# Spinors in three dimensions. III 

G.F. Torres del Castillo<br>Departamento de Física Matemática, Instituto de Ciencias<br>Universidad Autónoma de Puebla, 72000 Puebla, Pue., México

Recibido el $1^{\circ}$ de marzo de 1994; aceptado el 3 de junio de 1994
AbSTRACT. The algebraic classification of totally symmetric spinors and of trace-free totally symmetric tensors in three-dimensional spaces is considered. The geometric properties of a family of geodesics in a space with positive definite metric are expressed in terms of a one-index spinor that determines a vector field tangent to the geodesics. The usual massless free field equations in flat space-time are written as evolution equations for spinor fields in three-dimensional space.
Resumen. Se considera la clasificación algebraica de los espinores totalmente simétricos y de los tensores $\sin$ traza totalmente simétricos en espacios tridimensionales. Las propiedades geométricas de una familia de geodésicas en un espacio con métrica definida positiva se expresan en términos de un espinor de un índice que determina un campo vectorial tangente a las geodésicas. Las ecuaciones usuales para campos libres sin masa en espacio-tiempo plano se escriben como ecuaciones de evolución para campos espinoriales en el espacio tridimensional.

PACS: $02.40 .+\mathrm{m}$; 03.50.De; 11.10.Qr

## 1. Introduction

This is the third of a sequence of papers devoted to the spinor formalism in threedimensional spaces and its applications. In any three-dimensional riemannian space, a spinor calculus similar to that employed in the four-dimensional space-time of general relativity can be developed (see, e.g., Refs. [1,2]). An important difference, however, is that in any three-dimensional space there exists a natural antilinear mapping of the spin space onto itself [2].

In this paper we consider the algebraic classification of totally symmetric spinors and that of trace-free totally symmetric tensors by spinor methods. We show that the geometric properties of a family of geodesics in a space with positive definite metric can be characterized in a form analogous to that found in the case of a family of null geodesics in general relativity. The massless free field equations are written in terms of $\operatorname{SU}(2)$ spinors and we show that the electromagnetic field determines one or two real vector fields, which are the spatial parts of the principal null directions of the electromagnetic field (see, e.g., Ref. [3] and the references cited therein). In Sect. 2 we summarize the necessary background material of Refs. [1,2] and we consider the effect of complex conjugation on the spinor equivalent of a tensor. In Sect. 3, following the method employed in the spinor formalism of general relativity, the algebraic classification of totally symmetric spinors and of trace-free totally symmetric tensors is outlined. In Sect. 4, the geometric properties of a family of geodesics in a space with positive definite metric are expressed in terms of a one-index spinor associated with a vector field tangent to the geodesics
and the geometrical interpretation of some of the spin-coefficients is given. In Sect. 5 the usual massless free field equations are written in space-plus-time form. In the case of the electromagnetic field it is shown that the spinor equivalents of the Poynting vector and of the Maxwell stress tensor have very simple expressions. Throughout this article, lower-case Latin indices $a, b, \ldots$, range over $1,2,3$ and capital Latin indices $A, B, \ldots$, range over 1,2 .

## 2. Preliminaries

In this section we summarize some basic facts needed for this paper. A more detailed discussion can be found in Refs. [1,2]. If $t_{a b \ldots c}$ denote the components of an $n$-index three-dimensional tensor relative to an orthonormal basis, the components of its spinor equivalent are defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
t_{A B C D \ldots E F} \equiv\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sigma^{a}{ }_{A B}\right)\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sigma_{C D}^{b}\right) \cdots\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sigma_{E F}^{c}\right) t_{a b \ldots c}, \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the connection symbols $\sigma_{a A B}$ are such that

$$
\begin{align*}
\sigma_{a A B} & =\sigma_{a B A}, \\
\sigma_{a A B} \sigma_{b}{ }^{A B} & =-2 g_{a b} . \tag{2}
\end{align*}
$$

The spinor indices are raised and lowered according to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\psi_{A}=\varepsilon_{A B} \psi^{B}, \quad \psi^{B}=\varepsilon^{A B} \psi_{A} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\left(\varepsilon_{A B}\right) \equiv\left(\begin{array}{rr}
0 & 1  \tag{4}\\
-1 & 0
\end{array}\right) \equiv\left(\varepsilon^{A B}\right),
$$

and

$$
g_{a b}= \begin{cases} \pm 1 & \text { if } a=b \\ 0 & \text { if } a \neq b\end{cases}
$$

From Eqs. (1-2) it follows that

$$
\begin{gather*}
t_{a b \ldots c}=\left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sigma_{a}{ }^{A B}\right)\left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sigma_{b}{ }^{C D}\right) \ldots\left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sigma_{c}{ }^{E F}\right) t_{A B C D \ldots E F},  \tag{5}\\
\sigma^{a}{ }_{A B} \sigma^{b}{ }_{C D} g_{a b}=-\left(\varepsilon_{A C} \varepsilon_{B D}+\varepsilon_{A D} \varepsilon_{B C}\right),  \tag{6}\\
t_{\ldots \ldots \ldots} s^{\ldots \ldots}=-t_{\ldots A B \ldots} s^{\ldots A B \ldots} . \tag{7}
\end{gather*}
$$

In three dimensions there are two inequivalent signatures, which can be taken as $(+++)$ and $(++-)$. Following Refs. $[1,2]$, in the case where $\left(g_{a b}\right)=\operatorname{diag}(1,1,1)$ we choose

$$
\left(\sigma_{1 A B}\right) \equiv\left(\begin{array}{rr}
1 & 0  \tag{8}\\
0 & -1
\end{array}\right), \quad\left(\sigma_{2 A B}\right) \equiv\left(\begin{array}{rr}
i & 0 \\
0 & i
\end{array}\right), \quad\left(\sigma_{3 A B}\right) \equiv\left(\begin{array}{rr}
0 & -1 \\
-1 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

which satisfy Eqs. (2) and, under complex conjugation,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\overline{\sigma_{a A B}}=-\sigma_{a}^{A B} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

while in the case where $\left(g_{a b}\right)=\operatorname{diag}(1,1,-1)$, we choose the solution of Eqs. (2) given by

$$
\left(\sigma_{1 A B}\right) \equiv\left(\begin{array}{rr}
1 & 0  \tag{10}\\
0 & -1
\end{array}\right), \quad\left(\sigma_{2 A B}\right) \equiv\left(\begin{array}{cc}
i & 0 \\
0 & i
\end{array}\right), \quad\left(\sigma_{3 A B}\right) \equiv\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & i \\
i & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

which obeys the relations

$$
\begin{equation*}
\overline{\sigma_{a A B}}=-\eta_{A R} \eta_{B S} \sigma_{a}^{R S} \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\left(\eta_{A B}\right) \equiv\left(\begin{array}{rr}
1 & 0  \tag{12}\\
0 & -1
\end{array}\right)
$$

The mate of a spinor $\psi_{A}$, denoted by $\hat{\psi}_{A}$, is defined by [2]

$$
\hat{\psi}_{A} \equiv \begin{cases}\overline{\psi^{A}} & \text { if }\left(g_{a b}\right)=\operatorname{diag}(1,1,1)  \tag{13}\\ \eta_{A B} \overline{\psi^{B}} & \text { if }\left(g_{a b}\right)=\operatorname{diag}(1,1,-1)\end{cases}
$$

or, equivalently,

$$
\hat{\psi}^{A} \equiv \begin{cases}-\overline{\psi_{A}} & \text { if }\left(g_{a b}\right)=\operatorname{diag}(1,1,1)  \tag{14}\\ -\eta^{A B} \overline{\psi_{B}} & \text { if }\left(g_{a b}\right)=\operatorname{diag}(1,1,-1)\end{cases}
$$

where, in accordance with the rules (3), $\eta^{A B}=\varepsilon^{C A} \varepsilon^{D B} \eta_{C D}$, i.e.,

$$
\left(\eta^{A B}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{rr}
-1 & 0  \tag{15}\\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

