We report on the Fermi-LAT observations of the Geminga pulsar, the second brightest non-variable GeV source in the γ-ray sky and the first example of a radio-quiet γ-ray pulsar. The observations cover one year, from the launch of the Fermi satellite through 2009 June 15. A data sample of over 60,000 photons enabled us to build a timing solution based solely on γ-rays. Timing analysis shows two prominent peaks, separated by Δφ = 0.497 ± 0.004 in phase, which narrow with increasing energy. Pulsed γ-rays are observed beyond 18 GeV, precluding emission below 2.7 stellar radii because of magnetic absorption. The phase-averaged spectrum was fitted with a power law with exponential cutoff of spectral index Γ = (1.50 ± 0.01 ± 0.04), cutoff energy E_c = (2.46 ± 0.04 ± 0.17) GeV, and an integral photon flux above 0.1 GeV of (4.14 ± 0.02 ± 0.32) × 10^{-6} cm^{-2} s^{-1}. The first uncertainties are statistical and the second ones are systematic. The phase-resolved spectroscopy shows a clear evolution of the spectral parameters, with the spectral index reaching a minimum value just before the leading peak and the cutoff energy having maxima around the peaks. The phase-resolved spectroscopy reveals that pulsar emission is present at all rotational phases. The spectral shape, broad pulse profile, and maximum photon energy favor the outer magnetospheric emission scenarios.

Key words: gamma rays: stars – pulsars: general – pulsars: individual (PSR J0633+1746, Geminga)

Online-only material: color figures

1. INTRODUCTION

The Geminga pulsar is the second brightest non-variable GeV γ-ray source in the sky and the first representative of a population of radio-quiet γ-ray pulsars. Since its discovery as a γ-ray source by SAS-2, more than thirty years ago (Fichtel et al. 1975; Kniffen et al. 1975), Geminga has been alternatively considered as a unique object or as the prototype of a population of hidden dead stars. Fermi has now settled this question with the discovery (Abdo et al. 2009g) of a substantial population of potentially radio-quiet pulsars, of which Geminga was indeed the harbinger.

Geminga was then observed by the COS B γ-ray telescope (Bennett et al. 1977; Masmou et al. 1981), appearing as 2CG 195+04 in the second COS B catalog (Swanenburg et al. 1981) and eventually acquiring the name Geminga (Bignami et al. 1983). The X-ray source 1E 0630+178 detected by the Einstein Observatory in the COS B error box (Bignami et al. 1983) was proposed as a possible counterpart, and subsequently an optical candidate was found within the Einstein error box (Bignami et al. 1987), which was the bluest object in the field (Halpern & Tytler 1988; Bignami et al. 1988).

The subsequent ROSAT detection of periodic X-rays from this source (Halpern & Holt 1992) prompted a successful search for periodicity in high-energy γ-rays with EGRET (Bertsch et al. 1992).

Geminga has a period of 237 ms and a very stable period derivative of 1.1 × 10^{-14} s^{-1} that characterize it as a mature pulsar with characteristic age of 3 × 10^5 yr and spin-down luminosity $\dot{E} = 3.26 \times 10^{32}$ erg s^{-1}.

The determination of the period derivative allowed detection of γ-ray pulsations in the previous COS B (Bignami & Caraveo 1992) and SAS-2 data (Mattox et al. 1992). Meanwhile, a high proper motion of 170 mas yr^{-1} for the faint $n_v = 25.5$ optical counterpart was found, confirming the object to be both underluminous and no more than few hundred parsec away (Bignami et al. 1993). Using Hubble Space Telescope (HST), Caraveo et al. (1996) obtained a parallax distance for Geminga of 157^{+34}_{-30} pc. A comprehensive review of the history of the identification of Geminga can be found in Bignami & Caraveo (1996).

Subsequently, high-resolution astrometry with the Hipparcos mission allowed for a 40 mas absolute positioning of Geminga (Caraveo et al. 1998). Such accurate positioning, together with the source proper motion, was used by Mattox et al. (1998) to improve the quality of the timing solution of the pulsar. Recent parallax and proper motion measurements confirm the earlier results, yielding a distance of 250^{+68}_{-62} pc and a proper motion of \(178.2 \pm 0.4\) mas yr^{-1} (Faherty et al. 2007).

Analysis of EGRET data showed a double-peaked light curve with a peak separation of \(\sim 0.5\) in phase (Mayer-Hasselwander et al. 1994; Fierro et al. 1998). The Geminga spectrum measured...
by EGRET was compatible with a power law with a fallow at \( \sim 2 \) GeV, but the limited EGRET statistics did not allow a measurement of the cutoff energy. Deep X-ray observations allowed XMM-Newton and Chandra to map the neutron star surface as it rotates, bringing into view different regions contributing different spectral components (Caraveo et al. 2004; De Luca et al. 2005; Jackson & Halpern 2005) as well as an arcmin-scale bow shock feature trailing the pulsar’s motion (Caraveo et al. 2003; De Luca et al. 2006). A synchrotron origin of such a non-thermal diffuse X-ray emission trailing the pulsar implies the presence of high-energy electrons \( (E > 10^{14} \text{ eV}, \text{a value close to the upper energy limit for pulsar wind electrons in Geminga}) \) diffusing in a 10 \( \mu \)G magnetic field.

