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(Dated: September 23, 2019)

I. NOTATIONS

Spinor helicity is a very useful formalism to present both massless and massive kinematics. In this formalism, the polarization vectors have a particularly simple form. The famous BCFW recursion relation also becomes manifest. Spinor helicity is a basis language of modern scattering amplitude.

We start from $4D$ massless (null) vectors' spinor helicity formalism. Since any massive vector is a linear combination of two massless vectors, this formalism is also useful for massive kinematics.

Spinor helicity formalism is complicated for $D > 4$.

Through this course, we use

$$(+, -, -, -) \tag{1}$$

for the Minkowski spacetime signature (West coast convention, same as that in Peskin-Schroeder's QFT book).

For a null vector $p_\mu = (p_0, p_1, p_2, p_3)$, $p^2 = 0$, we derive the spinor helicity representation. The four-component Pauli matrices are defined as,

$$\sigma_{\alpha\dot{\beta}}^0 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \sigma_{\alpha\dot{\beta}}^1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \sigma_{\alpha\dot{\beta}}^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \sigma_{\alpha\dot{\beta}}^3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}. \tag{2}$$

These four matrices transfer under the Lorentz group as a four-vector.

The contraction

$$p_{\alpha\dot{\beta}} \equiv p_\mu \sigma_{\alpha\dot{\beta}}^\mu = \begin{pmatrix} p^0 - p^3 & -(p^1 - ip^2) \\ -(p^1 + ip^2) & p^0 + p^3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} p_- & -p_-^\perp \\ -p_+^\perp & p_+ \end{pmatrix}. \tag{3}$$

where

$$p_\pm = p_0 \pm p_3, \quad p_\pm^\perp = p_1 \pm ip_2 \tag{4}$$

Question Prove that $\det(p_{\alpha\dot{\beta}}) = 0$ if $p^2 = 0$.

Since $\det(p_{\alpha\dot{\beta}}) = 0$ for a null vector, from basic linear algebra

$$p_{\alpha\dot{\beta}} = \lambda_\alpha \tilde{\lambda}_{\dot{\beta}} \tag{5}$$

where λ_α and $\tilde{\lambda}_{\dot{\beta}}$ are holomorphic and anti-holomorphic *Weyl* spinors.

Although the explicit component form of λ_α and $\tilde{\lambda}_{\dot{\beta}}$ are not needed in most cases, we give the following explicit form,

$$\lambda_\alpha \equiv \begin{pmatrix} -z p_\perp^\perp / \sqrt{p_+} \\ z \sqrt{p_+} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \tilde{\lambda}_{\dot{\beta}} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} -p_\perp^\perp / (z \sqrt{p_+}) & \frac{\sqrt{p_+}}{z} \end{pmatrix}, \quad (6)$$

where z is a unfixed parameter since this decomposition is not unique. In other words, we have the freedom,

$$\lambda_\alpha \rightarrow t \lambda_\alpha, \quad \tilde{\lambda}_{\dot{\beta}} \rightarrow t^{-1} \tilde{\lambda}_{\dot{\beta}}, \quad (7)$$

This is just the little group action on the null vector p . Based on this symmetry, we see that the value of z is not fixed.

However, in some cases, we still want to fix z for convenience. For example, when p is a real null momentum and $p_+ > 0$, we can set z as a complex phase such that $|z| = 1$. In this case,

$$\lambda_i = (\tilde{\lambda}_i)^*, \quad i = 1, 2 \quad (8)$$

where $*$ stands for the complex conjugate. However, since we are interested by the holomorphic properties of amplitudes, we usually avoid this choice.

Another choice is to set $z = \sqrt{p_+}$. By this choice, the apparent square root disappeared.

