

# Who needs better nuclear detector materials and how do we find them?

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# Outline

- Limitations of Available Detector Materials
- Why are Crystals So Important?
- First-Principles Calculations and Grand Challenges
- General Selection Rules for Detector Materials
- Finding Materials for Specific Classes of Detectors
  - Semiconductor charge collection detectors (e.g. CZT)
  - Cerium-activated scintillators (e.g.  $\text{LaBr}_3:\text{Ce}$ )
  - Semiconductor scintillators (e.g.  $\text{ZnO}:\text{Ga}$ )
- Conclusions

# Who Needs Better Detector Materials?

- Nuclear Medicine needs an efficient scintillator with  $<200$  ps timing resolution for time-of-flight positron emission tomography (PET)
- Homeland Security needs an ambient temperature, efficient, fast, rugged, low-cost gamma-ray detector with sufficient energy resolution ( $<2\%$  fwhm at 662 keV) to detect and identify radioisotopes

# Limitations of Available Semiconductor Detector Materials

	Si	Ge <sup>†</sup>	CZT*	HgI <sub>2</sub>	PbI <sub>2</sub>	AlSb
Density (g/cc)	2.33	5.35	5.76	6.36	6.16	4.22
Atten. Length** (mm)	44.6	23.7	20.1	13.9	14.1	27.2
Photofraction**	0.0016	0.043	0.18	0.38	0.40	0.16
Band gap (eV)	1.12(I)	0.67(I)	1.7	2.1(D)	2.4(D)	1.6(I)
E(pair) (eV)	3.6	3.0	5.0	4.2	4.9	5.1
μ(e <sup>-</sup> )	1400	40,000	1350	100	8	≈400
μ(h <sup>+</sup> )	480	40,000	120	4	2	≈500
Fano factor	≈0.1	0.08	>0.2			??
E(fwhm) 662 keV		0.2%	≈1%			??

†Ge must be cooled (LN) \*Cd<sub>0.9</sub>Zn<sub>0.1</sub>Te \*\*511 keV

# Limitations of Available Scintillators

(Primarily for gamma ray detection)

Desired properties	BGO	NaI(Tl)	BaF <sub>2</sub>	LSO	Ideal
$\sigma_{\text{photo}} / (\sigma_{\text{photo}} + \sigma_{\text{Compton}})$ (.5 MeV)	0.43	0.18	0.19	0.34	$\geq 0.43$
Density	7.1	3.7	4.9	7.4	$> 7$
Photons per MeV	8,200	40,000	1800	$\approx 20,000$	$> 100,000$
Energy resolution	13%	7%	10%	11%	$< 2\%$
Decay time (ns)	300	230	$< 1$	40	$< 1$
Photoelectrons/MeV/ns*	2.6	18	200	50	$> 10,000$
Cost per CC	\$10	low	low	\$100	low

\* Photoelectrons per ns = 0.1 (Photons) / (Decay time)

BGO = Bi<sub>4</sub>Ge<sub>3</sub>O<sub>12</sub>      LSO = Lu<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>5</sub>:Ce



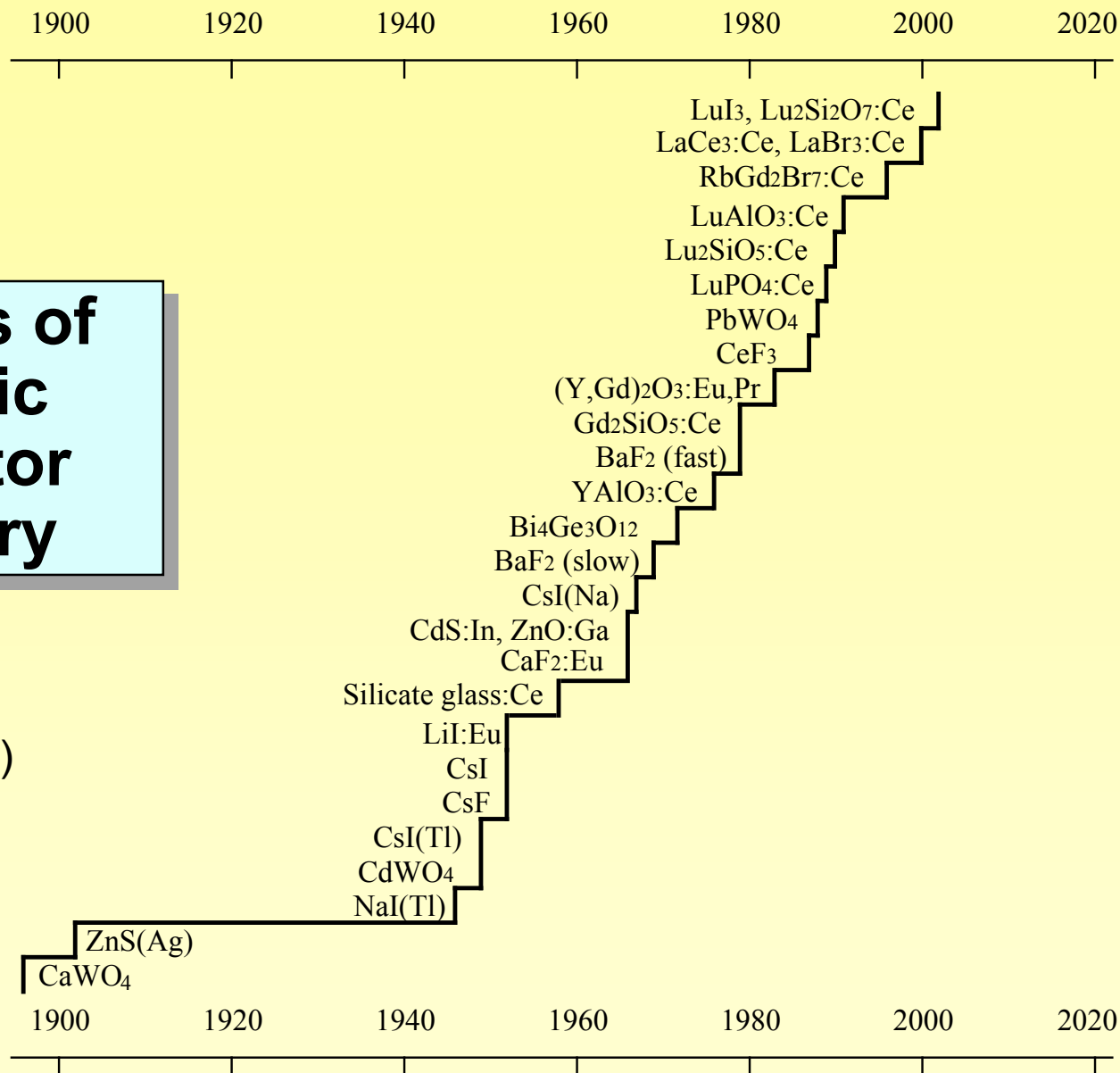
# BGO Compared to Recently Discovered Cerium-Activated Scintillators

	BGO	LSO	LPS	LuYAP	LaBr3	LuI3
Luminosity (ph/MeV)	8,200	25,000	26,000	12,500	60,000	90,000
E(fwhm) (662 keV)	12%	10%	10%	8%	2.5%	<8%
Decay Time (ns)	300	40	38	25, 200	25	30
Density (g/cc)	7.1	7.4	6.2	7.4	5.3	5.6
Atten. Length* (mm)	11	12	15	13	22	18
Photofraction*	43%	34%	31%	27%	14%	29%
Wavelength (nm)	480	420	385	390	370	470
Natural Radioactivity?	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Hygroscopic?	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes

