

1 Fabrication and experimental evaluation of microstructured ^6Li silicate fiber arrays for high spatial
2 resolution neutron imaging

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14

15 **Abstract**

16 This work presents the fabrication and experimental evaluation of instrumentation designed to enable
17 higher spatial resolution neutron radiography for those performing research at neutron scattering facilities.

18 Herein, we describe a proof-of-concept array of microstructured silicate fibers with ^6Li doped cores that
19 shows progress towards a design for μm resolution neutron radiography. The multicore fiber was
20 fabricated by drawing stacked unit elements of Guardian Glass (NuSAFE Inc., Oak Ridge, TN, USA), a
21 ^6Li scintillating core glass, and a silicate cladding glass. These structured fibers function as an array of
22 sub-10- μm waveguides for scintillation light. Measurements have shown a significantly increased
23 integrated charge distribution in response to neutrons, and the spatial resolution of the radiographs is
24 described by edge response and line spread functions of $48 \pm 4 \mu\text{m}$ and $59 \pm 8 \mu\text{m}$, respectively.

25

26 **Keywords:** High Spatial Resolution; Lithium Glass; Multicore Fiber; Neutron Radiography; Optical
27 Waveguides; Particle Tracking.

28

29 1. Introduction

30

31 The properties of novel X-ray opaque materials, like those used in energy storage systems, precision
32 manufacturing technologies, aerospace components, and metallic additive manufacturing, are often
33 described using simulation tools lacking experimentally grounded models, and are based on first-principle
34 calculations and theoretical assumptions alone. Thus, ongoing material characterization relies on neutron
35 scattering instrumentation to verify performance predictions and add structure to future models. Despite
36 the successes that neutron scattering science facilities have achieved in recent years, even higher-impact
37 research into microstructure evolution, thermodynamic, and mechanical properties of advanced materials
38 is sometimes limited by the current spatial resolution of neutron sensing instrumentation.

39

40 Recent improvements in neutron sensing instrumentation have enabled a few modern neutron scattering
41 facilities to reach the current state-of-the-art spatial resolution of approximately 10-25 μm [1] [2].
42 However, progress towards μm resolution remains a challenging goal for the neutron imaging community
43 for two primary reasons.

44

45 Firstly, thermal neutron fluxes at even the most novel user facilities are much lower than similar X-ray
46 imaging sources. For example, the raw power of several tens of W/cm^2 is regularly reported at advanced
47 X-ray sources like Advanced Photon Source (APS) at Argonne National Laboratory. This power
48 corresponds to a range of fluxes that conservatively start several orders of magnitude greater than the
49 estimated novel thermal neutron flux of approximately $1.2 \times 10^9 \text{ n/s/cm}^2$ at the ODIN neutron imaging
50 beamline planned at the European Spallation Source (ESS) [3].

51

52 Secondly, the efficiency of thermal neutron sensitive scintillators is in competition with the spatial
53 resolution. Thick scintillators (mm scale) have higher efficiencies and, therefore, can produce high
54 contrast radiographs in less time than thin scintillators (μm scale). However, a thick scintillator will have
55 poor spatial resolution, as the position of captured neutrons is smeared throughout the scintillating
56 volume. Conversely, thin scintillating screens and films bypass spatial resolution smearing by reducing
57 the thickness of scintillating medium at the cost of efficiency. Still, the spatial resolution of unstructured
58 thin scintillators is fundamentally limited by the variance introduced by the difference in track
59 orientations of the charged particles emitted from neutron captures and the succeeding isotropic emission
60 of scintillation light from neutron converters such as ${}^6\text{Li}(n, {}^3\text{H})$, ${}^{10}\text{B}(n, \alpha)$, and ${}^{157}\text{Gd}(n, \gamma)$. Thus, there is
61 a clear need to marry the benefits of high efficiency and spatial resolution while also overcoming the
62 neutron capture position uncertainty that results from charged particle track variance. Some of our prior
63 work based upon Monte Carlo simulation suggests that tracking these charged particles on an event-by-
64 event basis could allow one to overcome this limiting uncertainty [2] [4].

