Tidal Excitations of Oscillation Modes in Compact White Dwarf Binaries: I. Linear Theory

Jim Fuller* and Dong Lai
Center for Space Research, Department of Astronomy, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY 14853, USA

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ABSTRACT
We study the tidal excitation of gravity modes (g-modes) in compact white dwarf binary systems with periods ranging from minutes to hours. As the orbit of the system decays via gravitational radiation, the orbital frequency increases and sweeps through a series of resonances with the g-modes of the white dwarf. At each resonance, the tidal force excites the g-mode to a relatively large amplitude, transferring the orbital energy to the stellar oscillation. We calculate the eigenfrequencies of g-modes and their coupling coefficients with the tidal field for realistic non-rotating white dwarf models. Using these mode properties, we numerically compute the excited mode amplitude in the linear approximation as the orbit passes through the resonance, including the back-reaction of the mode on the orbit. We also derive analytical estimates for the mode amplitude and the duration of the resonance, which accurately reproduce our numerical results for most binary parameters. We find that the g-modes can be excited to a dimensionless (mass-weighted) amplitude up to 0.1, with the mode energy approaching $10^{-3}$ of the gravitational binding energy of the star. Therefore the low-frequency ($\lesssim 10^{-2}$ Hz) gravitational waveforms produced by the binaries, detectable by LISA, are strongly affected by the tidal resonances. Our results also suggest that thousands of years prior to the binary merger, the white dwarf may be heated up significantly by tidal interactions. However, more study is needed since the physical amplitudes of the excited oscillation modes become highly nonlinear in the outer layer of the star, which can reduce the mode amplitude attained by tidal excitation.

Key words: white dwarfs – hydrodynamics – waves – binaries

1 INTRODUCTION
It is well known that non-radial gravity modes (g-modes) are responsible for the luminosity variations observed in some isolated white dwarfs (called ZZ Ceti stars) in the instability strip. These g-modes are thought to be excited by a convective driving mechanism operating in the shallow surface convection zone of the star (see Brickhill 1983; Goldreich & Wu 1999; Wu & Goldreich 1999).

In this paper we study the tidal excitation of g-modes in compact binary systems containing a white dwarf (WD) and another compact object (white dwarf, neutron star or black hole). The Galaxy is populated with $\sim 10^8$ WD-WD binaries and several $10^6$ of double WD-NS binaries [Nelemans et al. (2001); see also Nelemans (2009) and references therein]. A sizeable fraction of these binaries are compact enough so that the binary orbit will decay within a Hubble time to initiate mass transfer or a binary merger. Depending on the details of the mass transfer process (including the response of the WD to mass transfer), these ultra-compact binaries (with orbital period less than an hour) may survive mass transfer for a long time or merge shortly after mass transfer begins. A number of ultra-compact interacting WD-WD binary systems have already been observed (including RX J0806.3+1527 (period 5.4 min) and V407 Vul (period 9.5 min); see Strohmayer 2005 and Ramsay et al. 2005). Recent surveys (e.g., SDSS) have also begun to uncover non-interacting compact WD binaries (e.g., Badenes et al. 2009; Mullally et al. 2009; Kilic et al. 2009; Marsh et al. 2010; Kulkarni & van Kerkwijk 2010; Steinfadt et al. 2010). Depending on the total mass, the systems may evolve into Type Ia supernovae (for high mass), or become AM CVn binaries or R CrB stars (for low mass). Many of these WD binaries are detectable in gravitational waves by the Laser Interferometer Space Antenna (LISA) (Nelemans 2009).

In this paper we consider resonant tidal interaction in WD binaries that are not undergoing mass transfer. This means that the binary separation $D$ is greater than $D_{\text{min}}$, the orbital radius at which dynamical merger or mass transfer
occurs, i.e.,
\[ D \gtrsim D_\text{min} \simeq 2.5 \left( \frac{M_i}{M} \right)^{1/3} R, \]  
(1)

where \( M \) is the WD mass, \( M_i = M + M' \) is the total mass and \( R \) is the WD radius. This corresponds to orbital periods of
\[ P \gtrsim P_\text{min} = 68.4 \left( \frac{R}{10^4 \text{km}} \right)^{3/2} \left( \frac{M}{M_\odot} \right)^{-1/2} \text{s}. \]  
(2)

Since WD g-mode periods are of order one minute or longer, they can be excited by the binary companion prior to mass transfer. In particular, as the binary orbit decays due to gravitational radiation, the orbital frequency sweeps through a series of g-mode frequencies, transferring orbital energy to the modes. Although the overlap integral of the g-mode eigenfunctions with the tidal potential is generally quite small, a binary system that spends a long time at resonance can still excite g-modes to large amplitudes.

Previous studies of tidal interaction in WD binaries have focused on quasi-static tides (e.g. Iben, Tutukov & Fedorova 1998; Willems, Deloye & Kalogera 2009), which essentially correspond to non-resonant f-modes of the star. Such static tides become important only as the binary approaches the tidal limit [equation (1)]. Racine, Phinney & Arras (2007) recently studied non-dissipative tidal synchronization due to Rossby waves in accreting ultra-compact WD binaries. Rathore, Blandford & Broderick (2005) studied resonant mode excitations of WD modes in eccentric binaries. They focused on f-modes, for which the resonance occurs when harmonics of the orbital frequency matches the mode frequency. As mentioned above, for circular orbits, such resonance with the f-mode does not occur prior to mass transfer or tidal disruption. Their published analysis also did not include back reaction of the excited mode on the binary orbit. The problem of resonant mode excitations in compact binaries has been studied before in the context of coalescing neutron star binaries: Reisenegger & Goldreich (1994), Lai (1994) and Shibata (1994) focused on the excitations of g-modes of non-rotating neutron stars; Ho & Lai (1999) and Lai & Wu (2006) studied the effects of NS rotation — including r-modes and other inertial modes; Flanagan & Racine (2006) examined gravitomagnetic excitation of r-modes. In the case of neutron star binaries, the orbital decay rate (for orbital frequencies larger than 5 Hz) is large and the mode amplitude is rather small, so the back reaction of the excited mode on the orbit can be safely neglected (see section 5 of the present paper). By contrast, in the case of WD binaries, the orbital decay is much slower and the excited mode can reach a much larger amplitude. It thus becomes essential to take the back reaction into account.

