

The Heavy Photon Search Test Detector

C. Field^a, P. Hansson Adrian^{a,*}, N. Graf^a, M. Graham^a, G. Haller^a, R. Herbst^a, J. Jaros^a, T. Maruyama^a, J. McCormick^a, K. Moffeit^a, T. Nelson^a, H. Neal^a, A. Odian^a, M. Oriunno^a, S. Uemura^a, D. Walz^a, A. Grillo^b, V. Fadeyev^b, O. Moreno^b, W. Cooper^c, S. Boyarinov^d, V. Burkert^d, A. Deur^d, H. Egiyan^d, L. Elouadrhiri^d, A. Freyberger^d, F.-X. Girod^d, V. Kubarovskiy^d, Y. Sharabian^d, S. Stepanyan^d, M. Ungaro^d, B. Wojtsekhowski^d, R. Essig^e, M. Holtrop^f, K. Slifer^f, S. K. Phillips^f, A. Fradi^g, B. Guegan^g, M. Guidal^g, S. Niccolai^g, S. Pisano^g, E. Rauly^g, P. Rosier and D. Sokhan^g, P. Schuster^h, N. Toro^h, N. Dashyanⁱ, N. Gevorgyanⁱ, R. Paremuzyanⁱ, H. Voskanyanⁱ, M. Khandaker^j, C. Salgado^j, M. Battaglieri^k, R. De Vita^k, S. Bueltmann^l, L. Weinstein^l, P. Stoler^m, A. Kubarovskiy^m, K. Griffioenⁿ

^aSLAC National Accelerator Laboratory, Menlo Park, CA 94025

^bUniversity of California, Santa Cruz, CA 95064

^cFermi National Accelerator Laboratory, Batavia, IL 60510-5011

^dThomas Jefferson National Accelerator Facility, Newport News, Virginia 23606

^eStony Brook University, Stony Brook, NY 11794-3800

^fUniversity of New Hampshire, Department of Physics, Durham, NH 03824

^gInstitut de Physique Nucléaire d'Orsay, IN2P3, BP 1, 91406 Orsay, France

^hPerimeter Institute, Ontario, Canada N2L 2Y5

ⁱYerevan Physics Institute, 375036 Yerevan, Armenia

^jNorfolk State University, Norfolk, Virginia 23504

^kIstituto Nazionale di Fisica Nucleare, Sezione di Genova e Dipartimento di Fisica dell'Università, 16146 Genova, Italy

^lOld Dominion University, Norfolk, Virginia 23529

^mRensselaer Polytechnic Institute, Department of Physics, Troy, NY 12181

ⁿThe College of William and Mary, Department of Physics, Williamsburg, VA 23185

Abstract

The Heavy Photon Search (HPS), an experiment to search for a hidden sector photon in fixed target electroproduction, is preparing for installation at the Thomas Jefferson National Accelerator Facility (JLab) in the Fall of 2014. As the first stage of this project, the HPS Test run apparatus was constructed and operated in 2012 to demonstrate the experiment's technical feasibility and to confirm that the trigger rates and occupancies are as expected. This paper describes the Test Run apparatus and readout electronics and its performance. In this setting, a heavy photon can be identified as a narrow e^+e^- mass peak above the trident background or as a decay vertex displaced from the production target, so charged particle tracking and vertexing are needed for its detection. In the HPS Test run, charged particles are measured with a compact forward silicon microstrip vertex/tracker inside a dipole magnet. Electromagnetic showers are detected in a PbW₀₄ crystal calorimeter situated behind the magnet used to trigger the experiment and identify electrons and positrons. Both detectors are placed close to the beam line and split top-bottom. This arrangement provides sensitivity to low-mass heavy photons, allows clear passage of the unscattered beam, and avoids the spray of degraded electrons coming from the target. The discrimination between prompt and displaced e^+e^- pairs requires the first layer of silicon sensors be placed only 10 cm downstream of the target. The expected signal is small, and the trident background huge, so the experiment requires very large statistics. Accordingly, the HPS Test run utilizes high-rate readout and data acquisition electronics and a fast trigger to perfectly exploit the essentially 100% duty cycle of the CEBAF accelerator.

Keywords: silicon microstrip, tracking, vertexing, heavy photon, dark photon, hidden sector, electromagnetic calorimeter

*Corresponding author.

Email address: phansson@slac.stanford.edu (K. Griffioen)

Contents

1	Introduction	3
2	Detector Overview	3
3	The HPS Test Run Beamline	5
4	Silicon Vertex Tracker	5
4.1	Layout	6
4.2	Components	7
4.3	Production, Assembly and Shipping . . .	7
4.4	Alignment	8
5	Electromagnetic Calorimeter	8
5.1	Components	8
5.2	Layout	8
5.3	Signal readout	9
6	Trigger and Data Acquisition	9
6.1	Trigger system	9
6.2	SVT Data Acquisition	9
6.3	General Data Acquisition and Online Computing	10
7	Performance	10
7.1	SVT Performance	10
7.1.1	Cluster and Hit Reconstruction .	11
7.1.2	Momentum and Vertexing Resolution	12
7.2	ECal Performance	13
7.3	Trigger Performance	14
7.4	Trigger Rate Comparisons	14
8	Summary and Outlook	14
9	Acknowledgements	15

1. Introduction

The heavy photon (A'), aka a "hidden sector" or "dark" photon, is a particle with mass $10 - 1000$ MeV which couples weakly to electric charge by mixing with the Standard Model photon [1]. Consequently, it can be radiated by electrons and subsequently decay into e^+e^- pairs, albeit at rates far below those of QED trident processes. Heavy photons have been suggested by numerous Beyond Standard Model theories [2], to explain the discrepancy between theory and experiment of the muon's $g - 2$ [3], and as a possible explanation of recent astrophysical anomalies. Heavy photons couple directly to hidden sector particles with "dark" or "hidden sector" charge; these particles could constitute all or some of the dark matter [4]. Current phenomenology highlights the $20 - 1000$ MeV/c 2 mass range, and suggests that the coupling to electric charge, ϵe , has ϵ in the range of $10^{-3} - 10^{-5}$. [REFERENCE]. This range of parameters makes A' searches viable in medium energy fixed target electroproduction [5], but requires large data sets and good mass resolution to identify a small mass peak above the copious QED background. At small couplings, A' 's become long-lived, so detection of a displaced decay vertex can reject the prompt QED background and boost experimental sensitivity.

The HPS experiment [6] uses both invariant mass and secondary vertex signatures to search for A' 's. It uses a ≈ 1 m long silicon tracking and vertexing detector inside a dipole magnet to measure charged particle trajectories and a fast electromagnetic calorimeter just downstream of the magnet to provide a trigger and identify electrons. The experiment utilizes very high rate front end electronics and runs at high trigger rates (up to 50kHz), exploiting the 100% duty cycle of the Thomas Jefferson National Accelerator Facility (JLab) CEBAF accelerator to accumulate the needed statistics.

