

Fig. 342 Value of $dN_{ch}/d\eta$ at $\eta \approx 0$ as a function of the center-of-mass energy for pp and $\bar{p}p$ collisions. Shown are measurements performed with different event selections from a number of experiments listed in the figure. The dashed line is a power-law fit to the data. Figure taken from Ref. [4026]

tion between diffractive and non-diffractive events is somewhat easier, at least for what concerns high mass diffraction.

The richness of the data at the LHC also implies that there are a number of aspects that we have not been able to treat in this short overview. For instance, the interesting topic of particle correlations has not been discussed and neither has multiple parton interactions been considered (For those topics and also for other topics that have not been discussed here, see e.g. PDG [616]).

In the 1970s and 1980s the interest moved from Regge theory and low p_T physics to high p_T reactions and perturbative QCD. The “old” physics lost considerable interest. However it turns out that the tools of the “old” physics work remarkably well also today. The current theoretical efforts try to bridge this gap between “old” physics and “new” and produce convincing descriptions of soft processes in terms of QCD. A lot of theoretical efforts have occurred over the years trying to make the transition from Regge poles and Regge Field Theory to QCD. Some attempts in this direction have been mentioned in this overview, but far from all.

With the abundant data from LHC available today the study of soft interactions has become a more vigorous field again. The hope is that “old” and “new” physics will meet and that a proper calculational framework based upon QCD will be developed in the close future leading to a better understanding of soft processes. A lot of progress have been made until today but the challenge is still there to incorporate a full understanding of soft processes in QCD.

13 Weak decays and quark mixing

Conveners:

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One of the main frontiers in the elementary particle physics is the search for new particles and new forces beyond those present in the Standard Model (SM) of particle physics. As the direct searches at Large Hadron Collider (LHC) at CERN, even 10 years after the Higgs discovery, did not provide any clue what these new particles and forces could be, the indirect searches for new physics (NP) through very rare processes caused by virtual exchanges of heavy particles gained in importance. They allow in fact to see footprints of new particles and forces acting at much shorter distance scales than it is possible to explore at the LHC and presently planned high energy colliders. While the LHC can explore distance scales as short as 10^{-19} m, the indirect search with the help of suitably chosen processes can offer us the information about scales as short as 10^{-21} m which cannot be probed even by the planned 100 TeV collider at CERN. Also shorter scales can be explored in this manner.

In fact rare processes like $K_L \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$ known since the early 1970s implied the existence of the charm quark prior to its discovery in 1974 as only then its branching ratio could be suppressed in the SM with the help of the Glashow–Iliopoulos–Maiani (GIM) mechanism [80], to agree with experiment. Moreover, it was possible to predict successfully its mass with the help of the $K_L - K_S$ mass difference ΔM_K in the $K^0 - \bar{K}^0$ mixing prior to its discovery [4027]. Similarly the size of the $B_d^0 - \bar{B}_d^0$ mixing,¹¹⁶ discovered in the late 1980s, implied a heavy top quark that has been confirmed only in 1995. It is then natural to expect that this indirect search for NP will also be successful at much shorter distance scales.

In this context, rare weak decays of mesons play a prominent role besides the transitions between particles and antiparticles in which flavors of quarks are changed. In particular $K^+ \rightarrow \pi^+\nu\bar{\nu}$, $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0\nu\bar{\nu}$, $K_S \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$, $B_s^0 \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$, $B_d^0 \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$ and $B_d^0 \rightarrow K(K^*)\nu\bar{\nu}$ but also $B_s^0 - \bar{B}_s^0$, $B_d^0 - \bar{B}_d^0$, $K^0 - \bar{K}^0$ mixings and CP-violation in $K \rightarrow \pi\pi$, $B_d \rightarrow \pi K$ decays among others provide important constraints on NP. Most of these transitions are very strongly loop-suppressed within the SM due to the GIM mechanism and also due to small elements V_{cb} , V_{ub} , V_{td} and V_{ts} of the CKM matrix [86,4028]. The predicted branching ratios for some of them are as low as 10^{-11} . But as the GIM mechanism is generally violated by NP contributions these branching ratios could in fact be much larger.

The first step in this indirect strategy is to search for the departures of the measurements of the branching ratios of the decays in question from SM predictions and similar for mass

¹¹⁶ The $B_d^0 = (d\bar{b})$ is listed as B^0 in the Review of Particle Physics.

differences like ΔM_K , and analogous mass differences ΔM_s and ΔM_d in $B_s^0 - \bar{B}_s^0$ and $B_d^0 - \bar{B}_d^0$ mixings, respectively. But while these processes are governed by quark interactions at the fundamental level, the decaying objects are mesons, the bound states of quarks and antiquarks. In particular in the case of non-leptonic transitions like $B_s^0 - \bar{B}_s^0$, $B_d^0 - \bar{B}_d^0$, $K^0 - \bar{K}^0$ mixings and CP-violation in $K \rightarrow \pi\pi$ and $B \rightarrow \pi K$ decays, QCD plays an important role. It enters at short distance scales, where due to the asymptotic freedom in QCD perturbative calculations can be performed, and at long distance scales where non-perturbative methods are required. QCD has also an impact on semi-leptonic decays like $K^+ \rightarrow \pi^+ \nu \bar{\nu}$, $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 \nu \bar{\nu}$, $B \rightarrow K(K^*) \nu \bar{\nu}$ and even on leptonic ones like $K_S \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$, $B_s^0 \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$, and $B_d^0 - \bar{B}_d^0 \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$. In order to be able to identify the departures of various experimental results from the SM predictions that would signal NP at work, the latter predictions must be accurate, and this means the effects of QCD have to be brought under control. But this is not the whole story. To make predictions for rare processes in the SM one has to determine the four parameters of the unitary CKM matrix

$$V_{us}, V_{cb}, V_{ub}, \gamma \tag{13.1}$$

with γ being the sole phase in this matrix.

This section is divided into five parts. We present first the effective weak Hamiltonians both in the SM and beyond. We summarize briefly the history of the efforts to construct them and present their status. Here, renormalization-group (RG) methods – used to calculate QCD impact on the Wilson coefficients (WC) of local operators – are essential but also the non-perturbative evaluation of their hadronic matrix elements. This will be followed by the discussion of the present status of the CKM matrix (see Sect. 13.2) which will demonstrate the role of QCD in the determination of its elements. Subsequently, in Sect. 13.3, we will first summarize briefly the impact of QCD effects on rare leptonic and semileptonic decays. Here, these effects are mostly moderate, with the exception of radiative B decays like the one into final states with open strangeness, $B \rightarrow X_s \gamma$, and $B \rightarrow K^* \gamma$. The efforts to calculate QCD corrections to $B \rightarrow X_s \gamma$ will be briefly described. Subsequently, two examples will be discussed where the control over non-perturbative contributions is mandatory to find out whether the SM is able to describe the experimental data or not: the $\Delta I = 1/2$ rule in $K \rightarrow \pi\pi$ decays and the ratio ϵ'/ϵ related to the direct CP violation in $K_L \rightarrow \pi\pi$ decays. The last two presentations deal with the role of QCD in the context of the presently most pronounced anomalies in flavor physics: the violation of lepton flavor universality in tree-level B -meson decays (Sect. 13.4) and the departure of data from the SM predictions for $(g - 2)_{e,\mu}$ (Sect. 13.5).

13.1 Effective Hamiltonians in the standard model and beyond

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The basis for any serious phenomenology of weak decays of hadrons is the *Operator Product Expansion* (OPE) [30, 4029], which allows us to write down the effective weak Hamiltonian in full generality simply as follows

$$\mathcal{H}_{\text{eff}} = \sum_i C_i \mathcal{O}_i^{\text{SM}} + \sum_j C_j^{\text{NP}} \mathcal{O}_j^{\text{NP}},$$

$$C_i = C_i^{\text{SM}} + \Delta_i^{\text{NP}}. \tag{13.2}$$

Here

- $\mathcal{O}_i^{\text{SM}}$ are local operators present in the SM and $\mathcal{O}_j^{\text{NP}}$ are new local operators having typically new Dirac structures, in particular scalar-scalar and tensor-tensor ones.
- C_i and C_j^{NP} are the Wilson coefficients (WCs) of these operators. NP effects modify not only the WCs of the SM operators but also generate new operators with non-vanishing C_j^{NP} .

Examples of operators contributing to $K^0 - \bar{K}^0$ mixing observables in the SM and in any of its extensions are given as follows

$$\mathcal{O}_1^{\text{VLL}} = (\bar{s}\gamma_\mu P_L d)(\bar{s}\gamma^\mu P_L d), \tag{13.3a}$$

$$\mathcal{O}_1^{\text{VRR}} = (\bar{s}\gamma_\mu P_R d)(\bar{s}\gamma^\mu P_R d), \tag{13.3b}$$

$$\mathcal{O}_1^{\text{LR}} = (\bar{s}\gamma_\mu P_L d)(\bar{s}\gamma^\mu P_R d), \tag{13.3c}$$

$$\mathcal{O}_2^{\text{LR}} = (\bar{s} P_L d)(\bar{s} P_R d), \tag{13.3d}$$

$$\mathcal{O}_1^{\text{SLL}} = (\bar{s} P_L d)(\bar{s} P_L d), \tag{13.4a}$$

$$\mathcal{O}_1^{\text{SRR}} = (\bar{s} P_R d)(\bar{s} P_R d), \tag{13.4b}$$

$$\mathcal{O}_2^{\text{SLL}} = (\bar{s}\sigma_{\mu\nu} P_L d)(\bar{s}\sigma^{\mu\nu} P_L d), \tag{13.4c}$$

$$\mathcal{O}_2^{\text{SRR}} = (\bar{s}\sigma_{\mu\nu} P_R d)(\bar{s}\sigma^{\mu\nu} P_R d), \tag{13.4d}$$

where

$$P_{R,L} = \frac{1}{2}(1 \pm \gamma_5), \quad \sigma_{\mu\nu} = i\frac{1}{2}[\gamma_\mu, \gamma_\nu], \tag{13.5}$$

and we suppressed color indices as they are summed up in each factor. For instance $\bar{s}\gamma_\mu P_L d$ stands for $\bar{s}_\alpha \gamma_\mu P_L d_\alpha$ and similarly for other factors. Only $\mathcal{O}_1^{\text{VLL}}$ is present in the SM. For meson decays the number of operators in the SM is larger. This is also the case for the number of NP operators. We will encounter some of them in Sect. 13.3.

The amplitude for a decay of a given meson $M = K, B, \dots$ into a final state $F = \mu^+ \mu^-, \pi \nu \bar{\nu}, \pi\pi, DK$ is then simply given by

$$A(M \rightarrow F) = \langle F | \mathcal{H}_{\text{eff}} | M \rangle = \sum_i C_i(\mu) \langle F | \mathcal{O}_i^{\text{SM}}(\mu) | M \rangle$$

$$+ \sum_j C_j^{\text{NP}}(\mu) \langle F | \mathcal{O}_j^{\text{NP}}(\mu) | M \rangle \quad (13.6)$$

where $\langle F | \mathcal{O}_i(\mu) | M \rangle$ are the matrix elements of \mathcal{O}_i between M and F , evaluated at the renormalization scale μ . The WCs $C_i(\mu)$ describe the strength with which a given operator enters the Hamiltonian. They can be considered as scale dependent “couplings” related to “vertices” \mathcal{O}_i and can be calculated using perturbative methods as long as the scale μ is not too small. In the case of $K^0 - \bar{K}^0$ mixing, matrix elements $\langle \bar{K}^0 | \mathcal{O}_i(\mu) | K^0 \rangle$ are present. Other particle-antiparticle mixings have similar matrix elements.

The essential virtue of the OPE is this one. It allows us to separate the problem of calculating the amplitude $A(M \rightarrow F)$ into two distinct parts: the *short distance* (perturbative) calculation of the coefficients $C_i(\mu)$ and the *long-distance* (generally non-perturbative) calculation of the matrix elements $\langle \mathcal{O}_i(\mu) \rangle$. The scale μ separates, roughly speaking, the physics contributions into short distance contributions contained in $C_i(\mu)$ and the long distance contributions contained in $\langle \mathcal{O}_i(\mu) \rangle$.

It should be stressed that this separation of short and long distance contribution is only useful due to the asymptotic freedom in QCD [53, 54] that allows us to calculate the WCs by means of ordinary or RG-improved perturbation theory. On the other hand, the matrix elements $\langle \mathcal{O}_i(\mu) \rangle$ can only be calculated by non-perturbative methods like numerical Lattice QCD computations and analytic methods like Dual QCD (DQCD) [4030, 4031] and Chiral Perturbation Theory (ChPT) [69, 1610].

Now, the coefficients C_i include, in addition to tree-level contributions from the W -exchange, virtual top quark contributions and contributions from other heavy particles such as W , Z bosons, charged Higgs particles, supersymmetric particles and other heavy objects in numerous extensions of this model. Consequently, $C_i(\mu)$ generally depend on m_t and also on the masses of new particles if extensions of the SM are considered. This dependence can be found by evaluating one-loop diagrams, so-called *box* and *penguin* diagrams with full W , Z , top quark and new particles exchanges and *properly* including short distance QCD effects. The latter govern the μ -dependence of $C_i(\mu)$. In models in which the GIM mechanism [80] is absent, also *tree* diagrams can contribute to flavor changing neutral current (FCNC) processes. The point is that a given C_i generally receives contributions from all these three classes of diagrams (Fig. 343).

The value of μ can be chosen arbitrarily but the final result must be μ -independent. Therefore the μ -dependence of $C_i(\mu)$ has to cancel the μ -dependence of $\langle \mathcal{O}_i(\mu) \rangle$. In other words as far as heavy-mass-independent terms are concerned, it is a matter of choice what exactly belongs to $C_i(\mu)$ and what to $\langle \mathcal{O}_i(\mu) \rangle$. This cancellation of the μ -dependence involves generally several terms in the expansion in Eq. (13.6). $C_i(\mu)$ depend also on the renormaliza-

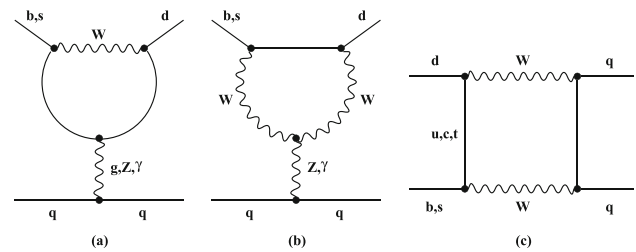


Fig. 343 Penguin and Box Diagrams. From [4032]

tion scheme used in the calculation of QCD effects. This scheme-dependence must also be canceled by the one of $\langle \mathcal{O}_i(\mu) \rangle$ so that the physical amplitudes are renormalization-scheme independent. Again, as in the case of the μ -dependence, the cancellation of the renormalization-scheme-dependence involves generally several terms in the expansion in Eq. (13.6). One of the types of scheme-dependence is the manner in which γ_5 is defined in $D = 4 - 2\epsilon$ dimensions implying various renormalization schemes as analyzed first in the context of weak decays in [4033]. A pedagogical presentation of these issues can be found in [4034].

13.1.1 Renormalization group improved perturbation theory

Generally in weak decays several vastly different scales are involved. These are the hadronic scales of a few GeV, scales like M_W or m_t and – in extensions of the SM – not only of a few TeV but even 100 TeV. Already within the SM, but in particular in its NP extensions, the ordinary perturbation theory in α_s is spoiled by the appearance of large logarithms of the ratios of two very different scales that multiply α_s . Such logarithms have to be summed to all orders of perturbation theory which can be efficiently done by means of renormalization-group methods. Denoting the lower scale simply by μ and the high scale by Λ the general expression for $C_i(\mu)$ is given by:

$$\vec{C}(\mu) = \hat{U}(\mu, \Lambda) \vec{C}(\Lambda), \quad (13.7)$$

where \vec{C} is a column vector built out of C_i . $\vec{C}(\Lambda)$ are the initial conditions for the RG evolution down to low energy scale μ . They depend on the short distance physics at high energy scales. In particular they depend on m_t and the masses and couplings of new heavy particles.

The evolution matrix $\hat{U}(\mu, \Lambda)$ sums large logarithms $\log \Lambda/\mu$ which appear for $\mu \ll \Lambda$. In the so-called leading logarithmic approximation (LO) terms $(g_s^2 \log \Lambda/\mu)^n$ are summed. The next-to-leading logarithmic correction (NLO) to this result involves summation of terms $(g_s^2)^n (\log \Lambda/\mu)^{n-1}$ and so on. This hierarchical structure gives the RG-improved perturbation theory.

As an example let us consider only a single operator so that Eq. (13.7) reduces to

$$C(\mu) = U(\mu, \Lambda)C(\Lambda) \tag{13.8}$$

with $C(\mu)$ denoting the coefficient of the operator in question.

Keeping the first two terms in the expansions of the anomalous dimension of this operator $\gamma(g_s)$ and in $\beta(g_s)$, that governs the evolution of α_s , in powers of α_s and g_s ,

$$\gamma(g_s) = \gamma^{(0)} \frac{\alpha_s}{4\pi} + \gamma^{(1)} \left(\frac{\alpha_s}{4\pi} \right)^2, \tag{13.9}$$

$$\beta(g_s) = -\beta_0 \frac{g_s^3}{16\pi^2} - \beta_1 \frac{g_s^5}{(16\pi^2)^2} \tag{13.10}$$

gives:

$$U(\mu, \Lambda) = \left[1 + \frac{\alpha_s(\mu)}{4\pi} J_1 \right] \left[\frac{\alpha_s(\Lambda)}{\alpha_s(\mu)} \right]^P \left[1 - \frac{\alpha_s(\Lambda)}{4\pi} J_1 \right] \tag{13.11}$$

where

$$P = \frac{\gamma^{(0)}}{2\beta_0}, \quad J_1 = \frac{P}{\beta_0} \beta_1 - \frac{\gamma^{(1)}}{2\beta_0}. \tag{13.12}$$

General formulae for the evolution matrix $\hat{U}(\mu, \Lambda)$ in the case of operator mixing and valid also for electroweak effects at the NLO level can be found in [4035]. The corresponding NNLO formulae are rather complicated and were given for the first time in [4036].

While by now NLO and NNLO QCD contributions to almost all weak decays are known within the SM, the pioneering LO calculations for current–current operators [1209, 1210], penguin operators [4037, 4038], $\Delta S = 2$ operators [4039] and rare K decays [4040] should not be forgotten. The first review of NLO QCD calculations can be found in [4035] and more recently including NNLO corrections in [4034, 4041].

It should be stressed that at the NLO level not only two-loop anomalous dimensions of operators have to be known but also QCD corrections to the WCs at $\mu = \Lambda$. Only then renormalization-scheme independent results can be obtained. They are known for most processes of interest and this technology is explained in details in [4032, 4034]

On the whole, the status of present short distance (SD) contributions within the SM is satisfactory. Let us then see what is the status of these calculations beyond the SM.

13.1.2 QCD effects beyond the SM

As already stated at the beginning, NP contributions can affect the WCs of the SM operators. This modification takes place at the NP scale Λ so that after the RG evolution, the

$C_i(\mu)$ in Eq. (13.6) are modified. But in addition new operators with different Dirac structure, with examples given in Eqs. (13.3) and (13.4), can contribute if their coefficients $C_j^{\text{NP}}(\Lambda)$ are non-vanishing or if they are generated by mixing of different operators in the process of the RG evolution. The inclusion of these contributions in the RG analysis requires at the NLO level the calculations of their one-loop and two-loop anomalous dimensions. While the one-loop anomalous dimensions of such operators have been calculated in [717], the first two-loop calculations have been presented in [4042, 4043]. Recently, these NLO calculations have been generalized for both $\Delta F = 1$ and $\Delta F = 2$ transitions in the so-called Weak Effective Theory (WET) [4044, 4045] and also for the Standard Model Effective Field Theory (SMEFT) [4046]. It turns out that the anomalous dimensions of operators involving both left-handed and right-handed currents, the so-called left-right operators, are much larger than those of most operators within the SM except for QCD-penguin operators. Thus even if their WCs could be small at the scale Λ they can be enhanced at scales of the order of a few GeV. The same applies also to scalar operators.

13.1.3 Hadronic matrix elements

The WCs, that include in the SM the CKM factors, are not the whole story. To obtain the results for the decay amplitudes and the quark mixing observables, also hadronic matrix elements of local operators, like the ones in Eqs. (13.3) and (13.4), have to be calculated. The present status can be summarized as follows.

- For leptonic decays like $B_{s,d} \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$ and $K_{L,S} \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$ only the weak decay constants f_{B_s} , f_{B_d} and f_K are required. They are defined e.g. by

$$\langle 0 | (\bar{s} \gamma^\mu (1 - \gamma_5) u) | K^+ \rangle = i f_K p_K^\mu, \tag{13.13}$$

where p_K^μ is the four-momentum of the decaying K^+ mesons. Similar for f_{B_s} and f_{B_d} .

They are known from LQCD calculations already with an impressive precision [68, 722, 4047]

$$\begin{aligned} f_{B_s} &= 230.3(1.3) \text{ MeV}, \quad f_{B_d} = 190.0(1.3) \text{ MeV}, \\ f_K &= 155.7(3) \text{ MeV}, \end{aligned} \tag{13.14}$$

although in the case of $K_{L,S} \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$ also genuine long distance QCD contributions enter. They cannot be described by matrix elements of local operators and one has to develop some strategies to isolate the contribution described by the effective Hamiltonian discussed by us. In $B_{s,d}$ and B^\pm decays such effects are much smaller. However, they are significant in charm meson decays.

- In semileptonic decays like $K^+ \rightarrow \pi^+ \nu \bar{\nu}$, $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 \nu \bar{\nu}$, $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 \ell^+ \ell^-$, $B \rightarrow K(K^*) \ell^+ \ell^-$, $B \rightarrow D(D^*) \ell^+ \ell^-$ and $B \rightarrow K(K^*) \nu \bar{\nu}$ the formfactors for the transitions $K \rightarrow \pi$, $B \rightarrow K(K^*)$, $B \rightarrow D(D^*)$ enter. For K decays these form factors can even be extracted from data on leading decays with the help of ChPT and isospin symmetry [4048–4050]. Those that enter B decays they are usually calculated using lightcone sum rules for low momentum transfer squared q^2 [4051] and LQCD for large q^2 [4052,4053]. Significant progress has been made here by now with most recent analyses in [740,4054–4056] where more information can be found.
- Moreover Heavy Quark Effective Theory (HQET) and Heavy Quark Expansions (HQE) play an important roles here. HQET represents a static approximation for the heavy quark, covariantly formulated in the language of an effective field theory. It allows us to extract the dependence of hadronic matrix elements on the heavy quark mass and to exploit the simplifications that arise in QCD in the static limit. The most important application of HQET has been to the analysis of exclusive semileptonic transitions involving heavy quarks, where this formalism allows us to exploit the consequences of heavy quark symmetry to relate form factors and provides a basis for systematic corrections to the $m \rightarrow \infty$ limit. There are several excellent reviews on this subject [711,1429,4057,4058].
- For the calculation of the width differences in $B_{s,d}^0 - \bar{B}_{s,d}^0$ mixing $\Delta\Gamma_{s,d}$, lifetimes and totally inclusive decay rates of heavy hadrons, the so-called heavy quark expansion (HQE) has been developed by several authors. It relies on the smallness of the parameter Λ_{QCD}/m_b , where Λ_{QCD} is a hadronic scale. The coefficients in this expansion can be calculated by LQCD. Nice reviews with some details are the ones in [711,1223,1237,4059] and a nice summary of the present situation including historical development can be found in [4060].
- For $\Delta M_{s,d}$ significant progress has been made by LQCD in the recent years. Here the relevant hadronic matrix elements are parametrized by $f_{B_s} \sqrt{\hat{B}_s}$ and $f_{B_d} \sqrt{\hat{B}_d}$ with \hat{B}_s and \hat{B}_d close to unity. Presently the most accurate results are those from HPQCD collaboration [722]

$$\begin{aligned}
 f_{B_s} \sqrt{\hat{B}_s} &= 256.1(5.7) \text{ MeV}, \\
 f_{B_d} \sqrt{\hat{B}_d} &= 210.6(5.5) \text{ MeV}
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{13.15}$$

that in addition to light quarks includes charm quarks. Also corresponding matrix elements for BSM operators are already known but their precision should be still improved. Similarly, the relevant hadronic matrix elements for the parameter ε_K describing the indirect CP-

violation in $K_L \rightarrow \pi\pi$ decay are already known with respectable precision from LQCD both in the SM and beyond [721,4061,4062]. Some physics insight into the numerical LQCD results has also been gained with the help of the DQCD approach [4063].

- The calculations of hadronic matrix elements for non-leptonic decays like $K \rightarrow \pi\pi$, $B \rightarrow \pi K$ etc. are much more involved. For $K \rightarrow \pi\pi$ the only approaches providing matrix elements that can be consistently combined (matched) with the WCs are LQCD, led by the RBC-UKQCD collaboration and the DQCD approach. But while from LQCD only the matrix elements of SM operators are known, all matrix elements of BSM operators have been calculated using the DQCD approach [4064]. Yet, the accuracy of the latter calculations have to be improved, and one should hope that also LQCD collaborations will calculate these matrix elements one day. However, based on the time required to compute the matrix elements of SM operators using LQCD, it could take even a decade to obtain satisfactory results on these matrix elements from LQCD. This is important in view of the present status of the direct CP violation in $K_L \rightarrow \pi\pi$ decay represented by the ratio ε'/ε . We will return to this issue in Sect. 13.3.
- For non-leptonic exclusive B decays LQCD cannot provide the hadronic matrix elements directly but can help in calculating non-perturbative parameters in the context of the so-called *QCD factorization* (QCDF) [4065,4066]. This approach can be applied to $B \rightarrow \pi\pi$, but also to rare and radiative decays, such as $B \rightarrow K^* \gamma$ or $B \rightarrow K^* l^+ l^-$. In the heavy-quark limit, that is up to relative corrections of order Λ_{QCD}/m_b , the problem of computing exclusive hadronic decay amplitudes simplifies considerably. A nice review by Buchalla can be found in Section 7.4 of [4034], and also the one by Beneke [4067] can be strongly recommended. There, also the so-called soft-collinear effective theory (SCET) [1802,1804] is briefly discussed.
- Last but certainly not least one should mention numerous strategies for the study of the QCD dynamics in non-leptonic B decays like $B \rightarrow \pi\pi$, $B \rightarrow \pi K$ and $B \rightarrow K K$ that utilize $SU(3)$ flavor symmetry. They play a role also in the extraction of the angles of the unitarity triangle, in particular of the angle γ . They are reviewed in Chapter 8 of [4034]. A good example here is the paper [4068] and numerous papers of Fleischer and collaborators. These studies are also useful for the search for new physics.

13.2 The quark mixing matrix

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The rich flavor structure of the Standard Model (SM) and its CP violation both follow from the matrices of Yukawa

couplings between the fermions (down and up quarks and charged leptons) and the Higgs boson. The diagonalisation of these matrices determines the fermion masses and brings us to the flavor basis, where the charged weak current is no longer diagonal: as first understood in the hadronic sector by Cabibbo [4028] and extended to three generations by Kobayashi and Maskawa [86], charged currents mix the quarks of different generations in a way parameterized by the Cabibbo–Kobayashi–Maskawa (CKM) quark mixing matrix. Interestingly, its elements display a remarkable hierarchy, possibly indicative of the unknown mechanism of flavor breaking [4069]:

$$\hat{V}_{\text{CKM}} = \begin{pmatrix} V_{ud} & V_{us} & V_{ub} \\ V_{cd} & V_{cs} & V_{cb} \\ V_{td} & V_{ts} & V_{tb} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \lambda^2/2 & \lambda & A\lambda^3(\rho - i\eta) \\ -\lambda & 1 - \lambda^2/2 & A\lambda^2 \\ A\lambda^3(1 - \rho - i\eta) & -A\lambda^2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} + O(\lambda^4) \tag{13.16}$$

where $\lambda = \sin \theta_c \simeq 0.22$ is a small expansion parameter and $A \simeq 0.8$, $\rho \simeq 0.16$, $\eta \simeq 0.36$. As a unitary matrix, \hat{V}_{CKM} has in principle nine free parameters but some of them can be absorbed by phase redefinitions. In the end, \hat{V}_{CKM} has only four independent real parameters: three Euler angles and a phase, or equivalently λ , A , ρ and η . The presence of a nonvanishing phase, i.e. of an imaginary part, implies CP violation. Since unitarity is specific to the three generations of the SM and to the absence of additional flavor violation, testing $\hat{V}_{\text{CKM}}^\dagger \hat{V}_{\text{CKM}} = 1$ is an important step in the verification of the SM and represents the modern equivalent of the tests of the universality of the charged currents. Any of the off-diagonal relations can be represented by a triangle in the complex plane whose area is a measure of CP violation. In particular, the triangle

$$1 + \frac{V_{ud}V_{ub}^*}{V_{cd}V_{cb}^*} + \frac{V_{td}V_{tb}^*}{V_{cd}V_{cb}^*} = 0 \tag{13.17}$$

is frequently considered because it has sides of comparable length, see Fig. 344, and its parameters can all be well determined in B decays. Fixing the unphysical phases as in the second line of (13.16), the angles β and γ at the basis of this triangle correspond to the phases of the elements V_{ub} and V_{td} : $V_{ub} = |V_{ub}|e^{-i\gamma}$, $V_{td} = |V_{td}|e^{-i\beta}$. Various observables constrain the apex of this triangle. The results of a global fit are shown in Fig. 344, where one can see that different constraints agree well, verifying unitarity and determining the apex of the triangle with high accuracy. As we will see below, there are tests of the unitarity of \hat{V}_{CKM} that cannot be represented in this plot.

The role of QCD in the determination of the CKM elements and in testing the CKM mechanism is crucial, with important perturbative and nonperturbative aspects depend-

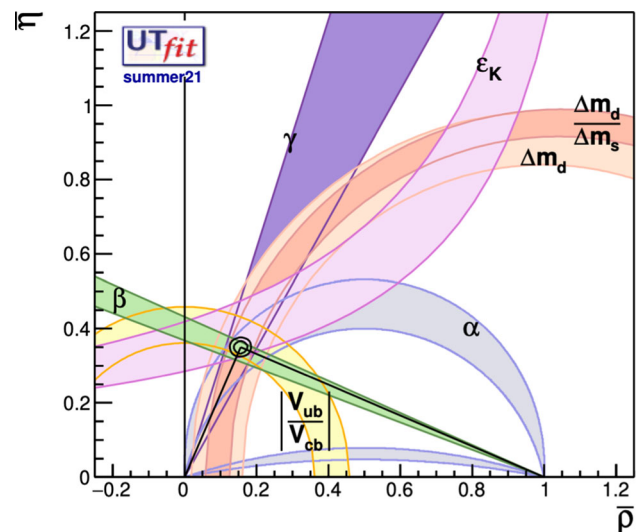


Fig. 344 Constraints on the apex of the Unitarity Triangle of (13.17) and their combination according to the UTfit collaboration. Figure taken from Ref. [4070]. $\bar{\rho} = \rho(1 - \lambda^2/2)$, $\bar{\eta} = \eta(1 - \lambda^2/2)$

ing on the observable; some of the nonperturbative methods have already been discussed in Sects. 4.7 and 5.7.

The experimental and theoretical progress made in the last 30 years is enormous and was mostly driven by lattice QCD; it allows for very precise tests of the CKM mechanism, as is apparent from Fig. 344. Further improvements will be possible with LHCb and Belle II data, but will generally require an effective synergy of theory and experiment. In this section I will focus on measurements where QCD effects are most relevant and where tensions have appeared with the SM.

13.2.1 The Cabibbo angle and the first row unitarity

The parameter λ in Eq. (13.16) corresponds to the sine of the Cabibbo angle and is determined, up to very small higher orders in λ , by $|V_{us}|$ or $|V_{cd}|$. The high precision with which $|V_{ud}|$ is known also allows for a competitive λ determination. The unitarity of the CKM matrix implies for the first row the relation

$$\Sigma_1 = |V_{ud}|^2 + |V_{us}|^2 + |V_{ub}|^2 = 1, \tag{13.18}$$

but since $|V_{ub}| \approx 0.004$ only the first two terms are relevant. Precise measurements of $|V_{us}|$ and $|V_{ud}|$ therefore lead to a first important check of the CKM mechanism.

The most precise determination of $|V_{ud}|$ comes from superallowed Fermi transitions (SFT), i.e. $0^+ \rightarrow 0^+$ nuclear β decays. At the tree level, these decays are mediated by the vector current, whose conservation allows for a particularly clean theoretical description. Among recent refinements, hadronic effects in the radiative corrections, in particular in the γW box, have been studied with dispersive methods [4071, 4072], and the effect of nuclear polarizability,

which depends on nuclear structure (NS), has been exposed [4073]. Considering 15 different superallowed transitions gives a consistent result and the error of the final value [4074],

$$|V_{ud}| = 0.97367(32) \quad (0^+ \rightarrow 0^+) \quad (13.19)$$

is dominated by the NS effects. Neutron β decay depends on the nucleon isovector axial charge g_A/g_V and has recently become competitive, $|V_{ud}| = 0.97413(43)$, if one includes only the current best experiments [4075]. Theoretically the cleanest channel is $\pi^+ \rightarrow \pi^0 e \nu$, which is however limited by a very small $O(10^{-8})$ BR. The present uncertainty based on PIBETA results [4076], $\delta V_{ud} \sim 0.003$, is still far from being competitive, but there are plans to improve drastically on that [4077].

$|V_{us}|$ can be directly accessed from kaon, hyperon, and tau semileptonic decays. The kaon decays, $K \rightarrow \pi \ell \nu$ or $K_{\ell 3}$ are measured in five channels ($K_{L,S}, K^+$ with electron and muons) affected by different systematics, with $K \rightarrow \pi$ form factors computed on the lattice, as discussed in Sect. 4.7. Combining experimental data and the average of several $N_f = 2 + 1 + 1$ lattice results one obtains [513]

$$|V_{us}| = 0.2231(4)_{exp}(4)_{lat} \quad (K_{\ell 3}), \quad (13.20)$$

see also [4075]. At this level of precision, however, a consistent treatment of QED effects in the lattice calculation becomes mandatory [68]. Hyperon decays give a consistent $|V_{us}|$ but are presently not competitive with the above result. The ratio of inclusive tau decays into strange and non-strange hadrons can also be used to extract $|V_{us}|/|V_{ud}|$, employing experimental data and Finite Energy Sum Rules, without lattice input. Recent results tend to be over 2σ lower than Eq. (13.20) and are subject to debate [4078,4079], but a combination of experimental and lattice data on the hadronic vacuum polarization functions gives $|V_{us}| = 0.2245(11)_{exp}(13)_{th}$ [4080], in agreement with Eq. (13.20). Exclusive tau decay channels or ratio such as $\mathcal{B}(\tau \rightarrow K \nu)/\mathcal{B}(\tau \rightarrow \pi \nu)$ can also be used together with $f_{K,\pi}$ computed on the lattice, see Sect. 4.7, to obtain $|V_{us}| = 0.2229(19)$ [4081], again consistent with Eq. (13.20).

A very precise determination of the ratio $|V_{us}|/|V_{ud}|$ can be obtained from the ratio of $K \rightarrow \mu \nu(\gamma)$ to $\pi \rightarrow \mu \nu(\gamma)$ decays [693]. Here nonperturbative QCD sits almost completely in the ratio of f_K and f_π , which is known with a 0.2% uncertainty in 2+1+1 lattice QCD [68]. It then follows [4075]

$$\left| \frac{V_{us}}{V_{ud}} \right| = 0.2311(5) \quad (K_{\mu 2}) \quad (13.21)$$

with the uncertainty dominated by lattice QCD. Using unitarity this is equivalent to $|V_{us}| = 0.2245(5)$ and in some tension with Eq. (13.20).

The most precise constraints can be combined in the $(|V_{ud}|, |V_{us}|)$ plane, see Fig. 345. We observe a clear tension

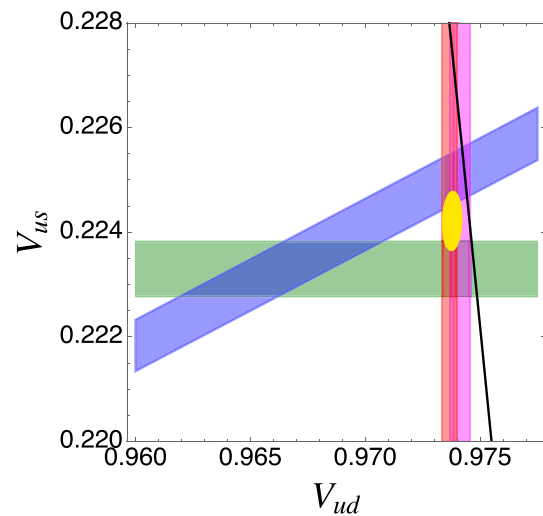


Fig. 345 1σ constraints in the $(|V_{ud}|, |V_{us}|)$ plane from superallowed Fermi transitions (red), from neutron decay (violet), $K_{\ell 3}$ (green), $K_{\mu 2}$ (blue) and the 68% CL contour of the combined fit (yellow). The black line marks the unitarity relation between $|V_{ud}|$ and $|V_{us}|$. Figure taken from [4075]

between the best fit and unitarity, mostly driven by the kaon determinations, which cross far from the unitarity line, and by the superallowed Fermi transitions, which under unitarity imply a very high $|V_{us}|$. On the other hand, $|V_{us}|$ from $K_{\ell 2}$ and the neutron $|V_{ud}|$ are compatible with unitarity. Taking the average of the determinations from Fermi and n decay, $|V_{ud}| = 0.97384(26)$, the actual deviation of Σ_1 from 1 varies between about 1.5σ using Eq. (13.21) and $\sim 3\sigma$ using Eq. (13.20) and it is sometimes referred to as the *Cabibbo anomaly*. It could be due to underestimated uncertainties in the NS correction, in the lattice calculations, in the experimental results, or due to New Physics [4082,4083], and a renewed campaign of $K_{\mu 3}$ and $K_{\mu 2}$ measurements will be crucial to clarify the situation [4075].

As mentioned above, λ can also be determined from $D_{(s)} \rightarrow \ell \nu$ and $D \rightarrow \pi(K)\ell \nu$. Concerning the former, as lattice calculations for f_D have become very precise, the uncertainties in $|V_{cs}| = 0.982(10)_{exp}(2)_{lat}$ and $|V_{cd}| = 0.2181(49)_{exp}(7)_{lat}$ [4081] are dominated by experiment. These results are consistent with Eqs. (13.19, 13.20). FLAG has performed a combined fit to lattice and experimental data for the two D semileptonic decays that yields $|V_{cs}| = 0.971(7)$ and $|V_{cd}| = 0.234(7)$ [68], but $|V_{cd}|$ is about 2σ above its $D \rightarrow \mu \nu$ value. Averaging all these results, one can check the unitarity of the second row of the CKM matrix [68],

$$\Sigma_2 = |V_{cd}|^2 + |V_{cs}|^2 + |V_{cb}|^2 = 1 + 0.001(11), \quad (13.22)$$

where again the last term in the sum is negligible at the present accuracy. Neutrino Deep Inelastic Scattering is also used to extract a consistent but less precise value of $|V_{cd}|$. The second

row of \hat{V}_{CKM} appears to be consistent with unitarity, but the accuracy is much lower than for the first row.

13.2.2 Determination of V_{cb} and V_{ub}

The magnitudes of two of the elements of the CKM matrix, $|V_{ub}|$ and $|V_{cb}|$, can be directly extracted from semileptonic b -hadron (mostly B meson) decays. In exclusive decays one looks at specific hadronic final states, while inclusive decays sum over all decays channels to a certain flavor (i.e. $b \rightarrow c$). Inclusive and exclusive semileptonic decays are subject to very different theoretical and experimental systematics, see Refs. [4084,4085] for recent reviews.

The results of the B factories, analysed in the light of the most recent theoretical calculations, are puzzling, because – especially for $|V_{cb}|$ – the determinations from exclusive and inclusive decays are in strong tension, and despite recent new experimental and theoretical results the situation remains unclear. While in principle New Physics may explain the tensions, it is significantly constrained by the measured differential distributions in $B \rightarrow D^{(*)}\ell\nu$ [4086] and, in the context of the SM Effective Theory or SMEFT, by LEP data [4087]. This tension is all the more relevant as measurements in the semitauonic channels at Belle, BaBar, and LHCb show discrepancies with the SM predictions, pointing to a possible violation of lepton-flavor universality. This V_{cb} puzzle casts a shadow on our understanding of semitauonic decay as well. The inability to determine precisely V_{cb} also hampers significantly NP searches in Flavor Changing Neutral Currents processes: the uncertainty on the value of V_{cb} dominates the theoretical uncertainty in the SM predictions for several observables, from ε_K to the branching fraction of $B_s \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$.

Our understanding of inclusive semileptonic B decays, see also Sect. 5.7, is based on a simple idea: since inclusive decays sum over all possible hadronic final states, the quark in the final state hadronizes with unit probability and the transition amplitude is sensitive only to the long-distance dynamics of the initial B meson. Thanks to the large hierarchy between the typical energy release, of $O(m_b)$, and the hadronic scale Λ_{QCD} , and to asymptotic freedom, any residual sensitivity to non-perturbative effects is suppressed by powers of Λ_{QCD}/m_b . From a phenomenological point of view, it is remarkable that the linear preasymptotic correction is actually absent and that the leading nonperturbative corrections are $O(\Lambda_{\text{QCD}}^2/m_b^2)$. This is due to the Operator Product Expansion (OPE) that allows us to express the non-perturbative physics in terms of B meson matrix elements of local operators of dimension $d \geq 5$, while the Wilson coefficients can be expressed as a perturbative series in α_s [1253–1255,4088,4089]. The OPE disentangles the physics associated with *soft* scales of order Λ_{QCD} (parameterized by the matrix elements of the local operators) from that asso-

ciated with *hard* scales $\sim m_b$, which determine the Wilson coefficients. Inclusive observables such as the total semileptonic width and the moments of the kinematic distributions are therefore double expansions in α_s and Λ_{QCD}/m_b , with a leading term that is given by the free b quark decay. As already noted, the power corrections start at $O(\Lambda_{\text{QCD}}^2/m_b^2)$ and are comparatively suppressed. At higher orders in the OPE, terms suppressed by powers of m_c also appear, starting with $O(\Lambda_{\text{QCD}}^3/m_b^3 \times \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}^2/m_c^2)$ [4090]. The expansion for the total semileptonic width is

$$\Gamma_{sl} = \Gamma_0 \left[1 + a^{(1)} \frac{\alpha_s(m_b)}{\pi} + a^{(2)} \left(\frac{\alpha_s}{\pi} \right)^2 + a^{(3)} \left(\frac{\alpha_s}{\pi} \right)^3 + \left(-\frac{1}{2} + p^{(1)} \frac{\alpha_s}{\pi} \right) \frac{\mu_\pi^2}{m_b^2} + \left(g^{(0)} + g^{(1)} \frac{\alpha_s}{\pi} \right) \frac{\mu_G^2(m_b)}{m_b^2} + d^{(0)} \frac{\rho_D^3}{m_b^3} - g^{(0)} \frac{\rho_{LS}^3}{m_b^3} + \text{higher orders} \right], \quad (13.23)$$

where Γ_0 is the tree-level free-quark decay width, and μ_π^2 , μ_G^2 , ρ_D^3 and ρ_{LS}^3 are hadronic parameters that have to be determined from experimental data, i.e. from the moments of differential distributions, which can be expanded in the same way as the total width. The perturbative corrections are known up to $O(\alpha_s^3)$ and $O(\alpha_s/m_b^3)$ for the total width [1239,4091] and up to $O(\alpha_s^2)$ and $O(\alpha_s/m_b^2)$ for the moments [4092–4095]. In line with the discussion of Sect. 5.7, it is important that m_b and the other Heavy-Quark Expansion (HQE) parameters are free from renormalon ambiguities. The kinetic scheme [4096,4097], for instance, employs a Wilsonian cutoff $\mu \sim 1\text{ GeV}$. Higher power corrections have been considered in [4098–4100] and appear to have a negligible impact on $|V_{cb}|$. Although the moments are rather sensitive to the difference $m_b - m_c$, a more precise determination of $|V_{cb}|$ can be obtained taking advantage of the precise lattice determinations of the charm and bottom masses, see [513] for a review. The most recent global analysis in the kinetic scheme [4101] gives

$$|V_{cb}| = 42.16(51) \times 10^{-3}, \quad (B \rightarrow X_c \ell \nu) \quad (13.24)$$

where the uncertainty follows from the combination of theoretical and experimental uncertainties. A consistent but less precise result has been recently obtained from an analysis of the new Belle and Belle II measurements of the q^2 moments [4102]. While the estimate in Eq. (13.24) appears solid, new measurements at Belle II will provide welcome checks and may reduce the experimental uncertainty. There are also a few more higher order effects worth computing, and QED effects should be understood better. Most importantly, however, lattice calculations of inclusive quantities are now possible and may soon complement the OPE approach [750,4103].

The inclusive determination of $|V_{ub}|$ from $B \rightarrow X_u \ell \nu$ decays differs from that of $|V_{cb}|$ mostly because of the experimental cuts necessary to suppress the large $b \rightarrow c\ell\nu$

background: the local OPE does not converge well in the restricted phase space. The modern description of these inclusive decays is therefore based on a non-local OPE [1257, 1258], where nonperturbative shape functions (SFs) play the role of parton distribution functions of the b quark inside the B meson. While the first few moments of the SFs are expressed in terms of the same HQE parameters extracted in $B \rightarrow X_c \ell \nu$, direct experimental information on the SFs is limited to the $B \rightarrow X_s \gamma$ photon spectrum, to which they are only related in the $m_b \rightarrow \infty$ limit. There are a few frameworks that incorporate the above picture with a range of additional assumptions: BLNP [4104] and GGOU [4105] use a large set of models for the SFs, while DGE [4106] computes the leading SF in resummed perturbative QCD. Another potential source of theoretical uncertainty in all approaches is represented by the so called Weak Annihilation contributions, namely nonperturbative contributions at high q^2 arising from $b\bar{q}$ weak annihilations (WA) in the B meson, where the \bar{q} is not necessarily the light valence quark [4107]. Charm decays, and particularly moments of the inclusive leptonic spectrum, constrain them effectively, and one can conclude that the WA correction to the total rate of $B \rightarrow X_u \ell \nu$ must be smaller than about 2% [4108, 4109]. Its localisation at high q^2 and the sensitivity of the q^2 tail to higher power corrections suggest that an upper cut on q^2 would be useful in future analyses.

A few experimental analyses extend the measurement into the phase space region dominated by $b \rightarrow c$ transitions, which are then modelled, trading part of the theory uncertainty for a larger systematic experimental uncertainty (in particular, D^{**} and multihadron final states are not known very well): agreement among the various analyses should then increase our confidence in the result, but one should be aware that the reconstruction efficiencies depend on the modelling of the signal, i.e. again on the SFs. The latest Heavy flavor Averaging Group (HFLAV) $|V_{ub}|$ world averages in the three above frameworks [4081] are based on a number of different experimental results with different kinematic cuts and read

$$\begin{aligned} |V_{ub}|^{\text{BLNP}} &= 4.28(13)_{-21}^{+20} \times 10^{-3}, \\ |V_{ub}|^{\text{GGOU}} &= 4.19(12)_{-12}^{+11} \times 10^{-3}, \\ |V_{ub}|^{\text{DGE}} &= 3.93(10)_{-10}^{+9} \times 10^{-3}, \end{aligned} \quad (13.25)$$

where the first uncertainty is experimental and the second comes from theory. Unfortunately, they do not agree well with each other. Moreover, the values obtained from different experimental analyses are not always compatible within their stated theoretical and experimental uncertainties. The latest electron endpoint analysis by BaBar [4110], in particular, shows a dependence on the model used to simulate the signal and leads to sharply different results in BLNP and GGOU. This is the most precise analysis to date; in GGOU it

favours a lower $|V_{ub}| = 3.96(10)(17) \times 10^{-3}$ while in BLNP the result is $|V_{ub}| = 4.41(12)(27) \times 10^{-3}$. While it is possible that modelling the signal has biased previous endpoint results, we stress that analyses involving a larger fraction of the phase space are generally less sensitive to SFs and other theoretical systematics, which are inherently difficult to estimate. In this respect, applying a cut on the hadronic invariant mass $M_X < 1.7 \text{ GeV}$ seems to be the safest approach, as it depends little on the reconstruction of the $b \rightarrow c$ background, captures almost 60% of the phase space, and strikes a balance between experimental and theoretical uncertainties. In the recent Babar analysis [4111], where machine learning techniques and hadronic tagging were used to reduce backgrounds, the result in GGOU (very much consistent with BLNP and DGE) is

$$|V_{ub}| = 3.97(18)(17) \times 10^{-3}, \quad (B \rightarrow X_u \ell \nu) \quad (13.26)$$

which in my opinion represents the current state of the art. Improvements will certainly come from the higher statistics available at Belle II and from the implementation of higher order calculations such as [4112]. For instance, the complete $O(\alpha_s^2)$ perturbative contributions to the triple differential rate is still missing, despite numerical results for the moments [4113]. A precise study of the differential spectra, recently measured at Belle for the first time [4114], will validate the theoretical frameworks and help constrain the SFs. The SIMBA [1840] and NNvub [4115] methods are well posed to analyse the Belle II data in a model independent and efficient way. In the longer run, lattice studies like those mentioned for inclusive $b \rightarrow c$ transitions should also become possible.

The exclusive $B \rightarrow D \ell \nu$ and $B \rightarrow D^* \ell \nu$ channels are also used to extract $|V_{cb}|$. These decays are described by nonperturbative form factors which are computed in lattice QCD (as discussed in Sect. 4.7) as well as with approximate methods like Light Cone Sum Rules (LCSR), see Sect. 5.7. Typically, the lattice calculations are better under control at large or maximal q^2 , corresponding to small or vanishing recoil, while LCSR calculations prefer the small q^2 range and are less precise. Moreover, heavy quark symmetry guarantees that the form factors at zero recoil are absolutely normalized in the heavy quark limit. As the rates vanish at zero recoil in both cases, see Eq. (4.188), the experimental data are much less precise at low recoil and one needs to parameterize the form factors in a model independent way in order to describe the form factors in the whole kinematic range and to interpolate between the small and large recoil regions. Model independent parametrizations based on a dispersive approach have been developed in the 1990s and the two most relevant ones are known as BGL and BCL [4116, 4117]; the form factors are expressed, up to known prefactors, as series in the

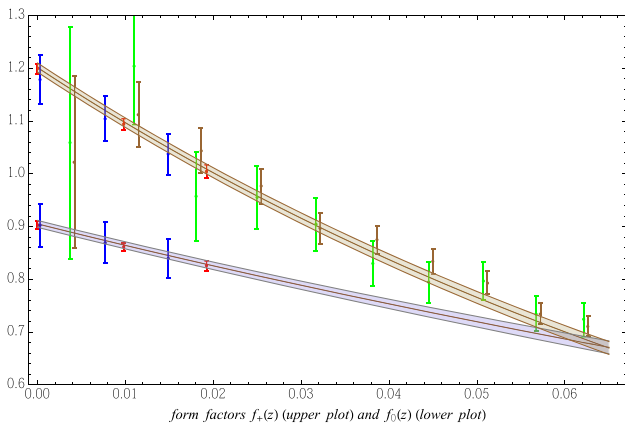


Fig. 346 Form factors $f_{+,0}(z)$ for the $B \rightarrow D$ transitions computed by FNAL/MILC [4126] (red) and HPQCD [4127] (blue) and experimental data from Belle (brown) and BaBar (green) normalized by the fitted value of $|V_{cb}|$. The bands show the results of the global fit. Figure from Ref. [4128]

variable

$$z = \frac{\sqrt{w+1} - \sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{w+1} + \sqrt{2}}, \tag{13.27}$$

where $w = (m_B^2 + M_{D^{(*)}}^2 - q^2)/(2m_B m_{D^{(*)}})$. In the physical range z is small, < 0.07 , and unitarity puts constraints on the size of the series coefficients. A variant, proposed in [4118] and known as CLN, additionally employs Next to Leading Order Heavy Quark Effective Theory relations and QCD sum rules to reduce the number of relevant parameters to two. These additional inputs imply an uncertainty that can no longer be neglected, see [4119–4122] for updates and improvements on the CLN approach. It is then unfortunate that prior to 2016 the experimental results were generally given in terms of fits to the CLN parametrization, without accounting for this uncertainty. More recent measurements [4123–4125] provide the differential q^2 and angular (for $B \rightarrow D^* \ell \nu$) unfolded distributions or the necessary ingredients (efficiencies and response functions) to *fold* theoretical predictions and get the yields in each bin.

In the $B \rightarrow D \ell \nu$ case precise lattice calculations at small but non-zero recoil are available since several years [4127, 4129] and have been combined with the experimental results of Refs. [4123, 4130] to get [4128]

$$|V_{cb}| = 40.5(1.0)10^{-3} \quad (B \rightarrow D \ell \nu). \tag{13.28}$$

A similar value is found in [68]. Indeed, the lattice and experimental form factor shapes are in good agreement, satisfy the unitarity constraints, and the overall fit is good and stable, see Fig. 346. The BGL and BCL parametrizations give identical results and the fit also provides a SM prediction for the Lepton Flavor Universality ratio $R(D) = \Gamma(B \rightarrow D \tau \nu)/\Gamma(B \rightarrow D \mu \nu) = 0.299(3)$ [4128], in reasonable agreement with the experimental world average $R(D)_{exp} = 0.339(30)$ [4081].

In the $B \rightarrow D^* \ell \nu$ channel the situation is more complicated. From the experimental point of view this channel allows for a more precise determination of $|V_{cb}|$ than the $B \rightarrow D$ channel and angular distributions can be studied in addition to the q^2 distribution. On the other hand, the D^* meson decays strongly to $D\pi$ (it cannot be considered stable) and three (four) different form factors contribute for a massless (massive) lepton. The only lattice calculation of these form factors away from the zero-recoil point has been published so far by the Fermilab-MILC Collaboration [745], although JLQCD and HPQCD calculations are in their final stage [747, 4131]. Restricting to experimental analyses that provide data in a model independent way, Belle has presented a tagged [4124] and an untagged analysis [4125]. The dataset of [4124] showed for the first time that the extraction of $|V_{cb}|$ could strongly depend on the parametrization employed: BGL and CLN both gave reasonable fits with $|V_{cb}|$ values differing by about 6% [4132, 4133]. It has recently been replaced by a new untagged analysis [4134] that does not present this problem, but the point remains valid: parametrizations matter and the related uncertainties have to be carefully considered. The more precise dataset of the untagged analysis [4125], despite a few problems [4135], did not show any parametrization dependence. A global fit based on [4136] that includes the Fermilab calculation [745], unitarity constraints, and the Belle untagged data only, while adjusting for the D’Agostini bias [4137], leads to

$$|V_{cb}| = 39.3(9)10^{-3} \quad (B \rightarrow D^* \ell \nu), \tag{13.29}$$

but the agreement between the Fermilab form factor shape and the experimental distributions is not good and the total χ^2 is large.¹¹⁷ An additional uncertainty of $\sim 0.5\%$ for missing QED corrections should be added to Eq. (13.29), as well as to Eqs. (13.24) and (13.28). There is also a troubling tension between the Fermilab results and the ratio of form factors computed in NLO HQET. Preliminary results for the $B \rightarrow D^*$ form factors have also been disclosed by the JLQCD collaboration [4138] and in this case the agreement with Belle data is much better, with a final $|V_{cb}| = 40.7^{(+1.0)}_{(-0.9)}10^{-3}$. One can also add LCSR constraints on the form factors [4055], with minimal change in $|V_{cb}|$. Despite these latest developments, HFLAV also quotes an average of experimental results in the CLN parametrization based on the form factor at zero recoil only, $|V_{cb}| = 38.46(68)10^{-3}$, but this result is subject to uncontrolled uncertainties related to the way the CLN parametrization has been used. The two Belle datasets have also been analysed in the Dispersive Matrix approach [4139],

¹¹⁷ The result in (13.29) differs from that reported in [745] and adopted in [513], $|V_{cb}| = 38.4(7)10^{-3}$, mostly because of the D’Agostini bias (not considered in [745]), of the way unitarity constraints are implemented, and of the QED Coulomb factor that is included in [745], neglecting however other QED corrections.

where the form factors are constrained by the Fermilab lattice data and unitarity only; tensions with the experimental data are observed here as well. The fit that originates Eq. (13.29) gives also $R(D^*) = \Gamma(B \rightarrow D^* \tau \nu) / \Gamma(B \rightarrow D^* \mu \nu) = 0.249(1)$, confirming the tension with the experimental world average $R(D^*)_{exp} = 0.295(14)$ [4081].

LHCb has recently performed the first determination of $|V_{cb}|$ using B_s^0 decays [4140]. Using both $B_s^0 \rightarrow D_s^{(*)-} \mu^+ \nu$ and the lattice results from Refs. [746,4141], they obtain $|V_{cb}| = 41.7(0.8)(0.9)(1.1)10^{-3}$. On the other hand, BaBar using a simplified BGL parametrization finds $|V_{cb}| = 38.4(9)10^{-3}$ [4142]. In summary, the situation for the exclusive determination of $|V_{cb}|$ is still unsettled, but a tension with the inclusive determination of Eq. (13.24) is undisputable. New lattice calculations performed with relativistic heavy quarks such as [747] will extend their q^2 range, making it possible to extract $|V_{cb}|$ at large recoil, where experimental data are more accurate. New experimental analyses of Belle and Belle II data are also expected soon. As this is paralleled by a renewed experimental and theoretical activity on the inclusive front, we can hope that the V_{cb} puzzle will find its resolution.

Moving to the exclusive determination of $|V_{ub}|$, it proceeds through the $B \rightarrow \pi$ channel. In analogy to the $B \rightarrow D$ case, only one form factor is relevant for massless leptons and it is standard practice to perform a BCL fit to lattice [741,748,4143] and LCSR calculations and to experimental data from several experiments, see [4081]. HFLAV employs the Fermilab and RBC/UKQCD form factors and the LCSR calculation of [4144] to find $|V_{ub}| = 3.67(15)10^{-3}$. An updated LCSR result is presented in [4145] and leads to

$$|V_{ub}| = 3.77(15)10^{-3} \quad (B \rightarrow \pi \ell \nu). \tag{13.30}$$

The recent JLQCD form factor $f_+(q^2)$ [748] is slightly lower than the Fermilab and RBC/UKQCD and also implies a higher $|V_{ub}|$. The fits in [4081,4145] are both consistent, but there are two outliers which drive the value of $|V_{ub}|$ down. Removing the outliers the result increases $|V_{ub}|$ by about one sigma [4146]. We can conclude that the agreement between inclusive and exclusive determinations of $|V_{ub}|$ has become acceptable, but more stringent tests will be possible in the next few years. With the large statistics that will be available at Belle II the channel $B \rightarrow \tau \nu$ will become competitive with $B \rightarrow \pi \ell \nu$ for the extraction of $|V_{ub}|$. To this end, neglecting QED effects, the only QCD input is the decay constant f_B , which is already known to better than 1%, see Sect. 4.7.

Finally, two recent semileptonic measurements at LHCb place constraints on $|V_{ub}/V_{cb}|$. The first concerns the ratio of $\Lambda_b \rightarrow p \mu \nu$ to $\Lambda_b \rightarrow \Lambda_c \mu \nu$ decays [752] and makes use of a pioneering lattice calculation of baryonic form factors

[751]; the result is [4081]

$$\frac{|V_{ub}|}{|V_{cb}|} = 0.079(4)(4) \quad (\Lambda_b \rightarrow p \mu \nu) \tag{13.31}$$

where the uncertainties are experimental and from the form factors. The second is the first measurement of $B_s \rightarrow K \mu \nu$; the decay is normalized to $B_s \rightarrow D_s \mu \nu$ in two bins of q^2 [4147]. Using lattice results from the FNAL/MILC Collaboration [4148] for the high q^2 bin and LCSR [4149] for the low q^2 bin, one obtains values of $|V_{ub}/V_{cb}|$ in sharp disagreement with each other, which requires further scrutiny. Averaging Ref. [4148] with older results in the high q^2 bin of Ref. [4147], FLAG finds $|V_{ub}/V_{cb}| = 0.086(5)$ [68]. We can compare this and Eq. (13.31) with the ratio of Eqs. (13.26, 13.24) or of Eq. (13.30) and the average of Eqs. (13.28, 13.29): from inclusive decays we get $|V_{ub}/V_{cb}| = 0.094(6)$, from exclusive decays $|V_{ub}/V_{cb}| = 0.094(4)$, and in both cases the tension with Eq. (13.31) is over 2σ . The agreement improves for lower $|V_{ub}|$ or higher $|V_{cb}|$. This is another puzzling issue: hopefully, future measurements and lattice calculations of baryonic and mesonic form factors will clarify the situation.

As mentioned above, semileptonic b decays are not the only observables sensitive to $|V_{cb}|$ and $|V_{ub}|$. Assuming the validity of the SM and therefore the unitarity of the CKM matrix, one can also extract V_{cb} from loop induced observables like ϵ_K and $B_{(s)} - \bar{B}_{(s)}$ mixing, as well as from rare kaon and B decays [4070,4150–4154], and the precision starts to be competitive. For instance, the $B_{(s)}$ meson mass differences are proportional to $|V_{cb}|^2$: $\Delta M_{(d,s)} \propto |V_{td,ts}|^2$ and $|V_{ts}|^2 \approx |V_{cb}|^2$, $|V_{td}|^2 = \lambda^2 \sin^2 \gamma |V_{cb}|^2$. ϵ_K is even more sensitive, $\epsilon_K \propto |V_{cb}|^{3,4}$, and the branching fraction for $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 \nu \bar{\nu}$ is proportional to $|V_{cb}|^4$. Deviations from the direct (semileptonic) determinations would signal New Physics. The present situation is illustrated in Fig. 347, where the constraints from some of these observables in the $(\gamma, |V_{cb}|)$ plane are shown, with a clear preference for a high $|V_{cb}|$. As far as $|V_{ub}|$ is concerned, global fits performed without its direct determination tend to return values close to Eq. (13.30).

13.2.3 Meson mixing and CP asymmetries

So far we have discussed the elements of the first two rows of \hat{V}_{CKM} : their magnitudes determine precisely λ and A in Eq. (13.16), and the ratio $|V_{ub}/V_{cb}|$ constrains the apex of the unitarity triangle, as shown in Fig. 344. In order to determine completely the remaining parameters ρ and η , however, one needs additional information. As the elements of the third row cannot yet be measured precisely, we now turn to loop mediated $B_{(s)}$ mixing and rare decays, and CP asymmetries, focussing only on the most constraining observables.

