Introduction to neutrino mass models Lecture 3: TBM from A<sub>4</sub> symmetry

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- 3 Symmetry-based model-building: A<sub>4</sub> 3HDM example
- 4 TBM PMNS from  $A_4$  symmetry

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Basics of group theory

Symmetry-based models

**TBM PMNS from** *A*<sub>4</sub> **symmetry** 

# **PMNS** matrix

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Neutrino mass models 3

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Basics of group theory

Symmetry-based models

**TBM PMNS from** *A*<sub>4</sub> **symmetry** 

#### Quark masses in SM: single generation

Yukawa interactions provide masses to quarks:

$$\begin{aligned} -\mathcal{L}_{Y}^{(d)} &= y_{d}(\bar{Q}_{L}\Phi d_{R} + \bar{d}_{R}\Phi^{\dagger}Q_{L}) \rightarrow y_{d}(\bar{u}_{L}, \bar{d}_{L}) \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \frac{v}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix} d_{R} + h.c. \\ &= \frac{y_{d}v}{\sqrt{2}}(\bar{d}_{L}d_{R} + \bar{d}_{R}d_{L}) \equiv m_{d}\bar{d}d. \\ -\mathcal{L}_{Y}^{(u)} &= y_{u}(\bar{Q}_{L}\tilde{\Phi}u_{R} + \bar{u}_{R}\tilde{\Phi}^{\dagger}Q_{L}) \rightarrow y_{u}(\bar{u}_{L}, \bar{d}_{L}) \begin{pmatrix} \frac{v}{\sqrt{2}} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} u_{R} + h.c. \equiv m_{u}\bar{u}u \end{aligned}$$

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Symmetry-based models

**TBM PMNS from** *A*<sub>4</sub> **symmetry** 

#### Quark masses and mixing

Three generations  $Q_{Li}$ ,  $d_{Ri}$ ,  $u_{Ri}$ , i = 1, 2, 3:

$$d_i = (d, s, b)$$
  $u_i = (u, c, t).$ 

Yukawa interactions are parametrized with coupling matrices  $\Gamma_{ij}$  and  $\Delta_{ij}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} -\mathcal{L}_Y &= \bar{Q}_{Li} \Gamma_{ij} \Phi d_{Rj} + \bar{Q}_{Li} \Delta_{ij} \tilde{\Phi} u_{Rj} + h.c. \\ &\to \bar{d}_{Li} (M_d)_{ij} d_{Rj} + \bar{u}_{Li} (M_u)_{ij} u_{Rj} + h.c. \end{aligned}$$

where the  $3 \times 3$  mass matrices are

$$(M_d)_{ij} = \Gamma_{ij} rac{v}{\sqrt{2}}, \quad (M_u)_{ij} = \Delta_{ij} rac{v}{\sqrt{2}}$$

and are, in general, non-diagonal and complex.

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PMNS matrix	Basics of group theory	Symmetry-based models	TBM PMNS from A <sub>4</sub> symmetry
CKM matrix			

 $M_d$  is diagonalized by  $d_L = V_{dL} d_L^{phys}$ ,  $d_R = V_{dR} d_R^{phys}$ , and so is  $M_u$ :

$$\begin{split} V_{dL}^{\dagger} & M_d \ V_{dR} = D_d = \text{diag}(m_d, \ m_s, \ m_b), \\ V_{uL}^{\dagger} & M_u \ V_{uR} = D_u = \text{diag}(m_u, \ m_c, \ m_t), \end{split}$$

But then the charged current matrix can become non-trivial:

$$\begin{split} \bar{u}_{Li} \gamma^{\mu} W^{+}_{\mu} d_{Li} &= \bar{u}_{Li}^{phys} \gamma^{\mu} W^{+}_{\mu} V_{ij} d_{Lj}^{phys}, \quad \text{where} \quad V_{ij} = V^{\dagger}_{uL} V_{dL} \neq \delta_{ij} \,. \end{split}$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Conclusion} \\ & \text{if coupling matrices } \Gamma_{ij} \text{ and } \Delta_{ij} \text{ are distinct,} \\ & \text{then quark mass eigenstates} \neq \text{charged current eigenstates.} \end{split}$$

The CKM matrix V (Cabibbo-Kobayashi-Maskawa mixing matrix) describes how charged currents mix quarks from different generations.

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Symmetry-based models

TBM PMNS from A<sub>4</sub> symmetry

## Lepton mixing: Dirac

Massive neutrinos implies that they are either Dirac or Majorana.

For Dirac neutrinos, we add  $\nu_{Ri}$ , i = 1, 2, 3, write only Dirac mass term, get lepton mass matrices  $M_{\ell}$  and  $M_{\nu}$ , and diagonalize them as before:

$$\begin{split} U_{\ell L}^{\dagger} \, M_{\ell} \, U_{\ell R} &= D_{\ell} = \text{diag}(m_{e}, \, m_{\mu}, \, m_{\tau}) \,, \\ U_{\nu L}^{\dagger} \, \mathcal{M}_{\nu} \, U_{\nu R} &= D_{\nu} = \text{diag}(m_{1}, \, m_{2}, \, m_{3}) \,, \end{split}$$

The charged weak currents are written in the generation space as

$$\underbrace{\overline{\ell_{Li}}\gamma^{\mu}W_{\mu}^{-}\nu_{Li}}_{\text{original}} = \underbrace{\left(\overline{e_{L}},\overline{\mu_{L}},\overline{\tau_{L}}\right)\gamma^{\mu}W_{\mu}^{-}\left(\begin{array}{c}\nu_{e}\\\nu_{\mu}\\\nu_{\tau}\end{array}\right)}_{\text{flavor basis}} \equiv (\overline{e_{L}},\overline{\mu_{L}},\overline{\tau_{L}})\gamma^{\mu}W_{\mu}^{-}\left(\begin{array}{c}\nu_{1}\\\nu_{2}\\\nu_{3}\end{array}\right)$$

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## Lepton mixing: Dirac

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Flavor basis is defined as the charged lepton mass basis:

$$\ell_{Li} = U_{\ell} \ell_L^{\text{mass}}, \quad \nu_{Li} = U_{\nu} \nu_L^{\text{mass}}$$

Therefore, the Pontecorvo-Maki-Nakagawa-Sakata mixing matrix is

$$U_{PMNS} = U_\ell^\dagger U_
u$$
 .