65

66 Not long after the seminal work on neutron scintillating glasses [5] was published, scintillating fiber
67 optic glass faceplates were being researched for particle tracking applications in high energy physics
68 experiments in 1983 [6]. Three years later, the first results of a neutron scintillating fiber (SCIFI) tracker
69 were reported [7]. In 1994, the first neutron radiograph, of a pierced sheet of Gd, taken using a SCIFI
70 array was published with resolvable features on the order of several 100s of μm [8]. Since that time,
71 SCIFIs have been researched for remote radiation dosimetry and neutron sensitive fusion applications [9]
72 [10] [11]. More recently, interest surrounding coupling optical fiber tapers to existing scintillator based
73 neutron imaging setups has grown with novel 11 μm resolution results [1]. However, in the last 24 years,
74 it appears that no work has been done to build upon the original concept of the SCIFI tracker.

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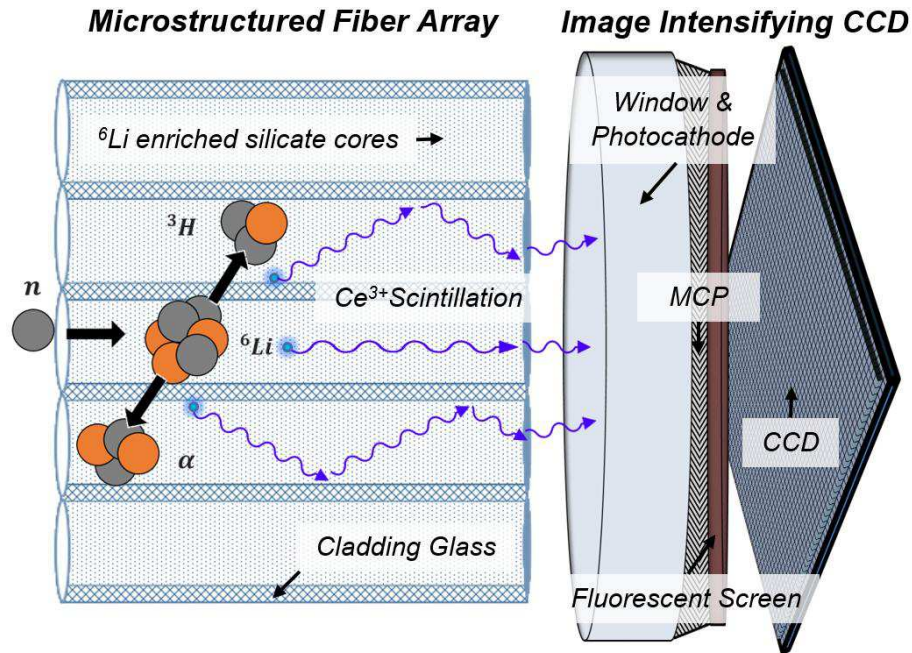
76 We propose the use of microstructured scintillating optical fiber arrays, capable of heavy charged

77 particle (HCP) tracking via waveguiding scintillation light following neutron capture, for high resolution
78 neutron imaging. Specifically, we utilize the well-known capture reaction for Li-glass ${}^6\text{Li}(n, \alpha)$, emitting
79 alpha (α) and triton (${}^3\text{H}$) particles back-to-back that ionize primary and secondary electrons, exciting a
80 Ce^{3+} activator, which in turn emits scintillation light at 395-432 nm in the near-UV/visible wavelength
81 range. This light is transported through the neutron sensitive microstructured waveguides and is observed
82 by a photodetector, see Figure 1. Provided that the collected and converted light has a sufficient signal to
83 noise ratio (SNR), one should be able to observe the tracks of these particles and precisely estimate the
84 locations of neutron capture reactions [4].

85

86 In our first generation proof-of-concept array, we attempted to use air capillaries in the cladding layer to
87 maximize the refractive index difference between the Li-doped glass core and the cladding. While the
88 lead oxide cladding glass was mechanically compatible with the Li core glass, the air capillaries tended to
89 collapse, so we moved to an all-solid glass design. With the all-solid design, we have made several
90 attempts to better match the thermal fiber pulling properties with the optical properties to achieve the best
91 active scintillating volume and refractive index difference insofar as possible. This work describes the
92 fabrication and characterization of this next generation, proof-of-concept neutron SCIFI tracker.

