# What is a Twistor? 

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June 11, 2018

The setting for twistors and indeed any local physical system is Minkowski spacetime. Minkowski spacetime is the pair $\left(\mathbb{R}^{4}, \eta_{a b}\right)$, consisting of the vector space $\mathbb{R}^{4}$ and the $4 \times 4$ diagonal matrix $\eta_{a b}$ given by:

$$
\eta_{a b}=\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
-1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

providing the basis for $\mathbb{R}^{4}$ is an orthonormal one. Minkowski spacetime is a simplification of a more general and complicated setting known as a Lorentzian manifold, although an understanding of Lorentzian manifolds will not be required for now. The $(-+++)$ signature of $\eta_{a b}$ is what distinguishes the first coordinate of $\mathbb{R}^{4}$ from the other three, regardless of which orthonormal basis is used. Let:

$$
V^{a}=\left(V^{0}, V^{1}, V^{2}, V^{3}\right)
$$

represent a vector in $\mathbb{R}^{4}$ in the standard basis:

$$
\operatorname{span}\left\{e_{0}, e_{1}, e_{2}, e_{3}\right\}
$$

where:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& e_{0}=(1,0,0,0) \\
& e_{1}=(0,1,0,0) \\
& e_{2}=(0,0,1,0) \\
& e_{3}=(0,0,0,1)
\end{aligned}
$$

We may think of the first coordinate $V^{0}$ as representing some notion of time and the other three coordinates as representing some notion of space. The quantity:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{a=0}^{3} \sum_{b=0}^{3} V^{a} V^{b} \eta_{a b}=-\left(V^{0}\right)^{2}+\left(V^{1}\right)^{2}+\left(V^{2}\right)^{2}+\left(V^{3}\right)^{2} \tag{0.0.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

is known as the spacetime interval and is invariant under a group of transformations known as the Lorentz transformations. From this point onwards, if the same letter is given as a superscript and a subscript, then a summation will be assumed over the appropriate range of values, this is called the Einstein summation convention. For example, 0.0.1 will be written as $V^{a} V^{b} \eta_{a b}$ from now on. $\eta_{a b}$ can be thought of as acting as a sort of inner product and $V^{a}$ can be thought of as a four-velocity, that is, a vector representing the velocity of a particle in both space and time. A particle whose four-velocity is non-zero but yet has no spacial components is not moving through space but is still moving through time. A vector $V^{a}$ is said to be:

1. timelike if $V^{a} V^{b} \eta_{a b}<0$,
2. spacelike if $V^{a} V^{b} \eta_{a b}>0$ and
3. lightlike or null if $V^{a} V^{b} \eta_{a b}=0$.

To give this machinery a physical interpretation, recall the postulate made by Einstein that states the speed of light must remain unchanged in all frames of reference, that is, invariant under certain change of bases of $\mathbb{R}^{4}$. Scientists had known that the speed of light was constant, and to great precision, before Einstein began to think about such. The motivation for Einstein's postulate was the application of the absence of absolute motion, that is, that one can only determine a quantity called velocity when comparing the motion of oneself to another object. To Einstein, the absence of absolute motion means one could continue to expect to view
oneself in a mirror regardless of how fast they are travelling in relation to another observer. For the person looking in the mirror, should they experience a delay in their reflection, they would know they were moving, without reference to any other object, a violation of the absence of absolute motion. Einstein saw that the only remedy to a constant speed of light and lack of absolute motion was his postulate. Denoting the speed of light by $c$, this yields the condition:

$$
\left(V^{1}\right)^{2}+\left(V^{2}\right)^{2}+\left(V^{3}\right)^{2} \leq c^{2}
$$

on any four-velocity in any orthonormal basis of $\mathbb{R}^{3}$. However, spacetime is four-dimensional and physical systems do not change based on which frame they are viewed in; this is where $\eta_{a b}$ comes in. An event is a point in spacetime with respect to some frame of reference, events are invariant of frame and so will have different coordinate values in different coordinate frames. Suppose however that the standard Euclidean metric on $\mathbb{R}^{4}$ were to be used instead of $\eta_{a b}$, that is, the distance between two events $X^{a}$ and $Y^{a}$ is defined to be the quantity:

$$
\left(X^{a}-Y^{a}\right)\left(X^{b}-Y^{b}\right) \delta_{a b}=\left(X^{0}-Y^{0}\right)^{2}+\left(X^{1}-Y^{1}\right)^{2}+\left(X^{2}-Y^{2}\right)^{2}+\left(X^{3}-Y^{3}\right)^{2}
$$

