

Evaluation of Neutron Light Output Response Functions in EJ-309 Organic Scintillators

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KEYWORDS

Organic scintillator, light output, neutron detection, quenching, MCNPX-PoliMi, detector characterization

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ABSTRACT

An accurate model of the nonlinear detector response of organic scintillators to neutrons is required to correctly simulate fast neutron detection, as well as interpret measured pulse height data. Several empirical and semi-empirical models are available to fit measured scintillator light output data. In this work, EJ-309 light output data from neutrons depositing 1.15 MeV to 5.15 MeV on hydrogen were analyzed using empirical models as well as semi-empirical models based on the work of Birks and Voltz. Although all tested models fit the experimental light output data well in the measured range, the models were observed to diverge in low-energy extrapolation. The models were then tested by comparing a measurement and MCNPX-PoliMi simulation of an EJ-309 detector response to fast neutrons from a ²⁵²Cf spontaneous fission source. The agreement between the measured and simulated pulse height distributions varied significantly depending on the light output model used. The best agreement between simulated and measured neutron pulse height distributions was achieved by using the Birks model. The bin-by-bin agreement was better than 5% over the range 0.08 to 2.18 MeVee, and better than 10% from 2.18 to 3.13 MeVee. The integral count rate over the range 0.08 to 3.14 MeVee differed by less than 1% in absolute units.

1.0 Introduction

The IAEA is interested in high-fidelity Monte Carlo modeling of detector technologies for international safeguards applications [1]. Several ongoing safeguards projects employ organic scintillators as fast neutron detectors, such as the Liquid-Scintillator Neutron Coincidence Collar (LS-NCC) [1], the Fast Neutron Multiplicity Counter (UM-FNMC) [2,3], radiation portal monitors (RPMs) [4,5], and the Dual Particle Imager (DPI) [6–8]. Organic scintillators are also frequently employed in a wide variety of applications including, but not limited to, nuclear physics [9], material characterization [6,3,10,2], imaging [6–8], and nuclear medicine [11,12].

49 In organic scintillators, interactions with hydrogen produce the majority of the neutron-
50 induced scintillation light; the amount of light produced is a nonlinear function of the energy
51 deposited. The light output function affects every neutron event in both Monte Carlo simulations
52 and the interpretation of experimental data. In experiments, it is used to convert collected light
53 (proportional to pulse height) to energy deposited, which is a key parameter in neutron
54 spectroscopy and imaging applications. In Monte Carlo simulations, the energy deposited by each
55 neutron interaction is known, and the light output function is used to simulate pulse heights. More
56 accurate light output functions would yield more accurate simulations of detector response, more
57 reliable simulated neutron efficiency, and improve the results obtained when using simulated
58 response matrices for spectrum unfolding. Ultimately, these improvements would benefit the
59 design of detection systems for inspections, treaty verification activities, nuclear material
60 accountancy, and other safeguards programs.

61 Careful measurements are required to generate the light output function. These
62 measurements usually result in a discrete set of data points relating energy deposition to light
63 output. To fill in gaps between data points, as well as to extrapolate to lower and higher energies,
64 these data are fitted using a variety of functional forms ranging from simple
65 polynomials[13],rationals of polynomials[13],power laws[14],and exponential functions[13,15]
66 to semi-empirical models such as those proposed by Birks and Voltz [16–19].

67 This paper demonstrates that the choice of functional form for the light output function for
68 neutron interactions on hydrogen profoundly impacts the accuracy of simulated pulse height
69 distributions (PHDs). The choice of neutron light output function also alters the calculation of
70 neutron detection energy thresholds, and has direct consequences on neutron unfolding, dosimetry,
71 and imaging results. In particular, this paper concerns the divergence of the various light output
72 models in extrapolation to low energies, and the corresponding effect on simulated pulse height
73 distributions.

74 We revisit the EJ-309 light output data of Enqvist and colleagues[13] and fit them to various
75 functional forms. We show that many forms can be chosen that give good fits to the measured light
76 output data points, but they diverge significantly from one another in extrapolation. We then use
77 the code MCNPX-PoliMi [20] to simulate EJ-309 detector response to neutrons from a ^{252}Cf
78 spontaneous fission source, and we use the post-processing code MPPost [21] to apply the different
79 light output functions to generate neutron PHDs. We compare the simulated PHDs to measured
80 data and conclude that the semi-empirical functional forms perform significantly better than the
81 commonly used empirical forms.