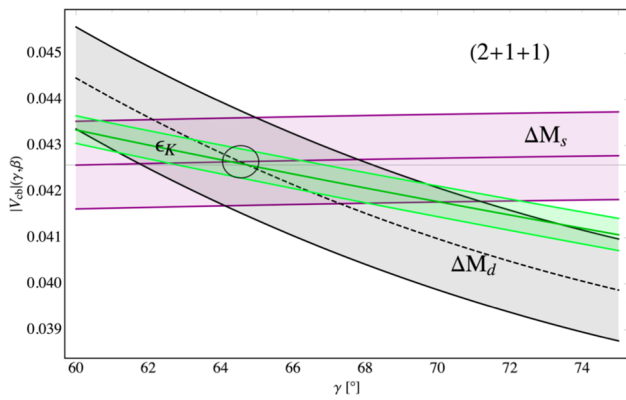


Fig. 347 Present constraints from ϵ_K , ΔM_d , and ΔM_s in the $(\gamma, |V_{cb}|)$ plane, see Ref. [4152] for details

In the SM the mass difference $\Delta M_{d,s}$ between the two mass eigenstates of the B^0 and B_s^0 systems is proportional to $|V_{td}|^2$ and $|V_{ts}|^2$, respectively, and the relevant nonperturbative QCD physics is all contained in the product $f_{B_q}^2 \hat{B}_{B_q}$ of decay constants and bag parameters, see Eq. (4.186). The ratio $\Delta M_s/\Delta M_d$ is particularly interesting because some uncertainty cancels out: the latest $N_f = 2 + 1 + 1$ value [722] for $\xi = f_{B_s}/f_{B_d}\sqrt{B_{B_s}/B_{B_d}}$ is $\xi = 1.216(16)$, which together with accurate measurements [4081] allows for the very strong constraint shown in red in Fig. 344. Individually, $\Delta M_{d,s}$ are slightly less precise but have a very different sensitivity to $|V_{cb}|$, see Fig. 347. In the kaon sector one looks at CP-violation in mixing, quantified by ϵ_K , see Sect. 13.3.3, which is sensitive to a combination of CKM elements. The bulk of ϵ_K is due to its *short-distance* component, whose uncertainty is dominated by the bag parameter \hat{B}_K , see e.g. [4034]. The recent average of lattice calculations reported in Sect. 4.7, $\hat{B}_K = 0.7625(97)$, leads to the constraints shown in Figs. 344 and 347.

Finally, different CP asymmetries allow for a direct extraction of the phase of some CKM element, with minimal or no QCD input, see [4155–4158] for good reviews. Limiting to the most precise results, the measurement of the time-dependent CP asymmetry in $B \rightarrow J/\psi K_S$ gives $\sin 2\beta = 0.699(17)$ (green band in Fig. 344) neglecting small contributions from penguin amplitudes with a different weak phase, but data-driven methods based on flavor symmetries have been devised to account for them [4159–4161], and indicate an additional 0.01 uncertainty; the study of the interference between the tree-level decays $B^- \rightarrow D^0 K^-$ and $B^- \rightarrow \bar{D}^0 K^-$ gives $\gamma = 66.1(3.5)^\circ$ [4081] (blue band in Fig. 344); an isospin analysis [4162] of the time-dependent asymmetries in $B \rightarrow \pi\pi, \rho\rho$ leads to $\alpha = 85.4(4.6)^\circ$ (gray bands in Fig. 344).

The global picture that emerges from all these and additional less important inputs is summarized by the global fit that gives the apex of the unitarity triangle in Fig. 344:

$\bar{\rho} = 0.156(12)$ and $\bar{\eta} = 0.350(10)$ [4070]. The consistency between the various constraints is impressive and in the last 18 years the overall precision has improved by a factor 4(3) for $\bar{\rho}(\bar{\eta})$. One can compare some of the above inputs with the values obtained from a global fit performed without them: the results are $\sin 2\beta = 0.750(27)$, $\gamma = 66.1(2.1)^\circ$, $\alpha = 90.5(2.1)^\circ$ [4070]. Very similar results are also obtained by the CKMFitter Collaboration [4154], which reports $\bar{\rho} = 0.157(^{+8}_{-5})$ and $\bar{\eta} = 0.348(^{+12}_{-5})$.

In summary, the CKM mechanism describes successfully a host of data, in many cases with crucial QCD input. As discussed in Sects. 13.2.1 and 13.2.2, there are potential problems that require further scrutiny, and more serious anomalies will be discussed in Sect. 13.4, but it is premature to attribute them to New Physics. On the contrary, present data place very strong constraints on a variety of New Physics scenarios, in particular on those that modify the CKM mechanism more radically, see e.g. [4034, 4163]. From an effective field theory point of view, the measurements we have considered in this section imply that the scale Λ of New Physics with a generic flavor structure must be well beyond the TeV range.

13.3 The important role of QCD in flavor physics

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The importance of QCD effects depends on processes considered. While their inclusion in processes like $K^+ \rightarrow \pi^+ \nu \bar{\nu}$, $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 \nu \bar{\nu}$, $B_{s,d}^0 \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$ is important in order to increase the precision of SM predictions, neglecting them would result in uncertainties in the ballpark of at most 30%, significant but not crucial if one wants to get a rough idea what are the SM predictions for such decays. There are extensive reviews on them and most of these decays are discussed in [4034]. Here we want to confine our presentation to cases in which QCD plays an essential role and neglecting QCD effects one would fail the description of the data not by 30%, but by factors of at least two and sometimes even by an order of magnitude.

13.3.1 $B \rightarrow X_s \gamma$ decay

The calculations of NLO and NNLO QCD corrections to $B \rightarrow X_s \gamma$ decay are probably the best known to the physics community among all QCD calculations in the field of weak decays. One of the reasons is the fact that the $b \rightarrow s \gamma$ transition was the first penguin-mediated transition in B physics to be discovered in 1993 in the exclusive decay channel $B \rightarrow K^* \gamma$ measured in the CLEO experiment [4164]. The inclusive branching ratio $B \rightarrow X_s \gamma$ has been measured in 1994 by the same group [4165]. The other reason is the particular structure of the QCD corrections to this decay that requires a two-loop calculation in order to obtain the anomalous dimension matrix in the LO approximation. Because of

this it took 6 years after the first QCD calculations in ordinary perturbation theory to obtain the correct result for the QCD corrections to $B \rightarrow X_s \gamma$ in the RG-improved perturbation theory at LO. It involved 5 groups and 16 physicists. It is not then surprising that the corresponding NLO calculations took 9 years. In 2022 this decay is known including NNLO corrections. A detailed historical account of NLO calculations can be found in [4041] and an introduction to technical details in [4034]. Most extensive NNLO calculations have been reported first in [4166], and after a number of updates the last one has been presented in [4167]

$$\mathcal{B}(B \rightarrow X_s \gamma)_{\text{SM}} = (3.36 \pm 0.23) \times 10^{-4}, \quad (13.32)$$

for $E_\gamma \geq 1.6 \text{ GeV}$. It agrees very well with experiment which reached the accuracy of 4.5% [4168]

$$\mathcal{B}(B \rightarrow X_s \gamma)_{\text{exp}} = (3.32 \pm 0.15) \times 10^{-4}, \quad (13.33)$$

where again $E_\gamma \geq 1.6 \text{ GeV}$ has been imposed. One expects that in this decade the Belle II experiment will reach the accuracy of 3% so that very precise tests of the SM will be possible. Already now this decay provides an important constraint on new physics.

In order to appreciate these results let us briefly describe why these very difficult calculations were crucial. Indeed in 1987 two groups [4169, 4170] calculated $\mathcal{O}(\alpha_s)$ QCD corrections to the $B \rightarrow X_s \gamma$ rate finding a huge enhancement of this rate relative to the partonic result without QCD corrections. In 1987, when $m_t \leq M_W$ was still considered, this enhancement was almost by an order of magnitude. With the increased value of m_t in the 1990s also the partonic rate increased, and in 2022 the dominant additive QCD corrections, although still very important, amount roughly to a factor of 2.5.

The additive QCD corrections in question originate in the mixing of the leading current–current operator Q_2 like the one in Eq. (13.36) with the magnetic-photon penguin operator $Q_{7\gamma}$ that is directly responsible for the decay $b \rightarrow s \gamma$. The calculation of the relevant anomalous dimensions at LO is a two-loop affair and consequently it took some time before the correct result had been obtained. An important role in resolving these inconsistencies present in the literature was played by the analyses in [4171, 4172]. But the final LO result has been provided by the Rome group [4173, 4174].

Once this issue had been solved it was possible to outline an NLO calculation in [4175]. Such a calculation was motivated by the finding in [4176] that the LO rate for $B \rightarrow X_s \gamma$ exhibited a very large renormalization-scale dependence. Changing the scale μ_b in the Wilson coefficient from $m_b/2$ to $2m_b$ changed the rate of $B \rightarrow X_s \gamma$ by roughly 60% making a detailed comparison of theory with experiment impossible.

A large number of authors contributed to the calculation of NLO corrections, with their names and references listed in

Table 5 of the review in [4041]. See also the 2002 summary of NLO calculation in [4177].

Yet already in 2001 a motivation for a NNLO calculation was born. While the NLO calculations decreased the μ_b -dependence present in the LO expressions significantly, a new uncertainty had been pointed out by Paolo Gambino and Mikolaj Misiak in 2001 [4178]. It turns out that the $B \rightarrow X_s \gamma$ rate suffers at the NLO from a significant, $\pm 6\%$, uncertainty due to the choice of the charm quark mass in the two-loop matrix elements of the four quark operators, in particular in $\langle s \gamma | Q_2 | B \rangle$. In the following years, considerable progress in the NNLO program of $B \rightarrow X_s \gamma$ was made. It was an effort of 17 theorists [4166] and led eventually to the result in Eq. (13.32) summarized in [4167].

13.3.2 QCD dynamics and the $\Delta I = 1/2$ rule

One of the puzzles of the 1950s was a large disparity between the measured values of the real parts of the isospin amplitudes A_0 and A_2 in $K \rightarrow \pi\pi$ decays, which on the basis of usual isospin considerations were expected to be of the same order. Experimentally, the $\pi\pi$ system in $K \rightarrow \pi\pi$ decays was often found to have isospin $I = 0$ and rarely $I = 2$, an effect which is called $\Delta I = 1/2$ rule; $\Delta I = 1/2$ decays are enhanced over the $\Delta I = 3/2$ ones by a factor of 22.4. Altarelli and Maiani [1210] and Gaillard and Lee [1209] made a first unsuccessful attempt to explain this huge enhancement through short distance QCD effects. The precision of the calculation of the WCs increased considerably in the last 50 years since this first pioneering calculation. The basic QCD dynamics behind this rule – contained in the hadronic matrix elements of current–current operators – has been identified analytically first in 1986 in the framework of the Dual QCD in [4030] with some improvements in 2014 [4031]. This has been confirmed more than 30 years later by the RBC-UKQCD collaboration [729] although the modest accuracy of both approaches still allows for some NP contributions. See [4179] for the most recent summary. Despite this summary it is appropriate to describe in this book the present situation of this important rule that is governed by QCD in more details.

In 2022 we knew the experimental values of the real parts of these amplitudes very precisely [4180]

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Re}A_0 &= 27.04(1) \times 10^{-8} \text{ GeV}, \\ \text{Re}A_2 &= 1.210(2) \times 10^{-8} \text{ GeV}. \end{aligned} \quad (13.34)$$

As $\text{Re}A_2$ is dominated by $\Delta I = 3/2$ transitions but $\text{Re}A_0$ receives contributions also from $\Delta I = 1/2$ transitions, the latter transitions dominate $\text{Re}A_0$ which expresses the so-called $\Delta I = 1/2$ rule [4181, 4182]

$$R = \frac{\text{Re}A_0}{\text{Re}A_2} = 22.35. \quad (13.35)$$

In the 1950s QCD and the Operator Product Expansion did not exist and clearly one did not know that W^\pm bosons exist in nature, but using the ideas of Fermi [4183], Feynman and Gell-Mann [4184] and Marshak and Sudarshan [4185] one could still evaluate the amplitudes $\text{Re}A_0$ and $\text{Re}A_2$ to find out that such a high value of R is a real puzzle.

In modern times we can reconstruct this puzzle by evaluating the simple W^\pm boson exchange between the relevant quarks which after integrating out W^\pm generates the current-current operator Q_2 :

$$Q_2 = (\bar{s}\gamma_\mu(1-\gamma_5)u)(\bar{u}\gamma^\mu(1-\gamma_5)d). \quad (13.36)$$

With only Q_2 contributing we have

$$\text{Re}A_{0,2} = \frac{G_F}{\sqrt{2}} V_{ud} V_{us}^* \langle Q_2 \rangle_{0,2}. \quad (13.37)$$

Calculating the matrix elements $\langle Q_2 \rangle_{0,2}$ in the strict large N limit, which corresponds to factorization of matrix elements of Q_2 into the product of matrix elements of currents, we find

$$\langle Q_2 \rangle_0 = \sqrt{2} \langle Q_2 \rangle_2 = \frac{2}{3} f_\pi (m_K^2 - m_\pi^2), \quad (13.38)$$

and consequently

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Re}A_0 &= 3.59 \times 10^{-8} \text{ GeV}, \\ \text{Re}A_2 &= 2.54 \times 10^{-8} \text{ GeV}, \quad R = \sqrt{2}, \end{aligned} \quad (13.39)$$

in plain disagreement with the data in Eqs. (13.34) and (13.35). It should be emphasized that the explanation of the missing enhancement factor of 15.8 in R through some dynamics must simultaneously give the correct values for $\text{Re}A_0$ and $\text{Re}A_2$. This means that this dynamics should suppress $\text{Re}A_2$ by a factor of 2.1, not more, and enhance $\text{Re}A_0$ by a factor of 7.5. This tells us that while the suppression of $\text{Re}A_2$ is an important ingredient in the $\Delta I = 1/2$ rule, it is not the main origin of this rule. It is the enhancement of $\text{Re}A_0$ as already emphasized in [1207]. However, in contrast to this paper, the current-current operators, like Q_2 , are responsible dominantly for this rule and not QCD penguins. This was pointed out first in 1986 [4030] and demonstrated in the context of the Dual QCD approach. An update and improvements over the 1986 analysis appeared in 2014 [4031] with the result

$$R \approx 16.0 \pm 1.5, \quad \text{DQCD (1986, 2014)}, \quad (13.40)$$

that is one order of magnitude enhancement over the result in Eq. (13.39) without QCD up to confinement of quarks in mesons. The missing piece could come from final state interactions as pointed out first by nuclear physicists [4186] and stressed much later by ChPT experts [4187]. Also $1/N^2$ corrections could also change this result but are unknown.

Meanwhile the RBC-UKQCD LQCD collaboration confirmed in 2012 the 1986 DQCD finding that current-current

operators dominate the $\Delta I = 1/2$ rule. But the results from the series of their three papers show how difficult these calculations on the lattice are: $R = 12 \pm 1.7$ [4188], $R = 31.0 \pm 11.1$ [728] and finally [4189]

$$\frac{\text{Re}A_0}{\text{Re}A_2} = 19.9(2.3)(4.4), \quad \text{RBC - UKQCD (2020)} \quad (13.41)$$

that is consistent with the DQCD value and in agreement with the experimental value 22.4.

While the RBC-UKQCD result is closer to the data than the DQCD one, the dynamics behind this rule, except for the statement that it is QCD, has not been provided by these authors. To this end it is necessary to switch off QCD interactions which can be done in the large N limit in DQCD but it seems to be impossible or very difficult on the lattice.

The anatomy of QCD dynamics as seen within the DQCD approach has been presented in [4030, 4031] and in particular in Section 7.2.3 of [4034]. Here we just present an express view of this dynamics.

Starting with the values in Eq. (13.39), the first step is to include the short-distance RG-evolution of WCs from scales $\mathcal{O}(M_W)$ down to scales in the ballpark of 1 GeV. This is the step made already in the pioneering 1974 calculations in [1209, 1210] except that they were done at LO in the RG-improved perturbation theory and now can be done at the NLO level. These 1974 papers have shown that the short distance QCD effects enhance $\text{Re}A_0$ and suppress $\text{Re}A_2$. However, the inclusion of NLO QCD corrections to WCs of Q_2 and Q_1 operators [4033, 4190] made it clear, as stressed in particular in [4033], that the $K \rightarrow \pi\pi$ amplitudes without the proper calculation of hadronic matrix elements of Q_i are both scale and renormalization-scheme dependent. Moreover, further enhancement of $\text{Re}A_0$ and further suppression of $\text{Re}A_2$ are needed in order to be able to understand the $\Delta I = 1/2$ rule.

This brings us to the second step first performed in 1986 in [4030] within the DQCD approach. Namely, the RG-evolution down to the scales $\mathcal{O}(1 \text{ GeV})$ is continued as a short but fast *meson evolution* down to zero momentum scales at which the factorization of hadronic matrix elements is at work and one can in no time calculate the hadronic matrix elements in terms of meson masses and weak decay constants as seen in (13.38). Equivalently, starting with factorizable hadronic matrix elements of current-current operators at $\mu \approx 0$ and evolving them to $\mu = \mathcal{O}(1 \text{ GeV})$ at which the WCs are evaluated one is able to calculate the matrix elements of these operators at $\mu = \mathcal{O}(1 \text{ GeV})$ and properly combine them with their WCs evaluated at this scale. The final step is the inclusion of QCD penguin operators that provide an additional enhancement of A_0 by roughly 10% without changing A_2 .

In [4030] only the pseudoscalar meson contributions to meson evolution have been included and the *quark evolution*, RG evolution above $\mu = \mathcal{O}(1 \text{ GeV})$, has been performed at LO. The improvements in 2014 [4031] were the inclusion of vector meson contributions to the meson evolution and the NLO corrections to quark evolution. These improvements practically removed scale and renormalization-scheme dependences and brought the theory closer to data.

Based on DQCD and RBC-UKQCD results we conclude that the QCD dynamics is dominantly responsible for the $\Delta I = 1/2$ rule. However, in view of large uncertainties in both DQCD and RBC-UKQCD results, NP contributions at the level of 15% could still be present. See [4191] to find out what this NP could be.

Finally other authors suggested different explanations of the $\Delta I = 1/2$ rule within QCD that were published dominantly in the 1990s and their list can be found in [4034]. But in my view the DQCD picture of what is going on is more beautiful and transparent as asymptotic freedom and related non-factorizable QCD interactions are primarily responsible for this rule. It is simply the *quark evolution* from M_W down to scale $\mathcal{O}(1 \text{ GeV})$ as analysed first by Altarelli and Maiani [1210] and Gaillard and Lee [1209], followed by the *meson evolution* [4030,4031] down to very low scales at which QCD becomes a theory of weakly interacting mesons and a free theory of mesons in the strict large N limit, a point made by 't Hooft and Witten in 1970s.

13.3.3 QCD dynamics and the ratio ε'/ε

While the parameter $\varepsilon \equiv \varepsilon_K$ measures the indirect CP-violation in $K_L \rightarrow \pi\pi$ decays, that is originating in $K^0 - \bar{K}^0$ mixing, the parameter ε' describes the direct CP violation, that is in the decay itself.

Experimentally ε and ε' can be found by measuring the ratios

$$\eta_{00} = \frac{A(K_L \rightarrow \pi^0\pi^0)}{A(K_S \rightarrow \pi^0\pi^0)}, \quad \eta_{+-} = \frac{A(K_L \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-)}{A(K_S \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-)}. \tag{13.42}$$

Assuming ε and ε' to be small numbers one finds

$$\eta_{00} = \varepsilon - \frac{2\varepsilon'}{1 - \sqrt{2}\omega}, \quad \eta_{+-} = \varepsilon + \frac{\varepsilon'}{1 + \omega/\sqrt{2}}, \tag{13.43}$$

where $\omega = \text{Re}A_2/\text{Re}A_0 = 0.045$. In the absence of direct CP violation $\eta_{00} = \eta_{+-}$. The ratio ε'/ε can then be measured through

$$\text{Re}(\varepsilon'/\varepsilon) = \frac{1}{6(1 + \omega/\sqrt{2})} \left(1 - \left| \frac{\eta_{00}}{\eta_{+-}} \right|^2 \right). \tag{13.44}$$

The story of ε'/ε both in the theory and experiment has been described in detail in [4192]. On the experimental side

the chapter on ε'/ε seems to be closed for the near future. After heroic efforts, lasting 15 years, the experimental world average of ε'/ε from NA48 [4193] and KTeV [4194,4195] collaborations reads

$$(\varepsilon'/\varepsilon)_{\text{exp}} = (16.6 \pm 2.3) \times 10^{-4}. \tag{13.45}$$

On the theoretical side the first calculation of ε'/ε that included RG QCD effects to QCD penguin (QCDP) contributions is due to Gilman and Wise [4196] who – following Shifman, Vainshtein and Zakharov [1207] – assumed that the $\Delta I = 1/2$ rule is explained by QCDP. Using the required values of the QCDP matrix elements for the explanation of this rule, they predicted ε'/ε to be in the ballpark of 5×10^{-2} . During the 1980s this value decreased by roughly a factor of 50 dominantly due to three effects:

- The first calculation of hadronic matrix elements of QCDP operators in QCD – carried out in the framework of the DQCD [4030,4197,4198] in the strict large N limit of colors – proved that QCDPs are not responsible for the $\Delta I = 1/2$ rule and their hadronic matrix elements are much smaller.
- The QCDP contribution to ε'/ε through isospin breaking in the quark masses [4199,4200] is suppressed.
- The suppression of ε'/ε by electroweak penguin (EWP) contributions is increased by the large top quark mass [4201,4202].

In the 1990s these calculations have been refined through NLO QCD calculations to both QCDP and EWP contributions by the Munich and Rome teams [4203–4206] and [4207,4208], respectively. In [4209] the NNLO QCD effects on EWP contributions have been calculated. The NNLO QCD effects on QCDP contributions are expected to be known in 2024.

These NLO and NNLO QCD contributions decreased various scale and renormalization-scheme uncertainties and suppressed ε'/ε within the SM further so that already in 2000 we knew that this ratio should be of the order of 1.0×10^{-3} . Unfortunately even today the theorists do not agree on whether the SM agrees with the experimental value in (13.45) or not. The reason are different estimates of non-perturbative hadronic QCD effects. This has been summarized recently in [4179]. We recall only the main points below.

ε' is governed by the real and imaginary parts of the isospin amplitudes A_0 and A_2 so that ε'/ε is given by [4210]

$$\frac{\varepsilon'}{\varepsilon} = - \frac{\omega_+}{\sqrt{2}|\varepsilon|} \left[\frac{\text{Im}A_0}{\text{Re}A_0} (1 - \hat{\Omega}_{\text{eff}}) - \frac{1}{a} \frac{\text{Im}A_2}{\text{Re}A_2} \right], \tag{13.46}$$

with (ω_+, a) and $\hat{\Omega}_{\text{eff}}$ given in 2022 as follows

$$\omega_+ = a \frac{\text{Re}A_2}{\text{Re}A_0} = (4.53 \pm 0.02) \times 10^{-2} \tag{13.47}$$

with $a = 1.017$ and

$$\hat{\Omega}_{\text{eff}} = (29 \pm 7) \times 10^{-2}. \tag{13.48}$$

Here a and $\hat{\Omega}_{\text{eff}}$ summarize isospin breaking corrections and include strong isospin violation ($m_u \neq m_d$), the correction to the isospin limit coming from $\Delta I = 5/2$ transitions and electromagnetic corrections [4211–4213]. The most recent value for $\hat{\Omega}_{\text{eff}}$ given above includes the nonet of pseudoscalar mesons and $\eta - \eta'$ mixing [4214]. If only the octet of pseudoscalar mesons is included so that $\eta - \eta'$ mixing does not enter, as presently done in ChPT, one finds $\hat{\Omega}_{\text{eff}} = (17 \pm 9) 10^{-2}$ [4215], a value called $\hat{\Omega}_{\text{eff}}^{(8)}$ here. The inclusion of $\eta - \eta'$ mixing yields $\hat{\Omega}_{\text{eff}}^{(9)}$ in (13.48). This contribution is important, a fact known already for 35 years [4199,4200].

$\text{Im}A_0$ receives dominantly contributions from QCDP but also from EWP. $\text{Im}A_2$ receives contributions exclusively from EWP. Keeping this in mind it is useful to write [4216]

$$\left(\frac{\varepsilon'}{\varepsilon}\right)_{\text{SM}} = \left(\frac{\varepsilon'}{\varepsilon}\right)_{\text{QCDP}} - \left(\frac{\varepsilon'}{\varepsilon}\right)_{\text{EWP}} \tag{13.49}$$

with

$$\left(\frac{\varepsilon'}{\varepsilon}\right)_{\text{QCDP}} = \text{Im}\lambda_t \cdot (1 - \hat{\Omega}_{\text{eff}})[15.4 B_6^{(1/2)}(\mu^*) - 2.9], \tag{13.50}$$

$$\left(\frac{\varepsilon'}{\varepsilon}\right)_{\text{EWP}} = \text{Im}\lambda_t \cdot [8.0 B_8^{(3/2)}(\mu^*) - 2.0]. \tag{13.51}$$

This formula includes NLO QCD corrections to the QCDP contributions and NNLO contributions to EWP ones mentioned previously. The coefficients in this formula and the parameters $B_6^{(1/2)}$ and $B_8^{(3/2)}$, conventionally normalized to unity at the factorization scale, are scale dependent. Here we will set $\mu^* = 1 \text{ GeV}$ because at this scale it is most convenient to compare the values for $B_6^{(1/2)}$ and $B_8^{(3/2)}$ obtained in the three non-perturbative approaches LQCD, ChPT and DQCD that we already encountered in the context of the $\Delta I = 1/2$ rule.

The $B_6^{(1/2)}$ and $B_8^{(3/2)}$ represent the relevant hadronic matrix elements of the dominant QCDP and EWP operators, respectively:

$$Q_6 = (\bar{s}_\alpha d_\beta)_{V-A} \sum_{q=u,d,s,c,b} (\bar{q}_\beta q_\alpha)_{V+A}, \tag{13.52}$$

$$Q_8 = \frac{3}{2} (\bar{s}_\alpha d_\beta)_{V-A} \sum_{q=u,d,s,c,b} e_q (\bar{q}_\beta q_\alpha)_{V+A}, \tag{13.53}$$

with $V - A = \gamma_\mu(1 - \gamma_5)$ and $V + A = \gamma_\mu(1 + \gamma_5)$. They are then left-right operators with large hadronic matrix elements

which assures their dominance over left-left operators. The remaining QCDP and EWP operators, represented here by -2.9 and -2.0 , respectively, play subleading roles. Current-current operators $Q_{1,2}$ that played crucial role in the case of the $\Delta I = 1/2$ rule do not contribute to ε'/ε because their WCs are real. In obtaining the formulae in Eqs. (13.50) and (13.51) it is common to use the experimental values for the real parts of $A_{0,2}$ in Eq. (13.34). Finally, $\text{Im}\lambda_t = \text{Im}(V_{ts}^* V_{td}) \approx 1.4 \times 10^{-4}$.

There are two main reasons why Q_8 can compete with Q_6 here despite the smallness of the electroweak couplings in the WC of Q_8 relative to the QCD one in the WC of Q_6 . In the basic formula (13.46) for ε'/ε its contribution is enhanced relative to the one of Q_6 by the factor $\text{Re}A_0/\text{Re}A_2 = 22.4$. In addition its WC is enhanced for the large top-quark mass which is not the case for Q_6 [4201,4202].

In the three non-perturbative approaches the values of $B_6^{(1/2)}$ and $B_8^{(3/2)}$ were found at $\mu = 1 \text{ GeV}$ to be:

$$\begin{aligned} B_6^{(1/2)}(1 \text{ GeV}) &= 1.49 \pm 0.25, & (\text{RBC-UKQCD} - 2020) \\ B_8^{(3/2)}(1 \text{ GeV}) &= 0.85 \pm 0.05. \\ B_6^{(1/2)}(1 \text{ GeV}) &= 1.35 \pm 0.20, & (\text{ChPT} - 2019) \\ B_8^{(3/2)}(1 \text{ GeV}) &= 0.55 \pm 0.20. \\ B_6^{(1/2)}(1 \text{ GeV}) &\leq 0.6, & (\text{DQCD} - 2015) \\ B_8^{(3/2)}(1 \text{ GeV}) &= 0.80 \pm 0.10. \end{aligned} \tag{13.54}$$

While the large $B_6^{(1/2)}$ and $B_8^{(3/2)} < 1.0$ from LQCD has until now no physical interpretation, the pattern found in ChPT results apparently from final state interactions (FSI) that enhance $B_6^{(1/2)}$ above unity and suppress $B_8^{(3/2)}$ below it [4217–4220]. The suppression of $B_6^{(1/2)}$ and $B_8^{(3/2)}$ below unity in the DQCD approach comes from the meson evolution [4221] which is required to have a proper matching with the WCs of QCDP and EWP operators. The meson evolution is absent in present ChPT calculations and it is argued in [4222] that including it in ChPT calculations will lower $B_6^{(1/2)}$ below unity. On the other hand adding non-leading FSI in the DQCD approach would raise $B_6^{(1/2)}$ above 0.6. Nevertheless $B_6^{(1/2)} \leq 1.0$ is expected to be satisfied even after the inclusion of FSI in DQCD.

Moreover, while ChPT and DQCD use $\hat{\Omega}_{\text{eff}}^{(8)} = (17 \pm 9) 10^{-2}$ and $\hat{\Omega}_{\text{eff}}^{(9)} = (29 \pm 7) 10^{-2}$, respectively, as already stated above, RBC-UKQCD still uses $\hat{\Omega}_{\text{eff}} = 0$.

These differences in the values of $B_6^{(1/2)}$, $B_8^{(3/2)}$ and $\hat{\Omega}_{\text{eff}}$ imply significant differences in ε'/ε presented by these three groups:

$$(\varepsilon'/\varepsilon)_{\text{SM}} = (21.7 \pm 8.4) \times 10^{-4} \tag{13.55}$$

from the RBC-UKQCD collaboration [729] which uses $\hat{\Omega}_{\text{eff}} = 0$. Here statistical, parametric and systematic uncertainties have been added in quadrature. Next

$$(\varepsilon'/\varepsilon)_{\text{SM}} = (14 \pm 5) \times 10^{-4} \tag{13.56}$$

from ChPT [4215]. The large error is related to the problematic matching of LD and SD contributions in this approach which can be traced back to the absence of meson evolution in this approach. Finally

$$(\varepsilon'/\varepsilon)_{\text{SM}} = (5 \pm 2) \times 10^{-4}, \tag{13.57}$$

from DQCD [4192,4221,4222], where $B_6^{(1/2)} \leq 1.0$ has been used.

While the results in Eqs. (13.55) and (13.56) are fully consistent with the data shown in Eq. (13.45), the DQCD result in Eq. (13.57) implies a significant anomaly and NP at work. Clearly, the confirmation of the DQCD result is highly important.

Let us end this presentation with good news. There is a very good agreement between LQCD and DQCD as far as EWP contribution to ε'/ε is concerned. This implies that this contribution to ε'/ε , that is unaffected by leading isospin breaking corrections, is already known within the SM with acceptable accuracy:

$$(\varepsilon'/\varepsilon)_{\text{SM}}^{\text{EWP}} = -(7 \pm 1) \times 10^{-4}, \quad (\text{LQCD and DQCD}). \tag{13.58}$$

Because both LQCD and DQCD can perform much better in the case of EWP than in the case of QCDP I expect that this result will remain with us for the coming years. On the other hand, the value from ChPT of $B_8^{(3/2)} \approx 0.55$ [4215] implies using Eq. (13.51) that the EWP contribution is roughly by a factor of 2 below the result in Eq. (13.58).

Let us hope that at the 60th birthday of QCD we will know which prediction is right. Further summaries can be found in [4034,4179,4192] and details in original references.

13.4 The role of QCD in *B* physics anomalies

Danny van Dyk and Javier Virto

The so-called $b \rightarrow s\ell^+\ell^-$ anomalies present one of the few current tensions between theory predictions within the SM and experimental measurements. They represent long-standing tensions that first presented themselves in a 2013 publication by the LHCb collaboration [4223]. Here, we discuss how QCD plays a central role at every stage of the interpretation of these anomalies.

QCD and hadronic physics enter the theory predictions, both in the SM and beyond, in one of three ways:

- First, they enter the Weak Effective field Theory (WET) description of neutral-current processes, such as $b \rightarrow$

$s\ell^+\ell^-$. The effective Hamiltonian at the leading-mass dimension six reads

$$\mathcal{H}_{\text{WET}} = \frac{4G_F}{\sqrt{2}} V_{tb} V_{ts}^* \sum_i C_i Q_i, \tag{13.59}$$

with local operators Q_i and Wilson coefficients C_i . It includes semileptonic operators,

$$Q_{9(10)} = \frac{e^2}{16\pi^2} [\bar{s}\gamma^\mu P_L b] [\bar{\mu}\gamma_\mu(\gamma_5)\mu], \tag{13.60}$$

electromagnetic dipole operators,

$$Q_7 = \frac{e}{16\pi^2} [\bar{s}\sigma_{\mu\nu} P_R b] F^{\mu\nu}, \tag{13.61}$$

and four-quark operators

$$Q_{1q(2q)} = [\bar{q}\gamma^\mu P_L b] [\bar{s}\gamma_\mu P_L q]. \tag{13.62}$$

QCD has a substantial effect on the matching of the WET to the SM [4224–4226]. For instance, at the low scale $\mu_b \simeq 5$ GeV, about half of the value of C_9 is generated by QCD effects due to operator running and mixing of the four-quark operators into Q_9 [4224].

Here we discuss only the numerically leading operators needed for a description within the SM. BSM effects are encoded in the values of the Wilson coefficients or through additional operators with a different spin structure.

- Second, they enter the hadronic matrix elements of local $\bar{s}b$ operators, c.f. Eq. (13.66). These matrix elements are then expressed in terms of scalar-valued form factors, which are functions of the momentum transfer (typically: q^2). The $\bar{s}b$ form factors are very similar to the form factors arising in the description of exclusive charged-current semileptonic processes such as $b \rightarrow c\mu^-\bar{\nu}$.
- Third, they enter the hadronic form factors of non-local $\bar{s}b$ operators, c.f. Eq. (13.68). These operators arise in the time-ordered product of the four-quark operators and the electromagnetic current. They have no correspondence in charged-current semileptonic decays and currently present the biggest obstacle to accurate and precise theoretical predictions of exclusive $b \rightarrow s\mu^+\mu^-$ decays.

In the following, we do not further discuss the effective field theory description, which is well established. The matching coefficients to NNLO in QCD can be found in Refs. [4224–4226]. Instead, we focus on the second and third type of QCD effects in exclusive $b \rightarrow s\ell^+\ell^-$ processes.

13.4.1 Anatomy of exclusive $b \rightarrow s\ell^+\ell^-$ processes

$$\bar{B}_s \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$$

Amongst the exclusive $b \rightarrow s\ell^+\ell^-$ decays, the cleanest ones from a theory perspective are the purely leptonic decays $\bar{B}_s \rightarrow \ell^+\ell^-$. Up to QED corrections [4227], all QCD effects are contained in a single local hadronic matrix element. This matrix element is commonly parametrized in terms of the B_q -meson decay constant f_{B_q} [301]

$$\langle 0|\bar{q}\gamma^\mu\gamma_5 b|\bar{B}_q(p)\rangle = if_{B_q}p^\mu. \tag{13.63}$$

It has been calculated ab-initio from lattice QCD simulations. Several analyses with $N_f = 2 + 1 + 1$ light quark flavors have become available [692, 709, 710, 1472, 4228]. Their world average [301]

$$f_{B_s} = 230.3 \pm 1.3 \text{ MeV}, \tag{13.64}$$

is dominated by a single analysis published by the Fermilab/MILC collaboration [692].

This constant has been computed using a variety of lattice QCD techniques, which have presently reached a precision of 0.5%. The current theoretical uncertainty on the muonic branching ratio is no longer governed by hadronic physics. Instead, it is dominated by CKM matrix elements. The theory predictions have reached the level of 5% [4227], which is much smaller than the uncertainty of the average of the results by the LHC experiments of $\sim 13\%$ [4229]. While $\bar{B}_s \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$ is not sensitive to the Wilson coefficient C_9 (to leading order in QED [4227]), it does constrain very strongly the scalar and pseudoscalar operators, and indirectly also C_{10} , which has an impact on the global interpretations of the $b \rightarrow s\mu^+\mu^-$ anomalies.

$$\bar{B} \rightarrow M\mu^+\mu^-$$

Amongst the exclusive semileptonic $b \rightarrow s\ell^+\ell^-$ decays, B -meson decays to either a pseudoscalar (P) or a vector (V) meson are presently the best understood. Compared to the purely leptonic decay $\bar{B}_s \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$, the additional meson in the final state provides the opportunity to test the SM through a larger number of observables that arise in the differential decay rates. The downside for this is – generally – an increased sensitivity to QCD effects in their theoretical description, which leads to larger theoretical uncertainties.

To leading order in QED, the matrix elements of the semileptonic and radiative operators $\mathcal{Q}_{7,9,10}$ factorise. A useful schematic decomposition of the amplitude is given by [4230]

$$A(\bar{B} \rightarrow M\ell^+\ell^-) \sim G_F V_{tb}V_{ts}^* \left[(C_9 L_V^\mu + C_{10} L_A^\mu) \mathcal{F}^\mu - \frac{L_V^\mu}{q^2} 2im_b C_7 \mathcal{F}^{T,\mu} + 16\pi^2 \mathcal{H}^\mu \right]. \tag{13.65}$$

Here $L_{V(A)}^\mu = [\bar{\ell}\gamma^\mu(\gamma_5)\ell]$ are leptonic currents, and a generalization to operators beyond the SM can be found in Ref. [4231]. In the above, we use the hadronic matrix elements

$$\mathcal{F}_{B \rightarrow M}^\mu(k, q) \equiv \langle M(k)|\bar{s}\gamma_\mu P_L b|\bar{B}(p)\rangle, \tag{13.66}$$

$$\mathcal{F}_{B \rightarrow M}^{T,\mu}(k, q) \equiv \langle M(k)|\bar{s}\sigma_{\mu\nu}q^\nu P_R b|\bar{B}(p)\rangle, \tag{13.67}$$

$$\mathcal{H}_{B \rightarrow M}^\mu(k, q) \equiv i \int d^4x e^{iq \cdot x} \langle M(k)|T\{j_\mu^{\text{em}}(x), \sum_i C_i Q_i(0)\}|\bar{B}(p)\rangle \tag{13.68}$$

with $i = 1q, 2q, \dots$, which arise from the semileptonic, radiative, and four-quark operators in that order

The first two matrix elements are classified as local matrix elements, and the last one as a non-local matrix element. Both types of matrix elements are needed for reliable and accurate predictions of the amplitudes and therefore of the observables in semileptonic decays. For phenomenological discussions, one commonly encounters projections of the hadronic amplitudes onto some basis of scalar form factors, either the helicity basis [4232] or more commonly the transversity basis [4233–4235]. The number of independent amplitudes depends on the angular momentum of the initial and final state hadrons. The form factors are functions of the momentum transfer from the hadronic system to the leptons. This functional dependence is commonly expressed in terms of q^2 , the squared mass of the lepton pair.

The process $B \rightarrow K\ell^+\ell^-$ is the most reliably understood one amongst the exclusive semileptonic $b \rightarrow s\ell^+\ell^-$ decays. Both the B and K meson are stable in the absence of weak interactions, which facilitates the determination of their hadronic form factors. Conservation of angular momentum limits this process to two amplitudes: the dominant longitudinally polarized amplitude and the lepton-mass suppressed time-like amplitude [4236]. As a consequence, the process provides only a few independent observables.

The processes $B \rightarrow K^*\ell^+\ell^-$ and $B_s \rightarrow \phi\ell^+\ell^-$ both feature a vector meson in the final state. Compared to $B \rightarrow K\ell^+\ell^-$, two further transversely-polarized amplitudes can contribute. This more complex structure leads to numerous independent observables arising from the differential decay rate [4233–4235, 4237]. However, this enriched phenomenological reach comes at the expense of somewhat larger uncertainties in the individual hadronic form factors. Since both the K^* and ϕ are not stable in the absence of weak interactions, their description as a “quasi stable” state incurs additional theoretical uncertainty [4238]. Here, the K^* is substantially more affected than the ϕ , due to the hierarchy of their hadronic decay widths.

13.4.2 Hadronic matrix elements

Local form factors

Local form factors for $B \rightarrow K$, $B \rightarrow K^*$ and $B_s \rightarrow \phi$ transitions are accessible at low values of $q^2 \lesssim 10 \text{ GeV}^2$ [1229] with two different continuum QCD methods.

First, QCD factorisation (QCDF) provides a means to relate the various form factors to each other. This relation emerged from a symmetry amongst currents involving one collinear and one heavy quark field [4239]. The breaking of this symmetry occurs due to two effects: (a) contributions beyond leading order in the strong coupling constant, which involves interactions between the quarks inherent to the transition with the spectator quark [4240]; and (b) contributions beyond leading power in the double expansion in the b -quark mass and the energy E of the final-state hadron within the B -meson rest frame. Early predictions for exclusive $b \rightarrow s\ell^+\ell^-$ decays relied heavily on the QCDF relations, to construct so-called “clean” observables; i.e., observables in which local hadronic form factors cancel approximately [4241–4243]. Most famously, the P'_i basis of observables in the $\bar{B} \rightarrow K^*\ell^+\ell^-$ angular distribution [4243] makes use of this cancellation. The P'_5 observable [4244] is commonly used to illustrate the tensions between SM predictions and measurements.

Second, light-cone QCD sum rules (LCSR) are used to predict the full set of local form factors in $B \rightarrow K$, $B \rightarrow K^*$ and $B_s \rightarrow \phi$ transitions. Two different versions of LCSRs can be employed [1228, 4245], which differ in the choice of the interpolating current. The LCSRs with B -meson interpolation involve hadronic matrix elements for the final-state hadron, i.e., the K , K^* and ϕ . These sum rules are presently better understood than their competitors, leading to overall smaller *parametric* uncertainties. However, the sum rules with vector-meson final states suffer from hard-to-quantify systematic uncertainties due to the unstable nature of these states. The competing LCSRs with interpolation of the final-state hadrons K , K^* , and ϕ have not yet reached the same level of sophistication [4055].

It remains to be emphasized that both types of LCSRs suffer from systematic uncertainties that are difficult to assess. It is commonly understood that the LCSR results serve as a stop gap, to be replaced by results from more systematic approaches to QCD.

Lattice QCD provides such a systematic approach to the local form factors. Typically, limitations of computational power require a restriction to the phase space $q^2 \gtrsim 12 \text{ GeV}^2$ [4052, 4246, 4247]. Lattice QCD results for the decays $B \rightarrow K^*\ell^+\ell^-$ and $B_s \rightarrow \phi\ell^+\ell^-$, which are of great phenomenological interest, are restricted to this range. But this is not an inherent limitation of the method: A very recent study of the $B \rightarrow K$ form factors [4056] for the first time accesses

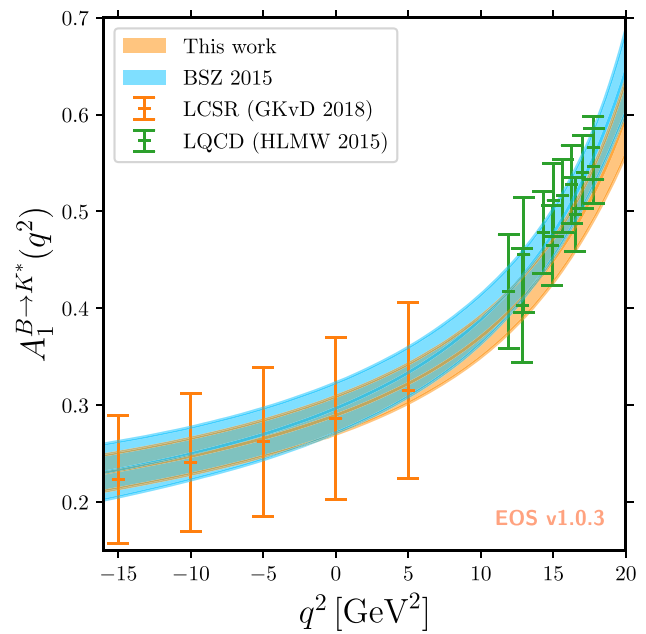


Fig. 348 Simultaneous fit to lattice QCD and LCSR results for the local $B \rightarrow K^*$ form factor $A_1 \propto \mathcal{F}_\parallel$, taken from Ref. [4248]

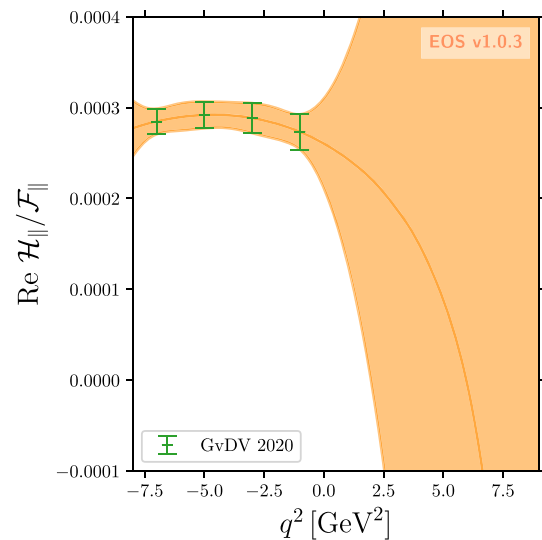


Fig. 349 Fit to the non-local $B \rightarrow K^*$ form factor \mathcal{H}_\parallel , produced from Ref. [4248]

the full q^2 range available to the semileptonic decay. Their results are in good agreement with previous LCSR estimates, with smaller uncertainties.

Having constraints on the form factors at opposite ends of the semileptonic phase space it is natural to ask if these constraints are mutually compatible. This poses an interpolation problem. For B -meson decays, this problem is usually addressed using the so-called z -expansion [4249]. Using

$$q^2 \mapsto z(q^2; t_0, t_+) \equiv \frac{\sqrt{t_+ - q^2} - \sqrt{t_+ - t_0}}{\sqrt{t_+ - q^2} + \sqrt{t_+ - t_0}} \quad (13.69)$$

the first Riemann sheet of the complex q^2 plane is mapped onto the unit disk in z . A Taylor expansion of the form-factors in z , after removal of any physical poles, converges quickly and provides some control of the interpolation error. Studies of the $B \rightarrow V$ form factors find reasonable to good agreement between the available LCSR and lattice QCD results [4055,4245,4248], which is not surprising given the large uncertainties attached to the former. An example of such a fit from Ref. [4248] is displayed in Fig. 348, showcasing the agreement between lattice QCD and LCSR results.

Future prospects on the theoretical precision for local form factors rely dominantly on the expected improvements from the Lattice QCD side. These include enlarging the accessible q^2 range (as recently achieved for the $B \rightarrow K$ form factors) and accounting for the non-zero width of the vector final states [543]. The effect due to a non-zero ρ and K^* width on the $B \rightarrow \pi\pi$ and $B \rightarrow K\pi$ form factors was recently critically discussed within the setup of LCSRs with final-state interpolation, estimating corrections to the zero-width limit of up to 10% in the case of the K^* [4238,4250,4251].

Non-local Hadronic Matrix Elements

Non-local form factors are significantly more difficult to approach theoretically [4252–4255]. The reason is the large number of virtual and on-shell intermediate states that contribute to the time-ordered product in Eq. (13.68). This non-local operator is commonly separated by the electric charge of the quark flavor to which the electro-magnetic current couples:

$$T \left\{ j_\mu^{\text{em}}(x), \sum_{i=1q,2q,\dots} C_i Q_i(0) \right\} \equiv \mathcal{K}(x) \\ \equiv Q_c \mathcal{K}_c(x) + Q_{bs} \mathcal{K}_{bs}(x) + \dots \quad (13.70)$$

In the above, the dots indicate contributions due to up and down quarks, which are suppressed by CKM matrix element or the small Wilson coefficients of QCD-penguin four-quark operators. The terms proportional to bottom and strange-quark charges are only gauge invariant when considered in sum, leading to the joint description with label bs . Our labelling of the non-local form factors follows from the above, i.e., $\mathcal{H}_{\lambda,c}$ arises from the hadronic matrix element of the operator \mathcal{K}_c .

The first systematic approach to the non-local form factors has been provided in Refs. [4252,4256], which is expected to work for small values of q^2 sufficiently far below the open charm threshold. This approach was subsequently developed into a light-cone Operator Product Expansion (OPE) of the non-local operator Eq. (13.70) [4252,4253]. This expansion is shown to break down as q^2 approaches the partonic open charm threshold from below. The hadronic matrix elements of the next-to-leading operator in this light-cone OPE have been calculated within a LCSR approach [4253,4257]. The

most recent calculation indicated that the term at next-to-leading power is negligible in comparison to the leading-power term.

At $q^2 = \mathcal{O}(m_b^2) \gtrsim 4m_c^2$, an OPE in term of local operators applies [4254,4255]. The simple structure of the OPE leads to phenomenologically powerful theory predictions [4242,4258,4259]. However, the fact that this region of phase space lays on the open-charm branch cut leads to considerable complications in the interpretation of experimental measurements. Chiefly, one cannot expect that the OPE result agrees with nature *locally*, i.e., in every q^2 point [4255]. Instead of such local duality, *semi-local* quark–hadron duality is assumed, i.e., the OPE prediction integrated over a sufficiently large q^2 range is expected to correspond to the q^2 integrated observables [4255]. Nevertheless, this approach gives rise to large unquantifiable systematic uncertainties in the theory predictions [4260,4261]. Due to these limitations, commonly a single bin covering the whole low- q^2 region is used in the BSM analyses. However, the q^2 spectrum can be used to test the level of “duality violation”, i.e., the disagreement between the perturbative partonic prediction and the hadronic spectrum. In this way, reliable estimates of these intrinsically non-perturbative effects are obtained. Ref. [4261] uses all currently available data on $B \rightarrow K^* \mu\mu$ at low recoil and finds agreement between data and the OPE prediction within $\sim 20\%$ in all the bins.

The first parametrizations of the q^2 dependence of the non-local form factors $\mathcal{H}_{\lambda,c}$ are based on a dispersion relation [4253] or an expansion in powers of q^2 [4232]. A subsequent publication proposes to apply a conformal mapping similar to Eq. (13.69) [4262], very similar to what is done for the local form factors. The dispersive and z -expansion approaches are consistent with analyticity and therefore permit using additional data, such as measurements of the branching ratios and angular distributions of $B \rightarrow \psi M$ processes, where $\psi = \{J/\psi, \psi(2S)\}$. In Ref. [4262] it is shown quantitatively how this information can be used *a priori* to produce data-assisted theory predictions for the non-local effect independent of NP, or *a posteriori* to fit all the $B \rightarrow \psi K^*$ and $B \rightarrow K^* \mu^+ \mu^-$ spectra up to $q^2 = m_{\psi(2S)}^2$ simultaneously to the hadronic parameters and NP. In this last approach, short- and long-distance effects are disentangled by the experimental input from $B \rightarrow \psi K^*$, the fixed q^2 dependence of the NP contribution, and by the theory constraints at negative q^2 . A notable byproduct is the fact that experimental data *between* the two narrow charmonia can be used in the analyses. An application of the z -expansion, including newly derived dispersive bounds on the expansion coefficients [4257], has been used in Ref. [4248] to challenge the experimental measurements of various exclusive semileptonic $b \rightarrow s \ell^+ \ell^-$ decays. This parametrization yields results that are compatible with analyses based on a perturbative treatment, albeit with somewhat larger uncertainties. A representative exam-

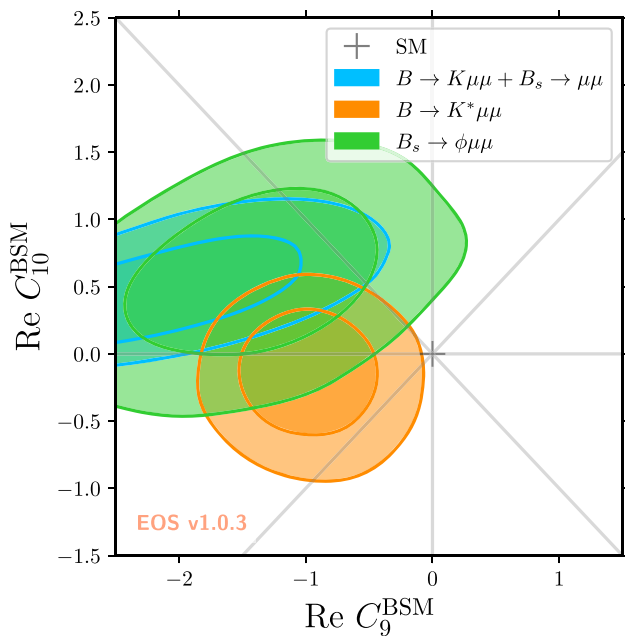


Fig. 350 Overview of the tensions between NP parameters and the SM expectations for three representative processes. Taken from Ref. [4248], which takes into account a parametrization of the non-local effects in the fits

ple of the non-local form factors obtained in this way is shown in Fig. 349. The impact of these improved determinations of non-local form factors on the global fits to separate exclusive $b \rightarrow s\mu\mu$ modes has been studied in Ref. [4248] and it is shown in Fig. 350. The overall picture of significant tensions between data and the SM expectations seen in the literature [4263–4267] are confirmed.

The prospects for this data-driven approach with the future data from LHCb, including the prospects of doing without theory input altogether, have been studied in [4268]. The conclusion is that unbinned analyses can infer knowledge about both QCD and potential BSM effects in these decays *simultaneously*. The high statistics studies of $b \rightarrow s\mu\mu$ exclusive transitions at the LHC, either with fine q^2 binning or unbinned, will therefore not only probe for BSM effects but also further our understanding of the non-local form factors. While current global fits to different q^2 bins show consistency with the current treatment of non-local effects [4269], future LHC data will require, and provide, a higher level of control over them.

Data-driven and joint theoretical and data-driven methods have been proposed in an effort to control the uncertainties [4257, 4262, 4270–4272]. Some of these methods will be possible and improve significantly with the high statistics collected at LHCb after the upgrade. They are all based on precise measurements of the q^2 spectra, together with a theoretically motivated parametrization of the q^2 dependence of the amplitudes and a theory benchmark that allows to separate short- from long-distance contributions.

Finally, various hadronic models have been proposed to analyse parts or the entire q^2 phase space. Some of these analyses are carried out within the “Krüger-Sehgal” (naive factorization) approach [4273], which allows to use data on the $R(s)$ ratio in e^+e^- annihilation [4255, 4260, 4261]. These models have recently been refined to account also for light-meson intermediate states [4274]. Notably, future precision data from the LHC with the expected fine binning will be essential in refining these data-driven methods and disentangling potential BSM contributions, with the prospects of confirming or refuting a BSM origin to the $b \rightarrow s\mu\mu$ anomalies.

13.5 QCD and $(g - 2)$ of the muon

Achim Denig and Harvey Meyer

The anomalous magnetic moment of the muon, as one of the most precisely measured quantities in fundamental physics, has been at the forefront of testing the Standard Model (SM) of particle physics for decades [4275]. The proportionality factor $g \cdot e/(2m)$ between the spin and the magnetic moment of an elementary particle is predicted in Dirac’s theory of the electron to satisfy $g = 2$. Already the deviation of the electron’s g factor from this prediction played a central role in testing Quantum Electrodynamics at one loop [4276]. It was understood early on [4277, 4278] that the contribution of virtual particles much heavier than the lepton l would be suppressed as $(m_l/m_{\text{heavy}})^2$. Hence the strong interest in the analogous property of the muon, denoted $a_\mu = (g - 2)_\mu/2$, given that the 207 times larger mass of the muon strongly enhances the virtual contributions from particles upward from the mass scale of a few MeV/c^2 , and thus provides access to potential new-physics contributions. Since the very first measurement of 1960 [4279], experiments have refined their sensitivity to a_μ , thereby successively testing contributions from all sectors of the SM, and making this observable the paradigmatic example of searching for new physics at the precision frontier.

The experimental measurements of a_μ [4280] rely on the muon spin precession relative to the direction of the muon momentum under the influence of a static magnetic field: the precession frequency is directly proportional to a_μ . The observation that the (undesirable) impact of an electric field on the muon spin precession is suppressed at a special muon momentum of $3.1 \text{ GeV}/c$ [4281] eventually led to the third muon storage ring experiment at CERN [4282], which for the first time probed hadronic effects, among which the hadronic vacuum polarization (HVP) provides the leading contribution. Progress in the experimental techniques culminated in the Brookhaven E821 experiment [4283], which achieved a precision of 0.54 ppm on a_μ .

Meanwhile, the SM prediction for a_μ had been worked out to a very similar degree of precision, as described in the

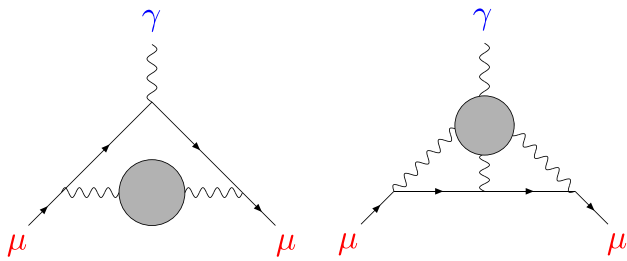


Fig. 351 Feynman diagrams representing the two contributions that currently saturate the uncertainty of the SM prediction for the muon ($g - 2$): the hadronic vacuum polarization (left), $a_\mu^{\text{HVP,LO}}$, and the hadronic light-by-light contributions (right), a_μ^{HLbL} . Solid lines represent muon propagators and wavy lines photon propagators. The external photon line represents the magnetic field of the experiment, which probes the magnetic moment of the muon

2009 review [4284]. The QED contribution, by far dominant, and the weak contribution having been calculated to sufficiently high order, the uncertainty of the SM prediction has been entirely dominated by the hadronic contributions, specifically by the HVP and by the hadronic light-by-light (HLbL) contributions, which are both illustrated in Fig. 351. A tension at the level of 3.2 standard deviations was found between the experimental and the theoretical value of a_μ [4284].

In the past decade, a new experimental effort was undertaken in an attempt to clarify the situation. The Fermilab experiment E989 [4285] was designed with the goal of reaching a precision of 0.14 ppm on a_μ . In order to arrive at an up-to-date prediction before the announcement of the first results by the Fermilab experiment, the ($g - 2$) Theory Initiative was launched in 2017, which led to the 2020 Theory White Paper [4286]. The theory precision had by then improved to the level of 0.37 ppm, and the tension with the world experimental average (dominated by the Brookhaven measurement) was found to be at the 3.7σ level.

The Fermilab ($g - 2$) experiment announced its first result on April 7, 2021. Its measurement of a_μ [4287] at the 0.46 ppm level slightly surpassed the precision of the Brookhaven measurement [4283] and led to the situation illustrated in Fig. 352. The new measurement agrees well with the older Brookhaven one, and the tension with the SM prediction (from the 2020 White Paper [4286]) has increased to the level of 4.2σ , or

$$a_\mu(\text{Exp}) - a_\mu(\text{WP 2020}) = (25.1 \pm 5.9) \times 10^{-10} \quad (13.71)$$

in absolute size. From here, it might seem like the next experimental update by the Fermilab experiment could finally raise the tension above the conventional ‘discovery’ level of five standard deviations.

However, on the same day as the announcement of the experimental result from Fermilab, a lattice QCD calculation of the HVP contribution with a competitive precision was

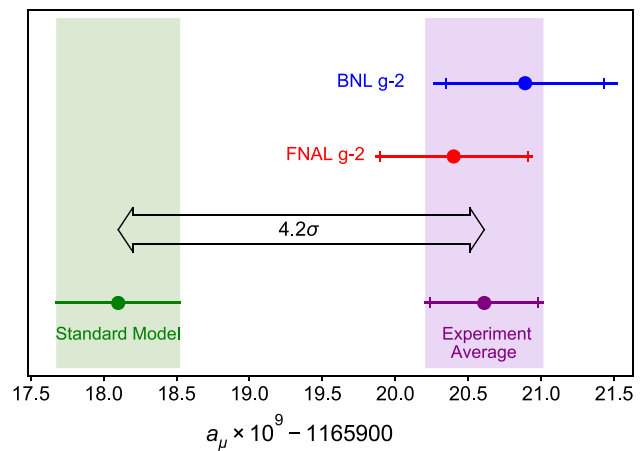


Fig. 352 Status of a_μ after the 2021 FNAL measurement. The tension between the experimental average of the FNAL and the 2001 BNL measurements with the Standard Model prediction provided by the Theory White Paper amounts to 4.2σ . Figure from [4287]

published [4288], which, taken at face value, would increase the SM prediction for a_μ and bring it into better agreement (at the 1.5σ level) with the experimental world average. The tension between this lattice QCD calculation and the dispersive, data-driven evaluation underlying the White Paper prediction of a_μ amounts to 2.1σ (see Eq. (13.77) below). Thus it is the intricacies of hadron–photon interactions that are currently limiting the resolving power of the muon ($g - 2$) to probe new physics. In Sect. 13.5.1, we describe how the evidence for a genuine difference between lattice calculations of the HVP and its dispersive evaluation has strengthened significantly in the past eighteen months. Obviously, finding the origin of this difference is of utmost importance in the ongoing saga of the muon ($g - 2$).

We begin by reviewing the status of the HVP contribution to a_μ in Sect. 13.5.1, whereafter we describe the progress made in the HLbL contribution in Sect. 13.5.2. We close with some concluding remarks and an outlook on the near future of the subject.

13.5.1 The hadronic vacuum polarization contribution

The leading contribution to a_μ is given by Schwinger’s result $\alpha/(2\pi) \simeq 0.00116$ [4276]. In contrast, the HVP contribution to a_μ only amounts to about 700×10^{-10} , but given the precision expected from the ongoing Fermilab experiment and the upcoming J-PARC [4289] experiment, the target for the HVP contribution $a_\mu^{\text{HVP,LO}}$ is a precision of 1.5×10^{-10} , or 0.2%. This represents a major challenge for a strong-interaction effect, which has been addressed by the long-established data-driven dispersive method and by ab initio lattice QCD methods.

Dispersive determination

The dispersive approach to computing $a_\mu^{\text{HVP,LO}}$ is based on the expression

$$a_\mu^{\text{HVP,LO}} = \left(\frac{\alpha m_\mu}{3\pi}\right)^2 \int_{m_{\pi_0}^2}^\infty \frac{ds}{s^2} \widehat{K}(s/m_\mu^2) R(s), \tag{13.72}$$

$$R(s) = \frac{\sigma(e^+e^- \rightarrow \text{hadrons})}{4\pi\alpha(s)^2/(3s)}. \tag{13.73}$$

The dimensionless function \widehat{K} is a smooth function that increases monotonically from the value 0.63 at the $4m_\pi^2$ threshold to unity in the limit $s \rightarrow \infty$. The determination of $R(s)$ requires measurements of the hadronic cross section in e^+e^- collisions, $\sigma(e^+e^- \rightarrow \text{hadrons})$. Given the $1/s^2$ dependence in the dispersion integrand, low-energy contributions of the hadronic cross section have a very strong weight and therefore have to be known to high accuracy. The most relevant channels are the exclusive reactions $e^+e^- \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-$, 3π , 4π , and $K\bar{K}$, for all of which the cross section is peaked at $\sqrt{s} < 2$ GeV.

