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  4. not more than 2,500–3,000 words in length (10–12 pages double-spaced).

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  2. numbered sequentially and referred to by Arabic number in the text, e.g., Table 1.

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  1. References should relate directly to the text.
  2. References should be keyed into the text with the author’s last name and the year of publication, e.g., (Smith 1974; Jones 1974) or Smith (1974) and Jones (1974).
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   Gerard Samolyk

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Secular Variation of the Mode Amplitude-Ratio of the Double-Mode RR Lyrae Star NSVS 5222076

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Abstract In 2008, a campaign of time-series observations (Hurdis 2009) was conducted in the $V$ and $I$ bands for NSVS 5222076, a double-mode RR Lyrae (RRd) field star in Boötes. Comparison of those results with the earlier observations of Oaster, Smith, and Kinemuchi (2006) suggested that a rapid and significant decrease might be occurring in the amplitude ratio, $A_0/A_1$, of the star’s fundamental and first-overtone pulsation modes. To follow up on this interesting result, another campaign of time-series observations was conducted in 2009. We find that the amplitude ratio has indeed decreased in the $V$-band, from 1.93 in 2005 to 1.76 in 2008 to 1.48 in 2009.

1. Introduction

In his earlier paper on NSVS 5222076 (= GSC 03059-00636), Hurdis (2009) described the discovery by Oaster (2005) of the star’s double-mode variability in Northern Sky Variability Survey (NSVS; Woźniak et al. 2004) data, and the subsequent series of 1,570 $V$-band observations of it by Oaster, Smith, and Kinemuchi (2006, cited as OSK hereafter). He further described how NSVS 5222076 is unusual among RRd stars in that its fundamental mode is dominant. OSK had measured the amplitude ratio for the fundamental and first-overtone modes, $A_0/A_1$, to be approximately 2, and had pointed out that this unusually high amplitude ratio makes NSVS 5222076 a rarity, even among those RRd stars that have relatively strong fundamental mode pulsation.

From his 2008 observations, Hurdis (2009) had estimated the amplitude ratio, $A_0/A_1$, to be about 1.4 for both the $V$ and $Ic$ bands. That number was estimated by eye with a ruler, from phase plots of the deconvolved pulsation modes that had been created with peranso version 2.20 (Vannmunster 2005). The estimate was made difficult by having caught only four good maxima over the fourteen nights of observation. Nevertheless, the data were sufficiently good for it to be clear that the amplitude ratio was definitely less than OSK’s value of “approximately 2.” This seeming decrease in $A_0/A_1$, if correct, signified a gain in strength of the first-overtone mode relative to the fundamental mode. It became apparent that
more observations were needed, both to verify the result and to determine whether NSVS 5222076 is, perhaps, in the process of changing its dominant pulsation mode from fundamental to first-overtone.

In the globular cluster, M3, a few double-mode RR Lyrae stars have been observed to undergo changes in the relative strengths of the two pulsation modes (Clementini et al. 2004). In four such cases in M3 (V79, V166, V200, and V251), switching from one mode being dominant to the other has been observed (Corwin et al. 1999; Clementini et al. 2004; Clement and Thompson 2007). Clementini et al. (2004) observed that these changes can occur rapidly, over the span of a single year. They suggest that those stars are undergoing rapid evolutionary changes. The remarkable case of V79 in M3 is recounted by Clement and Thompson (2007). V79 has been observed for over a century, and has exhibited many changes, including an abrupt change of its fundamental period in 1897, and a switch in 1992 from being a single-mode (fundamental) pulsator to a double-mode pulsator with dominant first-overtone. Recent observations (Goranskij and Barsukova 2007), have revealed that a reverse switch has occurred, with the star returning to single-mode (fundamental) pulsation.

Observations of RRd stars are useful to modelers, because their two independent pulsation periods allow a unique determination of the star’s mass (Clementini et al. 2004; Cox 1980). Observations of RRd mode switching, as described above, can provide even more information about a star’s interior and evolution. To date, however, the only RRd stars that have been observed to have switched modes have been located in the crowded field of M3. On the other hand, NSVS 5222076 is a field star, located well out of the Galactic plane in Bootes. It is moderately bright (average $m_V = 12.94$), and well-placed for Northern Hemisphere observers. If it were, indeed, on the verge of undergoing a mode switch, it would provide a unique opportunity to study the event, unimpeded by the crowded star field of a globular cluster.

Having determined the need for more observations of NSVS 5222076 to verify that its amplitude ratio, $A_0/A_1$, is decreasing, it was decided to request time on the AAVSO Robotic Telescope Network (AAVSONet). The proposal was accepted, and the project was assigned to the robotic 28-cm Celestron telescope known as the Wright28, managed by coauthor Tom Krajci.

2. Objectives

The objectives for the work reported herein were as follows: a. Observe NSVS 5222076 in the $V$-band over a sufficiently long baseline, and including enough maxima, to allow the amplitude ratio, $A_0/A_1$, of the two pulsation modes to be accurately determined. b. Contiguously with the above $V$-band observations, observe the star in the $I$-band. c. By combining our $V$-band data with both the $V$-band data from the 2008 observing season (Hurdis 2009) and the $V$-band photometric data of OSK, expand the time baseline of observations, thereby
permitting more precise determinations of the pulsation periods and their ratio, \( P_1/P_0 \). d. Determine the ratio of amplitudes, \( A_1/A_0 \), of the deconvolved fundamental and first-overtone modes for both wavelength bands.

3. Equipment and methods

Two telescopes were used for our observations. The Wright28 is a 28-cm (11-in) Celestron C11 Schmidt-Cassegrain, located at Tom Krajci’s Astrokolkhoz Observatory at an elevation of 2,877 meters (9,440 feet) near Cloudcroft, New Mexico. It is equipped with an f/6.2 focal reducer, giving it a focal length of 1,720 mm. Its images were taken with a Santa Barbara Instrument Group (SBIG) ST-7XME CCD camera, with its pixels binned 2×2 to increase sensitivity. The filters used were Johnson-V and Cousins-I interference filters from Astrodon.

The second telescope was a Meade 40-cm (16-in) Schmidt-Cassegrain, permanently mounted at the first author’s Toby Point Observatory, near sea-level on the south coast of Rhode Island. Its focal ratio of f/10 gives it a focal length of 4,064 mm. It is equipped with an SBIG ST-8XME CCD camera, with its pixels binned 2×2 to increase sensitivity. The photometric filters used were Johnson-V and Cousins-I from Custom Scientific.

Our observing procedure was to take continuous, alternating V-band and I-band exposures of 90-second duration throughout the night for as long as the star was at an air mass of 2.0 or less. To maximize the number of pulsation maxima captured in our data, the choice of observing nights was guided by an ephemeris created from the most accurate value available for the fundamental pulsation period (Hurdis 2009). With the Wright28 telescope, 1,186 V-band images and 1,154 I-band images were taken on thirteen nights, between JD 2454883 and JD 2454964. With the Meade telescope, 296 V-band and 304 I-band images were taken on four nights, between JD 2454938 and JD 2455023.

Differential photometry of NSVS 5222076 was performed with aip4win version 2.3.0 (Berry and Burnell 2005). GSC 03059-00534 was used as the comparison star for all images, where \( V = 14.035, I = 13.385, \) and \( V-I = 0.650 \). For the Wright28 images, GSC-03060-00055 was used as the check star, for which \( V = 13.576, I = 12.810, \) and \( V-I = 0.766 \). For the Meade images, GSC-03060-00569 was used as the check star, for which \( V = 12.969, I = 12.313, \) and \( V-I = 0.656 \). Henden (2008) performed the photometric calibration of the star field in April 2008, using the robotic telescope at Sonoita Research Observatory near Sonoita, Arizona. This calibration is available at ftp://ftp.aavso.org/public/calib/g3059.dat.

Two software packages were used to perform period analysis of the photometric data extracted from the images. These were peranso version 2.20 (Vanmunster 2005) and period04 (Lenz and Breger 2005).
4. Results

Photometry from the 1,482 $V$-band images from this year’s study were combined with those from the 1,102 $V$-band images from 2008 (Hurdis 2009) and with the 1,570 points from Michigan State’s $V$-band photometry (OSK 2006). The time baseline for this combined dataset was 1,609 days, permitting an improved determination of the pulsation periods. By use of the Deeming DFT algorithm in PERANSO, the fundamental and first-overtone periods were, respectively, determined to be $P_0 = 0.494050 \pm 0.000037$ day and $P_1 = 0.366894 \pm 0.000010$ day. The period ratio, $P_1/P_0$, is, therefore, $0.7426 \pm 0.0001$, in good agreement with the 0.743 value found by OSK. Determination of $P_0$ and $P_1$ with PERIOD04 produced virtually identical results.

Figure 1 shows the PERANSO phase curve resulting from differential photometry of the 1,482 $V$-band images from this year’s study. It is plotted for the calculated fundamental period of 0.494050 day. The different symbols for the data points indicate the seventeen different observation nights. Figures 2 and 3 show $V$-band phase curves for the deconvolved pulsation modes of NSVS 5222076. Figure 2 is plotted for the fundamental period of 0.494050 day, while Figure 3 is plotted for the first-overtone period of 0.366894 day. Here also, the different symbols for the data points indicate the seventeen different observation nights.

Figure 4 shows the phase curve for the 1,458 $I$-band images from this year’s study, while Figures 5 and 6 show the $I$-band phase curves for the deconvolved pulsation modes.

The amplitude ratio, $A_0/A_1$, of the fundamental and first overtone pulsation components of a dataset can be accurately determined by using PERIOD04 to achieve a least-squares-fit of the calculated Fourier components to the light curve. This provides a more accurate estimate of modal amplitudes than the method previously used by Hurdis (2009). Therefore, the $A_0/A_1$ values reported in that reference for the 2008 observations are superseded by the values herein. Light curve fitting with PERIOD04 was done for each of the three data-sets, namely, the 2005 observations of OSK, the 2008 observations (Hurdis 2009), and the most recent 2009 observations. The fit to the 2009 $V$-band data is presented in Table 1, while that to the 2009 $I$-band data is presented in Table 2.

The amplitude ratio results were as follows. In the $V$-band, $A_0/A_1$ decreased from $1.93 \pm 0.02$ in 2005 to $1.76 \pm 0.03$ in 2008 to $1.48 \pm 0.01$ in 2009. This change is the result of both a decrease in the amplitude of the fundamental mode, $A_0$, and an increase in the amplitude of the first overtone mode, $A_1$. Amplitude ratio uncertainties were derived from the standard deviations calculated by PERIOD04 for the least-squares fits of the Fourier components to the measured light curves. The propagation-of-errors formula for quotients was used to determine the uncertainty of the ratio, $A_0/A_1$. These results are graphically illustrated in Figure 7, where the upper half of the figure shows the number and distribution of the time-series observations, while the lower half shows the time variation of $A_0/A_1$. In the $I$-
band, $A_0/A_1$ was virtually constant, at $1.56\pm0.06$ in 2008 and $1.52\pm0.03$ in 2009. (OSK did not observe in the I-band.) These results are illustrated in Figure 8.

The cause of the night-to-night modulation in amplitude and phase evident in Figures 2, 3, 5, and 6, is not yet clear. A period04 analysis of NSVS 5222076 data by Templeton (2009) suggests the presence of Blazhko-like amplitude modulation, but no Blazhko period can be found in the data. Another proposed cause of this amplitude and phase modulation is the influence of interaction terms involving both frequencies, such as $f_0+f_1$, $2f_0+f_1$, $f_1-f_0$, etc. However, those terms had been removed from the data used to plot Figures 2, 3, 5, and 6, yet the amplitude and phase modulation remains. A remarkable example of amplitude modulation can be seen in Figure 1 for the pulsation maximum of JD 2454956 (2009 May 4–5) denoted by the diamond-shaped symbols. As shown in Figure 2, even when the effect of the first overtone mode has been removed from the data, the amplitude of that particular maximum was much below the norm. One can conjecture that this amplitude and phase modulation is due to random, non-periodic irregularities in the pulsation behavior of the star as it approaches a mode switch. Continued monitoring of NSVS 5222076 will be required to unravel the cause of this puzzling behavior. Interestingly, Blazhko-like amplitude modulation has also been reported for V79 in M3 (Goranskij and Barsukova 2007). The highly irregular behavior of V79 was mentioned above.

In conclusion, in the $V$-band at least, $A_0/A_1$ has been shown to be decreasing, so NSVS 5222076 may be evolving toward a mode switch in which the first-overtone mode becomes dominant. Continued observation of NSVS 5222076 will be needed to determine whether a mode switch is indeed imminent.

5. Acknowledgements

The authors gratefully acknowledge AAVSO Director Arne Henden for providing his Sonoita Research Observatory photometric calibration of the star field. They also thank Prof. Horace Smith of Michigan State University for his useful comments on amplitude-modulation and mode-switching in RR Lyrae stars. They are indebted, as well, to AAVSO Staff Astronomer Matthew Templeton for helpful discussions on period04, and for his use of that program to explore their NSVS 5222076 data for Blazhko-like effects.

References

Berry, R., and Burnell, J. 2005, aip4win, astronomical image processing software provided with The Handbook of Astronomical Image Processing, 2nd ed., Willmann-Bell, Richmond, VA.


### Table 1. PERIOD04 fit to 2009 V-band data on NSVS 5222076.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency (cycles/day)</th>
<th>Amplitude (magnitude)</th>
<th>Frequency (cycles/day)</th>
<th>Amplitude (magnitude)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>2.02409 (=f₀)</td>
<td>0.165</td>
<td>4f₀</td>
<td>0.023</td>
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<td>2.72558 (=f₁)</td>
<td>0.112</td>
<td>5f₀</td>
<td>0.015</td>
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<tr>
<td>2f₀</td>
<td>0.070</td>
<td>2f₁</td>
<td>0.015</td>
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<td>f₀ + f₁</td>
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<td>4f₀ + f₁</td>
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<td>f₁ − f₀</td>
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<td>3f₀ + f₁</td>
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<td>2f₀ + f₁</td>
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### Table 2. PERIOD04 fit to 2009 I-band data on NSVS 5222076.

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<th>Amplitude (magnitude)</th>
<th>Frequency (cycles/day)</th>
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</table>
Figure 1. Phase curve of NSVS 5222076 resulting from differential photometry of 1,482 $V$-band images, plotted for fundamental period of 0.494050 day. Different symbols for data points indicate the seventeen different observation nights.

Figure 2. Deconvolved fundamental mode of NSVS 5222076. Phase curve for photometry of 1,482 $V$-band images, plotted for fundamental period of 0.494050 day.
Figure 3. Deconvolved first-overtone mode of NSVS 5222076. Phase curve for photometry of 1,482 $V$-band images, plotted for the first-overtone period of 0.366894 day.

Figure 4. Phase curve resulting from differential photometry of 1,458 $I$-band images, plotted for fundamental period of 0.494050 day. Different symbols for data points indicate the seventeen different observation nights.
Figure 5. Deconvolved fundamental mode of NSVS 5222076. Phase curve for photometry of 1,458 $I$-band images, plotted for fundamental period of 0.494050 day.

Figure 6. Deconvolved first-overtone mode of NSVS 5222076. Phase curve for photometry of 1,458 $I$-band images, plotted for the first-overtone period of 0.366894 day.
Figure 7. Secular variation of mode amplitude ratio, $A_0/A_1$, for $V$-band.
Figure 8. Secular variation of mode amplitude ratio, $A_0/A_1$, for $I$-band.
Recent Maxima of 64 Short Period Pulsating Stars

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Received January 7, 2010; revised March 1, 2010; accepted March 1, 2010

Abstract This paper contains times of maxima for 64 short period pulsating stars (primarily RR Lyrae and δ Scuti stars). This represents a portion of the CCD observations received by the AAVSO Short Period Pulsator (SPP) section through December 2009.

1. Recent observations

The accompanying list contains times of maxima calculated from CCD observations made by participants in the AAVSO’s RR Lyrae program, now known as the AAVSO Short Period Pulsator Section (SPP). This list will be web-archived and made available through the AAVSO ftp site at ftp://ftp.aavso.org/public/datasets/jsamog381.txt. These observations were reduced by the writer using the PERANSO program (Vanmunster 2007). The error estimate is included.

The linear elements in the General Catalogue of Variable Stars (GCVS; Kholopov et al. 1985) were used to compute the O–C values for all stars except RZ Cap and DG Hya. For RZ Cap and DG Hya, the GCVS elements are missing or are in significant error. For these two stars, the following light elements were calculated using PERANSO and the times of maxima listed in this paper:

\[
\text{RZ Cap Time of maximum: } (\text{JD}) = 2451384.8279 + 0.40100719 E \\
\pm 0.0005 \quad 0.00000010
\]

\[
\text{DG Hya Time of maximum: } (\text{JD}) = 2452374.565 + 0.7542427 E \\
\pm 0.002 \quad 0.0000011
\]

References

Table 1. Recent times of maxima of stars in the AAVSO RR Lyrae program.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Star</th>
<th>JD (max)</th>
<th>Cycle</th>
<th>O-C</th>
<th>Observer*</th>
<th>Error</th>
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<td>79737</td>
<td>−0.2878</td>
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<td>−0.3466</td>
<td>SNE</td>
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<td>XX And</td>
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<td>21220</td>
<td>−0.4942</td>
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<td>0.0021</td>
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<tr>
<td>XX And</td>
<td>54454.7150</td>
<td>21263</td>
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<td>0.0020</td>
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<td>16010</td>
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<td>AT And</td>
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<td>0.0035</td>
</tr>
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<td>20648</td>
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<td>SW Aqr</td>
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Table 1. Recent times of maxima of stars in the AAVSO RR Lyrae program, cont.

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Table 1. Recent times of maxima of stars in the AAVSO RR Lyrae program, cont.
Table 1. Recent times of maxima of stars in the AAVSO RR Lyrae program, cont.

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Table 1. Recent times of maxima of stars in the AAVSO RR Lyrae program, cont.

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Table 1. Recent times of maxima of stars in the AAVSO RR Lyrae program, cont.

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Table continued on following page
Table 1. Recent times of maxima of stars in the AAVSO RR Lyrae program, cont.

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*Observers: BM, M. Baldwin; BIZ, J. Bialozynski; BKS, S. Brady; GHS, H. Gerner; HAV, R. Harvan; HES, C. Hesseltine; MKE, R. Manske; MZK, K. Menzies; NMI, M. Nicholas; PRX, R. Poklar; SRIC, R. Sabo; SAH, G. Samolyk; SNE, N. Simmons; VJA, J. Virtanen.
Photometry of the Dwarf Nova SDSS J094002.56+274942.0 in Outburst

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Received December 1, 2009; revised January, 2010; accepted January, 2010

Abstract  Data from the first observed outburst of the dwarf nova SDSS J094002.56+274942.0 show cyclical variations increasing in amplitude when the object fades. These variations are likely due to the ellipsoidal shape of the red dwarf and possibly also eclipses of the accretion disk. An orbital period of 3.92 hours is derived.

1. Introduction

The cataclysmic variable (CV) SDSS J094002.56+274942.0 was discovered by Szkody et al. (2007) in spectra from the Fifth Data Release of the Sloan Digital Sky Survey (SDSS; Adelman-McCarthy et al. 2007). It was observed only once by SDSS at magnitude $g = 19.10 \pm 0.01$. No further details were provided by Szkody et al. (2007).

