PARTICLE DETECTORS

To reduce the size of this section's PostScript file, we have divided it into three PostScript files. We present the following index:

PART 1

PART 2

PART 3

25. PARTICLE DETECTORS

Revised 1997 (see the various sections for authors).

In this section we give various parameters for common detector components. The quoted numbers are usually based on typical devices, and should be regarded only as rough approximations for new designs. A more detailed discussion of detectors can be found in Ref. 1. In Table 25.1 are given typical spatial and temporal resolutions of common detectors.

Table 25.1: Typical detector characteristics.

Detector Type	Accuracy (rms)	Resolution Time	Dead Time
Bubble chamber	10 to 150 μm	1 ms	50 ms[a]
Streamer chamber	300 μm	2 μs	100 ms
Proportional chamber	$\geq$ 300 μm[b,c]	50 ns	200 ns
Drift chamber	50 to 300 μm	2 ns[d]	100 ns
Scintillator	—	150 ps	10 ns
Emulsion	1 μm	—	—
Silicon strip	$\frac{\text{pitch}}{3\text{ to }7}$[e]	[f]	[f]
Silicon pixel	2 μm[g]	[f]	[f]

[a] Multiple pulsing time.

[b] 300 μm is for 1 mm pitch.

[c] Delay line cathode readout can give ±150 μm parallel to anode wire.

[d] For two chambers.

[e] The highest resolution ("7") is obtained for small-pitch detectors ($\lesssim 25$ μm) with pulse-height-weighted center finding.

[f] Limited at present by properties of the readout electronics. (Time resolution of ≤ 15 ns is planned for the SDC silicon tracker.)

[g] Analog readout of 34 μm pitch, monolithic pixel detectors.

25.1. Organic scintillators

Written October 1995 by K. Johnson (FSU).

Organic scintillators are broadly classed into three types, crystalline, liquid, and plastic, all of which utilize the ionization produced by charged particles (see the section on "Passage of particles through matter" (Sec. 23.2) of this *Review*) to generate optical photons, usually in the blue to green wavelength regions [2]. Plastic scintillators are by far the most widely used and we address them primarily; however, most of the discussion will also have validity for liquid scintillators with obvious caveats. Crystal organic scintillators are practically unused in high-energy physics.

Densities range from 1.03 to 1.20 g cm^{-3}. Typical photon yields are about 1 photon per 100 eV of energy deposit [3]. A one-cm-thick scintillator traversed by a minimum-ionizing particle will therefore yield $\approx 2 \times 10^4$ photons. The resulting photoelectron signal will depend on the collection and transport efficiency of the optical package and the quantum efficiency of the photodetector.

Plastic scintillators do not respond linearly to the ionization density. Very dense ionization columns emit less light than expected on the basis of dE/dx for minimum-ionizing particles. A widely used semi-empirical model by Birks posits that recombination and quenching effects between the excited molecules reduce the light yield [9]. These effects are more pronounced the greater the density of the excited molecules. Birks' formula is

$$\frac{d\mathscr{L}}{dx} = \mathscr{L}_0 \frac{dE/dx}{1 + k_B\, dE/dx} \ , \tag{25.1}$$

where $\mathscr{L}$ is the luminescence, $\mathscr{L}_0$ is the luminescence at low specific ionization density, and k_B is Birks' constant, which must be determined for each scintillator by measurement.

Decay times are in the ns range; risetimes are much faster. The combination of high light yield and fast response time allows the possibility of sub-ns timing resolution [4]. The fraction of light emitted during the decay "tail" can depend on the exciting particle. This allows pulse shape discrimination as a technique to carry out particle identification. Because of the hydrogen content (carbon to hydrogen ratio ≈ 1) plastic scintillator is sensitive to proton recoils from neutrons. Ease of fabrication into desired shapes and low cost has made plastic scintillators a common detector component. Recently, plastic scintillators in the form of scintillating fibers have found widespread use in tracking and calorimetry [5].

