### Summer Student Lecture Notes 1975 PULSARS L. Rudnick

#### DISCOVERY

For most observations in radio astronomy, the receiver outputs are integrated over long periods of time. In this way, the random noise averages out, and a constant low level signal can be detected. However, in the 1960's, it was known that very compact sources scintillated (twinkled) at low frequencies (100's of MHz) due to irregularities in the interstellar and interplanetary mediums. At Cambridge, a long-term project was undertaken to study these effects. A large array of dipole antennas scanned the sky, sensitive to fluctuations at short time scales. In such observations, pulsed interference is an occupational hazard. Electric motors starting, dirty motor brushes, ignition systems, radio and TV transmitters, radar, lighening, etc. are among the long list of man-made and natural culprits. However, Jocelyn Bell, a graduate student on the project, noted a series of pulses that began to appear with some predictability. They occurred at the same time every day, and had a constant separation in time between adjacent pulses. This strange phenomenon was studied for months, until finally its extraterrestrial origin was confirmed. The pulses always originated from the same position in the sky with respect to the stars, not the Earth. In addition, the period between successive pulses varied as one would expect from the Doppler shift due to the Earth's motion. The scientific world's confrontation with this strange astronomical beast had begun.

#### POSSIBLE SOURCES

What kind of object could emit such radiation? New pulsars were donstantly being discovered, and the following two characteristics were most disconcerting:

- 1) Exceptional stability in period typically measured to better than 1 part in 10<sup>9</sup>.
- Rapid repitition rate on the order of seconds, with individual pulses only milliseconds long.

The distribution of these sources on the sky showed a definite concentration toward the galactic plane (fig. 1), indicating typical distances of a few kiloparsecs.



FIG. 1, MAP OF PULSARS IN CALAXY

These few facts placed enormous restriction on possible sources for the radiation. Aside from the quickly discarded LGM hypothesis, we appeared to require a massive rigid object, incapable of being perturbed by the irregularities of the surrounding medium,

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with an energy output on the order of  $10^{30}$  ergs/sec. The two main proposals involved rotation or vibration of some type of collapsed star. Fig. 2 shows many of the early theoretical proposals.

FIG. 2 Early Theories

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	TABLE 2. Puisar theories
Keferences	Theories
Hewish et al (1)	Radial pulsation of neutron star or white dwarf. Shock-
Saslaw et al (63)	Gravitational focusing of radiation from neutron-star binary
Ostriker (64)	Active spot on rotating white dwarf
Hovle & Narlikar (65)	Reversible collapse of supernova
Burbidge & Strittmatter (66)	Neutron star with satellite, analogous to Jupiter-Io effect
Gold (67)°	Synchrotron-type radiation from density fluctuations in corotating neutron-star magnetosphere
Israel (68)	Repetitive mass loss from neutron star on verge of gravi- tational instability
Pacini (69)	Neutron star or white dwarf, oblique magnetic rotator
Layzer (70)	New type of condensed star, gravity balanced by magneto- turbulence
McIlraith (71)	Plasma interaction between binary neutron stars
Eastlund (72)	Synchrotron radiation from corotating neutron-star magnetosphere
Black (73)	White-dwarf atmospheric pulsation
Gunn & Östriker (74)	Particle acceleration in magnetic dipole radiation from spinning neutron star
Chiu et al (75)	Coherent emission from population inversion in quantum magnetic states of rotating and vibrating neutron star
Bertotti et al (76)	Neutron-star oblique magnetic rotator, radiation pressure induced shockwaves
Ginzburg & Zaitsev (77)	Radio emission by induced scattering from plasma waves near neutron-star magnetic poles
Piddington (78)	Interaction between boundary of neutron-star magneto- sphere and expanding magnetic shell
Michel & Tucker (79)	Radiation from tangential field discontinuities in plasma outflow from spinning neutron star
Stothers (80)	Radial pulsation of neutron star undergoing mass loss
Dyson (91)	Radiation from neutron-star volcano

White dwarfs were one of the major candidates. These are stars which have largely depleted their nuclear fuel, and are kept from gravitational collapse by electron degeneracy pressure. The neutron star was another viable alternative. This theoretical object (suggested as early as 1932), was assumed to be formed as

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the byproduct of supernova explosions. This one possible endpoint of stellar evolution is the process whereby a red giant begins to collapse, and the matter becomes highly condensed and hot. At some critical point, neutrinos can transfer energy from the extremely dense core, blowing off the outer layers of the star. These result in the commonly known supernova remnants. The core, if it lies within a certain mass range, can remain in this condensed state, where neutrons are the most populous species of particles. Neutron degeneracy prevents further collapse.

