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THE MAGELLANIC ZOO: MID-INFRARED SPITZER SPECTROSCOPY OF EVOLVED STARS AND CIRCUMSTELLAR DUST IN THE MAGELLANIC CLOUDS

G. C. Sloan,1 K. E. Kraemer,2 P. R. Wood,3 A. A. Zijlstra,4 J. Bernard-Salas,4 D. Devost,1,5 and J. R. Houck1

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ABSTRACT

We observed a sample of evolved stars in the Large and Small Magellanic Clouds (LMC and SMC) with the Infrared Spectrograph on the Spitzer Space Telescope. Comparing samples from the SMC, LMC, and the Galaxy reveals that the dust production rate depends on metallicity for oxygen-rich stars, but carbon stars with similar pulsation properties produce similar quantities of dust, regardless of their initial metallicity. Other properties of the oxygen-rich stars also depend on metallicity. As the metallicity decreases, the fraction of naked (i.e., dust-free) stars increases, and among the naked stars, the strength of the 8 μm absorption band from SiO decreases. Our sample includes several massive stars in the LMC with long pulsation periods that produce significant amounts of dust, probably because they are young and relatively metal-rich. Little alumina dust is seen in circumstellar shells in the SMC and LMC, unlike in Galactic samples. Three oxygen-rich sources also show emission from magnesium-rich crystalline silicates. Many also show an emission feature at 14 μm. The one S star in our sample shows a newly detected emission feature centered at 13.5 μm. At lower metallicity, carbon stars with similar amounts of amorphous carbon in their shells have stronger absorption from molecular acetylene (C₂H₂) and weaker emission from SiC and MgS dust, as discovered in previous studies.

Subject headings: circumstellar matter — infrared: stars

1. INTRODUCTION

In the Galaxy, stars on the asymptotic giant branch (AGB) may be responsible for nearly 90% of the dust injected into the interstellar medium (ISM), with supergiants accounting for most of the remainder (Gehrz 1989). How much these relative contributions change in the early universe is not well understood. This question has grown even more important, now that the Infrared Spectrograph (IRS; Houck et al. 2004) on the Spitzer Space Telescope (Werner et al. 2004b) has detected dust in galaxies at redshifts of 2.6–2.7 (Teplitz et al. 2007; Lutz et al. 2007), corresponding to look-back times of ~11 Gyr in a universe 13.7 Gyr old. Supernovae have been suggested as a possible source of dust in the early universe (e.g., Cernuschi et al. 1967; Dwek & Scalo 1980), but the amount of dust they contribute remains controversial (e.g., Sugermand et al. 2006; Meikle et al. 2007). The most massive stars that can evolve to the AGB will begin producing dust only ~100 Myr after the formation of the first stars in a galaxy. This initial population will be metal-poor.

Nearby galaxies within the Local Group give us the opportunity to study how the dust produced by individual supergiants and AGB stars depends on metallicity. The Large and Small Magellanic Clouds (LMC and SMC) lie at distances of 50 and 61 kpe, respectively (e.g., Alves 2004; Keller & Wood 2006). Measurements of the metallicity ([Fe/H]) of the LMC vary between ~0.3 and ~0.4, while the range in the SMC is between ~0.6 and ~0.8 (Keller & Wood 2006 and references therein).

The Infrared Space Observatory (ISO) obtained the first mid-infrared spectra of evolved stars in the LMC. Trams et al. (1999) published spectra of 23 targets using the PHOT-S spectrometer, which covered the 2–5 μm and 6–12 μm wavelength ranges at a resolution R ~ 90 (R = λ/Δλ), and the CAM-CVF spectrometer, which observed the 7–14 μm wavelength range at a resolution of ~40. The formation of CO molecules in stellar outflows will exhaust either C or O from the material available to form dust and divides the dust chemistry around these objects into oxygen-rich or carbon-rich. The ISO sample includes spectra from both chemistries, and Trams et al. (1999) showed that they could separate these two groups photometrically with color–color diagrams.

The spectrometers on ISO allowed observations of only the brightest targets. The improved sensitivity of the IRS on Spitzer has made possible more detailed studies of mass loss and dust injection in both the LMC and SMC. The five major programs have observed a combined total of 176 sources in the LMC and 63 in the SMC, most of them evolved stars. Sloan et al. (2008) reviewed these programs and the different criteria used to select targets.

Program 3426 (PI Kastner) focused on the brightest sources in the LMC, using the classes defined from observations of the Midcourse Space Experiment (MSX) by Egan et al. (2001) (Kastner et al. 2006; Buchanan et al. 2006). Program 3591 (PI Kemper) targeted objects covering the stages of evolution of oxygen-rich stars from the AGB to planetary nebulae (Leisenring et al. 2008; F. Kemper et al. 2008, in preparation). Program 3277 (PI Egan) selected targets in the SMC based on their infrared colors (Kraemer et al. 2005, 2006; Sloan et al. 2006b). Program 3505 (PI Wood) spanned a range of mass-loss rates in the LMC and the SMC. It included a young stellar object (YSO; van Loon et al. 2005b), but nearly all of the rest are carbon stars (Zijlstra et al. 2006; Matsuura et al. 2006; Groenewegen et al. 2007; Lagadec et al. 2007). The other three programs also observed more carbon stars than initially planned, with sources classified photometrically as OH/IR stars turning out to be carbon stars instead.

This paper focuses on program 200 (PI Sloan; hereafter referred to as the MC_DUST program). The next section describes the sample and the ground-based support observations. In § 3 we describe the IRS observations, the data reduction, and the
classification of the spectra. The MC_DUST sample contains a rich variety of object types, each of which requires a different method of analysis. We examine each of these types in turn in the following sections: stars with no associated dust (naked stars; § 4), dusty oxygen-rich stars (§ 5), carbon stars (§ 6), and red sources with emission from polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs; § 7). Several targets show characteristics that place them in multiple categories, and as a consequence, they are analyzed in more than one of the following sections. In each of these sections, we examine individual sources and unusual spectral features, but we save a more general comparison of the various populations for § 8. Finally, we draw conclusions in § 9.

2. THE SAMPLE

2.1. Sample Selection

The MC_DUST program was a small (17.2 hr) program conducted as part of the IRS Guaranteed Time Observations (GTO). It sampled sources in the LMC and SMC covering a range of classifications determined in both the optical and the infrared. The targets were divided into seven classes: red supergiants (RSGs), four categories of optically identified AGB sources (M giants, MS stars, S stars, and C stars), and two categories of infrared sources: OH/IR stars and infrared carbon-rich sources (C/IR stars). Table 1 breaks down the observing program by object class, as planned and as actually executed. The plan included 28 sources in the LMC (19 oxygen-rich and 9 carbon-rich) and 13 in the SMC (9 oxygen-rich and 4 carbon-rich). As with other programs in the Magellanic Clouds, the crowded regions resulted in several peak-up failures. In our case, we lost three objects in the LMC and three in the SMC, but we gained three serendipitous observations, two in the LMC and one in the SMC.

The other spectroscopic samples in the Magellanic Clouds were selected primarily from near- and mid-infrared photometry, but most of the sources in the MC_DUST sample were selected based on optical spectral classifications, supplemented with longer wavelength data. While many of the object types in other programs turned out to be different than planned, our sources, for the most part, had the photospheric chemistries we had expected. Another advantage was that we were able to observe several sources below the photometric limits of previous infrared surveys, allowing us to probe fainter sources on the AGB.

