


Highly efficient eco-friendly X-ray scintillators based on an organic manganese halide

Liang-Jin Xu¹, Xinsong Lin¹, Qingquan He¹, Michael Worku² & Biwu Ma^{1,2}  [✉](mailto:bma@fsu.edu)

Scintillation based X-ray detection has received great attention for its application in a wide range of areas from security to healthcare. Here, we report highly efficient X-ray scintillators with state-of-the-art performance based on an organic metal halide, ethylenebis-triphenylphosphonium manganese (II) bromide ((C₃₈H₃₄P₂)MnBr₄), which can be prepared using a facile solution growth method at room temperature to form inch sized single crystals. This zero-dimensional organic metal halide hybrid exhibits green emission peaked at 517 nm with a photoluminescence quantum efficiency of ~ 95%. Its X-ray scintillation properties are characterized with an excellent linear response to X-ray dose rate, a high light yield of ~ 80,000 photon MeV⁻¹, and a low detection limit of 72.8 nGy s⁻¹. X-ray imaging tests show that scintillators based on (C₃₈H₃₄P₂)MnBr₄ powders provide an excellent visualization tool for X-ray radiography, and high resolution flexible scintillators can be fabricated by blending (C₃₈H₃₄P₂)MnBr₄ powders with polydimethylsiloxane.

¹Department of Chemistry and Biochemistry, Florida State University, Tallahassee, FL 32306, USA. ²Materials Science and Engineering Program, Florida State University, Tallahassee, FL 32306, USA. ✉email: bma@fsu.edu

Scintillators, with the ability to convert ionizing radiation into visible photons, have received extensive attention in recent years, as they can be used as radiation detectors for radiation exposure monitoring, security inspection, space exploration, and medical imaging^{1–4}. While various types of materials have been used for X-ray scintillators, there are still many issues and limitations to existing organic and inorganic scintillation materials, for example, rigorous conditions required for the preparation of inorganic crystals and their hygroscopicity, anisotropic scintillation of organic crystals, low light yields in plastics, and so on^{5–9}. Therefore, searching for low-cost, high-performance scintillation materials is still of great scientific and practical interest.

Recently, lead halide perovskites, such as CsPbBr₃ and MAPbBr₃, have been demonstrated in direct X-ray imaging, owing to their strong X-ray absorption and efficient conversion to charge carriers^{10–20}. X-ray scintillators have also been developed using highly emissive metal halide perovskite nanocrystals^{21–26}. However, the toxicity of lead in these halide perovskites might limit their potential commercial applications. In this regard, lead-free metal halide perovskites and hybrids with efficient charge extraction and high photoluminescence quantum efficiencies (PLQEs) for X-ray detectors have received increasing interests^{27–33}. For instance, Tang's group reported sensitive X-ray detectors using double perovskite Cs₂AgBiBr₆ single crystals³¹. More recently, the use of low-dimensional metal hybrids, such as Bmpip₂SnBr₄ and Rb₂CuX₃ (X = Cl and Br), for scintillators has been demonstrated by Kovalenko's and Tang's groups, respectively^{32–34}.

Eco-friendly organic manganese (II) halide hybrids have been reported to exhibit strong photoluminescence (PL) with colors ranging from green to red^{35–40}. The luminescence mechanisms of this class of materials are well known, that is, from the d–d transitions in tetrahedral and octahedral crystal fields for green and red emissions, respectively^{37,41}. For their excellent optical properties, various applications have been demonstrated using organic manganese (II) halide hybrids. For instance, organic light-emitting diodes with external quantum efficiencies of ~10% have been reported by using tetrabromide manganese (II) complex (PPh₄)₂MnBr₄³⁵ and dibenzofuran-based phosphine oxide manganese (II) bromides (DBFDPO-MnBr₂)⁴². Luminescent vapochromism has also been realized via the reversible conversion of ligand fields in diphenylphosphine oxide-based manganese (II) hybrids MnBr₂(dppfO)₂³⁸. A selective fluorescent sensor for different organic solvents was recently demonstrated using (C₉NH₂₀)₂MnBr₄³⁶. To the best of our knowledge, the attempt on scintillators based on organic manganese (II) halide hybrids has not been reported yet.

Here, we demonstrate high-performance eco-friendly X-ray scintillators based on a 0D phosphonium manganese (II) bromide hybrid (C₃₈H₃₄P₂)MnBr₄. This organic manganese (II) halide hybrid can be easily prepared by using low-cost commercially available raw materials via a facile room-temperature solvent diffusion method with excellent repeatability and large scalability. High-quality (C₃₈H₃₄P₂)MnBr₄ single crystals with sizes of >1 in. show great thermal stability and bright green emission peaked at 517 nm with a PLQE of ~95%. Scintillators based on (C₃₈H₃₄P₂)MnBr₄ display great performance with exceptional linearity, high light yield, and low detection limits, which enable high-resolution X-ray images.

