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**NuSTAR OBSERVATIONS OF THE STATE TRANSITION OF MILLISECOND PULSAR BINARY PSR J1023+0038**


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**ABSTRACT**

We report NuSTAR observations of the millisecond pulsar–low-mass X-ray binary (LMXB) transition system PSR J1023+0038 from 2013 June and October, before and after the formation of an accretion disk around the neutron star. Between June 10 and 12, a few days to two weeks before the radio disappearance of the pulsar, the 3–79 keV X-ray spectrum was well fit by a simple power law with a photon index of $\Gamma = 1.17^{+0.05}_{-0.06}$ (at 90% confidence) with a 3–79 keV luminosity of $7.4 \pm 0.4 \times 10^{32}$ erg s$^{-1}$. Significant orbital modulation was observed with a modulation fraction of 36% ± 10%. During the October 19–21 observation, the spectrum is described by a softer power law ($\Gamma = 1.66^{+0.06}_{-0.05}$) with an average luminosity of $5.8 \pm 0.2 \times 10^{33}$ erg s$^{-1}$ and a peak luminosity of $\approx 1.2 \times 10^{34}$ erg s$^{-1}$ observed during a flare. No significant orbital modulation was detected. The spectral observations are consistent with previous and current multiwavelength observations and show the hard X-ray power law extending to 79 keV without a spectral break. Sharp-edged, flat-bottomed dips are observed with widths between 30 and 1000 s and ingress and egress timescales of 30–60 s. No change in hardness ratio was observed during the dips. Consecutive dip separations are log-normal in distribution with a typical separation of approximately 400 s. These dips are distinct from dipping activity observed in LMXBs. We compare and contrast these dips to observations of dips and state changes in the similar transition systems PSR J1824–2452I and XSS J1227.0–4859 and discuss possible interpretations based on the transitions in the inner disk.

**Key words:** pulsars: general – pulsars: individual (PSR J1023+0038) – stars: neutron – X-rays: stars

**Online-only material:** color figures

1. INTRODUCTION

Millisecond pulsars (MSPs; Backer et al. 1982) are neutron stars with surface magnetic fields $B_{\text{surf}} \sim 10^8$–$10^9$ G and rotation periods $P_{\text{rot}} \lesssim 30$ ms that show radio, X-ray, and/or γ-ray pulsations. The theory of recycled pulsars (Radhakrishnan & Srinivasan 1982; Alpar et al. 1982; Bhattacharya & van den Heuvel 1991) suggests that during a low-mass X-ray binary (LMXB) phase, angular momentum is transferred to the pulsar through disk accretion from a binary companion. The consequent addition of angular momentum spins up the pulsar to high angular velocities. Further evolution disrupts the accretion and, as the ionized plasma in the pulsar magnetosphere diminishes, the pulsar may be observed as a radio MSP. In a few systems, the pulsar wind can ablate matter from its companion to form black widow (Fuchter et al. 1990) or redback (see Roberts 2011) systems, sometimes leaving a planetary-mass object (Bailes et al. 2011).

While the pulsar spin-up theory is well supported by the presence of binary companions around most MSPs and the discovery of accretion-induced millisecond X-ray pulsations in LMXBs (Wijnands & van der Klis 1998; see Patruno & Watts 2012 for a review) there is little understanding as to how and when the accretion stops and whether the transition from LMXB to a nonaccreting MSP is swift and irreversible or whether the system flip-flops between the two states before settling into a nonaccreting state (Tauris 2012). Recent observations of two remarkable LMXB–MSP transition systems, PSR J1023+0038 (Archibald et al. 2009) and PSR J1824–2452I (Papitto et al. 2013), were the first evidence of multiple state changes during the transformation.

The source FIRST J102347.6+003841 (later renamed PSR J1023+0038) was initially classified as a magnetic cataclysmic variable by Bond et al. (2002). Thorstensen & Armstrong (2005) suggested that the system was an LMXB before the confirming discovery of a 1.7 ms radio pulsar (Archibald et al. 2009, 2010). The pulsar is in a 4.75 hr orbit with a G-type $\sim 0.2 M_\odot$ companion. Double-peaked H and He lines in archival Sloan Digital Sky Survey (SDSS) spectra revealed...
that the pulsar had an accretion disk during 2000–2001, but later spectra showed no evidence for accretion (Wang et al. 2009). This conclusion was supported by further optical and X-ray observations (Archibald et al. 2010; Bogdanov et al. 2011). Very Long Baseline Interferometry (VLBI) observations (Deller et al. 2012) of the pulsar allowed the measurement of its parallax distance \((1368_{-39}^{+42})\) pc and proper motion \((17.98 \pm 0.05 \text{ mas yr}^{-1}, 130 \pm 4 \text{ km s}^{-1})\). Long-term radio observations and \(\gamma\)-ray measurements have allowed the detailed understanding of the inclination, orientation, and evolution of the system’s orbit; the size and temperature of the companion star and estimates for the masses of both of the components (Archibald et al. 2013).

The pulsar has been monitored regularly and detected in the radio bands until recently, indicating the absence of accretion. In observations after 2013 June 15 the radio pulsations had decreased in flux to undetectable levels, accompanied by a 20-fold increase in soft X-ray flux and a five-fold increase in the \(\gamma\)-ray flux (see Stappers et al. 2013; Kong 2013; Stappers et al. 2014; Patruno et al. 2014).

