

Feynman diagrams without QFT

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Reminder: Interaction picture

Let us split the Hamiltonian $H = H_0 + H'$ where H_0 is solvable exactly, i.e. we can find U_0 s.t.

$$i \frac{d}{dt} U_0 = H_0 U_0.$$

We now define $U = U_0 U'$

$$\begin{aligned} i \frac{d}{dt} U &= i \underbrace{\left(\frac{d}{dt} U_0 \right)}_{H_0 U_0} U' + i U_0 \frac{d}{dt} U' \stackrel{!}{=} H U = (H_0 + H') U_0 U', \\ \Rightarrow \quad i \frac{d}{dt} U' &= U_0^\dagger H' U_0 U' = H_I U', \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

defining the *interaction picture* H_I . We can solve (1) iteratively

$$\begin{aligned} U(\infty, -\infty) &= 1 - i \int H_I(\tau) d\tau + (-i)^2 \int d\tau_2 \int d\tau_1 H_I(\tau_2) H_I(\tau_1) + \dots \\ &= T \exp \left(-i \int d\tau H_I(\tau) \right) \end{aligned}$$

where T ensures the time-ordering, i.e.

$$(-i)^2 \int d\tau_2 \int d\tau_1 H_I(\tau_2) H_I(\tau_1) = \frac{(-i)^2}{2!} T \{ H_I(\tau_2) H_I(\tau_1) \}.$$

The S matrix in quantum field theory

The object we want to compute in QFT is the S matrix

$$S = U_I(\infty, -\infty) = T \exp \left(-i \int d\tau H_I(\tau) \right) = 1 + i\mathcal{T},$$

where H_I is hopefully small so that the series converges fast enough. Now, computing S in all generality is obviously impossible. Let us instead look at the transition amplitude between some initial state $|i\rangle$ and some final state $|f\rangle$. This is

$$\langle f|S|i\rangle = \langle f|i\rangle - (2\pi)^4 \delta(P_f - P_i) \mathcal{A}_{fi},$$

\mathcal{A} is now the invariant transition amplitude. Squaring it will give us a matrix element¹.

The S matrix is unitary

$$1 = \sum_f |\langle f|S|i\rangle|^2 = \sum_f \langle i|S^\dagger|f\rangle \langle f|S|i\rangle = \langle i|S^\dagger S|i\rangle.$$

If we split $S = 1 + i\mathcal{T}$ we can see

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= SS^\dagger = 1 + i\mathcal{T} - i\mathcal{T}^\dagger + \mathcal{T}\mathcal{T}^\dagger \\ \mathcal{T} - \mathcal{T}^\dagger &= 2\Im\mathcal{T} = i\mathcal{T}\mathcal{T}^\dagger. \end{aligned}$$

If we calculate

$$2 \langle f|\Im\mathcal{T}|i\rangle = \sum_n \langle f|\mathcal{T}^\dagger|n\rangle \langle n|\mathcal{T}|i\rangle$$

and set $f = i$, we find the total cross section $i \rightarrow$ whatever

$$\sum_n |\langle n|\mathcal{T}|i\rangle|^2 = 2 \langle i|\Im\mathcal{T}|i\rangle.$$

Now we want to turn this into a relativistic quantum field theory. For this we turn

$$S = T \exp \left(-i \int d\tau H_I(\tau) \right) \rightarrow T \exp \left(+i \int d^4x \mathcal{L}_{\text{int}}(x) \right),$$

where \mathcal{L}_{int} is the interaction part of the Lagrangian density.

Let us derive Feynman rules for a toy QFT

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2}(\partial_\mu\phi)^2 - \frac{m_\phi^2}{2}\phi^2 + \frac{1}{2}(\partial_\mu\chi)^2 - \frac{m_\chi^2}{2}\chi^2 - g\phi\chi^2 = \mathcal{L}_0 + \mathcal{L}_{\text{int}}.$$

This theory has two particles ϕ and χ that can interact (later ϕ could be the photon and χ a fermion). We assume that the coupling g is small.