Let's take a crude look at the source parameters predicted by these models. White dwarfs could have densities up to about  $10^7$  g/cm<sup>3</sup>, and neutron stars on the order of  $10^{14}$  g/cm<sup>3</sup>. For vibrational models, a characteristic time scale can be claculated by saying that the gravitational force at the surfact,  $\frac{GM}{R}$ , is equal to the surface acceleration,  $\frac{\partial^2 R}{\partial t^2}$ . For harmonic motion, we can let the radius vary as  $R\cos(\frac{t}{t_0})$ . This gives:

## $t_{0} \approx (GM/R^{3})^{-\frac{1}{2}}$

The same approximate time scale applies for rotational models if one equates the centrifugal and gravitational forces at the surface. Thus, periods on the order of a second are possible for white dwarfs, with neutron stars capable of time variations down to a millisecond. As an interesting aside, the sun rotates about once every 26 days. If we allowed it to collapse from  $10^5$  to 10 kilometers, and conserve angular momentum, its period of rotation would by about 1 msec.

With the discovery of two pulsars with very short periods, (tens of milliseconds) the white dwarf models appeared to be ruled out. In addition, these two pulsars were found near the centers of the Crab and Vela supernova remnants, giving further credence to the neutron star hypothesis. The period of the Crab pulsar is slowly increasing. From models, we can calculate a characteristic age of 1000 years for the pulsar. In 1054 A.D., Chinese astronomers reported the apperance of a "guest star" in the direction where the Crab now appears. It outshone all other stars, and was even visible during the day. Do you believe in magic?

While we're off the track a bit, let's take note of the fact that the Crab pulsar, probably the youngest still known, has some other remarkable characteristics. It is the only pulsar to date with an optical counterpart, and its emission has also been observed in the X and Y ray regions of the spectrum. See the figures below.

F19.3 We pictures showing the Grab Kobula pulsar with three fi stars. The upper photograph shows the pulsar near maximu light and the lower photograph shows it near minimum.









Tom Gold was the major proponent of the rotating neutron star model. He felt that the enormous energy radiated by pulsars,  $\approx 10^{30}$  ergs/sec, could be obtained from the star's rotational energy supply. In addition, by conserving the magnetic flux from the original star:

# $B_{\text{final}}R_{\text{final}}^2 = B_{\text{initial}}R_{\text{initial}}^2$

a 1 gauss field (the average over the surface of our sun), would increase to 10<sup>12</sup> gauss for a neutron star of radius 10 km. This was the order of magnitude magnetic field strength needed to couple the rotational energy and electromagnetic radiation in the models of Gunn & Ostriker and of Facini. Also, as the pulsar lost rotational energy (through various dissipative forces), it would be expected to slow down. This very gradual but steady increase in period has been observed for a number of pulsars, and the largest value is only on the order of 1 part in 10<sup>12</sup>. On the other hand, as a vibrating body loses energy, its period would be expected to decrease. This has not been observed.\*

Finally, if one calculates the loss in rotational energy from the Crab pulsar due to the observed slowing, we find the value  $10^{38}$  erg/sec. This assumes a neutron star of approximately 1 solar mass with a radius of 10 km. This energy is much greater than that emitted in the radio pulses, but is comparable to the total radiation output from the Crab Nebula. Another clincher for rotation.

\*Both the Crab and Vela pulsars have been observed to undergo sudden small decreases in period ("glitches"). These have been attributed (among other things) to small readjustments of the solid crystalline surface of the star - "starquakes". After some relaxation time, the periods continued their regular increase.

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#### PULSE CHARACTERISTICS AND THE EMISSION MECHANISM

The pulse widths imply an emission region with sizes on the order of the distance light could travel in that time. For pulses of  $10^{-4}$  sec duration, this implies and emission region of  $3 \cdot 10^6$  cm. With fluxes of  $10^{30}$  ergs/sec, this implies blackbody temperatures on the order of  $10^{24}$  °K or greater, if the emission is incoherent thermal radiation. Particles of this high an energy would not radiate radio waves, but high energy photons ten orders of magnitude beyond what we consider the ray region. Some type of coherent mechanism (where the particles radiate in phase with one another) is clearly necessary.

