

7. Electromagnetic field

7.1 Motivation from gauge invariance

- Recall the Lagrangian of a complex scalar

$$\mathcal{L} = \partial_\mu \phi \partial^\mu \phi^* - m^2 \phi \phi^*$$

with its $U(1)$ -symmetry $\phi(x) \rightarrow e^{i\alpha} \phi(x)$.

- We want to promote this to a local or gauge symm.

$$\phi(x) \rightarrow e^{i\alpha(x)} \phi(x).$$

- The Lagrangian is not inv. since $\partial_\mu \phi \rightarrow e^{i\alpha(x)} (\partial_\mu \phi(x) + i(\partial_\mu \alpha(x)) \phi(x))$
 $\neq e^{i\alpha(x)} \partial_\mu \phi(x).$

- This can be corrected by introducing a gauge connection

$A_\mu(x)$ and ∂_μ by the covariant derivative $D_\mu = \partial_\mu + iA_\mu(x)$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now } D_\mu \phi &\rightarrow D'_\mu \phi' = (\partial_\mu + iA'_\mu) e^{i\alpha} \phi \\ &= e^{i\alpha} (\partial_\mu + iA'_\mu + i\partial_\mu \alpha) \phi \\ &= e^{i\alpha} D_\mu \phi \\ &\uparrow \\ \text{if } A_\mu &\rightarrow A'_\mu = A_\mu - \partial_\mu \alpha. \end{aligned}$$

- The latter statement is equivalent to $D_\mu \rightarrow e^{i\alpha} D_\mu e^{-i\alpha}$.

(From this form of the gauge hf. of A_μ it is obvious that $D_\mu \phi \rightarrow e^{i\alpha} D_\mu \phi$ and that \mathcal{L} is inv.)

- Having introduced A_μ , we need to add to \mathcal{L} an A_μ -dependent piece which specifies the dynamics of A_μ .

- This is most easily done by observing that

$$\begin{aligned}
 [D_\mu, D_\nu] &= (\partial_\mu + iA_\mu)(\partial_\nu + iA_\nu) - (\partial_\nu + iA_\nu)(\partial_\mu + iA_\mu) \\
 &= iA_\mu\partial_\nu + i\partial_\mu A_\nu - i\partial_\nu A_\mu - iA_\nu\partial_\mu \\
 &= i((\partial_\mu A_\nu) - (\partial_\nu A_\mu))
 \end{aligned}$$

↑ ↑
This bracket symbolizes that, here,
 ∂_μ & ∂_ν do not act to the right.
(In the following we will drop such
brackets)

$\Rightarrow [D_\mu, D_\nu]$ is not a differential operator but just a fact.

- We define : $F_{\mu\nu} = \frac{1}{i} [D_\mu, D_\nu]$ (field strength).
- A_μ is a vector field, in the sense that ($A^\mu = \eta^{\mu\nu} A_\nu$)

$$A^\mu(x) \xrightarrow{\Lambda \in SO(4,3)} \Lambda^\mu{}_\nu A^\nu(\Lambda^{-1}x)$$

↑
vector with
components $x'^\mu = (\Lambda^{-1})^\mu{}_\nu x^\nu$.

(as opposed to a scalar

$$\phi(x) \xrightarrow{\Lambda \in SO(4,3)} \phi(\Lambda^{-1}x).$$

Problem: Show that using Λ^{-1} instead of Λ as specified above is necessary in order to realize the group law

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 A_\mu & \xrightarrow{\Lambda_1} & A_\mu' & \xrightarrow{\Lambda_2} & A_\mu'' \\
 & \searrow & & & \nearrow \\
 & & \Lambda_3 = \Lambda_2 \Lambda_1 & &
 \end{array}$$

i.e. the commutativity of the above diagram.

($F^{\mu\nu}$ is a tensor, in obvious generalization of the above concepts of scalar & vector.)

- We now have arrived at the lagrangian of scalar QED:

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

which is invariant under $\phi \rightarrow e^{i\alpha} \phi$ & $A_\mu \rightarrow A_\mu - \partial_\mu \alpha$.