Even though Geminga has been one of the most intensively studied isolated neutron stars during the last thirty years, it remains of current interest, especially at \( \gamma \)-ray energies where its narrow-peaked light curve allows precise timing studies. Thus, it comes as no surprise that Geminga has been a prime target for the \( \gamma \)-ray instruments currently in operation: AGILE (Tavani et al. 2009) and the Large Area Telescope (LAT) on the Fermi mission (Atwood et al. 2009). Following its launch, the LAT was confirmed to be an excellent instrument for pulsar studies, observing the bright Vela pulsar (Abdo et al. 2009a) and discovering a variety of new \( \gamma \)-ray pulsars (Abdo et al. 2009b, 2009c, 2009d, 2009e), including millisecond \( \gamma \)-ray pulsars (Abdo et al. 2009f) and a population of Geminga-like pulsars detected with blind search techniques (Abdo et al. 2009g). In this paper, we present the analysis of the Geminga pulsar based on the excellent statistics collected during the first year of operations of the Fermi mission.

2. \( \gamma \)-RAY OBSERVATIONS

The LAT aboard Fermi is an electron–positron pair conversion telescope sensitive to \( \gamma \)-rays of energies from 20 MeV to >300 GeV. The LAT is made of a high-resolution silicon microstrip tracker, a CsI hodoscopic electromagnetic calorimeter, and an anticoincidence detector for charged particles background identification. The full description of the instrument and its performance can be found in Atwood et al. (2009).

The LAT has a large effective area (peaking at \( \sim 8000 \text{ cm}^2 \) on axis), and thanks to its field of view (\( \sim 2.4 \) sr) it covers the entire sky every two orbits (\( \sim 3 \) hr). The LAT point-spread function (PSF) strongly depends on both the energy and the conversion point in the tracker, but less on the incidence angle. For 1 GeV normal incidence conversions in the upper section of the tracker, the PSF 68% containment radius is 0.6.

The data used in this paper roughly span the first year of operations after the launch of Fermi on 2008 June 11. The data used for the timing analysis encompass the Launch and Early Operations (L&EO), covering \( \sim 2 \) months after 2008 June 25, when the LAT was operated in pointing and scanning mode for check-out and calibration purposes, and extend into the first year of nominal operations up to 2009 June 15. For the spectral analysis, we selected only data collected in scanning mode, under nominal configuration, from 2008 August 4 to 2009 June 15. We selected photons in the “diffuse” event class (lowest background contamination; see Atwood et al. 2009), and we excluded observations when Geminga was viewed at zenith angles >105° where Earth’s albedo \( \gamma \)-rays increase the background contamination. We also excluded time intervals when the 15° region Of interest (ROI) intersects the Earth’s albedo region.

3. TIMING GEMINGA USING \( \gamma \)-RAYS

Since the end of the EGRET mission, the Geminga timing ephemerides has been maintained using occasional observations with XMM-Newton (Jackson & Halpern 2005; J. Halpern 2009, private communication). While AGILE relied on such X-ray ephemerides (Pelizzoni et al. 2009), LAT’s densely sampled, high-precision timing observations yielded an independent timing solution. In fact, the LAT timing is derived from a GPS clock on the spacecraft and times of arrival (TOAs) of \( \gamma \)-rays are recorded with an accuracy significantly better than 1 \( \mu \)s (Abdo et al. 2009h). We have constructed a timing solution for Geminga using the Fermi-LAT data exclusively. For this analysis, we assumed a constant location for the Geminga pulsar calculated at the center of the time span of the LAT data set (MJD 54800) using the position reported by Caraveo et al. (1998) and updated according to the source proper motion (Faherty et al. 2007).

We determined an initial, approximate ephemeris using an epoch-folding search. We then measured pulse TOAs by first converting the photon event times to a reference point at the geocenter using the Fermi science tool\(^{60}\) gtbary, then computing a pulse profile using phases generated using TEMPO2 (Hobbs et al. 2006) in its predictive mode. The timing accuracy of gtbary was demonstrated in Smith et al. (2008). This was done with \( \sim 22 \) day segments of data. TOAs were determined from each segment using a Fourier-domain cross-correlation with a high signal-to-noise template profile. We obtained 16 TOAs in this way from 2008 June 25 to 2009 June 15. We fit these TOAs, again using TEMPO2, to a model with only absolute phase, frequency, and frequency first derivative as free parameters. The residuals to the model have an rms of 251 \( \mu \)s, as shown in Figure 1, and the model parameters are listed in Table 1.

The epoch of phase 0.0 given in Table 1 is defined so that the phase of the first component of the Fourier transform of the light curve has 0 phase. However, in order to assign a smaller phase to the leading peak, we introduced an additional phase shift of 0.5 to the timing solution in Table 1. Thus, in the light curve shown in Figure 2, the epoch of phase 0.0 is the barycentric arrival time MJD(TDB) corresponding to phase 0.5.

\(^{60}\) http://fermi.gsfc.nasa.gov/ssc/data/analysis/scitools/overview.html
4. RESULTS

4.1. Light Curves

The strong energy dependence of the PSF imposes energy-dependent ROIs that optimize the signal-to-noise ratio. Following a procedure similar to that used for the Fermi-LAT pulsar catalog paper (Abdo et al. 2009i), to study the pulse profiles we selected photons within an angle $\theta < \max[1.6-3\log_{10}(E_{\text{GeV}}), 1.3]$ deg from Geminga. Such selection avoids the pulsar-related regions and still keeps the flux above the background.

We used the Fermi tool gpphase to correct photon arrival times to the solar system barycenter using the JPL DE405 solar system ephemeris (Standish 1998) and to assign a rotational phase to each photon using the timing solution described in Section 3.