The channel $e^+e^- \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-$ is dominated by the $\rho(770)$ intermediate state and contributes to more than 70% to the dispersion integral. Figure 353 shows various recent measurements of the two-pion cross section in the ρ peak region between 600 and 900 MeV. Two classes of measurements are shown in Fig. 353. These are energy scan measurements (CMD-2 [4290–4293], SND [4294]), in which the center-of-mass energy of the collider (in this case the VEPP-2M collider in Novosibirsk) is systematically varied to cover the energy range under study. A second class of measurements (KLOE [4295], Babar [4296,4297], BESIII [4298]) is carried out with the colliders running at a fixed center-of-mass energy and by exploiting events in which the initial beam electrons or positrons have radiated a highly energetic photon, lowering in such a way the available hadronic mass in the final state. This method is called initial-state radiation (ISR) or radiative return and has been applied most successfully at modern particle factories [4299]. In the past, also spectral functions from hadronic τ decays have been used [4300] in the phenomenological determination of HVP, since these can be related to $R(s)$ via the *Conserved Vector Current* theorem. However, since the phenomenological estimates of the isospin corrections are not well understood, the recent determinations of HVP were obtained without the use of hadronic τ data.

Figure 353 demonstrates the very high precision of the data. However, sizeable discrepancies have been observed for the cross-section integral contributing to Eq. (13.72). This is demonstrated in Fig. 354, where the two-pion contribution to HVP, $a_\mu^{\pi\pi,\text{LO}}$, in the ρ peak region between 600 and 900 MeV is shown for the individual experiments as well as for two combinations of the data sets (KNT 19 [4303] and DHMZ 19 [4304]). Especially the two most precise determinations of

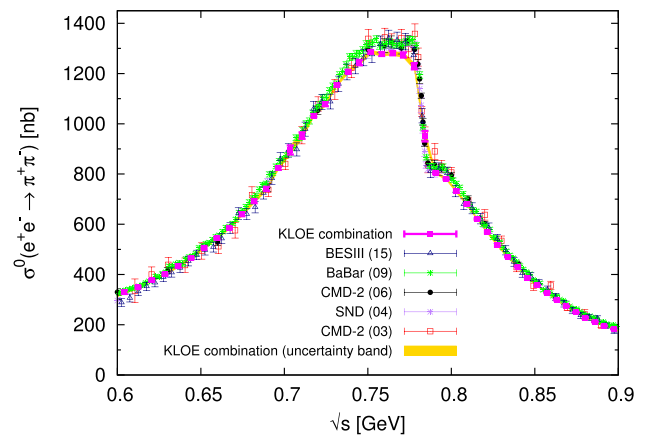


Fig. 353 Recent experimental data on the cross section $\sigma(e^+e^- \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-)$ in the energy range between 600 and 900 MeV. The interference of the ρ decay with the two-pion decay of the $\omega(780)$ is well visible as a structure around the ω mass. Figure taken from [4295]; a new SND analysis [4301] from the VEPP-2000 collider and an ISR analysis from CLEO [4302] are not yet shown

the two-pion cross section from the KLOE [4295] and Babar [4296,4297] collaborations happen to exhibit a significant deviation, which currently limits the overall precision of the dispersive determination of HVP. Furthermore, given the tensions in the experimental data sets, systematic effects have to be considered in the averaging procedures. In Ref. [4286] a conservative merging procedure was applied to reflect the differences between the evaluations in Refs. [4303] and [4304]. The Theory White Paper [4286] estimate for the LO HVP contribution is solely based on the dispersive approach [4303–4308] and reads $a_\mu^{\text{HVP,LO}} = (693.1 \pm 4.0) \times 10^{-10}$.

Fortunately, new experimental measurements of the two-pion channel are expected in the near future by CMD-3, SND, Babar, BESIII, and Belle-II. It remains to be seen whether the currently existing discrepancy between Babar and KLOE can be resolved. Provided the upcoming data sets reach the precision level of 0.5% and agree with each other, the total uncertainty of the HVP contribution obtained via the dispersive approach would decrease from currently 0.6% to 0.3% or better.

Lattice QCD calculation

Since the HVP contribution to the muon ($g - 2$) involves only spacelike photons, it is a natural quantity to be calculated in lattice QCD [4312], which is formulated in Euclidean space. Although initially expressed in momentum space, the master formula now used almost exclusively is in the ‘time-momentum representation’ [4313],

$$a_\mu^{\text{HVP,LO}} = \left(\frac{\alpha}{\pi m_\mu}\right)^2 \int_0^\infty dt G(t) \mathcal{K}(m_\mu t), \tag{13.74}$$

$$G(t) = \frac{1}{3} \sum_{k=1}^3 \int d^3x \langle j_k^{\text{em}}(t, \vec{x}) j_k^{\text{em}\dagger}(0) \rangle, \tag{13.75}$$

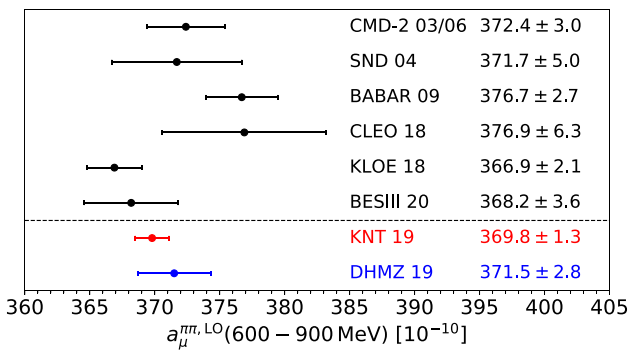


Fig. 354 Comparison of $a_{\mu}^{\pi\pi, LO}$ in the energy range between 600 and 900 MeV. The upper part of the plot shows the values of recent experimental measurements in this energy range [4290,4293–4298,4302], while the lower two values in red and blue are the estimates of the KNT [4286,4303] and DHMZ [4286,4304] groups, which carry out a merging procedure of the available data. In the case of DHMZ an additional systematic uncertainty has been included to account for the KLOE/Babar tension. Please note that the KLOE value is the combination of the three analyses published in Refs. [4309–4311]

where $j_k^{em} = \frac{2}{3}\bar{u}\gamma_k u - \frac{1}{3}\bar{d}\gamma_k d - \frac{1}{3}\bar{s}\gamma_k s + \dots$ is a spatial component of the electromagnetic current carried by the quarks, and the dimensionless weight function $\mathcal{K}(\hat{r})$ is known analytically in terms of Meijer’s function [4314]. It is proportional to \hat{r}^4 for arguments well below unity, and to \hat{r}^2 for arguments well above unity, thus strongly enhancing the long-distance contribution. The spectral representation [4313]

$$G(t) = \int_0^\infty ds \frac{s R(s)}{12\pi^2} \frac{e^{-\sqrt{s}t}}{2\sqrt{s}} \tag{13.76}$$

between the Euclidean correlator and the R ratio allows for detailed comparisons between the dispersive and the lattice approach.

The recipe for computing $a_{\mu}^{HVP, LO}$ on the lattice thus appears remarkably simple. However, many effects must be controlled to reach the subpercent level of precision, including discretization and finite-size effects, as well as the leading effects of the unequal up and down quark masses and of the electromagnetic interactions among quarks. The state-of-the-art lattice calculations available at the time of the 2020 White Paper had uncertainties of two percent and larger [4315–4323]. While they had a tendency to lie above the dispersive estimates, they were broadly consistent with them. The BMW collaboration achieved a reduction of the uncertainty of its lattice calculation down to the 0.8% level and published its result in 2021 [4288]. The difference with the White Paper result amounts to

$$a_{\mu}^{HVP, LO}(\text{BMW}'21) - a_{\mu}^{HVP, LO}(\text{WP}'20) = (14.4 \pm 6.8) \times 10^{-10}. \tag{13.77}$$

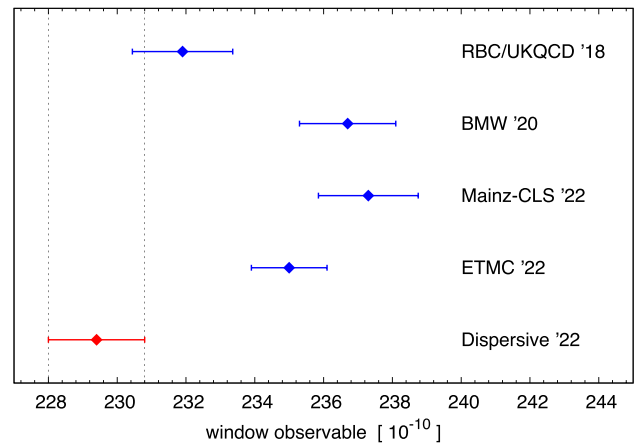


Fig. 355 The partial contribution to $a_{\mu}^{HVP, LO}$ called ‘window quantity’, as computed by four lattice collaborations [4288,4317,4324,4326], compared to its dispersive determination [4327]. Further recent lattice results, particularly for the (dominant) ‘light-quark connected contribution’, can be found in [4328–4330] as well as in the update [4325] of the RBC/UKQCD ‘18 result

At this point, an independent lattice calculation at the same level of precision would be extremely desirable to help clarify the situation.

Both the very short and the very long distances pose distinct challenges to a lattice calculation [4313]. Given the difficulties associated with controlling the statistical and systematic errors of the tail of the correlator $G(t)$, the lattice community has adopted the strategy of partitioning the Euclidean-time axis into intervals, whose contributions to $a_{\mu}^{HVP, LO}$ are individually more tractable. This strategy was first applied in Ref. [4317]. In particular, an intermediate interval from 0.4 to 1.0 fm (with smooth edges of width 0.15 fm) was chosen, thus defining the ‘window quantity’, which represents about one third of the total $a_{\mu}^{HVP, LO}$. This quantity has received a lot of attention, especially since the BMW collaboration found a discrepancy of 3.7 standard deviations with the dispersive estimate [4288]. Since then, the Mainz/CLS [4324] and the ETM collaboration have computed the window quantity on the lattice. The results are summarized in Fig. 355. The RBC/UKQCD collaboration has recently presented an update [4325] based on a blinded analysis, indicating an upward shift in the (dominant) light-quark connected contribution from $(202.9 \pm 1.4) \times 10^{-10}$ to $(206.5 \pm 0.7) \times 10^{-10}$ (where we have added their errors in quadrature) and bringing their result into good agreement with the other lattice calculations displayed in Fig. 355.

Discussion HVP

Beyond the 2.1σ tension of Eq. (13.77) between the data-driven evaluation of $a_{\mu}^{HVP, LO}$ [4286] and the lattice QCD based BMW calculation [4288], a statistically more significant tension between lattice QCD and dispersion theory has arisen in the partial contribution known as the ‘window quan-

tity'. The latter has been computed independently by several lattice collaborations, whose results are in good mutual agreement but disagree with the R -ratio based evaluation of [4327], at the level of 3.1, 3.7 and 3.8 σ respectively for Refs. [4288, 4324, 4326].

If one assumes that the tension is due to an erroneous cross section measurement in a certain interval of \sqrt{s} , it is important to clarify which interval and which hadronic channel it might be. In this regard, we note that the window quantity receives a contribution of about 55% from the \sqrt{s} interval between 0.6 and 0.9 GeV, while about 40% comes from higher center-of-mass energies [4324]. Its relative sensitivity to the (ρ, ω) -meson region is thus similar to the full $a_\mu^{\text{HVP,LO}}$. If one therefore assumes the 2π channel to be responsible for the tension, this would require shifts of the 2π cross section which exceed by far the claimed systematic errors of the experiments as well as the observed discrepancies between the various experiments.

On the other hand, one might ask what could go wrong in the lattice calculations of the window quantity. Perhaps the most critical common source of systematic error among lattice calculations is the one associated with taking the continuum limit. After all, the ranges of lattice spacing used by the different collaborations as well as their fit ansätze in the lattice spacing are fairly similar. Thus, new cross-section measurements as well as additional lattice calculations of the full $a_\mu^{\text{HVP,LO}}$ will give important indications as to the origin of the current tension.

In case of an eventual consolidation of the isospin breaking corrections, e.g. by means of auxiliary lattice QCD calculations [4331], the use of hadronic τ decays in the HVP dispersion integral might be reconsidered for the future. New and high-statistics measurements of spectral functions of hadronic τ decays are indeed expected from Belle-II in the upcoming years. It is going to be exciting to see whether such a τ -based dispersive analysis of HVP will be in agreement with the current e^+e^- -based methodology.

13.5.2 Hadronic light-by-light scattering in the muon ($g-2$)

The HLbL contribution a_μ^{HLbL} is of order α^3 , and thus of one order higher than $a_\mu^{\text{HVP,LO}}$ in the expansion of a_μ in the fine-structure constant. The absolute precision target is to reach a level under 1×10^{-10} , which given the contribution's approximate size, $a_\mu^{\text{HLbL}} \simeq 10 \times 10^{-10}$, amounts to a result with a precision under 10%. While this requirement is much less stringent than for $a_\mu^{\text{HVP,LO}}$, the physics and kinematics involved in a_μ^{HLbL} are also much more complex. We first review the model and dispersive calculations before describing the status of the lattice QCD approach.

Data-driven determination

The hadronic blob on the right-hand side diagram of Fig. 351 can be decomposed into subgraphs with intermediate pseudoscalar meson exchanges (π^0, η, η') as well as exchanges of heavier scalar, axial-vector, or tensor mesons. Furthermore, intermediate pion, kaon, and even quark loop exchanges need to be considered. In the past, many of these individual contributions were estimated using hadronic models [4284, 4332–4335], for which an estimate of the model uncertainty is notoriously difficult and for which possible double counting issues have been discussed as an additional source of uncertainty. A consensus exists among all the various estimates that the exchange of pseudoscalar mesons, particularly the π^0 , is the dominant contribution to HLbL. For years, the so called Glasgow consensus value [4336] of $a_\mu^{\text{HLbL}} = (10.5 \pm 2.6) \cdot 10^{-10}$ was considered as a benchmark estimate and was found to be in good agreement with other estimates (see e.g. [4337]), although the individual subgraphs were partly in conflict with each other.

Developing a predictive dispersive representation for the LbL scattering amplitude with three spacelike photons represents a much more complex theoretical task than in the case of the HVP (see Eq. 13.72). The recent developments of dispersion relations for the pseudoscalar and the pion-loop subgraphs within the Refs. [4338, 4339] can therefore be considered as a major breakthrough in the analytical treatment of HLbL (see also Ref. [4340] for an alternative representation). Indeed, for the first time an unambiguous definition of individual contributions became possible together with an exact relation to experimental data to be used as input, namely a relation to meson transition form factors (TFFs), which encode the coupling of two virtual photons to mesons. Besides the TFFs, which depend on the two photon virtualities, also meson decays, certain e^+e^- annihilation reactions and Primakoff measurements have been found to be highly relevant. As pointed out in Ref. [4341], the most relevant photon virtualities for a_μ^{HLbL} are on the GeV scale and below, an observation that calls for a dedicated campaign of experimental measurements in this energy range. The BESIII collaboration has recently presented a new high-quality measurement [4342] of the singly-virtual TFF of the π^0 , which is shown in Fig. 356, where it is compared with older data [4343, 4344] as well as a calculation of this form factor in lattice QCD [4345], a phenomenological estimate based on Canterbury approximants [4346], and with a dispersive treatment of the TFF [4347]. The agreement between data and theory is very good. Unfortunately, at low energies experiments have not been able yet to provide data with two photon virtualities, as needed for the new dispersive treatment of the pseudoscalar and pion loop contributions. Dispersive evaluations of the TFFs [4348] and lattice QCD calculations [4345] have been used instead. The good agreement shown in Fig. 356 and the overall consistency found elsewhere indicate the robustness

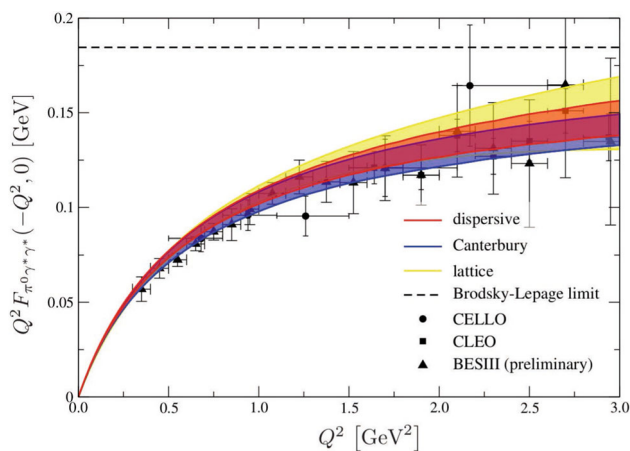


Fig. 356 The single-virtual pion form factor $F_{\pi^0 \gamma^* \gamma^*}(-Q^2, 0)$ as a function of Q^2 measured by the CELLO [4344], CLEO [4343], and BESIII [4342] experiments as well as phenomenological predictions using a dispersive analysis [4347] and Canterbury approximants [4346]; shown is furthermore an ab-initio calculation within Lattice QCD [4345]

of the theoretical descriptions of the TFFs. For the future, the first double-virtual TFF measurements are expected from Belle-II and BESIII.

Currently, in the Theory White Paper, the new dispersive treatments have led to a major reduction of the uncertainties of the pseudoscalar exchanges and pion and kaon loop subgraphs. For the remaining scalar, axial vector, and tensor exchange graphs as well as the short-distance contributions, a conservative error estimate has been applied and future research in experiment and theory will eventually lead to a further reduction of the uncertainty of those contributions. The dispersive result arrived at in Ref. [4286] amounts to $a_{\mu}^{\text{HLbL}} = (9.2 \pm 1.9) \times 10^{-10}$ [4275, 4345–4347, 4349–4357] and is found to be in good agreement with the Glasgow consensus value with a slightly reduced uncertainty, but with a significant reduction of the model dependence compared to this older value.

Lattice QCD calculation

The first proposal for computing the hadronic light-by-light contribution in lattice QCD dates back to 2005 [4358]. The subject lay dormant for some years until 2013 [4359], the new effort leading to first results for the quark-connected contribution at a pion mass of $330 \text{ MeV}/c^2$ [4360]. Important technical improvements to the original methods were made in [4361]. The leading disconnected contribution was calculated for the first time in [4362], along with the connected part, at the physical pion mass. Finally, this multi-year effort culminated into a full calculation [4363] in the (u, d, s) quark sector. This result, displayed in Fig. 357 as RBC/UKQCD '18, contributed to the White Paper 2020 theory average, together with the dispersive estimate quoted above.

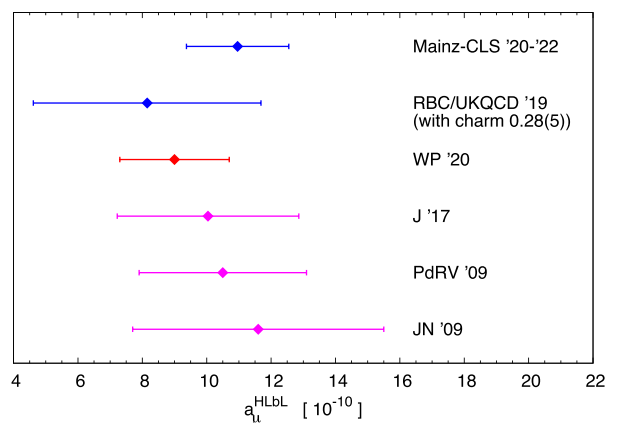


Fig. 357 Overview of results obtained for the hadronic light-by-light contribution to the muon $(g - 2)$: the Mainz-CLS [4369, 4370] and RBC/UKQCD lattice results [4363], the Theory White Paper 2020 average [4286], and previous model estimates by Jegerlehner [4275], Prades-de Rafael-Vainshtein [4336] (the ‘Glasgow consensus’) and Jegerlehner–Nyffeler [4284, 4371]. We have supplemented the RBC/UKQCD result with the charm contribution computed in [4370]. The WP average is based on the dispersive [4275, 4345–4347, 4349–4357] and the RBC/UKQCD [4363] lattice result

The treatment of massless internal photons is an important technical issue in lattice QCD. In the publications cited in the previous paragraph, the photons were treated on the same lattice as the QCD degrees of freedom. In [4364–4366], a position-space method allowing for the photons to be treated in infinite volume was proposed and worked out. Meanwhile, similar methods were also developed by members of the RBC/UKQCD collaboration [4367]. Altogether, the development of optimized position-space methods led to the calculations of [4368–4370] by the Mainz-CLS group. The result, displayed in Fig. 357, has an uncertainty very similar to the dispersive result.

Discussion HLbL

Figure 357 illustrates the good consistency among the data-driven, lattice and earlier hadronic model determinations. This is a good sign, since the dominant sources of uncertainty are very different in the different determinations: for instance, the RBC/UKQCD calculation involves a fairly long extrapolation to infinite volume, while the Mainz-CLS determination results from an extrapolation over a sizeable interval of pion masses. Updates of the lattice calculations are planned in the near future.

In the dispersive data-driven approach, further progress can be achieved by improved TFF measurements and calculations for the η and η' mesons. Most important, however, is a future experimental program of measurements of the two-photon couplings of mesons in the $(1-2) \text{ GeV}/c^2$ range, where especially axial vector mesons play an important role and for which the current data base is limited. New results are expected in the future by the BESIII collaboration in

a range of momentum transfer similar to the one shown in Fig. 356. Moreover, also Babar and Belle-II will be able to provide new measurements at a higher momentum transfer. New TFF data will also be crucial for a matching of individual hadronic channels to the short-distance behaviour of HLbL.

Given the ongoing program of various groups in experiment, hadron phenomenology and lattice QCD, we expect an improvement of the HLbL error from currently 20% to 10% or lower. An agreement between an ab-initio lattice QCD calculation with a data-driven estimate on such a level will represent a non-trivial cross-check between two completely independent methods.

13.5.3 Conclusions and outlook

Many theoretical and experimental developments have taken place in the past 5 years on the anomalous magnetic moment of the muon a_μ . The direct measurement of a_μ [4283] has been confirmed and improved [4287], while the $(g - 2)$ Theory Initiative has helped coordinate many activities to improve the Standard Model prediction for a_μ [4286]. Hadronic effects limit the precision of this prediction, especially the hadronic vacuum polarization (HVP) and the hadronic light-by-light (HLbL) contributions reviewed above.

In the immediate future, the top priority is to clarify the tensions that have emerged in partial and full HVP determinations. Additional lattice QCD calculations of the full $a_\mu^{\text{HVP,LO}}$ contribution are eagerly awaited, in conjunction with a strategy to identify the origin of the existing strong tension with the dispersive approach for the ‘intermediate window’ sub-contribution. On the data-driven side, the accuracy of the dispersive approach for obtaining $a_\mu^{\text{HVP,LO}}$ is currently hampered by inconsistencies in the experimental data bases. The most problematic issues arise from the tension in the determination of the $e^+e^- \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-$ cross section (KLOE/BABAR puzzle), but also in other exclusive channels, e.g. in the process $e^+e^- \rightarrow K^+K^-$, inconsistencies have been observed. The clarification of these issues is one of the most important challenges for an improved determination of the SM prediction of $(g - 2)_\mu$ and will be addressed by several existing and upcoming e^+e^- experiments in future.¹¹⁸ In that respect, since the cross section measurements heavily rely

on high-precision Monte-Carlo generators [4373], it is of utmost importance to maintain and to refine the PHOKHARA [4374–4391] generator as well as other Monte Carlo programs [4392–4397] for future applications.

As an alternative to the program of hadronic cross section measurements at e^+e^- colliders, it has been proposed [4398] to carry out a spacelike measurement of the effective electromagnetic coupling via a scattering experiment providing thereby input to a dispersion integral for HVP. The MUonE collaboration is currently preparing the design of a detector [4399] at the muon beam of SPS/CERN towards the final approval of the project. Provided that the differential cross section of the μe scattering process can be measured to the desired accuracy, this will allow for an entirely new determination of HVP.

In summary, controlling hadronic effects in the muon $(g - 2)$ to match the absolute experimental precision represents a major challenge. Overcoming this challenge will demonstrate that strong-interaction contributions to precision observables can be controlled with the required level of accuracy and consistency between data-driven and lattice QCD approaches. This ability will be crucial to maximize the science output of a future high-energy lepton collider [4400], since non-perturbative QCD effects also dominate the uncertainty of $\alpha(M_Z)$.

14 The future

Conveners:

Eberhard Klempt and Franz Gross

Higher energy, higher intensity, higher precision. These are the frontiers at which experimental tests of new physics beyond the Standard Model is expected. This last section of this volume describes the status and the prospects at new multi-GeV facilities which recently came into operation or which are presently under construction. The large number of facilities necessarily requires a selection. A list of past and present accelerators can be found elsewhere.¹¹⁹ This section does not attempt to address possible theoretical developments of the future.

The 12 GeV project at JLab, presented by Patrizia Rossi, is dedicated to a study of the structure of nucleons and nuclei, to an intense search for gluonic degrees of freedom in meson and baryon spectroscopy, to a search for new physics in parity violating processes, and to a search for dark matter. The electron-ion collider (EIC) will provide electron–proton and electron–nuclei collisions at CM energies $\sqrt{s} = 20$ –100 GeV, later possibly up to 140 GeV. Global properties and

¹¹⁸ Recently the CMD-3 collaboration has announced a new energy scan measurement of the process $e^+e^- \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-$ with a systematic uncertainty of 0.7% in the central ρ peak region [4372]. Surprisingly, the central value of $a_\mu^{\pi\pi,LO}$, when using the CMD3 measurement only, turns out to be significantly higher than all previous experiments and is found to lead to good agreement with the BMW Lattice QCD determination of HVP. No reasons have been found so far why the new cross section measurement turns out to be significantly higher than all previous experiments. The new CMD-3 measurement is not yet published.

¹¹⁹ https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_accelerators_in_particle_physics.

the partonic structure of hadrons and nuclei will be studied (Christian Weiss).

The study of in-medium properties of hadrons and the nuclear matter Equation of State (EoS) and a search for possible signals of a deconfinement and a chiral-symmetry-restoration phase transitions are at the heart of the NICA (Nuclotron-based Ion Collider fAcility) program at the Joint Institute for Nuclear Research in Dubna and of the J-PARC hadron facility at Tokai. At J-PARC, strange nuclear matter, hypernuclei and the study of hyperons are a focus of research (Shinzo Kumano). NICA provides beams of nuclei with 4.5 GeV per nucleon and protons up to 12.6 GeV. Using polarized beams, the internal structure of the proton and deuteron will also be studied (Alexey Guskov).

The new international Facility for Antiproton and Ion Research (FAIR), presently under construction at Darmstadt, is presented by Johan Messchendorp, Frank Nerling and Joachim Stroth. Its program encompasses hadron physics using anti-proton annihilation, heavy-ion reactions at relativistic energies, and nuclear structure physics at the limit of stability using rare isotope beams.

The e^+e^- colliders in Beijing and Tsukuba have delivered a large number of unexpected results. BES III will increase further the statistics of J/ψ from now 10^{10} and $\psi(2S)$ (2.7×10^9) decays and extend its program to cover the full range up to 5.6 GeV in mass. Meson and baryon spectroscopy form the core of the program with extensions to mesonic and baryonic form factors and to τ decays (Hai-Bo Li, Ryan Edward Mitchell and Xiaorong Zhou). The BELLE II program, presented by Toru Iijima, has a strong part in spectroscopy as well. The experiment operates at an asymmetric e^+e^- collider mostly at the $\Upsilon(4S)$ mass. In addition to the spectroscopy program, BELLE III will search for non-SM contributions in hadronic, semileptonic and leptonic b -quark decays, determine quark mixing parameters, determine parameters in τ physics to precisions and perform searches for dark-sector particles.

The High-Luminosity Large Hadron Collider (HL-LHC) will have a five time larger luminosity than LHC. Major goals are improved tests of the Standard Model, searches for beyond the Standard Model (BSM) physics, studies of the properties of the Higgs boson, flavor physics of heavy quarks and leptons, and studies of QCD matter at high density and temperature. Project and prospects of HL-LHC are summarized by Tim Gershon, Massimiliana Grazzini and Gudrun Heinrich.

These major facilities represent a substantial investment in the experimental study of QCD, and show that the field has matured. It will be exciting to see what new results and deeper understandings emerge in the future.

14.1 JLab: the 12 GeV project and beyond

Patrizia Rossi

14.1.1 Jefferson Lab and CEBAF

Jefferson Lab (JLab), is a US National Lab located in Newport News – Virginia. It is a world-leading research laboratory for exploring the nature of matter in depth, providing unprecedented insight into the details of the particles and forces that build our visible universe inside the nucleus of the atom. Its scientific program spans the study of hadronic physics, the physics of complex nuclei, the hadronization of colored constituents, and precision tests of the Standard Model of particle physics. Figure 358 shows an areal view of the laboratory with the accelerator complex in the foreground. The core of Jefferson Lab is the Continuous Electron Beam Accelerator Facility (CEBAF). It operates as a pair of superconducting radio frequency linear accelerators (linacs) in a “racetrack” configuration and is designed to circulate a near continuous-wave electron beam through one to five passes recirculating arcs (see Fig. 359).

Jefferson Lab started physics operations in 1995, providing up to 6 GeV electron beams to three experimental halls, Halls A, B and C, simultaneously. In May 2012, the 6 GeV beam operations were stopped, with Jefferson Lab upgrading its facility to expand opportunity for discovery. In addition to the accelerator scope of doubling the energy, from 6 GeV to 12 GeV, the upgrade included the addition of a new fourth experimental hall, Hall D, and the construction of upgraded/new detectors hardware in the other halls. In two of the existing halls new spectrometers were added, the large acceptance device CLAS12 in Hall B [4401] and the precision magnetic spectrometer Super High Momentum Spectrometer, or SHMS, in Hall C. The new experimental Hall D makes use of a tagged bremsstrahlung photon beam and solenoidal detector to house the GlueX experiment. The initial energy upgraded program in Hall A made use of both the existing High Resolution Spectrometers.

The equipment in the four halls is well matched to the demands of the broad 12 GeV scientific program [3185] with complementary capabilities of acceptance, precision and required luminosity: high luminosity in Halls A and C and large acceptance detectors in Halls B and D. The upgraded CEBAF accelerator, which can deliver a maximum energy of 12 GeV to Hall D and 11 GeV to Halls A, B, C, delivered the first beam to Halls A and D in the spring of 2014. The full project was completed in spring 2017 with the commissioning of the two remaining halls.

In the meantime, Jefferson Lab has been continuing actively to invest in facilities that make optimum use of CEBAF’s capabilities and the existing equipment, to produce science with high impact in Nuclear Physics as well

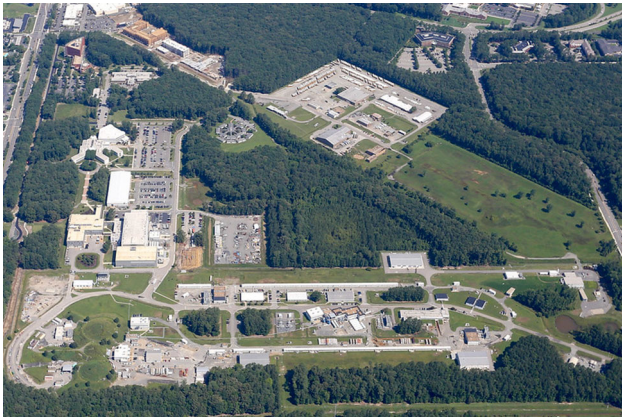


Fig. 358 Areal view of Jefferson Lab with the accelerator complex in the foreground

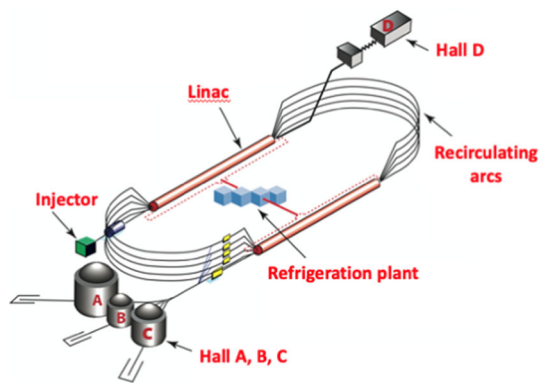


Fig. 359 CEBAF accelerator concept

as High Energy Physics and Astrophysics. In Hall A the Super Big Bite spectrometer (SBS) was installed in 2021, while the Measurement Of Lepton-Lepton Elastic Reaction (MOLLER) equipment is under construction with completion date foreseen for late 2026. On a longer term, Hall A plans to host the SOLenoidal Large Intensity Device (SoLID). Future additions include also: new large angle tagging detectors (TDIS in Hall A and ALERT in Hall B); the neutral particle spectrometer (NPS) and the compact photon source (CPS) in Hall C; and an intense K_L beamline that would serve new experiments in the GlueX spectrometer in Hall D.

14.1.2 The 12 GeV Physics program

CEBAF has been delivering the world's highest intensity and highest precision CW multi-GeV electron beams for more than 25 years. The capabilities of the upgraded CEBAF represent a significant leap over previous technology, with an unmatched combination of beam energy, quality and intensity. At Jefferson Lab experiments can run at luminosity up to $10^{38} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ using a highly polarized electron beam (up

to 90%), high power cryogenic targets, and several polarized targets using NH_3 , ND_3 , and 3He to support a broad range of polarization measurements. This combination of beam, targets and large acceptance and high precision detectors, offers a powerful set of experimental tools that enables unprecedented studies of the inner structure of nucleons and nuclei and allows to push the limits of our understanding of the Standard Model.

The facility serves an international scientific user community of ~ 1700 scientists which, in collaboration with the laboratory and with the guidance of the Jefferson Lab Program Advisory Committee (PAC), develops the scientific program. Following the last PAC meeting in 2022, there are a total of 90 approved experiments in the 12 GeV program,¹²⁰ of which more than 1/3 have received the highest scientific rating of A. There are 61 approved experiments still waiting to run, representing at least a decade of running in the future. Furthermore, PAC meetings are expected to continue each summer, with a call for new proposals for beam time. Clearly, CEBAF is a facility in high demand.

The JLab physics program falls into four main categories:

- the study of the transverse, longitudinal and 3-dimensional structure of the nucleon through the measurements of the elastic and transition form factors (FFs), the (un)polarized parton distribution functions (PDFs), and the Transverse Momentum Dependent (TMDs) and Generalized Parton Distributions functions (GPDs), respectively.
- The study of hadron spectroscopy and the search for exotic mesons to explore the nature of confinement.
- The study of the QCD structure in nuclei; its connection with the nucleon–nucleon interactions, including the modification of the valence quark PDFs in a dense nuclear medium, and the investigation of the quark hadronization properties. The neutron distribution radius in medium heavy nuclei, is also part of the program.
- The search of physics beyond the Standard Model in high-precision parity-violating processes and in the search for signals of dark matter.

Due to the limited space, only few selected highlights of the scientific agenda and present results of the JLab 12 GeV rich program are presented in this review. Some key results of the earlier JLab 6 GeV program are also reported for completeness when needed. The part related to the search of physics beyond the Standard Model, instead, are not discussed since it is somewhat beyond the scope of this volume. A more complete summary of the ongoing scientific program of the 12 GeV CEBAF and an outlook into future opportunities can be found in Ref. [4402].

¹²⁰ A list of approved experiments is available on the JLab website.

14.1.3 The structure of the nucleon

For the theoretical formalism and a general overview of the structure of the nucleon, the reader should refer to Sect. 10 of this volume.

Elastic Form Factors at high and ultra low Q^2

Since Hofstadter's pioneering experiment in the 1950s, the measurements of the electromagnetic space-like nucleon FFs have been a crucial source of information for our understanding of the internal structure of the nucleons. In 2000 Jefferson Lab rewrote the textbook of the proton and neutron form factors when precise data for the proton's electric to magnetic form factor ratio, G_E^p/G_M^p from double polarization experiments at Q^2 up to 5.6 GeV^2 [2973], didn't show the scaling behavior observed using the Rosenbluth separation method and subsequently confirmed by experiments with improved precision [2971, 4403]. According to the pQCD predictions the ratio $Q^2 \frac{F_{2p}}{F_{1p}}$, where F_{1p} and F_{2p} are the Dirac and Pauli form factors, respectively, would reach a constant value at high enough Q^2 . The data clearly indicate that this asymptotic regime has not been reached yet [2974]. These observations suggest the presence of orbital angular momentum in the leading 3-quark component of the nucleon wave function in QCD Ref. [3040]. Another explanation of this discrepancy has been attributed to "two-photon" exchange (TPE) or higher order corrections to the cross sections. Jefferson Lab is tackling these questions and in the coming years will offer unprecedented opportunities to extend the current proton and neutron FF's measurements to higher momentum transfer Q^2 and to improve statistical and uncertainties at very low Q^2 , where the nucleon size can be accurately investigated. The measurements at high Q^2 will also contribute to constraint two of the nucleon Generalized Parton Distributions, and in general will test the validity of quite a few fundamental nucleon models in a region of transition between perturbative and non-perturbative regimes.

One of the first completed experiments in Hall A with the upgraded CEBAF accelerator was a precision measurement of the proton magnetic form factor up to $Q^2 = 16 \text{ GeV}^2$ [2961]. This experiment nearly doubled the Q^2 range over which direct Rosenbluth separations of G_E and G_M can be performed. It confirmed the discrepancy with polarization measurements to larger Q^2 values and attributed it to hard TPE. These new, high-precision cross section measurement provides also an important baseline for the nucleon form factors program.

A series of experiments [4404–4409] for the measurements of the proton and neutron magnetic and electric form factors, has started at the end of 2021 using the Super Bigbite Spectrometer (SBS) and the upgraded BigBite Spectrometer in Hall A. This facility provides large acceptance at high luminosity so that small cross sections can be measured with

high precision allowing a determination of the flavor separated form factors to $Q^2 = 10\text{--}12 \text{ GeV}^2$. A complementary measurement of the neutron magnetic form factor will be performed with CLAS12 in Hall B [4410]. The SBS form factor experiments will push into a Q^2 regions in which theory expects new degrees of freedom to emerge in our understanding of QCD non-perturbative phenomena in nucleon structure as predicted in Ref. [3040].

From the perspective of QCD in exclusive processes, another important measurement is accessing the structure of the pion and kaon. The E12-06-101 experiment [4411] in Hall C will extract the pion form factor through $p(e, e'\pi^+)n$ and $d(e, e'\pi^-)pp$ with Q^2 extending to 6 GeV^2 from 2 GeV^2 and $-t_{\min} \sim 0.005 \sim 0.2 \text{ GeV}^2$. The proposed separation of longitudinal and transverse structure functions is a critical check of the reaction dynamics. The charged pion electric form factor is a topic of fundamental importance to our understanding of hadronic structure. There is a robust pQCD prediction in the asymptotic limit where $Q^2 \rightarrow \infty$: $Q^2 F_\pi(Q^2) \rightarrow 16\pi \alpha_s(Q^2) f_\pi^2$. Therefore it is an interesting question at what Q^2 this pQCD result will become dominant. The available data indicate that the form factor at $Q^2 = 2 \text{ GeV}^2$ is at least a factor of 3–4 larger. The new data will provide improved understanding of the non-perturbative contribution to this important property of the pion as well as mapping out the transition to the perturbative regime.

A high precision measurement of the elastic cross section on the proton at ultra low Q^2 , the *PRad* experiment, was performed in 2016 with the aim to solve the proton charge radius puzzle triggered by the muonic hydrogen spectroscopic measurements. To improve the precision of the measurement, the experiment utilized a new type of windowless target system flowing the hydrogen gas directly into the stream of CEBAF's 1.1 and 2.2 GeV electrons, and a calorimeter to detect the scattered electrons, rather than the traditionally used magnetic spectrometer. Moreover, the experiment was able to measure the scattered electron at very low (Q^2), facilitating a highly accurate extrapolation to $Q^2 = 0$ and extraction of the proton charge radius. The new value obtained for the proton radius is 0.831 fm [2958], which is smaller than the previous electron-scattering values and is, within its experimental uncertainty, in agreement with recent muonic atomic spectroscopy results.

To reach the ultimate precision offered by this new method, an enhanced version of *PRad*, the *PRad-II* experiment [4412] has been approved. It will deliver the most precise measurement of G_E^p reaching the lowest ever Q^2 value (10^{-5} GeV^2) in lepton scattering experiments, critical for the model independent extraction of r_p . The projected r_p from *PRad-II* is shown in Fig. 360 along with the *PRad* result, recent electron scattering extractions, atomic physics measurements on ordinary hydrogen and muonic hydrogen,

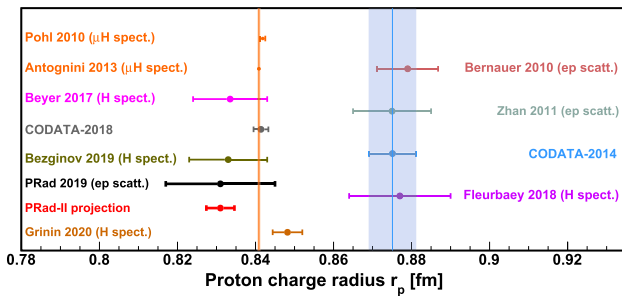


Fig. 360 The projected r_p result from PRad-II, shown along with the result from PRad and other measurements (see text)

and the CODATA values (see [2958] for references of these measurements).

Quark parton distributions at high x

The quark and gluon structure of the proton has been under intense experimental and theoretical investigation for more than five decades. Nevertheless, even for the distributions of the well-studied valence quarks, challenges such as the value of the down quark to up quark ratio at high fractional momenta x ($x \geq 0.5$), where a single parton carries most of the nucleon’s momentum, remain. Recently, three JLab unpolarized DIS experiments, MARATHON [4413] in Hall A, BoNUS12 [4414] in Hall B, and F_{2d}/F_{2p} [4415] in Hall-C completed data taking. These experiments aim to provide data to constrain PDFs in the high- x region, especially the d/u PDF ratio.

The experiments in Hall A and Hall B used two different approaches to minimizing nuclear effects in extracting the neutron information: MARATHON measured the ratio of 3H to 3He structure functions, while BONUS12 tagged slow recoiling protons in the deuteron. The Hall-C experiment measured $H(e, e')$ and $D(e, e')$ inclusive cross sections in the resonance region and beyond. While there will be nuclear effects in the deuterium data, the experiment provides a significant large x range and reduced uncertainty to be combined with the large global data set of inclusive cross sections for PDF extraction. Figure 361 shows the MARATHON F_2^d/F_2^p results [4413], along with data from the JLab BoNUS experiment [3109] for $W \geq 1.84 GeV$, evolved to the Q^2 of MARATHON, and results from early SLAC measurements with $W \geq 1.84 GeV$ [4416] presented as a band. The results, which cover the Bjorken scaling variable range $0.19 < x < 0.83$, represent a significant improvement compared to previous measurements for the ratio. The results are expected to improve our knowledge of the nucleon PDFs, and to be used in algorithms which fit hadronic data to properly determine the essentially unknown $(u + \bar{u})/(d + \bar{d})$ ratio at large x . A planned experiment using Parity Violation in Deep Inelastic Scattering (PVDIS) [4417] on the proton, with the proposed SoLID [4418] spectrometer, will provide input on the d/u ratio at high x without contamination from nuclear

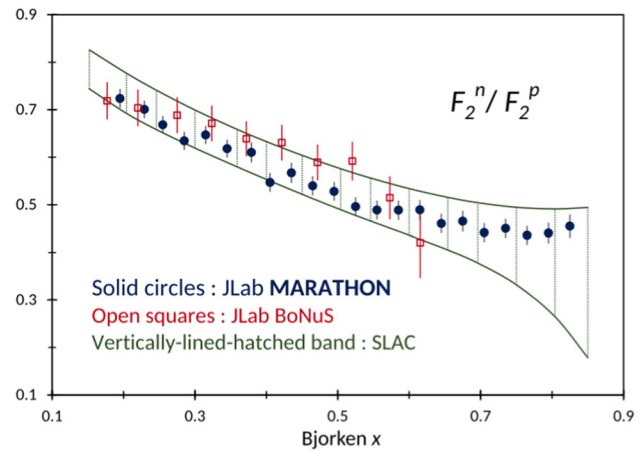


Fig. 361 The F_2^d/F_2^p ratio versus Bjorken x from the JLab MARATHON experiment [4413], together with data from BoNUS [3109] and a band based on the fit of the SLAC data as provided in Ref. [4416], for the MARATHON kinematics $Q^2 = 14x$ (GeV)². All three experimental data-sets include statistical, point to point systematic, and normalization uncertainties

corrections by measuring the ratio of γZ interference to total structure functions.

An extensive experimental program on spin physics at low and moderate Q^2 , has been pursued by JLab during the 6 GeV era. The main focus of the DIS experiments has been the x –dependence of virtual photon asymmetry $A_1 = g_1/F_1$, to determine the contributions of quark spins to the spin of nucleon. In addition, the high statistical precision data and kinematic coverage allowed an accurate study of sum rules in the parton to hadron transition region as well as higher twist contributions (see Ref. [4419] for a review). A spin physics program has been approved to run with the upgrade CEBAF which extends the kinematical coverage to higher x and can, among other things, answer the key question on what happens when a single quark carries nearly all (more than 80%) of the momentum of the nucleon. This region is well suited to test various theoretical predictions including those from the relativistic constituent quark model and perturbative QCD. The A_1^n high-impact experiment in Hall C [4420] completed data taking in 2020. The experiment ran at a luminosity of $2 \times 10^{36} cm^{-2} s^{-1}$ thanks to the upgraded polarized 3He target [4421]. The new precision measurement will expand knowledge of the extracted g_1^n structure function to $x = 0.75$. Combined with the currently running experiments to measure the proton and deuteron asymmetries A_1^p and A_1^d with CLAS12 [4411], new global analyses will be able to extract the Δu and Δd quark helicity distributions in the high- x region with much improved precision.

Nuclear femtography: TMDs and GPDs

Pioneering measurements to access Generalized Parton Distributions (GPDs) and Transverse Momentum Distributions (TMDs) were provided by the HERMES, COMPASS, and

the JLab 6 GeV program, among others. For recent reviews see Refs. [4422, 4423]. The upgraded detectors and CEBAF beam energy and intensity, promise to provide a more detailed three-dimensional (3D) mapping of the nucleon over wider ranges of the relevant kinematic variables. Indeed, this is a major thrust of the 12 GeV program accounting, so far, for almost $\sim 1/3$ of the whole approved experimental program.

Experimentally GPDs are accessible through deep exclusive processes, the most prominent ones being Deeply Virtual Compton Scattering (DVCS), and Deeply Virtual Meson Production (DVMP). TMDs, at JLab, are accessed through Semi-Inclusive Deep Inelastic Scattering (SIDIS), in which the nucleon is no longer intact and one or two of the outgoing hadrons are detected in coincidence with the scattered lepton. GPDs and TMDs are not measured directly. They are extracted through global fits to experimental data of Compton Form Factors (CFFs) for GPDs and Structure Functions for TMDs, and model dependent techniques with various assumptions involved. Therefore, accessing them demands not only a structured connection between theory, experiment and phenomenology, but availability of high precision data in a wide kinematical range and from different targets and several target/beam polarization combinations. A 3D description of the nucleon internal structure comes at the price of an unprecedented complexity. Therefore, for a correct interpretation of the data and a detailed comparison between results and theoretical models, a full differential analysis, using multi-dimensional information is crucial. The high-intensity, high-polarization electron beam provided by CEBAF with the complementary equipment of halls, A, B, C, makes JLab an ideal place for these studies.

SIDIS experiments provide access to the nucleon spin-orbit correlations. Observables are spin azimuthal asymmetries, and in particular single spin azimuthal asymmetries (SSAs), of the detected hadron. SSAs are due to the correlation between the quark transverse momentum and the spin of the quark/nucleon and early measurements indicated that they become larger with increasing x , i.e. in the region where valence quarks have visible presence. Measurements of SSAs at JLab with the 6 GeV beam, performed with longitudinally polarized NH_3 [4424], and transversely polarized 3He [3298, 3299, 4425, 4426] indicate that spin orbit correlations may be significant for certain combinations of spins of quarks and nucleons and transverse momentum of scattered quarks.

Large spin-azimuthal asymmetries have been observed at JLab also for a longitudinally polarized beam [4427] and a transversely polarized 3He target [4428], which have been interpreted in terms of higher-twist contributions related to quark–gluon correlations and novel aspects of emergent hadron mass. At JLab with upgraded energy, three experimental halls, A, B, and C are involved in TMDs studies. The measurements aim to access leading and higher twists TMDs

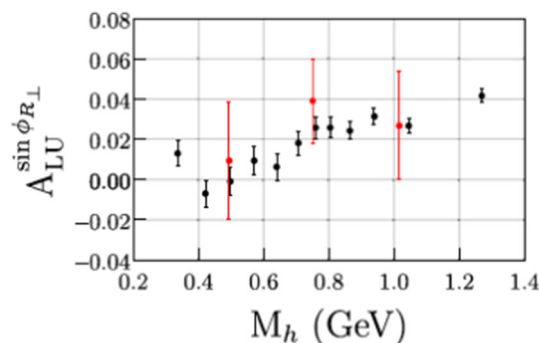


Fig. 362 The new CLAS12 results on beam helicity asymmetry in two-pion semi-inclusive deep inelastic electroproduction [4442] as a function of the invariant mass of pion pairs. The red points are from CLAS6 measurements [4444]

and their flavor and spin dependence, in multi-dimensional binning of x , Q^2 , z , P_T . The joint efforts of the three halls, where the high-precision, high-statistics measurements in Hall A and C will be combined with the wide kinematics ones performed in Hall B, by using different targets and several target/beam polarization combinations, will allow a thorough exploration of the 3D structure of the nucleon in momentum space. The program includes the BigBite spectrometer and SBS [4429], as well as, the SoLID detector at Hall A [4430–4432], CLAS12 at Hall B [4433–4437], and High Momentum Spectrometer (HMS) and Super HMS at Hall C [4438–4440].

The first SIDIS publications of the 12 GeV era were reported by the CLAS12 collaboration on measurements of beam SSA for single pion [4441], two-pion [4442] and back-to-back dihadron [4443] productions off an unpolarized proton target using 10.6 and 10.2 GeV longitudinally spin-polarized electron beams. The single π^+ production was measured over a wide range of kinematics in a fully multi-dimensional study. The comparison with calculations shows the promise of high-precision data to enable differentiation between competing reaction models and effects.

The first significant beam spin asymmetries observed in two-pion production provide the first opportunity to extract the higher-twist parton distribution function $e(x)$, interpreted in terms of the average transverse forces acting on a quark after it absorbs the virtual photon. Moreover, this measurement constitutes the first ever signal sensitive to the helicity-dependent two-pion fragmentation function G_1^\perp . The comparison of the 6 GeV and 12 GeV measurements shown in Fig. 362) demonstrates the impact of the beam energy on the phase space for production of multiple hadrons in the final state and the huge reduction in the corresponding error bars. Finally, the measured beam-spin asymmetries in back-to-back dihadron electroproduction, $ep \rightarrow' p\pi^+X$, with the first hadron produced in the current-fragmentation region and the second in the target-fragmentation region, pro-

vide a first access in dihadron production to a previously unobserved leading-twist spin- and transverse-momentum-dependent fracture functions [4445].

A comprehensive program is carried out at JLab in deeply virtual exclusive scattering processes (DVCS and DVMP) with the goal to create the transverse spacial images of quarks and gluons as a function of their longitudinal momentum fraction in the proton, neutron and nuclei through the study of the GPDs. The physical content of the GPDs is quite rich. Among other features, they give access to the contribution of the orbital momentum of the quarks and gluons to the nucleon, and the D-term, a poorly known element of GPD parametrizations, which gives valuable insights to the mechanical properties of the nucleon [2879,4446–4448]. The study of the deeply exclusive processes and the GPDs extraction started, at JLab, in the 6 GeV era. After the first publication by CLAS in 2001 [4449], a series of high-statistics DVCS-dedicated experiments in Hall A and B followed at moderate Q^2 (1–3) GeV² and in a x_B range centered around $x_B \sim 0.3$ (for a recent review see [4450]).

The polarized and unpolarized cross sections measured at in Hall A at 6 GeV [4451,4452] indicate, via a Q^2 -scaling test, that the factorization and the hypothesis of leading-twist dominance are valid already at relatively low Q^2 (~ 1 –2) GeV² and thus the applicability of the GPD-based description. Covering a range in x_B from 0.1 to 0.7 and in Q^2 from 1 to 10 GeV², the upgraded JLab is very well matched to study GPDs in the valence regime. The program is executed in the three experimental halls, A, B, C, and aims to measure accurately fully differential beam-polarized cross section differences and unpolarized cross sections, longitudinally polarized target-spin asymmetries along with double polarization observables.

The first result of the 12 GeV era was reported by Hall A on the DVCS cross section measurement at high Bjorken x_B off an unpolarized proton target [4453]. The work presents the first experimental extraction of the four helicity-conserving nucleon Compton Form Factors (CFFs) as a function of x_B . A similar experiment, which will complement the kinematic coverage of the Hall A, is planned to run in Hall C with the HMS and NPS in 2024 [4454]. In Hall B two experiments measuring DVCS off an unpolarized proton target at 11 GeV [4455] and 6.6 and 8.8 GeV [4456] will allow a larger kinematical coverage, while the measurement of the beam-spin asymmetry off a deuteron target, with detected neutron, will allow to constrain the poorly known GPD E, related to the quark orbital angular momentum through the Ji's sum rule, and to perform the GPDs quark-flavor separation. These experiments will release their results soon. Finally, an experiment using longitudinally polarized NH_3 and ND_3 target [4411] is currently running in Hall B and one has been proposed to use a transversely polarized proton [4457]. The precision and kinematical coverage of these asymmetries

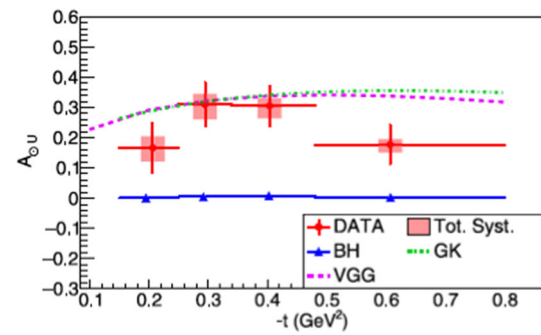


Fig. 363 Photon polarization asymmetry as a function of $-t$. The dashed and dashed-dotted lines are the predictions of GPDs based models, respectively, the VGG [4464] and the GK [4465] models, evaluated at the average kinematics. For detailed explanation see [2881]

obtained with different combination of targets and polarization will bring stringent constraints to GPD parametrizations.

Meson production at JLab at 6 GeV has not yet shown parton dominance of scattering. Experimental data from 11 GeV beam will provide important test of the deep-exclusive meson production mechanism. Hall A recently published deep exclusive electroproduction of π^0 at high Q^2 [4458] using the 11 GeV beam off an unpolarized proton target. The results suggest the amplitude for transversely polarized virtual photons continues to dominate the cross section throughout this kinematic range. Experiments have also been approved in Hall B for π^0 , η [4459] and ϕ production [4460], the latter with the hope to determine the t-slope of the gluon GPDs. In Hall C, it is important to mention the precise measurement of the L/T separation on kaon and pion electroproduction [4461,4462] and the neutral pion cross-section measurements [4454].

Finally, DVCS and DVMP will be measured on the 4He nucleus (with emphasis on ϕ production) [4463], with the aim of comparing a) the quark and gluon radii of the helium nucleus, b) GPDs of the bound proton and neutron with the free proton and quasi-free neutron.

While the most attention so far is on studies of GPD using spin (beam/target) observables and cross-sections in DVCS, also the Time-like Compton Scattering (TCS), the time-reversal symmetric process of DVCS where the incoming photon is real and the outgoing photon has large time-like virtuality, has much to offer. The first ever measurement of TCS on the proton $\gamma p \rightarrow p' \gamma^* (\gamma^* \rightarrow e^+ e^-)$ has been obtained with CLAS12 [2881]. Both the photon circular polarization and forward/backward asymmetries were measured. The comparison of the measured polarization asymmetries with model predictions points toward the interpretation of GPDs as universal functions. Figure 363 shows the photon polarization asymmetry $A_{\odot U}$ as a function of $-t$ at the averaged kinematic point $E_\gamma = 7.29 \pm 1.55$ GeV; $M = 1.80 \pm 0.26$ GeV, compared with GPDs based models.

14.1.4 Hadron spectroscopy

For the theoretical formalism and a general overview of hadron spectroscopy, the reader should refer to Sect. 8 of this volume.

This is an exciting period in hadron spectroscopy. The last two decades witnessed the discovery of many states that challenged the basic model of hadron physics according to which particles are made of $3q$ (baryons) or a $q\bar{q}$ (mesons), and pointed to states with multi-quark content, or with explicit gluonic components (glueballs and hybrids). Mapping states with explicit gluonic degrees of freedom in the light sector is a challenge.

One example is the π_1 state which has led to controversies. Experiments have reported two different hybrid candidates with spin-exotic signature, which couple separately to $\eta\pi$ and $\eta'\pi$, $\pi_1(1400)$ and $\pi_1(1600)$ (for a review see Ref. [2414]). This picture is not compatible with recent Lattice QCD estimates for hybrid states, nor with most phenomenological models. A recent work by the JPAC [4466] provides a robust extraction of a single exotic π_1 resonant pole, but no evidence for a second exotic state (see Grube's contribution, Sect. 8.3). The main goal of the GlueX experiment [4467,4468] in Hall D is to search for exotic mesons, and together with CLAS12 MesonEx experiment [4469] in Hall B, to provide a unique contribution to the landscape of experimental meson spectroscopy through the novel photoproduction mechanism previously relatively unexplored. Utilizing a real, linearly-polarized photon beam in GlueX and quasi-real, low- Q^2 photons in CLAS12, this program covers a wide range of beam energies from $E_\gamma = 3$ -12 GeV.

GlueX has already collected high-statistics, high-quality photoproduction data and published various results on photoproduction cross sections for several single pseudoscalar mesons including the π^0 , π^- , K^+ , η , η' over a broad range of momentum transfer [4470–4473], focused on a quantitative understanding of the meson photoproduction mechanism. Polarization observables, such as spin-density matrix elements, provide also valuable input for the theoretical description of the production mechanism, which is essential for the interpretation of possible exotic meson signals. Moreover, these studies require a complete understanding of the detector acceptance and efficiencies in fits to multi-dimensional data and therefore are essential for assessing the Partial Wave Analysis (PWA) machinery.

GlueX published the first measurement of spin density matrix elements of the $\Lambda(1520)$ in the energy range $E_\gamma = 8.2$ – 8.8 GeV [4474] and released preliminary results on spin-density matrix elements of the vector mesons $\rho(770)$, $\phi(1020)$ and $\omega(782)$ [4475]. The statistical precision of the final analysis with the full data set will surpass previous measurements by orders of magnitude. The search for hybrid mesons has started in GlueX by studying $\eta^{(\prime)}\pi$ final-states to

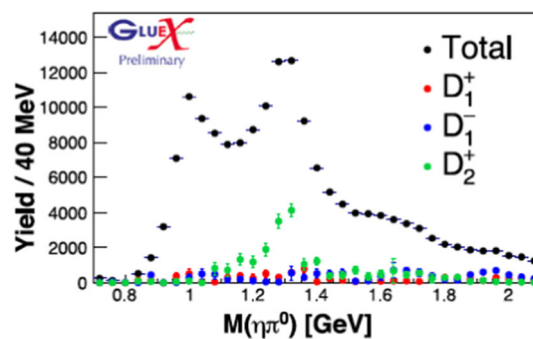


Fig. 364 Preliminary mass spectra and amplitude analysis results from GlueX for the reactions $\gamma p \rightarrow \eta^{(\prime)}\pi^0 p$, with $0.1 < -t < 0.3 \text{ GeV}^2$ and $8.2 < E_\gamma < 8.8 \text{ GeV}$

eventually confirm the π_1 pole position extracted by JPAC. With a large acceptance to both charged and neutral particles, GlueX has access to both neutral $\gamma p \rightarrow \eta^{(\prime)}\pi^0 p$ and charged $\gamma p \rightarrow \eta^{(\prime)}\pi^- \Delta^{++} p$ exchanges. Figure 364 shows preliminary results for the measured intensity of the dominant waves in the $\gamma p \rightarrow \eta^{(\prime)}\pi^0 p$ channel.

JLab at 12 GeV will continue the program to study the spectrum and structure of excited nucleon states, which in the last 15 years have provided critical input to global analyses to elucidate the N^* spectrum (see Refs. [2876,4476] for recent reviews). Detailed electrocouplings measurements through exclusive electroproduction study of both strange and non-strange final states, will be extended with the new CLAS12 detector and the upgraded energy beam which will significantly extend the kinematic range to $Q^2 > 5 \text{ GeV}^2$ [4477,4478]. The program comprises also the search of hybrid baryons with constituent gluonic excitations, for which a rich spectrum is predicted by Lattice QCD. Finally, many hyperon spectroscopy measurements are expected from the GlueX and CLAS12 measurements, including the Ξ and Ω [4479,4480]. This program will be expanded by proposal to perform hyperon spectroscopy with the K_L neutral kaon beam in Hall D, which was recently approved by the PAC [4481].

Over the past several years there has been a renewed interest in studying near-threshold J/ψ photoproduction as a tool to experimentally probe important properties of the nucleon target related to its mass and gluon content. Moreover, in the beam energy region of $E_\gamma = 9.4$ - 10.1 GeV, the $\gamma p \rightarrow J/\psi p$ process can be used to search, directly in a simple $2 \rightarrow 2$ body kinematics [4482–4485] for the pentaquark candidates, $P_c^+(4312)$, $P_c^+(4440)$, and $P_c^+(4457)$, reported by the LHCb experiment but still under debate [2885,2886]. JLab has an active J/ψ physics program. There are either published, ongoing, or planned future J/ψ experiments in each experimental hall. The first measurement was performed by GlueX [4486] and is shown in Fig. 365, with curves depicting the strength of hypothetical P_c signals. No

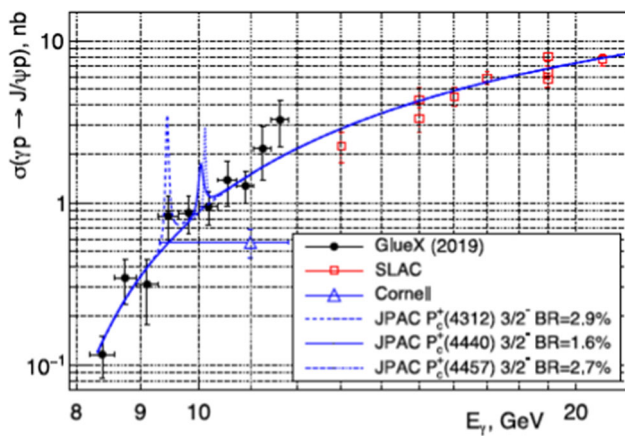


Fig. 365 GlueX results for the J/ψ total cross section vs beam energy, compared to the JPAC model with hypothetical branching ratios provided in the legend for P_c^+ with $J^P = 3/2^-$ as described in Ref. [4486]

structures are observed in the measured cross section, however model-dependent upper limits are set on the branching ratio of the possible $P_C \rightarrow J/\psi p$ decays. Preliminary results from the $J/\psi - 007$ experiment in Hall C also observe no P_C signal and will set more restrictive limits on the branching ratio [4487]. In Hall B analysis of data are ongoing [4488] and in Hall A an experiment has been approved to run with SoLID [4489].