In this paper, we consider WD binaries in circular orbits, consistent with the observed population of compact WD binaries (e.g. Kulkarni & van Kerkwijk 2010). Such circular orbits are a direct consequence of the circularization by gravitational radiation and/or the common envelope phase leading to their formation. A key assumption of this paper is that we assume the WD is not synchronized with the binary orbit. While it is true that the tidal synchronization time scale is much longer than the synchronization time, the observed circular orbit of the WD binaries does not imply synchronization. While there have been numerous studies of tidal dissipation in normal stars and giant planets (e.g., Zahn 1970,1989; Goldreich & Nicholson 1977; Goodman & Oh 1997; Goodman & Dickson 1998; Ogilvie & Lin 2004,2007; Wu 2005; Goodman & Lackner 2009), there has been no satisfactory study on tidal dissipation in WDs. Even for normal stars, the problem is not solved (especially for solar-type stars; see Goodman & Dickson 1999; see Zahn 2008 for review). In fact it is likely that the excitations of g-modes and other low-frequency modes play a role in the synchronization process. The orbital decay time scale near g-mode resonances is relatively short (of order 10^3 years for orbital periods of interest, i.e., minutes), so it is not clear that tidal synchronization can compete with the orbital decay rate. Given this uncertainty, we will consider non-rotating WDs (or slowly-rotating WDs, so that the g-mode properties are not significantly modified by rotation) as a first step, and leaving the study of the rotational effects to a future paper.

This remainder of the paper is organized as follows. In section 2 we present the equations governing the evolution of the orbit and the g-modes. Section 3 examines the properties of WD g-modes and their coupling with the tidal gravitational field of the companion. In section 4, we numerically study the evolution of the g-modes through resonances, and in section 5 we present analytical estimates of the resonant g-mode excitation. We study the effect of mode damping on the tidal excitation in section 6 and discuss the uncertainties and implications of our results in section 7.

## 2 COMBINED EVOLUTION EQUATIONS FOR OSCILLATION MODES AND BINARY ORBIT

We consider a WD of mass \( M \) and radius \( R \) in orbit with a companion of mass \( M' \) (another WD, or NS or BH). The WD is non-spinning. The gravitational potential produced by \( M' \) can be written as
\[ U(r, t) = \frac{GM'}{|r - \mathbf{D}(t)|} = -GM' \sum_{lm} W_{lm} r^l \frac{d}{dt} e^{-im\Phi(t)} Y_{lm}(\theta, \phi), \]  
(3)

where \( r = (r, \theta, \phi) \) is the position vector (in spherical coordinates) of a fluid element in star \( M \), \( \mathbf{D}(t) = (D(t), \pi/2, \Phi(t)) \) is the position vector of \( M' \) relative to \( M \) (\( D \) is the binary separation, \( \Phi \) is the orbital phase or the true anomaly) and the coefficient \( W_{lm} \) is given by
\[ W_{lm} = (-)^{(l+m)/2} \left[ \frac{4\pi}{2l+1} (l+m)! (l-m)! \right]^{1/2} \times \left[ \frac{2}{l+1} \right]^{1/2} \left[ \frac{(l+m)!(l-m)!}{2} \right]^{-1}. \]  
(4)

(Here the symbol \((-)^p\) is zero if \( p \) is not an integer.) The dominant \( l = 2 \) tidal potential has \( W_{2\pm2} = (3\pi/10)^{1/2} \), \( W_{20} = (\pi/5)^{1/2} \), \( W_{2\pm1} = 0 \), and so only the \( m = \pm2 \) modes can be resonantly excited.

The linear perturbation of the tidal potential on \( M \) is specified by the Lagrangian displacement \( \xi(r, t) \), which sat-
satisfies the equation of motion
\[ \frac{\partial^2 \xi}{\partial t^2} + \mathcal{L} \cdot \xi = -\nabla U, \]  
(5)
where \( \mathcal{L} \) is an operator that specifies the internal restoring forces of the star. The normal oscillation modes of the star satisfy \( \mathcal{L} \xi_\alpha = \omega_\alpha^2 \xi_\alpha \), where \( \alpha = (n, l, m) \) is the usual mode index and \( \omega_\alpha \) is the mode frequency. We write \( \xi(\mathbf{r}, t) \) as the sum of the normal modes:
\[ \xi(\mathbf{r}, t) = \sum_\alpha a_\alpha(t) \xi_\alpha(\mathbf{r}). \]  
(6)

The (complex) mode amplitude \( a_\alpha(t) \) satisfies the equation
\[ \ddot{a}_\alpha + \omega_\alpha^2 a_\alpha = \frac{GM\rho_{im}Q_\alpha}{D^{l+1}} e^{-im\phi(t)}, \]  
(7)
where \( Q_\alpha \) is the tidal coupling coefficient (also used by Press & Teukolsky 1977), defined by
\[ Q_\alpha = \langle \xi_\alpha \nabla (r^4 Y_{im}) \rangle \]
\[ = \int d^3 r \rho \xi_\alpha^* \cdot \nabla (r^4 Y_{im}) \]
\[ = \int d^3 r \delta_p \alpha \rho \phi (r). \]  
(8)

Here \( \delta_p \alpha = -\nabla \cdot (\rho \xi_\alpha) \) is the Eulerian density perturbation. In deriving (7) we have used the normalization
\[ \langle \xi_\alpha \xi_\alpha \rangle = \int d^3 r \rho \xi_\alpha^* \cdot \xi_\alpha = 1. \]  
(9)

Resonant excitation of a mode \( \alpha \) occurs when \( \omega_\alpha = m\Omega \), where \( \Omega \) is the orbital frequency.

