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Exotic Cores with and without Dark-Matter Admixtures in Compact Stars

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Abstract: We parameterize the core of compact spherical star configurations by a mass \( m_x \) and a radius \( r_x \) and study the resulting admissible areas in the total-mass–total-radius plane. The employed fiducial equation-of-state models of the corona at radii \( r > r_x \) and pressures \( p \leq p_x \) with \( p(r = r_x) = p_x \) are that of constant sound velocity and a proxy of \( \DeltaDD-ME2 \) provided by Buchdahl’s exactly solvable ansatz. The core \( (r < r_x) \) may contain any type of material, e.g., Standard-Model matter with unspecified equation of state or/and an unspecified Dark-Matter admixture. Employing a toy model for the cool equation of state with first-order phase transition, we also discuss the mass-radius relation of compact stars with an admixture of Dark Matter in a Mirror-World scenario.

Keywords: compact stars; mass-radius relation; equation of state; dark-matter admixtures

1. Introduction

The advent of detecting gravitational waves from merging neutron stars, the related multi-messenger astrophysics [1–8] and the improving mass-radius determinations of neutron stars, in particular by NICER data [9–11], stimulated a wealth of activities. Besides mass and radius, moments of inertia and tidal deformabilities become experimentally accessible and can be confronted with theoretical models [1,12–18]. The baseline of the latter ones is provided by non-rotating, spherically symmetric cold dense matter configurations. The sequence of white dwarfs (first island of stability) and neutron stars (second island of stability) and—possibly [19]—a third island of stability [20–22] thereby shows up when moving to more compact objects, with details depending sensitively on the actual equation of state (EoS). The quest for a fourth island has been addressed too [23,24]. Here, “stability” means the damping of radial disturbances. Since the radii of configurations of the second (neutron stars) and third (hypothetical quark/hybrid stars [25–27]) islands are very similar, the notion of twin stars [28,29] has been coined for equal-mass configurations; “masquerade” was another related term [30].

The standard modeling of such static compact star configurations is based on the Tolman–Oppenheimer–Volkov (TOV) equations

\[
\frac{dp}{dr} = -G_N \left( e + p \right) \left( \frac{m + 4\pi pr^2}{r^2} \right),
\]

\[
\frac{dm}{dr} = 4\pi er^2,
\]

emerging from the energy–momentum tensor of a perfect isotropical fluid and spherical symmetry of space–time and matter as well, within the framework of Einstein gravity without a cosmological term. Newton’s constant is denoted by \( G_N \), natural units with \( c = 1 \) are used, unless relating mass and length and energy density, for which \( hc \) is needed. Given a unique relationship of pressure \( p \) and energy density \( e \) as equation of state (EoS) \( e(p) \), in particular at zero temperature, the TOV equations are integrated with boundary
conditions \( p(0) = p_c \) and \( m(0) = 0 \) (implying \( p(r) = p_c - \mathcal{O}(r^2) \) and \( m(r) = 0 + \mathcal{O}(r^3) \) at small radii \( r \)), and \( p(R) = 0 \) and \( m(R) = M \) with \( R \) as circumferential radius and \( M \) as gravitational mass (acting as a parameter in the external (vacuum) Schwarzschild solution at \( r > R \)). The quantity \( p_c \) is the central pressure. The solutions \( R(p_c) \) and \( M(p_c) \) provide the mass-radius relation in parametric form \( M(R) \).

A great deal of effort is presently focused on the EoS at supra-nuclear densities [31]. Figure 1 in [32] exhibits the currently admitted uncertainty: up to a factor of ten in pressure as a function of energy density. At asymptotically large energy-density, perturbative QCD constrains the EoS, though it is just the non-asymptotic supra-nuclear density region which crucially determines whether twin stars may exist or quark-matter cores appear in neutron stars. Accordingly, one can fill this gap with a big number of test EoSs to scan through the possibly resulting mass–radius curves; see [33–36]. However, the option that neutron stars can accommodate Dark Matter (or other exotic material) [37–40] obscures the safe theoretical modeling of a reliable mass–radius relation in such a manner. Of course, inverting the posed problem with sufficiently precise data of masses and radii as input offers a promising avenue towards determining the EoS [33,41–46].