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94
 95 Figure 1. Enriched lithium-6 glass fibers that are doped with cerium absorb thermal neutrons, emit scintillation light,
 96 and act as optical waveguides to channel the scintillation light for imaging. They are surrounded by a cladding of
 97 lower refractive index. While an image intensifying CCD is our selected choice for a photosensor in this proof-of-
 98 concept study, it is possible that a different photosensor may be more appropriate in order to scale to a larger area.
 99

100 2. Fabrication

101

102 To fabricate the neutron SCIFI, a multicore design was used. A rod of ${}^6\text{Li}$ -loaded glass with properties
 103 similar to GS20 [5] (fabricated by NuSAFE Inc., Oak Ridge, TN, USA) was inserted in an extruded optical
 104 glass cladding tube. Canes of Li-glass cores, embedded in the optical cladding glass, were drawn and then
 105 stacked into an array of some geometry. This array of canes, the preform, was pulled into a single
 106 multicore fiber. For this neutron SCIFI to act as a successful waveguide, the refractive index of the core,
 107 n_{co} , must be larger than the cladding refractive index, n_{cl} . While Li-glass has $n_{co} = 1.55$, a desirable
 108 cladding candidate should have $n_{cl} \leq 1.5$ [7]. Additionally, to create a uniform and regular

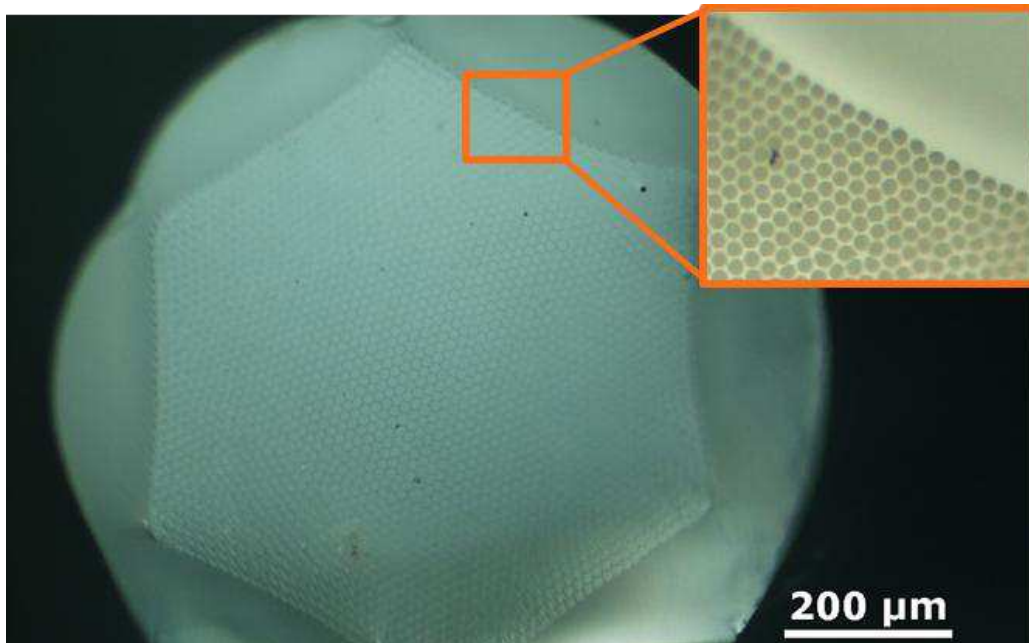
109 microstructure, the glass viscosities must be matched for fiber drawing. Previous trials of ours have led to
110 a better understanding of difficulties associated with matching both optical and thermal properties of glass
111 fiber while maintaining the chemical stability required for scintillation. An early attempt to create a
112 square multicore neutron SCIFI, described in detail in [12], yielded an irregular array of cores that had a
113 refractive index almost equal to the chosen cladding. Although drawing was possible, issues related to
114 glass devitrification during fiber pulling significantly decreased the fiber guiding properties, undermining
115 the neutron resolution. Alternatively, the N-FK5 SCHOTT glass makes a more attractive cladding glass
116 with an n_{cl} equal to 1.5 and a seemingly compatible transition temperature, (T_g). However, our initial
117 canes of Li-glass and N-FK5 crystallized during drawing due to an incompatible codrawing temperature
118 for the glass viscosities.