14.1.5 QCD and nuclei

Nuclear interactions are described using effective models that are well constrained at typical internucleon distances in nuclei but not at shorter distances. The strong component of the nucleon–nucleon potential associated with hard, intermediate short-distance interactions between pairs of nucleons, called Short-Range Correlated (SRC) pairs, is a poorly understood parts of nuclear structure and generates a high-momentum tail to the nucleon momentum distribution. The existence and characteristics of SRC pairs are related to outstanding issues in particle, nuclear, and astrophysics, among which are the modification of the internal structure of nucleons bound in atomic nuclei (the EMC effect) [4490] and the nuclear symmetry energy governing neutron star properties [4491].

The studies of SRCs are a sizeable part of the JLab program that started already in the 6 GeV era. After the initial observation of identical structure in the high-momentum components of nuclei at SLAC [4492], electron-scattering measurements at JLab have identified the kinematic region where SRCs dominate [4493, 4494] and mapped out the contribution of SRCs in various light and heavy nuclei relative to the deuteron [1362, 4495]. Data demonstrated also that the contribution is sensitive to details of the nuclear struc-

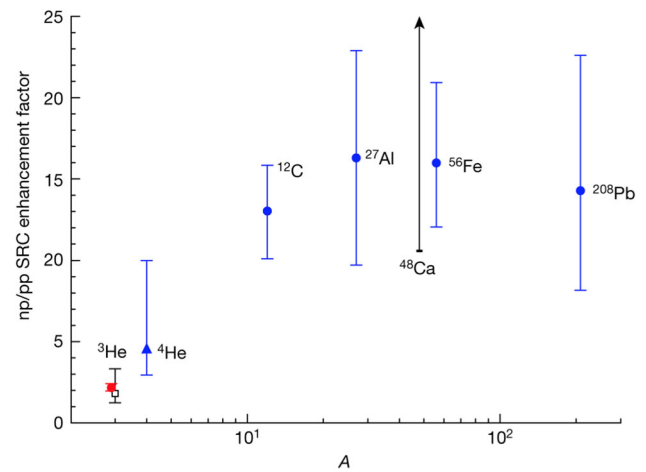


Fig. 366 Ratio of np-SRCs to pp-SRCs relative to the total number of np and pp pairs, for the new inclusive data (red circle), compared with previous measurements [4503].

ture [4496, 4497] rather than the previously assumed average nuclear density [4498]. In addition, they showed a clear correlation between the contribution of SRCs [1362] and the size of the EMC effect [4496]. To study the isospin dependence of the SRCs, measurements of two-nucleon knock-out were carried out. These experiments showed dominance of np -SRC pairs over pp and nn -SRC pairs by a factor of about 20 [1363, 4499, 4500]. The result was confirmed in measurements of quasi-elastic knock-out of protons and neutrons from medium and heavy nuclei [4501], and later through inclusive measurements of the $^{48}\text{Ca}/^{40}\text{Ca}$ cross section ratio [4502] taking advantage of the target isospin structure.

The first measurement using a novel technique to extract the np/pp ratio of SRCs taking advantage of the isospin structure of the mirror nuclei ^3H and ^3He was carried out in the 12 GeV era [4503]. The np/pp SRC ratio obtained is an order of magnitude more precise than previous experiments, and shows a dramatic deviation from the near-total np dominance observed in heavy nuclei (see Fig. 366). This result implies an unexpected structure in the high-momentum wave-function for ^3He and ^3H . Finally, measurements at $x > 2$ carried out with the 6 GeV beam, tried to establish the presence of three-nucleon SRCs [1362, 4504], but didn't come to a definitive conclusion. Experiment [4505] with the 11 GeV beam will provide the first significant test by taking high-statistics $A/^3\text{He}$ ratio data at $x > 2$ and $Q^2 = 3\text{GeV}^2$.

Determining the origin of the EMC effect, i.e. the modification of nuclear PDFs relative to the sum of the individual nucleon PDFs, is one of the major unsolved problems in the field of nuclear physics and is still a puzzle after 40 years. Measurement at Jlab at 6 GeV in light nuclei demonstrated the correlation between the size of the EMC effect and the contribution of SRCs [1362]. The JLab12 program addresses the three open questions of the EMC effect: (i) the isospin

dependence; (ii) the spin dependence; (iii) the configuration/distance dependence. The isospin dependence has been investigated with the already mentioned experiment using mirror nuclei [4503]. Polarization measurements can also help to understand the origin of the EMC effect [4506, 4507]. An 11 GeV experiment will measure the EMC effect in polarized ${}^7\text{Li}$ [4508] with the goal to distinguish between mean-field models with explanations based on SRCs. Tagging of recoil nuclei in deep inelastic reactions will be used in [4509] to address point (iii). This is a powerful technique to provide unique information about the nature of medium modifications, through the measurement of the EMC ratio and its dependence on the nucleon off-shellness.

There are several ways to study QCD in nuclei. One is through the hadronization process, a mechanism by which quarks struck in hard processes form the hadrons observed in the final state. This is a poorly known mechanism and more insight can be obtained by systematically studying production of different baryon and meson types using large and small nuclear systems, and observing the multi-variable dependence of observables, such as multiplicity ratios and transverse momentum broadening. These studies started with CLAS at 6 GeV [4510] and will continue with CLAS12 [4508].

Hadron propagation in the medium can also be studied by searching for color transparency, where the final (and/or initial) state interactions of hadrons with the nuclear medium must vanish for exclusive processes at high momentum transfers. Color transparency for pions [4511] and ρ mesons [4512] was observed at 6 GeV while the 11 GeV experiment [1331] ruled out color transparency in quasielastic ${}^{12}\text{C}(e, e'p)$ up to Q^2 of 14.2 GeV^2 . These results impose strict constraints on models of color transparency for protons.

Measurements on nuclei which are directly relevant for understanding aspects of astrophysics and neutrino physics are also part of the JLab program. One of the early experiments of the 12 GeV era was the measurements of inclusive quasi-elastic scattering and single proton knockout on ${}^{40}\text{Ar}$ [4513, 4514]. These data will allow for tests of $\nu - {}^{40}\text{Ar}$ scattering simulations needed for the DUNE experiment. Another experiment [4515] measured electron scattering from a variety of targets and different beam energies in CLAS12 in order to test neutrino event selection and energy reconstruction techniques and to benchmark neutrino event generators.

Thanks to the intense and highly polarized CEBAF electron beams, measurements of the parity-violating electron scattering asymmetry from ${}^{208}\text{Pb}$ and ${}^{48}\text{Ca}$ have demonstrated a new opportunity to measure the weak charge distribution and hence pin down the neutron radius in nuclei in a relatively clean and model-independent way. A precise measurement of the neutron radius, and hence of the neutron

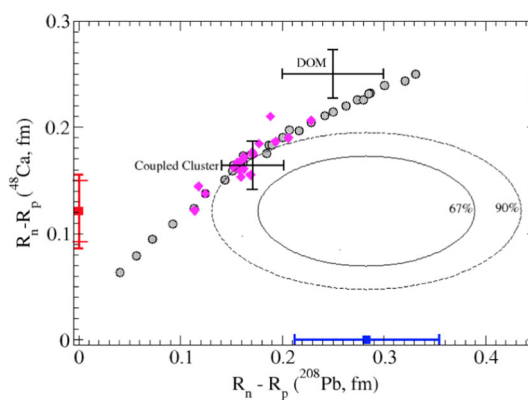


Fig. 367 ${}^{48}\text{Ca}$ neutron minus proton radius (red square) versus that for ${}^{208}\text{Pb}$ (blue square). The ellipses are joint PREX-II and CREX 67% and 90% probability contours. The gray circles (magenta diamonds) show a variety of relativistic (non-relativistic) density functionals (see Ref. [4517])

skin thickness, helps to constrain the density dependence of the symmetry energy of neutron rich nuclear matter, which has implications on neutron stars and supernova. The PREX-II experiment [4516] measured the “neutron skin thickness” of ${}^{208}\text{Pb}$ while CREX [4517] measured that of ${}^{48}\text{Ca}$. For CREX, the extracted neutron skin can be directly compared to microscopic calculations [4518] providing a bridge between medium nuclei ab initio calculations and heavy nuclei Density Functional Theory calculations. The extremely precise CREX measurement indicates a thin neutron skin around its nucleus, in contrast with the PREX measurement which revealed a thicker skin (see Fig. 367). This discrepancy is exciting and presents the opportunity for further exploration to determine why there’s such a big difference between the medium-density calcium nucleus and the high-density lead nucleus.

14.1.6 Future opportunities

With a fixed target program at the “luminosity frontier,” up to $10^{39}\text{ cm}^{-2}\text{ s}^{-1}$, and large acceptance detection systems, CEBAF will continue to offer unique opportunities to illuminate the nature of QCD and the origin of confinement for decades to come. In fact, CEBAF operates with several orders of magnitude higher in luminosity than the Electron-Ion Collider (EIC) and exciting scientific opportunities using CEBAF beyond the currently planned decade of experiments can provide very complementary capabilities, even in the era of EIC operations. A discovery science program utilizing CEBAF in the EIC era has been developing jointly between JLab and its user community towards exploring both the science and technical case for moving beyond 12 GeV. A series of upgrades to increase luminosity, enable positron beams, and double the energy of CEBAF is envisioned [4402].

- An increase in luminosity with modest detector upgrades will facilitate double DVCS (DDVCS) studies in experimental Halls A and B. DDVCS can bring significant additional information to the three dimensional imaging of the quark structure. This is a process with interaction rates a factor of 100 lower than DVCS. Therefore it is not viable at EIC and must be studied using CEBAF.
- Positron beams, both polarized and unpolarized, are identified as an essential ingredient for the hadronic physics program at JLab, and they are important tools for a precise understanding of the electromagnetic structure of the nucleon, in both the elastic and the deep-inelastic regimes. For instance by comparing the $e^+ - p$ and $e^- - p$ elastic scattering it would be possible to test the validity of the 1γ exchange approximation of the electromagnetic interaction. Proof of principle of a new concept for creating polarized positron beams at CEBAF has been demonstrated and a scientific program has been developed [4519].
- Encouraged by recent success of CBETA at Cornell, a proposal was formulated to increase the CEBAF energy from the present 12 GeV to 20–24 GeV by replacing the highest-energy arcs with Fixed Field Alternating Gradient (FFA) arcs but using the existing CEBAF SRF cavity system. The new pair of arcs would support simultaneous transport of 6 passes with energies spanning a factor of two. This exciting new technology, implemented with permanent magnets, would be a cost-effective method to double the energy of CEBAF, enabling new scientific opportunities in meson spectroscopy and extending the kinematic range of nucleon imaging studies. For instance, with an energy upgrade, JLab will be capable of providing unique and complementary information that could be decisive in understanding the nature of a subset of the XYZ states. Moreover, JLab will be able to do unique precise measurements of the photoproduction cross section of J/ψ and higher mass charmonium states, χ_c and $\psi(2S)$, near threshold. Combined with an increase of the polarization figure-of-merit by an order of magnitude, GlueX will be the only experiment to be able to measure the polarization observables that are critical to disentangle the reaction mechanism and draw conclusions about the mass properties of the proton. Technical studies of the implementation of FFA technology at CEBAF are in progress.

14.1.7 Conclusions

Jefferson Lab is a world-leading research laboratory for exploring the nature of matter in depth. Its powerful experimental program at 12 GeV will advance our understanding of the quark/gluon structure of hadronic matter, the nature of Quantum Chromodynamics, and the properties of a new

extended standard model of particle interactions. CEBAF at Jefferson Lab is a facility in high demand due to its unique capability to operate with a fixed target program at the “luminosity frontier” up to $10^{39} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$, with exciting scientific opportunities beyond the currently planned decade of experiments. Potential upgrades of CEBAF and their impact on scientific reach are being discussed, such as higher luminosity, the addition of polarized and unpolarized positron beams, and doubling the beam energy. They will keep CEBAF uniquely capable of a large number of important measurements in nuclear and hadronic physics.

14.2 The EIC program

Christian Weiss

The Electron-Ion Collider (EIC) at Brookhaven National Lab (BNL) is planned as a next-generation facility for high-energy ep/eA scattering experiments supporting basic research in hadronic/nuclear physics and QCD. The design combines the RHIC superconducting proton/ion accelerator ring with an electron storage ring in the same tunnel and an injector for on-energy injection of polarized bunches and enables collisions at one (possibly two) interaction points (see Fig. 368) [4520]. It provides ep collisions at CM energies $\sqrt{s} = 20\text{--}100 \text{ GeV}$, upgradable to 140 GeV, using various combinations of beam energies; for eA collisions with the same setup the CM energy per nucleon is lower by a factor $\sqrt{Z/A}$. It is projected to achieve peak luminosities in the range $\sim 10^{33}\text{--}10^{34} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ and deliver an integrated lifetime luminosity $\sim 10\text{--}100 \text{ fb}^{-1}$. It accelerates ion species including the proton (p), light ions (D, ^3He , others), and heavy ions (Au, U, others). Polarization is available for the electron and the light ion beams (p and ^3He) with an average ion polarization $\sim 70\%$. The EIC will be the first colliding beam facility delivering electron collisions with ion beams ($A > 1$), and with polarized proton/ion beams. Its luminosity will exceed that of the HERA ep collider by 100–1000. As such it will provide qualitatively new capabilities for physics research [3163].

The concept of a polarized electron-ion collider was inspired by the results of the fixed-target spin physics experiments (CERN, SLAC, DESY), the DESY HERA ep collider, and the BNL RHIC polarized pp and AA collider, and motivated by advances in theoretical concepts for hadron structure and high-energy QCD. The developments began with planning exercises in the 1990s and advanced through extensive community efforts (science studies, program development) [1293, 3186] and technical design work (accelerator, facility) at BNL, JLab, and other laboratories in the 2000s and 2010s. Important milestones were the recommendation in 2015 Nuclear Science Advisory Committee Long-Range Plan [4521] and the endorsement by a study of the U.S. National Academy of Sciences 2018 [4522]. The

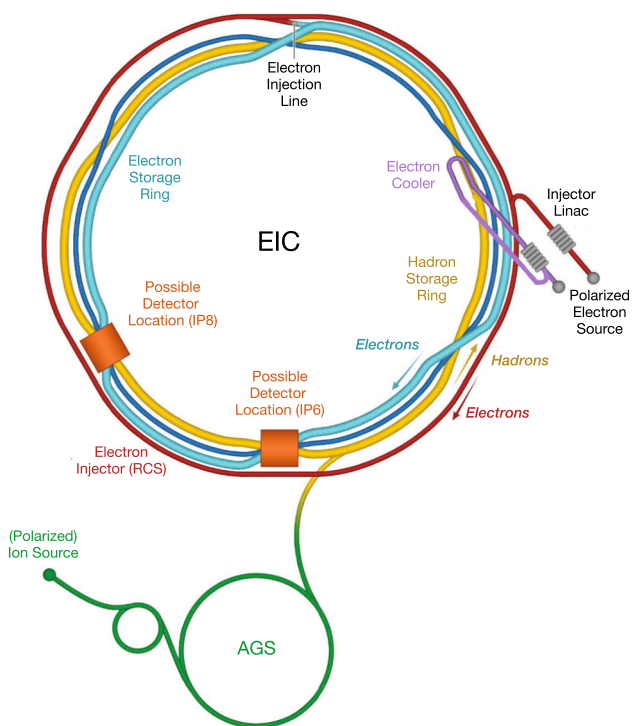


Fig. 368 Schematic of the EIC accelerator complex [3163,4520]

EIC was granted Critical Decision Zero (CD-0) by the U.S. Department of Energy in December 2019 and is now an official project of the U.S. Government. It is executed according to project management principles and passed CD-1 in 2021. Completion of construction and begin of operations are expected around 2034.

The EIC will enable a comprehensive science program aimed at understanding hadrons and nuclei as emergent phenomena of QCD. Scattering experiments will be performed at momentum transfers $Q^2 \sim 10^1\text{--}10^2 \text{ GeV}^2$, corresponding resolution scales where the quark and gluon degrees of freedom are manifest and methods of QCD factorization can be applied (see Fig. 369). The partonic content will be sampled at momentum fractions down to $x \sim 10^{-3}\text{--}10^{-4}$, where gluons and sea quarks are abundant and dominate hadron structure. The wide kinematic coverage will enable study of scale dependence and radiation processes building up the parton densities, which provide essential insight into the dynamics. The luminosity and detection systems will permit measurements of the final states of deep-inelastic processes in unprecedented detail (exclusive processes, semi-inclusive production, jets, nuclear breakup, diffraction, etc.) and enable analysis using modern theoretical concepts (GPDs, TMDs, jets).

The EIC science program is organized in four broad themes, defined by basic physics questions and concepts that are explored using various measurements:

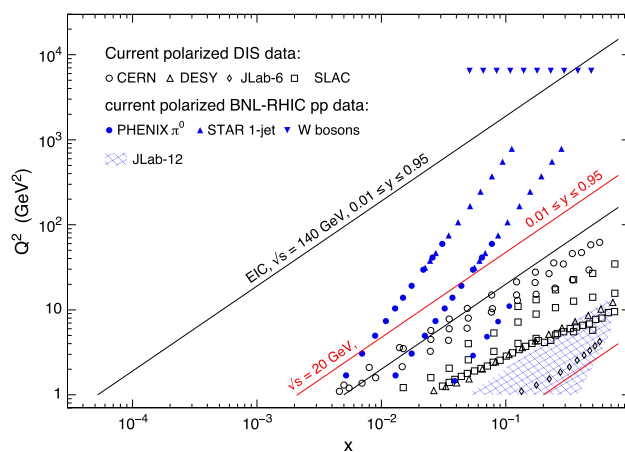


Fig. 369 Kinematic coverage in x and Q^2 in DIS experiments with the EIC at CM energies of 20 GeV and 140 GeV [3163]

- Global properties and partonic structure of hadrons
- Multi-dimensional imaging of hadrons and nuclei
- Nuclear high-energy scattering in QCD
- Emergence of hadrons from QCD

The boundaries between them are not strict, as some measurements serve to answer questions in more than one area. In the following we briefly summarize the objectives and main measurements in each of the themes; further information can be found in Refs. [1293,3163,3186].¹²¹ The program and its organization are still evolving; new topics are being discussed and proposed in response to developments in theory and detector design.

14.2.1 Global properties and partonic structure

One basic objective is to understand how the global properties of hadrons such as spin, mass, charges, and other characteristics emerge from the quark/gluon fields of QCD and their interactions (see Sect. 10.3). The quantities are expressed as matrix elements of QCD composite operators between hadronic states, $\langle h | \mathcal{O}_{\text{QCD}} | h \rangle$, some of which can be measured in deep-inelastic processes. For some quantities the operators have a partonic interpretation, and the matrix elements and can be expressed as integrals of the PDFs/GPDs (sum rules). For other quantities the operators involve interactions (higher twist), and the interpretation is more indirect. The EIC will advance this program through several measurements:

¹²¹ The literature supporting the concepts and measurements of the EIC physics program is very extensive. In this summary we refer to the other sections of the review article for concepts and previous results whenever possible; we refer directly to the literature for simulation and impact studies for the EIC, and for topics not covered elsewhere in the review.

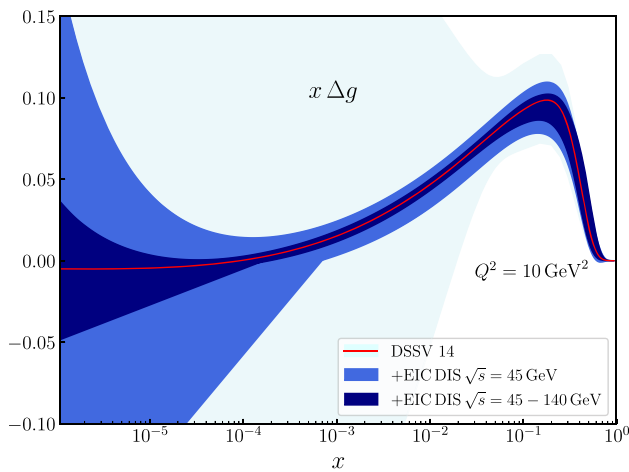


Fig. 370 Gluon spin PDF extracted from polarized inclusive DIS pseudodata at EIC [3131,3163]. Similar results are obtained in studies using other PDF parametrizations [3163]

Gluon polarization and nucleon spin

The quark and gluon contributions to the nucleon spin are expressed as the integrals of the quark and gluon spin PDFs, which are measured in various polarized scattering experiments (see Sect. 10.3). Despite much effort, the contributions to the spin sum rule are still poorly known. While fixed-target DIS measurements have determined the quark spin densities, and the RHIC spin program has provided evidence of nonzero gluon spin, the distributions are known with good precision only at $x \gtrsim 0.01$, so that the integrals suffer from large uncertainties (see Sect. 10.2). At EIC, measurements of inclusive polarized ep DIS will accurately determine the quark and gluon spin densities down to $x \gtrsim 10^{-4}$. The wide kinematic coverage will make it possible to determine the gluon spin density indirectly through DGLAP evolution (see Fig. 370) [3131,3163,3165]. Complementary information will come from direct measurements of the gluon spin density using dijets or heavy flavor production [4523]. The gluon and quark spin PDFs extracted in this way will permit accurate evaluation of quark and gluon spin contributions to the spin sum rule. The results will also constrain the possible contribution of quark/gluon orbital angular momentum to the nucleon spin (see Fig. 371).

Sea quark spin and flavor distributions

Equally important are the spin distributions of the sea quarks in the nucleon, which exhibit flavor dependence ($\Delta\bar{u} \neq \Delta\bar{d} \neq \Delta\bar{s}$, $\Delta s \neq \Delta\bar{s}$) and attest to flavor-dependent non-perturbative interactions with the valence quarks in the nucleon. Present results on the flavor dependence from fixed-target semi-inclusive DIS and the RHIC W^\pm production data show large uncertainties (see Sect. 10.2). EIC will determine the polarized sea quark distributions and their flavor dependence through polarized ep semi-inclusive DIS, taking advantage of large phase space for fragmentation (see

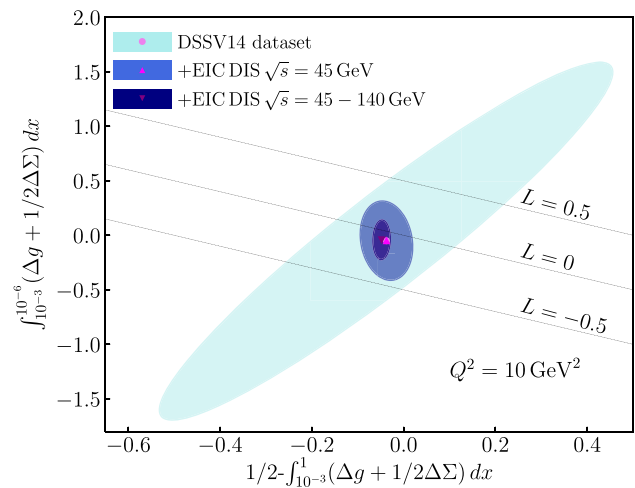


Fig. 371 Room left for potential orbital angular momentum contributions to the proton spin after determining the quark and gluon spin contributions at EIC [3131,3163]

Fig. 372) [3131,3163]. Complementary information will come from DIS on the neutron measured with polarized ^3He beams. The determination of the flavor structure of the polarized sea will also indirectly improve the extraction of the gluon spin distribution and the spin sum rule (separation of flavor singlet and non-singlet distributions). EIC will also enable novel studies of the flavor structure of the unpolarized sea using charged-current DIS.

Orbital angular momentum

The total angular momentum of quarks and gluons in the nucleon can be expressed through integrals of the GPDs (see Sect. 10.3). This representation provides alternative insight into the role of orbital angular momentum in the nucleon spin decomposition. The GPDs appear in the amplitudes of hard exclusive processes (deeply virtual Compton scattering or DVCS, meson production) and can be accessed experimentally in this way; see Refs. [3243–3245,4524] for a review. While the hard exclusive processes sample the GPDs in a restricted domain of variables that is not sufficient for evaluating the angular momentum sum rule, it is possible to establish a connection in the context of dynamical models of the GPDs, or a global analysis recruiting other data. EIC will advance this program through measurements of DVCS and meson production over a wide kinematic range; the same data will be used for the 3D spatial imaging (see below).

Energy–momentum tensor

Other global properties follow from the nucleon matrix elements of the QCD energy–momentum tensor and can be studied by using the connection with scattering processes. The D-term of the energy–momentum tensor, which expresses certain mechanical properties of the nucleon, appears as a subtraction constant in the dispersion relations for the DVCS amplitude and can be extracted from fits to DVCS data with

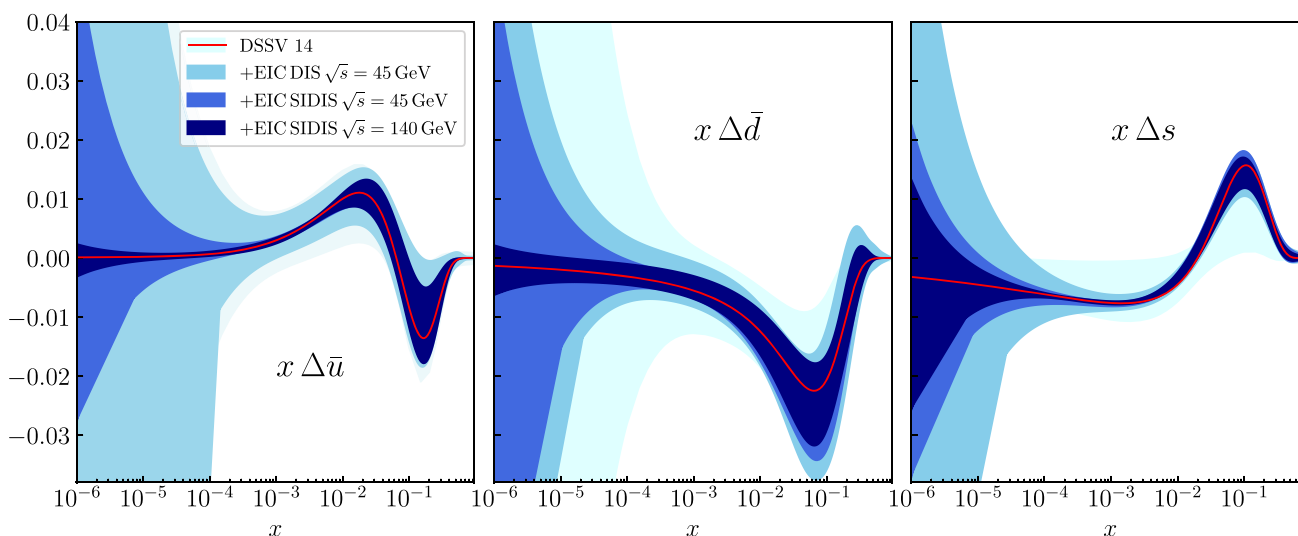


Fig. 372 Flavor decomposition of the polarized sea quark distributions in the proton with projected EIC SIDIS data [3131,3163]. Similar results are obtained in studies using other PDF parametrizations [3163]

minimal model dependence; see Refs. [2882,4525] for a review. EIC measurements will allow one to precisely determine the D-term, taking advantage of the wide energy coverage of the data in evaluating the dispersion integral.

The trace of the QCD energy–momentum tensor contains important information on the emergence of the nucleon mass from QCD; see Refs. [4526–4528] for recent discussion and review. The breaking of scale invariance through the UV divergences of QCD implies that the trace is proportional to the twist-4 gluonic operator $G_{\mu\nu}^2$ (trace anomaly). An interesting question is how much this effect contributes to nucleon mass. It has been suggested that the twist-4 gluonic operator could be accessed in exclusive photo/electroproduction of heavy quarkonia at near-threshold energies [4529–4531]; however, this connection relies on the questionable assumption of vector meson dominance [4532], and the mechanism of heavy quarkonium production near threshold is a matter of current research and discussion; see e.g. Refs. [4533–4536]. EIC will contribute to this program by measuring exclusive Υ production near threshold (measuring J/ψ production near threshold is very challenging with the high-energy collider) [3163,4537]. With a future theoretical framework, these data will constrain the gluonic structure of the nucleon at the higher-twist level and contribute to the understanding of the origin of its mass.

Pion and kaon structure

The spontaneous breaking of chiral symmetry in QCD generates most of the light hadron masses and governs the effective dynamics of strong interactions at low energies (see Sects. 6.2 and 6.3). The pion and kaon are the Goldstone bosons of chiral symmetry, and their quark/gluon structure provides insight into the microscopic mechanism of symme-

try breaking. The EIC will pursue a program of pion and kaon structure studies using exclusive scattering to measure the pion/kaon form factor, and peripheral deep-inelastic ep scattering to probe the pion/kaon partonic structure [3163,4538]. The extraction of pion/kaon structure from ep/eA scattering data requires theoretical methods that can be tested with the EIC data.

14.2.2 Multidimensional imaging of hadrons and nuclei

Another basic objective is to understand and visualize hadrons as extended systems in space. This can be accomplished using the concepts of GPDs (transverse coordinate space imaging) and TMDs (momentum space imaging), which provide a spatial representation consistent with the relativistic and quantum nature of the dynamics (see Sect. 10.4). Measurements at EIC will allow one to employ these concepts in regions where they are practically applicable and realize their full potential.

Transverse quark/gluon imaging of the nucleon

The transverse spatial distributions of quarks/gluons and their dependence on x represent the size and shape of the nucleon in QCD (see Sect. 10.4 and Refs. [3244,3245] for a review) and contain rich information about dynamics (parton diffusion, chiral dynamics). Exclusive J/ψ electro- and photo-production at EIC provides a clean probe of the gluon GPD and will determine transverse spatial distribution of gluons from the t -slope of the differential cross section (see Fig. 373) [1293,3163,3186]. DVCS offers direct access to the quark GPDs and their spin dependence, and provides indirect information on the gluon GPD through NLO effects and Q^2 evolution [3163,4539]. The combination of both will allow for an

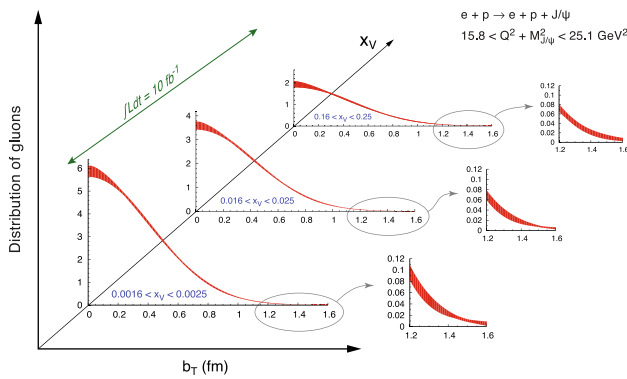


Fig. 373 Transverse spatial distribution of gluons in the nucleon determined from projected EIC exclusive J/ψ electroproduction data [1293,3163]

accurate determination of the quark and gluon GPDs, including validation of the factorized approximation and tests of the universality of the extracted structures. Essential capabilities for this program are the kinematic coverage (probing quarks/gluons down to $x \sim 10^{-3}$, Q^2 dependence in electroproduction), luminosity (differential measurements, e.g. t -dependence at fixed x and Q^2), far-forward proton detection (recoil, exclusivity), and beam polarization (polarization observables). The results can be synthesized in comprehensive transverse images of nucleon structure (see Sect. 10.4).

Transverse quark/gluon imaging of nuclei

The same concepts and measurements can be used to create images of nuclei ($A > 1$) in terms of quark/gluon degrees of freedom. Such studies provide new insight into nuclear structure (comparison of $q - \bar{q}$, $q + \bar{q}$, and g spatial distributions in the nucleus) and a new avenue for studying nuclear modifications of partonic structure (comparison of nucleus with non-interacting ensemble of nucleons) [4540–4546]. EIC measurements of coherent J/ψ [4547] and γ production on nuclei probe the nuclear GPDs, $\langle A' | \mathcal{O}_{\text{partonic}} | A \rangle$, and can be analyzed in the same way as measurements on the proton. The identification of coherent nuclear scattering events places strong demands on the far-forward detection system and is a matter of on-going development (active detection of recoiling nucleus for light nuclei; veto detection of breakup for heavy nuclei) [4548]. A new aspect of light nuclei is that they cover a variety of spins (Spin-1 D, Spin-1/2 ^3He , Spin-0 ^4He) and express it in the GPD structure and the transverse images.

Evolution of TMD distributions

The theoretical formulation of the transverse momentum dependence of partons has made substantial progress in the last decade (see Sect. 10.4). Factorization and renormalization predict a distinctive scale and rapidity dependence of the TMD distributions, generated by gluon radiation with Sudakov suppression, and described by the CSS evolution

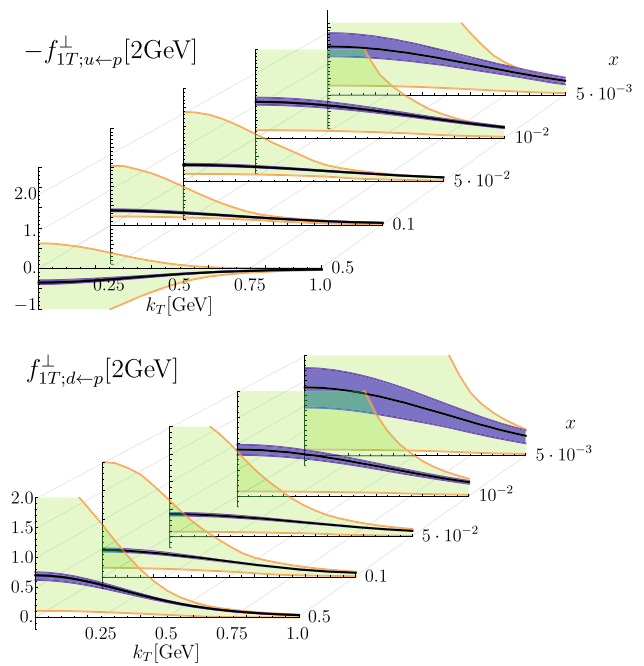


Fig. 374 Expected impact of EIC pseudodata on the determination of the u and d quark Sivers distribution [3163]. Green bands: Present uncertainties [3302]. Blue: Uncertainties when including EIC pseudodata [3163]

equations. The EIC will allow one to test these predictions in measurements of semi-inclusive hadron production $\gamma^* + N \rightarrow h + X$, $h = \pi, K, \dots$. The wide kinematic range accessible with EIC is essential for observing the logarithmic dependencies implied by the evolution equation and separating perturbative and nonperturbative dynamics (see Fig. 369). The results will provide crucial insight into the theory of CSS-type radiation and its applicability to DIS-type processes.

Spin-orbit correlations in TMD distributions

An interesting feature of the transverse momentum dependence of partons is that it is correlated with the nucleon and parton spin, giving rise to observable spin-orbit effects that provide insights into nucleon structure and color field dynamics (see Sect. 10.4). At EIC these effects can be studied in measurements of hadron production (semi-inclusive DIS, jets) with polarized electron and proton beams. Measurement of the Sivers and Collins asymmetries are possible with the transverse proton beam polarization readily available at collider (see Fig. 374) [3163]. The results will provide extensive information on orbital angular momentum, final state interactions, and the quark transversity distributions in nucleon.

14.2.3 Nuclear high-energy scattering in QCD

High-energy scattering on nuclei ($A > 1$) provides a wealth of information on the effective dynamics emerging from

QCD at various energy and distance scales. Depending on the kinematic regime, such processes reveal the QCD substructure of individual nucleon interactions (intermediate/large x) or coherent QCD phenomena involving the entire nucleus (small x). The EIC will realize the first electron–nucleus collisions in colliding beam experiments, combining the kinematic reach of colliding beams with the precision and control of electromagnetic scattering, and thus transform this field of study.

Nuclear quark/gluon densities

The nuclear PDFs describe the basic particle content of the nucleus in QCD degrees of freedom [4549–4552]. Comparison with the PDFs of an ensemble of non-interacting nucleons provides insight into nucleon interactions and coherent phenomena. Many aspects of the nuclear PDFs are still poorly known, esp. the nuclear gluons and the charge and flavor dependence of the nuclear quarks at $x \lesssim 0.1$. The EIC will determine the nuclear PDFs using inclusive DIS on a broad range of nuclei [3163,4553]. The nuclear gluon PDF will be determined indirectly through the Q^2 dependence of the nuclear DIS cross section (DGLAP evolution), using the wide kinematic coverage available with the collider. It will also be determined directly through measurements of heavy flavor production in nuclear DIS, taking advantage of the high production rates and next-generation reconstruction capabilities provided by the EIC. The results will establish whether the nuclear gluons are suppressed at $x > 0.3$ like the valence quarks (EMC effect), and whether they are enhanced at $x \sim 0.1$ (antishadowing) as suggested by theoretical arguments; both phenomena reveal aspects of the QCD substructure of nucleon interactions.

Shadowing and saturation

In high-energy scattering at $x \ll 0.1$ the coherence length of the process becomes larger than the size of the nucleus, and the high-energy probe interacts with all nucleons along its path. In this regime the gluons “seen” by the probe can no longer be attached to individual nucleons but represent a property of the whole nucleus, giving rise to striking new phenomena. Shadowing is the reduction of the leading-twist nuclear gluon density resulting from destructive interference of amplitudes with gluons attached to different nucleons; see Ref. [4556] for a review. Saturation is the appearance of a new dynamical scale in the form of the transverse density of gluons per area. It emerges from nonlinear QCD evolution equations including gluon recombination [4557–4562] and can be used as the basis of an effective field theory description of strong interactions at small x – the Color Glass Condensate [3334], leading to many interesting predictions; see Refs. [4563–4565] for reviews. Both phenomena are connected, as shadowing reduces the gluon density and modifies the expected $Q_{\text{sat}}^2 \sim A^{1/3}$ scaling of the saturation scale. Exploring these phenomena will be a prime task of the EIC.

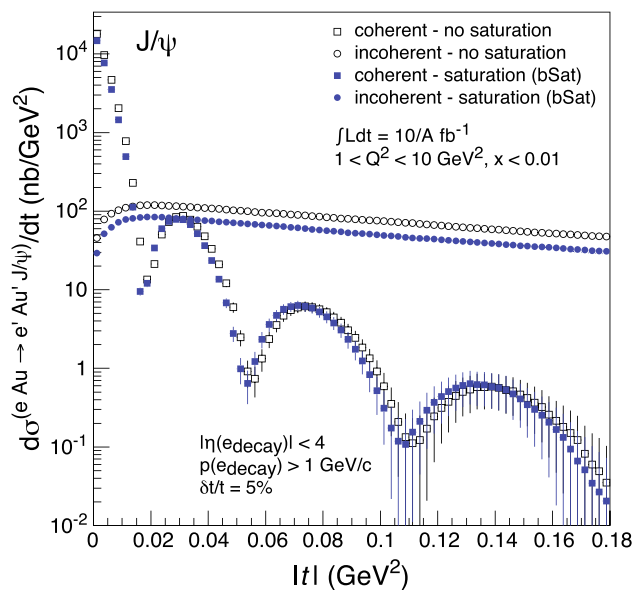


Fig. 375 Differential cross section of coherent and incoherent J/ψ production on a Au nucleus, as a function of the momentum transfer t [3163,4554,4555]. The diffraction pattern in coherent scattering is sensitive to the impact parameter dependence of shadowing and saturation effects in the nuclear gluon density

Basic information will come from the behavior of the nuclear gluon PDF at $x \ll 0.1$ [3163]. More detailed tests of the small- x gluon dynamics will be possible with dijet and dihadron production [3339,4566,4567]. Further insight can be gained from studies of diffractive scattering on nuclei. Measurements of coherent heavy vector meson production on nuclei probe the impact parameter dependence of the shadowing and/or saturation effects through the diffraction pattern in the momentum transfer $|t|$ (see Fig. 375) [3163,4554,4555]. Similar studies can be performed in measurements of coherent inclusive diffraction on nuclei [4568]. The EIC provides the necessary energy for diffractive scattering, and the ability to identify coherent processes through forward detection.

Nuclear breakup and spectator tagging

In high-energy scattering on light ions, detection of the nuclear breakup state provides information on the nuclear configuration present during the high-energy process [4570]. In the case of the deuteron, detection of the “spectator” proton identifies events with scattering on the neutron and fixes the relative momentum of the proton–neutron configuration. This can be used to select scattering in large-size nuclear configurations, where interactions are absent and the neutron is free [4571,4572], or small-size configurations, where the pn system strongly interacts and the partonic structure is modified (short-range nucleon–nucleon correlations) [4573]. The EIC will enable a program of high-energy scattering on the deuteron with proton or neutron spectator tagging. In the

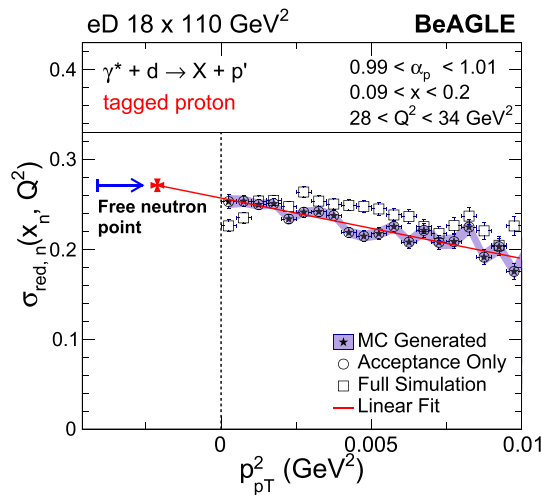


Fig. 376 Simulation of free neutron structure extraction through DIS on the deuteron with proton spectator tagging at EIC [4569]. The neutron reduced cross section is measured as a function of the spectator proton transverse momentum p_{pT}^2 and extrapolated to the “free neutron point” at $p_{pT}^2 < 0$, corresponding to pn configurations of infinite size

collider kinematics the spectator nucleon appears in the forward ion direction and is detected with far-forward detectors (magnetic spectrometer for protons, zero-degree calorimeter for neutrons) [3163]. The setup can be used to extract free neutron structure functions (see Fig. 376) [4569], study the configuration dependence of EMC effect, or explore short-range nucleon–nucleon correlations in deuteron breakup in diffractive scattering [4574].

14.2.4 Emergence of hadrons from QCD

Understanding hadronization – the emergence of hadrons from the energetic quarks/gluons produced in deep-inelastic processes – remains a major challenge of strong interaction physics. The hadronization process is “reciprocal” to the partonic structure of hadrons but much less understood theoretically, because it involves timelike momentum transfers and propagation over large distances, and methods based on imaginary-time (Euclidean) quantum field theory such as Lattice QCD are generally not applicable (see Sect. 4). Basic open questions are the time/distance scales of parton fragmentation and hadron formation; the role of non-perturbative dynamics (chiral symmetry breaking, vacuum fields; see Sect. 5.11), and the effects of the nuclear medium on the hadronization process. In addition to the scientific interest, these topics are of eminent practical importance for the development of event generators describing strong interaction dynamics in high-energy collisions (see Sect. 11.4).

Fragmentation functions

Basic information on the hadronization process is summarized in the quark/gluon fragmentation functions, describ-

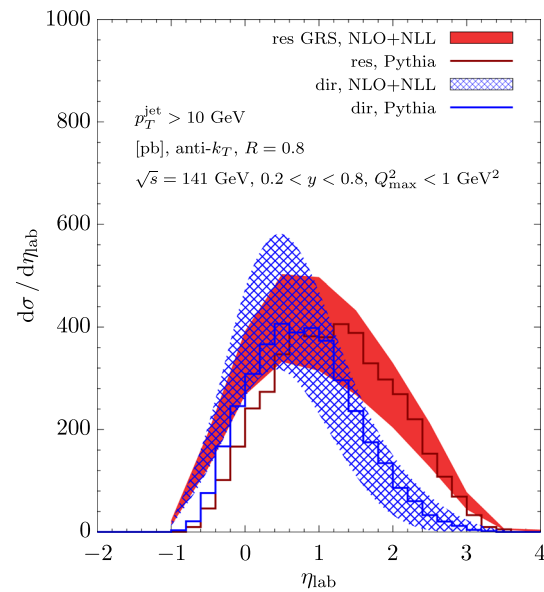


Fig. 377 Inclusive production cross section of jets in photoproduction at EIC, as a function of the pseudorapidity η in the laboratory frame (see Fig. 379) [3163,4583]

ing the probability for single-inclusive hadron production by an energetic color charge; see Ref. [4575] for a review. While much information on the fragmentation functions has been extracted from e^+e^- annihilation, pp collisions, and fixed-target semi-inclusive DIS experiments, several features remain poorly known, such as the quark charge dependence (so-called unfavored vs. favored fragmentation), strangeness fragmentation and kaon production, and gluon fragmentation [3123,4576–4578]. The EIC will determine the fragmentation functions from semi-inclusive DIS in ep and en scattering over a broad kinematic range [3163]. These measurements will be able to separate the quark charges in the initial state, extract the gluon through NLO effects, and study the Q^2 evolution of the fragmentation functions. The spin dependence of quark fragmentation will be investigated through measurements of Λ fragmentation [4579]. Precise knowledge of the fragmentation functions will in turn improve the extraction of the flavor dependence of the quark/antiquark spin PDFs from polarized semi-inclusive DIS data.

Dihadron correlations

More detailed information on the fragmentation process comes from measurements of hadron correlations, described by the theoretical framework of dihadron fragmentation functions [4580–4582]. The EIC will measure dihadron fragmentation functions in DIS and allow for the new theoretical concepts to be applied and tested. The kinematic coverage provided by the EIC will ensure that the picture of independent fragmentation remains applicable even in multi-hadron measurements.

Jets and heavy flavors

An alternative view of the hadronization process is obtained by applying the concepts of jet physics, where one defines a system of collinear partons according to quantitative observable criteria without reference to nonperturbative fragmentation functions (see Sects. 6.4, 11.5 and 12). These concepts and methods have been developed for $pp/p\bar{p}$ scattering at hadron colliders (LHC, Tevatron) but can be extended to ep scattering at EIC at lower energies. This extension opens up several new directions for studying the internal properties of jets and using them as a probe of partonic structure. In ep collisions where the scattered electron is detected, it defines the jet energy and scale, and the concepts for leading jets can be applied to the DIS current jet with known initial conditions, providing new possibilities to test the dynamics [4584–4586]. In addition, jet substructure can be investigated [4583]. Jets can also be studied in ep collisions where the scattered electron is not detected, or in γp collisions, where the jet transverse momentum serves as the hard scale (see Fig. 377 as an example). Particularly interesting are jets induced by heavy quarks, which remain stable under strong interactions and create distinct signals in the detector (D , B meson decays). The EIC will support this program through a comprehensive set of measurements of leading jets, jet substructure, heavy flavor jets, and studies of partonic structure and TMD distributions using jets [3163]. This is a rapidly evolving field, where new theoretical methods will become available until the EIC experiments are performed.

Target fragmentation

Equally interesting is the hadronization of the target remnant in DIS processes (target fragmentation). It can be regarded as the materialization of a nucleon with a “hole” in its color wave function (created by the removed parton) and provides information on baryon number transport, multiparton correlations [4587], hadronization dynamics, and spin–orbit effects. A framework for QCD analysis of target fragmentation is provided by the generalized factorization theorems [4022, 4588]. The EIC will enable a comprehensive program of nucleon target fragmentation studies, using the detectors in forward pseudorapidity region [3163]. Spin effects in target fragmentation can be studied using polarized proton beams and/or fragmentation into Λ baryons [4589]. Important advantages of the collider compared to fixed-target experiments are that there is no material surrounding the target, and that the fragments move forward with a finite fraction of the proton beam momentum.

Hadronization in medium

The hadronization studies described above can be extended from ep to eA scattering, to investigate the influence of the nuclear medium on the hadronization process. The medium effects depend essentially on the energy E_h of the pro-

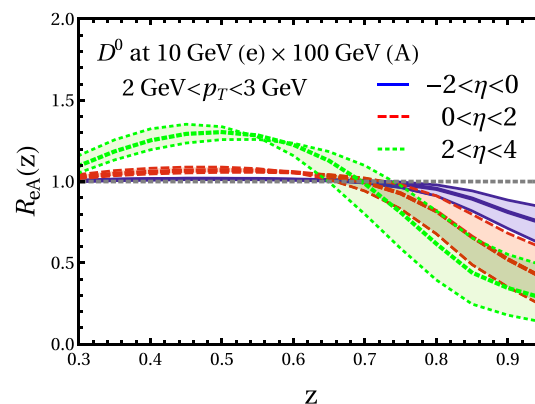


Fig. 378 Medium modification of the D^0 production cross section expected at EIC, as a function of z , in different regions of pseudorapidity η [3163, 4590]

duced hadron in the nuclear rest frame, usually expressed as a fraction $z = E_h/\nu$ of the virtual photon energy ν . The wide range of scattering energies available at EIC will allow one to move the fragmentation process “in” and “out” of the nucleus, enabling controlled and detailed studies of the medium effects. This will make it possible to test various hadronization models and determine the time/distance scale parameters. The study of nuclear final-state interactions will also improve the modeling of nuclear breakup in DIS processes, which in turn will help with the analysis of coherent nuclear scattering and spectator tagging. Particularly useful for the study of medium effects are heavy-quark probes (see Fig. 378 for an example) [4590, 4591].

Hadron spectroscopy

Hadron production in high-energy ep/eA scattering at EIC can also be used for spectroscopy, complementing experiments using pp and e^+e^- scattering. Exotic heavy quarkonium states (XYZ states, see Sects. 8.5 and 8.6) can be produced in exclusive photo/electroproduction processes $\gamma^* + p \rightarrow M + N$. The production rates and reconstruction efficiency with the EIC detector are presently under study [3163, 4592, 4593]. At EIC, new possibilities arise from measurements of the spin density matrix elements of heavy vector states, target polarization observables, and the Q^2 dependence in electroproduction. These unique capabilities of the EIC could be used as the focus shifts from spectroscopy to investigations of the structure of exotic states.

14.2.5 Detectors and collaboration

The EIC science program requires a general-purpose detector with large acceptance and high resolution to reconstruct the scattered electron and the multiple different hadronic final states over a wide range of rapidities and energies/momenta. The physics requirements and detector concept are described

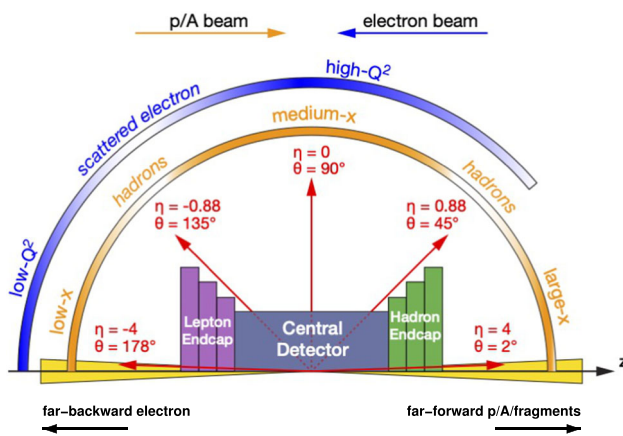


Fig. 379 Schematic of the EIC detector concept

in detail in the EIC Yellow Report [3163]. A schematic is shown in Fig. 379. The pseudorapidity region $-1 \lesssim \eta \lesssim 1$ is covered by the central “barrel” detector with a solenoidal magnetic field; the regions $-4 \lesssim \eta \lesssim -1$ and $1 \lesssim \eta \lesssim 4$ are covered by the “lepton endcap” and “hadron endcap” detectors; the detectors provide capabilities for tracking and vertex detection, electromagnetic and hadronic calorimetry, and particle identification. These systems capture the scattered electron and the final state produced by the struck parton in typical DIS events. The far-backward region (outgoing electron beam direction) is instrumented with a low- Q^2 electron tagger for photoproduction. The far-forward region (outgoing proton/ion beam direction) is equipped with an elaborate detection system for charged and neutral beam fragments, integrated in the interaction region, involving a magnetic dipole spectrometer with tracking detector for charged particles and a zero-degree calorimeter for neutral particles. This system provides essential capabilities for detecting far-forward protons and neutrons in exclusive/diffractive processes on the proton, spectator nucleons or nuclear fragments in scattering on nuclei, and coherent nuclear recoil. It presents a major challenge for design, integration, and engineering, and is critical for large part of the physics program. Further information on the EIC detector requirements and conceptual design can be found in Ref. [3163]. The technical design and formation of a detector collaboration are in progress. The addition of a second detector with complementary capabilities is planned as a future upgrade.

The EIC User Group is an international affiliation of scientists promoting scientific, technological, and educational efforts in the development of the EIC facility and science program. It presently has more than 1200 members from more than 250 institutions (laboratories, universities) worldwide. Resources and information about activities and events can be found on the webpages [4594].

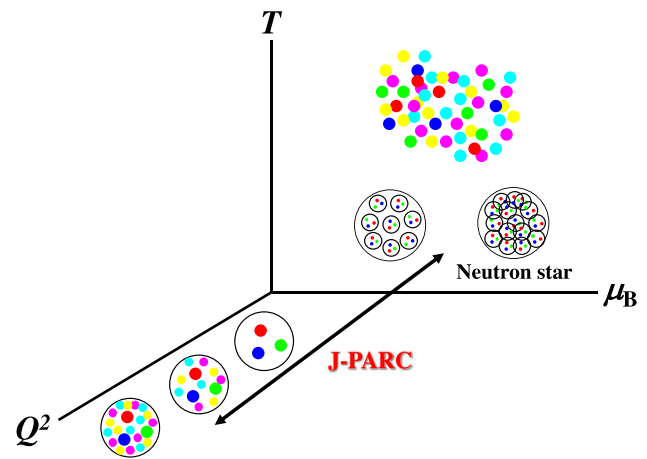


Fig. 380 QCD phase diagram and J-PARC hadron projects

14.3 J-PARC hadron physics

Shunzo Kumano

Hadron physics is the field to understand our visible universe, namely hadronic many-body systems from low to high densities, from low to high temperatures, and from low to high energies, in terms of fundamental particles of quarks and gluons and their interactions. With the significant developments of perturbative QCD during 50 years of QCD, asymptotic freedom and scaling violation are now basically understood. On the other hand, the nonperturbative region is still under investigations by phenomenological models and lattice QCD. One may note that at present lattice QCD cannot be applied to finite density systems, which makes it difficult to predict precisely hadronic and nuclear phenomena at low energies.

Although QCD is known as the correct theory of strong interactions, there are unexpected experimental discoveries of new hadronic and nuclear forms which were not predicted by theorists. Therefore, experimental projects are essential for a deeper understanding and for further developments of QCD beyond the 50-years history. The Japan Proton Accelerator Research Complex (J-PARC) as one of the flagship facilities in hadron physics should play a key role in hadron physics from the low to the medium-energy region, by supplying precise experimental information on new forms of matters, as illustrated in Fig. 380.

The J-PARC is located at Tokai in Japan. It is operated by both the High Energy Accelerator Research Organization (KEK) and the Japan Atomic Energy Agency (JAEA). J-PARC is responsible to coordinate the efforts of KEK and JAEA. KEK is in charge of nuclear and particle-physics projects by using the 30-GeV proton accelerator. J-PARC is a multi-purpose facility to investigate a wide range of scientific topics from life sciences to condensed-matter, nuclear, and particle physics [4595].

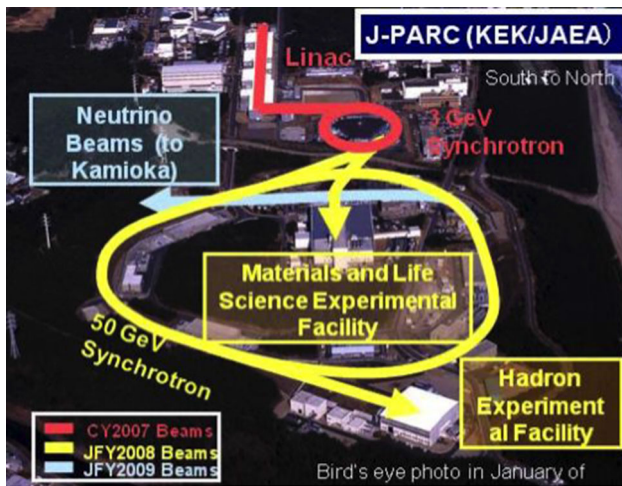


Fig. 381 Aerial view of J-PARC [4595]

The J-PARC accelerator consists of a 400-MeV linac as an injector, a 3-GeV rapid-cycling synchrotron (RCS), and the 30 GeV main-ring synchrotron. The RCS accelerates the protons up to 3 GeV as shown in Fig. 381. Its beam pulses are delivered mostly to the materials and life-science experimental facility, and a small portion is injected to the main ring. The protons are accelerated to 30 GeV in the main ring, and they are delivered to the neutrino experimental facility and the hadron experimental facility. The beam reached an energy of 30 GeV in 2008, its power was increased towards the design intensity of 0.75 MW. In the near future, we expect to have about 1 MW for the neutrino facility and about 100 kW for the hadron one [4595].

The J-PARC is the most intense accelerator above the multi-GeV energy region. Its aim is to investigate a wide range of nuclear and particle physics by using secondary beams of kaons, pions, antiprotons, neutrinos, and muons as well as the primary proton beam as shown in Fig. 382. There are particle physics experiments on neutrino oscillations, lepton-flavor violation, $g-2$, rare kaon decays, and the neutron electric-dipole moment to search for physics beyond the Standard Model. Since the purpose of this report is to discuss QCD-related topics, only the hadron-physics projects are explained.

14.3.1 J-PARC hadron facility

The layout of the J-PARC hadron facility is shown in Fig. 383 with the hall size of 60 m width and 56 m length. Nuclear and particle physics experiments are done by using the primary proton beam and secondary beams of pions, kaons, antiprotons, and muons. Unique points of this proton accelerator facility are (1) high intensity and (2) intermediate energy. The first point indicates the decisive advantage when secondary beams or the primary proton beam are used for precision experiments. Intermediate energies are important since low-

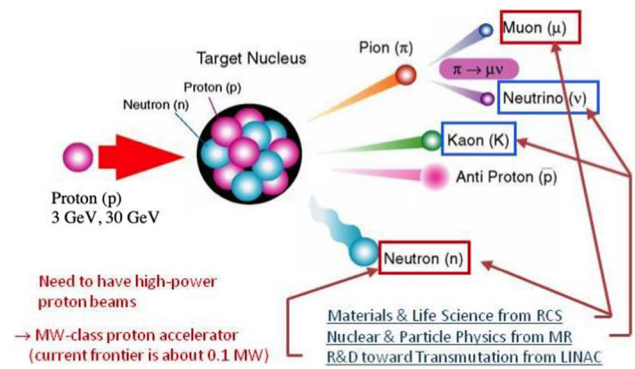


Fig. 382 Secondary beams at J-PARC [4595]

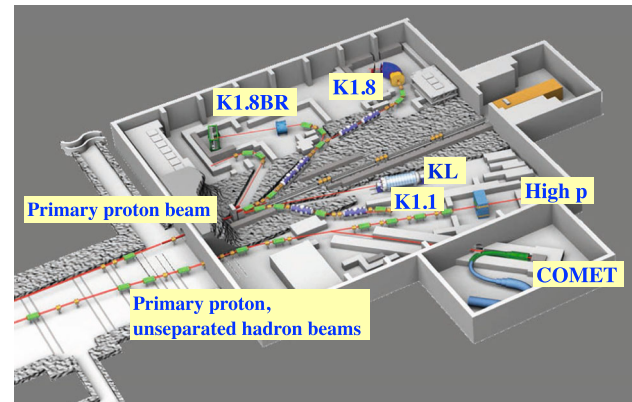


Fig. 383 J-PARC hadron hall

energy hadron projects can bridge the transition region from hadrons to quarks and gluons by variation of the momentum transfer in the QCD phase diagram, as illustrated in Fig. 380. The facility should be able to contribute to the development of QCD from the nonperturbative region to the transition region, then to the perturbative one.

Particle-physics experiments in the hadron hall are lepton-flavor violation (COMET) and rare kaon decays (KL). The COMET experiment uses muons from the decays of pions produced by 8 GeV proton collisions on a production target. COMET will search for the lepton-flavor violation process, the conversion of muons into electrons in the field of a nucleus, $\mu^- + A \rightarrow e^- + A$. The KOTO experiment uses the neutral-kaon beamline KL for measuring the frequency of the CP-violating decay $K_L^0 \rightarrow \pi^0 \nu \bar{\nu}$. These projects are intended to find a signature beyond the Standard Model in particle physics.

Hadron-physics experiments are done at the beamlines K1.8, K1.8BR, K1.1, and High p, see Fig. 383 [4596]. The K1.1 beamline is yet to be constructed. The K1.8 beamline supplies kaons with the momentum of about 1.8 GeV and is used to study hypernuclei, e.g. Ξ hypernuclei, by $(K^-, K^+) \Xi$ reactions. One may note that the cross section of $p(K^-, K^+) \Xi$ reaches a maximum at a momentum of 1.8 GeV. The K1.8BR is a branch line of K1.8 to supply

kaons with low momenta of 0.7–1.1 GeV. The cross section of the quasi-elastic reaction $K^- N \rightarrow \bar{K} N$ maximizes at 1 GeV momentum, so that this beamline is intended to study $\bar{K} N$ interactions and kaonic nuclei by (K^-, N) reactions with light nuclei.

The K1.1 beamline supplies kaons with momentum around 1.1 GeV for measurements of Λ hypernuclei. Because of the space interference between the K1.1 and high-p beamlines, K1.1 experiments will be done after the first stage of the high-p experiment. These strange nuclear physics projects are explained in Sect. 14.3.3.

The high-momentum beamline provides 30 GeV protons and unseparated hadrons up to 20 GeV. The beam of unseparated hadrons, to be prepared in the near future, consists mainly of pions. The first experiment in this beamline will measure hadron mass modifications in a nuclear medium to study chiral-symmetry breaking and hadron-mass generation (see Sect. 14.3.4).

Then, charmed baryon spectroscopy will be investigated by (π^-, D^{*-}) reactions. This experiment intends to find di-quark degrees of freedom, which are not easily found in hadrons consisting of light quarks only, as explained below in Sect. 14.3.5. The hadron tomography project will be performed together with this spectroscopy experiment by studying generalized parton distributions (GPDs) as discussed in Sect. 14.3.6. This experiment is set up to find the origin of hadron masses and spins by the tomography technique. In future, separated hadron beams could become possible; an extension plan of this hadron hall is discussed in the next subsection 14.3.2.

