

## SS 433: A 6 YEAR PHOTOMETRIC RECORD

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### ABSTRACT

A homogeneous record of optical photoelectric photometric measurements of this special object is presented, including over 800 observations on  $\sim 700$  dates during 1979–1985, in the  $V$  band. A complete data table is furnished, which can be used for various future analyses and for correlation with other data (radio, X-ray, etc.) We present: (1) a power spectrum identifying the dominant periodicities, 13<sup>d</sup>081 and 162<sup>d</sup>5; (2) updated ephemerides for these periods; and (3) a mean, binned light curve on the 13 day period. Also (4), we show an interesting new synthesis of the average 162 day “precession” light curves broken down into four phase intervals on the 13 day cycle. This is a much better synthesis than was previously possible, because the well-known erratic light fluctuations in the object can now be averaged out to considerable degree. A positive “hump” at the 162<sup>d</sup> light minimum is now clearly seen to occur around orbital phase 0.5 (secondary 13<sup>d</sup> light minimum) but not at phase 0.0 (primary minimum). The connection with current models is discussed qualitatively.

*Subject headings:* stars: individual — X-rays: binaries

### I. INTRODUCTION

The strange close binary system designated SS 433 = V1343 Aquilae has preoccupied observers and theorists for over six years. It is, of course, the stellar object which emits two high-speed, oppositely directed particle jets, as discovered by B. Margon and his associates (Margon 1984). Two major periodic processes are identified: (1) a supposed precession of the beams and an associated accretion disk, period of  $\sim 162$  days; and (2) a 13 day orbital period. Both of these cycles were first found through spectroscopic Doppler variability, the first by Margon and co-workers, who observed large and periodic shifts of the so-called “moving” Balmer emission lines produced by the jets. The 13 day period was found by Crampton, Cowley, and Hutchings (1980), who detected small periodic shifts in the “stationary” lines which do not show the precessional motion.

Photometric variation was detected beginning in early 1979 (Gladyshev *et al.* 1979; Kemp *et al.* 1980), and light curves on both the 13 and 162 day periods have been gradually refined (Kemp *et al.* 1981; Cherepashchuk 1981; Henson *et al.* 1983; Leibowitz *et al.* 1984b; Gladyshev, Goranskii, and Cherepashchuk 1985). Those observations were standard photometry in broad bands, referred to comparison stars. Additionally, differential photometry in the form of line-to-continuum measurements, using the stationary H $\alpha$  line, was reported by Anderson *et al.* (1983a). Since SS 433 is an intrinsically “noisy” object, it has taken some years to arrive at reliable, detailed mean light curves—especially in the case of the long 162<sup>d</sup> cycle.

In this paper we record a homogeneous body of photoelectric optical photometric data, including some 800 data points on  $\sim 700$  dates, spanning the period 1979 to late 1985. These data resulted from carefully coordinated programs at observatories in Oregon, Israel, and Japan. (A few special observations were also done at Mauna Kea, Hawaii.) A key contribution is our data table. This is made available to those, for example,

who wish to search for correlation with other variability, e.g., radio, infrared, etc. It may be used for future analysis and modeling of the periodic processes, by others and by some of us. In the present paper, however, we will carry out only some limited synthesis of the data, and we discuss some results only qualitatively, with relationship to recent modeling by others.

### II. OBSERVATIONS AND DATA

The data reported here come from a program begun at Pine Mountain Observatory (PMO), Oregon, in 1979, using the 81 cm telescope (Kemp *et al.* 1980). This effort was immediately joined by observers at Wise Observatory, Israel, using their 1 m telescope. The effort was joined in 1980 by observers at Tokyo University Observatory, Japan, using a 60 cm instrument. All of the data were taken with a common, principal comparison star which we designate star 1. A local sky chart is shown in Kemp *et al.* (1981). The chart also shows a sky-sampling position, which was adhered to throughout the program; SS 433 is a faint star ( $V \approx 14$ ) in the Milky Way, and consistent sky sampling was crucial for accuracy. In the PMO observations, the object, sky, and comparison-star coordinates were controlled by a computer system, which made for consistency among the various observing assistants.