In the absence of tidal interaction/resonance, the WD binary orbit decays due to gravitational radiation, with time scale given by (Peters 1964)
\[ t_D = \frac{D}{\mathcal{D}} = \frac{5c^5}{64G^2 M M^* M^*} \]
\[ = 3.2 \times 10^{19} \left( \frac{M^2}{M^* M^*} \right) \left( \frac{M}{2M_\odot} \right)^{1/3} \left( \frac{\Omega}{0.1 \text{ s}^{-1}} \right)^{-8/3} \text{ s}, \]  
(10)
where \( M = M + M^* \) is the total binary mass. When a strong tidal resonance occurs, the orbital decay rate can be modified, and we need to follow the evolution of the orbit and the mode amplitudes simultaneously. The gravitational interaction energy between \( M^* \) and the modes in star \( M \) is
\[ W = \int d^3 x U(r, t) \sum_\alpha a_\alpha^*(t) \delta p_\alpha(r) \]
\[ = -\sum_\alpha M^* M^{*2} \frac{W_{im} Q_\alpha}{D^3} e^{-im\phi} a_\alpha^*(t), \]  
(11)
where we have restricted to the \( l = 2 \) terms and set \( G = 1 \). The orbital evolution equations, including the effects of the modes, are then given by
\[ \dot{D} - D\ddot{\Phi} = -\frac{M}{D^2} + \sum_\alpha \frac{3M^*}{D^2} W_{im} Q_\alpha e^{im\phi} a_\alpha \]
\[ - M^* \frac{D}{D^2} \left( A_{5/2} + B_{5/2} \hat{D} \right), \]  
(12)
\[ \ddot{\Phi} + \frac{2D\dot{\Phi}}{D} = \sum_\alpha im M^* \frac{D}{D^2} W_{im} Q_\alpha e^{im\phi} a_\alpha \]
\[ - M^* \frac{D}{D^2} B_{5/2} \Phi. \]  
(13)

The last terms on the right-hand side of equations (12) and (13) are the leading-order gravitational radiation reaction forces, with (see Lai & Wiseman 1996 and references therein)
\[ A_{5/2} = -\frac{8\mu}{5D} \hat{D} \left( 18\pi^2 + \frac{2M^*}{3D^2} - 25\hat{D}^2 \right), \]  
(14)
\[ B_{5/2} = \frac{8\mu}{5D} \left( 6\pi^2 - \frac{2M^*}{D} - 15\hat{D}^2 \right), \]  
(15)
where \( \mu = MM^*/M \) and \( \hat{D} = \hat{D}^2 + (\hat{D}\Phi)^2 \). In equations (12)-(15) we have set \( G = c = 1 \). We have dropped the other post-Newtonian terms since they have negligible effects on tidal excitations. The mode amplitude equation is given by equation (11), or,
\[ \ddot{a}_\alpha - 2im\Omega a_\alpha + \left( \omega_\alpha^2 - m^2\Omega^2 - im\tilde{\Omega} \right) a_\alpha = \frac{M^* W_{im} Q_\alpha}{D^{l+1}}, \]  
(16)
where
\[ b_\alpha = a_\alpha e^{im\phi}. \]  
(17)

### 3 White Dwarf G-Modes and Tidal Coupling Coefficients

The non-radial adiabatic modes of a WD can be found by solving the standard stellar oscillation equations, as given in, e.g., Unno et al. (1989). The g-mode propagation zone in the star is determined by \( \omega_\alpha^2 < N^2 \) and \( \omega_\alpha^2 < L^2 \), where \( L = \sqrt{l(l+1)} a_\alpha/r \) is the Lamb frequency (\( a_\alpha \) is the sound speed), and \( N \) is the Brunt-Väisälä frequency, as given by
\[ N^2 = g^2 \left[ \frac{dp}{d\rho} - \left( \frac{dp}{d\rho} \right)_s \right], \]  
(18)
where \( g \) the gravitational acceleration, and the subscript “\( s \)” means that the adiabatic derivative is taken. Alternatively, \( N^2 \) can be obtained from (Brassard et al. 1991)
\[ N^2 = \frac{g^2}{P_{\chi_p}^2} \left( \nabla_s - \nabla + B \right), \]  
(19)
where
\[ \chi_T = \left( \frac{\partial \ln P}{\partial \ln T} \right)_{\rho,(X_i)}, \]
\[ \chi_p = \left( \frac{\partial \ln P}{\partial \ln p} \right)_{T,(X_i)}, \]
\[ \nabla = \frac{\partial \ln T}{\partial \ln P}, \]
\[ \nabla_s = \left( \frac{\partial \ln T}{\partial \ln P} \right)_{s,(X_i)}. \]  
(20)
The Ledoux term \( B \) accounts for the buoyancy arising from composition gradient:
\[ B = -\frac{\chi_Y}{\chi_T} \frac{\partial \ln Y}{\partial \ln T}, \]  
(21)
where
\[ \chi_Y = \left( \frac{\partial \ln P}{\partial \ln Y} \right)_{\rho,T}, \]  
(22)
and \( Y \) is the mass fraction of helium. This equation is valid for a compositional transition zone containing helium and one other element, as is the case for typical compositionally stratified DA WD models.

Figure 1 shows the profiles of the Brunt-Väisälä and Lamb frequencies for one of the WD models adopted in this paper. These models were provided by G. Fontaine (see Brassard 1991). Since the pressure in the WD core is almost completely determined by electron degeneracy pressure, \( N^2 \propto \chi_T \) is very small except in the non-degenerate
outer layers. As a result, g-modes are confined to the outer layers of the star below the convection zone. Lower-order outer layers. As a result, g-modes are confined to the outer

\[ M = 0.6M_\odot, \quad R = 8.97 \times 10^3 \text{ km}, \quad T_{\text{eff}} = 10800 \text{ K}. \]

The spikes in the Brünt Väisälä frequency are caused by the composition changes from carbon to helium, and from helium to hydrogen, respectively.

