# The search for direct CP violation

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The formalism necessary to understand the phenomenon of  $CP$  nonconservation as observed in the neutral-kaon system is presented. The distinction between indirect CP violation and direct CP violation is made, and the level of understanding of the phenomenon in the standard model is reviewed. Attention is placed on new experimental efforts that could definitely establish a first-order or direct effect. The authors analyze the potential for such an observation in both kaon and B-meson decays and give the range of predictions from the standard model. Other possible models are considered briefly.

1113

# **CONTENTS**



# I. INTRODUCTION

Discrete symmetries have played a major role in particle physics. The three main symmetries are  $P$ , space inversion; T, time reversal; and C, particle-antiparticle interchange. Each of these symmetries relates one state or process to another (mirror) state or process. The test for the validity of these symmetries involves comparing the rate of a process and the mirror process.

Each of these symmetries is known to hold for quantum electrodynamics. It was originally assumed, either explicitly or implicitly, that these hold for the strong and weak interactions. The discovery in 1957 of the large parity violation in weak decay processes led to a reconsideration of the validity of all three symmetries (Lee, Oehme, and Yang, 1957). General principles of relativistic local quantum field theory yield the result that the product CPT should be a good symmetry (Luders, 1954). It soon become clear that, in weak processes like pion decay, there was large  $P$  and  $C$  violation but that  $\overline{CP}$  and  $\overline{T}$ symmetries seemed to hold. The universal  $V - A$  theory developed in 1957 and 1958 embodied these symmetries.

In 1964 Christenson, Cronin, Fitch, and Turlay (1964) discovered CP violation in the decay  $K^0 \rightarrow 2\pi$ . To the present time the only evidence for CP violation comes from  $K^0$  decay. From the point of view of strong interactions, the  $K^0$  is a particle with strangeness  $S = +1$  with an antiparticle  $\overline{K}$ <sup>0</sup> with  $S = -1$ . Because the weak interactions violate S, the eigenstates, that is, the states with a well-defined mass and width, are mixtures of  $K^0$ and  $\bar{K}^0$ . If CP invariance held, these would be

$$
K_1 = (K^0 + \overline{K}^0) / \sqrt{2} ,
$$

$$
K_2 = (K^0 - \bar{K}^0) / \sqrt{2} ,
$$

with  $CP$  eigenvalues  $+1$  and  $-1$ , respectively. (Here we choose  $\overline{K}$ <sup>0</sup> as the CP conjugate of  $K$ <sup>0</sup>.)

Before 1964 the  $K^0$  was observed to decay with a short-lived component  $K_S$  ( $\tau_S = 0.89 \times 10^{-10}$  s) and a ong-lived component  $K_L$  ( $\tau_L = 5.2 \times 10^{-8}$  s). The component  $K_S$ , which decays predominantly into the CPeven states  $\pi^+\pi^-$  and  $\pi^0\pi^0$ , was identified as  $K_1$ . The component  $K_L$ , which decays into  $3\pi$  and  $\pi l \nu$ , was identified as  $K_2$ . The 1964 discovery was that  $K_L$  also decayed into  $\pi^+\pi^-$  with a branching ratio of  $2 \times 10^{-3}$ . The analysis of the present data on  $K^0 \rightarrow 2\pi$  decays is given in Sec. II.

The theoretical requirement of CPT invariance leads to the belief that any CP-violating interaction also violates the  $T$  symmetry. In the theoretical analysis in this paper, we shall assume CPT invariance. In fact, it is possible to use the data on  $CP$  violation in  $K^0$  decay to provide stringent tests of CPT invariance (Carosi et al., 1990; Karlsson et al., 1990). The agreement of the data with the assumption of CPT invariance provides indirect but compelling evidence that  $T$  is also violated.

There exist many other experiments that have searched unsuccessfully for further evidence on CP or T violation. In general, these experiments have lacked the sensitivity attainable in the  $K^0 \rightarrow 2\pi$  decay experiments. One of the most sensitive involves the search for electric dipole moments of elementary particles such as the neutron or electron, which requires a violation of both the P and T symmetries. Present upper limits are  $1 \times 10^{-25}$ e cm for the neutron (Smith et al., 1990) and about  $10^{-26}$ e cm for the electron (Abdullah et al., 1990).

After the discovery of CP violation, many theories were published the explain the result. With the advent of gauge theories, it is natural to formulate CP violation in terms of a gauge theory. An important observation is that the standard interaction of the gauge fields with other particles is CP invariant. This is because a choice of phase for the gauge boson fields allows real gauge couplings. Therefore CP violation is always introduced into the Higgs boson part of the theory. There are three possibilities: (1) The Higgs potential in the case of several Higgs fields may violate CP; (2) the Yukawa interaction between the Higgs bosons and the fermions may violate  $CP$ ; and (3)  $CP$  is violated spontaneously, that is, by the vacuum expectation values of various Higgs fields (Lee, 1974).

In the standard  $SU(3) \times SU(2) \times U(1)$  gauge model with only one Higgs doublet field, the only possibility for CP violation is in the complex coefficients of the Yukawa interaction. In the original form of the theory with only two generations of quarks, there is, in fact, no CP violation, because it can be shown that all the complex phases can be removed as a result of flavor symmetries. It was shown by Kobayashi and Maskawa (1973) that if there were three generations of quarks, then one phase would not be removed and the standard model allowed CP violation. Details of the KM model are given in Sec. III.

In the analysis of CP violation in the  $K^0$  system, we shall distinguish CP violation that occurs in the mass matrix,  $K^0$ - $\overline{K}$ <sup>0</sup> mixing, from that in the decay amplitude to a final state. The latter will be referred to as direct CP violation. The CP violation in the mass matrix has the consequence that the eigenstates  $K<sub>S</sub>$  and  $K<sub>L</sub>$  are mixtures of the CP eigenstates  $K_1$  and  $K_2$  given by (assuming CPT in variance)

$$
K_S = (K_1 + \tilde{\epsilon} K_2) / \sqrt{1 + |\tilde{\epsilon}|^2} ,
$$
  

$$
K_L = (K_2 + \tilde{\epsilon} K_1) / \sqrt{1 + |\tilde{\epsilon}|^2} .
$$

The parameter  $\tilde{\epsilon}$  is a measure of the CP violation associated with  $K^0$ - $\overline{K}$ <sup>0</sup> mixing.

There exists a class of models called *superweak* in

which essentially the only CP violation in the  $K^0$  system is that due to  $K^0$ - $\overline{K}$ <sup>0</sup> mixing measured by  $\tilde{\epsilon}$ . The basic idea is that a new, very weak interaction (Wolfenstein, 1964) can make a significant contribution to the  $K^0$ - $\overline{K}$ <sup>0</sup> mass matrix if it allows  $\Delta S = 2$  at tree level, that is, in the lowest order. The normal weak interaction only allows  $\Delta S = 1$ , so that its contribution to  $K^0$ - $\overline{K}$ <sup>0</sup> mixing, which determines the mass difference  $(m_L - m_S)$ , is second order. Assuming the new, very weak interaction violates CP invariance significantly, then  $\tilde{\epsilon}$  is given by the ratio of the very weak interaction to the second-order effect of the standard interaction. In the standard Kobayashi-Maskawa (KM) model of CP violation (in contrast to the superweak), direct CP violation is expected. In this review we are concerned with the experimental search for direct CP violation. Clear-cut evidence for direct CP violation would rule out superweak models as the only source of CP violation and could provide support for the KM model.

This discussion for the  $K^0$ - $\overline{K}$ <sup>0</sup> system can be repeated for  $D^0$ - $\overline{D}$  <sup>0</sup> and  $B^0$ - $\overline{B}$  <sup>0</sup>. In the case of  $D^0$ - $\overline{D}$  <sup>0</sup>, it is known empirically that there is very little mixing; for this and other reasons the D system is not a good place to look for CP violation. On the other hand, it is known experimentally that  $B^0$ - $\overline{B}$ <sup>0</sup> mixing is comparable to that for the  $K^0$ system; furthermore, CP-violating effects in the  $B^0$  system are expected in the KM model to be much greater than for  $K^0$ .

# II. PHENGMENGLGGY GF THE NEUTRAL-KAGN SYSTEM

The propagation of the  $K^0$  system may be given by

$$
i\frac{d}{dt}K(t) = \left(M - i\frac{\Gamma}{2}\right)K(t) ,
$$

where **K** is a two-component vector in the  $K^0$ - $\overline{K}^0$  space and M and  $\Gamma$  are 2×2 Hermitian matrices. In the Wigner-Weiskopf perturbation theory (Enz and Lewis, 1965; Kabir, 1968),

$$
M_{\alpha\beta} = m_k \delta_{\alpha\beta} + \langle \alpha | H_{SW} | \beta \rangle
$$
  
- $P \sum_k \frac{\langle \alpha | H_W | k \rangle \langle k | H_W | \beta \rangle}{E_k - m_k},$   
 $\Gamma_{\alpha\beta} = 2\pi \sum_k \langle \alpha | H_W | k \rangle \langle k | H_W | \beta \rangle \delta(E_k - m_k),$ 

where P denotes the principal part. Here  $H_W$  is the normal  $\Delta S = 1$  weak interaction, and  $H_{SW}$  is the  $\Delta S = 2$  superweak interaction.

To discuss CP violation, it is useful to use the  $K_1-K_2$ basis for the vector K in place of  $K^0$ - $\overline{K}^0$ ; then

$$
M - i\frac{\Gamma}{2} = \begin{bmatrix} M_1 & im' + \delta' \\ -im' + \delta' & M_2 \end{bmatrix} - \frac{i}{2} \begin{bmatrix} \Gamma_1 & i\gamma' \\ -i\gamma' & \Gamma_2 \end{bmatrix}.
$$
\n(2.1)

The off-diagonal terms that mix  $K_1$  and  $K_2$  are measures of  $CP$  violation. The factor  $i$  and the antisymmetry indicate that the term  $m'$  violates not only CP but also T, as expected from the CPT theorem. On the other hand, the term  $\delta'$  is  $T$  invariant and violates CPT, and we set it equal to zero in what follows. We also omit a similar  $CPT$ -violating term in  $\Gamma$ . All experimental results, in fact, are consistent with  $\delta' = 0$ , and the limit on the magnitude of  $\delta'$  provides the best test of CPT invariance. The CP-violating mixing parameter is then given for small mixing by B. Winstein and L. Wolfenstein: The search for direct CP violation<br>
The off-diagonal terms that mix  $K_1$  and  $K_2$  are measures<br>
contenting data, but the error may be<br>
of CP violation. The factor *i* and the antisymmetry

$$
\tilde{\epsilon} = \frac{-i(m' - i\gamma'/2)}{(M_1 - M_2) - i(\Gamma_1 - \Gamma_2)/2} \ . \tag{2.2}
$$

The decays of most interest are those for  $K^0$  going to two pions. The decay amplitudes may be written, by using CPT and unitarity,

$$
A(K^{0} \to \pi\pi(I)) = A_{I} \exp(i\delta_{I}),
$$
  
\n
$$
A(\overline{K}^{0} \to \pi\pi(I)) = A_{I}^{*} \exp(i\delta_{I}),
$$
\n(2.3)

where I is the isospin of the  $\pi\pi$  system and  $\delta_I$  is the corresponding  $\pi\pi$  phase shift for a center-of-mass energy equal to  $M_K$ . Electromagnetic final-state interactions have been neglected. Had CP invariance held, the parameter  $A_I$  would be real. The parameter  $\gamma'$  can be related to decay amplitudes by unitarity; to a good approximation, the unitarity sum is dominated by the  $2\pi I=0$ state, in which case

$$
\frac{i\gamma'}{\Gamma_1} \cong \frac{[A(K_1 \rightarrow \pi\pi)]^* A(K_2 \rightarrow \pi\pi)}{|A(K_1 \rightarrow \pi\pi)|^2} \cong i\frac{\operatorname{Im} A_0}{\operatorname{Re} A_0} . \tag{2.4}
$$

We are now left with the following parameters describing weak interactions for the  $K^0$  system.

CP-conserving:  $M_1 - M_2$ ,  $\Gamma_1$ ,  $\Gamma_2$ , Re $A_0$ , Re $A_2$ . Indirect CP violation: m'. Direct CP violation:  $\text{Im} A_0$ ,  $\text{Im} A_2$ .

We can relate the CP-conserving parameters to wellknown (Particle Data Group, 1992) observables, neglecting the small CP-violating effects:

$$
\Gamma_1 = \Gamma_S = (0.892 \pm 0.002 \times 10^{-10} \text{ sec})^{-1},
$$
  
\n
$$
\Gamma_2 = \Gamma_L = 1.72 \pm 0.02 \times 10^{-3} \Gamma_S ,
$$
  
\n
$$
M_1 - M_2 = M_S - M_L = -\Delta M = -(0.477 \pm 0.003) \Gamma_S ,
$$
  
\n
$$
\omega = \text{Re} A_2 / \text{Re} A_0 = 0.045 .
$$

The value Re $A_2$  is determined from the decay rate for  $K^+ \rightarrow \pi^+ \pi^0$  using isospin relations, assuming  $\Delta I = 5/2$ transitions can be neglected. A parameter from the strong interactions that is of importance is the phaseshift difference

$$
\theta' = \delta_2 - \delta_0 + \pi/2 = (43 \pm 6)^{\circ} \ . \tag{2.5}
$$

This value has been deduced (Ochs, 1991) from  $\pi\pi$ -

scattering data, but the error may be underestimated. A somewhat lower value is obtained from the ratio of  $\pi^+\pi^-$  to  $\pi^0\pi^0$  decay for the  $K_S$  system using the value of Re  $A_2$  obtained from  $K^+ \rightarrow \pi^+ \pi^0$ .

There are four observables (two magnitudes and two phases) describing CP violation in  $K_L \rightarrow \pi\pi$  and one describing CP violation in  $K_L$  semileptonic decays; these are

hence.

\nfor

\n
$$
\eta_{+-} = \frac{A(K_L - \pi^+ \pi^-)}{A(K_S \to \pi^+ \pi^-)} = |\eta_{+-}|e^{i\phi}_{+-},
$$
\n2.2)

\n
$$
\eta_{00} = \frac{A(K_L \to \pi^0 \pi^0)}{A(K_S \to \pi^0 \pi^0)} = |\eta_{00}|e^{i\phi}_{00},
$$
\ng to

\n
$$
\delta = \frac{\Gamma(K_L \to \pi^- 1^+ \nu) - \Gamma(K_L \to \pi^+ 1^- \overline{\nu})}{\Gamma(K_L \to \pi^- 1^+ \nu) + \Gamma(K_L \to \pi^+ 1^- \overline{\nu})}.
$$

Putting together previous equations, one finds (neglecting terms of order  $\varepsilon^2$  or  $\varepsilon'^2$ )

$$
\eta_{+-} = \varepsilon + \varepsilon' / (1 + \omega e^{i\theta'}) \approx \varepsilon + \varepsilon', \qquad (2.6a)
$$

$$
\eta_{00} = \varepsilon - 2\varepsilon' / (1 - \sqrt{2}\omega e^{i\theta'}) \approx \varepsilon - 2\varepsilon' , \qquad (2.6b)
$$

$$
\varepsilon = \tilde{\varepsilon} + i(\operatorname{Im} A_0 / \operatorname{Re} A_0)
$$
  
=  $\sin \theta e^{i\theta} (m' / \Delta M + \operatorname{Im} A_0 / \operatorname{Re} A_0)$ , (2.7)

$$
\varepsilon' = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} e^{i\theta'} (\text{Im} A_2 / \text{Re} A_2 - \text{Im} A_0 / \text{Re} A_0) \omega , \quad (2.8)
$$

$$
\theta = \tan^{-1}[2\Delta M/(\Gamma_1 - \Gamma_2)] \approx \tan^{-1}(2\Delta M/\Gamma_S)
$$
  
= 43.67±0.14°. (2.9)

It follows from the  $\Delta Q = \Delta S$  rule that the lepton asymmetry  $\delta$  is a result of  $K^0$ - $\overline{K}$ <sup>0</sup> mixing and is given by  $2$  Ree.

From these equations we reach a number of con-

clusions.<br>(1) The quantity  $\varepsilon$  can be the result of  $K^0$ - $\overline{K}^0$  mixing  $(m')$  or of direct CP violation (Im $A_0$ ), but there is no way to separate these. In fact, there exists the possibility of choosing a phase convention, via the transformation of the phase of the s quark  $(s \rightarrow se^{i\alpha})$ , such that Im  $A_0$  goes to zero. This is the Wu-Yang (1964) phase convention, which has the consequence that  $\varepsilon = \tilde{\varepsilon}$ . In a particular model of CP violation, one normally chooses a convenient phase convention in writing down the Hamiltonian. This is unlikely to be the Wu-Yang phase convention, so that, if the model is not superweak, c will have contributions from  $m'$  and Im  $A_0$ . This is the case in the standard model, where, for all common phase conventions, Im  $A_0$  arises from penguin graphs.

(2) A nonzero  $\varepsilon'$  is an unambiguous indication of direct CP violation. It is independent of  $m'$  (or  $\tilde{\epsilon}$ ) and measures the difference in the CP-violating phase of the  $I = 0$  and  $I = 2$  amplitudes. However, even if the theory has direct  $\mathbb{CP}$  violation,  $\varepsilon'$  may still be zero. This occurs if the two CP-violating phases are equal. This may happen accidentally, which could possibly be the case in the standard KM model for a value of top mass  $m<sub>t</sub>$  between 200 and 300 GeV, as discussed in Sec. V. The phases could also be equal in a model in which all  $K \rightarrow 2\pi$  amplitudes have a single phase even though other  $\Delta S = 1$  amplitudes may have a different phase. An example is a theory in which the CP-violating phase in the Hamiltonian is a relative phase between P-conserving and P-violating terms; this is the case for a particular version of the left-right model of CP violation (Mohapatra and Pati, 1975). In such a theory direct CP violation could be detected by the difference between  $\eta_{+-}$  for  $K \rightarrow 2\pi$  and the corresponding quantity  $\eta_{+-0}$  for  $K \rightarrow 3\pi$ .

(3) The inner product

$$
\langle K_L | K_S \rangle = \frac{2 \operatorname{Re} \varepsilon}{| + | \varepsilon |^2} = \frac{2 \operatorname{Re} \tilde{\varepsilon}}{| + | \tilde{\varepsilon} |^2}
$$

is independent of phase convention. A nonzero value of Res therefore provides an unambiguous measure of  $K^0$ - $\overline{K}$ <sup>0</sup> mixing; however, depending on the phase convention, this may be due to  $m'$  or  $\gamma'$ , as is evident from Eq. (2.2). If there is direct  $\Delta S = 1$  CP violation, one naturally expects to find CP violation in second-order  $\Delta S = 2K^0$ - $\overline{K}$ <sup>0</sup> mixing contributing directly to  $\gamma'$  and virtually to  $m'$ .

(4) The experimental determination of  $\varepsilon'$  has been carried out so far by measuring the ratio

$$
R \equiv \left| \frac{\eta_{00}}{\eta_{+-}} \right|^2 \approx 1 - 6 \text{ Re}(\varepsilon'/\varepsilon)
$$
  
= 1 - 6[\varepsilon'/\varepsilon]cos(\theta - \theta')  

$$
\approx 1 - 6[\varepsilon'/\varepsilon], \qquad (2.10)
$$

where  $[\varepsilon'/\varepsilon]$  is the real number  $(\varepsilon'/\varepsilon)e^{-i(\theta'-\theta)}$ . The value of  $\theta'$  given in Eq. (2.5) is quite uncertain, and values as disparate as 30° to 60° can be found in the literature. However, even within this large range  $cos(\theta - \theta')$  differs from unity by less than  $5\%$ . Thus, assuming CPT invariance, one can directly interpret the value of  $|\eta_{00}/\eta_{+-}|$  as determining the magnitude of  $\varepsilon'/\varepsilon$  and the sign of  $\lceil \varepsilon'/\varepsilon \rceil$ .

The present experimental results on CP violation in the  $K^0$  system are given by (Particle Data Group, 1992)

$$
\eta_{+-} = (2.279 \pm 0.022) \times 10^{-3}
$$
  
\n
$$
\varphi_{+-} = 46.5 \pm 1.2
$$
,  
\n
$$
|\varphi_{00} - \varphi_{+-}| < 2^0
$$
,  
\n
$$
\delta = (3.27 \pm 0.12) \times 10^{-3}
$$
.

A detailed discussion of the  $\eta_{00}$  measurements is given in Sec. V. Since it turns out that  $\varepsilon'/\varepsilon$  is very small, to a good approximation the value of  $\eta_{+-}$  determines that of  $\varepsilon,$ 

$$
|\epsilon|\!=\!2.3\!\times\!10^{-3}~.
$$

The agreement between the phase of  $\eta_{+-}$  and the theoretical phase of  $\theta$  of  $\varepsilon$  given in Eq. (2.9) is the source of the most precise test of CPT invariance mentioned earlier. The lepton asymmetry  $\delta$  agrees with the  $\Delta Q = \Delta S$ rule prediction  $\delta = 2$  Res. Thus the quantity  $|\varepsilon|$  provides up to this time the single independent measure of CP violation.