Results

Synthesis and characterization. Similar to other low-dimensional organic metal halide hybrids reported by our group^{28–30}, 0D (C₃₈H₃₄P₂)MnBr₄ single crystals were obtained by diffusing diethyl ether into a dichloromethane (DCM) precursor solution containing

ethylenebis(triphenylphosphonium bromide) (C₃₈H₃₄P₂Br₂) and MnBr₂ in a ratio of 1:1. The details of synthesis and purification could be found in Supplementary Scheme 1 and Fig. 1. The crystal structure of (C₃₈H₃₄P₂)MnBr₄ single crystals was determined by single-crystal X-ray diffraction (SCXRD). As shown in Fig. 1a and Supplementary Fig. 2, (C₃₈H₃₄P₂)MnBr₄ crystallizes at a monoclinic space group of C_{2/c}, possessing 0D structure at the molecular level with MnBr₄ tetrahedrons isolated and surrounded by C₃₈H₃₄P₂²⁺ cations. The manganese center adopts a typical tetra-coordinated geometry bonded to bromide ions, with an average Mn–Br bond length of 2.51 Å and bond angle of 108.48° (Supplementary Tables 1 and 2), similar to those of previously reported MnBr₄ complexes³⁵. The powder XRD pattern of (C₃₈H₃₄P₂)MnBr₄ powder is identical to the simulated result from SCXRD data (Fig. 1b), suggesting the high phase purity of the as-prepared single crystals. No weight loss was observed before 310 °C in thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) as shown in Supplementary Fig. 3, suggesting a high thermal stability. The differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) results with an endothermic peak at 295 °C (Supplementary Fig. 3), which could be the melting point of (C₃₈H₃₄P₂)MnBr₄, suggest its high phase stability at elevated temperatures below 295 °C.

Photophysical properties. The (C₃₈H₃₄P₂)MnBr₄ single crystals are pale green under ambient light and become highly emissive upon irradiating with ultraviolet (UV) light as shown in Fig. 1c, d. The photophysical properties were further investigated using UV–vis absorption and steady-state PL spectroscopies. As shown in Fig. 1e, (C₃₈H₃₄P₂)MnBr₄ exhibits an intense absorption band around 285 nm along with two absorption peaks at 360 and 450 nm. The excitation spectrum has the same features as the absorption spectrum in a low-energy band, which are corresponding to two groups of transitions: ⁶A₁ → ⁴G and ⁶A₁ → ⁴D. (See the optical transitions in tetrahedrally coordinated Mn²⁺ ion in Supplementary Scheme 2.) Upon irradiation in the range of 300–400 nm, bright green emission peaked at 517 nm was observed with a full-width at half-maximum of 51 nm, a high PLQE of ~95%, and a long single-exponential decay lifetime of 318 μs (R² = 0.999) (Supplementary Fig. 4). The strong green emission is well known to be from d–d ⁴T₁ → ⁶A₁ transition of Mn²⁺ ion with a tetrahedral coordination geometry. Moreover, (C₃₈H₃₄P₂)MnBr₄ demonstrated great moisture stability with PL intensity unchanged after exposure in an ambient atmosphere for 1 month (Supplementary Fig. 5). The high emission efficiency together with good quality of facily prepared single crystals suggest the suitability of (C₃₈H₃₄P₂)MnBr₄ for luminescent devices.

X-ray scintillation properties. To explore the scintillation performance of (C₃₈H₃₄P₂)MnBr₄, a commercially available scintillation material, cerium-doped lutetium aluminum garnet (Ce:LuAG), was used as a standard reference as it exhibits a similar PL emission peaked at ~520 nm that could minimize the influence of response difference by detectors. The X-ray radioluminescence (RL) spectra of (C₃₈H₃₄P₂)MnBr₄ and Ce:LuAG were obtained by using Edinburgh FS5 fluorescence spectrophotometer equipped with a X-ray generator (Amptek Mini-X tube, Au target, 4 W). As shown in Supplementary Fig. 6, both RL emissions are identical to their PL emissions. Interestingly, the RL intensity of (C₃₈H₃₄P₂)MnBr₄ is >3 times higher than that of Ce:LuAG under the same X-ray dose rate irradiation. Moreover, the X-ray image of (C₃₈H₃₄P₂)MnBr₄ single crystals is much brighter than that of Ce:LuAG, as shown in Fig. 2a, suggesting that (C₃₈H₃₄P₂)MnBr₄ is more sensitive to X-ray irradiation than Ce:LuAG. To evaluate the scintillator response to X-ray dose rate, the RL intensities were measured under various X-ray dose rates for

