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How two neutrino superbeam experiments do better than one

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Abstract

We examine the use of two superbeam neutrino oscillation experiments with baselines $\lesssim 1000$ km to resolve parameter degeneracies inherent in the three-neutrino analysis of such experiments. We find that with appropriate choices of neutrino energies and baselines two experiments with different baselines can provide a much better determination of the neutrino mass ordering than a single experiment alone. Two baselines are especially beneficial when the mass scale for solar neutrino oscillations δm_{sol}^2 is $\gtrsim 5 \times 10^{-5}$ eV². We also examine CP violation sensitivity and the resolution of other parameter degeneracies. We find that the combined data of superbeam experiments with baselines of 295 and 900 km can provide sensitivity to both the neutrino mass ordering and CP violation for $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ down to 0.03 for $|\delta m_{\text{atm}}^2| \simeq 3 \times 10^{-3}$ eV². It would be advantageous to have a 10% determination of $|\delta m_{\text{atm}}^2|$ before the beam energies and baselines are finalized, although if $|\delta m_{\text{atm}}^2|$ is not that well known, the neutrino energies and baselines can be chosen to give fairly good sensitivity for a range of $|\delta m_{\text{atm}}^2|$.

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1. Introduction

Atmospheric neutrino data from Super-Kamiokande provides strong evidence that ν_{μ} 's created in the atmosphere oscillate to ν_{τ} with mass-squared difference $|\delta m_{\text{atm}}^2| \sim 3 \times 10^{-3}$ eV² and almost maximal amplitude [1]. Furthermore, the recent solar neutrino data from the Sudbury Neutrino Observatory (SNO) establishes that electron neutrinos change flavor as they travel from the Sun to the Earth: the neutral-current measurement is consistent with the solar neutrino flux predicted in the Standard Solar Model [2],

while the charged-current measurement shows a depletion of the electron neutrino component relative to the total flux [3]. Global fits to solar neutrino data give a strong preference for the Large Mixing Angle (LMA) solution to the solar neutrino puzzle, with $\delta m_{\text{sol}}^2 \sim 5 \times 10^{-5}$ eV² and amplitude close to 0.8 [3,4].

The combined atmospheric and solar data may be explained by oscillations of three neutrinos, that are described by two mass-squared differences, three mixing angles and a CP violating phase. The atmospheric and solar data roughly determine δm_{atm}^2 , δm_{sol}^2 and the corresponding mixing angles. The LMA solar solution will be tested decisively (and δm_{sol}^2 measured accurately) by the KamLAND reactor neutrino experiment [5,6]. More precise measurements of the other

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oscillation parameters may be performed in long-baseline neutrino experiments. The low energy beam at MINOS [7] plus experiments with ICARUS [8] and OPERA [9] will allow an accurate determination of the atmospheric neutrino parameters and may provide the first evidence for oscillations of $\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_e$ at the atmospheric mass scale [10]. It will take a new generation of long-baseline experiments to further probe $\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_e$ appearance and to measure the leptonic CP phase. Matter effects are the only means to determine $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{\text{atm}}^2)$; once $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{\text{atm}}^2)$ is known, the level of intrinsic CP violation may be measured. Matter effects and intrinsic CP violation both vanish in the limit that the mixing angle responsible for $\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_e$ oscillations of atmospheric neutrinos is zero.

It is now well known that there are three two-fold parameter degeneracies that can occur in the measurement of the oscillation amplitude for $\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_e$ appearance, the ordering of the neutrino masses, and the CP phase [11]. With only one ν and one $\bar{\nu}$ measurement, these degeneracies can lead to eight possible solutions for the oscillation parameters; in most cases, CP violating (CPV) and CP conserving (CPC) solutions can equally explain the same data. Studies have been done on how a superbeam [11–16], neutrino factory [16–18], superbeam plus neutrino factory [19], or two superbeams with one at a very long baseline [20,21] could be used to resolve one or more of these ambiguities.

In this Letter we show that by combining the results of two superbeam experiments with different medium baselines, $\lesssim 1000$ km, the ambiguity associated with the sign of δm_{atm}^2 can be resolved, even when it cannot be resolved by the two experiments taken separately. Furthermore, the ability to determine $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{\text{atm}}^2)$ from the combined data is found to not be greatly sensitive to the size of δm_{sol}^2 , unlike the situation where data from only a single baseline is used. If both experiments are at or near the peak of the oscillation, a good compromise is obtained between the sensitivities for resolving $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{\text{atm}}^2)$ and for establishing the existence of CP violation. If $|\delta m_{\text{atm}}^2|$ is not known accurately, the neutrino energies and baselines can be chosen to give fairly good sensitivity to the sign of δm_{atm}^2 and to CP violation for a range of $|\delta m_{\text{atm}}^2|$.

The organization of our Letter is as follows. In Section 2 we discuss the parameter degeneracies that can occur in the analysis of long-baseline oscillation data.

In Section 3 we analyze how two long-baseline superbeam experiments can break degeneracies, determine the neutrino parameters, and establish the existence of CP violation in the neutrino sector, if it is present. A summary is presented in Section 4.

2. Parameter degeneracies

We work in the three-neutrino scenario using the parametrization for the neutrino mixing matrix of Ref. [11]. If we assume that ν_3 is the neutrino eigenstate that is separated from the other two, then $\delta m_{31}^2 = \delta m_{\text{atm}}^2$ and the sign of δm_{31}^2 can be either positive or negative, corresponding to the mass of ν_3 being either larger or smaller, respectively, than the other two masses. The solar oscillations are regulated by $\delta m_{21}^2 = \delta m_{\text{sol}}^2$, and thus $|\delta m_{21}^2| \ll |\delta m_{31}^2|$. If we accept the likely conclusion that the solar solution is LMA [3,4], then $\delta m_{21}^2 > 0$ and we can restrict θ_{12} to the range $[0, \pi/4]$. It is known from reactor neutrino data that θ_{13} is small, with $\sin^2 2\theta_{13} \leq 0.1$ at the 95% C.L. [22]. Thus a set of parameters that unambiguously spans the space is δm_{31}^2 (magnitude and sign), δm_{21}^2 , $\sin^2 2\theta_{12}$, $\sin \theta_{23}$, and $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$; only the θ_{23} angle can be below or above $\pi/4$.

