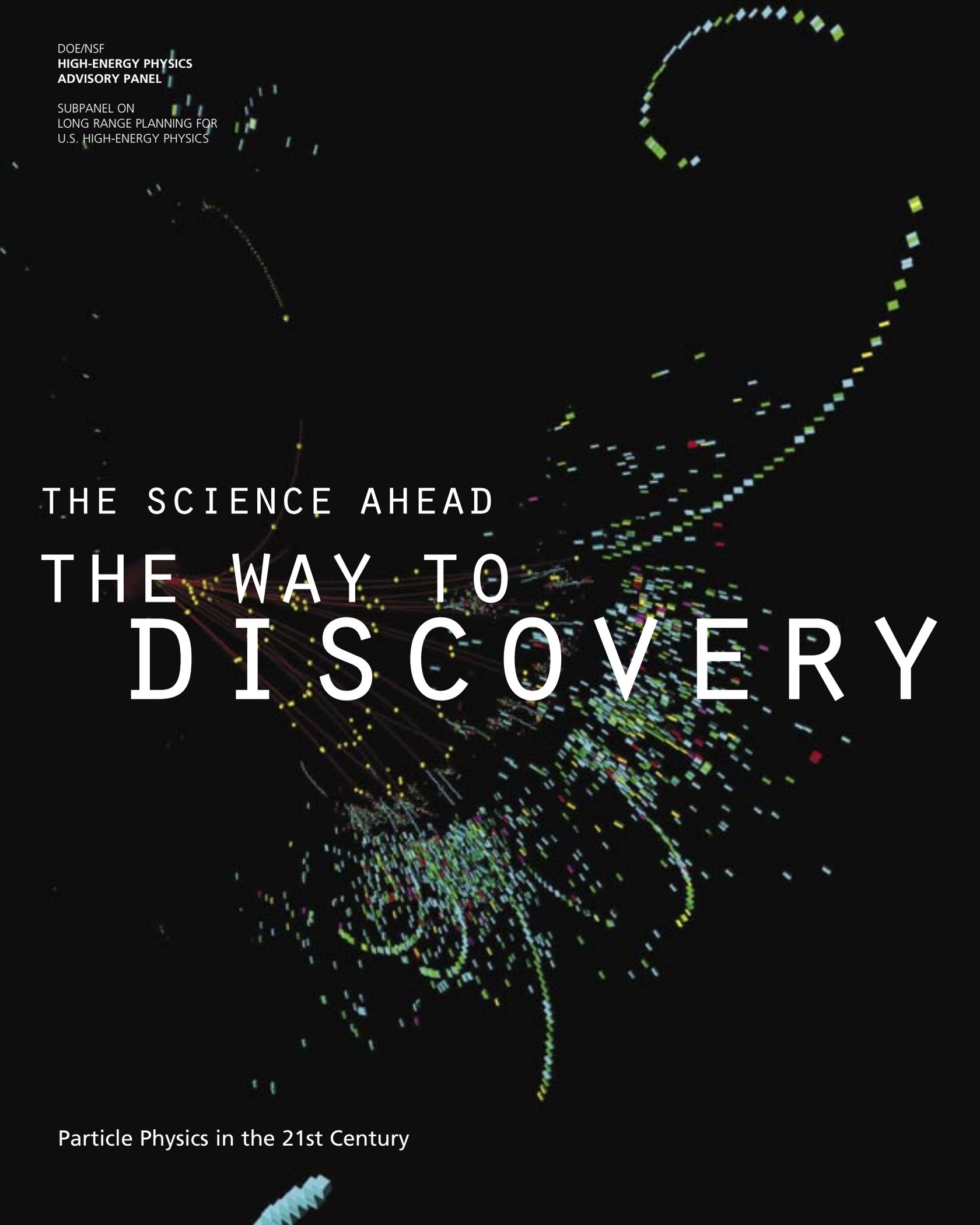


DOE/NSF
HIGH-ENERGY PHYSICS
ADVISORY PANEL

SUBPANEL ON
LONG RANGE PLANNING FOR
U.S. HIGH-ENERGY PHYSICS

An abstract visualization of particle tracks, likely from a particle detector. The tracks are composed of small, multi-colored squares (green, blue, yellow, red) connected by thin lines, forming complex, branching patterns against a black background. The tracks appear to originate from a central point and spread outwards, resembling a particle decay or a complex network of interactions.

THE SCIENCE AHEAD
THE WAY TO
DISCOVERY

Particle Physics in the 21st Century

DOE/NSF
**HIGH-ENERGY PHYSICS
ADVISORY PANEL**

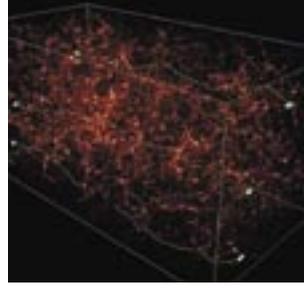
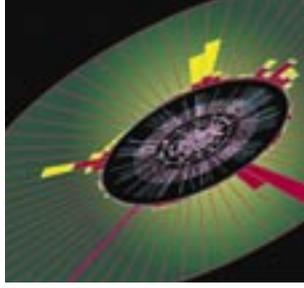
SUBPANEL ON
LONG RANGE PLANNING FOR
U.S. HIGH-ENERGY PHYSICS

THE SCIENCE AHEAD

THE WAY TO
DISCOVERY

Particle Physics in the 21st Century

This Page, L-R: 1) Numerical simulation showing distribution of dark matter in the universe. The box is one billion light years in length. *Credit: Max Planck Institute for Astrophysics* 2) Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory physicist Natalie Roe with silicon strip detector for the BaBar experiment at the Stanford Linear Accelerator Center. *Credit: SLAC* 3) Graphical interpretation of top quark event from Fermilab's CDF detector. *Credit: Fermilab*



EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Particle physics stands at the threshold of a new era of discovery. As experiments peer deeper and deeper into the heart of matter, they open strange new worlds and striking new vistas on the cosmos. They begin to address the most human of questions: Where did we come from? Where are we going? Particle physics is a grand adventure, a journey into the great unknown. It explores the frontiers of matter, energy, space and time, much like the early pioneers who explored a great new nation, 200 years ago.

Why should we study a world so removed, so different from our own? The reasons are the same as for the exploration of space, the sea, or any other new frontier. In a sense, the journey is an end to itself. From Lewis and Clark to Shepard and Glenn, we have explored new territories because it is exciting and challenging, and a part of what defines our humanity.

Today, we also recognize the role that science and technology have played in creating and defending the open and advanced society that we cherish. The U.S. Commission on National Security/21st Century has emphasized the extent to which national security rests on the strength of our scientific and technological base. Particle physics is very much a part of this overall fabric of science, drawing on discoveries in some areas and enabling progress in others. In particular, we advance the frontiers of science, push the outermost envelope of technology, and educate highly skilled members of our national workforce.

From past explorations, we have learned much about the basic constituents of matter. During the past ten years, we discovered the top quark—the last quark, a quark as heavy as

an atom of gold. We learned that neutrinos have mass, and that they change their identities over time. We confirmed electroweak unification to extraordinary accuracy, measured the matter-antimatter asymmetry in quark systems, and studied the interactions of quarks and gluons.

These discoveries were made by experiments in laboratories around the world. They were done by international collaborations that benefited from extensive cross-fertilization of ideas and techniques. They revealed a complex microphysical world, but one we can now describe by a surprisingly simple mathematical theory. These discoveries enabled the creation of a quantum theory of elementary particles that will stand as one of the lasting achievements of the twentieth century.

As a result of these discoveries, we have reached the point where we are beginning to understand the fundamental principles that govern the subatomic world. During the next few years, we will press our journey at the CERN LHC, an accelerator that will open a new era in particle physics. Its energy, almost ten times larger than the Fermilab Tevatron, will allow us to examine the very fabric of space and time. Theoretical developments suggest that the LHC could reveal entirely new dimensions of space. Where are they? What are their sizes and shapes? Why are they hidden? During the next decade, such questions will move from science fiction to science fact.

Experiments on the horizon will bring new revelations about the microphysical structure of elementary particles. Theories such as supersymmetry and superstrings suggest vast new worlds that will be accessible at the LHC. They point to the unification of forces and the realization of Einstein's dreams.

Front Cover: Simulated response of linear collider detector to the associated production of a Higgs particle and a Z boson. High resolution tracking devices and an imaging calorimeter allow the full history of each event to be reconstructed.
Credit: Norman Graf

Below: TOP: Graduate student Michel Sorel, working at Fermilab from the University of Bologna. Credit: Fermilab BOTTOM: High school summer student at Fermilab. Credit: Fermilab

Astronomical observations provide clues to the Big Bang. They suggest that the universe is filled with dark matter and dark energy, unlike anything we have seen before. What is dark matter? What is dark energy? Particle accelerators hold the promise to create dark matter here on Earth. What is the fate of the universe? Dark matter pulls the universe together, but dark energy may drive it apart. Which way will it go?

Questions abound: Where is the antimatter? Why are there no antistars or antiplanets? Why do particles change their identities? Do the constants of nature change with time? Are protons forever?

Experiments in progress and under development offer the potential to answer these questions, and to reshape our view of matter and energy, space and time. Technological breakthroughs—superconductivity, nanotechnology, new accelerators, and information technology—offer the means to explore these frontiers. The future is very bright.

Recommendation One

We recommend that the United States take steps to remain a world leader in the vital and exciting field of particle physics, through a broad program of research focused on the frontiers of matter, energy, space and time.

The U.S. has achieved its leadership position through the generous support of the American people. We renew and reaffirm our commitment to return full value for the considerable investment made by our fellow citizens. This commitment includes, but is not limited to, sharing our intellectual insights through education and outreach, providing highly trained scientific and technical manpower to help drive the economy, and developing new technologies that foster the health, wealth and security of our nation and of society at large.



1

Galaxy UGC 10214, the "Tadpole," photographed by the Advanced Camera for Surveys aboard NASA's Hubble Space Telescope. The Tadpole resides about 420 million light-years away in the constellation Draco. Credit: NASA, H. Ford (JHU), G. Illingsworth (USC/SDO), M. Clampin (STScI), G. Hartig (STScI), the ACS Science Team, and ESA

"Every cubic inch of space is a miracle."

-Walt Whitman

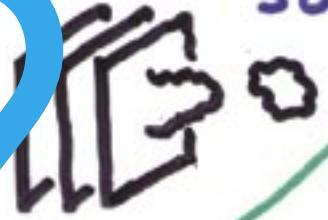
SUPERSTRING

M-theory heterotic

G_2 holonomy $E_6 \times E_6$

Type-IIA Type-I
 $SO(32)$

Type IIB



E_6 Grand Unification
 $SO(10)$
supergravity

Matter
Anti-matter
Asymmetry
 CP

QUANTUM DIMENSIONS
(Supersymmetry)

NOT YET THOUGH OF
Little Higgs
Composit Higgs

BLACK HOLE



Dark Energy

Gaugino Mediation

Flavor

Gauge Mediation

HIDDEN DIMENSIONS

Anomaly Mediation

DARK MATTER

NOT YET

THOUGHT OF

$\delta=7$

$\delta=6$

$\delta=4$

$\delta=3$

$\delta=2$

$\delta=1$

Scherk-Schwarz

orbifold

NOT YET



RS II

One physicist's schematic view of particle physics in the 21st century.
Credit: Hitoshi Murayama

Our subpanel is charged with charting a twenty-year future for U.S. particle physics. We have had extensive discussions among ourselves, as well as with physicists at home and overseas. We received many thoughtful letters from our colleagues that were helpful in our deliberations. We found general agreement that our field has broadened to include overlapping areas of astrophysics, cosmology and nuclear physics, and that we should foster partnerships with scientists in these fields. There is a strong worldwide consensus that particle physics will require new frontier accelerators, as well as a carefully chosen set of initiatives using other techniques.

In this report we develop a roadmap for particle physics. This roadmap provides an overview of the field, as well as an outline of the steps we must take to reach our goals. The map is based on the best information available at the present time. It is built on fully exploiting our investment in the LHC and our ongoing program. It will need to be periodically updated to reflect new ideas, discoveries and technological developments in the worldwide scientific program.

Our roadmap reflects the fact that our scientific goals can be best achieved using a variety of scientific techniques. Our science requires forefront accelerators at the energy and luminosity frontiers. But it also requires innovative experiments in space, underground, and away from accelerators. It needs a balanced approach that capitalizes on our increasingly important links to astrophysics, cosmology and nuclear physics. A strong university program is fundamental to our field. Universities train the next generation of scientists. They provide breadth, leadership, a platform for education and outreach, and the opportunity to connect with scientists in other fields.

We recognize that this program demands sound management. The roadmap will help in this process because it highlights the tradeoffs and opportunity costs associated with the decisions we make. The scale of our science has grown to the point where we need a new mechanism to set priorities across the program. In this report we propose such a mechanism. It is important that we set priorities: our compact with the American people demands no less.

Below: TOP: Interior of the spherical detector of Fermilab's MiniBooNE experiment, lined with 1,520 photomultiplier tubes. Credit: Fermilab BOTTOM: Photomultiplier tube from the MiniBooNE experiment. Credit: Fermilab

Recommendation Two

We recommend a twenty-year roadmap for our field to chart our steps on the frontiers of matter, energy, space and time. The map will evolve with time to reflect new scientific opportunities, as well as developments within the international community. It will drive our choice of the next major facility and allow us to craft a balanced program to maximize scientific opportunity.

We recommend a new mechanism to update the roadmap and set priorities across the program. We understand that this will require hard choices to select which projects to begin and which to phase out. Factors that must be considered include the potential scientific payoff, cost and technical feasibility, balance and diversity, and the way any proposed new initiative fits into the global structure of the field.



Below: TOP: Graphical simulation of particle collision in the proposed TESLA detector. Credit: DESY. BOTTOM: Precision copper disks, components of accelerating structure for a proposed linear collider. Credit: SLAC

The roadmap begins with thorough exploration of the TeV energy scale. The exploration will begin, but not end, with the CERN LHC. There is now a worldwide consensus, reflected in recent reports by the Asian and European Committees on Future Accelerators, and by this subpanel, that a high-energy, high-luminosity, electron-positron linear collider is the most important new initiative for our field. The LHC and the linear collider are both essential to discover and understand the new physics at this scale. A coherent approach, exploiting the strengths of both machines, will maximize the scientific contribution of each.

For many years, vigorous R&D programs in Asia, Europe and the United States have been aimed at designing such a machine. The challenges were daunting: devising a way to accelerate electrons and positrons to enormous energies and

then collide them in beams a thousand times smaller than a human hair. Recent successes have brought us to the point where we have confidence that this accelerator can be built. The linear collider is the next big step for particle physics.

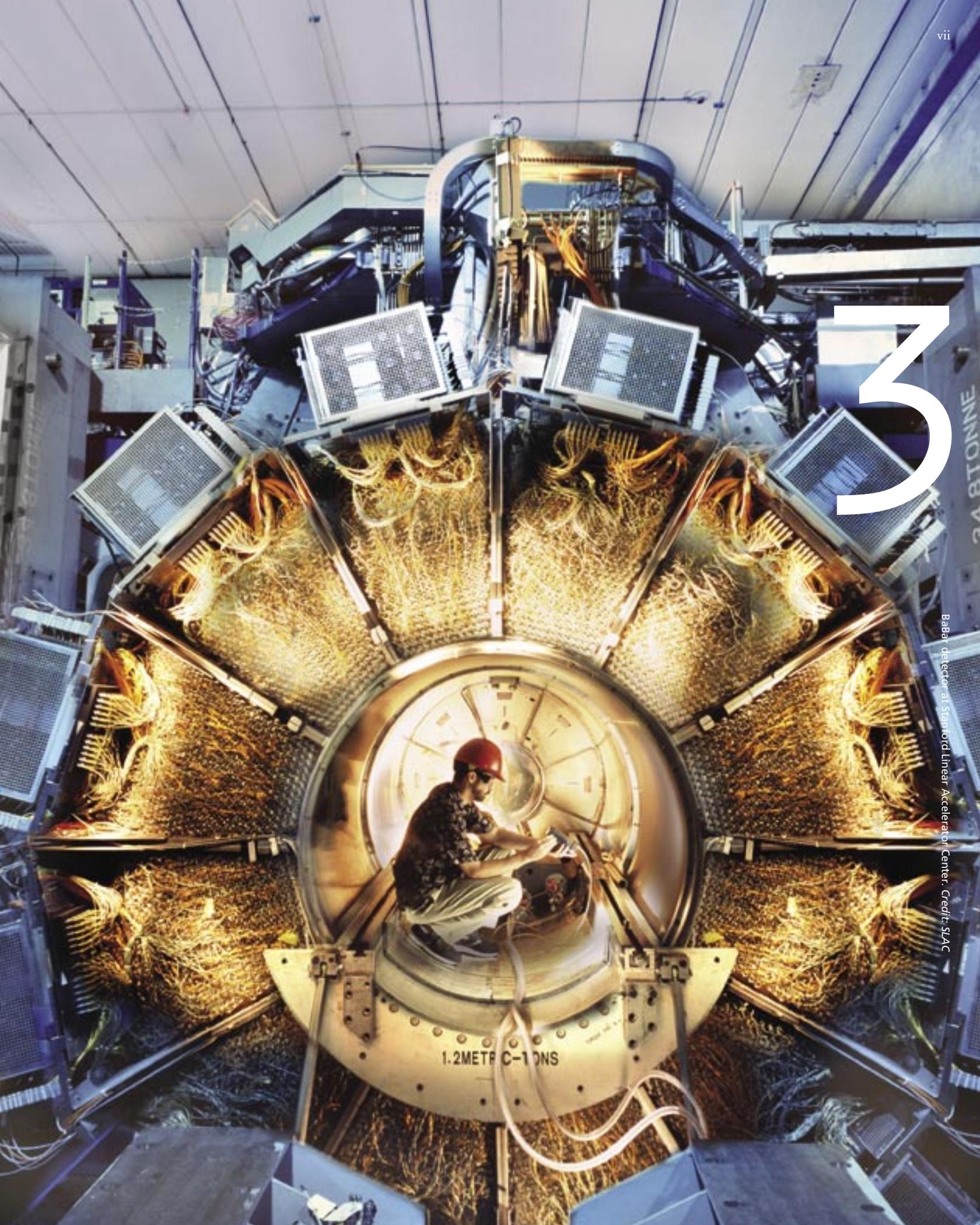
Physicists in Germany and Japan are making serious efforts to have their countries host the linear collider. The project is so complex and costly, however, that just one should be built in the world. The project must be realized by an extensive international collaboration. Such a worldwide effort will require a partnership agreement that satisfies the participating governments and creates an organization capable of developing and managing the construction and operation of this challenging forefront scientific facility, as well as meeting the scientific aspirations of all the participating countries.

Recommendation Three

We recommend that the highest priority of the U.S. program be a high-energy, high-luminosity, electron-positron linear collider, wherever it is built in the world. This facility is the next major step in the field and should be designed, built and operated as a fully international effort.

We also recommend that the United States take a leadership position in forming the international collaboration needed to develop a final design, build and operate this machine. The U.S. participation should be undertaken as a partnership between DOE and NSF, with the full involvement of the entire particle physics community. We urge the immediate creation of a steering group to coordinate all U.S. efforts toward a linear collider.





3

BABAR detector at Stanford Linear Accelerator Center. Credit: SLAC

1.2MTR C-10NS



Members of Fermilab's D0 collaboration. Credit: Fermilab

A linear collider will involve international participation and contributions, redirection of resources from the host country, and incremental funding, which will be greater if the facility is located in the United States. There are strong reasons for hosting the linear collider in the U.S. This nation would become the center of activity for one of the greatest scientific projects of our time. The machine and its discoveries would excite the imaginations of our children and grandchildren, helping to produce a future generation of scientists and those who appreciate science. Moreover, the U.S. would recapture a greater portion of its economic investment through jobs and technological benefits.

The linear collider would be an exciting opportunity for the United States, and a flagship facility for the 21st century. It could be a centerpiece of a national effort to boost the physical sciences. In partnership with the broader scientific community,

an X-ray free electron laser facility could be included in the project, providing a brilliant, coherent fourth-generation light source with femtosecond time resolution. Such a facility could open important new areas of research across many sciences, including the life and environmental sciences, as well as physics and chemistry.

Major scientific projects of the future must be increasingly international. A linear collider facility will require a new approach to planning, collaboration and management on a worldwide scale. Hosting this project would allow the United States to become a leader in forging this new way of doing science, and advancing international cooperation and progress. We fully expect that facilities directed at other parts of our roadmap will be developed abroad, and present reciprocal opportunities for realizing the goals of the U.S. program.

Below: TOP: Technician Kathleen Ratcliffe working on the Next Linear Collider Test Accelerator at SLAC. Credits: SLAC. BOTTOM: University physics graduates at Fermilab. Credit: Fermilab

Recommendation Four

We recommend that the United States prepare to bid to host the linear collider, in a facility that is international from the inception, with a broad mandate in fundamental physics research and accelerator development. We believe that the intellectual, educational and societal benefits make this a wise investment of our nation's resources.

We envision financing the linear collider through a combination of international partnerships, use of existing resources, and incremental project support. If it is built in the U.S., the linear collider should be sited to take full advantage of the resources and infrastructure available at SLAC and Fermilab.



Below: TOP: Scintillating plastic fibers, key components of particle detectors. CREDIT: Fermilab. BOTTOM: Gas microstrip chambers on silicon, microcomponents of Fermilab's D0 experiment. CREDIT: Fermilab

The long-range future of particle physics will certainly require pushing the energy frontier beyond the LHC and the linear collider. This appears feasible if the enabling R&D is carried out on a worldwide basis. A large hadron collider, well beyond LHC energies, is a long-term goal that will require new ideas and technological developments. A multi-TeV lepton collider is even more challenging technically. To ensure future discoveries, the field must increase its effort on long-term accelerator and detector R&D, as well as in information technology and tools.

While research on accelerators, detectors and information technology is critical to progress in the field, it also has broader benefits for society. Medical technology routinely uses particles and particle detectors to see inside patients and diagnose their ailments. Particle beams themselves can effectively treat certain types of cancer. The World Wide Web was conceived at CERN to facilitate particle physics collaboration across the globe. In general, particle physics projects push technology to the state-of-the-art and beyond; this helps industry improve its capabilities, which later leads to advances in commercial products.

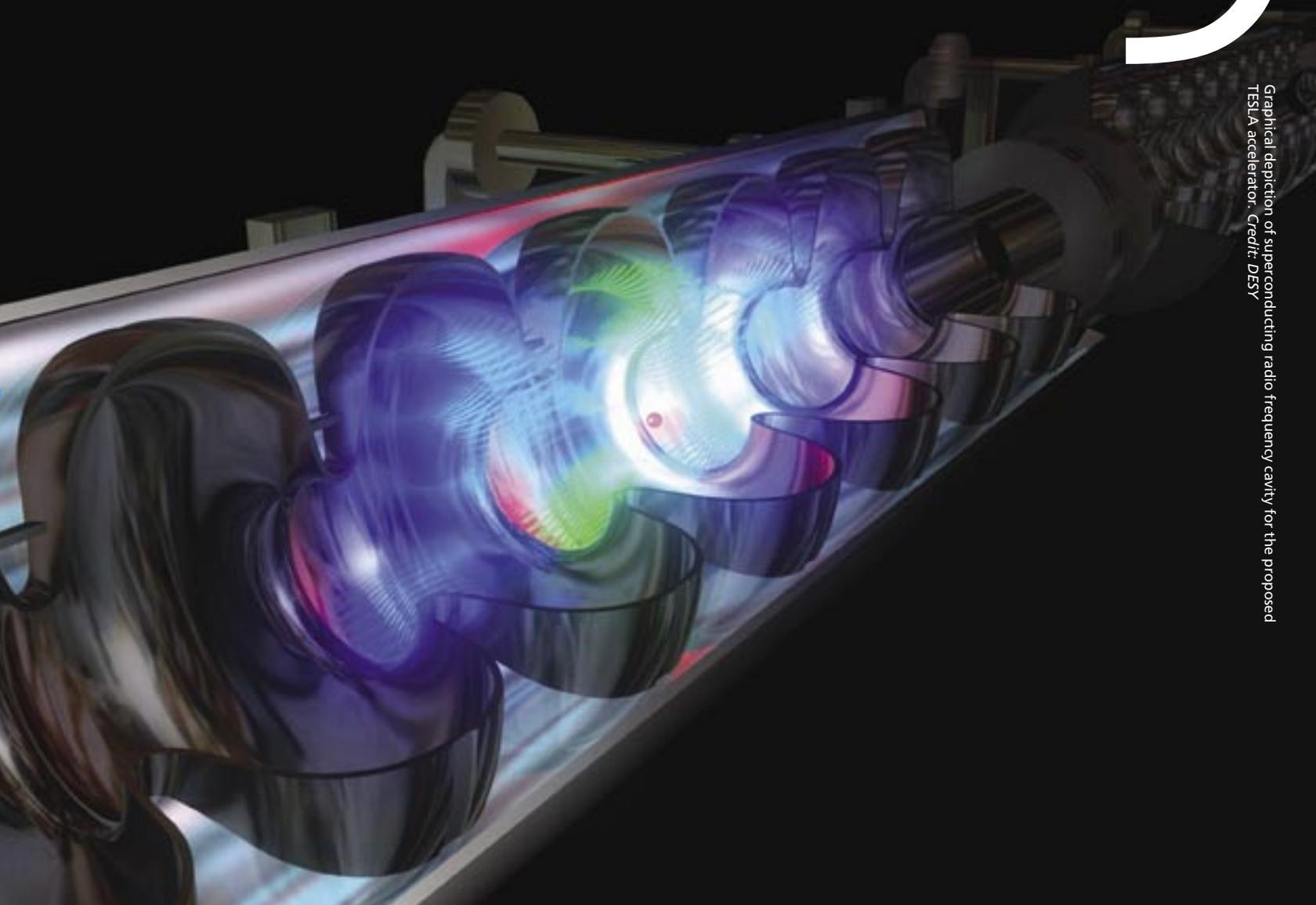
Recommendation Five

We recommend that vigorous long-term R&D aimed toward future high-energy accelerators be carried out at high priority within our program. It is also important to continue our development of particle detectors and information technology. These investments are valuable for their broader benefits and crucial to the long-range future of our field.



5

Graphical depiction of superconducting radio frequency cavity for the proposed TESLA accelerator. Credit: DESY



Below: Top: 3-D imaging glasses for visualizing electronic signatures of particle collisions. Credit: SLAC. Bottom: Northern lights over Sudbury, Ontario, home of the Sudbury Neutrino Observatory. Credit: J. Parine

The past century can be characterized by an increasingly global economic interdependence, as well as by many shared problems, including the health and security of the human race and of the Earth itself. It is becoming increasingly important to find successful international models for solving such problems. Particle physics represents one of the most successful areas of international cooperation. From the pivotal role of CERN in postwar Europe to the global collaborations of today, particle physicists have worked together with great success on problems of common interest. The construction of a linear collider will break new ground as an international partnership and provide a useful model for other areas of human endeavor.

At the beginning of the last century, few understood how scientific research would fundamentally change the world. But continued and consistent investments in science helped make the United States what it is today. As we head into the new millennium, few doubt that scientific research will remake our world yet again. It is our choice whether we want to help make this world—or retreat from it. We think the choice is clear.

As we head into the new millennium, few doubt that scientific research will remake our world yet again. It is our choice whether we want to help make this world—or retreat from it. We think the choice is clear.



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1

Graphic rendering of GLAST (Gamma Ray Large Area Space Telescope) experiment, a collaboration between the Department of Energy and NASA, with an expected launch in 2006. Credit: SLAC



EXPLORING NEW WORLDS

We recommend that the United States take steps to remain a world leader in the vital and exciting field of particle physics, through a broad program of research focused on the frontiers of matter, energy, space and time.

The U.S. has achieved its leadership position through the generous support of the American people. We renew and reaffirm our commitment to return full value for the considerable investment made by our fellow citizens. This commitment includes, but is not limited to, sharing our intellectual insights through education and outreach, providing highly trained scientific and technical manpower to help drive the economy, and developing new technologies that foster the health, wealth and security of our nation and of society at large.

1.1 Introduction

The twentieth century brought tremendous scientific and technological advances that radically changed our way of life. From city to country, from factory to farm, our society was completely transformed. We made giant strides in improving how long and how well we live; we developed a deeper understanding of our place on Earth and in the universe at large. These advances were brought by a torrent of new knowledge, from many scientific disciplines and many countries around the world. As we look toward the twenty-first century, we anticipate advances every bit as exciting and profound as those that have come before. A broad investment in scientific research is essential to open these new frontiers. The physical sciences—from condensed matter to elementary particle physics—are at the heart of this scientific enterprise.

In this report, we present a roadmap for U.S. particle physics over the next two decades, and suggest new mechanisms to facilitate implementation and decision-making in the field. Our roadmap is similar to a long-range strategic plan, in the sense that it will inform and guide our steps towards our scientific goals. However, the roadmap is not a detailed prescription for the next twenty years. Instead, it lays out the options. It allows us to define our direction, focus our efforts, and plan the steps we must take. The roadmap is intended to be a dynamic document, one that will be updated to adapt to changing circumstances, including new scientific results,

technological developments, international partnerships, and progress in other fields.

Our roadmap is motivated by our scientific goals. Over the next twenty years, we aim to develop a new and deeper understanding of the universe by studying the structure of matter, energy, space and time. Our quest is to explore the worlds we know, to discover new ones, and to bring the public along on the journey.

Particle physics and the technologies it fosters are very much a part of the overall fabric of science, drawing on advances in other areas and developing technologies that enable progress across the board. A long-term and broad-based investment in science and technology has helped ensure our security and our way of life. The U.S. Commission on National Security/21st Century recently recognized the importance of these investments in its recent report, *Road Map for National Security: Imperative for Change*. The report concludes that national security rests on the strength of our nation's scientific and technological base, and that the entire portfolio must be maintained, to ensure the health, welfare and security of the nation in years to come.

This conclusion is timely, but it is not new. Indeed, in 1945 Vannevar Bush, Director of the Office of Scientific Research and Development, transmitted his famous report, *Science:*

The Endless Frontier, to President Truman. Bush states that “Science, by itself, provides no panacea for individual, social, and economic ills. It can be effective in the national welfare only as a member of a team, whether the conditions be peace or war. But without scientific progress no amount of achievement in other directions can insure our health, prosperity, and security as a nation in the modern world.”

He continues, “It has been basic United States policy that Government should foster the opening of new frontiers. It opened the seas to clipper ships and furnished land for pioneers. Although these frontiers have more or less disappeared, the

The United States has an illustrious past in high-energy physics, as both a leader and innovator, having pioneered the discovery and exploration of this great new world. A striking feature of high-energy physics research, however, has been its development into a truly global adventure, typified by large facilities built in different countries and shared by the international community. We recognize that our field has become a global enterprise, so a plan for the U.S. program must be formulated in an international context.

In this report we present a realistic plan that will allow the United States to remain a leader in this great international

A confluence of experimental discoveries, theoretical insights, and technological advances has positioned our field at the threshold of discovery.

frontier of science remains. It is in keeping with the American tradition—one which has made the United States great—that new frontiers shall be made accessible for development by all American citizens.”

For many years, these ideas were at the heart of the federal science policy. They led to a broad-based investment in science and technology, whose benefits we see today. We believe these ideas are as relevant now as they have always been.

Our own field, particle physics, emerged as a discipline in its own right following World War II, when it developed out of nuclear physics and studies of cosmic rays. For more than half a century, particle accelerators have been a cornerstone of our field. Accelerators with higher and higher energies have enabled spectacular advances in our understanding of the subatomic world. The scope of particle physics is much broader than experiments based on accelerators, but as we look to the future, we fully expect that a new generation of particle accelerators will again lead the way. For that reason, we use the terms particle physics and high-energy physics interchangeably throughout this report.

