

White Dwarfs:

When WD's mass exceeds M_{Ch} , it begins to collapse and $\rho \uparrow$. At some point, the e^- Fermi energy $E_F = \sqrt{p_F^2 + m_e^2}$ exceeds $(m_n - m_p)c^2 = 1.29 \text{ MeV}$. This happens at density $\rho \approx 1.2 \times 10^7 \text{ g/cm}^3$. At higher ρ , it becomes energetically favorable for e^- 's to inverse-beta decay (combine) with protons to form neutrons \Rightarrow neutron star.

More realistically, WD contains CO, not free protons. What really happens is that e^- 's capture on nuclei to "form increasingly n-rich nuclei. At density $\rho \approx 4 \times 10^8 \text{ g/cm}^3$, neutrons begin to bleed from nuclei. This "ionization" of n's from nuclei softens the EOS, and star continues to collapse until $\rho \approx 10^{14} \text{ g/cm}^3$ at which point neutron degeneracy pressure becomes sufficient to support the star.

The density $\rho_{nuc} \approx 2 \times 10^{14} \text{ g/cm}^3$ is the density of ordinary nuclear matter. The EOS at higher densities is determined by nuclear theory, which is highly uncertain.

More quantitatively, there will be degenerate n, p, and e^- with Fermi energies $E_F(n)$, $E_F(p)$, $E_F(e)$. If $E_F(n) < E_F(p) + E_F(e)$, then neutrons cannot β decay. In thermal equilibrium, $E_F(n) = E_F(p) + E_F(e)$, and $p_F = (3n/8\pi)^{1/3} h$ for all. At ρ_{nuc} ,

$$E_F(n) \approx m_n c^2 + \frac{[p_F(n)]^2}{2m_n} \quad E_F(p) \approx m_p c^2 + \frac{[p_F(p)]^2}{2m_p}$$

$$\text{but } E_F(e) \approx p_F(e)c.$$

Using $n_e = n_p$, we find

$$\left(\frac{3n_p}{8\pi}\right)^{1/3} hc + \left(\frac{3n_p}{8\pi}\right)^{2/3} \frac{h^2}{2m_p} - \left(\frac{3n_n}{8\pi}\right)^{2/3} \frac{h^2}{2m_n} \approx (m_n - m_p)c^2 = 1.3 \text{ MeV}$$

Can then solve this at any density noting that

$$(n_n + n_p) = \rho/m_p.$$

$$\text{E.g., at } \rho_{nuc} \quad (n_e/n_n) \approx \frac{1}{200} \Rightarrow \text{neutron star!}$$

Mass-Radius relation for NSs:

The WD central density relation,

$$\rho_c = \frac{3}{4\pi} \left(\frac{M}{M_\odot} \right)^2 \frac{m_\mu}{(c/\text{sec})^3} \left(\frac{B}{\text{cm}^3} \right)^3$$

is easily modified for NSs by $y_e = 1$ $m_\mu \rightarrow m_n$.

Likewise, the radius is (roughly)

$$R = \left(\frac{3}{4\pi} \right)^{1/3} 0.77 y_e^{5/3} \left(\frac{M_\odot}{M} \right)^{1/3} \alpha_G^{-1/2} \frac{h}{m_n c}$$

$\left(\frac{3}{4\pi} \right)^{1/3}$
reference
to WD

$$\approx (0.0135) 2^{5/3} \frac{m_\mu}{m_n} \left(\frac{M_\odot}{M} \right)^{1/3} \approx 2.1 \times 10^5 \text{ km}$$

$$\approx 2.1 \times 10^{-5} R_\odot \left(\frac{M}{1.4 M_\odot} \right)^{-1/3} = 1.5 \times 10^6 \text{ cm} \left(\frac{M}{1.4 M_\odot} \right)^{1/3}$$

$$\approx 15 \text{ km} \left(\frac{M}{1.4 M_\odot} \right)^{1/3}$$

A few comments/caveats:

- As will be seen below, the (Schwarzschild) radius of a $1.4 M_\odot$ BH is $R_{sh} \approx 3 \text{ km}$. Therefore the NS is in the strong-field regime of GR. Alternatively, the redshift from the surface of the neutron star is

$$\frac{GM}{c^2} \frac{\Delta\lambda}{\lambda} \approx 0.24$$

Thus, GR corrections to the Newtonian eqn. of hydrostatic equil will give rise to $\mathcal{O}(20\%)$ correction.

