



Microstructure and Optical Properties of BaF₂ Transparent Ceramics Fabricated by Air Pre-sintering and Hot Isostatic Pressing

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Abstract

BaF₂ scintillation ceramics feature a rapid temporal response, high fast-component light yield, and a short X-ray attenuation length, making them a promising material for ultrafast X-ray imaging. In this work, BaF₂ nanopowder was co-precipitated from Ba(NO₃)₂ and KF·2H₂O, consolidated by 600–750 °C air pre-sintering, and post-treated by hot isostatic pressing (HIP). The ceramics obtained under various process parameters allowed us to investigate temperature-dependent changes in microstructure, transmittance, and scintillation properties, including X-ray-excited luminescence

(XEL), decay kinetics, and light yield. It was found that air pre-sintered compacts are porous, with relative density reaching a maximum at 700 °C. In addition, HIP eliminated most of the pores, leaving only residual intragranular pores. Both in-line transmittance and scintillation properties correlated strongly with increasing air pre-sintering temperature. The optimized BaF₂ ceramic achieves an in-line transmittance (1 mm thick) of 57.6% and 40.6% at 800 nm and 220 nm, respectively, with a fast component of 16.8% and a light yield of 2655 ph/MeV. High-temperature thermoluminescence suggests that a deep trap with considerable intensity may be responsible for the reduced light yield in the ceramic sample.

Keywords: BaF₂ scintillation ceramics, Microstructure, Scintillation properties, Hot isostatic pressing.



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1 Introduction

As experiments in high-energy physics (HEP) advance towards higher energies and event rates [1–4] and the demand for temporal resolution in medical imaging continues to grow, ultrafast imaging and time measurement technologies have become core frontiers in contemporary physics and precision medicine. These future experiments face unprecedented challenges related to the event rates and extreme radiation environments, requiring detector systems to respond in less than a sub-nanosecond or even a picosecond [5, 6]. Various scintillators and Cherenkov radiators have been explored as candidate materials for such timing detectors, underscoring the breadth of the instrumentation challenge [7]. In the field of medical imaging, time-of-flight positron emission tomography (TOF-PET) determines the spatial location of annihilation events by precisely measuring the time difference of arrival of annihilation photon pairs at the detectors, and its effective sensitivity is directly related to the coincidence time resolution (CTR)—the smaller the CTR, the higher the image signal-to-noise ratio and the more accurate the spatial positioning [8, 9]. The design of data acquisition setups plays a critical role in exploiting the fast timing capability of scintillators in practical TOF-PET systems [10]. In addition, gigahertz (GHz) hard X-ray imaging, as an emerging ultrafast imaging technology, also poses unprecedented challenges to the speed and radiation tolerance of front-end detector materials [5, 6, 11, 12]. Recent advances have shown that rare-earth-doped perovskite scintillators can achieve sub-nanosecond time resolution and GHz-level repetition frequency detection capability [13]; however, their relatively poor radiation hardness and limited scalability underscore the continued need for large-scale inorganic ceramic alternatives such as BaF₂.

The common core requirement of the ultrafast imaging applications is that the detector front-end needs an inorganic scintillator that combines an ultrafast scintillation response with high radiation resistance. Since the achievable optimal temporal resolution is proportional to the square root of the scintillation decay time [14, 15], shortening the scintillation decay time is a direct way to overcome the limitation of time resolution. Although LYSO:Ce is widely used in PET systems among mainstream inorganic scintillators owing to its high density and high light yield [16], its decay time of approximately 40 ns limits the potential for further improving time resolution [17]. Efforts to further enhance the light yield of LYSO:Ce through

co-doping strategies, such as trace Co²⁺ incorporation, have demonstrated substantial improvements but do not address the fundamental limitation of its long decay time [18].

Among all the fast and ultrafast scintillators, barium fluoride (BaF₂) stands out due to its unique cross-luminescence mechanism. The fast scintillation component of BaF₂ emits in the deep ultraviolet region (195 nm and 220 nm) with an ultrafast decay time of ~0.6 ns, which is one of the fastest known inorganic scintillators [19–23]. However, BaF₂ materials still face two major challenges in practical applications. Firstly, in addition to the fast cross-luminescence component, BaF₂ also has a slow component with a peak at 310 nm and a decay time of about 600 ns. This slow component originates from the radiative recombination of self-trapped excitons and can cause serious signal pile-up issues in high count rate applications [24, 25]. Doping with rare earth ions (such as Y, La, Ce, etc.) can effectively suppress the slow component—for example, 1 at% Y doping can suppress the slow component of BaF₂ by six times without affecting the fast component [26–29]. The second challenge is that the growth of BaF₂ single crystals is costly and size-limited, making it difficult to meet the mass production requirements for large-area detector arrays [22, 24].

