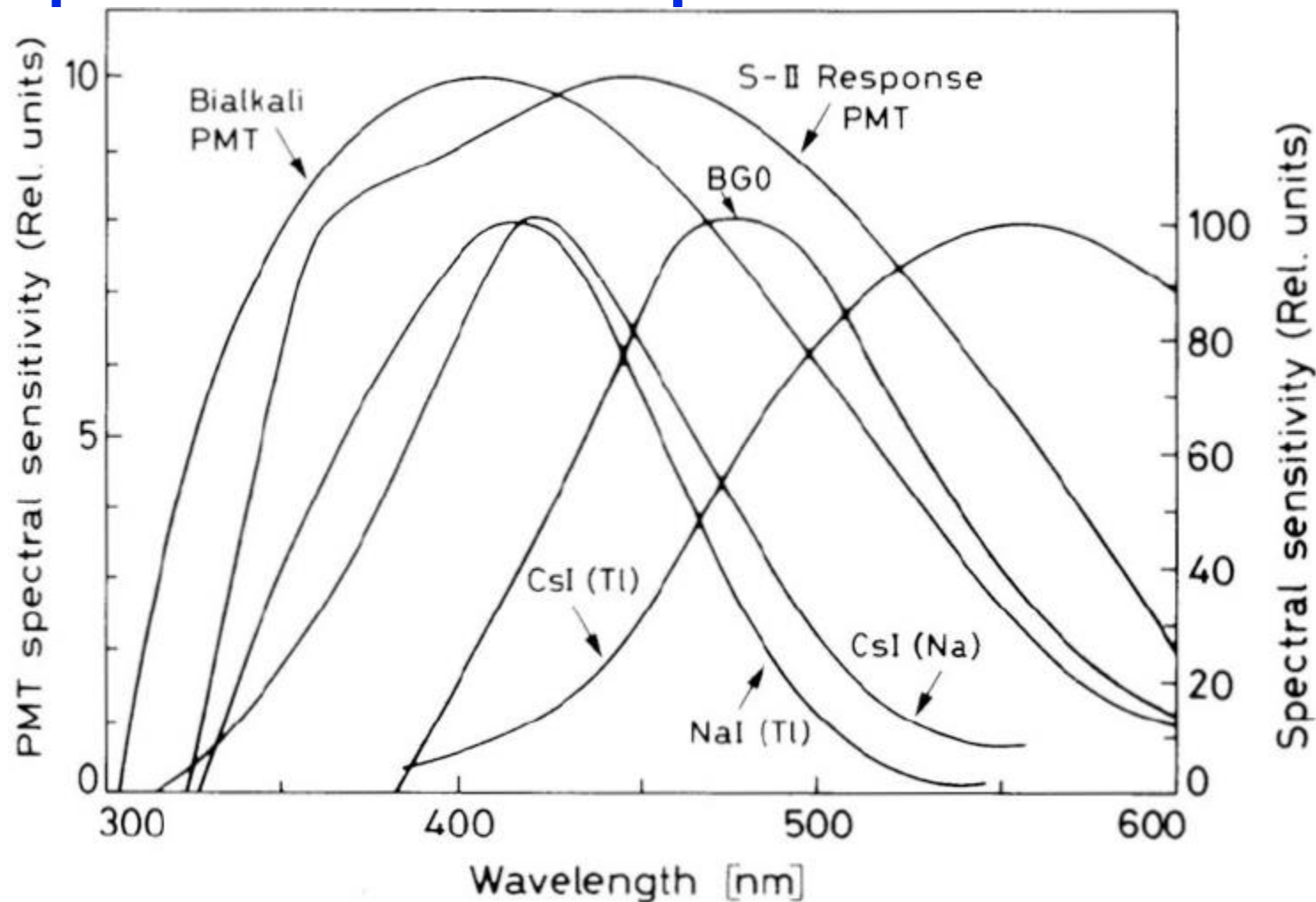


- strong temperature dependence of light output (in contrast to organic scintillators)

Light output & PMT sensitivity



- spectral sensitivities of PMTs compared to emission spectra



Scintillation in (noble) gases



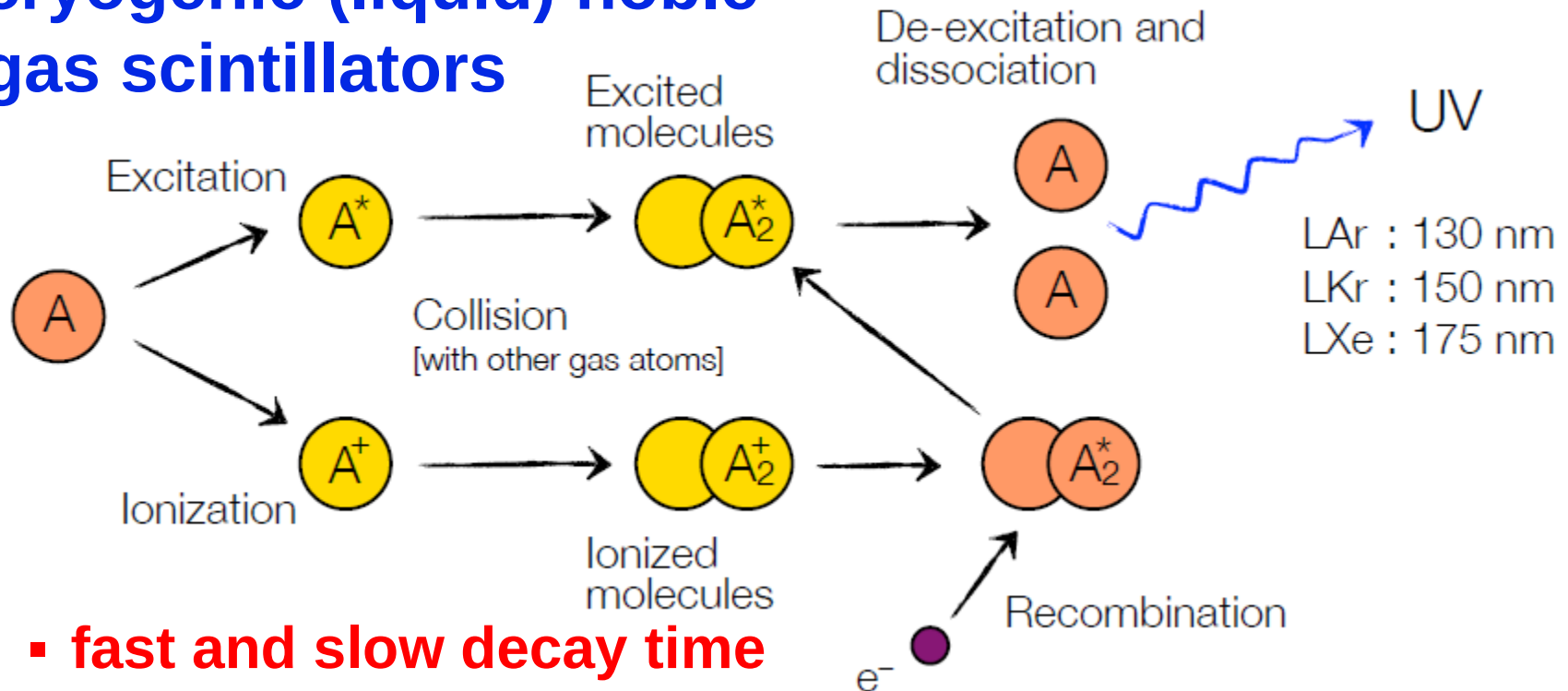
- many gases exhibit some degree of scintillation

- response to 4.7 MeV α particles

- careful in Cherenkov detectors!

	λ_{max} [nm]	$\gamma/4.7\text{MeV}$
N ₂	390	800
He	390	1100
Ar	250	1100

- cryogenic (liquid) noble gas scintillators



- fast and slow decay time constants $\rightarrow$ PID

Inorganic scintillator properties



Scintillator material	Density [g/cm ³]	Refractive Index	Wavelength [nm] for max. emission	Decay time constant [μs]	Photons/MeV
NaI	3.7	1.78	303	0.06	$8 \cdot 10^4$
NaI(Tl)	3.7	1.85	410	0.25	$4 \cdot 10^4$
CsI(Tl)	4.5	1.80	565	1.0	$1.1 \cdot 10^4$
Bi ₄ Ge ₃ O ₁₂	7.1	2.15	480	0.30	$2.8 \cdot 10^3$
CsF	4.1	1.48	390	0.003	$2 \cdot 10^3$
LSO	7.4	1.82	420	0.04	$1.4 \cdot 10^4$
PbWO ₄	8.3	1.82	420	0.006	$2 \cdot 10^2$
LHe	0.1	1.02	390	0.01/1.6	$2 \cdot 10^2$
LAr	1.4	1.29*	150	0.005/0.86	$4 \cdot 10^4$
LXe	3.1	1.60*	150	0.003/0.02	$4 \cdot 10^4$

* at 170 nm

Inorganic scintillator properties



- a numerical example

- **Nal(Tl):** $\lambda_{\max} = 410 \text{ nm}$; $h\nu = 3 \text{ eV}$
photons/MeV = 40000
 $\tau = 250 \text{ ns}$

- **PbWO₄:** $\lambda_{\max} = 420 \text{ nm}$; $h\nu = 3 \text{ eV}$
photons/MeV = 200
 $\tau = 6 \text{ ns}$

- light yield ϵ_{sc} : fraction of energy loss going into photons

- **Nal(Tl):** 40000 photons; 3 eV/photon $\rightarrow \epsilon_{\text{sc}} = 4 \cdot 10^4 \cdot 3 \text{ eV} / 10^6 \text{ eV} = 11.3\%$

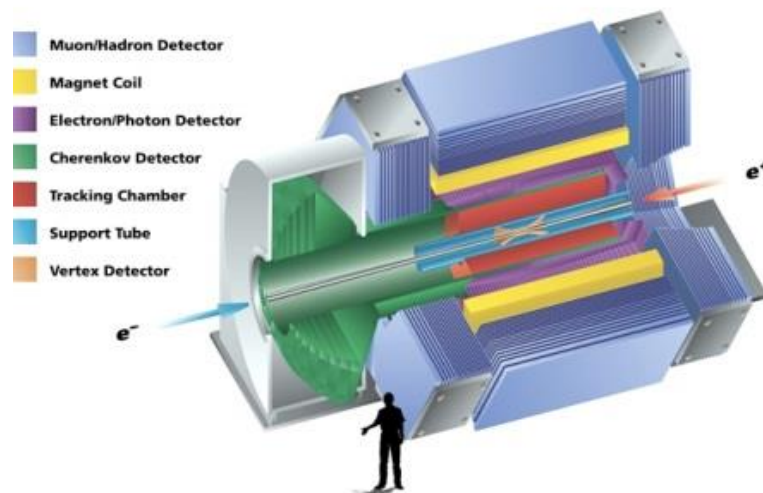
- **PbWO₄:** 200 photons; 3 eV/photon $\rightarrow \epsilon_{\text{sc}} = 2 \cdot 10^2 \cdot 3 \text{ eV} / 10^6 \text{ eV} = 0.06\%$