More details of each hadron project are explained in the following sections. The first major experiment will study the role of strangeness in nuclear physics. The next experiment is devoted to hadron mass modifications in the nuclear medium, and then the charmed-baryon project will start. The GPD tomography experiment is expected to join this baryon-spectroscopy project. The scope of the hadron physics projects at J-PARC is thus expanding in the near future.

Furthermore, there is a significant interest to build a new heavy-ion facility at J-PARC to investigate the phase diagram in the low-temperature and high-density region in contrast to the kinematical region of RHIC and LHC. There are interesting topics in cold and dense matters, such as the end point of the phase transition and color superconductor, as explained in Sect. 14.3.7.

When the hadron program will be completed, the heavy-ion facility will be built. This is expected in the 2030s. J-PARC will then become a leading hadron accelerator facility. It will investigate QCD in a wide kinematical region and for a wide range of topics, from strangeness in nuclear physics, charmed-baryon spectroscopy, nucleon structure at intermediate energies, and quark-hadron matter.

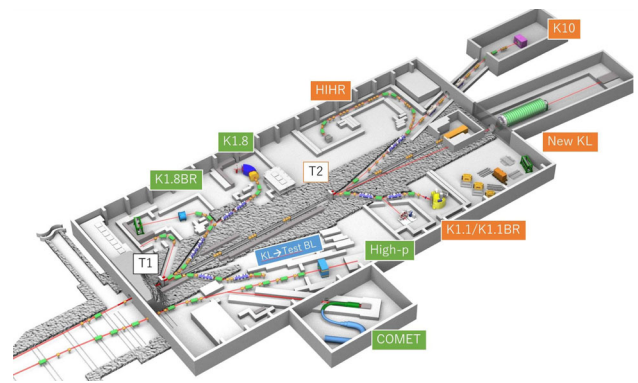


Fig. 384 Extension plan of the J-PARC hadron hall [4597]

14.3.2 Hadron-hall extension

The current hadron hall cannot accommodate enough projects in nuclear and particle physics. The experimental hall size and beamlines are much smaller than, for example, the BNL-AGS facility. The efficient way for utilizing the full ability of the J-PARC is to expand its space and to build additional beamlines.

This extension project, as shown in Fig. 384, was proposed together with the current hall [4597]. The area of the hall becomes twice larger to accommodate new experiments. A new production target T2 will be prepared. The beamlines with orange color are new ones in the extended hall. They are designed for the following topics.

1. HIHR
This HIHR (High Intensity High Resolution) beamline is intended for precision spectroscopy of Λ hypernuclei through (π^\pm, K^+) reactions by using high-intensity and high-resolution charged pions up to 2 GeV momentum with an excellent momentum resolution of 10^{-4} and a missing-mass resolution of a few hundred keV.
2. K10
This beamline will be used to investigate $S = -3$ strangeness physics and charm physics by using separated secondary hadron beams of high-momentum (2–10 GeV) charged kaons and anti-protons.
3. K1.1
This beamline will be prepared for physics with strangeness $S = -1$ using charged kaons with momenta of less than 1.2 GeV. The branch beamline K1.1BR is for the stopped kaon experiments.
4. KL2
The frequency of the kaon rare decay $K_L^0 \rightarrow \pi^0 \nu \bar{\nu}$ will be measured. It may provide a hint for New Physics beyond the Standard Model by using this high-intensity neutral kaon beamline.

This extension project was selected as one of top priority projects of KEK in 2022. After the financial approval, it will take 6 years for its construction. When it is realized, it will provide excellent opportunities for nuclear and particle physicists to create innovative fields with unprecedented precision. The following major physics purposes are presently considered for this extension project: (1) precise spectroscopy of hypernuclei to understand neutron stars, (2) novel aspects of charmed baryons, and (3) New Physics beyond the Standard Model. The details of the topics (1) and (2) are discussed in Sects. 14.3.3 and 14.3.5, respectively, along with past J-PARC experiments on hypernuclei.

Because the J-PARC is an intermediate-energy facility, the current scope of physics could be extended in future, for example, by including projects of high-energy QCD such as on nucleon structure, exotic hadrons by the constituent counting rule, and color transparency [4598]. Furthermore, if the heavy-ion accelerator will be built [4599], the unexplored cold and dense region of the QCD phase diagram will be investigated.

Here, we briefly summarize the major purposes related to the hadron-hall extension including possible future topics.

Establishing the role of strangeness in nuclear physics

The nuclear physics without strangeness has been established by precise information on the fundamental NN potentials from abundant experimental measurements on NN scatterings and deuteron properties, whereas the YN scattering information is in a poor situation. The J-PARC will supply precise data on the fundamental YN interactions and also properties of hypernuclei. We expect that spectroscopy of hypernuclei could become a precision field by the J-PARC experiments.

Applications to neutron stars

The existence of strangeness inside neutron stars would make their equations of state much softer. This is in conflict with astrophysical observations of neutron-star masses. By establishing strangeness nuclear physics, we expect that this issue will be solved.

Creation of a di-fermion field in hadron physics

The di-fermion physics has been investigated in quantum many-body systems, especially condensed-matter physics. In hadron physics, the color superconductor, for example, is investigated in such a context. The J-PARC intends to create a new di-fermion field by the spectroscopy of the charmed baryons.

Emergence of hadron masses and spins

Hadron masses and spins are fundamental physics quantities to constitute our visible universe. However, their origins are not understood easily from quark and gluon degrees of freedom. They should originate as emergent phenomena of non-trivial quark–gluon dynamics within hadrons. These should

be clarified by the J-PARC projects on hadron-mass modifications in nuclear medium and by hadron tomography via GPDs.

Understanding cold and dense QCD matters

From the RHIC and LHC, the high-temperature region of the QCD phase diagram has been investigated and evidence for quark–gluon-plasma formation was found. J-PARC will clarify the cold and dense region, where interesting phase properties, such as the end point of the phase transition and color superconductor, are theoretically expected.

14.3.3 Strangeness nuclear physics

Major properties of stable nuclei are now relatively well understood, whereas unstable nuclei are still under investigations especially in connection with the nucleosynthesis in astrophysics. One of the major purposes of the J-PARC hadron program is to investigate nuclei by including new flavor degrees of freedom, strangeness and charm [4596, 4597].

Under the flavor $SU(3)$ symmetry, nucleons and a part of hyperons constitute a flavor octet. Two-baryon interactions are decomposed into symmetric (under the exchange of baryons) states $27 \oplus 8 \oplus 1$ and antisymmetric ones $10 \oplus 10^* \oplus 8$ as

$$8 \otimes 8 = 27_S \oplus 10_A \oplus 10_A^* \oplus 8_S \oplus 8_A \oplus 1_S. \quad (14.1)$$

Nucleon–nucleon (NN) interactions provide information only on the 27_S and 10_A^* states. Therefore, hyperon interactions need to be investigated to understand the other terms and to find possible new hadronic many-body systems. These new interactions are relevant in neutron stars. This nuclear-physics project with strangeness has the following advantages [4600].

1. $SU(3)$ flavor symmetry and new interactions
The new interaction terms 10_A , 8_S , 8_A , and 1_S can be investigated by the hyperon (Y) interactions. In general, YN interactions are expected to be weaker than the NN ones, so that new forms of baryonic many-body systems should be created.
2. Probe of short-range interactions
Since the pion isospin is 1 and the Λ isospin is 0, the $\pi\Lambda\Lambda$ coupling constant vanishes. Because of its low mass, the pion contributes to the long-range part of the baryon interactions. Without the pion contribution, medium- and short-range baryon interactions should become more apparent when compared to the NN case.
3. Probe of QCD dynamics
The quark masses and the QCD scale parameter Λ are shown in Fig. 385. We notice that the strange-quark mass is of the order of the scale parameter. This fact suggests an

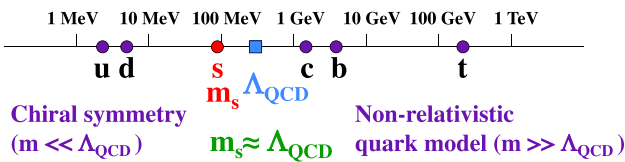


Fig. 385 Strangeness as a probe of QCD dynamics

advantage that the strange quark could be a good probe of QCD dynamics. However, it may also indicate difficulties for describing hadrons with strangeness.

4. New forms of hadronic matters
Ordinary nuclei consist mainly of up and down quarks. The interactions of hyperons or cascade particles with nucleons are still unexplored. With strangeness, new forms of nuclei should be created such as $\bar{K}NN$, and so on. Another important topic is the possible existence of a H dibaryon with isospin 0, spin 0, and strangeness -2 . It corresponds to the term 1_S in Eq. (14.1).

5. Probe of deep regions in nuclei
The Pauli exclusion plays an important role in nuclear physics. Although nuclei are strongly-interacting systems with nucleons close together, they are often described by a non-interacting Fermi gas model or an independent particle model. It is justified by solving the Bethe–Goldstone equation. Hyperons do not suffer from such an exclusion effect, which indicates the advantage of probing deep regions of nuclei, as the shell structure should become obvious as visualized in Fig. 386 [4597,4601].

6. Equation of state for neutron stars
Neutron-star physics has significantly developed recently due to new astrophysical experiments and observations of gravitational waves. In the inner high-density region of the neutron stars, the reactions $p + e^- \rightarrow \Lambda + \nu_e$ and $n + e^- \rightarrow \Sigma^- + \nu_e$ could occur because the changes of the Fermi energies of neutrons, protons, and electrons exceed the mass gap of the reactions. The equation of state of neutron stars should be significantly softened by the possible existence of hyperons, which contradicts the neutron-star observations. The appearance of hyperons in the neutron stars is affected by the details of hyperon interactions, which are investigated at J-PARC.

We introduce some of the major experimental results on strangeness in nuclear physics from J-PARC.

Charge symmetry breaking

Charge symmetry is taken as granted as a good symmetry for ordinary nuclei as typically shown in mirror nuclei with exchange of a proton and a neutron. For example, the binding energy difference between ${}^3\text{He}$ and ${}^3\text{H}$ is merely 0.07 MeV after removing QED effects. However, a significant breaking was found by the E13 experiment at J-

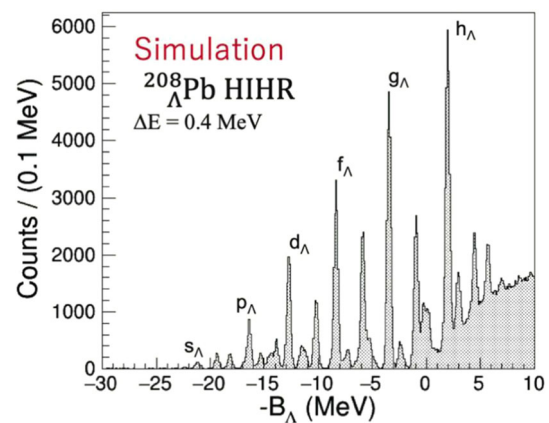


Fig. 386 Simulation for the Λ binding energy spectra of ${}^{208}_{\Lambda}\text{Pb}$ for the hadron-extension program [4601]

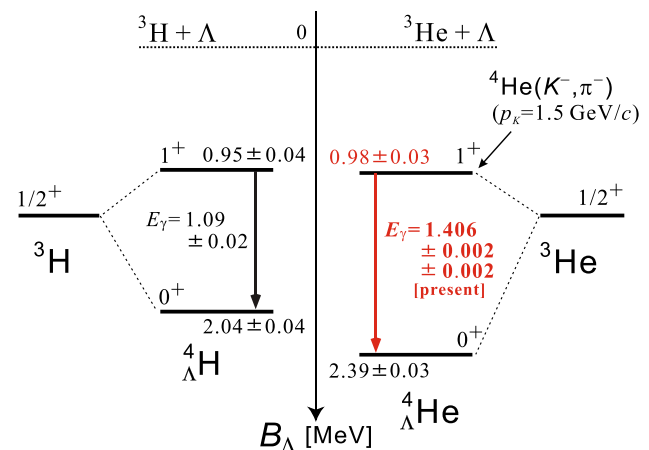
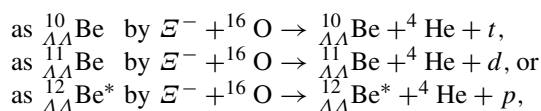


Fig. 387 ${}^4_{\Lambda}\text{He}$ and ${}^4_{\Lambda}\text{H}$ spectra [4602]. (Used with the copyright permission of American Physical Society)

PARC. The 1^+ excited state of ${}^4_{\Lambda}\text{He}$ was produced in the ${}^4\text{He}(K^-, \pi^-){}^4_{\Lambda}\text{He}$ reaction with a 1.5 GeV K^- beam. Then, by a measurement of the γ rays for the $1^+ \rightarrow 0^+$ transition, a $(1.406 \pm 0.002 \pm 0.002)$ MeV energy spacing was found. With other measurements, the spectra of ${}^4_{\Lambda}\text{He}$ and ${}^4_{\Lambda}\text{H}$ are compared in Fig. 387 [4602]. The binding energy difference between ${}^4_{\Lambda}\text{He}$ and ${}^4_{\Lambda}\text{H}$ was (0.35 ± 0.05) MeV, which indicates a significant charge-symmetry breaking in hypernuclei. It provided a valuable information on the nature of ΛN interactions which are different from the NN ones. Theoretically, the breaking is considered to come from $\Lambda - \Sigma^0$ mixing.

Double Λ hypernuclei

One of the major purposes of J-PARC program on hypernuclei is to investigate strangeness -2 systems. The J-PARC-E07 experiment was done at the K1.8 beamline with the K^- beam of 1.8 GeV. By using nuclear emulsions tagged by the (K^-, K^+) reaction, the double- Λ hypernucleus ${}_{\Lambda\Lambda}\text{Be}$ was found [4603]. It is produced

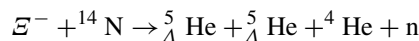


and the binding energy of two Λ hyperons is (15.05 ± 0.11) MeV, (19.07 ± 0.11) MeV, or (13.68 ± 0.11) MeV, respectively. This result improves our understanding of the $\Lambda\Lambda$ interaction and double-strange hypernuclei.

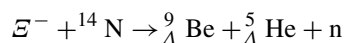
Ξ hypernuclei

The J-PARC-E07 collaboration used the 1.81 GeV K^- beam for observing the reaction $\Xi^- + {}^{14}\text{N} \rightarrow {}_{\Lambda}^{10}\text{Be} + {}_{\Lambda}^5\text{He}$. From the measurements, the Ξ^- binding energy in the $\Xi^- - {}^{14}\text{N}$ system was determined to (1.27 ± 0.21) MeV [4604]. From the experimental data and theoretical calculations, the energy level of the Ξ^- is interpreted as $1p$ state; the $\Xi N - \Lambda\Lambda$ coupling must be weak.

Next, Ξ^- capture was studied in the $\Xi^- - {}^{14}\text{N}$ system. Two events were found by analyzing KEK-E373 and J-PARC-E07 data signaling deep Ξ^- bound states [4605]. One event from the reaction



yields a binding energy in the ${}^{14}\text{N}$ nucleus of $B_{\Xi^-} = (6.27 \pm 0.27)$ MeV. The other event in



yields B_{Ξ^-} given by either (8.00 ± 0.77) MeV or by (4.96 ± 0.77) MeV, depending on the final-state ${}^9\text{Be}$ nucleus which can be in the ground or an excited state. These binding energies are larger than the preceding value 1.27 MeV; likely, these events come from the $1s$ state of the Ξ hypernucleus ${}^{15}_{\Xi}\text{C}$.

Kaonic nuclei

Kaonic nuclei are new forms of hadronic many-body systems with strangeness. Since $\Lambda(1405)$ can be considered as a $\bar{K}N$ molecule state, a few nucleon systems with a kaon should exist as bound states. The J-PARC-E15 collaboration used the K1.8BR beamline for measuring the reaction $K^- + {}^3\text{He} \rightarrow \Lambda + p + n$ with a kaon momentum of 1 GeV. In the Λp invariant mass spectrum, a clear peak was observed. It indicates a kaonic $\bar{K}NN$ nucleus with a binding energy $B_K = (42 \pm 3(\text{stat.})_{-4}^{+3}(\text{syst.}))$ MeV and the decay width $\Gamma_K = (100 \pm 7(\text{stat.})_{-9}^{+10}(\text{syst.}))$ MeV [4606]. The current situation is shown in Fig. 388 for energies and widths of possible $K^- pp$ bound states. The experimental data are shown with the collaboration names, and the other points are theoretical calculations. As it is obvious, the world data do not agree with each other and they are also different from the theoretical results, so that further J-PARC experiments are needed for clarifying the situation.

The J-PARC-E62 collaboration used the K^- beam with 900 MeV momentum at the K1.8BR beamline. The negative

kaons were stopped in a liquid-helium target [4607]. They obtained the energies and widths of the $3d \rightarrow 2p$ transition X-rays of kaonic ${}^3\text{He}$ and ${}^4\text{He}$ atoms with 10 times higher accuracy than previous data. On the other hand, using the K^- beam with the momentum 1.8 GeV at the K1.8 beamline, the J-PARC-E05 collaboration measured the missing-mass spectrum of ${}^{12}\text{C}(K^-, p)$ and observed a quasi-elastic peak from $K^- p \rightarrow K^- p$ [4608]. Then, they extracted differential cross sections of the $K^- p$ elastic scattering. These experimental measurements impose a constraint on theoretical models of kaonic nuclei.

$\Sigma^\pm p$ scattering cross sections

Good data were not available for hyperon-nucleon and hyperon-hyperon scattering. So far, these interactions had been investigated mainly within hypernuclear models. This approach makes it difficult to establish hypernuclear physics as a precision field on the same level as the NN -interaction and ordinary nuclear physics. Furthermore, hyperon interactions are also essential for applications to neutron stars. Now, the situation is changing due to new results on Σp scattering data from J-PARC.

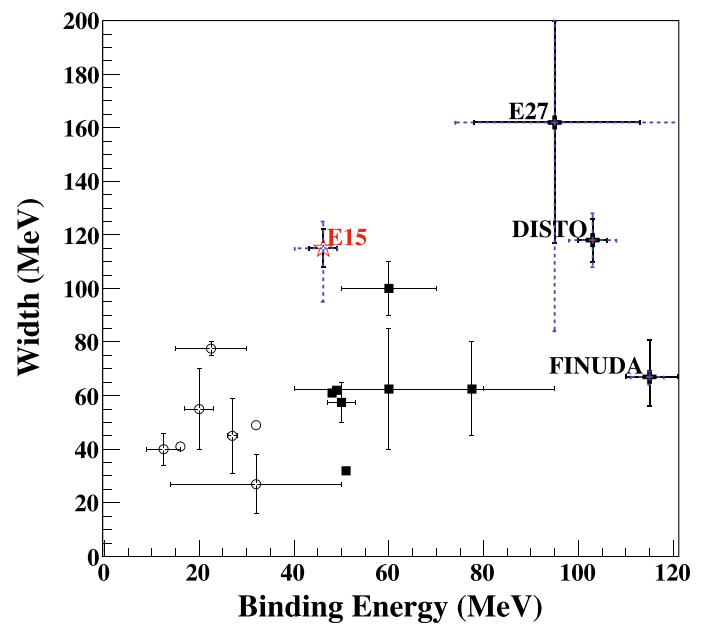
First, $\Sigma^- p$ elastic scattering data were reported for a Σ^- momentum range from 470 to 850 MeV by the J-PARC-E40 collaboration [4609]. A π^- beam in the K.18 beamline with a momentum of 1.33 GeV impinged on liquid hydrogen target, where Σ^- particles were produced in the reaction $\pi^- p \rightarrow K^+ \Sigma^-$. 4500 events were identified and differential cross sections for $\Sigma^- p$ elastic scattering were determined. Second, this collaboration reported differential cross sections of $\Sigma^- p \rightarrow \Lambda n$ in the Σ^- momentum range from 470 to 650 MeV [4610]. About 100 events were identified and angular distributions were obtained for the first time. Third, differential cross sections were measured for the $\Sigma^+ p$ elastic scattering in the momentum range from 0.44 to 0.80 GeV [4611]. The π^+ beam with the momentum 1.41 GeV was used to produce Σ^+ in the reaction $\pi^+ p \rightarrow K^+ \Sigma^+$. About 2400 $\Sigma^+ p$ elastic scattering events were identified, and the 3S_1 and 1P_1 phase shifts were obtained from the precise data for the first time.

These data are valuable for building the full baryon-baryon interactions of the SU(3) multiplets, see Eq. (14.1). With such experimental information, the Nijmegen-type baryon models should become much accurate and lead to a better understanding of hadronic and nuclear many-body systems and neutron stars.

14.3.4 Hadrons in nuclear medium

Hadron masses in nuclear medium will be measured by using the primary protons of 30 GeV at the high-momentum beamline as the J-PARC-E16 experiment [4612]. This project is intended to investigate the role of chiral symmetry in hadron

Fig. 388 Situation for the $K^- pp$ -bound state. [4596]. (Used with the permission of the Elsevier Science.)



properties. The study is thus related to a clarification of the origin of hadron masses. The discovery of the Higgs particle clarified the origin of the masses of quarks and leptons. However, this does not imply that masses of our nature, for example, the nucleon mass, are understood. The “god” particle cannot create the hadron masses.

Since the nucleon mass is defined by the matrix element of $\int d^3x T^{00}(x)$, where $T^{\mu\nu}$ is the energy–momentum tensor, it is decomposed into four terms [4613]:

$$M = \text{quark energy} + \text{gluon energy} + \text{quark mass} + \text{trace anomaly}. \tag{14.2}$$

Current masses of up- and down-quarks are very small, so their simple summation is much smaller than the nucleon mass. To understand the origin of hadron masses, it is necessary to clarify the complicated emergence of mass from confined quarks and gluons. The clarification of this mass emergence is one of top priority projects for building electron colliders for physics in 2030s [3163,4614]. In the mass decomposition of Eq. (14.2), the trace anomaly term and the gluon condensate could play an important role in hadron masses. These will be investigated by the J/ψ production process at charged-lepton accelerator facilities, such as the JLab, CERN-AMBER, and EICs. On the other hand, this topic has already been investigated by spacelike GPDs at JLab and CERN-COMPASS and also by timelike GPDs at KEKB. In fact, gravitational form factors of a hadron were already extracted from actual experimental data [4615]. This E16 experiment is intimately related to these world projects.

The original idea for generating the hadron masses is to use chiral-symmetry breaking. It gives rise to a nonvanishing $(\bar{q}q)$ condensate [4616,4617], which is called scalar

quark condensate. It plays a role of an order parameter for the chiral phase transition. It cannot be directly measured in experiments, so that we have to rely on actual observables. One of such quantities are vector-meson masses in a nuclear medium, they will be measured by the E16 experiment. There are theoretical estimates on their mass modifications from the partial restoration of chiral symmetry inside the nuclear medium [4616,4617].

As for the experimental side, there were already measurements on the masses of vector mesons. For example, the KES-PS with the primary 12-GeV proton beam provided data on the processes $p + A \rightarrow V + X$ ($V = \rho, \omega, \phi \rightarrow e^+e^-$) [4618,4619]. They indicated 9% mass shifts for ω (ρ) and 3% for ϕ -mesons, respectively. From a comparison of theoretical models with the mass-modification data, one can find that the quark condensate provides an important clue for mass generation.

Precise measurements are expected for these mass modifications from the E16 experiment at J-PARC. The first physics run will be taken with C and Cu targets with limited detector acceptance, and then more measurements will be done with the H and Pb targets and full detector acceptance. The expected outcome for the ϕ meson spectrum from the reaction $p + A \rightarrow \phi + X$ for the first run with a copper target and 30 GeV protons was simulated using GEANT4, see Fig. 389 [4620]. The momentum distribution of the ϕ meson was evaluated by using the code JAM (Jet AA Microscopic transport model) [4621], and the mass-modification parameter deduced by KEK-E325 [4619] was used. The figure is shown for slowly moving ϕ mesons ($\beta\gamma < 1.25$), the mass resolution is expected as 5.8 MeV. In this slow- ϕ case, nuclear medium effects are large and the spectrum is modified significantly as shown in Fig. 389. The difference between the sim-

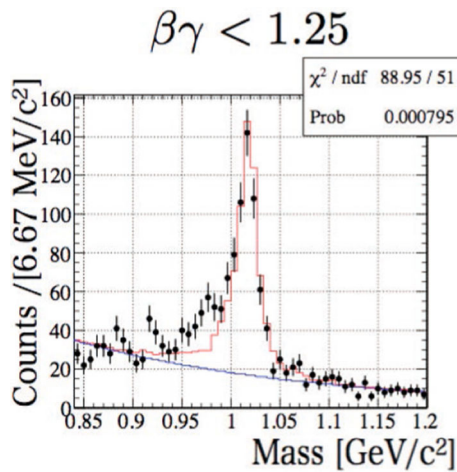


Fig. 389 Expected ϕ meson spectrum with the copper target by the J-PARC-E16 experiment [4620]

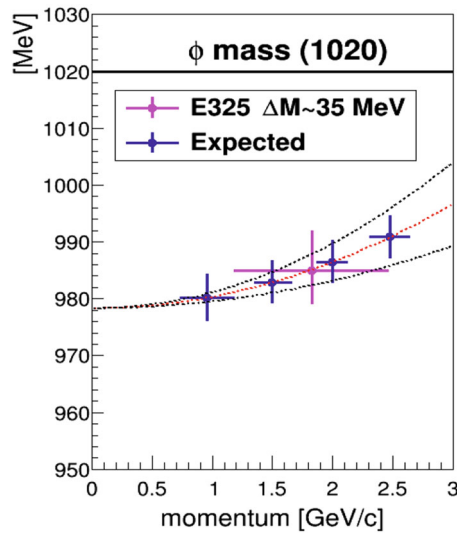


Fig. 390 Expected ϕ -mass data by the J-PARC-E16 and the KEK-E325 one [4620]

ulated data and the red spectrum should come from nuclear medium effects. As the ϕ velocity becomes larger, the spectrum modification becomes smaller. From these simulated data, the mass of ϕ -meson at rest in a nuclear medium can be deduced. In Fig. 390, the mass is extracted by using a theoretical dispersion relation. The KEK-E325 data is shown for comparison. The KEK data was taken at only one point and the errors are large. We notice that the J-PARC data are much more accurate even at the first stage and that four data points will enable us to extrapolate the momentum dependence for determining the ϕ mass at zero momentum.

To relate the actual experimental data of E16 to the quark condensate, it is important to understand hadron interactions in nuclear medium because the ϕ meson is produced with the momentum 1–2.5 GeV/c and it decays into e^+e^- outside or

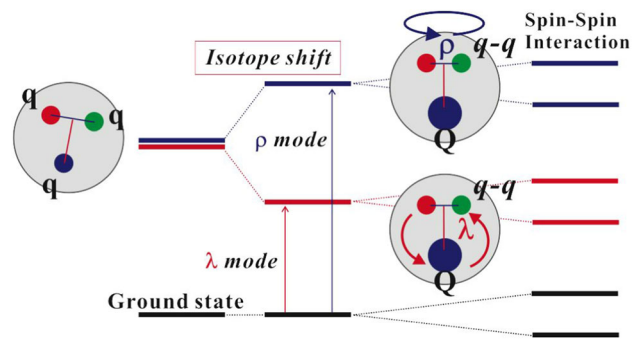


Fig. 391 Expected excitations of $N^*(qqq)$ and $Y_c^*(qqQ)$ [4623]

inside of the nucleus. Such an effort to describe the momentum dependence is in progress by transport simulations by using the Hadron-String Dynamics model [4622], where ϕ -meson spectral function and their density dependence can be specified. Therefore, new J-PARC data should provide a clue in understanding the role of chiral symmetry breaking for the hadron masses.

14.3.5 Hadron spectroscopy

Hadron spectroscopy entered into the new era in the last decade in the sense that there have been many reports on exotic hadron candidates. Exotic hadrons were expected already when the quark model was proposed in 1964. The status of exotic mesons with quantum numbers not accessible within the quark model is reported in Sect. 8.3. In heavy-quark spectroscopy, a large number of states, both mesons (see Sects. 8.5, 8.6) and baryons (see Sect. 9.4) have been found with unusual properties. However, it is often not easy to distinguish so-called cryptoexotic hadrons, i.e. hadrons with quantum numbers compatible with regular hadrons, from ordinary ones because they may have similar masses. Examples are $f_0(980)$, $a_0(980)$ and $\Lambda(1405)$ in the 1 GeV mass region. It took rather a long time to accumulate signatures from various observables for their tetra- or penta-quark-like (or hadron molecular) nature.

In these days, exotic-hadron studies tend to focus on the heavy-quark sector due to KEKB and LHCb discoveries on exotic hadron candidates with charm and bottom quarks (see Sect. 9.4). Since charmed baryons will be copiously produced at J-PARC, it is a good opportunity to investigate details of charmed baryon spectroscopy including exotic candidates. At J-PARC, charmed baryons consist of two light quarks and one heavy quark. These will be investigated by the E50 collaboration. Due to the existence of a heavy quark within a baryon, there are specific interactions and internal configurations, which do not exist in baryons with only light quarks. In the extended hadron hall, Ξ and Ω excitation spectra will be

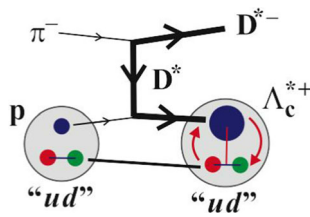


Fig. 392 Schematic picture of $\pi^- p \rightarrow D^{*-} \Lambda_c^{*+}$ [4623]

also investigated. Physics motivations of this project include the following.

1. Di-quark correlations in hadrons

The color magnetic interaction between quarks with indices i and j is given by $V_{\text{mag}} \sim \alpha_s (\lambda_i \cdot \lambda_j) (\vec{\sigma}_i \cdot \vec{\sigma}_j) / (m_i m_j)$ where λ is the color SU(3) Gell-Mann matrix, $\vec{\sigma}$ is the Pauli spin matrix, and m is the quark mass. Because it is proportional to $1/(m_i m_j)$, the interaction becomes weak for a heavy quark. Let us denote q and Q for light and heavy quarks, respectively. For a qqQ -type baryon, the qq interaction should be much stronger than the qQ one. It means that a strong qq diquark correlation could appear in such a baryon. Its expected spectrum for qqQ -type baryon in comparison with the qqq -type baryon is shown in Fig. 391 [4623], where ρ and λ are the Jacobi coordinates. The ρ is defined as coordinate between the two quarks qq , and the λ is between qq and Q . The spectrum splits into ρ - and λ -mode excitations, called isotope shift. The ρ mode corresponds to a rotation of the diquark qq , and the λ mode to an orbital excitation between qq and Q . These levels are further split by spin–spin interactions. These studies will lead to new dynamical aspects in hadron physics and, more in general, to di-fermion physics in quantum-many-body systems.

2. Ξ and Ω baryon spectra and their properties

The details of the Ξ and Ω spectroscopy will be investigated. In addition, the Ω electric quadrupole moment is highly interesting. Observations of quadrupole moments provide us information on the nature of interactions among constituents and on system deformations. A finite quadrupole moment suggests that a non-central force should exist. Indeed, the tensor force in the one-gluon-exchange potential leads to the expectation that hadrons should be deformed. The Ω quadrupole moment could be measured at J-PARC due to its “stable” nature. The quadrupole moment has never been measured for any hadrons including Δ [4624], it is an ambitious project.

The charmed-baryon-spectroscopy experiment will start in the hadron hall at the high-momentum beamline by using a beam of unseparated hadrons, essentially pions, with momenta up to 20 GeV. The reaction $\pi^- + p \rightarrow D^{*-} + \Lambda_c^{*+}$

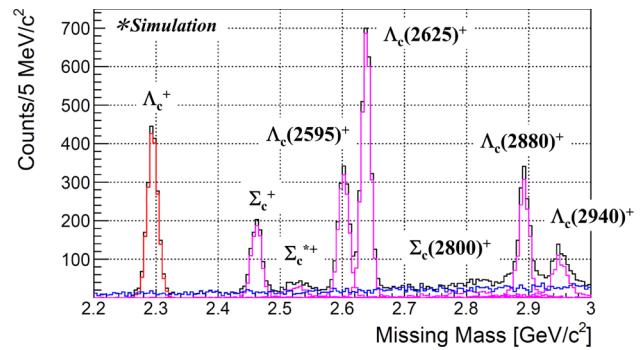


Fig. 393 Simulation for the Λ_c^{*+} spectrum by the K10 beamline experiment at the extended hadron hall [4597]

is used, as illustrated in Fig. 392, for measuring the Λ_c^{*+} spectrum by the $p(\pi^-, D^{*-})$ missing mass. The simulation is shown for the Λ_c^{*+} spectrum in Fig. 393 by considering the pion momentum of 20 GeV and 100-day beam time. A new field of di-quark physics should be developed by this project.

14.3.6 Hadron structure functions

The J-PARC proton-beam energy of 30 GeV covers the intermediate region from hadron degrees of freedom (d.o.f.) to quark d.o.f. described by perturbative QCD. In addition to hypernuclear and charmed-baryon physics at low energies, the higher-energy region should therefore also be investigated, as illustrated in Fig. 380. The situation is similar to JLab projects, and J-PARC is complementary to JLab in the sense that different observables are available in hadron reactions.

The first experiment on hadron structure functions will be on the GPDs for the proton [4625]. A proposal is being prepared [4598] to study exclusive Drell–Yan processes. The GPDs are observables to probe the three-dimensional structure, namely the transverse structure, in addition to the longitudinal parton distribution functions, and the nucleon spin and mass compositions. This project should be able to contribute to the clarification of the hadron spin and mass in terms of quarks and gluons.

At the J-PARC high-momentum beamline, the exclusive Drell–Yan process $\pi^- p \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^- B$ is considered as shown in Fig. 394. The “pion” beam momentum is up to about 20 GeV. If the baryon B is a neutron, the nucleonic GPDs will be measured, and transition GPDs will be investigated if B is different from the neutron. This process is complementary to the pion-production experiment $\gamma^* + p \rightarrow \pi + N$ at JLab with spacelike virtual photon, whereas the J-PARC process is with the timelike one.

At the high-momentum beamline, there is an approved experiment E50 for investigating charmed baryons [4626]. The GPD experiment will be proposed as a collaboration

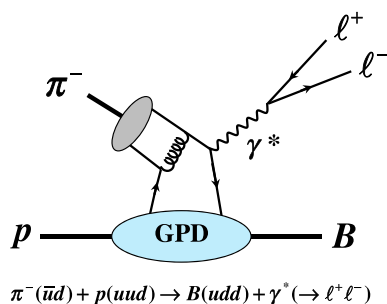


Fig. 394 Exclusive Drell–Yan process for measuring GPDs

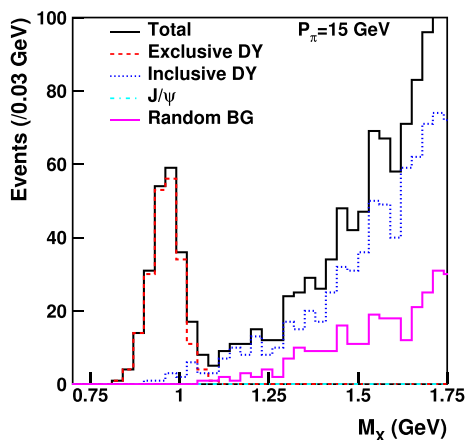


Fig. 395 Simulation for the missing-mass spectra [4625]. (Used with the copyright permission of American Physical Society)

project with this E50 experiment by supplying a dimuon detector. The dimuons could come from various sources; however, the exclusive Drell–Yan process should be identified by the missing-mass (M_X) spectra as shown in Fig. 395. Here, the Monte-Carlo simulation is given for the pion momentum $p_\pi = 15$ GeV. The exclusive peak is obvious just below 1 GeV, and it should be separated from other processes like inclusive Drell–Yan, J/ψ production, or random backgrounds. In this experiment, the GPDs will be measured for $0.1 < x < 0.3$ and timelike photons in contrast to the JLab experiment on the pion production for larger x and spacelike photons.

In future, there are further possibilities to extend this project on GPD-related studies and, more generally, on high-energy hadron physics [4627–4629]. We explain some examples.

1. Pion–nucleon transition distribution amplitudes
By backward charmonium production in pion–nucleon collisions, pion-to-nucleon transition-distribution amplitudes can be investigated.
2. GPDs in the ERLB region
The primary proton beam can be used to measure GPDs by using the $2 \rightarrow 3$ process $p + p \rightarrow p + \pi + B$. If the final

pion and proton have nearly opposite and large transverse momenta with a large invariant energy, the cross section is sensitive to the GPDs in the special kinematical region of ERLB (Efremov–Radyushkin–Brodsky–Lepage).

3. Exotic hadrons by constituent counting rule
The determination of exotic hadrons is not easy in low-energy global observables, and a much clearer determination could be done by using the constituent counting rule in perturbative QCD. Actually, the structure of the exotic-hadron candidate $\Lambda(1405)$ could be determined by the exclusive process $\pi^- + p \rightarrow K^0 + \Lambda(1405)$ at J-PARC.
4. Color transparency
The color transparency indicates that a hadron passes freely through the nuclear medium at large momentum transfer. It is a unique feature of QCD. There was a mysterious BNL-EVA measurement that the transparency drops at a proton momentum $p > 10$ GeV. The J-PARC should be able to clarify this issue.

In future, we expect that a separated high-momentum kaon beam will become available as the hadron-hall extension program in addition to the protons and pions, so that a variety of these type experiments should become possible.

14.3.7 Heavy-ion physics

The purpose of the J-PARC hadron physics is to contribute to our understanding of quantum many-body systems in a wide kinematical range of the phase diagram by precision measurements of new observables as explained in the beginning of this section. Presently, the physics of dense QCD matters is an important missing program in the current J-PARC experiments.

Dense hadronic systems have been investigated by heavy-ion collisions at RHIC and LHC in the high-temperature and low-density region as shown in Fig. 396 [2259,4599]. The creation of a quark–gluon plasma (QGP) was established in the RHIC project by observables such as the collective flow of hadrons and medium modifications of jets. It was surprising to find a small viscosity for the QGP, which initiated interdisciplinary studies with the string theory through the AdS/CFT correspondence (see Sect. 5.4). Higher-energy collisions are now under investigations at LHC. In addition, the signature of the color-glass condensate has been investigated at these facilities.

At zero baryon density, lattice QCD suggests that the phase transition is a crossover, whereas theoretical models indicate that at high densities the phase transition should be a first-order transition [2275]. This implies that an endpoint of the first-order transition should exist as shown in Fig. 396. There are also interesting topics on color superconductivity in the cold and dense matter region. After the QGP discovery and studies of its properties, the frontier of heavy-ion physics

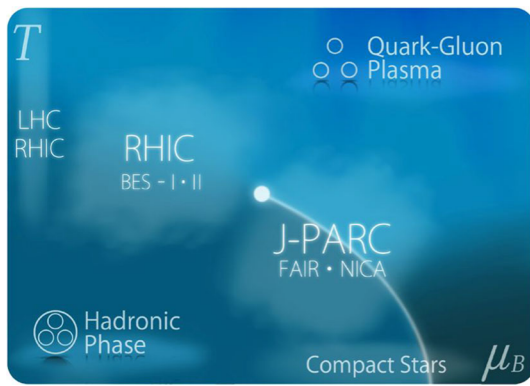


Fig. 396 QCD phase diagram with heavy-ion facilities [4599]

should be this unexplored region. In fact, there are projects at FAIR and NICA to investigate this region in the near future.

In order to realize such experiments at J-PARC, an additional facility is needed to accelerate heavy ions. The possibility of the heavy-ion experiment was studied in a letter of intent in 2016 [4630]; the proposal was submitted to the J-PARC PAC in 2021 [4599,4631]. For this project, it is necessary to construct a new linac and a new booster synchrotron. With this injector consisting of the linac and the synchrotron together with the rapid-cycling and the main-ring synchrotrons (see Fig. 381), high-intensity heavy-ion beams with 2–12 AGeV will be obtained. The J-PARC heavy-ion project has a staging plan for its timeline [4632]. In the sixth year after the financial approval, the phase-1 experiment is expected to start with the LINAC, the reuse of the KEK-PS booster, and upgrades of the existing spectrometer. Therefore, if the project is approved immediately, the phase-1 experiment could start in the end of 2020s. Then, the phase-II experiment could start in the ninth year with the new booster and new spectrometer as the final configuration. The energies of the heavy-ion facilities for the cold and dense experiments are shown in Fig. 397 The J-PARC-HI (heavy ion) project is a unique position as the highest-intensity facility in the several GeV region.

The first purpose of this new facility is to find the phase transition to deconfined quarks and gluons at high densities, by measuring di-electrons, which originate from the virtual photon emission in the hot medium. The advantage of the di-electron measurement is that the virtual photon does not suffer from strong final-state interactions in the medium, so that it directly reflects the information on the QCD matter.

Two simulation studies are shown in Fig. 398 for the di-electron spectrum [4599]. The left-hand side presents the case of no phase transition at $T = 150\text{ MeV}$, and the right-hand side the case for a first-order phase transition at $T = 120\text{ MeV}$. The di-electron invariant mass spectrum was taken as $(M_{ee}T)^{3/2} \exp(-M_{ee}/T)$. These results were obtained for the mid-rapidity region ($1 \leq y_{\text{lab}} \leq 2$) with 100-day

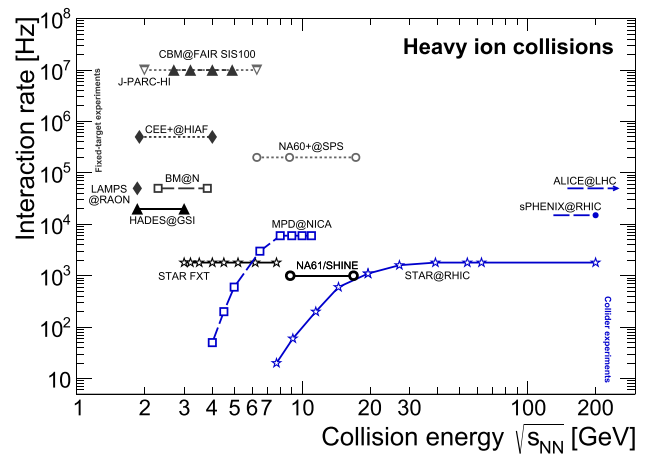


Fig. 397 Maximum instantaneous interaction rates recorded by various existing (full lines), under construction (dashed) and proposed fixed-target (black) and collider (blue) experiments addressing the high- μ_B region of the QCD phase diagram (from [4633], consistently updated based on [4634])

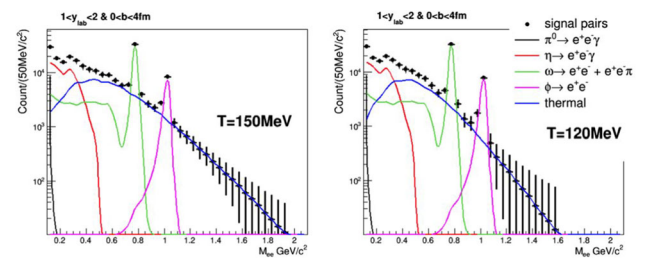


Fig. 398 Simulations for the di-electron mass spectra [4599]

beam time. From such measurements, a determination of the temperature should be possible with the 10% accuracy by the spectrum slope at the mass range $M_{ee} > 1.1\text{ GeV}$ for the left-side case of Fig. 398. In the right-hand side, 10% accuracy is possible if $M_{ee} > 0.7\text{ GeV}$ data are selected. This ambitious J-PARC project makes it possible to find new phenomena of cold and dense matter.

14.4 The NICA program

Alexey Guskov

The Nuclotron-based Ion Collider fAcility (NICA) is a new research complex for studying the fundamental properties of the strong interaction under development as a flagship project at the Joint Institute for Nuclear Research [4635–4637]. The heart of NICA is the Nuclotron – a superconducting ion synchrotron put in operation in 1993. It will be equipped with two injection chains: for heavy (including a booster – a small superconducting synchrotron) and light ions, and a storage ring where particle collisions are planned. The storage ring of racetrack shape has a maximum magnetic rigidity of 45 T×m and a circumference of 503 m. The maximum field of superconducting dipole magnets is 1.8 T. NICA will pro-



Fig. 399 View of the NICA site

vide a variety of heavy-ion beams up to Au^{79+} with a kinetic energy up to 4.5 GeV/u. Collisions of high-intensity proton beams with a high degree of longitudinal or transverse polarization and with total energy up to 13.5 GeV will also be available [4638]. Major accelerator challenges include strong intra-beam scattering and space-charge effects which will be partially compensated by extensive use of electron and stochastic cooling systems.

Two experimental setups with different physics programs will run at two interaction points located in the opposite straight sections of the racetrack ring. The MultiPurpose Detector (MPD) placed at the first interaction point will study hot and dense baryonic matter in heavy-ion collisions with luminosity up to $10^{27} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$. The Spin Physics Detector (SPD) in the second interaction point is dedicated to the study of the spin structure of the proton and deuteron and other spin-related phenomena in p - p and d - d collisions with luminosity up to $10^{32} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$. In addition, the heavy-ion beams can be extracted to the fixed-target experimental setup BM@N (Baryonic Matter at Nuclotron) whose main goals are investigations of strange/multi-strange hyperons, hypernuclei production, and short-range correlations. Extracted beams will also be used for applied research. A view of the NICA site is shown in Fig. 399 while Fig. 400 represents the schematic layout of the accelerator complex.

The implementation of the physic program of the NICA complex is envisioned in three main stages: (i) heavy-ion physics with a fixed target (BM@N), (ii) heavy-ion physics in the colliding mode (MPD), and (iii) spin physics (SPD). The possibility of using NICA in the electron-ion collider mode in the future is under discussion.

14.4.1 The study of dense and hot strongly interacting matter at NICA

Asymptotic freedom has a very deep importance for hadronic matter under extreme conditions. At sufficiently high nuclear

density or temperature, average inter-parton distances become small and their interaction strength weakens. Above a critical energy density of about $0.3 \text{ GeV}/\text{fm}^3$, a gas of hadrons passes through a deconfinement transition and becomes a system of unbounded quarks and gluons called quark–gluon plasma (QGP). An evidence of this transition has been obtained from lattice simulations of QCD, in the form of a rapid increase of the entropy density around the critical energy density. The deconfinement of quarks and gluons is accompanied by a restoration of chiral symmetry, spontaneously broken in the QCD vacuum.

The phase diagram (see Fig. 159) translates the properties of strong interactions and their underlying QCD theory into a visible pattern. Recent lattice calculations have shown that for vanishing baryon chemical potential, μ_B , and at a pseudocritical temperature $156.5 \pm 1.5 \text{ MeV}$, a crossover transition happens from the phase with a broken chiral symmetry to the restored chiral symmetry phase [484, 4639]. Different effective models conclude that at higher μ_B , the transition from the ordinary hadron-matter phase to a phase, where chiral symmetry is restored, is of first order. The corresponding critical endpoint is an object of desire of experimenters and theorists, however, its existence is not established yet.

The major goal of MPD and BM@N experiments at NICA is to explore the QCD phase diagram by the study of in-medium properties of hadrons and the nuclear matter Equation of State (EoS), including a search for possible signals of deconfinement and/or chiral symmetry restoration phase transitions, and the QCD critical endpoint. The range of energies and interaction rates covered in different heavy-ion collision experiments including MPD and BM@N experiments at NICA is presented in Fig. 397.

The BM@N experiment

BM@N is a fixed-target experimental setup operating with extracted ion beams from the upgraded Nuclotron. The main final goal of the BM@N experiment is the comprehensive study of the early phase of nuclear interaction at high densities of nuclear matter ($3-4n_0$) via registration of strange and multi-strange particles (kaons, Λ , Ξ and Ω hyperons, double hypernuclei, etc.) production with enormous statistical precision. Investigation of the reaction dynamics and nuclear equation of state, as well as the study of the in-medium properties of hadrons, are also planned. In order to provide normalization for the measured A+A spectra, a study of elementary reactions ($p+p$, $p+n(d)$) will be performed.

The layout of the expected full configuration of the BM@N setup is shown in Fig. 401. The tracking system consists of the silicon strip sensors, and gaseous detectors and is partially placed inside the analyzing magnet with a field up to 1.2 T. Particle identification is provided by the multi-gap Resistive Plate Chamber-based Time-of-Flight system. A Zero Degree Calorimeter is foreseen for the

Fig. 400 The NICA accelerator complex at JINR

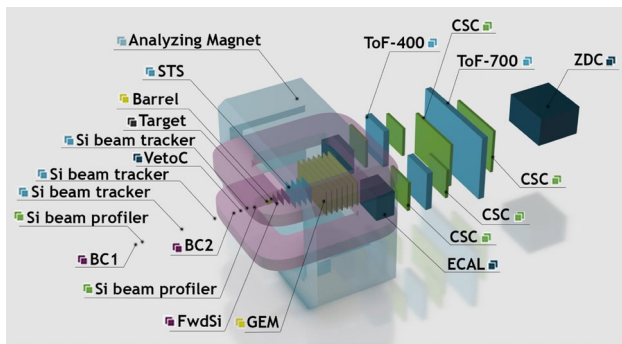
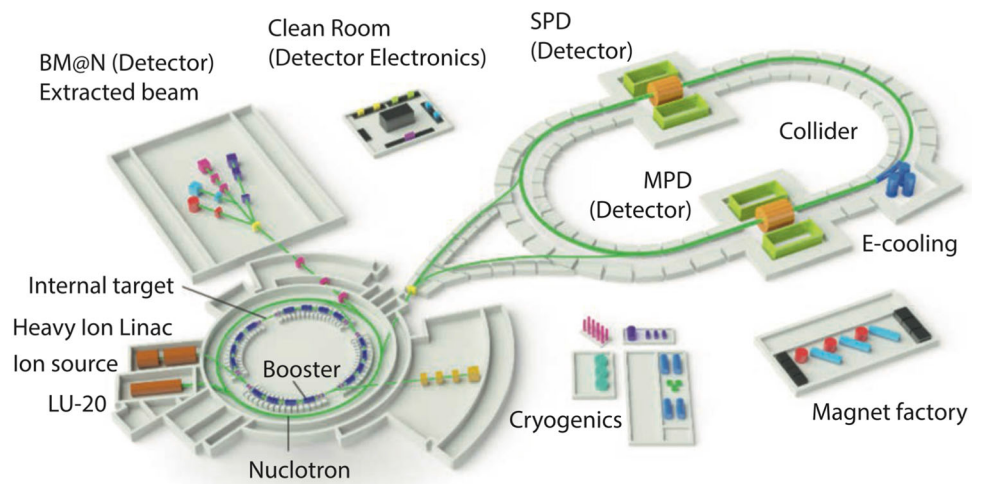


Fig. 401 Layout of the BM@N detector [4640]

extraction of the collision impact parameter and centrality determination. The BM@N setup currently operates in test mode.

The relevant degrees of freedom at the Nuclotron energies are first of all nucleons and their excited states followed by light and strange mesons [4641]. The focus of experimental studies at BM@N will be on hadrons with strangeness, which are early produced in the collision and not present in the initial state of two colliding nuclei. The measured production yields of light and strange mesons, as well as of hyperons and anti-hyperons are shown in Fig. 402 as a function of the nucleon–nucleon collision energy. The Nuclotron heavy-ion beam-energy range corresponds to $\sqrt{s_{NN}} = 2.3\text{--}3.5$ GeV. It is well suited for studies of strange mesons and multi-strange hyperons which are produced in nucleus–nucleus collisions close to the kinematic threshold. Heavy-ion collisions are a rich source of strangeness, and capturing Λ -hyperons by nucleons can produce a variety of light hyper-nuclei [4642, 4643]. In heavy-ion collisions, light hypernuclei are expected to be abundantly produced at low energies due to the high baryon density. However, the production mechanisms of hypernuclei in heavy-ion collisions are not well understood, due to the scarcity of data. The study of hyper-nuclei production is expected to provide new insights into the properties of

the hyperon–nucleon and hyperon–hyperon interactions. Figure 403 presents the yields of hyper-nuclei as a function of the nucleon–nucleon collision energy in the center-of-mass system in Au+Au collisions, predicted by a thermal model [4644]. The maximum in the hyper-nuclei production rate is predicted at $\sqrt{s_{NN}} = 4\text{--}5$ GeV, which is close to the Nuclotron energy range.

Short-range correlations in nuclei (SRC) are an additional topic for study at BM@N. In an attempt to simplify the description of the nuclei as complex strongly interacting systems, we tend to separate their short- and long-range structure. Effective field theories describe the long-range structure using a mean-field approximation. The short-range structure of nuclei can be described in terms of nucleon–nucleon short-range correlations. SRC are brief fluctuations of two nucleons with high and opposite momenta, where each of them is higher than the Fermi momentum for the given nucleus.

Hard knock-out reactions where the beam probe interacts with a single nucleon are the standard way to study the properties of SRC pairs. In the pilot studies at BM@N the new approach with the inverted kinematics was used [4645]: a carbon beam with the momentum of 4 GeV/c per nucleon scatter off a liquid hydrogen target. A proton with momentum from the SRC pair is scattered off a target proton. Two protons from the (p,2p) reaction were detected by a two-arm spectrometer while a $A - 2$ nuclear fragment was identified via p/Z ratio. The events with ^{10}B and ^{10}Be fragments corresponded to $p\text{-}n$ and $p\text{-}p$ SRC pairs, respectively. The direct experimental evidence for the separation of the pair wavefunction from that of the residual many-body nuclear system was obtained. All measured reactions are well described by theoretical calculations that include no distortions from the initial- and final-state interactions (Fig. 404). The obtained results illustrate the ability to study the short-distance structure of short-lived radioactive nuclei at the forthcoming FAIR and FRIB facilities.

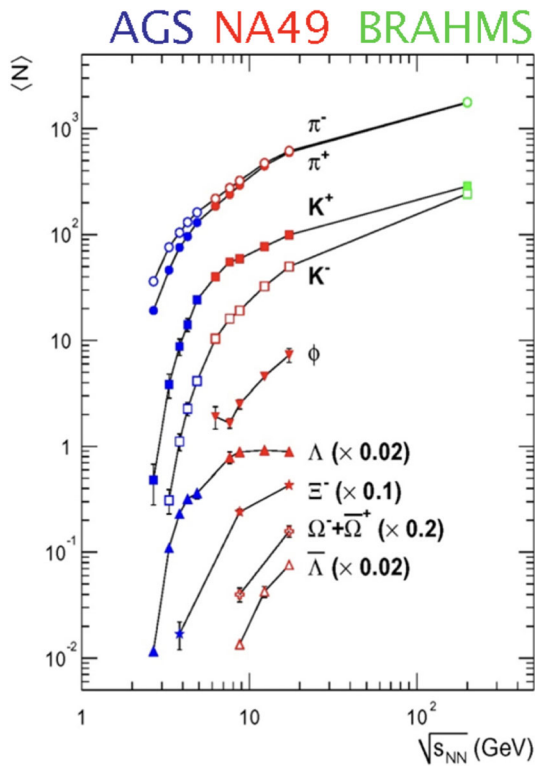


Fig. 402 Yields of mesons and (anti-)hyperons measured in different experiments as a function of the collision energy $\sqrt{s_{NN}}$ for Au+Au and Pb+Pb collisions [4646]

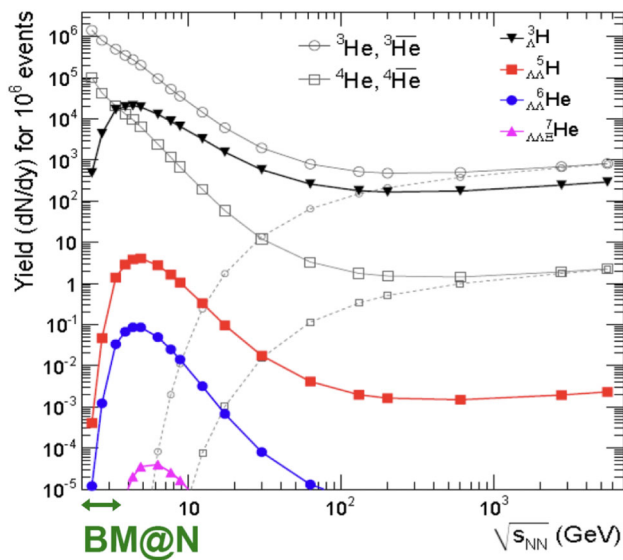


Fig. 403 Yields of hyper-nuclei predicted by the thermal model in Ref. [4644] as a function of the $\sqrt{s_{NN}}$ for Au+Au collisions. Predictions for the yields of ${}^3\text{He}$ and ${}^4\text{He}$ nuclei are presented for comparison

The MPD experiment

MPD is a collider experiment designed to perform a comprehensive scan of the QCD phase diagram with beam species from protons to gold by varying the center-of-mass collision

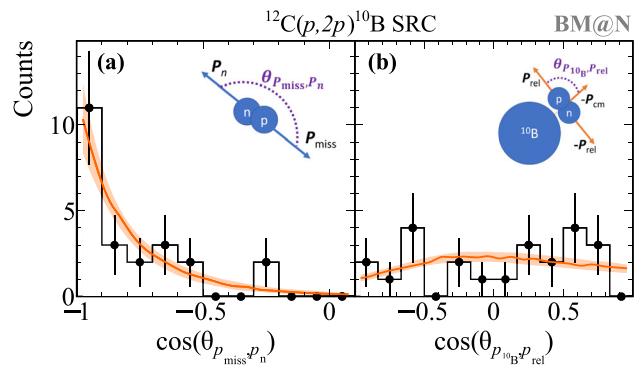


Fig. 404 Opening angle in SRC p-n pair (left) and the angle between the ${}^{10}\text{B}$ fragment and pair relative momentum (right). The model calculations are shown in orange [4645]

energy from 4 to 11 GeV per nucleon which is complementary to the RHIC beam energy scan towards lower energies. The unique feature of MPD as a collider experiment is the invariant acceptance at different beam energies as compared to fixed-target experiments [4647].

To reach this goal, the experimental program includes the simultaneous measurement of the observables which are sensitive to high density effects and phase transitions. The observables measured on event-by-event basis are particle yields and ratios, correlations and fluctuations. Different species probe different stages of the nucleus–nucleus interaction due to their differences in mass, energy and interaction cross-sections. The hadrons containing heavy strange quarks are especially interesting. These strange heavy hadrons are created in the early high-temperature and high-density stage but may quickly decouple due to their low interaction cross section with the surrounding matter. Among various characteristics, the elliptic flow deserves special attention because this collective motion is formed mainly in the early stage of the collision. The spatio-temporal information on the particle freeze-out source, which depends on the preceding evolution of the system, is provided by the measurement of identical particles interference. The direct information on hot and dense transient matter is provided by penetrating probes, photons and leptons. In this respect, vector mesons which contain information on chiral symmetry restoration are very attractive. Measurement of the positive/negative pion asymmetry with respect to the reaction plane as a function of centrality of heavy-ion collisions opens a possibility to touch such fundamental problem as spontaneous violation of CP parity in strong interactions.

The physics program of the first stage of the MPD experiment includes the following items [4648]:

- multiplicity and spectral characteristics of the identified hadrons including strange particles, multi-strange

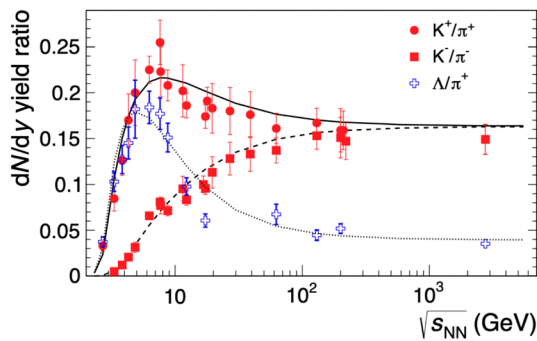


Fig. 405 K^+/π^+ , K^-/π^- and Λ/π^+ ratios as a function of $\sqrt{s_{NN}}$ [2203]

- baryons and antibaryons characterizing entropy production and system temperature at freeze-out;
- event-by-event fluctuations in multiplicity, charges, transverse momenta and K/π ratios as a generic property of critical phenomena;
- collective flow effects (directed, elliptic and higher ones) for hadrons including strange particles;
- femtoscopy with identified particles and particle correlations.

In the second stage, the physics with electromagnetic probes (photons and dileptons) will be accessed.

The behaviour of hadron abundances along the hydrodynamic trajectories of heavy-ion experiments is closely related with the properties of the strongly interacting matter near the phase transition. For example, a promising observable to study the onset of deconfinement is the pion-to-kaon ratio. The K^+ yield is proportional to the overall strangeness production and pions can be associated with the total entropy produced in the reaction. Thus, the K^+/π^+ production ratio can be a good measure of strangeness-to-entropy ratio, which is different in the confined phase and the QGP. The experimental results for K^+/π^+ , K^-/π^- and Λ/π^+ ratios as a function of collision energies in the wide energy range are shown in Fig. 405. The experimental points in the most interesting region around $\sqrt{s_{NN}} = 10$ GeV have large uncertainties that could be significantly reduced by the measurements at MPD.

Measurements of event-by-event fluctuations have been performed by the numerous fixed-target and collider experiments. Recent STAR measurements from the RHIC-BES program [2224] indicate a non-monotonic behaviour of the excitation function for the net-proton moments in central Au+Au collisions in the region below $\sqrt{s_{NN}} = 20$ GeV, which can be a hint for the critical point in the range of finite baryon number density. At MPD the region below 11 GeV will be scanned with much higher precision.

The main task of femtoscopy, the technique of two-particle correlations in momentum space, is to measure the space-

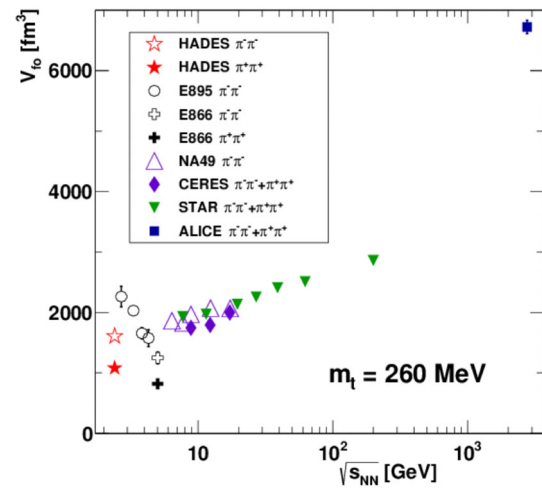


Fig. 406 Freeze-out volume for pions as a function of the collision energy [4649]

time evolution of the system created in particle collisions. The two-pion correlation functions are excellent candidates for first-day physics measurements at MPD. Femtoscopy measurements for pions have been performed in several previous experiments. Figure 406 presents the energy dependence of the freeze-out volume, obtained from two-pion interferometry. A non-monotonic behavior of this volume in the NICA energy range raises interest in such measurements at MPD.