119
120 The fabrication of our current multicore fiber began with the extrusion of an N-KF9 cladding tube. A
121 cylindrical glass billet with a 29 mm diameter and 35 mm height and a stainless steel die was used during
122 the extrusion process. A 4 kN force was applied to the die and the glass billet while the glass was held in
123 a furnace at an onset temperature of 650°C (true glass temperature of 620°C). Some metallic inclusions
124 were observed inside the extruded glass. Next, the Li-glass rod (11.7 mm diameter) was inserted into a
125 100 mm long section of the extruded N-KF9 tube, and drawn using the preform drawing method. To
126 determine the optimal drawing temperature, the Li-doped silicate glass, T_g , was experimentally
127 established with differential scanning calorimetry (Netzsch DSC STA 449 F1 JUPITER). The
128 measurement was carried out with a heating rate of 5°C/min up to 1300°C in sealed Pt/Rh pans using ~ 30
129 mg of fine grain sample, providing a value of $T_g = 470 \pm 3^\circ\text{C}$. So, the fiber drawing took place at a
130 furnace onset temperature of 800 °C ($730 \pm 10^\circ\text{C}$ glass temperature) under a flow of N_2 at 2 l/min. The
131 preform was fed into the furnace at a speed of 1 mm/min, and the fiber was drawn at a speed of 5.4 m/min
132 under a tension of 15 g. About 500 m of fiber were drawn from the preform, resulting in a fiber with an
133 outer diameter and a core diameter of $185 \pm 4 \mu\text{m}$ and $150 \pm 4 \mu\text{m}$, respectively.

134

135 The fiber was then cut into 2,700 separate 120-mm-long pieces and stacked as a hexagonal array. This
136 array was then thermally consolidated into a single unit at 640°C and the N-KF9 tube (13 ±0.2 mm OD/
137 11.4 ±0.2 mm ID), used to jacket the Li-glass cores, was extruded under the same conditions previously
138 described for the outer cladding tube. The resulting preform was then drawn into a single multicore fiber
139 910 ±10 μm in diameter with individual cores possessing 7–10 μm diameters, see Figure 2. The
140 hexagonal circle packing geometry allows for the highest fill fraction (active scintillating volume) of
141 circles (cores) to remaining space (cladding), $\frac{\pi\sqrt{3}}{6} \approx 90.7\%$, provided the pitch of cores is equal to the
142 diameter of the cores. Given a conservative estimate of the average cladding spacing between cores of ~2
143 μm, we estimate that the active scintillating volume of our hexagonal multicore structure is ≈ 70%. Thus,
144 we have found that this multicore design enables uniform core spacing at a 70% active volume, while also
145 allowing for sub-10-μm individual core dimensions.

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148 Figure 2. Photographed cross section of a cleaved end of a single multicore SCIFI (hexagonal) inside of its outer

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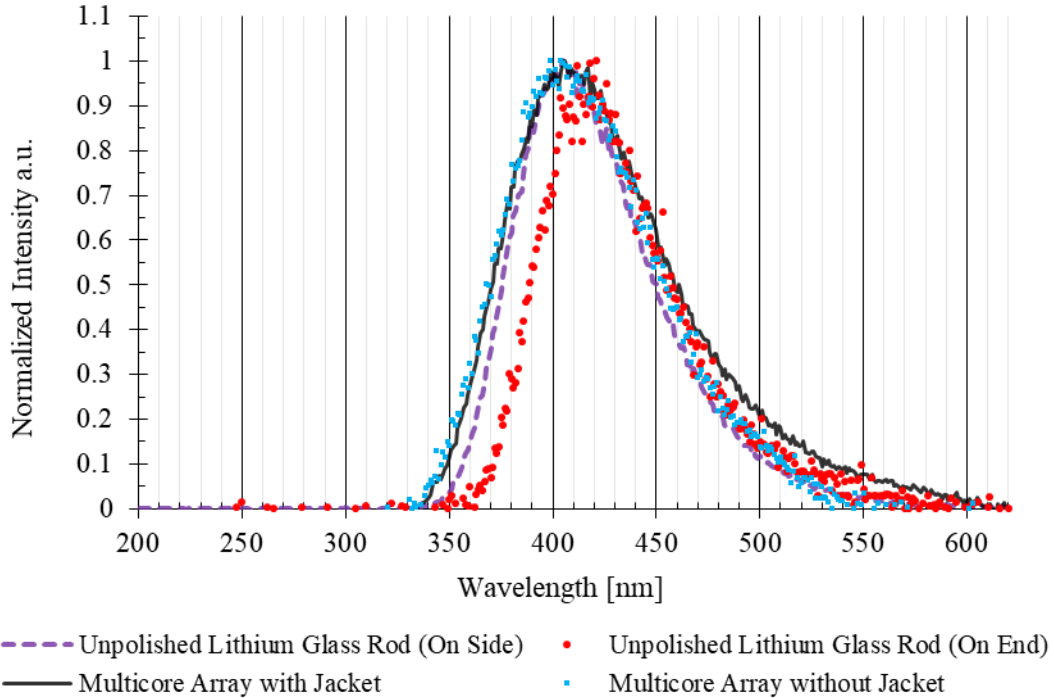
jacket (round)