*Standardization of star 1.*—Approximate standardizations of this star were performed at PMO in 1979, 1983, and 1985, using HR (BS) stars 7303, 7288, 7266, 7219, and 7325. These are fifth to sixth magnitude stars located within a few degrees of star 1 on the sky. Using the Bright Star catalog magnitudes for these stars, we found the following  $V$  magnitudes for star 1:

$$\text{JD } 2,444,122.8, V = 11.212 \pm 0.055 \text{ (1979) ,}$$

$$\text{JD } 2,445,563.8, V = 11.520 \pm 0.240 \text{ (1983) ,}$$

$$\text{JD } 2,446,211.9, V = 11.207 \pm 0.072 \text{ (1985) ,}$$

$$\text{JD } 2,446,219.9, V = 11.291 \pm 0.033 \text{ (1985) .}$$

A weighted mean is  $V = 11.25 \pm 0.03$ . The 1983 measurement was very poor and is deweighted. An independent standardization of star 1 (also other field stars near SS 433) was performed in 1981 by Leibowitz and Mendelson (1982), using Landolt standard stars. They found from four nights' data that,  $V = 11.48 \pm 0.05$ . Another standardization by one of us (H. M.), carried out on three nights in August 1985, gave  $V = 11.44 \pm 0.02$ . There appears to be an  $\sim 0^m.15$  disagreement between the Oregon and Israel measures here, perhaps because of small systematic offsets between the listed magnitudes of the two groups of stars used.

*On the stability of star 1: check-star measurements.*—An auxiliary comparison star (check star), designated star *a*, has been observed intermittently at PMO since 1979. This star has approximate magnitude  $V = 10.8$  and is located  $\sim 4'$  ENE of star 1 and the “diamond” asterism (see Kemp *et al.* 1981). In the lower part of Figure 1 we show a record of 93 nights' measures of the difference  $V(1) - V(a)$  over the six years. These measures were sometimes brief, and the errors were typically  $0^m.04$ – $0^m.10$ . The possible relative variability seen in Figure 1 is quite small compared to the scale of variation in SS 433. In 1983, star 1 may appear to have been  $\sim 0^m.15$  brighter, on the average, than in other years. But a rather poor standardization (see above) in 1983 suggested that star 1 may have instead been fainter, and of course it is possible that the shift in that year may have been in star *a*, not star 1. It is gratifying that we see no long-term or secular trend in  $V(1) - V(a)$  over the six years.

#### a) A Six-Year Data Record of the V-Band Light Variation

A principal component of this paper is Table 1. We list here the magnitude differences  $V(\text{SS 433}) - V(\text{star 1})$ , with Julian dates. Observations have in fact been carried out in various filter bands (Kemp *et al.* 1981; Leibowitz *et al.* 1984b) but on shorter time scales. Since it was found that the color dependence of the light variation is weak, it was decided that only the  $V$  observations would be continued on a long-term basis.

In Table 1, the observing stations and telescopes used are indicated as follows. Data taken at PMO (Oregon) on the 81 cm telescope carry no special notation. Letters W, K, T, or M after data points signify the following: W; Wise Observatory, Israel, 1 m telescope; K: Kagoshima Space Center, Japan, 60 cm telescope; T: Tokyo Astronomical Observatory, Okayama, Japan, 90 cm telescope; M: Mauna Kea, Hawaii, 61 cm telescope.

Note that the Okayama and Mauna Kea observations were made only in August and September 1984. A special campaign of concentrated observations was carried out at that time by the combined Oregon, Israel, and Japan teams to coincide with X-ray observations of SS 433 by the *EXOSAT* and *Tenma* satellites—and, also, to study the light variation on a nearly 24 hour basis. This campaign was organized by the Japanese group and included collaboration with the X-ray astronomy group at the University of Leicester, UK. It included special Mauna Kea observations by an extra Japanese team (Ymasaki

