

# Neutrino Oscillations in the Dualized Standard Model

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## Abstract

A method developed from the Dualized Standard Model for calculating the quark CKM matrix and masses is applied to the parallel problem in neutrino oscillations. Taking the parameters determined from quarks and the masses of two neutrinos:  $m_3^2 \sim 10^{-2} - 10^{-3} \text{eV}^2$  suggested by atmospheric neutrino data, and  $m_2^2 \sim 10^{-10} \text{eV}^2$  suggested by the long wave-length oscillation (LWO) solution of the solar neutrino problem, one obtains from a parameter-free calculation all the mixing angles in reasonable agreement with existing experiment. However, the scheme is found not to accommodate comfortably the mass values  $m_2^2 \sim 10^{-5} \text{eV}^2$  suggested by the MSW solution for solar neutrinos.

Experiments of recent years have accumulated an increasing amount of quite convincing evidence for the existence of neutrino oscillations which is beginning seriously to constrain the theoretical models invented for their explanation [1]. The problem thus offers on the one hand a possible window into a region of physics which is so far unexplored and, on the other, a challenge and a valuable testing ground for any theory which attempts to understand the many intriguing features of the Standard Model as we know it today. In particular, it would be interesting to ask whether the mass and mixing patterns we see in the quarks and the charged leptons are reflected in some way in the neutrinos, and if so why it is that the neutrinos should appear nevertheless to be so very different, for example in the extreme smallness of their mass and in the apparent absence of their right-handed partners.

Now we have recently suggested a scheme called the Dualized Standard Model [2] which purports to have explained with some success the mass and mixing patterns of the quarks and the masses of the charged leptons [3]. Thus, it would seem incumbent upon us to make an attempt also at explaining neutrino oscillations with the same methodology. The purpose of the present article is to make a start in doing so.

The Dualized Standard Model (DSM) is based on a recent theoretical result that nonabelian Yang-Mills theory has an analogue of the electric-magnetic duality of the abelian theory via a generalized dual transform [4]. This implies in particular that in addition to the (electric)  $SU(3)$  colour symmetry the Standard Model has also a dual (magnetic)  $\widetilde{SU}(3)$  symmetry. The  $SU(3)$  colour symmetry being, as we know, in the confined phase, it then follows from a well-known result of 't Hooft's [5] that the  $\widetilde{SU}(3)$  dual colour symmetry is in the Higgs phase and broken. Fermions occurring in the triplet representation of  $\widetilde{SU}(3)$  (which are actually monopoles of colour) would then carry a broken dual colour index which would be similar in appearance to the generation index. If we choose to identify the two indices, as we did in the DSM scheme [2], then it follows that there are 3 and only 3 generations, a fact which seems strongly supported by present experiment.

The scheme further predicts that, at the tree-level, only the highest generation fermion has a mass and that the CKM mixing matrix between the  $U$ -type and  $D$ -type quarks is the identity, which is already not a bad zeroth order approximation to the experimental picture. Moreover, it goes on to predict that loop-corrections will lift this degeneracy, and even suggests a method whereby such loop-corrections can be perturbatively calculated [2].

A calculation to 1-loop order has already been performed, which shows that with only a small number of parameters, one gets a good fit to the experimental CKM matrix and sensible values also for the quarks and charged leptons masses [3]. It seems therefore natural, perhaps even unavoidable, to ask whether the same procedure would apply also to neutrinos.

To set up the enquiry, let us first recall that in the DSM scheme, the fermion mass matrix remains factorizable to all orders, namely that:

$$M' = M_T \begin{pmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ z' \end{pmatrix} (x', y', z'), \quad (1)$$

where  $M_T$  is the mass of the highest generation. Everything we need to know for calculating the CKM mixings and the fermion masses is encoded in the vector  $(x', y', z')$ , which for the questions we ask here we may take to be normalized thus:

$$x'^2 + y'^2 + z'^2 = 1. \quad (2)$$

This vector  $(x', y', z')$  rotates with the energy scale, and thus traces out a trajectory on the unit sphere, starting from near a fixed point  $(1, 0, 0)$  at high energy scales to near another fixed point  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(1, 1, 1)$  at low energies, as illustrated in Figure 1. The actual trajectory it traces out depends on  $(x, y, z)$ , the tree-level values of  $(x', y', z')$  which are also the vacuum expectation values of the Higgs fields which break the dual colour symmetry, and also weakly on the strength  $\rho$  of the Yukawa coupling of these Higgs fields to the fermion under consideration. The vev's  $(x, y, z)$  are common to all fermion-types but, as far as we understand it at present, the  $\rho$ 's can in principle be different for different fermion-types. However, for some yet unknown reason, the 3 values obtained by fitting the quark CKM matrix and the two higher generation quark and charged lepton masses turned out to be equal to a high accuracy, so much so that we suspect that there is a hidden symmetry in the problem which we have not yet understood. The result in practical terms is that all 3 fermion-types ( $U, D, L$ ) run on the same trajectory, and they differ only in the positions where the actual physical states of each type are located on that trajectory. The trajectory shown in Figure 1 is in fact the one determined in [3] by fitting the quark CKM matrix and masses. Also shown are the locations of the various quark and charged lepton states on the trajectory obtained in that calculation. In this scenario, the masses and