82 83 **2.0 Background**

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85 Kornilov and colleagues[22] showed that a rational function of polynomials could give a good
86 fit for a quick estimate, but for calculations demanding higher degrees of accuracy, more complex
87 equations were required. Kornilov and colleagues[22] and Enqvist and colleagues[13] made use of an
88 exponential functional form. The former also explored one of the semi-empirical functional forms,
89 based on Birks' Law, achieving better agreement with experimental data. All of these forms are
90 tested in this work, in addition to a relationship proposed by Voltz and colleagues[17–19]. Table 1
91 shows all of the functional forms that are examined in this work, where E is the neutron energy
92 deposited on hydrogen, and L is the light produced in the scintillator. The coefficients a , b , c are
93 computed in the fits.
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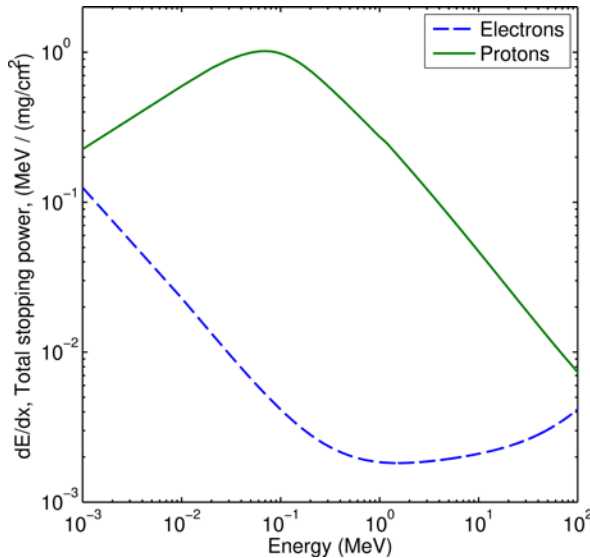
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Table 1. Neutron light output equations tested in this work.

“Polynomial”	$L(E) = aE^2 + bE + c$	(1)
“Rational”	$L(E) = \frac{aE^2}{E + b}$	(2)
“Power Law”	$L(E) = aE^b$	(3)
“Exponential”	$L(E) = aE - b[1 - \exp(-cE^d)]$	(4)
“Birks”	$L(E) = \int \frac{a}{1 + b(\frac{dE}{dx})} dE$	(5)
“Voltz”	$L(E) = a \int [(1 - c) \exp\left[-\frac{b(1 - c)dE}{dx}\right] + c] dE$	(6)

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The two semi-empirical functions are based on the concept of ionization quenching: a reduction in the amount of light produced versus that which would be produced by a gamma ray depositing equal energy to a recoil electron. In both models, quenching increases with increasing ionization density, which in turn increases with stopping power (dE/dx). Fig. 1 shows the stopping power of protons and electrons in EJ-309, as determined by the use of the SRIM software package [23,24] and the NIST ESTAR database [25], respectively. These are the stopping power values used throughout this work.



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Fig. 1. Total stopping power of electrons and protons in EJ-309 liquid scintillator, generated using the NIST ESTAR database [25] and the SRIM-2012 package[23,24], respectively .

The forms used in this work for Birks’ Law (Eq. 5) and Voltz’ equation (Eq. 6) are the integrals over energy of Eq. 3 and Eq. 6 in Brooks and colleagues’ review paper[17]. Because our work is far from relativistic energies, we introduce an approximation of Voltz’ model in which $F_s(c$ in Eq. 6) is fitted as a constant instead of a function of charge and energy as in Ahlen and colleagues[19].

122 **3.0 Light Output Fitting Methodology**
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124 We reconstructed light output data points as a function of energy deposited, $L(E)$, from a
 125 time-of flight measurement performed at the Edwards Accelerator Facility at Ohio University [13].
 126 The measurement was performed with a 12.7 cm thick x 12.7 cm diameter EJ-309 liquid scintillator
 127 detector coupled to a Photonics XP4512B photomultiplier tubes (PMT). The data were generated
 128 using a 10-meter flight path and neutrons were generated using the $^{27}\text{Al}(d,n)$ reaction resulting in a
 129 white source containing a wide range of energies. Time-of-flight was used to sort neutrons with
 130 energies from 1.15 to 5.15 MeV in 100 keV-wide bins. Because neutrons can deposit any fraction of
 131 their energy in each collision on hydrogen, it can be difficult to determine the pulse height
 132 corresponding to a single full-energy transfer; however, as will be seen later in this work, the light
 133 output function is concave in this energy range, meaning that a single scatter yields more light than
 134 any two smaller scatters depositing the same total energy. Following Kornilov[22], the binned
 135 PHDs were smoothed, differentiated, and a Gaussian was fitted to the rightmost peak of the
 136 derivative. The mean of the Gaussian was taken as the pulse height corresponding to a neutron
 137 scattering once on hydrogen and depositing all of its energy.

138 It should be noted that in this work, as in [13], the term ‘pulse height’ refers to the maximum
 139 of the digitized pulse, as opposed to the pulse integral. Pulse height is not always proportional to
 140 pulse integral, so it is not in general possible to easily translate between pulse height and pulse
 141 integral based light output functions. However, although the absolute values will vary, the
 142 methodology used here would also be applicable to pulse integral data.

143 Generation of the empirical fits was performed using the MATLAB Curve Fitting
 144 Toolbox[26]. Enqvist and colleagues fixed the exponent to 1.0, as did Takada[13,27]. Byrd and
 145 Urban[14] cite Madey[28], who determined an exponent of 0.9. To explore the range of behaviors
 146 associated with different exponents when using the exponential functional form (Eq.4), the
 147 variable d was fixed to discrete values ranging from 0.9 to 1.1.