Table 2 lists the individual targets in the MC_DUST sample. The targets with Harvard variable numbers and the carbon star CV 78° were selected from the study by Wood et al. (1983). These targets account for most of the sources in the RSG, AGB/M, and AGB/MS classes. The AGB/S and AGB/C stars with WBP numbers were selected from the observations of Wood et al. (1985). Wood et al. (1983) identified MACHO 79.550526 as HV 5680, but HV 5680 is actually 16° to the northeast and a magnitude fainter at K. The target we have named BFM 1 was the first S star identified in the SMC (Blanco et al. 1981) and, as discussed below, is the only true S star in our sample. We also selected six oxygen-rich infrared sources first studied by Wood et al. (1992). They identified three as OH/IR stars. The other three include a suspected supergiant (IRAS 04530) and two luminous and embedded evolved stars (IRAS 04509 and IRAS 04516). Finally, we selected three sources believed to be infrared carbon stars (C/IR) from a sample studied by van Loon et al. (1999). The types in parentheses in Table 2 have changed, as discussed in §§ 3.3 and 3.4.

Peak-up failures affected our sample of carbon stars most significantly, reducing our LMC sample from eight to six carbon stars and our SMC sample from four to one. Fortunately, other programs produced a surplus of carbon stars, which has resulted in a series of papers on carbon stars in the SMC (Sloan et al. 2006b; Lagadec et al. 2007) and the LMC (Zijlstra et al. 2006; Leisenring et al. 2008). Three of the peak-up failures resulted in serendipitous observations. Instead of observing NGC 371 LE 28 in the SMC, we observed Massey SMC 59803, a supergiant with a spectral class of K2–3 I (Levesque et al. 2006). In the LMC, we observed the giant WOH G339 instead of WBP 51, and instead of WBP 116, we observed a source identified only in the Two Micron All Sky Survey (2MASS) catalog (2MASS J05283210–6929084, or J052832 for short). Little is known about this last source; it may even be a foreground object and not in the SMC.

2.2. Ground-based Spectroscopy

To verify the overall chemistry of our targets, we obtained optical spectra using the Double Beam Spectrograph on the 2.3 m telescope of the Australian National University at Siding Spring Observatory (SSO) of all of our targets, except for seven of the nine IRAS sources, due to their heavy optical obscuration. These spectra covered the 0.45–1.05 μm wavelength range with a resolution of 10 Å. They were reduced using standard IRAF procedures with HR 718 as a flux standard and the weak-lined giant HD 26169 to remove telluric features. Figure 1 presents the optical spectra. We have expanded the panels for HV 5810, BFM 1, and WBP 17 to use them as prototypes for M giants, S stars, and carbon stars, respectively, and make room for labels for the visible molecular bands.

Cyanogen (CN) bands dominate the spectra of the carbon stars and make them easy to distinguish, with their characteristic corrugations. The bands that appear in this wavelength range arise from the A2Π–X2Σ+ electronic transition (Huber & Herzberg 1979). The band systems are labeled with the change in vibrational state, and in each system the vibrational states involved increase to the red. The spectrum of CV 78 includes Hα emission at 0.656 μm.

TiO band systems dominate the spectra of the M giants. The identifications of the band systems presented in Figure 1 are from Huber & Herzberg (1979) and the models of M dwarfs by Valenti et al. (1998). The spectra in the sample show a wide range of band strengths. The spectra that are most obscured by dust show only the reddest bands. Some of the spectra show Hα emission. Figure 1 shows that the spectrum of one of our planned C/IR stars, IRAS 05128, is very similar to IRAS 04516 and clearly oxygen-rich. Trams et al. (1999) classified it as a carbon star based...
on its ISO/PHOT-S spectrum, but subsequently, Matsuura et al. (2005) found strong H$_2$O absorption and possible weak SiO absorption in its 2.9–4.1 $\mu$m spectrum. Our optical spectrum confirms their conclusion that IRAS 05128 is oxygen-rich. Van Loon et al. (2008) classify IRAS 05128 as an M9 giant.

Blanco et al. (1981) identified BFM 1 as an S star based on a strong LaO band at 0.79 $\mu$m. Our spectrum clearly shows both LaO and ZrO bands, but these are superimposed on a CN spectrum (compare BFM 1 to CV 78 just below it). The strong LaO band at 0.79 $\mu$m makes the head of the CN band too deep, and second, the A\(^{+}\) band system at 0.69–0.72 $\mu$m strengthens the apparent transition unambiguous. The Mc_Dust Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TARGET</th>
<th>R.A. (J2000.0)</th>
<th>Decl. (J2000.0)</th>
<th>2MASS</th>
<th>J</th>
<th>H</th>
<th>Ks</th>
<th>SOURCE TYPE</th>
<th>PERIOD (days)</th>
<th>REFERENCES</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>HV 1123</td>
<td>00 32 01.61</td>
<td>–73 22 34.7</td>
<td>11.166</td>
<td>10.276</td>
<td>9.971</td>
<td>AGB/MS</td>
<td>407</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>HV 1366</td>
<td>00 42 49.87</td>
<td>–72 55 11.4</td>
<td>12.232</td>
<td>11.431</td>
<td>11.154</td>
<td>AGB/M</td>
<td>305</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BFM 1</td>
<td>00 47 19.24</td>
<td>–72 40 04.5</td>
<td>12.661</td>
<td>11.647</td>
<td>11.027</td>
<td>AGB/S</td>
<td>398</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>CV 78</td>
<td>00 49 03.94</td>
<td>–73 05 19.9</td>
<td>11.649</td>
<td>10.613</td>
<td>10.129</td>
<td>AGB/C</td>
<td>423</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HV 11303</td>
<td>00 52 08.84</td>
<td>–71 36 24.0</td>
<td>10.836</td>
<td>9.983</td>
<td>9.540</td>
<td>AGB/MS</td>
<td>534</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>HV 11329</td>
<td>00 53 39.40</td>
<td>–72 52 39.2</td>
<td>10.911</td>
<td>9.987</td>
<td>9.647</td>
<td>AGB/M</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>HV 838</td>
<td>00 55 38.22</td>
<td>–73 11 41.1</td>
<td>10.608</td>
<td>9.860</td>
<td>9.440</td>
<td>AGB/M</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<tr>
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<td>00 56 54.77</td>
<td>–72 14 08.6</td>
<td>11.066</td>
<td>10.154</td>
<td>9.870</td>
<td>AGB/MS</td>
<td>366</td>
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<td>HV 12149</td>
<td>00 58 50.17</td>
<td>–72 18 35.6</td>
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<td>9.022</td>
<td>8.609</td>
<td>AGB/M</td>
<td>745</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
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<td>HV 1963</td>
<td>01 04 26.63</td>
<td>–72 34 40.3</td>
<td>10.638</td>
<td>9.677</td>
<td>9.409</td>
<td>AGB/MS</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>3(^a)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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</table>
of oxygen-rich sources in our analysis. However, the fact that BFM 1 is our sole strong S star is significant. It is the only source where \( \frac{C}{O} \approx 1 \), which may explain its unusual dust properties (see \( \frac{5}{6} \)).

2.3. Optical Light Curves

Many of the stars in our sample have light curves in the databases from the MACHO Project (Massive Compact Halo Objects; Alcock et al. 1996) and/or the Optical Gravitational Lensing Experiment (OGLE; Udalski et al. 1997; Szymanski 2005). Table 2 includes the periods we have determined from these data. Most of these stars pulsate regularly, or semiregularly, with periods covering a wide range, from \( \sim 100 \) to \( \sim 1400 \) days. The red and blue light curves sometimes give slightly different periods. We have found that the blue light curves generally produce more self-consistent periods.