#### III. THE STANDARD MODEL

#### A. The CKM matrix

In the standard electroweak model, the interactions of the quarks with the charged gauge bosons  $W$  are given by

$$
g\overline{u}_j V_{ji}\gamma_\lambda (1-\gamma_5)d_i W^\lambda + \text{H.c.}
$$
 (3.1)

Here  $u_i = (u, c, t)$  are the up-type quarks and  $d_i = (d, s, b)$ are the down type.  $V$  is the unitary CKM (Cabibbo-Kobayashi-Maskawa) matrix, the  $3 \times 3$  generalization of the Cabibbo mixing matrix. A convenient parametrization of  $V$  due to Maiani (1977) is

$$
V = \begin{bmatrix} V_{ud} & V_{us} & V_{ub} \\ V_{cd} & V_{cs} & V_{cb} \\ V_{td} & V_{ts} & V_{tb} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} C_{\sigma}C_{\theta} & C_{\sigma}S_{\theta} & S_{\sigma}e^{-i\gamma} \\ -C_{\tau}S_{\theta}-C_{\theta}S_{\sigma}S_{\tau}e^{i\gamma} & C_{\tau}C_{\theta}-S_{\theta}S_{\sigma}S_{\tau}e^{i\gamma} & C_{\sigma}S_{\tau} \\ S_{\theta}S_{\tau}-C_{\theta}C_{\tau}S_{\sigma}e^{i\gamma} & -C_{\theta}S_{\tau}-C_{\tau}S_{\theta}S_{\sigma}e^{i\gamma} & C_{\tau}C_{\sigma} \end{bmatrix},
$$
\n(3.2)

where  $C_{\theta} = \cos\theta$  and  $S_{\theta} = \sin\theta$ . As originally noted by Kobayashi and Maskawa (1973), it is possible by defining the phase of the quark fields to eliminate all but one of the phases in  $V$ . Thus all  $CP$  violation in this model depends on the phase  $\gamma$ . Experimental data on strangeparticle and  $B$  decay rates can determine the magnitudes of  $V_{us}$ ,  $V_{cb}$ , and  $V_{ub}$ . Given these magnitudes, there is the empirical observation (Wolfenstein, 1983) that the mixing angles have a hierarchical structure allowing expansion in powers of  $\lambda = \sin \theta = 0.22$  with

$$
\sin \tau = A \lambda^2 \tag{3.3a}
$$

$$
\sin \sigma e^{-i\gamma} = A \lambda^3 (\rho - i\eta) \tag{3.3b}
$$

The analysis of experimental data from decay rates discussed in Sec. III.C is summarized by

$$
A=0.9\pm0.1, \t(3.4)
$$

$$
(\rho^2 + \eta^2)^{1/2} = 0.4 \pm 0.2 , \qquad (3.5)
$$

where the errors are primarily theoretical.

Expanding V in powers of  $\lambda$  to order  $\lambda^3$ , we see that the matrix has the simple form

Rev. Mod. Phys. , Vol. 65, No. 4, October 1993

$$
V = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \frac{\lambda^2}{2} & \lambda & A\lambda^3(\rho - i\eta) \\ -\lambda & 1 - \frac{\lambda^2}{2} & A\lambda^2 \\ A\lambda^3(1 - \rho - i\eta) & -A\lambda^2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.
$$
 (3.6)

We have chosen a phase convention (that is, a definition of the phases of quark fields) in Eqs. (3.2) and (3.6) such that V is manifestly CP invariant to order  $\lambda^2$ , and CP violation shows up first in order  $\lambda^3$ . Of course, the physics is independent of the phase convention.

All CP-violating observables are proportional to a quantity J (Greenberg, 1985; Jarlskog, 1985; Wu, 1986) which is independent of phase convention

$$
J = \text{Im}(V_{us}V_{cb}V_{ub}^*V_{cs}^*)
$$
  
= 
$$
\text{Im}(V_{ud}V_{tb}V_{ub}^*V_{td}^*)
$$
. (3.7)

There are nine different ways of writing  $J$  corresponding to crossing out one row and one column of  $V$  and then multiplying together the diagonal elements of the resulting  $2\times2$  matrix by the complex conjugates of the offdiagonal elements. From our parametrization,

$$
J = C_{\sigma}^{2} C_{\tau} C_{\theta} \sin \theta \sin \tau \sin \sigma \sin \gamma \simeq A^{2} \lambda^{6} \eta . \qquad (3.8)
$$

The unitarity condition can be illustrated by a triangle (Fig. 1). Using the condition

$$
V_{ub}^* V_{ud} + V_{cb}^* V_{cd} + V_{tb}^* V_{td} = 0
$$

and setting  $V_{ud} \approx V_{tb} \approx 1$ , we find the condition illustrated

$$
(A\lambda^3)^{-1}(V_{ub}^* + V_{td}) = 1.
$$
 (3.9)

The angles of the triangle are measures of CP violation. The quantity J is equal to  $2A^2\lambda^6$  times the area of the triangle.

#### B. The calculation of  $\varepsilon$

In the standard model in our phase convention (as well as others commonly used), the main contribution to  $\varepsilon$ comes from  $K^0$ - $\overline{K}$ <sup>0</sup> mixing, that is, the m' term in Eq. (2.7). The Im  $A_0$  term in Eq. (2.7) will be discussed in Sec. V.A but it makes less than a  $10\%$  correction to the value of c.



FIG. 1. The unitarity triangle.

The CP-violating part of the  $(K^0\text{-}\overline{K}^0)$  mass matrix can be calculated (Ellis et al., 1976) from the second-order box diagram (Fig. 2). The result of the calculation (Inami and Lim, 1981; Buras et al., 1984), including QCD corrections (Gilman and Wise, 1983; Buras et al., 1990; Flynn, 1990), is well represented for  $m_t > m_w$  by

$$
\varepsilon e^{-i\theta} = 3.4 \times 10^{-3} A^2 \eta B \left[ 1 + 1.3 A^2 (1 - \rho) \left[ \frac{m_t}{m_w} \right]^{1.6} \right].
$$
\n(3.10)

The first term in the bracket corresponds to contributions that depend on  $m_c$  (we use  $m_c = 1.4$  GeV) and are approximately independent of  $m_t$  for  $m_t > m_w$ . The second term is the contribution that goes asymptotically as  $m_i^2$ ; the form given is accurate to a few percent for  $m_t$  < 200 GeV. The greatest uncertainty in the theory comes from the evaluation of  $B$ , which is defined by

$$
\langle \overline{K}^0 | \overline{s} \gamma_{\lambda} (1 - \gamma_5) d\overline{s} \gamma^{\lambda} (1 - \gamma_5) d | K^0 \rangle = B \left[ 4 f_K^2 m_K / 3 \right] .
$$

The value  $B = 1$  corresponds to the vacuum insertion method (Gaillard and Lee, 1974), whereas there exists a calculation based on PCAC (partial conservation of axial-vector current) and  $SU(3)$  (Donoghue et al., 1983) connecting B to Re  $A_2$  that gives the value  $B = \frac{1}{3}$ . However, there are indications that there are large corrections to this calculation (Bijnens, Sonoda, and Wise, 1984). Various lattice calculations (Kilcup et al., 1990; Kilcup, 1992) give values of  $B$  in the range 0.7 to 0.9, but often these same calculations give too large a value for  $\text{Re } A_2$ .

Equation (3.10) must be used to try to determine  $\eta$ , since  $\varepsilon$  is the only CP-violating parameter we know. There exist three uncertainties (besides the value of  $m_t$ ), each of the order of a factor of 2: (1) Reasonable values of B are probably between  $\frac{1}{2}$  and 1; (2) there is an uncertainty in  $A$  of about 10% mainly due to the theoretical probem of deriving  $V_{cb}$  from data on semileptonic B decay; and (3) the value of  $\rho$  can be anywhere between about  $-0.5$  and  $+0.5$ .

#### C. Constraints on the CKM parameters

The predictions of the standard model depend on the values of the CKM parameters,  $A$ ,  $\rho$ , and  $\eta$ . At present the value of A (or  $V_{cb}$ ) is constrained from the rate of  $B \rightarrow D$  semileptonic decays, while the value of  $(\rho^2 + \eta^2)$ (or  $V_{ub}$ ) is constrained from semileptonic decay rates to



FIG. 2. Box diagram for  $K^0$ - $\overline{K}$ <sup>0</sup> or  $B^0$ - $\overline{B}$ <sup>0</sup> mixing. For the  $K^0$ case,  $q = s$ ; for the  $B^0$  case,  $q = b$ .

noncharmed states.

From the B lifetime  $\tau_B = (1.29 \pm 0.05) \times 10^{-12}$  sec (Particle Data Group, 1992) and the semileptonic branching ratios for  $B \rightarrow x l v$  of  $(11 \pm 1)\%$ , one can calculate A by using the spectator approximation, assuming the decay is primarily

 $b \rightarrow c l \nu$ ,

with a small correction for  $b \rightarrow ulv$ . Kim and Martin (1989) have fitted the inclusive spectrum using a method due to Altarelli et al. (1982) for treating the spectator; their result corresponds to

 $A = 1.00 \pm 0.13$ .

The theoretical error in using the spectator model is quite uncertain. In fact, one expects the majority of the decays to go to a few states of the D system, particularly the ground states  $D$  and  $D^*$ . Therefore it would seem better to try to analyze exclusive decays.

The decays  $B \rightarrow Dev$  and  $B \rightarrow D^*ev$  can be analyzed using the heavy-quark symmetry (Isgur and Wise, 1989). The idea is to look at the kinematic limit in which the  $D(D^*)$  does not recoil. Assuming very heavy (relative to the QCD scale)  $b$  and  $c$  quarks, the weak matrix elements are essentially unity in this limit, since the transition  $b \rightarrow c$  does not change the color field. Neubert (1991) has attempted to extrapolate the spectrum for  $B \rightarrow D^*ev$  to the zero-recoil point; if the branching ratio for this decay is 4.7%, his result is

$$
A=0.9\pm0.15
$$
.

An alternate analysis by Burdman (1992) yields

 $A = 0.85 \pm 0.1$ .

In our later fits we use a range of  $A$  between 0.8 and 1.0.

At this time there is limited information on decays corresponding to the quark transition  $\epsilon$  0.5

 $b\rightarrow ulv$ .

This is distinguished from the predominant  $b \rightarrow c l v$  by observing the end of the lepton spectrum. Various assumptions about the lepton spectrum (Cassel, 1992) lead to the range

$$
\frac{V_{ub}}{V_{cb}} = 0.085 \pm 0.045 ,
$$
  

$$
\sqrt{\rho^2 + \eta^2} = 0.4 \pm 0.2 ,
$$
 (3.11)

which we use in our later fits.

The magnitude of  $V_{td}$  can be determined only from virtual processes involving the td vertex. The only available process is  $B_d^0 - \overline{B}_d^0$  mixing, which yields  $x_d$  $=\Delta m (B_d)/\Gamma(B_d )=0.7\pm 0.1$ . This can be calculated from the second-order box diagram with the top quark in the legs (Fig. 2). For  $m_t$  between 100 and 200 GeV, the theoretical result (Ellis et al. 1977; Inami and Lim, 1981)

can be written to a good approximation as

$$
\frac{\Delta m(B_d)}{\Gamma(B_d)} = \frac{1}{6} A^2 [(1-\rho)^2 + \eta^2] \left[ \frac{m_t}{m_w} \right]^{1.6}
$$
  
 
$$
\times \left[ \frac{\sqrt{B_B \eta_2 f_B}}{120 \text{ MeV}} \right]^2.
$$
 (3.12)

Here  $B<sub>B</sub>$  is the parameter that is unity if the vacuum insertion is used to evaluate the matrix element of the effective  $\Delta B = 2$  operator; values between 0.75 and 1 are given in the literature. The QCD correction factor  $\eta_2$ was calculated by Hagelin (1981) as 0.85, but there may be significant corrections to this for values of  $m_t > m_m$ (Buras et al., 1990). The main uncertainty, however, is the value of the B-decay constant  $f_B$ ; values as disparate as 75 MeV (Suzuki, 1985) and 300 MeV (Allton et al., 1991) have been derived and are summarized by Geng and Turcotte (1992). We use in our fits the range

$$
\sqrt{B_B \eta_2} f_B = 100 - 200 \text{ MeV}.
$$

This gives the result

$$
A^2[(1-\rho)^2+\eta^2]=(1.5 \text{ to } 6)(m_t/m_w)^{-1.6}
$$
. (3.13)

From Eq.  $(3.10)$ , using the empirical value of  $\varepsilon$ , we have, assuming a range of  $B_K$  between 0.5 and 1.0,

$$
A^{2}\eta = \left[\frac{3}{4} \text{ to } \frac{3}{2}\right] (1+1.3 A^{2}(1-\rho)(m_{t}/m_{w})^{1.6})^{-1}.
$$
\n(3.14)

The constraints from Eqs.  $(3.11)$ ,  $(3.13)$ , and  $(3.14)$  are shown in Fig. 3 for  $m_t = 140$  and 180 GeV. The allowed



*P*<br>FIG. 3. Allowed regions in the  $(\rho, \eta)$  plane. Points between the circles centered at  $(0,0)$  are favored from determinations of  $V_{ub}$ . Points between the circles centered at (1,0) are favored from  $B^0$ - $\overline{B}$ <sup>0</sup> mixing measurements. Points between the two hyperbolas are favored from the value of  $\varepsilon$ . (a)  $m_t = 140 \text{ GeV}$ ; (b)  $m_t = 180 \text{ GeV}$ .

values of  $\eta$  are seen to range from 0.1 to 0.6 fairly independently of  $m_t$ . This large range arises from Eq.  $(3.14)$ , because A is allowed to range from 0.8 to 1.0 and because  $(1-\rho)$  is poorly constrained by Eq. (3.13).

### IV. CONSTRAINING  $\eta$  TO BE NONZERO BY **MEASURING MAGNITUDES**

Within the context of the standard model,  $\eta$  is constrained as indicated by the CP-violating parameter  $\varepsilon$ . However, if we allow the alternative of superweak CP violation,  $\varepsilon$  does not tell us anything about  $\eta$ . Nevertheless, it is conceivable, assuming only three generations, to discover a nonzero  $\eta$  from experiments that do not measure CP violation. This is because the unitary  $3 \times 3$  matrix is completely determined by the magnitudes of its elements. Specifically, it is clear from Eq. (3.6) that a measurement of  $|V_{ub}|$  and  $|V_{td}|$  determines both  $\rho$  and  $\eta$ , once  $\vec{A}$  is known. This is illustrated in Fig. 3 by the intersection of the two circles. Thus if we used the central values of (3.11) and (3.13), we would find  $\eta^2 \approx 0.16$ .

The problem, of course, lies in the uncertainties in  $|V_{ub}|$  and  $|V_{td}|$ , which are mainly theoretical in origin. With the uncertainties as large as indicated, the allowed region in Fig. 3 includes  $\eta=0$ , if one ignores the  $\varepsilon$  constraint as one must to establish a direct effect. Furthermore, even if the uncertainties were reduced so that  $\eta = 0$ were not allowed, this would not rule out the superweak alternative, because the constraint from  $\Delta m(B_D)$  that we have used [Eq. (3.13)] would not be valid if  $\Delta m(B_D)$  had a superweak contribution (Liu and Wolfenstein, 1987b) in addition to that of the standard model. Thus, to rule out the superweak alternative, it is necessary to use data exclusiuely from decay amplitudes. We discuss here the future possibilities for doing this, although the conclusion is that they are not, in fact, very promising.

#### A. The determination of  $|V_{td}|$

For the foreseeable future the element  $V_{td}$  will not be determined directly from top decays, since the  $t \rightarrow d + W$ branching ratio is much too small. Thus one is dependent on higher-order processes involving a virtual t quark. The most relevant processes are the induced neutral-current decays

$$
b \rightarrow d + l + \overline{l} \tag{4.1}
$$

$$
s \to d + l + \overline{l} \tag{4.2}
$$

While  $(4.1)$  has a larger branching ratio than  $(4.2)$ , the best hope seems to be the decays of type (4.2). There are three decays of this type of particular interest,

$$
K^+ \rightarrow \pi^+ \mu^+ \mu^- \tag{4.3a}
$$

 $K_L \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$ ,  $(4.3b)$ 

$$
K^+ \to \pi^+ \nu \bar{\nu} \tag{4.3c}
$$

Rev. Mod. Phys., Vol. 65, No. 4, October 1993

The decay (4.3a) is expected to have a branching ratio of about  $10^{-7}$  and is presumably dominated by onephoton exchange, a weak-electromagnetic process. The transition (4.2), proportional to  $V_{td}$ , is calculated to provide only a small additional amplitude. However, as pointed out by Savage and Wise (1990), the interference between the two amplitudes is detectable by measuring the longitudinal polarization of one of the muons. We discuss this possibility below.

The decay (4.3b) has a branching ratio of  $7 \times 10^{-9}$  and is known to arise largely from the virtual transition

$$
K_L \to \gamma + \gamma \to \mu^+ + \mu^- \tag{4.4}
$$

The absorptive part of (4.4) corresponding to the real intermediate state can be calculated accurately (Sehgal, 1969) and by itself explains a branching ratio approximately equal to the experimental rate. To this part must be added  $(D+S)^2$ , where D is the dispersive part of (4.4) corresponding to virtual  $\gamma + \gamma$  and S is the contribution of (4.2) proportional to  $V_{td}$ . (To be more accurate, S is proportional to  $\text{Re}V_{td}$ , since  $\text{Im}V_{td}$  contributes to  $K_S \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$ .) Unfortunately, the calculation of D is quite model dependent; and so, even though S may be significant, one cannot determine  $V_{td}$  with any accuracy in this way. However, various authors have tried to use this decay to place limits on  $V_{td}$  (Belanger and Geng, 1991}.

Most of the emphasis has been placed on the decay (4.3c), since there is no electromagnetic contribution, and so the decay is expected to be entirely due to the secondorder weak process. As discussed below, the branching ratio is only of the order  $10^{-10}$  and the detection is dificult.

The rare decay  $K^+ \rightarrow \pi^+\nu\bar{\nu}$  can be calculated for large values of  $m_t$ , in terms of the CKM elements without any problem of hadronic matrix elements. The calculation involves a box diagram with intermediate  $u, c, t$  quarks on one side and e,  $\mu$ , or  $\tau$  on the other. One must also include the flavor-changing  $Z$  exchange, which occurs in second-order weak interactions. The diagrams are shown in Fig. 4. The result is an effective matrix element of the form (Hagelin and Littenberg, 1989)

$$
\frac{G_F}{\sqrt{2}} \frac{e^2}{4\pi} C \overline{s}_{\alpha} \gamma_{\mu} (1 - \gamma_5) d_{\alpha} \overline{\nu}_l \gamma^{\mu} (1 - \gamma_5) \nu_l , \qquad (4.5)
$$

where  $\alpha$  is a color index summed over and *l* is the lepton flavor. The hadronic matrix element is directly known from the decay  $K^+ \rightarrow \pi^0 e^+ \overline{\nu}_e$ .

The coefficient  $C$  has the general form

$$
C=\sum_{u,c,t}U_{qs}^*U_{qd}\widetilde{C}_{v,q} ,
$$

where  $\tilde{C}_{v,q}$  have been calculated by Inami and Lim 1981). The  $\tilde{C}_{v,q}$  are functions of  $X_q = (m_q^2/m_w^2)$  and, because of the GIM (Glashow-Iliopolis-Maiani) cancellation, vanish as  $X_q$  goes to zero. Thus the t contribution dominates for large  $m_t$  even though it is suppressed by  $\lambda^4$ compared to the others. However, the  $c$  contribution





FIG. 4. Second-order electroweak diagrams contributing to  $K^+ \rightarrow \pi^+ \nu \overline{\nu}$  and  $K^0_L \rightarrow \pi^0 \nu \overline{\nu}$ .

remains important; it is proportional to

$$
\widetilde{C}_{v,c} \propto (X_c \ln X_c - \frac{1}{3} X_c) \ .
$$

Assuming  $m_c$  lies between 1.3 and 1.7 GeV, we see there is an uncertainty of  $\pm 22\%$  in the value of  $\tilde{C}_{v,c}$ . It is customary to set  $m_u$  and thus  $\tilde{C}_{v,u}$  equal to zero; it is not clear whether this introduces a significant additional error. One must also include the QCD correction calculated by Dib et al. (1989a) that depresses  $\tilde{C}_{v,c}$  by 30%.

The final result for the branching ratio given by Dib et al. (1989a) summed over three neutrino flavors can be written

$$
B(K^{\pm} \to \pi^{\pm} \nu \bar{\nu}) = 6\alpha^2 B(K^{\mp} \to \pi^0 e^{\mp} \nu_e) |C_{\nu}|^2
$$
  
= 1.5 × 10<sup>-5</sup> |C\_{\nu}|<sup>2</sup>,  

$$
C_{\nu} = 10^{-3} \{ (1 \pm 0.25) + 1.1 A^2 (1 - \rho - i \eta) X_t^{0.55} \}.
$$
 (4.6)

The first term in  $C_v$  is the charm term, where we estimate a total uncertainty of 25% mainly due to  $m_c$ . The  $X_t$  dependence is a very good approximation to the exact form of  $\tilde{C}_{v,t}$  for  $m_t$  between 100 and 200 GeV. For  $m_t \sim 140 \text{ GeV } (X_t = 3)$ , the  $m_t$  term is 1 to 3 times larger than the first term, depending mainly on the value of  $\rho$ . The measurement of the branching ratio primarily determines  $\rho$  with a small dependence on  $\eta^2$ . For example, if  $\rho$ is near zero, a measurement of the branching ratio to  $\pm 20\%$  would determine  $A^2(1-\rho)$  with a 15% uncertainty due to  $m<sub>c</sub>$  and another 15% uncertainty due to the experimental error, assuming  $m_t$ , has been determined to be 140 GeV. To use this result to form the unitarity triangle Dib, 1992) requires a knowledge of  $V_{td}/V_{cb}$  and thus of  $(1-\rho)$  rather than  $A^2(1-\rho)$ . It follows that a 10% error in  $A$  gives another 20% uncertainty. For the optimum case of  $\rho$  near zero, therefore, the error in  $\rho$  will be at least  $\pm 0.3$ .

The predicted branching ratio is about  $1.5 \times 10^{-10}$ within a factor of about 3 either way, depending on  $m_t$ and  $\rho$ . The present limit on the branching ratio is  $5 \times 10^{-9}$ , and an ongoing experiment (E787) at Brookhaven should see a few events, if the branching ratio is  $2 \times 10^{-10}$ . A measurement of the branching ratio to an accuracy of 20% probably awaits a much more intense source of kaons.

The same electroweak diagrams that contribute to  $K^+\rightarrow \pi^+\nu\bar{\nu}$  also contribute to the decay  $K^+\rightarrow \pi^+\mu^+\mu^-$ . However, in this case the primary contribution to the decay arises from the single-photon exchange, a weakelectromagnetic process, giving a branching ratio of order  $10^{-7}$ . It was pointed out by Savage and Wise (1990) that the interference between the electroweak amplitude and the leading amplitude produces a polarization of either of the muons. For these purposes the effective matrix element can be written

$$
\frac{G_F}{\sqrt{2}} \frac{e^2}{4\pi} \overline{s}_{\alpha} \gamma_{\mu} (1 - \gamma_5) d_{\alpha} \{ A \overline{\mu} \gamma_{\mu} \mu + C \overline{\mu} \gamma^{\mu} \gamma_5 \mu \},
$$

where  $\Lambda$  is the dominant photon-exchange contribution whose magnitude can be determined from the measured rate. The factor C is the same as in Eq.  $(4.5)$ ; only the axial coupling of the  $\mu$  is relevant for the polarization. Unfortunately, the expected polarization is 0.5% at most.