148 In order to fit coefficients for the semi-empirical models, the integrals in Eqs. 5 and 6 were
 149 evaluated numerically using the trapezoidal rule. The resulting sets of ordered pairs of energy and
 150 light output could then be interpolated to determine the light output (MeVee) corresponding to the
 151 measured data points’ energy (MeV) values. The curve fitting toolbox was used to vary the
 152 coefficients and compare the light output to the measured values using a nonlinear least squares
 153 algorithm.

154 All of the fitted light output equations are displayed in Table 2; a subset of the fits is
 155 displayed in Fig.2. The fit from Enqvist and colleagues [13] is shown for reference.

156
 157 **Table 2.** 12.7 cm thick x 12.7 cm diameter EJ-309 detector neutron light output model coefficients
 158 and goodness of fit values. Italics indicate coefficients that were fixed during the fitting process.
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Form	a	b	c	d	SSE	R ²	RMSE	ID
Exponential	<i>0.748</i>	2.41	<i>0.298</i>	<i>1.000</i>	0.0037	0.9998	0.0096	Exponential1*
	0.944	6.25	0.144	<i>0.900</i>	0.0028	0.9998	0.0087	Exponential2
	0.782	2.98	0.251	<i>0.950</i>	0.0024	0.9998	0.0080	Exponential3
	0.634	1.45	0.427	<i>1.050</i>	0.0028	0.9998	0.0086	Exponential4
	0.605	1.24	0.477	<i>1.100</i>	0.0031	0.9997	0.0091	Exponential5
Rational	0.7836	5.523			0.0026	0.9998	0.0082	Rational6
Polynomial	0.03937	0.2062	-0.1454		0.0031	0.9997	0.0090	Polynomial7
Birks	2.277	33.84			0.0062	0.9995	0.0126	Birks8
	<i>1</i>	11.12			0.0635	0.9947	0.0398	Birks9
Voltz	0.9134	6.854	0.07178		0.0026	0.9998	0.0083	Voltz10

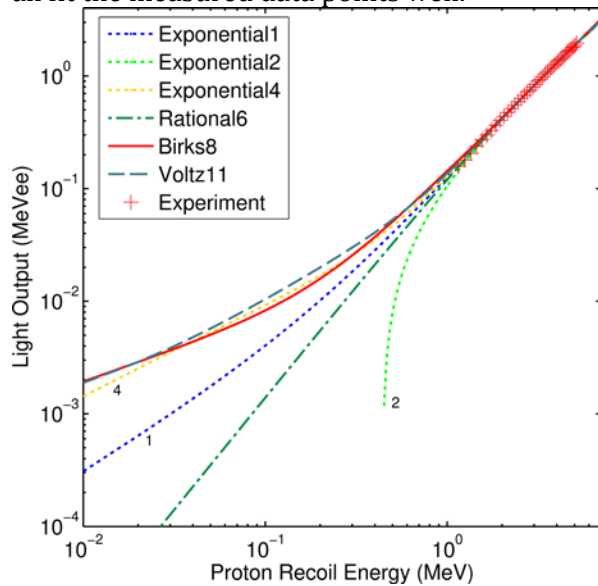
	<i>l</i>	8.345	0.09375		0.0033	0.9997	0.0093	Voltz11
Power Law	0.1387	1.618			0.0055	0.9995	0.0119	Power**

160 * Fit from [13].

161 **Power Law fit was not used during post-processing using MPPost of MCNPX-PoliMi simulations.

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163 From examination of Table 2, it is apparent that most of the models give “good” fits to the
 164 data points (high R^2 , low SSE). It would be difficult to choose the best parameterization in a non-
 165 arbitrary way based on these metrics. Fig. 2 shows the measured light output data and six of the
 166 models on a log-log scale covering proton recoil energies from 10 keV to 7 MeV. It is clear that
 167 different models shown diverge significantly from one another, especially at low energy, while they
 168 all fit the measured data points well.



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171 **Fig. 2.** Log-log plot showing the measured light output data points for the 12.7 cm thick by 12.7 cm
 172 diameter EJ-309 detector as well as a subset of the various fits extrapolated from 0.01 to 7 MeV
 173 proton recoil energy. For legibility, not all fits tested are plotted. The fits shown were selected to
 174 illustrate the divergent behavior at low energy.

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176 Further, the extrapolations of the exponential functional form are sensitive to the value of
 177 variable d . The later sections of this paper show that an exponent greater than 1 is required to give
 178 the best results at low energies; a possible explanation for this based on the behavior of the proton
 179 stopping power will be discussed in Section 5.0.

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181 In light of the many options available, choosing a model is challenging. An independent way
 182 to test and validate, or at least inform, the choice of model is required. The nonlinear nature of the
 183 light output requires consideration of each individual neutron scatter event in the detector. For our
 184 work we used the Monte Carlo code, MCNPX-PoliMi [20]. Each energy deposition was converted to
 185 light using an enhanced version of the post-processing code MPPost [21] that allows the use of the
 186 Birks and Voltz models.

