

# The Solenoid Large Intensity Device (SoLID) for JLab 12 GeV

J. Arrington,<sup>1</sup> J. Benesch,<sup>2</sup> A. Camsonne,<sup>2</sup> J. Caylor,<sup>3</sup> J.-P. Chen,<sup>2</sup> S. Covrig Dusa,<sup>2</sup> G. Evans,<sup>4</sup> A. Emmert,<sup>5</sup> H. Gao,<sup>6</sup> O. Hansen,<sup>2</sup> G. Huber,<sup>7</sup> S. Joosten,<sup>8</sup> V. Khachatryan,<sup>6</sup> N. Liyanage,<sup>5</sup> Z.-E. Meziani,<sup>8</sup> M. Nycz,<sup>5</sup> C. Peng,<sup>8</sup> M. Paolone,<sup>9</sup> W. Seay,<sup>2</sup> P. A. Souder,<sup>3</sup> N. Sparveris,<sup>10</sup> Y. Tian,<sup>3</sup> E. Voutier,<sup>11</sup> J. Xie,<sup>8</sup> W. Xiong,<sup>12</sup> Z. Ye,<sup>13</sup> Z.-W. Zhao,<sup>6</sup> and X. Zheng<sup>5</sup>  
(Jefferson Lab SoLID Collaboration)

<sup>1</sup>*Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Berkeley, CA, USA*

<sup>2</sup>*Thomas Jefferson National Accelerator Facility, Newport News, VA, USA*

<sup>3</sup>*Syracuse University, Syracuse, NY, USA*

<sup>4</sup>*Brigham Young University - Idaho Rexburg, ID, USA*

<sup>5</sup>*University of Virginia, Charlottesville, VA, USA*

<sup>6</sup>*Duke University and Triangle Universities Nuclear Laboratory, Durham, NC, USA*

<sup>7</sup>*University of Regina, Regina, SK, Canada*

<sup>8</sup>*Argonne National Laboratory, Argonne, IL, USA*

<sup>9</sup>*New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, NM, USA*

<sup>10</sup>*Temple University, Philadelphia, PA, USA*

<sup>11</sup>*Université Paris-Saclay, CNRS/IN2P3, IJCLab, Orsay, France*

<sup>12</sup>*Shandong University, Qingdao, China*

<sup>13</sup>*Tsinghua University, Beijing, China*

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The Solenoid Large Intensity Device (SoLID) is being planned for experimental Hall A of Thomas Jefferson National Accelerator Facility (JLab) with the capability of combining large acceptance and high luminosity. With a slate of approved high-impact physics experiments, SoLID will push JLab to a new limit as a QCD intensity frontier and will exploit the full potential of the 12-GeV CEBAF. In this paper, we present an overview of the rich physics programs that will be realized with SoLID including the tomography of the nucleon in 3-D momentum space from Semi-Inclusive Deep Inelastic Scattering (SIDIS), pushing the phase space in the search of new physics and of hadronic physics from parity-violating DIS (PVDIS), precision measurement of  $J/\psi$  production from the threshold to probe the gluon field and its contribution to the proton mass, tomography of the nucleon in coordinate space with deeply exclusive reactions and more. To meet the challenging requirements, the design of SoLID described here takes full advantages of the recent progresses in detector, data acquisition and computing technologies. Potential experiments beyond the currently approved program are mentioned, including what could be explored should upgrades of CEBAF become a reality in the future.

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## I. EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

To exploit the full potential of the 12 GeV energy upgrade of the Continuous Electron Beam Accelerator Facility (CEBAF) at Jefferson Lab (JLab), we have designed a new spectrometer, named the Solenoidal Large Intensity Detector (SoLID) [1, 2]. The main feature of SoLID is its large acceptance and the capacity to operate at the full CEBAF luminosity. A rich and diverse science program with a set of high-impact physics experiments was developed with SoLID. The SoLID proposal was submitted as a Major Item of Equipment (MIE) to the U.S. Department of Energy (DOE), and after passing several Director's Reviews at JLab, received a successful Science Review from the DOE in March 2021. We are presently awaiting the full report describing the review outcome.

The SoLID spectrometer fills a critical void in the science reach in the field of cold QCD studies, determined by its combined acceptance and luminosity as illustrated in Fig. 1, showing the wide kinematics range covered by JLab, the Electron-Ion Collider (EIC), and a number of lower luminosity facilities, seeking to explore the properties of quarks and gluons in the nucleon and their modified behavior in nuclei. Indeed, it is essential to explore reactions over as large a range of  $Q^2$  and Bjorken  $x$  as possible. Together, JLab and the EIC will explore the broad kinematic range in the next decades, with SoLID probing key physics and providing precision measurements in the high  $x$  region owing to its unique large ac-

ceptance capability that operates at the full luminosity of CEBAF ( $10^{36} - 10^{39} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ).

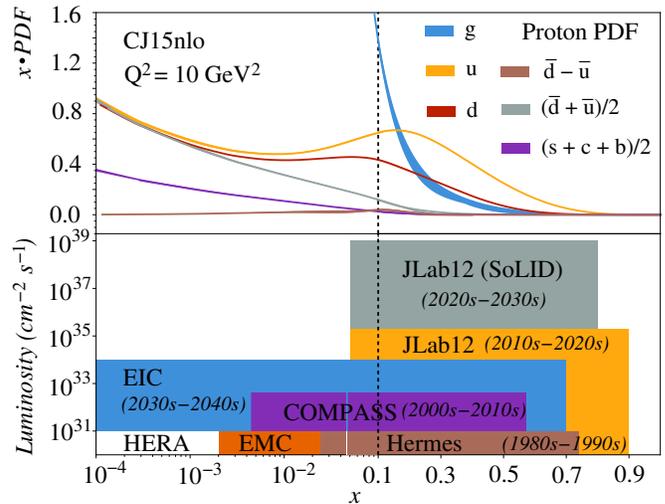


FIG. 1. Landscape of the cold QCD program. SoLID expands the luminosity frontier in the large  $x$  region whereas the EIC does the same for low  $x$ . Figure adapted from [3].

SoLID is capable of performing a remarkable variety of experiments. Five primary experiments have been approved with an  $A$  rating by the JLab Program Advisory Committee. Three are measurements of Transverse Momentum-Dependent Distributions (TMD's) via Semi-Inclusive Deep Inelastic Scattering (SIDIS) with polarized  $^3\text{He}$  and proton targets [4–6]. One is aimed at an understanding of the origin of the proton mass via measurements of near-threshold photo-production and electro-production of the  $J/\psi$  meson [7]. And one to measure the parity-violating asymmetry in deep inelastic scattering (PVDIS) to provide a low energy test of the electroweak Standard Model and to study hadronic physics in the high- $x$  region [8]. In July 2022, two new experiments were approved, one to study the flavor dependence of the EMC effect using PVDIS on a  $^{48}\text{Ca}$  target [9] and the other to study hadronic physics with two-photon exchange via a measurement of the single normal beam-spin asymmetry in DIS [10]. In addition, a series of approved experiments that will run simultaneously with the main experiments include Deep Exclusive Meson Production (DEMP) [11] and Time-like Compton Scattering (TCS) [12], which access the Generalized Parton Distributions (GPD's) and improve our knowledge of the spatial three-dimensional structure of the nucleon.

The SoLID spectrometer can achieve high luminosity thanks to the recent rapid developments in detector, data acquisition and computing technologies. High-rate GEM tracking detectors, Cherenkov counters with advanced photon detectors and fast MRPC chambers for time-of-flight are key examples. Fast electronics developed at JLab will handle the high trigger rates and background rates. The large data volume can be handled by the ad-

159 vanced computing facility at JLab. These technological  
 160 advancements, not available in the initial planning stage  
 161 of the 12 GeV upgrade, have now become a reality that  
 162 allow us to construct SoLID to fully exploit the available  
 163 intensity at the frontier of QCD studies.

164

## II. INTRODUCTION

165 Since commencing operation in 1995, CEBAF has been  
 166 the medium-energy electron scattering facility with the  
 167 worldwide highest luminosity for conducting experiments  
 168 with fixed proton and nuclear targets. Initially deliver-  
 169 ing electron beams with energies of up to 6 GeV, CEBAF  
 170 was successfully upgraded in 2017 to raise the beam en-  
 171 ergy to 12 GeV. Along with the energy upgrade, another  
 172 experimental hall, Hall D, was added to the facility, and  
 173 detectors in the other experimental halls were improved  
 174 as well. At the same time, JLab's physics program has  
 175 evolved to match the progress in our understanding of the  
 176 structure of the nucleon within the theory of the strong  
 177 interaction, known as quantum chromodynamics (QCD),  
 178 and to push for higher precision in measurements of fun-  
 179 damental symmetries. Progress on both these frontiers  
 180 requires first and foremost higher statistics: QCD studies  
 181 aim to describe nucleon structure in three dimensions in  
 182 both momentum and coordinate space using SIDIS and  
 183 deeply virtual exclusive processes. Obtaining the desired  
 184 3-D mappings involves dividing the experimental data  
 185 into many multi-dimensional bins, which is only mean-  
 186 ingful if the total data set contains a very large number  
 187 of events. Meanwhile, decades of experience in improv-  
 188 ing systematic uncertainties of parity-violating electron  
 189 scattering (PVES) experiments allow us to measure spin-  
 190 dependent asymmetries in DIS with a precision of better  
 191 than parts per million (ppm), which calls for event counts  
 192 of order  $10^{12}$ . Similarly,  $J/\psi$  production on the proton  
 193 requires high luminosity so that a sufficient number of  
 194 events can be accumulated near the production thresh-  
 195 old, where the cross section falls rapidly.

196 SoLID is designed to fulfill these needs. By combining  
 197 a 1.5-T solenoid magnet and a large-acceptance detec-  
 198 tor that covers  $2\pi$  azimuthal angle, SoLID is particularly  
 199 suitable to collect data with high statistics from DIS,  
 200 SIDIS and Deep-Virtual exclusive processes. In addi-  
 201 tion, the SoLID design fully incorporates the ability to  
 202 reconfigure all detector systems in order to optimize de-  
 203 tection capabilities for SIDIS and  $J/\psi$  meson production  
 204 on the one hand, and for the PVDIS program, on the  
 205 other. SoLID is intended to be installed in experimental  
 206 Hall A, see Fig. 2.

208 In SIDIS, both a hadron and the scattered primary  
 209 electron are detected in the final state. The SIDIS pro-  
 210 cess measures the distributions of quarks as a function of  
 211 their transverse momentum and transverse spin. These  
 212 distributions are the transverse-momentum-dependent  
 213 parton distributions (TMDs). At leading twist, there are  
 214 eight independent TMDs. In principle, SoLID can mea-

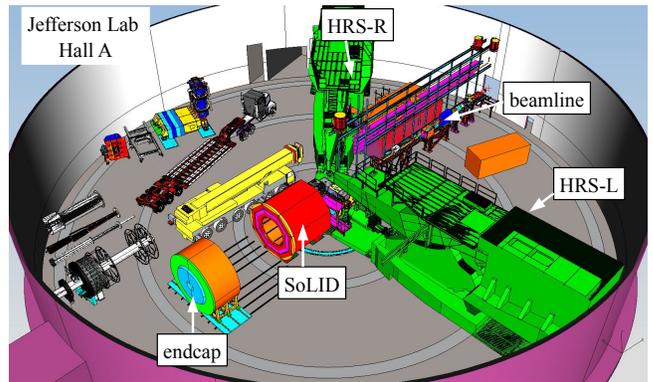


FIG. 2. Schematic layout of SoLID in Hall A, with the endcap pulled downstream to allow detector installation and reconfiguration. The two high resolution spectrometers (HRS-L and HRS-R, not in use) are parked at backward angles.

215 sure each of them for both the proton and the neutron.  
 216 In practice, the three approved SoLID SIDIS experiments  
 217 include two on  $^3\text{He}$  target: one with a longitudinal po-  
 218 larization [5], and the other with a transverse polariza-  
 219 tion [4], and the third experiment will use a transversely  
 220 polarized proton target [6].

221 For SIDIS, the relevant variables — in addition to  
 222  $Q^2$  and  $x$  which are characteristic of the inclusive PDFs  
 223 — include  $P_T$ , the transverse momentum hadron, and  $z$ ,  
 224 the fraction of the longitudinal momentum of the hadron.  
 225 Thus the TMDs are multi-dimensional, and a large data  
 226 set is required to attain good statistics without integrat-  
 227 ing over one or more of the variables. This is the main  
 228 reason the high luminosity of the SoLID spectrometer is  
 229 required.

230 The first picture that comes to mind when speaking  
 231 about the size of the proton is the radial extent of its  
 232 electric charge distribution. The latter is related to the  
 233 Fourier transform of the electric form factor, measured  
 234 traditionally by elastic electron scattering. Although  
 235 electromagnetic probes do not couple to gluons, we know  
 236 from the difference between the proton's total mass and  
 237 its constituents' current quark masses that gluons play  
 238 an essential role in the structure of the proton. Most of  
 239 the proton information carried by the gluons is encoded  
 240 in three gravitational form factors dubbed  $A_g$ ,  $B_g$  and  
 241  $C_g$  that are part of the matrix element of the QCD en-  
 242 ergy momentum tensor. Today, with the advent of high  
 243 luminosity experimental facilities, a compelling way to  
 244 access these form factors is through virtual heavy-meson  
 245 photo- and electro-production over the widest possible  
 246 range of photon-nucleon invariant mass. More recently,  
 247 the threshold invariant mass region was scrutinized and  
 248 seems to be a very promising region not only to obtain  
 249 these form factors and thus determine the mass radius  
 250 and the gluonic scalar radius of the proton, but also ex-  
 251 plore the trace anomaly at the origin of the proton mass.  
 252 As a consequence, extensive data are required very  
 253 close to threshold, where the cross section is very small.

The large acceptance of SoLID and its ability to handle high luminosity make it the ideal detector for study this physics with threshold  $J/\psi$  production [7]. The EIC will provide complementary information through the production of the higher-mass  $\Upsilon$  particle. Showing that the measurements of the gluonic form factors at both facilities are model independent and agree with lattice QCD will give strong confidence in the interpretation.

The goal of the SoLID PVDIS program [8] is to measure the cross section asymmetry,  $A_{PV}$ , between right- and left-handed beam electrons with high precision. This asymmetry originates from parity non-conservation in weak interactions. At JLab energies, it can be determined from the interference between photon and  $Z^0$  exchange processes in DIS. SoLID will provide data on  $A_{PV}$  with sub-percent relative precision over a wide ( $x, Q^2$ ) range. Measured on a deuteron target, the  $A_{PV}^{(d)}$  data can be used to determine parameters of the electroweak Standard Model and to set limits on new physics up to an energy scale that is comparable to the reach of the LHC. The SoLID PVDIS deuteron measurement unique in that it measures the strength of a particular contact interaction, the effective electron-quark  $VA$  couplings, that cannot be isolated by any other experiments at present. Measured on a proton target,  $A_{PV}^{(p)}$  can help to determine the PDF ratio  $d/u$  at large  $x$  without nuclear effects. Lastly, PVDIS asymmetries can probe specific hadronic physics effects such as charge symmetry violation (CSV). CSV at the quark level would be reflected in a specific kinematic dependence of the deuteron asymmetry, while effects of CSV at the nuclear level can be studied by measuring PVDIS asymmetries on a nuclear target such as  $^{48}\text{Ca}$  [9].

With SoLID being a versatile spectrometer, many other processes can be measured. The full azimuthal coverage of SoLID allows the determination of the beam single normal spin asymmetry to high precision in DIS [10], providing a new observable for studying two-photon-exchange effects. A number of run-group experiments will collect data at the same time as the SIDIS and  $J/\psi$  experiments, including some that aim at studies of the generalized parton distributions (GPDs) [11, 12].

This paper is organized as follows: the SIDIS, PVDIS, and  $J/\psi$  programs are described in Sections III, IV, and V, respectively. In Section VI we expand on the GPD program (both approved run-group experiments and key measurements under study) with SoLID, and in Section VII all other run-group experiments, the beam normal single-spin-asymmetry (BNSSA) experiment, and an idea to measure PVDIS asymmetry using a polarized target. The SoLID instrumentation is detailed in Section VIII. Finally, in Section IX we discuss unique measurements that will become possible should a positron beam or an energy upgrade of CEBAF be realized in the future.

### III. SEMI-INCLUSIVE DEEP INELASTIC SCATTERING

#### A. The Three-dimensional Momentum Structure of the Nucleon

Substantial amount of our knowledge on the internal structure of nucleons/nuclei in terms of quarks and gluons, the fundamental degrees of freedom of Quantum Chromodynamics (QCD), has been obtained via experimental and theoretical studies of the Parton Distribution Functions (PDFs) [13] and Fragmentation Functions (FFs) [14]. Within the collinear factorization scheme of deep inelastic lepton-nucleon scattering (DIS), leading-twist integrated PDFs are defined as probability densities for finding an unpolarized or longitudinally polarized parton in a fast moving unpolarized or longitudinally polarized nucleon ("longitudinal" is defined as along the nucleon moving direction). These PDFs are one-dimensional (depending only on the longitudinal momentum), and considered to be well-investigated. On the other hand, during more than two decades, the frontier of studies has moved forward to including the three-dimensional PDFs by investigating the partonic motion and spatial distributions in the transverse direction (perpendicular to the nucleon's momentum).

In this regard, semi-inclusive deep inelastic scattering (SIDIS) process of a lepton scattered off a nucleon, in which the scattered lepton and a leading hadron in the final state are detected is a powerful tool to probe the structure of the nucleon depending on the transverse momenta and transverse spin, in addition to the longitudinal momentum. In such a process, one can extract the transverse-momentum-dependent parton distribution functions (TMD-PDFs or just TMDs), which provide the 3-D tomography of the nucleon in momentum space. Through exclusive processes such as deeply virtual Compton scattering, one can extract a different view of nucleon's tomography through the generalized parton distribution functions (GPDs), where the three dimensions include the longitudinal momentum, and the two dimensions in the transverse plane. All the information on TMDs and GPDs are contained in the "primal" multidimensional Wigner distribution functions [15, 16]. Study of TMDs, through the partonic structure of the nucleon in three-dimensional momentum space, helps to probe the rich QCD dynamics and phenomena, and provides essential non-perturbative information on parton's orbital motion and spin-orbit correlations inside the nucleon. In addition, study of TMDs allows us to study multi-parton correlations at leading-twist, which will help uncover the dynamics of the nucleon's quark-gluon structure.

#### B. TMDs and Spin Asymmetries

Most TMDs exist due to couplings of the quark transverse momentum with the spin of the nucleon/quark. In

362 this case, one can study the spin-orbit correlations in  
 363 QCD, similar to those in hydrogen atoms. At leading  
 364 twist, if we integrate over the quark transverse momenta  
 365 inside the nucleon, TMDs that survive this integration  
 366 are the unpolarized parton distribution  $f_1$ , the longitudinally  
 367 polarized parton distribution  $g_1$  (Helicity), and the  
 368 transversely polarized quark distribution function  $h_{1T}$   
 369 (Transversity) [17]. In addition to  $f_1$ ,  $g_1$  and  $h_{1T}$ , there  
 370 are five additional leading-twist TMDs [18, 19] and some  
 371 of which vanish in the absence of the quark orbital angular  
 372 momentum (OAM). Figure 3 tabulates all these eight  
 373 TMDs according to the quark and nucleon polarizations,  
 374 where  $U$  stands for unpolarized,  $L$  and  $T$  for longitudinal  
 375 and transverse polarization, respectively. All of them  
 376 are functions of the longitudinal momentum fraction  $x$

377 **Leading Twist TMDs** 

		Quark polarization		
		Un-Polarized (U)	Longitudinally Polarized (L)	Transversely Polarized (T)
Nucleon Polarization	U	$f_1 = \text{white circle with arrow}$		$h_{1T}^\perp = \text{red circle with arrow} - \text{white circle with arrow}$ Boer-Mulder
	L		$g_1 = \text{white circle with arrow} - \text{white circle with arrow}$ Helicity	$h_{1L}^\perp = \text{white circle with arrow} - \text{white circle with arrow}$ Worm gear
	T	$f_{1T}^\perp = \text{white circle with arrow} - \text{white circle with arrow}$ Sivers	$g_{1T}^\perp = \text{white circle with arrow} - \text{white circle with arrow}$ Worm gear	$h_{1T}^\perp = \text{white circle with arrow} - \text{white circle with arrow}$ Transversity $h_{1T}^\perp = \text{white circle with arrow} - \text{white circle with arrow}$ Pretzelocity

378 FIG. 3. Eight leading twist TMDs arranged according to  
 379 the quark (f, g, h) and nucleon (U, L, T) polarizations. Figure  
 380 from Ref. [2].

381 Let us focus on the following TMDs shown in the table  
 382 of Fig. 3: namely, Transversity, Pretzelocity, Sivers, and  
 383 Worm-gear TMDs (given also the nucleon spin  $\mathbf{S}_T$ , quark  
 384 spin  $\mathbf{s}_q$ , and virtual photon three-momentum  $\mathbf{P}$  (defining  
 385 the  $z$ -direction).

386 (i) **Transversity TMD**,  $\mathbf{S}_T \cdot \mathbf{s}_q$ : in parton model, it  
 387 provides information on the probability of quarks  
 388 (anti-quarks) polarized transversely in a trans-  
 389 versely polarized nucleon. The transversity TMD  
 390 is not the same as the helicity TMD due to the  
 391 relativistic nature of the nucleon. The integral of  
 392 Transversity over  $x$  gives the tensor charge [20–  
 393 22], which is an important property of the nucleon  
 394 that has been calculated precisely by lattice QCD.  
 395 Precise measurements of the tensor charges of the  
 396 proton and neutron will allow for their quark flavor  
 397 separation and confront lattice QCD predictions  
 398 directly. Quark tensor charges are coefficients  
 399 connecting quark electric dipole moments (EDMs)  
 400 to nucleon EDMs if nucleon EDMs originate from  
 401 quark EDMs, making them important for tests of  
 402 the Standard Model (SM) and searches for new  
 403 physics beyond SM.

404 (ii) **Pretzelocity TMD**,  $\mathbf{S}_T \cdot [\mathbf{k}_\perp \mathbf{k}_\perp] \cdot \mathbf{s}_{qT}$ : it describes  
 405 a correlation among the transverse spin of the nu-  
 406 cleon, transverse spin of the quark, as well as the  
 407 transverse motion of the quark inside the nucleon.  
 408 The pretzelocity distribution reflects the difference  
 409 between Helicity and Transversity TMDs, *i.e.*, rela-  
 410 tivistic effects. In various quark and QCD inspired  
 411 models, pretzelocity TMD has been shown to pro-  
 412 vide quantitative information about the orbital an-  
 413 gular momentum of the partons inside the nucleon.