[Note: We do not include the $F\tilde{F}$ -term since it is a total derivative]

- It is easy to see that a field redefinition $A_\mu \rightarrow eA_\mu$ leads to the more familiar form

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

$$\text{with } D_\mu = \partial_\mu + ie A_\mu.$$

Comment: Using the language of differential forms, we have

$$A - 1\text{-form}; \quad A \xrightarrow{\text{gauge ft.}} A + d\alpha \quad \begin{matrix} \uparrow \\ 0\text{-form or fct.} \end{matrix}$$

$$F = dA - 2\text{-form}.$$

$$\mathcal{L} \sim F_1 + F \quad \begin{matrix} \uparrow \\ \text{Hodge-operator} \end{matrix}$$

(The normalization depends on conventions, which vary from author to author.)

7.2 Gupta-Bleuler quantization

Focus on the free action for A_μ : $S = \int d^4x \left(-\frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu} \right)$

and attempt to go to the Hamilton formulation!

$$\begin{aligned}
 \pi^\mu &= \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial A_\mu} = \frac{\partial}{\partial(\partial_\nu A_\mu)} \left(-\frac{1}{4} F_{\sigma\nu} F_{\tau\mu} \gamma^{s\sigma} \gamma^{\tau\mu} \right) \\
 &= -\frac{1}{2} F_{\sigma\nu} \gamma^{s\sigma} \gamma^{\tau\mu} \frac{\partial}{\partial(\partial_\nu A_\mu)} (\partial_\sigma A_\tau - \partial_\tau A_\sigma) \\
 &= -\frac{1}{2} F_{\sigma\nu} (\gamma^{s\sigma} \gamma^{\tau\mu} - \gamma^{s\mu} \gamma^{\tau\sigma}) = F^{\mu\sigma}.
 \end{aligned}$$

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- We find $\pi^0 = 0$, which represents a problem.
 - It can be overcome by fixing the gauge, i.e. by
(Lorentz or covariant gauge)

demanding $\partial A = \partial_\mu A^\mu = 0$ & using $\mathcal{L} = -\frac{1}{q} F^2 - \frac{\lambda}{2} (\partial A)^2$.

(Deriving EOMs from this new lagrangian and setting $\partial A = 0$ is equivalent to the usual EOMs with $\partial A = 0$.)

- Setting $A = 1$ for simplicity and repeating our previous analysis, we get:

$$\begin{aligned}\pi^\mu &= -\partial^0 A^\mu + \dots \\ &= -\dot{A}^\mu + \dots \\ &\equiv \quad \uparrow \\ &\qquad \text{terms without time-derivatives of } A^\nu.\end{aligned}$$

(Such terms are not important for the quantization since they do not affect $[\pi^\mu, A_\nu]$ as long as $[A^\mu, A_\nu] = 0$.)

- Thus, it looks as if we are dealing simply with 4 independent real fields A^μ (labelled by " μ ").
 - We can demand: $[A, A] = [\pi, \pi] = 0$

$$\& \quad [A_{\mu}(t, \bar{x}), \pi^\nu(t, \bar{y})] = i g_\mu{}^\nu \delta^3(\bar{x} - \bar{y}). \quad (\gamma_{\mu}{}^\nu = \delta_{\mu}{}^\nu)$$

- We could now, following the scalar case, Fourier transform A & π and introduce a & a^+ as lin. combinations of these Fourier-transformed fields.
- However, it is easier to guess the result and to "work backwards", checking that the proper commutation relations of A & π follow from those of a & a^+ :

$$A_\mu(x) = \int d\vec{k} \left(a_{\vec{k},\mu}^- e^{-ikx} + a_{\vec{k},\mu}^+ e^{ikx} \right), \quad k^0 = \sqrt{\vec{k}^2} = |\vec{k}|$$

- Motivated by the scalar case, we postulate that

$$[a_i, a_j] = [a_i^+, a_j^+] = 0 \quad \& \quad [a_{\vec{k},\mu}^-, a_{\vec{k}',\nu}^+] = -\gamma_{\mu\nu} 2k^0 (2\pi)^3 \delta^3(\vec{k}-\vec{k}')$$

- It is straightforward to check that this leads to the π_μ - A_ν -commut. relations introduced above.
- We now define $|0\rangle$ as the state annihilated by all a 's and obtain our Fock-space basis by applying (all types of) a^+ 's to $|0\rangle$. It appears that we are "done". However....