Here, we pursue another perspective: we parameterize the supra-nuclear core by a radius \( r_x \) and the included mass \( m_x \) and integrate the above TOV equations only in the corona, i.e., from pressure \( p_c \) to the surface, where \( p = 0 \). This yields the total mass \( M(r_x, m_x; p_c) \) and the total radius \( R(r_x, m_x; p_c) \) by assuming that the corona EoS \( e(p) \) is reliably known at \( p \leq p_c \). (Our notion “corona” could be substituted by “mantel” or “crust” or “envelope”. It refers to the complete part of the compact star outside the core, \( r_x \leq r \leq R \).) Clearly, without knowledge of the matter composition at \( p > p_c \) (may it be Standard-Model matter with uncertain EoS or may it contain a Dark-Matter admixture, for instance, or monopoles or some other type of “exotic” matter) one does not get a simple mass–radius relation by such procedure, but admissible area(s) over the mass–radius plane, depending on the core parameters \( r_x \) and \( m_x \). This is the price of avoiding a special model of the core matter composition.

We are going to test two models of the corona EoS: (i) constant sound velocity with crucial parameter \( e_0 = e(p = 0) \) and \( p = 0 \) for \( e < e_0 \), and (ii) Buchdahl’s EoS which, surprisingly, represents a proxy of the DYΔ DD-ME2 EoS [23] and has the property \( \lim_{p \to 0} e(p) = 0 \). One could consider this as a test of the sensitivity against variations of the neutron star crust (see [47,48] for such a crust test within the traditional approach with a given core EoS).

We emphasize the relation of ultra-relativistic heavy-ion collision physics, related to the EoS \( p(T, \mu_B = 0) \), and compact star physics, related to \( p(T \approx 0, \mu_B) \), when focusing on static compact-star properties [49,50]. (Of course, in binary or ternary compact-star merging-events, finite temperatures \( T \) and a large range of baryon-chemical potential \( \mu_B \) are also probed [51].) Implications of the conjecture of a first-order phase transition at small temperatures and large baryo-chemical potentials or densities [52–55] can be studied by neutron-hybrid-quark stars [56–59]. It has been known for some time [20–22,60,61] that a cold EoS with special pressure–energy-density relation \( p(e) \), e.g., a strong local softening up to first-order phase transition with a density jump, can give rise to a “third family” of compact stars, beyond white dwarfs and neutron stars. In special cases, the third-family stars appear as twins of neutron stars [30,62,63]. Various scenarios of the transition dynamics to the denser configuration as mini-supernova were discussed quite early [64,65].

Our paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we employ the corona EoS model (i) (constant sound velocity) and also consider the instructive limiting case of an incompressible fluid. Special relations of \( m_x(r_x) \) are deployed to emphasize the relation to the traditional approach, which emerges as cut in the \( M-R \) plane representing the curve \( M(R) \). Section 3 uses the corona EoS model (ii) (Buchdahl’s EoS as proxy of a nuclear-physics-based EoS). The \( M(R) \) relations for models (i) and (ii) are quite different, as are the admitted areas over the \( M-R \) plane. We conclude in Section 4. Appendix A considers Dark-Matter or Mirror-World admixtures in neutron (quark) stars with a phase transition with the goal of
illustrating the potential impact of a first-order phase transition on the mass–radius relation and the quest for twin stars. This is another way to specify the relation \( m_c(r_c) \).

2. Corona with Constant Sound Velocity EoS

The constant sound velocity EoS

\[
p(e) = v_s^2(e - e_0) \quad \text{for } e > e_0, \quad p = 0 \quad \text{for } e \leq e_0
\]  

(3)

introduces a scale setting parameter \( e_0 \), which drops out in the representation by scaled quantities: \( \rho = \rho/e_0, \ r = r\sqrt{GNe_0}, \ m = mG_N\sqrt{GNe_0} \). Only the sound velocity \( v_s^2 = \partial p/\partial e \) remains as parameter. We use this as model (i) and—arbitrarily—take \( \rho_c = 1 \) as the upper limit of scaled pressure of the corona EoS.