With $E(B-V) = 0.018$ (Schlegel et al. 1998), Galactic extinction is almost negligible in the direction of SDSS J094002.56+274942.0. The SDSS colors $u-g = 0.54 \pm 0.04$ and $g-r = 0.78 \pm 0.01$ therefore make it a fairly red CV, indicating that there is a substantial contribution of the red dwarf to the total light. In this case the orbital period should be fairly large, i.e., above the period gap. This conclusion is further strengthened by the 2MASS colors (Skrutskie et al. 2006): $J = 16.1 \pm 0.1$, $J-H = 0.5 \pm 0.2$ and $J-K_s = 0.7 \pm 0.2$ (note that the signal to noise ratio of the 2MASS detections in the $H$ and $K_s$ bands are fairly low). However, there is no immediate evidence for the red dwarf in the SDSS spectrum. The Galaxy Evolution Explorer (GALEX; Martin et al. 2005) observed the object twice at $n_{uv} = 19.7 \pm 0.1$, $f_{uv} - n_{uv} = 0.8 \pm 0.3$, and $n_{uv} = 19.3 \pm 0.1$, $f_{uv} - n_{uv} = 0.4 \pm 0.2$, apparently both at quiescence. The spectral energy distribution of SDSS J094002.56+274942.0 is given in Figure 1.

2. Observations

Like many other CVs, SDSS J094002.56+274942.0 is being monitored by the Catalina Real-time Transient Survey (CRTS; Drake et al. 2009). Normally
it has an unfiltered magnitude around 18. On 18 November 2009, an outburst to magnitude 14.6 was detected by CRTS (http://nesssi.cacr.caltech.edu/catalina/20010319/103191260474100307p.html), and follow-up observations were promptly started at the Astrokolkhoz Observatory.

For the observations a C14 Schmidt-Cassegrain was used, equipped with an ST-10 CCD camera and a Cousins $R$ filter (for the first four nights), and a clear filter afterwards (last four nights). The comparison star used was GSC 1965-146, and GSC 1965-893 and GSC 1965-1064 were used as check stars. Using the transformation formulae from Lupton (http://www.sdss.org/dr7/algorithms/sdssUBVRITransform.html#Lupton2005), a magnitude $R = 13.8$ was calculated for GSC 1965-146. The same magnitude was adopted for the unfiltered observations. On each night, except for the short run on the seventh night, standard deviations on the magnitude of the check star were better than 0.01 magnitude. Median standard deviations on five-point averages of the variable gradually deteriorated from 0.013 on the first night to 0.049 on the last night.

The overall light curve of the outburst is given in Figure 2. On 26 November the object was only half a magnitude above its normal brightness, and on 28 November it had effectively returned to its quiescence magnitude.

Near outburst maximum the light curve was fairly featureless. After a couple of days, a double wave became visible with a period of 0.16352 day and growing in amplitude. With the object at quiescence this double wave had an amplitude of around 0.3 magnitude and was clearly visible in the light curve. We interpret these periodic variations at the later stages of the outburst and at quiescence as due to the changing aspect angle of the ellipsoidal shape of the red dwarf, for which the contribution to the total light is increasing when the system fades. These variations can be seen when the inclination of the orbit is high enough. The period of 0.16352 day (3.92 hours) is then the orbital period of the system. Further proof of this scenario can be obtained by observing variations in the color of the object during all stages of an outburst. A phased light curve is given in Figure 3. The dwarf nova HS 0218+3229 shows similar variations due to the ellipsoidal shape of the secondary (Rodríguez-Gil et al. 2009), although in that case the orbital period is much longer (7.13 hours).

During the brightest stages of the outburst of SDSS J094002.56+274942.0, there is a small dip corresponding to the phase of one of the minima of the ellipsoidal variations. This may be due to the red dwarf (partially) eclipsing the accretion disk or hot spot. Unfortunately, the phase coverage was not complete on the first nights, missing the time at which the eclipse was expected. It would be especially worthwhile to observe a full orbital cycle close to maximum to verify the possible eclipse at that stage. The minimum at phase zero is sometimes fairly sharp, even near quiescence, so that it actually may be the result of an eclipse as well.

The SDSS spectrum published by Szkody et al. (2007) is fairly flat in the near-infrared, with no sign of TiO bands. As most CVs with an orbital period
near 4 hours have M4-5 type secondaries, the lack of TiO bands in the spectrum would indicate that the contribution of the red dwarf to the total light is small. However, this seems to be in contradiction with the observed colors and rules out that the observed 0.3-magnitude variations are due to the secondary. Another possibility is that the red dwarf has an early M-type spectrum with little TiO present. A detailed spectral analysis and a radial velocity study is needed to settle the case.

3. Outburst frequency

After the recent outburst archival images of the dwarf nova were investigated, and a further outburst was found on images of the Near Earth Asteroid Tracking survey (NEAT) (http://skyview.gsfc.nasa.gov/skymorph/skymorph.html) in November 2002. The unfiltered magnitude of the object was 14.57 ± 0.02 on 22 November and 14.72 ± 0.03 on 23 November, again adopting magnitude 13.8 for GSC 1965-146.

Following Southworth et al. (2009), an estimate can be made of the outburst frequency of SDSS J094002.56+274942.0, based on the dates at which the object was observed by NEAT (three images on one night in December 1997 and forty-one images from sixteen nights between June 2001 and February 2003) and CRTS (282 observations on seventy-two nights between January 2005 and November 2009). Because the latest CRTS observation prior to the outburst detection dates from October 2009, it is not possible to fix the exact start of the outburst. From our data it follows that the outburst lasted at least eight days. A duration of eight days agrees with the empirical relation derived by (Ak et al. 2002) for a dwarf nova with the orbital period of SDSS J094002.56+274942.0. In the following an outburst duration of eight days will therefore be assumed. Using Monte Carlo simulations, the efficiency to detect an outburst during the observation interval can be estimated to be 5% for NEAT (or 16% for an outburst between June 2001 and February 2003) and 30% for CRTS.

Further assuming periodic outbursts, the number of observed outbursts in the given observing interval can be calculated. On average a single outburst will have been detected by NEAT if the outburst cycle is around 100 days, and by CRTS if it is around 500 days. If the outburst cycle would be less than 250 days, CRTS would have detected two outbursts or more on average. These discrepant values are of course a result of small number statistics, but an outburst cycle of about one year or longer can be assumed. Southworth et al. (2009) found a similar value for SDSS J100658.40+233724.4, another dwarf nova with a 4-hour orbital period. This outburst cycle is much longer than the average cycle found by Ak et al. (2002) for historically known and frequently observed dwarf novae with a similar orbital period. This suggests that the sample of previously known dwarf novae, mostly detected because of their variability, was biased towards objects with a high outburst frequency.
4. Conclusion

SDSS J094002.56+274942.0 has been found to be a dwarf nova with an orbital period of 3.92 hours, with a 0.3-magnitude variability at quiescence due to the ellipsoidal shape of the secondary. Possibly also eclipses of the accretion disk may be observed. Unlike the majority of CVs discovered through SDSS spectroscopy (Gänsicke et al. 2009), it has an orbital period above the period gap. The outburst frequency is estimated to be about once per year or less, but this has to be confirmed by further observations.

5. Acknowledgements

This study made use of NASA’s Astrophysics Data System, and the SIMBAD and VIZIER databases operated at the Centre de Données Astronomiques (Strasbourg) in France.

References

Figure 1. Spectral energy distribution of SDSS J094002.56+274942.0, based on photometry from GALEX, SDSS, and 2MASS. Both axes have logarithmic scales.

Figure 2. Light curve of the November 2009 outburst of SDSS J094002.56+274942.0. Open circles represent unfiltered CRTS data, filled circles represent $R$ and (for the last four nights) unfiltered data from Astrokolkhoz Observatory.
Figure 3. Light curve of five-point moving averages of Astrokolkhoz Observatory data for SDSS J094002.56+274942.0, phased with a period of 0.16352 day. The magnitudes have been arbitrarily shifted for clarity, with the night the object was brightest on top. For the fourth, fifth, and sixth nights a linear fading trend was subtracted from the data. JD = 2455156.06 was taken for the zeropoint of the phase. The vertical lines at bottom left indicate the median standard deviation on the five-point averages for each of the nights.
The 2009 July Superoutburst of IL Vulpeculae

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Received September 28, 2009; revised October 19, 2009; accepted October 19, 2009

Abstract IL Vulpeculae experienced its first recognized superoutburst in 2009 July, thereby identifying itself as a UGSU-type dwarf nova. We measured the superhump period and amplitude as 0.071(1) day and 0.12 magnitude, respectively, and estimate its orbital period to be 0.069(1) day.

1. Background

The first reported outburst of IL Vul was in IBVS No. 80 by Hoffmeister (1965) using the name S9068 Vul. He observed it on 1964 August 14.98 UT at magnitude 15 on plates taken at the Karl-Schwarzschild Observatory. He reported its normal magnitude as being in the range 19–20. In the same paper he also reports two “rather certain” observations, on 1930 August 20 at magnitude 15.5 and 1955 September 22 at magnitude 15.0, found during a search of plate archives from 1928 to 1964. No outburst brighter than magnitude 15 was found.

Bruch et al. (1987) listed IL Vul as an identified dwarf nova, noting it is extremely faint on POSS blue prints. They reported five observations of it during 1981 with one outburst detected on 1981 September 5.91 but they did not give a magnitude. Liu et al. (1999) reported a spectroscopic observation on 1997 August 8.71 UT with \( V \) magnitude 17.8, and they related its spectrum as that of a dwarf nova after outburst. On the available evidence, the General Catalogue of Variable Stars (GCVS; Kholopov et al. 1985) classified IL Vul as a UG-type dwarf nova with unknown orbital period. At the time of writing, its classification in VSX (Watson et al. 2007) is the same.

A further outburst was reported on 2005 July 3.388 at magnitude 15.5CR by Schmeer (2005). Observing the following day, Krajci (2005) saw the star fading steadily at magnitude 16.8 with no sign of superhumps. This was probably a normal outburst. A search of the AAVSO International Database revealed several positive observations between 2005 July and 2008 July in the magnitude range 16.7 to 18.4, which may be normal outbursts, but nothing brighter until the present outburst.
2. Observations

The 2009 outburst of IL Vul was first reported to several variable star newsgroups by Muylleart (2009). He observed it unfiltered with the Bradford Robotic Telescope and measured its magnitude on July 09.144 UT as 15.69 using a preliminary USNO-derived sequence.

DB obtained unfiltered time-series observations on July 9.931–10.080 UT while TC and GR obtained further unfiltered data on July 10.282–10.406 UT. Both sites were operating under poor conditions. Bad weather persisted, with DB being able to obtain only short runs on July 14.922–14.979 UT and July 19.947–19.951 UT.

Astrometry using images taken on July 9 gives a mean position for IL Vul of R.A. 20\(^{h}\) 38\(^{m}\) 32.72(1), Dec. +22° 42' 17.0(1)' (J2000). Figure 1 shows an image of the field taken on July 9.984 UT.

\(V\) magnitudes of possible comparison stars around IL Vul were derived from \(r'\) magnitudes in the CMC14 catalogue (Univ. of Cambridge 2005) and \(J\) and \(K\) magnitudes in the 2MASS catalogue (Skrutskie et al. 2006) using the formula in Dymock and Miles (2009). Comparison stars were selected which were as blue as possible to minimize their color difference from the dwarf nova.

3. Analysis

All images were dark-subtracted and flat-fielded and instrumental magnitudes obtained by aperture photometry. Absolute magnitudes were then calculated by reference to the comparison stars. Heliocentric corrections were applied to the times of observation. The resulting light curve is shown in Figure 2. The downward slope indicates we observed the outburst during its later stages. Figure 3 expands the data from July 9 and 10. These show the first recorded superhumps in IL Vul and confirm that this is a UGSU-type dwarf nova.

A Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT; Vanmunster 2007) power spectrum of the data from July 9 and 10 is shown in Figure 4 and reveals two prominent signals at periods of 0.071(1) day and 0.088(2) day with more power at the shorter period. The distribution of alias signals is as expected from a spectral window analysis of the data and there are harmonic repeats of this pattern with decreasing power.

To decide which of these is the superhump period, we measured the times of maximum of the four superhumps recorded on July 9 and 10 by fitting a quadratic to the light curve around each maximum. We then fitted a linear ephemeris to these times of maximum to determine the superhump period. Depending on the assignment of cycle number to each maximum, we find the superhump period to be either 0.0712(3) day with \(\chi^2\) of 3.0 or 0.0890(4) day with \(\chi^2\) of 85.2. We therefore adopt the shorter period as the correct superhump period. Taking the more conservative estimate of its uncertainty, we report the superhump period...
as 0.071(1) day. The phase diagram obtained by folding the data on this period is shown in Figure 5. The superhump amplitude is 0.12 magnitude.

As we observed the later stages of the outburst, during what Kato et al. (2009) refer to as stage C, we use their relationship between the superhump period and the orbital period in this regime to estimate an orbital period for IL Vul of 0.069(1) day (1.65 hours).

4. Conclusions

We have detected superhumps during the outburst of IL Vul in 2009 July, confirming this is a UGSU-type dwarf nova. Although our observations were limited, we were able to measure its superhump period and amplitude to be 0.071(1) day and magnitude 0.12, respectively. We estimate empirically that its orbital period is 0.069(1) day.

5. Acknowledgements

We acknowledge with thanks the variable star observations from the AAVSO International Database contributed by observers worldwide and used in this research, the NASA Astrophysics Data System, and the SIMBAD and VIZIER services operated by CDS Strasbourg.

References

Figure 1. Image of the field around IL Vul taken on 2009 July 9.984 UT—10 × 10 arcmin.

Figure 2. Light curve of the 2009 July superoutburst of IL Vul.
Figure 3. Superhumps recorded on 2009 July 9 (top) and 10 (bottom).
Figure 4. Discrete Fourier Transform power spectrum of data from 2009 July 9 and 10.

Figure 5. Phase plot for a period of 0.071 day.
NSV 19431 and YY Centauri—Two Mira Variables

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Received September 28, 2009; revised February 22, 2010; accepted February 22, 2010

Abstract Visual observations of NSV 19431 and YY Cen spanning the twenty-eight years 1980 through 2007 are discussed. These show NSV 19431 is a Mira star of mean period of 298.1 days and visual brightness range of 10.8 to fainter than 15.0. Elements for determining the dates of maximum brightness are JD 2447700 ± 298.1 days (±10 days). The O–C diagram shows what appear to be random cycle-to-cycle fluctuations with a current mean cycle of 298.1 days, evident from the maximum of JD 2447700 (1989).

YY Cen is a Mira star of mean period 371.3 days and brightness range 10.6 to fainter than 15.0. On at least three occasions during this twenty-eight years YY Cen has experienced individual cycles that are significantly longer or shorter than the 371.3-day mean period. Subsequent cycles remain close to the mean period but there is a resulting clear shift in the O–C values. Elements for predicting the dates of maximum brightness are JD 2446897 ± 371.3 days (±10 days), but they should be treated with some caution due to the random instances of long/short cycles observed thus far and which may prove to be a long term characteristic of YY Cen.

1. Introduction

During the course of determining the $V$-magnitude comparison star sequence for the Mira star YY Cen at the Auckland Observatory, a new large amplitude variable star was discovered (Bateson et al. 1979). This new variable was plotted on Chart 449 of the Variable Star Section, Royal Astronomical Society of New Zealand (VSS RASNZ; Bateson et al. 1979). It was referred to as YYA Cen within the database of the VSS RASNZ and as 1230–54B (Var SE) in the AAVSO database. It subsequently received the designation NSV 19431 (Samus 2010) and listed as a possible Mira star of maximum $V$-magnitude 12.7 and position as $23^h\ 36^m\ 20.7^s\ -54^\circ\ 36'\ 38"$ (J2000). Chart 449 of the VSS RASNZ with the $V$-magnitudes shown thereon has been used for these observations.

YY Cen appears in the General Catalogue of Variable Stars (GCVS; Kholopov et al. 1985; Samus 2010) as a probable Mira variable of photographic range 12.5 to fainter than 14.3 but no period is indicated. It is located at $12^h\ 35^m\ 41.8^s\ -54^\circ\ 34'\ 52"$ (J2000).

NSV 19431 and YY Cen are both conveniently located within the same telescopic field of view. Each has been observed on a regular basis by the author during the twenty-eight year interval 1980 through 2007.
The normal observing season is February through August with less frequent observation outside these months when the field is only accessible in the morning sky. A seasonal gap is therefore present in both sets of data.

Observations for each star were plotted on large scale light curves with a scale typically near 1 mm equal to 4.7 days and the dates of maximum brightness measured directly from the curve at the mid-point between the rise and fall branches of the curve, typically one magnitude below the maximum of the smoothed curve. A symmetrical shape to the light curve was assumed; it appeared appropriate in the case of both YY Cen and NSV 19431. This procedure also eliminated the necessity for a high density of data points around the time of maximum, providing for an internally consistent set of dates. Where an individual cycle had insufficient observations, a mean light curve was overlaid on the available observations as a “best fit” and the date of maximum measured from this. For both stars the errors in the derived dates are believed to be of the order of ±3 days, based on the scale of the light curves from which the dates were measured.

The observed characteristics of NSV 19431 and YY Cen are discussed below.

2. Discussion

2.1. NSV 19431

As described below, a mean period of 298.1 days has been determined with individual cycles ranging from 254 to 327 days. At maximum brightness NSV 19431 ranges between magnitude 10.8 and 12.8 and falls to fainter than 15.0 at minimum.

Details of the observed maxima are shown in Table 1. Where column 1 lists the cycle number relative to the well observed maximum of JD 2447700, column 2 the date of maximum, and column 3 the reliability of this date, weighted 1 = good for well observed cycles, to 3 = poor where only the rise or fall, or part of each, was recorded and the determined date of maximum is based largely on overlay of the mean light curve (and takes into account the upper limits where the variable was invisible, and which placed constraints on the derived dates). Column 4 lists the interval to the following maximum, with values shown in brackets where one or more cycle has passed unobserved. Column 5 is the maximum magnitude, column 6 the calculated date of maximum relative to the epoch of JD 2447700, and column 7 the O–C value based on the derived mean period of 298.1 days.

A number of O–C diagrams were constructed for various periods between 296 and 302 days but none of these was considered truly reliable over the full 33 observed cycles. Mean periods were then determined over four portions of the overall interval. Here, cycles –11 to 0(E) gave a mean of 302.0 days, cycles 1 to 11 gave 298.5 days, cycles 12 to 18 gave 299.7 days, and the overlapping cycles 16 to 22 gave 296.5 days.

This merely demonstrates the instability of pulsations in NSV 19431, a well-known feature of the Mira-type stars. Here, the changing slope of the O–C
The O–C curve may simply represent random cycle-to-cycle fluctuations in the observed period, as first described by Eddington and Plakidis (1929) and further discussed by Percy and Colivas (1999) and Templeton et al. (2005). It is unfortunate that NSV 19431 had not been noted earlier and under observation over a longer time span to allow for better study of this feature.

The O–C diagram shown in Figure 1 is based on the period 298.1 days, representing the mean period of cycles 0 through 22; the earlier cycles are clearly of longer mean length.

The variations in the O–C data suggest NSV 19421 may be an interesting star for ongoing study, and observers are therefore encouraged to obtain brightness measurements on a regular basis.

Nothing can be said about the behavior of NSV 19431 when at minimum but the shape of the light curve suggests it falls well below the threshold magnitude 15 of the telescopes used. The observed upper limits, where the variable star was invisible and typically fainter than visual magnitude 14 to 15, do, however, exclude a cycle length shorter than the value derived here.

Elements for determining the dates of maximum brightness are currently satisfied by JD 2447700 ± 298.1 days (±10 days).

2.2. YY Centauri

YY Cen is found to be a Mira variable of mean period 371.3 days over the 27 observed cycles spanning 10,024 days, with maximum visual brightness ranging between 10.5 and 12.0. During the twenty-eight years 1980 through 2007 individual cycles ranged between 345 and 397 days, with unusually short or long cycles resulting in a marked shift in the O–C dates of subsequent maxima.