Figure 2 shows the light curve of Geminga above 0.1 GeV obtained with the energy-dependent cut. In order to better show the fine structure, we plot the pulse profile using variable-width phase bins, each one containing 400 events. The photon flux in each phase interval thus has a $\sigma$ Poisson statistical error of 5%. The dashed line represents the contribution of the diffuse background estimated by selecting photons in this “second interpeak” interval in an annulus around the source.

4.2. Energy Dependence

The pulse profile shows two clear peaks at $\phi = 0.141 \pm 0.002$ (P1) and $\phi = 0.638 \pm 0.003$ (P2). In order to reveal possible asymmetries in the peaks, we started by fitting the sharp peaks with two half-Lorentzian profiles with different widths for the trailing and the leading edge. We have chosen this function because it has a simple parameterization and appears to fit well the pulse profile of the gamma-ray light curves. We found that Geminga peaks show no asymmetries, and P1 is broader (FWHM of 0.072 $\pm 0.002$) than P2 (FWHM of 0.061 $\pm 0.001$). We also checked if the peaks can be better fitted by a Gaussian profile, finding comparable results (P1 FWHM of 0.071 $\pm 0.001$) and (P1 FWHM of 0.063 $\pm 0.001$), though we cannot distinguish between a Lorentzian or a Gaussian profile.

The smallest features in the pulse profile appear on a scale of 260 $\mu$s, presumably artifacts of the timing model residuals. Figure 2 also contains insets (binned to 0.00125 in phase) centered on the two peaks and on the phase interval $\phi = 0.9–1.0$. This off-peak, or “second interpeak,” region contains 789 $\pm 120$ pulsed photons above the estimated background ($\sim 13 \times 10^{-2}$ of the pulsed flux). This corresponds to a signal-to-noise ratio of 19$\sigma$, indicating that the pulsar emission also extends in the off-peak, as will be investigated further in Section 4.3.

Figure 3 shows the pulse profile in five energy ranges (0.1–0.3 GeV, 0.3–1 GeV, 1–3 GeV, 3–10 GeV, and >10 GeV). Each light curve is shown over two pulse periods and contains 100 bins per period $^{-1}$.

4.3. Periodicity

There is a clear evolution of the light-curve shape with energy: P1 becomes weaker with increasing energy, while P2 is still detectable at high energies. Significant pulsations from P2 are detectable at energies beyond $E_{\text{max}} \sim 18$ GeV, chosen as the maximum energy beyond which a $\chi^2$ periodicity test still attains $6\sigma$ significance. We detect 16 photons above 18 GeV, not necessarily coming from the pulsar itself. No particular features...
Figure 4. Evolution of the ratio P1/P2 with energy, plotted in variable-width energy bins, each one containing 10,000 events.

Figure 5. Evolution with energy of the FWHM of P1 (bottom) and P2 (top), plotted in variable-width energy bins, each one containing 10,000 events. Both peaks narrow at increasing energies.

Figure 6. Phase-averaged spectral energy distribution (SED) of the Geminga pulsar. The solid line represents the best-fit power law with exponential cutoff (i.e., $b = 1$), while the dashed one represents the best-fit power law with exponential cutoff with free exponential index (in this case, the result is $b = 0.81$). The LAT spectral points (open circles) are obtained using the maximum-likelihood method described in Section 4.2.

Figure 7. Phase evolution of the spectral index (top) and energy cutoff (bottom) above 0.1 GeV as the function of the pulse phase, divided in phase bins each containing 2000 photons. Vertical bars indicate the combined statistical and systematic uncertainties. For each phase interval (defined in Table 3 in the Appendix), a power law with exponential cutoff has been assumed. The dashed histogram represents the Fermi-LAT light curve above 0.1 GeV in variable-width phase bins of 2000 photons bin$^{-1}$.

appearance at high energies in the bridge region between P1 and P2 (“first interpeak”).

Figure 4 shows the evolution of the P1/P2 ratio as a function of energy, plotted using variable-width energy bins. The curve depends very weakly on the bin choice; Figure 4 was made using 10,000 events per bin. A clear decreasing trend is visible, as observed in the Crab, Vela, and PSR B1951+32 γ-ray pulsars by EGRET (Thompson 2004) and now confirmed for the Vela (Abdo et al. 2009a) and the Crab pulsars (Abdo et al. 2010c) by Fermi-LAT. Adopting the same variable-width energy bins, we fit the peaks in each energy range with a Lorentz function to determine the peak center and width. Figure 5 shows the energy evolution of the FWHM of P1 and P2: both peaks narrow with increasing energy. The decreasing trend in pulse width of P1 and P2 is nearly identical. P1 has an FWHM decreasing from...
Figure 8. Maps representing the phase interval ($\phi = 0.0–0.9$, top row) compared to the second interpeak ($\phi = 0.9–1.0$, bottom row), in the two energy bands $0.1–2$ GeV and $>2$ GeV. Each map represents the photons within 7$^\circ$ from Geminga, binned in pixels of 0.045 (top row) and 0.09 (bottom row), smoothed with a Gaussian filter with a radius of 2 pixels. In the upper left panel, we reported the right ascension in the horizontal axis and the declination in the vertical axis. Bottom row shows that the off-peak point source image is visible at low energies but vanishes at $E > 2$ GeV due to the spectral cutoff.

$\delta \phi = 0.098 \pm 0.004$ to $\delta \phi = 0.053 \pm 0.008$, while FWHM of $P2$ changes from $\delta \phi = 0.092 \pm 0.004$ to $\delta \phi = 0.044 \pm 0.004$ at energies greater than 3 GeV. The decrease in width with energy does not depend on the shape used to fit the peaks. Figure 8 was made using the Lorentzian fits, preferred in general because they are sensitive to asymmetric pulses. While the “first interpeak” emission is significantly detected up to 10 GeV, emission in the “second interpeak” region (between 0.9 and 1.0), not detected before, is clearly present at low energies but vanishes above $\sim 2$ GeV.