Note that $\eta_{A B} \eta^{B C}=-\delta_{A}^{C}$. Making use of Eqs. (13-14) we obtain

$$
\hat{\hat{\psi}}_{A}= \begin{cases}-\psi_{A} & \text { if }\left(g_{a b}\right)=\operatorname{diag}(1,1,1)  \tag{16}\\ \psi_{A} & \text { if }\left(g_{a b}\right)=\operatorname{diag}(1,1,-1)\end{cases}
$$

and

$$
\overline{\alpha^{A} \beta_{A}}= \begin{cases}\hat{\alpha}^{A} \hat{\beta}_{A} & \text { if }\left(g_{a b}\right)=\operatorname{diag}(1,1,1)  \tag{17}\\ -\hat{\alpha}^{A} \hat{\beta}_{A} & \text { if }\left(g_{a b}\right)=\operatorname{diag}(1,1,-1)\end{cases}
$$

The mapping $\psi_{A} \mapsto \hat{\psi}_{A}$ is antilinear and in the case where $\left(g_{a b}\right)=\operatorname{diag}(1,1,1)$ it is, except for a factor, the time reversal operation (see, e.g., Refs. [4,5]).

If $\hat{\psi}_{A}=\lambda \psi_{A}$, then $\hat{\hat{\psi}}_{A}=\bar{\lambda} \hat{\psi}_{A}=|\lambda|^{2} \psi_{A}$ and, comparing with Eqs. (16), we see that only in the case where the metric is indefinite there exist nontrivial solutions of

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{\psi}_{A}=\lambda \psi_{A} \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

and necessarily $|\lambda|=1$.
Since the connection symbols $\sigma_{a A B}$ can be complex [Eqs. (8) and (10)], the spinor components $t_{A B \ldots E F}$ given by Eq. (1) may be complex even if $t_{a b \ldots c}$ are real. The complex conjugate of the $n$-index tensor $t_{a b \ldots c}$ is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{t}_{a b \ldots c} \equiv \overline{t_{a b \ldots c}} . \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

(Since the components $t_{a b \ldots c}$ transform by means of real matrices, the components $\overline{t_{a b \ldots c}}$ also correspond to a tensor.) Using Eqs. (1), (9), (11) and (19) one finds that the spinor components of $\bar{t}_{a b \ldots c}$, denoted by $\bar{t}_{A B \ldots E F}$, are given by

$$
\bar{t}_{A B \ldots E F}= \begin{cases}(-1)^{n} \overline{t^{A B \ldots E F}} & \text { if }\left(g_{a b}\right)=\operatorname{diag}(1,1,1)  \tag{20}\\ (-1)^{n} \eta_{A R} \eta_{B S} \cdots \eta_{E T} \eta_{F U} \overline{t^{R S \ldots T U}} & \text { if }\left(g_{a b}\right)=\operatorname{diag}(1,1,-1)\end{cases}
$$

where $n$ is the number of indices of $t_{a b \ldots c}$ (cf. Ref. [2], Eqs. (33) and (42)). Thus, in general, the spinor components of the complex conjugate of a tensor, $\bar{t}_{A B \ldots E F}$, do not coincide with the complex conjugates of the spinor components of that tensor, $\overline{t_{A B \ldots E F}}$. (In fact, with $\sigma_{a A B}$ given by Eqs. (8) and (10), $\bar{t}_{A B \ldots E F}$ and $\overline{t_{A B \ldots E F}}$ do not transform in the same manner under the spin transformations.)

## 3. Algebraic classification

As in the case of four-dimensional spaces, the fact that each spinor index can take only two values and that the spin transformations are given by unimodular matrices imply that the irreducible parts of an arbitrary spinor correspond to totally symmetric spinors and each totally symmetric $n$-index spinor $\phi_{A B \ldots L}$ can be expressed as the symmetrized tensor product of $n$ one-index spinors [3]

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi_{A B \ldots L}=\alpha_{(A} \beta_{B} \cdots \delta_{L)} \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the parenthesis denotes symmetrization on the indices enclosed (e.g., $\alpha_{(A} \beta_{B)}=$ $\left.\frac{1}{2}\left(\alpha_{A} \beta_{B}+\alpha_{B} \beta_{A}\right)\right)$. This decomposition is unique except for scale factors. The existence and uniqueness of the expression (21) is a consequence of the fundamental theorem of algebra. If $\xi^{A}$ is an arbitrary spinor then assuming, e.g., $\xi^{2} \neq 0$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\phi_{A B \ldots L} \xi^{A} \xi^{B} \cdots \xi^{L} & =\phi_{11 \ldots 1}\left(\xi^{1}\right)^{n}+n \phi_{21 \ldots 1}\left(\xi^{1}\right)^{n-1} \xi^{2}+\cdots+\phi_{22 \ldots 2}\left(\xi^{2}\right)^{n} \\
& =\left(\xi^{2}\right)^{n}\left\{\phi_{11 \ldots 1}\left(\xi^{1} / \xi^{2}\right)^{n}+n \phi_{21 \ldots 1}\left(\xi^{1} / \xi^{2}\right)^{n-1}+\cdots+\phi_{22 \ldots 2}\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

hence, $\left(\xi^{2}\right)^{-n} \phi_{A B \ldots L} \xi^{A} \xi^{B} \cdots \xi^{L}$ is an $n$th degree polynomial in $\left(\xi^{1} / \xi^{2}\right)$ which can be factorized in the form $\phi_{11 \ldots 1}\left(\xi^{1} / \xi^{2}-z_{1}\right)\left(\xi^{1} / \xi^{2}-z_{2}\right) \cdots\left(\xi^{1} / \xi^{2}-z_{n}\right)$; therefore, $\phi_{A B \ldots L} \xi^{A} \xi^{B} \cdots \xi^{L}=\phi_{11 \ldots 1}\left(\xi^{1}-z_{1} \xi^{2}\right)\left(\xi^{1}-z_{2} \xi^{2}\right) \cdots\left(\xi^{1}-z_{n} \xi^{2}\right)$, which is the product of $n$ homogeneous first degree polynomials in $\xi^{A}$, i.e.,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi_{A B \ldots L} \xi^{A} \xi^{B} \cdots \xi^{L}=\left(\alpha_{A} \xi^{A}\right)\left(\beta_{B} \xi^{B}\right) \cdots\left(\delta_{L} \xi^{L}\right), \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

which implies Eq. (21). The spinors $\alpha_{A}, \beta_{A}, \ldots, \delta_{A}$, appearing in Eq. (21) are called principal spinors of $\phi_{A B \ldots L}$. Equation (22) shows that $\xi_{A}$ is a principal spinor of $\phi_{A B \ldots L}$ if and only if $\phi_{A B \ldots L} \xi^{A} \xi^{B} \cdots \xi^{L}=0$.