This GR eqn. of hydrostatic equilibrium is known as the Tolman-Oppenheimer-Volkoff (TOV) equation.

② The approximation $P \propto \rho^{5/3}$ used to derive $M \propto R^{3/2}$ breaks down already for $\approx 1.4 M_{\odot}$; in fact $E_F \approx m_n c^2$ there, and so the a more accurate EOS must be used.

③ In our simple calculation, $\rho_c \approx 3.3 \times 10^{17} \text{ g/cm}^3 \gg \rho_{\text{nuc}}$.

Uncertainties in the nuclear EOS at these high densities give rise to additional uncertainties in the NS M-R reln.

E.g., nucleon-nucleon repulsion might stiffen EOS. But if new particles (e.g., π^0 's, K^0 's, hyperons) are produced at high ρ , this might soften the EOS.

④ The gravitational binding energy (c^2) is

$$\frac{E_B}{c^2} = \frac{GM^2}{R} \approx 0.1 (1.4 M_{\odot}).$$

Thus, the mass of a NS is smaller than might expect from Newtonian calculation.

Maximum Mass for NSs:

Incidentally, people now try to determine the nuclear EOS by measuring the M-R reln for NSs. E.g., GM/R can be obtained from redshifts of lines emitted from the NS surface. The surface gravity GM/R^2 can be measured through its effects on pressure broadening of lines. A combined measurement of M/R and M/R^2 can be used to obtain M and R . Are difficult but ambitious people are trying.

Maximum Mass for WDs:

Nearly scaling the WD result, we obtain

$$M_{ch} \simeq 6 M_{\odot} \quad \text{for NS.}$$

However, all complications above are important, and generally tend (especially GR) to reduce M_{ch} . State-of-the-art calculations for different EOSs give $M_{ch} \simeq 1.5 - 3 M_{\odot}$.

For fun, suppose we had a star consisting of incompressible matter of density ρ_0 . In Newtonian gravity,

$$\frac{dP}{dr} = -\frac{Gm(r)\rho_0}{r^2} \Rightarrow P(r) = \frac{2\pi}{3} G(R^2 - r^2), \text{ and}$$

$$P_c \equiv P(r=0) = \frac{2\pi}{3} G\rho_0^2 R^2 = \left(\frac{\pi}{6}\right)^{1/3} G M^{2/3} \rho_0^{4/3}.$$

In GR, though, the TOV eqn is

$$\frac{dP}{dr} = -\frac{Gm\rho}{r^2} \frac{(1+P/c^2)(1+4\pi r^3 P/mc^2)}{(1-2Gm/rc^2)}$$

which integrates to

$$P = \rho_0 c^2 \left[\text{something complicated} \right]$$

$$\text{and } P_c = \rho_0 c^2 \left[\frac{1 - (1 - 2GM/rc^2)^{1/2}}{3(1 - 2GM/rc^2)^{1/2} - 1} \right].$$

Then, have $P_c < \infty$ only if $\frac{GM}{Rc^2} < \frac{4}{9}$,

which is a slightly stronger bound than $\frac{M}{Rc^2} < 2$ from the Schwarzschild radius.

For constant density ρ_0 , this yields

$$\begin{aligned} M &< \frac{8}{27} \left(\frac{c^2}{G}\right)^{3/2} \left(\frac{3}{4\pi\rho_0}\right)^{1/2} \\ &= 7.5 \left(\rho_0/\rho_{nuc}\right)^{1/2} M_{\odot} \end{aligned}$$

A stiffer, steeper bound to M/R is obtained by considering causality, which requires $c_s^2 = (\partial P / \partial \rho) < c^2$, or $P = \rho c^2$. This results in $\frac{GM}{Rc^2} < 2.9$

Pulsar spin-down:

Pulsars are rapidly rotating NSs that overproduce pulsating signals with periods \sim msec - secs. E.g., the Crab pulsar in the Crab nebula from a SN in 1054 AD. It has period $P = 33$ ms and is slowing down with

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = \frac{ms}{40 \text{ yrs}}$$