Details of the 28 observed cycles are listed in Table 2 in the same format as given for NSV 19431.

The resulting O–C diagram is shown as Figure 2. Here, the cycles of markedly longer or shorter period are marked and clearly indicate turning points in the O–C curve, as would be expected. As is the case with NSV 19431, it is unfortunate that the available observations do not cover a much longer time span to allow for a better understanding of this star’s behavior. Observers are therefore encouraged to monitor YY Cen on a regular basis.

For the purposes of determining the dates of maximum brightness the elements are JD 2446987 ± 371.3 days (±10 days). This is, however, subject to some uncertainty due to the demonstrated behavior of this star which may result in substantial shift in the O–C values.

No information is available regarding minimum brightness as YY Cen falls below the limiting magnitude of the telescopes used. The upper limits when the variable is invisible do exclude a period shorter than that derived here.
3. Conclusion

Both NSV 19431 and YY Cen are shown to be typical Mira type variables. Elements for determining the dates of maximum brightness of NSV 19431 are JD 2447700 ± 298.1 days (±10 days). At maximum it ranges between visual magnitude 10.8 and 12.8 and falls fainter than 15.0 at minimum.

The dates of maximum brightness for YY Cen are determined by the elements JD 2446987 ± 371.3 days (±10 days). It has a maximum visual brightness ranging between 10.5 and 12.0 and falls below magnitude 15 at minimum.

Both NSV 19431 and YY Cen have shown changes in their O–C values that appear to be random cycle-to-cycle variations and both stars may be interesting objects for ongoing study.

References

Table 1. Details of observed cycles for NSV 19431, 1980 through 2007.

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Table 2. Details of observed cycles for YY Cen, 1980 through 2007.

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(Weight 1 = best, 3 = worst)
Figure 1. O–C diagram for NSV 19431, period 298.1 days.

Figure 2. O–C diagram for YY Cen, period 371.3 days. Circles, near average cycle; diamonds, short cycle; triangles, long cycle.
Two New Eclipsing Binary Systems: GSC 1393-1461 and GSC 2449-0654, and One New Flare Star: GSC 5604-0255

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Received October 29, 2009; revised December 15, 2009, Accepted December 23, 2009

Abstract We introduce three new variable stars discovered during asteroid photometry. This includes two new eclipsing binary stars, GSC 1393-1461 (P = 0.311145d) and GSC 2449-0654 (P = 0.343802d), and one new flare star: GSC 5604-0255, which had a 35% ± 2% intensity increase with a decay half-life of 20 ± 1 minutes. This paper presents light curves along with basic models and analysis of the data.

1. Introduction

The Universidad de Monterrey Observatory (MPC 720) in Mexico has been making photometric observations of asteroids since 2000 in order to derive the rotation periods from their light curves. At times variable stars have been detected in the asteroid field-of-view in the process of selecting suitable comparison stars for differential photometry. Some of these have been previously unknown variables and were targeted for follow-up studies. Short period variable stars are particularly suited for discovery using this method, since each field is observed over the span of only one night as part of the asteroid program. The current paper presents observations and analysis of three rapid variables discovered in this way, including two short period variable stars and one flare star. The short period variables are the stars GSC 1393-1461 and GSC 2449-0654, and the flare star is GSC 5604-0255.

2. Observations

The Universidad de Monterrey Observatory uses an SBIG STL-1301E/LE CCD camera attached to a 36-cm SCT inside a 2-m automated dome. The discovery observations were made unfiltered as this is our normal mode for asteroid photometry. The flare star was discovered in unfiltered images on one night only, hence the images are unfiltered. Follow-up observations of the two short period variable stars were made in the $V$ and $R_c$ bandpasses using filters according to the Bessell prescription for the Johnson Cousins system (Persha 1999 and references therein). All images were acquired in $2 \times 2$ binning mode, giving an image scale of ~1 arcsec/pixel over a 21.1 x 16.9 arcmin field of view.
Exposures ranged from 120 to 240 seconds, depending on the particular filter used. Typical 1-sigma uncertainties for observations of ~14th magnitude stars, like the ones presented here, are ~0.007 magnitude for unfiltered exposures and ~0.011 magnitude for filtered ones.

Table 1 lists a log of observations which includes basic information for the stars and observing details such as filter and number of photometric measurements obtained. $P_{\text{mag}}$ is the photographic magnitude, $JD$ is the date of the observation, $Filters$ are the bandpasses used during the observing session, and $N_{\text{obs}}$ the number of photometric measurements obtained per night. $R.A.$, $Dec.$, and $P_{\text{mag}}$ are taken from the GSC-ACT star catalog. The filter labeled “clear” indicates that no filter was used; hence the effective wavelength is that of the CCD response, about 645 nm, which is similar to the effective wavelength of the $R_c$ filter. Photometric measurements were made using differential photometry against other stars in the same image. The same comparison stars were used in each frame, hence only small residual corrections were needed to combine the light curves obtained from observations made on different nights. All photometry was done using custom applications written in IDL.

3. Analysis

3.1. GSC 1393-1461 and GSC 2449-0654

3.1.1. Period analysis

For the eclipsing binary stars the best-fit period was obtained by computing the power spectrum of the time series of data (Scargle 1982; Horne and Baliunas 1986). The linear ephemeris equations were determined to be:

GSC 1393-1461 Min I (hel.) = 2454473.9731 + 0.311145 E

$\pm 0.0015 \pm 0.000001$

GSC 2449-0654 Min I (hel.) = 2454478.7207 + 0.343802 E

$\pm 0.0015 \pm 0.000001$

3.1.2. Light Curve Analysis

Light curves for the two eclipsing binary stars are presented in Figure 1. The individual observations are represented by dots and the smooth curves show preliminary model fits to the data. These models were constructed by varying the main parameters in the commercially available program BINARY MAKER 3.0 (Bradstreet 2005). This java-based program employs Roche geometry to accurately compute light and radial velocity curves and is widely used by professionals and amateurs for solving eclipsing binary light curves. The resulting model parameters are presented in Table 2. Starspots were excluded from the solution because including them in the model did not significantly change the resulting essential model parameters and only slightly improved the light curve fits. From the shape of their light curves it is clear that both are ordinary over-contact eclipsing binary systems. GSC 2449-0654 in particular was best modeled by a
system of two stars of equal mass, while GSC 1393-1416 required a mass ratio of $1.80 \pm 0.10$ to produce the best fitting model.

3.2. GSC 5604-0255

We were fortunate to register a full flare episode for this star during our five-hour observing period. The star increased in brightness by $35\% \pm 2\%$ in the time span of three two-minute exposures ($\sim$7 minutes including download time) beginning at JDH 2454617.717, and then proceeded to decrease in brightness with a decay half-life of $20 \pm 1$ minutes. Figure 2 shows the flare star observations (symbols) and the model fit (curve). Note that the brightness of the star did not decrease to its pre-flare state until an additional small drop occurred at JD 454617.815, which was $\sim$140 minutes after outburst. The increased scatter near the beginning and end of the data results from high airmass at both ends of the observational timeline. We used a least squares technique to fit the light curve using a simple exponential function in which the peak intensity and decay rate were the parameters of the fit. The best solution was found for both parameters simultaneously since fitting the peak intensity first and then the decay rate yielded a poorer fit to the data. Points between JD 2454617.760 and JD 2454617.815 were subjectively excluded because modeling this “residual afterglow” also yielded a poorer fit to the data, and the modeling of a higher order function would have been required.

4. Conclusions

The asteroid light curve observing program at the Universidad de Monterrey Observatory has been successful in identifying previously unknown short-period variable stars. In this paper we presented a preliminary analysis of three such objects. The flare star GSC 5604-0255 was observed through a complete flare event, including pre-flare baseline observations. In addition, GSC 1393-1461 and GSC 2449-0654 were discovered to be short period over-contact binary systems. Follow-up observations allowed determination of the fundamental characteristics of both systems. Additional observations are necessary to better constrain the initial system parameters derived in this paper.

5. Acknowledgements

The author greatly appreciates the critical review, corrections, and suggestions from the referee that made the manuscript much clearer and easier to read.

References

Table 1. Basic data and observing log for the stars studied herein.

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Table 2. Model Parameters for the eclipsing binary stars.

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<td>5050K (assumed)</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.32 (assumed)</td>
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<tr>
<td>fill-out – f</td>
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<tr>
<td>P</td>
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<td>0.343802 (1) day</td>
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Figure 1. Light curves of the eclipsing binary stars. Data are represented by the points and the curve represents the basic models parameters from Table 2.

Figure 2. Registered flare for GSC5604-0255. Symbols represent data and the curve is the model described in the text.
A Unified Roche-Model Light Curve Solution for the W UMa Binary AC Bootis

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Received June 8, 2009; revised October 8, 2009; accepted October 8, 2009

Abstract Over forty years of photoelectric light curves published by five different investigators and CCD data more recently (2006) collected in \( V \)- and \( R \)-bands were analyzed using a Roche-type geometry as implemented by the Wilson-Devinney code. This has not only resulted in a revised ephemeris and orbital period for AC Boo, but has lead to a unified light curve solution. Based upon moments of minima residual analysis, AC Boo has experienced a continual increase in orbital period for the past forty-eight years or longer, thereby suggesting an ongoing exchange of mass. Fourier analysis also revealed possible periodicity in O–C residuals which is heavily influenced by a putative sinusoidal-like wave most apparent over the past twenty years. The weight of evidence, nonetheless, points to a W-subtype W UMa system that does not necessarily vary as the result of an unseen companion (third light) but rather by spot formation on either stellar component. A series of spotted solutions, based upon a nearly symmetrical light curve collected in 1962, has provided a theoretical fit of all published photoelectric data that largely accounts for the observed peak asymmetry, unequal successive maxima, and varying depths of minima.

1. Introduction

The variability of AC Bootis was first discovered in 1955 (Geyer) and since then studied by a number investigators, including Binnendijk (1965), Mauder (1964), Mancuso et al. (1977, 1978), Schieven et al. (1983), Robb (1985), Linnell et al. (1990), and Hrivnak (1993). This binary system completes mutual eclipses in a little more than eight hours (0.35245 day). Typical of the W UMa class of overcontact binaries, many light curves exhibit peak asymmetry visible as unequal heights of successive maxima, which has been referred to as the O’Connell effect. AC Boo belongs to the W-type subclass of W UMa binaries, since the less massive but hotter star is occulted by the more massive but cooler component during primary minimum (Tsesevich 1956, 1959). The spectral type of the primary component is listed as F8Vn (Bilir et al. 2005). Our view of this system is nearly edge-on (orbital inclination ~84°), so the eclipses are total/annular.

Historically, model fits to photometric data on individual W UMa variables like AC Boo have varied significantly across investigations with respect to orbital
inclination \( (i) \), Roche potential \( (\Omega) \), \( T_{\text{eff}} \), and mass ratio \( (q) \). Since fundamental changes to these physical elements likely transpire over millennia, rather than measured in human lifetimes, the expectation is that these parameters should have remained fairly constant over just fifty-plus years of recorded photometric data. If a reference set of values can be established for \( i \), \( \Omega \), \( T_1 \), \( T_2 \), and \( q \), epochal variations in light curve morphology could potentially be modeled by the addition of putative spot(s) or by the presence of additional orbital mass within the gravitational influence of the binary system (also known as “third light”). Although the inspiration for this exercise with AC Boo pre-dates a recent public challenge (Ruciński et al. 2009) to combine light curve data extant for individual systems, the rationale is self-evident. Given the wide range of reported values for fundamental physical properties of binary star systems, there have been improbably small uncertainties established for each parameter. Public access to software applications like PHOEBE (PHysics Of Eclipsing BinariEs; Prša and Zwitter 2005), PERIOD04 (Lenz and Breger 2005), MINIMA (Nelson 2005b), and WDWINT (Nelson 2005c), has expanded the repertoire of user-friendly light curve modeling tools to amateur astronomers. For those so inclined, this greatly facilitates the retrospective analysis of published data which is the main focus of this paper. Having said that, with the advances made in affordable optics and CCD cameras, the modern amateur astronomer can also generate new research-quality light curves for variable star systems that had in the past only been within the domain of the professional community. In this regard, AC Boo is well suited for study, since this relatively bright variable \( (V \text{mag} \sim 10) \) is easily within the detection limits of a consumer-grade CCD camera coupled with a telescope of modest aperture. During the late spring months, this system passes near zenith for mid-latitude observers in the Northern Hemisphere.

2. Observations and data reduction

2.1. Astrometry

Images of AC Boo were matched against the standard star fields provided in MPO CANOPUS (Minor Planet Observer 1996–2008) as described previously for SW Lac (Alton and Terrell 2006).

2.2. Photometry

CCD photometric observations of AC Boo began on 29 April 2006 with the intent of generating light curves which could be used to: 1) potentially refine the orbital period, 2) calculate an updated ephemeris, and 3) further investigate the light curve asymmetry regularly observed for this system. Equipment included a 0.2-meter catadioptric \( (f/6.4) \) reflector with an SBIG ST-402ME CCD camera mounted at primary focus. \( V \)- or \( R \)-band imaging was carried out during separate sessions through Schüler photometric filters \( (1.25\text{-inch}) \) based upon the Johnson-Cousins Bessell prescription. A more detailed description and performance characteristics of this photometric system has been described elsewhere by Alton.
(2006) and Alton and Terrell (2006). Each unbinned exposure was captured over a fifteen-second period with thermoelectric cooling regulated to maintain the CCD chip 20°C below the initial ambient temperature. A typical session lasted from two to four hours, with images taken every sixty seconds. PC clock time was updated via the Internet Time Server immediately prior to each session. Image acquisition (raw lights, darks, and flats) was performed using SBIG CCDsoft while calibration and registration were accomplished with AIP4WIN (Berry and Burnell 2000). Photometric reduction with MPO Canopus used at least three non-varying comparison stars. Instrumental readings were not reduced to standard magnitudes before generating light curves to calculate ephemerides and orbital period. Phased differential magnitude photometric data in all passbands published by Binnendijk (1965), Mauder (1964), Mancuso et al. (1977, 1978), Robb (1985), and Schieven et al. (1983) were converted to flux \( F = 10^{-0.4*\Delta m} \) and then normalized.

2.3. Light curve analyses

Light curve modeling was performed using PHOEBE (Prša and Zwitter 2005) and WDWINT (Nelson 2005c), both of which employ the Wilson-Devinney (W-D) code (Wilson and Devinney 1971; Wilson 1979). PHOEBE is a well-designed execution of the W-D code which provides a convenient user interface. Each model fit incorporated individual observations and was not binned to normal points. SIGMA was assigned according to the standard deviation measured from the average difference in instrumental magnitude (\( C_{avg} \)) for each comparison star. For the \( V \) and \( R \) passbands, variability was typically ±0.03 magnitude. Three-dimensional representations showing the location of putative starspot(s) were rendered by BINARY MAKER 3.0 (Bradstreet and Steelman 2002).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Astrometry

The position determined for AC Boo (Table 1) based upon the reference coordinates in the MPO Star Catalog (Minor Planet Observer 2008) agreed within 0.441 arcsec of right ascension or declination reported on the SIMBAD website (ICRS 2000 coordinates).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Star Identification</th>
<th>R.A. h m s</th>
<th>Dec. ° ' ''</th>
<th>( V_T ) mag</th>
<th>( B_T ) mag</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>AC Boo</td>
<td>14 56 28.33</td>
<td>+46 21 44.1</td>
<td>10.294</td>
<td>10.849</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TYC3474-00966-114</td>
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<td>+46 26 51.0</td>
<td>9.434</td>
<td>9.817</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TYC3474-00714-114</td>
<td>15 56 19.60</td>
<td>+46 19 08.8</td>
<td>12.394</td>
<td>12.943</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TYC3474-00835-114</td>
<td>15 56 07.82</td>
<td>+46 21 26.6</td>
<td>11.242</td>
<td>11.841</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.2. Ensemble photometry

Every attempt was made to ensure that comparison stars were themselves not variable, at least over the observation time span. This was verified prior to accepting data from each session. On any night, no less than three stars from the Tycho2 Catalogue (Høg et al. 2000) were used for differential measurements. The airmass for all observations over the entire campaign ranged from 1.048 to 1.792. Plotting the difference in magnitude over time for AC Boo against the averaged magnitude for all comparisons \( C_{\text{avg}} \) yielded a narrow range of values with no obvious trend (Figure 1). Collectively, \( C_{\text{avg}} \) for the comparison stars did not exhibit a pattern that would otherwise suggest variability beyond experimental error (< 0.03 magnitude) in both passbands.

3.3. Folded light curve and ephemerides

Photometric readings in \( V \) (942) and \( R \) (890) passbands produced seven times of minima (ToM) which were captured during eight viewing sessions between 29 April 2006 and 17 July 2006. The Fourier analysis routine (Harris et al. 1989) in \textit{mpo canopus} provided a period solution. A ToM for the latest primary epoch was estimated by \textit{canopus} using the Hertzsprung method as detailed by Henden and Kaitchuck (1990). As such the linear ephemeris equation (1) was initially determined to be:

\[
\text{Min I (hel.)} = 2453932.5819 + 0.352457(69)E
\]  

This orbital period based upon a limited dataset compares favorably with values reported by Binnendijk (1965), Mancuso \textit{et al.} (1977, 1978), Schieven \textit{et al.} (1983), Robb (1985), Linnell \textit{et al.} (1990), and Demircan \textit{et al.} (2003). Periodograms produced using \textit{peranso} (Vanmunster 2005) by applying periodic orthogonal (Schwarzenberg-Czerny 1996) to fit observations and analysis-of-variance to evaluate fit quality also confirmed the period determination. ToM values for all epochs were then separately estimated by \textit{MINIMA} (Nelson 2005b) using the simple mean from a suite of six different methods including parabolic fit, tracing paper, bisecting chords, Kwee and van Woerden (1956), Fourier fit, and sliding integrations (Ghedini 1981). These seven new minima along with additional published CCD observations (\textit{IBVS} and \textit{Var. Star Bull.} as provided in the reference list) were entered into a \textsc{microsoft excel} spreadsheet adapted from the “Eclipsing Binary O–C” files developed by Nelson (2005a). Using the following reference epoch from Kreiner (2004):

\[
\text{Min I (hel.)} = 2452500.3020 (9) + 0.3524485 (1) E
\]  

new ephemerides were established for AC Boo (Table 1). Due to the complex curvilinear nature of the O–C residuals observed for at least forty-eight years (Figure 2), two separate regression analyses were performed. A revised ephemeris equation (3) based upon a linear least squares fit (Figure 3) of near term \( (O-C)_1 \) data from 16 Feb 2006 to 07 May 2009 was calculated:
As a result of the parabolic O–C vs time relationship, updated linear elements for AC Boo may only be valid for a short time after 2009. Expanding the analysis to include O–C data starting from 18 Jan 1961 revealed a parabolic relationship (Figure 2) between daily residuals (O–C) and time (cycle number) that could be fit by a quadratic expression (4):

$$O-C = a + bE + cE^2$$

where:

- \( a = -0.33910 \pm 0.0008 \)
- \( b = -4.6351 \times 10^{-6} \pm 0.1090 \times 10^{-6} \)
- \( c = 2.3003 \times 10^{-10} \pm 0.03789 \times 10^{-10} \)

This solution which is defined by an upwards parabola (c > 0) suggests that the period is increasing linearly with time and leads to the following quadratic ephemeris (5):

$$\text{Min I (hel.)} = 2452499.9629 (8) + 0.3524439 (1) E + 2.300 (38) \times 10^{-10} E^2$$

Since 1961 the orbital period rate of increase can be defined by the equation (6) below:

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = 2 \times (2.300 \times 10^{-10}) \left( \frac{1}{0.3524439} \right) (86400) (365.25) = 0.0412 \text{ sec/yr}$$

Commonly observed in W UMa binary systems, orbital period increases may be associated with material transfer from the secondary to the more massive primary component. Recalculated quadratic residuals, \((O-C)_Q\), are shown in the bottom panel of Figure 2. There is a visual suggestion of a sinusoidal-like wave particularly over the past twenty years that was further examined using PERANSO Lomb-Scargle periodogram analysis (Vanmunster 2005) and discrete Fourier analysis as implemented in PERIOD04 (Lenz and Breger 2005). Both mathematical approaches are particularly effective at least squares fitting of sine waves with unevenly sampled data. The highest peak (c/d) in each power spectrum corresponded to periods ranging between 7,225 ± 1,091 days (PERANSO) and 7,553 ± 658 days (PERIOD04); peak amplitude was estimated to be ~0.009 day. Two other statistical algorithms within PERANSO yielded similar values with equal or higher error estimates. These included date compensated discrete Fourier Transform DCDFT (Ferraz-Mello 1981) and CLEANEST (Foster 1995). The sinusoidal-like fit (Figure 4) of quadratic O–C residuals between 18 Jan 1961 and 07 May 2009 is strongly influenced by Time of Minimum (ToM) values collected over the past twenty years. Given the scatter in residuals prior to cycle –14,000, it will probably require at least twenty years of additional data to confirm this putative periodicity with statistical certainty. Whether this behavior is real, associated with a third body, or some other cyclic phenomena such as the “Applegate mechanism” (Applegate 1992), remains to be determined. Applegate
proposed that a late-type short-period binary system consisting of at least one star with a convective envelope would exhibit a magnetic activity cycle analogous to the eleven-year solar sunspot cycle. Variable tidal effects (physical distortion) would be observed as changes in the orbital period of the binary system which may be regular but not exactly periodic. The presence of a third body has been proposed by Hrivnak (1993) and Linnell (1991), based on radial velocity data collected around cycle –13,000 (est. 1989). Collectively, however, despite the putative presence of a sinusoidal-like feature over the past twenty years, there still is not enough evidence from the analysis of O–C vs time plots to argue unequivocally for persistent periodicity, a prerequisite for third light effects. In addition, it should be noted that no improvement in any light curve model fit using W-D code (Wilson and Devinney 1971; Wilson 1979) could be obtained with a non-zero value for third light ($l_3$); differential corrections including $l_3$ as a variable did not lead to a statistically significant non-zero solution.