The tensor $t_{a b \ldots c}$ is trace-free and totally symmetric if and only if its spinor equivalent $t_{A B \ldots E F}$ is totally symmetric (see, e.g., Ref. [6]). Thus, according to Eq. (21), if $t_{a b \ldots . .}$ is an $n$-index trace-free, totally symmetric tensor, $t_{A B \ldots E F}$ can be expressed in the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
t_{A B \ldots E F}=\alpha_{(A} \beta_{B} \cdots \gamma_{E} \delta_{F)} \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

and making use of Eqs. (13) and (20) it follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{t}_{A B \ldots E F}=(-1)^{n} \hat{\alpha}_{(A} \hat{\beta}_{B} \cdots \hat{\gamma}_{E} \hat{\delta}_{F)} . \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

As in the case of the spinor formalism employed in the four-dimensional space-time of general relativity, the totally symmetric spinors of a given rank can be classified according to the multiplicity of their principal spinors. However, in the case of three-dimensional spaces, when two principal spinors are not proportional, a further subclassification can be obtained according to whether one of them is proportional to the mate of the other or not.

The simplest nontrivial case of this algebraic classification corresponds to a two-index symmetric spinor, $v_{A B}$, which is equivalent to a (possibly complex) vector $v_{a}$ [Eqs. (1) and (5)]. The components $v_{A B}$ can be expressed as

$$
\begin{equation*}
v_{A B}=\alpha_{(A} \beta_{B)} \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
v^{a} v_{a}=-v^{A B} v_{A B}=\frac{1}{2}\left(\alpha^{A} \beta_{A}\right)^{2} \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

(cf. Eq. (7)). The vector $v_{a}$ is real if and only if $\alpha_{(A} \beta_{B)}=-\hat{\alpha}_{(A} \hat{\beta}_{B)}$ [Eqs. (23-24)] which leads to the following two possibilities:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { (i) } \quad \hat{\alpha}_{A}=\lambda \alpha_{A}, \quad \hat{\beta}_{A}=-\lambda^{-1} \beta_{A} \text {, } \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

which can be satisfied only if the metric is indefinite, with $|\lambda|=1$, and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { (ii) } \hat{\alpha}_{A}=\lambda \beta_{A}, \quad \hat{\beta}_{A}=-\lambda^{-1} \alpha_{A} \text {. } \tag{28}
\end{equation*}
$$

By combining Eqs. (28) one obtains,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{\hat{\alpha}}_{A}=\bar{\lambda} \hat{\beta}_{A}=-\bar{\lambda} \lambda^{-1} \alpha_{A} . \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

When the metric is positive definite, only the case (ii) is viable and comparing Eqs. (16) and (29) we see that $\lambda$ must be real. If $\lambda$ is positive, from Eqs. (25) and (28) we have $v_{A B}=\alpha_{(A} \lambda^{-1} \hat{\alpha}_{B)}=\lambda^{-1 / 2} \alpha_{(A} \lambda^{-1 / 2} \hat{\alpha}_{B)}$; hence, absorbing the (real) factor $\lambda^{-1 / 2}$ into $\alpha_{A}$ we find that

$$
\begin{equation*}
v_{A B}=\alpha_{(A} \hat{\alpha}_{B)} . \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $\lambda$ is negative, Eqs. (25) and (28) give $v_{A B}=-\lambda \hat{\beta}_{(A} \beta_{B)}=(-\lambda)^{-1 / 2} \hat{\beta}_{(A}(-\lambda)^{-1 / 2} \beta_{B)}$, which is also of the form (30).

On the other hand, when $\left(g_{a b}\right)=\operatorname{diag}(1,1,-1)$, in the case (i) $\lambda$ must be of the form $e^{i \theta}$; then, from Eq. (27) we have $\left(e^{i\left(\frac{\theta}{2}-\frac{\pi}{4}\right)} \alpha_{A}\right)^{\wedge}=e^{-i\left(\frac{\theta}{2}-\frac{\pi}{4}\right)} e^{i \theta} \alpha_{A}=i\left(e^{i\left(\frac{\theta}{2}-\frac{\pi}{4}\right)} \alpha_{A}\right)$ and, similarly, $\left(e^{-i\left(\frac{\theta}{2}-\frac{\pi}{4}\right)} \beta_{A}\right)^{\wedge}=i\left(e^{-i\left(\frac{\theta}{2}-\frac{\pi}{4}\right)} \beta_{A}\right)$. By rewriting Eq. (25) in the form $v_{A B}=$ $e^{i\left(\frac{\theta}{2}-\frac{\pi}{4}\right)} \alpha_{(A} e^{-i\left(\frac{\theta}{2}-\frac{\pi}{4}\right)} \beta_{B)}$ and absorbing the factors $e^{ \pm i\left(\frac{\theta}{2}-\frac{\pi}{4}\right)}$ into $\alpha_{A}$ and $\beta_{A}$, we find that in the case (i) $v_{A B}$ can be expressed as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { (i) } \quad v_{A B}=\alpha_{(A} \beta_{B)}, \quad \text { with } \quad \hat{\alpha}_{A}=i \alpha_{A}, \quad \hat{\beta}_{A}=i \beta_{A} . \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using Eqs. (17) and (26) one finds that the vectors of the form (31) are such that $v^{a} v_{a} \geq 0$.
In the case (ii), Eqs. (16) and (29) give $\lambda= \pm i|\lambda|$; then, from Eq. (28), we have $|\lambda|^{1 / 2} \beta_{A}= \pm i|\lambda|^{-1 / 2} \hat{\alpha}_{A}$. By expressing Eq. (25) in the form $v_{A B}=|\lambda|^{-1 / 2} \alpha_{(A}|\lambda|^{1 / 2} \beta_{B)}$ and absorbing the factors $|\lambda|^{\mp 1 / 2}$ into $\alpha_{A}$ and $\beta_{A}$, we conclude that in the case (ii) $v_{A B}$ can be expressed as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { (ii) } v_{A B}= \pm i \alpha_{(A} \hat{\alpha}_{B)} \text {. } \tag{32}
\end{equation*}
$$

From Eqs. (17) and (26) it follows that Eq. (32) corresponds to a real vector such that $v^{a} v_{a} \leq 0$.

In the special case where $v^{a} v_{a}=0$, Eq. (26) implies that $v_{A B}$ must be of the form $v_{A B}=\alpha_{A} \alpha_{B}$ and $v_{A B}$ corresponds to a real vector if and only if $\alpha_{A} \alpha_{B}=-\hat{\alpha}_{A} \hat{\alpha}_{B}$, which amounts to $\hat{\alpha}_{A}= \pm i \alpha_{A}$; therefore, the spinor equivalent of a real null vector is of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
v_{A B}= \pm \alpha_{A} \alpha_{B}, \quad \text { with } \quad \hat{\alpha}_{A}=i \alpha_{A} . \tag{33}
\end{equation*}
$$

As a second example we consider a four-index totally symmetric spinor $\Phi_{A B C D}$ which is equivalent to a trace-free symmetric tensor $\Phi_{a b}$ and, according to Eq. (21), can be written as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi_{A B C D}=\alpha_{(A} \beta_{B} \gamma_{C} \delta_{D)} \tag{34}
\end{equation*}
$$

Making use of Eqs. (23-24) one finds that $\Phi_{a b}$ is real if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha_{(A} \beta_{B} \gamma_{C} \delta_{D)}=\hat{\alpha}_{(A} \hat{\beta}_{B} \hat{\gamma}_{C} \hat{\delta}_{D)} \tag{35}
\end{equation*}
$$

In the case with signature $(+++)$, condition (35) severely restricts the possible multiplicities in the principal spinors of $\Phi_{A B C D}$. In fact, it is easy to see, with the help of Eq. (16), that the only possible algebraic types are

$$
\begin{align*}
& \Phi_{A B C D}= \pm \alpha_{(A} \hat{\alpha}_{B} \alpha_{C} \hat{\alpha}_{D)} \\
& \Phi_{A B C D}=\alpha_{(A} \hat{\alpha}_{B} \beta_{C} \hat{\beta}_{D)} \tag{36}
\end{align*}
$$