The rapidity of the pulses identifies pulsars as NSs. A star has a max spin freq ω_{max} from

$$\frac{GM}{R^2} = R\omega_{max}^2 \Rightarrow P_{min} = \frac{2\pi}{\omega_{max}} = 2\pi \left(\frac{R^3}{GM} \right)^{1/2} \sim t_{eff}$$

$$\text{or } P_{min} = 10^4 \left(\frac{R/R_0}{(M/M_0)^{1/2}} \right)^{3/2} \text{ sec}$$

$$\text{for } M \sim M_0 \quad P \sim 33 \text{ msec} \Rightarrow R \sim (10^7)^{2/3} R_0 \sim 10^7 \text{ cm} \sim 100 \text{ km}$$

If we approximate NS by uniform-density sphere, then the moment of inertia is

$$I = \frac{2}{5} MR^2 = 2.5 \times 10^{45} \left(\frac{M}{1.4 M_0} \right) \left(\frac{R}{1.5 \times 10^6 \text{ cm}} \right)^2 \text{ g-cm}^2$$

The Crab pulsar slows down at a rate

$$\frac{d\omega}{dt} = -2.4 \times 10^{-9} \text{ sec}^{-2}$$

implying a spin-energy loss rate

$$\frac{dE_{rot}}{dt} = I\omega \frac{d\omega}{dt} \approx 4.6 \times 10^{38} \frac{\text{erg}}{\text{sec}}$$

which is comparable to the Crab-nebula luminosity, $5 \times 10^{38} \frac{\text{erg}}{\text{sec}}$

The central region for the pulsar is magnetized
 volume. If NS has (like Earth) a B field magnetized from
 the to go axis by an angle θ , it radiates with

$$\frac{dE}{dt} = \frac{2}{3c^3} m^2 \omega^4 \sin^2 \theta \quad \left(= \frac{2}{3c^3} |\ddot{d}|^2 \right),$$

where $m \approx B_p R^3$ is the magnetic dipole which is
 required for Crab to be ~~$m \sin \theta \approx 3 \times 10^{29} \text{ G-cm}^3$~~
~~or $B_p \approx m \sin \theta \approx 4 \times 10^{30} \text{ G-cm}^3$~~ or

$$B \sim 10^{12} \text{ G.}$$

This seems large, but B -field can be enhanced by large factor
 if initially magnetized pre-collapse iron core contains
 the B field as it collapses.

If B-dipole radiation is at work in the Crab, then

$$\frac{dE}{dt} = I \omega \frac{d\omega}{dt} \propto \omega^4 \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{d\omega}{dt} = -C \omega^3$$

where $C = 3.5 \times 10^{-16} \text{ sec}$ for $\omega = 190 \text{ s}^{-1}$ $\frac{d\omega}{dt} = -2.4 \times 10^{-9} \text{ s}^{-2}$.
 Integrating,

$$t = \frac{1}{2C} \left[\frac{1}{\omega^2} - \frac{1}{\omega_0^2} \right] < \frac{1}{2C\omega^2} = 1253 \text{ years,}$$

$\omega_0 < \omega$

as opposed to historical age ($\approx 950 \text{ yrs}$) since SN.

The braking index is defined to be

$$n \equiv \frac{-\omega \dot{\omega}}{\omega^2}.$$

It is $n=3$ for magnetic-dipole model and, e.g., 5 for
 emission of GWS. Measured to be 2.515 for Crab and
 2.83 for PSR1509-58.

Star with current:

Suppose the NS has a \vec{B} dipole aligned with spin axis:

$$\vec{B} = B_p R^3 \left(\frac{\cos\theta}{r^3} \hat{e}_r + \frac{\sin\theta}{2r^3} \hat{e}_\theta \right).$$

Inside NS, are enough free e^- 's so that MHD approximation holds; i.e., the e^- 's rearrange themselves so that they are not accelerated — they short out the fields. I.e.,

$$\vec{E}^{(in)} + \frac{\vec{\Omega} \times \vec{r}}{c} \times \vec{B}^{(in)} = 0.$$

Thus, just inside the surface, $\vec{E}^{(in)} = \frac{R\Omega B_p \sin\theta}{c} \left(\frac{\sin\theta}{2} \hat{e}_r - \cos\theta \hat{e}_\theta \right)$

The \hat{r} component of \vec{E} ~~on just outside~~ may jump at the NS surface if charges accumulate there, but the tangential component is const. Thus, ^{just} outside the star,

$$E_\theta^{(out)} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial\theta} \left(\frac{R\Omega B_p \sin^2\theta}{2c} \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial\theta} \left[\frac{R\Omega B_p}{3c} P_2(\cos\theta) \right].$$

Outside the star, $\vec{E}^{(out)} = -\vec{\nabla}\phi$ with $\nabla^2\phi = 0$, implying

$$\phi = -\frac{\Omega B_p}{3c} \frac{R^5}{r^3} P_2(\cos\theta) \quad \text{to satisfy BC}$$

i.e., a quadrupole electric field is induced.

