



中山大學理學院
Sun Yat-sen University School of science



中山大學
SUN YAT-SEN UNIVERSITY

伽玛光子对撞机及综合束流设施

黄永盛
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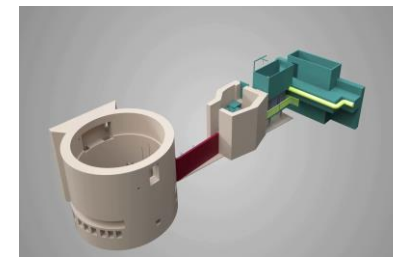
physics department of Sun Yat-sen University

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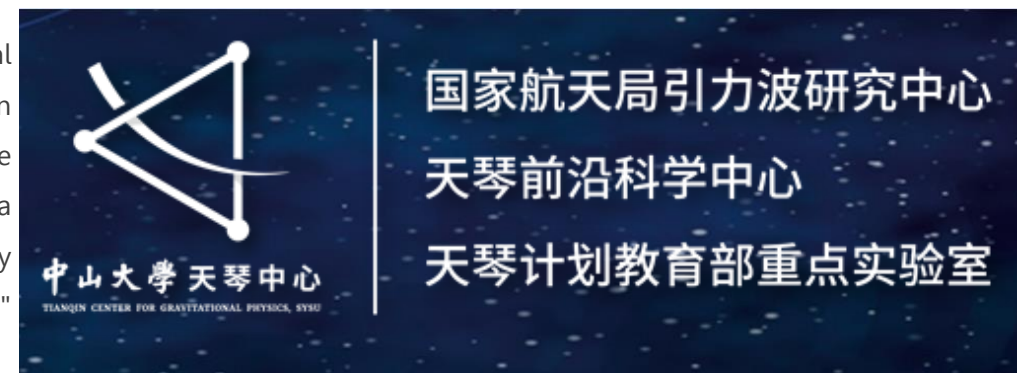
物理学院 School of Physics

In 2015, the Department of Physics was integrated to establish the School of Physics, which has the State Key Laboratory of Optoelectronic Materials and Technology, and has built an important platform for the open sharing of neutron spectrometer of Sun Yat-sen University: an important platform for the research of kinetic properties of condensed matter and functional materials; neutrino coherent scattering detector system, etc.



物理与天文学院 School of Physics and Astronomy

physics and astronomy, coordinate Zhuhai, rely on the two national research platforms of the Tianqin space gravitational wave detection program, the China Space Station Engineering Sky Survey Telescope Guangdong-Hong Kong-Macao Greater Bay Area Science Center and a provincial and ministerial platform of Guangdong Provincial Key Laboratory of Quantum Precision Measurement and Sensing, leading the "deep space" one discipline group of Sun Yat-sen University Zhuhai Campus.



理学院 School of Science

mathematics and physics, coordinate Shenzhen, serve and integrate new medical sciences and new engineering, and build the world's first gamma photon collider and comprehensive beam facilities.



The project consists of international and domestic cooperation units

• Collaboration :

- 中山大学SYSU: 黄永盛、王乃彦 (院士顾问兼聘) 、杨学明 (院士兼聘) 、李志兵、牛田野、葛昕、毕远杰、张晋、刘洋、郑立洋、苏伟、赵耀、张林、王子丽、郭昕、Loic、张浩、罗志高、凌丰姿、王为 (物院) 、贺远强 (物院) , 张鹏鸣 (物天) 、尤郑昀 (物院) ;
- 高能所IHEP: 周为仁, 张闯, 郑志鹏, 吕军光, 李煜辉、裴国玺, 刘渭滨,
- 清华Tsinghua: 唐传祥, 鲁巍, 杜应超
- 武汉大学Wuhan-U: 陈沅、聂元存
- 北京大学Peking-U: 颜学庆, 余金清
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- 北航Beihang University: 沈成平, 孙保华
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- 西安交通大学Xi'an Jiaotong University : 栗建兴

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- Japan: Kaoru Yokoya, K. Homma
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- France: Amplitude Technology Co.
- USA: Chris Barty, Bob Byer, Almantas Galvanauskas, Russell Wilcox , Mayda Velasco
- Russia: Valery Telnov

目录

1) 为什么要建造伽玛光子对撞机?

2) 如何建造? 关键技术有哪些?

3) 科学意义与应用价值几何?

粒子加速器及其应用

- 粒子加速器是20世纪早期人们的一大发明，至今已有近100年的历史。
- 从上世纪二十年代第一台加速器开始，加速器研究的焦点就一直是提高粒子的能量。这就是所谓的“能量前沿”（Energy Frontier），也是人们常说的“科学发现的引擎”（Engines of Discovery）。它服务的对象是基础研究，即高能物理。一开始的高能物理是核物理（十几到几十 MeV），现在的高能物理是粒子物理（几个，几十个 GeV 到 十几 TeV）。
- 在这个过程中，
 - 一方面有一系列基础研究中的重大发现（诺贝尔物理奖的三分之一都给了粒子物理）
 - 另一方面又引伸出一大批实际应用（Spin-off），这些应用又一个个相继形成了新的，属于它们自己的科学技术领域前沿。
 - 同步辐射光源，自由电子激光，和散裂中子源就是三个很好的例子。

第一台同步辐射光源 – SPEAR

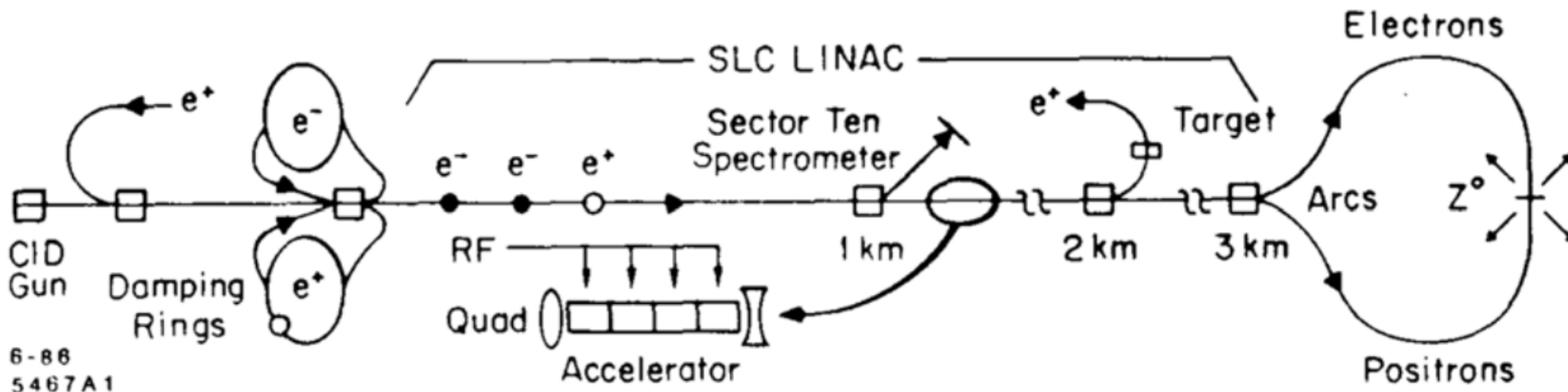
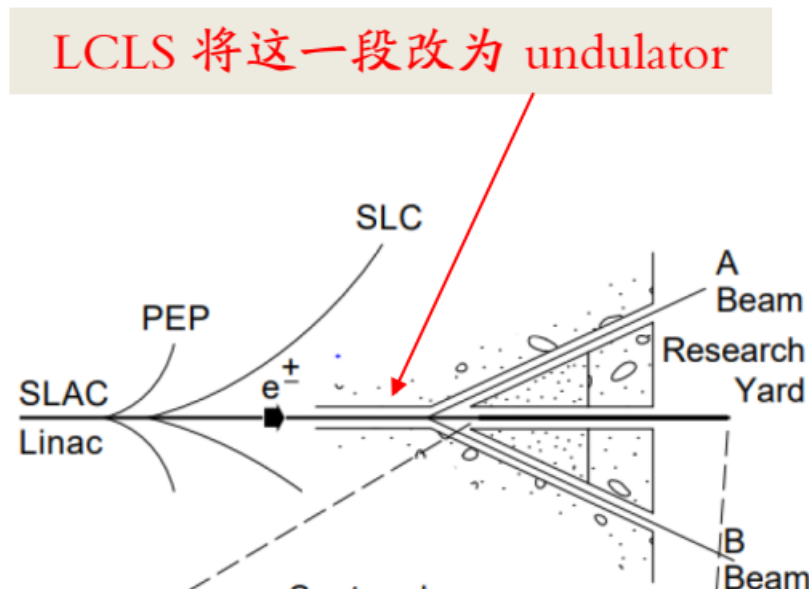
- SPEAR 大家并不陌生，它是一台做高能物理实验的正负电子对撞机，1974年 Burt Richter 用它发现了 J/Ψ 粒子，与丁肇中（用 AGS，另一台高能物理加速器）一起得了诺贝尔物理奖。
- 但很多人不知道，正是这台用来研究高能物理的机器，是世界上第一台同步辐射光源，（Stanford U. Bill Spicer 和 Seb Doniach 对 Richter 的建议 “revolutionize Condensed Matter physics”）常称为第一代光源（1st Generation, 1G）
- 后来 SPEAR 改造为专用光源（2G，另还有 Aladdin 等），又拿到三个诺贝尔化学奖（Roger Kornberg 2006, Ada Yonath 2009 and Brian Kobilka 2012）
- 80年代开始建造第三代光源（3G），特点是有插入件（insertion devices），包括 APS, ALS, ESRF, Spring-8, 和国内的合肥光源, 上海光源, 及正在建的北方光源, 筹建中的南方光源等。



Figure 24. SPEAR bending magnet vacuum chamber with the 1st port to extract synchrotron radiation for experiments (Herman Winick collection).

第一台自由电子激光是基于直线对撞机的技术

- SLC 是第一台（也是到目前为止唯一的一台）直线对撞机，作为 Z 工厂，研究粒子物理。
- 正是在这台机器上积累的经验，研发的加速器技术和培养的专业队伍，为后来把它改造为世界上第一台 X 射线自由电子激光 LCLS 打下了基础（4G）。
- 现在又进一步使用超导技术，发展为 LCLS2，上海在建的 SHINE 就是以它为借鉴。



散裂中子源是基于高能物理固定靶实验的技术

- 高能质子打在固定靶上，产生二次粒子，是粒子物理的重要实验手段。丁肇中当年就是在 AGS 上发现了 J/Ψ 粒子。
- 高能物理学家感兴趣的二次粒子是自然界中看不到的粒子，除了 J/Ψ 之外，还有 π ， μ ，kaon，正电子，反质子，等。
- 为了得到大量二次粒子，高强度高功率的质子加速器技术发展。
- 正是在这个技术基础上，引伸出了散裂中子源 - 即是在固定靶上产生大量中子作为二次粒子，应用于凝聚态物理，核物理，材料科学，生物科学等各方面。
- 与光源一样，一开始散裂中子源是高能物理的附属部分，但后来就有了专用的，如 ESS，SNS，J-PARC，及国内新建的 CSNS。

Fermilab 三条固定靶束流线



其他还有很多例子

- 超导技术的迅速发展是由于 Fermilab 建造 Tevatron，世界上第一台使用超导磁铁的对撞机。它使用的超导材料数量是如此之大，当时全世界所有生产的铌钛合金都不够它用。这就带动了超导材料工业的发展。
- 不但如此，它的超导磁铁技术还带动了医学上核磁共振（MRI）的发展和广泛应用。
- 电子直线加速器是医学上放射治疗的基础。
- 用加速器产生正电子的技术，是今天 PET scan 的基础。
- 为高能质子加速器而发明的 RFQ 已广泛应用在半导体工业上。
- 为交换高能物理实验数据而发明的 Internet，在全世界引起了一场信息革命，则是完全出于发明者意外的。



小结

- 加速器技术的发展，一直是由基础研究的需要带动的。这些基础研究，有它自己的科学目标和物理意义。
- 但在加速器技术发展的过程中，它又找到很多实际的应用，有些是事先已想到的，有些是完全没有预料到的。
- 以加速器为例，基础研究对实际应用的贡献主要有三方面：
 - 打下技术基础
 - 积累操作经验
 - 培养专业队伍
- 希望我们今天讨论的伽玛对撞机，能成为下一个基础研究带动实际应用的例子。

