

NASSP Hons programme

An Introduction to Pulsars



Marisa Geyer

Course layout

Lecture 1 (30 Aug - 1hrs)

Pulsar properties

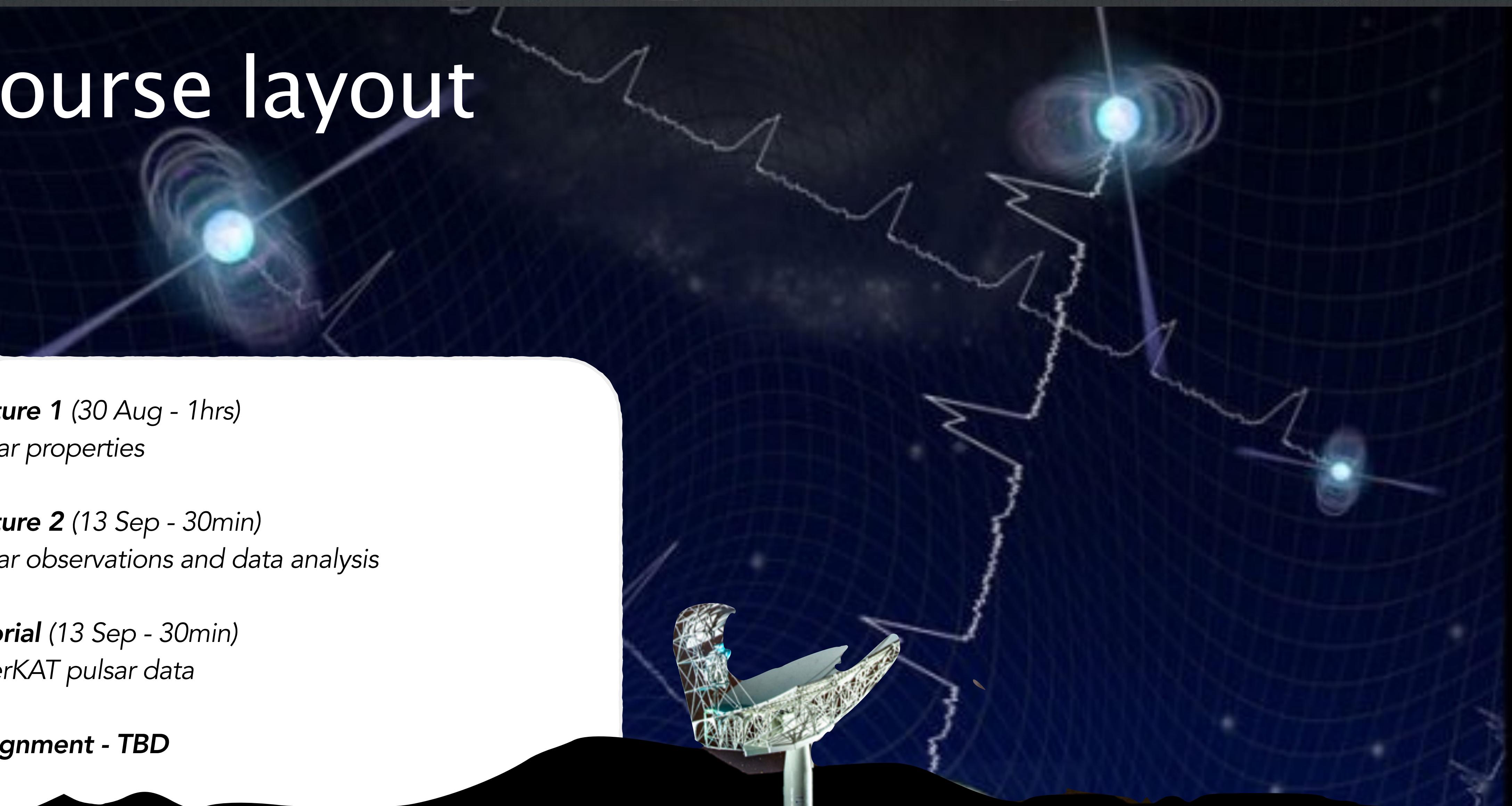
Lecture 2 (13 Sep - 30min)

Pulsar observations and data analysis

Tutorial (13 Sep - 30min)

MeerKAT pulsar data

Assignment - TBD



Course material

Much of what is discussed here comes from

1) NRAO 'Essential Radio Astronomy' course at:

<https://science.nrao.edu/opportunities/courses/era>

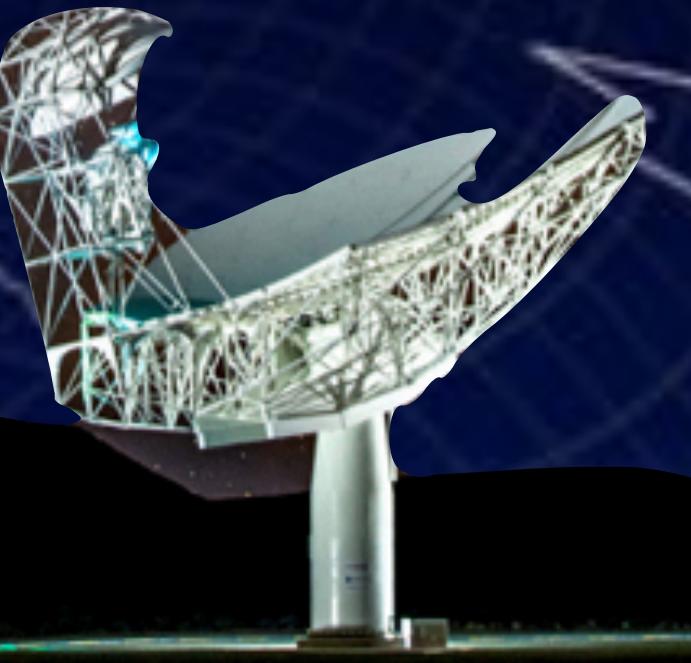
2) Handbook of Pulsar Astronomy by Lorimer and Kramer

3) Additional/similar material can be found on

- SARAO Web YouTube channel

- SARAO E-learning platform at

www.sarao.ac.za/e-learning-portal/



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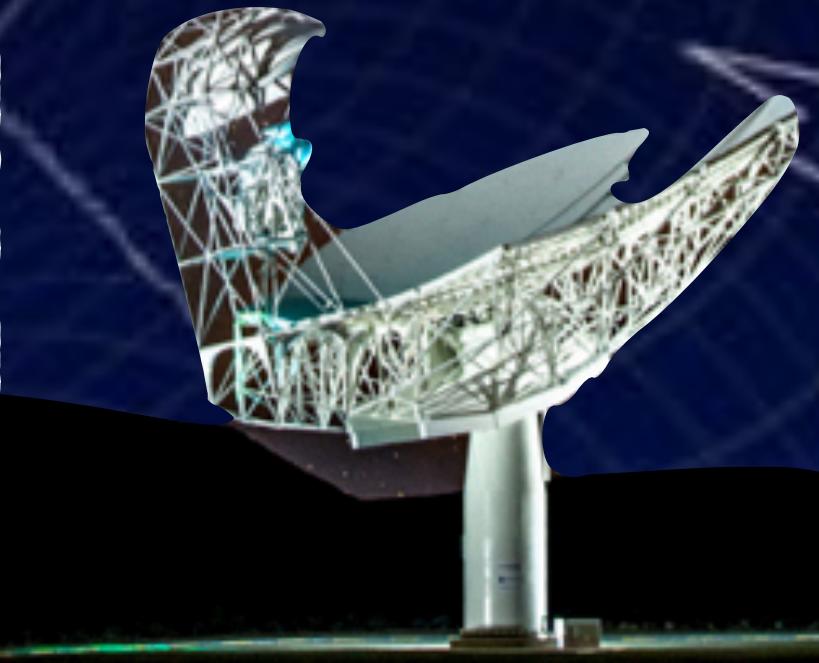
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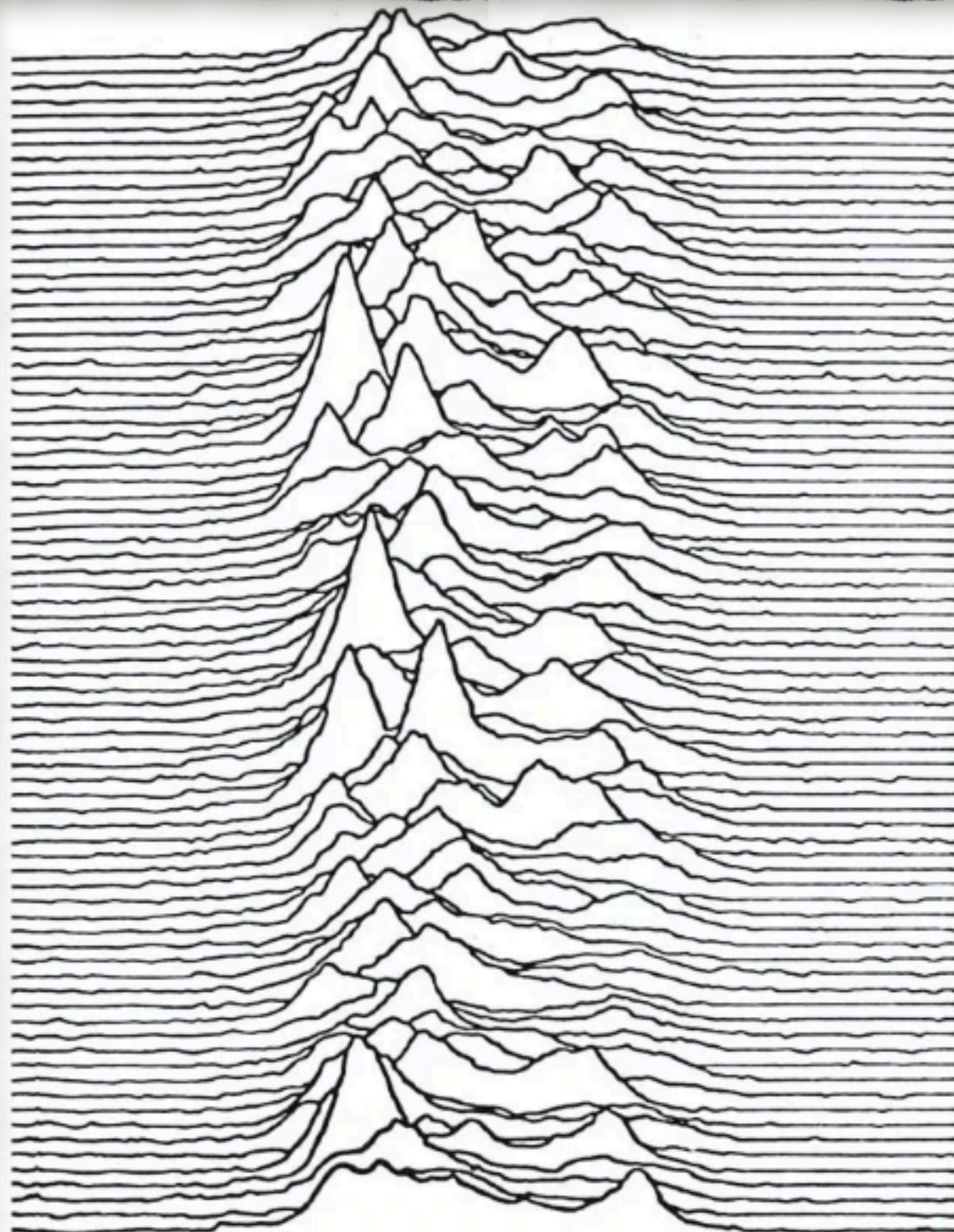
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If you find typos or mistakes please get in touch!





Lecture 2 : Pulsar observations and Data Analysis

The topics we will cover

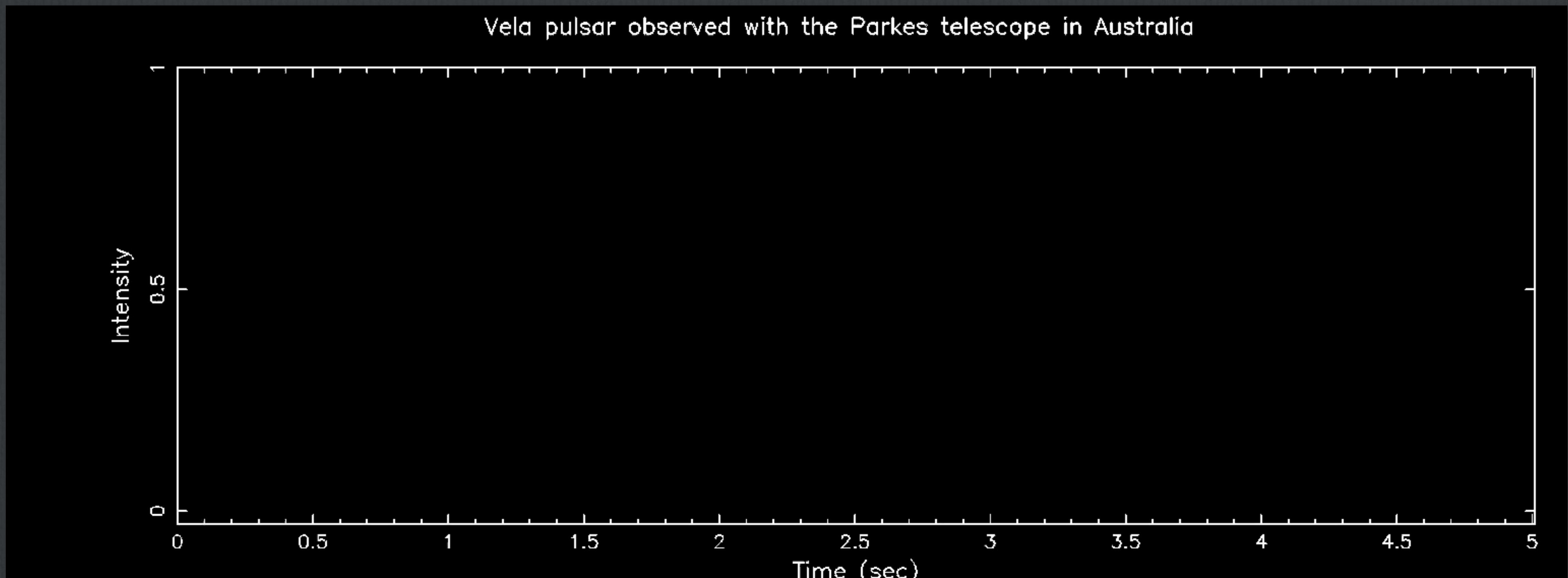
- Revisit the simple lighthouse model
- Creating a stable pulse profile through folding
- Pulsars are broad band emitters
- Contamination by RFI
- Propagation of pulsar signals through the Interstellar Medium
 - The ISM refractive index
 - Dispersion delay by the ISM — and how we correct for it
 - Faraday rotation by the ISM
- Pulsar Sensitivity — Which pulsars can we detect using radio telescopes
 - Telescope parameters
 - The modified radiometer equation
- Introduction to pulsar timing

Pulsars: beamed beacons of the sky

- As a simple picture we can think of pulsars as the (radio) lighthouses of the night sky
- Using a sensitive telescope, we aim to pick up its signal every time the beam crosses our line of sight
- In this lecture we will see what it takes to detect and analyse a signal from a pulsar using a radio telescope such as MeerKAT

by Joeri von Leeuwen

The bright Vela pulsar: PSR J0835-4510
Bright pulsar & close (300 pc): we can see single pulses

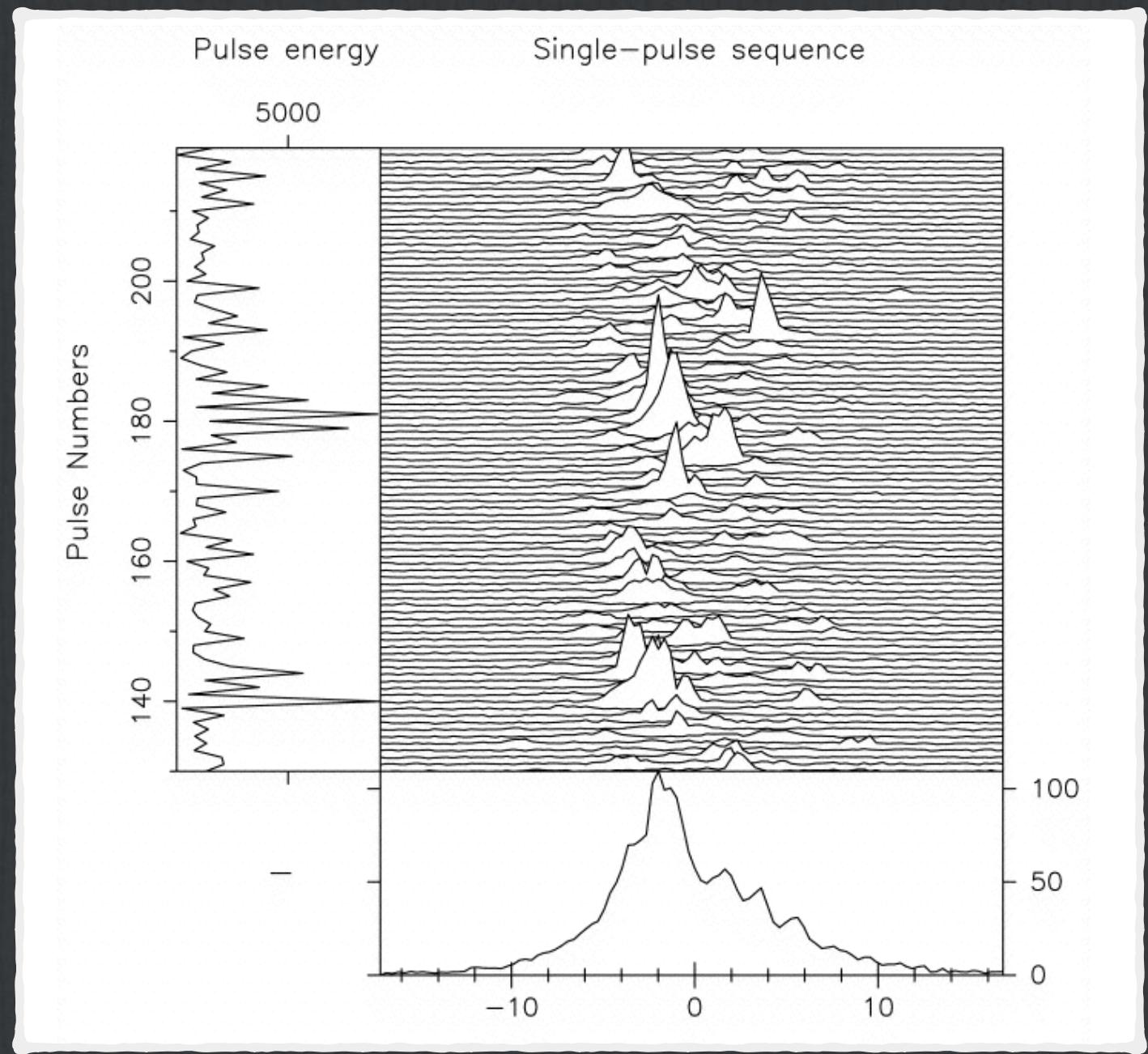




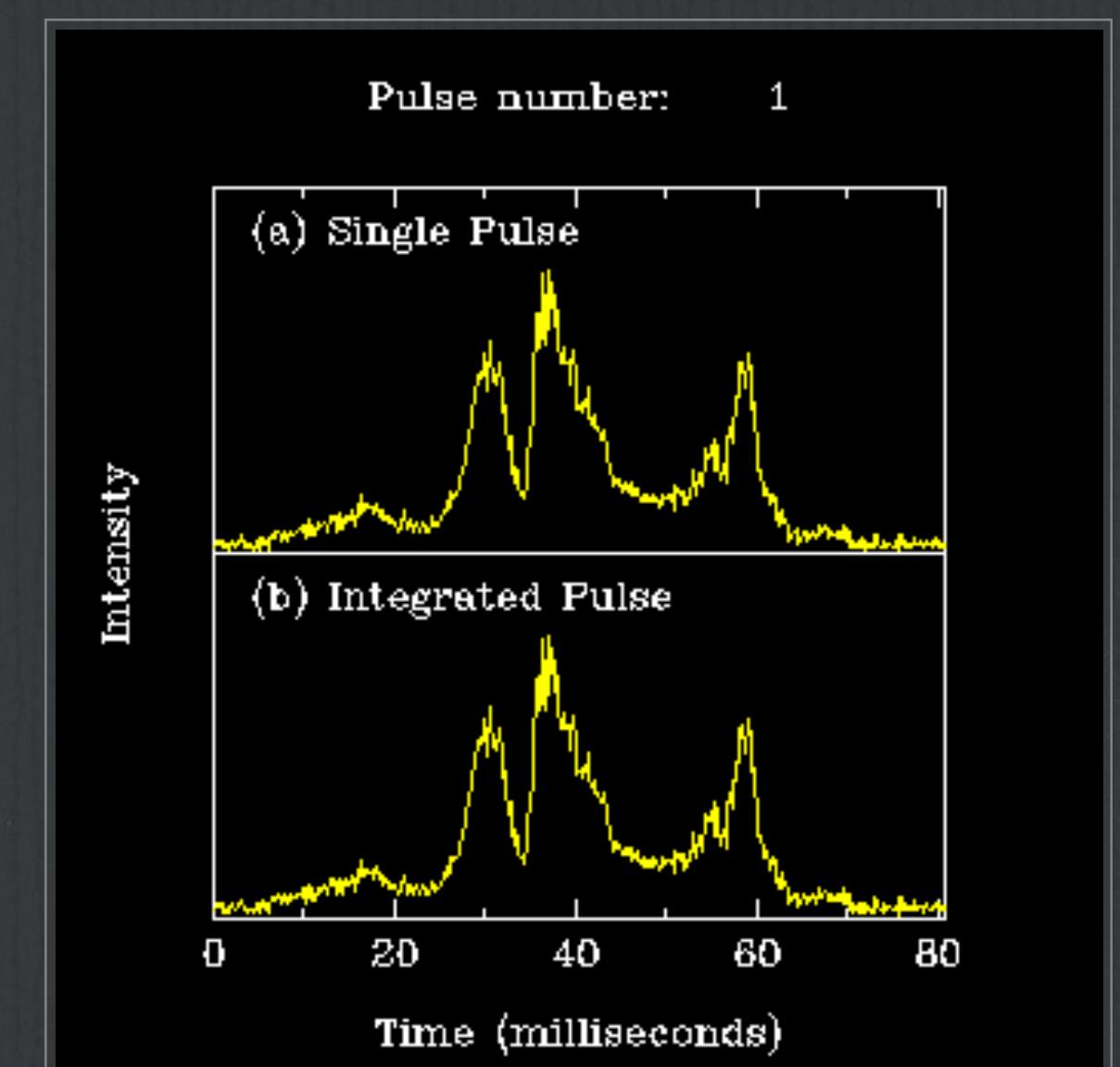
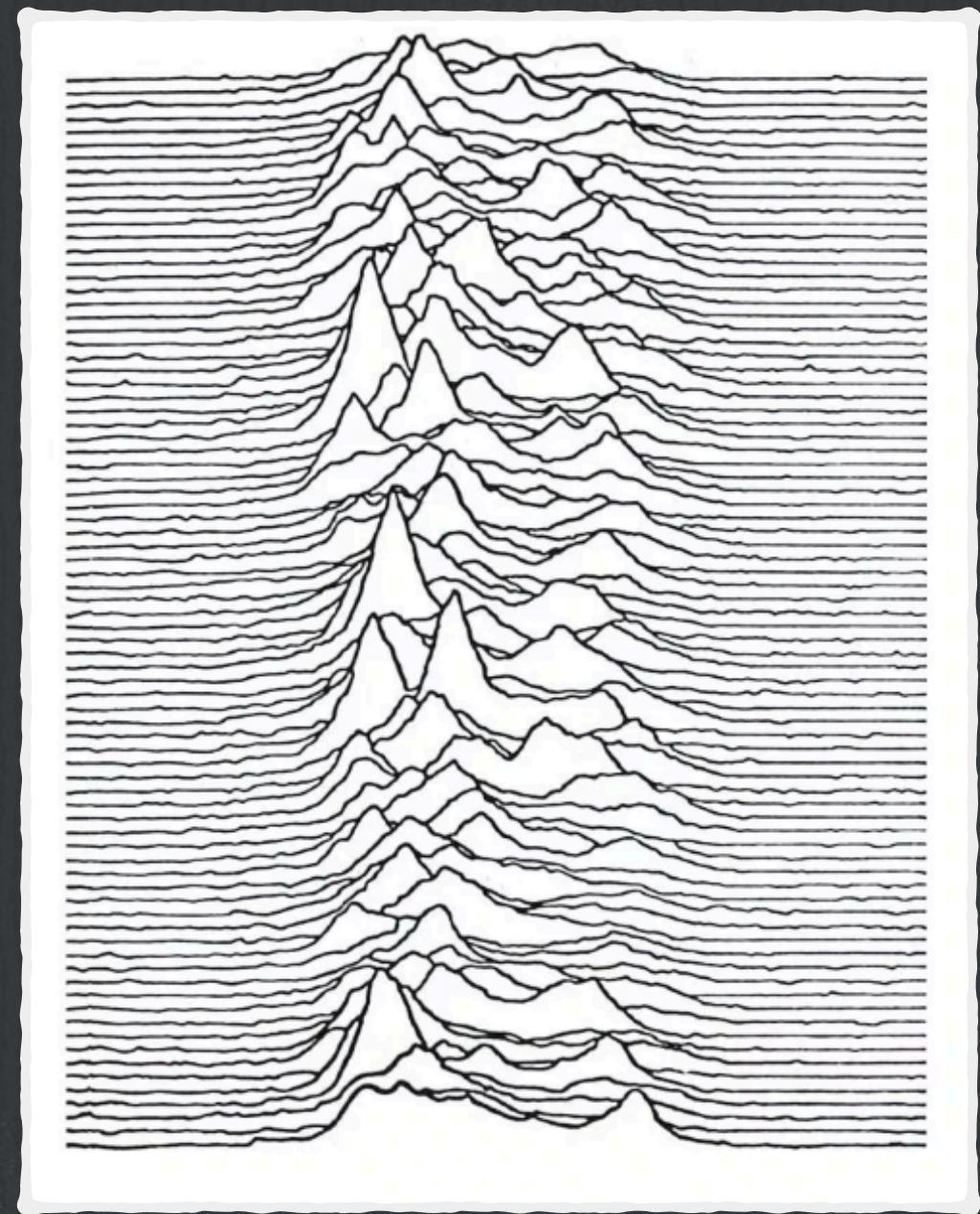
Folding pulsar signals to a stable pulse shape

