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Which resolution can be achieved in practice in neutron imaging experiments? – A general view and application on the Zr - ZrH₂ and ZrO₂ - ZrN systems

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Abstract

Current methodical developments improve the spatial resolution of neutron imaging facilities. Objects with dimensions down to several microns should be detectable. However, the minimum object size detectable depends not only on the facility hardware like detector resolution or neutron optics, but also on the attenuation contrast. In this paper the relation between illumination time needed, neutron contrast of the objects and their minimal size detectable is derived and an analysis of the minimal dimension of an object can be detected in neutron radiography and tomography is discussed at two examples: zirconium hydride ZrH₂ in Zircaloy-4 as a high contrast system and zirconium nitride ZrN in zirconium oxide ZrO₂ as a low contrast system. It is concluded which minimal sizes of the precipitates can be detected in realistic times.

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1. Introduction

Precipitates with dimensions in the order of magnitude of 1 to 10 μm play important roles for material properties. Zirconium alloys are applied e.g. for nuclear fuel claddings or pressure tubes. Under operation, accidents or long term storage conditions their mechanical and chemical properties are strongly influenced by two characteristic

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micro-structural features: The formation of nitrides in the oxide layer on zirconium alloy strongly accelerates the further oxidation kinetics. The nitrides can be formed if zirconium reacts in air or steam-nitrogen atmospheres. It can happen in spent fuel accidents or in the late phase of a severe reactor accident after failure of the pressure vessel. Fig. 1 gives an example of a typical ZrO_2/ZrN microstructure near the metal-oxide interface. The sizes of these nitrides are several micrometers. Another example is zirconium hydride in zirconium alloys (see Fig. 2). Hydrogen is absorbed by zirconium alloys as result of corrosion under operation conditions or by the reaction with steam at high temperatures under accident conditions. Typical dimensions of these rod shaped precipitates are 1 - 2 μm thickness and 10 - 20 μm length. They are decreasing the fracture toughness of the metal and provide the risk of the so called delayed hydride cracking and/or the fragmentation of the fuel rods during emergency cooling of an overheated reactor, both resulting in fission gas release and redistribution of fuel. Usual these hydrides are oriented in circumferential direction. Under certain stress conditions they can be re-oriented in radial direction. In this case they degrade the mechanical properties much stronger.

Neutron imaging is used by several groups to study the hydrogen in zirconium (for instance Yasuda et al. 2002, Lehmann et al. 2003, Grosse et al. 2008, Grosse et al. 2011, Wang et al. 2013, Smith et al. 2015, Tremsin et al. 2015). Currently, nominal spatial resolutions of typical 25 to 80 μm were used for these investigations (pixel sizes between 13.6 and 40 μm). Integral information about the hydrogen content averaged over the corresponding gauge volume was obtained. Fig. 3 shows as an example the 3D reconstruction of the hydrogen distribution measured in a zirconium alloy cladding tube exposed to a loss of coolant simulation test. It can clearly be seen that the cladding tube breaks at a hydrogen enrichment. However, for deeper understanding of the precipitation, re-solution and re-orientation processes, knowledge about formation, amount, re-distribution and re-orientation of the individual precipitates in the bulk of the materials at the temperatures at which it occurs would be very helpful. In-situ neutron imaging with high spatial resolution could provide this information because of the penetration depth of neutrons in matter allowing dedicated sample environments.

However, currently the spatial resolutions of these methods which are in the order of 20 μm are not yet sufficient. Actually, a lot of efforts are made at several neutron imaging beamlines to improve the spatial resolution of the method (e.g. Tremsin et al. 2011, Hussey et al. 2015, Trtik et al. 2015, Bingham et al. 2015, Trtik et al. 2016a). Spatial resolution down to 1 μm seems to be reachable. The application of neutron optics together with high resolution detector systems seems to allow reducing the spatial resolution even below the 1 μm limit.

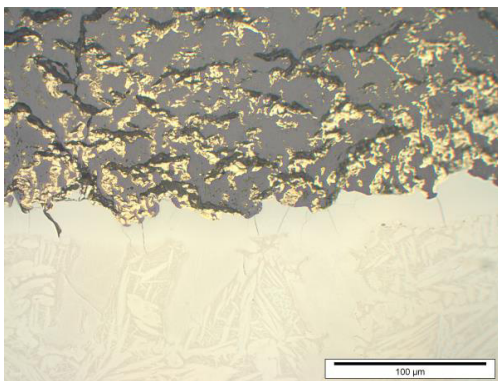


Fig. 1. Optical microstructure of the oxide layer on Zry-4 after 40 min reaction in 20 % steam + 80 % N_2 atmosphere at 1100°C (yellow: ZrN, bright gray: Zry-4, dark gray: ZrO_2 , black: micro-cracks).

