Superconducting phases

in neutron star interiors

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ICE

Contents

Contents

1 Neutron Stars in a Nutshell

2 Background on Superconductivity

3 Microscale Neutron Star Model

- Neutron stars are one type of **compact remnant**, created during the final stages of stellar evolution.

- When a massive star of $\sim 8 - 30\, M_\odot$ runs out of fuel, it collapses under its own gravitational attraction and explodes in a **supernova**.

- During collapse, **electron captures** ($p + e^- \rightarrow n + \nu_e$) produce neutrons.

- NS have radii between $9 - 13\,\mathrm{km}$ and weigh $1.2 - 2.2\, M_\odot$, resulting in densities up to $\rho \simeq 10^{15}\,\mathrm{g\,cm^{-3}}$.
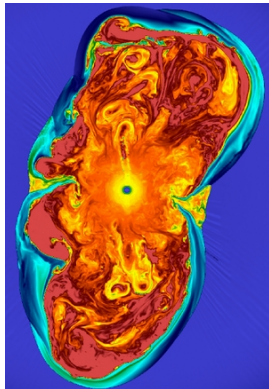

Figure 1: Snapshot of 3D core-collapse supernova simulation (Mösta et al., 2014).

- The interior structure is complex and influenced by the (unknown) equation of state. However, there is a **canonical understanding**.

- After $\sim 10^4$ years neutron stars are in equilibrium and have temperatures of $10^6 - 10^8$ K. They are composed of **distinct layers**.

- For our purposes, we separate neutron stars into a **solid crust** and a **fluid core**, containing three distinct superfluid components.

Crust (lattice nuclei, electrons, neutrons)

10^{11}

10^{14}

Outer core
(Neutrons, protons, electrons)

1

Inner core
???

9

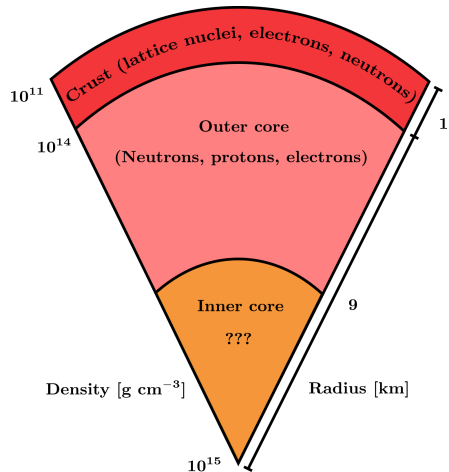Density [g cm^{-3}]   Radius [km]

10^{15}

Figure 2: Sketch of the neutron star interior.

- Neutron stars are hot compared to low-temperature experiments on Earth, but cold in terms of their nuclear physics (Migdal, 1959).

- Neutrons and protons are **fermions** and can become unstable to **Cooper pair formation** due to an attractive contribution to the nucleon-nucleon interaction potential.

- The pairing process is typically described within the microscopic **BCS** theory of superconductivity (Bardeen, Cooper & Schrieffer, 1957).

- Compare the equilibrium to the nucleons' **Fermi temperature**:

$$T_{\mathrm{F}} = k_{\mathrm{B}}^{-1} E_{\mathrm{F}} \sim 10^{12}\,\mathrm{K} \gg 10^{6} - 10^{8}\,\mathrm{K}. \qquad (1)$$

Neutron star matter is strongly influenced by quantum mechanics!

■ Detailed BCS calculations provide the pairing gaps Δ, which are associated with the **critical temperatures** T_c for the superfluid and superconducting phase transitions.
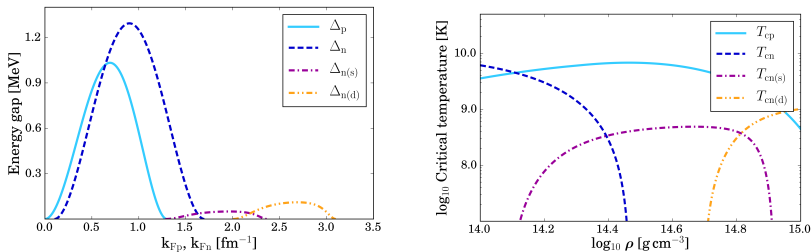

