

Introduction to scintillators

M. Kobayashi (KEK)

17 November, 2003

1. Luminescence, fluorescence, scintillation, phosphorescence, etc.
2. Scintillation mechanism
3. Scintillation efficiency
4. Main characteristics
 - Quenchings
 - Decay,
 - Particle discrimination
 - Radiation hardness
5. Comparison between inorganic and organic scintillators

1. Luminescence, scintillation, phosphorescence, etc.

Scintillators

Luminescence is the basic notion-----one of the four phenomena giving light emission

- (1) thermal radiation----black-body radiation, etc.
- (2) bremsstrahlung
- (3) Cherenkov radiation
- (4) luminescence----**electronic states of atoms** are excited by external energy, and the excitation energy is converted to EM radiation above thermal radiation, usually in the **visible, UV, IR** range.

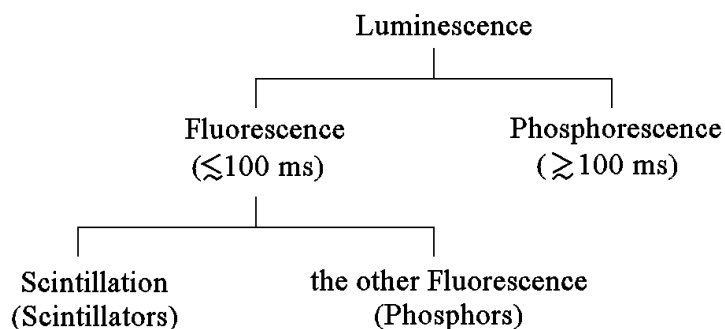
Luminescence excited by different external energies:

- photo-luminescence ---by UV photons, etc.
- radio- " " ---by radiation like X-, γ -, α -, β -rays, etc.
- cathode- " " ---by electron beam,
- electro- " " ---by electric field, (examples: LED)

Fluorescence ~ Luminescence during excitation (not rigorous)

Phosphorescence ~ " " after excitation

Scintillation ~ Fluorescence due to radiation



Scintillators:

Inorganic: crystals, ceramics, glasses, noble liquid, noble gasses,

Organic: crystals, liquid, plastic

2. Scintillation mechanism

Basic processes:

excitation

→ thermal relaxation to the bottom of excited state

→ emission

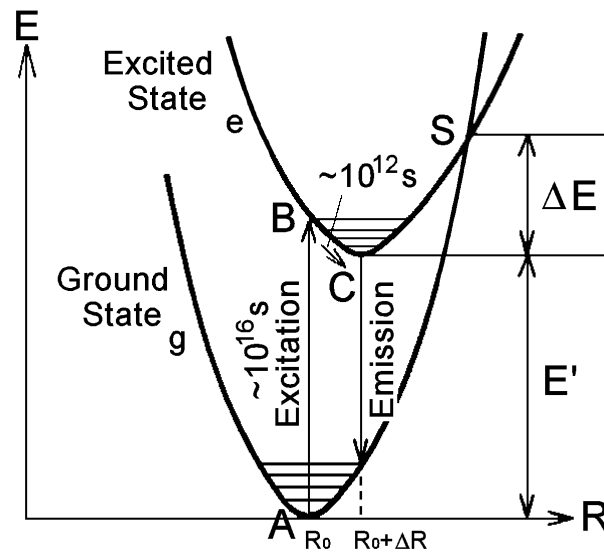


Fig.

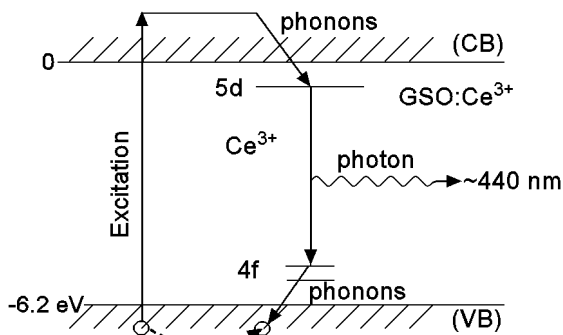
luminescence in the configurational coordinate diagram.

R =inter-atomic distance between ground state of ligand atom and the excited state of luminescence centre atom

Four types of luminescence in inorganic scintillators

(1) Exciton luminescence: BGO, ...