In this paper, we describe \(\textit{NuSTAR}\) (Harrison et al. 2013) observations of PSR J1023+0038, the first hard X-ray (3–79 keV) observations of this source. These observations were obtained during its quiescent state in 2013 June, a few days before the pulsar’s radio disappearance and later during the accretion phase in 2013 October. This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes the details of the observations and X-ray data analysis. In Section 3, we describe the results of the spectroscopic fitting and timing analysis. The astrophysical implications of these results are discussed in Section 4.

2. OBSERVATION AND ANALYSIS

PSR J1023+0038 was first observed by \textit{NuSTAR}\textsuperscript{15} between 2013 June 10 and 12 during a prescheduled \(\approx95\) ks observation simultaneous with a \(\approx4\) ks observation with the \textit{Swift} X-ray Telescope (XRT; Burrows et al. 2005). The disappearance of PSR J1023+0038 in radio monitoring was constrained to have occurred between 2013 June 15 and 30 (see Stappers et al. 2014), but the source could not immediately be reobserved by \textit{NuSTAR} due to a solar angle constraint until mid-October. Based on the radio disappearance, a second 100 ks \textit{NuSTAR} observation was scheduled simultaneous with a 10 ks \textit{Swift} observation (described in Patruno et al. 2014) from 2013 October 19 to 21. The details of the observations are summarized in Table 1.

The preliminary processing and filtering of the \textit{NuSTAR} event data was performed with the standard \textit{NuSTAR} pipeline version 1.2.0 and \textit{HEASOFT} version 6.14. The source was clearly detected at each epoch. We used the \texttt{barycorr} tool to correct the photon arrival times for the orbital motion of the satellite and the Earth. The source events were extracted within a 20 pixel (49″) radius around the centroid, and suitable background regions were used. Spectra were extracted using the \texttt{nuproducts} script. Using \texttt{grppha}, all photons below channel 35 (3 keV) and above channel 1935 (79 keV) were flagged as bad, and all good photons were binned in energy to achieve a minimum of 30 photons per bin.

Similarly, the \textit{Swift} XRT data were processed with the standard \texttt{xrtpipeline}, and the photon arrival times were corrected using \texttt{barycorr}. The \texttt{xrtproducts} script was used to extract spectra and light curves within a radius of 25 pixels (59″). Photons in channels 0–29 (energy <3 keV) were ignored, and all channels between 0.3 and 10 keV were binned to ensure a minimum of 30 photons per bin.

3. RESULTS

3.1. June Observations

The \textit{NuSTAR} observation of PSR J1023+0038 in 2013 June detected the source with an average count rate of

\textbf{Table 1} Observations of PSR J1023+0038

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Obs ID</th>
<th>Start (UT)</th>
<th>End (UT)</th>
<th>Exp (ks)</th>
<th>Rate (counts s(^{-1}))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>\textit{NuSTAR}</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30001027002</td>
<td>Jun 10 13:15</td>
<td>Jun 10 21:15</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0.014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30001027003</td>
<td>Jun 10 21:15</td>
<td>Jun 11 14:50</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>0.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30001027005</td>
<td>Jun 12 05:35</td>
<td>Jun 13 07:30</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>0.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30001027006</td>
<td>Oct 19 08:00</td>
<td>Oct 21 17:45</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{Swift} XRT (pphoton counting mode)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>000800355001</td>
<td>Jun 10 14:03</td>
<td>Jun 10 16:11</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>0.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>000800355002</td>
<td>Jun 12 22:03</td>
<td>Jun 13 00:00</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>0.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>000800355003</td>
<td>Oct 18 05:08</td>
<td>Oct 19 08:38</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{15} \textit{NuSTAR} is a 3–79 keV focusing hard X-ray mission. It consists of two identical co-aligned Wolter-I telescopes with CdZnTe detectors at the focal planes. The telescopes provide a point-spread function with a full width at half maximum of 18″ and a half-power diameter of 58″ over a field of view of 12′×12′. The energy resolution varies from 0.4 keV at 6 keV to 0.9 keV at 60 keV. The data from the two telescopes’ focal plane modules are labeled FPMA and FPMB.
We searched for orbital modulation by folding the barycorr-
corrected photons into eight orbital phase bins with various
trial orbital periods around the nominal period of 17,100 s
(4.75 hr). A range of orbital periods between 9000 s and 25,000 s
(2.5–7 hr) were used with a step size of 1 s. We used the epoch-
folding statistical method (Leahy 1987) of the data with the
χ² variation expected from a sinusoidal waveform
(Leahy 1987). The χ² distribution has 7 dof.
(A color version of this figure is available in the online journal.)

Figure 2. χ² test and epoch folding in searching for the binary-system orbital period with NuSTAR June data in the 3–79 keV energy range. The solid black line is the χ² of the folded observation data with respect to a null hypothesis as a function of folding period (i.e., test orbital period), and the red dashed line is the best fit of the data with the χ² variation expected from a sinusoidal waveform (Leahy 1987). The χ² distribution has 7 dof.

(A color version of this figure is available in the online journal.)

We searched for pulsations at the spin period of the pulsar in both the NuSTAR data sets using spin and orbital parameters nominally determined from radio timing 2013 pre-June (see Archibald et al. 2013). Each search described below was done for three energy ranges: 3–79 keV, 3–10 keV, and 10–79 keV, and the June and October data were analyzed separately.

First, we folded each of the June and October data sets at the 17115.52524(3) s orbital period measured from long-term radio monitoring (Archibald et al. 2013). Varying the number of orbital phase bins and step sizes for orbital periods led to the same result.