If  $M_{\ell}$  is already diagonal, then  $U_{PMNS} = U_{\nu}$ .

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Image: A matrix

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# Lepton mixing: Dirac

$$\begin{pmatrix} \nu_e \\ \nu_\mu \\ \nu_\tau \end{pmatrix} = U_{PNMS} \begin{pmatrix} \nu_1 \\ \nu_2 \\ \nu_3 \end{pmatrix} \, . \label{eq:Vertex}$$

After removing phases, the standard parametrization is

$$U_{PMNS} = \begin{pmatrix} c_{12}c_{13} & s_{12}c_{13} & s_{13}e^{-i\delta} \\ -s_{12}c_{23} - c_{12}s_{13}s_{23}e^{i\delta} & c_{12}c_{23} - s_{12}s_{13}s_{23}e^{i\delta} & c_{13}s_{23} \\ s_{12}s_{23} - c_{12}s_{13}c_{23}e^{i\delta} & -c_{12}s_{23} - s_{12}s_{13}c_{23}e^{i\delta} & c_{13}c_{23} \end{pmatrix}$$

Since  $\mathcal{M}_{\nu}$  is diagonalized by **bi-unitary** transformation

$$U_{\nu L}^{\dagger} \mathcal{M}_{\nu} U_{\nu R} = D_{\nu} = \text{diag}(m_1, m_2, m_3),$$

some phases from  $U_{\nu L}$  can be moved to  $U_{\nu R}$ .

PMNS matrix U<sub>PMNS</sub> contains only one irremovable phase.

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Symmetry-based models

TBM PMNS from A<sub>4</sub> symmetry

#### Lepton mixing: Majorana

For Majorana neutrinos, the mass matrix is

$$\nu_{Li}^{T}(\mathcal{M}_{\nu})_{ij}\mathcal{C}\nu_{Lj} = (\nu_{L}^{\text{mass}})^{T} U_{\nu}^{T}\mathcal{M}_{\nu}U_{\nu}\mathcal{C}\nu_{L}^{\text{mass}} = (\nu_{L}^{\text{mass}})^{T}D_{\nu}\mathcal{C}\nu_{L}^{\text{mass}}$$

with the same matrix  $U_{\nu}$  on both sides.

One can always find such  $U_{\nu}$  to make  $D_{\nu}$  diagonal with real posivite values. But once this is done, there is no freedom left to remove phases!

$$U_{PMNS}^{ ext{Majorana}} = U_{PMNS} \cdot egin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & e^{ilpha} & 0 \ 0 & 0 & e^{ieta} \end{pmatrix},$$

These two additional Majorana phases are the echo of the complex neutrino mass matrix  $\mathcal{M}_{\nu}.$ 

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# Lepton mixing



*U<sub>PMNS</sub>* is close to the tri-bimaximal mixing pattern [Harrison, Perkins, Scott, 2002]:

$$U_{TBM} = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & 0\\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix}$$

Nonzero  $s_{13}$  highlights deviation, but proximity of  $U_{PMNS}$  to the TBM is indicative of some symmetry.

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Basics of group theory •••••• Symmetry-based models

TBM PMNS from A<sub>4</sub> symmetry

# Basics of finite group theory

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PMNS	matrix			
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Symmetry-based models

**TBM PMNS from** *A*<sub>4</sub> **symmetry** 

### Groups

Set G is a group if it satisfies the following four axioms:

• closure of *G* under composition (usually called multiplication):

for any  $g_1, \, g_2 \in G, \,$  define their product  $g_1 \cdot g_2 \in G$  ;

• the multiplication is associative:  $g_1 \cdot (g_2 \cdot g_3) = (g_1 \cdot g_2) \cdot g_3$  for all  $g_1, g_2, g_3 \in G$ ;

• there exists a special element called identity element *e* with the properties:

 $g \cdot e = e \cdot g = g$  for any  $g \in G$ ;

• every element is invertible: for any  $g \in G$ , there exists another element in G (denoted  $g^{-1}$ ) such that

$$g^{-1} \cdot g = g \cdot g^{-1} = e \,.$$

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Symmetry-based models

TBM PMNS from A<sub>4</sub> symmetry

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#### Groups

In addition, if  $g \cdot h = h \cdot g$  for all elements  $g, h \in G$ , the group is called abelian. If it fails at least for one pair, the group is called non-abelian.

Non-abelian groups are much, much, much more complicated than abelian groups.

Groups arise in physics in the context of transformations and symmetries. It is the most appropriate language to describe hidden consequences of physics formulas or laws.

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Groups can be finite or infinite.

- A finite group G has finite number of elements:  $G = \{e, g_2, g_3, \dots, g_n\}$ . Its size n is called the order of the group and is denoted |G|.
- In a finite group, successive multiplications will sooner or later terminate in
   *e*. Pick up any g ∈ G and consider successive powers:

$$g^1 \equiv g \quad g^2 \equiv g \cdot g , \quad g^3 \equiv g \cdot g \cdot g , \quad g^k \equiv \underbrace{g \cdot \cdots \cdot g}_{k \text{ times}} .$$

Then, there must exist an integer p such that  $g^p = e$ . This integer p is called the order of the element g.

• Infinite groups can be discrete or continuous (= topological).

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### **Basics** examples

- Integers  $\mathbb{Z}$  and reals  $\mathbb{R}$  are groups under addition. The identity element is 0. They are not groups under multiplication!
- Reals on the interval [0, 1] form a group under addition with periodic boundary condition (0.999 · · · = 0). These are fractional part of reals: ℝ/ℤ.