The anisotropic collective flow is also one of the promising observables sensitive to the transport properties of the strongly interacting matter, in particular, the speed of sound, and the specific shear and viscosities. It can be quantified by the Fourier coefficients v_n in the expansion of the particles azimuthal distribution. Relativistic viscous hydrodynamic models have been successful in describing the observed anisotropy v_n for the produced particles in the collisions of heavy ions at RHIC and the LHC [2190,4650,4651]. The directed flow v_1 can probe the very early stages of the collision as it is generated during the passage time of the two colliding nuclei. The results of a model-to-data comparison for the elliptic flow v_2 at $\sqrt{s_{NN}} = 7.7$ GeV and 4.5 GeV may indicate that at NICA energies a transition occurs from partonic to hadronic matter. The high-statistics differential measurements of v_n , that are anticipated from the MPD experiment at NICA, are expected to provide valuable information about this parton-hadron transient energy domain [4652,4653].

The layout of the MPD setup is shown in Fig. 407 [4653]. The components of the MPD barrel part have an approximate cylindrical symmetry. The beam line is surrounded by the large gaseous Time Projection Chamber (TPC) which is enclosed by the TOF barrel. The TPC is the main tracker, and in conjunction with the TOF they will provide precise momentum measurements and particle identification. It is

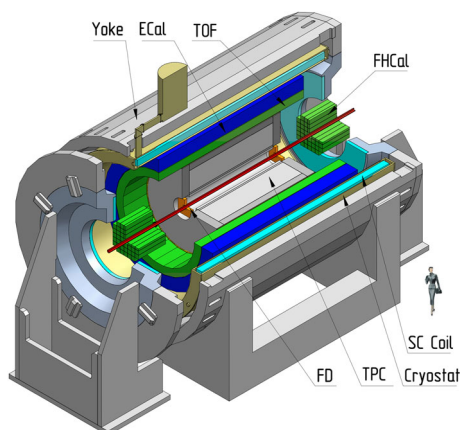


Fig. 407 Layout of the MPD experimental setup [4653]

placed in a highly homogeneous magnetic field of up to 0.57 T. The Electromagnetic Calorimeter (ECal) is placed in between the TOF and the MPD Magnet. It will be used for detection of electromagnetic showers, and will play the central role in photon and electron measurements. In the forward direction, the Fast Forward Detector (FFD) is located still within the TPC barrel. It will play the role of a wake-up trigger. The Forward Hadronic Calorimeter (FHCaI) for determination of the collision centrality and the orientation of the reaction plane is located near the Magnet end-caps. At the moment, this detector configuration is at the assembling stage.

Additional detectors like the silicon-based Inner Tracker System for precision secondary vertex reconstruction, the miniBeBe detector for triggering and start time determination, and the cosmic ray detector on the outside of the magnet yoke are proposed for the later stages.

14.4.2 The spin structure of proton and deuteron in the SPD experiment

While the main goal of the BM@N and MPD experiments is to study deconfinement, the third experiment, SPD, aims to study the internal structure of the proton and deuteron using polarized beams. In the polarized proton–proton collisions, the SPD experiment [4654] will cover the kinematic gap between the low-energy measurements at ANKE-COSY and SATURNE and the high-energy measurements at the Relativistic Heavy Ion Collider, as well as the planned fixed-target experiments at the LHC (see Fig. 408). The possibility for NICA to operate with polarized deuteron beams at such energies is unique. SPD is planned to be operated as a universal facility for comprehensive tests of the basics of the QCD. The main efforts, however, will be devoted to the study of the unpolarized and polarized gluon content of the proton at large Bjorken- x , using different complementary probes [4655].

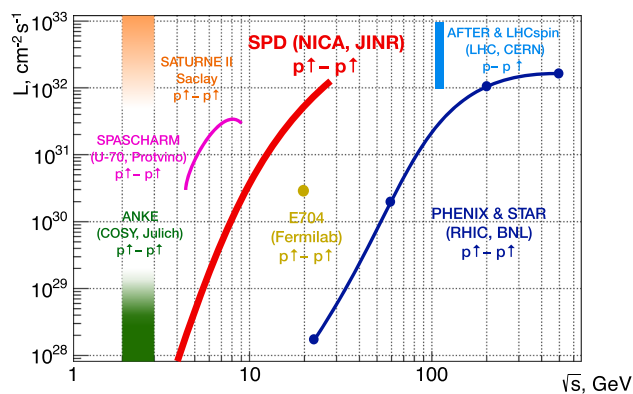


Fig. 408 NICA SPD and the other past, present, and future experiments with polarized protons

Quantum chromodynamics has remarkable success in describing the high-energy and large-momentum transfer processes, where quarks and gluons that are the fundamental constituents of hadrons, behave, to some extent, as free particles and, therefore, the perturbative QCD approach can be used. The cross-section of a process in QCD is factorized into two parts: the process-dependent perturbatively-calculable short-distance partonic cross-section (the hard part) and universal long-distance functions, PDFs, and FFs (the soft part), see Sect. 11. The parton distributions could be applied also to describe the spin structure of the nucleon that is built up from the intrinsic spin of the valence and sea quarks (spin-1/2), gluons (spin-1), and their orbital angular momenta.

In recent years, the three-dimensional partonic structure of the nucleon became a subject of careful studies. Precise mapping of the three-dimensional structure of the nucleon is crucial for our understanding of QCD. One of the ways to go beyond the usual collinear approximation is to describe the nucleon content in the momentum space by employing the so-called Transverse-Momentum-Dependent Parton Distribution Functions (TMD PDFs) [1284,3247,3248,4656–4658].

Considerable progress has been achieved during the last decades in the understanding of the quark contribution to the nucleon spin, yet the gluon sector is much less developed. One of the difficulties is the lack of direct probes to access the gluon content in high-energy processes.

The final goal of the SPD experiment is to provide access to the gluon TMD PDFs (see Table 50) in the proton and deuteron via the measurement of specific single and double spin asymmetries in the production of charmonia, open charm, and high- p_T prompt photons. The kinematic region to be covered by SPD for these processes (Fig. 409) is unique and has never been accessed purposefully in polarized hadronic collisions. Quark TMD PDFs, as well as spin-dependent fragmentation functions, could also be studied. The results expected to be obtained by SPD will play an

important role in the general understanding of the nucleon gluon content and will serve as a complementary input to the ongoing and planned studies at RHIC, and future measurements at the EIC (BNL) and fixed-target facilities at the LHC (CERN). Simultaneous measurement of the same quantities using different processes at the same experimental setup is of key importance for the minimization of possible systematic effects.

The naive model describes the deuteron as a weakly-bound state of a proton and a neutron mainly in S-state with a small admixture of the D-state. However, such a simplified picture failed to describe the HERMES experimental results on the b_1 tensor structure function [1386]. A unique possibility to operate with polarized deuteron beams brings us to the world of the tensor structure of the deuteron (tensor PDFs). A possible non-baryonic content in the deuteron could be accessed via the measurement of the gluon transversity distribution and the comparison of the unpolarized gluon PDFs in the nucleon and deuteron at high values of x .

Nevertheless, the largest fraction of hadronic interactions involves low-momentum transfer processes in which the effective strong coupling constant is large and the description within a perturbative approach is not adequate. A number of (semi-)phenomenological approaches have been developed through the years to describe strong interaction in the non-perturbative domain starting from the very basic principles. They successfully describe such crucial phenomena as the nuclear properties and interactions, hadronic spectra, deconfinement, various polarized and unpolarized effects in hadronic interaction, etc. The transition between the perturbative and non-perturbative QCD is also a subject of special attention. In spite of a large set of experimental data and huge experience in a few-GeV region with fixed-target experiments worldwide, this energy range still attracts both experimentalists and theoreticians.

SPD has an extensive physics program for the first stage of the NICA collider operation with reduced luminosity and collision energy of the proton and ion beams, devoted to comprehensive tests of the various phenomenological models in the non-perturbative and transitional kinematic domain. It includes such topics as the spin effects in elastic scattering, in exclusive reactions as well as in hyperons production, multiquark correlations and dibaryon resonances, charmonia and open charm production, physics of light and intermediate nuclei collision, hypernuclei, etc. [4659]. The proposed program covers up to 5 years of the NICA collider running.

The SPD experimental setup, shown in Fig. 410, is designed as a universal 4π detector with advanced tracking and particle identification capabilities based on modern technologies, consisting of the barrel part and two end-caps. The silicon vertex detector will provide a reconstruction

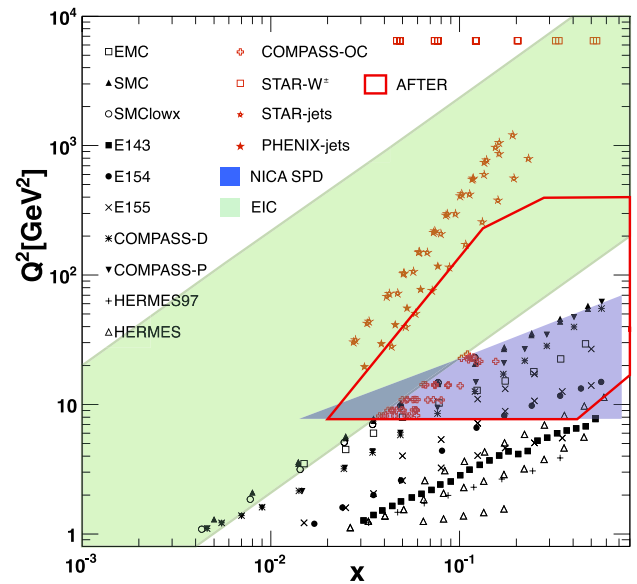


Fig. 409 Kinematic coverage of SPD in the charmonia, open charm, and prompt photon production processes

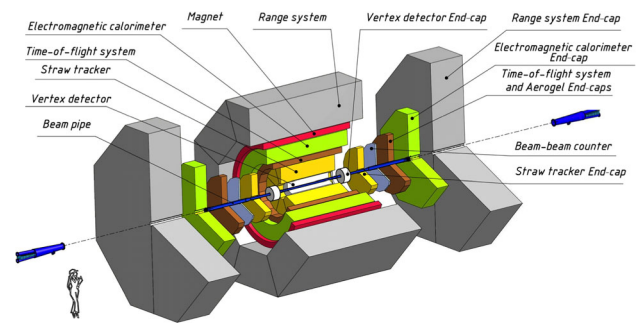
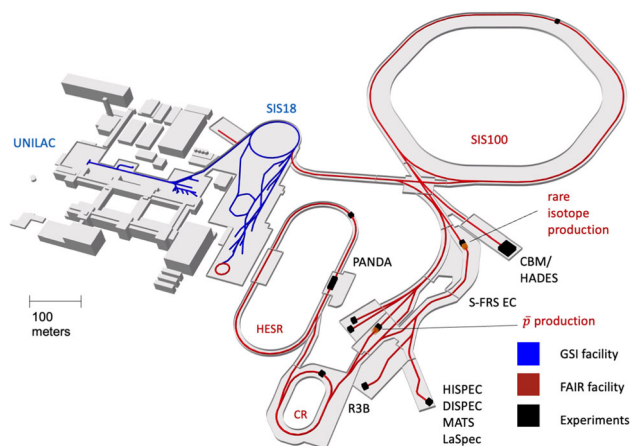


Fig. 410 Layout of the SPD experimental setup

tion of secondary vertices of D -meson decays. The straw-tube-based tracking system placed within a solenoidal magnetic field of up to 1 T should provide tracking capability. The time-of-flight system will provide π/K and K/p separation together with an aerogel-based Cherenkov detector in the end-caps. Detection of photons will be provided by the sampling electromagnetic calorimeter. To minimize multiple scattering and photon conversion effects for photons, the detector material will be kept to a minimum throughout the internal part of the detector. The muon (range) system is planned for muon identification. It can also act as a rough hadron calorimeter. The pair of beam-beam counters and zero-degree calorimeters will be responsible for the local polarimetry and luminosity control. To minimize possible systematic effects, SPD will be equipped with a free-running (triggerless) DAQ system. The SPD experimental setup is currently in the phase of the technical project preparation.

Table 50 Gluon TMD PDFs at twist-2. The columns represent gluon polarization, while the rows represent hadron polarization

	Unpolarized	Circular	Linear
Unpolarized	$g(x)$ density		$h_1^{\perp g}(x, k_T)$ Boer–Mulders function
Longitudinal		$\Delta g(x)$ helicity	Kotzinian–Mulders function
Transverse	$\Delta_N^g(x, k_T)$ Siverson function	Worm-gear function	$\Delta_T g(x)$ transversity, pretzelocity

**Fig. 411** Layout of the FAIR accelerator complex. See text for the meaning of the various acronyms

14.5 QCD at FAIR

Johan Messchendorp, Frank Nerling, and Joachim Stroth

14.5.1 The FAIR facility

The international Facility for Antiproton and Ion Research FAIR (Fig. 411) is an accelerator complex currently constructed at the site of the national GSI Helmholtz Center for Heavy-ion Research, Germany. It is composed of a rapid cycling synchrotron with maximum rigidity 100 Tm providing beams directly to experimental halls and to production targets for secondary ion and anti-proton beams [4660]. A high-energy storage ring (HESR) enables experiments with antiproton and rare radioactive isotope beams. The latter are selected out of either nuclear fragments or fission products, emerging from reactions of e.g. relativistic uranium beams, by the Super Fragment Separator (S-FRS), providing high transmission for reaction products and high selectivity and purity for selected rare isotopes [4661].

The scientific goals encompass many open questions connected with the formation of matter and the role of the strong force herein. The respective activities are organized in three pillars, hadron physics using anti-proton annihilation (PANDA), heavy-ion reactions at relativistic energies (CBM), and nuclear structure physics at the limit of stability using relativistic, stored or decelerated rare isotope beams

(NUSTAR). For the latter, not discussed in the remainder of this section, FAIR will pursue a unique approach enabling nuclear structure studies of e.g. the r-process isotopes relevant for the third r-process abundance peak. Acceleration of 28+ uranium ions in the SIS100 will push the space charge limit and yet provide beam energies around 1 A GeV [4662]. SIS100 is particularly designed to accelerate medium charge state ions with a fast cycling rate of 1 Hz. This is achieved ramping the superconducting dipole magnets with 4 T/s to a maximum field of 1.9 T [4663]. Combined with the large acceptance and transmission of the Super-FRS, separated fission fragments will provide fully stripped isotope beams up to the neutron drip line. Such beams can be transferred to a storage ring for precision mass measurements (ILIMA), directed to a secondary target in the high-energy experiment hall for reaction experiments (R3B), or to experiments utilizing γ -spectroscopy in flight (HISPEC) or with stopped beams (DISPEC). Complementary experiments can also be performed at the Super-FRS operating the second half of the separator as high-resolution forward spectrometer and using a secondary target in the middle section of the separator (Super-FRS EC). Last not least isotope beams can also be decelerated and trapped (MATS) or investigated using laser spectroscopy (LaSpec). FAIR will also give home to many other experimental collaborations working in fields of atomic physics, radio biology, plasma physics and material science (APPA).

Civil construction of the accelerator complex has been started in 2017 focusing on the north area of the complex. As of 2022, the shell construction of the ring tunnel, the transfer buildings, the reaction experiment cave and the Super-FRS is mostly finished and the technical building installation has been started. The facility will be completed in a staged approach aligned with the funding profile and first beam from SIS100 to the CBM cave is anticipated for 2028. A FAIR early science program will be started as soon as the Super-FRS is installed providing uranium beam from SIS18 directly to the separator. Already now, a rich research program is ongoing at GSI and various other international facilities employing instrumentation developed for FAIR (FAIR Phase-0).

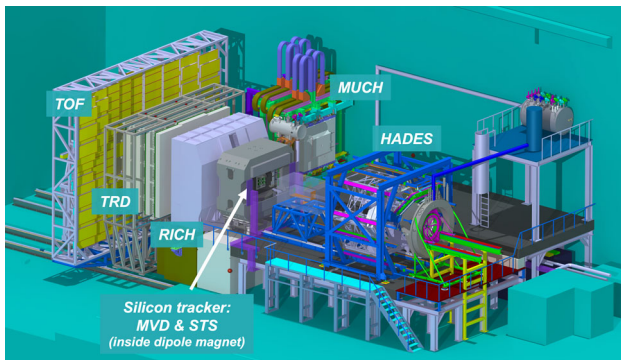


Fig. 412 Computer rendering of the two experiments CBM and HADES installed in the FAIR fixed-target experimental hall. In case CBM is operated, the beam pipe is continuing through the center of the HADES experiment up to the CBM dipole (target vacuum chamber and beam pipe are not drawn). In case HADES is taking beam, a beam stop is placed between the two experiments (half transparent cube shown on a stand). The HADES setup is shown with blue support structure

14.5.2 CBM – QCD studies at high baryon densities

The research pillar *Compressed Baryonic Matter* (CBM) is addressing the physics of QCD matter under extreme conditions of baryon density and temperature. In a dedicated experiment hall, ion beams extracted from SIS100 will be directed onto stationary targets to form transient states of QCD matter in central collisions. The formation process is expected to reach maximum baryon densities of around five times the nuclear ground-state density at temperatures of up to 100 MeV. Model calculations suggest that e.g. in a Au+Au collision at a few A GeV, the incoming nucleons are stopped to a large extent in the collision zone and that the nuclear matter is compressed to densities of $\rho_{\max} \simeq 1 \text{ fm}^{-3}$ [4664]. It is expected that the formed hadronic system is approaching local equilibrium before it freezes out chemically at densities around $\rho_{\text{ch}} \simeq 0.05 \text{ fm}^{-3}$ (see Sect. 7.1). At such initial densities, the system can no longer be understood as resonance gas, but rather as an entangled meson cloud surrounding the baryonic cores (see Sect. 7.2).

Figure 397 demonstrates the world-wide efforts that explore the high- μ_B -region (high net-baryon density) obtained at lower beam energy (c.f. Sect. 7.1) of the QCD phase diagram by means of heavy-ion collisions. Please note that by today no experiment has crossed the 50 kHz line.

The CBM collaboration has designed an experiment to investigate heavy-ion collisions with emphasis on the detection of rare and penetrating probes. Figure 412 shows the configuration of the Compressed Baryonic Matter experiment, together with the already existing HADES experiment placed at the same beam line delivering slow-extracted beam from the heavy-ion synchrotron SIS-100. The unique features of this fixed-target experiment are the rate capability reaching 10 MHz of inspected reactions and a modular com-

position of detectors for particle identification. The high-rate capability is achieved by performing tracking of charged particles in a compact configuration of 12 planes of silicon detectors placed in a 1 Tm dipole field. The planes are arranged over 1 m downstream the target. The first four planes are composed of monolithic pixel sensors, manufactured in a 180 nm CMOS process, and provide a total of 140 M-Pixels right behind the target and placed inside the beam vacuum (MVD). Behind, and outside the vacuum region, eight planes of silicon strip sensors constitute the core tracking system (STS). This tracking system is contained in a magnetic dipole field providing a maximum bending power of 1 Tm. Behind the tracking station different detector systems can be placed, depending on the observables to be addressed. In the standard configuration, a ring-imaging Cherenkov detector (RICH) provides superb electron/positron identification up to momenta of around 4 GeV. Behind, four stations of transition radiation detector enable intermediate tracking, energy loss measurement and additional electron/positron identification for high momentum tracks (TRD). The last detector is a wall of multichannel resistive-plate counters (TOF) covering about 20 m² in the transverse plane. It provides a high-precision time signal to enable particle identification by velocity vs momentum of charged particles. The CBM detector uses a trigger-less data acquisition system where every individual detector cell is digitized and where signals passing their thresholds receive a timestamp. Data streams of up to a TeraByte per second are transferred to the online compute cluster where real-time event building and feature extraction is performed. By selecting events with signatures of interest, the data stream is reduced to a level that allows storage on disks. Up to 40,000 compute nodes will be needed to accomplish this task in the case of operating at the highest interaction rate. The compute cluster will be installed in the FAIR Green Cube. The online event selection and rejection requires a high level of understanding and monitoring of the detector performance at the time of the data taking. To gain experiences and to prepare all software and firmware for fast calibration and event reconstruction, the CBM collaboration has installed a small version of the CBM detector at SIS18 beam line of GSI. This mini-CBM setup is composed out of prototypes or first-of-a-series modules of each detector system of CBM. The detectors are arranged as a single arm telescope and are operated without magnetic field. The performance of the online event selection is benchmarked by investigating the production of hyperons. Their particular decay topology is used as identification.

The prime goal of the CBM program at FAIR is to search for signatures of a first-order phase transition, separating the hadron resonance gas region from a likely novel state of matter (cf. Sect. 7.2). The established strategy for this is to search for non-monotonic behavior of the excitation function of various observables, or more general for trends signaling

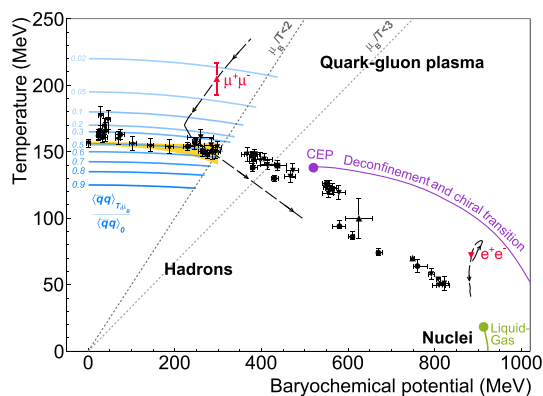


Fig. 413 The QCD phase diagram as function of temperature and baryo-chemical potential. Freeze-out configurations extracted from particle yields assuming sudden freeze-out of a hadron resonance gas are shown as green circles (*cf* 159). Expectation values of the chiral condensate deduced from lattice calculations as sky-blue lines. Measurements of the mean fireball temperature based on the dilepton continuum radiation are shown as red squares together with the expected trajectory of the expanding and radiating system

a change in the number of degrees of freedom of the transient system like the (dis)appearance of a certain scaling behavior. An example is the excitation function of the multiplicity of multi-strange hyperons. The high-rate capability of CBM will enable such measurements well below the proton–proton production threshold.¹²²

Indeed, the region in the QCD phase diagram at high baryo-chemical potential is predominantly *terra incognita*. Figure 413 depicts the QCD phase diagram with experimental landmarks and predictions by lattice QCD. The landmarks include, first, chemical-freezeout points that characterize the temperature and the baryochemical potential below which the system can be understood as an expanding hadron gas in which inelastic collisions no longer occur. Two additional points are shown which depict an average temperature of the dense and hot system prior to freeze out. This very promising observable, so far not addressed in excitation functions with the needed precision, is the spectral distribution and yield of dileptons emitted from the dense and hot stage of the collision. Such dileptons couple via virtual intermediary photons directly to the in-medium hadronic current–current correlator and thus probe the microscopic structure of the medium they are expelled from [4665, 4666]. In the so-called low-mass region (LMR), i.e. for dilepton invariant masses around the vector-meson pole masses ρ , ω and ϕ and below, the spectral distribution encodes the “melting” of the vector mesons embedded in a hot and dense hadronic environment, while the dilepton spectrum from a purely partonic medium would not feature any particular structure. Moreover, the integral yield

of continuum dileptons in the LMR dominantly depends on the size, the lifetime and the temperatures of the emitting source. It has been demonstrated using a hydro model that the fireball evolution can significantly change if during the evolution the system experiences a phase transition from a QGP-like to a hadronic equation-of-state. The study observed an increase of the yield by roughly a factor of two in the case of a first-order phase transition [4667]. Dilepton continuum radiation also provides a model independent measurement of the average temperature of the emitting source. This is possible if the imaginary part of the in-medium current–current correlator is sufficiently featureless and approaching a dependence $\propto T^2/M^2$. In that case, the spectral distribution is defined essentially by the thermal Bose factor and the invariant-mass distribution takes the form of black-body radiation, i.e. $\propto (MT)^{3/2} \exp(-M/T)$ [4668]. A fit of a Planck distribution function to the spectral distribution in the respective invariant mass reveals an invariant measurement of that average temperature, unaffected by any blue shift due to rapid expansion of the emitting source. The two measurements of the average temperature shown in Fig. 413 were obtained by the NA60 collaboration in the dimuon channel [4669] and by the HADES collaboration in the dielectron channel [4670]. The “trajectories” indicated as dashed-dotted lines depict the evolution of the fireball used to integrate the emissivity over the four-volume characterizing the evolution of the collision zone. For details see [4670].

In order to obtain the continuum radiation, contributions to the dilepton invariant-mass distribution from the early pre-equilibrium stage and from late decays of long-lived hadronic states have to be determined and subtracted [4671]. An important part of the CBM program are therefore reference measurements of elementary collision systems or the production of dileptons in collisions of protons on nuclei. For this, the HADES detector will be moved to the SIS100 experimental hall where it will be installed in front of the CBM detector. HADES, with its large polar acceptance, is well suited to study in particular the production and propagation of vector mesons in cold nuclear matter. The feasibility of reconstructing the dilepton continuum radiation in heavy-ion collisions at energies SIS18 energies has been demonstrated for the system Au+Au at $\sqrt{s_{NN}} = 2.42$ GeV. Figure 414 depicts the respective invariant-mass distribution together with various model calculations. It is important to note that at this collision energy, the ρ meson is substantially broadened due to the high baryon density, thus satisfying the criteria for temperature measurement outlined above also in the LMR.

¹²² The threshold is here defined as the energy needed to produce a given hyperon in an elementary proton–proton collision and the beam energy is referred to as $\sqrt{s_{NN}}$.

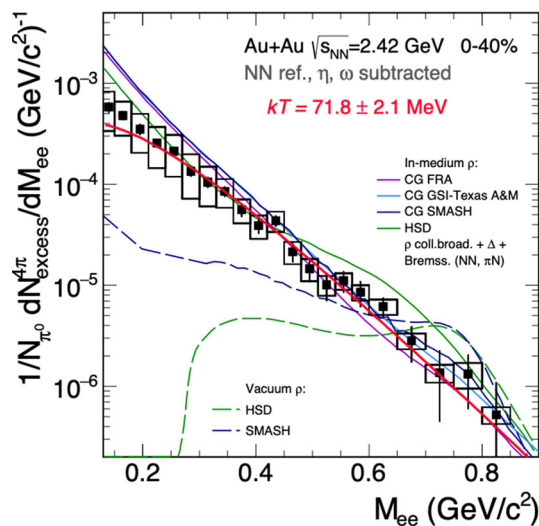


Fig. 414 Di-electron excess radiation measured by HADES for the collision system Au+Au at $\sqrt{s_{NN}} = 2.42$ GeV (black squares). Systematic uncertainties are depicted as open boxes while the statistical errors are shown as vertical lines. Various model calculations are shown as colored lines (see inserts for explanation). Lines labeled CG refer to calculations using coarse grained microscopic transport calculations for the fireball evolution folded with thermal emissivities derived from many-body theory. The line labeled HSD is the result of a full microscopic transport simulation treating the dilepton emission perturbatively, i.e. after the full hadron cascade has been processed. Also shown as dashed lines are the descriptions of dilepton emission from ρ -meson decay used in the full microscopic (shining) approach. The spectrum has been obtained by subtracting from the total yield in the centrality class 0–40% the contributions from late hadron neutron meson decays (cocktail) and from first-chance collisions

14.5.3 PANDA – hadron structure and spectroscopy studies using antiprotons

Physics with antiprotons and PANDA

The ambition of PANDA is to exploit the annihilation of antiprotons with protons and nuclei to study the properties of hadrons and their interactions with unprecedented precision and coverage in parity, spin, and gluon and quark flavor contents. Partly as the successor of the successful LEAR facility at CERN, PANDA will combine a high-resolution and intense antiproton beam with a state-of-art detector system. The experiment is designed to produce hadrons with masses of up to about 5.5 GeV and to unambiguously detect a large variety of final-state particles with excellent momentum resolution, particle identification capabilities, and exclusivity.

PANDA will be an internal-target experiment installed at the High Energy Storage Ring (HESR). The antiproton beam from HESR has several key advantages, namely (i) the production cross sections of hadrons are generally large, resulting in large data samples; (ii) meson-like states of any quark–antiquark spin-parity combination can be produced in formation with a superb mass resolution; (iii) baryon–antibaryon pairs, including multi-strange and charm, can be produced

in two-body reactions, which provide clean conditions for baryon studies; (iv) proton–antiproton annihilations constitute a gluon-rich environment.

In the initial phase, HESR will be able to store 10^{10} antiprotons with momenta p from 1.5 GeV up to 15 GeV. By making use of the stochastic cooling technique, the relative beam-momentum spread ($\Delta p/p$) will be $< 5 \times 10^{-5}$. The antiprotons will interact with a cluster jet target or pellet target, which results in a luminosity during the first phase (Phase One) of data taking of about $10^{31} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$. The final goal is a luminosity of up to $2 \times 10^{32} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$, referred to as Phase Three.

The PANDA detector is designed to measure momenta of charged and neutral final-state particles with 1–2% resolution and with excellent particle identification, vertex reconstruction, and count-rate capabilities. The nearly 4π acceptance allows to study exclusive reactions covering a large part of their phase spaces, thereby enabling a conclusive partial-wave analysis. The detector consists of a Target Spectrometer (TS) and a Forward Spectrometer (FS). The TS provides precise vertex tracking by the micro vertex detector, surrounded by straw tube trackers and gas electron multiplier detectors in the forward direction. The trajectories of charged particles in the TS are bent by the field of a solenoid magnet providing a field of 2 T, with muon detectors within the segmented yoke. For particle identification, the TS will consist of time-of-flight and Cherenkov detectors and an electromagnetic calorimeter composed of PbWO_2 crystals. With the electromagnetic calorimeter, nearly covering the full phase space using a barrel and two endcaps, the measurement of energies and scattering angles of photons, electrons, and positrons will become possible.

The FS consists of straw tube stations for tracking, a dipole magnet, a ring imaging Cherenkov detector, a forward time-of-flight system and a Shashlyk electromagnetic calorimeter, followed by a muon range system. The luminosity at PANDA will be determined by using elastic antiproton–proton scattering as the reference channel registered by a dedicated luminosity detector.

The combination of the intense, high resolution antiproton beam with the nearly 4π PANDA detector, opens up unprecedented possibilities with a very rich physics program, particularly suited to provide a deeper understanding of QCD in the non-perturbative regime. In the following, we discuss some of the QCD-driven highlights from the various pillars of the physics program of PANDA. We note that PANDA has a more extensive physics program that includes various nuclear physics aspects as well, such as the foreseen hypernuclei and hyperatom topics. We limit ourselves here to those topics in which the quarks, gluon, and their interactions are expected to be the most important degrees of freedom. For a more detailed description of the complete physics program at the first phase of the experiment, we refer to [2635].

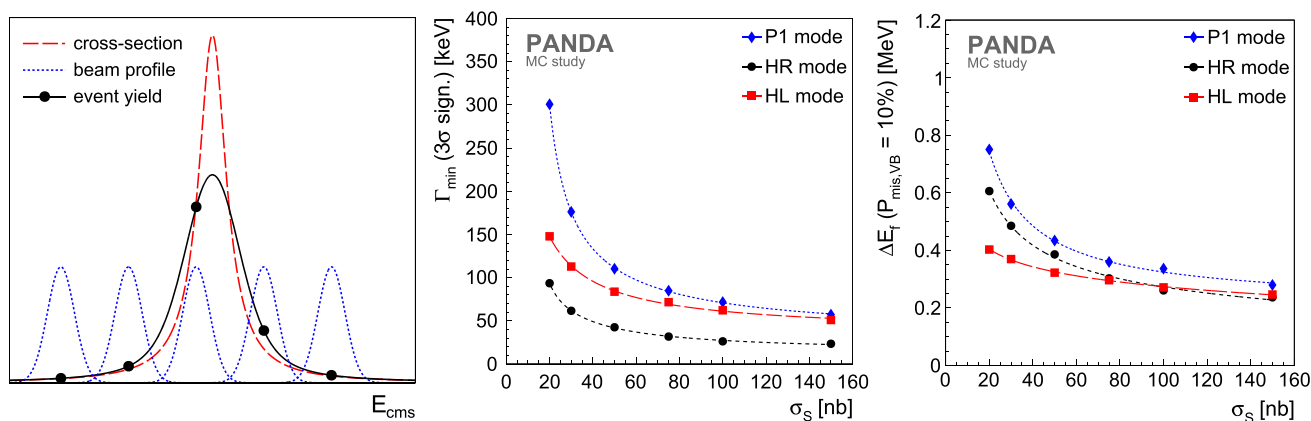


Fig. 415 Illustration and summary of a comprehensive Monte Carlo simulated scan experiment study for PANDA [4672]. Schematic of the resonance energy scan principle (left). Summary of the sensitivity study for an absolute (Breit–Wigner) decay width measurement in terms of the minimum decay width Γ_{\min} that can be measured with an relative

precision of 33% as a function of the assumed input σ_S (center). Summary of the sensitivity study for line-shape measurements via the E_f parameter (Molecule case) to distinguish between a bound and a virtual state scenario in terms of the probability to mis-identify a virtual as a bound state (right)

Hidden charm and exotics

PANDA will be devoted to provide precision data for hadron spectroscopy with light to charm constituent quarks, and gluons. Given the anti-proton beam momentum range of up to 15 GeV, the accessible invariant-mass range in direct formation is about 2–5.5 GeV, and the PANDA experiment is thus designed and optimized to cover the charmonium mass region. In addition, the light quark sector can be explored via the production with recoil particles.

The cross sections associated with antiproton–proton annihilations are generally several orders of magnitude larger than those of experiments using electromagnetic probes, allowing for excellent statistical precision already at moderate luminosities available in the initial Phase One ($\sim 10^{31} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$).

In the charmonium mass region, different unexpected charmonium-like states have been discovered since the beginning of the millenium. Some of these so-called XYZ states are electrically charged and in combination with the mass those are manifestly exotic states. They have unambiguously a minimum quark content of four quarks (e.g. $c\bar{c}d\bar{u}$) and are, among others, discussed to be tetraquark or molecular states in form of a loosely bound di-meson system. PANDA will contribute to solve the puzzle of the nature of these unexpected charmonium-like XYZ states. Moreover, there is a number of pentaquark states and other exotic candidates reported by LHCb recently that will be accessible with PANDA.

In order to understand the nature of the XYZ states, e.g. which of the different four-quark configurations are realized by nature, and to confirm further candidates reported, PANDA will play an unique role. The different multiplets need to be completed, especially the corresponding high-spin

states. Those can uniquely be addressed by PANDA, since there is no restriction in produced J^{PC} quantum numbers in $\bar{p}p$ annihilation and thanks to the mostly 4π acceptance of the detector. Given the excellent electromagnetic calorimetry in the barrel as well as in the forward part of the detector, PANDA will have full acceptance not only for charged but also for neutral final-state particles.

Another crucial and unique tool are precision line-shape measurements. The energy-dependent resonance cross sections of these states are strongly connected with the inner structure of such states – theoretical interpretations come along with predictions for absolute decay widths and line shapes. The narrow and famous $X(3872)$, meanwhile renamed by the PDG to $\chi_{c1}(3872)$, was the first of these XYZ states discovered in 2003 [2514]. Its nature is still not understood.

As shown by a comprehensive Monte Carlo based feasibility study [4672], the line shape of narrow states, particularly the $X(3872)$, can be measured precisely and directly by PANDA with sub-MeV resolution, Fig. 415, allowing for sorting out models, Fig. 415, right. Thanks to the unprecedented beam momentum and energy resolution of the HESR of up to $\Delta p/p = 2 \times 10^{-5}$ and $\Delta E_{\text{cms}}/E_{\text{cms}} = 34 \text{ keV}$, even very similar line-shape models can be discriminated by employing the technique of a resonance energy scan [4672].

At LHCb, it was not possible to distinguish between a Breit–Wigner and a Flatté-like line-shape for the $X(3872)$ even though huge statistics has been accumulated [2554]. This state cannot be produced in direct formation at LHCb, and the energy-scan technique cannot be employed. Consequently, the resolution of the measurement is dominated by the detector resolution (order of a few MeV) and the LHCb

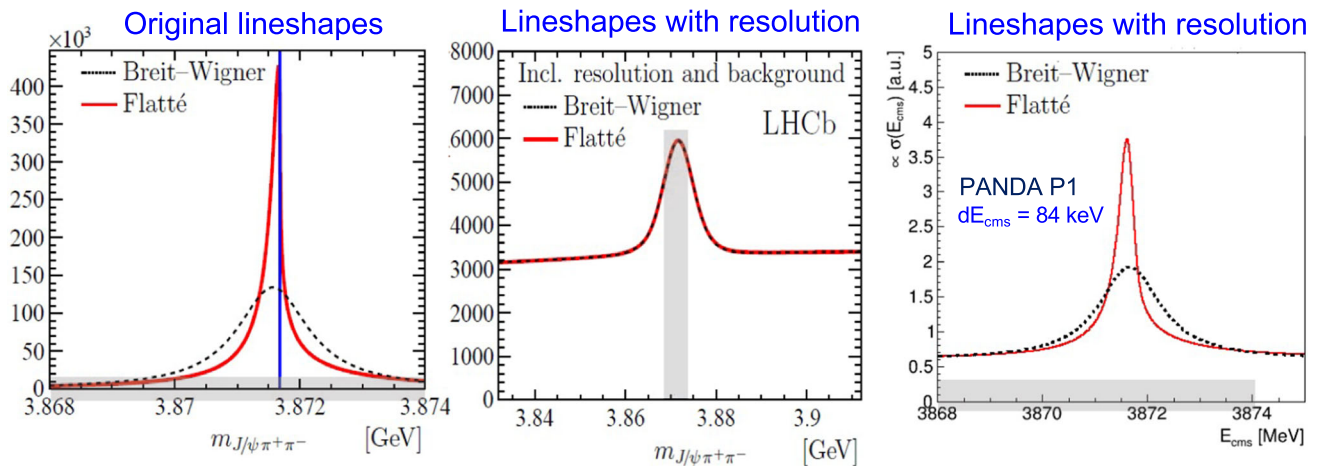


Fig. 416 Comparison of the Breit–Wigner and Flatté-like line shapes without and with the LHCb and PANDA resolutions convolved. Left: The two line shapes (Breit–Wigner vs. Flatté-like) obtained from the fit to the LHCb data [2554]. Center: The same two line shapes when including backgrounds and resolution, i.e. convolved with the detector resolution. Due to the resolution, the two line shapes are just indistinguishable based on the LHCb data [2554].

Right: The same two line shapes (Breit–Wigner vs. Flatté-like) convolved with the foreseen beam-energy resolution expected for the initial phase of the experiment. Thanks to the excellent beam energy resolution, they are well distinguishable with PANDA at HESR [4673]

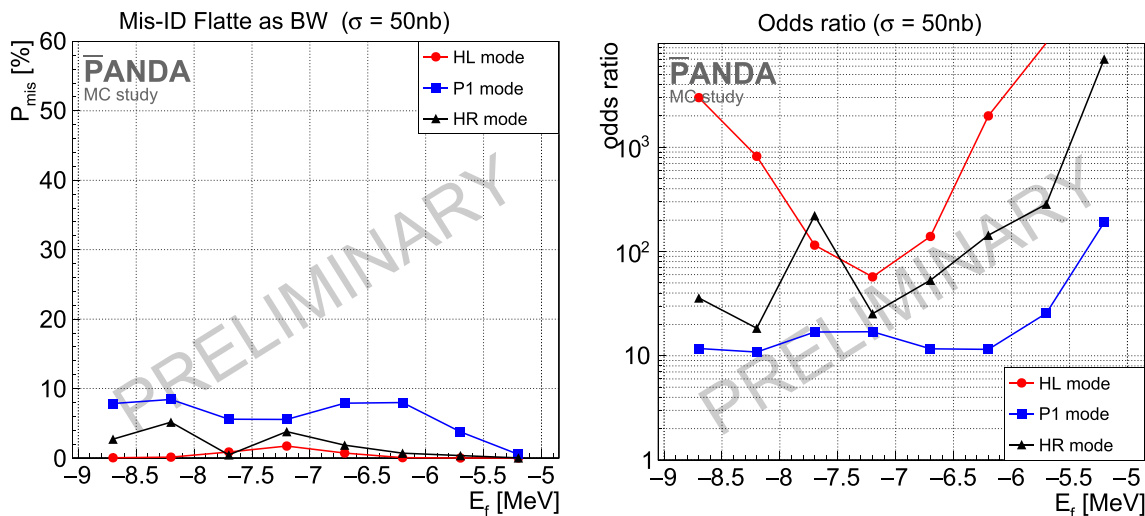


Fig. 417 Performances to distinguish between a Breit–Wigner and a Flatté-like line shape with PANDA/HESR at FAIR. Left: Sensitivity in terms of the mis-identification probability P_{mis} to wrongly assign the Breit–Wigner line shape instead of the correct Flatté-like line shape as a function of the Flatté energy parameter E_f , whereas $P_{\text{mis}} = 50\%$ corresponds to “indistinguishable”. Right: The correspondingly computed so-called “odds”, i.e. the number of correct assignments per wrong one, defined as $odds := (1 - P_{\text{mis}}) / P_{\text{mis}}$. Using this measure, the expected performance is at least ten times better than “indistinguishable”, i.e. as it is achieved based on the LHCb data [2554], see also [4673]

data are equally well described using both line-shape models (Fig. 416).

As an addendum to the published sensitivity study [4672], the expected PANDA performance in distinguishing these two different line-shape models has been investigated and quantified [4673]. The achievable performance has been evaluated in terms of the mis-identification probability P_{mis} to assign the wrong line-shape model, namely the Breit–Wigner line shape for Monte Carlo data generated using a Flatté

line shape, and vice versa. The outcome is summarized in Fig. 417, where the resultant sensitivities in assigning the correct line shape (shown here for the Flatté-like line shape) are better than 90% and 98%, depending on the given accelerator operation mode (Fig. 417, left). For this figure of merit, a mis-identification probability of $P_{\text{mis}} = 50\%$ corresponds to “indistinguishable”. To answer the question, how much better the expected PANDA performance is as compared to “indistinguishable”, one may consider the so-called “odds”

defined as the number of correct assignments per wrong one: $odds := (1 - P_{\text{mis}})/P_{\text{mis}}$. The corresponding results are shown in Fig. 417 (right). Using this measure, PANDA is expected to be at least a factor of 10 better than “indistinguishable”, a feature that is only possible due to the excellent beam-momentum resolution expected for PANDA and the direct formation of the X(3872) state in antiproton-proton annihilations.

Energy-dependent line shape measurements for $J^{PC} = 1^{--}$ states are also possible at BESIII. The beam energy resolution of about 1–2 MeV is due to initial state radiation, however, significantly worse as compared to PANDA (~ 50 keV). For non-vector states, such energy scans are possible in e^+e^- annihilation via two-photon fusion. The production cross section is, however, highly suppressed due to the two virtual photons to be produced.

Concerning the light-quark and gluon sector, PANDA will search for exotic forms of matter such as hybrid mesons and glueballs. In the mass range accessible at FAIR, a large number of glueballs is expected and some of them might be narrow. Their SU(3) structure can be determined from an analysis of their decay modes.

For light hybrid mesons, such as the $\pi_1(1400)$ and $\pi_1(1600)$, the most conclusive results so far have been provided by the COMPASS experiment at CERN/SPS, employing a 190 GeV pion beam, see e.g. [2324, 2457, 4674]. The GlueX photoproduction experiment has been under construction and is dedicated to map the full spectrum of hybrid mesons with masses of up to about 2.5 GeV. The findings by both of these experiments and others on hybrids as well as on non-exotic new light meson states, such as the [4675], will complementarily be addressed in $\bar{p}p$ annihilation processes at PANDA. These kind of investigations will moreover be extended to the charmonium region, for which several glueball and hybrid states are predicted, e.g. a spin-exotic state at about 4.2 GeV [4676].

Presently, there is no experiment dedicated to glueballs. In comparison to glueball searches in J/ψ decays e.g. at BESIII, they are expected to be produced with orders of magnitude higher production rate in $\bar{p}p$ annihilation [4677]. In particular in the charm region, glueball candidates with masses above 4 GeV are predicted, some of which might be narrow and could thus be found. An analysis of their decay fraction could be used to decide if the state has a large glueball component.

Strangeness physics

With antiproton–proton annihilations and baryon number conservation, the final state has zero total baryon number. This feature has the advantage that relatively clean two-body final-state topologies may emerge involving exclusively a baryon together with its antibaryon. The maximum center-of-mass foreseen with PANDA amounts to 5.5 GeV which

provides access to produce pairs of various hadrons including strange and charm quarks such as $\bar{p}p \rightarrow \Lambda\bar{\Lambda}, \Sigma\bar{\Sigma}, \Xi\bar{\Xi}, \Omega\bar{\Omega}, \Lambda_c\bar{\Lambda}_c, \Sigma_c\bar{\Sigma}_c, \Xi_c\bar{\Xi}_c, \Omega_c\bar{\Omega}_c$, together with various excited states of these hadrons. The production of these pairs has various benefits, namely (i) close to the appropriate production threshold, the identification and analysis of these reactions are fairly simple, since one may apply tagging methods, deal with limited number of partial waves, and with a good signal-to-background level; (ii) combined with the excellent momentum resolution of the initial antiproton beam, a near-threshold scan allows to determine basic properties, such as mass and width, of these states, and their excitations very accurately [4678]; (iii) the self-analyzing feature of the weak decays of these (anti)baryons can be exploited to study spin degrees-of-freedom of their production process. The latter feature is a powerful tool that can be used for various physics aspects ranging from particle physics (test CP conservation in the hyperon sector), spectroscopy studies (baryon resonances with strangeness), and spin physics (detailed study of hyperon production and interactions). In the following, we highlight two aspects that will be foreseen with PANDA, namely the spin-physics and hyperon-spectroscopy programs.

The spin-physics program of PANDA aims to measure accurately differential cross sections and spin observables such as polarization and spin correlations. These observables provide a deeper understanding of the spin production mechanisms or, more generally, of the dynamics that lead to the production of hyperons in antiproton proton collisions. Which effective degrees of freedom are adequate to describe the hadronic reaction dynamics: quarks and gluons or mesons and baryons? And how does this picture change with center-of-mass energy? The high production rates of hyperon and antihyperon pairs in combination with the excellent signal to background yield give perfect conditions to perform these measurements. Already with moderate initial luminosities, a spectacular production rate of hyperon and antihyperon pairs are to be expected. The reaction $\bar{p}p \rightarrow \Lambda\bar{\Lambda}$, with $\Lambda \rightarrow p\pi^-$ and $\bar{\Lambda} \rightarrow \bar{p}\pi^+$, was studied in detailed Monte Carlo simulations. At a luminosity of $10^{31} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ and at an antiproton beam momentum of 1.64 GeV we expect 3.8×10^6 of fully reconstructed $\Lambda\bar{\Lambda}$ pairs per day. For strangeness $|S| = 2$ baryon pairs via $\bar{p}p \rightarrow \bar{\Xi}^+\Xi^-$ at a beam momentum of 4.6 GeV, the expected rate is about 2.6×10^4 /day exclusively reconstructed pairs in the $\Xi^- \rightarrow \Lambda\pi^-$ and $\bar{\Xi}^+ \rightarrow \bar{\Lambda}\pi^+$ decay modes. Moreover, the signal-to-background ratio is estimated to be better than 100 (250) for the $\bar{\Lambda}\Lambda$ ($\bar{\Xi}^+\Xi^-$) channel. With the perspectives of PANDA to reach the high luminosity conditions at HESR at Phase Three, precision studies of hyperons with charm contents will become feasible and CP violation tests will become competitive [4679].

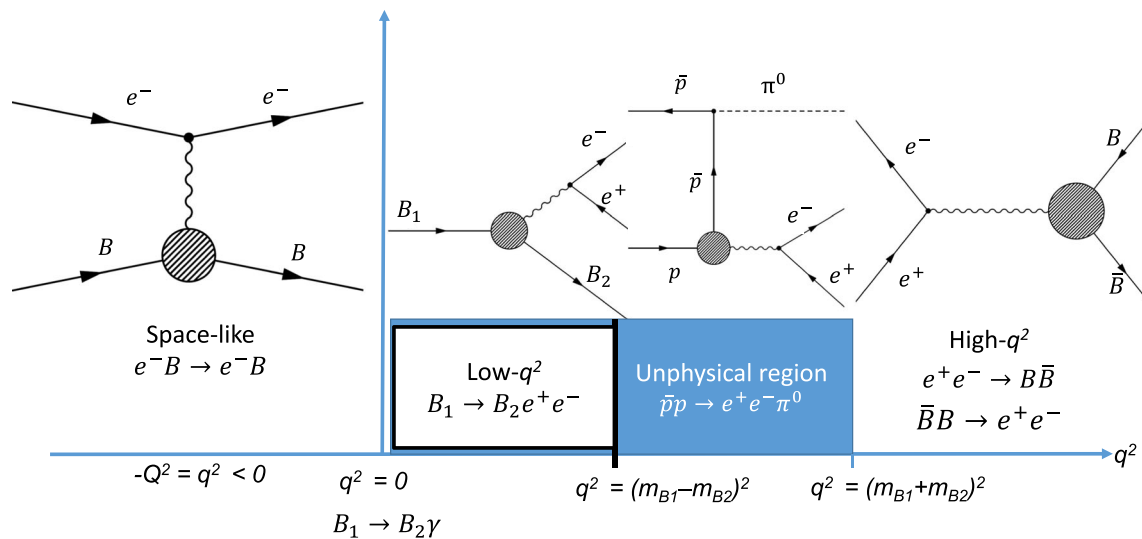


Fig. 418 The various processes that are used to extract information about the EMFF in the space-like ($q^2 < 0$) and time-like ($q^2 > 0$) regions. The time-like region $0 < q^2 < (M_{B1} - M_{B2})^2$ is stud-

PANDA’s environment to produce abundantly pairs of hyperons and antihyperon is also the ideal setting to carry out detailed spectroscopy studies of these baryons. The underlying physics motivation is to understand the internal structure of baryons. For this purposes, baryon spectroscopy has demonstrated to be a very powerful tool. In the case of PANDA, the conceptual idea is to replace light valence quarks of the (anti)proton with heavier strange and charm ones via the processes sketches above, measure the excitation spectrum of excited hyperon states, determine their properties such as mass, width, spin, parity, and decay modes, and compare such observations between the various baryonic systems including those of the light-quark sector, i.e. N^* and Δ resonance levels. With these measurements some of the open questions will be addressed, such as (i) Which baryonic excitations are efficiently and well described in a three-quark picture and which are generated by coupled-channel effects of hadronic interactions? (ii) To which extent do the excitation spectra of baryons consisting of u, d, s obey SU(3) flavor symmetry? (iii) Are there exotic baryon states, e.g. pentaquarks or dibaryons? (iv) What is the role of diquark correlations inside baryons? (v) Can we understand the missing resonance phenomena and the observed level ordering in the light-quark baryon sector? PANDA has the potential to be the key player in providing conclusive data for the strangeness $|S| = 2, 3$ (anti)baryons thereby complementary to the future activities planned at J-PARC [4597] and the wealth of baryon spectroscopy data that have been obtained with photo- and pion-induced reactions at JLab, ELSA, MAMI, GRAAL, Spring-8, HADES, etc. As an illustration of the capabilities of PANDA to determine spin-parity assignment of excited Ξ^* states, we refer to the results of a preliminary feasible study described in [4680].

ied by Dalitz decays. The so-called unphysical region ($4m_e^2 < q^2 < (M_{B1} + M_{B2})^2$) by $\bar{p}p \rightarrow \ell^+ \ell^- \pi^0$ and the high- q^2 region ($q^2 > (M_{B1} + M_{B2})^2$) by $B\bar{B} \leftrightarrow e^+ e^-$. Figure is taken from [2635]

Nucleon structure

In the past 60 years, the structure of the proton has been extensively studied with great success exploiting lepton–hadron scattering (see Sect. 10). With the annihilation of antiproton with protons, it will be possible to extract electromagnetic form factors (EMFF) and structure functions of the (anti)proton in a region of phase space not accessible using electromagnetic probes.

EMFFs quantify the hadron structure as a function of the four-momentum transfer squared q^2 and are defined on the complex q^2 plane. Space-like EMFFs ($q^2 < 0$) are real functions of q^2 and have been studied extensively using elastic electron–hadron scattering. Time-like EMFFs are complex and will be studied at PANDA using different processes in various q^2 regions. Figure 418 sketches the various processes that can be exploited to study EMFFs for various q^2 regions. Here, B, B_1 and B_2 denote various baryons. With antiproton–proton annihilations, EMFFs of the (anti)proton will be probed for the q^2 range starting from the unphysical region, using the reaction $\bar{p}p \rightarrow e^+ e^- \pi^0$, to high- q^2 via $\bar{p}p \rightarrow \ell^+ \ell^-$ whereby ℓ refers to both electrons and muons. Detailed Monte Carlo simulations demonstrated that both G_E and G_M can be measured with a precision of about 3% in the $e^+ e^-$ final state at q^2 around 5 GeV and with a total integrated luminosity of 0.1 fb^{-1} , which is well suitable for the first years of data taking. Figure 419 depicts the present state-of-the-art of the $R = |G_E|/|G_M|$ measurements as a function of q^2 together with the precision perspectives of PANDA for the early phases of the experiment (green band) and for the high luminosity mode (purple band). PANDA will be able to harvest more precise form factor data compared to today’s measurement and extend the measurements towards higher values of q^2 including, for the

first time, both the di-electron and di-muon as probes. Being analytic functions of q^2 , space-like and time-like form factors are related by dispersion theory. With the future data taken at PANDA and the various other complementary facilities, it will become feasible to rigorously test the analyticity and universality of the measured EMFFs. Besides measuring the EMFFs of the (anti)proton, also transition form factors ($B_1 \neq B_2$) are accessible. With the copious production of hyperons and antihyperons in antiproton–proton collisions, PANDA will provide unique data to extract transition form factors of various hyperons and their corresponding antihyperons.

With PANDA operating at the highest beam energies, the partonic degrees of freedom at distances much smaller than the size of the proton can be studied via measurements of various structure functions. A key in such studies is the factorization theorem stating that the interaction can be factorized into a hard, reaction-specific but perturbative and hence calculable part and a soft, reaction-universal and measurable part. In the space-like region, probed by deep inelastic lepton–hadron scattering, the structure is described by parton distribution functions (PDFs), generalized parton distributions (GPDs), transverse-momentum-dependent parton distribution functions (TMDs), and transition distribution amplitudes (TDAs). These observables extend the information provided by EMFFs and give further insight in the spatial and momentum distributions of the constituent partons and the spin structure. With PANDA, the time-like counterpart becomes experimentally accessible via hard proton–antiproton annihilations. Detailed studies to access πN TDAs at PANDA in the reactions $\bar{p}p \rightarrow \gamma\pi^0 \rightarrow e^+e^-\pi^0$ and $\bar{p}p \rightarrow J/\psi\pi^0 \rightarrow e^+e^-\pi^0$ can be found in [4681,4682]. For these measurements, as well as for the TMD studies, the designed high luminosity of PANDA is needed to accumulate reasonable statistics. The counterparts of the GPDs in the annihilation processes are the generalized distribution amplitudes (GDAs). They can be measured in the hard exclusive processes $\bar{p}p \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$ [4683] and $\bar{p}p \rightarrow \gamma M$ [4684,4685], where M could be a pseudo-scalar or vector meson (e.g. π^0 , η , ρ^0 , ϕ). Differential cross section measurements become already feasible to study with the Phase One luminosity of PANDA during the first years of data taking.

14.6 BESIII

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14.6.1 Introduction to the BESIII experiment

The BESIII collaboration, which operates the BESIII spectrometer (Fig. 420) at the Beijing Electron Positron Collider (BEPCII), uses e^+e^- collisions with center-of-mass (CM) energies ranging from 2.0 to 5.0 GeV to study the

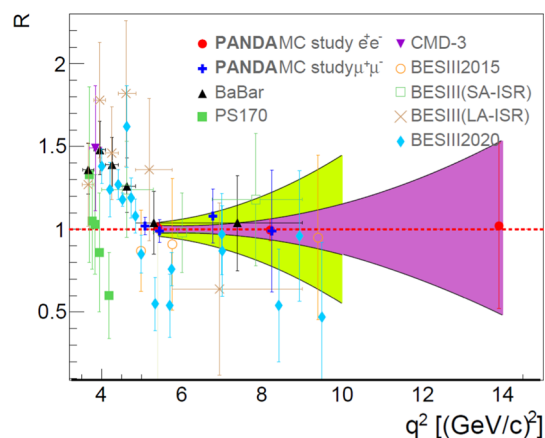


Fig. 419 The form factor ratio $R = |G_E|/|G_M|$ of the proton as function of the square of the four-momentum, q^2 . The data are from PS170 [4686], BaBar [4687,4688], BESIII [4689–4692], CMD-3 [4693]. The expected precisions of PANDA for the e^+e^- final state are indicated as shaded areas for Phase One corresponding to an integrated luminosity of 0.1 fb^{-1} (green band) and for Phase Three with an integrated luminosity of 2 fb^{-1} (purple band and red filled circles). Also shown are the expected performances for the di-muon channel for Phase Three (dark blue crosses)

broad spectrum of physics accessible in the tau-charm energy region. Since the start of operations in 2009, BESIII has collected more than 40 fb^{-1} of data, comprising several world-leading data samples, including:

- 10 billion J/ψ decays, giving unprecedented access to the light hadron spectrum;
- 2.7 billion $\psi(2S)$ decays, allowing precision studies of charmonium and its transitions;
- targeted data samples above 4 GeV, providing unique access to exotic XYZ hadrons;
- 8.6 fb^{-1} of data at the $\psi(3770)$ mass, providing a large sample of D decays and quantum-correlated $D^0\bar{D}^0$ pairs, crucial for global flavor physics efforts;
- 3 fb^{-1} at 4.18 GeV, near the peak of the $D_s^\pm D_s^{*\mp}$ cross section, for D_s studies;
- more than 3 fb^{-1} above $\Lambda_c\bar{\Lambda}_c$ threshold for precision Λ_c studies; and
- fine-scan samples for measurements of R , the mass of the τ , and electromagnetic form factors.

The program will continue for at least the next 5–10 years, building on the data sets already collected, and ensuring the BESIII collaboration will remain a key player in future global efforts in hadron spectroscopy, flavor physics, and searches for new physics. The maximum energy of BEPCII will soon be upgraded to 5.6 GeV, and there are plans to more than double the BEPCII luminosity at high CM energies by increasing the maximum achievable beam currents. Below we briefly outline a few highlights from BESIII, how these achieve-

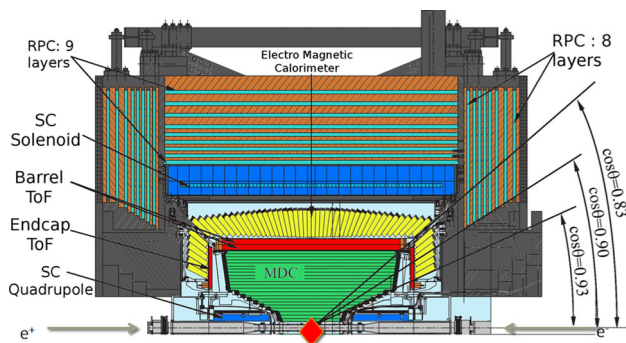


Fig. 420 Schematic view of the BESIII detector, covering 93% of the 4π solid angle. It consists of a Helium-gas based drift chamber, a Time-of-Flight system, a CsI(Tl) crystal calorimeter and a 9-layer RPC-based muon chamber. Figure taken from the official BESIII website

ments have contributed to global physics efforts, and how the next era at BESIII will build on this momentum. More details and references can be found in a recent white paper describing the future physics program at BESIII [2634] and in a recent contribution to the 2021 Snowmass process [4694].

14.6.2 The BEPCII-U upgrade

BEPCII delivered its first physics data in 2009 on the $\psi(2S)$ resonance. Since then, BESIII has collected more than 40 fb^{-1} of integrated luminosity at different CM energies from 2.0 to 4.95 GeV. In order to extend the physics potential of BESIII, two upgrade plans for BEPCII were proposed and approved in 2020. The first upgrade will increase the maximum beam energy to 2.8 GeV (corresponding to a CM energy of 5.6 GeV), which will expand the energy reach of the collider into new territory. The second upgrade will increase the peak luminosity by a factor of 3 for beam energies from 2.0 to 2.8 GeV (CM energies from 4.0 to 5.6 GeV).

To perform these upgrades, BEPCII will increase the beam current and suppress bunch lengthening, which will require higher RF voltage. The RF, cryogenic, and feedback systems will be upgraded accordingly. Nearly all of the photon absorbers along the ring and some vacuum chambers will also be replaced in order to protect the machine from the heat of synchrotron radiation. The budget is estimated to be about 200 million CNY and it will take about 3 years to prepare the upgraded components and half a year for installation and commissioning, which will start in June 2024 and finish in December 2024. With these upgrades, BESIII will enhance its capabilities to explore XYZ physics and will have the unique ability to perform precision measurements of the production and decays of charmed mesons and baryons at threshold.

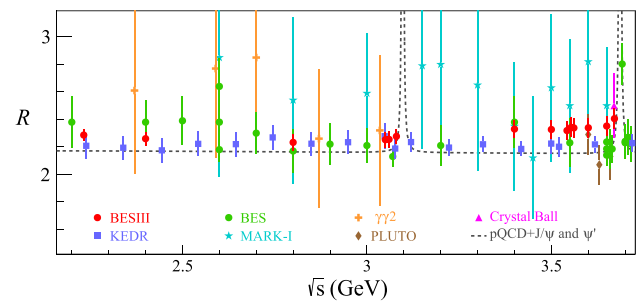


Fig. 421 Comparison of R values in the CM energy from 2.2 to 3.7 GeV. Figure taken from Ref. [4695]

14.6.3 Hadronic production: via direct e^+e^- annihilation

Precision measurements of hadron production help make QCD-related models more reliable and help test SM parameters with an unprecedented sensitivity. BESIII has advanced our knowledge of hadron production using both inclusive and exclusive approaches, mainly via direct production in e^+e^- collisions.

R value measurement

The R ratio, defined as the lowest-order cross section for inclusive hadron production, $e^+e^- \rightarrow \text{hadrons}$, normalized by the lowest-order cross section for the QED process $e^+e^- \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$, is a central quantity in particle physics. Precision measurements of the R ratio below 5 GeV contribute to the SM prediction of the muon anomalous magnetic moment. The R ratio also contributes in the determination of the QED running coupling constant evaluated at the Z pole. In a first measurement at BESIII [4695], 14 data points with CM energies from 2.2324 to 3.6710 GeV are used for the inclusive R value measurement. An accuracy of better than 2.6% below 3.1 GeV and 3.0% above is achieved in the R ratios, as shown in Fig. 421. Previous results had uncertainties at the level of 3–6%. The average R value in the CM range from 3.4 to 3.6 GeV obtained by BESIII is larger than the corresponding KEDR result and the theoretical expectation by 1.9 and 2.7 standard deviations, respectively.