2.1. A Limiting Case: Infinite Sound Velocity

It is instructive to consider the limiting case \( v_s^2 \to 0 \), i.e., \( e \to 1 \) for \( \rho \leq 1 \). The constant energy density in Equation (2) results in \( \dot{m} = \dot{m}_x + \frac{4\pi}{3}r^3(\dot{\rho}^2 - \dot{\rho}_c^2) \), and the Riccati-type ordinary differential Equation (1) becomes, by a suitable shift of the pressure, a Bernoulli equation, allowing a quadrature to get the pressure profile \( p(\rho) = -1 + (\rho_c + 1) \exp\left(\frac{3}{2}(\lambda - \lambda_0)N, N^{-1} = 1 + 4\pi(\rho_c + 1) \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\lambda_0\right) \int_{r_x}^R \partial r \exp(\frac{3}{2}\lambda(\rho))\right), e^{-\lambda} = 1 - 2\dot{m}/\rho_0, \lambda_0 = \lambda(r_c), \right. \) [22,66]. Since the term with \( \int_{r_x}^R \partial r \exp(\frac{3}{2}\lambda(\rho)) \) is less transparent due to the elliptic integral(s), we turn on an approximation of the case \( e = const \) and numerically integrate Equations (1) and (2) with \( v_s^2 = 10^{-4} \) to mimic the above constant energy density EoS by a proxy with large sound velocity. We then find admissible area in the \( M-R \) plane displayed in Figure 1. That area is mapped out here by curves \( r_c = const \) with \( m_c \) varying from small (at the r.h.s.) to large (at the l.h.s.) values. The l.h.s. limitation is given by the black hole condition \( M = \dot{R}/2 \) (red fat line). In the limit of small cores, the \( r_c = const \) curves \( M = \dot{m}_x + \frac{4\pi}{3}R^3 - \mathcal{O}(r_c^2) \) approach the Schwarzschild mass–radius relation \( \dot{M} = \frac{4\pi}{3}R^3 \) (dashed black curve), i.e., the gap to the \( r_c = const \) curve becomes larger with decreasing values of \( \dot{R} \) due to increasing \( \dot{m}_x \). The Schwarzschild curve terminates in the asterisk, since that is where \( \rho_c = 1 \) is reached. One may recall the pressure profile of the interior Schwarzschild solution \( p_{\text{Schw}}(\rho) = -\left[(1 + \rho_c) - (1 + 3\rho_c)W\right]/\left[3(1 + \rho_c) - (1 + 3\rho_c)W\right], \ W = \sqrt{1 - \frac{8\pi}{3}\dot{m}^2}, \right. \) yielding \( \dot{R}(\rho_c) \) from \( \rho(\dot{R}) = 0 \) to see this via our proposition \( \rho \leq \rho_c \).

In this context, it is interesting to compare the pressure profiles of the interior Schwarzschild solution and the core–corona model at small values of \( r_c \). Adjusting the central pressure of the interior Schwarzschild solution to obtain the same scaled radius \( \dot{R} \) as in the core–corona model with a given small value of \( r_c \) and a given value of \( m_x \), one finds (not displayed) a rapidly dropping pressure in a narrow region above \( r_c \) towards the Schwarzschild pressure \( p_{\text{Schw}}(\rho) \), which holds until the surface. In such a way, the admissible area of masses and radii of the core–corona model are bracketed by the black-hole limit at l.h.s. and the conventional mass–radius curve in the lower part of the mass–radius plane.