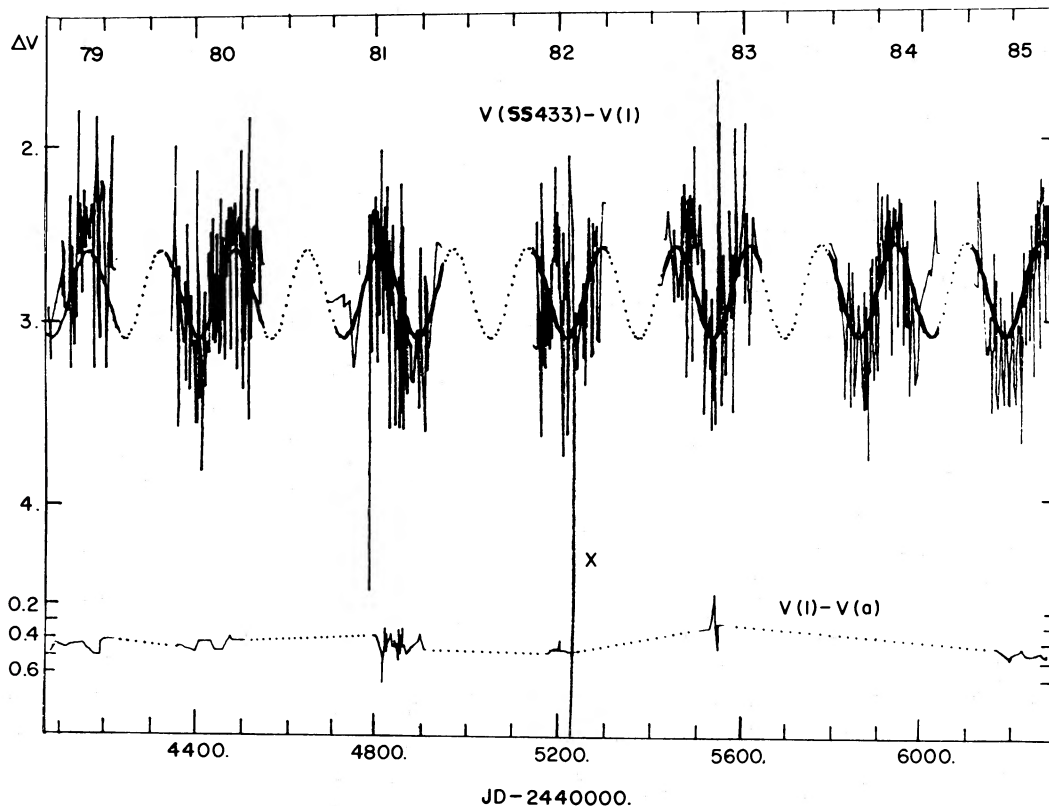


FIG. 1.—Simple, real-time plot of the  $V$ -band light variation of SS 433 during 1979–1985, in terms of the magnitude difference relative to the comparison star 1 (see text); an inverted scale is used, with upward meaning SS 433 is brighter. To guide the eye, we connect the data points (from Table 1) with straight-line segments. The “rapid” fluctuations are largely due to the 13 day orbital variation and the 6.5 day half-orbital variation, with additional sporadic outbursts or obscuration events, or both. The point X has the value  $\Delta V = 5^m.74$  and is below the lower border of the figure; it indicates the lowest brightness ever recorded for SS 433 (see text). Underlying the rapid variations is the  $162^d$  “precessional” variation; a fitted sine wave is shown to indicate this process. At the bottom of the figure we show relative magnitudes of the primary comparison star 1 against a secondary comparison star (check star) *a*, as measured somewhat intermittently over the six years at Pine Mountain; see text.





and Okazaki). Results from that effort, which were exciting and extremely important, will be published elsewhere (Stewart *et al.* 1986) and will be mentioned in our discussion below.

*Observing time scales*—The data values in Table 1 are generally averages from data collected over the span of 30–90 minutes. In most cases, especially at PMO and Wise Observatory, only one sample, a mean measure over  $\sim 1$  hour, was taken per night. Exceptions will be seen in Table 1, e.g., during the 1984 special campaign. In cases where the object was observed with one telescope for several hours in a night, we have condensed the data integrations into  $\sim 1$  hour averages. This condensation tends to make the data set, as given in Table 1, more homogeneous and uniform. In fact, the shortest time scale for appreciable variability in SS 433 seems to be 1–2 hours, with rare exceptions. (A separate analysis of variation on time scales from 30 minutes to days, as revealed by the 1984 campaign is being carried out by the Japanese group.)

*Measuring errors*—We do not list the individual errors in Table 1, partly because we could not do this in a uniform way. The methods of computing errors were different among the three observing groups. The PMO photometer is an analog type with A/D conversion to digital signals; errors are computed from fluctuations among actual magnitudes measured over a series of five-minute complete sequences of type object–sky comparison. Such errors include all sources of error such as variable sky, as well as photon statistics. The Japanese and Israeli observations were done with pulse-counting photometers, and usually only the photon-statistical errors were tabulated. The real errors for the great majority of points in Table 1 lie in the range  $0^m.03$ – $0^m.15$ , with a most typical error of perhaps  $0^m.07$ – $0^m.08$ . When the object was very faint the errors tended to be large, when expressed in magnitudes. For analyzing the periodic effects ( $13^d$  and  $162^d$  cycles, etc.), and for power-spectrum analysis, the individual errors are of course not needed. In the binned light curves what matters is only the spread among the data points within the phase bins.

