

Scale of $SU(2)_R$ symmetry breaking and leptogenesis

Ernest Ma^a, Subir Sarkar^b and Utpal Sarkar^c

^a Department of Physics, University of California, Riverside, California 92521, USA

^b Theoretical Physics, University of Oxford, 1 Keble Road, Oxford OX1 3NP, UK

^c Physical Research Laboratory, Ahmedabad 380 009, India

(February 1, 2008)

Models of leptogenesis often invoke the out-of-equilibrium decays of heavy right-handed neutrinos in order to create a baryon asymmetry of the universe through the electroweak phase transition. Their presumed existence argues strongly for the presence of an $SU(2)_R$ gauge symmetry. We study the equilibrating effects of the resulting additional right-handed interactions and find that successful leptogenesis requires $m_N \gtrsim 10^{16}$ GeV if $m_N > m_{W_R}$, and $m_{W_R} \gtrsim 2 \times 10^5$ GeV $(m_N/10^2 \text{ GeV})^{3/4}$ if $m_N < m_{W_R}$, where m_N is the mass of the lightest right-handed neutrino. A better bound $m_{W_R} \gtrsim 3 \times 10^6$ GeV $(m_N/10^2 \text{ GeV})^{2/3}$ is obtained if leptogenesis occurs at $T > m_{W_R}$. We show also that the $m_N > m_{W_R}$ option is excluded in a supersymmetric theory with gravitinos.

14.70.Pw, 14.60.St, 12.60.Fr, 98.80.Cq

It is now accepted that neutrinos do have small masses, thus accounting for the atmospheric neutrino anomaly [1] and the solar neutrino puzzle [2], and perhaps also providing a fraction of the dark matter of the universe [3]. A natural solution to the smallness of neutrino masses is to consider them as Majorana particles. The nonconservation of lepton number at some large scale M would induce an effective dimension-5 operator [4] $h\ell_L\ell_L\phi\phi/M$, where ϕ is the usual Higgs doublet. As ϕ acquires a nonzero vacuum expectation value (vev), $\langle\phi\rangle = v$, to break the electroweak gauge symmetry, neutrinos obtain small masses as well: $m_\nu = hv^2/M$.

An additional appeal of this solution is that it offers an elegant mechanism for generating the baryon asymmetry of the universe. As is well known, interactions which violate $B + L$ while conserving $B - L$ are unsuppressed by sphaleron processes at high temperatures [5]. Thus any primordial L asymmetry would be (partly) converted into a B asymmetry — a process termed leptogenesis. The required lepton asymmetry can be generated in two possible ways through the lepton number violation responsible for neutrino masses [6,7]. One can introduce right-handed singlet neutrinos which acquire large Majorana masses, resulting in small Majorana masses for the left-handed neutrinos, through the so-called seesaw mechanism [8]. Decays of the right-handed neutrinos do not conserve lepton number, thereby generating a primordial lepton asymmetry [6]. Alternatively, one can extend the standard model to include very heavy Higgs triplet scalars whose couplings break lepton number explicitly. They would naturally acquire tiny seesaw $vevs$, thereby inducing small masses for the left-handed neutrinos and their decays would also generate the primordial lepton asymmetry [7].

In both routes, the scale of lepton number violation M is arbitrary. It is thus natural to consider a left-right symmetric model where both possibilities are realized and M is related to the left-right symmetry breaking scale [9].

This is a natural framework for explaining parity non-conservation at low energies; it may also be embedded in interesting grand unified theories. Within this broader context, an important change in the conditions of leptogenesis occurs because the right-handed neutrinos must now interact with the $SU(2)_R$ gauge bosons.

In this Letter, we examine the effect of the interactions of the right-handed gauge bosons W_R on the generation of the primordial lepton asymmetry of the universe. We conclude that for this to be phenomenologically successful, W_R should be heavier than the lightest right-handed neutrino: $m_{W_R} \gtrsim 2 \times 10^5$ GeV $(m_N/10^2 \text{ GeV})^{3/4}$, unless $m_N \gtrsim 10^{16}$ GeV in which case $m_{W_R}/m_N \gtrsim 0.1$. A better bound $m_{W_R} \gtrsim 3 \times 10^6$ GeV $(m_N/10^2 \text{ GeV})^{2/3}$ is obtained if leptogenesis occurs at $T > m_{W_R}$.