While the branching ratio for decays of form (4.1) seem too small, Soares (1992) and Ali and Greub (1992) have analyzed the possibility of using the branching ratio for  $B \rightarrow \rho + \gamma$ , which is proportional to  $|V_{td}|^2$  and expected to be  $10^{-6}$ . Soares has analyzed the problems in relating this decay to the observed decay  $B \rightarrow K^*+\gamma$  in order to reduce the uncertainty of the hadronic matrix element.

#### B. The determination of  $|V_{ub}|$

The element  $V_{ub}$  is to be determined by direct observation of decays of the form  $b \rightarrow u + l + v$ . There are three possibilities: (1) inclusive decays; (2) exclusive semileptonic decays like  $B \rightarrow \pi l \nu$  or  $B \rightarrow \rho l \nu$ ; and (3) the pure leptonic decays  $B^+ \rightarrow \tau^+ \nu_{\tau}$  or  $B^+ \rightarrow \mu^+ \nu_{\mu}$ .

The study of the inclusive decays depends on observations of the high-energy electron or muon beyond or near the end of the spectrum for  $B \rightarrow Dl\nu$ . This part of the spectrum necessarily includes a significant contribution from low-mass final states like  $\pi$ ,  $\rho$ , and  $A_2$ , but also important contributions from multipion "nonresonant" states. Some calculations model all the final states as resonances (Isgur et al., 1989); some use a form of the parton model (Altarelli et al., 1982); and some try to combine the two (Ramirez et al., 1990). Because such a small part of the spectrum can be studied, there is a sizable model dependence on the theoretical predictions. Much of the error of 50% on  $(\rho^2 + \eta^2)^{1/2}$  in Eq. (3.11) is theoretical in origin, and it is not clear that it can be reduced to less than about 30%.

In the case of decays of the form  $b \rightarrow c l v$ , it is generally believed that the exclusive decays can be analyzed theoretically with considerable accuracy as a result of the heavy-quark symmetry. No such simple analysis is possible for the exclusive decays  $B \rightarrow \pi l \nu$  or  $B \rightarrow \rho l \nu$ . A number of authors (Burdman and Donoghue, 1992b; Wise, 1992) have combined the heavy-quark symmetry with chiral symmetry to treat the decay  $B \rightarrow \pi l \nu$ , but it is not clear that quantitative results are possible. It has also been suggested that one could use the heavy-quark symmetry to relate decays such as  $B \rightarrow \rho l \nu$  to  $D \rightarrow \rho l \nu$ , since the KM element  $V_{cd}$  is known from unitarity. However, it is not clear whether this relation is any better than the scaling relation of  $f<sub>B</sub>$  to  $f<sub>D</sub>$ , which is now quite suspect. Another possibility (Burdman and Donoghue, 1992a) is to look at the ratio of  $B \rightarrow \rho l \nu$  to  $B \rightarrow K^* \gamma$ , since the matrix elements are related by SU(3) at one point in the Dalitz plot. All in all, it is not clear that exclusive semileptonic decays will prove better than inclusive.

The purely leptonic decays  $B \rightarrow l \nu$  are directly proportional to  $|V_{ub}|^2$ . The rate is given by

$$
\Gamma(B\to l\nu)=G^2f_B^2|V_{ub}|^2m_l^2(m_B^2-m_l^2)^2/8\pi m_B^3.
$$

This gives a branching ratio

$$
B_{\tau} = B (B^+ \to \tau^+ \nu_{\tau}) = 2.3 (f_B / f_{\pi})^2 |V_{ub}|^2
$$

of the order 10<sup>-4</sup>. The decay  $B^+ \rightarrow \mu^+ \nu_\mu$  is lower by another factor of 200. Such decays by themselves cannot improve the determination of  $V_{ub}$  because of the uncertainty in  $f<sub>B</sub>$ .

# V.  $K\rightarrow 2\pi$

#### A.  $\varepsilon'$  in the standard model

Within the standard model, one expects nonleptonic  $K$ decay to be dominated by the tree graph  $(W \text{ exchange})$ producing the quark transition

$$
s \to u + \overline{u} + d \tag{5.1}
$$

If this is the only amplitude, then there can be no direct CP violation and  $\varepsilon' = 0$ , since all nonleptonic decay amplitudes would have the common phase factor  $V_{us}V_{ud}^*$ . Gilman and Wise (1979) noted that a significant value of 'Gilman and Wise (1979) noted that a significant value of<br> $\varepsilon'$  could arise from "penguin graphs." These involve a loop diagram (Fig. 5) leading to

$$
s \to d + g \quad , \tag{5.2}
$$

where  $g$  is a gluon. Because the loop involves the  $c$  and  $t$ quarks as well as u quarks, the complex factors  $V_{cs}V_{cd}^*$ and  $V_{ts}V_{td}^*$  are involved. The penguin graphs lead to an



FIG. 5. Penguin diagram for direct  $CP$  violation in  $K$  and  $B$  decays. For K decays,  $q_1 = s$  and  $q_2 = d$ . For B decays,  $q_1 = b$  and  $q_2 = d$  or s.

effective four-quark operator of the form

$$
\overline{s}\lambda^{\alpha}\gamma^{\lambda}(1-\gamma^5)d\sum_{q}\overline{q}\lambda_{\alpha}\gamma_{\lambda}q.
$$

This operator corresponds to gluon exchange and thus involves two currents that are octets under SU(3) ( $\lambda^{\alpha}$  is the octet operator). The penguin operator has two important features: (1) It transforms as  $\Delta I = \frac{1}{2}$ , because the second factor involves a sum over quark fiavors. (2) It is not purely left-handed, because the gluon coupling is pure vector, that is, left plus right. The right-handed current coupled to the left-handed current yields an effective scalar operator  $Q_6$  after a Fierz transformation

$$
Q_6 = \sum_{q} \overline{s} (1 + \gamma_5) q \overline{q} (1 - \gamma_5) d \quad . \tag{5.3}
$$

The relatively large values expected for the matrix element of  $Q_6$  enhance the importance of penguin graphs.

As a result of the  $\Delta I = \frac{1}{2}$  property, the penguin operator contributes only to Im  $A_0$ . A theoretical value of  $\varepsilon'/\varepsilon$ can then be obtained from Eq. (2.8) using empirical values for  $\varepsilon$  and Re $A_0$ . Many calculations have been performed over the years; for values of  $m_t \lesssim m_w$ , the main uncertainty concerns the matrix element of  $Q_6$ (Donoghue, Golowich, and Holstein, 1986; Bardeen et al., 1987). The calculation of Buras and his collaborators (Buchalla et al., 1990; Buras et al., 1993) yields for  $m_t \approx m_w$ 

$$
\varepsilon'/\varepsilon = (1 \text{ to } 6) \times 10^{-3} A^2 \eta \tag{5.4}
$$

In this calculation the matrix element depends on  $m<sub>s</sub>$  (the strange-quark mass) and  $\Lambda_{\text{QCD}}$ , and the range of values corresponds to  $(m_s, \Lambda)$  between (200 MeV, 100 MeV) and (125 MeV, 300 MeV). Paschos and his collaborators (Paschos and Wu, 1991; Heinrich et al., 1992) claim that the  $\Delta I = \frac{1}{2}$  operators are enhanced in higher-order chiral perturbation theory, which can be interpreted as the final-state-interaction effect in the  $I = 0$  state. Their results for  $m_t \sim m_w$  are about a factor of 2 higher,

$$
e'/\varepsilon = (4 \text{ to } 8) \times 10^{-3} A^2 \eta , \qquad (5.5)
$$

for  $m_s$  ranging from 175 to 125 MeV and  $\Lambda_{\text{QCD}}=200$ MeV. Since fits to the CKM matrix for  $m_t \sim 100 \text{ GeV}$ give  $A^2\eta \sim 0.3$  within a factor of 2, Eqs. (5.4) and (5.5) suggest that  $\varepsilon'/\varepsilon$  should be equal to  $10^{-3}$  within a factor of about 4 either way.

From Eq. (2.8) it is evident that a value of  $\text{Im} A_2$  much smaller than  $\text{Im} A_0$  can be of importance, because Re $A_2$ is much smaller empirically than  $\text{Re } A_0$ . Taking into account isospin violations, particularly  $\pi^0 - \eta - \eta'$  mixing (Donoghue, Golowich, Holstein, and Trampetic, 1986), can result in a nonzero  $\text{Im} A_2$  starting with the operator  $Q_6$ . Calculations (Buchalla et al., 1990) indicate this decreases  $\varepsilon'/\varepsilon$  by about 30%, and this correction has been included in Eqs. (5.4) and (5.5). A more important issue is the "electroweak penguin" corresponding to loop diagrams (Fig. 6) that yield the transitions

$$
s \to d + \gamma \quad , \tag{5.6a}
$$

$$
s \rightarrow d + Z \tag{5.6b}
$$

Because of the isovector coupling of the photon and the 'Z to the quarks, these transitions lead to effective  $\Delta I = \frac{3}{2}$ operators. A complete gauge-invariant calculation includes box diagrams (Fig. 6) as well. When the effect of (5.6a) was introduced by Bijnens and Wise (1984), it was found to be not very important given the other uncertainty. However, as  $m_t$  increases above  $m_w$ , the contribution of (5.6b) begins to increase roughly as  $m_t^2$ . Calculations show that the resulting phase  $\varphi_2$  (corresponding to Im  $A_2$ /Re  $A_2$ ) has the same sign as  $\varphi_0$  (corresponding to Im  $A_0$ /Re $A_0$ ), so that the two terms in Eq. (2.8) tend to cancel (Flynn and Randall, 1989c) as  $m<sub>t</sub>$  increases.

Detailed calculations of the electroweak penguin have



FIG. 6. Second-order electroweak diagrams contributing to  $\varepsilon'$ . These same diagrams contribute to  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 e^+e^-$  when qq is replaced by ee.

been given by a number of authors. The Buras group (Buchalla et al., 1991) concludes that as  $m_t$ , goes well above  $m_w$ , the result of Eq. (5.4) must be multiplied by

$$
(1+P_yX_t^{0.65}+0.18P_zX_t^{0.93})\ ,\qquad \qquad (5.7)
$$

where  $X_t = (m_t/m_w)^2$ ,  $P_y \le 0.1$ , and  $P_z \approx -1.1$ . It is the  $P<sub>z</sub>$  term associated with  $Z$  exchange that is important and gives the result that  $\varepsilon'/\varepsilon$  actually is expected to vanish for  $m<sub>t</sub>$  somewhere between 200 and 250 GeV. For  $m_t \approx 2m_w$ , there is a reduction by a factor of about 2. The Paschos group emphasizes that the cancellation is between the amplitude of the usual penguin going to the  $I = 0$  state and that of the electroweak penguin going to the  $I = 2$  state. In their calculation, final-state interactions enhance the amplitude to the  $I = 0$  state and depress that to the  $I = 2$  state. As a result, they predict a much smaller decrease with  $m_t$ , and  $\varepsilon'/\varepsilon$  does not vanish for any value of  $m_t$ . For a fixed value of  $A^2\eta$ , they find only about a 15% decrease due to the electroweak penguin for  $m_t \approx 2m_w$ .

In spite of some disagreements, three recent detailed calculations (Heinrich et al., 1992; Buras et al., 1993; Ciuchina et al., 1993) give similar predictions with large theoretical uncertainties. In particular, given the present indications that  $m<sub>t</sub>$  lies between 100 and 200 GeV, the standard model clearly predicts a nonzero positive value for  $\epsilon'/\epsilon$ . The present theoretical uncertainties in the evaluation of matrix elements together with the uncertainty in the value of  $\eta$  allow for a large range of values from as low as  $10^{-4}$  to as high as  $3 \times 10^{-3}$ .

#### B. Experimental results on  $\epsilon'/\epsilon$ .

Here we discuss what is currently known of the parameter  $\epsilon'/\epsilon$  and what is likely to be learned in the near future. The three active experiments will be described in this section. There are two recent determinations, by the E731 group at Fermilab and by the NA31 group at CERN, and <sup>a</sup> third group —CPLEAR (low-energy antiproton ring for the study of  $CP$  violation)—is taking data.

#### 1. The CPLEAR experiment at CERN

This experiment (PS195) is a collaboration of Athens, Basel, Boston, CERN, Coimbra, Delft, Fribourg, Ioannina, Ljubljana, Liverpool, Marseille, Saclay, PSI (Paul-Scherrer-Institute, Switzerland), Stockholm, Thessaloniki, and IMP/ETH Zurich. The group is studying the tagged decays of  $K^0 \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-$  and  $\pi^0\pi^0$  through antiproton annihilations at rest to  $K^-\pi^+K^0$  and its conjugate. Since the  $K^0$  (anti  $K^0 \times K_S \pm K_L$ , any CP-violating interference term in the particle decay will have opposite sign from the antiparticle decay. From a small amount of data taken in 1990 (Adler et al., 1992), the group has clearly observed such an interference term. This leads to

the results

$$
\eta_{+-}
$$
 = 2.24(16)×10<sup>-3</sup> and  $\Phi_{+-}$  = 46.8°+3.5°,

both in good agreement with the values reported by the Particle Data Group.

With about 200 days of running, the group expects errors of less than 1° for  $\varphi_{+-}$  and for the phase difference  $\varphi_{+-}$  –  $\varphi_{00}$  and an error of about 1.5 × 10<sup>-3</sup> on  $\varepsilon'/\varepsilon$ .

## 2. The E731 Fermilab and NA31 CERN approaches

The first Fermilab experiment on  $\varepsilon'/\varepsilon$  was E617. Proposed in 1979, it ran in 1982. The result (Bernstein et al., 1985) was consistent with zero with a precision of 0.006. A BNL experiment (Black et al., 1985) at about the same time had similar sensitivity. In 1983, the Fermilab group (E731, a collaboration from Chicago, Elmhurst, Fermilab, Illinois, and Saclay) proposed a new beam to make the measurement with a precision of 0.001. A year later, a CERN group (NA31, a collaboration from CERN, Edinburgh, Mainz, Orsay, Pisa, and Siegen) proposed a measurement with similar sensitivity. E731 had a brief test run in 1985, with the result  $\varepsilon'/\varepsilon$  $=0.0032\pm0.0030$  (Woods *et al.*, 1988). For that test run, it was required that one photon convert in a thin conversion plane in the middle of the decay region. This was done to give more information on the decay point. An extensive upgrade followed the 1985 run, which permitted the use of events with. no conversion and thus much higher statistics. E731 then had one run, for five months, in the 1987/88 fixed-target run. The CERN experiment ran in 1986, 1988, and 1989; in 1987 they took data to measure  $\Phi_{+-}$  and  $\Phi_{00}$ . Results are available from both collaborations, and we shall make a comparative analysis here.

To extract  $\epsilon'/\epsilon$ , one clearly needs to *count* accurately decays of  $K_S$  and  $K_L$  into both  $\pi^+\pi^-$  and  $2\pi^0$ . We can largely treat these experiments as counting experiments and discuss their systematics accordingly. To be sure, there are other systematic effects associated with calibration and with background corrections, but the experiments are not particularly different with respect to these effects.

The NA31 experiment uses purely calorimetric detectors for the reconstruction of the particle energies. The NA31 detector is shown in Fig. 7. This is the first attempt to do a high-precision kaon-decay experiment without a magnet. The  $K<sub>S</sub>$  are derived from a close target which moves throughout the decay region, thereby very much reducing the acceptance corrections for  $K_S$  vs  $K_L$  decays. Both  $K_S$  decay modes are collected at once, alternating with the taking of both  $K_L$  modes. The two modes use essentially orthogonal detectors; so the stability of this technique in the presence of pileup effects, detector drifts, and changing accelerator and background conditions needs to be closely monitored.

The E731 experiment uses a more conventional magnetic spectrometer. The E731 detector is shown in Fig. 8. The  $K<sub>S</sub>$  are derived from a (fixed) regenerator placed in one of two  $K_L$  beams. Decays from both beams ( $K_L$ )

50 cm ANTIRINGS DETECTOR PLASTIC WINDOW ANTIRINGS DETECTOR **REGION ANTIRINGS**  $K_S$  ANT I  $10m$ K S TARGET He VACUUM 450 GeV n PROTONS MUON VETO ~HADRON CAL  $k_S^{\dagger}$ K TARGET K L \_COLL IMATOR<br>-COLLIMATQR A CAL  $50 m$ WIRE CHAMBER 2 In the contract of the contract of the contract of the contract of DECAY REGION WIRE CHAMBER <sup>1</sup>  $-250 M -$ 

FIG. 7. Schematic of NA31 detector.

Rev. Mod. Phys. , Vol. 65, No. 4, October 1993



FIG. 8. Schematic of E731 detector.

and  $K<sub>S</sub>$ ) are collected simultaneously. Thus both  $2\pi^0$ modes are collected, alternating with the taking of both  $\pi^+\pi^-$  modes. As such, rate effects, detector and accelerator drifts become negligible. However, because of the difference in lifetimes (which translates into a difference in decay vertex position), one needs to use a Monte Carlo for the detector acceptance.

For accurate counting of decays, one needs to worry about losses. For NA31, the primary concern is losses at the data collection and analysis stages, while for E731 it is mostly in the acceptance corrections. These different sensitivities arise from the major differences in the experimental techniques for the measurement of the four decay rates.

Some other relevant factors in the comparison of the two experiments are the following. The E731 selection criteria are blind to  $K_S$  vs  $K_L$ , the distinction being made only at the level of background subtraction. In other words, track quality cuts, fiducial cuts, and kinematic reconstruction and selection are done without knowledge of from which beam the kaon decayed. The NA31 selection criteria discard about 40% of otherwise good  $\pi^+\pi^$ decays based upon hadron calorimetry. The lack of a magnet necessitates this rather large loss in order to keep the  $\pi e \nu$  background at a manageable level. This loss must be absolutely stable; it has been checked using a transition radiation detector that was installed for the '88 run. The NA31 electromagnetic calorimeter (lead liquid Ar) is superior to that of E731 (lead glass): its energy and

position resolution are 0.5% +  $8\%/\sqrt{E}$  and 0.8 mm, respectively, compared to 1.5%  $+5\%/\sqrt{E}$  and 3.5 mm. The E731 tracking chambers have 100  $\mu$ m plane resolution compared to about 750  $\mu$ m for those of NA31.

#### 3. Results from the two experiments

Based upon the data taken in 1986, the NA31 group announced (Burkhardt et al., 1988) a departure in the double ratio (2.10) of 2.0% with a statistical error of 0.4% and a systematic error of 0.5%. This gives the result

$$
Re(\varepsilon'/\varepsilon) = (33 \pm 6.7 \pm 8.3) \times 10^{-4} (NA31, '86).
$$

The first result from the E731 group was taken from an analysis of 20% of the data sample. For this sample, all four modes were collected simultaneously (Patterson et al., 1990). The result was

$$
Re(\epsilon'/\epsilon) = (-4 \pm 14 \pm 6) \times 10^{-4}
$$

(E731, 20% sample) .

The results were not in the best of agreement: the NA31 result indicated a significantly nonzero effect, while the E731 result was still consistent with zero.

The E731 result from the full data set is now available (Gibbons et al., 1993a). As a result of improvements to the calibration techniques and in the understanding of the detector, the systematic error was reduced by a factor of 2. An enlarged fiducial region was also used for the final analysis. With the new techniques, the 20% data sample was reanalyzed with the result changing by  $1.6 \times 10^{-4}$ , well within the systematic error. The result is then

$$
\text{Re}(\epsilon'/\epsilon) = (7.4 \pm 5.2 \pm 2.9) \times 10^{-4}
$$
 (E731, final result).

This implies that  $\text{Re}(\varepsilon'/\varepsilon) \leq 17 \times 10^{-4}$  (95% confidence) and so does not support the rather large result from NA31.

At this time, these are the only published results available. In the summer of 1991, the NA31 group gave preliminary results for their '88 and '89 runs (Barr, 1992). The following were presented:

 $Re(\epsilon'/\epsilon) = (17 \pm 6.5 \pm 7) \times 10^{-4}$ 

(NA31, '88 preliminary)

and

 $Re(\epsilon'/\epsilon) = (21 \pm 5.3 \pm 7) \times 10^{-4}$ 

(NA31, '89 preliminary) .

The combined result, taking into account correlated systematic errors, is

$$
Re(\varepsilon'/\varepsilon) = (23 \pm 3.5 \pm 6) \times 10^{-4}
$$
  
(NA31, 86, 88, 89 preliminary).

This is more than three standard deviations from zero and thus would appear to rule out the superweak model with very high confidence. The error is dominantly systematic.

The E731 group has also reported (Gibbons et al., 1993b) precise values for other parameters of the neutral-kaon system determined from the  $2\pi$  data samples. The results are

$$
\tau_S = (0.8929 \pm 0.0016) \times 10^{-10} \text{ sec} ,
$$
  
\n
$$
\Delta m = (0.5286 \pm 0.0028) \times 10^{10} \text{ sec}^{-1} ,
$$
  
\n
$$
\Phi_{+-} - \Phi_{00} = (-1.6 \pm 1.2)^{\circ} ,
$$
  
\n
$$
\Phi_{+-} = (42.2 \pm 1.4)^{\circ} .
$$

We give the statistical data samples in Table I and background levels in Table II for the three runs of NA31 and the one run of E731.

TABLE I. Statistical samples  $(10^3 \text{ events})$  for NA31 and E731.

		NA31 '86 NA31 '88 NA31 '89		E731
$K_L \rightarrow 2\pi^0$	109	110	180	410
$K_L \rightarrow \pi^+ \pi^-$	295	290	470	327
$K_s \rightarrow 2\pi^0$	932	560	630	800
$K_S \rightarrow \pi^+ \pi^-$	2300	1380	1530	1060
Error in $R(2.10)$	0.38%	$0.39\%$	0.32%	$0.28\%$

TABLE II. Background levels (%) for NA31 and E731.