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187 4.0 Validation Measurement Methodology

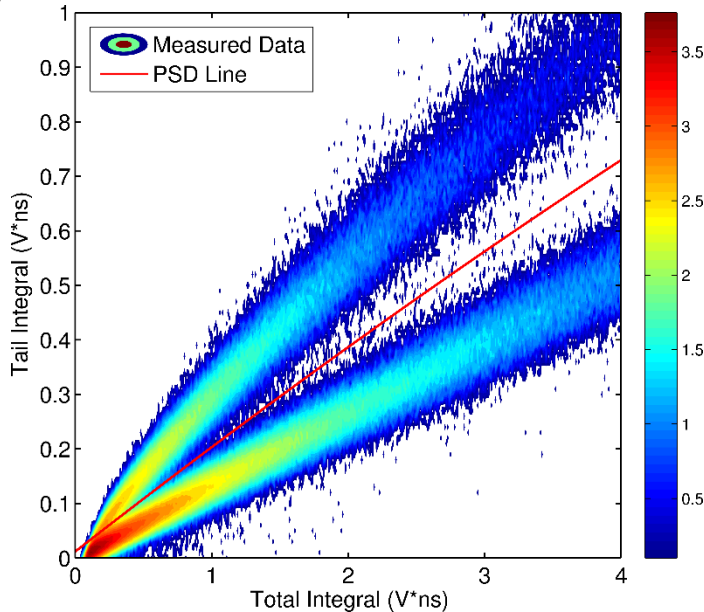
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189 In order to test light output coefficients, a validation measurement using a well-known source
 190 was conducted as a baseline. We measured spontaneous fission neutrons from a recently
 191 manufactured ^{252}Cf source, calibrated by the vendor with a 5% tolerance. At the time of the

192 measurement, the source strength was calculated to be 5.44 mCi, with aspontaneous fission rate of
193 6.23×10^6 fissions/s and a corresponding neutron emission rate of 2.34×10^7 neutrons/s. The
194 uncertainty on these values is estimated to be 5%.

195 The same 12.7cm thick x 12.7 cm diameter cylindrical EJ-309 liquid detector coupled to a
196 Photonics XP4512B PMT that was used for the $L(E)$ measurement was used to measure the ^{252}Cf
197 source. The detector was placed at a distance of 116.4cm from the source. A 7.62cm thick x 7.62cm
198 diameter cylindrical EJ-309 liquid detector coupled to a ET-Enterprises 9821B PMT was also used
199 and placed 112.7cm from the source.

200 The voltage output was measured from the anode of the PMT and digitized using a CAEN
201 DT5720 12-bit 250-MHz waveform digitizer. Neutron and photon pulses were discriminated using
202 the charge-integration method[29], in which the integrals of two different time windows
203 corresponding to the “tail” and the “total” pulse are compared. Fig.3shows a log-scale histogram of
204 a subset of the measured data plotted with the tail integral versus the total integral. The upper
205 distribution means the pulse had a larger “tail” component than in the lower distribution, so the
206 upper distribution corresponds to neutron pulses and the lower corresponds to photon pulses. For
207 this work we utilized the software tool, SlicePSD[30] to generate the discrimination line in a robust
208 and repeatable way. The SlicePSD generated discrimination line is displayed as the red line on
209 Fig.3.

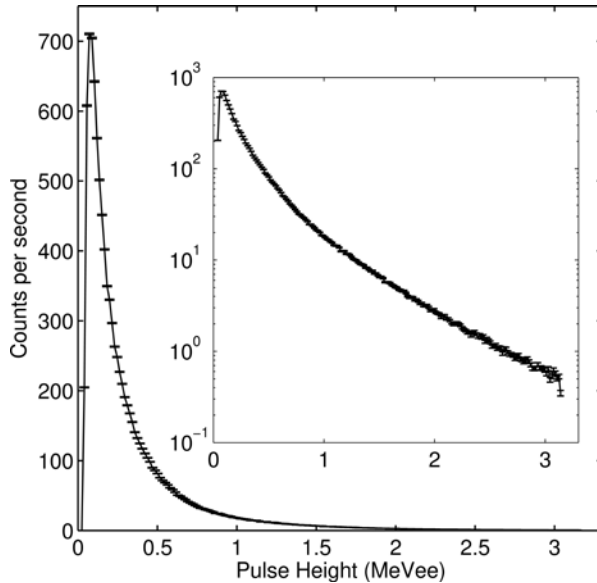


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211 **Fig.3.** Log₁₀ scale histogram of ^{252}Cf pulses measured using the 12.7 cm thick x 12.7 cm diameter EJ-
212 309 detector. The ordinate shows the integral of the “tail” of the pulses, while the abscissa shows
213 the “total” integral of the pulses. The upper band corresponds to neutron pulses while the lower
214 band corresponds to photon pulses. The discrimination line is shown in red.

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216 The lower threshold was set to 0.02 V, which corresponded to approximately 32 keVee. The
217 upper threshold was approximately 3.15 MeVee, due to the 2-V dynamic range of the digitizer.

