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Stephen Parke

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What is Δm_{ee}^2 ?

Stephen Parke*

*Theoretical Physics Department,
Fermi National Accelerator Laboratory,
P. O. Box 500, Batavia, IL 60510, USA*

Abstract

The current short baseline reactor experiments, Daya Bay and RENO (Double Chooz) have measured (or are capable of measuring) an effective Δm^2 associated with the atmospheric oscillation scale of 0.5 km/MeV in electron anti-neutrino disappearance. In this paper, I compare and contrast the different definitions of such an effective Δm^2 and argue that the simple, L/E independent, definition given by $\Delta m_{ee}^2 \equiv \cos^2 \theta_{12} \Delta m_{31}^2 + \sin^2 \theta_{12} \Delta m_{32}^2$, i.e. “the ν_e weighted average of Δm_{31}^2 and Δm_{32}^2 ,” is superior to all other definitions and is useful for both short baseline experiments mentioned above and for the future medium baseline experiments JUNO and RENO 50.

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*Electronic address: parke@fnal.gov

I. INTRODUCTION

The short baseline reactor experiments, Daya Bay [1], RENO [2], and Double Chooz [3], have been very successful in determining the electron neutrino flavor content of the neutrino mass eigenstate with the smallest amount of ν_e , the state usually labelled ν_3 . The parameter which controls the size of this flavor content is the mixing angle θ_{13} , in the standard PDG convention¹, and the current measurements indicate that $\sin^2 2\theta_{13} \approx 0.09$ with good precision ($\sim 5\%$).

The mass of the ν_3 eigenstate, has a mass squared splitting from the other two mass eigenstates, ν_1 and ν_2 , of approximately $\pm 2.4 \times 10^{-3} \text{ eV}^2$ given by $\Delta m_{31}^2 \equiv m_3^2 - m_1^2$ and $\Delta m_{32}^2 \equiv m_3^2 - m_2^2$, the sign determines the atmospheric mass ordering. The mass squared difference between, ν_2 and ν_1 , $\Delta m_{21}^2 \equiv m_2^2 - m_1^2 \approx +7.5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ eV}^2$ is about 30 times smaller than both Δm_{31}^2 and Δm_{32}^2 , hence $\Delta m_{31}^2 \approx \Delta m_{32}^2$. However, the difference between Δm_{31}^2 and Δm_{32}^2 is $\sim 3\%$.

Recently, two of these reactor experiments, Daya Bay, see [4] - [6] and RENO [7], have extended their analysis of their data, from just fitting $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$, to a two parameter fit of both $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ and an effective Δm^2 . The measurement uncertainty on this effective Δm^2 is approaching the difference between Δm_{31}^2 and Δm_{32}^2 . So it is now a pertinent question “What is the physical meaning of this effective Δm^2 ?” Clearly, the effective Δm^2 measured by these experiments is some combination of Δm_{31}^2 and Δm_{32}^2 . Answering the question “What is the combination of Δm_{31}^2 and Δm_{32}^2 is measured in such a short baseline reactor experiment?” is the primary purpose of this paper,

The outline of this paper is as follows: in Section II, I review the $\bar{\nu}_e$ survival probability as calculated in terms of an effective Δm^2 which naturally arises in this calculation, then this definition is applied to the short baseline reactor experiments, $L/E < 1 \text{ km/GeV}$. In Section III, I compare and contrast other possible definitions of an effective Δm^2 , including two new ones as well as the two definitions invented by the Daya Bay collaboration. The new effective Δm^2 's are essentially equal to the effective Δm^2 of section II whereas the two invented by Daya Bay are L/E dependent and their original definition is discontinuous. This is followed by a conclusion and two appendices.

¹ A more informative notation for mixing angles (θ_{12} , θ_{13} , θ_{23}) is (θ_{e2} , θ_{e3} , $\theta_{\mu3}$), respectively, such that $U_{e2} = \cos \theta_{e3} \sin \theta_{e2}$, $U_{e3} = \sin \theta_{e3} e^{-i\delta}$ and $U_{\mu3} = \cos \theta_{e3} \sin \theta_{\mu3}$.

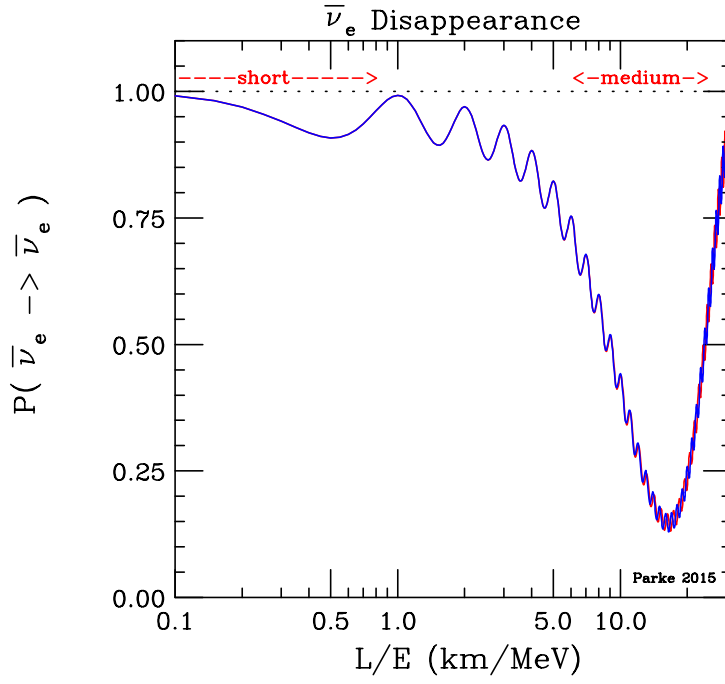


FIG. 1: The vacuum survival probability for $\bar{\nu}_e$ as a function of L/E . Blue is for the normal mass ordering (NO) and red is the inverted mass ordering (IO) with Δm_{31}^2 and Δm_{32}^2 chosen in such a fashion that the two survival probabilities are identical at small L/E , ie. $\Delta m_{31}^2(IO) = -\Delta m_{31}^2(NO) + 2\sin^2\theta_{12}\Delta m_{21}^2$. Near the solar oscillation minimum, $L/E \sim 15$ km/MeV, the phase of the θ_{13} oscillations advances (retards) for the normal (inverted) mass ordering and the two oscillation probabilities are distinguishable, in principle. Also near the solar minimum, the amplitude of the θ_{13} oscillations is significantly reduced compared to smaller values of L/E . The short baseline experiments, Daya Bay, RENO and Double Chooz, probe $L/E < 0.8$ km/MeV and the medium baseline, JUNO and RENO 50, probe $6 < L/E < 25$ km/MeV, as indicated.