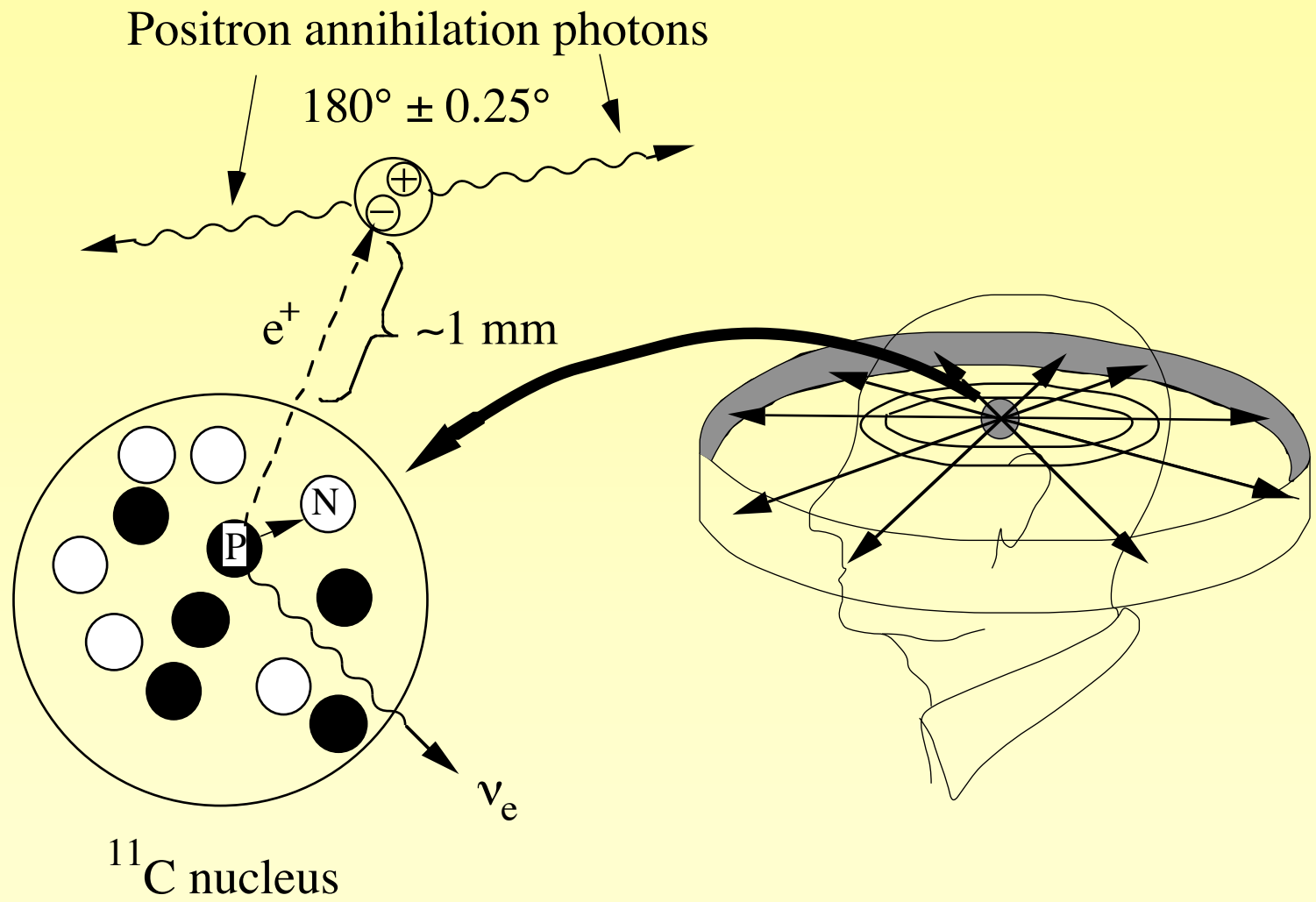
\* 511 keV

# 105 Years of Inorganic Scintillator Discovery

(Marv Weber)



# Positron Emission Tomography (PET)



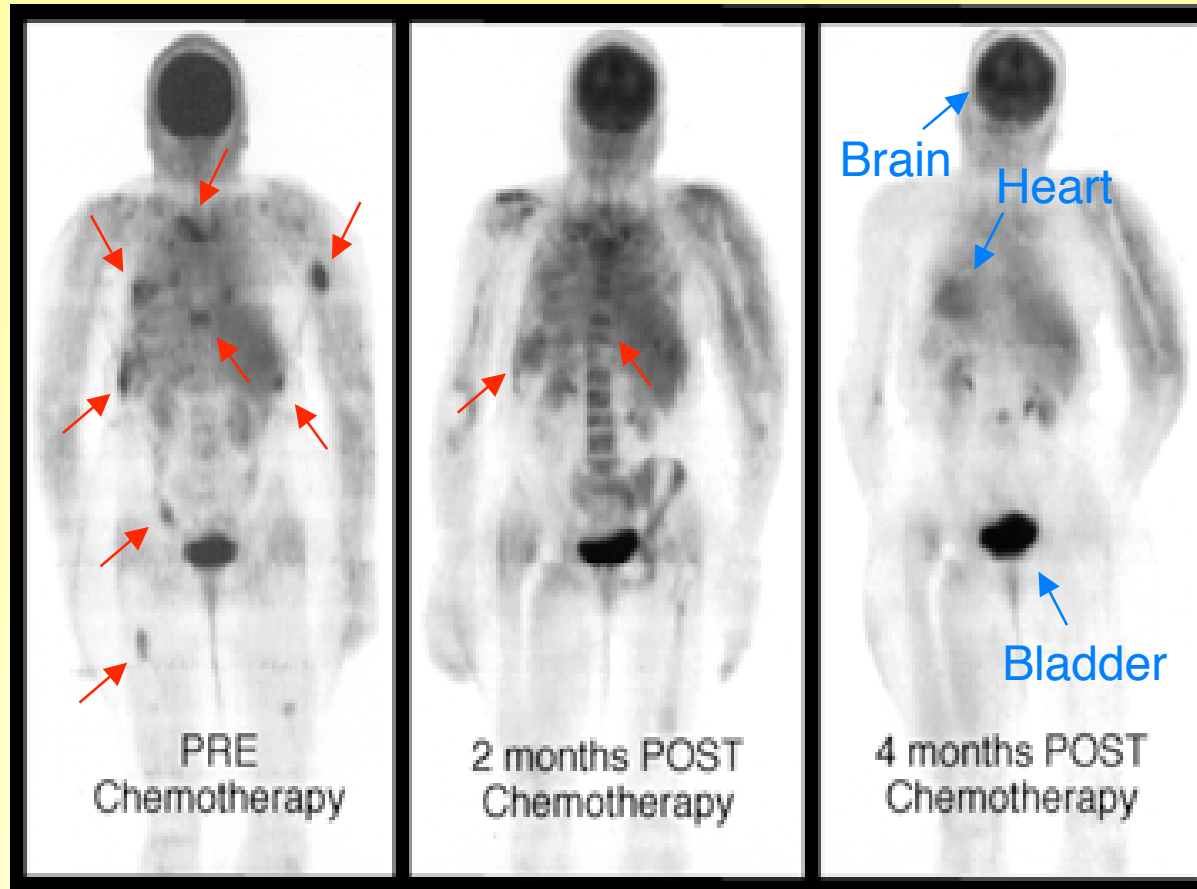


# Siemens ECAT 951 Positron Tomograph



# PET Images of Breast Cancer Patient

Metastases  
Shown with  
Red Arrows



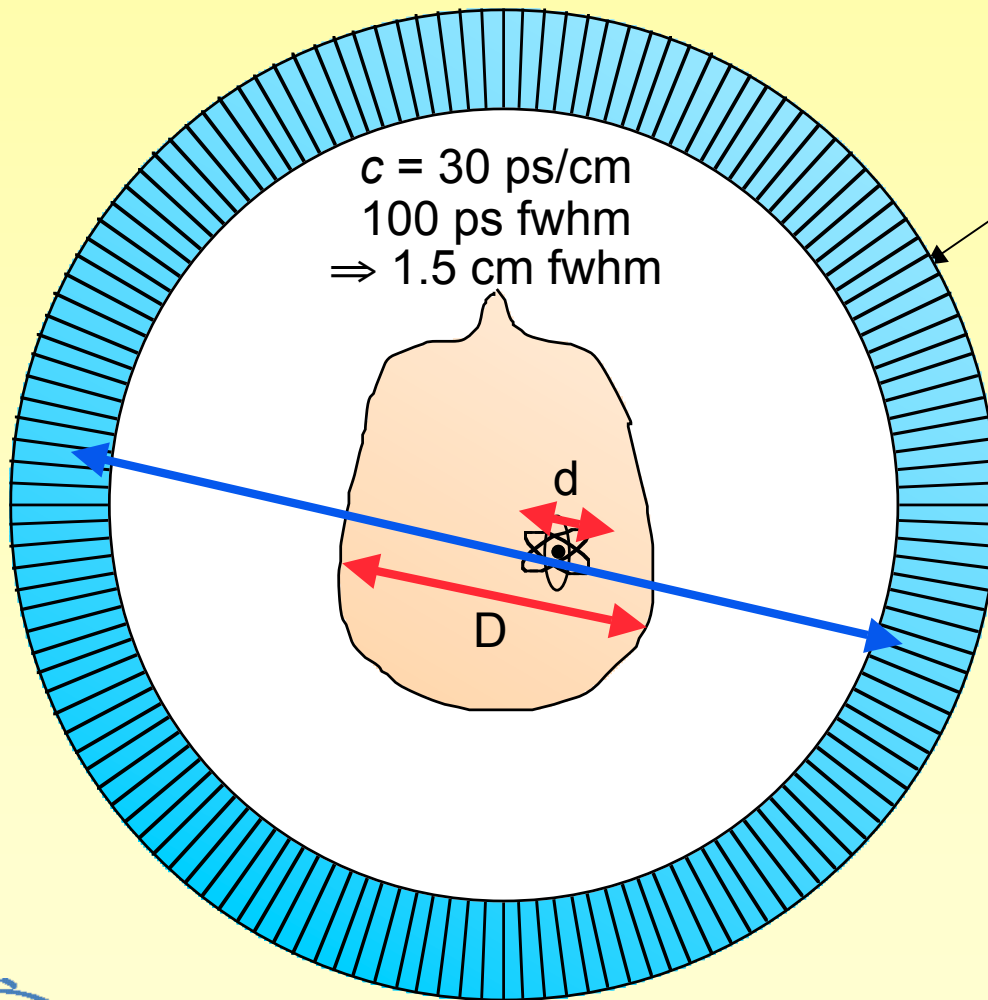
Normal Uptake  
in Other Organs  
Shown in Blue

Tumors Easily Seen (~5 mm spatial resolution)



ERNEST ORLANDO LAWRENCE  
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# Time-of-Flight in PET Reduces Statistical Noise



Detectors

Time-of-Flight PET (at the 100 ps fwhm level) improves the noise-equivalent detection efficiency by a factor of 10 for the head and thorax, 15 for the abdomen

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# Why Are Crystals So Important?

- Semiconductor Charge Collection Detectors
  - High carrier mobility  $\mu$  - requires long scattering times
  - Long carrier lifetime  $\tau$  – requires no trapping on defects
  - Trapping length =  $\mu\tau E$  (want  $> 1$  m)
- Scintillator Detectors
  - Want trapping on luminescent center  $\gg$  trapping on defects

Example:  
Ce-activated glass is a poor scintillator because carriers trap on defects before exciting the Ce.  
But if Ce are excited directly with UV, the fluorescence is efficient

## What Crystals Can Exist?

“One of the continuing scandals in the physical sciences is that it remains in general impossible to predict the structure of even the simplest crystalline solids from a knowledge of their chemical composition”

John Maddox, editor of Nature, 1988

# Three Computational Grand Challenges

- 1 Given a molecular formula, what stable periodic arrangements of atoms can exist at room temperature?  
(Number of combinations for 1-6 atoms  $\gg 10^6$ )
- 2 Which of these are stable between room temperature and the melting point?  
(Important for growing crystals from the melt- less important for vapor deposition, hydrothermal growth, and transparent ceramics)
- 3 What is the optimal thermodynamic path for producing crystals with the minimum concentration of native defects?