We folded the photons recorded in both the FPMA and FPMB detectors with the best-fit period to create an orbital modulation profile (Figure 3). The modulation fraction, defined as $(F_{\text{max}} - F_{\text{min}})/(F_{\text{max}} + F_{\text{min}})$, where $F_{\text{max}}$ and $F_{\text{min}}$ are the maximum and minimum photon fluxes, respectively, is 36% ± 10%.

The fractional rms modulation, defined as $\sqrt{(F^2) - (F)^2 F^{-2}}$, for the lower energy range observed by Chandra in 3–79 keV (Bogdanov et al. 2011), the amplitude with NuSTAR observation, which is 0.0158 ± 0.0034 counts s⁻¹ in 3–79 keV, is smaller.

We searched for pulsations at the spin period of the pulsar in the NuSTAR data in several different ways. First, we note that NuSTAR’s onboard clock, which is corrected at every ground pass, has exhibited residual timing jumps of 1–2 ms at unpredictable times on timescales of days to months (K. Madsen et al., in preparation); this makes a pulsation search at the 1.7 ms period of PSR J1023+0038 problematic. Nevertheless, recognizing that there could, in principle, be some spans in which the clock is sufficiently stable to detect bright pulsations and that a short-term pulsation search may be more likely to succeed than a long-term search, we proceeded to search as described below.

Figure 3. Orbital modulation from PSR J1023+0038 in the 3–79 keV energy range in the 2013 June observation (red “+”). The corresponding 0.3–8 keV Chandra orbital modulation (black “*”; Bogdanov et al. 2011) is overlaid. The barycorr corrected photons from FPMA and FPMB were folded with the best-fit period 17147.78 s. The orbital modulation is plotted for two orbits for clarity.

(A color version of this figure is available in the online journal.)

In all cases, we used the PREPFOLD facility within the PRESTO suite of pulsar search software to fold the data set into 20 phase bins using spin and orbital parameters nominally determined from radio timing 2013 pre-June (see Archibald et al. 2013). Each search described below was done for three energy ranges: 3–79 keV, 3–10 keV, and 10–79 keV, and the June and October data were analyzed separately.

We also searched for a pulse in smaller time spans: we broke the June and October data into sequences of duration equal to the orbital period of the binary. Each sequence was further divided into six equal parts. We individually folded and searched each of these parts for pulsations. Also, parts at the same orbital phase were combined in each of the June and October data sets separately, and the combinations were searched. We repeated the same searches using 12 equal orbital phase sections. In total, we searched more than ten thousand parameter combinations, using reduced χ² statistics. Accounting for the number of trials, we found no significant pulsations.

3.1.2. Spectral Analysis

The Swift XRT and NuSTAR spectra of PSR J1023+0038 were fitted with an absorbed power-law model (const*tbabs*powerlaw in XSPEC; Figure 4). The source was barely detected in the Swift XRT observations 00080035001 and 00080035002 in June with 0.3–10 keV count rates of $<10^{-2}$ counts s⁻¹. We added the two exposures to improve the signal-to-noise ratio. These observations were only used to constrain the estimate of the column density $N_H$ during the June observation because NuSTAR data alone are not very sensitive to relatively low column densities. We constrained $N_H < 2.8 \times 10^{21}$ cm⁻².

Figure 4. Power-law fit to June NuSTAR observations. The data sets 30001027002, 30001027003, and 30001027005 were fit simultaneously with the same model to improve signal-to-noise ratio. Column density was undetectable and hence set to zero. The data from the two NuSTAR detectors FPMA and FPMB were linked by a floating cross-normalization constant. The fit achieved $\chi^2$/dof = 113.4/117. The correspondence between colors (in the electronic version of the manuscript) and spectra are as follows: black:30001027002 FPMA, red:30001027003 FPMA, green:30001027005 FPMA, blue:30001027002 FPMB, cyan:30001027003 FPMB, and magenta:30001027005 FPMB.

(A color version of this figure is available in the online journal.)

Table 2 shows the measured values of $\Gamma$ and 3–79 keV flux from the three June observations. The error bars are quoted at 90% confidence. In subsequent analyses, the observations were simultaneously fit with a single model to improve the signal-to-noise ratio. The combined fit values are $\Gamma = 1.17^{+0.08}_{-0.07}$ and $F_X = 3.3 \pm 0.16 \times 10^{-12}$ erg cm$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$, corresponding to a 3–79 keV luminosity of $7.4 \pm 0.4 \times 10^{32}$ erg s$^{-1}$ at PSR J1023+0038's measured distance. The fit achieved a $\chi^2$ of 113.4 with 117 degrees of freedom (dof).

3.1.3. Orbital Modulation of Spectra

To analyze the spectral variations during the orbit, we set good-time-interval (GTI) windows for orbital phases: 0.0–0.2, 0.2–0.4, 0.4–0.6, 0.6–0.8, and 0.8–1.0. To improve the signal of the phase-resolved spectra from the June observations, we summed up the events from NuSTAR observations 30001027002, 30001027003, and 30001027005. The five phase-resolved spectra extracted were fitted with an absorbed power-law model. From the previous discussion, the absorption column value was frozen to $N_H = 0$. The power-law index $\Gamma$ and normalization were allowed to vary for each phase. Table 3 and Figure 5 list and plot the best-fit values for $\Gamma$ and the integrated X-ray fluxes measured for the five orbital phases. The errors are quoted at 90% confidence. The measurements are consistent with a constant $\Gamma$ value over the orbital phase with an error-weighed average of 1.10 ± 0.12.