Table 1. The eigenfrequency \( \tilde{\omega}_n \), tidal overlap parameter \( \tilde{Q}_n \), and numerical f-mode overlap \( c_0 \) for the first six \( l = 2 \) g-modes of a white dwarf model. The white dwarf model has \( T_{\text{eff}} = 10800 \text{ K}, \quad M = 0.6M_\odot, \quad R = 8.97 \times 10^3 \text{ km}. \) Note that \( \tilde{\omega}_n \) and \( \tilde{Q}_n \) are in dimensionless units such that \( G = M = R = 1, \) and \( (GM/R^3)^{1/2}/(2\pi) = 0.053 \) Hz.

| n  | \( \tilde{\omega}_n \) | \( \tilde{Q}_n \) | \( c_0 \)        |
|----|-----------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| 0  | 2.08                  | 0.428           | 1               |
| 1  | 0.298                 | 1.27e-3         | -1.80e-6        |
| 2  | 0.186                 | 2.60e-3         | 3.91e-6         |
| 3  | 0.125                 | 3.25e-5         | 3.62e-8         |
| 4  | 0.0900                | 8.91e-5         | 6.45e-7         |
| 5  | 0.0821                | 4.24e-4         | 1.32e-6         |
| 6  | 0.0715                | 6.91e-5         | -2.54e-6        |

The results shown in tables 1-2 reveal that \( |c_0| \) is always more than an order of magnitude less than \( \tilde{Q}_n \), so the above condition is satisfied for the modes computed in this paper.

We note from tables 1-2 that while in general higher-order g-modes tend to have smaller \( |Q_0| \), the dependence of \( |Q_0| \) on the mode index \( n \) is not exactly monotonic. This is the result of the mode trapping phenomenon associated with composition discontinuities in the WD. To see this, we note that a mode with amplitude \( \xi \) has energy given by \( E_\alpha = \omega_\alpha^2 \int d^3r \rho |\xi_\alpha|^2 \), thus we can define the mode energy weight function

\[
\frac{dE_\alpha}{d\ln P} = \omega_\alpha^2 r^2 \left[ \xi_l^2 + l(l+1)\xi_\perp^2 \right] H_p,
\]

where \( H_p = dr/d\ln P = P/(\rho g) \) is the pressure scale height, and we have used

\[
\xi_\alpha = [\xi_l(r) \mathbf{e}_l + r\xi_\perp(r) \mathbf{v}] Y_{lm}.
\]
Figure 2. The mode energy weight functions for the $n = 1$ (thickest line), $n = 2$ (thick line), and $n = 5$ (top line) modes (all for $l = 2$) for a WD with $T_{\text{eff}} = 10800K$, $M = 0.6M_\odot$, $R = 8.97 \times 10^3$km, displayed as a function of $\log P$ so that the structure of the outer layers of the WD is more evident. The y-axis for a given mode is intended only to show the relative value of the weight function. The squares of the Br" unt V" ais" al" a (thin solid line) and Lamb (dotted line) frequencies are displayed to demonstrate how their values constrain the region of mode propagation.

The weight functions also reveal the phenomenon known as mode trapping caused by the composition gradients. Mode trapping is especially evident for the $n = 2$ mode, as it is confined to the helium layer between the spikes in $N^2$ produced by the composition gradients. For the modes shown in Figure 2, the smooth fall-off of the weight function just below the convective zone indicates that these modes are confined by the falling value of the Lamb frequency in this region. The weight functions of higher-order modes and the modes in WDs with deeper convective zones may drop sharply at the convective boundary, indicating that these modes are trapped by the convective zone rather than the decreasing Lamb frequency.

The weight functions also reveal the phenomenon known as mode trapping caused by the composition gradients. Mode trapping is especially evident for the $n = 2$ mode, as it is confined to the helium layer between the spikes in $N^2$. It is clear that the mode is reflected by the carbon-helium boundary at shallow depths and by the helium-hydrogen boundary at shallower depths. See Brassard (1991) for a more detailed description of the effects of mode trapping.

The weight function is essentially the energy of a mode as a function of radius, so it tells us where orbital energy is deposited when a mode is excited. Since the weight function is largest in the hydrogen and helium layers just below the convection zone, most of the mode energy exists in this region of the WD. Thus, if the mode is damped, most of the mode energy will be damped out in this region.

Figure 3. Same as Figure 2 except for a WD model with $T_{\text{eff}} = 5080K$. Note that the convection zone extends deeper in this model, pushing the modes to larger depths.

4 NUMERICAL RESULTS FOR MODE-ORBIT EVOLUTION THROUGH RESONANCE

Having obtained the mode frequency and the tidal coupling coefficient, we can determine the combined evolution of the resonant mode and the binary orbit using equations (7), (12), and (13). These are integrated from well before resonance until well after the resonance is complete. The initial mode amplitude $b_0$ and its derivative $\dot{b}_0$ (prior to a resonance) are obtained by dropping the $b_0$, $\dot{b}_0$ and $\Omega$ terms in equation (10) giving

\begin{equation}
\dot{b}_0 \simeq \frac{M'W_{\text{m}0}Q_0}{\omega^2}
\end{equation}

\begin{equation}
\ddot{b}_0 \simeq \left[ -\left( l + 1 \right) \frac{\dot{D}}{D} + \frac{2m^2\Omega^2}{\omega^2} \right] b_0,
\end{equation}

with $\dot{\Omega} \simeq -(3D/2D)\Omega$. These expressions are valid for for $(\omega_0/m\Omega)^2 - 1 \gg \Omega/(m\Omega)^2 \simeq 3/(2m\Omega D)$ (see section 5).

The evolution equations (7), (12), and (13) form a very stiff set of differential equations. The reason for this is that the problem involves two vastly different time scales: the orbital decay time scale which is on the order of thousands of years, and the orbital time scale (or the resonant mode oscillation period) which is on the order of minutes. Consequently, a typical Runge-Kutta scheme would require the integration of millions of orbits, demanding a high degree of accuracy for each orbit. To avoid this problem, we employ the Rossenberg stiff equation technique (Press et al. 2007). The integrator requires a Jacobian matrix of second derivatives, meaning that we need to supply the $8 \times 8$ matrix of second derivatives corresponding to our 8 first-order differential equations. The evolution equations are sufficiently simple that this matrix can be found analytically.

