

# Pulsar lensing geometry

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## ABSTRACT

Our analysis of archival VLBI data of PSR 0834+06 reveals that its scintillation properties can be precisely modelled using the inclined sheet model (Pen & Levin 2014), resulting in two distinct lens planes. These data strongly favour the grazing sheet model over turbulence as the primary source of pulsar scattering. This model can reproduce the parameters of the observed diffractive scintillation with an accuracy at the percent level. Comparison with new VLBI proper motion results in a direct measure of the ionized ISM screen transverse velocity. The results are consistent with ISM velocities local to the PSR 0834+06 sight-line (through the Galaxy). The simple 1-D structure of the lenses opens up the possibility of using interstellar lenses as precision probes for pulsar lens mapping, precision transverse motions in the ISM, and new opportunities for removing scattering to improve pulsar timing. We describe the parameters and observables of this double screen system. While relative screen distances can in principle be accurately determined, a global conformal distance degeneracy exists that allows a rescaling of the absolute distance scale. For PSR B0834+06, we present VLBI astrometry results that provide (for the first time) a direct measurement of the distance of the pulsar. For targets where independent distance measurements are not available, which are the cases for most of the recycled millisecond pulsars that are the targets of precision timing observations, the degeneracy presented in the lens modelling could be broken if the pulsar resides in a binary system.

**Key words:** Pulsars: individual (B0834+06) – scattering – waves – magnetic: reconnection – techniques: interferometric – ISM: structure

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Pulsars have long provided a rich source of astrophysical information due to their compact emission and predictable timing. One of the least well-constrained parameters for most pulsars is their distance. For some pulsars, timing parallax or VLBI parallax has resulted in direct distance determination. For most pulsars, the distance is a major uncertainty for precision timing interpretations, including mass, moment of inertia (Kramer et al. 2006; Lorimer & Kramer 2012), and gravitational wave direction (Boyle & Pen 2012).

Direct VLBI observations of PSR B0834+06 show mul-

tiples images lensed by the interstellar plasma. Combining the angular positions and scintillation delays, the authors (Brisken et al. 2010) (hereafter B10) published the derived effective distance (defined in Section 3.1) of  $1168 \pm 23$  pc for apexes on the main scattering axis. This represents a precise measurement compared to all other attempts to derive distances to this pulsar. This effective distance is a combination of pulsar-screen and earth-screen distances, and does not allow a separate determination of the individual distances. A binary pulsar system would in principle allow a breaking of this degeneracy (Pen & Levin 2014). One potential limitation is the precision to which the lensing model can be understood.

In this paper, we examine the geometric nature of the lensing screens. In B10, VLBI astrometric mapping directly demonstrated the highly collinear nature of a single dominant lensing structure. First hints of single plane collinear

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dominated structure had been realized in Stinebring et al. (2001). While the nature of these structures is already mysterious, for this pulsar, in particular, the puzzle is compounded by an offset group of lenses whose radiation arrive delayed by 1-ms relative to the bulk of the pulsar flux. The mysterious nature of the lensing questions any conclusions drawn from scintillometry as a quantitative tool (Pen et al. 2014).

Using archival data we demonstrate in this paper that the lensing screen consists of nearly parallel linear refractive structures, in two screens. The precise model fits the one dimensional nature of the scattering geometry, and thus the small number of parameters that quantify the lensing screen.

The paper is structured as follows. Section 3 is an overview of the inclined sheet lensing model and its application to data. Section 2 presents new VLBI proper motion and distance measurements to this pulsar. Section 4 describes the interpretation of the lensing geometry and possible improvements on the observation. We conclude in Section 5.

## 2 VLBI ASTROMETRY

The model kinematics can be compared to direct measurements of pulsar proper motion to infer the absolute motion of the lensing screen.

PSR B0834+06 was observed 8 times with the Very Long Baseline Array (VLBA), under the project code BB269, between 2009 May and 2011 January. Four 16 MHz bands spread across the frequency range 1406 – 1692 MHz were sampled with 2 bit quantization in both circular polarizations, giving a total data rate of 512 Mbps per antenna. The primary phase calibrator was J0831+0429, which is separated from the target by 2.1 degrees, but the target field also included an in-beam calibrator source J083646.4+061108, which is separated from PSR B0834+06 by only 5'. The cycle time between primary phase calibrator and target field was 5 minutes, and the total duration of each observation was 4 hours.

Standard astrometric data reduction techniques were applied (e.g., Deller et al. 2012, 2013), using a phase calibration solution interval of 4 minutes for the in-beam calibrator source J083646.4+061108. J083646.4+061108 is weak (flux density  $\sim 4$  mJy) and its brightness varied on the level of tens of percent. The faintness leads to noisy solutions, and the variability indicates that source structure evolution (which would translate to offsets in the fitted target position) could be present. Together, these two effects lead to reduced astrometric precision compared to that usually obtained with VLBI astrometry using in-beam calibration, and the results presented here could be improved upon if the observations were repeated using the wider bandwidths and higher sensitivity now available with the VLBA, potentially in conjunction with additional in-beam background sources.

While a straightforward fit to the astrometric observables yields a pulsar distance with a formal error  $< 1$  per cent, the reduced  $\chi^2$  of this fit is  $\sim 40$ , indicating that the formal position errors greatly underestimate the true position errors, and that systematic effects such as the calibrator effects discussed above as well as residual ionospheric errors dominate. Accordingly, the astrometric parameters and their

**Table 1.** Fitted and derived astrometric parameters for PSR B0834+06.

Reference right ascension (J2000) <sup>a</sup>	08:37:5.644606(9)
Reference declination (J2000) <sup>a</sup>	06:10:15.4047(1)
Position epoch (MJD)	55200
$\mu_{\text{R.A.}}$ (mas yr <sup>-1</sup> )	2.16(19)
$\mu_{\text{Dec}}$ (mas yr <sup>-1</sup> )	51.64(13)
Parallax (mas)	1.63(15)
Distance (pc)	620(60)
$v_{\text{T}}$ (km s <sup>-1</sup> )	150(15)

<sup>a</sup> The errors quoted here are from the astrometric fit only and do not include the  $\sim 1$  mas position uncertainty transferred from the in-beam calibrator's absolute position.

errors were instead obtained by bootstrap sampling (Efron & Tibshirani 1991). These results are presented in Table 1.