Many pulsars are too weak to easily detect single pulses

- Moreover single pulses mostly appear varied in shape
- However, when we average together ~ 1000 pulses a higher S/N stable pulse shape is formed
- By knowing the pulsar observing parameters we can add single pulses together to form detectable average pulses
- This process of adding pulsar data to form a stable pulse shape is called ‘folding’



PSR B0943+10



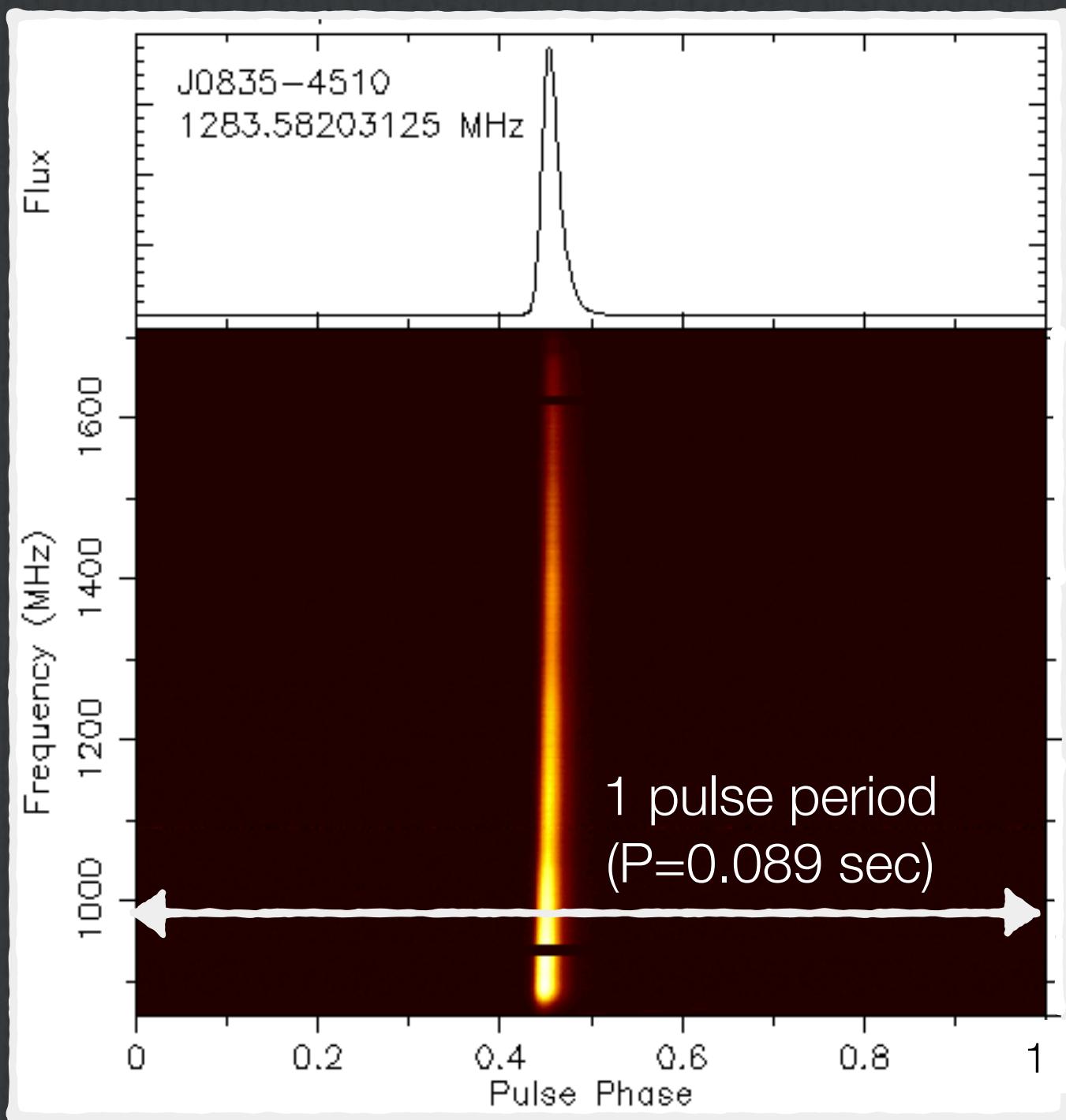
CP 1919 - the original pulsar

Pulsars are broadband radio emitters

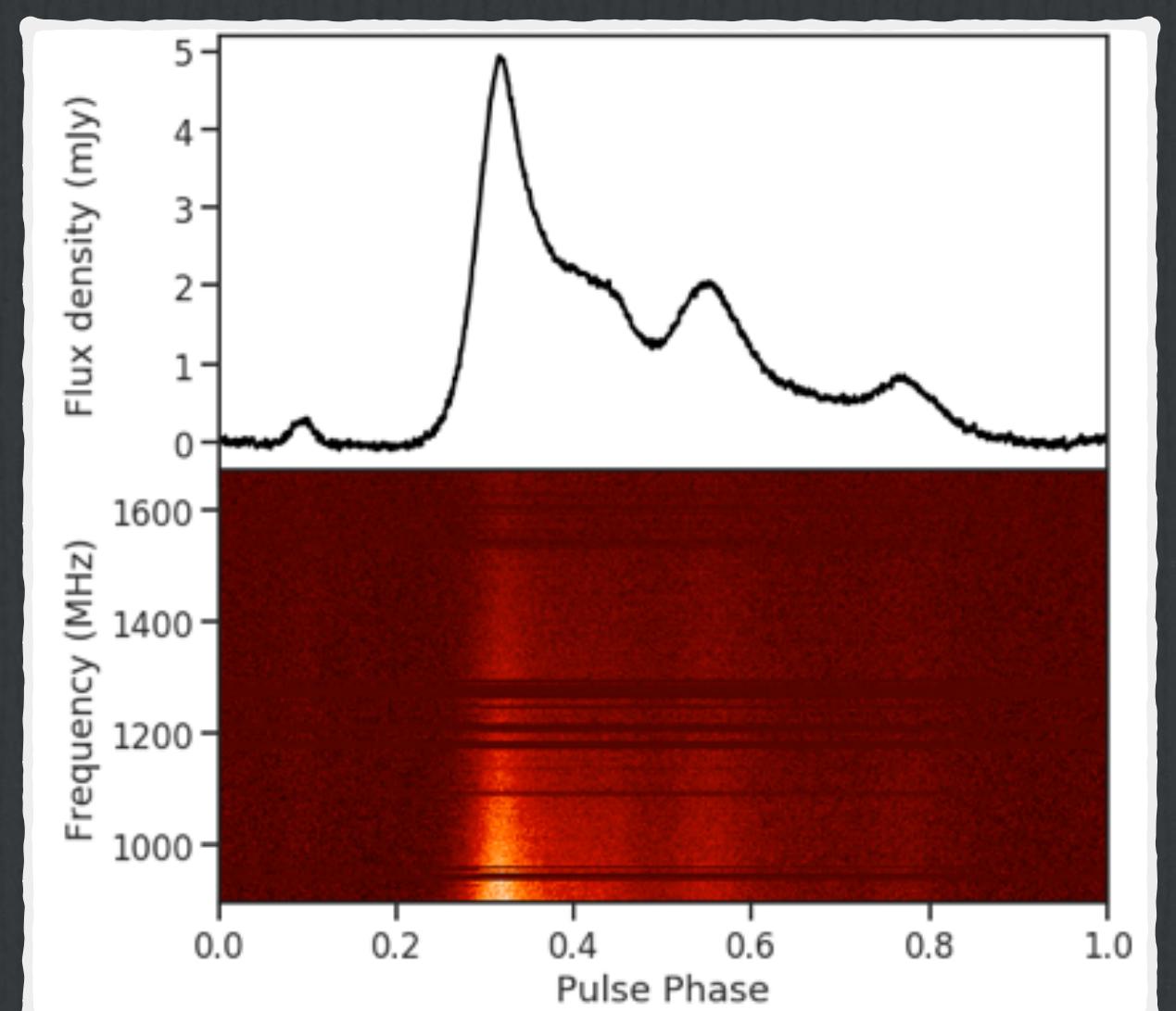
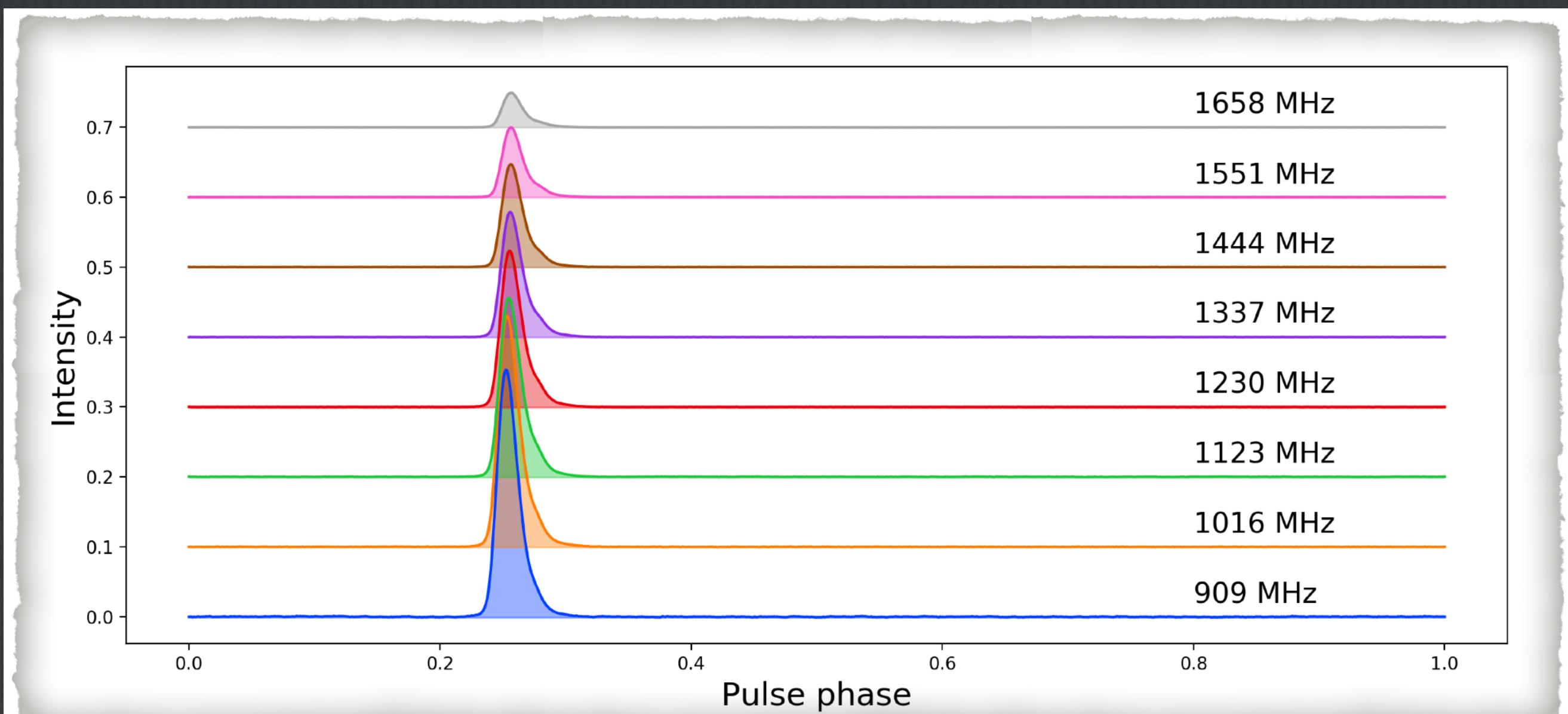
- They have been observed in the radio all the way from 30 MHz - 230 GHz!
- They are intrinsically brighter at lower frequencies
- Which means they are steep spectrum sources:

$$S_\nu \propto \nu^{-\alpha}$$

where S_ν is flux (Jy) at a frequency ν and typical values for $\alpha \sim 1.4$ to 1.8



The Vela pulsar (J0835-4510) at MeerKAT L-band

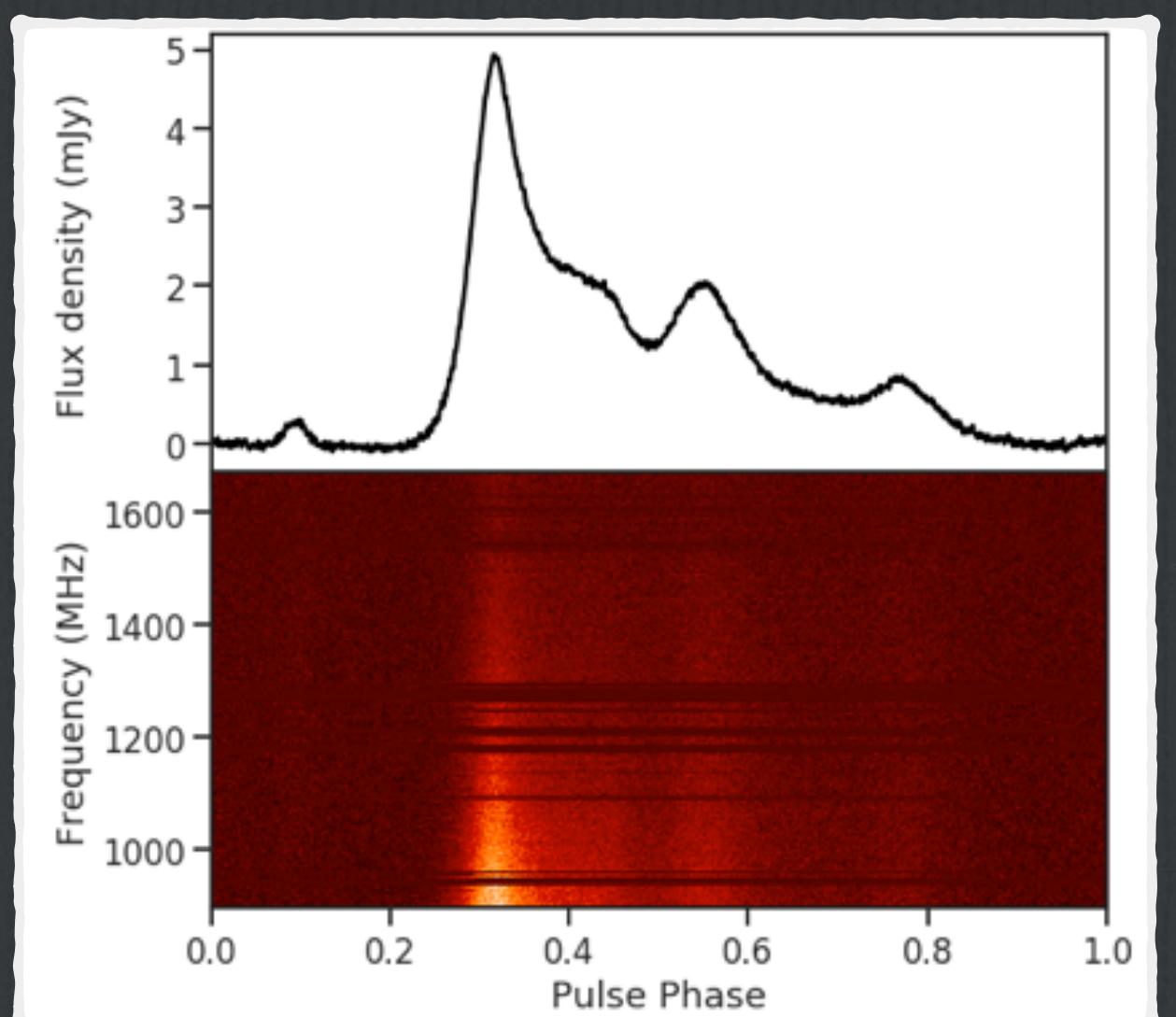
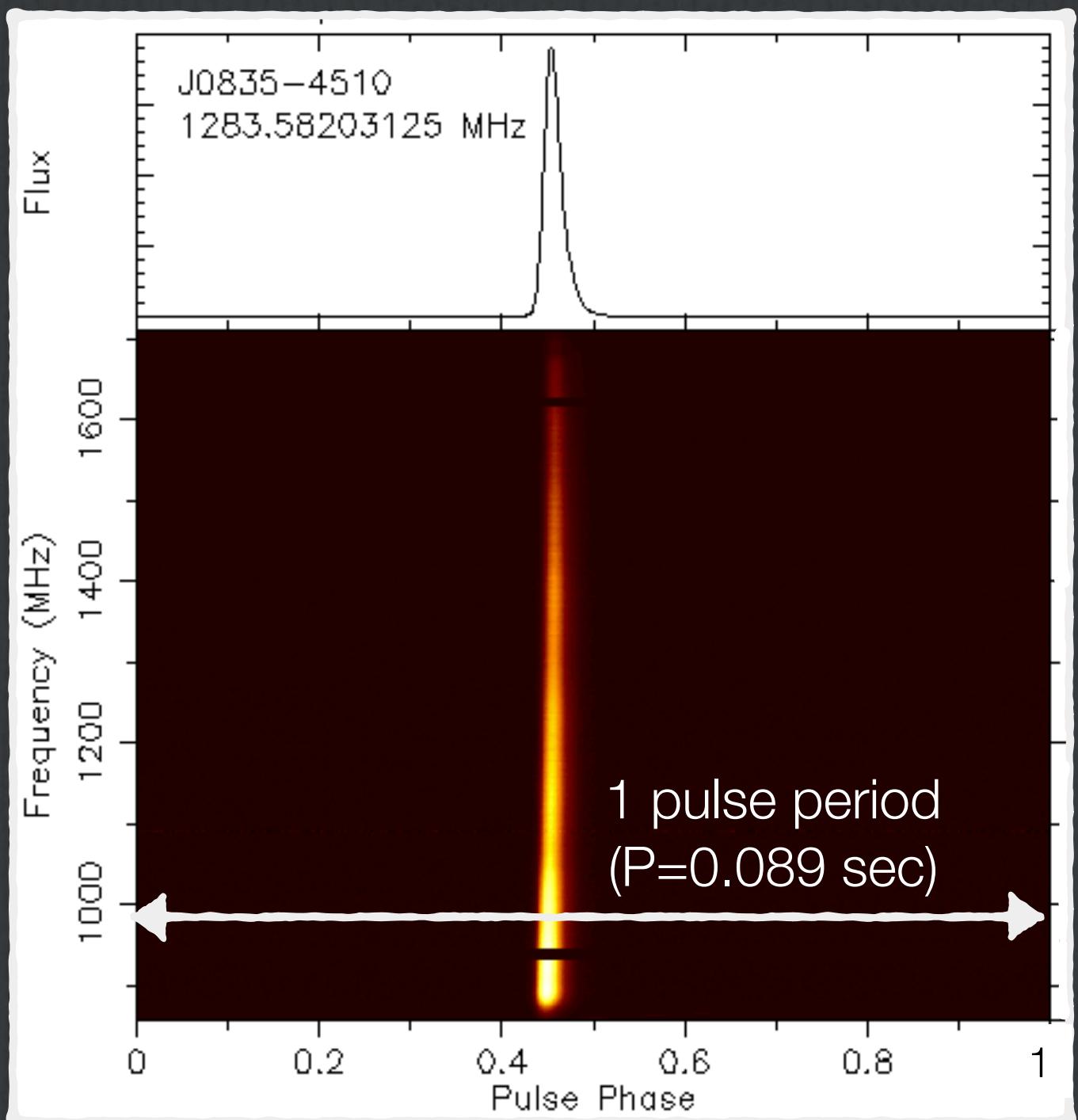


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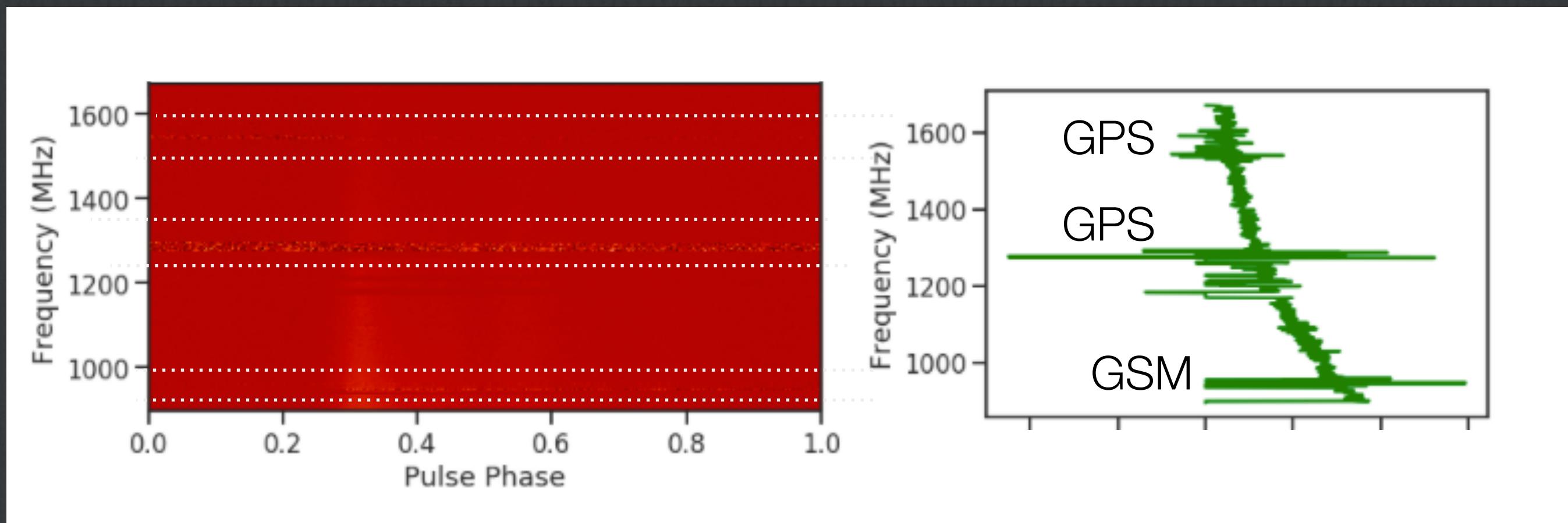


The observing frequency trade-off

- Even though pulsars are brighter at lower frequencies, we'll see that lower frequency signals are more effected by the Interstellar Medium (ISM)
- Finding the ideal observing frequency is therefore a trade-off between intrinsic brightness and ISM effects

Contamination by Radio Frequency Interference

- Terrestrial telecommunication devices emit in narrow frequency bands
- Often these are well-defined and known to us

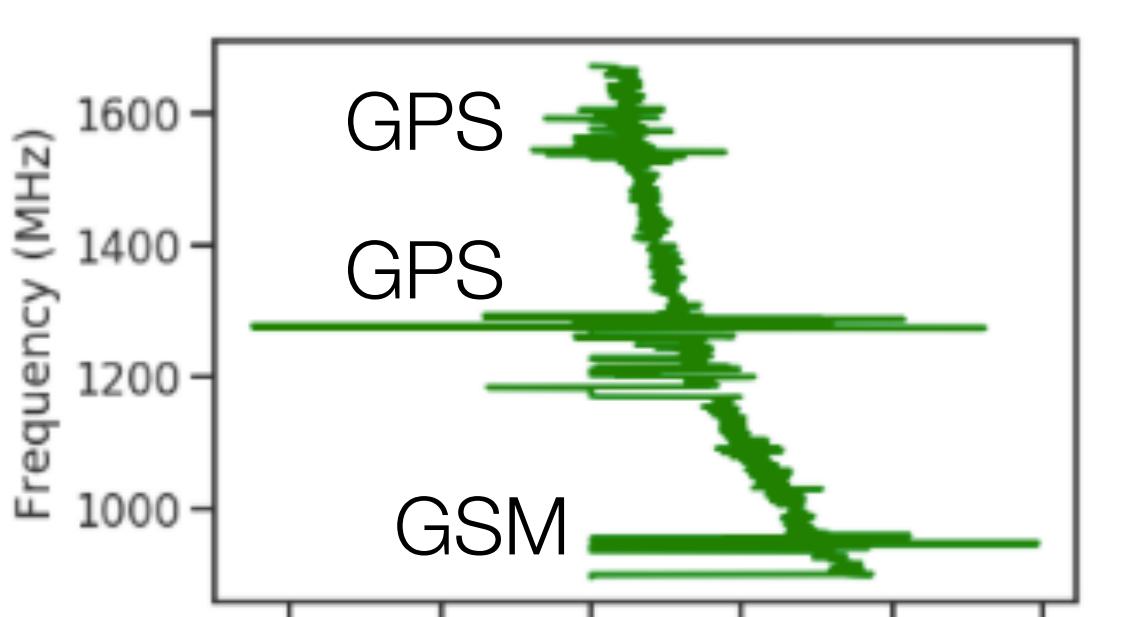
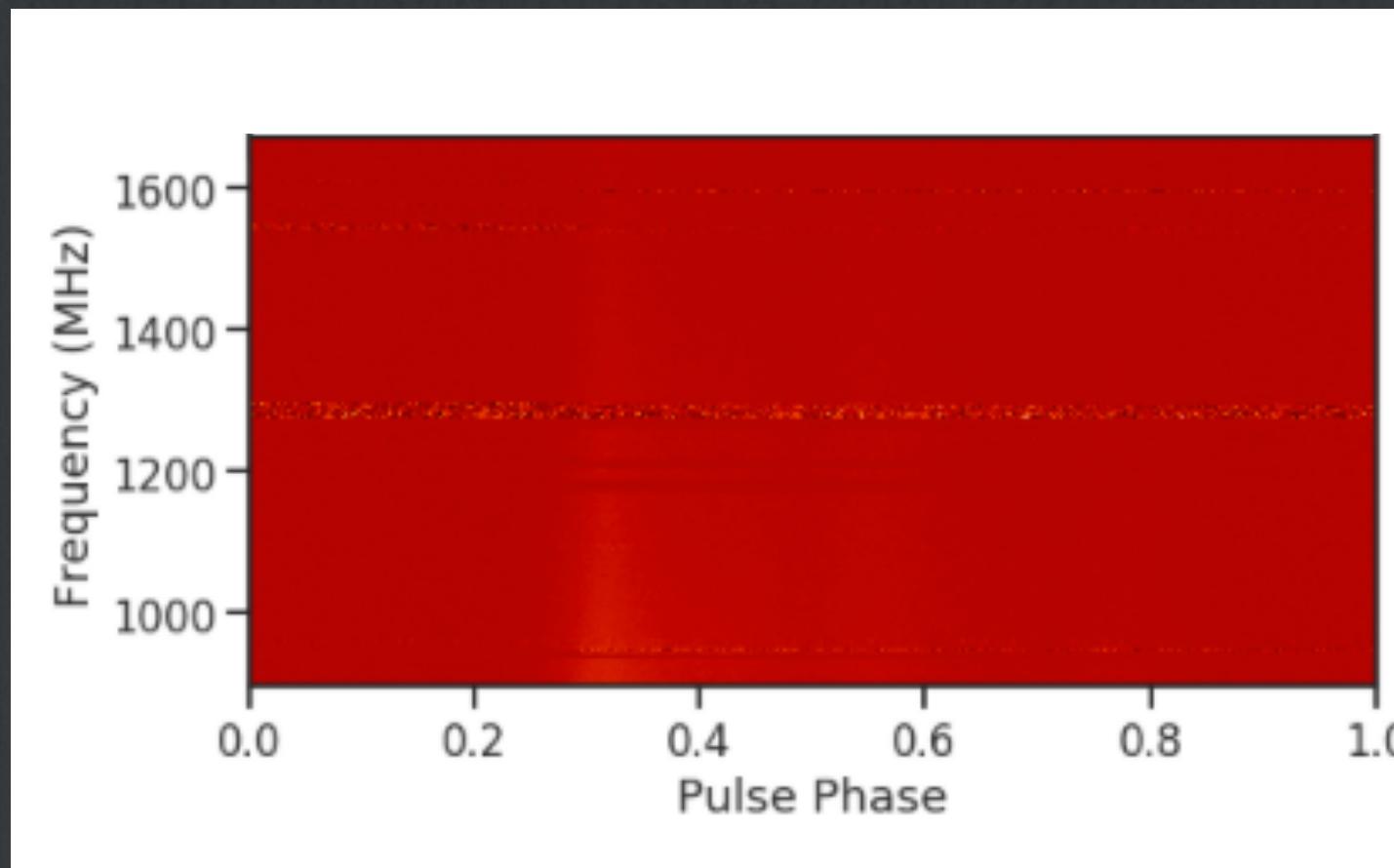