Thanks to the advancement in nano-powder synthesis via co-precipitation [30, 31] and ceramic fabrication technology [32–36], polycrystalline transparent ceramics provide a highly promising technical pathway to address the two bottlenecks mentioned above. Beyond polycrystalline sintered ceramics, related fluoride-based scintillator materials such as CaF₂:Tb³⁺ transparent glass-ceramics have also demonstrated promising anti-thermal-quenching luminescence for high-temperature X-ray imaging [37], further illustrating the broad potential of fluoride ceramic scintillators and motivating systematic study of the BaF₂ ceramic system. Compared to single crystals, ceramics offer significant advantages such as lower processing temperatures, the ability to form large sizes and complex shapes, and easier control over doping concentration and uniformity [25, 31]. In recent years, preliminary progress has been made in the preparation of BaF₂ transparent ceramics and the study of their scintillation properties. Kato et al. [38] fabricated BaF₂ transparent ceramics using spark plasma sintering (SPS) and evaluated their scintillation performance. Li et al. [39] synthesized Nd:BaF₂ nano-powders via co-precipitation and

fabricated transparent ceramics by vacuum sintering, achieving a transmittance of approximately 70% in the infrared range. Liu et al. [31, 40] synthesized $\text{Pr}^{3+}:\text{BaF}_2$ nano-powders via co-precipitation and prepared transparent ceramics with a transmittance of 50.7% at 500 nm by hot-pressing at 900 °C and 50 MPa for 4 hours; however, residual pores remained the main source of light scattering. Liu et al. [41] also reported a new attempt to prepare translucent BaF_2 ceramics using a one-step cold sintering method. Li et al. [24] prepared BaF_2 transparent ceramics by hot-pressing combined with hot isostatic pressing (HIP) post-treatment and, by comparing with BaF_2 single crystals, found that the fast-quenching centers present in the ceramics can effectively quench self-trapped excitons (STE), thereby significantly suppressing the slow scintillation component. Beyond the BaF_2 system, radiation response properties of other fluoride transparent ceramics such as $\text{Ce}:\text{CaF}_2$ have also been systematically evaluated, further confirming the potential of ceramic scintillators for radiation detection applications [42]. Nevertheless, existing methods still face challenges in eliminating residual pores and improving optical quality and scintillation performance.

In the field of fluoride transparent ceramic fabrication, a two-step process combining air pre-sintering with HIP post-treatment has shown significant advantages in the CaF_2 and SrF_2 systems. Huang et al. [43] and Liu et al. [44] used this method to prepare $\text{Yb},\text{La}:\text{CaF}_2$ and $\text{Yb}:\text{CaF}_2$ transparent ceramics, respectively, and achieved laser output. Li et al. [45] further optimized the process parameters for $\text{Yb}:\text{CaF}_2$ ceramics, demonstrating that calcination temperature of co-precipitated powders critically governs both microstructure and laser performance. Liu et al. demonstrated the feasibility of $\text{Er}:\text{SrF}_2$ transparent ceramic fabrication using chemically derived powders [46], and Feng et al. further extended the air pre-sintering and HIP route to the $\text{Er}:\text{SrF}_2$ system [47]. This method allows the green body to reach preliminary densification at the closed-pore stage through air pre-sintering, after which HIP post-treatment efficiently eliminates residual closed pores using uniform isostatic pressure, ultimately obtaining ceramics with near-theoretical density and high optical quality. However, for the BaF_2 scintillator ceramic system, systematic research on this process route is still lacking.

Based on this, in this work, BaF_2 nano-powders were synthesized by the co-precipitation method.

For the first time, a two-step process combining air pre-sintering with HIP post-treatment was used to prepare BaF_2 scintillation ceramics. The study systematically investigated the effects of air pre-sintering temperature on ceramic phase, microstructure, and density, as well as the effects of HIP treatment on ceramic microstructure, optical quality, and scintillation performance. Finally, high-temperature thermoluminescence was used to analyze the structural defects in the prepared ceramics.

2 Experimental

BaF_2 nano-powders were prepared by the co-precipitation method, using high-purity commercial reagents $\text{Ba}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ (AR, China National Pharmaceutical Group Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd.) and $\text{KF}\cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (AR, China National Pharmaceutical Group Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd.) as raw materials. Solutions of a certain concentration of reagents were prepared separately using deionized water and purified by vacuum filtration. To ensure complete precipitation of BaF_2 and to increase the yield of the powder synthesis process, the concentration of the KF solution was controlled to be 2.5 times that of the $\text{Ba}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ solution. The KF solution was added dropwise to the continuously stirred $\text{Ba}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ solution at a rate of 6 mL/min using a constant-flow peristaltic pump. After titration, the resulting precipitate was left at room temperature for 12 hours, then washed three times with deionized water to thoroughly remove residual NO_3^- and K^+ ions. The washed product was first stored at -50°C for 10 hours, then transferred to a freeze dryer (Scientz-10N, Ningbo Scientz Biotech Co., Ltd.) and dried under 10 Pa for 12 hours. Finally, the dried powder was passed through a 200-mesh sieve (mesh size about 0.075 mm) to obtain BaF_2 nano-powder suitable for subsequent sintering.

The synthesized nano-powder was uniaxially pressed at 20 MPa, followed by cold isostatic pressing at 250 MPa. The green body was pre-sintered at a temperature of 600–750 °C in air for 2 hours. Then, the pre-sintered body was hot isostatically pressed at 800 °C under 100 MPa in an Ar atmosphere for 3 hours. The BaF_2 ceramics obtained by sintering were processed into pellets with a diameter of $\Phi 13.5$ mm and double-side polished to a thickness of 2 mm for scintillation performance characterization, and then polished again to a thickness of 1 mm for in-line transmittance measurement.

The phase composition of the synthesized powders was analyzed using an X-ray diffractometer (XRD, D8 Advance, Bruker, Germany). The microstructure of the powders and the ceramic fracture surfaces was observed with a field emission scanning electron microscope (FESEM; SU8220, Hitachi, Japan). The relative density of the ceramics was tested using the Archimedes drainage method. The in-line transmittance of the ceramic samples was measured in the wavelength range of 200–800 nm using a UV-Vis-NIR spectrophotometer (Cary5000, Varian, USA).