4.2. Energy Spectrum

Spectral analysis was performed using the maximum-likelihood estimator gllike included in the standard Fermi Science Tools provided by the FSSC. The fit was performed using a region of the sky with a radius of 15$^\circ$ around the pulsar position, selecting energies between 0.1 and 100 GeV.

We included in the fit a model accounting for the diffuse emission as well as for the nearby $\gamma$-ray sources. We modeled the diffuse foreground, including Galactic interstellar emission (Casandjian & Grenier 2008; Strong et al. 2004a, 2004b), extragalactic $\gamma$-ray emission, and residual CR background, using the models$^{61}$ gll_iem_v02 for the Galactic part and isotropic_iem_v02 for the isotropic one.

In the fit procedure, we fixed the spectral parameters of all the sources between 15$^\circ$ and 20$^\circ$ from Geminga, and left free the normalization factor of all the sources within 15$^\circ$. All the non-pulsar sources have been modeled with a power law as reported in the Fermi Bright Source List (Abdo et al. 2009i), while all the pulsars have been described by a power law with exponential cutoff according to the data reported in the Fermi-LAT pulsar catalog (Abdo et al. 2009i).

We integrated the phase-averaged spectrum to obtain the energy flux. The unbinned gllike fit is described by a power law with exponential cutoff in the form:

$$\frac{dN}{dE} = N_0 E^{-\Gamma} \exp\left(-\frac{E}{E_0}\right) \text{cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \text{GeV}^{-1},$$

where $N_0 = (1.189 \pm 0.013 \pm 0.070) \times 10^{-9} \text{cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \text{GeV}^{-1}$, $\Gamma = (1.30 \pm 0.01 \pm 0.04)$, and $E_0 = (2.46 \pm 0.04 \pm 0.17)$ GeV.

The first uncertainties are statistical values for the fit parameters, while the second ones are systematic uncertainties. Systematics are mainly based on uncertainties on the LAT effective area derived from the on-orbit estimations, and are $\leq 5\%$ near 1 GeV, $10\%$ below 0.1 GeV, and $20\%$ above 10 GeV. We therefore propagate these uncertainties using modified effective areas bracketing the nominal ones (P6.v3_diffuse).

For this fit, over the range 0.1–100 GeV, we obtained an integral photon flux of $(4.14 \pm 0.02 \pm 0.32) \times 10^{-6} \text{cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ and a corresponding energy flux of $(4.11 \pm 0.02 \pm 0.27) \times 10^{-9} \text{erg cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$.

We studied alternative spectral shapes beginning with the cutoff function $\exp[-(E/E_0)^b]$. The 46 gamma-ray pulsars discussed in Abdo et al. (2010a) are generally well described by a simple exponential cutoff, $b = 1$, a shape predicted by outer magnetosphere emission models (see Section 5). Models where gamma-ray emission occurs closer to the neutron star can

\[http://fermi.gsfc.nasa.gov/ssc/data/access/lat/BackgroundModels.html\]
have sharper “super-exponential” cutoffs, e.g., $b = 2$. Leaving free the exponential index $b$, we obtained $N_0 = (1.59 \pm 0.13 \pm 0.09) \times 10^{-9}$ cm$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ GeV$^{-1}$, $\Gamma = (1.18 \pm 0.03 \pm 0.04)$ GeV, $E_0 = 1.58 \pm 0.19 \pm 0.11$ GeV, and $b = (0.81 \pm 0.03 \pm 0.06)$. As previously reported for the analysis of the Vela pulsar (Abdo et al. 2010b), $b < 1$ can be interpreted by a blend of $b = 1$ spectra with different cutoff energies. Figure 6 shows the results of the phase-averaged spectrum in case of $b$ free (dashed line) and $b$ fixed to 1 (solid line). Using the likelihood ratio test, we found that the hypothesis of $b = 2$ can be excluded since the likelihood of this fit being a good representation of the data is much greater than for a power-law fit (logarithm of the likelihood ratio being 396). We have also tried different spectral shapes, like a broken power law, but the fit quality does not improve (the logarithm of the likelihood ratio being 212).

4.3. Phase-resolved Analysis

We divided the pulse profile in variable-width phase bins, each one containing 2000 photons according to the energy-dependent cut defined in Section 4.1. This choice of binning provides a reasonable compromise between the number of photons needed to perform a spectral fit and the length of the phase intervals that should be short enough to sample fine details on the light curve, while remaining comfortably larger than the rms of the timing solution (Section 3). We have performed a maximum-likelihood spectral analysis, similar to the phase-averaged one, in each phase bin assuming a power law with exponential cutoff describing the spectral shape. Using the likelihood ratio test, we checked that we can reject the power law at a significance level greater than $5\sigma$ in each phase interval. Following the results on phase-averaged analysis of Geminga, we have modeled the spectrum in each phase interval with a power law with exponential cutoff. Such a model yields a robust fit with a logarithm of the likelihood ratio greater than 430 in each phase interval. Figure 7 (below) shows the evolution of the spectral parameters across Geminga’s rotational phase. In particular, the energy cutoff trend provides a good estimate of the high-energy emission variation as a function of the pulsar phase. Table 3 summarizes the results of the spectral fit in each phase bin. In this case, we have fixed all the spectral parameters of all the nearby $\gamma$-ray sources and of the two diffuse backgrounds to the values obtained in the phase-averaged analysis, rescaled for the phase bin width.