- At MeerKAT L-band frequencies (856 MHz - 1712 MHz) these are often dominated by GSM (mobile) and GPS
- Removing contaminated frequency channels is key before going ahead with data analysis
- However beyond narrowband interference, you may also need to scan for temporal RFI

Contamination by Radio Frequency Interference

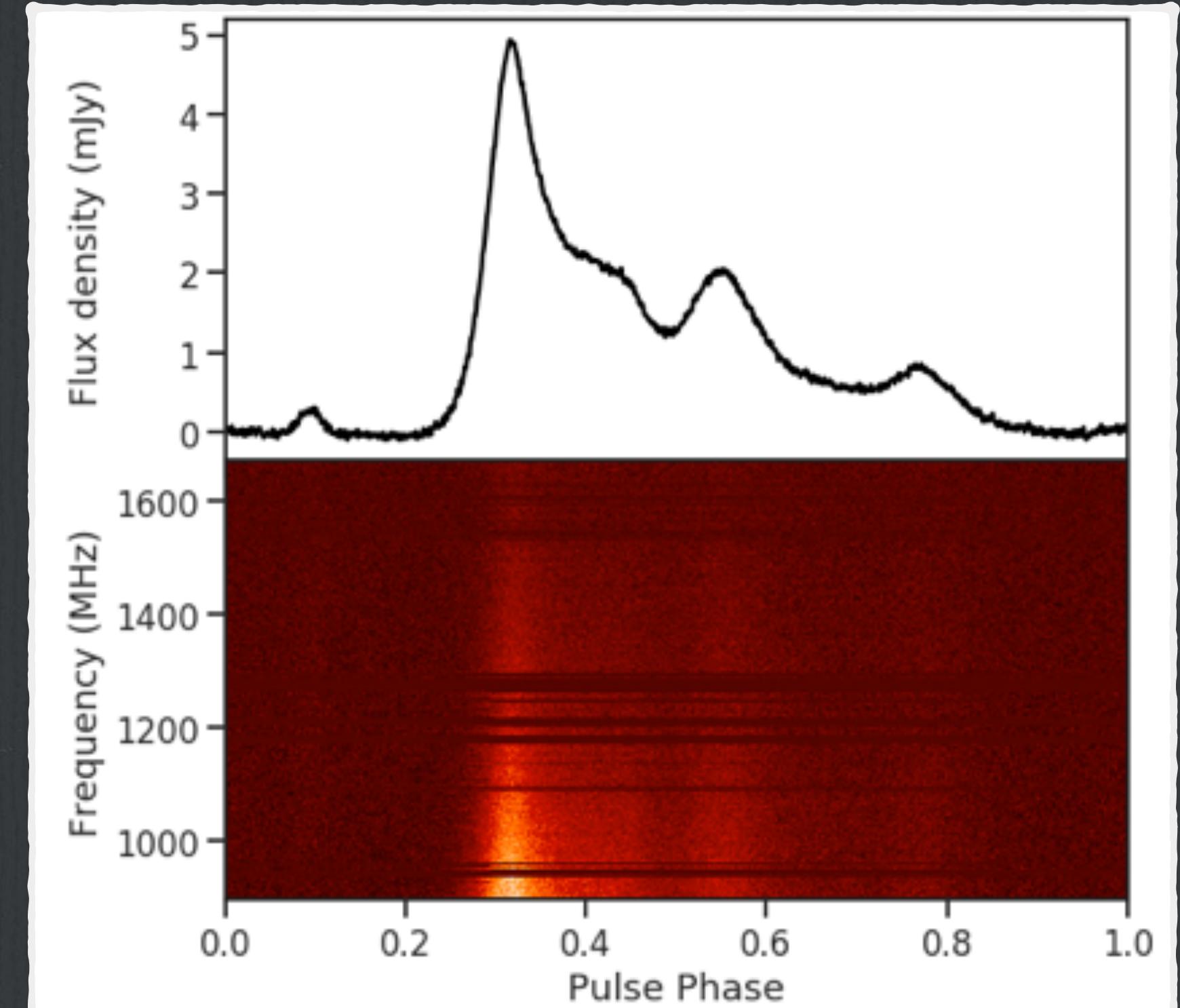
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Once removed the pulse is brightly revealed!



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PSR J0955-6150 across the MeerKAT L-band



Propagation through the Interstellar Medium

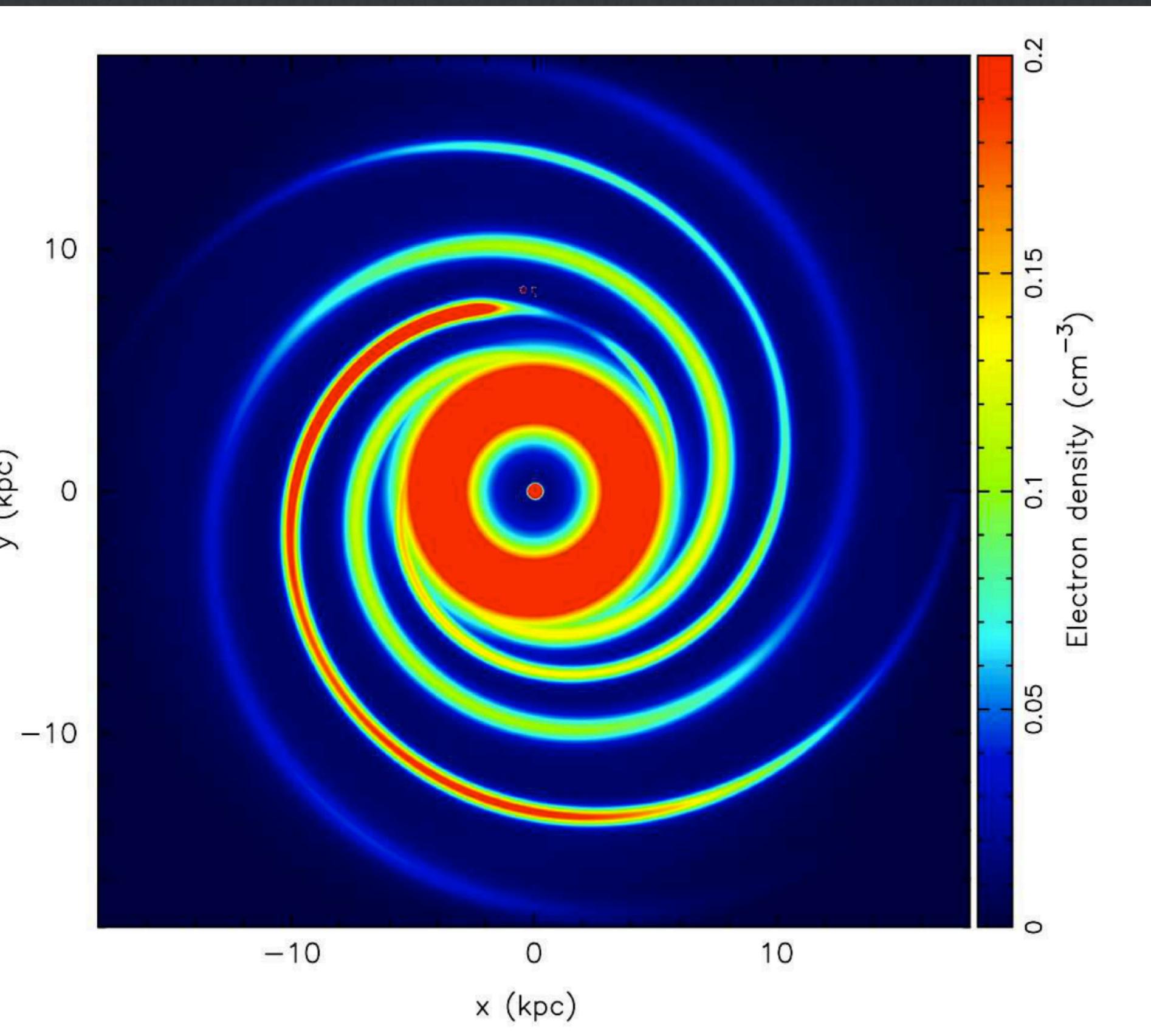
- Here we investigate the effect of the Interstellar Medium in the propagation of radio signals - in general; and then consider the effects on pulsar signals in particular
- All stars and objects in the Galaxy are embedded in a diffuse medium, called the 'Interstellar Medium'
- The ISM has many different components, including
 - gas (containing atoms, molecules, ions and free electrons)
 - dust (tiny solid particles)



(credit: ESO/Digitized Sky Survey 2)

Propagation through the Interstellar Medium

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 - All stars and objects in the Galaxy are embedded in a diffuse medium, called the ‘Interstellar Medium’
 - The ISM has many different components, including
 - gas (containing atoms, molecules, ions and free electrons)
 - dust (tiny solid particles)
 - This ionised ISM (containing free electrons) can be modelled as a cold** plasma of ~ 8000 K
 - characterised by its line of sight electron densities
- ** note that cold means it is colder than the ‘hot’ or ‘fully ionised’ part of the ISM. In other words it is partially ionised.



Yao et al. 2017: Electron density model in the galactic plane

The ISM Cold Plasma refractive index

- In Optics the refractive index (n) of a medium is given by Snell's Law:

$$n = c/v_m \quad \begin{aligned} &\text{- with } c \text{ the speed of light, and} \\ &v_m \text{ the altered speed of the waves in the particular medium} \end{aligned}$$

- In ISM physics we define the (inverse) refractive index (μ) in terms of

$$1/n = \mu = \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{\nu_p}{\nu}\right)^2}$$

- ν is the frequency of the radio emission propagating through the ISM
- ν_p is the resonant ISM plasma frequency as a function of free electron density (n_e)

with $\nu_p = \left(\frac{e^2 n_e}{\pi m_e} \right)^{1/2}$

electron mass, $m_e = 9.109 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg}$
electron charge, $e = 1.6022 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$

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$$\nu_p = \left(\frac{e^2 n_e}{\pi m_e} \right)^{1/2} \approx 8.97 \left(\frac{n_e}{\text{cm}^{-3}} \right)^{1/2} \text{kHz}$$

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typical ~ 1.5 kHz

typical average n_e densities in the galaxy $\sim 0.03 \text{ cm}^{-3}$
electron mass, $m_e = 9.109 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg}$
electron charge, $e = 1.6022 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$

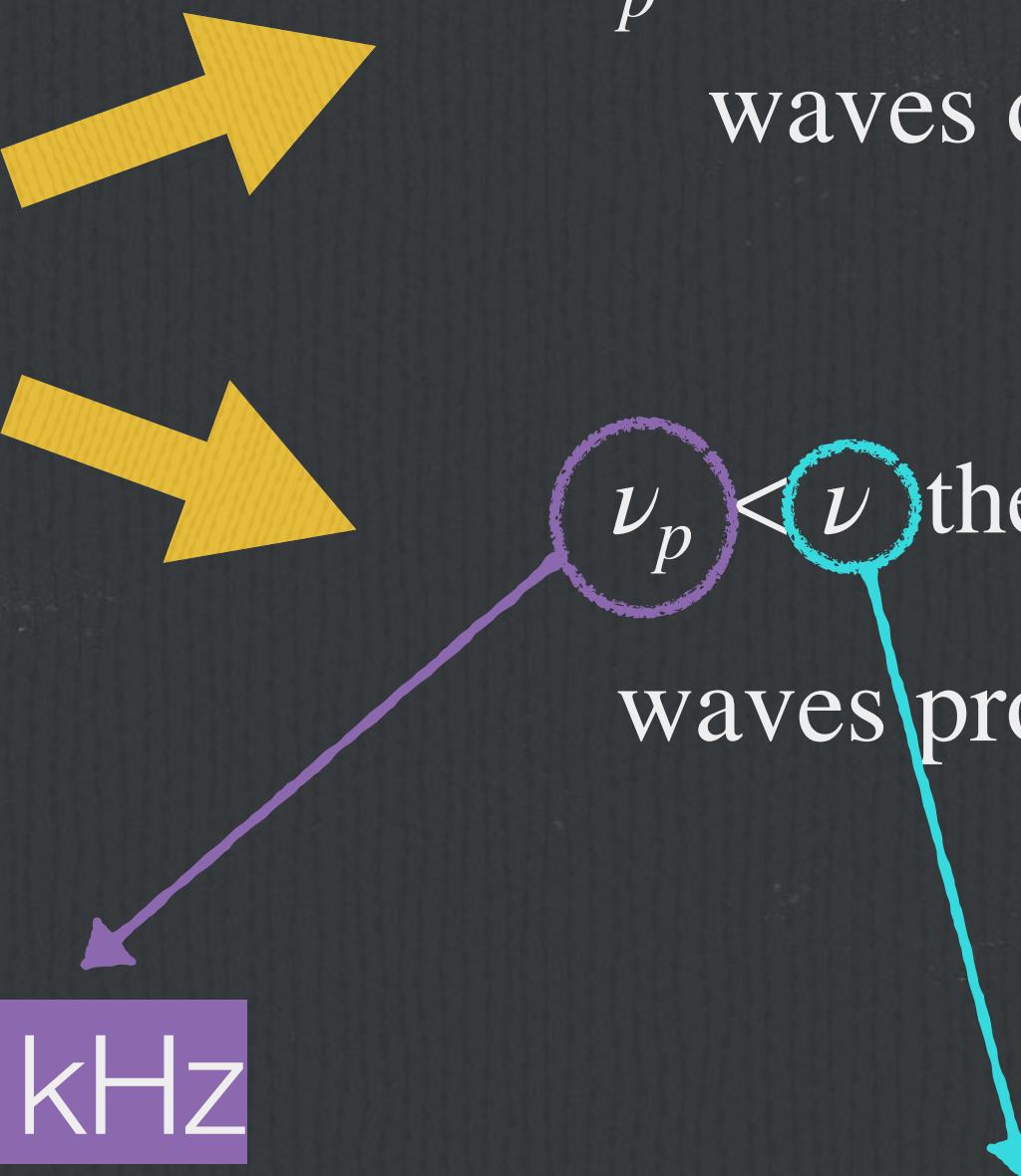
SI conversions
 $1 \text{ cm}^{-3} = 1 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^{-3}$
 $1 \text{ Hz} = 1000 \text{ kHz}$

Radio wave propagation through ISM

- Radio waves in the ISM propagate with group velocity v_g
- The ISM refractive index (μ) can be written as the ratio of group velocity and speed of light (c)

$$\mu = \frac{v_g}{c} = \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{\nu_p}{\nu}\right)^2}$$

typical ~ 1.5 kHz



$$v_g = c\mu < c$$

radio observations ~ 10 MHz - 100 GHz

Radio wave propagation through ISM

- Radio waves in the ISM propagate with group velocity v_g
- Since $\nu_p \ll \nu$ for radio observations we can compute v_g using a Taylor expansion

$$v_g = c \mu = c \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{\nu_p}{\nu}\right)^2} \approx c \left(1 - \frac{\nu_p^2}{2\nu^2}\right)$$

first 2 terms
of Taylor expansion

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Question: how will the wave velocity change with radio wave frequency?

Question: when observing a pulsar - will all its emission arrive at the telescope simultaneously?

Dispersive Delay by the ISM

$$\frac{1}{v_g} \approx \frac{1}{c} \left(1 + \frac{\nu_p^2}{2\nu^2} \right)$$

Radio emission of frequency ν is delayed by the ISM by t sec:

$$t = \int_0^d \frac{dl}{v_g} - \frac{d}{c} = \frac{1}{c} \int_0^d \left(1 + \frac{\nu_p^2}{2\nu^2} \right) dl - \frac{d}{c} = \left(\frac{e^2}{2\pi m_e c} \right) \nu^{-2} \int_0^d n_e dl$$

Astrophysical object at distance d , Observer at 0



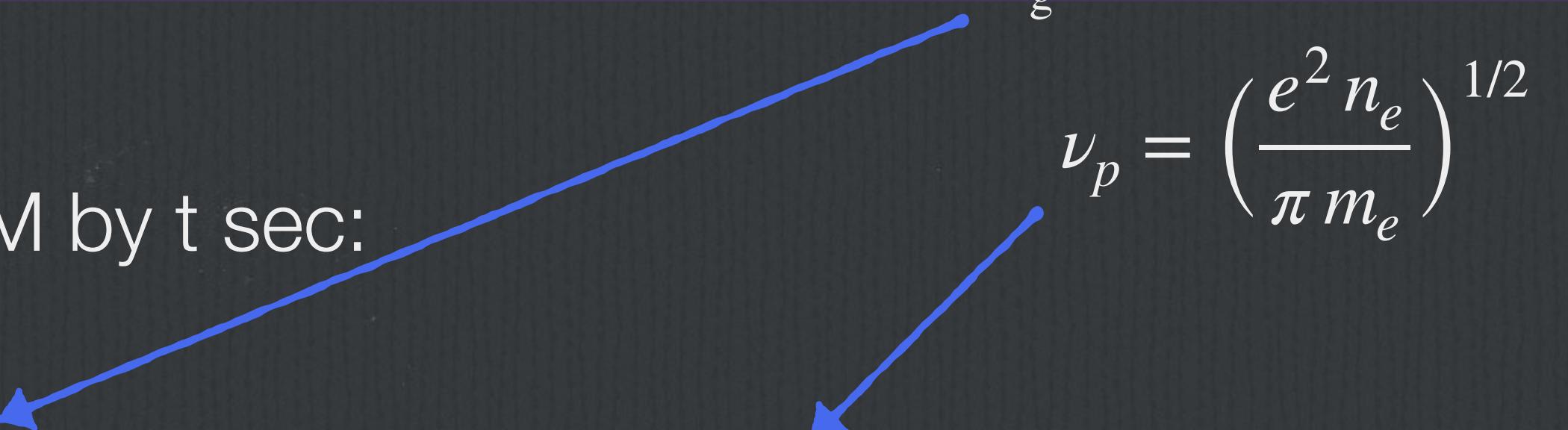
Time to travel from object to observer at the speed of light (no delay)



Plugging in astronomical units

$$t = 4.149 \times 10^3 \text{ sec} \left(\frac{\nu}{\text{MHz}} \right)^{-2} \left(\frac{\int_0^d n_e dl}{\text{pc cm}^{-3}} \right)$$

$$= 4.149 \times 10^3 \text{ sec} \left(\frac{\nu}{\text{MHz}} \right)^{-2} \left(\frac{\text{DM}}{\text{pc cm}^{-3}} \right)$$

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Strong frequency dependence

Delay between radio frequencies by the ISM

Delay at 1 GHz (compared to speed of light)

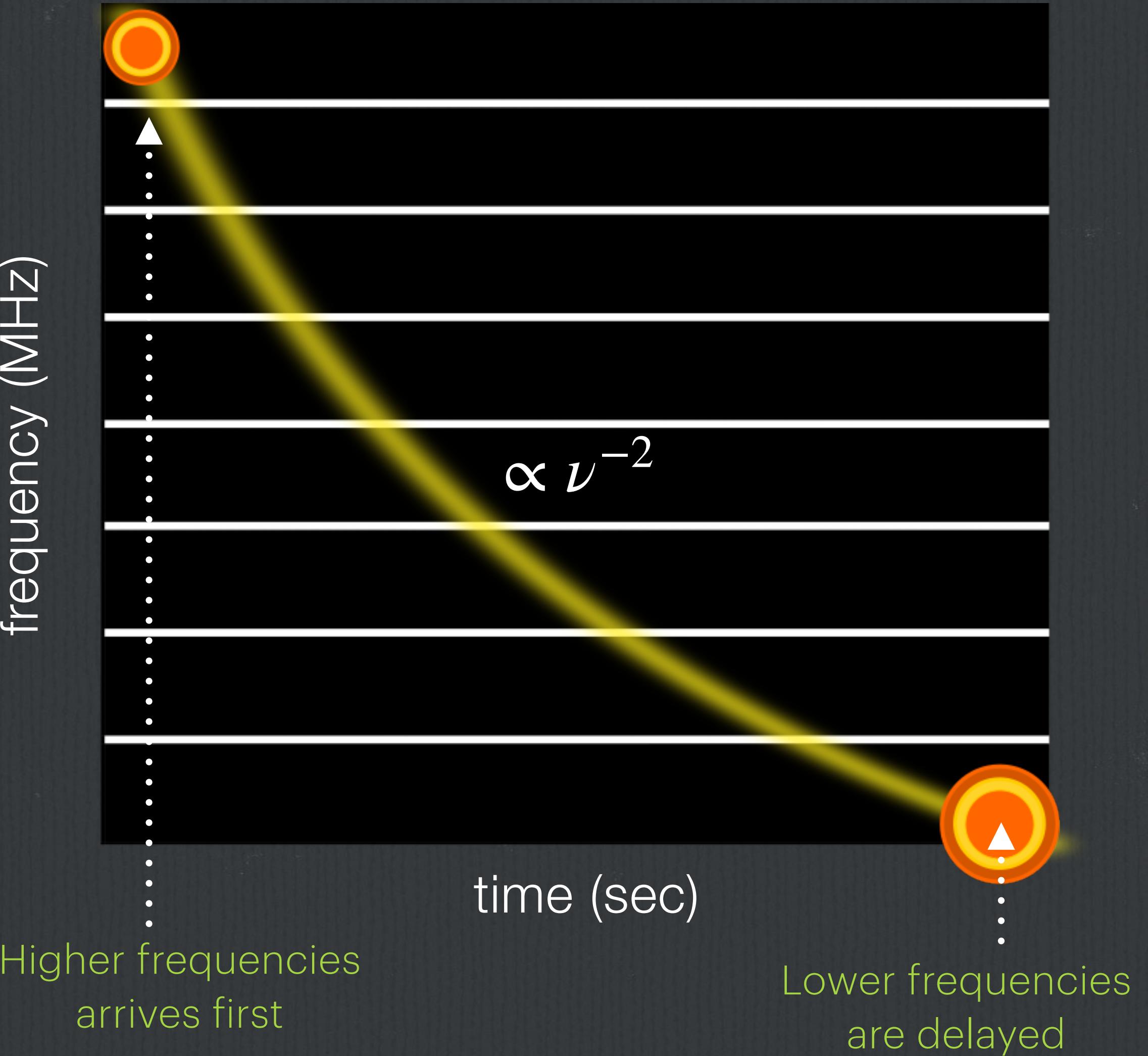
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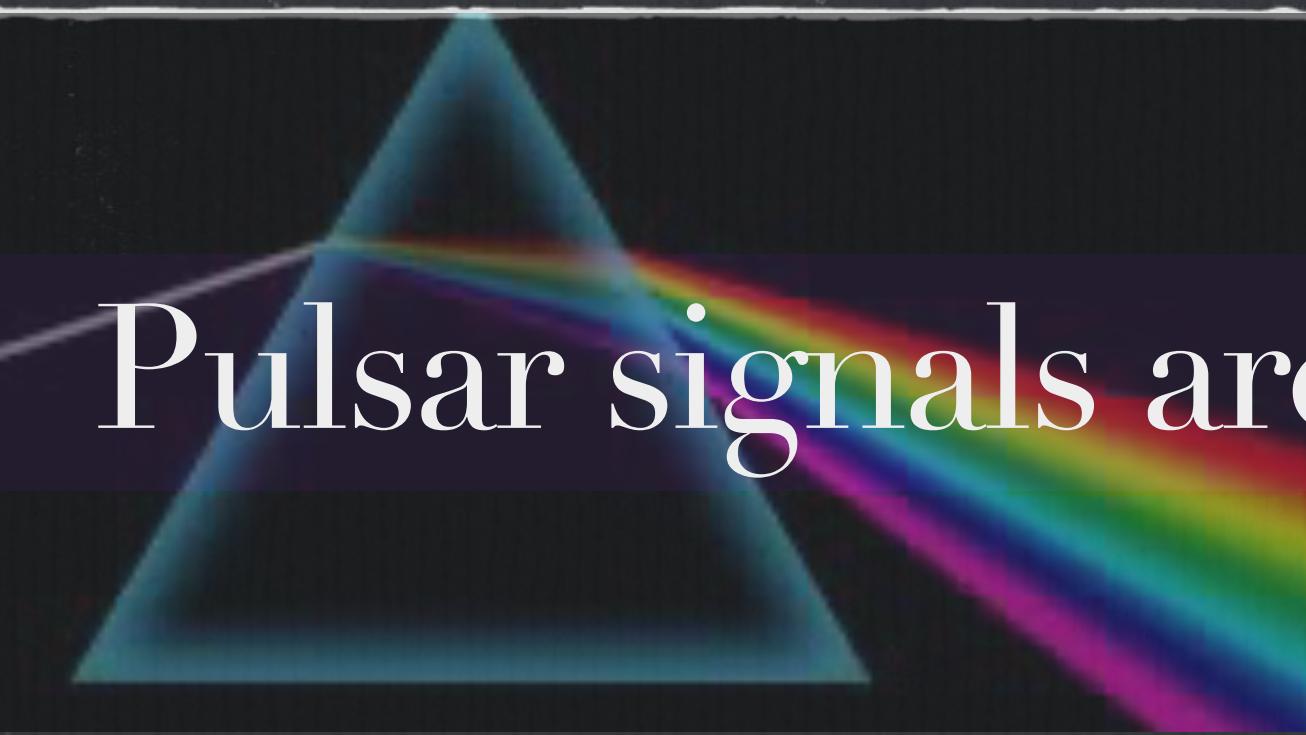
$$t = 4.149 \text{ ms} \left(\frac{\text{DM}}{\text{pc cm}^{-3}} \right)$$