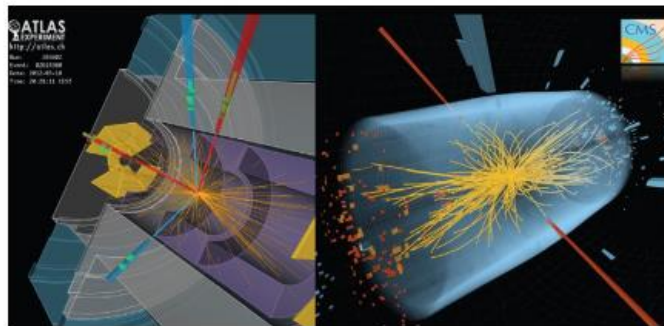
从 0 到 1，第一个（第一次）是零的突破

- 特别刺激，特别兴奋，是个冒险，有强烈的挑战性，成功后会长期留在人们记忆中

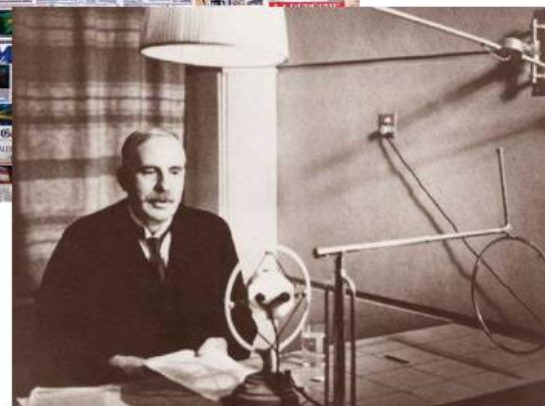
2019年 4月10日 EHT 发布第一个黑洞照片



- 2016年 LIGO 第一次“听”到引力波
- 2012年 LHC 第一次找到希格斯粒子

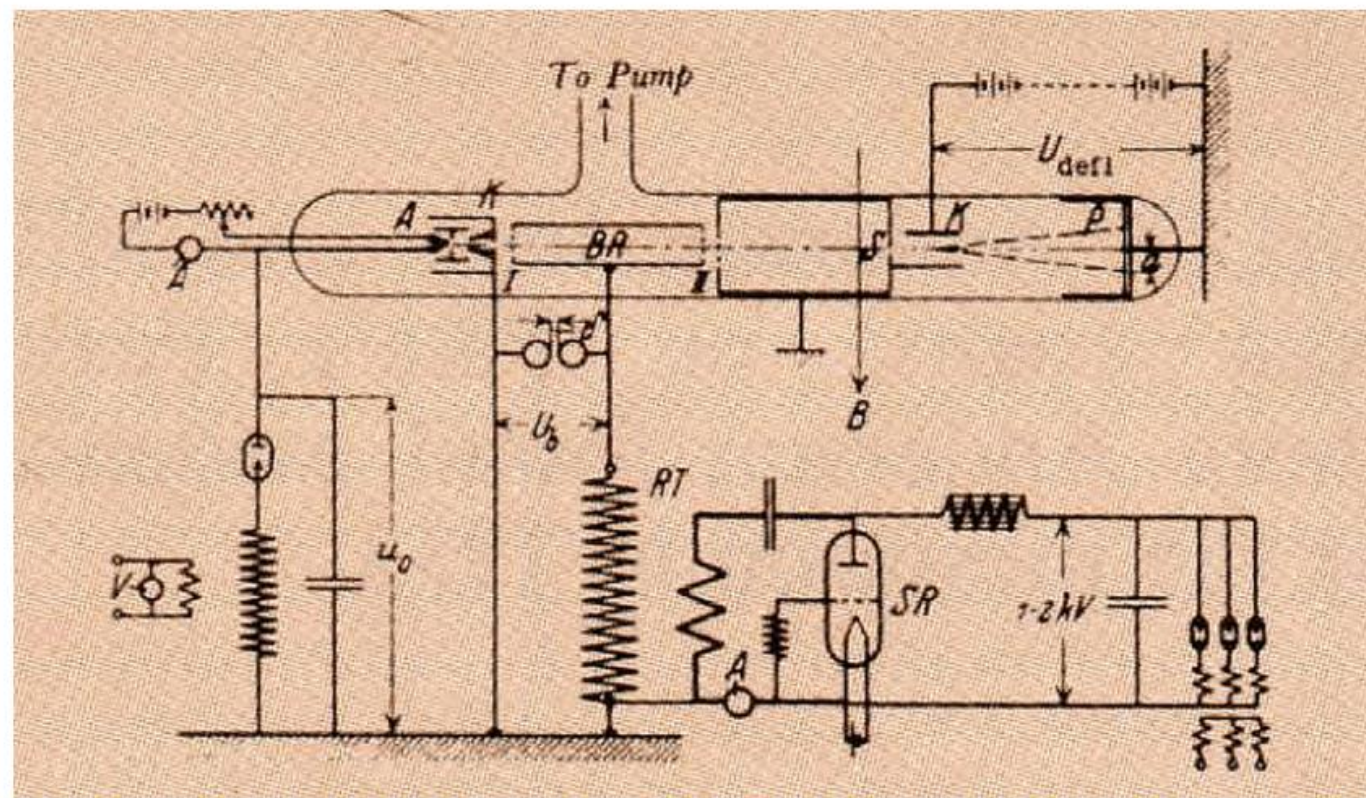


- 1919年卢瑟福第一次把原子核打碎



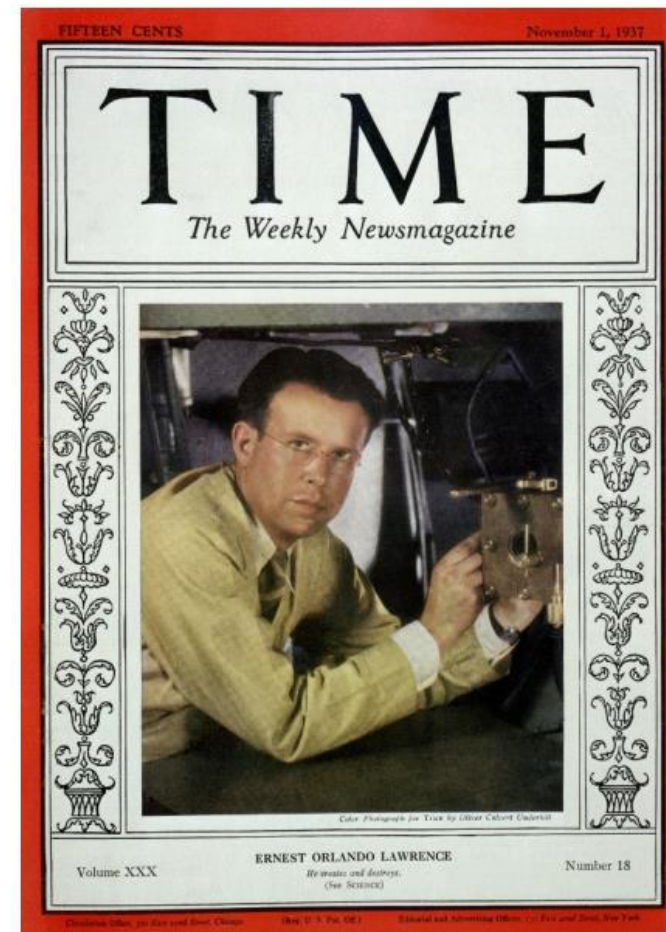
从 0 到 1，第一台小而简单 (1)

第一台直线加速器，1928年， Rolf Wideröe,
88 cm glass tube linac



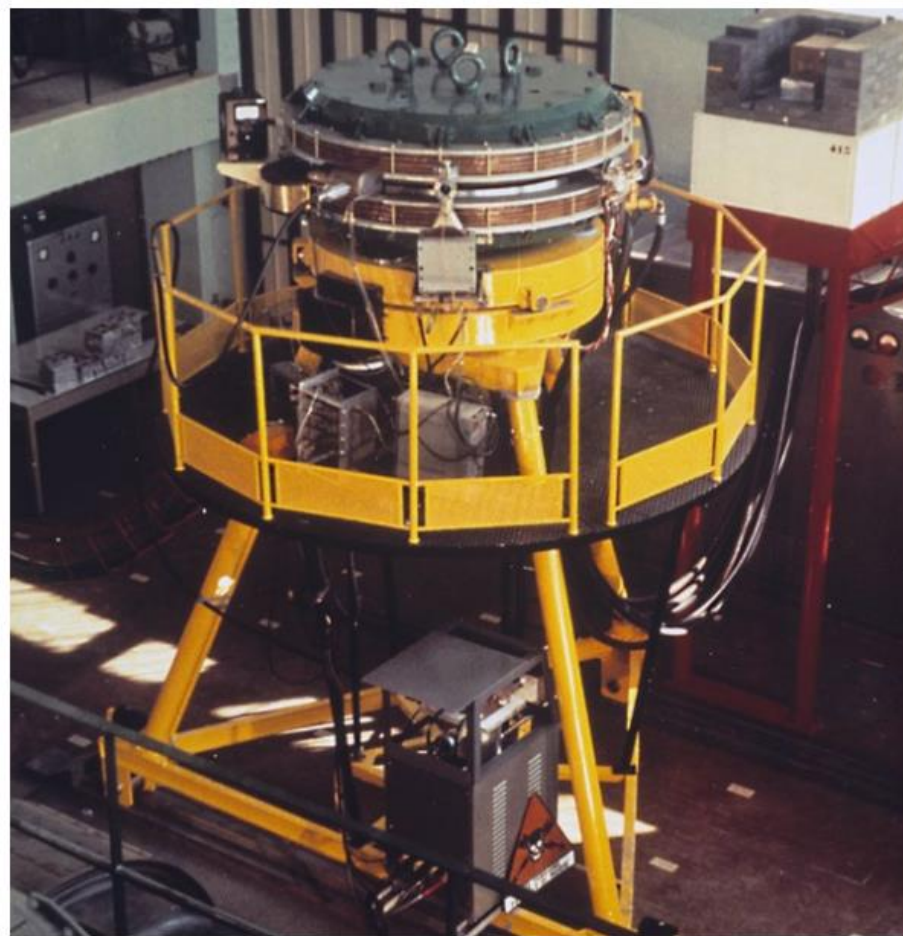
从 0 到 1，第一台小而简单 (2)

第一台环形加速器，1930年， Ernest Lawrence
手掌大小， 4" cyclotron



从 0 到 1，第一台小而简单 (3)

第一台环形对撞机，1961年，Bruno Touschek
直径 1.6 m，AdA



有了 1, 就有 2, 3, ...

1943: Synchrotron



1944: Phase stability



1952: Strong focusing



1959: AGS



1966: Electron cooling



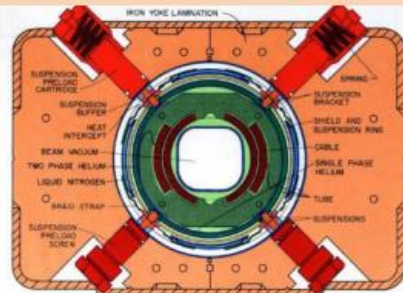
1968: Stochastic cooling



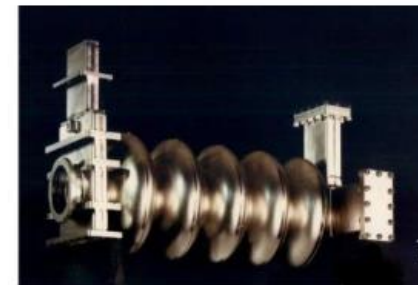
1969: 1st hadron collider



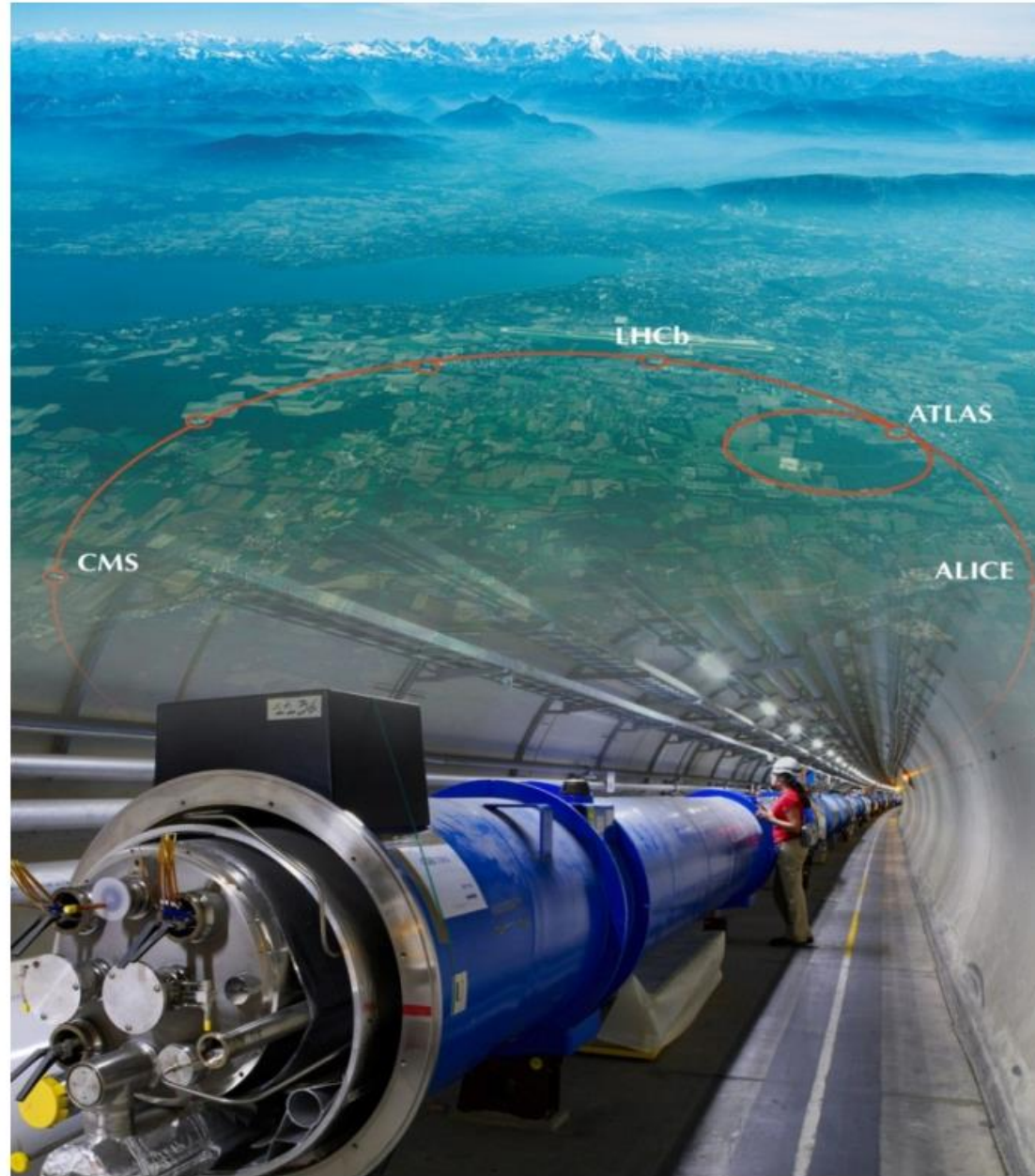
1983: SC magnet



1994: Superconducting RF



World's Largest Collider – LHC (27 km)



A BRIEF HISTORY OF PARTICLE ACCELERATORS



Cyclotron

Ernest Lawrence invents the cyclotron at the University of California, Berkeley. He and his student Robert Serber build a cyclotron only 1' inches in diameter.



The birth of an era

Ernest Rutherford discovers the nuclear disintegration by bombarding elements with alpha particles from natural radioactive elements. Later he calls for "a vacuum supply" of particles more energetic than those from natural sources. The particle accelerator era is born.



Cockcroft-Walton accelerator
John Cockcroft and Ernest Walton invent the Cockcroft-Walton electrostatic accelerator at the Cavendish Laboratory. This accelerator produces the first man-made nuclear reaction.



Synchrotron
Markus Oliphant develops the concept for a new type of accelerator. Later named the synchrotron by Edwin McMillan.



Drift tube linear
Lyle Shuster builds the first drift tube linear for accelerating protons at the University of California, Berkeley.



FAC
The first Free Electron Laser (FEL) is demonstrated at the Stanford Linear Accelerator. The concept is invented independently by Thron Othman, Andrei Rubinshtein, and Keith Symon. An electron beam is accelerated by Linac.



Induction linear
Anton, the first induction linear proposed by Nicholas Christofilos for nuclear fusion, is built at a branch of the Lawrence Radiation Laboratory. Later renamed the Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory.



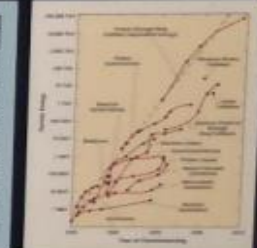
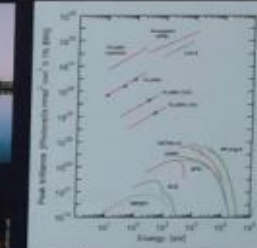
Electron cooling
Gersh Budker invents electron beam cooling at the Institute for Nuclear Physics in Russia.



Stochastic cooling
Simon van der Meer invents stochastic beam cooling, a technique enabling cooling of antiproton beams. The proton-antiproton collisions in the SppS in 1981 at CERN lead to the discovery of the Z and W bosons.



Superconducting magnet technology
The Sracol, the first large accelerator using superconducting magnet technology, is commissioned at Fermilab.



Evolution of photon energy and peak brilliance of synchrotron light sources. A modern light source can take crystal clear images at the angstrom scale ($1 \text{ \AA} = 10^{-10} \text{ meter}$) with time and resolution ($1 \text{ fs} = 10^{-15} \text{ seconds}$).

The "Livingston chart" shows the steady growth of accelerator energy. For equivalent collision energy, the increase is a factor of one every seven years.



World's first accelerator
Carlton Fisk develops the concept of a linear particle accelerator (linac). Four years later, Rolf Widerberg builds the world's first linac in an 18 cm long glass tube in Austria, Germany.



Mikron
Rudolf and Siegfried Klotz invent the Mikron, a high-frequency amplifier for generating microwaves, at Stanford University. A similar device is proposed by Ignace Pomeroy Hall and Oskar Rigbi in 1915.



Betatron
Donald Kerst at the University of Illinois invents the first betatron, proposed by Joseph Slogar and others in the 1920s.



Phase stability
Vladimir Veksler at the Laboratory of Physics and later Edwin McMillan at the University of California, Berkeley independently discover the principle of phase stability. A combination of modern electronics, the principle is first demonstrated in a practical machine in 1946 at Berkeley.



Synchrotron radiation
Frank Connerath constructs the first electron synchrotron in the U.S. This is followed by Carl Hall at General Electric in the U.S. where synchrotron radiation is first observed, opening a new era of accelerator-based light sources.



Strong focusing
Ernest Courant, Martin Livingston and Pauline Serber, brother of Brookhaven National Laboratory and, independently, Nicholas Christofilos earlier in 1930 in Greece discover the principle of strong focusing, strong focusing and phase stability form the foundation of all modern high-energy accelerators.



Colliders
John, the first electron-proton collider is built at Princeton. It is followed by two electron-electron colliders: Princeton-Stanford Collider in the U.S. and VEPP-1 in Russia, leading to a continuing evolution of electron-proton colliders and factories around the world.



RFQ
Vladimir Teplov and his colleagues invent the radio-frequency quadrupole (RFQ). The first RFQ is built in 1972 at the Institute of High Energy Physics in Russia.



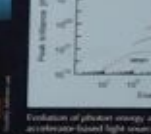
Superconducting storage rings
The first large proton-proton collider begins operation at CERN.



Linear colliders
S.L.C., the first linear collider proposed by Burton Richter, is built at SLAC. The linear collider concept is developed by Martin Tigner in 1965.



Superconducting RF technology
CEBAF, the first large accelerator using superconducting radio-frequency technology, is built at the facility later named Jefferson Laboratory.



Waste FEL
ALICE, the first FEL and not a free electron laser, is built at DESY in Germany.



World's largest accelerator - LHC
The Large Hadron Collider at CERN, with 27 km circumference, begins operation.



Advanced concepts
Plasma and laser acceleration techniques meet's imagination. An acceleration gradient 1000 times higher than that of conventional linacs has been demonstrated. These advanced concepts challenge future accelerator builders.



Van de Graaff generator
Robert Van de Graaff invents the Van de Graaff generator at Princeton University. He also constructs the first tandem accelerator (two generators in series) in 1939 at Chad, Texas.



Electron linac
William Workman and his team at Michigan in the U.S. build the first electron linac, proposed by a magnetron. William Harker and his team independently build a similar electron linac at Stanford University a few months later.



