The Silicon Vertex Detector of the Belle II Experiment

Y. Uematsu^r, K. Adamczyk^u, L. Aggarwal^j, H. Aihara^r, T. Aziz^k, S. Bacher^u, 2 S. Bahinipati^f, G. Batignani^{l,m}, J. Baudot^e, P. K. Behera^g, S. Bettarini^{l,m}, 3 T. Bilka^c, A. Bozek^u, F. Buchsteiner^b, G. Casarosa^{l,m}, L. Corona^{l,m}, T. Czank^q, S. B. Das^h, G. Dujany^e, C. Finck^e, F. Forti^{l,m}, M. Friedl^b. 5 A. Gabrielli^{n,o}, E. Ganiev^{n,o}, B. Gobbo^o, S. Halder^k, K. Hara^{s,p}, S. Hazra^k, 6 T. Higuchi^q, C. Irmler^b, A. Ishikawa^{s,p}, H. B. Jeon^t, Y. Jin^{n,o}, C. Joo^q, 7 M. Kaleta^u, A. B. Kaliyar^k, J. Kandra^c, K. H. Kang^q, P. Kapusta^u, 8 P. Kodyš^c, T. Kohriki^s, M. Kumar^h, R. Kumarⁱ, C. La Licata^q, K. Lalwani^h, q R. Leboucher^d, S. C. Lee^t, J. Libby^g, L. Martel^e, L. Massaccesi^{l,m}, 10 S. N. Mayekar^k, G. B. Mohanty^k, T. Morii^q, K. R. Nakamura^{s,p}, 11 Z. Natkaniec^u, Y. Onuki^r, W. Ostrowicz^u, A. Paladino^{l,m}, E. Paoloni^{l,m}, 12 H. Park^t, L. Polat^d, K. K. Rao^k, I. Ripp-Baudot^e, G. Rizzo^{l,m}, D. Sahoo^k, 13 C. Schwanda^b, J. Serrano^d, J. Suzuki^s, S. Tanaka^{s,p}, H. Tanigawa^r, 14 R. Thalmeier^b, R. Tiwari^k, T. Tsuboyama^{s,p}, O. Verbycka^u, L. Vitale^{n,o} 15 K. Wan^r, Z. Wang^r, J. Webb^a, J. Wiechczynski^m, H. Yin^b, L. Zani^d, 16 (Belle-II SVD Collaboration) 17 ^aSchool of Physics, University of Melbourne, Melbourne, Victoria 3010, Australia 18 ^bInstitute of High Energy Physics, Austrian Academy of Sciences, 1050 Vienna, Austria 19 ^c Faculty of Mathematics and Physics, Charles University, 121 16 Prague, Czech Republic 20 ^dAix Marseille Université, CNRS/IN2P3, CPPM, 13288 Marseille, France 21 ^eIPHC, UMR 7178, Université de Strasbourg, CNRS, 67037 Strasbourg, France 22 ^fIndian Institute of Technology Bhubaneswar, Satya Nagar, India 23 ⁹Indian Institute of Technology Madras, Chennai 600036, India 24 ^hMalaviya National Institute of Technology Jaipur, Jaipur 302017, India 25 ⁱPunjab Agricultural University, Ludhiana 141004, India 26 ^jPanjab University, Chandigarh 160014, India 27 ^kTata Institute of Fundamental Research, Mumbai 400005, India 28 ¹Dipartimento di Fisica, Università di Pisa, I-56127 Pisa, Italy 29 ^mINFN Sezione di Pisa, I-56127 Pisa, Italy 30 ⁿDipartimento di Fisica, Università di Trieste, I-34127 Trieste, Italy 31 ^oINFN Sezione di Trieste, I-34127 Trieste, Italy 32 ^p The Graduate University for Advanced Studies (SOKENDAI), Hayama 240-0193, Japan 33 ^qKavli Institute for the Physics and Mathematics of the Universe (WPI), University of 34 Tokyo, Kashiwa 277-8583, Japan 35 ^rDepartment of Physics, University of Tokyo, Tokyo 113-0033, Japan 36 ^sHigh Energy Accelerator Research Organization (KEK), Tsukuba 305-0801, Japan 37 ^tDepartment of Physics, Kyungpook National University, Daegu 41566, Korea 38 ^uH. Niewodniczanski Institute of Nuclear Physics, Krakow 31-342, Poland 39