II. $\bar{\nu}_e$ SURVIVAL PROBABILITY IN VACUUM:

The exact $\bar{\nu}_e$ survival probability in vacuum, see Fig. 1, is given by²

$$\begin{aligned}
P_x(\bar{\nu}_e \rightarrow \bar{\nu}_e) &= 1 - 4|U_{e2}|^2|U_{e1}|^2 \sin^2 \Delta_{21} \\
&\quad - 4|U_{e3}|^2|U_{e1}|^2 \sin^2 \Delta_{31} - 4|U_{e3}|^2|U_{e2}|^2 \sin^2 \Delta_{32} \\
&= 1 - \cos^4 \theta_{13} \sin^2 2\theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{21} \\
&\quad - \sin^2 2\theta_{13} (\cos^2 \theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{31} + \sin^2 \theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{32}), \tag{1}
\end{aligned}$$

using $\Delta_{ij} \equiv \Delta m_{ij}^2 L/4E$.

It was shown in [8], that to an excellent accuracy

$$\begin{aligned}
\cos^2 \theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{31} + \sin^2 \theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{32} &\approx \sin^2 \Delta_{ee} \\
\text{where } \Delta m_{ee}^2 &\equiv \cos^2 \theta_{12} \Delta m_{31}^2 + \sin^2 \theta_{12} \Delta m_{32}^2
\end{aligned}$$

for $L/E < 0.8$ km/MeV. A variant of this derivation is given in the Appendix V.

However, in this article we will use an exact formulation given in [9] which follows Helmholtz, [10], in combining the two oscillation frequencies, proportional to Δ_{31} and Δ_{32} into one frequency plus a phase. The exact survival probability is given by (see Appendix VI)

$$\begin{aligned}
P_x(\bar{\nu}_e \rightarrow \bar{\nu}_e) &= 1 - \cos^4 \theta_{13} \sin^2 2\theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{21} \\
&\quad - \frac{1}{2} \sin^2 2\theta_{13} \left(1 - \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 2\theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{21}} \cos \Omega \right) \tag{2} \\
\text{with } \Omega &= (\Delta_{31} + \Delta_{32}) + \arctan(\cos 2\theta_{12} \tan \Delta_{21}).
\end{aligned}$$

Ω consists of two parts: one that is even under the interchange of Δ_{31} and Δ_{32} and is linear in L/E , $(\Delta_{31} + \Delta_{32})$, and the other which is odd under this interchange and contains both linear and higher (odd) powers in L/E , $\arctan(\cos 2\theta_{12} \tan \Delta_{21})$, remember $\Delta_{21} = \Delta_{31} - \Delta_{32}$.

The key point is the separation of the kinematic phase, Ω , into an effective 2Δ (linear in L/E) and a phase, ϕ . For short baseline experiments, it is natural to expand Ω in a power

² The standard PDG conventions with the kinematical phase given by $\Delta_{ij} \equiv \Delta m_{ij}^2 L/4E$ or $1.267 \Delta m_{ij}^2 L/E$ depending on whether one is using natural or (eV², km, MeV) units. Also, matter effects shift the Δm^2 by $(1 + \mathcal{O}(E/10\text{GeV}))$, where $E < 10$ MeV, so are negligible for typical reactor neutrinos experiments.

series in L/E and identify the coefficient of the linear term in $L/2E$ as the effective Δm^2 and include all the higher order terms in the phase³. Then,

$$\Omega = 2\Delta_{ee} + \phi \quad (3)$$

$$\text{where } \Delta m_{ee}^2 \equiv \left. \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial(L/2E)} \right|_{\frac{L}{E} \rightarrow 0} = \cos^2 \theta_{12} \Delta m_{31}^2 + \sin^2 \theta_{12} \Delta m_{32}^2 \quad (4)$$

$$\text{and } \phi \equiv \Omega - 2\Delta_{ee} = \arctan(\cos 2\theta_{12} \tan \Delta_{21}) - \Delta_{21} \cos 2\theta_{12}. \quad (5)$$

With this separation, $2\Delta_{ee}$ varies at the atmospheric scale, 0.5 km/MeV, whereas ϕ varies at the solar oscillation scale, 15 km/MeV, and

$$\phi = 0, \quad \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial(L/2E)} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial(L/2E)^2} = 0 \quad \text{at} \quad \frac{L}{E} = 0,$$

therefore, in a power series in L/E , ϕ starts at $(\Delta m_{21}^2 L/E)^3$ (see eqn. 11).

Since Ω only appears as $\cos \Omega$, it is useful to redefine $\Omega = 2|\Delta_{ee}| \pm \phi$, so that the sign associated with the mass ordering appears only in front of ϕ . If and only if this sign is determined, is the mass ordering determined in ν_e disappearance experiments.

There are three things worth noting about writing the exact ν_e survival probability as in eqn. 2, with Ω given by eqn. 3:

- The effective atmospheric Δm^2 associated with θ_{13} oscillation is a simple combination of the fundamental parameters, see eqn. 4 above or in ref. [8] as they are identical,

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta m_{ee}^2 &= \cos^2 \theta_{12} \Delta m_{31}^2 + \sin^2 \theta_{12} \Delta m_{32}^2 \\ &= \Delta m_{31}^2 - \sin^2 \theta_{12} \Delta m_{21}^2 = \Delta m_{32}^2 + \cos^2 \theta_{12} \Delta m_{21}^2 \\ &= m_3^2 - (\cos^2 \theta_{12} m_1^2 + \sin^2 \theta_{12} m_2^2). \end{aligned}$$

Thus Δm_{ee}^2 is simple the “ ν_e average of Δm_{31}^2 and Δm_{32}^2 ,” since the ν_e ratio of ν_1 to ν_2 is $\cos^2 \theta_{12}$ to $\sin^2 \theta_{12}$, and determines the L/E scale associated with the θ_{13} oscillations.