Modern synchrotron
The first two-proton synchrotron using strong focusing - PS at CERN and AGS at BNL - are built. An electron synchrotron using strong focusing is built earlier in 1964 at Cornell University.



FEL
John Madey invents and builds the first free electron laser at Stanford University.



SRL
The first free electron laser using strong focusing - PS at CERN and AGS at BNL - are built. An electron synchrotron using strong focusing is built earlier in 1964 at Cornell University.



FEL
John Madey invents and builds the first free electron laser at Stanford University.



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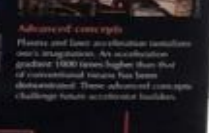
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25 Nobel Prizes in Physics that had direct contribution from accelerators

(courtesy: A. Chao)

Year	Name	Accelerator-Science Contribution to Nobel Prize-Winning Research
1939	Ernest O. Lawrence	Lawrence invented the cyclotron at the University of Californian at Berkeley in 1929 [12].
1951	John D. Cockcroft and Ernest T.S. Walton	Cockcroft and Walton invented their eponymous linear positive-ion accelerator at the Cavendish Laboratory in Cambridge, England, in 1932 [13].
1952	Felix Bloch	Bloch used a cyclotron at the Crocker Radiation Laboratory at the University of California at Berkeley in his discovery of the magnetic moment of the neutron in 1940 [14].
1957	Tsung-Dao Lee and Chen Ning Yang	Lee and Yang analyzed data on K mesons (θ and τ) from Bevatron experiments at the Lawrence Radiation Laboratory in 1955 [15], which supported their idea in 1956 that parity is not conserved in weak interactions [16].
1959	Emilio G. Segrè and Owen Chamberlain	Segrè and Chamberlain discovered the antiproton in 1955 using the Bevatron at the Lawrence Radiation Laboratory [17].
1960	Donald A. Glaser	Glaser tested his first experimental six-inch bubble chamber in 1955 with high-energy protons produced by the Brookhaven Cosmotron [18].
1961	Robert Hofstadter	Hofstadter carried out electron-scattering experiments on carbon-12 and oxygen-16 in 1959 using the SLAC linac and thereby made discoveries on the structure of nucleons [19].
1963	Maria Goeppert Mayer	Goeppert Mayer analyzed experiments using neutron beams produced by the University of Chicago cyclotron in 1947 to measure the nuclear binding energies of krypton and xenon [20], which led to her discoveries on high magic numbers in 1948 [21].
1967	Hans A. Bethe	Bethe analyzed nuclear reactions involving accelerated protons and other nuclei whereby he discovered in 1939 how energy is produced in stars [22].
1968	Luis W. Alvarez	Alvarez discovered a large number of resonance states using his fifteen-inch hydrogen bubble chamber and high-energy proton beams from the Bevatron at the Lawrence Radiation Laboratory [23].
1976	Burton Richter and Samuel C.C. Ting	Richter discovered the J/Ψ particle in 1974 using the SPEAR collider at Stanford [24], and Ting discovered the J/Ψ particle independently in 1974 using the Brookhaven Alternating Gradient Synchrotron [25].
1979	Sheldon L. Glashow, Abdus Salam, and Steven Weinberg	Glashow, Salam, and Weinberg cited experiments on the bombardment of nuclei with neutrinos at CERN in 1973 [26] as confirmation of their prediction of weak neutral currents [27].
1980	James W. Cronin and Val L. Fitch	Cronin and Fitch concluded in 1964 that CP (charge-parity) symmetry is violated in the decay of neutral K mesons based upon their experiments using the Brookhaven Alternating Gradient Synchrotron [28].
1981	Kai M. Siegbahn	Siegbahn invented a weak-focusing principle for betatrons in 1944 with which he made significant improvements in high-resolution electron spectroscopy [29].
1983	William A. Fowler	Fowler collaborated on and analyzed accelerator-based experiments in 1958 [30], which he used to support his hypothesis on stellar-fusion processes in 1957 [31].
1984	Carlo Rubbia and Simon van der Meer	Rubbia led a team of physicists who observed the intermediate vector bosons W and Z in 1983 using CERN's proton-antiproton collider [32], and van der Meer developed much of the instrumentation needed for these experiments [33].
1986	Ernst Ruska	Ruska built the first electron microscope in 1933 based upon a magnetic optical system that provided large magnification [34].
1988	Leon M. Lederman, Melvin Schwartz, and Jack Steinberger	Lederman, Schwartz, and Steinberger discovered the muon neutrino in 1962 using Brookhaven's Alternating Gradient Synchrotron [35].
1989	Wolfgang Paul	Paul's idea in the early 1950s of building ion traps grew out of accelerator physics [36].
1990	Jerome I. Friedman, Henry W. Kendall, and Richard E. Taylor	Friedman, Kendall, and Taylor's experiments in 1974 on deep inelastic scattering of electrons on protons and bound neutrons used the SLAC linac [37].
1992	Georges Charpak	Charpak's development of multiwire proportional chambers in 1970 were made possible by accelerator-based testing at CERN [38].
1995	Martin L. Perl	Perl discovered the tau lepton in 1975 using Stanford's SPEAR collider [39].
2004	David J. Gross, Frank Wilczek, and H. David Politzer	Gross, Wilczek, and Politzer discovered asymptotic freedom in the theory of strong interactions in 1973 based upon results from the SLAC linac on electron-proton scattering [40].
2008	Makoto Kobayashi and Toshihide Maskawa	Kobayashi and Maskawa's theory of quark mixing in 1973 was confirmed by results from the KEKB accelerator at KEK in Tsukuba, Ibaraki Prefecture, Japan, and the PEP II at SLAC [41], which showed that quark mixing in the six-quark model is the dominant source of broken symmetry [42].
2013	Francois Englert and Peter W. Higgs	Englert's and Higgs's theory of the Higgs particle in 1960s was confirmed by the ATLAS and CMS experiments at CERN's LHC in 2012.

Tens of Thousands Accelerators were built

Light Sources



Neutron Sources



Medical Accelerators

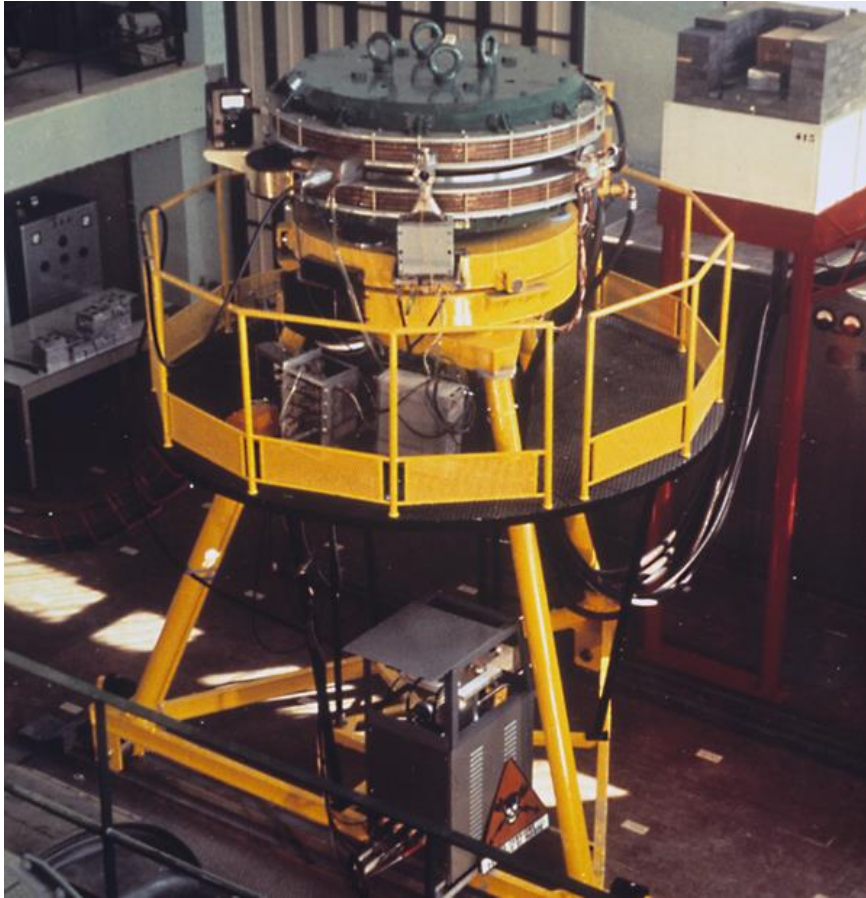


Industrial Accelerators



First Generation of Colliders – 1960s

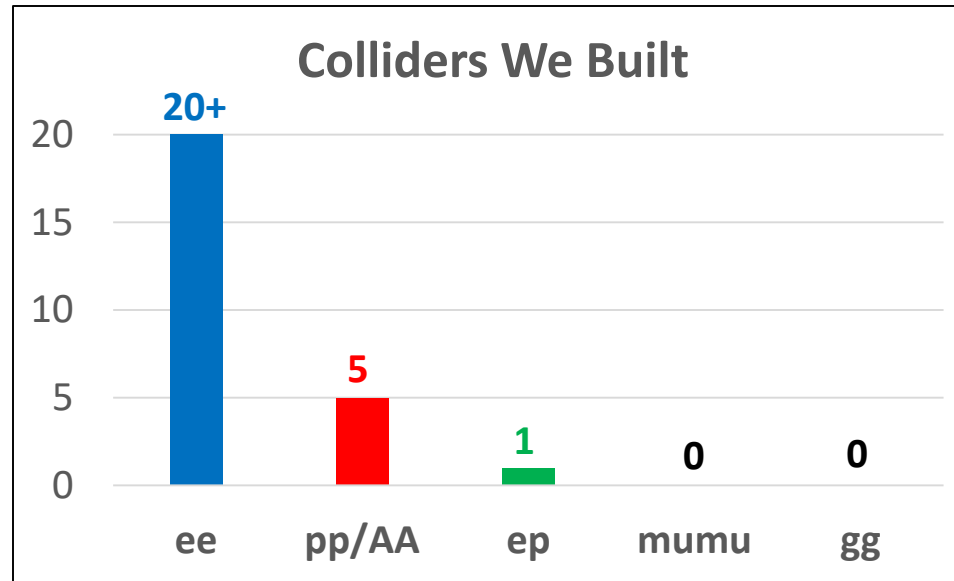
1961: AdA first lepton collider



1969: ISR first proton collider

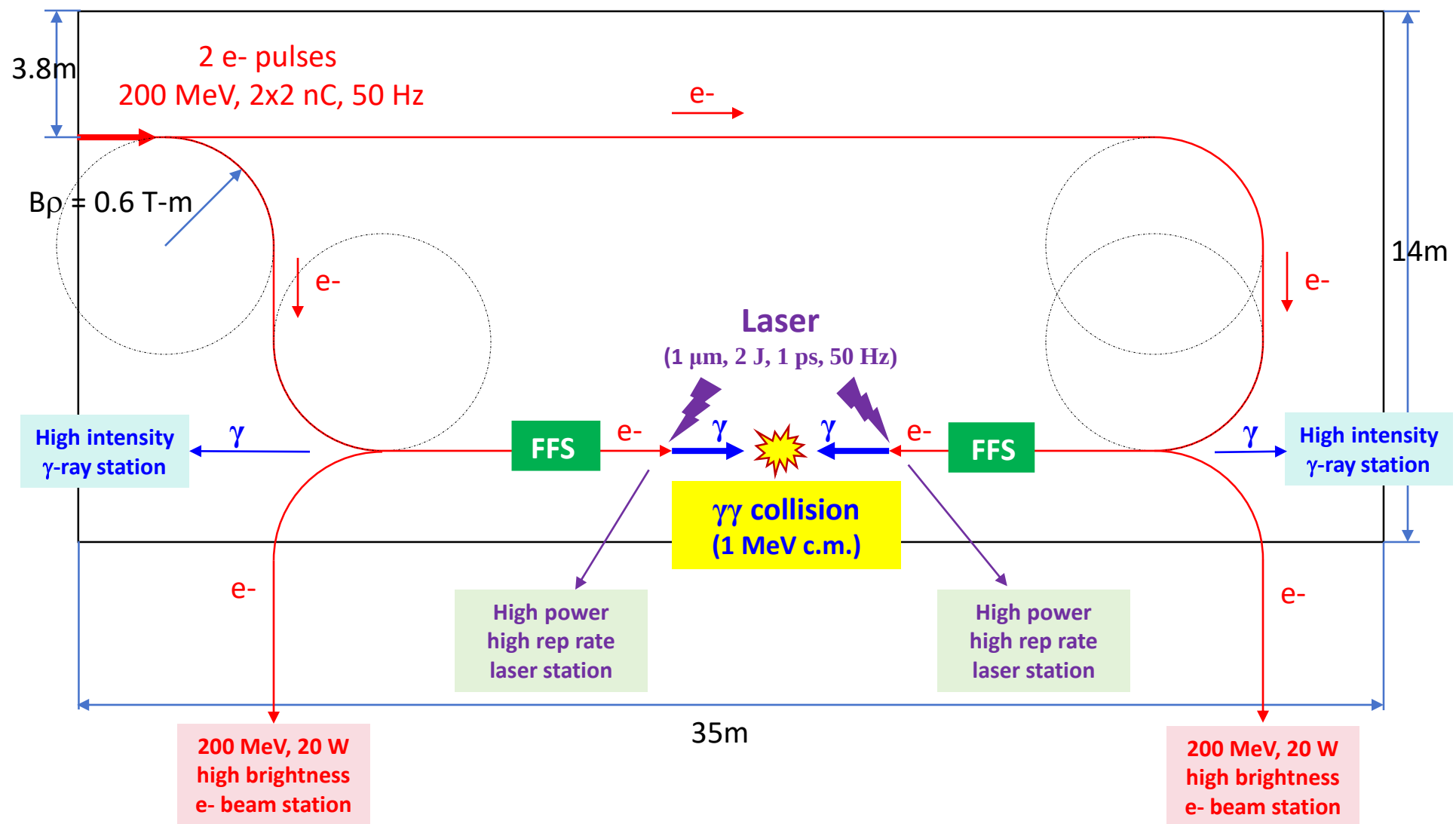


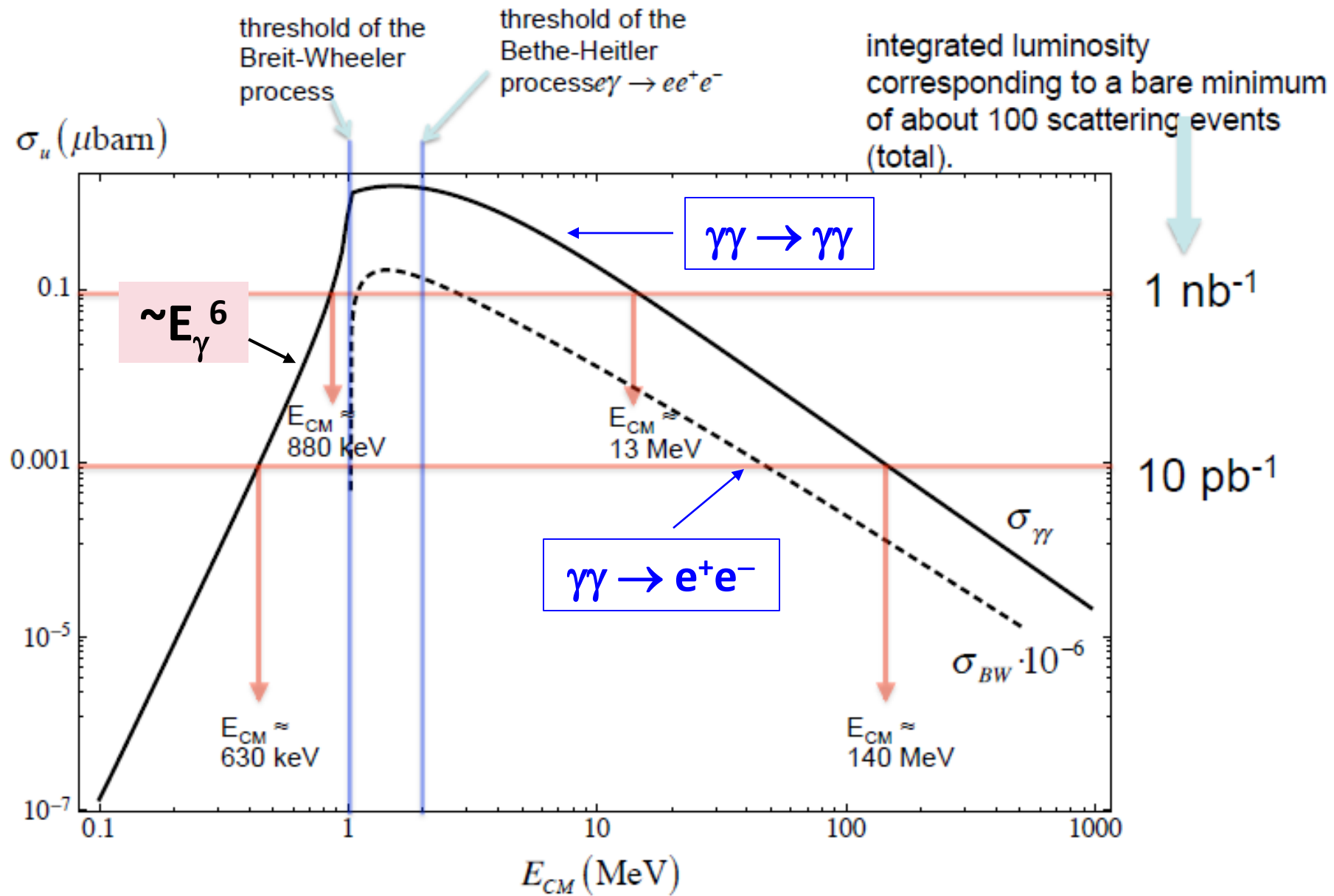
Scores of Colliders were built



- In the past 50 years,
 - we built more than 20 e⁺e⁻ colliders
 - we built 5 hadron colliders (pp and ion-ion)
 - we built one ep collider
- However, we have never built any $\gamma\gamma$ collider