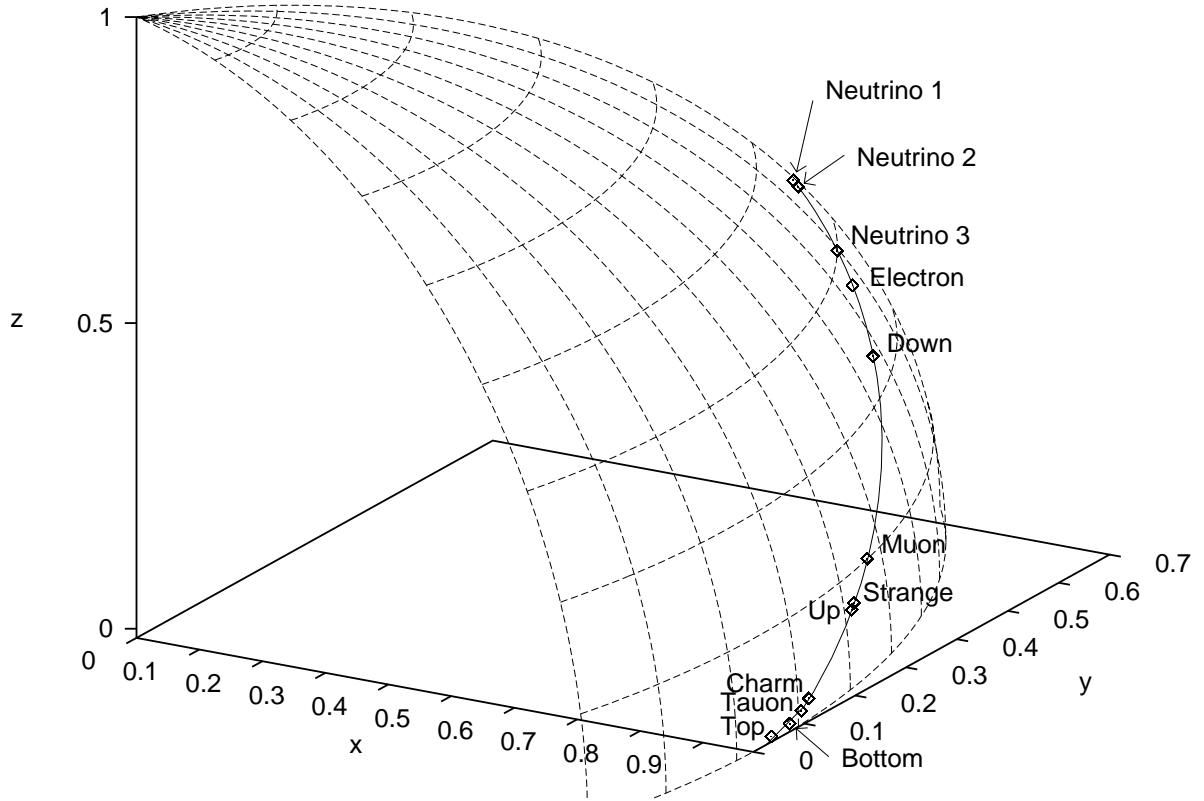


Figure 1: The trajectory traced out by  $(x', y', z')$ .

state vectors of all three generations of each fermion type are obtained once the mass  $M_T$  of the highest generation appearing in (1) is specified. For more details, the reader is referred to our earlier paper [3].

Let us turn now to the problem of neutrinos. Since neutrinos seem to exist also in three generations [6] which in the DSM scheme would be identified with dual colour, it would appear that nothing is changed compared with the other three fermion-types as far as their Dirac mass matrix is concerned. Hence, once given the mass  $M_3 = M_T$  of the highest generation and assuming the same  $\rho$  as for the other fermions, our prescription will allow us to calculate the Dirac masses  $M_2$  and  $M_1$  of the two lower generations as well as the state vectors of all three generations. And since the state vectors of the charged

leptons are already known from our earlier work [3], one can then calculate also the leptonic CKM matrix and hence the mixing angles appearing in neutrino oscillations. However, the Dirac masses  $M_i$  specified above are not yet the physical masses of the neutrino states, for, as is well known, right-handed neutrinos can have Majorana masses, so that for each generation  $i$  one has yet to diagonalize a  $2 \times 2$  submatrix of the form:

$$\mathbf{M}_i = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & M_i \\ M_i & B \end{pmatrix}, \quad (3)$$