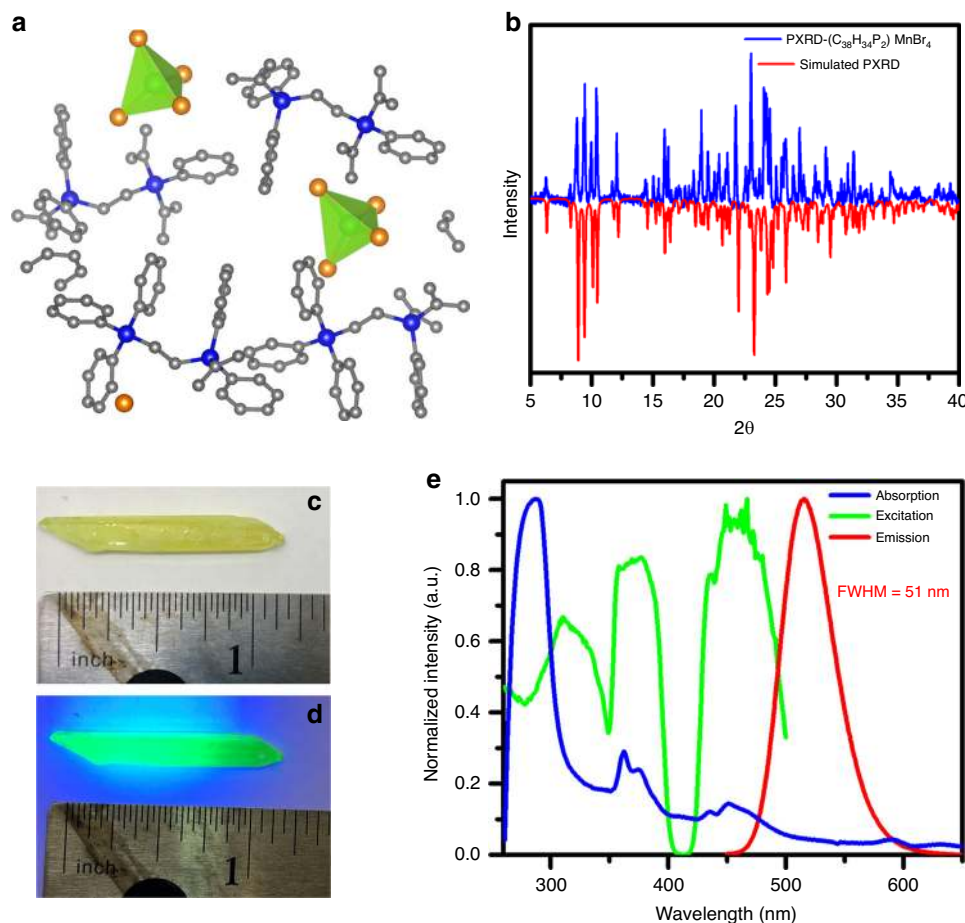


Fig. 1 Structural and photophysical characterization of $(C_{38}H_{34}P_2)MnBr_4$ single crystals. **a** View of the single-crystal structure of $(C_{38}H_{34}P_2)MnBr_4$ (Mn green, Br orange, P blue, C gray; hydrogen atoms were hidden for clarity). **b** PXRD patterns of $(C_{38}H_{34}P_2)MnBr_4$ and the corresponding simulated peaks from the single-crystal structure. The images of a $(C_{38}H_{34}P_2)MnBr_4$ single crystal under daylight (**c**) and UV light (**d**). **e** Absorption, excitation, and emission spectra of $(C_{38}H_{34}P_2)MnBr_4$.

$(C_{38}H_{34}P_2)MnBr_4$ and Ce:LuAG. Figure 2b and Supplementary Fig. 7 show that both scintillators exhibit excellent linearities to the X-ray dose rates in a large range from 36.7 nGy s^{-1} to $89.4 \mu\text{Gy s}^{-1}$. Moreover, $(C_{38}H_{34}P_2)MnBr_4$ exhibits a higher response to X-ray dose than Ce:LuAG with a larger slope. The reproducibility of the responses to X-ray for $(C_{38}H_{34}P_2)MnBr_4$ was validated by using single crystals with different sizes and shapes. Almost the same sensitivity was recorded for all the samples, as shown in Supplementary Fig. 8. The detection limit of X-ray dose rate was derived to be 72.8 nGy s^{-1} for $(C_{38}H_{34}P_2)MnBr_4$ when the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) is 3, which is ~ 75 times lower than the dose rate required for X-ray diagnostics ($5.5 \mu\text{Gy s}^{-1}$)¹². Light yield is another important parameter to evaluate the performance of scintillators, which is dependent on the amplitude of X-ray response and the RL spectra. Since the X-ray dose response of $(C_{38}H_{34}P_2)MnBr_4$ is 3.2 times higher than that of Ce:LuAG (with a light yield of $25,000 \text{ photon MeV}^{-1}$) and they have a similar RL spectrum, the light yield of $(C_{38}H_{34}P_2)MnBr_4$ could be derived to be $\sim 79,800 \text{ photon MeV}^{-1}$. As shown in Fig. 2c, the light yield of $(C_{38}H_{34}P_2)MnBr_4$ is comparable to those of recently reported lead-free metal halides, such as $Cs_3Cu_2I_5$ ($79,279 \text{ photon MeV}^{-1}$)⁴³ and Rb_2CuBr_3 ($91,056 \text{ photon MeV}^{-1}$)³³, and much better than those of Rb_2CuCl_3 ($16,600 \text{ photon MeV}^{-1}$)³⁴, widely investigated $CsPbBr_3$ nanocrystals ($21,000 \text{ photon MeV}^{-1}$)²², and many commercially available scintillators, such as CsI:Tl ($54,000 \text{ photon MeV}^{-1}$) and $CdWO_4$

($28,000 \text{ photon MeV}^{-1}$). Moreover, based on the toxicity classification (health and environment) information of metal halides from material safety data sheet, $(C_{38}H_{34}P_2)MnBr_4$ is believed to be significantly less toxic than existing scintillators mentioned above. As shown in Supplementary Table 3, Pb(II), Cu(I), CsI, and $GdWO_4$ possess the most severe toxicity in the environment, and Tl(I) and CsI are moderately toxic to health. Also, ^{87}Rb isotope is radioactive³⁴. Mn(II) is considered to be less toxic for health and friendly to the environment. The stability of $(C_{38}H_{34}P_2)MnBr_4$ single crystals against X-ray irradiation was evaluated by monitoring the changes of RL intensity under continuous X-ray irradiation with a dose rate of $89.4 \mu\text{Gy s}^{-1}$. Figure 2d shows that little-to-no radio-degradation was observed after 4 h exposure to X-ray irradiation, suggesting high stability for scintillator applications.

X-ray imaging. To further validate the potential of $(C_{38}H_{34}P_2)MnBr_4$ as scintillation material for practical X-ray imaging, a home-built X-ray imaging system was constructed, as shown in Supplementary Fig. 9. The scintillator screen was prepared by refilling the glass holder with $(C_{38}H_{34}P_2)MnBr_4$ fine powders with the particle size $< 3 \mu\text{m}$ (see scanning electron microscope (SEM) images in Supplementary Fig. 10). A speaker chip with a size of $9 \text{ mm} \times 6 \text{ mm}$, as shown in Fig. 2e, was used as a target placed between the X-ray source and the scintillator screen for