40 Abstract

The Silicon Vertex Detector (SVD) is a part of the vertex detector in the Belle II experiment at the SuperKEKB collider (KEK, Japan). Since the start

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Email address: uematsu@hep.phys.s.u-tokyo.ac.jp (Y. Uematsu) Preprint submitted to Nuclear Instruments and Methods A Ja

of data taking in spring 2019, the SVD has been operating stably and reliably 43 with a high signal-to-noise ratio and hit efficiency, achieving good spatial resolu-44 tion and high track reconstruction efficiency. The hit occupancy, which mostly 45 comes from the beam-related background, is currently about 0.5% in the in-46 nermost layer, causing no impact on the SVD performance. In anticipation of 47 the operation at higher luminosity in the next years, two strategies to sustain 48 the tracking performance in future high beam background conditions have been 49 developed and tested on data. One is to reduce the number of signal waveform 50 samples to decrease dead time, data size, and occupancy. The other is to uti-51 lize the good hit-time resolution to reject the beam background hits. We also 52 measured the radiation effects on the full depletion voltage, sensor current, and 53 strip noise caused during the first two and a half years of operation. The results 54 show no detrimental effect on the SVD performance. 55

56 Keywords: Silicon strip detector, Vertex detector, Tracking detector, Belle II

57 1. Introduction

The Belle II experiment [1] aims to probe new physics beyond the Standard 58 Model in high-luminosity e⁺e⁻ collisions at the SuperKEKB collider (KEK, 59 Japan) [2]. The main collision energy in the center-of-mass system is 10.58 GeV 60 on the $\Upsilon(4S)$ resonance, which enables various physics programs based on the 61 large samples of B mesons, τ leptons, and D mesons. Also, the asymmetric en-62 ergy of the 7 GeV e^- beam and 4 GeV e^+ beam is adopted for time-dependent 63 CP violation measurements. The target of SuperKEKB is to accumulate an in-64 tegrated luminosity of 50 ab^{-1} with peak luminosity of about $6 \times 10^{35} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. 65 In June 2021, SuperKEKB recorded the world's highest instantaneous luminos-66 ity of 3.1×10^{34} cm⁻²s⁻¹. The data accumulated before July 2021 corresponds 67 to an integrated luminosity of 213 fb⁻¹. 68

The Vertex Detector (VXD) is the innermost detector in the Belle II detector system. The VXD has six layers: the inner two layers (layers 1 and 2) are the Pixel Detector (PXD), and the outer four layers (layers 3 to 6) are the Silicon Vertex Detector (SVD) [3]. The schematic cross-sectional view of the VXD is
shown in Fig. 1. The PXD consists of DEPFET pixel sensors, and its innermost
radius is 1.4 cm from the beam interaction point (IP). A detailed description of
the SVD appears in Sec. 2.

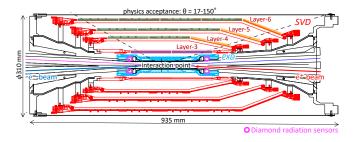


Figure 1: Schematic cross-sectional view of the VXD. The SVD is red, the PXD is light blue, and the IP beam pipe diamonds are pink circles. In the upper half of the VXD the locations of the three types of SVD DSSDs are indicated by boxes in three colors: purple for small sensors, green for large sensors, and orange for trapezoidal sensors as described in Tab. 1.

Diamond sensors [4] are mounted on the IP beam pipe and the bellows pipes outside of the VXD. The diamond monitors radiation doses for estimating the dose in the SVD. The diamond also sends beam abort requests to SuperKEKB to avoid severe damage to the detector if the radiation level gets too high.

80 2. Belle II Silicon Vertex Detector

The SVD is crucial for extrapolating the tracks to the PXD to measure the decay vertices with the PXD and point at a region-of-interest to reduce the PXD data. Other roles of the SVD are the standalone track reconstruction of lowmomentum charged particles and their particle identification using ionization energy deposits. The SVD is also critical for vertexing the decay inside the SVD volume, i.e., long-lived particles like K_S mesons.