414 (iii) **Sivers TMD**,  $\mathbf{S}_T \cdot \mathbf{k}_\perp \times \mathbf{P}$ : it describes a correlation  
 415 between the nucleon transverse spin and the quark  
 416 orbital motion. Sivers TMD would be zero if there  
 417 is no parton Orbital Angular Momentum (OAM).  
 418 As such, studies of Sivers TMD is important to de-  
 419 termine the contribution of the quark OAM to the  
 420 nucleon spin. Another interesting aspect is the pre-  
 421 dicted sign change between the Sivers function ex-  
 422 tracted from SIDIS process versus that from Drell-  
 423 Yan process based on QCD. The experimental test  
 424 of such a sign change has been another important  
 425 motivation for the study of the Sivers TMD.

426 (iv) **Worm-gear TMDs**, :  $g_{1T}$  and  $h_{1L}^\perp$  are twist-2  
 427 TMD PDFs related to the transverse motion of  
 428 quark, nucleon spin and quark spin. They are  
 429 also known as the “worm-gear” functions since they  
 430 link perpendicular spin configurations between the  
 431 nucleon and quarks. More specifically,  $g_{1T}$  de-  
 432 scribes the distribution of a longitudinally polar-  
 433 ized quark inside a transversely polarized nucleon,  
 434 while  $h_{1L}^\perp$  describes the distribution of a trans-  
 435 versely polarized quark inside a longitudinally po-  
 436 larized nucleon. Interestingly, the worm-gear func-  
 437 tions can not be generated dynamically from co-  
 438 ordinate space densities by final-state interactions,  
 439 and thus have no analogy terms in impact param-  
 440 eter space described by GPDs. Their appearance  
 441 may be seen as a genuine sign of intrinsic transverse  
 442 motion of quarks.

443 Figure 4 displays the SIDIS process given in terms of  
 444 azimuthal angles defined with respect to the lepton scat-  
 445 tering plane. The  $\phi_h$  is the angle between the lepton scat-  
 446 tering plane and the hadron production plane, whereas  
 447  $\phi_S$  is the angle between the lepton scattering plane and  
 448 that defined by the polarization vector of the target’s  
 449 spin and the virtual photon three-momentum vector. In  
 450 SIDIS process involving unpolarized leptons and trans-  
 451 versely polarized nucleons, the target single-spin asym-  
 452 metries (SSAs) allow one to experimentally explore the  
 453 three aforementioned TMDs—Transversity, Pretzelocity,  
 454 and Sivers—through various azimuthal angular depen-  
 455 dencies.

456 In the leading twist formalism, the SSAs can be written

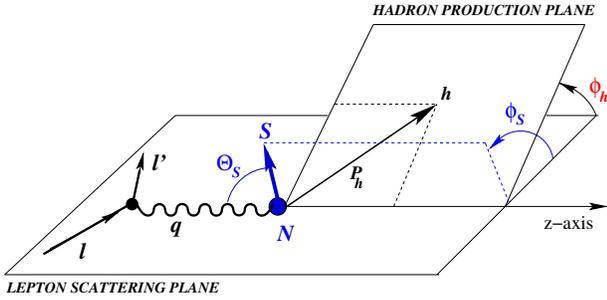


FIG. 4. Kinematics of the SIDIS process sketched in the one-photon exchange approximation. This figure is from Ref. [23].

with these three leading twist terms as:

$$A_{UT} = A_{UT}^{\text{Collins}} \sin(\phi_h + \phi_S) + A_{UT}^{\text{Pretzelosity}} \sin(3\phi_h - \phi_S) + A_{UT}^{\text{Sivers}} \sin(\phi_h - \phi_S). \quad (1)$$

Here in  $A_{UT}$ , the first subscript U (or L) refers to the unpolarized beam (or longitudinally polarized beam). The second subscript T (or U, or L) refers to the target, which is transversely polarized (or unpolarized, or longitudinally polarized) with respect to the virtual photon three-momentum vector. The SSAs in Eq. (1) are represented as follows, assuming TMD factorization holds:

$$(i) \quad A_{UT}^{\text{Collins}} \propto \langle \sin(\phi_h + \phi_S) \rangle_{UT} \propto h_{1T} \otimes H_1^\perp, \quad (2)$$

where,  $H_1^\perp$  is the Collins fragmentation function [24], extracted from charged pion pair production based on  $e^+e^-$  annihilation [25].

$$(ii) \quad A_{UT}^{\text{Pretzelosity}} \propto \langle \sin(3\phi_h - \phi_S) \rangle_{UT} \propto h_{1T}^\perp \otimes H_1^\perp, \quad (3)$$

where  $h_{1T}^\perp$  is the Pretzelosity TMD, and the same Collins fragmentation function appears. Models show that non-zero pretzelosity requires interference between the nucleon wave function components differing by two units of OAM of the quarks (e.g., the interference of the  $p$ - $p$  or  $s$ - $d$  OAM states). The Pretzelosity asymmetry stems from quarks that are polarized perpendicularly to the nucleon spin direction, in the transverse plane within a transversely polarized nucleon.

$$(iii) \quad A_{UT}^{\text{Sivers}} \propto \langle \sin(\phi_h - \phi_S) \rangle_{UT} \propto f_{1T}^\perp \otimes D_1, \quad (4)$$

where  $f_{1T}^\perp$  is the Sivers function, describing the probability density of finding unpolarized quarks inside a transversely polarized nucleon, and  $D_1$  is the unpolarized fragmentation function.

These three asymmetries stand in the SIDIS differential cross section together with the other fifteen terms [23]. Only these three terms, at leading order in  $1/Q$ , in

the SIDIS cross-section formula that are relevant for the target transverse single spin asymmetry:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d\sigma_{\text{SIDIS}}}{dx dy dz dP_{h\perp}^2 d\phi_h d\phi_S} &= \\ &= \frac{\alpha^2}{xyQ^2} \left( 1 - y + \frac{1}{2}y^2 \right) F_{UU}(x, y, P_{h\perp}^2) \times \\ &\times \left\{ 1 + \dots + S_T \sin(\phi_h + \phi_S) p_1 A_{UT}^{\text{Collins}} + \right. \\ &+ S_T \sin(3\phi_h - \phi_S) p_1 A_{UT}^{\text{Pretzelosity}} + \\ &\left. + S_T \sin(\phi_h - \phi_S) A_{UT}^{\text{Sivers}} + \dots \right\}, \quad (5) \end{aligned}$$

where  $S_T$  is the transverse component of the target-spin direction. For the definitions of the kinematic variables and prefactor  $p_1$ , see Eq. (2.1) and Eq. (2.3) in [23].

These SIDIS SSAs depend on four-dimensional kinematic variables that are  $(x, P_{hT}, z, Q^2)$ , and such asymmetries are typically small and kinematic dependent. Therefore, high-precision measurements of these asymmetries in such a 4-D kinematic space will require a *large acceptance + high luminosity* device (such as SoLID) with a full azimuthal angular range to disentangle various azimuthal angular dependencies.

The experimental SSA for a detector such as SoLID with a full  $2\pi$  azimuthal angular acceptance is defined as [4]

$$A_{UT}(\phi_h, \phi_S) = \frac{2}{P_T^\uparrow + P_T^\downarrow} \times \frac{\sqrt{N_{1\uparrow} N_{2\downarrow}} - \sqrt{N_{1\downarrow} N_{2\uparrow}}}{\sqrt{N_{1\uparrow} N_{2\downarrow}} + \sqrt{N_{1\downarrow} N_{2\uparrow}}}. \quad (6)$$

In this formula, the given number of counts  $N_1 \uparrow \equiv N_1(\phi_h, \phi_S)$  and  $N_1 \downarrow \equiv N_1(\phi_h, \phi_S + \pi)$  are taken at the same time while the target polarization is  $P_T^\uparrow$ . And  $N_2 \uparrow \equiv N_2(\phi_h, \phi_S)$  and  $N_2 \downarrow \equiv N_2(\phi_h, \phi_S + \pi)$  are taken at the same time with the target polarization being  $P_T^\downarrow$ , when the target spin is flipped by  $180^\circ$ .

The JLab PAC50 in July 2022 reviewed all SoLID SIDIS experiments and reaffirmed their importance and re-approved all SIDIS experiments with the highest scientific rating of ‘‘A’’. SoLID’s full  $2\pi$  azimuthal angular coverage, has a unique advantage in reducing systematic uncertainties associated with flipping the target spin direction apart from those associated with luminosity and detection efficiencies.

While we use these three SSAs to illustrate how one can access information concerning certain TMDs from SIDIS processes, we point out that all eight leading-twist TMDs can be accessed through various lepton and nucleon polarization combinations from SIDIS processes. For example, The aforementioned worm-gear function,  $g_{1T}$ , can be accessed through the beam-target double spin asymmetry (DSA) of  $A_{LT}$  with an azimuthal angular modulation of  $\cos(\phi_h - \phi_S)$ . Such DSA measurements require a

539 longitudinally polarized lepton beam and a transversely  
 540 polarized target, as was used in [26]. The other worm-  
 541 gear piece,  $h_{1L}^+$ , and Helicity  $g_{1L}$  can be accessed with  
 542 a longitudinally polarized target through SSA and DSA  
 543 measurements of  $A_{UL}$  (with an angular modulation of  
 544  $\sin 2\phi_h$ ) and  $A_{LL}$ , respectively. For details, we refer to a  
 545 recent review article [27].

### 546 C. The SoLID SIDIS program

547 The 12-GeV physics era at JLab opens a great new  
 548 window to accomplish precision studies of the transverse  
 549 spin and TMD structure of the nucleon in the valence  
 550 quark region. The experimental program on TMDs is  
 551 one of the science pillars of the 12-GeV program at  
 552 JLab. The SoLID SIDIS program will aim at addressing  
 553 the following questions.

554 • Is it possible to provide a high precision test for lat-  
 555 tice QCD predictions?

557 The u and d-quark tensor charges which will be deter-  
 558 mined to a high precision from the SoLID SIDIS program  
 559 will provide such a test.

560 • How to quantify the quark transverse motion inside  
 561 the nucleon and observe spin-orbit correlations?

562 The Sivers TMD has been predicted in a variety of mod-  
 563 els to have the sensitivity to spin-orbit correlations and  
 564 can provide quantitative information about the trans-  
 565 verse motion of the quarks inside the nucleon. With the  
 566 kinematic reach of SoLID at 12-GeV and the precision  
 567 SoLID measurements will have, the SoLID SIDIS pro-  
 568 gram will answer the above question and also whether  
 569 the confined motion in the transverse plane is dependent  
 570 on Bjorken  $x$  in the valence quark region.

571 • Is it possible to provide quantitative information on  
 572 the quark OAM contribution to the proton spin?

573 Based on the previous discussion, both Sivers and pret-  
 574 zelocity TMDs are able to provide quantitative informa-  
 575 tion on the quark OAM contribution to the proton spin.  
 576 While one might argue that such findings are model de-  
 577 pendent, the precision SoLID will provide and its impact  
 578 will be model independent.

579 • Are there clear signatures for relativity inside the nu-  
 580 cleon and can we observe them?

581 Both transversity and prezelicity TMDs will provide  
 582 clear and quantitative information about relativistic ef-  
 583 fects inside the nucleon. The transverse TMD would be  
 584 the same as that of the helicity TMD if it were not for the  
 585 relativity. The relation among the helicity, the transver-  
 586 sity and the pretzelicity TMDs provides another signa-  
 587 ture for the relativity inside the nucleon. Again with the  
 588 high-precision SoLID will achieve, this question will be  
 589 answered.

590 In summary, these questions will be answered by three  
 591 A rated SoLID experiments approved by the JLab PAC  
 592 [4–6], along with two run group experiments [28, 29].  
 593 Recently the JLab PAC50 in July 2022 reviewed these

594 experiments and reaffirmed their importance. These  
 595 new experiments will employ a superconducting solenoid  
 596 magnet, a detector system consisting of forward-angle  
 597 and large-angle sub-detectors, as well as a high-pressure  
 598 transversely/longitudinally polarized  $^3\text{He}$  (neutron)  
 599 target and a transversely polarized  $\text{NH}_3$  (proton) target,  
 600 positioned upstream of the magnet. In order to extract  
 601 TMDs with precision from SSA and DSA measurements,  
 602 the SoLID detection system will have a capability of  
 603 handling large luminosities with a large acceptance, a  
 604 full azimuthal angular coverage, good kinematic coverage  
 605 in terms of the  $x$ ,  $P_{hT}$ ,  $z$ ,  $Q^2$  variables for SIDIS, and  
 606 good particle identification for electrons and charged  
 607 pions and kaons.

### 608 The three approved SIDIS experiments

611 *a. Experiment E12-10-006* [4] with a transversely po-  
 612 larized  $^3\text{He}$  target: The experiment E12-10-006 was ap-  
 613 proved for 90 days of total beam time with 15  $\mu\text{A}$ , 11/8.8  
 614 GeV electron beams on a 40-cm long, 10 amgs trans-  
 615 versely polarized  $^3\text{He}$  target. The projected data from  
 616 E12-10-006 are binned in  $(x, P_{hT}, z, Q^2)$  space, and only  
 617 SoLID allows for such 4-D binning with excellent preci-  
 618 sion for each bin. As examples, for a typical  $z$  and  $Q^2$   
 619 bin ( $0.40 < z < 0.45$ ,  $2 \text{ GeV}^2 < Q^2 < 3 \text{ GeV}^2$ ), data  
 620 projections for the Sivers and Collins asymmetry mea-  
 621 surements are shown in Fig. 5 with the left panel for the  
 622 Sivers  $\pi^-$  and right panel for the Collins  $\pi^+$  asymme-  
 623 tries. For the complete projections, which consist over  
 624 1400 data points, we refer to the proposal [4].

626 *b. Experiment E12-11-007* [5] with a longitudinally  
 627 polarized  $^3\text{He}$  target: The experiment E12-11-007 was  
 628 approved for 35 days of total beam time with 15  $\mu\text{A}$ ,  
 629 11/8.8 GeV electron beams on a 40-cm long, 10 amgs  
 630 longitudinally polarized  $^3\text{He}$  target to match about 50%  
 631 statistics of the experiment E12-10-006. The projected  
 632 data are binned into  $(x, P_{hT}, z, Q^2)$  bins. For a typical  $z$   
 633 and  $Q^2$  bin ( $0.40 < z < 0.45$ ,  $2 \text{ GeV}^2 < Q^2 < 3 \text{ GeV}^2$ ,  
 634 one of the total 48  $z$ - $Q^2$  slices), data projections are  
 635 shown in Fig. 6 as examples. For the complete projec-  
 636 tions, we refer to the proposal [5].

638 *c. Experiment E12-11-108* [6] with a transversely  
 639 polarized  $\text{NH}_3$  target: The experiment E12-11-108 was  
 640 approved for 120 days with 100 nA, 11/8.8 GeV electron  
 641 beams on a 3-cm long, polarized  $\text{NH}_3$  target. The 8.8  
 642 GeV beam energy will provide precision data for radiative  
 643 corrections along with the increased  $Q^2$  coverage.  
 644 The projected data from E12-11-108 are binned into  
 645  $(x, P_{hT}, z, Q^2)$  bins. As an example, for a typical  $z$  and  
 646  $Q^2$  bin ( $0.40 < z < 0.45$ ,  $2 \text{ GeV}^2 < Q^2 < 3 \text{ GeV}^2$ ), data  
 647 projections for the Collins asymmetry measurements are  
 648 shown in Fig. 7 with the left panel for  $\pi^+$  and right panel  
 649 for  $\pi^-$ . For the complete projections of E12-11-108, we  
 650 refer to the proposal [6].

651  
 652 In July 2022 these three SoLID SIDIS proposals  
 653 were presented to the JLab PAC50 as part of the JLab

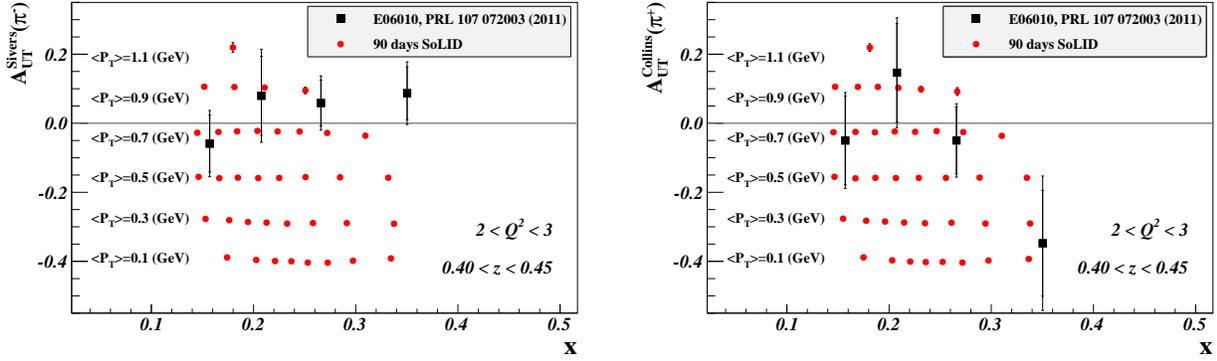


FIG. 5. The left panel shows the projected Siverts asymmetry measurement for  $\pi^-$  for a typical  $z$  and  $Q^2$  bin ( $0.40 < z < 0.45$ ,  $2 \text{ GeV}^2 < Q^2 < 3 \text{ GeV}^2$ ) as a function of  $x$ , with different ranges of the hadron  $P_{hT}$  labeled. In the plots  $P_{hT} = P_T$ . The right panel shows the projected Collins asymmetry measurement for  $\pi^+$  in the same binnig. Also shown are the results from the 6-GeV experiment E06-010 [30]. Both plots are from [1].

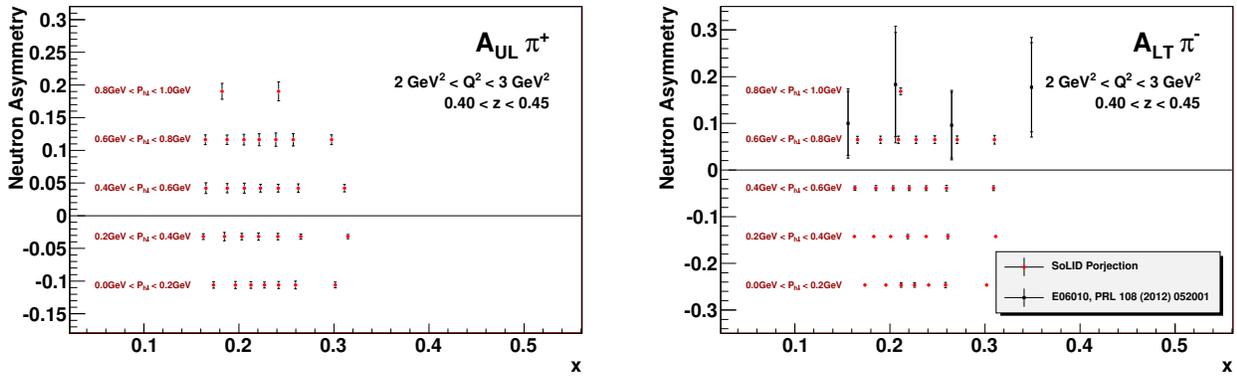


FIG. 6. The left panel shows the projection for a typical  $z$  and  $Q^2$  bin ( $0.40 < z < 0.45$ ,  $2 \text{ GeV}^2 < Q^2 < 3 \text{ GeV}^2$ ) for the  $\pi^+$  single-target spin asymmetry  $A_{UL}^{\text{Neutron}} \pi^+$  measurement as a function of  $x$ , with different ranges of the hadron  $P_{hT}$  labeled. In the plots  $P_{hT} = P_T$ . The right panel shows the projection for the corresponding  $z$ - $Q^2$  bin for the  $\pi^-$  double-target spin asymmetry  $A_{LT}^{\text{Neutron}} \pi^-$  measurement. Also shown are the results from the 6-GeV experiment E06-010 [26].

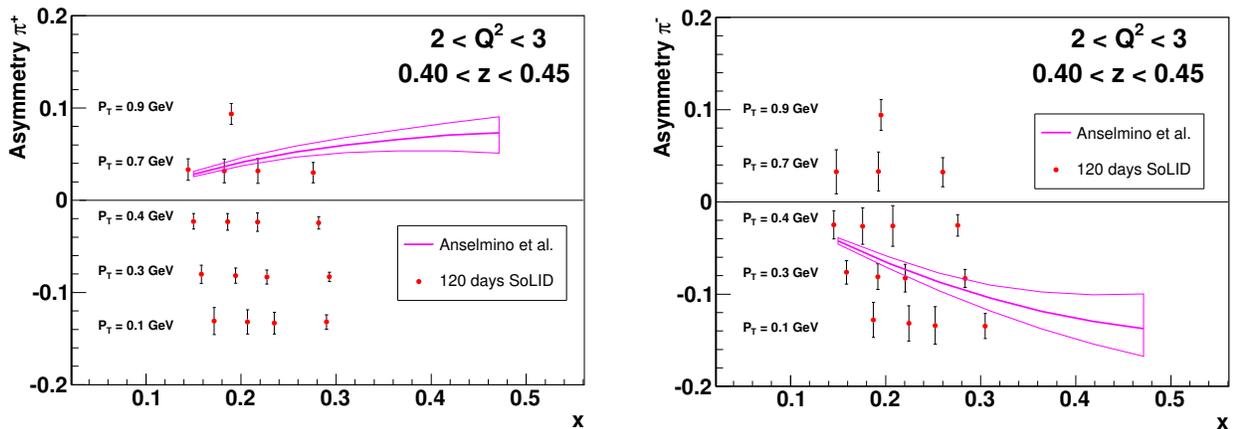


FIG. 7. The left panel shows the projection for a typical  $z$  and  $Q^2$  bin ( $0.40 < z < 0.45$ ,  $2 \text{ GeV}^2 < Q^2 < 3 \text{ GeV}^2$ ) for the  $\pi^+$  Collins asymmetry measurement as a function of  $x$ , with different ranges of the hadron  $P_{hT}$  labeled. In the plots  $P_{hT} = P_T$ . The right panel shows the projection for the corresponding  $z$ - $Q^2$  bin for the  $\pi^-$  measurement. Also shown are the predictions of the Collins asymmetry from Anselmino *et al.* [31] with model uncertainties.

656 active with “A” rating. The PAC evaluation summary  
 657 for each of the three SIDIS experiments is quoted here  
 658 “This experiment will provide data of unprecedented  
 659 quality on SIDIS in JLab-12 GeV kinematics. The  
 660 theory and phenomenology developments in the last  
 661 decade make this experiment yet more compelling and  
 662 highlight the impact of SoLID program.”

663

#### 664 The SIDIS run group experiments

665

666 *d. Dihadron Electroproduction in DIS with Trans-*  
 667 *versely Polarized  $^3\text{He}$  Target at 11 and 8.8 GeV [28]:* A  
 668 study of transversity parton distribution using measure-  
 669 ments of semi-inclusive electroproduction of two charged  
 670 pions in the DIS region will be carried out. The data  
 671 will provide input to extract the  $u$  and  $d$  transversity  
 672 distributions in a model independent way. This experi-  
 673 ment will be run in parallel with the approved experiment  
 674 E12-10-006.