Complex numbers with |z| = 1 form under multiplication the circle group, or the rephasing group U(1).

The two last groups are isomorphic:  $\mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z}\simeq U(1).$ 

• Cyclic groups  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  for any n > 1 are defined as

$$\mathbb{Z}_n = \{e, a, a^2, a^3, \ldots, a^{n-1}\}$$
 with condition  $a^n = e$ ,

isomorphic to integers modulo *n* under addition:  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ .

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### Presentation of a group

How would you describe a finite group?

Simplest choice: write the multiplication table  $|G| \times |G|$ . Very impractical.

Much better choice: via generators and relations.

- Generators *a*, *b*, *c*, . . . form a subset of elements of *G* such that any *g* ∈ *G* can be written and their product.
- Generators are independent elements but they satisfy some constraints (relations).
- Group presentation:  $G = \langle \text{generators} | \text{their relations} \rangle$ .
- A cyclic group is generated by a: Z<sub>n</sub> = ⟨a | a<sup>n</sup> = e⟩. Direct product of cyclic groups: Z<sub>n</sub> × Z<sub>m</sub> = ⟨a, b | a<sup>n</sup> = b<sup>m</sup> = e, ab = ba⟩.

Symmetry-based models

TBM PMNS from A<sub>4</sub> symmetry

#### Representations of abelian groups

A representation of the group G is, colloquially speaking, a way of rewriting it as a group of matrices which act on some k-dimensional vector space.

The set of matrices must obey exactly the same rules as the elements of G, but otherwise there is no constraints on their form or dimension k. For example,

$$\mathbb{Z}_{2} = (e, a): \qquad a = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{or} \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\mathbb{Z}_{3} = (e, b, b^{2}): \qquad b = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{or} \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \omega & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \omega^{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

where  $\omega \equiv \exp(2\pi i/3)$ ,  $\omega^3 = 1$ .

Basics of group theory

Symmetry-based models

TBM PMNS from A<sub>4</sub> symmetry

#### Representations of abelian groups

General theorem: for any abelian unitary group, the representing matrices can be always made diagonal by a basis choice.

Example:  $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 = (e, a, b, ab)$  with a faithfull 2D representation:

$$e = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
,  $a = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $b = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $ab = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ 

In this basis, each 1D subspace remains invariant; and the diagonal numbers form a 1D representation.

subspace 
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
  $a = 1, b = -1,$   
subspace  $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$   $a = -1, b = 1.$ 

In general: irreducible representations of unitary abelian groups are 1D.

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#### Representations of abelian groups

General theorem: for any abelian unitary group, the representing matrices can be always made diagonal by a basis choice.

Example:  $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 = (e, a, b, ab)$  with a faithfull 2D representation:

$$e=egin{pmatrix} 1&0\0&1\end{pmatrix},\quad a=egin{pmatrix} 1&0\0&-1\end{pmatrix},\quad b=egin{pmatrix} -1&0\0&1\end{pmatrix},\quad ab=egin{pmatrix} -1&0\0&-1\end{pmatrix}.$$

In this basis, each 1D subspace remains invariant; and the diagonal numbers form a 1D representation.

subspace 
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
  $a = 1, b = -1,$   
subspace  $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$   $a = -1, b = 1.$ 

In general: irreducible representations of unitary abelian groups are 1D.

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Symmetry-based models

# Working example: $A_4$

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#### Non-abelian groups

There is a much richer list of (finite) non-abelian groups. Some examples:

S<sub>n</sub>, group of all permutations of n elements. Its order is |S<sub>n</sub>| = n!. The smallest group is S<sub>2</sub> ≃ Z<sub>2</sub>. The smallest non-abelian is

$$S_3 = \langle a, b | a^2 = b^3 = e, ab = b^2 a \rangle.$$

•  $A_n$ , group of even-signature permutations of *n* elements;  $|A_n| = n!/2$ .

- Symmetry groups of regular polygons and polyhedra:
  - Symmetry group of equilateral triangle  $\simeq S_3$ ;
  - Symmetry group of tetrahedron  $\simeq A_4$ ;
  - Symmetry group of cube  $\simeq S_4$ .

Irreducible representations of non-abelian groups have d > 1.

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Group  $A_4$ 

 $A_4$  is the smallest group with irreducible 3D representation:

$$A_4 = \langle S, T | S^2 = T^3 = e, (ST)^3 = e \rangle, \quad |A_4| = 12.$$

It contains:

- three elements of order 2:  $S, T^2ST, TST^2$ ;
- together with e, they form the Klein subgroup  $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ ;
- four cycles of order 3 generated by T, ST, TS,  $T^2ST^2$  (8 elements of order 3 in total).

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# $A_4$ : transformation S



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# $A_4$ : transformation T



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# Group $A_4$

#### 3D irreducible representation: diagonal-S basis

• order 2:

$$S = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad T^2 ST = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad TST^2 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

• order 3:

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad ST = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$
$$TS = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad T^2 S T^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

and their squares.

Image: A matrix and a matrix

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Symmetry-based models

# Group A<sub>4</sub>

3D irreducible representation: diagonal-T basis

One can switch to another basis in the same 3D space, in which T becomes diagonal.

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \omega & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \omega^2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \omega \equiv e^{2\pi i/3}, \quad \omega^3 = 1.$$

Then, *S* takes an "ugly" shape:

$$S = \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 2 & 2\\ 2 & -1 & 2\\ 2 & 2 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Nevertheless, all group multiplications hold:  $S^2 = e$ , etc

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Image: A matrix

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Group  $A_4$ 

Subspaces in the diagonal-T basis are convenient to define three non-equivalent 1D irreps: 1, 1', 1"

The full table of all irreps of  $A_4$ :

irrep	5	Т
1	S = 1	T = 1
1'	S=1	$T = \omega$
$1^{\prime\prime}$	S = 1	$T = \omega^2$
3	matrix S	matrix T

Notice: the trivial singlet 1 is invariant under the entire  $A_4$ .