- The SVD consists of four layers of double-sided silicon strip detectors (DSSDs) [5].
- $_{**}$ The material budget of the SVD is about 0.7% of a radiation length per layer.
- ⁸⁹ On each DSSD plane, a local coordinate is defined with u-axis along n-side strips

and v-axis perpendicular to u-axis, i.e., p-side strips and n-side strips provide 90 u and v information, respectively. In the cylindrical coordinate, u and v cor-91 responds to $r-\varphi$ and z. The SVD consists of three types of sensors: "small" 92 rectangular sensors in layer 3, "large" rectangular sensors in the barrel region of 93 layers 4, 5, and 6, and "trapezoidal" sensors installed slantwise in the forward 94 region of layers 4, 5, and 6. The main characteristics of these sensors are sum-95 marized in Tab. 1. The sensors are manufactured by two companies: the small 96 and large sensors by Hamamatsu and trapezoidal sensors by Micron. The full 97 depletion voltage is 60 V for Hamamatsu sensors and 20 V for Micron sensors; 98 both types of sensors are operated at 100 V. 99

	Small	Large	Trapezoidal
No. of u/p-strips	768	768	768
u/p-strip pitch	$50 \ \mu m$	$75~\mu{ m m}$	50–75 μm
No. of v/n-strips	768	512	512
v/n-strip pitch	160 µm	$240~\mu\mathrm{m}$	$240~\mu\mathrm{m}$
Thickness	320 µm	$320~\mu\mathrm{m}$	$300~\mu{\rm m}$
Manufacturer	Hamamatsu		Micron

Table 1: Table of the main characteristics of the three types of sensors. Only readout strips are taken into account for number of strips and strip pitch. All sensors have one intermediate floating strip between two readout strips.

The front-end ASIC, the APV25 [6], was originally developed for the CMS 100 Silicon Tracker. The APV25 tolerates more than 100 Mrad of radiation. It has 101 128 channels with a shaping time of about 50 ns. For the SVD, the APV25 102 is operated in "multi-peak" data sampling mode, visualized in Fig. 2. The 103 chip samples the height of the signal waveform with the 32 MHz clock (31 ns 104 period) and stores each sample in an analog ring buffer. Since the bunch-crossing 105 frequency is eight times faster than the sampling clock, the stored samples are 106 not synchronous to the beam collision in contrast to CMS. In the present readout 107 configuration (the six-samples mode), at every reception of the Belle II global 108 Level-1 trigger, the chip reads out six successive samples stored in the buffers. 109

The six-samples mode offers a wide enough time window $(6 \times 31 \text{ ns} = 187 \text{ ns})$ 110 to accommodate large timing shifts of the trigger. In preparation for operation 111 with higher luminosity, where background occupancy, trigger dead-time, and the 112 data size increase, we developed the three/six-mixed acquisition mode (mixed-113 mode). The mixed-mode is a new method to read out the signal samples from 114 the APV25, in which the number of samples changes between three and six 115 in each event, depending on the timing precision of the Level-1 trigger signal. 116 For triggers with precise timing, three-samples data are read out with half time 117 window and half data size compared to six-samples data, reducing the effects 118 due to higher luminosity. This functionality was already implemented in the 119 running system and confirmed by a few hours of smooth physics data taking. 120 Before starting to use the mixed-mode, we assess the performance degradation 121 due to the change of the acquisition mode. As the first step, the effect in the 122 hit efficiency was evaluated as described in Sec. 3. 123

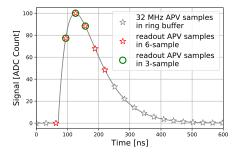


Figure 2: Example of sampling in "multi-peak" mode of the APV25. The gray line shows the signal waveform after the CR-RC shaper circuit. The stars show the sampled signal height recorded in the analog ring buffer according to the 32 MHz sampling clock. The red stars indicate the six successive samples read out at the trigger reception in the six-samples mode. The red stars with a green circle indicate the samples read out in the three-samples acquisition.

The APV25 chips are mounted on each middle sensor (chip-on-sensor concept) with thermal isolation foam in between. The merit of this concept is shorter signal propagation length and hence reduced noise level. To minimize the material budget the APV25 chips on the sensor are thinned down to 100 μm. The APV25 chips are mounted on a single side of the sensor and the signal readout is performed from the opposite side via wrapped flexible printed circuits. The power consumption of the APV25 chip is 0.4 W/chip and 700 W in the entire SVD. The chips are cooled by a bi-phase -20° C CO₂ evaporative cooling system.

133 **3. Performance**

The SVD has been operating reliably and smoothly since March 2019. The total fraction of masked strips is about 1%. The only issue was the disablement of one APV25 chip during the spring of 2019, which was remediated by reconnecting a cable that summer. The SVD has also demonstrated stable and excellent performance [7]. The hit efficiency is continuously over 99% in most of the sensors. The charge collection is reasonably efficient, and the most probable values of the cluster signal-to-noise ratio distributions range from 13 to 30.