151 3. Experimental Evaluation

152

153 Following fiber drawing, it is necessary to establish that our neutron SCIFI still scintillates as expected.
154 Thus, the radioluminescence emission spectrum of an unpolished Li-glass rod, used for the core glass,
155 was measured for an *On Side* (diameter) and an *On End* (length) case. The diameter of the unpolished Li
156 glass rod was 10 mm with a length of 150 mm. A standard emission peak of Ce^{3+} scintillation light near to
157 the 395 nm peak emission was observed for the *On Side* case, see Figure 3. For the *On End* case, the
158 emission peak contracted 15 nm in the near-UV region. Here, the self-absorption effects of the
159 overlapping Ce^{3+} and Ce^{4+} emission and absorption bands are observed when the scintillation light is
160 transported further for the *On End* case. In Figure 3, these unpolished rod results are compared to the
161 arrays of multicore SCIFIs, with and without the outer jacket removed; refer back to Figure 2 for an
162 image of a single multicore fiber possessing an outer jacket. The SCIFI arrays were 1 mm thick with a 5 x
163 5 mm surface. The SCIFI arrays were measured on end, as a faceplate. After undergoing the
164 aforementioned heat processing, the SCIFI emission behaves as expected for Ce^{3+} scintillation. The SCIFI
165 had a slightly broadened emission, 3-5 nm, compared to the *On Side* case for the Li-glass rod.

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168 Figure 3. Radioluminescence spectra characteristic of Ce^{3+} activator emission for the unpolished ${}^6\text{Li}$ glass rod
 169 (unprocessed) and the multicore arrays (drawn into fibers) with and without outer jackets.