## Traditional Experimental Determination of Crystal Structure

- Melting or thermal diffusion of integer ratios to attempt to make small crystals (e.g.  $\text{GeO}_2$  and  $\text{Bi}_2\text{O}_3$  in 3:2 ratio produces  $\text{Bi}_4\text{Ge}_3\text{O}_{12}$ )
- X-ray beam ==> Laue diffraction pattern
- Solve for the periodic atomic coordinates
- Publish synthesis and structure in Acta Crystallographica
- Discard crystals
- 96,000 entries in the 2005 Inorganic Crystal Structure database (ICSD)

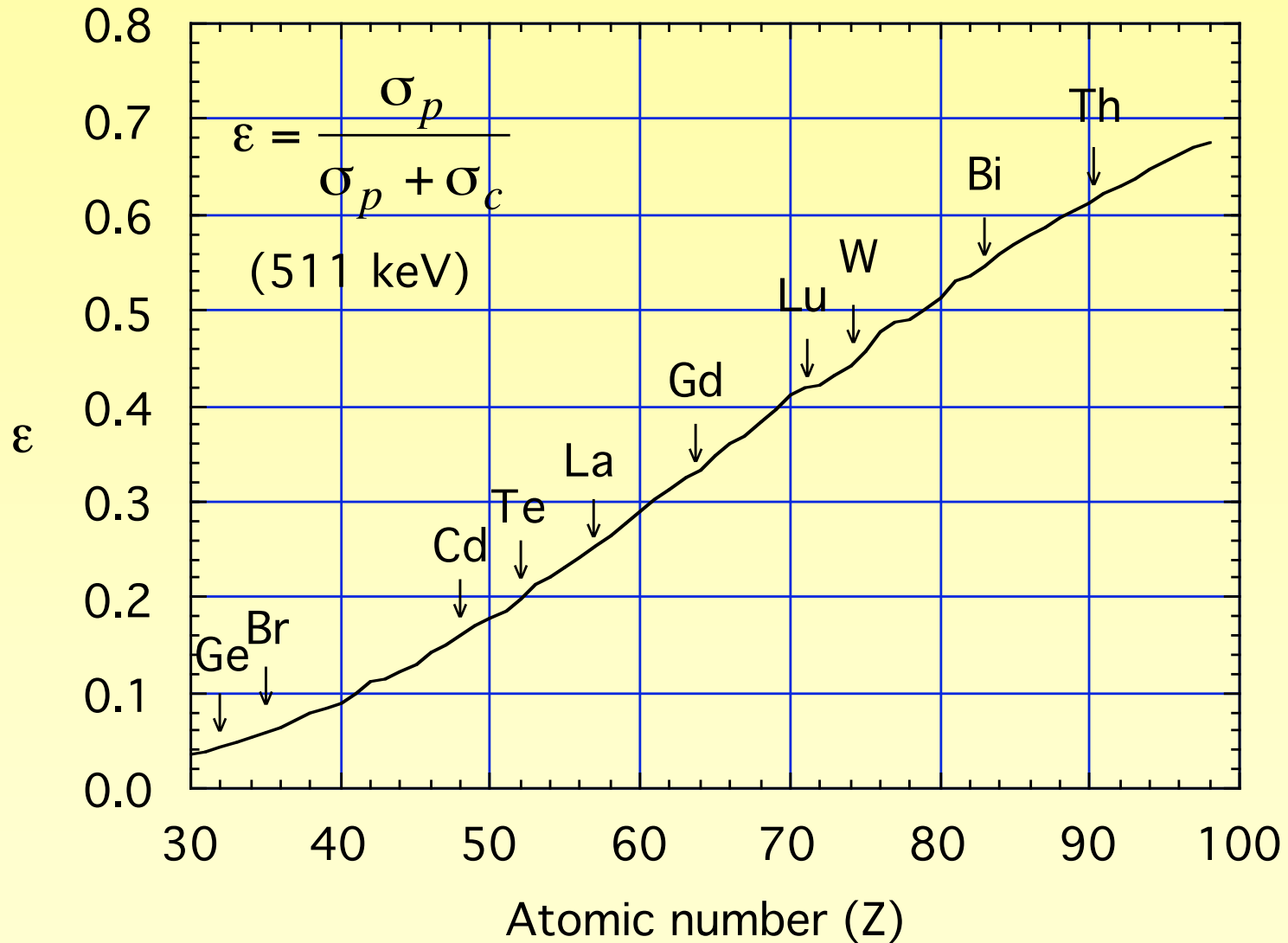
Thousands of heavy crystals are known but have not been explored as nuclear detector materials



## General Selection Rules for Detector Materials

- Good stopping power (density, atomic number)
- Low production cost
- Mechanical strength (want attractive atomic bonds)
- High yield of electrons and holes
- Band gap (<2.0 eV for semiconductor, >5 eV for cerium-activated scintillator)

# 511 keV Photofraction vs. Z



# Outline

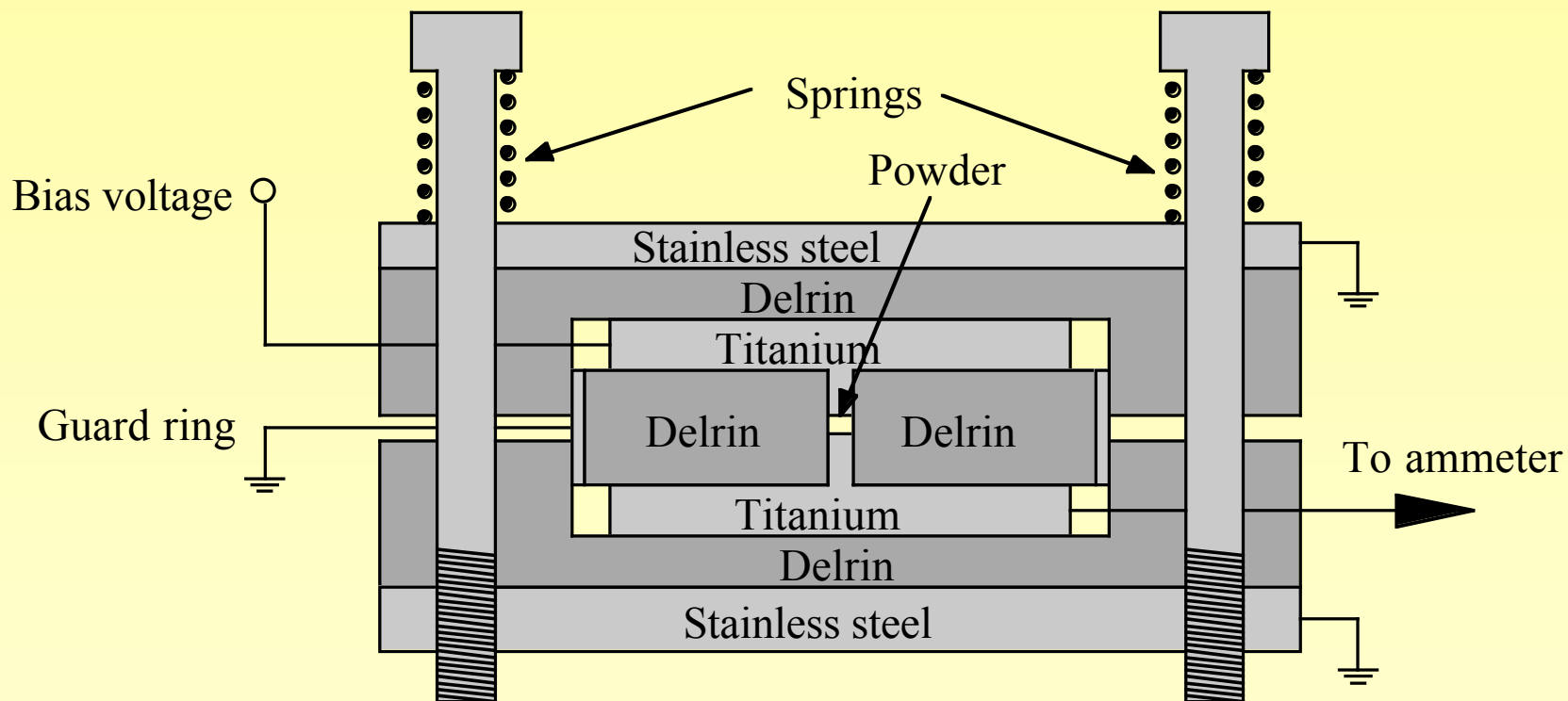
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# Semiconductor Charge Collection Detectors

General selection criteria, plus:

- Carrier mobility [eff. mass/scattering time]
- Ultra-pure starting materials, esp. low concentration of carrier trapping impurities
- Crystal growth conditions that minimize the concentration of native defects that trap carriers [Grand Challenge #3]
- Low Fano factor [Variance/Poisson]

