

Sheet 9: Solutions

Problem 1

We use expressions (15.13-14) for L_{GW}

$$L_{GW} = 7.26 \times 10^{51} \text{ W} \times \left(\frac{R_g^{(1)}}{r} \right)^2 \cdot \left(\frac{R_g^{(2)}}{r} \right)^2 \cdot \left(\frac{R_g^{(12)}}{r} \right) \quad (9.1.1)$$

$$m_1 = m_{\text{Earth}} = 5.972 \times 10^{24} \text{ kg}$$

$$R_g^{(1)} = 2Gm_{\text{Earth}}/c^2 = 8.87 \cdot 10^{-3} \text{ m} \quad (9.1.2)$$

$$m_2 = m_{\text{sun}} = 1.989 \times 10^{30} \text{ kg}$$

$$R_g^{(2)} = 2Gm_{\text{sun}}/c^2 = 2.95 \cdot 10^3 \text{ m} \quad (9.1.3)$$

$$m_1 + m_2 \cong m_{\text{sun}}$$

$$R_g^{(12)} \cong R_g^{(2)} = 2.95 \cdot 10^3 \text{ m} \quad (9.1.4)$$

r = mean distance Earth-sun

$$= 1 \text{ AU} = 1.52 \times 10^{11} \text{ m} \quad (9.1.5)$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{\underline{L_{GW} = 181 \text{ W}}} \quad (9.1.6)$$

Problem 2

A homogeneous ball of radius R and mass M has a moment of inertia (for any axis through the centre)

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Theta' &= \int \rho(\vec{x}) r_{\perp}^2 d^3x \\
 &= \frac{M}{\frac{4\pi}{3}R^3} \int_0^{2\pi} d\varphi \int_0^R dr r^2 \int_0^{\pi} d\theta \sin\theta \underbrace{r^2 \sin^2\theta}_{r_{\perp}^2} \\
 &= \frac{M}{\frac{4\pi}{3}R^3} 2\pi \int_0^R dr r^4 \int_{-1}^{+1} d\sigma (1-\sigma^2) \\
 &= \frac{3M}{2R^3} \frac{1}{5} R^5 \cdot \frac{4}{3} = \frac{2}{5} MR^2 \quad (9.2.1)
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence the kinetic (rotational) energy is

$$\begin{aligned}
 E_{\text{rot}} &= \frac{1}{2} \Theta' \omega^2 = \frac{1}{5} MR^2 \omega^2 \\
 &= \frac{4\pi^2}{5} MR^2 T^{-2} \quad (\omega = \frac{2\pi}{T}) \quad (9.2.2)
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\dot{E}_{\text{rot}} = -\frac{8\pi^2}{5} MR^2 \dot{T} / T^3 \quad (9.2.3)$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned}
 \text{For } M &= 1.5 M_{\odot} = 2.98 \times 10^{30} \text{ kg} \\
 T &= 3.35 \times 10^{-2} \text{ s} \\
 \dot{T} &= 4.4 \times 10^{-13} \\
 R &= 10^4 \text{ m}
 \end{aligned} \right\} (9.2.4)$$

We get

$$\dot{E}_{\text{rot}} = -5.51 \times 10^{31} \text{ W} \quad (9.2.5)$$

If this is to equal in magnitude

$$L_{\text{GW}} = \frac{32}{5} \frac{G}{c^5} \omega^6 (\epsilon \Theta)^2, \quad (9.2.6)$$

where $\omega = 2\pi/T$ and

$$\Theta = I_1' + I_2' = \Theta_3' = \Theta'$$

as in (9.2.1), we must have

$$\left[5.51 \times 10^{31} \text{ W} / \frac{32}{5} \frac{G}{c^5} \left(\frac{2\pi}{T} \right)^6 \Theta'^2 \right]^{1/2} = \epsilon \quad (9.2.7)$$