For the oscillation probabilities for $\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_e$ and $\bar{\nu}_\mu \rightarrow \bar{\nu}_e$ we use approximate expressions given in Ref. [11], in which the probabilities are expanded in terms of the small parameters θ_{13} and δm_{21}^2 [23, 24], which reproduces well the exact oscillation probabilities for $E_\nu \gtrsim 0.5$ GeV, $\theta_{13} \lesssim 9^\circ$, and $L \lesssim 4000$ km [11]. In all of our calculations we use the average electron density along the neutrino path, assuming the preliminary reference Earth model [25]. Our calculational methods are described in Ref. [12].

We expect that $|\delta m_{31}^2|$ and $\sin^2 2\theta_{23}$ will be measured to an accuracy of $\simeq 10\%$ at 3σ from $\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_\mu$ survival in long-baseline experiments [7–10], while δm_{21}^2 will be measured to an accuracy of $\simeq 10\%$ at 2σ and $\sin^2 2\theta_{12}$ will be measured to an accuracy of ± 0.1 at 2σ in experiments with reactor neutrinos [6]. The remaining parameters (θ_{13} , the CP phase δ , and the sign of δm_{31}^2) must be determined from long-baseline appearance experiments, principally using the modes $\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_e$ and $\bar{\nu}_\mu \rightarrow \bar{\nu}_e$ with conventional neutrino beams, or $\nu_e \rightarrow \nu_\mu$ and $\bar{\nu}_e \rightarrow \bar{\nu}_\mu$ at neutrino factories.

However, there are three parameter degeneracies that can occur in such an analysis: (i) the (δ, θ_{13}) ambiguity [17], (ii) the $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ ambiguity [13], and (iii) the $(\theta_{23}, \pi/2 - \theta_{23})$ ambiguity [11,26] (see Ref. [11] for a complete discussion of these three parameter degeneracies). In each degeneracy, two different sets of values for δ and θ_{13} can give the same measured rates for both ν and $\bar{\nu}$ appearance and disappearance. For each type of degeneracy the values of θ_{13} for the two equivalent solutions can be quite different, and the two values of δ may have different CP properties, e.g., one can be CP conserving and the other CP violating.

A judicious choice of L and E_ν can reduce the impact of the degeneracies. For example, if L/E_ν is chosen such that $\Delta \equiv |\delta m_{31}^2|L/(4E_\nu) = \pi/2$ (the peak of the oscillation in vacuum), then the $\cos\delta$ terms in the average appearance probabilities vanish, even after matter effects are included [11]. Then since it is $\sin\delta$ that is being measured, the (δ, θ_{13}) ambiguity is reduced to a simple $(\delta, \pi - \delta)$ ambiguity, CPV solutions are no longer mixed with CPC solutions, and θ_{13} is, in principle, determined (for a given $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ and θ_{23}). If L is chosen to be long enough ($\gtrsim 1000$ km), then the predictions for $\delta m_{31}^2 > 0$ and $\delta m_{31}^2 < 0$ no longer overlap if $\theta_{13} \gtrsim$ a few degrees, and the $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ ambiguity is removed; our previous studies indicated that for $\delta m_{21}^2 = 5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ eV}^2$ this happens at $L \gtrsim 1300$ km if $\sin^2 2\theta_{13} > 0.01$ [11] (before experimental uncertainties are considered). However, the persistence of the $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ ambiguity is highly dependent on the size of the solar oscillation mass scale, because large values of δm_{21}^2 cause the predictions for $\delta m_{31}^2 > 0$ and $\delta m_{31}^2 < 0$ to overlap much more severely than when δm_{21}^2 is smaller. Also, existing neutrino baselines are no longer than 735 km. In this Letter we explore the possibility that two experiments with medium baselines ($\lesssim 1000$ km) can determine $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$, even when data from one of the baselines alone cannot. We then address the sensitivity for establishing CP violation.

3. Joint analysis of two superbeam experiments

3.1. Description of the experiments and method

For our analysis we take one baseline to be 295 km, the distance for the proposed experiment from the

Japan Hadron facility (JHF) to the Super-Kamiokande detector at Kamioka. For the differential rates (flux times cross section per kiloton-year vs. neutrino energy) of this experiment we use their 2° off-axis beam with average neutrino energy of 0.7 GeV [27]. For the second experiment we assume an off-axis beam in which the beam axis points at a site 735 km from the source (appropriate for a beamline from NuMI at Fermilab to Soudan, or from CERN to Gran Sasso). For the off-axis beam of the NuMI experiment we use the results presented in Ref. [28], which provides differential rates for 39 different off-axis angles ranging from 0.32° to 1.76° . We calculate the total number of events by integrating the differential event rate times oscillation probability for each experiment, using the energy ranges 0.11–10.0 GeV for the JHF spectra and 0.2–20 GeV for NuMI spectra.

Using the off-axis components of the beam has the advantage of a lower background [15,29,30] due to reduced ν_e contamination and a smaller high-energy tail. Off-axis beams also offer flexibility in the choice of L and E_ν . For example, for a beam nominally aimed at a ground-level site a distance L_0 from the source, the distance to a ground-level detector with off-axis angle θ_{OA} can lie anywhere in the range

$$2R_e \sin(\theta - \theta_{\text{OA}}) \leq L \leq 2R_e \sin(\theta + \theta_{\text{OA}}), \quad (1)$$

where $\sin\theta = L_0/(2R_e)$, and $R_e = 6371$ km is the radius of the Earth. Then for $L_0^2 \ll R_e^2$ the possible range of distances for an off-axis detector at approximately ground level is

$$L_0 - 2R_e\theta_{\text{OA}} \lesssim L \lesssim L_0 + 2R_e\theta_{\text{OA}}. \quad (2)$$

The neutrino energy and neutrino flux Φ_ν decrease with increasing off-axis angle as

$$E_\nu = \frac{0.43E_\pi}{1 + \gamma^2\theta_{\text{OA}}^2}, \quad \Phi_\nu \propto \frac{E_\nu^2}{L^2}, \quad (3)$$

where $\gamma = E_\pi/m_\pi$ is boost factor of the decaying pion. Thus a wide range of L and E_ν can be achieved with a single fixed beam, although the event rate will drop with increasing off-axis angle because the flux decreases and the neutrino cross section is smaller at smaller E_ν (thereby putting a limit on the usable range of L and E_ν).

