

Interactions

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Interacting fields

Free fields are interesting, but they have no interactions. Let us start with a scalar field and introduce small perturbations.

Consider a general scalar-field Lagrangian:

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu \phi \partial^\mu \phi - \frac{1}{2} \mu^2 \phi^2 - \sum_m \lambda_m \phi^m,$$

where λ_m are called coupling constants.

We work in natural units, $\hbar = c = 1$. Since the action is dimensionless, $[S] = 0$, and

$$S = \int d^4x \mathcal{L},$$

we have

$$[d^4x] = -4, \quad [\mathcal{L}] = 4.$$

From the kinetic and mass terms,

$$[\partial_\mu] = 1, \quad [\mu] = 1, \quad [\phi] = 1.$$

Therefore, for an interaction term

$$\lambda_m \phi^m,$$

we get

$$[\lambda_m] + m[\phi] = 4,$$

so that

$$\boxed{[\lambda_m] = 4 - m.}$$

Thus, saying that a coupling is “small” only makes sense when it is dimensionless.

- For ϕ^3 :

$$[\lambda_3] = 1.$$

The coupling has dimensions of energy. It is small if $\lambda_3 \ll E$, where E is the energy scale of interest.

- For ϕ^4 :

$$[\lambda_4] = 0.$$

The coupling is dimensionless, so perturbation theory is valid when

$$\lambda_4 \ll 1.$$

- For ϕ^m , $m > 4$:

$$[\lambda_m] < 0.$$

These are non-renormalisable interactions: they are small at low energies and become large at high energies.

Example: weakly coupled ϕ^4 theory

An important example of a weakly coupled theory with a dimensionless coupling is ϕ^4 theory:

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu \phi \partial^\mu \phi - \frac{1}{2} \mu^2 \phi^2 - \frac{\lambda}{4!} \phi^4.$$

The coupling has mass dimension

$$[\lambda] = 0.$$

Hence perturbation theory is controlled by the condition

$$\lambda \ll 1$$

The first two terms describe the free scalar field, while

$$-\frac{\lambda}{4!} \phi^4$$

introduces a self-interaction of the scalar field.

Interactions, conserved quantities, and pictures

By expanding ϕ^4 in terms of creation and annihilation operators, a_k^\dagger and a_k , we obtain interaction terms of the form

$$a^\dagger a^\dagger a^\dagger a^\dagger, \quad a^\dagger a^\dagger a^\dagger a, \quad a^\dagger a^\dagger a a, \quad \dots$$

These terms suggest a theory in which the total number of particles is not conserved. Indeed,

$$[H, N] \neq 0.$$

Scalar Yukawa theory

Consider a complex scalar field ψ coupled to a real scalar field ϕ :

$$\mathcal{L} = \partial_\mu \psi^\dagger \partial^\mu \psi + \frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu \phi \partial^\mu \phi - M^2 \psi^\dagger \psi - \frac{1}{2} \mu^2 \phi^2 - g \psi^\dagger \psi \phi,$$

with

$$g \ll M, \mu.$$

This interaction couples the complex scalar ψ to the real scalar ϕ . The individual particle numbers of ψ and ϕ are no longer conserved. However, electric charge remains a good quantum number:

$$[Q, H] = 0.$$

This means that the number of ψ -particles minus the number of anti- ψ -particles is conserved.

Example of a strongly coupled theory - QCD

- QCD describes the interactions of quarks and gluons through the gauge group $SU(3)_c$.
- At high energies, the strong coupling constant α_s becomes small, perturbation theory works for deep inelastic scattering or high-energy collider physics.
- At low energies, coupling grows, perturbation theory breaks down.
- QCD is a paradigmatic example of how a quantum field theory can transition from a weakly coupled perturbative regime at high energies to a strongly coupled nonperturbative regime at low energies, where phenomena such as confinement and hadronization emerge.

Interaction picture and Dyson formula

In quantum mechanics we can describe a system with small perturbations and a well-defined Hamiltonian H .

In the Schrödinger picture, states evolve as

$$i\frac{d}{dt}|\psi\rangle_S = H|\psi\rangle_S,$$

while operators are independent of time:

$$\frac{dO_S}{dt} = 0.$$

In the Heisenberg picture, states are fixed and operators evolve in time:

$$O_H(t) = e^{iHt} O_S e^{-iHt}.$$

Interaction picture and Dyson formula

The interaction picture is a hybrid of the Schrödinger and Heisenberg pictures. We split the Hamiltonian as

$$H = H_0 + H_{\text{int}}.$$

The time dependence of operators is governed by H_0 , while the time dependence of states is governed by H_{int} .

$$|\psi(t)\rangle_I = e^{iH_0 t} |\psi(t)\rangle_S,$$

$$O_I(t) = e^{iH_0 t} O_S e^{-iH_0 t}.$$

Although it is still possible to have ambiguity in how one splits $H = H_0 + H_{\text{int}}$, this is a useful choice in free-field theory, where H_0 is exactly solvable.