Some of the periods have changed significantly from previously published results, primarily because some of the older periods were based on data that did not sample the light curves adequately. Several periods measured by Wood et al. (1983)
have changed. HV 1963 had a period of 330 days, but we measure a period of 249 days with the OGLE data. The MACHO data for MACHO 79.5505.26 give a period of 97 days, compared to 151. This source has a longer cycle of 1200 days, so the shorter period must be an overtones mode. The period of HV 2578 has changed from 470 to 247 days, based on the MACHO data. HV 2572 previously had a period of 201 days. The OGLE data are poorly characterized, but a period of 391 days fits the data better than any other. Wood et al. (1985) measured the period of WBP 29 to be 360 days, but we find that the MACHO data are more consistent with a 247 day period. Several other periods have changed by amounts less than 10%.

2.4. Near-Infrared Photometry

We obtained ground-based near-infrared photometry for our sources as close in time to the IRS observations as possible. We used CASPIR (McGregor et al. 1994) on the 2.3 m telescope at SSO to obtain images at J (effective wavelength 1.24 μm), H (1.68 μm), K (2.22 μm), and narrowband L (3.59 μm). Sloan et al. (2006b) describe the calibration methods. Table 3 presents the photometry. It includes two entries for four sources because we observed them twice with the IRS and twice from the ground. The photometric data for WBP 17 are averaged from measurements made before and after the IRS spectroscopy.

3. IRS SPECTROSCOPY

3.1. IRS Observations

We observed all of the sources in our sample with the low-resolution modules on the IRS. These observations were carried out as part of the IRS GTO allocation, which was spread over the first 2.5 yr of the Spitzer mission. As described below, we also followed up some targets in Cycle 3. We observed four stars with possible low-contrast excesses with longer integration times.
and we followed up two sources in the MC_DUST program with Short-High (SH) observations to verify the existence of new dust features at 14 μm (PID 30345). Table 4 summarizes the low-resolution observations, and Table 5 summarizes the SH observations.

3.2. Standard Reduction

Our data reduction began with the S15 version of the data pipeline released by the Spitzer Science Center (SSC). Before extracting spectra from the flat-fielded images, we subtracted background images and corrected bad pixels. For the Short-Low (SL) data, we used images with the source in the other aperture as the background (aperture differences). Thus, the Short-Low order 1 (SL1) images served as background data for the SL order 2 (SL2) images, and vice versa. For Long-Low, we obtained nod differences, subtracting images with the source in one nod position from images with the source in the same aperture but in the other nod position. The next step was to correct bad pixels by interpolating from their neighbors, using the IMCLEAN IDL package. Bad pixels are those flagged in the bit-mask images provided with the data release and those flagged as rogues in the rogue masks provided by the SSC.

We extracted spectra from the corrected images using the profile, ridge, and extract routines available in the SSC’s

### TABLE 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TARGET</th>
<th>AOR KEY</th>
<th>SL</th>
<th>LL</th>
<th>IRS CAMP.</th>
<th>OBSERVED (UT)</th>
<th>JULIAN DATE</th>
<th>INFRARED SPECTRAL CLASS</th>
<th>M_BOL</th>
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<tr>
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<td>240</td>
<td>480</td>
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<td>480</td>
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<td>2.ST</td>
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<tr>
<td>BFM 1 (follow-up)</td>
<td>17398784</td>
<td>1920</td>
<td>2880</td>
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<td>2453942</td>
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<tr>
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<td>112</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>2005 Jun 5</td>
<td>2453527</td>
<td>2.CE</td>
<td>−6.22</td>
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<td>6017536</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>2005 Jun 8</td>
<td>2453537</td>
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<td>112</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>2005 Jun 5</td>
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<td>2880</td>
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<td>22</td>
<td>2005 Jul 10</td>
<td>2453514</td>
<td>1.NO:</td>
<td>−6.66</td>
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</table>

*Based on Spitzer spectra and SSO photometry (in Table 3), except where noted.

a Using 2MASS and S3MC photometry gives M_BOL = −6.73.

b Using 2MASS and S3MC photometry gives M_BOL = −7.38.

c Using 2MASS and S3MC photometry gives M_BOL = −7.38.

d Using 2MASS and S3MC photometry gives M_BOL = −7.16.

Available from the SSC as IRSCLEAN.
Spitzer IRS Custom Extractor (SPICE). The SL data were calibrated with spectral corrections generated using observations of HR 6348 (K0 III). The calibration of LL used HR 6348 and the late K giants HD 166780 and HD 173511. To eliminate point-source-induced discontinuities between the orders, we normalized the various segments to match at the wavelengths where they overlapped. We normalized segments upward to the presumably best-centered segment. Finally, we trimmed the segments to eliminate untrustworthy data at the ends.

The SH observations required a different reduction method. We used S14 images, subtracted dedicated sky images, and performed full-slit extractions. We calibrated using observations of \( \xi \) Dra (K2 III).

### 3.3. Bolometric Magnitudes

Table 4 also includes the bolometric magnitudes of our sources at the time of observation, which result from an integration of the IRS spectra and the near-infrared SSO photometry. We have assumed a Wien tail to the blue and a Rayleigh-Jeans tail to the red, as well as a distance modulus of 18.5 to the LMC and 18.9 to the SMC.

Where possible, we have also computed bolometric magnitudes by replacing the SSO data with the 2MASS photometry in Table 2 and 3.6 and 4.5 \( \mu m \) Spitzer photometry from the SAGE survey of the LMC (Meixner et al. 2006) and the S'MC survey of the SMC (Bolatto et al. 2007).\(^9\) In those cases where the data give a significantly different result, Table 4 includes a note of explanation.

The observational distinction between red supergiants and oxygen-rich AGB stars is nontrivial. Sources in the Magellanic Clouds have known distances, making luminosity a logical discriminant (pulsation amplitude is another). Wood et al. (1983) estimate that the classic upper limit for AGB sources lies at about \( M_{bol} = -7.1 \), but as Wood et al. (1992) discussed, some AGB sources can occasionally stray above that limit. The bolometric luminosities in Table 4 suffer from the additional difficulty of variability. We have observed the stars at only one phase, which blurs the \(-7.1\) mag limit somewhat.

For the classifications in Tables 1 and 2, we assume that all RSGs exceed the classic limit and show no large-amplitude pulsation, OH maser emission, or Li absorption at 0.67 \( \mu m \). The Li absorption indicates that the source has experienced hot bottom burning, placing it at the high-mass end of the AGB (Smith et al. 1995).

Four of our targets meet all of these constraints. HV 888 and HV 996 are firmly identified supergiants in the LMC (e.g., Wood et al. 1983), as is Massey SMC 59803 in the SMC (Levesque et al. 2006). The fourth source is IRAS 04530, but this source is probably a young stellar object (YSO), as explained in \( \S \) 7.3.

Two more sources meet some, but not all, of the criteria for a supergiant. IRAS 04509 and IRAS 04516 have bolometric luminosities over the AGB limit by our measurements (with both SSO and 2MASS photometry), but Wood et al. (1992) suggested that they were AGB sources, having measured their bolometric luminosities to be \(-7.30\) and \(-6.77\) and their amplitudes at \( K \) to be 1.5 and 1.3 mag, respectively. They noted that very red AGB sources might exceed the \(-7.1\) mag limit slightly. However, they found no evidence of OH maser activity in IRAS 04509, and Marshall et al. (2004) found none in IRAS 04516. Our bolometric luminosities are well above the classic AGB limit, and while both sources have no detected maser activity, their \( K \)-band amplitudes are inconsistent with supergiant status. These two sources are as luminous as AGB sources can be, and we suspect that they are massive AGB sources.

Wood et al. (1992) and Whitelock et al. (2003) detected masers in all three targets identified as OH/IR sources in Table 2. IRAS 05329 and IRAS 05402 have bolometric luminosities in some references over the AGB limit, but the presence of maser emission clarifies their status. IRAS 04545 is under the AGB limit in most references.