The HPS Test apparatus, a simplified version of the HPS experiment, was proposed and approved at Thomas Jefferson National Accelerator Facility (JLab) as the first stage of HPS. Its purposes included demonstrating that the apparatus and data acquisition systems are technically feasible and the trigger rates and occupancies to be encountered in electron-beam running are as simulated. Given dedicated running time with electron beams, the HPS Test Run apparatus is capable of searching for heavy photons in unexplored regions of parameter space. The key design criteria for HPS and the HPS Test Run are the same:

- large and uniform acceptance in the forward region close to the beam in order to catch boosted A' decay products,

- beam passage through the apparatus in vacuum, to eliminate direct interactions with the detector and minimize beam gas interactions,
- a flexible, redundant and efficient trigger selecting electron and positron pairs at rates up to 50 kHz,
- excellent track reconstruction efficiency for electrons and positrons,
- good angular and momentum resolution to reconstruct invariant mass precisely,
- excellent vertex resolution to discriminate displaced A' decays from prompt QED backgrounds,
- high rate electronics with excellent timing resolution to minimize out of time backgrounds,
- data handling rates of 100 MB/s to permanent storage,
- detector components that can survive and efficiently operate in a high radiation environment with local doses exceeding 100 Mrad.

The Test apparatus was installed on April 19, 2012, and ran parasitically in the photon beam of the HDice experiment [7] until May 18. The JLab run schedule precluded any dedicated electron beam running, but the HPS Test Run was allowed a short and valuable dedicated run at the end of scheduled CEBAF running. This final running provided enough data to demonstrate the functionality of the apparatus, document its performance, and explore trigger rates, as shown below. This paper reviews the HPS Test apparatus; documents the performance of the trigger, data acquisition, silicon tracking detector, and the electromagnetic calorimeter at the level assumed in calculating the physics reach of the HPS experiment.

This paper reviews the HPS Test apparatus; documents the performance of the trigger, data acquisition, silicon tracking detector, and the electromagnetic calorimeter at the level assumed in calculating the physics reach of the HPS experiment.

2. Detector Overview

The HPS Test apparatus was designed to run in Hall B at JLab using the CEBAF electron beam, a 499 MHz beam, at an energies of 2.2 and 6.6 GeV and currents between 200 and 600 nA. The overall design of the experiment follows from the kinematics of A' production which typically results in a final state particle

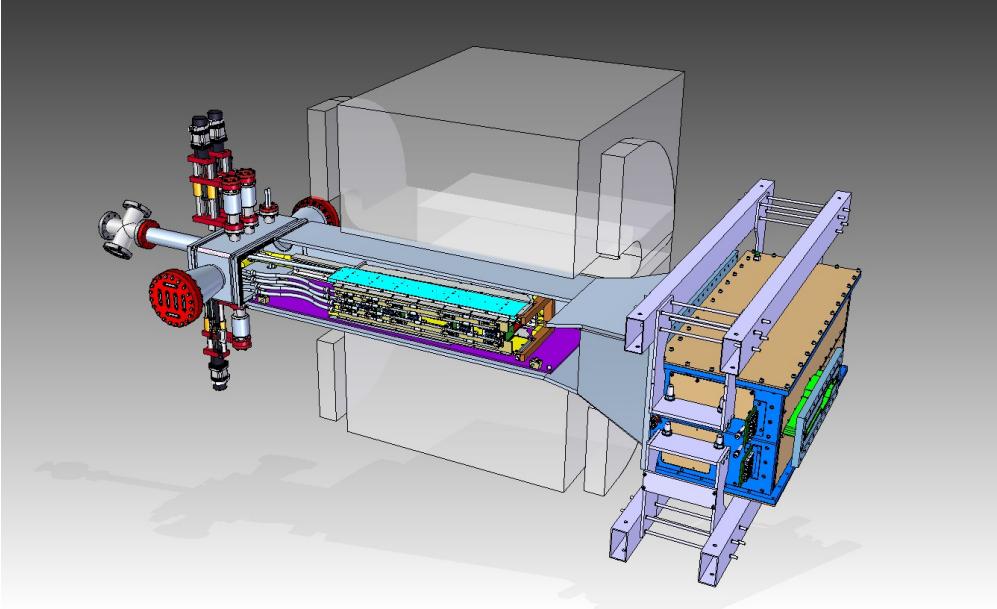


Figure 1: Rendering of the HPS Test apparatus installed on the beam line.

within a few degrees of the incoming beam, especially at low $m_{A'}$. Detectors must therefore be placed close to the beam. The intense electron beam enlarges downstream after multiple scattering in the target and electrons which have radiated in the target disperse horizontally in the field of the analyzing magnet. Together they constitute a "wall of flame" which must be completely avoided. Accordingly, the apparatus is split vertically to avoid a "dead zone", the region within ± 15 mrad of the beam plane. In addition, the beam is transported in vacuum through the tracker to minimize beam-gas interaction backgrounds. Even with these precautions, the occupancies of sensors near the beam plane are high, dominated by the multiple Coulomb scattering of the primary beam, so high rate detectors, a fast trigger, and excellent time tagging are required to minimize their impact. The trigger comes from a highly-segmented PbWO_4 crystal calorimeter located just downstream of the dipole magnet.

A rendering of the apparatus installed on the beam line is shown in Fig. 1 and an overview of the coverage, segmentation and performance is given in Tab. 1.

The silicon tracking and vertexing detector for HPS Test, or SVT, resides in a vacuum chamber inside the pair spectrometer analyzing magnet in Hall B at JLab. The SVT has five measurement stations, or "layers,"

beginning 10 cm downstream of the target. Each layer comprises a pair of closely-spaced silicon microstrip sensors responsible for measuring a single coordinate, or "view." Introduction of a small (50 or 100 mrad) stereo angle between the two sensors of each layer provides three-dimensional tracking and vertexing throughout the acceptance of the detector. In order to accommodate the dead zone, the SVT is built in two halves that are approximately mirror reflections of one another about the plane of the nominal electron beam. Each layer in one half is supported on a common support plate with independent cooling and readout.

The electromagnetic calorimeter (ECal) is also split into two halves. Each half of the ECal consists of 221 PbWO_4 crystals arranged in rectangular formation. There are five rows with 46 modules in each row except the row closest to the beam plane which has 37. The light from each crystal is read out by an Avalanche Photodiode (APD) glued on the back surface of the crystal. Signals from the APDs are amplified using custom-made amplifier boards before being sent to the data acquisition electronics.

The Data Acquisition system combines two architectures, the Advanced Telecom Communications Architecture (ATCA) based SVT readout system and VXS based digitization and triggering system for the ECal. The system was designed to run at up to 20 kHz trigger rate.

Table 1: Overview of the coverage, segmentation and performance of the HPS Test detector.

System	Coverage (mrad)	# channels	ADC (bit)	Time resolution (ns)	# layers	Segmentation	Performance
SVT	$15 < \theta_y < XXXX$	12800	14	≈ 2 ns	5 (stereo layers)	$\approx 120 \mu\text{m} r - \phi$ $\approx 6 \mu\text{m} z$	$\sigma_{d0,y} \approx 100 \mu\text{m}$ $\sigma_{d0,x} \approx 300 \mu\text{m}$ $\sigma_{d0,z} \approx 1 \text{ mm}$
ECal	$15 < \theta_y < XXXX$	442	12	4 ns	1	$1.3 \times 1.3 \text{ cm}^2$ $1.6 \times 1.6 \text{ cm}^2$	$\sigma(E)/E \approx 4.5\%$

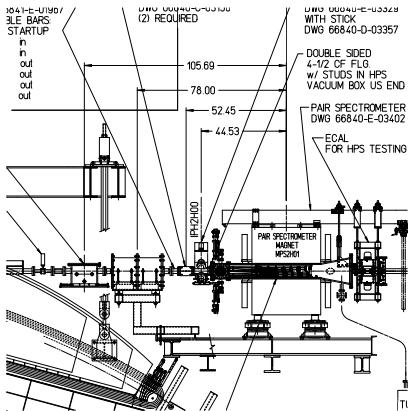


Figure 2: Layout of the HPS parasitic run.