#### b) A Simple or Real-Time Plot of the Light Variation, 1979–1985

This is shown in Figure 1, in terms of the magnitude difference  $\Delta V = V(\text{SS 433}) - V(1)$ , where  $V(1)$  is the magnitude of our main comparison star. We use an inverted vertical scale so that the brightness of SS 433 is upward. In this figure, the data points are connected arbitrarily with straight-line segments.

The relatively rapid, spikelike fluctuations on a time scale of 6–13 days are largely due to the 13 day eclipsing-binary cycle. But there are also erratic spikes and dips seemingly due to flaring or obscuration events or both. The extreme example is the point X, which is actually below the bottom of the plot.

Underlying the rapid variation is the 162 day “precession” cycle. In Figure 1 we indicate that with a fitted sine wave, using the best-fit period of  $162^d.5$  (see below). On the whole this fit is visually convincing.

The point X, which is actually below the lower border of the figure, indicates the lowest brightness ever recorded for SS 433. It occurs at JD 2,445,235.684, at precisely orbital phase  $\phi = 0.0$ , primary minimum (see Fig. 3), and at precession phase  $\Phi = 0.11$ . The actual value is  $\Delta V = 5^m.74 \pm 0.70$ . The error in magnitude is misleading because the object’s brightness in intensity units is only 0.07 times the mean or typical brightness corresponding to about the level  $\Delta V = 2^m.8$ . Relative to unit intensity at the mean level, the point X has intensity  $0.069 \pm 0.131$ , which is over 7 standard errors below the mean

level. This measurement at PMO was a 30 minute integration on a clear night with no special problems.

### III. THE PERIODIC PROCESSES IN THE LIGHT VARIATION

#### a) Power Spectrum, Periods, and New Ephemerides

In Figure 2 we show a power spectrum of the SS 433 V-band light variation. This was computed by the Fourier summation method, which is done by computing:

$$C_y = \frac{2}{N} \sum_i^N (\Delta V)_i \cos(2\pi\nu t_i),$$

$$S_y = \frac{2}{N} \sum_i^N (\Delta V)_i \sin(2\pi\nu t_i),$$

and by then computing  $A_y^2 = C_y^2 + S_y^2$ , the spectral power. Here  $i$  sums over the  $N$  data points, for a sequence of frequencies  $\nu = 1/P$ . In Figure 2 we use 2000 search frequencies out to  $P_{\min} = 6.0$  days.

In Figure 2 the highest peaks have periods of  $\sim 162$  and 6.54 days. The second of these is the half-orbital period, i.e., half of 13.08 days. A strong peak is also seen at the full orbital period. Nearby alias peaks or sidebands, caused by gaps in the data during winters, are also present. A higher resolution version of this power spectrum gives an updated best-choice precession period of  $162^d.5 \pm 0^d.25$ , as an average for the six years.

*Phasing of the  $162^d$  light and radial-velocity variations.*—While the  $162^d$  light curve is not simply sinusoidal, the principal Fourier component is a 162 day sine wave. We denote the epoch  $T_0$  and precession phase  $\Phi = 0.0$  as the time of light minimum in terms of the  $162^d$  Fourier component, as in Henson *et al.* (1983) and previous papers. In the present data set, we found an epoch  $T_0 = \text{JD } 2,440,017.9$ , using at least-mean-squares fit to a  $162^d.5$  sinusoid. Anderson *et al.* (1983b), using the period  $162^d.7$ , give the epoch  $t_0 = \text{JD } 2,443,561.8$  as the time of “first crossover” of the moving Balmer emission lines. This time is  $\sim 26$  days before the centroid or mean time between the two crossovers.<sup>1</sup> Adding 26 days to the Anderson *et al.*  $t_0$  we compute a central epoch (with  $\Phi = 0.0$ ) of JD 2,445,214.8 for the radial-velocity cycle, near the mid point of the 1979–1985 interval, using precisely the  $162^d.7$  period. The corresponding central epoch for the light variation, using a  $162^d.5$  period, is  $T_0 = \text{JD } 2,445,217.9$ . The agreement here to within 3 days is probably better than we could expect.