Two sources show evidence of hot bottom burning, HV 2572 (Smith et al. 1995; Whitelock & Feast 2000) and HV 12070 (Whitelock et al. 2003), making them massive AGB stars. Wood et al. (1983) suggested that HV 2572 might be a foreground object, but its radial velocity is more consistent with membership in the LMC (P. Wood 2007, private communication).

#### 3.4. Infrared Spectral Classification

The first step in our analysis is to classify each source into one of five broad categories based on the general properties of its infrared spectrum. Each spectrum is then analyzed in more detail, using a method appropriate to its classification.

We applied the classification method developed at Hanscom Field and introduced by Kraemer et al. (2002). This system places a spectrum into one of five numbered groups based on its overall color: 1 for blue spectra dominated by a stellar continuum, 2 for dusty stars, 3 for spectra dominated by warm dust, and 4 and 5 for spectra dominated by progressively cooler dust.\(^{10}\) It then describes the dominant features in the spectra with one- or two-letter abbreviations: N for naked stars, SE for silicate emission, SB for self-absorbed silicate emission, SA for silicate absorption, CE for carbon-rich dust emission, CR for optically thick and cooler carbon dust shells, and U for spectra showing the unidentified infrared (UIR) emission features arising from polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) and related material. We introduce a new classification, 2.ST, in \( \S \) 5.6.

Table 4 gives the infrared spectral classifications, which include the basic classification plus additional subdivisions and notes as described in the following sections. The overall classification determines the method(s) applied to analyze the spectra and in which sections they are discussed. In \( \S \) 4 we discuss the naked stars (1.N and 1.NO) and some of the nearly naked spectra showing

\(^9\) SAGE and S'MC stand, respectively, for Surveying the Agents of Galactic Evolution and the Spitzer Survey of the SMC.

\(^{10}\) These last two groups are distinguished using data from 36 to 45 \( \mu m \), which are unavailable to the IRS. We simply classify the one red spectrum as group 5.
other dust features. In § 5 we examine oxygen-rich dust spectra (2.SE, 3.SE, 3.SB, and 3.SA), while § 6 examines carbon-rich spectra (1.NC, 2.CE, and 3.CR). Finally, § 7 looks at the spectra with red continua and/or contributions from PAHs.

Distinguishing the nature of the dust (oxygen-rich vs. carbon-rich) is straightforward if there is plenty of dust, but for sources with low-contrast excesses, not only can it be difficult to determine what kind of dust is present, but it can be a challenge just to decide if there is an excess at all. To assist, we have measured the dust emission contrast (DEC), which Sloan & Price (1995) defined to be the ratio of dust emission to stellar emission between 7.67 and 14.03 \( \mu \text{m} \). They applied this method to the database of Low-Resolution Spectra (LRS) from IRAS. Sloan & Price (1998) noted that all sources with DEC > 0.08 had clear dust excesses, while all sources with DEC < 0.04 looked naked. The sources between these two limits were more problematic and could be described as “fig-leaf” sources, since they are neither naked nor fully clothed by a dust shell.

We follow their example, but with some changes. As done previously, we assume the optically thin case, which implies that the contributions to the spectrum from the star and dust are additive. The better coverage to shorter wavelengths of the IRS compared to the LRS allows us to shift the wavelength range for fitting the stellar contribution to 6.8–7.4 \( \mu \text{m} \), between an absorption band from water vapor at ~6.6 \( \mu \text{m} \) and the fundamental SiO band, which begins at 7.4 \( \mu \text{m} \). As discussed below (§ 4), the SiO band is much weaker in the Magellanic Clouds than in the Galaxy, so instead of using a model spectrum with an SiO band, we simply fit and subtract a 3600 K Planck function to measure the DEC. This also makes the method general enough to apply to carbon stars.

While Sloan & Price (1998) set the minimum DEC for dusty stars to be 0.08, we find that in the MC_DUST sample, sources with a DEC as high as 0.10 do not have a sufficient excess to identify unambiguously. We classify sources with DEC \( \leq 0.04 \) as 1.N, while the fig-leaf sources with 0.04 < DEC \( \leq 0.10 \) are 1.N.: Sources with higher dust emission contrasts are classified in group 2, and in all cases but one they can be placed into the appropriate subcategory (2.SE, 2.CE, etc.).

Three sources (BFM 1, HV 5810, and WBP 77) have DECs high enough to qualify as dusty, but we can see through the dust and investigate their photospheres. Consequently, we examine their photospheric properties in the section below on naked stars (§ 4) and their dust content in the appropriate section as well. Two of our sources are identified as C/IR stars in Table 2, IRAS 05300 and IRAS 05348. Van Loon et al. (2006) list IRAS 05348 as “unknown type,” but our IRS data clearly show a carbon star. As noted in § 2.2, IRAS 05128 has previously been identified as carbon-rich based on its ISO spectrum, but both our optical and infrared spectra reveal an oxygen-rich source.

One source, MACHO 79.5505.26, has inconsistent optical and infrared spectra. The optical spectrum is clearly carbon-rich, but the infrared spectrum shows no dust or absorption bands indicating its chemistry, which is unusual for carbon stars. For this reason, we analyze it in both §§ 4 and 6. Similarly, the SMC supergiant Massey SMC 59803 shows both silicate and PAH emission (analyzed separately in §§ 5 and 7).

4. NAKED STARS

Figures 2 and 3 present the spectra of the naked sources in the SMC and LMC, respectively. These include 7 of the 11 SMC sources and 5 of the 27 LMC sources.

Many of these spectra are faint, which exposes us to background issues that would have little effect on brighter sources. The Magellanic Clouds are crowded in the infrared, with extended emission and a multitude of stray sources. These have a greater impact on LL, with its 10'' slit and sensitivity to extended emission from cool dust. In some of the spectra, the source is faint enough and blue enough that we failed to detect it in LL. For this reason, our analysis will concentrate on the SL data. Even though some of the LL data are excellent, we did not detect any significant spectral features beyond about 15 \( \mu \text{m} \).

4.1. Method

The Hanscom system includes two subclasses of naked stars, oxygen-rich (1.NO) and carbon-rich (1.NC). The 1.NO spectra can be distinguished by the presence of the SiO fundamental band, with maximum absorption at 8.0 \( \mu \text{m} \). For 1.NC spectra, the primary discriminant is the acetylene (C\(_2\)H\(_2\)) absorption band at 7.5 \( \mu \text{m} \), and in some cases a narrower acetylene band at 13.7 \( \mu \text{m} \). Those sources that cannot be identified as 1.NO or 1.NC are classified simply as 1.N. We examine the one 1.NC spectrum, of WBP 17, in § 6.

The SiO fundamental has a band head at 7.4 \( \mu \text{m} \). While the wavelength of maximum absorption is nearby, at 8.0 \( \mu \text{m} \), the band extends out as far as ~11.0 \( \mu \text{m} \) in some cases. The band is broad...
enough, and the spectra are noisy enough, that our usual technique of fitting a line segment to the continuum on either side of the band to integrate the equivalent width is inadequate. First, the continuum is not linear over such a broad wavelength range, and second, our estimated equivalent width has proven too sensitive to the vagaries of the continuum fit. Instead, we have constructed a template transmission spectrum from Cycle 4 IRS GTO observations of 10 naked M giants (PID 40112; PI G. Sloan) and fitted it to the spectrum to estimate the equivalent width. We estimate the continuum with a Planck function that reproduces the color measured over the wavelength intervals \(6.10, 6.45\) and \(11.5, 13.0\). We then scale the transmission spectrum until we find the minimum \(\chi^2\) difference and measure the equivalent width of our fitted spectrum from \(7.4\) to \(11.5\). We estimate the uncertainty in the fitted temperature by varying the long-wavelength fitting interval, and we estimate the uncertainty in equivalent width by finding the SiO strengths that correspond to the minimum \(\chi^2\) multiplied by the factor \((1 + N^{-1/2})\), where \(N\) is the number of pixels in the measured wavelength range.