A confluence of experimental discoveries, theoretical insights, and technological advances has positioned our field at the threshold of discovery. In the late nineteenth century, a series of rapid advances sparked a scientific revolution that led to relativity, quantum mechanics, and a new view of nature. At the start of the twenty-first century, similar advances suggest that we are at the dawn of a new era of discovery, and that a new scientific revolution is within our reach. We can only guess how these advances will shape the years to come.

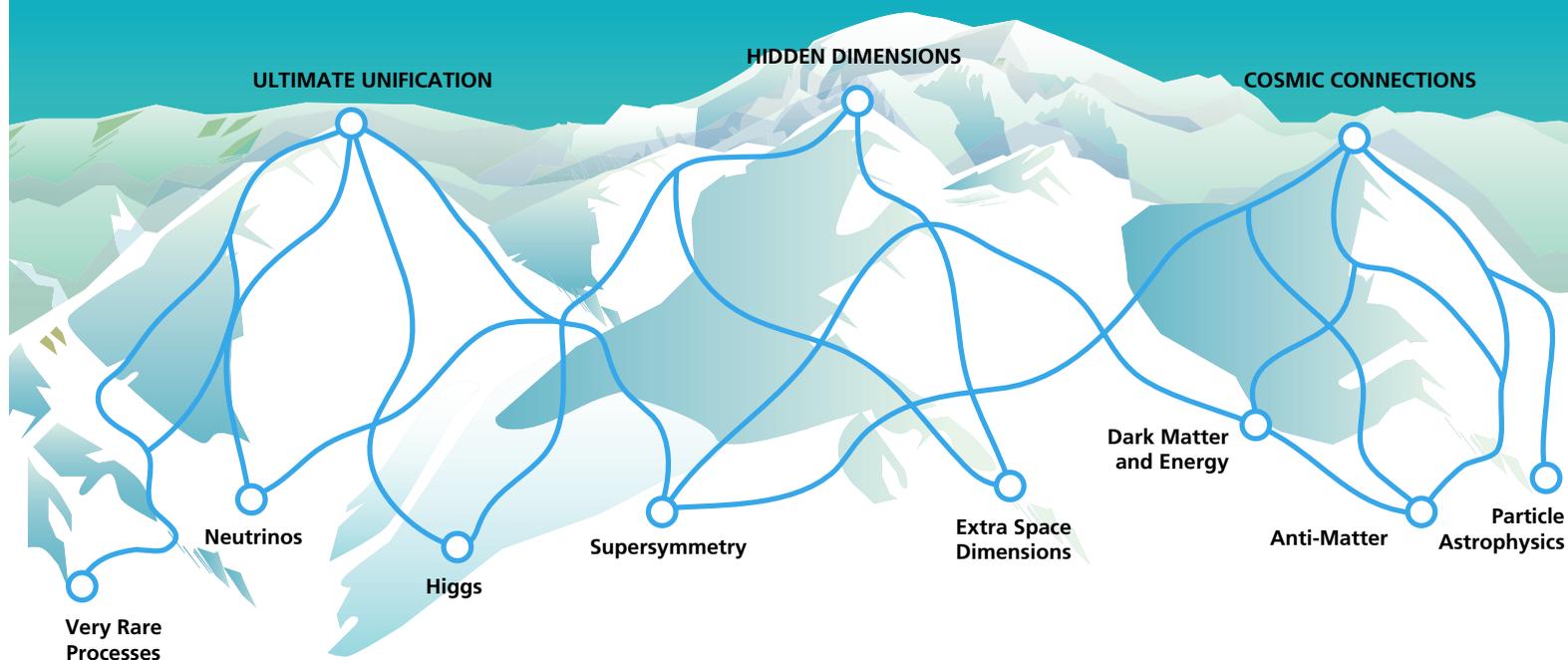
effort. The size, complexity and sophistication of the next generation of particle accelerators make them among the most challenging and ambitious projects ever undertaken. Extensive international partnerships will be required to build and use them. These projects will be symbols of international cooperation and collaboration, and the reach of their science will span generations.

1.2 The Goals of Particle Physics: Matter, Energy, Space and Time

What are the scientific opportunities presented by modern particle physics, and how can they be realized? The purpose of the field is to explore the frontiers of matter, energy, space, and time: from the highest energy particles to the seeming emptiness of space, from the shortest distances we can imagine to possible hidden dimensions of space-time.

A program aimed at reaching these goals has several interrelated areas of focus, each promising important new discoveries. During the next twenty years, we will try to understand how the disparate forces and particles of the universe merge into a single coherent picture, which we call *Ultimate Unification*. We will seek new dimensions of space-time, which we refer to as *Hidden Dimensions*. And we will seek the mysterious particles and forces that have created indelible imprints on our universe, a promising new area we call *Cosmic Connections*.

From each of these goals flows a diverse research program that will be carried out in partnership with colleagues across the globe. Although we discuss them separately, the topics have many connections, both internally and to other fields. Understanding and developing these connections is a crucial component of our long-range plan.



1.2.1 First Goal: Ultimate Unification

Unification is the search for simplicity in a universe filled with a multitude of particles and forces. We have learned that the elementary building blocks of our universe are six kinds of quarks, the lightest of which make up the protons and neutrons in nuclei, and six types of leptons, related to the electrons that orbit around the nuclei to make atoms. These particles interact with one another through four forces: gravity, electromagnetism, the strong force that holds a nucleus together, and the weak force that is responsible for some types

new accelerators will tell us whether the electroweak force unifies with the strong force at still higher energies. A detailed exploration of the energy frontier will begin to chart this exciting new territory. Ultimately, it will tell us if Einstein's dream of a unified theory is realized.

Unification may provide the DNA of matter, the simple principle that gives particles their complex identities. For example, at energies we now probe, quarks exhibit a complicated structure of masses and mixings. We expect that at some higher

Unification may provide the DNA of matter, the simple principle that gives particles their complex identities.

of radioactive decay. The Standard Model of particle physics describes all the forces except gravity.

The rich and complex phenomena we observe today may well have emerged from a much simpler world at high energies. Experiments of the last few decades have confirmed that new fundamental particles must exist just beyond the reach of current accelerators. New facilities are being designed and built to create these particles in the laboratory. The new particles may be manifestations of new dimensions of space-time, new quantum dimensions, or something else even more radically different.

One likely candidate is the long-sought Higgs particle. Discovery of the Higgs would explain how the weak and electromagnetic forces unify into a single electroweak force. But this is just a first step. Precision measurements from the

energy scale, this so-called flavor structure simplifies and quarks become more alike. To penetrate the mysteries of quarks, we must first measure their flavor properties completely and with precision. This motivates the study of mesons that contain one of the heavy quarks. These mesons are produced in abundance at hadron colliders and also at specially built electron-positron colliders.

Neutrinos provide another window on unification. Many theoretical models for unification predict that neutrinos have mass, a prediction that was dramatically confirmed by recent experiments. The tiny masses of neutrinos are related to the energy scale of unification, and ultimately to the masses of quarks. In fact, the ghostly neutrinos that stream through the Earth may be secret siblings of the quarks that make us up. They are vastly different here on Earth, but identical at the high energies of unification. We need precise measurements

THE STANDARD MODEL

The Standard Model describes our understanding of the fundamental particles in the context of three of the four fundamental forces of nature: the strong, weak and electromagnetic forces. Its building blocks are illustrated schematically in Figure 1.1.

In the Standard Model, all interactions arise from the exchange of elementary particles, called gauge bosons. The electromagnetic force results when charged particles exchange photons (γ). The strong force, which holds together protons and neutrons, comes from the exchange of gluons (g). The weak force, which explains radioactive decay, arises from the exchange of W and Z bosons.

The W and Z are massive, unlike the photon and gluon; their mass is responsible for the weakness of the weak force. Even the simplest explanation for their mass requires a new particle, the as-yet-unobserved Higgs boson. The W and Z acquire mass by coupling to the Higgs.

The matter particles in the Standard Model are called quarks and leptons. Quarks carry strong charge, and leptons do not. The quarks and charged leptons also gain mass by coupling to the Higgs.

Quarks interact through all three forces. Because of the strong force, quarks are always bound in groups called mesons (quark-antiquark pairs) or baryons (quark trios). There are six quarks, called up, down, charm, strange, top and bottom. The quark masses range from a few MeV (for the up and down quarks) to 174 GeV (for the top).

The leptons do not feel the strong force, so they always appear individually. The charged leptons interact via the weak and electromagnetic forces. There are three such leptons, the electron, the muon (μ) and the tau (τ). The charged lepton masses range from 0.5 MeV (for the electron) to 1.8 GeV (for the tau). The three charged leptons have neutral partners called neutrinos. In the Standard Model, they are massless.

The Standard Model has been dramatically confirmed by precision measurements carried out at laboratories around the world. But recent experiments have revealed a crack: Neutrinos have mass, something that cannot be explained by the minimal Standard Model. Moreover, theorists have demonstrated the Standard Model itself is mathematically inconsistent—unless a Higgs particle (or something else) appears at the TeV scale, an energy we are just beginning to probe. These two mysteries will guide the first steps of our journey to understand the nature of matter, energy, space and time.

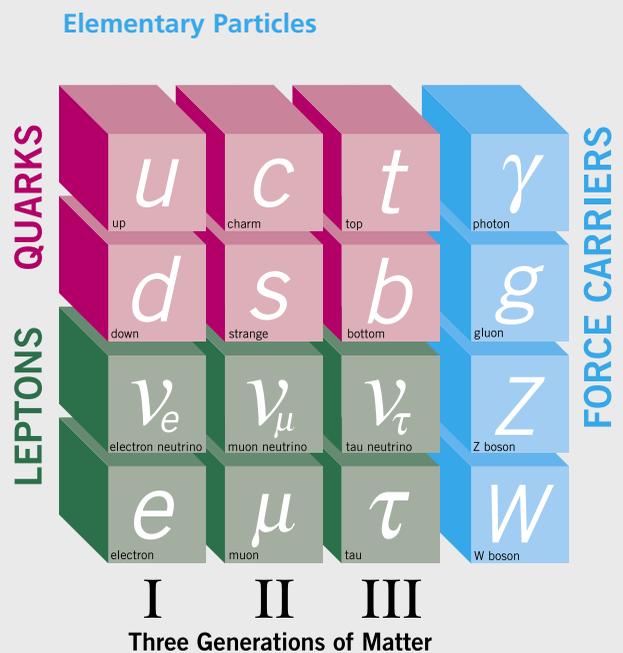


Figure 1.1. The Standard Model of Particle Physics.

The six quarks and six leptons interact through the strong, weak and electromagnetic forces. The forces themselves are described by particles labeled γ , g , W and Z .

of neutrino masses and mixings to explore these connections. These measurements can be extracted from a variety of experiments that look for signs of neutrinos changing flavor.

Finally, searching for very rare processes is a particularly sensitive way to probe for consequences of grand unification. One such consequence is that the proton is not completely stable! Although the predicted proton lifetime is incredibly long, sensitive techniques have been developed to detect decaying protons. Observation of proton decay would be a spectacular verification of unification at energies well beyond those accessible with accelerators.

1.2.2 Second Goal: Hidden Dimensions

In the world in which we live, we can move in three dimensions. However, there is still room for new dimensions, ones that we cannot see in the everyday world. But if there were extra dimensions, how would we know? One way is to kick particles with enough energy so that they can move through the extra dimensions. The programs we propose would allow us to find such dimensions, if they exist, and to measure their shapes and sizes.

There are strong reasons to think that such dimensions may be observed in future colliders. Experiments are already gearing up to explore this possibility. Hidden dimensions of space may also be detectable in new tests of gravity, either on submillimeter scales or on cosmological scales. A variety of astrophysical phenomena are sensitive to the existence of these new dimensions as well. Even if extra dimensions are not directly accessible, there are good prospects to pin down the energies associated with possible extra dimensions and with quantum gravity. This detective work will overlap with our investigation of unification.

Extra spatial or quantum dimensions provide a way to connect powerful theoretical concepts to physical phenomena we can observe. Einstein showed that gravity is actually a consequence of curved space-time. Extra dimensions may be the bridge that finally unifies gravity with quantum theory. Recent conceptual breakthroughs have shown that the world of quantum gravity may be accessible with the next generation of accelerators.

To probe the Big Bang, we will need to understand quantum gravity. String theory is our best working model for quantum gravity, although it is still poorly understood. In the long term, string theory may provide the ultimate unification of forces, including matter, energy, space and time. Experimentally, string theory makes a number of fascinating predictions, including properties of black holes, the existence of supersymmetry, and the existence of seven extra dimensions of space.

A direct discovery of extra dimensions of space would be an epochal event in the history of science, causing a redirection and refocusing of all particle physics and cosmology. Within our lifetimes, science fiction may pale compared to science fact.

1.2.3 Third Goal: Cosmic Connections

The simple picture we seek must have shaped the very early history of the universe. This provides one of the fundamental connections between particle physics and cosmology. Moreover, particles and forces shape the evolution and present state of the universe. We now suspect that every corner of empty space is filled with so-called dark energy, which is pushing the universe to expand at an ever-increasing rate. There are also unidentified cosmic accelerators beaming ultra-high-energy particles to Earth. We are on the brink of discovering the nature of these mysterious particles and forces through experiments deep underground, on land and in space.

An additional goal is to understand the deep connections between the physics of elementary particles and the physics that determines the structure of the universe. For example, we know that most matter in the universe is dark, unlike any conventional matter observed here on Earth. Leading candidates for this dark matter are unknown heavy particles that will be sought at future accelerator experiments. Moreover, experiments on Earth also seek to detect these weakly interacting particles as they reach us from space. With a balanced approach involving high-energy colliders and particle astrophysics techniques, the identity of dark matter might be revealed soon.

1.2.4 The Road Ahead

The achievements of the last decade have been deep and impressive. The advances come from experimental discoveries and measurements, and from new theoretical ideas. During the past ten years we completed the periodic table of quarks and leptons by discovering the top quark and the tau neutrino. We measured the matter-antimatter asymmetries of bottom quarks, knowledge that is essential for understanding the origin of the universe. We found that neutrinos have mass, an important clue to the nature of unification. These discoveries were made using a variety of approaches, some involving the highest energy and intensity accelerators on Earth, others exploiting other techniques, including large detectors located deep underground.

These successes have confirmed the basic structure of the Standard Model. However, they also tell us that even more discoveries wait to be found. We know that we are still missing crucial pieces of the puzzle, including the Higgs particle. A

Below: Simulated decay of Higgs boson in the future CMS experiment at CERN.
Credit: CERN



host of precision measurements suggest that the Higgs is within reach.

Discovery of the Higgs would be a revolutionary step for particle physics. It is a fundamental spin-zero particle, radically different from any particle discovered to date. The Higgs mediates a force that resists the motion of elementary particles and effectively gives them mass. Without it quarks and leptons would be massless, the weak interactions would be much stronger, and the universe as we know it would not exist.

Discovery and study of the Higgs is the next crucial milestone for our field. It is the essential next step towards understanding the unification of the weak and electromagnetic forces. Recent theoretical breakthroughs suggest that a more comprehensive

A broad range of partnerships is crucial for the health and success of any global, multi-disciplinary science program.

unification involving new hidden dimensions is within our reach at the TeV energy scale. For example, string theory requires extra spatial dimensions to unify gravity with the other forces of nature. Supersymmetry requires a completely new type of dimension—a quantum dimension of space-time. Indirect evidence from recent precision measurements suggests that supersymmetric particles might be just beyond our reach. If so, they will be discovered by experiments during the next ten years.

The successes of the past ten years point the way towards the future. In the near term, we will continue our search for new physics, through a vigorous program of direct discovery and precision measurements at Fermilab, SLAC and Brookhaven at home, and at CERN, DESY and KEK overseas. In the longer term, our focus will shift to the direct exploration of the TeV scale. This work will begin at the Fermilab Tevatron, and continue with the CERN LHC. The LHC will be the centerpiece of the world program in particle physics when it begins operation during the second half of this decade. With an energy seven times that of the Tevatron, it will revolutionize our understanding of TeV scale physics.

As will become clear in Chapter 2, our long-term goals are best advanced using a variety of techniques. Indeed, as the scope of our science has expanded, our field has become increasingly interconnected with its neighbors. During recent years, we have worked with astrophysicists and cosmologists

to link the inner space of particle physics with the outer space of the cosmos. More recently, the question of dark energy has launched promising new collaborations that will carry out their work in the coming years.

In this report we examine our scientific goals and opportunities during the LHC era. The theoretical and experimental accomplishments of the past decade suggest that we are at the threshold of great discoveries. Together, they show that our base is strong and our mission clear.

1.3 The Field of Particle Physics

As the last section showed, particle physics is defined by the questions we ask, and not by the tools we use. Nevertheless, our primary tools are and will continue to be particle accelerators.

The highest energy accelerators probe the shortest distances and provide the most direct way to answer the questions we face. Other accelerators are used to study rare phenomena or carry out precision measurements. Additional questions can be addressed using particles that come from outer space. Research in high-energy physics has increasingly important interconnections with astrophysics, cosmology and nuclear physics. A strong program in high-energy physics needs all these elements.

Experiments in particle physics are carried out in international collaborations using large and sophisticated particle detectors. The collaborations operate much like independent international laboratories, attracting contributions from around the world. The large numbers of scientists highlights the fact that our endeavors are not single experiments in the classical sense. Instead, they encompass many groups addressing many distinct experimental goals.

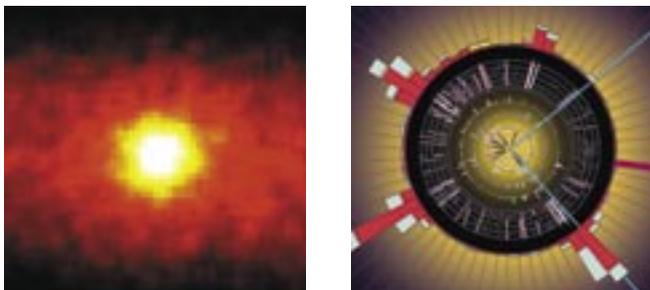
There are approximately 4,000 particle physicists active in the U.S. today. Nearly 80% of them are affiliated with universities. The university commitment speaks to the compelling intellectual nature of our enterprise. The universities attract students into our field and into the rest of science. They allow us to leverage manpower and financial support. They give our field a strong intellectual base and make it a natural arena to integrate research and education. Universities offer us the opportunity to reach far beyond particle physics itself.



The university physicists carry out many of their experiments at large laboratories, both here and abroad. In the U.S., the national laboratories operate as user facilities, providing collaborations with accelerators and beams, as well as scientific and technological expertise essential to mounting cutting-edge experiments. Laboratory physicists work side-by-side with their university counterparts, advancing common scientific goals. The laboratories also provide key technical, engineering and administrative support for offsite experiments, a role that will become increasingly important in the years to come.

A vital component of the high-energy physics program is a strong effort directed toward future facilities. Developing a new generation of accelerators and advanced detectors is a formidable R&D challenge. We give this program particular attention in this report. The R&D program in high-energy physics pushes the state of the art in many directions and has benefits well beyond our field.

Clearly, a broad range of partnerships is crucial for the health and success of any global, multi-disciplinary science



program. In particle physics, international partnerships are becoming increasingly important. Our large collaborations already operate on a global scale. New frontier accelerator facilities are so large and complex that they too will need to be international. Developing and nurturing collaboration and cooperation between countries, and between scientists working in different countries, is essential to the future of the field.

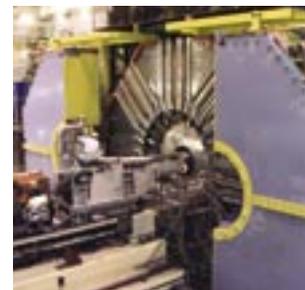
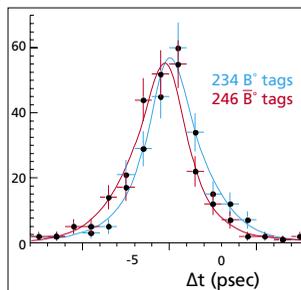
In particle physics, partnerships with other fields have become increasingly important as the boundaries between disciplines become blurred. At an intellectual level, particle physics shares scientific interests with mathematics, nuclear physics, astrophysics, and cosmology, among others. These interconnections extend to a technological level as well, where each field helps drive the others.

Partnerships between agencies have been, and will continue to be, key ingredients in the success of many projects. DOE and NSF have worked together for many years to support the U.S.

particle physics program, and they have worked with foreign agencies to carry out international projects. Both agencies should be lauded for the flexibility they have shown toward support of experiments at the interface of particle physics and other disciplines, and for developing partnerships with other agencies such as NASA. These partnerships have been particularly important in the exciting new field of particle astrophysics, which is interdisciplinary by its very nature.

1.3.1 Our Role in Science Education

Public education is both a responsibility and privilege of our field. We currently engage in a variety of education and public outreach efforts. Our major laboratories host extensive programs for education and outreach. The Lederman Science Center at Fermilab supports K-12 education programs including *Quarks to Quasars* and the Teacher Resource Center. The Particle Data Group at Berkeley is developing *The Particle Adventure*, a web-based “interactive tour of quarks, neutrinos, antimatter, extra dimensions, dark matter, accelerators and particle detectors.” QuarkNet is a nationwide effort to partner secondary school teachers and students with university researchers in front line



research. Many particle physics groups also participate in the NSF Research Experience for Undergraduates program. Individual physicists at universities and laboratories reach a geographically diverse public through face-to-face contact.

Bolstered by these successes, we believe that as a field we can and should do more in this area. Our field attracts bright students to careers in science and engineering, both at the undergraduate and graduate levels. These students use their technical and scientific training in a broad array of careers, ranging from information technology, microelectronics and medical physics, to finance, national defense and public policy.

We believe we can broaden our impact in K-12 science education through additional direct partnerships with educators. We can offer assistance as states and local districts struggle to improve science education. Increased educational

(L-R): 1) View of the sun as seen in neutrinos. Credit: Institute for Cosmic Ray Research, Tokyo 2) Graphical representation of top quark event from Fermilab's D0 detector. Credit: Fermilab 3) Data from Babar detector at SLAC showing matter-antimatter asymmetry in decays of B-mesons 4) Belle detector at the KEK laboratory in Japan. Credit: KEK

efforts will raise our profile in the community, draw the public into the excitement of our future discoveries, and foster pride in our society's investment in science.

To strengthen the impact of our field on science education, we urge that all current and future large particle physics experiments incorporate project-specific education and outreach programs as part of their mission. Such efforts, linked very closely to the research programs, represent key investments in the future and must be given sufficient priority. More specifically, the level of activity on education and outreach in the field should be doubled, in order to ensure a viable, effective and sustainable program. This extra effort will significantly increase our impact on education and society without adversely affecting our research program.

opportunities for addressing the great questions surrounding the structure of matter, the unification of fundamental forces, and the nature of the universe. New applications to technology and to the life sciences are emerging with increasing frequency. New links are being forged with other key sciences such as chemistry, geology, and astronomy.” The report goes on to say that many opportunities arise from “...new directions branching off from old, with great potential for having a wide impact on science, medicine, national security, and economic growth.”

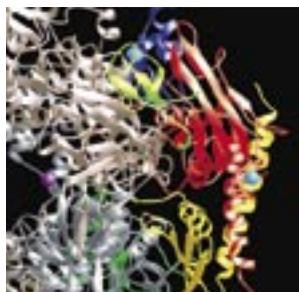
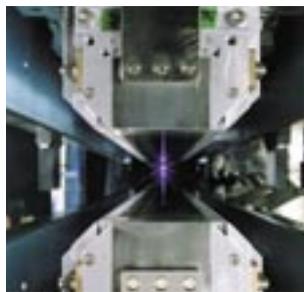
We believe that the fabric of science, society and scientific achievement is tightly woven, and includes contributions from all scientific disciplines. The U.S. Commission on National Security/21st Century recognized this fact, and pointed out

The fabric of science, society and scientific achievement is tightly woven, and includes contributions from all scientific disciplines.

1.3.2 Our Connections to Science and Society

Harold Varmus, Nobel laureate and former director of NIH, has spoken eloquently on the “interdependence of the sciences” and the necessity of “balance [in support] of the sciences that

that “the inadequacies of our systems of research and education pose a greater threat to U.S. national security over the next quarter century than any potential conventional war that we might imagine.... If we do not invest heavily and wisely in



(L-R): 1) University graduate student in Fermilab control room. Credit: Fermilab
2) An undulator, a component of the Advanced Light Source at Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory. Credit: Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory
3) Protein structure imaged by X-ray scattering at a synchrotron accelerator. Credit: SLAC
4) Students investigating van der Graaf generator at Fermilab. Credit: Fermilab

is essential to progress in all spheres.” The revolutionary advances in any area of science are rooted in fundamental discoveries in many other different fields. Varmus notes that “...medical advances may seem like wizardry. But pull back the curtain, and sitting at the lever is a high-energy physicist, a combinatorial chemist or an engineer.” Therefore while we conveniently divide science into disciplines and sub disciplines, identifying ourselves as organic chemists or condensed matter physicists, such divisions obscure the deeply interconnected nature of all branches of science and the profound impact different disciplines of science have on each other.

rebuilding these two core strengths, America will be incapable of maintaining its global position long into the 21st century.”

This trend was highlighted in the recent report, *Physics in a New Era: An Overview*, put forward by the National Research Council. This report states, “The character and scope of physics are changing rapidly. There are now extraordinary

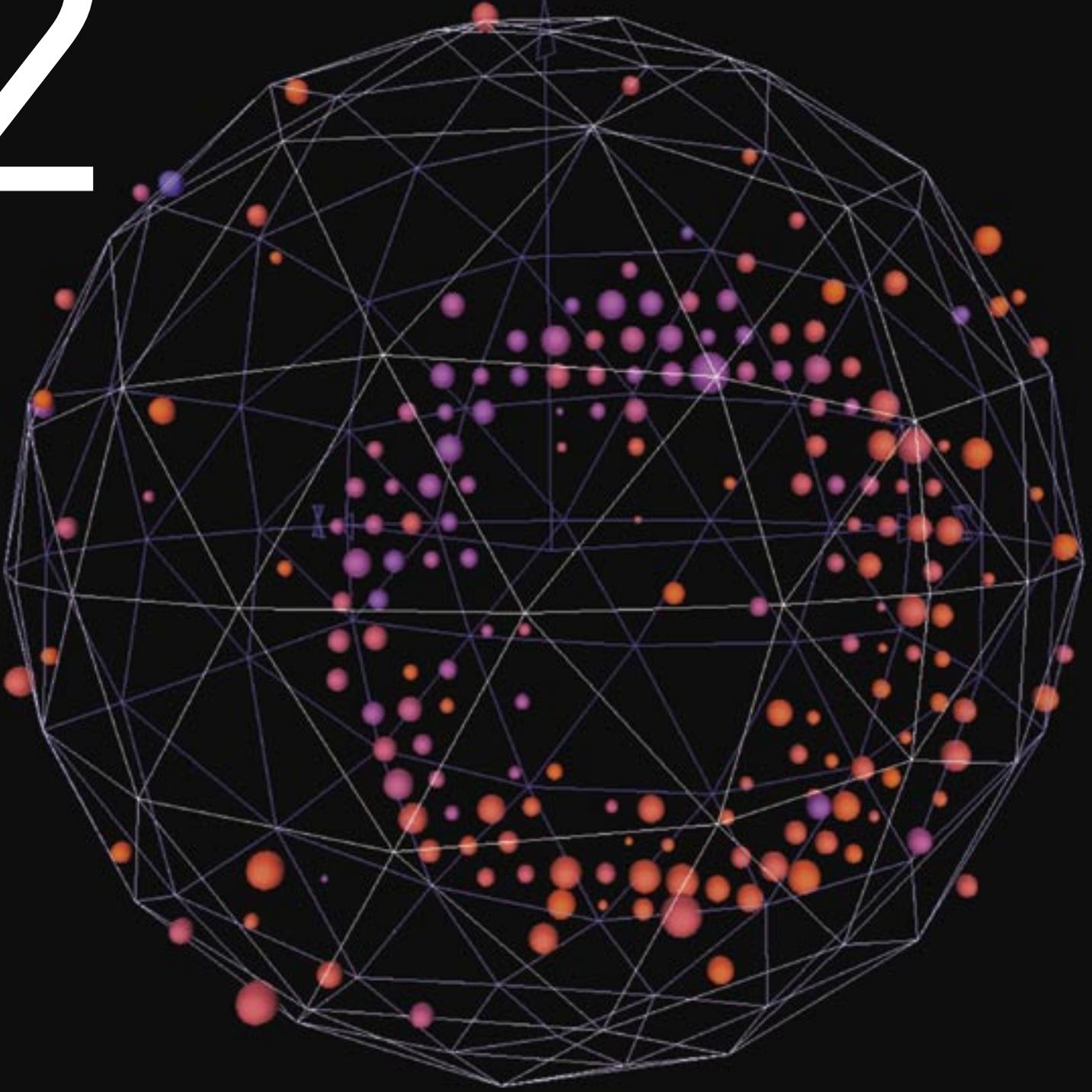
The Commission stated that National Security rests on the strength of our country's scientific and technological base. They emphasized that the entire R&D portfolio must be maintained to ensure our health, welfare and security. Particle physics is well positioned to help, because R&D and technical developments in our field have broad applications, from particle accelerators to technical developments in electronics and medical imaging to advanced applications of computing and data handling. Moreover, the sociology of our science, with its international and highly distributed nature, is well-matched to our increasingly interconnected global culture.

1.4 Summary

In this report, we articulate the long-term goals of high-energy physics and present a roadmap for the next twenty years. Our roadmap outlines a national program focused on achieving those goals in a worldwide context. The program envisions a variety of efforts, national and international, large and small, that will keep the United States at the frontier of the exploration of nature. In time, our discoveries will seed new ideas and technologies that will affect other fields, both inside and outside of physics, renewing the cycle of discovery that is the basis of all science.

2

Neutrino event recorded in the MiniBooNE detector. The ring of light signals the collision of a muon neutrino with an atomic nucleus. Credit: Fermilab



THE PARTICLE PHYSICS ROADMAP

We recommend a twenty-year roadmap for our field to chart our steps on the frontiers of matter, energy, space and time. The map will evolve with time to reflect new scientific opportunities, as well as developments within the international community. It will drive our choice of the next major facility and allow us to craft a balanced program to maximize scientific opportunity.

We recommend a new mechanism to update the roadmap and set priorities across the program. We understand that this will require hard choices to select which projects to begin and which to phase out. Factors that must be considered include the potential scientific payoff, cost and technical feasibility, balance and diversity, and the way any proposed new initiative fits into the global structure of the field.

2.1 Introduction

Particle physics is a quest to explore the frontiers of matter, energy, space and time. Our experimental strategies are shaped by our scientific goals. We have many tools at our disposal, from forefront accelerators to satellites in space to experiments deep underground. Some tools are available in the U.S.; others are available abroad.

Across the world, our field is in the midst of planning and running a bold array of experimental initiatives, ranging from large experiments and facilities with broad physics programs to small experiments designed to answer more focused questions. Some of these initiatives straddle the boundaries between particle physics, astrophysics, and nuclear physics. It is clear that we must optimize our scientific program across these different activities. To that end, we present a roadmap for U.S. particle physics and propose a new mechanism to prioritize mid-scale initiatives in the U.S. program.

Robert Galvin, writing on the use of roadmaps at Motorola, states that a scientific roadmap is “an extended look at the future of a chosen field of inquiry composed from the collective knowledge and imagination of the brightest drivers of change in that field.” He adds that a roadmap becomes “the inventory of possibilities for a particular field, thus stimulating earlier, more targeted investigations.”

Our roadmap for U.S. particle physics was developed in close consultation with the U.S. particle physics community, first at Town Meetings at the national laboratories, later during the Snowmass Summer Study, and finally in response to comments on our draft report. The resulting roadmap provides an overview of our field and an indication of the steps we must take to reach our goals.