X-ray excited luminescence (XEL) spectroscopy measurement was performed using a home-built XEL spectroscopy system. This system uses an F30III-2 X-ray tube (tungsten anode, operating conditions: 75 kV/1.3 mA) as the excitation source, and the luminescence signal is collected via a fiber optic coupled to a QE65000 spectrometer (Ocean Optics).

In the scintillation decay time and light yield tests, the ceramic and single crystal samples were optically coupled to a photomultiplier tube (PMT; R2059, Hamamatsu) window using silicone grease, and multiple layers of Teflon film were wrapped around the samples to effectively guide the scintillation photons into the PMT's photosensitive cathode. The scintillation decay curves were excited by a ^{137}Cs radiation source, received by the same PMT R2059, and digitally recorded by a digital oscilloscope (TBS1106, Tektronix).

In the measurement of light yield, the scintillation light generated when the sample is irradiated by a radiation source is converted into an electrical signal by the PMT R2059. This signal is then amplified and shaped sequentially by a preamplifier (ORTEC 113) and a main amplifier (ORTEC 671), followed by collecting the energy spectrum through a multichannel analyzer (Trump-PCI 2k MCA, ORTEC) and reading the multichannel spectrum data using ORTEC Maestro software. By performing Gaussian fitting on the full-energy peak and combining it with the single photoelectron calibration method, the light yield is calculated.

Thermally stimulated luminescence (TSL) measurements were carried out to analyze defects in a sample by recording the luminescence of the material during temperature changes. For high-temperature thermoluminescence above room temperature, an SL08 thermoluminescence measurement instrument (Guangzhou Rongfan Technology Co., Ltd.) was

used to uniformly heat the sample (heating rate of 2 K/s), and the thermoluminescence signal was simultaneously recorded during the heating process.

3 Results and discussion

Figure 1 shows the FESEM morphology of BaF_2 nano-powders synthesized by the chemical co-precipitation method. The synthesized powders are mainly composed of thick plate-like particles, with a relatively regular morphology and slight agglomeration. The primary particles exhibit a cubic structure because BaF_2 has a cubic crystal system, which tends to grow into a cubic shape during the co-precipitation process.

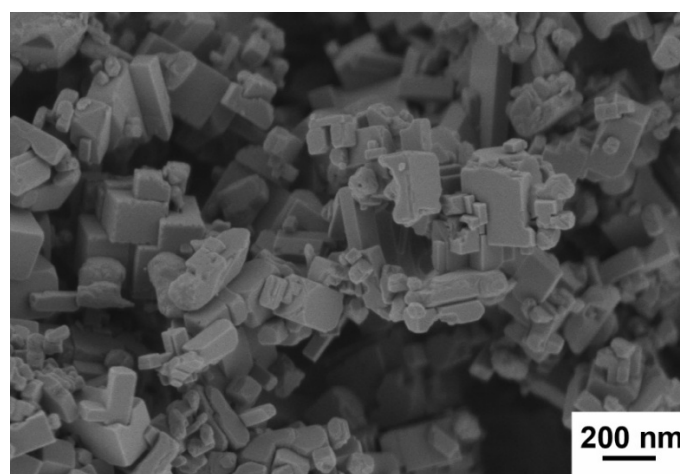


Figure 1. FESEM micrograph of BaF_2 nano-powders synthesized via the chemical co-precipitation method.

Figure 2 shows the XRD patterns of BaF_2 ceramics obtained by air pre-sintering in the range of 600–750 °C for 2 hours. By comparing with the XRD Powder Diffraction File database (PDF#04-0452), it can be seen that ceramics prepared at different pre-sintering temperatures all exhibit a pure cubic BaF_2 phase, and no secondary phase was detected. This indicates that during the air pre-sintering process, no obvious reaction of the BaF_2 ceramic green bodies with O_2 or H_2O in the air occurs at these temperatures, and no oxide or hydroxide impurities were formed.

Figure 3 shows the FESEM microstructure of the cross-section of BaF_2 ceramics prepared by air pre-sintering (600–750 °C $\times$ 2 h). Under the pre-sintering condition of 600 °C, the ceramic is at the initial stage of densification, with numerous interconnected open pores between grains, small and unevenly distributed grain sizes, and overall low densification. As the pre-sintering temperature increases to 650–700 °C, the number of pores

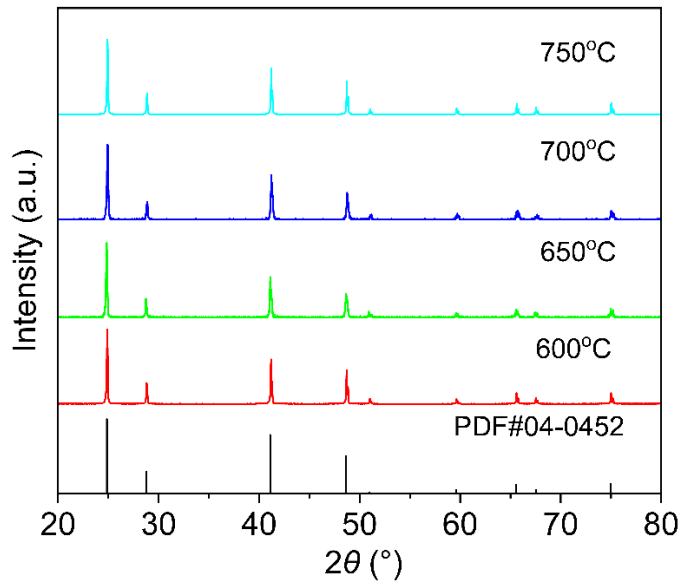


Figure 2. XRD patterns of the BaF_2 ceramics pre-sintered in air at 600–750 °C for 2 h.