Problem ①: The "wrong sign" of the a_0 - a_0^+ -commutator renders our space non-pos.-definite. This is clear from the following simple QM-example:

- Consider space $|0\rangle$, $a^+|0\rangle$, $(a^+)^2|0\rangle$ etc. with $[a, a^+] = -1$.
- Define as usual $\| |0\rangle \| ^2 = \langle 0 | 0 \rangle = 1$
- $\| a^+|0\rangle \| ^2 = \langle 0 | a a^+ | 0 \rangle = \langle 0 | [a, a^+] | 0 \rangle = - \langle 0 | 0 \rangle = -1$.

This is physically unacceptable. It is also unavoidable at the technical level since the sign-change between $[a_i, a_j^+]$ & $[a_i^+, a_j^+]$ comes from $\gamma_{\mu\nu}$ and hence from Lorentz-symm.

Problem ②: We have not yet implemented $\partial A = 0$ in our quantum theory. Moreover, we can't simply declare $\partial A = 0$ an operator equation since $[A_0, \partial A] = [A_0, \dot{A}_0] \neq 0$.

Solution: (Gupta, Benger) (cf. Nadtman's book)

- Call our full Fock space \mathcal{H} and define $\mathcal{H}_1 \subset \mathcal{H}$ by

$$\partial A^{\mu} | \psi \rangle = 0 \iff | \psi \rangle \in \mathcal{H}_1.$$

- This implies $\langle \psi | \partial A | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | (\partial A^{\mu} + \partial A^e) | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | (\partial A^{\mu} + \partial A^e)^+ | \psi \rangle = 0$,

which is a satisfactory implementation of our gauge condition.

- It will turn out that \mathcal{H}_1 is pos.-semi-definite (i.e. it still contains zero-norm states). Thus, we will define $\mathcal{H}_{\text{phys.}} = \mathcal{H}_1 / \sim$ where $\{ | \psi \rangle \sim | \psi' \rangle \iff \| | \psi \rangle - | \psi' \rangle \| = 0 \}$.
- To work all this out in detail, it is convenient (not necessary) to think in terms of polarizations. Hence a small detour:

A general 1-photon state is $- \varepsilon^{\mu}(k) a_{k,\mu}^+ | 0 \rangle$ (& analogously for many photons). Obviously, there are 4 indep. polarizations for any given k and many possible basis choices. For example, we can demand (covariant) orthonormality

$$\varepsilon_{\mu}^{(\alpha)}(k) (\varepsilon_{\nu}^{(\alpha')}(k))^* = \eta^{\alpha\alpha'}$$

Problem: Show that this implies the completeness relation

$$\sum_{\alpha, \alpha'} \eta^{\alpha\alpha'} \varepsilon_{\mu}^{(\alpha)}(k) (\varepsilon_{\nu}^{(\alpha')}(k))^* = \eta_{\mu\nu}$$

To make a concrete choice, we introduce some fixed vector n with $n^2 = 1$ & $n_0 > 0$ (otherwise arbitrary) and demand:

$$\varepsilon^{(0)} = n, \quad \varepsilon^{(1)} \cdot n = 0; \quad \varepsilon^{(1)} \cdot k = \varepsilon^{(2)} \cdot k = 0.$$

(This is consistent with our previous orthog. relation and essentially fixes the ε 's.)

Now let us go to a coord. system where $n = (1, \bar{0})$ & $k \parallel \hat{e}_3$.

$$\Rightarrow \varepsilon^{(0)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}; \quad \varepsilon^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}; \quad \varepsilon^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}; \quad \varepsilon^{(3)} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

(up to rotations in 1-2-plane)

Alternatively, we can choose an n with $n^2 = 0$ and demand:

$$\varepsilon^U = n; \quad \varepsilon^L \sim k; \quad \varepsilon^{(1)} \& \varepsilon^{(2)} \text{ orth. to } n \& k.$$

(This is not consistent with our previous orthog. rel. since $(\varepsilon^U)^2 = (\varepsilon^L)^2 = 0$. We demand instead $\varepsilon^U \cdot \varepsilon^L = -1$.)