The interaction Hamiltonian in the interaction picture is

$$H_I(t) = (H_{\text{int}})_I = e^{iH_0 t} (H_{\text{int}})_S e^{-iH_0 t}.$$

The Schrödinger equation for states in the interaction picture is obtained from the Schrödinger picture:

$$i \frac{d}{dt} |\psi(t)\rangle_S = H_S |\psi(t)\rangle_S.$$

Using

$$|\psi(t)\rangle_S = e^{-iH_0 t} |\psi(t)\rangle_I,$$

we find

$$i \frac{d}{dt} \left(e^{-iH_0 t} |\psi(t)\rangle_I \right) = (H_0 + H_{\text{int}}) e^{-iH_0 t} |\psi(t)\rangle_I.$$

Therefore,

$$i \frac{d}{dt} |\psi(t)\rangle_I = H_I(t) |\psi(t)\rangle_I.$$

Dyson formula

Let us write the solution as

$$|\psi(t)\rangle_I = U(t, t_0)|\psi(t_0)\rangle_I,$$

where $U(t, t_0)$ is a unitary time-evolution operator satisfying

$$U(t_1, t_2)U(t_2, t_3) = U(t_1, t_3), \quad U(t, t) = 1.$$

The time-evolution operator in the interaction picture obeys

$$i \frac{dU(t, t_0)}{dt} = H_I(t) U(t, t_0).$$

The formal solution is

$$U(t, t_0) = T \exp \left[-i \int_{t_0}^t dt' H_I(t') \right],$$

where T denotes time ordering.

Why Non-Commutativity Matters

Expand the naive exponential:

$$U = 1 - i \int dt_1 H_I(t_1) + \frac{(-i)^2}{2!} \int dt_1 dt_2 H_I(t_1) H_I(t_2) + \dots$$

The second-order term treats t_1 and t_2 symmetrically.

But physical time evolution is sequential:

- interactions occurring earlier act first
- later interactions act afterwards

Therefore the operator ordering matters whenever

$$H_I(t_1)H_I(t_2) \neq H_I(t_2)H_I(t_1)$$

Physical Interpretation

The Dyson series describes quantum evolution as a sequence of interactions occurring in time.

- The earliest interaction acts first
- Later interactions act afterwards
- Non-commuting operators must therefore be ordered

The time-ordering operator ensures:

- causality
- consistent chronological evolution
- correct perturbation theory

Without time ordering, the evolution operator would not satisfy the Schrödinger equation for non-commuting Hamiltonians.

Dyson expansion

Expanding perturbatively,

$$U(t, t_0) = 1 - i \int_{t_0}^t dt_1 H_I(t_1) + (-i)^2 \int_{t_0}^t dt_1 \int_{t_0}^{t_1} dt_2 H_I(t_1) H_I(t_2) + \dots$$

Equivalently,

$$U(t, t_0) = 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-i)^n}{n!} \int_{t_0}^t dt_1 \cdots dt_n T \{ H_I(t_1) \cdots H_I(t_n) \}.$$

Yukawa scattering

Interlude: scattering in Yukawa theory

In scalar Yukawa theory, the interaction term is

$$H_{\text{int}} = g \int d^3x \psi^\dagger \psi \phi.$$

The fields have the schematic expansions

$$\phi \sim a + a^\dagger,$$

so ϕ can create or destroy a meson.

For the complex scalar field,

$$\psi \sim b + c^\dagger, \quad \psi^\dagger \sim b^\dagger + c.$$

Thus:

ψ : destroys a nucleon b or creates an anti-nucleon c^\dagger ,

ψ^\dagger : creates a nucleon b^\dagger or destroys an anti-nucleon c .

The conserved charge is

$$Q = N_b - N_c,$$

so the number of nucleons minus anti-nucleons remains conserved.