Figure 4 depicts an example of the mode amplitude and orbit evolution near the resonance for the $n = 3$ g-mode. Before the resonance, the mode must oscillate with the same frequency as the binary companion, so the amplitude $|b_0|$ is smooth. After the resonance, the mode oscillates at its eigenfrequency (which is now different from the forcing frequency). The amplitude of the mode continues to fluctuate after resonance because it is still being forced by the bi-
Figure 4. Mode amplitude $|b_\alpha|$ and orbital distance $D$ as a function of time during resonance. The amplitude and distance oscillate after resonance, causing the curves to appear as filled shapes due to the short period of the oscillations with respect to the total integration time. These oscillations occur due to the continued interaction between the excited mode and the orbit. Note the sharp drop in orbital distance at resonance, which is caused by the transfer of orbital energy into the mode. The mode parameters are given in Table I ($n = 3$). The companion mass is $M' = M = 0.6M_\odot$.

Figure 5. The average post-resonance amplitudes for the first five modes given in Table I. The open triangles mark the results obtained from numerical integration, and the asterisks indicate the results predicted by the analytical estimate described in section 5. The analytical estimates are usually accurate within a factor of 10%. The $n = 2$ and $n = 5$ modes are trapped modes. We expect that our linear approximation is a reasonable first approach to the problem before non-linear effects can be included. In general, lower-order modes reach larger amplitudes (due to their larger coupling coefficients), but higher-order modes with an abnormally high value of $Q_\alpha$ (trapped modes) may reach large amplitudes as well.

Figure 6. The average post-resonance amplitude $|b_\alpha|$ for the $n = 4$ mode given in Table I as a function of the mass of the binary companion. The post-resonance amplitude increases with the mass of the binary companion as predicted by the analytical estimate except for very high companion masses.

5 ANALYTIC ESTIMATE OF THE RESONANT MODE AMPLITUDE

Here we provide an analytic estimate of the mode amplitude attained during a resonance as well as the temporal duration of the resonance (i.e., the characteristic time during which the resonant mode receives most of its energy from the orbit).

For a WD oscillation mode with frequency $\omega_\alpha$, the resonant orbital radius is

$$D_\alpha = \left(\frac{m^2M_\odot}{\omega_\alpha^2}\right)^{1/3}.$$  

(30)

Prior to the resonance, as the orbital radius $D$ decreases, the mode amplitude grows gradually according to equation (28). At the same time, the orbit also loses its energy to gravitational waves (GWs) at the rate

$$\dot{E}_{GW} = -\frac{32(MM')^2M_\odot}{5c^3D^5} = -\frac{MM'/2D}{t_D},$$  

(31)

where $t_D$ is given by equation (10). We can define the beginning of resonance as the point where the orbital energy is transferred to the mode faster than it is radiated away by GWs. That is, the resonance begins at the radius $D = D_{\alpha+} (> D_\alpha)$, as determined by

$$\dot{E}_\alpha = |\dot{E}_{GW}|,$$  

(32)

where $E_\alpha$ is the energy contained in the mode. Near the resonance, the mode oscillates at the frequency close to $\omega_\alpha$, so we can write the mode energy as $E_\alpha \approx 2\omega_\alpha^2 b_\alpha^2$ (including both the $m = 2$ and $m = -2$ terms), assuming $\omega_\alpha \gg |b_\alpha/b_\alpha|$. Thus we have $\dot{E}_\alpha \approx 4\omega_\alpha^2 b_\alpha b_\alpha$. Using equations (28) and (29) for $b_\alpha$ and $b_\alpha$, we find

$$\omega_\alpha^2 - (m\Omega)^2 = \left[\frac{24\omega_\alpha^2 M'(W_{lm} Q_\alpha)^2}{MD^5}\right]^{1/3}$$  

at $D = D_{\alpha+}$  

(33)
or
\[ D_{\alpha+} = D_\alpha \left[ 1 + 0.436 \left( \frac{M'}{M} \right)^{1/3} \left( \frac{M_1}{M} \right)^{-5/9} \tilde{\omega}_\alpha^{-4/9} \tilde{Q}_\alpha^{2/3} \right], \tag{34} \]
where we have used \( l = m = 2 \) and \( \tilde{\omega}_\alpha, \tilde{Q}_\alpha \) are in dimensionless units where \( G = M = R = 1 \). The mode energy at \( D = D_{\alpha+} \) is
\[
E_\alpha(D_{\alpha+}) = 0.0701 \left( \frac{M'}{M} \right)^{4/3} \left( \frac{M_t}{M} \right)^{-8/9} \times \tilde{\omega}_\alpha^{10/9} \left( W_{1m} \tilde{Q}_\alpha \right)^{2/3} \frac{M^2}{R}. \tag{35} \]
Since for \( D < D_{\alpha+} \), the orbital energy will be deposited into the mode much faster than it is being radiated away, we approximate that all the orbital energy between \( D_{\alpha+} \) and \( D \) is transferred to the mode. Thus the mode energy increases by the amount
\[
\Delta E_\alpha = 2 \times \left( \frac{M'M}{2D_\alpha} - \frac{MM'}{2D_{\alpha+}} \right), \tag{36} \]
where we have multiplied by a factor of two to account for the fact that energy is also deposited at a nearly equal rate before resonance as it is after resonance. Using equation \( (34) \), we find
\[
\Delta E_\alpha = 0.2804 \left( \frac{M'}{M} \right)^{4/3} \left( \frac{M_t}{M} \right)^{-8/9} \times \tilde{\omega}_\alpha^{10/9} \left( W_{1m} \tilde{Q}_\alpha \right)^{2/3} \frac{M^2}{R}. \tag{37} \]
This is exactly four times of equation \( (35) \). Thus the maximum mode energy after resonance is \( E_{\alpha,\text{max}} = E_\alpha(D_{\alpha+}) + \Delta E_\alpha \), or
\[
E_{\alpha,\text{max}} \approx 5.75 \times 10^{-4} \left( \frac{M'}{M} \right)^{4/3} \left( \frac{M_t}{M} \right)^{-8/9} \times \left( \frac{\tilde{\omega}_\alpha}{0.2} \right)^{10/9} \left( \frac{\tilde{Q}_\alpha}{10^{-3}} \right)^{2/3} \frac{M^2}{R}. \tag{38} \]
The corresponding maximum mode amplitude is
\[
b_{\alpha,\text{max}} \approx 8.48 \times 10^{-2} \left( \frac{M'}{M} \right)^{2/3} \left( \frac{M_t}{M} \right)^{-4/9} \times \left( \frac{\tilde{\omega}_\alpha}{0.2} \right)^{-4/9} \left( \frac{\tilde{Q}_\alpha}{10^{-3}} \right)^{1/3}. \tag{39} \]