Application in large experiments



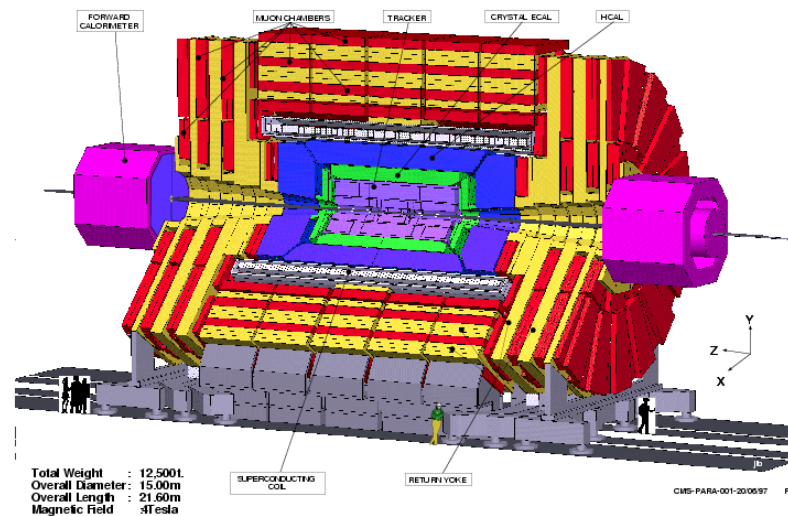
▪ BaBar at SLAC

- 6580 CsI(Tl) crystals
- depth: $17 X_0$
- volume: 5.9 m^3
- read-out: Si-photodiode (gain = 1)
- read-out noise: 0.15 MeV
- dynamic range: 10^4



▪ CMS at LHC

- 76150 PbWO_4 crystals
- depth: $26 X_0$
- volume: 11 m^3
- read-out: APD (gain = 50)
- read-out noise: 30 MeV
- dynamic range: 10^5



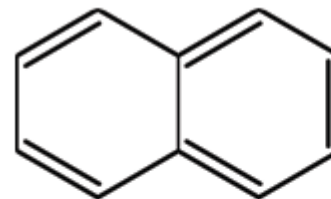
Organic scintillators



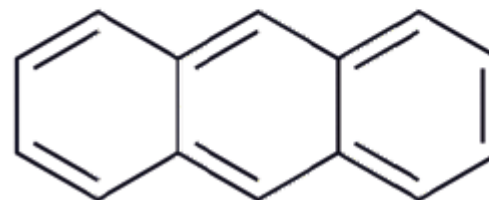
- aromatic hydrocarbon compounds

- naphthalene: $C_{10}H_8$
- anthracene: $C_{14}H_{10}$

Naphtalene



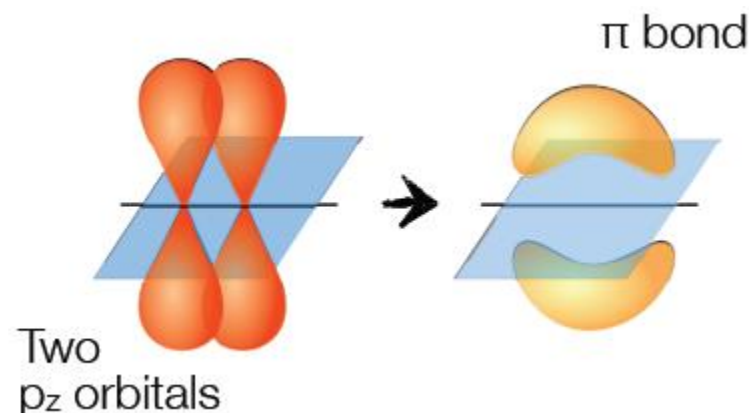
Anthracene



- scintillation

- based on electrons of the C=C bond
- light arises from delocalized electrons in π orbitals
- transitions of 'free' electrons

		$\lambda_{max}[nm]$	$\tau[ns]$	light yield rel. to NaI
naphthalene		348	96	12%
anthracene		440	30	50%



Organic scintillators



- principle of operation of organic scintillators

- valence electrons
pair wise in π states

- molecular level scheme

- singlet states
- triplet states

- energy absorption

→ excitation of π electrons

- fluorescence: $S_1 \rightarrow S_0$

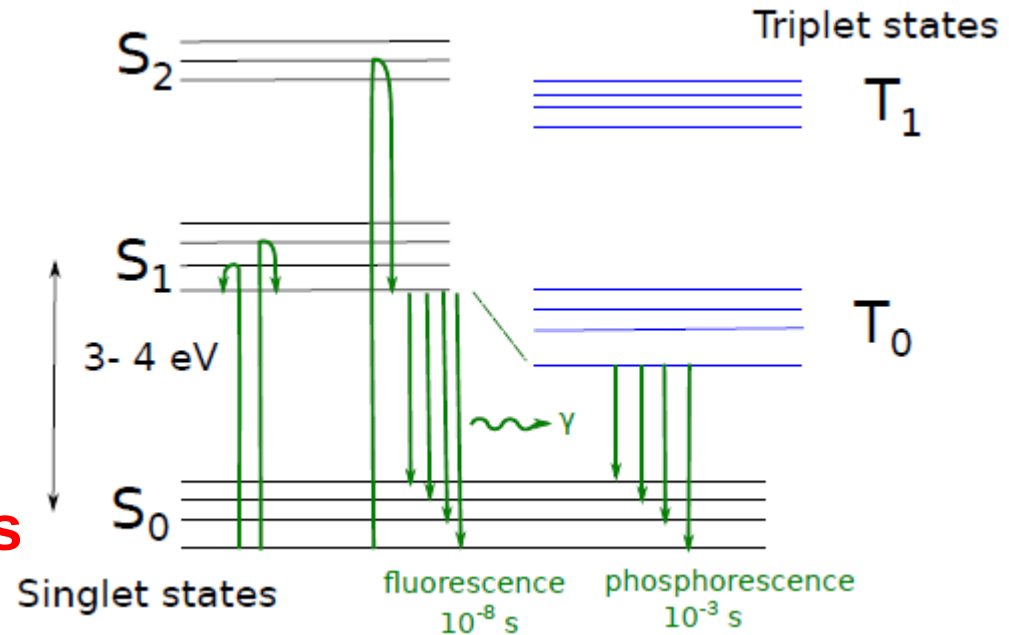
(in UV range → wavelength shifters!)

- ionization followed by recombination populates T states

- phosphorescence: $T \rightarrow S_0$

- excitation of δ electrons → thermal deexcitation

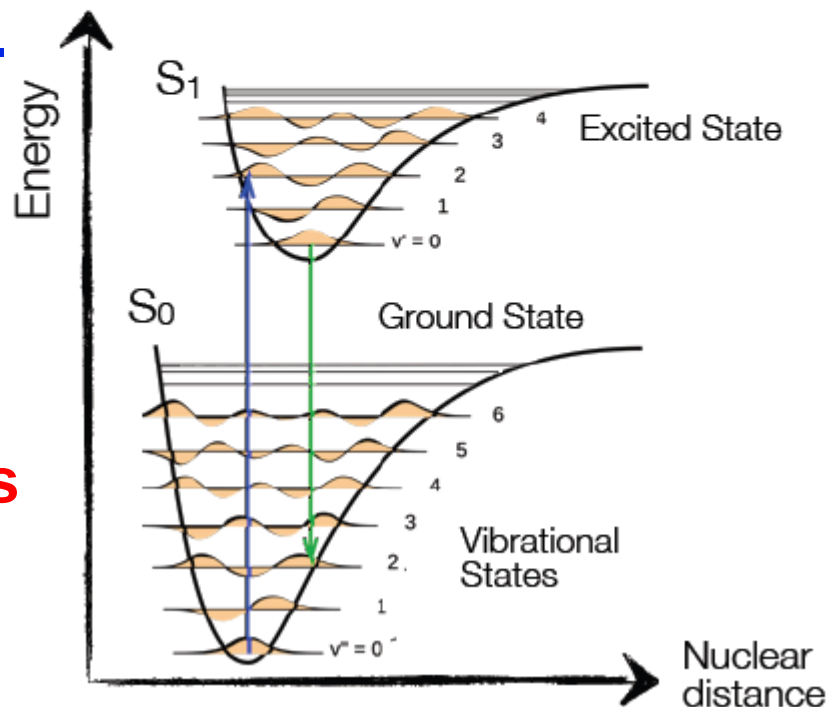
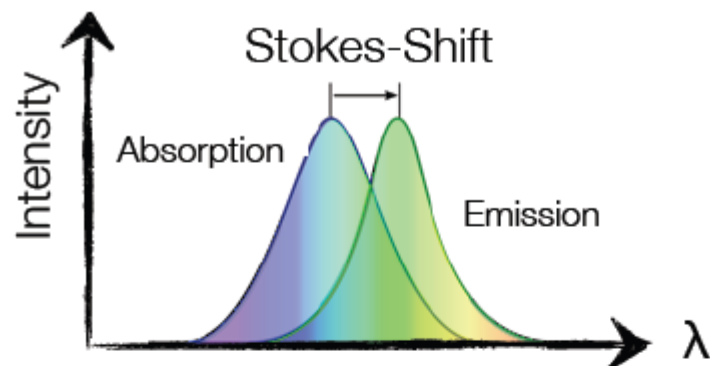
- other ionization → radiation damage!



Organic scintillators



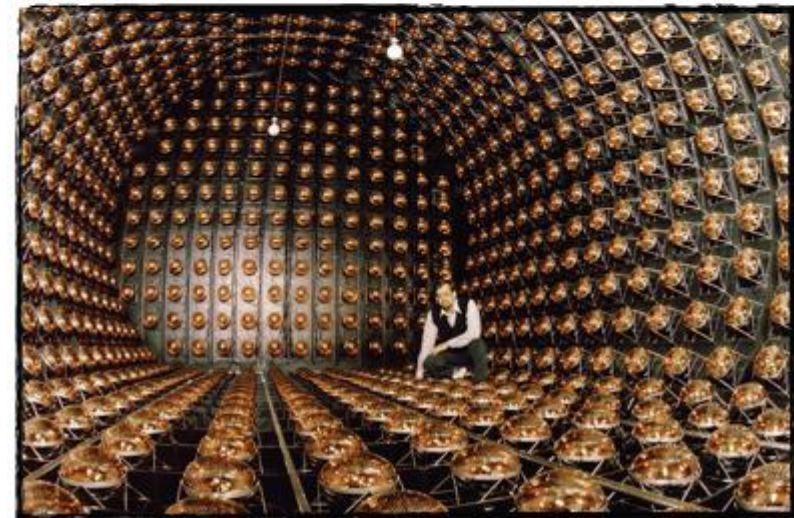
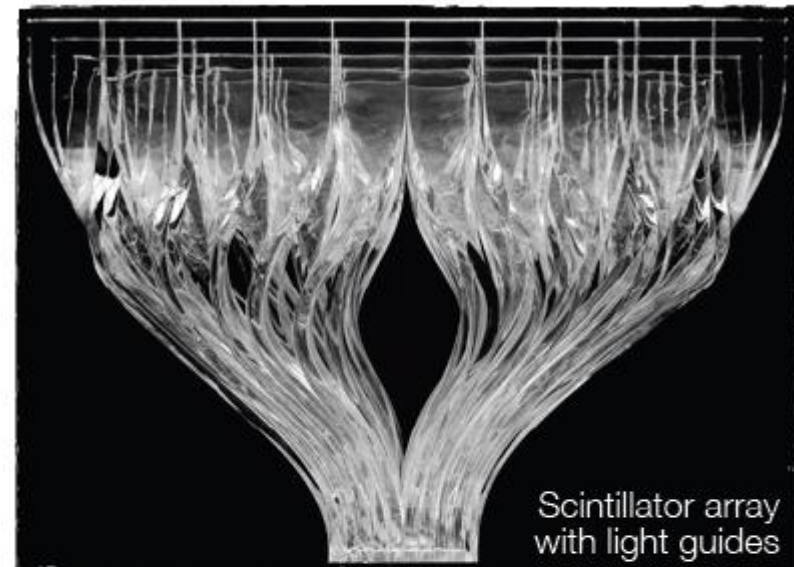
- material should be transparent for radiation
→ shift of emission and absorption spectra
- Stokes shift due to Franck-Condon principle
 - excitation into higher vibrational states on a time scale of 10^{-14} s
 - vibrational time scale: 10^{-12} s
 - deexcitation from lowest vibrational state (S_1 lifetime: 10^{-8} s)