Let us now consider two possible sections through the mass–radius plane. First, we assume a core-mass vs. core-radius relation as \( m_c(r_c) = \frac{4\pi}{3}r_c^3 \). This yields the dotted curve, which clearly coincides with the Schwarzschild relation when continuing the latter one to central pressures larger than \( \rho_c \). Note that with increasing values of \( \rho_c \), the admissible region of the core–corona model leaks increasingly into the r.h.s.
A second side condition in relating the core-mass and core-radius is given by \( \bar{m}_x(\bar{r}_x) = \frac{4\pi}{3}\lambda \bar{r}_x^3 \), meaning that the energy density in the core is \( \lambda \) times the energy density of the corona. (This is essentially the two-shell model considered in [21,22]). Selecting \( \lambda = 2.2 \) facilitates the cyan double curve, again a well-defined mass–radius curve. Larger (smaller) values of \( \lambda \) bend down (up) that curve. The section between the local r.h.s. mass maximum at the asterisk and the local mass minimum belongs to unstable configurations, while left to the local mass minimum, the configurations become stable again. This very construction is at the heart of twin stars, i.e., stable configurations with the same mass but (slightly) different radii. There is notable leakage into the region l.h.s. to the Buchdahl bound (cf. [67] for a corollary) given by \( \bar{M} = 4\bar{R}/9 \). This issue is caused by the fact that a central pressure \( \bar{p}_c < \infty \) does not drop to \( \bar{p}_x \) at radius \( \bar{r}_x \) when using the TOV equations with core density \( \bar{n}_0 \).

Phrased differently, the above ad hoc choice \( \bar{m}_x(\bar{r}_x) = \frac{4\pi}{3}\lambda \bar{r}_x^3 \) is compatible with the TOV equations only for a limited range of values of \( \bar{r}_x \). The validity of the TOV equations for a consistent (always decreasing) pressure profile from \( \bar{p}_c \) to zero limits the extension of the curve under discussion and lets it terminate before reaching Buchdahl’s limit. Nevertheless, extensions of the TOV equations, e.g., as system describing a multi-fluid medium with Dark-Matter components (see Appendix A), make the occupancy of the region beyond Buchdahl’s limit conceivable.

### 2.2. Finite Sound Velocity

For a finite sound velocity, the mass–radius curve bends to the left and facilitates a mass maximum, e.g., \( \bar{M}_{\text{max}} = 0.051 \) at radius \( \bar{R} = 0.195 \) for \( v_{\text{s}}^{-2} = 3 \). By the requirement of
M = 2M⊙, one gets e0 ≈ 231.5 MeV/fm³ and finds, from R = MGN/⃗R/⃗M, a radius of 11.27 km, (accidentally) in the right ballpark.

The mass–radius plane is exhibited in Figure 2 with the same line style conventions as in Figure 1. One meets the features discussed in the previous Subsection. The admissible region is bracketed l.h.s. by the black hole condition and r.h.s. by the plain mass–radius curve M(⃗R) (dashed black curve) up to the asterisk, where ⃗ρc = ⃗ρx is reached. In the dotted section, the central pressures obey ⃗ρc > ⃗ρx. Due to non-zero matter compressibility, the analog relation mx(⃗rx), discussed in Section 2.1, must be constructed numerically to see that this side condition within the core–corona model in fact coincides with the mass–radius curve obtained by the (ad hoc) continuation of the EoS (3) at p > px. For small values of ⃗rx = const, the permitted masses as a function of radius approach the mass–radius curve M(⃗R) for px = const = 0.005 curve; the rightmost curve for mx = 0.001 is displayed only for M > 0.03.

We relegate the consideration of special cuts mx(⃗rx) and variations of px to the Appendix A, where we explicitly include an admixture of Dark Matter to be dealt within a two-fluid approach.

3. Corona with Buchdahl’s EoS and NYΔ DD-EM2

While the employed corona EoS in Section 2.2 displays a finite positive slope of the mass–radius curve for a large range, the currently preferred EoS models point to a steep increase. An example of an EoS compatible with neutron star data is NYΔ, based on the DD-ME2 density functional [23]. Surprisingly, Buchdahl’s EoS [68]

\[ e = 12\sqrt{p^2 - \frac{5}{4}p} \quad p \leq p_+ \]

with p_+ = 64 MeV/fm³ matches fairly well NYΔ within the range tabulated in [23], see Table 1. Due to causality requirement v^2_s \leq 1, Equation (4) is limited to p \leq p_+. In contrast to the EoS of model (i), Equation (4) extends smoothly to e = 0 and p = 0. The mass–radius

