

Coupling matter and gauge fields

Schwartz 8.3

We have now seen how to relate scattering observables, such as cross-sections, to objects we can calculate in QFT (time-ordered correlation functions), via the LSZ reduction formula, through the S-matrix and Wick's theorem, to Feynman diagrams and Feynman rules.

In this final section of the course, we will apply what we have learned to quantum electrodynamics (QED), the quantum gauge theory of the electromagnetic force.

But first, we have to figure out how to couple matter fields (e.g. electrons and positrons in QED) to gauge fields (photons in QED).

Following Schwartz, however, we start with the slightly simpler case of scalar QED, in which we couple a complex scalar field to photons.

If we simply try to join together fields ϕ and A_μ e.g. $A_\mu \phi \delta^\mu \phi$
we quickly run into issues with gauge invariance $\rightarrow A_\mu \phi \delta^\mu \phi \rightarrow A_\mu \phi \delta^\mu \phi + \partial_\mu \phi \delta^\mu \phi$
Q: why not $A_\mu \phi \phi$?
 $\Lambda^m \rightarrow \Lambda^m + \lambda^a$

To deal with this, we have to allow ϕ to transform somehow under a gauge transformation. This is impossible for a single real scalar field, so we need to have multiple degrees of freedom.

such as a complex scalar field

Coupling a complex scalar field to a gauge field gives us scalar QED.

First we note that we already know one transform for ϕ, ϕ^*

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(x) &\rightarrow e^{-i\alpha(x)} \phi(x) \\ \phi^*(x) &\rightarrow e^{+i\alpha(x)} \phi^*(x) \end{aligned} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{leaves } m^2 \phi^* \phi \text{ invariant} \\ \text{can be a function of } x! \end{array} \right.$$

Next we note that

$$\delta_\mu \phi^* \delta^\mu \phi \quad \text{because } \delta^\mu (e^{-i\alpha(x)} \phi) = -i(\delta^\mu \alpha) \phi e^{-i\alpha} + e^{-i\alpha} \delta^\mu \phi$$

is not invariant under this transformation.

But introducing the invariant derivative

$$D^\mu = \delta^\mu + iA^\mu$$

gives us an invariant term

$$\begin{aligned} (\delta_\mu \phi)^* D^\mu \phi &\leftarrow D^\mu \phi = (\delta^\mu + iA^\mu) \phi \rightarrow (\delta^\mu + iA^\mu + i(\delta^\mu \alpha)) e^{-i\alpha} \phi \\ &= e^{-i\alpha} \delta^\mu \phi - i(\delta^\mu \alpha) e^{-i\alpha} \phi \\ &\quad + iA^\mu e^{-i\alpha} \phi + i(\delta^\mu \alpha) e^{-i\alpha} \phi \\ &= e^{-i\alpha} (\delta^\mu + iA^\mu) \phi \\ &= e^{-i\alpha} D^\mu \phi \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, the Lagrangian of scalar QED

$$L = -\frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu} + (\partial_\mu \phi)^* D^\mu \phi - m^2 \phi^* \phi$$

is invariant under the gauge transformation

$$A^\mu \rightarrow A^\mu + \frac{1}{e} \partial^\mu \alpha \quad \phi \rightarrow e^{-i\alpha} \phi \quad \phi^* \rightarrow e^{i\alpha} \phi^*$$

- factor e is convention - the covariant derivative changes +
 $D^\mu = \partial^\mu + ie A^\mu$
- characterises the strength of the coupling between ϕ, ϕ^*, A^μ
- replacing ∂^μ with D^μ is the principle of minimal coupling

Feynman rules for scalar QED

Schwartz 9.2)

To derive the Feynman rules, let's expand our action

$$\begin{aligned} L = & -\frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu} - \phi^* (\partial^2 + m^2) \phi - ie A_\mu [\phi^* \partial^\mu \phi - (\partial^\mu \phi^*) \phi] \\ & + e^2 A_\mu A^\mu |\phi|^2 \end{aligned}$$

and then we can read off the rules we need

$$\text{---} \rightarrow \text{---} = \frac{i}{p^2 - m^2 + ie} \quad \text{scalar propagator}$$

$$\text{~~~~~} = \frac{-i}{p^2 + ie} \left(g_{\mu\nu} - (1-\xi) \frac{p_\mu p_\nu}{p^2} \right) \quad \text{photon propagator}$$