Plastic or liquid scintillators



- organic scintillator material in practice
 - solution of organic scintillators (solved in plastic or liquid)
 - + large concentration of primary 'fluor'
 - + smaller concentration of secondary 'fluor' (wavelength shifter)



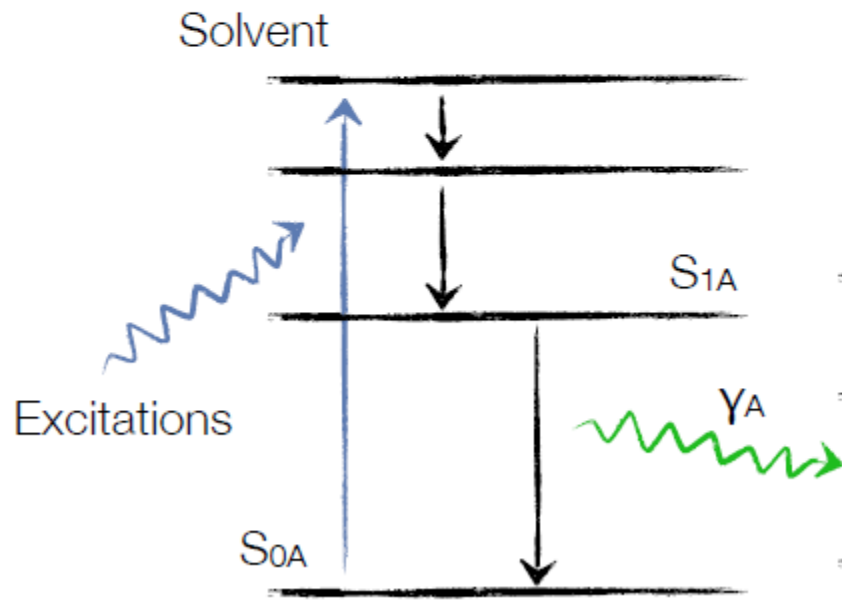
LSND experiment

Plastic or liquid scintillators



A

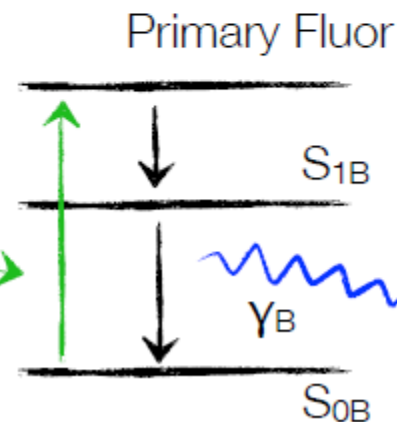
Energy deposit in base material $\rightarrow$ excitation



Primary fluorescent

- Good light yield ...
- Absorption spectrum matched to excited states in base material ...

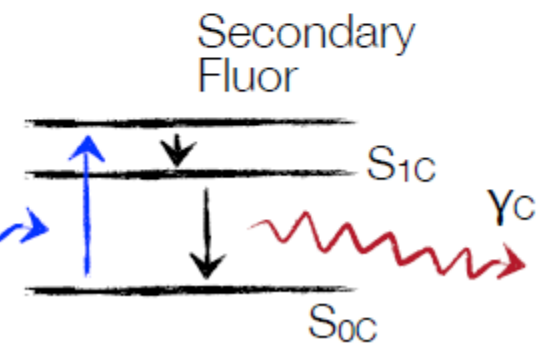
B



Secondary fluorescent

C

Wave length shifter

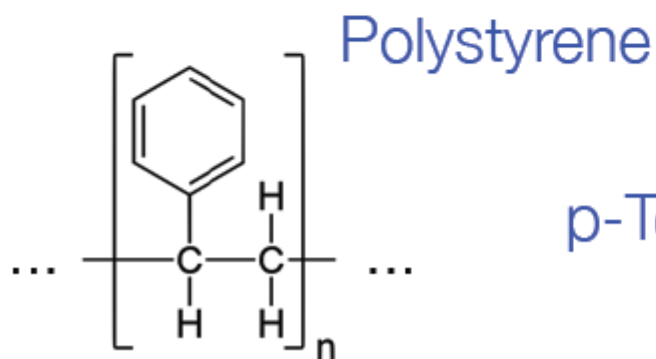


Plastic or liquid scintillators

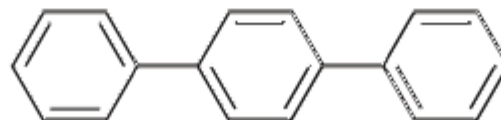


Some widely used solvents and solutes

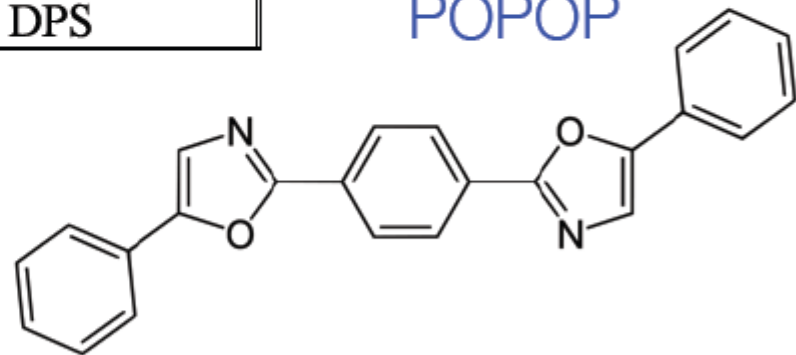
	solvent	secondary fluor	tertiary fluor
Liquid scintillators	Benzene Toluene Xylene	p-terphenyl DPO PBD	POPOP BBO BPO
Plastic scintillators	Polyvinylbenzene Polyvinyltoluene Polystyrene	p-terphenyl DPO PBD	POPOP TBP BBO DPS



p-Terphenyl



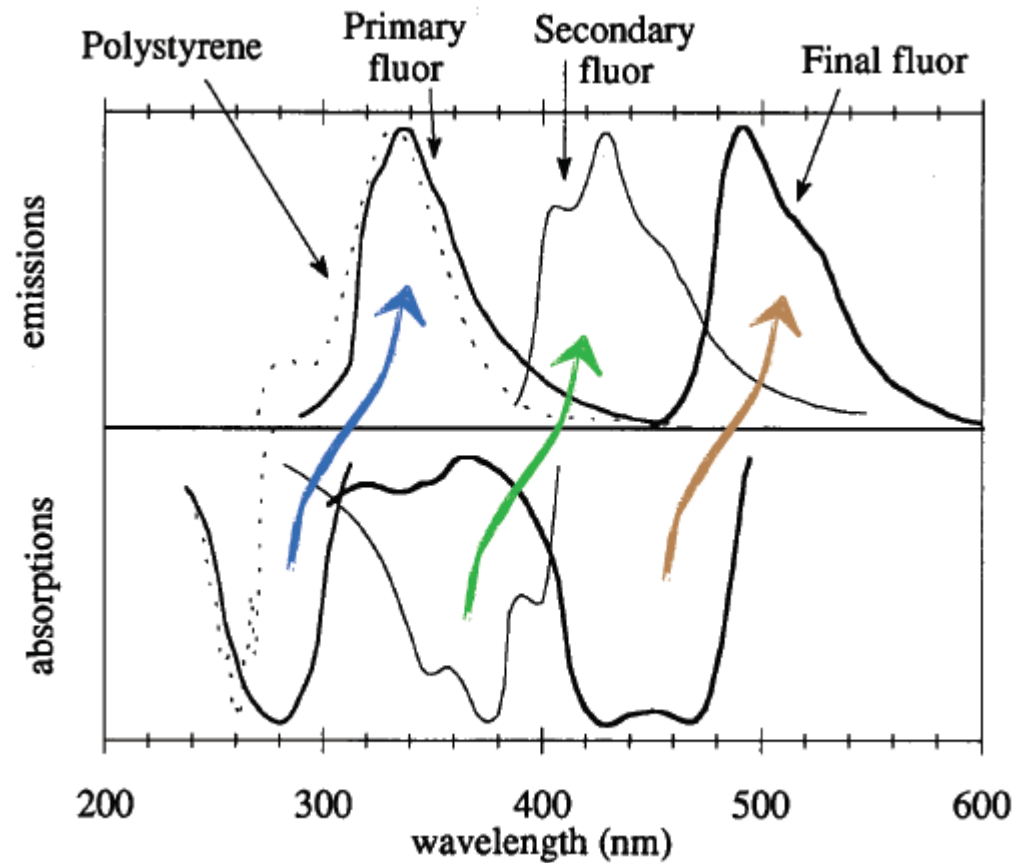
POPOP



Wavelength shifting



- **working principle**
 - **absorption of primary scintillation light**
 - **re-emission at longer wavelength**
- **adapts light to spectral sensitivity of photo sensor**
- **requirement:**
good transparency for emitted light



Organic scintillator properties



Scintillator material	Density [g/cm ³]	Refractive Index	Wavelength [nm] for max. emission	Decay time constant [ns]	Photons/MeV
Naphtalene	1.15	1.58	348	11	$4 \cdot 10^3$
Antracene	1.25	1.59	448	30	$4 \cdot 10^4$
p-Terphenyl	1.23	1.65	391	6-12	$1.2 \cdot 10^4$
NE102*	1.03	1.58	425	2.5	$2.5 \cdot 10^4$
NE104*	1.03	1.58	405	1.8	$2.4 \cdot 10^4$
NE110*	1.03	1.58	437	3.3	$2.4 \cdot 10^4$
NE111*	1.03	1.58	370	1.7	$2.3 \cdot 10^4$
BC400**	1.03	1.58	423	2.4	$2.5 \cdot 10^2$
BC428**	1.03	1.58	480	12.5	$2.2 \cdot 10^4$
BC443**	1.05	1.58	425	2.2	$2.4 \cdot 10^4$

* Nuclear Enterprises, U.K.

** Bicron Corporation, USA

Organic scintillator properties



- light yield

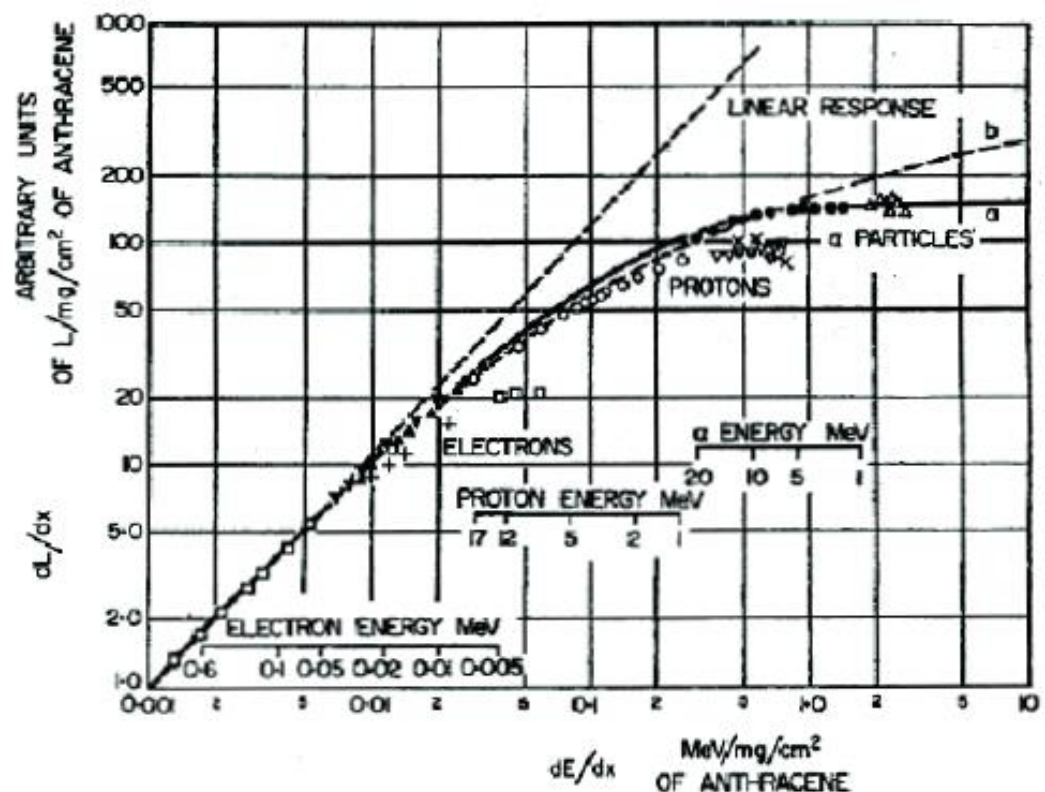
- without quenching

$$\frac{dL}{dx} = L_0 \frac{dE}{dx}$$

- with quenching (non-linear response due to saturation of available states): Birk's law

$$\frac{dL}{dx} = L_0 \frac{\frac{dE}{dx}}{1 + kB \frac{dE}{dx}}$$

- where kB is a parameter that needs to be measured



Scintillators: comparison



Inorganic Scintillators

Advantages

high light yield [typical; $\epsilon_{sc} \approx 0.13$]
high density [e.g. $PbWO_4$: 8.3 g/cm³]
good energy resolution