Figures 5 and 6 compare our numerical results with the analytical expressions \( (38)-(39) \). We find good agreement for the orbital modes considered. Figure 5 verifies the dependence of \( b_{\alpha,\text{max}} \) on the mode frequency and the value of \( \tilde{Q}_\alpha \), while figure 6 verifies the dependence of \( b_{\alpha,\text{max}} \) on the mass of the binary companion (except for the highest mass cases discussed below). Therefore equations \( (38) \) and \( (39) \) provide fairly accurate estimates of the mode amplitude and energy without performing numerical integrations.

For the very high companion masses (\( M' \gtrsim 10^3 M \)) shown in Figure 6, our analytical formula significantly overestimates the post-resonance amplitude. The reason for this is that the gravitational decay time scale is shorter if the companion is more massive. If the companion is massive enough, the orbit will decay through resonance due to gravitational radiation before the orbital energy equation \( (37) \) can be deposited in the mode (see below). Consequently, the amplitude to which a mode is excited decreases if the mass of the companion becomes very high. Therefore our analytical formula overestimates the post-resonance amplitude for extremely massive companions. For any reasonable WD or NS masses, our analytical estimate is accurate, but for a super-massive black hole the estimate may become inaccurate.

It is interesting that the above analytical results for the resonant mode energy is independent of the gravitational wave damping time scale \( t_D \), in contrast to the NS/NS or NS/BH binary cases. In fact, for the above derivation to be valid, the following four conditions must be satisfied at \( D_{\alpha+} \):

(i) \( \omega_\alpha \gg |b_\alpha|/b_\omega \), \tag{40} 
(ii) \( \omega_\alpha^2 - (m\Omega)^2 \gg m\dot{\Omega} \), \tag{41} 
(iii) \( \omega_\alpha^2 - (m\Omega)^2 \gg 2m\Omega |b_\alpha/b_\omega| \), \tag{42} 
(iv) \( \omega_\alpha^2 - (m\Omega)^2 \gg |b_\alpha/b_\omega| \). \tag{43} 
Conditions (i) and (ii) both lead to
\[
\omega_\alpha t_D \gg 3 \left( \frac{\omega_\alpha^2}{\omega_\alpha^2 - (m\Omega)^2} \right); \tag{44} \]
condition (iii) gives
\[
\omega_\alpha t_D \gg 6 \left( \frac{\omega_\alpha^2}{\omega_\alpha^2 - (m\Omega)^2} \right)^2; \tag{45} \]
and condition (iv) yields
\[
\omega_\alpha t_D \gg \sqrt{18} \left( \frac{\omega_\alpha^2}{\omega_\alpha^2 - (m\Omega)^2} \right)^{3/2}. \tag{46} \]
In equations \( (44)-(46) \), the right-hand sides should be evaluated at \( D_{\alpha+} \). Clearly, condition (iii) is most constraining.

With
\[
\frac{\omega_\alpha^2}{\omega_\alpha^2 - (m\Omega)^2} = 3 \left( \frac{D_{\alpha+} - D_\alpha}{D_\alpha} \right)
= 0.0064 \left( \frac{M'}{M} \right)^{1/3} \left( \frac{M_1}{M} \right)^{-5/9} \left( \frac{\tilde{\omega}_\alpha}{0.2} \right)^{4/9} \left( \frac{\tilde{Q}_\alpha}{10^{-3}} \right)^{2/3} \left( \frac{M_1}{M} \right)^{10/9} \times \left( \frac{\tilde{\omega}_\alpha}{0.2} \right)^{-17/9} \left( \frac{\tilde{Q}_\alpha}{10^{-3}} \right)^{-4/3}. \tag{47} \]
Since \( t_D \) is on the order of a thousand years or more for orbital frequencies comparable to WD \( g \)-modes, condition (iii) is always satisfied for WD/WD or WD/NS binaries. On the other hand, the conditions (i)-(iv) are not all satisfied for NS/NS or NS/BH binaries.

For very massive companions, the inequality of equation \( (48) \) may not hold. Using equation \( (10) \) for \( t_D \), equation \( (48) \) implies (for \( M_t/M \approx M'/M \))
\[
M' \lesssim 5.5 \times 10^4 \left( \frac{\tilde{\omega}_\alpha}{0.2} \right)^{-7/10} \left( \frac{\tilde{Q}_\alpha}{10^{-3}} \right)^{9/5} \times \left( \frac{M'}{M_\odot} \right)^{-9/4} \left( \frac{R}{10^9 \text{km}} \right)^{9/4}. \tag{49} \]
The above inequality implies our estimates are valid for any
feasible companion except a super-massive black hole. We can also use this inequality to examine the inaccuracy of our estimate in the highest mass cases of Figure 6. Figure 6 was generated using the \( n = 3 \) mode parameters listed in Table 1 for a WD of \( M = 0.6 M_\odot \) and \( R = 8.97 \times 10^3 \) km. Plugging in these parameters, equation (49) requires

\[
\frac{M'}{M} \ll 1.7 \times 10^3 \tag{50}
\]

for our analytical estimates in Figure 6 to be accurate. This explains why the analytical estimates of Figure 6 are accurate when \( M' \ll 1000 M \) but diverge from the numerical results when \( M' \gtrsim 1000 M \).