675 *e.  $K^\pm$  Production in Semi-Inclusive Deep Inelastic*  
 676 *Scattering using Transversely Polarized Targets and the*  
 677 *SoLID Spectrometer [29]:* A study of measurements of  
 678  $K^\pm$  production in SIDIS using both the transversely po-  
 679 larized  $^3\text{He}$  and  $\text{NH}_3$  targets will be performed, to ex-  
 680 tract the  $K^\pm$  Collins, Sivers and other TMD asymme-  
 681 tries. The data will provide input to determine the  $u$ ,  $d$   
 682 and sea quarks’ TMDs. This experiment will be run in  
 683 parallel with the approved experiments E12-10-006 and  
 684 E12-11-108.

685 More details on these two run group experiments will  
 686 be given in Section VII.

#### 687 **D. Transversity, Tensor Charge, and EDM**

688 The combination of the SIDIS experiments discussed  
 689 above will give an opportunity for accessing essential in-  
 690 formation on TMDs from the neutron and the proton  
 691 in the valence quark region, and for flavor separation of  
 692 TMDs (e.g., Transversity, Pretzelocity, Sivers, and  $g_{1T}$ )  
 693 for  $u$  and  $d$  quarks. Fig. 8 shows the projected SoLID  
 694 transversity distributions for the  $u$  and  $d$  quarks at a typ-  
 695 ical value of  $Q^2 = 2.4 \text{ GeV}^2$  obtained with our up-to-date  
 696 knowledge of evolution of TMDs and FFs, including both  
 697 systematic and statistical uncertainties. The  $x$ -range be-  
 698 tween the two vertical dashed lines is directly measurable  
 699 by SoLID. The precision data in the valence quark region  
 700 will make a major improvement in our knowledge of the  
 701 transversity distribution. The program will also allow  
 702 us to study the  $k_T$  dependence and the  $Q^2$  evolution of  
 703 TMDs.

705 Moreover, we will obtain precise information on the  
 706 quark tensor charge defined as

$$707 \quad g_T^q = \int_0^1 [h_1^q(x) - h_1^{\bar{q}}(x)] dx. \quad (7)$$

708 The nucleon (quark) tensor charge is as important as its  
 709 charge, mass and the spin. It has been calculated by lat-

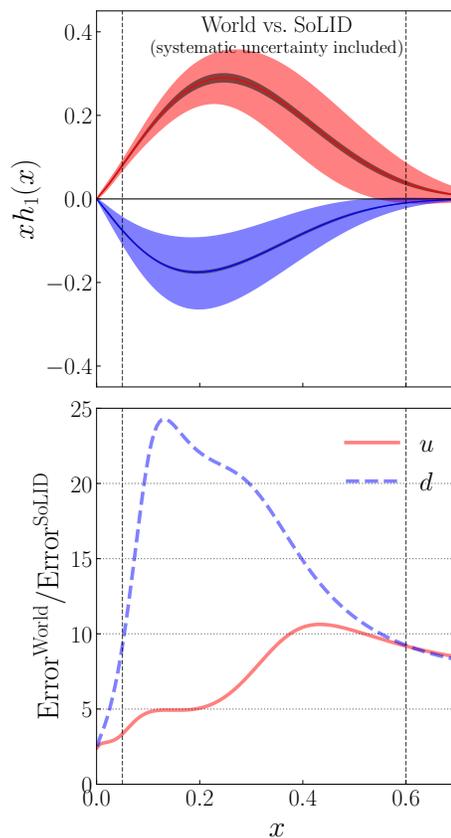


FIG. 8. The impact on the  $u$  and  $d$  quarks’ transversity distributions by the SoLID SIDIS program. In the top panel, the wide uncertainty bands show our current knowledge from the world data global analysis, whereas the narrow uncertainty bands show the SoLID projections. The bottom panel shows the improvements, manifested as the ratios between the current and projected uncertainties.

710 tice QCD and the predication is becoming increasingly  
 711 precise. It is also a quantity allowing for tests of the  
 712 Standard Model (see below). A quantitative study in [32]  
 713 shows that the SoLID SIDIS program will improve the ac-  
 714 curacy of the tensor charge determination by one order of  
 715 magnitude, allowing for a benchmark test of lattice QCD  
 716 predictions. The high impact of the SoLID projections  
 717 on the extraction of the tensor charge of the  $u$  and  $d$   
 718 quarks is demonstrated in Fig. 9. The projected SoLID  
 719  $u$  and  $d$  quark tensor charges are  $g_T^u = 0.547 \pm 0.021$ ,  
 720  $g_T^d = -0.376 \pm 0.014$ . They represent less than 4% rel-  
 721 ative uncertainty for the SoLID extraction of the  $u$  and  
 722  $d$  quark tensor charge, and should be compared to the  
 723 2019 FLAG review [33] of the Lattice QCD calculations  
 724 where the corresponding numbers are 4% and 7% for  $u$   
 725 and  $d$  quark, respectively. Therefore, these results will  
 726 provide a benchmark test of precise Lattice calculations.  
 727 The tensor charge is also connected to the neutron  
 728 and proton electric dipole moments (EDMs), giving us  
 729 a unique opportunity to test the Standard Model (SM)  
 730 and to search for new physics beyond SM. The nucleon

EDM is related to the quark EDM as [34–37]:

$$d_p = g_T^u d_u + g_T^d d_d + g_T^s d_s \quad (8)$$

$$d_n = g_T^d d_u + g_T^u d_d + g_T^s d_s, \quad (9)$$

where quark tensor charges appear as the coefficients in

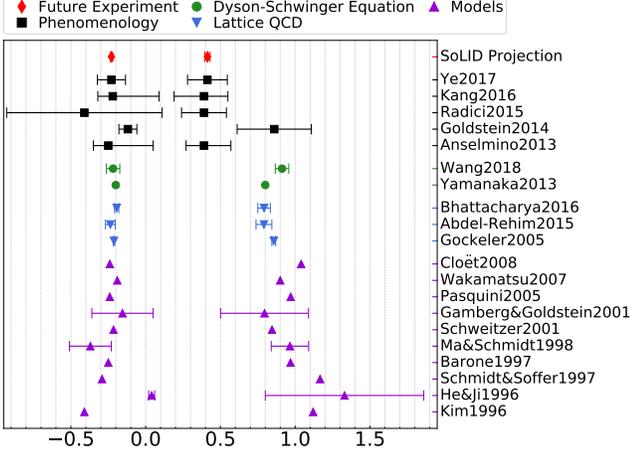


FIG. 9. The impact of the projected SoLID measurement of the tensor charge (see Eq. (7)) together with the current knowledge from various models, Dyson-Schwinger equations, global analyses, and lattice QCD simulations. This figure is from Ref. [2].

front of the corresponding quark EDMs. In these two equations, the heavy flavor contributions are neglected, and isospin symmetry is applied in Eqn. 9. Notably, a phenomenological study in [38] puts experimental constraints on quark EDMs by combining nucleon EDM measurements with tensor charge extractions. By having the current sensitivity of the neutron/proton EDM extractions (based on the study from [32]), the upper limit on quark EDMs is  $1.27 \times 10^{-24} e \cdot \text{cm}$  for the  $u$  quark, and  $1.17 \times 10^{-24} e \cdot \text{cm}$  for the  $d$  quark, where 10% uncertainties from the isospin symmetry breaking are included. Both are determined at the scale of  $4 \text{ GeV}^2$ . Future precise measurements of the tensor charge from the SoLID SIDIS program and the nucleon EDMs will reduce the upper limit on quark EDMs by about three orders of magnitude, *i.e.* to the level of  $10^{-27} e \cdot \text{cm}$  [38]. With a dimensional analysis, we estimate the new physics scale probed by the current quark EDM limit is about 1 TeV. With the quark EDM limit improved by three orders of magnitude from future experiments, it can probe new physics up to 30–40 TeV [38], beyond the LHC energy.

#### IV. PARITY VIOLATION DEEP INELASTIC SCATTERING

The main observable to be measured by the PVDIS program of SoLID [8] is the Parity-Violating (PV) cross

section asymmetry, defined as

$$A_{RL} \equiv \frac{\sigma_R - \sigma_L}{\sigma_R + \sigma_L}, \quad (10)$$

where  $\sigma_{R,L}$  are differential cross sections of right- and left-handed incoming electron, respectively. The first Parity Violation Electron Scattering (PVES) experiment, SLAC E122 [39, 40], provided a pivotal role in establish the Standard Model of electroweak physics. During the 6 GeV era of JLab, PVES has provided data on the strangeness content of the nucleon (see e.g. G0 experiment [41, 42]), the excess of the neutron distribution in heavy nuclei and its connection to neutron star physics [43], and determination of the proton weak charge [44, 45]. Furthermore, through measurement of  $A_{RL}$  in DIS, a measurement of the effective electron-quark neutral current couplings  $g_{VA}^{eq}$  [46, 47] was completed that improved the precision of SLAC E122 by an order of magnitude.

In the DIS region, the asymmetry can be written as

$$A_{PV} = -\frac{G_F Q^2}{4\sqrt{2}\pi\alpha} [a_1 Y_1 + a_3 Y_3], \quad (11)$$

where  $G_F = 1.166 \times 10^{-5} \text{ GeV}^{-2}$  is the Fermi constant,  $\alpha$  is the fine structure constant, and

$$a_1(x) = 2g_A^e \frac{F_1^{\gamma Z}}{F_1^\gamma}, \quad a_3(x) = g_V^e \frac{F_3^{\gamma Z}}{F_1^\gamma}. \quad (12)$$

The structure functions  $F_{1,3}^{\gamma,\gamma Z}$  can be written in the parton model in terms of the parton distribution functions (PDF)  $q_i(x, Q^2)$  and  $\bar{q}_i(x, Q^2)$  of the target:

$$F_1^\gamma(x, Q^2) = \frac{1}{2} \sum Q_{q_i}^2 [q_i(x, Q^2) + \bar{q}_i(x, Q^2)], \quad (13)$$

$$F_1^{\gamma Z}(x, Q^2) = \sum Q_{q_i} g_V^i [q_i(x, Q^2) + \bar{q}_i(x, Q^2)], \quad (14)$$

$$F_3^{\gamma Z}(x, Q^2) = 2 \sum Q_{q_i} g_A^i [q_i(x, Q^2) - \bar{q}_i(x, Q^2)] \quad (15)$$

Here,  $Q_{q_i}$  denotes the quark's electric charge and the summation is over the quark flavors  $i = u, d, s, \dots$ . The  $g_{V,A}^{e,i}$  are the vector and axial coupling of the electron or quark of flavor  $i$  in the SM and are related to the weak mixing angle, and the electric and weak hypercharge of the particle. The variable  $Y$  is a kinematic factor given approximately by

$$Y = \frac{1 - (1 - y)^2}{1 + (1 - y)^2}. \quad (16)$$

For detailed expressions of  $Y$  that include target-mass effect and the longitudinal structure function  $F_L$  please see Ref. [47].

Equation 11 shows that by measuring the PVDIS asymmetry on the proton or nuclei, different physics topics can be explored. The PVDIS program of SoLID includes three components: the PVDIS deuteron program that is aimed at precision determination of electroweak parameters and a search for Beyond-the-Standard Model

808 (BSM) physics; the PVDIS proton program that will pro-  
 809 vide the PDF ratio  $d/u$  in the valence quark region free  
 810 of nuclear model dependence; and the PVEMC program  
 811 that will study isospin dependence of the EMC effect  
 812 by the use of neutron-rich isotopes. With SoLID fully  
 813 exploring the high luminosity potential of CEBAF, we  
 814 expect to improve the precision of PVDIS measurement  
 815 by a factor ten compared with 6 GeV.

## 816 A. PVDIS Deuteron Measurement

### 817 1. SoLID as a EW/BSM Facility

818 The Standard Model (SM) is a theoretical framework  
 819 that explains successfully nearly all existing phenomenon  
 820 of particle physics. On the other hand, it is often re-  
 821 ferred to as an effective theory at the electroweak scale,  
 822 and believed to be only part of a theory that would ulti-  
 823 mately encompass all three (or four) interactions of na-  
 824 ture. Given that current evidence of new physics, such as  
 825 dark matter and neutrino mass, allows many possibilities  
 826 to extend the SM to higher energy scales, it is imperative  
 827 that we carry out as many high-precision measurements  
 828 as possible to test the SM and to shed light on where  
 829 BSM physics might occur.

830 The high intensity beam of CEBAF provides a unique  
 831 opportunity for SM and BSM study. The figure-of-merit  
 832 (FOM) of BSM physics searches, with a focus on new  
 833 heavy particles, can be approximately characterized by  
 834 the product  $s\sqrt{\mathcal{L}}$  where  $\mathcal{L}$  is the luminosity and  $s$  is  
 835 the center-of-mass energy of the lepton-nucleon scatter-  
 836 ing process. Even with the electron ion collider (EIC)  
 837 coming online in the near future, the BSM search FOM  
 838 of fixed-target experiments at JLab is still at least one  
 839 order of magnitude higher than the EIC if the intensity of  
 840 CEBAF's 11 GeV beam is matched by the use of a large  
 841 acceptance spectrometer, placing SoLID at a unique po-  
 842 sition to provide an impact on the landscape of EW/BSM  
 843 physics study for the next decade(s).

### 844 2. Determination of EW Parameters

845 To access EW paramters, we measure the PVDIS  
 846 asymmetry on a deuteron target, for which the SM ex-  
 847 pression simplifies to:

$$848 A_{PV,(d)}^{SM} = \frac{3G_F Q^2}{10\sqrt{2}\pi\alpha} [(2g_{AV}^{eu} - g_{AV}^{ed}) + R_V Y(2g_{VA}^{eu} - g_{VA}^{ed})]$$

850 where  $R_V(x) \equiv (u_V + d_V)/(u^+ + d^+)$  with  $q^+ \equiv q(x) +$   
 851  $\bar{q}(x)$  and  $q_V \equiv q(x) - \bar{q}(x)$ . Using the appropriate electric  
 852 charge and the weak isospin of quarks, they are related  
 853 to the weak mixing angle  $\theta_W$ . We define the low energy  
 854 electron-quark effective couplings, and express them in

855 the SM tree-level as:

$$856 g_{AV}^{eu} = 2g_A^e g_V^u = -\frac{1}{2} + \frac{4}{3} \sin^2 \theta_W, \quad (18)$$

$$857 g_{VA}^{eu} = 2g_V^e g_A^u = -\frac{1}{2} + 2 \sin^2 \theta_W, \quad (19)$$

$$858 g_{AV}^{ed} = 2g_A^e g_V^d = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{2}{3} \sin^2 \theta_W, \quad (20)$$

$$859 g_{VA}^{ed} = 2g_V^e g_A^d = \frac{1}{2} - 2 \sin^2 \theta_W. \quad (21)$$

860 Note that in BSM physics extensions, the couplings can  
 861 no longer be factorized into products of electron and  
 862 quark couplings.

863 Using 120 days of 50  $\mu\text{A}$  electron beam with 85%  
 864 polarization incident on a 40-cm long liquid deuterium  
 865 target, we can measure the PVDIS asymmetry to sub-  
 866 percent-level precision within a wide  $(x, Q^2)$  range, see  
 867 Fig. 10. The dominant uncertainties will be from experi-  
 868 mental systematics including beam polarimetry (0.4%)  
 869 and  $Q^2$  determination (0.2%), assumed to be fully cor-  
 870 related among all bins, and radiative corrections (0.2%)  
 871 and event reconstruction (0.2%), assumed to be fully un-  
 872 correlated.

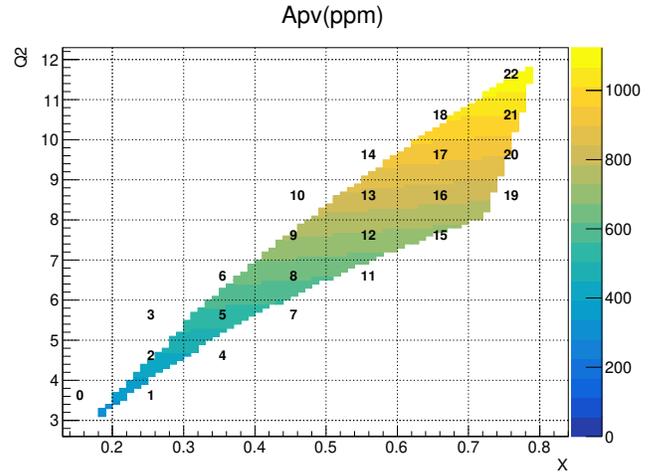


FIG. 10. Illustration of PVDIS asymmetry on a deuteron target in ppm on the  $(x, Q^2)$  plane. The data are divided into evenly spaced grid with the bin number shown. The expected statistical uncertainty is less than 1% in most of the bins.

873 Fitting projected  $A_{PV}$  data using the function:

$$874 A_{PV}^{\text{data}} = A_{PV,(d)}^{\text{SM}} \left( 1 + \frac{\beta_{\text{HT}}}{(1-x)^3 Q^2} + \beta_{\text{CSV}} x^2 \right), \quad (22)$$

875 where  $A_{PV,(d)}^{\text{SM}}$  is expressed in terms of  $\sin^2 \theta_W$  and ac-  
 876 counting for all correlated and uncorrelated systematic  
 877 effects, we arrive at the uncertainty projection shown in  
 878 Fig. 11. In Eq. (22), the use of the two  $\beta$  parameters is  
 879 to account for possible hadronic effects, to be discussed  
 880 in Section IV B.

881 The SoLID deuteron PVDIS measurement, along with  
 882 the upcoming MOLLER [48] at JLab and the P2 experi-  
 883 ment [49] at the upgraded MESA facility at Mainz, will

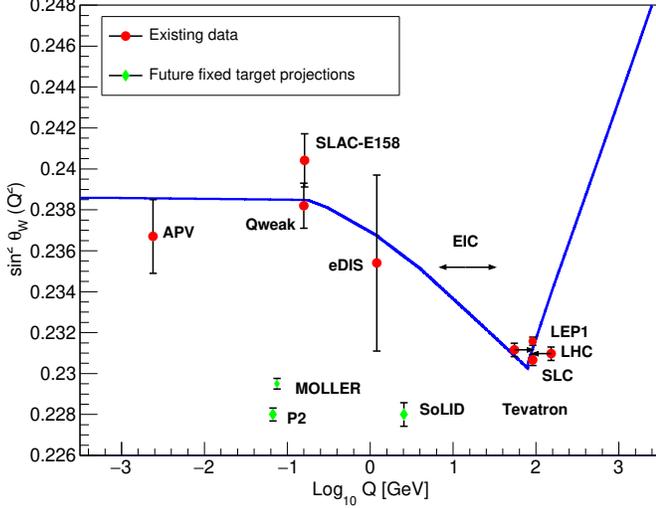


FIG. 11. Experimental determination of the weak mixing angle  $\sin^2 \theta_W$ . Data points for Tevatron and LHC are shifted horizontally for clarity.

884 provide three new cornerstone measurements on the weak  
 885 mixing angle  $\sin^2 \theta_W$  in the low to intermediate energy  
 886 region. Regarding relevant BSM physics, one possible ex-  
 887 tension involves a dark boson ( $Z_d$ ) that will introduce a  
 888  $Q^2$ -dependence on  $\sin^2 \theta_W$  [50]. In this scenario, a com-  
 889 parison of all three experiments will help to determine  
 890 the mass of the  $Z_d$ .

891 Another possibility for BSM physics is the existence  
 892 of “dark light” in which there is a light boson that also  
 893 couples to dark matter [51]. The resulting modification  
 894 to PVES experiments is that  $\sin^2 \theta_W$  has an additional  
 895  $Q^2$ -dependence beyond that predicted by the SM. Here,  
 896 PVDIS is unique in that its  $Q^2 \sim 7(\text{GeV}/c)^2$ .

897 Furthermore, to fully explore BSM physics, one must  
 898 study as many individual components of lepton-lepton  
 899 or lepton-quark interactions as precisely as possible, in  
 900 addition to the weak mixing angle. The upcoming  
 901 MOLLER, P2, and the SoLID PVDIS deuteron mea-  
 902 surements will provide precision measurements of the  
 903 low-energy effective couplings  $g_{VA}^{ee}$ ,  $g_{VA}^{eq}$ , and  $g_{AV}^{eq}$ , re-  
 904 spectively. For PVDIS, we do so by expressing  $A_{PV,(d)}^{SM}$   
 905 in Eq. (22) as functions of the electron-quark effective  
 906 couplings and perform a simultaneous fit of the combi-  
 907 nations  $(2g_{AV}^{eu} - g_{AV}^{ed})$  and  $(2g_{VA}^{eu} - g_{VA}^{ed})$ , shown as the  
 908 cyan-colored ellipse in Fig. 12. The PVDIS projection  
 909 can be further combined with that from P2 to provide the  
 910 best world fit, represented by the magenta-colored ellipse.  
 911 Due to the small value of  $g_{VA}^{eq}$ 's in the SM, they could  
 912 be particularly sensitive to BSM physics. One model  
 913 that the  $g_{VA}^{eq}$ 's are sensitive to involves the leptopho-  
 914 bic  $Z'$ 's [52], corresponding to additional neutral gauge  
 915 bosons ( $Z'$ ) with negligible couplings to leptons, and thus  
 916 would cause only sizable axial couplings to quarks while

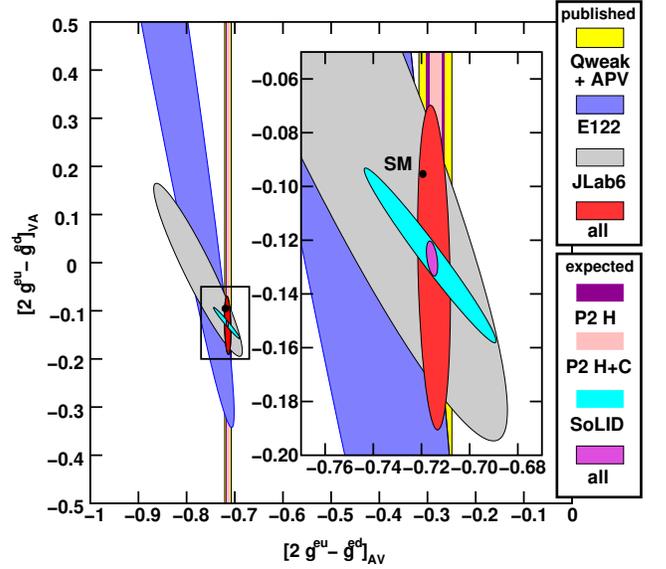


FIG. 12. Adapted from Ref. [53]: Current experimental knowledge of the couplings  $g_{VA}^{eq}$  (vertical axis). The latest world data constraint (red ellipse) is provided by combining the 6 GeV Qweak [45] on  $g_{AV}^{eq}$  (yellow vertical band) and the JLab 6 GeV PVDIS [46, 47] experiments (grey ellipse). The SoLID projected result is shown as the cyan ellipse. Also shown are expected results from P2 (purple and pink vertical bands) and the combined projection using SoLID, P2, and all existing world data (magenta ellipse), centered at the current best fit values.

