

# A brief introduction to the method of Orthogonal Amplitudes

**Sergey Baranov**

*P.N.Lebedev Institute of Physics, Moscow, Russian Academy of Sciences*

*D.V.Skobeltzyn Institute of Nuclear Physics, Moscow State University*

## P L A N   O F   T H E   T A L K

1. Introduce basic vectors
2. Introduce basic amplitudes
3. General summation formula
4. Advantages for numeric calculations
5. Advantages for analytic calculations
6. Further extentions

## Step 1: basic vectors $u$ and $v$

Consider we have a diagram with fermion line ending with particles with momenta  $p$  and  $q$ , and we calculate the square of the respective amplitude.

The first step is to introduce two 4-vectors,  $u$  and  $v$ , such that they are orthogonal to each other and to the fermion momenta  $p$  and  $q$ :

$$(u.v) = 0; \quad (u.p) = 0; \quad (u.q) = 0; \quad (v.p) = 0; \quad (v.q) = 0$$

In other respects these vectors are arbitrary. One particular choice is

$$u_0 = 0; \quad \vec{u} = [\vec{p} \times \vec{q}]; \quad v_\alpha = \epsilon_{\alpha\beta\gamma\delta} u^\beta p^\gamma q^\delta$$

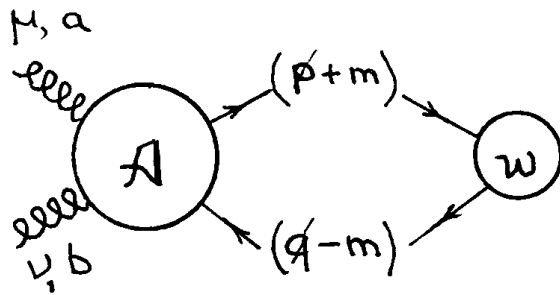
## Step 2: Basic matrices

With the use of Dirac equation  $(\hat{p} - m) = 0$  and the identity  $\gamma_5 = i\gamma^0 \gamma^1 \gamma^2 \gamma^3$ , the number of independent operators is reduced from 16 to 4:

|                                                              |                                                                                                              |                                |
|--------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| $I$                                                          | $\rightarrow$                                                                                                | $I$                            |
| $\gamma^\mu$                                                 | $\rightarrow \hat{p}, \hat{q}, \hat{u}, \hat{v}$                                                             | $\rightarrow \hat{u}, \hat{v}$ |
| $\frac{1}{2}[\gamma^\mu \gamma^\nu - \gamma^\nu \gamma^\mu]$ | $\rightarrow \hat{p}\hat{q}, \hat{p}\hat{u}, \hat{p}\hat{v}, \hat{q}\hat{u}, \hat{q}\hat{v}, \hat{u}\hat{v}$ | $\rightarrow \hat{u}\hat{v}$   |
| $\gamma_5 = i\gamma^0 \gamma^1 \gamma^2 \gamma^3$            | $\rightarrow \hat{p}\hat{q}\hat{u}\hat{v}$                                                                   | $\rightarrow \hat{u}\hat{v}$   |
| $\gamma_5 \hat{u}$                                           | $\rightarrow \hat{p}\hat{q}\hat{u}\hat{v}\hat{u} \rightarrow \hat{u}\hat{v}\hat{u}$                          | $\rightarrow \hat{v}$          |
| $\gamma_5 \hat{v}$                                           | $\rightarrow \hat{p}\hat{q}\hat{u}\hat{v}\hat{v} \rightarrow \hat{u}\hat{v}\hat{v}$                          | $\rightarrow \hat{u}$          |

## Orthogonal Amplitudes

The following combinations form an orthogonal basis in the space of amplitudes:



$$w_1 = I \sim \gamma_5 \hat{u} \hat{v} \quad (1)$$

$$w_2 = \hat{u} \sim \gamma_5 \hat{v} \quad (2)$$

$$w_3 = \hat{v} \sim \gamma_5 \hat{u} \quad (3)$$

$$w_4 = \hat{u} \hat{v} \sim \gamma_5 \quad (4)$$

so that any amplitude can be presented as a linear combination of the four basic amplitudes:

$$\mathcal{A} = \sum_{w_i} c_i w_i / |w_i|^2 \quad \text{with} \quad |w_i|^2 = 4((p \cdot q) \pm m_p m_q) \quad (5)$$

where the projection coefficients  $c_i$  are found as

$$c_i^{\mu\nu, \dots ab, \dots} = \text{tr} \{ (\hat{p} + m_p) \mathcal{A}^{\mu\nu, \dots ab, \dots} (\hat{q} - m_q) \bar{w}_i \} \quad (6)$$

### Step 3: summing the squares

If the amplitude  $\mathcal{A}$  carries Lorentz and/or color indices, then the projection coefficients  $c_i$  do the same. But the coefficients  $c_i$  no longer carry Dirac indices. These coefficients are just complex numbers.