# Pressure Cell for Semiconductor Discovery



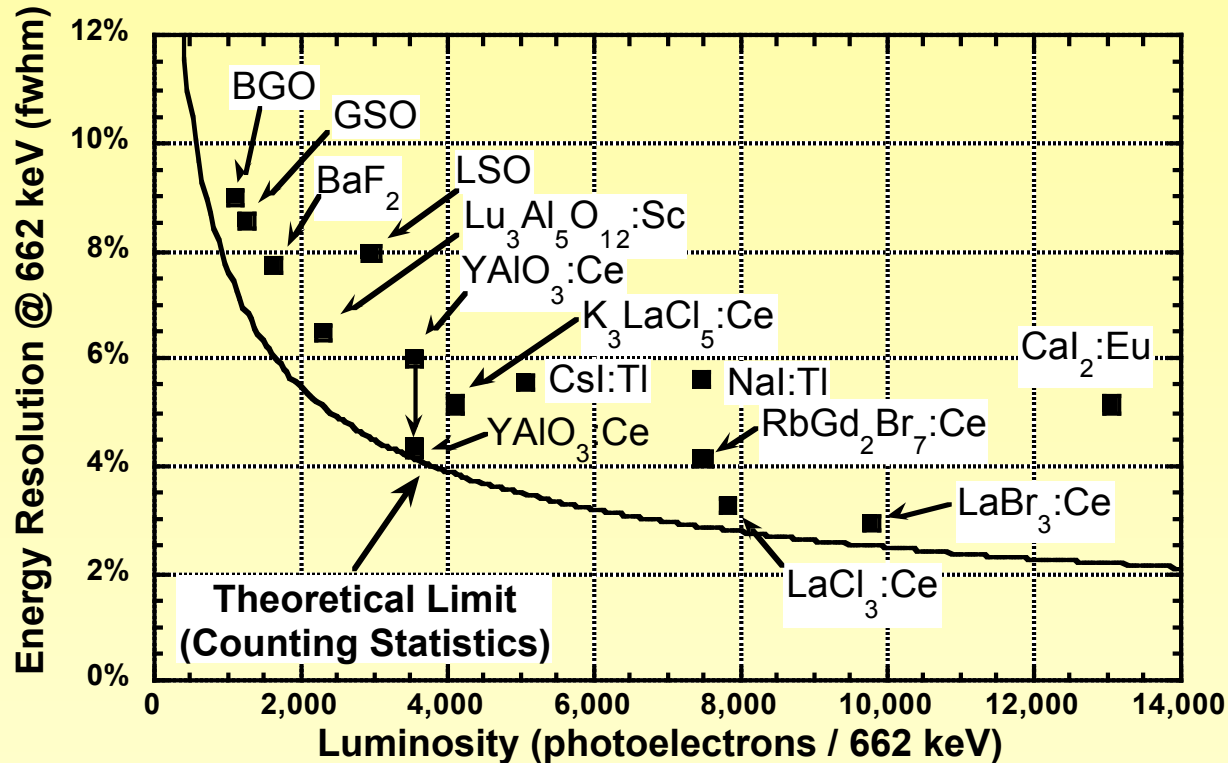
More at IEEE NSS Puerto Rico, Oct 23-29, 2005

# Cerium-Activated Scintillators

General selection criteria plus:

- Band gap ( $>5$  eV oxides & halides,  $>3$  eV sulfides)
- Energy per electron-hole pair  $\leq 10$  eV
- Efficient hole trapping on  $\text{Ce}^{3+}$  [Ce 4f energy level]
- Efficient electron trapping on  $\text{Ce}^{4+}$  [Ce 5d energy level]
- Efficient radiative transition [No quenching]
- Fundamental limit 100,000 photons/MeV
- Linear scintillation response [ $\Delta L/\Delta E$  constant]
- Fundamental limit 2% fwhm at 662 keV
- 20-40 ns decay time

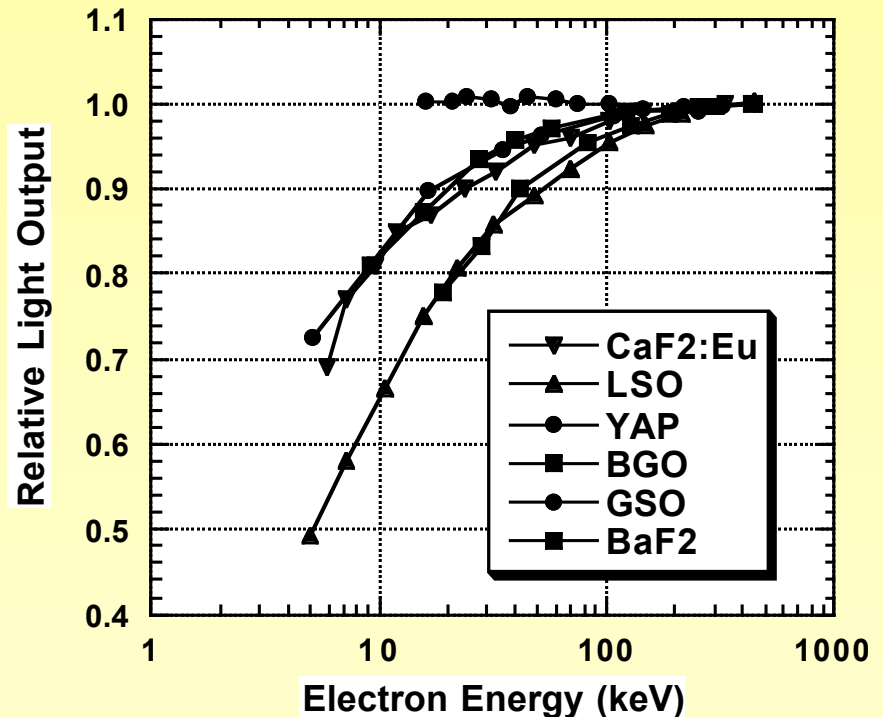
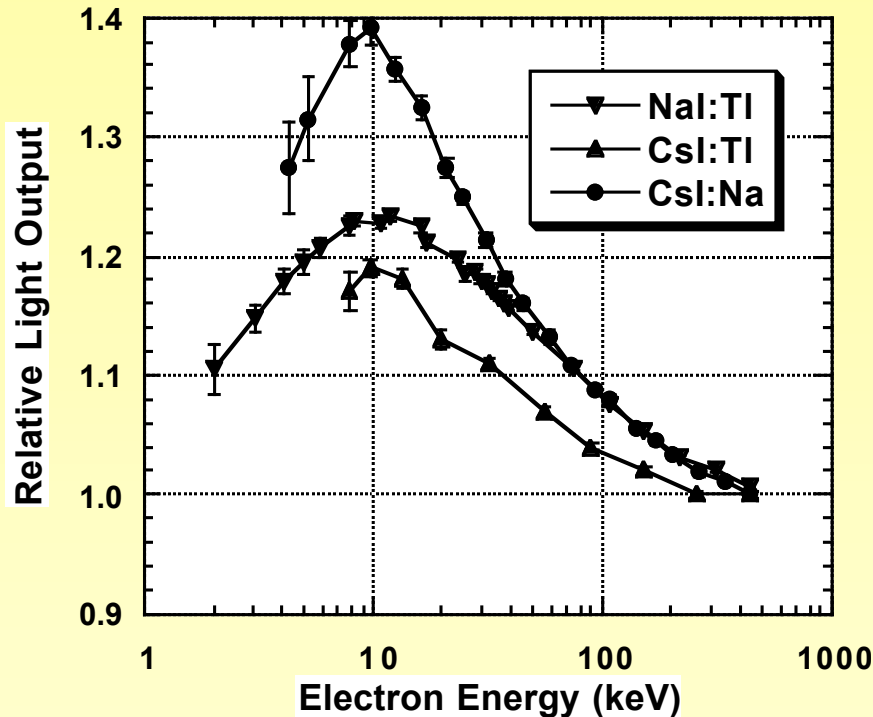
# Energy Resolution Depends on Linearity as Well as Light Output



Measured energy resolution of several scintillators for 662 keV gamma rays as a function of their light output (expressed as the number of photoelectrons observed with a photomultiplier tube). The solid curve indicates the theoretical lower limit placed by counting statistics. From P. Dorenbos, "Light output and energy resolution of Ce<sup>3+</sup>-doped scintillators," *Nucl Instr Meth*, vol. A486, pp. 208-213, 2002.



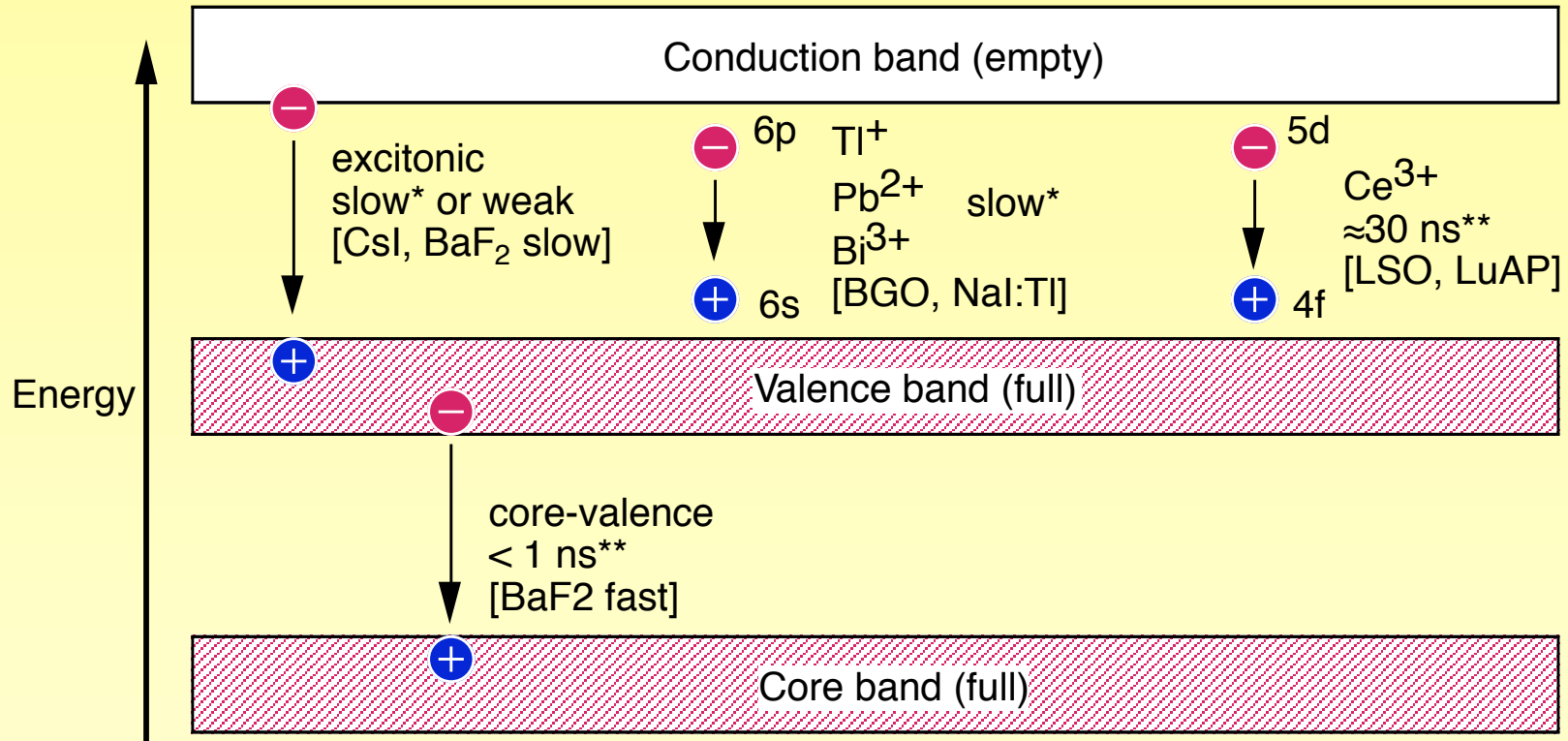
# Light Output per keV can Depend on Electron Energy