Inside the star, there is a charge density $\rho_e = \frac{1}{4\pi} \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{1}{2\pi c} \vec{\Omega} \cdot \vec{B}$

$$\text{or } n_e = 7 \times 10^{-2} B_p \bar{\rho} \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

At the surface of the star, there is a surface charge density $\sigma = \frac{1}{4\pi} (\vec{E}_{out} - \vec{E}_{in}) \cdot \hat{r} = -B_p \Omega R \cos^2\theta / 4\pi c$.

Inside, $\vec{E} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$, but outside (assuming vacuum outside),

$$\vec{E} \cdot \vec{B} = -\frac{R\Omega}{c} \left(\frac{R}{r} \right)^7 B_p^2 \cos^3\theta.$$

Then

The electric field due to a rotating charged sphere is

$$E_r \sim \frac{R\Omega}{c} B_p - 2\Omega^2 P R_0 \frac{1}{c} \frac{1}{R}$$

This is much larger than gravity for protons,

$$\frac{\text{electric}}{\text{gravitational}} \sim \frac{eR\Omega B_p/c}{GM_p/R^2} \sim 10^6 \gg 1$$

and is $\sim 10^{12}$ for e^- 's.

⇒ Vacuum is unstable!

⇒ Particles are stripped from surface of NS, and NS is necessarily surrounded by plasma of charged particles tied to \vec{B} -field lines; magnetosphere.

Resulting picture is that \vec{B} -field and plasma co-rotate with NS (like an egg beater) out to light cylinder of radius $R_c \equiv c/\Omega = 5 \times 10^9 P \text{ cm}$ beyond which co-rotation would imply $v > c$ for plasma. What happens at larger radii is unclear, but probably involves bending back of field lines to toroidal component, and perhaps expulsion of highly relativistic particles.

Within light cylinder, $\vec{E} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$, and $\vec{E} = -\left(\frac{\Omega \times \vec{r}}{c}\right) \times \vec{B}$.

Thus $\vec{E} \times \vec{B}$ with $(E \approx |\vec{B}|)$ at light cylinder, thus driving Poynting flux

$$S \sim c \frac{\vec{E} \times \vec{B}}{4\pi} \sim \frac{cB^2}{4\pi} \text{ over area } \sim \pi R_c^2, \text{ or}$$

$$\text{luminosity, } \frac{dE}{dt} \sim B_c^2 R_c^2 c \sim c \left(\frac{B_p R^3}{R_c^3}\right)^2 R_c^2$$

$$\sim \frac{B_p^2 R^6 \Omega^4}{c^3}$$

Therefore, get same spindown from pulsar magnetosphere as in ~~magnetic-dipole~~ model, even if ~~field is~~ $\Omega \ll \Omega$.

If B had constant pitch angle in Crab pulsar
 the size $\sim (\frac{R}{r})^2 \cos^2 \alpha \sim \text{size of } r$