giving for the physical masses of the neutrinos:

$$m_i = M_i^2/B, \quad (4)$$

where for the DSM as formulated in [2]  $B$  has to be the same for all  $i$  for consistency. For  $B$  large, this way of determining the physical masses of neutrinos is the famous see-saw mechanism [7] which can give very small physical masses  $m_i$  for the neutrinos with not too small Dirac masses  $M_i$ . The parameter  $B$ , which can be interpreted as the mass of the yet undiscovered neutrinos with a large right-handed component (henceforth referred to as ‘right-handed neutrinos’ in short), is unknown, so that in contrast to the other fermion-types depending on only one mass scale, the neutrino calculation involves two mass scales which have still to be specified. This we can do once we know the masses of any two of the neutrinos.

We turn then to experiment to see whether we can find enough information to determine two of the neutrino masses. Attempts at direct measurements of neutrino masses have yielded up to now the following sort of upper limits: [8]

$$m_{\nu_\tau} < 24\text{MeV}, \quad m_{\nu_\mu} < 0.17\text{MeV}, \quad m_{\nu_e} < 10\text{eV}, \quad (5)$$

which one suspects to be rather weak. On the other hand, information from other sources, such as the depletion effects of solar and atmospheric neutrinos when interpreted as being due to neutrino oscillations is much more stringent. For example, to explain the solar neutrino puzzle as neutrino oscillations, we are offered two solutions: (i) the so-called long-wave length oscillation solution (LWO) which corresponds to oscillations over distance scales of the order of the radius of the earth’s orbit and requires  $\Delta m_{12}^2 \sim 10^{-10}\text{eV}^2$  [9, 10], and (ii) the Mikheyev-Smirnov-Wolfenstein (MSW) solution [11, 12] which corresponds to oscillations over distance scales of the order of the sun’s radius

and requires  $\Delta m_{12}^2 \sim 10^{-5} \text{eV}^2$ . On the other hand, to explain the atmospheric neutrino anomaly observed by the Kamiokande [13], IMB [14] and Soudan experiments [15],  $\Delta m_{23}^2 \sim 10^{-2} - 10^{-3} \text{eV}^2$  is required [16]. Here  $\Delta m_{ij}^2$  represents the mass squared difference between the  $i$ th and  $j$ th generation neutrinos.

As far as we are concerned within the framework of the DSM, where masses for the lower two generations of fermions are obtained by the ‘leakage’ mechanism of a rotating mass matrix as explained in [3], the Dirac masses  $M_i$  of the neutrinos, like other fermions, have to be hierarchical, implying thus by (4)  $m_1 \ll m_2 \ll m_3$ . Hence, from the above estimates for mass differences, we conclude that we should put for the mass of the heaviest neutrino  $m_3^2 \sim 10^{-2} - 10^{-3} \text{eV}^2$ , and for the mass of the second heaviest neutrino either (i)  $m_2^2 \sim 10^{-10} \text{eV}^2$  (LWO), or (ii)  $m_2^2 \sim 10^{-5} \text{eV}^2$  (MSW). We have thus the two mass scales we seek as input information for proceeding with our calculation, which, apart from the two masses here determined from experiment, will be parameter free, and will give us as predictions all the mixing angles in the leptonic CKM matrix, as well as the masses of the lightest neutrino and the right-handed neutrinos.

The calculation follows along exactly the same lines as for the quarks and charged leptons given in [3] and uses essentially the same numerical programs. Starting with some assumed value for  $M_3$  the Dirac mass, one runs the scale down until it becomes equal to the Dirac mass  $M_2$  of the second generation obtained by the ‘leakage’ mechanism from the rotating mass matrix. From these values of  $M_3$  and  $M_2$ , one can then evaluate the corresponding values of  $m_2/m_3 = M_2^2/M_3^2$ , the ratio of the actual masses of the two heaviest neutrinos as given by the see-saw mechanism (4). This value of the mass ratio, of course, need not agree with either of the values obtained from the estimates given in the above paragraph deduced from experiment. One then varies the assumed value for  $M_3$  until the output ratio for  $m_2/m_3$  agrees with the value favoured by experiment. For each assumed value of  $M_3$ , our program automatically calculates the corresponding value for  $m_1$ , the mass of the lightest neutrino, and the predicted mass of the right-handed neutrino  $B$ . Furthermore, the orientation in dual colour space of the state vectors for all three generations of neutrinos are also given. Hence, combining this with the result previously obtained in [3] for the state vectors of the charged leptons, the whole leptonic CKM matrix can be evaluated.