Disadvantages

complicated crystal growth
large temperature dependence

Expensive

Organic Scintillators

Advantages

very fast
easily shaped
small temperature dependence
pulse shape discrimination possible

Disadvantages

lower light yield [typical; $\epsilon_{sc} \approx 0.03$]
radiation damage

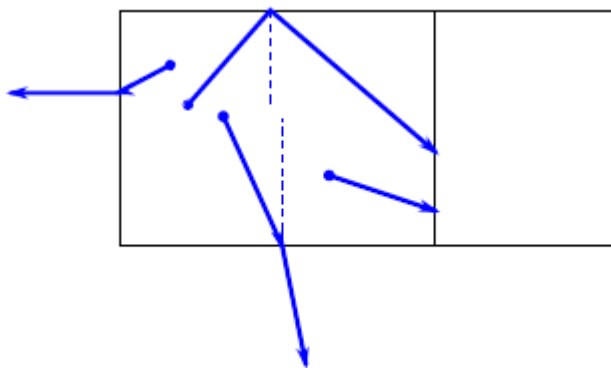
Cheap

Propagation of light



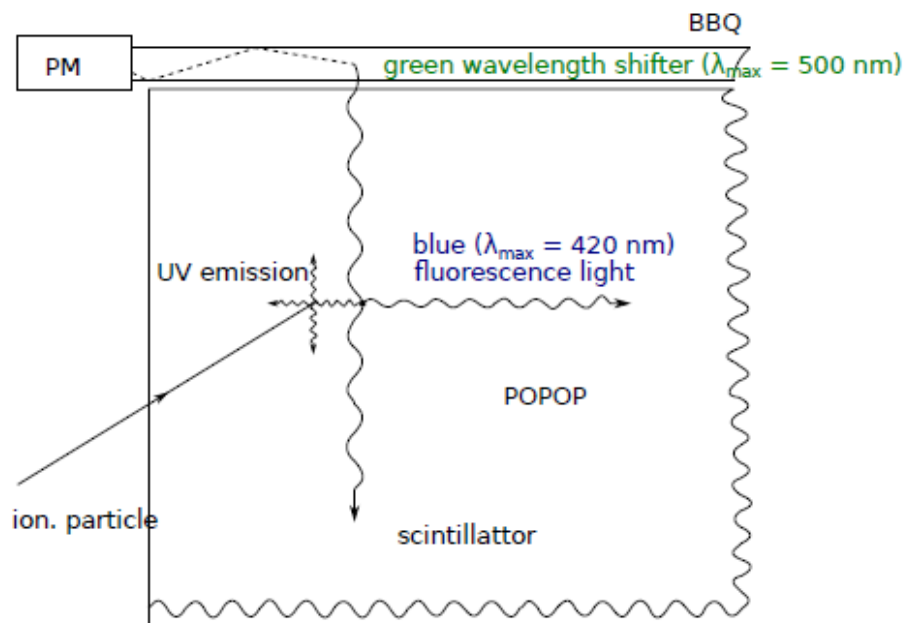
- in the scintillator itself

- **absorption** $N_\gamma = N_0 \exp\left(-\frac{x}{L}\right)$ with L : absorption length
- **reflection at the edge, total reflection for $\theta > \theta_B = \sin^{-1}(n_e/n_s)$**
typical scintillator: $n_s \sim 1.4$, $\theta_B \sim 45^\circ$



- **careful shaping needed in order not to lose too much light**

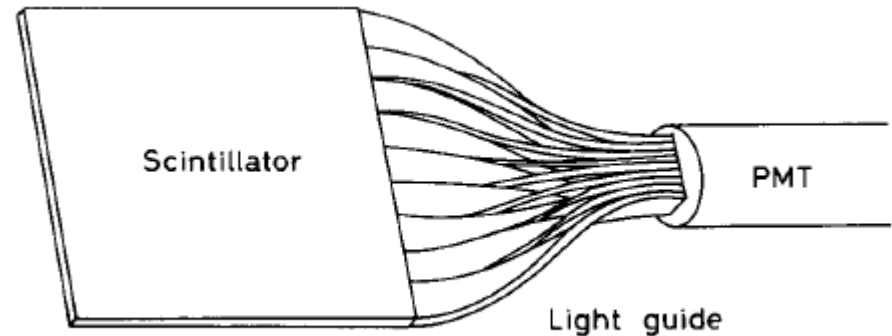
- **alternative: light collection via 2nd wavelength shifter along the edge of the scintillator**



Light guides

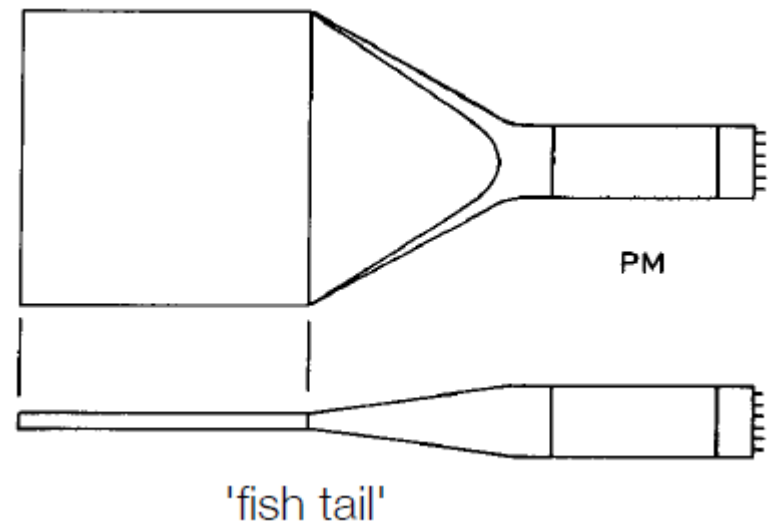


- scintillator light to be guided to the photo sensor
 - light guide (plexiglas, optical fibers)
 - light transfer by total internal reflection (maybe wavelength shifter in addition)



- Liouville's theorem

- $\Delta x \Delta \theta_x = \text{const.} \rightarrow$ keep area constant since divergence is constant when guiding light
- use small curvatures to maintain total reflection for photons captured once $\rightarrow$ adiabatic light guides (e.g. 'fish tail')



Photon detection



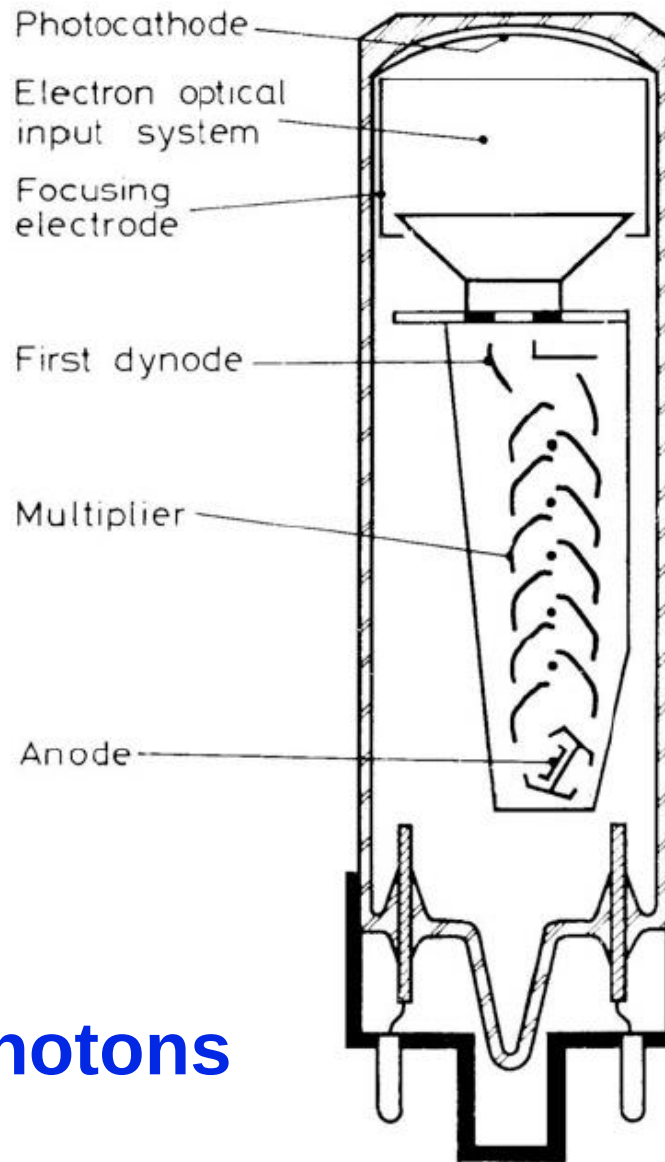
- goal: convert light into detectable electronic signal
- principle: use photo-electric effect to convert photons into photo-electrons (p.e.)
- what is needed?
 - high photon detection efficiency (PDE) or
 - quantum efficiency: $QE = N_{\text{p.e.}}/N_{\text{photons}}$
- (some) available devices
 - photomultipliers (PMT)
 - silicon photomultipliers (SiPM)
 - micro channel plates (MCP)
 - photo diodes (PD)
 -

Photomultipliers (PMT)



■ principle:

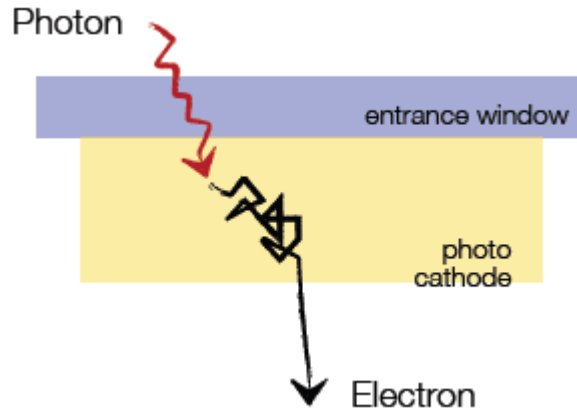
- electron emission from photo cathode
- secondary emission from dynodes (gain: 3-50)
- typical PMT gain: $> 10^6$
→ PMTs can count single photons