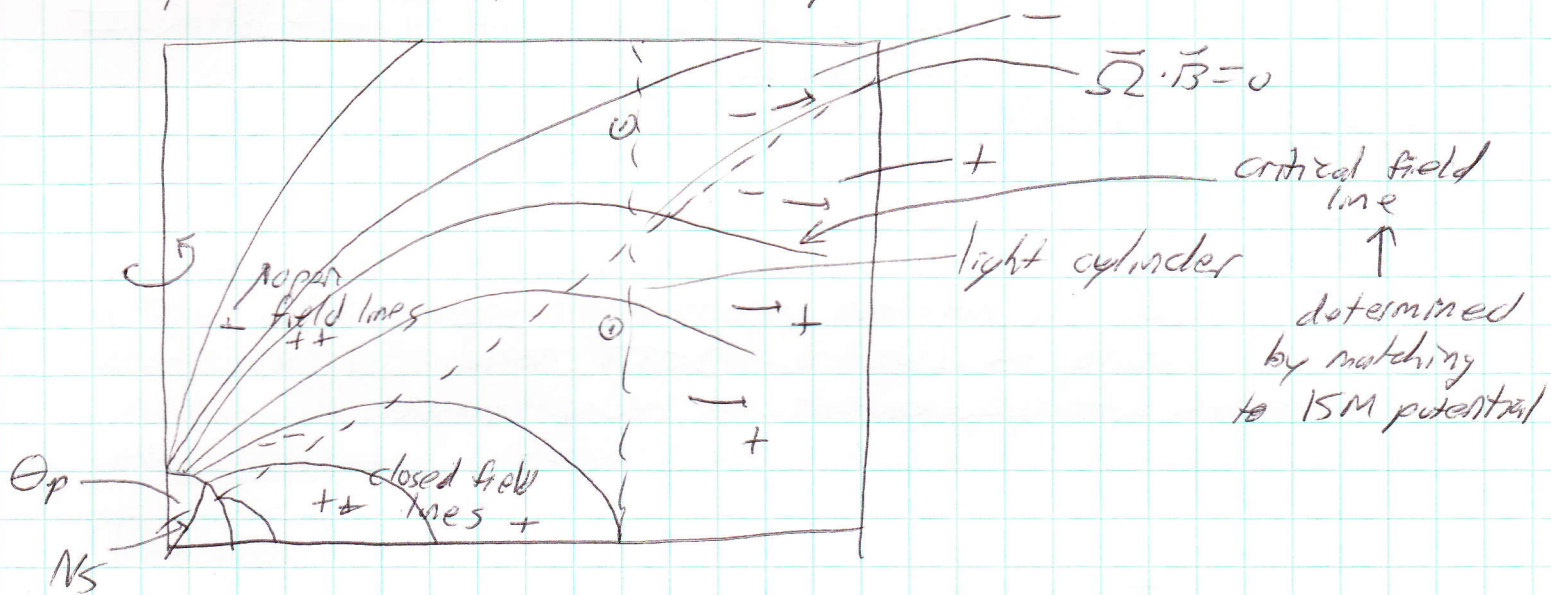
$$\Rightarrow B \sim \frac{10^3 \text{ G}}{(r/\text{cm})^2} \text{ for } r > R_c \Rightarrow B \sim 10^{-4} \text{ G @ } 1 \text{ pc}$$

as seen

If particle energy $E_p \gg \frac{B^2}{8\pi}$ then $B \propto 1/r^2$

$$B \sim 10^{-14} \text{ G @ } r \sim 1 \text{ pc; too small.}$$

The picture of the pulsar magnetosphere is:



Angular size of polar cap is θ_p , determined by noting that $\sin^2 \theta / R$ is const along the dipole field lines. Thus, $\theta_p \sim \sqrt{\Omega R / c}$, and the polar cap has area

$$A_p \sim \pi R^2 \theta_p^2 \sim \pi \frac{\Omega R^3}{c}$$

Pulsar emission mechanisms:

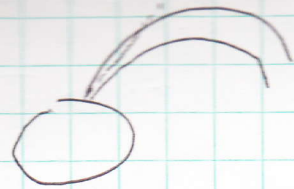
In spite of huge amount of detailed data, these are not well understood. In part this is because ~~radio~~ pulsed radio emission is "dire" — constitutes $\leq 10^{-4}$ (e.g. in Crab) of total emission.

Field energy $\sim 10^{40}$ ergs and pulse duration $\sim 10^{-3}$ s implying emission area $\sim 10^8$ cm² (small)

Imples $T_b \sim 10^8 - 10^{10}$ K $10^8 - 10^{12}$ eV

\Rightarrow not synchrotron emission

One fairly unusual ingredient:



Particles accelerated ~~near~~ by \vec{E} field will ~~cross~~ become very energetic. E.g., ~~in polar cap, the voltage is~~ potential drop between pole and equator in pulsar is

$$V \sim \frac{R\Omega}{c} B \Omega \sim 10^{16} \text{ V} \quad \text{for } \Omega \sim 10^3 \text{ Hz } B \sim 10^{12} \text{ G}$$

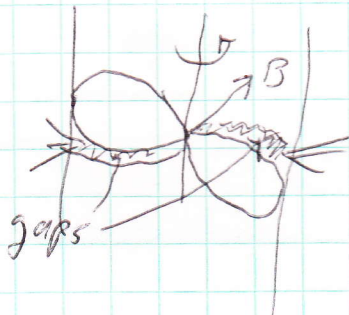
(\rightarrow MeV/e)