invariant of orthonormal change of basis of $\mathbb{R}^{4}$. Then the time and space components would be completely indistinguishable, this would immediately contradict Einstein's postulate as the following example shows. Suppose in some frame of reference that event $Y^{a}$ is related to event $X^{a}$ by:

$$
Y^{a}=X^{a}+T^{a}
$$

where:

$$
T^{a}=\left(T^{0}, 0,0,0\right)
$$

and $T^{0}>0$. Then an observer sitting stationary in this frame at:

$$
\left(0, X^{1}, X^{2}, X^{3}\right)
$$

will experience the event $X^{a}$ at a coordinate time of $X^{0}$ and then event $Y^{a}$ at a coordinate time of $X^{0}+T^{0}$. However, an appropriate rotation of $\mathbb{R}^{4}$ could give events $X^{a}$ and $Y^{a}$ the same time coordinate. Since rotations correspond to orthonormal changes of basis, it would then be possible to find a frame whereby the two events occur simultaneously; this is not in of itself a problem, the problem is that an observer in this frame would observe the sitting observer to pass between events instantaneously, since the sitting observer is present at both events. This motivates the use of $\eta_{a b}$ and the Lorentz transformations that preserve the spacetime interval $V^{a} V^{b} \eta_{a b}$. If events $X^{a}$ and $Y^{a}$ satisfy the condition:

$$
\left(X^{a}-Y^{a}\right)\left(X^{b}-Y^{b}\right) \eta_{a b}<0
$$

which is an invariant quantity, then a particle travelling at less than the speed of light may travel from one event to the next. If $X^{0}$ and $Y^{0}$ are written as $c \tilde{X}$ and $c \tilde{Y}$ respectively, then $\tilde{X}-\tilde{Y}$ would correspond to the time between events with respect to this coordinate frame; this is where the speed of light constant comes into the model. Timelike vectors such as $X^{a}-Y^{a}$ correspond to the four-velocities of particles with mass. In the same way, particles of light and other massless particles have four-velocities that are null. The set of Lorentz transformations form a group with matrix multiplication as the binary operation, this group is called the Lorentz group and is denoted by $L$. We have that $L=O(1,3)$, that is, the set of endomorphisms of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ (or more generally some four-dimensional vector space $V$ ) preserving $\eta_{a b}$ :

$$
\Lambda_{b}^{a} \in L \Longleftrightarrow \Lambda_{b}^{a} \Lambda_{d}^{c} \eta_{a c}=\eta_{b d}
$$

Note that the determinant of a Lorentz transformation is either 1 or -1 . The Lorentz group can be split up the into four components:

$$
L=L_{+}^{\uparrow} \cup L_{+}^{\downarrow} \cup L_{-}^{\uparrow} \cup L_{-}^{\downarrow}
$$

where $\pm$ indicates the sign of the determinant and $\uparrow$ and $\downarrow$ indicate $\Lambda_{0}^{0}>0$ and $\Lambda_{0}^{0}<0$ respectively. The component $L_{+}^{\uparrow}$ contains the identity and is referred to as the proper orthochronous Lorentz group. The Lorentz transformations with negative determinants will change the orientation of a vector and the Lorentz transformations with $\Lambda^{0}{ }_{0}<0$ will change a future pointing timelike vector to a past pointing timelike vector and vice versa. For example, $\eta$ is a time-reflection and:

1. $\operatorname{diag}(1,-1,1,1)$,
2. $\operatorname{diag}(1,1,-1,1)$ and
3. $\operatorname{diag}(1,1,1,-1)$
are examples of space-reflections. Some of the following material closely follows the arguments laid out in Chapter 4 of [1] and will require an understanding of differential geometry and sheaf cohomology. Let $V^{a} \in V$, where $V$ is a four-dimensional real vector space and $V^{a}$ has components:

$$
V^{a}=\left(V^{0}, V^{1}, V^{2}, V^{3}\right)
$$

In this light define:

$$
\Psi\left(V^{a}\right)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\begin{array}{cc}
V^{0}+V^{3} & V^{1}+i V^{2} \\
V^{1}-i V^{2} & V^{0}-V^{3}
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
V^{00^{\prime}} & V^{01^{\prime}} \\
V^{10^{\prime}} & V^{11^{\prime}}
\end{array}\right)=V^{A A^{\prime}}
$$