- The modulation of the amplitude associated with the θ_{13} oscillation, is manifest in the square root multiplying the $\cos \Omega$ oscillating term, where

$$\sqrt{1 - \sin^2 2\theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{21}} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{at } \Delta_{21} = n\pi \\ \cos 2\theta_{12} \approx 0.4 & \text{at } \Delta_{21} = (2n+1)\pi/2 \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

³ Appendix A of [9] contains a discussion of an effective Δm^2 as a function of L/E for arbitrary L/E . At $L/E = 0$ this definition is identical to Δm_{ee}^2 .

for $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$. Thus, at solar oscillation minima, when $\Delta_{21} = 0, \pi, 2\pi, \dots$, the oscillation amplitude is just $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$, whereas at solar oscillation maxima, when $\Delta_{21} = \pi/2, 3\pi/2, \dots$, the oscillation amplitude is $\cos 2\theta_{12} \sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ i.e. reduced by approximately 60%.

- The phase, ϕ , causes an advancement (retardation) of the θ_{13} oscillation for the normal (inverted) mass ordering of the neutrino mass eigenstates. ϕ is a “rounded” staircase function⁴, which is zero and has zero first and second derivatives at $L/E = 0$ ($\Delta_{21} = 0$), but then between $L/E \sim 10 - 20$ km/MeV ($\Delta_{21} \sim \frac{\pi}{3} - \frac{2\pi}{3}$) rapidly jumps by $2\pi \sin^2 \theta_{12}$, and this pattern is repeated for every increase of $L/E \sim 30$ km/MeV (Δ_{21} by π), i.e.

$$\phi(\Delta_{21} \pm \pi) = \phi(\Delta_{21}) \pm 2\pi \sin^2 \theta_{12}, \quad (7)$$

see Fig. 2. Also shown on the same plot is $2|\Delta_{ee}|$ divided by 80. This number 80 was chosen so that $2|\Delta_{ee}|$ fits on the same plot and to demonstrate that $2|\Delta_{ee}| \geq 80 \phi$ so that the shift in phase caused by ϕ is never bigger than a 1.25% effect. Also for $L/E < 5$ km/MeV, the shift in phase is much smaller than this, see next section.

A. Short Baseline Experiments ($0 < L/E < 1$ km/MeV)

For reactor experiments with baselines less than 2 km, the exact expression eqn. 2 contains elements which require measurement uncertainties on the oscillation probability to better than one part in 10^4 . This is way beyond the capability of the current or envisaged experiments. This occurs because for experiments at these baselines, the following conditions on the kinematic phases are satisfied,

$$0 < |\Delta_{31}| \approx |\Delta_{32}| < \pi \quad \Rightarrow \quad 0 < \Delta_{21} < 0.1, \quad (8)$$

and some elements of eqn. 2 dependent on higher powers of Δ_{21} . These elements are

- The modulation of the θ_{13} oscillation amplitude which when expanded in powers of

⁴ In the limit, $\sin^2 \theta_{12} \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}$, one recovers the well known result that this rounded staircase function becomes a true staircase or step function.

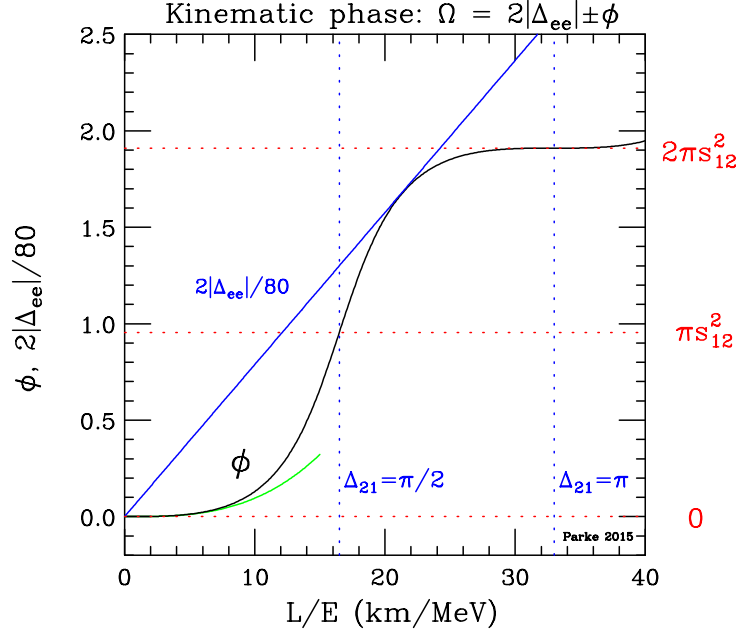


FIG. 2: The L/E dependence of the two components that make up the kinematic phase $\Omega = 2|\Delta_{ee}| \pm \phi$ associated with the θ_{13} oscillation, eqn. 2. ϕ is the black staircase function which increases by $2\pi \sin^2 \theta_{12}$ for every increase in Δ_{21} by π , see eqn. 7. The blue straight line is $2|\Delta_{ee}|/80$, which is always greater than or equal to ϕ . The green curve is the Δ_{21}^3 approximation to ϕ given in eqn. 11, which is an excellent approximation for $L/E < 8$ km/MeV.

Δ_{21} is given by

$$\sqrt{1 - \sin^2 2\theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{21}} = 1 - 2 \sin^2 \theta_{12} \cos^2 \theta_{12} \Delta_{21}^2 + \mathcal{O}(\Delta_{21}^4) \quad (9)$$

$$= 1 + \mathcal{O}(< 10^{-3}) \quad (10)$$

Remember, this amplitude modulation factor is multiplied by $\frac{1}{2} \sin^2 2\theta_{13} \sim 0.05$. Reducing the effect of the amplitude modulation to less than one part in 10^4 .