By contrast, when the metric is indefinite, the solutions of Eq. (35) are of the form

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\Phi_{A B C D}=\alpha_{(A} \beta_{B} \gamma_{C} \delta_{D)}, & \text { with } \quad \hat{\alpha}_{A}=i \alpha_{A}, \hat{\beta}_{A}=i \beta_{A}, \hat{\gamma}_{A}=i \gamma_{A}, \hat{\delta}_{A}=i \delta_{A}, \\
\Phi_{A B C D}=i \alpha_{(A} \beta_{B} \gamma_{C} \hat{\gamma}_{D)}, & \text { with } \quad \hat{\alpha}_{A}=i \alpha_{A}, \hat{\beta}_{A}=i \beta_{A}, \\
\Phi_{A B C D}= \pm \alpha_{(A} \hat{\alpha}_{B} \beta_{C} \hat{\beta}_{D)}, & \\
\Phi_{A B C D}=\alpha_{(A} \alpha_{B} \beta_{C} \gamma_{D)}, & \text { with } \quad \hat{\alpha}_{A}=i \alpha_{A}, \hat{\beta}_{A}=i \beta_{A}, \hat{\gamma}_{A}=i \gamma_{A}, \\
\Phi_{A B C D}= \pm i \alpha_{(A} \alpha_{B} \beta_{C} \hat{\beta}_{D)}, & \text { with } \quad \hat{\alpha}_{A}=i \alpha_{A}, \\
\Phi_{A B C D}= \pm \alpha_{(A} \alpha_{B} \beta_{C} \beta_{D)}, & \text { with } \quad \hat{\alpha}_{A}=i \alpha_{A}, \hat{\beta}_{A}=i \beta_{A}, \\
\Phi_{A B C D}= \pm \alpha_{(A} \alpha_{B} \hat{\alpha}_{C} \hat{\alpha}_{D)}, & \\
\Phi_{A B C D}=\alpha_{(A} \alpha_{B} \alpha_{C} \beta_{D)}, & \text { with } \quad \hat{\alpha}_{A}=i \alpha_{A}, \hat{\beta}_{A}=i \beta_{A}, \\
\Phi_{A B C D}= \pm \alpha_{A} \alpha_{B} \alpha_{C} \alpha_{D} & \text { with } \quad \hat{\alpha}_{A}=i \alpha_{A} . \tag{37}
\end{array}
$$

Making use of the identity

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha_{A} \beta_{B}-\alpha_{B} \beta_{A}=\alpha^{R} \beta_{R} \varepsilon_{A B} \tag{38}
\end{equation*}
$$

and Eq. (6), a straightforward computation shows that if $v_{A B} \equiv \alpha_{(A} \beta_{B)}$ and $w_{A B} \equiv$ $\gamma_{(A} \delta_{B)}$, then Eq. (34) amounts to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi_{A B C D}=\frac{1}{2}\left(v_{A B} w_{C D}+w_{A B} v_{C D}\right)-\frac{1}{6} v^{E F} w_{E F}\left(\varepsilon_{A C} \varepsilon_{B D}+\varepsilon_{A D} \varepsilon_{B C}\right) \tag{39}
\end{equation*}
$$

or, equivalently,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi_{a b}=v_{(a} w_{b)}-\frac{1}{3} v^{c} w_{c} g_{a b}, \tag{40}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $v_{a}$ and $w_{a}$ are the vector equivalents of $v_{A B}$ and $w_{A B}$, respectively.
In the case of the tensors represented by Eqs. (36), the only combinations of the principal spinors that produce real vectors are $\pm \alpha_{(A} \hat{\alpha}_{B)}$ and $\pm \beta_{(A} \hat{\beta}_{B)}$. Therefore, in a three-dimensional space with positive definite metric, at each point where it does not vanish, a trace-free symmetric tensor field $\Phi_{a b}$ determines at least one and at most two real directions. Since any two-index symmetric tensor can be expressed as the sum of a trace-free symmetric tensor and a multiple of the metric tensor, the same conclusion holds for any two-index symmetric tensor (cf. Sect. 5.2).

## 4. Congruences of curves

In this section we shall restrict ourselves to spaces with a positive definite metric. Then, as shown in Eq. (30), any real vector $t_{a}$ can be expressed in the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
t_{A B}=\alpha_{(A} \hat{\alpha}_{B)} \tag{41}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proposition. The vector field (41) is tangent to a geodesic if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha^{A} \hat{\alpha}^{B} \alpha^{C} \nabla_{A B} \alpha_{C}=0 . \tag{42}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that $\alpha^{A} \hat{\alpha}^{B} \nabla_{A B}=-t^{a} \nabla_{a}$ is real and, according to Eqs. (13-14), the complex conjugate of Eq. (42) is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha^{A} \hat{\alpha}^{B} \hat{\alpha}^{C} \nabla_{A B} \hat{\alpha}_{C}=0 \tag{43}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. Using the identity (38) we see that for an arbitrary spinor $\xi_{A}$,

$$
\xi_{A}=\frac{1}{\alpha^{R} \hat{\alpha}_{R}}\left(\hat{\alpha}_{A} \alpha^{B} \xi_{B}-\alpha_{A} \hat{\alpha}^{B} \xi_{B}\right),
$$

hence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha^{A} \hat{\alpha}^{B} \nabla_{A B} \alpha_{C}=\frac{1}{\alpha^{R} \hat{\alpha}_{R}}\left(\hat{\alpha}_{C} \alpha^{D} \alpha^{A} \hat{\alpha}^{B} \nabla_{A B} \alpha_{D}-\alpha_{C} \hat{\alpha}^{D} \alpha^{A} \hat{\alpha}^{B} \nabla_{A B} \alpha_{D}\right) \tag{44}
\end{equation*}
$$

and, similarly,

$$
\alpha^{A} \hat{\alpha}^{B} \nabla_{A B} \hat{\alpha}_{C}=\frac{1}{\alpha^{R} \hat{\alpha}_{R}}\left(\hat{\alpha}_{C} \alpha^{D} \alpha^{A} \hat{\alpha}^{B} \nabla_{A B} \hat{\alpha}_{D}-\alpha_{C} \hat{\alpha}^{D} \alpha^{A} \hat{\alpha}^{B} \nabla_{A B} \hat{\alpha}_{D}\right)
$$