25.1.1. *Scintillation mechanism* :

Scintillation: A charged particle traversing matter leaves behind it a wake of excited molecules. Certain types of molecules, however, will release a small fraction ($\approx 3\%$) of this energy as optical photons. This process, scintillation, is especially marked in those organic substances which contain aromatic rings, such as polystyrene, polyvinyltoluene, and napthalene. Liquids which scintillate include toluene and xylene.

Fluorescence: In fluorescence, the initial excitation takes place via the absorption of a photon, and de-excitation by emission of a longer wavelength photon. Fluors are used as "waveshifters" to shift scintillation light to a more convenient wavelength. Occurring in complex molecules, the absorption and emission are spread out over a wide band of photon energies, and have some overlap, that is, there is some fraction of the emitted light which can be re-absorbed [6]. This "self-absorption" is undesirable for detector applications because it causes a shortened attenuation length. The wavelength difference between the major absorption and emission peaks is called the Stokes' shift. It is usually the case that the greater the Stokes' shift, the smaller the self absorption—thus, a large Stokes' shift is a desirable property for a fluor.

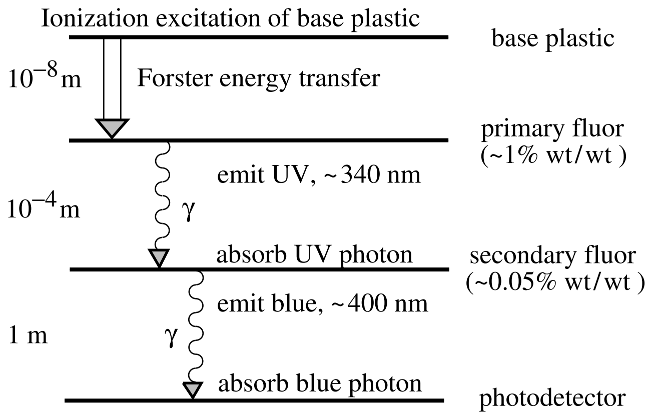

Figure 25.1: Cartoon of scintillation "ladder" depicting the operating mechanism of plastic scintillator. Approximate fluor concentrations and energy transfer distances for the separate sub-processes are shown.

Scintillators: The plastic scintillators used in high-energy physics are binary or ternary solutions of selected fluors in a plastic base containing aromatic rings. (See the appendix in Ref. 7 for a comprehensive list of plastic scintillator components.) Virtually all plastic scintillators contain as a base either polyvinyltoluene, polystyrene, or acrylic, whereby polyvinyltoluene-based scintillator can be up to 50% brighter than the others. Acrylic is non-aromatic and has therefore a very low scintillation efficiency. It becomes an acceptable scintillator when napthalene, a highly aromatic compound, is dissolved into the acrylic at 5% to 20% weight fraction. Thus, in "acrylic" scintillator the active component is napthalene. The fluors must satisfy additional conditions besides being fluorescent. They must be sufficiently stable, soluble, chemically inert, fast, radiation tolerant, and efficient.

The plastic base is the ionization-sensitive (*i.e.*, the scintillator) portion of the plastic scintillator (see Fig. 25.1). In the absence of fluors the base would emit UV photons with short attenuation length (several mm). Longer attenuation lengths are obtained by dissolving a "primary" fluor in high concentration (1% by weight) into the base, which is selected to efficiently reradiate absorbed energy at wavelengths where the base is more transparent.

The primary fluor has a second important function. The decay time of the scintillator base material can be quite long—in pure polystyrene it is 16 ns, for example. The addition of the primary fluor in high concentration can shorten the decay time by an order of magnitude and increase the total light yield. At the concentrations used (1% and greater), the average distance between a fluor molecule and an excited base unit is around 100 Å, much less than a wavelength of light. At these distances the predominant mode of energy transfer from base to fluor is not the radiation of a photon, but a resonant dipole-dipole interaction, first described by Foerster, which strongly couples the base and fluor [8]. The strong coupling sharply increases the speed and the light yield of the plastic scintillators.

Unfortunately, a fluor which fulfills other requirements is usually not completely adequate with respect to emission wavelength or attenuation length, so it is necessary to add yet another waveshifter (the "secondary" fluor), at fractional percent levels, and ocassionally a third (not shown in Fig. 25.1).