For the first experiment at $L_1 = 295$ km, we assume that the neutrino spectrum is chosen so that the

$\cos \delta$ terms in the ν and $\bar{\nu}$ oscillation probabilities vanish (after averaging over the neutrino spectrum), using the best existing experimental value for δm_{31}^2 . The JHF 2° off-axis beam [31] satisfies this condition for $\delta m_{31}^2 = 3 \times 10^{-3} \text{ eV}^2$. This spectrum choice reduces the (δ, θ_{13}) ambiguity to a simple $(\delta, \pi - \delta)$ ambiguity, as described in Section 2. For the second experiment we allow L_2 and θ_{OA} to vary within the restrictions of Eq. (2). This flexibility can be fully utilized if a deep underground site is not required; the short duration of the beam operation (an 8.6 μs pulse with a 1.9 s cycle time [32]) may enable a sufficient reduction in the cosmic ray neutrino background. We assume that the proton drivers at the neutrino sources have been upgraded from their initial designs (from 0.8 to 4.0 MW for JHF [31] and from 0.4 to 1.6 MW for FNAL [33]), so that they are both true neutrino superbeams. We assume two years running with neutrinos and six years with antineutrinos at JHF, and two years with neutrinos and five years with antineutrinos at FNAL; these running times give approximately equivalent numbers of charged-current events for neutrinos and antineutrinos at the two facilities, in the absence of oscillations. For detectors, we assume a 22.5 kt detector in the JHF beam (such as the current Super-Kamiokande detector) and a 20 kt detector in the FNAL beam (which was proposed in Ref. [15]). Larger detectors such as Hyper-Kamiokande or UNO would allow shorter beam exposures or higher precision studies. In all of our calculations, we assume $|\delta m_{31}^2| = 3 \times 10^{-3} \text{ eV}^2$, $\theta_{23} = \pi/4$, $\delta m_{21}^2 = 5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ eV}^2$, and $\sin^2 2\theta_{12} = 0.8$, unless noted otherwise.

We first consider the minimum value of $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ for which the signal in the neutrino appearance channel can be seen above background at the 3σ level (the discovery reach), varying over a range of allowed values for θ_{OA} and L_2 in the second experiment. The discovery reach depends on the value of δ and the sign of δm_{31}^2 ; the best (when $\delta m_{31}^2 > 0$) and worst (when $\delta m_{31}^2 < 0$) cases in the ν channel (after varying over δ) are shown in Fig. 1. In the $\bar{\nu}$ channel, the best case occurs for $\delta m_{31}^2 < 0$ and the worst for $\delta m_{31}^2 > 0$. In our calculations we assume a background that is 0.5% of the unoscillated charged-current rate (see Ref. [15]), and that the systematic error is 5% of the background. The statistical uncertainty of the signal plus background events and the assumed systematic uncertainty are added in quadrature. However, we note that our

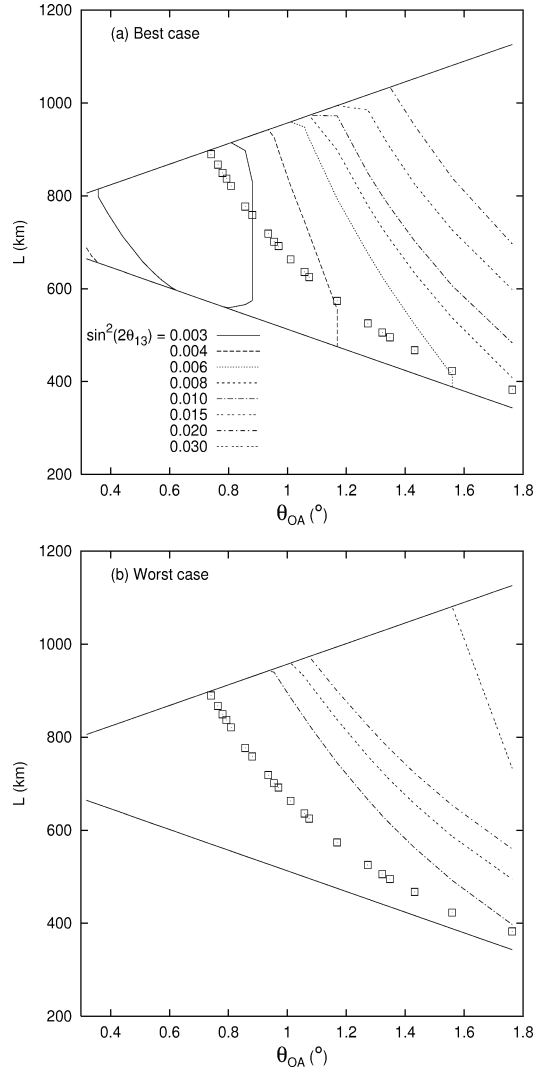


Fig. 1. Contours of (a) best-case (when $\delta m_{31}^2 > 0$), and (b) worst-case (when $\delta m_{31}^2 < 0$), $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ 3σ discovery reach in the $(\theta_{\text{OA}}, L_2)$ plane, for the ν channel at NuMI, where θ_{OA} is the off-axis angle and L_2 is the baseline of the NuMI detector. For the other neutrino parameters we assume $|\delta m_{31}^2| = 3 \times 10^{-3} \text{ eV}^2$, $\theta_{23} = \pi/4$, $\delta m_{21}^2 = 5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ eV}^2$, and $\sin^2 2\theta_{12} = 0.8$. The boxes indicate detector positions for which the $\cos \delta$ terms in the average oscillation probabilities vanish. For the $\bar{\nu}$ channel the results are similar, except that the best case occurs for $\delta m_{31}^2 < 0$ and the worst case for $\delta m_{31}^2 > 0$.

general conclusions are not significantly affected by reasonable changes in these experimental uncertainty assumptions. Detector positions where there are no

Table 1

Number of $\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_\mu$ survival, and $\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_e$ and $\bar{\nu}_\mu \rightarrow \bar{\nu}_e$ signal and background events for the JHF and NuMI experiments, shown for several values of $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ and δ . The other oscillation parameters are chosen to be the standard values described in the text. The NuMI detector is placed at $L = 890$ km and $\theta_{OA} = 0.74^\circ$

$\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$	δ	JHF			NuMI		
		$\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_\mu$ survival	$\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_e$ S/B	$\bar{\nu}_\mu \rightarrow \bar{\nu}_e$ S/B	$\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_\mu$ survival	$\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_e$ S/B	$\bar{\nu}_\mu \rightarrow \bar{\nu}_e$ S/B
0.01	90°	22980	46/115	85/102	14210	43/71	60/71
	270°	22980	103/115	36/102	14210	94/71	21/71
0.03	90°	22980	164/115	216/102	14210	154/71	149/71
	270°	22980	263/115	132/102	14210	243/71	82/71

$\cos \delta$ dependence in the rates are denoted by boxes. The best reach is $\sin^2 2\theta_{13} \simeq 0.003$, which occurs for $\theta_{OA} \simeq 0.5\text{--}0.9^\circ$. In the worst case scenario the reach degrades to $\sin^2 2\theta_{13} \simeq 0.01$. Table 1 shows the number of $\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_\mu$ survival, and $\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_e$ and $\bar{\nu}_\mu \rightarrow \bar{\nu}_e$ signal and background events for several values of $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ and δ when $L = 890$ km and $\theta_{OA} = 0.74^\circ$ for the NuMI detector.