Thus, the spinor equivalent of $t_{a} \nabla^{a} t_{b}$ is given by

$$
\begin{align*}
-t_{A B} \nabla^{A B} t_{C D}= & -\alpha_{A} \hat{\alpha}_{B}\left(\alpha_{(C} \nabla^{A B} \hat{\alpha}_{D)}+\hat{\alpha}_{(D} \nabla^{A B} \alpha_{C)}\right) \\
= & -\frac{1}{\alpha^{R} \hat{\alpha}_{R}}\left\{\alpha_{(C} \hat{\alpha}_{D)} \alpha^{E} \alpha^{A} \hat{\alpha}^{B} \nabla_{A B} \hat{\alpha}_{E}-\alpha_{C} \alpha_{D} \hat{\alpha}^{E} \alpha^{A} \hat{\alpha}^{B} \nabla_{A B} \hat{\alpha}_{E}\right. \\
& \left.+\hat{\alpha}_{D} \hat{\alpha}_{C} \alpha^{E} \alpha^{A} \hat{\alpha}^{B} \nabla_{A B} \alpha_{E}-\hat{\alpha}_{(D} \alpha_{C)} \hat{\alpha}^{E} \alpha^{A} \hat{\alpha}^{B} \nabla_{A B} \alpha_{E}\right\} \\
= & -\frac{1}{\alpha^{R} \hat{\alpha}_{R}}\left\{t_{C D} \alpha^{A} \hat{\alpha}^{B} \nabla_{A B}\left(\alpha^{E} \hat{\alpha}_{E}\right)-\alpha_{C} \alpha_{D} \hat{\alpha}^{E} \alpha^{A} \hat{\alpha}^{B} \nabla_{A B} \hat{\alpha}_{E}\right. \\
& \left.+\hat{\alpha}_{C} \hat{\alpha}_{D} \alpha^{E} \alpha^{A} \hat{\alpha}^{B} \nabla_{A B} \alpha_{E}\right\} \tag{45}
\end{align*}
$$

which is proportional to $t_{C D}$ if and only if Eqs. (42-43) are fulfilled.
From Eqs. (45) it also follows that (41) is tangent to an affinely parameterized geodesic if and only if, in addition to Eq. (42), $\alpha^{A} \hat{\alpha}_{A}$ is constant along the geodesic.

Given a congruence of curves (i.e., a family of curves such that through each point there passes one curve in this family) we define a spinor field $o_{A}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
t_{A B}=o_{\left(A A_{B)}\right.} \tag{46}
\end{equation*}
$$

are the spinor components of a tangent vector to the congruence and

$$
\begin{equation*}
o^{A} \hat{o}_{A}=1 \tag{47}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that $t^{a} t_{a}=\frac{1}{2}$ [Eq. (26)] and that Eqs. (46-47) define $o_{A}$ up to a factor of the form $e^{i \gamma}$. Making use of the definitions

$$
\begin{align*}
& \kappa \equiv o^{A} o^{B} o^{C} \nabla_{A B} o_{C} \\
& \alpha \equiv o^{A} \hat{o}^{B} o^{C} \nabla_{A B} o_{C} \\
& \beta \equiv o^{A} o^{B} \hat{o}^{C} \nabla_{A B} o_{C}=o^{A} o^{B} o^{C} \nabla_{A B} \hat{o}_{C}  \tag{48}\\
& \rho \equiv o^{A} o^{B} \hat{o}^{C} \nabla_{A B} \hat{o}_{C} \\
& \varepsilon \equiv o^{A} \hat{o}^{B} \hat{o}^{C} \nabla_{A B} o_{C}=o^{A} \hat{o}^{B} o_{o}^{C} \nabla_{A B} \hat{o}_{C}
\end{align*}
$$

or, equivalently,

$$
\begin{align*}
& \bar{\kappa} \equiv-\hat{o}^{A} \hat{o}^{B} \hat{o}^{C} \nabla_{A B} \hat{o}_{C}, \\
& \bar{\alpha} \equiv o^{A} \hat{o}^{B} \hat{o}^{C} \nabla_{A B} \hat{o}_{C}, \\
& \bar{\beta} \equiv \hat{o}^{A} \hat{o}^{B} o^{C} \nabla_{A B} \hat{o}_{C}=\hat{o}^{A} \hat{o}^{B} \hat{o}^{C} \nabla_{A B} o_{C},  \tag{49}\\
& \bar{\rho} \equiv-\hat{o}^{A} \hat{o}^{B} o^{C} \nabla_{A B} o_{C}, \\
& \bar{\varepsilon} \equiv-o^{A} \hat{o}^{B} o^{C} \nabla_{A B} \hat{o}_{C}=-o^{A} \hat{o}^{B} \hat{o}^{C} \nabla_{A B} o_{C},
\end{align*}
$$

which amount to Eqs. (31a-c) of Ref. [1] with

$$
\begin{equation*}
D=-o^{A} \hat{o}^{B} \partial_{A B}, \quad \delta=o^{A} o^{B} \partial_{A B}, \quad \bar{\delta}=-\hat{o}^{A} \hat{o}^{B} \partial_{A B}, \tag{50}
\end{equation*}
$$

from Eq. (42) we see that $D=t^{a} \partial_{a}=-t^{A B} \partial_{A B}$ is tangent to a congruence of geodesics if and only if $\alpha=0$.

Using Eqs. (47) and (48) one finds that under the transformation $o_{A} \mapsto e^{i \theta / 2} o_{A}$, where $\theta$ is a real function, which preserves conditions (46-47), the spin-coefficients (48) transform according to

$$
\begin{align*}
& \kappa \mapsto e^{2 i \theta} \kappa, \quad \alpha \mapsto e^{i \theta} \alpha, \quad \rho \mapsto \rho, \\
& \beta \mapsto e^{i \theta}\left(\beta-\frac{i}{2} \delta \theta\right), \quad \varepsilon \mapsto \varepsilon+\frac{i}{2} D \theta, \tag{51}
\end{align*}
$$

which are precisely Eqs. (39) of Ref. [1]. Therefore, choosing $\theta$ in such a way that $D \theta=2 i \varepsilon$ the new $\varepsilon$ vanishes. In particular, if $D$ is tangent to a congruence of geodesics, $\alpha=0$ and we can always make $\varepsilon=0$. Equations (44) and (48) show that $\alpha$ and $\varepsilon$ vanish if and only if $o_{A}$ (and hence $\hat{o}_{A}$ ) is covariantly constant along the geodesics,

$$
o^{A} \hat{o}^{B} \nabla_{A B} o_{C}=0 .
$$

This last condition implies that the triad $D, \delta$ and $\bar{\delta}$ is parallelly transported along the geodesics.

Given a system of coordinates $x^{\mu}(\mu=1,2,3)$, the functions $x^{\mu}(u, v)$ define a oneparameter family of geodesics if for a given value of $v$, the curve $x^{\mu}(u)=x^{\mu}(u, v)$ is geodetic. The vector field $\zeta^{\mu} \equiv \partial x^{\mu}(u, v) / \partial v$ measures the displacement of neighboring geodesics and $t^{\mu} \equiv \partial x^{\mu}(u, v) / \partial u$ is tangent to the geodesics. Then, $t^{\mu} \partial \zeta^{\nu} / \partial x^{\mu}=$ $\partial \zeta^{\nu} / \partial u=\partial^{2} x^{\nu} / \partial u \partial v=\partial t^{\nu} / \partial v=\zeta^{\mu} \partial t^{\nu} / \partial x^{\mu}$ or, equivalently,

$$
\begin{equation*}
[t, \zeta]=0, \tag{52}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $t$ and $\zeta$ are the differential operators (or vector fields) $t=t^{\mu} \partial / \partial x^{\mu}, \zeta=\zeta^{\mu} \partial / \partial x^{\mu}$. Any vector field $\zeta^{a}$ satisfying Eq. (52) is said to be a connecting vector of the congruence. (Equation (52) means that the Lie derivative of $\zeta^{a}$ with respect to $t^{a}$ vanishes.)