Figures 4 and 5 illustrate the best fits to the naked stars, and Figure 6 shows the three sources with both possible low-contrast dust and photospheric absorption bands. The results of these fits appear in Table 6.

4.2. Results

For each naked spectrum, Table 6 lists the dust emission contrast, the temperature of the fitted Planck function, and the equivalent width of the best-fitting SiO band. One should not overinterpret the temperatures. Spectra from sources that were not properly centered in the slit will be subtly distorted, since the slit throughput is a complex function of both wavelength and position in the slit (Keremedjiev & Sloan 2006). As Table 6 shows, the uncertainty in the temperature can be substantial in the noisier spectra. However, the temperatures can be useful if treated carefully. Table 6 reveals a correlation between higher dust emission contrasts and lower temperatures, suggesting that sources with lower blackbody temperatures do show low-contrast excess emission from dust.

The classifications of naked stars in Tables 3 and 6 require some clarification. If a colon follows the “N,” it indicates uncertainty about whether or not the source is naked (i.e., it is a fig-leaf source). If the colon follows the “O,” then the SiO band is detected with a signal-to-noise ratio (S/N) between \(\sim 1\) and \(\sim 2\).

Figure 6 presents the three sources with a DEC too high to be naked and too low to identify the nature of the dust excess. BFM 1, the S star in the SMC, has a DEC of \(\sim 0.20\), indicating the presence of some dust. The full spectrum of this source appears in § 5, along with a discussion of the interesting feature at \(13–14\) \(\mu\)m. HV 5810 shows an apparent SiO absorption feature, but it also shows apparent emission features at \(11.3, 12.0,\) and \(12.7\) \(\mu\)m, the positions of the out-of-plane C–H bending modes in PAHs (e.g., Allamandola et al. 1989). The apparent SiO absorption is more likely just the trough between the \(7–9\) \(\mu\)m and \(11–13\) \(\mu\)m PAH complexes (despite a S/N of \(\sim 2\)). This interpretation is
strengthened by the spectral structure at 8.5 $\mu$m, which resembles the emission feature from the C--H in-plane bending mode in PAHs. We discuss this source further in § 7.2.

Figure 7 presents the follow-up observations with longer integrations of four of our targets. We have detected SiO bands in all four of the follow-up spectra at a S/N of $\sim$3 or better, which is an improvement over the original spectra, where the limited S/N allowed only two detections with a S/N of just $\sim$2. The follow-up spectrum of BFM 1 has changed compared to the original. The apparent 13--14 $\mu$m emission feature is absent, while the SiO band is now clearly present, although weak. The S/N of the spectrum of HV 2575 is high enough to reveal weak absorption between 6.5 and 7.4 $\mu$m from water vapor (Cami 2002).

We return to the naked stars in §§ 8.1 and 8.3.

5. OXYGEN-RICH DUST SOURCES

The MC_DUST sample contains 18 spectra dominated by silicate dust and related oxygen-rich dust species, as Figures 8–10 show. The SMC sample has three oxygen-rich dust emission sources and no sources with enough dust opacity to drive the 10 $\mu$m feature into absorption. The LMC sample includes 12 emission sources, one red source showing a self-absorbed 10 $\mu$m feature, and two even redder sources with silicate absorption at 10 $\mu$m.

5.1. Classification

The classification method introduced by Sloan & Price (1995, 1998) quickly distinguishes the composition of the emitting oxygen-rich dust. We apply that method here, fitting an assumed photospheric spectrum to the blue end of the observed spectrum and subtracting it to isolate the dust contribution. Because the photospheric spectra in the Magellanic Clouds have weaker SiO absorption than in the Galactic sample (see § 4), we depart from the previous method and simply assume a 3600 K Planck function for the star. We fit it to the spectrum in the interval 6.8--7.4 $\mu$m and subtract it. The classification is based on the ratios of the flux from the dust spectrum in small wavelength intervals centered at 10, 11, and 12 $\mu$m. Figure 11 shows that the flux ratios from oxygen-rich dust trace the silicate dust sequence. We classify the spectra based on their position up this sequence, starting with SE1 in the lower left and running to SE8 in the upper right. The silicate emission index $= 10(F_{11}/F_{12}) - 7.5$, where $F_{11}/F_{12}$ is the corrected ratio found by locating the point on the power law $F_{10}/F_{12} = 1.32(F_{10}/F_{11})^{1.77}$ closest to the actual value for a given spectrum. Table 7 presents the results.

The spectral classifications in Table 7 contain one-letter suffixes. A “x” denotes spectra with crystalline emission features (§§ 5.2 and 5.3), while a “t” identifies 13 $\mu$m features (§ 5.4) and “f” identifies a 14 $\mu$m feature (§ 5.5). In addition, a “u” denotes spectra with weak PAH emission features (§ 7.1).

We also measured the magnitude of the stars in two narrow filters (6.8--7.4 $\mu$m and 14.4--15.0 $\mu$m) to produce a [7] -- [15] color. Table 7 includes these colors; we will examine these colors more closely when comparing other samples in a future paper.

5.2. Crystalline Silicate Structure beyond 20 $\mu$m

Figure 10 shows the spectra of the three most embedded sources in the MC_DUST sample, all in the LMC. Two of these sources show clear evidence of crystalline silicate emission features at 23, 28, and 34 $\mu$m. The third, IRAS 05329, shows strong fringing in LL1 that obscures the crystalline feature at 23 $\mu$m and partly hides the one at 28 $\mu$m. These crystalline features are much broader than the instrumental resolution, so a boxcar smoothing algorithm applied to LL1 will mask the fringes without significantly degrading the emission features. For IRAS 04545 and IRAS 05402, we applied a 3 pixel boxcar to all wavelengths and then applied an additional 5 pixel boxcar to the LL1 data to the blue of 22.88 $\mu$m. For IRAS 05329, with its stronger fringing pattern, we applied a

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**Fig. 5.—** IRS spectra of naked stars in the LMC, plotted in Rayleigh-Jeans units with the fitted continuum and absorption spectra, as in Fig. 4.

**Fig. 6.—** IRS spectra of stars in the SMC and LMC with indications of low-contrast dust emission (in Rayleigh-Jeans units). The dotted lines are the fitted continua and absorption spectra, as in Fig. 4. Spectra with full wavelength coverage for these sources appear in later figures: BFM 1 in Fig. 8, HV 5810 in Fig. 22, and WBP 77 in Fig. 9.
5 pixel boxcar at all wavelengths and a second 5 pixel boxcar to the blue of 30.5 \( \mu \text{m} \). We stitched and trimmed these defringed spectra in the same manner as described in \( \S \) 3.1. Figure 12 presents the results. (Correcting the fringes changed the segment-to-segment normalization.)

We fitted a spline to the data at 20.0, 21.3, 24.5, 25.5, 31.6, and 36.5 \( \mu \text{m} \) to produce the spectra in Figure 13. The bottom panel in Figure 13 plots a model constructed from laboratory spectra of forsterite (Fabian et al. 2001a) and enstatite (Jäger et al. 1998), the magnesium-rich endmembers of the olivine (\( \text{Mg}_2\text{SiO}_4 \)) and pyroxene (\( \text{MgSiO}_3 \)) series, respectively. We have produced optical efficiencies from the published indices of refraction for a modified continuous distribution of ellipsoids that uses quadratic weighting to approximate spherical grains (CDE2), following the methods described by Fabian et al. (2001a). We found that a grain temperature of 80 K reproduced the average relative strengths of the 23 and 34 \( \mu \text{m} \) features, which both arise from forsterite. In pyroxenes, replacing 20% of the Mg with Fe shifts the 28 \( \mu \text{m} \) feature peaks at 23.25 \( \mu \text{m} \), our sample had to include equal parts enstatite and forsterite. Adding enstatite also improves the match to the wavelength of the observed feature at 28 \( \mu \text{m} \).