*New ephemeris for the orbital light variation, and a mean light curve.*—We found the best-fit  $13^d$  period by first subtracting off an average  $162^d.5$  sinusoid from the  $\Delta V$  values, which removes most of the variance due to that cycle. Least-mean-square fits were then made to a sum of full-period and half-period sinusoids (five-term regression including a constant), over a range of periods  $\sim 13^d.08$ . The highest Fisher F statistic for this fit was found with  $P = 13^d.081 \pm 0^d.003$ .

In Figure 3 we show the mean  $13^d$  light curve, with 20 bins, on the  $13^d.081$  period, using the entire data set of Table 1 except for a handful of late 1985 points<sup>2</sup>. A  $162^d.5$  sine wave has

<sup>1</sup> We feel it was a little unfortunate that a symmetrical phase convention was not adopted in the radial-velocity studies of the  $162^d$  variation. The symmetrical choice is to designate the epoch ( $\Phi = 0$ ) as the central time between adjacent crossovers of the moving lines, which is effectively what we do here; with this phasing, light maximum and also maximum separation of the pairs of moving lines occur at  $\Phi = 0.5$ .

<sup>2</sup> About 30 late data points were not used; these were added to our files after Figs. 2–4 were made up.

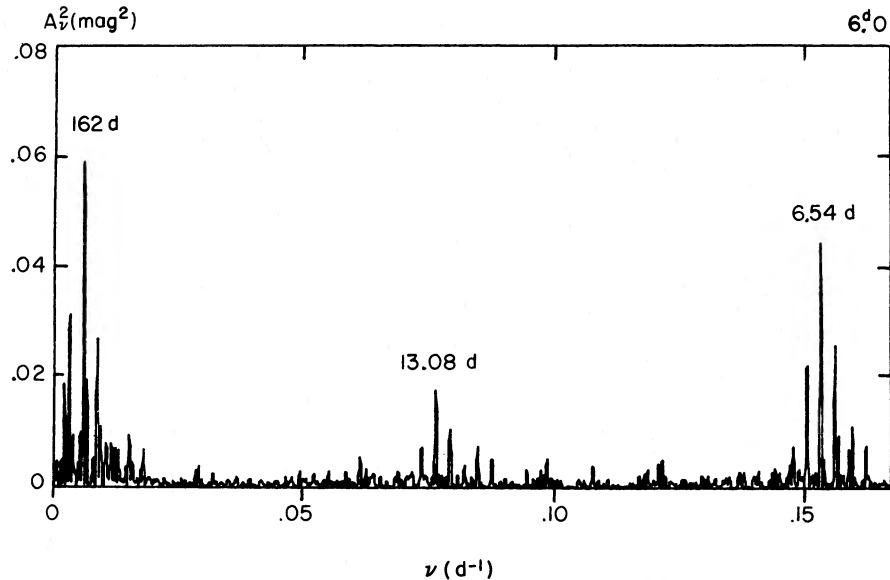


FIG. 2.—Power spectrum of the  $V$ -band light variation in SS 433, based on 783 data points during 1979–1985. The abscissa is in frequency (inverse period), out to a shortest period of 6.0 days. Sidebands or extra peaks around the principal high peaks are largely spurious, caused by approximately five month gaps between observing seasons.

been subtracted to reduce the bin errors. The bin errors here, also in the binned curves of Figure 4, were computed from the expression  $\sigma/(N-1)^{1/2}$ , where  $\sigma$  is the standard deviation of the data points in a bin around the bin average and  $N$  is the number of points in the bin.

From the mean curve we find primary light minimum to occur at epoch JD 2,440,003.434, and we have defined the phase  $\phi = 0.0$  in Figure 3 to correspond with that. Note the curve's approximate mirror symmetry around  $\phi = 0.5$  (and  $\phi = 0$ ); secondary light minimum occurs quite accurately at  $\phi = 0.5$ .

#### b) "Precessional" Light Curves: Breakdown by Orbital Phases

Several 160 day light curves using earlier data sets have appeared in print. The 160 day variation was early recognized to be sensitive to the 13 day cycle (and vice versa), and a simple curve averaged over orbital phase omits key information on the structure of the system. We would like to "freeze" the precessing disk, in a manner of speaking, at given orbital

phases and watch it precess in space without orbital motion. This can be done in effect by sorting the data into orbital phase bins, as was done in a coarse way by Leibowitz *et al.* (1984b) and more recently by Antokhina and Cherepashchuk (1985). But in the former of those cases, only a breakdown into two halves of the orbital cycle was done, while in the second case, bin errors were not shown and one could not assess the statistical significance of the curves.