Let's now look at the interaction terms, starting with the pieces that have derivatives

$$-ieA_\mu [\phi^* \delta^\mu \phi - (\delta^\mu \phi^*) \phi]$$

Note

- always one ϕ^* , one ϕ and one A^μ
- derivatives give factors of $\pm ip^\mu$
- overall factor is $(-ie) \cdot i \cdot i = ie$
 $\uparrow \quad \nwarrow$
 $\text{derivative } e^{i\alpha \text{int}}$
- define a_p to annihilate " e^- " and $b_{\bar{p}}$ to annihilate " e^+ "

$$\Rightarrow \begin{array}{c} e^- \\ \rightarrow \\ p_1 \\ \nearrow \\ \text{---} \\ \swarrow \\ e^+ \end{array} \nearrow p_2 = ie (-p_1^1 - p_1^2)$$

$$\begin{array}{c} e^+ \\ \leftarrow \\ p_1 \\ \nearrow \\ \text{---} \\ \swarrow \\ e^- \end{array} \nearrow p_2 = ie (p_1^1 + p_1^2)$$

$$\begin{array}{c} e^- \\ \downarrow \\ \text{---} \\ \nearrow \\ e^+ \\ \nearrow \\ p_2 \\ \swarrow \\ p_1 \end{array} = ie (-p_2^1 + p_2^2)$$

$$\begin{array}{c} p_1 \\ \nearrow \\ e^- \\ \text{---} \\ \swarrow \\ p_2 \\ \nearrow \\ e^+ \end{array} = ie (-p_2^1 + p_2^2)$$

"ie times the sum of momenta aligned with their particle flow arrows gives the sum of momenta opposite to their particle flow"

N.B. uncharged particles don't care about momentum orientation

Final rule comes from $e^2 A_\mu^\ast A^\mu |\phi|^2 = e^2 A_\mu A_\nu |\phi|^2 g^{\mu\nu}$

$$= 2ie^2 g_{\mu\nu}$$

↑
Factor of two comes from
symmetry of A_μ and A_ν

We also need the final states

$$\dots = 1$$

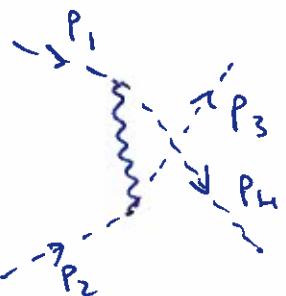
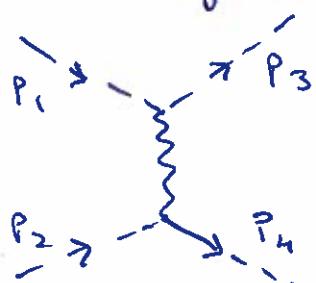
$$= \epsilon^\mu(k) \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{come from} \\ \overline{A^\mu | \bar{p} } = \epsilon^\mu(p) \end{array} \right\}$$

$$= \epsilon^{\ast\mu}(-k) \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \\ \overline{\langle \bar{p} | A^\mu } = \epsilon^{\ast\mu}(p) \end{array} \right\}$$

Scattering in scalar QED

Schwartz 9.3

Now that we have our Feynman rules we can apply them to some $2 \rightarrow 2$ scattering examples. The first is scalar Møller scattering " $e^-e^- \rightarrow e^-e^-$ ". There are two diagrams that we can draw



↑
This is scalar QED
so it isn't really
 $e^-e^- \rightarrow e^-e^-$, which
is described by QED

The first is in the "t-channel" and the second in the "u-channel", terminology that comes from the Mandelstam variables. though they can be generalised ↴

These variables characterise $2 \rightarrow 2$ scattering

$$s = (p_1 + p_2)^2 = (p_3 + p_4)^2$$

$$t = (p_1 - p_3)^2 = (p_2 - p_4)^2$$

$$u = (p_1 - p_4)^2 = (p_2 - p_3)^2$$

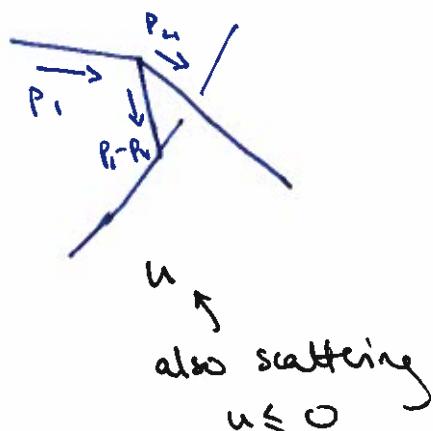
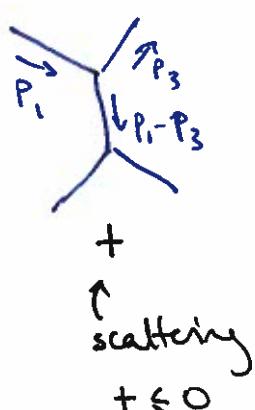
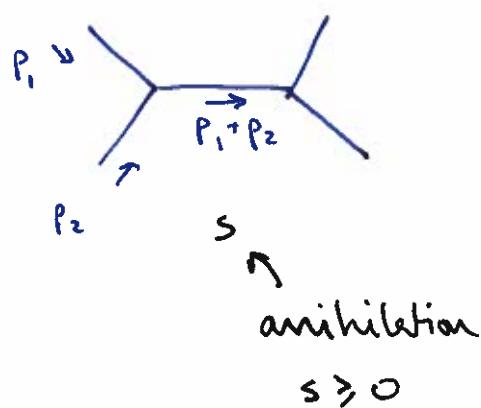
↑ Lorentz invariants!