To obtain Fermi-LAT spectral points, we divided our sample into logarithmically spaced energy bins (four bins per decade starting from 100 MeV) and then applied the maximum-likelihood spectral analysis, similar to the phase-averaged one, in each phase bin assuming a power law with exponential cutoff describing the spectral shape. Using the likelihood ratio test, we checked that we can reject the power law at a significance level greater than $5\sigma$ in each phase interval. Following the results on phase-averaged analysis of Geminga, we have modeled the spectrum in each phase interval with a power law with exponential cutoff. Such a model yields a robust fit with a logarithm of the likelihood ratio greater than 430 in each phase interval. Figure 7 (below) shows the evolution of the spectral parameters across Geminga’s rotational phase. In particular, the energy cutoff trend provides a good estimate of the high-energy emission variation as a function of the pulsar phase. Table 3 summarizes the results of the spectral fit in each phase bin. In this case, we have fixed all the spectral parameters of all the nearby $\gamma$-ray sources and of the two diffuse backgrounds to the values obtained in the phase-averaged analysis, rescaled for the phase bin width.

![Figure 9. Phase-resolved SEDs of the Geminga pulsar in the phase range $\phi = 0.0-0.206$. The spectral parameters of each of these spectral distributions can be found in Table 3. The fluxes are not normalized to the phase bin width, whereas in Table 3 the fluxes are normalized. The curves represent the best-fit power law with exponential cutoff, while the LAT spectral points (open circles) are obtained using the maximum-likelihood method described in Section 4.2.](image-url)
likelihood method in each bin. For each energy bin, we have used a model with all the nearby sources as well as Geminga described by a power law with a fixed spectral index. We have considered only energy bins in which the source significance was greater than $3\sigma$. From the fit results, we then evaluated the integral flux in each energy bin. This method does not take energy dispersion into account and correlations among the energy bins. To obtain the points of the spectral energy distributions (SEDs), we multiplied each bin by the mean energy value of the bin taking into account the spectral function obtained by the overall fit. Figures 9–12 in the Appendix show the SEDs obtained in each phase interval. The fluxes in $y$-axis are not normalized to the phase bin width, whereas in Table 3 of the Appendix the fluxes are normalized.

Figure 7 shows the phase evolution of the spectral index and cutoff energy, respectively. The spectral index reaches a local minimum around P1 ($\phi \sim 0.14–0.15$) and, after a sudden increase, begins to decrease again in the “first interpeak” region, reaching a minimum of $\Gamma \sim 1.1$ around the leading edge of P2 ($\phi \sim 0.60–0.61$). It then starts to rise again in the phase interval from P2 to the “second interpeak” region ($\phi = 0.9–1.0$).

The cutoff energy evolves quite differently as a function of the rotational phase. It closely follows the pulse profile, thus confirming the observations performed by EGRET (Fierro et al. 1998), which unveiled a correlation between hardness ratio and pulse profile. As shown in EGRET data and recently confirmed by AGILE (Pellizzoni et al. 2009), the hardest component is P2: our phase-resolved scan points to a cutoff around 3 GeV and a spectral index of $\sim 1.0$ that become softer through the peak. P1 appears to be softer, with a cutoff energy slightly greater than 2 GeV and a spectral index $\Gamma \sim 1.2$.

The phase-resolved spectra show that Geminga’s emission in the bridge (or “first interpeak”) phase interval ($\phi = 0.2–0.5$) is quite different from the Crab (Abdo et al. 2010c) or Vela pulsars (Fierro et al. 1998; Abdo et al. 2009a). For the Crab pulsar, the bridge emission shows no evolution and drops to an intensity level comparable to the off pulse emission, while for the Vela pulsar it varies substantially but is always seen at high energies. The “first interpeak” of Geminga, instead, becomes harder and remains quite strong at high energies, as can also be seen in Figure 3. Another difference with respect to the Vela pulsar is that Geminga does not have a third peak like the one observed at GeV energies in the Vela pulsar (Abdo et al. 2009a).

The analysis of the “second interpeak” region around $\phi = 0.9–1.0$ shows significant emission up to $\sim 2$ GeV (Figure 3). Moreover, the spectrum in this phase interval has been fit with a power law with exponential cutoff, obtaining a spectral index $\Gamma = (1.48 \pm 0.17)$ and $E_0 = (0.87 \pm 0.19)$ GeV, with systematic
Furthermore, the detection of off-peak emission, rendered possible by the outstanding Fermi statistics, is a novelty of Geminga’s high-energy behavior.

5. DISCUSSION

5.1. Light Curves and Beam Geometry

The unprecedented photon statistics collected by Fermi-LAT allows for tighter observational constraints on emission models. The absence of radio emission characterizing Geminga clearly favors models where the high-energy emission occurs in the outer magnetosphere of the pulsar.

Polar Cap (PC) models, where the high-energy emission is located near the neutron star surface (Daugherty & Harding 1996), are unlikely to explain the Geminga pulsar, since the line of sight is necessarily close to the magnetic axis for such models where one expects to see radio emission.