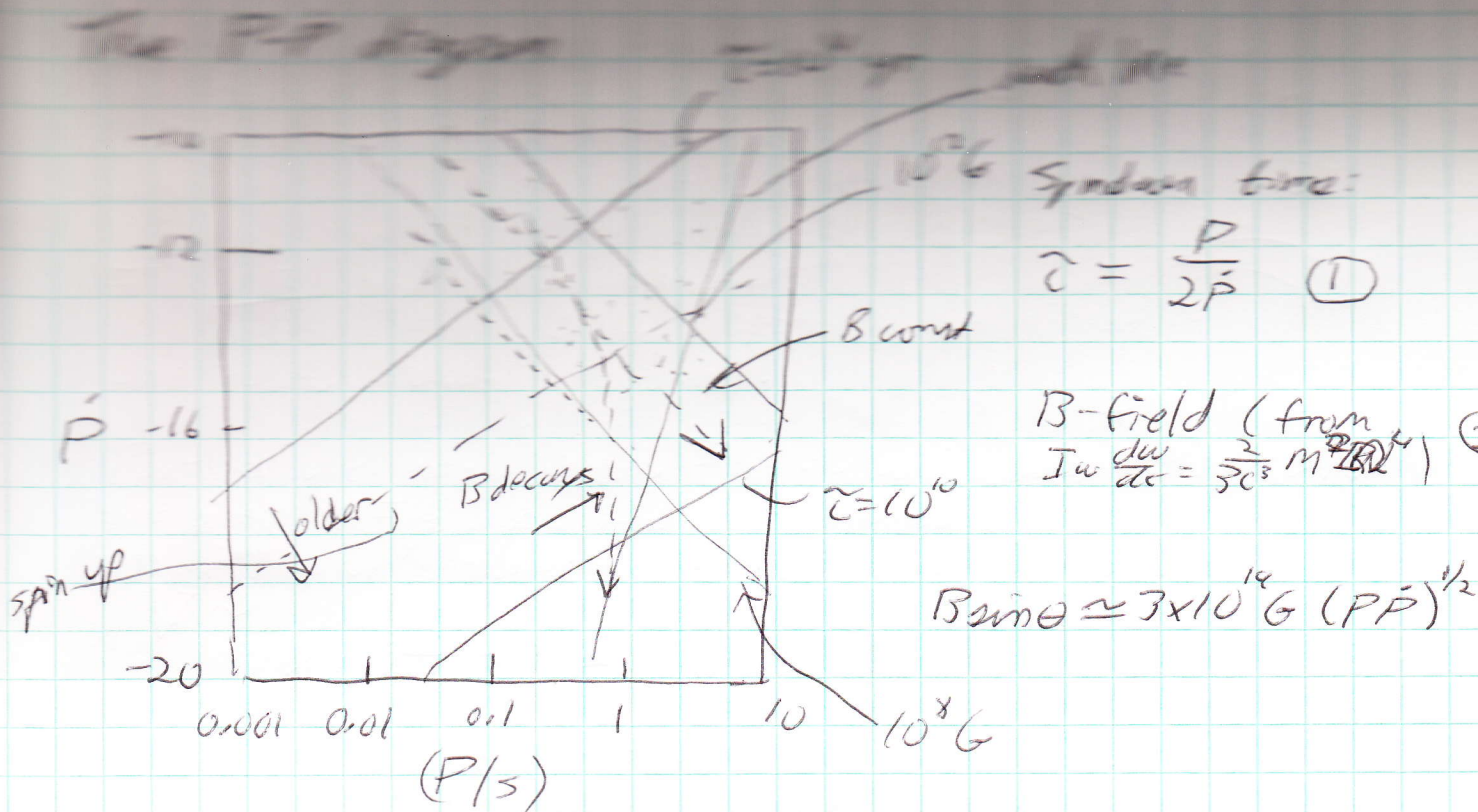
Thus e^+ 's attain $\gamma \gg 1$. They then produce curvature radiation as they cross \vec{B} -field lines. These γ -rays then escape (high-energy emission in polar-cap models) and/or run into other γ 's (or B field) to produce e^+e^- pairs. The magnetosphere is therefore populated by a pair plasma.