	NA31 '86 NA31 '88 NA31 '89 E731			
$K_I \rightarrow 2\pi^0 (3\pi^0)$	4.0	3.2	2.6	1.78
$K_L \rightarrow \pi^+ \pi^-$	0.6	0.9		0.32
$\%$ shift in R $(2.10)$				
from "accidentals"	$-0.34$	0.05	— N 48	$-0.10$

4. Discussion of the two experiments

From the above tables, we can discern the following. The statistical precision for the E731 data run exceeds that of any of the NA31 runs. However, combining the three runs of NA31 gives a statistical precision about 30% better than E731.

Mostly because of the shorter decay region, the residual background from  $3\pi^0$  under the  $K_L \rightarrow 2\pi^0$  signal in E731 is about 50% smaller than in NA31. This is important, since the number of the residual  $3\pi^0$  events is determined by a complex simulation, requiring, for example, knowledge of the efficiency of the many veto counters for very low-energy photons. E731 also has the "crossover" background, where incoherent  $K<sub>S</sub>$  from the regenerator reconstruct in the vacuum beam. While this background is at the 2.5% level, it is argued that it is nearly canceled by incoherent events which remain in the regenerator beam. In addition, this efFect is precisely measured, with the well-reconstructed incoherent events decaying into  $\pi^{+}\pi^{-}$ ; and it is this distribution which is used for the subtractions in the  $\pi^0 \pi^0$  samples.

The background in the  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-$  sample is significantly smaller in E731. This is mostly because of the magnetic spectrometer. The determination of the level of residual events is more complex in NA31 because of the poorer mass resolution: 23 MeV/ $c^2$  in NA31; 3.5  $MeV/c^2$  in E731.

The shift in the double ratio from accidental activity is generally greater in NA31 than in E731. This arises simply from the fact that, in E731, the two neutral or charged modes are collected at the same time.

The most significant differences between the two experiments are likely the following. NA31 has to be concerned that collecting the two  $\pi^+ \pi^-$  ( $\pi^0 \pi^0$ ) samples at different times under different rate conditions will introduce shifts in the overall efficiency. This is not an issue for E731. On the other hand, E731 has to be concerned about the large relative acceptance corrections that need to be made. This is not an issue for NA31 because of the motion of the  $K<sub>S</sub>$  source throughout the  $K<sub>L</sub>$  decay region. To address this problem, E731 has made heavy use of the decays  $K_L \rightarrow 3\pi^0$  and  $K_L \rightarrow \pi e \nu$ , which provide checks of the understanding of the detector; the vertex distributions (data and Monte Carlo) for these as well as for the CP-violating modes are given in Gibbons et al. (1993a).

The recent  $\varepsilon'/\varepsilon$  results are given in Table III.





'Preliminary.

#### 5. Summary of current knowledge of  $\varepsilon'/\varepsilon$

The question arises as to what to use for the result or, in other words, how to average the information from the two experiments. There are always difhculties in the averaging of results from different experiments. In this particular case, we first have the problem that the E731 result is final while the NA31 results from 1988 and 1989 data are still preliminary. Second, the E731 error is dominated by statistical uncertainty, whereas, as it now stands, those for NA31 are systematics dominated; and the procedure for averaging in such a case is somewhat cloudy. Third, when the central values are not in the best of agreement, there are again difhculties.

As is standard practice, we shall use all data whose results are within a factor of 3 in accuracy of the best result. Then we need only use the NA31 and E731 results in the averaging. We shall adopt the approach of the Particle Data Group, which has a well-known procedure for error inflation when central values are in disagreement. First consider only the published data from both groups; then the average value is 13.1, with a  $\chi^2$  value of 4.2. The procedure is then to inflate the error by  $\sqrt{\chi^2}$ , so that we have

 $\text{Re}(\varepsilon'/\varepsilon) = (13 \pm 11) \times 10^{-4}$  (published results).

The same procedure, using the NA31 preliminary result, gives an average value of 13.9 with a  $\chi^2$  value of 2.9. We then have

 $Re(\varepsilon'/\varepsilon) = (14\pm8)\times10^{-4}$ 

(E731 published, NA31 preliminary) .

In any case, while the average is well within the range expected in the standard model, the evidence for a nonzero effect is less than two standard deviations.

### 6. Upgrade plans of NA31 and E731

Each of the two groups has proposed to make improved measurements, and both groups are now approved to do so. These measurements should commence

sometime in 1995, and the goals are a determination of  $\epsilon'/\epsilon$  with a precision in the range  $1-2 \times 10^{-4}$ . Fermilab E832 (Arisaka et al., 1990) will use the identical technique of E731 with a new beam and detector; CERN NA48 (Barr et al., 1990b) will use a new technique to be discussed below, again with a new beam and detector.

With the attainment of this precision, we have seen from the previous section that if the standard model is the right model for  $CP$  violation, there is a very good chance that a nonzero effect will be established. In this section, we shall discuss the necessary modifications in order to reach this level of precision.

First, without distinguishing the two experiments, we shall make some general observations. In order to achieve 10<sup>-4</sup> precision, at a minimum one must collect 3 million  $K_L \rightarrow 2\pi^0$  decays. These decays are usually the mode with the limiting statistics; however, since a part of the statistical error will result from the three other more copious decays, a number more like 4 or 5 million is actually required. This is about one order of magnitude greater than either group has collected. The increase results from the building of beams that can deliver higher intensity, choosing detector elements that can handle higher rates, and improving the data-acquisition hardware in order to have greater live-time.

We now turn to sources of systematic error. In general, there are four classes of systematic uncertainty.

The first is due to backgrounds; each of the four modes will have some residual background which must be determined, modeled, and subtracted. It is the uncertainty in the subtracted events that is the source of the systematic error.

The second is due to energy calibration. The (double) ratio of decay rates is measured in the laboratory; however, it is required in the center-of-mass system. In order to boost back to the center-of-mass system, the reconstructed kaon energy must be accurately known. In fact, it is the relative energy scale, between the charged decay products and the neutral decay products, that is needed.

The third is due to acceptance. The  $K_S$  and  $K_L$  have different decay distributions, and an apparatus with a vertex-dependent acceptance will introduce a bias which needs to be determined, modeled, and corrected.

The fourth source is due to residual activity in the detector not associated with the event in question; it goes by the name "accidentals." Such activity can reject an event or cause an otherwise unacceptable event to be counted, and these gains and losses can be mode dependent. Such efFects need again to be modeled and corrected for.

We shall now treat the approaches of each of the two groups regarding these classes of systematics.

Regarding backgrounds, for E731 and NA31, the worst backgrounds were at the level of a few percent, and so these needed to be modeled carefully: a  $1\%$  shift in the double ratio corresponds to  $1.6 \times 10^{-3}$  in  $\epsilon'/\epsilon$ . For the new efforts, the background levels will be substantial-Iy reduced, so much so that detailed modeling of the residual effects will likely not be necessary.



FIG. 9. The layout of the CERN NA48 experiment.

The reduction of the backgrounds is a direct result of the new electromagnetic calorimeters used by both groups for photon and electron energy measurements. These devices will offer the greatest possible precision. The  $\pi^0 \pi^0$  decays will be reconstructed with excellent resolution, and this will result in greatly increased background rejection. Background in  $\pi^+\pi^-$  comes largely from  $\pi$ ev decays, and the new calorimeters, with much better " $E/p$ " resolution, will greatly reduce this as well. Figure 9 shows the new NA48 detector; Fig. 10 shows the new E832 detector.

The E832 group will use crystals of pure CsI, while NA48 will use a detector of liquid krypton. Both of these devices are quite sophisticated, and their construction and installation are critical path items for the respective detectors. Although successful prototype detectors for both technologies have been built, there is no experience with large detectors of either type at present. Both give



FIG. 10. The layout of the Fermilab E832/799 experiment.

excellent energy and position resolution. Liquid krypton is slower and as well has a larger Molier radius and more interaction lengths, so that photon showers will be fatter and more hadrons will interact relative to pure CsI. However, CsI is harder to calibrate and probably more prone to radiation damage.

The new electromagnetic calorimeters will address the second class of systematic error, the (relative) energy scale. NA48 will use a magnetic spectrometer, so both groups will have the charged energy scale with negligible uncertainty. The positions and bend angles of charged pions are very reliably measured in drift chambers, and the magnetic field of the analyzing magnets can be accurately determined, at least relatively. This leaves one overall scale on the magnetic field which can be adjusted to the accurately known kaon mass. This procedure can also be checked with the  $\Lambda$  mass. In contrast, the neutral energy scale is much more problematic in that one has to deal with possible nonlinearities in the response of the electromagnetic detector. Calibration with electrons is very helpful, but the final adjustment on the overall energy scale relies on the sharp edge in the reconstructed vertex for the  $K<sub>S</sub>$  decays. This can be done with a residual uncertainty below the statistical one.

The acceptance issue is addressed differently by the two groups. The E731/E832 group has used a Monte Carlo technique to determine the relative difference in acceptance for  $K_S$  vs  $K_L$ . This requires attention to minimize sources of the difference and a detailed understanding of the detector in its response to charged and neutral particles. To achieve this understanding, a very large number of  $\pi$ ev and  $3\pi$ <sup>0</sup> decays are collected simultaneously with the  $2\pi$  decays, so that the relevant detector properties can be accurately determined with a very large, orthogonal data set.

Formerly, NA31 moved the source of  $K<sub>S</sub>$  along the beam, thus simulating the distribution of  $K_L$  decays, and this made their reliance on Monte Carlo minimal. However, now they will not do so and will rather have a fixed source of  $K<sub>S</sub>$  decays. In NA48, the plan is to use an event-weighting scheme whereby  $K_L$  decays are weighted by the expected  $K<sub>S</sub>$  distribution. This gives up statistical power, but in principle avoids the use of a Monte Carlo. This technique is equivalent to determining the ratio of  $K_S$  to  $K_L$  events in small vertex bins, small enough so that any change in acceptance over the bin is negligible. However, one is then very sensitive to the way in which events get moved from one vertex bin to another due to resolution smearing, and one needs to understand the response of the electromagnetic detector, that is, resolution tails and non-Gaussian effects. So, in effect, either one understands the average detector responses well enough to make the acceptance corrections or one understands the resolution-smearing effects well enough to use very small vertex bins.

To treat the final class of systematic uncertainty, accidental activity, we shall describe the two different techniques used to derive a  $K<sub>S</sub>$  beam.

E731 has used two simultaneous beams, one in which  $K_L$  decays are recorded and the other in which  $K_S$  decays are recorded. The beams are side-by-side and identical in physical dimensions. The important principle in this approach is that one is recording  $K_S$  and  $K_L$  to  $\pi^+\pi^-$  (or  $\pi^0\pi^0$ ) simultaneously; this guarantees that one is relatively immune to the inevitable small changes in detector or accelerator performance. Accidental activity in the detector will largely affect  $K_L$  and  $K_S$  decays the same. E731 also took a part of its data recording all four modes simultaneously. While not essential, this ensures, for example, that the incident momentum spectrum is identical for all four decays, and this is a valuable constraint in comparing the performance of the detector for charged vs neutral decays. E832 will use two beams and record all four modes simultaneously.

An important element of the new NA48 approach is that they will now use two beams. In addition, they will record all four modes at the same time. Thus the issue of accidental activity appears to be adequately addressed by both groups.

However, there remain significant differences in the way in which the  $K<sub>S</sub>$  beams are derived, and these can have an impact on the performance of the experiment. E731 has used a thick regenerator in the second  $K_L$  beam to provide the necessary  $K_S$  component through coherent regeneration; the same technique will be used in E832. NA48 will target a very low-intensity beam on a nearby target to give their source of  $K_S$  decays. The choice of the best technique is not obvious; here we shall list the relative advantages and disadvantages.

(1) For E832, the two beams are identical in shape, whereas, by necessity, for NA48 the  $K<sub>S</sub>$  beam has larger divergence.

(2) For E832, the  $K_S/K_L$  distinction is made on the basis of where the event reconstructs; the beams are separated by several cm in order that this can be made cleanly. For NA48, the distinction is made on the basis of tagging counters in the primary proton beam incident upon the  $K<sub>S</sub>$  target. Although this scheme has never been tried, it should work even at the high rates envisioned, and this allows the beams to be physically closer.

(3) For E832, the roles of the two beams will be interchanged on a pulse-by-pulse basis, thereby eliminating a possible source of asymmetry. This cannot be done with the NA48 technique.

(4) The use of a regenerator allows the study of  $K_L$ - $K_S$ interference, and this can provide independent corroborating evidence for an  $\varepsilon'/\varepsilon$  signal.

(5) The regenerator will scatter some kaons inelastically so that they reconstruct in the wrong beam. This "crossover" background was at the few percent level in E731. In a subsequent run (E773), a new "active" regenerator made of plastic scintillator was used, and the level of inelastic regeneration was reduced by a factor of 10. Such a regenerator will be used in E832.

(6) The incident neutrons and kaons interacting inelast-

ically in the regenerator give a higher ambient level of background in the E832 detector. Thus the accidental activity wiIl be greater.

# 7. Is  $10^{-4}$  sensitivity the limit?

At the current accelerators (Fermilab, CERN), the limiting factor in the precision on  $\varepsilon'/\varepsilon$  may very well be simply statistics. So, if it is necessary to continue measuring  $\varepsilon'/\varepsilon$  after the next round of experiments, a new facility will likely be required.

The Main Injector ring at Fermilab can be used as a source of very high intensity, high duty-cycle 120 GeV protons, which can be used to provide a much more intense neutral-kaon beam. A study (Arisaka et al., 1991) indicates that a measurement with a precision in the range  $2 \times 10^{-5}$  is possible. The KAON facility (Gill, 1990) at TRIUMF can also provide very high-intensity kaons, although at a lower energy, and a measurement of  $\epsilon'/\epsilon$  could likely be done there as well. However, a necessary ingredient will be experience with the next generation of measurements at the  $10^{-4}$  level.

# 8. The Frascati  $\Phi$  factory

We briefly discuss the prospects for determining  $\epsilon'/\epsilon$ . at a  $\Phi$  factory (Franzini, 1992). Such a project has been approved for Frascati, and there are similar plans at both UCLA and Novosibirsk. The  $\Phi$ 's are produced by  $e^+e^$ collisions, and the final state of  $K_L K_S \rightarrow \pi^+ \pi^- 4\gamma$  is studied. One needs very high statistics and a detector that can collect as many  $K_L$  decays as is practical, given that the  $K_L$  lifetime is about 340 cm. The overall acceptance (acc) must be high, and its variation over the fiducial radius  $(R)$  of the detector must be very well understood. Very good electromagnetic calorimetry is required. A straightforward calculation shows that the (statistical) error on  $\varepsilon'/\varepsilon$  can be expressed as

$$
\sigma_{\varepsilon'/\varepsilon} = 1.9 \times 10^{-4} \times \sqrt{10^{40} / \int L \, dt} \, \times \sqrt{50\% / \text{acc}} \times \sqrt{1 m / R} \quad . \tag{5.8}
$$

The systematic issues with this technique are very different from those using accelerators; so a result in this range would be very interesting. It is clear that integrated luminosities on the order of  $10^{40}$  are required.

# VI. DIRECT CP-VIOLATING EFFECTS IN OTHER STRANGE-PARTICLE DECAYS

The same physics that contributes to  $\varepsilon'$  also induces direct CP violation in other well-known strange-particle decays. However, while  $\varepsilon'$  has been determined to be less than  $10^{-5}$  and, as discussed, will be measured to a level below  $10^{-6}$ , no comparable accuracy exists for any other strange-particle decay. Nevertheless, it may be worth considering other decays for the following reasons.

(1)  $\varepsilon'$  is suppressed by a factor of  $\omega = (\text{Re} A_2 / \sigma^2)$  $\text{Re}A_0 \cong 0.045$ , as shown in Eq. (2.8), because of the predominance of one amplitude in  $K \rightarrow 2\pi$  decay ( $\Delta I = \frac{1}{2}$ ) rule). This suppression need not occur in some other strange-particle decays.

(2) For large values of  $m<sub>t</sub>$ , there may be an additional suppression factor for  $\varepsilon'$ , as shown in Eq. (5.7), and this suppression factor may not be present in other decays.

The decay  $K_S \rightarrow 3\pi^0$  is CP violating just as  $K_L \rightarrow 2\pi$  is. The decay  $K_S \rightarrow \pi^+ \pi^- \pi^0$  can occur without CP violation only if the final state is the  $I = 2$  state involving pions in p waves; as a result, it is expected to be highly suppressed. In either case, the best chance of seeing CP violation is to observe an interference effect producing a difference in the decays  $K^0 \rightarrow 3\pi$  and  $\overline{K}$   $\overset{0}{\rightarrow} 3\pi$  as a function of time. At the center of the Dalitz plot (or averaged over the

Dalitz plot) this difference measures the  $CP$ -violating quantities

$$
\eta_{000} = \frac{A (K_S \to 3\pi^0)}{A (K_L \to 3\pi^0)} ,
$$
  

$$
\eta_{+-0} = \frac{A (K_S \to \pi^+ \pi^- \pi^0)}{A (K_L \to \pi^+ \pi^- \pi^0)} .
$$

Note in this interference term  $\eta_{+-0}$  there is no contribution from the CP-conserving  $K_S \rightarrow \pi^+ \pi^- \pi^0$  amplitude.) As in the  $K \rightarrow 2\pi$  case, we can write

$$
\eta_{000} = \varepsilon + \varepsilon'_{000} ,
$$
  
\n
$$
\eta_{+-0} = \varepsilon + \varepsilon'_{+-0} .
$$
\n(6.1)

Our interest here is in the quantities  $\varepsilon'_{000}$  and  $\varepsilon'_{+-0}$ , which are signs of direct CP violation. So far experiments on  $K^0 \rightarrow 3\pi$  have provided limits on  $\eta_{000}$  and  $\eta_{+-0}$ of about 0.3 and so are not sensitive enough even to measure at the level of  $\varepsilon$ .

The dominant amplitude  $A_1$  for the decay  $K^0 \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-\pi^0$  is a transition to the  $I = 1$  symmetric state of three pions. Then

$$
\epsilon'_{+-0} \approx i \left[ \operatorname{Im} A_1 / \operatorname{Re} A_1 - \operatorname{Im} A_0 / \operatorname{Re} A_0 \right], \tag{6.2}
$$

corresponding to the relative CP-violating phase between the dominant  $K^0 \rightarrow 2\pi$  and  $K^0 \rightarrow 3\pi$  amplitudes. It was pointed out by Li and Wolfenstein (1980) that in the soft-pion limit in the standard model the two phases are the same, and so in this approximation  $\varepsilon'_{+ - 0}$  vanishes. A nonzero value results when  $\Delta I = 3/2$  amplitudes are included, in which case one predicts  $\varepsilon'_{+-0}$  has the same order of magnitude as  $\varepsilon'$ ; both are suppressed by the  $\Delta I = \frac{1}{2}$  rule. However, the dominant contribution to  $\varepsilon'_{+}$  may really come from Eq. (6.2) by going beyond the soft-pion limit (Donoghue et al., 1987c). The result is then suppressed by a factor  $(m_K/\Lambda)^2$ , where  $\Lambda$  is the "scale of chiral symmetry breaking," but the result is not so small as implied by the Li-Wolfenstein argument. It has also been argued that the electroweak penguin  $(Z \text{ exchange})$ 

contribution, which suppresses  $\varepsilon'$  for large  $m_t$ , actually somewhat enhances  $\varepsilon'_{+-0}$ . A detailed analysis (Cheng, 991) leads to the result that  $\epsilon'_{+ -0}/\epsilon$  and  $\epsilon'_{000}/\epsilon$  have an order of magnitude of about  $10^{-2}$  in the standard model.

Direct CP-violating effects could also be found by comparing  $K^+$  and  $K^-$  decays. Two measures are

$$
\Delta\Gamma(\tau) = \left[\Gamma(K^+\to\pi^+\pi^+\pi^-)-\Gamma(K^-\to\pi^-\pi^-\pi^+)\right]/\left[\Gamma(K^+\to\pi^+\pi^+\pi^-)+\Gamma(K^-\to\pi^-\pi^-\pi^+)\right],
$$
 and

$$
\Delta g(\tau) = [g(\pi^+\pi^+\pi^-) - g(\pi^-\pi^-\pi^+)]/[g(\pi^+\pi^+\pi^-) + g(\pi^-\pi^-\pi^+)] ,
$$

where g is the slope parameter of the Dalitz plot, which measures the dependence on the energy of the odd pion. In either case it is necessary to see an interference effect between the amplitude for the dominant symmetric  $I = 1$ state and a second amplitude; the result is proportional to a final-state phase shift, likely to be small because of the low energy of the pions. Rough estimates of the expectations in the standard model are  $\Delta\Gamma(\tau) < 10^{-6}$  (Grinstein et al., 1986) and  $\Delta g(\tau) < 10^{-4}$  (D'Ambrosio et al., 1991), whereas present limits on either are a few times  $10^{-3}$ .

To experimentally address CP violation in  $3\pi$  decays of the neutral kaon, it is necessary to have a source of  $K<sub>S</sub>$ mesons. There are three techniques that are currently possible. The first uses a tagged  $K^0$  or  $\overline{K}$ <sup>0</sup> and looks for the interference in the first few  $K<sub>S</sub>$  lifetimes downstream of the source. The interference conveniently changes sign as one goes from particle to antiparticle, allowing important systematic studies. This is the approach of the CPLEAR Collaboration, operating at the LEAR facility at CERN. Because of difficulties in the detection of an all-photon final state, there is little sensitivity to the parameter  $\eta_{000}$ . It is estimated that the CP-violating parameter  $\eta_{+-0}$  can be determined with a precision of about  $6 \times 10^{-4}$  (Adler, 1992).

The second uses an enriched  $K^0$  beam at a high-energy accelerator and again studies the decay distribution in the first few lifetimes downstream of the target. Here a comparison must be made with a pure  $K_L$  beam, ideally running simultaneously. This was the approach of the Fermilab E621 collaboration. Here a result has been given in conference for  $|\eta_{+- 0}|$  (Border *et al.*, 1987); with the data in hand, a result with a sensitivity of  $5 \times 10^{-3}$  is expected, and it is thought that the technique could be pushed to a sensitivity of  $4 \times 10^{-4}$  in a new experiment (Sannes *et al.*, 1988).