At first order in perturbation theory, terms in

$$H_{\text{int}} \sim \psi^\dagger \psi \phi \quad (c^\dagger b^\dagger a)$$

can describe processes such as

$$a \longrightarrow b + c,$$

that is, a meson is destroyed and a nucleon–anti-nucleon pair is produced:

$$\phi \longrightarrow \psi + \psi^\dagger.$$

At second order, more complicated processes appear, for example

$$\psi + \psi^\dagger \longrightarrow \phi \longrightarrow \psi + \psi^\dagger.$$

Adiabatic approximation and the S -matrix

Adiabatic approximation

To calculate amplitudes, we assume the initial state $|i\rangle$ at $t \rightarrow -\infty$ and the final state $|f\rangle$ at $t \rightarrow +\infty$ are eigenstates of the free Hamiltonian H_0 . As the particles approach each other, they interact briefly, and then move apart again. The transition amplitude is

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \pm\infty} \langle f | U(t_f, t_i) | i \rangle \equiv \langle f | S | i \rangle,$$

where S is the scattering matrix.

Example: meson decay

Consider the decay

$$\phi \longrightarrow \psi + \psi^\dagger.$$

The initial state contains one meson with momentum k :

$$|i\rangle = \sqrt{2\omega_k} a_k^\dagger |0\rangle.$$

The final state contains a particle–antiparticle pair with momenta q_1 and q_2 :

$$|f\rangle = \sqrt{4\omega_{q_1}\omega_{q_2}} b_{q_1}^\dagger c_{q_2}^\dagger |0\rangle.$$

At first order in perturbation theory,

$$S = 1 - i \int d^4x H_{\text{int}}(x) + \dots,$$

with

$$H_{\text{int}}(x) = g \psi^\dagger(x) \psi(x) \phi(x).$$

Therefore the decay amplitude is

$$\langle f|S|i\rangle = -ig \int d^4x \langle f|\psi^\dagger(x) \psi(x) \phi(x)|i\rangle.$$

Using the field expansions, only the term

$$c_{q_2} b_{q_1} a_k^\dagger$$

contributes, giving

$$\langle f|S|i\rangle = -ig \int d^4x e^{i(q_1+q_2-k)\cdot x}.$$

Hence

$$\langle f|S|i\rangle = -ig (2\pi)^4 \delta^{(4)}(q_1 + q_2 - k)$$

This is the scattering amplitude together with four-momentum conservation.

The delta function constrains the possible decays. In particular, the decay is kinematically allowed only if

$$m_\phi > 2M$$

where m_ϕ is the meson mass and M is the mass of the ψ -particle.

QED and the S -matrix

Now we want the full QED Lagrangian, with an interaction term:

$$\mathcal{L} = -\frac{1}{4}F_{\mu\nu}F^{\mu\nu} + \bar{\psi}(i\gamma^\mu\partial_\mu - m)\psi - eQ\bar{\psi}\gamma^\mu\psi A_\mu.$$

Here $e > 0$ is the absolute value of the electron charge, and Q is the electric charge in units of e . For example,

$$Q = -1 \quad \text{electron}, \quad Q = \frac{2}{3} \quad \text{up quark}, \quad Q = -\frac{1}{3} \quad \text{down quark}.$$

We assume that the electromagnetic field becomes free in the far past and far future:

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} A^\mu(t, \mathbf{x}) = A_{\text{in}}^\mu(t, \mathbf{x}), \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow +\infty} A^\mu(t, \mathbf{x}) = A_{\text{out}}^\mu(t, \mathbf{x}),$$

where A_{in}^μ and A_{out}^μ are free fields.

The S -matrix is defined by a unitary operator satisfying

$$S^\dagger = S^{-1},$$

such that

$$|\text{in}\rangle = S|\text{out}\rangle, \quad |\text{out}\rangle = S^{-1}|\text{in}\rangle.$$

The fields are related by

$$A_{\text{out}}^\mu = S^{-1}A_{\text{in}}^\mu S.$$

Equivalently, if A^μ and A_{in}^μ obey the same canonical commutation relations, there exists a unitary operator $U(t)$ such that

$$A^\mu(t, \mathbf{x}) = U^{-1}(t)A_{\text{in}}^\mu(t, \mathbf{x})U(t).$$

In the asymptotic future,

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow +\infty} A^\mu(t, \mathbf{x}) = A_{\text{out}}^\mu(t, \mathbf{x}), \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow +\infty} U(t) = 1.$$

If we define the full QED Lagrangian as

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{QED}} = \mathcal{L}_0 + \mathcal{L}_{\text{int}},$$

then

$$\mathcal{L}_0 = -\frac{1}{4}F_{\mu\nu}F^{\mu\nu} + \bar{\psi}(i\gamma^\mu\partial_\mu - m)\psi,$$

and

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{int}} = -eQ\bar{\psi}\gamma^\mu\psi A_\mu.$$

Because the interaction Lagrangian does not depend on the field derivatives, in this case

$$H_{\text{int}}(x) = -\mathcal{L}_{\text{int}}.$$

Taking the limits $t_0 \rightarrow -\infty$ and $t \rightarrow +\infty$, the S -matrix is

$$S = \lim_{\substack{t \rightarrow +\infty \\ t_0 \rightarrow -\infty}} U(t, t_0) = T \exp \left[-i \int d^4x \mathcal{H}_I(x) \right].$$

We now want to compute quantities of the form

$$\langle f | T \{ H_I(x_1) \cdots H_I(x_n) \} | i \rangle,$$

where $|i\rangle$ and $|f\rangle$ are free-particle states.