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>0.0–0.2</th>
<th>0.2–0.4</th>
<th>0.4–0.6</th>
<th>0.6–0.8</th>
<th>0.8–1.0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PL index ($N_H = 0$)</td>
<td>$1.07^{+0.28}_{-0.23}$</td>
<td>$1.05^{+0.24}_{-0.23}$</td>
<td>$1.29^{+0.18}_{-0.17}$</td>
<td>$0.96^{+0.16}_{-0.15}$</td>
<td>$1.17^{+0.09}_{-0.07}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\log_{10}(\text{flux})^b$</td>
<td>$-11.41^{+0.14}_{-0.15}$</td>
<td>$-11.59^{+0.14}_{-0.14}$</td>
<td>$-11.53^{+0.10}_{-0.10}$</td>
<td>$-11.25^{+0.09}_{-0.10}$</td>
<td>$-11.47^{+0.05}_{-0.05}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes.

a Spectra from observations 2, 3, and 5 were combined. Column density was undetectable and hence set to zero. The fit achieved $\chi^2$/dof = 127.99/150.

b 3–79 keV flux in units of erg cm$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$,
Tendulkar et al.

Figure 6. 100 s binned light curve from 0.3–10 keV from Swift (red points) and 3–79 keV from NuSTAR (black points) observations. For clarity, NuSTAR FPMA and FPMB observations are averaged. The average count rate during the ≈10 hr long flare is a factor of five higher than the out-of-flare count rate. The gray horizontal line at 0.1 counts s\(^{-1}\) denotes low flux levels seen in the NuSTAR observations discussed in detail in Section 3.2.4. Two vertical dashed black lines denote the ≈30 minute overlap in the Swift and NuSTAR observations. Dotted black vertical lines divide the UTC dates of the observations, as noted at the top of the plot. The gaps in observations are due to Earth occultations. (A color version of this figure is available in the online journal.)

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Inst./Band</th>
<th>(\Gamma)</th>
<th>Flux (10^{-13}) erg cm(^{-2}) s(^{-1})</th>
<th>Meas.(^a)</th>
<th>Extrap.(^b)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Homer et al. (2006)</td>
<td>XMM-Newton/(0.01–10)</td>
<td>1.27 ± 0.03</td>
<td>5.3 ± 0.6</td>
<td>6.3 ± 0.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Archibald et al. (2010)</td>
<td>XMM-Newton/(0.5–10)</td>
<td>0.99 ± 0.11</td>
<td>4.9 ± 0.3</td>
<td>5.8 ± 0.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bogdanov et al. (2011)</td>
<td>Chandra/(0.3–8)</td>
<td>1.00 ± 0.08</td>
<td>4.0 ± 0.14</td>
<td>4.9 ± 0.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes. The flux errors do not include the systematic cross-normalization error.

\(^a\) Measured flux from only the nonthermal emission after separating the thermal soft-X-ray component, if any.

\(^b\) Extrapolated into the instrument’s band from measured NuSTAR power law.

3.1.4. Comparison with Archival Data

We compare the flux measured in June to archival measurements by Homer et al. (2006), Archibald et al. (2010) and Bogdanov et al. (2011; Table 4) by extrapolating the NuSTAR power law to lower energies. From the archival spectral fits, we extract the flux expected from the nonthermal power law because the soft thermal component is negligible in the NuSTAR energy band. We find that the fluxes are consistent within the expected cross-normalization errors (Madsen et al., in preparation). Along with the detection of the radio MSP, this strongly suggests that on 2013 June 10 and 12 PSR J1023+0038 was in the same state with no accretion disk observed since 2004.

3.2. October Observations

Figure 6 shows the Swift XRT and NuSTAR light curves during the October observations averaged over 100 s bins. The two vertical dashed lines denote the ≈30 min overlap in the Swift and NuSTAR observations. During the NuSTAR observations, we observed a flare for a period of ≈10 hr with a factor of five increase in X-ray flux. Binning the same light curve in 1200 s bins, we observed a factor of 25 variations in the count rate within 1 hr (three bin points). In the analysis that follows, we analyze the data with and without excision of the flare data.

3.2.1. Timing Analysis

We searched for the orbital modulation of X-rays from PSR J1023+0038 using the same methodology as for the June data (Figures 2 and 3). We folded the entire data set, as well as a subset for which flares and dips were excised, at a range of orbital periods centered around the value measured in June; however, as shown in Figure 7, practically all trial periods yielded a value of \(\chi^2\) inconsistent with the null hypothesis. This is in strong contrast to what we observed in June (Figures 2 and 3).
and 3); in October, by contrast, we detect no evidence for orbital modulation. We folded the photons detected in both the FPMA and FPMB detectors with the best-fit period of 17,148 s measured in 2013 June to create an orbital modulation profile (Figure 8), which also does not reveal coherent modulations, with or without the flare and dip data. We used a histogram of the measured $\chi^2$ values for the range searched and found the value of $\chi^2$ higher than 99% of all other values. We then use the analytical formulae relating the amplitude and $\chi^2$ (Leahy et al. 1983) to derive an upper limit for the pulsed amplitude regions in 500 $\mu$s time bins and performed a Fourier transform to obtain the power spectrum of PSR J1023+0038. We used the fractional rms normalization prescribed by Miyamoto et al. (1991) such that the power spectrum is expressed in units of ($\text{rms mean}^{-2}$) Hz$^{-1}$. The expected Poisson rate was subtracted. We verified that the dead-time corrected light curves showed the expected Poisson variations at high frequencies in the background and source power spectra. Figure 9 shows the power spectrum of PSR J1023+0038 in October (black dots) and upper limits (black inverted triangles) compared to that in June (red dots and inverted triangles). We fit a red flicker noise power-law spectrum ($P(f) \propto f^{-1}$, black line) to the data, apart from the signal of interest, which is obviously not true in this case. A true upper limit is difficult to determine without more prior knowledge regarding the statistical nature of the strong variability observed.