Now let us go to a coord. system where $n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$ & $k \parallel \hat{e}_3$.

$$\Rightarrow \varepsilon^U = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}; \quad \varepsilon^L = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}; \quad \varepsilon^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}; \quad \varepsilon^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Finally, we note } & \langle \varepsilon' k' | \varepsilon, k \rangle = \varepsilon'^{\mu}(k')^* \varepsilon^{\nu}(k) \langle 0 | a_{k', \mu}^- a_{k, \nu}^+ | 0 \rangle \\ &= \varepsilon'^{\mu}(k')^* \varepsilon^{\nu}(k) \left[-\gamma_{\mu\nu} 2k^0 (2\pi)^3 \delta^3(k - k') \right] \\ &= -(\varepsilon' \cdot \varepsilon) 2k^0 (2\pi)^3 \delta^3(k - k'), \text{ i.e. } -(\varepsilon)^2 \text{ "measures the norm."} \end{aligned}$$

- It is now immediately clear that our "phys. space condition" really means

$$\partial A^\sigma | \varepsilon, q \rangle = 0 \iff k \cdot a_{\bar{k}}^- | \varepsilon, q \rangle = 0 \iff k \cdot \varepsilon(q) = 0$$

if $\bar{k} = \bar{q}$

$$\iff k \cdot \varepsilon(k) = 0.$$

- This is violated for ε^u and only for ε^u .
(Hence " u " for unphysical.)
- We now define $\alpha_{\vec{k}, (u, L, 1, 2)}^+ = \varepsilon^{(u, L, 1, 2) \mu}(\vec{k}) a_{\vec{k}, \mu}^+$
and build our Fock space using α^+ 's (this is of course fully equivalent).
- We see immediately that \mathcal{H}_1 is simply the subspace of \mathcal{H} built by applying only $\alpha_{L, 1, 2}^+$ to $|0\rangle$.
- [In more detail: $k \cdot a_{\vec{k}}^-$ (product of $\varepsilon_{\vec{k}}^- \cdot a_{\vec{k}}^+$) $|0\rangle$ is evaluated by commuting $k \cdot a_{\vec{k}}^-$ through all $\varepsilon_{\vec{k}}^- \cdot a_{\vec{k}}^+$. A non-zero term arises only if $k \cdot \varepsilon_{(\vec{k})} +$ for one of the ε 's.]
- Furthermore, consider vectors $|y\rangle \in \mathcal{H}_1$ of the form
(Product of $\alpha_{L, 1, 2}^+$'s) $|0\rangle$. Obviously $\| |y\rangle \| = 0$ if (and only if) at least one α_L^+ is present in this product.
This is furthermore identical to the statement $|y\rangle \sim 0$.
- Also: States $|y\rangle$ of this type do not affect any (by def. gauge inv.) observable. We only illustrate this using an example:

$$H = : \int d^3x (\pi^\mu \dot{A}_\mu - \mathcal{L}) : = \dots = \int d\tilde{k} k_0 (-a_{\vec{k}, \mu}^+ a_{\vec{k}}^\mu)$$

$$= \int d\tilde{k} k_0 \left(\sum_{i=1}^2 \alpha_{\vec{k}, i}^+ \alpha_{\vec{k}, i}^- - \underbrace{[\alpha_{\vec{k}, u}^+ \alpha_{\vec{k}, L}^- + \alpha_{\vec{k}, L}^+ \alpha_{\vec{k}, u}^-]}_{\text{this drops out in any phys. state, so that our claim becomes obvious.}}$$

check!

this drops out in any phys. state,
so that our claim becomes obvious.

In summary

Any $|q\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$: $|q\rangle = \sum (\alpha_{h,i}^+ \alpha_{\bar{q},u}^+ \alpha_{\bar{p},L}^+ \dots) |0\rangle$

$|q\rangle \in \mathcal{H}_1$: no terms involving α_u^+ allowed

$|q\rangle \sim |q'\rangle$: $|q\rangle$ & $|q'\rangle$ differ only by terms involving at least one α_L^+ .

$$\mathcal{H}_{\text{phys.}} = \mathcal{H}_1 / \sim.$$

Note: $|\varepsilon, k\rangle \rightarrow |\varepsilon, k\rangle + \text{const.} \times |\varepsilon^L, k\rangle$ corresponds to a gauge-hf. since $A_\mu \rightarrow A_\mu + \partial_\mu \alpha$ is $A_\mu \rightarrow A_\mu + (n k_\mu)$ in Fourier space.

(More specifically, since $k^2 = 0$ in all of the above, the transformed A_μ still satisfies $\partial \cdot A = 0$. Hence, this is residual gauge freedom. In other words, our final step of modding out " \sim " corresponds to removing residual gauge freedom.)

Comment: It is a non-trivial and important fact that our quantization procedure (i.e. $\mathcal{H}_{\text{phys}}$ and all observables) does not depend on the choice of our reference vector n_μ ($n^2 = 1$).