With DM typically 100 - 1000 pc cm⁻³,
the delay at 1 GHz is 100 ms to 1 sec

Delay between two frequencies

$$\Delta t = 4.15 \times 10^3 \text{ sec} \times \text{DM} \times \left[\frac{1}{\nu_{\text{low}}^2} - \frac{1}{\nu_{\text{high}}^2} \right]$$





Pulsar signals are dispersed by the ISM

Radio waves pass through the interstellar medium (ISM) as they travel towards us

The electron densities in the partially ionised component of the ISM, acts as a frequency dependent dispersive plasma

This plasma will **slightly delay** a radio signal: at 1 GHz and at few 100 pc (\sim 1000 light years), the delay is typically < 1 sec



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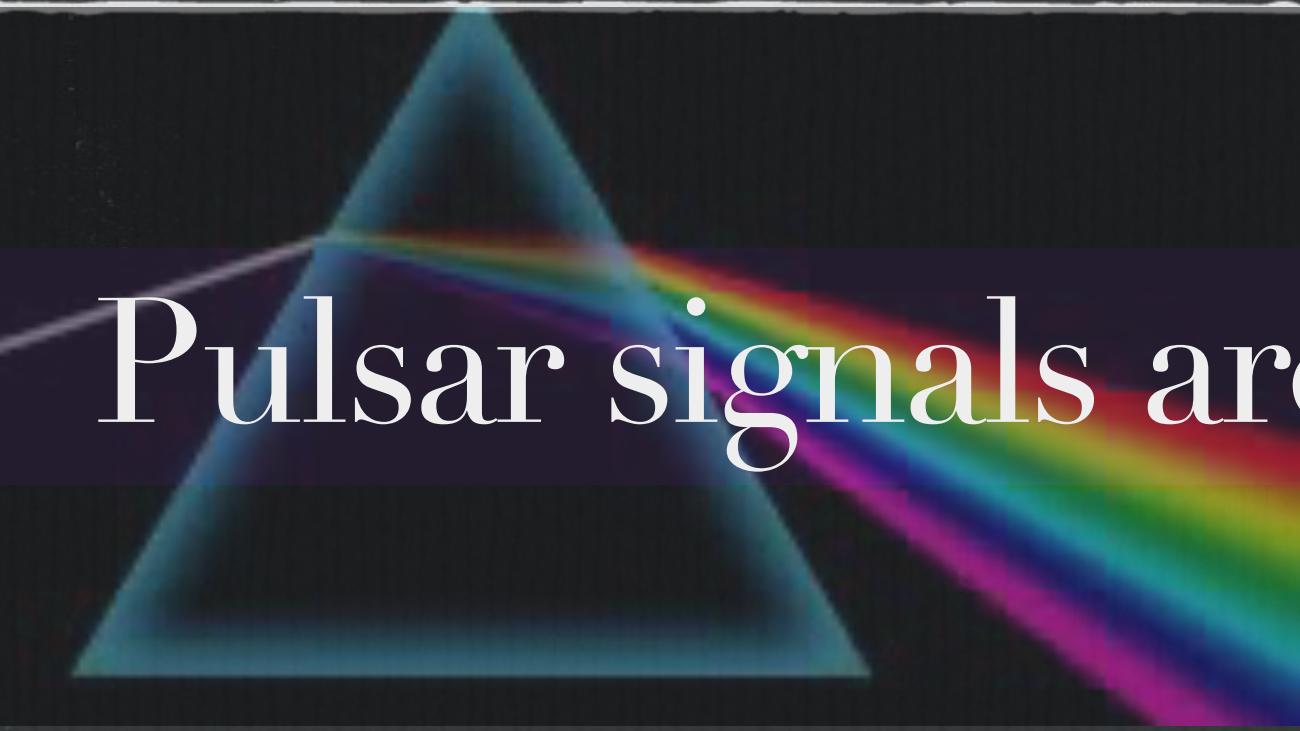
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Most radio observations will be unaffected by this slight delay, but

1. Since pulsars are emitting signals every few ms to \sim sec, this slight delay will affect the observed pulsar signal!
2. Moreover since pulsars are **broadband** — the ISM will *stretch out the pulsar signal*, such that



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We observe the higher frequency components of the pulsar signal first, and the lower frequencies later

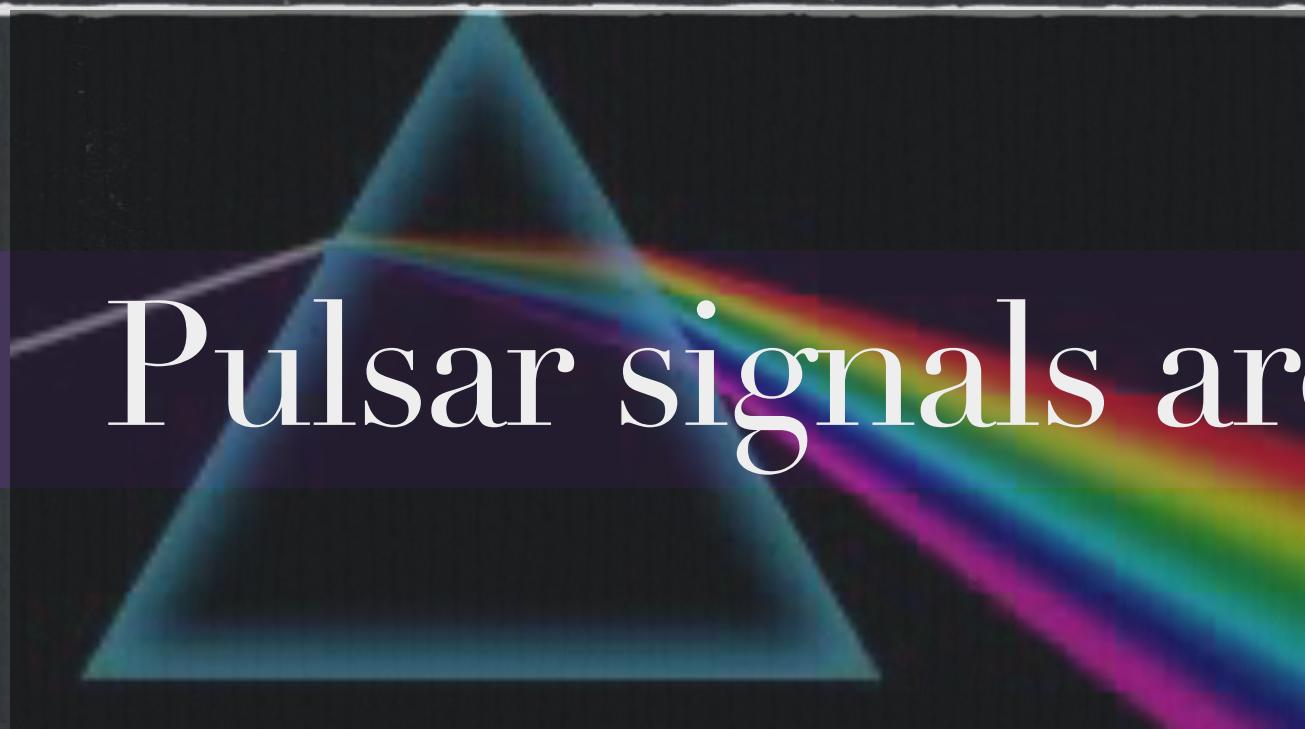
The time difference between two frequencies, ν_{high} and ν_{low} , is given by $\Delta t = 4.15 \times 10^3 \times \text{DM} \times \left[\frac{1}{\nu_{\text{low}}^2} - \frac{1}{\nu_{\text{high}}^2} \right]$

where the “dispersion measure” (DM) is the integrated electron column density, between the observer and the pulsar (in pc cm^{-3}):

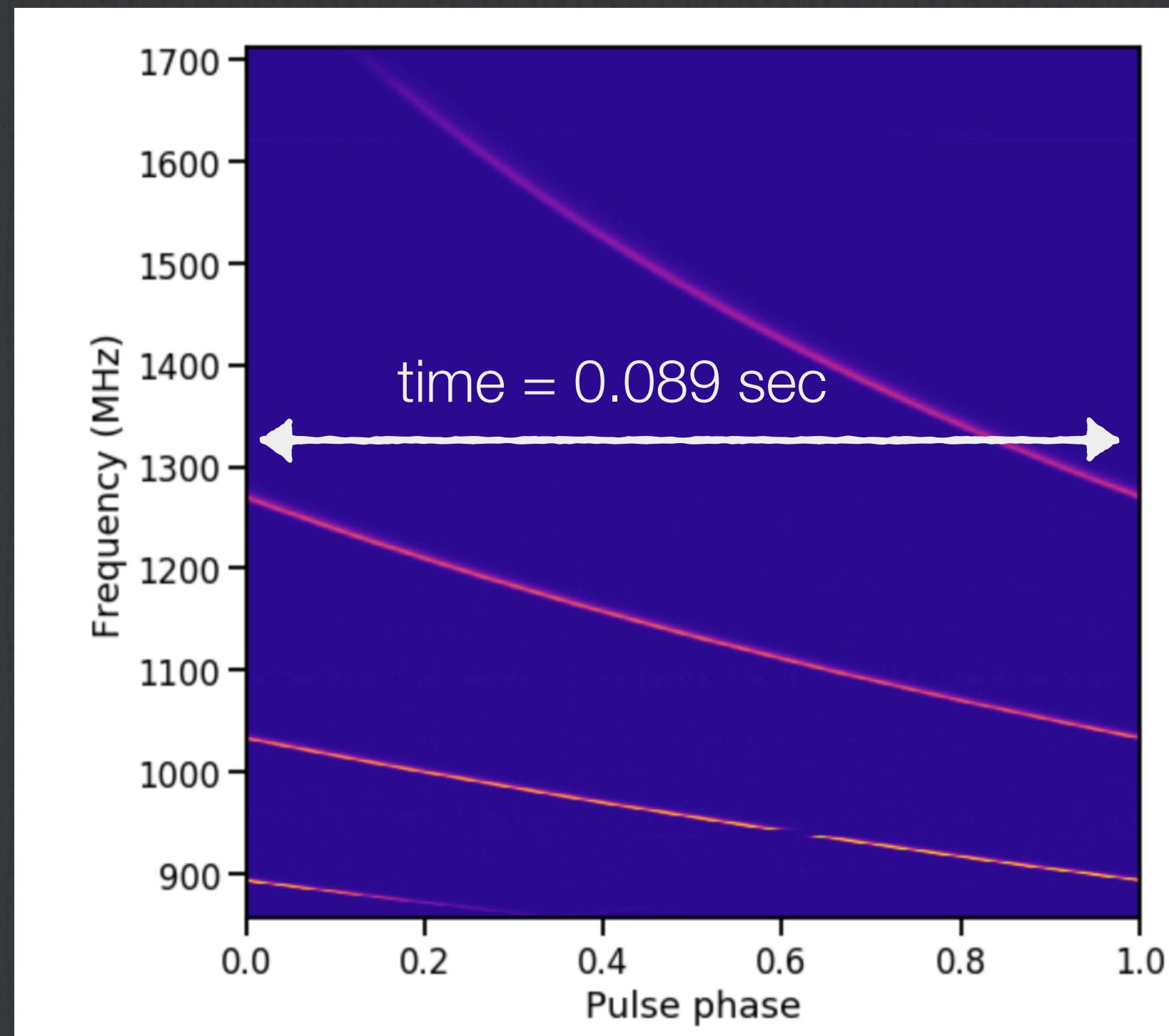
$$\text{DM} = \int_{\text{obs}}^{\text{pulsar}} n_e \, dl \quad \text{and therefore also a proxy for distance}$$

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Pulsar signals are dispersed by the ISM



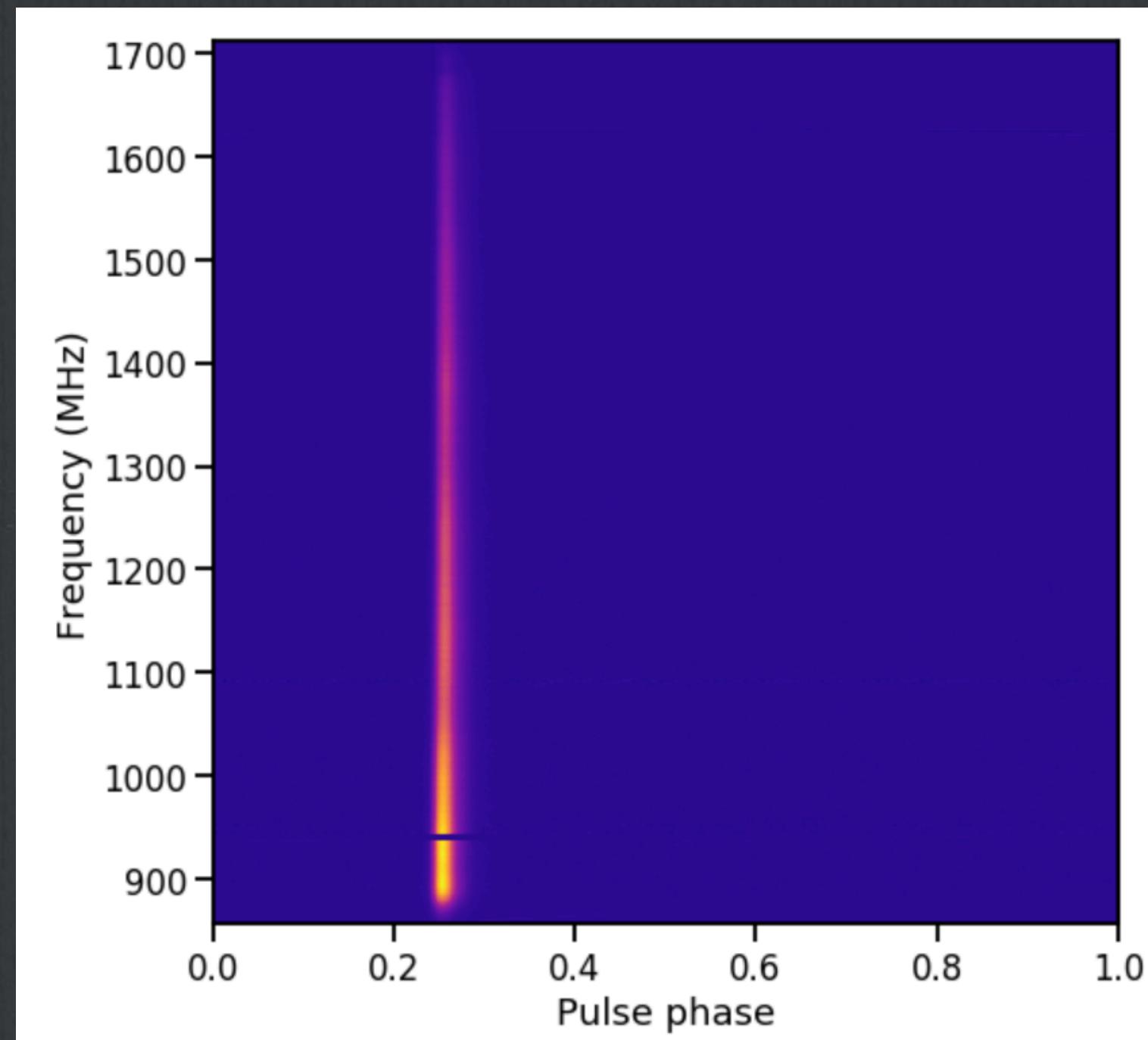
The Vela pulsar (J0835-4510) at MeerKAT L-band

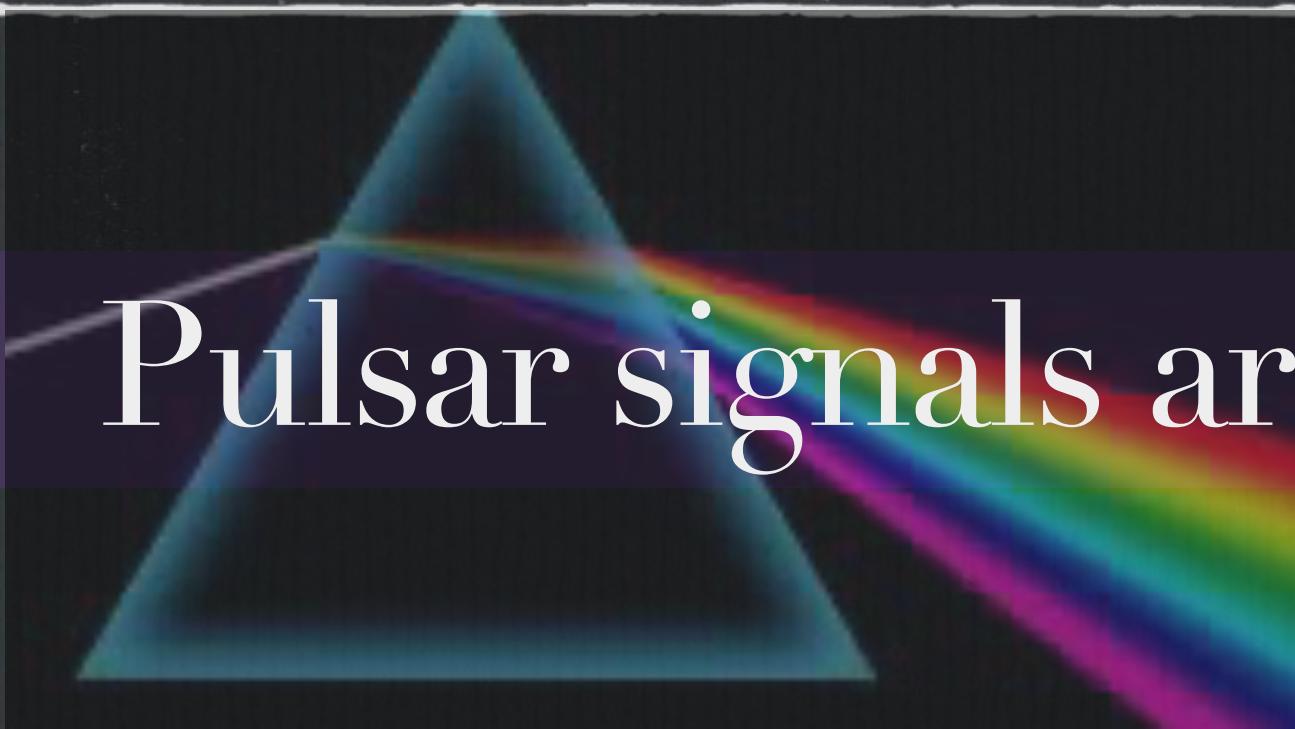


The Vela signal has been folded on its pulse period of 89 ms

However, the dispersive delay between the highest frequency and the lowest is larger than the pulse period