The ordering of operators is fixed by T , but the interaction Hamiltonian contains creation and annihilation operators. We therefore need a systematic way to move operators around so that they can act on the initial and final states.

Wick's theorem tells us how to rewrite time-ordered products as normal-ordered products plus contractions.

Why do we need Wick's theorem?

In interacting QFT, scattering amplitudes are computed from the Dyson expansion of the S -matrix:

$$S = T \exp\left(-i \int d^4x \mathcal{H}_I(x)\right) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-i)^n}{n!} \int d^4x_1 \cdots d^4x_n T\{\mathcal{H}_I(x_1) \cdots \mathcal{H}_I(x_n)\}.$$

At each order we must evaluate vacuum expectation values of *time-ordered* products of field operators, e.g.

$$\langle 0 | T\{\phi(x_1)\phi(x_2) \cdots \phi(x_n)\} | 0 \rangle.$$

Problem: time-ordered products are awkward to handle directly, while *normal-ordered* products are easy — they annihilate the vacuum.

Wick's theorem provides the bridge between the two.

The free scalar field

The free real Klein–Gordon field is

$$\phi(x) = \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\omega_k}} \left[a_k e^{-ik \cdot x} + a_k^\dagger e^{+ik \cdot x} \right],$$

with $k^0 = \omega_k = \sqrt{k^2 + m^2}$ and

$$[a_k, a_{k'}^\dagger] = (2\pi)^3 \delta^{(3)}(k - k').$$

We split the field into positive- and negative-frequency parts:

$$\phi(x) = \phi^+(x) + \phi^-(x),$$

$$\phi^+(x) \equiv \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{a_k}{\sqrt{2\omega_k}} e^{-ik \cdot x}, \quad \phi^-(x) \equiv \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{a_k^\dagger}{\sqrt{2\omega_k}} e^{+ik \cdot x}.$$

By construction, $\phi^+|0\rangle = 0$ and $\langle 0|\phi^- = 0$.

Normal ordering

The **normal-ordered product** $:\phi(x_1)\cdots\phi(x_n):$ is defined by reordering all ϕ^- (creation parts) to the *left* of all ϕ^+ (annihilation parts), as if they commuted.

Example, for two fields:

$$:\phi(x)\phi(y): = \phi^-(x)\phi^-(y) + \phi^-(x)\phi^+(y) + \phi^-(y)\phi^+(x) + \phi^+(x)\phi^+(y).$$

Crucial property: the vacuum expectation value of any non-trivial normal-ordered product vanishes,

$$\langle 0 | : \phi(x_1) \cdots \phi(x_n) : | 0 \rangle = 0 \quad (n \geq 1).$$

Each term has at least one annihilation operator on the right or one creation operator on the left.

Time ordering

The **time-ordered product** of two scalar fields is

$$T\{\phi(x)\phi(y)\} = \begin{cases} \phi(x)\phi(y), & x^0 > y^0, \\ \phi(y)\phi(x), & x^0 < y^0. \end{cases}$$

Equivalently,

$$T\{\phi(x)\phi(y)\} = \theta(x^0 - y^0)\phi(x)\phi(y) + \theta(y^0 - x^0)\phi(y)\phi(x).$$

For n fields, T places them in order of *decreasing* time from left to right. For scalar (bosonic) fields, no extra signs appear; this differs from the fermionic case, where every transposition picks up a minus sign.

The contraction

The **contraction** of two scalar fields is defined as

$$\overline{\phi(x)\phi(y)} \equiv T\{\phi(x)\phi(y)\} - :\phi(x)\phi(y):.$$

The contraction is a c -number (proportional to the identity operator), not an operator. We can therefore evaluate it by taking the vacuum expectation value:

$$\overline{\phi(x)\phi(y)} = \langle 0 | T\{\phi(x)\phi(y)\} | 0 \rangle = D_F(x - y),$$

where $D_F(x - y)$ is the Feynman propagator,

$$D_F(x - y) = \int \frac{d^4 k}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{i e^{-ik \cdot (x-y)}}{k^2 - m^2 + i\epsilon}.$$

Wick's theorem for two fields

We want to express $T\{\phi(x)\phi(y)\}$ in terms of $:\phi\phi:$ plus contractions. Assume $x^0 > y^0$, so $T\{\phi(x)\phi(y)\} = \phi(x)\phi(y)$.