With the present six-year data train it is fruitful to carry out this decomposition in more detail. In Figure 4 we show 162<sup>d</sup> light curves segregated into four orbital phase bins of full widths 0.2 cycle, centered on:  $\phi = 0$  (primary minimum), 0.25, 0.5 (secondary minimum), and 0.75.

Note the upward "hump" in the 162<sup>d</sup> light curve around precession phase  $\Phi = 0$ , in the curve with mean orbital phase 0.5—secondary 13<sup>d</sup> light minimum. Only traces of such a hump, without statistical significance, are seen in the curves for other orbital phases. This finding is extremely significant for geometrical models of SS 433 and will be taken up in dis-

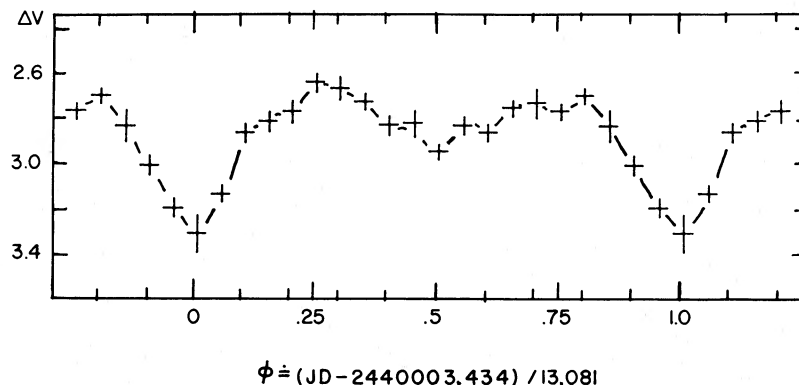


FIG. 3.—The mean  $V$ -band light curve on the orbital period 13<sup>d</sup>.081, using 783 data points from 1979–1985. To reduce the variance within phase bins, the underlying 162 day variation has been subtracted by removing a 162<sup>d</sup>.5 regression-determined sinusoid. In this and also Fig. 4, the bin errors are computed from the variances of data points within the bins; a bin error is computed at  $\sigma/(N-1)^{1/2}$ , where  $\sigma$  is the standard error (root-mean-square fluctuation) of the  $N$  points in the bin.