Since

$$\begin{aligned} \Theta' &= \frac{2}{5} M R^2 = \frac{2}{5} \cdot 2.98 \cdot 10^{30} \text{ kg} \cdot 10^8 \text{ m}^2 \\ &= 1.192 \cdot 10^{38} \text{ kg m}^2 \end{aligned} \quad (9.2.8)$$

We have

$$\frac{32}{5} \frac{G}{c^5} \left(\frac{2\pi}{T} \right)^6 \Theta'^2 = 1.1 \cdot 10^{38} \text{ W} \quad (9.2.9)$$

and

$$\varepsilon = \left\{ \frac{5.51 \times 10^{31}}{1.1 \times 10^{38}} \right\}^{1/2} = 7.1 \times 10^{-4} \quad (9.2.10)$$

The amplitude on Earth can be estimated by using 14.49

$$|h| = \frac{4G}{c^4} \frac{\omega^2 \varepsilon \Theta}{r} \quad (9.2.11)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{where } r &= 2 \cdot 10^3 \text{ pc} \\ &= 2 \cdot 10^3 \cdot 3.086 \times 10^{16} \text{ m} \\ &= 6.17 \times 10^{19} \text{ m} \end{aligned} \quad (9.2.12)$$

$$\omega = \frac{2\pi}{T} = 1.88 \times 10^2 \text{ s}^{-1} \quad (9.2.13)$$

Then

$$|h| = 1.6 \times 10^{-24} \quad (9.2.14)$$

If we model the neutron star by a homogeneous ellipsoid

$$E(a, b, c) := \left\{ (x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 : \frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} + \frac{z^2}{c^2} \leq 1 \right\} \quad (9.2.15)$$

which we assume to rotate about the z -axis, then the 2nd mass-moments are

not difficult to calculate. The volume of $E(a, b, c)$ is

$$V = \int_{E(a, b, c)} d^3x = \int_{E(a, b, c)} dx \wedge dy \wedge dz$$

$$= a \cdot b \cdot c \int_{B_1(0)} dx' \wedge dy' \wedge dz'$$

$$= abc \int_{B_1(0)} d^3x' = abc \frac{4\pi}{3} \quad (9.2.16)$$

where $\vec{x}' = (x', y', z') := \left(\frac{x}{a}, \frac{y}{b}, \frac{z}{c}\right)$. (9.2.17)

Hence the mass-density is

$$\rho = \frac{3M}{4\pi abc} \quad (9.2.18)$$

The 2nd moments of the mass distribution are $I'_{ab} = \text{diag}(I'_1, I'_2, I'_3)$

where

$$I'_1 = \rho \int_{E(a, b, c)} x^2 d^3x = \rho a^2 (a \cdot b \cdot c) \int_{B_1(0)} x'^2 d^3x'$$

$$= \rho a^2 (a \cdot b \cdot c) 2\pi \int_0^1 r'^4 dr' \int_{-1}^1 d\sigma \sigma^2$$

↳ use polar coord. with x' as polar axis

$$= \frac{1}{3} a^2 (a \cdot b \cdot c) 2\pi \frac{1}{5} \frac{2}{3}$$

$$= \frac{\frac{4\pi}{3} M}{\cancel{a \cdot b \cdot c}} \cdot a^2 \cdot \cancel{a \cdot b \cdot c} \frac{\frac{4\pi}{3}}{5} \frac{1}{3}$$

$$= \frac{1}{5} M a^2$$

(9.2.19)

Correspondingly

$$I_2' = \frac{1}{5} M b^2$$

(9.2.20)

$$I_3' = \frac{1}{5} M c^2$$

(9.2.21)

$$\Rightarrow \Theta = I_1' + I_2' = \frac{1}{5} M (a^2 + b^2)$$

(9.2.22)

$$\varepsilon = (I_1' - I_2') / \Theta = \frac{a^2 - b^2}{a^2 + b^2}$$

(9.2.23)