伽马光子对撞机及综合束流设施





建设具体内容：伽马光子对撞机及综合束流平台

世界上第一台伽玛光子对撞机

真空到底是什么？
有没有暗光子-暗物质？
光子有没有结构？

- 世界首次在实验室中观察和测量实光子与实光子之间的对撞和散射
- 世界首次在实验室中观察和测量从纯能量(γ)到纯物质($e+e^-$)的转化
- 利用光探针测量质子半径以及核子结构

医疗和材料：高亮度 γ CT

发动机叶片探伤？
金属相变过程-液滴凝固？
海水腐蚀机理？
高分辨高灵敏医疗诊断

- γ 静态成像：6cm厚钢材，1-5微米分辨率
- γ 动态成像：50帧/s，金属液滴凝固过程，材料腐蚀过程研究
- 细胞级人体器官3D扫描分析

高性能电子束

高温超导体的机理？
极端环境的材料相变？
高端医疗设备

- 材料辐照
- 几十fs超快动力学成像
- 电子照相
- **闪存医疗设备及其机理研究**

强激光束流平台×2

“人造太阳”中的未知物理？
材料表面改性，抗腐蚀？

- 强激光与物质相互作用
- 高能量密度物理
- 惯性约束聚变物理
- 超快脉冲中子源 ps $10^{6-7}/s$
- 金属材料表面处理

目录

1) 为什么要建造伽玛光子对撞机?

2) 如何建造? 关键技术有哪些?

3) 科学意义与应用价值几何?

伽玛光子对撞机光子中心

- **两条高亮度逆康普顿散射伽玛光源，实现光光对撞：** 200MeV电子直线加速器+两台高平均功率激光器：
- **伽玛光束+高能电子束：** 材料、医学等应用多粒子束流平台。

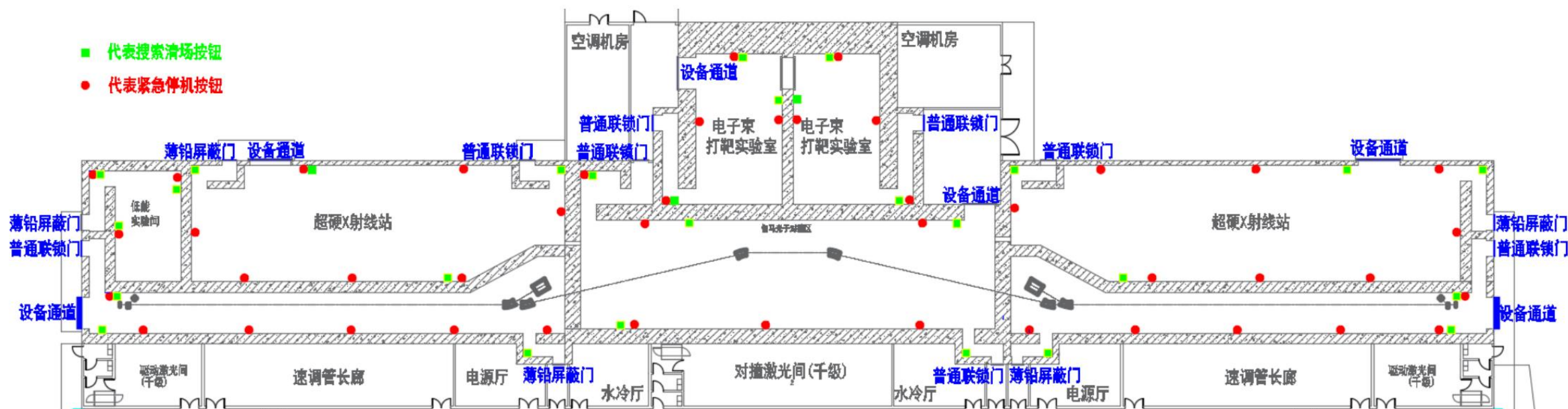


图 8.6 安全联锁现场设备分布示意图

伽马光子对撞机及多束流平台参数及运行指标

高性能电子束平台
× 2

平台指标：
200MeV,50Hz,2ps,2nC

电子束	
能量E	200 MeV
电荷Charge	2 nC
束斑半径σ(x,y)	2 μm
发射度ε	6.4 nm
横向振荡β*	626 μm
纵向束长σ(z)	2 ps
重复频率Rep rate	50 Hz
对撞亮度L	1.6 x 10 ²⁸

强激光束
流平台× 2

平台指标：2J,50Hz,2ps
/ 1-2J 30fs 30TW

激光束	
波长λ	1.054 μm
束腰Waist	5 μm
瑞丽长度 Rayleigh	298 μm
脉冲能量Pulse energy	2 J
脉冲长度Pulse length	1 ps
频率Rep rate	50 Hz
非线性强度 a ₀	0.45

高亮度γ
束平台× 2

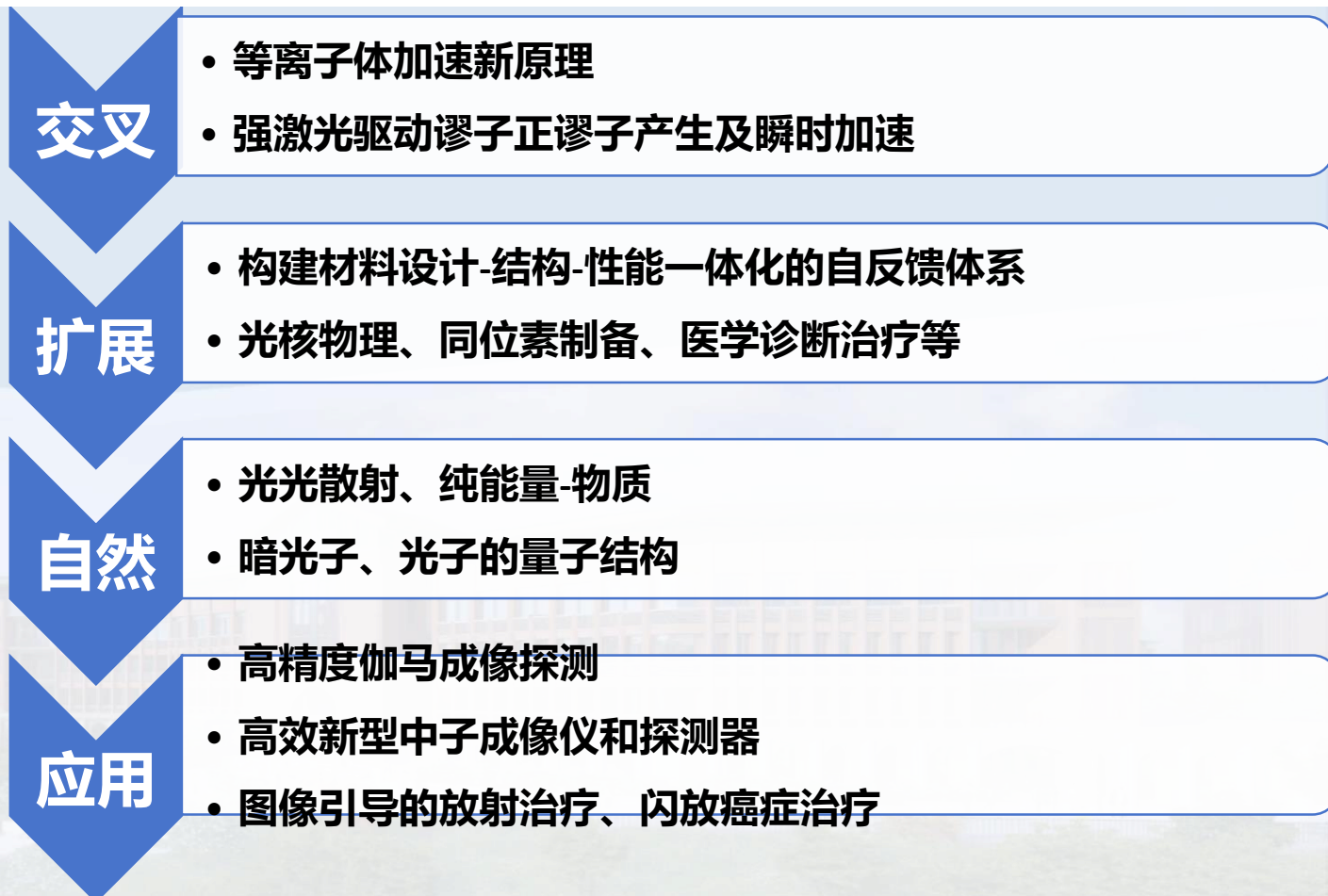
平台指标：
600keV,5 × 10¹¹/s, 50Hz,2ps, 束斑1-5μm

伽玛束/ 伽玛对撞参数	
能量E(c.m., 峰值)	1 MeV (2 x 0.5)
光通量N (total)	2 x 10 ¹¹ /s
频率	50 Hz
束斑半径σ(x,y)	2 μm
对撞亮度L	1 x 10 ²⁷ cm ⁻² s ⁻¹
事例率	7 /小时
	30,000 /年

世界上第一
台伽玛光子
对撞机

理学院重点规划：建设世界上第一台伽玛光子对撞机及综合束流设施
建设国重实验室、世界一流的核科学与技术团队、打造产学研一体化格局

粒子物理与核物理、等离子体物理、医学物理、量子传感等学科交叉融合、触类旁通

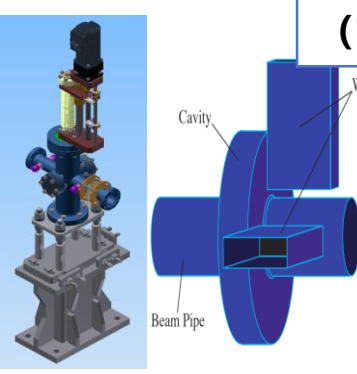
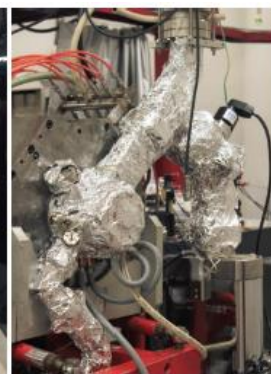


伽马光子对撞机及综合束流平台组成部分及关键技术

- 加速器200MeV 50Hz 2ps: 束流测试、真空系统、磁铁
- 高平均功率激光: 2J 50Hz 2ps
- 对撞机谱仪与靶室: 1302通道 1GHz采样
- 时空同步系统 1ps 1微米

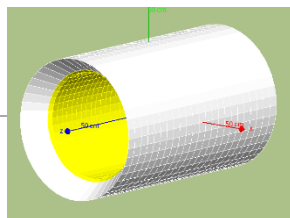
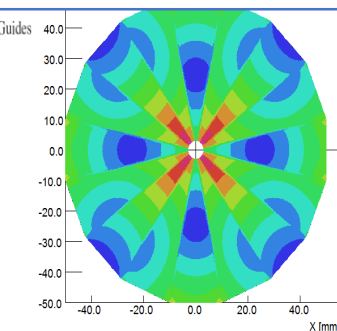


光阴极枪

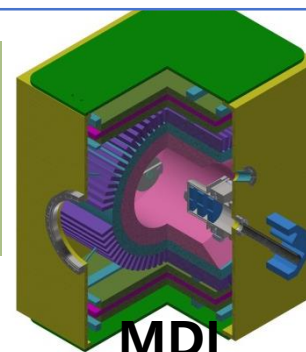


束测系统

- 超高梯度紧凑型永磁铁技术
- 紧聚焦型高亮度伽玛光源技术: 紧聚焦 (4-5微米), 焦点处亮度 $2.55 \times 10^{16} / (mm^2 s) @ 2.5 mrad$
- 高分辨率伽玛成像技术: 1-5微米分辨率, cm量级的钢材等高密度成像
- 几十fs超快动力学过程成像技术
- 多粒子综合探测技术: 多通道 (1300) 高采样频率 (1GHz) 的, 动量能量耦合



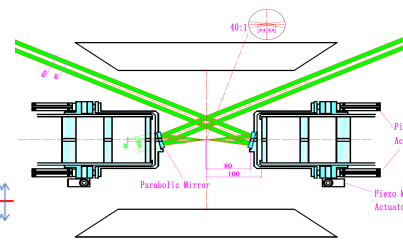
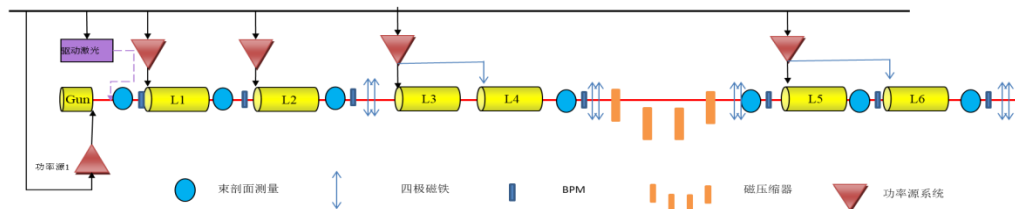
干路探测器



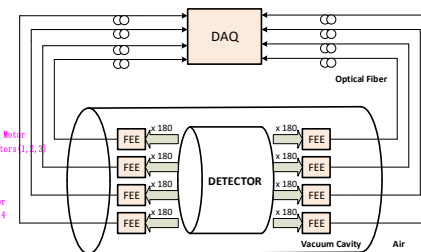
MDI

➤ 600T/m, 近2T

直线加速器

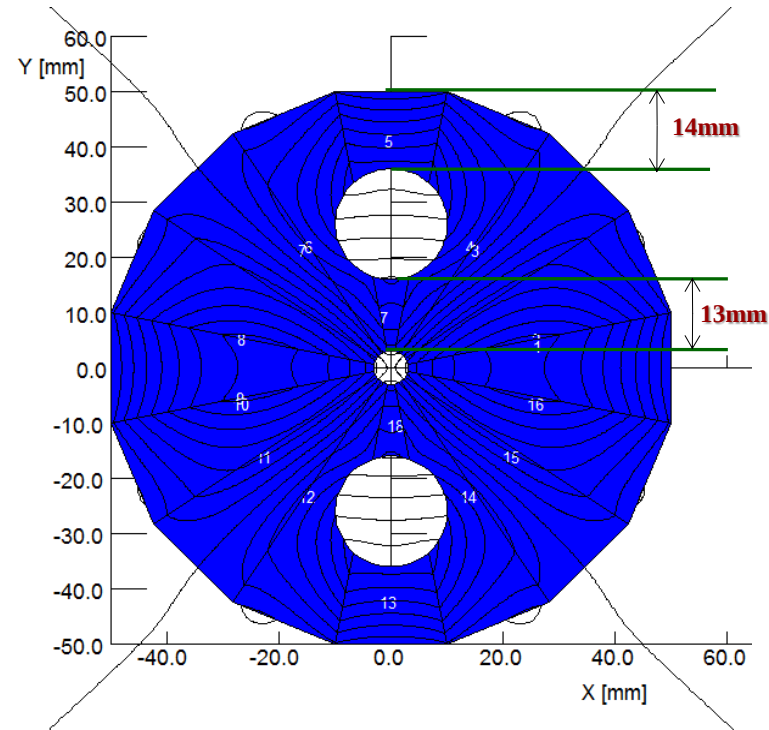
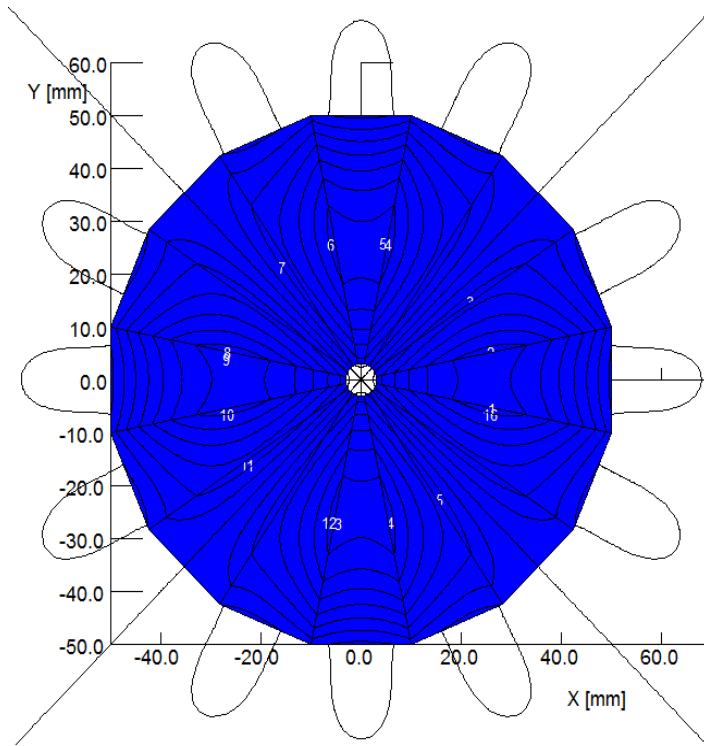