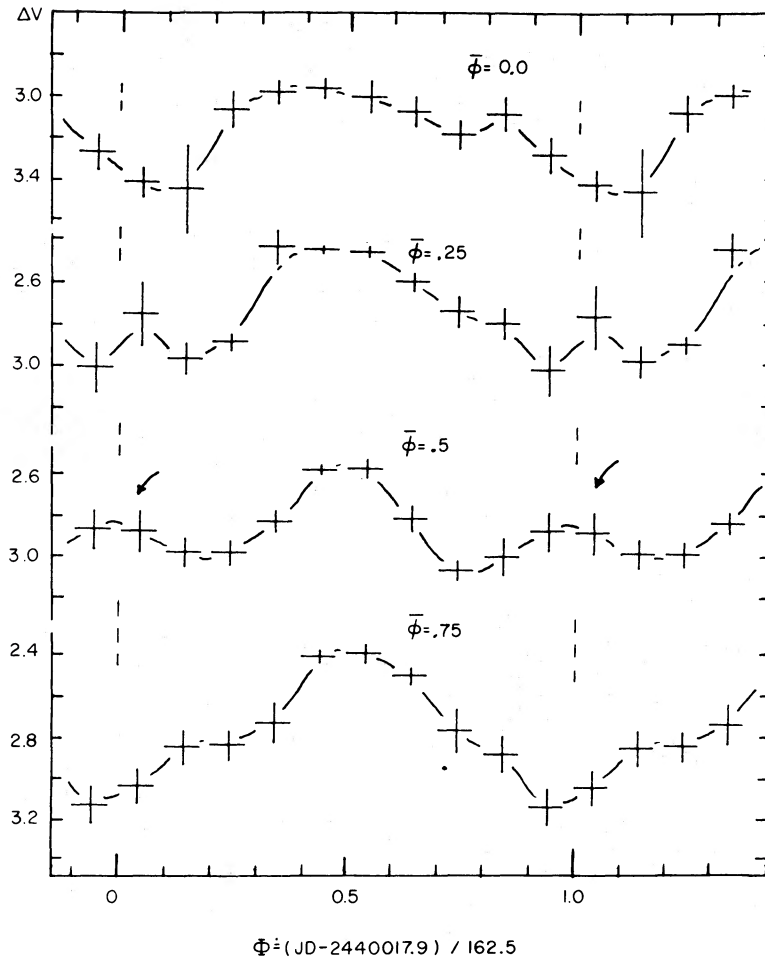


FIG. 4.—Decomposition of 162.5 light curves into phase intervals of widths  $\Delta\phi = 0.2$  of the  $13^d$  orbital period, centered on four orbital phases  $\phi$ : 0.0 (primary minimum) 0.25 (first quadrature) 0.5 (secondary minimum) 0.75 (second quadrature). The arrow points to a brightness “hump” in the precessional light curve at precession phase  $\Phi = 0$ , which occurs most clearly at or near orbital phase 0.5, when the secondary body (collapsed body and disk) are presumed to be in front of the star.

cussion below. Hints of this sort of structure were seen in earlier work Mazeh, Leibowitz, and Lahav 1981; Henson *et al.* 1983) but here the feature is quite definite.

#### IV. DISCUSSION

A primary reason for this paper is to provide the community with a long, homogeneous data base of the complex light variation in this object. However, we have included a modest amount of synthesis of the data, and some remarks follow.

The “hump” in the precession light curve noted above is an especially interesting feature which is fairly clear in our synthesis (Fig. 4).

In the model of SS 433 believed by many (but not all) investigators, we have a compact body, likely to be a black hole (Leibowitz *et al.* 1984a; Antokhina and Cherepashchuk 1985), orbiting an evolved star which fills its Roche lobe. A precessing disk and associated beams which issue normally from the disk’s nucleus are centered on the compact body. Variants of mechanisms underlying the precession have been described by Leibowitz (1984). The system’s orbital inclination is  $78^\circ$ – $80^\circ$ , and it is clearly an eclipsing system. The disk tilt angle out of the orbital plane is  $\sim 20^\circ$ .

A question which was asked as soon as the eclipsing binary-

like  $13^d$  light curve was defined was: “What is eclipsing what, at primary minimum in this light curve?” Unlike the situation with less exotic binary objects, this question could not be quickly answered, mainly because spectral lines from the presumed mass-losing star in the system have not been definitely identified. The best case for lines showing orbital motion seems to be that of the He II line at  $4686 \text{ \AA}$ , which Crampton and Hutchings (1981) propose to originate in the accretion disk. Those lines show velocity variations which are in an approximately quadrature relationship to the light-curve minima. The maximum positive He II radial velocity occurs at close to our orbital phase 0.75. If the  $4686 \text{ \AA}$  line originates in the disk, this says that the disk is “behind” the star at primary light minimum,  $\phi = 0$ . Confirmation of that phasing seems to come from Katz *et al.* (1982), from an analysis of the so-called nodding motion of the precessing disk.

That the disk is behind the (darker) star at  $\phi = 0.0$  has recently become quite certain from dramatic results of joint X-ray/optical observations, in 1984, which we mentioned in § IIa above (a paper, Stewart *et al.* 1986, is in preparation). The 13 day X-ray light curve was found, in fact, to show a definite minimum at orbital phase 0; the source is (partially) obscured around that phase.

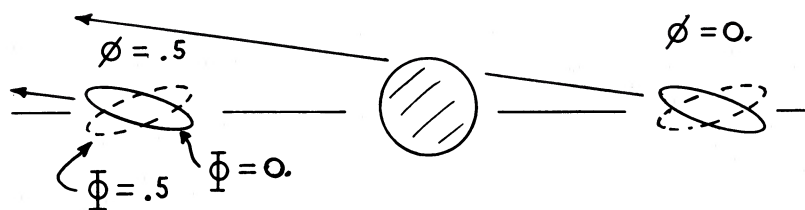


FIG. 5.—Some geometrical aspects of the system, relevant to the appearance of the brightness hump in the precessional light curve at precession phase 0.0 referred to in Fig. 4 and in the text. This is a view of the system from a vantage point in the orbital plane, moved out at right angles to the object-Earth direction. The disk is represented as having a thick elliptical cross section. The observer (at Earth) is off to the left in the figure. Solid-line ellipses represent the disk cross section at precession phase  $\Phi = 0$ , when we tend to look “under” the disk. Dashed-line ellipses represent precession phase 0.5, when the disk presents a maximum cross section to us—and when, also, the “moving” Balmer emission-line pairs due to the beams (not shown in the figure) are most widely separated.