For $b = a + \delta a$ we get

$$\varepsilon = \frac{a^2 - (a + \delta a)^2}{a + (a + \delta a)^2} = -\frac{\delta a}{a} + \mathcal{O}\left[\left(\frac{\delta a}{a}\right)^2\right]$$

(9.2.24)

If the magnitude of ε is to equal (9.2.10), we have

$$\frac{|\delta a|}{a} = 7.1 \times 10^{-4}$$

(9.2.25)

and with $a = 10 \text{ km}$

$$|\delta a| = 7.1 \text{ m}$$

(9.2.26)

Note: These 7.1 meters are the height of an "equatorial mountain" that would cause an energy loss of the crab-pulsar due to the emission of gravitational waves equal to its total observed energy loss of rotational spin-down. So if, say, we assumed a 1% contribution to that by GW-emission, we would need an ϵ of $1/10$ the just computed value and hence a 70 cm-mountain.

(Note L_{GW} is quadratic in ϵ and hence a $1/100$ -fold L_{GW} means a $1/10$ -fold ϵ). So if we can exclude a, say, more than 1% contribution of L_{GW} to \dot{I} of a pulsar, e.g. because we understand the other (electromagnetic) contributions to \dot{I} , we can limit the height of mountains to, say, below meter scale.

Problem 3

$$\dot{E}_{\text{rad}} \sim \omega^2 \quad (9.3.1)$$

$$\dot{E}_{\text{rad}} \sim \omega \dot{\omega} \quad (9.3.2)$$

If $\dot{E}_{\text{rad}} \sim \omega^{n+1}$ due to some radiation dissipation, have

$$\omega \dot{\omega} \sim \omega^{n+1} \quad \text{i.e.}$$

$$\dot{\omega} = a \omega^n \quad (9.3.3)$$

for some constant a .

The "blinking index" is generally defined by

$$n := \frac{\omega \ddot{\omega}}{\dot{\omega}^2} \quad (9.3.4)$$

which coincides with our notation above. Indeed, from (9.3.3) get

$$\begin{aligned} \ddot{\omega} &= a n \omega^{n-1} \dot{\omega} \\ &= a^2 n \omega^{2n-1} \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\omega \ddot{\omega}}{\dot{\omega}^2} = \frac{a^2 n \omega^{2n}}{a^2 \omega^{2n}} = n$$

For $\omega = \frac{2\pi}{T}$ have

$$\ddot{\omega} = -\frac{2\pi}{T^2} \dot{\Gamma}$$

$$\ddot{\omega} = 2\pi \left(-\frac{\ddot{\Gamma}}{T^2} + 2 \frac{\dot{\Gamma}^2}{T^3} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow h = \frac{\omega \ddot{\omega}}{\dot{\omega}^2} = \frac{-\frac{\ddot{\Gamma}}{T^3} + 2 \frac{\dot{\Gamma}^2}{T^4}}{\dot{\Gamma}^2 / T^4}$$

$$= 2 - \frac{T \ddot{\Gamma}}{\dot{\Gamma}^2}$$

or

$$\frac{T \ddot{\Gamma}}{\dot{\Gamma}^2} = 2 - h$$

Observing the second derivatives $\ddot{\Gamma}$ or $\ddot{\omega}$ would then discriminate between n electromagnetic dipole radiation