**Figure 8.8** From W. Mengesha, T. Taulbee, B. Rooney and J. Valentine, “Light yield nonproportionality of CsI(Tl), CsI(Na), and YAP,” *IEEE Trans Nucl Sci*, vol. 45, pp. 456-461, 1998.



# Why is No Available Scintillator Both Bright and Fast (< 1 ns)?



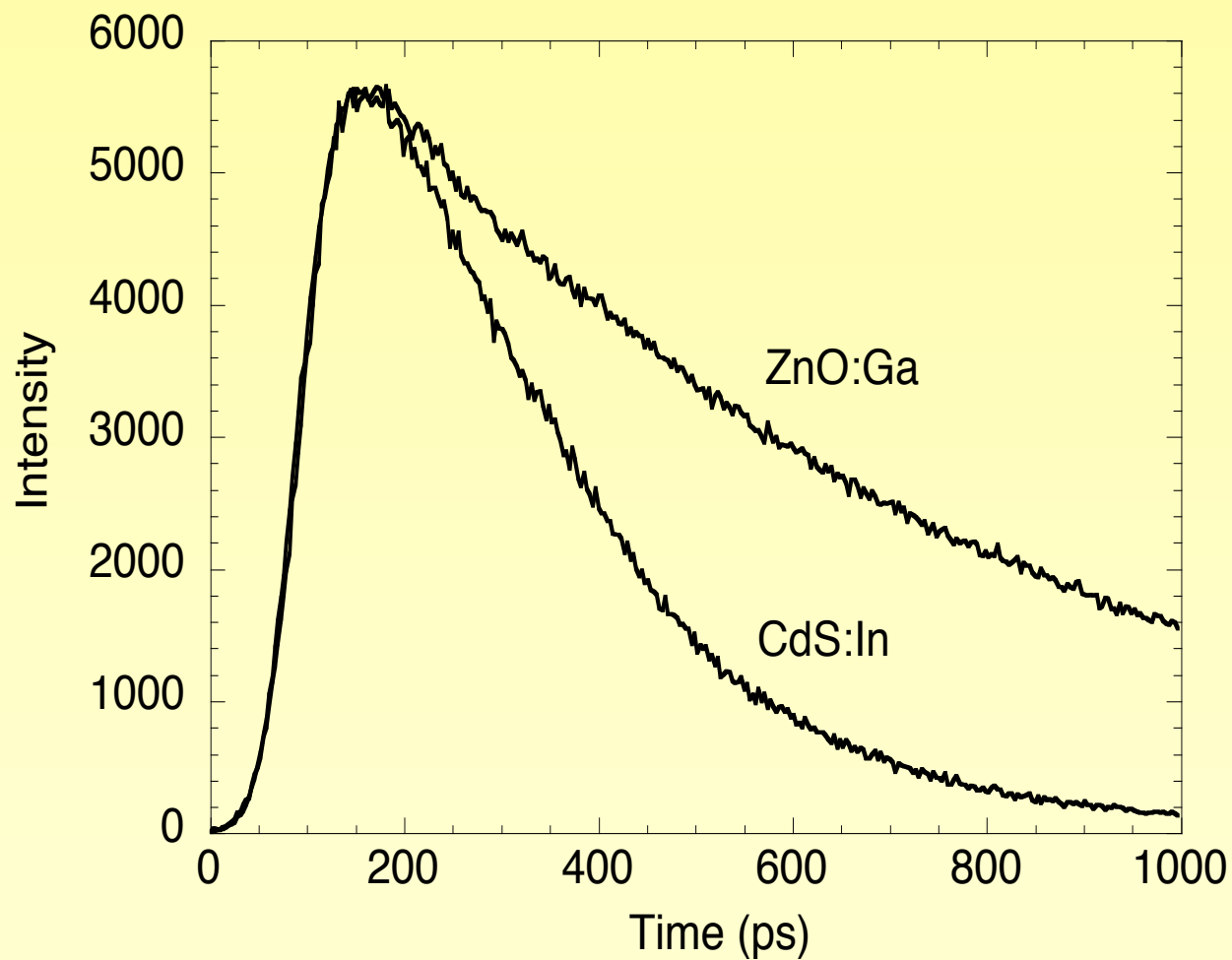
\* triplet-> singlet forbidden  
 \*\* allowed electric dipole



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# Two Ultra-Fast Semiconductor Scintillators