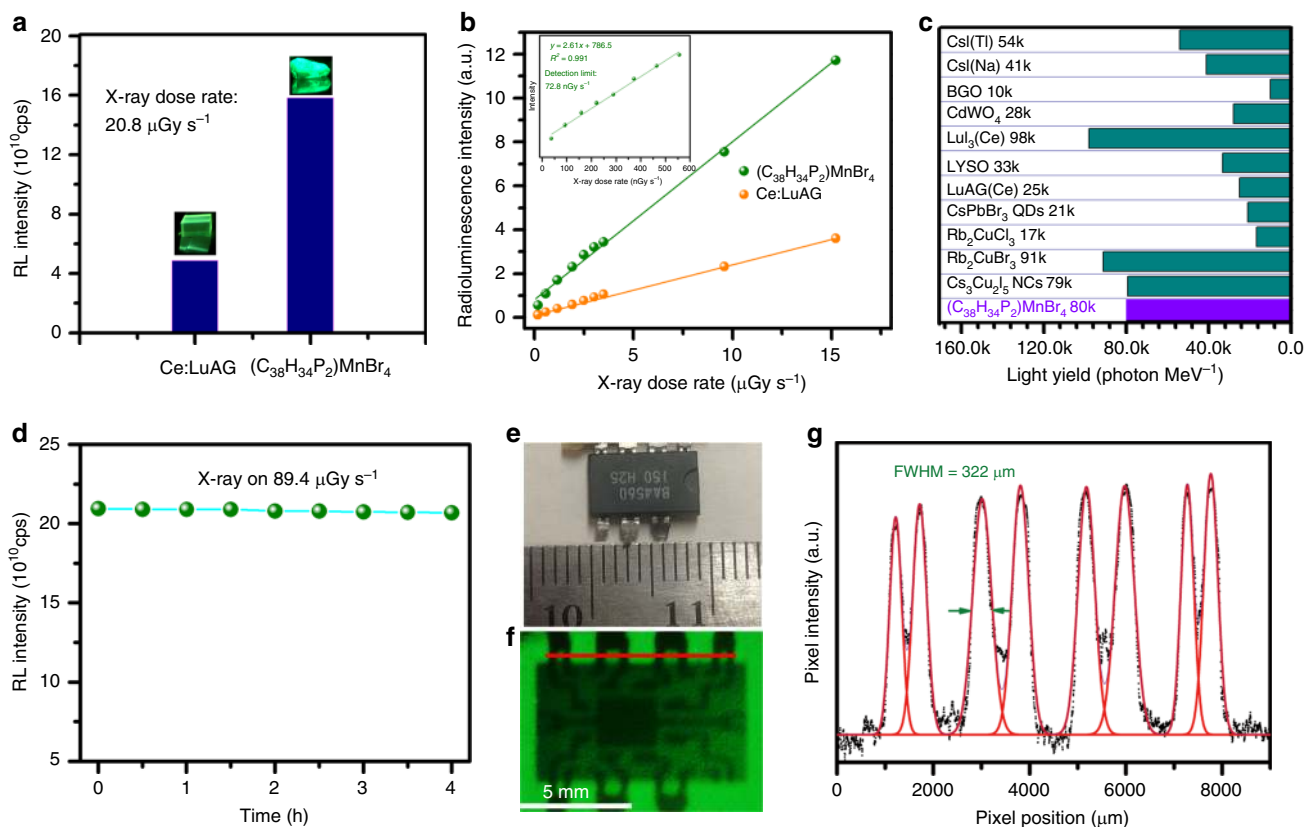


Fig. 2 X-ray scintillation properties of $(\text{C}_{38}\text{H}_{34}\text{P}_2)\text{MnBr}_4$. **a** Comparison of RL intensities for the standard reference Ce:LuAG and $(\text{C}_{38}\text{H}_{34}\text{P}_2)\text{MnBr}_4$ under dose rate of $20.8 \mu\text{Gy s}^{-1}$. The inset shows the corresponding images under the same X-ray irradiation. **b** Dose rate dependence of the RL intensity of standard reference Ce:LuAG and $(\text{C}_{38}\text{H}_{34}\text{P}_2)\text{MnBr}_4$. The inset shows the detection limit measurement under low X-ray dose for $(\text{C}_{38}\text{H}_{34}\text{P}_2)\text{MnBr}_4$. The detection limit can be achieved when the RL intensity is three times higher than the background intensity. **c** Comparison of scintillator light yields of $(\text{C}_{38}\text{H}_{34}\text{P}_2)\text{MnBr}_4$ and previously reported and commercially available scintillators. **d** The change of the RL intensity under continuous X-ray excitation with a dose rate of $89.4 \mu\text{Gy s}^{-1}$. **e** Image of a speaker chip under bright-field. **f** The X-ray images of the speaker chip by using $(\text{C}_{38}\text{H}_{34}\text{P}_2)\text{MnBr}_4$ scintillator screen, acquired with a digital camera. **g** Spatial resolution measurement by the fitting of intensity spread profile with Gaussian function. The FWHM was taken as resolution. The red line in **f** shows the data trace of collection.

X-ray image. The configuration inside of the chip cannot be seen directly with our eyes, which however could be revealed clearly by X-ray imaging using a $(\text{C}_{38}\text{H}_{34}\text{P}_2)\text{MnBr}_4$ -based scintillator (Fig. 2f). The large difference in X-ray absorption for different materials in the chip resulted in spatial intensity contrast displayed in the scintillator screen. The spatial resolution was calculated as 0.322 mm by fitting the point spread function of the intensity profile (Fig. 2g). Image contrast is another important parameter for practical imaging applications; image lag or ghosting would happen if the emission with a long lifetime has a strong afterglow after X-ray being turned off. To exclude the effect of afterglow, we measured the afterglow intensities of $(\text{C}_{38}\text{H}_{34}\text{P}_2)\text{MnBr}_4$, as shown in Supplementary Fig. 11. The intensity decreased to the background level in 10 ms after the cease of the excitation source, indicating the suitability for high contrast imaging. The excellent performance of X-ray imaging could be attributed to the negligible self-absorption, high PLQE, light yield, and low detection limit of $(\text{C}_{38}\text{H}_{34}\text{P}_2)\text{MnBr}_4$ ^{33,34,43,44}.