As usual, we use anti-symmetric matrix

$$\sigma^{\alpha\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sigma^{\dot{\alpha}\dot{\beta}} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sigma_{\alpha\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sigma_{\dot{\alpha}\dot{\beta}} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (9)$$

to raise and lower the spinor indices,

$$\lambda^\alpha = \epsilon^{\alpha\beta} \lambda_\beta, \quad \lambda_\alpha = \epsilon_{\alpha\beta} \lambda^\beta, \quad \lambda^{\dot{\alpha}} = \epsilon^{\dot{\alpha}\dot{\beta}} \lambda_{\dot{\beta}}, \quad \lambda_{\dot{\alpha}} = \epsilon_{\dot{\alpha}\dot{\beta}} \lambda^{\dot{\beta}}. \quad (10)$$

II. SPINOR PRODUCTS

In the section, we consider a list of null vectors p_i , $i = 1, \dots$. For the vector p_i , we denote $\lambda(p_i)$ as λ_i .

For two null vector p_i and p_j , the spinor products are defined as

$$\langle ij \rangle \equiv \lambda_i^\alpha \lambda_{j,\alpha} \quad (11)$$

$$[ij] \equiv \tilde{\lambda}_{i,\dot{\alpha}} \tilde{\lambda}_j^{\dot{\alpha}} \quad (12)$$

Note that this definition is sensitive to the order of the spinors.

$$\langle ij \rangle \equiv \epsilon^{\alpha\beta} \lambda_{i,\beta} \lambda_{j,\alpha} = \epsilon^{\beta\alpha} \lambda_{i,\alpha} \lambda_{j,\beta} = \epsilon^{\beta\alpha} \lambda_{j,\beta} \lambda_{i,\alpha} = -\epsilon^{\alpha\beta} \lambda_{j,\beta} \lambda_{i,\alpha} = -\langle ji \rangle. \quad (13)$$

Similarly, $[ij] = -[ji]$. It is clearly that $\langle ij \rangle = 0$ and $[ij] = 0$.

Note that because of the little group action in (7), neither $\langle ij \rangle$ nor $[ij]$ is uniquely defined.

For further discussion, we need to introduce the $\bar{\sigma}$ Pauli matrices,

$$\bar{\sigma}^{0,\dot{\alpha}\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \bar{\sigma}^{1,\dot{\alpha}\beta} = -\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \bar{\sigma}^{2,\dot{\alpha}\beta} = -\begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \bar{\sigma}^{3,\dot{\alpha}\beta} = -\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (14)$$

These matrices are related to the original Pauli matrices by,

$$\bar{\sigma}^{\mu,\dot{\beta}\delta} = \epsilon^{\delta\alpha} \epsilon^{\dot{\beta}\dot{\alpha}} \sigma_{\alpha\dot{\alpha}}^{\mu}. \quad (15)$$

When there is no confusion, we may drop the spinor indices, and simply rewrite the above formula as

$$\epsilon \sigma^{\mu} \epsilon^T = (\bar{\sigma}^{\mu})^T \quad (16)$$

where $\epsilon = i\sigma_2$ is the 2×2 matrix $\epsilon^{\alpha\beta}$. We have the Pauli matrix orthonormal relation,

$$\text{Tr}(\sigma^{\mu} \bar{\sigma}^{\nu}) = \text{Tr}(\bar{\sigma}^{\mu} \sigma^{\nu}) = 2\eta^{\mu\nu}, \quad \sigma_{\mu,\alpha\dot{\alpha}} \bar{\sigma}^{\mu,\dot{\beta}\beta} = 2\delta_{\alpha}^{\beta} \delta_{\dot{\alpha}}^{\dot{\beta}} \quad (17)$$

One application is that we can use the orthonormal relation to recover the original null vector p_i from the spinors. (Here λ stands for λ_{α} , and $\tilde{\lambda}$ stands for $\tilde{\lambda}_{\dot{\beta}}$.)

$$p_i^{\nu} = \frac{1}{2} (\tilde{\lambda}_{i,\dot{\beta}} \bar{\sigma}^{\nu,\dot{\beta}\alpha} \lambda_{i,\alpha}) = \frac{1}{2} (\tilde{\lambda}_i \bar{\sigma}^{\nu} \lambda_i). \quad (18)$$