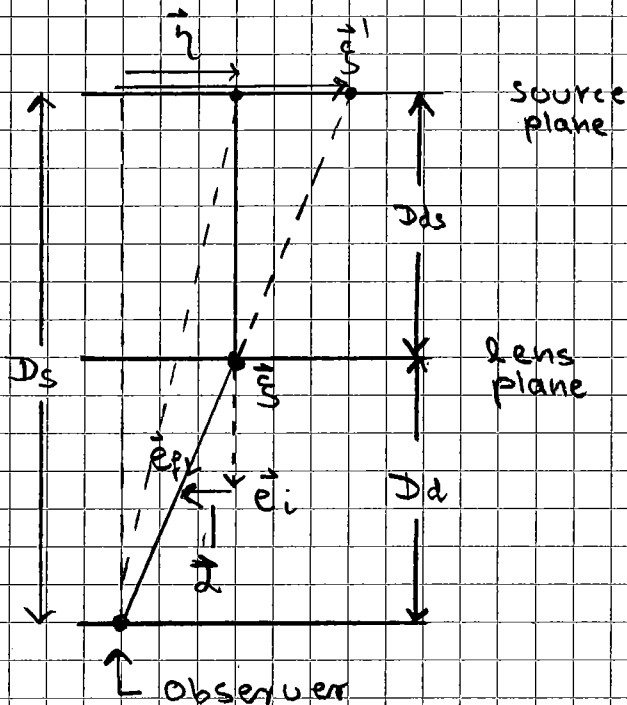
$$L_{\text{mag-dipole}} = \frac{1}{3} \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{1}{c^3} \|\ddot{m}\|^2 \sim \omega^4$$

$$L_{\text{GW}} = \frac{1}{5} G \cdot \frac{1}{c^5} \|\ddot{Q}\|^2 \sim \omega^6$$

So braking index = 3 for mag. dipole and $n = 5$ for GW. Braking indices can and have been measured on young pulsars; - the ranges are huge (up to almost 3000).

See arXiv:2003.13303 (astro-ph.HE).

Problem 4



(9.4.1)

From the picture we immediately read off:

$$\vec{\zeta}' = \frac{D_s}{D_d} \vec{\zeta} \quad (9.4.2)$$

$$\vec{\zeta} = \vec{\zeta}' + (\vec{\zeta} - \vec{\zeta}') \quad (9.4.3)$$

$$\vec{\zeta} - \vec{\zeta}' = D_{ds} \vec{\alpha} \quad (9.4.4)$$

Hence
$$\vec{\zeta}(\vec{\zeta}) = \frac{D_s}{D_d} \vec{\zeta}' + D_{ds} \vec{\alpha}(\vec{\zeta}') \quad (9.4.5)$$

Note that this is only valid in leading-order approximation for small $\alpha := \|\vec{\alpha}\|$.

Let ξ_0 be a scale on the lens-plane

and

$$\eta_0 = \frac{D_s}{D_d} \xi_0 \quad (9.4.6)$$

be the corresponding scale on the source plane. We set

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \vec{x} &= \vec{\xi} / \xi_0 \\ \vec{y} &= \vec{\eta} / \eta_0 \end{aligned} \right\} (9.4.7)$$

and rewrite (9.4.5) as

$$\vec{y}(\vec{x}) = \vec{x} + \frac{D_{ds} D_d}{D_s \xi_0} \vec{\alpha}(\vec{\xi}), \quad (9.4.8)$$

Using

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{\alpha}(\vec{\xi}) &= - \frac{4G}{c^2} \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} d^2 \xi' \Sigma(\vec{\xi}') \frac{\vec{\xi} - \vec{\xi}'}{\|\xi - \xi'\|^2} \\ &= - \frac{4G}{c^2} \xi_0 \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} d^2 x' \Sigma(\xi_0 \vec{x}') \frac{\vec{x} - \vec{x}'}{\|\vec{x} - \vec{x}'\|^2} \end{aligned} \quad (9.4.9)$$

this becomes

$$\vec{y}(\vec{x}) = \vec{x} - \frac{4G}{c^2} \frac{D_{ds} D_d}{D_s} \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} d^2 x' \Sigma(\xi_0 \vec{x}') \frac{\vec{x} - \vec{x}'}{\|\vec{x} - \vec{x}'\|^2} \quad (9.4.10)$$