PMTs: photocathode



- γ conversion via photo effect



- **3-step process**

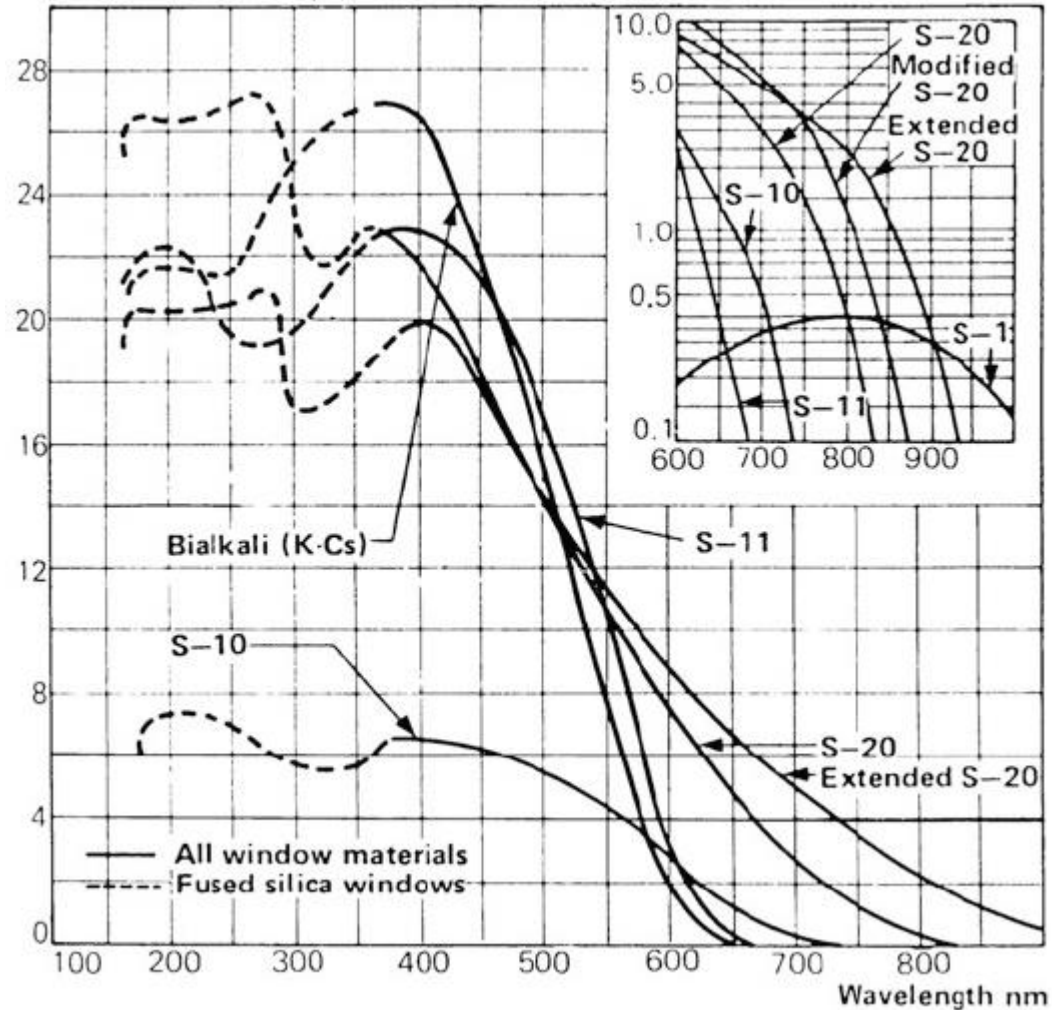
- electron generation via ionization
- propagation through cathode
- escape of electron into vacuum

- Q.E. ~10-30% (with specifically developed alloys)

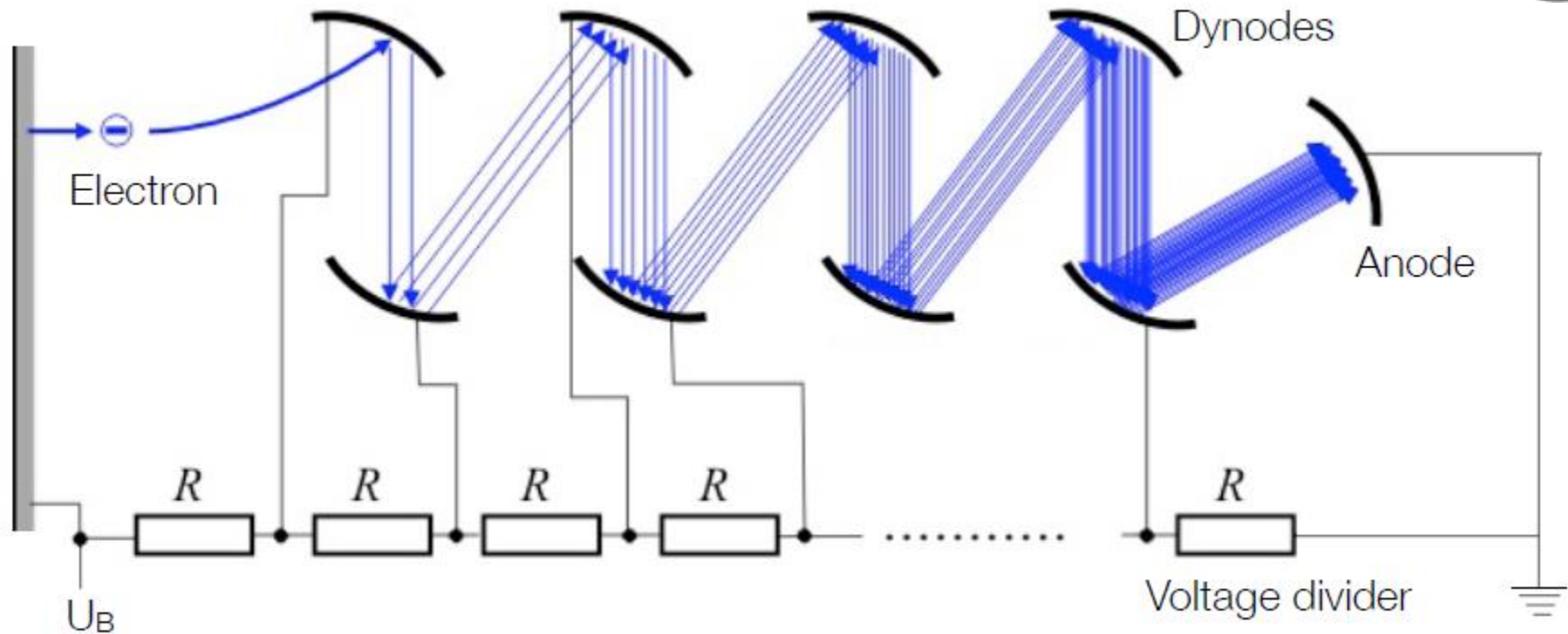
Bialkali: SbRbCs, SbK₂Cs

Quantum Efficiency %

Q.E. %



PMTs: dynode chain



- **multiplication process**

- e^- accelerated towards dynode
- further e^- produced $\rightarrow$ avalanche

- **secondary emission coeff.**

$$\delta = \#(e^-_{\text{produced}}) / \#(e^-_{\text{incoming}})$$

- **typical values**

- $\delta = 2-10$; $n = 8-15$
 $\rightarrow$ gain $G = \delta^n = 10^6 - 10^8$

- **gain fluctuations**

- $\delta = kU_D$; $G = a_0(kU_D)^n$
 $dG/G = n dU_D/U_D = n dU_B/U_B$

PMTs: energy resolution



- energy resolution is influenced by
 - linearity of PMT: high dynode currents can lead to saturation by space charge effects; $I_A \propto n_\gamma$ possible over 3 orders of magnitude
 - photo electron statistics as given by Poisson statistics:

$$P_n(n_e) = \frac{n_e^n e^{-n_e}}{n!} \quad \text{with } n_e \text{ given by } dE/dx \dots$$

$$\sigma_n / \langle n \rangle = 1 / \sqrt{n_e}$$

$$n_e = \frac{dE}{dx} \times \frac{\text{Photons}}{\text{MeV}} \times \eta \times \text{Q.E.}$$

For NaI(Tl) and 10 MeV photon;
photons/MeV = 40000;
 $\eta = 0.2$; Q.E. = 0.25

$$n_e = 20000$$

$$\sigma_n / \langle n \rangle = 0.7\%$$

- secondary electron fluctuations:

$$P_n(\delta) = \frac{\delta^n e^{-\delta}}{n!}$$

$$\sigma_n / \langle n \rangle = 1 / \sqrt{\delta}$$

with dynode gain δ ;
and with N dynodes ...

$$\left(\frac{\sigma_n}{\langle n \rangle} \right)^2 = \frac{1}{\delta} + \dots + \frac{1}{\delta^N} \approx \frac{1}{\delta - 1}$$

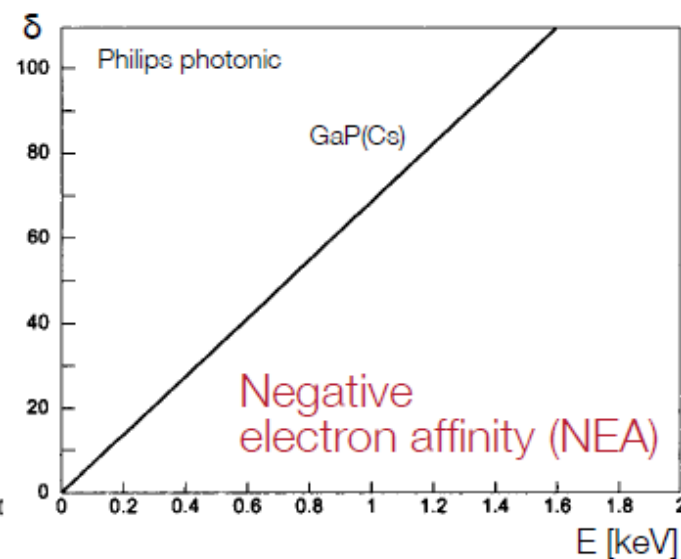
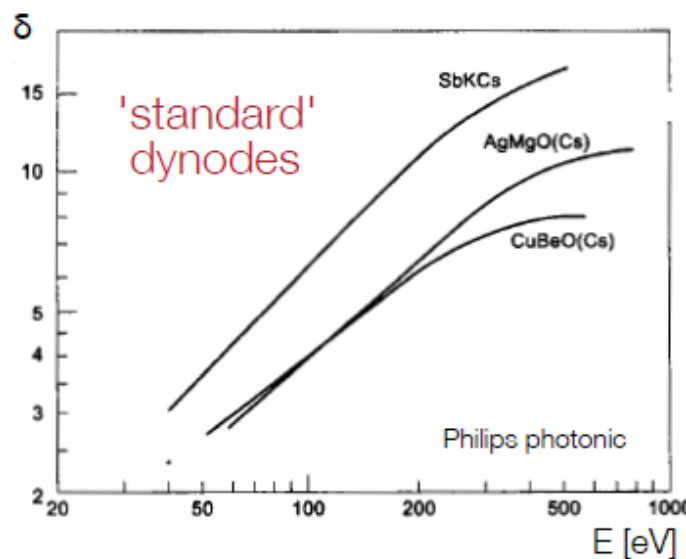
$\sigma_n / \langle n \rangle$ dominated by first dynode stage ...