We intend the roadmap to become an integral part of the planning process in our field. The map shows decision points for projects, both large and small. It indicates the time frame for proposed initiatives, and the opportunity costs associated with our decisions. The roadmap allows us to plan for international collaboration on major facilities and experiments. It also invites other fields such as astronomy and nuclear physics to plan jointly with us. Our roadmap is based on the best information we have now. It will need to be periodically updated to reflect new ideas, discoveries and technological developments in the worldwide scientific program.

Not all projects illustrated on the roadmap can be pursued, either in the U.S. or abroad. Some will have to be sacrificed because of limited manpower and resources in the field, and some because of priorities that must be set. Many difficult choices will have to be made during the years to come. The

roadmap will help focus our efforts on the best scientific opportunities.

In this chapter we recommend creation of a Particle Physics Project Prioritization Panel (P5), charged with advising HEPAP and the agencies, updating the roadmap, and with prioritizing the mid-scale projects in our field. We believe that prioritization is central to our plan for using the available resources to pursue a diverse and exciting program of particle physics. A balanced program is necessary for the vitality of our field, and can be achieved if we manage our resources well. The P5 process will help us ensure an optimal program of scientific investigation.

2.2 The Roadmap

The complete roadmap for particle physics is presented in Appendix A. The roadmap contains the physics possibilities that we can see over the next twenty years. However, not

A balanced program is necessary for the vitality of our field, and can be achieved if we manage our resources well.

all the avenues will be pursued, either here or abroad. The roadmap provides a picture of the opportunities we foresee in the future; it is the basis for the difficult choices that will have to be made.

Our roadmap is the logical continuation of the world-class program in particle physics that the United States has built over the last fifty years. It starts with the present program and projects our field into the future. It identifies scientific opportunities and connects individual projects with our long-range scientific goals.

Our roadmap reflects the fact that our field spans a wide range of topics and exploits a variety of experimental techniques. Our field needs forefront accelerators at the energy and luminosity frontiers. But it also requires innovative experiments in space, underground, and away from accelerators. We need to pursue a balanced approach that capitalizes on our increasingly important links to astrophysics, cosmology and nuclear physics.

In what follows we present the main elements of our roadmap, organized by field of endeavor. We include projects that are ongoing or under construction. The complete roadmap, including proposals for the future, is included in Appendix A. Where appropriate, we provide short-term guidance in the appendix.

2.2.1 Theory, Phenomenology and Data Analysis

Although not literally a physics subtopic on our roadmap, progress in particle physics depends on a healthy interplay between theory and experiment. For that reason, a strong program of theoretical research is absolutely crucial to the future of our field. As an example of the close coupling between theoretical and experimental research, one might note how the theory of electroweak unification predicted the existence of the weak neutral current, which then led to its subsequent discovery by experiment.

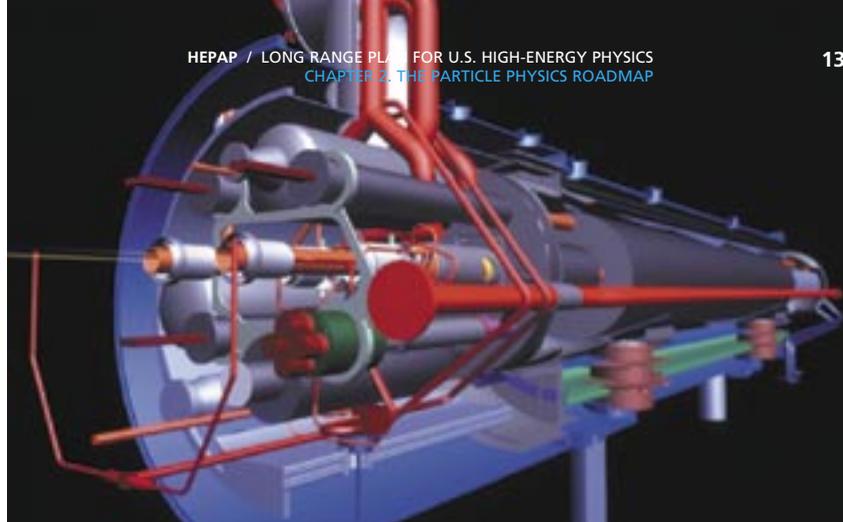
This dramatic discovery was the first step toward elevating electroweak theory to its present status as a central part of the Standard Model of particle physics. During recent years, the Standard Model has guided much of the experimental work in the field, culminating in the impressive and beautiful precision measurements at CERN and elsewhere that have validated the theory to an unprecedented degree of accuracy.

Theory now tells us that the Standard Model is not complete, and that we will be able to determine what fills it out when we extend the energy frontier toward the TeV scale. Future energy frontier experiments will allow us to probe physics beyond the Standard Model. They are motivated by a combination of theory and present-day experiment, and are at the center of the long-range program we propose in this report.

Pure theory suggests new physics opportunities through formal “top-down” developments, like string theory or extra dimensions, that are aimed at finding the underlying theory of nature. Such work motivates and inspires new areas of experimental and observational work. This give-and-take between experiment and theory is inherent and typical of how particle physics advances.

In other cases, theoretical tools are used in a more phenomenological or “bottom-up” approach, in order to make predictions that can be compared with data, or to extract the underlying explanations and interpretations from measurements. Examples include parton distribution functions, lattice gauge and chiral perturbation theory, as well as higher-order QCD and electroweak calculations. Some of this theoretical work requires significant computer resources that must be supported. Full exploitation of our experimental physics program requires strong theoretical participation at all the levels discussed above.





Finally, extracting the science from complex modern detectors in particle physics is extremely challenging and requires the use of very sophisticated data analysis techniques. In addition to dealing with very large data sets, data analysis employs advanced statistical techniques, detailed studies of systematic errors and quantitative comparison with theoretical predictions. Support of these efforts is also a very important part to our field, so that we can reliably handle the data and compare it with theory. An increasingly large fraction of the effort in high-energy physics is being dedicated to this enterprise. This will continue to hold for the future experiments in our roadmap, with their added sophistication and great volumes of data. Sufficient strength and support in these areas must be maintained.

2.2.2 The Energy Frontier

The energy frontier is at the very center of our roadmap. For the immediate future, the Tevatron collider will remain the world's highest energy accelerator. Its CDF and DØ experiments have embarked on Run II, pursuing a rich physics agenda that includes the search for the Higgs and supersymmetry, studies of CP violation, and the first detailed examination of the top quark.

During the next five years, the HERA II accelerator at DESY will also be at the energy frontier. This facility provides high-energy electron-proton collisions to H1 and ZEUS, experiments that will provide precision measurements of the QCD coupling and proton structure functions, and search for new physics.

The next big step will be the LHC, which will collide protons against protons at 14 TeV, an energy seven times that of the Tevatron. American particle physicists are making essential contributions to the LHC accelerator and the ATLAS and CMS experiments. The LHC will provide our first look at physics at the TeV scale; it promises to revolutionize our field when it begins operation during the second half of this decade.

Broad participation in the LHC, from building the accelerator to running the detectors to analyzing the data and developing the research program, is essential for us to reach the scientific goals that we described in Chapter 1.

Over much of its history, particle physics has relied on different types of accelerators. Discoveries at one machine point the way to discoveries at others. Such synergies maximize progress across the field. On the energy frontier, one can point to the recent productive interplay between the Fermilab Tevatron, a hadron collider, and LEP and SLC, electron-positron colliders at CERN and SLAC.

Looking to the future, we have no doubt that the synergy will continue. There is now a worldwide consensus that exploration of the energy frontier will also require a high-energy, high-luminosity electron-positron linear collider. The LHC and the linear collider are both essential to discover and understand the new physics at the TeV scale. This conclusion is reflected in reports from the Asian and European Committees on Future Accelerators, as well as in the recommendations of this subpanel.

Many years of accelerator R&D have brought us to the point where it is now possible to consider construction of a linear collider. More work is necessary to choose a final design and to determine the construction cost. However, we already know that the scope, cost, and complexity of the linear collider are such that the effort must be international from the start. The world community recognizes this fact, and is starting to create an international collaboration to manage the design, construction and operation of this powerful accelerator.

Our highest priority is full participation in the design, construction and operation of this exciting new facility, wherever in the world it is sited. Its science will be compelling, and its technology will benefit our field and enrich society at



Above (L-R): 1) Excavation of NuMI tunnel at Fermilab. Credit: Fermilab. 2) Reflection of mural on plane of the MINOS neutrino detector in the Soudan Mine, Minnesota. Credit: Fermilab

large. In chapter 3 we make the physics case for the linear collider, and in chapter 4 we argue that the United States should bid to host this international facility. We discuss the U.S. role as host country and outline the substantial benefits that a linear collider will bring to the U.S.

While the world particle physics community has reached widespread consensus on the linear collider, there is also broad agreement that we are not at the end of our journey. The ultimate goals of particle physics require an energy frontier beyond the LHC and the linear collider. Exciting plans are underway to reach the far-energy frontier using a very large hadron collider or a multi-TeV electron or muon collider. Vigorous accelerator R&D on a worldwide basis is necessary to realize colliders beyond the TeV scale.

2.2.3 Lepton Flavor Physics

Substantial evidence for neutrino oscillations has been presented over the past decade. Early indications from Homestake were followed by detailed measurements at Gran Sasso, Baksan and SuperKamiokande that established a deficit in the solar neutrino flux. New results from SNO, when combined with the SuperKamiokande measurements, provide dramatic evidence that the neutrinos produced by the sun are indeed oscillating. Follow-up measurements, from these experiments as well as from KamLAND and Borexino, are expected in the next few years.

Strong evidence for atmospheric neutrino oscillations was found at SuperKamiokande and confirming experiments. These observations have motivated a worldwide program of accelerator-based long-baseline neutrino experiments. In the United States, the MINOS experiment is being built to measure neutrino oscillations between Fermilab and the Soudan mine in Minnesota. Construction will be complete in the middle of the decade; the experiment is scheduled to take

data for five years. Experiments are underway in Japan (KEK to Kamiokande) and under construction in Europe (CERN to Gran Sasso). We note that the unfortunate recent accident at SuperKamiokande has delayed the K2K experiment while the detector is rebuilt.

Other important results regarding possible neutrino oscillations are expected in the next few years from MiniBooNE, together with its possible extension, BooNE.

Clearly, we have made substantial progress in understanding the masses and mixings of neutrinos, but there is still much to learn. More comprehensive studies using intense neutrino sources may be the next step. Such sources will require new (or upgraded) proton drivers capable of delivering one or more megawatts of beam power. The drivers could also provide beams of muons and kaons for rare decay studies.

A further generation of accelerator-based neutrino oscillation experiments might be a key element of this program. The possibility of studying CP violation in the neutrino sector motivates the development of very intense neutrino sources, based on superbeam facilities, and of neutrino factories, based on muon storage rings. Several possibilities are under discussion, either as new facilities or as substantial upgrades to existing accelerators. A source could be built in the United States, or in Europe or Asia with U.S. participation.

There are other important future directions for neutrino physics, many of which could benefit from a deep underground site. For example, certain characteristics of neutrinos (including whether they are their own antiparticles) can best be studied in neutrinoless double-beta decay experiments. These experiments require the very low backgrounds only available very deep underground.

Neutrino oscillations tell us that lepton flavor is not conserved. In fact, neutrino mixing induces rare flavor-changing transitions between charged leptons as well. Various types of new physics also induce such transitions, so the observation of mixing between charged leptons would be a major milestone for our field. In particular, a proposed experiment to detect muon-electron conversion is sensitive to a substantial range of new physics, particularly supersymmetry-based models of lepton-flavor violation.

The future of the worldwide lepton-flavor program, including decisions on the most important opportunities to pursue, will be shaped by results from the present generation of experiments.

2.2.4 Quark Flavor Physics

After a decade of intensive effort, we are closing in on a detailed understanding of the mass, mixing, and CP violation in the quark sector. The BaBar experiment at PEP-II, the Belle experiment at KEK-B, and CLEO at Cornell are leading the effort, studying quark mixing and CP violation through bottom quark decays. Important measurements are being made by the CDF and DØ experiments at Fermilab, and will be made by the LHCb experiment under construction at CERN.

The future program in B physics will be informed by the result of ongoing experiments. A series of experiments is being proposed to make use of strange, charm and bottom hadrons, with a focus on precision studies of CP violation, mixing and rare decays. While we cannot do all these experiments in the U.S., it is important that we participate in some. Possibilities include a dedicated hadronic B experiment at the Fermilab Tevatron, and a very high luminosity electron-positron experiment, built as a major upgrade to the existing SLAC or KEK facilities.

Finally, studies of highly suppressed K meson decays, and comparisons between measurements in the K and B systems, allow new tests of the quark flavor structure, and provide a powerful probe for new physics in the quark flavor system.

2.2.5 Unification Scale Physics

Very rare processes provide additional probes of quark and lepton flavor physics. They can offer important insights into the nature of physics at the unification scale, far beyond the reach of accelerators. For example, the observation of proton decay or neutron-antineutron oscillations would point toward grand unification, with profound implications for our

understanding of matter, energy, space and time. Proposals for both types of experiments are being prepared.

A worldwide collaboration has begun to develop the design for a next-generation proton decay experiment. Assuming that an affordable and credible design is reached, it is likely that a large proton decay detector will be proposed somewhere in the world, and that American physicists will want to participate in its construction and utilization.

A large underground proton decay detector would also serve as a major neutrino telescope. In addition, it might be used as a neutrino detector for future experiments using a bright neutrino source or a neutrino factory. (See section 2.2.3.)

2.2.6 Cosmology and Particle Physics

One of the most exciting developments of recent years has been the convergence of particle physics and cosmology. A complete picture of how the universe formed and evolved requires a variety of experimental and theoretical inputs, including experiments studying dark energy and dark matter, the microwave background radiation, and the large-scale structure of the universe. These experiments will be carried out by the astronomy and particle physics communities worldwide.

Particle physicists are currently searching for particle dark matter in the galactic halo. Additional projects may be proposed in the future. Dark matter searches are complemented by the search for supersymmetry at the Tevatron, LHC and linear collider, since the lightest superparticle is a favored candidate for dark matter.

Several possible approaches to studying the mysterious dark energy are under development. One uses Type Ia supernovae. Another uses measurements of the large-scale distribution of dark matter from observations of weak gravitational lensing. It is likely that several types of approaches will be necessary to fully understand the nature of dark energy.

2.2.7 High-Energy Particle-Astrophysics

Astrophysical sources are capable of accelerating particles to energies well beyond what we can produce here on Earth. Experiments that detect very high-energy particles from space are exploring the physics of extreme conditions in the universe. For example, gamma-ray bursts, among the most powerful explosions since the Big Bang, may be sources of ultrahigh-energy neutrinos and cosmic rays.

Below: The Omega Nebula, photographed by the Advanced Camera for Surveys aboard NASA's Hubble Space Telescope. It resides 5,500 light-years away in the constellation Sagittarius. Credit: NASA, H. Ford (JHU), G. Illingworth (USCSIO), M. Clampin (STScI), G. Hartig (STScI), the ACS Science Team, and ESA



High-energy particle-astrophysics detectors also probe physics beyond the standard models of particle physics and cosmology. Gamma ray and neutrino telescopes are sensitive to supersymmetric galactic dark matter, and ultrahigh-energy cosmic rays may result from unusual particles produced in the early universe. A variety of efforts are underway in this field. New proposals will likely emerge in the future, and choices will have to be made as to which are the most promising to pursue.

2.3 A Balanced Program

The successes in particle physics over the last fifty years were built on a foundation of scientific breadth. An array of experimental strategies and techniques were used to reach our intellectual goals. For the future, we need to continue that strategy by crafting a program that utilizes a variety of scientific approaches.

The program must contain both large and small initiatives, high-energy and high-luminosity experiments, and use a variety of particle beams, both natural and man-made. The program will need to balance running experiments, projects in preparation, and R&D toward future initiatives. Finally, the geographic balance of major new facilities will be an important consideration in creating a truly global program.

The power of having a broad experimental program can be seen by tracing the emergence of the Standard Model. Mid-sized neutrino and polarized electron scattering experiments in Europe and the U.S. first observed and studied weak neutral currents; complementary small experiments on atoms also observed parity violation. Large proton-antiproton collider experiments at CERN discovered the weak gauge bosons; electron-positron collider experiments at DESY discovered the gluons. Cosmological observations provided early information on the number of generations of particles.

During recent years, precision measurements by large collaborations at electron-positron colliders, both in the U.S. and at CERN, verified the detailed properties of the Standard Model, and told us where to look next. Current initiatives are focused on discovering physics beyond the Standard Model. They are distributed around the world, and range from small and mid-scale neutrino experiments to large collider experiments located at our most powerful accelerators.

2.4 Setting Priorities and Making Choices

The roadmap presented here describes a field brimming with scientific opportunity. We cannot afford to pursue all avenues

that we have identified. Important constraints affect our planning, including limited human and financial resources, and the need to dovetail our program with those of other countries and other fields closely connected to our own. Proper prioritization is essential to obtain the highest possible return on investment. Difficult decisions—involving scientific sacrifices—will need to be made to allocate our resources wisely.

Projects in accelerator-based particle physics vary greatly in scale. Smaller projects (less than about \$50M) can usually be accommodated within laboratory operating budgets, under the purview of the laboratory director and the appropriate funding agencies. Very large high-energy physics projects (much larger than \$500M) must be truly international, and require the consensus of the worldwide particle physics community. Such projects are necessarily infrequent and must be decided on a case-by-case basis. Medium-scale projects (with total project costs between \$50M and \$500M) require significant resources and make up a large part of the U.S. program. They must be evaluated in competition with each other, in the context of the overall constraints and goals of our field. We believe that the U.S. program will greatly benefit from a new mechanism to assess and prioritize these mid-scale initiatives.

We propose the formation of a Particle Physics Project Prioritization Panel (P5), charged with carrying out this important task. In what follows we give general guidelines for how the panel will work. The details must be fleshed out by HEPAP, in coordination with the agencies and the laboratory directors. It is critical that the relevant parties move quickly to start the P5 process. We believe prioritization is central to our plan for a diverse, aggressive program of particle physics.

We envision a broad-based panel made up of distinguished scientists from particle physics, accelerator physics, and astrophysics, drawn from the university, laboratory and international communities. The members should be selected in a way that is similar to the way that HEPAP subpanels are chosen, so as to merit the confidence of the entire particle physics community. P5 should have some representation from the existing program committees, such as the laboratory PAC's and SAGENAP. It also needs to have sufficient continuity of membership to develop and sustain a consistent program.

P5 should meet on a regular basis and serve as the guardian of the roadmap. It should continually review the program, update the roadmap, look to the future and identify problems and opportunities. The panel should advise HEPAP and the

agencies on the proper prioritization of mid-scale projects that have a significant impact on the particle physics program.

In setting priorities, the panel should weigh physics importance (opportunity, reach, and uniqueness), the overall balance of the field, as well as timescales, available resources, and other programmatic concerns. Where relevant, the panel should consider proposals in the context of the international particle physics community, and in relation to the programs and advisory mechanisms of related fields, such as nuclear physics, astrophysics, and cosmology. In addition, and where relevant, the panel should compare competing projects that have similar physics goals and reach.

We believe that the P5 process will play an important role in helping the laboratories, HEPAP and the agencies plan for the

Prioritization is central to our plan for a diverse, aggressive program of particle physics.

future. It will provide an on-going mechanism to dynamically adjust the program in response to new opportunities. The P5 process will optimize the program and ensure a maximum return on research dollars. P5 will also provide an important link between the essential project review mechanisms already in place and the broader considerations of the overall particle physics portfolio.

2.5 Scenarios for the Future

In the previous sections, we outlined the major elements of the worldwide program in particle physics over the next twenty years. In this section, we sketch scenarios for the U.S. program. The scenarios fall into two classes, depending on whether the linear collider is built in the United States (onshore) or in Europe or Asia (offshore).

The scenarios are only examples. We worked them out to estimate the resources required for a balanced program aimed at answering our most important scientific questions. We present them here to illustrate possible physics programs that can be carried out over the next twenty years.

The scenarios presented here are consistent with our long-range goals. They represent programs that contain a major U.S. commitment to the linear collider, successful completion of ongoing experimental programs, full exploitation of experiments and facilities under construction, continued participation in the LHC, plus a selective set of smaller initiatives to be chosen from the roadmap and aimed at the important goals of the field.

The eventual program will depend on many factors, including physics results, funding levels, and the technological innovations that occur over this time period. It will depend on the site, start date and construction schedule of the linear collider. It will also depend on the choices we make along the way. We should not make decisions before we have to, before more information becomes available. As time goes on, we will know more about the prospects for each project, the evolution of the linear collider, and the funding for the field. The P5 panel will optimize the program of mid-sized experiments in light of this new information.

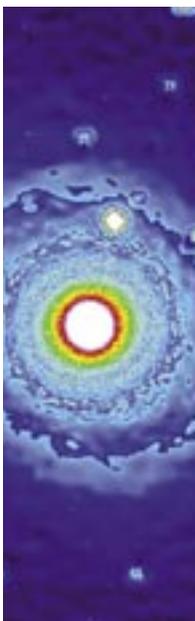
Although the cost of the linear collider is uncertain so early in the project, there is a detailed estimate for the TESLA project, proposed for the DESY laboratory in Germany. There is also a preliminary cost estimate for the NLC, a project being

formulated by scientists in the United States and abroad. In each case, continued R&D and value engineering are needed to refine the technology and fix the cost.

Our subpanel used these estimates to make a model, based on the following assumptions. We assumed a total project cost of about \$5-7B for the 500 GeV stage of the collider, in FY 2001 dollars, if it is built in the U.S. We estimated that \$1-2B of the cost could be supported through sacrifice and redirection of the present U.S. program, taking advantage of resources already available in our laboratories and universities. We also estimated that another \$1.5-2.5B, up to about one-third of the cost, could be contributed from non-U.S. sources. If the linear collider is built offshore, we assumed that sacrifice and redirection of the present U.S. program would also be required.

These cost assumptions are reflected in our long-range plan. We used them to study two classes of scenarios, one in which the linear collider is built onshore, the other offshore. We integrated the costs into a time-phased program that meets the scientific goals we outline in this report. In that way we estimated the resources required for a lean, but intellectually strong, U.S. particle physics program over the next twenty years. We found that both classes of scenarios, to be fully realized, need some new resources beyond a constant level of effort.

Below: TOP: Installation of core optics for the Laser Interferometer Gravitational Wave Observatory. **Credit:** LIGO Laboratory, Caltech **BOTTOM:** Galaxy NGC 596, a highly structured galaxy characterized by pronounced twisting and by ripples in the outer regions. **Credit:** Astrophysics Institute, Potsdam, Extragalactic Astrophysics Group



Below we sketch the main components of the sample scenarios:

2.5.1 Scenarios with an Onshore Linear Collider

These scenarios ensure the United States a leadership position in particle physics. The U.S. hosts one of the forefront scientific facilities of the 21st century, and selectively participates in other important experiments in the field. The siting of the linear collider and the redirection of resources to support it will have important implications for the programs listed below. The scenarios include:

- An electron-positron linear collider in the United States, with the U.S. contributing about 2/3 of the total project cost
- Participation in the LHC and its possible upgrades
- Significant U.S. participation in the worldwide neutrino program, possibly including use of a new proton decay detector
- Significant participation in a joint-agency effort to address key cosmological questions of interest to particle physics
- A continued program of flavor physics using existing accelerator facilities in the U.S., and possible new or upgraded facilities abroad
- Continued participation in particle astrophysics by selective pursuit of new opportunities through the twenty-year timeline
- Continued accelerator R&D aimed at future accelerator facilities

These scenarios require a net increase of about 30% in total funding to the field over twenty years.

2.5.2 Scenarios with an Offshore Linear Collider

These scenarios include significant participation in an offshore linear collider, as well as the LHC, together with a vigorous domestic program. They include:

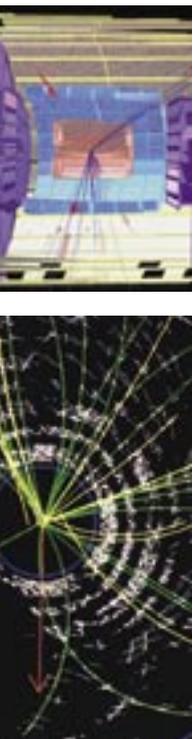
- An electron-positron linear collider in Europe or Asia, with the U.S. contributing a significant share of the total project cost
- Participation in the LHC and its possible upgrades
- A major new neutrino facility in the U.S., with significant international participation, as part of the worldwide neutrino program. The facility might be coupled with a new proton decay detector
- A focused accelerator R&D program aimed at future accelerator facilities, such as a very large hadron collider or a multi-TeV lepton collider
- Significant participation in a joint-agency effort to address key cosmological questions of interest to particle physics

- A continued program of flavor physics in the U.S., with opportunities extending through the twenty-year timeline;
- Continued participation in particle astrophysics by selective pursuit of new opportunities through the twenty-year timeline.

These scenarios require a net increase of about 10% in total funding to the field over twenty years.

All the scenarios represent strong and diverse U.S. programs over the next twenty years. They are faithful to the scientific priorities presented in this report. In both classes of scenarios, realization of the linear collider will require significant sacrifices in other parts of the program, and we will need to reduce our ambitions in other areas. Our scenarios assume very substantial contributions from the international community, not just to the linear collider, but to other initiatives as well. They also assume significant U.S. commitments to initiatives hosted overseas. These partnerships will avoid expensive and unnecessary duplication of facilities and will make effective use the available world-wide resources. The onshore scenarios provide the United States with a flagship international laboratory for fundamental physics and ensure U.S. leadership in one of the forefront scientific activities of the 21st century. The offshore scenarios contain exciting onshore programs of important smaller initiatives. In both classes of scenarios, however, sacrifices will need to be made.

In addition, we have analyzed scenarios at a constant level of effort. Under such scenarios, the United States can play an important but selective role in high-energy physics, but not in the leadership capacity advocated here. The choice of experiments will depend on results from current projects. In all scenarios, the U.S. program will be determined by the P5 process set forth in this report.



2.6 Summary

In this chapter, we presented a roadmap for the U.S. particle physics program, to make clear the connections between experimental projects and scientific goals, and to guide our decision-making and prioritization process.

The first step on our roadmap is full exploitation of the facilities and experiments in our current program, as well as those presently under construction. The next step is the thorough exploration of the TeV energy scale. This motivates our participation in the LHC and timely construction of a high-energy, high-luminosity electron-positron linear collider. Our highest priority is full participation in this exciting new facility. Looking to the very long term, our ultimate goals are certain to require an energy frontier beyond the LHC and linear collider. It is important that accelerator studies for these future possibilities be carried out.

Many of our crucial scientific questions require new initiatives involving small and medium scale projects. We must pursue some of these projects, but we cannot pursue them all. We described two classes of scenarios for the U.S. particle physics program over the next twenty years. Each class includes a very selective set of initiatives aimed at important goals of the field. The actual program will depend on the physics results, funding levels and technological innovations that occur over this time period.

In recognition of the financial and human constraints that necessarily affect our planning, we recommended that a new prioritization panel, P5, be implemented to set priorities for mid-scale initiatives across the program. P5 will be the guardian of the particle physics roadmap, presented in Appendix A.

3

Simulated response of linear collider detector to the production of two Z bosons. Each of the Z bosons decays into a pair of jets. Credit: Norman Graf



THE LINEAR COLLIDER

A MAJOR NEW INITIATIVE AT THE ENERGY FRONTIER

We recommend that the highest priority of the U.S. program be a high-energy, high-luminosity, electron-positron linear collider, wherever it is built in the world. This facility is the next major step in the field and should be designed, built and operated as a fully international effort.

We also recommend that the United States take a leadership position in forming the international collaboration needed to develop a final design, build and operate this machine. The U.S. participation should be undertaken as a partnership between DOE and NSF, with the full involvement of the entire particle physics community. We urge the immediate creation of a steering group to coordinate all U.S. efforts toward a linear collider.

3.1 Introduction

In the previous chapters, we laid out a balanced twenty-year roadmap for elementary particle physics, involving both major new facilities and smaller experiments targeted at more specific scientific goals. The centerpiece of the roadmap is the thorough exploration of the TeV energy scale. It is the crucial next step in our quest to discover ultimate unification, hidden dimensions, and cosmic connections.

This work will begin, but not end, with the CERN LHC. There is now a worldwide consensus that the LHC and an electron-positron linear collider are both essential to discover and understand the new physics at the TeV scale, and that a coherent approach, exploiting the strengths of both machines, will maximize the scientific contributions of each. In this chapter we make the case for a high-energy, high-luminosity electron-positron linear collider.

In a linear collider, intense beams of electrons and positrons are accelerated to near the speed of light and then brought into collision under tightly controlled conditions. The technical challenges to build and operate a linear collider are immense, and were considered at or beyond state-of-the-art just a few years ago. However, the challenges were met through the imagination and ingenuity of scientists and engineers the world over. The success of this R&D program has brought the world high-energy physics community to the point where it is ready to move towards construction of an electron-positron linear collider.

The scientific case for the linear collider motivates a strategy of building the machine to initially operate at an energy of about 500 GeV, to explore the Higgs and related phenomena, and then increasing the energy to 800-1,000 GeV, to more fully explore the TeV energy scale. Results from 500 GeV operations and from the LHC would influence the timescale for converting to higher energies.

The synergy between the LHC and the linear collider argues for an early start to construction, perhaps as soon as 2005. History shows that hadron and lepton machines both make essential contributions to our field. By working together, they create a whole that is much more than the sum of the parts. In light of this, our panel urges the international linear collider project to provide for construction of an 800-1000 GeV machine that would begin operation at 500 GeV.

Plans for a linear collider have been developed through a collaborative international effort involving major laboratories in the United States, Germany and Japan. The process of internationalization should be continued and strengthened so that a fully international project can be created, one in which all partners are assured of full ownership and participation. A number of the important principles that should guide this process are described in Chapter 4.

We strongly urge DOE and NSF to begin working with our partners around the globe to form the international collaboration that will carry the project forward. As a first step, we recommend the creation of a Linear Collider Steering Committee to coordinate U.S. efforts towards building the machine. The Committee will work with our partners, at home and abroad, to build a robust technical, political and managerial program for the linear collider.

3.2 The Case for the Linear Collider

In particle physics, an intense worldwide effort has led to the discovery of the basic building blocks of nature. We now know that all matter is made of quarks and leptons, and that the forces between them arise from the exchange of other particles known as gauge bosons. We have developed a mathematical theory—the Standard Model of particle physics—that describes the world of elementary particles with unparalleled precision.

In particle physics, an intense worldwide effort has led to the discovery of the basic building blocks of nature.

There is no doubt that the Standard Model will remain one of the lasting achievements of the 20th century. However, the theory is not an end in itself. It is known to be incomplete, mathematically inconsistent at the TeV scale. At this energy scale, new physics must appear.

According to our present understanding, the new physics is likely to include a Higgs boson. As emphasized in chapter 1, discovery of this long-sought particle is the next major goal at the energy frontier. The Higgs is a crucial piece of the puzzle—one that is necessary to understand how the elementary particles get their mass. But, whether the Higgs exists or not, we know that new physics lies just over the horizon, well within our reach.

During the next decade, we will carry out experiments that will begin to probe the TeV scale, first at the Fermilab Tevatron and later at the CERN LHC. These experiments are likely to discover the Higgs, or whatever takes its place. A discovery of this magnitude will revolutionize our field. The Higgs is a fundamental spin-zero particle, radically different from any particle discovered to date.

As in any scientific enterprise, the first signs of discovery are likely to be murky. Our ultimate goals require a clear and coherent picture of physics at the TeV scale. If we find a new

particle, we need to know whether it is a Higgs or something else. Does it have spin zero and even parity, as required for a Higgs boson? Does it generate masses for the W and Z, and for the quarks and leptons? Does it generate its own mass? Does a Higgs field permeate the universe? We need to answer these questions before we can say that we have discovered a Higgs particle and that it is responsible for the origin of mass.