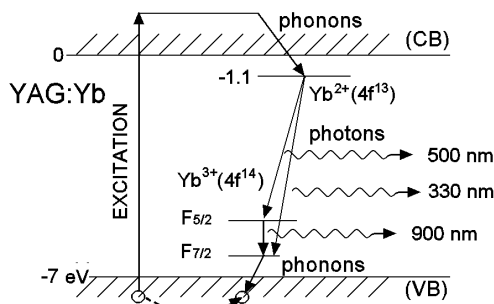
Ionization/excitation by radiation creates unbound e-h pairs or bound e-h pairs called excitons. Excitons can move rather freely in crystals, caught at impurities, defects, and so on, and the STE (self-trapped excitons) gives luminescence upon radiative recombination.



(2) Dopant luminescence: GSO:Ce, ...

Radiative recombination of STE at dopant (activator) ions.

(3) Charge-transfer luminescence

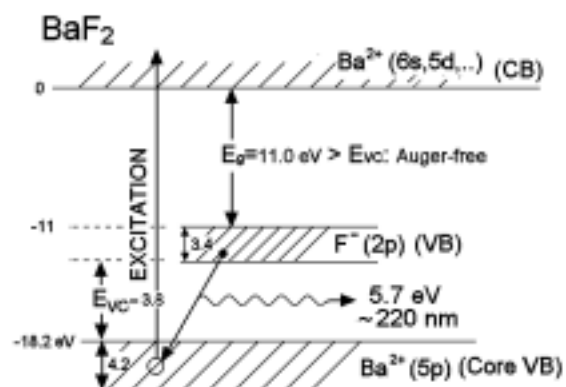


Belongs to exciton luminescence. Due to charge transfer where initial and final states are different, selection rules for EM transition are loosened, thereby enhancing transition probability.

(4) CVL (Core-valence luminescence, Cross luminescence)

After excitation of the core-valence electron, an electron in the valence band recombines with the resultant hole radiatively. To avoid Auger process, $E_{VC} < E_g$ is necessary. BaF_2 , CsF , LiF ,

- >small temperature dependence
- >fast decay
- >LY less than 10% of NaI:Tl

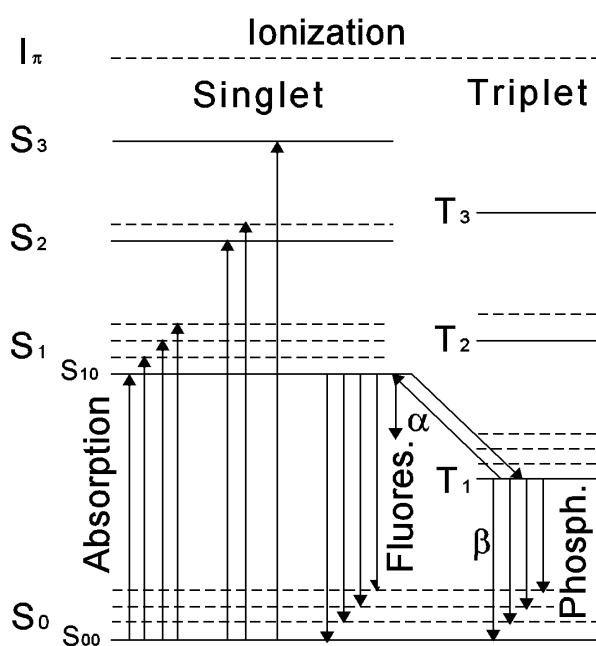
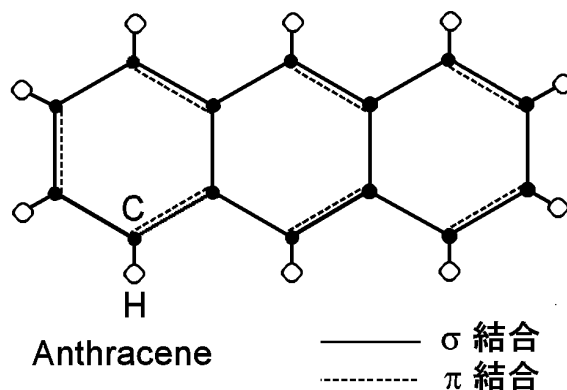


Scintillation mechanism in organic scintillators

Radiative transition of π electrons:

π electrons = one of the four outer shell electrons (2p) of each C-atom in benzene-like ring.
loosely bound to each C-atom, and unlocalized to the benzene-ring.