The complete data set for the R value measurement at BESIII consists in a total of 130 energy points with an integrated luminosity of about 1300 pb^{-1} , corresponding to more than 10^5 hadronic events at each of the points between 2 and 4.6 GeV. Thus, the final result is expected to be dominated by a systematic uncertainty of less than 3%.

Fragmentation functions

Fragmentation functions describe the probability of finding a given hadron within the fragmentation of a quark, and carrying a given fraction of the quark momentum. Precise knowledge of fragmentation functions are essential ingredients for studies of the internal structure of the nucleon as carried out by semi-inclusive deep inelastic scattering (SIDIS) exper-

iments (e.g. at a future Electron-Ion Collider). At BESIII, using data collected in the continuum energy region, unpolarized fragmentation functions are extracted from inclusive hadron production processes $e^+e^- \rightarrow h + X$, where h denotes π^0 , η , K_S , or charged hadrons. Polarized fragmentation functions, i.e. the Collins effects, have been obtained by BESIII using pairs of pions produced at $\sqrt{s} = 3.65$ GeV [4696]. In the future, the Collins effect for strange quarks could be studied in $e^+e^- \rightarrow \pi K + X$ and $e^+e^- \rightarrow KK + X$. It is also interesting to study the Collins effect in neutral hadrons like $e^+e^- \rightarrow PP' + X$ with $P/P' = \pi^0/\eta$.

Exclusive cross section measurements using initial state radiation

The dispersive integral formalism used to determine the HVP contribution to a_μ relies heavily on the hadronic e^+e^- cross sections at CM energies $\sqrt{s} \leq 2$ GeV. At BESIII, these energies are only accessible by exploiting the initial state radiation (ISR) method. With an initial data set of 2.83 fb^{-1} at $\sqrt{s} = 3.773$ GeV, this technique already produces results competitive with the B-factories for hadronic masses above approximately 1.3 GeV.

In a first measurement by BESIII, the largest hadronic cross section, for $e^+e^- \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-$, was measured in the mass region from 600 to 900 MeV by reconstructing the ISR photon at large angles only [4298]. With 20 fb^{-1} of data at $\sqrt{s} = 3.773$ GeV expected soon, a new measurement of the $\pi^+\pi^-$ cross section will use the improved statistical accuracy to implement an alternative normalization scheme relative to the muon yield. With this approach, the largest uncertainties will cancel, bringing the expected final uncertainty down to 0.5%, as illustrated in Fig. 422. Additionally, the multi-meson cross sections for $e^+e^- \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-\pi^0$ as well as $e^+e^- \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-\pi^0\pi^0$ have been measured using the same analysis strategy. Uncertainties of approximately 3% were achieved. These cross sections can be used to study resonances in the final state as well as in the intermediate states. Further improvements are expected with additional data at $\sqrt{s} = 3.773$ GeV.

Meson transition form factors

Transition form factors (TFF) of mesons M describe the effects of the strong interaction on the $\gamma^*\gamma^*M$ vertex. At BESIII, TFFs are studied in the region of time-like virtualities through meson Dalitz decays and radiative meson production in e^+e^- annihilations. Space-like virtualities are studied in two-photon fusion reactions, which in principle give access to TFFs over a wide range of virtualities by measuring the momentum transfer of the scattered electrons. Due to the rapid drop of the cross section with $Q_i^2 = -q_i^2$, BESIII currently uses single-tagged measurements, where the TFF is only studied depending on one of the virtualities.

A first measurement of the π^0 TFF based on 2.83 fb^{-1} of data at $\sqrt{s} = 3.773$ GeV covers virtualities from 0.3 GeV^2

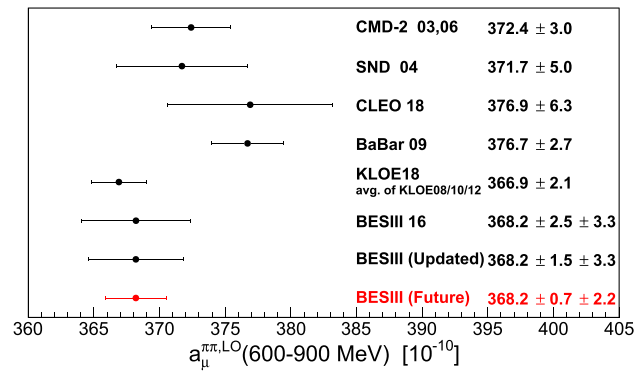


Fig. 422 Comparison of the leading-order hadronic vacuum polarization contribution to $(g - 2)_\mu$ due to $\pi^+\pi^-$ in the energy range 600–900 MeV from various experiments and the prospect result with 20 fb^{-1} of data at $\sqrt{s} = 3.773$ GeV at BESIII. Figure modified according to Ref. [4298]

to 3.1 GeV^2 . The results confirm the recent calculations in dispersion theory and on the lattice. Analogous studies are performed for η and η' mesons, and also for multi-meson systems. The production of charged and neutral two-pion systems in two-photon fusion gives access to pion masses from threshold to 2 GeV and virtualities from 0.2 GeV^2 to 3 GeV^2 at a full coverage of the pion helicity angle. The results will be complementary to all previous measurements, which have mostly been performed with quasi-real photons. The production of higher meson multiplicities in two-photon fusion allows access to scalar, tensor and axial resonances. The single-tagged strategy allows for the production of axial mesons due to the presence of a highly virtual photon. A first measurement of the $f_1(1285)$ will be performed using the $\pi^+\pi^-\eta$ final state for reconstruction. With the upcoming data set of 20 fb^{-1} at $\sqrt{s} = 3.773$ GeV all two-photon fusion analysis will benefit from higher statistics, which will be sensitive to higher virtualities.

Time-like baryon electromagnetic form factors

At BESIII, the $|G_E/G_M|$ of the proton in the time-like region is determined over a large q^2 from threshold to 9.5 GeV^2 with the best precision reaching 3.7% [4690]. With more data samples collected, the form factor ratio of proton will be obtained in a wide q^2 region from 10 to 20 GeV^2 , similar to the q^2 region from the PANDA expectation. The cross section of $e^+e^- \rightarrow n\bar{n}$ [4697] is found to be smaller than that of $e^+e^- \rightarrow p\bar{p}$. The effective FFs of the neutron show a periodic behavior, similar to earlier observations of proton FFs reported by BaBar. The energy region of BESIII covers the production threshold of all SU(3) octet hyperons and several charmed baryons. At BESIII, the Born cross sections of electron-positron annihilation to various baryon pairs are measured from threshold [4698], including $\Lambda\bar{\Lambda}$, $\Sigma\bar{\Sigma}$, $\Xi\bar{\Xi}$ and $\Lambda_c\bar{\Lambda}_c^+$. Obvious threshold effects are observed. The $|G_E/G_M|$ of the Λ , Σ^+ , and Λ_c are obtained from angular

analyses while effective FFs are extracted for other baryons. More precise data or finer scans are necessary for deeper insight into these results. The hyperon EMFFs and the cross section line shapes can also be studied with improved precision via ISR approaches with a 20 fb^{-1} data set collected at $\sqrt{s} = 3.773 \text{ GeV}$.

The EMFFs in the time-like region are complex and the relative phase between G_E and G_M will lead to the transverse polarization of the final baryons. At BESIII, the relative phase of the Λ is determined at $\sqrt{s} = 2.396 \text{ GeV}$ with a joint angular distribution analysis, to be $\Delta\Phi = 37^\circ \pm 12^\circ \pm 6^\circ$ [4699]. Combining with the obtained $|G_E/G_M|$ at the same CM energy, the complete EMFFs are determined for the first time. Similarly, the relative phase of the Λ_c is determined at $\sqrt{s} = 4.60 \text{ GeV}$ [4700]. The currently available data set from $\sqrt{s} = 4.6$ to 4.95 GeV will help complete determinations of Λ_c EMFFs in a wide q^2 range. As the energy dependence of the relative phase is essential for distinguishing various theoretical predictions, a complete determination of EMFFs for SU(3) octet hyperons are necessary in the future.

Precision measurement of the τ mass

The τ lepton is one of three charged elementary leptons in nature, and its mass is an important parameter of the Standard Model. The τ mass can and should be provided by experiment precisely. Precision τ mass measurements probe lepton universality, which is a basic ingredient in the Standard Model.

To aid in the τ mass measurement, a high-accuracy beam energy measurement system (BEMS), located at the north crossing point of BEPCII, was designed, constructed, and finally commissioned at the end of 2010. By comparing a $\psi(2S)$ scan result with the PDG value of the $\psi(2S)$ mass, the relative accuracy of the BEMS was determined to be at the level of 2×10^{-5} [4701]. The BESIII collaboration performed a fine mass scan experiment in the spring of 2018. The τ mass scan data were collected at five scan points near the τ pair production threshold with total luminosity of 137 pb^{-1} . The analysis is in progress. The uncertainty, including statistical and systematic error, will be less than 0.1 MeV .

14.6.4 Hadron spectroscopy: from light to heavy

Light hadron physics

QCD allows for a richer meson spectrum than the conventional quark model predicts, including tetraquark states, mesonic molecules, hybrid mesons and glueballs.

Lattice QCD predicts the lightest glueballs to be scalar, tensor and pseudo-scalar, allowing mixing with the conventional mesons of the same quantum numbers. Generally, glueballs are expected to be produced in gluon-rich processes such as radiative J/ψ decays, so that the high-statistics J/ψ sample puts BESIII in a unique position to study glueball can-

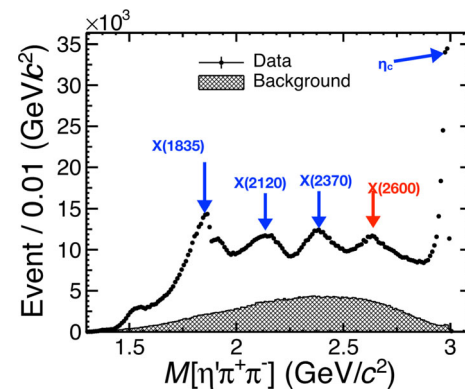


Fig. 423 The invariant mass spectrum of the final state $\pi^+\pi^-\eta'$ for $J/\psi \rightarrow \gamma\pi^+\pi^-\eta'$ candidates. A series of new particles are observed including $X(1835)$, $X(2100)$, $X(2370)$ and $X(2600)$. Figure taken from Ref. [4704]

didates. Partial wave analyses (PWA) of the radiative decays $J/\psi \rightarrow \gamma\pi^0\pi^0$, $\gamma K_S^0 K_S^0$ and $\gamma\eta\eta$ reveal a strong production of the $f_0(1710)$ and $f_0(2100)$ [4702]. One might speculate that these resonances have a large gluonic component. Similarly, the tensor meson $f_2(2340)$ is strongly produced in the radiative decays $J/\psi \rightarrow \gamma\eta\eta$ and $\gamma\phi\phi$ [4702], rendering it a good candidate for a tensor glueball. Two recent coupled channel analyses [2493,2494] of BESIII data on radiative J/ψ decays came to different conclusions concerning the number of contributing resonances and the identification of a glueball candidate, so that additional studies using the full 10 billion J/ψ data sample will be of high importance in the future.

Based on 10 billion J/ψ events, the decay $J/\psi \rightarrow \gamma f_0(1500) \rightarrow \gamma\eta\eta'$ has been observed with a significance over 30σ while $J/\psi \rightarrow \gamma f_0(1710) \rightarrow \gamma\eta\eta'$ is found to be insignificant [2461,2462]. The suppressed decay rate of the $f_0(1710)$ into $\eta\eta'$ lends further support to the hypothesis that $f_0(1710)$ has a large overlap with the ground state scalar glueball [4703].

In the search for the pseudo-scalar glueball, the decay $J/\psi \rightarrow \gamma\eta'\pi^+\pi^-$ has proven to be particularly interesting [4702]. Here, the $X(1835)$ can be observed with a lineshape that appears to be distorted at the proton anti-proton threshold, indicating a potential $p\bar{p}$ bound-state or resonance. In addition, the higher mass structures $X(2120)$, $X(2370)$ and $X(2600)$ are observed, as shown in Fig. 423, although their spin-parity remains to be determined, a task that will be possible using the new, high precision J/ψ data.

Motivated by multiple studies of the hybrid meson candidate $\pi_1(1600)$, a recent search for the isoscalar partner states η_1 and η'_1 in the radiative decays $J/\psi \rightarrow \gamma\eta\eta'$ revealed a significant contribution from a new structure $\eta_1(1855)$ with exotic quantum numbers $J^{PC} = 1^{-+}$ [2461,2462]. While it is too early to say whether the $\eta_1(1855)$ is indeed an isoscalar

hybrid meson, future studies of alternative decay modes will help reveal its nature.

The light scalar mesons $f_0(980)$ and $a_0(980)$ are frequently discussed as potential multiquark candidates, either as $K\bar{K}$ molecules or as compact tetraquark states. One possible way to probe their structure is the study of $f_0(980)$ – $a_0(980)$ mixing first observed by BESIII in the isospin-violating processes $J/\psi \rightarrow \phi a_0^0(980)$ and $\chi_{c1} \rightarrow \pi^0 f_0(980)$ [4702]. These results provide constraints in the development of theoretical models concerning the $f_0(980)$ and $a_0(980)$.

With 10 billion J/ψ decays and the newly acquired 2.7 billion $\psi(2S)$, precision studies of conventional and exotic mesons, including multiquark states, glueballs and hybrid mesons, in radiative and hadronic J/ψ , $\psi(2S)$ and χ_{cJ} decays will be key tasks in the coming years.

Light baryon spectroscopy

The high production rate of baryons in charmonium decays, combined with the large data samples of J/ψ and $\psi(2S)$ decays produced from e^+e^- annihilations, provides excellent opportunities for studying excited baryons. Therefore, the BES experiment launched a program to study the excited baryon spectrum. At present, the search for hyperon resonances remains an important challenge. Some of the lowest excitation resonances have not yet been experimentally resolved, which are necessary to establish the spectral pattern of hyperon resonances. The large data samples of J/ψ and $\psi(2S)$ decays accumulated by the BESIII experiment enable us to complete the hyperon (e.g., Λ^* , Σ^* and Ξ^*) spectrum and examine various pictures for their internal structures. Such pictures include a simple $3q$ quark structure or a more complicated structure with pentaquark components dominating. In particular, $\psi(2S)$ decays, because of the larger mass of the $\psi(2S)$, have great potential to uncover new higher excitations of hyperons.

At BESIII, 10^{10} J/ψ and 2.7×10^9 $\psi(2S)$ decays are now available, which offer great additional opportunities for investigating baryon spectroscopy. Together with other high-precision experiments, such as GlueX and JPARC, these very abundant and clean event samples will bring the study of baryon spectroscopy into a new era, and will make significant contributions to our understanding of hadron physics in the non-perturbative regime.

Charmonium physics

Below the open-charm threshold, the spin-triplet charmonium states are produced copiously in e^+e^- annihilation and in B decays so they are understood much better than the spin-singlet charmonium states, including the lowest lying S-wave state η_c , its radial excited partner $\eta_c(2S)$, and the P-wave spin-singlet state h_c . The 2.7 billion $\psi(2S)$ decays at BESIII make it possible to study the properties of these states with improved precision. In addition, the unexpectedly

large production cross section for $e^+e^- \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-h_c$ in the BESIII high-energy region provides a new mechanism for studying the h_c and η_c (from $h_c \rightarrow \gamma\eta_c$).

The coupling of vector charmonium states to the open-charm meson pairs will provide crucial information in identifying the states in this region. The hadronic and radiative transitions between the (excited) charmonium states can be investigated to study the transition rates and decay dynamics. The cross section of $e^+e^- \rightarrow \eta J/\psi$ [4705] shows an enhancement around the $\psi(4040)$ mass, while the cross sections of $e^+e^- \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-\psi(3770)$ [4706] and $e^+e^- \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-\psi_2(3823)$ [4707] show an enhancement around the $\psi(4415)$ mass. The process $e^+e^- \rightarrow \gamma\chi_{cJ}$ is studied to search for radiative transitions between the excited vector charmonium states and the χ_{cJ} [4708]. Whether they are produced via hadronic transitions from the excited vector charmonium states or via vector charmonium-like states is not yet clear and can be addressed using improved luminosity and more decay channels.

Using the $e^+e^- \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-\psi_2(3823)$ process, the most precise mass of the $\psi_2(3823)$ has been determined [4707] and new decay modes of the $\psi_2(3823)$ have been searched for [4709]. These recent measurements at BESIII are examples that the transitions between charmonium states can also serve as production sources of non-vector charmonium states, and can be used to study the properties (mass, width and decay modes) of non-vector charmonium states. They will also be important study topics in the future at BESIII.

With a dedicated data sample taken in the χ_{c1} mass region, the direct production of the C-even resonance, χ_{c1} , in e^+e^- annihilation is observed for the first time with a statistical significance larger than 5σ [4710]. A typical interference pattern around the χ_{c1} mass is observed as shown in Fig. 424. The electronic width of the χ_{c1} has been determined for the first time from a common fit to the four scan samples to be $\Gamma_{ee} = (0.12_{-0.08}^{+0.13})$ eV, in contrast of a few keV for vector states, which is 4 orders of magnitude smaller. This observation proves that the direct production of C-even resonances through two virtual photons is accessible and measurable at the current generation of electron–positron colliders.

XYZ physics

The discovery of the XYZ states has revolutionized traditional studies of the charmonium spectrum [4711]. These exotic states cannot be embedded in the conventional charm-anticharm potential model framework, but instead point towards novel quark configurations, such as tetraquarks, hybrids, or hadronic molecules. Studying them opens a new window into nonperturbative QCD, which underlies the formation of hadrons via the strong interaction. The existence of the XYZ states poses several problems, which are addressed as the “Y problem”, “Z problem”, and “X problem” below.

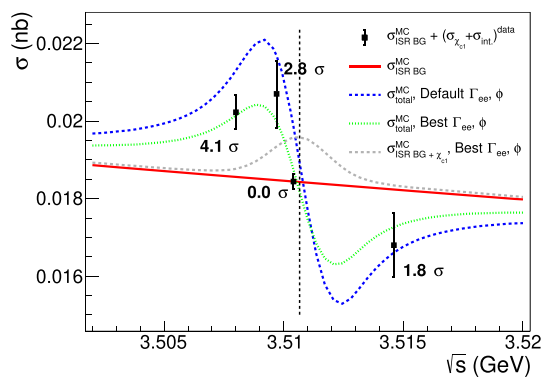


Fig. 424 The energy-dependent cross sections of $e^+e^- \rightarrow \gamma J/\psi$ including (blue and green curves) and not including (red curve) the signal process $e^+e^- \rightarrow \chi_{c1}(1P)$. The gray curve denotes the signal strength in the hypothetical case of no interference. The black dots with error bars are measured results from data. Figure taken from Ref. [4710]

The Y problem

BESIII has systematically measured the cross sections of various exclusive e^+e^- annihilations with hidden charm, open charm, and light hadronic final states [4711], and has shown that the lineshapes are complicated as a function of CM energy. The masses and widths of various structures appearing in these cross sections are shown in Fig. 425. However, the extracted parameters of these Y states are not consistent with each other in different channels. Furthermore, they deviate from the resonances observed in inclusive channels, such as the $\psi(4040)$, $\psi(4160)$, and $\psi(4415)$, that are believed to be conventional charmonia. This leads to the Y problem. What are the exact lineshapes of these cross sections? Are these observed structures new resonances or just results of some subtle kinematic effects? To address these issues, a detailed scan between 4.0 and 4.6 GeV is proposed [2634], with 500 pb^{-1} per point, for points spaced at 10 MeV intervals. This target has been partially achieved with about 22 fb^{-1} integrated luminosity, and will be updated with larger maximum energy (5.6 GeV) after the upgrade of the BEPCII.

The Z problem

The $Z_c(3900)$ [4711] was discovered at BESIII in the process $e^+e^- \rightarrow \pi^\mp Z_c^\pm$ with $Z_c^\pm \rightarrow \pi^\pm J/\psi$, and the $Z_c(4020)$ was discovered in the process $e^+e^- \rightarrow \pi^\mp Z_c^\pm$ with $Z_c^\pm \rightarrow \pi^\pm h_c$. The $Z_c(3900)$ has also been observed in the open-charm channel $(D\bar{D}^* + c.c.)^\pm$, similarly the $Z_c(4020)$ was seen via the open-charm channel $(D^*\bar{D}^*)^\pm$. Furthermore, neutral partners of these charged Z_c states have been observed at BESIII via processes $e^+e^- \rightarrow \pi^0\pi^0 J/\psi$ and $e^+e^- \rightarrow \pi^0\pi^0 h_c$. BESIII has also determined the quantum numbers of the $Z_c(3900)$ to be $J^P = 1^+$. Recently, BESIII has observed a new near-threshold structure in the K^+ recoil-mass spectra in $e^+e^- \rightarrow K^+(D_s^- D^{*0} + D_s^{*-} D^0)$ [2568]. This structure, named $Z_{cs}(3985)$, is a good candi-

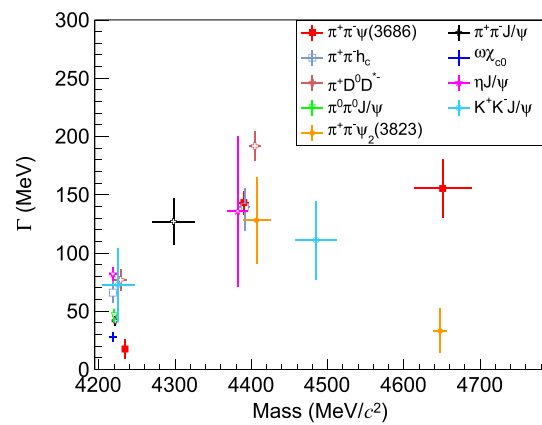


Fig. 425 Masses versus widths of the Y states obtained from different processes at BESIII. Figure modified according to Ref. [4712]

date for a charged hidden-charm tetraquark with strangeness. Besides, the evidence for its neutral partner, $Z_{cs}(3985)^0$ is observed via $e^+e^- \rightarrow K_S(D_s^+ D^{*-} + D_s^{*+} D^-)$ [4713].

However, at the energy region higher than 4.3 GeV the data have revealed more complex structure in the Daliz plots of $e^+e^- \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^- J/\psi$. A similar situation is found in the $e^+e^- \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-\psi(2S)$ [4714]. This is the Z problem. Are the properties of these Z_c states constant (corresponding to real resonant states) or energy dependent (corresponding to kinematic effects such as cusps or singularities)? What are the exact lineshapes of them? Can we find more decay patterns for them, especially for the newly discovered Z_{cs} states? Are there spin multiplets of these Z_c states? To answer these questions, BESIII may take advantage of the fine scan data mentioned before, but at a few points, a set of samples with very high statistics will be very helpful. BESIII currently has 1 fb^{-1} of data for e^+e^- cms energy at 4.23 and 4.42 GeV. Additional data including three or four points with an order of 5 fb^{-1} or more per point is proposed to guarantee adequate statistics for amplitude analyses [2634]. After the upgrade of BEPCII with triple the luminosity, this goal will be achieved more easily.

The X problem

For the $X(3872)$, BESIII has discovered the process $e^+e^- \rightarrow \gamma X(3872)$, studied the open-charm decay and radiative transitions of the $X(3872)$, and has observed the hadronic transitions $X(3872) \rightarrow \pi^0\chi_{c1}(1P)$ and $X(3872) \rightarrow \omega J/\psi$ [4711]. The $X(3872)$, with its quantum numbers $J^{PC} = 1^{++}$, has a mass very close to the predicted $\chi_{c1}(2P)$ state with a very narrow width. Then the X problem is finding a way to separate the $X(3872)$ from the $\chi_{c1}(2P)$. Is the $X(3872)$ really exotic or conventional, or even a mixture state? Can we measure the line shape of the $X(3872)$? Are there other X states (for example close to the $D^*\bar{D}^*$ threshold) that have not been observed yet? The related studies will benefit from the large scan and other data samples mentioned

before. The measurement of $X(3872)$ lineshape could be improved by performing the simultaneous fit of the available observed channels at BESIII, i.e. $X(3872) \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-J/\psi$ and $X(3872) \rightarrow D^0\bar{D}^0\pi^0$, taking into account the coupled-channel effect. Furthermore, at $E_{cm} > 4.7$ GeV with highly excited ψ or Y states produced, the hadronic transitions, that take larger production rates than the radiative transitions, are accessible. After the upgrade of BEPCII to its maximum CM energy, BESIII will have the ability to search for the J^{++} states via hadronic transitions such as the processes $e^+e^- \rightarrow \omega X$ and $e^+e^- \rightarrow \phi X$.

Relationships

There are two kinds of relationships that deserve discussion. One is the relationship between XYZ states and conventional charmonia. For example, the $\chi_{c1}(2P)$ has a similar mass and the same J^{PC} as the $X(3872)$. So a detailed understanding of the spectrum of the conventional $2P$ charmonium states, that include the spin triplet $\chi_{cJ}(2P)$ and singlet $h_c(2P)$, is crucial for understanding the nature of the $X(3872)$. This is also true for the other conventional charmonia and XYZ states under similar conditions. The studies of the conventional charmonia and exotic XYZ are complementary to each other. Understanding the relations between the two kinds of states, even the possible mixing between them, will be helpful for understanding the properties of the XYZ states. The other relationship is among the XYZ states. The analyses of processes $e^+e^- \rightarrow \gamma X(3872)$ and $e^+e^- \rightarrow \pi^0\pi^0 J/\psi$ have already shown that there is evidence for the radiative transition $Y(4230) \rightarrow \gamma X(3872)$ and the hadronic transition [4711]

$$Y(4230) \rightarrow \pi^0 Z_c^0(3900).$$

Searching for new transition modes and confirming these relations may be a unique chance for BESIII to reveal the nature of the internal structure of the XYZ states [4715].

Pentaquark states

The LHCb experiment reported the observation of three pentaquark states with a $c\bar{c}$ component in the $J/\psi p$ system via $\Lambda_b^0 \rightarrow J/\psi K^- p$. To confirm these states, further experimental research should be pursued with the current available and the forthcoming experimental data [4716]. BESIII may search for such and similar states with data to be collected at CM energies above 5 GeV in the processes $e^+e^- \rightarrow J/\psi p + X$, $\chi_{cJ} p + X$, $J/\psi \Lambda + X$, $\bar{D}^{(*)} p + X$, $D^{(*)} p + X$, and so on. It is clear that a systematic search for baryon-meson resonances should be pursued in various processes, where the baryon could be p , Λ , Σ , Σ_c , ..., and the meson could be η_c , J/ψ , χ_{cJ} , $D^{(*)}$, etc. It is worth pointing out that the tetraquark and pentaquark candidates mentioned above have a pair of charm-anticharm quarks which may annihilate. Observations of states like $T_{cc}^+(cc\bar{u}\bar{d})$ or $\Theta_c^0(uudd\bar{c})$ or $P_{cc}^0(ccdd\bar{u})$ or similar serve as more direct evi-

dence for multi-quark states. The BES experiment pioneered a search for the pentaquark candidate $\Theta(1540)$ in $\psi(2S)$ and J/ψ decays to $K_S p K^- \bar{n}$ and $K_S p K^+ n$ [4717]. More attempts will be performed with 10 billion J/ψ and 3 billion $\psi(2S)$ at BESIII.

14.6.5 Hadron decay: from light to heavy

Light meson decays

The η and η' mesons, the neutral members of the ground state pseudoscalar nonet, are important for understanding low energy quantum QCD [4718]. The 10 billion J/ψ events collected at BESIII offer a unique opportunity to investigate all these aspects, as well as the search for rare η and η' decays needed to test fundamental QCD symmetries and probe physics beyond the SM. The decays $J/\psi \rightarrow \gamma\eta(\eta')$ and $J/\psi \rightarrow \phi\eta(\eta')$ provide clean and efficient sources of η/η' mesons for the decay studies.

The observation of new η' decay modes [4719], including $\eta' \rightarrow \rho^\mp \pi^\pm$, $\eta' \rightarrow \gamma e^+ e^-$, and $\eta' \rightarrow 4\pi$ have been reported for the first time using about 10^9 J/ψ decays. Using the same data set, the branching fractions of the five dominant decay channels of the η' were measured for the first time using events in which the radiative photon converts to e^+e^- .

The double Dalitz decay $\eta' \rightarrow e^+e^-e^-e^-$ is of great interest for understanding the pseudoscalar transition form factor and the interaction between pseudoscalar and virtual photons. This process has not been observed to date, while the predicted branching fraction is of the order of 2×10^{-6} [4720, 4721]. Another interesting study is the hadronic decay $\eta' \rightarrow \pi^0\pi^0\eta$ which is sensitive to the elastic $\pi\pi$ S-wave scattering lengths, and causes a prominent cusp effect in the $\pi^0\pi^0$ invariant mass spectrum at the $\pi^+\pi^-$ mass threshold [4722]. The full J/ψ data set collected by BESIII offers unique opportunities to investigate the cusp effect in this decay for which no evidence has yet been found.

The absolute branching fraction of the decay $J/\psi \rightarrow \gamma\eta$ has been measured with high precision using radiative photon conversions [4719], and the four dominant η decays have been measured for the first time. The $\eta/\eta' \rightarrow \gamma\pi^+\pi^-$ decay results are related to details of chiral dynamics; $\eta/\eta' \rightarrow 3\pi$ decays provide information on the up and down quark masses; and the decay widths of $\eta/\eta' \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$ are related to the quark content of the two mesons. Despite the impressive progress in the last years, many η and η' decays are still to be observed and explored. The full J/ψ data set now available at BESIII makes possible more detailed studies with unprecedented precision. It allows, in addition, an intensive investigation of the properties of the pseudoscalar states $\eta(1405)/\eta(1475)$ [4719]; a thorough study of all states observed in the 1.4–1.5 GeV/ c^2 mass region; a deep investigation of the $\omega \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-\pi^0$ Dalitz plot; and searches for rare ω decays.

Hyperon decays

Observation of a significant polarization of the Λ and $\bar{\Lambda}$ from $J/\psi \rightarrow \Lambda \bar{\Lambda}$ led to the revision of the decay asymmetry parameter α_Λ [4723,4724], and has shown BESIII has the potential to study properties of the ground-state (anti)hyperons. Moreover, the cascade decays of $J/\psi \rightarrow \mathcal{E}^- \mathcal{E}^+$ made it possible to measure the strong and weak phases of the \mathcal{E}^- decay [4679]. The branching fractions for J/ψ decays into a hyperon–antihyperon pair are relatively large, $\mathcal{O}(10^{-3})$, and thus the collected 10 billion J/ψ decays can be used for precision studies of hyperon decays and tests of CP symmetry. The hyperon–antihyperon pair is produced in a well-defined spin-entangled state based on the two possible partial waves (parity symmetry in this strong decay allows for an S - and a D -wave). The charge-conjugated decay modes of the hyperon and antihyperon can be measured simultaneously and their properties compared directly. In the first round of analyses both the hyperon and antihyperon decay via the common pionic modes. The full data set will be used to improve the precision of the CP -violation searches within these decays. The next stage will be to use a common decay of one of the (anti)hyperons to study rare decays of the produced partner. For example, the kinematical constraints make it possible to perform complete reconstruction of the semileptonic decays and radiative decays of polarized hyperons.

Leptonic decays of charm mesons

In the SM, the partial widths of the leptonic decay $D_{(s)}^+ \rightarrow \ell^+ \nu_\ell$ can be expressed in terms of the $D_{(s)}^+$ decay constant $f_{D_{(s)}^+}$ and the CKM matrix element $|V_{cd(s)}|$. Using the measured branching fractions of the leptonic $D_{(s)}^+$ decays, the product $f_{D_{(s)}^+} |V_{cs(d)}|$ can be determined. By taking the $f_{D_{(s)}^+}$ calculated by LQCD with a precision of 0.2% [692,695] one can precisely determine the CKM matrix elements $|V_{cs}|$ and $|V_{cd}|$. Conversely, taking the $|V_{cs}|$ and $|V_{cd}|$ from the standard model global fit, one can precisely measure the $D_{(s)}^+$ decay constants, which are crucial to calibrate LQCD for heavy-quark studies. Comparing the obtained branching fractions of $D_{(s)}^+ \rightarrow \tau^+ \nu_\tau$ and $D_{(s)}^+ \rightarrow \mu^+ \nu_\mu$ gives an important comprehensive test of $\tau - \mu$ lepton-flavor universality.

In recent years, BESIII reported the most precise experimental studies of $D_{(s)}^+ \rightarrow \ell^+ \nu_\ell$ by using 2.93, 0.48, and 6.32 fb^{-1} of data taken at $\sqrt{s} = 3.773, 4.009, \text{ and } 4.178\text{--}4.226 \text{ GeV}$ [4725]. However, the statistical uncertainty still dominates studies of $D^+ \rightarrow \ell^+ \nu_\ell$ decays, whereas the statistical and systematic uncertainties are comparable in measurements of $D_s^+ \rightarrow \ell^+ \nu_\ell$ decays. The full BESIII data samples to be collected in the coming years allow improvements in the precision of these important constants. The current results of f_{D^+} and $|V_{cd}|$ and their expected precision are shown in Fig. 426. Furthermore, the accuracy of the lepton-flavor universality tests in $D^+ \rightarrow \ell^+ \nu_\ell$ and $D_s^+ \rightarrow \ell^+ \nu_\ell$ decays are

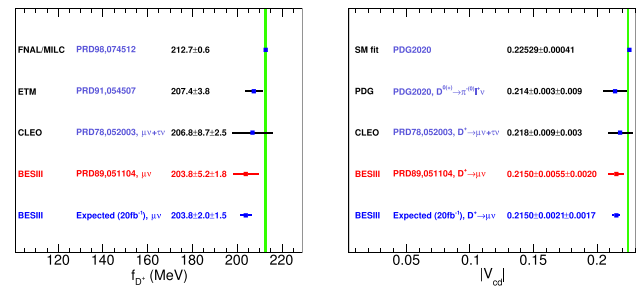


Fig. 426 Comparison of extracted D^+ decay constant and $|V_{cd}|$ from various experiments and the expected precision with 20 fb^{-1} $\psi(3770)$ data at BESIII

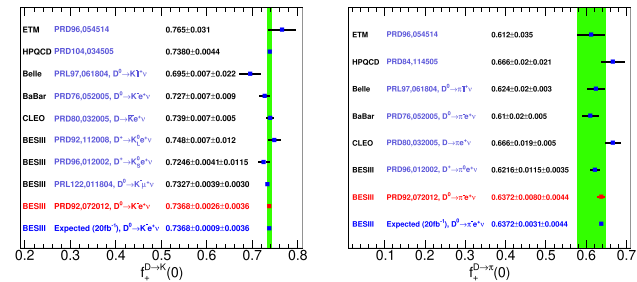


Fig. 427 Comparison of $f_{\pi^+}(0)$ and $f_{K^+}(0)$ from various experiments and the expected precision with 20 fb^{-1} $\psi(3770)$ data at BESIII

expected to be reduced from 24.0% and 4.0% to about 10.0% and 3.0%, respectively.

Semileptonic decays of charm mesons

Over the years, BESIII reported experimental studies of the semi-leptonic $D_{(s)}^{0(+)}$ decays into $P, V, S,$ and A [4725], where P denotes pseudoscalar mesons of K, π, η, η' ; V denotes vector mesons of $K^*, \rho, \omega,$ and ϕ ; S denotes scalar mesons of f_0 and a_0 ; and A denotes axial vector mesons of K_1 and b_1 . These measurements were carried out by using 2.93, 0.48, and 6.32 fb^{-1} of data taken at $\sqrt{s} = 3.773, 4.009,$ and 4.178–4.226 GeV, respectively.

Except for the $D^{0(+)} \rightarrow K$ and $D^{0(+)} \rightarrow K^*$ form factors, the precision of all other measurements of the $D_{(s)}^{0(+)} \rightarrow P$ and $D_{(s)}^{0(+)} \rightarrow V$ form factors are restricted due to the limited size of the data sets. Therefore, with the full BESIII data samples, all the form-factor measurement uncertainties that are limited by the size of the data sample will improve by factors of up to 2.6 for semi-leptonic $D^{0(+)}$ and 1.4 for semi-leptonic D_s^+ decays. Complementary studies of the semi-muonic charmed meson decays further improve the form factor knowledge. In addition, we plan to extract the $D \rightarrow S$ and $D \rightarrow A$ form factors for the first time.

The best precision in the $c \rightarrow s$ and $c \rightarrow d$ semi-leptonic $D^{0(+)}$ decay form factors will be from the studies of $D^{0(+)} \rightarrow \bar{K} \ell^+ \nu_\ell$ and $D^{0(+)} \rightarrow \pi \ell^+ \nu_\ell$. Combining analysis of semi-electronic and semi-muonic D^0 , as well as D^+ decays will give more precise results. The experimental

uncertainties are expected to be reduced from 0.6% to 0.4% on $c \rightarrow s$ decays and from 1.5% to 0.7% on $c \rightarrow d$ decays, as indicated in Fig. 427.

For semi-leptonic $D_{(s)}^{0(+)}$ decays, the best test of $\mu - e$ lepton-flavor universality is expected to be from $D \rightarrow \bar{K} \ell^+ \nu_\ell$ decays, where the test precision can be reduced from 1.3% to the level of 0.8% in the near future. At present, it is not conclusive whether the $\mu - e$ lepton-flavor universality always holds in semi-leptonic $D_{(s)}^{0(+)}$ decays, because there are still many unobserved semi-muonic decays such as

$$\begin{aligned} D^+ &\rightarrow \eta' \mu^+ \nu_\mu, \quad D^{0(+)} \rightarrow a_0(980) \mu^+ \nu_\mu, \\ D^{0(+)} &\rightarrow K_1(1270) \mu^+ \nu_\mu, \quad D^+ \rightarrow f_0(500) \mu^+ \nu_\mu, \\ D_s^+ &\rightarrow K^0 \mu^+ \nu_\mu, \quad D_s^+ \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \nu_\mu, \\ D_s^+ &\rightarrow f_0(980) \mu^+ \nu_\mu, \quad D_s^+ \rightarrow \eta' \mu^+ \nu_\mu. \end{aligned}$$

Larger data samples provide improved opportunities to search for these decays, whose observation will help clarify if there is violation of $\mu - e$ lepton-flavor universality in the charm sector.

Moreover, the studies on the intermediate resonances in hadronic final states, e.g., $K_1(1270)$ and $a_0(980)$, in the semi-leptonic $D_{(s)}^{0(+)}$ decays provide a clean environment to explore meson spectroscopy, as no other particles interfere. This corresponds to a much simpler treatment than those studies in charmonium decays or hadronic $D_{(s)}^{0(+)}$ decays.

Hadronic decays of charm mesons

Some experiments, for example LHCb, have the ability to measure a large number of charm and beauty hadron relative branching-fraction ratios due to the high yields given by the large charm and beauty production cross section. The conversion from the branching-fraction ratio to the absolute branching fraction incurs the uncertainty of the branching fraction of the reference mode, such as, $D^0 \rightarrow K^- \pi^+$, $D^0 \rightarrow K^- \pi^+ \pi^+ \pi^-$, $D^+ \rightarrow K^- \pi^+ \pi^+$, $D_s^+ \rightarrow K^- K^+ \pi^+$, and $\Lambda_c^+ \rightarrow p K^- \pi^+$. Improved measurements of these absolute branching fractions at BESIII will be highly beneficial to some key measurements at LHCb. With 20 fb^{-1} data taken around $\sqrt{s} = 3.773$ and 4.18 GeV at BESIII, these decays are expected to be measured with an uncertainty of about 1%.

At present, the sum of the branching fractions for the known exclusive decays of D^0 , D^+ and D_s^+ are more than 80%. However, there is still significant room to explore more hadronic decays to increase the known branching fractions for D^0 , D^+ and D_s^+ . A 20 fb^{-1} dataset will allow the determination of the absolute branching fractions of those missing decays $K \pi \pi \pi$, $K K \pi \pi$, and $K K \pi \pi \pi$ and exploring the sub-structures in these decays using amplitude analyses is also interesting. In addition, precise measurements of the branching fractions for D^0 , D_s^+ and D^+ inclusive decays to three charged pions and other neutral particles, and exclu-

sive decays to final states with neutral kaons and pions (e.g. $D_s^+ \rightarrow \eta' \pi^+ \pi^0$, $D^+ \rightarrow \bar{K}^0 \pi^+ \pi^+ \pi^- \pi^0$ and decay modes contributing to $D^{0(+)} \rightarrow \eta X$) are also highly desirable to better understand backgrounds in several measurements, particularly $B \rightarrow D^* \tau^+ \nu_\tau$.

Studies of such multi-body decays benefit from amplitude analyses to understand the intermediate resonances. Even though it is possible to accumulate large samples of singly tagged D mesons, they have very high backgrounds making them unsuitable to perform amplitude analyses. In contrast to this, the doubly tagged $D\bar{D}$ mesons can provide clean D samples with low backgrounds. However, the sample size limits the precision with the current data. Therefore, such measurements will be significantly improved with the full BESIII data sets.

Decays of charmed baryons

The lightest charmed baryon, Λ_c^+ , which was observed in 1979, is the cornerstone of the charmed baryon spectra. The improved knowledge of Λ_c^+ decays, especially for the normalization mode $\Lambda_c^+ \rightarrow p K^- \pi^+$, is key for the studies of the charmed baryon family. Moreover, the Λ_c^+ decays can also open a window upon a deeper understanding of strong and weak interactions in the charm sector. In addition, these will provide important inputs for the studies of beauty baryons that decay into final states involving Λ_c^+ .

Compared to the significant progress in the study of charmed mesons, the advancements in the knowledge of the charmed baryons are relatively slow in the past 40 years. Before 2014, almost all the decays of Λ_c^+ were measured relative to the normalization mode $\Lambda_c^+ \rightarrow p K^- \pi^+$, whose branching fraction suffered a large uncertainty of 25%. Moreover, no data sample taken around the $\Lambda_c^+ \bar{\Lambda}_c^-$ pair production threshold had been used to study the Λ_c^+ decays.

BESIII have already collected 4.4 fb^{-1} of data above $\Lambda_c \bar{\Lambda}_c$ threshold, which will provide the most precise values of many absolute branching fractions and polarization parameters [2634]. Future running with the upgraded BEPC-II will allow large samples of Σ_c and Ξ_c pairs to be collected, which will lead to many absolute branching fractions of charm baryon decays to be determined for the first time [2634].

The “post-BEPCII era”

The super τ -Charm facility (STCF) [4726] is one of the major options for future accelerator-based high energy projects in China. The proposed STCF is a symmetric double ring electron-positron collider that would operate in the CM region $\sqrt{s} = 2 \sim 7 \text{ GeV}$ with a peaking luminosity of $0.5 \times 10^{35} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ or higher. It is expected to deliver more than 1 ab^{-1} of integrated luminosity per year. Huge samples of exotic charmonium-like states (XYZ), J/ψ , D , D_s and Λ_c decays could be used to make precision measurements of the properties of XYZ particles, and map out the spectroscopies

of QCD hybrids and glueballs. High statistics data samples could also be used to search for new sources of CP violation in the hyperon and τ -lepton sectors with unprecedented sensitivity and search for anomalous decays of various hadrons with sensitivities extending down to the level of SM-model expectations.

Since 2012, when the STCF was proposed, the Chinese STCF working group, together with international teams, have carried out a series of feasibility studies, completed the preliminary Conceptual Design Report (CDR) and made significant progress. Compared to the BEPCII/BESIII experiments, the substantial improvement in the performance of the STCF will lay the foundation for breakthroughs in the relevant frontiers of research. Meanwhile, it will pose major technical challenges in accelerator and detector development. At present, the STCF project for the research and development of key technologies is actively performed with the support of Anhui Province of China. More efforts are being made to promote the implementation and construction of the STCF project.

14.7 BELLE II

Toru Iijima

The Belle II experiment is a particle-physics experiment operating at the SuperKEKB collider built in the KEK laboratory in Japan (Fig. 428). It is a successor of the Belle experiment at the KEKB collider, which experimentally established the Kobayashi-Maskawa theory of the CP violation, together with the BaBar experiment at the SLAC PEP II collider. Over the next decades, Belle II will record the decay of billions of bottom mesons, charm hadrons, and τ leptons produced in electron-positron collisions at and near the $\Upsilon(4S)$ energy. The ultimate goal is to accumulate 50 ab^{-1} data of e^+e^- collisions, which is about 50 times larger than the data set of the Belle experiment. These data, collected in the low background and kinematically known conditions, will provide a complementary approach to experiments at hadron machines. It will allow us to critically test the standard model (SM) and search for new particles through processes sensitive to virtual heavy particles at mass scale orders of magnitudes higher than direct searches at the energy frontier experiment.

The Belle II physics program includes variety of subjects in the areas of;

- Precision CKM measurements to critically test SM and find or constrain non-SM physics contribution in a model-independent way.
- Search for non-SM CP violation in rare B processes, such as $b \rightarrow q\bar{q}s$.
- Search for non-SM physics in semileptonic, radiative and other rare B decays, including precision tests of the

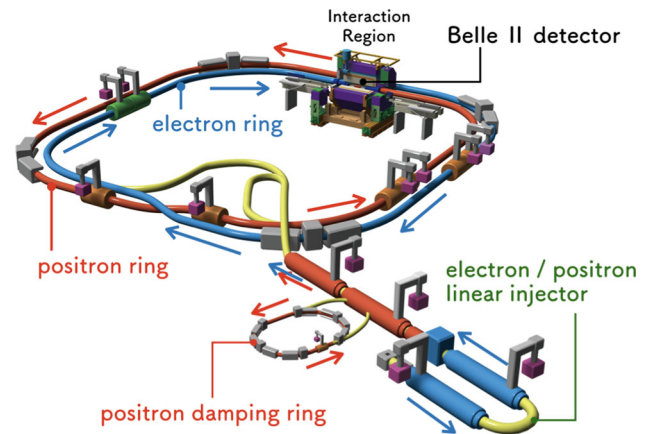


Fig. 428 Layout of the SuperKEKB accelerator

lepton-universality in $b \rightarrow c\ell\nu$ and $b \rightarrow s\ell^+\ell^-$, where ℓ stands for either of e, μ and τ .

- Measurements of many parameters in decays of charm hadrons and the τ leptons with world-leading precisions, including their masses, lifetimes, CP violation parameters, and branching fractions for charged-lepton-flavor-violating decays.
- Unique searches for dark-sector particles with masses in the MeV-GeV range, where some of them are possible dark matter candidates.
- Broad spectroscopy program for both conventional and multi-quark $c\bar{c}$ and $b\bar{b}$ states using different production processes; through B decays, through initial state radiation processes, two-photon collisions and double charmonia productions.
- Provide essential inputs to sharpen the interpretation of results for the anomalous magnetic moment of the muon $(g-2)_\mu$, which indicates 4.2σ deviation from the SM.

In these physics studies at Belle II, the importance of QCD is two-fold. First, better understandings of non-perturbative QCD properties associated with particle decays are essential ingredients for sharpening the SM predictions as references for non-SM physics searches. Second, a variety of low-energy QCD phenomena, such as the $c\bar{c}$ and $b\bar{b}$ spectroscopy as mentioned above, are the subjects that could be uniquely studied at the Belle II experiment. Also, the e^+e^- collisions to hadron final states offer unique opportunities to study hadronization processes like the Collins effect. The variety of physics studies that can be carried out at Belle II is discussed in detail in Ref. [4158]. In the subsections following Sect. 14.7.2, we describe only a brief summary for subjects that are of primary relevance to QCD, where Belle II will be unique and will be world-leading.

14.7.1 SuperKEKB/Belle II experiment

The SuperKEKB accelerator is an asymmetric energy collider of 4.0 GeV e^+ and 7.0 GeV e^- . The target instantaneous luminosity is $\sim 6 \times 10^{35} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$, enabling accumulation of 50 ab^{-1} over the next decade. It is the world's leading luminosity machine with an innovative “nano-beam scheme”, where the two beams collide with a large horizontal crossing angle and the vertical beam size is squeezed down to a level of 50–60 nm at the interaction point (IP).

The Belle II detector, as shown in Fig. 429, is located at the single collision point (IP) of the SuperKEKB. It is nearly a 4π magnetic spectrometer surrounded by a calorimeter and muon detectors and comprises several subdetectors arranged cylindrically around IP and with a polar structure reflective of the asymmetric distribution of final-state particles resulting from the asymmetric energy collision. From the innermost out, these subdetectors are the vertex detector (VXD), central drift chamber (CDC), electromagnetic calorimeter (ECL), and K-long and muon detector (KLM). In between CDC and ECL, are charged-particle-identification subdetectors: a time-of-propagation Cherenkov counter (TOP) in the barrel, and an aerogel ring-imaging Cherenkov detector (ARICH) in the forward region. Between ECL and KLM, is a solenoid coil that provides a 1.5 T axial magnetic field for measurements of the momenta and electric charge of charged particles. The vertex detector consists of two layers of pixel sensors (PXD) surrounded by four layers of microstrip sensors (SVD) to determine the positions of decaying particles with the typical impact-parameter resolution of 10–15 μm , resulting in 20–30 μm typical vertex resolution.¹²³ The small-cell helium-ethane central drift chamber measures the positions of charged particles at large radii and their energy losses due to ionization. The relative charged-particle transverse momentum resolution is typically 0.4%/pT [GeV]. The observed hadron identification efficiencies are typically 90% at 10% contamination. Typical uncertainties in hadron-identification performance are 1%. The CsI(Tl)-crystal electromagnetic calorimeter measures the energies of electrons and photons with energy-dependent resolutions in the 1.6–4% range. Layers of plastic scintillators and resistive-plate chambers interspersed between the magnetic flux-return yoke's iron plates allow us to identify K_L and muons. Our observed lepton-identification performance shows 0.5% pion contamination at 90% electron efficiency, and 7% kaon contamination at 90% muon efficiency. Typical uncertainties in lepton-identification performance are 1% – 2%.

¹²³ The second pixel layer is currently incomplete, covering approximately 15% of the azimuthal acceptance. Installation of the pixel detector will be completed in 2023.

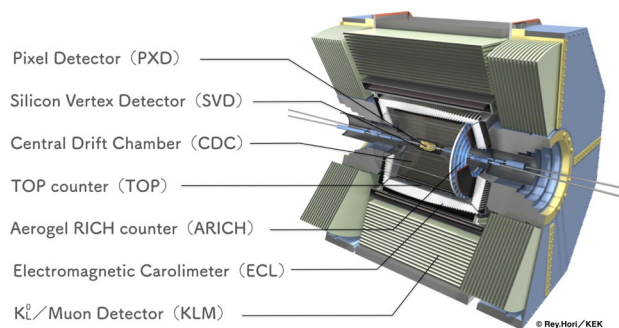


Fig. 429 The Belle II detector which consists of seven subsystems

The Belle II experiment has unique advantages over hadron-collider experiments, such as the LHCb experiment. Despite having comparatively less data and fewer accessible initial states;

- It produces heavy flavor particles in a less background environment, which enables efficient detection of neutral particles, such as γ , π^0 , K_S^0 , K_L^0 .
- It produces quantum correlated B^0 - \bar{B}^0 pairs, by which we can tag the B meson flavor with high effective efficiency. We can also measure precisely B decay modes with neutrinos in the final state, by fully reconstructing one of the B mesons, referred to as “full reconstruction tagging”.
- It provides a large sample of τ leptons obtained, which allows us to study in detail the property of the τ lepton, including Lepton-Flavor-Violating (LFV) decays.

As for the full reconstruction tagging, a new “Full Event Interpretation (FEI)” tool has been developed [4727]. The basic idea of FEI is to reconstruct, in a hierarchical manner, individual particle decay channels that occur in the decay chain of the B meson. For each unique decay channel of a particle, a multivariate classifier (MVC) is trained using simulated events. Both hadronic and semileptonic B decays are used. The typical tag-side efficiency, defined as the number of correctly reconstructed tag-side B mesons divided by the total number of $\Upsilon(4S)$ events, is 0.61% (0.34%) for hadronic B^+ (B^0) decays and 1.45% (1.25%) for semileptonic B^+ (B^0) decays. The full reconstruction tagging provides unique methods to measure B decays with neutrinos in the final states, such as $B \rightarrow \pi \ell \nu$, $B \rightarrow D^{(*)} \tau \nu$ and $B \rightarrow K \nu \bar{\nu}$.

14.7.2 Precision CKM measurements

In the Standard Model (SM), CP violation in the K/B meson decays can occur as the complex phase in the Cabibbo–Kobayashi–Maskawa (CKM) quark mixing matrix [86, 4028]. The high luminosity data at Belle II enable precision

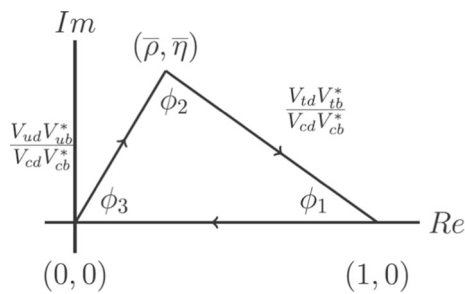


Fig. 430 The unitarity triangle

measurements of the three internal angles, $(\phi_1, \phi_2, \phi_3) \equiv (\alpha, \beta, \gamma)$, and the three sides of the unitarity triangle, which represents the unitarity condition of the CKM matrix elements, $V_{ud}^* V_{ub} + V_{cd}^* V_{cb} + V_{td}^* V_{tb} = 0$, in the complex plane with the three terms divided by $V_{cd} V_{cb}^*$, as shown in Fig. 430.

Measurement of ϕ_1

The internal angle $\phi_1 \equiv \arg(-V_{cd} V_{cb}^* / V_{td} V_{tb}^*)$ is determined from measurements of time-dependent CP asymmetries, which occurs via interference between $B_d - \bar{B}_d$ oscillation and $b \rightarrow c\bar{c}s$ decay amplitudes. Most of the hadronic uncertainties cancel out in the CP asymmetry, therefore, these measurements provide very clean and precise determinations of ϕ_1 . In the experiment, after the $B^0 - \bar{B}^0$ system is coherently produced from an $\Upsilon(4S)$ decay, one of the B mesons, B_{CP} , decays to a CP eigenstate f_{CP} at $t = t_{CP}$ whereas the other, B_{tag} , may decay to favor specific final state at $t = t_{tag}$. The distribution of the proper-time difference $\Delta t \equiv t_{CP} - t_{tag}$ is expressed by

$$\mathcal{P}_{f_{CP}}(\Delta t, q) = \frac{e^{-|\Delta t|/\tau_{B^0}}}{4\tau_{B^0}} \{1 + q[\mathcal{A}_{f_{CP}} \cos(\Delta m_d \Delta t) + \mathcal{S}_{f_{CP}} \sin(\Delta m_d \Delta t)]\}, \tag{14.3}$$

where τ_{B^0} and Δm_d are the average lifetime and mass difference between neutral B physical states, respectively, and $\mathcal{A}_{f_{CP}}$ and $\mathcal{S}_{f_{CP}}$ are the direct and mixing-induced CP-violating asymmetries, respectively. The B meson flavor q takes values $+1(-1)$ when B_{tag} is $B^0(\bar{B}^0)$ and it is statistically determined from the favor tagging algorithm based on final-state information [4728]. The time-difference Δt is approximated by the distance between the two B-meson decay vertices divided by the speed of the $\Upsilon(4S)$ projected onto the boost axis.

The previous experiments Belle, BaBar, and LHCb achieved determination of ϕ_1 at 2.4% precision [4729], using tree dominated $(c\bar{c})K^0$ decays, such as $J/\psi K_S^0$, $\psi(2S)K_S^0$, $\chi_{c1}K_S^0$ and $J/\psi K_L^0$. The error is still dominated by systematic uncertainties, associated with imperfections in vertex reconstruction and flavor tagging. The precision is expected to further improve to below 1% in the next decade,

and it will provide a firm basis to search for non-SM contributions.

Measurement of ϕ_2

Studies of $b \rightarrow u$ charmless B decays give access to $\phi_2 \equiv \arg[-V_{tb}^* V_{td} / V_{ub}^* V_{ud}]$, the least known angle of the CKM unitarity triangle, and probe non-SM contributions in processes mediated by loop decay-amplitudes. However, clean extraction of ϕ_2 is not trivial due to hadronic uncertainties, which are hardly tractable in perturbative calculations. Appropriate combinations of measurements from decays related by flavor (isospin) symmetries reduce the impact of such uncertainties [4730]. The most promising determination of ϕ_2 relies on the combined analysis of the decays $B^+ \rightarrow \rho^+ \rho^0$, $B^0 \rightarrow \rho^+ \rho^-$, $B^0 \rightarrow \rho^0 \rho^0$, and corresponding decay into pions. The current global precision of 4 degrees is dominated by $B \rightarrow \rho\rho$ data [4729]. Leveraging efficient reconstruction of low-energy π^0 , improved measurements in $B^+ \rightarrow \rho^+ \rho^0$ and $B^0 \rightarrow \rho^+ \rho^-$ decays will be unique to Belle II. The expected experimental accuracy for the ϕ_2 determination is less than 1° at 50ab^{-1} .

Measurement of ϕ_3

The third internal angle $\phi_3 \equiv \arg[-V_{ud} V_{ub}^* / V_{cd} V_{cb}^*]$ is accessible via tree-level decays, such as $B \rightarrow DK$, where D represents a generic superposition of D^0 and \bar{D}^0 . Assuming that non-SM amplitudes do not affect appreciably tree-level processes, precise measurements of ϕ_3 and $|V_{ub}/V_{cb}|$ set strong constraints on the SM description of CP violation, to be compared with measurements from higher-order processes potentially sensitive to non-SM amplitudes, such as mixing-induced CP violation through $\sin 2\phi_1$. Extraction of ϕ_3 involves measurement of $B^- \rightarrow \bar{D}^0 K^-$ and $B^- \rightarrow D^0 K^-$ amplitudes, which are expressed as

$$\frac{\mathcal{A}(B^- \rightarrow \bar{D}^0 K^-)}{\mathcal{A}(B^- \rightarrow D^0 K^-)} = r_B e^{i(\delta_B - \phi_3)}, \tag{14.4}$$

where $r_B \approx 0.1$ is the ratio of amplitude magnitudes and δ_B is the strong-phase difference. Since the hadronic parameters, r_B and δ_B can be determined from data together with ϕ_3 , these measurements are essentially free of theoretical uncertainties [4731]. The precision of ϕ_3 is mostly limited by the small branching fractions of the decays involved (around 10^{-7}). The current world average is $\phi_3 = (66.2^{+3.4}_{-3.6})^\circ$ [4729], whereas the indirect determination is $(63.4 \pm 0.9)^\circ$ [4150]. Various methods with different choices of final states accessible to both D^0 and \bar{D}^0 have been proposed to extract ϕ_3 . They include CP -eigenstates (GLW method) [4732,4733], Cabibbo-favoured (CF) and doubly-Cabibbo-suppressed (DCS) decays (ADS method) [4734], self-conjugate modes (BPGGSZ method) [4735–4737], and singly Cabibbo-suppressed (SCS) decays (GLS method) [4738].

Currently, precision is dominated by measurements based on $B^- \rightarrow D(K_S^0\pi^+\pi^-)K^-$ as well as $B^- \rightarrow D(K_L^0\pi^+\pi^-)K^-$ decays [4735–4737]. Belle II will be competitive in this mode and others involving final-state K_S^0 , π^0 , and γ such as $K_S^0\pi^0$, $K_S^0\pi^+\pi^-\pi^0$ or $B^- \rightarrow D^*(D(\gamma, \pi^0))h^-$. Precision will further improve following the expected three-fold improvements on the external charm-strong-phase inputs from BESIII [4158]. In addition, $B^- \rightarrow D(K_S^0\pi^+\pi^-\pi^0)K^-$ is promising at Belle II due to its sizable branching fraction and rich resonance substructures, as shown by Belle [4739]. Improved charm-strong-phase inputs, availability of a suitable amplitude model of $D \rightarrow K_S^0\pi^+\pi^-\pi^0$ and a larger B decay sample will render $B^- \rightarrow D(K_S^0\pi^+\pi^-\pi^0)K^-$ a strong contributor for determination of ϕ_3 . The precision of ϕ_3 is expected to be $\mathcal{O}(1^\circ)$ with the full 50^{-1} data set.

Determination of $|V_{cb}|$ and $|V_{ub}|$

The magnitudes of the CKM matrix elements $|V_{cb}|$ and $|V_{ub}|$ can be deduced from tree $b \rightarrow c$ and $b \rightarrow u$ processes and provide reliable SM references to test non-SM contributions. The most precise determinations of $|V_{cb}|$ and $|V_{ub}|$ come from measurements of semileptonic transitions $b \rightarrow c\ell\nu$ and $b \rightarrow u\ell\nu$, either in inclusive or exclusive final states, combined with theoretical inputs to characterize the QCD effects associated with B decays. There has been significant disagreement in the results obtained from exclusive and inclusive measurements [4729]. The reason for this discrepancy is unknown and has been a long-standing issue. It can be possibly inconsistent experimental or theory inputs, but also interpretations in terms of non-SM physics cannot be excluded [4084]. The large data set at Belle II will offer more precise and richer experimental information to test theoretical investigations and to clarify the issue.

Exclusive $|V_{ub}|$

Belle-II will provide a variety of ways for exclusive $|V_{ub}|$ determinations. While $\bar{B}^0 \rightarrow \pi^+\ell^-\bar{\nu}_\ell$ is currently the most effective in terms of availability of experimental data and theoretical calculations of the form factor, Belle II will also measure other exclusive $b \rightarrow u\ell\nu_\ell$ modes with good precision, in particular those involving neutral final-state particles such as

$$B^- \rightarrow (\pi^0, \rho^0, \omega, \eta, \eta')\ell^-\nu_\ell$$

and $\bar{B}^0 \rightarrow \rho^+\ell^-\nu_\ell$. The excellent resolution in $q^2 \equiv (p_\ell + p_\nu)^2$ also gives access to the decay form factors equally important for determining $|V_{ub}|$. Typically, experimental uncertainties are smallest for low q^2 whereas uncertainties in the form factors from lattice QCD are smallest at high q^2 . Improvements in the experimental constraints will be driven mainly by data set sizes. Belle II can also measure the variety of exclusive decays with high purities in analyses, where the (non-signal) partner B -meson is reconstructed [4740]. Belle II will double the global precision in exclusive

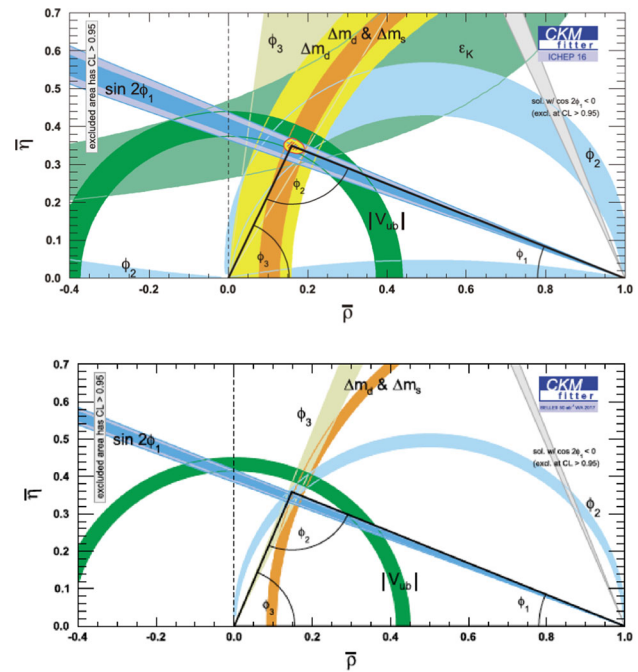


Fig. 431 Current unitarity triangle fit (top) and extrapolated to 50 ab^{-1} (bottom) [4158]

$|V_{ub}|$ results below 3%. Expected progress in lattice QCD [4158] will offer further significant improvement.