Vela after dispersion correction

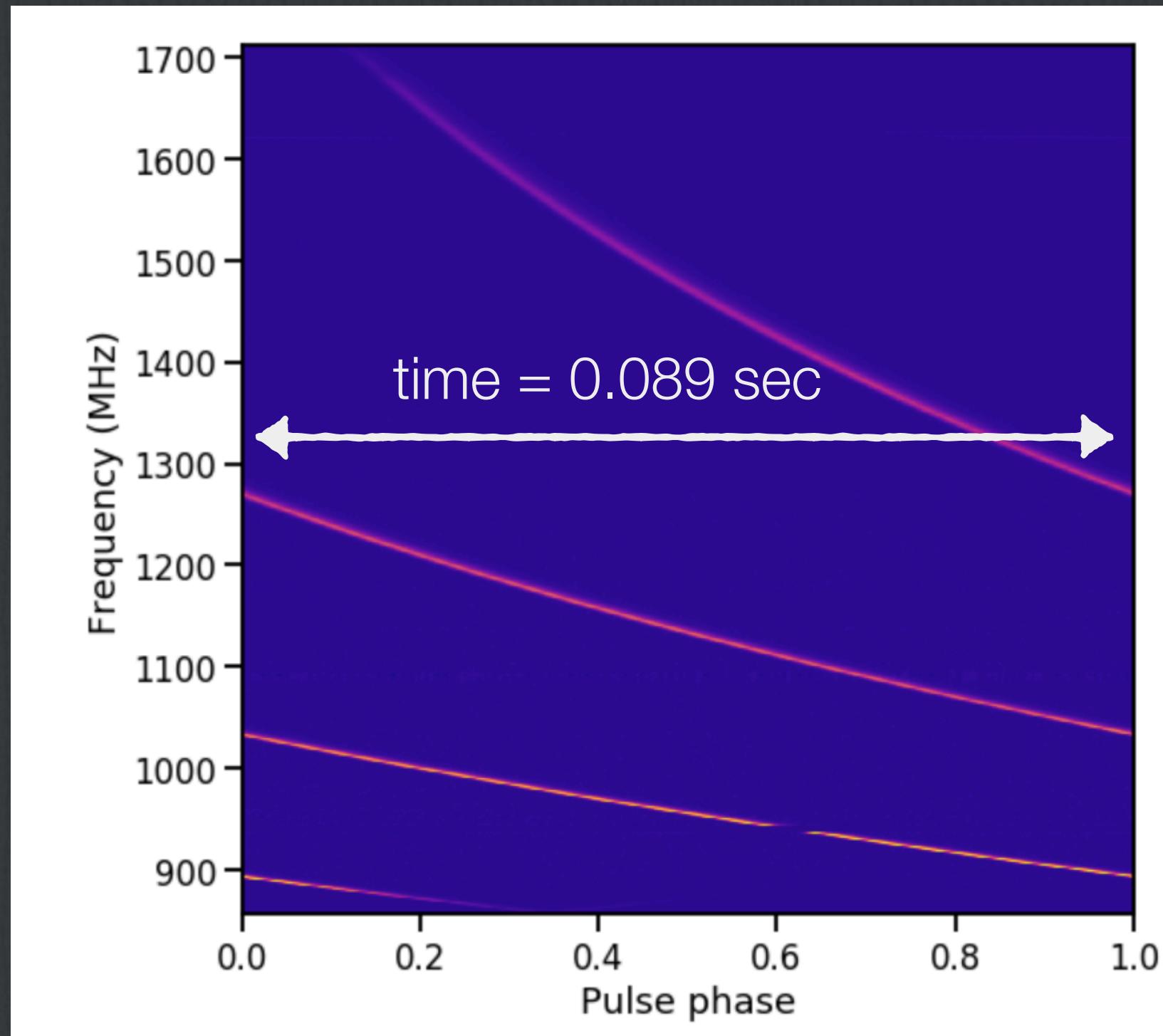




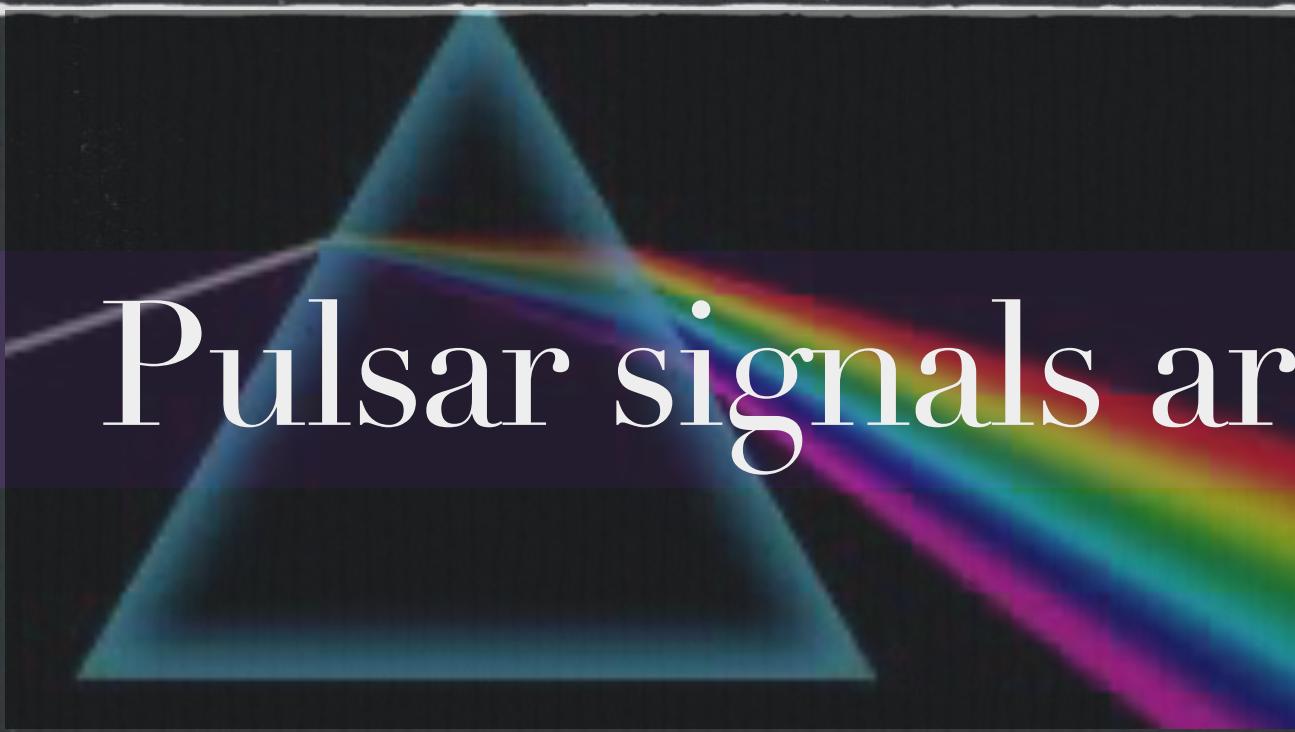
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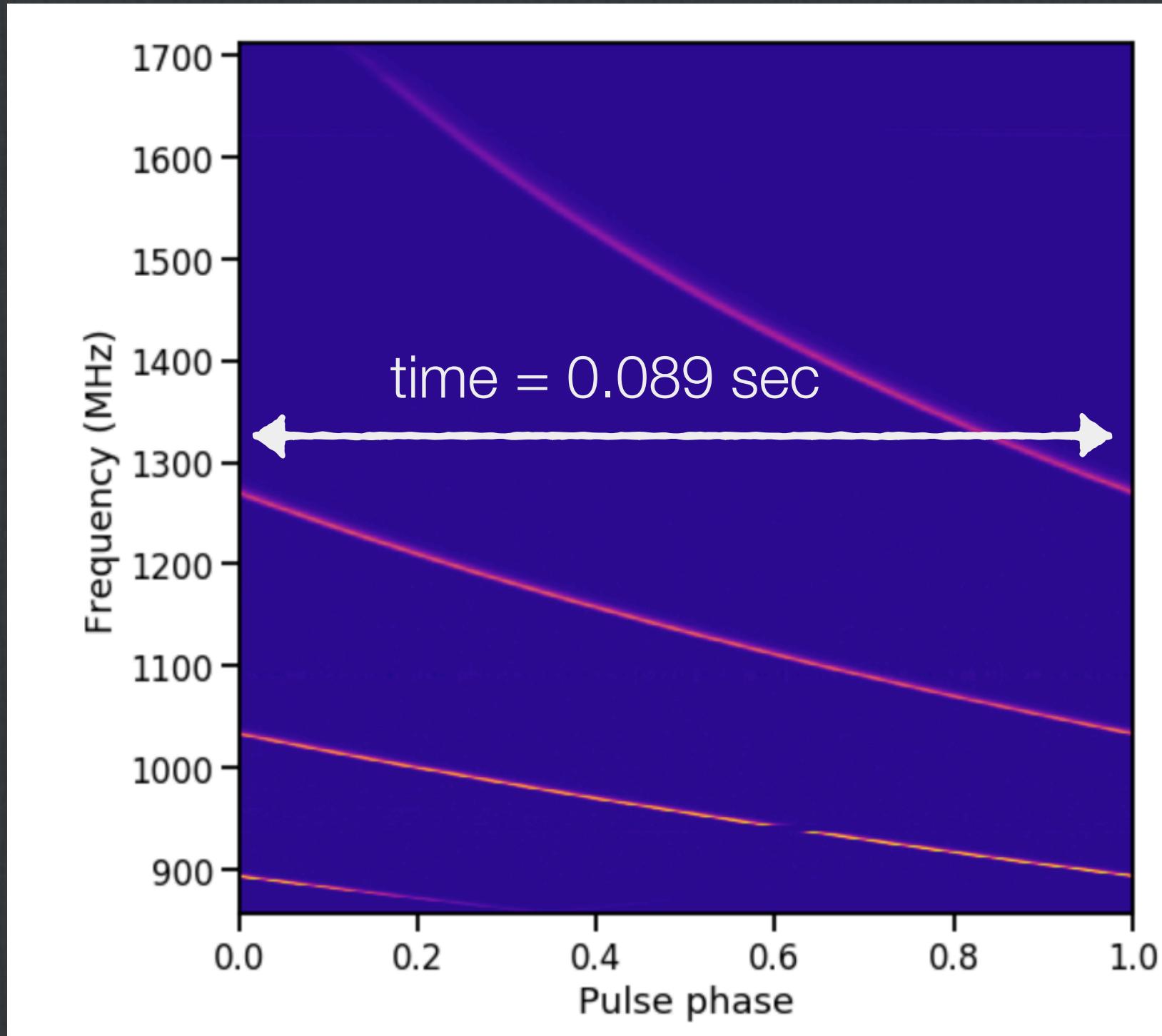
- The “dispersion measure” (DM) is the integrated column density of electrons between the observer and the pulsar
- Most well-known pulsars have good established estimates of their associated DM values
- Since the DM represents an integrated value along a long line of sight, it does not typically vary much from observation to observation
- However changes in pulsar DMs are observed, especially if the ISM environment towards a given pulsar is variable
- DM values can be obtained by conducting a \mathcal{V}^{-2} fit across the delayed folded pulsar signature in the observing band.
- Or more accurately through pulsar timing analysis



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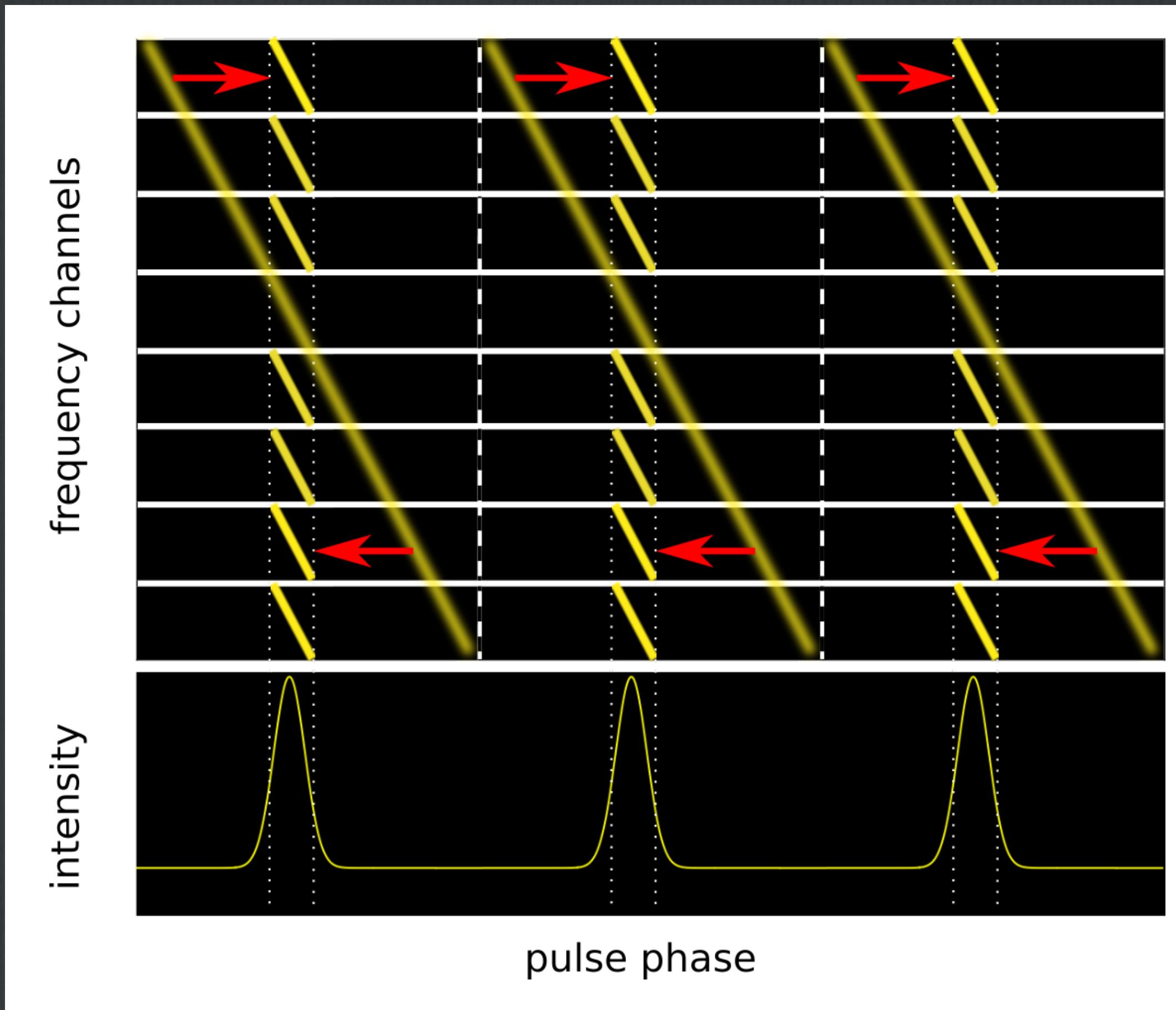


- Question: Can you estimate Vela's DM from this figure (roughly)?

Correcting dispersion

Incoherent de-dispersion

- Per frequency channel shift

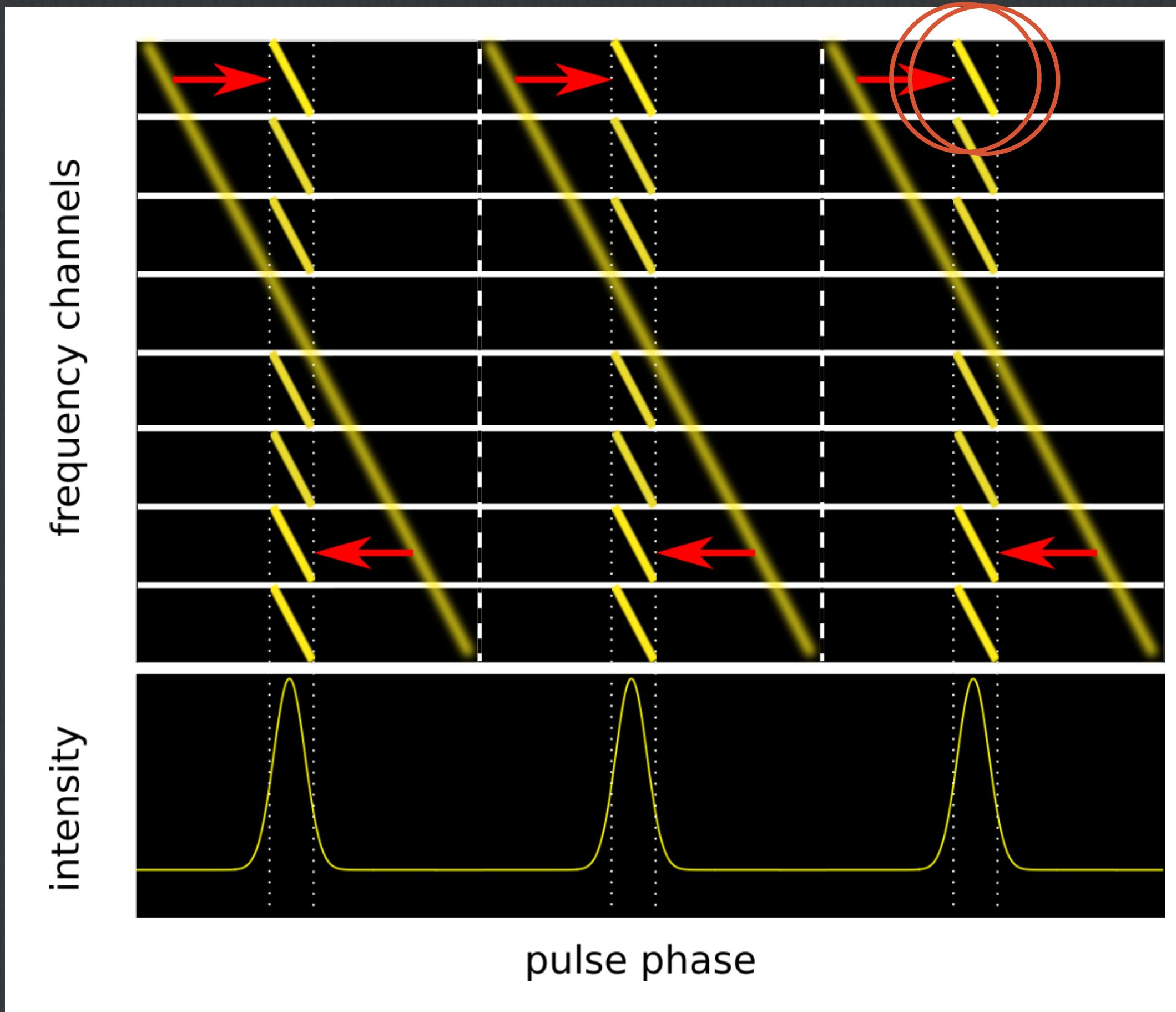


- The effect of dispersion can be removed by splitting the bandwidth up into a number of channels.
- In each channel we shift the time series by the calculated delay relative to the central frequency
- Correcting for dispersion in this way is called “dedispersion”
- In particular this method here is called “incoherent dedispersion”

Correcting dispersion

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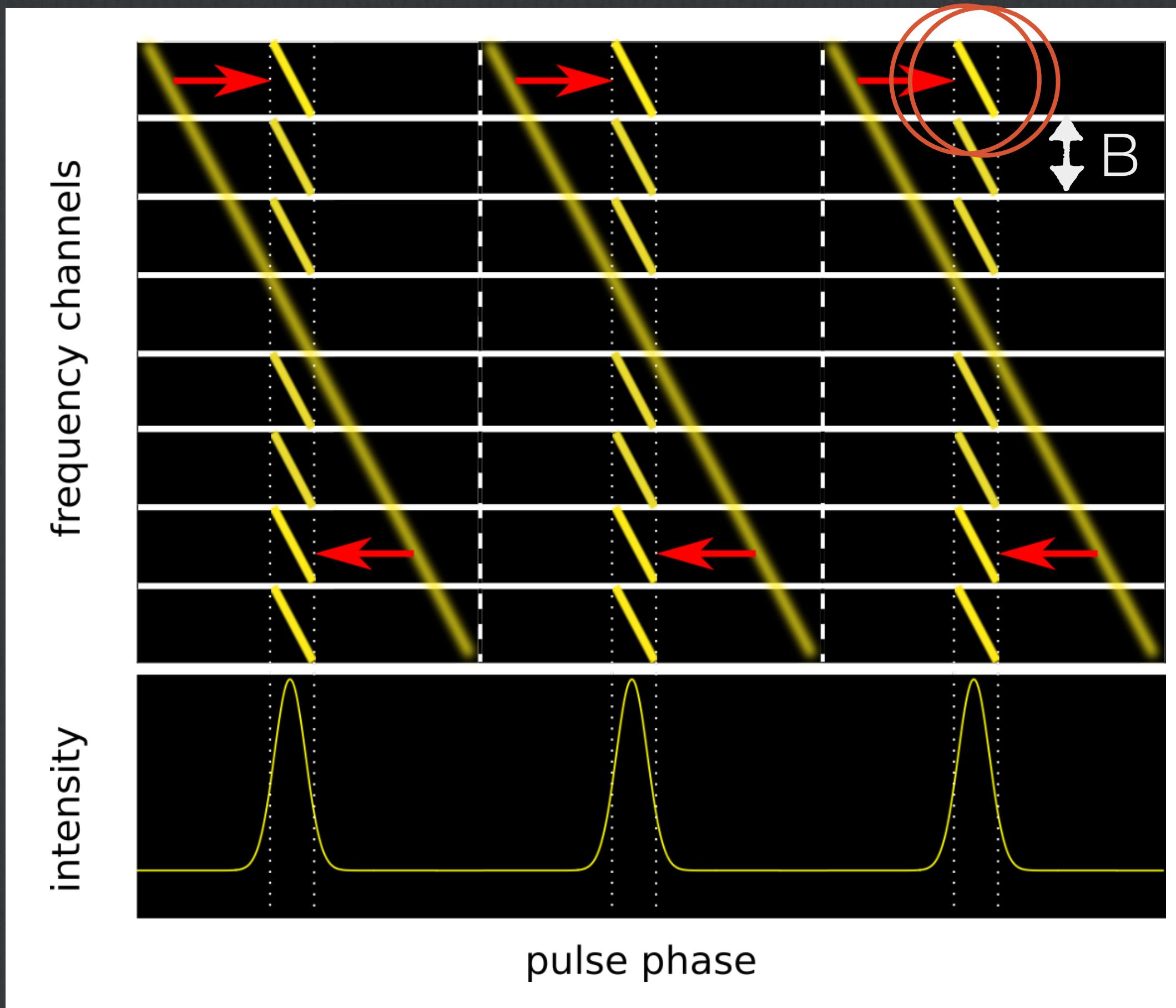
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- In particular this method here is called “incoherent dedispersion”
- The signal within each frequency channel however remains uncorrected. This is called ‘dispersion smear’.

Question: how can we reduce the dispersion smear?

Correcting dispersion

Incoherent de-dispersion

- Per frequency channel shift



Computing dispersion smear

If the channel bandwidth (B) is small compared to the observing frequency,

$$B \ll v$$

then the smearing across the channel is given by

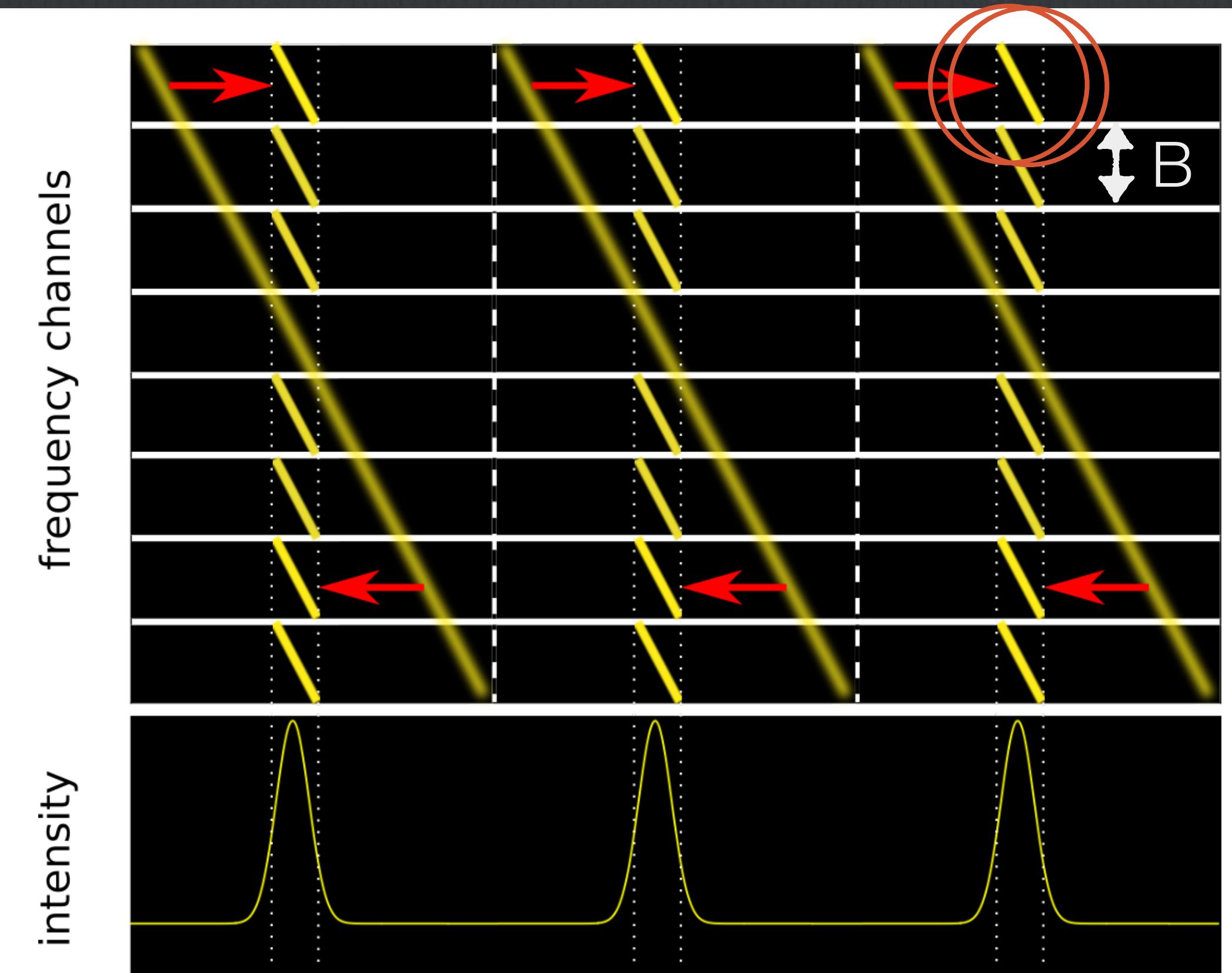
$$\left(\frac{\Delta t}{\text{sec}} \right) = 8.3 \times 10^3 \left(\frac{\nu}{\text{MHz}} \right)^{-3} \left(\frac{B}{\text{MHz}} \right) \left(\frac{DM}{\text{pc cm}^{-3}} \right)$$

With incoherent dedispersion there is **residual smearing** across each channel.

Correcting dispersion

Incoherent de-dispersion

- Per frequency channel shift



Residual smear within
the frequency channel

Computing dispersion smear

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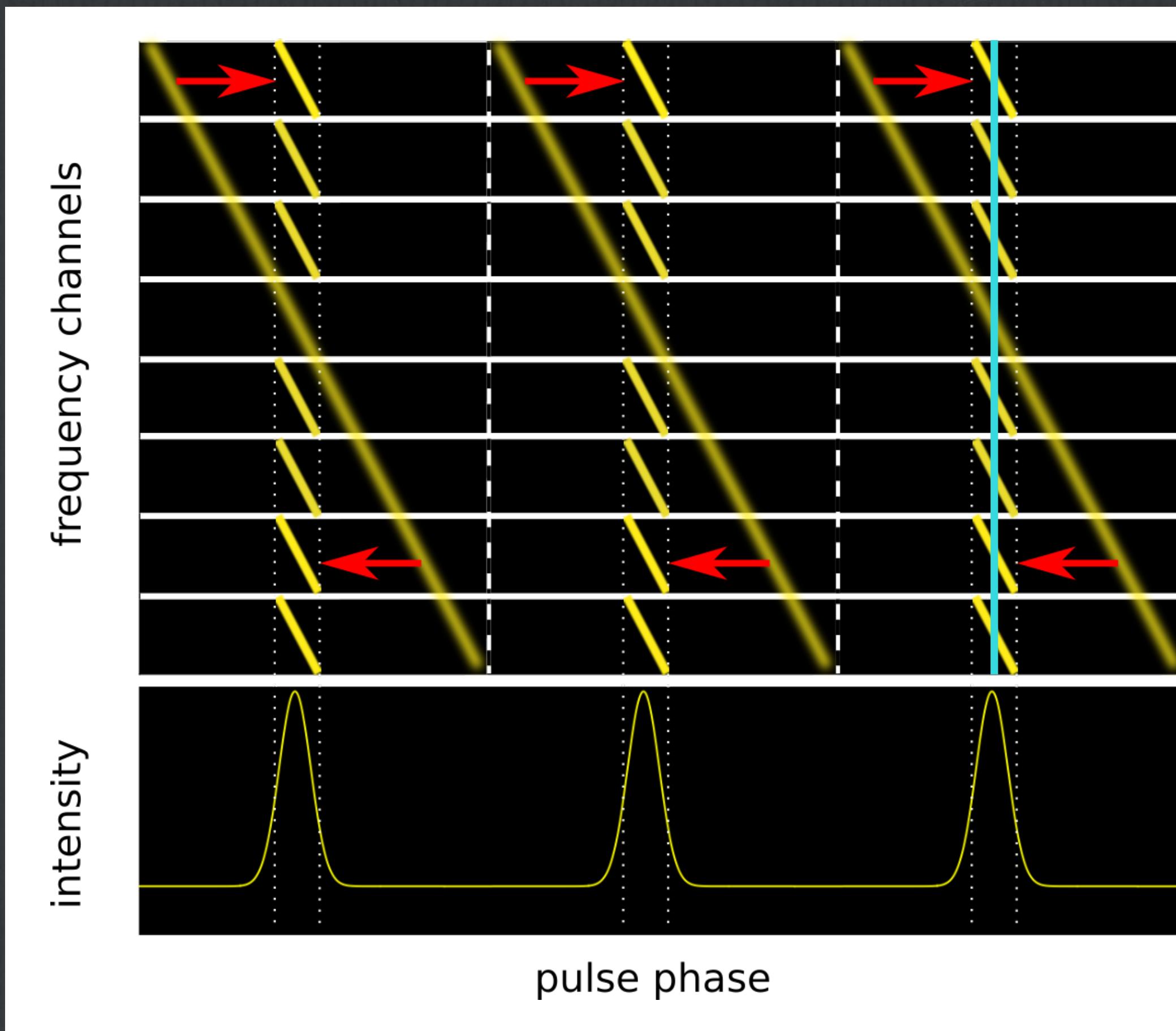
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With incoherent dedispersion there is residual smearing across each channel.