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# Building symmetry-based models with the example of A<sub>4</sub> 3HDM

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## Tensor product decomposition

Models begin with lagrangian  $\mathcal{L}$ , which encodes all interactions.

Terms in the lagrangian are products of various fields:

$$\mathcal{L} = \cdots + \lambda_5 (\Phi_1^{\dagger} \Phi_2)^2 + \cdots + Y_{ij}^a \overline{Q_{Li}} \Phi_a d_{Rj} + \cdots$$

We assume that each set of fields (LH fermions, RH fermions, Higgses, etc) transforms as a certain representation of group G.

We want to find which combinations are fully G-invariant.

We must use the tensor product of representations.

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## Tensor product decomposition

Take 3D vectors  $a_i = (a_1, a_2, a_3)$  and  $b_j = (b_1, b_2, b_3)$  and construct their tensor product  $a_i b_j$ . How does it transform under SO(3) rotations?

$$a_i b_j = \delta_{ij} \frac{(\vec{a}\vec{b})}{3} + \epsilon_{ijk} \cdot \underbrace{\mathbf{v}_k}_{=[\vec{a} \times \vec{b}]/2} + \left[\frac{1}{2} \left(a_i b_j + a_j b_i\right) - \delta_{ij} \frac{(\vec{a}\vec{b})}{3}\right]$$

which means that inside the 9D tensor  $a_i b_j$  there are three invariant subspaces: singlet,  $\propto \delta_{ij}$ ; triplet,  $\propto \epsilon_{ijk} v_k$ , and 5-plet, the traceless symmetric part of  $a_i b_j$ . Group-theoretically:  $3 \otimes 3 = 1 \otimes 3 \otimes 5$ .

This is how tensor product decomposition (= Clebsch-Gordan coefs) works in the group SO(3).

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## Tensor product decomposition

For each group, these rules are different (= Clebsch-Gordan coefs are different). For  $A_4$ , if  $a = (a_1, a_2, a_3)$  and  $b = (b_1, b_2, b_3)$  are two irreducible triplets, then  $3 \otimes 3 = 1 \oplus 1' \oplus 1'' \oplus 3_1 \oplus 3_2$ .

The explicit expressions for their components (in the S-symmetric basis!) are:

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2 + a_3 b_3 \,, \\ 1' &= a_1 b_1 + \omega^2 a_2 b_2 + \omega a_3 b_3 \,, \\ 1'' &= a_1 b_1 + \omega a_2 b_2 + \omega^2 a_3 b_3 \,, \\ 3_1 &= (a_2 b_3, a_3 b_1, a_1 b_2) \,, \\ 3_2 &= (a_3 b_2, a_1 b_3, a_2 b_1) \,. \end{aligned}$$

The products of singlets are intuitive:  $1' \otimes 1'' = 1$ , etc.

TBM PMNS from A<sub>4</sub> symmetry

## Picking up symmetric terms

When building symmetry-constrained lagrangians, we

- write products of fields, each transforming as a certain irrep of the group G,
- perform tensor product decomposition,
- out of all final irreps, keep only trivial singlets as they are G-symmetric.

For example, in three-Higgs-doublet model based on group  $A_4$ , we have three Higgs doublets  $\Phi_1$ ,  $\Phi_2$ ,  $\Phi_3$ . In general, the quadratic part of the potential has nine terms  $\Phi_i^{\dagger}\Phi_i$ .

But knowing that, for the group  $A_4$ ,  $3 \otimes 3 = 1 \oplus 1' \oplus 1'' \oplus 3_1 \oplus 3_2$ , we keep only the singlet. Therefore, the Higgs potential is

$$V = -m^2 \left( \Phi_1^{\dagger} \Phi_1 + \Phi_2^{\dagger} \Phi_2 + \Phi_3^{\dagger} \Phi_3 \right) + V_4$$

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## Picking up symmetric terms

For the quartic part, we decompose  $(\Phi_i^{\dagger} \Phi_i)(\Phi_i^{\dagger} \Phi_i)$ ,

 $[(3 \otimes 3) \otimes (3 \otimes 3)]_{svm} = [(1 \oplus 1' \oplus 1'' \oplus 3_1 \oplus 3_2) \otimes (1 \oplus 1' \oplus 1'' \oplus 3_1 \oplus 3_2)]_{svm}$  $= 1 \otimes 1 + 1' \otimes 1'' + \underbrace{(3_1 \otimes 3_1)}_{+} + \underbrace{(3_2 \otimes 3_2)}_{+} + \underbrace{(3_1 \otimes 3_2)}_{+} + \ldots,$ =1 =10

which gives five trivial singlets 1:

$$V_{4} = \lambda_{1} \left( \Phi_{1}^{\dagger} \Phi_{1} + \Phi_{2}^{\dagger} \Phi_{2} + \Phi_{3}^{\dagger} \Phi_{3} \right)^{2} \\ + \lambda_{2} \left[ (\Phi_{1}^{\dagger} \Phi_{1}) (\Phi_{2}^{\dagger} \Phi_{2}) + (\Phi_{2}^{\dagger} \Phi_{2}) (\Phi_{3}^{\dagger} \Phi_{3}) + (\Phi_{3}^{\dagger} \Phi_{3}) (\Phi_{1}^{\dagger} \Phi_{1}) \right] \\ + \lambda_{3} \left[ (\Phi_{1}^{\dagger} \Phi_{2}) (\Phi_{2}^{\dagger} \Phi_{1}) + (\Phi_{2}^{\dagger} \Phi_{3}) (\Phi_{3}^{\dagger} \Phi_{2}) + (\Phi_{3}^{\dagger} \Phi_{1}) (\Phi_{1}^{\dagger} \Phi_{3}) \right] \\ + \left( \lambda_{4} \left[ (\Phi_{1}^{\dagger} \Phi_{2})^{2} + (\Phi_{2}^{\dagger} \Phi_{3})^{2} + (\Phi_{3}^{\dagger} \Phi_{1})^{2} \right] + h.c. \right)$$

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## Spontaneous symmetry breaking

In this way, we get the full  $A_4$ -symmetric potential in 3HDM.