Writing $t=D$ and $\zeta=f D+\bar{w} \delta+w \bar{\delta}$, where $f$ is a real function and $w$ is a complex function, making use of Eqs. (33) of Ref. [1] and the properties of the commutator (or Lie bracket) one finds that

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[t, \zeta]=} & (D f+2 \alpha \bar{w}+2 \bar{\alpha} w) D+(D \bar{w}+(2 \varepsilon-\rho) \bar{w}-\bar{\kappa} w) \delta \\
& +(D w+(-2 \varepsilon-\bar{\rho}) w-\kappa \bar{w}) \bar{\delta},
\end{aligned}
$$

hence, assuming $\varepsilon=0, \zeta$ is a connecting vector for a congruence of geodesics with tangent vector $D$ if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
D f=0 \tag{53}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
D w=\bar{\rho} w+\kappa \bar{w} . \tag{54}
\end{equation*}
$$

Equation (53) implies that if $\zeta$ is orthogonal to $D$ at some point of a geodesic, then it is orthogonal to $D$ along that geodesic. (Note that $D=(1 / \sqrt{2}) d / d s$, where $s$ is the arc length.) In what follows we set $f=0$; therefore, $\zeta$ is orthogonal to the congruence of geodesics everywhere and we can write

$$
\zeta=x \partial_{1}+y \partial_{2},
$$

where $\partial_{1}=(\delta+\bar{\delta}) / \sqrt{2}, \partial_{2}=i(\bar{\delta}-\delta) / \sqrt{2}$ form an orthonormal basis of the normal planes to the geodesics and

$$
\begin{equation*}
w=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(x+i y) . \tag{55}
\end{equation*}
$$

In order to find the geometrical interpretation of the functions $\Theta \equiv \operatorname{Re} \rho, \omega \equiv \operatorname{Im} \rho$ and $\kappa$, we consider first the case where $\kappa=0$ and $\omega=0$, then substituting Eq. (55) into Eq. (54) one finds that $D x=\Theta x, D y=\Theta y$, which means that as one moves along a geodesic, any connecting vector $\zeta$ orthogonal to $D$ expands $(\Theta>0)$ or contracts $(\Theta<0)$, maintaining its orientation with respect to the axes $\partial_{1}$ and $\partial_{2}$, i.e., the congruence is expanding ( $\Theta>0$ ) or contracting $(\Theta<0)$. In fact, using, e.g., Eq. (42) of Ref. [1] it follows that $\operatorname{div} D=2 \Theta$.

When $\kappa=0$ and $\Theta=0$, Eqs. (54-55) give $D x=\omega y, D y=-\omega x$, which corresponds to a rigid rotation of the connecting vector relative to the axes $\partial_{1}$ and $\partial_{2}$. If $\rho=0$ and $\kappa$ is real, from Eqs. (54-55) we get $D x=\kappa x, D y=-\kappa y$, which correspond to a volume-preserving shear with principal axes $\partial_{1}$ and $\partial_{2}$. When $\kappa$ is complex then, at a given point, $\kappa$ is of the form $\kappa=\left|\kappa_{0}\right| e^{i \chi_{0}}$ and from Eqs. (51) one finds that under the transformation $o_{A} \mapsto e^{-i \chi_{0} / 4} o_{A}$ (which preserves the condition $\varepsilon=0$ and corresponds to a rotation through an angle $-\chi_{0} / 2$ about $D$ ), $\kappa \mapsto\left|\kappa_{0}\right|$ at that point. Therefore, Eq. (54) with $\rho=0$ and $\kappa$ complex corresponds to a volume-preserving shear with principal axes that form an angle $-(\arg \kappa) / 2$ with respect to $\partial_{1}$ and $\partial_{2}$.

Thus, $D$ is tangent to a shear-free congruence of geodesics if and only if $\alpha=\kappa=0$ which, according to Eqs. (48), is equivalent to the condition

$$
\begin{equation*}
o^{A} o^{C} \nabla_{A B} o_{C}=0 \tag{56}
\end{equation*}
$$

Similarly, the vector field (41) is tangent to a shear-free congruence of geodesics if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha^{A} \alpha^{C} \nabla_{A B} \alpha_{C}=0 \tag{57}
\end{equation*}
$$

even if $\alpha^{A} \hat{\alpha}_{A}$ is not constant. Indeed, assuming that $\alpha_{A}$ is different from zero, we can define $o_{A} \equiv\left(\alpha^{R} \hat{\alpha}_{R}\right)^{-1 / 2} \alpha_{A}$, which satisfies Eq. (47), then $\alpha^{A} \alpha^{C} \nabla_{A B} \alpha_{C}=$ $\left(\alpha^{R} \hat{\alpha}_{R}\right)^{3 / 2} o^{A} o^{C} \nabla_{A B} O_{C}=0$, where we have made use of Eq. (56).

## 5. Massless fields

In this section we consider the usual massless free field equations in flat space-time. These equations are written here in terms of $\operatorname{SU}(2)$ spinors, in a form that is manifestly covariant under spatial rotations only.

### 5.1. Weyl neutrino field

The Weyl neutrino equation for the two-component neutrino field, $\psi$, is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \psi=\boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \nabla \psi \tag{58}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the $\sigma_{a}$ are the Pauli matrices $[7,8]$ or, equivalently,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sqrt{2} \nabla_{A}^{B} \psi_{B}=-\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \psi_{A} . \tag{59}
\end{equation*}
$$

Making use of Eqs. (14) and (20) one finds that the complex conjugate of Eq. (59) is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sqrt{2} \nabla_{A}^{B} \hat{\psi}_{B}=\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \hat{\psi}_{A} . \tag{60}
\end{equation*}
$$

(It may be noticed that $\hat{\psi}_{A}$ satisfies the equation for the antineutrino [7,8].)
Equations (59-60) lead to the continuity equation

$$
c \sqrt{2} \nabla^{A B} \psi_{A} \hat{\psi}_{B}=\psi_{A} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \hat{\psi}^{A}-\hat{\psi}_{B} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \psi^{B}=-\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\left(\psi^{A} \hat{\psi}_{A}\right)
$$

which is of the form $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{J}+\partial \rho_{n} / \partial t=0$, with

$$
\begin{equation*}
J_{A B} \equiv-c \sqrt{2} \psi_{(A} \hat{\psi}_{B)}, \quad \rho_{n} \equiv \psi^{A} \hat{\psi}_{A} . \tag{61}
\end{equation*}
$$

(Using Eq. (26) we obtain $J_{a} J^{a}=c^{2} \rho_{n}^{2}$, i.e., $|\mathbf{J}|=\rho_{n} c$; hence, the four-vector $\left(\rho_{n} c, \mathbf{J}\right)$ is null.)

Looking for plane wave solutions of Eq. (59) of the form $\psi_{A}=\alpha_{A} e^{i\left(k_{a} x^{a}-\omega t\right)}$, where the $x^{a}$ are cartesian coordinates, and $k_{a}$ and $\alpha_{A}$ are constant, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sqrt{2} k_{A}^{B} \alpha_{B}=\frac{\omega}{c} \alpha_{A}, \tag{62}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $k_{A B}$ are the spinor components of $k_{a}$. Since $k_{a}$ is real, from Eq. (30) it follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
k_{A B}=-\sqrt{2}\left(\frac{\omega}{c}\right) \frac{\alpha_{(A} \hat{\alpha}_{B)}}{\alpha^{R} \hat{\alpha}_{R}} . \tag{63}
\end{equation*}
$$

(The minus sign appearing in Eq. (63) corresponds to the fact that, for a neutrino with positive energy, the spin and the momentum are antiparallel.)