During the past few years, a series of studies has convincingly demonstrated that a linear collider is necessary to answer these questions. The linear collider accelerates electrons and positrons, essentially structureless particles that interact through precisely calculable weak and electromagnetic interactions. Because of this, a linear collider can unambiguously determine the spins and quantum numbers of new particles. Cross section and branching ratio measurements are also straightforward and can be compared to expectations for underlying new physics. Electron beam polarization can be used to distinguish

electroweak quantum numbers and measure important mixing angles. The point-like probes of an electron-positron collider enable precision measurements that expose crucial details of new physics. These facts underlie strong endorsements from the Asian and European Committees for Future Accelerators, from the U.S. high-energy physics community during the 2001 Snowmass workshop, and from this subpanel in this report.

International studies demonstrate that the LHC and the linear collider are both essential tools to uncover the physics of the TeV scale. Experiments at the two machines will show how the electromagnetic and weak forces unify into a single electroweak force. They will reveal the mechanism by which the Higgs gives mass to the elementary particles. If there is no Higgs, experiments at the two machines will discover what takes its place. Taken together, discoveries from the two machines will revolutionize our presently limited understanding of physics at the TeV scale.

Because the Higgs gives particles their mass, the precise nature of the Higgs reveals itself in the heavier particles. The last quark, the top quark, is as heavy as a gold atom, almost a million times heavier than the electron. The LHC can produce many top quarks and look for unexpected decay modes, while the linear collider can produce top quarks at rest, measure precisely their mass, and see the effects of the new Higgs force.

HIGGS PHYSICS

The LHC and the linear collider can unravel the physics of the Higgs:

After a candidate Higgs particle is discovered, it is essential to measure its spin. A Higgs particle must have spin zero—or else it is not the Higgs! The LHC can determine the spin of a Higgs particle if its decay into ZZ has sufficient rate, while the linear collider can measure the spin of any Higgs it can produce. Since precision data from FNAL, SLAC and CERN point to a low Higgs mass, the linear collider is likely to play a crucial role in Higgs physics. This is illustrated in Figure 3.1, which illustrates how the process $e^+e^- \rightarrow HZ$ can be used to measure the spin of a 120 GeV Higgs particle. The error bars in the figure are based on 20 fb^{-1} of luminosity at each point.

The Higgs couplings must be precisely measured—some to the few percent level—to determine whether a candidate Higgs is responsible for generating mass. The LHC will measure ratios of Higgs couplings to the top quark, W and Z bosons, and a combination of $\gamma\gamma/gg$ states, often under additional assumptions. The LHC and the linear collider, working together, can determine the

magnitudes of these and other couplings very precisely, and with fewer model assumptions. Figure 3.2 shows the excellent precision with which a linear collider could measure the branching fractions of a 120 GeV Higgs, with 500 fb^{-1} integrated luminosity.

If there are multiple Higgs particles, as supersymmetry predicts, some might escape discovery at the LHC. The linear collider can find new Higgs particles up to their kinematic limits. With the precision contributed by the linear collider, measurements of the quark and lepton couplings may reveal the presence of additional Higgs particles.

Finally, precision measurement of the Higgs trilinear self-coupling—crucial to a full understanding the dynamics of electroweak symmetry breaking—can only be performed at a high-luminosity linear collider. The self-coupling of a 120 GeV Higgs can be measured to about 20% accuracy in a 500 GeV linear collider with an integrated luminosity of 1000 fb^{-1} . For larger Higgs masses, higher machine energies are necessary to reach this level of accuracy.

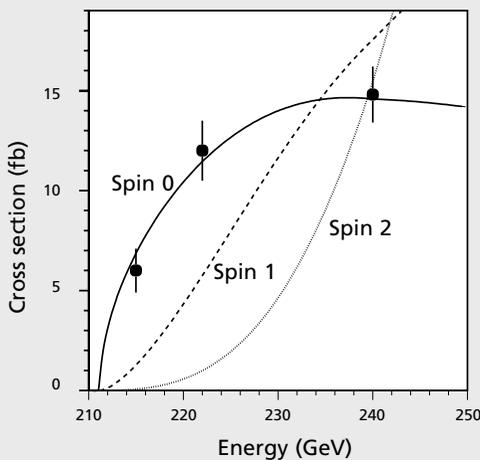


Figure 3.1. The Spin of the Higgs

Experiments at a linear collider can measure the spins of new particles. A Higgs boson has spin zero, unlike any other fundamental particle discovered to date.

From Dova, Garcia-Abia and Lohmann, LC-PHSM-2001-055

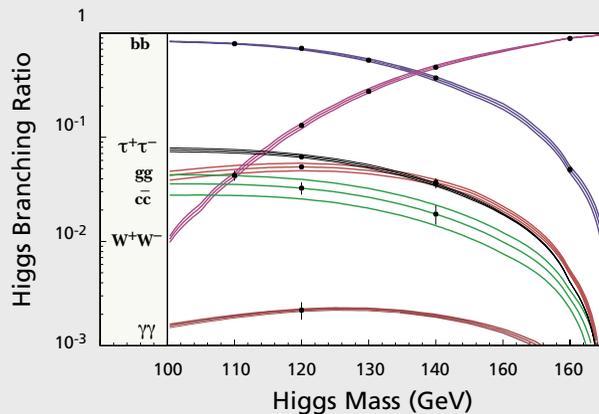


Figure 3.2. Decays of the Higgs

A high-luminosity linear collider can measure Higgs boson couplings to see whether the Higgs particle is responsible for the origin of mass.

From Battaglia, hep-ph/9910271

Our goals—ultimate unification, hidden dimensions, and cosmic connections—all point to new physics at the TeV scale. Most particle physicists expect that the Higgs will be accompanied by other new physics. Whether new particles, new forces or new dimensions, the TeV scale should be fertile ground for discovery.

For example, most particle theorists believe that electroweak unification is the first step towards the ultimate unification of all forces and matter. Experiments at the LHC and the linear collider will point the way. Precise measurements of forces and particles at the linear collider may reveal that the electroweak force is unified with the strong nuclear force. That discovery would have profound consequences, including the prediction that protons are unstable and eventually decay.

Our goals—ultimate unification, hidden dimensions, and cosmic connections—all point to new physics at the TeV scale.

Present-day experiments already hint at another new unifying principle, called supersymmetry. Supersymmetry provides a deep connection between matter and the forces of nature, through a new quantum dimension that extends our very notions of space and time. In more practical terms, supersymmetry predicts that every known particle has a supersymmetric partner, or superparticle, waiting to be discovered at the TeV scale. If supersymmetry is correct, the LHC and linear collider will be needed to discover and understand a whole new world of superparticles.

For supersymmetry to be verified, we must do more than find new particles. Precision measurements from the linear collider will be needed to test whether the superparticles have the spins and couplings dictated by supersymmetry. Precision measurements will probe the mechanism of supersymmetry breaking, and shed light on the unification of the superparticle masses. The linear collider will allow us to discover the deep connections between supersymmetry and ultimate unification, moving us closer to Einstein's goal of unifying gravity with the other three forces.

The linear collider is a powerful instrument to probe the hidden dimensions of space-time. Some theoretical explanations of electroweak unification involve new spatial dimensions hidden from the everyday world. Particles moving in these dimensions give rise to observable effects at the TeV scale. The LHC can find hidden dimensions; the linear collider can map their nature, shapes and sizes. For example, if gravitons travel in a

warped extra dimension, the linear collider can demonstrate that they have spin two, as expected. Even if the hidden dimensions are not directly accessible, precision measurements at the linear collider can look for their indirect effects on TeV physics. The discovery of extra dimensions would be an epochal event in the history of science.

What is the dark matter that pervades the universe? Many models of TeV physics contain promising candidates. For example, the dark matter might very well be neutralinos, stable neutral superparticles predicted by supersymmetric theories. Measurements at the linear collider will allow us to develop a predictive theory of this dark matter. These measurements would push our detailed knowledge of the early universe back to a trillionth of a second after the Big Bang.

The crucial importance of a high-luminosity linear collider, covering the energy range 500 GeV to 800-1000 GeV, has been dramatically revealed in a series of studies over the past decade. In the accompanying sidebars, we highlight some of these results in more technical terms, using as examples Higgs physics, hidden dimensions, supersymmetry and unification.

3.3 Science-Driven Requirements for the Linear Collider

A linear collider with a maximum energy near 1 TeV is well matched to our goal of exploring the TeV energy scale. However, precision data from experiments at CERN, Fermilab and SLAC suggest that the Higgs mass is below 200 GeV. Thus even today, before the start of the LHC, there is a strong argument for starting linear collider operation at about 500 GeV. This energy should be enough energy to detect the Higgs, study its properties, and determine whether it is responsible for generating the masses of the quarks, leptons, and gauge bosons of the Standard Model. Alternately, if a light Higgs is not found, 500 GeV should be enough energy to begin to test alternate explanations for the origin of mass.

After a rich, multiyear program at 500 GeV, we will need to increase the collider's energy to complete exploration of the TeV scale and take full advantage of the large investment in the machine. We anticipate equally exciting discoveries at these higher energies. Our long-range goals require a linear collider with a reach comparable to that of the CERN LHC. Because electrons are elementary and protons are built from quarks

NEW DIMENSIONS

At the TeV scale, theories predict that it may be possible to move into new space-time and/or quantum dimensions. The LHC and the linear collider have the potential to discover and map out these new dimensions of our universe. The linear collider would allow us to determine the quantum numbers of the particles that move in these new dimensions.

New space-time dimensions might be found by studying the emission of gravitons into the extra dimensions, together with a photon or jets emitted into the normal dimensions. Or, they might be revealed through indirect effects from the exchange of gravitons in these dimensions. Figure 3.3 shows the cross section needed to produce extra-dimensional gravitons, in association with ordinary photons, at the linear collider. Measurements at different beam energies can be used to determine the number and size of the extra dimensions. The plot assumes 500 (1000) fb^{-1} of luminosity at 500 (800) GeV, together with beam polarization.

Quantum dimensions are at the heart of supersymmetry. The LHC is ideal for discovering particles that couple through the strong interaction, such as the superpartners of quarks (squarks) and gluons (gluinos), as well as superparticles that appear in their decays.

All the superparticle masses and couplings can be precisely measured at a high-energy linear collider, with

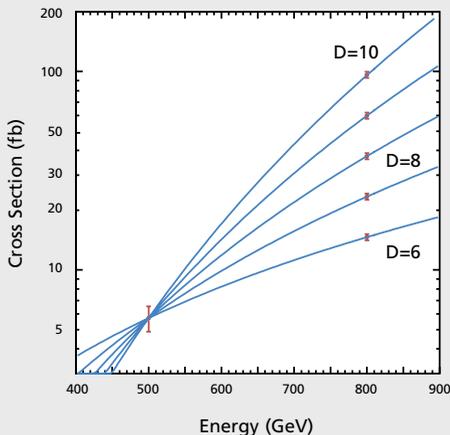


Figure 3.3. Extra Dimensions

The linear collider can measure the number (D) of space-time dimensions, using events in which particles disappear into the extra dimensions.

From Wilson, LC-PHSM-2001-010

few model assumptions, provided they can be produced. Some superparticles are expected to be in range of a 500 GeV machine, but exploration of the full spectrum requires at least 800-1000 GeV. Knowledge of the entire spectrum of superparticles is essential to discovering the new forces in nature that control supersymmetry breaking. These measurements require enough energy to produce the superparticles, high integrated luminosity (about 1000 fb^{-1}), and high beam polarization.

The linear collider would allow us to establish that the superparticles have the same interactions as their Standard Model counterparts, and that their spins differ by one-half. Precision measurements of gaugino-fermion couplings are crucial tests of supersymmetry; 1-10% deviations from the tree-level predictions open a window on very high masses.

In many supersymmetric theories, gaugino masses unify at the same scale as the gauge couplings. The LHC and the linear collider can test this hypothesis. The LHC will measure the gluino mass; the linear collider will provide precision mass determination for the superpartners of electroweak gauge and Higgs bosons. These masses can then be extrapolated to high energies, as shown in Figure 3.4. The figure shows that the linear collider's precision is necessary to learn whether gaugino masses unify at the same scale as gauge couplings—an important clue to new physics.

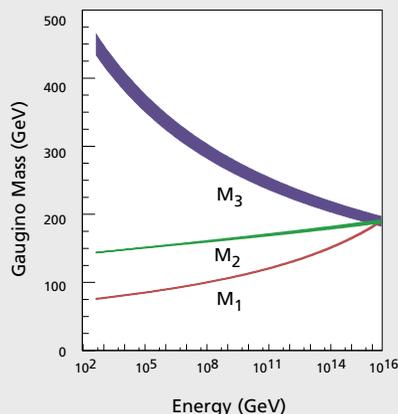


Figure 3.4. Quantum Dimensions

Discovery of gaugino mass unification requires precision measurements from the LHC (M_3) and the linear collider (M_1 and M_2).

From Blair, Porod and Zerwas, hep-ph/0007107



Above (L-R): 1) Superconducting accelerator structures at the TESLA test facility at DESY in Hamburg, Germany. Credit: DESY 2) Waveguides for linear collider under development at the Accelerator Test Facility at KEK in Japan. Credit: KEK

and gluons, this necessitates a linear collider operating at about 1 TeV with luminosity in excess of $10^{34} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$. This capability must be built into our plans from the outset.

The higher energy is likely to be necessary to search for exotic Higgs particles and to see whether the Higgs is responsible for its own mass. Theories like supersymmetry also predict new physics at energies near 1 TeV. The lightest supersymmetric particles are expected to be in range of a machine operating at about 500 GeV. But a complete understanding requires access to the heavier states. This demands a collider with 800-1,000 GeV of energy.

The luminosity of the linear collider should be at least $10^{34} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$, to provide 100 fb^{-1} integrated luminosity per year of running. This luminosity corresponds to approximately 10,000 events per year for a process with a typical electron-positron cross section at 1 TeV. Such integrated luminosities

The international accelerator community now firmly believes that a TeV-scale linear collider can be successfully built at a reasonable cost with the correct science-driven capabilities.

are necessary to determine the nature of unification, extra dimensions, and electroweak symmetry breaking. They are necessary to observe important rare processes and to measure crucial coupling constants. These measurements are vitally important and motivate the large investment required for this machine.

A final basic requirement of the linear collider is a polarized electron beam, which is essential for thoroughly measuring the spins and couplings of the new particles. It is also necessary for studying extra dimensions and supersymmetry. Polarization helps the linear collider access domains of physics inaccessible to the LHC.

3.4 Linear Collider Technologies

Since the late 1980's, a number of regional and international workshops have studied the physics goals and requirements for an electron-positron linear collider. Over the same time period, SLAC, KEK and DESY engaged in extensive R&D aimed at developing linear collider technologies capable of accessing the physics of the TeV energy scale.

The accelerator community recognized quite early that a number of issues had to be solved to build a TeV-scale linear collider. These problems included creating high-gradient accelerating systems at a reasonable cost, controlling nanometer scale beams, aligning components to high accuracy, and developing intense electron and positron sources with small beam emittances.

Great progress has been made in all of these efforts. All major issues have been essentially solved. Although

further development remains, the international accelerator community now firmly believes that a TeV-scale linear collider can be successfully built at a reasonable cost with the correct science-driven capabilities. Throughout this R&D period, there has been a strong level of international cooperation and communication. There has been formal collaboration between laboratories on R&D topics and even discussion of direct collaboration for the construction of a 1 TeV-scale linear collider.

Each of the three laboratories has developed a concept for a linear collider. SLAC spearheaded an approach called the NLC (Next Linear Collider). DESY proposed an approach called TESLA (TeV-Energy Superconducting Linear Accelerator),

and the KEK laboratory developed a concept called the JLC (Japanese Linear Collider). All three approaches share common physics goals. Their status is outlined below.

3.4.1 TESLA

TESLA is a linear collider project proposed by the DESY laboratory in Hamburg, in partnership with collaborating institutions from nine nations. TESLA would provide electron-positron collisions at a center-of-mass energy of 500 GeV, and would be expandable to about 800 GeV. Over 1,000 scientists from 36 countries developed the TESLA technical design report, which was released in March, 2001.

TESLA would be a 33-kilometer electron-positron linear collider based on superconducting technology. It would accelerate each beam to 250 GeV, and would bring the beams into collision with a luminosity of a few times $10^{34} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$. If built in Germany, TESLA would be located in a subterranean tunnel that would extend north towards the North Sea from the current DESY site. The design calls for one detector, with the possibility of adding a second later.

In addition to its colliding beam capabilities, the TESLA proposal includes an X-ray laser facility. The facility would provide extremely short and intense laser-quality flashes to create new research opportunities for physics, chemistry, biology, materials science and medicine. The X-ray laser would be driven by an electron beam generated by an alternate electron source but accelerated using a few of the TESLA superconducting cavities. It would provide X-rays between 1 and 0.1 nanometer wavelengths to 20 or 30 experimental stations.

To accelerate the beams, TESLA would use over 21,000 L-band (1.3 GHz) superconducting resonators, fabricated from pure niobium. R&D on these resonators has resulted in record acceleration voltages and a reduction in their production costs by about a factor of ten. The resonators would also tailor the electron bunches to the compact dimensions needed to drive the X-ray laser.

The TESLA Technical Design Report was submitted to the German Scientific Council. The German federal government, and the German states of Hamburg and Schleswig-Holstein will make a decision on the TESLA proposal, perhaps in early 2003. The proposal calls for TESLA to be constructed and operated as an international collaborative project.

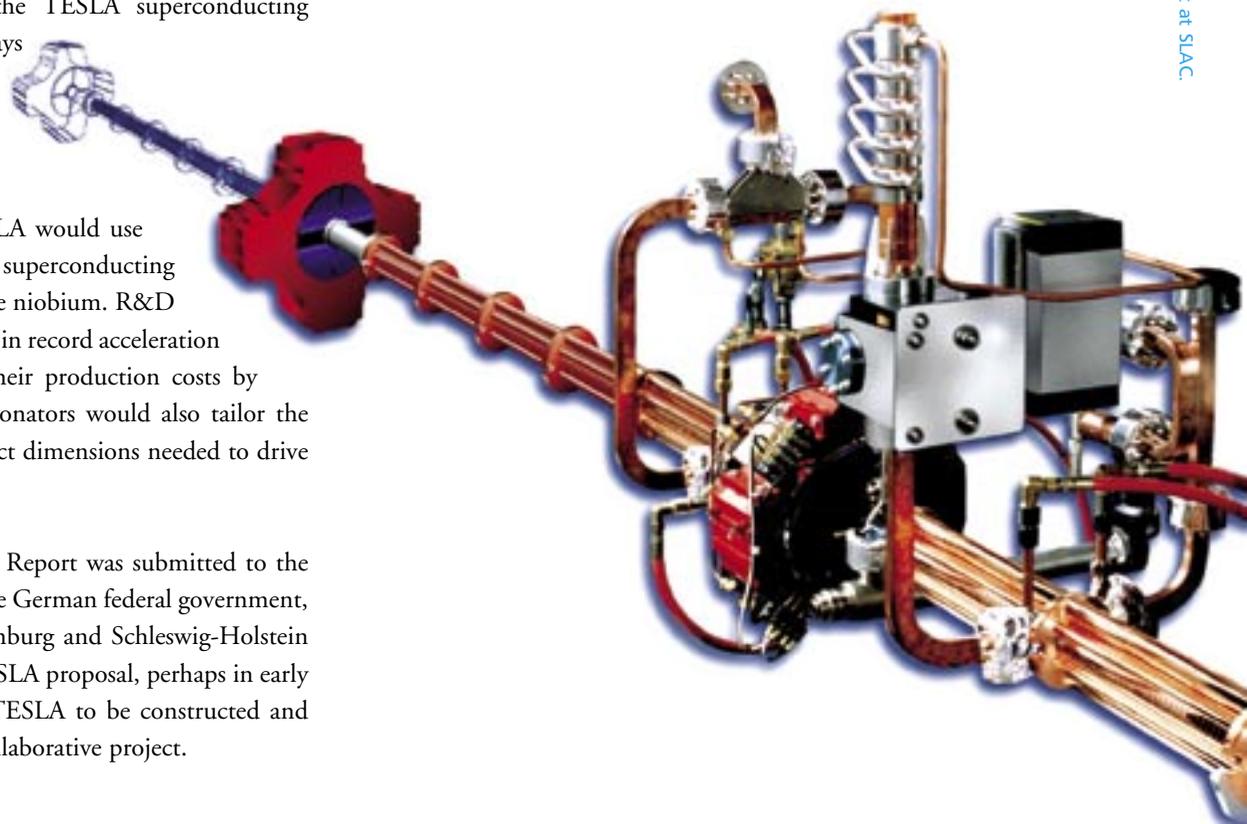
3.4.2 JLC

The JLC is aimed at an initial center-of-mass energy of 250-500 GeV, with an eventual goal of reaching the TeV region. At 500 GeV, the JLC design luminosity is also a few $10^{34} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$, but the starting energy and the luminosity would depend on physics developments and on the initial budget.

The JLC would be about 25 kilometers long. Electrons and positrons would be accelerated to 2 GeV by several injector-linac stages that would also improve beam quality. The beams would then be injected into the main linacs and accelerated to the maximum beam energy. These high-energy beams would be squeezed to the nanometer level by a final focus system. They would then be collided at the interaction point.

To achieve a high accelerating field, two alternative acceleration mechanisms are being pursued, one utilizing C-band (5.7 GHz), the other X-band (11.4 GHz), the latter in close collaboration with SLAC. Many of the important milestones have been achieved, including the development of prototype high power X-band and C-band klystrons. The designers anticipate that the energy of the machine would be increased incrementally through improvements of the high power RF system, including the klystrons.

KEK is a full participant in the worldwide R&D effort. A major endeavor is the development of the Accelerator Test Facility, a linac equipped with a low-impedance damping ring and



Below: Prototype linear collider accelerating structures, under development at SLAC.
Credit: SLAC

constructed to create an intense beam with very low emittance. Many of its essential goals have been achieved. Finally, Nagoya University and SLAC have developed photocathodes that are close to generating the required beam currents with the desired 80% polarization.

As in the TESLA design, the first part of the X- or C-band linacs could in principle produce the high quality electron beam needed to generate an intense free electron laser. Researchers are pursuing R&D efforts toward a next generation synchrotron radiation facility for materials science, nanotechnology, chemistry and the life sciences.

In 1986, the Japanese High Energy Committee first recommended the JLC as a possible major facility in Japan. It was endorsed as an international facility in the Asia-Pacific region by ACFA, the Asian Committee for Future Accelerators. The JLC is currently on the agenda of an advisory committee for Mombukagakusho (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology).

In Japan, the JLC is recognized as the next major facility in high-energy physics, but a formal proposal has yet to be submitted. In 1997, the High Energy Committee again endorsed JLC as the next principal project for high-energy physics in Japan. It urged that every effort be made to start construction early in this decade. In response, KEK has officially set up a JLC project office and committee, and submission of a formal proposal is expected soon.

3.4.3 NLC

The American effort on a TeV-scale linear collider has been led by SLAC, in collaboration with KEK and Fermilab. The Next Linear Collider (NLC) is based on experience gained with the Stanford Linear Collider (SLC), the first linear collider ever built. The NLC is optimized to deliver electron-positron collisions at a center-of-mass energy of 1 TeV, although operations could begin at lower energy. The design luminosity is a few times $10^{34} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$.

The NLC would be roughly 30 kilometers in length. The room-temperature linacs are each about 12 kilometers long, with a six kilometer central region that brings the beams into collision. The linacs would have several extraction points at intermediate lengths, so collisions could take place across a broad range of energies. The final focus would deliver the beams to one of the two interaction regions.

The NLC is based on X-band RF technology, four times the frequency of the SLAC linac, to attain higher gradients of

roughly 50 million volts per meter. The accelerating structures are disk-loaded cylindrical structures, approximately one meter long. Microwave RF power is generated by high power klystrons. The power is transported through an RF pulse compression system to the accelerating structures. There are no explicit plans to include an X-ray free electron laser similar to the Linac Coherent Light Source at SLAC or the TESLA X-ray FEL as part of the NLC facility, but such an instrument could be added.

The NLC design was first presented to the high-energy physics community at the 1996 Snowmass meeting. In 1999, the NLC project was reviewed by a DOE Lehman Committee, which concluded that the project was ready to start a Conceptual Design Report (CDR). Since 1999, the NLC program has been directed toward optimizing performance, reducing costs, and increasing the reliability of components and subsystems. The next step for the NLC would be to develop a CDR with a baseline design and detailed cost estimate for a construction project.

3.5 The Linear Collider R&D Program

Over the last decade, there has been enormous progress toward a linear collider. There are now at least two technologies that could be used. Much of the initial R&D effort went into developing the RF systems required to accelerate the beams to the desired energies. In the United States and Japan, efforts were focused on developing high power klystrons and the accelerator structures that are needed to accelerate low emittance beams. In Germany, the focus was on reducing the cost and increasing the gradient of the superconducting RF cavities. Some of the most important accomplishments are noted below:

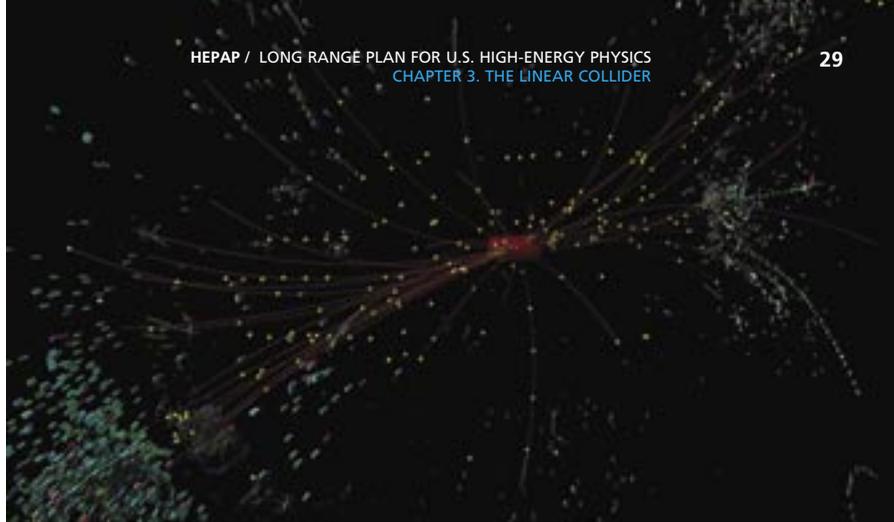
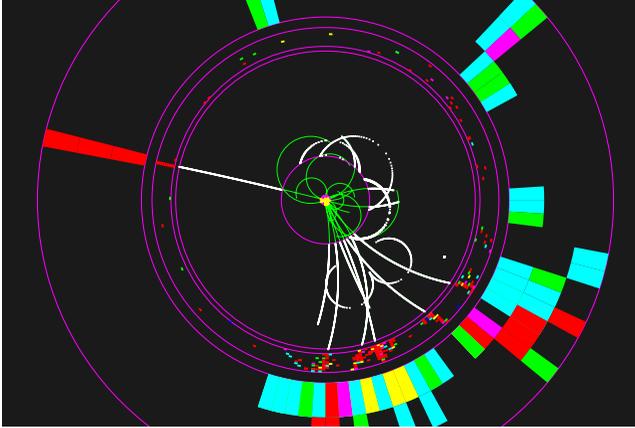
3.5.1 Accomplishments of the R&D Program

The Stanford Linear Collider (SLC) operated from 1989 through 1998 and demonstrated the feasibility of the linear collider concept. At the SLC, numerous techniques were pioneered to preserve the quality of the very small beams from the injectors to the collision point. Spot sizes at the collision point of $1.7 \mu\text{m}$ by 700 nm were generated and routinely maintained.

The TESLA Test Facility (TTF) in Germany, operating since 1997, demonstrated the basic RF components for the 500 GeV TESLA linear collider, including the modulator, klystron, and accelerator cavities. The TTF exceeded the design gradient of 15 MV/m and operated with gradients as high as 22 MV/m , close to the TESLA-500 goal of 23 MV/m .

Below: TOP: Semiconductor devices for klystron modulator at the KEK laboratory, Japan. Credit: KEK. BOTTOM: Cross section of X-band klystron modulator at KEK's Accelerator Test Facility. Credit: KEK





The NLC Test Accelerator (NLCTA) at SLAC, operating since 1997, demonstrated the basic components for a 500 GeV X-band linear collider, including the conventional modulators, X-band klystrons, RF pulse compression, and accelerator structures. The NLCTA operated reliably at 40 MV/m with the original accelerator structure design. More recently, the NLCTA was used to test new structure designs that have operated at gradients as high as 80 MV/m.

The high power RF klystrons required to generate the RF power for the linear accelerators were demonstrated for X-band, C-band and TESLA designs. Thompson produced two of the multi-beam 10 MW long-pulse klystrons needed for the TESLA design. Toshiba, Marconi and CPI have produced some of the X-band and C-band prototype klystrons for the JLC and NLC designs.

Specialized damping and detuning techniques were developed to reduce the higher-order modes that can drive the beam breakup instability. These techniques have been verified in the ASSET facility at SLAC and the TTF at DESY. Additional improvements in these damping techniques are expected to further reduce these higher order modes to the point where they are completely negligible.

The beam loading compensation, which is necessary to operate with the long trains of bunches and attain the high luminosities, was demonstrated for the normal and superconducting designs in the NLCTA and the TTF.

The Final Focus Test Beam (FFTB) at SLAC operated from 1994 through 1997. The FFTB focused 50 GeV beams to spot sizes of 2,000 by 69 nm. It demonstrated greater demagnification than would be needed for a future linear collider. The FFTB project also developed stripline and RF cavity beam position monitors with better than 1 μm and 25 nsec pulse-to-pulse resolutions, respectively. In addition, remote translation stages were developed to move the magnets

with step sizes of 300 nm, similar to those needed in the final focus system of a linear collider.

An important challenge for the linear collider designs is to control the extremely small beams (about 200 nanometers by a few nanometers at the collision point). Alignment of 100 microns or better is required, since even small misalignments of accelerator components can spoil the performance of the machine. Advanced feedback and alignment techniques, modeled on those developed for the SLC and the Final Focus Test Beam project, will control the beams.

At the Accelerator Test Facility at KEK in Japan, a prototype linear collider damping ring began operation in 1997 and has attained its design-normalized single bunch emittances.

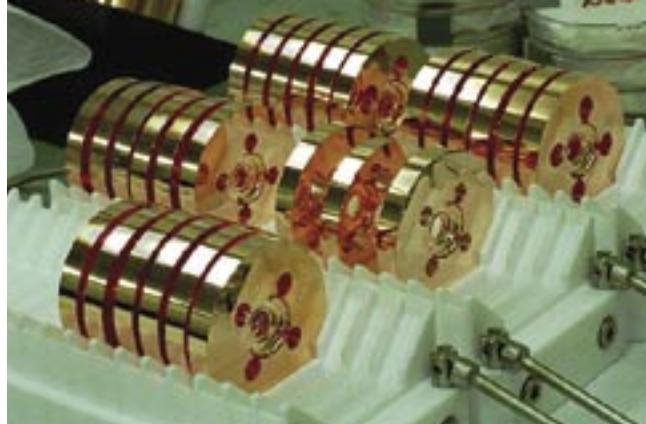
Over the last decade, ground motion measurements at numerous sites around the world found stability much better than required to collide nanometer-sized beams. Active stabilization demonstrations at SLAC and DESY reduced the residual vibration in the relevant frequency range by an order of magnitude.

3.5.2 The Future R&D Program

Further R&D is still needed, mostly in the areas of the RF systems, luminosity performance, and systems engineering, to confirm the ultimate energy and luminosity reach of the machines.