where $A$ and $A^{\prime}$ range over the values 0,1 and $0^{\prime}, 1^{\prime}$ respectively. Note that this gives a bijective correspondence between elements of $V$ and $2 \times 2$ Hermitian matrices. Furthermore, define the map:

$$
\begin{aligned}
V \times \mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{C}) & \rightarrow V \\
V^{A A^{\prime}} & \mapsto t_{B}^{A} V^{B B^{\prime}} \bar{t}_{B^{\prime}}^{A^{\prime}}
\end{aligned}
$$

which corresponds to the multiplication of the matrix $\Psi\left(V^{a}\right)$ on the left by an element of $\mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{C})$ and on the right by its Hermitian conjugate. Such a map will result in another Hermitian matrix whose determinant is equal to that of $\Psi\left(V^{a}\right)$. This map defines a linear transformation on $V^{a}$ that preserves $V^{a} V^{b} \eta_{a b}$; these maps are the familiar Lorentz transformations:

$$
V^{a} \rightarrow \Lambda_{b}^{a} V^{b}
$$

Thus a map $\mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{C}) \rightarrow L$ has been established to which it can be shown to possess the following properties:

1. It is a group homomorphism.
2. It maps into $L_{+}^{\uparrow}$.
3. The kernel consists of $I$ and $-I$ where $I$ is the $2 \times 2$ identity matrix.

Now if $V^{a}$ is a null vector, that is, $V^{a} V^{b} \eta_{a b}=0$, then $\Psi\left(V^{a}\right)$ has rank one and can thus be represented as the outer product of a two-dimensional complex vector $\alpha^{A}$ and its conjugate:

$$
V^{A A^{\prime}}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
V^{00^{\prime}} & V^{01^{\prime}} \\
V^{10^{\prime}} & V^{11^{\prime}}
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
\alpha^{0} \bar{\alpha}^{0^{\prime}} & \alpha^{0} \bar{\alpha}^{1^{\prime}} \\
\alpha^{1} \bar{\alpha}^{0^{\prime}} & \alpha^{1} \bar{\alpha}^{1^{\prime}}
\end{array}\right)=\alpha^{A} \bar{\alpha}^{A^{\prime}}
$$

The $\alpha^{A}$ that correspond to null vectors $V^{a}$ are called spinors and the two-dimensional complex vector space to which they live and acted on by $\mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{C})$ is called spin-space, denoted by $S$. From the spin-space, the
complex conjugate spin-space $S^{\prime}=\bar{S}$ along with their respective topological dual spaces $S^{*}$ and $S^{\prime *}$ can be defined. The introduction of such dual spaces allow for the construction of spinor tensors of arbitrary valence:

$$
\Psi^{A \ldots B C^{\prime} \ldots D_{E \ldots F G^{\prime} \ldots H^{\prime}}^{\prime} \in S \otimes \cdots \otimes S \otimes S^{\prime} \otimes \cdots \otimes S^{\prime} \otimes S^{*} \otimes \cdots \otimes S^{*} \otimes S^{\prime *} \otimes \cdots \otimes S^{\prime *}}
$$

Similarly to vector fields on a manifold, a spinor field on a manifold $\mathcal{M}$ is defined to be a section of a suitable vector bundle $\mathcal{S}$ over $\mathcal{M}$. See 2 or recall that a vector bundle of rank $r$ on a manifold $\mathcal{M}$ is the triple $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{M}, \pi)$ consisting of:

1. The total space $\mathcal{S}$,
2. the base space $\mathcal{M}$ and
3. a continuous surjection $\pi: \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathcal{M}$ that is locally trivial of rank $r$.

A continuous surjection $\pi: \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathcal{M}$ is locally trivial of rank $r$ if:

1. For each $x \in \mathcal{M}$ the fibre $\pi^{-1}(x)$ has the structure of an $r$-dimensional vector space and
2. there is an open neighbourhood $U$ of $x$ and a fibre-preserving diffeomorphism:

$$
\phi: \pi^{-1}(U) \rightarrow U \times \mathbb{R}^{r}
$$

such that for every $y \in U$ the restriction:

$$
\left.\phi\right|_{\pi^{-1}(y)}: \pi^{-1}(y) \rightarrow\{y\} \times \mathbb{R}^{r}
$$

is a vector space isomorphism.
For any two maps $\pi: \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathcal{M}$ and $\pi^{\prime}: \mathcal{S}^{\prime} \rightarrow \mathcal{M}$ the $\operatorname{map} \phi: \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathcal{S}^{\prime}$ is said to be fibre-preserving if:

$$
\phi\left(\pi^{-1}(x)\right) \subset\left(\pi^{\prime}\right)^{-1}(x) \forall x \in \mathcal{M}
$$