The actual details for making the pulses are probably very complex. Some theories envision the pulses arising from bursts on the stellar surface. Others picture a co-rotating magnetic field, with its dipole axis different from the axis of rotation. (see fig. 5). In one of these "oblique-rotator" models, an E field is induced at the surface by the rotating magnetic field. Particles are then accelerated along the field lines, participating in the rotation. At some critical radius, where the velocity of rotation would equal the speed of light, the particles can no longer continue on their original course. It is at this "light cylinder" that many theories place the origin of the radio pulses.

High polarizations (up to 100%) are often seen in individual pulses. Sometimes, a linear polarization is observed to rotate its plane slowly and predictably through the duration of the pulse. The measurement of these phenomena are important for determining the shape of the magnetic field in the emission region.

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FIG. 5 Schematic of "obligue rotator"



FIG. 6 Typical mean pulse shapes

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Pulses also come in a variety of shapes, though for an individual pulsar, the shape is remarkably constant in time. There are sometimes small changes observed at different radio frequencies. Double-pulsed structures are common, as are interpulses, well separated from the main pulse. With very good time resolution, fine structure was been observed in some pulsars with time scales less than 100 microseconds. A sample of pulse shapes is displayed in fig. 6.

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Typical radio frequency spectra for pulsars are shown in fig. 7. There is usually a straight sloping region between approximately 100 and 1000 MHz, with an index of -1, and sharp cutoffs at lower and higher frequencies. The low cutoff is probably the result of self-absorption by the radiating charges themselves. The high frequency cutoff is most likely an intrinsic property of the radiation mechanism. One way of producing the necessary coherent radiation is by placing the particles in bunches. If these bunches have a minimum size, then there would be a high frequency cutoff to the coherent radiation.



#### DISPERSION AND FARADAY ROTATION

The index of refraction of a medium determines the group velocity of electromagnetic waves through it, that is, the rate at which energy (or pulses) are transported. The interstellar medium contains a number of ionized hydrogen atoms, which form a tenuous plasma. From Maxwell's equations we can calculate the index of refraction (and group velecity) for this plasma, simplifying matters by ignoring the negligible magnetic field contribution:

$$\frac{\mathbf{v}_{group}}{\mathbf{c}} = 1 - \left(\frac{\mathbf{e}^2}{2\pi \mathbf{m}\mathbf{c}^2}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{\mathbf{N}_{\mathbf{e}}}{\mathbf{f}^2}\right)$$

where  $N_e$  is the electron density and f is the radio frequency. Since  $v_{group}$  depends on f, the medium is called dispersive; that is, an instantaneous pulse over a wide range of radio frequencies will arrive at an observer over a finite length of time.

The dispersion delay (the difference in pulse arrival times) observed between two observing frequencies  $f_a$  and  $f_b$  is

$$t_{d} = \frac{e^{2}}{2\pi mc} \left( \frac{1}{f_{a}^{2}} - \frac{1}{f_{b}^{2}} \right) \int N_{e} \, ds ,$$

where the integral is taken over the path between source and observer. The integral is usually expressed for astronomical convenience in terms of parsecs/cm<sup>3</sup>, and is called the dispersion measure (DM). The time delay observed between pulses at different radio frequencies can be seen in fig. 8. By matching up individual pulses, one can sometimes find that the time delay may exceed the pulsar period, for widely separated frequencies. Dispersion measures have been observed to range from a few to greater than four hundred  $pc/cm^3$ . By determining



the dispersion measure to the Crab, whose distance we believe to be between 1.7 and 2 kpc, we can make an estimate of the average interstellar electron density. Using the few pulsars for which this type of estimate can be made yields average electron densities between 0.03 and 0.05 /cm<sup>3</sup>. The dispersion is often anomalously high when the line of sight passes through an HII region. Based on the average density values, (which must be treated with caution) we then estimate pulsar distances from their dispersion measures. These leads to a distribution of observed pulsars from less than 100 pc away, perhaps as far as 10 kpc.

We have another means of establishing pulsar distances, and that is through 21 cm absorption. If we look at the 21 cm emission in the direction of a pulsar when it is not pulsing (OFF), we see a line profile originating from one or more of the spiral arms of the galaxy (ideally). When the pulsar is ON, we see an increase at all frequencies from the pulsar emission. However, some absorption also takes place along the line of sight, and (see fig. 9) by differencing the two profiles, we may be able to determine whether or not absorption has taken place in a given spiral arm. Using the (model dependent) distance to the spiral arm, we can then place upper and/or lower limits on the pulsar distance. These measurements are difficult ones, and the technique has been used successfully on only a fraction of the known pulsars.