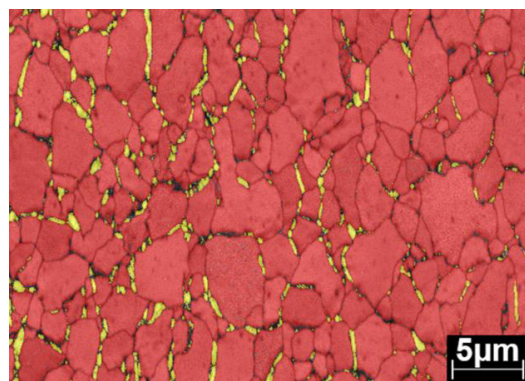


Fig. 2. EBSD pattern of a hydrided Zircaloy-4 sample (yellow: Zirconium hydrides (yellow), red: Zircaloy-4 (Pshenichnikov et al. 2016))

On the other hand, resolution in the neutron imaging experiment is a multidimensional parameter (two or three lateral dimensions for radiography or tomography, respectively, resolution of contrast, time and neutron wavelength) as mentioned in (Griesche et al. 2016). These parameters cannot be varied independently. A decrease of the minimal size detectable by neutron imaging is penalized by an increase in the illumination time per radiograph and/or a

decrease in the neutron wavelength resolution. The illumination time as well the wavelength range used cannot be varied unlimited. The limit for the wavelength range is the whole neutron spectrum, the limits for the illumination time is 1-5 days corresponding to the beam time usually obtained as an external user.

Therefore, about the question of the immanent limitations for the resolution of neutron imaging arises. This question is discussed in this paper using as a simple model a single cube-shaped object in a sample with homogeneous matrix. For the analysis two examples are used: zirconium hydride, ZrH_2 , in Zircaloy-4 (Zry-4) as a high contrast system and zirconium nitride, ZrN , in zirconium oxide ZrO_2 as a low contrast system. The neutron source parameters valid for the CONRAD facility at the Berlin Neutron Scattering Centre BENS (Germany) are used as basis for the estimations.

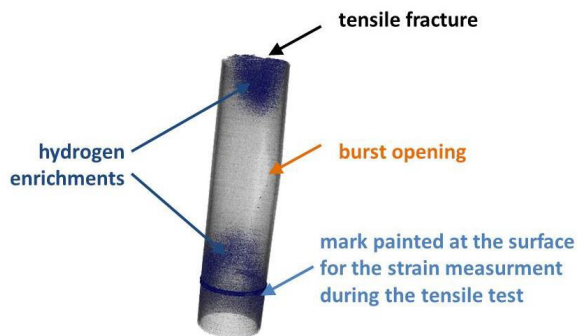


Fig.3. Reconstruction of the hydrogen distribution in an zirconium alloy cladding tube close to burst opening reconstructed from neutron tomography data measured at CONRAD (BENS Berlin, Germany).

2. Dependence of the illumination time needed on the precipitation size

In the following the discussion is focused on the classical neutron radiography using a pinhole camera setup where the contrast is caused only at differences in the total macroscopic neutron cross sections:

$$\Sigma = N (\sigma_c + \sigma_i + \sigma_a) \quad (1)$$

Σ is the total macroscopic neutron cross section, σ_c , σ_i and σ_a the microscopic coherent, incoherent and absorption neutron cross section, respectively. Not discussed are effects in special systems which can result in additional contrasts like phase shifts, Fraunhofer diffraction, total reflection or refraction at interfaces.

Furthermore, the efficiencies of camera and transmitter foil are not included in the discussion. For the transmitter foil it has to be taken into account that an amplification of the photons to neutron ratio, as obtained by using LiF , does not increase the contrast resolution.

2.1. Neutron Radiography

The basis of the contrast in a neutron radiograph is the Lambert-Beer law:

$$\frac{I(x,y)}{I_0(x,y)} = T(x,y) = \exp\left(-\sum_i \Sigma_i(x,y) s_i(x,y)\right) \quad (2)$$

$I(x,y)$ and $I_0(x,y)$ are the intensities counted at pixel x,y with and without sample, respectively, $T(x,y)$ is the transmission and s_i the neutron path length through the phase i . Fig. 4 gives the dependence of the neutron transmission on the precipitate size calculated with the cross sections given in Tab. 1 (The cross sections depend on the neutron spectrum used by the facility. The values are valid for ICON (PSI Villigen, ANTARES (MLZ Garching

and CONRAD (BENSIC Berlin) having similar cold neutron spectra (Grieche et al. 2016). The total hydrogen neutron cross section of BOA (PSI Villigen) is higher whereas for NEUTRA (PSI Villigen) using thermal neutrons is lower).