Assuming this phasing of the system’s components, let us look at the hump in the 162 day light curve at  $\Phi = 0$ , which is visible when the orbital phase is around 0.5. We attempt to interpret this in terms of the geometry of Figure 5. There we depict the SS 433 system as seen from the side, from a vantage point in the system’s orbit plane but moved out at right angles to the object-Earth direction. At  $\phi = 0.5$ , the disk is not eclipsed at any precession phase ( $\Phi$ ) by the star. Let us assume that the disk luminosity and the luminosity distribution over the disk do not depend on either  $\phi$  or  $\Phi$ . The disk is taken to be optically thick. When both  $\phi$  and  $\Phi$  equal  $\sim 0.5$ , we have an absolute light maximum, with the disk presenting a maximum, unobscured cross section to us. At about precession phases  $\Phi = 0.25$  and  $0.75$ , the disk is edge-on, causing light minima. At orbital phase  $\phi = 0.5$ , and at  $\Phi = 0.0$  we actually look “under” the disk and see the luminous underside producing a second, small light maximum—a hump in the precessional light curve.

The situation is different at orbital phase 0. Since we do not see the brightness hump at  $\Phi = 0$  in that case, we must suppose that the bright underside of the disk is covered by the star—at least the central part of the underside, which is the hottest and brightest part.

This qualitative picture of the hump phenomenon seems to require, for one thing, that the disk is geometrically thick. Antokhina and Cherepashchuk (1985) have modeled the light curves using essentially the above physical picture. They used a (thick) precessing ellipsoid for the accretion disk, with a high polar temperature which they place in the range 20,000–100,000 K. They took the primary star to be an OB star with  $T \approx 16,000$  K. From their modeling they find a pattern which partly agrees with our observed curves: They show precession curves with a “hump” at  $\Phi = 0$  (or  $\alpha = 180^\circ$  in their notation) for the case  $\phi = 0.5$  (orbital secondary minimum) but almost no hump for  $\phi = 0$ .

The agreement of our curves with the above picture is not complete. A hump at  $\Phi = 0$  ought to be seen at all orbital phases except near  $\phi = 0$ , where the disk is partly eclipsed. The model curves of Antokhina and Cherepashchuk for quadrature orbital phases show an undiminished hump. But the quadrature-phase curves in our Figure 4 show only a mild hump (which may not even be statistically significant) for  $\phi = 0.25$ , and none at all for  $\phi = 0.75$ . Something else must be involved. Back heating of the primary star by the disk could have a subtle effect: at the orbital quadratures, when the disk is tipped at precession phase 0.0 it is edge-on to the star. The back heating and reflection by the star would be then reduced, and the resulting drop in the total light might cancel the brightness hump at  $\Phi = 0$ .

There is some evidence for certain asymmetries in the precession curves of Figure 4, e.g., in the  $\phi = 0.25$  curve. Earlier precession light curves, based on fewer 162<sup>d</sup> cycles, showed stronger asymmetries, but those features could have been an artifice of random or irregular intrinsic changes in the object. Asymmetrical precession and orbital light curves appear in model calculations by Leibowitz (1984), connected with a Coriolis-deflected gas stream and hot spot. It is worth noting, however, that our new mean 13<sup>d</sup> light curve (Fig. 3), which has quite small bin errors, shows very little evidence for important asymmetry.

“Dark” events and the disk luminosity.—The extreme brightness drop at point X in Figure 1 and some other less-deep drops superficially suggest that the disk is very much brighter than the star. As noted in § IIb, point X occurred at precisely  $\phi = 0$ , orbital primary minimum. Suppose the disk to vary somewhat in size from time to time and that it is normally eclipsed by, say, 80% at primary minimum. Then if the disk were momentarily 20% smaller at the time of some eclipse, it might literally disappear from view. If the drop at date X were taken literally it would imply that the disk is 13 times brighter than the star in visible light and certainly 4 times brighter allowing for statistical error. Another possibility for the dark events, however, might be external obscuration by a changing, surrounding dust cloud; Ramaty, Kozlovsky, and Lingelfelter (1984) discuss indirect evidence for the presence of dust grains near the SS 433 system, in connection with the gamma-ray emission mechanism. But it is worth noting (see data in Table 1) that one day before the point-X event, and two days after it, the object’s brightness was normal; thus the time scale for an obscuring event would have to be short.

Further modeling of the SS 433 system is encouraged. We note that we have not searched the present data base for photometric counterparts of processes such as the nodding motion of the beams and disk (Katz *et al.* 1982), nor for indications of period changes. Readers are invited to analyze our data for such effects.

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