It follows from (5) that

$$\mathcal{A} \cdot \mathcal{A}^* = \sum_{w_i} (c_i \cdot c_i^*) / |w_i|^2 \quad (7)$$

where the cross-terms disappear because of orthogonality of the basic amplitudes  $w_i$ . If one needs to take into account  $N$  amplitudes at a time, one simply collects the respective contributions to  $c_i$  by adding them together:

$$c_i^{\mu\nu, \dots ab, \dots} = \sum_{n=1}^N \text{tr} \{ (\hat{p} + m_p) \mathcal{A}_{\mathbf{n}}^{\mu\nu, \dots ab, \dots} (\hat{q} - m_q) \bar{w}_i \} \quad (8)$$

## Advantages for numeric calculations

- Instead of multiplying every amplitude  $\mathcal{A}$  by every conjugate  $\mathcal{A}^*$ , one only has to multiply every amplitude by four basic amplitudes  $w_i^*$ . The computational time is then proportional to the number of the amplitudes you consider, but not to the square of this number. That is,  $4N$  operations against  $N(N - 1)/2$  operations.
- To calculate the projection coefficients  $c_i$  is much easier than to square even a single amplitude  $\mathcal{A}$ , because  $w_i$  contain much fewer Dirac matrices (at most two, that makes the trace much shorter).

## Further advantages for analytic calculations

- Many terms drop out because of orthogonality of the basic vectors  $u$  and  $v$  to the particle momenta  $p$  and  $q$ .
- Choosing between two equivalent basic sets (with and without  $\gamma_5$  matrix) one can completely remove Levi-Civita tensors from the output. For the terms in  $\mathcal{A}$  containing even number of  $\gamma_5$ 's, use left-hand side set of eqs (1)-(4). For the terms in  $\mathcal{A}$  containing odd number of  $\gamma_5$ 's, use right-hand side set of eqs (1)-(4). The expressions shown in the left- and right-hand sides are identical up to a purely imaginary numerical factor.

## Further extensions: many fermion lines

If there are several fermion lines ending with momenta  $p_1, q_1; p_2, q_2;$  etc., one has to introduce several sets of basic amplitudes in a way similar to eqs (1)-(4), using the vectors  $u_1, v_1; u_2, v_2;$  etc., with the orthogonality conditions

$$\begin{aligned} (u_1.v_1) &= 0; & (u_1.p_1) &= 0; & (u_1.q_1) &= 0; & (v_1.p_1) &= 0; & (v_1.q_1) &= 0 \\ (u_2.v_2) &= 0; & (u_2.p_2) &= 0; & (u_2.q_2) &= 0; & (v_2.p_2) &= 0; & (v_2.q_2) &= 0 \\ &\dots & &\dots & &\dots & &\dots & &\dots \end{aligned}$$

The overall basis for the entire system is the direct product of these:

$$w_{i_1}^{(1)} \otimes w_{i_2}^{(2)} \otimes \dots \otimes w_{i_n}^{(n)}.$$

The dimension of the overall basis is  $4^n$ .

No changes are required if the fermion lines are identical in flavor (just add permuted diagrams and sum them all together; see next slide.).

## Further extentions: identical fermions

If there are identical fermions (say, with momenta  $p_1$  and  $p_2$ ), we have a 'normal' diagram  $\mathcal{A}$  and a 'permuted' diagram  $\mathcal{A}'$ , for which the projection coefficients are calculated, respectively, as

$$c_{ij} = \text{tr}\{\mathcal{A}(p_1 \leftrightarrow q_1) (\hat{q}_1 - m_q) \bar{w}_i^{(1)}(\hat{p}_1 + m_p)\} \\ \times \text{tr}\{\mathcal{A}(p_2 \leftrightarrow q_2) (\hat{q}_2 - m_q) \bar{w}_j^{(2)}(\hat{p}_2 + m_p)\}$$

and

$$c_{ij} = \text{tr}\{\mathcal{A}'(p_2 \leftrightarrow q_1) (\hat{q}_1 - m_q) \bar{w}_i^{(1)}(\hat{p}_1 + m_p) \\ \mathcal{A}'(p_1 \leftrightarrow q_2) (\hat{q}_2 - m_q) \bar{w}_j^{(2)}(\hat{p}_2 + m_p)\} \quad (9)$$

(here  $\mathcal{A}(p \leftrightarrow q)$  denotes that part of the operators in the amplitude  $\mathcal{A}$  that is located on the section of the fermion line between  $p$  and  $q$ .) For  $\mathcal{A}'$ , either calculate the long trace as it is, or use Fierz identity to swap the Dirac indices and split the trace in two.

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