Since

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{\nabla}_x \ln(\|\vec{x} - \vec{x}'\|) \\ = \frac{1}{\|\vec{x} - \vec{x}'\|} \frac{\vec{x} - \vec{x}'}{\|\vec{x} - \vec{x}'\|} = \frac{\vec{x} - \vec{x}'}{\|\vec{x} - \vec{x}'\|^2} \end{aligned} \quad (9.4.11)$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{y}(\vec{x}) &= \vec{\nabla} \varphi(\vec{x}) \\ \varphi(\vec{x}) &= \frac{1}{2} \|\vec{x}\|^2 - \psi(\vec{x}) \\ \psi(\vec{x}) &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} K(\vec{x}') \ln(\|\vec{x} - \vec{x}'\|) d^2 x' \\ K(\vec{x}) &= \frac{4\pi G}{c^2} \frac{D_d D_s}{D_s} \Sigma(\xi_0 \vec{x}) \end{aligned} \quad (9.4.12)$$

The trace of the Hessian of $\psi(\vec{x})$ is just the Laplacian. Now, just as we have

$$\Delta \frac{1}{\|\vec{x} - \vec{x}'\|} = -4\pi \delta^{(3)}(\vec{x} - \vec{x}') \quad (9.4.13)$$

in \mathbb{R}^3 , we have, in \mathbb{R}^2 :

$$\Delta \ln(\|\vec{x} - \vec{x}'\|) = 2\pi \delta^{(2)}(\vec{x} - \vec{x}') \quad (9.4.14)$$

The proof is entirely analogous to that in 3-dimensions, see below.

Indeed, if we use polar coordinates based at \vec{x}' , $\|\vec{x} - \vec{x}'\| = r$, we have

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \Delta \ln(\|\vec{x} - \vec{x}'\|) &= \Delta \ln r = \\ &= \frac{1}{r} \partial_r (r \partial_r \ln r) \\ &= 0 \quad \text{for } r \neq 0 \end{aligned} \right\} (9.4.15)$$

Now, if $f \in C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^2, \mathbb{R})$ is a test function with compact support inside disk $D_r \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ of radius R , then

$$\begin{aligned} \langle f, \Delta \ln(r) \rangle &= \langle \Delta f, \ln(r) \rangle \\ &= \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{\epsilon < \|\vec{x}\| < R} d^2x \ln(r) \Delta f(\vec{x}) \\ &= \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \left\{ \int d^2x \cancel{\Delta \ln(r)} f(\vec{x}) \right. \\ &\quad + \int_{r=\epsilon} (\vec{n} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) f \underbrace{\ln(r) r}_{\rightarrow 0 \text{ for } \epsilon \rightarrow 0} d\varphi \\ &\quad \left. - \int_{r=\epsilon} \left(\frac{\vec{x}}{r^2} \cdot \vec{n} \right) f r d\varphi \right\} \end{aligned}$$

outward pointing normal
of integration domain
 $= -\vec{x}/r$ at $r = \epsilon$

$$= 2\pi f(0). \quad (9.4.16)$$

$$\text{Hence } \Delta \psi = 2k \quad (9.4.17)$$

The Jacobian of the map $\vec{x} \rightarrow \vec{y}(\vec{x})$ is

$$\frac{\partial y^a}{\partial x^b} = \partial_a \partial_b \varphi = \delta_{ab} - \partial_a \partial_b \varphi \quad (9.4.18)$$

which for small $\vec{\lambda}$ deviates from the identity only by the small quantity $\partial_a \partial_b \varphi$, the Hessian of φ . The 2-dim volume forms transform as

$$\begin{aligned} d^2 y &= \det \left\{ \frac{\partial y^a}{\partial x^b} \right\} d^2 x \\ &\approx (1 - \Delta \varphi) d^2 x \\ &= (1 - 2K) d^2 x \end{aligned} \quad (9.4.19)$$

\Rightarrow Outside $\text{supp}\{K\}$ the lens-map is area preserving (to leading order).