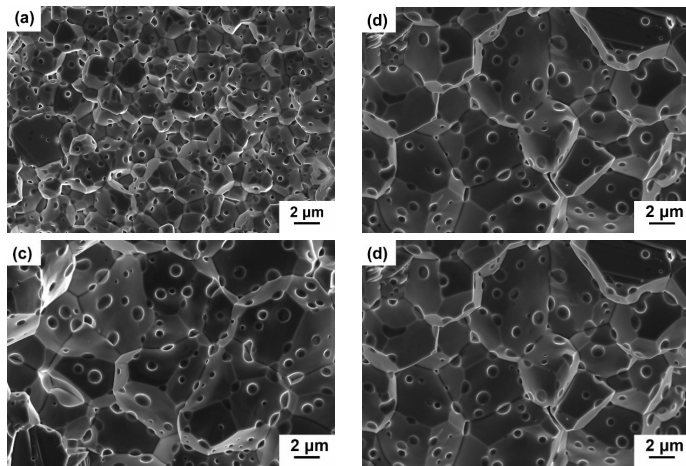


Figure 3. FESEM micrographs of fracture surfaces of BaF_2 scintillation ceramics prepared by air pre-sintering at different temperatures for 2 h: (a) 600 °C, (b) 650 °C, (c) 700 °C and (d) 750 °C.

significantly decreases, grains grow noticeably, grain boundaries gradually become clear, and the degree of densification continues to improve. When the pre-sintering temperature further rises to 750 °C, the grain growth rate significantly accelerates, grain size increases substantially, and some pores are enclosed by rapidly growing grains, forming intragranular pores.

Figure 4 shows the densification curve of the same BaF_2 ceramic samples. As can be seen, the relative density of the ceramics first increases and then decreases with the sintering temperature: when the pre-sintering temperature rises from 600 °C to 700 °C, the relative density increases from 95.5% to 96.7%; upon further increasing to 750 °C, the density drops back to 95.4%

owing to the formation of intragranular pores. The overall density of the air pre-sintered samples is not high, and a large number of pores still exist within the ceramic (as can be seen in Figure 3). Therefore, post-treatment via HIP is required to further eliminate pores and improve the degree of densification.

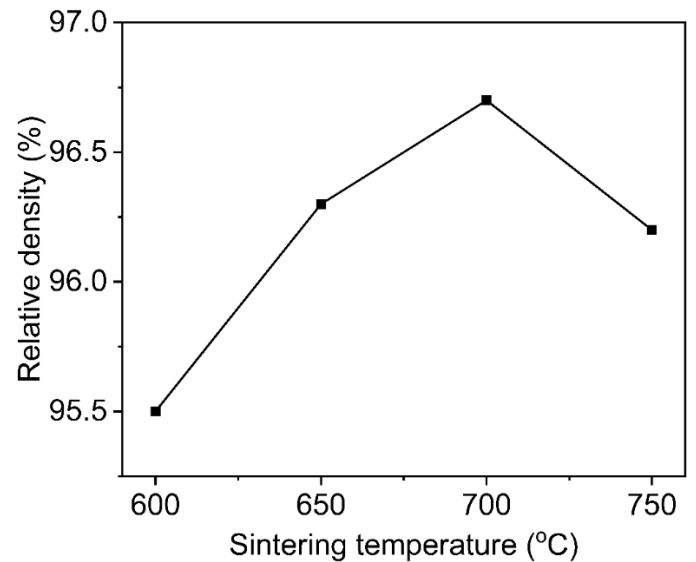


Figure 4. Relative density curves of the BaF_2 ceramics pre-sintered in air at 600–750 °C for 2 h.

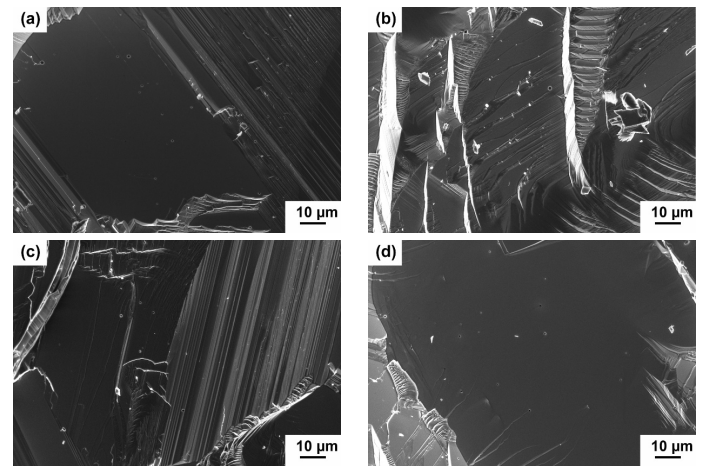


Figure 5. FESEM micrographs of fracture surfaces of BaF_2 scintillation ceramics pre-sintered in air at different temperatures for 2 h and HIP post-treated at 800 °C for 3 h under 100 MPa Ar: (a) 600 °C, (b) 650 °C, (c) 700 °C and (d) 750 °C.