The measurement of P and \bar{P} at L_1 allows a determination of $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ and $\sin \delta$, modulo the possible uncertainty caused by the sign of δm_{31}^2 , assuming for the moment that $\theta_{23} = \pi/4$, so there is no ($\theta_{23}, \pi/2 - \theta_{23}$) ambiguity. The question we next consider is whether an additional measurement of P and \bar{P} at L_2 can determine $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$, measure CP violation, and distinguish δ from $\pi - \delta$. We define the χ^2 of neutrino parameters (δ', θ'_{13}) relative to the parameters (δ, θ_{13}) as

$$\chi^2 = \sum_i \frac{(N_i - N'_i)^2}{(\delta N_i)^2}, \quad (4)$$

where N_i and N'_i are the event rates for the parameters (δ, θ_{13}) and (δ', θ'_{13}), respectively, δN_i is the uncertainty in N_i , and i is summed over the measurements being used in the analysis (ν and $\bar{\nu}$ at L_1 and ν and $\bar{\nu}$ at L_2). For δN_i we assume that the statistical error for the signal plus background can be added in quadrature with the systematic error. For a two-parameter system (δ and θ_{13} unknown), two sets of parameters can be resolved at the 2σ (3σ) level if $\chi^2 > 6.17$ (11.83).

3.2. Determining the sign of δm_{31}^2

To determine if measurements at L_1 and L_2 can distinguish one set of oscillation parameters with one

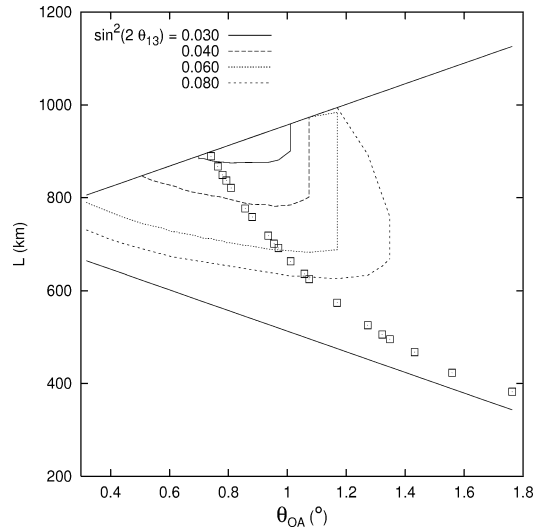


Fig. 2. Contours of $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ reach for resolving the sign of δm_{31}^2 at the 3σ level in the (θ_{OA}, L_2) plane when data from JHF and NuMI are used. The JHF detector is assumed to have baseline $L_1 = 295$ km. Other parameters and notation are the same as in Fig. 1.

sign of δm_{31}^2 from all other possible sets of oscillation parameters with the opposite sign of δm_{31}^2 , we sample the (δ, θ_{13}) space for the opposite $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ using a fine grid with 1° spacing in δ and approximately 2% increments in $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$. If the χ^2 between the original set of oscillation parameters and all of those with the opposite $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ is greater than 6.17 (11.83), then $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ is distinguished at the 2σ (3σ) level for that parameter set.

Fig. 2 shows contours (in the space of possible L_2 and θ_{OA} for the second experiment) for the minimum value of $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ (the $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ reach) for which $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ may be determined at the 3σ level when

Table 2

$\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ reach for determining the sign of δm_{31}^2 at 3σ using ν and $\bar{\nu}$ data from JHF at 295 km and NuMI at L_2 , for various detector sizes and proton driver powers. The approximate range of θ_{OA} that can obtain the reach shown is given in parentheses; $L_2 \sim 900$ km in all cases

JHF	NuMI (20 kt)	
	0.4 MW $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ (θ_{OA})	1.6 MW $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ (θ_{OA})
no JHF data	0.09 (0.7–1.0°)	0.05 (0.8–1.0°)
22.5 kt, 0.8 MW	0.07 (0.8–1.0°)	0.04 (0.9–1.0°)
22.5 kt, 4.0 MW	0.06 (0.7–1.0°)	0.03 (0.7–1.0°)
450 kt, 4.0 MW	0.05 (0.6–1.0°)	0.02 (0.7–0.9°)

ν and $\bar{\nu}$ data from L_1 and L_2 are combined. As in Fig. 1, the boxes indicate the detector positions where the $\cos \delta$ terms in the average probabilities vanish. For the $\delta m_{31}^2 > 0$ solution, $\delta = 90^\circ$ is chosen since it has the most serious overlap problem with the $\delta m_{31}^2 < 0$ solutions.

The best reach of about $\sin^2 2\theta_{13} \simeq 0.03$ for $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ determination can be realized for $\theta_{OA} \simeq 0.7\text{--}1.0^\circ$ and L_2 values near the maximum allowed by Eq. (2) ($\simeq 875\text{--}950$ km). Table 2 shows the sensitivity for determining $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ for different combinations of detector size and proton driver power in the two experiments. The table shows that once enough statistics are obtained at JHF (with a 22.5 kt detector and a 4 MW source), combined JHF and NuMI data significantly improve the $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ reach for determining $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ at 3σ (by nearly a factor of two compared to data from a 1.6 MW NuMI alone).