Figure 3: Left: Parametrised proton (singlet) and neutron (singlet, triplet) energy gaps as a function of Fermi wave numbers (Ho, Glampedakis & Andersson, 2012). Right: Critical temperatures of superconductivity/superfluidity as a function of the neutron star density. The values are computed for the NRAPR equation of state (Steiner et al., 2005; Chamel, 2008).
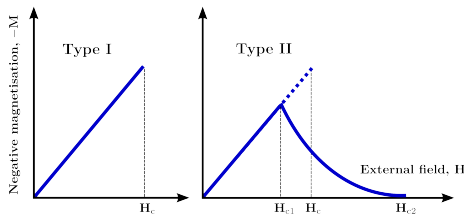
Figure 4: Magnetisation curves for a type-I (left) and type-II (right) medium with the same H_c.

- Superconductors are materials characterised by **vanishing electrical resistance** (perfect conductors) and **expulsion of magnetic flux**.

- They are often studied by their **response to an external field** H, providing information about the **internal magnetisation**. Due to their distinct responses, we historically distinguish **type-I** and **type-II media**.

- Many superconductor features close to the transition temperature are well described with the phenomenological **Ginzburg–Landau model**.
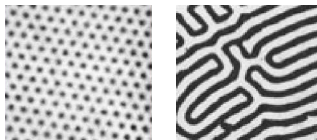
Figure 5: Type-II and intermediate type-I state (Brandt & Essmann, 1987).

■ Due to high conductivity, the magnetic flux cannot be expelled from their interiors ⇒ neutron stars do not exhibit Meissner effect and are in a **metastable** state (Baym, Pethick & Pines, 1969; Ho, Andersson & Graber, 2017).

■ State depends on **characteristic lengthscales** and standard considerations give $\kappa = \lambda_\star/\xi_{\mathrm{ft}} > 1/\sqrt{2}$ in the outer core, i.e., a **type-II state** with

$$H_{c1} = 4\pi \mathcal{E}_{\mathrm{ft}}/\phi_0 \sim 10^{14}\,\mathrm{G}, \qquad H_{c2} = \phi_0/(2\pi\xi_{\mathrm{ft}}^2) \sim 10^{15}\,\mathrm{G}. \qquad (2)$$

■ Each fluxtube carries a **flux quantum** $\phi_0 = hc/2e \approx 2.1 \times 10^{-7}\,\mathrm{G\,cm^2}$. All flux quanta add up to the total magnetic flux, so that the **averaged magnetic induction** is related to the fluxtube area density $\mathcal{N}_{\mathrm{ft}}$:

$$B = \mathcal{N}_{\mathrm{ft}}\phi_0, \quad \rightarrow \quad \mathcal{N}_{\mathrm{ft}} \approx 4.8 \times 10^{18}\,(B/10^{12}\,\mathrm{G})\,\mathrm{cm^{-2}}. \qquad (3)$$

- **Magnetic field evolution** in the outer core should be related to the mechanisms affecting the fluxtubes' motion, but these are rather poorly understood (Muslimov & Tsygan, 1985; Graber, 2017, e.g.).

- It is possible to use techniques of classical magnetohydrodynamics to derive a **superconducting induction equation** (Graber et al., 2015). For the standard coupling mechanism (electron scattering), one finds:

$$\partial_t B^i \approx \epsilon^{ijk} \nabla_j \left[\epsilon_{klm} v_{\mathrm{p}}^l B^m - \frac{\kappa B}{2\pi} \frac{m}{m_{\mathrm{p}}^*} \left(\mathcal{B}' \hat{B}^l \nabla_l \hat{B}_k + \mathcal{B} \epsilon_{klm} \hat{B}^l \hat{B}^s \nabla_s \hat{B}^m \right) \right], \quad (4)$$

with inertial, conservative (Hall-like) and dissipative (Ohmic-like) term.

- The corresponding **timescales** are too slow to drive field evolution on observable timescales, i.e., $\tau_{\mathrm{diss}} \approx 10^9$ yrs and $\tau_{\mathrm{cons}} \approx 10^{11}$ yrs.