In left-right symmetric models the quarks and leptons transform under the group $SU(3)_c \otimes SU(2)_L \otimes SU(2)_R \otimes U(1)_{B-L}$ as

$$\begin{aligned} q_{iL} &\equiv \begin{pmatrix} u_{iL} \\ d_{iL} \end{pmatrix} \sim (3, 2, 1, 1/3), \\ q_{\alpha R} &\equiv \begin{pmatrix} u_{\alpha R} \\ d_{\alpha R} \end{pmatrix} \sim (3, 1, 2, 1/3), \\ \ell_{iL} &\equiv \begin{pmatrix} \nu_{iL} \\ e_{iL} \end{pmatrix} \sim (1, 2, 1, -1), \\ \ell_{\alpha R} &\equiv \begin{pmatrix} N_{\alpha R} \\ e_{\alpha R} \end{pmatrix} \sim (1, 1, 2, -1). \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

The Higgs bidoublet $\phi \equiv (1, 2, 2, 0)$ breaks electroweak symmetry, whereas the left-right symmetry is broken by the $SU(2)_R$ Higgs triplet $\Delta_R \equiv (1, 1, 3, -2)$. Left-right parity also requires the existence of an $SU(2)_L$ Higgs triplet $\Delta_L \equiv (1, 3, 1, -2)$.

To begin with, we shall ignore the effects of the triplets for the generation of the lepton asymmetry and consider the interactions of the leptons alone:

$$\mathcal{L} = f_{i\alpha} \overline{\ell_{iL}} \ell_{\alpha R} \phi + f_{Lij} \overline{\ell_{iL}^c} \ell_{jL} \Delta_L + f_{R\alpha\beta} \overline{\ell_{\alpha R}^c} \ell_{\beta R} \Delta_R$$

$$+ \frac{1}{2} g_L \overline{\ell_{iL}} \gamma_\mu \tau_{ij}^a \ell_{jL} W_L^{a\mu} + \frac{1}{2} g_R \overline{\ell_{\alpha R}} \gamma_\mu \tau_{\alpha\beta}^a \ell_{\beta R} W_R^{a\mu}. \quad (2)$$

Note that $B-L$ is now a *local* symmetry, hence it cannot be directly violated at high energies. Its violation occurs only when the left-right symmetry is broken by the vev v_R of the right-handed Higgs triplet Δ_R . This gives Majorana masses to the right-handed neutrinos, and lepton number is violated in their decays:

$$N_{\alpha R} \rightarrow \ell_{iL} + \phi^\dagger \quad \text{and} \quad \ell_{iL}^c + \phi. \quad (3)$$

If the couplings $f_{i\alpha}$ are complex and if these decays satisfy the out-of-equilibrium condition, then they can generate a primordial $B-L$ asymmetry. There are two contributions to the magnitude of this asymmetry, the first coming from the interference of the tree-level diagrams with the vertex diagrams [6,10,11] and the second from that of the former with the self-energy diagrams [12]. Although one starts with real and diagonal masses for the heavy neutrinos, the loop diagrams introduce complex phases and hence an amount of CP violation, denoted as η in the following.

We assume the neutrino masses to be hierarchical ($M_{N_{3R}} \gg M_{N_{2R}} \gg M_{N_{1R}} = m_N$). It is the decay of the *lightest* right-handed neutrino which will determine the final lepton asymmetry, hence we shall only be concerned with the scale m_N . The lepton asymmetry $n_L \equiv n_l - n_{l^c}$ will evolve according to the transport equation [13]:

$$\frac{dn_L}{dt} + 3Hn_L = \eta \Gamma_N [n_N - n_N^{\text{eq}}] - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{n_L}{n_\gamma} \right) n_N^{\text{eq}} \Gamma_N - 2n_\gamma n_L \langle \sigma|v| \rangle, \quad (4)$$

where Γ_N is the thermally-averaged decay rate of the right-handed neutrinos $N_{\alpha R}$, and n_N their number density, with the equilibrium value

$$n_N^{\text{eq}} = \begin{cases} (45/2\pi^4) s g_*^{-1}, & m_N \ll T, \\ (45/4\pi^4) s g_*^{-1} \sqrt{\pi/2} (m_N/T)^{3/2} e^{-m_N/T}, & m_N \gg T. \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

In the above, s is the entropy density, n_γ is the photon density, and g_* the effective number of interacting relativistic degrees of freedom. The second term on the left-hand side (lhs) of Eq. (5) accounts for the expansion of the universe (where $H \simeq 1.7 g_*^{1/2} T^2 / M_P$ is the Hubble rate) and the term $\langle \sigma|v| \rangle$ is the thermally-averaged lepton-number violating scattering cross section.