## 3 LENSING

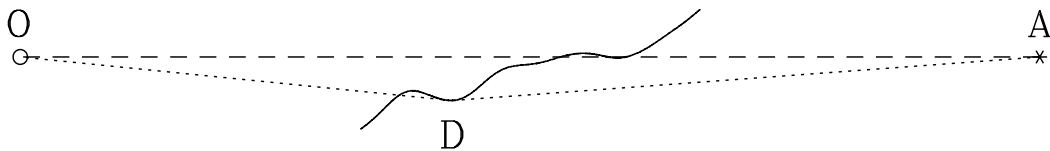
In this section, we map the archival data of PSR 0834+06 onto the grazing incidence sheet model. The folded sheet model is qualitatively analogous to the reflection of a light across a lake as seen from the opposite shore. In the absence of waves, exactly one image forms at the point where the angle of incidence is equal to the angle of reflection. In the presence of waves, one generically sees a line of images above and below the unperturbed image. The grazing angle geometry simplifies the lensing geometry, effectively reducing it from a two dimensional problem to one dimension. The statistics of such reflections is sometimes called glitter, and has many solvable properties (Longuet-Higgins 1960). This is illustrated in Fig. 1.

A similar effect occurs when the observer is below the surface. Two major distinctions arise: 1. the waves can deform the surface to create caustics in projection. Near caustics, Snell's law can lead to highly amplified refraction angles (Goldreich & Sridhar 2006). 2. due to the odd image theorem, each caustic leads to two images. In an astrophysical context, the surface could be related to magnetic reconnection sheets (Braithwaite 2015), which have finite widths to regularize these singularities. Diffusive structures have Gaussian profiles, which were analysed in Pen & King (2012). The lensing details differ for convergent (under-dense) vs divergent (over-dense) lenses, first considered by Clegg et al. (1998).

The typical interstellar electron density  $\sim 0.02$  cm<sup>-3</sup> is insufficient to deflect radio waves by the observed  $\sim$  mas bending angles. At grazing incidence, Snell's law results in an enhanced bending angle, which formally diverges. Magnetic discontinuities generically allow transverse surface waves, whose restoring force is the difference in Alfvén speed on the two sides of the discontinuity. This completes the analogy to waves on a lake: for sufficiently inclined sheets the waves will appear to fold back onto themselves in projection on the sky. At each fold caustic, Snell's law diverges, leading to enhanced refractive lensing. The divergence is cut off by the finite width of the sheet. The generic consequence is a series of collinear images. Each projected fold of the wave results in two density caustics. Each density caustic leads to two geometric lensing images, for a total of 4 im-



**Figure 1.** Reflection of lights on surface waves. At grazing angle, each wave crest results in an apparent image, causing a linear streak of images centred on the unperturbed image location. For example, the red light streak would consist of a single image at its center in the absence of waves. The inclined sheet model for pulsar scintillation is analogous, with reflection replaced by refraction. Image copyright Kaitlyn McLachlan, licensed through shutterstock.com image ID 45186139.



**Figure 2.** Refractive lensing geometry (reproduced from Pen & Levin (2014) fig. 1). The pulsar is on the right, observer on the left. Each fold of the sheet leads to a divergent projected density, resulting in a lensed image as indicated by the dotted line. See text for details.

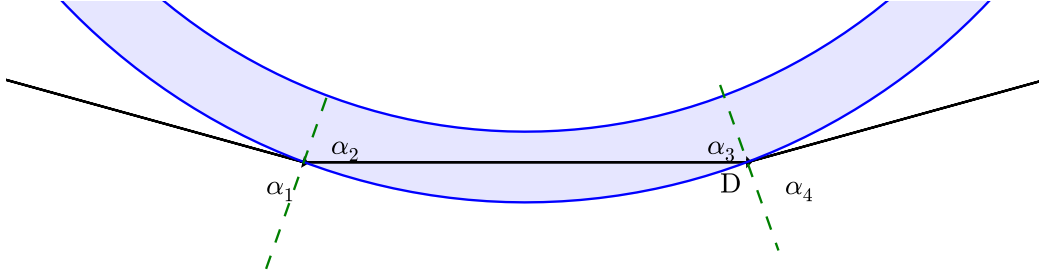
ages for each wave inflection. The two geometric images in each caustic are separated by the characteristic width of the sheet. If this is smaller than the Fresnel scale, the two images become effectively indistinguishable. The geometry of the inclined refractive lens is shown in Fig. 2. A detailed view of the light path near the fold point D is illustrated in Fig. 3.

A large number of sheets might intersect the line of sight to any pulsar. Only those sufficiently inclined would lead to caustic formation. Empirically, some pulsars show scattering that appears to be dominated by a single sheet, leading to

the prominent inverted arclets in the secondary spectrum of the scintillations (Stinebring et al. 2001).

### 3.1 Archival data of B0834+06

Our analysis is based on the apex data selected from the secondary spectrum of pulsar B0834+06 in B10, which was observed as part of a 300 MHz global VLBI project on 2005 November 12, with the GBT (GB), Arecibo (AR), Lovell and Westerbork (WB) telescopes. The GB-AR and AR-WB baselines are close to orthogonal and of comparable lengths,



**Figure 3.** Refraction of light rays near point D. The black lines are the light paths. The shaded region indicates the lensing sheet caustic. The angles obey Snell's Law  $\sin(\alpha_1)/\sin(\alpha_2) = \sin(\alpha_4)/\sin(\alpha_3) = n_{\text{ISM}}/n_{\text{sheet}}$ .