We measured the cluster position resolution by analyzing the $e^+e^- \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$ 141 data [8]. The resolution is estimated from the residual between the cluster po-142 sition and the track position, not biased by the target cluster, after subtracting 143 the effect of the track extrapolation error. The cluster position resolutions for 144 different incident angles are shown in Fig. 3. The observed resolution has the 145 expected shape, showing a minimum when the tangent of the projected incident 146 angle equals strip pitch divided by sensor thickness. Given the various sensor 147 pitches with one floating strip, the minimum is expected at 14 (21) degrees on 148 the v/n-side and at 4 (7) degrees on the u/p-side for layer 3 (4, 5, and 6), respec-149 tively. The resolution for normal incident angle is also in good agreement with 150 the expected digital resolution, that is 23 (35) μ m on the v/n-side, 7 (11) μ m 151 on the u/p-side, respectively for layer 3 (4, 5, and 6). Still, some studies are 152 ongoing to improve the resolution especially for the layer-3 u/p-side, where at 153 154 normal incidence a slightly higher resolution is measured (9 μ m) compared to the expectations. 155



The cluster hit-time resolution was also evaluated in candidate hadronic

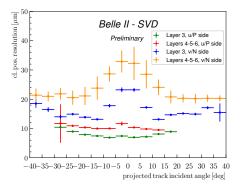


Figure 3: The SVD cluster position resolution depending on the projected track incident angle. The green (blue) plot shows the resolution in the u/p-side (n/v-side) of layer-3 sensors, and the red (yellow) one shows the u/p-side (n/v-side) of layers-4, 5, and 6 sensors.

events¹ using the reference event time estimated by the Central Drift Cham-157 ber (CDC) outside of the SVD. The error on the event time, about 0.7 ns, 158 was subtracted to evaluate the intrinsic SVD hit-time resolution. The resulting 159 resolution is 2.9 ns on the u/p-side and 2.4 ns on the v/n-side. The hit-time 160 distributions for signal² and background³ are shown in Fig. 4. The narrowly 161 peaking signal distribution and the broad background distribution make it pos-162 sible to reject off-time background hits efficiently. For example, if we reject 163 hits with the hit-time less than -38 ns in this plot, we can reject 45% of the 164 background hits while keeping 99% of the signal hits. The off-time hit rejection 165 is essential to sustain the good tracking performance in the future high beam 166 background condition. 167

To evaluate the performance in the mixed-mode, we compare three-samples data with six-samples data. The three-samples data shows comparable performance to the six-samples data for the trigger with no timing deviation because the three-sample's time window can accommodate the relevant part of the signal waveform to evaluate the signal height and timing. However, when the trigger

¹The events with more than three good tracks and not like Bhabha scattering.

 $^{^{2}}$ The clusters found to be used in the tracks in the hadronic events.

 $^{^{3}\}mathrm{The}$ clusters in events triggered by delayed-Bhabha pseudo-random trigger.

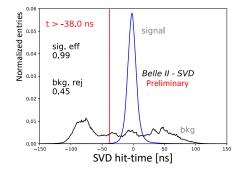


Figure 4: Example of the background hit rejection using hit-time. The blue distribution shows the signal, and the black distribution shows the background. The ordinates for signal and background are arbitrary normalized.

has a jitter and the timing shift happens, some part of the signal waveform can 173 be out of the three-sample's time window, and the reconstruction performance 174 deteriorates. We examined the effect on the hit efficiency as a function of the 175 trigger timing shift. The effect is evaluated by the relative hit efficiency, which 176 is defined as the ratio of the hit efficiency in the three-samples data to the one 177 in the six-samples data. The trigger timing shift is evaluated by the CDC event 178 time. For this study, the three-samples data are emulated in the offline analy-179 sis from the six-samples data by selecting consecutive three samples at a fixed 180 latency to the Level-1 trigger signal. The resulting relative efficiencies as a func-181 tion of the trigger timing shift in the hadronic events are shown in Fig. 5. The 182 decreasing trend is observed for the shift of the trigger timing, as expected. As 183 a result, the relative efficiency is over 99.9% for the trigger timing shift within 184 ± 30 ns, which is almost all the events. 185