Flexible devices have received tremendous attention nowadays for their good foldability, high crack resistance, favorable compatibility, and potential application in portable and wearable devices. Here, flexible scintillators with large size ($4.5 \times 5.8 \text{ cm}^2$) were demonstrated by blending $(\text{C}_{38}\text{H}_{34}\text{P}_2)\text{MnBr}_4$ fine powders with polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS). As shown in Fig. 3a–c, the resulting films show excellent flexibility, which can be easily bent and stretched. Moreover, the film shows high uniformity and strong emission under UV irradiation (Fig. 3d–f). The

scintillation performance of flexible scintillation screens was characterized as shown in Supplementary Fig. 12, which exhibit excellent linearities to the X-ray dose rates in a large range from 36.7 nGy s^{-1} to $89.4 \mu\text{Gy s}^{-1}$, with a slightly lower light yield ($66,256 \text{ photon MeV}^{-1}$) and detection limit (461.1 nGy s^{-1}), as compared to those of single crystals. This is not surprising, considering that the content of $(\text{C}_{38}\text{H}_{34}\text{P}_2)\text{MnBr}_4$ is reduced in the blends, the distribution of $(\text{C}_{38}\text{H}_{34}\text{P}_2)\text{MnBr}_4$ might not be perfectly uniform in the blends, and PDMS could also affect the X-ray absorption. To demonstrate the capability of the X-ray imaging, a wrench and a speaker chip were scanned as the targets (Fig. 3g, h). Distinct color contrast and detail inside of the chip can be displayed in the flexible film with good resolution.

Discussion

In conclusion, a new 0D organic manganese (II) halide hybrid $(\text{C}_{38}\text{H}_{34}\text{P}_2)\text{MnBr}_4$ has been developed to exhibit highly efficient green emission upon photo and X-ray excitations. Single crystals with sizes of $>1 \text{ in.}$ could be prepared via a facile solution growth method at room temperature, which shows remarkable scintillation properties with excellent response linearity to dose rate, high light yield, and low detection limits. The X-ray scintillation characteristics were found to be superior to those of metal halide perovskite nanocrystals and most of today's commercially available scintillators. X-ray imaging was also successfully demonstrated with high resolution. The low-cost,

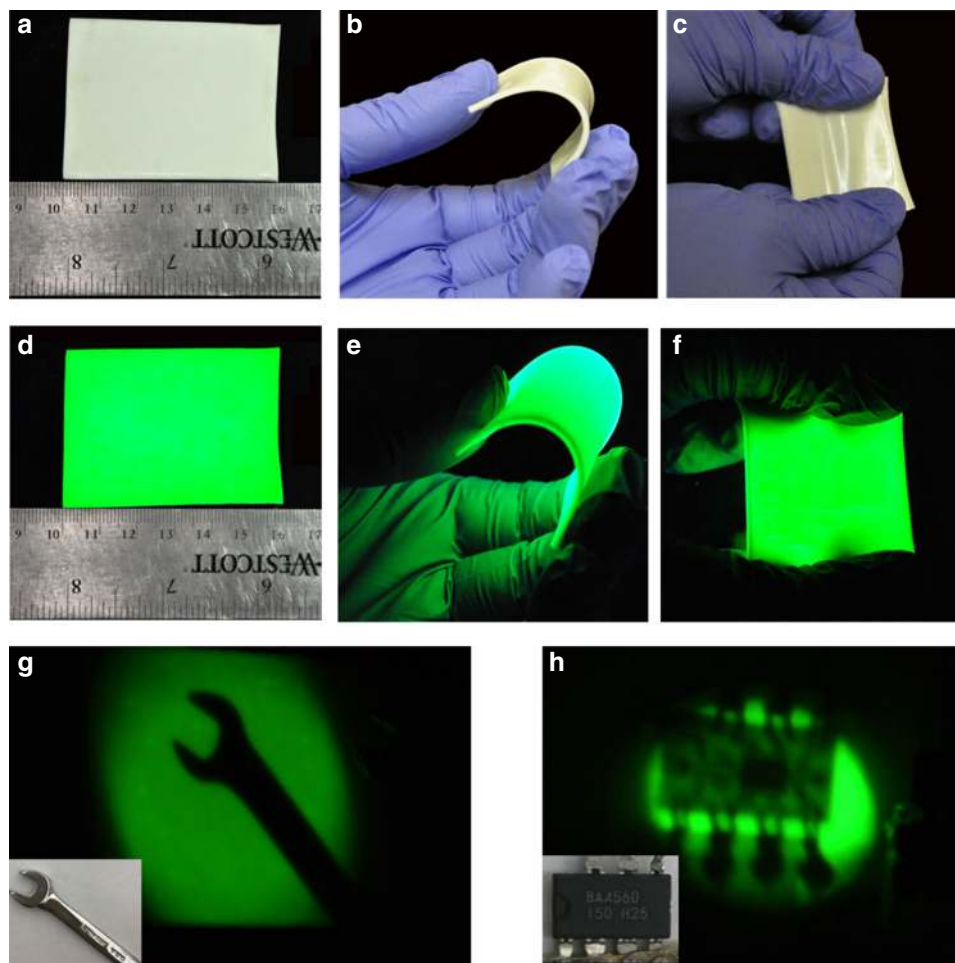


Fig. 3 Flexible X-ray scintillator screens. The photographs of a flexible scintillator screen based on $(C_{38}H_{34}P_2)MnBr_4$ **a** under flattening, **b** under bending stress, **c** under stretching, under ambient light. The photographs of a flexible scintillator screen based on $(C_{38}H_{34}P_2)MnBr_4$ under UV excitation **d** under flattening, **e** under bending stress, **f** under stretching. **g** X-ray image of a wrench by using a flexible $(C_{38}H_{34}P_2)MnBr_4$ scintillator screen, inset shows the wrench used for scanning. **h** X-ray image of a speaker chip by using a flexible $(C_{38}H_{34}P_2)MnBr_4$ scintillator screen, inset shows the speaker chip used for scanning.