7.3 Propagator

$$\langle 0 | A_\mu(x) A_\nu(y) | 0 \rangle = \langle 0 | \int dk \tilde{d}k' e^{-ikx + ik'y} \alpha_{h,\mu}^- \alpha_{h',\nu}^+ | 0 \rangle$$

$\uparrow \quad \uparrow$
 only a α^+
 are important

$$\langle A_\mu(x) A_\nu(y) \rangle = -\gamma_{\mu\nu} \int d^4k e^{-ik(x-y)}$$

- Following precisely the scalar case, it is easy to show that

$$\langle T A_\mu(x) A_\nu(y) \rangle = \int \frac{d^4k}{(2\pi)^4} \cdot \frac{-i\gamma_{\mu\nu}}{k^2 + i\varepsilon} e^{-ik(x-y)}$$

$$= -\gamma_{\mu\nu} D_F(x-y, m^2=0)$$

Note that, for the physical polarizations,
the propagator is exactly as in the scalar case.

Fact:

If we had kept general λ , we would have found

$$-i \left(\frac{\gamma_{\mu\nu}}{k^2 + i\varepsilon} + \frac{1-\lambda}{\lambda} \cdot \frac{k_\mu k_\nu}{(k^2 + i\varepsilon)^2} \right) \text{ instead of } \frac{-i\gamma_{\mu\nu}}{k^2 + i\varepsilon}.$$

(This will be easy to derive later on, in the path-integral approach.)

Note: λ drops out in all results for physical scattering amplitudes.

7.4 Feynman rules for scalar QED

Just to get used to models with different types of particles, we first consider a theory with N different scalars:

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{2} ((\partial \varphi_i)^2 - m^2 (\varphi_i)^2) - \frac{\lambda}{4} \left(\sum_{i=1}^N (\varphi_i)^2 \right)^2$$

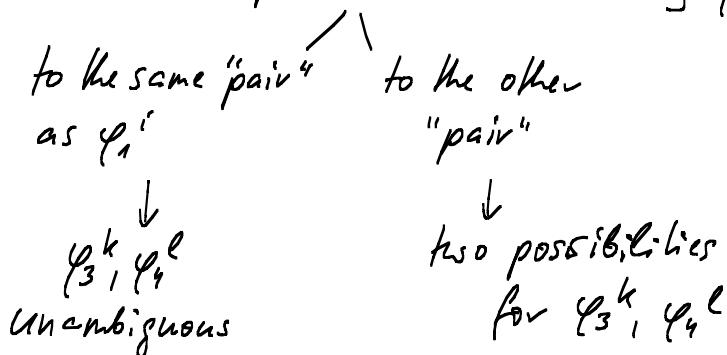
↑
no factorial!

- It is easy to show that $\overline{\varphi_i} \varphi_j = \delta^{ij} D_F(x_1 - x_2) = \begin{array}{c} \nearrow \downarrow \\ x_1 \quad x_2 \end{array}$

- To derive the vertex, consider

$$\langle T \varphi_1^i \varphi_2^j \varphi_3^k \varphi_4^\ell \int d^4x \left(\frac{-i\lambda}{4} \right) (\delta_{mn} \varphi_x^m \varphi_x^n) (\delta_{pq} \varphi_x^p \varphi_x^q) \rangle.$$

- When calculating the diagram $\begin{array}{c} i \\ j \\ \times \\ k \\ e \end{array}$, there are clearly 2×2 equal terms corresponding to $m \leftrightarrow n$ & $p \leftrightarrow q$.
- Then, one still has two possibilities for attaching φ_1^i
two possibilities for attaching φ_2^j



$\Rightarrow 6$ possibilities, giving

$$\begin{array}{c} i \\ j \\ \times \\ k \\ e \end{array} = -2i\lambda (\delta^{ij}\delta^{ke} + \delta^{ik}\delta^{je} + \delta^{il}\delta^{jk})$$

- Next, we consider one complex scalar:

Now, $\overline{\phi_x} \phi_y = 0$ (ϕ contains particle creation & annihilation operators, a^+ & b)

and $\overline{\phi_x} \phi_y^+ = \overline{\phi_x^+} \phi_y = D_F(x-y).$

(Although they are equal, we can distinguish where the ϕ & ϕ^+ are and work

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 x \longrightarrow & y & = D_F(x-y) \\
 \uparrow & \uparrow & \\
 \phi^+ & \phi & .
 \end{array}$$