External wavelength shifters: Light emitted from a plastic scintillator may be absorbed in a (nonscintillating) base doped with a waveshifting fluor. Such wavelength shifters are widely used to aid light collection in complex geometries. The wavelength shifter must be insensitive to ionizing radiation and Čerenkov light. A typical wavelength shifter uses an acrylic base (without napthalene!) because of its good optical qualities, a single fluor to shift the light emerging from the plastic scintillator to the blue-green, and contains ultra-violet absorbing additives to deaden response to Čerenkov light.

25.1.2. ***Caveats and cautions***: Plastic scintillators are reliable, robust, and convenient. However, they possess quirks to which the experimenter must be alert.

Aging and Handling: Plastic scintillators are subject to aging which diminishes the light yield. Exposure to solvent vapors, high temperatures, mechanical flexing, irradiation, or rough handling will aggravate the process. A particularly fragile region is the surface which can "craze"—develop microcracks—which rapidly destroy the capability of plastic scintillators to transmit light by total internal reflection. Crazing is particularly likely where oils, solvents, or *fingerprints* have contacted the surface.

Attenuation length: The Stokes' shift is not the only factor determining attenuation length. Others are the concentration of fluors (the higher the concentration of a fluor, the greater will be its self-absorption); the optical clarity and uniformity of the bulk material; the quality of the surface; and absorption by additives, such as stabilizers, which may be present.

Afterglow: Plastic scintillators have a long-lived luminescence which does not follow a simple exponential decay. Intensities at the 10^{-4} level of the initial fluorescence can persist for hundreds of ns [10].

Atmospheric quenching: Plastic scintillators will decrease their light yield with increasing partial pressure of oxygen. This can be a 10% effect in an artificial atmosphere [11]. It is not excluded that other gasses may have similar quenching effects.

Magnetic field: The light yield of plastic scintillators may be changed by a magnetic field. The effect is very nonlinear and apparently not all types of plastic scintillators are so affected. Increases of $\approx 3\%$ at 0.45 T have been reported [12]. Data are sketchy and mechanisms are not understood.

Radiation damage: Irradiation of plastic scintillators creates color centers which absorb light more strongly in the UV and blue than at longer wavelengths. This poorly understood effect appears as a reduction both of light yield and attenuation length. Radiation damage depends not only on the integrated dose, but on the dose rate, atmosphere, and temperature, before, during and after irradiation, as well as the materials properties of the base such as glass transition temperature, polymer chain length, *etc.* Annealing also occurs, accelerated by the diffusion of atmospheric oxygen and elevated temperatures. The phenomena are complex, unpredictable, and not well understood [13]. Since color centers are less intrusive at longer wavelengths, the most reliable method of mitigating radiation damage is to shift emissions at every step to the longest practical wavelengths, *e.g.*, utilize fluors with large Stokes' shifts.

25.2. Inorganic scintillators

Written October 1995 by C.L. Woody (BNL).

Table 25.2 gives a partial list of commonly-used inorganic scintillators in high-energy and nuclear physics [14–21]. These scintillating crystals are generally used where high density and good energy resolution are required. In a crystal which contains nearly all of the energy deposited by an incident particle, the energy resolution is determined largely, but not totally, by the light output. The table gives the light output of the various materials relative to NaI, which has an intrinsic light output of about 40000 photons per MeV of energy deposit. The detected signal is usually quoted in terms of photoelectrons per MeV produced by a given photodetector. The relationship between photons/MeV produced and p.e.'s/MeV detected involves factors for light collection efficiency (typically 10–50%, depending on geometry) and the quantum efficiency of the detector ($\sim$ 15–20% for photomultiplier tubes and $\sim$ 70% for silicon photodiodes for visible wavelengths). The quantum efficiency of the detector is usually highly wavelength dependent and should be matched to the particular crystal of interest to give the highest quantum yield at the wavelength corresponding to the peak of the scintillation emission. The comparison of the light output given in Table 25.2 is for a standard photomultiplier tube with a bialkali photocathode. For scintillators which emit in the UV, a detector with a quartz window should be used.