For the X-band systems of the SLAC and KEK designs, further investigation is required to find optimal accelerating structures that will reliably reach the full design gradient. Good progress is being made and recent tests with short structures are encouraging. These tests should conclude by the beginning of 2003, for both short and full-length structures. By the end of 2003, the NLC collaboration aims to complete a full test of the RF system suitable for 1 TeV operation, including the moderator, klystrons, RF pulse compression system, and high gradient structures.

Above (L-R): 1) Simulated response of linear collider detector to supersymmetry, displaying the characteristic signature of a lepton, a hadronic jet and missing transverse energy. Credit: Norman Graf 2) Simulated event illustrating the associated production of a Higgs particle and a Z boson at a linear collider. Credit: Norman Graf



Above (L-R): 1) Fermilab physicist Leo Bellantoni with superconducting radio frequency cavity. Credit: Fermilab 2) Machined copper disks prepared for X-band radio frequency cavity. Credit: KEK

For TESLA, the remaining R&D will be mainly devoted to proving that results on accelerating field gradients are applicable to the fully integrated system and to increasing the gradient from 23 MV/m to 35 MV/m, necessary for the 800 GeV upgrade. In addition, the collaboration is investigating a potential cost reduction by powering a pair of nine-cell cavities using one coupler. This would save on the length of the machine and halve the number of RF couplers. This program should have conclusive results by 2003.

For the C-band RF system, R&D is focused on high-power testing, and on developing more efficient components, including klystrons, modulators, and pulse compression system. Routes to high collision energies and luminosities are actively being pursued.

At KEK and elsewhere, studies are also continuing to better understand the beam dynamics in the damping rings. These studies are needed for the NLC/JLC damping rings as well as the less conventional TESLA damping ring.

Finally, further studies on aspects of control, stabilization, and diagnostics are also underway.

3.5.3 The Technology Choice

The International Committee for Future Accelerators (ICFA) is carrying out a technical assessment of the two competing technologies (room temperature and superconducting). A report from ICFA's study should be forthcoming within a year. However, it appears that either technology could be used to construct a linear collider, and that the actual technology choice will depend on many factors.

The international collaboration that will build the linear collider must decide on the optimum technology. That decision must be based on sufficient R&D so that all relevant issues have been addressed in enough detail to support the

decision. We recommend developing a process for making this decision as early as possible, to focus the development work on the technology to be employed.

It should be noted that the R&D being carried out on both approaches will have significant payoff beyond supporting the technology choice. Many developments are likely to be utilized by the scientific and technological communities at large. In particular, R&D on superconducting RF technology has and will continue to have a significant impact on other accelerator systems, even outside high-energy physics. For example, the Spallation Neutron Source will use a high-gradient superconducting RF linac that is expected to be less expensive and more efficient than alternate approaches. Similarly, the R&D on normal conducting systems will be essential for multi-TeV two-beam accelerator systems, as well as a variety of other accelerator applications, including medical and industrial accelerators where compact size is desirable. If history is a guide, these developments will eventually be used by industry, generating significant economic return on the R&D investment made for the linear collider.

We emphasize the importance of making an early technology choice for a linear collider. This will require a focused and intensified R&D program which must be given very high priority within the U.S. program. We discuss this and other organizational issues further in the next chapter.

3.6 Summary

There is now a widespread consensus in the worldwide high-energy physics community that our next large project should be a TeV-scale linear collider. The linear collider must be designed to be capable of reaching an energy of 800-1,000 GeV with high luminosity, above $10^{34} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$. The compelling scientific case and the advanced level of R&D strongly support starting construction as soon as feasible, if possible as early as 2005.

We have recommended that the highest priority of the U.S. program be a high-energy, high-luminosity, electron-positron linear collider, wherever it is built in the world. To optimize the design for performance and cost in a timely manner, the United States and its partners must vigorously pursue an intensified R&D program. We recommend that a steering committee be formed in the U.S. to coordinate all activities and to work with our international partners on choosing the best technology for the linear collider project.

4

Opposite: Engineering Physicist Tamee Smith working on components for linear collider at the Stanford Linear Accelerator Center. Credit: SLAC



HOSTING THE LINEAR COLLIDER IN THE UNITED STATES

We recommend that the United States prepare to bid to host the linear collider, in a facility that is international from the inception, with a broad mandate in fundamental physics research and accelerator development. We believe that the intellectual, educational and societal benefits make this a wise investment of our nation's resources.

We envision financing the linear collider through a combination of international partnerships, use of existing resources, and incremental project support. If it is built in the U.S., the linear collider should be sited to take full advantage of the resources and infrastructure available at SLAC and Fermilab.

4.1 Introduction

The linear collider promises to be one of the greatest scientific projects of our time. It will be at the frontier of basic science, of advanced technological development, of international cooperation, and of educational innovation. It will attract many of the top scientists in the world to participate in the scientific and technical opportunities it offers.

We believe that the possibility of becoming the host country for the linear collider is a rare and timely opportunity, and one that should be seized by the U.S. By hosting the project, the United States would be the center of scientific and technical activity for a great international project and this important field of science. The linear collider would help the U.S. maintain a leadership role in the exciting quest to unravel the mysteries of matter, energy, space and time.

In this chapter, we present the case to host the machine. We analyze the technical and organizational resources that we can bring to the task. Of equal importance, we discuss how the linear collider offers the possibility to create a truly international framework for initiating and implementing a major project, and more broadly, an international laboratory for physics research in the United States. As a starting point, we recommend the formation of a U.S. steering committee to oversee all these activities, from coordinating the technical R&D to helping create the international partnership necessary to build the linear collider.

4.2 The Case for Hosting the Linear Collider

We believe the time is right for the United States to host the linear collider. A healthy worldwide physics program requires a distribution of major facilities around the globe. With the U.S. making a sizable investment in the LHC, it is appropriate for the next large new facility for high-energy physics to be in the U.S. A decision to bid to host the linear collider would send an important signal of American leadership and responsibility in this increasingly international field.

Past investments in accelerator facilities have enormously enriched our society. History shows that accelerator facilities provide important platforms for major advances in physics and technology. But they do even more. They excite the imaginations of our children and grandchildren and the public at large. A linear collider in the United States would help attract a new generation of students to the physical sciences. Some would stay in science and advance basic and applied research. Others would contribute their analytical and technical skills to society by becoming leaders in business, government, teaching, and industry. The linear collider would attract some of the brightest scientists from around the world to the U.S. American society would greatly benefit from their creativity and intelligence.

We believe that an international linear collider facility in the United States should have a broad mandate in fundamental physics research, accelerator development, and outreach. The opportunity to develop a truly international project would

enable the U.S. to take the lead in forging a new approach to planning, collaboration and management in science on a global scale. The linear collider would also be an important opportunity to further develop new technology for distributed computing and data sharing, as well as for monitoring and operating complex detectors and accelerators from afar. These technical developments would build on the invention of the World Wide Web, and on our present work on the LHC.

Locating such a facility in the United States would allow a greater portion of our economic investment to be recaptured through jobs and technological benefits. A linear collider would push technical requirements in various industrial areas, such as

An international linear collider facility in the United States should have a broad mandate in fundamental physics research, accelerator development, and outreach.

electronics, computing, micromechanics and construction. This economic return is a key reason why other regions have chosen to host large projects.

The economic benefits of previous accelerators are well documented by studies done at CERN. These studies indicate that for every Swiss franc spent by CERN in high technology, three Swiss francs were generated through increased economic activity and cost savings in European high-tech industries. This analysis does not include the effect of such major spin-offs as the World Wide Web, whose concept and protocol were invented at CERN.

Many nationally prominent figures have called for an initiative to substantially increase funding in the physical sciences. The recent report of the U.S. Commission on National Security/21st Century concluded that the nation has been living off the economic and security benefits generated by the last three generations' investment in science and education—and that these systems are in serious crisis. After its first recommendation to create a National Homeland Security Agency, the Commission's second recommendation was to double the federal research and development budget by 2010. An initiative to substantially increase funding for research in the physical sciences is consistent with this recommendation, and is necessary to enhance the nation's long-term scientific and technological competitiveness. As a flagship facility for 21st century science, the linear collider could be a centerpiece of a national effort to boost the physical sciences.

4.3 Constructing the Linear Collider

As described in Chapter 2, the roadmap for our field has many exciting opportunities over the next twenty years. We believe that our scientific goals are best achieved by balancing investments across these opportunities. Our top priority, however, is the linear collider. The project is of a size, complexity and scope that it can only be realized by an international collaboration, wherever it is built in the world.

If the linear collider is sited in the United States, we envision financing it through a combination of investments from non-U.S. collaborators, the use of existing infrastructure and

human resources within the U.S. program, and increased support to the U.S. particle physics program. This report will consider each of these contributions in turn.

International investment is essential for a project of this scale. A number of issues are independent of the site. First and foremost, all partners must feel ownership, so full internationalization must begin at the start of the project and cover all its aspects and stages. This means that initial steps toward internationalization should begin immediately, independent of the final location of the facility. For the linear collider, endorsements from the international high-energy physics community have already set the stage for global participation.

A significant fraction of the linear collider must be financed from the existing U.S. high-energy physics program. This can be accomplished through sound management and site selection. For example, accelerator physicists, engineers and technicians already engaged in linear collider R&D will work on the new facility. In addition, we expect a large segment of the U.S. particle physics community to be attracted by the exciting science and technology opportunities at the linear collider.

We believe that a bold new initiative like the linear collider justifies new funding from the U.S. government. The linear collider is an important investment for this country. It would bring one of the greatest scientific projects of our time to the United States, together with its associated intellectual,

educational, technological, and economic benefits. We envision that the host country, in this case the U.S., would contribute about two-thirds of the cost of the project. This would require incremental funding beyond the resources available through redirection of our present program.

At existing laboratories, we foresee a natural realignment of accelerator physicists, technicians, engineers, and particle physicists as the linear collider project ramps up and other activities fulfill their scientific objectives. Universities and national accelerator laboratories would devote their efforts to providing major subsystems of the collider. A significant



portion of the staff in the existing high-energy physics laboratories, including those engaged in procurement, human resources, project management and safety, would also be devoted to the new project.

If a linear collider is built in the U.S., the site should be at or near an existing high-energy physics laboratory, to take full advantage of existing resources. The project would greatly benefit from existing laboratory infrastructure, including lab and office space, as well as the support services outlined above. Most important, however, are the experienced personnel—physicists, engineers, and technicians—who would join the new project, providing expertise not otherwise available.

Drawn by the exciting physics possibilities, we expect that many in the experimental physics community would join their colleagues from abroad in the conception and development of the first experiments at the new facility. Indeed, following recent examples both in the United States and Europe, we expect that approximately half of the scientists and in-kind contributions to such experiments would come from outside the U.S.

4.3.1 Technical Resources and In-Kind Contributions

The linear collider will be built from technical components produced by a broad collaboration. Since many contributions

will be in-kind, the financial burden will rest on laboratories distributed around the world. This cooperative model will foster vigorous and dynamic programs at all the laboratories participating in the linear collider.

The three project phases of construction—R&D, construction and installation, and commissioning—all require different skills. These skills are available at laboratories and universities in the United States and abroad. In one possible model for constructing a linear collider in the U.S., the United States would assume responsibility for the conventional facilities for the project, as well as for some of the technical components.

The international partners would contribute the remaining technical components, primarily in an in-kind fashion.

The practice of in-kind contributions has a long history of success in the construction of large detectors. For example, the CDF detector at Fermilab was built with in-kind contributions from eleven countries, at a total cost of several hundred million dollars. More recently, BaBar at SLAC and PHENIX at Brookhaven were built with subsystems originating from many countries in the world.

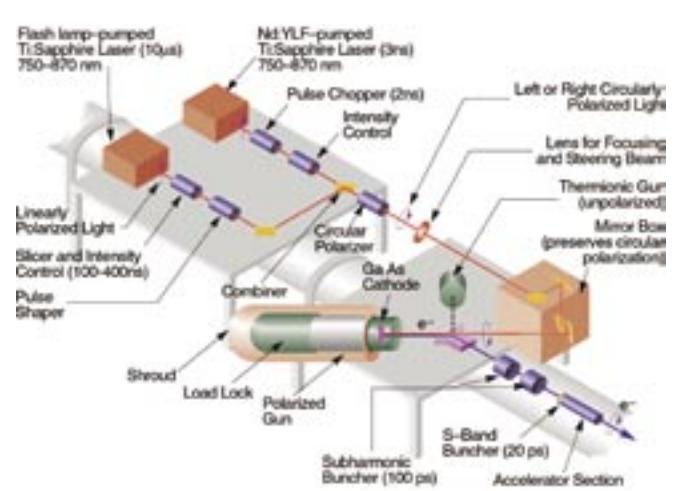
In-kind contributions have also become common in accelerator projects. The Final Focus Test Beam (FFTB) at SLAC, with a total project cost of approximately \$25M, was constructed with about \$10M of in-kind technical components contributed by international collaborators. The U.S. contribution of \$531M to the CERN LHC is mostly in-kind. The LHC contribution is managed by a partnership of five national laboratories in collaboration with many American universities. Finally, the \$1.4B Spallation Neutron Source at Oak Ridge is being constructed using contributions and the technical expertise from six national laboratories.

4.3.2 The Accelerator Physics Base in the United States

Because of the extensive R&D for the linear collider, as well as technical developments for other accelerators, the worldwide



Above (L-R): 1) Superconducting quadrupole magnet, built at Fermilab for the Large Hadron Collider at CERN. Credit: Fermilab 2) Laser source producing polarized electrons for the SLAC accelerator. Credit: SLAC



community has the technological base to build the linear collider. In particular, the United States is well positioned to be a major contributor to either the room-temperature or the superconducting technology. Both technologies have been developed in great detail (as described in Chapter 3) with important contributions from the U.S. R&D program.

Accelerator physics in the United States is based on several strong components. First, the U.S. has long played a leading role in international collaborations, starting with organization of the first international accelerator physics conferences in the early 1960's. American scientists have played a major role in accelerator design and construction from the very beginning of the field. Second, the United States has maintained a diverse base for the development of accelerator technology, with different DOE and NSF laboratories contributing to a variety of basic technologies. These programs have contributed to the development of the technologies proposed for the

its extension, the SLC. The techniques to generate, accelerate, focus, and collide low emittance electron/positron beams were refined during the development and operation of the SLC. These techniques represent the essential technological base for all linear colliders.

Superconducting linac technology was pioneered by the development of superconducting RF cavities at Cornell. The technology has twice been transferred to major construction projects in the United States, the Continuous Electron Beam Accelerator Facility at Thomas Jefferson Laboratory and the Spallation Neutron Source at Oak Ridge. Fermilab and Brookhaven also have significant expertise in cryogenics and pulsed power technology. Moreover, Cornell and Fermilab were partners during much of the TESLA Test Facility construction; they have been members of the TESLA collaboration from the very beginning.

American scientists have played a major role in accelerator design and construction from the very beginning of the field.

linear collider. Finally, previous construction and operation of complex accelerators, particularly the Tevatron collider and the SLC, provide essential expertise for building and operating a future linear collider.

The normal conducting option for the linear collider is being developed by a collaboration involving SLAC, FNAL, LBNL, LLNL, KEK in Japan, CERN in Europe, and BINP in Russia. Over the last several decades, SLAC has developed many of the key technologies. It has also gained the accelerator physics experience relevant for the construction and operation of large-scale linear accelerators. Much of this experience was obtained by operating SLAC's two-mile linear accelerator, and

As a result of all these efforts, the world community has the manpower and the technical base to build a linear collider. In the United States, there are approximately 300 accelerator physicists in high-energy physics at national laboratories and universities supported by DOE and NSF. Approximately 100 already work on electron-positron machines. There are at least as many accelerator physicists available overseas. Moreover, it is reasonable to expect that a project of this size will draw additional expertise into the field. We believe that the foundations have been laid for the international effort to construct and operate the facility.



Aerial view of Fermilab. Credit: Fermilab

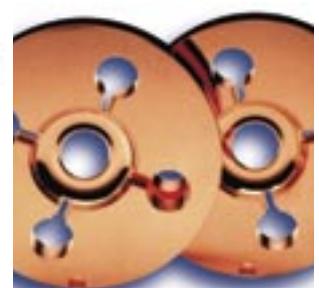


Aerial view of SLAC. Credit: SLAC

4.3.3 The Technology Choice

The time is approaching to choose a technology for the linear collider. The choice will follow on a process that began in the mid-1980's, and continued through a series of conferences where initial comparisons were made. In 1996, an international technical review committee, chaired by Greg Loew from SLAC, issued a report that contained a comprehensive description of the various R&D programs then underway. The International Committee for Future Accelerators (ICFA) has requested an update, aimed for FY 2003, with a preliminary report in the summer of 2002.

Following the Loew Committee assessment, and with the full involvement of our international partners, we urge that a decision on the technology be made as early as possible, preferably in FY 2003/2004. This would allow the beginning of the linear collider construction project in FY 2005. We envision an eight-year construction period to achieve 500 GeV in the center of mass. Following a multiyear research program, as described in chapter 3, we expect the energy to be increased, and that the completed facility would run at 800-1,000 GeV.



4.3.4 Organizational Issues

A number of issues need to be resolved before we can start construction of a linear collider in the United States. These include reaching final agreement on the technical design for the machine, working toward the definition of an optimized experimental program, and conducting negotiations in the political sphere to arrange an international collaboration to build the facility.

The R&D program is already well underway. It is divided among the international participants working in effective existing collaborations. The detector working groups need to include a larger community, and the appropriate level of funding for detector R&D must be defined, so the R&D can be completed.

The formation of an international organization under scientific leadership is necessary to complete the linear collider design and initiate the collaborations for its physics use. As a first step, we recommend that a U.S. Linear Collider Steering Committee, with strong centralized leadership, be formed as soon as possible. This group should bring together the laboratory and university efforts toward the linear collider. We also recommend that DOE and NSF quickly establish a joint-agency partnership for the linear collider accelerator and its detectors.

The linear collider facility will require an organization providing international governmental oversight, with responsibility to participating governments. We recommend that the Linear Collider Steering Committee, along with DOE and NSF, take the lead in defining and organizing the appropriate inter-governmental management structure. In parallel, DOE and NSF should together seek the necessary governmental endorsements to allow the Linear Collider Steering Committee to work with our international partners to form a wholly international organization.

DOE and NSF have jointly managed U.S. participation in the LHC through a Joint Oversight Group. They have also participated actively on the board of funding agencies that examines and monitors LHC resources. These two LHC organizations, one local that monitors U.S. spending and progress, and the other international, provide models that could be built on to establish a comprehensive international linear collider project. Defining the project will require significant discussion among the representatives of the responsible political bodies of the participating countries.

4.4 Summary

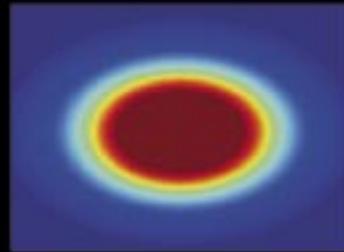
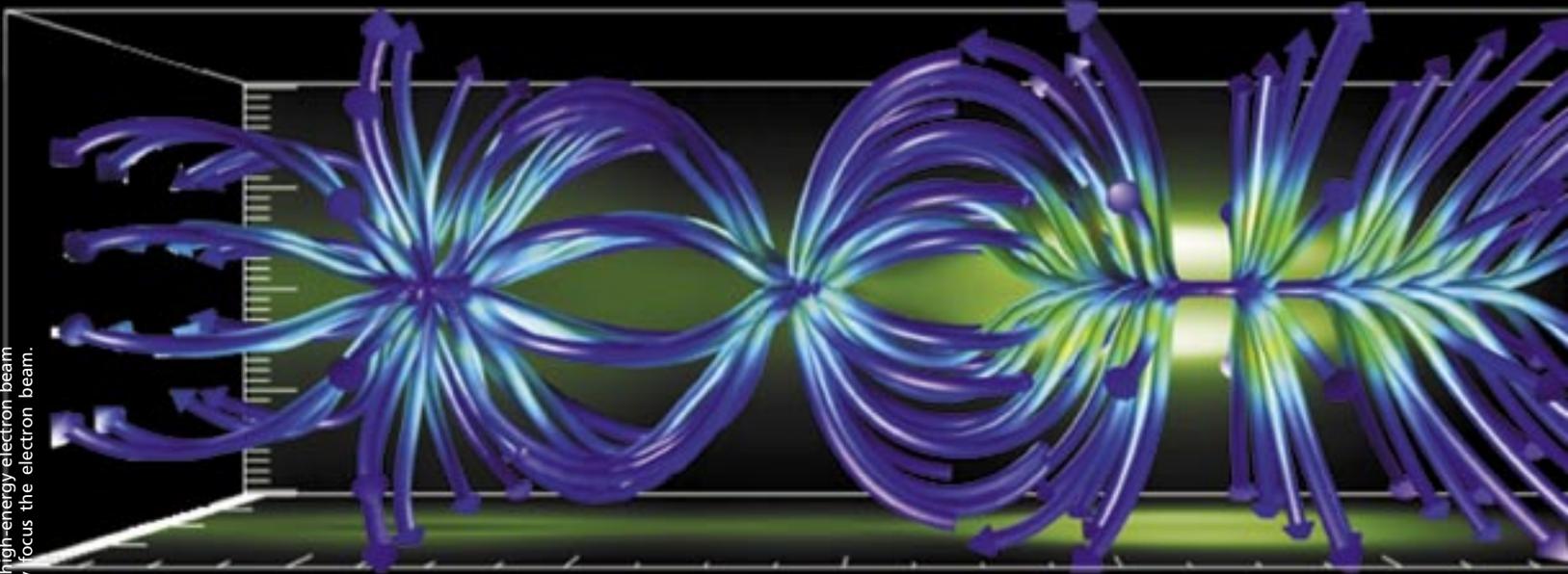
We believe the U.S. should bid to host the linear collider. By hosting the project, the United States would be the center of the scientific and technical activity for one of the greatest scientific enterprises of our time.

The intellectual and economic benefits from hosting this international facility would make it a flagship for our program in the physical sciences. It offers the possibility to create a truly international laboratory for physics research in the United States

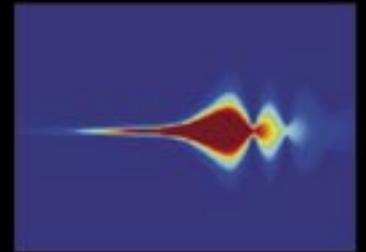
As a starting point, we recommend the formation of a Linear Collider Steering Committee to oversee all linear collider activities in the U.S., including work towards defining and organizing the appropriate inter-governmental structure to manage the facility.

5

Computer-generated representation of forces induced by a high-energy electron beam as it propagates through a plasma. The forces can tightly focus the electron beam.
 Credit: Chan Joshi



Without Plasma



With Plasma

INVESTING FOR THE FUTURE

We recommend that vigorous long-term R&D aimed toward future high-energy accelerators be carried out at high priority within our program. It is also important to continue our development of particle detectors and information technology. These investments are valuable for their broader benefits and crucial to the long-range future of our field.

5.1 Introduction

The long-term success of particle physics research depends critically on human and technological resources. A vigorous university program, strong national laboratories, and R&D throughout the field are vital ingredients in developing the new ideas and tools that make particle physics such an exciting field of discovery.

Research in high-energy physics is carried out by a partnership of university research groups and the national laboratories. Each has an important role to play. University-based physicists draw students into the field, contribute many of the ideas that underlie major advances and discoveries, and help build and operate major detector facilities. Laboratory-based physicists build and operate the large accelerators, provide engineering, technical and scientific expertise to experiments, and carry out much of the R&D that moves the field forward.

Historically, this university/laboratory partnership has proven to be an effective way to carry out our research program. We believe that any successful long-range plan for particle physics must foster this partnership. A healthy partnership is especially important given the particular demands of our increasingly global field.

A vigorous program of technological research and development at our universities and laboratories is essential to develop the advanced equipment we need. These tools include the accelerators and detectors that have led to so many discoveries in the past, and with appropriate R&D, will do so again in the future. Advanced computing is another essential element for our science, allowing us to examine incredibly large volumes of data and facilitating the work of our global collaborations.

In this chapter, we discuss investments for the future of the field. These include university- and laboratory-based research, as well as three key areas of technology development: (1) accelerators that provide ever-higher energies and intensities of particles; (2) particle detectors that make visible the reactions we study; and (3) software and computer tools that enable us to mine data. The extreme performance we require has given rise to new techniques for particle acceleration, advanced computation and the detection of particles and radiation. These advances have found broad application in other fields of science, as well as technology, health, information technology, and defense.

5.2 University-Based Research

The high-energy physics program in the United States is built around a strong university-based community. Our major national laboratories, Fermilab and SLAC, were created in the 1960's to centralize the major facilities used by university researchers. Universities Research Association, a large university consortium, operates Fermilab, while Stanford University runs SLAC. Both laboratories have large university-based communities fully involved in their research programs. A healthy balance between universities and national laboratories is key to the success of the program we outline in this report.

University faculty, graduate students and postdoctoral researchers make up more than 80% of the scientists working in elementary particle physics. University-based research is a particularly cost-effective component of the overall program since universities pay faculty salaries during the academic year. They also provide a considerable fraction of graduate student support. University groups play a critical role in renewing our field. They are instrumental in opening new areas of research, such as the exciting connection between cosmology and particle physics.

The theoretical effort in high-energy physics, primarily based at universities, is an important part of our program. High-energy physics thrives on a continual interchange between theory and experiment. Theorists develop new ideas about the basic particles and their interactions, as well as space, time, and the fate of the universe. Theorists also help interpret the data produced by experiments. Building on data and new theoretical ideas, theorists help to identify the experimental avenues that have the greatest promise for important future discoveries. Experimentalists validate or disprove theoretical ideas, and more often than not, find surprises that fundamentally change our way of thinking.

More particularly, high-energy theory is carried out across a broad front, from research exploring new theoretical ideas, like string theory or extra dimensions, to important phenomenological work, like lattice QCD studies on

computers or predictions for experimental measurements. Theory also plays an important role in data analysis and the interpretation of experimental results.

University scientists provide training for our undergraduate and graduate students. The intrinsic excitement of high-energy physics makes it a wonderful vehicle for drawing young people into science, and for demonstrating the importance of fundamental research. Graduate education in theoretical and experimental particle physics provides effective training for a variety of technical and scientific careers. The experiences of attacking complex problems in depth, and of communicating and defending the results in a competitive setting, are invaluable in preparing for a career in academia or industry. The abilities to apply computers to solve challenging problems, to simulate complex systems, and to operate sophisticated equipment are prized in many settings.

Experimentalists obtain specialized experience in electronics, advanced software techniques, and development of state-of-the-art detectors. Particle physics experiments also offer opportunities for working in and managing research or production teams, for interacting with engineers and industrial suppliers, and for gaining experience in international collaboration. Working within a large collaboration enhances communication and writing skills and emphasizes the importance of teamwork. All these abilities have a wide range of applications in the modern global economy.

The health of university-based research is a crucial element of our long-range plan. Budget problems over the past decade have hit university groups particularly hard, since practically all of their expenditures support people. It is important that a high priority be given to restoring the strength of university-based research, as recommended by the 1998 HEPAP Subpanel.

5.3 The National Laboratories

At the center of the high energy physics program in the U.S. are the two large national laboratories—Fermilab and SLAC. These laboratories house major accelerator and detector facilities, provide much of the field's technical infrastructure, and create intellectual hubs of activity. Historically, the centralization of resources in these laboratories evolved as accelerator facilities became large collaborative ventures. Today, the national laboratories enable the development of accelerators and detectors and efficiently provide and support

A healthy balance between universities and national laboratories is key to the success of the program we outline in this report.

shared facilities for carrying out the high-energy physics research program.

Fermilab was created in 1967 on a 6,800-acre site in Illinois under its first director, Robert R. Wilson. The initial goal was to build a 200 GeV proton accelerator, the highest energy particle accelerator in the world. The energy was subsequently increased to 400 GeV. This machine played a leading role in particle physics for many years. In the 1980's, the Fermilab accelerator was converted to a colliding beam machine at still higher energy. This machine, the Tevatron, is presently the world's highest energy accelerator, a title it will hold until the LHC begins operation at CERN. The recently-completed Main Injector will increase the number of proton-antiproton collisions in the Tevatron, providing the collider detectors, CDF and DØ, with excellent discovery prospects over the next half decade.

The Stanford Linear Accelerator Laboratory (SLAC) was developed to support construction of a high-energy linear electron accelerator, with a primary goal of studying electromagnetic interactions at very short distances. This successful program was followed by the development of the first colliding beam facility, SPEAR, followed by PEP, the SLC and now PEP-II, where CP violation experiments are being performed using the BaBar detector. SLAC plays a very broad role in the U.S. program, advancing the art of accelerators,





detectors, and instrumentation in support of national and international research programs in particle physics, as well as scientific disciplines that use synchrotron radiation.

Fermilab and SLAC serve the high-energy physics community by supporting strong in-house physics groups, and by developing advanced scientific tools and infrastructure that advance the entire field. The two laboratories complement each other, with different strengths, emphases and expertise. As the demands of the field have evolved, the two national laboratories have responded by providing the required new instruments, and by broadly supporting the research program.

SLAC and Fermilab are also taking the lead in developing the next generation facilities. We fully expect that both Fermilab and SLAC will continue to be at the center of the field through the twenty-year program we outline in this report. It is crucial, however, that the scope of work at the laboratories expand to support not just the on-site facilities, but also more generally the major initiatives in the program, regardless of location.

It is important to note that in addition to SLAC and Fermilab, important components of the high-energy program are carried out at other DOE Laboratories (Argonne, Berkeley, and Brookhaven) and at the NSF facilities at Cornell. Each of these provides special expertise that is not generally available at universities, and in collaboration with university groups, the laboratories help to carry out the challenging research program on large accelerators and beyond.

5.4 Accelerator R&D

Advances in our understanding of particle physics depend critically on our ability to develop more powerful particle accelerators. In the past, accelerators with higher and higher energies revealed striking new phenomena. We have every reason to expect the next steps to be just as exciting. Higher energies must be complemented by higher intensities, which make it possible to study rare processes with great precision.

We give such high priority to accelerator R&D because it is absolutely critical to the future of our field. Accelerator R&D is the essential tool to make future facilities both feasible and affordable. As particle physics becomes increasingly international, it is imperative that the United States participate broadly in the global R&D program.

The relationship of the U.S. accelerator R&D effort to other international programs is one of collaboration and mutual support. Good communication and frequent exchange of personnel between accelerator centers in the United States and abroad have resulted in a common pool of knowledge and techniques. This has prepared the way for undertaking a truly international accelerator project.

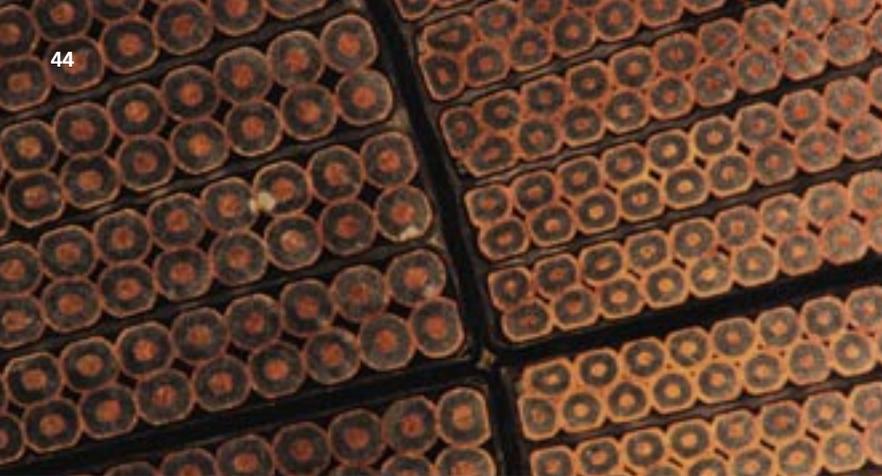
The accelerator R&D that we perform has also had important impact elsewhere in science and technology. Two examples are synchrotron radiation sources that are central to research in materials science and biological systems, and high intensity pulsed neutron sources that play an important role in understanding the chemistry and physics of materials.