The ability to distinguish the sign of δm_{31}^2 is greatly affected by the size of the solar mass scale δm_{21}^2 , because the predictions for $\delta m_{31}^2 > 0$ and $\delta m_{31}^2 < 0$ overlap more for larger values of δm_{21}^2 . In Fig. 3(a) we show the region in $(\delta, \sin^2 2\theta_{13})$ space for which parameters with $\delta m_{31}^2 > 0$ can be distinguished from all parameters with $\delta m_{31}^2 < 0$ at the 3σ level for several possible values of δm_{21}^2 , using combined data from $L_1 = 295$ km and $L_2 = 890$ km, with $\theta_{OA} = 0.74^\circ$ for the second experiment. With this configuration the $\cos \delta$ terms in the average probabilities vanish for both experiments and nearly maximal reach for distinguishing $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ is achieved. A similar plot using only data at $L_2 = 890$ km and $\theta_{OA} = 0.74^\circ$ is shown in Fig. 3(b). We do not show a corresponding plot for

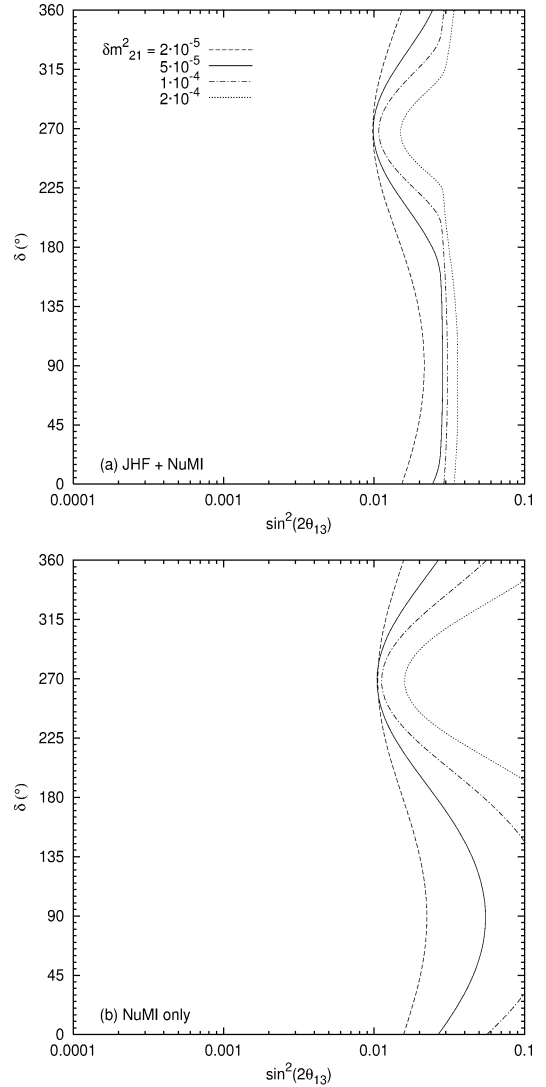


Fig. 3. Minimum value of $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ for which $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ may be determined at 3σ , assuming the true solution has $\delta m_{31}^2 > 0$, using ν and $\bar{\nu}$ data from (a) JHF with $L_1 = 295$ km and NuMI with $L_2 = 890$ km, and (b) only NuMI with $L_2 = 890$ km, for several values of δm_{21}^2 (in eV^2). The off-axis angle for the NuMI detector is $\theta_{OA} = 0.74^\circ$. Other parameters are the same as in Fig. 1. Results for $\delta m_{31}^2 < 0$ are approximately given by reflecting the curves about $\delta = 180^\circ$.

$L_1 = 295$ km because the shorter baseline severely inhibits the determination of $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$. A comparison of the two figures shows that for $\delta = 270^\circ$ (where the $\delta m_{31}^2 > 0$ predictions have the least overlap with any

Table 3

$\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ reach for determining the sign of δm_{31}^2 at 3σ using ν and $\bar{\nu}$ data from JHF at 295 km and NuMI at $L_2 = 890$ km with $\theta_{OA} = 0.74^\circ$, for different combinations of $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ and θ_{23} , where $\sin^2 2\theta_{23} = 0.9$

$\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$	$\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ reach for $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$	
	$\sin \theta_{23} = 0.585$	$\sin \theta_{23} = 0.811$
+	0.04	0.02
–	0.03	0.03

of those for $\delta m_{31}^2 < 0$) the sensitivity to $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ is not significantly improved by adding the data at L_1 . However, at $\delta = 90^\circ$ the ability to distinguish $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ is much less affected by the value of δm_{21}^2 when the data at L_1 is included. With data only at L_2 , $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ can be determined for $\sin^2 2\theta_{13} = 0.1$ when $\delta = 90^\circ$ only for $\delta m_{21}^2 \lesssim 8 \times 10^{-5} \text{ eV}^2$, while with data at L_1 and L_2 it can be determined for $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ as low as 0.04 for δm_{21}^2 as high as $2 \times 10^{-4} \text{ eV}^2$. The corresponding results for $\delta m_{31}^2 < 0$ are approximately given by reflecting the curves in Fig. 3 about $\delta = 180^\circ$.

We conclude that combining measurements of $\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_e$ and $\bar{\nu}_\mu \rightarrow \bar{\nu}_e$ from two superbeam experiments at different L results in a much more sensitive test of the sign of δm_{31}^2 than one experiment alone, especially for larger values of the solar mass scale δm_{21}^2 .

The ability to determine $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ is also affected by the value of θ_{23} . We found that the $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ reach for determining $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ at 3σ varied from 0.02 to 0.04 for $\sin^2 2\theta_{23} = 0.90$ (compared to 0.03 when $\theta_{23} = \pi/4$), depending on whether δm_{31}^2 is positive or negative, and whether $\theta_{23} < \pi/4$ or $\theta_{23} > \pi/4$. The $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ sensitivities for different possibilities are shown in Table 3.

3.3. Establishing the existence of CP violation

An important goal of long-baseline experiments is to determine whether or not CP is violated in the leptonic sector. In order to unambiguously establish the existence of CP violation, one must be able to differentiate between (δ, θ_{13}) and all possible (δ', θ'_{13}) , where $\delta' = 0^\circ$ or 180° and θ'_{13} can take on any value. For our CP violation analysis we vary $\sin^2 2\theta'_{13}$ in 2% increments, as was done in the previous section when testing the $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ sensitivity.