With regard to the 2006 photometric readings, folded light curves incorporating all observations (Figure 5) in $V$- and $R$-passbands show that both minima are separated by 0.5 phase, an observation consistent with a circular orbit. Although the light curve in $R$ has a gap at Max I due to poor weather, asymmetry in maximum light (Max I > Max II) is clearly seen in $V$-band. Both passbands exhibit unequal depths at minima (Min I < Min II). With the exception of the 1962 light curves ($B$ and $V$) reported by Binnendijk (1965) which have near equal maximum light and matching minima, all others produced since then have had asymmetric maxima along with near equal minima (Mancuso et al. 1977; Schieven et al. 1983), or unequal minima (Binnendijk 1965; Mauder 1964; Robb 1985; and the present paper).

A plausible explanation for this variability attributed to the O’Connell effect might involve the changing presence of starspot(s) on one or more binary components and is explored in more detail below. A recent publication by Wilsey and Beaky (2009) provides an excellent overview of the O’Connell effect in eclipsing binary systems. Therein a number of theoretical models which could explain the diagnostic out-of-eclipse asymmetry at maximum light are discussed. The most thoroughly published approach to model this effect has been to invoke the presence of starspot(s). Analogous to differential rotation on the Sun, localized magnetic disturbances on W UMa binaries can block convective motion towards the surface and result in cool starspots which may survive for a protracted period of time (Berdyugina 2005). Alternatively, hot spots akin to solar flares may also appear but can be expected to evolve in a more transient manner. Both phenomena disturb luminous homogeneity and can produce asymmetric features on a light curve. The W-D code has been designed to accommodate the introduction of idealized circular starspots to improve the model fit, a software feature not implemented for any of the alternative theories which account for light curve asymmetry. Not unexpectedly, this limitation which fails to address other sources of light curve variability has perhaps led to overuse of starspot modeling. As mentioned earlier, a parabolic relationship (Figure 2) between daily residuals and time is often
attributed to conservative mass transfer. This sets the stage for an alternative theory in which a superluminous spot is produced by the impact of a streaming flow of gaseous matter through L1, the inner Lagrangian point. If the hotspot is offset from the central axis (not at 90° co-latitude, 0° longitude in W-D parlance), then a difference in luminosity can be observed during Max I or Max II. Taking a sneak look ahead, this scenario is suggested by the spotted W-D model fit of the 2006 light curve (Figure 15). Another less conventional explanation for the O’Connell effect involves a variation on the gas-stream impact theory in which the two components sweep through and capture matter in cloud of circumstellar material, thereby converting kinetic energy into a thermal glow on each leading hemisphere (Liu and Yang 2003). It remains to be seen whether this explanation will be supported by spectroscopic evidence, since an increased incidence of emission lines is expected along with a difference in spectra captured at Min I and Min II. Still another theory invokes the presence of an asymmetrically dense circumbinary cloud of gas and/or dust which directly attenuates light at different orbital phases (Lehmann and Mkrtichian 2004). Finally Zhou and Leung (1990) proposed that the asymmetric deflection of an incoming stream of matter due to Coriolis forces can account for unequal light curve maxima in an over-contact binary. To date, no one of these alternative theories has accumulated sufficient experimental evidence to completely supplant the presence of starspot(s) as the most viable explanation for the O’Connell effect.

3.4. Roche modeling and light curve analyses

Model fits to photometric data from individual W UMa variables like AC Boo vary significantly in the literature with respect to orbital inclination (i), Roche potential (Ω), T_{eff}, and mass ratio (q). Since these basic physical elements likely change over millennia, their individual reported uncertainties are unrealistically small. Being nearly symmetrical, the 1962 light curves from Binnendijk (1965) offer an opportunity to create a reference set of values for i, Ω, T_1, T_2, and q. Thereafter, epochal variations in light curve morphology could potentially be explained by additional orbital mass within the gravitational influence of the binary system (also known as “third light”) or the presence of putative spot(s).

For overcontact binary systems of the W UMa type, W-D light curve solutions generally employ “mode 3” (a documented feature of the W-D code) with synchronous rotation and circular orbits. In this case, however, the “overcontact binary but not in thermal contact” option in PHOEBE yielded the best model fits. Since AC Boo has a convective envelope (T_{eff} < 7500 K), values for bolometric albedo (0.5) and gravity darkening exponents (0.32) were based on theoretical considerations described by Ruciński (1969) and Lucy (1967), respectively. Logarithmic limb darkening coefficients for both stars were interpolated within PHOEBE according to van Hamme (1993) with any change in temperature. AC Boo conforms to the W-subtype where the less massive but hotter star is eclipsed at primary minimum. Although the secondary and less-massive star has the higher
surface temperature, it nonetheless contributes less to the overall luminosity of
this binary system due to its smaller size. Therefore, $T_{\text{eff}}$ for the primary ($T_1$) was
set equal to 6252 K, based on tabulated values (de Jager and Nieuwenhuijzen
1987) for an F8 main sequence dwarf star. Initial attempts to obtain a light
curve fit involved adjustment of parameters for the mean effective temperature
of the secondary ($T_2$), orbital inclination ($i$), mass ratio ($q$), bandpass-specific
luminosity of the primary ($L_1$), and common envelope surface potential ($\Omega_1 = \Omega_2$).
Once an approximate fit was obtained, differential corrections (DC) were applied
simultaneously to photometric data in all filters. To alleviate strong correlations,
the method of multiple subsets (Wilson and Biermann 1976) was used only when
necessary to reach convergence.

3.4.1. Binnendijk 1962 light curves ($B$ and $V$)

Although a spectroscopic mass ratio ($q = 0.41$) for AC Boo was determined by
Hrivnak (1993), this value ultimately led to unrealistically complex fits when all
light curves were considered. Fortunately, AC Boo exhibits total/annular eclipses,
a pre-condition to obtaining a robust value for $q$ by photometric means (Wilson
1994; Terrell and Wilson 2005). A new search for $q$ was initiated by allowing
this physical element to vary freely also with $i$, $\Omega$, and $T_2$ during DC iterations.
Simultaneously in both passbands, an excellent fit quickly converged at $q \sim 0.31$,
so this parameter was investigated further under more controlled conditions. Mass
ratio ($q$) was fixed over a range of 0.21 to 0.5 and the free model parameters ($i$, $\Omega$, and $T_2$) allowed to converge. The response curve generated by plotting $\chi^2$
as a function of the putative mass ratio showed a minimum between 0.30 and
0.32 (Figure 6). This value was further refined ($q = 0.306$) and thereafter used
as the de facto mass ratio for modeling AC Boo. It should be noted that a very
similar estimate for $q$ had been previously reported by Mancuso et al. (1978) and
Schieven et al. (1983). A comparison of light curves (Figure 7) from 0.28 to 0.41$q$
reveals the sensitivity to mass ratio in achieving good model prediction during
each eclipse. All that remained for this idealized light curve was to determine $i$, $\Omega$,
and $T_2$ by DC with fixed values for $q$ and $T_1$. Final physical and geometrical
elements from modeling the 1962 light curves for AC Boo are summarized in
Table 2; synthetic light curves are illustrated in Figure 8.

3.4.2. Binnendijk 1963 light curves ($B$ and $V$)

Not unexpectedly, the exact light curve solution for the 1962 data discussed
above did not provide a best fit for AC Boo light curves produced before and
thereafter. While trying to explain perturbations in radial velocity data, Hrivnak
(1993) points to the possibility of a third body in the AC Boo system. In an earlier
study reported by Linnell (1991), light curve data (which were not available for
further analysis) required the introduction of 8% third light to obtain an accurate
Roche model fit. Contrary to these assumptions, O–C residuals calculated from
time-of-minima data which stretch back over forty-eight years do not exhibit the
strict sinusoidal periodicity that one would expect from an orbiting third body
Therefore, a strategy to build a Roche model was based on the premise that asymmetric maxima and/or unequal minima observed for AC Boo arise from starspot(s) on either component. \textsc{binarymaker} 3 enabled visualization of spot placement so that combinations of $A_s$, $\Theta$, $\phi$, and $r_s$ could be tested prior to final optimization with \textsc{phoebe} and \textsc{wdwint}. Concerns regarding the use of starspots to minimize residuals during light curve synthesis have been well documented (Berdyugina 2005). Consequently, every effort was made to minimize the number of spots used to best fit each light curve. In some cases, due to the significant variability associated with each epoch two spots were required; the 1963 photometric readings from AC Boo were no exception in this regard. Results from modeling these light curves are summarized in Table 2 and illustrated in Figure 9. As can also be seen in subsequent light curve fits from four other epochs, a cool spot on the more massive star (Figure 15) which is exposed during primary eclipse serves to deepen Min I. In a similar, but opposing fashion, a hot spot located on the smaller companion body slightly brightened Min II during transit in the 1963 dataset.

3.4.3. Mauder 1961 light curves ($B$ and $V$)

Light curves from Mauder (1964) were only available in graphical form, so photometric data ($\Delta$ mag) in $B$- and $V$-passbands were extracted using Dexter (Demleitner \textit{et al.} 2001), a \textsc{java} applet which allows the user to digitize a plot by creating an x-y coordinate system and then positioning a marker on each datum point. This utility is available on the NASA Astrophysics Data System website (http://adswww.harvard.edu/index.html) and can be directly invoked with \textsc{gif} scanned articles. Physical and geometrical elements garnered from modeling these 1961 light curves for AC Boo are summarized in Table 2. Starspot locations (co-latitude and longitude) which improved the Roche model fit for these 1961 light curves from Mauder (1964) were very similar to those employed for the 1963 data acquired by Binnendijk (1965). With some exceptions discussed later, there was a tendency for maximum light after the secondary minimum to exhibit greater variability with transient excursions suggestive of flare activity (Figure 10).

3.4.4. Mancuso 1972 and 1973 light curves ($V$)

The results from modeling these photoelectrically derived light curves for AC Boo are summarized in Table 2 and plotted in Figure 11. As with previous light curves covering consecutive years (1961–1963), considerable differences were observed between 1972 and 1973. Most notably in 1973, maximum light appeared in the first quadrature, a feature shared only with the 1984 and 2006 light curves. In both Mancuso light curves the model supported placement of a subluminous spot on the more massive star (longitude = 180°) which served to deepen the primary minimum. Mancuso \textit{et al.} (1978) reported for the first time geometric and physical elements for AC Boo estimated from a Roche-based model (Wilson and Devinney 1971). Given the assumptions and model limitations at that time, direct comparisons reveal values for $i$ (85.47°), $T_1$ (5830–6017 K),
T₂ (6100 K), and q (0.28) that are reasonably close to those calculated herein (Table 2) using PHOEBE.

3.4.5. Schieven 1982 light curves (U, B, and V)
   Arguably, upon first inspection (Figure 12), a case can be made that the light curves produced with B and V filters are equivalent from a standpoint of symmetry, maximum light, and depth of minima when compared to those generated in 1962 (Figure 8) by Binnendijk (1965). It should be pointed out that each plotted value represents the mean of four determinations, so that unlike in 1962, some of the variability has been smoothed out in the 1982 light curves. Successive minima appear nearly equal in depth across all passbands. However, without a hot starspot (Figure 15) positioned on the secondary star, a less than optimal fit to the Roche model was obtained in B- and U-passbands. This was particularly evident in the first quadrature following primary minimum. Schieven et al. (1983) only provided a partial list of physical elements determined from light curve synthesis. Notably, values for q (0.28–0.31) and i (82.6°–84.0°) are very consistent with findings reported herein (Table 2).

3.4.6. Robb 1984 light curves (U, B, and V)
   As with Mauder (1964), AC Boo light curves produced by Robb (1985) were only available in a figure from a scanned copy of their publication. Photoelectric data (Δmag) in U-, B-, and V-passbands were extracted on-line as described earlier using Dexter (Demleitner et al. 2001) and then converted to flux. The results from modeling these data are summarized in Table 2 and shown in Figure 13. Due to significant variability and frequent gaps in the data, an acceptable model fit for these light curves proved to be a challenge. Nonetheless, a reasonable fit was found by positioning a cool spot on the primary constituent (Figure 15).

3.4.7. Light curves (V and R) from 2006 study
   Physical and geometric elements used and estimated in modeling these CCD observations are summarized in Table 2. Unequal minima, very apparent at visible wavelengths (Figure 14), were closer in depth as compared to those measured in R-passband. Due to uncooperative weather, a gap around maximum light still remained in the R-filtered dataset after the seasonal campaign on this star system was terminated. As mentioned earlier, maximum light which appeared in first quadrature was a feature common with the 1973 and 1984 light curves. In this case a hot spot positioned in the neck region (Figure 15) was effective in improving the model fit to the observed data near first quadrature.

4. Conclusions

Recent V- and R-filtered CCD-based observations have led to the construction of light curves which were used to: 1) revise the orbital period for AC Boo, 2) calculate updated ephemerides and, 3) further investigate the peak asymmetries
regularly observed for this system. A parabolic relationship between O–C residuals and cycle number has been derived which suggests continual period increases over nearly five decades. Fourier analysis of the associated quadratic residuals provided a hint, but not compelling evidence for strict sinusoidal periodicity occurring approximately every twenty-one years. Despite reports to the contrary, and until which time sufficient moments-of-minima data are collected from AC Boo, it would be premature to corroborate the gravitational influence of another body on this binary system. Using {\textsc{phoebe}}, analysis of photometric data covering the past forty-eight years and published by several investigators has produced a uniform solution of all light curves using Roche-based modeling. Epochal variability such as peak asymmetry, unequal successive maxima, and dissimilar minima was addressed by incorporating starspot(s) on one or both binary constituents. This has provided synthetic fits of light curve data that largely account for the observed differences.

5. Acknowledgements

The insightful comments from an anonymous referee, and the helpfulness and thorough work of the {\textit{JAAVSO}} editorial and production staff are much appreciated and greatly improved the overall quality of this manuscript. The NASA Astrophysics Data System hosted by the Computation Facility at the Harvard-Smithsonian Center for Astrophysics is gratefully acknowledged. This investigation also made use of the {\textsc{simbad}} database, operated at Centre de Données Astronomiques de Strasbourg (CDS), Strasbourg, France. Finally, special thanks is due to Dr. Andrej Prša for his personal assistance in using {\textsc{phoebe}}.

References

version 2.1.10, provided with *The Handbook of Astronomical Image Processing*, Willmann-Bell, Richmond.


Nelson, R. 2005c, WDWINT (version 5.4e) astronomy software, http://members.shaw.ca/bob.nelson/software1.htm
Table 1. AC Bootis recalculated residuals \((O-C)_L\) following linear least squares fit of \((O-C)_i\) and cycle number between 16 Feb 2006 and 07 May 2009.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time of Minimum</th>
<th>Type Number</th>
<th>Cycle</th>
<th>((O-C)_i)</th>
<th>((O-C)_L)</th>
<th>Reference</th>
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<tr>
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<td>I</td>
<td>5880</td>
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<td>0.000944</td>
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Table 1 continued on following page
Table 1. AC Bootis recalculated residuals (O–C)\textsubscript{L} following linear least squares fit of (O–C)\textsubscript{1} and cycle number between 16 Feb 2006 and 07 May 2009, continued.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Time of Minimum</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Cycle</th>
<th>(O–C)\textsubscript{1}</th>
<th>(O–C)\textsubscript{L}</th>
<th>Reference</th>
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<td>−0.000168</td>
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<td>−0.35334775</td>
<td>−0.000501</td>
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<tr>
<td>54598.4267</td>
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<td>5954</td>
<td>−0.35366900</td>
<td>−0.000822</td>
<td>IBVS 5889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54600.5411</td>
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<td>5960</td>
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<td>−0.001112</td>
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<td>−0.35395250</td>
<td>−0.001089</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>−0.35191925</td>
<td>0.000945</td>
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<td>I</td>
<td>6096</td>
<td>−0.35375600</td>
<td>−0.000888</td>
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<td>54671.3810</td>
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<td>−0.35620850</td>
<td>−0.003331</td>
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<tr>
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<td>54958.8099</td>
<td>II</td>
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<td>−0.34906025</td>
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Table 2. Comparison of selected geometrical and physical elements for AC Boo following Roche model light curve fitting.