But the minimum of this potential  $(v_1, v_2, v_3)$  may break this group, fully or completely. Which options are available for the minimum in the  $A_4$ -symmetric 3HDM?

It turns out that vevs  $(v_1, v_2, v_3)$  cannot be arbitrary! Depending on paremeters  $\lambda$ , only four vev alignments are possible [Degee, Ivanov, Keus, 2012]:

- (1,0,0). The residual symmetry group is  $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ .
- (1,1,1). The residual symmetry group is  $\mathbb{Z}_3$ .
- $(1, \omega, \omega^2)$ . The residual symmetry group is  $\mathbb{Z}_3$ .
- $(1, e^{i\alpha}, 0)$ . The residual symmetry group is  $\mathbb{Z}_2$ .

Conclusion: it is impossible to break the  $A_4$  symmetry completely.

Image: A 1 = 1

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## Extending $A_4$ 3HDM to charged leptons

Extending A<sub>4</sub> symmetry of 3HDM to the Majorana LH neutrino mass matrix [Gonzales Felipe, Serodio, Silva, 2013].

Charged lepton Yukawa interactions:

$$\overline{L_i}Y_{ij}^a \underbrace{\Phi_a}_{3}\ell_{Rj} + h.c.$$

We know that  $\Phi_a = (\Phi_1, \Phi_2, \Phi_3)$  transforms as triplet 3 under  $A_4$ .

Therefore, the product of  $L_i$  and  $\ell_{Rj}$  $L_i$  $\ell_{Rj}$ must also transform as a triplet 3 to33produce the trivial singlet 1 at the end.(1, 1', 1'')3

(1, 1', 1'')

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## Extending $A_4$ 3HDM to charged leptons

For example, if  $\overline{L_i} \sim (1, 1', 1'')$  and  $\ell_{\textit{Rj}} \sim$  3, we get:

$$\overline{L_{i}}Y_{ij}^{a}\Phi_{a}\ell_{Rj} = y_{1}\overline{L_{1}}\underbrace{\Phi_{a}\ell_{Rj}}_{1} + y_{2}\overline{L_{2}}\underbrace{\Phi_{a}\ell_{Rj}}_{1''} + y_{3}\overline{L_{3}}\underbrace{\Phi_{a}\ell_{Rj}}_{1'}$$

$$= y_{1}\overline{L_{1}}(\Phi_{1}\ell_{R1} + \Phi_{2}\ell_{R2} + \Phi_{3}\ell_{R3})$$

$$+ y_{2}\overline{L_{2}}(\Phi_{1}\ell_{R1} + \omega\Phi_{2}\ell_{R2} + \omega^{2}\Phi_{3}\ell_{R3})$$

$$+ y_{3}\overline{L_{3}}(\Phi_{1}\ell_{R1} + \omega^{2}\Phi_{2}\ell_{R2} + \omega\Phi_{3}\ell_{R3})$$

Pick up a vev alignment, for example, v(1,1,1). Then, charged lepton mass matrix is

$$M_{\ell} = v \begin{pmatrix} y_1 & y_1 & y_1 \\ y_2 & \omega y_2 & \omega^2 y_2 \\ y_3 & \omega^2 y_3 & \omega y_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

which, after diagonalization gives  $m_{\ell} = \{y_1v, y_2v, y_3v\} \rightarrow \mathsf{OK}$ .

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$$= y_1 \overline{L_1} (\Phi_1 \ell_{R1} + \Phi_2 \ell_{R2} + \Phi_3 \ell_{R3})$$
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**TBM PMNS from** *A*<sub>4</sub> **symmetry** 

## Extending $A_4$ 3HDM to Majorana neutrinos

Then, include Majorana neutrino terms:

$$c_{ij}^{ab}(L_i^T \tilde{\Phi}_a^*) \mathcal{C}(\tilde{\Phi}_b^{\dagger} L_j).$$

Group-theoretically, we see



Since  $\overline{L_i} \sim (1, 1', 1'')$ , the product  $L \otimes L$  also contains 1, 1', and 1'', which are coupled to  $3 \otimes 3$ :

$$\frac{g_1}{\Lambda} (L_1 L_1 + L_2 L_3 + L_3 L_2) (\tilde{\Phi}_1 \tilde{\Phi}_1 + \tilde{\Phi}_2 \tilde{\Phi}_2 + \tilde{\Phi}_3 \tilde{\Phi}_3) \\ + \frac{g_2}{\Lambda} (L_1 L_2 + L_2 L_1 + L_3 L_3) (\tilde{\Phi}_1 \tilde{\Phi}_1 + \omega \tilde{\Phi}_2 \tilde{\Phi}_2 + \omega^2 \tilde{\Phi}_3 \tilde{\Phi}_3) \\ + \frac{g_3}{\Lambda} (L_1 L_3 + L_2 L_2 + L_3 L_1) (\tilde{\Phi}_1 \tilde{\Phi}_1 + \omega^2 \tilde{\Phi}_2 \tilde{\Phi}_2 + \omega \tilde{\Phi}_3 \tilde{\Phi}_3)$$

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## Extending $A_4$ 3HDM to Majorana neutrinos

Next, substituting the chosen vev alignment (1, 1, 1), we get neutrino mass matrix:

$$\mathcal{M}_{\nu} = rac{g_1 v^2}{2 \Lambda} \left( egin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & 1 \ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array} 
ight)$$

We obtain three degenerate neutrinos!