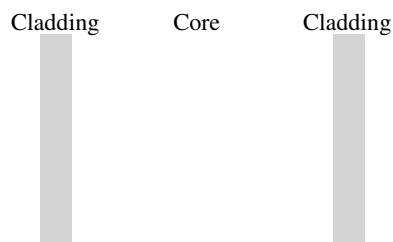
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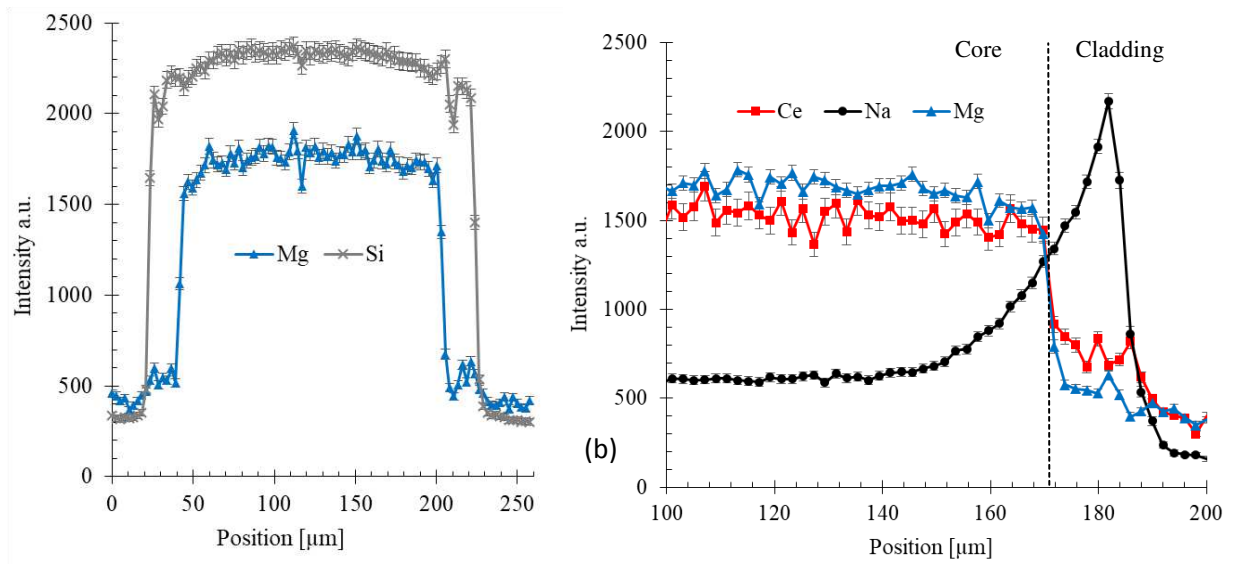
171 Having verified that the scintillation mechanism is behaving as expected, it is essential to characterize
 172 any transport of the Ce activator from the core to the cladding via thermal diffusion to ensure that
 173 scintillation light is being produced within the core glass. So, Energy Dispersive X-ray Spectrometry
 174 (EDS) was used to examine the atomic concentrations of dopants in cane cross-sections with a Zeiss EVO
 175 MA15 Scanning Electron Microscope. The canes of the Li-glass cores clad with N-KF9 were
 176 embedded in epoxy, and EDS line scans were acquired across the ends of the canes. The results of the
 177 EDS line scans are shown in Figure 4, where Mg inside of the core glass can be seen as the boundary
 178 between the core and cladding. No decrease, below standard deviation, for the Ce concentration in Li-
 179 glass cores at the near-cladding position was observed. EDS point scans targeting 4 randomly selected Li-
 180 glass cores, at 3 positions each, correctly detected a Ce concentration of 2.4 ± 0.2 wt.%. No Ce was
 181 detected when point scans targeted the cladding with a lower detectable limit set to 0.1 wt.%. So, the
 182 intensity of the Ce concentration in the cladding and surrounding epoxy is assumed to be background.

183 Thus, Ce was well bound within the core glass during fiber drawing. Again, the fiber was drawn at a 730
184 $\pm 10^\circ\text{C}$ glass temperature, 260°C above T_g , with any given segment of fiber experiencing approximately 10
185 min of heating. Previous work of ours has shown that the mobility of Ce in Li-glass, heated at
186 temperatures between $500\text{-}600^\circ\text{C}$ for 5 hr with a subsequent 24 hr anneal, resulted in a few μm of Ce
187 diffusion [13]. Thus, the quasi-immobilization of Ce for the short heating duration agrees with our
188 experimental data.

189
190 If a significant quantity of the ^6Li absorber is in the SCIFI cladding, then neutron captures in the
191 cladding could decrease overall light output, and potentially create $\pm 3 \mu\text{m}$ position smearing. So, it
192 useful to know how the ^6Li absorber is diffusing within the multicore. However, EDS systems are
193 fundamentally insensitive to atomic numbers < 5 due to the absorption of low energy X-rays within the
194 detection window. X-Ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy could be used to search for Li in the cladding, but
195 it would not provide an accurate concentration depth profile. Such a technique would require micron scale
196 accuracy when removing core from cladding, and while probing the depth of the cladding. Instead, the
197 mobility of another alkali metal, Na, is particularly interesting because of its chemical similarity,
198 comparable ionic radius, and mobility to the Li absorber in the core glass. The diffusion of Na within Li
199 enriched silicate, $^7\text{Li}/^6\text{Li} = 0.04526$, and Na self-diffusion within $0.33 \text{ Na}_2\text{O}$, 0.67 SiO_2 glass has been
200 shown to be closely comparable [14] [15]. Additionally, more recent analysis indicates that the activation
201 energy for Li diffusion remains comparable to Na, specifically inside of aluminosilicate glasses; where
202 mixed alkali effects will not immobilize Li or Na [16] [17]. The self-diffusion of Na within the cladding
203 glass and its diffusion of $30 \pm 4 \mu\text{m}$ into the core can be clearly seen in Figure 4. Although the EDS line
204 scan intensities do not represent relative concentrations between elements, the Li absorber is very likely
205 diffusing in a similar manner to Na from the core into the cladding.