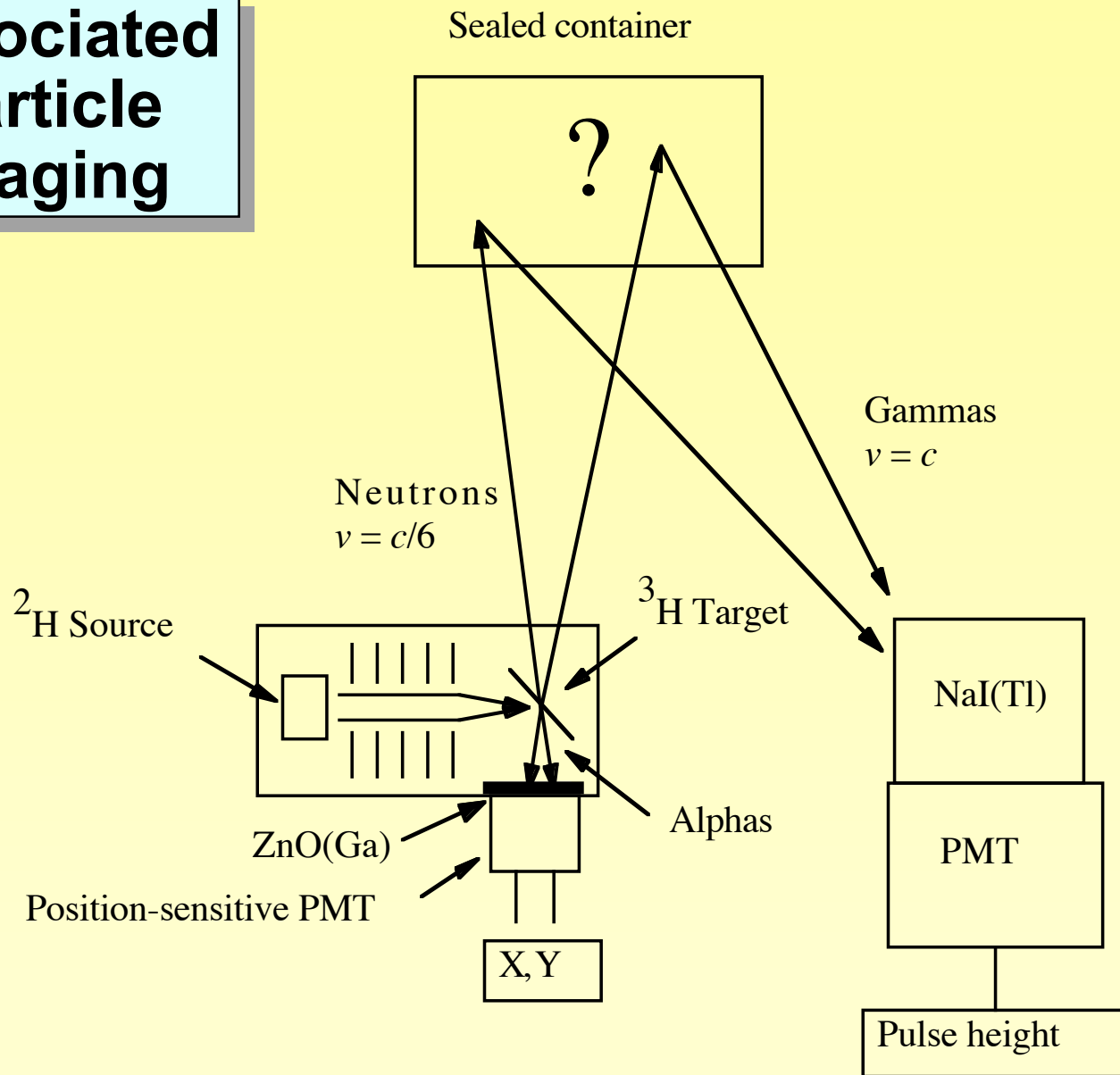


# ZnO(Ga)

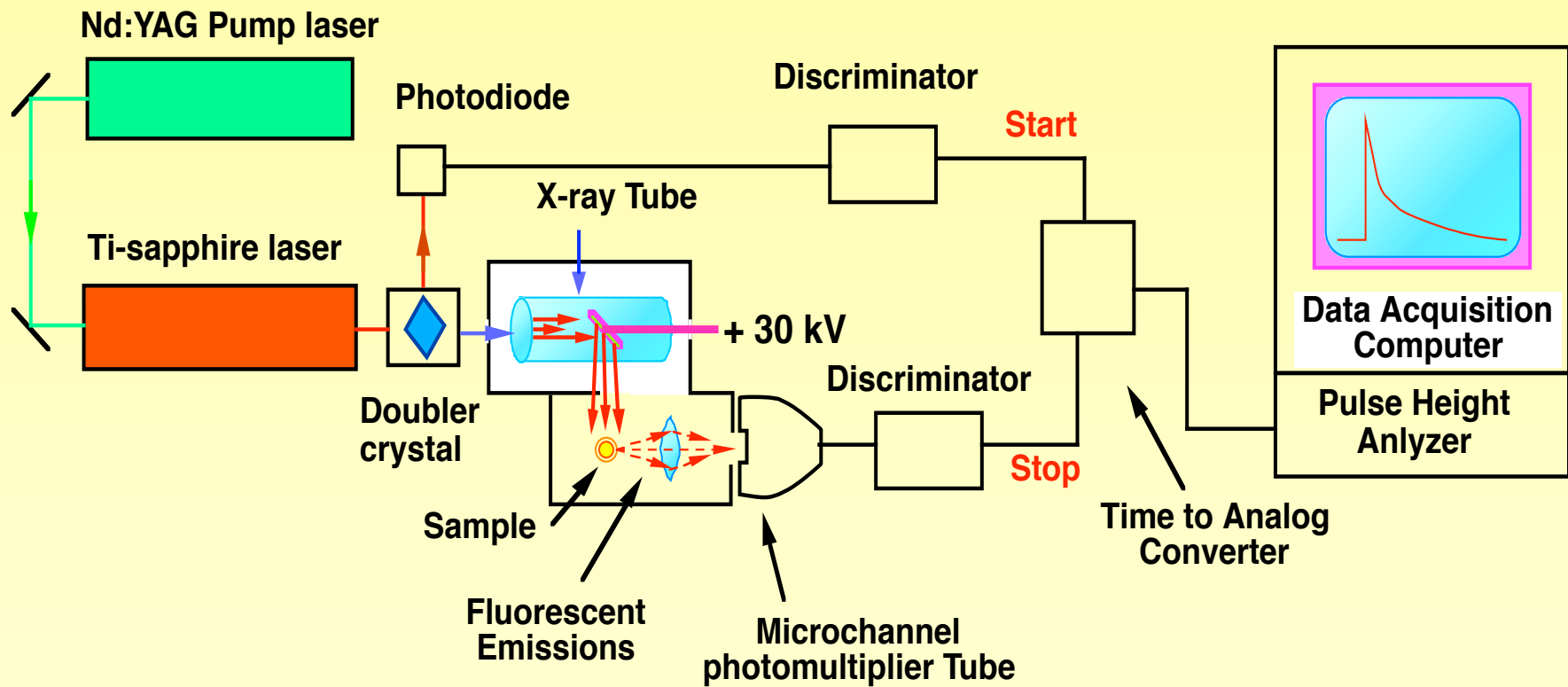
Material	Efficiency (NaI(Tl)=100%)	Decay Constant (1/e, $\mu$ sec)	Emission Wavelength (nm)		Index of Refraction	Density (gm/cm <sup>3</sup> )	Hygroscopic
			Max	Cut Off			
NaI(Tl)	100	0.23	415	320	1.85	3.67	Yes
BaF <sub>2</sub>	15	0.6	310	220	1.49	4.88	No
	2-3	0.0008	220	180			
Bi <sub>4</sub> GeO <sub>12</sub>	10-12	0.3	480	350	2.15	7.13	No
CaF <sub>2</sub> (Eu)	50	0.94	435	405	1.44	3.18	No
CdWO <sub>4</sub>	18	5/20	540	450	2/2.4	7.9	No
CsF	3-5	0.005	390	250	1.48	4.64	Yes
CsI(Na)	85	0.63	420	300	1.8	4.51	Yes
CsI(Pure)	5-7	0.010	315	250	1.8	4.51	No
CsI(Tl)	45	1.00	565	330	1.8	4.51	No
ZnO(Ga)	38	0.0015	385	350	2.02	5.61	No