3. The HPS Test Run Beamline

The HPS Test run studied multiple Coulomb scattering of electrons and positrons from bremsstrahlung photons produced in the Hall B tagged photon facility. Figure 2 shows the layout of the setup on the beamline. The SVT was installed inside the Hall B pair spectrometer magnet (PS) vacuum chamber with the ECal mounted downstream of it. Both the SVT and the ECal were retracted off the beam plane compared to nominal electron beam running to allow clean passage of the photon beam through the system.

The photon beam was generated in the interaction of 5.5 GeV electrons with a $10^{-4} X_0$ gold radiator located ≈ 9 m upstream of the PS. The primary beam and scattered electrons are deflected away from detectors by the dipole magnet of the photon tagging system. During the dedicated HPS Test run period, the collimated (6.4 mm diameter), photon beam passes through the aluminum PS pair converter and later the HPS system as illustrated in Fig. 3. The PS pair converter was located ≈ 77 cm upstream of the first layer of the SVT.

Data was taken on three different converter thicknesses with photon fluxes between $1.1\text{--}2.6 \times 10^8/\text{s}$ ($0.55 < E_\gamma < 5.5 \text{ GeV}$) at beam currents varying between 30–90 nA and repeated with the reverse field set-

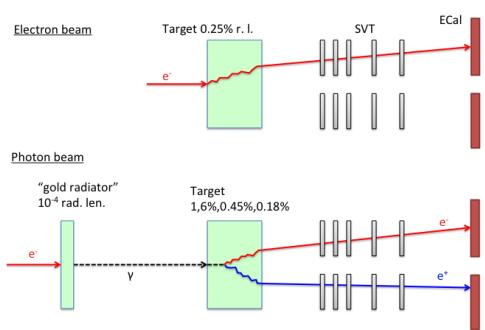


Figure 3: Illustrative comparison of HPS Test run photon beam compared to the HPS electron beam.

Converter thickn. (% X_0)	Duration (s)	e^- on radiator (μC)
1.6	911	24.4
0.18	2640	193.5
0.45	2149	140.7
0	1279	88.1

Table 2: Measured integrated currents for the dedicated photon runs.

ting of the PS dipole magnet. The photon beam line during the test run produced a relatively large fraction of pairs originating upstream of the converter position. This contribution was measured during data taking with “empty” converter runs i.e. removing the converter but with all other conditions the same. The runs taken during the time dedicated to HPS Test is summarized in Tab. 2.

4. Silicon Vertex Tracker

The Silicon Vertex Tracker (SVT) enables efficient reconstruction of charged particles and precision determination of their trajectories. These measurements allow A' decays to be distinguished from background via simultaneous estimation of the invariant mass of e^+e^-

decay products and the position of decay vertexes downstream of the target.

The design of the SVT is primarily driven by direct physics requirement and constraints from the environment at the interaction region. The A' decay products have momenta in the range of 1 GeV, so multiple scattering dominates mass and vertexing uncertainties for any possible material budget, so the SVT must minimize the amount of material in the tracking volume. The signal yield for long-lived A's is very small, so the rejection of prompt vertexes must be exceedingly pure, on the order of 10^{-7} , in order to eliminate all prompt backgrounds. To achieve the required vertexing performance the first layer of the SVT must be placed no more than about 10 cm downstream of the target. At that distance, it is found that the active region of a sensor can be placed as close to 1.5 mm from the center of the beam, defining the 15 mrad "dead zone" mentioned previously, to maximize low-mass A' acceptance with decay products nearly collinear with the beam axis. At the edge of this "dead zone," the radiation dose approaches 10^{15} electrons/cm²/month, or roughly 3×10^{14} 1 MeV neutron equivalent/cm²/month [8], requiring the sensors to be actively cooled. Meanwhile, very low-energy delta rays from beam-gas interactions multiply the density of background hits, so the SVT must operate inside the beam vacuum. Finally, in order to protect the sensors, the detector must be movable so that it can be retracted during periods of uncertain beam conditions.

4.1. Layout

The layout of the SVT is summarized in Tab. 4.1 and rendered in Fig. 4. Each of the layers is comprised of a pair of closely-spaced silicon microstrip sensors mounted back-to-back to form a module. A 100 mrad stereo angle is used in the first three layers to provide higher-resolution 3D space points for vertexing. Using 50 mrad in the last two layers breaks the tracking degeneracy of having five identical layers and minimizes fakes from ghost hits to improve pattern recognition. Altogether, the SVT comprises 20 sensors for a total of 12780 readout channels.

Layer	1	2	3	4	5
<i>z</i> from target (cm)	10	20	30	50	70
Stereo angle (mrad)	100	100	100	50	50
Bend res. (μm)	≈ 60	≈ 60	≈ 60	≈ 120	≈ 120
Non-bend res. (μm)	≈ 6	≈ 6	≈ 6	≈ 6	≈ 6
# of sensors	4	4	4	4	4
Dead zone (mm)	± 1.5	± 3.0	± 4.5	± 7.5	± 10.5
Power cons. (W)	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9

Table 3: Layout of the SVT.

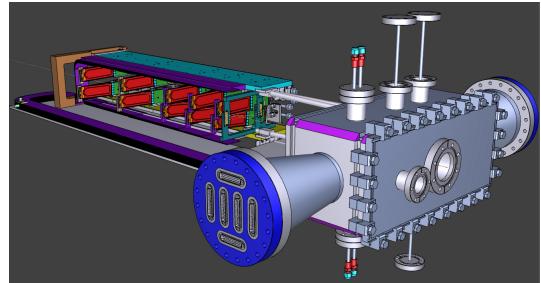


Figure 4: A rendering of the SVT showing the modules on their support plates held by the hinged C-support on the left and the motion levers on the right. The sensors are shown in red and the hybrid readout boards in green. The beam enters from the right through a vacuum box with flanges for services.

The SVT is built in two separate halves that are mirror reflections of one another about the plane of the nominal electron beam. Each half consists of five modules mounted on a support plate that provides services to the modules and allows them to be moved as a group relative to the dead zone. The two halves of the tracker are connected to hinges mounted on a C-shaped support just beyond the last layer that defines the nominal spacing between the upper and lower halves of the tracker. A shaft attached to each support plate in front of layer 1 extends upstream and connects to a linear shift that transfers motion into the vacuum box through bellows to open and close the two halves around the dead zone. The C-support is mounted to an aluminum baseplate that defines the position of the SVT with respect to the vacuum chamber. Figure 5 shows a photograph of both completed detector halves prior to final assembly.



Figure 5: Both halves of the HPS Test SVT after final assembly at SLAC. The cooling manifolds and integrated cable runs are clearly seen.

4.2. Components

The sensors for the SVT are *p*-on-*n*, single sided, AC coupled, polysilicon-biased microstrip sensors fabricated on < 100 > silicon and have 30 (60) micron sense (readout) pitch over their $4 \times 10 \text{ cm}^2$ surface. This sensor technology was selected to match the requirement of a $< 1\% X_0$ per layer, single-hit resolution better than $50 \mu\text{m}$ and tolerant of a radiation dose of approximately $1.5 \times 10^{14} 1 \text{ MeV}$ neutron equivalent/cm 2 for a six month run. The sensors were purchased from the Hamamatsu Photonics Corporation for the cancelled Run 2b upgrade of the DØ experiment [9] which satisfied the requirement that the technology must be mature and available within the time and budget constraints.