- The advancement or retardation of the kinematic phase, Ω , caused by ϕ whose sign depends on the mass ordering. For small values of Δ_{21} the advancing/retarding phase can be written as

$$\phi = \frac{1}{3} \cos 2\theta_{12} \sin^2 2\theta_{12} \Delta_{21}^3 + \mathcal{O}(\Delta_{21}^5) \quad (11)$$

then using this approximation in the kinematic phase Ω , we have

$$\begin{aligned}
\cos(2|\Delta_{ee}| \pm \phi) &= \cos(2|\Delta_{ee}|) \cos \phi \mp \sin(2|\Delta_{ee}|) \sin \phi \\
&= \cos(2|\Delta_{ee}|) \mp \frac{1}{3} \cos 2\theta_{12} \sin^2 2\theta_{12} \Delta_{21}^3 \sin(2|\Delta_{ee}|) + \mathcal{O}(\Delta_{21}^5) \\
&= \cos(2|\Delta_{ee}|) + \mathcal{O}(< 10^{-4})
\end{aligned} \tag{12}$$

Again remember, that we have a further reduction by $\frac{1}{2} \sin^2 2\theta_{13} \sim 0.05$. Making the phase advancement or retardation significantly smaller than even the amplitude modulation for these experiments.

Using this information in the ν_e survival probability, we can replace eqn. 2 by

$$P_{\text{short}}(\bar{\nu}_e \rightarrow \bar{\nu}_e) = 1 - \cos^4 \theta_{13} \sin^2 2\theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{21} - \sin^2 2\theta_{13} \sin^2 |\Delta_{ee}|. \tag{13}$$

which is accurate to better than one part in 10^{-4} . In Fig. 3 the fractional difference between eqn. 2 and 13 is shown for an experiment with a baseline of 1.6 km. Since the measurement uncertainty on the ν_e survival probability is much greater ($> 0.01\%$) than the difference between the exact, eqn. 2, and the approximate, eqn. 13, survival probabilities, use of either will result in the same measured values of the parameters $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ and $|\Delta m_{ee}^2|$ i.e. the measurement uncertainties will dominate.

If new, extremely precise, short baseline experiments ever need a more accurate survival probability, one could easily add the first correction of the amplitude modulation, giving

$$\begin{aligned}
P_{\text{xshort}}(\bar{\nu}_e \rightarrow \bar{\nu}_e) &= 1 - \cos^4 \theta_{13} \sin^2 2\theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{21} \\
&\quad - \sin^2 2\theta_{13} [\sin^2 |\Delta_{ee}| + \sin^2 \theta_{12} \cos^2 \theta_{12} \Delta_{21}^2 \cos(2|\Delta_{ee}|)]
\end{aligned} \tag{14}$$

and this would improve the accuracy of the approximation to better than one part in 10^5 .

An alternative way to derive these approximate survival probability, eqn 13 & 14, is given in the Appendix V.

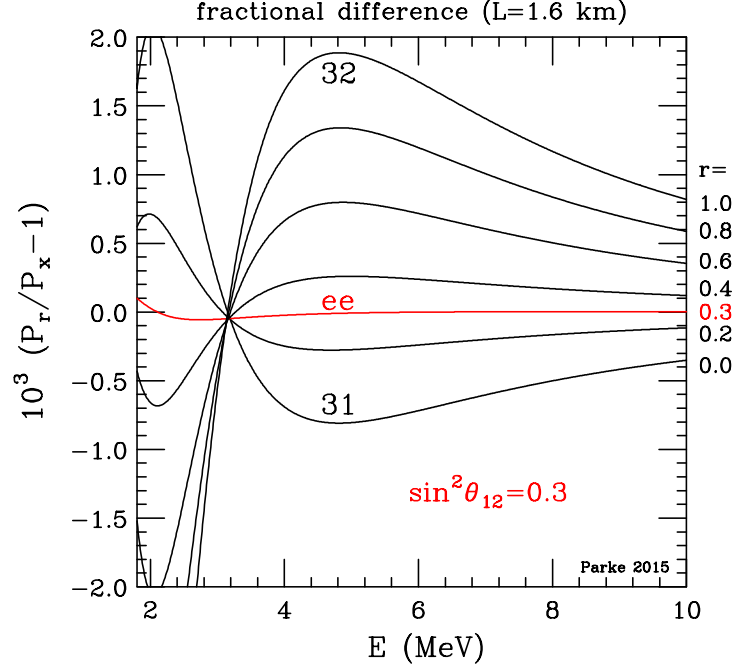


FIG. 3: The fractional difference between the exact survival probability, eqn. 1, and a sequence of approximate survival probabilities, where $\cos^2 \theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{31} + \sin^2 \theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{32}$ is replaced with $\sin^2(\Delta m_{rr}^2 L/4E)$ with $\Delta m_{rr}^2 \equiv (1-r)\Delta m_{31}^2 + r\Delta m_{32}^2$. Clearly, $r = \sin^2 \theta_{12}$ minimizes the absolute value of the fractional difference between the exact and approximate survival probabilities. Thus, the approximation of replacing $\cos^2 \theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{31} + \sin^2 \theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{32}$ with $\sin^2 \Delta_{ee}$ gives an approximate survival probability that is better than one part in 10^4 over the L/E range of the Daya Bay, RENO and Double Chooz experiments.

III. OTHER POSSIBLE DEFINITIONS OF AN EFFECTIVE Δm^2

A. A New Definition of the Effective Δm^2

Another possible way to define an effective Δm^2 , here I will use the symbol Δm_{XX}^2 , is as follows

$$\Delta m_{XX}^2 \equiv \sqrt{\cos^2 \theta_{12} (\Delta m_{31}^2)^2 + \sin^2 \theta_{12} (\Delta m_{32}^2)^2}. \quad (15)$$

Clearly this definition is independent of L/E and it guarantees that, in the limit $L/E \rightarrow 0$, that

$$\sin^2 \Delta_{XX} = \cos^2 \theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{31} + \sin^2 \theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{32}. \quad (16)$$

One can then show, that

$$|\Delta m_{XX}^2| = |\Delta m_{ee}^2| \left(1 + \mathcal{O} \left[\left(\frac{\Delta m_{21}^2}{\Delta m_{ee}^2} \right)^2 \right] \right) \quad (17)$$

So $|\Delta m_{XX}^2|$ is essentially equal to $|\Delta m_{ee}^2|$ up to correction on the order of 10^4 , including the effects of the solar mixing angle⁵.