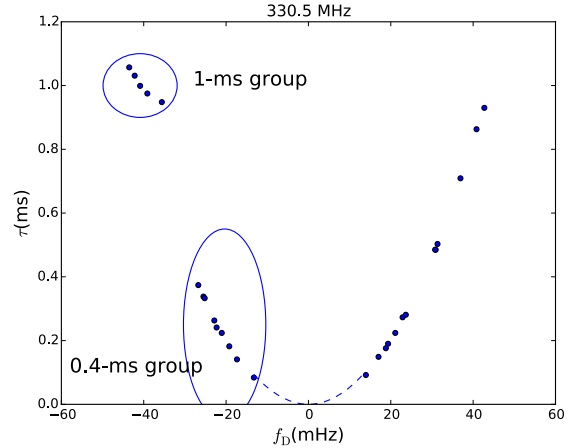
resulting in relatively isotropic astrometric positions. Information from each identified apex includes delay  $\tau$ , delay rate (differential frequency  $f_D$ ), relative right ascension,  $\Delta\alpha$ , and relative declination,  $\Delta\delta$ . Data of each apex are collected from four dual circular polarization 8 MHz wide sub-bands spanning the frequency range 310.5–342.5 MHz. As described in B10, the inverse parabolic arclets were fitted to positions of their apexes, resulting in a catalogue of apexes in each sub-band, each with delay and differential frequency. In this work, we first combine the apexes across sub-bands, resulting in a single set of images. We focus on the southern group with negative differential frequency: this grouping appears as a likely candidate for a double-refraction screen. However, two groups (with negative differential frequency) appear distinct in both the VLBI angular positions and the secondary spectra. We divide the apex data with negative  $f_D$  into two groups: in one group, time delays range from 0.1 ms to 0.4 ms, which we call the 0.4-ms group; and in the other group, time delay at about 1 ms, which we call the 1-ms group. In summary, the 0.4-ms group contains 10 apexes in the first two sub-bands, and 14 apexes in the last two sub-bands; the 1-ms group, contains 5, 6, 5 and 4 apexes in the four sub-bands. Four bands are with center frequency  $f_{\text{band}} = 314.5, 322.5, 330.5$  and  $338.5$  MHz. The apex positions in the secondary spectrum are shown in Fig. 4, in band centred at 330.5 MHz. The 1-ms and 0.4-ms groups are marked separately in Fig. 4.

We select the equivalent apexes from four sub-bands. To match the same apexes in different sub-bands, we scale the differential frequency in different sub-bands to 322.5 MHz, by  $f_D(322.5/f_{\text{band}})$  MHz. A total of 9 apexes from the 0.4-ms group and 5 apexes from the 1-ms group, are mapped. This is displayed with the mean referenced frequency  $f = 322.5$  MHz and a standard deviation among the sub-bands, listed in Table 2. The  $\tau$ ,  $f_D$ ,  $\Delta\alpha$  and  $\Delta\delta$  are the mean values of  $n$  sub-bands ( $n = 3$  for points 4 to 6 and points 1', 2' and 4', while 4 for the remainder of the points), listed in Table 2.

We estimate the error of time delay  $\tau$ , differential frequency  $f_D$ ,  $\Delta\alpha$  and  $\Delta\delta$  listed in Table 2 from their band-to-band variance:

$$\sigma_{\tau, f_D, \Delta\alpha, \Delta\delta}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n-1}, \quad (1)$$

and  $n$  is the number of sub-bands. The outer  $1/n$  accounts for the expected variance of a mean of  $n$  numbers.



**Figure 4.** Distribution of the apex positions in the sub-band centred at 330.5 MHz. The apexes that belong to the 1-ms and 0.4-ms groups are marked.

**Table 3.** Parameters for double-refraction model

$D_{1e}$	Effective Distance of 0.4 group data
$D_{2e}$	Effective Distance of 1-ms group data
$D_1$	Distance of lens 1
$D_2$	Distance of lens 2
$\alpha_i$	Angles of incidence and refraction near point D <sup>a</sup>
$\gamma$	Scattering axis angle of 0.4-ms group <sup>b</sup>
$\phi$	Angle of the velocity of the pulsar <sup>b</sup>
$\theta$	Angular offset of the object

<sup>a</sup>  $i=1,2,3,4$ . 1 and 3 are for the incidence angles, while 2 and 4 are for the refraction angles.

<sup>b</sup> The angle is measured relative to the longitude and east is the positive direction.

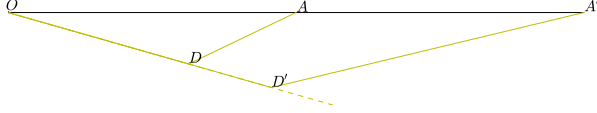
### 3.2 Single-refraction model

#### 3.2.1 Distance to the lenses

In the absence of a lens model, the fringe rate, delay and angular position cannot be uniquely related. To interpret the data, we adopt the lensing model of Pen & Levin (2014). In this model, the lensing is due to projected fold caustics of a thin sheet closely aligned to the line of sight. We will list the parameters in this lens model in Table 3.