The current evidence against low-altitude emission in γ-ray pulsars (Abdo et al. 2009i) can also be supplemented by constraints on a separate physical origin. In PC models, γ-rays created near the neutron star surface interact with the high magnetic fields of the pulsar, producing sharp cutoffs in the few to ~10 GeV energy regime. Moreover, the maximum observed energy of the pulsed photons observed must lie below the γ–B pair production mechanism threshold, providing a lower bound to the altitude of the γ-ray emission. According to Baring (2004), the lower limit for the altitude of the production region could be estimated taking advantage of the maximum energy detected for pulsed photons $\epsilon_{\max}$ as $r \geq (\epsilon_{\max} B_{12}/1.76 \text{ GeV})^{1/2} P^{-1/2} R_*/B_{12}$, where $P$ is the spin period, $R_*$ is the stellar radius, and $B_{12}$ is the surface magnetic field in units of $10^{12}$ G. For pulsed photons of $\epsilon_{\max} \sim 18 \text{ GeV}$, we obtain $r_{\min} \geq 2.7 R_*$, a value clearly precluding emission very near the stellar surface, adding to the uncertainties in agreement with those evaluated in the phase-averaged analysis. A pure power-law fit can be rejected with an $\sim 3\sigma$ confidence level, thus confirming the presence of the cutoff. The presence of the “second interpeak” component is also visible in the maps of Figure 8, where the emission in this phase region is not visible at high energies, as expected owing to the spectral cutoff.

Analyzing the phase evolution of the spectral parameters in Figure 7, it seems that no abrupt changes occur in this phase interval and that this emission may be related to the wings of the peaks. This fact, together with the newly detected off-peak emission, favors a pulsar origin of such “second interpeak” emission, rather than an origin in a surrounding region. The detection of off-peak emission, rendered possible by the outstanding Fermi statistics, is a novelty of Geminga’s high-energy behavior.

Figure 11. Phase-resolved SEDs of the Geminga pulsar in the phase range $\phi = 0.502–0.643$.

(A color version of this figure is available in the online journal.)
advocacy for a slot gap (SG) or outer gap (OG) acceleration locale for the emission in this pulsar.

OG models (Cheng et al. 1986; Romani 1996; Zhang & Cheng 2001), where the high-energy emission extends between the null charge surface and the light cylinder, the two-pole caustic (TPC) models (Dyks & Rudak 2003) associated with SG (Muslimov & Harding 2004), where the emission is located along the last open field lines between the neutron star surface and the light cylinder, or a striped wind model (Pétri 2009), where the open field lines between the neutron star surface and the light cylinder, or a striped wind model (Pétri 2009), where the emission originates outside the light cylinder, could produce the observed light curve and spectrum. Nevertheless, the observed peak separation of 0.5 is unlikely for a middle-aged pulsar like Geminga in the OG model, if it is true that emission moves to field lines closer to the magnetic axis as pulsars age. For the OG model, this drift leads to <0.5 peak separations. For the TPC models, 0.5 peak separation can occur in spite of this shift, that is, for all ages and spin-down luminosities.

Following the Atlas of γ-ray light curves compiled by Watters et al. (2009), we can use Geminga’s light curve to estimate, for each model, the star’s emission parameters, namely, the Earth viewing angle ζE with respect to the neutron star spin axis and the inclination angle α between the star’s magnetic and rotation axes. Table 2 summarizes the observed parameters and gives the estimated beaming correction factor fΩ(α, ζE), which is model-sensitive. It is given by Watters et al. (2009) as

\[
fΩ(α, ζE) = \int F_γ(α; ζ, φ) \sin(ζ)dζdφ / 2 \int F_γ(α; ζE, φ)dφ,
\]

where \(F_γ(α; ζ, φ)\) is the radiated flux as a function of the viewing angle ζ and the pulsar phase φ. In this equation, the numerator is the total emission over the full sky, and the denominator is the expected phase-averaged flux for the light curve seen from Earth.

The total luminosity radiated by the pulsar is then given by

\[
L_γ = 4π fΩF_{\text{obs}}D^2,
\]

where \(F_{\text{obs}}\) is the observed phase-averaged energy flux over 100 MeV and \(D = 250^{+62}_{−120}\) pc is the

![Figure 12. Phase-resolved SEDs of the Geminga pulsar in the phase range φ = 0.643–1.0.](image)

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

| Model | α (°) | ζE (°) | fΩ |
|-------|-------|--------|-----|
| TPC   | 30–80 | 90, 55–80 | 0.7–0.9, 0.6–0.8 |
| OG    | 10–25 | 85     | 0.1–0.15 |

Table 2
Earth Viewing Angles ζE, Inclination Angles α, and Beaming Factor fΩ for Geminga, as Predicted by Watters et al. (2009) for Outer Gap (OG) and Two-pole Caustic (TPC) Models.
pulsar distance (Faherty et al. 2007). The estimated averaged luminosity is then $L_\gamma = 3.1 \times 10^{34} f_{\Omega} \text{erg s}^{-1}$, yielding a $\gamma$-ray efficiency $\eta_\gamma = L_\gamma / T = 0.15 f_{\Omega} (d/100 \text{pc})^2$.

Ideally, geometrical values in Table 2 should be compared with independent estimates, coming, e.g., from radio polarization or from the geometry of the pulsar wind nebula (Ng & Romani 2004, 2008).

Owing to the lack of radio emission, the only geometrical constraints available for Geminga come from the X-ray observations which have unveiled a faint bow shock structure due to the pulsar motion in the interstellar medium (Caraveo et al. 2003) and an inner tail structure (De Luca et al. 2006; Pavlović et al. 2006), while phase-resolved spectroscopy yielded a glimpse of the geometry of the emitting regions as the neutron star rotates (Caraveo et al. 2004).