![Figure 2. Same as Figure 1 but for v^2_s = 3 to cope with causality. The dashed magenta curves depict additional mass–radius relations for running values of ⃗rx and mx = const with values of 0.01, 0.02, 0.04, and 0.09 above the labeled mx = 0.005 curve; the rightmost curve for mx = 0.001 is displayed only for M > 0.03.](image-url)
relation is given by \( M = \beta R/G_N \), and the radius is parameterized by \( R = \sqrt[1-2\beta]{\frac{\pi}{288 p_\ast G_N}} \) for \( \beta \in [0, 1/6] \) [68,69]. In this section, we use physical units, e.g., \( p_\ast \) in MeV/fm\(^3\) instead of \( p_x \), and display masses in units of \( M_\odot \) and radii in units of km. With the above quoted value of \( p_\ast \) one finds \( R = 11.33\sqrt{1-2\beta}/\pi \) km and \( M = 7.66\beta\sqrt{1-2\beta}/M_\odot \), where the maximum mass \( 1.31 M_\odot \) and radius 11.56 km can be read off.

The resulting mass–radius plot is exhibited in Figure 3, with line style conventions as seen in Figure 1. All the features discussed in Section 2 are recovered, e.g., the convex shape of the curves \( r_x = \text{const} \), the approach of these curves to the mass–radius relation based on the EoS (4) at small values of \( r_x \), the occupancy of a region beyond the Buchdahl limit up to the black hole limit etc. Since \( p_x = p_\ast \) is comparatively small, the resulting mass–radius curve (solid black curve) terminates at rather small mass, quoted above. However, the core–corona decomposition shows that the maximum-mass region of NY\(\Delta\)-DD-ME2 (see gray curves) is easily uncovered too, interestingly with sizeable core radii and noticeably smaller up to larger total radii.

\[ \begin{align*}
\text{Figure 3.} & \quad \text{Same as Figure 1, however for the corona model (ii), i.e., EoS (4) with } p_\ast = 64 \text{ MeV/fm}^3 \\
& \quad \text{(solid black curve). Note the different units. Faint gray curves are based on the standard integration of the TOV equations by using the numbers of the NY\(\Delta\) EoS tabulated in [23] with linear interpolation both in between the mesh and from the tabulated minimum energy density to the } p = 0 \text{ point at } e_0. \text{ The chosen values are } e_0 = 100, 10, 1, \text{ and } 0.1 \text{ MeV/fm}^3 \text{ (from left to right). The variation of the low-mass sections of these mass–radius curves points to some sensitivity on the outer crust properties. The slight deviation of the solid black curve and the second (from left) gray curve points to a non-perfect match of (4) and NY\(\Delta\).}
\end{align*} \]

4. Summary

We investigate a scenario which assumes the knowledge of a trustable equation of state (EoS) for compact spherical stars at pressures \( p \leq p_x \). In a core–corona decomposition, the core with an unspecified composition and thus unknown (maybe exotic matter) equation(s) of state is parameterized by a mass \( m_x \) and a radius \( r_x \); the pressure at \( r_x \) is just \( p_x \). Besides the unspecified equations of state at \( p > p_x \), the core may also contain any type of matter, most notably Dark Matter. By definition, outside the core—in the
corona—only a Standard-Model neutron-star matter is present, described by the fiducial ("trustable") EoS. The solution of the TOV equations of the corona pressure profile \( p(r) \) for radii \( r \geq r_x \) delivers a broad range of admissible masses and radii of the total core–corona configurations, bracketed by the black hole limit (thus going beyond the Buchdahl limit) and, in part, by the conventional mass–radius curve. We explore these admissible regions by using two test EoS models of the corona as simple substitutes of a state-of-the-art EoS: one with a constant sound velocity EoS and another one which refers to Buchdahl’s EoS, which in turn approximates some part of a particular density-functional approach, i.e., NY\( \Delta \) DD-ME2. The latter is compatible with current mass–radius observations.