#### Conclusion

extending  $A_4$  symmetry to charged leptons and Majorana neutrinos with irrep assignment

$$\Phi \sim 3$$
,  $L \sim (1, 1', 1'')$ ,  $\ell_R \sim 3$ 

and with the vev alignment  $\langle \phi^0 \rangle = v(1,1,1)$  is ruled out by experiment.

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## Extending $A_4$ 3HDM to Majorana neutrinos

One needs to check all possible irrep assignments and all possible vev alignments. This was done in [Gonzales Felipe, Serodio, Silva, 2013].

The result is: all possible combinations are ruled out experimentally. The problems can be:

- massless charged leptons,
- degenerate neutrino masses,
- insufficient neutrino mixing.

Thus, 3HDM scalar sector offers too little freedom to produce viable Majorana neutrino masses through the  $A_4$  symmetry group.

One needs to enlarge the scalar sector to get a viable neutrino sector.

Symmetry-based models

TBM PMNS from A<sub>4</sub> symmetry

## Extending A<sub>4</sub> 3HDM to Majorana neutrinos

One needs to check all possible irrep assignments and all possible vev alignments. This was done in [Gonzales Felipe, Serodio, Silva, 2013].

The result is: all possible combinations are ruled out experimentally. The problems can be:

- massless charged leptons,
- degenerate neutrino masses,
- insufficient neutrino mixing.

Thus, 3HDM scalar sector offers too little freedom to produce viable Majorana neutrino masses through the  $A_4$  symmetry group.

One needs to enlarge the scalar sector to get a viable neutrino sector.

## TBM PMNS from $A_4$ symmetry

Igor Ivanov (CFTP, IST)

Neutrino mass models 3

Image: A UW, January 2018 35/53

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## Classic seesaw again

Leptonic Yukawas:

$$\overline{L_{i}}Y_{ij}^{\ell}\Phi\ell_{Rj} + \overline{L_{i}}Y_{ij}^{\nu}\tilde{\Phi}\nu_{Rj} + \frac{1}{2}\overline{(\nu_{Ri})^{c}}(M_{R})_{ij}\nu_{Rj} + h.c.$$

$$= \overline{\ell_{L}}M_{\ell}\ell_{R} + \frac{1}{2}\left[\overline{\nu_{L}}, \overline{(\nu_{R})^{c}}\right] \begin{pmatrix} 0 & m_{D} \\ m_{D}^{T} & M_{R} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} (\nu_{L})^{c} \\ \nu_{R} \end{pmatrix} + h.c.$$

which leads to

$$\mathcal{M}_{\nu} = -m_D (M_R)^{-1} m_D^T.$$

The classic seesaw does not constrain matrices  $m_D$  and  $M_R \rightarrow$  no predictions on  $M_{\nu} \rightarrow$  no predictions on  $U_{PMNS}$ .

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Flavons

# Flavor symmetry-based modes assume that $L_i$ , $(\ell_R)_i$ , and $(\nu_R)_i$ transform in certain way under a discrete flavor symmetry group G.

Problem: combining L,  $\ell_R$ , and  $\nu_R$ , via only Higgs doublets leads to contradiction to experiment!

Recipe: leave the poor  $\Phi$  alone! Add flavons  $\varphi_a$ : new auxiliary scalar fields, which will take care of the shape of the fermion sector.

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## Flavons

#### Flavons

- EW singlets  $\rightarrow$  play no role in electroweak symmetry breaking;
- transform non-trivially under G:

instead of 
$$Y_{ij}\overline{L_i}\Phi\ell_{Rj}$$
 we use  $Y_{ij}^{a}\frac{\varphi_{a}}{\Lambda}(\overline{L_i}\Phi\ell_{Rj})$ .

Symmetry under G strongly constraints  $Y_{ij}^a$ .

 they get vev after minimization of flavon scalar potential φ<sub>a</sub> → ⟨φ<sub>a</sub>⟩ → spontaneous breaking of flavor symmetry induces usual Yukawa interactions

$$Y_{ij} = \sum_{a} Y^{a}_{ij} \frac{\langle \varphi_{a} \rangle}{\Lambda}$$

with the resulting  $Y_{ij}$  constrained by flavor symmetry.

SQA

Symmetry-based models

## A<sub>4</sub> symmetric model

	ī	e <sub>R</sub>	$\mu_{R}$	$ au_R$	$\nu_R$	Φ	$\varphi_{T}$	$\varphi_{S}$	ξ
$SU(2)_L$	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1
$A_4$	3	1	1'	$1^{\prime\prime}$	3	1	3	3	1

We assume:

- LH doublets L and RH neutrinos  $\nu_R$  form  $A_4$  triplets;
- right charged leptons  $e_R$ ,  $\mu_R$ ,  $\tau_R$  form three different  $A_4$  singlets 1, 1', 1";
- add three sorts of flavons:
  - $A_4$ -triplet  $\varphi_T$  helps join L with  $\ell_R$  ( $\rightarrow$  charged lepton masses),
  - $A_4$ -triplet  $\varphi_S$  produces one Majorana term for  $\nu_R$ ,
  - $A_4$ -singlet  $\xi$  produces another Majorana term for  $\nu_R$ .

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## A<sub>4</sub> symmetric model

Warning: this construction is not yet self-consistent! So far nothing explains why  $\varphi_T$  and  $\varphi_S$  play different roles!

To forbid "wrong terms", we introduce yet another quantum number: "charge" under the group  $\mathbb{Z}_3.$ 

	ī	e <sub>R</sub>	$\mu_{R}$	$ au_R$	$\nu_R$	φ	$\varphi_{T}$	$\varphi_{S}$	ξ
$SU(2)_L$	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1
$A_4$	3	1	1'	$1^{\prime\prime}$	3	1	3	3	1
$\mathbb{Z}_3$	$\omega^2$	ω	ω	ω	ω	1	1	ω	ω

The true symmetry group of the model is  $A_4 \times \mathbb{Z}_3$  but I will skip  $\mathbb{Z}_3$  for clarity.