Despite having only small spots with very high occupancy (up to 4 MHz/mm^2) closest to the primary beam, the rates are still high and lowering the peak occupancy to approximately 1% for tracking requires a trigger window and hit time tagging of roughly 8 ns. The ECal readout and trigger described in Sec. 5.3 can achieve such resolution. To reach this performance the sensors for the SVT are readout by the APV25 ASIC developed for the CMS experiment at CERN [10]. The APV25 can capture two successive samples of three of the output of the shaper at a sampling rate of approximately 40 MHz. By fitting the known *CR-RC* shaping curve to these samples, the initial time of the hit can be determined to a precision of 2 ns for $S/N \approx 25$ [11]. For electron beam running, six-sample readout and the shortest possible shaping time (35 ns) is used to best distinguish hits that overlap in time. The APV25 ASICs are hosted on simple FR4 hybrid readout boards, outside the tracking volume, with a short twisted-pair pigtail cable to provide power and configuration and signal readout. Along with a single sensor, these are glued to a polyamide-laminated carbon fiber composite backing making up a half-module. A window is machined in the carbon fiber leaving only a frame around the periphery of the silicon to minimize material. A $50 \mu\text{m}$ sheet of polyamide is laminated to the surface of the carbon fiber with 1 mm overhang at all openings to ensure good isolation between the backside of the sensor, carrying high-voltage bias, and the carbon fiber which is held near ground.

The sensor modules for the SVT consist of a pair of identical half-modules, sandwiched back-to-back around an aluminum cooling block at one end and a similar PEEK spacer block at the other. Figure 6 shows a single module after assembly. The cooling block provides the primary mechanical support for the module as well as cooling via copper tubes pressed into grooves in the plates. The spacer block defines the spacing between the sensors at the far end of the module, stiffens

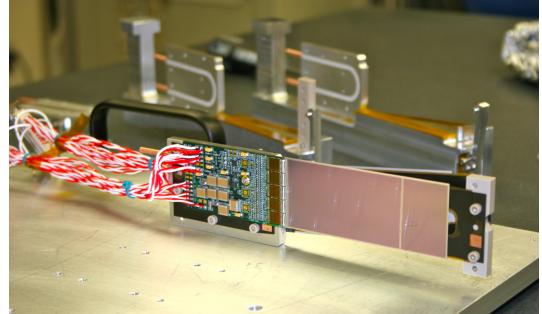


Figure 6: A prototype module assembly (foreground) with the 50 mrad (left) and 100 mrad (right) module assembly fixtures in the background. A pair of cooling blocks and a spacer block can be seen on the fixtures.

the module structure, and improves the stability of the sensor alignment. The average support material in the tracking volume is approximately $0.06\% X_0$ per double-sided module for a total material budget of 0.7% per layer.

The total SVT power consumption budget of about 50 W is removed by a water/glycol mixture circulated through a flexible manifold attached to the copper tubes in the cooling blocks. During the Test run the sensors where operated at around 23°C . The power consumption is dominated by five APV25 ASICs on each hybrid board consuming approximately 2 W, radiant heat load is less than 0.5 W per sensor and leakage current is only significant in a small spot after irradiation.

4.3. Production, Assembly and Shipping

Hybrids with APV25 ASICs underwent quick qualification testing and each half-module was run at low temperature ($\approx 5^\circ\text{C}$) and fully characterized for pedestals, gains, noise and time response after assembly. Of 29 half-modules built, 28 passed qualification testing, leaving 8 spare modules after completion of the SVT, all capable of 1000 V bias voltage without breakdown. Full-module assembly and mechanical surveys were performed at SLAC before final assembly, testing and shipping of the SVT to JLab. A custom shipping container with nested crates and redundant isolation for shock and vibration was built in order to safely send the partly assembled SVT to JLab. At JLab, the entire SVT was integrated with the full DAQ and the power supplies before moving the module-loaded support plates to Hall B for final mechanical assembly and installation inside of the vacuum chamber.

4.4. Alignment

The SVT was aligned using a combination of optical, laser and touch probe surveys at SLAC and JLab. The optical survey of individual modules with precision of a few μm are combined with a touch-probe survey of the overall SVT support structure, with 25-100 μm precision, to locate the silicon sensor layers with respect to the support plates and the mechanical survey balls on the base plate. After full assembly and installation of the SVT at JLab, a mechanical survey of the SVT base plate position inside the pair spectrometer vacuum chamber is used to determine the global position of the SVT with respect to CEBAF beam line. The resulting survey-based alignment has the position of the silicon sensors correct to within a few hundred microns measured from tracks in the Test run data. A more sophisticated global track-based alignment technique to reach final alignment precision well below 50 μm is being developed.

5. Electromagnetic Calorimeter

The electromagnetic calorimeter (ECal), installed downstream of the PS dipole magnet, performs two essential functions for the experiment: it provides a trigger signal to select what events to read out from the detector sub-systems and is used in the analysis to identify electrons and positrons. The technology and design choices are largely driven by the need for a compact forward design covering the SVT A' acceptance and able to fully absorb electrons and positrons with energy between 0.5-6.5 GeV, fine granularity and signal readout speed to handle 1 MHz/cm² of electromagnetic background and remain operable after a radiation dose larger than X MRad. The lead-tungstate (PbWO_4) crystal inner calorimeter of the CLAS detector [REFERENCE] in operation since 2005 in Hall B meet all the requirements set by HPS. The modules from this calorimeter have been subsequently repurposed for HPS.

5.1. Components

The ECal module shown in Fig. 7 is based on a tapered 160 mm long lead-tungstate (PbWO_4) crystal with a $13.3 \times 13.3 \text{ mm}^2$ ($16 \times 16 \text{ mm}^2$) front (rear) face wrapped in VM2000 multilayer polymer mirror film. The scintillation light, approximately X photoelectrons/MeV, is readout by a $5 \times 5 \text{ mm}^2$ Hamamatsu S8664-55 Avalanche Photodiode (APD) with 75% quantum efficiency glued to the rear face surface using MeltMount 1.7 thermal plastic adhesive. The low gain of APDs (~ 200) was compensated with custom

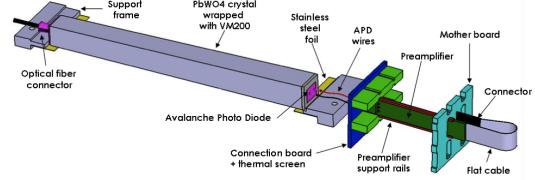


Figure 7: Schematic view of an ECal module.

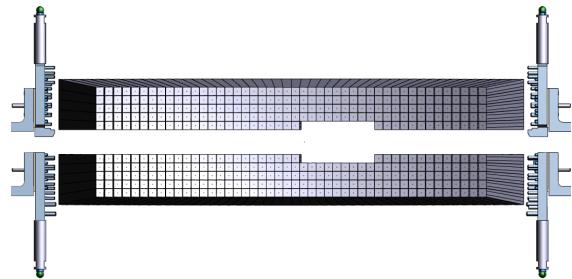


Figure 8: Rendered layout view of the ECal looking downstream.

made preamplifier boards, which provide factor of 2000 amplification of the APD signal.