对撞区设计

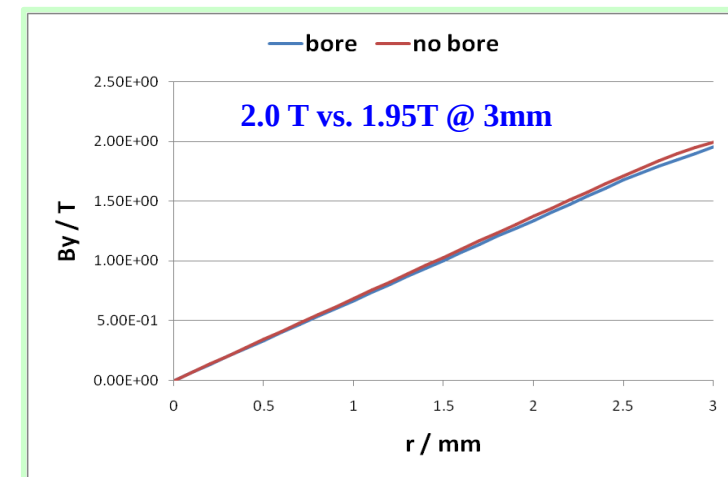


快速ADC电子学

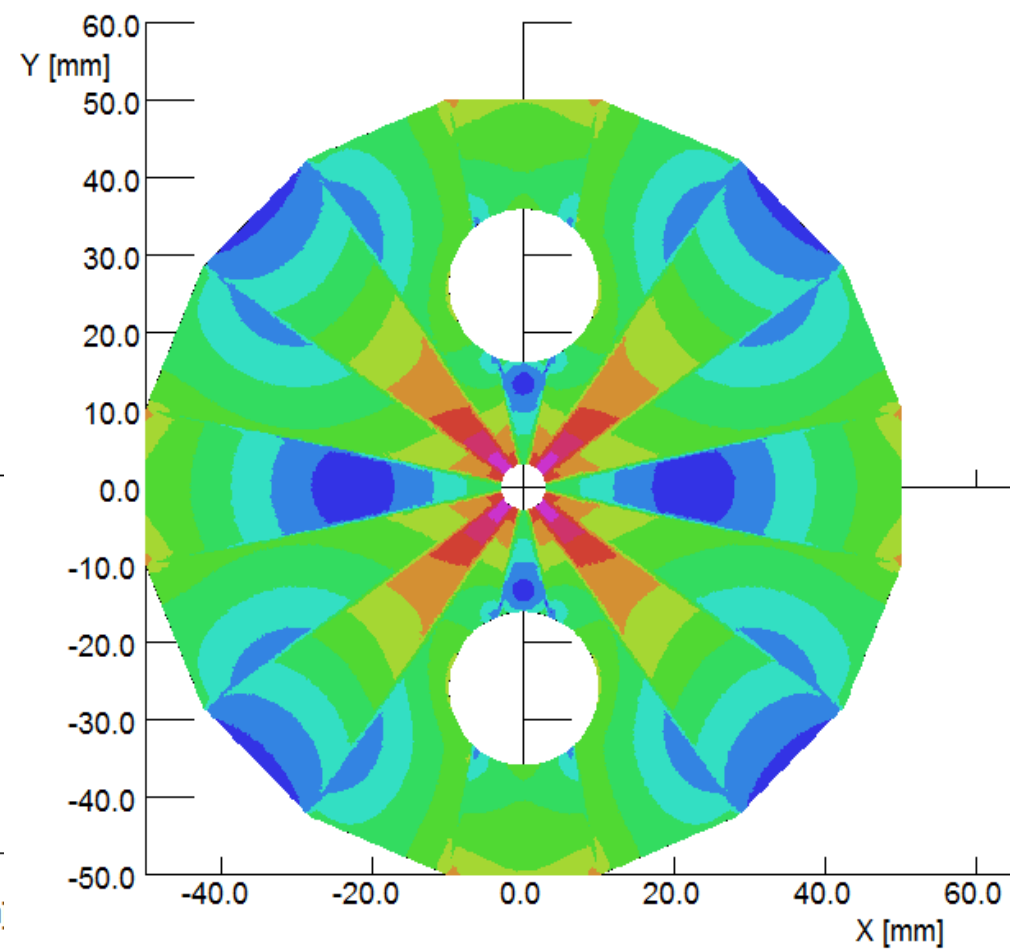
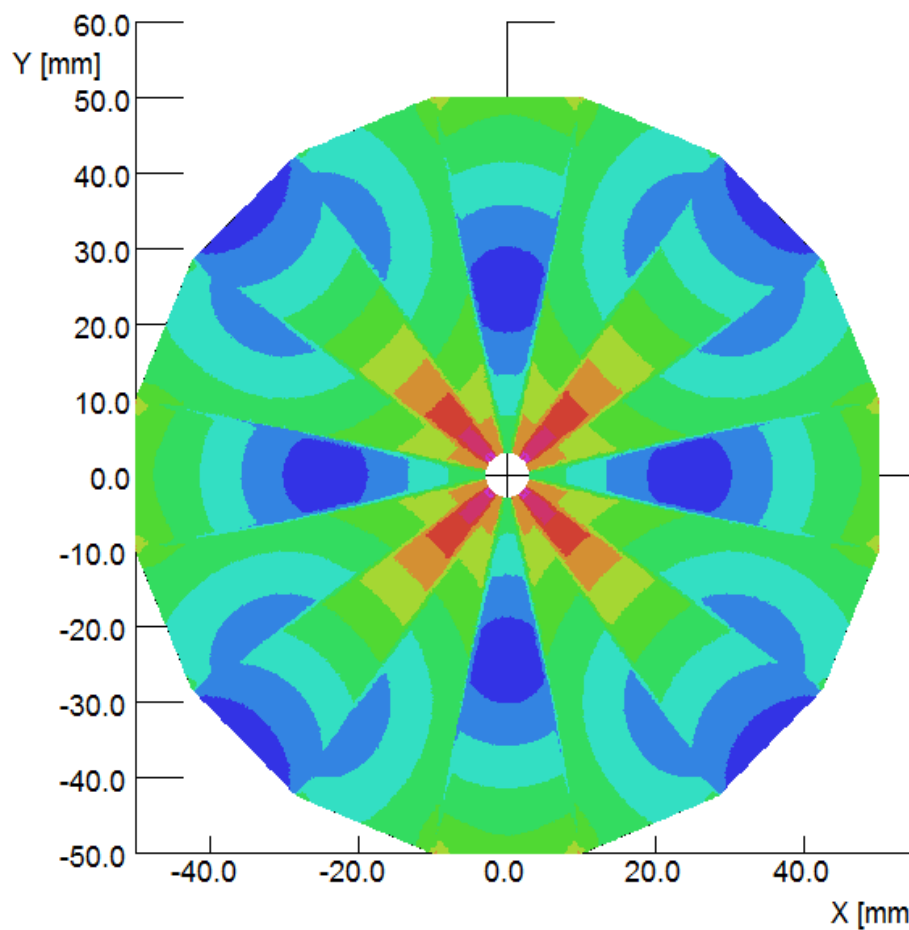
主要部件之四：永久四极磁铁



	d (mm)	G (T/m)	L (mm)
1#	6	590	9.1
2#	6	590	15
3#	6	590	25

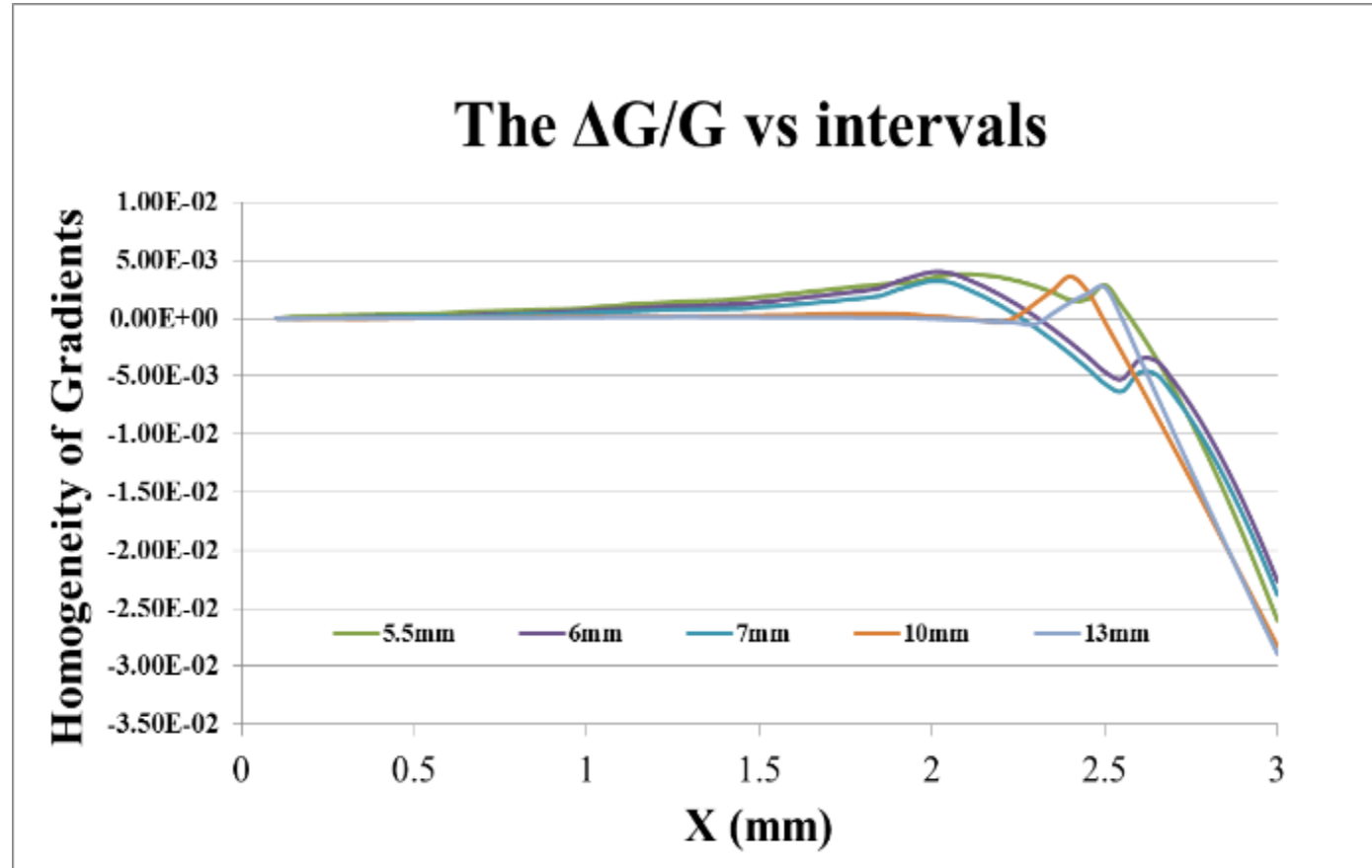


永久四极磁铁磁场模拟



- 1.996T vs 1.952T,
- 665T/m vs 650T/m

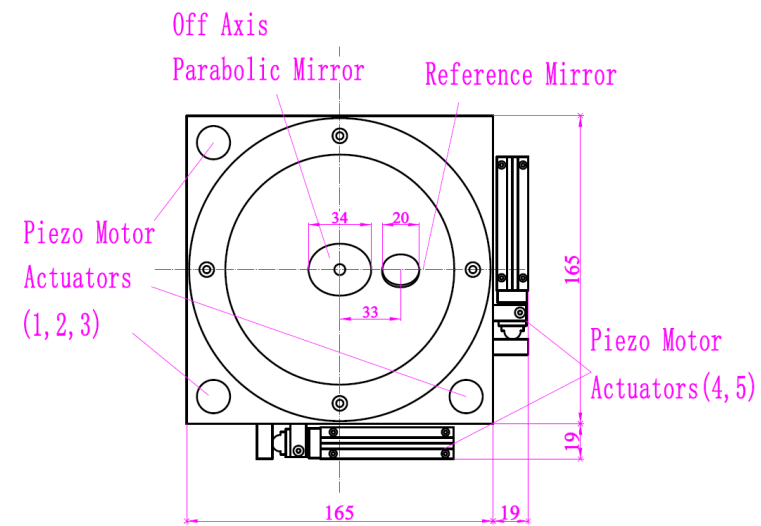
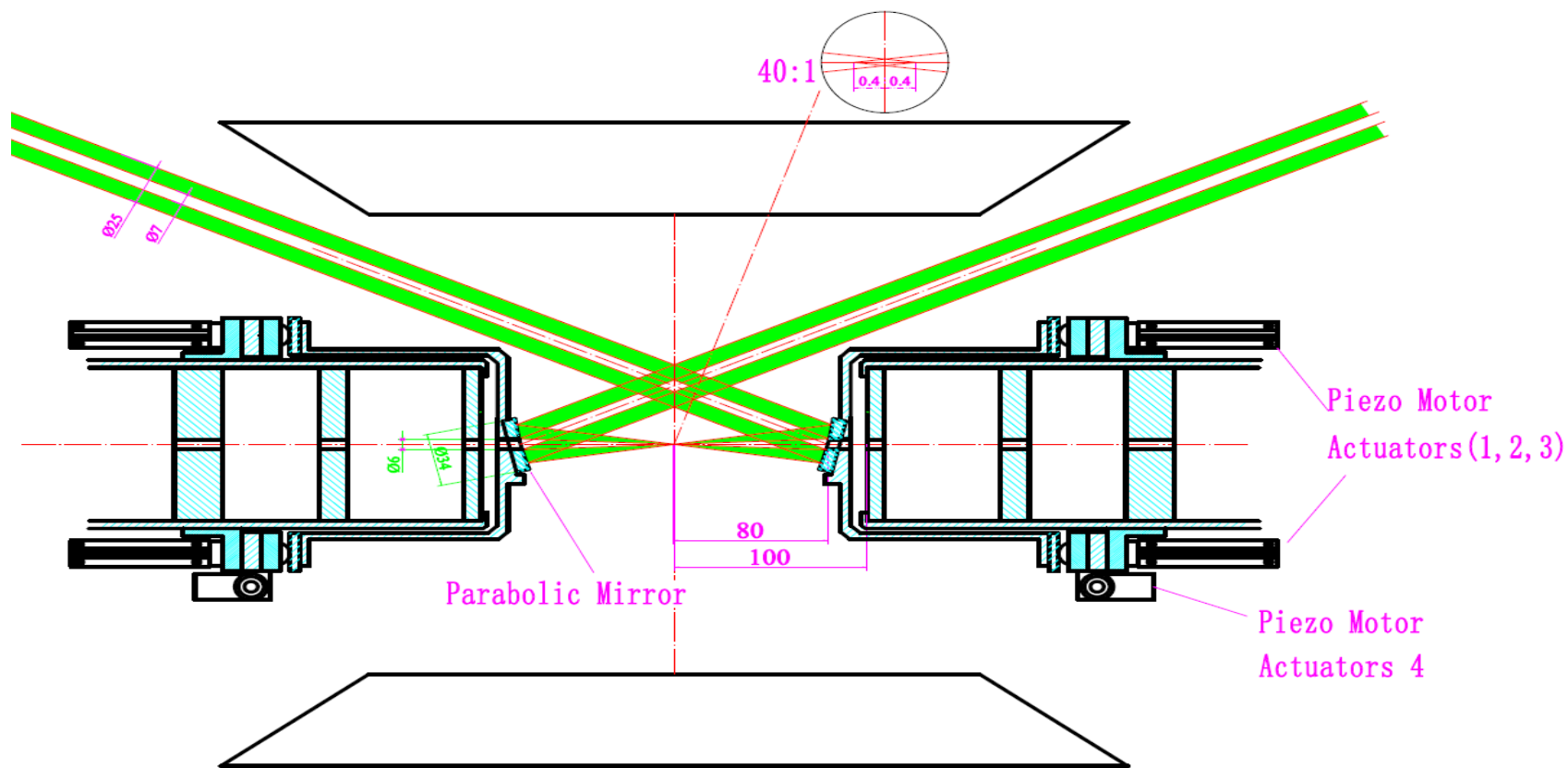
永久四极磁铁磁场模拟