Consider first the case corresponding to the long wave-length (LWO) so-

lution (i) for the solar neutrino puzzle, namely  $m_2^2 \sim 10^{-10} \text{ eV}^2$ . We obtain for input values for  $M_3 = 2.0, 3.7 \text{ MeV}$  respectively the following results:

$$m_3^2 = 10^{-2} \text{ eV}^2, \quad m_1 = 5 \times 10^{-17} \text{ eV}, \quad B = 40 \text{ TeV}; \quad (6)$$

$$|CKM|_{lepton} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.9671 & 0.2417 & 0.0795 \\ 0.2277 & 0.6823 & 0.6947 \\ 0.1136 & 0.6899 & 0.7149 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (7)$$

and:

$$m_3^2 = 10^{-3} \text{ eV}^2, \quad m_1 = 10^{-15} \text{ eV}, \quad B = 430 \text{ TeV}; \quad (8)$$

$$|CKM|_{lepton} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.9694 & 0.2355 & 0.0700 \\ 0.2215 & 0.7142 & 0.6640 \\ 0.1063 & 0.6591 & 0.7445 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (9)$$

We notice first that it is possible to obtain values of  $m_3$  within the range required by the atmospheric neutrino experiments. Secondly, we note that the mass obtained for the lightest neutrino is extremely small. This is because the value of  $(x', y', z')$  for this neutrino, as seen in Figure 1, is already getting very close to the fixed point  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(1, 1, 1)$  so that the leakage mechanism hardly operates and thus gives it very little mass. Needless to say, our calculation in this mass region is far from reliable and gives at best just a rough order of magnitude. The estimate for the mass of the right-handed neutrino  $B$  depends only on the two heaviest neutrinos and should be more reliable. Interestingly, its value turns out to be of the same order as the value of the vev's of the Higgs fields responsible for breaking the dual colour or generation symmetry as estimated from the experimental bounds on the  $K^0 - \bar{K}_0$  mass difference and on flavour-changing neutral current decays [17]. Notice that our estimate for  $B$  is considerably lower than what is usually assumed, in grand unified theories, for example [18]. The reason is that one usually uses a Dirac mass for the neutrino similar to that for the charged lepton, namely for the highest generation a mass of around 1 GeV. On the other hand, for our calculation here we want for the Dirac mass  $M_3$  a value of only a few MeV, and for fixed  $m_3$ ,  $B$  according to (4) is proportional to  $M_3^2$ . That neutrinos and charged leptons can have widely different Dirac masses one need not find disturbing if one recalls that even for the quarks, Dirac masses between the  $U$ - and the  $D$ -types differ by as much as a factor 50, as witnessed by the masses of the  $t$  and the  $b$ . The fact that our estimate for  $B$  is of order  $10^3$

TeV means that the implied limits for neutrinoless double beta decay and for neutrino-antineutrino oscillations, while compatible with existing experimental bounds, may be much more accessible than previously anticipated. A detailed analysis of the experimental situation has not, however, been done and is beyond the scope of the present work.

In this paper, we focus on the mixing angles in the leptonic CKM matrix for comparison with existing data. To order 1-loop corrections in the DSM scheme, the CKM matrix whether for quarks or leptons is real [3], so that there are only three independent parameters to consider, which we can take to be the three elements in the upper right corner of the matrix, namely  $U_{\mu 3}$ ,  $U_{e 3}$ , and  $U_{e 2}$ . We shall examine each in turn.

Consider first the element  $U_{\mu 3}$  which plays the central role in atmospheric neutrinos, where, to explain the muon puzzle, one needs a sizeable value for  $U_{\mu 3}$ . Indeed, according to the recent analysis in [16], for example,  $|U_{\mu 3}|$  has to have a value roughly between 0.45 and 0.85 to explain the Kamiokande data [13]. One notes that the values we obtained in (7) and (9) fall right in the middle of the permitted range.

Next, consider the element  $U_{e 3}$ . Its value is constrained not only by atmospheric neutrino data but also by terrestrial experiments such as Bugey [19] and CHOOZ [20]. The absence of any observed effects in the latter type of experiments puts an upper bound on  $|U_{e 3}|$  of around 0.15 at, for example,  $m_3^2 \sim 10^{-2} \text{eV}^2$ . Again, one notes that the value we calculated, as quoted in (7) and (9) above, satisfy this bound.

In Figure 2 and 3, we reproduce in terms of the CKM matrix elements the individual 90% CL limits on  $U_{e 3}$  and  $U_{\mu 3}$  obtained by [16] with the data from the Kamiokande, Bugey and CHOOZ experiments and compare them with the result of our calculation for a range of  $m_3$  values. Also shown in Figures 4 and 5 are the correlated bounds on these elements quoted from the same source. The width of our curves represents the range of values calculated from  $m_2^2$  values lying within the admissible range  $5 \times 10^{-6}$  to  $1.1 \times 10^{-5} \text{eV}^2$  obtained from the analysis of solar neutrino data by [9, 10]. One notes first that the calculated values of the mixing parameters are quite insensitive both to the input value of  $m_2^2$  and to the value of  $m_3^2$ . Secondly, one sees that in each case our curve lies comfortably within the experimental limits for all reasonable values of  $m_3^2$  except for Figure 5 where it passes near the edge. It seems thus that the agreement of our calculated  $U_{\mu 3}$  and  $U_{e 3}$  with experiment is rather good. Notice that the analysis in [16] did not take into