25.3. Čerenkov detectors

Written October 1993 by D.G. Coyne (UCSC).

Čerenkov detectors utilize one or more of the properties of Čerenkov radiation discussed in the Passages of Particles through Matter section (Sec. 23 of this *Review*): the existence of a *threshold* for radiation; the dependence of the Čerenkov cone half-angle θ_c on the *velocity* of the particle; the dependence of the *number of emitted photons* on the particle's velocity. The presence of the refractive index n in the relations allows tuning these quantities for a particular experimental application (*e.g.*, using pressurized gas and/or various liquids as radiators).

The number of photoelectrons (p.e.'s) detected in a given device or channel is

$$N_{\text{p.e.}} = L\frac{\alpha^2 z^2}{r_e\, m_e c^2}\int \epsilon_{\text{coll}}(E)\,\epsilon_{\text{det}}(E)\sin^2\theta_c(E)dE\ , \tag{25.2}$$

where L is the path length in the radiator, ϵ_{coll} is the efficiency for collecting the Čerenkov light, ϵ_{det} is the quantum efficiency of the transducer (photomultiplier or equivalent),

Table 25.2: Properties of several inorganic crystal scintillators.

NaI(Tl)	BGO	BaF_2	CsI(Tl)	CsI(pure)	$PbWO_4$	CeF_3
Density (g cm^{-3}):						
3.67	7.13	4.89	4.53	4.53	8.28	6.16
Radiation length (cm):						
2.59	1.12	2.05	1.85	1.85	0.89	1.68
Molière radius (cm):						
4.5	2.4	3.4	3.8	3.8	2.2	2.6
dE/dx (MeV/cm) (per mip):						
4.8	9.2	6.6	5.6	5.6	13.0	7.9
Nucl. int. length (cm):						
41.4	22.0	29.9	36.5	36.5	22.4	25.9
Decay time (ns):						
250	300	0.7^f 620^s	1000	$10, 36^f$ $\sim 1000^s$	5–15	10–30
Peak emission λ (nm):						
410	480	220^f 310^s	565	305^f $\sim 480^s$	440–500	310–340
Refractive index:						
1.85	2.20	1.56	1.80	1.80	2.16	1.68
Relative light output:						
1.00	0.15	0.05^f 0.20^s	0.40	0.10^f 0.02^s	0.01	0.10
Hygroscopic:						
very	no	slightly	somewhat	somewhat	no	no

f = fast component, s = slow component

and $\alpha^2/(r_e\, m_e c^2) = 370\ \mathrm{cm}^{-1}\mathrm{eV}^{-1}$. The quantities $\epsilon_{\rm coll}$, $\epsilon_{\rm det}$, and θ_c are all functions of the photon energy E, although in typical detectors θ_c (or, equivalently, the index of refraction) is nearly constant over the useful range of photocathode sensitivity. In this case,

$$N_{\rm p.e.} \approx L N_0 \left\langle \sin^2\theta_c \right\rangle \tag{25.3}$$

with

$$N_0 = \frac{\alpha^2 z^2}{r_e\, m_e c^2} \int \epsilon_{\rm coll}\, \epsilon_{\rm det} dE \ . \tag{25.4}$$

We take $z = 1$, the usual case in high-energy physics, in the following discussion.

Threshold Čerenkov detectors make a simple yes/no decision based on whether the particle is above/below the Čerenkov threshold velocity $\beta_t = 1/n$. Careful designs give $\langle\epsilon_{\rm coll}\rangle \gtrsim 90\%$. For a photomultiplier with a typical bialkali cathode, $\int \epsilon_{\rm det} dE \approx 0.27$, so that

$$N_{\rm p.e.}/L \approx 90 \ {\rm cm}^{-1} \left\langle \sin^2\theta_c \right\rangle \qquad (i.e.,\ N_0 = 90\ {\rm cm}^{-1})\ . \tag{25.5}$$

Suppose, for example, that n is chosen so that the threshold for species a is p_t; that is, at this momentum species a has velocity $\beta_a = 1/n$. A second, lighter, species b with the same momentum has velocity β_b, so $\cos\theta_c = \beta_a/\beta_b$, and

$$\frac{N_{\rm p.e.}}{L} \approx 90\ {\rm cm}^{-1}\, \frac{m_a^2 - m_b^2}{p_t^2 + m_a^2}\ . \tag{25.6}$$

For K/π separation at $p = 1$ GeV/c, $N_{\rm p.e.}/L \approx 16\ {\rm cm}^{-1}$ for π's and (by design) 0 for K's.