In order to look for other periodicities or quasi-periodic oscillations sometimes observed in other LMXBs, we binned the photon event time series from the source and the background regions in 500 $\mu$s time bins and performed a Fourier transform to obtain the power spectrum of PSR J1023+0038. We used the fractional rms normalization prescribed by Miyamoto et al. (1991) such that the power spectrum is expressed in units of ($\text{rms mean}^{-2}$) Hz$^{-1}$. The expected Poisson rate was subtracted. We verified that the dead-time corrected light curves showed the expected Poisson variations at high frequencies in the background and source power spectra. Figure 9 shows the power spectrum of PSR J1023+0038 in October (black dots) and upper limits (black inverted triangles) compared to that in June (red dots and inverted triangles). We fit a red flicker noise power-law spectrum ($P(f) \propto f^{-1}$, black line) to the data, apart from the signal of interest, which is obviously not true in this case. A true upper limit is difficult to determine without more prior knowledge regarding the statistical nature of the strong variability observed.

3.2.2. Spectral Analysis

The $Swift$ XRT data and the first $\approx$ four hr of $NuSTAR$ data were jointly fit (Figure 10) with an absorbed power-law model.
focusing parameter values were \( \Gamma \) for the TAR FPMA and FPMB modules were allowed to vary. The best-fit change in\( \Delta \nu \) of the NuSTAR observation is shown as a factor of two in increase in flux at \( MJD = 56585 \). Bottom panel: corresponding variation in optical magnitude at the same orbital phase as a function of time. The data are from Halpern et al. (2013). Due to the sparse monitoring, we do not have observations during the flare. However, the pre- and postflare optical observations are consistent within the error bars. (A color version of this figure is available in the online journal.)

The cross-normalization constants between Swift XRT and NuSTAR FPMA and FPMB modules were allowed to vary. The best-fitting parameter values were \( N_H = 2.9^{+1.5}_{-1.3} \times 10^{20} \text{cm}^{-2} \), which is nominally consistent with the June spectra, \( \Gamma = 1.66^{+0.06}_{-0.05} \) with 3–79 keV \( F_X = 2.61 \pm 0.06 \times 10^{-11} \text{erg cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \), and achieved a \( \chi^2 / \text{dof} = 120.55/124 \). The corresponding luminosity is \( 5.8 \pm 0.2 \times 10^{33} \text{erg s}^{-1} \).

In order to analyze the count-rate variation during the flare, we divided the NuSTAR October observation into eight segments, each covering one orbital period of the system, to eliminate any variation due to orbital modulation. We extracted spectra and fit an absorbed power law to the measurements. We froze the value of the column density \( N_H = 3.8 \times 10^{20} \text{cm}^{-2} \) from the corresponding Swift observations (Patruno et al. 2014). In order to analyze the count-rate variation during the flare, we divided the NuSTAR October observation into eight segments, each covering one orbital period of the system, to eliminate any variation due to orbital modulation. We extracted spectra and fit an absorbed power law to the measurements. We froze the value of the column density \( N_H = 3.8 \times 10^{20} \text{cm}^{-2} \) from the corresponding Swift observations (Patruno et al. 2014). Figure 11 shows the variation of the power-law index \( \Gamma \) and X-ray flux as a function of time. The corresponding variation in optical magnitude (Halpern et al. 2013) is also plotted. Due to the sparse monitoring, there are no optical observations during the flare. However, the preflare and postflare optical brightness of the system is constrained to be almost equal.

3.2.3. Spectral Variations with Count Rate

In order to analyze the variation in brightness, we created GTI windows by filtering the 100 s light curve data points into six count-rate windows: 0–0.1 counts \( \text{s}^{-1} \), 0.1–0.2 counts \( \text{s}^{-1} \), 0.2–0.3 counts \( \text{s}^{-1} \), 0.3–0.5 counts \( \text{s}^{-1} \), 0.5–0.7 counts \( \text{s}^{-1} \), and 0.7–2 counts \( \text{s}^{-1} \). We then re-extracted the spectra within the GTIs using the NuSTAR pipeline. The spectra are well fit by a PL model similar to the averaged spectra. The value of \( N_H \) was frozen to \( 3.8 \times 10^{20} \text{cm}^{-2} \).

Figure 12 shows the variation of the 3–79 keV flux and photon power-law (PL) index \( \Gamma \) as a function of count rate. There is weak evidence that the spectrum is harder at higher count rates, but the measurements of \( \Gamma \) are consistent with a constant value over the four count-rate ranges. The bottom panel of Figure 12 shows a distribution of the count rates (weighted and smoothed by the measurement errors) from the 100 s binned light curve. There is clear evidence for two distinct states. The dotted vertical line shows the demarcation between the two distinct flux states that are seen.

### 3.2.4. Short Timescale Dips in the Light Curve

Apart from the 10 hr flare, significant short timescale variations are observed during the October NuSTAR and Swift observations (see Patruno et al. 2014, for Swift XRT flickering). In this section, we present a detailed phenomenological description of the variations. Figure 13 shows three examples of dips observed in the count rate binned in 100 s bins. The dips are not periodic or uniform in depth and width. In order to understand the nature of these variations, the photons were divided into low-energy (3–7.5 keV) and high-energy (7.5–79 keV) bands.