917 leave the  $g_{AV}^{eq}$  relatively unaffected.

### 918 3. BSM Reach of PVDIS with SoLID

919 The potential of BSM searches can be generally charac-  
 920 terized by the energy scale  $\Lambda$ , quantified as perturbations  
 921 of the SM Lagrangian by replacing

$$922 \frac{G_F}{\sqrt{2}} g_{ij} \rightarrow \frac{G_F}{\sqrt{2}} g_{ij} + \eta_{ij}^q \frac{4\pi}{(\Lambda_{ij}^q)^2}, \quad (23)$$

923 where  $ij = AV, VA$  and we assume that the new physics  
 924 is strongly coupled with a coupling  $g$  given by  $g^2 = 4\pi$ ,  
 925 and  $\eta_{ij}^q = \pm 1$  represents if the new physics increases (con-  
 926 structive) or decreases (decreases) the couplings. Once  
 927 combined with the expected results from the P2 experi-  
 928 ment [49], the 90% C.L. mass limit that can be reached  
 929 by the SoLID PVDIS deuteron measurement is

$$930 \Lambda_{VA}^{eq} = g \sqrt{\frac{\sqrt{2}\sqrt{5}}{G_F 1.96 \Delta (2g_{VA}^{eu} - g_{VA}^{ed})}} = 17.6 \text{ TeV} \quad (24)$$

931 where the  $\sqrt{5}$  is to represent the “best case scenario”  
 932 where BSM physics affects maximally the quark flavor  
 933 combination being measured [54]. Such BSM limits are  
 934 complimentary to those from high energy facilities. As an  
 935 example: the LHC Drell-Yan cross section data also de-  
 936 termine linear combinations of both the parity-violating

937 and parity-conserving electron quark couplings, but their  
 938 constraint on BSM parameters has certain degeneracy  
 939 (“flatness”) defined by the observable measured. In this  
 940 context, the PVDIS program provides constraints on  
 941 completely different combinations of the couplings, thus  
 942 removes the flatness of LHC data in the BSM parameter  
 943 space [55].

944 SoLID will undoubtedly push forward the EW/BSM  
 945 physics study in the low to medium energy regime. On  
 946 the other hand, a variety of challenges exist. First, one  
 947 must carry out both electromagnetic and electroweak radiative  
 948 corrections to high precision. Significant progress  
 949 has been made on this topic: We have adapted the event  
 950 generator *Djangoh* [56], originally developed for HERA  
 951 cross section analysis, to fixed-target experiments and to  
 952 nuclear targets. We have made modifications to *Djangoh*  
 953 such that it can be used to calculate parity violating  
 954 asymmetries to high precision, immune from the statisti-  
 955 cal limit of a Monte-Carlo program. While there is still  
 956 detailed work to be done, we anticipate that the 0.2%  
 957 uncertainty projected on the radiative corrections can be  
 958 reached. Such progress will also be useful for the similar  
 959 program at the EIC.

## 960 B. PVDIS Proton Measurement and Hadronic 961 Physics Study

962 In Eq. (22), the use of the two  $\beta$  parameters is to ac-  
 963 count for possible hadronic effects:  $\beta_{HT}$  for higher twist  
 964 (HT) and  $\beta_{CSV}$  for charge symmetry violation (CSV) at  
 965 the quark level, both expected to have distinct  $x$  and  
 966  $Q^2$  dependence more specifically affects the asymmetry  
 967 at high  $x$  values. The PVDIS deuteron measurement has  
 968 the special property that most HT diagrams cancel in the  
 969 asymmetry, and thus any sizable HT contribution will indi-  
 970 cate the significance of quark-quark correlations. The  
 971 CSV effect refers to the possibility that the up quark PDF  
 972 in the proton and down quark PDF in the neutron are  
 973 different. Together, these hadronic physics effects may  
 974 be large enough to explain the apparent inconsistency of  
 975 the NuTeV experiment [57] with the SM [58, 59].

976 In addition to the deuteron measurement, PVDIS  
 977 asymmetries on the proton target will allow one to de-  
 978 termine PDF ratio  $d(x)/u(x)$  at high  $x$  based on the de-  
 979 pendence of the structure functions in Eq. (11). The  
 980 standard determination of the  $d/u$  ratio relies on fully  
 981 inclusive DIS on a proton target compared to a deuteron  
 982 target. In the large  $x$  region, nuclear corrections in the  
 983 deuteron target lead to large uncertainties in the  $d/u$  ra-  
 984 tio. However, they can be completely eliminated if the  
 985  $d/u$  ratio is obtained from the proton target alone. For  
 986 a proton target in the parton model and omitting sea  
 987 quark distributions [53], the PVDIS asymmetry is given

988 by:

$$989 A_{PV,(p)} = \frac{3G_F Q^2 (2g_{AV}^{eu} - \frac{d}{u}g_{AV}^{ed}) + Y[2g_{VA}^{eu} - \frac{d}{u}g_{VA}^{ed}]}{2\sqrt{2}\pi\alpha (4 + \frac{d}{u})}. \quad (25)$$

991 which provides a direct access to  $d/u$  without any nuclear  
 992 physics effects. In this way, SoLID is complementary to

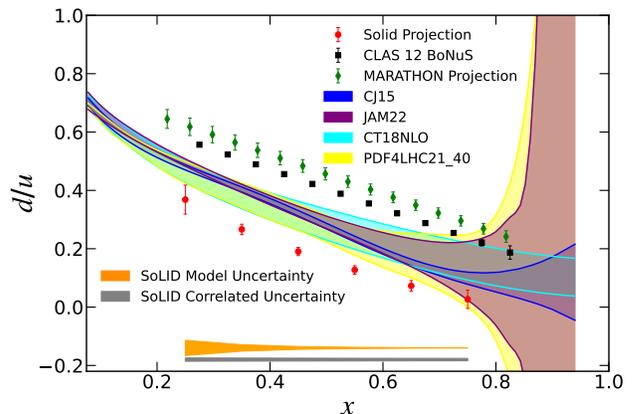


FIG. 13. Projected results on the PDF ratio  $d/u$  from the PVDIS proton measurement (red points) compared with the current world fits from a number of PDF grids and their uncertainties. The inner and outer error bars of the SoLID projection indicate the uncertainty in the extracted  $d/u$  from statistical, and from statistical and uncorrelated systematic uncertainties, respectively. The two horizontal shaded bands show the uncertainty in  $d/u$  due to omitting sea quarks in Eq. (25) (model uncertainty, orange-colored band), and from correlated systematic uncertainties (dark grey band). Projections on MARATHON and CLAS12 BoNuS are from their respective experimental proposals [60, 61], although the extraction of  $d/u$  from MARATHON data requires new analysis.

993  
 994 the recent MARATHON experiment at low  $Q^2$  as well  
 995 as  $W$  production data from Fermilab have greatly im-  
 996 proved the measurement of  $d/u$  at high  $Q^2$  [62]. The  
 997 MARATHON data have been interpreted in two different  
 998 ways [63, 64], highlighting the importance of the PVDIS  
 999 proton measurement that will provide information both  
 1000 directly on  $d/u$  and on nuclear physics models relevant  
 1001 for future inclusive scattering measurement involving the  
 1002 deuteron or heavier nuclear targets. Using 90 days of  
 1003 50  $\mu\text{A}$  electron beam with 85% polarization incident on  
 1004 a 40-cm long liquid hydrogen target, the projection on  
 1005  $d/u$  is shown in Fig. 13.

1006  
 1007 SoLID in its PVDIS configuration can be used to study  
 1008 more hadronic physics topics. For example, data on PV  
 1009 asymmetry for nucleon resonances will be collected simul-  
 1010 taneously with PVDIS running. Resonance  $A_{PV}$  data  
 1011 will help to test how well we model the nucleon, explore  
 1012 quark-hadron duality in the electroweak sector, and will  
 1013 help constrain model inputs for radiative correction of

1014 PVDIS. Measurements of the single beam-normal asym-  
 1015 metry  $A_n$  provides information on two-photon-exchange  
 1016 physics, and can be done with SoLID so that it is non-  
 1017 invasive to other halls, see Section VIII D.

### 1018 C. Flavor dependence of the EMC effect

1019 Just as PVDIS can be used to study the  $d/u$  ratio  
 1020 in the valence quark region when measured for the pro-  
 1021 ton, it can also be used to study the flavor structure of  
 1022 PDFs if a nuclear target is used. For an isoscalar target  
 1023 with mass number  $A$ , where charge symmetry provides  
 1024 the expectation  $u_A(x) = d_A(x)$ , the PVDIS asymmetry  
 1025 is independent of the EMC effect as long as all PDFs  
 1026 are modified in the same way. In an isoscalar nucleus  
 1027 such as deuterium or  $^{40}\text{Ca}$ , it can be used to look for  
 1028 charge-symmetry violation, although the expectation is  
 1029 that this would yield a small effect (as discussed in sec-  
 1030 tion IV B): While the EMC effect modifies the PDFs in  
 1031 these nuclei, it is assumed that the modification of the  
 1032 up- and down-quarks is identical, and as such, will can-  
 1033 cel exactly in the ratio of  $F_1^{\gamma Z}/F_1^{\gamma}$  and  $F_3^{\gamma Z}/F_1^{\gamma}$ , making  
 1034 the asymmetry completely insensitive to the conventional  
 1035 (flavor-independent) EMC effect.

1036 If the EMC effect yields different nuclear modification  
 1037 for the up-quark and down-quark PDFs, this modifies  
 1038  $A_{PV}$  making it sensitive to the flavor dependence of the  
 1039 EMC effect. In non-isoscalar nuclei, the flavor depen-  
 1040 dence that arises from the difference in Fermi smearing  
 1041 for protons and neutrons is expected to be extremely  
 1042 small, except for  $x > 0.7-0.8$ , as conventional smear-  
 1043 ing and binding effects are a small part of the EMC  
 1044 effect [65, 66]. Over the past decade there have been  
 1045 several indications that the EMC effect may have a sig-  
 1046 nificant flavor dependence in non-isoscalar nuclei, as seen  
 1047 in calculations of the EMC effect using different cou-  
 1048 pling for up- and down-quarks to the QCD scalar and  
 1049 vector potentials [67], and PDF analyses [68, 69] which  
 1050 explains the tension between neutrino charged-current  
 1051 scattering and DIS plus Drell-Yan data by allowing for  
 1052 a flavor-dependent EMC effect. In addition, a range of  
 1053 models [70] inspired by the observed correlation between  
 1054 the EMC effect and short-range correlations [71, 72] also  
 1055 predict a flavor dependence of the EMC effect associ-  
 1056 ated with the isospin structure of short-distance or high-  
 1057 momentum pairs of nucleons. In all cases, these models,  
 1058 calculations, and fits predict an increase in the EMC ef-  
 1059 fect for protons inside of neutron-rich nuclei.

1060 An experiment was conditionally approved by JLab  
 1061 PAC50 [9] to measure PVDIS on  $^{48}\text{Ca}$ . The experiment,  
 1062 called PVEMC, uses the exact same configuration as the  
 1063 PVDIS measurements on hydrogen and deuterium, ex-  
 1064 cept with a 2.4-g/cm $^2$   $^{48}\text{Ca}$  target. The  $^{48}\text{Ca}$  was chosen  
 1065 to provide a nucleus with a significant EMC effect and  
 1066 a large neutron excess, while avoiding very high- $Z$  mate-  
 1067 rial which would yield significantly more radiation for the  
 1068 same target thickness. The kinematic coverage is similar

1069 to that shown in Fig. 10, though the data will be binned  
 1070 only in  $x$  and with a statistical precision at about 1%  
 1071 or less within each  $x$  bin accumulated with 68 days of  
 1072 data taking. The experimental systematic uncertainties  
 1073 are expected to be also similar to the deuteron measure-  
 1074 ment.

1075 From the measured  $A_{PV}$ , we can extract the domi-  
 1076 nant  $a_1$  contribution (Eq. 11) which is sensitive to the  
 1077  $d(x)/u(x)$  ratio of the nuclear structure function. This  
 1078 sensitivity is clear if one evaluates  $a_1$  under the assump-  
 1079 tion that only light quarks distributions  $u_A(x)$  and  $d_A(x)$   
 1080 contribute and expands  $a_1$  as:

$$1081 \quad a_1 \simeq \frac{9}{5} - 4 \sin^2 \theta_W - \frac{12}{25} \frac{u_A^+ - d_A^+}{u_A^+ + d_A^+} \quad (26)$$

1082 with the convention that  $q^\pm = q(x) \pm \bar{q}(x)$ . This expres-  
 1083 sion is a good approximation at large  $x$ , where the sea  
 1084 quarks do not contribute significantly, and shows that  
 1085 the PVDIS asymmetries are directly sensitive to flavor  
 1086 dependence of the EMC effect that modifies  $u_A^+$  and  $d_A^+$   
 1087 differently.

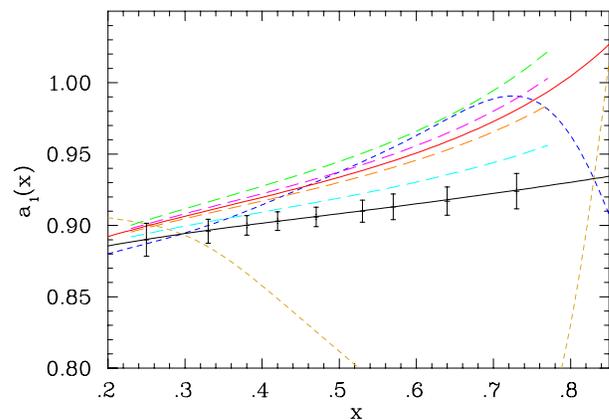


FIG. 14. Projections for the extracted  $a_1(x)$  for the PVEMC proposal [9] (black points), including statistical, systematic, and normalization (0.4%) uncertainties. The black curve represents the prediction for the flavor-independent EMC effect, the red curve is the CBT model [67], the long-dashed curves represent the predictions from simple scaling models mentioned above [70], and the short-dashed curves represent extreme cases where the EMC effect is caused entirely by up-quark (blue) or down-quark (brown) modification.

1088 Figure 14 shows the projected uncertainties for the  
 1089 proposed measurement, including statistical and system-  
 1090 atic uncertainties, as well as the estimated uncertainty  
 1091 on the baseline prediction in the absence of a flavor-  
 1092 dependent EMC effect. The points are shown on the  
 1093 flavor-independent prediction, and the various curves  
 1094 represent projections based on calculations or simple  
 1095 models of the EMC effect, as described in the caption.  
 1096 The projected results give  $7\sigma$  sensitivity to the CBT  
 1097 model prediction [67] and  $>3\sigma$  sensitivity to all but the  
 1098 smallest effect among the models evaluated. Thus, the

1099 data will provide a search for a non-zero flavor depen-  
 1100 dence in the EMC effect, be able to differentiate between  
 1101 ‘large’ and ‘small’ effects, and set stringent limits on such  
 1102 a flavor-dependent effect should the results be consistent  
 1103 with a flavor-independent effect.

1104 The presence and size of a flavor-dependent modifica-  
 1105 tion of the nuclear PDFs has wide-ranging implications.  
 1106 First, the size of the flavor dependence is sensitive to the  
 1107 underlying physics behind the EMC effect. In addition,  
 1108 observing a flavor-dependent EMC effect would imply  
 1109 that the PDFs used for non-isoscalar nuclei are incor-  
 1110 rect, modifying the expectation for high energy lepton-  
 1111 nucleus scattering such as  $e - A$  or for  $A - A$  collisions.  
 1112 This could be significant for heavy nuclei which have a  
 1113 large neutron excess, as well as for measurements utiliz-  
 1114 ing polarized  $^3\text{He}$  as an effective neutron target.

## 1115 V. NEAR-THRESHOLD $J/\psi$ PRODUCTION

1116 The proton’s fundamental properties, like its electric  
 1117 charge, mass, and spin, are the hallmarks of our knowl-  
 1118 edge of the visible universe. More than 60 years ago,  
 1119 through a novel experimental investigation of its charge  
 1120 using electron scattering, we learned that the proton is  
 1121 not a point-like particle but has a finite volume with pri-  
 1122 mary constituents. In the following 20 years, these con-  
 1123 stituents dubbed “partons” were identified through elec-  
 1124 tron and muon deep inelastic scattering studies as being  
 1125 the quarks and gluons we know today. In tandem, the  
 1126 theory of strong interactions, a non-abelian field theory  
 1127 known as Quantum Chromodynamics (QCD) [73–75] was  
 1128 developed and brought our understanding and knowledge  
 1129 of the proton’s interior to a new level. In practice, the  
 1130 theory was intractable analytically but could be approxi-  
 1131 mated and tested such as in DIS experiments. Our naive  
 1132 three valence quark picture providing the total spin 1/2  
 1133 of the proton was challenged, and experimental studies  
 1134 in the last 40 years have described the proton’s spin in  
 1135 terms of its partonic structure front and center. Today  
 1136 we know that both constituents quarks gluons and their  
 1137 angular momentum play a role in providing the proton’s  
 1138 total spin 1/2. Furthermore, The spin of the proton pro-  
 1139 vided a laboratory to test and better understand QCD  
 1140 with various controlled approximations in corners of its  
 1141 full phase space.

1142 Many studies have focused on the proton electric  
 1143 charge and spin, the proton mass, however, has received  
 1144 less attention. Although the proton’s total mass is mea-  
 1145 sured and calculated in QCD with high precision[76, 77],  
 1146 its origin, gravitational density distribution, among its  
 1147 partonic constituents and the trace anomaly are yet to  
 1148 be investigated and fully understood through direct mea-  
 1149 surements. Few facts are crucial to know why further  
 1150 studies are needed to get a deeper insight into the con-  
 1151 stituents’ role in providing the proton’s total mass. First,  
 1152 it is well known that the Higgs mechanism provides for  
 1153 the mass of the quark constituents and breaks chiral sym-

1154 metry in the QCD Hamiltonian. However, this is only a  
 1155 small fraction of the proton’s total mass, about 10%. Sec-  
 1156 ond, we also know that scale symmetry is broken in QCD,  
 1157 and this violation is responsible for most of the proton  
 1158 mass. This is reflected by contributions from the glu-  
 1159 ons’ energy, self-interactions, and interactions with the  
 1160 moving quarks.

1161 Recent measurements at JLab [78, 79], motivated by  
 1162 the LHCb charm pentaquarks discovery[80, 81], gave a  
 1163 new impetus to use the  $J/\psi$  particle, a small color dipole,  
 1164 to not only search for these pentaquarks but also to  
 1165 probe the gluonic gravitational mass density in the pro-  
 1166 ton and determine the mass radius and scalar radius.  
 1167 These two radii encode information contained in the glu-  
 1168 onic gravitational form factors (GFFs) known as  $A_g(k)$   
 1169 and  $C_g(k)$  form factors, where  $A_g(k)$  is the response to  
 1170 a graviton-like tensor glueball ( $2^{++}$ ) probe and  $C_g(k)$  is  
 1171 a response to a scalar ( $0^{++}$ ) probe. Because the produc-  
 1172 tion of the  $J/\psi$  particle at JLab occurs at photon energies  
 1173 near threshold, the region of the measurement is highly  
 1174 non-perturbative. Different theoretical approaches with  
 1175 various approximations have been explored in this non-  
 1176 perturbative region of production to extract these gravi-  
 1177 tational form factors [82–88]. Recent lattice QCD calcu-  
 1178 lations [89, 90] of these gravitational form factors, albeit  
 1179 at a large pion mass of 450 MeV, will enable comparisons  
 1180 with the various extraction methods of the GFFs.

1181 Close to threshold, the smallness of the electro- and  
 1182 photoproduction cross sections requires a dedicated ex-  
 1183 periments with a well designed detector to exploit the  
 1184 full potential of the beam luminosity and capture the  
 1185 full phase space of this process in a measurement of key  
 1186 observables. SoLID provides all the necessary tools to re-  
 1187 alize the highest statistics exclusive measurements of  $J/\psi$   
 1188 through both the  $e^+e^-$  and  $\mu^+\mu^-$  channels while cross  
 1189 checking these two complementary channels and control-  
 1190 ling the systematic errors.

### 1191 A. The SoLID $J/\psi$ Experiment

1192 The detector setup for SoLID- $J/\psi$  [7] is similar to  
 1193 SoLID-SIDIS, except for the unpolarized liquid hydro-  
 1194 gen target. The nominal luminosity for SoLID- $J/\psi$  is 50  
 1195 days at  $10^{37} \text{ cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-2}$ . In Fig. 15 we show the kinematic  
 1196 phase space reachable for the electroproduction and pho-  
 1197 toproduction channels for the nominal luminosity.

1198 The photoproduction channel receives approximately  
 1199 equal contributions from quasi-real electroproduction  
 1200 events and direct photoproduction events due to  
 1201 bremsstrahlung in the extended target. The photopro-  
 1202 duction channel maximizes the statistical impact the  
 1203 SoLID- $J/\psi$  experiment can achieve. We measure these  
 1204 events by requiring a coincidence between the  $J/\psi$  decay  
 1205 electron-positron pair and the recoil proton.

1206 To measure the electroproduction events, we measure  
 1207 the scattered electron in coincidence with the  $J/\psi$  decay  
 1208 electron-positron pair. For a subset of events, we also de-

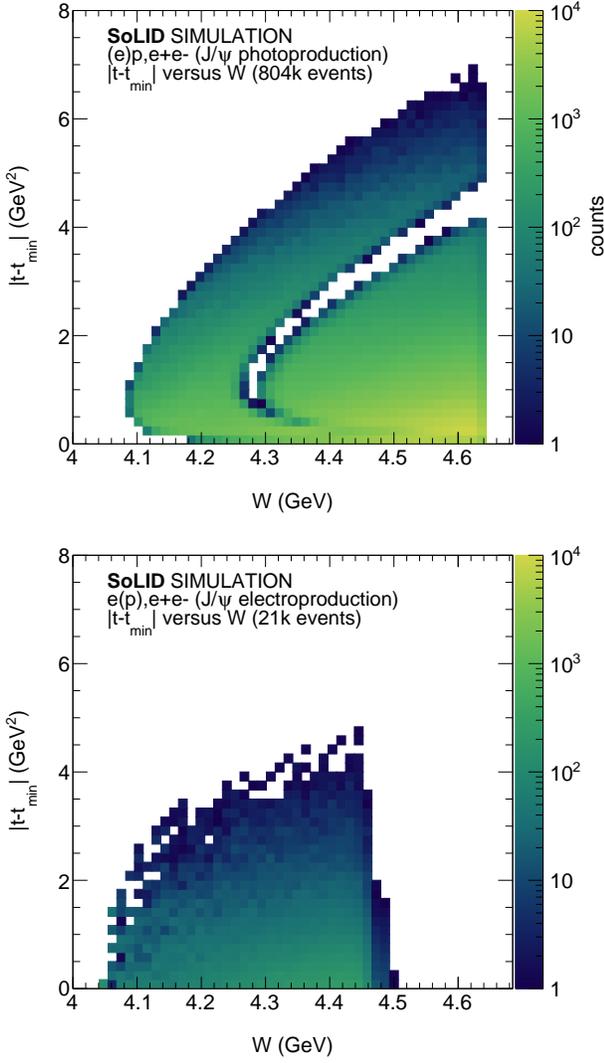


FIG. 15. Mandelstam variable  $|t - t_{\min}|$  versus the invariant mass of the final state  $W$  for exclusive photo-(top) and electroproduction (bottom) of  $J/\psi$  near threshold. The high statistics of the photoproduction channel allow for a precise measurement of the  $t$ -dependence at larger values of  $t$ , important for constraining gravitational form factors. The electroproduction measurement complements the photoproduction measurement through improved acceptance near threshold.