For limited path lengths $N_{\rm p.e.}$ can be small, and some minimum number is required to trigger external electronics. The overall efficiency of the device is controlled by Poisson fluctuations, which can be especially critical for separation of species where one particle type is dominant [22].

A related class of detectors uses the number of observed photoelectrons (or the calibrated pulse height) to discriminate between species or to set probabilities for each particle species [23].

Differential Čerenkov detectors exploit the dependence of θ_c on β, using optical focusing and/or geometrical masking to select particles having velocities in a specified region. With careful design, a velocity resolution of $\sigma_\beta/\beta \approx 10^{-4}$–$10^{-5}$ can be obtained [22,24].

Ring-Imaging Čerenkov detectors use all three properties of Čerenkov radiation in both small-aperture and 4π geometries. They are principally used as hypothesis-testing rather than yes/no devices; that is, the probability of various identification possibilities is established from θ_c and $N_{\rm p.e.}$ for a particle of known momentum. In most cases the optics map the Čerenkov cone onto a circle at the photodetector, often with distortions which must be understood.

The 4π devices [25,26] typically have both liquid (C_6F_{14}, $n = 1.276$) and gas (C_5F_{12}, $n = 1.0017$) radiators, the light from the latter being focused by mirrors. They achieve 3 σ separation of $e/\pi/K/p$ over wide ranges, as shown in Table 25.3. Great attention to detail, especially with the minimization of UV-absorbing impurities, is required to get $\langle\epsilon_{\rm coll}\rangle \gtrsim 50\%$.

Table 25.3: Momentum range for 3σ separation in the SLD ring-imaging Čerenkov detector.

Particle pair	Mom. range for $3\ \sigma$ separation
e/π	$p \lesssim 5$ GeV/c
π/K	$0.23 \lesssim p \lesssim 20$ GeV/c
K/p	$0.82 \lesssim p \lesssim 30$ GeV/c

The phototransducer is typically a TPC/wire-chamber combination sensitive to single photoelectrons and having charge division or pads. This construction permits three-dimensional reconstruction of photoelectron origins, which is important for transforming the Čerenkov cone into a ring. Single photoelectrons are generated by doping the TPC gas (for instance, ethane/methane in some proportion) with $\sim 0.05\%$ TMAE [tetrakis(dimethylamino)ethylene] [27], leading to photon absorption lengths along the Čerenkov cone of ~ 30 mm. The readout wires must be equipped with special structures (blinds or wire gates) to prevent photon feedback from avalanches generating cross-talk photoelectrons in the TPC. Drift-gas purity must be maintained to assure mean drift lengths of the order of meters without recombination (*i.e.*, lifetimes of $\gtrsim$ 100 μs at typical drift velocities of $\gtrsim$ 4 cm/μs). The net $\langle\epsilon_{\rm det}\rangle$'s reach 30%, with the limitation being the TMAE quantum efficiency.

Photon energy cutoffs are set by the TMAE ($E > 5.4$ eV), the UV transparency of fused silica glass ($E < 7.4$ eV), and the C_6F_{14} ($E < 7.1$ eV). With effort one gets $50 \leq N_0 \leq 100$ for complete rings using liquid or gas. This includes losses due to electrostatic shielding wires and window/mirror reflections, but not gross losses caused by total internal reflection or inadequate coverage by the TPC's.

Such numbers allow determination of ring radii to $\sim$0.5% (liquid) and $\sim$2% (gas), leading to the particle species separations quoted above. Since the separation efficiencies may have "holes" as a function of p, detailed calculations are necessary.