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209 Figure 4. (a) EDS line scan across the entire cane where the core (Mg) and core/cladding (Si) components can be

210 seen, and (b) spectra of the core-cladding interface for Mg, Ce, and Na.

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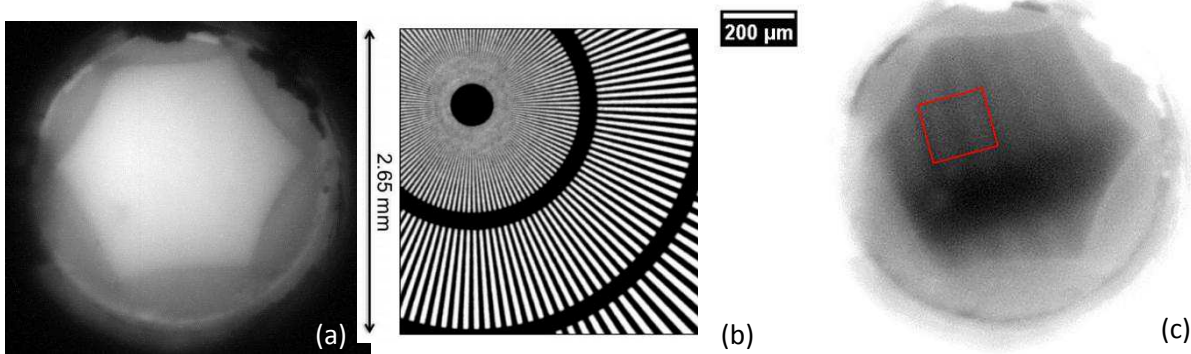
212 Preliminary studies on gamma/neutron discrimination performance of the Li-glass within the previous
213 square multicore SCIFI described in [12], were conducted at the CG-1D neutron imaging beamline at the
214 High Flux Isotope Reactor (HFIR) at Oak Ridge National Laboratory (ORNL) [18]. The response of the
215 previous square multicore SCIFI array to background radiation (cold neutron flux $< 1 \times 10^1 \text{ n/s/cm}^2$ at
216 target with neutron shutter closed), and to the neutron beam (cold neutron flux at $\sim 1 \times 10^7 \text{ n/s/cm}^2$ at
217 target with neutron shutter open) was observed with an R9779 PMT. The scintillation light was separable
218 from electronic noise or Cherenkov light generated in the PMT window, both in magnitude (integrated
219 charge) and fall time, where the longer fall times are characteristic of scintillation caused by the Ce^{3+}
220 dopant. While scintillation was clearly seen for both cases, the response to the neutron beam displayed an
221 increased integrated charge distribution as the array exhibited a higher light output response to cold
222 neutrons than the gamma background radiation present in the beamline. Due to the low effective active
223 scintillating volume of the previous square packing used ($\sim 27\%$), the majority of energy deposited in the
224 multicore from the charged particles was not producing scintillation light. The current hexagonal design
225 allows for nearly triple the amount of energy to be deposited into the scintillating core glass.

226

227 Radiographs were taken with the current hexagonal multicore fibers using the Swiss Spallation Neutron
228 Source at the Paul Scherrer Institut (PSI). Images were acquired with the Neutron Microscope (NM) at
229 the Pulse OverLap DIffractometer (POLDI) beamline. The use of the NM at the POLDI beamline was
230 uniquely desired due to the requirements of the optical system needed for this experiment. Specifically,
231 the NM possesses the magnification and numeric aperture to enable a nominal pixel size of acquired
232 images of $1.3 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$, and a true spatial resolution of about $5 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$ [19]. Additionally, the optics have μm -level
233 repeatable positioning, and are sensitive to near UV Ce scintillation. Using the NM at the POLDI
234 beamline is also beneficial due to a lower gamma background compared with other beamlines, a
235 thermal/cold neutron spectrum from $1.1\text{--}5 \text{ \AA}$, and a flux at the sample position of $6 \times 10^6 \text{ n/s/cm}^2$ [20].