Schwartz 7.4.11

Tong 3.5.1

P+S 5.4

The channels are defined by the momentum flowing through the intermediate state. In scalar ϕ^3 theory, for example, they are

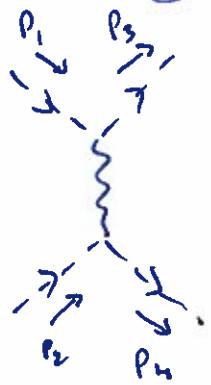


Note that

$$s + t + u = \sum_{j=1}^4 m_j^2$$

for particles of mass m_1, m_2, m_3, m_4 .

Returning to our scalar Møller scattering, we have



$$= iM_+ = (-ie)(p_1^\mu + p_3^\mu) \left[\frac{-i}{k^2} (g_{\mu\nu} + (1-s)\frac{k_\mu k_\nu}{k^2}) \right] \\ \times (-ie)(p_2^\nu + p_4^\nu)$$

$k^\mu = p_3^\mu - p_1^\mu$

To simplify this, we note that

$$k_\mu(p_1^\mu + p_3^\mu) = (p_3^\mu - p_1^\mu)(p_{1\mu} + p_{3\mu}) \\ = p_3^2 - p_1^2 = m^2 - m^2 = 0$$

so we have

$$iM_+ = i\frac{e^2}{+} (p_1 + p_3) \cdot (p_2 + p_4) \quad + = k^2 = (p_3 - p_1)^2$$

↑ no s dependence!
physical scattering is
gauge independent

The other contribution is



$$= iM_- = (-ie)(p_1^\mu + p_4^\mu) \left[\frac{-i}{k^2} (g_{\mu\nu} + (1-s)\frac{k_\mu k_\nu}{k^2}) \right] \\ \times (-ie)(p_2^\nu + p_3^\nu)$$

$k^\mu = p_4^\mu - p_1^\mu$

This time we have

$$k_\mu(p_1^\mu + p_4^\mu) = p_4^2 - p_1^2 = m^2 - m^2 = 0$$

Thus

$$iM_{\mu\nu} = \frac{ie^2}{u} (p_1^\mu + p_4^\mu)(p_{2\mu} + p_{3\mu})$$

Putting these together, the cross-section for scalar-Möller scattering is

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d\sigma}{ds} ("e^- e^- \rightarrow e^- e^-") &= \frac{e^4}{64\pi^2 E_{cm}} |M|^2 \\ &= \frac{e^4}{64\pi^2 E_{cm}} \left[\frac{(p_1 + p_3) \cdot (p_2 + p_4)}{+} + \frac{(p_1 + p_4) \cdot (p_2 + p_3)}{u} \right]^2 \\ &= \frac{\alpha^2}{4s} \left[\frac{s-u}{+} + \frac{s-u}{u} \right]^2 \\ &\quad \leftarrow \alpha = \frac{e^2}{4\pi} \text{ is the scalar "fine structure constant"}\end{aligned}$$