... important for single photon detection

PMTs: energy resolution

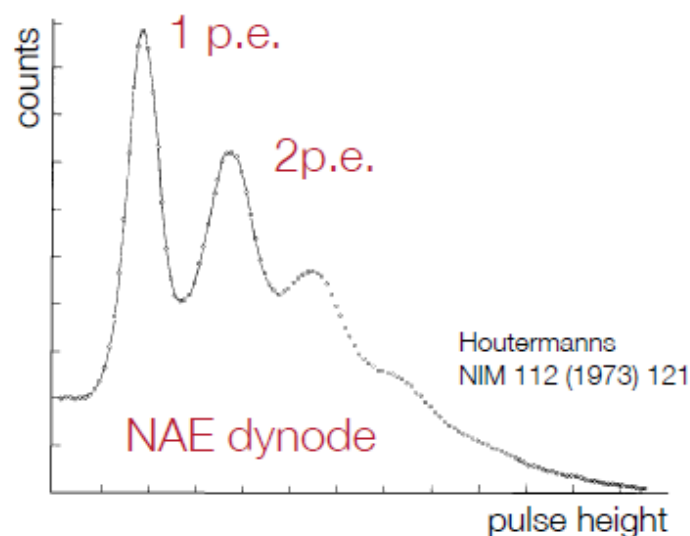
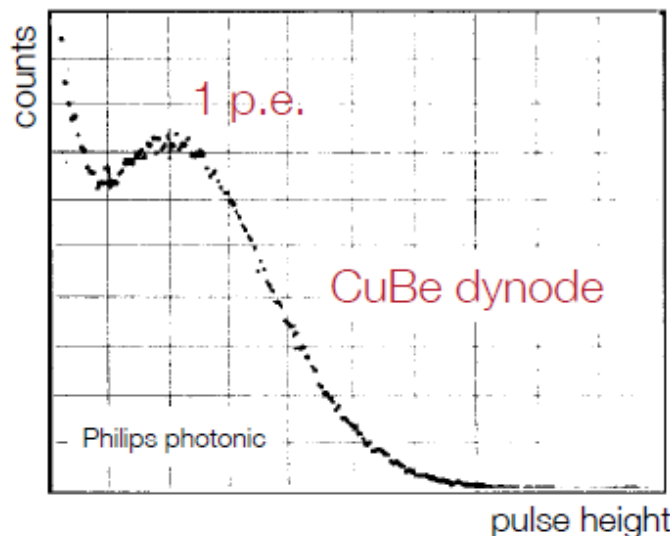


For
detection of
single photons



Large δ !

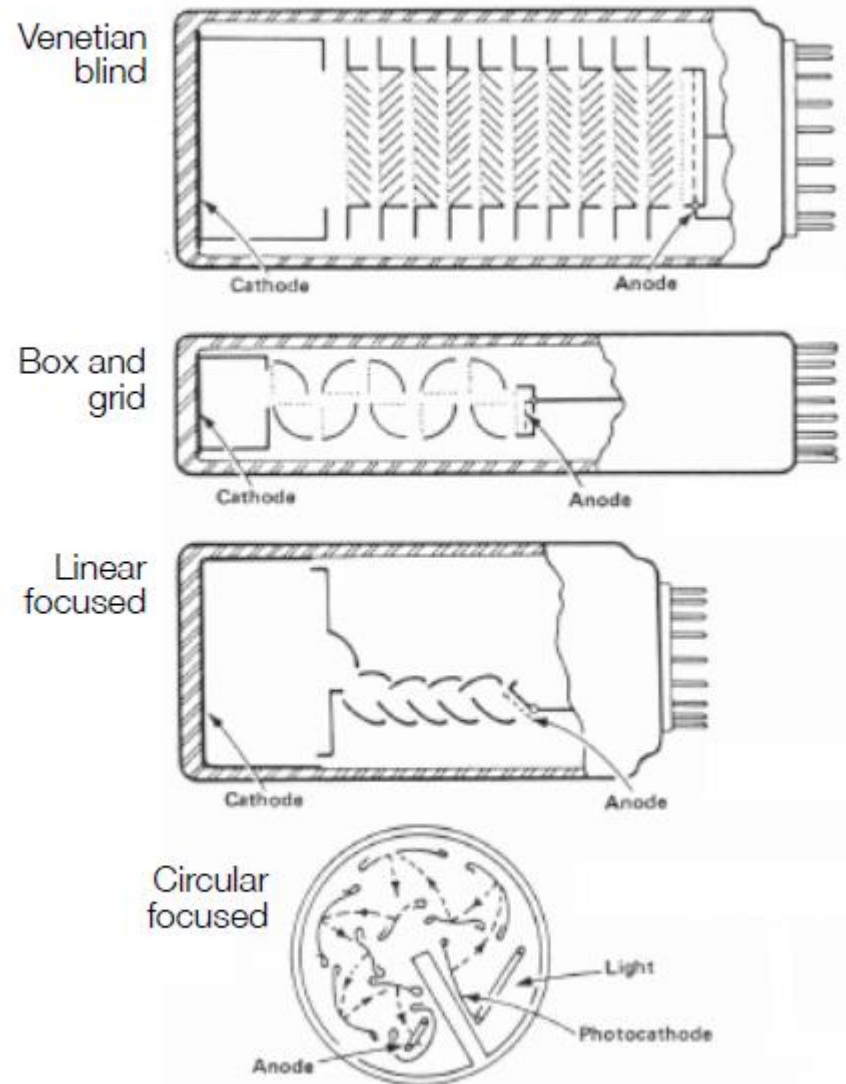
... yields better
energy resolution



PMTs: dynode chain



- optimization of
 - PMT gain
 - anode isolation
 - linearity
 - transit time
- PMTs in general very sensitive to magnetic fields
 - shielding is even required for earth field ($30\text{-}60\ \mu\text{T}$)

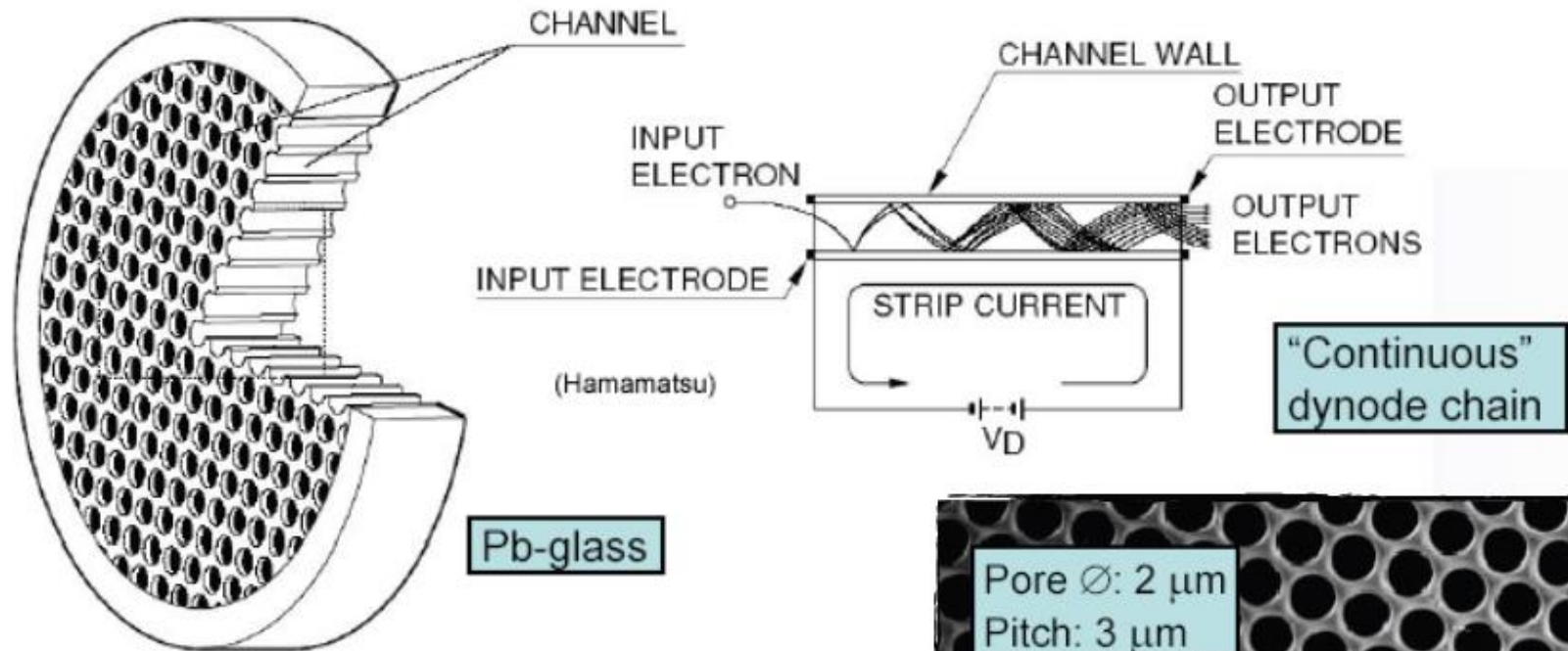


PMT in magnetic field



- B field disturbs focusing of photo electrons and secondary electrons
(typical kinetic energies ≤ 200 eV)
- requirement in region of dynodes: $B \leq 10^{-4}$ T
- typical effect: current decreases by factor 2 if B field increases from 0 to 0.15×10^{-4} T
- possible solutions
 - shield small field by so-called μ -metal
 - use of 'mesh type' dynodes
 - use of micro channel plate or photo diodes

Micro Channel Plate



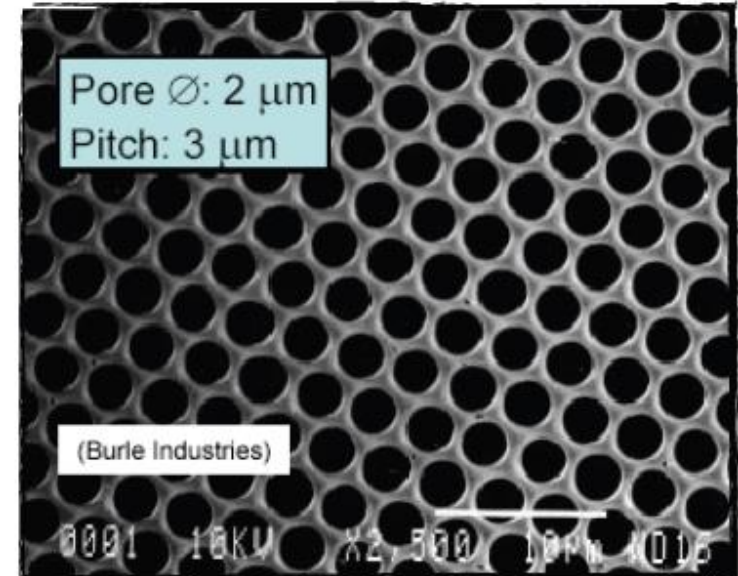
"2D Photomultiplier"

Gain: $5 \cdot 10^4$

Fast signal [time spread ~ 50 ps]

B-Field tolerant [up to 0.1T]

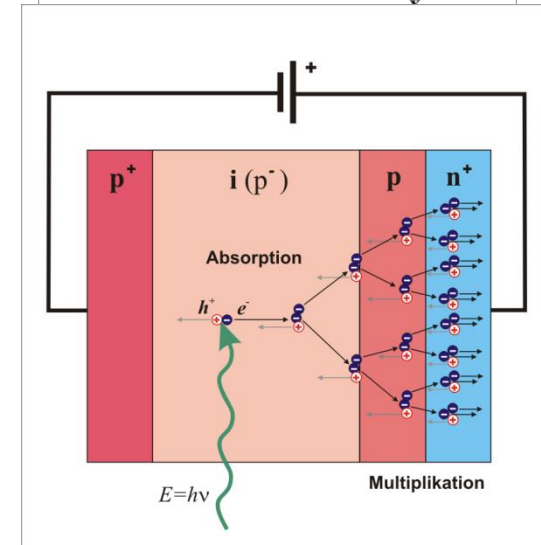
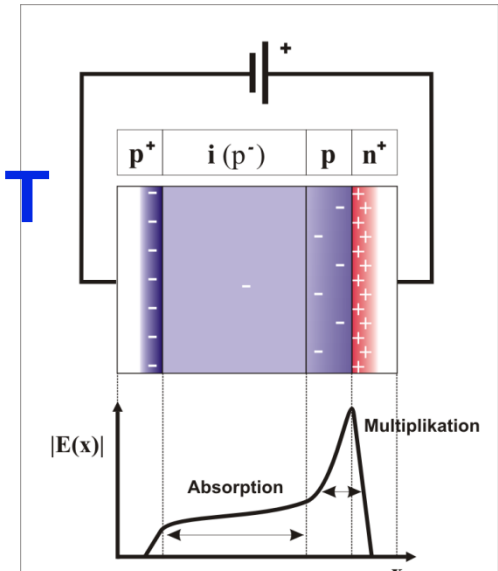
But: limited life time/rate capability