5.2. Layout

Similar to the SVT, the ECal is built in two separate halves that are mirror reflections of one another about the plane of the nominal electron beam to avoid interfering with the 15 mrad "dead zone". As shown in Fig. 8, the 221 modules, supported by aluminum support frames, in each half are arranged in rectangular formation with 5 layers and 46 crystals/layer except for the layer closest to the beam where 9 modules were removed to allow a larger opening for the outgoing electron and photon beams. Each half was enclosed in a temperature controlled box ($< 1^\circ \text{ F}$ stability and $< 4^\circ \text{ F}$ uniformity) to stabilize the crystal light yield and the operation of the APDs and its preamplifiers. Four printed circuit boards mounted on the backplane penetrated the enclosure and was used to supply the $\pm 5 \text{ V}$ operating voltage for the preamplifiers and the 400 V bias voltage to the APDs and to read out signals from the APDs. Each half of the ECal was divided into 12 bias voltage groups with a gain uniformity of about 20%.

During the Test run, both halves were held in place by four vertical bars attached to an above rail, placing the front face of the crystals 147 cm from the upstream edge of the magnet and with a 8.7 cm gap between the innermost edge of the crystals in the two halves.

5.3. Signal readout

After a 2:1 signal splitter, 1/3 of an amplified APD signal (2/3 is sent to a timing module) is fed to a single channel of a JLab flash ADC (FADC) board [12]. The FADC boards are high speed VXS modules digitizing up to 16 APD signals at 250 MHz and storing samples in 8 μ s deep pipelines with 12-bit resolution. When a trigger is received, the part of the pipeline from 5 samples before and 30 after the signal crossed a programmable threshold (for the Test run this was set to ≈ 70 MeV) are summed and stored in a 17-bit register for readout. This scheme significantly compresses the data output of the FADC. During offline data analysis, a calibrated pedestal value is subtracted to obtain the actual summed energy. Two 20-slot VXS crates with 14 (13) FADC boards were employed in the Test run to read out the top (bottom) half of the ECal. In the Test run 385 out of 442 modules (87%) was used in offline reconstruction, 39 modules were disabled or not read out (no FADC channel available, no APD bias voltage or masked out due to excessive noise) and 18 was masked offline due to noise.

6. Trigger and Data Acquisition

The DAQ system handles acquisition of data from the ECal and SVT sub-detectors with two DAQ architectures. The SVT DAQ is based on Advanced Telecom Communications Architecture (ATCA) hardware while the ECal uses VXS based hardware. Data from the sub-detectors are only readout when a trigger signal from the trigger system is received formed on input from the ECal.

6.1. Trigger system

The trigger system is designed to select time coincidences of electromagnetic clusters in the top and bottom halves of the ECal. Figure 9 shows a schematic overview of each stage of the system. Each channel on the FADC board have an independent data path to send 5-bit pulse energy and 3-bit pulse arrival time information every 32 ns to a trigger processing board (CTP) in the same crate every. Contrary to the readout path described in Sec. 5.3, this energy is a pedestal subtracted time-over-threshold sum with programmable offsets and minimum threshold discriminator for each channel. With input from all FADC channels, i.e. one half of the ECal, the CTP performs cluster finding and calculates cluster energy, shape and timing information. The 3x3 fixed-window, highly parallel, FPGA-based cluster algorithm simultaneously searches for up to 125

clusters with energy sum larger than the programmable energy threshold (≈ 270 MeV). Crystals in the fixed-window are included in the sum if the leading edge of the pulse occurred within a 8 ns time window (4 ns minimum). To take into account clock skew and jitter throughout the system, the clustering algorithm can allow for crystal hits from up to seven previous or future 4 ns clock cycles to contribute to the cluster sum. A separate sub-system board (SSP) receives the clusters (only the highest energy 3x3 window to deal with overlapping and very large clusters) from the top and bottom half CTP every 32 ns and searches for pairs of clusters in a 8 ns wide trigger window. The trigger supervisor (TS) generates all the necessary signals and controls the entire DAQ system readout through the trigger interface units installed in every crate that participate in the readout process.

The trigger system is free-running and driven by the 250 MHz global clock and has essentially zero dead time at the occupancies expected for HPS. The trigger supervisor can apply dead time if necessary, for example on a ‘busy’ or ‘full’ condition from the front-end electronics. The system is designed to handle trigger rates above 50 kHz and has a latency set to $\approx 3 \mu$ s to match that required by the SVT APV25 ASIC. During the Test run, for the most part the trigger system required only a single cluster in either the top or bottom Ecal halves and was tested to above 100 kHz trigger rates by lowering thresholds.

6.2. SVT Data Acquisition

The SVT DAQ is based on the Reconfigurable Cluster Element (RCE) and cluster interconnect concept developed at SLAC as generic building blocks for DAQ systems. The RCE is a generic computational building block, housed on a separate daughter card called Data Processing Module (DPM), that are realized on an ATCA front board called the Cluster On Board (COB), see Fig. 10. The first generation RCE used in the Test



Figure 9: Block diagram of the ECAL trigger system consisting of the FADC that samples and digitizes signals for each detector channel and sends them for cluster finding in the CTP. The CTP clusters are sent to the SSP where the final trigger decision is taken based on pairs of clusters in both halves of the ECal. The decision is sent to the Trigger Supervisor (TS) that generates the necessary signals to readout the sub-detectors.



Figure 10: The SVT DAQ COB board with four data processing daughter cards (DPMs) visible on the left side.

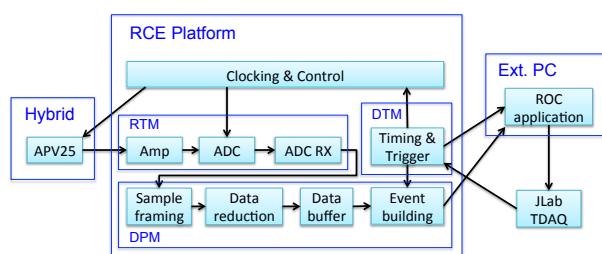


Figure 11: Block diagram overview of the SVT DAQ.

run consisted of a Virtex 5 FPGA with 1 GB of DDR3 RAM. A schematic overview of the system is shown in Fig. 11. The analog outputs of up to 12 SVT half-modules (60 APV25 ASICs) are digitized on the Rear-Transition-Module (RTM), a custom board on the back side of the ATCA crate, interfacing the HPS-specific readout to the generic DAQ components on the COB. A pre-amplifier converts the APV25 differential current output to a different voltage output scaled to the sensitive range of a 14-bit ADC operating at the system clock of 41.667 MHz. The RTM is organized into four sections with each section supporting three SVT half-module hybrids (15 APV25 ASICs). The RTM also includes a 4-channel fiber optic module and supporting logic which is used to interface to the JLab trigger system supervisor. Each section of the RTM is input to a DPM which applies thresholds for data reduction and organizes the sample data into UDP datagrams. The DPM also hosts an I²C controller used to configure and monitor the APV25 ASICs. A single ATCA crate with two COB cards was used, one supporting four DPMs and one supporting 3 DPMs and one DPM that is configured as the trigger and data transmission module. The two COB cards and their DPMs are interconnected with a 10Gb/s switch card [13] which also hosts two 1Gb/s Ethernet interfaces to the external SVT DAQ PC.