The shape of the bow shock feature constrains its inclination to be less than $30^\circ$ with respect to the plane of the sky. Since such a feature is driven by the neutron star proper motion, the constraint also applies to the pulsar proper motion vector and thus, presumably, to its rotation axis, as is the case for the Vela pulsar (Caraveo et al. 2001), pointing to an Earth viewing angle ranging from $60^\circ$ to $90^\circ$.

Analyzing the pulsar spectral components along its rotational phase, Caraveo et al. (2004) concluded that the observed behavior could be explained in the frame of an almost aligned rotator seen at high inclination.

However rough, such constraints would definitely favor the OG model pointing to a beaming factor of 0.1–0.15. Such a value turns out to also be in agreement with the heuristic luminosity law $\eta \simeq (E/10^{33})^{-0.5}$ given by Arons (1996) and Watters et al. (2009), which for the Geminga parameters should yield a value of $\sim 17\%$. For the nominal parallax distance of 250 pc, a beaming factor of 0.15 would yield a luminosity of $L_\gamma = 4.6 \times 10^{33} \text{erg s}^{-1}$.

We note that the TPC models, characterized by higher efficiency, would yield higher luminosity which would account for the entire rotational energy loss for a distance of $\sim 300$ pc, well within the distance uncertainty. On the other hand, a 100% efficiency would translate into a distance of 730 pc for the OG model, providing a firm limit on the maximum source distance.

### 5.2. Phase-resolved Spectroscopy

The power law with exponential cutoff describes only approximately the phase-averaged spectrum of Geminga, since several spectral components contribute at different rotational phases. The phase-resolved analysis that we have performed is thus a powerful tool for probing the emission of the Geminga pulsar.

Figure 7 shows a sudden change in the spectral index around each peak maximum. The spectrum appears to be very hard in the “first interpeak” region between P1 and P2, with an index close to $\Gamma \sim 1.1$ and quickly softens after the peak maximum and in the “second interpeak” to $\Gamma \sim 1.5$. Caustic models such as OG and TPC predict such behavior as a result of the change in emission altitude with energy. Sudden changes in the energy cutoff are also predicted, as is also seen for Geminga. Large variations in the spectral index and energy cutoff as a function of the pulsar phase have already been seen in other pulsars, such as the Crab pulsar (Abdo et al. 2010c) or PSR J2021+3651 (Abdo et al. 2009e).

The persistence of an energy cutoff in the “second interpeak” region suggests pulsar emission extending over the whole rotation, further supporting the TPC model for Geminga. A similar “second interpeak” has also been observed by Fermi-LAT in PSR J1836+5925, known as the “next Geminga” (Halpern et al. 2007). Although Geminga is significantly younger, the two pulsars share other interesting features, including very similar spectral indices and energy cutoffs in the phase-averaged spectrum, and comparable X-ray spectra (Abdo et al. 2010d).

### 6. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we presented the analysis of Geminga based on data collected during the first year of Fermi operations. The large collecting area of the LAT allows a timing solution to be obtained solely from $\gamma$-ray data.

The study of the light curve showed the evolution of the pulse profile with energy, unveiling the shrinking of the peaks with increasing energy and providing insights into the highest energies with unprecedented detail. Although the phase-averaged spectrum is consistent with a power law with exponential cutoff, the phase-resolved analysis showed a much richer picture of different spectral components intervening at different rotational phases. The phase-resolved analysis has also allowed the
detection of the “second interpeak” emission indicating a pulsar emission extending over all phases. This feature, never seen before in Geminga, was recently also seen by emission extending over all phases. This feature, never seen before detection of the “second interpeak” emission indicating a pulsar

The Fermi–LAT Collaboration acknowledges generous ongoing support from a number of agencies and institutes that have supported both the development and the operation of the LAT as well as scientific data analysis. These include the National Aeronautics and Space Administration and the Department of Energy in the United States; the Commissariat à l’Énergie Atomique and the Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique/Institut National de Physique Nucléaire et de Physique des Particules in France; the Agenzia Spaziale Italiana and the Istituto Nazionale di Fisica Nucleare in Italy; the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), High Energy Accelerator Research Organization (KEK), and Japan Aerospace Exploration Agency (JAXA) in Japan; and the K. A. Wallenberg Foundation, the Swedish Research Council, and the Swedish National Space Board in Sweden. Additional support for science analysis during the operations phase is gratefully acknowledged from the Istituto Nazionale di Astrofisica in Italy and the Centre National d’Études Spatiales in France.

APPENDIX

DETAILED RESULTS FROM PHASE-RESOLVED SPECTRAL ANALYSIS

In this Appendix, we report all the numerical results and the SEDs obtained from the phase-resolved spectral analysis of Geminga. Table 3 shows the spectral parameters obtained from the spectral fit in each phase interval, while Figures 9–12 show the plots of all the SEDs.

REFERENCES

Abdo, A. A., et al. 2009a, ApJ, 696, 1084
Abdo, A. A., et al. 2009b, ApJ, 695, 172
Abdo, A. A., et al. 2009c, ApJ, 699, L102
Abdo, A. A., et al. 2009d, ApJ, 699, 1171
Abdo, A. A., et al. 2009e, ApJ, 700, 1059
Abdo, A. A., et al. 2009f, ApJ, 691, 1254
Abdo, A. A., et al. 2009g, Science, 325, 840

