Scintillation detectors

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Principles of operation

- Charged particles produce "excitons" quanta of excitation
 - Part of excitation energy can be released as optical photons
- Popular organic scintillators: NE-102
 - scintillation occurs due to transition between molecular energy levels
 - typically involves π electrons (2p electrons of C atoms in benzene rings)
- Popular inorganic scintillators: Nal, BGO (Bi₄Ge₃O₁₂)
 - radiation creates unbound electron-hole pairs which travel for a while before they recombine and emit photons
- Neutrons don't produce ionization but can lead to recoil reactions (n,p) – works best in organic scintillators rich in hydrogen



Scintillating detector components

- Each scintillation detector consists of two components: scintillator itself and the photodetector
- Photodetectors: vacuum PMT (photo multiplier tubes) and solid state - photodiodes
- PMT issues:
 - require high voltage
 - vacuum degrades over time
 - delicate, can be easily destroyed mechanically or by excessive light



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Self-absorption and wavelength shifters

- Many scintillators can easily absorb their own scintillation
 - in other words, they are not transparent to the scintillation light
- This can be fixed by adding "wavelength shifters" materials that absorb scintillation photons and emit photons of a different wavelength



Scintillator characteristics

- Light wavelength: has to match peak of sensitivity of photodetectors
- Density (the more the better)
- Time characteristics
 - typically there are two components: fast (important for timing) and slow (defines dead time before the detector is ready again for the operation)
 - BaF₂ has a fast component < 1 ns (fastest known scintillator) but its slow component is 630 ns
- other properties, e.g. hygroscopicity

DØ Fiber tracker

- 77k channels, readout: Visible Light Photon Counters
- Azimuthal spatial resolution 100 μm
- Approximate longitudinal resolution by measuring light arrival time on both sides of the fiber
- Huge problem: occupancy