Similarly, the density of the heavy particles satisfies the equation

$$\frac{dn_N}{dt} + 3Hn_N = -\Gamma_N (n_N - n_N^{\text{eq}}) - (n_N^2 - n_N^{\text{eq}2}) \langle \sigma_N|v| \rangle. \quad (6)$$

The first term on the right-hand side (rhs) accounts for the decays (and inverse decays) of the heavy right-handed

neutrinos. The second term on the rhs, although usually neglected in discussions of out-of-equilibrium decays, is in fact crucial in the present context. This is the lepton-number *conserving* thermally-averaged scattering cross section of the right-handed neutrinos $N_{\alpha R}$. It is instrumental in initially equilibrating the number density of the right-handed neutrinos but, as we shall see, it severely depletes the amount of lepton asymmetry generated by their decays.

For convenience we define the parameters $K \equiv \Gamma_N / H$ and $K_N \equiv 2n_\gamma \langle \sigma_N|v| \rangle / H$ at $T = m_N$. For $K \ll 1$ at $T \sim m_N$, the system is far from equilibrium, hence the last two terms in Eq. (5) (the ones responsible for the depletion of n_L) are negligible. In this limit, if $K_N \ll 1$, the asymptotic solution is $n_L^{\text{asym}} / s \simeq \eta / g_*$. However, for $K_N \gg 1$ there is a strong suppression of the abundance. For $K_N \sim 1$ there is already a suppression $n_L \sim 0.04 n_L^{\text{asym}}$, while in the range $1 < K_N < 10^3$ the suppression may be approximated as $n_L \sim 0.04 n_L^{\text{asym}} / K_N$. Beyond this range the suppression is somewhat faster than linear in K_N .

We shall now assume conservatively that for an adequate lepton asymmetry to be generated, in addition to the usual out-of-equilibrium condition [14], viz. $K \lesssim 1$, we also require $K_N \lesssim 1$. The difference is that if the former condition is not fulfilled, any primordial asymmetry will also be erased. This does not happen if the latter condition is not satisfied, since K_N measures the approach to *kinetic* rather than chemical equilibrium. Nevertheless, a large value of K_N suppresses the generation of a lepton asymmetry and in the following we show that W_R mediated scattering processes are important in this context.

We first consider the case $m_N > m_{W_R}$. At the time when N_{1R} decays, it is still interacting with W_R . If these interactions are sufficiently fast, equilibrium of N_{1R} with the decay products will be maintained, thus *preventing* the generation of any lepton asymmetry. The requirement for the $SU(2)_R$ interactions

$$e_R^- + W_R^+ \rightarrow N_R \rightarrow e_R^+ + W_R^- \quad (7)$$

to fall out of equilibrium is

$$\frac{g_R^2}{8\pi} T \lesssim 1.7 g_*^{1/2} \frac{T^2}{M_P} \quad \text{at } T = m_N, \quad (8)$$

so that for generating a lepton asymmetry we require

$$m_N \gtrsim 10^{16} \text{ GeV}, \quad (9)$$

where we take $g_R^2 = g_L^2 = 0.4$, $g_* \sim 10^2$, and $M_P \sim 10^{19} \text{ GeV}$. Note that this stringent bound comes from the fact that the gauge coupling g_R is of order unity. In the usual leptogenesis scenario without $SU(2)_R$ interactions, the corresponding coupling is a Yukawa coupling which may be very much suppressed. Since $m_{W_R} / m_N \sim g_R / f$,

where $f \lesssim \sqrt{4\pi}$ is a reasonable assumption, we conclude that $m_{W_R}/m_N \gtrsim 0.1$ in this case.