Split each field:

$$\phi(x)\phi(y) = [\phi^+(x) + \phi^-(x)][\phi^+(y) + \phi^-(y)].$$

Of the four resulting terms, three are already normal-ordered. Only $\phi^+(x)\phi^-(y)$ is not. Reorder it using the commutator:

$$\phi^+(x)\phi^-(y) = \phi^-(y)\phi^+(x) + [\phi^+(x), \phi^-(y)].$$

The commutator is a c -number.

Wick's theorem for two fields

Collecting terms,

$$\phi(x)\phi(y) = :\phi(x)\phi(y): + [\phi^+(x), \phi^-(y)].$$

Taking the vacuum expectation value of both sides, the normal-ordered piece vanishes, leaving

$$[\phi^+(x), \phi^-(y)] = \langle 0 | \phi(x)\phi(y) | 0 \rangle = D_F(x-y) \quad (x^0 > y^0).$$

A symmetric argument handles $x^0 < y^0$, giving the propagator in either order.

Result (Wick's theorem for two fields):

$$T\{\phi(x)\phi(y)\} = :\phi(x)\phi(y): + \overline{\phi(x)\phi(y)}$$

with $\overline{\phi(x)\phi(y)} = D_F(x-y)$.

Wick's theorem

For any collection of scalar fields

$$\phi_1 = \phi(x_1), \quad \phi_2 = \phi(x_2), \quad \dots, \quad \phi_n = \phi(x_n),$$

Wick's theorem states that

$$T(\phi_1\phi_2 \cdots \phi_n) =: \phi_1\phi_2 \cdots \phi_n : + \text{all possible contractions}$$

More explicitly,

$$T(\phi_1\phi_2 \cdots \phi_n) =: \phi_1\phi_2 \cdots \phi_n : + \sum_{\text{single contractions}} : \Delta_F(x_i - x_j) \phi_1 \cdots \hat{\phi}_i \cdots \hat{\phi}_j \cdots \phi_n : + \cdots,$$

where the hats mean that the contracted fields are omitted.

For $n = 4$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} T(\phi_1\phi_2\phi_3\phi_4) = & : \phi_1\phi_2\phi_3\phi_4 : \\ & + \Delta_F(x_1 - x_2) : \phi_3\phi_4 : + \Delta_F(x_1 - x_3) : \phi_2\phi_4 : \\ & + \Delta_F(x_1 - x_4) : \phi_2\phi_3 : + \Delta_F(x_2 - x_3) : \phi_1\phi_4 : \\ & + \Delta_F(x_2 - x_4) : \phi_1\phi_3 : + \Delta_F(x_3 - x_4) : \phi_1\phi_2 : \\ & + \Delta_F(x_1 - x_2)\Delta_F(x_3 - x_4) \\ & + \Delta_F(x_1 - x_3)\Delta_F(x_2 - x_4) \\ & + \Delta_F(x_1 - x_4)\Delta_F(x_2 - x_3). \end{aligned}$$

The last three terms are the fully contracted terms.

Example: nucleon scattering

Let us go back to the theory with a nucleon field ψ and a meson field ϕ . We consider elastic nucleon–nucleon scattering:

$$\psi + \psi \longrightarrow \psi + \psi.$$

The initial and final states are

$$|i\rangle = \sqrt{2\omega_{\mathbf{p}_1}} \sqrt{2\omega_{\mathbf{p}_2}} b_{\mathbf{p}_1}^\dagger b_{\mathbf{p}_2}^\dagger |0\rangle \equiv |\mathbf{p}_1, \mathbf{p}_2\rangle,$$

$$|f\rangle = \sqrt{2\omega_{\mathbf{p}'_1}} \sqrt{2\omega_{\mathbf{p}'_2}} b_{\mathbf{p}'_1}^\dagger b_{\mathbf{p}'_2}^\dagger |0\rangle \equiv |\mathbf{p}'_1, \mathbf{p}'_2\rangle.$$

We want to compute

$$\langle f|(S - 1)|i\rangle.$$

The first non-trivial contribution is second order in g :

$$\frac{(-ig)^2}{2} \int d^4x_1 d^4x_2 T \left\{ \psi^\dagger(x_1)\psi(x_1)\phi(x_1) \psi^\dagger(x_2)\psi(x_2)\phi(x_2) \right\}.$$

Using Wick's theorem, one relevant term is

$$: \psi^\dagger(x_1)\psi(x_1)\psi^\dagger(x_2)\psi(x_2) : \overbrace{\phi(x_1)\phi(x_2)}.$$

The contraction of the two meson fields gives the Feynman propagator:

$$\overbrace{\phi(x_1)\phi(x_2)} = \Delta_F(x_1 - x_2).$$

This term contributes to scattering because the two ψ fields annihilate the incoming nucleons, while the two ψ^\dagger fields create the outgoing nucleons. Other orderings of the ψ and ψ^\dagger operators give zero contributions for this matrix element.