label	$\theta_{\parallel}(\text{mas})$	$f_D(\text{mHz})$	$\tau(\text{ms})$	$\Delta\alpha(\text{mas})$	$\Delta\delta(\text{mas})$	$t_0(\text{day})$
1	-17.22	-26.1(4)	0.3743(6)	6.2	-11.9	-107
2	-16.36	-24.9(4)	0.3378(3)	8.0(4)	-14.5(8)	-101
3	-16.08	-24.6(4)	0.327(3)	7.2(6)	-13.9(4)	-99.0
4	-14.45	-22.3(5)	0.2633(3)	6.1(4)	-13.1(7)	-88.1
5	-13.68	-21.2(6)	0.236(2)	5.1(4)	-12.7(5)	-81.8
6	-13.27	-20.4(5)	0.222(3)	5.8(4)	-11.8(1)	-81.4
7	-12.21	-18.9(2)	0.188(2)	5.5(6)	-10.8(6)	-74.2
8	-10.58	-16.8(3)	0.1412(9)	3.9(6)	-10.0(4)	-62.8
9	-8.18	-12.9(2)	0.0845(5)	2.8(3)	-8.6(4)	-48.7
1'	...	-43.1(4)	1.066(5)	-8(3)	-24(2)	-185
2'	...	-41.3(5)	1.037(3)	-14(1)	-23(3)	-188
3'	...	-40.2(6)	1.005(8)	-14(1)	-22.3(5)	-187
4'	...	-38.3(6)	0.9763(9)	-14(1)	-20.6(3)	-190
5'	...	-35.1(5)	0.950(2)	-15(1)	-21(1)	-202

**Table 2.** 0.4-ms and 1-ms reduced apex data, with reference frequency 322.5 MHz. We list the 0.4-ms group data in the upper part of the table, while the 1-ms group lie in the lower part of the table. Data in the second column mark the fitted result of the angular offset from the  $\theta$  and  $\sqrt{\tau}$  relation in Fig. 6 and the time delays in column four. Observation data include the differential frequency  $f_D$  (in the frequency band centred at 322.5 MHz), time delay  $\tau$  ( $\tau_1$  for 0.4-ms group and  $\tau_2$  for 1-ms group);  $\Delta\alpha$  and  $\Delta\delta$  are from the VLBI measurement (there is only one matched position for point 1, thus no error).  $t_0$  is the time at constant velocity for an apex to intersect the origin at constant speed along the main scattering parabola. More details in Section 3.1 and Section 3.2.2.



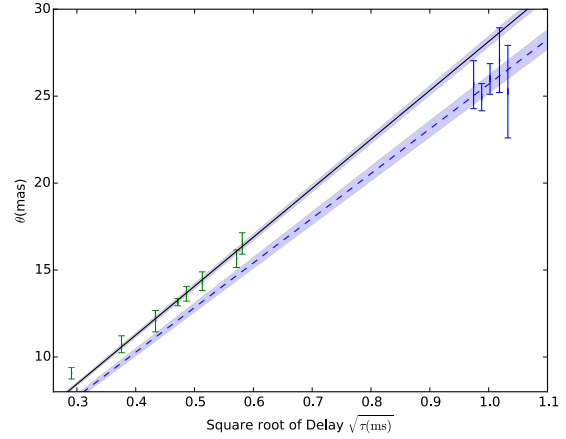
**Figure 5.** A single refracted light path showing the distance degeneracy. The primed and un-primed geometries result in the same observables: delay  $\tau$  and angular offset  $\theta$ .  $O$  denotes the observer;  $A$  and  $A'$  denote the positions of the pulsar;  $D$  and  $D'$  denote the positions of the refracted images on the interstellar medium. The un-primed geometry corresponds to a pulsar distance  $D_p = |AO| = 620$  pc, while the primed geometry has the same  $D_e$  but twice the  $D_p$ .

We define the *effective distance*  $D_e$  as

$$D_e \equiv \frac{2c\tau}{\theta^2}. \quad (2)$$

The differential frequency is related to the rate of change of delay as  $f_D = -f \frac{d\tau}{dt}$ . In general,  $D_e = D_p D_s / (D_p - D_s)$  for a screen at  $D_s$ . The effective distance corresponds to the pulsar distance  $D_p$ , if the screen is exactly halfway. Fig. 5 shows two sets of  $D_p$  and  $D_s$  with common  $D_e$ .