Figure 5 shows the FESEM microstructure of the ceramic cross-section prepared by air pre-sintering (600–750 °C × 2 h) combined with HIP post-treatment (800 °C × 3 h, 100 MPa Ar). After HIP treatment at 800 °C, compared with before HIP, the number of internal pores greatly decreased, leaving only a few intragranular pores. The intragranular pores may be formed during the pre-sintering process, when

the grain boundary growth rate is faster than the pore elimination rate, and this phenomenon becomes pronounced when the pre-sintering temperature reaches 750 °C. Therefore, when the air pre-sintering temperature is 750 °C, obvious intragranular pores appear in the ceramics, which are difficult to remove even after the HIP post-treatment.

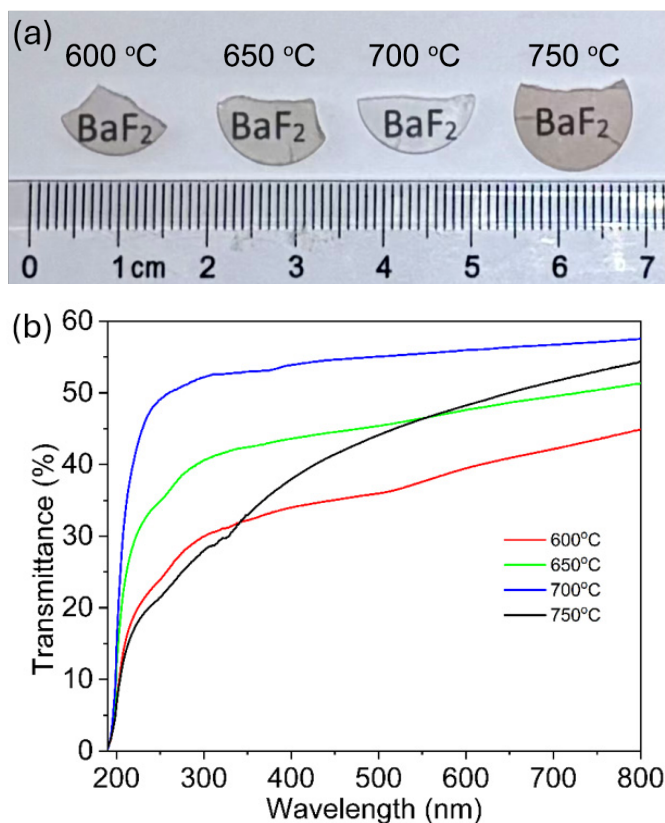


Figure 6. (a) Photograph and (b) in-line transmittance curves of BaF₂ scintillation ceramics pre-sintered in air at 600–750 °C for 2 h and HIP post-treated at 800 °C for 3 h under 100 MPa Ar (1 mm in thickness).

Figure 6 shows (a) a photograph and (b) in-line transmittance curves of BaF₂ scintillation ceramics (1 mm thick) prepared by air pre-sintering (600–750 °C × 2 h) combined with HIP post-treatment (800 °C × 3 h, 100 MPa Ar). While the sample air pre-sintered at 700 °C is colorless and transparent, the sample air pre-sintered at 750 °C shows a reddish color. With the increase of air pre-sintering temperature, the in-line transmittance of the HIP-treated BaF₂ ceramics generally shows a trend of first increasing and then decreasing, which is consistent with the changes in the number of pores and relative density in the ceramics. The in-line transmittance of BaF₂ scintillation ceramics prepared by air pre-sintering (700 °C × 2 h) combined with HIP post-treatment (800 °C × 3 h, 100 MPa Ar) is 57.6% at 800 nm and 40.6% at 220 nm, respectively.