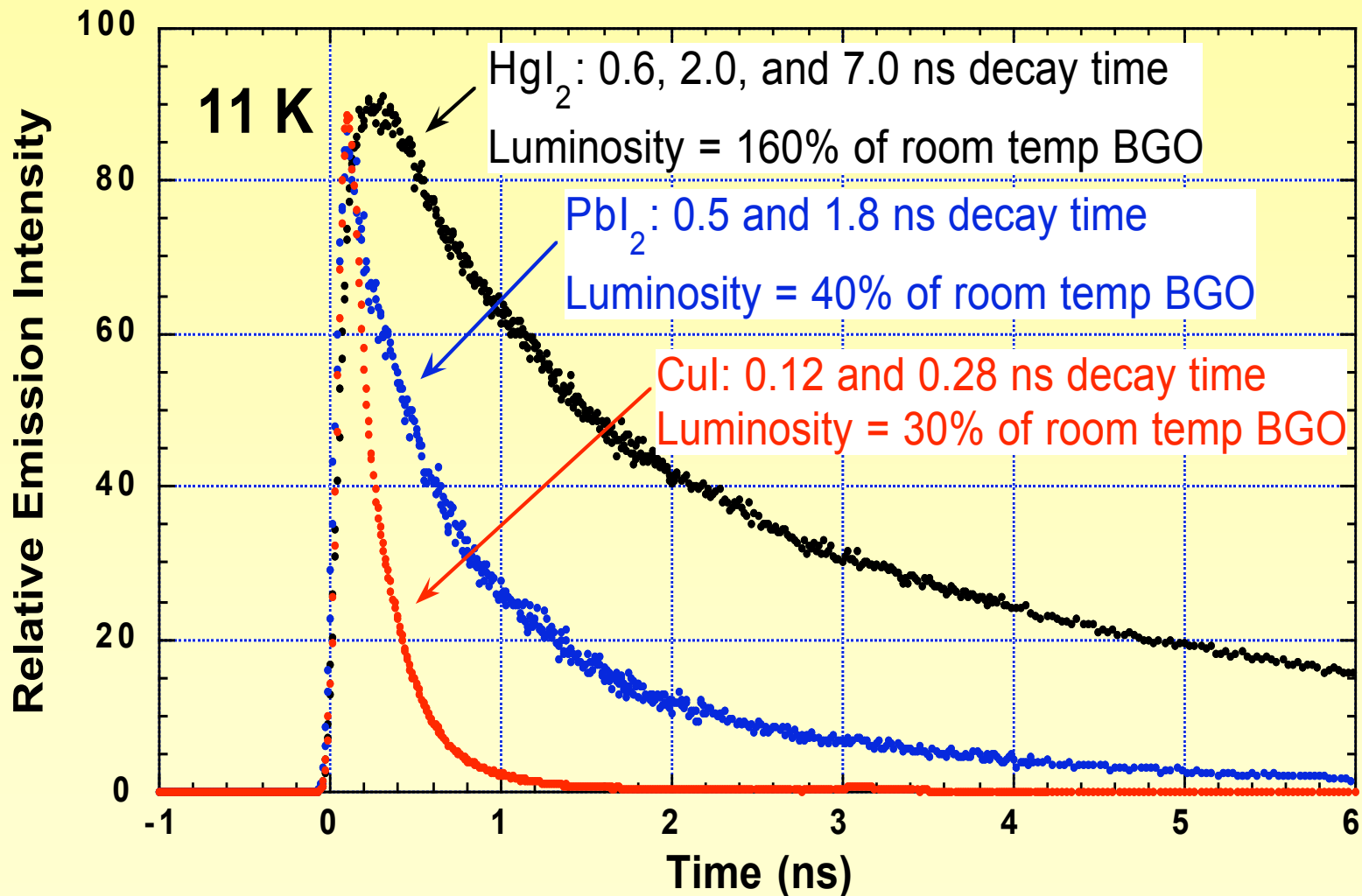
# Associated Particle Imaging



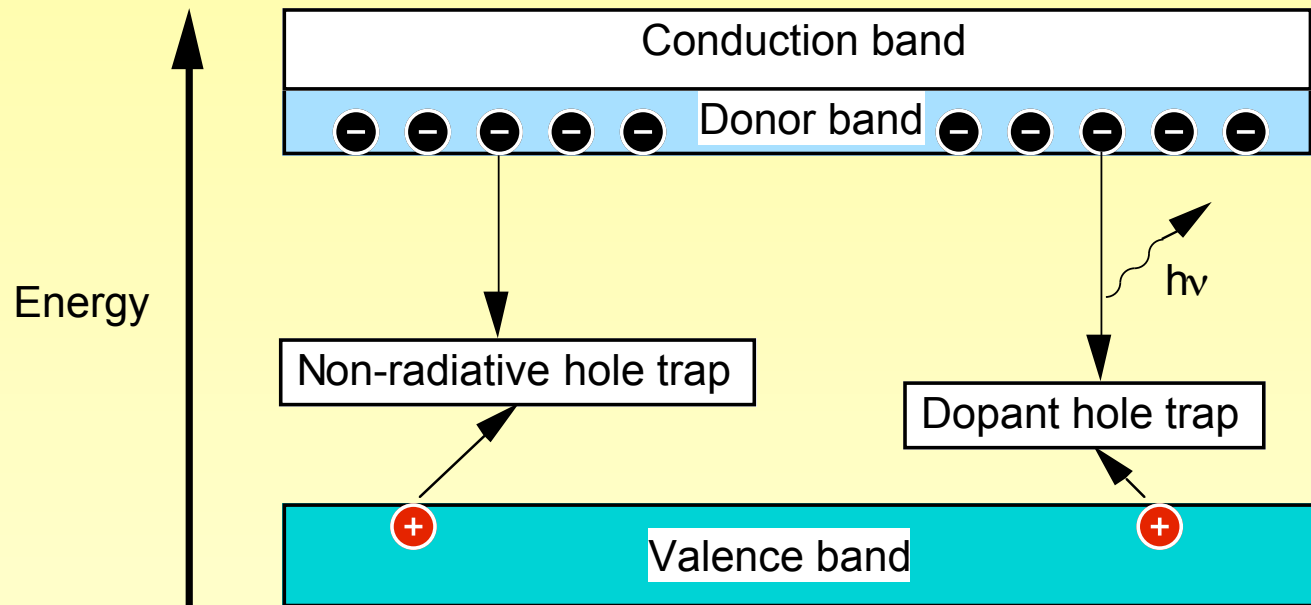
# LBNL Pulsed X-Ray Facility



# Direct-Gap Semiconductor Scintillators at 11 K



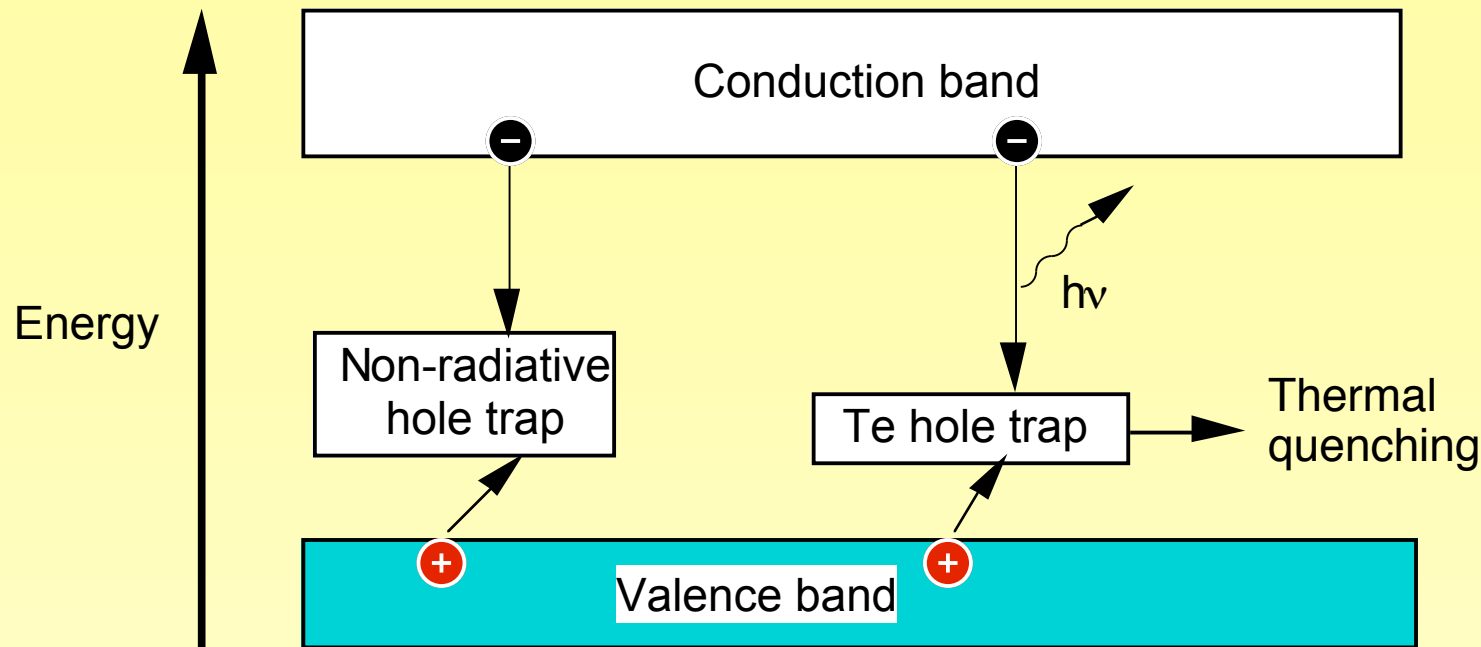
# Proposed Ideal Scintillation Mechanism in Codoped Semiconductors



- Direct-gap semiconductor host with  $E_g = >2.5$  eV
- Prompt (<50 ps), efficient trapping of hot holes by dopant ions
- Fast (~1 ns) recombination with donor band electrons



## Scintillation from CdS:Te

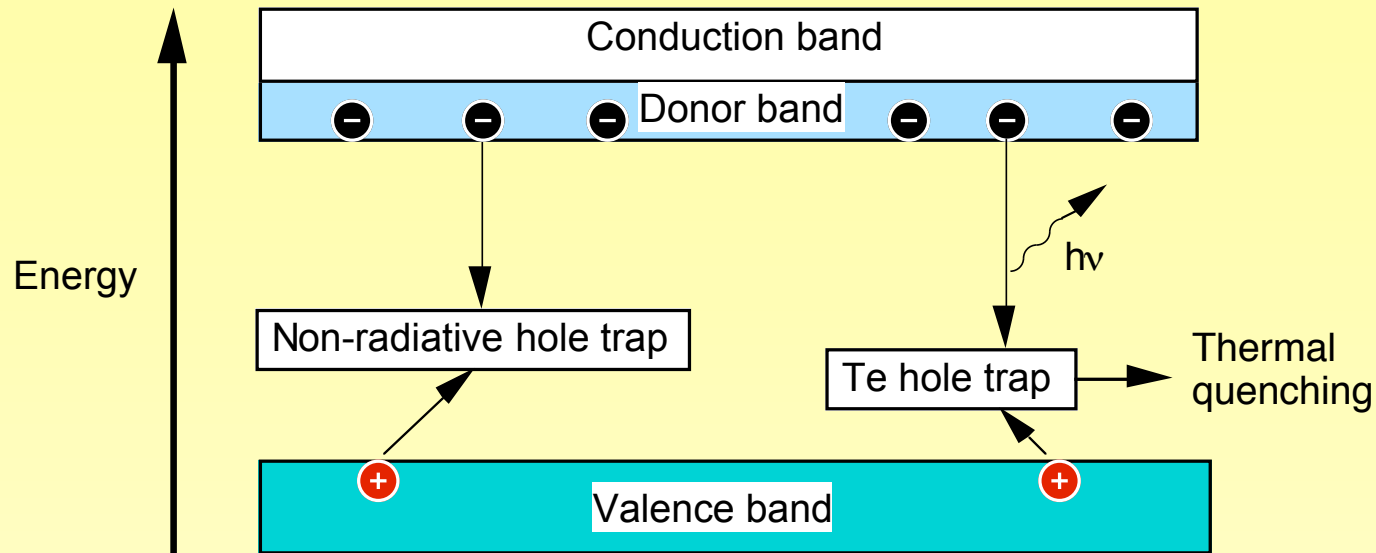


- Tellurium is an isoelectronic hole trap in CdS
- The local hole causes lattice relaxation so the emission is shifted from the band edge (Stoke's shift 512 → 620 nm, 0.42 eV)

P. Schotanus, P. Dorenbos and V. D. Ryzhikov, "Detection of CdS(Te) and ZnSe(Te) scintillation light with silicon photodiodes," *IEEE Trans Nucl Sci*, vol. NS-39, pp. 546- 550, **1992**.

- Luminosity is 17,000 photons/MeV (2 x BGO)
- 18 ns (1.1%), 270 ns (19%), 3  $\mu$ s (80%) -complex emission, ascribed to multiple sites and complexes