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<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Mauder (1961)</th>
<th>Binnendijk (1962)</th>
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</thead>
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<td>$T_1$ (K)</td>
<td>6252</td>
<td>6252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T_2$ (K)</td>
<td>6349 (6)</td>
<td>6349 (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$q$ ($m_2/m_1$)</td>
<td>0.306 (0.002)</td>
<td>0.306 (0.002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$g_{1,2}$</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$x_1^{V} , y_1^{V}$</td>
<td>0.720, 0.272</td>
<td>0.720, 0.272</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$x_2^{V} , y_2^{V}$</td>
<td>0.816, 0.212</td>
<td>0.812, 0.221</td>
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<tr>
<td>$x_1^{B} , y_1^{B}$</td>
<td>0.816, 0.212</td>
<td>0.812, 0.221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$x_2^{B} , y_2^{B}$</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$x_1^{U} , y_1^{U}$</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$x_2^{U} , y_2^{U}$</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$x_1^{R} , y_1^{R}$</td>
<td>—</td>
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<tr>
<td>$x_2^{R} , y_2^{R}$</td>
<td>—</td>
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</tr>
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<td>2.4303 (0.005)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>84.03 (0.43)</td>
<td>84.03 (0.43)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.4645 (0.0013)</td>
<td>0.4645 (0.0007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$r_1$ side</td>
<td>0.5020 (0.0018)</td>
<td>0.5020 (0.0010)</td>
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<tr>
<td>$r_1$ back</td>
<td>0.5308 (0.0020)</td>
<td>0.5308 (0.0011)</td>
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<tr>
<td>$r_2$ pole</td>
<td>0.2736 (0.0044)</td>
<td>0.2736 (0.0022)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$r_2$ side</td>
<td>0.2865 (0.0054)</td>
<td>0.2865 (0.0027)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$r_2$ back</td>
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<td>0.3286 (0.0054)</td>
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<tr>
<td>$M_1/M_\odot$</td>
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<td>1.688</td>
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<tr>
<td>$M_2/M_\odot$</td>
<td>0.517</td>
<td>0.517</td>
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<tr>
<td>$R_1/R_\odot$</td>
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<td>1.367</td>
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<tr>
<td>$R_2/R_\odot$</td>
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<td>0.813</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.0641</td>
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<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\phi_{S1}$ (spot longitude)</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$r_{S1}$ (angular radius)</td>
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<td>—</td>
</tr>
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<td>—</td>
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<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$r_{S2}$ (angular radius)</td>
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\(a\): errors in parenthesis from \textit{wdwint v5.4e}.
Table 2. Comparison of selected geometrical and physical elements for AC Boo following Roche model light curve fitting, continued.

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<td>6349 (6)</td>
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<td>0.306 (0.002)</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$g_{1,2}$</td>
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<td>0.32</td>
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<td>0.726, 0.269</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$x_{2V} y_{2V}$</td>
<td>0.720, 0.272</td>
<td>0.720, 0.272</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td>$x_{2B} y_{2B}$</td>
<td>0.812, 0.221</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>—</td>
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<tr>
<td>$x_{2U} y_{2U}$</td>
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<tr>
<td>$x_{2R} y_{2R}$</td>
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<td>2.4303 (0.005)</td>
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<tr>
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<td>84.03 (0.43)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.4645 (0.0013)</td>
</tr>
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<td>$r_1$ side</td>
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<td>0.5020 (0.0018)</td>
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<td>0.5308 (0.0009)</td>
<td>0.5308 (0.0019)</td>
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<td>0.2736 (0.0050)</td>
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<tr>
<td>$R_1/R_\bigodot$</td>
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<td>$R_2/R_\bigodot$</td>
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$a$: errors in parenthesis from wdwint v5.4e.
Table 2. Comparison of selected geometrical and physical elements for AC Boo following Roche model light curve fitting, continued.

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<tr>
<td>$T_2$ (K)</td>
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<td>6349 (6)</td>
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<td>0.306 (0.002)</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>$x_{1V}, y_{1V}$</td>
<td>0.726, 0.269</td>
<td>0.726, 0.269</td>
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<td>$x_{2V}, y_{2V}$</td>
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<td>0.720, 0.272</td>
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<td>2.4303 (0.005)</td>
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<td>84.03 (0.43)</td>
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<td>0.4645 (0.0008)</td>
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<td>0.5020 (0.0011)</td>
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<td>0.5308 (0.0013)</td>
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<tr>
<td>$r_2$ pole</td>
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<td>0.2736 (0.0026)</td>
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<td>$r_2$ side</td>
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<td>0.2865 (0.0032)</td>
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<tr>
<td>$M_2/M_\odot$</td>
<td>0.517</td>
<td>0.517</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R_1/R_\odot$</td>
<td>1.367</td>
<td>1.367</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R_2/R_\odot$</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\phi_{S1}$ (spot longitude)</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td>$r_{S2}$ (angular radius)</td>
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*a: errors in parenthesis from wdwint v5.4e.*
Table 2. Comparison of selected geometrical and physical elements for AC Boo following Roche model light curve fitting, continued.

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<td>6349 (6)</td>
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<td>$r_1$ back</td>
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<td>$r_{S2}$ (angular radius)</td>
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*a: errors in parenthesis from wdwint v5.4e.*
Figure 1. Constant relative magnitude ($V$-band) exhibited by comparison stars during a typical AC Boo photometric session (29 May 2006).

Figure 2. Quadratic least square fit of residuals ($O-C$)$_i$ as a function of cycle number for AC Boo observed between 18 Jan 1961 and 07 May 2009 (top panel). Quadratic residuals ($O-C$)$_Q$ are shown in the bottom panel.
Figure 3. Near term simple least squares fit of residuals $O-C_i$ as a function of cycle number for AC Boo observed between 16 Feb 2006 and 07 May 2009.

Figure 4. Fourier transform of quadratic residuals $(O-C)_Q$ calculated for AC Boo between 18 Jan 1961 and 07 May 2009 (top panel). The sinusoidal-like periodicity ($P\sim21$ years) is strongly influenced by the fit of data over the past two decades (cycle $-14000$ to $6977$). Corresponding residuals $(O-C)_S$ are plotted in the bottom panel.
Figure 5. Folded CCD-derived light curves for AC Boo captured in $V$- (April–July 2006) and $R$-band (June–July 2006). Curves in each passband are offset for clarity.

Figure 6. Photometric search for AC Boo mass ratio ($m_2/m_1$) using Roche modeling of 1962 light curves from Binnendijk (1965).
Figure 7. Series of Roche model predictions using varying values for $q$ with the 1962 light curve ($V$-band) reported by Binnendijk (1965).

Figure 8. $V$- and $B$-band light curves for AC Boo captured in 1962 by Binnendijk (1965). Solid line represents the best theoretical fit using the Roche model without invoking spots. Light curves (top) and model fit residuals (bottom) in each passband are offset for clarity.
Figure 9. *V*- and *B*-band photoelectric light curves for AC Boo captured in 1963 by Binnendijk (1965). Solid line is the best theoretical fit using the Roche model with a single hot (secondary) and cool (primary) spot on each star. Light curves (top) and model fit residuals (bottom) are offset for clarity.

Figure 10. *V*- and *B*-band photoelectric light curves for AC Boo captured in 1961 by Mauder (1964). Solid line represents the best theoretical fit using the Roche model with a single hot (secondary) and cool (primary) spot on each star. Light curves (top) and model fit residuals (bottom) are offset for clarity.
Figure 11. $V$-band photoelectric light curves for AC Boo acquired in 1972 (bottom) and 1973 (top) by Mancuso et al. (1976). Solid line is the best theoretical fit using the Roche model with a single cool spot on the primary. Light curves (top) and model fit residuals (bottom) for each year are offset for clarity.

Figure 12. $U$-, $B$- and $V$-band photoelectric light curves for AC Boo captured in 1982 by Schieven et al. (1983). Solid line represents the best theoretical fit using the Roche model with a hot spot on the less massive star. Light curves (top) and model fit residuals (bottom) in each passband are offset for clarity.
Figure 13. $U$, $B$- and $V$-band photoelectric light curves for AC Boo acquired in 1984 by Robb (1985). Solid line represents the best theoretical fit using the Roche model with a cool spot on the more massive star. Light curves (top) and model fit residuals (bottom) in each passband are offset for clarity.

Figure 14. $R$- and $V$-band CCD light curves for AC Boo captured in 2006 (present study). Solid line represents the best theoretical fit using the Roche model with a hot spot on each star. Light curves (top) and model fit residuals (bottom) for each passband are offset for clarity.
Figure 15. Three-dimensional renderings of Roche lobe geometry for the W-type W UMa overcontact binary AC Boo showing starspot locations from 1961 to 2006. Images were produced using BINARYMAKER 3.
Recent Minima of 161 Eclipsing Binary Stars

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Received September 23, 2009; accepted September 25, 2009

Abstract This paper continues the publication of times of minima for eclipsing binary stars from observations reported to the AAVSO Eclipsing Binary Section. Times of minima from observations made from March 2009 through August 2009, along with a few unpublished times of minima from older data, are presented.

1. Recent observations

The accompanying list contains times of minima calculated from recent CCD observations made by participants in the AAVSO’s eclipsing binary program. This list will be web-archived and made available through the AAVSO ftp site at ftp://ftp.aavso.org/public/datasets/jsamoj381.txt. This list, along with eclipsing binary data from earlier AAVSO publications, is also included in the Lichtenknecker database administrated by the Bundesdeutsche Arbeitsgemeinschaft für Veränderliche Sterne e.V. (BAV) at http://www.bav-astro.de/LkDB/index.php?lang=en. These observations were reduced by the observers or the writer using the method of Kwee and Van Woerden (1956). The standard error is included when available.

The linear elements in the General Catalogue of Variable Stars (GCVS, Kholopov et al. 1985) were used to compute the O–C values for most stars. For a few exceptions where the GCVS elements are missing or are in significant error, light elements from another source are used: CD Cam (Baldwin and Samolyk 2007), CW Cas (Samolyk 1992a), DV Cep (Frank and Lichtenknecker 1987), DF Hya (Samolyk 1992b), EF Ori (Baldwin and Samolyk 2005), and GU Ori (Samolyk 1985). O–C values listed in this paper can be directly compared with values published in recent numbers of the AAVSO Observed Minima Timings of Eclipsing Binaries series.

The number of observations used for determination of each time of minimum is given under N when available.

References

Table 1. Recent times of minima of stars in the AAVSO eclipsing binary program.

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<th>O–C</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Observer</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
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Table 1. Recent times of minima of stars in the AAVSO eclipsing binary program, cont.

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Table 1 continued on following page
### Table 1. Recent times of minima of stars in the AAVSO eclipsing binary program, cont.

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*Observers: BAMA, L. Baldinelli and A. Maitan; CK, S. Cook; CLZ, L. Corp; DKS, S. Dvorak; GHS, H. Gerner; HES, C. Hesseltine; MZK, K. Menzies; OYE, Y. Ogmen; PRX, R. Poklar; SAH, G. Samolyk; SFV, F. Salvaggio; VJA, J. Virtanen.*
Photometry of V578 Monocerotis

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Received September 16, 2009; revised January 4, 2010; accepted January 4, 2010; a.heiser@vanderbilt.edu

Abstract V578 Monocerotis (= HDE 259135), a member of the galactic cluster NGC 2244, is an eclipsing binary containing two early B-type stars with a period of 2.4048 days. From early photometric observations of V578 Mon obtained by the author, and from data by D. S. Hall’s collaborators (Anon. 1995), both the orbital period, noted above, and an apsidal motion period of about 30.4 years was determined. The current study is a summary of all the $UBV$ photometric data obtained by the author from 1962 through the 2005–2006 season. The purposes of this study were to obtain an improved orbital period of this eclipsing binary, to determine a better estimate of the apsidal motion period, and to search for any light curve changes over time.

1. Introduction

The photometric variations of HDE 259135 (= V578 Mon) were accidentally discovered during a $uvby$ study of the galactic open cluster NGC 2244 (Hardie 1970; Heiser 1977). The star was noted, from only two radial velocity observations, as a possible variable by Hayford (1932). Morgan et al. (1965) in their spectral type study of the stars in NGC 2244 noted that spectra of HDE 259135 (B0.5V) showed double lines. The double lined nature was verified by spectra obtained at the Kitt Peak National Observatory (KPNO) by Heiser (1972). Radial velocities from these spectra and the early photometry led to the first period determination of 2.420 days. From the variety of photometric observations of V578 Mon obtained by the author and by D. S. Hall’s collaborators (Anon. 1995), an apsidal motion period of approximately 30 years was estimated. A detailed study of the physical properties of the system was undertaken by Hensberge et al. (2000).

The current study is a summary of all the photometric data obtained by the author, from 1962 through the 2005–2006 season, at various observatories: Dyer Observatory (DO), Kitt Peak National Observatory (KPNO), and the Vanderbilt-Tennessee State University (TSU) 16-inch (APT) at Fairborn Observatory. The purposes of this study were (i) to obtain an improved orbital period of this eclipsing binary, (ii) to determine a better estimate of the apsidal motion period, and (iii) to show the light curve changes over time.
2. Observations

The author’s photometric $UBV$ data can be divided into three sets based on the observational epochs and the different observatories.

(i) 1962–1970 (HJD 2437698 to HJD 2440703) at DO; 1–2 observations per night.

(ii) 1967–1983 (HJD 2439503 to HJD 2445703) at KPNO; 1–3 observations per night.

(iii) 1994–2006 (HJD 2449638 to HJD 2453842) at APT; continuous observations on some predicted minima nights, and many nights with single observations.

All the data are in differential form, in the sense “variable – comparison.” Virtually every night also had check star observations, in the sense “comparison – check.” The comparison star, from Johnson’s study of NGC 2244 (1962), was HD 46106 (= Johnson 5 type B1V) and the check star was either HD 46149 (= Johnson 4 type O8.5V), or HD 46223 (= Johnson 3 type O5e). Table 1 is a summary of the average observational errors from the differential check star observations at the different epochs and observatories.

3. Analysis

3.1. Times of minimum and period determination

The sporadic nature of the differential $B$ data collected at DO and at KPNO resulted in a number of times when there were values that appeared to be near a minimum of the light variation. These minimal values of $\Delta B$, listed in Table 2, indicated a probable orbital period for V578 Mon of about 2.408 days, which was later confirmed by the work of Hall and his collaborators (Anon. 1995). This period, together with the arbitrarily chosen KPNO HJD 2443158.8443 time of minimum, was used to predict times of minima for the observations undertaken with the APT. Differential $BV$ data obtained at the APT resulted in six additional times of primary minimum, also listed in Table 2, as well as a number of times of secondary minimum. All the times of minima from the APT data were determined using the method of Kwee and van Woerden (1956).

The $\Delta B$ times of minimum were used in the following manner to determine a significantly better orbital period for V578 Mon: The two times of minima, HJD 2443158.84434 (KPNO) and HJD 2451554.77106 (APT), were separately iterated using trial periods until the sum of the $(O-C)^2$ was minimized for all fourteen values of the primary minima determined from the $\Delta B$ measurements. These results are 2.40848475 days (KPNO) and 2.40847965 days (APT), which gives an average period of 2.4084822 ± 0.0000026 days. This period was used with an epoch of HJD 2451554.77106 ± 0.00057 to calculate all the phases of
the light variations of V578 Mon from 1962 to 2006.

The apsidal motion period was determined by measuring (O–C)’ deviations from thirteen times of primary minima around epoch HJD 2451554.77106. Least square fits were made to data over the range of cycles –6000 to –3000 and –1000 to +1000, giving slopes, shown in Figure 1, of 0.000055 ± 0.000010 and 0.000054 ± 0.000005, respectively. Since these two estimates are identical within their uncertainties, one can calculate the HJD’s of each set at their (O–C)’ values of 0.0. The difference of these HJD’s is about 10,517 days. A similar analysis, using the deviations from epoch HJD 2443158.84434, gives a difference of about 11,680 days. Averaging these two differences results in an apsidal period of about 30.4 years, which is in good agreement with the value quoted by Hall and his collaborators (Anon. 1995).

3.2. Light curves

All DO and KPNO differential ∆B data are shown in Figure 2. Observations around primary minimum, near phase 0.07, indicate that the 1973 to 1978 data occur at slightly later phases than those of 1968 to 1971. On the other hand, the data from 1973 to 1978 at secondary minimum, near phase 0.54, occur at slightly earlier phases than observations from 1968 to 1971. Observations outside of eclipse show a post-primary shoulder from phase 0.13 to 0.20, then a slight increase to a maximum phase near 0.3 with no shoulder going into secondary eclipse, and then a very slight rise from phase 0.6 to 0.95. These outside-of-eclipse observations indicate that there are effects due to the ellipsoidal nature of the two stars, limb darkening, or reflection effects from the more luminous star onto the less luminous star.

The average UBV color indices at each minimum of the DO and KPNO observations are shown in Table 3. These colors indicate that the more luminous star is somewhat hotter than the less luminous star.

The APT observations around primary and secondary minima show variations indicative of apsidal motion. Figure 3a shows the variations in ∆B at primary minimum for the seasons of 1994/1995/1996 (= 94/95/96), 1999/2000, and 2005/2006. The light curves show the primary minimum depth increasing with time and increasing in phase from the 94/95/96 observations to the 2005/2006 observations. Figure 3b shows the variations in ∆B at secondary minimum for the seasons of 94/95/96, 1999/2000, and 2005/2006. At secondary minimum both the depths and the phases are decreasing with time. The changes at the minima over the APT 11–12-year time interval lends support to the apsidal period of 30.4 years determined above in section 3.1.

4. Summary

The very long baseline of these observations of V578 Mon underscores the value of acquiring and analyzing data obtained over long time periods. The UBV
observations of this binary, obtained from 1962 to 2006, were used to determine a more significant orbital period. Color changes at minimum light indicate that the primary has a somewhat higher surface temperature than the secondary. Changes in the light at minima support the presence of an apsidal motion period of about 30.4 years. A further analysis of these observations has been undertaken by Garcia et al. (2010).

5. Acknowledgements

The author wishes to acknowledge the support from Vanderbilt University, the staffs of the Dyer Observatory and the Kitt Peak National Observatory, and Greg Henry of the TSU Center of Excellence. The author also wishes to thank the referee for many valuable suggestions and comments.

References

Table 1. Average errors, in magnitudes, from V578 Mon check star observations.

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<td>±0.007</td>
<td>±0.004</td>
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Table 2. HJD times of minima of V578 Mon.

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</tr>
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<td>1976*</td>
<td>KPNO</td>
<td>2443105.90927</td>
<td>±0.0002</td>
<td>0.790</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977*</td>
<td>KPNO</td>
<td>2443158.84434</td>
<td>±0.0002</td>
<td>0.795</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977*</td>
<td>KPNO</td>
<td>2443488.86693</td>
<td>±0.0002</td>
<td>0.788</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995#</td>
<td>APT</td>
<td>2449738.75624</td>
<td>±0.00085</td>
<td>0.762</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995#</td>
<td>APT</td>
<td>2449750.79842</td>
<td>±0.00152</td>
<td>0.762</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000#</td>
<td>APT</td>
<td>2451554.77106</td>
<td>±0.00057</td>
<td>0.791</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005#</td>
<td>APT</td>
<td>2453712.83465</td>
<td>±0.00076</td>
<td>0.799</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005#</td>
<td>APT</td>
<td>2453724.87717</td>
<td>±0.00063</td>
<td>0.799</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005#</td>
<td>APT</td>
<td>2453741.73648</td>
<td>±0.00111</td>
<td>0.800</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Time of minimum is the observation time of the “minimal” ΔB measures.
# Time of minimum is from Kwee and van Woerden (1956) analyses.

Table 3. Differential UBV color indices of V578 Mon at minima.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Δ (B − V)</th>
<th>Δ (U − B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>0.046 ± 0.002</td>
<td>0.030 ± 0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>0.045 ± 0.003</td>
<td>0.026 ± 0.006</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 1. V578 Mon, deviations of the Table 2 times of minimum light as a function of the number of cycles, from the epoch HJD 2451554.77106.