218 The measured neutron PHD is shown in Fig.4. The error bars shown are from counting
219 statistics, corresponding to one standard deviation. The peak in the distribution is at ~ 0.08 MeVee
220 – below that pulse height, particle misclassification is more prevalent. The pulse shape
221 discrimination (PSD) line was chosen to capture as many true neutrons as possible while avoiding
222 the densest part of the gamma ray distribution to avoid excessive gamma ray misclassification
223 (false positive neutrons). This line results in reduced neutron efficiency in this pulse height region,

224 but greater confidence that the pulses selected were true neutrons rather than misclassified gamma
 225 rays.



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 227 **Fig. 4.** Measured ²⁵²Cf neutron pulse height distribution. Error bars shown are based on counting
 228 statistics and correspond to one standard deviation. The inset shows the same data on a semi-log
 229 scale. The detector size is 12.7 cm thick x 12.7 cm diameter.

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 231 **5.0 MCNPX-PoliMi Simulation and MPPost Post-Processing: Results for 12.7 cm x 12.7 cm Detector**
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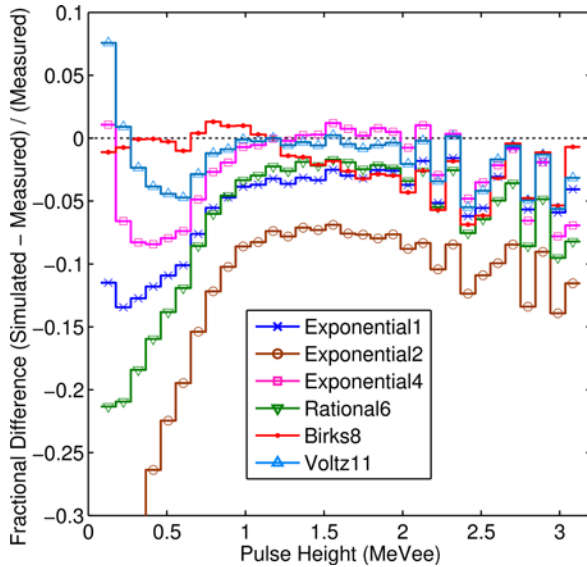
233 A simplified model of the detector was created in MCNPX-PoliMi. PoliMi’s built-in ²⁵²Cf
 234 source was used, and energy depositing events were recorded in the cylindrical detector cell.
 235 MCNPX-PoliMi outputs a data file that tracks particle collisions, allowing the proper nonlinear light
 236 output to be generated due to multiple neutron events in the same history. For example, in the 12.7
 237 cm x 12.7 cm detector, 68% of simulated neutron events had at least two hydrogen scatters in the
 238 first three interactions. These data highlight the importance of treating the nonlinear light output
 239 correctly.

240 An enhanced version of MPPost was used to post-process the data files and generate PHDs.
 241 The modifications allowed the use of the Birks and Voltz light output equations in addition to the
 242 pre-existing polynomial, rational, and exponential forms. Gaussian resolution broadening was
 243 applied using the following relationship

$$\frac{\Delta E}{E} = \sqrt{\alpha^2 + \frac{\beta^2}{E} + \left(\frac{\gamma}{E}\right)^2} \quad (7)$$

244 with $\alpha = 0.102$, $\beta = 0.102$, and $\gamma = 0.036$ [13].

245 Fig.5 shows the fractional error of simulated PHDs using the light output relationships in
 246 Table 2 as compared to measured data. Substantial variation in simulated PHDs occurs when the
 247 different fits are employed. In order to enhance the ability to determine the best agreement
 248 between simulated and measured PHDs, fractional difference plots were generated. These plots
 249 show the quantity $(S-M)/M$ in each bin, where S is the simulated number of counts and M is the
 250 measured number of counts.
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 253 **Fig.5.** Fractional error of simulated pulse height distributions for a selection of the tested light
 254 output functions. The best overall results were obtained using Birks8.
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256 The exponential functional form with d equal to 1.05 (Exponential4) results in the best
 257 agreement of the tested exponential models, but still has a tendency to under-predict the count rate
 258 at lower pulse heights. Birks8 performs the best over the full range of energies and pulse heights
 259 considered here. Using Birks8, we achieved better than 5% bin-by-bin agreement between
 260 simulated and measured PHDs over the range 0.08 to 2.18 MeVee, and better than 10% bin-by-bin
 261 agreement between 2.18 and 3.13 MeVee.

262 The simulated pulse height distribution with Exponential2 (d equal to 0.9) significantly
 263 under-predicts the measured pulse height distribution over the full range. These results
 264 demonstrate that the low-energy behavior of the light output fit affects the whole pulse height
 265 distribution, even when the fit and the $L(E)$ data points agree well in their energy range. The
 266 Exponential2 model has a rapid dropoff in light output below the fitted range, which results in two
 267 main effects: an increased minimum neutron energy deposition to exceed the threshold, and,
 268 importantly, a reduction in the total light produced for many neutron pulses due to multiple scatter
 269 events. The reduction in light from the secondary scatters in multiple scatter events accounts for
 270 the underprediction of the simulation at pulse heights higher than ~ 1 MeVee, even though the fit in
 271 Fig. 2 agrees well in that range.