Next-up: We can also fully remove the dispersion smear through a technique called coherent dedispersion

Correcting dispersion by applying phase changes

Coherent de-dispersion

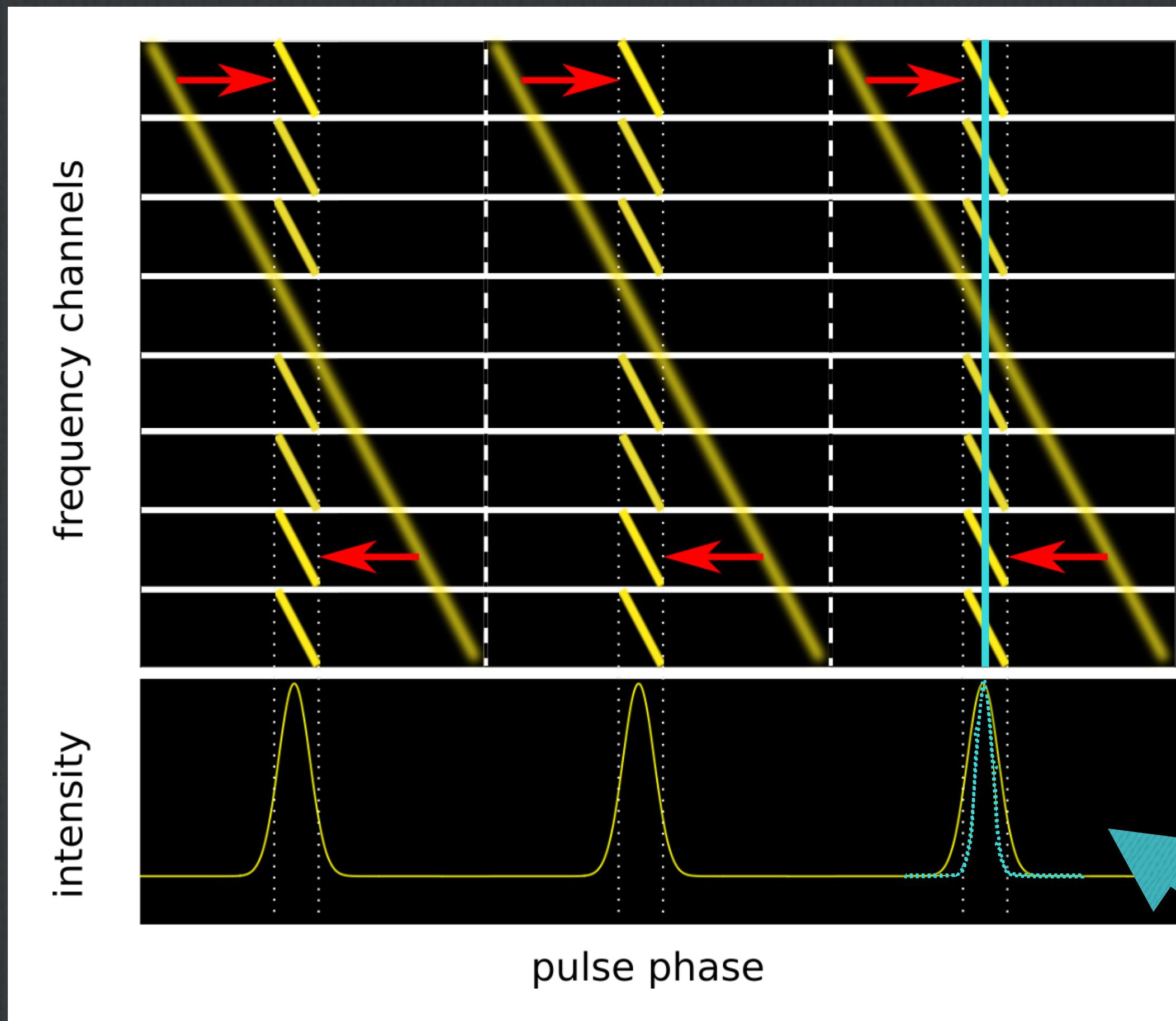


ISM effect fully removed

- The ISM dispersive delay that we computed, imparts a frequency dependent phase change on the radio waves
- In the Fourier domain this is a phase change to each component of the electric field of the signal
 - $E_m = E_i e^{ik\phi}$ measured E-field
 - k : wavenumber
 - ϕ : phase change
- The dispersion can be removed by multiplying induced E_m with an inverse phase correcting function, $e^{-ik\phi}$ for each polarisation in the beamformer
- Correction to the raw complex voltages (before computing the pulsar intensities)

Correcting dispersion by applying phase changes

Coherent de-dispersion

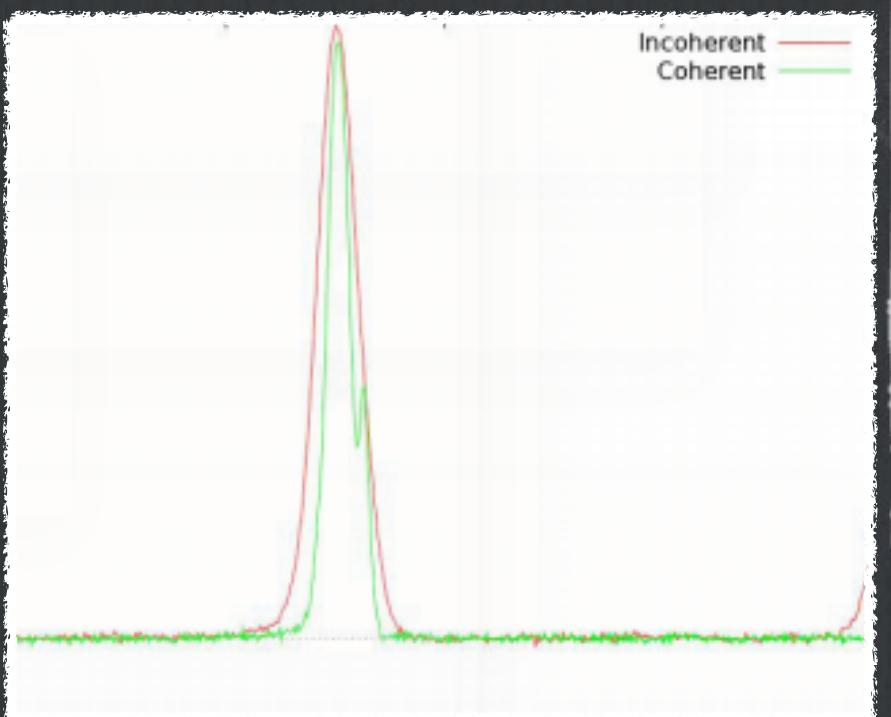


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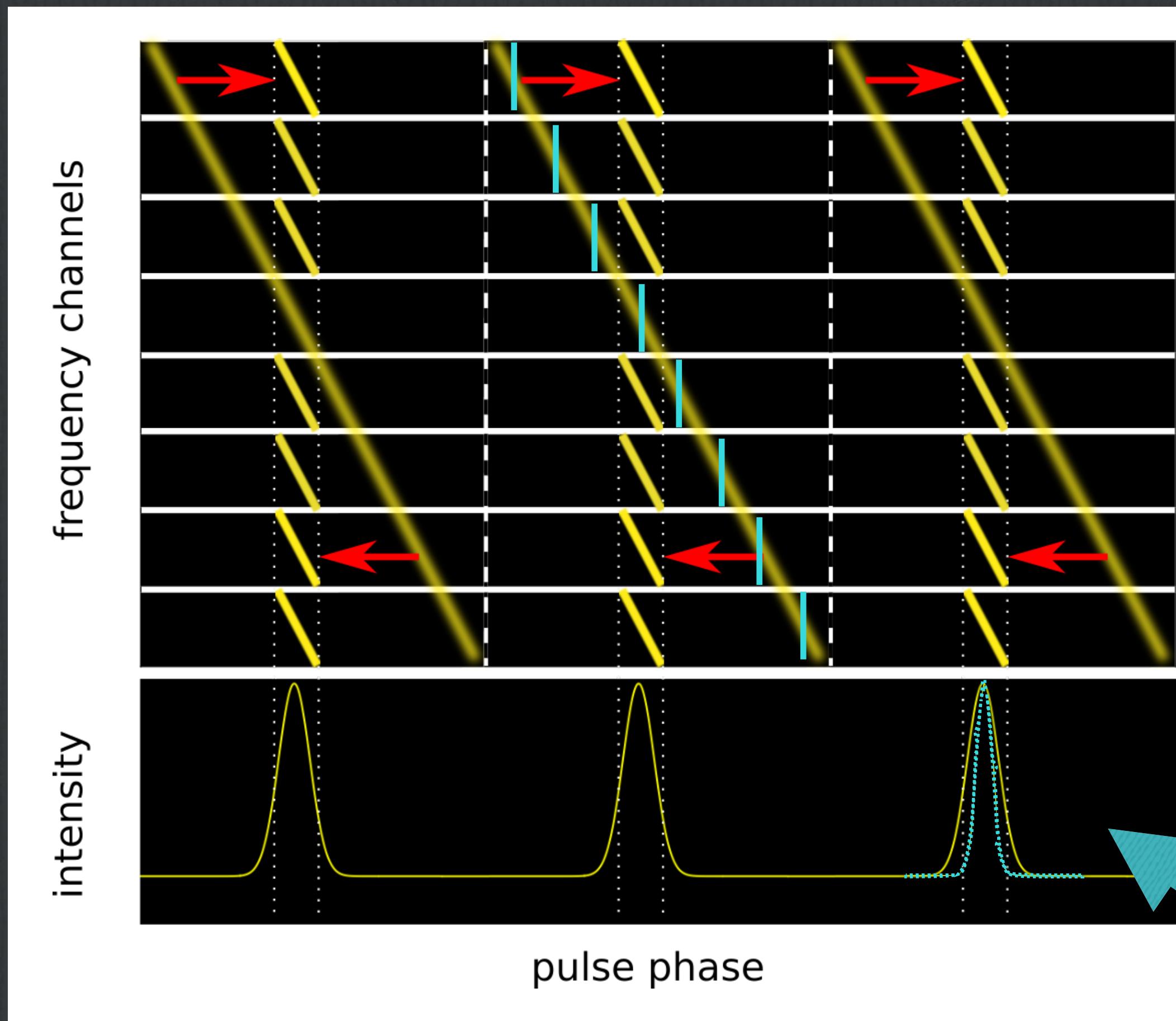
Improved sharpness and features of the detected pulse

Comparison between the incoherent and coherently dedispersed pulse profile of PSR B1937+21
(picture credit: Paul Demorest)



Correcting dispersion by applying phase changes

Coherent de-dispersion

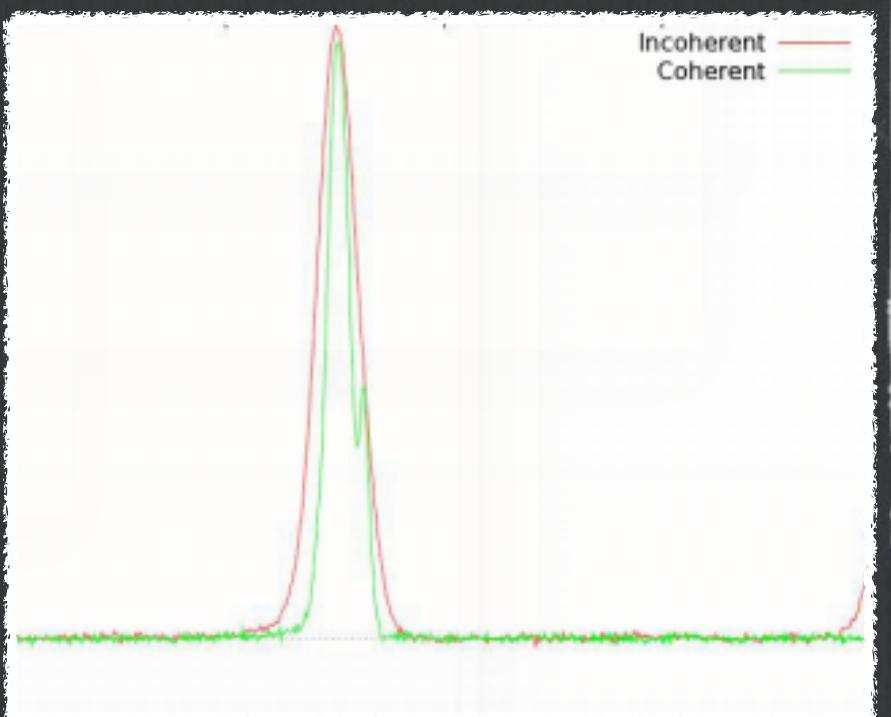


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(picture credit: Paul Demorest)



Course layout

End of Lecture 2,
next up
Tutorial on pulsar data analysis



Lecture 1 (30 Aug - 1hrs)

Pulsar properties

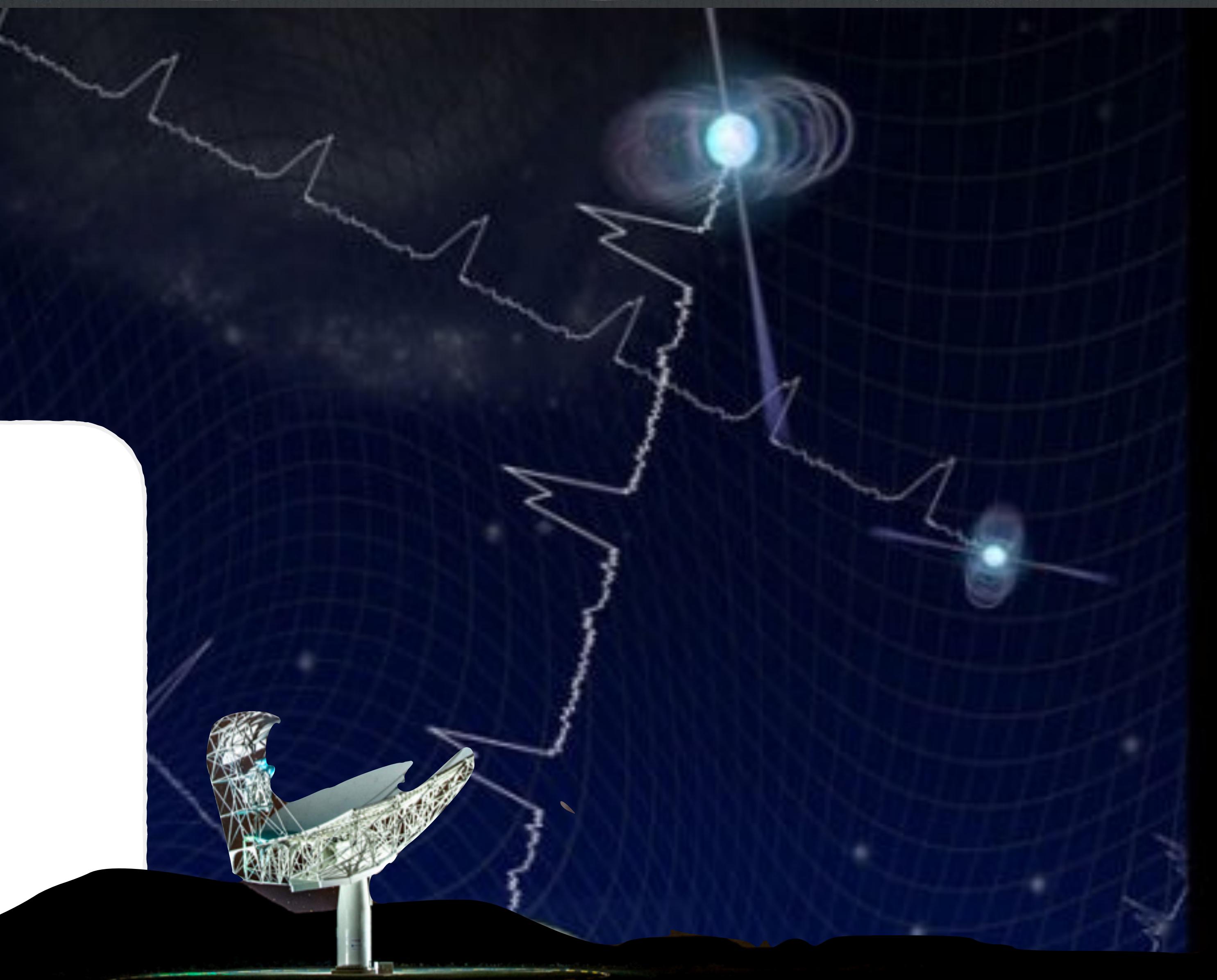


Lecture 2 (13 Sep - 30min)

Pulsar observations and data analysis

Tutorial (13 Sep - 30min)

MeerKAT pulsar data





Pulsar timing



Pulsars as Spacetime tools

Atomic clocks in the night sky!

- We couldn't have asked for better spacetime tools than atomic clocks in the night sky!
- These clocks have allowed us to carefully test theories of gravity, have lead to the first exoplanets discovery and have allowed indirect measurement of gravitational wave emission
- Timing pulsars with such precision relies on creating a stable average pulse profile
- The fast spinning MSPs pulsars, whose high angular momentum makes them rotationally stable, are better timers than most of the normal/isolated pulsars
- Bright, fast MSPs with narrow pulse profiles make the best timers.



How do we time pulsars?

- The main idea in pulsar timing is that you can account for every single pulse the pulsar emits ...
- ... over long timescales (months to years)
- We create a model to predict when a next pulse should arrive
- And then compare the model prediction to the outcome of an observation

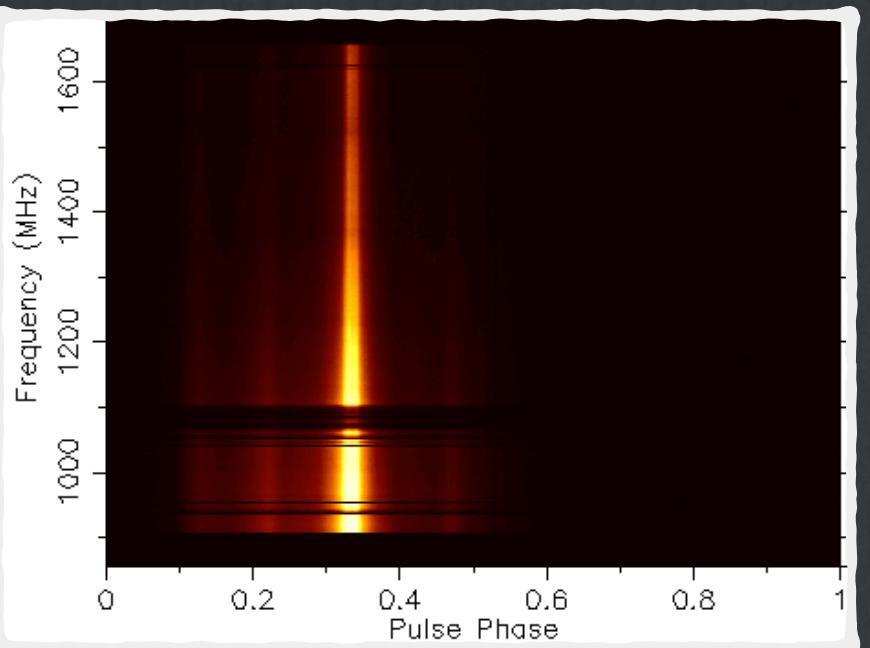
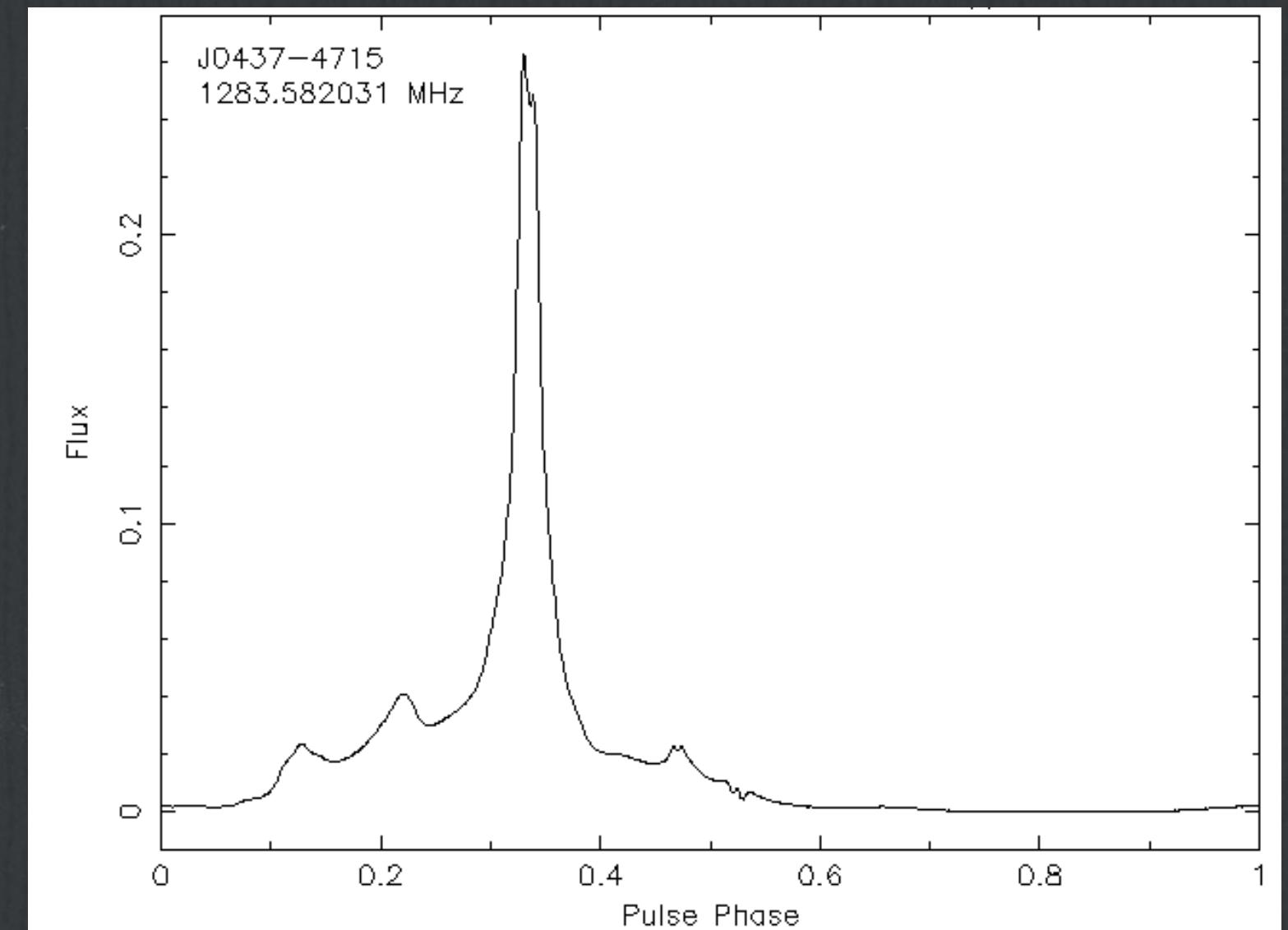
Pulse period:

5.75745195692365 ms

Only changes every 500 years

Changes every 30 min

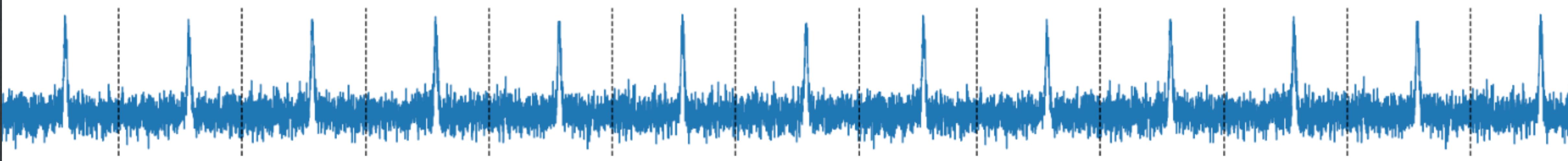
Ave profile of PSR J0437-4715



Measuring time of arrivals (TOAs)