Figure 2. The differential $B$ light curve for V578 Mon using the DO and KPNO data from 1968 through 1983.
Figure 3. The APT differential $B$ light curves around primary (top graph) and secondary (bottom graph) minimum for V578 Mon from 1994/1995/1996, 1999/2000, and 2005/2006. The curves show the increase in depth and phase over the indicated observing sessions.
RR Lyrae and Type II Cepheid Variables Adhere to a Common Distance Relation

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Received October 30, 2009; revised December 21, 2009; accepted December 21, 2009

Abstract Preliminary evidence is presented reaffirming that SX Phe, RR Lyrae, and Type II Cepheid variables may be characterized by a common Wesenheit period-magnitude relation, to first order. Reliable distance estimates to RR Lyrae variables and Type II Cepheids are ascertained from a single $VI$-based reddening-free relation derived recently from OGLE photometry of LMC Type II Cepheids. Distances are computed to RR Lyrae ($d \approx 260$ pc) and variables of its class in the galaxies IC 1613, M33, Fornax dSph, LMC, SMC, and the globular clusters M3, M15, M54, ω Cen, NGC 6441, and M92. The results are consistent with literature estimates, and in the particular cases of the SMC, M33, and IC 1613, the distances agree with those inferred from classical Cepheids to within the uncertainties: no corrections were applied to account for differences in metallicity. Moreover, no significant correlation was observed between the distances computed to RR Lyrae variables in ω Cen and their metallicity, despite a considerable spread in abundance across the sample. In sum, concerns regarding a sizeable metallicity effect are allayed when employing $VI$-based reddening-free Cepheid and RR Lyrae relations.

1. Introduction

The study of Cepheids and RR Lyrae variables has provided rich insight into countless facets of our Universe. The stars are employed: to establish distances to globular clusters, the Galactic center, and to galaxies exhibiting a diverse set of morphologies from dwarf, irregular, giant elliptical, to spiral in nature (Udalski et al. 2001; Kubiak and Udalski 2003; Pietrzyński et al. 2006; Macri et al. 2006; Matsunaga et al. 2006, 2009; Ferrarese et al. 2007; Feast et al. 2008; Groenewegen et al. 2008; Gieren et al. 2008; Scowcroft et al. 2009; Majaess et al. 2009c); to clarify properties of the Milky Way’s spiral structure, bulge, and warped disk (Tammann 1970; Opolski 1988; Efremov 1997; Berdnikov et al. 2006; Majaess et al. 2009b); to constrain cosmological models by aiding to establish $H_0$ (Freedman and Madore 1996; Freedman et al. 2001; Tammann et al. 2002); to characterize extinction where such variables exist in the Galaxy and beyond.
(Caldwell and Coulson 1985; Turner 2001; Laney and Caldwell 2007; Kovtyukh et al. 2008; Majaess et al. 2008a, 2009b, 2009c); to deduce the sun’s displacement from the Galactic plane (Shapley 1918; Fernie 1968; Majaess et al. 2009a); and to trace the chemistry, dynamics, and ages of stellar populations (Turner 1996; Luck et al. 1998; Andrievsky et al. 2002a; Mottini 2006), etc.

An additional bond beyond the aforementioned successes is shared between RR Lyrae, Type II Cepheids, and SX Phe variables, namely that to first order the stars obey a common distance and Wesenheit period-magnitude relation.

2. Analysis and discussion

A Wesenheit period-magnitude diagram demonstrates the underlying continuity from SX Phe to W Vir variables (Figure 1). The Wesenheit function describing the LMC data is given by:

\[ W_{VI} = V - \beta (V - I) \]

\[ W_{VI} = -2.45 \log P_f + 17.28 \]  

(1)

The relation is reddening-free and relatively insensitive to the width of the instability strip, hence the reduced scatter in Figure 1. Readers are referred to studies by van den Bergh (1968), Madore (1982), Opolski (1983), Madore and Freedman (2009), and Turner (2010) for an elaborate discussion on Wesenheit functions. The color coefficient used here, \( \beta = 2.55 \), is that employed by Fouqué et al. (2007). RR Lyrae variables pulsating in the overtone were shifted by \( \log P_f - \log P_o + 0.13 \) so to yield the equivalent fundamental mode period (e.g., see Soszyński et al. 2003; Gruberbauer et al. 2007). Soszyński et al. (2008) convincingly demonstrated that the RV Tau subclass of Type II Cepheids do not follow a simple Wesenheit relation that also encompasses the BL Her and W Vir regimes (see also Majaess et al. 2009a). RV Tau variables were therefore excluded from the derived Wesenheit function which characterizes variables with pulsation periods < 15d (Equation 1).

A \( VI \)-based reddening-free Type II Cepheid relation (Majaess et al. 2009a) was used to compute the distance to RR Lyrae variables in the galaxies IC 1613 (Dolphin et al. 2001), M33 (Sarajedini et al. 2006), Fornax dSph (Bersier and Wood 2002; Mackey and Gilmore 2003), LMC and SMC (Udalski et al. 1998; Soszyński et al. 2003, 2009), and the globular clusters M3 (Benkő et al. 2006; Hartman et al. 2005), M15 (Corwin et al. 2008), NGC 6441 (Layden et al. 1999; Pritzl et al. 2003), M54 (Layden and Sarajedini 2000), \( \omega \) Cen (Weldrake et al. 2007), and M92 (Kopacki 2001). The resulting distances are summarized in Table 1, along with estimates from classical and Type II Cepheids, where possible. The calibrators of the aforementioned relation were OGLE LMC Type II Cepheids (Udalski et al. 1999; Soszyński et al. 2008), with an adopted zero-point to the LMC established from classical Cepheids and other means (\( \sim 18.50 \), Gibson 2000; Freedman et al. 2001; Benedict et al. 2002; Majaess et al. 2009a)
The distances to classical Cepheids were estimated using a Galactic calibration (Majaess et al. 2008a) tied to a subsample of cluster Cepheids (e.g., Turner and Burke 2002) and new HST parallax measures (Benedict et al. 2007). Defining the relation strictly as a Galactic calibration is somewhat ambiguous, given that Milky Way Cepheids appear to follow a galactocentric metallicity gradient (Andrievsky et al. 2002a). The Majaess et al. (2008a) relation is tied to Galactic classical Cepheids that exhibit near solar abundances (Andrievsky et al. 2002a). Applying the Majaess et al. (2008a) relation to classical Cepheids observed in the LMC by Sebo et al. (2002) reaffirms the adopted zero-point \((m–M)_0 = 18.44 \pm 0.12\), Figure 2). No correction was applied to account for differences in metallicity between LMC and Galactic classical Cepheids owing to the present results and contested nature of the effect (e.g., Udalski et al. 2001; Sakai et al. 2004; Pietrzyński et al. 2004; Macri et al. 2006; Bono et al. 2008; Scowcroft et al. 2009; Majaess et al. 2009c). A decrease of \(\sim 0.08\) magnitude would ensue if the correction proposed by Sakai et al. (2004) or Scowcroft et al. (2009) were adopted.

The distances cited in Table 1 to the globular clusters are consistent with those found in the literature (e.g., Harris 1996). A subsample of period distance diagrams demonstrate that the inferred distances are nearly constant across the entire period range examined (Figure 3). Moreover, distances computed to RR Lyrae variables in the SMC, M33, and IC 1613 agree with those inferred from classical Cepheids (Table 1). The results reaffirm that the slope and zero-point of \(VI\) reddening-free relations are relatively insensitive to metallicity (see also Udalski et al. 2001; Pietrzyński et al. 2004; Majaess et al. 2008a, 2009c). No corrections were made to account for differences in abundance. Consider the result for the SMC, which is founded on copious numbers of catalogued RR Lyrae and classical Cepheid variables (OGLE). SMC and Galactic classical Cepheids exhibit a sizeable metallicity difference (\(\Delta[Fe/H] \approx 0.75\), Mottini (2006)). By contrast, SMC RR Lyrae variables are analogous to or slightly more metal-poor than their LMC counterparts (Udalski 2000). If the canonical metallicity corrections for RR Lyrae variables and classical Cepheids were equal yet opposite in sign as proposed in the literature (e.g., \(\gamma–RR \approx +0.3\) and \(\gamma–Cep \approx –0.3\) magnitude dex\(^{–1}\)), then the expected distances computed for SMC RR Lyrae variables and classical Cepheids should display a considerable offset (say at least \(\sim 0.25\) magnitude). However, that is not supported by the evidence, which instead implies a negligible offset separating the variable types (0.02 magnitude, Table 1). Similar conclusions are reached when analyzing distances to extragalactic RR Lyrae variables as inferred from a combined HST/HIP parallax for RR Lyrae (see Majaess et al. 2009c).

In sum, comparing Cepheids and RR Lyrae variables at a common zero-point offers a unique opportunity to constrain the effects of metallicity. More work is needed here.

RR Lyrae variables in \(\omega\) Cen provide an additional test for the effects of metallicity on distance, since the population exhibits a sizeable spread in
metallicity at a common zero-point (−1.0 ≥ [Fe/H] ≥ −2.4, Rey et al. (2000)). An abundance-distance diagram (Figure 4) compiled for RR Lyrae variables in ω Cen using VI photometry from Weldrake et al. (2007), and abundance estimates from Rey et al. (2000), offers further evidence implying that VI-based reddening-free distance relations are relatively insensitive to metallicity. A formal fit to data in Figure 4 is in agreement with no dependence and yields a modest slope of 0.1 ± 0.1 magnitude dex−1. If that slope is real, metal-poor RR Lyrae variables are brighter than metal-rich ones. Uncertainties linked to the cited slope could be mitigated by acquiring additional abundance estimates and obtaining VI directly (see Weldrake et al. 2007). A minor note is made that although the variable in ω Cen designated V164 Cen is likely a Type II Cepheid (J2000 13h 26m 14.86s -47° 21' 15.17''), the variable designated V109 Cen may be anomalous or could belong to another variable class (J2000 13h 26m 35.69s -47° 32' 47.03'', see numbering in Weldrake et al. 2007).

Equation 2 of Majaess et al. (2009a) was also employed to compute the distance to the brightest member of the variable class, RR Lyrae. VI photometry from The Amateur Sky Survey (Droege et al. 2006) was utilized, although concerns persist regarding the survey’s zero-point and the star’s modulating amplitude. Nevertheless, the resulting distance of d = 260 pc is consistent with the star’s parallax as obtained using HST (d = 262 ± 14 pc, Benedict et al. 2002), and within the uncertainties of the HIP value (van Leeuwen et al. 2007; Feast et al. 2008). That reaffirms the robustness of the aforementioned relation to compute distances to variables of the RR Lyrae and Type II Cepheid class. RR Lyrae’s phased V and I light-curves are displayed in Figure 5. An ephemeris from the GEOS RR Lyr database was adopted to phase the data (Boninsegna et al. 2002; Le Borgne et al. 2004, 2007), namely:

$$ JD_{\text{max}} = 2442923.4193 + 0.5668378 E$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)

The slope of the Wesenheit function derived from a combined sample of SX Phe, RR Lyrae, and Type II Cepheid variables detected in M3, ω Cen, and M15 is consistent with that determined from LMC RR Lyrae variables and Type II Cepheids (Figure 1). Presently, the distances computed to SX Phe variables discovered in M3 and ω Cen via the VI reddening-free Type II relation of Majaess et al. (2009a) are systemically offset. However, the new Wesenheit relation performs better (Equation 1). A reanalysis is anticipated once a sizeable sample of SX Phe variables become available. Yet meanwhile Equation 1 may be employed to evaluate simultaneously the distances to SX Phe, RR Lyrae, BL Her, and W Vir variables. Uncertainties are expected to be on the order of 5–15%. Indeed, the correction factor (φ) established by Majaess et al. (2009a) could be applied to Equation 1 to permit the determination of distances to the RV Tau subclass of Type II Cepheids.

Admittedly, further work is needed but the results are encouraging.
3. Summary and future work

A single $VI$-based reddening-free relation may be employed to simultaneously provide reliable distances to RR Lyrae variables and Type II Cepheids. The relation’s viability is confirmed by demonstrating that distances to RR Lyrae variables in the globular clusters M3, M15, M54, ω Cen, M92, NGC 6441 (Figure 6), and galaxies IC 1613, M33, Fornax dSph, LMC, and SMC, agree with values in the literature and from other means (Table 1, see also Harris 1996). A distance was computed for the nearby star RR Lyrae (d ~ 260 pc) using mean $VI$ photometry provided by The Amateur Sky Survey. The estimate is consistent with the HST parallax for the star (d = 262 ± 14 pc, Benedict et al. 2002). The slope and zero-point of the $VI$-based relation appear relatively unaffected by metallicity to within the uncertainties (Table 1 and Figures 1, 3). That assertion is supported by noting that although RR Lyrae variables in ω Cen exhibit a sizeable spread in metallicity (–1.0 ≥ [Fe/H] ≥ –2.4, Rey et al. (2000)), no statistically significant effect was observed on the computed distances (Figure 4). Furthermore, the distances computed to RR Lyrae variables and classical Cepheids in the SMC, M33, and IC 1613 are consistent to within the uncertainties. No metallicity correction was applied. Finally, an underlying Wesenheit period-magnitude relation broadly unifies SX Phe, RR Lyrae, and Type II Cepheid variables of the population II instability strip, although somewhat imperfectly.

There remain numerous challenges and concerns to be addressed regarding the use of the distance indicators beyond the contested effects of metallicity (e.g., Udalski et al. 2001; Sakai et al. 2004; Pietrzyński et al. 2004; Macri et al. 2006; Bono et al. 2008; Scowcroft et al. 2009; Majaess et al. 2009c). For example, achieving a common photometric standardization is difficult and systemic offsets may be introduced, particularly across a range in color (e.g., Turner 1990; Saha et al. 2006). Yet another challenge is to establish a consensus on the effects of photometric contamination (e.g., blending, crowding) on the distances to variable stars in distant galaxies (Stanek and Udalski 1999; Macri 2001; Mochejska et al. 2000, 2001, Mochejska 2002; Freedman et al. 2001; Majaess et al. 2009c). Increasing the presently small number of galaxies with Cepheids observed in both the central and less-crowded outer regions is therefore desirable (e.g., Macri et al. 2006; Scowcroft et al. 2009). Unfortunately, a degeneracy complicates matters since the effects of metallicity and crowding may act in the same sense and be of comparable magnitude. Indeed, R (the ratio of total to selective extinction) may also vary as a function of radial distance from the centers of galaxies in tandem with the metallicity gradient. Efforts to disentangle the degeneracies are the subject of a study in preparation. Further research is warranted to examine the implications of anomalous values of R on the distances obtained from the standard candles (e.g., Macri et al. 2001b; Udalski 2003).

Lastly, the continued discovery of extragalactic SX Phoenicis, RR Lyrae, and Cepheids at a common zero-point shall bolster our understanding and enable firm
constraints to be placed on the metallicity effect (Szabados 2006a; Poretti et al. 2006; Majaess et al. 2009c). So too will obtaining mean multiband photometry, particularly $VI$, for such variables in the field and globular clusters (Clement et al. 2001; Pritzl et al. 2003; Schmidt et al. 2004, 2005a, 2005b, 2005c, 2009; Horne 2005; Matsunaga et al. 2006; Randall et al. 2007; Rabidoux et al. 2007; Corwin et al. 2008). A forthcoming study shall describe how related efforts are to be pursued from the Abbey-Ridge Observatory (ARO) (Lane 2007; Majaess et al. 2008b; Turner et al. 2009). AAVSO members drawn toward similar research may be interested in a fellow member’s study entitled: “Using a Small Telescope to Detect Variable Stars in Globular Cluster NGC 6779” (Horne 2005). Modest telescopes may serve a pertinent role in variable star research (Percy 1980, 1986; Szabados 2003; Paczyński 2006; Randall et al. 2007; Corwin et al. 2008).

4. Acknowledgements


References


Lane, D. J. 2007, http://www.aavso.org/aavso/meetings/spring07present/Lane.ppt


Table 1. Distances to the sample.

| Object       | \((m - M)_0\) (RR) | \((m - M)_0\) (TII)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IC 1613</td>
<td>24.40 ± 0.12</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>24.50 ± 0.12a</td>
<td>(6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>24.52 ± 0.16 (n = 2)</td>
<td>24.35 ± 0.09 (9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMC</td>
<td>18.91 ± 0.08</td>
<td>18.85 ± 0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18.93 ± 0.10</td>
<td>(7, 8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M33</td>
<td>24.54 ± 0.14</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>24.43 ± 0.14 (i) /</td>
<td>24.67 ± 0.07 (o)c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>24.5 ± 0.3</td>
<td>24.40 ± 0.17 (i) (11)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fornax dSph</td>
<td>20.53 ± 0.08</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20.57 ± 0.11</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M54</td>
<td>17.15 ± 0.16</td>
<td>17.13 ± 0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M92</td>
<td>14.57 ± 0.12</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGC 6441</td>
<td>15.70 ± 0.06</td>
<td>15.69 ± 0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15.74 ± 0.11</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M3</td>
<td>15.04 ± 0.11</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15.04 ± 0.07</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ω Cen</td>
<td>13.58 ± 0.14</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M15</td>
<td>14.90 ± 0.11</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


aSee discussion Dolphin et al. (2001). bPresently, the distance estimates for extragalactic Type II Cepheids should be interpreted cautiously owing to poor statistics and other concerns (Majaess et al. 2009c). cDistances to classical Cepheids occupying the outer (o) and inner (i) regions of M33.
Figure. 1. Wesenheit diagrams demonstrate that SX Phe, RR Lyrae, and Type II Cepheid variables follow a common period-magnitude relation. Variable stars belonging to the globular clusters ω Cen and M3 were shifted in magnitude space to match the LMC. The overplotted relation is Equation (1) after adjusting the zero-point. The fundamental mode period is plotted (log $P_f$).

Figure. 2. Applying the $VI$ reddening-free distance relation of Majaess et al. (2008a) to classical Cepheids observed in the LMC by Sebo et al. (2002) yields a distance modulus of $(m - M)_0 = 18.44 \pm 0.12$.

Figure. 3. Period-distance diagrams for a subsample of objects studied. Filled circles represent RR Lyrae variables and Type II Cepheids, while open circles denote classical Cepheids.
Figure. 4. Abundance-distance diagram for RR Lyrae variables in the globular cluster ω Cen. Open and filled circles are data points with metallicities inferred from [Fe/H]_hk and [Fe/H]_ΔS methods (see Rey et al. 2000). A formal fit yields a modest slope of 0.1 ± 0.1 mag dex^{-1} and implies that metal-poor RR Lyrae variables are brighter than metal-rich ones. The fit is also in agreement with no correlation.

Figure. 5. V and I light-curves for RR Lyrae phased using equation 2. The V-band photometry is offset by +0.5 magnitude. The distance to RR Lyrae using The Amateur Sky Survey photometry is d ≈ 260 pc (see text).

Figure. 6. The metal rich globular cluster NGC 6441 observed through a 10-inch telescope (left) and the Hubble Space Telescope (right). Image by Noel Carboni.
Possible Misclassified Eclipsing Binary Stars Within the Detached Eclipsing Binary Light Curve Fitter (DEBiL) Data Set

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Abstract The dangers inherent in using fully automated data processing for large data sets are exemplified by examining the eclipsing binary stars identified via the Detached Eclipsing Binary Light curve fitter. The software may have confused eclipsing binaries with other types of low amplitude variable stars and it is estimated that over a quarter of the 10,862 variable stars listed may have been misclassified.

1. Introduction

The Detached Eclipsing Binary Light Curve Fitter (DEBiL; Devor 2005) was used to process 218,699 light curves from the galactic bulge fields of the Optical Gravitational Lensing Experiment (OGLE) survey (Udalski et al. 1997). A total of 10,862 binary stars were identified and details of these variable stars were made available via the Vizier service (Ochsenbein et al. 2000) operated by Centre de Données astronomiques de Strasbourg (http://vizier.u-strasbg.fr/viz-bin/VizieR?-source=J/ApJ/628/411).