272 We also compared the simulated total counts from 0.08 to 3.13 MeVee to the experimental
 273 data. The results are presented in Table 3. The total counts agree within 1% using the Birks8
 274 model, while the previous Exponential1 model differs by 11%. Below 0.08 MeVee, the simulated
 275 PHD exceeds the measured PHD due to particle misclassification in the measurement.
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277 **Table 3.** Comparison of simulated (ΣS) and measured (ΣM) total counts from 0.08 to 3.13 MeVee
 278 for the 12.7 cm x 12.7 cm detector.

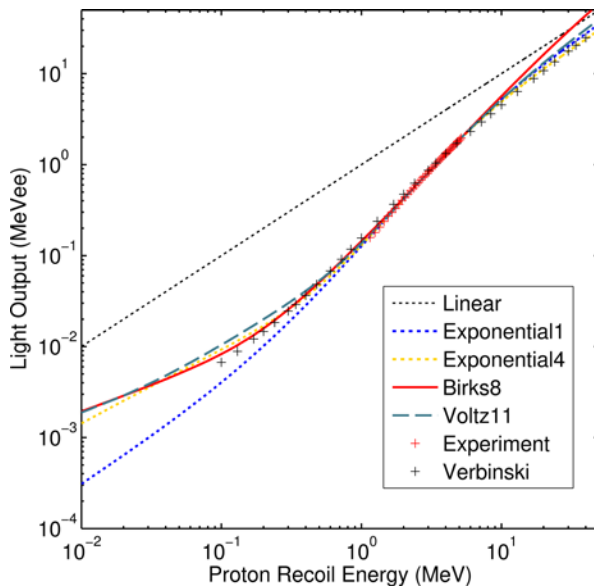
Model	$\frac{\Sigma S - \Sigma M}{\Sigma M}$
Exponential1	-11.0%
Exponential2	-33.6%
Exponential4	-3.5%
Rational6	-17.4%
Birks8	-0.7%

Voltz11	+1.8%
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Fig.6 reprises Fig.2 but adds data from the classic reference for neutron light output on protons, carbon, and alphas, Verbinski and colleagues [31], and expands the high-energy extrapolation to 50 MeV. The Birks fit (Birks8) can be seen at higher energies to approach and then exceed the line $L(E)=E$, which is not physical. The best Voltz fit (Voltz11) and the best exponential fit (Exponential4) both behave more plausibly in the high energy extrapolation. In order to explore that region more fully, a similar experiment and simulation validation would need to be conducted at high energies.

There are significant differences between the detectors and measurement techniques used in this work and the ones from Verbinski's, so the Verbinski data are not expected to perfectly agree with our data. However, it can be seen that these fits follow the general S-shape of the Verbinski data on log-log axes. This shape is inferred to be characteristic of proton light output in organic scintillators. The proton stopping power in EJ-309 liquid scintillator reaches a peak at 0.07 MeV. Below 0.07 MeV, the stopping power and thus quenching, is reduced, so the maximum quenching occurs near 0.07 MeV, causing an inflection point in the light output. In the case of Birks and Voltz, the stopping power is used directly, so this effect is captured. In the case of the exponential, this reduction in very low energy quenching could explain the better agreement achieved by setting the exponent d greater than 1.



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Fig.6. Log-log plot showing the measured light output data points for the 12.7 cm thick by 12.7 cm diameter EJ-309 detector as well as the various fits extrapolated from 0.01 to 7 MeV proton recoil energy. Additionally, the NE-213 neutron light output data from Verbinski is shown. [31]

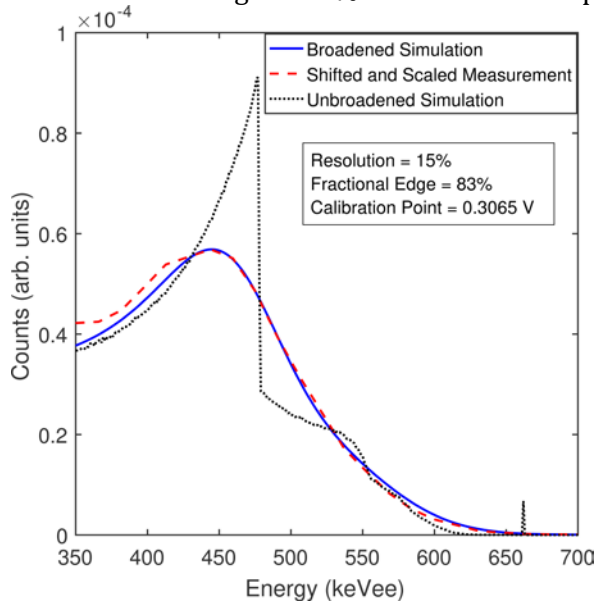
5.1 Results for 7.62 cm x 7.62 cm EJ-309 Detector

We also reexamined the neutron light output data from Enqvist and colleagues [13] for the 7.62 cm x 7.62 cm detector, but used an updated energy deposition calibration point. We used the following calibration method for all of the data presented in this work, but the effects of miscalibration are most clearly demonstrated by the 7.62 cm x 7.62 cm data, so we present it here.