Spectra from the SWS on ISO of Galactic sources of crystalline silicates serve as a useful comparison. Molster et al. (2002) found important differences between spectra produced by objects with known disks and objects where the emitting dust was in stellar outflows, particularly at 28 and 34 \( \mu \text{m} \). Their Figures 3, 4, and 5 present mean spectra from disk and outflow objects for the 23, 28, and 34 \( \mu \text{m} \) features, respectively. For comparison, we concentrate on IRAS 04545 and IRAS 05402 due to the higher quality of their spectra compared to IRAS 05239. In both spectra, the 23 \( \mu \text{m} \) feature shows a sharp peak at 23.25 \( \mu \text{m} \). This differs from both the Galactic disk sources, which show a peak at 23.6 \( \mu \text{m} \), and the Galactic outflow sources, which have a broader peak from 22.8 to 23.8 \( \mu \text{m} \). The 28 and 34 \( \mu \text{m} \) features in the LMC sources both resemble the Galactic disk sources. In the LMC sources, the 28 \( \mu \text{m} \) feature peaks at 27.9 \( \mu \text{m} \) and is as strong as the 23 and 34 \( \mu \text{m} \) features. In the Galactic samples, the 28 \( \mu \text{m} \) feature is largely absent in the outflow sources but strong in the disk sources. In the LMC sources, the 34 \( \mu \text{m} \) feature peaks at 33.7 \( \mu \text{m} \), as does the Galactic disk sample, while the Galactic outflow sample shows an additional peak at 32.9 \( \mu \text{m} \), which appears as only a shoulder in the disk spectra. Thus, while the 23 \( \mu \text{m} \) feature differs somewhat from the Galactic sample, both the 28 and 34 \( \mu \text{m} \) features closely resemble spectra from Galactic sources of crystalline silicates, especially those found in circumstellar disks.

Several effects can shift the wavelength of the observed features. Suto et al. (2006) recently investigated how the emission features from forsterite shift with temperature. Using their data, we could expect a shift to the red of 0.21 \( \mu \text{m} \) in the 23.25 \( \mu \text{m} \) feature, 0.25 \( \mu \text{m} \) at 27.9 \( \mu \text{m} \), and 0.22 \( \mu \text{m} \) at 33.7 \( \mu \text{m} \) if we were to heat the grains in our observed spectra from 80 to 300 K, which is the temperature of the measured laboratory samples. The bottom panel of Figure 13 includes vertical dotted lines illustrating these shifts.

Another way to shift the features is to replace some of the Mg in the minerals with Fe. Chihara et al. (2002) and Koike et al. (2003) studied this effect in pyroxenes and olivines, respectively. In pyroxenes, replacing 20% of the Mg with Fe shifts the 34 \( \mu \text{m} \) feature by 0.4 \( \mu \text{m} \), while a similar replacement in olivines shifts the 34 \( \mu \text{m} \) feature 0.3 \( \mu \text{m} \) and the 34 \( \mu \text{m} \) feature 0.2 \( \mu \text{m} \).

The shape of the grains also influences the wavelengths of the emission features, as Min et al. (2003) have thoroughly investigated. Generally, a shift from spherical to nonspherical shape distributions moves the features to longer wavelengths. Most examinations of this effect have assumed that no particular axis is favorably extended in a sample of grains. Sloan et al. (2006a) examined the effect of preferential nonsphericity along different axes and found that some shapes could shift the features to the blue, instead of the red.

The solid vertical lines in Figure 13 mark the average peaks of the features in IRAS 04545 and IRAS 05402. In the bottom

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**TABLE 6**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Target</th>
<th>Dust Emission Contrast</th>
<th>( T_m )</th>
<th>( W_f ) SiO</th>
<th>Infrared Spectral Class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HV 11223</td>
<td>-0.02 ± 0.08</td>
<td>2290 ± 510</td>
<td>&lt;0.18</td>
<td>1.N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HV 1366</td>
<td>0.02 ± 0.06</td>
<td>2270 ± 560</td>
<td>&lt;0.20</td>
<td>1.N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BFM 1</td>
<td>0.24 ± 0.04</td>
<td>1460 ± 110</td>
<td>&lt;0.16</td>
<td>2.R:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BFM 1 (follow-up)</td>
<td>0.16 ± 0.02</td>
<td>1160 ± 10</td>
<td>0.15 ± 0.05</td>
<td>2.N:O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HV 11303</td>
<td>0.07 ± 0.03</td>
<td>2130 ± 240</td>
<td>&lt;0.03</td>
<td>1.N:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HV 11329</td>
<td>0.04 ± 0.05</td>
<td>1600 ± 80</td>
<td>0.28 ± 0.13</td>
<td>1.N:O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HV 11329 (follow-up)</td>
<td>0.00 ± 0.02</td>
<td>2380 ± 100</td>
<td>0.18 ± 0.03</td>
<td>1.N:O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HV 838</td>
<td>0.10 ± 0.03</td>
<td>2230 ± 320</td>
<td>&lt;0.02</td>
<td>1.N:O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HV 11366</td>
<td>0.06 ± 0.09</td>
<td>2230 ± 300</td>
<td>0.18 ± 0.19</td>
<td>1.N:O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HV 1963</td>
<td>0.07 ± 0.05</td>
<td>2160 ± 120</td>
<td>0.21 ± 0.13</td>
<td>1.N:O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HV 1963 (follow-up)</td>
<td>0.05 ± 0.01</td>
<td>1990 ± 50</td>
<td>0.13 ± 0.03</td>
<td>1.N:O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MACHO 79.5505.26</td>
<td>-0.06 ± 0.04</td>
<td>4120 ± 2170</td>
<td>&lt;0.11</td>
<td>1.N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HV 5810</td>
<td>0.19 ± 0.08</td>
<td>1210 ± 110</td>
<td>0.38 ± 0.17</td>
<td>2.U:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WBP 77</td>
<td>0.19 ± 0.07</td>
<td>1130 ± 120</td>
<td>0.33 ± 0.18</td>
<td>2.SE:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WBP 104</td>
<td>-0.11 ± 0.06</td>
<td>4080 ± 890</td>
<td>0.20 ± 0.19</td>
<td>1.N:O:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2MASS J052832</td>
<td>-0.21 ± 0.05</td>
<td>10000 ± ...</td>
<td>0.34 ± 0.15</td>
<td>1.N:O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HV 2575</td>
<td>0.07 ± 0.00</td>
<td>2170 ± 870</td>
<td>0.09 ± 0.17</td>
<td>1.N:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HV 2575 (follow-up)</td>
<td>0.07 ± 0.02</td>
<td>2260 ± 180</td>
<td>0.24 ± 0.08</td>
<td>1.N:O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HV 12620</td>
<td>0.06 ± 0.03</td>
<td>1900 ± 10</td>
<td>&lt;0.04</td>
<td>1.N:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
panel, we should compare the peaks of the model spectrum to the dotted vertical lines, since these account for the difference in temperature between the laboratory and LMC data. The observed position of the \(23/\mu m\) forsterite feature shows no redshift compared to the laboratory data, indicating that Mg-rich grains with a CDE2 shape distribution are a good fit. The \(28/\mu m\) feature, which arises from a mixture of enstatite and forsterite, is \(0.3/\mu m\) to the red of the laboratory data, indicating Fe inclusions of no more than \(15\%\) or a slightly different shape distribution. Less can be said about the relative positions of the \(34/\mu m\) feature in the observed and laboratory data because of the clear difference in profile. Overall, our observations of crystalline silicates in the LMC are fully consistent with Mg-dominated grains, much like those observed in the Galaxy.