There may also be large-scale charge separation; this may then allow for coherent emission, (where intensity scales as N^2 , rather than N) which may explain $T_b \gg 10^8$ K.

In polar-cap models, all this takes place near poles, and emission is along axis of symmetry.

In outer-gap models (or light-cone models), emission occurs near light cone near equator in NSs with misaligned \vec{B} fields.





(3) Evolutionary tracks.

(4) Death line: voltage drop $\propto B \Omega^2 \propto B \dot{P}^{-2}$ (typical Longair?)

expect e^+e^- pairs to be produced only for $B P^2 \approx 10^{11} G s^2$; & or $\dot{P} \propto P^{-3}$ toward right. Expect all pulsars to be near left.

(5) Spin-up limit. Pulsars in binaries do not follow same rules and occupy same regions of P-P space.

May be spun up by accretion from companion. Are expected to have $P \approx 2 (B/10^{14} G)^{6/7} ms.$

$$E_{\text{grav}} \sim \frac{GM^2}{R} \sim 5 \times 10^{47} \text{ erg} \sim \frac{1}{5} M_0 c^2$$

$$g \sim \frac{GM}{R^2} \sim 2 \times 10^{12} \frac{\text{cm}}{\text{sec}^2}$$

$$\bar{\rho} \sim \frac{3M}{4\pi R^3} \approx 7 \times 10^{14} \text{ g/cm}^3 \approx 2-3 \times \text{normal nuclear density.}$$

Structure: atmosphere/outer crust/inner crust/outer core/inner core

Atmosphere: ~ 10 cm for $T_s \sim 3 \times 10^6$ K
 to ~ 1 mm for $T_s \sim 3 \times 10^5$ K
 models not complete for $B \approx 10^{12}$ G or $T_s \lesssim 10^6$ K
 $\rho \lesssim 10^6$ g/cm³; negligible mass; primarily ⁵⁶Fe
 shapes emergent spectrum
 plasma layer; highly ionized; atomic levels distorted
 by high B fields

Outer crust: ("outer envelope")

from atmosphere to $\rho \sim 4 \times 10^{11}$ g/cm³
 100s m thick

ions + e⁻'s (magnetic effects may be important)

top few m's is nondegenerate e⁻ gas

deeper \rightarrow degenerate e⁻ gas, ultrarelativistic
 solidifies at high depth

β capture in nuclei \rightarrow n-rich nuclei

bottom of crust: n's start to drip, form n gas
 (@ $\rho \sim 4 \times 10^{11}$ g).

n gas is still background sea for nuclei

inner crust: ~ 1 km thick

from $\rho_{\text{in}} \sim 4 \times 10^{11}$ g/cm³ to $0.5 \rho_0$

e⁻'s, n-rich ions, n's

n fraction increases as $\rho \uparrow$

nuclei $\rightarrow 0$ at crust/core boundary

nucleons can be superfluid if T low enough

magnetic effects
 not important

core is ≈ 20 km
speed is high, does not cease to exist
 $\frac{v}{c} \approx 0.2$
core is in β equilibrium
neutrino effects may be important
everything very degenerate
nucleon-nucleon interactions \Rightarrow n's superfluid
p's superconducting
contains (with inner core) $\approx 99\%$ of mass

Inner core:

$\rho \approx 2\rho_0$ ρ up to $(10-15)\rho_0$?
 $R \approx$ few km
composition/EOS uncertain; nobody knows what
nuclear matter at such high ρ does
hyperons? pions? kaons? quark matter?
may be probed in heavy-ion collisions
(e.g., RHIC @ Brookhaven)

Superfluidity: occurs for $T < T_c$ = critical temperature (uncertain)
does not affect EOS, M-R much
n's in inner crust should be superfluid
affects heat capacity and ν emission, and so
is relevant for cooling of NS.
Spin of NS is quantized in discrete vortices
superfluid p's are superconducting
B fields quantized in flux tubes
B fields fix crust/core rotation to be same,
but superfluid neutrons may have different spin.



are born with $T \sim 10^8$ K and radiate $\sim 10^{53}$ erg

• few sec. $T \sim 10^8$ K after \sim day

γ emission dominates for first 10^5 yr to 10^6 K;

then γ radiation from surface takes over.