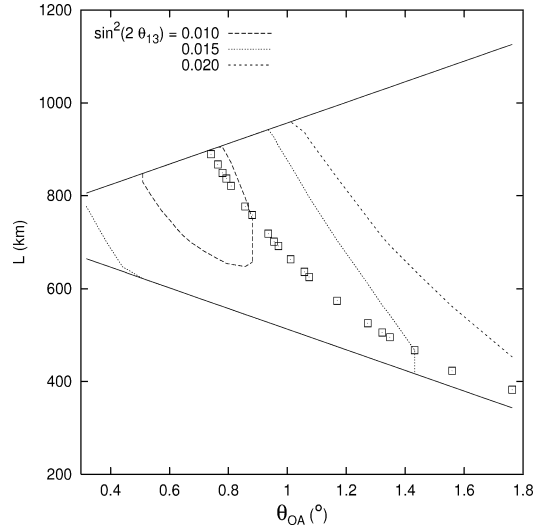


Fig. 4. Contours of $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ reach for distinguishing $\delta = 90^\circ$ from the CP conserving values $\delta = 0^\circ$ and 180° at 3σ (for the same $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$), plotted in the (θ_{OA}, L_2) plane, when data from JHF and NuMI are combined. Other parameters and notation are the same as in Fig. 1. Results for $\delta = 270^\circ$ are similar to those for $\delta = 90^\circ$.

Fig. 4 shows contours of $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ reach for distinguishing $\delta = 90^\circ$ from the CP conserving values $\delta = 0^\circ$ and 180° at 3σ (with the same $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$), plotted in the (θ_{OA}, L_2) plane, assuming ν and $\bar{\nu}$ data at both L_1 and L_2 are combined. The CP conserving solutions are sampled over a wide range in $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$, not just for the same value of $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ as the $\delta m_{31}^2 > 0$ solution. The CP reach in $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ can go as low as 0.01 for $\theta_{OA} \simeq 0.5^\circ$ to 0.9° . Results for $\delta = 270^\circ$ are similar to those for $\delta = 90^\circ$.

Fig. 5 shows the minimum value of $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ for which δ can be distinguished from all CP conserving parameter sets with $\delta = 0^\circ$ and 180° , including those with the opposite $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$, at the 3σ level when $\theta_{OA} = 0.74^\circ$ and $L_2 = 890$ km, for several different values of δm_{21}^2 . Fig. 5(a) shows the reaches if data from JHF and NuMI are combined, while Fig. 5(b) shows the reaches if data from NuMI only are used. For most values of δ , when δm_{21}^2 is higher the CP effect is increased, and hence CP violation can be detected for smaller values of θ_{13} . However, there is a possibility that a CPV solution with one $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ may not be as easily distinguishable from a CPC solution with the opposite $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$; this occurs, e.g., in Fig. 5(a) for $\delta m_{21}^2 = 1 \times 10^{-4} \text{ eV}^2$, where the

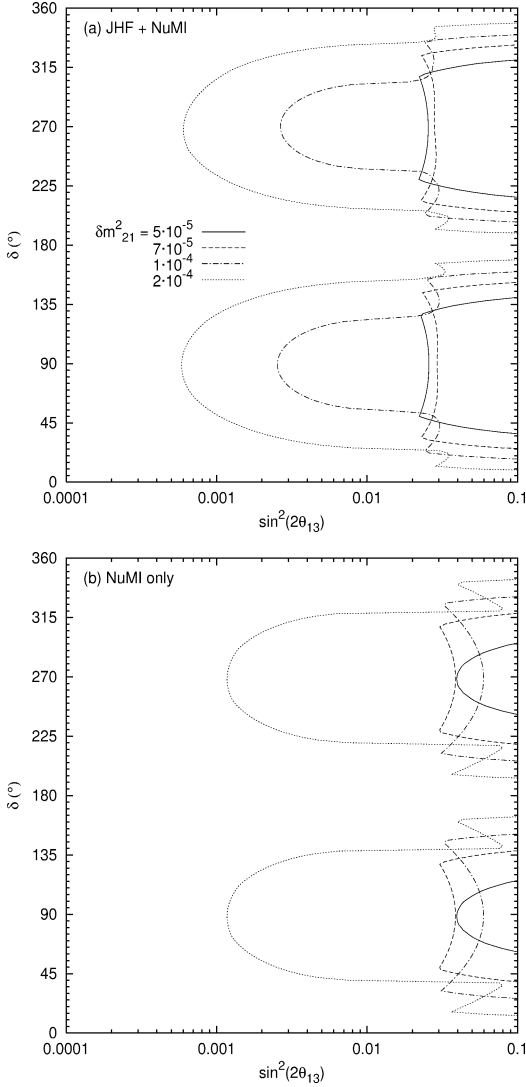


Fig. 5. Minimum value of $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ vs. CP phase δ for which δ can be distinguished from the CP conserving values $\delta = 0^\circ$ and 180° (with either sign of δm_{31}^2) at the 3σ level when (a) data from JHF and NuMI are combined, and (b) data from NuMI only are used. The baseline for JHF is $L_1 = 295$ km, while for NuMI $L_2 = 890$ km and $\theta_{OA} = 0.74^\circ$. The curves are plotted for several values of the solar mass scale δm_{21}^2 (in eV^2). Other parameters are the same as in Fig. 1.

predictions for ($\delta = 45^\circ$ and 135° , $\delta m_{31}^2 > 0$) are close to those for ($\delta = 0^\circ$ and 180° , $\delta m_{31}^2 < 0$), in this case the CP reach for those values of δ is about the same for $\delta m_{21}^2 = 1 \times 10^{-4} \text{ eV}^2$ and $\delta m_{21}^2 = 5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ eV}^2$.

We note that if data from only JHF are used (and assuming $\sin^2 2\theta_{13} \leq 0.1$) no value of the CP phase can be distinguished at 3σ from the CP conserving solutions when $\delta m_{21}^2 \lesssim 8 \times 10^{-5} \text{ eV}^2$, principally because the intrinsic CP violation due to δ and the CP violation due to matter have similar magnitudes and it is hard to disentangle the two effects. For larger values of δm_{21}^2 , the intrinsic CP effects are larger and CP violation can be established, e.g., if $\delta m_{21}^2 = 1 \times 10^{-4}$ (2×10^{-4}) eV^2 , maximal CP violation ($\delta = 90^\circ$ or 270°) can be distinguished from CP conservation at 3σ for $\sin^2 2\theta_{13} \gtrsim 0.006$ (0.001). Therefore, when $\delta m_{21}^2 = 1 \times 10^{-4} \text{ eV}^2$, most of the CP sensitivity of the combined JHF plus NuMI data results from the JHF data, for $\delta m_{21}^2 = 2 \times 10^{-4} \text{ eV}^2$ the two experiments contribute about equally to the CP sensitivity.