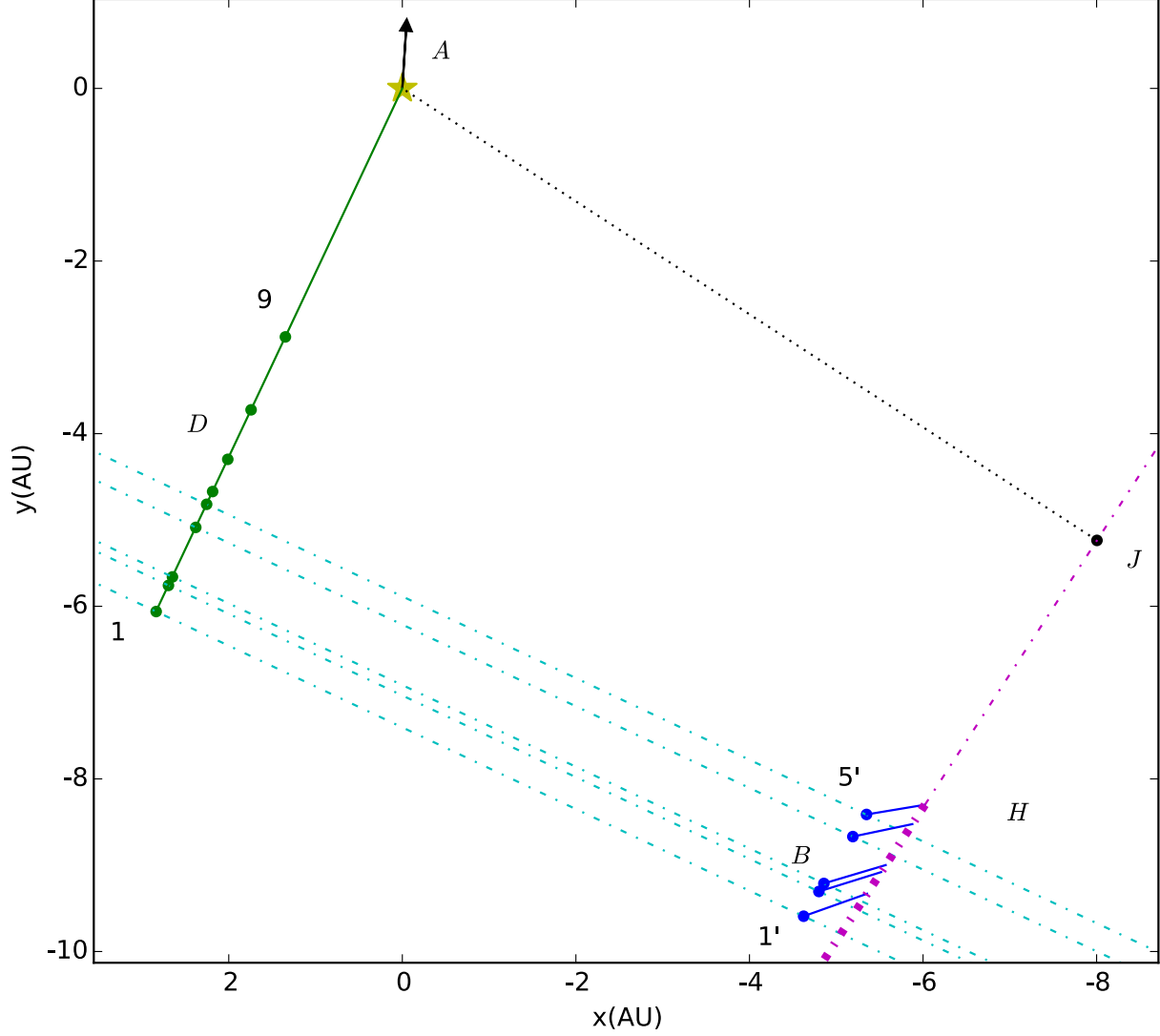
When estimating the angular offset of each apex, we subtract the expected noise bias:  $\theta^2 = (\Delta\alpha \cos(\delta))^2 + (\Delta\delta)^2 - \sigma_{\Delta\alpha}^2 - \sigma_{\Delta\delta}^2$ . We plot the  $\theta$  vs square root of  $\tau$  in Fig. 6. A least-square fit to the distance results in  $D_{1e} = 1044 \pm 22$  pc for the 0.4-ms group, which we call lens 1 (point 1 is excluded since VLBI astrometry is only known for one sub-band, thus we cannot obtain the variance nor weighted mean for that point), and  $D_{2e} = 1252 \pm 49$  pc for the 1-ms group, hereafter lens 2. The errors, and uncertainties on the error, preclude a definitive interpretation of the apparent difference in distance. However, at face value, this indicates that lens 2 is closer to the pulsar, and we will use this as a basis for the model in this paper. The distances are slightly different from those derived in B10, which is partly due to a different subset of arclets analysed. We discuss consequences of alternate interpretations in Section 3.4. The pulsar distance was



**Figure 6.**  $\theta$  vs  $\sqrt{\tau}$ . Two separate lines through the origin are fitted to the points sampled among the 0.4-ms group and 1-ms group. The solid line is the fitted line of the 0.4-ms positions, where  $D_{1e} = 1044 \pm 22$  pc. The dashed line is the fitted line of the 1-ms position, where  $D_{2e} = 1252 \pm 49$  pc.

directly measured using VLBI parallax to be  $D_p = 620 \pm 60$  pc, described in more detail in Section 2.  $D_1$  equals 389 pc, the distance of lens 1 where 0.4-ms group scintillation points are refracted, as we take  $D_{1e} = 1044$  pc. Similarly, for 1-ms apexes, the distance of lens 2 is taken as  $D_2 = 415$  pc, slightly closer to the pulsar.

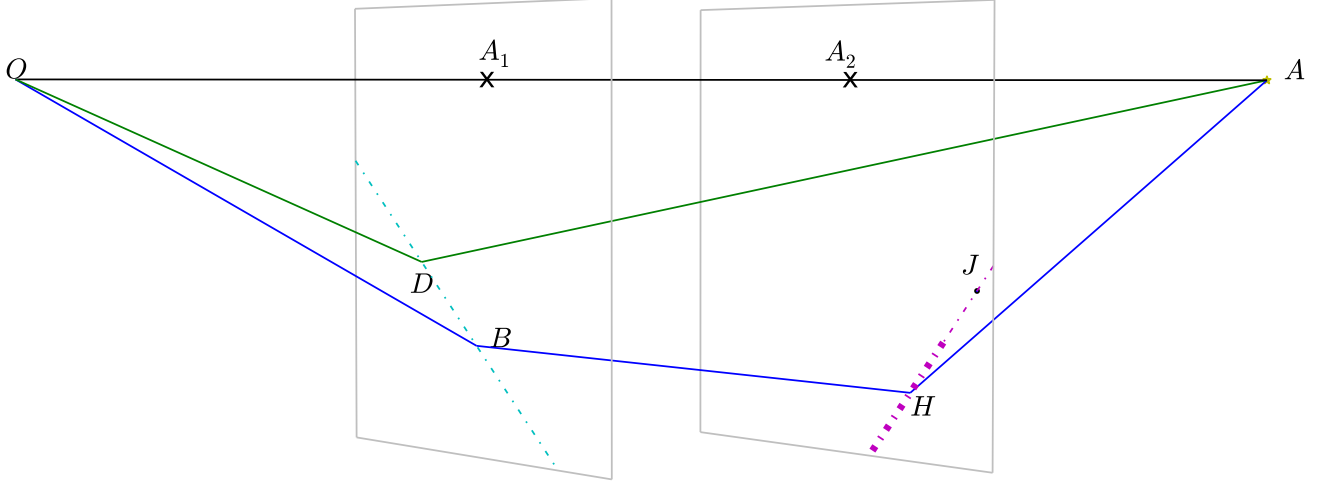
For the 0.4-ms group, we adopt the geometry from B10, assigning these points along line  $AD$  as shown in Fig. 7 based solely on their delay, which is the best-measured observable. The line  $AD$  is taken as a fixed angle of  $\gamma = -25^\circ.2$  east north. We use this axis to define the  $\parallel$  direction; then the  $\perp$  direction is rotated  $90^\circ$  clockwise.