## Scintillation from CdS(In,Te)

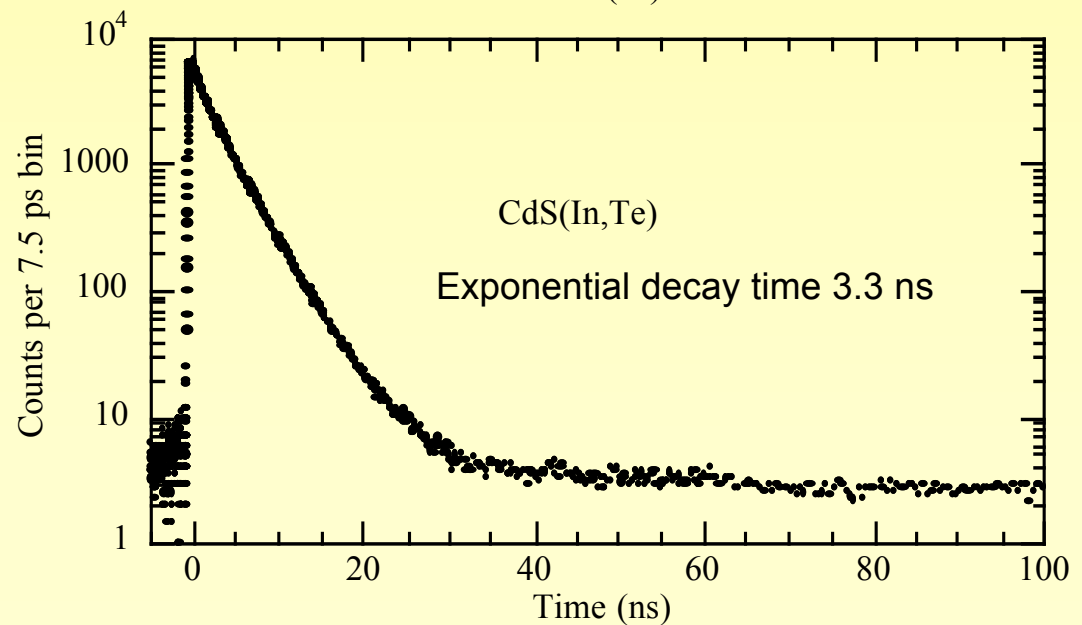
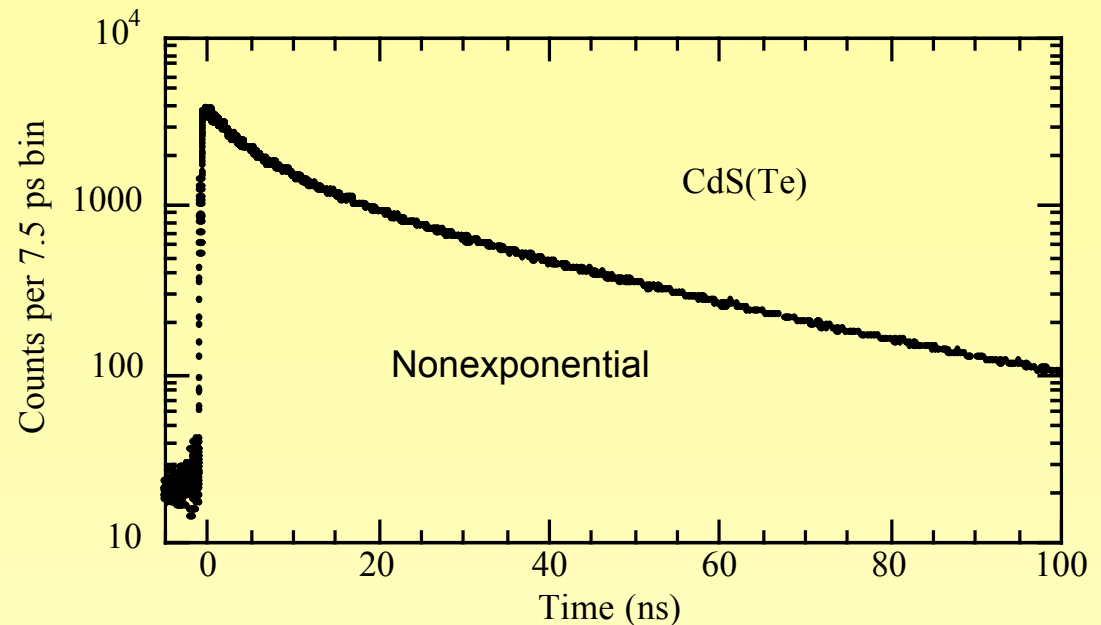


- The indium donor band provides electrons of both spin, so that fast singlet → singlet radiative recombination is possible
- Tellurium still acts as a hole trap, just as in CdS:Te

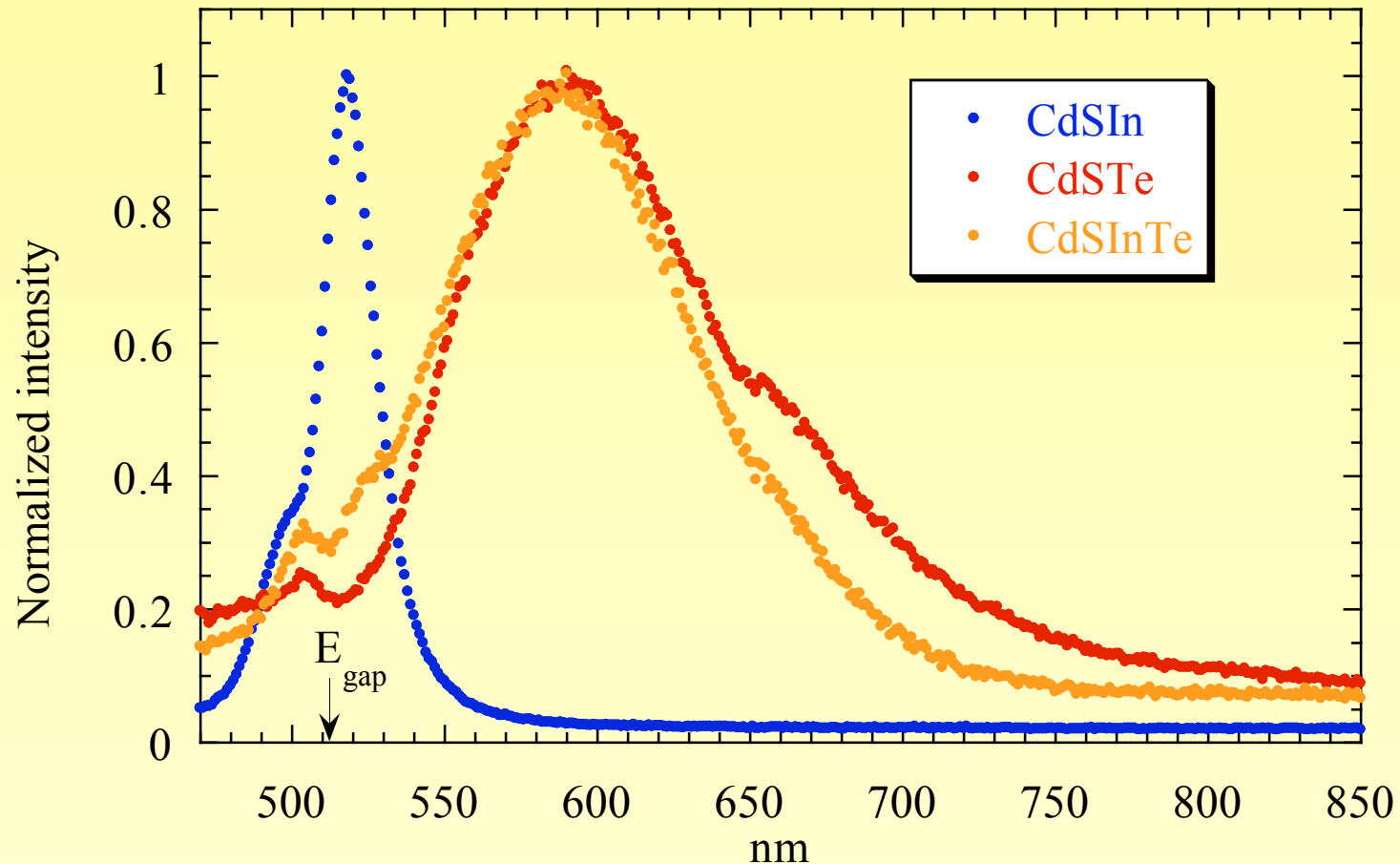
# Codoped CdS at Room Temperature

Tellurium doping alone  
results in a slow scintillator  
(80%  $\tau = 3 \mu\text{s}$ )

Indium donor band  
electrons recombine  
quickly with holes trapped  
on tellurium ( $\tau = 3.3 \text{ ns}$ )



# Room-Temperature Photoluminescence Spectra



CdS:Te,In is the same transition as CdS:Te only much faster

# Direct-Gap Semiconductor Scintillator

General selection criteria plus:

- Direct band gap 2.2 to 3.5 eV ( $\approx$  1 ns decay time)
- 5 to 7 eV per electron-hole pair
- Shallow acceptor and donor (near band-edge emission)
- Fundamental limit 200,000 photons/MeV
- Fundamental limit 1.5 % fwhm at 662 keV

Advantages: (1) ultra-fast decay time (2) maximum potential luminosity

# Conclusions

- The development of new detector materials has been hindered by the slow pace of empirical discovery
- We need to move from empirical discovery to methods that use
  - The >10,000 heavy-atom crystals in the ICDS whose synthesis and structure is known but are otherwise unexplored
  - First-principle calculations of physical and luminescent properties to help select candidates for synthesis and measurement
  - Stability and growth calculations to optimize crystal growth
  - Powder synthesis and characterization to efficiently screen candidates
- The prizes
  - New heavy-atom semiconductors that are easy to grow as large crystals and have good electron transport
  - New heavy-atom scintillators that are easy to grow in as very large crystals and can be doped to be both bright and fast

# Periodic Table

H 1																	He 2
Li 3	Be 4											B 5	C 6	N 7	O 8	F 9	Ne 10
Na 11	Mg 12											Al 13	Si 14	P 15	S 16	Cl 17	Ar 18
K 19	Ca 20	Sc 21	Ti 22	V 23	Cr 24	Mn 25	Fe 26	Co 27	Ni 28	Cu 29	Zn 30	Ga 31	Ge 32	As 33	Se 34	Br 35	Kr 36
Rb 37	Sr 38	Y 39	Zr 40	Nb 41	Mo 42	Tc 43	Ru 44	Rh 45	Pd 46	Ag 47	Cd 48	In 49	Sn 50	Sb 51	Te 52	I 53	Xe 54
Cs 55	Ba 56	La 57	Hf 72	Ta 73	W 74	Re 75	Os 76	Ir 77	Pt 78	Au 79	Hg 80	Tl 81	Pb 82	Bi 83	Po 84	At 85	Rn 86



Ce 58	Pr 59	Nd 60	Pm 61	Sm 62	Eu 63	Gd 64	Tb 65	Dy 66	Ho 67	Er 68	Tm 69	Yb 70	Lu 71
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# Cluster vs. Periodic Computational Approaches

- Cluster of ions
  - + Ionic crystals
  - + Electronic defects < cluster size (e.g. vacancies, trapped carriers)
  - Environment of periodic crystal (pt. charges can reproduce crystal field with high accuracy)
  - Overestimates band gaps
  - Cannot handle delocalized defects
- Infinite, periodic 3D array of unit cells
  - + Environment of periodic crystal
  - + Covalent crystals
  - + Electronic structure > unit cell
  - Underestimates band gaps (higher order theory may fix)
  - Localized defects repeated in all directions