The external PC supports three network interfaces; two standard 1Gb/s Ethernet and one custom low latency data reception card. The first is used for slow control and monitoring of the 8 DPM modules and the second serves as the interface to the JLAB data acquisition system. The third custom low latency network interface is used to receive data from the ATCA crate and supports a low latency, reliable TTL trigger acknowledge interface to the trigger DPM. This PC hosts the SVT control and monitoring software as well as the Read Out Controller application used to interface with the JLab DAQ.

In order to minimize cable length for the analog APV25 output signal the ATCA crate was located approximately 1 m from the beam line, next to our cable vacuum feed troughs. Before shielding with lead-blankets was arranged, we observed two failures of normally reliable ATCA crate power supplies, time-correlated to beam instabilities.

While trigger rates during the Test run was significantly lower this system was tested at trigger rates up to 20 kHz and 50 MB/s.

6.3. General Data Acquisition and Online Computing

Every crate participating in the readout process contains a Readout Controller (ROC) that collects digitized information, processes it, and sends it on to the event builder. For the ECal, both VXS crates run ROC applications in a single blade Intel-based CPU module running under CentOS Linux OS. For the SVT DAQ, the ROC application runs on the external PC under RHEL. The event builder assembles information from the ROCs into a single event which is passed to the event recorder that writes it to a RAID5-based data storage system capable of handling up to 100 MB/s. The event builder and other critical components run on multicore Intel-based multi-CPU servers. The DAQ network system is a network router providing 10Gbit/s high-speed connection to the JLab computing facility for long-term storage. For the Test run, both the SVT and ECal ROC had a 1Gbit/s link to the network router.

7. Performance

7.1. SVT Performance

For the duration of the Test run all SVT modules and APV25 chips were configured to their nominal operating points [14] with all sensors reverse-biased at 180 V. The sensors were operated within a temperature range of 20 – 24°C. Approximately 97% of the 12,780 SVT

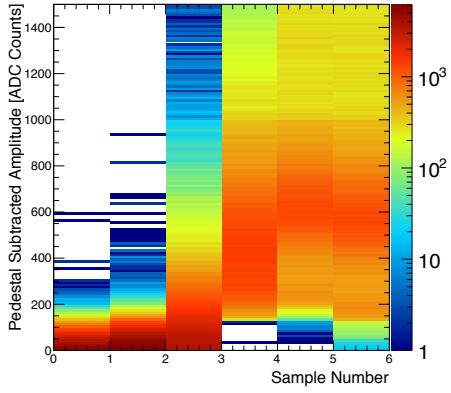


Figure 12: Accumulation of six pedestal-subtracted samples from individual SVT channels associated with hits on tracks.

channels were found to be operating normally; the fraction of dead or noisy channels varied from 2.4% to 4.7% throughout the Test run. Most of these losses were due to 2-4 misconfigured APV25 ASICs, a known noisy half-module and problems in two particular APV25 ASICs.

7.1.1. Cluster and Hit Reconstruction

After a trigger is received, the amplitude of every APV25 analog output is sampled and digitized in six consecutive time bins, separated by roughly 25 ns. The typical pulse shape obtained is shown in Fig. 12. As the figure demonstrates, the SVT was well timed-in to the trigger with the rise of the pulse at the 3rd sampling point. These hits are passed through a simple clustering algorithm which forms clusters by grouping adjacent strips with the position of a cluster on the sensor determined by the amplitude-weighted mean. With a linear gain up to ≈ 3 MIPs, the cluster charge for hits associated with a track follow the characteristic Landau shape. A noise level between $1.1 - 1.5 \times 10^3$ electrons was established through multiple calibration runs giving a signal to noise ratio of 21 – 25. Lab-based radioactive source tests was used to provide the absolute charge normalization.

In order to find the time, t_0 , and amplitude of each hit, the six samples from each channel are fitted to an ideal $CR - RC$ function. After clustering hits on a sensor, the hit time for each cluster is computed as the amplitude-weighted average of the individually fitted t_0 on each channel. The t_0 -resolution is studied by comparing the cluster hit time with the average of all cluster hit times on the track, see Fig. 13, which has the expected jit-

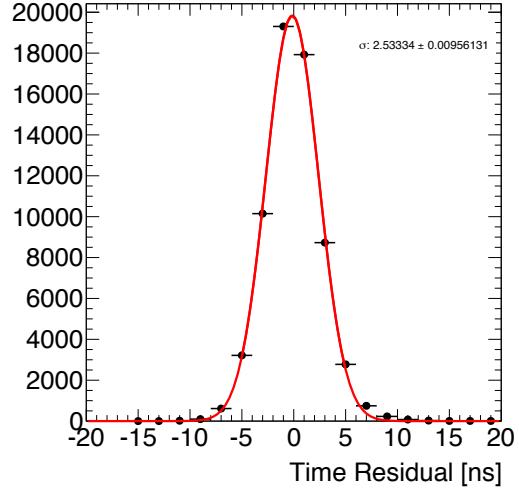


Figure 13: The residual of individual cluster times with the average of all clusters on the track.

ter due to clock phase and trigger, approximately 25 ns. After correcting for offsets from each sensor (time-of-flight, clock phase) and accounting for the correlation between the t_0 and track time, the extracted t_0 resolution is 2.6 ns. This is somewhat worse than the approximately 2 ns resolution expected for S/N 25 which we attribute to the true pulse shape differing from our idealized fit function which will be improved in the future. Reducing the APV25 ASIC pulse shaping time will also improve time resolution. These results show that we can operate with the six sample readout mode of the APV25 chip and achieve time resolution adequate for pileup rejection during electron running in HPS.

While occupancy was slightly larger than expected, good agreement between data and simulation was found after taking into account dead or noisy channels. The hit efficiency was estimated by measuring the number of good tracks with a hit close to the extrapolated intersection of a given sensor that was excluded from the track fit itself. Tracks which intersect regions with known bad channels or very close to in the edge region are excluded. The hit efficiency, see Fig. 14, was measured to be above 98% and fairly uniform across the SVT. The spatial resolution of similar microstrip sensors is well established by test beam data, against which the charge deposition model in the simulation is validated. This resolution can be parameterized as a function of the total signal to single-strip noise and the crossing angle of tracks through the sensor. The single-hit resolution for charged particles with signal to noise ratio above 20, as demonstrated here, is relatively constant at approxi-

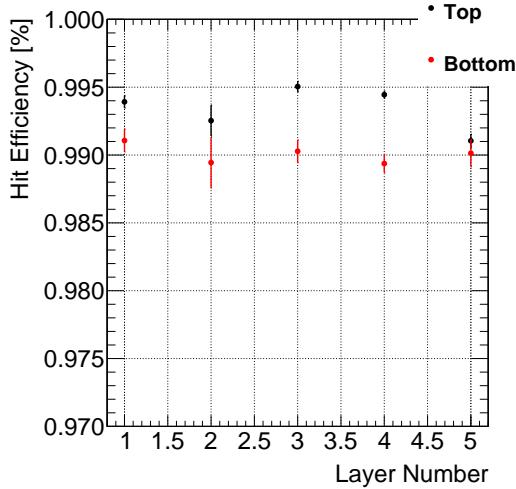


Figure 14: The hit reconstruction efficiency as a function of detector layer.

mately $6 \mu\text{m}$ for tracks that enters approximately normal to the sensors as in HPS.