- Our understanding of **macroscopic NS superconductivity** is mainly based on **time-independent equilibrium** and **single-component** considerations.

- It is unclear what happens in the **stellar interior at different densities** as the star cools below T_c and when **entrainment** is included $\Rightarrow$ how can we better understand the **SC phase** and its formation?

- Focus on the **two-condensate aspect** and expand on **earlier works** by Alpar, Langer & Sauls (1984); Charbonneau & Zhitnitsky (2007); Alford & Good (2008); Haber & Schmitt (2017); see also Kobyakov (2020).

Wood, Graber & Newton (2020): Employ techniques for laboratory systems to construct **phase diagrams** by deducing the protons' ground state in presence of a magnetic field as a function of density.

■ With entrainment, **velocity-dependent terms** in energy density read

$$F_{\text{vel}} = \tfrac{1}{2}\rho_{\text{p}}|\mathbf{V}_{\text{p}}|^2 + \tfrac{1}{2}\rho_{\text{n}}|\mathbf{V}_{\text{n}}|^2 - \tfrac{1}{2}\rho^{\text{pn}}|\mathbf{V}_{\text{p}} - \mathbf{V}_{\text{n}}|^2, \tag{5}$$

where ρ_{p} and ρ_{n} are the true mass densities, the coefficient $\rho^{\text{pn}} < 0$ determines the strength of entrainment (Andreev & Bashkin, 1975) and $\mathbf{V}_{\text{p,n}}$ are superfluid velocities related to canonical momenta, i.e., $\propto \nabla \arg \psi_{\text{x}}$.

■ In a mean-field framework, entrainment first enters at 4th order in $\psi_{\text{n,p}}$ and 2nd order in their derivatives, i.e., we require a linear combination of

$$|\psi_x|^2|\boldsymbol{\nabla}\psi_y|^2, \ \ \psi_x\psi_y\boldsymbol{\nabla}\psi_x^\star \cdot \boldsymbol{\nabla}\psi_y^\star, \ \ \psi_x\psi_y^\star\boldsymbol{\nabla}\psi_x^\star \cdot \boldsymbol{\nabla}\psi_y, \ \ \psi_x^\star\psi_y^\star\boldsymbol{\nabla}\psi_x \cdot \boldsymbol{\nabla}\psi_y, \tag{6}$$

where $x, y \in \{\text{p}, \text{n}\}$. Galilean invariance can be used to simplify the sum and is crucial to link our energy density to **nuclear physics models**.

■ Total Helmholtz free energy density is obtained by adding entrainment terms to the usual free energy of a two-component superconductor, and introducing the magnetic vector potential **A** by **minimal coupling**:

$$
\begin{aligned}
F[\psi_{\mathrm{p}}, \psi_{\mathrm{n}}, \mathbf{A}] = {} & F_0 - \mu_{\mathrm{p}}|\psi_{\mathrm{p}}|^2 - \mu_{\mathrm{n}}|\psi_{\mathrm{n}}|^2 + \frac{g_{\mathrm{pp}}}{2}|\psi_{\mathrm{p}}|^4 + \frac{g_{\mathrm{nn}}}{2}|\psi_{\mathrm{n}}|^4 + g_{\mathrm{pn}}|\psi_{\mathrm{p}}|^2|\psi_{\mathrm{n}}|^2 \\
& + \frac{\hbar^2}{4m_{\mathrm{u}}}\left|\left(\boldsymbol{\nabla} - \frac{2\mathrm{i}e}{\hbar c}\mathbf{A}\right)\psi_{\mathrm{p}}\right|^2 + \frac{\hbar^2}{4m_{\mathrm{u}}}\left|\boldsymbol{\nabla}\psi_{\mathrm{n}}\right|^2 + \frac{1}{8\pi}|\boldsymbol{\nabla}\times\mathbf{A}|^2 \\
& + h_1\left|\left(\boldsymbol{\nabla} - \frac{2\mathrm{i}e}{\hbar c}\mathbf{A}\right)(\psi_{\mathrm{n}}^{\star}\psi_{\mathrm{p}})\right|^2 + \tfrac{1}{2}(h_2 - h_1)\boldsymbol{\nabla}(|\psi_{\mathrm{p}}|^2)\cdot\boldsymbol{\nabla}(|\psi_{\mathrm{n}}|^2) \\
& + \tfrac{1}{4}h_3\left(\left|\boldsymbol{\nabla}(|\psi_{\mathrm{p}}|^2)\right|^2 + \left|\boldsymbol{\nabla}(|\psi_{\mathrm{n}}|^2)\right|^2\right), \tag{7}
\end{aligned}
$$