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Basics of group theory

Symmetry-based models

TBM PMNS from A<sub>4</sub> symmetry

## A<sub>4</sub> symmetric model

### TMB mixing from A<sub>4</sub> symmetry [Altarelli, Feruglio, 2006]

	T	e <sub>R</sub>	$\mu_R$	$ au_R$	$\nu_R$	φ	$\varphi_{T}$	$\varphi_{S}$	ξ
$SU(2)_L$	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1
$A_4$	3	1	1'	$1^{\prime\prime}$	3	1	3	3	1

 $\mathcal{L}$  = charged leptons separately for *e*,  $\mu$ , and  $\tau$ +Dirac mass term + two Majorana mass terms

$$= \frac{y_e}{\Lambda} \underbrace{(\overline{L}\varphi_T)}_{3\times 3\to 1} \underbrace{e_R}_{1} \Phi + \frac{y_\mu}{\Lambda} \underbrace{(\overline{L}\varphi_T)}_{3\times 3\to 1''} \underbrace{\mu_R}_{1'} \Phi + \frac{y_\tau}{\Lambda} \underbrace{(\overline{L}\varphi_T)}_{3\times 3\to 1'} \underbrace{\tau_R}_{1''} \Phi$$
$$+ y_D \underbrace{(\overline{L}\nu_R)}_{3\times 3\to 1} \underbrace{\tilde{\Phi}}_{(3\times 3)_1 \times 1} \underbrace{(\nu_R\nu_R)\xi}_{3\times 3\to 1} + h.c.$$

Igor Ivanov (CFTP, IST)

## A<sub>4</sub> symmetric model

It is convenient to work in the T-diagonal basis  $\rightarrow$  charged lepton mass matrix will be diagonal.

Contractions written explicitly (for explicit expressions, see e.g. [Altarelli, Feruglio, 1002.0211]):

$$\begin{array}{rcl} (\overline{\ell_L}\varphi_{\mathcal{T}})_1 &=& \overline{e_L}(\varphi_{\mathcal{T}})_1 + \overline{\mu_L}(\varphi_{\mathcal{T}})_3 + \overline{\tau_L}(\varphi_{\mathcal{T}})_2 \\ (\overline{\ell_L}\varphi_{\mathcal{T}})_{1''} &=& \overline{e_L}(\varphi_{\mathcal{T}})_2 + \overline{\mu_L}(\varphi_{\mathcal{T}})_1 + \overline{\tau_L}(\varphi_{\mathcal{T}})_3 \\ (\overline{\ell_L}\varphi_{\mathcal{T}})_{1'} &=& \overline{e_L}(\varphi_{\mathcal{T}})_3 + \overline{\mu_L}(\varphi_{\mathcal{T}})_2 + \overline{\tau_L}(\varphi_{\mathcal{T}})_1 \end{array}$$

and  $(\nu_R \nu_R \varphi_S)_1$  gives

$$\nu_{Ri} \left[ \left( \begin{array}{ccc} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{array} \right) \varphi_{S1} + \left( \begin{array}{ccc} 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right) \varphi_{S2} + \left( \begin{array}{ccc} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{array} \right) \varphi_{S3} \right] \nu_{Rj}$$

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Symmetry-based models

TBM PMNS from A<sub>4</sub> symmetry

## Flavons alignment

The flavon potential is also  $A_4$  symmetric and has "Mexican hat" form. It produces nonzero vevs with the following alignment:

 $\langle arphi_{\mathcal{T}} 
angle \propto (1,0,0)\,, \quad \langle arphi_{\mathcal{S}} 
angle \propto (1,1,1)\,, \quad \langle \xi 
angle 
eq 0\,.$ 

This is the vev alignment which we postulate when building our model.

$$S = \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 2 & 2\\ 2 & -1 & 2\\ 2 & 2 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0\\ 0 & \omega & 0\\ 0 & 0 & \omega^2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \omega \equiv e^{2\pi i/3}.$$

•  $\langle \varphi_T \rangle$  conserves *T* (subgroup  $\mathbb{Z}_3$ ),

•  $\langle \varphi_S \rangle$  conserves *S* (and *TST*<sup>2</sup>, subgroup  $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ ).



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## Consequences of flavons alignment

Charged leptons  $\langle \varphi_T \rangle \sim (1, 0, 0)$ :

$$\begin{aligned} &\frac{y_e}{\Lambda}(\overline{L}\varphi_T)e_R\Phi + \frac{y_\mu}{\Lambda}(\overline{L}\varphi_T)\mu_R\Phi + \frac{y_\tau}{\Lambda}(\overline{L}\varphi_T)\tau_R\Phi \\ &\rightarrow \quad \frac{\langle\varphi_T\rangle}{\Lambda}\left(y_e\overline{L_e}e_R + y_\mu\overline{L_\mu}\mu_R + y_\tau\overline{L_\tau}\tau_R\right)\Phi + h.c. \\ &\rightarrow \quad \left(\overline{e_L},\overline{\mu_L},\overline{\tau_L}\right)\left(\begin{array}{c}m_e & 0 & 0\\ 0 & m_\mu & 0\\ 0 & 0 & m_\tau\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{c}e_R\\\mu_R\\\tau_R\end{array}\right) + h.c. \end{aligned}$$

Charged lepton mass matrix is automatically diagonal.