Abdo, A. A., et al. 2009h, Astropart. Phys., 32, 193
Abdo, A. A., et al. 2009i, ApJS, 183, 46
Abdo, A. A., et al. 2010a, ApJS, 187, 460
Abdo, A. A., et al. 2010b, ApJ, 713, 154
Abdo, A. A., et al. 2010c, ApJ, 708, 1254
Abdo, A. A., et al. 2010d, ApJ, 712, 1209
Arons, J. 1996, A&AS, 120, C49
Atwood, W. B., et al. 2009, ApJ, 697, 1071
Baring, M. G. 2004, Adv. Space Res., 33, 552
Bennett, K. et al., 1977, A&A, 56, 469
Bertsch, D. L. et al., 1992, Nature, 357, 306
Bignami, G. F., & Caraveo, P. A. 1992, Nature, 357, 287
Bignami, G. F., & Caraveo, P. A. 1996, ARA&A, 34, 331
Bignami, G. F., Caraveo, P. A., & Lamb, R. C. 1983, ApJ, 272, L9
Bignami, G. F., Caraveo, P. A., & Mereghetti, S. 1993, Nature, 361, 704
Bignami, G. F., Caraveo, P. A., & Paul, J. A. 1988, A&A, 192, L1
Bignami, G. F., Caraveo, P. A., Paul, J. A., Salotti, L., & Vigroux, L. 1987, ApJ, 319, 358
Caraveo, P. A., Bignami, G. F., De Luca, A., Mereghetti, S., Pellizzoni, A., Mignani, R., Tur, A., & Becker, W. 2003, Science, 301, 1345
Caraveo, P. A., Bignami, G. F., Mignani, R., & Taff, L. G. 1996, ApJ, 461, L91
Caraveo, P. A., De Luca, A., Mereghetti, S., Pellizzoni, A., & Bignami, G. F. 2004, Science, 305, 376
Caraveo, P. A., De Luca, A., Mignani, R., & Bignami, G. F. 2001, ApJ, 561, 930
Caraveo, P. A., Lattanzi, M. G., Massone, G., Mignani, R. P., Makarov, V. V., Perryman, M. A. C., & Bignami, G. F. 1996, A&A, 329, 11
Casandjian, J.-M., & Grenier, I. A. 2006, A&A, 449, 849
Cheng, K. S., Ho, C., & Ruderman, M. 1986, ApJ, 300, 500
Daugherty, J. K., & Harding, A. K. 1996, ApJ, 458, 278
De Luca, A., Caraveo, P. A., Mattana, F., Pellizzoni, A., & Bignami, G. F. 2006, A&A, 445, L9
De Luca, A., Caraveo, P. A., Mereghetti, S., Negroni, M., & Bignami, G. F. 2005, ApJ, 623, 1051
Dyk, J., & Rudak, B. 2003, ApJ, 598, 1201
Faherty, J. Walter, F. M., & Anderson, J. 2007, Ap&SS, 308, 225
Fichtel, C. E., et al., 1975, ApJ, 198, 163
Fierro, J. M., Michelson, P. F., Nolan, P. L., & Thompson, D. J. 1998, ApJ, 494, 734
Halpern, J. P., Camilo, F., & Gothelf, E. V. 2007, ApJ, 668, 1154
Halpern, J. P., & Holt, S. S. 1992, Nature, 357, 222
Halpern, J. P., & Tyler, D. 1988, ApJ, 330, 201
Hobbis, G. B., Edwards, R. T., & Manchester, R. N. 2006, MNRAS, 369, 655
Jackson, M. S., & Halpern, J. P. 2005, ApJ, 633, 1114
Kniffen, D. A., et al. 1975, in Proc. 14th ICRC (Munich), 1, 100
Masnou, J. L., et al. 1981, in Proc. 17th ICRC (Paris), 1, 177
Mattio, J. R., Beristich, D. L., Fichtel, C. E., Hartman, R. C., Kniffen, D. A., & Thompson, D. J. 1992, ApJ, 401, L23
Mattox, J. R., Halpern, J. P., & Caraveo, P. A. 1998, ApJ, 493, 891
Mayer-Hasselwander, H. A., et al. 1994, ApJ, 421, 276
Muslimov, A. G., & Harding, A. K. 2004, ApJ, 588, 430
Ng, C.-Y., & Romani, R. W. 2004, ApJ, 601, 479
Ng, C.-Y., & Romani, R. W. 2008, ApJ, 673, 411
Pavlov, G. G., Sanwal, D., & Zavlin, V. E. 2006, ApJ, 643, 1146
Pellizzoni, A., et al. 2009, ApJ, 691, 1618
Pétri, J. 2009, A&A, 503, 13
Romani, R. W. 1996, ApJ, 470, 469
Smith, D. A., et al. 2008, A&A, 492, 923
Stanish, E. M. 1998, JPL Planetary and Lunar Ephemerides, DE405/LE405, Memo IOM 312.F-98-048, ftp://ssd.jpl.nasa.gov/pub/eph/planets/ioms/de405.iom.pdf
Strong, A. W., Moskalenko, I. V., & Reimer, O. 2004a, ApJ, 613, 962
Strong, A. W., Moskalenko, I. V., Reimer, O., Digel, S., & Diehl, R. 2004b, A&A, 422, L47
Swanenburg, B. N., et al. 1981, ApJ, 243, L69
Tavani, M., et al. 2009, A&A, 502, 995
Thompson, D. J. 2004, in Astrophys. Space Sci. Libr. 304, Cosmic Gamma-Ray Sources, ed. K. S. Cheng & G. E. Romero (Kluwer: Dordrecht), 149
Watters, K. P., Romani, R. W., Weltevrede, P., & Johnston, S. 2009, ApJ, 695, 1289
Zhang, L., & Cheng, K. S. 2001, MNRAS, 320, 477

No. 1, 2010

FERMI-LAT OBSERVATIONS OF THE GEMINGA PULSAR

283