where F_0 is an arbitrary reference level and proton Cooper pairs have charge 2e. μ_{p} and μ_{n} are the chemical potentials, while g_{pp} and g_{nn} define the self-repulsion of the condensates, and g_{pn} their mutual repulsion.

Micro model | Skyrme connection

- We use the full **Skyrme model** to determine the **stellar composition** (solving for baryon conservation, charge neutrality, beta equilibrium and equilibrium due to weak processes) (Chamel, 2008) but a separate **SF/SC gap parametrisation** (Andersson, Comer & Glampedakis, 2005; Ho et al., 2015).

- We also connect the Skyrme interaction to our energy functional to obtain **coefficients** h_i that allow a **realistic description** of the stellar interior:

$$h_1 = C_0^\tau - C_1^\tau, \qquad h_2 = -4C_0^{\Delta\rho} + 4C_1^{\Delta\rho}, \tag{8}$$

$$h_3 = h_4 = C_0^\tau + C_1^\tau - 4C_0^{\Delta\rho} - 4C_1^{\Delta\rho}. \tag{9}$$

- The parameter h_1 controls the **entrainment** (Chamel & Haensel, 2006)

$$\rho^{\mathrm{pn}} = -\frac{2}{\hbar^2} h_1 \rho_{\mathrm{n}} \rho_{\mathrm{p}}. \tag{10}$$

- To find the **ground state** in the presence of an **imposed magnetic field**, we can control (i) the magnetic flux density, $\mathbf{B} = \nabla \times \mathbf{A}$, by imposing a mean flux $\overline{B}$, or (ii) the thermodynamic external magnetic field $\mathbf{H}$.

- Case (i) approximates the **neutron star interior**, which becomes super-conducting as the star cools in the presence of a pre-existing field.
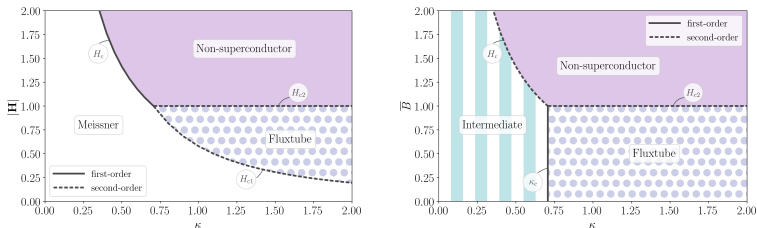

Figure 6: Phase diagrams for a one-component superconductor, for different values of the Ginzburg-Landau parameter, κ. The experiment with an imposed external field, $|\mathbf{H}|$, in nondimensional units is shown on the left, while the right panel shows the phase transitions in the experiment with an imposed mean flux, $\overline{B}$.

- We solve the Euler-Lagrange equations with **quasi-periodic boundary conditions** (Wood et al., 2019), which involves specifying the domain size $L_x \times L_y$, and the number N of magnetic flux quanta within the domain ⇒ different choices allow comparing **square** and **hexagonal lattices**.

- The Helmholtz free energy per magnetic flux quantum per unit length is

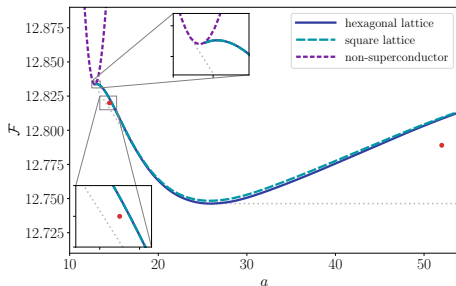$$\mathcal{F} \equiv \frac{1}{N} \int_{x=0}^{L_x} \int_{y=0}^{L_y} F \, \mathrm{d}x \, \mathrm{d}y \,. \tag{11}$$

Figure 7: Helmholtz free energy per flux quantum per unit length, $\mathcal{F}$, as a function of the area per magnetic flux quantum, $a = 2\pi/\overline{B}$, for the NRAPR EoS at $n_b = 0.2831/\mathrm{fm}^3$. The energy in the square (long-dashed, cyan) and hexagonal (solid, blue) lattice states matches smoothly onto the energy of the non-superconducting state (short-dashed, purple) at $a \simeq 12.9$.