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## Consequences of flavons alignment

Dirac mass matrix:

$$y_D(\overline{L}\nu_R)\tilde{\Phi} = y_D\overline{\nu_{Li}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 1\\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \nu_{Rj}\tilde{\Phi},$$

which after EWSB gives  $\overline{\nu_{Li}}(m_D)_{ii}\nu_{Ri}$  with

$$m_D = \frac{y_D v}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \ .$$

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## Consequences of flavons alignment

Majorana mass matrix for  $\nu_R$ :

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{M}_{R} &= y_{a} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \langle \xi \rangle \\ &+ y_{b} \left[ \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \langle \varphi_{51} \rangle + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \langle \varphi_{52} \rangle + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \langle \varphi_{53} \rangle \right] \\ &= a \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + b \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} . \end{split}$$

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## Consequences of flavons alignment

Overall result:

$$\mathcal{M}_{\nu} = -m_D (M_R)^{-1} m_D^T \,,$$

where

$$m_D = \frac{y_D v}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} , \quad M_R = \begin{pmatrix} a+2b & -b & -b \\ -b & 2b & a-b \\ -b & a-b & 2b \end{pmatrix} .$$

Then we will need to diagonalize it:

$$D_{\nu} = U^{T} \mathcal{M}_{\nu} U \,,$$

and, since the charged lepton matrix is already diagonal,

$$U_{PMNS} = U$$
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PMNS	matrix
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## Inverting $M_R$

The simple form of

$$M_R = \left(egin{array}{cccc} a+2b & -b & -b \ -b & 2b & a-b \ -b & a-b & 2b \end{array}
ight)\,.$$

allows to explicitly calculate eigenvalues and eigenvectors:

$$\begin{split} \lambda &= 3b + a \,, \qquad \vec{v} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \,, \\ \lambda &= a \,, \qquad \vec{v} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \,, \\ \lambda &= 3b - a \,, \qquad \vec{v} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \,. \end{split}$$

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## This means that

Inverting  $\overline{M}_R$ 

$$\begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a+2b & -b & -b \\ -b & 2b & a-b \\ -b & a-b & 2b \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} 3b+a & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3b-a \end{pmatrix}$$

Or, in short,

$$U^T M_R U = D_R \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad U D_R U^T = M_R.$$

Image: A matrix and a matrix

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Calculating  $\mathcal{M}_{\nu}$ 

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#### Therefore,

$$M_{R}^{-1} = U D_{R}^{-1} U^{T} = U \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{3b+a} & 0 & 0\\ 0 & \frac{1}{a} & 0\\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{3b-a} \end{pmatrix} U^{T}.$$

The light neutrino mass matrix is therefore

$$\mathcal{M}_{\nu} = m_D M_R^{-1} m_D^T = m_D \cdot U D_R^{-1} U^T \cdot m_D^T$$
$$= U \cdot U^T m_D U \cdot D_R^{-1} \cdot U^T m_D^T U \cdot U^T.$$

We need to calculate  $U^T m_D U$ .

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## Calculating $\mathcal{M}_{\nu}$

Notice that

$$m_D = rac{y_D v}{\sqrt{2}} \left( egin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & 1 \ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array} 
ight) \, ,$$

is exactly like the *a*-term of  $M_R$ . Therefore,

$$U^{\mathsf{T}} m_D U = \frac{y_D v}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \,.$$

Overall result:

$$\mathcal{M}_{\nu} = U(U^{T} m_{D} U) D_{R}^{-1} (U^{T} m_{D}^{T} U) U^{T} = \frac{y_{D}^{2} v^{2}}{2} U D_{R}^{-1} U^{T}.$$

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PMNS	matrix
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Symmetry-based models

TBM PMNS from  $A_4$  symmetry

## Consequences

$$\mathcal{M}_{\nu} = \frac{y_D^2 v^2}{2} U \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{3b+a} & 0 & 0\\ 0 & \frac{1}{a} & 0\\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{3b-a} \end{pmatrix} U^{T}.$$

#### • U diagonalizes $\mathcal{M}_{\nu} \rightarrow U = U_{PMNS}$ is of the TBM form;

• neutrino masses are:

$$m_1 = \frac{y_D^2 v^2}{3b+a}, \quad m_2 = \frac{y_D^2 v^2}{a}, \quad m_3 = \frac{y_D^2 v^2}{3b-a}.$$

Very heavy flavon parameters  $a, b \rightarrow$  very light neutrinos.

mass sum rule:

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which is a prediction of the  $A_4$  model! Be careful: a and b are complex.

• both NO and IO are possible; the sum rule implies a lower bound!

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PMNS	matrix
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TBM PMNS from  $A_4$  symmetry

## Consequences

$$\mathcal{M}_{\nu} = \frac{y_D^2 v^2}{2} U \left( \begin{array}{ccc} \frac{1}{3b+a} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{a} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{3b-a} \end{array} \right) \ U^{\mathsf{T}} \, .$$

- U diagonalizes  $\mathcal{M}_{\nu} \rightarrow U = U_{PMNS}$  is of the TBM form;
- neutrino masses are:

$$m_1 = \frac{y_D^2 v^2}{3b+a}, \quad m_2 = \frac{y_D^2 v^2}{a}, \quad m_3 = \frac{y_D^2 v^2}{3b-a}.$$

Very heavy flavon parameters  $a, b \rightarrow$  very light neutrinos.

mass sum rule:

$$\frac{1}{m_3} = \frac{1}{m_1} - \frac{2}{m_2}$$

which is a prediction of the  $A_4$  model! Be careful: a and b are complex.

• both NO and IO are possible; the sum rule implies a lower bound!

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## Other symmetry groups

This is a typical symmetry-based recipe:

- pick up G, select irreps for L,  $\ell_R$ ,  $\nu_R$ , add flavons at will;
- choose flavon vev alignment among possible choices;
- calculate  $M_{\ell}$ ,  $m_D$ ,  $M_R \rightarrow$  calculate  $\mathcal{M}_{\nu}$ ;
- (analytically) diagonalize  $M_{\ell}$ ,  $\mathcal{M}_{\nu} \rightarrow$  derive  $U_{PMNS}$ ;
- derive sum rule for  $m_{1,2,3}$ .

Many series of finite groups have been studied [Holthausen, Lim, Lindner, 2012] and some are close to the experimental PMNS matrix.

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