$I_0(x,y)$ can be replaced by

$$I_0(x,y) = \frac{\phi_0}{\left(\frac{L}{d}\right)^2} s_{pixel}^2 t \tag{3}$$

ϕ_0 is a virtual neutron flux estimated for $L/d = 1$, L the distance between aperture and detector, d the opening of the aperture slit, s_{pixel} the pixel size and t the time. To detect a small object by means of neutron imaging it is not only necessary that the detector resolution is smaller than the size of the object s_0

$$s_{pixel} < s_0 \tag{4}$$

The object has to give a contrast beyond the intensity noise caused by the counting statistic and the background intensity I_B

$$\Delta I > \frac{\sqrt{I + I_B}}{I - I_B} \tag{5}$$

Tab. 1 Total macroscopic neutron cross sections used for the analysis

Phase	$\Sigma_{total}, \text{cm}^{-1}$	reference
Zry-4	0.21	Grosse et al. 2008
ZrH ₂	5.80	
ZrN	0.814	Sears 1992
ZrO ₂	0.443	

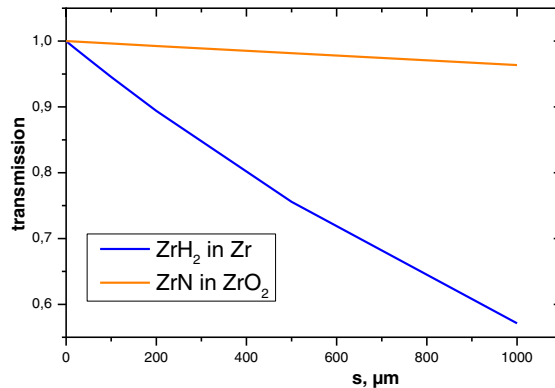


Fig. 4. Dependence of neutron transmission on the precipitate size.

For very small objects $I_O \approx I_M$ is valid (I_O is the pixel intensity at object position and I_M the pixel intensity of the matrix without object). From Eqs. (2) and (5) it can be derived

$$\frac{|I_O - I_M|}{I_M} = |T_O - 1| = |1 - \exp(-(\Sigma_O - \Sigma_M) s_0)| > \frac{\sqrt{I_M + I_B}}{I_M - I_B} \tag{6}$$

Neglecting the background intensity if $I_B \ll I_M$, the intensity needed to detect an object of size s_O is given by

$$I_M(x, y) = \frac{\phi_1}{(L/d)^2} \exp(-\Sigma_M s_M) s_{pixel}^2 t > \left(\frac{1}{1 - \exp(-(\Sigma_O - \Sigma_M) s_O)} \right)^2 \quad (7)$$

Fig. 5 plots the dependence of the counts needed to detect a single zirconium hydride in Zircaloy-4 and zirconium nitride in zirconium oxide, respectively, on the size of the precipitates. The beam divergence is sufficient to detect a small object if the condition

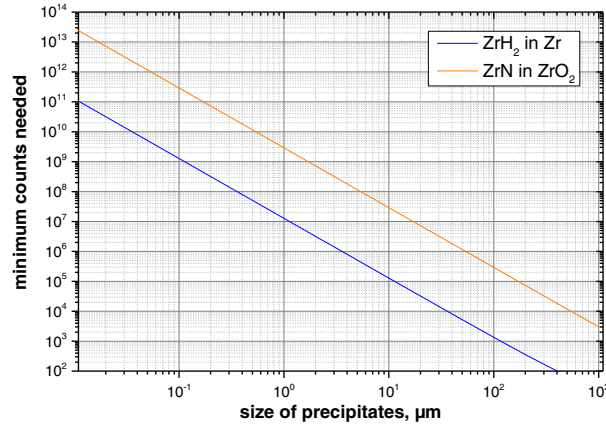


Fig. 5. Dependence of the counts needed to detect a precipitate on the precipitate size for ZrH₂ in Zry-4 and ZrN in ZrO₂, respectively.