- Choosing a sufficiently large domain, and values of a, we obtain examples of **inhomogeneous ground states** $\Rightarrow$ for NRAPR at $n_{\mathrm{b}} = 0.2831/\mathrm{fm}^3$ with $a = 14.5$ plus $N = 24$ (left) and $a = 52$ plus $N = 14$ (right).

- In both cases, the aspect ratio is $\sqrt{3}$ and the **pure hexagonal lattice** a possible state but not the ground state $\Rightarrow \mathcal{F}$ is lower than for pure lattice.
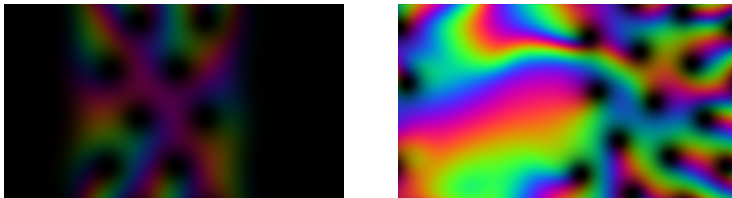

Figure 8: Inhomogeneous ground states for NRAPR. Brightness and hue indicate density and phase of the proton order parameter, ψ_{p}, respectively. The left panel shows a mixture of non-superconducting protons and hexagonal fluxtube lattice, while the right one is mixture of Meissner state and hexagonal fluxtube lattice.

- When such mixed states are present, second-order phase transitions are replaced by **first-order transitions** at $H_{c1'} < H_{c1}$ and $H_{c2'} > H_{c2}$.

- We can determine **critical fields** (partially semi-analytically, partially numerically) and construct phase-diagrams of the superconducting state throughout the neutron star core. For the **LNS** equation of state:
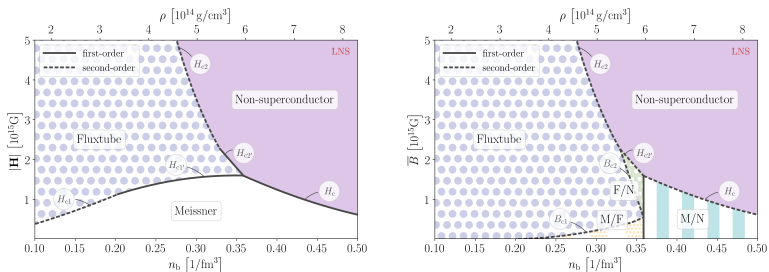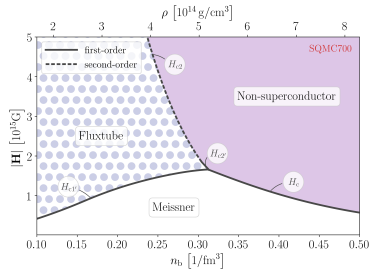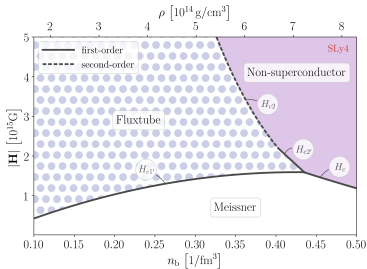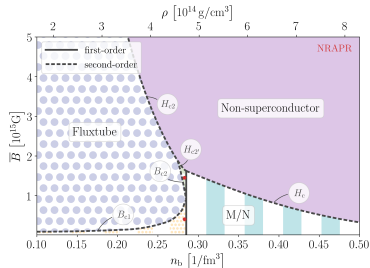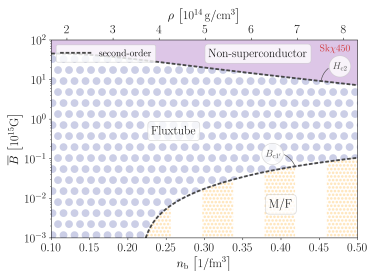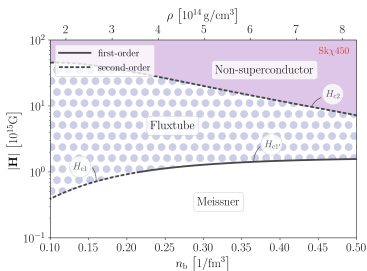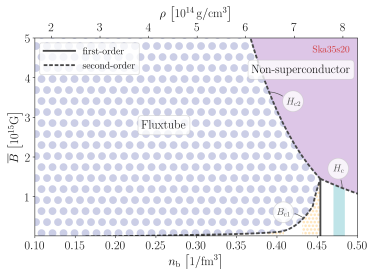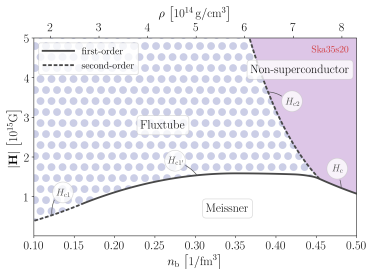