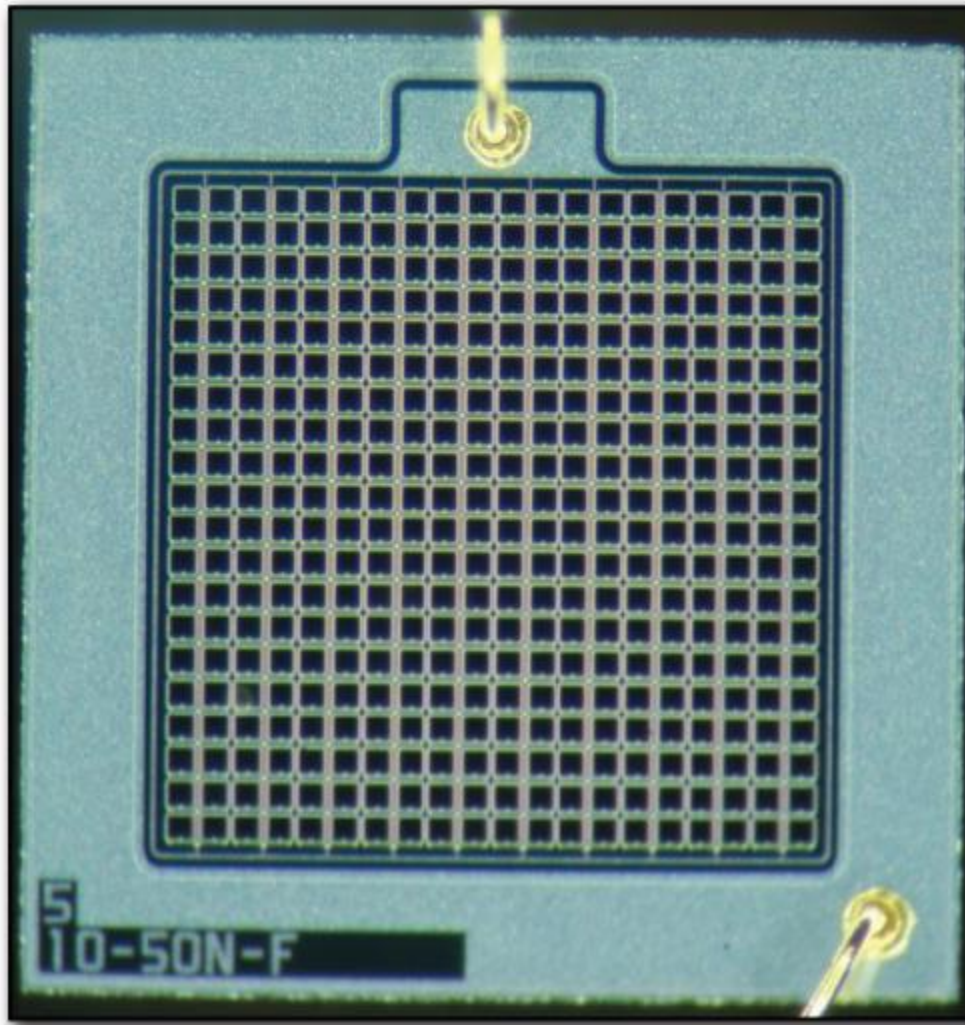
Photodiodes



- photo diode: gain = 1 (see Chapter on semiconductor detectors)
- avalanche photo diode → silicon PMT
 - pixelized photo diodes operated in Geiger mode
 - energy: #photons seen in all pixels
 - granularity: 10^3 pixels/mm²
 - gain: 10^6
 - bias voltage: < 100 V
 - efficiency: ~30 %
 - insensitive to magnetic fields
 - works at room temperature

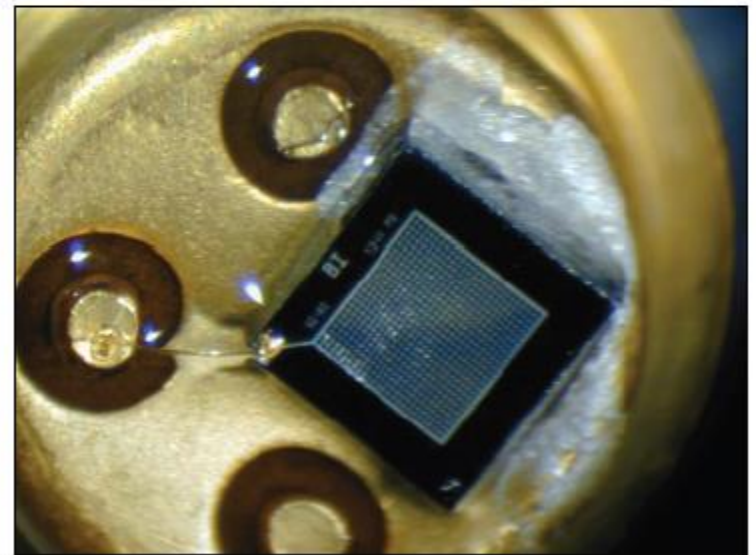


Silicon photodiodes



HAMAMATSU
MPPC 400Pixels

One of the first SiPM
Pulsar, Moscow

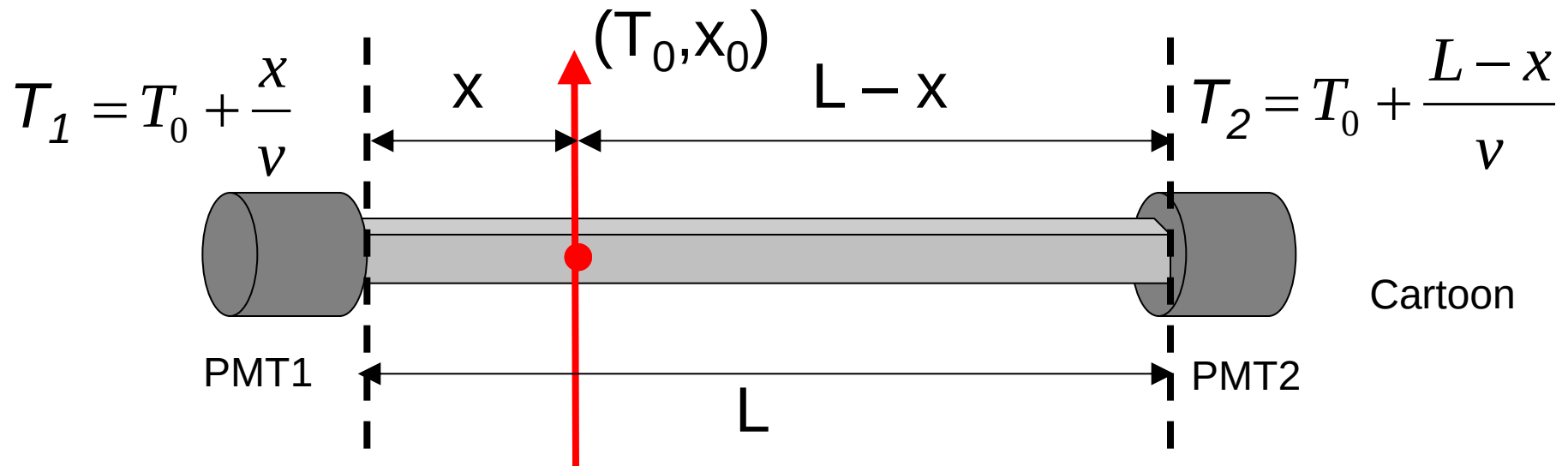


Applications



- fast signals → time of flight (TOF) measurements
- energy measurements
 - crystal calorimeter
 - precise electron/photon energy
 - sampling calorimeter: alternating layers of absorber (Fe, W, U) and scintillator with wavelength shifters and PMTs
 - electromagnetic & hadronic calorimetry
- fast tracking/vertexing
 - scintillating fibre hodoscopes

TOF (and position) with scintillators



$$TOF = \frac{(T_1 + T_2) - L/v}{2}$$

$$Y \text{ position} = \frac{T_1 - T_2}{2} v$$

T_1, T_2 : Timing measured by PMT1,2
 L : slat length
 v : light velocity in scintillator

TOF example

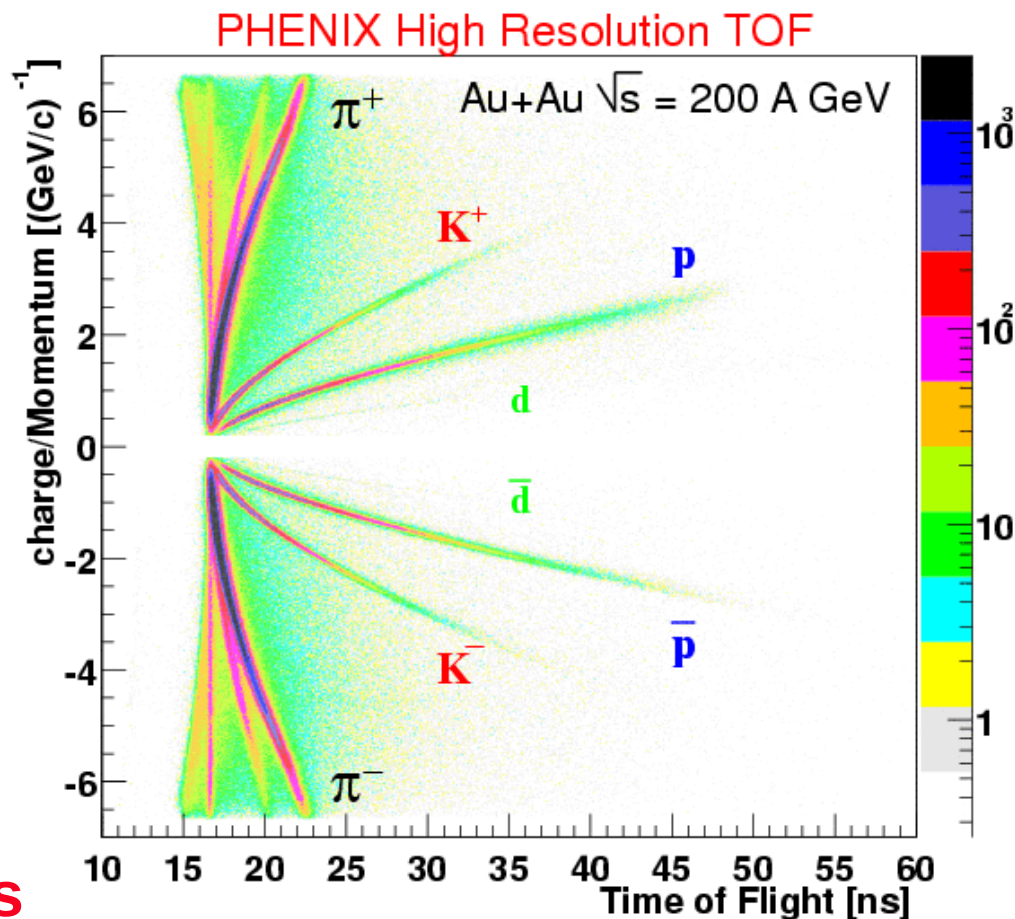


- TOF measurement of charged particles with scintillators

$$t = \frac{L}{c\beta} = \frac{L}{c} \frac{\sqrt{p^2 + m^2}}{p}$$

$$\frac{1}{p} = \frac{1}{m} \sqrt{\left(\frac{t}{L}\right)^2 - 1}$$

- example: PHENIX experiment at RHIC
- time resolution ~ 100 ps
- pion/kaon separation up to $p = 2.4$ GeV/c



CMS: crystal calorimeter (ECAL)