Problem 5

$$\text{If } \sum (\vec{\xi}) = m \delta^{(2)}(\vec{\xi}) \quad (9.5.1)$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \psi(\vec{x}) &= \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \ln(\|\vec{x} - \vec{x}'\|) \\ &\quad \times \frac{4\pi G}{c^2} \frac{D_d D_{ds}}{D_s} m \delta^{(2)}(\xi_0 \vec{x}') d^2 x' \\ &= \frac{4G}{c^2} m \frac{D_d D_{ds}}{D_s \xi_0^2} \ln(\|\vec{x}\|) \\ &= \ln(\|\vec{x}\|) \quad (9.5.2) \end{aligned}$$

If we choose

$$\xi_0 = \left(2 \cdot \frac{2Gm}{c^2} \frac{D_d D_{ds}}{D_s} \right)^{1/2} \quad (9.5.3)$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{y}(\vec{x}) &= \vec{x} - \vec{\nabla} \ln(\|\vec{x}\|) \\ &= \vec{x} - \frac{\vec{x}}{\|\vec{x}\|^2} \\ &= \vec{x} (1 - \|\vec{x}\|^{-2}) \quad (9.5.4) \end{aligned}$$

The map consists of two parts

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \vec{y}(\vec{x}) &= \vec{y}_1(\vec{x}) + \vec{y}_2(\vec{x}) \\ \vec{y}_1(\vec{x}) &= \vec{x} \\ \vec{y}_2(\vec{x}) &= -\frac{\vec{x}}{\|\vec{x}\|^2} \end{aligned} \right\} (9.5.5)$$

Hence it deviates from the identity \vec{y}_1 by a radial inward focussing \vec{y}_2 , which is however area-preserving

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{y}_2(\vec{x}) = -\frac{2}{\|\vec{x}\|^2} + 2 \frac{\vec{x}}{\|\vec{x}\|^3} \cdot \frac{\vec{x}}{\|\vec{x}\|} = 0. \quad (9.5.6)$$

A point \vec{y} on the source plane corresponds to one - or many - pre-image points \vec{x} in the lens plane. Write $r = \|\vec{x}\|$; then

$$\vec{y} = \vec{x}(1 - r^{-2}) \quad (9.5.7)$$

$$\leadsto \|\vec{y}\| = r - r^{-1}$$

$$\leadsto r^2 - r\|\vec{y}\| - 1 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow r_{1,2} = \frac{\|\vec{y}\|}{2} \pm \left(\frac{\|\vec{y}\|^2}{4} + 1 \right)^{1/2}$$

any positive value of r counts

$$\|\vec{x}\| = r = \frac{\|\vec{y}\|}{2} + \left(\frac{\|\vec{y}\|^2}{4} + 1 \right)^{1/2} \quad (9.5.8)$$

If $\tau \neq 1$ then $(1 - \tau^{-2}) \neq 0$ and we can invert (9.5.7)

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{X} &= \frac{\vec{y}}{1 - \tau^{-2}} = \frac{\tau \vec{y}}{\tau - \tau^{-1}} \\ &= \tau \frac{\vec{y}}{\|\vec{y}\|} \\ &= \vec{y} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \left(\frac{1}{4} + \|\vec{y}\|^{-1} \right)^{1/2} \right] \quad (9.5.9)\end{aligned}$$

An exception are the points on the circle $\tau = 1$, all of which are the preimages of $\vec{y} = 0$. That means that the point object at $\vec{y} = 0$ is seen in the sky smeared over the circle

$$\|\vec{X}\| = 1 \Leftrightarrow$$

$$\begin{aligned}\|\vec{X}\| = R_E &= \left(2 \cdot \frac{2Gm}{c^2} \frac{D_d D_{ds}}{D_s} \right)^{1/2} \\ &= 610 R_\odot \left[\frac{m}{M_\odot} \frac{D_s}{\text{kpc}} \frac{D_d}{D_s} \left(1 - \frac{D_d}{D_s} \right) \right]^{1/2}\end{aligned} \quad (9.5.10)$$

Solar radius
and mass.

R_E is called the Einstein radius.