Luminescence occurs at each **molecule level**, and therefore is similar among crystals, liquids, and plastics.



3. Scintillation efficiency

Scintillation efficiency η can be defined as

$$\eta = \frac{\text{energy of scintillation light}}{\text{energy deposit}} = \frac{h\nu_e}{w_{e-h}} T q_A$$

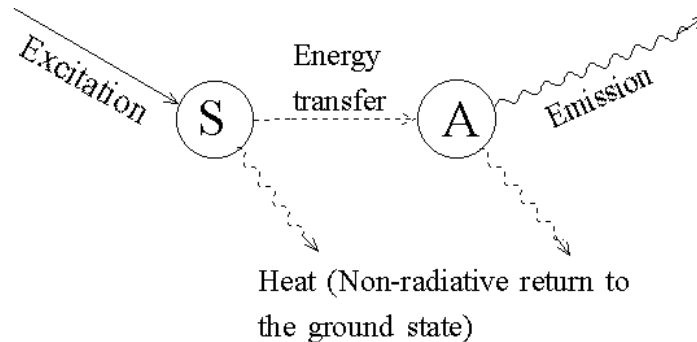
where

$h\nu_e$ = average energy of emitted photon

w_{e-h} = energy required to create one electron-hole pair,

T = energy transfer efficiency from excited ion to luminescence centre

q_A = quantum efficiency of luminescence centre



η_{\max} can be estimated for $T = 1$ and $q_A = 1$.

Writing the w_{e-h} to E_g (bandgap) ratio as $\beta = w_{e-h}/E_g$, we have

$$\eta_{\max} = \frac{h\nu_e}{w_{e-h}} = \frac{h\nu_e}{\beta E_g}$$

β is known to be 3~7, and typically ~3 for NaI, CsI, ZnS, GaP, etc.

NaI:Tl; $h\nu_e=3.02$ eV, $E_g = 5.9$ eV, $\eta_{\max} \sim 17\%$, $\eta(\text{exp})=13\sim 8\%$ at RT.

$\eta(\text{exp})=13\%$ gives $0.13 \times 1\text{MeV}/h\nu_e \sim 40,000$ ph/MeV

NaI(pure): $\eta(\text{exp})$ at 80K $\sim 2 \times$ (NaI:Tl at RT) = $26\sim 16\%$.

ZnS:Ag; $h\nu_e=2.75$ eV, $E_g = 3.8$ eV, $\eta_{\max} \sim 25\%$, $\eta(\text{exp}) \sim 21\%$.

Anthracene; $h\nu_e=2.63$ eV, $\eta(\text{exp}) \sim 4\%$. (1.5×10^4 ph/MeV)

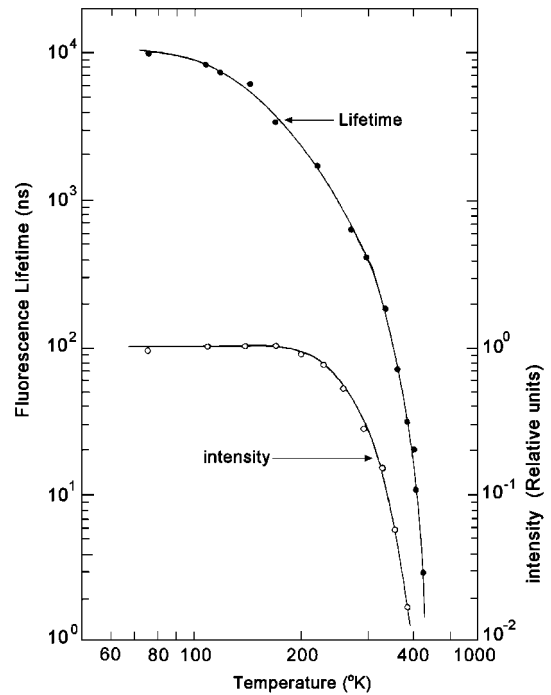
Absolute scintillation efficiency is not large! Most of deposited energy is lost by phonons.