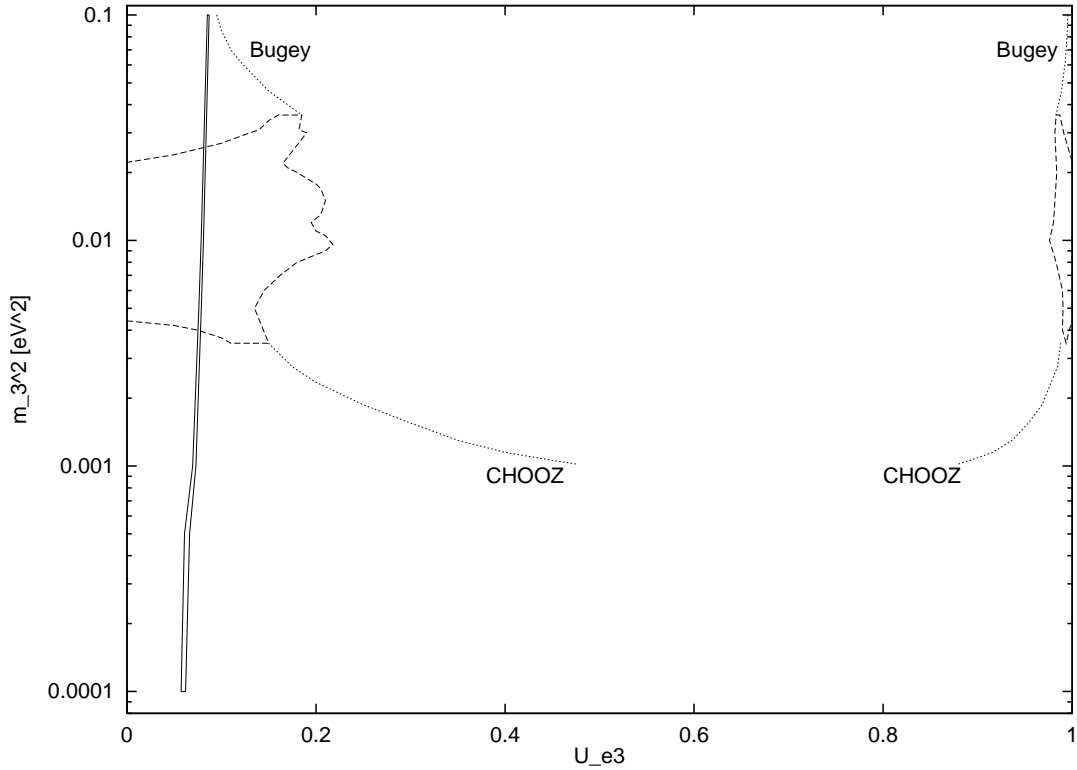


Figure 2: 90% CL limits on the CKM element  $U_{e3}$  compared with the result from our calculation.

account the new SuperKamiokande [21] data which is thought to lower the estimate for  $m_3^2$  to around  $10^{-3} \text{ eV}^2$ . For this reason we have given the result of our calculation also for  $m_3^2$  values outside the quoted limits from [16] in anticipation of a comparison with future analyses of the SuperKamiokande data.

For the remaining CKM element  $U_{e2}$  which enters mainly in the solar neutrino problem, we cannot as yet make a clear comparison with experiment. Detailed analyses of the solar neutrino data for the long wave-length (LWO) oscillation scenario have, as far as we know, been performed only for two flavours [9, 10]. If we compare our calculated  $U_{e2}$  with these two-flavour