facile preparation, environmentally friendly, and state-of-the-art scintillation performance make this organic manganese (II) hybrid $(C_{38}H_{34}P_2)MnBr_4$ a highly promising scintillator for commercial applications. Our work paves a new way to explore new low-cost, high-performance eco-friendly hybrid materials for radiation scintillators.

Methods

Materials. Manganese (II) bromide, and ethylenebis(triphenylphosphonium bromide) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Dimethylformamide (99.8%), DCM (99.9%), and diethyl ether (Et_2O , 99.8%) was purchased from VWR. Standard scintillator Ce:LuAG was purchased from Jiaying AOSITE Photonics Technology Co., Ltd. All reagents and solvents were used without further purification unless otherwise stated.

Growth of OD $(C_{38}H_{34}P_2)MnBr_4$ single crystals. $MnBr_2$ (429.5 mg, 2.0 mmol) and ethylenebis(triphenylphosphonium bromide) (1.424 g, 2.0 mmol) were dissolved in 10 mL DCM solution and then filtered into a 20 mL vial to form a clear precursor solution. Then, the vial was placed in a 100 mL vial with 60 mL Et_2O inside. The as-prepared solution was sealed and left to stand for ~3 days to afford pale green block crystals. Yield ~89%.

Scintillator screen. First, $(C_{38}H_{34}P_2)MnBr_4$ single crystals were hand-ground to fine powders by using mortar and pestle. Then, the scintillator screen was prepared by filling the fine powder into the PXRD holder. The flexible screen was prepared by blending the powder with a two-part PDMS EI-1184 at a mass ratio of 40%. The mixture gel was placed in a polytetrafluoroethylene mold and cured at 100 °C for 30 min in a muffle furnace and then the flat and smooth film was formed after cooling down the mixture gel to room temperature.

Single-crystal X-ray diffraction. Single-crystal X-ray data for the $(C_{38}H_{34}P_2)MnBr_4$ hybrid were collected using a Rigaku XtaLAB Synergy-S diffractometer equipped with a HyPix-6000HE Hybrid Photon Counting (HPC) detector and dual Mo and Cu microfocus sealed X-ray source.

Powder X-ray diffraction. The PXRD analysis was performed on Panalytical X'PERT Pro Powder X-Ray Diffractometer using Copper X-ray tube (standard) radiation at a voltage of 40 kV and 40 mA, and X'Celerator RTMS detector. The diffraction pattern S was scanned over the angular range of 5–40° (2θ) with a step size of 0.02, at room temperature.

Absorption spectrum measurements. Absorption spectra of $(C_{38}H_{34}P_2)MnBr_4$ hybrid were measured at room temperature on Cary 5000 UV-Vis-NIR spectrophotometer.

PL steady-state studies. Steady-state PL spectrum of $(C_{38}H_{34}P_2)MnBr_4$ was obtained at room temperature on an FS5 spectrofluorometer (Edinburgh Instruments).

Photoluminescence quantum efficiency. The PLQEs were acquired using a Hamamatsu Quantaurus-QY Spectrometer (Model C11347-11) equipped with a xenon lamp, integrated sphere sample chamber, and CCD detector. The PLQEs were calculated by the equation: $\eta_{QE} = I_S / (E_R - E_S)$, in which I_S represents the luminescence emission spectrum of the sample, E_R is the spectrum of the excitation light from the empty integrated sphere (without the sample), and E_S is the excitation spectrum for exciting the sample.

Time-resolved PL. Time-resolved emission data were collected at room temperature using the Edinburgh FLS920 fluorescence spectrometer. The dynamics of

emission decay were monitored by using the time-correlated single-photon counting capability with data collection for 10,000 counts. The average lifetime was obtained by the single-exponential fitting.

Afterglow intensity measurement. The afterglow intensity was recorded by continuously irradiating 20 s under xenon lamp and then the afterglow signal was collected by Hamamatsu R928 PMT with the time interval of 10 ms.

Thermogravimetric analysis and differential scanning calorimetry. TGA and DSC were carried out using a TA instruments Q600 system. The samples were heated from room temperature to 700 °C at a rate of 5 °C min⁻¹, under a nitrogen flux of 100 mL min⁻¹.

RL and X-ray imaging. The RL spectra were acquired by using an Edinburgh F55 spectrofluorometer (Edinburgh Instruments) equipped with an X-ray source (Amptek Mini-X tube with an Au target and 4 W maximum power output). The X-ray response intensity was examined and collected by a Hamamatsu R928 PMT. The scintillator light yield was estimated using the following equation. Here, the Ce:LuAG was used as the reference with a known light yield of 25,000 photon MeV⁻¹. The spectrum of (C₃₈H₃₄P₂)MnBr₄ is similar to that of Ce:LuAG after correcting the intensity and wavelength from the correction files of R928 PMT. Then, the light yield could be estimated by comparing the corrected response amplitude (*R*) of the two samples using Eq. (1):

$$\frac{LY_{C_{38}H_{34}P_2MnBr_4}}{LY_{Ce:LuAG}} = \frac{R_{C_{38}H_{34}P_2MnBr_4}}{R_{Ce:LuAG}} \times \frac{\int I_{Ce:LuAG}(\lambda)S(\lambda)d\lambda / \int I_{C_{38}H_{34}P_2MnBr_4}(\lambda)d\lambda}{\int I_{C_{38}H_{34}P_2MnBr_4}(\lambda)S(\lambda)d\lambda / \int I_{Ce:LuAG}(\lambda)d\lambda} \quad (1)$$

The radiation dose rate of the X-ray source was calibrated by using an ion chamber dosimeter. The X-ray images were acquired by using a digital camera (Nikon D90).