The Ward identity

Schwartz 9.4

The Ward identity is a manifestation of gauge invariance and required

$$p_\mu M^\mu = 0$$

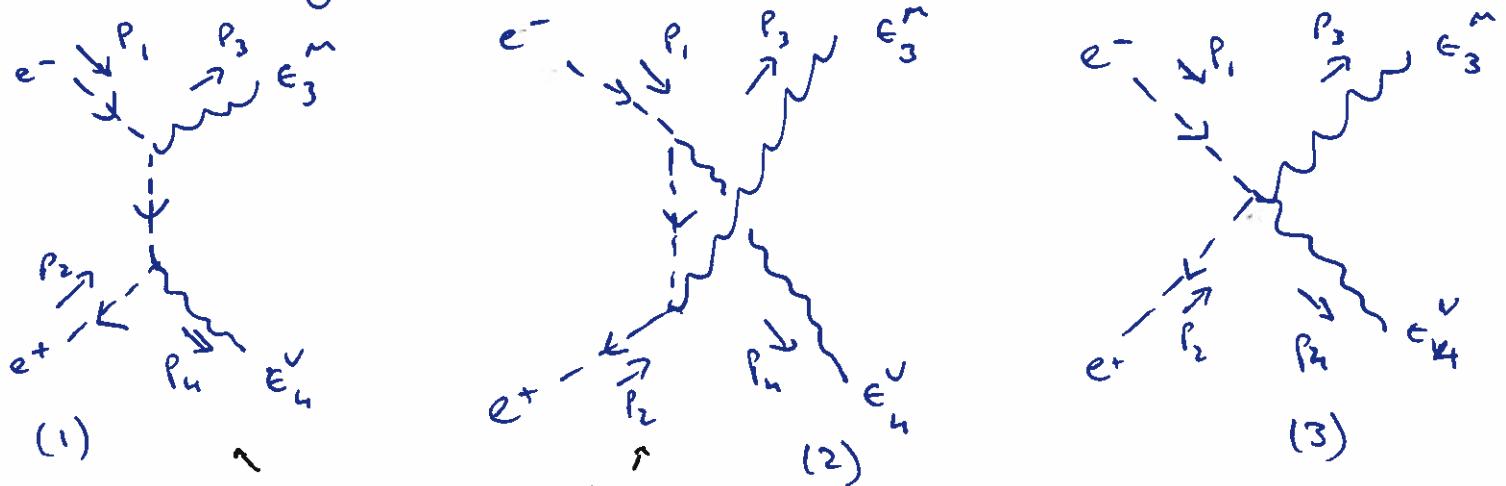
for any matrix element M^μ that involves an onshell photon.

ie has 2 indices

Since the photon propagator is $\Pi_{\mu\nu}$ and the matrix element is a scalar, we must be able to write any matrix element involving a photon propagator in the form $M_{\mu\nu} \Pi^{\mu\nu}$.

(61)

An example of a "physical" process for which we can check the Ward identity is $e^+ e^- \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$. The three diagrams that contribute to this are



Q: what "channels" are these two in?

Diagram (1) is

$$iM_1 = \frac{(-ie)^2 i (2p_1^\mu - p_3^\mu)(p_4^\nu - 2p_2^\nu) \epsilon_3^\ast \mu \epsilon_{4\nu}^\ast}{(p_1 - p_3)^2 - m^2}$$

$$= ie^2 \frac{(p_3 \cdot \epsilon_3^\ast - 2p_1 \cdot \epsilon_3^\ast)(p_4 \cdot \epsilon_{4\nu}^\ast - 2p_2 \cdot \epsilon_{4\nu}^\ast)}{p_3^2 - 2p_3 \cdot p_1}$$

$p_1^2 - m^2 = 0$
because external "e⁻" is onshell

Diagram (2) is

$$iM_2 = ie^2 \frac{(p_3 \cdot \epsilon_3^\ast - 2p_2 \cdot \epsilon_3^\ast)(p_4 \cdot \epsilon_{4\nu}^\ast - 2p_1 \cdot \epsilon_{4\nu}^\ast)}{p_3^2 - 2p_3 \cdot p_1}$$

↑
can get this
by switching
 $p_2 \leftrightarrow p_4$ (or $p_1 \leftrightarrow p_2$)

The sum of these two does not satisfy the Ward identity (obviously they don't alone)

$$M_f + M_u = e^2 [p_4 \cdot \epsilon_h^* - 2p_2 \cdot \epsilon_h^* + p_1 \cdot \epsilon_h^* - 2p_1 \cdot \epsilon_h^*]$$

↑
replace
 $\epsilon_3^{*\mu}$ with p_3^μ

$$= 2e^2 \epsilon_h^{*\mu} (p_{4\mu} - p_{2\mu} - p_{1\mu})$$

But when we add in the third diagram

$$iM_u = 2ie^2 g_{\mu\nu} \epsilon_3^{*\mu} \epsilon_h^{*\nu}$$

and then replace $\epsilon_3^{*\mu}$ with p_3^μ we have

$$iM_u = 2ie^2 p_3 \cdot \epsilon_h^*$$

$\epsilon_3^{*\mu} \rightarrow p_3^\mu$

So the sum of the three diagrams is

$$M_f + M_u + M_u = 2e^2 \epsilon_h^{*\mu} (p_{4\mu} - p_{2\mu} - p_{1\mu} + p_{3\mu})$$

$$= 0$$

because conservation
of 4-momentum requires
 $p_1 + p_2 = p_3 + p_4$!