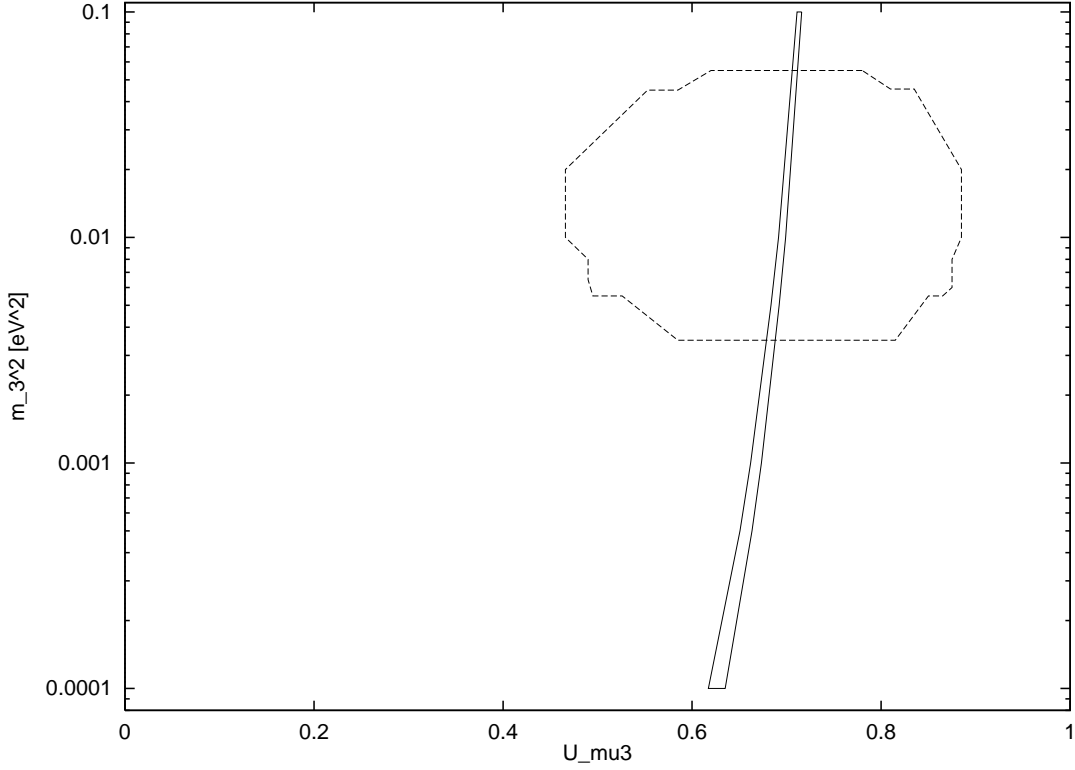


Figure 3: 90% CL limits on the CKM element  $U_{\mu 3}$  compared with the result from our calculation.

analyses, then our values for the mixing angle of around  $14^\circ$  lie outside the bound obtained of  $> 27^\circ$ . However, a full three-flavoured analysis of the solar neutrino data where accounts are taken of both long wave length and MSW oscillations has to be done before a meaningful comparison can be made, since for  $m_3^2$  approaching  $2 \times 10^{-4} \text{eV}^2$ , a value possibly compatible with SuperKamiokande [21], an adiabatic MSW transition  $e \rightarrow 3$  may lead to significant depletion. Even if it turns out that the quoted estimate from the two-flavoured analyses is not appreciably affected with 3 flavours taken into account so that the discrepancy with our calculation remains, one should perhaps still not be too disappointed, given that the value is obtained from

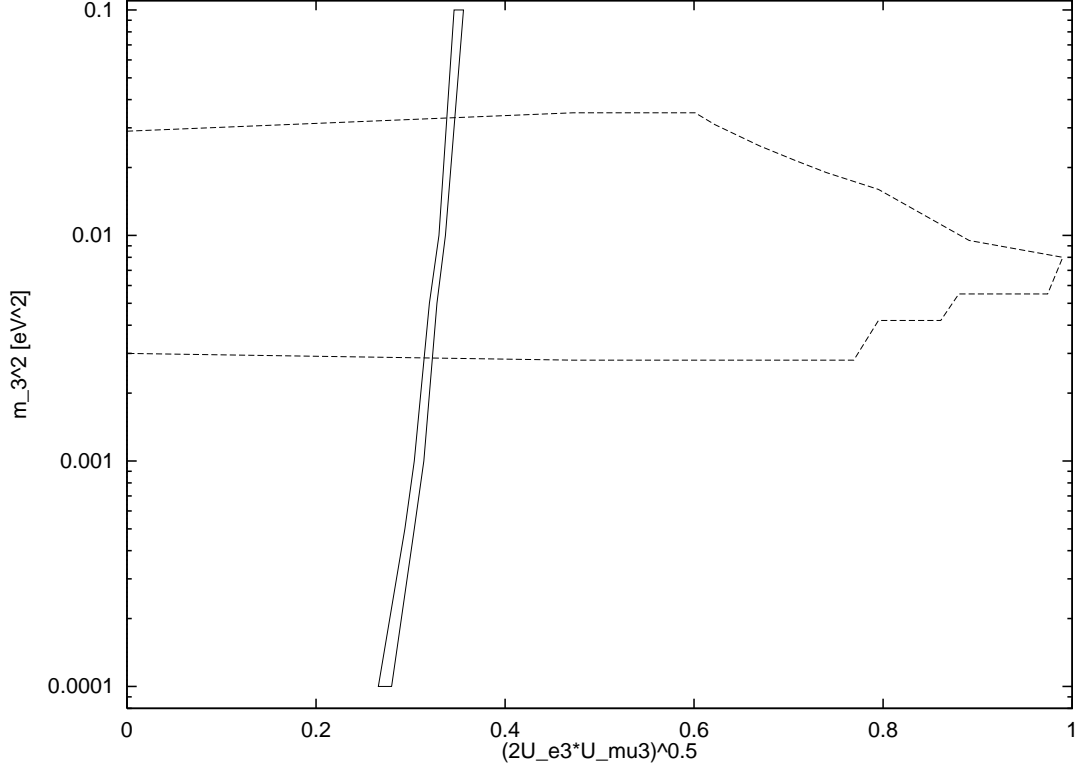


Figure 4: 90% CL limits on the quantity  $(2U_{e3}U_{\mu3})^{1/2}$  compared with the result from our calculation.