The third technique uses a pure  $K<sub>S</sub>$  source and looks directly for the CP-violating decays. This is the approach of the  $\Phi$  factories, since the  $\Phi$  meson decays purely into  $K_L K_S$  and one can therefore cleanly tag the  $K<sub>S</sub>$  by the observation of a  $K<sub>L</sub>$ . Here one expects about 30  $3\pi^0$  decays in a one-year run at design luminosity, permitting the determination of  $\eta_{000}$  with a precision of about  $2 \times 10^{-4}$  (Fukawa et al., 1990). The branching ratio for the  $\pi^+\pi^-\pi^0$  decay will also be determined, but it will not be possible to distinguish the CP-conserving from the CP-violating parts.

Thus the techniques presently on the horizon are sensitive to the expected level of CP violation in the mass matrix but will not likely be able to detect any direct efFects.

For studies with charged kaons, one needs copious sources of  $K^{\pm}$ -meson decays. Again there are three possible avenues on the horizon.

The first is the NA48 collaboration, which has considered using its apparatus for charged-K decay studies. They estimate that in a one-year run, about  $2 \times 10^8$  $\pi^+\pi^+\pi^-$  and  $\pi^-\pi^-\pi^+$  decays could be collected, permitting a determination of  $\Delta g \approx 5 \times 10^{-4}$ .

The second is the  $\Phi$  factory, using the  $K^{+}K^{-}$  decays of which about  $10^9$  would be collected. The symmetry of the final state is exploited to minimize systematic uncertainty, so that it is estimated that precisions  $\Delta\Gamma \approx 5 \times 10^{-5}$  and  $\Delta g \approx 5 \times 10^{-4}$  would be obtained.

Finally, the E865 experiment at Brookhaven (Zeller, 1991) has considered such a rate comparison. This experiment, which seeks charged- $K$  decay sensitivity to hree-bodies at the  $10^{-12}$  level, could collect about  $10^{10}$ decays in only a few weeks. It is clear that systematic uncertainties would dominate.

# B. Hyperon decays

The decays  $\Lambda \rightarrow p\pi^-$  and  $\Lambda \rightarrow n\pi^0$  are usually analyzed<br>n terms of the amplitudes  $S_1e^{i\delta_1}$ ,  $P_1e^{i\delta_1}$ ,  $S_3e^{i\delta_3}$ , and  $P_3e^{i\delta_{31}}$ , where  $S(P)$  indicate  $s(p)$  waves in the final state; (3) indicate  $I = \frac{1}{2}$  ( $\frac{3}{2}$ ) final states, and the  $\delta$ 's are the strong final-state phase shifts. The observables are the rates  $\Gamma$ , the asymmetry  $\alpha$  of the outgoing particles relative to the  $\Lambda$  spin, and the  $\beta$  parameter measuring the polarization of the final nucleon transverse to the plane of the  $\Lambda$  spin and the final momentum.

CP violation can be detected by comparing these parameters for  $\Lambda$  and  $\overline{\Lambda}$ . The CP-violating observables for  $\Lambda \rightarrow p \pi^-$  are given approximately by

$$
\Delta = \frac{\Gamma - \overline{\Gamma}}{\Gamma - \overline{\Gamma}} \approx \sqrt{2} \frac{\text{Im} S_3^* S_1}{|S_1|^2} \sin(\delta_1 - \delta_3)
$$

$$
\approx 7 \times 10^{-3} \sin \phi ,
$$

$$
A = \frac{\alpha + \overline{\alpha}}{\alpha - \overline{\alpha}} \approx \frac{\text{Im} S_1^* P_1}{\text{Re} S_1^* P_1} \tan(\delta_1 - \delta_{11})
$$

$$
\approx -0.1 \tan \theta_1 ,
$$

$$
B = \frac{\beta + \overline{\beta}}{\beta - \overline{\beta}} \approx \frac{\text{Im} S_1^* P_1}{\text{Re} S_1^* P_1} \frac{1}{\tan(\delta_1 - \delta_{11})}
$$

 $\approx -10 \tan\theta_1$ , where  $\phi$  is the CP-violating relative phase of  $S_3$  and  $S_1$ ,

and  $\theta_1$  the CP-violating relative phase of  $S_1$  and  $P_1$ .

Note that the rate asymmetry  $\Delta$  is suppressed both by the  $\Delta I = \frac{1}{2}$  rule and by the small values of the final-state phase shifts. The CP-violating phases  $\phi$  and  $\theta_1$  arise from the same physics as  $\varepsilon'$  and are calculated by Donoghue, He, and Pakvasa (1986) to be of the order  $10^{-4}$  in the standard model. They find  $\Delta$  to be less than  $10^{-6}$ , A less than  $10^{-4}$ , and B between  $10^{-2}$  and  $10^{-3}$ . The large value of B is deceptive, since the parameter  $\beta$  is difficult to measure and less than 0.<sup>1</sup> in magnitude. They also calculate these observables for other hyperon decays with similar results.

To measure the parameter A at the  $10^{-4}$  level or better requires a copious source of  $\Lambda$  and  $\overline{\Lambda}$  and a detector whose inherent asymmetries can be minimized and understood. The best technique (Hamann et al., 1992; Hsueh and Rapidis, 1992) appears to be the use of the exclusive reaction  $\bar{p}p \rightarrow \bar{\Lambda}\Lambda \rightarrow \bar{p}\pi^+ p\pi^-$ , where an intense source of  $\bar{p}$  is used on a gas jet target. The hyperons are produced with a mean polarization  $P$  of 46% within the angular range  $-0.75 \le \cos \theta^* \le 0.30$ , and it is the difference in decay asymmetries with respect to the hyperon polarization vectors that is the signature of direct CP violation. Specifically, it is helpful to use the difference in asymmetries of the final-state protons (Donoghue, Holstein, and Valencia, 1986):

$$
\widetilde{A} = \frac{[N(p, \uparrow) - N(\overline{p}, \downarrow)] + [N(\overline{p}, \uparrow) - N(p, \downarrow)]}{[N(p, \uparrow) + N(\overline{p}, \downarrow)] + [N(\overline{p}, \uparrow) + N(p, \downarrow)]}
$$
  
=  $\frac{\overline{\alpha} + \alpha}{2} P$ ,

where the arrows indicate the direction of the  $p(\bar{p})$  with respect to the hyperon production plane. To reach a precision of  $10^{-4}$ , about  $2 \times 10^9$  decays are needed.

To date, the best result on the parameter  $\boldsymbol{A}$  is

$$
A = 0.013 \pm 0.029
$$
,

and this is based on about 60000 detected events in PS185 at LEAR (Fischer, 1992).

To reach the required statistical level, a luminosity of about  $10^{32}$  cm<sup>-2</sup> sec<sup>-1</sup> is needed, and it appears that this

could be obtained either at Fermilab or at CERN, using the intense  $\bar{p}$  sources at these laboratories. An extensive report on the feasibility of the measurement at the proposed LEAR-2 (Hamann et al., 1992) addresses a number of systematic issues mostly having to do with biases from possible hidden detector inefficiencies and misalignments. It appears that such biases could indeed be controlled at the  $10^{-4}$  level.

Very recently a proposal was submitted to Fermilab by Gidal et al. (1993), a group with a great deal of experience in hyperon physics. They propose to study CP violation in both  $\Xi$  and  $\Lambda$  decays with the following technique.  $\Xi^-$  hyperons, produced at  $0^\circ$  in proton interactions on a fixed target, will have no polarization. Their decay into  $\Lambda \pi^-$  gives the  $\Lambda$  a polarization equal to the  $\alpha$ parameter in  $\Xi$  decay:  $-0.046\pm0.014$ . Then the asymmetry in the subsequent  $\Lambda$  decay can be compared to the asymmetry for the same reaction chain with antihyperons. What one then measures is a combined decay asymmetry:  $A = A_{\overline{x}} + A_{\Lambda}$ . It is claimed that  $2 \times 10^9$  decays in each chain can be collected in a 200-day run, giving sensitivity to a  $10^{-4}$  asymmetry. Many sources of uncertainty can be reduced by frequent alternation of particle vs antiparticle running; nevertheless, it will be quite a challenge to keep the overall systematic error to the  $10^{-4}$  level.

C.  $K^0 \rightarrow \gamma \gamma$ 

The final  $\gamma\gamma$  states for the decay of a spin-zero particle can be classified by their CP eigenvalues

$$
|+\rangle = (LL) + |RR\rangle)/\sqrt{2},
$$
  

$$
|-\rangle = (|LL\rangle - |RR\rangle)/\sqrt{2},
$$

where  $L(R)$  defines the photon polarization. There are then two CP-conserving amplitudes,

 $A_{+} = A (K_{S} \rightarrow +), \quad A_{-} = A (K_{L} \rightarrow -)$ ,

and two CP-violating amplitudes,

 $B_{+} = A(K_L \rightarrow +), \quad B_{-} = A(K_S \rightarrow -)$ .

We then have two measures of CP violation,

$$
\eta_+ = B_+ / A_+ = \varepsilon + \varepsilon'_+ ,
$$
  

$$
\eta_- = B_- / A_- = \varepsilon + \varepsilon'_- .
$$

These can be studied by looking for interference effects (Sehgal and Wolfenstein, 1967; Decker et al., 1984) that are different for initial  $K^0$  and  $\overline{K}$ <sup>0</sup> beams. Early discussions were based on the possibility that the rate for  $K_S \rightarrow \gamma \gamma$  was much larger than for  $K_L \rightarrow \gamma \gamma$ ; it is now known that the rates have the same order of magnitude, so that measurement of  $\eta_+$  and  $\eta_-$  are both very difficult.

The decays  $K^0 \rightarrow \gamma \gamma$  are expected to be dominated by virtual (or real) intermediate states of pions (and other nonstrange particles), which then convert to photons by electromagnetic interactions. Thus CP nonconservation will arise from the same physics that causes CP violation in the decays of kaons to pions. Theoretical estimates have concentrated on  $\eta$  calculated using pole diagrams (Chau and Cheng, 1985; Donoghue, Holstein, and Valencia, 1987b),

$$
K^0 \to \pi
$$
 or  $\eta$  or  $\eta' \to 2\gamma$ .

It is argued that the suppression factor  $\omega$ =0.045, which enters Eq. (2.8) for  $\varepsilon'$ , does not occur here. Thus it is concluded that

$$
\frac{\epsilon'_-}{\epsilon} \sim (20 \text{ to } 30)(\epsilon'/\epsilon) .
$$

There could also be short-distance contributions to  $K^0 \rightarrow \gamma \gamma$  corresponding to box graphs leading to the transition  $s \rightarrow d + \gamma + \gamma$ . It has been suggested (Eeg et al., 1990) that these give a still larger  $CP$ -violating effect, but a complete calculation shows that these are unimportant (Liu, 1992).

From the available experimental information and the above discussion, we can construct the following table of approximate branching ratios.

$$
\begin{array}{c}\n\gamma\gamma(+) & \gamma\gamma(-) \\
K_L & 7\times10^{-9} & 6\times10^{-4} \\
K_S & 2\times10^{-6} & 5\times10^{-12}\n\end{array}
$$

If one could determine the CP state of the final state  $\gamma\gamma$ , then the observation of the time dependence for initially pure  $K^0$  and  $\bar{K}^0$  to decay into the state  $\gamma\gamma(-)$  would contain the best information for seeing the direct component. With only the mass mixing, one expects of order  $10^{-3}$  asymmetries in this decay curve, due to the  $K_S \rightarrow \gamma \gamma (-)$  amplitude, and these reverse for particle/antiparticle. If  $\varepsilon'$  / $\varepsilon$  is of order 0.1, then there would be significant departures from the superweak expectations. Unfortunately, there is too large an acceptance loss in the detection of the polarization of one of the final-state photons. The difhculty of the experiment is a result of the very small branching ratio for  $K_S \rightarrow \gamma \gamma (-)$ .

The best technique, then, for observing CP violation in  $\gamma\gamma$  decays is the comparison of the polarization-averaged decay rates from initially pure  $K^0$  and  $\overline{K}^0$ . Again, asymmetries of order  $\varepsilon$  are expected in the comparison of  $K^0$ and  $\overline{K}^0$  in the first five  $K_s$  lifetimes (Chau and Cheng, 1985). One needs more than  $10<sup>5</sup>$  such events to detect even the asymmetry due to mixing, and more than  $10<sup>6</sup>$  to have a chance of seeing a direct effect. The ideal facility for such an experiment is LEAR; however, more than  $10^{11}$  produced  $K^{0}$ 's are needed, where LEAR provides about  $10^{10}$  per year. At a "kaon factory" there would be ample Aux; however, there are severe difhculties with the detection of decays very close to the production target, as would be necessary.

D. The decay  $K^0 \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$ 

In the standard model the decay  $K^0 \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$  is believed to arise primarily via

$$
K^0 \to \gamma + \gamma \to \mu^+ \mu^- \tag{6.3}
$$

with real or virtual intermediate photon pairs. Since this amplitude is order  $\alpha^2$ , this may prove to be a good place to look for CP violation as a result of competing amplitudes that could interfere with (6.3).

There are two possible final states,

$$
|+\rangle = (LL + RR)\sqrt{2} ,
$$
  

$$
|-\rangle = (LL - RR)/\sqrt{2} ,
$$

where the states are designated by their CP eigenvalue and  $L(R)$  define the muon helicity. CP violation due to the transition (6.3) is expected to be small, since it is determined by CP violation in the transition to  $\gamma\gamma$  (Sec. VI.C). The two CP-conserving decay amplitudes are

$$
A(K_1 \to +)=A_1,
$$
  $A(K_2 \to -)=A_2.$ 

If there is some direct  $CP$  violation, it will show up as either

$$
A(K_1 \to -)=B_1
$$
 or  $A(K_2 \to +)=B_2$ .

The simplest effects to look for is the interference between  $B_{2+}$  and  $A_{2-}$ , which can cause an excess of (LL) with respect to  $RR$ , or vice versa, in the decay  $K_L \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$ . This then shows up as a net longitudinal polarization  $P_L$  of either muon; in practice, experiments can measure the  $\mu^+$  polarization. In the absence of final-state interactions, the CP-violating amplitudes  $B$  are imaginary and the CP-conserving amplitudes A are real, so that there is no interference in the rates and thus  $P_L$  is 0. However, in fact the experimental rate for  $K_L \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$  is consistent with just the absorptive part (real intermediate state) of the transition (6.3), and so we believe Im  $A_{2^-}$  > Re  $A_{2^-}$ . Neglecting Re  $A_{2^-}$  and including the indirect  $\mathbb{CP}$  violation due to  $\varepsilon$ , one finds to a good approximation (Herczeg, 1983)

$$
P_L = [2 \text{ Im} B_{2^+} + \sqrt{2} |\varepsilon| (\text{Re} A_{1^+} + \text{Im} A_{1^+})]/|A_{2^-}|.
$$
\n(6.4)

It is much harder to try to detect CP violation due to  $B_{1}$ . The decay  $K_s \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$  has never been seen. The rate for  $K_s \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$  is expected to be similar to that of  $K_L \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$ , but this means the branching ratio is of or-<br>der 10<sup>-11</sup>. To see the interference of  $B_{1-}$  with  $A_{2-}$ , one would have to look at the time dependence of  $K^0 \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$  at short times before  $K_s$  disappear.

Within the standard model the major CP-violating amplitude for  $K^0 \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$  comes from the box diagram discussed for  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 e^+ e^-$  in Sec. VII. The chiral structure of the  $W$  interactions tells us that the effective matrix element has the form

$$
A_{\text{Box}} \sim P^{\mu} \bar{\mu} \gamma_{\mu} (1 - \gamma_{5}) \mu
$$
  
=  $2 m_{\mu} \bar{\mu} \gamma_{5} \mu$ .

This corresponds to a P-odd, C-even, CP-odd final state. Thus the CP-violating part of the box contributes only to  $B_{1}$ . Even though this may be significant compared to  $A_{1+}$ , there seems to be no practical way to observe what, in principle, could be a sizable CP-violating effect.

Since the branching ratio for  $K_L \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$  is of order 10<sup>-8</sup>, large numbers of these decays could be observed at a "kaon factory," and it might be possible to measure  $P<sub>L</sub>$ to better than 1%. Within the standard model the direct CP violation  $[B_{2+}$  in Eq. (8.1)] is expected to be practically negligible (Botella and Lim, 1986), and  $P_L$  is directly proportional to  $|\varepsilon|$ . The expected value (Ecker and Pich, 1991), approximately  $2 \times 10^{-3}$ , is probably too small to be measured. Thus the major goal of this measurement is a search for direct CP violation beyond the standard model. This can occur in special versions of the superweak theory.

# E. The decays  $K \rightarrow \pi \pi \gamma$  and  $K \rightarrow \pi \pi e^+e^-$

The decay  $K \rightarrow \pi \pi \gamma$  occurs predominantly as an E1 bremsstrahlung proportional to the  $K \rightarrow \pi \pi$  decay rate. It is possible also that there are direct decay amplitudes that could be CP violating.

In the case of the decay  $K^+ \rightarrow \pi^+ \pi^0 \gamma$ , there has been a long-term interest in the possibility of direct decays (Costa and Kabir, 1967), since the bremsstrahlung is suppressed by the  $\Delta I = \frac{1}{2}$  rule. A CP-violating direct decay amplitude can arise from the electromagnetic penguin amplitude  $s \rightarrow d + \gamma$ . As a result, there can be an asymmetry in the rates for  $K^+ \rightarrow \pi^+ \pi^0 \gamma$  and  $K^- \rightarrow \pi^- \pi^0 \gamma$ . This asymmetry will be a maximum for intermediate photon momenta where the bremsstrahlung and direct amplitudes interfere. Dib and Peccei (1990) calculate that the average asymmetry could be as large as  $10^{-3}$ . Such an asymmetry would be a clear indication of direct CP violation.

In the case of the decay  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-\gamma$ , experiment E-731 (Ramberg et al., 1993a) indicates that there are two amplitudes of comparable magnitude: (1) the CP conserving M1 transition  $K_2 \rightarrow \pi^+ \pi^- \gamma$  and (2) the indirect  $CP$  violation proportional to  $\varepsilon$  corresponding to the E1 transition  $K_1 \rightarrow \pi^+ \pi^- \gamma$ . Thus this is an example of a decay in which there is a large  $\mathbb{CP}$  violation, but this cannot be detected without measuring the photon polarization. There is a CP-violating asymmetry that does not depend on the photon polarization, that between  $\pi^+$  and  $\pi^-$  across the Dalitz plot. This asymmetry requires the  $E2$  amplitude, which would correspond to direct  $CP$ violation, but this is expected to be very small. The  $\overline{CP}$ violating) interference between  $K_S$  and  $K_L$  decays was recently observed for the first time (Ramberg et al., 1993b); however, this is an indirect effect only.

It is possible indirectly to measure the photon polarization through its internal conversion to an  $e^+e^-$  pair giving the process  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-e^+e^-$ , which has recently been observed (Wah, 1992). The CP-conserving  $M1$  transition corresponds to the case in which the virtual  $\rho$ (leading to  $\pi^{+}\pi^{-}$ ) and the virtual photon (leading to  $e^+e^-$ ) have perpendicular planes of polarization. This leads to a characteristic angular distribution  $1+2\cos^2\phi$ , where  $\phi$  is the angle between the  $\pi^+\pi^-$  and  $e^+e^$ planes. Interference between the CP-conserving  $M1$  and  $CP$ -violating  $E1$  transitions leads to a characteristic  $\sin\phi$  cos $\phi$  term. Sehgal and Wanninger (1992) calculated this to be a 4% effect, but their later correction raised this to about 15%. The calculated effect is entirely due to indirect CP violation, and it is doubtful whether a small direct CP-violation contribution could be identified even if it were present.

### VII. THE CP-FORBIDDEN DECAYS  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 1\bar{1}$

Instead of searching for very small CP-violating direct decay effects like  $\varepsilon'$  in common K decays, it is possible to look for decays that are to a good approximation forbidden by CP invariance. The decay  $K \rightarrow \pi e^+e^-$  is expected to occur via single-photon exchange, a process first order in the weak-times-electromagnetic interactions. However, for  $K^{0}$ 's this leads to  $K_1 \rightarrow \pi^{0}e^+e^-$ , so that in this approximation  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 e^+e^-$  is CP forbidden. As discussed in Sec. IV, the decay  $K \rightarrow \pi \nu \bar{\nu}$  occurs as a second-order weak process. In the case of  $K^0$ , the CPconserving part of this second-order amplitude leads to  $K_1 \rightarrow \pi^0 \nu \bar{\nu}$ , so that the decay  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 \nu \bar{\nu}$  is essentially a signal of direct CP violation.

### A. The decay  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 e^+e^-$

Combining the weak plus electromagnetic interactions, one can obtain the transition  $K \rightarrow \pi + \gamma^*$ , where  $\gamma^*$  is a virtual photon. This leads to the decays  $K^+\rightarrow \pi^+e^+e^$ and  $K^0 \rightarrow \pi^0 e^+ e^-$ . By Lorentz invariance, the transition amplitude has the form

$$
A(K^{0}) = [p(K^{0}) + p(\pi^{0})]_{\mu} \bar{\psi}_{e} \gamma^{\mu} \psi_{e} . \qquad (7.1)
$$

This form is invariant under  $P$  but changes sign under  $C$ . If we define  $|\overline{K}^0\rangle = CP |K^0\rangle$  and note that  $\langle CP|\pi^0\rangle = -|\pi^0\rangle$ , it then follows that if CP invariance holds,

$$
A\,(\overline{K}^0) = + A\,(K^0) \; .
$$

As a result the one-photon contribution vanishes for  $K_2 \rightarrow \pi^0 e^+e^-$ , unless CP is violated. Thus the decay  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 e^+e^-$  appears as a possible place to look for direct CP violation.

There are, in general, three contributions to this decay: (1)  $CP$ -conserving decays arising from the intermediate transition  $K_2 \rightarrow \pi^0 + \gamma + \gamma$ ; (2) indirect CP violation proportional to the  $K^0$ - $\overline{K}$ <sup>0</sup> mixing  $\widetilde{\epsilon}$ , which is nearly equal to  $\varepsilon$ ; and (3) direct CP violation. One originally thought of this as coming from the "electromagnetic penguin"  $s \rightarrow d + \gamma$ . For large values of the top mass  $m_t$ , however, dominant contributions come from CP-violating secondorder weak effects, in particular, the "electroweak penguin"  $s \rightarrow d + Z^*$ , where  $Z^*$  is a virtual  $Z^0$ .