Problem 6

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla^\mu F_{\mu\nu} &= \nabla^\mu (\nabla_\mu A_\nu - \nabla_\nu A_\mu) \\ &= \nabla^\mu \nabla_\mu A_\nu - \nabla^\mu \nabla_\nu A_\mu\end{aligned}\quad (9.6.1)$$

Have

$$\nabla_\alpha \nabla_\beta A_\mu = \nabla_\beta \nabla_\alpha A_\mu - R^\lambda{}_{\mu\alpha\beta} A_\lambda \quad (9.6.2)$$

hence

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla^\mu \nabla_\nu A_\mu &= \nabla_\nu \nabla^\mu A_\mu - R^\lambda{}_{\mu\nu}{}^\mu A_\lambda \\ &= \nabla_\nu \nabla^\mu A_\mu + R^\lambda{}_{\nu} A_\lambda\end{aligned}\quad (9.6.3)$$

$$\leadsto \nabla^\mu F_{\mu\nu} = \square A_\nu - \nabla_\nu \nabla^\mu A_\mu - R^\lambda{}_{\nu} A_\lambda \quad (9.6.4)$$

Imposing covariant Lorenz gauge

$$\nabla^\lambda A_\lambda = 0 \quad (9.6.5)$$

leaves us with

$$\square A_\mu - R^\lambda{}_{\mu} A_\lambda = 0 \quad (9.6.6)$$

Set

$$A_\mu = (a_\mu + \epsilon b_\mu + \mathcal{O}(\epsilon^2)) \exp\left(\frac{i}{\epsilon} \psi\right) \quad (9.6.7)$$

with

$$k_\lambda := \nabla_\lambda \psi \quad (9.6.8)$$

$$a := |g^{\mu\nu} a_\mu a_\nu|^{1/2} \quad (9.6.9)$$

$$f_\mu := a_\mu / a \quad (9.6.10)$$

For any function of the form

$$\varphi = g \exp\left(\frac{i}{\epsilon} \psi\right) \quad (9.6.11)$$

have

$$\nabla_\mu \varphi = \left[(\nabla_\mu + \frac{i}{\epsilon} k_\mu) g \right] \exp\left(\frac{i}{\epsilon} \psi\right) \quad (9.6.12)$$

in particular:

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_\lambda A_\mu = & \left[\frac{i}{\epsilon} k_\lambda a_\mu + \nabla_\lambda a_\mu + i k_\lambda b_\mu \right. \\ & \left. + \text{Terms} \sim \epsilon^{n \gg 1} \right] \exp(\dots) \quad (9.6.13) \end{aligned}$$

$$\leadsto \nabla^\mu A_\mu = \left[\frac{i}{\epsilon} k^\lambda a_\lambda + \nabla^\lambda a_\lambda + i k^\lambda b_\lambda + \text{Terms } \epsilon^{n \gg 1} \right] \exp(\dots) \quad (9.6.14)$$

$$\nabla^\lambda \nabla_\lambda A_\mu = \left[\left(\nabla^\lambda + \frac{i}{\epsilon} k^\lambda \right) \left(\frac{i}{\epsilon} k_\lambda a_\mu + \nabla_\lambda a_\mu + i k_\lambda b_\mu + \text{Terms } \sim \epsilon^{n \gg 1} \right) \right] \exp(\dots) \quad (9.6.15)$$

$$= \left\{ \begin{aligned} & \epsilon^{-2} (-k^\lambda k_\lambda a_\mu) \\ & + \epsilon^{-1} i \left(\nabla^\lambda (k_\lambda a_\mu) + k^\lambda \nabla_\lambda a_\mu + i k^\lambda k_\lambda b_\mu \right) \\ & + \text{Terms } \sim \epsilon^{n \gg 0} \end{aligned} \right\} \exp\left(\frac{i}{\epsilon} \varphi\right) \quad (9.6.16)$$

Hence get from ϵ^{-2} and ϵ^{-1} terms of (9.6.14)