a parameter-free calculation in which fairly crude approximations have been made, and that in our scheme  $U_{e2}$  is particularly sensitive to details [22].

It is instructive to compare the lepton CKM matrix (7) or (9) obtained above with the quark CKM matrix calculated in [3] by the same method with a common set of parameters:

$$|CKM|_{quark} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.9755 & 0.2199 & 0.0044 \\ 0.2195 & 0.9746 & 0.0452 \\ 0.0143 & 0.0431 & 0.9990 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (10)$$

which was seen to fit very well with that obtained in experiment.

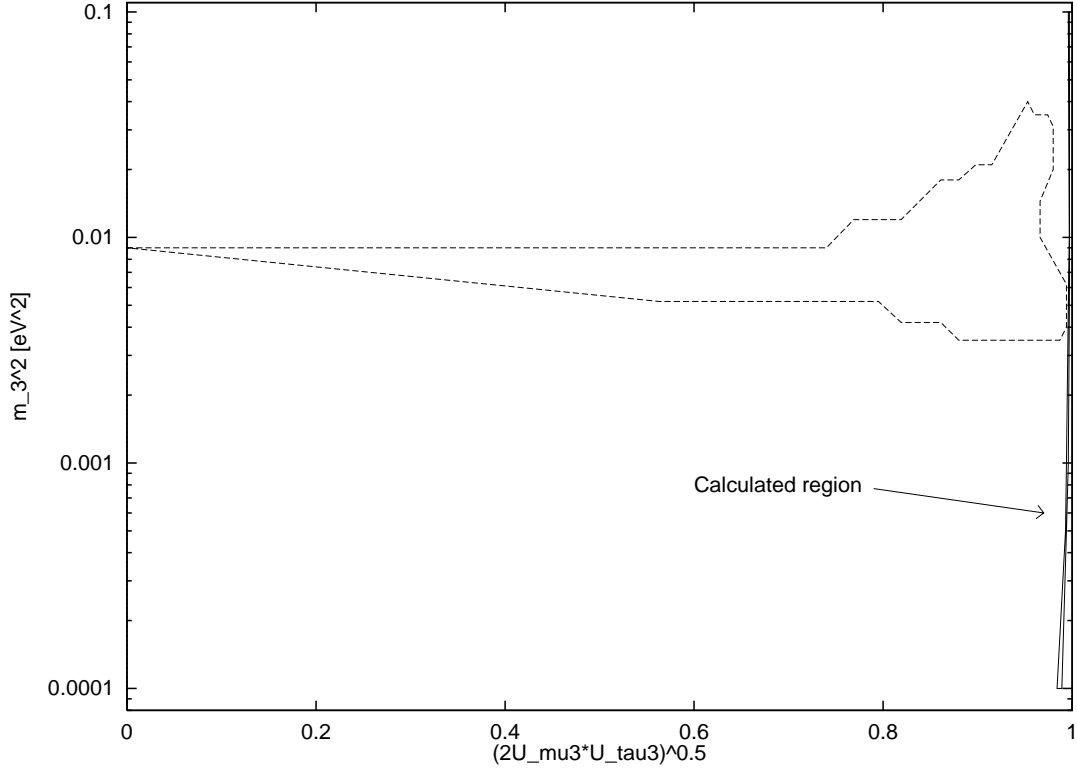


Figure 5: 90% CL limits on the quantity  $(2U_{\mu 3}U_{\tau 3})^{1/2}$  compared with the result from our calculation.

One notices first the striking fact that the upper right corner (i.e. the 13) elements in both matrices are particularly small and much smaller than the 12 elements (i.e. the Cabibbo angle) or the 23 elements. For the quark case, the smallness of the 13 element is needed for explaining  $b$  decays, while for the lepton case, we recall, it is needed to satisfy the bounds imposed by the CHOOZ [20] oscillation experiment, at least for  $m_3^2 > 10^{-3}\text{eV}^2$ . It would thus be interesting to understand why this feature should emerge correctly from our calculations with the DSM scheme. The answer turns out to be quite intriguing, giving the above feature as a consequence of the general differential geometric properties of space curves. As already explained, the

non-diagonal CKM matrix elements arise from loop-corrections which forces the vector  $(x', y', z')$  to run along a trajectory on a sphere, as depicted in Figure 1 above. Recalling then from [3] in detail how the state vectors of the three physical states of each fermion-type are defined and how the CKM matrix is constructed from these, it can be shown [22] that the 12 and 23 elements of the CKM matrix are associated with the curvatures of the trajectory on the sphere while the element 13 is associated with its torsion. It then follows that the 13 element is necessarily small compared with the 12 and 23 elements.