If the decay  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 \gamma \gamma$  were governed by shortdistance effects, one might expect that the final state could be described as a  $\pi^0$  in an s state relative to a ( $\gamma\gamma$ ) pair in a  $0^+$  state. [This corresponds to the two gammas having parallel polarization in contrast to the  $0^-$  state of  $(\gamma \gamma)$  arising from  $\pi^0$  decay.] In the c.m. system of the  $e^+e^-$  pair coming from this  $(\gamma\gamma)$  state, the  $e^+$  and  $e^$ must have the same helicity to give spin zero; however, in the  $m_e = 0$  limit, electromagnetic couplings always yield  $e^+$  and  $e^-$  with opposite helicities. Thus in this approximation the CP-conserving decay vanishes, and early calculations by Donoghue et al. (1987a) and others led to a very low branching ratio for the CP-conserving contribution of the order of  $10^{-12}$  or less. However, it was pointed out by Sehgal (1988) that the decay  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 \gamma \gamma$  has an important contribution from long-distance effects associated with virtual vector mesons, which lead to final-state d waves. In this case the resulting  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 e^+e^-$  decay does not vanish in the  $m_e=0$  limit. Sehgal predicted a branching ratio for the CP-conserving decay of the order  $10<sup>-11</sup>$ . Various predictions are shown in Table IV.

This large range of predictions can be narrowed by experimental observation of the decay  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 \gamma \gamma$ . The first observations of this decay (Barr et al., 1990a; Papadimitriou et al., 1991) gave a branching ratio between 1.5 and  $2.0 \times 10^{-6}$ , which is larger than the predictions that neglect the vector-meson effects. On the other hand, the spectrum (Barr et al., 1992) shows no evidence of the low-mass  $\gamma \gamma$  pairs predicted by vector-meson dominance. On the basis of the spectrum, it is concluded that the rate for  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 e^+e^-$  due to the intermediate  $2\gamma$ state is less than  $10^{-12}$ . Future measurements of the spectrum should make it possible to calculate quite accurately the rate of  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 e^+e^-$  due to the absorptive

**TABLE IV.** Theoretical branching ratios for  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 e^+ e^-$ .

		$K_2 \rightarrow \pi^0 \gamma \gamma \rightarrow \pi^0 e^+ e^- K_L \rightarrow K_1 \rightarrow \pi^0 e^+ e^-$ <i>CP</i> conserving $ \epsilon ^2$ term $=B_{ind}$
<b>Sehgal</b>	$2 \times 10^{-11}$ a	
Ko et al.	$<$ 3 $\times$ 10 <sup>-12 b</sup>	$\sim$ 2 $\times$ 10 <sup>-10</sup> g
Morozumi & Isawaki	$>$ 2 $\times$ 10 <sup>-11°</sup>	
Flynn & Randall	$8\times10^{-12}$ d	
Pich	$< 10^{-12}$ e	$(1.5$ or $15) \times 10^{-12}$ <sup>e</sup>
Donoghue	$2 \times 10^{-13}$ f	$5 \times 10^{-13}$ f

<sup>a</sup>Sehgal (1988, 1990).

 ${}^{\text{b}}\mathbf{K}\text{o}$  and Truong (1991).

'Morozumi and Iwasaki (1989).

 $d$ Flynn and Randall (1989a).

'Pich (1990).

'Donoghue et al. (1987a).

gKo (1991).

Rev. Mod. Phys. , Vol. 65, No. 4, October 1993

part of the  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 \gamma \gamma \rightarrow \pi^0 e^+e^-$  transition. There will still be an uncertainty as large as a factor of 2 from the dispersive part.

The CP violation due to  $K^0$ - $\overline{K}$ <sup>0</sup> mixing depends on the rate of the CP-conserving process  $K_1 \rightarrow \pi^0 + e^+ + e^-$ . A first guess would be that the rate for  $K_1$  is the same as for  $K^+ \rightarrow \pi^+e^+e^-$ , so that

$$
\Gamma(K_1 \to \pi^0 + c^+ + e^-) = \Gamma(K^+ \to \pi^+ + e^+ + e^-)
$$
  
= (22±4) sec<sup>-1</sup>. (7.2)

This then gives the branching ratio for the indirect CP violation,

$$
B_{\text{ind}}(K_L \to \pi^0 e^+ e^-) \approx |\varepsilon|^2 \times 22 \times (5.2 \times 10^{-8})
$$
  
= 6 × 10<sup>-12</sup>.

In theoretical calculations, many of the same diagrams contribute to the  $K^+$  and  $K^0$  decays; however, there are some unique contributions associated with  $K^+$  because of its charge. Donoghue et al. (1987a) find as a result that the  $K^+$  rate is much larger than the  $K^0$ . On the other hand, a detailed calculation by Ko (1991) gives, for reasons that are not clear, a much larger rate for  $K^0$ . Some typical results are shown in Table IV. This could unambiguously be pinned down if it were possible to measure the branching ratio for  $K_s \rightarrow \pi^0 e^+e^-$ . If (7.2) is correct, this branching ratio is  $2 \times 10^{-9}$ , which is  $10^4$ times smaller than the present experimental limit.

We now turn to the direct CP violation, which is the contribution that interests us. If  $m_t < m_w$ , the main contribution comes from the electromagnetic penguin  $s \rightarrow d + \gamma^*$ , where  $\gamma^*$  is the virtual photon. This goes roughly as  $\log(m_t/m_w)^2$  and has a large QCD correction that reduces the amplitude by a factor of about 2. For  $m_t < m_w$ , there is a rough proportionality between the CP-violating amplitude for  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 e^+e^-$  and  $\varepsilon'$ .

The situation is significantly different, when  $m_t$  becomes larger than  $m_w$  (Dib et al., 1989b; Flynn and Randall, 1989b). One then begins to get a significant contribution from the box diagram and a contribution from the electroweak penguin  $s \rightarrow d + Z^*$  that grows asymptotically as  $m_t^2$ . These are the same diagrams that contribute to  $\epsilon'$  (Fig. 6), with  $q\bar{q}$  replaced by  $e\bar{e}$ . In the case of  $\epsilon'$ , the main effect of the  $Z^*$  is to give a  $\Delta I = \frac{3}{2} C P$  violation, which tends to cancel out the  $\Delta I = \frac{1}{2} C P$  violation of the normal penguin. In the case of  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 e^+e^-$ , the main effect of the  $Z^*$  is to add an axial-vector term, which adds incoherently to the contribution of the  $\gamma^*$ . Thus for large values of  $m_t$ , like 200 GeV where  $\varepsilon'$  may be approaching zero, the direct CP-violating  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 e^+e^$ amplitude is rising almost like  $m_t^2$ .

The effective quark amplitude may be written as

$$
(e^2/4\pi)(\overline{s}\gamma_\lambda(1-\gamma_5)d)\overline{e}(c_v\gamma^\lambda+c_A\gamma^\lambda\gamma_5)e . \qquad (7.3)
$$

For  $m_t < m_w$ , where the  $\gamma^*$  dominates,  $c_v > c_A$ . However, the  $Z^*$  mainly contributes to  $C_A$ , since its contribution to  $c_v$  is reduced by the factor  $(1-4\sin^2\theta_w)$ . For  $m_t$  > 150 GeV, it is the  $c_A$  term that dominates.

A major advantage of the process  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 + e^+ + e^-$  is that, unlike the case of  $\varepsilon'$ , there is no problem in going from the quark amplitude to the mesons for a semileptonic process. The matrix element  $\langle \pi^0 | \overline{s} \gamma_{\lambda} d | K^0 \rangle$  is related by isospin to that for  $K^+ \rightarrow \pi^0 + e^+ + v_e$ , which can be determined from experiment. Using this, Dib, Dunietz, and Gilman (1989b) find that the branching ratio for direct CP violation is

$$
B_{\text{dir}}(K_L \to \pi^0 e^+ e^-) = 10^{-5} (A^2 \lambda^4 \eta)^2 (c_v^2 + c_A^2)
$$
  

$$
\approx (5 \times 10^{-11}) A^4 \eta^2 (c_v^2 + c_A^2) . \tag{7.4}
$$

For  $m_t \sim m_w$ , the dominant term comes from  $c_v^2$ , which is about 0.2. In this case there is a direct relation between  $B_{\text{dir}}$  and  $(\varepsilon'/\varepsilon)$ , which arises from analogous penguin graphs; and one finds, using Eq. (5.4),

$$
B_{\rm dir}(K_L \to \pi^0 e^+ e^-) \approx 10^{-6} (\varepsilon'/\varepsilon)^2
$$

within a factor of about 5.

As  $m_t$  goes from  $m_w$  to 180 GeV,  $c_v^2$  grows from 0.2 to 0.4 while  $c_A^2$  grows to 0.6. Using typical values of  $\eta$  fitted to the c parameter, one finds

$$
B_{\text{dir}}(K_L \to \pi^0 + e^+ + e^-) \sim 2 - 4 \times 10^{-12} ,
$$

with a range between  $10^{-11}$  and  $10^{-13}$  for allowed values of  $\eta$  for all  $m_t$ , up to 180 GeV.

Neglecting the CP-conserving term, we combine the two CP-violating contributions to give a branching ratio

$$
B_{CP \text{ odd}}(K_L \to \pi^0 e^+ e^-)
$$
  
=  $\{e^{i\pi/4} [B_{\text{ind}}]^{1/2} \pm i A^2 \eta c_v (5 \times 10^{-11})^{1/2}\}^2$   
+  $A^4 \eta^2 c_A^2 5 \times 10^{-11}$ , (7.5)

where  $e^{i\pi/4}$  is the phase of  $\varepsilon$ ; we have neglected the contribution of  $\text{Im} A_0 / \text{Re} A_0$  to  $\epsilon$ . To determine the sign of the interference requires theoretical calculation of the sign of the  $K_S \rightarrow \pi^0 e^+e^-$  amplitude.

Given the uncertainties in the CP-conserving contribution and in  $B_{ind}$  (Table IV), the measurement of the branching ratio by itself, while very interesting, cannot be taken as proof of direct CP violation. It was pointed out by Sehgal (1988) that interference between the CP conserving and CP-violating amplitudes could be detected by observing the CP-violating asymmetry between the  $e^+$  and  $e^-$  spectra. However, this could be due to either the direct or the indirect  $\mathbb{CP}$  violation and, in fact, is insensitive to the  $C_A$  term which will dominate the direct  $\mathbb{CP}$  violation at high  $m_t$ .

# B. Status and prospects for  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 e^+e^-$

The current experimental sensitivity is still far from the expected levels. The two best  $90\%$ -confidence-level limits are  $5.5 \times 10^{-9}$  from BNL 845 (Ohl et al., 1990) and  $7.5 \times 10^{-9}$  from FNAL E731 (Aihara et al., 1990). Sensitivity to this mode at about  $10^{-9}$  is expected from the first run of FNAL E799, which ended in January 1992 (Barker et al., 1988; Wah, 1992).

The Kyoto, KEK collaboration KEK 162 (Miyake et al., 1988) has as its aim a sensitive search for  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 ee$ , at a level of about 10<sup>-10</sup>; it should begin taking data sometime in 1993. This will be the first  $K$ -decay experiment to use very high-precision calorimetry.

The last phase of the E799 experiment is scheduled for 1995. The experiment plans an exposure that would 1995. The experiment plans an exposure that would<br>yield a single-event sensitivity better than  $10^{-11}$  for a four-body decay, in the absence of background. For this effort, the simulation of a variety of backgrounds has been made (Barker et al., 1988). As the rates in such a rare decay experiment are large, so-called accidental events have been overlaid upon pure Monte Carlo events in order to correctly simulate the effect of the high level of ambient beam activity. The most serious such backgrounds have been found to be either single or double Dalitz decays in  $2\pi^0$  or  $3\pi^0$  decays with accidental photons. However, these processes will only contaminate the signal at the  $10^{-12}$  level. More serious is the radiative Dalitz decay background,  $K_L \rightarrow e^+e^- \gamma \gamma$  discussed by Greenlee (1990), which satisfies all kinematic discrimination except for the criterion that the invariant mass of the  $\gamma\gamma$  system be that of the  $\pi^0$ . Thus the very best gamma-ray energy (and position) resolution is required and can be obtained with the pure CsI calorimeter that will be used in E799. Further background rejection is obtained by selectively cutting into the four-body phase space at the sacrifice of some signal: the distributions for signal and background are not the same. After optimization (with a 30% loss in signal), it is found that the ion (with a 30% loss in signal), it is found that the single-event sensitivity is  $1 \times 10^{-11}$  and that seven background events remain. This implies that a 90%-<br>confidence upper limit of  $7 \times 10^{-11}$  could be set. While confidence upper limit of  $7 \times 10^{-11}$  could be set. While this is significantly better than the current sensitivity, there still remains the issue of untangling the CPconserving and indirect contributions.

During the same experimental run, it is expected that about 10<sup>4</sup>  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 \gamma \gamma$  will be collected with background at the 20% level; this will allow a branching-ratio determination at the few-percent level and a good measurement of the Dalitz plot, which should greatly help in determining the CP-conserving contribution.

To reach the level of the standard model, one will very likely need even more sensitive experiments, those at a dedicated kaon facility or factory. The experiment has been considered using the Main Injector at Fermilab. A conceptual design study (Arisaka et al., 1991) estimated that a determination of the branching ratio could be made at the 25% level if the central value were  $4 \times 10^{-12}$ . In addition, the decay  $K_S \rightarrow \pi^0 ee$  could be seen with a sensitivity below  $10^{-11}$ , which should be more than enough to determine accurately the indirect contribution.

Assuming the measurement of  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 \gamma \gamma$  restricts the  $CP$ -conserving contribution to a value below 10<sup>-12</sup> and that the measurement of  $K_S \rightarrow \pi^0 e^+e^-$  provides a good measure of  $(B_{ind})$ , then it would be possible that a large

value for the branching ratio would be a clear indication of direct CP violation. It will be much easier to find direct CP violation in this way if the interference in Eq.  $(7.5)$  is constructive (positive sign) than if it is destructive. Thus, depending on the actual values of  $B_{ind}$ ,  $\eta$ , and the relative sign, the measurement discussed above could have a chance of finding direct CP violation.

# C. The decay  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 \nu \overline{\nu}$

The process  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 \nu \bar{\nu}$  has been considered by a number of authors. There are potentially two contributions: a direct CP-violating one from the dominant  $K<sub>2</sub>$  and indirect CP violation from the  $K_1$  contamination in the  $K_L$ . The CP-violating contribution arises from the diagrams of Fig. 4 and is given by the same equation as that for  $K^+ \rightarrow \pi^+ \nu \bar{\nu}$  [Eq. (4.6)], provided one includes only the  $\eta$ term and corrects for the difference in  $K^+$  and  $K_L$  rates. The resulting branching ratio summed over three neutrino flavors is

$$
B(K_2 \to \pi^0 \nu \bar{\nu}) = 8 \times 10^{-11} (m_t / m_w)^{2.2} A^4 \eta^2
$$
 (7.6)

We note that the branching ratio increases approximately like the square of the top mass, and the CP violation is manifest in the proportionality to  $\eta^2$ .

The CP-conserving contribution from the  $K_1$  piece of the  $K_L$  can be limited using the upper limit for the corresponding  $K^+\rightarrow \pi^+\nu\bar{\nu}$  transition. In fact, the rate for the  $K_1$  transition is expected to exceed that for the  $K_2$  by a factor of roughly 25, but the very small admixture of  $K_1$ in the  $K_L$  makes this contribution negligible. We then<br>have the branching ratio for  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 \nu \bar{\nu}$  given by Eq. (7.6).

From the discussion in Sec. III, one expects  $A^2\eta$  to lie between 0.<sup>1</sup> and 0.5. The mass of the top quark has been determined from precise data from LEP to be about 140 $\pm$ 40 GeV/c<sup>2</sup>. Thus  $B(K_L \to \pi^0 \nu \bar{\nu})$  could be as large as about  $10^{-10}$ . The central value is about  $2 \times 10^{-1}$ 

# D. Status and prospects for  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 \nu \bar{\nu}$

Since this decay is pure direct CP violating, it should be seriously considered (Littenberg, 1989). The experimental signature is a single unbalanced  $\pi^0$ . The lack of a more distinct signature makes for severe difficulties in background rejection. One of the most important backgrounds is likely to be  $K_L \rightarrow 2\pi^0$ , where two photons are missing. To reach the level of the standard model, one would have to reject this background by about a factor of  $10^8$ , or about  $10^4$  for each photon; this would require a nearly perfectly hermetic detector. At Brookhaven, for the experiment searching for  $K^+\rightarrow \pi^+\nu\bar{\nu}$ , an inefficiency below  $10^{-3}$  has been achieved for relatively low-energy photons (20—220 MeV); the main contribution to the inefficiency appears to be due to the photonuclear effect where a photon interacts strongly with a nucleus in the veto counters, leaving little signal (Marlow, 1990). A

study of this process for the higher-energy photons of 30 to 700 MeV has been made, and it appears that the necessary rejection could be achieved in an experiment using the Fermilab Main Injector as a source of very highintensity and high-energy neutral kaons (Arisaka et al., 1991). At other laboratories there have also been studies of the potential to study this decay (Bryman, 1991; Inagaki, 1991).

In spite of the somewhat optimistic projections, there are many orders of magnitude that need to be covered. (Of course, if a signal emerged well above the level of the standard model, that would be significant.) The only limit to date [branching ratio,  $B(K_L \to \pi^0 \nu \bar{\nu}) < 2.2 \times 10^{-4}$ , 90% confidence] comes from Graham et al. (1992), where, in order to better define the final state, a Dalitz decay of the  $\pi^0$  is required. Thus the final state is eey, and the vertex of the decay can be reconstructed, allowing the invariant mass of the  $\pi^0$  to be calculated. Two additional backgrounds were uncovered in this search. The first results from radiative semileptonic decays,  $K_L \rightarrow \pi e \gamma \nu$ , where the pion is misidentified as an electron, and the second from  $\Lambda \rightarrow n \pi^0$ ,  $\pi^0 \rightarrow e^+e^- \gamma$  decays. For future searches of this type, the first can be further reduced with excellent electromagnetic calorimeter resolution together with TRDs {transition-radiation detectors) for particle identification, while the second can be significantly reduced by detecting the neutron (which almost always remains within the kaon beam) and by demanding sufficient transverse momentum for the  $\pi^0$ . It is likely that a sensitivity in the range of  $10^{-8}$  will be reached in the second phase of E799.

# VIII. CP VIOLATION IN B DECAYS

Soon after the discovery of the third generation, many authors discussed the possibilities for studying CP violation in the decays of  $B$  mesons. With the measurement of the B-meson lifetime, it became apparent that the CKM matrix had a hierarchical structure, as noted in Eqs. (3.3). As a result, it became apparent that the CKM matrix in the form (3.6) could contain relatively large phases in the  $V_{ub}$  and  $V_{td}$  elements. Large CP-violating effects resulting from these large phases are uniquely expected in B decays.

There exists now a large literature on the expected CP violation in B decays. For reviews, see Jarlskog (1989), Stone (1992), and Nir and Quinn (1992). Most of the papers are directed at reconstructing the unitarity triangle (Fig. 1) by determining the angles  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $\gamma$ . Here we limit our discussion to the simpler, but still dificult, task of detecting direct  $CP$  violation via the  $B$  system.

#### A.  $\epsilon$  for the  $B$  system

It is possible to calculate  $B^0$ - $\overline{B}$ <sup>0</sup> mixing for the B system using the box diagram just as is done for the  $K^0$ - $\bar{K}$ <sup>0</sup> system. There are two important differences for the  $B<sup>0</sup>$ case.

(1) For the  $K^0$  case, the real part of the box diagram (and related long-distance effects) that determines  $\Delta m$  is proportional to

$$
(V_{cs}^* V_{cd})^2 = \lambda^2 ,
$$

while the imaginary part, the  $m'$  term in Eq. (2.7), is proportional to  $A^2\lambda^6\eta$ , as discussed in Sec. III.A. Thus

$$
\varepsilon \sim \frac{m'}{\Delta m} \sim A^2 \lambda^4 \ . \tag{8.1}
$$

In contrast, in the  $B^0$  case, no matter which intermediate quark  $(u, c, \text{or } t)$  is on the legs of the box diagram (Fig. 2), there is always a factor  $\lambda^6$ . Since it is the top quark that dominates, the result of the calculation of the  $B^0$ - $\overline{B}$ <sup>0</sup> mixing, calculated from the box diagram, yields the factor

$$
(V_{\text{tb}}^* V_{\text{td}})^2 = (1 - \rho - i \eta)^2 A^2 \lambda^6
$$

It follows that the CP-violating term  $m'$  is related to  $\Delta m$ by

$$
m'/\Delta m = \frac{1}{2}\sin 2\beta = \frac{\eta(1-\rho)}{(1-\rho)^2 + \eta^2} , \qquad (8.2)
$$

where  $\beta$  is the phase of  $V_{td}^*$ .

Thus the  $\overline{CP}$  violation in the mass matrix for  $B^0$  is not suppressed by any power of  $\lambda$ , whereas for the  $K^0$  system it is suppressed by  $\lambda^4$  ( = 2.3 × 10<sup>-3</sup>).

It should be noted that this result holds in the phase convention we are using in which the dominant  $B$  decays involving  $b \rightarrow c$  transitions have no CP violation in the decay amplitude itself. As noted for the  $K^0$  case, it is possible to choose a phase convention so that  $\varepsilon$  is all due to  $m'$  or all due to the decay amplitude [Eq. (2.7)]. We discuss below the question of definitively finding direct CP violation.

(2) Because of the large number of  $CP$ -even and  $CP$ odd final states available, one expects  $\Delta\Gamma$ , the difference in the widths of the two  $B^0$  eigenstates, to be much smaller than  $\Delta m$ , whereas for  $K^0$ ,  $\Delta \Gamma \approx 2\Delta m$ . As a result,  $\epsilon$ for the  $B^0$  system is almost purely imaginary [Eq. (2.2) with  $\gamma' = 0$ ,  $\Gamma_1 = \Gamma_2$ . It follows that the detection of CP violation via semileptonic decays (analogous to the parameter  $\delta$  for the  $K^0$  system), which is proportional to ReE, is expected to be less than 1% (Hagelin, 1981; Altomari et al., 1988). In addition, one cannot separate  $B_L$ from  $B<sub>S</sub>$ , as one does for  $K<sub>L</sub>$ , and so one cannot duplicate the  $K_L$ -type experiments.