### 5.3. Crystalline Silicate Structure at 10 \(\mu m\)

Sloan et al. (2006a) published the spectrum of HV 2310, one of the first objects observed in the MC_DUST program. This 600 day Mira shows an unusual silicate emission spectrum with structure in the 10--11 \(\mu m\) region best fitted with a mixture of 7% crystalline forsterite and a blend of amorphous grains dominated by astronomical silicates (as described by Ossenkopf et al. 1992). They based their analysis on S11 pipeline output from the SSC, while the data here are S15. While the general shape is still indicative of crystalline silicates, the spectral details have changed enough to require a new analysis.

The MC_DUST sample has revealed one more object showing crystalline silicate structure at 10 \(\mu m\), HV 12667. This source is a 645 day Mira, so it has similar pulsation properties to HV 2310, and it also has a similar infrared brightness, 45 mJy at 8 \(\mu m\), compared to 36 mJy for HV 2310.

Figure 14 plots the continuum-subtracted spectra of HV 2310 and HV 12667. In both cases, we have fitted and subtracted a 3600 K Planck function at 5.3--5.8 \(\mu m\). We tested the dependency of our results on the assumed stellar continuum by also using a model M6 giant with SiO absorption at 8 \(\mu m\), and we found no significant impact. Figure 14 also includes a rough fit to the dust spectrum, using a combination of amorphous silicates (Ossenkopf et al. 1992) and forsterite (Jäger et al. 1998). Following Sloan et al. (2006a), we have produced a modified shape distribution in an effort to reproduce the detailed structure of the 10 \(\mu m\) silicate feature. In the case of HV 12667, we have used a distribution of spherical grains and prolate grains extended along the \(x\)-axis. To fit the observed spectrum, this population of crystalline grains needs to account for 2.5% of the dust; the rest is amorphous silicates. For HV 2310, the shape distribution includes prolate grains (\(x\)-axis) and oblate grains (\(x\)- and \(z\)-axes). The crystalline component of the dust population is 7%, unchanged from before. Sloan et al. (2006a) also included amorphous pyroxene and amorphous alumina to fit the blue and red wings of the silicate profile, respectively. We do not include these components because we wish to concentrate on the structure at the peak of the profile.

It is highly unlikely that these shape distributions fit the silicate profiles uniquely. In fact, the changes in the pipeline calibration have changed the spectrum of HV 2310 enough that we have modified the shape distribution used by Sloan et al. (2006a). The prolate grains in their shape distribution were extended along the \(z\)-axis, versus the \(x\)-axis here. This difference illustrates that the data are not of sufficient fidelity to pin these details down. However, the fits to HV 2310 and HV 12667 demonstrate that the silicate profiles in both are consistent with forsterite and that it is not
necessary to invoke enstatite or minerals with Fe components to fit the features.

5.4. The 13 $\mu$m Emission Feature

The 13 $\mu$m emission feature, first detected by Little-Marenin & Price (1986), often appears in the spectra from Galactic oxygen-rich dust shells (Sloan et al. 1996). In our Magellanic samples, it is largely absent. Only HV 888 shows a clear 13 $\mu$m feature, and four more spectra may have a weak feature that is difficult to separate from the noise. The spectra of IRAS 04509, IRAS 04516, and IRAS 05128 show features in this spectral region, but they are centered closer to 14 $\mu$m, as discussed in the next section.

Our sample of oxygen-rich dust spectra is small, it may contain some biases (e.g., for Mira variables, which are less likely to show a 13 $\mu$m feature than semiregular variables), and some of the spectra are noisy, which can hide low-contrast emission features. Consequently, our conclusion that the prevalence and strength of the 13 $\mu$m emission feature are reduced in the Magellanic Clouds is somewhat preliminary. A more thorough examination of oxygen-rich circumstellar dust observed in other Magellanic programs is in preparation.

5.5. The 14 $\mu$m Emission Feature

Sloan et al. (2006a) previously noted that the spectrum of HV 2310 includes an emission feature at 14 $\mu$m. They were somewhat cautious about the feature, since it appears at the boundary between SL and LL, raising the possibility that it is an artifact,
even if no known effect in the IRS could produce such a feature. Emery et al. (2006) also detected a 14 \( \mu \)m emission feature in the IRS spectra of the Trojan asteroids 624 Hektor and 921 Agamemnon, but they were also cautious and did not suggest a possible carrier. Figures 9 and 10 reveal that several sources in the MC_DUST sample besides HV 2310 also have 14 \( \mu \)m features.

To test if the feature might be an artifact in the low-resolution IRS spectra, we observed two 14 \( \mu \)m sources, IRAS 04545 and IRAS 05329, with the SH module, as shown in Figure 15. Both sources are variable stars, and IRAS 04545 increased in brightness by nearly 40%, and as a consequence, the SH spectrum is noisier. While the SH data are consistent with the low-resolution data, they do not show an obvious 14 \( \mu \)m feature.

5.6. BFM 1

As shown in Figures 6, 7, and 8, BFM 1 has some unusual spectral characteristics. First, while the spectrum shows no substantial structure out to 12.5 \( \mu \)m, it has a significant dust emission contrast (0.24 when first observed, and 0.16 when followed up), indicating the presence of a featureless excess component. Second, the original spectrum shows a previously unknown emission feature from 13 to 14 \( \mu \)m. Third, the follow-up spectrum, taken 418 days later with a longer integration time, confirms the featureless dust excess but shows nothing where the 13–14 \( \mu \)m feature had previously been.

BFM 1 is the only true S star in our sample, and it is a steady Mira variable with a 398 day period and an amplitude of about 4 mag in the optical. In S stars, the C/O ratio is near unity, leaving little C or O for the production of dust once CO has formed, which could lead to unusual dust chemistry. Our spectra of BFM 1 certainly show unusual characteristics. The featureless excess is not consistent with amorphous alumina, as that would leave a recognizable low-contrast feature in the 11–12 \( \mu \)m region. Perhaps it is amorphous carbon or some other dust component.

The possible feature at 13–14 \( \mu \)m is also enigmatic. The follow-up spectrum did not confirm its presence, so either it disappeared in the interval between the observations or else it was an artifact to begin with. The two spectra were obtained 418 days apart, compared to the 398 day period of the star. Thus, the spectra were at nearly the same phase, ruling out some phase-dependent phenomenon. Nonetheless, we suspect that the feature is real. First, it appears in the spectra from both nod positions. Second, it covers over 25 pixels in SL and is not the product of any known artifact. Third, similar features appear in 2 of the 90 spectra in the sample of Galactic S stars observed by the IRS in Cycle 3 (G. C. Sloan et al. 2008, in preparation; program ID 30737, PI S. Hony).

Figure 16 focuses on the 13–14 \( \mu \)m feature in BFM 1. Fitting a spline to remove the continuum isolates a feature that can be fitted with a Gaussian centered at 13.52 \( \mu \)m with a full width at half-maximum (FWHM) of 0.53 \( \mu \)m. The unique spectrum of BFM 1 deserves a unique classification. We extend the Hanscom system with a new classification, 2.ST, where the “T” indicates a feature centered at 13.5 \( \mu \)m.