The boxes in Figs. 2 and 4 indicate the values of L_2 and θ_{OA} for which the $\cos\delta$ terms in the average probabilities vanish for the second experiment. As indicated in the figures, these detector positions are good for both distinguishing $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ (see Fig. 2) and for establishing the existence of CP violation (see Fig. 4), especially for larger values of L_2 . A good compromise occurs at $\theta_{OA} \simeq 0.74^\circ$ with $L_2 \simeq 890$ km. In Ref. [15] it was shown that similar values for θ_{OA} and L_2 using the NuMI off-axis beam gave a favorable figure-of-merit for the signal to background ratio; our analysis shows that such an off-axis angle and baseline is also very good for distinguishing $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ and establishing CP violation, when combined with superbeam data at $L_1 = 295$ km.

3.4. Resolving the $(\delta, \pi - \delta)$ ambiguity

If $L_2 \simeq 890$ km and $\theta_{OA} \simeq 0.74^\circ$ are chosen for the location of the second experiment, as suggested in the previous section, then both the first and second experiments are effectively measuring $\sin\delta$, and it is impossible to resolve the $(\delta, \pi - \delta)$ ambiguity. Different values of L_2 and θ_{OA} would be needed to distinguish δ from $\pi - \delta$.

Fig. 6 shows contours (in the space of possible L_2 and θ_{OA}) for the minimum value of $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ needed to distinguish $\delta = 0^\circ$ from $\delta = 180^\circ$ at the 2σ level using ν and $\bar{\nu}$ data from L_1 and L_2 (it is not possible to distinguish $\delta = 0^\circ$ from $\delta = 180^\circ$ at the 3σ level for any value of $\sin^2 2\theta_{13} \leq 0.1$). As with

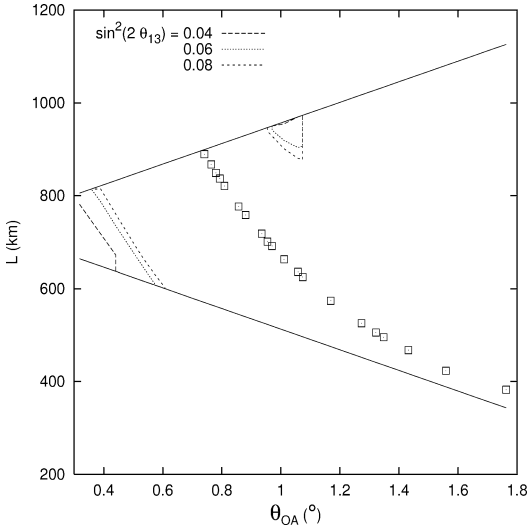


Fig. 6. Contours of $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ reach for distinguishing $\delta = 0^\circ$ from $\delta = 180^\circ$ (the $(\delta, \pi - \delta)$ ambiguity) at the 2σ level, plotted in the (θ_{OA}, L_2) plane, when data from JHF and NuMI are combined. Other parameters and notation are the same as in Fig. 1.

Fig. 4, a wide range of $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ values are sampled for the alternate solutions. Two choices are possible: one with $\theta_{OA} \lesssim 0.3^\circ\text{--}0.5^\circ$ and $L_2 \simeq 650\text{--}775$ km, and another near $\theta_{OA} \simeq 1.0^\circ$ with $L_2 \simeq 950$ km. The former choice does not do well in distinguishing $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$, while the latter choice is nearly optimal for $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ sensitivity but significantly worse for CP violation sensitivity. Thus the ability to also resolve the $(\delta, \pi - \delta)$ ambiguity is rather poor, and comes at the expense of CPV sensitivity.

3.5. Resolving the $(\theta_{23}, \pi/2 - \theta_{23})$ ambiguity

If $\theta_{23} \neq \pi/4$, there is an additional ambiguity between θ_{23} and $\pi/2 - \theta_{23}$. This ambiguity gives two solutions for $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ whose ratio differs by a factor of approximately $\tan^2 \theta_{23}$, which can be as large as 2 if $\sin^2 2\theta_{23} = 0.9$ [11]. Assuming $L_1 = 295$ km for the first experiment, we could not find any experimental configuration of L_2 and θ_{OA} for the second experiment that could resolve the $(\theta_{23}, \pi/2 - \theta_{23})$ ambiguity for $\sin^2 2\theta_{13} \leq 0.1$ at even the 1σ level for the entire range of detector sizes and source powers listed in Table 2. Therefore, we conclude that superbeams are not effective at resolving the $(\theta_{23}, \pi/2 - \theta_{23})$ ambiguity using ν_e and $\bar{\nu}_e$ appearance data. Since

the approximate oscillation probability for $\nu_e \rightarrow \nu_\tau$ is given by the interchanges $\sin \theta_{23} \leftrightarrow \cos \theta_{23}$ and $\delta \rightarrow -\delta$ in the expression for the $\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_e$ probability, a neutrino factory combined with detectors having tau neutrino detection capability provides a means for resolving the $(\theta_{23}, \pi/2 - \theta_{23})$ ambiguity [11]. Another possibility is to measure survival of $\bar{\nu}_e$'s from a reactor, which to leading order is sensitive to $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ but not θ_{23} [34,35].

3.6. Dependence on other parameters

The foregoing analysis assumed $|\delta m_{31}^2| = 3 \times 10^{-3} \text{ eV}^2$. If the true value differs from this, then to sit on the peak (where the $\cos \delta$ terms vanish) requires tuning the beam energy and baseline according to the measured value of $|\delta m_{31}^2|$. JHF has the capability of varying the average E_ν from 0.4 to 1.0 GeV, which would correspond to realizing the peak condition for $|\delta m_{31}^2| = 1.6\text{--}4.0 \times 10^{-3} \text{ eV}^2$ [31]. In principle, NuMI can vary both L_2 and θ_{OA} to be on the peak. If $|\delta m_{31}^2| < 3 \times 10^{-3} \text{ eV}^2$, then the best sensitivity to $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ is obtained for larger θ_{OA} and longer distances (the larger angle makes E_ν smaller while the longer distance enhances the matter effect), and the sensitivity is reduced (since the matter effect is smaller for smaller δm_{31}^2). The CP violation sensitivity is also reduced, although not as significantly. For larger values of $|\delta m_{31}^2|$ the sensitivity to $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ is better, with CP violation sensitivity about the same.