Linearly polarized radiation through a plasma is rotated by an angle

$$\Delta \Theta \propto \frac{1}{f^2} \int N_e^{B} ds$$

where B is the component of the magnetic field along the line

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FIG. 9 Absorption Profile Schematic

of sight. By measuring the dispersion measure and the Faraday rotation, one can obtain an estimate of the average interstellar magnetic fields. These measurements yield values on the order of  $10^{-6}$  gauss ( plus and minus - towards and away from us), and have been used to map the magnetic field structure of our neighborhood of the galaxy.

#### OBSERVATIONS OF PULSARS

I am just going to briefly mention some of the new techniques which arose from the need to study pulsars. Observations have been made on both single dishes and interferometers. A technique known as signal averaging is often used to enhance the signal from a pulsar of known period. In this way, we can average together the signal from many pulses, while eliminating the random noise contribution when the pulse is off.

Because of dispersion, pulsars are also smeared in time within the finite bandwidth of the receiver. However, the larger

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the bandwidth, the higher the signal-to-noise. Therefore, many channels, each with a small bandwidth, are often used. These may be added together, on-line or off-line, inserting appropriate delays between channels to compensate for the dispersive delay. This "de-dispersing" helps to reveal some of the finer features of pulse shape and polarization which would otherwise be smeared out.

Power spectrum analysis is another tool of the pulsar observer. It is useful when searching for new pulsars, or when the period is not accurately known. This type of analysis divides the incoming signal into separate channels based on the power at each repitition frequency. It can be done electronically, or digitally, off-line. The noise output from a receiver is usually white (equal at all frequencies) with a sharp increase at frequencies greater than a few seconds due to variations in the receiver. Pulsars, with their regular repitition rate, appear as spikes in the power spectrum at the fundamental and harmonic frequencies.

To study the effects of interstellar scintillation and scattering, observations have also been made simultaneously at two different observatories. Correlations between the amplitude fluctuations of individual pulses have been used to estimate the size and speed of interstellar clouds.

So much for a taste.

#### TODAY

Again- just briefly, three areas of current interest in the study of pulsars.

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<u>Timing</u> - with such accurate periods, and slow rates of change, pulsar timing is a state of the art affair in terms of accurate clocks. However, these measurements are extremely important Without them, the "glitches" which give us such valuable clues as to the composition of the neutron star would have gone unnoticed. In addition, if we can accurately measure the second derivative of the period, that is, the rate of deceleration, we may be able to understand the forces that are slowing the pulsar down. Current possibilities ( of varying probabilities) are quadrupole gravitational or magnetic radiation losees, dipolar magnetic losses, stellar wind drag, etc.

<u>Proper Motions</u> - with the Interferometer here at NRAO, Backer and Sramek have been measuring the proper motions of a number of pulsars. Knowledge of their speeds will help us to pin down a number of questions about the origins (location, ejection velocities, associations with other objects) of these exotic beasts.

#### . Binary Pulsar

Though many stars occur in binary paris (especially 0 and B stars, the supposed progenitors of pulsars), until recently, no pulsars had been detected in binary systems. This may arise naturally because of the violent nature of their formation. However, Hulse and Taylor have recently discovered, using the Arecibo 1000 ft. dish, a pulsar in a binary system, with an orbital period of about 8 hours, and an orbital radius on the order of a solar radius. Neither member of the pair can be yet seen optically; they are probably about 5 kpc away in the crowded galactic plane. The binary nature was evident

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from the characteristic Doppler shift of the pulsar repitition frequency. However, it took a bit of masterful detective work to untangle the unexpected period changes which accompanied the discovery of this pulsar. If problems such as the tidal interactions, mass transfers, and the like, between the two components, this system may prove to be a fertile testing ground for general relativity.

With the recent search at Arecibo, the number of pulsars is now near 140. A list of the 105 known as of 8/13 is shown in the table at the end of the notes, along with some of their characteristic parameters.

I have not discussed many of the interesting features of the study of pulsars. These include scintillation and scattering, cosmic ray production, neutron star structure, intrinsic pulseto-pulse variations, optical and X-ray observations .... These may be pursued in the various references (and further bibliographies) mentioned below.