The best way to observe CP violation due to mixing in the  $B^0$  system is to study the decays of  $B^0$  and  $\bar{B}^0$  to a CP eigenstate (Bigi and Sanda, 1981, 1987). Assuming there is no CP violation in the decay amplitude, the time dependence of the decays has the form

$$
P_a(t)\alpha e^{-\Gamma t}[1 \pm \alpha(a)\eta_a \sin\Delta m t], \qquad (8.3)
$$

where the plus sign is for  $B^0$  and the minus sign for  $\overline{B}^0$ . The factor  $\eta_a = \pm 1$  is the CP eigenvalue of the final state denoted as a. The asymmetry parameter  $\alpha(a)$  is a measure of CP violation.

One expects that the  $B$  decays that are not suppressed by the CKM matrix, that is,  $b \rightarrow c$  decays, will be well represented by tree amplitudes. In our phase convention these amplitudes are real, so that the only CP violation is due to mixing, which yields the eigenstates

$$
|Bh\rangle \sim \cos\beta |B_1\rangle + i \sin\beta |B_2\rangle ,
$$
  

$$
|B_l\rangle \sim i \sin\beta |B_1\rangle + \cos\beta |B_2\rangle ,
$$
 (8.4)

where  $B_1$ ,  $B_2$  are the CP eigenstates and  $\beta$  is defined in Eq. (8.2).

The transition of most interest is

$$
b \rightarrow c + \overline{c} + s \tag{8.5}
$$

and the corresponding final state most discussed is  $\psi K_{S}$ , which has  $\eta = -1$ . The asymmetry parameter  $\alpha$  for these decays calculated from Eq. (8.4) is

$$
\alpha(\psi K_S) = \sin 2\beta \tag{8.6}
$$

Note that the asymmetry parameter depends only on the CKM matrix and is independent of hadron dynamics. The value of  $sin2\beta$  varies between 0.1 and 1 over the allowed CKM matrix values shown in Fig. 3.

Since this asymmetry by itself can be explained solely in terms of mixing, it could result from a superweak CPviolating  $\Delta B = 2$  interaction. While, in general, one does not expect a superweak interaction to give much larger  $\mathbb{CP}$  violation in the B system than in the K system, as one expects in the standard model, the possibility cannot be ruled out, particularly in multi-Higgs models (Gérard and Nakada, 1991). Thus it is necessary to look for analogs of  $\varepsilon'$  for the  $B$  system to rule out the superweak alternative.

#### B.  $\varepsilon'$  for the B system

If the only CP-violating effect is due to mixing, then the asymmetry parameter  $\alpha(a)$  will be independent of the final state  $a$ . Thus one can find a sign of direct  $CP$  violation by finding decays for which  $\alpha$  is different from that for  $\psi K_S$ . The obvious choice is the  $b \rightarrow u$ -type decays, which at tree level have a different phase from the  $b \rightarrow c$ decays. We consider, in particular, the decays

$$
b \to u + \overline{u} + d \tag{8.7}
$$

The simplest decay of this type is  $\overline{B}^0 \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-$ , which has  $\eta=+1$ .

In our phase convention, considering only the tree amplitude, the decays of the form (8.7) have a phase  $\theta_{ub} = -\gamma$ . One must combine this CP-violating phase with that due to mixing, giving

$$
\alpha(\pi^+\pi^-) = \sin 2(\beta + \gamma) \tag{8.8}
$$

In general, this will be quite different from  $\alpha(\psi K_S)$ , thus proving there is direct CP violation. Note that the observation of  $\alpha(\pi^+\pi^-)$  by itself could be explained by mixing. By choosing a different phase convention for the b quark,  $V_{ub}$  could be taken as real; but then  $V_{tb}$  would acquire the phase  $\gamma$ , so that the CP violation ascribed to  $\overline{B}$ <sup>0</sup>- $\overline{B}$ <sup>0</sup> mixing would be modified from that given by Eq. (8.6) to that given by Eq. (8.8). As is well known from the  $K$  system (see Sec. II), there is no way to separate the mixing and the direct  $CP$  violation contributions to  $\varepsilon$ . However, the relative phase between the amplitudes (8.5) and (8.7) given by  $\gamma$  is a direct CP-violating effect revealed by the difference between  $\alpha(\psi K_S)$  and  $\alpha(\pi^+\pi^-)$ .

The ratio of these two asymmetry parameters (Harris and Rosner, 1992; Soares and Wolfenstein, 1993) can be written

en  
\n
$$
\frac{\alpha(\pi^+\pi^-)}{\alpha(\psi K_S)} = \frac{\sin(2\beta + \gamma)}{\sin 2\beta} = \frac{\rho - K}{K(1 - \rho)},
$$
\n(8.9)

where  $K = \rho^2 + \eta^2$ . This describes the variation of the ratio as one moves along one of the central circles of Fig. 3. The ratio has a large range of possible values, including the value unity which occurs for (Winstein, 1992)

$$
\eta = (1 - \rho) \sqrt{\rho/(2 - \rho)} \tag{8.10}
$$

If  $(\eta, \rho)$  should approximately satisfy this equation,  $\alpha(\pi^+\pi^-)\!\approx\!\alpha(\psi K_S)$  in the standard model, so that this measurement might not distinguish the standard model from superweak models. This possibility requires a relatively large value of  $f_{\mathcal{B}}$ , around the upper limit given in Sec. III.C.

# C. Penguin contributions

As in the case of  $K^0$  decay, it is possible to see direct CP violation in a single decay, provided there is an admixture of contributions that come from loop diagrams besides those from tree diagrams. For nonleptonic decays, these involve a quark loop from which a gluon is emitted (Fig. 5), often called penguin graphs.

For the case of decays like  $b \rightarrow c+\bar{c}+s$ , one expects negligible CP violation from loop graphs, because the tree amplitude is of order  $A\lambda^2$  and CP-violating amplitudes require  $A \lambda^3$ . There are three cases of particular in-<br>terest. (1)  $b \rightarrow u + \bar{u} + d$ , yielding decays like  $B \rightarrow \pi \pi$ . In this equase the main contribution is the tree diagram of order terest.

case the main contribution is the tree diagram of order  $A\lambda^3$ ; but the CP-violating penguin contribution (Grinstein, 1989; Gronau, 1989; London and Peccei, 1989),

which is also of order  $A\lambda^3$ , can be of order 10%, depending on the particular decay.

(2)  $b \rightarrow u + \bar{u} + s$ , yielding decays like  $B \rightarrow K \pi$ . In this case the tree diagram is suppressed by a factor  $A\lambda^4$ , whereas the penguin graphs with  $t$  or  $c$  quarks in the loop have a factor  $A\lambda^2$ . In this case one expects the dominant contribution to come from penguin graphs, but there is still a significant tree-graph contribution.

(3)  $b \rightarrow d + \overline{s} + s$ , yielding decays like  $B \rightarrow K\overline{K}$ . In this case there is no tree contribution, but the different quarks  $(u, c, t)$  in the penguin loops come in with different phases.

The most direct signal of CP violation in a decay amplitude is a difference in the partial decay rates of  $B^+$ and  $B^-$ . This is discussed in the next section.

In the case of  $B^0$  decays, the effect of adding penguin diagrams tot tree diagrams is to modify the time dependence from the form of Eq. (8.3) to

$$
P_a(t) \sim e^{-\Gamma t} [1 \pm X_a \cos(\Delta m) t \pm \alpha(a) \eta_a \sin(\Delta m) t].
$$
\n(8.11)

The new term proportional to  $cos(\Delta m)t$  gives a difference between  $B^0$  and  $\overline{B}^0$  decay rates at time  $t = 0$ before any mixing takes place. Therefore it has the same origin as the difference between  $B^+$  and  $B^-$  partial rates. The other effect is to modify the coefficient of the  $sin(\Delta m)t$  term. In particular, for the case of decays of the form (8.7), the asymmetry parameter  $\alpha$  is no longer given by Eq. (8.8). Instead, assuming  $X_a$  is very small,

$$
\alpha(b \to u + \overline{u} + d) = \sin(2\beta + \psi_a) ,
$$
  

$$
\tan \psi_a = \frac{\eta}{\rho} \left[ 1 + \frac{R_a}{\rho(1 - R_a)} \right]^{-1} ,
$$

where  $R_a$  is the ratio of the penguin matrix element to the tree matrix element for the final state a. Theoretical estimates based on the work of Bauer, Stech, and Wirbel (1985) suggest that  $R_a$  is quite different for different decays. As a result, in principle, even if  $\alpha(\pi^+\pi^-)$  were equal to  $\alpha(\psi K_{S})$ , the ambiguity discussed in Eq. (8.10), this equality would not hold for all  $b \rightarrow u + \overline{u} + d$  decays. This is illustrated in Table V (Soares and Wolfenstein, 1992).

TABLE V. Theoretical values of the asymmetry parameters  $\alpha$  and branching ratios for several decays where  $(\eta, \rho)$  have been chosen so  $\alpha(\pi^+\pi^-)=\alpha(\psi K_S)$ .

Final state a		$\rho = 0.2, \eta = 0.3$		$\rho = 0.4, \eta = 0.3$	
	$R_a$	$\alpha$	<b>BR</b>	$\alpha$	<b>BR</b>
$\psi K_S$	0	0.66		0.82	
$\pi^+\pi^-$	0.06	0.66	$10^{-5}$	0.82	$2 \times 10^{-5}$
$\pi^0\pi^0$	0.19	0.93	$6\times10^{-7}$	0.95	$1 \times 10^{-6}$
$\pi^0 \rho^0$	0.09	0.76	$2 \times 10^{-6}$	0.86	$3 \times 10^{-6}$
$\rho^0 \rho^0$	0.12	0.82	$10^{-6}$	0.89	$2 \times 10^{-6}$

Rev. Mod. Phys. , Vol. 65, No. 4, October 1993

# D. CP violation in  $B^+, B^-$  decays

A measure of direct CP violation is the difference in the rates of a particle P and its antiparticle  $\bar{P}$  to a state or set of states  $F(F)$ ,

$$
\Delta_F = \Gamma(\overline{P} \rightarrow \overline{F}) - \Gamma(P \rightarrow F) .
$$

The asymmetry is then given by

$$
a_F = \Delta_F / \Sigma_F = \frac{\overline{\Gamma} - \Gamma}{\overline{\Gamma} + \Gamma} \ .
$$

It follows from CPT invariance that the total rate of decay of P and  $\overline{P}$  are equal. In order to obtain a significant difference in partial rates, one must have a strong finalstate interaction linking different final states. In addition, of course, there must be two contributions to the decay amplitude with a weak CP-violating phase difference between them.

The decays that have been most discussed in this regard (Gérard and Hou, 1991; Simma, Wyler, and Eilam, 1991; Wolfenstein, 1991) are  $B^+(B^-)$  decays corresponding to the quark transitions

 $b \rightarrow s\overline{u}u$ , (8.12a)

 $b \rightarrow s\bar{s}s$ , (8.12b)

 $b \rightarrow d\overline{u}u$ , (8.12c)

 $b \rightarrow d\bar{s}s$ , (8.12d)

where, as discussed in the last section, there are large penguin contributions. Calculations have concentrated on the inclusive decays, with the final-state interaction corresponding to the absorptive part of a quark diagram (Bander, Silverman, and Soni, 1979). For example, in the  $b \rightarrow s\bar{u}u$  amplitude, there would be a term

$$
b\!\to\! s\overline{c}c\!\to\! s\overline{u}u
$$

corresponding to final-state scattering from states like  $D\overline{D}_s$  to states like  $K^+n\pi$ . For the inclusive decays (8.12a) and (8.12b), the asymmetries  $a_F$  are found to be of the order of 1% or less, and the asymmetries are even smaller for (8.12c). For the rare decays (8.12d) with an inclusive branching ratio of the order  $10^{-4}$ , the inclusive asymmetry  $a_F$  may lie between 3% and 40% depending on the values of  $\rho$  and  $\eta$ . The calculation for exclusive decays is much less certain, because there is important final-state scattering between states with the same quark content. In one particular calculation (Simma and Wyler, 1991), the asymmetry for  $B^- \rightarrow K^- K^0$  $(B^+\rightarrow K^+K^0)$  is found to be about the same as for the inclusive decay (8.12d). However, the exclusive branching ratio is expected to be between  $10^{-6}$  and  $10^{-7}$ . Large asymmetries are also possible in the decay  $B \rightarrow \rho + \gamma$ (Soares, 1991).

It is possible to get interference between two amplitudes even without penguins in a very special type of decay (Bigi and Sanda, 1988; Gronau and Wyler, 1991).

One considers the two decay amplitudes

$$
A(b \to c\overline{u}s) \propto V_{cb}V_{us}^* = A\lambda^3 ,
$$
  

$$
A(b \to u\overline{c}s) \propto V_{ub}V_{cs}^* = A\lambda^3(\rho - i\eta) .
$$

These lead to the decays  $B^- \rightarrow D^0 K^-$  and  $B^- \rightarrow \overline{D}^0 K^-$ . respectively:

$$
A (B^- \rightarrow D^0 K^-) = A_1 e^{i\delta_1},
$$
  

$$
A (B^- \rightarrow \overline{D}{}^0 K^-) = A_2 e^{-i\gamma} e^{i\delta_2},
$$

where  $\gamma$  is the phase of  $V_{ub}^*$ , and  $\delta_1$  and  $\delta_2$  are stronginteraction phase shifts, mainly related to inelastic scattering. It is now possible to imagine looking at  $D$  decays into a CP eigenstate. Since one expects negligible  $\emph{CP}$  violation in the  $D$  decay, one would in this way distinguish the states  $D_+$  and  $D_-$  with well-defined CP properties; for example,

$$
\frac{D^{0} + \overline{D}^{0}}{\sqrt{2}} = D_{+} \rightarrow K^{+} K^{-} \text{ or } \pi^{+} \pi^{-} ,
$$
  

$$
\frac{D^{0} - \overline{D}^{0}}{\sqrt{2}} = D_{-} \rightarrow K_{S} \pi^{0} .
$$

We then find a rate asymmetry

$$
\Gamma(B^{-} \to D_{+} + K^{-}) - \Gamma(B^{+} \to D_{+} + K^{+})
$$
  
\n
$$
\Gamma(B^{-} \to D_{+} + K^{-}) + \Gamma(B^{+} \to D_{+} + K^{+})
$$
  
\n
$$
= \left[ \frac{2 A_{1} A_{2}}{A_{1}^{2} + A_{2}^{2}} \right] \sin \gamma \sin(\delta_{2} - \delta_{1}) \quad (8.13)
$$

and the same asymmetry with opposite sign for a  $D_{-}$  in the final state.

The ratio  $A_1/A_2$  can be experimentally determined by observing the decays to  $D^0$  or  $\overline{D}^0$ , the flavor eigenstates. We expect  $A_2/A_1$  to equal  $\sqrt{p^2 + \rho^2}$  times a colorsuppression factor of the order of  $\frac{1}{4}$ . Thus the first factor on the right-hand side in Eq. (8.13) is of order 0.2. Most of the  $(\eta,\rho)$  solutions have  $\sin\gamma > \frac{1}{2}$ . The great uncertainty is  $sin(\delta_1 - \delta_2)$ . In any case it is unlikely the asymmetry is greater than 10%, and it is probably considerably smaller. Unfortunately, the largest cascade branching ratios, such as  $B^- \rightarrow D^0 K^- \rightarrow (K_S \pi^0) K^-$ , are expected to be only of order  $10^{-6}$ .

#### E. Experimental prospects

Although the asymmetries expected in the standard model are generally large, it is still not trivial to be able to detect them and then measure them with enough precision to rule out superweak models. This is primarily a result of the fact that those modes that will show appreciable asymmetry have relatively small branching ratios. It is generally believed that one must produce and be able to observe the decays from of order  $\gtrsim 10^8$  B mesons in order to cleanly observe the expected effects.

Aside from hadronic interactions to which we shall re-

turn later, the most copious source of  $B$  mesons is through the  $\Psi(4s)$  resonance. The  $\Psi(4s)$  decays into  $B^{+}B^{-}$  or  $B^{0}\overline{B}^{0}$  with a definite angular momentum with  $C = -1$  and  $P = -1$ . The cross section to produce this resonance in  $e^+e^-$  is 1.15 nb; this is the highest cross section for *B*-meson production at any energy below the  $Z^0$  resonance. The signal-to-noise ratio is  $\frac{1}{3}$ , highest of any  $B$  production process.

To study the expected particle/antiparticle decay distributions in neutral- $B$  decays to  $CP$  eigenstates, it is necessary to tag the  $B$  mesons. This is readily accomplished at the  $\Psi(4s)$  by observation of an appropriate decay of the other  $B$  meson. However, because the initial state has  $C = -1$ , the time-integrated asymmetries vanish whether or not  $CP$  is violated. Hence it is necessary to measure the time difference between the decay of the tagging  $B$  and the  $B$  decay to the  $\mathbb{CP}$  eigenstate.

The mean decay length of a B meson is only 23  $\mu$ m when produced with equal energy  $e^+$  and  $e^-$  beams, and it is now beyond detector technology to measure the vertex difference in such a situation. Even if the 8-meson decay vertices were reconstructed with sufficient resolution, the distance between the two decay vertices gives the sum of the decay times rather than the difference. Hence one needs to give the center of mass a boost, and this is accomplished by running the collider asymmetrically (Dunietz and Nakada, 1987; Oddone, 1987; Aleksan et al., 1989), for example, an 8-GeV electron beam colliding with a 3.5 GeV positron beam, which seems to be close to the optimal condition for the experiment (Nakada, 1989). Both decays are then boosted in the direction of the electron beam, and, to a very good approximation, the decay time difference is proportional to the vertex separation along that axis, which would be, in the example given, about 160  $\mu$ m.

Such asymmetric colliders are under design at Stanford (SLAC, 1991), Cornell (Cornell, 1991), and KEK (KEK, 1990). The design luminosity is  $3 \times 10^{33}$  cm<sup>-2</sup> sec<sup>-1</sup>. Operating for three full years  $(10^7 \text{ sec/year})$  at design luminosity will accumulate about 100 fb<sup> $-1$ </sup> and will produce about  $10^8$  B-meson pairs. The design luminosity is an order of magnitude greater than is available today, and the machine poses significant challenges, including meeting the requirement of a clean environment around the vertex detectors, which must be close to the interaction point. At present none of the proposals has official approval.

For our purposes, perhaps the easiest measurement to make with such a facility is the asymmetry in the decay to  $\psi K_S$ . The branching ratio is known (4×10<sup>-4</sup>) and the decay has been reconstructed with little background. With the 100  $fb^{-1}$  exposure, it is estimated that the asymmetry into this mode can be determined with a precision of 0.05 to 0.07. Other similar decays, such as  $\psi K^*$ (Kayser et al., 1990), can also be used to determine the same (quark level) asymmetry; however, it will be prudent to regard these as "insurance" against possible shortfalls elsewhere.

As was mentioned earlier, it is necessary to tag the oth-

er B decay. To reach the precision in the  $\psi K_S$  mode, it is necessary to tag the other  $B$  with kaons (requiring particle identification) as well as with semileptonic decays. In addition, it is desirable to observe the  $K_s \rightarrow 2\pi^0$  decays requiring a high-precision electromagnetic calorimeter. Such a detector is already in place in CLEO.

Thus the asymmetry in the  $\psi K_S$  mode ought to be determined with reasonable precision after a few years of operation of a  $B$  factory. To rule out the superweak model, it is necessary to see a different size effect in another transition, and thus we now turn to the experimental feasibility of the  $\pi^+\pi^-$  decay. Unfortunately, there is as yet no measurement of the branching ratio, with only an upper limit of a few  $\times 10^{-5}$  (Drell, 1992). In addition, there is background with which to contend, coming largely from the continuum. The background can be substantially reduced by making cuts using the vertex detector. Assuming a branching ratio of  $1 \times 10^{-5}$ , a precision of 0.10 for the  $\pi^{+}\pi^{-}$  asymmetry would be obained with the 100  $fb^{-1}$  exposure. While other modes, even non-CP eigenstates, can likely be used (e.g.,  $\rho \pi$ , Aleksan et al., 1991), we shall again adopt a conservative approach, keeping these other options in the background as insurance.

In conclusion, with a  $B$  factory delivering an integrated luminosity of 30 fb<sup>-1</sup> per year and an appropriate detector, the asymmetry in the  $\psi K_S$  mode should be able to be determined with a precision of better than  $10\%$ after three years. The asymmetry in  $\pi\pi$  could also be determined with comparable precision if the branching ratio is of order  $1 \times 10^{-5}$ . Depending upon the actual values of the asymmetries, for a substantial portion of the allowed values of the CKM matrix parameters, one could establish direct CP violation and thereby rule out the superweak model; however, as discussed in Sec. VIII.B, there are values of the parameters for which the two cannot be distinguished (Winstein, 1992).

The technique (Gronau and Wyler, 1991) proposed for measuring the third angle of the unitarity triangle,  $\gamma$ , using decays of the  $\psi$ (4S), can be used to detect a direct effect through the rate asymmetry given in Eq.  $(8.13)$ above, allowing the distinction between the standard and superweak models. A recent (Witherell, 1992) estimate has been made for the capability of a  $B$  factory experiment to observe such an asymmetry. It was found that with an 100 fb<sup>-1</sup> exposure, the statistical error on the asymmetry in Eq. (8.13) would be about 35%, a figure far from what is needed. However, since the degree of color suppression is unknown, this remains an experimental question.

Charged decays, in general, offer some significant advantages in the search for direct CP effects. First, the "self-tagging" decays, for example,  $B^- \rightarrow D^0 \pi^-$ , are useful, since the decay products determine uniquely the sign of the decaying  $B$  meson. Second, there are charmless decays without a complicated decay chain, such as  $\rho K$  or  $\rho\pi$ , which can be reconstructed with high efficiency. The charged 8's are produced in equal numbers, so one simply needs to count decays to the state and to the CP conjugate state. (This feature is probably unique to the  $e^+e^-$  colliders: *pp* colliders are not charge symmetric, and the production ratio has to be measured. )

One needs two interfering amplitudes (a penguin and a Cabibbo-suppressed spectator) together with a strong phase difference and, of course, a weak phase difference. Unfortunately, there are large uncertainties at present on the size of the penguin contributions. These uncertainties will be limited when the branching ratios are better determined. It is generally true that the channels with the smallest branching ratios are expected to give the largest asymmetries.