$$L/d \geq l/s_O \quad (8)$$

is fulfilled with l as the distance between sample and neutron transmitter. A simplified relation between illumination time and pixel resolution can be derived from Eqs. (7) and (8) under the conditions that the pixel size should be half of the object size $s_{pixel} = s_O/2$, the intensity contrast should be double of intensity scattering due to the counting statistics $\Delta I = 2\sqrt{I}$, and small samples are applied with $\exp(-\Sigma_M s_M) \approx 1$:

$$\frac{\phi_1 s_O^4}{2 l^2} t = 2 \left(\frac{1}{1 - \exp(-(\Sigma_O - \Sigma_M) s_O)} \right)^2 \quad (9)$$

From this equation the illumination time needed to detect a single precipitate can be calculated by

$$t = \frac{4 l^2}{\phi_1 s_O^4 (1 - \exp(-(\Sigma_O - \Sigma_M) s_O))^2} \quad (10a)$$

As examples, the illumination time needed to detect a single ZrH₂ precipitate in Zry-4 and a single ZrN precipitate in ZrO₂ calculated for the CONRAD beamline at BENSFC on the basis of a distance between sample and transmitter of 1 mm is plotted in Fig. 6. From these calculations it can be concluded that the limit to detect a single particle at this beamline is about 40 μm for ZrH₂ in Zry-4 and about 150 μm for ZrN in ZrO₂.

The general relation between spatial, time, contrast and wavelength resolution can be described by Eq. (9) too:

$$\Delta t = \frac{4 l^2}{\phi_1 (\Delta\lambda, \lambda) s_O^4 (1 - \exp(-\Delta\Sigma s_O))^2} \quad (10b)$$

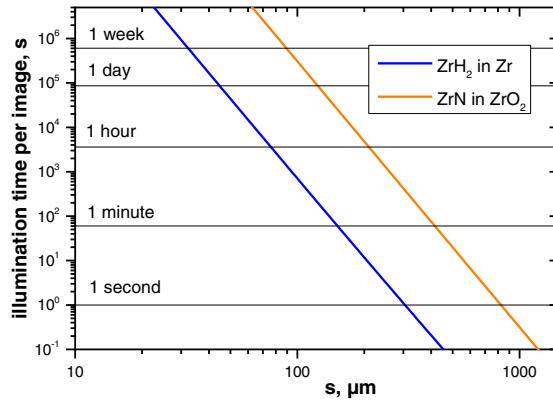


Fig. 6. Dependence of illumination time needed at CONRAD on the size of the object.

2.2. Neutron Tomography

The sampling theorem for tomography investigations gives the number of projections needed for a reconstruction without losing information.

$$N_{projections} = \frac{\pi R_{sample}}{2 s_{pixel}} \tag{11a}$$

with the number of projection needed $N_{projections}$ and R_{sample} as the ratio of the circle including the whole sample. The two parameters can be substituted as following: R_{sample} can be replaced by the half of the sample width $s_M/2$ and s_{pixel} by $s_O/2$ according the discussion above:

$$N_{projections} = \frac{\pi 2 s_M}{2 2 s_O} = \frac{\pi s_M}{2 s_O} \tag{11b}$$

It follows that the time needed for a tomography neglecting the time for positioning and readout is given by

$$t = \frac{\pi s_M}{2 s_O} \frac{4 l^2}{\phi_1 s_O^4 (1 - \exp(-(\Sigma_O - \Sigma_M) s_O))^2} = \frac{2 \pi s_M l^2}{\phi_1 s_O^5 (1 - \exp(-(\Sigma_O - \Sigma_M) s_O))^2} \tag{12}$$

Fig. 7 gives the size dependence of the time needed for a tomography for the two systems discussed.

Fulfilling the sampling theorem provides in principle the upper bound (the worst case scenario) for the time required for tomography. In this regard different noise reducing filter techniques like sinogram inpainting (Arcadu et al 2001), can be applied in order to reduce the time needed for tomography significantly. For future experimental confirmation of the determined resolution limits here the obtained images/datasets can be evaluated using Fourier ring/shell correlation technique. This technique is routinely used for assessment of spatial resolution of the images/3D datasets for number of various microscopic techniques (Mizutani et al.2016).

3. Discussion

This analysis is valid for facilities using pinhole geometry and for cubic or cube-like objects. Often rod- or disc-shaped objects extended in one or two dimensions, respectively, are of interest. Examples are for instance joining's between components or plane cracks. For cracks additional contrast can occur caused by refraction or total reflection

if the crack is oriented suitably. For such objects the dimension in neutron path direction determines the contrast between object and matrix.