**Figure 7.** Positions of 0.4-ms and 1-ms group data in the single-refraction model and double-refraction model. The axes represent the relative transverse distances to the un-refracted pulsar in right ascension (calculated by  $x = \Delta\alpha \cos(\delta)D_i$  with  $D_i$  represent the distance of the object to the observer: for point  $A$ ,  $D_i = D_p$ ; for points  $H$  and  $J$ ,  $D_i = D_2$ ; for points  $B$  and  $D$ ,  $D_i = D_1$ .) and declination (calculated by  $y = \Delta\delta D_i$ ) directions, on a 2-D plane that is transverse to the line of sight. On the left side, the points marked with letter  $D$  labelled from 1 to 9, are the derived positions from the time delays of 0.4-ms group in the single-refraction model. At a distance 389 pc from the observer, the green solid line demarcates the scattering axis for the 0.4-ms apexes positions, with an angle  $\gamma = -25^\circ.2$  east of north. The points on the right side mark the first and second refraction points in the double-refraction model. The unobservable points denoted by the letter  $H$ , are the calculated positions on lens 2 from the 1-ms group; the observed apparent positions denoted by the letter  $B$ , are the second refraction on lens 1. They are connected by short solid lines. The long dash dotted line passing through  $J$  is the inferred geometry of the second lens. Its thicker portion has formed a full caustic, while the thinner portion are sub critical. The dash dotted lines, constructed perpendicular to the  $AD$  scattering axis, denote the caustics of lens 1. The dotted line on the top right is perpendicular to the magenta dash dotted line, intersecting at  $J$ . The relative model pulsar-screen velocity is  $185.3 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ , with an angle  $\phi = -3^\circ.7$  east of north, is marked with an arrow from the star, at point  $A$ , at the top of the figure.







**Figure 8.** A 3-D schematic of light path when light is doubly-refracted. Two planes from left to right are the plane of lens 1, and the plane of lens 2. Light (the blue solid line) goes from  $A$  (pulsar) to the first refracted point  $H$  on lens 2 (line  $HJ$ , magenta dash dotted line), and then the second refracted point  $D$ , the image we observe, on lens 1 (line  $BD$ , cyan dash dotted line), and finally the observer  $O$ . The green solid line show the light path of singly-deflected light path ( $A-D-O$ ). The crosses ( $A_1$  on plane 1, and  $A_2$  on plane 2) denote intersection of the un-deflected light through the lensing sheet.  $D$  and  $J$  are the closest point of the lens caustic to the un-deflected path, which are the loci of single deflection images. Thus,  $A_2J \perp HJ$ , and  $A_1D \perp BD$ . The dash dotted lines represent the projected line-like fold caustics of the two lenses. The thick dash dotted line on plane 2 indicates the real caustic, while the thin continuation indicates the extrapolated continuation beyond the cusp/swallowtail.

label	$\theta_{\parallel}$ (mas)	$\tau_2$ (ms)	$\sigma_{\tau}$ (ms)	$\tau_M$ (ms)	$f_D$ (mHz)	$\sigma_f$ (mHz)	$f_M$ (mHz)	$t_1$ (day)
1'	-17.22	1.0663	0.0050	1.0663*	-43.08	0.84	-42.26	-78
2'	-16.36	1.0370	0.0059	1.0362	-41.27	0.88	-41.04	-73
3'	-16.08	1.005	0.011	1.027	-40.17	0.87	-40.64	-72
4'	-14.45	0.9763	0.00088	0.9763*	-38.31	0.64	-38.31†	-63
5'	-13.68	0.9495	0.0094	0.9550	-35.06	0.78	-37.21	-59

**Table 4.** Comparison of time delay  $\tau$  and the differential frequency  $f_D$  (with reference frequency 322.5 MHz) of the observation and the model fitting result in the double-refraction model.  $\theta_{\parallel}$  denotes the angular offsets of the corresponding images at lens 1. The values with star symbols on them are the points that we use to calculate the position of  $J$  and the point with a  $\dagger$  symbol is the point that we use to calculate the transverse velocity of the pulsar  $v_{\perp}$ . They agree with data by construction. The last column,  $t_1$  is the time the lensed image on lens 2 takes to move from point  $H$  to point  $J$ , which is defined in Section 3.3.3.

where  $\tau_1$  and  $\sigma_{\tau 1}$  represent the time delay and its error from the 0.4-ms group on lens 1, and  $\tau_2$  and  $\sigma_{\tau 2}$  represent the time delay and its error from the 1-ms group on lens 2. And  $\tau_{2j}$  is the  $\tau_2$  for the nearest reference point in Table 4 with error  $\sigma_{\tau 2j}$ . Specifically, for point  $i = 5'$  and  $3'$ ,  $j = 4'$  is the nearest reference point; while for point  $i = 2'$ ,  $j = 1'$  is the nearest reference point. The reference points are marked with star symbols in the fifth column in Table 4.

For the error of differential frequency  $f_D$ , we add the error of the reference point (point 4') to the error of each

other measured point:

$$\left(\frac{\sigma_{f_i}}{f_{Di}}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{\sigma_{f_{Di}}}{f_{Di}}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\sigma_{f_{D4'}}}{f_{D4'}}\right)^2 \quad (6)$$

where  $f_{D4'}$  and  $\sigma_{f_{D4'}}$  are the differential frequency of point 4' and its error. We marked this point with  $\dagger$  symbol in the fourth row in Table 4.