In order to quantitatively analyze the occurrence of these dips, we created a normalized light curve by dividing a 30 s binned light curve (of 3–79 keV photons) with a light curve smoothed over a long timescale (600 s). We verified that changing the smoothing timescale between 600 s and 1800 s led to consistent results. The dips were defined as time periods when the normalized count rate was less than 0.5. This threshold was determined by visual inspection of the normalized light curve and is insensitive to small variations (0.45–0.55). The dip periods thus extracted were smoothed with a binary closing function (adapted from image processing; see Gonzalez & Woods 1992; using the scipy.ndimage library) to exclude small-amplitude, single-bin spikes in wide (≥ four bins) dips. The widths and positions of all other dips remain unaffected by this smoothing function.

We observed 224 dips in the entire observing sequence. To calculate the temporal positions of the centers of the dips in the normalized light curve, we converted the normalized light curve...
Figure 13. Representative light curves from the October NuSTAR observation of PSR J1023+0038. In each figure, the top panel shows the low-energy (3.0–7.5 keV) count rate, the middle panel shows the high-energy (7.5–79 keV) count rate, and the bottom panel shows the hardness ratio between the two energy bands. The hardness ratio is statistically constant unlike in dips observed in similar accreting systems. Each data point is averaged over 100 s time bins. The x-axis is time marked in seconds from the beginning of observation, October 19 08:00:04 UTC.

Figure 14. Histogram of orbital phase distribution of dip centers. The distribution is normalized by the orbital phase coverage of the data, which is uneven due to the near 1:3 ratio between the NuSTAR orbital period (∼1.5 hr) and the binary orbital period and the Earth occultations that interrupt observations every half revolution. The data are consistent with being uniformly distributed through orbital phases.

Into a binary dip–nondip light curve where the dip time points were marked as one and the nondip timepoints were marked as zero. The temporal positions of the dips were calculated by using a segmenting function to identify separate dips and using a center-of-mass function to calculate the central position of each dip segment. We converted the temporal positions into orbital phases using the orbital ephemeris described in the timing analysis. We created a histogram of the observed dip position as a function of binary orbital phase (Figure 14). We divided each phase bin with the orbital coverage in that phase bin, and the overall ratio was normalized to unity. Figure 14 shows no significant preference in dip time for a specific orbital phase bin. The dips are thus uniformly and randomly distributed with orbital phase and do not show any obvious relationship to the system’s orbit. Similarly, a search for periodicity in the dip occurrences did not reveal any significant signal.

A histogram of the separations between consecutive dips is shown in Figure 15. The distribution is well fit by a log-normal distribution with a probability distribution function defined as

$$P(x; A, \mu, \sigma)dx = \frac{A}{x\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(\log x - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) dx,$$

where $x$ is the separation of consecutive dips, $A$ is the normalization factor, $\mu$ is the location parameter or the mean of $\log x$, and $\sigma$ is the scale factor of the distribution. We measure $\exp(\mu) = 365 \pm 3$ s and $\sigma = 0.48 \pm 0.04$.

Similarly, a histogram of the dip widths (Figure 16) shows a sharp decline in the distribution as a function of dip width. The dips are well fit by a power law $P(x) \propto x^{-\alpha}$ where $x$ is the width of the dips in seconds. The best-fit value of $\alpha$ was measured to be $1.73 \pm 0.07$. The corresponding fit is shown as a dashed line in Figure 16. An exponential fit to the distribution leads to a less significant fit (dotted line) with a best-fit timescale of $42 \pm 5$ s. Due to our smoothing function, we do not consider dips smaller

16 We used $T_0 = 55361.592856125$ MJD and $P_{\text{orb}} = 17115.52238$ s. The 10–20 s drifting of the $T_0$ described in the timing analysis is too small to affect this analysis.
Figure 15. Histogram of separations between the dip centers. The observations are well fit by a log-normal distribution with mean separation of 365 ± 3 s and a scale factor of 0.48 ± 0.04 (see Section 3.2.4 for a description of the parameters).

Figure 16. Histogram of widths of the dips. The observations are fit by a power law (dashed line) with an index of 1.73 ± 0.07 with a reduced $\chi^2 = 1.3$ with 17 dof. An exponential law with a timescale of 42 ± 5 s (dotted line) may be fit, but the resulting $\chi^2$ is much worse (reduced $\chi^2$ ≈ 32, with 17 dof) because it underestimates the occurrence of dips with widths of 200–300 s. The lowest timescales have been excised from the fit to prevent statistical biasing from the smoothing algorithm described in the text.

than 60 s in the fitting. The widths of the dips are not correlated with the separation to the preceding or successive dip.

We converted the dip locations into timing windows for the $\text{xronos}$ task $\text{powspec}$ and extracted the power spectrum during the dip states. We also created a power spectrum for the nondip windows of the light curve. To avoid the variations caused by different Fourier windows, we chose contiguous intervals of 60 s length and averaged the power spectra. Both of the power spectra (Figure 17) were normalized using the normalization prescribed by Leahy et al. (1983). We do not observe any significant difference in the photon rate during the dip state as compared to the nondip state.