The collection $\{(U, \phi)\}$, with the sets $U$ forming an open cover of $\mathcal{M}$, is called a local trivialisation for $\mathcal{S}$. Given a vector bundle $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{M}, \pi)$ of rank $r$ and a pair $\left(U, \phi_{U}\right)$ and $\left(V, \phi_{V}\right)$ over which the bundle trivialises, the composition function:

$$
\phi_{U}^{-1} \circ \phi_{V}:(U \cap V) \times \mathbb{R}^{r} \rightarrow(U \cap V) \times \mathbb{R}^{r}
$$

is well defined on the overlap and satisfies:

$$
\varphi_{U}^{-1} \circ \phi_{V}(x, v)=\left(x, g_{U V}(x) v\right)
$$

for some $\mathrm{GL}(r)$-valued function:

$$
g_{U V}: U \cap V \rightarrow G L(r)
$$

The functions $g_{U V}$ are called transition functions of the vector bundle and correspond to coordinate transformations on the vector bundle. A section of a vector bundle $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{M}, \pi)$ is a map $s: \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{S}$ such that $\pi \circ s$ is the identity map on $\mathcal{M}$. A frame for a vector bundle $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{M}, \pi)$ of rank $r$ over an open set $U$ is a collection of sections $s_{1}, \ldots, s_{r}$ of $\mathcal{S}$ over $U$ such that at each point $x \in U$ the elements $s_{1}(x), \ldots, s_{r}(x)$ form a basis for the fibre $\pi^{-1}(x)$. This definition of a frame actually corresponds to the physical notion of a frame of reference, as discussed previously. A frame bundle of the vector bundle $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{M}, \pi)$ is a disjoint union of frames
over all of $\mathcal{M}$. Now to define the spinor bundle $\mathcal{S}$, the manifold $\mathcal{M}$ must be orientable, so that a global choice of orientation is possible, and also time-orientable, so that a global choice of future-directed vectors can be made. The orientability and time-orientability of $\mathcal{M}$ means that an orthonormal frame bundle $B$ of $\mathcal{M}$ can be reduced to an $L_{+}^{\uparrow}$ bundle, that is, the transition matrices for $B$ can be chosen to be in $L_{+}^{\uparrow}$. Many objects involving spinors are only defined up to sign, the kernel of the map $\mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{C}) \rightarrow L$ being a good example, this leads after having reduced $B$ to an $L_{+}^{\uparrow}$ bundle, to find $\mathcal{S}$ as a double cover of $B$; for this to be possible, $\mathcal{M}$ must satisfy a topological technicality which will be discussed shortly. Starting with orientability first, consider a locally finite open cover $\left\{U_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ of $\mathcal{M}$ and a choice of orthonormal frame $f_{i}$ over $U_{i}$. On the non-empty intersections $U_{i} \cap U_{j}$ the frames $f_{i}$ and $f_{j}$ will be related by a Lorentz transformation:

$$
f_{j} P_{i j} f_{i}
$$

The Lorentz transformations $P_{i j}$ define the orthonormal frame bundle $B$ and must satisfy:

$$
\begin{aligned}
P_{j i} & =P_{i j}^{-1} \\
P_{i j} P_{k i} P_{j k} & =I
\end{aligned}
$$

providing:

$$
U_{i} \cap U_{j} \cap U_{k} \neq 0
$$

This is where sheaf cohomology comes in, so a few definitions are first in order. As a more general object to the sheaf of holomorphic functions $\mathcal{O}$, a sheaf $\mathcal{S}$ over a topological space $\mathcal{M}$ is a topological space together with a mapping $\pi: \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathcal{M}$ such that:

1. $\pi$ is a local homeomorphism,
2. the stalks $\pi^{-1}(x)$ are abelian groups and
3. the group operations are continuous.