### 3.3.2 Comparing with observations

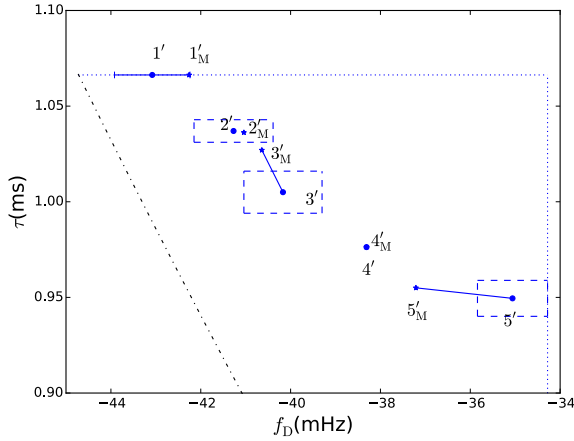
In order to compare  $\tau$ , we calculate model time delays  $\tau_M$  for these five points, and list the results in Table 4. For





Parameter	$\mu_{\alpha*}$ (mas yr <sup>-1</sup> )	$\mu_{\delta}$ (mas yr <sup>-1</sup> )	$\mu_{l*}$ (mas yr <sup>-1</sup> )	$\mu_b$ (mas yr <sup>-1</sup> )	$v_{l*}$ (km s <sup>-1</sup> )	$v_b$ (km s <sup>-1</sup> )
model pulsar-screen velocity	$-5.30 \pm 1.11$	$61.97 \pm 1.11$	$-56.45$	$22.23$	...	...
VLBI pulsar proper motion	$2.16 \pm 0.19$	$51.64 \pm 0.13$	$-46.69$	$28.02$	$-137.24$	$82.34$
Screen motion	...	...	$9.76$	$5.79$	$18.00$	$10.68$

**Table 5.** Summary of velocities in the double-refraction model. The velocities listed in equatorial coordinates are the relative velocity in heliocentric system, while the velocities in Galactic coordinates are the relative velocities in LSR (Local Standard of Rest).  $\mu_{\alpha*} = \Delta\alpha \cos(\delta)/t$  and  $\mu_{l*} = \Delta l \cos(b)/t$ , for which we move the center position from  $(\Delta\alpha, \Delta\delta)$  or  $(l, b)$  to  $(0, 0)$ .  $v_{l*}$  and  $v_b$  are the linear velocities relative to the LSR. The screen is only moving slowly ( $\sim 21$  km s<sup>-1</sup>). Ellipses reflect the unobserved and frame dependent parameters.



**Figure 12.** Model comparison. Points with subscripts are derived from the double-refraction model, see Table 4. Rectangles mark the 1- $\sigma$  error region. Points 1' (only for  $\tau$ ) and 4' are used to fit the model, and thus do not have an error region. The rectangles cover  $10^{-3}$  of the area in the dotted region bounded by the parabolic arc and the data points. We interpret this precise agreement between model and data is unlikely to be a random coincidence.

transverse size to maximum impact parameter (Pen & King 2012). Near the caustic, the lensed flux can become very high. The 1-ms group is about a factor of 4 fainter than the 0.4-ms group. The high flux of the second caustic suggests it to be relatively wide, perhaps a fraction of an AU. Due to the odd image theorem, one generically expects two distinct set of double lensed arcs. We only see one (generically the outer one), which places an upper bound on the brightness of the inner image. In a divergent lens (Clegg et al. 1998), the inner image is generically much fainter, so perhaps this is not surprising. For a convergent Gaussian lens, the two images are of similar brightness, but a more cuspy profile will also result in a faint inner image. In gravitational lensing, the odd image theorem is rarely seem to hold, which is generally thought to be due to one lens being very faint.

One can try to estimate the chance of accidental agreement between model and data. We show the data visually in Fig. 12.

To estimate where points might lie accidentally, we conservatively compare the area of the error regions to the area bounded by the parabola and the data points, as shown by dotted lines. This results in about  $10^{-3}$ , suggesting that the model is unlikely to be an accidental fit.

It might be a good supplementary to conduct a multi-

screen simulation that provides ray tracing through a large number of inclined sheets. By adjusting the parameters, we can test the possibility of multi-refractions. However, this is obviously beyond the scope of the current paper.

### 3.4 Distance degeneracies

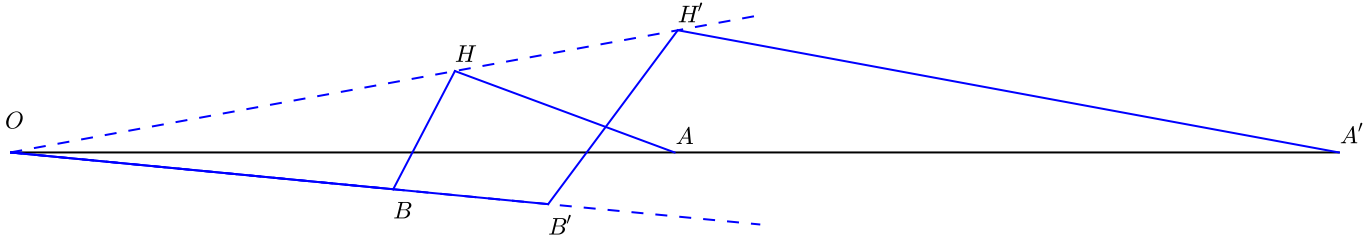
With two lens screens, the number of observables increases: in principle one could observe both single refraction delays and angular positions, as well as the double reflection delays and angular positions. Three distances are unknown, equal to the number of observables. Unfortunately, these measurements are degenerate, which can be seen as follows. From the two screens  $i = 1, 2$ , the two single deflection effective distance observables are  $D_{ie} \equiv 2c\tau_i/\theta_i^2 = D_i^2(1/D_i + 1/D_{pi})$ . A third observable effective distance is that of screen 2 using screen 1 as a lens,  $D_{21e} = D_1^2(1/D_1 + 1/D_{21})$ , within the triangle that is formed by lens 1, lens 2 and the observer. That is also algebraically derivable from the first two relations:  $D_{21e} = D_{1e}D_{2e}/(D_{2e} - D_{1e})$ . We illustrate the light path in Fig. 13.