The above lower bound is in conflict, however, with an independent upper bound on m_N if the theory is supersymmetric and includes a gravitino, as we discuss below. It is of course necessary that leptogenesis occurs *after* inflation. In supersymmetric theories the temperature at the beginning of the radiation-dominated era following inflation is restricted from considerations of the thermal production of massive gravitinos [15]. Since they interact only gravitationally and thus decay after nucleosynthesis, the abundances of the synthesized elements can be drastically altered, in conflict with observations [16,17]. This imposes a bound on the ‘reheating’ temperature at the beginning of the radiation-dominated era which is usually quoted to be of $\mathcal{O}(10^9)$ GeV. However, a recent reevaluation of the gravitino production rate [18], in conjunction with the nucleosynthesis constraints [17] strengthens this to $T_{\text{reheat}} \lesssim 10^7$ GeV for weak-scale gravitinos. Even taking into account that particles of mass as high as $\sim 10^3 T_{\text{reheat}}$ may be produced with sufficient abundance for successful leptogenesis [19], this argument severely restricts the maximum possible mass of the right-handed neutrino:

$$m_N \lesssim 10^{10} \text{ GeV} . \quad (10)$$

Combined with the lower bound of Eq. (9) on m_N , this rules out the possibility of leptogenesis if $m_N > m_{W_R}$. It would seem that this argument can be evaded if the gravitino is in fact the lightest supersymmetric particle, and is thus stable. Even so there would be a constraint from the requirement that they do not ‘overclose’ the universe which relaxes the upper bound on the reheat temperature to $T_{\text{reheat}} \lesssim 10^{11}$ GeV [16,18]. This requires $m_N \lesssim 10^{14}$ GeV for leptogenesis, so there is still a conflict with the lower bound of Eq. (9).

We now discuss the effect of W_R interactions when $m_N < m_{W_R}$. In this case, we must consider both $T = m_N$ and $T = m_{W_R}$. The scattering processes

$$e_R^\pm + N_R \rightarrow W_R^\pm \rightarrow e_R^\pm + N_R \quad (11)$$

are important for bringing the right-handed neutrinos into equilibrium. The condition that this reaction departs from equilibrium when the right-handed neutrinos decay is

$$\frac{g_R^4}{16\pi} \frac{T^5}{m_{W_R}^4} \lesssim 1.7g_*^{1/2} \frac{T^2}{M_P} \quad \text{at } T = m_N, \quad (12)$$

which translates into

$$m_{W_R} \gtrsim 2 \times 10^5 \text{ GeV} \left(\frac{m_N}{10^2 \text{ GeV}} \right)^{\frac{3}{4}} . \quad (13)$$

Another important process is the scattering of W_R ’s into e_R ’s through N_R exchange:

$$W_R^\pm + W_R^\pm \rightarrow e_R^\pm + e_R^\pm . \quad (14)$$

This is the analog of the standard-model process $W_L^\pm + W_L^\pm \rightarrow e_L^\pm + e_L^\pm$ through ν_L exchange [20]. The condition that this reaction departs from equilibrium is

$$\frac{3g_R^4}{32\pi} \frac{m_N^2 T^3}{m_{W_R}^4} \lesssim 1.7g_*^{1/2} \frac{T^2}{M_P} \quad \text{at } T = m_{W_R}, \quad (15)$$

which translates into

$$m_{W_R} \gtrsim 3 \times 10^6 \text{ GeV} \left(\frac{m_N}{10^2 \text{ GeV}} \right)^{\frac{2}{3}} . \quad (16)$$

We note that Eq. (15) applies [21] if leptogenesis occurs at $T \simeq m_N$ and Eq. (18) applies if it occurs at $T > m_{W_R}$. Recognizing that Eq. (18) is a better bound than Eq. (15) and noting that m_N should exceed the electroweak breaking scale of 10^2 GeV, we have an absolute lower bound of 3×10^6 GeV. This may be further improved if m_N is of $\mathcal{O}(10^3)$ GeV [22], in which case $m_{W_R} \gtrsim 10^7$ GeV. A similar bound was mentioned previously [11] in the context of having $m_N \sim 10^7$ GeV. Note also that the analog of Eq. (16) for the neutral $SU(2)_R$ gauge boson, *i.e.* $Z_R + Z_R \rightarrow N + N$, is less important because m_N is heavy.

Consequently, if a right-handed gauge boson is observed with a mass below $\sim 10^7$ GeV, it will necessarily imply that right-handed neutrinos *cannot* have generated the lepton asymmetry of the universe. Moreover, since the interactions of W_R would have erased all primordial ($B - L$) asymmetry, the observed baryon asymmetry must have been generated at a scale lower than the $SU(2)_R$ symmetry breaking scale M_R .