The S matrix is now

$$S = T \exp \left(-i \int d^4x g\phi\chi^2 \right). \quad (2)$$

S is now an operator in the Fock space, just as ϕ and χ ! To understand this, let us look at the free theory.

¹Different sources are not consistent with what is called a matrix element and what an amplitude. Often \mathcal{A} is called \mathcal{M}

The free theory

Let us begin with the free theory \mathcal{L}_0 . The Euler-Lagrange equation for ϕ or χ is

$$\partial_\mu \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_0}{\partial (\partial_\mu \phi)} - \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_0}{\partial \phi} = 0.$$

This gives us the Klein-Gordon equation

$$(\partial^2 + m_\phi^2)\phi = 0. \quad (3)$$

Let us solve this equation

$$\phi(x) = \int [dk] \left(a(\mathbf{k}) e^{-ikx} + a^\dagger(\mathbf{k}) e^{ikx} \right), \quad (4)$$

$$\chi(x) = \int [dk] \left(b(\mathbf{k}) e^{-ikx} + b^\dagger(\mathbf{k}) e^{ikx} \right), \quad (5)$$

where $[dk]$ is the Lorentz invariant phase space measure. The operators $a(\mathbf{k})$ ($a^\dagger(\mathbf{k})$), when acting on the vacuum $|0\rangle$ destroy (generate) a particle with momentum \mathbf{k} . This means that $\phi(x)$ is also an operator.

The operators a and b have commutation relations like the harmonic oscillator

$$[a(k), a^\dagger(q)] = (2\pi)^3 2\omega_q \delta(\mathbf{q} - \mathbf{k}) \equiv \delta(q - k), \quad (6)$$

$$[a(k), a(q)] = [a(k), b^\dagger(q)] = 0. \quad (7)$$

The δ function is normalised such that $\int [dk] \delta(q - k) = 1$.

By defining the canonical momenta

$$\pi = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\phi}} = \dot{\phi}$$

We find equal time commutation relations

$$[\phi(t, \mathbf{x}), \pi(t, \mathbf{y})] = i\delta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}).$$

The objects $|i\rangle$ and $\langle f|$ are now states in the Fock space. The state $a^\dagger(\mathbf{k})|0\rangle$ is the state with one ϕ particle with momentum \mathbf{k} and mass m_ϕ . Right now, we do not have internal degrees of freedom like spin.

The easiest thing to calculate is

$$\tilde{G}(x) = \langle 0|T\{\phi(x)\phi(0)\}|0\rangle.$$

This is the probability of a particle, being created at $x = 0$ and destroyed at x . For simplicity we will assume that $x_0 > 0$

$$\tilde{G}(x) = \langle 0|\phi(x)\phi(0)|0\rangle = \int [dk][dq] \langle 0| \left(a_k e^{-ikx} + a_k^\dagger e^{ikx} \right) \left(a_q + a_q^\dagger \right) |0\rangle.$$

Using

$$a_k a_q^\dagger |0\rangle = [a_k, a_q^\dagger] |0\rangle + a_q^\dagger a_k |0\rangle = \delta(k - q) |0\rangle \quad (8)$$

we write

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{G}(x) &= \int [dk][dq] e^{-ikx} \langle 0 | a_k a_q^\dagger | 0 \rangle = \int [dk] e^{-ikx} \\ &= \int [dk] \left(\theta(x_0) e^{-ikx} + \theta(-x_0) e^{ikx} \right).\end{aligned}$$

Let us Fourier transform this

$$G(p) = \frac{i}{p^2 - m^2 + i0^+}. \quad (9)$$

This is the *Feynman propagator* and also the Green's function of the Klein-Gordon operator

$$(\partial_\mu \partial^\mu + m^2) \tilde{G}(x) = -i\delta(x). \quad (10)$$

The interaction

Let us now use what we have learned to calculate $\phi \rightarrow \chi\chi$, i.e.

$$|i\rangle = a^\dagger(p_1) |0\rangle \quad \text{and} \quad |f\rangle = b^\dagger(p_2) b^\dagger(p_3) |0\rangle.$$