Inclusive $|V_{ub}|$:

Belle II will provide a unique opportunity to measure inclusive $B \rightarrow X_u\ell\nu$ decays, where X_u is a charmless hadronic system. Taking advantage of the $B\bar{B}$ threshold experiment, after reconstructing a signal lepton and the partner B meson, all remaining tracks and energy clusters can be associated with the X_u candidate. Measurements require accurate modeling of the $b \rightarrow u$ signal and the $b \rightarrow c$ background as demonstrated in the latest Belle measurement of $B \rightarrow X_u\ell\nu$, which indeed reports results closer to exclusive [4111]. With larger sample sizes and continuing developments in reconstruction algorithms (e.g., improved partner B reconstruction), Belle II will accomplish measurements of inclusive $|V_{ub}|$ to $\mathcal{O}(1)\%$ precision. Belle II can also explore novel ideas of measurements, such as the measurement of differential branching fractions of $B \rightarrow X_u\ell\nu$ which enables shape-function model-independent determinations of $|V_{ub}|$ as demonstrated by Refs. [4114,4115,4741].

Determination of $|V_{cb}|$

Belle II will be able to improve also determinations of $|V_{cb}|$ from exclusive $B \rightarrow D^{(*)}\ell\nu$ decays and inclusive $B \rightarrow X_c\ell\nu$ decays. For exclusive analyses, the key experimental challenges will be to understand better the composition and form factors of $B \rightarrow D^{**}\ell\nu$ decays and reduce relevant systematic uncertainties as those associated with lepton identification and low-momentum-pion reconstruction

for $B \rightarrow D^* \ell \nu$ decays. Belle II will tackle this with a detailed program based on dedicated auxiliary studies of $B \rightarrow D^{**} \ell \nu$ decays. The precision of inclusive determinations, which is limited by theory, will benefit from measurements of the kinematic moments of $B \rightarrow X_c \ell \nu$ decays that will constrain hadronic matrix elements in the operator-product-expansion based theory. Ultimately Belle II will accomplish measurements of $|V_{cb}|$ to $\mathcal{O}(1)\%$ precision.

Summary of CKM measurements

Figure 431 presents the improvements of the CKM measurements, currently achieved and expected at Belle II. The CKMFitter group has performed analyses of non-SM physics in mixing, assuming that tree decays are not affected by non-SM effects. Within this framework, non-SM contributions to the B_d mixing amplitudes can be parametrized as

$$M_{12}^d = (M_{12}^d)_{SM} \times (1 + h_d e^{2i\sigma_d}) \tag{14.5}$$

Here h_d and σ_d stand for the amplitude and phase of the non-SM physics, which are related to the mass-scale parameter Λ via

$$h \simeq \frac{|C_{ij}|^2}{|\lambda_{ij}^t|^2} \left(\frac{4.5 \text{ TeV}}{\Lambda} \right) \tag{14.6}$$

$$\sigma = \arg(C_{ij} \lambda_{ij}^{t*}), \tag{14.7}$$

where $\lambda_{ij}^t = V_{it}^* V_{tj}$ and V is the CKM matrix. The scales Λ probed in B_d mixing by the end of the Belle II data-taking will be 17 TeV and 1.4 TeV for CKMI-like couplings in a tree and one-loop-level non-SM interactions respectively. For a scenario with no hierarchy, i.e. $|C_{ij}| = 1$, the corresponding scale of operators probed will be 2×10^3 TeV and 2×10^2 TeV in a tree- and one-loop-level non-SM interactions respectively.

14.7.3 Search for non-SM CP violation in rare B processes

In order to search for the non-SM contribution, the most promising channel is $B^0 \rightarrow \eta' K_S^0$; it has a sizable decay rate dominated by the $b \rightarrow s$ loop amplitude, where non-SM physics can contribute, and its associated hadronic uncertainties is relatively small. The quantity of interest is $\Delta \mathcal{S}_{\eta' K_S^0} \equiv \mathcal{S}_{\eta' K_S^0} - \sin \phi_1$. The SM predictions that include a systematic treatment of low-energy QCD amplitudes assuming factorization yield $0.00 < \Delta \mathcal{S}_{\eta' K_S^0} < 0.03$ [4742]. The current world average of $\Delta \mathcal{S}_{\eta' K_S^0}$ is -0.07 ± 0.06 [4729]. Low backgrounds and a high-resolution electromagnetic calorimeter offer Belle II unique access to this measurement. Similarly promising is the channel $B^0 \rightarrow \phi K_S^0$, whose final state makes Belle II strongly competitive despite challenges associated with model-related systematic uncertainties from the Dalitz plot analysis. The expected experimental accuracy at 50 ab^{-1} is $\sim 0.01 (\sim 0.02)\%$ for $\mathcal{S}_{\eta' K_S^0} (\mathcal{S}_{\phi K_S^0})$. Figure 432

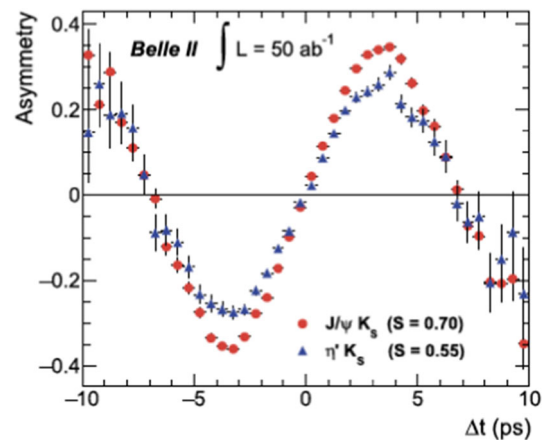


Fig. 432 Time-dependent CP asymmetry for the final state $\eta' K_S^0$ compared to $J/\psi K_S^0$, using $\mathcal{S}_{\eta' K_S^0} = 0.55$ and $\mathcal{S}_{J/\psi K_S^0} = 0.70$ in a Monte Carlo simulation with the integrated luminosity of 50 ab^{-1} [4158]

demonstrates the time-dependent CP asymmetry for the final state $\eta' K_S^0$ compared to $J/\psi K_S^0$, using $\mathcal{S}_{\eta' K_S^0} = 0.55$ and $\mathcal{S}_{J/\psi K_S^0} = 0.70$ in a Monte Carlo simulation with the integrated luminosity of 50 ab^{-1} , where the two values would be unambiguously distinguishable, signifying the existence of new physics. In addition, the processes $B^0 \rightarrow K_S^0 \pi^0 \gamma$, $B^0 \rightarrow K_S^0 \pi^+ \pi^- \gamma$, and $B^0 \rightarrow \rho^0 \gamma$ are greatly sensitive to non-SM physics through $b \rightarrow s$ and $b \rightarrow d$ loops and offer Belle II further exclusive opportunities.

14.7.4 Search for non-SM physics in semileptonic and radiative B decays

A number of persistent anomalies have been observed in semileptonic B meson decays; deviation from lepton-flavor universality in the decays $B \rightarrow D^{(*)} \tau \nu_\tau$ consistently stayed at the 3σ level since these decays were first measured [4729]. Another case of lepton-flavor universality violation has been seen in $B \rightarrow K^{(*)} \ell^+ \ell^-$. The unique capability of Belle II to reconstruct final states with missing energy and identify efficiently all species of leptons will considerably improve the understanding of these anomalies.

Semitauconic B decays

Decays $B \rightarrow D^{(*)} \tau \nu_\tau$ offer precious opportunities for testing lepton-flavor universality at high precision opening a window onto lower-mass (TeV range) non-SM particles. Sensitive observables are the ratio $R(D)$ and $R(D^*)$ of branching fractions of $B \rightarrow D^{(*)} \tau \nu_\tau$ to those of $B \rightarrow D^{(*)} \ell \nu_\ell$ decays, where $\ell = e$ or μ . There have been numerous SM calculations of $R(D^{(*)})$ and experimentally, the ratio allows for numerous systematic uncertainties to cancel. The SM predictions for the ratios $R(D)$ and $R(D^*)$ are:

$$R(D) = 0.299 \pm 0.011 \tag{14.8}$$

$$R(D^*) = 0.252 \pm 0.003 \tag{14.9}$$

Current best results on $R(D^{(*)})$ are reported by the Belle experiment [4743] and are consistent with previous measurements [4744–4748] in showing a (combined) 3.1σ excess with respect to the SM expectation [4729].

$$R(D) = 0.349 \pm 0.027_{(stat)} \pm 0.015_{(syst)} \tag{14.10}$$

$$R(D^*) = 0.298 \pm 0.011_{(stat)} \pm 0.007_{(syst)} \tag{14.11}$$

This deviation has attracted significant interest in the community as it could be a potential indication of non-SM dynamics.

The main experimental challenge is achieving a detailed understanding of poorly known $B \rightarrow D^{*} \ell \nu$ backgrounds, whose feed-down may bias the results. The anticipated data set size will allow for accurate tagged measurements of $B \rightarrow D^{*} \ell \nu$ decays for several D^{*} states using samples reconstructing on the signal-side a lepton, a $D^{(*)}$ meson and n pions. If a non-SM source of the anomaly would be established, angle-dependent asymmetries and differences between forward-backward asymmetries observed in muons and electrons, which are ideally suited for Belle II, may offer insight into the properties of the non-SM couplings involved.

Measurements of polarization of the τ lepton ($(\Gamma^+ - \Gamma^-)/(\Gamma^+ + \Gamma^-)$) and D^* mesons ($\Gamma_L/(\Gamma_T + \Gamma_L)$) provide supplementary sensitivity to non-SM physics. Here, $\Gamma^+(\Gamma^-)$ is the semitauponic decay rate where the τ has $+\frac{1}{2}$ ($-\frac{1}{2}$) helicity and $\Gamma_L(\Gamma_T)$ is the rate where the D^* has longitudinal (transverse) polarization. Figure 433 shows the expected Belle II constraints on the $R(D) - R(D^*)$ plane (top) and the $R(D^*) - P_\tau(D^*)$ plane (bottom). Furthermore, differential angular distributions in $B \rightarrow D^{(*)} \tau \nu$, usually studied as functions of q^2 , may also be important to decipher the dynamics and are distinctive to Belle II.

$B \rightarrow K^* \ell^+ \ell^-$ decays

The transitions $b \rightarrow s \mu \mu$ and $b \rightarrow s e e$ are under extensive experimental investigation due to several observed anomalies [4749,4749–4753] that prompted interpretations in terms of $\mathcal{O}(10)$ TeV non-SM particles. The unique feature of Belle II is its high efficiency and similar performance for muons and electrons, along with access to absolute branching fractions. Based on a recent Belle II analysis [4754], we expect to provide distinctive information to assess independently the existence of the anomalies (at current central values) with samples of 5 ab^{-1} to 10 ab^{-1} of data. Belle II can provide also results based on inclusive $B \rightarrow X_S \ell^+ \ell^-$ decays, which do not specify the final strange hadronic states X_S and has fewer theoretical ambiguities.

Belle II can reach also $b \rightarrow s \tau \tau$ transitions. These can be enhanced, by up to three orders of magnitude, in several SM extensions that allow for lepton-flavor universality violation in the third generation [4755,4756]. The SM branching fraction for the $B \rightarrow K^* \tau \tau$ decay is around 10^{-7} [4757], much smaller than current experimental upper limits, which are at

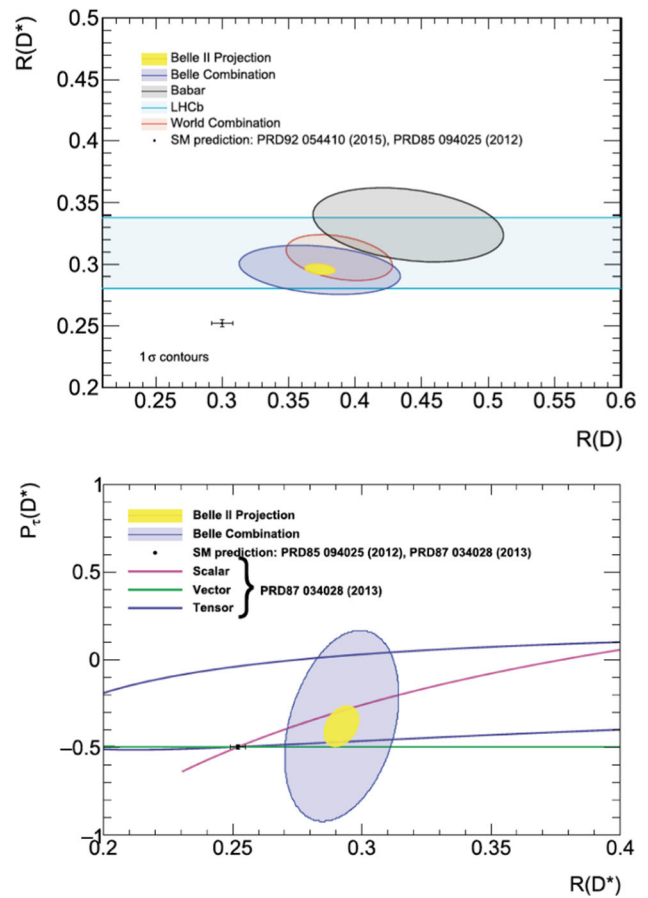


Fig. 433 Expected Belle II constraints on the $R(D) - R(D^*)$ plane (top) and the $R(D^*) - P_\tau(D^*)$ plane (bottom) compared to existing experimental constraints from Belle. The SM predictions are indicated by the black points with theoretical error bars [4158]

around 2.0×10^{-3} at 90% CL [4755,4758]. The presence of two τ leptons in the final state makes access to these decays ideally suited to Belle II.

Radiative B decays

Radiative $b \rightarrow s \gamma$ transitions are dominated by a one-loop amplitude involving a t quark and W boson. Extensions of the SM predict particles that can contribute to the loop, potentially altering various observables from their SM predictions [4759,4760]. Belle II has a unique capability to study these transitions both inclusively and using specific channels.

The availability of precise and reliable SM predictions of inclusive $B \rightarrow X_S \gamma$ rates, where X_S identifies a particle with strangeness, make these rates sensitive probes for non-SM physics. In addition, these analyses enable the determination of observables like the b -quark mass and can provide input to inclusive determinations of $|V_{ub}|$ [4158]. Ability to measure precisely the decay properties of the partner B recoiling against the signal B is key for inclusive analyses[4727]. Current best results show 10% fractional precision mostly limited by systematic uncertainties associated with understanding

the large backgrounds. The expected relative uncertainties on the branching fractions are $\sim 6\%$ at 5 ab^{-1} and $\sim 2\%$ at 50 ab^{-1} slightly depending on the lower E_γ threshold. The construction of relative quantities like asymmetries will offer a further reduction of systematic uncertainties and enhanced reach. Inclusive analyses of radiative B decays will offer unique windows over non-SM physics throughout the next decade.

14.7.5 Hadron spectroscopy

While many hadron states are categorized into mesons and baryons containing constituent quark–antiquark ($q\bar{q}$) and three quarks (qqq), respectively, there is no proof in QCD to exclude the hadrons having other structures than the ordinary mesons and baryons. The situation has largely changed by the series of discoveries of charmonium-like states, $X(3872)$ [2514], $Y_c(4260)$ [4761], $Z_c^\pm(3900)$ [2588], and several others that do not fit the well-established quark model. Analogous discoveries containing bottom quarks (e.g., $\Upsilon(5S)$ decays to $Z_b^\pm(10610/50)$ [2598]) indicate a similar unexplored family of particles in the bottomonium sector. The Belle II experiment offers several unique opportunities in this domain. It will exploit 40 times more data than the previous generation B -factories and, compared with hadron-collisions experiments, leverages a greater variety of quarkonium production mechanisms including B meson decays, initial state radiation (ISR), double $c\bar{c}$ processes, two-photon processes, and direct production by changing collider center-of-mass energy [4158]. Belle II is the only experiment with the ability to operate at tuneable center-of-mass energy near the $\Upsilon(4S)$ resonance, providing direct access to multi-quark states containing bottom quarks. In addition, Belle II's good efficiency for reconstructing neutral final-state particles opens the pathway for first observations of the predicted neutral partners of charged tetraquark states.

Belle II has the unique opportunity to explore bottomonium(-like) states by operating at center-of-mass energies around 10 GeV , where only small samples exist worldwide: $\mathcal{O}(10) \text{ fb}^{-1}$ at $\Upsilon(1S, 2S, 3S, 6S)$, $\mathcal{O}(100) \text{ fb}^{-1}$ at $\Upsilon(5S)$, and typically less than 1 fb^{-1} at intermediate points. This opens a fruitful program, as demonstrated by previous discoveries at e^+e^- colliders that yielded first observations of predicted bottomonia ($\eta_b(1S, 2S)$, $h_b(1P, 2P)$, and $\Upsilon(1D_2)$) and unexpected four-quark states ($Z_b^\pm(10610, 10650)$, $Y_b(10753)$) [4762,4763]. Collisions at energies below the $\Upsilon(4S)$ allow for testing non-SM predictions in Υ decays to invisible or lepton-flavor-violating final states [4764,4765].

14.7.6 Constraining hadronic vacuum-polarization in muon $g-2$

The anomalous magnetic moment of the muon often parametrized as $a_\mu = (g-2)_\mu/2$, is one of the observables which indicate significant deviation from the SM and has attracted much attention from the community. The current experimental value (combining the BNL E821 result with the first result from the Fermilab $g-2$ experiment) differs from SM predictions based on dispersion relations by 4.2σ , $a_\mu(\text{exp}) - a_\mu(\text{theory}) = (26.0 \pm 7.9) \times 10^{-10}$ [4286,4287]. In order to clarify the deviation, it is important to improve the precision of both experiments and the SM predictions. On the experimental side, the experiment at Fermilab will provide results by further accumulated data and also an experiment with different methods and thus have different systematic errors has been proposed and is being prepared at J-PARC [4766]. The uncertainty in the SM prediction is dominated by the leading-order hadronic contribution (HVP), which can be calculated from the cross-section $\sigma(e^+e^- \rightarrow \text{hadrons})$ measured in e^+e^- experiments. The result, $\text{HVP} = (693.1 \pm 4.0) \times 10^{-10}$, is dominated by BaBar and KLOE measurements of $\sigma(e^+e^- \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-)$. However, the BaBar and KLOE measurements notably differ. This difference introduces a systematic uncertainty of 2.8×10^{-10} [4304].

Belle II will perform these measurements with larger data sets, and at least comparable systematic uncertainty, to resolve this discrepancy. Furthermore, large statistics data at Belle II will allow us to use new approaches to suppress systematic uncertainties, particularly from particle identification. Although the specific systematic studies still need to be refined, the goal for the final accuracy including both statistical and systematic uncertainties is to be 0.5% or lower [4158]. This will match the expected experimental precision on $g-2$ [4158,4286]. Belle II's operation at the highest luminosity e^+e^- collider, as well as its excellent particle-identification capabilities, places it in a unique position to further the studies of the HVP contribution to $(g-2)_\mu$ in the next decade. HVP can be estimated also by τ hadronic spectral functions and CVC, together with isospin-breaking corrections.

14.7.7 Status and outlook

The physics data taking with all the Belle II subdetector components started in March 2019, following the SuperKEKB main ring commissioning run in 2016, and the collision test runs in 2018. At the time when this article is written, the SuperKEKB accelerator has achieved the peak luminosity of $4.7 \times 10^{34} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$, more than two times higher than the record of the previous KEKB accelerator. The Belle II experiment has accumulated 428 fb^{-1} , almost similar to the

BaBar and about half of the Belle experiments. Some results are already world-leading thanks to the efficiency and resolution improved significantly compared to the previous experiments. The operation is suspended since June 2022 for the upgrade work on the SuperKEKB and Belle II instrumentations. The operation is planned to resume in autumn 2023. Many world-leading results in heavy flavor decays will be obtained with $\mathcal{O}(1)$ ab^{-1} data in the near future, and then with $\mathcal{O}(10)$ ab^{-1} toward the next decade.

14.8 Heavy flavors at the HL-LHC

Tim Gershon

Proton–proton collisions at energies of the LHC collider result in production of vast quantities of beauty and charm quarks. The production cross-sections at centre-of-mass collision energies of 7–14 TeV are around $100 \mu\text{b}$ for beauty hadrons and an order of magnitude larger for charm hadrons [4767, 4768]. Thus, for each fb^{-1} of integrated luminosity, there are around 10^{11} beauty hadrons and around 10^{12} charm hadrons produced. As there are no constraints on the quantum numbers of the particles that emerge from the primary interaction followed by hadronization, essentially all physically possible hadrons are produced in LHC collisions. Since effects of double parton scattering, where multiple heavy quark–antiquark pairs are produced in the same proton–proton interaction, are significant, this includes states with more than one heavy-flavor quark.

The LHC and its high luminosity upgrade therefore provide a unique and unprecedented opportunity to learn about QCD from the production and decays of these hadrons. However, in order for this experimental program to be realized, it is necessary to have dedicated and state-of-the-art detection capability. In particular, focusing on charged particle detection, one needs:

- acceptance, with good reconstruction efficiency, in the kinematic region that the majority of the decay products will travel through (production of beauty and charm hadrons at the LHC predominantly occurs at small angles to the beam axis);
- good momentum resolution, so that narrow signal peaks in invariant mass distributions originating from states close to each other in mass can be resolved
- capability to discriminate between different final-state charged particles, in particular electrons, pions, muons, kaons and protons;
- ability to reject background from random combinations of particles, which must be achieved in real-time (online) in order to avoid the data rate overwhelming the available computing resources.

As regards the last point, the presence of one or more well-identified muons in the decay, above a p_T threshold of typically a few GeV, is a signature which has traditionally been used in triggers for heavy-flavor physics in hadron collider experiments. This signature continues to be exploited at the LHC, and will be throughout the HL-LHC era. However, the fact that the ground-state hadrons with heavy-flavor quantum numbers can only decay by the weak interaction provides an extremely valuable handle, as their non-negligible lifetimes cause a significant – and potentially measurable – displacement between the production and decay vertices. Consider for example a state of mass 5 GeV and lifetime $\tau = 1$ ps. If produced with 50 GeV momentum, corresponding to a Lorentz boost factor of $\beta\gamma = 10$, it will travel a mean distance of $\beta\gamma c\tau \approx 3$ mm before decaying. Therefore if the vertex position can be reconstructed with resolution significantly better than this, the potentially huge background from combinations of the large numbers of tracks produced at the primary proton–proton interaction point can be removed. Indeed, while proton–proton collisions are generally considered a difficult (or “dirty”) environment due to the large numbers of particles produced, if one only needs to consider particles originating from displaced secondary vertices the signatures can be extremely clean.

The LHCb detector is designed in order to provide this detection capability. It is the only dedicated heavy-flavor experiment at the LHC, although ALICE, ATLAS and CMS all have some ability to reconstruct heavy-flavor hadrons. The original LHCb detector operated during Runs 1 and 2 of the LHC, 2011–12 and 2015–2018 respectively, enabling the collection of a data sample corresponding to 9fb^{-1} of proton–proton collisions. This has led to a wealth of publications on a diverse range of topics. An upgraded detector has been installed during the LHC long shutdown 2 (2019–2021) and is designed for the collection of a sample of 50fb^{-1} during Runs 3 and 4, with significantly improved efficiencies for many channels of interest. In order to exploit fully the flavor-physics potential of the HL-LHC, a second major upgrade of the LHCb detector is now being planned [4769]; this will allow 300fb^{-1} to be collected in the final operational periods of the HL-LHC. Together with the 3ab^{-1} anticipated to be collected by ATLAS and CMS, this provides exciting potential in heavy-flavor physics (Fig. 434).

The above discussion focussed on charged particles. For neutral particles it is much harder both to obtain good momentum resolution and to associate them correctly to the vertex they originated from, particularly bearing in mind that they will be reconstructed in the forward kinematic region. Nonetheless, information from calorimeters can be used to broaden the flavor-physics program to include decays with photons in the final state, including those from neutral pion decays and from bremsstrahlung emission from electrons. Moreover, timing information can be used to provide

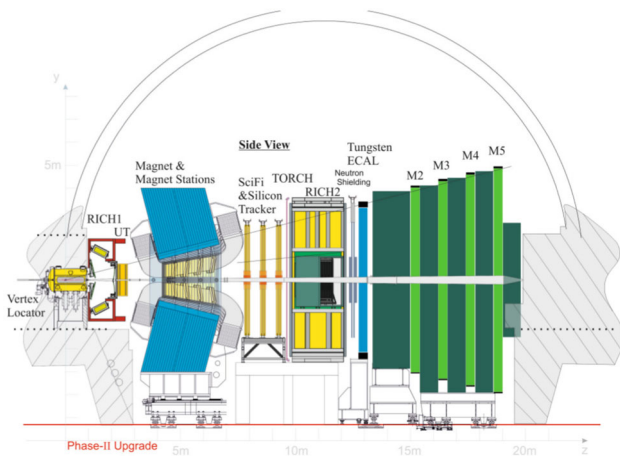


Fig. 434 The proposed LHCb Upgrade II detector [4769]

some capability to associate calorimeter clusters with reconstructed vertices; indeed the addition of timing capability is central to the plans for LHCb Upgrade II, not only for the calorimeter but also for the vertex and charged hadron identification detectors [4769].

The opportunities in flavor physics at the HL-LHC are discussed in Ref. [4770], while the LHCb Upgrade II physics program is described in Ref. [2633]. Here only a brief summary of some aspects that are most interesting with regard to QCD are discussed. The focus is primarily on LHCb, but areas where other LHC experiments can contribute are also mentioned.

CP violation

Violation of symmetry under the combined charge conjugation and parity (*CP*) operation can occur in the Standard Model as the complex phase in the Cabibbo–Kobayashi–Maskawa (CKM) quark mixing matrix [86,4028] results in the charged-current weak-interaction coupling constants being different for quarks and antiquarks. The uniqueness of the origin of all *CP* violating effects in the SM – and the knowledge that additional sources must be present in nature in order to explain the baryon asymmetry of the Universe – make experimental probes of *CP*-violating phenomena a well-motivated way to search for physics beyond the SM.

There are a number of theoretically clean probes of *CP* violation, where QCD effects that may otherwise render the interpretation of results difficult are either minimal or can be determined directly from data. In particular, the determination of the phase

$$\gamma \equiv \arg \left(-\frac{V_{ud}V_{ub}^*}{V_{cd}V_{cb}^*} \right)$$

from $B \rightarrow DK$ and similar processes is essentially unaffected by theoretical uncertainties in the SM [4731]. However, there are many more measurements where uncertainties related to QCD need to be reduced in order to obtain the best

sensitivity to physics beyond the SM. An interesting class of such measurements are those where decays can be related by flavor symmetries, as the breaking of this symmetry by QCD can often be calculated theoretically. The fact that both B^0 and B_s^0 mesons can be studied at the LHC opens a number of possibilities involving U-spin symmetry, related to interchange of *d* and *s* quarks. For example, the determination of the phase

$$2\beta \equiv 2 \arg \left(-\frac{V_{cd}V_{cb}^*}{V_{td}V_{tb}^*} \right)$$

from $B^0 \rightarrow J/\psi K_S^0$ decays has a small but hard-to-quantify uncertainty due to subleading amplitudes; the size of this effect can be constrained using the U-spin partner $B_s^0 \rightarrow J/\psi K_S^0$ decays [4771,4772]. In a similar way, the $B_s^0 \rightarrow K^{*0}\bar{K}^{*0}$ decay is considered a golden channel to probe for *CP*-violation effects beyond the SM, as theoretical uncertainties can be constrained from the U-spin partner $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0}\bar{K}^{*0}$ decay [4773–4775].

The above examples are special cases where the final state is left unchanged by U-spin. Similar ideas can be also exploited for U-spin pairs where this is not the case, such as $B^0 \rightarrow D^+D^- \leftrightarrow B_s^0 \rightarrow D_s^+D_s^-$, $B^0 \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^- \leftrightarrow B_s^0 \rightarrow K^+K^-$ and $B^0 \rightarrow K^+\pi^- \leftrightarrow B_s^0 \rightarrow K^-\pi^+$ [4776–4781]. In these cases however the U-spin breaking effects can be larger, making it harder to use them for precise tests of the SM. However, with the data samples available at the HL-LHC it will be possible to reverse the argument: assuming the SM, the extent of U-spin breaking in these decays can be precisely measured and compared to theoretical calculations. Moreover, the samples will be large enough that similar exercises can also be done for suppressed partner decays (e.g. $B^0 \rightarrow D_s^+D_s^- \leftrightarrow B_s^0 \rightarrow D^+D^-$ and $B^0 \rightarrow K^+K^- \leftrightarrow B_s^0 \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-$) where effects of subleading amplitudes are enhanced. Studies of U-spin breaking and its influence on *CP* violation in the charm meson decays $D^0 \rightarrow K^+K^-$, $\pi^+\pi^-$, $K^-\pi^+$ and $K^+\pi^-$ provide a complementary probe [4782–4785]. These measurements will provide a unique handle on our understanding of flavor symmetry breaking effects in QCD.

A number of null tests of the SM can be made by testing the prediction of small or vanishing *CP*-violating effects in specific processes. In such cases it is necessary to ensure that theoretical uncertainties in the prediction are well under control. One example is the determination of the phase ϕ_s through $B_s^0 \rightarrow J/\psi\phi$ and similar processes, where LHCb, ATLAS and CMS all have potential to reach sufficient precision to observe a non-zero effect at the SM rate [4786–4788]. Another example is the corresponding phase in the neutral charm system, ϕ_D , where recent progress measuring the mixing parameters has set the stage for precise determinations when more data are available [4789,4790]. It remains an open

question to what extent QCD effects can enhance SM CP violation in the charm sector [4791], and further progress on this front will be essential.

Data on two-body decays are in general easier to interpret than those in three- or multi-body decays (including quasi-two-body resonant contributions). Nevertheless, the latter remain of great interest as interference effects can provide sensitivity to additional CP -violating observables: the range of effects observed in three-body B meson decays illustrate this clearly [4792–4796]. Overcoming hadronic uncertainties is challenging, but with HL-LHC data ambitious coupled-channel analyses will allow additional constraints. In particular, effects related to $\pi\pi \leftrightarrow KK$ scattering can be fitted for directly in coupled-channel analyses of B^0 and (separately or simultaneously) B_s^0 decays to the $J/\psi\pi^+\pi^-$ and $J/\psi K^+K^-$ final states [4797]. Similar analyses can also be carried out in $B_{(s)}^0 \rightarrow \bar{D}^0\pi^+\pi^-$ and $\bar{D}^0 K^+K^-$ decays, and in $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-$ and $K^+K^+K^-$ decays. The latter, and also the more suppressed $B^+ \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^+\pi^-$ and $\pi^+K^+K^-$ decays, are known to feature regions of phase space with large CP violation, which could be used to test the SM if theoretical uncertainties can be controlled sufficiently.

As mentioned above, the CKM angle γ can be determined with negligible uncertainty using $B \rightarrow DK$ and related decays. The reason for this is that by combining results with multiple different D decay modes, all hadronic parameters can be determined from data. Recent examples of such combinations can be found in Refs. [4798, 4799]. From the point of view of understanding QCD, this provides an opportunity to compare the values of the hadronic parameters obtained from the combinations to those from theoretical calculations. In the case of multibody decays such as $B \rightarrow DK\pi$, the parameters that can be obtained include those related to variation of hadronic phases across the phase-space of the decay [4800, 4801]. These can be determined model-independently as a by-product of the measurement of γ , thus providing insight into a poorly understood aspect of QCD.

Semileptonic decays and form factors

As discussed in Sect. 13.2.2, the rates of semileptonic b -hadron decays, $X_b \rightarrow X_c\ell^-\bar{\nu}_\ell$ depend on the square of the magnitude of the CKM matrix element V_{cb} . Here, X_b represents a hadron containing a b quark, X_c the corresponding hadron with b replaced by c , ℓ^- a negatively charged lepton and $\bar{\nu}_\ell$ the corresponding antineutrino. Thus, measurements of the rates can allow $|V_{cb}|^2$ to be determined if the form factors, which encode the probability for the X_c hadron to be produced in the final state as a function of the $\ell^-\bar{\nu}_\ell$ invariant mass squared (q^2), are known from theoretical calculations. Likewise, studies of $X_b \rightarrow X_u\ell^-\bar{\nu}_\ell$ transitions, with obvious definition of X_u , provide sensitivity to $|V_{ub}|^2$.

The reconstruction of decays involving neutrinos in the final state is challenging in the environment of a hadron col-

lider, as one cannot exploit the kinematic constraints that are available in the $e^+e^- \rightarrow \Upsilon(4S) \rightarrow B\bar{B}$ system. Nonetheless, exploiting LHCb's capability in reconstruction of vertices and charged hadron identification, it has been possible to study semileptonic Λ_b^0 (to $p\mu^-\bar{\nu}_\mu$ and $\Lambda_c^+\mu^-\bar{\nu}_\mu$) and \bar{B}_s^0 (to $K^+\mu^-\bar{\nu}_\mu$ and $D_s^+\mu^-\bar{\nu}_\mu$) decays [752, 4147]. In each case measuring the ratio allows the cancellation of some potential sources of systematic uncertainty, leading to competitive measurements of $|V_{ub}/V_{cb}|^2$.

With the full HL-LHC statistics it will be possible to extend this program to the full range of b hadrons. This will provide complementary information to the determinations using B mesons alone, and will test QCD by comparison of the form factors in heavy-to-light transitions (such as $B \rightarrow \pi$) with those in heavy-to-heavy transitions. A particularly interesting example occurs in B_c^- decays, where study of $B_c^- \rightarrow D^0\mu^-\bar{\nu}_\mu$ could potentially allow a theoretically clean determination of $|V_{ub}|^2$. In fact, the large samples of B_c^- mesons that will be available at HL-LHC present a further opportunity, since these particles preferentially decay through transitions of the charm quark. Thus, $B_c^- \rightarrow \bar{B}_s^0\mu^-\bar{\nu}_\mu$ and $\bar{B}^0\mu^-\bar{\nu}_\mu$ decays could be used to make novel measurements of the squared magnitudes of V_{cs} and V_{cd} , respectively, thereby allowing a quantitative comparison of the form factors observed in data with those calculated from first principles QCD.

Understanding QCD effects encoded in form factors and, more generally, the effects of hadronization in semileptonic b -hadron decays, will also be crucial for tests of lepton universality at HL-LHC. Within the Standard Model the W and Z couplings to all lepton flavors are identical; any deviation from this prediction would provide a clear signature of non-SM physics contributing to the decay amplitude. Due to the heavier τ mass, compared to the electron and muon, contributions from different form factors have to be understood in order to predict the SM value of the ratio of branching fractions [4120–4122]. Given the indications of potential violation on lepton universality in previous measurements of these processes at the BaBar, Belle and LHCb experiments [4743–4748] there is intense interest in the significantly more precise results that the HL-LHC can potentially provide. The challenge will be to control experimental systematic uncertainties to the required level; this is even harder for ATLAS and CMS than for LHCb, but if the background composition can be understood then all three experiments may be able to test the SM in this sector.

Rare decays

Decays which proceed by flavor-changing neutral currents are highly suppressed in the Standard Model as they involve loop diagrams, typically with additional CKM suppression factors. As physics beyond the SM does not have to have the same structure, the rates and phase space distributions of

these channels allow detailed tests for new contributions to the amplitudes.

In order to obtain the best sensitivity from these measurements, it is necessary to have QCD uncertainties, related to the hadrons in initial, intermediate and final states of the decay, under excellent control. Thus, typically the theoretically cleanest probes are decays involving leptons or photons. However, even in these cases there can be residual QCD effects that must be well understood. Recent progress is therefore focussed mainly on theoretically clean channels and data-driven approaches to constrain hadronic parameters.

The purely leptonic $B_{(s)}^0$ meson decays are a good example of channels where theoretically clean predictions are possible. Moreover, the helicity-suppression of these processes that occurs in the SM – resulting in small branching fractions for the dimuon and, especially, dielectron, processes – need not be replicated in beyond SM contributions to the amplitudes, so that large deviations from the SM predictions are possible in principle. The decay rates for these processes depend on the $B_{(s)}^0$ decay constants, which can be (and have been) calculated in lattice QCD to good precision [301]. The experimentally most amenable channel is the dimuon final state; the $B_s^0 \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$ decay has been observed by LHCb, CMS and ATLAS, and the sensitivity to the B^0 decay branching fraction approaches the level required to observe it at the SM expectation [4802–4804]. The limits on decays to dielectron and ditau final states remain considerably above the SM expectations [4805,4806].

Further improvement in the knowledge of the $B_{(s)}^0 \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$ branching fractions and their ratio is well motivated, as the experimental uncertainties remain larger than those for theory. These measurements can be expected as a key component of the HL-LHC era heavy-flavor physics programs of all of the LHCb, CMS and ATLAS experiments: it is anticipated that relative uncertainties on $B(B_s^0 \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-)$ of 4%, 7% and 12–15% can be achieved by each of the three experiments, respectively [4769,4807,4808]. In addition, the increasingly large sample sizes will make additional probes possible. In particular, the $B_s^0 \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$ effective lifetime can be used as an independent probe for physics beyond the SM [4809], with first measurements already available, albeit with large uncertainties. With the full HL-LHC statistics it will also be possible to measure CP violation parameters in this decay, providing one more independent probe, also with negligible theoretical uncertainty.

The $b \rightarrow s\ell^+\ell^-$ and $b \rightarrow d\ell^+\ell^-$ processes can also be studied through decays in which the s or d quark is found in the final state. These do not have the helicity suppression of the purely leptonic decays, but as a corollary have sensitivity to additional effective field theory operators. A large range of final states and a large number of observables can be studied. Those related to angular distributions in $B \rightarrow V\ell^+\ell^-$ pro-

cesses are particularly interesting (where V is a vector meson, i.e. decays such as $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0}\ell^+\ell^-$). In these measurements, all relevant operators can be constrained from data. Indeed, as discussed in Sect. 13.4, existing measurements of the rates and of angular observables in $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0}\mu^+\mu^-$ and $B_s^0 \rightarrow \phi\mu^+\mu^-$ decays constrain possible contributions from physics beyond the SM and, excitingly, hint at these contributions being non-zero [4753,4810–4813]. However, the possibility of these effects being caused by larger than expected non-perturbative QCD corrections is not yet ruled out [4270,4272].

Progress in this area, with the larger data samples available at the HL-LHC, can be expected in two complementary approaches. Firstly, model-dependent fits to the data can be used to attempt to constrain the non-perturbative QCD effects within specific parameterizations [4262,4268,4274,4814]. Secondly, the SM property of lepton universality in these processes can be tested – comparison of equivalent parameters for decays involving $\mu^+\mu^-$ and e^+e^- pairs provide theoretically clean tests of the SM. While the second case can provide an unambiguous signal of physics beyond the SM, this is only possible if the new physics violates lepton universality. Progress on both fronts is therefore essential in order to be able to constrain the full range of potential operators. Early measurements from LHCb of the ratios of decay rates for $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\ell^+\ell^-$ and $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0}\ell^+\ell^-$ (with $\ell = e, \mu$) give tantalizing hints of disagreement with SM predictions, but do not reach a level of significance for which strong claims would be justified [4750,4815]. In addition to larger data samples, improved electron reconstruction can help to reduce the uncertainties in future measurements. The range of lepton universality tests can also be expected to be increased in future beyond the rates alone to include also angular observables.

A further way to test the SM is through its prediction that the photon emitted in $b \rightarrow s\gamma$ flavor-changing neutral-current transitions should be predominantly left-handed, as a consequence of the V–A structure of the SM weak interaction. This can be tested in a number of ways, including through studies of the decay-time dependence of $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0}\gamma$ and $B_s^0 \rightarrow \phi\gamma$ decays, and of the angular distributions in $\Lambda_b^0 \rightarrow \Lambda\gamma$ decays [4816–4819]. The angular distribution of $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0}e^+e^-$ decays at very low e^+e^- invariant mass also probes the same physics [4820]. However, the statistically most powerful approach involves analysis of the phase-space distribution of $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\gamma$ decays, complemented by measurement of the decay-time dependence of the $B^0 \rightarrow K_S^0\pi^+\pi^-\gamma$ process [4821–4825]. To realise the full potential of this method will require improved understanding of hadronic effects in the $K\pi\pi$ system. The large data samples available at the HL-LHC will provide a number of ways to acquire such knowledge, including measurement

observation implies the existence of many more tetraquarks, containing different sets of quark flavors, which may be discoverable with the HL-LHC. As such states are observed and can be arranged in families, it will allow for a new understanding of strong interactions in much the same way as occurred for the “particle zoo” in the 1960s and 70s.

Even if a $c\bar{c}$ component is not required for the formation of exotic hadrons, a J/ψ meson in the final state facilitates the observation of new particles due to the clean signature provided by the J/ψ dimuon decay. This has been exploited in the observations of $T_{\psi\psi}$ states decaying to $J/\psi J/\psi$ [2619, 4829, 4830]. The discovery of states with minimal quark content of $cc\bar{c}\bar{c}$ motivates searches for partner states, including decays to final states such as $J/\psi \chi_{c1}$, which may cause feed-down into the $J/\psi J/\psi$ spectrum, as well as for tetraquarks with other fully heavy-quark content (e.g. $b\bar{b}c\bar{c}$). Knowledge of bottomonia decays to double charmonia final states will also be necessary for a full understanding in this area.

The first doubly charmed hadron, the Ξ_{cc}^{++} state, was observed by LHCb in 2017 [2615], and precise measurements of its mass and lifetime have followed [2617, 2618]. Its flavor partners, the Ξ_{cc}^+ and Ω_{cc}^+ baryons have also been searched for, but not yet discovered [2889, 4831, 4832]. The reason for this may be the shorter lifetimes that are expected for these states, since a short lifetime makes it harder to separate signal from background. The improved vertex resolution of the upgraded LHCb detector, together with larger data samples, will hence provide excellent prospects for discovery. Doubly heavy states containing beauty and charm quarks also appear within reach, while double beauty states appear more challenging.

The discovery of the T_{cc}^+ tetraquark, seen in prompt production as a narrow structure decaying to $D^0 D^0 \pi^+$ [1067, 2566], complements both the previous observations of the Ξ_{cc}^{++} baryon and of tetraquarks with $c\bar{c}$ content. Its mass is only just above threshold for $D^0 D^{*+}$ decays, supporting the hypothesis that ground-state tetraquarks containing beauty and charm or double beauty (T_{bc} or T_{bb}), which are expected to be more tightly bound, may be stable to strong decays. If so, they would decay only via the weak interaction and hence have lifetimes comparable to those of ground state beauty and charm hadrons. As such, they may have displaced vertex signatures that could be exploited in the LHCb experiment to enhance their observability [4833]. It is also possible that P_{cc} , P_{bc} and P_{bb} pentaquarks could be detected, with the appropriate analysis strategy depending on whether or not they are stable against strong decay. Furthermore, it is plausible (albeit speculative) that six quark, dibaryon states containing at least two beauty or charm quarks may be measurable. Studies of hadron spectroscopy with the HL-LHC data sample may therefore provide dramatic breakthroughs

in the knowledge of the possible range of states that can be bound together within QCD.

14.9 High- p_T physics at HL-LHC

Massimiliano Grazzini and Gudrun Heinrich

14.9.1 Introduction

The High-Luminosity LHC (HL-LHC) is scheduled to start operation in 2029. By colliding protons with an instantaneous luminosity that is five times higher than what is achieved at the LHC, the HL-LHC is expected to deliver data corresponding to an integrated luminosity of 3000 fb^{-1} by the end of the 2030s, which is a factor of 20 more than what has been collected so far. Despite the highly challenging experimental environment, such an increased dataset – collected with upgraded detectors – has an immense physics potential: it will give access to the rarest phenomena, and will be critical to reduce systematic uncertainties or bypass their limitations with new analyses, leading to measurements of unprecedented precision. It will allow us to achieve a sensitivity to sectors of Beyond-the-Standard-Model (BSM) phenomena that are beyond the reach of current analyses, and will ultimately help us to get closer to answering fundamental questions of particle physics.

14.9.2 Higgs properties

The study of Higgs boson (H) properties is central in the HL-LHC physics programme. Since its discovery in 2012, analyses related to the Higgs boson have significantly expanded, and have now turned into a vast campaign of precision measurements, with fundamental opportunities to indirectly constrain the Higgs boson width and to access its trilinear coupling. Small deviations from the SM can be described in a consistent framework by using effective field theory (EFT).

The main measurements of Higgs boson properties are based on five production modes (gluon fusion ggF , vector boson fusion VBF, associated production with a W or Z vector boson or with a top-quark pair) and five decay modes: $H \rightarrow \gamma\gamma, ZZ, WW, \tau\tau, b\bar{b}$. The $H \rightarrow \mu\mu$ and $Z\gamma$ channels should become visible in the future. The rate measurements in the production and decay channels mentioned above yield measurements of the Higgs boson couplings in the so-called “ κ -framework” [4834]. The latter introduces a set of scaling factors κ_i that linearly modify the couplings of the Higgs boson to the corresponding SM elementary particles, including the effective couplings to gluons and photons. The projected uncertainties, combining ATLAS and CMS, are summarized in Fig. 436. Note that theory uncertainties are assumed to be halved with respect to their current values.

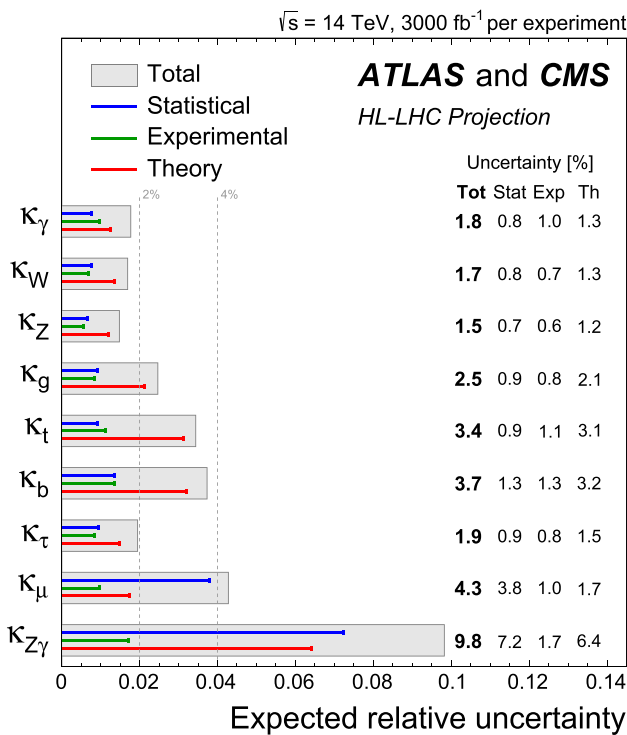


Fig. 436 Projected uncertainties for the scaling parameters κ_i , combining ATLAS and CMS: total (grey box), statistical (blue), experimental (green) and theory (red) uncertainties. From Ref. [4835]

Except for rare decays, the overall uncertainties will be dominated by the theoretical systematics, with a precision close to the percent level. These coupling measurements assume the absence of sizable additional contributions to Γ_H . As observed in Ref. [4836], the signal-background interference in the production of Z-boson pairs is sensitive to Γ_H . Measuring the off-shell four-lepton final states and assuming that the Higgs boson couplings can be extrapolated in the off-shell region from their SM values, the HL-LHC will extract Γ_H using this indirect measurement with a 20% precision at 68% CL [4835].

The production of Higgs boson pairs is a central process to access the Higgs trilinear coupling. The Run 2 experience in searches for Higgs boson pair production led to a reassessment of the HL-LHC sensitivity, including additional channels that were not considered in previous projections. ATLAS and CMS anticipate a sensitivity to the HH signal of approximately 3σ per experiment, leading to a combined observation sensitivity of 4σ . These analyses lead to the combined likelihood profile as a function of κ_λ shown in Fig. 437.

It should be noted that the upper limit on the signal strength for HH production can reach the SM expectation already for Run 3 by combining ATLAS and CMS results if the improvements in the reconstruction and analysis techniques continue at the same pace (see e.g. Elisabeth Brost, talk at Higgs10 meeting, CERN, July 2022).

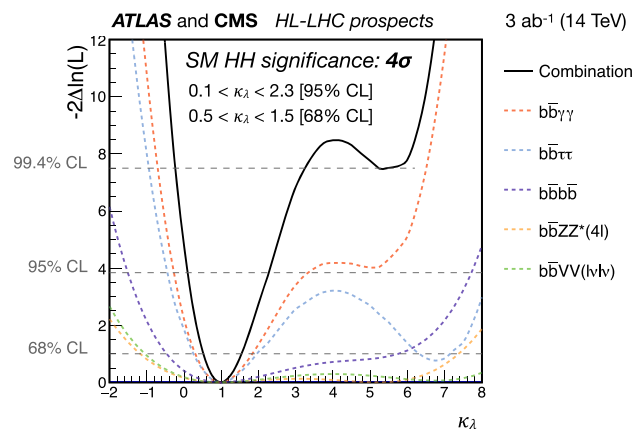


Fig. 437 Projected combined HL-LHC sensitivity to the Higgs boson trilinear coupling expressed in terms of κ_λ , from direct search channels. From Ref. [4835]

14.9.3 Multiple gauge bosons

The study of multiple gauge boson production is of crucial importance to test the EW gauge symmetry, since it can signal the presence of anomalous gauge couplings [4837]. At HL-LHC, evidence for the production of three gauge bosons can be obtained at the 3σ level in the WWZ and WZZ channels and at the 5σ level in the WWW channel considering the fully leptonic decay modes [3940]. Following the first observation of vector-boson scattering (VBS) at the LHC, the HL-LHC is expected to provide a more complete picture of these processes, including the option to measure polarized components, thanks to the higher statistics and improved detectors.

14.9.4 New-physics searches

The HL-LHC will allow us to test BSM phenomena that are beyond the reach of current analyses [1279]. Many BSM models predict the existence of new particles, which can be searched for at HL-LHC, exploiting the much larger statistics and detector upgrades.

In the case of supersymmetry (SUSY), the extension of the kinematic reach is reflected in improved sensitivity to sleptons, gluinos and squarks. In the strong SUSY sector, HL-LHC will probe gluino masses up to 3.2 TeV, in R-parity conserving scenarios and under several possible assumptions on the gluino prompt decay mode. This significantly extends the reach of LHC Run 2. In the context of R-parity conserving models, scenarios in which the mass difference between the produced superpartners and the lightest superpartner (LSP) they decay into is small (usually called *compressed SUSY*) are the most difficult to study experimentally, and have been barely covered at the LHC till now. At the HL-LHC, these

scenarios will be studied by using mono-jet and mono-photon signatures as well as VBF production.

An interesting scenario in the search for dark matter is the one containing a dark photon that couples very weakly to charged particles. Prospects for an inclusive search for dark photons decaying into muon or electron pairs indicate that the HL-LHC could cover a large fraction of the theoretically favored parameter space.

The flavor anomalies in B-decays suggest the possible presence of new states, such as Z' or leptoquarks (LQ), coupling to second and/or third generation SM fermions. The HL-LHC will be able to cover a significant portion of the parameter space of these models, with an exclusion reach up to 4 TeV for the Z' . Pair produced scalar LQs coupling to μ (τ) and b -quarks, on the other hand, can be excluded up to masses of 2.5 (1.5) TeV, depending on the assumptions on the couplings.

14.9.5 QCD challenges

Already now the LHC experiments have reached a very high level of sophistication in the reconstruction of collision events, thereby making precise measurements possible despite the complex environment and substantial pileup.

Even though significant progress has been made in QCD and electro-weak (EW) calculations for hard processes in the last few years (see Sect. 11.1), further progress will be needed to avoid theory uncertainties to become the limiting factor in interpreting a wide range of HL-LHC data. For example, in the case of Higgs boson couplings, the projections of Fig. 436 show that theory uncertainties will be a limiting factor even if reduced by a factor of two with respect to their current values. Progress on the theory side is therefore needed and it is indeed expected in the following areas:

1. **Parton distribution functions:** All hard scattering reactions at the LHC are eventually initiated by a partonic collision. The parton scattering rate, which is computed perturbatively, is weighted by the PDFs, whose knowledge is therefore required to extract fundamental couplings from cross section measurements or from kinematic distributions. PDFs are also a fundamental input to predict the tails of the distributions of SM processes at high Q^2 or high p_T , which in turn allow us to probe possible new physics effects. The current knowledge of PDFs will be improved at HL-LHC by accurate measurements of SM processes with jets, vector bosons and top quarks. LHCb data also have the potential to further constrain the PDFs. At scales $Q > 100$ GeV the HL-LHC data can reduce PDF uncertainties by a factor between 2 and 4, depending on the process and on the assumptions on systematic uncertainties [3940].

2. **Benchmark processes at high accuracy:** The experimental precision for many benchmark $2 \rightarrow 1$ and $2 \rightarrow 2$ processes (the most significant example being Drell–Yan lepton pair production) is likely to approach the 1% level, over a substantial range of phase space. Perturbative QCD predictions at next-to-next-leading order (NNLO) normally do not reach 1% precision, and N^3 LO accuracy might be needed for a range of $2 \rightarrow 1$ and $2 \rightarrow 2$ processes. For example, N^3 LO predictions for Higgs and vector boson production are already available [1949, 3461, 3462, 3468, 3469, 3552, 4838] and are crucial to control perturbative uncertainties. The improved theoretical control of simple processes will in turn improve our knowledge of PDFs, allowing N^3 LO PDF fits, with impact on the whole range of LHC processes, and will also increase the sensitivity to BSM effects manifesting themselves as small deviations from SM predictions. A first approximate N^3 LO PDF fit has been recently presented in Ref. [3101].

3. **$2 \rightarrow 3$ processes at few-percent accuracy:** There are a number of crucially important signal and background processes that involve a $2 \rightarrow 3$ scattering structure at parton level; these are at the current frontier of NNLO calculations.

While calculations of 3-jet production rates became recently available [3426], processes like $t\bar{t}H$, $t\bar{t}V$, $H + 2$ jets are only known up to NLO and would benefit from the extension to NNLO.¹²⁴ The $t\bar{t}H$ cross section, e.g., is now measured with roughly 15% statistical precision and is expected to be known with a statistical precision of $\sim 2\%$ at the end of the HL-LHC. Without NNLO QCD and NLO EW accurate calculations for signal and backgrounds, this experimental precision cannot be matched on the theory side, thereby limiting the exploitation of the results for physics studies.

A significant amount of work is currently being devoted to break the $2 \rightarrow 3$ barrier for two-loop amplitudes involving massive particles. At the same time, an effort is ongoing to improve available methods to isolate and cancel infrared singularities (see Sect. 11.1 for more details). In the HL-LHC era the complete availability of combined NNLO precision in the strong coupling and NLO precision in the EW coupling would be desirable.

4. **Accuracy at high p_T :** Current measurements have only explored a limited range of the available phase space. NNLO accurate differential cross sections pave the way to more detailed data/theory comparisons in less populated phase-space regions where new physics effects could be hidden.

An important example is provided by high- p_T Higgs pro-

¹²⁴ First NNLO results for inclusive $t\bar{t}H$ production have been recently presented in Ref. [4839].

duction. The ATLAS and CMS collaborations anticipate an $\mathcal{O}(10\%)$ precision in the Higgs boson production rate for $p_T \geq 350$ GeV at the end of the HL phase of the LHC [4835].

The recent computations of $2 \rightarrow 2$ amplitudes mediated by massive quarks [3405, 4840], combined with NNLO calculations in the heavy-top limit [3457, 3458, 4841–4843] offer a comparable precision in the SM prediction, and will therefore allow us to disentangle possible new physics effects in this region.

5. **Bottlenecks in NLO multi-particle simulations:** The full deployment of NLO precision through automated MC frameworks in the huge range of HL-LHC analyses raises important technical challenges. Establishing the predictivity of MC tools at precision levels of order 10% – as well as their correct usage within the experiments – will require quantitatively and qualitatively unprecedented validation work. Already now, the accuracy at which event samples for $2 \rightarrow 4$ processes can be calculated at NLO is limited by dramatic efficiency bottlenecks related to the poor convergence of the phase-space integration and by various other technical aspects. The HL-LHC era will require efficiency improvements by an order of magnitude. This can only be achieved through a significant step forward in the optimization of event generators and new techniques in the calculation of amplitudes.
6. **Theory systematics:** The appropriate estimate of theory uncertainties in the presence of experimental cuts or in the context of sophisticated multi-variate analyses is a challenging problem. A typical example is provided by $t\bar{t}H$ analyses in the $H \rightarrow b\bar{b}$ decay mode. The sensitivity is presently limited by theory uncertainties in the $t\bar{t}b\bar{b}$ QCD background. In this kind of analyses, MC predictions for the large QCD background are constrained by data through a profile likelihood fit of several kinematic distributions in different event categories. In this context, theoretical predictions for the correlations across different categories and kinematic regions play a key role. All related uncertainties, e.g. at the level of NLO matrix elements, parton showers and NLO matching, need to be properly identified and modelled. This task is further complicated by the presence of multiple scales, which may require resummations. This type of problem is characteristic for a broad range of LHC analyses; its solution will require a joint effort between theorists and experimentalists.
7. **Non-perturbative effects:** While the perturbative computations follow a systematic approach based on perturbation theory and factorization, our understanding of non-perturbative effects is still quite rough. With the increasing accuracy of perturbative calculations, which in some cases now reach the N^3 LO level, non-perturbative effects might become relevant, also in inclusive observables. Moreover,

in the case of measurements dealing with hadronic final states, the poor control of the hadronization stage limits the precision that can be attained, thereby potentially affecting the extraction of important parameters, such as the top quark mass.

8. **Resummation and parton showers:** For key observables depending on disparate scales, advances in the all-order resummation of large logarithmic corrections will be crucial. Such advances require to increase the logarithmic accuracy of the resummed calculations, but also the extension to multiple-differential resummations, the inclusion of power suppressed effects, as well as the understanding of sub-leading and super-leading structures (see Sect. 11.2). In parallel, work towards the extension of the logarithmic accuracy of parton showers will be essential (see Sect. 11.3).
9. **BSM effects:** The great success of the SM in describing all phenomena observed at the LHC suggests that the key to a potential discovery of new physics is precision. Precision measurements indeed provide an important tool to search for BSM physics associated to mass scales beyond direct reach of the LHC. EFT frameworks, where the SM Lagrangian is supplemented with additional operators built from SM fields, consistent with gauge symmetries and based on a well-defined counting scheme, allow us to systematically parameterize BSM effects and their modifications to SM processes. These operators can either modify existing SM couplings, or generate new couplings. In the case of BSM operators that mix with the SM ones, if r is the relative precision on a given physical observable, the new physics mass scale Λ that can be probed with this observable will scale as $1/\sqrt{r}$ in the generic case.

14.9.6 Outlook

While the HL-LHC offers great opportunities due to the enormous reduction of statistical uncertainties compared to previous LHC runs, some measurements remain difficult and will leave questions that could be addressed more straightforwardly with the great precision that future lepton colliders, such as the ILC [4844], CEPC [4845], FCC-ee [4846] or CLIC [4847] could achieve, or with the impressive energy reach and statistics a future hadron collider (FCC-hh [4848]) could provide. For example, the trilinear Higgs boson self-coupling – a parameter which is crucial to probe the mechanism of EW symmetry breaking – is expected to be constrained with an uncertainty of 50% after the HL-LHC runs, as shown in Fig. 437, while a combination of FCC-ee and HL-LHC results could reach a precision of about 30%, and a future hadron collider operating at a center-of-mass energy of 100 TeV could achieve a clear measurement with a precision of about 5% [4849]. Similar arguments hold for other quan-

tities that are important to probe the SM at an unprecedented level of precision, such as the W -boson mass, the couplings of the Higgs boson to light fermions, or the line-shape and therefore the total width of the Higgs boson [4850].

Apart from the potential of future lepton colliders to find hints for new phenomena through a scrutiny of the Higgs sector and other SM particles and interactions, they offer new possibilities to search for physics beyond the SM, including the production of dark matter particles at colliders, taking advantage from the fact that the final state can be fully reconstructed. Direct searches for additional gauge bosons, such as Z' , or for heavy neutral leptons, could also shed light on the flavor anomalies, thereby providing complementary information to experiments at lower energies, to give just some examples. Finally, FCC-hh energies would give access to a huge, so far uncharted energy range and parton kinematic region, offering the possibility of a direct production of so far unknown particles.

This review shows how multi-faceted QCD is, as well as its embedding in the SM. The quest to answer fundamental questions about matter, its interactions and, on a large scale, the origin and evolution of the Universe, needs to be addressed by a diverse experimental program, and high-energy colliders are just one part of it. However, they offer the unique possibility to produce particles that are simply inaccessible by other means in a controlled way. Therefore, high energy colliders form an important building block in a coordinated global effort towards a more complete theory of fundamental interactions, where the Standard Model might be embedded as a sub-part, as much as QCD today is embedded in the Standard Model.

Postscript

This volume tries to give a comprehensive and balanced view of the progress in the development of QCD since its inception. To do so presented many challenges: are all important topics adequately covered, are all opposing views represented, and is all important work included? As the volume was being developed, we often added new material that our conveners suggested (see the title page for the names of the conveners). This process was greatly aided by the use of Overleaf, which allowed all of the contributors to follow developments. In a real sense, this volume is the work of many people who often worked together to shape the final result even though they were under the intense pressures of their very busy professional schedules. We thank all of them; this volume is truly a collective effort. Still, we leave it to you to judge if we succeeded.

Another goal was to produce a coherent discussion useful for new Ph.D's and postdocs. Here we know our efforts were only partially successful. There was never enough time to

fully coordinate all of the contributions, and we are sure you will find many places where more cross references would have been helpful. Again, it is up to our intended audience to judge the extent to which we were successful.

Finally, as we reflect back on this effort, we realize that the timing of this volume was more urgent than we realized at the start. Fifty years is a long time, and many who have made important contributions to the subject are no longer alive. This was never more apparent than when we learned of Harald Fritzsch's untimely death on August 16, 2022. We were delighted when he accepted our invitation to write his contribution, guided by his early and helpful suggestions, and surprised at how quickly he completed his work. His contribution was among those that were completed very early and could serve as examples for other contributors.

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