1209 tect the recoil proton for a full exclusive measurement, a  
 1210 redundant measurement important to understanding the  
 1211 physics and detector backgrounds, necessary to precisely  
 1212 determine the absolute cross section.

1213 The projected 1D cross section results for the nomi-  
 1214 nal luminosity is shown in Fig. 16. The photoproduction  
 1215 and electroproduction channels are truly complementary  
 1216 to each other: the photoproduction channel has superior  
 1217 statistics and  $t$ -reach at higher  $W$ , while electroproduc-  
 1218 tion has superior reach in the region very close to the  
 1219 threshold. The relation between the photon virtuality  
 1220  $Q^2$  and  $W$  are shown in Fig. 17. The average  $Q^2$  at

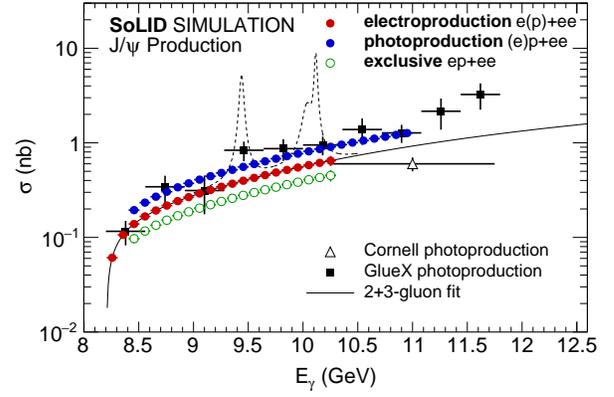


FIG. 16. Projected 1-D  $J/\psi$  cross section results as a function of photon energy  $E_\gamma$  compared with the available world data. The blue disks show the photoproduction results, while the red disks show the electroproduction results, and the green circles show the results for a fully exclusive electroproduction measurement. Each of the measurements on this figure has a corresponding high-precision measurement of the  $t$ -dependent differential cross section.

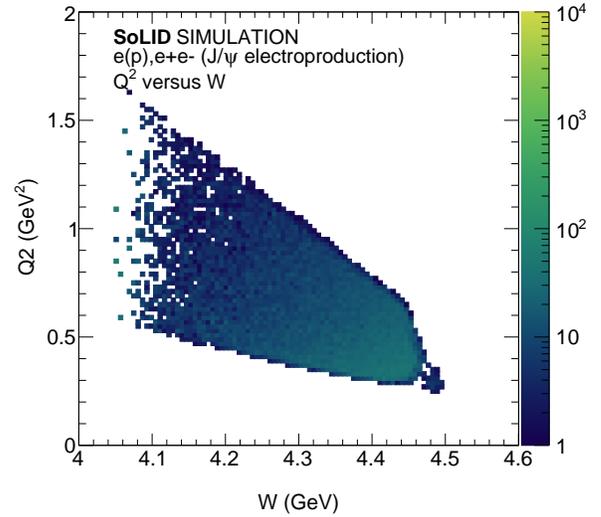


FIG. 17. Photon virtuality  $Q^2$  versus the invariant mass of the final state  $W$  for exclusive and electroproduction (bottom) of  $J/\psi$  near threshold. At threshold, there is a modest lever arm in  $Q^2$ , with an average virtuality of about  $1 \text{ GeV}^2$ .

1221 threshold is about  $1 \text{ GeV}^2$ , dropping as a function of  $W$ .  
 1222 Combining the electroproduction results with the photo-  
 1223 production results yields a modest but important lever  
 1224 arm in  $Q^2$ .

## 1225 B. Gluonic Gravitational Form Factors and SoLID

1226 The  $t$ -dependent differential cross sections measure-  
 1227 ments that can be achieved by SoLID are shown in  
 1228 Fig. 18. The process to determine gluonic GFFs from

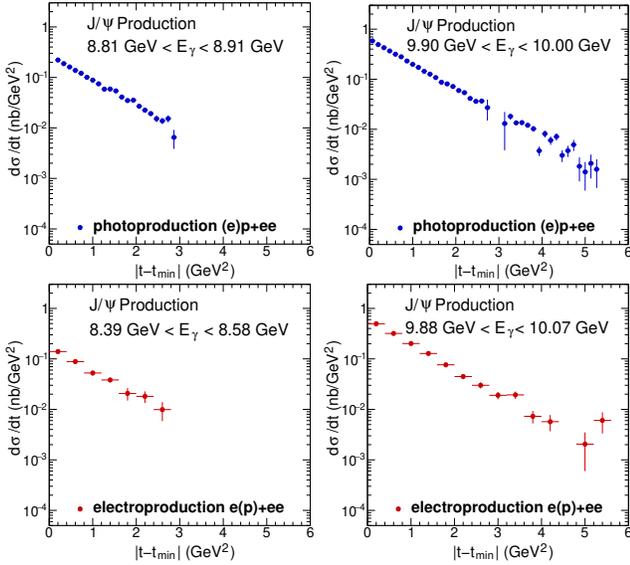


FIG. 18. Top row: The projected differential cross section for a photoproduction bin at low (left) and high (right) photon energy from Fig. 16, assuming the nominal luminosity for SoLID- $J/\psi$ . Bottom row: Same for two electroproduction bins. Precise measurements of these  $t$ -dependence over the full near-threshold phase space will hold the key to constrain the GFFs.

1230 the near-threshold  $J/\psi$  differential cross section is cur-  
 1231 rently under active discussion. One common theme to  
 1232 all proposed approaches[82–88] is the need to precisely  
 1233 measure the  $J/\psi$  differential cross section at larger val-  
 1234 ues of  $t$  as a function of the photon energy  $E_\gamma$ . A pre-  
 1235 cise determination of the cross section at larger values  
 1236 in  $t$  will help constrain extrapolation uncertainties, while  
 1237 enabling theoretical approaches that depend on a factor-  
 1238 ization at larger values of  $t$ . This measurement can only  
 1239 be accomplished with SoLID, due to the unique combi-  
 1240 nation of large luminosity and large acceptance for this  
 1241 process.

### 1242 C. Other Quarkonium Production Experiments at 1243 JLab and EIC

1244 The increased profile of the physics topics that can be  
 1245 studied through near-threshold quarkonium production  
 1246 has spurred many experimental efforts at JLab and is an  
 1247 important component of the EIC scientific program [91].  
 1248 The first 1-D and 2-D  $J/\psi$  cross section results near  
 1249 threshold have been published by respectively GlueX and  
 1250 the Hall C  $J/\psi$ -007 experiment. In the next years, GlueX  
 1251 and CLAS12 will precisely measure the differential  $J/\psi$   
 1252 cross section at lower values of  $t$ . SoLID- $J/\psi$  will ful-  
 1253 fil a unique role within the Jefferson Lab program for  
 1254 near-threshold  $J/\psi$  production, by precisely measuring  
 1255 the differential cross section at larger values of  $t$ , and by  
 1256 enabling a precise measurement of near-threshold electro-

1257 production. The JLab  $J/\psi$  program is complementary  
 1258 with the near-threshold  $\Upsilon$  program at the EIC.

## 1259 VI. GENERALIZED PARTON DISTRIBUTION 1260 PROGRAM

1261 Generalized parton distributions (GPDs) are a theo-  
 1262 retical tool, developed in the late 90s, which offer corre-  
 1263 lation information between the transverse location and  
 1264 the longitudinal momentum of partons in the nucleon.  
 1265 At leading twist, there are four chiral-odd GPDs ( $H$ ,  $\tilde{H}$ ,  
 1266  $E$ ,  $\tilde{E}$ ) and four chiral-even GPDs ( $H_T$ ,  $\tilde{H}_T$ ,  $E_T$ ,  $\tilde{E}_T$ ).  
 1267 Each GPD is a function of  $x$ ,  $\xi$  and  $t$ , where  $x$  denotes  
 1268 the average light-cone momentum fraction of the quark,  
 1269  $\xi \approx x_B/(2 - x_B)$  is the skewness representing the lon-  
 1270 gitudinal momentum fraction transferred to the nucleon,  
 1271 and  $t$  represents the total square momentum transferred  
 1272 to the nucleon. GPDs also depend on  $Q^2$ , which is usually  
 1273 dropped out from the expressions since the  $Q^2$ -variation  
 1274 follows the QCD evolution equations. GPDs provide a  
 1275 link between electromagnetic form factors and parton dis-  
 1276 tributions [92–94] and can further access the contribution  
 1277 of the orbital angular momentum of quarks (and gluons)  
 1278 to the nucleon spin through the Ji’s sum rule [95],

$$1279 \quad J^q = \frac{1}{2} \Delta \Sigma^q + L^q$$

$$1280 \quad = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^{+1} dx x [H^q(x, \xi, 0) + E^q(x, \xi, 0)], \quad (27)$$

1281 where  $\Delta \Sigma^q$  is the quark spin contribution measured in  
 1282 polarized deep inelastic scattering, and  $L^q$  is the quark  
 1283 orbital angular momentum contribution to the nucleon  
 1284 spin. Note that the sum rule also applies to the gluon  
 1285 GPDs. Hence, Ji’s sum rule provides an experimental  
 1286 way to decompose the nucleon spin in terms of the quark  
 1287 and gluon contributions.

### 1288 A. Deep Exclusive Meson Production

1289 A special kinematic regime is probed in Deep Exclu-  
 1290 sive Meson Production (DEMP) reactions, where the ini-  
 1291 tial hadron emits a quark-antiquark or gluon pair. This  
 1292 has no counterpart in the usual parton distributions,  
 1293 and carries information about  $q\bar{q}$  and  $gg$ -components in  
 1294 the hadron wavefunction. Because quark helicity is con-  
 1295 served in the hard scattering regime, the produced meson  
 1296 acts as a helicity filter [96]. In particular, leading order  
 1297 QCD predicts that vector meson production is sensitive  
 1298 only to the unpolarized GPDs,  $H$  and  $E$ , whereas pseu-  
 1299 doscalar meson production is sensitive only to the polar-  
 1300 ized GPDs,  $\tilde{H}$  and  $\tilde{E}$ . In contrast, DVCS depends at  
 1301 the same time on both the polarized ( $\tilde{H}$  and  $\tilde{E}$ ) and the  
 1302 unpolarized ( $H$  and  $E$ ) GPDs. Thus, DEMF reactions  
 1303 provide a tool to disentangle the different GPDs from  
 1304 experimental data [96].

The  $\tilde{E}$  is particularly poorly known [97]. It is related to the pseudoscalar nucleon form factor  $G_P(t)$ , which is itself highly uncertain, because it is negligible at the momentum transfer of nucleon  $\beta$ -decay.  $\tilde{E}$  is believed to contain an important pion pole contribution, and hence is optimally studied in DEMP.  $\tilde{E}$  cannot be related to any already known parton distribution, and so experimental information about it can provide new nucleon structure information unlikely to be available from any other source.

Frankfurt et al. [98] identified the single spin asymmetry for exclusive  $\pi^\pm$  production from a transversely polarized nucleon target as the most sensitive observable to probe the spin-flip  $\tilde{E}$ . The experimental access to  $\tilde{E}$  is through the azimuthal variation of the emitted pions, where the relevant angles are  $\phi$  between the scattering and reaction planes, and  $\phi_s$  between the target polarization and the scattering plane. The  $\sin(\phi - \phi_s)$  asymmetry, where  $(\phi - \phi_s)$  is the angle between the target polarization vector and the reaction plane, is related to the parton-helicity-conserving part of the scattering process, and is sensitive to the interference between  $\tilde{H}$  and  $\tilde{E}$  [98, 99]. The asymmetry vanishes if  $\tilde{E}$  is zero. If  $\tilde{E}$  is not zero, the asymmetry will display a  $\sin(\phi - \phi_s)$  dependence. Refs. [98, 100] note that ‘‘precocious scaling’’ is likely to set in at moderate  $Q^2 \sim 2 - 4 \text{ GeV}^2$  for this observable, as opposed to the absolute cross section, where scaling is not expected until  $Q^2 > 10 \text{ GeV}^2$ .

SoLID, in conjunction with a polarized  $^3\text{He}$  target, can be used to probe  $\tilde{E}$ . Since polarized  $^3\text{He}$  is an excellent proxy for a polarized neutron, the reaction of interest is essentially  $\bar{n}(e, e'\pi^-)p$  (after nuclear corrections are applied). The only previous data are from HERMES [101], for average values  $\langle x_B \rangle = 0.13$ ,  $\langle Q^2 \rangle = 2.38 \text{ GeV}^2$ . Although the observed  $\sin(\phi - \phi_s)$  asymmetry moment is small, the HERMES data are consistent with GPD models based on the dominance of  $\tilde{E}$  over  $\tilde{H}$  at low  $-t = -(q - p_\pi)^2$  [102]. An improved measurement of the  $\sin(\phi - \phi_s)$  modulation of the transverse target spin asymmetry, is clearly a high priority. In comparison to HERMES, SoLID will probe higher  $Q^2$  and  $x_B$ , with much smaller statistical errors over a wider range of  $t$ . Thus, the measurements should be more readily interpretable than those from HERMES, providing the first clear experimental signature of  $\tilde{E}$ .

In the DEMP reaction on a neutron, all three charged particles in the final state,  $e^-$ ,  $\pi^-$  and  $p$ , can be cleanly measured by SoLID. Hence, contamination from other reactions, including DEMP from the other two protons in  $^3\text{He}$ , can be greatly eliminated. The dominant background of the DEMP measurement comes from the SIDIS reactions of electron scattering on the neutron and two protons in  $^3\text{He}$ . Further reduction in the background can be accomplished by reconstructing the missing momentum and missing mass of the recoil protons, via  $\vec{p}_{miss} = \vec{q} - \vec{p}_\pi$ ,  $M_{miss} = \sqrt{(\nu - E_\pi)^2 - (\vec{q} - \vec{p}_\pi)^2}$ . After applying a missing momentum cut to exclude events for which  $p_{miss} > 1.2 \text{ GeV}/c$ , the SIDIS background is

largely suppressed.

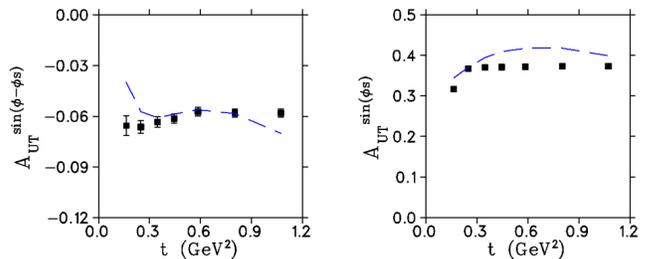


FIG. 19. Projected uncertainties for  $A_{UT}^{\sin(\phi - \phi_s)}$  and  $A_{UT}^{\sin(\phi_s)}$  in the  $\bar{n}(e, e'\pi^-)p$  reaction from a transversely polarized  $^3\text{He}$  target and SoLID. The dashed curve represents the input asymmetry into the simulation, and the data points represent the extracted asymmetry moment values from an unbinned maximum likelihood (UML) analysis of simulated SoLID data.

Figure 19 shows E12-10-006B [11] projections for the two most important transverse single spin asymmetry moments. The  $\sin(\phi - \phi_s)$  moment (left) provides access to  $\tilde{E}$  and is the primary motivation of the measurement. There is growing theoretical interest in the  $\sin(\phi_s)$  moment (right), as it provides access to the higher-twist transversity GPD  $H_T$ . The projected data points assume detection of triple-coincidence  $^3\tilde{H}e(e, e'\pi^-)pp$  events, after application of the  $p_{miss}$  cut. All scattering, energy loss, and detector resolution are included. Fermi momentum has been turned off in the event generator, similar to where the recoil proton resolution is good enough to correct for Fermi momentum effects on an event-by-event basis. The agreement between the input and output fit values is very good, validating the unbinned maximum likelihood analysis procedure.

The high luminosity and full azimuthal coverage capabilities of SoLID make it well-suited for this measurement. It is the only feasible manner to access to wide  $t$  range needed to fully exploit the transverse target asymmetry information. The projected SoLID data are expected to be a considerable advance over the HERMES data in terms of kinematic coverage and statistical precision. The SoLID measurement is also important preparatory work for studies of the same asymmetries at the EIC, utilizing a transversely polarized proton or  $^3\text{He}$  beam.

## B. Deeply Virtual Compton Scattering with Polarized Targets

Deeply Virtual Compton Scattering (DVCS) is the golden channel to experimentally study GPDs [103, 104]. In electron scattering off nucleons with sufficiently large momentum transfer, a highly virtual photon scatters from a quark and excites the nucleon, which returns to its initial nucleon state by emitting a real photon so

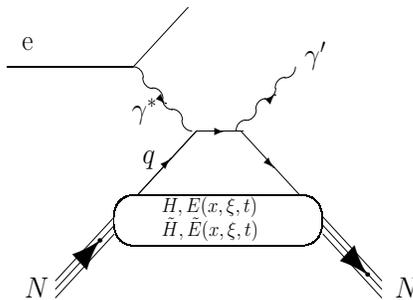


FIG. 20. DVCS and Bethe-Heitler processes in the  $e + N \rightarrow eN\gamma$  reaction. The cross section is composed of the amplitudes of these two processes as well as their interference term.

the nucleon remains intact. In this process, one measures the hard exclusive photons produced in the Bethe-Heitler (BH) and the DVCS processes, as well as their interference, i.e.  $\sigma_{e+N \rightarrow eN\gamma} \propto |\mathcal{T}_{DVCS}|^2 + |\mathcal{T}_{BH}|^2 + \mathcal{I}$  where the DVCS term and the interference term ( $\mathcal{I} = \mathcal{T}_{DVCS}^* \mathcal{T}_{BH} + \mathcal{T}_{BH}^* \mathcal{T}_{DVCS}$ ) contain the information about the GPDs with the convolution integral, called Compton Form Factors (CFF).

Several DVCS experiments with proton targets have been carried out in Halls A and B of Jefferson Lab with 6 GeV electron beam [105–108] as well as the HERMES experiment [109–116]. With the 12 GeV upgrade, several experiments in Halls A and B have been approved to measure the beam-spin asymmetry and target-spin asymmetry with a longitudinally polarized proton target [117, 118]. The DVCS measurement on neutrons is more difficult, mainly due to lower production yields, smaller asymmetries, and bigger demands on the experimental techniques compared with the proton-DVCS case. The first neutron-DVCS measurement [119] was performed in the E03-106 experiment in Hall A with polarized beam on a deuterium target. This pioneering work established the importance of the neutron-DVCS measurement, but was limited to a narrow phase space. An approved CLAS12 experiment [120], aims to measure the beam-spin asymmetry with an unpolarized neutron target.

To allow for a full flavor decomposition to extract the GPDs of individual quarks, it is desired to collect precise neutron data over a more complete phase space and with more experimental observables. It is especially important to do measurements with a transversely polarized target, which is essential to access the poorly known GPD  $E$ . SoLID enables the first measurement of DVCS on transversely polarized neutrons with 11 GeV longitudinally polarized electron beam, where the single-spin asymmetry ( $A_{UT}$ ) and the double-spin asymmetry ( $A_{LT}$ ) provide great sensitivities to decouple different CFFs in the neutron-DVCS reaction. A run-group measurement, in parallel with the already approved SIDIS experiment (E12-10-006), is under exploration. In combination with the DVCS measurement using polarized

proton targets running parasitically with the approved SIDIS experiment (E12-11-108), one can perform flavor-decomposition to isolate the CFFs of  $u$  and  $d$  quarks. Possible detector upgrades, including a better energy resolution EM calorimeter or a recoil detector, will enable clean identification of the DVCS events and unlock the full power of the SoLID GPD program.

### C. Timelike Compton Scattering

The most widely studied DVCS measurement is the electroproduction of a real spacelike photon on a nucleon. Correspondingly, Timelike Compton Scattering (TCS), is the photoproduction of a virtual timelike photon ( $Q'^2 > 0$ ) on a nucleon, where the final-state virtual photon immediately decays into a lepton pair, as shown in Eq. 28 and the left panel of Fig. 21 [121]. Like DVCS, TCS is also a direct process to access nucleon GPDs and can provide valuable information for GPD extraction. The study of both processes provides an important test about the universality of GPDs and the QCD factorization approach.

$$\gamma + p \rightarrow \gamma^* + p' \rightarrow l^- + l^+ + p' \quad (28)$$

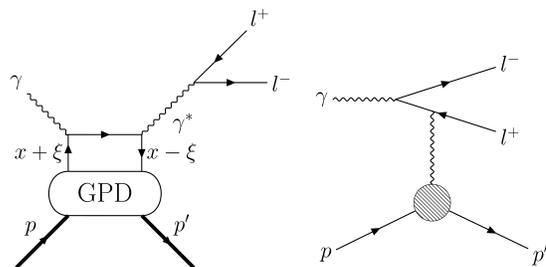


FIG. 21. Left: handbag diagram of the TCS process. Right: diagram of the BH process.

TCS is not the only physical process that can be observed in the exclusive photoproduction of lepton pairs, many resonance states decay into lepton pairs as well. In the resonance free region, the dominant background process with the same final state is the purely electromagnetic Bethe-Heitler (BH) reaction shown in the right panel of Fig. 21. Again like DVCS, the TCS and BH amplitudes interfere. Even though the BH cross section is significantly larger than the TCS cross section, we can take advantage of this interference to study TCS.