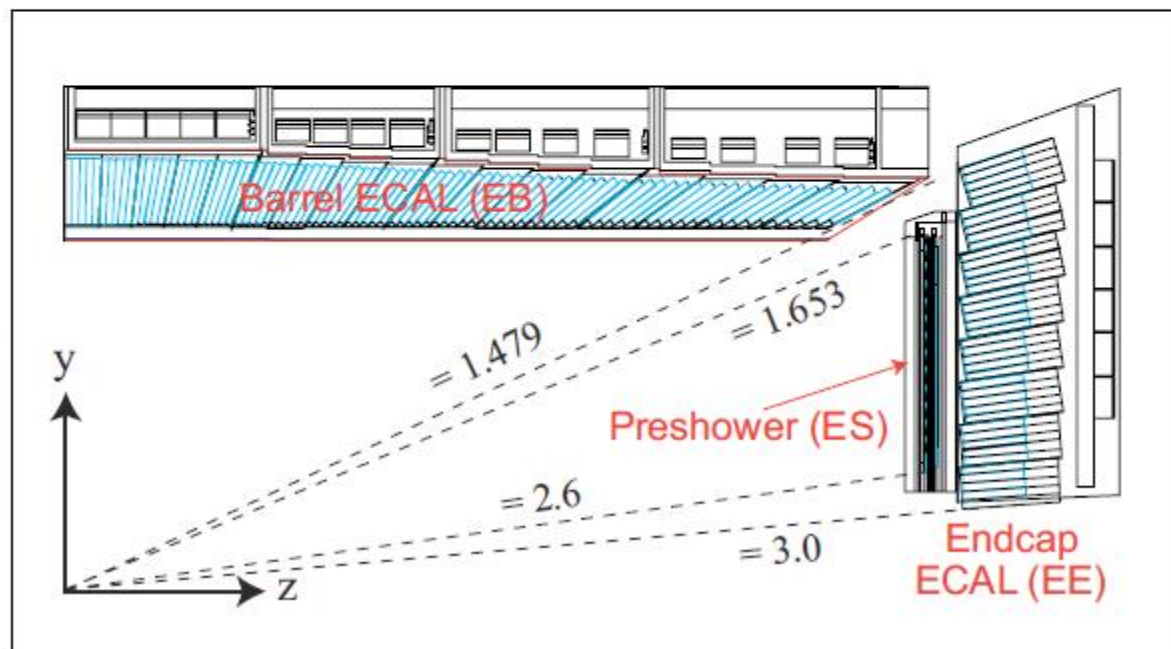
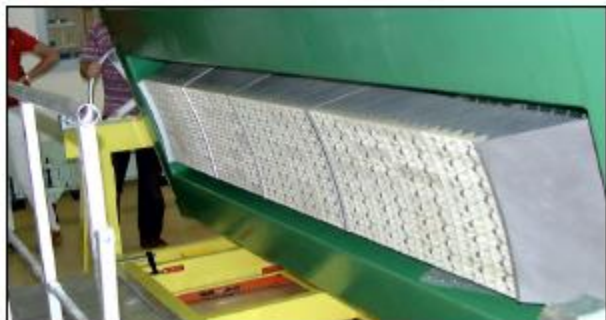


Scintillator : PbWO_4 [Lead Tungsten]

Photosensor : APDs [Avalanche Photodiodes]

Number of crystals: ~ 70000

Light output: 4.5 photons/MeV

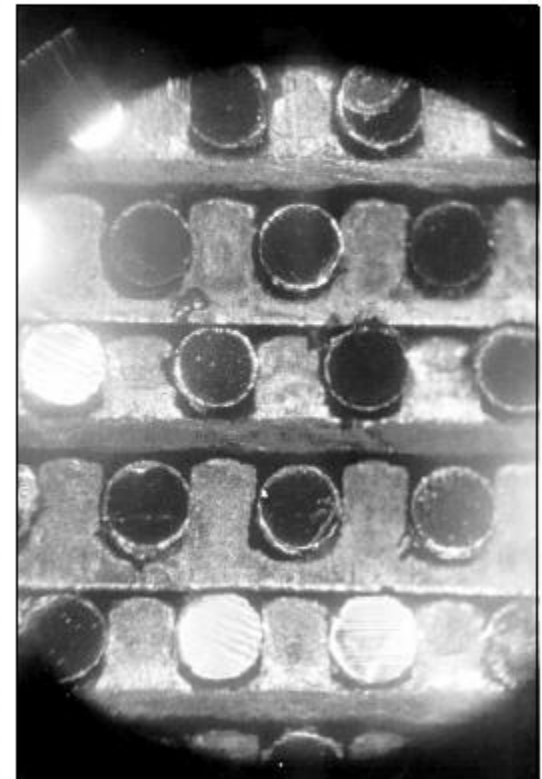
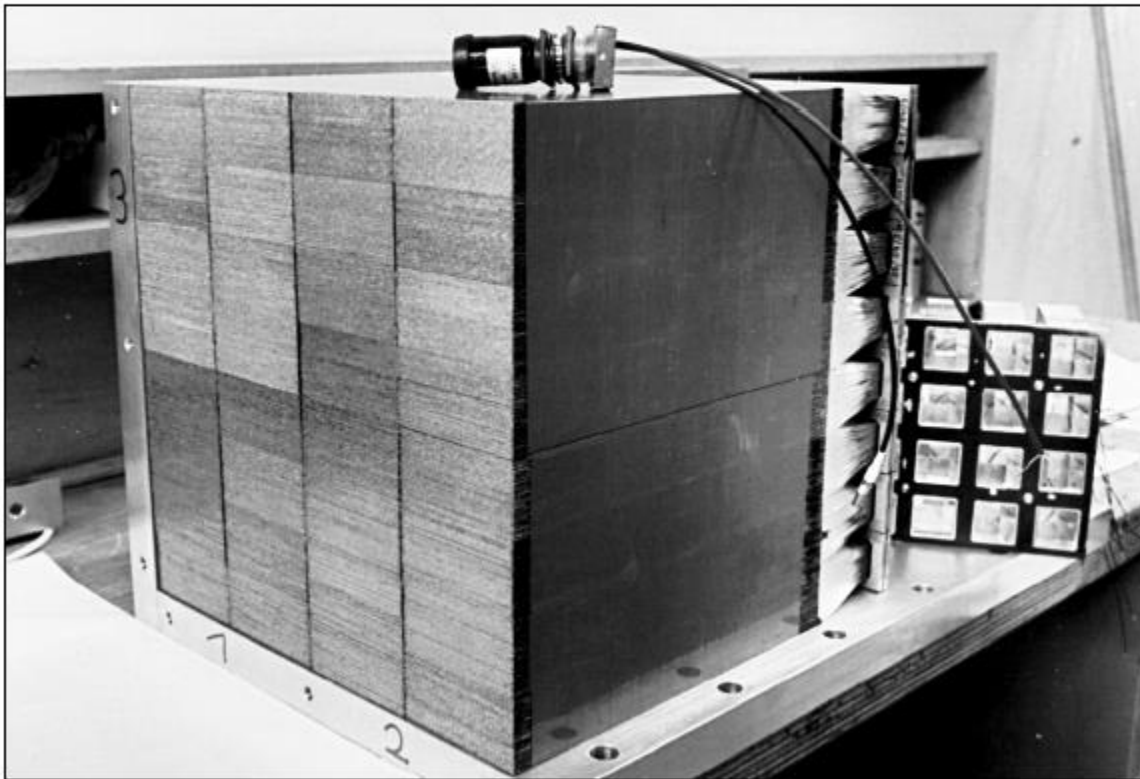


H1: spaghetti calorimeter



Scintillator : BICRON BCF-12

Photosensor : Photomultipliers





Scintillating fibre hodoscopes

- scintillating fibres: diameter ~ 1 mm (or less)
→ fast vertexing

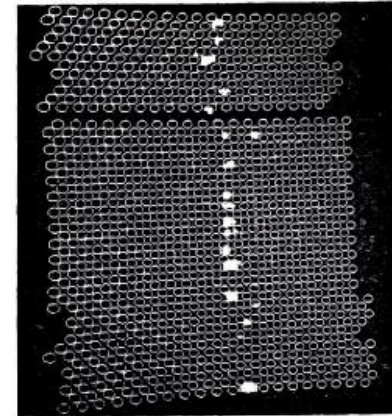
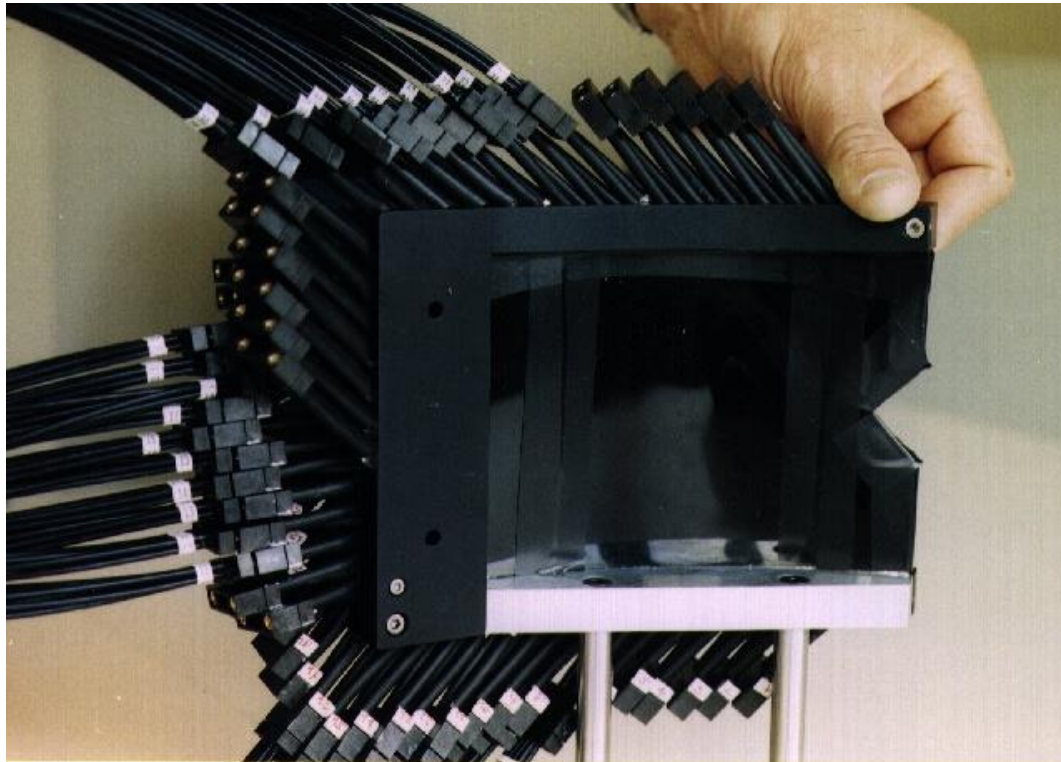


Figure: Track in scint. fibre array, fibre diameter 1 mm.

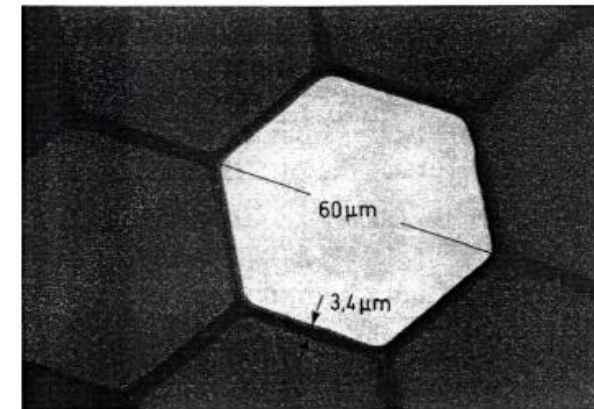


Figure: 60 μm fibre in a fibre bundle covered with cladding of lower n , single track resolution few tens of μm .