- After these preliminaries, we now directly work down the scalar-QED-Feynman rules (going directly to momentum space):

$$\overrightarrow{\text{---}} = \frac{i}{k^2 - m^2 + i\epsilon}$$

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

$$\begin{array}{c} \stackrel{k}{\overrightarrow{\text{---}}} \\ \overrightarrow{\text{---}} \quad \overrightarrow{\text{---}} \\ p \quad p' \end{array} = -ie(p_\mu + p'_\mu) \quad (\text{here } p' = p - k)$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \stackrel{k}{\overrightarrow{\text{---}}} \quad \stackrel{k'}{\overrightarrow{\text{---}}} \\ \overrightarrow{\text{---}} \quad \overrightarrow{\text{---}} \\ p \quad p' \end{array} = 2ie^2 \gamma^{\mu\nu} \quad (\text{here } p' = p - k - k')$$

$$\overrightarrow{\text{---}} = Z_\phi^{1/2} \quad (\text{ext. scalar})$$

$$\begin{array}{c} k \\ \overrightarrow{\text{---}} \\ \text{out} \end{array} = Z_A^{1/2} \cdot \epsilon_p(k) \quad (\text{incoming photon})$$

$$\text{---} \quad \epsilon_p^*(k) \quad (\text{outgoing photon})$$

- To derive this, one has in principle to go through the whole procedure (fresns-fct., LSZ, Fourier transforms) again, keeping track of all the a 's & b 's, complex conjugation, the index μ , the $\epsilon_p(k)$ etc. \rightarrow Problems
- Here, we only give a shortcut explaining the $A\phi\phi^+$ -vertex and the external polarizations:

- Recall our naive approach to scattering and consider an "imagined" process $\phi \rightarrow \phi + \gamma$, i.e.,

$$\begin{array}{c} k \\ \overrightarrow{\text{---}} \\ p \end{array} \rightarrow \begin{array}{c} \overrightarrow{\text{---}} \\ \overrightarrow{\text{---}} \\ p' \end{array}$$

- This is, of course, impossible by momentum conservation, but it's good enough to "guess" the rules:

$$\langle 0 | a_{\vec{p}}^+ | \int d^4x \mathcal{L}_{\text{int}} | 0 \rangle = \underbrace{a_{\vec{p}}^+}_{\text{scalar}} \underbrace{\epsilon^{\mu}(k)}_{\text{photon}} a_{\vec{k}, \mu}^+ | 0 \rangle$$

From $|D_{\mu} \phi|^2$, this gets a term

$$ie A^\nu \phi \partial_\nu \phi^+$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \uparrow \quad \uparrow \\ & \text{contains } \int d\vec{q} \tilde{a}_{\vec{q}} e^{-i\vec{q} \cdot \vec{x}} \\ & \text{gives } -ip_\mu \quad \quad \quad \text{"used up" for } a_{\vec{p}}^+ | 0 \rangle \end{aligned}$$

$$A^\nu \text{ contains } \int d\vec{q} \tilde{a}_{\vec{q}}^\nu e^{-i\vec{q} \cdot \vec{x}}$$

$$\text{"used up" for } a_{\vec{k}, \mu}^+ | 0 \rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow -\gamma_\mu^\nu (2\pi)^3 2k_0 \delta^3(\vec{k} - \vec{q})$$

- The d^4x -integral results in $(2\pi)^4 \delta^4(p' - p - k)$, which we extract as the conventional prefactor

- Collecting all the i 's and "-" signs, gives

$$im f_i = -ie p^\mu \epsilon_\mu(k)$$

$\underbrace{\text{outgoing}}_{\text{vertex}} \underbrace{\text{incoming}}_{\text{vertex}} \gamma$

- The term $\sim (\partial_\mu \phi) A^\mu \phi^+$ gives the remaining contribution np^μ .

- The term $\sim A^\mu A_\mu \phi \phi^+$ gives the 2 γ -2 scalar vertex

Comment:

more properly: work out $\overline{\phi^+ A_\nu [A_\mu \phi \partial^\mu \phi^+] \phi}$

They are "cancelled" by \leftarrow
extra pieces from $\mathcal{L}_{\text{int}} \neq \mathcal{D}_{\text{int}}$.
(\rightarrow Itzykson/Zuber)

Naively, this gives just the derivative of D_F .
However, extra non-covar. pieces are
also induced in this way.