25.4. Transition radiation detectors (TRD's)

Written October 1993 by B. Mansoulie (Saclay).

It is clear from the discussion in the Passages of Particles Through Matter section (Sec. 23 of this *Review*) that transition radiation (TR) only becomes useful for particle detectors when the Lorentz factor $\gamma \gtrsim 10^3$. In practice, TRD's are used to provide e/π separation when $p \gtrsim 1$ GeV/c. (The momentum is usually measured elsewhere in the detector.) Since a soft x ray is radiated with about 1% probability per boundary crossing, practical detectors use radiators with several hundred interfaces, *e.g.* foils of lithium or plastic in a gas. Absorption inside the radiator and interference effects between interfaces are important [28,29].

A practical detector is composed of several similar modules, each consisting of a radiator and an x-ray detector. The radiator is made of foils or fibers of a low-Z material (for low absorption) in a low-Z gas such as helium. The x-ray detector is usually a wire chamber operated with a xenon-rich mixture in order to obtain a high conversion efficiency. As transition radiation is emitted at small angles, the chamber usually detects the sum of the ionization of the particle and of converted TR photons. The discrimination between electrons and pions can be based on the charges measured in each set, or on more sophisticated methods using pulse-shape analysis.

The major factor in the performance of a TRD is its overall length. Very roughly, the pion rejection factor for a detector with 90% electron efficiency is $10^{(L/20\ \text{cm})}$, where L is the overall length of the detector.

Recent development work has aimed at adapting the technique to the very high particle rate at LHC, by distributing straw-tube detectors uniformly in the radiator foam, and using very fast electronics. The resulting detector is used as a tracking device as well as a TRD [30].

25.5. Silicon photodiodes and particle detectors

Written October 1993 by H.F.W. Sadrozinski (UCSC) and H.G. Spieler (LBNL).

Silicon detectors are p-n junction diodes operated at reverse bias. This forms a sensitive region depleted of mobile charge and sets up an electric field that sweeps charge liberated by radiation to the electrodes. The thickness of the depleted region is

$$W = \sqrt{\frac{2\epsilon\,(V+V_{bi})}{ne}} = \sqrt{2\rho\mu\epsilon(V+V_{bi})}\ , \tag{25.7}$$

where $V =$ external bias voltage

$V_{bi} =$ "built-in" voltage (≈ 0.8 V for resistivities typically used in detectors

$n =$ doping concentration

$e =$ electron charge

$\epsilon =$ dielectric constant $= 11.9\ \epsilon_0 \approx 1$ pF/cm

$\rho =$ resistivity (typically 1–10 kΩ cm)

$\mu =$ charge carrier mobility

$= 1350\ \text{cm}^2\ \text{V}^{-1}\ \text{s}^{-1}$ for electrons (n-type material)

$= 450\ \text{cm}^2\ \text{V}^{-1}\ \text{s}^{-1}$ for holes (p-type material)

or

$$W = 0.5\ \mu\text{m} \times \sqrt{\rho(V+V_{bi})} \quad \text{for } n\text{-type material,} \tag{25.8}$$

and

$$W = 0.3\ \mu\text{m} \times \sqrt{\rho(V+V_{bi})} \quad \text{for } p\text{-type material,} \tag{25.9}$$

where V is in volts and ρ is in Ω cm.

The corresponding capacitance per unit area is

$$C = \frac{\epsilon}{W} \approx 1\,[\mathrm{pF/cm}]\,\frac{1}{W}\ . \tag{25.10}$$

In strip detectors the capacitance is dominated by the strip-to-strip fringing capacitance of $\sim$ 1–1.5 pF cm^{-1} of strip length at a strip pitch of 25–50 μm.

About 3.6 eV is required to create an electron-hole pair. For minimum-ionizing particles, the most probable charge deposition in a 300 μm thick silicon detector is about 4 fC (25000 electrons). Readily available photodiodes have quantum efficiences > 70% for wavelengths between 600 nm and 1 μm. UV extended photodiodes have useful efficiency down to 200 nm. In applications in which photodiodes detect light from scintillators, care must be taken so that signal from the scintillator is larger than that produced by particles going through the photodiode.