The S matrix element is now

$$\begin{aligned}\langle i|S|f\rangle &= \langle 0 | \cancel{b_2 b_3 a_1^\dagger} | 0 \rangle + (-ig) \langle 0 | b_2 b_3 \int d^4x [dk_4][dk_5][dk_6] \left(a_4 e^{-ik_4x} + \cancel{a_4^\dagger e^{ik_4x}} \right) \\ &\quad \left(b_5 e^{-ik_5x} + b_5^\dagger e^{ik_5x} \right) \left(b_6 e^{-ik_6x} + b_6^\dagger e^{ik_6x} \right) a_1^\dagger | 0 \rangle.\end{aligned}$$

Using (8) we see why the b_5 term vanishes

$$\int [dk_5] b_2 b_3 e^{-ik_5x} b_5 b_6^\dagger |0\rangle = \int [dk_5] e^{-i(k_5 - k_6)x} b_2 b_3 |0\rangle = 0.$$

We now have and use (8) again and again

$$\begin{aligned}\langle i|S|f\rangle &= (-ig) \int d^4x [dk_4][dk_5][dk_6] e^{i(k_5+k_6-k_4)x} \langle 0 | b_2 b_3 b_5^\dagger b_6^\dagger a_4 a_1^\dagger | 0 \rangle \\ &= (-ig) \int d^4x [dk_4][dk_5][dk_6] e^{i(k_5+k_6-k_4)x} \delta(p_2 - k_6) \delta(p_3 - k_5) \delta(k_4 - p_1) \underbrace{\langle 0|0\rangle}_1 \\ &= (-ig) \int d^4x e^{i(p_3+p_2-p_1)x} = (2\pi)^4 \delta(p_2 + p_3 - p_1) (-ig).\end{aligned}$$

First note that we have momentum conservation, i.e. $p_1 = p_2 + p_3$. The interesting bit is, however, the $(-ig)$ -part. This is a Feynman rule. This means that for all $\phi\chi\chi$ vertices we have to write $-ig$. Note that this is also the coefficient of $i\mathcal{L}_{\text{int}}$, which is how Feynman rules are sometimes derived.

which is just the Feynman propagator. Let us combine what we know

$$\begin{aligned}
T &= (-ig^2) \frac{1}{2!} \int d^4x_1 d^4x_2 e^{i(p_4+p_3)x_1} e^{-i(p_1+p_2)x_2} \langle 0 | T \{ \phi(x_1) \phi(x_2) \} | 0 \rangle \\
&+ (-ig^2) \frac{1}{2!} \int d^4x_1 d^4x_2 e^{-i(p_1-p_3)x_1} e^{-i(p_2-p_4)x_2} \langle 0 | T \{ \phi(x_1) \phi(x_2) \} | 0 \rangle \\
&= (-ig^2) \frac{1}{2!} (2\pi)^4 \delta(p_1 + p_2 - p_3 - p_4) \frac{i}{(p_1 + p_2)^2 - m^2 + i0^+} \\
&+ (-ig^2) \frac{1}{2!} (2\pi)^4 \delta(p_1 + p_2 - p_3 - p_4) \frac{i}{(p_1 - p_3)^2 - m^2 + i0^+}.
\end{aligned}$$

By swapping $x_1 \leftrightarrow x_2$ we get an additional factor 2.

$$T = (2\pi)^4 \delta(p_1 + p_2 - p_3 - p_4) \times \left((-ig^2) \frac{i}{(p_1 + p_2)^2 - m^2} + (-ig^2) \frac{i}{(p_1 - p_3)^2 - m^2} \right).$$

We can now formulate a general procedure for this theory

1. Draw all connected diagrams up to a certain power in g
2. Attach directed momenta to each line
3. For each $\phi\chi\chi$ vertex, attach $-ig$
4. Integrate over all unconstrained momenta