4. DISCUSSION

We have presented 3–79 keV observations of the MSP-LMXB transition system PSR J1023+0038 before and after the 2013 June 15–30 establishment of an accretion disk around the pulsar with phase-resolved spectral and timing analyses. We have observed the 3–79 keV luminosity of the system increase from $7.4 \times 10^{32}$ erg s$^{-1}$ to $6.0 \times 10^{33}$ erg s$^{-1}$ between 2013 June 10–12 (a few days to two weeks before the transition) and 2013 October 19–21. These luminosities, being much lower than the $10^{35–37}$ erg s$^{-1}$ luminosity typical of accreting LMXBs, are consistent with the previously proposed idea that Roche lobe overflow has occurred and an accretion disk has formed, but the in-falling matter has been prevented from accreting onto the pulsar surface and is now surrounding the pulsar (see Stappers et al. 2013, 2014; Kong 2013; Halpern et al. 2013; Patruno et al. 2014).

In order to perform a multiwavelength comparison of the pre- and post-transition behavior, we compiled all published and new data into a spectral energy distribution (SED) from UV to $\gamma$-rays (Figure 18), augmenting the SED reported by Takata et al. (2014). The pretransition (June) spectrum from NuSTAR and the presence of deep orbital modulations is similar to the X-ray observations from 2004 to 2010 (Homer et al. 2006; Archibald et al. 2010; Tam et al. 2010; Bogdanov et al. 2011) and is consistent with the hard X-rays being emitted by synchrotron emission from the intrabinary shock as suggested by Bogdanov et al. (2011). This similarity along with the sudden change in Fermi-LAT $\gamma$-ray flux in June (Stappers et al. 2014) argues that the system in June was still in the diskless state achieved after its 2000–2001 accretion episode (Wang et al. 2009). Hence, a gradual transition of the X-ray flux is ruled out, consistent with the radio behavior and $\gamma$-ray behavior (Stappers et al. 2014).

From the presence of $\gamma$-ray emission and the absence of radio pulsations, Stappers et al. (2014) suggested that the pulsar is enshrouded in gaseous material outside the light-cylinder radius of 81 km, held up by the magnetic pressure. Depending on the location of the barrier, the presence of material would prevent either the detection or generation of radio pulses. In the former case, the $\gamma$-rays could be emitted from the shock emission of the pulsar wind interacting with the in-falling matter. In the

(A color version of this figure is available in the online journal.)
latter case, the $\gamma$-ray emission may occur, in some models, via shocks in a leptonic jet ejected by the propeller mechanism, as suggested by Papitto et al. (2014b) for the case of the LMXB-like state of XSS J1227.0–4859, which was recently shown to have undergone the reverse transition (Bassa et al. 2014) to a rotation-powered radio pulsar (Roy et al. 2014). The peak $\gamma$-ray flux occurs in the 3–79 keV band are the power-law fits from the 2013 June and 2013 October NuSTAR observations respectively. The light blue and gray solid lines denote the corresponding uncertainties at 90% confidence. Black error bars denote June and October flux estimates from Fermi-LAT in the 1–300 GeV band from Stappers et al. (2014), which assumes $\Gamma = 2.5$. The gray squares are photon fluxes from the Fermi-LAT second source catalog (Nolan et al. 2012). The red circle is the approximate location of a possible crossover of the hard X-ray and $\gamma$-ray power law, at a photon energy of about 1–10 MeV.

(A color version of this figure is available in the online journal.)

Figure 18. Spectral energy distribution of PSR J1023+0038 from published results and current work. The solid blue lines and the solid black lines in the 3–79 keV band are the power-law fits from the 2013 June and 2013 October NuSTAR observations respectively. The light blue and gray solid lines denote the corresponding uncertainties at 90% confidence. Black error bars denote June and October flux estimates from Fermi-LAT in the 1–300 GeV band from Stappers et al. (2014), which assumes $\Gamma = 2.5$. The gray squares are photon fluxes from the Fermi-LAT second source catalog (Nolan et al. 2012). The red circle is the approximate location of a possible crossover of the hard X-ray and $\gamma$-ray power law, at a photon energy of about 1–10 MeV.

4.1. Flat-bottomed Dipping

The flat-bottomed dips and flickering observed in the NuSTAR and Swift observations (Patruno et al. 2014) show the following characteristics that need to be explained by any theoretical interpretation:

1. luminosity variations from $\approx 5 \times 10^{32}$ erg s$^{-1}$ in the low states to a nominal average level of $\approx 6 \times 10^{33}$ erg s$^{-1}$,
2. nonperiodic occurrence, uniformly distributed over orbital phase,
3. nearly flat intensity in the bottom of the dip, with no significant hardness ratio change,
4. ingress and egress timescales between 10 and 60 s,
5. no correlation between dip width and the separation to either the previous or next dip,
6. a log-normal distribution of dip separations, as shown in Figure 15, and
7. a decreasing distribution in dip widths as shown in Figure 16.

This dipping activity is unlike activity observed in other similar systems, namely PSR J1824–2452I (Papitto et al. 2014a) and XSS J1127.0–4859 (de Martino et al. 2013). In the 0.3–10 keV range, XMM-Newton observations of PSR J1824–2452I revealed sharp spectral changes as a function of count rate (Ferrigno et al. 2014). The ingress and egress timescales of these dips were about 200 s, the dip widths were up to a few thousand seconds, and the low-state luminosity was $\approx 10^{35}$ erg s$^{-1}$. The dips were interpreted as abrupt interruptions in accretion of matter onto the surface (“weak” and “strong” propeller regimes; Illarionov & Sunyaev 1975; Ustyugova et al. 2006), reducing the X-ray luminosity and revealing partially obscured thermal emission from the neutron star surface. Linares et al. (2014) reported that archival Chandra observations of PSR J1824–2452I in quiescence defined as $L_X/L_{\text{Edd}} \approx 10^{-4}$ revealed changes between active ($L_X(0.3–10 \text{ keV}) = 3.9 \times 10^{33}$ erg s$^{-1}$) and passive ($5.6 \times 10^{32}$ erg s$^{-1}$) states with no change in the power-law spectral index ($\Gamma = 1.5$). The transitions between the two states occurred on timescales of 500 s, and the states lasted for $\approx 10$ hr. The authors suggested that the state changes were caused by two different nonthermal emission mechanisms that coincidentally led to the same spectra: the high states being explained by magnetospheric accretion and the low states being attributed to intrabinary shock emission. Similar state change behavior observed in the quiescent LMXB EXO 1745–28 in Terzan 5 was also attributed to variations in accretion rates (Degenaar & Wijnands 2012).