Secondly, we note that the 23 element is much larger in the lepton than in the quark CKM matrix. This is physically important, or otherwise, as explained above, one would not be able to explain the large muon anomaly observed in atmospheric neutrinos. Within the scheme employed here, this enhancement of the 23 element for leptons over quarks can again be easily understood in differential geometrical terms. Indeed, it can be shown [22] that the 23 element of a CKM matrix is associated with the so-called normal curvature of the trajectory which on a sphere is constant. This element is thus roughly proportional to the separation on the trajectory between the locations of the two fermion-types to which it refers. Now, as can be seen in Figure 1, the leptons have a much longer distance to run from  $\tau$  to  $\nu_3$  than the quarks from  $t$  to  $b$ , so that it follows that  $U_{\mu 3}$  is necessarily much larger than  $V_{cb}$ , as is experimentally observed.

The fact that these important empirical features can be traced through some simple differential geometry directly back to the intrinsic properties of the Dualized Standard Model we consider to be a nontrivial and encouraging check both of the scheme itself and of our calculations.

So far, we have considered only the case (i) with  $m_2^2 \sim 10^{-10} \text{ eV}^2$  corresponding to the so-called LWO solution to the solar neutrino problem. What about the case (ii) with  $m_2^2 \sim 10^{-5} \text{ eV}^2$  corresponding to the so-called MSW solution? This is not as easy for the present scheme to accommodate. We recall that in the DSM scheme, the second generation acquires a mass only through ‘leakage’ from the highest generation, and this ‘leakage’ is limited, as explained above, by the curvature of the trajectory. Given that the value of  $m_2$  required by the MSW solution (ii) is so much larger than that required by the LWO solution (i), the former will require a much larger ‘leakage’ and this is not easily available on our trajectory. Indeed, taking the same value of  $\rho$  for neutrinos as for the other fermions as we have done above, one can

easily find the maximum value for  $M_2/M_3$  to be about 0.11, which for  $m_2^2$  of order  $10^{-5} \text{ eV}^2$  gives necessarily  $m_3^2 > 7 \times 10^{-2} \text{ eV}^2$ , which is some way above the range preferred by Kamiokande [13] and SuperKamiokande [21]. If one relaxes the condition that  $\rho$  should be the same as for the other fermions, for which after all there is as yet no theoretical justification, then one can obtain enough ‘leakage’ to move  $m_3^2$  into the  $10^{-2} - 10^{-3} \text{ eV}^2$  range, but only at the cost of a large  $\rho > 5$  and a very large Dirac mass  $M_3 \sim \text{TeV}$ . Besides, it requires further struggle to get the mixing angles within the experimental bounds set by e.g. [16] since the sizeable value for  $U_{\mu 3}$  required by the atmospheric neutrino data necessitates, in our present framework, also a sizeable separation on the trajectory between the locations of the two highest generation neutrinos. Indeed, in all the attempts we have made so far, it is only by choosing values as high as  $\rho \sim 18$ ,  $M_3 \sim 16 \text{ TeV}$  that we manage to get  $m_3^2 \sim 10^{-2} \text{ eV}^2$  and  $U_{\mu 3} \sim 0.44$  just within the the 90% limits set by [16] from the Kamiokande data. It thus seems that although one can still possibly obtain some fits at the cost of one more parameter  $\rho$  than the case above for  $m_2^2 \sim 10^{-10} \text{ eV}^2$ , this scenario for  $m_2^2 \sim 10^{-5} \text{ eV}^2$  is far less comfortably accommodated.

It is clear also that the DSM scheme would have difficulty accommodating neutrinos with masses of the order of several eV’s as those wanted by astrophysicists for hot dark matter [23], or the neutrinos possibly indicated by the LSND [24] experiment. One can, of course, introduce here by hand, as one does in other schemes, extra sterile neutrinos to foot the bill, but that would be against the spirit of the whole idea which is, perhaps over-ambitiously, to aim at an overall explanation for the quark and lepton spectrum as we know it today.

However, in the case with  $m_2^2 \sim 10^{-10} \text{ eV}^2$  with which the DSM scheme is most happy, one is able to predict with no free parameter all the mixing angles which appear to be consistent with what is known so far in experiment. And these results are obtained with the same method as that applied before to calculate the quark CKM matrix using exactly the same values of the common parameters. It is this possibility of a consistent treatment of the two related problems that we find most encouraging.

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