Second-order amplitude: setup

From the Dyson expansion, the S -matrix at second order in the Yukawa coupling $\mathcal{L}_{\text{int}} = -g \psi^\dagger \psi \phi$ is

$$S^{(2)} = \frac{(-ig)^2}{2!} \int d^4x_1 d^4x_2 T \left\{ : \psi^\dagger \psi \phi :_{x_1} : \psi^\dagger \psi \phi :_{x_2} \right\}.$$

For nucleon–nucleon scattering $N(p_1)N(p_2) \rightarrow N(p'_1)N(p'_2)$, the relevant Wick contraction connects the two meson fields, leaving the nucleon fields to act on the external states:

$$T^{(2)} = \frac{(-ig)^2}{2} \int d^4x_1 d^4x_2 \overline{\phi(x_1)\phi(x_2)} : \psi^\dagger(x_1)\psi(x_1)\psi^\dagger(x_2)\psi(x_2) :$$

Meson contraction: the propagator

The contraction of the two scalar fields is the Feynman propagator:

$$\overline{\phi(x_1)\phi(x_2)} = \langle 0 | T \{ \phi(x_1)\phi(x_2) \} | 0 \rangle = D_F(x_1 - x_2),$$

with momentum-space representation

$$D_F(x_1 - x_2) = \int \frac{d^4 u}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{i e^{-iu \cdot (x_1 - x_2)}}{u^2 - \mu^2 + i\epsilon},$$

where μ is the meson mass and u is the exchanged four-momentum.

The amplitude becomes

$$T^{(2)} = \frac{(-ig)^2}{2} \int d^4 x_1 d^4 x_2 \int \frac{d^4 u}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{i e^{-iu \cdot (x_1 - x_2)}}{u^2 - \mu^2 + i\epsilon} \mathcal{M}(x_1, x_2),$$

with $\mathcal{M}(x_1, x_2) = \langle p'_1 p'_2 | : \psi^\dagger \psi \psi^\dagger \psi : | p_1 p_2 \rangle$.

Nucleon matrix element

Since $:\psi^\dagger(x_1)\psi(x_1)\psi^\dagger(x_2)\psi(x_2): = \psi^\dagger(x_1)\psi^\dagger(x_2)\psi(x_1)\psi(x_2)$, the two ψ 's annihilate the in-state into the vacuum, so

$$\mathcal{M}(x_1, x_2) = \langle p'_1 p'_2 | \psi^\dagger(x_1) \psi^\dagger(x_2) | 0 \rangle \langle 0 | \psi(x_1) \psi(x_2) | p_1 p_2 \rangle.$$

Using $\langle 0 | \psi(x) | p \rangle = e^{-ip \cdot x}$ and $\langle p | \psi^\dagger(x) | 0 \rangle = e^{ip \cdot x}$, with the two ways of pairing identical bosons,

$$\langle 0 | \psi(x_1) \psi(x_2) | p_1 p_2 \rangle = e^{-ip_1 \cdot x_1 - ip_2 \cdot x_2} + e^{-ip_1 \cdot x_2 - ip_2 \cdot x_1},$$

$$\langle p'_1 p'_2 | \psi^\dagger(x_1) \psi^\dagger(x_2) | 0 \rangle = e^{ip'_1 \cdot x_1 + ip'_2 \cdot x_2} + e^{ip'_1 \cdot x_2 + ip'_2 \cdot x_1}.$$

Combining the four terms

Multiplying out, $\mathcal{M}(x_1, x_2)$ contains four exponentials:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{M} = & e^{i(p'_1 - p_1) \cdot x_1} e^{i(p'_2 - p_2) \cdot x_2} + e^{i(p'_1 - p_2) \cdot x_1} e^{i(p'_2 - p_1) \cdot x_2} \\ & + e^{i(p'_2 - p_1) \cdot x_1} e^{i(p'_1 - p_2) \cdot x_2} + e^{i(p'_2 - p_2) \cdot x_1} e^{i(p'_1 - p_1) \cdot x_2}.\end{aligned}$$