The tuning of the experiments to the peak (where the $\cos \delta$ terms in the average probabilities vanish) requires knowledge of $|\delta m_{31}^2|$ before the experimental design is finalized. The values of $|\delta m_{31}^2|$ and θ_{23} will be well measured in the survival channel $\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_\mu$ measurements that would run somewhat before or concurrently with the appearance measurements being discussed here, but of course this information may not be available when the configurations for the off-axis experiments are chosen. If $|\delta m_{31}^2|$ is known to 10% at 3σ (the expected sensitivity of MINOS), then the sensitivities to $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ and CP violation are not greatly affected by baselines that are slightly off-peak. If the baselines and neutrino energies for the superbeam experiments must be chosen before a 10% measurement of $|\delta m_{31}^2|$ can be made, a loss of sensitivity to $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ could result by not being on

the peak. For example, if the experiments are designed for $|\delta m_{31}^2| = 3 \times 10^{-3} \text{ eV}^2$ but in fact $|\delta m_{31}^2| = 2.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ eV}^2$, the $3\sigma \text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ reach is less ($\sin^2 2\theta_{13} = 0.04$, compared to 0.03 for $|\delta m_{31}^2| = 3 \times 10^{-3} \text{ eV}^2$). If $|\delta m_{31}^2|$ is actually $2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ eV}^2$, the $3\sigma \text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ reach extends only down to $\sin^2 2\theta_{13} \simeq 0.075$, just a little below the CHOOZ bound.

Since the $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ determination has the worst reach in $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ (compared to the discovery reach and the CPV sensitivity), and since not knowing $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ can induce a CPV/CPC ambiguity, the measurement of $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ is crucial. If $|\delta m_{31}^2|$ is not known precisely, then the exact peak position is not known, and an off-axis angle and baseline should be chosen that will give a reasonable reach for $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ over as much of the allowed range of $|\delta m_{31}^2|$ as possible. For example, $\theta_{\text{OA}} = 0.85^\circ\text{--}0.90^\circ$ and $L \simeq 930 \text{ km}$ gives a $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ reach that is fairly good for the range $|\delta m_{31}^2| = 2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ eV}^2$ to $4 \times 10^{-3} \text{ eV}^2$. The reach for $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ is farthest from optimal at the extremes ($\sin^2 2\theta_{13} = 0.06$ vs. the best reach of 0.05 when $|\delta m_{31}^2| = 2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ eV}^2$ and 0.03 vs. the best reach of 0.02 when $|\delta m_{31}^2| = 4 \times 10^{-3} \text{ eV}^2$). But the CPV reach remains at least as good as the $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ reach for this range of $|\delta m_{31}^2|$.

The uncertainties in the parameters δm_{31}^2 , $\sin^2 2\theta_{23}$, δm_{21}^2 , and $\sin^2 2\theta_{12}$ will increase the region over which ambiguities can occur. As a test for this effect, we have used the approximate formulas for the probabilities to calculate the additional uncertainties in the event rates due to the expected uncertainties of these parameters and added them in quadrature to the statistical and systematic uncertainties. We assume 1σ errors of about 1% for the atmospheric parameters (which should be measured to very good precision in the survival channel of the JHF and NuMI experiments) and 5% for the solar parameters (which will be measured by a combination of solar and KamLAND data). When these additional uncertainties are included, we find that for the favorable case considered in Fig. 3 ($L = 890 \text{ km}$ and $\theta_{\text{OA}} = 0.74^\circ$ for the NuMI experiment) the reach in $\sin^2 2\theta_{13}$ for the determination of $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ is about the same for $\delta = 270^\circ$ (where the $\delta m_{31}^2 > 0$ and $\delta m_{31}^2 < 0$ solutions do not overlap) and degraded by about 20–30% for $\delta = 90^\circ$ (where the two solutions do overlap). However, there is also some in-

formation in the energy spectrum, even for the narrow spectrum of the off-axis beams, which would help to mitigate the effect of these uncertainties [16].

4. Summary

We summarize the important points of our Letter as follows:

(i) Two superbeam experiments at different baselines, each measuring $\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_e$ and $\bar{\nu}_\mu \rightarrow \bar{\nu}_e$ appearance, are significantly better at resolving the $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ ambiguity than one experiment alone. Using beams from a 4.0 MW JHF with a 22.5 kt detector 2° off axis at 295 km and a 1.6 MW NuMI with a 20 kt detector $0.7^\circ\text{--}1.0^\circ$ off axis at 875–950 km, $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ can be determined for $\sin^2 2\theta_{13} \gtrsim 0.03$ if $\delta m_{31}^2 = 3 \times 10^{-3} \text{ eV}^2$. Sensitivities for other beam powers and detector sizes are given in Table 2.

(ii) For the most favorable cases, a higher value for the solar oscillation scale δm_{21}^2 does not greatly change the sensitivity to $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ when ν and $\bar{\nu}$ data from two different baselines are combined (unlike the single baseline case, where the ability to determine $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ is significantly worse for $\delta m_{21}^2 \gtrsim 5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ eV}^2$).

(iii) Running both experiments at the oscillation peaks, such that the $\cos \delta$ terms in the average probabilities vanish, provides good sensitivity to both $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ and to CP violation. On the other hand, the ability to resolve the $(\delta, \pi - \delta)$ ambiguity is lost, and the $(\theta_{23}, \pi/2 - \theta_{23})$ ambiguity is not resolved for any experimental arrangement considered. However, the $(\delta, \pi - \delta)$ and $(\theta_{23}, \pi/2 - \theta_{23})$ ambiguities do not substantially affect the ability to determine whether or not CP is violated (although the latter ambiguity could affect the inferred value of θ_{13} by as much as a factor of 2).

(iv) Since running at or near the oscillation peaks is favorable, knowledge of $|\delta m_{31}^2|$ to about 10% (from MINOS) before these experiments are run would be advantageous. If $|\delta m_{31}^2|$ is not known that precisely in advance, then the detector off-axis angle and baseline can still be chosen to give fairly good (though not optimal) sensitivities to $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ and CP violation.

We conclude that superbeams experiments at different baselines may greatly improve the prospects for determining the neutrino mass ordering in the three-neutrino model. Since a good compromise between determining $\text{sgn}(\delta m_{31}^2)$ and establishing the existence of CP violation is obtained when both experiments are tuned so that the $\cos \delta$ terms in the average probabilities approximately vanish, knowledge of $|\delta m_{31}^2|$ would be helpful for the optimal design for the experiments.

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