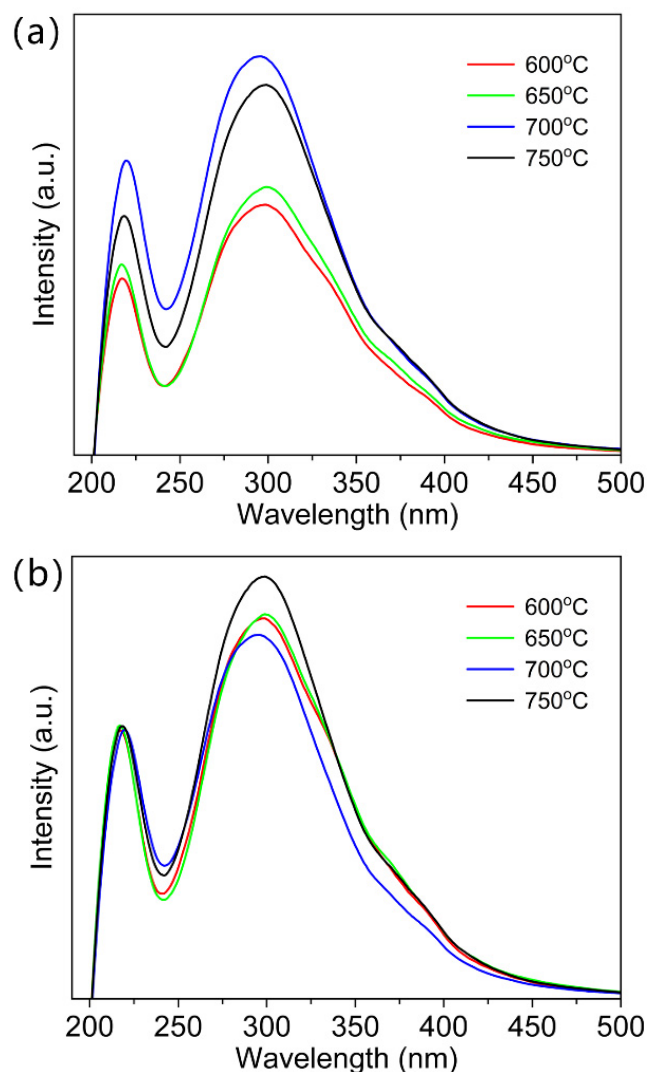


Figure 7. (a) XEL and (b) normalized XEL spectra of BaF₂ scintillation ceramics pre-sintered in air at 600–750 °C for 2 h and HIP post-treated at 800 °C for 3 h under 100 MPa Ar.

Figure 7(a) shows the XEL spectra of BaF₂ scintillation ceramics prepared by air pre-sintering (600–750 °C × 2 h) combined with HIP post-treatment (800 °C × 3 h, 100 MPa Ar). It can be seen that all samples exhibit two distinct emission peaks at approximately 220 nm and 310 nm, corresponding to cross-luminescence (CL) and self-trapped excitons (STE), respectively. The CL intensity initially increases and then decreases as the pre-sintering temperature rises. The highest CL intensity was obtained by the sample pre-sintered at 700 °C. To verify the suppression effect of STE luminescence in BaF₂ ceramics, the fast luminescence band was normalized, and the results are shown in Figure 7(b). As the air pre-sintering temperature increases, the suppression of the slow luminescence component at 310 nm caused by STE luminescence in BaF₂ scintillation ceramics first enhances and then weakens.

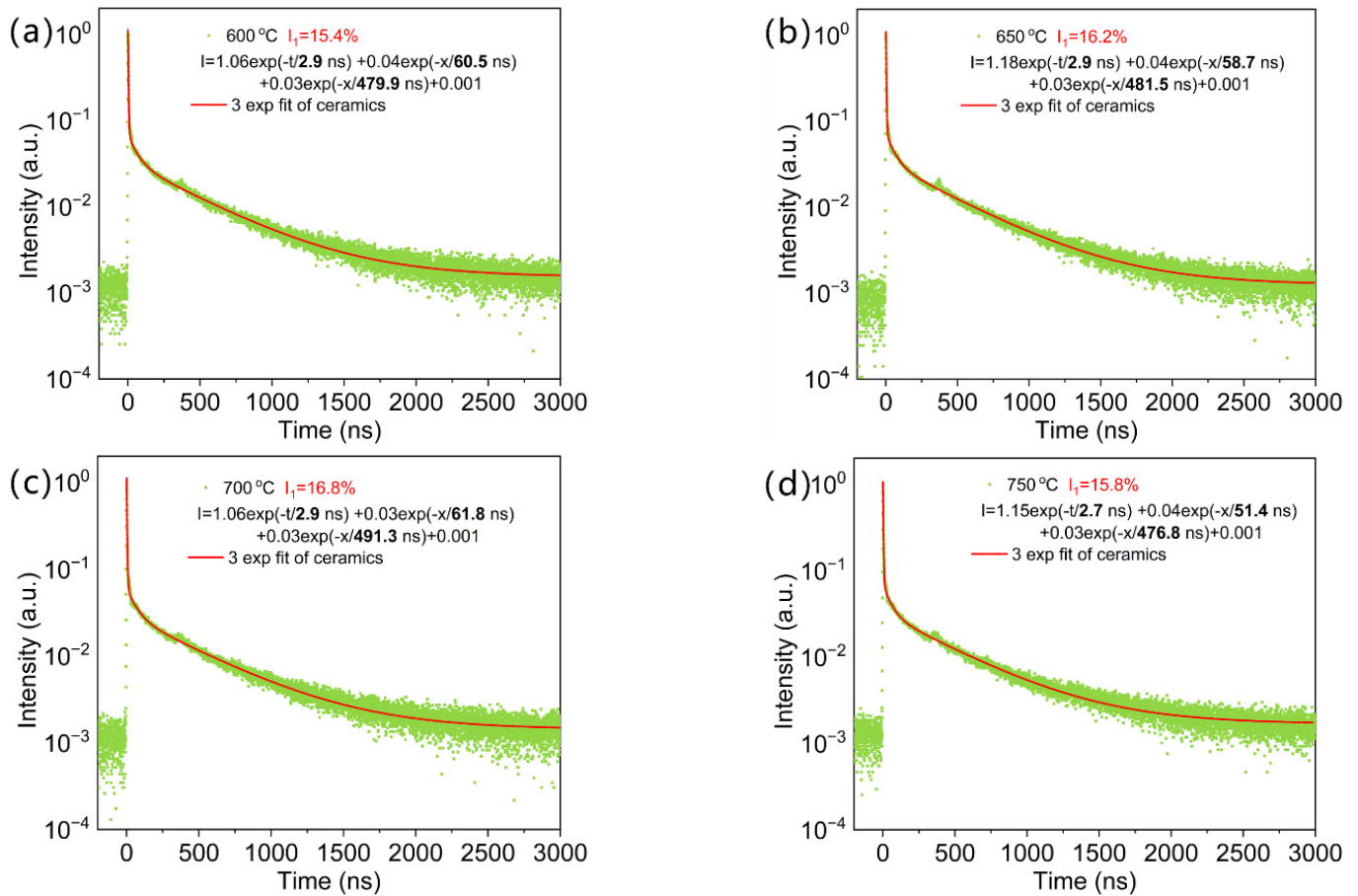


Figure 8. Scintillation decay curves of BaF₂ scintillation ceramics pre-sintered in air at different temperatures for 2 h and HIP post-treated at 800 °C for 3 h under 100 MPa Ar: (a) 600 °C, (b) 650 °C, (c) 700 °C, (d) 750 °C.