The integrand is symmetric under $x_1 \leftrightarrow x_2$ (the propagator depends only on $x_1 - x_2$ and $u \rightarrow -u$ is a relabelling). Therefore the 1st and 4th terms give equal contributions, as do the 2nd and 3rd. This doubling absorbs the $1/2!$ from the Dyson expansion:

$$T^{(2)} = (-ig)^2 \int d^4 x_1 d^4 x_2 \int \frac{d^4 u}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{i e^{-iu \cdot (x_1 - x_2)}}{u^2 - \mu^2 + i\epsilon} \left[e^{i(p'_1 - p_1) \cdot x_1} e^{i(p'_2 - p_2) \cdot x_2} + (x_1 \leftrightarrow x_2) \right].$$

Final result: t - and u -channel exchange

Performing the u integral with one delta in each term, and factoring out overall momentum conservation $(2\pi)^4 \delta^{(4)}(p'_1 + p'_2 - p_1 - p_2)$:

$$T^{(2)} = (-ig)^2 (2\pi)^4 \delta^{(4)}(p'_1 + p'_2 - p_1 - p_2) \left[\frac{i}{t - \mu^2 + i\epsilon} + \frac{i}{u - \mu^2 + i\epsilon} \right],$$

with the Mandelstam variables

$$t = (p'_1 - p_1)^2, \quad u = (p'_1 - p_2)^2.$$

Interpretation. The two terms are the t - and u -channel diagrams for identical-nucleon scattering, with a single meson of mass μ exchanged. Their sum implements Bose symmetry of the two-nucleon final state.

Performing the u -integral gives

$$\langle f|S-1|i\rangle = i(-ig)^2(2\pi)^4\delta^{(4)}(p'_1+p'_2-p_1-p_2) \left[\frac{1}{(p'_1-p_1)^2-\mu^2+i\epsilon} + \frac{1}{(p'_1-p_2)^2-\mu^2+i\epsilon} \right]$$

For physical external particles the $i\epsilon$ prescription can often be dropped, since the denominators do not vanish. It is, however, essential for internal propagators in general.

Some processes vanish because there are no allowed contractions:

$$\psi\psi \rightarrow \bar{\psi}\bar{\psi} \quad \text{is forbidden by charge conservation.}$$

For processes such as

$$\psi\phi \rightarrow \phi\psi,$$

Wick's theorem gives non-zero contractions, for example

$$\psi^\dagger(x_1)\phi(x_1)\psi(x_2)\phi(x_2) \rightsquigarrow \psi(x_2)\psi^\dagger(x_1)\Delta_F(x_1-x_2).$$

Feynman rules for scalar Yukawa theory

Position-space rules

- Draw an external line for each particle in the initial state $|i\rangle$ and each particle in the final state $|f\rangle$.
- Use different line styles for mesons and nucleons:

dotted line: ϕ , solid line: ψ .

- Assign a momentum to each external line.
- Add an arrow to solid lines to indicate charge flow:

ψ : \longrightarrow , $\bar{\psi}$: \longleftarrow .

- Join the external lines using allowed vertices.

For scalar Yukawa theory,

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{int}} = -g \psi^\dagger \psi \phi,$$

the allowed vertex contains one ϕ , one ψ , and one ψ^\dagger .

Yukawa vertex:

$$\psi^\dagger \psi \phi$$

Momentum-space rules

- Assign a momentum k to each internal line.
- At each vertex, write a momentum-conservation factor

$$(-ig)(2\pi)^4 \delta^{(4)} \left(\sum_i k_i \right),$$

where the sum is over all momenta flowing into the vertex.

- For each internal dotted line corresponding to a ϕ particle with momentum k , write

$$\int \frac{d^4 k}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{i}{k^2 - \mu^2 + i\epsilon}.$$

- For each internal solid line corresponding to a ψ particle, write the same factor with the meson mass μ replaced by the nucleon mass M :

$$\int \frac{d^4 k}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{i}{k^2 - M^2 + i\epsilon}.$$

Feynman rules and nucleon scattering revisited

Nucleon–nucleon scattering

At tree level, nucleon scattering receives two contributions, corresponding to the two possible ways of exchanging a meson between the external nucleon lines. If the exchanged meson has mass μ , then

$$\langle f|S - 1|i\rangle = i\mathcal{A}_{fi}(2\pi)^4\delta^{(4)}(p'_1 + p'_2 - p_1 - p_2),$$

where p_i are incoming momenta and p'_i are outgoing momenta. For identical nucleons,

$$i\mathcal{A}_{fi} = (-ig)^2 \left[\frac{i}{(p'_1 - p_1)^2 - \mu^2 + i\epsilon} + \frac{i}{(p'_1 - p_2)^2 - \mu^2 + i\epsilon} \right].$$

The internal exchanged particle is off-shell:

$$k^2 \neq \mu^2,$$

whereas external particles are on-shell:

$$p_i^2 = M^2, \quad p_i'^2 = M^2.$$

Definition of the scattering amplitude

In general we define

$$\langle f | S - 1 | i \rangle = i \mathcal{A}_{fi} (2\pi)^4 \delta^{(4)}(p_f - p_i)$$

where p_i and p_f are the total incoming and outgoing four-momenta.