Given the maximum mode amplitude reached during a resonance, we can now estimate the temporal duration of the resonance. Letting \( \alpha_\alpha = c_\alpha e^{-i\omega_\alpha t} \), the mode amplitude evolution equation (7) becomes

\[
\dot{c}_\alpha - 2i\omega_\alpha c_\alpha = \frac{M' W_{im} Q_\alpha}{D^3} e^{i\alpha_\alpha t - im\Phi}. \tag{51}
\]

Assuming that during the resonance, \( \omega_\alpha - m\Omega \approx 0 \), the right-hand-side of equation (51) can be taken as a constant, we then have

\[
\dot{c}_\alpha \approx \frac{iM' W_{im} Q_\alpha}{2\omega_\alpha D^3}, \tag{52}
\]

i.e., the mode amplitude grows linearly in time. Thus, the duration of the resonance is of order

\[
t_{res} = \left| \frac{b_{\alpha, max}}{\dot{c}_\alpha} \right| \approx 3.42 \left( \frac{M'}{M} \right)^{-1/3} \left( \frac{M_\odot}{M} \right)^{5/9} \left( \frac{\bar{\omega}_\alpha^{13/9} Q_\alpha^{-2/3}}{R^3} \right)^{1/2} \tag{53}
\]

Since the dynamical time \((R^3/GM)^{1/2}\) for typical WDs is on the order of one second, the resonance duration is typically an hour or longer. Note that the above estimate is formally valid only when \([\omega - m\Omega(D_{\alpha})]t_{res} \ll 1\), so that we can set \(\omega_\alpha - m\Omega \approx 0\) for the duration of the resonance. Using equations (47) and (53), we find \([\omega_\alpha - m\Omega(D_{\alpha})]t_{res} \approx 1\) for typical parameters. Thus we should consider equation (53) as an order-of-magnitude estimate only. Also, we can check that the GW energy loss during the resonance, \(\Delta E_{GW} \approx (M M' / 2D_{\alpha})(t_{res} / t_\Omega)\), is much less than \(E_{\alpha, max}\), justifying our derivation of \(E_{\alpha, max}\) given by equation (38). Indeed, the above condition simplifies to equation (53) since in both cases it is the energy carried away by gravitational waves that is limiting the mode growth.

We can use the same method to solve for the size of the fluctuations in mode amplitude after resonance. Due to the symmetry of the harmonic oscillator, the fluctuation in mode amplitude about the mean value after the resonance is identical to the zeroth-order estimate of the mode amplitude before resonance [see eq. (28)], i.e.,

\[
\Delta \alpha \approx \frac{M' W_{im} Q_\alpha}{D^{1+1/(2n^2/M^2 - \omega_\alpha^2)}}. \tag{54}
\]

These fluctuations occur with frequency \(m\Omega - \omega_\alpha\), since this is the difference in frequency between the eigenfrequency at which the WD is oscillating and the orbital forcing frequency. So, as the orbital frequency continues to increase after the resonance, the amplitude of the fluctuations becomes smaller while the frequency of the amplitude oscillations becomes higher.

6 EFFECT OF MODE DAMPING

The results in the previous two sections neglect mode energy damping in the WD. Since the duration of the resonance is much longer than the mode period [see equation (53)], internal mode damping could affect the energy transfer during resonance if the damping rate is sufficiently large. To address this issue, we incorporate a phenomenological damping rate \(-\gamma_\alpha \omega_\alpha \dot{\alpha}\) to the mode equation (7) to study how mode damping affects energy transfer during a resonance. Figure 7 shows the excitation of a mode through resonance for different values of \(\gamma_\alpha\). We see that, as expected, when the internal damping time is larger than the resonance duration (equation 54), the maximum mode energy achieved in a resonance is unaffected.

G-modes in white dwarfs are damped primarily by radiative diffusion. For sufficiently large mode amplitudes, non-linear damping is also important (e.g., Kumar & Goodman 1996; see section 4 for more discussion on this issue).
Wu (1998) presents estimates for the non-adiabatic radiative damping rates of WD g-modes in terms of $\omega = \gamma \omega_r$. Extrapolating Wu’s values to $l = 2$ modes for a white dwarf of temperature $T = 10800$ K, we find $\gamma \sim 10^{-11}$ for modes near $n = 1$ and $\gamma \sim 10^{-4}$ for high-order modes with $n \gtrsim 20$. So, while the maximum amplitude of low-order modes is completely unaffected by non-adiabatic effects, high-order modes will damp on time scales similar to the excitation time scale. Therefore these high-order modes will attain amplitudes somewhat smaller than estimated in the previous section. This continual process of high-order mode damping may extract energy out of the orbit more efficiently than discrete resonance events, causing a steady decay of the binary’s orbit.

7 DISCUSSION

We have shown that during the orbital decay of compact white dwarf binaries (WD/WD, WD/NS or WD/BH), a series of g-modes can be tidally excited to large amplitudes (up to 0.1 in dimensionless units) as the orbital frequency sweeps through the resonant mode frequencies. Such mode excitations can significantly affect the orbital decay rate near resonance. Indeed, to properly calculate the resonant mode amplitude, it is necessary to take into account of the back-reaction of the excited modes on the orbit. One consequence of the resonant mode excitations is that the low-frequency ($\lesssim 10^{-2}$ Hz) gravitational waveforms emitted by the binary, detectable by LISA, will deviate significantly from the point-mass binary prediction. This is in contrast to the case of neutron star binaries (NS/NS or NS/BH) studied previously (Reisenegger & Goldreich 1994; Lai 1994; Shibata 1994; Ho & Lai 1999; Lai & Wu 2006; Flanagan & Racine 2006), where the resonant mode amplitude is normally too small to affect the binary orbital decay rate and the gravitational waveforms to be detected by ground-based gravitational wave detectors such as LIGO and VIRGO.