QED

We now have all the tools to see how QED works². The Lagrangian is

$$\mathcal{L} = -\frac{1}{4} F^{\mu\nu} F_{\mu\nu} + \bar{\psi}(i\not{D} - m)\psi.$$

The objects here are as follows

- two (complex) spinor fields ψ and $\bar{\psi} = \psi^\dagger \gamma^0$. These are four-component vectors containing the spin up and down operators for particles and anti-particles.
- We denote $\not{x} = x_\mu \gamma^\mu$. These γ matrices are 4×4 matrices that fulfill a Clifford algebra, i.e.

$$\{\gamma^\mu, \gamma^\nu\} = \gamma^\mu \gamma^\nu + \gamma^\nu \gamma^\mu = 2g^{\mu\nu} \quad (11)$$

- $F_{\mu\nu} = \partial_\mu A_\nu - \partial_\nu A_\mu$ the field strength tensor
- the 4-component vector fields A_μ of Maxwell
- the covariant derivative $D_\mu = \partial_\mu - ieA_\mu$

Again, we have the free photon and electron fields

$$\mathcal{L}_0 = -\frac{1}{4} F^{\mu\nu} F_{\mu\nu} + \bar{\psi}(i\not{D} - m)\psi \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{L}_{\text{int}} = e\bar{\psi}\not{A}\psi.$$

²though like all QFT lecture, we will speed the discussion up a lot and will not derive the Feynman rules

The Euler Lagrange equations for \mathcal{L}_0 are the (more or less) classical Maxwell equations for A_μ (just keep in mind that A_μ is an operator) and the Dirac equation for ψ .

The Dirac equation $(i\cancel{\partial} - m)\psi = 0$ has solutions

$$\psi_\alpha = \int [dk] \sum_{s=1}^2 \left(b(s, \mathbf{k}) u_\alpha e^{-ikx} + d^\dagger(s, \mathbf{k}) v_\alpha(s, \mathbf{k}) e^{ikx} \right),$$

where u (v) describe particles (anti-particles). s indicated the dependence of the spin-state. It is possible to write u and v down explicitly using s as four-vectors. We will not be doing this and only note that u and v fulfil the following equation of motion³

$$(\cancel{k} - m)u(s, \mathbf{k}) = (\cancel{k} + m)v(s, \mathbf{k}) = 0.$$

The Green's function give us the propagators

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{array}{c} \overrightarrow{q} \\ \text{~~~~~} \\ \nu \text{-----} \mu \end{array} &= \frac{-ig_{\mu\nu}}{p^2 + i0^+}, \\ \begin{array}{c} \overrightarrow{p} \\ \text{-----} \\ \beta \text{-----} \alpha \end{array} &= \left[(\cancel{\not{p}} - m)^{-1} \right]_{\alpha\beta} = \frac{[\cancel{\not{p}} + m]_{\alpha\beta}}{p^2 - m^2 + i0^+}. \end{aligned}$$

We can kind of just read of the $e\bar{e}\gamma$ vertex

$$\begin{array}{c} \mu \\ \text{~~~~~} \\ \beta \text{-----} \alpha \end{array} = -ie\gamma_{\beta\alpha}^\mu.$$

Finally, we need the asymptotic states. For example an incoming (outgoing) e^- is

$$\psi b^\dagger |0\rangle \rightarrow u \quad \text{and} \quad \langle 0| b\bar{\psi}^\dagger \rightarrow \bar{u}.$$

Similarly we use v -type spinors for positrons.

Fermi's golden rule

We now can calculate the amplitude \mathcal{A} . However, we want something like a cross-section. For that we note, that the probability this process is (up to normalisation)

$$|\mathcal{T}^2|^2 = \left| i(2\pi)^4 \delta(P_f - P_i) \mathcal{A} \right|^2$$

Unfortunately, $|\delta|^2$ is meaningless. This is because our amplitude was written in term of plain waves. One way to fix this is to construct wave-packets. We will instead put the system in a box of size $L \rightarrow \infty$ and consider a time interval $-T < t < T$. The δ function now becomes

$$(2\pi)^4 \delta(P_f - P_i) = I(E_f - E_i, T) I^3(\mathbf{P}_f - \mathbf{P}_i, L).$$