One may imagine that all possible continuations of a fiducial ("trustable") EoS beyond \( p_x \) generate mass–radius curves within the admissible region, even with the Buchdahl limit as a border line. However, the admissible region is larger, since it can refer to cores which are not described by the isotropic one-fluid TOV equations. A straightforward extension of the latter is provided by the two-fluid TOV equations, dealt with in the Appendix A. In line with investigations of the impact of the cool EoS on compact star properties, including the intriguing quest for twin stars, we add this schematic consideration of compact-star mass–radius relations for an EoS with first-order phase transition. In doing so, the two-fluid model is deployed where the second fluid is aimed at describing Dark Matter leaking out of a Mirror World. This scenario also facilitates the option of twin stars for a wide range of the Dark Matter admixture.

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Appendix A. Dark-Matter/Mirror-World Admixtures in Neutron Stars with Phase Transition

Spherical multi-fluid configurations in hydrostatic equilibrium are determined by the generalized TOV equations (cf. [70,71])

\[
\frac{d\rho(i)}{dr} = -\left(\rho(i) + \rho_x\right) \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\sum m(i) + 4\pi r^3 \sum \rho^j}{1 - 2 \sum \frac{m(i)}{r}}, \tag{A1}
\]

\[
\frac{d\rho_x(i)}{dr} = 4\pi r^2 \rho_x, \tag{A2}
\]

where the index \( i \) labels the fluid components, which are here assumed to be not mutually interacting but are governed by the common gravity field. The quantities are scaled commonly by \( \rho_0 \), which figures in the EoS

\[
\bar{\rho} = \begin{cases} 
0 & \text{for } \bar{\varepsilon} \leq 1, \\
\frac{\rho_x^2}{\rho_x^2 (\bar{\varepsilon} - 1)} & \text{for } 1 < \bar{\varepsilon} < 1 + \rho_x^2, \\
\rho_x & \text{for } \bar{\varepsilon} = \lambda (1 + \rho_x^2), \\
\rho_x & \text{for } \bar{\varepsilon} = \infty \end{cases}, \tag{A3}
\]
The incompressible part at \( \rho \geq \rho_x \) mimics a stiff EoS above the phase transition at \( \rho_x \) with energy density jump \( \lambda \), i.e., \( \Delta \epsilon = (\lambda - 1)(1 + v_x^2 \rho_x) \). Phrased differently, the EoS Equation (A3) is a toy model of a linear EoS, \( p = v_x^2(e - \epsilon_0) \) for \( e \in (\epsilon_0, \epsilon_x) \), and \( p = p_x + \bar{\sigma}_x^2(e - \lambda \epsilon_x) \) for \( e \geq \lambda \epsilon_x \), where \( p_x \) and \( \epsilon_x \) are related by \( p_x = v_x^2(\epsilon_x - \epsilon_0) \) [72]. To reduce the parameter space, we consider \( \bar{\sigma}_x^2 \to \infty \) as limiting stiffness. Due to deploying the scaled quantities, one gets rid of the explicit value of the surface energy-density \( \epsilon_0 \), where \( p(R) = 0 \) holds.

Fluid \( i = 1 \) is attributed to Standard-Model matter (SM) and should represent dense strong-interaction (hadron … quark) matter in \( \beta \) equilibrium with local electric charge neutrality. Fluid \( i = 2 \) stands for a non-self-annihilating Dark-Matter (DM) candidate, which we also describe using Equation (A3), i.e., \( \bar{\rho}(\rho(1)) \) has the same functional dependence for all \( i \), thus tremendously reducing the parameter space. What now distinguishes SM and DM is the central pressure: \( \bar{\rho}_1^{(1)} \) and \( \bar{\rho}_2^{(2)} \) parameterize the solutions \( \rho^{(1)}(\bar{\rho}_1^{(1)}, \bar{\rho}_1^{(1)} \rho_2^{(2)}) \) and \( \bar{m}^{(1)}(\bar{m}_1^{(1)}, \bar{m}_1^{(1)} \bar{m}_2^{(2)}) \) of (A1)–(A3) yielding, e.g., \( M = M^{(1)} + M^{(2)} \) as total gravitational star mass and visible-matter circumferential radius \( R = \bar{R}^{(1)} \) for choices \( \rho_2^{(2)} = x \rho_1^{(1)} \) with \( x \in [0, 1] \), facilitating \( \bar{R}^{(2)} < \bar{R}^{(1)} \).