Scanning electron microscopy. The particle size of (C₃₈H₃₄P₂)MnBr₄ fine powders were investigated by FEI Nova NanoSEM 400 SEM.

Data availability

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request. The X-ray crystallographic data for this paper has been deposited at the Cambridge Crystallographic Data Centre (CCDC), under deposition number 1972108. These data can be obtained free of charge from the CCDC via www.ccdc.cam.ac.uk/data_request/cif.

Received: 25 February 2020; Accepted: 6 August 2020;

Published online: 28 August 2020

References

- Zhuravleva, M., Friedrich, S. & Melcher, C. L. Praseodymium valence determination in Lu₂SiO₅, Y₂SiO₅, and Lu₃Al₅O₁₂ scintillators by x-ray absorption spectroscopy. *Appl. Phys. Lett.* **101**, 101902 (2012).
- Weber, M. J. Inorganic scintillators: today and tomorrow. *J. Lumin.* **100**, 35–45 (2002).
- Lecoq, P. Development of new scintillators for medical applications. *Nucl. Instrum. Meth. A* **809**, 130–139 (2016).
- Kramer, K. W., Dorenbos, P., Gudel, H. U. & van Eijk, C. W. E. Development and characterization of highly efficient new cerium doped rare earth halide scintillator materials. *J. Mater. Chem.* **16**, 2773–2780 (2006).
- Liu, S. P. et al. Effect of Mg²⁺ co-doping on the scintillation performance of LuAG: Ce ceramics. *Phys. Stat. Sol. R* **8**, 105–109 (2014).
- Nikl, M. & Yoshikawa, A. Recent R&D trends in inorganic single-crystal scintillator materials for radiation detection. *Adv. Opt. Mater.* **3**, 463–481 (2015).
- Moser, S. W., Harder, W. F., Hurlbut, C. R. & Kusner, M. R. Principles and practice of plastic scintillator design. *Radiat. Phys. Chem.* **41**, 31–36 (1993).
- Schuster, P. & Brubaker, E. Investigating the anisotropic scintillation response in anthracene through neutron, gamma-ray, and muon measurements. *IEEE Trans. Nucl. Sci.* **63**, 1942–1954 (2016).
- Ariesanti, E., Hawrami, R., Burger, A. & Motakef, S. Improved growth and scintillation properties of intrinsic, non-hygroscopic scintillator Cs₂HfCl₆. *J. Lumin.* **217**, 116784 (2020).
- Kim, Y. C. et al. Printable organometallic perovskite enables large-area, low-dose X-ray imaging. *Nature* **550**, 87–91 (2017).
- Yakunin, S. et al. Detection of X-ray photons by solution-processed lead halide perovskites. *Nat. Photonics* **9**, 444–449 (2015).
- Wei, H. T. et al. Sensitive X-ray detectors made of methylammonium lead tribromide perovskite single crystals. *Nat. Photonics* **10**, 333–339 (2016).
- Wei, W. et al. Monolithic integration of hybrid perovskite single crystals with heterogeneous substrate for highly sensitive X-ray imaging. *Nat. Photonics* **11**, 315–321 (2017).
- Shrestha, S. et al. High-performance direct conversion X-ray detectors based on sintered hybrid lead triiodide perovskite wafers. *Nat. Photonics* **11**, 436–440 (2017).
- Wei, H. T. & Huang, J. S. Halide lead perovskites for ionizing radiation detection. *Nat. Commun.* **10**, 1066 (2019).
- Birowosuto, M. D. et al. X-ray scintillation in lead halide perovskite crystals. *Sci. Rep.* **6**, 37254 (2016).
- Stoumpos, C. C. et al. Crystal growth of the perovskite semiconductor CsPbBr₃: A new material for high-energy radiation detection. *Cryst. Growth Des.* **13**, 2722–2727 (2013).
- Heiss, W. & Brabec, C. X-ray imaging: perovskites target X-ray detection. *Nat. Photonics* **10**, 288–289 (2016).
- Liu, J. Y. et al. Flexible, printable soft-X-ray detectors based on all-inorganic perovskite quantum dots. *Adv. Mater.* **31**, 1901644 (2019).
- Pan, W. C. et al. Hot-pressed CsPbBr₃ quasi-monocrystalline film for sensitive direct X-ray detection. *Adv. Mater.* **31**, 1904405 (2019).
- Chen, Q. S. et al. All-inorganic perovskite nanocrystal scintillators. *Nature* **561**, 88–93 (2018).
- Zhang, Y. H. et al. Metal halide perovskite nanosheet for X-ray high-resolution scintillation imaging screens. *ACS Nano* **13**, 2520–2525 (2019).
- Heo, J. H. et al. High-performance next-generation perovskite nanocrystal scintillator for nondestructive X-ray imaging. *Adv. Mater.* **30**, 1801743 (2018).
- Wang, L. L. et al. Ultra-stable CsPbBr₃ perovskite nanosheets for X-ray imaging screen. *Nano-Micro Lett.* **11**, 52 (2019).
- Mykhaylyk, V. B., Kraus, H. & Saliba, M. Bright and fast scintillation of organolead perovskite MAPbBr₃ at low temperatures. *Mater. Horiz.* **6**, 1740–1747 (2019).
- Cao, F. et al. Shining emitter in stable host: design halide perovskite scintillators for X-ray imaging from commercial concept. *ACS nano* **14**, 5183–5193 (2019).
- Zhou, C. K. et al. Low dimensional metal halide perovskites and hybrids. *Mater. Sci. Eng. R* **137**, 38–65 (2019).
- Zhou, C. K. et al. Luminescent zero-dimensional organic metal halide hybrids with near-unity quantum efficiency. *Chem. Sci.* **9**, 586–593 (2018).
- Zhou, C. K. et al. Low-dimensional organic tin bromide perovskites and their photoinduced structural transformation. *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* **56**, 9018–9022 (2017).
- Zhou, C. K. et al. Facile preparation of light emitting organic metal halide crystals with near-unity quantum efficiency. *Chem. Mater.* **30**, 2374–2378 (2018).
- Pan, W. C. et al. Cs₂AgBiBr₆ single-crystal X-ray detectors with a low detection limit. *Nat. Photonics* **11**, 726–732 (2017).
- Morad, V. et al. Disphenoidal zero-dimensional lead, tin, and germanium halides: Highly emissive singlet and triplet self-trapped excitons and X-ray scintillation. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **141**, 9764–9768 (2019).
- Yang, B. et al. Lead-free halide Rb₂CuBr₃ as sensitive X-ray scintillator. *Adv. Mater.* **31**, 1904711 (2019).
- Zhao, X. et al. All-inorganic copper halide as a stable and self-absorption-free X-ray scintillator. *J. Phys. Chem. Lett.* **11**, 1873–1880 (2020).
- Xu, L. J., Sun, C. Z., Xiao, H., Wu, Y. & Chen, Z. N. Green-light-emitting diodes based on tetrabromide manganese(II) complex through solution process. *Adv. Mater.* **29**, 1605739 (2017).
- Li, M. Z. et al. Lead-free hybrid metal halides with a green-emissive [MnBr₄] unit as a selective turn-on fluorescent sensor for acetone. *Inorg. Chem.* **58**, 13464–13470 (2019).
- Morad, V. et al. Manganese(II) in tetrahedral halide environment: factors governing bright green luminescence. *Chem. Mater.* **31**, 10161–10169 (2019).
- Wu, Y., Zhang, X., Xu, L. J., Yang, M. & Chen, Z. N. Luminescent vapo-chromism due to a change of the ligand field in a one-dimensional manganese(II) coordination polymer. *Inorg. Chem.* **57**, 9175–9181 (2018).
- Ye, H. Y. et al. High-temperature ferroelectricity and photoluminescence in a hybrid organic-inorganic compound: (3-Pyrrolinium)MnCl₃. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **137**, 13148–13154 (2015).
- Zhang, Y. et al. Highly efficient red-light emission in an organic-inorganic hybrid ferroelectric: (Pyrrolidinium)MnCl₃. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **137**, 4928–4931 (2015).
- Su, B. B., Molokeev, M. S. & Xia, Z. G. Mn²⁺-based narrow-band green-emitting Cs₃MnBr₅ phosphor and the performance optimization by Zn²⁺ alloying. *J. Mater. Chem. C* **7**, 11220–11226 (2019).
- Qin, Y. Y. et al. Designing highly efficient phosphorescent neutral tetrahedral manganese(II) complexes for organic light-emitting diodes. *Adv. Opt. Mater.* **7**, 1801160 (2019).