Similarly, we may construct new null vectors as,

$$(\lambda_i \tilde{\lambda}_j)^{\nu} = \frac{1}{2} (\tilde{\lambda}_{j,\dot{\beta}} \bar{\sigma}^{\nu,\dot{\beta}\alpha} \lambda_{i,\alpha}) = \frac{1}{2} (\tilde{\lambda}_j \bar{\sigma}^{\nu} \lambda_i). \quad (19)$$

It is clear that $(\lambda_i \tilde{\lambda}_j)_{\nu} \sigma^{\nu}_{\alpha\dot{\beta}} = \lambda_{i,\alpha} \tilde{\lambda}_{j,\dot{\beta}}$. Note that $p_i^{\nu} = (\lambda_i \tilde{\lambda}_i)^{\nu}$.

One important identity is that

$$2(\lambda_i \tilde{\lambda}_j)^{\mu} (\lambda_k \tilde{\lambda}_l)_{\mu} = \langle ik \rangle [lj] \quad (20)$$

It is easy to prove this identity by the standard Pauli matrix identities.

$$\langle ik \rangle [lj] = (\epsilon^{\alpha\beta} \lambda_{i,\beta} \lambda_{k,\alpha}) (\epsilon^{\dot{\alpha}\dot{\beta}} \tilde{\lambda}_{l,\dot{\alpha}} \tilde{\lambda}_{j,\dot{\beta}}) \quad (21)$$

$$= (\lambda_k^T \epsilon \lambda_i) (\tilde{\lambda}_l \epsilon \tilde{\lambda}_j^T) = (\lambda_k^T \epsilon \lambda_i) (\tilde{\lambda}_j \epsilon^T \tilde{\lambda}_l^T) \quad (22)$$

$$= (\lambda_i \tilde{\lambda}_j)_{\mu} (\lambda_k^T (\bar{\sigma}^{\mu})^T \tilde{\lambda}_l^T) = (\lambda_i \tilde{\lambda}_j)_{\mu} (\tilde{\lambda}_l \bar{\sigma}^{\mu} \lambda_k) \quad (23)$$

$$= (\lambda_i \tilde{\lambda}_j)_{\mu} (\lambda_k \tilde{\lambda}_l)_{\nu} \text{Tr}(\sigma^{\nu} \bar{\sigma}^{\mu}) = 2(\lambda_i \tilde{\lambda}_j)^{\mu} (\lambda_k \tilde{\lambda}_l)_{\mu}. \quad (24)$$

III. IDENTITIES

- Schouten Identity.

$$\langle ij \rangle \langle kl \rangle + \langle jk \rangle \langle il \rangle + \langle ki \rangle \langle jl \rangle = 0 \quad (25)$$

It is easy to prove this identity by a simple expansion.

$$\lambda_i = c_1 \lambda_j + c_2 \lambda_k \quad (26)$$

From the spinor products, we have

$$\langle ij \rangle = c_2 \langle kj \rangle, \quad \langle ik \rangle = c_1 \langle jk \rangle, \quad (27)$$

Hence

$$\langle il \rangle = c_1 \langle jl \rangle + c_2 \langle kl \rangle = \frac{\langle ik \rangle}{\langle jk \rangle} \langle jl \rangle + \frac{\langle ij \rangle}{\langle kj \rangle} \langle kl \rangle \quad (28)$$

This is a very useful identity.

Note that since Schouten identity is a quadratic relation for $\langle \rangle$ and $[\]$, it is not clearly how to eliminate dependent spinor products by naively using this identity.

- Momentum Conservation. Suppose that we have a scattering process of n massless particles. $p_i^2 = 0$ and $\sum p_i = 0$, $i = 1, \dots, n$. Then we have

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \langle ik \rangle [ji] = 0, \quad \forall k, j \quad (29)$$

Note that the identity contains $n - 1$ terms if $k = j$, or $n - 2$ terms if $k \neq j$.

Again this is a quadratic relation for $\langle \rangle$ and $[\]$, it is not straightforward to use this identity.