### 5.2. Electromagnetic field

As shown in Ref. [1], the source-free Maxwell equations in vacuum can be written as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sqrt{2} \nabla_{(A}^{C} F_{B) C}=\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} F_{A B}, \quad \nabla^{A B} F_{A B}=0 \tag{64}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $F_{A B}$ are the spinor components of the complex vector field $\mathbf{F} \equiv \mathbf{E}+i \mathbf{B}$ (cf. Eqs. (59-60)). The Maxwell stress tensor, $T_{a b}$, is given by $4 \pi T_{a b}=E_{a} E_{b}+B_{a} B_{b}-$ $\frac{1}{2}\left(E_{c} E^{c}+B_{c} B^{c}\right) g_{a b}=F_{(a} \bar{F}_{b)}-\frac{1}{2} F_{c} \bar{F}^{c} g_{a b}$; therefore, making use of Eqs. (6), (7) and (38) one finds that the spinor equivalent of $T_{a b}$ is given by $16 \pi T_{A B C D}=2\left(F_{A B} \bar{F}_{C D}+\right.$ $\left.\bar{F}_{A B} F_{C D}\right)-F_{R S} F^{R S}\left(\varepsilon_{A C} \varepsilon_{B D}+\varepsilon_{B C} \varepsilon_{A D}\right)=F_{A C} \bar{F}_{B D}+F_{A D} \bar{F}_{B C}+F_{B D} \bar{F}_{A C}+F_{B C} \bar{F}_{A D}$, i.e.,

$$
\begin{equation*}
4 \pi T_{A B}^{C D}=F_{(A}{ }^{(C} \bar{F}_{B)}{ }^{D)} . \tag{65}
\end{equation*}
$$

Similarly, using Eq. (16) of Ref. [1], one finds that the spinor equivalent of the Poynting vector, $\mathbf{S}=(c / 4 \pi) \mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{B}=(i c / 8 \pi) \mathbf{F} \times \overline{\mathbf{F}}$, is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{A B}=\frac{c}{4 \pi \sqrt{2}} F_{R(A} \bar{F}_{B)}^{R} \tag{66}
\end{equation*}
$$

The symmetry of $F_{A B}$ implies that

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{A B}=\alpha_{(A} \beta_{B)} \tag{67}
\end{equation*}
$$

(cf. Eq. (21)). Thus, $F_{a} F^{a}=-F_{A B} F^{A B}=\frac{1}{2}\left(\alpha^{A} \beta_{A}\right)^{2}$. On the other hand, $F_{a} F^{a}=$ $E_{a} E^{a}-B_{a} B^{a}+2 i E_{a} B^{a}=\mathbf{E}^{2}-\mathbf{B}^{2}+2 i \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{B}$; therefore, $\beta_{A}=\lambda \alpha_{A}$ if and only if $\mathbf{E}^{2}=\mathbf{B}^{2}$ and $\mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{B}=0$. By absorbing the factor $\lambda^{1 / 2}$ into $\alpha_{A}$, we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{A B}=\alpha_{A} \alpha_{B} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \mathbf{E}^{2}=\mathbf{B}^{2} \quad \text { and } \quad \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{B}=0 \tag{68}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the principal spinor $\alpha_{A}$ is defined up to sign. The electromagnetic fields with $\mathbf{E}^{2}=\mathbf{B}^{2}$ and $\mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{B}=0$ are called degenerate, algebraically special, null or pure radiation fields.

The principal spinors $\alpha_{A}$ and $\beta_{A}$ of $F_{A B}$ define the real vector fields

$$
\begin{equation*}
v_{A B} \equiv \alpha_{(A} \hat{\alpha}_{B)}, \quad w_{A B} \equiv \beta_{(A} \hat{\beta}_{B)} \tag{69}
\end{equation*}
$$

It may be noticed that $\alpha_{A}$ and $\beta_{A}$ are defined by Eq. (67) up to the transformation $\alpha_{A} \mapsto \lambda \alpha_{A}, \beta_{A} \mapsto \lambda^{-1} \beta_{A}$, which induces the transformation $v_{a} \mapsto|\lambda|^{2} v_{a}, w_{a} \mapsto|\lambda|^{-2} w_{a}$, on the vector fields (69). This means that a nondegenerate electromagnetic field defines, at each point of the space, two real vectors whose direction and sense are uniquely defined. In general, the direction of $v_{a}$ or $w_{a}$ does not coincide with that of the electric or the
magnetic field. Substituting Eq. (67) into Eq. (66), making use of Eqs. (24) and (38), one finds that

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{A B}=\frac{c}{8 \pi \sqrt{2}}\left(\alpha^{R} \hat{\alpha}_{R} w_{A B}+\beta^{R} \hat{\beta}_{R} v_{A B}\right) \tag{70}
\end{equation*}
$$

which, by virtue of Eq. (26), amounts to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{S}=\frac{c}{8 \pi}(|\mathbf{v}| \mathbf{w}+|\mathbf{w}| \mathbf{v}) \tag{71}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus, $\mathbf{S}$ is a linear combination of $\mathbf{v}$ and $\mathbf{w}$ and it makes equal angles with $\mathbf{v}$ and $\mathbf{w}$. On the other hand, from Eqs. $(24),(65)$ and (67) it follows that the spinor equivalent of the trace-free part of the Maxwell stress tensor, $\tilde{T}_{a b}=T_{a b}-\frac{1}{3} T_{c}{ }^{c} g_{a b}$, is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
4 \pi \tilde{T}_{A B C D}=F_{(A B} \bar{F}_{C D)}=-\alpha_{(A} \beta_{B} \hat{\alpha}_{C} \hat{\beta}_{D)} \tag{72}
\end{equation*}
$$

therefore ( $c f$. Eqs. (39-40))

$$
4 \pi \tilde{T}_{a b}=-v_{(a} w_{b)}+\frac{1}{3} v^{c} w_{c} g_{a b}
$$

and

$$
4 \pi T_{a b}=-v_{(a} w_{b)}+\frac{1}{3}\left(4 \pi T_{c}{ }^{c}+v^{c} w_{c}\right) g_{a b}
$$

Using Eqs. (26), (38), (65), (67) and (69) we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
4 \pi T_{c}{ }^{c}+v^{c} w_{c} & =\frac{1}{2} F_{A B} \bar{F}^{A B}-v^{A B} w_{A B}=-\frac{3}{4} \alpha^{A} \beta_{A} \hat{\alpha}^{B} \hat{\beta}_{B} \\
& =-\frac{3}{4}\left(|\mathbf{v}||\mathbf{w}|-v^{c} w_{c}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

therefore,

$$
\begin{equation*}
4 \pi T_{a b}=-v_{(a} w_{b)}-\frac{1}{4}\left(|\mathbf{v}||\mathbf{w}|-v^{c} w_{c}\right) g_{a b} \tag{73}
\end{equation*}
$$

In the case of a degenerate electromagnetic field [Eq. (68)], Eqs. (71) and (73) reduce to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{S}=\frac{c}{4 \pi}|\mathbf{v}| \mathbf{v}, \quad 4 \pi T_{a b}=-v_{a} v_{b} \tag{74}
\end{equation*}
$$

If the electromagnetic field satisfies the source-free Maxwell equations (64), the vector field $\mathbf{v}$ (and hence $\mathbf{S}$ ) is tangent to a shear-free congruence of geodesics. (This result is a special case of the Mariot-Robinson theorem [9,10] which applies in curved space-time.) Indeed, if $F_{A B}=\alpha_{A} \alpha_{B}$ represents an algebraically special electromagnetic field that satisfies the
source-free Maxwell equations, the only nonvanishing component of $F_{A B}$ with respect to the triad defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
o_{A} \equiv\left(\alpha^{R} \hat{\alpha}_{R}\right)^{-1 / 2} \alpha_{A} \tag{75}
\end{equation*}
$$

is $F_{22}$; then, making use of the Maxwell equations in the form given by Eqs. (66) of Ref. [1], one obtains

$$
\begin{equation*}
\kappa=\alpha=0, \tag{76}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{align*}
(\delta-2 \beta) F_{-1} & =0 \\
(D+2 \varepsilon+\bar{\rho}) F_{-1} & =-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2} c} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} F_{-1} \tag{77}
\end{align*}
$$

where $F_{-1} \equiv F_{22}$ (cf. Eqs. (41) of Ref. [1]). Equations (76) imply that the congruence with tangent vector $v_{A B}=\alpha_{(A} \hat{\alpha}_{B)}$ is shear-free and geodetic.