The JLab 12 GeV upgrade opens the door to access the TCS production in the resonance free region. The first TCS measurement on proton using the CLAS12 detector was recently published [121] and the selection of results are shown in Fig. 22. The photon circular polarization

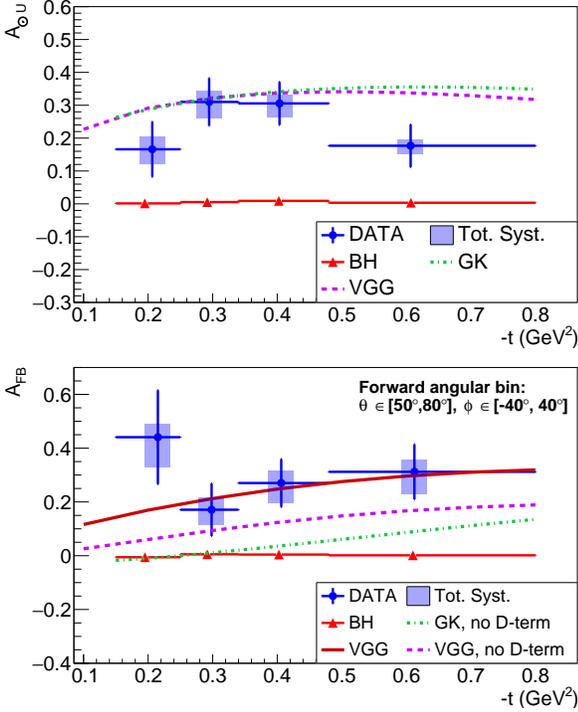


FIG. 22. The photon polarization asymmetry  $A_{\odot U}$  (top) and forward-backward (bottom) asymmetries as a function of  $-t$  at the averaged kinematic point  $E_\gamma = 7.29 \pm 1.55$  GeV;  $M = 1.80 \pm 0.26$  GeV [121]. The errors on the averaged kinematic point are the standard deviations of the corresponding distributions of events. The data points are represented in blue with statistical vertical error bars. The horizontal bars represent the bin widths. The shaded error bars show the total systematic uncertainty. The red triangles show the asymmetry computed for simulated BH events. The dashed and dashed-dotted lines are the predictions of the VGG and GK models respectively. The solid line shows the model predictions of the VGG model with D-term.

and forward-backward asymmetries were measured to be nonzero, providing strong evidence for the contribution of the quark-level mechanisms parametrized by GPDs to this reaction. The comparison of the measured polarization asymmetry with DVCS-data-constrained GPD model predictions for the imaginary and real parts of  $H$  points toward the interpretation of GPDs as universal functions. This is a great achievement, even with limited statistics. It is clear that more measurements are needed to expand the study of TCS.

Experiment E12-12-006A [12] will study the TCS reaction via exclusive  $e^+e^-p$  production, using the SoLID detector with an 11 GeV polarized electron beam and a 15 cm LH<sub>2</sub> target. The experimental observables include the circularly polarized photon asymmetry and the forward-backward asymmetry just like CLAS12, but it can also study the moments of the weighted cross section with more available data. The kinematics can cover a wide range of squared four momentum trans-

fer ( $0.1 < -t < 0.7$  GeV<sup>2</sup>), outgoing photon virtuality ( $2.25 < Q'^2 < 9$  GeV<sup>2</sup>) and skewness ( $0.1 < \xi < 0.4$ ) with  $\xi = Q'^2 / ((s - m_p^2) - Q'^2)$  where  $s$  is the center-of-mass energy and  $m_p$  is the proton mass. As a run group experiment with the SoLID J/ $\psi$  program E12-12-006, the two measurements would benefit each other on the normalization and systematic studies.

SoLID TCS is the perfect next stage experiment after the CLAS12 TCS measurement. It will provide an essential cross-check by using a different large acceptance detector to measure the same process. This is a safe approach, since TCS is still a new tool for GPD studies. The high luminosity  $10^{37}$  cm<sup>-2</sup>.s<sup>-1</sup> of SoLID is 2 orders magnitude larger than CLAS12, making it possible to perform a mapping of the  $t$ , photon virtuality and skewness dependences at the same time. This is essential for understanding factorization, higher-twist effects, and NLO corrections. The experiment will collect unprecedented amount of high quality data. It will push the TCS study to a precision era, and together with DVCS, carry out global analyses to extract GPDs from the data.

#### D. Double Deeply Virtual Compton Scattering

The dynamical properties of the nucleon that are expressed by the energy-momentum tensor [95] involve integrals of GPDs over the average momentum fraction of partons at fixed skewness. Similarly, the tomography of the nucleon [122] involves integrals of GPDs over the transverse momentum transfer in the zero-skewness limit. Thus, it is of prime importance to obtain a separate knowledge of the  $x$ - and  $\xi$ -dependences of GPDs. Differently from the DVCS and TCS processes, which access GPDs along the line  $x = \pm \xi$ , the Double Deeply Virtual Compton Scattering (DDVCS) process [123, 124], where the initial and final photons are virtual, is the only known process allowing to investigate independently the  $(x, \xi)$ -dependence of GPDs, i.e. at  $x \neq \xi$ .

At leading twist and leading  $\alpha_s$ -order, the DDVCS process corresponds to the absorption of a space-like photon by a parton of the nucleon, followed by the emission from the same parton of a time-like photon decaying into a  $l\bar{l}$ -pair, see Fig. 23. The scaling variables attached to this process are defined as

$$\xi' = \frac{Q^2 - Q'^2 + t/2}{2Q^2/x_B - Q^2 - Q'^2 + t} \quad (29)$$

$$\xi = \frac{Q^2 + Q'^2}{2Q^2/x_B - Q^2 - Q'^2 + t}, \quad (30)$$

representing the Bjorken generalized variable ( $\xi'$ ) and the skewness ( $\xi$ ). When the final photon becomes real, the DDVCS process turns into DVCS, which corresponds to the restriction  $\xi' = \xi$  in the Bjorken limit. When instead the initial photon becomes real, DDVCS turns into the TCS process, which corresponds to the restriction  $\xi' = -\xi$  in the Bjorken limit. In these respects, the

1546 DDVCS process is a generalization of the DVCS and TCS  
1547 processes.

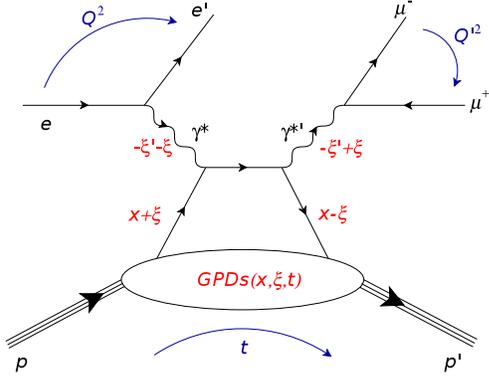


FIG. 23. Schematic of the direct term of the DDVCS amplitude with a di-muon final state. The full amplitude contains also the crossed term, where the final time-like photon is emitted from the initial quark.  $Q^2 = -q^2$  is the virtuality of the space-like initial photon, and  $Q'^2 = q'^2$  is the virtuality of the final time-like photon.

1548 The DDVCS reaction amplitude is proportional to a  
1549 combination of the Compton Form Factors (CFFs)  $\mathcal{F}$   
1550 (with  $\mathcal{F} \equiv \{\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{E}, \tilde{\mathcal{H}}, \tilde{\mathcal{E}}\}$ ) defined from the GPDs  $F$  (with  
1551  $F \equiv \{H, E, \tilde{H}, \tilde{E}\}$ ) as

$$1552 \quad \mathcal{F}(\xi', \xi, t) = \mathcal{P} \int_{-1}^1 F_+(x, \xi, t) \left[ \frac{1}{x - \xi'} \pm \frac{1}{x + \xi'} \right] dx$$

$$1553 \quad - i\pi F_+(\xi', \xi, t), \quad (31)$$

1554 where  $\mathcal{P}$  denotes the Cauchy's principal value integral,  
1555 and

$$1556 \quad F_+(x, \xi, t) = \sum_q \left( \frac{e_q}{e} \right)^2 [F^q(x, \xi, t) \mp F^q(-x, \xi, t)] \quad (32)$$

1557 is the singlet GPD combination for the quark flavor  $q$ ,  
1558 where the upper sign holds for vector GPDs ( $H^q, E^q$ )  
1559 and the lower sign for axial vector GPDs ( $\tilde{H}^q, \tilde{E}^q$ ). In  
1560 comparison to DVCS and TCS, the imaginary part of the  
1561 DDVCS CFFs accesses the GPDs at  $x = \pm \xi' \neq \xi$ , and the  
1562 real part of the DDVCS CFFs involves a convolution with  
1563 different parton propagators. Varying the virtuality of  
1564 both incoming and outgoing photons changes the scaling  
1565 variables  $\xi'$  and  $\xi$ , and maps out the GPDs as function  
1566 of its three arguments independently. From Eq. 29-30,  
1567 one obtains

$$1568 \quad \xi' = \xi \frac{Q^2 - Q'^2 + t/2}{Q^2 + Q'^2}, \quad (33)$$

1569 indicating that  $\xi'$ , and thus the imaginary parts of the  
1570 CFFs  $\{\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{E}\}$ , changes sign around  $Q^2 = Q'^2$ . This repre-  
1571 sents a strong testing ground of the universality of the  
1572 GPD formalism [125].

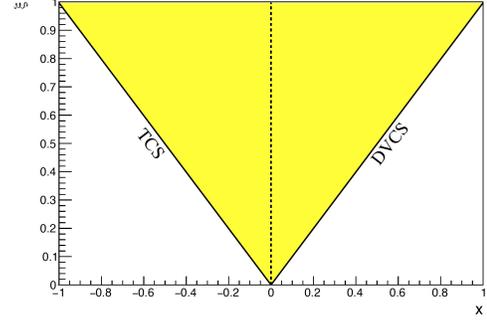


FIG. 24. Singlet GPD  $F_+(x, \xi, 0)$  coverage of the physics phase-space of the imaginary part of the CFFs: the yellow area represents the DDVCS reach, bounded on the one side by the TCS, and on the other side by DVCS lines. The  $x$ -axis corresponds to the PDFs (Parton Distribution Functions) domain measured in inclusive Deep Inelastic Scattering.

1573 Similarly to DVCS, the imaginary part of the CFFs  
1574 can be accessed by comparing experimental cross sec-  
1575 tions measured with polarized electron or positron beams  
1576 of opposite helicities, and the real part of the CFFs  
1577 is best measured by comparing experimental cross sec-  
1578 tions measured with unpolarized electron and positron  
1579 beams [126]. In order to achieve these measurements,  
1580 the SoLID spectrometer is to be completed with specific  
1581 devices dedicated for muon detection [127]. The Large  
1582 Angle Muon Detector takes advantage of the material  
1583 of the Large Angle Electromagnetic Calorimeter and the  
1584 iron flux return to serve as shielding, and two layers of  
1585 GEMs at the outer radius of the downstream encap ensure  
1586 the detection of particles. The Forward Angle Muon  
1587 Detector, placed after the downstream endcap, consists  
1588 of three layers of iron slabs instrumented with GEMs.  
1589 This configuration provides a significant coverage of the  
1590 DDVCS muons and allows the efficient investigation of  
1591 the  $(\xi, \xi')$  space for  $Q^2 \leq 3.5 \text{ GeV}^2$  and  $-t < 1 \text{ GeV}^2$ .  
1592 An unprecedented quantity of data will be collected and  
1593 can be used to measure cross section and Beam Spin  
1594 Asymmetry (BSA) observables of the DDVCS process.  
1595 The experiment would operate over a period of 50 days  
1596 with a 15 cm long unpolarized liquid hydrogen target  
1597 and a  $3 \mu\text{A}$  beam intensity. Selected BSA projections  
1598 are shown in Fig. 25. Particularly, it is worth noting  
1599 that the quality of expected data would permit observa-  
1600 tion of the predicted sign change of the imaginary part  
1601 of the CFFs, supporting GPD universality.

1602 Both TCS and DDVCS measurements require detec-  
1603 tion of dilepton decay of virtual photons with high lu-  
1604 minosity and large acceptance. The SoLID spectrome-  
1605 ter uniquely meets such a demand. The SoLID TCS and  
1606 DDVCS programs were featured in the 1st “International  
1607 Workshop on the Nucleon and Nuclear Structure through  
1608 dilepton Production” at ECT\* in Trento, Italy in Oct  
1609 2016 and included in the resulting whitepaper [129].

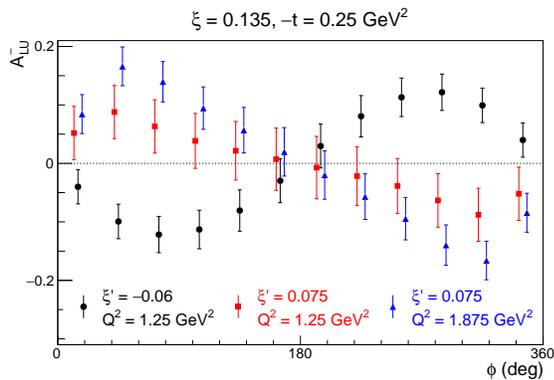


FIG. 25. Projections of selected DDVCS beam spin asymmetry measurements with SoLID, assuming 50 days of data taking on a liquid hydrogen target and a luminosity of  $1.2 \times 10^{37} \text{ cm}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$  [128].

## VII. OTHER PHYSICS TOPICS

The multi-purpose feature of SoLID will allow many other physics topics to be studied, either as rungroup or stand-alone experiments. These physics topics are summarized in this section.

### A. Measurement of Inclusive $g_2^n$ and $d_2^m$

The transverse polarized structure function  $g_2(x, Q^2)$  probes transversely and also longitudinally polarized parton distributions inside the nucleon. It carries the information of quark-gluon interactions inside the nucleon. By neglecting quark masses,  $g_2(x, Q^2)$  can be decoded by a leading twist-2 term and a higher twist term as follows:

$$g_2(x, Q^2) = g_2^{WW}(x, Q^2) + \bar{g}_2(x, Q^2), \quad (34)$$

where twist-2 term  $g_2^{WW}$  was derived by Wandzura and Wilczek [130] and it only depends on well-measured  $g_1$  [131, 132].

Matrix Element  $d_2$  is the  $x^2$  moment of  $\bar{g}_2(x, Q^2)$ . This quantity measures deviations of  $g_2(x, Q^2)$  from the twist-2 term  $g_2^{WW}$ . At large  $Q^2$ , where the operator product expansion (OPE) [133] becomes valid, one can access the twist-3 effects of quark-gluon correlations via the third moment of a linear combination of  $g_1(x, Q^2)$  and  $g_2(x, Q^2)$ , presented as

$$\begin{aligned} d_2(Q^2) &= 3 \int_0^1 x^2 [g_2(x, Q^2) - g_2^{WW}(x, Q^2)] dx \\ &= \int_0^1 x^2 [2g_1(x, Q^2) + 3g_2(x, Q^2)] dx. \end{aligned} \quad (35)$$

Due to the  $x^2$ -weighting,  $d_2(Q^2)$  is particularly sensitive to the large- $x$  behavior of  $\bar{g}_2$  and provides us a clean way to access twist-3 contribution.

A precision measurement of neutron spin structure function  $g_2(x, Q^2)$ , running in parallel with this experiment and experiment E12-11-007 [? ], has been approved as a run group proposal [134] by PAC48. High statistics data will be collected within a large kinematic coverage of Bjorken scaling  $x > 0.1$  and four momentum transfer  $1.5 < Q^2 < 10 \text{ GeV}^2$  from inclusive scatterings of longitudinally polarized electrons off transversely and longitudinally polarized  $^3\text{He}$  targets, at incident beam energies of 11 GeV and 8.8 GeV. In addition to mapping out the  $x$  and  $Q^2$  evolution of  $g_2$ , the moment  $d_2(Q^2)$ , which is connected to the quark-gluon correlations within the nucleon, will be extracted with  $1.5 < Q^2 < 6.5 \text{ GeV}^2$ .  $d_2(Q^2)$  is one of the cleanest observables that can be used to test the theoretical calculations from lattice QCD and various nucleon structure models.

### B. SIDIS with Kaon Production

While the JLab TMD program mostly focuses on measuring the pion production in SIDIS, the kaon production data are crucial to successfully decouple all light quark flavors. There are only limited kaon-SIDIS data from HERMES [135], COMPASS [136], and JLab Hall A collaborations [137], all of which are with poor precision and narrow kinematic coverage. In the run-group proposal [29], we will perform an offline analysis to extract the kaon-SIDIS events out from all the already approved SoLID pion-SIDIS measurements. The kaon events will be identified using the time-of-flight (TOF) information from the MRPC. A 20 ps time resolution of a new generation MRPC, which has been achieved with cosmic ray test by several groups [138, 139], should be able to perform  $\pi^\pm/K^\pm$  separation up to a high hadron momentum (e.g.  $P_h < 6.0 \text{ GeV}/c$ ), while the veto-signal from heavy-gas Čerenkov detector can also effectively isolate  $K^\pm$  from  $\pi^\pm$ .

Thanks to the high intensity and large acceptance features of the SoLID detector system, the new measurement will generate a large set of kaon data with great precision and a wide kinematic coverage in multiple dimensions as shown in Fig. 26. The combined analysis of both the pion and kaon SIDIS-data from both proton and neutron ( $^3\text{He}$ ) targets on SoLID will allow us to systematically separate contributions from all light quarks, especially to isolate the sea-quark contributions. The systematic uncertainties can also be largely reduce since the pion and kaon SIDIS events are measured all together. Model estimation shows that at the SoLID kinematic about 20% of the kaon SIDIS events come from the current fragmentation region where the TMD factorization can be applied. The high-quality kaon data from SoLID are crucial for the validation of the model calculation. Our new measurement will provide high quality data for the continuous theoretical development of the TMD physics, and more importantly, provide strong guidance to future measurements on electron-ion collider

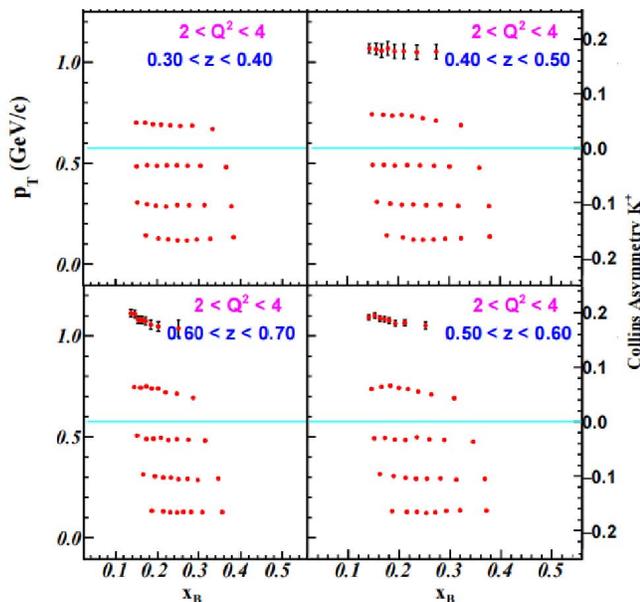


FIG. 26. One  $Q^2$  bin of the 4D ( $Q^2$ ,  $z$ ,  $p_T$ ,  $x_B$ ) binning projection and statistical uncertainties of the Collins asymmetry ( $A_{UT}^{\sin(\phi+\phi_S)}$ ) in  $\bar{n}(e, e'K^+)X$  with transversely polarized  $^3\text{He}$ . The sizes of the uncertainties are indicated by the Y axis on the right. See the original proposal for all projection results.

1694 (EIC), which will fully study the TMD of sea-quarks and  
 1695 gluons in a wider kinematic coverage and provide a more  
 1696 complete image of nucleon structures.

### 1697 C. SIDIS with Di-hadron Production

1698 Di-hadron SIDIS is an important part of the 12 GeV  
 1699 JLab physics program. Di-hadron beam spin asymme-  
 1700 tries provide a wide range of insights into nucleon struc-  
 1701 ture and hadronization. It is one of the easy chan-  
 1702 nels to access the leading-twist PDF  $h_1(x)$ , the so-called  
 1703 transversity distribution function, and also the higher-  
 1704 twist PDFs  $e(x)$ ,  $h_L(x)$ . The combination of the proton  
 1705 and neutron measurements on the transversity distribu-  
 1706 tion function will also allow to operate a flavour separa-  
 1707 tion.

1708 In the process of  $\ell(l) + N(P) \rightarrow \ell(l') + H_1(P_1) +$   
 1709  $H_2(P_2) + X$ , the transversity distribution function  $h_1(x)$   
 1710 is combined with a chiral-odd Di-hadron Fragmentation  
 1711 Function (DiFF), denoted as  $H_1^{\zeta q}$ , which describes the  
 1712 correlation between the transverse polarization of the  
 1713 fragmenting quark with flavor  $q$  and the azimuthal ori-  
 1714 entation of the plane containing the momenta of the  
 1715 detected hadron pair. Contrary to the Collins mech-  
 1716 anism, this effect survives after integration over quark  
 1717 transverse momenta and can be analyzed in the frame-  
 1718 work of col-linear factorization. Thus this analysis frame-  
 1719 work is much simpler compared to the traditional one  
 1720 in single-hadron fragmentation. DiFF can be extracted  
 1721 from electron-positron annihilation where two back-to-

1722 back jets are produced and a pair of hadrons are de-  
 1723 tected in each jet. They also appear in the observables  
 1724 describing the semi-inclusive production of two hadrons  
 1725 in deep-inelastic scattering of leptons off nucleons or in  
 1726 hadron-hadron collisions. The DiFFs also play a role in  
 1727 extending the knowledge of the nucleon col-linear pic-  
 1728 ture beyond the leading twist. The same chiral-odd  $H_1^{\zeta}$   
 1729 provides the cleanest access to the poorly known twist-3  
 1730 parton distributions  $e(x)$  and  $h_L(x)$ , which are directly  
 1731 connected to quark-gluon correlations.

1732 Since the di-hadron proposal [28] was accepted in  
 1733 2014, physicists continue working on improving DiFF  
 1734 [140, 141]. A preliminary measurement of the related  
 1735 di-hadron beam-spin asymmetry has been performed  
 1736 by the CLAS collaboration [142], leading to a prelimi-  
 1737 nary extraction of  $e(x)$  [143] in good agreement with  
 1738 model calculations. Recent measurements at CLAS12  
 1739 showed the first empirical evidence of nonzero  $G_1^\perp$ , the  
 1740 parton helicity-dependent di-hadron fragmentation func-  
 1741 tion (DiFF) encoding spin-momentum correlations in  
 1742 hadronization [144]. This brings more attention to the  
 1743 di-hadron beam spin asymmetries,

### 1744 D. Normal Single Spin Asymmetries

1745 Our understanding and description of the internal  
 1746 structure of both nuclei and nucleons have seen a steady  
 1747 improvement over the past several decades. These im-  
 1748 provements are sometimes brought on by inconsistent or  
 1749 unexplained experimental results, revealing limitations of  
 1750 our underlying assumptions. One such example is that  
 1751 of the discrepancy in the extraction of  $G_E^p/G_M^p$ , the ra-  
 1752 tio of the proton form factors of elastic scattering from  
 1753 either Rosenbluth or polarization transfer measurements  
 1754 at large  $Q^2$ , see e.g. [145] and references therein. At  
 1755 present, this discrepancy is attributed to two-photon ex-  
 1756 change (TPE) and is used to quantify such effect [146].  
 1757 Conversely, a reliable quantification of the TPE effects is  
 1758 needed to interpret electron scattering data in order to  
 1759 fully understand the structure of the nucleon.

1760 One way that TPE effects have been investigated is  
 1761 through a comparison of electron and positron elastic  
 1762 scattering off the proton, or elastic lepton-charge asym-  
 1763 metry in elastic. Such measurements have been made  
 1764 at the VEPP-3 Storage Ring [147], using CLAS [148] at  
 1765 JLab, and by the OLYMPUS experiment at DESY [149].  
 1766 Studies of TPE also form part of the main thrust of a po-  
 1767 tential positron program at JLab [150]. However, a pre-  
 1768 cision comparison between electron and positron scatter-  
 1769 ing has its own challenges with one of the main systemat-  
 1770 ic uncertainties being the relative luminosity control  
 1771 between the two beams.