7.1.2. Momentum and Vertexing Resolution

By selecting e^+e^- pairs from the triggered events we are able to study basic distributions of pair production kinematics. Pairs of oppositely charged tracks, one in the top and one in the bottom half of the SVT, with momentum larger than 400 MeV were selected. The pair production kinematics are relatively well reproduced as shown in Fig. 15.

The expected momentum resolution from simulation is between 4-5% for tracks in the momentum range of the Test run. By looking at the agreement between data and simulation in the shape of the kinematic distributions for single- and two track events and adjusting the overall momentum scale and smearing simulated events with a Gaussian resolution we estimate an agreement with the nominal scale and resolution to within 10%.

In the Test run, as well as in electron running with HPS, the dominant source of uncertainty in the tracking and vertexing is multiple Coulomb scattering. For the vertexing performance the foremost difference compared to electron beam running is that the target was located approximately 67 cm upstream from our nominal target position; giving almost collinear tracks in the detector. The increased lever arm over which tracks are extrapolated widens the resolution with up to a factor

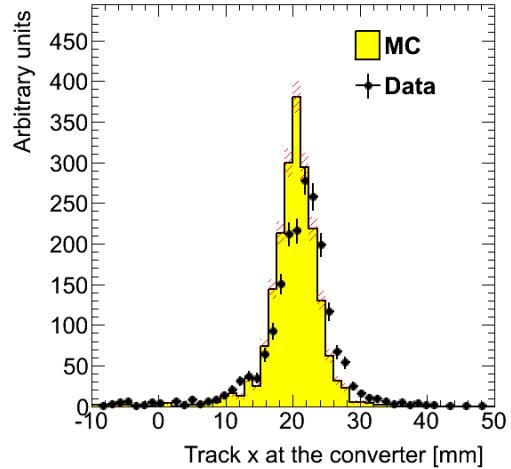
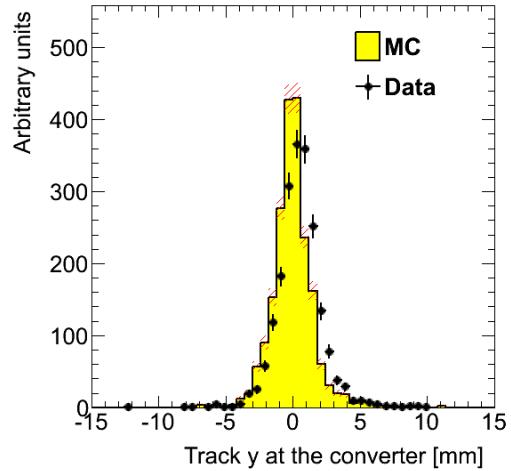


Figure 15: Vertical (top) and horizontal (bottom) extrapolated track position at the converter position taking into account the measured fringe field.

of eight (depending on momentum) compared to what is achieved at the nominal electron target position for HPS. Figure 16 shows the horizontal and vertical positions of the extrapolated track at the converter position. While residual alignment show small shifts good agreement on the widths between data and simulated events, indicating a good understanding of our material budget and distribution in the SVT. Having the dominant contribution to the vertex resolution approximately right demonstrates that the resolution in HPS, with a target at 10 cm, will be as calculated.

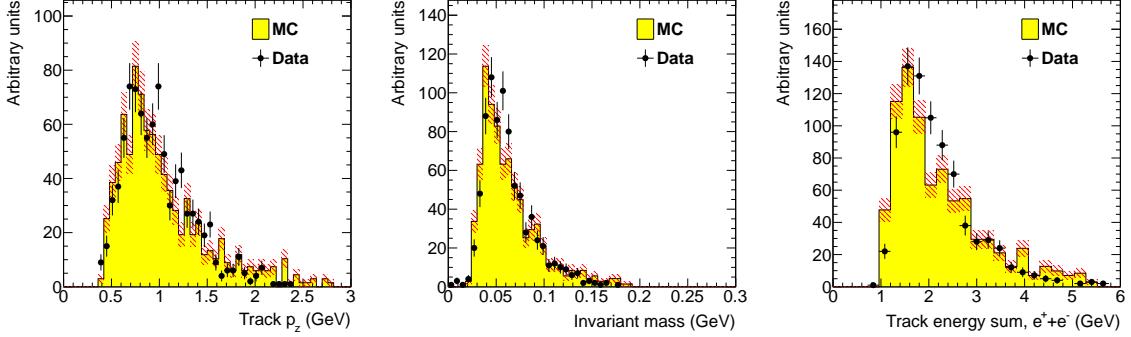


Figure 15: Kinematic distributions for e^+e^- pairs selected by opposite charged tracks in the top and bottom half of the tracker: track momentum in the top half of the SVT (left), invariant mass (middle) and the sum of the track momentum for the pair (right).

7.2. ECal Performance

The integrated pulse of each FADC channel was converted to energy by subtracting a pedestal and apply a conversion factor to convert ADC counts to energy. The pedestals are measured using special runs where each trigger records 100 samples of signals from the APDs with 4 ns between each sample. The pedestals were extracted from the part of the window before the actual hit in the calorimeter. After subtracting the pedestal, modules with integrated pulse energy of about 73 MeV are clustered using a simple algorithm similar to the one deployed for the trigger (see Sec. 6.1). Due to the high effective readout threshold of 73 MeV the average number of crystals in a cluster was ~ 3 and the simple clustering algorithm worked well for reconstruction of the detected shower energy. An average noise level of approximately 15 MeV was measured in special pedestal runs.

The ratio of the ECal cluster energy E to the momentum p of a matched track in the SVT was used to determine the conversion factors from ADC counts to energy. To compare data and simulation, all inoperable or noisy channels in the SVT and ECal was disabled in both data and simulation so that any efficiency or bias that affect the data should be reflected in the simulation. Iteratively, conversion coefficients for each crystal is adjusted until the E/p ratio in data and simulation are similar. The distribution of the E/p ratio in data and simulation are compared in Fig. 17. The peak position of the distribution indicates the sampling fraction of the ECal, the fraction of the incident particle energy measured in the cluster. The width and tails of the distribution in data indicates imperfect calibration and noise of the ECal modules. This level of calibration and the agreement with simulation was found to be sufficient to study normalized event rates on the Test run.

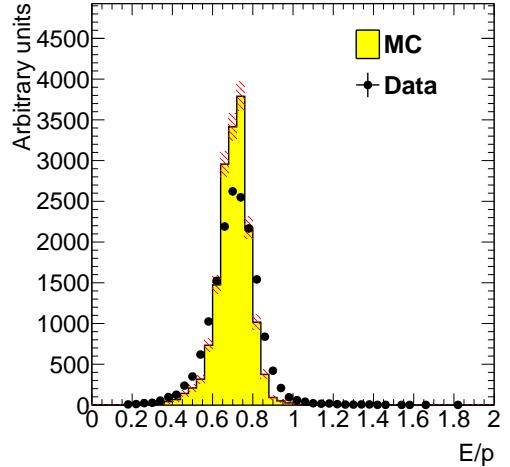


Figure 17: The ECal energy over track momentum ratio (E/p) comparing data and simulation for inclusive events in the top half of the ECal.