4. Main characteristics

4-1. Quenching

(1) thermal (temperature) quenching

As temperature rises, intensity decreases and decay becomes faster as seen in a typical example of BGO

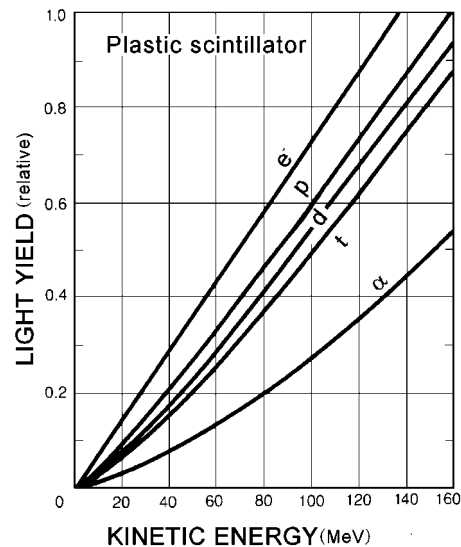
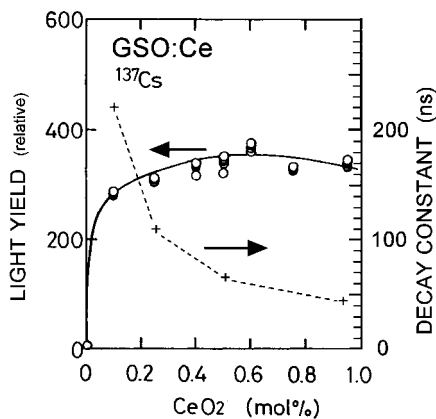


(2) impurity quenching

As the impurity increases, intensity decreases, and decay may become faster or may not be much affected.

(3) concentration quenching

As the activator concentration increases, intensity has a maximum while decay continues to be faster.



(4) ionization quenching: important in organic scintillators

When dE/dx is large, the dense ionized ions quench the excited π -electrons.

4-2. Decay

There are three causes for afterglow:

(1) Natural afterglow--→fluorescence decay time

$$I(t) = I(0) \exp(-t/\tau)$$

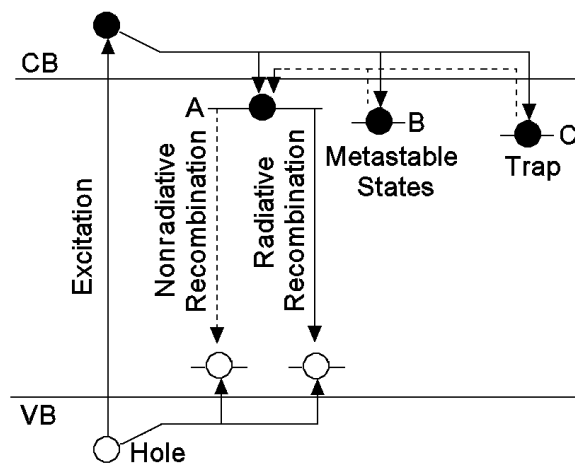
$$\tau = (P_{nr} + P_r)^{-1}$$

P_r = radiative transition probability to lower states

P_{nr} = nonradiative transition probability

(2) Afterglow due to metastable states or traps (impurities, defects, ..)

--→phosphorescence

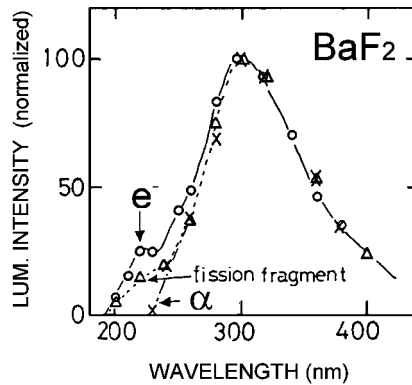


(3) Speed of energy transfer, and
Number of luminescence centres
affect the simple exponential decay.