Figure 9: Phase diagrams for LNS. There are inhomogeneous regimes of the Meissner/Non-superconducting (M/N), Meissner/Fluxtube (M/F) and Fluxtube/Non-superconducting (F/N) states.
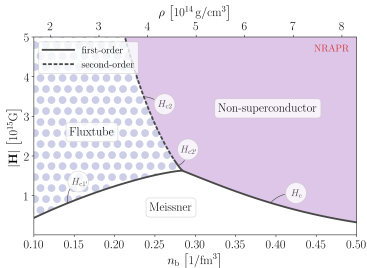
- Entrainment causes **type-1.5 SC** due to fluxtube repulsion on short scales and attraction on large scales $\Rightarrow$ when imposing $\overline{B}$, mixed states appear.

- For typical EoSs, the outer core of pulsars with $\lesssim 10^{14}$ G is not a type-II superconductor but mainly a type-1.5 system, where **magnetic flux is irregularly distributed** and **retained**.

- In the inner core, flux is distributed in an **intermediate type-I state**. The transition can be estimated via:
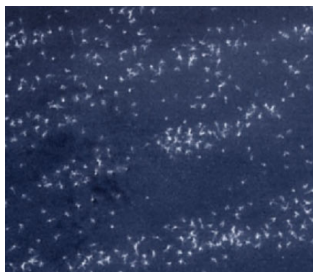
Figure 10: Magnetic decoration image of multi-band superconductor Mg2B (Moshchalkov et al., 2009).

$$\frac{\lambda_\star}{\xi_{\rm ft}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sqrt{1 + h_1 \frac{n_{\rm n}}{n_{\rm p}}}. \qquad (12)$$
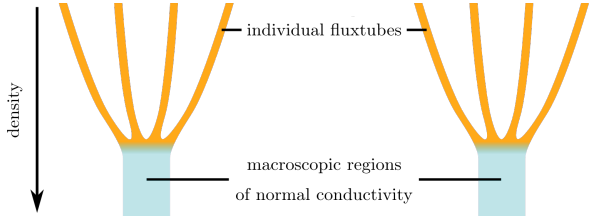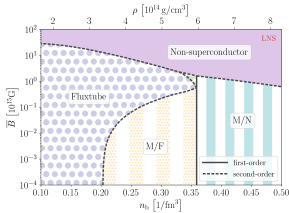
Figure 11: Zoomed-out version of the LNS phase diagram for a fixed mean flux (left). Schematic representation of the magnetic flux at the transition from outer to inner core (right).

- At low densities, protons are in a **type-1.5 regime**, where flux is quantized into thin fluxtubes (orange) of preferred separation (overall confined to a small fraction of the total volume).

- In the **type-I inner core**, flux is contained in macroscopic regions of normal conductivity (light blue) that alternate with flux-free regions.