The function I should, for $T \rightarrow \infty$ approach the δ function. A sensible choice is

$$I(\Delta E, T) = \frac{2}{\Delta E} \sin \frac{\Delta E T}{2},$$

³We will from now on drop the spin index dependence

that features

$$I(\Delta E, T)^2 = 2\pi T \delta(\Delta E).$$

We now have

$$\left| (2\pi)^4 \delta(P_f - P_i) \right|^2 \approx L^3 T (2\pi)^4 \delta(P_f - P_i)$$

Because we normalised the fields with $2E$ particles per volume, we divide by $2EV = \int u^\dagger u$ per particle. The transition rate, i.e. probability per unit time, is thus

$$\frac{1}{T} |\mathcal{A}|^2 V T (2\pi)^4 \delta(P_f - P_i) \prod_i \frac{1}{2E_i V} \prod_f \frac{1}{2E_f V}$$

where the i (f) product runs over initial (final) particles.

Because the box is finite in size there are only

$$dn = \frac{d^3 \mathbf{k}}{(2\pi)^3} V \rightarrow \prod_f \frac{d^3 \mathbf{k}_f V}{(2\pi)^3}$$

states between \mathbf{k} and $\mathbf{k} + d\mathbf{k}$. This product now only runs over final states. The transition rate into a particular part of phase space is now

$$dW = |\mathcal{A}|^2 V \prod_{\text{in}} \frac{1}{2E_i V} \underbrace{(2\pi)^4 \delta(P_f - P_i) \prod_f \frac{d^3 \mathbf{k}_f}{(2\pi)^3 2E_f V}}_{d\Phi}$$

$d\Phi$ is now called the Lorentz invariant phase space (which it is despite its looks).

For decay rates and cross section V will cancel. Consider a beam of one particle per V with velocity v . It has a flux of $N_0 = v/V$. Now let us generalise to two beams with \mathbf{v}_1 and \mathbf{v}_2 .

The cross section is thus

$$d\sigma = \frac{dW}{N_0} = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{v}_1 - \mathbf{v}_2|} \frac{1}{4E_1 E_2} |\mathcal{A}|^2 d\Phi.$$

Note the vectors \mathbf{v}_i are added like vectors and not like relativistic velocities, i.e. $|\mathbf{v}_1 - \mathbf{v}_2| = 2$ for massless particles. For $2 \rightarrow 2$ scattering one can easily show that

$$\frac{d\sigma}{dt} = \frac{1}{64\pi s} \frac{1}{|\mathbf{p}_1|^2} |\mathcal{A}|^2,$$

with the Mandelstamm variable t and the centre-of-mass energy s . For massless particles, the t integration goes from $t = 0$ to $t = s$ with $|\mathbf{p}_1| = \sqrt{s}/2$.

Muon pair production $e^+e^- \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$

We are now ready to calculate a matrix element. As an example we choose muon pair production $e^+e^- \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$. Muon electron scattering is then left as an exercise. Let us begin by writing

down the matrix element using the Feynman rules

$$\mathcal{A} = \begin{array}{c} e^+(p_1) \\ \swarrow \\ \mu \\ \nwarrow \\ e^-(p_2) \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{q} \\ \nu \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \swarrow \\ \mu^-(p_3) \\ \nwarrow \\ \mu^+(p_4) \end{array} = \bar{v}(p_1)(-ie\gamma^\mu)u(p_2) \left(\frac{-ig_{\mu\nu}}{q^2 + i0^+} \right) \bar{u}(p_3)(-ie\gamma^\nu)v(p_4).$$

We now need $|\mathcal{A}|^2 = \mathcal{A}\mathcal{A}^*$. Because \mathcal{A} is a complex number $\mathcal{A}^* = \mathcal{A}^\dagger$ so let us just calculate that and see where it leads

$$\mathcal{A}^\dagger = \left(\bar{v}_1(-ie\gamma^{\mu'})u_2 \right)^\dagger \left(\frac{+ig_{\mu'\nu'}}{q^2 + i0^+} \right) \left(\bar{u}_3(-ie\gamma^{\nu'})v_4 \right)^\dagger.$$