¹⁸⁶ 4. Beam-related background effects on SVD

The beam-related background (BG) increases the hit occupancy of the SVD, which in turn degrades the tracking performance. To ensure the performance, we set the occupancy limit in layer-3 sensors to be about 3%, which will be loosened by a factor of two after we apply the hit-time rejection described in

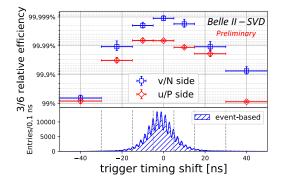


Figure 5: The relative hit efficiencies (the ratios of the hit efficiency in the three-samples data to the one in the six-samples data) as a function of the trigger timing shift for v/n-side (blue square) and u/p-side (red diamond). The positive (negative) trigger timing shift corresponds to early (late) trigger timing.

¹⁹¹ Sec. 3. Although the average hit occupancy in layer-3 sensors is below 0.5% with ¹⁹² the current luminosity, it reaches about 3% in the projection at the luminosity ¹⁹³ of 8×10^{35} cm⁻²s⁻¹ based on the hit occupancy in the Monte Carlo (MC) ¹⁹⁴ simulation and the data/MC BG scale factors in the current beam optics.

Radiation effects in silicon sensors due to the BG are also relevant for the 195 detector performance over the entire lifetime of the experiment. Surface dam-196 age is caused by ionizing energy loss, parameterized in terms of total ionizing 197 dose. Effects due to bulk damage caused by displacement from non-ionizing 198 energy loss (NIEL) are expressed as a function of the equivalent 1-MeV neutron 199 fluence [9]. Bulk displacement damage from NIEL can alter the effective doping 200 concentration and hence the depletion voltage, and can also increase the bulk-201 generated leakage current. Surface damage can lead to larger sensor capacitance 202 and noise by increasing the SiO_2 fixed oxide charge, and higher surface-generated 203 leakage current. 204

From the data/MC-rescaled BG extrapolation, the expected integrated dose in the SVD is about 0.2 Mrad/smy, and the equivalent 1-MeV neutron fluence is about $5 \times 10^{11} \text{ n}_{eq}/\text{cm}^2/\text{smy}$ (smy: Snowmass Year = 10^7 sec). The radiation hardness of the SVD sensors is about 10 Mrad and about $10^{13} \text{ n}_{eq}/\text{cm}^2$ based

on the irradiation campaigns on the SVD sensors [3], up to about 9 Mrad with 209 ⁶⁰Co source, and past studies relevant for the bulk damage on similar DSSD 210 sensors. Particularly relevant in this respect is the experience on the BaBar 211 Silicon Vertex Tracker, equipped with Micron DSSDs and exposed to similar 212 radiation as the SVD expectation. These sensors were successfully operated 213 for several years up to an integrated dose of 4.5 Mrad [10]. They were also 214 irradiated in dedicated campaigns to study bulk damage effects above bulk 215 type inversion (reached at about 3 Mrad of integrated dose and 10^{13} cm⁻² of 216 equivalent neutron fluence), and operated successfully up to 9 Mrad [11, 12]. 217 Considering these past studies, we expect to be able to safely operate the SVD 218 even for ten years at high luminosity, with a safety factor of two to three against 219 BG extrapolation. However, the long-term BG extrapolation is affected by large 220 uncertainties from the optimization of collimator settings in MC and the future 221 evolution of the non-simulated beam injection background. This uncertainty, 222 together with the relatively small safety factor, motivates the VXD upgrade to 223 improve the tolerance of hit rates and radiation damage, and the technology 224 assessment is ongoing for multiple sensor options. 225

In the first years of operation in Belle II, it is fundamental to carefully monitor the integrated dose in the SVD and its effects on sensor properties, such as depletion voltage, leakage current, and noise. Although not expected to impact the detector performance, these initial measurements shown in the rest of this section are crucial to confirm the extrapolation.

The integrated dose in the layer-3 mid-plane sensors, which are the most 231 exposed in the SVD, is estimated to be 70 krad in the first two and a half years 232 of operation. The estimation is based on the measured dose by the diamonds 233 on the IP beam pipe and the measured correlation between the SVD occupancy 234 and the diamond dose [13]. Thanks to a newly introduced random trigger line, 235 we removed an overestimation of factor three in the previous study. The new 236 estimate still has an uncertainty of about 50%, mainly due to the unavailability 237 of this new trigger line before December 2020. Assuming the dose/ n_{eq} fluence 238 ratio of $2.3 \times 10^9 \text{ n}_{eq}/\text{cm}^2/\text{krad}$ from MC, 1-MeV equivalent neutron fluence is 239

evaluated to be about $1.6 \times 10^{11} \text{ n}_{eq}/\text{cm}^2$.