#### <u>Review</u>

A. Hewish 1970, Ann. Rev. As. Ap., 8, p. 265.

M. Ruderman 1972, Ann. Rev. As. Ap. 10, p. 427.

J. Ostriker 1971, Sci. Am., 224, #1.

A. Lenchek 1972, ed. The Physics of Pulsars, Gordon and Breach.

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P0031-07 MP0031 ( P0105+65 PSR0105+65 )	0 31,36 -07 38 26 . 1 05 00 65 50	110.467.5 124.6 3.3	0.9429507566	40690	51.0	10•89 30	0.0366	7.1E+07
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P0254-54 MP0254	2 54 24 -54	270.9 -54.9	0.4476	(41347)	10	10		******
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P0525+21 NP3525	5 25 52 21 58 18	183.8 -5.9	3.7454934468	40957	181.0		3.461	2.9E+06
P0531+21 NP0531	5 31 31 21 58 55 .	184.6 -5.8	0.0331296454	41221	. 3	56.805	36.526	2.5E+03
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P0736-40 MP0736	7 36 51 -40 35 18	254.2 -9.2	0.374919324	40221	. 22		<1.728	>5.9E+05
P0740-28 PSR0740-28	7 40 48 -28 15 16	243.8 -2.4	0.166750167	41027	. 8	80	0.0138	2.55408
P0918-13 MP0819	8 18 06 -13 41 23 8 23 51 26 47 18	235.9 12.6	1.23812310726	41006		40.9	0.1820	1.9E+07
P0933-45 PSR0933-45	8 33 39 -45 00 11	263.6 -2.9	0.0892157479	40307	2	63	10.823	2.3E+04
P0934+06 CP0834 6	8 34 26 06 20 47 8 35 34 -41 24 54	219.7 26.3	1.27376349759	40626	23.7	12.90	0.587	5+9E+06
P0934+77 P580904+77	9 04 77 40	135.3_33.7_	1.57905	[40222]	<50	145		
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P1154-62 MP1154 11	1 54 45 -62 08 36	296.7 -0.2	0.40052	(41347)		270	····	·····
P1221-63 PSR1221-63 1 P1237+25AP1237+251	2 37 12 25 10 17	252.2 86.5	1.38244657195	40626	49.9	9.254	0.0825	4.65+07
P1240-54 MP1240 12 P1323-52 PSR1323-62 12	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	302.1 -1.6 307.1 0.3	0.33850 0.529854	41347) 41733	60	313		
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P1359-50 MP1359 13 P1426-66 MP1426 14	3 59 43 -50 4 26 34 -66 09 54	314.5 11.0 312.3 -6.3	0.590		20 10	20 60		
P1449-65 MP1449 14 P1451-68 PSR1451-68 14	4 49 22 -65 4 51 29 -68 32	315.3 -5.3 313.9 -8.6	0.130 0.263376764	(40282) (40545)	(5) 25	90 8.6	<0.259	>2.8E+06
P1503+55 HP1508 1	**************************************	************* 91.3 52.3	**************************************	<b>****</b> ********************************	10.3	***************************************	0.433	4.7E+06
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P1558-50     PSR1558-50       P1601-52     PSR1601-52       P1604-03     MP1604       P1041-45     PSR1641-45       P1642-03     PSR1642-03	$\begin{array}{rrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrr$	9 330.7 56 329.7 24 41 10.7 51 339.2 12 30 14.1	1.3 -0.6 35.5 -0.2 26.1	0.864192 0.657553 0.42181607 <u>579</u> 0.454963 0.38768877965	41733 41733 41005 41733 40622	<u>    15                                </u>	165 35 10.72 449 35.71	0.0265	
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P1913-26 PSR1a13-26 P1913-26 PSR1a13-26 P1919-22 PSR1819-22 P1922-09 PSR1822-09 P1922-17 PSR1822-09 P1926-17 PSR1822-17	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	-4.8 4.7 -4.3 1.3 -3.3	0.592889 0.59807262183 1.874398 0.768948 0.307129	41823 4C522 41554 41554 41554	10.3 (76) 11 (59)	90 84.48 140 19.3 207	0.545	3.0E+06
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P1557-26 MP1857 P1852+03 JP1858 P1900-06 PSR1900-06 P1900+01 PSR1900+01 P1906+00 PSR1906+00	18 57 44 -26 0 18 58 40 03 2 19 00 30 -06 3 19 00 50 01 3 19 06 45 00 0	4 49 10.5 - 7 02 37.2 5 28.5 4 35.8 5 35.1	13.5 -0.6 -5.6 -1.9 -3.9	0.612204 0.655444 0.431985 0.7293016 1.0169443	41026 40754 41554 41850 41860	25 (170) (14)	35 402 180 228	******	******
P1907+02 P541907+02 P1907+10 P581907+10 P1910-20 P581910-20 P1911-04 MP1911	19 07 20 02 5 19 07 30 10 5 19 10 20 20 5 19 11 15 -04 4	6 37.7 5 44.8 5 54.0 5 59 31.3	-2.7 1.0 5.0 -7.1	0.494914 0.2836387 2.232964 0.82593366503	41554 41651 41815 (40624)	(11)	190 144 84 89•41	••••••••••	6.5E+06
P1913+13 UP1913+13 P1917+00 P SR1917+00 P1913+19 PSR1913+19 P1919+21 CP1919 P1920-21 PSR1920+21	19 17 15 13 5 19 17 15 00 1 19 18 50 19 4 19 19 36 21 4 19 20 36 21 0	.6 .48.3   .8 .36.5   .3 .53.9   .7 17   .8 .55.8	-6.1 2.7 3.5 3.0	1.27254 0.821039 1.33730115212 1.077917	41274 41554 41850 40690 41850	15 (27) <u>31.2</u>	94 85 140 12.43 220	••••••	3.2E+07
P1929+10 PSR1929+10 P1933+16 JP1933+16 P1944+17 MP1944 P1946+35 JP1946 P1953+29 JP1953	19 29 52 10 5 19 33 32 16 0 19 44 33 17 5 19 46 35 35 2 19 53 00 29 1	3 03 47.4   3 03 47.4   3 03 52.4   3 05 52.4   8 44 55.3   28 36 70.6   5 03 66.0	-3.9 ( ************************************	D.22651703833 	40625 40690 (40618) 40659 40754	5.3 8.0 30 21 13	3.176 153.53 16.3 129.1 20	C.100 ********** 0.519	6.2E+06 ********* 1.9E+06
P2002+30 JP2002	20 02 35 30	67.7 ********	-0.7	2.111206	40756	15	233 ******	*******	******