The data processing pipeline used by DEBiL involved passing the light curves through a series of analytical programs designed to create a more rigorous level of scrutiny at each tier. By eliminating light curves that failed to match the preset criteria for a given step it proved possible to focus computational resources on the ever-shrinking pool of candidate variable stars that reached the later tiers. A measure of the success of the technique was that step five of the process was only required for 10% of the light curves.

The light curve analysis involved six stages:

1. Determining the period.
2. Filtering out non-periodic curves.
3. Making an initial “guess” for the binary star parameters.
4. Filtering out non-eclipsing (pulsating) stars.
5. Fitting the parameters of a detached eclipsing binary star to the data.
6. Filtering out unsuccessful fits.

The limitations of DEBiL were explored in some detail by Devor (2005).
Light curves with very similar primary and secondary minima and light curves with no detectable secondary minima were particularly difficult for the software to analyse. The similarity between the light curves of some eclipsing and some non-eclipsing variable stars also created analytical problems.

Pribulla et al. (2009) further describe the difficulties associated with classifying low amplitude variable stars with periods between 0.1 and 0.5 day. Detailed study showed that most were δ Sct, RR Lyr, SX Phe, or γ Dor types, although some were contact binaries seen at low inclination angles. A further complication was the presence of companions to close binaries that might alter the observed light curve and the color of the combined system. Since the frequency of such companions “may be approaching 100%” the use of period-color diagrams as an analytical tool as suggested by Duerbeck (1997) may be invalid.

2. Objectives

A preliminary examination of the DEBiL data showed that over one in six of the variable stars listed had a period of over ten days. This compares with a figure of about one in sixteen for all the eclipsing binary stars listed in International Variable Star Index (VSX; Watson et al. 2007). This raised the suspicion that many of the stars listed in the catalogue were pulsating variables, as referred to by Devor (2005), rather than eclipsing binaries. It was also noted during the preliminary examination that only small scale variation—less than 0.2 magnitude—could be seen in the first ten light curves of long period variable stars that were examined in detail.

• Objective 1—to examine a random sample of stars to see if any of the variable stars listed as eclipsing binary stars had been misclassified

• Objective 2—to examine the characteristics of any misclassified variable stars to see if any such stars were spread equally throughout the entire DEBiL catalogue or if they shared one or more common features

3. Data and results

3.1. Experiment 1

A sample of twenty stars was selected from the entries in the DEBiL catalogue using the random number facility in Microsoft Excel. The prime aim of this experiment was to see if the phase diagram obtained for each star in the sample were consistent with the claim that the star was an eclipsing binary. Any attempt to identify the nature of the variability of any star not thought to be correctly classified was a secondary consideration and it was recognized that without additional information such identifications would be problematic.

Each star had its phase diagram generated using the software package PERANSO (Vanmunster 2007). These were then compared with phase diagrams for stars
known to belong to each of the three main sub-types of eclipsing binaries: EA, EB, and EW. The “saw tooth” shape of the phase diagrams obtained for seven of the twenty stars is quite unlike what would be expected for an eclipsing binary being more like those obtained from a pulsating or rotating ellipsoidal variable star. The phase diagram for an eclipsing binary of type EB or type EW is in the form of a continuous curve rather than as straight lines that come to a relatively sharp maximum or minimum. The comparison results were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>/20</th>
<th>Star #</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Star is confirmed as an eclipsing binary with a close match between the period obtained via PERANSO and the period quoted in the catalogue.</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 10, 12, 13, 14, 15, 17, 19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Star appears not to be an eclipsing variable but there is a close match between the period obtained via PERANSO and the period quoted in the catalogue.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11, 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Star appears not to be an eclipsing variable and the true period is half the period quoted in the catalogue.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5, 6, 9, 18, 20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It appeared to be the low amplitude variable stars that were particularly prone to misclassification by the software. All the variable stars with an amplitude > 0.20 magnitude were correctly classified whereas all the variable stars with an amplitude < 0.15 magnitude seem to have been misclassified. Unfortunately the on-line DEBiL database does not include the amplitude of variation and this can only be determined by examination of the individual light curves.

The results for the individual stars are summarized in Table 1 and phase plots for the possible misclassified variable stars are shown in Figures 1 to 7 inclusive.

3.2. Experiment 2

Ten DEBiL catalogue variable stars with quoted periods of over ten days were examined in detail using the software package peranso, with the following results:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>/10</th>
<th>Star #</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Star is confirmed as an eclipsing binary with a close match between the period obtained via PERANSO and the period quoted in the catalogue.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Star appears not to be an eclipsing variable but there is a close match between the period obtained via PERANSO and the period quoted in the catalogue.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 28, 29, 30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Star appears not to be an eclipsing variable and the true period is half the period quoted in the catalogue.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>21, 27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
None of the supposed eclipsing binary stars had their classification confirmed since the shape of the phase diagrams obtained were quite unlike what would be expected for an eclipsing binary, being far more like those obtained from a pulsating variable star. The results for the individual stars are summarized in Table 2 and a specimen light curve and phase plot for a possibly misclassified star are provided in Figures 8 and 9.

4. Possible improvements to the Detached Eclipsing Binary Light Curve Fitter

A) Mis-classification of long period variable stars—Visual examination of the light curve and/or phase diagram of a small sample of the supposed long period binary stars identified by the automated data processing pipeline would have revealed possible errors in the algorithms being used. A simple filtering process could then have removed all such entries from the entire data set prior to publication.

B) Mis-classification of low amplitude variable stars—Pribulla et al. (2009) have described in some detail the difficulties associated with classifying low amplitude, short period variable stars. Obtaining spectra of candidate close binary systems was a key diagnostic tool but this technique was not used by Devor (2005) to check the operation of the algorithms within the Detached Eclipsing Binary Light curve fitter. Doubtless this was due to the large number of stars being examined.

C) Alternative approaches (1)—Eyer and Blake (2005) report an estimated classification error of 7% in the system they used with candidate variable stars from the All-Sky Automated Survey. The AUTCLASS algorithm was able to generate results of this level of reliability using just four parameters—period, amplitude, phase difference, and amplitude ratio. Crucially, they discovered that adding parameters “...often does not improve the classification.” Testing the algorithm on a sub-sample of the data as a prelude to refining the methodology was seen as desirable.

D) Alternative approaches (2)—The O’Connell effect (Wilsey and Beaky 2008) is the name given to the situation where there is an obvious difference between the two maxima in the light curves of an eclipsing system. Evidence of the O’Connell effect in the phase diagram of a variable star would be evidence of a binary, rather than a pulsating system. The article on the Detached Eclipsing Binary Light curve fitter (Devor 2005) makes no mention of using the O’Connell effect as a diagnostic tool.

5. Data access

Additional data relating to the possibly misclassified variable stars discussed in this paper can be downloaded from http://www.martin-nicholson.info/debil.xls. This file will also be archived and made available through the AAVSO ftp site at ftp://ftp.aavso.org/public/datasets/jnichm381.xls.
6. Summary

Over a quarter of the 10,862 variable stars listed in the DEBiL data set may have been misclassified and therefore the results published through vizier and subsequently imported into VSX need to be reviewed on a star-by-star basis.

7. Acknowledgements

This publication makes use of data products from The Two Micron All Sky Survey (Skrutskie et al. 2006), which is a joint project of the University of Massachusetts and the Infrared Processing and Analysis Center/California Institute of Technology, funded by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration and the National Science Foundation.

This research has made use of the VIZIER catalogue access tool, CDS, Strasbourg, France.

References

Table 1. Details of initial random sample of twenty alleged eclipsing binary variable stars.

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<th>P(d)</th>
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</table>

Table 2. Details of sample of ten alleged eclipsing binary variable stars with stated period > 10 days.
Figure 1. Phase diagram for star #5, 2MASS J17504498-2954194.

Figure 2. Phase diagram for star #6, 2MASS J17522545-3007032.

Figure 3. Phase diagram for star #9, 2MASS J17574170-3110322.
Figure 4. Phase diagram for star #11, 2MASS J17585070-2853195.

Figure 5. Phase diagram for star #16, 2MASS J18023615-2957242.

Figure 6. Phase diagram for star #18, 2MASS J18031230-2844088.
Figure 7. Phase diagram for star #20, 2MASS J18103207-2637252.

Figure 8. Light curve for star #22, 2MASS J17543116-2954252.

Figure 9. Phase diagram for star #22, 2MASS J17543116-2954252.
The VSS RASNZ Variable Star Charts: a Story of Co-Evolution

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Received September 21, 2009; accepted October 7, 2009

Abstract  The background and history of the Charts for Southern Variables of the Variable Star Section of the Royal Astronomical Society of New Zealand (VSS RASNZ) is presented. It is seen that while there are some common origins with the charts of the AAVSO, they have undergone their own unique and important development. After much effort the two organizations’ chart resources are now compatible and complementary. Some more general but nonetheless important history of the VSS is also mentioned.

1. Introduction

1,302 charts with good sequences now exist for southern variables, courtesy of the Variable Star Section—now Variable Stars South—of the Royal Astronomical Society of New Zealand (VSS RASNZ). The charts have been published as Charts for Southern Variables in 27 Series between 1958 and 2008 (Table 1), with the earlier charts and sequences more recently revised.

We add a southern hemisphere perspective to the historical work done by Malatesta and Scovil (2005) which covers the early history of the AAVSO charts. The AAVSO certainly did—and do—offer charts for southern objects, but naturally their priority lies in the north. After much in common in the early years, it fell to those under the southern sky to do the labor needed. After many decades the two chart systems are now formally linked, with the southern comparison star sequences having being entered into the AAVSO’s Variable Star Plotter (VSP). This current work is excerpted and expanded from a presentation to the 2009 Conference of the RASNZ held in Wellington, New Zealand (Morel and Plummer 2009).

2. The Variable Star Section

The Section was formed in 1927 by Frank Bateson, on his return from a four-year stay in Sydney, Australia, in response to requests from professional and amateur astronomers. At first it was a sub-section of the Southern Variable Star Section of the New South Wales Branch of the British Astronomical Association (now the Sydney City SkyWatchers). From June 30, 1928, the successful sub-
section became an observing section of the Astronomical Society of New Zealand (Bateson, 1958a), later to become the RASNZ.

It is worth noting some historically important decisions, the consequences of which still reverberate in astronomy today. In the early 1950s a decision was made by Bateson to concentrate less on Miras and to observe all dwarf novae brighter than magnitude 13.5 at maximum. This was at a time when there was very little professional interest in these objects (Bateson 1990). Look to any current text on cataclysmic variables and the fruits of this decision can be seen (see for instance Livio and Shaviv 1983 and Warner 1995).

The International Astronomical Union (IAU) 1956 Dublin session formally asked the VSS and the AAVSO to work more closely together. In 1957 the two directors met—the AAVSO’s Margaret Mayall and Frank Bateson—whereupon it was agreed that VSS be freed from observing LPVs north of −20°. in order to concentrate on southern objects. This was with the important exception of U Gem stars and the like, because New Zealand filled an important longitude gap. Furthermore, the two organizations were asked to standardize charts and sequences (Bateson 1959). As will be seen below, this has only just been completed in the first years of the 21st century.

3. Charts and sequences

Every organization that starts its own series of charts has a precursor, drawing upon similar work done elsewhere. This is true of the VSS as much as the AAVSO. An early compiler of variable star charts around the year 1900 was Rev. Johann Georg Hagen, S.J. of Georgetown Observatory, Washington, DC. For a detailed account of his and other early advocates of variable star observing see Malatesta and Scovil (2005). These charts are now hard to locate; however, a set does exist in the State Library of New South Wales, Australia.

Hagen’s charts are described, but not reproduced, in the pages of the Astrophysical Journal (Anon. 1897; Hagen 1898; Parkhurst 1907). A specimen chart, U Puppis, is available for download from the ADS Serials and Journals server, but the reproduction is poor and distorted. Shown in Figure 1 is the Hagen U Pup chart from his Atlas Stellarum Variabilium, Series I (Hagen 1899), reproduced from a copy in the AAVSO library. The original charts have a grid, printed in red, the purpose of which was that when viewed under red light at the telescope, the grid would vanish.

Hagen’s listings of magnitudes were not really sequences as they are understood today, but simply visual estimates for every field star, and none were ever published in the Astrophysical Journal. At this time it is not known whether or not these charts were used by the VSS, but more likely early southern observers used charts from the AAVSO or the British Astronomical Association.

Campbell and Pickering (1913) published useful comparison star sequences for ninety-two variable stars south of −30°, and some of the VSS charts were
made from Campbell and Pickering’s photographs with these values marked on them. The AAVSO appears to have reproduced Campbell and Pickering’s original charts for these southern stars. The weaknesses of these sequences are summarized by Bateson (1958a) as follows:

1. Sequences often not as bright as the target at maximum.
2. Sequences often not as faint as target at minimum.
3. Consecutive stars in the sequences sometimes differ in brightness by far more than desirable.
4. Many differences in assigned and “apparent” magnitudes, and occasional wrong identifications.
5. All sequences unreliable under 11th magnitude.

The *Cape Photographic Durchmusterung* (CPD; Gill and Kapteyn 1895–1900) survey was used to plot some basic charts, and another cause of problems was the fact that the film was blue sensitive, so that red stars disappeared below about 10th magnitude while blue stars of magnitude 11.0–11.5 were present.

While the use of the *Cordoba Durchmusterung* (CoD; Thome 1892–1932) would have been preferable for making charts for visual observers, this survey, in five parts, was long out of print for most parts. By 1965 Bateson had overcome this problem in collaboration with Ignas Stranson of Queensland, Australia. The latter had very skillfully constructed his own Schmidt camera, aperture 7-inch and focal length 434-mm, which he used to photograph many southern variable star fields between 1965 and 1972. His prints were used extensively to provide accurate detail on the charts down to 13.5v, from Series Three onwards.

For lack of good sequences many VSS program stars, particularly long period variables, had only lettered comparison stars. The old observations of these stars await a future date to be reduced to numerical values and entered into the VSS RASNZ data base.

In the period 1974–2004 one of us (MM) was focused on preparing charts for the VSS under Frank Bateson’s direction. At first, the concept of an overall index or compilation of sequences such as now exists never really arose. As far back as 1966 Bateson stated “…After publication of all charts in this Series a separate publication will provide data on all comparison stars” (Bateson et al. 1966). There were some efforts made in 1994 after the *Guide Star Catalog* (Space Telescope Science Inst.1992) became available, however nothing of enduring value then materialized.

4. The beginning of modernization

In 2003 the AAVSO initiated their Comparison Star Database project. The aim was to document over 70,614 comparison stars on 4,128 charts, with the ultimate aim to have an updatable database which could be accessed by computer.
and used to create charts, on demand, by their Variable Star Plotter (VSP) system (Malatesta et al. 2007). While the work of documenting the AAVSO charts was divided up among about a dozen members, they were not surprisingly most familiar with northern skies.

The progress of the AAVSO work was followed closely, and it appeared that the extensive southern charting work of the VSS RASNZ was barely on the radar. In June 2005 it was decided that if documenting the VSS charts were to be done at all, if would have to be done by someone intimately familiar with their creation. Thus began Project Snapshot.


The plan was simple: to document all visual comparison stars used or selected by observers and shown on published VSS charts. With the availability of several modern all-sky surveys with reliable $BV$ data it appeared quite feasible to convert all of the existing VSS sequences to the international $BV$ standard, to clear the backlog of letter-only sequences, and to update old visual magnitudes.

Starting with the very first charts issued by the VSS, each chart was compared with a GUIDE8® display on a PC, to obtain the most precise astrometric position of each lettered comparison star or magnitude on the chart. The USNO-A2.0 Catalog (Monet et al. 1992) was used to extend the on-screen display beyond magnitude 14–15 when required. Particular care was needed when comparing a precise computer display with paper charts which often used telescopic field sketches, made by hand and eye alone.

Figure 2 compares the original hand drawn VSS chart 1 with the new version. The old chart is perfectly good and served very well for decades. However, it can not be doubted that the revised chart 1 serves the observer better.

Prior to 2001 quite a few VSS stars had photoelectric (p.e.) $V$ sequences determined and published by a variety of authors. Nevertheless it was felt wise to check existing p.e. sequences against All Sky Automatic Survey 3 (ASAS-3; Pojmański 2002) measures as any discrepant data could be identified and resolved. ASAS-3 has been extensively used in Project Snapshot.

It took about two years to go through 1,302 charts, compile the data, and type them all into EXCEL spreadsheets, of which there are now twenty-seven different volumes, corresponding to twenty-seven issues of Charts for Southern Variables. By mid-2007 Project Snapshot was essentially completed. One final task remained. At the suggestion of Arne Henden, Director of the AAVSO, between October 2008 and January 2009 the Snapshot files were converted into a format which could be loaded into the AAVSO’s Variable Star Database, and hence be utilized for online plotting of charts via the VSP system.

The ASAS-3 magnitudes used in Project Snapshot are not the perfect solution, as ASAS-3 only delivers one color—$V$. One would prefer at least $B–V$ as well, as there may unknowingly be very red stars in the sequences, a circumstance best
avoided. Until the AAVSO’s mooted All-Sky Photometric Survey gets up and running in a year or two observers have to make the best of what’s available. This new survey hopefully will return reliable data much fainter than the cutoff point of ASAS-3, 13.5V or so.

6. Conclusion

It is fitting that the VSS and AAVSO chart resources are now complementary and compatible. One might say that the vision of the 1956 IAU Dublin session was a long time being realized. As both organizations move into the future with the inevitable new astronomical discoveries and better measures, a close working relationship serves everyone well.

References

Bateson, F. M. 1958b, The Observation of Variable Stars, privately printed, Rarotonga, Cook Islands.
Gill, D., and Kapteyn, J. C. 1895–1900, Cape Photographic Durchmusterung, Ann. Cape Obs., 3 (1895, Part I: zones −18 to −37 degrees); 4 (1897, Part II: zones −38 to −52 degrees); 5 (1900, Part III: zones −53 to −89 degrees).
Table 1. Series comprising *Charts for Southern Variables*.

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*Note: The first twelve charts were not numbered. These were named “Series 1” some time after the publication of Series 2. The first twelve (unnumbered) were issued with a booklet to assist novice members of the VSS, titled The Observation of Variable Stars (Bateson, 1958b).*
Figure 1. Chart for U Pup from *Atlas Stellarum Variabilium*, Series I (Hagen 1899).
Figure 2a. The original VSS Chart 1 for R Car.
Figure 2b. The revised VSS Chart 1 for R Car.
Documenting Local Night Sky Brightness Using Sky Quality Meters: An Interdisciplinary College Capstone Project and a First Step Toward Reducing Light Pollution

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Received October 30, 2009; revised January 28, 2010; accepted January 29, 2010

Abstract The advent of inexpensive, hand-held light meters allows science students the opportunity to document night sky brightness in their local communities as a first step toward ultimately reducing local light pollution. We report our preliminary results of one college student’s interdisciplinary capstone project documenting sky brightness in the local campus community. The student produced two maps of sky brightness readings in the Morehead, Kentucky, area using the Unihedron Sky Quality Meter (SQM) and the Unihedron Sky Quality Meter with Lens (SQM-L). Typical night sky brightness measurements within town ranged from suburban to city on the Bortle Scale of visual brightness. We end with a discussion of opportunities for future student contributions to this project.

1. Introduction

Light pollution studies provide K–16 students an excellent opportunity to participate in interdisciplinary research projects (Percy 2002; Alvarez del Castillo 2004). Topics in light pollution span a multitude of disciplines: science, technology, environment, economics, society, and culture. As such, documenting and monitoring light pollution makes an exemplary capstone project for graduating college students. Furthermore, light pollution abatement discussions are more effective when based on quantitative arguments and so capstone projects such as these are both important and necessary.