One could also think on fluid \( i = 2 \) as matter in a hidden Mirror World which duplicates our SM world and communicates essentially only via gravity (cf. [73–75] for recent activities in the field founded fifty years ago [76]). Particles of the Mirror World apparently represent candidates of Dark Matter [77,78] (cf. [79–81] for further implications and [82–84] for cosmological aspects, including SM matter–DM portal/mixing/feeble-interaction issues). Such a picture justifies the application of the EoS, Equation (A3), for both SM matter and DM; see [85]. We emphasize that, in this Appendix, DM described by Equation (A3) is possible at all pressures \( \rho \leq \rho_x \), while in Section 2, no DM is allowed at \( \rho < \rho_x \). To expose this difference, we contrast the EoSs used in Section 2 and in the current Appendix in Figure A1.

\[ \begin{align*}
\text{Figure A1.} & \quad \text{Schematic plots of the EoSs employed in Section 2 (left panel) and in the current Appendix (right panel). (Left panel): Equation (3) for } \nu_s^2 = 3 \text{ and } \bar{\rho}_x = 1. \text{ The asterisk marks the endpoint of the fiducial SM matter EoS (solid black line, which is a substitute of a trustable EoS), resulting in the mass–radius curve exhibited in Figure 2 by the solid black curve. Beyond } \bar{\rho} = 1, \text{ any EoS is conceivable. The dotted line is one possible extension of the fiducial EoS, especially with the same sound velocity. The resulting mass–radius relation is depicted in Figure 2 by the dotted black curve for Standard-Model matter only. Another conceivable continuation could be analog to the pattern displayed in the right panel. (Right panel): Equation (A3) with } \bar{\rho}_0 = 1 \text{ (by definition) and } \bar{\epsilon}_1 = \bar{\epsilon}_0 + \nu_s^2 \bar{\rho}_x \text{ and } \bar{\epsilon}_2 = \lambda \bar{\epsilon}_1. \text{ Several values of } \bar{\rho}_x \text{ (here the critical pressure of a first-order phase transition) are considered, while } \nu_s^2 = 3 \text{ and } \lambda = 3 \text{ are kept fixed. The same EoSs apply for SM matter and DM Mirror-World matter.}\end{align*} \]
Numerical results, relying on regularity in the center, \( \eta(0) = 0 + \mathcal{O}(r^3) \), and boundary values \( p^{(i)} = p^{(i)}_c - \mathcal{O}(r^2) \) at \( r \to 0 \), are exhibited in Figure A2 for \( \psi_s^2 = 3 \). (For the dependence on \( \psi_s^2 \), see [86] (a factor of \( \sqrt{197.32} \) is to be applied for \( M \) and \( R \) in Figure 7 there).) The solid black curves display the mass–radius relation for \( \tilde{p}_s \to \infty \), i.e., the constant sound velocity EoS is extended unlimited to high pressure (while in Section 2 it was restricted to \( p \leq \tilde{p}_s \)). Gradually reducing the value of \( \tilde{p}_s \) means including an energy-density jump from \( \tilde{\varepsilon}_x \) to \( \lambda \tilde{\varepsilon}_x \) at pressure \( \tilde{p}_x \) (mimicking a sharp first-order phase transition). The mass–radius curves become strongly modified (see colored curves), since the density jump \( \Delta \tilde{\varepsilon} \) is fairly large. In particular, for \( \tilde{p}_s \leq 1 \), an unstable section of the mass–radius curve is is caused, where the slope is negative, followed by a sequence of stable configurations, where the slope is positive again; see the respective Figure 2 in [87–89] for the very pattern of stable–unstable–stable branches. Equal-mass points on the stable sections represent twin stars. The case of \( \tilde{p}_c^{DM} \equiv \tilde{p}_c^{(i=2)} = 0 \) (left top panel, \( x = 0 \)) corresponds to no DM at all, as in Figure 2, and exhibits various cuts provided by an implicit relation of \( \tilde{m}_x (r_x) \). Thus, it directly supplements Figure 2.