1772 An alternate method to study TPE is through mea-  
 1773 surements of single spin asymmetries (SSA) where either  
 1774 the lepton (incoming or outgoing) or the target spin is  
 1775 polarized normal to the scattering plane, i.e., polarized  
 1776 along  $\vec{k} \times \vec{k}'$  with  $\vec{k}$  and  $\vec{k}'$  the incoming and scattered

electron's momentum, respectively. Experimentally, the most accessible would be the beam-normal SSA (BNSSA) or the target-normal SSA (TNSSA). At the Born level, in which a single photon is exchanged, both asymmetries are forbidden due to time-reversal invariance as well as parity conservation [151]. Going beyond the Born approximation, they are no longer restricted and can provide direct access and insight into the imaginary part of the TPE amplitude. Previously, TNSSA has been measured for elastic  $ep$  scattering [152] and elastic and quasi-elastic  $e-^3\text{He}$  scattering [153, 154], and comparison with available theory predictions is inconclusive as predictions vary up to two orders of magnitude depending on whether the two photons are assumed to couple with a single quark or two different quarks [155, 156], calling for experimental support to help distinguishing these model predictions. A run-group proposal [157] has been approved to measure the proton and the neutron TNSSA as part of the SoLID SIDIS running using transversely polarized  $\text{NH}_3$  and  $^3\text{He}$  targets, at the level of  $10^{-4} \sim 10^{-2}$ .

The BNSSA data, on the other hand, mostly existed for elastic scattering as it is a typical background of elastic PVES experiments. A compilation of elastic BNSSA data can be found in [158], along with new data from CREX/PREX-2 [159]. In contrast, BNSSA data for DIS is nearly non-existent, except for the previous 6 GeV PVDIS experiment [47] that measured this asymmetry to 20 ppm level. A new proposal [10] was recently approved to measure BNSSA for the proton in the DIS region to ppm level for the first time. The measurement will utilize a transversely polarized electron beam and SoLID in its PVDIS configuration. The value of BNSSA  $A_n$  will be extracted by fitting the measured asymmetry in the full azimuthal range to 2 ppm and 4 ppm for the 6.6 and 11 GeV beam. It will add a new, high-precision observable to the landscape of TPE study and its impact on understanding of the nucleon structure.

### E. PVDIS with a Polarized $^3\text{He}$ Target

All existing PVES, elastic or DIS, focused on measurements of the cross section asymmetries with the electron spin flip on an unpolarized target. On the other hand, parity violation would cause a cross section difference in unpolarized electron scattering off right- and left-handed, longitudinally polarized hadrons. Such new observable, often called ‘‘polarized parity-violation asymmetry’’, can be written for the low to medium energy range as

$$A_{\text{pvdiss}}^{(h)} \approx \left( \frac{G_F Q^2}{2\sqrt{2}\pi\alpha} \right) \frac{g_V^e g_5^{\gamma Z} + Y g_A^e g_1^{\gamma Z}}{F_1^\gamma}, \quad (36)$$

where  $Y$  is given by Eq. (16), and we introduce polarized electroweak  $\gamma Z$  interference structure functions:

$$g_1^{\gamma Z} = \sum_i Q_{q_i} g_V^i (\Delta q_i + \Delta \bar{q}_i) \quad (37)$$

$$g_5^{\gamma Z} = \sum_f Q_{q_i} g_A^i (\Delta q_i - \Delta \bar{q}_i). \quad (38)$$

The polarized PV asymmetries will thus provide information on new flavor combination of polarized PDFs. More explicitly, we have (taking  $\sin^2 \theta_W \approx 0.25$ ):

$$g_1^{p,\gamma Z} \approx g_1^{n,\gamma Z} \approx \frac{1}{9} (\Delta u^+ + \Delta c^+ + \Delta d^+ + \Delta s^+) \quad (39)$$

where  $\Delta q^+ \equiv \Delta q + \Delta \bar{q}$ . The  $g_5^{\gamma Z}$  interference structure functions are:

$$g_5^{p,\gamma Z} = \left[ \frac{1}{3} (\Delta u_V + \Delta c_V) + \frac{1}{6} (\Delta d_V + \Delta s_V) \right] \quad (40)$$

$$g_5^{n,\gamma Z} = \left[ \frac{1}{3} (\Delta d_V + \Delta s_V) + \frac{1}{6} (\Delta u_V + \Delta c_V) \right], \quad (41)$$

where  $\Delta q_V \equiv \Delta q - \Delta \bar{q}$ . The  $g_5^{\gamma Z}$  contribution to the asymmetry, however, is suppressed by  $g_V^e \approx 0$ , as can be seen from Eq. (36). Thus our main focus will be on the first determination of the  $g_1^{\gamma Z}$ , whose moment essentially provides the quark spin contribution to the proton spin.

The measurement of such asymmetry is more difficult than the PVDIS asymmetry of Eq. (11) (often referred to as ‘‘unpolarized PV asymmetry’’), both because of the relatively small size of  $A_{PV}^{(h)}$  and because of the lower luminosity of polarized than unpolarized targets. An letter-of-intent [160] was submitted to JLab PAC in 2016 with the goal to measure the  $A_{PV}^{(h)}$  using a polarized  $^3\text{He}$  target and SoLID in the SIDIS configuration. To reach a high precision within a reasonable amount of beam time, the performance of the polarized  $^3\text{He}$  target will need to be improved by factor 16 beyond its best projected performance of the 12 GeV era, via the use of higher fill pressure of  $^3\text{He}$  and cryo-cooling to increase the in-beam density. The projected relative uncertainty is  $< 10\%$  on  $A_{PV}^{(3\text{He})}$  for  $x = (0.2, 0.4)$ , using 180 days of production beam time at 100% efficiency. While technically challenging, it will be the first measurement of the  $g_1^{\gamma Z}$  structure functions. By combining with existing electromagnetic polarized structure function data, the SU(3) flavor symmetry, often used when interpreting nucleon spin data, can be examined. Similar measurements with the polarized proton could also be explored at the EIC.

## VIII. SOLID INSTRUMENTATION

### A. Overview of SoLID Setup

SoLID is a large acceptance spectrometer designed to handle a very high luminosity to exploit the full potential

1867 of the 12 GeV beam of CEBAF. The equipment of SoLID  
 1868 is designed to satisfy the physics requirements of the five  
 1869 approved experiments. It has the capacity to handle very  
 1870 high signal and background rates, and it can sustain the  
 1871 high radiation environment with the very high luminosity  
 1872 in JLab’s experimental hall A.

1873 It is designed to use a large solenoid magnet to sweep  
 1874 away low-energy background charged particles which  
 1875 makes it possible to operate at very high luminosities  
 1876 in an open geometry with full azimuthal coverage. The  
 1877 solenoid field also is also necessary for tracking and mo-  
 1878 mentum measurement. The CLEO-II magnet was se-  
 1879 lected with modifications to its iron flux return. The de-  
 1880 tector system of SoLID includes two configurations: the  
 1881 “SIDIS&J/ψ” configuration and the “PVDIS” configura-  
 1882 tion, as shown in Fig. 27.

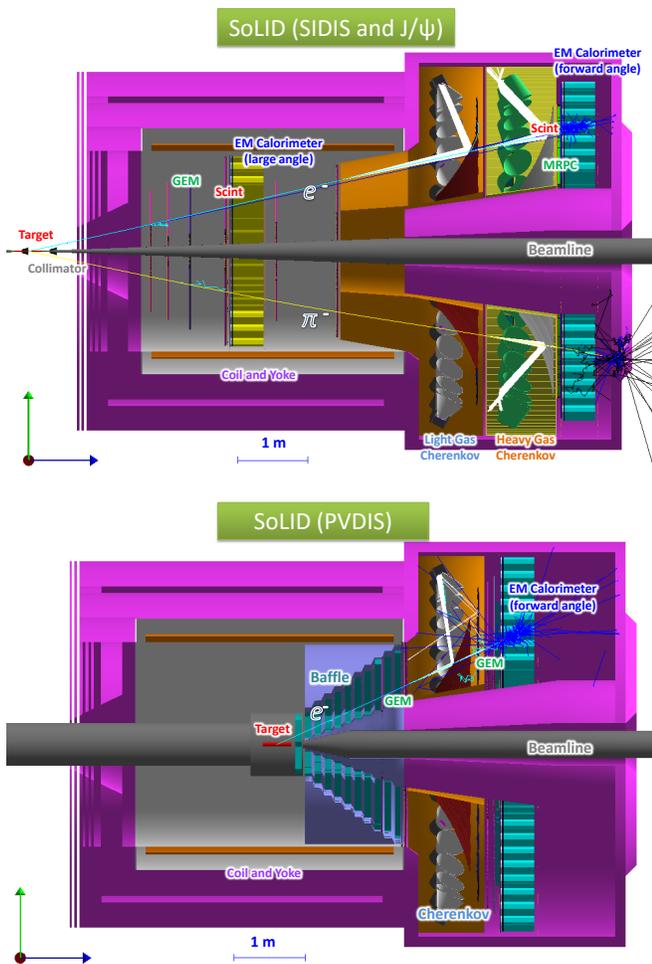


FIG. 27. The two configurations of SoLID setup: SIDIS and J/ψ (top) and PVDIS (bottom).

1883 The “SIDIS&J/ψ” configuration consists of two groups  
 1884 of sub-detectors: the Forward Angle Detector group  
 1885 (FAD), and the Large Angle Detector group (LAD). The  
 1886 FAD group covers the nominal 8°-15° polar angle range

1887 and constitutes of five planes of Gas Electron Multipli-  
 1888 ers (GEM) for tracking, a light gas Čerenkov (LGC) for  
 1889 e/π separation, a heavy gas Čerenkov (HGC) for π/K  
 1890 and π/p separation, a Multi-gap Resistive Plate Cham-  
 1891 ber (MRPC) for time-of-flight measurement and for kaon  
 1892 and proton particle identifications, a Scintillator Pad De-  
 1893 tector (SPD) for photon rejection and a Forward Angle  
 1894 Electromagnetic Calorimeter (FAEC) for electron parti-  
 1895 cle identification. The LAD group covers the nominal  
 1896 15°-24° polar angle range and constitutes of four planes  
 1897 of GEM for tracking, a SPD for photon rejection and  
 1898 a Large Angle Electromagnetic Calorimeter (LAEC) for  
 1899 electron particle identification. This configuration can  
 1900 work with luminosity of  $1 \times 10^{37} \text{ cm}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ .

1901 The “PVDIS” configuration uses five planes of GEMs  
 1902 for tracking and LGC and EC for e/π separation to cover  
 1903 nominal 22°-35° polar angle range. It utilize a set of baf-  
 1904 fles to reduce backgrounds while keeping a reasonable  
 1905 fraction of DIS electron event and can reach the lumi-  
 1906 nosity of  $1 \times 10^{39} \text{ cm}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ .

1907 The two configurations share three major detector  
 1908 components: GEMs, LGC and EC. They also share simi-  
 1909 lar data acquisition (DAQ) system, supporting structure  
 1910 for the magnet and the detectors, and software tools for  
 1911 simulations and data analysis.

1912 There are additional components which are standard  
 1913 and existing at JLab that requires only slight modifica-  
 1914 tion, such as polarized NH<sub>3</sub> and polarized <sup>3</sup>He targets,  
 1915 and the standard cryogenic hydrogen target. There are  
 1916 other additional components which are required by the  
 1917 MOLLER experiment and will become available before  
 1918 SoLID is operational, such as a high-precision Compton  
 1919 polarimeter, a super-conducting Moller polarimeter, and  
 1920 an upgraded End Station Refrigerator (ESR2) that is  
 1921 needed by the higher-power cryogenic target of PVDIS.

1922 The SoLID spectrometer can handle high rates with  
 1923 high background by using the latest detector, data acqui-  
 1924 sition and computing technologies. The following subsec-  
 1925 tions will describe those detector components and tech-  
 1926 nologies in details.

## B. The CLEO-II Magnet

1928 A solenoid magnet is a natural choice to meet the needs  
 1929 of SoLID’s physics programs that require large accep-  
 1930 tance in polar and azimuthal angles, and particle mo-  
 1931 mentum. We have chosen the CLEO II’s solenoidal mag-  
 1932 net, that has a uniform axial central field of 1.5 T, a  
 1933 large inner space with a clear bore diameter of 2.9 m and  
 1934 a coil of 3.1 m diameter. With a coil length of 3.5 m,  
 1935 its magnetic field uniformity is  $\pm 0.2\%$ . It was built in  
 1936 the 1980s by Oxford in England and installed for CLEO  
 1937 II in 1989 [161, 162]. After completion of experimental  
 1938 runs at Cornell, the coils and cryostat of the CLEO II  
 1939 magnet were moved to JLab in 2016 and the return steel  
 1940 moved in 2019. JLab is currently performing minor re-  
 1941 furbishment of the magnet and preparing for a cold test

1942 to establish the magnet's operational condition. The cold  
 1943 test is scheduled to be completed before the end of 2022.  
 1944 To use the CLEO magnet for SoLID, the coil and up-  
 1945 stream coil collar will be reused as-is but the downstream  
 1946 coil collar and return yoke will be modified. A new detec-  
 1947 tor endcap and front pieces will be fabricated that allow  
 1948 housing and installation of the detectors, see Fig. 28.

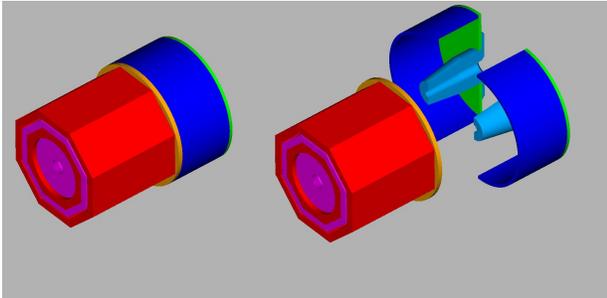


FIG. 28. The endcap will be split vertically and also have the capability of separating in the lateral direction.

### C. Gas Electron Multiplier Trackers

1950 Particle tracking for SoLID will be performed by Gas  
 1951 Electron Multiplier (GEM) trackers [163]. The GEM  
 1952 trackers are ideal for the SoLID detector because they  
 1953 provide for high resolution tracking, and can operate in  
 1954 high-rate environments over a large area. More specifi-  
 1955 cally, we expect the GEMs to provide a position resolu-  
 1956 tion of  $70 \mu\text{m}$  with rates over  $100 \text{ MHz per cm}^2$ . The  
 1957 current design of SoLID GEM chambers call for a triple  
 1958 design: each chamber is made of three GEM foils sand-  
 1959 wiced between a drift area and a readout plane. Such  
 1960 triple GEM chambers have been successfully used in the  
 1961 COMPASS experiment at CERN [164], and in the PRad  
 1962 experiment at JLab [165]. A large set of triple GEM de-  
 1963 tectors of the size comparable to those needed for SoLID  
 1964 is currently used for the SBS program in Jlab Hall A.  
 1965 These SBS GEMs have performed very well in beam  
 1966 yielding highly stable operation. In SBS experiments  
 1967 these GEMs will be exposed to rates comparable to those  
 1968 expected in SoLID experiments.

1969 For the PVDIS configuration, five layers of GEMs will  
 1970 be used, each layer consisting of 30 sectors in the az-  
 1971 imuthal direction that match the baffle design. This lay-  
 1972 out will allow for a  $1 \text{ mrad}$  polar angle and a  $2\%$  momen-  
 1973 tum resolutions.

1974 The SIDIS configuration of SoLID calls for six layers of  
 1975 GEM modules. The SIDIS GEM will be assembled using  
 1976 the same GEM modules used in the PVDIS configura-  
 1977 tion. Because of the different coverage area required by  
 1978 SIDIS compared with PVDIS, this re-arrangement will  
 1979 allow small overlapping between GEM chambers that  
 1980 minimize the acceptance loss due to inactive area caused  
 1981 by GEM chamber frames. In the PVDIS configuration

1982 these frames sit in the shadows of the baffle-ribs and do  
 1983 not contribute to any loss of acceptance either.

### D. Light Gas Cherenkov

1985 The LGC detector provides electron identification in  
 1986 both SIDIS+ $J/\psi$  and PVDIS configurations. The LGC is  
 1987 comprised of a tank of  $\text{CO}_2$  gas as radiator, is divided into  
 1988 the 30 sectors, each consisting of a pair of mirrors and  
 1989 one readout assembly onto which light is reflected. Each  
 1990 readout assembly is made of 9 Hamamatsu flat panel mul-  
 1991 tianode photomultiplier (MAPMT) H12700-03 in a  $3 \times 3$   
 1992 array. Those MAPMT will be coated with a p-terphenyl  
 1993 wavelength shifter to enhance the efficiency of UV light  
 1994 detection. The MAPMTs have 64 pixels, each of which  
 1995 is sensitive down to single photon detection. Their sig-  
 1996 nals can be read out individually or as sum of 16 pixels  
 1997 (quad-sum) or as the sum of all 64 pixels (total-sum).  
 1998 With these design features, the LGC is expected to have  
 1999 a nominal pion rejection on the order of  $10^3$  while main-  
 2000 taining an electron efficiency close to 95%. It will be part  
 2001 of electron trigger system.

2002 A parasitic beam test was conducted on an Cherenkov  
 2003 prototype at JLab Hall-C in 2020. The prototype tele-  
 2004 scopic Cherenkov device (TCD) was built with the same  
 2005 electronic components expected for use in the SoLID  
 2006 LGC. It used a UV mirror to collect light from  $1 \text{ m}$  long  
 2007  $\text{CO}_2$  gas onto a  $4 \times 4$  WLS coated MAPMT array. The  
 2008 device was tested at high rates that reached about twice  
 2009 the max rate expected during SoLID production running.  
 2010 The TCD performed within expectations at these large  
 2011 rates and the trigger capability using either quad-sum or  
 2012 total-sum were verified.

### E. Heavy Gas Cherenkov

2014 For the SIDIS experiments, the HGC detector will  
 2015 identify charged pion and suppress charged kaon for a  
 2016 momentum range from  $2.5 \text{ GeV}/c$  to  $7.5 \text{ GeV}/c$  at the  
 2017 forward angle. Its radiator will be  $1 \text{ m}$  length of the  
 2018 heavy gas  $\text{C}_4\text{F}_8$  at  $1.7 \text{ atm}$  absolute pressure at the room  
 2019 temperature of  $20 \text{ C}$ . Matching LGC and covering the  
 2020 full azimuthal angle, it will have 30 sectors and each sec-  
 2021 tor has one spherical mirror to collect lights onto a  $4 \times 4$   
 2022 MaPMT arrays which are surrounded by a light collec-  
 2023 tion cone and magnetic shielding cone. The HGC mirror,  
 2024 MaPMT and readout electronics are similar to the com-  
 2025 ponents of LGC, but HGC will not be part of the trigger  
 2026 system. The detector is expected to have a pion detec-  
 2027 tion efficiency of 90% and a kaon rejection of 10. During  
 2028 the Cherenkov beam test at JLab Hall-C in 2020, the  
 2029 Cherenkov prototype was tested with  $\text{C}_4\text{F}_8$  gas at  $1 \text{ atm}$   
 2030 and it performed within expectations. Additionally, a  
 2031 full-size 4-sector HGC prototype was designed and con-  
 2032 structed with an Aluminium thin front window to test  
 2033 the operating pressure of  $1.7 \text{ atm}$ . This test showed the

2034 current design maintains mechanical stability with neg-  
2035 ligible leakage.

## 2036 F. Electromagnetic Calorimeter

2037 The segmented electromagnetic calorimeter (ECal)  
2038 consists of a preshower and a shower section, and will  
2039 be used as the primary electron trigger and identifica-  
2040 tion during all experiments. The preshower portion con-  
2041 sists of a  $2X_0$  pre-radiator and a 2-cm thick scintilla-  
2042 tor with wave-length shifting (WLS) fibers embedded for  
2043 light readout, and the shower portion is  $18X_0$  long, based  
2044 on the Shashlyk-type sampling [166] with alternating lay-  
2045 ers of 1.5-mm thick scintillator and 0.5-mm thick lead  
2046 absorber layers. The choice of the sampling-type design  
2047 was mostly driven by a balance between cost and the  
2048 required radiation hardness. The layout of ECal mod-  
2049 els will be different between the two SoLID configura-  
2050 tions: The SIDIS+ $J/\psi$  configuration will have the ECal  
2051 at both forward and large-angle regions for electron de-  
2052 tection with the large-angle ECal also provide MIP trig-  
2053 gers for pions, while the PVDIS configuration will have  
2054 all ECal modules at the forward direction to detect DIS  
2055 electrons. There will be approximately 1800 modules,  
2056 each with a transverse size  $100\text{ cm}^2$  in a hexagon shape  
2057 such that they can be rearranged between the two con-  
2058 figurations. A unique aspect of SoLID's ECal is its light  
2059 readout: because of the high radiation nature of SoLID's  
2060 operation, all WLS fibers will be connected to clear fibers  
2061 and light will be routed outside of the solenoid magnet  
2062 for readout by PMTs. Radiation hardness of a variety of  
2063 WLS and clear fibers has been measured and is found to  
2064 be sufficient to sustain the SoLID physics program.

2065 A number of prototypes have been constructed for the  
2066 SoLID ECal preshower and shower modules and their  
2067 light yield studied with both cosmic rays and particle  
2068 beams. Using the Fermilab Test Beam Facility, the en-  
2069 ergy resolution of the ECal prototype was found to satisfy  
2070 the needs of the SoLID physics program. Tests with the  
2071 electron beam at JLab are ongoing to further study the  
2072 ECal performance under the high-rate, high background  
2073 environment.

## 2074 G. Scintillator Pad Detector

2075 The Scintillator Pad Detector (SPD) will be used at  
2076 both forward-angle and large-angle locations of the SIDIS  
2077 configuration to provide photon rejection at the 5:1 and  
2078 10:1 level, respectively, and to reduce ECal-based trigger  
2079 rates by requiring coincidence signals between the SPD  
2080 and the ECal. The forward-angle SPD (FASPD) will be  
2081 made of 240 pieces of thin, large scintillator pads with  
2082 WLS fibers embedded on the surface. Light from the  
2083 WLF fibers will be guided through clear fibers in a sim-  
2084 ilar manner as for the preshower ECal. The large-angle  
2085 SPD (LASPD) also provides time-of-flight (TOF) with a

2086 timing resolution goal of 150 ps, and as a result are made  
2087 of 2-cm thick long, wedge shape scintillators with readout  
2088 directly by field-resistant fine-mesh PMT on the edge of  
2089 the solenoid field. The fine-mesh PMTs have been tested  
2090 under a magnetic field up to 1.9 T and its gain and timing  
2091 resolution characterized [167], and SPD prototype mod-  
2092 ules have been tested with cosmic rays. We found that  
2093 the fine-mesh PMTs combined with the LASPD can pro-  
2094 vide a 150 ps timing resolution as specified by the SoLID  
2095 SIDIS program. Tests with the electron beam at JLab  
2096 are ongoing to further study the SPD performance under  
2097 the high-rate, high background environment.