At many colleges and universities, students are required to do a capstone project to complete their education. These are expected to be intensive, active learning projects. At Morehead State University, mathematics and science students are required to complete a directed research project to fulfill the capstone
requirement. In mathematics, the capstone research project is administered through a three-credit hour course administered over a fifteen-week semester. Students are required to conduct a research investigation, write a formal paper, and give an oral presentation on their work. Within the broader framework of the University’s general education standards, the mathematics capstone course has several learning objectives. These include the ability to:

1. locate, select, organize, and present mathematical information in an appropriate manner;

2. communicate mathematical reasoning effectively in both written and spoken forms;

3. use appropriate mathematical language to communicate ideas;

4. think and reason logically by evaluating, analyzing, and synthesizing information;

5. use technology as a tool to help solve non-trivial real-world problems;

6. express problems in multiple representational forms (e.g., graphical, algebraic, physical model);

7. develop a curiosity and appreciation for mathematics as a dynamic, accessible, and essential tool to model particular phenomena in daily life.

This particular list of objectives is specific to Morehead State University (MSU) mathematics students. However, several of these objectives are common to the capstone course in the physical sciences here at MSU. In addition, these objectives are common to most capstone experiences in the disciplines of both mathematics and science at many institutions of higher learning.

Using hand-held light meters to document night sky brightness on the campus and in the surrounding local community effectively addresses most of these learning objectives. For example, documenting night sky brightness quantitatively requires the use of technology (here a hand-held light meter and a GPS device) and mathematics to address the non-trivial, real world problem of light pollution and effectively meets objectives 5 and 7. The presentation of data measurements in terms of both a logarithmic measure in the astronomical magnitude system and plotted as function of geographic location, addresses objectives 4 and 6. Finally, objectives 1 through 3 are met when the student makes the oral and written presentations.

In addition to meeting these specific course goals, this project has strong interdisciplinary aspects. For example, a student should first research natural
sources of night sky brightness since “natural” light levels serve as a baseline for comparison with light pollution levels. These studies expose the student to astronomical sources of light and how such sources are quantified. The student should also do some research to put the problem into context and while doing so learns about plant, animal, and human ecology. In addition, the student can examine other aspects of light pollution such as the economic and environmental impact of the wasted energy associated with light pollution.

2. Data collection methods

All sky brightness measurements were obtained using the Unihedron Corporation Sky Quality Meter (SQM) and SQM-L. The SQM has a full cone angle of 84 degrees and the SQM-L has a lens that narrows the full observation cone down to 20 degrees. Both devices have the same sensor; the only difference is the lens. Each device measures sky brightness in visible light (from blue to red) in mag/arcsec². Both devices also measure temperature in both °C and °F; however, all photometric measurements are automatically corrected for temperature effects. Previous groups have reported the uncertainty of SQM measurements to be on the order of ±0.2 mag/arcsec² (e.g., Smith et al. 2008; Cinzano 2005).

Measurements of night sky brightness were made in accordance with the “Globe at Night” protocol (http://www.globeatnight.org/learn_SQM.html ). All measurements were made when the sky was free of clouds (as confirmed using current conditions as found on the “Weather Channel” web site) and moonlight. All data collection commenced at least one hour after sunset. The SQM and SQM-L were allowed to reach ambient temperature before any measurements were taken. All measurements were made away from obstructions (buildings, trees, walls) and at least 7.6m away from lighting fixtures. When taking brightness measurements, the student (JW) held the meters at arm’s length above her head. At each location, the student took a GPS reading and then obtained a measurement of sky brightness and ambient temperature with both the SQM and the SQM-L. All results were recorded by hand using a flashlight and notebook. Measurements for the main part of town, which includes the university, were taken on the night of January 21, 2009. (On this date, there was no snow cover on the ground.) Readings on the southern side of town and up along the main route (KY 32, which runs north and east from town) were made on April 24, 2009.

3. Sky brightness around Morehead, Kentucky

The city of Morehead (pop. 5,914) is located in Rowan County in northeastern Kentucky. Nestled in the foothills of the central Appalachian Mountains, Morehead is characterized by largely forested, hilly, and highly dissected terrain where elevation ranges between 208m and 404m. Similar (general) geologic patterns are found throughout the area.
Maps of sky brightness can be created using the GPS readings and the mapping and display facilities of Google Earth (Smith et al. 2008). This is a good option for those groups interested in simple displays of sky brightness data. In our case, we choose to use a GIS-based mapping approach because we expect that it will ultimately be particularly useful for not only educating people about light pollution patterns and trends in Morehead and Rowan County, but because it provides a framework in which to explore factors that may be contributing to light pollution (e.g., street lights, buildings), to delineate areas that are currently being impacted by light pollution (e.g., wildlife habitat), and to predict how future development may aggravate the problem.

We used ArcMap 9.2 from Environmental Systems Research Institute (ESRI) to create two air photo-based maps showing each device’s brightness readings collected within the City of Morehead. In ArcMap, device readings were overlain on a summer 2006 National Agricultural Imagery Program (NAIP) aerial photo obtained from the Kentucky Division of Geographic Information in order to visualize the correspondence between ground locations and each set of sky brightness measurements.

Examination of the SQM map (Figure 1) reveals that night sky brightness within the town itself varies dramatically, from as bright as 12.9 mag/arcsec\(^2\) near the local car dealership to as dark as 20.5 mag/arcsec\(^2\) in steep-sided valleys. Measurements made near commercial venues such as the local strip malls and plazas tended to be among the brightest sites. Shadowing by the surrounding hill sides (e.g., Smith et al. 2008) is evident at a number of locations in local “hollows” (i.e., the area between two hills). Sites at the edge of town also have lower readings due to distance effects (e.g., Pike 1976; Berry 1976). In fact, a measurement taken at nearby Cave Run Lake some 20km away benefits from both distance and hillside shielding: average SQM readings at this remote location were 21.7 mag/arcsec\(^2\).

Readings taken with the SQM-L (Figure 2) indicate that the main part of town and campus are in fact quite bright: most readings are significantly brighter than 19 mag/arcsec\(^2\). Using the Sky Brightness Nomogram (http://www.darkskiesawareness.org/img/sky-brightness-nomogram.gif) provided by the International Year of Astronomy’s Dark Skies Awareness website, it is clear that most of the town ranks between 6 (bright suburban sky) and almost 8 (city sky) on the Bortle Scale (Bortle 2001)!

A comparison of Figures 1 and 2 reveals a striking difference in meter readings. This is to be expected, given the much larger field of view of the SQM versus the SQM-L. The cone of the SQM is large enough that readings are significantly influenced by street lights, buildings, and trees. Thus, all future measurements will be made using the SQM-L.
4. Summary and future

This student’s work effectively documented night sky brightness in Morehead, Kentucky, during the first half of 2009. She presented her work at the state-wide meeting of the Kentucky Association of Physics Teachers in Louisville, Kentucky, on March 7, 2009, to an audience of college faculty and students and high school faculty. Later, in May 2009, she spoke to a local audience of Morehead State University students and faculty at her capstone presentation. Together, these presentations afforded the student meaningful “community engagement” activities.

As the city and county continue to grow, future students will monitor the evolution of light pollution using the Unihedron Sky Quality Meter and create additional maps. The aim is to continue to educate both the campus community and local residents and leaders about light pollution and its negative economical, ecological, and aesthetic effects—with the goal of reducing overall light pollution in the area. Towards this end, both measurements and maps will be shared with appropriate university, business, and government entities—as well as local residents—to help support the development and implementation of more effective and efficient lighting policies throughout the community.

5. Acknowledgement

The authors would like to thank the anonymous referee for the many helpful suggestions that helped improve the quality and focus of this paper.

References

Figure 1. Night sky brightness readings for Morehead, Kentucky, using the first generation Unihedron Sky Quality Meter (SQM) with an 84-degree cone. The readings are in magnitudes per square arc second with an uncertainty of about ±0.2 mag/arcsec².
Figure 2. Night sky brightness readings (in magnitudes per square arc second ±0.2 mag/arcsec$^2$) for Morehead, Kentucky, using the Unihedron SQM-L with a lens that narrows the sampling cone down to 20 degrees.
Scientists Look at 2012: Carrying on Margaret Mayall’s Legacy of Debunking Pseudoscience

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Abstract  In 1941 Margaret Mayall, the future director of the AAVSO, and Harvard colleague Bart Bok authored a critical study of astrology and its impact on society entitled “Scientists Look at Astrology.” They chastised the scientific community for thinking the debunking of astrology to be “below the dignity of scientists.” In contrast, they opined that it is one of the duties of scientists to “inform the public about the nature and background of a current fad, such as astrology, even though to do so may be unpleasant.” Fast-forward 68 years in the future, and the astronomical community now faces a pseudoscientific enemy just as insidious as astrology, yet just as ignored by the general professional and amateur community as astrology had been when Mayall and Bok took up the charge in 1941. The pseudoscience in question is the well-publicized “prediction” that the Mayan calendar will end on December 21, 2012, causing the end of civilization in concert with one of a number of possible astronomical calamities, including (but not limited to) the gravitational pull of the center of the Milky Way (somehow enhanced by an “alignment” with our solar system), the near-approach by a mythical 10th planet (often named Nibiru), large-scale damage to the planet by solar flares larger than those ever recorded, or the shifting of the earth’s axis of rotation (often confused with a proposed sudden and catastrophic reversal of the earth’s magnetic polarity). As a scientific and educational organization, the AAVSO and its members have a responsibility to follow in Mayall’s footsteps, shining the light of reason and knowledge on the dark corners of ignorance which far too often permeate the Internet, radio and television programming, and recent films, most notably 2012. This talk will highlight some of the basic premises of the 2012 hysteria and suggest ways that the AAVSO and its members can use variable stars and the history of the AAVSO to counteract some of the astronomical misinformation which is increasingly promulgated by proponents of the 2012 pseudoscience.
The Z CamPaign

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Abstract  Z Cam type dwarf novae are described as being those CVs that sometimes after an outburst do not return to their original brightness, but instead, get hung up on the way to quiescence in what is called a “standstill.” If it doesn’t exhibit standstills it isn’t a Z Cam star. There is no strong agreement between the various CV catalogs as to which few dozen or so stars are actually Z Cam type systems. If any significant percentage of the number of Z Cams eventually proves not to be Z Cam, the remaining few represent a fairly rare and unique class of stars worthy of further investigation. We will describe a campaign to observe many of the known and suspected Z Cam stars and the science goals we hope to achieve through this campaign.

T Ursae Minoris: From Mira to ???

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Abstract  T UMi is known to have decreased its period and amplitude dramatically, perhaps due to a helium shell flash. Most recently, its amplitude has dropped below the limit defining the class of Mira-type variables, and it now shows signs of multimode pulsation, the two modes having the period ratio observed in many semiregular variables. We suggest that T UMi is no longer a Mira-type variable, instead it is presently behaving like a member of the SRb class.

Variability “Profiles” for T Tauri Variables and Related Objects From AAVSO Visual Observations

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Jou Glasheen
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Abstract  T Tauri variables are young sun-like stars in various stages of their birth. The AAVSO has accumulated observations of T Tauri variables and related objects for several decades, but only recently have some of the observations been
validated and analyzed (Percy and Palaniappan 2006 JAAVSO 35, 290). Here, we report the analysis of many additional variables, using Fourier and self-correlation analysis. A few variables showed periodic behavior, but self-correlation analysis makes it possible to construct a “variability profile”—amount of variability versus time scale—for all the stars, not just the periodic ones. We will show several examples, and discuss the significance of the results. We will discuss an interesting but spurious low-amplitude one-year periodicity which occurs in a few of the stars, and a possible spurious low-amplitude one-month periodicity.

We thank the AAVSO observers who made the measurements, the AAVSO Headquarters staff—especially Elizabeth Waagen—who validated them, and the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada for support.

**GALEX and Optical Light Curves of LARPs**

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**Abstract**  
Low Accretion Rate Polars are expected to have little to no accretion and therefore flat light curves. But GALEX and ground-based data show otherwise. I will present our UV and optical light curves of three systems (WX LMi, SDSS1031+20 and SDSS1212+01) and the results of our modeling efforts for WX LMi.

**Kepler Observations of Variable Stars**

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**Abstract**  
The NASA Kepler mission was launched in March 2009 and has begun science operations. While its primary goal is to detect exo-planets—particularly Earth-like planets—light curves of variable stars will be a great by-product. Kepler exo-planet target stars as well as guest observer targets are already showing a wide variety of variability from classical types to new and bizarre variables. This talk will highlight light curves of some variables already observed, focusing on a few spectacular examples, as well as discussing ways in which AAVSO members can get Kepler light curves of their very own.
Rapid Cadence Monitoring of $\varepsilon$ Aurigae

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Abstract  Rapid cadence (every 42 seconds) photometry of $\varepsilon$ Aur in September 2009, using a V-filtered 50 mm $f$/2.8 camera lens and an SBIG ST-7E camera, does not show short period brightness variations significantly different from those of the comparison star $\eta$ Aurigae. On a scale of minutes to hours, the only variations detected are attributable to scintillation and differences in atmospheric extinction.

BVRI Photometry of W Ursae Majoris Binary Systems and Lessons Learned

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Abstract  Six years ago, a multi-color BVRI survey of W UMa binary systems was begun. This was the first time the author undertook multi-color photometry. Although he had done $V$-band photometry in the past, there were many new things he had to learn. Data of thirty-five W UMa binaries was collected on nine nights during Nov/Dec 2003 when the sky was suitable for all-sky photometry. The equipment used was an 11-inch Schmidt-Cassegrain with ST-9E camera and BVRI filters. Approximately 1,520 CCD images were obtained. The data then waited six years to be reduced. A major reason for the delay was overcoming procrastination in reducing this rather large data set. An efficient, accurate process had to be developed. First, Mira AL was used to extract the instrumental magnitudes. Then, the data were entered into a filemaker pro relational database where air mass values were obtained from the AAVSO web site. The final step in the reduction process was to use Minitab statistical software to transform instrumental magnitudes into standard magnitudes. Publication of the scientific results is forthcoming. This work was partially supported by a grant from NASA administered by the American Astronomical Society.

Debris Disks in the AB Doradus Moving Group

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Abstract  The field of planetary science is quickly developing due to our appetite to learn more about the formation of our solar system and about planets
around other stars. After the Jovian planets formed in our own solar system, it is believed that our solar system underwent a period of high dust production. For example, our terrestrial planets are thought to have formed from collisions between planetary embryos which includes the large collision that formed our moon when our solar system was ~50 Myr. These collisions formed more dust which swirled around our sun to become a debris disk. We can apply the model here to other star systems. Collisions between planetary embryos of other star systems must also produce high dust production and the dust grains are warmed by stellar light. These dust grains emit thermal infrared radiation which can be detected using space-based infrared telescopes such as the Spitzer Space Telescope (SST). However, it is important to note that the majority of these debris disks are not spatially resolved with current telescopes.

The goal of this project was to figure out if there were any debris disks around the stars in the AB Dor moving group. In this project, the moving group AB Doradus was chosen because at 50 Myr and only 20 pc away from Earth, the stars in this association make for an extraordinary laboratory for inquiry of the end-stages of planetary formation. Data was obtained from the Spitzer Space Telescope’s FEPS Legacy MIPS observations. The approach was to: 1) reduce Spitzer data to measure the brightness of the stars at 24 and 70 microns, 2) estimate the brightness of the stellar photosphere at those wavelengths and finally, 3) to look for an excess in the infrared emission which would indicate thermal radiation from dust grains. The study revealed that about 21% of the stars measured in AB Dor have debris disks. However, only the star system of HIP 18859 had an excess at both 24 and 70 microns. Therefore, only HIP 18859 is guaranteed to have a debris disk based on the result of this study.

Hawaii Student/Teacher Astronomy Research (HI STAR) Outcomes

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Abstract Outcomes of Hawaii Student/Teacher Research (HI STAR) program are: 1. Support grade 7–11 students in Hawaii to conduct authentic astronomy research projects worthy of Science Fair entry. 2. Provide HI STAR alumni pursuing science and mathematics majors in college with summer research opportunities. 3. Establish an astronomy mentoring program to support the students undertaking Science Fair projects. We will discuss how we have been able to realize these goals due to having passionate, motivated 12–16 year old students, dedicated astronomer mentors, committed parents and teachers and other supporters for our program. Our major grant funding is over, but we will continue HI STAR. We continue to expand our program. We will have our HI STAR alumnus, Mimi
Hang, now a sophomore at Mt. Holyoke College, discuss her research on Debris Disks in the AB Doradus Moving Group. She was fortunate enough to work at the Space Telescope Science Institute operated for AURA for NASA as an undergraduate researcher this past summer.

Estimate of the Limiting Magnitudes of the Harvard College Observatory Plate Collection

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Abstract This paper provides estimates of the number of plates in the Harvard College Observatory plate collection which show a given object. The estimate is a function of magnitude and sky location and is based on the analysis of 6,041 plates scanned under the “Digital Access to a Sky Century @ Harvard” program and transcriptions of 199,921 plate centers of the approximately 530,000 plates in the HCO collection. We find that the deepest plates are in the region of the Milky Way and the Magellanic Clouds.

Intrinsic Variability of Eclipsing Variable $\beta$ Lyrae Measured With a Digital SLR Camera

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Abstract Continued observations of $\beta$ Lyr with a DSLR camera with a standard-issue zoom lens (focal length: 55 mm; f/5.6) on an unguided tripod clearly show the well-known eclipse light curve where the magnitude drops about 0.6 magnitude every 12.94 days. After the eclipse light curve is subtracted the data show a definite intrinsic variability with a cycle time ~280 days. These observations were begun in June 2008 and are continuing through the present. The portability of the equipment and quick observation time should encourage many observers to make these observations while reserving telescopes for observing fainter objects. It is desired to obtain several years of similar observations of $\beta$ Lyr in order to understand the cause of the intrinsic variability. The wide field of view using photographic lenses as opposed to telescopes, while advantageous for bright stars, presents special problems in obtaining suitable flat fields and measuring for atmospheric extinction. The use of electroluminescent film as a source for flat fields will be evaluated. Problems correcting for atmospheric extinction will also be discussed.
Making Good Plots With EXCEL

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Abstract  Microsoft EXCEL is used by many amateur and professional astronomers for data analysis. EXCEL also has plotting capabilities which are often used in their default settings, which create plots that are hard to read and contain many violations of good style. Based on the work of Edward Tufte, I will present examples of good plots and bad plots and demonstrate how to make a good plot with Microsoft EXCEL.

Mrs. Fleming’s “Q” Stars

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Abstract  At Harvard in the 1890s, Williamina Fleming developed an alphabetical classification system for the photographic spectra of “normal” stars. In her system she used the letter “Q” for stars whose line patterns didn’t resemble the prototypes. After she published a preliminary catalog of spectral types for more than 10,000 stars, she studied the “peculiar” stars and published several papers on them in The Harvard Circulars. This paper will present the development of her classification system and her discovery of many variable stars and novae by the peculiarities in their photographic spectra.

The Park in the Sky

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Abstract  Parks in towns are favorite spots for stargazing. They commonly have open sky exposure, quiet surrounds, trees to block local lights, proximity to conveniences and transport. In New York City the prime park for astronomy is Central Park through the Top of the Lawn clear sky star viewing sessions on weekends. When a new park opens, astronomers inquire after its utility for stargazing. This was the case on Manhattan when the new High Line opened in June of 2009. But this park is a bit different than the typical center-city park. It’s a park in the sky, built on an abandoned elevated railway. The slides shows High Line by day and evening to illustrate its history and features. These demonstrate how the High Line in its few months of its operation became a new habitat for stargazers on each clear evening.