It is important to note that the sections of $\mathcal{S}$ over an open subset of $\mathcal{M}$ form an abelian group $\mathcal{S}(U)$. Let $\left\{U_{i}\right\}$ be an open cover of $\mathcal{M}$, then a $p$-cochain is a collection of sections:

$$
s_{i_{0} \ldots i_{p}} \in \mathcal{S}\left(\bigcap_{k=1}^{p} U_{i_{k}}\right)
$$

that is, one for each non-empty $p+1$-fold intersection of the sets $U_{i}$, which are completely skew-symmetric:

$$
s_{i_{0} \ldots i_{p}}=s_{\left[i_{0} \ldots i_{p}\right]}
$$

This $p$-cochain will be denoted as $\left\{s_{i_{0} \ldots i_{p}}\right\}$. For example, a 1-cochain is a collection of sections:

$$
s_{i j} \in \mathcal{S}\left(U_{i} \cap U_{j}\right)
$$

such that:

$$
s_{i j}=-s_{j i}
$$

The set of all p-cochains has an abelian group structure, inherited from the sheaf, and is denoted by $C^{p}\left(\left\{U_{i}\right\} ; \mathcal{S}\right)$. The coboundary map:

$$
\delta_{p}: C^{p}\left(\left\{U_{i}\right\} ; \mathcal{S}\right) \rightarrow C^{p+1}\left(\left\{U_{i}\right\} ; \mathcal{S}\right)
$$

will now be defined. Given a 0 -cochain $s_{i}$, a 1-cochain $s_{i j}$ can be defined as follows:

$$
s_{i j}=\rho_{j} s_{i}-\rho_{i} s_{j}=2 \rho_{[j} s_{i]}
$$

where $\rho_{i} s_{j}$ is the restriction of $s_{j}$ to the set $U_{i} \cap U_{j}$. The coboundary map on $C^{0}\left(\left\{U_{i}\right\} ; \mathcal{S}\right)$ is then defined to be:

$$
\delta_{0}\left(\left\{s_{i}\right\}\right)=\left\{2 \rho_{[j} s_{i]}\right\}
$$

with the general coboundary map being defined analogously:

$$
\delta_{p}\left(\left\{s_{i_{0} \ldots i_{p}}\right\}\right)=\left\{(p+1) \rho_{\left[i_{p+1}\right.} s_{\left.i_{0} \ldots i_{p}\right]}\right\}
$$

It is easy to see that:

$$
\operatorname{ker}\left(\delta_{0}\right)=\mathcal{S}
$$

Moreover, there are special notations for the kernels and images of such coboundary maps, they are:

$$
\begin{aligned}
Z^{p}\left(\left\{U_{i}\right\} ; \mathcal{S}\right) & =\operatorname{ker}\left(\delta_{p}\right) \\
B^{p}\left(\left\{U_{i}\right\} ; \mathcal{S}\right) & =\operatorname{im}\left(\delta_{p-1}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

with the elements of $Z^{p}\left(\left\{U_{i}\right\} ; \mathcal{S}\right)$ being called $p$-cocycles and the elements of $B^{p}\left(\left\{U_{i}\right\} ; \mathcal{S}\right)$ being called $p$ coboundaries. $Z^{p}\left(\left\{U_{i}\right\} ; \mathcal{S}\right)$ and $B^{p}\left(\left\{U_{i}\right\} ; \mathcal{S}\right)$ are abelian groups and since:

$$
\delta_{p+1} \circ \delta_{p}=0
$$

then $B^{p}\left(\left\{U_{i}\right\} ; \mathcal{S}\right)$ will be a normal subgroup of $Z^{p}\left(\left\{U_{i}\right\} ; \mathcal{S}\right)$. The sheaf that is considered in the construction of the vector bundle $\mathcal{S}$ is $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$. Recalling the Lorentz transformations $P_{i j}$, define:

$$
\tau_{i j}=\operatorname{det}\left(P_{i j}\right)
$$

Then $\tau_{i j}$ is an assignment of $\pm 1$ to every non-empty intersection $U_{i} \cap U_{j}$ and is symmetric. Thus $\tau_{i j}$ defines a 1-cochain $\tau \in C^{1}\left(\left\{U_{i}\right\} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$ and furthermore:

$$
\tau_{i j} \tau_{k i} \tau_{j k}=1
$$

so that $\tau$ is actually a cocycle, that is, $\tau \in Z^{1}\left(\left\{U_{i}\right\} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$. Now a change in the orientation of the $f_{i}$ corresponds to a zero cochain $\omega \in C^{0}\left(\left\{U_{i}\right\} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$ as so:

1. $\omega_{i}=1$ if the orientation of $f_{i}$ is unchanged,
2. $\omega_{i}=-1$ if the orientation of $f_{i}$ is changed.