de Martino et al. (2013) observed dips with ingress and egress fast timescales ($\lesssim 10$ s) in XMM-Newton observations of XSS J1227.0–4859 with dip widths between 200 and 800 s. These dips were observed in the X-ray and near-UV bands but were absent in the ground-based optical observations, suggesting an origin close to the neutron star. The authors attributed dips occurring immediately after flares to sudden accretion onto the neutron star (the flare and the corresponding emptying (the dip) and filling up of the inner regions of the accretion disk. Attempting to interpret the other dips as eclipses (as in the case of LMXB dippers Church & Balucinska-Church 2004) with dense absorbing material covering a significant fraction of the X-ray source (i.e., the inner disk corona) did not lead to practical results, apart from the lack of periodicity.

Recently, Chakrabarty et al. (2014) reported highly variable flickering from Cen X-4 during recent observations where the
**NuSTAR**-band luminosity was $\approx 2 \times 10^{32}$ erg s$^{-1}$. While no dips or eclipses were observed during the observation, variability up to a factor of 20 on timescales of minutes to hours without significant spectral variability was observed. While Cen X-4 has not been directly observed to transition between an LMXB-like to a rotation-powered state, there may be some spectral evidence for such a change in archival data (Chakrabarty et al. 2014). With the caveat of a small sample, it may be that such variability phenomena may be specific to the $10^{32}–10^{33}$ erg s$^{-1}$ luminosity range, where the systems transition between an LMXB-like and a rotation-powered MSP state.

In our data, the low luminosity (item 1, above), sets them apart from dips occurring due to interrupted accretion onto the neutron star surface. Item 2 makes our observations inconsistent with an association with the binary orbit or a specific radius in the accretion disk. Similarly, the orbital radii corresponding to the 10 s and 100 s timescales are 7800 km and 36,000 km, respectively, far larger than the expected location of hard X-ray source near the light-cylinder radius, $r_{\text{lc}} = 81$ km. Item 3 rules out eclipses due to optically thin material, suggesting instead either a change in the source brightness or an eclipse with a dense blob of material. However, the latter hypothesis is unlikely because the dense material would be expected to come to dynamical and thermal equilibrium with its surroundings in timescales of $t_{\text{dynamical}} \approx \alpha_{\text{thermal}} \approx (H/R)^2 \tau_{\text{viscous}}$ (see Equation (5.68); Frank et al. 2002), where $\alpha$ is the Shakura–Sunyaev parameterization of disk viscosity (Shakura & Sunyaev 1973) and $H$ and $R$ are the disk height and radius, respectively. The viscous timescale of the inner disk is estimated to be $\sim 10–100$ s (see Patruno et al. 2014), and as $H/R < 1$ for an expected thin disk, we expect these timescales to be very short.

Given the lack of change in the hardness ratio, it is possible that these variations are due to clumpy wind from the pulsar or clumpy accretion flow from the companion star. The viscous timescale of the inner disk ($\sim 10–100$ s) is similar to the observed ingress and egress timescales (item 4). A possible explanation may involve the inner disk being pushed back and re-formed on these timescales. The reduced mass transfer rate could diminish the source photon density available for Comptonization without significantly affecting the optical depth and electron temperature (and hence the power-law index $\Gamma$). However, it remains to be understood (1) what mechanism would cause the disk to cycle through these states repeatedly, (2) why the ingress and egress timescales are symmetrical, and (3) why there is no correlation between the dip width and separation (item 5). It would be interesting to understand how these changes occur at a fast timescale in PSR J1023+0038 as compared to the long timescale state changes observed in PSR J1824–24521 (Ferrigno et al. 2014) and how they are affected by the accretion state and luminosity of the system. Items 6 and 7 are stated for completeness and need to be considered by a more detailed theoretical explanation but are outside the scope of this discussion.

Another candidate explanation invokes interrupted mass donations from the donor star that propagate through the accretion disk and are observed as dips. However, this scenario is unlikely because (1) it is unlikely for the donor star to vary at 10–100 s timescale unless some seismological/tidal modes are active, in which case, periodicity would be expected; (2) the gaps propagating through the accretion disk would diffuse, leading to long ingress and egress timescales; and (3) the gap propagation from the outer to inner disk would have been observed in different energies at different times, leading to varying hardness ratios.

The well-measured distance of PSR J1023+0038 (1.3 kpc; Deller et al. 2012) is much less than the typical 7–8 kpc distances of other neutron star LMXBs (Jonker & Nelemans 2004), making it a unique and important case study because it allows us to pursue detailed spectral and timing analyses at extremely low luminosity states that are unobservable for most other LMXB sources. Further monitoring of this source is warranted to reveal previously unobserved details of the transitions between LMXBs and MSPs.

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