A variant of this definition of an effective Δm^2 (here I will use the subscripts “ xx ”), is defined in terms of the position of the first extremum of $(\cos^2 \theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{31} + \sin^2 \theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{32})$ in L/E . If this extremum occurs at $(L/E)|_1$, then define

$$\Delta m_{xx}^2 \equiv \frac{2\pi}{(L/E)|_1}, \quad (18)$$

so that, at this extremum, $\frac{\Delta m_{xx}^2 L}{4E} = \frac{\pi}{2}$. With this definition it is again easy to show that,

$$|\Delta m_{xx}^2| = |\Delta m_{ee}^2| \left(1 + \mathcal{O} \left[\left(\frac{\Delta m_{21}^2}{\Delta m_{ee}^2} \right)^2 \right] \right). \quad (19)$$

Again, essentially equal to Δm_{ee}^2 .

In both $|\Delta m_{XX}^2|$ and $|\Delta m_{xx}^2|$, the corrections of order $\left(\frac{\Delta m_{21}^2}{\Delta m_{ee}^2} \right)^2$, come from the amplitude modulation of the θ_{13} oscillation and the coefficients are $\frac{1}{2} \sin^2 \theta_{12} \cos^2 \theta_{12}$ and $\sin^2 \theta_{12} \cos^2 \theta_{12}$ respectively. Note, these corrections are mass ordering independent.

B. Daya Bay’s Original Definition of the Effective Δm^2

In ref. [4] & [5], the Daya Bay experiment used the following definition for an effective Δm^2 , here I will use the symbol Δm_{YY}^2 ,

$$\sin^2 \Delta_{YY} \equiv \cos^2 \theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{31} + \sin^2 \theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{32}. \quad (20)$$

which implies that

$$\Delta m_{YY}^2 \equiv \left(\frac{4E}{L} \right) \arcsin \left[\sqrt{(\cos^2 \theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{31} + \sin^2 \theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{32})} \right]. \quad (21)$$

For $L/E < 0.3$ km/MeV, so that $\sin^2 \Delta_{3i} = \Delta_{3i}^2$ is a good approximation, Δm_{YY}^2 is approximately independent of L/E . However, for larger values of L/E , Δm_{YY}^2 is L/E dependent,

⁵ The following, useful identity is easy to prove by writing $\Delta m_{21}^2 = \Delta m_{31}^2 - \Delta m_{32}^2$:

$$(\cos^2 \theta_{12} \Delta m_{31}^2 + \sin^2 \theta_{12} \Delta m_{32}^2)^2 = [\cos^2 \theta_{12} (\Delta m_{31}^2)^2 + \sin^2 \theta_{12} (\Delta m_{32}^2)^2] - \cos^2 \theta_{12} \sin^2 \theta_{12} (\Delta m_{21}^2)^2.$$

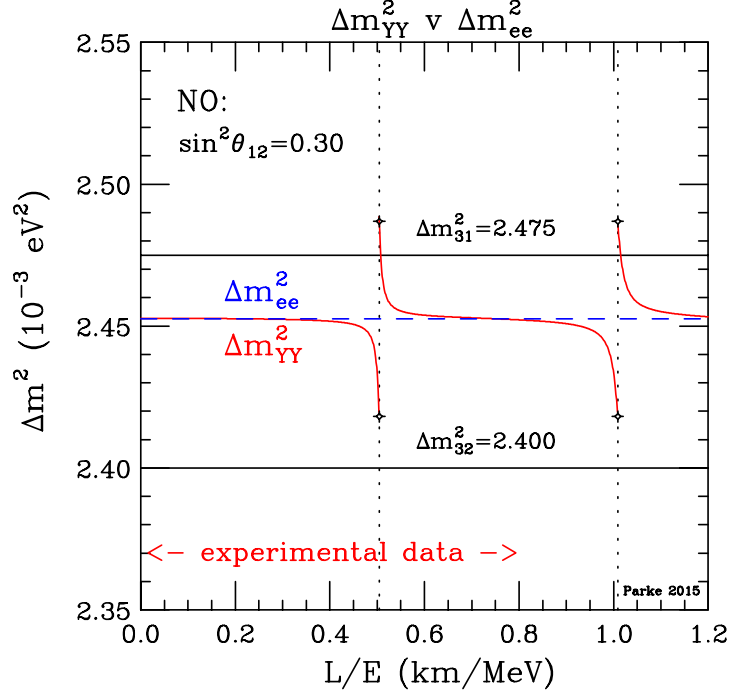


FIG. 4: Daya Bay's original definition, see [4] and [5], for an effective Δm^2 , Δm_{YY}^2 , is given by the solid red line. Notice the sizeable L/E dependence near oscillation minimum and maximum (vertical black dotted lines). At all oscillation extrema, this definition is discontinuous and the size of the discontinuity is $\sin 2\theta_{12}\Delta m_{21}^2 \sim 3\%$. The first discontinuity occurs in the middle of the experimental data of the Daya Bay, RENO and Double Chooz experiments. The L/E independent lines: $\Delta m_{ee}^2 \equiv \cos^2 \theta_{12}\Delta m_{31}^2 + \sin^2 \theta_{12}\Delta m_{32}^2$ is the blue dashed, Δm_{31}^2 and Δm_{32}^2 are the labelled black lines. This figure is for normal mass ordering with $\sin^2 \theta_{12} = 0.30$ and $\Delta m_{ee}^2 = 2.453 \times 10^{-3} \text{ eV}^2$.

exactly in the L/E region, $0.3 < L/E < 0.7 \text{ km/MeV}$, where the bulk of the experimental data from the far detectors of the Daya Bay experiment is obtained. In the center of this L/E region, $L/E \approx 0.5 \text{ km/MeV}$, is the position of the oscillation minimum.