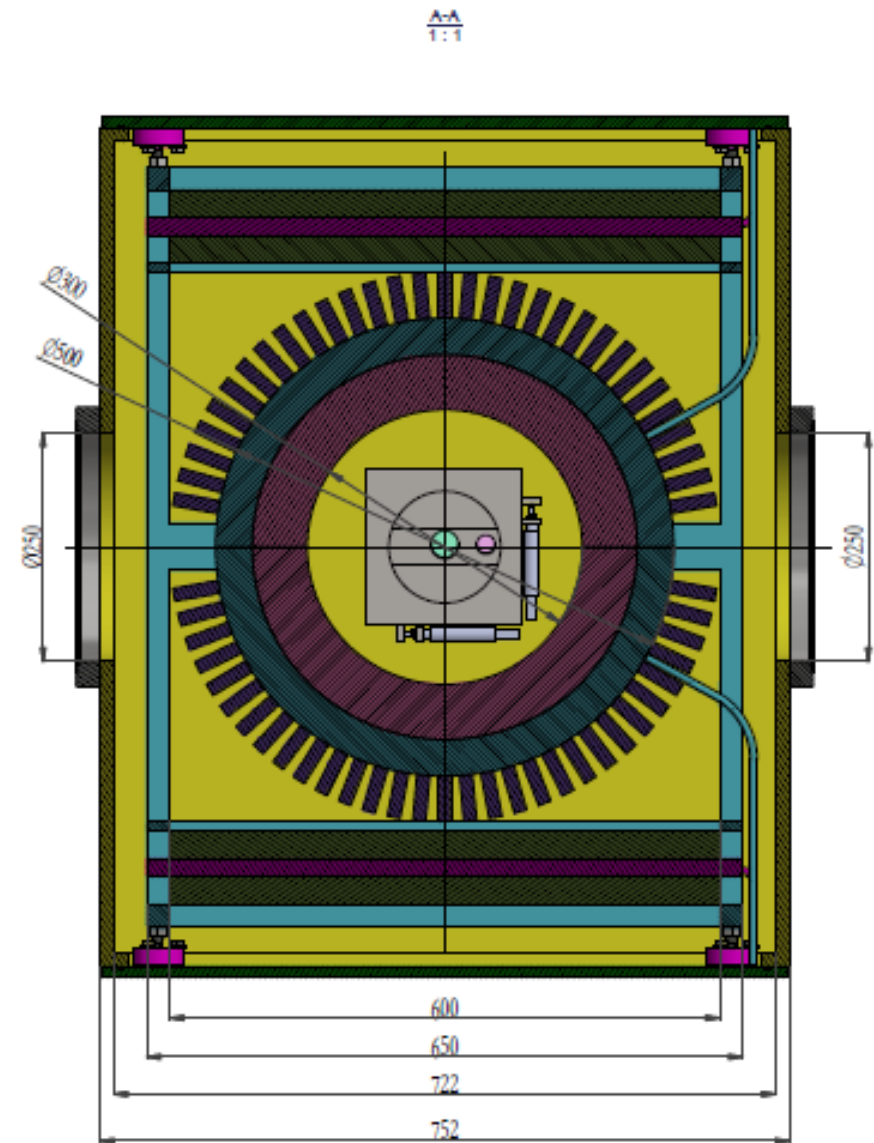
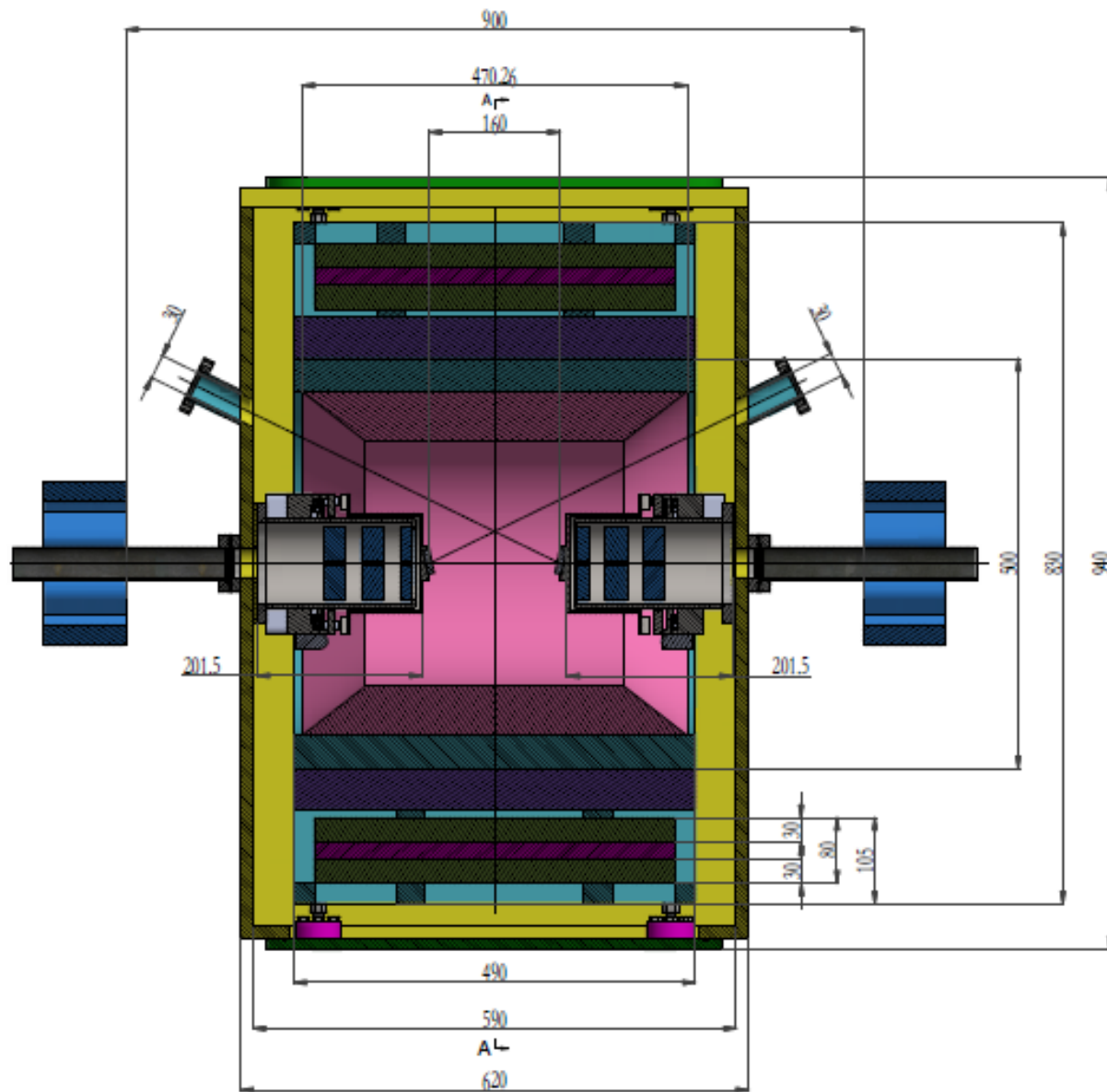
Gradient homogeneity for different distance between the laser hole and beam hole

主要部件之八： MDI (mechine-detector interface)

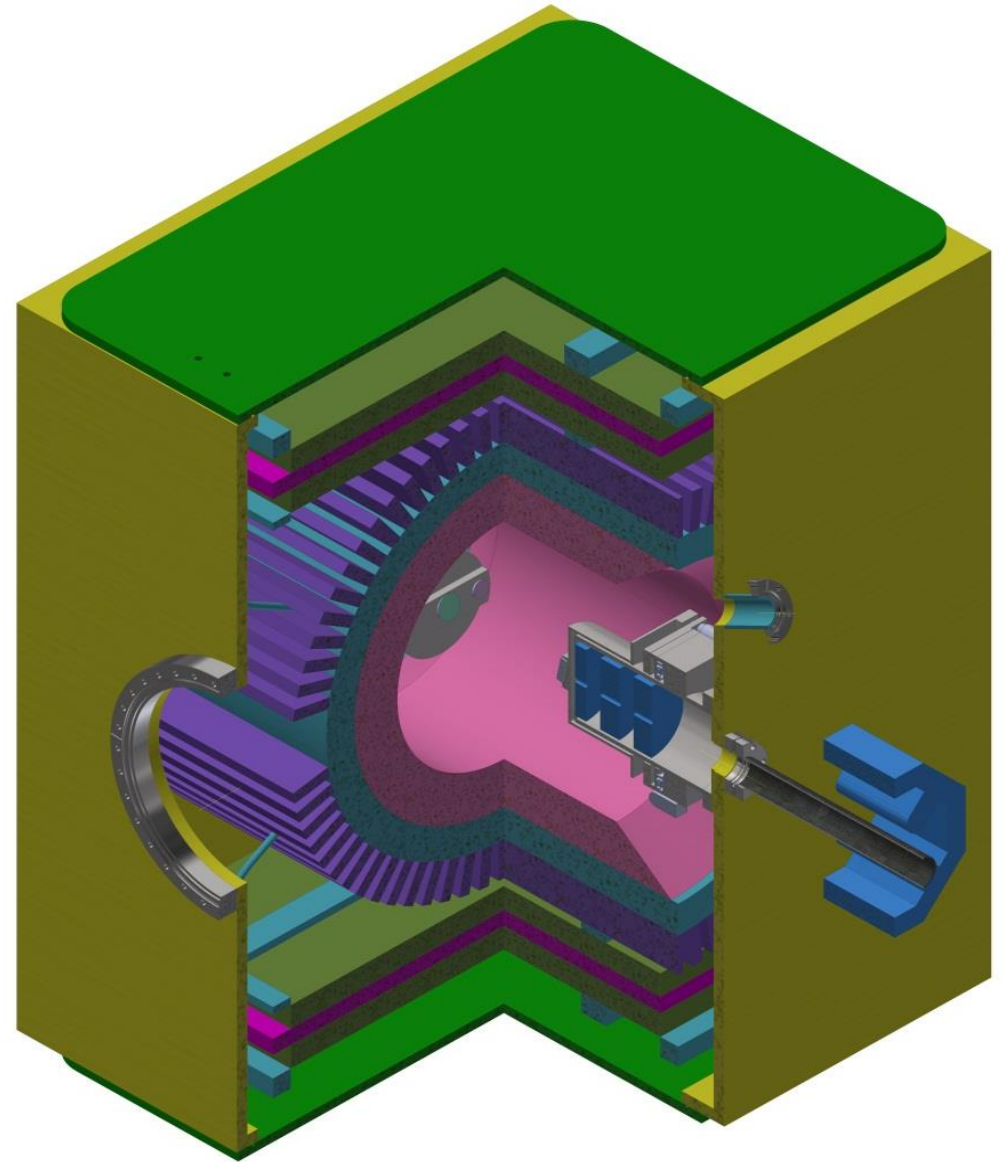
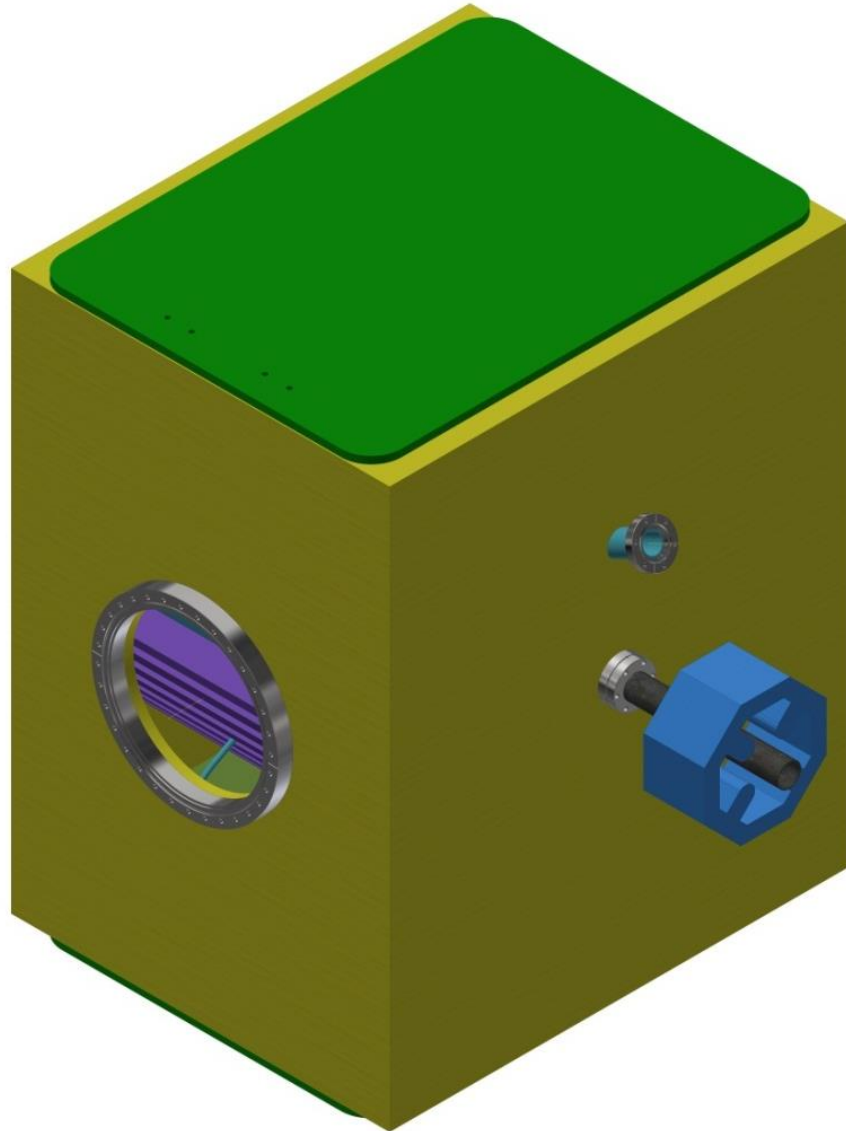
- **探测器+电子学+六块紧聚焦磁铁+两套激光聚焦调节系统+两套水冷系统+真空系统+CP*2+IP+对撞点电子束探测系统**