Feynman rules for $i\mathcal{A}_{fi}$

- Draw all possible diagrams with the appropriate external legs.
- Impose four-momentum conservation at each vertex.
- Write a factor

$$(-ig)$$

for each Yukawa vertex.

- For each internal line, write down the corresponding propagator.
For an internal meson line:

$$\frac{i}{k^2 - \mu^2 + i\epsilon}$$

For an internal nucleon line:

$$\frac{i}{k^2 - M^2 + i\epsilon}$$

- Integrate over each undetermined loop momentum:

$$\int \frac{d^4k}{(2\pi)^4}$$

Example: nucleon–meson scattering

For

$$\psi + \phi \longrightarrow \psi + \phi,$$

with incoming momenta p, k and outgoing momenta p', k' , the tree-level amplitude is

$$i\mathcal{A} = (-ig)^2 \left[\frac{i}{(p+k)^2 - M^2 + i\epsilon} + \frac{i}{(p-k')^2 - M^2 + i\epsilon} \right].$$

More examples

Example 2: nucleon–anti-nucleon scattering

For

$$\psi + \bar{\psi} \longrightarrow \psi + \bar{\psi},$$

there are two tree-level contributions. The amplitude has the schematic form

$$i\mathcal{A} = (-ig)^2 \left[\frac{i}{(p'_1 - p_1)^2 - \mu^2 + i\epsilon} + \frac{i}{(p_1 + p_2)^2 - \mu^2 + i\epsilon} \right].$$

The second term corresponds to annihilation into an intermediate meson and then recreation of the pair. If the exchanged momentum satisfies

$$(p_1 + p_2)^2 \simeq \mu^2,$$

the propagator becomes resonant.

Example 3: meson–meson scattering

For

$$\phi + \phi \longrightarrow \phi + \phi,$$

the first contribution arises at fourth order in the scalar Yukawa coupling:

$$\begin{aligned} & (-ig)^4 \int \frac{d^4 u}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{i}{u^2 - M^2 + i\epsilon} \frac{i}{(u + p_1 - p'_1)^2 - M^2 + i\epsilon} \\ & \times \frac{i}{(u + p_1 + p_2)^2 - M^2 + i\epsilon} \frac{i}{(u + p_1 - p'_2)^2 - M^2 + i\epsilon}. \end{aligned}$$

This is a one-loop process with virtual nucleons circulating in the loop.

QED Feynman Rules

The interaction Lagrangian is

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{int}} = -e \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu \psi A_\mu.$$

The basic QED vertex gives

$$\boxed{-ie\gamma^\mu}$$

or, for a particle with charge Qe ,

$$\boxed{-ieQ\gamma^\mu.}$$

Internal propagators:

$$\text{Photon: } \frac{-ig_{\mu\nu}}{q^2 + i\epsilon}$$

$$\text{Fermion: } \frac{i(\not{p} + m)}{p^2 - m^2 + i\epsilon}$$

External lines are represented by wave functions:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{incoming fermion} & : u(p), \\ \text{outgoing fermion} & : \bar{u}(p), \\ \text{incoming anti-fermion} & : \bar{v}(p), \\ \text{outgoing anti-fermion} & : v(p), \end{aligned}$$

and for photons:

$$\epsilon_{\mu}(k) \quad \text{or} \quad \epsilon_{\mu}^{*}(k),$$

depending on whether the photon is incoming or outgoing.

QED Feynman rules: signs and examples

Continuing the QED Feynman rules:

- 1 For every loop momentum, include an integration

$$\int \frac{d^4\ell}{(2\pi)^4}.$$

- 2 Include a minus sign for every closed fermion loop:

$$\text{closed fermion loop} \longrightarrow (-1).$$

- 3 Include the appropriate relative minus signs coming from the interchange of identical fermions.

For example, for electron–electron scattering,

$$e^- e^- \rightarrow e^- e^-,$$

there are two diagrams. Since the final-state electrons are identical, the two contributions enter with a relative minus sign:

$$i\mathcal{M} = i\mathcal{M}_t - i\mathcal{M}_u.$$