The full depletion voltage is measured from the relation between the v/n-side 241 strip noise and the bias voltage, as detailed in Ref. [7]. The result is consistent 242 with measurements performed on the bare sensors before the installation, rang-243 ing from 20 to 60 V. No change in full depletion voltage is observed in the first 244 two and a half years of operation, as expected from low integrated neutron flu-245 ence of $1.6 \times 10^{11} n_{eq}/cm^2$ at this stage. This will be continuously monitored 246 since changes in the depletion voltage are expected in the future. After several 247 years with high luminosity, we could also observe bulk type inversion, at about 248 $10^{13} n_{eq}/cm^2$, but from the experience on the BaBar DSSD reported above, we 249 expect no significant impact on our operation. 250

The leakage currents are generated in both bulk and surface, thus affected 251 by both ionizing and non-ionizing damage. The upper plot of Fig. 6 shows the 252 linear correlation between the current and the integrated dose. The slopes for 253 all the sensors are $2-5 \,\mu A/cm^2/Mrad$, as summarized in the lower plot of Fig. 6. 254 The large variations can be explained by temperature effects and the deviation 255 from averaging the dose in each layer in the estimation. The slopes are in the 256 same order of magnitude as previously measured in the BaBar experiment [10], 257 $1 \ \mu A/cm^2/Mrad$ at 20°C. The precise temperature in layer 3 of the SVD is 258 unknown but expected to be in a similar regime. While the leakage current 259 is increasing, the impact on the strip noise is suppressed by the short shaping 260 time (50 ns) in APV25. It is expected to be comparable to the strip-capacitive 261 noise only after 10 Mrad irradiation and not problematic for ten years where 262 the integrated dose is estimated to be 2 Mrad. 263

The noise increases non-linearly to the integrated dose, as shown in Fig. 7. The observed 20–25% increase in layer 3 does not affect the SVD performance. Fixed oxide charges on sensor surface increase with dose, with saturation expected at around 100 krad, also non-linearly enlarging the inter-strip capacitance. The noise saturation is already observed on the v/n-side and starts to be seen on the u/p-side.

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In conclusion, all the initial effects from radiation damage in the SVD mea-

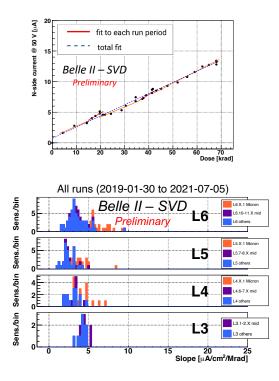


Figure 6: (upper) Effect of the integrated dose on the leakage current in the n/v-side of one layer-3 sensor. The slope is fitted for each run period (solid red line) and all the runs (dashed blue line). Both fit results agree with each other and are consistent with the linear increase. (lower) The fit results of all the sensors for all runs. The sensors are classified as trapezoidal sensors in the forward region (Micron), sensors around the midplane, and the others.

²⁷¹ sured so far are within the expectation and do not affect detector performance.
²⁷² We expect good SVD performance can be kept after ten years with high lumi²⁷³ nosity, with some safety margin on top of the extrapolation from BG simulation,
²⁷⁴ affected by large uncertainty. A new irradiation campaign on the SVD sensors
²⁷⁵ has also recently started to further study bulk damage effects even behind bulk
²⁷⁶ type inversion.

277 5. Conclusions

The SVD has been taking data in Belle II since March 2019 smoothly and reliably. The detector performance is excellent and agrees with expectations.

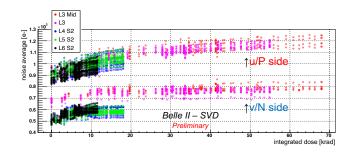


Figure 7: Effect of the integrated dose on the noise average in electron. The upper (lower) series shows the u/p-side (v/n-side) results, respectively.

We are ready to cope with the increased background during higher luminosity running by rejecting the off-time background hits using hit-time and operating in the three/six-mixed acquisition mode. In the recent study, the efficiency loss in the three-samples data is confirmed to be less than 0.1% for the trigger timing shift within ± 30 ns. The observed first effects of radiation damage are also within expectation and do not affect the detector performance.

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