In order to further verify the reliability of the trend observed in the normalized XEL spectra, where the slow luminescence in BaF₂ scintillation ceramics is initially enhanced and then reduced, the scintillation decay time of BaF₂ scintillation ceramics was further evaluated. Figure 8 shows the scintillation decay curves of BaF₂ scintillation ceramics prepared by air pre-sintering (600–750 °C × 2 h) combined with HIP post-treatment (800 °C × 3 h, 100 MPa Ar). The decay curves of BaF₂ ceramics were fitted using a triple-exponential function [48]:

$$I = A_1 \exp\left(\frac{-t}{\tau_1}\right) + A_2 \exp\left(\frac{-t}{\tau_2}\right) + A_3 \exp\left(\frac{-t}{\tau_3}\right) + \text{background} \quad (1)$$

In the formula, τ_1 is the fast decay time constant obtained from fitting, τ_2 and τ_3 are the slow decay time constants obtained from fitting, and A_1 , A_2 and A_3 are the corresponding amplitudes; the intensity proportion of the fast component I_1 is calculated by Eq. (2):

$$I_1 = A_1 \tau_1 / \sum_n A_n \tau_n \quad (2)$$

The proportion of the fast component I_1 of BaF₂ scintillator ceramics calculated according to Eq. (2) is shown in Figure 8. The results indicate that the air pre-sintering temperature has a certain regulatory effect on the fast scintillation component of BaF₂ ceramics. As the sintering temperature increases from 600 °C to 700 °C, the proportion of the fast component gradually rises from 15.4% to 16.8%. When the temperature is further increased to 750 °C, the proportion of the fast component decreases to 15.8%, showing an overall trend of first increasing and then decreasing.

Figure 9 shows the pulse height spectra of BaF₂ scintillation ceramics prepared by air pre-sintering (700 °C × 2 h) combined with HIP post-treatment (800 °C × 3 h, 100 MPa Ar). The results demonstrate that a light output (L.O.) of 581 p.e./MeV and a light yield (L.Y.) of 2655 ph/MeV were obtained for the sample. These values are lower than

those of BaF₂ single crystals measured under identical conditions [24]. The reasons mainly include three aspects: firstly, various possible defects within the ceramics could capture carriers during the transport process, reducing the light yield; secondly, the ceramics' suppression of the slow scintillation component reduces the total light emission contribution; thirdly, the poor optical quality of the ceramics decreases the light output and collection efficiency. These three factors collectively contribute to the reduced light output and collection efficiency observed in the ceramic samples. Therefore, high-temperature TSL testing is required to further analyze the internal defect structure and clarify the cause of the light yield reduction.

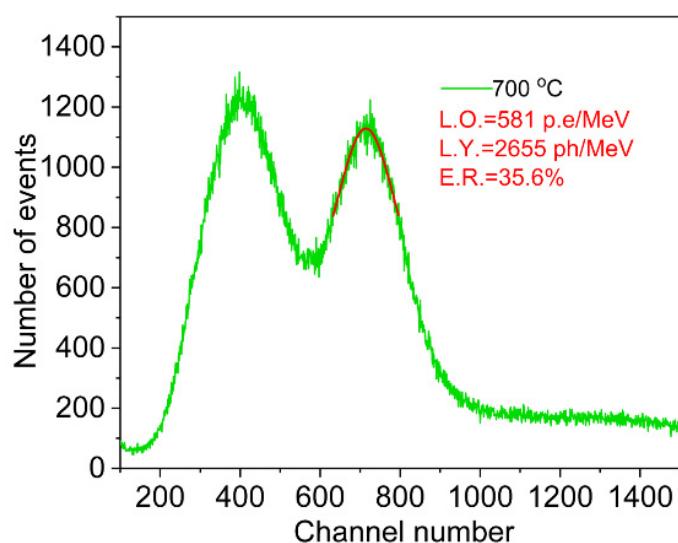


Figure 9. Pulse height spectra of the BaF₂ scintillation ceramic pre-sintered in air at 700 °C for 2 h and HIP post-treated at 800 °C for 3 h under 100 MPa Ar.

To elucidate why the BaF₂ scintillation ceramic exhibits a significantly lower light yield than its single-crystal counterpart, high-temperature TSL characterization was carried out. The results are shown in Figure 10. The integrated TSL intensity of BaF₂ ceramics can be fitted using the general-order kinetics equation [24, 49]:

$$I(T) = I_m b^{\frac{b}{b-1}} \exp\left(\frac{E}{kT} \frac{T - T_m}{T_m}\right) \left[(b-1) \left(1 - \frac{2kT}{E}\right) \frac{T^2}{T_m^2} \times \exp\left(\frac{E}{kT} \frac{T - T_m}{T_m}\right) + 1 + (b-1) \frac{2kT_m}{E} \right]^{-\frac{b}{b-1}} \quad (3)$$

In the equation, I_m and T_m represent the peak intensity and peak temperature, respectively; k is the Boltzmann constant; b is the kinetic order; and E is the trap depth.