In this archival data set, the direct single lens from the further plane at position  $J$  is missing. It would have been visible 59 days earlier. The difference in time delays to image  $J$  and the double reflection images would allow a direct determination of the effective distance to lens plane 2. Due to the close to  $90^\circ$  angle  $\angle DAJ$  between lenses, the effect would be about a factor of 10 ill conditioned. With sufficiently precise VLBI imaging one could distinguish if the doubly-refracted images are at position  $B$  (if lens 1 is closer to the observer) or position  $H$  (if lens 2 is closer to the observer). As described above, we interpret the effective distances to place screen 2 further away.

## 4 DISCUSSIONS

### 4.1 Interpretation

The relative motion between pulsar and lens is directly measured by the differential frequency, and is not sensitive to details of this model. B10 derived similar motions. This motion is in broad agreement with direct VLBI proper motion measurement, requiring the lens to be moving slowly compared to the pulsar proper motion or the LSR. The lens is  $\sim 200$  pc above the Galactic disk. Matter can either be in pressure equilibrium, or in free-fall, or some combination thereof. In free fall, one expects substantial motions. These data rule out retrograde or radially Galactic orbits: the lens is co-rotating with the Galaxy. In pressure equilibrium, gas



**Figure 13.** Illustration of double-refraction degeneracy. As in Fig. 5, all observables are identical for both the prime and un-primed geometries, including all pairwise delays and angular positions. This degeneracy also holds in three dimensions.

rotates slower as its pressure scale height increases, which appears consistent with the observed slightly slower than co-rotating motion. The modest lens velocities also appear consistent with the general motion of the ISM, perhaps driven by Galactic fountains (Shapiro & Field 1976) at these latitudes above the disk. In the inclined sheet model, the waves move at Alfvénic speed, but due to the high inclination, will move less than one percent of this speed in projection on the sky, and thus be completely negligible compared to other sources of motion.

Alternative models, for example, evaporating clouds (Walker & Wardle 1998) or strange matter (Pérez-García et al. 2013), do not make clear predictions. One would expect higher proper motions from these freely orbiting sources, and larger future scintillation samples may constrain these models.

Inclining one sheet randomly to better than 1 per cent requires of order  $10^4$  randomly placed sheets, i.e. many per parsec. This sheet extends for  $\sim 10$  AU in projection, corresponding to a physical scale greater than 1000 AU. These two numbers roughly agree, leading to a physical picture of magnetic domain boundaries every  $\sim 0.1$  pc. B0834+06 has had noted arcs for multiple years, perhaps suggesting this dominant lens plane is larger than typical. One might expect to reach the end of the sheet within decades.

A generic prediction of the inclined sheets model is a change in rotation measure across the scattering length. Over 1000 AU, one might expect a typical RM (rotation measure) change of  $10^{-3}$  rad/m<sup>2</sup>. At low frequencies, for example in LOFAR<sup>1</sup> or GMRT<sup>2</sup>, the size of the scattering screen extends another order of magnitude in angular size, and the RM in different lensed images are different, increasing to  $\sim 0.01$ , which is plausibly measurable. Even for an unpolarized source, the left and right circularly polarized (LCP, RCP) dynamic spectra will be slightly different. Usually a secondary spectrum (SS) is formed by Fourier transforming the dynamic spectrum and multiplying by its complex conjugate. To measure the RM, one multiplies the Fourier transform of the LCP dynamic spectrum by the complex conjugate of the RCP Fourier transform. This will display a phase gradient along the Doppler frequency axis. In the SS, each pixel is the sum of correlations of pairs of scattering points with corresponding lag and Doppler velocity. The velocity is typically linear in the pair separation, which is also

the case for differential RM. This statistic is analogous to the cross gate secondary spectrum as applied in Pen et al. (2014).

## 4.2 Possible improvements

We discuss several strategies which can improve on the solution accuracy. The single biggest improvement would be to monitor the speckle pattern over several months, as the pulsar crosses each individual lens, including both lensing systems. This allows a direct comparison of single-refraction to double-refraction arclets.

Angular resolution can be improved using longer baselines, for example adding a GMRT-GBT baseline doubles the resolution. Observing at multiple frequencies over a longer period allows for a more precise measurement: when the pulsar is between two lenses, the refraction angle  $\beta$  is small, and one expects to see the lensing at higher frequency, where the resolution is higher, and distances between lens positions can be measured to much higher accuracy.

Holographic techniques (Walker et al. 2008; Pen et al. 2014) may be able to measure delays, fringe rates, and VLBI positions substantially more accurately. Combining these techniques, the interstellar lensing could conceivably achieve distance measurements an order of magnitude better than the current published effective distance errors. This could bring most pulsar timing array targets into the coherent timing regime, enabling arc minute localization of gravitational wave sources, lifting any potential source confusion.

Ultimately, the precision of the lensing results would be limited by the fidelity of the lensing model. In the inclined sheet model, the images move along fold caustics. The straightness of these caustics depends on the inclination angle, which in turn depends on the amplitude of the surface waves. This analysis concludes a high degree of inclination, and thus high fidelity for geometric pulsar studies.

## 5 CONCLUSIONS

We have applied the inclined sheet model (Pen & Levin 2014) to archival apex data of PSR B0834+06. The data is well-fit by two linear lensing screens, with nearly planar geometry. The second screen provides a precision test with 10 observables (5 time delays and 5 differential frequencies) and 3 free parameters (the marked points in Table 4). The model fits the data to  $\sim$  percent accuracy on each of 7 data

<sup>1</sup> <http://www.lofar.org/>

<sup>2</sup> <http://gmrt.ncra.tifr.res.in/>

points. This natural consequence of very smooth reconnection sheets is an unlikely outcome of ISM turbulence. These results, if extrapolated to multi-epoch observations of binary systems, might result in accurate distance determinations and opportunities for removing scattering induced timing errors. This approach also opens the window to measuring precise transverse motions of the ionized ISM outside the Galactic plane.

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