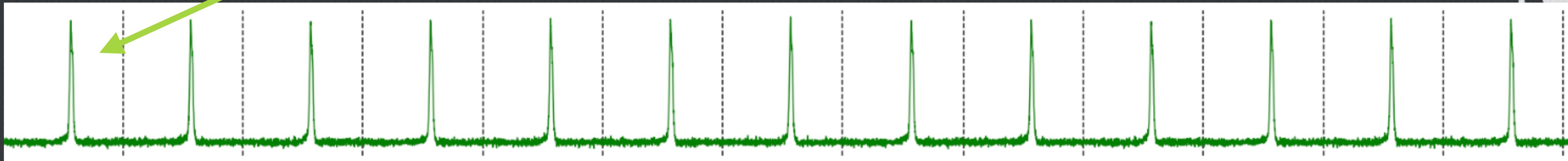
$$0 < \phi < 1$$


1) time series of incoming data



time

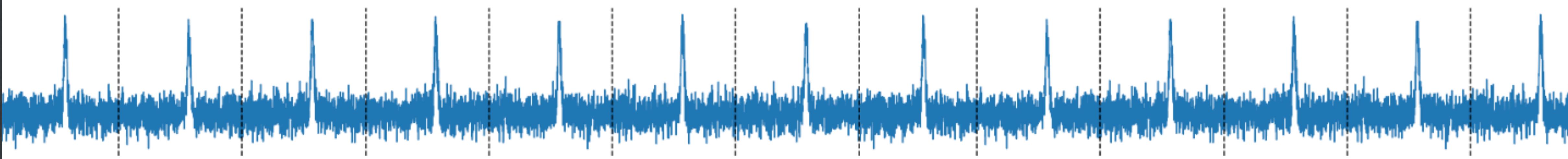
2) fold to have high S/N profiles



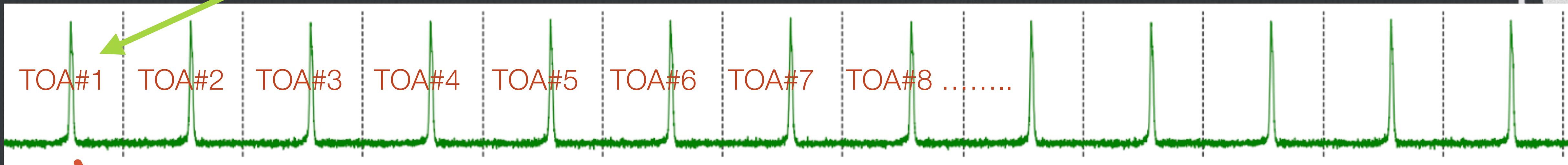
Measuring time of arrivals (TOAs)

$$0 < \phi < 1$$

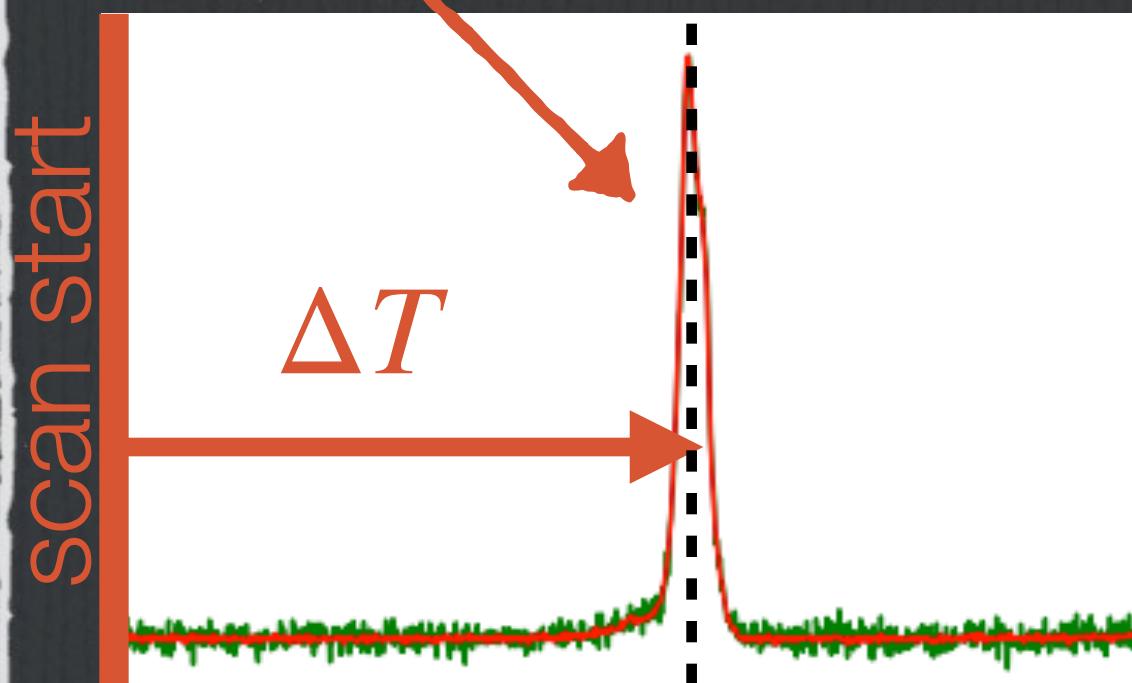
1) time series of incoming data



2) fold to have high S/N profiles



3) label time of arrivals, relative to some start
e.g. $\text{TOA} = \text{scan start} + \Delta T$



$$\sigma_{\text{TOA}} \approx \frac{W}{S/N}$$

TOAs

Filename	Observing frequency (MHz)	TOAs in MJD	Uncertainty in microseconds
J1056-6258_2021-08-29-12:50:40_zap.F.ar	1283.623987	59455.535312653712396	32.205
J1056-6258_2021-08-29-12:50:40_zap.F.ar	1285.106042	59455.535405532875398	37.825
J1056-6258_2021-08-29-12:50:40_zap.F.ar	1285.603461	59455.535498435145281	39.110
J1056-6258_2021-08-29-12:50:40_zap.F.ar	1284.996531	59455.535591342179161	26.540
J1056-6258_2021-08-29-12:50:40_zap.F.ar	1283.484842	59455.535684274162896	33.147
J1056-6258_2021-08-29-12:50:40_zap.F.ar	1284.016055	59455.535777161586780	26.496
J1056-6258_2021-08-29-12:50:40_zap.F.ar	1284.039502	59455.535870069026532	33.517
J1056-6258_2021-08-29-12:50:40_zap.F.ar	1283.266703	59455.535962990234922	43.585
J1056-6258_2021-08-29-12:50:40_zap.F.ar	1283.937490	59455.536055876273991	55.084
J1056-6258_2021-08-29-12:50:40_zap.F.ar	1283.535826	59455.536148784470899	35.741
J1056-6258_2021-08-29-12:50:40_zap.F.ar	1283.571604	59455.536236796910319	37.701

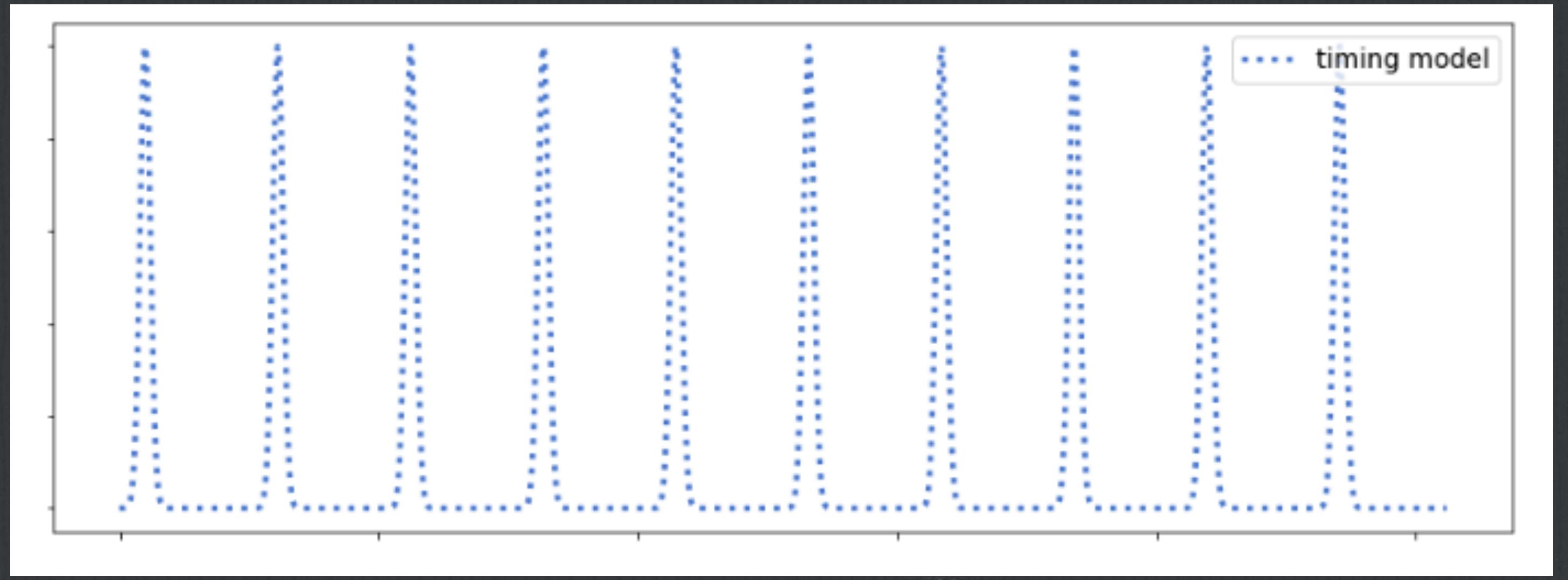
Next we want to compare our measured time of arrivals; to predicted values from timing models.

But to do so we need an inertial frame at which to compare the arrival values.

Our observatory time of arrival (TOA) measurements are therefore transferred to the Solar System Barycentre (SSB) reference frame.

In other words during comparisons to models we change these TOAs as if the pulse signals arrived to the SSB.
(This requires details Solar System models as well as observatory clock correction files.)

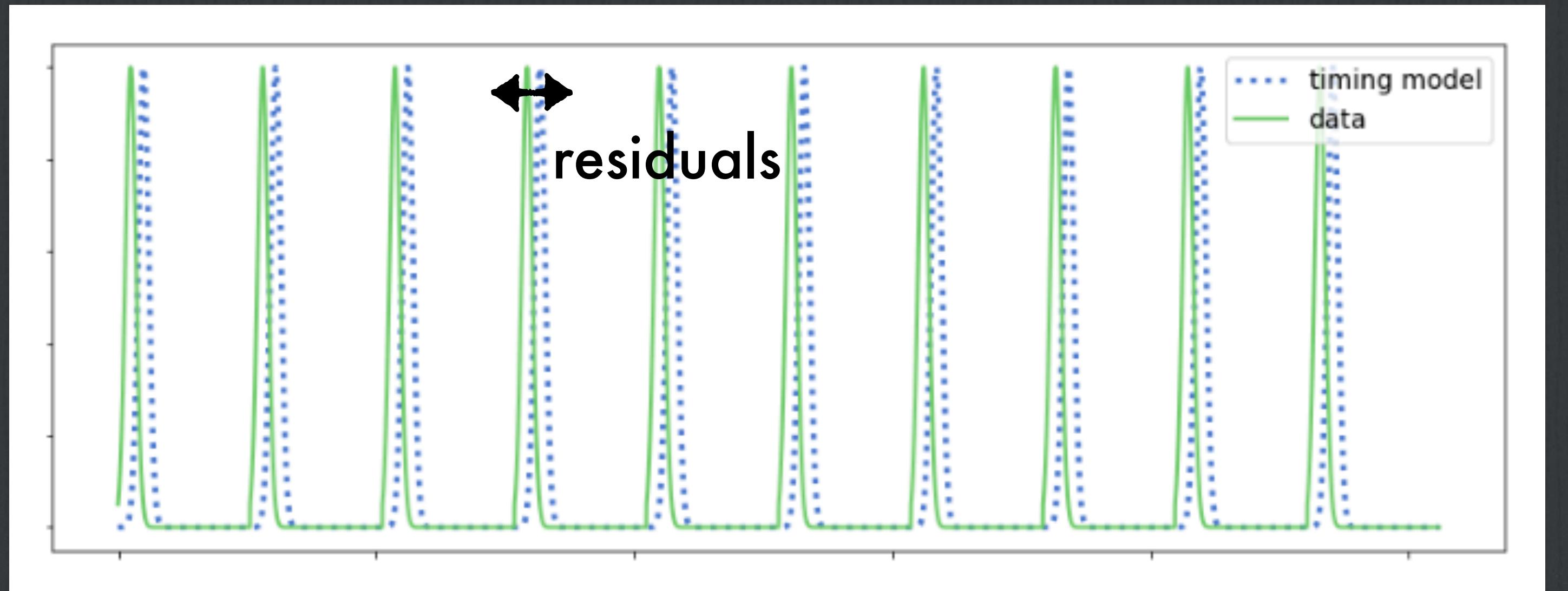
Comparing TOAs with model predictions



- Your timing model predicts when to expect pulses from the pulsar to arrive at the SSB.

Comparing TOAs with model predictions

Measure difference between model and data



residual = model - data

For good modelling
residuals are typically
measured in units of
microseconds!

- Your timing model predicts when to expect pulses from the pulsar to arrive at the SSB.
- Now you check that against the measured TOAs.
- The residuals are the differences between when the model predicts the pulse to arrive, and the measured TOAs

A good model will have residuals
that resemble white noise



Bad timing model residuals will
have unmodelled trends in them



Timing model for PSR J0437-4715 in a binary

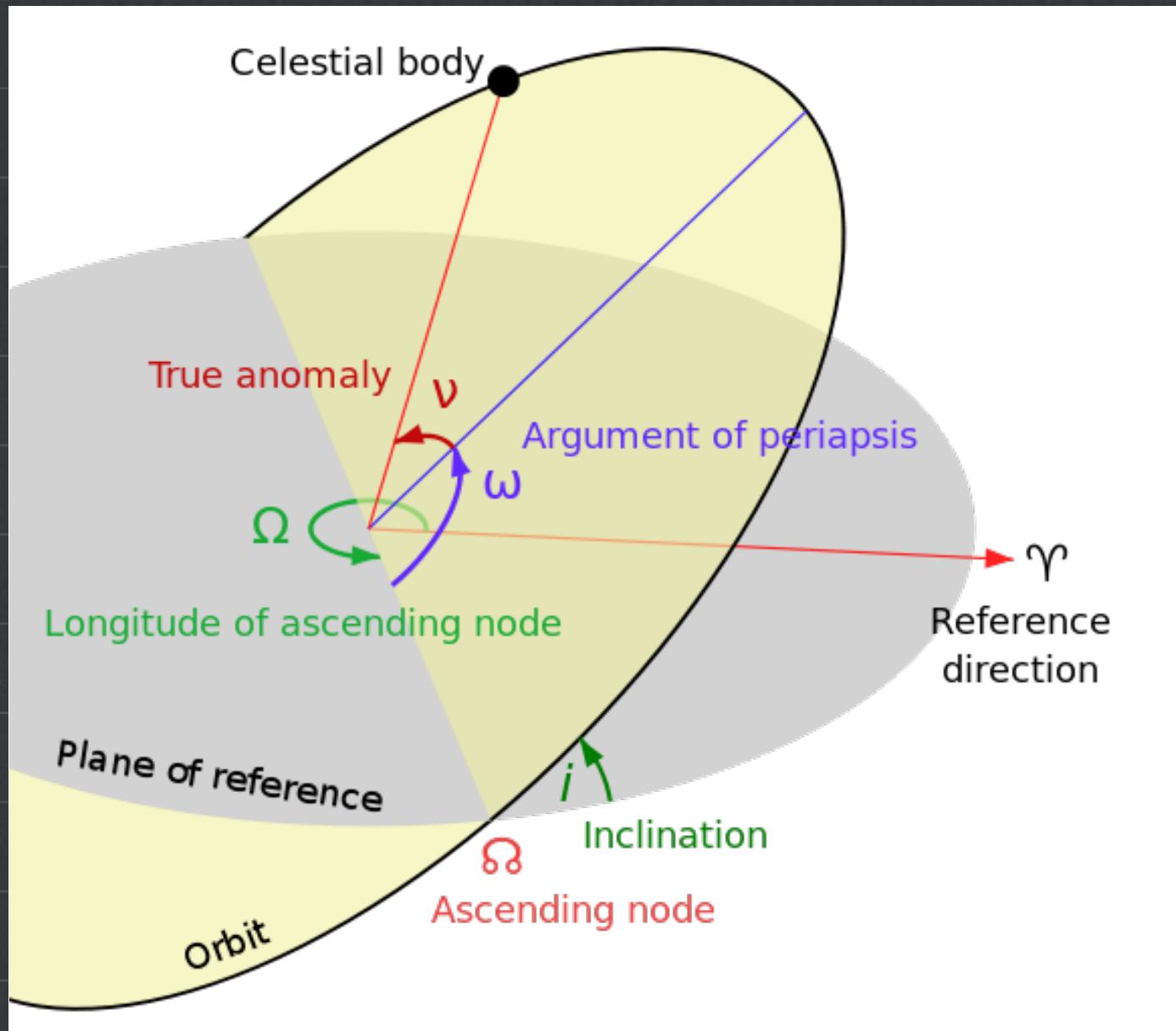
PSRJ	J0437-4715		Description
RAJ	04:37:15.8961737	0.0000059222328833097	Position RA, DEC in J2000
DECJ	-47:15:09.11071	0.00000626551891151144	
F0	173.68794581218427973	4.6845149140224002772e-13	Pulse frequency (Hz, 1/P)
F1	-1.7283605122731730757e-15	4.1071593643911663336e-21	Pulse frequency derivative
DM	2.6449834563206059848	0.00008653635874335857	Dispersion measure (~ distance)
PMDEC	-71.475434041312093429	0.00195429949160796880	Proper motion (pulsars move fast!)
PB			Orbital period (days)
ECC			Eccentricity
ASINI			Projected semi-major axis
OM			Long. periastron
T0			Epoch of periastron
PBDOT			Orbital period decay
OMDOT			Periastron advance (deg/yr)
GAMMA			Einstein delay
R,S			Shapiro rate and shape
M2			Mass of companion

Keplerian

Post-Keplerian

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Keplerian

Orbital period (days)
Eccentricity
Projected semi-major axis
Long. periastron
Epoch of periastron

Post-Keplerian

Orbital period decay
Periastron advance (deg/yr)
Einstein delay
Shapiro rate and shape

Tests of GR

Mass of companion

PSRJ

J0437-4715

RAJ

04:37:15.8961737

0.0000059222328833097

Description

DECJ

-47:15:09.11071

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DM

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0.00008653635874335857

PMDEC

-71.475434041312093429

0.00195429949160796880

PB

Celestial body

ECC

True anomaly

ASINI

Argument of periapsis

OM

Ω

T0

Longitude of ascending node

PBDOT

v

OMDOT

ω

GAMMA

i

R,S

Ascending node

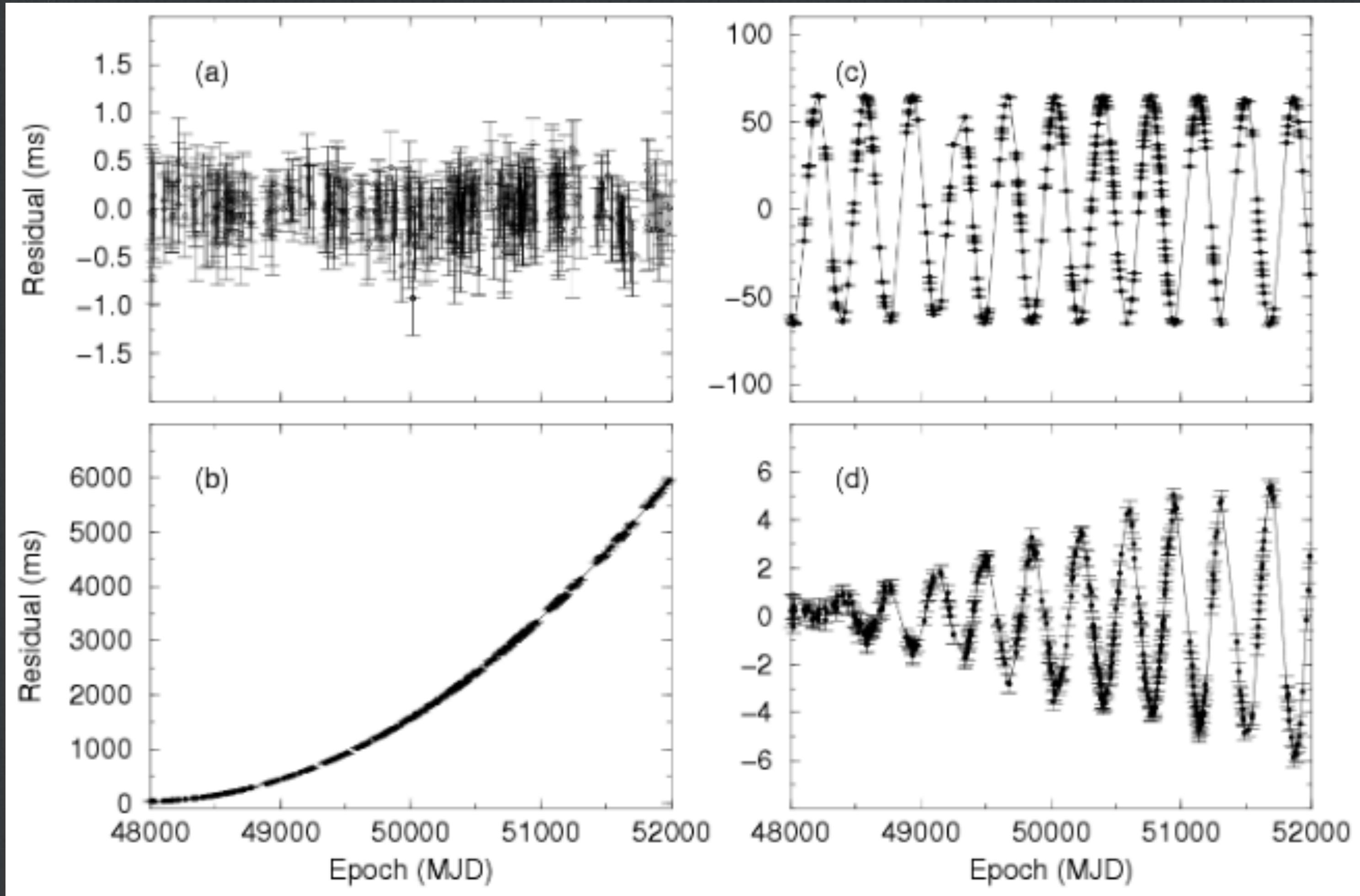
M2

Plane of reference

Orbit

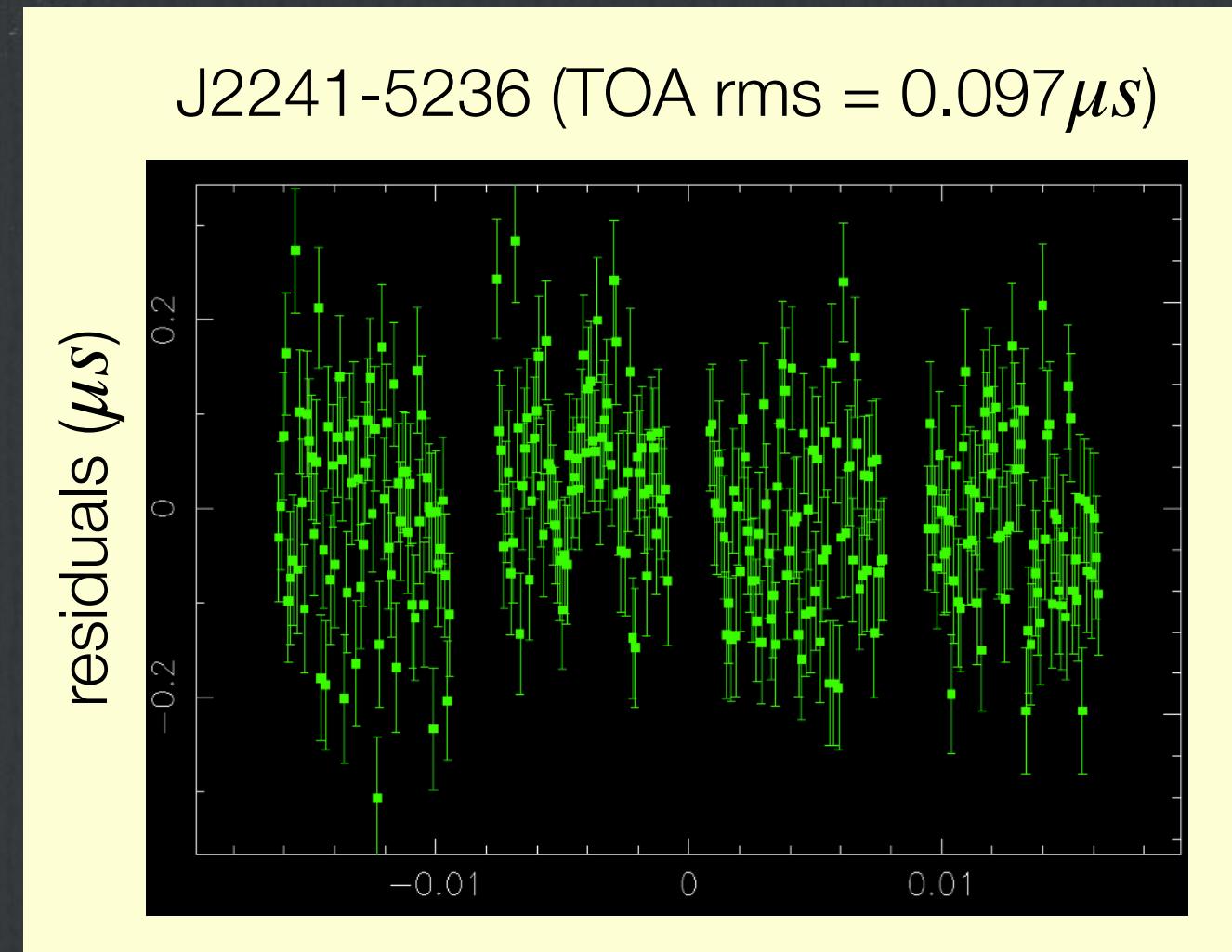
Reference direction

Guess the problem!

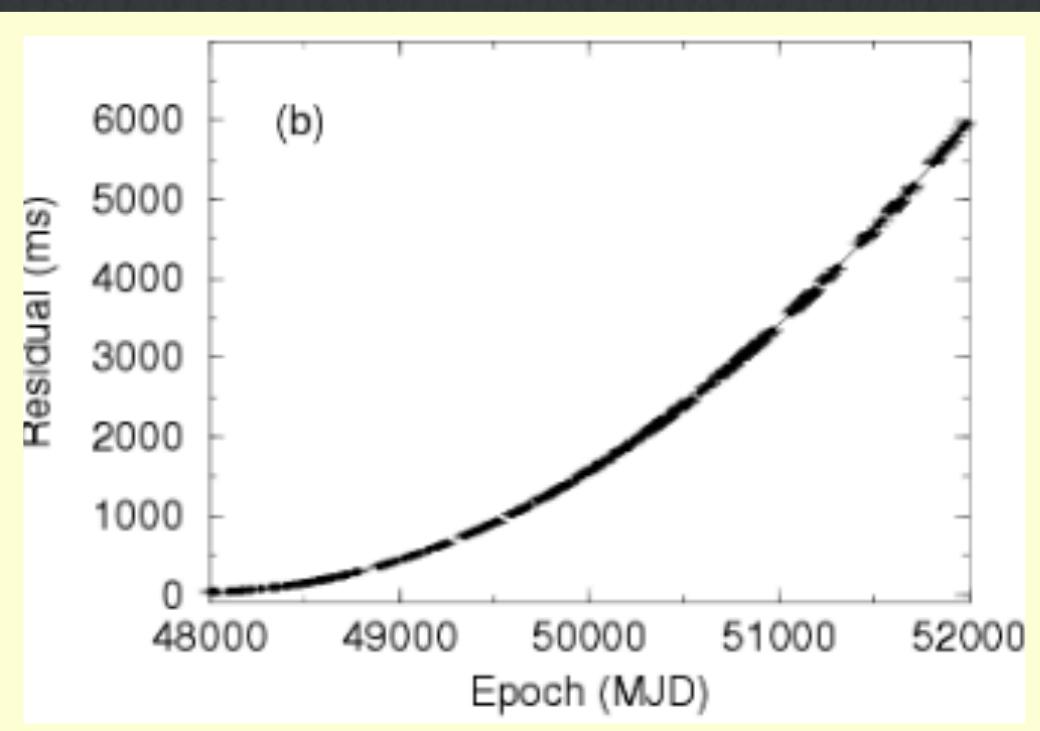
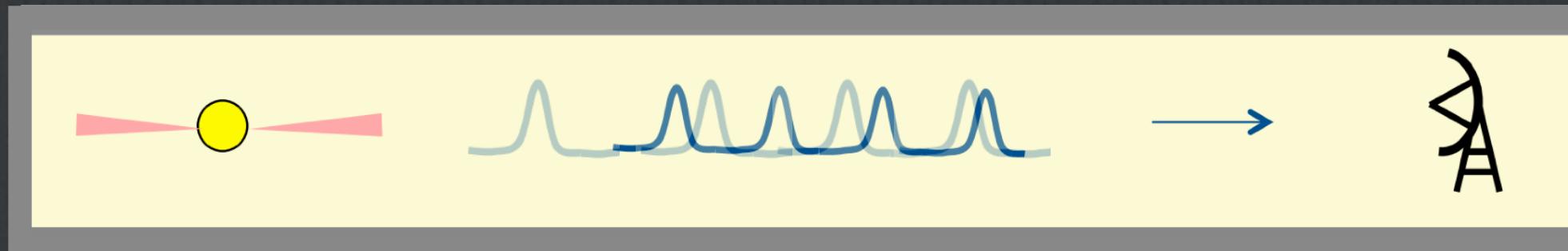


1. Wrong pulsar position
2. Good timing model
3. Period derivative (slow down rate) is wrong
4. Proper motion not modelled
5. Mass of companion is wrong

Guess the problem! - Answers



(a) Good timing model!