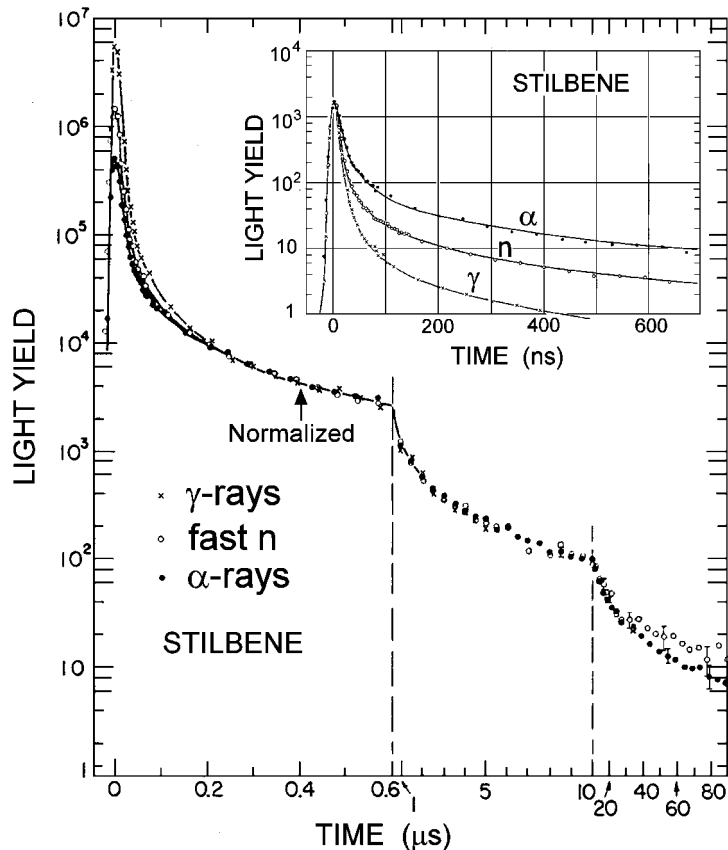
4-3. Particle discrimination (Pulse shape discrimination)

Possible for some inorganic and most of organic scintillators.

Inorganic scintillators: a typical example is BaF_2 in which both STE (slow) and CVL(fast) luminescences occur. Since large energy transfer in collision is necessary to excite CVL, electrons have CVL, while heavy particles (α -rays) not.



In organic scintillators, both fast and slow components exist. Only the fast component suffers from ionization quenching, being less for heavy particles with large dE/dx . Decay is slower for heavier particles.



4-4. Radiation hardness

There are significant differences between inorganic (crystal) scintillators and organic (crystals, liquid, plastic) scintillators.

| | Inorganic crystals | Organic scintillators |
|-------------------------------|--|--|
| damages | mainly in colouring (transmittance) | mainly in scintillation efficiency. Colouring to some extent in plastics |
| γ -rays versus hadrons | larger damage for hadrons 10-100 times | similar in magnitude |
| recovery in time | yes (spontaneous, thermal, UV annealing) | almost absent |
| Radiation hardness | depends largely on crystals | similar level at 10^{4-5} Gy |

The differences can be explained by existence (or lack) of large-scale regularity in inorganic crystals (or organic scintillators), which could restore the equilibrium positions of ions after disturbance due to irradiation.

5. Comparison between inorganic and organic scintillators

| items | inorganic | organic |
|--|---|--|
| scintillation mechanism | Excitons trapped at luminescence centres recombine radiatively. | Excited π -electrons in benzene ring recombine with holes radiatively. |
| scintillation efficiency | scatters widely in 0.13 (NaI:Tl) ~ 0.001 (PWO) | almost the same: 0.02-0.04 |
| ionization quenching | small (due to restoring force from crystal periodicity) | large |
| nonradiative transition or thermal quenching | large | small (radiative transition is large and fast) |
| decay of fast fluorescence component | 10~100 times slower than in organic scintillators | fast(2~30 ns) |
| temperature dependence | large | small |
| radiation damage | mainly in transmittance. spontaneous, UV, and thermal annealings may occur. | mainly in scintillation efficiency. hardly recovers in time. |
| density | can be large; 8.28 g/cm ³ (PbWO ₄) | ~1 g/cm ³ , consisting of C and H. |
| γ -ray detection | one of the aims | hardly used |
| particle discrimination from pulse shape | feasible only in some scintillators | fast/slow ratio is larger for e- and γ -rays than for α -rays. |