We determined that the Cs-137 Compton edge calibration point used to generate the fit in [13] was 0.290 V, corresponding to 478 keVee. To check that calibration point, we used a method similar to that of [32]; we simulated an unbroadened PHD due to Cs-137 gamma-ray interactions in

312 the detector, applied varying resolution functions, and scaled and matched the measured PHD to
313 the simulation to determine the appropriate calibration point.

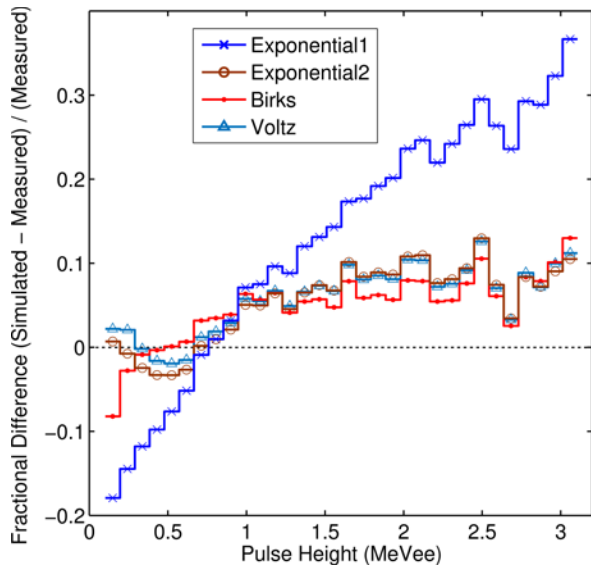
314 Fig. 7 shows the new calibration point determined using this method. The black dotted line
315 shows the simulated pulse height distribution due to Cs-137, with no resolution broadening
316 applied. The Compton edge is located at the straight vertical line. After applying resolution
317 broadening, the fractional edge of the broadened peak corresponding to the Compton edge could be
318 determined by finding the intersection of the vertical line and the broadened distribution. This
319 fractional edge value was then applied to the measured pulse height distribution, and the
320 distributions scaled to match the peak heights. This process was iterated over a variety of
321 resolution functions and the best agreement was chosen by visual inspection; in future work an
322 automated test of agreement can be used. A resolution function with a value of 15% at 478 keV
323 resulted in a fractional edge of 83% and a calibration point of 0.3065 V.



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325 **Fig. 7.** The calibration point for the 7.62 cm x 7.62 cm EJ-309 detector used in the $L(E)$
326 measurement. The black dotted line shows the simulated pulse height distribution due to Cs-137
327 662 keV gamma rays in the detector, without resolution broadening. The solid blue line and dashed
328 red line show the broadened simulation and calibrated measured pulse height distributions.

329
330 The new calibration point resulted in a reduction of 5.7% of the light output for each
331 energy-light output pair compared to [13]. The new light output data points were fitted to the
332 exponential, Birks, and Voltz models. The coefficients for the resultant fits are listed in Table 4. The
333 fractional differences between the validation measurement of ^{252}Cf neutrons and the simulated PHD
334 are shown in Fig. 8. The agreement using any of these fits is a significant improvement over the
335 function in [13] (Exponential1). The integrated counts from 0.09 to 3.2 MeVee agreed to within
336 3.5% using Birks8, 2% using Voltz11, and within less than 1% using Exponential2 ($d=1.05$), while
337 the previous exponential fit, Exponential1, differed by 13%. The fractional difference curves of Fig.
338 8 are not as “flat” as the ones shown in Fig. 5 for the 12.7 cm by 12.7 cm detector. The slight
339 remaining slope in Fig. 8 could be due to detector-specific variation (the detector used for the
340 validation was the same type as the one used to measure the light output, but not the identical
341 detector) or to an unknown systematic error in the original experimental data.

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343
 344 **Fig. 8.** Fractional error of simulated pulse height distributions for a selection of the tested light
 345 output functions. The detector size is 7.62 cm thick x 7.62 cm diameter.

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 347 **Table 4.** Light output model coefficients for the 7.62 cm thick x 7.62 cm diameter EJ-309 detector.
 348 Italics indicate coefficients that were fixed during the fitting process.

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Form	a	b	c	d	SSE	R ²	RMSE	ID
Exponential	<i>0.817</i>	<i>2.63</i>	<i>0.297</i>	<i>1.000</i>	0.1694	0.9694	0.0764	Exponential1*
	0.668	1.63	0.387	1.050	0.0040	0.9993	0.0121	Exponential2
Birks	1.903	26.03			0.0043	0.9992	0.0124	Birks
Voltz	1	8.447	0.1072		0.0039	0.9993	0.0183	Voltz

350 *Fit from [13].

351
 352 **Table 5.** Comparison of simulated (ΣS) and measured (ΣM) total counts from 0.08 to 3.13 MeVee
 353 for the 7.62 cm x 7.62 cm detector.

Model	$\frac{\Sigma S - \Sigma M}{\Sigma M}$
Exponential1	-11.7%
Exponential2	-0.2%
Birks	-3.3%
Voltz	+1.6%

354
 355 **6.0 Discussion**

356
 357 It is necessary to use a light output model that is robust in extrapolation to low energies.
 358 Typically, accurate light output measurements at low energies become difficult due to accelerator,
 359 source, or geometric constraints, imposing an effective threshold. Creative experiment design can
 360 alleviate some of these issues, and indeed there is a need for robust measurement of the light
 361 output from neutrons depositing low amounts of energy. In any event, if one chooses a model that
 362 is physics-based and realistic, one can be more confident in extrapolation to energies below the
 363 measured light output data points.