Such a change in orientation modifies the $P_{i j}$ and so will modify the $\tau_{i j}$ according to:

$$
\tau_{i j} \rightarrow \omega_{i} \tau_{i j} \omega_{j}
$$

that is, $\tau$ changes by a coboundary. Using the cochain $\omega$, the frames $f_{i}$ can be modified so that all the $\tau_{i j}$ become +1 ; this is fixing a choice of orientation. A similar argument allows $\mathcal{M}$ to oriented in time such that the matrices $P_{i j}$ are all in $L_{+}^{\uparrow}$. Now to construct the spin bundle $\mathcal{S}$, a choice of matrix $\sigma_{i j} \in S L(2, \mathbb{C})$ is needed where $\sigma_{i j}$ is one of the two inverse images of $P_{i j}$, the other being $-\sigma_{i j}$. These can evidently be chosen to satisfy:

$$
\sigma_{j i}=\sigma_{i j}^{-1}
$$

but on the non-empty triple intersections:

$$
\sigma_{i j} \sigma_{k i} \sigma_{j k}=z_{i j k} I
$$

where $I$ is the $2 \times 2$ unit matrix and $z_{i j k}= \pm 1$. To be able to construct $\mathcal{S}$, the $\sigma_{i j}$ needs to be chosen so that all the $z_{i j k}$ are +1 . As like before, the $z_{i j k}$ define a cochain but now in $C^{2}\left(\left\{U_{i}\right\} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$, which again is actually a cocycle. A 1 -cochain $\omega_{i j}$ can be defined by changing the choice of $\sigma_{i j}$, that is, $\omega_{i j}=-1$ if the choice of $-\sigma_{i j}$ is taken and $\omega_{i j}=1$ if the choice of $\sigma_{i j}$ is taken. This changes $z_{i j k}$ by a coboundary:

$$
z_{i j k} \rightarrow z_{i j k} \tau_{i j} \tau_{k i}^{-1} \tau_{j k}
$$

and so the cocycle $\tau_{i j}$ can then be used to change the signs of the $\sigma_{i j}$ so that they satisfy:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sigma_{i j} & =\sigma_{j i}^{-1} \\
\sigma_{i j} \sigma_{k i} \sigma_{j k} & =I
\end{aligned}
$$

and can be used to build the bundle $\mathcal{S}$, up to a technicality. Let $\gamma$ be a path in the fibre of the frame bundle that is not homotopic to zero in that fibre. If $\gamma$ is still not homotopic to zero when arbitrarily deformed in the whole frame bundle, then $\mathcal{S}$ satisfies the technicality and will be the desired spinor bundle. Local sections of $\mathcal{S}$ are the unprimed spinor fields $\pi_{A}(x)$. Note that, like before, the conjugate, dual and conjugate dual bundles $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}, \mathcal{S}^{*}$ and $\mathcal{S}^{* *}$ respectively can also be constructed from $\mathcal{S}$. Now that the appropriate machinery is in place, the Levi-Civita connection $\nabla_{a}$ of $\mathcal{M}$ can be extended uniquely to a connection $\nabla_{A A^{\prime}}$ on the spin bundles, further details on this can be found in [1]. Finally, a twistor is defined as a spinor field $\Omega^{A}(x)$ in Minkowski spacetime $\mathcal{M}$ satisfying the twistor equation:

$$
\nabla_{A^{\prime}}\left(A \Omega^{B)}=0\right.
$$

which is equivalent to the equation:

$$
\nabla_{A A^{\prime}} \Omega^{B}=-i \delta_{A}^{B} \pi_{A^{\prime}}
$$

for some other spinor field $\pi_{A^{\prime}}$ and where $\delta_{A}^{B}$ is the identity spinor. Twistor space is then the four-dimensional complex vector space of solutions to the twistor equation. The range of applications of twistors is enormous, particularly in the field of mathematical physics. Indeed the whole machinery of differential geometry, the bedrock of spacetime, can be completely reformulated in terms of spinor fields. One may think that stopping at the definition of a twistor is of great injustice to such a magnificent field, and they would be right. Thus the reader is referred to 1$]$ and $3-7]$ to continue the journey.

References:

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