For the spinor line we note that $\bar{u} = u^\dagger\gamma^0$ and that, under adjungation the order of matrices and vectors reverses

$$\left(\bar{v}_1\gamma^{\mu'}u_2 \right)^\dagger = u_2^\dagger(\gamma^{\mu'})^\dagger(\gamma^0)^\dagger v_1.$$

Using $(\gamma^\mu)^\dagger = \gamma^0\gamma^\mu\gamma^0$, $(\gamma^0)^\dagger = \gamma^0$ as well as $\gamma_0^2 = 1$ we can re-write this as

$$\left(\bar{v}_1\gamma^{\mu'}u_2 \right)^\dagger = u_2^\dagger\gamma^0\gamma^{\mu'}\gamma^0\gamma^0v_1 = \bar{u}_2\gamma^{\mu'}v_1$$

and similarly for the other line. We now have

$$\begin{aligned} |\mathcal{A}|^2 &= (-ie)^2(-i)(+ie)^2(+i) \frac{1}{q^4} \left(\bar{v}_1\gamma^\mu u_2 \bar{u}_2\gamma^{\mu'} v_1 \right) \left(\bar{u}_3\gamma_\nu v_4 \bar{v}_4\gamma_{\nu'} u_3 \right). \\ &= \frac{e^4}{q^4} \left((\bar{v}_1)_\alpha \gamma_{\alpha\beta}^\mu (u_2)_\beta (\bar{u}_2)_\delta \gamma_{\delta\rho}^{\mu'} (v_1)_\rho \right) \left((\bar{u}_3)_\alpha \gamma_{\alpha\beta}^\nu (v_4)_\beta (\bar{v}_4)_\delta \gamma_{\delta\rho}^{\nu'} (u_3)_\rho \right). \end{aligned}$$

We now note that v and u form a completeness relation

$$\sum_s u_\alpha^s(p) \bar{u}_\beta^s(p) = (\not{p} + m)_{\alpha\beta} \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_s v_\alpha^s(p) \bar{v}_\beta^s(p) = (\not{p} - m)_{\alpha\beta}. \quad (12)$$

This means we could simplify $|\mathcal{A}|^2$ by summing over final state spins and averaging over initial states (assuming the experiment does not measure / prepare these quantities)

$$\begin{aligned} |\mathcal{A}|^2 &= \frac{e^4}{q^4} \left((\bar{v}_1)_\alpha \gamma_{\alpha\beta}^\mu (\not{p}_2 + m)_{\beta\delta} \gamma_{\delta\rho}^{\mu'} (v_1)_\rho \right) \left((\bar{u}_3)_\alpha \gamma_{\alpha\beta}^\nu (\not{p}_4 - M)_{\beta\delta} \gamma_{\delta\rho}^{\nu'} (u_3)_\rho \right). \\ &= \frac{e^4}{q^4} \left((\not{p}_1 - m)_{\rho\alpha} \gamma_{\alpha\beta}^\mu (\not{p}_2 + m)_{\beta\delta} \gamma_{\delta\rho}^{\mu'} \right) \left((\not{p}_3 - M)_{\rho\alpha} \gamma_{\alpha\beta}^\nu (\not{p}_4 - M)_{\beta\delta} \gamma_{\delta\rho}^{\nu'} \right). \end{aligned}$$

This is now the definition of a trace in spinor space $A_{\rho\rho} = \text{tr}A$

$$|\mathcal{A}|^2 = \frac{e^4}{4q^4} \text{tr} \left((\not{p}_1 - m) \gamma^\mu (\not{p}_2 + m) \gamma^{\mu'} \right) \text{tr} \left((\not{p}_3 - M) \gamma_\nu (\not{p}_4 + M) \gamma_{\nu'} \right).$$

These are now objects we can calculate easily. By using (11).