Given the cross section and the fraction of charged  $B$ 's produced at the  $\Psi(4S)$ , one can calculate the statistical error on a determination of the asymmetry in a charged- $B$  decay to a final state with a branching ratio  $B$  and detection efficiency  $\varepsilon$  from a 100 fb<sup>-1</sup> exposure. The result is

$$
\sigma(A) = 6\% \sqrt{10^{-5}/B} \sqrt{0.25/\epsilon} .
$$

Given the present status of the predictions, it appears that one would have to be "lucky" to have a branching ratio at the level of  $10^{-5}$  and an asymmetry of order 20%, allowing a three-standard-deviation observation of direct  $\mathbb{CP}$  violation. Given the large number of channels over which to search, a four- or five-standard-deviation efFect would be more desirable.

A copious source of  $B$  mesons exists at hadron machines. For example, at the Fermilab Tevatron, the cross section for the production of B-meson pairs appears to be around 60  $\mu$ b. The Main Injector upgrade for that machine will provide a peak luminosity of  $5 \times 10^{31}$  cm sec<sup>-1</sup>. Thus, in two years of running (10<sup>7</sup> sec/year), a total of 1 fb<sup>-1</sup> could be collected; within this sample there would be  $6 \times 10^{10}$  B-meson pairs produced. The rates far exceed those at a dedicated  $e^+e^-$  machine; however, the signal to noise is far worse, about  $10^{-3}$ . This is roughly the level for charm production in Fermilab fixed-target experiments, and the success of the latter lead one to be optimistic regarding studies of  $B$  mesons at the collider.

Several groups (Castro et al., 1990, 1991; Ellett et al., 1991) have analyzed the possibilities; these have recently been summarized (Fermilab, 1992). There are a few key ingredients that a detector would need in order to make meaningful measurements of the expected asymmetries in the neutral- $B$  decays. These are a three-dimensional vertex detector, the ability to trigger on secondary vertices, and  $K/\pi$  particle identification.

The vertex detector is needed to give background rejection and to allow the study of the time dependence of the B-meson decays. The ability to trigger on a secondary vertex is perhaps the most challenging requirement. This is necessary, in particular, for the  $B \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-$  decay; for  $\psi K_S$  and related modes, the  $\mu\mu$  signature provides an easy trigger. The particle identification is needed for two reasons: first, to increase the tagging efficiency, since the other  $B$  gives a  $K$  meson much more often than a lepton; and, second, to allow the discrimination of the  $\pi\pi$  decay from the  $K\pi$  decay.

The major focus of the CDF (Collider Detector at Fermilab) group is the continuing search for the top quark and other high mass scale physics. Nevertheless, they are gaining valuable experience in  $\bm{B}$  physics now at the collider with a recently installed silicon vertex detector (Muller, 1993). Issues related to how cleanly and how efficiently one can separate vertices can only be addressed with such experience. They have presented (Bedeschi, 1993) a curve of reconstructed lifetime for inclusive  $J/\Psi$ events, which shows a prompt signal (85%) and a signal  $(15%)$  having a lifetime consistent, with good precision, with the world average  $b$  lifetime. In addition, they have reconstructed  $J/\psi K_S$  and  $J/\psi K^{\pm}$  decays of B mesons with little background. Based upon their current vields, it is estimated that by the end of Fermilab's collider Run I in late 1994 with an accumulated luminosity of 100  $pb^{-1}$ , they will have about 200  $J/\psi K_S$  and 1000  $J/\psi K^{\pm}$ events. With respect to the tagging efficiency, little is known experimentally regarding the correlations in the B production processes. The collider detector at Fermilab will be able to study these correlations to better determine the tagging efficiency; from simulations, it is estimated to be in the range of  $3\%$ . False tagging and the cleanliness of the signals will also be studied. A substantial upgrade is in the works for the fo11owing collider Run II with a more powerful vertex detector having extended coverage. In Run II, to begin around 1997 with about 150 pb<sup>-1</sup>, CDF should collect about 1000  $J/\psi K_s$ events with a tagging efficiency in the  $5-10\%$  range, perhaps permitting a measurement of  $sin(2\beta)$  at the level of 20%. Some trigger improvements are necessary to handle the higher luminosity.

To push beyond this level will require even more intensity; the Main Injector ring should give an additional factor of 5. A dedicated  $B$  experiment at the Main Injector might be a new one or a redirected collider experiment (CDF or DO). It is estimated that with the CDF detector, by adding silicon detectors in the forward direction perhaps another factor of 10 tagged  $J/\psi K_S$  events could be collected with 1 fb<sup>-1</sup>, permitting a measurement of  $sin(2\beta)$  with a precision of 0.07.

The  $\pi^+\pi^-$  state poses significant additional problems, which will be addressed to some extent in the current runs. The background level in this mode is not known. As was mentioned earlier, one must develop a trigger on a displaced vertex and make sure that this is sufficiently stable and will not significantly bias the sample.

At the SSC, there are two possibilities for  $\mathbb{CP}$  studies in  $B$  decays: a collider option and a fixed-target option. The same is true for the LHC.

At the collider, the  $B$  production cross section is likely in the range of 500  $\mu$ b with a corresponding signal to noise of about 0.5%. Running at a reduced luminosity of  $10<sup>7</sup>$  interactions per second, the collider still produces about  $5 \times 10^{11}$  B pairs per year of running, about one order of magnitude more than at the upgraded Tevatron. Thus the prospects are good that one could make detailed studies at the SSC, if a dedicated B-meson experiment were constructed.

An extracted 20-TeV external beam can also be used to study  $B$  physics at the SSC (Cox, 1990). The cross section is expected to be in the  $10-\mu b$  range, so that, with an interaction rate of  $10^7$ /sec, about  $5 \times 10^{10}$  B pairs are produced per year of running, comparable to the upgraded Fermilab Tevatron. Since the B-decay products have much higher momentum and are boosted into a smaller solid angle, there are potentially several advantages. With a "live target" of silicon planes, the (charged)  $\bm{B}$ tracks are directly registered: on average, a B meson travels about 10 cm before decaying. In addition, at such momenta, multiple Coulomb scattering of the decay products is nearly negligible, and lepton triggering is likely more efficient. The proponents estimate that  $sin(2\beta)$ could be determined at the percent level in one year of running.

The  $B_s$  meson will likely not be studied at an  $e^+e^$ factory. If it could be isolated at a hadron collider, a measurement of its decay asymmetry to  $J/\psi \varphi$  could give information on the question at hand. This is because the standard model predicts negligible asymmetry for such a decay, whereas a superweak model could have a sizable asymmetry (Gérard and Nakada, 1991).

It should be emphasized that many systems in an SSC B experiment, either at the collider or in fixed-target mode, need to perform well beyond what has been achieved in existing experiments.

#### IX. OTHER MODELS OF CP VIOLATION

The standard KM model provides the most economical theory of CP violation, because it requires no particles or interactions beyond those already known or needed for understanding electroweak interactions. The CP violation is introduced explicitly into the Yukawa interaction of the quarks with the Higgs field. When the Higgs field acquires a vacuum expectation value, this yields CP-violating mass matrices; the diagonalization of these matrices results in the CP-violating CKM mixing matrix. Our interest in looking at theories that go beyond the standard model arises from (1) the lack of evidence yet available confirming the standard model, (2) the hope that one may gain greater insight into the origins of CP violation, and (3) the sensitivity of CP violation to new physics.

Alternative gauge theories require an extension of the gauge group or at least of the particle content of the standard model. In general, even though such theories provide new CP-violating interactions, they still have the CP violation of the KM type; that is, the parameter  $\eta$  will not be zero unless some new symmetry of the model requires it. In this paper we have contrasted two extremes: (1) All CP violation is due to a new superweak interaction; (2) all CP violation is explained by the standard model. Given the present experimental situation, we believe this is useful. In fact, most theories with a superweak interaction also have a nonzero  $\eta$ , although the value of  $\eta$  may be too small to explain the value of  $\varepsilon$  in the  $K^0$  system.

A superweak interaction relevant to  $K^0$  and  $B^0$  physics leads to an efFective interaction of the form

$$
C_b \overline{b} O_i d\overline{b} O_i d + C_s \overline{s} O_i d\overline{s} O_i d + \text{H.c.} \tag{9.1}
$$

where  $O_i$  is a Dirac operator. If the superweak contribution to the  $K^0$ - $\overline{K}$ <sup>0</sup> or  $B^0$ - $\overline{B}$ <sup>0</sup> mixing matrix is called  $\mu$ , then

$$
\frac{\mu(B)}{\mu(K)} \sim \frac{f_B^2 m_B C_b}{f_K^2 m_K C_s} \tag{9.2}
$$

using vacuum insertion to calculate the matrix elements in  $(9.1)$ . The observables Q related to the mass matrix [for example,  $\tilde{\epsilon}$  in Eq. (2.2)] are proportional to  $\mu/\Delta m$ . where  $\Delta m$  is the measured mass difference between the eigenstates. Therefore

$$
\frac{Q(B)}{Q(K)} \sim \frac{f_B^2 m_B C_b \Delta m(K)}{f_K^2 m_K C_s \Delta m(B)}.
$$

Since  $\Delta m$  (B)  $\sim$  10<sup>2</sup> $\Delta m$  (K),

$$
\frac{Q(B)}{Q(K)} \sim \frac{1}{10} \frac{f_B^2}{f_K^2} \frac{C_b}{C_s} \tag{9.3}
$$

There are at least four possibilities discussed in the literature.

(1) The superweak interaction has a large CP violation, so that it contributes to  $\varepsilon_K$  but not to  $\Delta m(K)$ . The magnitude of  $Q(K)$  is then of the order  $10^{-2}$  to  $10^{-3}$ . If we assume

$$
(C_b/C_s) \le (m_b/m_s) \tag{9.4}
$$

and  $(f_R/f_K)^2 < 3$ , then

$$
Q(B) \le 10Q(K) \le (10^{-2} \text{ to } 10^{-1}). \tag{9.5}
$$

Even though the superweak  $CP$  violation in the  $B$  systems given by (9.5) may be somewhat bigger than in the  $K$  system, it still is at least an order of magnitude smaller than expected in the standard model. With these assumptions, the superweak interaction is not important for  $B$  decays.

(2) The superweak interaction may make a significant contribution to  $\Delta m(K)$ . Letting  $Q_R$  represent CPconserving observables, we let  $Q_R(K) \sim (10^{-1} \text{ to } 1)$ ; then, assuming (9.4) again,

$$
Q_R(B) \le 1
$$
 to 10.

In this case  $\Delta m(B)$  can arise from the interplay of superweak and standard model contributions (Liu and Wolfenstein, 1987b; Soares and Wolfenstein, 1992), although the superweak CP violation is not important for the B system.

(3) If we assume  $(C_b / C_s)$  is larger than  $(m_b / m_s)$ , then there can be a large superweak CP-violating contribution to  $B^0$ - $\overline{B}$  mixing as well as the CP-conserving one (Gérard and Nakada, 1991).

(4)  $C_b$  is much larger than  $C_s$ , so there are significant

superweak effects in the B system but not in the K system (Nir and Silverman, 1990).

The simplest extension of the standard model is to add extra Higgs doublets. There is no basic reason to assume there is only a single scalar field in the theory. In general, theories with more than one Higgs doublet will have flavor-changing neutral scalar-boson exchange (FCNE). There are then two possibilities: (1) adjoin a discrete symmetry to forbid the FCNE leading to the Weinberg (1976) model of CP violation or (2) allow FCNE, but sufficiently small, leading to a superweak interaction.

The superweak CP-violating scalar-boson-exchange models have been formulated by many authors (Sikivie, 1976; Lahanas and Vayonakis, 1979; Branco et al., 1985; Liu and Wolfenstein, 1987a; Deshpande et al., 1992). In general, it is assumed that the scalar boson that is exchanged has a mass much larger than the electroweak scale, so as to make the interaction superweak. Liu and Wolfenstein (1987a) assume the scalar boson has a mass of the electroweak scale, but tune the couplings to make the interaction sufficiently weak.

Quantitative predictions of superweak scalar-exchange models depend on the variety of parameters such models necessarily contain. The following are some general features.

(1) The value of  $\varepsilon$  is primarily determined by the superweak interaction. The papers that consider the KM parameter  $\eta$  (Liu and Wolfenstein, 1987a; Deshpande et al., 1992) find that  $\eta$  determines the value of  $\varepsilon'$ , which may be within an order of magnitude of the standard model prediction. On the other hand, it is possible to force  $\eta$  to zero by a discrete symmetry (Bigi and Sanda, 1989; Lavoura, 1992).

(2) The FCNE may provide significant CP-violating effects in rare processes such as  $K_L \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$  (Liu and Wolfenstein, 1987a).

(3) Since Higgs bosons couple proportionately to mass, the FCNE interactions are stronger for the  $B^0$  system than for the  $K^0$  system. Thus it is possible, but not necessary, that the FCNE plays a significant role in  $B^0$ - $\overline{B}$ <sup>0</sup> mixing.

In the Weinberg model of CP violation due to Higgs exchange, there are three Higgs doublets. As a result of a discrete symmetry, only  $\varphi_1$  couples to up-type quarks and  $\varphi_2$  to down-type quarks. It then follows that there is no FCNE. The model contains two physical charged Higgs particles  $H_1^+, H_2^+$ , and CP violation occurs due to the tree-level exchange of these particles. Thus CP violation occurs in the decay amplitude (direct  $CP$  violation) as well as in  $K^0$ - $\overline{K}$ <sup>0</sup> mixing in second order. The calculation of  $\varepsilon'/\varepsilon$  (Donoghue and Holstein, 1985) is very uncertain, but the order of magnitude is  $10^{-2}$  if one tries to explain the value of  $\varepsilon$  entirely from this cause. In this case, also, one tends to obtain too large a value for the electric dipole moment of the neutron (Anselm et al., 1985; Khatsymovsky et al., 1987; Bigi and Sanda, 1989). On the other hand, if one assumes this interaction occurs in addition to the standard KM CP violation, then it may be unimportant for c but may make important contributions to  $\epsilon'/\epsilon$  and to electric dipole moments. A unique feature of such Higgs exchange models is CP violation in semileptonic decays such as  $K \rightarrow \pi \mu \nu$  (Belanger and Geng, 1992; Garisto and Kane, 1992), but the effects are probably too small to be observed.

Another possibility is to add heavy quarks to the theory that are singlets under the usual SU(2), so that they do not have the normal weak interaction. As a result of mixing between the singlet quarks and the usual quarks, there will be FCNE involving the Z bosons, since the GIM (Glashow-Iliopolis-Maini) mechanism is violated. If the mixing is large enough, this Z exchange could provide a superweak mechanism for  $B^0$ - $\overline{B}$  <sup>0</sup> mixing (Nir and Silverman, 1990).

Gauge theories that go beyond the standard model involve larger groups that can be decomposed to  $SU(3)\times SU(2)\times U(1)\times G$ . These models may be superweak if 6 involves <sup>a</sup> horizontal symmetry, so that the gauge bosons in G change flavor and may allow  $\Delta S = 2$  at tree level (Mohapatra et al., 1975; Maehara and Yanagida, 1978, 1979; Shanker, 1981; Joshipura and Montvay, 1982). As in the standard model, the origin of the CP violation is in the quark mixing matrices. In most papers it is assumed that this superweak interaction is the only source of CP violation, but this requires some additional symmetry to force the KM CP violation to vanish. Unlike the case of Higgs models, there is little reason in these models to expect significant CP violation in the  $B^0$ system. In general, in these models the new gauge boson mass is greater than  $10^3$  TeV (Decker *et al.*, 1984), but in a version by Hou and Soni (1987) the mass can be as low as 10 TeV.

Still another class of superweak models (Barr and Zee, 1985) involves the exchange of diquarks. These are constructed with spontaneous CP violation such that there is no KM CP violation.

One of the simplest extensions of the standard model gauge group is the "left-right" theory with the group  $SU(2)_L \times SU(2)_R \times U(1)$ . Mohapatra and Pati (1975) originally pointed out that even with two generations of quarks one could get CP violation in this model. With three generations of quarks, the model contains many parameters and many sources of CP violation. These include, in addition to the parameter  $\eta$  in the KM matrix, (1) six phases associated with the coupling of the  $W_R$ gauge boson, (2) a phase describing the mixing of the usual W boson with  $W_R$ , and (3) superweak scalar-boson exchange. The phenomenology of various versions of this model is given in reviews by Mohapatra (1989) and Ecker and Grimus (1985). Of most interest are those versions in which  $W_R$  is sufficiently light (less than 10 TeV), so that most CP violation is associated with  $W_R$  exchange. The order of magnitude of  $\varepsilon'/\varepsilon$  is  $5 \times 10^{-3}$  in these versions, but no real quantitative statements can be made. As in other models, it is possible (if  $W_R$  is heavier) that  $\varepsilon$  is primarily explained by the KM parameter  $\eta$ , but that  $\varepsilon'$  and dipole moments may be dominated by the new physics.

#### X. CONCLUSIONS

We have described the theoretical and experimental status relevant to the most likely avenues in the search for a direct  $CP$ -violating effect. We regard the firm establishment of such an effect as an important milestone in the already nearly 30-year experimental study of CP nonconservation.

If the effect is soon established, it will lend strong support to the hypothesis that the source of CP violation is in the normal charged current and is associated with physics at the scale of 100 GeV. In the absence of such an established effect, models that sense physics at much higher mass scales are still viable, in particular, left-right symmetric theories and various superweak models.

If the standard model correctly accounts for CP violation through a nonzero value of the parameter  $\eta$ , the most likely place where a direct effect will first be established is in the continuing measurements of  $\epsilon'/\epsilon$ . Two experiments already have measured  $\epsilon'/\epsilon$  to an accuracy below  $10^{-3}$ . One of these experiments (NA31 at CERN) gives a result over three standard deviations away from zero, which is on the high side of the allowed range in the standard model. The other (E731 at Fermilab) finds a smaller value not significantly different from zero. Both groups are building new experiments with sensitivities close to  $10^{-4}$ , which should run in the mid 1990s. With this sensitivity it is likely that a definitive nonzero value of  $\varepsilon'/\varepsilon$  will be found if the standard model is correct. However, a result consistent with zero will not rule out the standard model, because of the uncertainties in the prediction.

Still in the area of K decays, the  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 e^+e^-$  and  $\pi^0 \nu \bar{\nu}$  channels are the most promising. The former may have a significant indirect contribution and a large background as well. The latter, while pure direct CP violating, is experimentally very challenging. Both of these studies will need a much more intense source of kaons than is now available, such as can be derived from the Main Injector ring at Fermilab. These investigations with the requisite sensitivity are not likely to commence before the year 2000.

The  $B$  meson promises to be a rich laboratory for the study of  $CP$ -violating effects. A  $B$  factory would provide an intense source of relatively clean B-meson decays. If the standard CKM model is correct, CP violation in the neutral-B decay to  $\psi K_S$  can almost certainly be seen at an asymmetric  $B$  factory. The branching ratio for this mode is known and the channel is quite clean. The theoretical uncertainties in relating such an effect to the parameters of the CKM matrix are very small. Such an observation would constitute a major discovery, that of the first signature of CP violation outside of the neutralkaon system. It could, however, be superweak in nature. To establish direct CP violation, a different size effect must be established in another channel. The  $\pi\pi$  decay is a good candidate, and if the branching ratio is  $10^{-5}$  or greater, then with a 100  $fb^{-1}$  exposure a clear direct effect should be established over much of the allowed

#### $(\rho, \eta)$  parameter space.

The possibilities for such studies at a  $B$  factory are so attractive that it is likely that at least one mill be built. Such an integrated luminosity will in all probability be accumulated sometime early in the next decade. Direct CP violation could also be demonstrated by observing the difference in  $B^+$  and  $B^-$  decays to a particular channel, such as  $\rho K$ . The sizes of the possible asymmetries are quite uncertain, in particular because of their dependence on final-state interactions. Such observations could be made at a symmetric  $\psi(4S)$  B factory. On the other hand, reasonable estimates suggest that it is very unlikely that such an asymmetry could be definitely observed with even  $100$  fb<sup>-1</sup>.

Although there are many modes that can be studied at a  $B$  factory, it is likely that, if direct  $\mathbb{CP}$  violation remains an open question after the  $\psi K_S$  and  $\pi\pi$  studies, a much more intense source of  $B$  mesons will be needed. Such a source will exist at the Fermilab Tevatron with the Main Injector upgrade, and an even more intense source will exist when the SSC and LHC begin operation early in the next decade. It will be up to the ingenuity of a new generation of experimental physicists to fully exploit the ca-

pability of the hadron colliders in this area.<br>Note added in proof. A final result on  $\varepsilon'/\varepsilon$  from the NA31 Collaboration has been submitted for publication and will appear shortly  $[G, D, Barr et al., Phys. Lett. B]$ 317, 233 (1993)]. They report

$$
Re(\epsilon'/\epsilon) = (20.3 \pm 4.3 \pm 5.0)
$$
  
× 10<sup>-4</sup> (NA31 '88, '89 Final),

where they combine the 1988 and 1989 data sets. They then combine this result with their 1986 one, taking into account correlated systematic errors, to give

$$
Re(\epsilon'/\epsilon) = (23 \pm 3.6 \pm 5.4)
$$
  
× 10<sup>-4</sup> (NA31 Final).

Averaging now this result with the final one from E731, using the procedure in Sec. V.B.5, gives

$$
Re(\varepsilon'/\varepsilon) = (14 \pm 8)
$$
  
×10<sup>-4</sup> (NA31, E731 average)

so that we cannot as yet claim that direct CP violation is established.

The CLEO Collaboration is now reporting a positive observation for the sum of the  $B \rightarrow \pi\pi$  and  $B \rightarrow K\pi$ branching ratios (M. Battle et al., CLEO Report No. CBX 93-90). The value is  $2.4 \times 10^{-5}$  and is more than 4 standard deviations from zero. For the  $\pi\pi$  branching ratio itself, they are reporting  $B(B^0 \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-)\approx(1.3$  $\pm 0.7$   $\times$  10<sup>-5</sup>. More data is being collected and if this is confirmed, then the prospects for the study of the  $sin(2\alpha)$ decay modes at a 8 Factory are good. At this time, it appears that the U.S. Congress has approved the SLAC proposal for a 8 Factory. Sadly, it has terminated the SSC project.

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