The TSL curves of all ceramic samples can be fitted and decomposed into three characteristic trap energy levels: $E_{T_1} = 0.80 \pm 0.08$ eV, $E_{T_2} = 1.16 \pm 0.12$ eV, and $E_{T_3} = 1.20 \pm 0.12$ eV. Among them, the 0.80 eV trap energy level is consistent with the trap energy level reported for BaF₂ single crystals [49], and it is speculated to be an intrinsic electron defect in the BaF₂ material. The trap energy levels of 1.16 eV and 1.20 eV are speculated, based on existing literature reports [50], to possibly correspond to lattice oxygen (O_F') and barium vacancies (V_{Ba}''). Compared with the TSL glow curves of BaF₂ single crystals shown in the literature [49, 50], there is a very strong TSL peak above 650 K for the ceramic sample, which shows a much lower intensity in BaF₂ single crystals. This high-temperature TSL peak may be ascribed to some kind of deeper trap, which can seriously degrade the light yield of the ceramic sample.

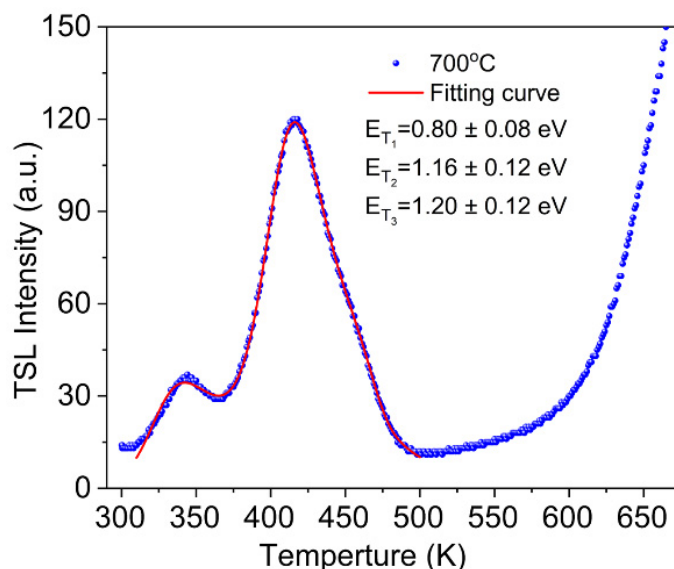


Figure 10. TSL and general-order fitting curve of the BaF₂ scintillation ceramic pre-sintered in air at 700 °C for 2 h and HIP post-treated at 800 °C for 3 h under 100 MPa Ar.

4 Conclusions

This work synthesized BaF₂ nano-powders using Ba(NO₃)₂ and KF·2H₂O as raw materials through a chemical co-precipitation method, and BaF₂ scintillation ceramics were prepared by air pre-sintering combined with HIP post-treatment. The effects of air pre-sintering temperature and HIP post-treatment on the phase, microstructure, and in-line transmittance of BaF₂ ceramics were investigated. The results show that the pre-sintered ceramics are all pure cubic phase BaF₂, with a large number of internal pores. The relative density of the pre-sintered ceramics first increases and then

decreases with increasing sintering temperature. After HIP treatment, the internal pores of the ceramics are significantly reduced, but a small number of intragranular pores still remain, and the in-line transmittance of the HIP-treated BaF₂ ceramics presents a trend of first increasing and then decreasing with increasing pre-sintering temperature. BaF₂ scintillation ceramics prepared by air pre-sintering (700 °C × 2 h) combined with HIP post-treatment (800 °C × 3 h, 100 MPa Ar) achieve an in-line transmittance of 57.6% at 800 nm and 40.6% at 220 nm (1 mm thick). The fast luminescence XEL intensity is the highest for this sample, the slow component is significantly suppressed, the fast component accounts for 16.8%, and the light yield is 2655 ph/MeV. Furthermore, a high-temperature TSL study of the BaF₂ ceramic sample was conducted. The results indicate that it contains three characteristic trap energy levels: 0.80 eV, 1.16 eV, and 1.20 eV, which may correspond to an intrinsic electron defect in the BaF₂ material, lattice oxygen (O'_F), and barium vacancies (V''_{Ba}), respectively. Another deeper trap with much stronger intensity was also observed for the ceramic sample, which may degrade the light yield of the sample. This study not only provides a new preparation strategy to meet the urgent demand for high-performance BaF₂ scintillators in ultrafast imaging technology but also opens a new route for the low-cost, high-quality preparation of fluoride scintillation ceramics.

Data Availability Statement

Data will be made available on request.

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Conflicts of Interest

Jiang Li served as an Associate Editor of the *Journal of Advanced Materials Research* at the time of manuscript submission. To ensure the integrity of the peer-review

process, Jiang Li was not involved in the editorial handling, peer review, or decision-making process for this manuscript, which was handled independently by another editor. The remaining authors declare no conflicts of interest.

AI Use Statement

The authors declare that no generative AI was used in the preparation of this manuscript.

Ethical Approval and Consent to Participate

Not applicable.

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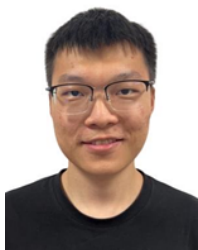


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