364 We performed a comprehensive study of a variety of possible scintillator light output models.
365 Our results add to the body of work supporting the theory that light output quenching is
366 proportional to stopping power. Both of the semi-empirical models we tested account for this effect.
367 The stopping power data are readily available in the SRIM package. Once the initial integration
368 functions are established, the semi-empirical forms are not difficult to use. The lookup table of $L(E)$
369 that is generated can be used in both directions.

370 An advantage of the semi-empirical forms is that some of the coefficients are material
371 dependent, while others are expected to be detector and calibration dependent. It may be the case
372 that the same parameterization can be used for multiple detectors of the same type, and it may
373 further be possible to adjust for detector-to-detector variations in a logical way by adjusting only
374 the detector-dependent parameters.

375 The determination of the MeVee/MeV calibration scale is of great importance in this type of
376 work. A difference as small as 0.01V in the identified Compton edge location can significantly
377 change the “steepness” of the light output curve, affecting the fitted coefficients and in turn the
378 simulated PHDs and other derived parameters. The best effort to calibrate to the true Compton
379 edge, accounting for detector resolution and multiple scatters, must be made. Uncertainties in this
380 area can be mitigated by ensuring that the calibration method used for the generation of the light
381 output curve is the same as that used for the validation measurement, but it is clearly preferable
382 that the calibration point be as close as possible to the “true” Compton edge pulse height.

383 We suspect that some difficulties previously encountered with neutron unfolding on the basis
384 of simulated response matrices may be ameliorated by the use of more accurate light output
385 models. The light output changes the effective thresholds and strongly influences energy-
386 dependent efficiency, which is a key parameter in unfolding algorithms.

387 In general, researchers should make every effort to obtain the best possible light output data for
388 their specific detectors, generate fits using the semi-empirical forms, and test their results using a
389 Monte Carlo code such as MCNPX-PoliMi (available through RSICC). If measuring the light output
390 directly is not an option, caution must be utilized when applying light output functions and
391 coefficients generated by other researchers—even a small difference in calibration or measurement
392 technique can cause significant deviations. While the entire process is highly sensitive, we have
393 shown that if great care is taken, excellent agreement between simulation and measurement can be
394 obtained.

395 396 **7.0 Summary and Conclusions**

397
398 The neutron light output data of Enqvist and colleagues [13] were analyzed with a variety of
399 light output equations. The extrapolations of these equations were shown to diverge widely,
400 especially at low energy. A measurement of neutrons from a ^{252}Cf source and simulation of the same
401 were validated against each other, utilizing the various equations. The best equations resulted in
402 the best agreement between simulation and measurement. We achieved better than 5% bin-by-bin
403 agreement between simulated and measured PHDs over the range 0.08 to 2.18 MeVee, and better
404 than 10% agreement between 2.18 and 3.13 MeVee. The integrated counts from above 0.08 MeVee
405 agree within 1% using the Birks8 model, while the previous Exponential1 model differed by 11%.
406 Below 0.08 MeVee, the simulated PHD exceeds the measured PHD due to particle misclassification
407 in the measurement.

408 We have demonstrated that the choice of model to represent the neutron light output from
409 organic scintillators as a function of energy deposited is a critical step in detector characterization.
410 A wide variety of models can be chosen from the literature, and most allow good fits to measured
411 light output data. It is not possible, therefore, to select among them only on the basis of fit quality.
412 A good fit to the data is necessary, but not sufficient.

413 Extrapolation to lower energies is particularly sensitive to the functional form used. Low-
414 energy collisions cannot be neglected because neutrons can undergo multiple scatters in organic
415 scintillators; multiple sub-threshold scatters can generate an amount of light that exceeds the
416 threshold, and sub-threshold scatters can be present in larger pulses as well. The summation is
417 nonlinear and the result depends strongly on the light output model used.

418 Therefore, the use of a detector response code to thoroughly test the selected model and
419 fitted coefficients is beneficial. MCNPX-PoliMi and MPPost have been shown to be effective codes
420 for this purpose, in conjunction with validation experiments using a neutron source with a well-
421 known energy spectrum and emission rate, such as a recently-calibrated ^{252}Cf spontaneous fission
422 source.

423 The semi-empirical light output equations proposed by Birks and Voltz are grounded in
424 theory and make use of stopping power data to model quenching. The stopping power dependence
425 enables fitting of coefficients at light outputs where the data are easier to obtain and/or more
426 reliable and guides extrapolation to low energies with greater confidence than that provided by the
427 more arbitrary parameterizations. We have shown that the Birks model works particularly well for
428 EJ-309 liquid scintillation detectors of two different sizes (right cylindrical cells, 12.7 cm x 12.7 cm
429 and 7.62 cm x 7.62 cm), and achieved excellent agreement between our simulated and measured
430 ^{252}Cf neutron pulse height distributions.

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