In the case of WD binaries studied in this paper, the number of of orbits skipped as a result of a resonant mode excitation is

$$\Delta N_{\text{orb}} = \frac{t_D}{P_{\text{orb}}} \frac{E_{\alpha,\text{max}}}{E_{\text{orb}}}.$$  (55)

where $t_D$ is the gravitational wave decay time scale given in equation (10), $P_{\text{orb}}$ is the orbital period, and $E_{\text{orb}}$ is the orbital energy at resonance. Using equation (38) for $E_{\alpha,\text{max}}$, we find

$$\Delta N_{\text{orb}} = 3.4 \times 10^6 \left( \frac{M_\odot}{M} \right)^{17/3} \left( \frac{M_t}{M_\odot} \right)^{-8/9} \left( \frac{M}{M_\odot} \right)^{1/3} \left( \frac{\omega_{\alpha}}{0.2} \right)^{10/9} \left( \frac{Q_{\alpha}}{10^{-3}} \right)^{2/3} \left( \frac{M}{M_\odot} \right)^{10/3} \left( \frac{10^4 \text{km}}{R} \right).$$  (56)

The number of skipped orbital cycles should be compared to the number of orbits in a decay time, expressed by

$$\frac{dN_{\text{orb}}}{d\ln \Omega} = \frac{1}{3\pi} \Omega D \frac{t_D}{P_{\text{orb}}} \frac{E_{\alpha,\text{max}}}{E_{\text{orb}}} = 3.3 \times 10^8 \left( \frac{M_\odot^2}{M M^*} \right)^{1/3} \left( \frac{M_t}{2M_\odot} \right)^{1/3} \left( \frac{\Omega}{0.1 \text{s}^{-1}} \right)^{-5/3}.$$  (57)

The huge number of skipped orbital cycles implies that such a resonant interaction would be important, but because the number of skipped orbital cycles is much smaller than the number of orbital cycles in a decay time, resonances will not dominate the decay process.

A second possible consequence of resonant mode excitations is that the large mode energy may lead to significant heating of the white dwarf prior to the binary merger. Indeed, equation (58) shows that for typical binary parameters, the mode energy can be a significant fraction ($\sim 10^{-1}$–$10^{-3}$) of the gravitational binding energy of the star, and comparable to the thermal energy. Indeed, the thermal energy of the WD is of order $E_{\text{th}} \approx \frac{M c^2}{2 M_\odot}$, where $T_c$ is the core temperature of the WD and $A$ is the mean atomic weight.

The ratio of post-resonance mode energy to thermal energy is then

$$\frac{E_{\alpha,\text{max}}}{E_{\text{th}}} \approx 1.7 \left( \frac{M}{M} \right)^{4/3} \left( \frac{M_t}{M} \right)^{-8/9} \left( \frac{\omega_{\alpha}}{0.2} \right)^{10/9} \left( \frac{Q_{\alpha}}{10^{-3}} \right)^{2/3} \left( \frac{10^7 K}{T_c} \right) \left( \frac{M}{M_\odot} \right)^{10/3} \left( \frac{10^4 \text{km}}{R} \right).$$  (58)

This implies that the white dwarf may become bright thousands of years before binary merger.

A third consequence that may result from a resonance is significant spin-up of the WD. If we assume that all the angular momentum transferred to the WD during a resonance eventually manifests as rigid body rotation of the WD, the change in spin frequency of the WD is

$$\Delta \Omega_s = \frac{E_{\alpha,\text{max}}}{I \Omega},$$  (59)

where $\omega_s$ is the spin frequency of the WD and $I$ is its moment of inertia. Plugging in our expression for $E_{\alpha,\text{max}}$, we find

$$\Delta \Omega_s = 0.29 \left( \frac{0.2}{\kappa} \right) \left( \frac{M}{M} \right)^{4/3} \left( \frac{M_t}{M} \right)^{-8/9} \left( \frac{\omega_{\alpha}}{0.2} \right)^{10/9} \left( \frac{Q_{\alpha}}{10^{-3}} \right)^{2/3} \Omega,$$  (60)

where $\kappa = I/(M R^2) \approx 0.2$. We can thus see that a given resonance may deposit enough angular momentum to completely spin up the WD (or significantly alter its spin) by the time the mode damps out. This implies that mode resonances are potentially very important in the spin synchronization process! However, before these implications can be taken seriously, one should be aware of the limitations of the present study. One issue is the assumption that the white dwarf is non-rotating (and not synchronized), already commented on in section 1. More importantly, we have assumed that the white dwarf oscillations can be calculated in the linear regime. While the mass-averaged dimensionless amplitude $|a_\alpha| = |b_\alpha|$ of the excited g-mode is less than 0.1 [see Fig. 5 and Eq. (39)], the physical fluid displacement in the stellar envelope is much larger since g-modes of white dwarfs are mainly concentrated in the outer, non-degenerate layers. Figure 6 gives some examples: it shows the horizontal and radial displacements of three modes at their post-resonance amplitudes. These are obtained from $\xi = a_\alpha \xi_\alpha$, with $\xi_\alpha$ the normalized eigenfunction (see section 3) and $a_\alpha$ computed from equation (39), with $M' = M$. In general, the linear approximation is valid only if $|\xi| \ll |b_\alpha|^{-1}$, where $b_\alpha$ is the
Figure 8. The horizontal (solid line) and radial (dashed line) displacements of the \( n = 1 \) (top panel) and \( n = 5 \) (bottom panel) modes as a function of radius. The physical displacements are calculated using the analytical estimates for the post-resonance amplitudes given in equation 39 using \( M = M' \), giving \(|a_1| = 0.0566\) and \(|a_5| = 0.0695\). Also shown is inverse of the WKB wave number \( 1/k_r \) (dotted line).

WKB wave number, given by

\[
k^2_r \simeq \frac{l(l+1)(N^2 - \omega^2)}{\omega^2 r^2}.
\]

Clearly, the three modes depicted in Fig. 8 strongly violate the linear approximation beyond the radius \( r \approx 0.85R \), near the jump in \( N^2 \) associated with the carbon-helium boundary.

Therefore, the results presented in this paper should be treated with caution as nonlinear effects will likely limit mode growth. Rather than increasing to the large displacements shown in Figure 8, the white dwarf oscillations will undergo non-linear processes such as mode coupling that will transfer energy to high-order modes. These high-order modes have much shorter wavelengths and thus damp on very short time scales. As nonlinearity is most important in the outer layers of the white dwarf, we expect that the excited oscillation will dissipate its energy preferentially in this outer layer and will not reflect back into the stellar interior. We plan to address these issues in our next paper (Fuller & Lai 2010, in preparation).

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