Observationally NS surface temperatures are $\sim 5 \times 10^5$ K

\Rightarrow thermal emission in UV/soft-x-ray

γ 's produced with $E_\gamma \sim k_B T$ and scatter from N with

$$\sigma \sim 4.4 \times 10^{-45} \text{ cm}^2 \left(\frac{E_\gamma}{m_e c^2} \right)^2,$$

so their mean-free path is

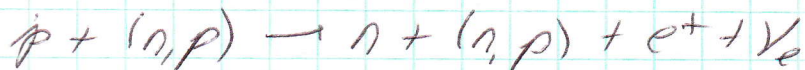
$$l = \frac{1}{n\sigma} \approx 2500 \text{ km} \left(\frac{R^3}{12 \text{ km}} \right) \left(\frac{1.4 M_\odot}{M} \right) \left(\frac{10^8 \text{ K}}{T} \right)^2$$

so @ $T \sim 10^8$ K is opaque, but transparent for $T \lesssim 10^7$ K

Direct URCA process: $n \rightarrow p + e^- + \bar{\nu}_e$ $p + e^- \rightarrow n + \nu_e$

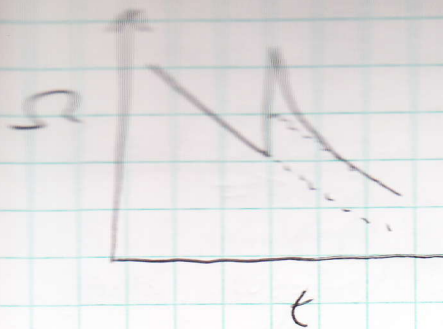
is slow if p 's are scarce; slowed also by Pauli blocking

Modified URCA process:



can increase rate by providing more energy-momentum combinations.

Measurements of t (e.g., from P/\dot{P}) and T_{eff} (from x-ray) suggest modified URCA is important.



Some pulsars occasionally suddenly speed up and then slow down. This is explained by starquakes, cracks in the crystalline crust. Moment of inertia $I \downarrow$ sending $\Omega \uparrow$. E.g., $\Delta\Omega/\Omega \sim 10^{-2}$ once in a while. More characteristically, $\Delta\Omega/\Omega \lesssim 10^{-6}$.

After glitch, pulsar spins down more rapidly. This is explained by the time it takes crust to spin superfluid-n component up. Then asymptotes to usual B-field spindown with slightly smaller I that results from quake.

Magnetars:

Typical NS B-fields are $T \sim 10^{12}$ G. But a few have $B \sim 10^{14} - 10^{16}$ G \Rightarrow magnetars.

If B is large enough, then the Larmor radius $r_L = \frac{v m_e c}{e B}$ of an e^- becomes smaller than the de Broglie wavelength, $\lambda = h/m_e v$. Thus, above a quantum-critical field

$$B_{QC} = \frac{m_e^2 c^3}{\hbar e} = 4.4 \times 10^{13} \text{ G}$$

QM effects become important

Example: Soft Gamma Repeaters (SGRs):

are X-ray sources that repeatedly emit X-ray flashes; spectrum is softer than GRBs.

Have $P \sim 5 - 8$ s $\dot{P} \sim 7 \times 10^{-11}$

SRR has age $t \sim 10^4$ yr and $P \sim 8$ s

assuming $\frac{P}{2P} = t \Rightarrow \dot{P} \approx 10^{-11} \Rightarrow B \sim 10^{14}$ G

Great flares:
1806-20

SRR ~~032646~~'s most energetic burst was 27 Dec '04 with $E \sim 2 \times 10^{46}$ erg; (~~typical bursts are $\sim 10^{43}$ erg/sec~~) most released in \lesssim sec burst with some rise time rest released in softer pulsating tail

From PP, $B \approx 1.6 \times 10^{15}$ G.

$E_{\text{mag}} \sim \frac{B^2}{8\pi} \frac{4}{3} \pi R^3 \sim 10^{48}$ erg,

so burst is only small fraction of B-field reservoir.

Explanation for pulsed emission is that starquake rearranges B-field produced γ - e^+e^- fireball confined to magnetosphere.

Anomalous X-ray Pulsars: (AXPs)

Isolated pulsars emitting pulsed x-ray with $L \sim 10^{35-36} \frac{\text{erg}}{\text{sec}}$ and $P \sim 5-12$ sec.

L is too high for magnetic dipole; is assumed/guessed to be powered by dissipation of B field. Uncertain?