Finally we discuss the contributions of the Higgs triplet scalars to leptogenesis. As mentioned earlier, left-right parity breaks along with the $SU(2)_R$ symmetry when the field Δ_R acquires a *vev*. The masses M_Δ of Δ_L and Δ_R are initially equal, but their *vevs* are rather different, being related by $v_L \sim v^2/v_R$. Beyond the terms given in Eq. (2), we also have $\Delta_L \Delta_R \phi \phi$. Since v_L is very small, Δ_R will dominantly decay into 2 leptons but rarely into 2 scalars, so it cannot create a lepton asymmetry. However, since v_R is of $\mathcal{O}(M_R)$, the decays of Δ_L can contribute significantly to the lepton asymmetry of the universe [7,23]. Moreover, since Δ_L does not interact with W_R , the existence of right-handed gauge bosons does not change this conclusion. The lepton-number conserving interaction, $\Delta_L^\dagger + \Delta_L \rightarrow W_L^\dagger + W_L$, is the most efficient one at bringing the number density of Δ_L into equilibrium. So for the lepton asymmetry to survive, this interaction should be out of equilibrium, implying a lower bound on M_Δ of $\sim 10^{13}$ GeV [7].

As an example, in a realistic supersymmetric $SO(10)$ grand unified theory, where two 10-plet and one 126-plet contribute to the fermion masses [24] and the Majorana Yukawa couplings of the right-handed neutrinos can be

calculated, the left-right symmetry breaking scale is very high and the Yukawa couplings are also quite large. In this case, $m_N > m_{W_R}$ and the bound of Eq. (9) applies. As discussed earlier, this means that it will not be possible to create enough right-handed neutrinos after reheating without also creating an unacceptable abundance of gravitinos. However it may well be possible to have a scalar potential which allows $M_\Delta \sim 10^{13}$ GeV, so that decays of the Higgs triplets can generate a lepton asymmetry leading to successful baryogenesis through the electroweak phase transition.

To conclude, we have shown that W_R interactions will in general bring the number density of the right-handed neutrinos into equilibrium. Consequently, it is not possible to generate the baryon asymmetry of the universe through leptogenesis in supersymmetric models where $m_N > m_{W_R}$, or when $m_{W_R} \lesssim 10^7$ GeV.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

We acknowledge the hospitality of the DESY Theory Group and one of us (US) also acknowledges financial support from the Alexander von Humboldt Foundation. The work of EM was supported in part by the U. S. Department of Energy under Grant No. DE-FG03-94ER40837.