- For four null vectors p_i, p_j, p_k and p_l , we have

$$\langle ij \rangle [jk] \langle kl \rangle [li] = 2(p_i \cdot p_l)(p_j \cdot p_k) + 2(p_i \cdot p_j)(p_k \cdot p_l) - 2(p_i \cdot p_k)(p_j \cdot p_l) - 2i\epsilon(i, j, k, l) \quad (30)$$

where $\epsilon(i, j, k, l) = \epsilon^{\mu_1 \mu_2 \mu_3 \mu_4} p_{i\mu_1} p_{j\mu_2} p_{k\mu_3} p_{l\mu_4}$. $\epsilon^{\mu_1 \mu_2 \mu_3 \mu_4}$ is the totally antisymmetric tensor.

This identity is from the Pauli matrix identities.

$$\text{Tr}(\sigma^\mu \bar{\sigma}^\nu \sigma^\tau \bar{\sigma}^\rho) = 2(\eta^{\mu\nu} \eta^{\tau\rho} + \eta^{\mu\rho} \eta^{\nu\tau} - \eta^{\mu\tau} \eta^{\nu\rho} + i\epsilon^{\mu\nu\tau\rho}) \quad (31)$$

$\epsilon(i, j, k, l)$ appears in amplitudes frequently. It is Lorentz invariant but parity-odd.

We may further define that for any four vectors $\{e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4\}$, a 4×4 matrix $G(e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4)$,

$$G(e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4)_{ij} \equiv e_i \cdot e_j. \quad (32)$$

Its determinant is $g(e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4) = \det G(e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4)$. G is called the ‘‘Gram matrix’’ of $\{e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4\}$. $g(e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4)$ is clearly Lorentz invariant and parity-even. Furthermore, we have,

$$g(e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4) = -\epsilon(i, j, k, l)^2. \quad (33)$$

IV. APPLICATIONS

Polarization. Consider a gluon or photon with the momentum p_i , $p_i^2 = 0$. One big advantage of spinor helicity formalism is to construct the polarization vector, with specific helicity.

$$\epsilon_{i,+}^\mu = \sqrt{2} \frac{(\lambda_k \tilde{\lambda}_i)^\mu}{\langle ki \rangle}, \quad \epsilon_{i,-}^\mu = \sqrt{2} \frac{(\lambda_i \tilde{\lambda}_k)^\mu}{[ik]} \quad (34)$$

Then it is easy to check that

$$p_i \cdot \epsilon_{i,\pm} = 0, \quad \epsilon_{i,\pm}^2 = 0, \quad \epsilon_{i,+}^\mu \epsilon_{i,-\mu} = -1 \quad (35)$$

The completeness relation reads,

$$\epsilon_{i,+}^\mu \epsilon_{i,-}^\nu + \epsilon_{i,-}^\mu \epsilon_{i,+}^\nu = -\eta^{\mu\nu} + \frac{p_i^\mu p_k^\nu + p_i^\nu p_k^\mu}{p_i \cdot p_k} \quad (36)$$

Exercise For the four-point massless kinematics, try to convert

$$\frac{\langle 12 \rangle \langle 34 \rangle}{\langle 13 \rangle \langle 24 \rangle} \quad (37)$$

to a function of Mandelstam variables.

Solution We use the spinor product formula (30).

$$\frac{\langle 12 \rangle \langle 34 \rangle}{\langle 13 \rangle \langle 24 \rangle} = \frac{\langle 12 \rangle \langle 34 \rangle [31][42]}{s_{13}s_{24}} = \frac{\langle 21 \rangle [13] \langle 34 \rangle [42]}{s_{13}s_{24}} \quad (38)$$

$$= \frac{s_{12}s_{34}/2 + s_{24}s_{13}/2 - s_{23}s_{14}/2}{s_{13}s_{24}} = \frac{s^2/2 - t^2/2 + (s+t)^2/2}{(s+t)^2} \quad (39)$$

$$= \frac{s}{s+t} \quad (40)$$

We see this computation is not straightforward. For more complicated spinor functions, the simplification will be more involved. Hence we introduce the modern method, ‘‘momentum twistor’’ for these computations.