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A diffused, blue light source was used to optically focus onto the ends of hand-cleaved and polished single multicore fibers. Al tape was then used to enclose the scintillator. Open Beam (OB) images were taken to focus the optics to the scintillation light. A quantity of 20 images with 300 s exposures were acquired of the OB. A gadolinium-based Siemens Star (SS) [21] was then positioned in front of the active area of the scintillator and imaged. Eighty (80) images of the SS with 300 s exposure were acquired. Due to decreased thermal neutron flux, 2 OB and 11 SS images were removed prior to post processing. The remaining SS images, with outliers removed, were divided by the OB background, and summed. The resultant image was transformed with a bilinear clockwise rotation of 90° for analysis. The resolvable spokes of the SS can be seen in Figure 5. The resolution of the 2 mm fiber can be estimated via inspection of the highlighted region of the SS spokes possessing approximately $50 \mu\text{m}$ spatial features. Referencing the 10% to 90% contrast transition for the Edge Response Function (ERF) of the spoke in the highlighted region, a $48 \pm 4 \mu\text{m}$ resolution was found. Fitting a Gaussian to the Line Spread Function (LSF) of the same region, a FWHM measurement yields $59 \pm 8 \mu\text{m}$ spatial resolution.



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253 Figure 5. (a) OB neutron radiograph taken with a 2 mm thick multicore neutron SCIFI, (b) visual test object
254 reference, PSI's Gd SS taken with the NM in [18], and (c) neutron radiograph of the SS acquired after
255 aforementioned post processing, with the region of interest highlighted.

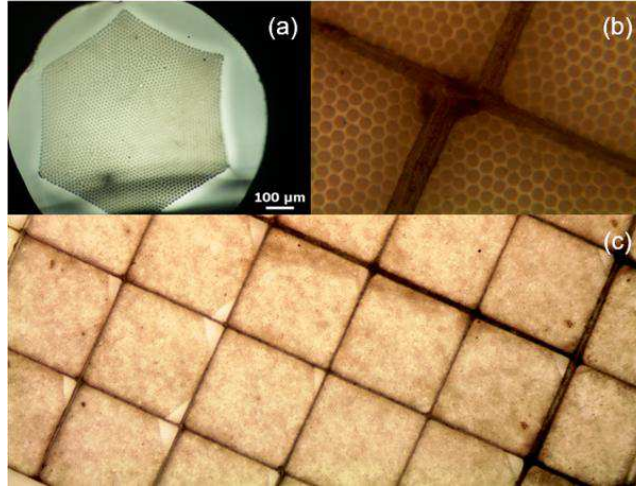
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4. Conclusions and Future Work

Li-glass cores with 7-10 μm diameter have been drawn into 500 m of an all-solid glass composite, multicore fiber at a 70% packing fraction. The Li-glass remains active and scintillates as expected following drawing. The Li absorber shows some diffusion into the cladding, but the Ce activator is largely bound during the fabrication process. Hand-cleaved and polished single fibers of lengths 2-5 mm have resolved features on the order of 10s of μm while utilizing the Neutron Microscope. Ideal light collection in these same fibers should allow for $\leq 20 \mu\text{m}$ resolution. To increase spatial resolution, the core glass must be drawn to smaller sizes which should be possible with the current fabrication process. Image contrast improvement requires the use of a lower refractive index cladding material. Moreover, fabrication without an outer cladding jacket will allow for easy array assembly.

Near term work is planned to evaluate the radiographic spatial resolution of an array of 100 multicore neutron SCIFIs with a 5 x 5mm field-of-view. This is a comparably thinner design (1mm thick), with outer jacket removed, and it has a well-polished surface. Since a larger field-of-view was desired for evaluation of imaging performance, the multicore fiber outer jacket was ground away, and a 10x10 array was stacked together. Assembly was finished by securing the array with structural glass plate siding and polishing the surfaces, see Figure 6.

Meanwhile, a novel phosphate glass cladding, possessing a refractive index of $n_c < 1.53$, is being used for another neutron SCIFI fabrication. This cladding is expected to allow for more than twice the current amount of scintillation light to remain internally bound. We plan to draw the multicore fiber using the phosphate cladding with a goal of 2 μm diameter Li-glass cores while remaining at a packing fraction $\geq 70\%$.



281

282 Figure 6. Microscope photos of the (a) cross section of a microstructured multicore fiber with scale, (b) stacked
283 multicore fibers with outer cladding removed with $8 \pm 1 \mu\text{m}$ core diameters, and (c) polished faceplate surface of a
284 multicore SCIFI array with 0.5 x 0.5 mm pixels

285

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