-
- [1] Y. Fukuda *et al.*, Phys. Rev. Lett. **81**, 1562 (1998), **82**, 1810 (1999); Phys. Lett. **B433**, 9 (1998), **B436**, 33 (1998);
- [2] R. Davis, Prog. Part. Nucl. Phys. **32**, 13 (1994); Y. Fukuda *et al.*, Phys. Rev. Lett. **77**, 1683 (1996), **81**, 1158 (1998); P. Anselmann *et al.*, Phys. Lett. **B357**, 237 (1995), **B361**, 235 (1996); J. N. Abdurashitov *et al.*, Phys. Lett. **B328**, 234 (1994).
- [3] E. Gawiser and J. Silk, Science **280**, 1405 (1998); K. S. Babu, R. K. Schaefer, and Q. Shafi, Phys. Rev. **D53**, 606 (1996).
- [4] S. Weinberg, Phys. Rev. Lett. **43**, 1566 (1979); E. Ma, Phys. Rev. Lett. **81**, 1171 (1998).
- [5] V. A. Kuzmin, V. A. Rubakov, and M. E. Shaposhnikov, Phys. Lett. **B155**, 36 (1985).
- [6] M. Fukugita and T. Yanagida, Phys. Lett. **B174**, 45 (1986).
- [7] E. Ma and U. Sarkar, Phys. Rev. Lett. **80**, 5716 (1998).
- [8] M. Gell-Mann, P. Ramond and R. Slansky, in *Supergravity*, eds. P. van Nieuwenhuizen and D. Freedman, (North-Holland, 1979) p. 315; T. Yanagida, in *Proceedings of the Workshop on the Unified Theory and the Baryon Number in the Universe*, edited by O. Sawada and A. Sugamoto (KEK Report No. 79-18, Tsukuba, Japan, 1979), p. 95; R. N. Mohapatra and G. Senjanović, Phys. Rev. Lett. **44**, 912 (1980).
- [9] J. C. Pati and A. Salam, Phys. Rev. **D10**, 275 (1974); R. N. Mohapatra and J. C. Pati, Phys. Rev. **D11**, 566 (1975); R. N. Mohapatra and G. Senjanovic, Phys. Rev. **D12**, 1502 (1975); R. E. Marshak and R. N. Mohapatra, Phys. Rev. Lett. **44**, 1316 (1980).
- [10] P. Langacker, R. D. Peccei and T. Yanagida, Mod. Phys. Lett. **A1**, 541 (1986); M. A. Luty, Phys. Rev. **D45**, 455 (1992); C. E. Vayonakis, Phys. Lett. **B286**, 92 (1992); H. Murayama, H. Suzuki, T. Yanagida and J. Yokoyama, Phys. Rev. Lett. **70**, 1912 (1993); A. Acker, H. Kikuchi, E. Ma and U. Sarkar, Phys. Rev. **D48**, 5006 (1993); W. Buchmuller and M. Plümacher, Phys. Lett. **B389**, 73 (1996); L. Covi, E. Roulet and F. Vissani, Phys. Lett. **B384**, 169 (1996).
- [11] R. N. Mohapatra and X. Zhang, Phys. Rev. **D46**, 5331 (1992).
- [12] J. Liu and G. Segre, Phys. Rev. **D48**, 4609 (1993); M. Flanz, E. A. Paschos and U. Sarkar, Phys. Lett. **B345**, 248 (1995); M. Flanz, E. A. Paschos, U. Sarkar and J. Weiss, Phys. Lett. **B389**, 693 (1996); L. Covi and E. Roulet, Phys. Lett. **B399**, 113 (1997); L. Covi, E. Roulet and F. Vissani, Phys. Lett. **B424**, 101 (1998); W. Buchmuller and M. Plümacher, Phys. Lett. **B431**, 354 (1998); M. Flanz and E. A. Paschos, Phys. Rev. **D58**, 113009 (1998); U. Sarkar and R. Vaidya, hep-ph/9809304.
- [13] J. N. Fry, K. A. Olive and M. Turner, Phys. Rev. Lett. **45**, 2074 (1980); Phys. Rev. **D22**, 2953 (1980); Phys. Rev. **D22**, 2977 (1980); E. W. Kolb and S. Wolfram, Nucl. Phys. **B172**, 224 (1980).
- [14] Larger values of K up to 100 are allowed, depending on other details; see E. W. Kolb and M. Turner, Ann. Rev. Nucl. Part. Sci. **33**, 645 (1983).
- [15] J. Ellis, J. Kim and D. V. Nanopoulos, Phys. Lett. **B145**, 181 (1984).
- [16] J. Ellis, D. V. Nanopoulos and S. Sarkar, Nucl. Phys. **B259**, 175 (1985).
- [17] J. Ellis, G. B. Gelmini, J. L. Lopez, D. V. Nanopoulos and S. Sarkar, Nucl. Phys. **B373**, 399 (1992).
- [18] M. Boltz, W. Buchmuller and M. Plümacher, hep-ph/9809381.
- [19] D. J. H. Chung, E. W. Kolb and A. Riotto, hep-ph/9809453.
- [20] U. Sarkar, Phys. Lett. **B390**, 97 (1997).
- [21] A. Cohen, R. Brandenburger, D. Kaplan, R. N. Mohapatra and S. Thomas, in *Particle and Nuclear Astrophysics and Cosmology in the Next Millennium, Snowmass 94*, edited by E. W. Kolb and R. D. Peccei, (World Scientific, Singapore, 1995), p. 506; M. Plümacher, Z. Phys. **C74**, 549 (1997).
- [22] A. Pilaftsis, Phys. Rev. **D56**, 5431 (1997); hep-ph/9812256.
- [23] P. J. O'Donnell and U. Sarkar, Phys. Rev. **D49**, 2118 (1994).
- [24] R. N. Mohapatra and B. Brahmachari, Phys. Rev. **D58**, 015003 (1998).