Furthermore, the definition given by Eqn. 20, is discontinuous at oscillation minimum (OM). This occurs because as you increase L/E , the L.H.S. eqn. 20 can go to 1, whereas the R.H.S. never reaches 1. So to satisfy Eqn. 20, as you increase L/E , your effective Δm^2 must be discontinuous at OM and the size of this discontinuity is given by⁶

$$\delta \Delta m_{EE}^2|_{OM} = \sin 2\theta_{12}\Delta m_{21}^2 \quad (22)$$

⁶ The following identity is useful to understand this point, $\sin^2(\frac{\pi}{2} \pm \epsilon) \approx 1 - \epsilon^2$ where here $\epsilon = s_{12}c_{12}\Delta_{21}$. Similarly at oscillation maximum, $\sin^2(\pi \pm \epsilon) \approx \epsilon^2$.

which is of order of 3%. In Fig. 4, the various Δm^2 's are plotted as a function of L/E .

The relationship between Daya Bay's Δm_{YY}^2 and that of the previous section is as follows

$$\Delta m_{YY}^2|_{L/E \rightarrow 0} = \Delta m_{ee}^2 \sqrt{\left(1 + \sin^2 \theta_{12} \cos^2 \theta_{12} \left(\frac{\Delta m_{21}^2}{\Delta m_{ee}^2}\right)^2\right)}. \quad (23)$$

Therefore they are identical up to corrections of $\mathcal{O}(10^{-4})$ as $L/E \rightarrow 0$.

Given that Δm_{YY}^2 is L/E dependent one should take the average of Δm_{YY}^2 over the L/E range of the experiment

$$\langle \Delta m_{YY}^2 \rangle = \frac{\int_{(L/E)_{min}}^{(L/E)_{max}} d(L/E) \Delta m_{YY}^2}{[(L/E)_{max} - (L/E)_{min}]} . \quad (24)$$

For the current experiments this range is from $[0, 0.8]$ km/MeV and then from Fig. 4 it is clear that

$$\langle \Delta m_{YY}^2 \rangle \approx \Delta m_{ee}^2, \quad (25)$$

if the discontinuity at OM is averaged over in a symmetric way. In practice, of course, one needs to weight the average over the L/E range by the experimental L/E sensitivity. This is something that can only be performed by the experiment. This was not performed in ref. [4] or [5].

C. Daya Bay's New Definition of the Effective Δm^2

After the issue with Δm_{YY}^2 was pointed out to the Daya Bay collaboration [11], the Daya Bay collaboration defined a new effective Δm^2 in the supplemental material of ref. [6]. Here I will use the symbol Δm_{ZZ}^2 for this new definition which is defined in terms of the kinematic phase, Ω , given eqn. 3, as

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta m_{ZZ}^2 &\equiv \frac{2E}{L} \Omega, \\ &= |\Delta m_{ee}^2| \pm \frac{2E}{L} \phi. \end{aligned} \quad (26)$$

Unfortunately, since ϕ is not a linear function in L/E , Δm_{ZZ}^2 is also L/E dependent. In contrast remember, from eqn. 4, $\Delta m_{ee}^2 \equiv \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial (L/2E)} \Big|_{\frac{L}{E} \rightarrow 0}$.

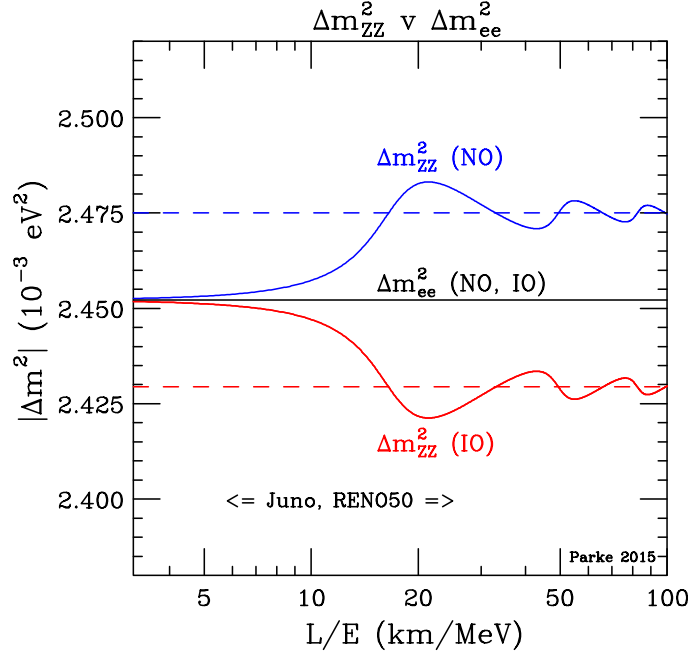


FIG. 5: Daya Bay’s new definition, see [6], of an effective Δm^2 , Δm_{ZZ}^2 , for $\bar{\nu}_e$ disappearance compared $\Delta m_{ee}^2 \equiv \cos^2 \theta_{12} \Delta m_{31}^2 + \sin^2 \theta_{12} \Delta m_{32}^2$. The L/E range appropriate for JUNO and RENO-50 is 6 to 25 km/MeV, exactly the range in which Δm_{ZZ}^2 changes by $\pm 1\%$. Yet, the expected accuracy of these two experiments is better than 0.5%. The sign of the variation of Δm_{ZZ}^2 is mass ordering dependent. The blue and red dashed lines are Δm_{31}^2 for NO and IO respectively.