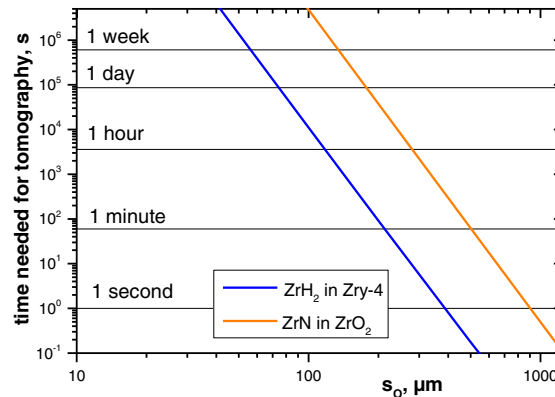


Fig. 7. Dependence of time needed for a tomography at CONRAD on the size of the object.

The application of neutron lenses can increase the intensity available by a factor up to 100 (Hussey et al. 2015) because no or at least less requirements of beam collimation is needed compared to the classical pinhole camera. The consequence is a reduction of the exponent of the object size s_0 in the correlation with illumination times needed given by Eq.(10a and b) by a factor of 2. However, even in setups using neutron lenses general estimations of the minimal object size have to be performed.

On the first glance the results presented in this analysis seem contradicting former own experiments with a nominal spatial resolution of about 25 μm . However, in these former neutron radiography measurements no single hydrides but the hydrogen concentration averaged over the whole neutron path length through the material (1.45 ... 5.4 mm depending on the sample position) was investigated. Thousands of zirconium hydride precipitates along the neutron path give the contrast needed to see it in the image.

The situation is different for neutron tomography investigations with voxel volumes of minimal 13.6 μm * 13.6 μm * 13.6 μm . In these tomography measurements the condition that values of hydride containing voxels should completely distinguished from voxel values without hydrides was not fulfilled. The scattering bands of both types overlapped. The human mind is able to recognize and divide sample pattern even if their scattering bands overlap by interpolation and closing of areas. Therefore, positions of hydride enrichments could be detected by these measurements at least in a scale of hundreds of microns. The problem of overlapping scattering bands become obviously when a computer based statistical data analysis was performed to quantify mean and maximal hydrogen concentrations depending on the axial cladding tube position (Muttini 2015). Here at first the voxels being in the sample has to be divided from voxels outside the sample. This was done by defining regions of interest using binary images. It was not possible to find threshold voxel values distinguishing sample inside and outside. Some voxels outside the sample has too high and some voxels inside the sample too low values. In order to determine the sample positions several binary operations like spot cleaning, multiple dilatation and erosion and median calculations has to be applied. However, these operations decrease the spatial resolution and objects with a size smaller than nine voxels could no longer be detected. Therefore, the nominal spatial resolution of 25 μm applied was a “blind” resolution, meaning that the real resolution achieved was not as good as the nominal resolution looks like. In later neutron tomography investigations of the hydrogen distribution in nuclear fuel cladding tubes a more realistic spatial resolution of 40 .. 80 μm was applied.

4. Conclusions

Resolution in neutron imaging is a multidimensional ellipsoid surface at which the different components can be varied. For pinhole camera setups the different dimensions of resolution are connected as following:

The time resolution Δt is proportional to

- the spatial resolution for radiography by $s_o^{-4} (1 - \exp(-\Delta\Sigma s_o))^{-2}$
and for tomography by $s_o^{-5} (1 - \exp(-\Delta\Sigma s_o))^{-2}$
- the wavelength resolution by $\phi_i(\Delta\lambda, \lambda)^{-1}$
- the contrast in the total macroscopic neutron cross section by $(1 - \exp(-\Delta\Sigma s_o))^{-2}$

For the discussed systems ZrH₂ in Zry-4 and ZrN in ZrO₂ the minimal object dimensions detectable by means of neutron radiography are about 40 μm and about 100 μm , respectively if a neutron source of the power of the BER reactor is applied. For neutron tomography the minimal dimensions are about 60 μm and about 150 μm , respectively, under these conditions. For systems with larger difference in the total macroscopic neutron cross sections like MgB₂ fibers in a nickel matrix (Trtik 2016b) or even black absorbers much smaller objects can be detected.

It has to be concluded that the behavior whether of a single zirconium nitrides in zirconium oxide neither of single zirconium hydrides in Zircaloy-4 can be studied yet by means of neutron imaging. For the higher resolutions needed for these investigations much stronger neutron sources with orders of magnitude higher neutron fluxes are needed.

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