43. Lian, L. et al. Efficient and reabsorption-free radioluminescence in Cs₃Cu₂I₅ nanocrystals with self-trapped excitons. *Adv. Sci.* **7**, 2000195 (2020).
44. He, Q. et al. Highly stable organic antimony halide crystals for X-ray scintillation. *ACS Mater. Lett.* **2**, 633–638 (2020).

Acknowledgements

This work was primarily supported by the Air Force Office of Scientific Research, under the Organic Materials Chemistry program contract no. FA9550-18-1-0231. Partial of the work on the characterization of X-ray scintillation properties was supported by the National Science Foundation (DMR-1709116) and the Florida State University Office of Research. This work made use of the Rigaku Synergy-S single-crystal X-ray diffractometer, which was acquired through the National Science Foundation MRI program (CHE-1828362). M.W. thanks the support from the National Science Foundation (ECCS-1912911). We thank Dr. Yang Zhang for the help with X-ray images, Dr. J.S. Raaj Vellore Winfred for the TGA and DSC measurements, and Dr. Yuhai Zhang for the spatial resolution measurement.

Author contributions

L.-J.X. and B.M. conceived the experiments and analyzed and interpreted the data. L.-J.X. carried out sample preparation and characterization, and scintillation measurements. Q.H., M.W., and L.-J.X. developed the mini-X-ray setup. X.L. did the calibration of X-ray dose rate. L.-J.X. and B.M. wrote the manuscript. The project was planned, directed, and supervised by B.M. All the authors discussed the results and commented on the manuscript.

Competing interests

L.-J.X., Q.H., and B.M. have filed a patent application entitled “X-Ray Scintillators and Methods” in the United States Patent and Trademark Office on March 13, 2020, under U.S. Application Serial No. 62/989,015.

Additional information

Supplementary information is available for this paper at <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-020-18119-y>.

Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to B.M.

Peer review information *Nature Communication* thanks Gerwin Gelinck and Jinsong Huang for their contributions to the peer review of this work. Peer review reports are available.

Reprints and permission information is available at <http://www.nature.com/reprints>

Publisher's note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.



Open Access This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons license, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons license, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons license and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this license, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>.

© The Author(s) 2020