For short baseline experiments, such as Daya Bay, RENO and Double Chooz, this dependence is small, and can be calculated analytically from eqn. (11),

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta m_{ZZ}^2 &= |\Delta m_{ee}^2| \left[1 \pm \frac{1}{6} \cos 2\theta_{12} \sin^2 2\theta_{12} \left(\frac{\Delta m_{21}^2}{\Delta m_{ee}^2} \right) \Delta_{21}^2 + \mathcal{O} \left(\left(\frac{\Delta m_{21}^2}{\Delta m_{ee}^2} \right) \Delta_{21}^4 \right) \right] \\ &\approx |\Delta m_{ee}^2| \left[1 \pm 6 \times 10^{-6} \left(\frac{L/E}{0.5 \text{ km/MeV}} \right)^2 \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (27)$$

Given the current and expected future accuracy of the current short baseline experiments, the L/E dependence in Δm_{ZZ}^2 can be ignored.

However for future experiments such as JUNO, [12], and RENO-50, [13], the L/E dependence of Δm_{ZZ}^2 is significant, see Fig. 5. These experiments explore an L/E range from 6 to 25 km/MeV. In this range, Δm_{ZZ}^2 changes by $\sim 1\%$ whereas the expected accuracy of the measurement is better than 0.5%, see [12]. So this definition of Δm_{ZZ}^2 is not appropriate for these experiments unless the experiments want to do the L/E averaging as discussed in

the previous section.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

Having a single, L/E independent effective Δm^2 which can be used for reactor experiments of any L/E is highly desirable. Δm_{ee}^2 , defined in eqn. 4, is the best effective Δm^2 for ν_e disappearance in the literature for the following reasons:

- Is independent of L/E for all values of L/E .
- Is a simple combination of fundamental parameters:

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta m_{ee}^2 &\equiv \cos^2 \theta_{12} \Delta m_{31}^2 + \sin^2 \theta_{12} \Delta m_{32}^2 \\ &= \Delta m_{31}^2 - \sin^2 \theta_{12} \Delta m_{21}^2 = \Delta m_{32}^2 + \cos^2 \theta_{12} \Delta m_{21}^2. \\ &= m_3^2 - (\cos^2 \theta_{12} m_1^2 + \sin^2 \theta_{12} m_2^2).\end{aligned}$$

- Has a direct, simple, physical interpretation:

Δm_{ee}^2 is “the ν_e weighted average of Δm_{31}^2 and Δm_{32}^2 ,” since the ratio of the ν_e fraction in $\nu_1 : \nu_2$ is $\cos^2 \theta_{12} : \sin^2 \theta_{12}$.

- Can be used in the future medium baseline reactor experiments, $L/E > 6$ and < 25 km/MeV, using the exact oscillation probability,

$$\begin{aligned}P(\bar{\nu}_e \rightarrow \bar{\nu}_e) &= 1 - \cos^4 \theta_{13} \sin^2 2\theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{21} \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{2} \sin^2 2\theta_{13} \left(1 - \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 2\theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{21}} \cos(2|\Delta_{ee}| \pm \phi) \right),\end{aligned}$$

where $\phi \equiv \arctan(\cos 2\theta_{12} \tan \Delta_{21}) - \Delta_{21} \cos 2\theta_{12}$. This probability can be used to determine solar parameters $\sin^2 \theta_{12}$ and Δm_{21}^2 as well as $|\Delta m_{ee}^2|$ with unprecedented precision and may be able to determine the atmospheric mass ordering, if the sign in front of ϕ can be determined at high enough confidence level.

- Can be used in the current short baseline reactor experiments, $L/E < 1$ km/MeV, using the approximate oscillation probability,

$$P(\bar{\nu}_e \rightarrow \bar{\nu}_e) \approx 1 - \cos^4 \theta_{13} \sin^2 2\theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{21} - \sin^2 2\theta_{13} \sin^2 \Delta_{ee}.$$

This is trivially obtained from the exact expression, eqn. 2, by setting both the amplitude modulation to one and the phase advancement or retardation to zero,

$$\sqrt{1 - \sin^2 2\theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{21}} \rightarrow 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \phi \rightarrow 0$$

as these are higher order effects. This approximates the exact oscillation probability to better than 1 part in 10^4 and can be improved in a systematic way, see Eqn. 29. This probability, using the current experimental data, allows for an accurate determination of mixing angle θ_{13} and the atmospheric mass splitting $|\Delta m_{ee}^2|$, independent of the atmospheric mass ordering, and only very weakly dependent on our current knowledge of the solar parameters, through the solar term. From a measured value of $|\Delta m_{ee}^2|$, using short baseline reactor experiments, it is simple to calculate Δm_{31}^2 for both mass orderings. However, the uncertainties on Δm_{31}^2 will be more dependent on solar parameters, measured by other experiments, than $|\Delta m_{ee}^2|$.

Furthermore, Δm_{ee}^2 , defined by eqn. 4, naturally appears as the renormalized atmospheric Δm^2 in neutrino propagation in matter, see [14], as using this renormalized Δm^2 significantly reduces the complexity of the oscillation probabilities.

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V. APPENDIX A

In this Appendix, an alternative derivation of why $\sin^2 \Delta_{ee}$ is the most accurate approximation for $\cos^2 \theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{31} + \sin^2 \theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{32}$ is given. Starting with the following linear

combination of Δm_{31}^2 and Δm_{32}^2 , given by

$$\Delta_{rr} \equiv (1-r)\Delta_{31} + r\Delta_{32} \quad \text{then} \quad \Delta_{31} = \Delta_{rr} + r\Delta_{21}, \quad \Delta_{32} = \Delta_{rr} - (1-r)\Delta_{21},$$

since $\Delta_{21} = \Delta_{31} - \Delta_{32}$ and r is a number between $[0,1]$. The relevant range of kinematic phases is $0 \leq |\Delta_{31}| \sim |\Delta_{32}| < \pi$ and $0 \leq \Delta_{21} < \pi/30 \approx 0.1$. So it is a simple exercise to perform a Taylor series expansion about Δ_{rr} using expansion parameter Δ_{21} , and obtain (using $c_{12}^2 \equiv \cos^2 \theta_{12}$ and $s_{12}^2 \equiv \sin^2 \theta_{12}$)

$$\begin{aligned} c_{12}^2 \sin^2 \Delta_{31} + s_{12}^2 \sin^2 \Delta_{32} &= \sin^2 \Delta_{rr} \\ &+ [c_{12}^2 r - s_{12}^2 (1-r)] \Delta_{21} \sin(2\Delta_{rr}) \\ &+ [c_{12}^2 r^2 + s_{12}^2 (1-r)^2] \Delta_{21}^2 \cos(2\Delta_{rr}) \\ &- \frac{2}{3} [c_{12}^2 r^3 - s_{12}^2 (1-r)^3] \Delta_{21}^3 \sin(2\Delta_{rr}) \\ &- \frac{1}{3} [c_{12}^2 r^4 + s_{12}^2 (1-r)^4] \Delta_{21}^4 \cos(2\Delta_{rr}) \\ &+ \mathcal{O}(\Delta_{21}^5). \end{aligned} \tag{28}$$