Collection time decreases with increased depletion voltage, and can be reduced further by operating the detector with "overbias," *i.e.*, a bias voltage exceeding the value required to fully deplete the device. The collection time is limited by velocity saturation at high fields; at an average field of 10^4 V/cm, the collection times is about 15 ps/μm for electrons and 30 ps/μm for holes. In typical strip detectors of 300 μm thickness, electrons are collected within about 8 ns, and holes within about 25 ns.

Position resolution is limited by transverse diffusion during charge collection (typically 5 μm for 300 μm thickness) and by knock-on electrons. Resolutions of 3–4 μm (rms) have been obtained in beam tests. In magnetic fields, the Lorentz drift can increase the spatial spread appreciably (see "Hall effect" in semiconductor textbooks).

Radiation damage occurs through two basic mechanisms:

1. Bulk damage due to displacement of atoms from their lattice sites. This leads to increased leakage current, carrier trapping, and changes in doping concentration. Displacement damage depends on the nonionizing energy loss, *i.e.*, particle type and energy. The dose should be specified as a fluence of particles of a specific type and energy.
2. Surface damage due to charge build-up in surface layers, which leads to increased surface leakage currents. In strip detectors the inter-strip isolation is affected. The effects of charge build-up are strongly dependent on the device structure and on fabrication details. Since the damage is determined directly by the absorbed energy, the dose should be specified in these units (rad or Gray).

The increase in leakage current due to bulk damage is $\Delta i = \alpha\phi$ per unit volume, where ϕ is the particle fluence and α the damage coefficient ($\alpha \approx 2 \times 10^{-17}$ A/cm for minimum ionizing protons and pions after long-term annealing; roughly the same value applies for 1 MeV neutrons). The doping concentration in n-type silicon changes as $n = n_0 \exp(-\delta\phi) - \beta\phi$, where n_0 is the initial donor concentration, $\delta \approx 6 \times 10^{14}$ cm^2 determines donor removal, and $\beta \approx 0.03$ cm^{-1} describes acceptor creation. This leads to an initial increase in resisitivity until type-inversion changes the net doping from n to p.

At this point the resistivity decreases, with a corresponding increase in depletion voltage. The safe operating limit of depletion voltage ultimately limits the detector lifetime. Strip detectors have remained functional at fluences beyond 10^{14} cm^{-2} for minimum ionizing protons. At this damage level, charge loss due to recombination and trapping also seems to become significant.

25.6. Proportional and drift chambers

Proportional chamber wire instability: The limit on the voltage V for a wire tension T, due to mechanical effects when the electrostatic repulsion of adjacent wires exceeds the restoring force of wire tension, is given by (SI units) [31]

$$V \leq \frac{s}{\ell C}\sqrt{4\pi\epsilon_0 T} \ , \tag{25.11}$$

where s, ℓ, and C are the wire spacing, length, and capacitance per unit length. An approximation to C for chamber half-gap t and wire diameter d (good for $s \lesssim t$) gives [32]

$$V \lesssim 59 T^{1/2}\left[\frac{t}{\ell} + \frac{s}{\pi\ell}\ln\left(\frac{s}{\pi d}\right)\right] \ , \tag{25.12}$$

where V is in kV, and T is in grams-weight equivalent.

Proportional and drift chamber potentials: The potential distributions and fields in a proportional or drift chamber can usually be calculated with good accuracy from the exact formula for the potential around an array of parallel line charges q (coul/m) along z and located at $y = 0$, $x = 0, \pm s, \pm 2s, \ldots,$

$$V(x,y) = -\frac{q}{4\pi\,\epsilon_0}\ln\left\{4\left[\sin^2\left(\frac{\pi x}{s}\right) + \sinh^2\left(\frac{\pi y}{s}\right)\right]\right\} \ . \tag{25.13}$$

Errors from the presence of cathodes, mechanical defects, TPC-type edge effects, *etc.*, are usually small and are beyond the scope of this review.