In the following discussion, we describe accelerator R&D roughly corresponding to the time horizon of the work and the stage of technical development: long-range or advanced accelerator R&D; mid-range or focused advanced accelerator R&D; and short-range accelerator R&D.

5.4.1 Advanced Accelerator R&D

Advanced accelerator R&D is the breeding ground for future particle acceleration techniques. The motivations for supporting this work include curiosity-driven pursuits of new accelerator science, the discovery and development of new concepts or techniques for high-energy accelerators, and the training of graduate students. Advanced accelerator R&D is an effective way to attract scientists into the field.

The DOE high-energy physics program supports a formal program of accelerator R&D that is largely university-based and proposal-driven. NSF also supports this type of



R&D, including work at Cornell University that pioneered superconducting RF cavities. These programs are important for particle physics and for other fields that use accelerator technology.

The subpanel urges that a broad-based review of advanced accelerator R&D be carried out in the near future, because of its importance to the long-term progress of our field. We suggest that the following questions be considered:

- Are the most important R&D activities being adequately pursued?
- Are the mechanisms for identifying and supporting relevant R&D topics effective?
- What resources are needed for the R&D to succeed?
- What is the appropriate distribution of advanced and generic accelerator R&D between the universities and the national laboratories? Should there be increased collaboration in these areas? If so, what mechanisms might foster an increase in collaboration?

5.4.2 Focused Accelerator R&D

The focused R&D efforts currently underway are aimed at an electron-positron linear collider, a very high-energy hadron collider, and a muon collider/neutrino source. The program is currently dominated by work done at DOE laboratories, except for the muon collider/neutrino source collaboration, which is supported by DOE and NSF. The muon collider/neutrino source collaboration has been successful in engaging university groups, a strategy we strongly endorse.

The linear collider is the highest priority in this report. The associated R&D is discussed in some detail in chapter 3, and will not be repeated here. Increased R&D will be required to support the design and construction of a linear collider, whether it is built onshore or offshore.

Beyond the linear collider, a Very Large Hadron Collider (VLHC) is an important long-range objective for our field. The 1998 HEPAP Subpanel recommended “an expanded

program of R&D on cost reduction strategies, enabling technologies, and accelerator physics issues for a VLHC. These efforts should be coordinated across laboratory and university groups with the aim of identifying design concepts for an economically and technically viable facility.”

A national VLHC collaboration was organized in response to this recommendation. The collaboration has achieved significant R&D results, particularly in magnet development. Recent design studies have explored a staged approach, starting with low field magnets in Stage I, and then going to high field magnets and an energy of 100 to 200 TeV in Stage II. Alternate designs have also been considered.

Detailed specifications for the VLHC must wait for physics discoveries at the LHC. However, since a VLHC is so central to the long-term goals of our field, we strongly support R&D toward such a machine and recommend that it be continued at about the current level of effort. We also suggest that the research take a long-term perspective toward developing new technologies and techniques relevant to such a machine.

High-field magnet research is particularly important. This work is essential for upgrading the LHC, and has considerable potential for applications in high-energy physics and other fields, including industry. Experience with high-field magnets is needed to find the optimum design for new hadron or muon colliders. To assemble the necessary intellectual and financial resources, efforts should be made to form an international collaboration as early as possible. Critical accelerator physics issues, such as the influence of ground motion and a study of transverse instabilities, should also be studied at a modest level.

The 1998 Subpanel also recommended that “an expanded R&D program be carried out on a multi-TeV muon collider, involving simulation and experiments. This R&D program should have central project management, involve both laboratory and university groups, and have the aim of resolving the question of whether this machine is feasible to build and operate for exploring the high-energy frontier.” In accord with this recommendation, the Muon Collaboration was established to carry out the R&D program. The Collaboration identified a neutrino source as the primary goal, partially because of exciting new developments in neutrino physics.

We support the decision to concentrate on the development of intense neutrino sources, and recommend continued R&D near the present level of \$8M per year. This level of effort is well below what is required to make an aggressive attack on

all of the technological problems on the path to a neutrino factory. Therefore we strongly support further development of concepts and detailed simulations, activities that require great intellectual effort but minimal additional costs. We also encourage strong international collaboration to coordinate the effort and make the best use of investments in this field. We recognize the importance of the present international collaboration on the essential muon cooling experiment.

Other concepts for future multi-TeV electron-positron colliders are being studied. The two-beam concept, or CLIC, is the subject of a major focused R&D program at CERN. This development may benefit from work done on a linear collider.

In general, the focused R&D program is closely aligned with our need to develop new capabilities to address our science.

Advances in our understanding of particle physics depend critically on our ability to develop more powerful particle accelerators.

However, it is important that the program retain its long-term flexibility to investigate new concepts as they develop. The program should be periodically reviewed to identify promising directions and to help coordinate international efforts.

5.4.3 Short-Term Accelerator R&D

We finally note that specific short-term R&D projects are necessary to develop new technological approaches for specific applications. Such R&D involves adapting new technologies for accelerator applications, straightforward extensions of existing techniques, or system integration of new combinations of technologies. Such efforts are usually intended to improve a funded or operating facility, and the risk of failure is relatively low. Typical examples of such work are the development of new fast kicker magnets, more capable feedback systems, and new final focus optical elements.

Short term R&D is usually supported within the ongoing program. These activities are crucial to improving, reconfiguring and fully exploiting existing facilities.

5.5 Detector R&D

While particle physics has been paced largely by the construction of new accelerators of higher energies and intensities, many physics discoveries have also required new detector techniques. At hadron colliders, for example, higher energies necessitated better detectors to handle the increased data flow.

The science and technology of particle detectors has a long and illustrious history, originating in the study of particles from radioactive sources and cosmic rays. Detector development has exploited a wide variety of physical techniques. The science of detectors has drawn upon and enriched large parts of physics and chemistry, as well as allied domains of technology.

The first steps in detector innovation are often small, and are well suited to universities and student participation. The national laboratories also play important roles in detector development, supporting a wide variety of advanced technologies that are often essential for the development of new techniques.

As international collaborations on large experiments have become the norm, detector development has also become international. We expect this trend to continue. Strong

international collaborations bring a critical mass of intellectual power, as well as access to advanced facilities.

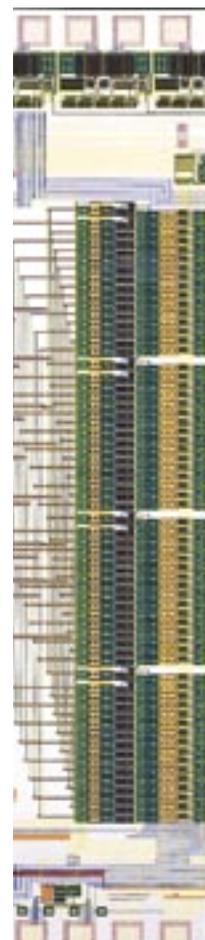
While the effort devoted to accelerator science is of a larger scale, research on detectors is equally vital for particle physics experiments. Both provide major sources of innovation for applications in other fields of science, technology and the life sciences. In fact, the large return on R&D in radiation and tracking detectors is strong justification for the entire particle physics program.

Highly radiation-resistant electronics and other components are important examples of national needs being filled by the high-energy physics detector R&D program. Experimental demands are increasing at the same time as industrial capabilities are diminishing because of changing defense requirements. Our field may soon be the main repository of expertise in this field, especially for large scale and complex systems.

5.5.1 New Challenges for Detector R&D

In the last few decades, a large worldwide investment in electronic and optical technologies has led to many remarkable advances. In some of these areas, our field has been able to stay close to the leading edge, as in detector electronics that use industrial CMOS integrated circuits.

Below: Integrated circuit design for the D0 experiment's silicon vertex detector.
Credit: Fermilab



On the other hand, there are very important areas where the gap between the leading edge of technology and the state of the art in detector development is increasing. For example, technologies involved with connecting semiconductor elements have important applications to the large area, fine-grained structures we require. We depend on such innovations, but need the ability to translate imaginative ideas into practice.

The last few years have illuminated some of the difficulties in making satisfactory collaborations with industry. The problems are most serious when we wish to use new kinds of technology in rapidly advancing areas of optics and semiconductor devices. Our field does not have the resources to access such advanced technology. Significant resources are used to develop detectors during the construction of experiments. But at the development stage, we lack the resources to collaborate with technologists.

5.5.2 Detector Development for Specific Applications

In addition to work carried out at universities and laboratories within the ongoing program, each new colliding beam machine has a formal structure to develop detectors for experiments at that facility. Such programs encourage work in universities, and teaching and outreach is often associated with

of current detection methods, but others will require new detector concepts.

There has been relatively limited research on detector concepts that use advanced technology: advanced semiconductor fabrication, nanotechnology, optical technology, low temperature cryogenics, etc. We need collaborations between particle physicists and other scientists active in these areas. Universities and laboratories are ideal environments for these collaborations. Detector R&D is expensive, so projects must strike a balance between innovation, the likelihood of commensurate return on the investment, and the short-term importance of the application.

National laboratories must maintain directly funded detector R&D programs that allow them to keep abreast of new developments in electronics, connections, optics and detectors. It is also essential that universities be able to carry out cutting edge detector R&D. The new DOE program for detectors has substantially strengthened this capability. The NSF MRI program will continue to be vital for universities. The infrastructure coming with linear collider R&D will help maintain these essential capabilities as well.

Information technology has become an integral part of high-energy physics research.

these programs. The results of this research have been useful, even in cases where the technique has not been taken up in the immediate accelerator application. The time is right to begin an international program to develop detectors for the linear collider.

Detector development in universities has been supported very effectively by the Major Research Initiative grants (MRI) of NSF. These grants have enabled universities to acquire instrumentation that allows them to participate in leading edge research. This program has been a major factor in allowing universities to contribute to the leading edge of detector development.

5.5.3 Research into New Concepts

In response to the 1998 Subpanel, DOE initiated a program to fund research into new detector concepts, which should considerably strengthen this field. The viability of future accelerators like the VLHC and the muon collider depends on development of improved detectors for very high rates and backgrounds. Some developments will arise as improvements

5.5.4 The Future of Detector R&D

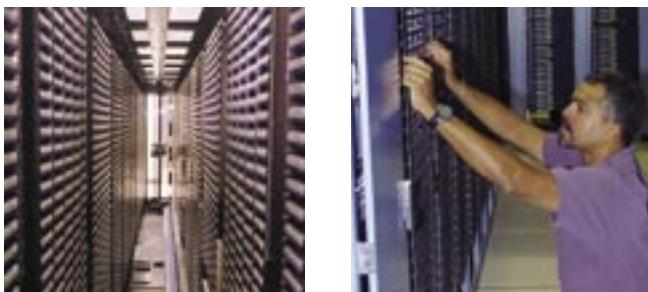
We support the practice of setting up R&D programs for detectors at new accelerator facilities. This program should naturally extend to facilities with international organization, such as the linear collider, and to non-accelerator experiments as well. In addition, small-scale detector development, which is within the scope of the ongoing program, should be continued and actively encouraged. Finally, the funding of advanced detector development should be increased, if possible, with the goal of allowing universities to keep abreast of the most modern technology. The same goal should be met at national laboratories.

5.6 Information Technology in High-Energy Physics

Information technology (IT) has become an integral part of high-energy physics research, perhaps more pervasively than in any other scientific discipline. This is a direct result of the tremendous demands of accelerator-based experiments, where increases in data volume (gigabytes to terabytes) and data complexity (thousands to millions of channels) have confronted us with a major challenge in filtering, storing and analyzing the data.

The extreme computational, data handling and analysis needs of our experiments have inspired us to invest significant resources in IT research and development, and adapt cutting edge technologies to our purposes, often in partnership with industry. We have profited enormously from the IT advances of the past two decades. In particular, we have benefited from the advances in data handling, retrieval and processing. At the same time, our enormous data volumes, distributed environments and use of networking have pushed IT in directions with broad future applications.

Some examples of the use of IT in high energy physics include: (1) the development of data acquisition systems for modern collider experiments that contain thousands of PC equivalents of computing power and are capable of manipulating many terabytes/second; (2) the implementation of massive offline computational resources, which permit simultaneous access to data archives by hundreds of physicists; (3) the creation of large packages for pattern recognition, accurate simulation and sensitive statistical analyses, which together permit the maximum amount of scientific information to be extracted from data; (4) the design and simulation of complex



accelerator and detector components, whose behavior can be modeled with high confidence; and (5) the use of networked computational resources for lattice gauge calculations, using powerful new algorithms to directly calculate fundamental particle properties.

5.6.1 Current Activities in Information Technology

The role of information technologies continues to expand as unit costs fall, as more powerful systems become available and as new capabilities are identified. For example, software engineering methods and powerful database technologies from industry have been widely adopted for developing more robust systems for data acquisition, data analysis, and simulations. Unit prices for CPU and storage have recently reached the point where significant computing resources can be marshaled even by small institutions.

The exploitation of advanced information technologies is becoming more sophisticated in computing systems for experiments, where new software engineering methods reduce errors, and in accelerator design and detector development, where advanced CAD and simulation techniques allow complex components to be designed and tested before committing resources to construction.

5.6.2 Future Activities in Information Technology

Future computing and software systems must provide rapid access by global collaborations to massive distributed computing and data archives, and must possess sufficient robustness and flexibility to support international collaborative research over a period of decades. Clearly, the creation of such information technology systems requires careful design, use of modern engineering tools and close collaboration with computer professionals and industry.

More specifically, the computing and software systems being designed for the LHC and other experiments face a series of unprecedented challenges associated with long-term robust operation, globally distributed computational and data



resources, and software development and physics analysis by global collaborations. New capabilities will have to be provided, for example, in the form of intelligent trigger and data acquisition systems that have sufficient power to filter and collect information at the highest luminosities, and analysis software capable of extracting small or new “discovery” signals from overwhelming backgrounds.

The requirements for LHC research demonstrate some of the computational challenges for the next two decades. Online data filtering systems will need to select and store 100 interactions out of the 1 billion that occur every second and will have to cope with an extremely complex environment to disentangle the interesting events from the debris of 10-20 background collisions. LHC core software will contain millions of lines of code and software and computing systems will have to arbitrate among hundreds of jobs requesting access to geographically

distributed resources that contain hundreds of teraflops of processing power and hundreds of petabytes of data.

Information technologies compose an increasing fraction of the budget in construction and maintenance of experiments, primarily because of significant personnel costs to develop and maintain these complex systems. The use of shared tools and judicious investments in information technology can reduce travel expenses, improve the efficiency of facility operations and significantly improve physics productivity.

5.6.3 Collaborative Research: Networks and Data Grids

Information technology systems of the future have the potential to address much more than quantitative increases in computational and data handling performance. Recent dramatic increases in network capacities have opened new possibilities for collaborative research, catapulting networks to a position of strategic importance for global collaborations such as the proposed Global Accelerator Network (GAN).

The recent development of Data Grids offers a comprehensive framework for supporting collaborative research. Data Grids are geographically separated computation resources, configured for shared use with large data movement between sites. Such grids preserve local autonomy while providing an immense, shared computing resource that can be accessed anywhere in the world.

Data Grids enhance collaboration and communication in several critical areas, all of which contribute to physics productivity. First, they enable intellectual resources to be fully engaged in scientific research regardless of location. Grid-based computing environments also enhance the training and participation of students in forefront research and bring home the excitement of this research to benefactors and the public. Finally, the seamless integration of university and laboratory computing systems into a single resource will further strengthen university partnerships with national and international laboratories.

The inherent advantages of coherently operating geographically distributed and disparate resources is becoming an important issue for many scientific disciplines as well as industry, where the Grid is seen as a strategic framework for business operations and commerce. As a result, research groups and industry in the United States, Europe and Asia are undertaking a broad array of Grid research and technology development efforts. Particle physicists in these regions have taken a leading role in defining a unifying architectural framework and in deploying

a common multi-continent Grid laboratory, including a multi-Gigabit/second link between the United States and Europe, in partnership with other disciplines. The scale of this laboratory, which has a large focus on LHC computing, is expected to greatly advance progress in Data Grid technologies.

5.6.4 Connections Outside our Field

In developing and deploying advanced information technologies for our field, high-energy physicists work closely with industry and other disciplines, particularly computer science. In networking, American university and laboratory physicists are strongly involved in the activities of NSF (Internet2) and DOE (ESNet) supported networks, international networking committees, and the funding of a U.S.-CERN international link.

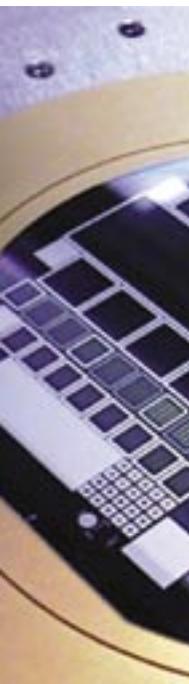
Data intensive research, an area where particle physics has recognized expertise and where it continues to carry out pioneering work, is benefiting other scientific and engineering disciplines whose research requires managing and accessing massive data archives. Particle physicists in the United States have joined with computer scientists, astronomers, and gravity wave experimenters to develop and build large-scale Data Grids; these scientists are playing a leading role in the worldwide development of the Data Grid infrastructure and facilities.

These collaborative activities clearly benefit other disciplines, but they also have a broad societal impact through improved products and through the training of students and postdocs.

5.6.5 The Future of Information Technology in High-Energy Physics

The particle physics community, in coordination with U.S. funding agencies and international partners, must aggressively invest in and develop information tools and technologies to enhance the productivity of future international collaborations and facilities. This activity should be structured similar to an international collaboration and explicitly include partnerships with computer science, other application disciplines and industry.

Particle physicists must also be closely involved in the development of wide area networks, particularly the international networks that are crucial for tomorrow's global collaborations. This involvement should be made in collaboration with computer scientists and industry, and include joint networking initiatives with other disciplines and international partners.



5.7 Summary

The long-term future of high-energy physics depends critically on developing the human and technical resources necessary to attack the challenging scientific problems in our field. In this chapter we have described the strong integration of university-based scientists into our program and the importance of the national laboratories. We emphasize the importance of maintaining a healthy university program in the face of budget constraints and other needs. The university program must remain a central part of our field.

To do our science, we need high-energy particle accelerators, some of the most sophisticated and ambitious scientific instruments we are able to make. Historically, particle physics has progressed by investing substantial effort and resources in developing these machines. The resulting technologies have propelled our field, and have found broad application in other areas of science and society. Accelerator challenges will be at least as great in the future, so we emphasize the importance of a vigorous and healthy accelerator R&D program.

Finally, to use these sophisticated facilities, we need particle detectors and computer systems that challenge the state of the art. For that reason, we must also invest significant resources to develop the necessary detector techniques and computing applications.

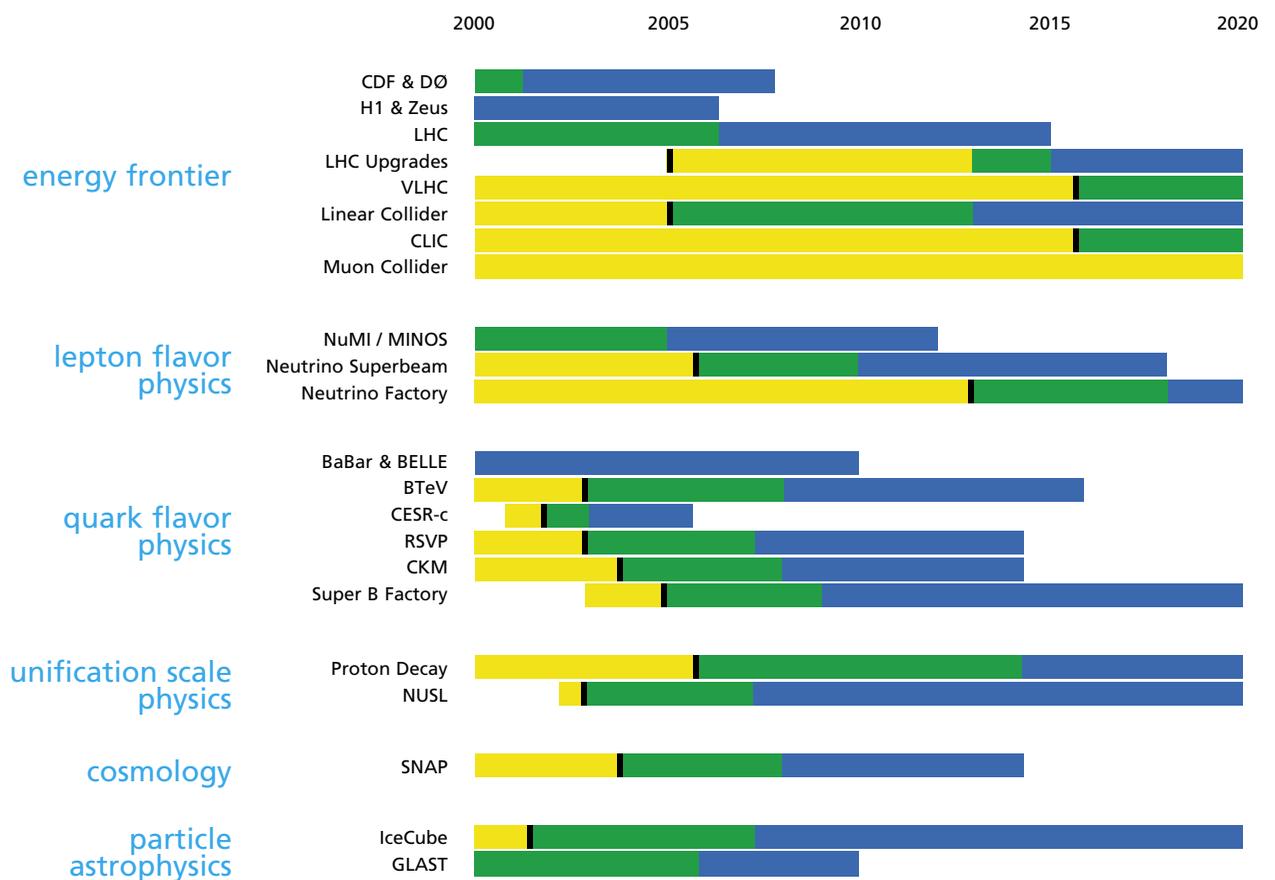


Figure A.1. Timelines for Selected Roadmap Projects

Approximate decision points on whether or not to proceed with projects are marked in black. R&D is marked in yellow, construction in green, and operation in blue. All timelines will be updated as part of the P5 process.

APPENDIX [A]

A ROADMAP FOR PARTICLE PHYSICS

In this Appendix, we present our roadmap for particle physics. It describes potential projects and opportunities for the U.S. program, and connects them to our long-term goals. It indicates the points at which decisions need to be made. The roadmap reflects our present understanding, and will be regularly revised as part of the P5 process. Dates and costs will change as more information becomes available.

For planning purposes, we use estimates of the opportunity costs associated with each project. Such costs best indicate a project's impact on the overall program. In this Appendix, however, we give only the estimated project costs in present-year dollars, in order to indicate the scales of the proposed experiments.

We leave the evaluations and recommendations on the mid-scale projects to P5, except where more immediate guidance is useful. For those projects that require such guidance, we have made assessments from the perspective of the short-term funding prospects and the long-range planning considerations presented in this report. This guidance is given in italics in the subsections of this Appendix.

The sections of the Appendix parallel those of Chapter 2.2. The introductions are taken from the text in that chapter, so that this appendix is a self-standing summary of the roadmap of particle physics.

A.1 THEORY, PHENOMENOLOGY AND DATA ANALYSIS

Although not literally a physics subtopic on our roadmap, progress in particle physics depends on a healthy interplay between theory and experiment. For that reason, a strong program of theoretical research is absolutely crucial to the future of our field. As an example of the close coupling between theoretical and experimental research, one might note how the theory of electroweak unification predicted the existence of the weak neutral current, which then led to its subsequent discovery by experiment.

This dramatic discovery was the first step toward elevating electroweak theory to its present status as part of the Standard Model of particle physics. During recent years, the Standard Model has guided much of the experimental work in the field, culminating in the impressive and beautiful precision measurements at CERN and elsewhere that have validated the theory to an unprecedented degree of accuracy.

Theory now tells us that the Standard Model is not complete, and that we will be able to determine what fills it out when we extend the energy frontier toward the TeV scale. Future energy frontier experiments will allow us to probe physics beyond the Standard Model. They are motivated by a combination of theory and present-day experiment, and are at the center of the long-range program we propose in this report.

Pure theory suggests new physics opportunities through formal “top-down” developments, like string theory or extra dimensions, that are aimed at finding the underlying theory of nature. Such work motivates and inspires new areas of experimental and observational work. This give-and-take between experiment and theory is inherent and typical of how particle physics advances.

In other cases, theoretical tools are used in a more phenomenological or “bottom-up” approach, in order to make predictions that can be compared with data, or to extract the underlying explanations and interpretations from measurements. Examples include parton distribution functions, lattice gauge and chiral perturbation theory, as well as higher-order QCD and electroweak calculations. Some of this theoretical work requires significant computer resources that must be supported. Full exploitation of our experimental physics program requires strong theoretical participation at all the levels discussed above.

Finally, extracting the science from complex modern detectors in particle physics is extremely challenging and requires the use of very sophisticated data analysis techniques.

In addition to dealing with very large data sets, data analysis employs advanced statistical techniques, detailed studies of systematic errors and quantitative comparison with theoretical predictions. Support of these efforts is also a very important part to our field, so that we can reliably handle the data and compare it with theory. An increasingly large fraction of the effort in high-energy physics is being dedicated to this enterprise. This will continue to hold for the future experiments in our roadmap, with their added sophistication and great volumes of data. Sufficient strength and support in these areas must be maintained.

Theory, phenomenology and data analysis provide scientific underpinnings of our research program. It is important that they be maintained at a healthy level.

A.2 ENERGY FRONTIER

The energy frontier is at the very center of our roadmap. For the immediate future, the Tevatron collider will remain the world's highest energy accelerator. Its CDF and DØ experiments have embarked on Run II, pursuing a rich physics agenda that includes the search for the Higgs and supersymmetry, studies of CP violation, and the first detailed examination of the top quark.

During the next five years, the HERA II accelerator at DESY will also be at the energy frontier. This facility provides high-energy electron-proton collisions to H1 and ZEUS, experiments that will provide precision measurements of the QCD coupling and proton structure functions, and search for new physics.

The next big step will be the LHC, which will collide protons against protons at 14 TeV, an energy seven times that of the Tevatron. American particle physicists are making essential contributions to the LHC accelerator and the ATLAS and CMS experiments. The LHC will provide our first look at physics at the TeV scale; it promises to revolutionize our field when it begins operation during the second half of this decade. Broad participation in the LHC, from building the accelerator to running the detectors to analyzing the data, is essential for us to reach the scientific goals that we described in Chapter 1.

Over much of its history, particle physics has relied on different types of accelerators. Discoveries at one machine point the way to discoveries at others. Such synergies maximize progress across the field. On the energy frontier, one can point to the recent productive interplay between the Fermilab Tevatron, a hadron collider, and LEP and SLC, electron-positron colliders at CERN and SLAC.

Looking to the future, we have no doubt that the synergy will continue. There is now a worldwide consensus that exploration of the energy frontier will also require a high-energy, high-luminosity electron-positron linear collider. The LHC and the linear collider are both essential to discover and understand the new physics at the TeV scale.

Many years of accelerator R&D have brought us to the point where it is now possible to discuss the construction of a linear collider. More work is necessary to choose a final design and to determine the construction cost. However, we already know that its scope, cost, and complexity are such that the effort must be international from the start. An international collaboration is necessary to manage the design, construction and operation of this powerful accelerator.

The world particle physics community is in broad agreement that the ultimate goals of particle physics motivate pushing the energy frontier beyond the LHC and the linear collider. Exciting plans are underway to reach the far-energy frontier using a very large hadron collider or a multi-TeV electron or muon collider. Vigorous accelerator R&D on a worldwide basis is necessary to realize colliders beyond the TeV scale.

We recommend that the U.S. program take full advantage of the scientific opportunities available over the next few years. The Tevatron and PEP-II are central elements of this program. We endorse present plans for steady operation of these facilities, together with modest upgrades designed to gain the full scientific benefit. We also urge that projects under construction, including NuMI/MINOS and the LHC, be supported to successful completion.

A.2.1 LHC Luminosity Upgrades

The LHC accelerator will reach its design luminosity four or five years after it begins operation. Beyond that, a luminosity increase of an order of magnitude is thought to be feasible. Physics studies indicate a 20% greater mass reach with the enhanced luminosity.

LHC detector upgrades will be necessary with or without a luminosity upgrade. They will be designed with increased luminosity in mind. The most significant challenges will be in tracking, triggering and data acquisition, as well as calorimetry and muon detection at large rapidities. The actual upgrades will depend on detector performance and on the potential for additional discoveries.

For upgrades to begin in 2011, detector and accelerator R&D needs to begin in the middle of this decade. The U.S. contribution to the upgrade of the accelerator and the two

major detectors is estimated to be about \$100M.

We believe that it is important for the U.S. to continue its strong participation in the LHC project. LHC physics is central to our long-range goals, and upgrades are a cost-effective way to leverage our large investment in this facility. We encourage planning toward U.S. participation in these upgrades.

A.2.2 Electron-Positron Linear Collider

The centerpiece of the roadmap is the thorough exploration of the TeV energy scale. The LHC and a companion electron-positron linear collider are essential to discover and understand the new physics that we will find.

In a linear collider, intense beams of electrons and positrons are accelerated to near the speed of light and then brought into collision under tightly controlled conditions. The technical challenges to build and operate a linear collider are immense, and were considered at or beyond state-of-the-art just a few years ago. However, the challenges were met through a collaborative effort involving major laboratories in the United States, Germany and Japan. The world high-energy physics community is ready to move towards construction of this machine.

The linear collider physics program has been endorsed by the Asian and European Committees for Future Accelerators, by the U.S. high-energy physics community during the 2001 Snowmass workshop, and by this subpanel in this report. We recommend that the highest priority of the U.S. program be a high-energy, high-luminosity, electron-positron linear collider, wherever it is built in the world.

There is no doubt that the linear collider will be one of the greatest scientific projects of our time. It will be at the frontier of basic science, of advanced technological development, of international cooperation, and of educational innovation. It will attract many of the top scientists in the world to participate in the scientific and technical opportunities it offers. Its science will be compelling, and its technology will benefit our field and enrich society at large.

We urge DOE and NSF to begin working with our partners around the globe to form the international collaboration that will carry the project forward. We believe that a fully international project should be created, one in which all partners are assured of full ownership and participation. We recommend that the United States and its partners vigorously pursue an intensified R&D program to optimize the design for performance and cost in a timely way.

We believe that the opportunity to become the host country for the linear collider is rare and timely, and one that should be seized by the U.S. The linear collider would help the U.S. maintain a leadership role in the exciting quest to unravel the mysteries of matter, energy, space and time.

A.2.3 Muon Collider / Neutrino Factory

The lepton-lepton collider has traditionally been our most powerful tool for precision measurements. We expect this to remain true for the time period covered by our roadmap.

Radiation losses represent a major technical challenge for very high-energy lepton-lepton colliders. One potential solution is to accelerate muons, whose higher mass reduces losses and enables higher energies to be reached with circular machines. The small radiative losses lead to a very small beam energy spread, which in turn allows very precise measurements of the masses and widths of new states.

The problem is that muons are unstable particles. Achieving muon production, beam cooling, and acceleration, all within the lifetime of the muon, is a daunting technical challenge, but one that is thought to be possible after appropriate accelerator R&D.