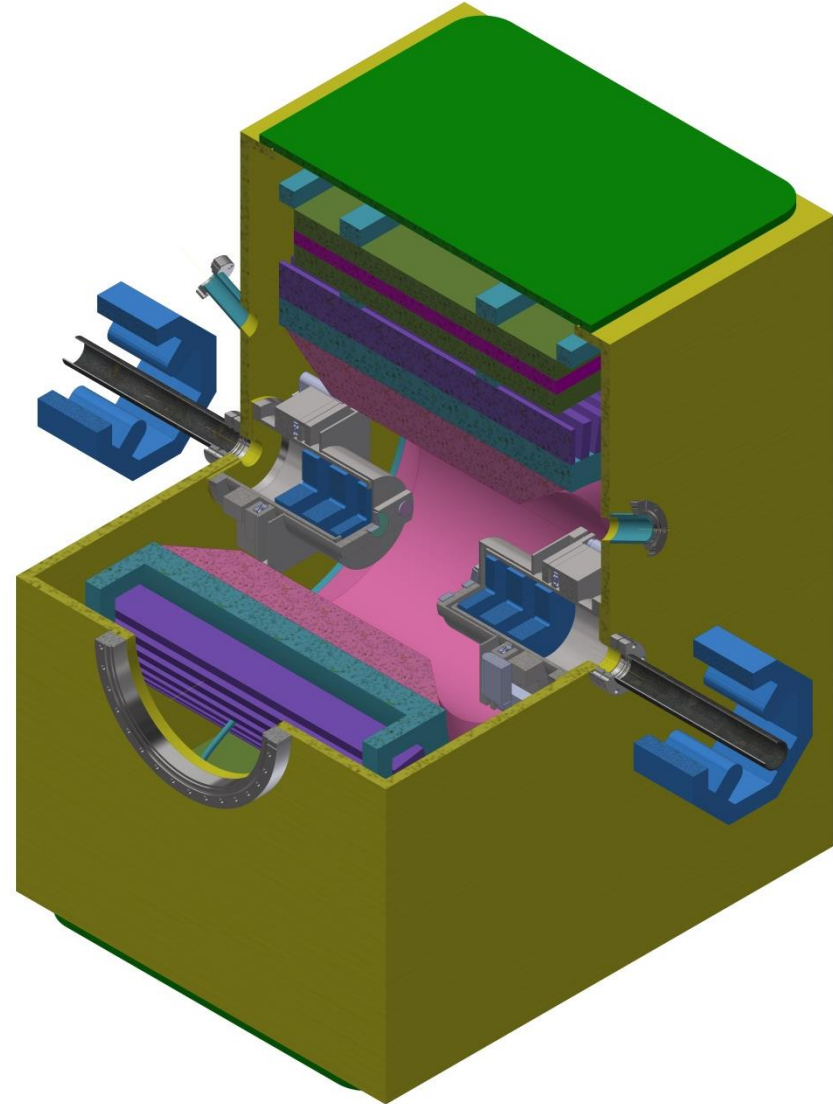
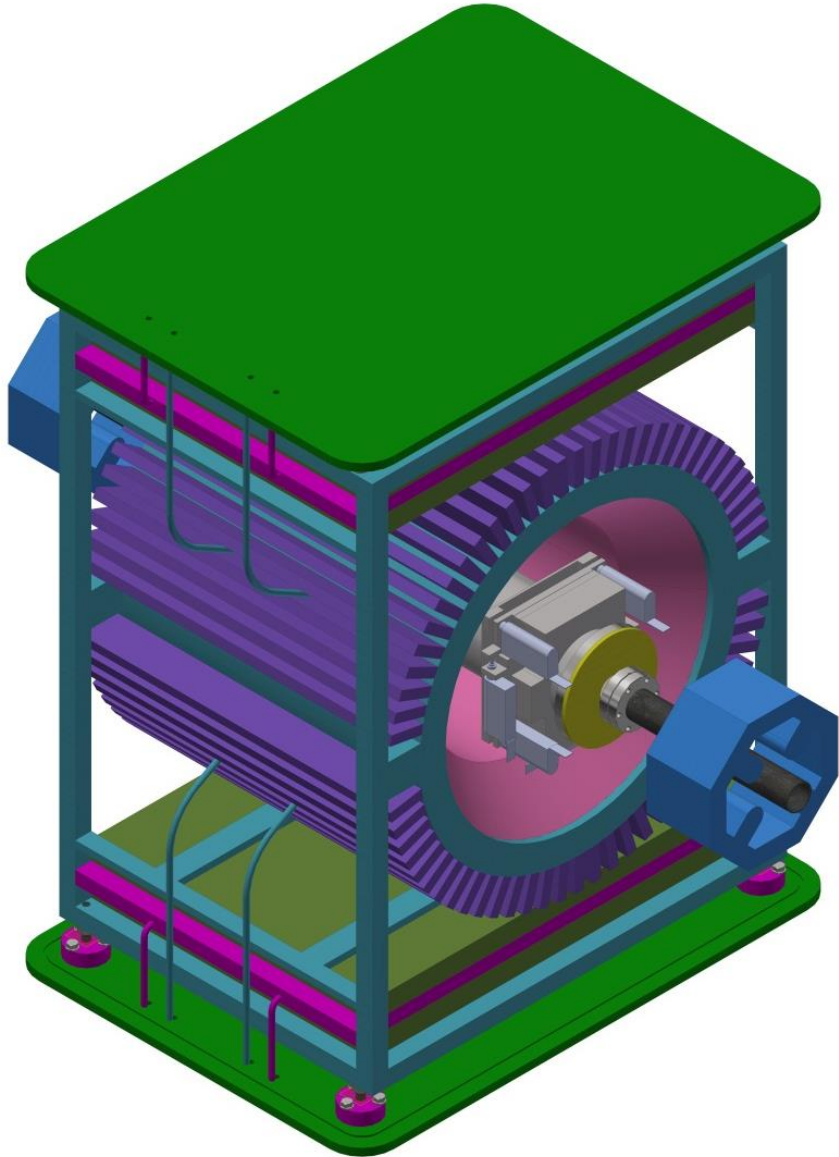
MDI



MDI

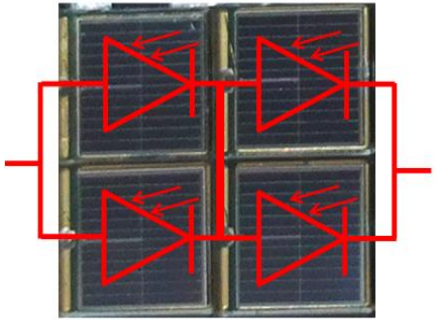
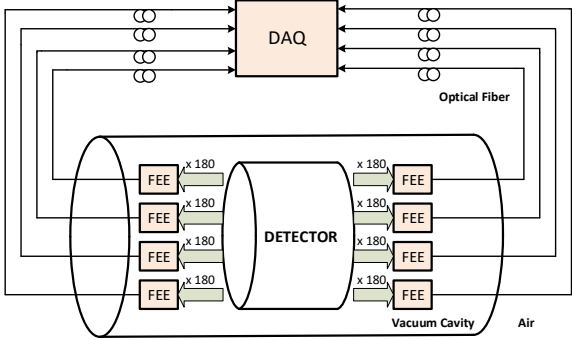
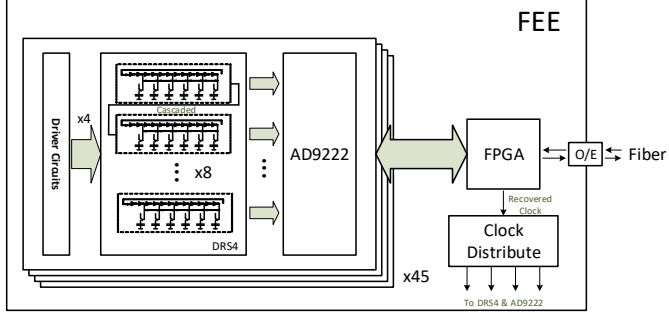
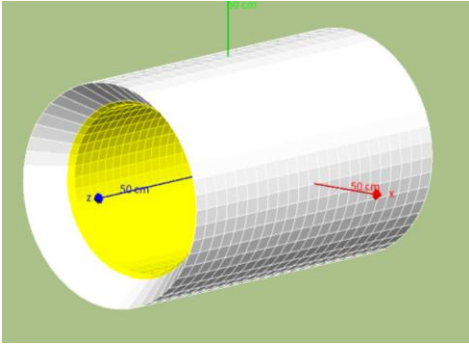


MDI



主要部件之九：探测器与电子学

	data
单元数	1302 (21*62)
探测粒子	e, γ , positron
能区	0.1MeV-2MeV
能量分辨率	7-8%
时间窗口	2微秒
单元角分辨	5.73度
电子学噪声	3mV
信号幅度	10mV-1V
PS (BC-408)	1cm
CsI(Na)	6cm
内径	30cm
外径	44cm
长度	31.92 (内) 47cm(外)
SiPM	1.2cm*1.2cm
荧光波长	420nm
SCA采样频率	1GHz
SCA采样深度	1024*2
死时间	20ms
数据量	1.8Gbps



Channel	Sample Rate	Sample Depth	Power Consumption	Bandwidth
8	0.7~5 GSPS	1024 /channel	17.5 mW/Channel	950 MHz

中山大学理学院主持，国内关键兄弟单位协作，培养世界一流团队



配套总工程师

配套加速器人员

配套超短超强激光实验人员

配套探测器与电子学人员

配套激光电子同步控制

配套探测器数据程序编制和采集后处理

配套产业用户对接人员

目录

1) 为什么要建造伽玛光子对撞机?

2) 如何建造? 关键技术有哪些?

3) 科学意义与应用价值几何?

伽马光子对撞机及综合束流平台

学科优势

- **世界首台**伽玛光子对撞机
- **世界首次**在实验室中观察和测量实光子与实光子之间的对撞和散射
- **世界首次**在实验室中观察和测量从纯能量(γ)到纯物质(e^+e^-)的转化
- 探索**暗光子、光子量子结构、正负电子偶素**等新物理;
- **蕴含并建立**加速器、强激光、核探测器与核电子学、等离子体、材料应用开发、医学物理等**重要学科**

科学前沿应用

- **高亮度伽玛束平台**: γ 静态成像: 6cm厚钢材, 1-5微米分辨率;
 γ 动态成像: 50帧/s, 金属液滴凝固过程, 材料腐蚀过程研究
- **高性能电子束平台**: 材料辐照; 几十fs超快动力学成像; 电子照相
- **强激光等离子体平台**: 强激光与物质相互作用; 高能量密度物理; 惯性约束聚变物理; 超快脉冲中子源 $ps\ 10^{6-7}/s$; 金属材料表面处理

产业化应用延展

- **高亮度单色 γ CT**: 材料无损探伤、医用单色 γ CT, FLASH医疗;
- **强流电子加速器核药制备**: Mo99-Tc99m; Ac226, Cu64, Cu67等;
- 强流电子加速器**FLASH医疗设备**;
- **新型高精度高分辨快速SPECT-CT**: 50微米分辨, $>1000Hz$ 成像频率;
- **桌面化台式x、 γ 光源**;
- **激光脉冲中子源**等。

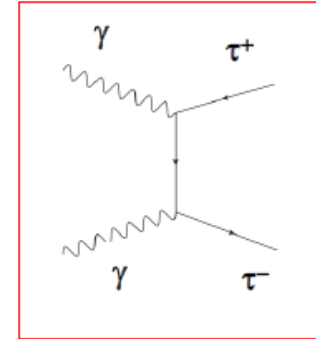
$\gamma\gamma \rightarrow \tau\tau$ (M. Velasco)

Proposal for $\gamma\gamma$ collider at the $\tau\tau$ threshold

$$3.6 \text{ GeV} < E_{\gamma\gamma} < 8 \text{ GeV}$$

$$\text{Or } 2m_{\tau} < E_{\gamma\gamma} < 2m_b$$

Away from bb
thresholds to avoid
contamination from
 B to τ decays



Indirect search
for new physics

- 1. First precise measurement of the $g-2$ of the τ (a_{τ})
 - $\tau\tau\gamma$ vertex
- 2. Improve $g-2$ of the μ (a_{μ}) *
- Hadronic decays of the τ like τ to $\nu_{\tau}\pi^{\pm}\pi^0$

Direct search
for new physics

- 3. Search for lepton flavor violation (i.e. $\tau \rightarrow \mu\gamma, \mu\mu\mu$, etc.) *
- 4. Search for CP and T -Violation in τ measured from dipole moment and rate, angular and polarization asymmetries from τ decays

* Topics part of the Intensity Frontier program in the USA

γ 光子对撞机与 a_μ

郭玉萍

- μ 反常磁矩：实验测量-理论计算 3-4 σ
 - 未来实验测量精度提高4倍 (Fermilab, JPARC)
 - 理论计算精度受限于hadronic贡献（真空极化+光子-光子散射）
- γ 光子对撞机（MeV-GeV）
 - 为光子-光子散射理论计算输入提供新的实验手段
 - 提高强子 $\gamma\gamma$ 衰变分宽度测量精度
 - 利用极化束流提供特定helicity分量 $\gamma\gamma$ 反应截面测量
 - 测量 τ 反常磁矩



香山科學會議
XIANGSHAN SCIENCE CONFERENCES

伽马光子对撞机和相关前沿科学

2018年8月30-31日

中能区的 $\gamma\text{--}\gamma$ 对撞机

Resonance formation from two real photon collisions

$Q = 0$, $C = +$, $J^P = 0^+, 0^-, 2^+, 2^-, 3^+, 4^+, 4^-, 5^+ \dots (\text{even})^\pm, (\text{odd} \neq 1)^+$

Example: $\gamma\gamma \rightarrow \eta_b$.

There was attempt to detect this process at LEP-2 ($2E=200$ GeV, $L=10^{32}$, but only upper limit was set.

$$N = \frac{dL_{\gamma\gamma}}{dW_{\gamma\gamma}} \frac{4\pi^2 \Gamma_{\gamma\gamma} (1 + \lambda_1 \lambda_2)}{M_x^2} \left(\frac{\hbar}{c} \right)^2 t$$

For our collider $\frac{dL_{\gamma\gamma} 2E_0}{dW_{\gamma\gamma} L_{ee}} \simeq 0.5$, so

$$N \sim \frac{\pi^2 \Gamma_{\gamma\gamma} (1 + \lambda_1 \lambda_2)}{E_0 M_x^2} \left(\frac{\hbar}{c} \right)^2 (L_{ee} t) \sim 8 \cdot 10^{-27} \frac{\Gamma_{\gamma\gamma}}{E_0 M_x^2 [\text{GeV}^2]} (L_{ee} t)$$

For $\Gamma_{\gamma\gamma}(\eta_b) = 0.5$ keV, $E_0 = 17.5$ GeV, $M(\eta_b) = 9.4$ GeV, $\lambda_{1,2} = 1$, $L_{ee} = 1.1 \cdot 10^{33} - 2.2 \cdot 10^{34}$,

$t = 3 \cdot 10^7$ s

we get $N(\eta_b) \approx 10^5 - 2 \cdot 10^6$ and measure its $\Gamma_{\gamma\gamma}$

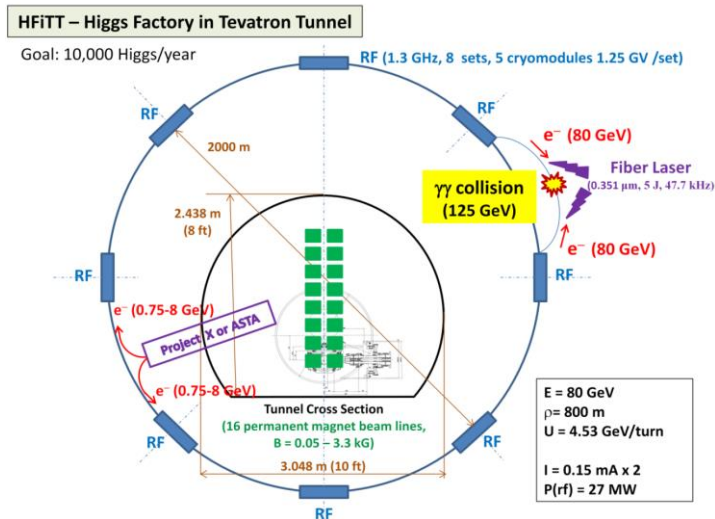
Production rate is higher than was at LEP-2 (in central region) $\sim 500 - 10^4$ times!

Such photon collider has very rich physics, incl. 4-quark (or molecular) states. Many such states with unclear nature have been discovered recently.

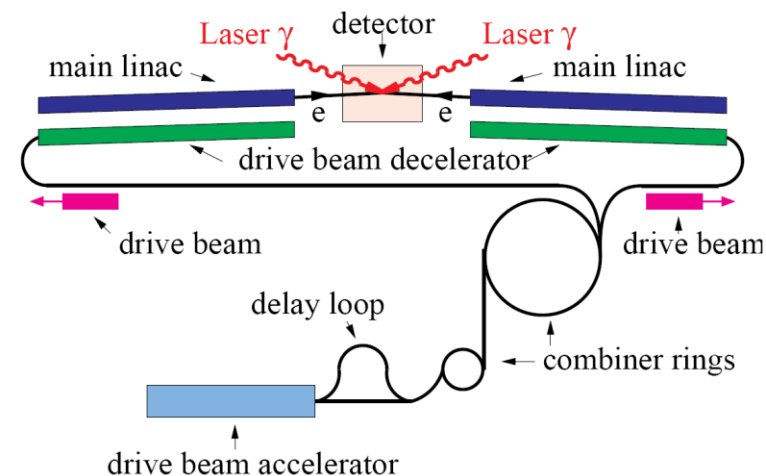
Just for information. η_b is detected in radiative decays of $Y(nS)$. Babar has detected ~ 30000 η_b , this was not sufficient to detect its decay to $\gamma\gamma$, because $\text{Br} \sim 7 \cdot 10^{-5}$. Such decay can be observed at Super-B. LHC with 300 fb^{-1} will produce $5 \cdot 10^9$ η_b .