We need identities for traces of γ matrices.

- $\text{tr}\gamma^\nu = 0$: Use (11) with $\mu = \nu$, i.e. $\gamma^\mu\gamma_\mu = 4$

$$\text{tr}(\gamma^\nu) = \frac{1}{4}\text{tr}(\gamma^\nu\gamma^\mu\gamma_\mu) \stackrel{*}{=} -\frac{1}{\text{tr}}(\gamma^\mu\gamma^\nu\gamma_\mu) = -\frac{1}{4}\text{tr}(\gamma^\nu\gamma^\mu\gamma_\mu),$$

where we used (11) again at $*$.

- traces of odd numbers of γ matrices vanish.
- $\text{tr}(\gamma^\mu\gamma^\nu) = 4g^{\mu\nu}$. Using (11) and cyclicity

$$\text{tr}(\gamma^\mu\gamma^\nu) = \frac{1}{2}\left(\text{tr}(\gamma^\mu\gamma^\nu) + \text{tr}(\gamma^\nu\gamma^\mu)\right) = \frac{1}{2}\text{tr}\{\gamma^\mu, \gamma^\nu\} = g^{\mu\nu}\text{tr}1 = 4g^{\mu\nu}$$

- $\text{tr}(\gamma^\mu\gamma^\nu\gamma^\rho\gamma^\sigma) = 4(g^{\mu\nu}g^{\rho\sigma} - g^{\mu\rho}g^{\nu\sigma} + g^{\mu\sigma}g^{\nu\rho})$ similarly

For $0 \sim m \ll M$ we write

$$\begin{aligned} |\mathcal{A}|^2 &= \frac{e^4}{4q^4}\text{tr}\left(\not{p}_1\gamma^\mu\not{p}_2\gamma^{\mu'}\right)\left[\text{tr}\left(\not{p}_3\gamma_\mu\not{p}_4\gamma_{\mu'}\right) + M\text{tr}\left(\not{p}_3\gamma_\mu\gamma_{\mu'}\right) - M\text{tr}\left(\gamma_\mu\not{p}_4\gamma_{\mu'}\right) - M^2\text{tr}\left(\gamma_\mu\gamma_{\mu'}\right)\right] \\ &= \frac{4e^4}{q^4}\left(p_1^\mu p_2^{\mu'} - p_1 \cdot p_2 g^{\mu\mu'} + p_1^{\mu'} p_2^\mu\right)\left[\left(p_3^\mu p_4^{\mu'} - p_3 \cdot p_4 g^{\mu\mu'} + p_3^{\mu'} p_4^\mu\right) - M^2 g^{\mu\mu'}\right] \\ &= \frac{8e^4}{q^4}\left(M^2 p_1 \cdot p_2 + p_1 \cdot p_4 p_2 \cdot p_3 + p_1 \cdot p_3 p_2 \cdot p_4\right). \end{aligned}$$

Using the Mandelstam variables s , t and u as well as $q = p_1 + p_2$ we can write

$$p_1 \cdot p_2 = \frac{s}{2} p_1 \cdot p_3 = p_2 \cdot p_4 = \frac{1}{2}(M^2 - t)p_1 \cdot p_4 = p_2 \cdot p_3 = \frac{1}{2}(M^2 - u)$$

we can now write down the matrix element in terms of experimentally accessible variables

$$|\mathcal{A}|^2 = \frac{4e^4}{s^2}\left(\frac{1}{2}(t^2 - u^2) + M^2(s - t - u) + M^4\right) \rightarrow \frac{2e^4(t^2 + u^2)}{s^2}.$$

The differential cross section in the high-energy limit is now with $s + t + u = 0$

$$\frac{d\sigma}{dt} = \frac{1}{16\pi s^2}|\mathcal{A}|^2 = 2\pi\alpha^2 \frac{s^2 + 2st + 2t^2}{s^4}\sigma = \int_0^s dt \frac{d\sigma}{dt} = \frac{16\pi\alpha^2}{3s}.$$

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