## 2098 H. Multi-Gap Resistive Plate Chamber

2099 The Multi-gap Resistive Plate Chamber (MRPC),  
2100 which will be used as the TOF system in the SIDIS con-  
2101 figuration, is located in front of the forward angle ECal.  
2102 The unique advantage of the MRPC is that it not only  
2103 can operate in a strong magnetic field but also can handle  
2104 extreme high rates. The new generation sealed MRPC  
2105 developed by Tsinghua University can reach the rate ca-  
2106 pability as high as  $50\text{ kHz/cm}^2$  utilizing a new type of  
2107 low resistivity glass (in the order of  $10\ \Omega\text{cm}$ ) [168–171].  
2108 On top of that, the MRPC designed for SoLID has a thin  
2109 gas gap of  $104\mu\text{m}$  with 8 gaps per stack and a total of 4  
2110 stacks [139]. A cosmic ray test on two identical  $4\times 8$  gaps  
2111 MRPCs conducted at Tsinghua University with a 5GS/s  
2112 waveform digitizer shows a time resolution of 27 ps. Sim-  
2113 ulation shows that the intrinsic time resolution of such a  
2114 MRPC can be as better as 14 ps using a much higher sam-  
2115 pling rate ( $\sim 10\text{ GS/s}$ ) front-end electronics (FEE). With  
2116 a total path length of 8 meters in the SIDIS configuration,  
2117 the MRPC with a time resolution of 20 (30) ps can iden-  
2118 tify pions from kaons with momenta up to 7 (6) GeV/c.  
2119 The studies of the MRPC's realistic performance with  
2120 several fast FEE candidates are ongoing using real high-  
2121 energy beams at Fermilab and JLab.

## 2122 I. Baffles for PVDIS

2123 In order for the detectors in the PVDIS experiment  
2124 to operate at the design luminosity, a set of baffles – 11  
2125 slitted plates made of an absorber material – is designed  
2126 such that a reasonable fraction of the DIS electrons pass  
2127 through the slits. The slits in the multiple layers of the  
2128 baffle system provide curved channels through which only  
2129 spiraling high energy charge-negative particles can pass,  
2130 while low energy and charge-neutral or charge-positive  
2131 backgrounds are highly suppressed.

2132 To design the baffles for a specific magnetic field and  
2133 detector configuration, ray-tracing of simulated DIS elec-  
2134 trons is performed for the desired momentum range. The  
2135 number of sectors to be used for the PVDIS experiment  
2136 is driven by the azimuthal angle  $\phi$  traversed by the min-  
2137 imum momentum particles, which for the desired DIS

kinematics is about  $12^\circ$ , hence the baffles are divided into 30 sectors. Segmentation of all detector system follow the same number of sectors to match the baffle design. An illustration of the first 5 layers of the baffle system is given in Fig. 29. In practice, the simple ray-tracing model does not completely hold because the target has an extended length, allowing some fraction of background events to leak through.

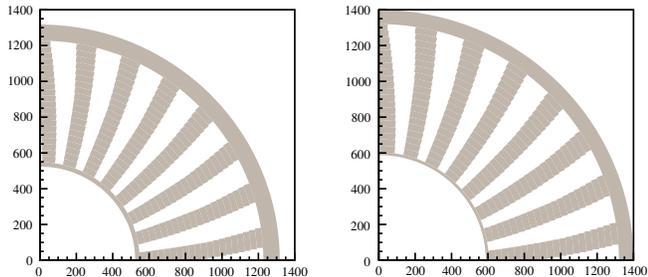


FIG. 29. Face on view (first quadrant only) of the 10<sup>th</sup> and 11<sup>th</sup> plates in the PVDIS baffle system. Units are in mm.

Three different material choices are being considered for the baffle. The baseline design is based on lead, and two other alternatives: tungsten power molded and glued to the desired shape, and copper. All will meet the requirement of PVDIS and with small differences in the resulting photon and hadron background rates. Additional care is taken to reduce secondary particles, such as those produced from photons hitting the baffle near the slits. Studies are being carried out on activation of the material and feasibility in construction will be taken into account. Overall, the baffles are expected to allow about 1/3 of DIS events to reach the detectors, while background events are suppressed by two orders of magnitude.

## J. Support and Infrastructure

The solenoid magnet will be supported on a stationary frame that will distribute the approximate 1000 ton load of the modified CLEO-II magnet section using eight 200-ton energpac jacks. Steel plates and large steel blocks and/or large I-beams will be used to distribute the load over a safe area. The 200-ton jacks will be used for vertical alignment and have locking rings which allow for a full mechanical connection and not rely on hydraulic pressure for stationary support.

The endcap of the magnet will have a support structure that cradles each half the cylindrical ring. The structure will be integrated into a track system that is mounted to steel plates resting upon the concrete floor of Hall A. The track system will consist of a set of longitudinal tracks for moving the rear plate and nose unit of the endcap downstream away from the magnet. A set of lateral tracks will separate the two endcap cylindrical halves that support the detectors and move each away

from the beamline. Motion can be achieved by using hydraulic or electric cylinders to push and pull the entire system into position.

Inside the magnet bore, the insertion of the SIDIS large angle detector packages that reside internal to the cryostat will be accomplished from the downstream side of the magnet using a supporting framework to roll the packages in and out. This will require the detector hut to be moved out of the way as described above to allow access to the cryostat. In the inner bore region, an internal frame system is needed to mount the baffles in the PVDIS configuration and the large angle detectors for the SIDIS configuration. The frame cannot come into contact with the inside bore of the cryostat. This requires the frame to span the entire length of the cryostat and mount to the return yoke iron. A stainless steel support cylinder will be mounted between the two coil collars to bridge across the length of the cryostat. Individual rails will bolt directly to the stainless cylinder to allow the internal detector packages to roll into place. The same rail system can be used for both configurations as well as the detectors in the endcap. A large universal installation fixture is envisioned to load each of the detector packages onto the rails of the magnet and endcap.

## K. Event Rates and Data Acquisition

The trigger rates were simulated with the full background. The SIDIS configuration, with an expected trigger rate of 100 kHz and total data rate of over 3 GB/s, represents the greatest challenge for SoLID's data acquisition (DAQ) system. The PVDIS rates are also high, but are not as demanding as they are divided into 30 sectors with each equipped with individual DAQs. The SoLID DAQ is mostly based on JLab250 FADCs for readout of PMTs of ECal and Cherenkov detectors. This electronics provides both readout and trigger capability on any detector fed into the FADCs. The FADC readout so far has been shown to be able to operate up to 120 KHz of trigger rate at around 1% of downtime satisfying the SIDIS requirements. The GEM readout will use the VMM3 which has a minimum rate capability of 100 kHz at full occupancy. So far, the SoLID DAQ system which can handle data rates of several GB/s is feasible using technology currently in use at JLab.

## L. Computing

Estimated computing needs for SoLID are summarized in Table I. These are total resource requirements over the lifetime of the experiment, assuming that all simulation and production output is kept. Total overall resources needed are 188 PB storage and 233 M-core-hours CPU. This corresponds to 485 days of processing time on a 20,000-core cluster.

Experiment	SIDIS <sup>3</sup> He (T)	SIDIS <sup>3</sup> He (L)	SIDIS NH <sub>3</sub> (T)	J/ψ	PVDIS
Storage (PB)	26	10	35	21	95
CPU time (M-core-hrs)	30	12	40	17	134

TABLE I. Estimated SoLID computing requirements. CPU times are calculated assuming AMD EPYC 7502 processors.

To arrive at the numbers in Table I, average trigger rates of 100 kHz for the SIDIS experiments, 60 kHz for  $J/\psi$ , and 20 kHz per sector for PVDIS, are assumed (*cf.* Section VIII K). Event size estimates come from simulations and are 20 kB for SIDIS, 40 kB for  $J/\psi$ , and 6 kB per sector for PVDIS. The resulting instantaneous raw data rates range from 2.0 to 3.6 GB/s.

### M. Software

Software developed for SoLID to date comprises three main projects

1. **SOLID\_GEMC** [172], a simulation package built on GEMC [173], a generic simulation framework used by CLAS12 and other projects at JLab. GEMC is based on Geant4 [174].
2. **libsolgem**, a digitization package for GEM detectors, which was developed by the SoLID collaboration [175].
3. **SoLIDTracking**, a library of experimental track reconstruction routines for the three main configurations of SoLID [176]. This package employs a Kalman filter algorithm and is based in part on prior implementations for experiments at KEK and GSI.

A detailed description of packages 2 and 3 can be found in Ref. [177], which also includes a study of efficiency and accuracy of the track reconstruction algorithm applied to simulated data from **SOLID\_GEMC**.

The long-term goal for SoLID software development is to put in place a unified end-to-end simulation and reconstruction framework, which will provide an integrated software environment for (almost) all parts of data processing. Implementing a software ecosystem for a new experiment requires considerable effort. In light of limited staffing, it will be necessary to adopt preexisting components wherever possible. At present, the most fruitful approach appears to be for SoLID software to be closely aligned with that of the Electron-Ion Collider (EIC) project. It is expected that EIC will converge on a unified software environment by the end of 2022, which would still be compatible with the timeline for SoLID.

### N. Advancing Detector Technology

SoLID is designed to carry out experiments with high rate and high background. For many experiments, the luminosity achievable is limited by the detector occupancies. We are investigating new detector technologies with faster response time to improve the rate capability of SoLID. The Large Area Picosecond Photodetector (LAPPD) is being developed by INCOM and Argonne National Lab: it is a novel, affordable large area Microchannel Plate Photomultiplier (MCP PMT) and was tested in beam [178]. The pulse width of MCP PMT is of the order of 1 ns compared to about 20 ns for a regular PMT, possibly reducing greatly the pile-up for the Cerenkov detectors. This technology, when it becomes mature, would be a prime candidate as photosensor for the Cerenkov readouts.

Another technology being considered is the superconducting nano-wire technology [179]. The detector exhibits excellent timing resolution and is likely to be more radiation hard than traditional technology. Such detector could be used to complement the GEM tracking as a vertex tracker or provide additional tracking planes.

## IX. OPPORTUNITIES WITH FUTURE UPGRADES OF CEBAF

### A. $J/\psi$ and $\psi'$ Production with a 20+ GeV Beam

A CEBAF energy upgrade to 20 GeV or higher could enable several additional topics to be pursued the SoLID- $J/\psi$  setup. The electroproduction measurement at larger beam energies could operate without any changes to the experimental setup of the 11 GeV experiment, although further optimizations could be considered. A beam energy of 20 GeV or larger would access larger values of  $Q^2$  (up to 10 GeV<sup>2</sup> or larger), providing an additional large scale to the measurement to aid with factorization. The photoproduction measurement would allow for a precision measurement of  $J/\psi$  cross section at slightly larger energies, superseding the previous SLAC [180] and Cornell [181] measurements. Furthermore, this would enable a small overlap region with the measurements at the EIC, where the SoLID measurement would have much a higher resolution in  $W$  and a unique reach to high  $t$  that cannot be done anywhere else. Finally, a measurement at larger energies allows a simultaneous measurement of  $J/\psi$  and  $\psi'$  production, where the latter process provides for an independent knob to constrain the gluonic physics inside the proton, as it is larger-size color dipole. Projected 1-D and 2-D cross section results for  $\psi'$  production with SoLID at 20 GeV are shown in Figs. 30 and 31.

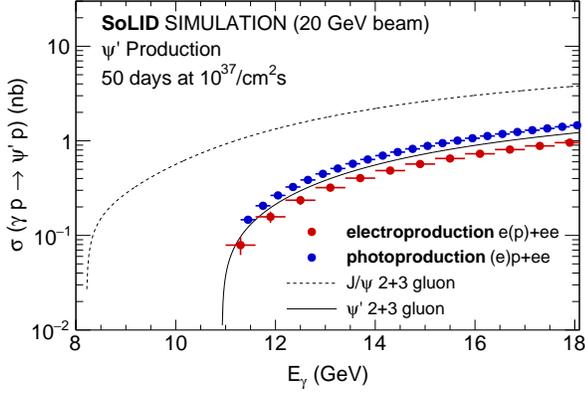


FIG. 30. Projected 1-D cross section results for  $\psi'$  production assuming a 20 GeV beam energy and the nominal SoLID- $J/\psi$  experimental setup without any optimization for the higher beam energy, for 50 days at  $10^{37}\text{cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$ . The blue disks show the photoproduction results and the red disks the electroproduction results.

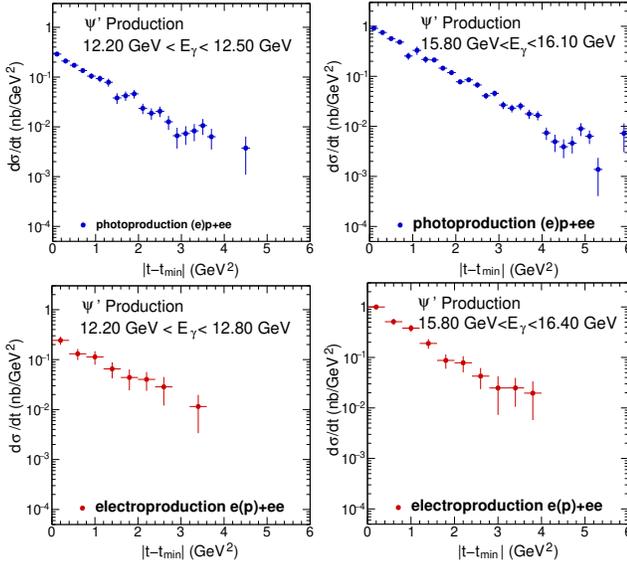


FIG. 31. Top row: The projected differential cross section for a photoproduction bin at low (left) and high (right) photon energy from Fig. 30, assuming the nominal luminosity for SoLID- $J/\psi$  with a beam energy of 20 GeV. Bottom row: Same for two electroproduction bins. This figure illustrates that a precise measurement of the  $t$ -dependence for  $\psi'$  production is possible with the nominal SoLID- $J/\psi$  setup at higher energies.

## 2320 B. Nucleon 3D Structure with a 20+ GeV Beam

2321 The SIDIS and GPD programs of SoLID will also bene-  
 2322 fit from the CEBAF energy upgrade to 20+ GeV, result-  
 2323 ing in significantly extended kinematic coverage of the  
 2324 observables and potentially open up new physics chan-  
 2325 nels for the nucleon 3D structure study. Figure 32 shows  
 2326 the simulated  $Q^2$ - $x$  phase-space with various beam ener-

2327 gies from 11 GeV to 24 GeV. This simulation has been  
 2328 carried out with the SIDIS configuration of SoLID using  
 2329 a polarized  $^3\text{He}$  target. As expected, SoLID at higher  
 2330 beam energies grants the opportunity to access precision  
 2331 measurements for SIDIS and GPD in the higher  $Q^2$  and  
 2332 lower  $x$  region.

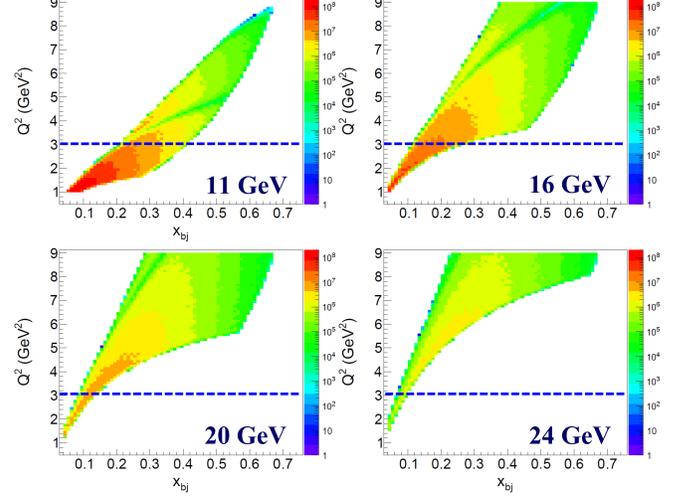


FIG. 32. Projected kinematic coverage of SoLID-SIDIS with  $^3\text{He}$  target at various beam energies. Note the  $Q^2$  range is selected for 11 GeV and thus the coverage of higher beam energies is not fully shown in the plots.

2333 A preliminary simulation has been carried out for the  
 2334 Collins SSA, with the SoLID-SIDIS configuration and a  
 2335 polarized  $^3\text{He}$  target. Figure 33 shows the comparison of  
 2336 the projections between different beam energies. A few  
 2337  $Q^2$ - $z$  bins were selected from the full coverage of  $2.0 <$   
 2338  $Q^2 < 20.0 \text{ GeV}^2$  and  $0.30 < z < 0.70$ . As shown in the  
 2339 figure, SoLID with upgraded CEBAF energy can reach  
 2340 higher  $Q^2$  and lower  $x$  that can not be charted with the  
 2341 12 GeV beam.

2342 More detailed studies, including those for different  
 2343 beam energies, for the proton target, and for other  
 2344 physics channels, will be needed to optimize the poten-  
 2345 tial physics programs of SoLID with the CEBAF energy  
 2346 upgrade.

## 2347 C. Electroweak Physics with a Positron Beam

2348 With a higher beam energy of 20 GeV or above, the  
 2349 PVDIS measurements can be extended to higher  $Q^2$ ,  
 2350 providing improved precision on the  $\sin^2\theta_W$  and the  
 2351  $2g_{VA}^{eu} - g_{VA}^{ed}$  coupling, or the PDF ratio  $d/u$  for higher  $x$ .  
 2352 On the other hand, the addition of a positron beam  
 2353 at CEBAF will open up a wide range of physics top-  
 2354 ics not accessible with an electron beam alone [150]. One  
 2355 new observable that we can measure with SoLID and a  
 2356 positron beam is the lepton-charge asymmetry in DIS,

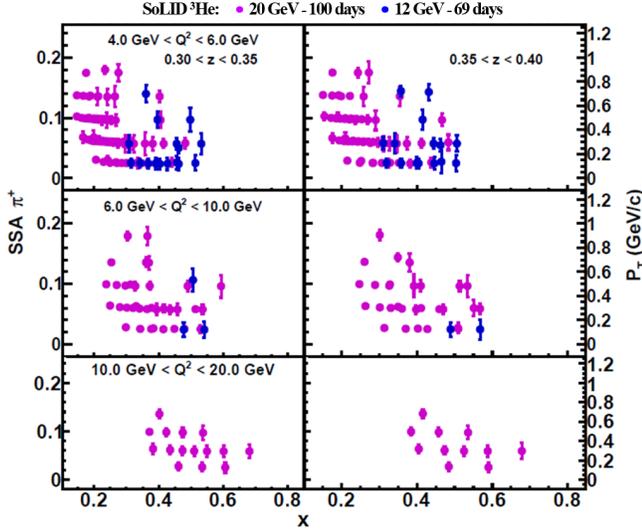


FIG. 33. Selected  $Q^2$ - $z$  bins of projected Collins SSA with SoLID-SIDIS configuration and  ${}^3\text{He}$  target. Two different beam energies, 12 GeV and 20 GeV, are included to compare their kinematic coverage.

defined as

$$A^{e^+e^-} \equiv \frac{\sigma^{e^+} - \sigma^{e^-}}{\sigma^{e^+} + \sigma^{e^-}}, \quad (42)$$

and is related to the third neutral current coupling,  $g_{AA}^{eq}$ , predicted by the SM as  $g_{AA}^{eq} = 2g_A^e g_A^q$  and  $g_{AA}^{eu} = -g_{AA}^{ed} = -1/2$ . More specifically, the asymmetry  $A^{e^+e^-}$  between unpolarized  $e^+$  and  $e^-$  beams DIS off an isoscalar target has an electroweak contribution that is directly proportional to the combination  $2g_{AA}^{eu} - g_{AA}^{ed}$  [53]:

$$A^{e^+e^-} = -\frac{3G_F Q^2}{2\sqrt{2}\pi\alpha} Y \frac{R_V (2g_{AA}^{eu} - g_{AA}^{ed})}{5 + 4R_C + R_S} \quad (43)$$

Such measurement [182], if successful, would provide the first measurement of this coupling for the electrons, superseding the previous measurement using muon beams at CERN [183] that gave  $2g_{AA}^{\mu u} - g_{AA}^{\mu d} = 1.57 \pm 0.38$ .

The measurement of  $A^{e^+e^-}$  faces both experimental and theoretical challenges. Experimentally, differences in beam energy, intensity, and the detection of the scattered particles between  $e^+$  and  $e^-$  runs will cause sizeable contributions to  $A^{e^+e^-}$ , though these effects have a calculable kinematic-dependence and could be separated from electroweak contributions. Theoretically, electromagnetic interaction causes an asymmetry between  $e^+$  and  $e^-$  scatterings at the next-to-leading and higher orders, causing a contribution to  $A^{e^+e^-}$  that are significantly larger than the electroweak contribution at the  $Q^2$  values of JLab. Progress in theory is needed in the com-

ing 10 years to describe  $A^{e^+e^-}$  at the level of precision required by the  $g_{AA}^{eq}$  measurement.

## X. SUMMARY

The SoLID spectrometer is a multi-purpose device that can address many of the central issues in cold QCD and fundamental symmetries. Three SIDIS experiments to perform precision measurements with transversely and longitudinally polarized  ${}^3\text{He}$  (effective polarized neutron) and transversely polarized proton will allow precision extractions of TMDs in the valance quark region to map out the 3D spin structure of the nucleon in momentum space. An experiment of electro- and photo-production of  $J/\psi$  near threshold region probes the gluonic field and its contribution to the proton mass. A parity-violating DIS experiment will determine the effective electron-quark couplings of the Standard Model, pushing the phase space in search for new physics, and will provide the PDF ratio  $d/u$  at high  $x$ . A number of run-group experiments have been approved, including the exploration of GPDs with deep-exclusive reactions to study the 3D structure of the nucleon in coordinate space. The latest JLab Program Advisory Committee re-approved all five SoLID experiments with the highest rating (A) and approved two new experiments including a measurement to study two photon exchange effects and a measurement to study isospin dependence of the EMC effect. The key to the high impact of each of these experiments is the high luminosity combined with the large acceptance of SoLID, with orders of magnitudes higher figure-of-merit than all other devices at existing and future  $ep$  (and  $eA$ ) facilities. SoLID will thus exploit the full potential of the JLab 12 GeV beam, with a kinematic reach complementary to that of EIC. The design of SoLID has been vetted by several JLab Director's reviews and a Department of Energy Science Review. It shares significant synergy with EIC including detector technology, simulation, data acquisition capacity, software integration, data analysis aided by artificial intelligence and machine learning, radiative corrections and unfolding, and finally, training of the nuclear physics workforce for the cold QCD and fundamental symmetry frontier for the next decades.

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