The choice of $r = s_{12}^2$, making $\Delta_{rr} = \Delta_{ee}$, does two great things for this Taylor series expansion:

1. the coefficient of Δ_{21} vanishes, since $[c_{12}^2 r - s_{12}^2 (1-r)] = 0$,
2. and, the coefficient of Δ_{21}^2 is a minimized, since

$$\left. \frac{\partial}{\partial r} [c_{12}^2 r^2 + s_{12}^2 (1-r)^2] \right|_{r=s_{12}^2} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial^2}{\partial^2 r} [c_{12}^2 r^2 + s_{12}^2 (1-r)^2] > 0.$$

No other value of r satisfies either of these requirements. Thus, using $r = s_{12}^2$ makes $\sin^2 \Delta_{ee}$ the best possible approximation to $c_{12}^2 \sin^2 \Delta_{31} + s_{12}^2 \sin^2 \Delta_{32}$ for a constant Δm^2 and the corrections are tiny, of $\mathcal{O}(10^{-3})$ for $L/E < 1 \text{ km/MeV}$.

Using this expansion the ν_e survival probability can be written as

$$\begin{aligned}
P_{\text{xshort}}(\bar{\nu}_e \rightarrow \bar{\nu}_e) = & 1 - \cos^4 \theta_{13} \sin^2 2\theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{21} \\
& - \sin^2 2\theta_{13} \left[\sin^2 |\Delta_{ee}| \right. \\
& \quad + \sin^2 \theta_{12} \cos^2 \theta_{12} \Delta_{21}^2 \cos(2|\Delta_{ee}|)] \\
& \mp \frac{1}{6} \cos 2\theta_{12} \sin^2 2\theta_{12} \Delta_{21}^3 \sin(2|\Delta_{ee}|) \\
& - \frac{1}{48} \sin^2 2\theta_{12} [4 - 3 \sin^2 2\theta_{12}] \Delta_{21}^4 \cos(2|\Delta_{ee}|) \\
& \left. + \mathcal{O}(\Delta_{21}^5) \right]. \tag{29}
\end{aligned}$$

VI. APPENDIX B

The simplest way to show that

$$\cos^2 \theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{31} + \sin^2 \theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{32} = \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 2\theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{21}} \cos \Omega \right) \tag{30}$$

with

$$\Omega = 2\Delta_{ee} + \phi \tag{31}$$

$$\text{where } \Delta m_{ee}^2 \equiv \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial (L/2E)} \Big|_{\frac{L}{E} \rightarrow 0} = \cos^2 \theta_{12} \Delta m_{31}^2 + \sin^2 \theta_{12} \Delta m_{32}^2 \tag{32}$$

$$\text{and } \phi \equiv \Omega - 2\Delta_{ee} = \arctan(\cos 2\theta_{12} \tan \Delta_{21}) - \Delta_{21} \cos 2\theta_{12}, \tag{33}$$

is to write

$$c_{12}^2 \sin^2 \Delta_{31} + s_{12}^2 \sin^2 \Delta_{32} = \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - (c_{12}^2 \cos 2\Delta_{31} + s_{12}^2 \cos 2\Delta_{32}) \right), \tag{34}$$

using $c_{12}^2 \equiv \cos^2 \theta_{12}$ and $s_{12}^2 \equiv \sin^2 \theta_{12}$.

Then, if we rewrite $2\Delta_{31}$ and $2\Delta_{32}$ in terms of $(\Delta_{31} + \Delta_{32})$ and Δ_{21} , we have

$$\begin{aligned}
c_{12}^2 \cos 2\Delta_{31} + s_{12}^2 \cos 2\Delta_{32} &= c_{12}^2 \cos(\Delta_{31} + \Delta_{32} + \Delta_{21}) + s_{12}^2 \cos(\Delta_{31} + \Delta_{32} - \Delta_{21}) \\
&= \cos(\Delta_{31} + \Delta_{32}) \cos \Delta_{21} - \sin(\Delta_{31} + \Delta_{32}) \cos 2\theta_{12} \sin \Delta_{21}.
\end{aligned}$$

Since

$$\cos^2 \Delta_{21} + \cos^2 2\theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{21} = 1 - \sin^2 2\theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{21}$$

we can then write

$$c_{12}^2 \cos 2\Delta_{31} + s_{12}^2 \cos 2\Delta_{32} = \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 2\theta_{12} \sin^2 \Delta_{21}} \cos \Omega, \quad (35)$$

where

$$\Omega = \Delta_{31} + \Delta_{32} + \arctan(\cos 2\theta_{12} \tan \Delta_{21}).$$

Applying the prescription given in Sec. II to separate Ω into an effective 2Δ and a phase, ϕ , we find

$$\begin{aligned} \left. \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial L/2E} \right|_{\frac{L}{E} \rightarrow 0} &= \cos^2 \theta_{12} \Delta m_{31}^2 + \sin^2 \theta_{12} \Delta m_{32}^2 = \Delta m_{ee}^2 \\ \text{and } \phi &= \Omega - 2\Delta_{ee} = \arctan(\cos 2\theta_{12} \tan \Delta_{21}) - \Delta_{21} \cos 2\theta_{12} \end{aligned}$$

thus

$$\Omega = 2\Delta_{ee} + (\arctan(\cos 2\theta_{12} \tan \Delta_{21}) - \Delta_{21} \cos 2\theta_{12}), \quad (36)$$

qed.

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