高能区的 γ - γ 对撞机

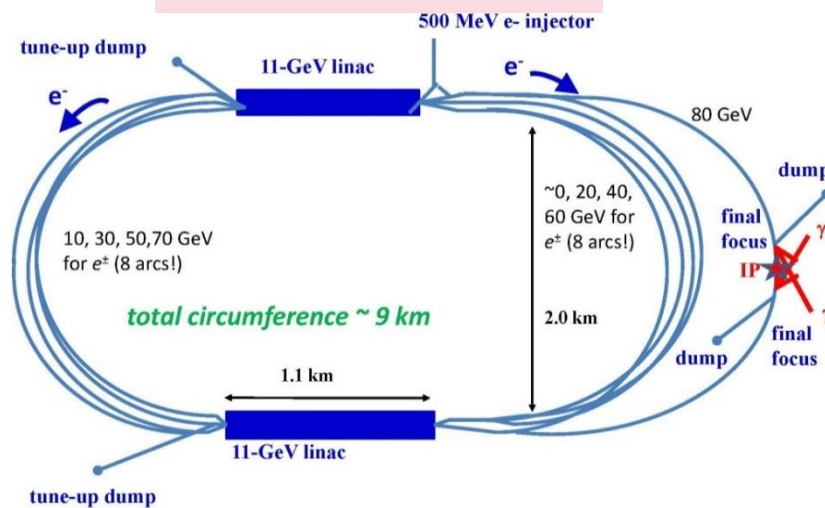
HFITT



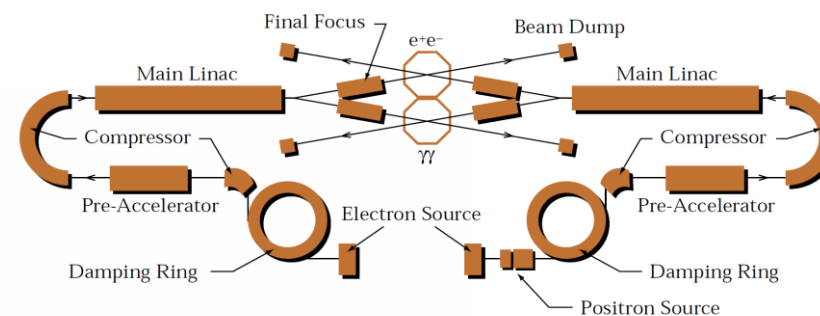
CLIC-based



SAPPHiRE



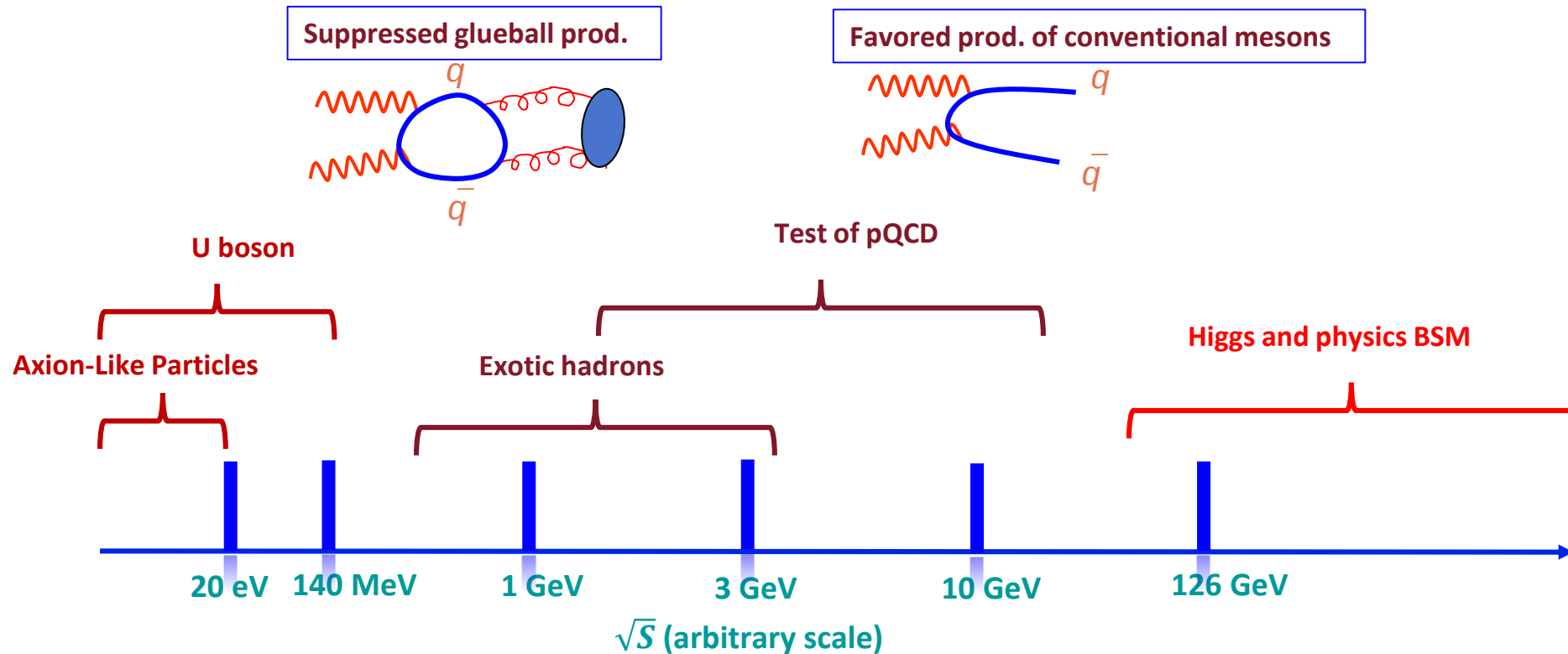
X band-based



Rich physics can be accessed by the gamma-gamma collider

赵强

For instance, the long-standing glueball puzzle can be possibly resolved with the help of data from $\gamma\gamma$ collisions. Glueball productions in $\gamma\gamma$ collisions would be highly suppressed. Comparison between meson spectra in e.g. J/ψ radiative decays at BESIII and in $\gamma\gamma$ collisions can pin down the glueball components within hadrons.



伽马光子对撞机：唯象学与新物理

张昊

与光子耦合的新物理共振态

新物理 矢量粒子

与标准模型费米子无耦合的轻 Z'
(dark photon?
轻共振态?)

$$\begin{aligned}\gamma\gamma &\rightarrow e^+e^-Z' \rightarrow e^+e^- + (f\bar{f}, 3\gamma, \cancel{E}, \dots) \\ \gamma\gamma &\rightarrow \gamma Z' \rightarrow \gamma + (f\bar{f}, 3\gamma, \cancel{E}, \dots)\end{aligned}$$

新物理 标量粒子

额外标量场的实标量自由度, 如
NMSSM中的轻
额外Higgs玻色子

$$\begin{aligned}\gamma\gamma &\rightarrow S^*(S = h_3^0, a^0, A) \rightarrow X \\ \gamma\gamma &\rightarrow S^*(S = h_3^0, a^0, A) \rightarrow 2\gamma\end{aligned}$$

新物理 赝标量粒子

额外标量场的赝标量自由度, 如
NMSSM中的 a^0 ;
轴子 (Axion)

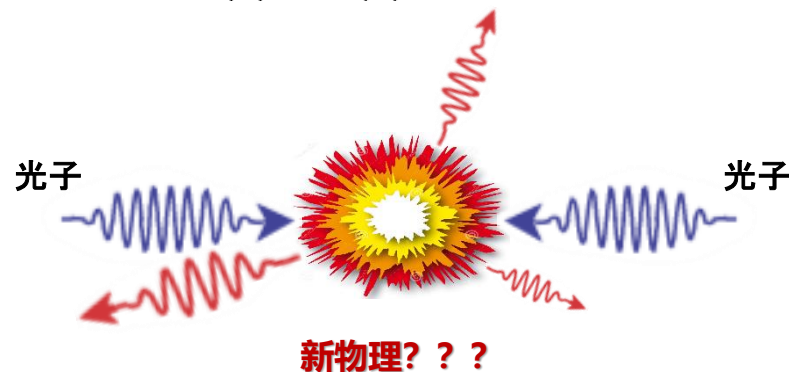
非共振态新物理

波恩-英菲尔德 (Born-Infeld) 作用量

与开弦耦合的阿贝尔规范场的低能有效拉氏量

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L}_{BI} &= -\Lambda^4 \left[\sqrt{-\det\left(g_{\mu\nu} + \frac{F_{\mu\nu}}{\Lambda^2}\right)} - \sqrt{-\det(g_{\mu\nu})} \right] \\ &= -\frac{1}{4}F_{\mu\nu}F^{\mu\nu} + \frac{1}{32\Lambda^4} \left[(F_{\mu\nu}F^{\mu\nu})^2 + (F_{\mu\nu}\tilde{F}^{\mu\nu})^2 \right] + \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{\Lambda^8}\right)\end{aligned}$$

$$\gamma\gamma \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$$



总体发展规划：产学研医一体化协同发展



1、2022-2023：扬帆起航—— 120MeV电子直线加速器

推动立项：为整个项目立项奠定坚实基础，为争取**教育部、广东省以及深圳市立项经费**提供重要支撑

学科建设：推进**加速器物理与设计、医学物理、材料相关学科建设与交叉融合**，可筹建**省市重点实验室**

凝聚队伍：平台集聚相关人才，培养**加速器以及医学物理、材料相关人才**

促进融资：作为**闪存医疗关键原理验证样机**，可启动**天使轮以及Pre-A轮融资**，促进**高端医疗设备研发**，成立**地校联合实验室**



2、2024-2025：扎实推进—— 建成单条高亮度伽玛束线

基本立项：基本完成**整个项目2/3设备建设**

学科融合：**光核物理、材料应用、医学物理等深度融合发展**，积极促进**深圳新医科新工科建设**

育才引才：全面**推进**，**一流人才队伍建设逐步成形**，拥有**数学、物理、材料、医学交叉融合的高端人才库**

产业化进一步推进：**高亮度伽玛CT：材料无损探伤、高精度生物（整个人体器官）诊断**，启动**新产业化路径融资**，推进**服务高端制造以及材料相关监测设备的研发**成立**地校联合实验室**



3、2027：开花结果——建成 世界首台伽玛光子对撞机

三个世界首次：世界首台，世界首次**光光弹散实验**，世界首次**双实光子BW过程实验验证**

世界一流学科：粒子物理领域、材料应用、医学物理，多学科融合发展，建成**世界一流学科平台**

人才高地：培育**世界一流核科学技术人才**，站在**领域前沿**

产业化进一步推进：闪存医疗设备、高精度伽玛监测设备（或CT），高精度全新SPECT-CT等，服务国家高端制造、人民健康，实现**产学研医一体化健康发展**，**打造中国的MIT、斯坦福**，北有**清华工物系**，南有**中大理学院（产学研一体化标杆）**

项目执行进展—场地准备：选址和效果图

- **新的场地解决方案：**在光明区找场地建设“伽玛光子对撞机”装置楼



空间结构示意图



项目执行进展—场地准备：场地参数

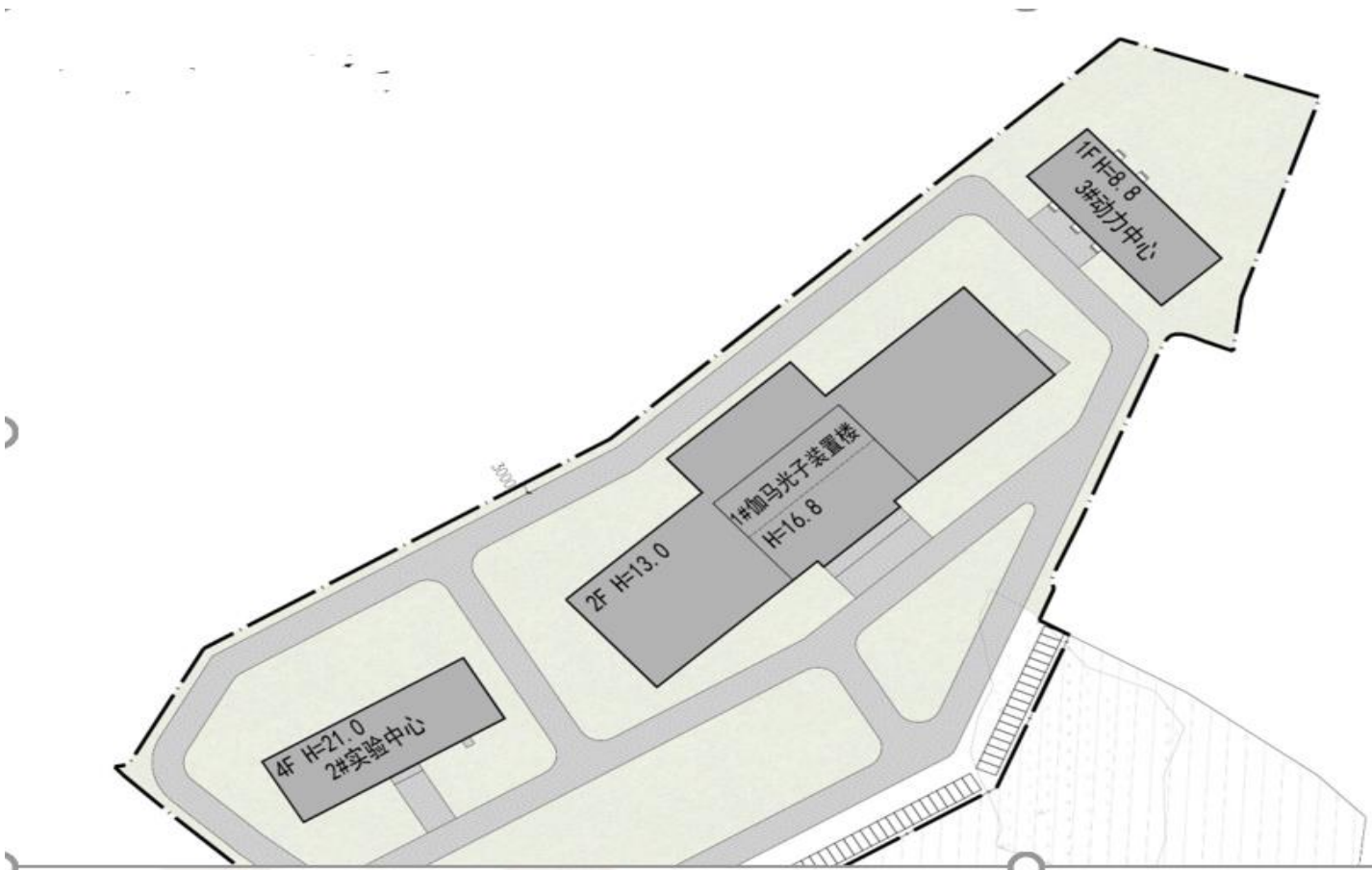
主要技术经济指标表

名称		单位	规划指标
总用地面积		m²	43256
建筑基底面积		m²	7726
总建筑面积		m²	12223
其中	地上	m²	12223
	地下	m²	0
容积率		—	0.29
建筑密度		%	17.86%
绿地面积		m²	15140
绿地率		%	35.00
停车位(地上机动车)		个	73

建筑单体面积明细表

名称	建筑 面积(m²)	建筑 层数	建筑 高度(m)
1#伽马光子装置楼	6173	1F/2F	16.8
2#实验中心	5000	4F	21.0
3#动力中心	1050	1F	8.8
合计	12223		

装置楼建设经费：约1亿元（需从深圳市政府争取）



资金+场地需求

- **伽玛光子设备造价：2.0亿：** 教育部已批复一期资金7786万，其中3800万学校已自筹支持；
- **场地基建费用1.0亿元；** 场地需求8000平米左右；
- **产业化资金需求：第一期1.0亿元**
(包括产品1:1000万；产品2:4000万；产品3：5000万)，用于样机测试、关键技术迭代升级和部分动物实验。





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微信公众号



中山大学人才发展办公室
微信公众号



中山大学人才招聘
微信小程序

扫一扫上面的二维码图案，加我为朋友。

Thank You For Your Attention!