7.3. Trigger Performance

As described above the energy from each crystal is measured differently in the trigger and what is readout from the ECal. The trigger performance was studied by simulating the trigger for each event and comparing to how the events were actually triggered. First, we simulate the FADC trigger path by converting from readout hits (with fixed-size window integration) to trigger hits (time-over-threshold integration). Secondly, the CTP clustering algorithm and the trigger decision from the SSP is simulated before we compare the trigger decision and trigger time to what was reported by the actual trigger. For every event, the trigger reports the trigger decision as a bit mask (top half, bottom half or both) and the time the trigger fired. To eliminate trigger bias, we use a tag and probe method: to study the trigger performance in one half of the ECal, we select events which triggered the other half and where there was exactly one probe cluster in the ECal half under study. We then measure trigger efficiency as the fraction of tagged events that fired the trigger in the probe half as a function of the probe cluster energy, shown in Fig. 18. The

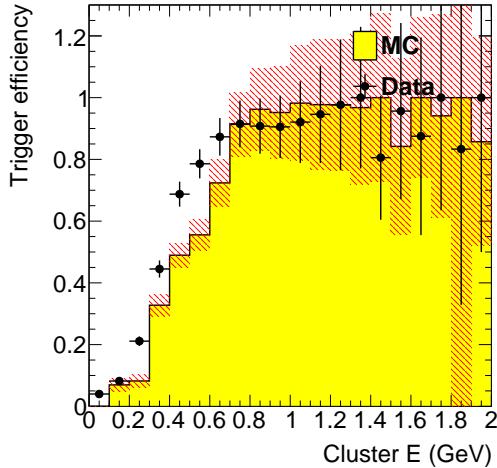


Figure 18: Trigger efficiency in both halves of the ECal for data and simulation as a function of cluster energy.

trigger turn-on is slow and reaches an uneven plateau just below 1 GeV for two reasons; gain variations between different crystals lead to the threshold variations and the nonlinearity of the time-over-threshold integral means that the effective threshold is higher for clusters that span multiple crystals. The effective trigger threshold is therefore dependent on position and energy of the particle as well as cluster multiplicity.

Converter (% X_0)	1.60	0.45	0.18
EGS5	1162 ± 112	255 ± 28	94 ± 17
GEANT4	2633 ± 250	371 ± 38	114 ± 18
Observed	1064 ± 2	196 ± 1	92 ± 1

Table 4: Observed and predicted number of events for 1 s of beam at 90 nA for three different converter thicknesses. The uncertainty on the prediction includes systematic uncertainties from ECal alignment, background normalization, beam current normalization and limited statistics in the simulation.

As a cross-check, the turn-on from the trigger threshold was measured to be 1280 in units of ADC counts as expected. The threshold was not perfectly sharp because of uncertainties in the conversion from readout to trigger hits described above, but based on comparisons with simulation we found that the trigger worked exactly as specified.

7.4. Trigger Rate Comparisons

Trigger rates observed in the Test run are dominated by multiple Coulomb scattered e^+e^- pairs in the converter. In simulated events, the rate of triggers depend on the modeling of the pairs angular distribution and the subsequent multiple Coulomb scattering in the converter. Rates from different converter thicknesses are used to study the varying multiple Coulomb scattering contribution (pair production angle is constant). Restricting clusters to a well calibrated region of the ECal and subtracting the "no converter" background we see agreement with the rates predicted by the EGS5 simulation program, see Tab. 7.4. This gives further confidence that the dominant source of background occupancy for HPS, multiple Coulomb scattered beam electrons, is well described [15, 16, 17].

8. Summary and Outlook

The HPS Test experiment, using a simplified version of the apparatus planned for the full HPS experiment in a parasitic photon beam, demonstrated the feasibility of the detector technologies proposed for the silicon vertex tracker, electromagnetic calorimeter, and data acquisition systems. Performance from each of these subsystems has been shown to be adequate to conduct the full experiment successfully. Studies of multiple Coulomb scattering tails of electrons and positrons from photon conversions further backs expectations from simulation, giving credence to estimates of the detector backgrounds expected in electron beam running for HPS.

9. Acknowledgements

The authors are grateful for the support from Hall B at JLab and especially Hall B technicians for support during installation and decommissioning. They also would like to commend the CEBAF personnel for achieving good performance when we needed it; the last few hours of operating CEBAF6. The tremendous support from home institutions and supporting staff also needs praise from the authors.

This work has been supported by the US Department of Energy.

References

- [1] B. Holdom, Two U(1)'s and Epsilon Charge Shifts, *Phys.Lett.* B166 (1986) 196.
- [2] R. Essig, J. A. Jaros, W. Wester, P. H. Adrian, S. Andreas, et al., Dark Sectors and New, Light, Weakly-Coupled Particles (2013).
- [3] M. Pospelov, Secluded U(1) below the weak scale, *Phys.Rev.* D80 (2009) 095002.
- [4] N. Arkani-Hamed, D. P. Finkbeiner, T. R. Slatyer, N. Weiner, A Theory of Dark Matter, *Phys.Rev.* D79 (2009) 015014.
- [5] J. D. Bjorken, R. Essig, P. Schuster, N. Toro, New Fixed-Target Experiments to Search for Dark Gauge Forces, *Phys.Rev.* D80 (2009) 075018.
- [6] A. G. *et al.* (HPS Collaboration), HPS Heavy Photon Search Proposal, 2010.
- [7] A. Sandorfi, *et al.*, 2012. URL: http://www.jlab.org/exp_prog/proposals/06/PR-06-101.pdf.
- [8] I. Rashevskaya, S. Bettarini, G. Rizzo, L. Bosisio, S. Dittongo, et al., Radiation damage of silicon structures with electrons of 900-MeV, *Nucl.Instrum.Meth.* A485 (2002) 126–132.
- [9] D. S. Denisov, S. Soldner-Rembold, D0 Run IIB Silicon Detector Upgrade: Technical Design Report (2001).
- [10] M. French, L. Jones, Q. Morrissey, A. Neviani, R. Turchetta, et al., Design and results from the APV25, a deep sub-micron CMOS front-end chip for the CMS tracker, *Nucl.Instrum.Meth.* A466 (2001) 359–365.
- [11] M. Friedl, C. Irmler, M. Pernicka, Readout of silicon strip detectors with position and timing information, *Nucl.Instrum.Meth.* A598 (2009) 82–83.
- [12] D. H., *et al.*, Integrated tests of a high speed VXS switch card and 250 MSPS flash ADCs, 2007. doi:10.1109/NSSMIC.2007.4436457.
- [13] R. Larsen, Emerging New Electronics Standards for Physics, *Conf.Proc.* C110904 (2011) 1981–1985.
- [14] L. Jones, APV25-S1: User guide version 2.2, RAL Microelectronics Design Group, 2011.
- [15] D. Attwood, P. Bell, S. Bull, T. McMahon, J. Wilson, et al., The scattering of muons in low Z materials, *Nucl.Instrum.Meth.* B251 (2006) 41–55.
- [16] G. Shen, C. Ankenbrandt, M. Atac, R. M. Brown, S. Ecklund, et al., Measurement of Multiple Scattering at 50-GeV/c to 200-GeV/c, *Phys.Rev.* D20 (1979) 1584.
- [17] B. Gottschalk, A. Koehler, R. Schneider, J. Sisterson, M. Wagner, Multiple coulomb scattering of 160 mev protons, *Nuclear Instruments and Methods in Physics Research Section B: Beam Interactions with Materials and Atoms* 74 (1993) 467 – 490.