Conversely, given a shear-free congruence of geodesics, there exists an algebraically special solution of the source-free Maxwell equations $F_{A B}=\alpha_{A} \alpha_{B}$ such that $\alpha_{(A} \hat{\alpha}_{B)}$ is tangent to the congruence. Indeed, by choosing the $\operatorname{triad} D, \delta, \bar{\delta}$, in such a way that $D$ is tangent to the congruence, $\kappa=\alpha=0$. Hence, the source-free Maxwell equations for an electromagnetic field with $F_{11}=F_{12}=0$ reduce to Eqs. (77). Since $[D, \delta]=(2 \varepsilon-\rho) \delta$ (Ref. [1], Eq. (33)), the integrability condition of Eqs. (77) is

$$
D\left(2 \beta F_{-1}\right)-\delta\left((-2 \varepsilon-\bar{\rho}) F_{-1}-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2} c} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} F_{-1}\right)=(2 \varepsilon-\rho) 2 \beta F_{-1}
$$

Using again Eqs. (77) and Eqs. (58b-c) of Ref. [1] one finds that this condition is satisfied identically. The solution of Eqs. (77) is not unique; in fact, it contains an arbitrary analytic function of two complex variables. For example, the straight lines through a given point form a shear-free congruence of geodesics. In fact, if we introduce the triad

$$
\begin{equation*}
D=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \frac{\partial}{\partial r}, \quad \delta=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2} r}\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta}+\frac{i}{\sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi}\right), \quad \bar{\delta}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2} r}\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta}-\frac{i}{\sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi}\right) \tag{78}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $r, \theta, \phi$ are spherical coordinates, then $D$ is tangent to the congruence and it is easy to see that the spin-coefficients are [1]

$$
\begin{equation*}
\kappa=\alpha=\varepsilon=0, \quad \beta=-\frac{1}{2 \sqrt{2} r} \cot \theta, \quad \rho=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2} r} \tag{79}
\end{equation*}
$$

Substituting Eqs. (78-79) into Eqs. (77) one finds that

$$
F_{-1}=\frac{1}{r \sin \theta} f\left(r-c t, \cot \frac{\theta}{2} e^{-i \phi}\right)
$$

where $f$ is an arbitrary analytic function. However, in this case, for any choice of the function $f, F_{-1}$ will diverge in some direction.

### 5.3. The massless free field equations for arbitrary spin

The massless free field equations for spin $s$ are given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sqrt{2} \nabla_{(A}^{R} \phi_{B \ldots L) R}= \pm \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \phi_{A B \ldots L}, \tag{80}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\nabla^{A B} \phi_{A B \ldots L}=0, \tag{81}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\phi_{A B \ldots L}$ is a $2 s$-index totally symmetric spinor and the sign in the right-hand side of Eq. (80) depends on the helicity of the field (cf. Eqs. (59-60) and (64)).

Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{\phi}_{A B \ldots L} \equiv \overline{\phi^{A B \ldots L}} \tag{82}
\end{equation*}
$$

(or, equivalently, $\hat{\phi}^{A B \ldots L}=(-1)^{2 s} \overline{\phi_{A B \ldots L}}, c f$. Eqs. (13-14) and (20)), then, using the fact that $\overline{\nabla_{B}^{A}}=\nabla_{A}^{B}$, it can be readily seen that Eqs. (80-81) are equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sqrt{2} \nabla^{R}{ }_{(A} \hat{\phi}_{B \ldots L) R}=\mp \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \hat{\phi}_{A B \ldots L}, \quad \nabla^{A B} \hat{\phi}_{A B \ldots L}=0 . \tag{83}
\end{equation*}
$$

(Hence, $\phi_{A B \ldots L}$ and $\hat{\phi}_{A B \ldots L}$ have opposite helicities, cf. Eqs. (59-60).) From Eqs. (80) and (83) one obtains the continuity equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\left(\phi^{A B \ldots L} \hat{\phi}_{A B \ldots L}\right)= \pm \sqrt{2} c \nabla^{A R}\left(\phi_{(A}^{B \ldots L} \hat{\phi}_{R) B \ldots L}\right) \tag{84}
\end{equation*}
$$

(cf. Eqs. (61) and (66)). Note that $\phi^{A B \ldots L} \hat{\phi}_{A B \ldots L} \geq 0$ and that $\phi_{(A}{ }^{B \ldots L} \hat{\phi}_{R) B \ldots L}$ corresponds to a real vector field.

A plane wave solution of Eqs. (80-81) is of the form $\phi_{A B \ldots L}=\chi_{A B \ldots L} e^{i\left(k_{a} x^{a}-\omega t\right)}$, where $\chi_{A B \ldots L}$ is constant and $k_{a}$ is a real constant vector. Taking into account Eq. (30), from Eqs. (80-81) it follows that

$$
\chi_{A B \cdots L}=\alpha_{A} \alpha_{B} \cdots \alpha_{L},
$$

for some $\alpha_{A}$, and

$$
k_{A B}= \pm \sqrt{2}\left(\frac{\omega}{c}\right) \frac{\alpha_{(A} \hat{\alpha}_{B)}}{\alpha^{R} \hat{\alpha}_{R}}
$$

(cf. Eq. (63)).

## 6. Concluding remarks

Among the differences between the spinor formalism employed in general relativity and the spinor formalism of three-dimensional spaces is the fact that, in the latter case, any vector can be expressed in terms of two one-index spinors [Eq. (25)]. As we have shown, when the metric has signature $(++-)$, the algebraic classification of the spinor equivalents of vectors amounts to classifying the vectors according to whether $v^{a} v_{a} \geq 0$ or $v^{a} v_{a} \leq 0$. In the case of a trace-free symmetric tensor, the factorization of its spinor equivalent [Eq. (34)] leads to a canonical form [Eq. (40)] that is not based on the eigenvectors of the tensor.

The example given at the end of Sect. 5.2 shows that, even though Eqs. (77) are integrable for a given shear-free congruence of geodesics, their solution may not be well behaved globally.

## References

1. G.F. Torres del Castillo, Rev. Mex. Fís. 38 (1992) 863.
2. G.F. Torres del Castillo, Rev. Mex. Fís. 40 (1994) 195.
3. R. Penrose, Ann. Phys. 10 (1960) 171.
4. L.D. Landau and E.M. Lifshitz, Quantum Mechanics. Nonrelativistic Theory, 3rd ed., Pergamon, Oxford (1977), Chap. 8.
5. L.I. Schiff, Quantum Mechanics, 3rd ed., McGraw-Hill, New York (1968), Chap. 6.
6. G.F. Torres del Castillo, Rev. Mex. Fís. 36 (1990) 446. (In Spanish.)
7. M.E. Rose, Relativistic Electron Theory, Wiley, New York (1961), Chap. VII.
8. J.D. Bjorken and S.D. Drell, Relativistic Quantum Fields, McGraw-Hill, New York (1965).
9. L. Mariot, C. R. Acad. Sci. Paris 238 (1954) 2055.
10. I. Robinson, J. Math. Phys. 2 (1961) 290.