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RVANT_TEF	ZIANCRS	SR AND NAI	C CCRNELL	UNIVERSITY	+PULSARS+	AUG. 7,1973		TOTAL NUMBER=	105 PAGE	3
LSAR SIGNATION	PULSAR	R.A. 	CECL. DEG. "	L II B II DEG. DEG.	PERIOD (SEC)	1/ EPOCH (J.D.24+)	2 PULSE WIDTH (MSEC)	DI SPERSION MEASURE (PARSEC/CM3)	PERICO CHANGE (NSEC/DAY)	APP. AGE P/(DP/DT) (YRS)
016+28 020+28 J21+51 J45-16	AP2016+28 PSR2020+28 JP2021 PSR2045+16	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	0 28 30 31 3 28 44 30 5 51 45 08 7 -16 27 48	68.1 -4.0 68.9 -4.7 	0.55795339053 0.343400790 1 0.52919531221 1.96155682076	40689 41348 40626 40695	13.9 6.7 	14.16 24.6 22.580 11.51	0.0129 0.263 0.945	1.2E+08 5.5E+06 5.7E+06
105+44 ********* 111+46 148+63 154+40	P SR 2106+44 JP2111 P SR 2148+63 P SR 2148+63	21 06 30 ********** 21 11 34 3 21 48 40 1 21 54 50	0 44 30 ************ 3 46 31 42 0 63 15 5 40 02 30	86.9 -2.0 89.0 -1.3 104.1 7.4 90.5 -11.4	0.414371 ************************************	41845 41006 41701 41532	29 15 52	129 141.4 125 71.0	0.0620	4.5E+06
217+47 223+65	P SR 2 2 1 7 + 47 P SR 2 2 2 3 + 65	7 22 17 40	6 47 39 48 0 65 22	98.4 -7.6 108.7 7.0	0.53846737844 0.682532	40624	7.9	43.52	C.239	6.2E+06
255+58 303+30 305+55 319+60	PSR2255+58 AP2303+30 PSR2305+55 JP2319	22 55 40 23 03 24 5 23 05 00 23 19 42	5 58 54 4 3C 43 49 5 526 2 60 08 2 60 55	$\begin{array}{c} 103.8 & -0.7 \\ 97.7 & -26.7 \\ 103.6 & -4.2 \\ 112.0 & -0.6 \\ 112.0 & 0 \end{array}$	0.368241 1.575884410 0.475063 2.25648387	41554 41006 41554 41536	26.0 (27) 68	148 49.9 45 96	0.2514	1.7E+07
*******	P 5K2 52 4700	******	********	***********	4*************************************	**************************************	*******	120	*********	•••••
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