Micro model   Caveats

- We assume that the **Skyrme model** correctly describes interactions up to the neutron star centre. If exotic particles / non-nucleonic matter are present, this would modify the picture at high densities.

- Our **superfluid gap models** (p: CCDK, n: TToa) are motivated by cooling observations of the Cas A supernova remnant but inconsistent with the mean-field description of the interacting particles.

- Our Ginzburg–Landau model is **time-independent** and neglects **rotation**, i.e., we do not capture dynamics or incorporate neutron vortices *yet*, which are crucial to get the full macroscopic picture.

- For a full dynamical model, we would need to incorporate the **normal electron component**. We do not have the formalism to consistently include such a (particle) component in the Ginzburg–Landau model *yet*.

Micro model — Conclusions

- Neutron stars contain (at least) **three superfluids** that influence the stars' macroscopic properties. Theoretical modelling is difficult $\Rightarrow$ use **laboratory counterparts** to understand them better.

- We use a **phenomenological two-component Ginzburg–Landau model** and connect it to the Skyrme interaction to determine the protons' ground state throughout the neutron star core $\Rightarrow$ **inhomogeneous flux distributions** exist in most of the core.

- **Magnetic field evolution** in the core is poorly understood but crucial to explain observed field changes in pulsars (Narayan & Ostriker, 1990), the high activity of magnetars (Thompson & Duncan, 1995), or neutron star 'metamorphosis' (Viganò et al., 2013) $\Rightarrow$ to **develop macroscopic models** we need to better understand microphysics.
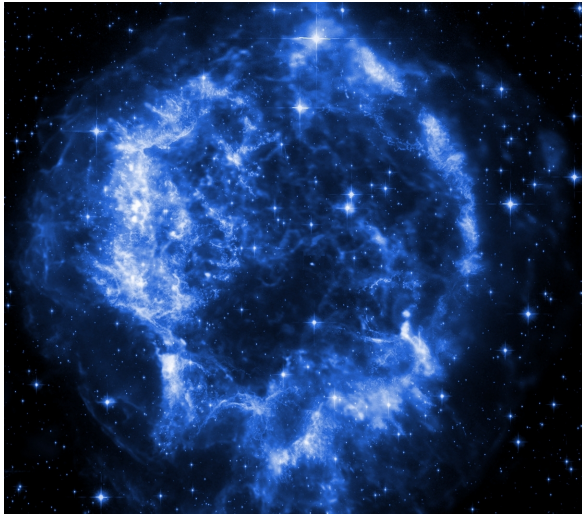
- To find the **ground state** for our system in the presence of an **imposed magnetic field**, we can perform two distinct experiments: we control (i) the magnetic flux density, $\mathbf{B} = \boldsymbol{\nabla} \times \mathbf{A}$, by imposing a mean or net magnetic flux, or (ii) the thermodynamic external magnetic field, $\mathbf{H}$.

- In the first case, we minimise the **Helmholtz free energy**, $\mathcal{F} = \langle F \rangle$, where the angled brackets represent some kind of integral over our physical domain $\Rightarrow$ closely approximates the conditions in the neutron star core, which becomes superconducting as the star cools in the presence of pre-existing magnetic field. The ground state can be **inhomogeneous**.

- In the second case, we minimise the dimensionless **Gibbs free energy**, $\mathcal{G} = \mathcal{F} - 2\kappa^2 \mathbf{H} \cdot \langle \mathbf{B} \rangle$. In an unbounded domain, the ground state is guaranteed to be **homogeneous**, and the phase diagram simpler.

■ Whether we work with $\mathcal{F}$ or $\mathcal{G}$, we obtain the same equations of motion:

$$\kappa^2 \boldsymbol{\nabla} \times (\boldsymbol{\nabla} \times \mathbf{A}) = \Im \left\{ \psi_{\mathrm{p}}^{\star}(\boldsymbol{\nabla} - i\mathbf{A})\psi_{\mathrm{p}} + \frac{h_1}{\epsilon}\psi_{\mathrm{n}}\psi_{\mathrm{p}}^{\star}(\boldsymbol{\nabla} - i\mathbf{A})(\psi_{\mathrm{n}}^{\star}\psi_{\mathrm{p}}) \right\}, \quad (13)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\nabla^2 \psi_{\mathrm{n}} = {} & R^2(|\psi_{\mathrm{n}}|^2 - 1)\psi_{\mathrm{n}} + \alpha(|\psi_{\mathrm{p}}|^2 - 1)\psi_{\mathrm{n}} \\
& - h_1\psi_{\mathrm{p}}(\boldsymbol{\nabla} + i\mathbf{A})^2(\psi_{\mathrm{p}}^{\star}\psi_{\mathrm{n}}) \\
& - \psi_{\mathrm{n}}\nabla^2\left(\frac{h_2 - h_1}{2}|\psi_{\mathrm{p}}|^2 + \frac{h_3}{2\epsilon}|\psi_{\mathrm{n}}|^2\right),
\end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
(\boldsymbol{\nabla} - i\mathbf{A})^2 \psi_{\mathrm{p}} = {} & (|\psi_{\mathrm{p}}|^2 - 1)\psi_{\mathrm{p}} + \frac{\alpha}{\epsilon}(|\psi_{\mathrm{n}}|^2 - 1)\psi_{\mathrm{p}} \\
& - \frac{h_1}{\epsilon}\psi_{\mathrm{n}}(\boldsymbol{\nabla} - i\mathbf{A})^2(\psi_{\mathrm{n}}^{\star}\psi_{\mathrm{p}}) \\
& - \psi_{\mathrm{p}}\nabla^2\left(\frac{h_2 - h_1}{2\epsilon}|\psi_{\mathrm{n}}|^2 + \frac{h_3}{2}|\psi_{\mathrm{p}}|^2\right).
\end{aligned} \quad (15)$$

- F is approximated numerically on a regular 2D grid. The order parameters ψ_{p} and ψ_{n} are defined on the gridpoints as $\psi_{\mathrm{p}}^{i,j}$ and $\psi_{\mathrm{n}}^{i,j}$, while the vector field **A** has two components, (A_x, A_y), defined on the corresponding links between the gridpoints, i.e., we have $A_x^{i+1/2,j}$ and $A_y^{i,j+1/2}$.

- The gauge coupling between ψ_{p} and **A** is implemented using a **Peierls substitution** to preserve (discrete) gauge symmetry, e.g.,

$$\left| \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \mathrm{i}A_x \right) \psi_{\mathrm{p}} \right| = \left| \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \exp(-\int \mathrm{i}A_x \, \mathrm{d}x)\psi_{\mathrm{p}} \right|$$

$$\Rightarrow \left| \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \mathrm{i}A_x \right) \psi_{\mathrm{p}} \right|^{i+1/2,j} \simeq \frac{1}{\delta x} \left| \exp(-\mathrm{i}A_x^{i+1/2,j} \, \delta x)\psi_{\mathrm{p}}^{i+1,j} - \psi_{\mathrm{p}}^{i,j} \right| . \quad (16)$$

- This leads to a discrete approximation $\mathcal{F}_{\mathbf{dis}}[\psi_{\mathrm{p}}^{i,j}, \psi_{\mathrm{n}}^{i,j}, A_x^{i+1/2,j}, A_y^{i,j+1/2}]$ and we obtain the ground state using a gradient-descent, iteration method.

- In the outer core, initially, only protons are superconducting (neutrons remain normal), so we model the **formation of the superconducting phase** with a single-component time-dependent Ginzburg-Landau model.

- Study the **dynamics of the phase transition** under different circumstances in analogy to numerical experiments of laboratory systems (Liu, Mondello & Goldenfeld, 1991; Frahm, Ullah & Dorsey, 1991).
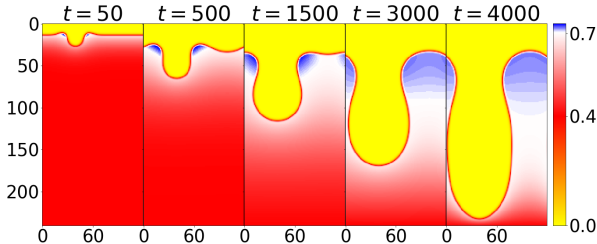

Figure 12: Evolution of the magnetic field in a type-I system in the nucleation regime.

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