With increasing DM fraction, parameterized by \( x \), the pattern seen in the left top panel of Figure A2 (\( x = 0 \)) is shifted to left-down, i.e., the configurations become more and more compact. A tiny admixture of DM, e.g., \( x = 0.01 \) (right top panel), does hardly have any noticeable impact on the mass–radius curves. For \( x = 0.1 \), one can recognize the left-down shift of the pattern, which becomes somewhat larger at \( x = 0.2 \); see middle row. The subtle interplay of \( \tilde{p}_c \) and \( \tilde{p}_c^{DM} \) and \( \tilde{p}_s \) causes additional features at \( x \approx 0.5 \) due to slightly displaced jumps in the energy density profiles; see bottom panel. The special value \( x = 1 \) means that SM matter and DM have the same pressure and energy-density profiles, i.e., \( \tilde{p}^{(i=1)}(\tilde{r}) = \tilde{p}^{(i=2)}(\tilde{r}) \) and \( \tilde{\varepsilon}^{(i=1)}(\tilde{r}) = \tilde{\varepsilon}^{(i=2)}(\tilde{r}) \) implying \( \tilde{\eta}^{(i=1)}(\tilde{r}) = \tilde{\eta}^{(i=2)}(\tilde{r}) \). The resulting configurations become most compact, as exhibited in the right bottom panel.

For \( p^{(i)}(r) = p(r) \) and \( m^{(i)}(r) = m(r) \), the generalized Schwarzschild pressure profile in the uniform-density core of \( n \) mutually non-interacting fluids, with \( e_2 \) each, reads

\[
p_{\text{Schwarzschild}}(r) = -e_2 (e_2 + p_c) - (e_2 + 3p_c) W_n, \quad \text{(A4)}
\]

\[
W_n(r) = \sqrt{1 - \frac{8\pi}{3} G N e_2 r^2}, \quad \text{(A5)}
\]

where the scaling, e.g., by \( e_2 = \lambda (\epsilon_0 + v_s^{-2} p_s) \) when referring to the EoS (A3), can be applied. The core radius follows from \( p_{\text{Schwarzschild}}(r) = p_s \); it scales as \( \propto 1/\sqrt{n} \).

The selected range of \( \tilde{p}_s \) causes a crossing of the mass–radius curves within narrow regions. This can be considered as reminiscence of the “special point” discussed in [59,90].

When relating these panels to Figure 2, one must ensure that, at radius \( r_x \), the DM component must have vanished. On account of that requirement, the panels in Figure A2 provide explicit examples of possible cuts in the mass–radius plane of Figure 2 under variation of \( \tilde{p}_s \). One could demonstrate this relation more explicitly by digging out the information of \( \tilde{m}_x \) and \( r_x \) along the mass–radius curves in Figure A2. We leave such a study for follow-up work.
Figure A2. Mass–radius relations of neutron stars with Dark-Matter admixture for $\nu_s^{-2} = 3$ and $\Delta \tilde{\epsilon} / \tilde{\epsilon}_0 = 3$ and various values of $\tilde{\beta}_x \equiv \tilde{p}_x / \tilde{\epsilon}_0$ (black solid: $\infty$ (i.e., no phase transition), cyan double line: 0.25, green dot-dashed: 0.5, blue dotted: 1, red dashed: 5). The equation of state Equation (A3) is used. The DM admixture is determined by the relation $\tilde{\beta}^{DM}_x = x \tilde{\beta}_c$ with $x = 0$ (left top panel, $\tilde{\rho}^{DM}_x = \tilde{\rho}_x, \tilde{\mu}^{DM}_x = \tilde{\mu}_x$) to 1 (right bottom panel, $\tilde{\rho}^{DM}_x = \tilde{\rho}_x, \tilde{\mu}^{DM}_x = \tilde{\mu}_x$). The central pressures are very large towards the endpoints of curves terminating within the panels.

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