(b) Period derivative is wrong!
Pulses are delayed $\propto t^2$

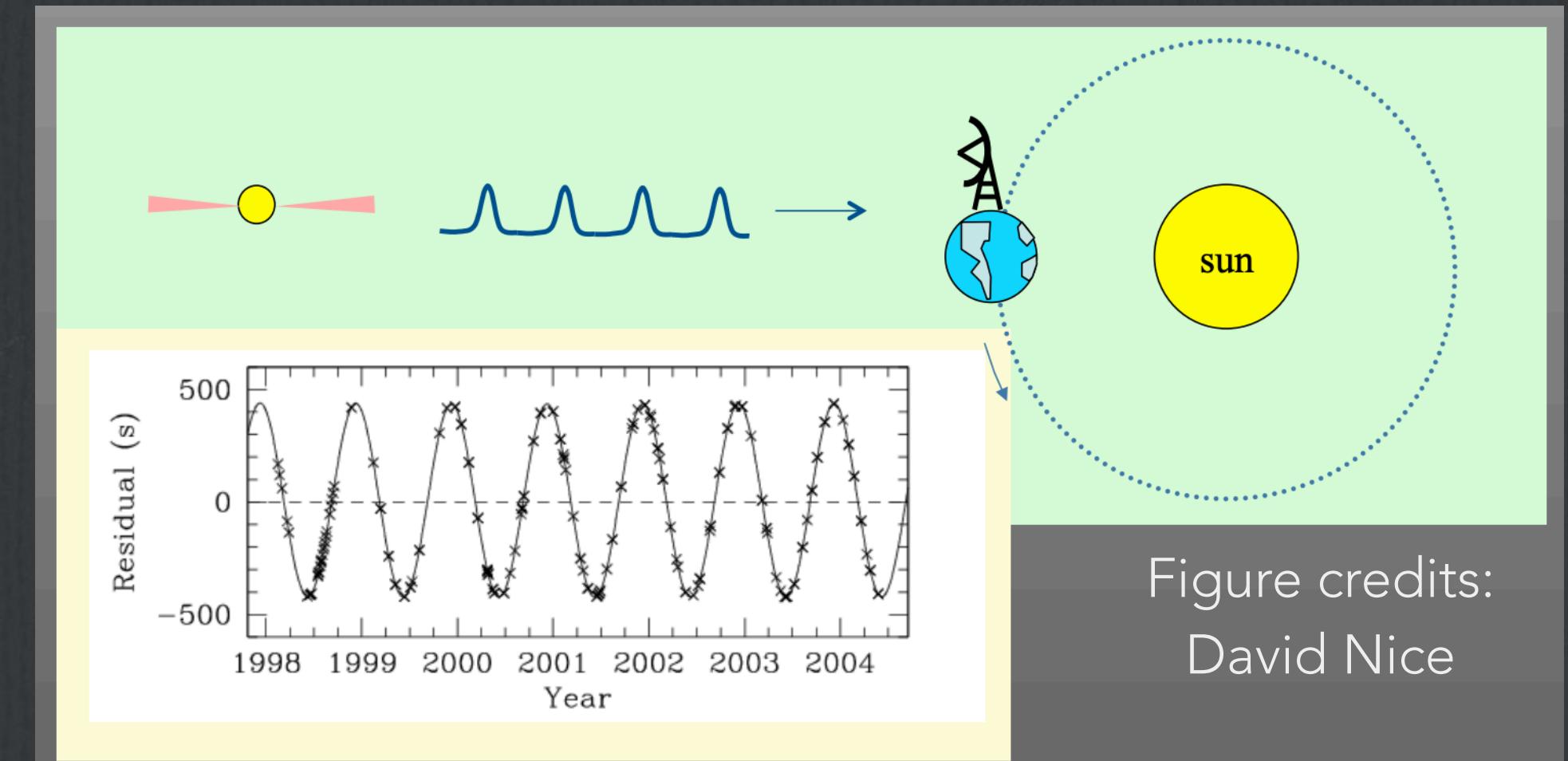
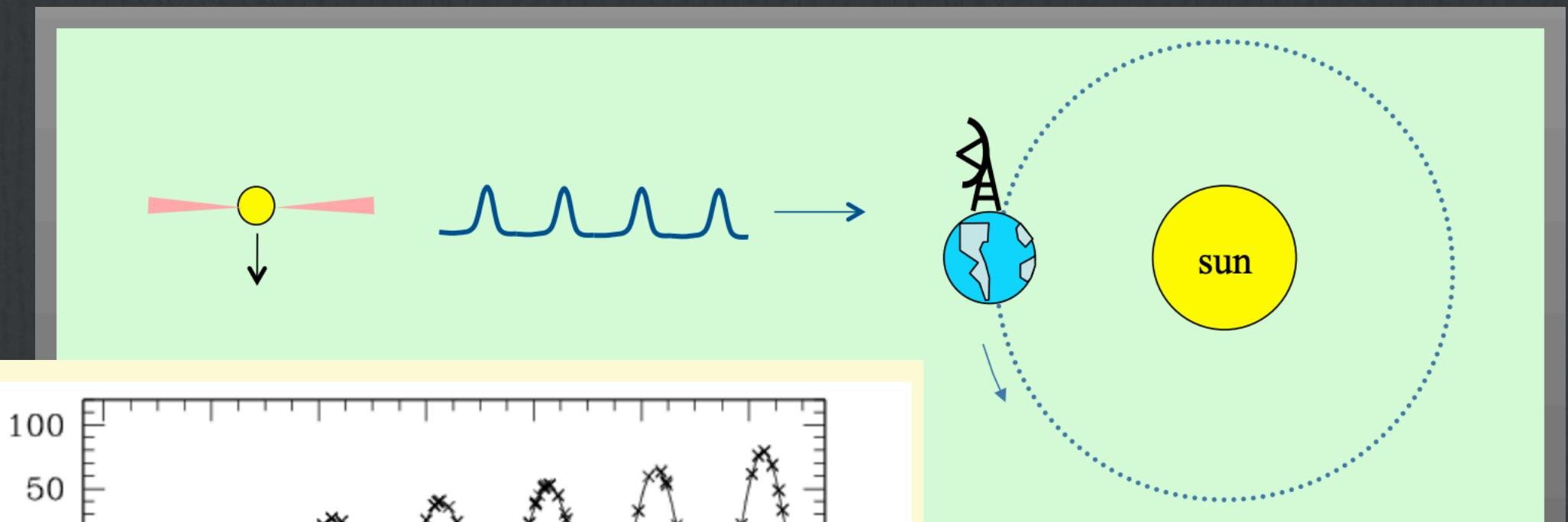


Figure credits:
David Nice

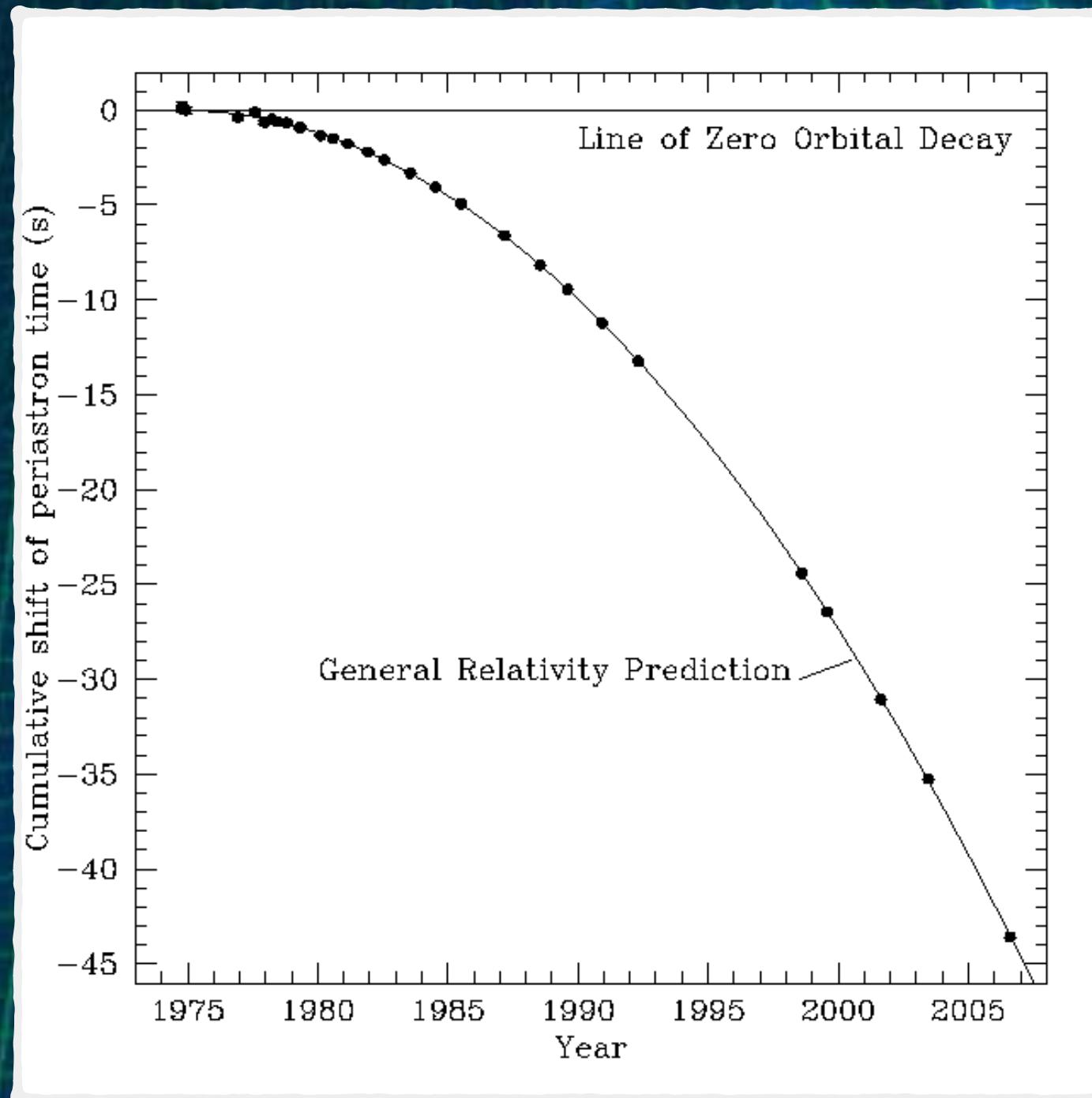
(c) Wrong pulsar position. Delay in residuals due to travel time across Earth's orbit. Size of the delay depends on pulsar position!



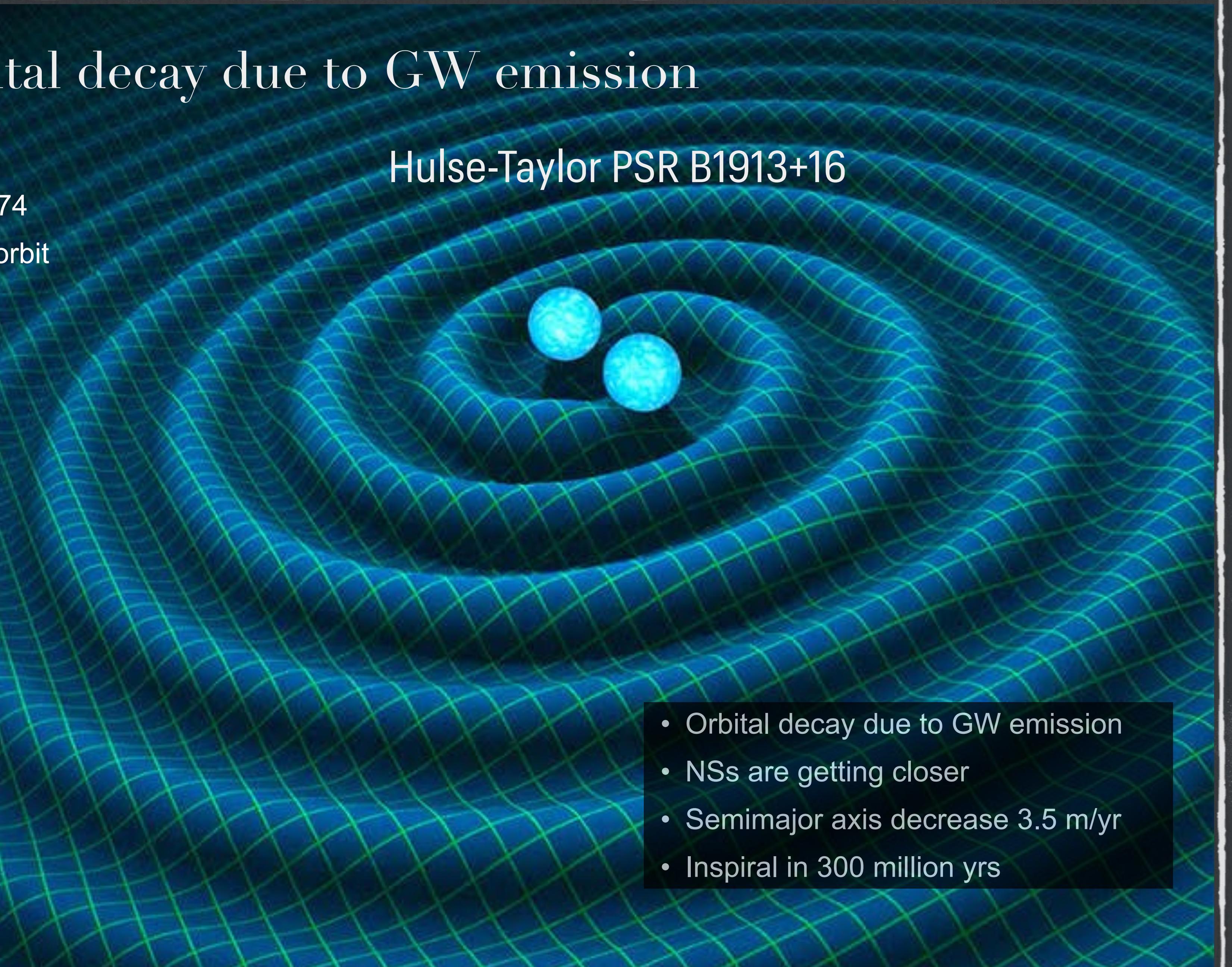
(d) Proper motion is wrong. It is like getting the position increasingly wrong!

Spacetime tests: Orbital decay due to GW emission

- First binary pulsar, discovered by Russell Hulse and Joseph Taylor in 1974
- Relativistic binary of NS and pulsar in orbit
- Pulsar: 59 ms pulse period
- Orbit: **7.75 hr** orbit
- Orbital precession: $d\omega/dt = 4.2^\circ/\text{yr}$



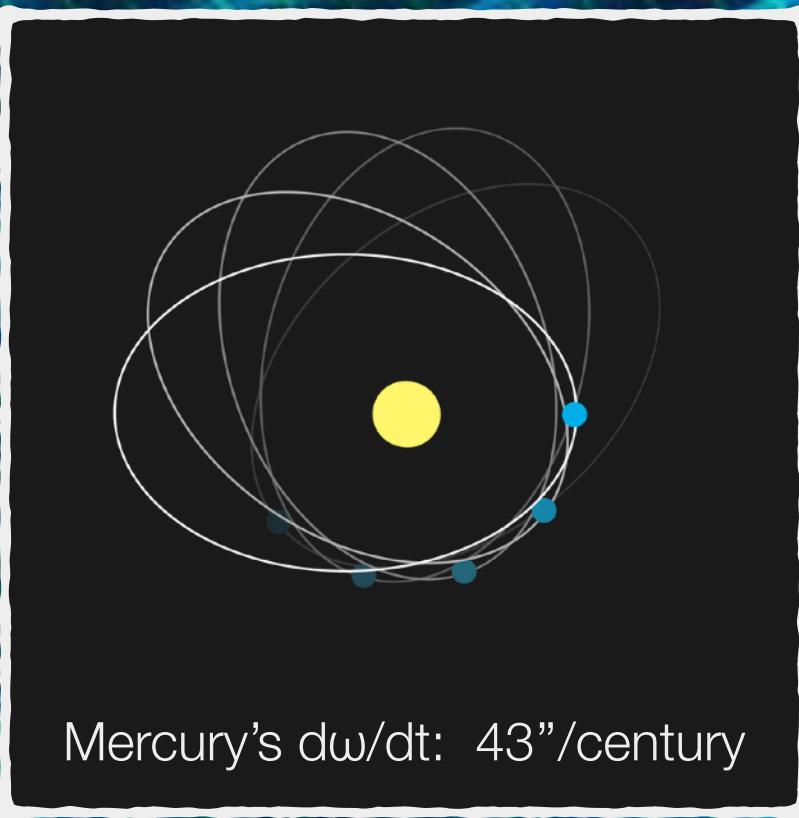
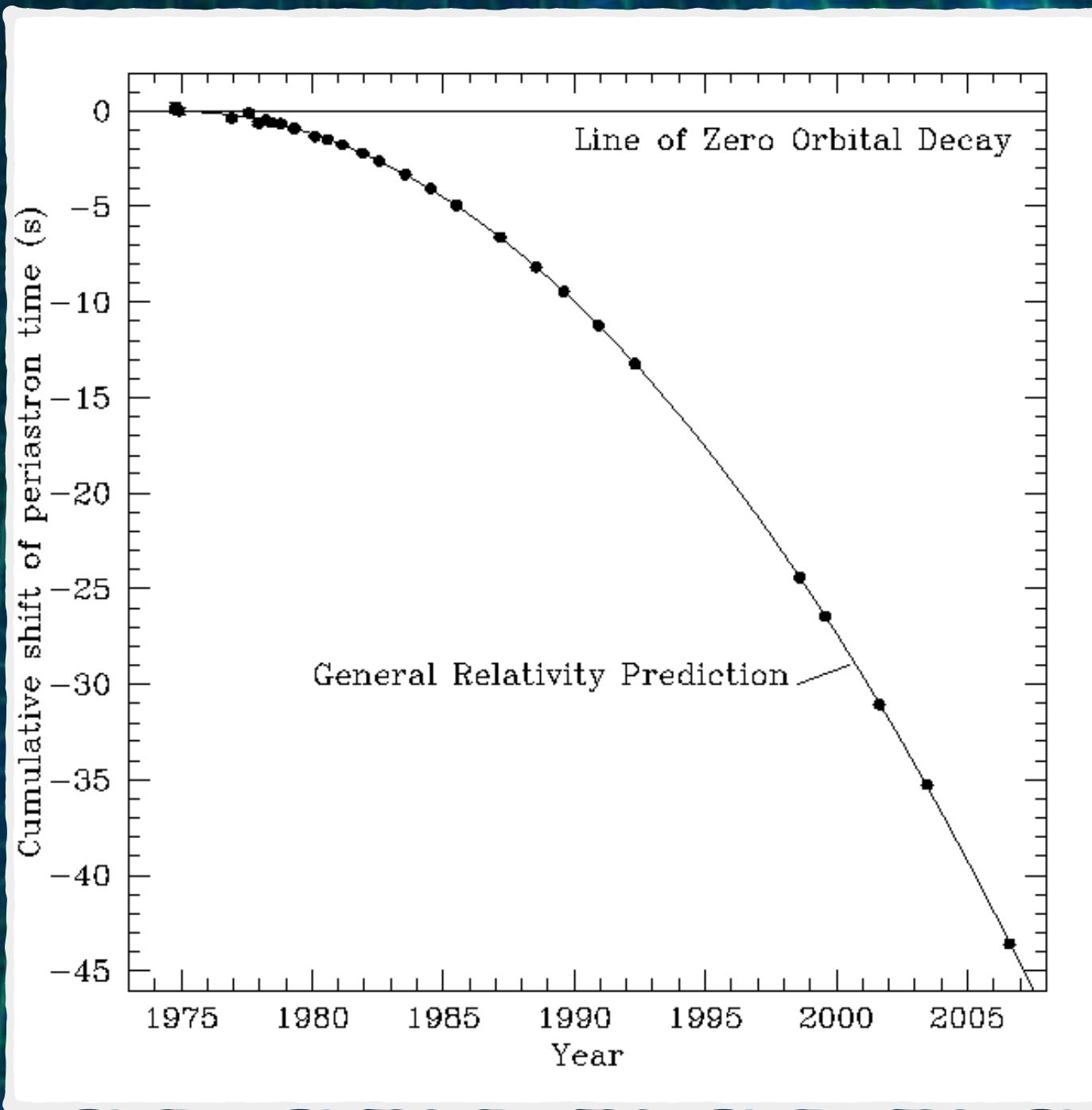
Hulse-Taylor PSR B1913+16



- Orbital decay due to GW emission
- NSs are getting closer
- Semimajor axis decrease 3.5 m/yr
- Inspiral in 300 million yrs

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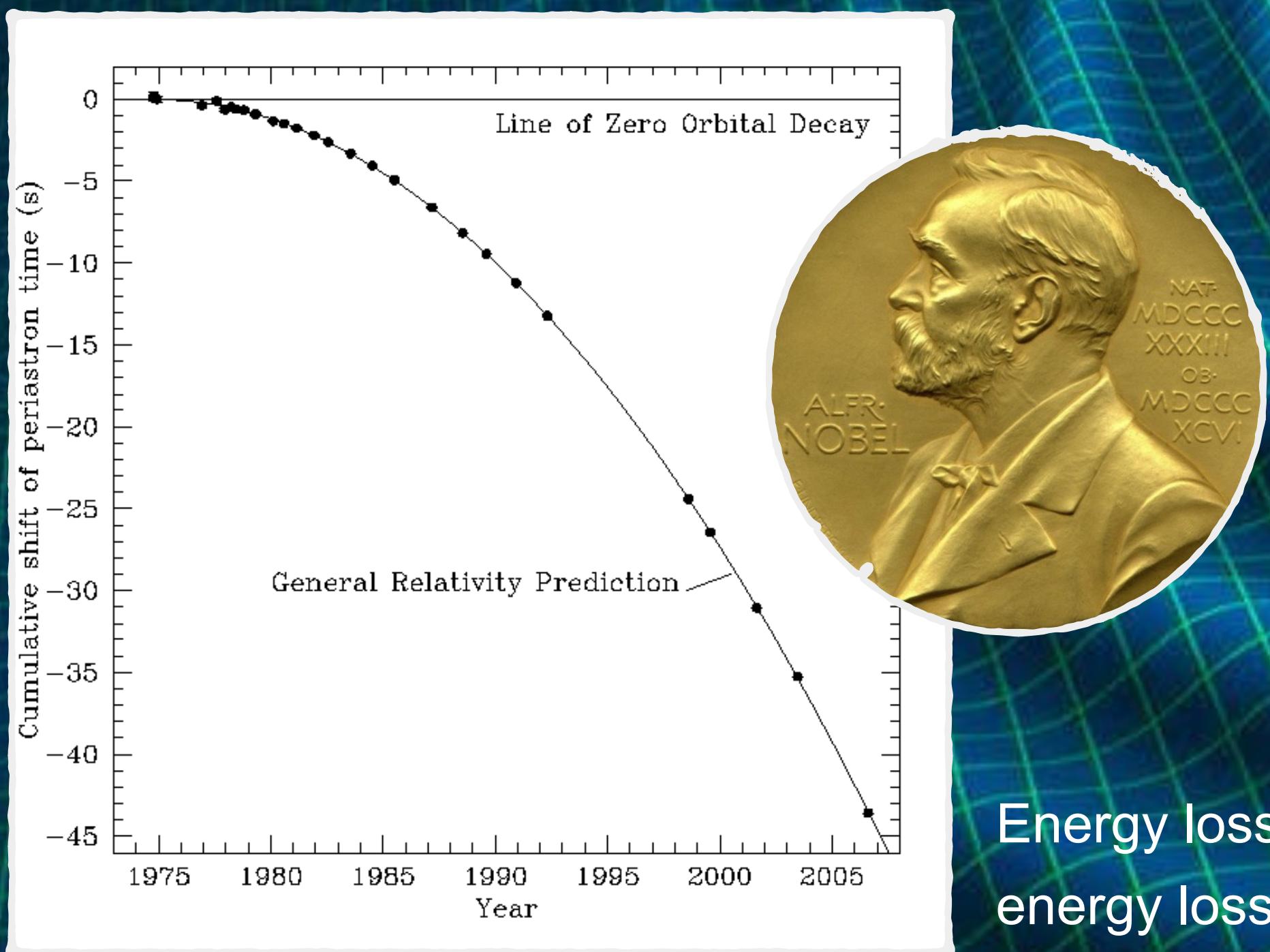
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Hulse-Taylor PSR B1913+16



Energy loss calculated by GR and energy loss measured lie to within 0.3%

- Orbital decay due to GW emission
- NSs are getting closer
- Semimajor axis decrease 3.5 m/yr
- Inspiral in 300 million yrs



These days an even more extreme system than the Hulse-Taylor binary has been discovered, and is used for ever-stringent tests of Einstein's Theory of General Relativity.

... But more on that in the tutorial!