The 1998 Subpanel also recommended that “an expanded R&D program be carried out on a multi-TeV muon collider, involving simulation and experiments. This R&D program should have central project management, involve both laboratory and university groups, and have the aim of resolving the question of whether this machine is feasible to build and operate for exploring the high-energy frontier.” In accord with this recommendation, the Muon Collaboration was established to carry out the R&D program. The Collaboration identified a neutrino source as the primary initial goal, both because of exciting new developments in neutrino physics and because it is less technologically challenging in terms of emittance exchange requirements.

We endorse the decision to concentrate on the development of intense neutrino sources, and recommend continued R&D near the present level of \$8M per year. We strongly support further development of concepts and detailed simulations, activities that require great intellectual effort but minimal additional costs. We also encourage strong international collaboration to coordinate the effort and make the best use of investments in this field. We recognize the importance of the present international collaboration on the essential muon cooling experiment.

A.2.4 Multi-TeV Electron-Positron Collider

R&D on a multi-TeV electron-positron linear collider is being vigorously pursued at CERN by an international collaboration from Europe, Russia, Japan, and, to a limited extent, the United States. The Compact Linear Collider (CLIC) study is exploring the technical feasibility of beam acceleration by traveling wave structures at room temperature and very high frequency (30GHz), powered by a drive beam. In this approach, RF power for the main linac is extracted from a secondary, low-energy, high-intensity electron beam, running parallel to the main linac. The R&D is aimed at achieving an accelerating gradient of 150 MV/m. The ultimate goal is a 3-5 TeV linear collider with high luminosity, $10^{34} - 10^{35} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$.

A test facility is being constructed at CERN to demonstrate technical feasibility, in particular, the key concept of the novel power source. A decision on a CLIC project is not anticipated until after the LHC and linear collider are operational.

A.2.5 Very Large Hadron Collider

The Very Large Hadron Collider (VLHC) is the term for a proton-proton collider with an energy beyond the CERN LHC. Early plans envisioned a center-of-mass energy of order 100 TeV, as compared to the 14 TeV of the LHC.

Recent VLHC design studies explored technologies and accelerator physics issues for such a machine. They considered a staged approach, in which the first stage would employ relatively inexpensive low field magnets to achieve proton-proton collisions with a center-of-mass energy of about 40-50 TeV, and maximum design luminosity similar to that of the LHC ($10^{34} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$). The second stage would use much higher field magnets in the same tunnel. Using the first ring as an injector, the high field accelerator would aim for energies of 100-200 TeV, with a maximum luminosity of $2 \times 10^{35} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$. Alternative VLHC designs have also been discussed, with smaller circumferences and intermediate-field magnets.

The history of elementary particle physics illustrates the importance of higher energies; we believe it very likely that a VLHC will become the long-term objective of the field. However, it is difficult to propose specific machine requirements until the physics discoveries of the LHC and linear collider are known.

A VLHC is central to the long-term goals of our field. We strongly support R&D toward such a machine and recommend that it be

continued at about the current level of effort. We also suggest that the research focus on developing new technologies and techniques relevant to such a machine.

High-field magnet research is particularly important. Experience with high-field magnets is needed to find the optimum design for new hadron or muon colliders. This work has considerable potential for applications in high-energy physics and other fields, including industry. To assemble the necessary intellectual and financial resources, efforts should be made to form an international collaboration as early as possible.

A.3 LEPTON FLAVOR PHYSICS

Substantial evidence for neutrino oscillations has been presented over the past decade. Early indications from Homestake were followed by detailed measurements at Gran Sasso, Baksan and SuperKamiokande that established a deficit in the solar neutrino flux. New results from SNO, when combined with the Superkamiokande measurements, provide dramatic evidence that the neutrinos produced by the sun are indeed oscillating. Follow-up measurements, from these experiments as well as from KamLAND and Borexino, are expected in the next few years.

Strong evidence for atmospheric neutrino oscillations was found at SuperKamiokande and confirming experiments. These observations have motivated a worldwide program of accelerator-based long-baseline neutrino experiments. In the United States, the MINOS experiment is being built to measure neutrino oscillations between Fermilab and the Soudan mine in Minnesota. Construction will be complete in the middle of the decade; the experiment is scheduled to take data for five years. Experiments are underway in Japan (KEK to Kamiokande) and under construction in Europe (CERN to Gran Sasso). We note that the unfortunate recent accident at SuperKamiokande has delayed the K2K experiment while the detector is rebuilt.

Other important results regarding possible neutrino oscillations are expected in the next few years from MiniBooNE, together with its possible extension, BooNE.

Clearly, we have made substantial progress in understanding the masses and mixings of neutrinos, but there is still much to learn. More comprehensive studies using intense neutrino sources may be the next step. The possibility of studying CP violation in the neutrino sector motivates the development of very intense neutrino sources, based on superbeam facilities, and of neutrino factories, based on muon storage rings. Several possibilities are under discussion, either as new facilities or as

substantial upgrades to existing accelerators. A source could be built in the United States, or in Europe or Asia with U.S. participation.

There are other important future directions for neutrino physics, many of which could benefit from a deep underground site. For example, certain characteristics of neutrinos (including whether they are their own antiparticles) can best be studied in neutrinoless double-beta decay experiments. These experiments require the very low backgrounds only available very deep underground.

Neutrino oscillations tell us that lepton flavor is not conserved. In fact, neutrino mixing induces rare flavor-changing transitions between charged leptons as well. Various types of new physics also induce such transitions, so the observation of mixing between charged leptons would be a major milestone for our field. In particular, a proposed experiment to detect muon-electron conversion is sensitive to a substantial range of new physics, particularly supersymmetry-based models of lepton-flavor violation.

The future of the worldwide lepton-flavor program, including decisions on the most important opportunities to pursue, will be shaped by results from the present generation of experiments.

Near-term guidance for NuMI/MINOS is provided in the introduction to section A.2.

A.3.1 Accelerator-Based Neutrino Oscillation Experiments

A further generation of accelerator-based neutrino oscillation experiments is a key element of the worldwide neutrino program. An intense neutrino source will require a new (or upgraded) proton driver capable of delivering one or more megawatts of beam power. The driver could also provide beams of muons and kaons for rare decay studies. It could also be a first step toward a future very high intensity neutrino factory and possibly a muon collider.

Several proton driver projects are under consideration. In Japan, the JHF has been approved with a 50 GeV proton beam. Its 800 kW beam power in Phase I will ultimately be raised to 3 MW. In Europe, a superconducting linac is being considered that would use existing cavities to achieve 4 MW at 2.2 GeV. At Fermilab and Brookhaven, upgrades to existing facilities are being evaluated. These upgrades would deliver 1 to 4 MW beams at energies between 8 and 120 GeV. Finally, at Rutherford, a modest upgrade to a rapidly cycling synchrotron is being discussed.

The JHF is likely to be the first step in an international program of superbeam facilities. Future steps will be proposed as the physics capabilities and technical means come into sharper focus. Proposals for U.S. involvement in onshore or offshore superbeam projects will be evaluated by P5 and/or HEPAP, as appropriate, and may become a major part of the future U.S. particle physics program. A superbeam facility in the United States would cost approximately \$500M.

The far detector will be an important component of any long-baseline experiment. This detector could be a very large, underground water Cherenkov detector that could also search for proton decay (see A.5.1).

Results from superbeam facilities would inform a decision on whether or not to pursue a neutrino factory based on a muon storage ring, perhaps near the end of this decade. Such a facility will require extensive R&D and cost several billion dollars.

We urge that an international collaboration be formed toward developing an intense neutrino source, to pursue and compare opportunities in the U.S., Japan and Europe.

A.3.2 Non-Accelerator Neutrino Experiments

Advances in the neutrino sector may come, as they have in the past, from experiments using natural sources. SNO, SuperKamiokande, KamLAND and Borexino will provide results in the next few years that may point toward a next generation of non-accelerator experiments.

New detectors promise to measure the real-time flux of neutrinos produced by p-p reactions in the Sun. Other detectors will search for neutrinoless double beta decay reactions that can measure other important neutrino properties, and possibly determine whether neutrinos are their own antiparticles. Both types of experiments need low-background environments, so they could be important components of the research program at an underground laboratory.

A.3.3 MECO

The MECO experiment is part of the RSVP proposal recently approved by the National Science Board. The experiment seeks to measure muon-electron conversion in the presence of a nucleus. The MECO collaboration proposes to search for this process to a level 10,000 times more sensitive than any previous experiment. A measurement at this sensitivity would probe a substantial range of new physics, particularly supersymmetry-based models of lepton-flavor violation. The main challenge for MECO will be to reduce backgrounds to achieve the most sensitive measurement.

Near term guidance for the RSVP proposal is provided in section A.4.3.

A.4 QUARK FLAVOR PHYSICS

After a decade of intensive effort, we are closing in on a detailed understanding of the mass, mixing, and CP violation in the quark sector. The BaBar experiment at PEP-II, the Belle experiment at KEK-B, and CLEO at CESR are leading the effort, studying quark mixing and CP violation through bottom quark decays. Important measurements are being made by the CDF and DØ experiments at Fermilab, and will be made by the LHCb experiment under construction at CERN.

The future program in B physics will be informed by the results of ongoing experiments. A series of experiments is being proposed to make use of strange, charm and bottom hadrons, with a focus on precision studies of CP violation, mixing and rare decays. While we cannot do all these experiments in the U.S., it is important that we participate in some. Possibilities include a dedicated hadronic B experiment at the Fermilab Tevatron, and a very high luminosity electron-positron experiment, built as a major upgrade to existing SLAC or KEK facilities.

Finally, studies of highly suppressed K meson decays, and comparisons between measurements in the K and B systems, allow new tests of the quark flavor structure, and provide a powerful probe for new physics in the quark flavor system.

Near-term guidance for PEP-II is provided in the introduction to section A.2.

A.4.1 BTeV

The BTeV experiment is designed to probe for new physics at the electroweak scale by searching for inconsistencies in the CKM description of bottom quark transitions. It proposes to carry out precision studies of CP asymmetries and flavor-changing processes in the B meson system. Through its cutting edge detector technology, BTeV's physics reach exceeds that of other planned experiments in some of the important measurements of the B system.

The Fermilab Program Advisory Committee evaluated BTeV last year and found that the experiment "has the potential to be a central part of an excellent Fermilab physics program in the era of the LHC." The Committee recommended Stage I approval at the laboratory.

The total project cost of BTeV is \$165M, including construction of a new low-beta insertion for the Tevatron. The experiment requires P5 evaluation because it would have significant impact on the overall high-energy physics budget and programmatic implications for the future of the Tevatron.

The BTeV project cannot be funded with the scope and timetable originally envisaged. The collaboration and Fermilab are considering revised plans that, if approved by the Fermilab PAC, should be brought to P5 for evaluation later this year.

A.4.2 CKM

CKM is a flagship experiment for a future fixed target program at the Fermilab Main Injector. The experiment intends to constrain the Standard Model quark mixing parameters by measuring the branching ratio for $K^+ \rightarrow \pi^+ \nu \bar{\nu}$ with about 100 signal events and 10% background. Comparison with other experiments would probe flavor-changing physics beyond the Standard Model. The experimental challenge will be to achieve the photon veto necessary to eliminate background events involving neutral pions.

The total project cost for CKM is \$60M, including construction of a separated beam using transverse cavities with superconducting RF. The experiment has received Stage I approval at Fermilab, and will need P5 evaluation in 12 to 18 months.

A.4.3 RSVP

RSVP aims to conduct two experiments at Brookhaven to measure small but dramatic symmetry violations in muon conversion and kaon decay.

The first experiment, MECO, is described in A.3.3.

The second experiment, K0PI0, aims to measure a highly suppressed flavor-changing K decay, predicted to occur in the Standard Model with a branching fraction of 3×10^{-11} . The experiment aims to measure the branching fraction to approximately 20%, leading to a 10% determination of the CP violating parameter. Comparison of results from the K and B systems would provide a powerful probe for new sources of CP violation.

The RSVP experiments will run at Brookhaven to take advantage of the AGS pulsed beam structure. This structure should eliminate many sources of background, the largest challenge for such experiments.

The National Science Board has approved the \$115M RSVP proposal as an MRE. We endorse the scientific goals of RSVP, as part of a multi-prong strategy to search for physics beyond the Standard Model.

A.4.4 CESR-c

The CLEO collaboration has proposed a program using electron-positron annihilation in the 3 to 5 GeV energy region, optimized for physics studies of charmed particles. These studies would use the CESR storage ring, modified for running at lower energies, and the upgraded CLEO detector. The storage ring would offer significantly higher luminosity and the CLEO detector would provide much better performance than has been available to previous experiments in this energy region.

The improved measurements of charmed particle properties and decays are matched to theoretical progress in calculating charm decay parameters using lattice QCD. The conversion of the storage ring for low energy running would cost about \$5M, and could be completed in a year, so that physics studies could begin sometime in 2003. The physics program would then require three years of running the modified CESR facility.

The subpanel endorses CESR-c and recommends that it be funded.

A.4.5 Super B Factory

Feasibility studies have started on the possibility of major upgrades to the SLAC and KEK B Factories. A major upgrade of one of these facilities could provide an instantaneous luminosity sufficient to deliver a data sample up to 50 ab^{-1} in size, or about 100 times the data sample expected from the current program.

The major physics goals for the increased luminosity are order of magnitude improvements in measurements of CKM matrix elements and improved sensitivities to rare decay modes. Branching ratios would be measured in as many ways as is feasible. Detectors would need to be upgraded to handle the large data rate while preserving the ability to make sensitive measurements. At SLAC, it is currently estimated that upgrading the accelerator and detectors would cost on the order of \$500M. A decision should be made after the technical feasibility of the upgrade is established and the physics case is more fully developed. We anticipate that this decision can be made after 2005.

A.5 UNIFICATION SCALE PHYSICS

Very rare processes provide additional probes of quark and lepton flavor physics (see sections A.3 and A.4). They can offer important insights into the nature of physics at the unification scale, far beyond the reach of accelerators. For example, the observation of proton decay or neutron-antineutron oscillations would point toward grand unification, with profound implications for our understanding of matter, energy, space and time. Proposals for both types of experiments are being prepared.

A worldwide collaboration has begun to develop the design for a next-generation proton decay experiment. Assuming that an affordable and credible design is reached, it is likely that a large proton decay detector will be proposed somewhere in the world, and that American physicists will want to participate in its construction and utilization.

A large underground proton decay detector would also serve as a major neutrino telescope. In addition, it might be used as a neutrino detector for future experiments using a bright neutrino source or a neutrino factory. (See section A.3.1.)

A.5.1 Proton Decay

If protons decay, their lifetimes are long, so proton decay experiments require massive detectors. A worldwide collaboration has begun to develop the design for a next-generation proton decay experiment. Such a detector should be at least an order of magnitude larger than Super Kamiokande. A next-generation experiment would extend the search for proton decay into the regime favored by unified theories.

Current thinking favors the use of a large water Cherenkov detector, as in the UNO approach. The detector would be situated underground to reduce cosmic-ray backgrounds. A large water Cherenkov detector could simultaneously serve as the long-baseline target for an accelerator neutrino beam. It would also expand our ability to observe neutrinos from supernovae.

Present estimates suggest a cost of about \$650M for such a detector. Given its strong science program, and assuming that an affordable design can be reached, we believe it likely that a large proton decay detector will be proposed somewhere in the world, and that U.S. physicists will participate in its construction and utilization. The R&D effort should be completed over the next several years. A decision might be made near the middle of the decade, perhaps in conjunction with a decision on a neutrino superbeam facility.

A.5.2 National Underground Science Laboratory

There has been considerable interest in developing a deep underground laboratory to carry out a diverse program of scientific research, much of it directly related to particle physics. A number of locations have been considered, including Homestake (South Dakota), San Jacinto (California), Soudan (Minnesota), and WIPP (New Mexico). Of these sites, only Homestake and San Jacinto are deep enough to provide the very low background required for a variety of experiments.

Worldwide, the program of experiments of interest to particle physicists that require underground locations is broad and often technically challenging. Experiments include: searches for neutrinoless double beta decay; searches for weakly interacting dark matter; measurements of solar, atmospheric, reactor and supernova neutrinos; searches for proton decay; and studies of neutrino properties using beams from distant accelerators.

Some future experiments do not require a deep site and can be performed at existing underground facilities. Such future experiments include dark matter experiments at the Soudan mine and possibly supernovae detectors or other underground experiments at the DOE WIPP facility.

Construction of a National Underground Science Laboratory at the Homestake Mine has been proposed to NSF. A proposal for a laboratory under the San Jacinto mountain has been submitted to DOE and NSF. These proposals are motivated by a very broad science program, from microbiology to geoscience to physics. Construction of a national underground laboratory is a centerpiece of the NSAC Long Range Plan.

We believe that experiments requiring very deep underground sites will make important contributions to particle physics for at least the next twenty years, and should be supported by the high-energy physics community. Particle physics would benefit from the creation of a national underground facility.

A.6 COSMOLOGY AND PARTICLE PHYSICS

One of the most exciting developments of recent years has been the convergence of particle physics and cosmology. A complete picture of how the universe formed and evolved requires a variety of experimental and theoretical inputs, including experiments studying dark energy and dark matter, the microwave background radiation, and the large-scale structure of the universe. These experiments will be carried out by the astronomy and particle physics communities worldwide.

Particle physicists are currently searching for particle dark matter in the galactic halo. Additional projects may be proposed

in the future. Dark matter searches are complemented by the search for supersymmetry at the Tevatron, LHC and linear collider, since the lightest superparticle is a favored candidate for dark matter.

Several possible approaches to studying the mysterious dark energy are under development. One uses Type Ia supernovae. Another uses measurements of the large-scale distribution of dark matter from observations of weak gravitational lensing. It is likely that several types of approaches will be necessary to fully understand the nature of dark energy.

There is currently a vigorous program of cosmological investigation supported by NASA, DOE, NSF and private sources. We expect that this exciting field will continue to expand, and we endorse a strong multi-agency approach to address its multi-faceted scientific goals.

A.6.1 Dark Energy

Dark energy can be probed by a number of techniques. Among the most powerful are measurements of the expansion rate of the universe from observations of Type Ia supernovae, and measurements of the large scale distribution of dark matter from observations of weak gravitational lensing. Telescopes in space and on the ground can exploit these techniques.

Several approaches are under investigation. SNAP proposes to use a 2m satellite telescope to detect many more supernovae, and to measure their properties with significantly better accuracy, than present observations. LSST proposes to use an 8m ground-based telescope optimized for weak-lensing studies. These two approaches have differing strengths and differing potential systematic limitations.

More than one approach will probably be necessary to fully understand the nature of dark energy. So far, only SNAP has requested funding from the particle physics program. The SNAP team has developed an instrument concept and has requested R&D funding to develop a full instrument design, as well as to determine the total project cost.

The project is expected to cost approximately \$400M, including launch. A decision on whether to build SNAP is expected in 2004-5.

We endorse R&D funding for SNAP from the high-energy physics program. We recommend that the full SNAP project, if approved, include significant NASA participation in the construction and launch of the instrument, in partnership with DOE and NSF.

A.6.2 Dark Matter

A variety of experiments are underway to learn the origin of dark matter. At the present time, several smaller-scale projects are partially funded by the U.S. particle physics program. There has been discussion of possible medium-scale efforts in the future, but there are no concrete proposals as yet. A next-generation dark matter experiment would require a low-background environment and be well-suited to a deep underground laboratory.

A.6.3 Connections Between Particle Physics and Cosmology

The quest to understand the origins of dark energy and dark matter are important components of a broader program of cosmological measurements, including studies of the cosmic microwave background radiation and the large-scale structure of the universe.

Particle physicists are involved in this broad program through a variety of experimental efforts. We expect that this effort will continue to grow during the next decade.

A.7 HIGH-ENERGY PARTICLE ASTROPHYSICS

Astrophysical sources are capable of accelerating particles to energies well beyond what we can produce here on Earth. Experiments that detect very high-energy particles from space are exploring the physics of extreme conditions in the universe. For example, gamma-ray bursts, among the most powerful explosions since the Big Bang, may be sources of ultrahigh-energy neutrinos and cosmic rays.

High-energy particle-astrophysics detectors also probe physics beyond the standard models of particle physics and cosmology. Gamma ray and neutrino telescopes are sensitive to supersymmetric galactic dark matter, and ultrahigh-energy cosmic rays may result from unusual particles produced in the early universe. A variety of efforts are underway in this field. New proposals will likely emerge in the future, and choices will have to be made as to which are the most promising to pursue.

A number of experimental projects are supported in part, or in whole, by the U.S. particle physics program. Larger efforts include GLAST and the proposed VERITAS (gamma rays), HiRes and Pierre Auger (ultra high-energy cosmic rays), and AMANDA and IceCube (neutrinos). Most of these projects have a substantial involvement of the international community. GLAST is an example of a successful partnership

between DOE and NASA. We expect that such experiments will continue and that new proposals will emerge. Here we list projects that are on the immediate or near-term horizon.

A.7.1 Ice Cube

A number of experimental efforts are underway worldwide to develop a large detector for very high-energy neutrinos. Ice Cube is a proposed detector to be built in the South Pole ice, following on the successful construction and operation of the AMANDA detector. The effective area of Ice Cube is a factor of thirty times larger than any previous neutrino telescope built to date. Its size gives it unprecedented sensitivity to astrophysical sources of TeV and PeV neutrinos, including gamma-ray bursts and active galactic nuclei. IceCube is also sensitive to processes of interest to particle physics, including supersymmetric WIMP annihilation in the Earth or Sun.

The National Science Board has approved the \$240M IceCube proposal as an MRE, and initial funding has been granted in the FY02 budget. We endorse the scientific goals of IceCube, as an example of a mutually beneficial cross-disciplinary effort between astrophysics and particle physics.

A.7.2 Highest-Energy Cosmic Rays

The Pierre Auger Observatory consists of a large array of charged particle detectors and several wide-angle atmospheric fluorescence detectors. Its goal is to probe the origins of the highest-energy cosmic rays through measurements of their energy spectra, anisotropies, and compositions. The southern hemisphere observatory is currently under construction in Argentina by an international collaboration from more than thirty countries. A decision will be taken during the next few years on whether to proceed with the northern observatory. The U.S. contribution to the northern hemisphere Auger observatory would be about \$25M.

Planning efforts are underway for other ultra high-energy cosmic ray instruments on earth and in space. These efforts may request partial funding from the U.S. high-energy physics program.

APPENDIX [B]

SUBPANEL MEMBERSHIP

Jonathan Bagger—Co-Chair
Johns Hopkins University

Barry Barish—Co-Chair
California Institute of Technology

Paul Avery
University of Florida

Janet Conrad
Columbia University

Persis Drell
Cornell University

Glennys Farrar
New York University

Larry Gladney
University of Pennsylvania

Don Hartill
Cornell University

Norbert Holtkamp
Oak Ridge National Laboratory

George Kalmus
Rutherford Appleton Laboratory, UK

Rocky Kolb
Fermi National Accelerator Laboratory

Joseph Lykken
Fermi National Accelerator Laboratory

William Marciano
Brookhaven National Laboratory

John Marriner
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Yorikiyo Nagashima
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Rene Ong
University of California at Los Angeles

Tor Raubenheimer
Stanford Linear Accelerator Center

Abraham Seiden
University of California at Santa Cruz

Melvyn Shochet
University of Chicago

William Willis
Columbia University

Fred Gilman (Ex-Officio)
Carnegie Mellon University

Glen Crawford (Executive Secretary)
Department of Energy

APPENDIX [C]

CHARGE TO THE SUBPANEL

Professor Frederick Gilman
Carnegie Mellon University
5000 Forbes Avenue
Pittsburgh, PA 15213

**U.S. Department of Energy and
the National Science Foundation**

January 11, 2001

Dear Professor Gilman:

This letter is to request that the High Energy Physics Advisory Panel (HEPAP) establish a subpanel to review the central scientific issues that define the intellectual frontier of particle physics research and, based on that review, to develop a long-range plan for the U.S. High Energy Physics (HEP) program. The plan should include careful consideration of the international character of HEP research and the present and future role of U.S. physicists in international HEP research collaborations.

The U.S. High Energy Physics program supported by the Department of Energy (DOE) and the National Science Foundation (NSF) addresses some of the most profound intellectual questions in science--questions whose answers have altered our basic understanding of matter, space and time, and of the forces which govern the genesis and very structure of the universe. It is no wonder that the excitement of this field captures the imagination and interest of some of the brightest young people worldwide.

The U.S. community has played a leadership role in many of the most important discoveries in HEP. This has occurred because of the world-class facilities developed, constructed, and operated in this country, and the experiments at these facilities that have produced answers to a broad range of fundamental questions. However, there are still many outstanding theoretical questions that can only be addressed by advanced research facilities.

With the completion of the Large Hadron Collider (LHC) in the middle of this decade, the United States will no longer have a facility operating at the energy frontier, where critical discoveries are likely to be made. Meanwhile, international studies exploring the technical feasibility and potential

performance of near-future and next-generation facilities are in progress. In addition, new proposals for innovative non-accelerator experiments offer many exciting scientific opportunities. Therefore, it is timely for the U.S. program to examine its long-term research directions and needs in terms of maintaining its traditional role among the world leaders in HEP research.

Thus, we are charging the subpanel to undertake a long-range planning exercise that will produce a national roadmap for HEP for the next twenty years. The subpanel should describe the discovery potential and intellectual impact of the program and recommend the next steps to be taken as part of an overall strategy to maintain the United States in a leadership role in HEP. In considering the many scientific opportunities facing the field and some potentially large associated costs, the plan will have to address some difficult questions, weigh options, and set priorities. In particular, the subpanel should weigh the scientific promise and programmatic importance of both accelerator and non-accelerator based efforts in relation to their expected costs. To be most helpful, the plan should indicate what funding levels the roadmap would require (including possible construction of new facilities), and what the impacts and priorities should be if the funding available provides constant level of effort (FY 2001 President's Budget Request) into the outyears (FY 2002-2022).

As part of the charge, the subpanel, in developing its plan, should address the following central issues:

1. Major Intellectual Challenges and Scientific Approaches

What are the central questions that define the intellectual frontier of HEP? The reach of the subpanel's considerations should include the accelerator-based particle physics program, related activities in astrophysics and cosmology, theory, and the proper balance of these elements. Describe these questions in relation to the tools, existing and new, required to effectively explore them.

2. Strategy Regarding the Energy Frontier

The leading discovery tool in HEP in the 20th century, and as far into the future as one can see, is the energy frontier accelerator/storage ring. In the context of the worldwide scientific effort in particle physics, formulate a plan that optimizes the U.S. investment of public funds in sustaining a leadership role at the high-energy frontier, including a recommendation on the next facility that will be an integral part of the U.S. program.

3. Meeting Technology Challenges

Identify technology developments essential for new instruments and facilities required to address the central questions noted above, and how these developments are captured in R&D plans. Explain the connection and importance of these R&D activities to the U.S. HEP program over the 20-year span of the plan developed by the subpanel.

4. Broad Impacts and Intellectual Renewal of HEP

Summarize the wide-ranging impacts of the field on society; and recommend ways in which the excitement and the broad, long-term benefits of HEP can be maintained and conveyed to students at all levels, to society at large, and to government.

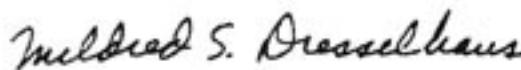
There have been several high quality strategic HEP planning efforts in the past few years, and we expect the subpanel to take advantage of the wisdom and information contained therein. Those excellent reports notwithstanding, there is a need for the community to go further in the present exercise. Specifically, the long-range plan must contain a broad vision of the future of HEP in terms of resources needed; and further, it must enjoy the widespread support of the U.S. HEP community.

This clearly will require extensive consultation with leaders of the field, and with the community, through such mechanisms as the Snowmass Workshop being planned for July 2001, and other town meetings and proactive interactions. Although we want the community to enunciate its vision of the future in the way that seems most appropriate, the subpanel's plan must also be responsive to the specific charges given above.

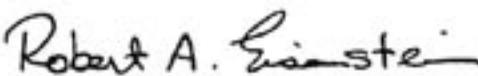
The long-range plan should have a concise executive summary that is accessible to government officials, the press, and scientists in other fields. In addition, a briefing book consisting of presentation material should be produced to facilitate communication of the long-range vision to diverse audiences. It would be most useful in the budget planning cycle to have a draft of the report and the briefing book by October 1, 2001, with the final forms of the publications by January 1, 2002.

We believe that the following decades will see revolutionary advances in our basic knowledge of matter, space and time, advances that will profoundly impact fundamental science and our understanding of the universe, and which will also become an integral part of our culture at many levels. If this quest is to be successful, it will require a unified and vibrant HEP community.

We wish you well in this important exercise.
Sincerely,



Mildred S. Dresselhaus
Director, Office of Science
U.S. Department of Energy



Robert A. Eisenstein
Assistant Director for Mathematical and Physical Science
National Science Foundation

APPENDIX [D]

TRANSMITTAL LETTER

Dr. James Decker
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January 28, 2002

Dr. Robert Eisenstein
Assistant Director, National Science Foundation
Directorate for Mathematical and Physical Sciences
4201 Wilson Boulevard
Arlington, VA 22230

Dear Jim and Bob,

Through the spring and summer of 2001, the HEPAP Subpanel listened widely to community input and debated a twenty-year road map for our field of particle physics. As summer turned to fall and the Subpanel met to draft its final recommendations, the world changed on September 11, 2001.

The U.S. is now embarked on a global effort to combat terrorism, and the nation faces challenges to its security, as well as to its economy, technological leadership, environment, and energy independence. Our ability to face those challenges increasingly rests on the strength of the nation's scientific and technical base.

The importance of a superb scientific and technical base for attaining a decisive advantage in military technology was demonstrated in both the Second World War and the Cold War. It is no less true today. The U.S. Commission on National Security/21st Century, chaired by former Senators Hart and Rudman, declared that "the inadequacies of our systems of research and education pose a greater threat to US national security over the next quarter century than any potential

conventional war that we might imagine." With the nation's security resting on the strength of our scientific and technological base, the Commission asserted that we have been living off the economic and security benefits of the last three generations' investment in science and education. "If we do not invest heavily and wisely in rebuilding these two core strengths, America will be incapable of maintaining its global position long into the 21st century."

The worldwide fabric of science and scientific achievement is tightly woven. While for convenience science is divided neatly into disciplines, this obscures the deeply and increasingly interconnected nature of all branches of science and their profound impact on one another. One cannot tell where the next scientific or technological breakthrough will occur or what combination of fields it will depend upon. Nor is it possible to predict the ultimate practical application of basic scientific research, to foresee where a critical instrument of application for the benefit of society will emerge, or to separate basic science from technology—advances in one are dependent on advances in the other.

To meet the challenges faced by this nation, a broad initiative is needed in the physical sciences that will restore momentum and take advantage of an incredible array of new opportunities. An effort to revitalize the physical sciences is needed not only because of their intrinsic importance, but because of the coupling of progress across the sciences. Pointing specifically to the difference in the support of the NIH and the DOE Office of Science in the context of the interrelationship of the sciences and their progress, Harold Varmus, Nobel laureate and former director of the NIH, stated that: “This disparity in treatment undermines the balance of the sciences that is essential to progress in all spheres, including medicine.” Citing MRI as an example, Varmus notes that “...medical advances may seem like wizardry. But pull back the curtain, and sitting at the lever is a high-energy physicist, a combinatorial chemist, or an engineer.”

The DOE Office of Science, as the largest single supporter of research in the physical sciences in the Federal government, and the NSF, as a major supporter of science in the universities, are essential parts of the science portfolio of the nation. An initiative to substantially increase the Office of Science and National Science Foundation budgets in the near future is required to revitalize the nation’s scientific and technical base to support the health, wealth, and security of the U.S. in the 21st century.