ϵ^{-2} : no condition

$$\epsilon^{-1} : k^\lambda a_\lambda = 0 \quad (9.6.17)$$

$\leadsto a \perp$ to lightlike vector (see below)

$$\Rightarrow g(k, k) \leq 0 \quad (9.6.18)$$

And from (9.6.16):

$$E^{-2}: \quad k^\lambda k_\lambda = 0 \quad (9.6.19)$$

$$E^{-1}: \quad \nabla^\lambda (k_\lambda a_\mu) + k^\lambda \nabla_\lambda a_\mu \\ + i k^\lambda k_\lambda b_\mu = 0 \quad (9.6.20)$$

Using (9.6.19)

$$2 k^\lambda \nabla_\lambda a_\mu + a_\mu \nabla^\lambda k_\lambda = 0$$

or

$$k^\lambda \nabla_\lambda a_\mu = -\frac{1}{2} a_\mu \nabla^\lambda k_\lambda \quad (9.6.21)$$

Since $k_\alpha = \nabla_\alpha \psi$ have

$$\nabla_\alpha k_\beta = \nabla_\alpha \nabla_\beta \psi = \nabla_\beta \nabla_\alpha \psi \\ = \nabla_\beta k_\alpha \quad (9.6.22)$$

Hence, from (9.6.19)

$$0 = \nabla_\nu (k^\mu k_\mu) = 2 k^\mu \nabla_\nu k_\mu \\ = 2 k^\mu \nabla_\mu k_\nu$$

which tells us that any lightlike gradient vector field $k = \nabla \psi$ is geodesic:

$$\nabla_k k = 0 \quad (9.6.23)$$

In fact: Any lightlike, hypersurface orthogonal vector field k is auto-parallel; i.e.

$$k \cdot k = 0 \quad \text{and}$$

$$k^\mu \wedge dk^\mu = 0 \quad (9.6.24)$$

$$\text{implies} \quad \nabla_k k \sim k \quad (9.6.25)$$

Indeed, (9.6.24) is equivalent to

$$\begin{aligned} & k_\alpha (\nabla_\beta k_\gamma - \nabla_\gamma k_\beta) \\ & + k_\beta (\nabla_\gamma k_\alpha - \nabla_\alpha k_\gamma) \\ & + k_\gamma (\nabla_\alpha k_\beta - \nabla_\beta k_\alpha) = 0 \end{aligned} \quad (9.6.26)$$

Multiplication with k^β gives, because of $k^\beta k_\beta = 0$ and $k^\beta \nabla k_\beta = 0$

$$k_\alpha k^\beta \nabla_\beta k_\gamma - k_\gamma k^\beta \nabla_\beta k_\alpha = 0$$

$$\text{or} \quad k^\mu \wedge (\nabla_k k)^\mu = 0 \quad (9.6.27)$$

$$\iff \nabla_k k \sim k$$

For the amplitude we have (9.6.27),
i.e.

$$\nabla_k a = -\frac{1}{2} a (\nabla \cdot k) \quad (9.6.28)$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_k (g(a, a)) &= 2 g(\nabla_k a, a) \\ &= -(\nabla \cdot k) g(a, a) \end{aligned} \quad (9.6.29)$$

Hence for $|a| = \sqrt{-g(a, a)}$

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_k |a| &= \frac{1}{2|a|} \nabla_k (-g(a, a)) \\ &= -(\nabla \cdot k) (-g(a, a)) / 2|a| \\ &= -\frac{1}{2} (\nabla \cdot k) |a| \end{aligned} \quad (9.6.30)$$

Finally, for the polarization vector

$$f = a / |a| \quad \text{have}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_k f &= \frac{1}{|a|} \nabla_k a - \frac{a}{|a|^2} \nabla_k |a| \\ &= \frac{1}{|a|} \left(-\frac{1}{2} a (\nabla \cdot k)\right) - \frac{a}{|a|^2} \left(-\frac{1}{2} (\nabla \cdot k) |a|\right) \\ &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad (9.6.31)$$