Such a broad initiative would include the long-range plan presented in the report of the HEPAP Subpanel that we are unanimously and enthusiastically endorsing today and forwarding to the Department of Energy and the National Science Foundation. The report contains a twenty-year vision to ensure that the U.S. will remain among the world leaders in one key area, particle physics—the science of matter, energy, space, and time. It comes at a moment of extraordinary opportunity for particle physics, as it enters a new era of discovery in unexplored territory that promises to revolutionize our understanding of the universe. Starting from a road

map of the science in a global context, the plan contains crisp priorities, the best path for the U.S., and a new mechanism for future strategic planning. At the center of that long-term vision is a major initiative; the high-energy, high luminosity electron-positron linear collider. The world’s particle physics community has reached a consensus that such an accelerator is the next major step in the field. It could be realized by a combination of use of existing resources, international cooperation, and incremental investment.

Responding to this plan will take resources, creativity and determination, together with the commitment of the American people and the government. But this is not the time to shy away from challenges, especially when the benefits from success are clear. By making a renewed commitment to our scientific and technical base, we will be repaid by strengthened international cooperation and a new level of U.S. leadership and achievement in science and technology together with the benefits that flow from them.

Sincerely,



Fred Gilman
Chair, HEPAP

APPENDIX [E]

GLOSSARY

ab (attobarn) 10^{-18} barns. A unit used to measure cross-section. The inverse of this unit is used to measure integrated luminosity.

accelerator Because of the Heisenberg uncertainty principle, very high energies are necessary to reach very short distances. Particle accelerators use electric and magnetic fields to accelerate particles to high energies and bring the particles into collision with each other or with a fixed target.

AGS (Alternating Gradient Synchrotron) An accelerator based at the Brookhaven National Laboratory.

AMANDA (Antarctic Muon And Neutrino Detector Array) A Cherenkov detector, embedded in the ice at the South Pole, designed to detect very high-energy neutrinos.

anti-matter All ordinary particles (such as electrons, protons, neutrons) have anti-matter partners that are identical in all respects, except they have opposite quantum numbers. The universe seems to be made from matter, and not from anti-matter, so there are subtle differences between the two. The fact that universe is made from matter and not anti-matter is known as the matter-anti-matter asymmetry.

anti-neutrino The anti-matter partner of the neutrino.

anti-particle The generic term for an anti-matter partner of a particle.

anti-proton The anti-matter partner of the proton.

anti-quark The anti-matter partner of the quark.

ASSET (Accelerator Structure SETup) A test facility, located at SLAC, used to study the electromagnetic fields left by a particle beam after it has passed through an accelerator cavity.

ATLAS (A Toroidal LHC Apparatus) A large multi-purpose experiment currently under construction at the Large Hadron Collider in Geneva, Switzerland.

B physics The study of particles containing the bottom (b) quark. The b quark is the second heaviest quark. Bottom quarks are relatively long-lived and can travel millimeters before they decay into lighter particles. This makes B-mesons ideal objects for studying the tiny differences between matter and anti-matter.

B-meson A meson that contains one bottom (b) anti-quark and one lighter quark.

BaBar An experiment at the PEP II storage ring at the Stanford Linear Accelerator Center. BaBar focuses on \bar{B} and B particles, mesons that contain b and anti-b quarks, respectively. One of BaBar's primary goals is to study why the universe seems to be made entirely from matter, and not from anti-matter. A competing experiment, Belle, is located at the KEK laboratory.

Baksan The site of a neutrino observatory, located under the Caucasus Mountains in Russia.

barn A unit of cross-section, equal to 10^{-28} m².

baryon A hadron composed of three quarks. Examples include the protons and neutrons found in ordinary nuclei.

beam loading compensation Beam loading occurs when a particle beam is accelerated by an RF cavity. Compensation techniques ensure that all parts of the beam receive the same acceleration.

Belle This experiment is located at the KEK laboratory in Japan. It focuses on \bar{B} and B particles, mesons that contain b and anti-b quarks, respectively. One of Belle's primary goals

is to study why the universe seems to be made entirely from matter, and not from anti-matter. A competing experiment, BaBar, is located at the Stanford Linear Accelerator Center.

BNP (Budker Institute for Nuclear Physics) A particle physics laboratory, located in Novosibirsk, Russia.

BNL (Brookhaven National Laboratory) A U.S. national laboratory, operated by the Department of Energy, located on Long Island, New York. Brookhaven is the site of the AGS and the RHIC (relativistic heavy-ion collider). It is the center of a broad-based program of scientific research.

BooNE (Booster Neutrino Experiment) A proposed neutrino experiment, based at Fermilab. BooNE is an expanded version of Mini-BooNE, currently beginning operation.

BOREXINO An experiment based in the Gran Sasso laboratory. BOREXINO is studying the solar neutrino problem.

branching ratio A particle can often decay in several ways. The likelihood that it decays to a particular mode is known as its branching ratio for that decay.

BTeV A proposed experiment at the Fermilab Tevatron. BTeV will study properties of bottom quarks using the Tevatron's large cross section for B-meson production.

CCD (Charge Coupled Device) A two-dimensional array of pixels on a silicon chip that converts light to electrical charge. CCD imaging devices are used widely in astronomical telescopes, digital cameras, and precision vertex particle detectors.

CDF (Collider Detector at Fermilab) One of two large multi-purpose experiments at the Fermilab Tevatron. Along with DØ, it discovered the top quark in 1995.

center-of-mass energy In a collider experiment in which the two beams have equal energy, the center-of-mass energy is the total beam energy. In a fixed target experiment, or an experiment in which the beams have unequal energy, it can be thought of as the energy that can be used to make new particles.

CERN (European Organization for Nuclear Research) A particle physics laboratory in Geneva, Switzerland. Supported

by twenty member states, CERN is the site of the Large Hadron Collider, currently under construction. Over the last fifteen years, CERN experiments have provided crucial information about electroweak unification.

CESR (Cornell Electron-positron Storage Ring) An electron-positron collider located at Cornell University and funded by the U.S. National Science Foundation. The CLEO experiment at CESR studies properties of bottom and charm quarks.

charmed particle Any particle that contains the charm (*c*) quark.

Cherenkov detector Light travels more slowly in materials, such as water, than it does in a vacuum. In materials, particles that move faster than light emit a cone of light, similar to a sonic boom. Cherenkov detectors use this light to detect subatomic particles.

chiral perturbation theory A controlled approximation, used to predict the properties of hadrons, which exploits the fact that in certain circumstances, the up, down, and strange quarks are nearly equivalent.

CLEO An experiment based at the CESR accelerator. CLEO is most noted for its study of the B-meson system.

CLIC (Compact Linear Collider) A proposed linear collider, under investigation by an international collaboration based at CERN. The collider is intended to reach center-of-mass energies of 5 TeV.

CKM (Cabbibo-Kobayashi-Maskawa) Mixing Matrix The set of mixing angles that describes transitions between quarks of different flavors.

CKM (Charged Kaons at the Main Injector) A proposed fixed target experiment at Fermilab. CKM's goal is to use the decay of charged K-mesons to pions and neutrinos to measure the parameters of the CKM mixing matrix.

CMS (Compact Muon Solenoid) A large multi-purpose experiment currently under construction at the Large Hadron Collider in Geneva, Switzerland.

color A property of quarks and gluons. The strong force results from gluons exchanging color between quarks and other gluons. This color has nothing to do with color perceived by the human eye.

cosmic rays Any of the particles from outer space that are continuously colliding with the Earth's atmosphere. They are mostly protons, with some nuclei, electrons, and photons as well. Their interactions with the atmosphere produce a variety of particles, including pions, muons, and neutrinos.

coupling constant A parameter that describes the strength of a given force.

CP violation CP is a symmetry that relates particles to anti-particles. CP violation occurs when particles and anti-particles interact differently. This phenomenon is being studied in detail at BaBar and Belle.

CPI A U.S. company that makes RF components, such as klystrons.

cross-section A measure of the likelihood that a given process will occur at an accelerator. The larger the cross-section, the more likely is the process. Cross-sections are measured in barns, 10^{-28} m². A barn is an extremely large cross-section. Many cross-sections are measured in pb (picobarns), equal to 10^{-12} barns.

DØ (D-Zero) One of two large multi-purpose experiments at the Fermilab Tevatron. Along with CDF, it discovered the top quark in 1995.

dark energy A non-luminous energy that accelerates the expansion of the universe. Dark energy is distinct from dark matter, which gravitates in the same way as ordinary matter, but is not luminous. Recent observations suggest that dark energy dominates the universe. Einstein's "cosmological constant" is a type of dark energy.

dark matter Astronomical observations indicate that luminous matter, such as the sun, makes up only a small fraction of the matter in the universe. The missing matter is known as dark matter. *See dark energy.*

decay Exotic particles produced at accelerators are often very short-lived, and can transform into lighter, less exotic products, such as electrons and photons. The process of transformation is known as decay.

DESY A laboratory located in Hamburg, Germany. DESY is the site of the HERA accelerator, and host of the ZEUS and H1 experiments.

DOE (Department of Energy) A U.S. federal agency that supports research in the physical sciences. Through its Office of Science, DOE provides approximately 90% of the funding for High Energy and Nuclear Physics.

double beta decay Beta decay is the process by which a neutron transforms into a proton, emitting an electron and an anti-neutrino. When two neutrons (in a nucleus) undergo this transformation simultaneously, the process is called double beta decay. Of particular interest is the hypothetical process of neutrinoless double beta decay, in which two neutrons transform by emitting two electrons, but no anti-neutrinos. Neutrinoless double beta decay can only occur if the neutrino is its own anti-particle.

electron A fundamental constituent of matter, with negative electric charge and no strong interactions. Along with protons and neutrons, electrons are the building blocks of atoms.

electroweak symmetry breaking At high energies, the electromagnetic and weak interactions are unified. At low energies, they are independent. The process by which they split is called electroweak symmetry breaking.

See Higgs boson.

electroweak unification The unification of the electromagnetic and weak interactions at high energies.

eV (electron volt) A unit of energy equal to the amount kinetic energy an electron gains from being accelerated through a potential of 1 volt. It can also be used as a unit of mass, through Einstein's famous relation, $E=mc^2$.

fast kicker magnet Kicker magnets are used to deflect the trajectory of particle beams. Some of these devices are extremely fast, with rise times of 10 to 20 nanoseconds (billionths of a second).

fb (femtobarn) 10^{-15} barns. A unit used to measure cross-section. The inverse of this unit is used to measure integrated luminosity.

FEL (Free-Electron Laser) A device that uses a high-energy electron beam and a series of short bending magnets to make a laser with an adjustable frequency. FELs can operate at frequencies where there are no other laser sources.

Fermilab A U.S. national laboratory, operated by the Department of Energy, located in Batavia, Illinois. It is the site of the Tevatron, presently the highest energy accelerator in the world.

fermion The term for a particle with half-odd-integer spin. Examples include the quarks and leptons of the Standard Model.

fixed target experiment An experiment in which a single beam is scattered off a stationary target. This is to be contrasted with a collider experiment, in which two beams collide with each other.

flavor Flavor has two different meanings. For leptons, it is the label used to differentiate the three generations. There are three flavors of lepton: electron, muon, and tau. For quarks, it is a label that discriminates between quarks of different mass. There are six known flavors of quark: up (u), down (d), strange (s), charm (c), bottom (b), and top (t).

FNAL (Fermi National Accelerator Laboratory)

See Fermilab.

galactic halo The region of dark matter that surrounds the visible portion of a galaxy.

gamma rays Photons of high energy. The most energetic forms of light are gamma rays.

gauge boson A particle that mediates a force in the Standard Model: electromagnetism (photon), the weak force (*W* and *Z*-boson), and the strong force (gluon).

gaugino The generic term that describes the hypothetical superpartner of a Standard Model gauge boson. A gaugino has spin one-half.

general relativity When Einstein extended his theory of special relativity to include gravity, he called it general relativity. According to this theory, mass curves space-time, which, for example, causes an apple to “fall” towards the Earth’s surface. General relativity is extremely difficult to reconcile with quantum mechanics; string theory is currently the best hope for a quantum theory of gravity.

GeV (Giga-electron Volts) 10^9 electron volts.

GHz (Giga Hertz) A unit of frequency equal to 1 billion Hertz, or 1 billion cycles-per-second.

GLAST (Gamma Ray Large Area Space Telescope) A satellite-based experiment that detects high-energy gamma rays.

gluino The hypothetical superpartner of the gluon. The gluino has spin one-half.

gluon The spin-one particle that mediates the strong force.

Gran Sasso An underground laboratory located near Rome, Italy. Gran Sasso is the site of dark matter detection, double beta decay, and neutrino detection experiments.

gravitational lensing According to Einstein’s theory of general relativity, matter warps space-time. This changes the path of light—much the way a lens does. This effect is known as gravitational lensing.

graviton The as-yet unobserved spin-two particle that mediates gravity.

H1 An experiment located at the DESY laboratory. H1 uses the HERA electron-proton collider.

hadron Any particle made out of quarks and/or anti-quarks. Protons, neutrons, and anti-protons are all hadrons.

hadron collider A machine that accelerates hadrons and collides them at high energies.

HEPAP (High-Energy Physics Advisory Panel) The committee that advises the Department of Energy and the National Science Foundation on the U.S. particle physics program.

HEPAP subpanel HEPAP appoints subpanels to focus on specific issues. This subpanel was appointed in March 2001 to plan the future particle physics program in the U.S. The subpanel’s charge is in Appendix B.

HERA An accelerator, located at the DESY laboratory, which collides 820 GeV protons and 30 GeV electrons.

hidden dimensions Undiscovered dimensions of spacetime. A hidden dimension can be a classical dimension in which particles can move, or a quantum dimension that converts a force particle into a matter particle (and vice versa).

Higgs boson (H) An as-yet undiscovered particle that appears when sufficient energy is imparted to the Higgs field.

Higgs field A hypothetical medium that permeates space and time, which is thought to give mass to all the particles of the Standard Model. Without the Higgs field, all particles in the Standard Model would be massless.

high-energy physics Because particle physics often requires high-energy particles to probe short distances, the terms particle physics and high-energy physics are sometimes used interchangeably. *See accelerator.*

HiRes (High Resolution Fly's Eye) A cosmic ray fluorescence detector based in Utah. The detector is especially sensitive to the highest energy cosmic rays.

Homestake A former gold mine in South Dakota and a the proposed site for the National Underground Sciences Laboratory (NUSL). Homestake contained the first experiment to detect solar neutrinos.

IceCube A proposed next-generation under-ice neutrino detector, a kilometer on each side, ten times larger than the AMANDA experiment.

integrated luminosity A measure of the total data collected by an accelerator. A barn⁻¹ (inverse barn) of data yields one event of a process that has a cross-section of one barn. A picobarn⁻¹ (a much larger amount of data) gives one event for a process that has a cross-section of one picobarn.

JHF (Japan Hadron Facility) An accelerator with a very intense 50 GeV proton beam, currently under construction for nuclear physics experiments in Japan. JHF can be made to generate an intense beam of neutrinos. Such a neutrino beam could be aimed at the Super Kamiokande detector.

JLC (Japanese Linear Collider) A proposed next-generation linear collider based at KEK.

KOPIO An experiment proposed to search for a rare decay of neutral K-mesons into neutral pions. The acronym KOPIO is derived for the symbols representing this decay: ("K-zero goes to Pi-zero"). This decay will provide valuable information about the CKM Mixing Matrix.

K2K An experiment that is searching for neutrino oscillations by shooting a neutrino beam from KEK to the SuperKamiokande detector.

K-meson A meson that contains a strange (s) anti-quark, together with an up or down quark. Such particles are also known as kaons.

Kamiokande (Kamioka Neutron Decay Experiment) A Cherenkov detector, located in the Kamioka mine in Japan, built to search for proton decay. It studied many properties of neutrinos.

KamLAND An experiment, based at the Kamioka mine in Japan, that is searching for neutrino oscillations using anti-neutrinos produced by nearby nuclear power plants.

kaons *See K-meson.*

KEK A high-energy physics laboratory, located near Tokyo, Japan. It hosts the Belle experiment, as well as the accelerator used in the K2K experiment.

klystron An amplifier that converts DC power into high-power RF. Similar devices (although much smaller in scale) are used to power microwave ovens and other commercial devices.

L-band superconducting resonators
See RF and superconducting RF cavity.

lattice QCD By treating space-time as a lattice of points, instead of a continuous medium, physicists can use supercomputers to make certain predictions in QCD, the theory that describes the strong interactions.

LBNL (Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory) A U.S. Department of Energy laboratory in Berkeley, California. LBNL supports a broad-based program of basic and applied research.

LEP (Large Electron Positron Collider) This electron-positron collider operated from 1989 until 2001 at the CERN laboratory in Geneva, Switzerland. LEP's energy ranged from the Z boson mass to more than 200 GeV. Its 27 km tunnel will house the LHC.

lepton Quarks and leptons make up all known matter. Unlike quarks, leptons do not participate in the strong interaction. Electrons and electron neutrinos are two common examples. There are three flavors of leptons: the electron, muon, and tau leptons.

lepton flavor violation In the Standard Model, leptons do not change flavor. For example, a muon cannot decay into an electron. The discovery of this decay would signal new physics. Neutrino oscillations already indicate that lepton flavor violation should occur. *See MECO.*

LHC (Large Hadron Collider) A 14 TeV proton-proton collider under construction at the CERN laboratory in Geneva, Switzerland.

LHCb An experiment under construction for the Large Hadron Collider (LHC). It will focus on the detailed study of B-mesons.

linac An acronym for a linear accelerator.

linear collider An accelerator that accelerates charged particles in a straight line, and then collides them.

LLNL (Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory) A U.S. Department of Energy laboratory in Livermore, California. LLNL supports a broad-based program of basic and applied research.

LSST (Large-aperture Synoptic Survey Telescope) A proposed telescope whose possible applications range from studying dark matter to searching for asteroids that could collide with the Earth.

luminosity One of two figures of merit for an accelerator. It quantifies the intensity of the beams, which is proportional to the number of events produced by the machine. Both high luminosities and high energies are necessary to access new physics.

Marconi A British company that made RF components including klystrons.

MECO (Muon to Electron CONversion experiment) A proposed experiment to search for lepton flavor violation through the conversion of muons to electrons in the presence of nuclei.

meson A hadron composed of a quark and an anti-quark.

MeV (Mega-electron Volts) 10^6 electron volts.

MiniBooNE (Mini-Booster Neutrino Experiment) An experiment, based at Fermilab, that is searching for oscillations between muon and electron neutrinos.

MINOS (Main Injector Neutrino Oscillation Search) An experiment that will search for the disappearance of muon neutrinos. A neutrino beam will be produced at Fermilab and sent to the Soudan Mine in Minnesota.

mixing angles A particle of a given flavor can transform into a similar particle of a different flavor. The parameters that quantify this process are known as mixing angles.

modulator A device used to convert AC power into short, high-voltage DC pulses for klystrons.

MRE (Major Research Equipment) The MRE account at the National Science Foundation funds the construction of large, cutting-edge research projects.

muon An elementary particle, identical to the electron, but approximately 200 times heavier. Muons are commonly found in cosmic rays.

muon storage ring A machine that accelerates and stores muons. Muons are unstable particles, but because of the time dilation associated with special relativity, they can live long enough to be accelerated in a storage ring. The stored muons might be collided with anti-muons in a muon collider, or be allowed to decay into neutrinos to form an intense and highly collimated neutrino beam.

neutralino A hypothetical electrically neutral supersymmetric particle. The superpartners of the photon, Z-boson, and Higgs boson are neutralinos.

neutrino A neutral, weakly interacting lepton, most commonly produced in nuclear reactions, such as those in the sun. There are three known flavors of neutrinos, corresponding to the three flavors of leptons. Recent experimental results indicate that all neutrinos have tiny masses.

neutrino oscillations If neutrinos have mass, they can convert from one flavor to another, and back again. This process is known as neutrino oscillation. If neutrinos oscillate from a flavor that is detectable to a flavor that is not, the neutrinos appear to vanish. This is the preferred solution to the solar neutrino problem.

neutron A constituent of atoms. Neutrons and protons are found in the nuclei (centers) of atoms. Neutrons have no electric charge. They are composed of two down quarks and an up quark.

NLC (Next Linear Collider) A proposed next-generation linear collider based at SLAC.

NSAC The Nuclear Science Advisory Committee that reports to the Department of Energy and the National Science Foundation.

NSF (National Science Foundation) One of the principal federal agencies supporting research in the physical sciences in the United States. Through its Physics Division, the NSF funds the CESR accelerator and many of the university-based researchers in high-energy and nuclear physics.

NuMI (Neutrinos at the Main Injector) A project, based at Fermilab, to construct a beam of neutrinos for use in the MINOS experiment.

Oak Ridge National Laboratory A U.S. Department of Energy laboratory, located in Oak Ridge, Tennessee. It is the site of the Spallation Neutron Source.

p-p collisions Collisions between two protons.

PAC (Physics Advisory Committee) National laboratories have PACs to advise laboratory management and to conduct rigorous reviews of proposed experiments.

parity If a process has equal probability when the coordinates of space are reflected (as in a mirror), the process is said to be parity symmetric. An example is the relative probability of a particle being produced with clockwise spin vs. counter-clockwise spin.

parton Quarks, gluons and anti-quarks are the constituents of protons and neutrons. They are collectively known as partons.

parton distribution functions These functions parameterize the parton composition of hadrons. They describe the probability to find a certain constituent with a given momentum in a particular hadron.

pb (picobarn) 10^{-12} barns. A unit used to measure cross-section. The inverse of this unit is used to measure integrated luminosity.

PEP (Positron-Electron Project) A former SLAC accelerator, capable of accelerating electrons and positrons to 30 GeV.

It was recently rebuilt as PEP II, for use by the BaBar experiment.

PEP II An accelerator at SLAC used by the BaBar experiment. One ring contains a beam of electrons running at 9 GeV, the other contains a beam of positrons at 3.1 GeV. The two beams collide and create B-mesons.

PHENIX A heavy ion experiment based at Brookhaven National Laboratory (BNL).

photocathode A device that emits electrons when illuminated by a laser beam. Photocathodes are used to generate polarized electron beams in linear colliders and very short electron bunches in FELs.

photon The gauge boson that mediates the electromagnetic force. Ordinary light is composed of many photons. Extremely high-energy photons are known as gamma rays.

Pierre Auger Observatory A detector, under construction in Argentina, which will be used to study cosmic rays of the highest energies.

pion The lightest meson, composed of an up or down quark, and one of their anti-quark counterparts. Pions of charge +1, -1, and 0 are denoted π^+ , π^- , and π^0 , respectively.

polarized electron beam An electron beam in which all electron spins are oriented in the same direction. Polarized beams simplify the analysis of particle collisions.

positron The anti-matter partner of the electron. A positron is identical in all respects to an electron, except for its positive charge.

proton A constituent of atoms. Protons and neutrons are found in the nuclei (centers) of atoms. Protons have positive electric charge. They are composed of two up quarks and a down quark.

proton driver An accelerator that provides an intense proton beam.

pulsed neutron source An accelerator that generates an intense pulse of neutrons that can be used for scientific research and industrial development.

See Spallation Neutron Source.

QCD (Quantum Chromodynamics) The theory of the strong interactions. QCD describes the exchange of gluons between quarks.

quantum dimensions As-yet undiscovered dimensions of spacetime that convert force particles into matter particles, and vice versa. Such dimensions are predicted in theories with supersymmetry. The pairs of particles that are converted into each other are called superpartners.

quantum gravity Quantum mechanics describes physical phenomena at very short distances. It has proved notoriously difficult to develop a quantum theory of gravity that is valid at such scales. String theory offers the best hope of providing a consistent theory of quantum gravity.

quantum mechanics In microscopic systems, particles also behave like waves. Quantum mechanics replaces Newtonian mechanics for microscopic phenomena.

quantum numbers The labels that describe various characteristics of elementary particles, atoms and molecules. Examples include electric charge and spin.

quark A fundamental constituent of matter. Quarks have spin one-half. They come in six flavors: up (u), down (d), strange (s), charm (c), bottom (b), and top (t). Protons and neutrons are composed of up and down quarks.

RF cavity (Radio Frequency cavity) A device that uses electromagnetic power to accelerate a particle beam in an RF accelerator. The frequency, i.e. the number of times per second that the fields oscillate, is described in terms of a nomenclature developed by the British during WWII: L-band (1-2 GHz), S-band (2-4 GHz), C-band (4-8 GHz), X-band (8-12 GHz), and K-band (12-40 GHz).

RF cavity beam position monitor A device that determines the position of a charged particle beam as it passes through an RF cavity.

RF pulse compression High-frequency klystrons and modulators operate most efficiently with pulses longer than those used by RF cavities. This technique increases RF power by shortening the RF pulse length.

RSVP (Rare Symmetry Violating Processes) An initiative consisting of two experiments, KOPI0 and MECO, proposed for construction at the Brookhaven National Laboratory.

Run II The current run of data collection at the Fermilab Tevatron. The goal is to collect roughly one hundred times the data collected in Run I, in which the top quark was discovered.

Rutherford Appleton Laboratory Located in Oxfordshire in the U.K., this laboratory supports a broad-based research program that includes investigations in nuclear and particle physics.

SAGENAP (Scientific Assessment Group for Experiments in Non-Accelerator Physics) A committee that advises the Department of Energy and National Science Foundation.

San Jacinto A 10,804 ft mountain, near Palm Springs, California. San Jacinto is a proposed site for the National Underground Science Laboratory (NUSL).

sfermion The superpartner of a fermion.

SLAC (Stanford Linear Accelerator Center) This U.S. Department of Energy laboratory, located in Menlo Park, California, is the site of the BaBar experiment, as well as the center of NLC research and development.

SLC (Stanford Linear Collider) This SLAC accelerator was used to study detailed properties of the Z-boson.

SNAP (Supernova/Acceleration Probe) A proposed satellite-based experiment to find and study supernovae and determine various properties of the dark energy.

SNO (Sudbury Neutrino Observatory) This observatory, located 2 km underground in a nickel mine in Ontario, Canada, demonstrated that neutrino oscillations solve the solar neutrino problem.

SNS (Spallation Neutron Source) An accelerator-based pulsed neutron source being built at Oak Ridge National Laboratory by the U.S. Department of Energy. The SNS will provide intense neutron beams for scientific research and industrial development.

solar neutrino problem The number of electron neutrinos coming from the sun is in sharp disagreement with predictions. This discrepancy is known as the solar neutrino problem; it provides an important reason to believe that electron neutrinos oscillate into something else.

Soudan Mine An old iron mine, located 2,340 feet below the town of Soudan, Minnesota. The mine is the site of a dark matter detection experiment, as well as the detector for the MINOS experiment. It is a proposed site for the National Underground Science Laboratory (NUSL).

space-time *See Special Relativity.*

SPEAR (SLAC Positron Electron Accelerating Ring) An electron-positron collider, constructed at SLAC in 1972. Since 1990, it has been devoted to synchrotron radiation research.

special relativity Einstein discovered that time and space are not independent, but are parts of a unified space-time. The famous equation $E=mc^2$ is a consequence of this idea.

spin A purely quantum-mechanical construct, spin is a number that labels the intrinsic angular momentum of a particle. It can only take discrete values. Particles with different spins interact in different ways. Electrons have spin one-half, while photons have spin one.

squark The hypothetical spin-zero superpartner of the quark.

string theory The only known consistent theory of quantum gravity. In string theory, the fundamental constituents of matter are not particles, but strings. The observed particles are vibrations of the strings.

stripline A device used to measure the position of a charged particle beam.

strong force One of the four known fundamental forces (the others are electromagnetism, the weak force, and gravity). The strong force is felt only by quarks and gluons. It is responsible for binding quarks into hadrons. For example, two up quarks and a down quark make a proton. The strong interaction is also responsible for holding protons and neutrons together in atomic nuclei.

superconducting RF cavities RF cavities constructed from superconducting materials, so that very little energy is lost in the cavity walls.

SuperKamiokande An experiment, located in the Kamioka mine in Japan, the successor to the smaller Kamiokande experiment. SuperKamiokande provided compelling evidence for neutrino oscillations using neutrinos created by cosmic rays hitting the Earth's atmosphere.

supernova When a star exhausts its nuclear fuel, it collapses and explodes in a supernova. A supernova is often brighter than an entire galaxy.

superparticle Supersymmetry predicts many new particles, known as superparticles, including superpartners of the Standard Model particles. These particles are manifestations of new quantum dimensions.

superpartner *See superparticle.*

superstrings When supersymmetry is included in string theory, the result is superstring theory. The fundamental constituents of this theory are known as superstrings.

supersymmetry A hypothetical symmetry that relates particles of different spins. Under this symmetry, particles of spin one-half (fermions) are related to particles of spin-zero or spin-one (bosons). Supersymmetry is a manifestation of new quantum dimensions.

symmetry Physicists use symmetries to constrain theories of fundamental particles. As an analogy, imagine you were able to see only one side of a person's face. Because of reflection symmetry, you could still guess what the other side looks like. Similarly, symmetries give physicists hints about the elementary particles.

synchrotron radiation When a charged particle is accelerated, it emits light known as synchrotron radiation. This radiation can be used to probe the atomic structure of materials.

teraflops A trillion floating point operations per second in a computer.

TESLA (TeV Energy Superconducting Linear Accelerator) A proposed next-generation linear collider based at DESY.

TeV (Tera-electron Volts) 10^{12} electron volts.

Tevatron A 2 TeV proton on anti-proton collider, operating at Fermilab in Batavia, Illinois. The top quark was discovered at this accelerator.

Thomas Jefferson National Accelerator Facility A U.S. Department of Energy laboratory that studies nuclear physics, located in Newport News, Virginia.

trilinear coupling The strength of an interaction involving three particles. When all three particles are identical, it is known as a trilinear self-coupling.

TTF (TESLA Test Facility) A facility, located at the DESY laboratory, built to study the RF components necessary for a superconducting RF linac.

uncertainty principle In quantum mechanics, there is an intrinsic uncertainty in measuring the position and momentum of a particle at the same time. The uncertainty principle implies that the study of small distances requires high momentum and hence high energy.

UNO (Underground Nucleon decay and Neutrino Observatory) A Cherenkov water detector experiment, proposed to look for proton decay and neutrino oscillations.

VERITAS (Very Energetic Radiation Imaging Telescope Array System) A proposed experiment, based in the Arizona desert, to detect high-energy gamma rays.

veto detector A veto detector is used to eliminate false signals in an experiment. When the veto detector registers a signal, the associated data is removed from subsequent analysis.

weak force The weak force is carried by heavy particles known as W - and Z -bosons. This force is responsible for beta decay, a process in which a neutron transforms into a proton, emitting an electron and an anti-neutrino.

weak neutral current A weak interaction that does not transfer electric charge.

WIMP (Weakly Interacting Massive Particle) Such as-yet undiscovered particles are leading candidates for cold dark matter.

WIPP (Waste Isolation Pilot Program) An underground cavern, located in Carlsbad, New Mexico, that serves as a storage site for nuclear waste. It is also a proposed location for the National Underground Sciences Laboratory (NUSL).

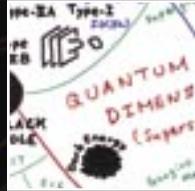
X-band and C-band klystron *See klystron and RF.*

X-band RF systems Radio frequency systems that operate at frequencies in the X band.

Z-boson The gauge boson that mediates the weak neutral current. It has no electric charge. The Z -boson was studied in spectacular detail by experiments at LEP and the SLC.

ZEUS An experiment at the DESY laboratory. ZEUS uses the HERA electron-proton collider.

Particle physics stands at the threshold of a new era of discovery. As experiments peer deeper and deeper into the heart of matter, they open strange new worlds and striking new vistas on the cosmos. Experiments in progress and under development promise to reshape our view of matter and energy, space and time.



At the beginning of the last century, few understood how scientific research would fundamentally change the world. But continued and consistent investments in science helped make the United States what it is today. As we head into the new millennium, few doubt that scientific research will remake our world yet again. It is our choice whether we want to help make this world—or retreat from it. We think the choice is clear.