6. CARBON-RICH SOURCES

The MC_DUST sample includes one definite carbon star in the SMC and five in the LMC. Figure 17 presents the spectra of these sources. In addition, MACHO 79.5505.26 has a carbon-rich optical spectrum but an ambiguous infrared spectrum with no dust emission and only CO absorption at 5 \( \mu \)m. Its spectrum appears in Figures 2 and 4. In the next section we show that it has no carbon-rich absorption features. We exclude it from further analysis as a carbon star because the chemistry of the infrared component is uncertain.

We have truncated the spectra of two sources in Figure 17 to avoid some problems introduced by complex backgrounds. The LL1 data for WBP 17 are negative due to strong background gradients. A nearby bright carbon star contaminates the LL data for WBP 29.

6.1. The Manchester Method

To analyze the carbon-rich spectra, we applied the Manchester method introduced by Sloan et al. (2006b) and also applied by Zijlstra et al. (2006) and Lagadec et al. (2007). These papers
examined a total of 28 carbon stars in the LMC and 33 in the SMC, while our sample adds five carbon stars in the LMC and one in the SMC. The Manchester method measures the spectral continuum at four narrow wavelength intervals relatively free of molecular band absorption or dust emission centered at 6.3, 9.4, 10.7, and 21.5 μm. The first two wavelengths define the [6.3] − [9.4] color, which measures the contribution from warm dust relative to the stellar photosphere. The [10.7] − [21.5] color measures the temperature of any cool dust contribution to the spectrum. It also provides a means of estimating the contribution under

![Fig. 12.—Crystalline silicate emission features apparent in three LL spectra. The data plotted in gray are the original spectra, while the data plotted in black are the spectra that have been defringed by boxcar smoothing, as explained in the text. The thin black line is the spline fitted at wavelengths marked by diamonds. The bottom panel presents a model spectrum (black) composed of 50% laboratory forsterite (MgSiO3, dark gray; Fabian et al. 2001a) and 50% laboratory enstatite (MgSiO3, light gray; Jäger et al. 1998), both at 80 K and assuming a CDE2 shape distribution (see text). The vertical dotted lines in the bottom panel illustrate how the observed peaks should shift from 80 to 300 K, based on the laboratory work by Suto et al. (2006).](image)

![Fig. 13.—Spline-subtracted crystalline silicate emission features from the spectra in Fig. 12. In the top three panels, the smoothed data are in black and the unsmoothed data are in light gray. The vertical lines mark reference wavelengths at 23.25, 27.9, and 33.7 μm. The bottom panel presents a model spectrum (black) composed of 50% laboratory forsterite (MgSiO3, dark gray; Fabian et al. 2001a) and 50% laboratory enstatite (MgSiO3, light gray; Jäger et al. 1998), both at 80 K and assuming a CDE2 shape distribution (see text). The vertical dotted lines in the bottom panel illustrate how the observed peaks should shift from 80 to 300 K, based on the laboratory work by Suto et al. (2006).](image)
the MgS dust emission feature, which peaks in the 26–30 μm range.

Gaseous acetylene (C2H2) produces two absorption bands visible in the IRS spectra: a broad band centered at 7.5 μm and typically ~1.0 μm wide, and a narrow band at 13.7 μm (Matsuura et al. 2006). The latter band is actually the Q-branch of the fundamental ν3 mode and is often centered in a broader band that includes the P- and R-branches, but the broad component can be difficult to recognize due to the presence of the SiC dust emission feature at 11.3 μm.

The Manchester method fits line segments to the continuum to measure the equivalent width of the acetylene bands and the integrated flux of the SiC emission feature. We express the flux of the SiC band as a ratio to the continuum underneath. To measure the strength of the MgS, the Manchester method uses the SiC band as a ratio to the continuum underneath. To measure the strength of the MgS, the Manchester method uses the acetylene bands and the integrated flux of the SiC emission feature. We express the flux of the acetylene band increases as the stars go from a [6.4] – [9.3] color of 0.0 to ~0.3 and then decreases as the amorphous carbon component becomes more dominant, although the scatter at a given color is large. The data appear to follow two separate tracks, but the significance is not clear with these sample sizes. The strength of the 13.7 μm band generally decreases steadily from 0.00 to ~0.05 μm at a [6.4] – [9.3] color of 0.5 and remains roughly constant beyond. In both cases, the LMC and SMC sources usually have deeper bands compared to the Galactic sources of the same color, but no clear difference between the LMC and SMC is discernible.

The strength of the SiC feature follows two distinct tracks with [6.4] – [9.3] color. The lower track starts with no SiC feature at a color of 0.0 and slowly increases to a color of 0.5 and remains roughly constant beyond. In both cases, the LMC and SMC sources usually have deeper bands compared to the Galactic sources of the same color, but no clear difference between the LMC and SMC is discernible.

6.2. Results

Figures 18 and 19 plot the results for our sample (large symbols), along with the LMC sample of Zijlstra et al. (2006), the SMC samples of Sloan et al. (2006b) and Lagadec et al. (2007), and the Galactic sample observed by the SWS on ISO. The Galactic sample is defined by the carbon-rich classifications of Kraemer et al. (2002) and uses the data in the SWS Atlas (Sloan et al. 2003). The small MC-DUST sample follows the trends set by the larger samples of Magellanic carbon stars previously published. As metallicity decreases, stars with similar [6.3] – [9.4] colors show increasing absorption from acetylene and reduced emission from SiC and MgS dust.
track, which includes nearly all of the Galactic sources. Sloan et al. (2006b) were unable to find any other property that distinguished them from the rest of the SMC sample, except that they were more likely to show MgS emission. Additional SMC sources on the upper track include GM 780 from the sample of Lagadec et al. (2007) and CV 78 from the MC_DUST sample. Lagadec et al. (2007) noted that GM 780 was peculiar, with no acetylene absorption and a relatively high luminosity. They argued that its C/O ratio was lower than most of the Magellanic sources and more like Galactic carbon stars, which might affect the fraction of SiC in its outflows.

The MgS strengths in the SMC and LMC samples are similar to each other. Few sources bluer than $[6.4] - [9.3] = 0.4$ have any measurable MgS dust, while most Galactic sources do. At redder colors, the three samples behave similarly, with MgS strengths typically $\lesssim 40\%$ of the continuum, but with considerable scatter, especially in the LMC sample.

### 6.3. Distance Indicators

Figure 20 plots the absolute magnitude at $K$ versus the $J - K$ 2MASS colors for the carbon stars in the SMC samples of Sloan et al. (2006b) were unable to find any other property that distinguished them from the rest of the SMC sample, except that they were more likely to show MgS emission. Additional SMC sources on the upper track include GM 780 from the sample of Lagadec et al. (2007) and CV 78 from the MC_DUST sample. Lagadec et al. (2007) noted that GM 780 was peculiar, with no acetylene absorption and a relatively high luminosity. They argued that its C/O ratio was lower than most of the Magellanic sources and more like Galactic carbon stars, which might affect the fraction of SiC in its outflows.

The MgS strengths in the SMC and LMC samples are similar to each other. Few sources bluer than $[6.4] - [9.3] = 0.7$ have any measurable MgS dust, while most Galactic sources do. At redder colors, the three samples behave similarly, with MgS strengths typically $\lesssim 40\%$ of the continuum, but with considerable scatter, especially in the LMC sample.

### Table 8: Carbon Star Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Target</th>
<th>$[6.4] - [9.3]$ (mag)</th>
<th>$[16.5] - [21.5]$ (mag)</th>
<th>7.5 $\mu$m EW ($\mu$m)</th>
<th>13.7 $\mu$m EW ($\mu$m)</th>
<th>$\lambda_{\text{SiC}}$ ($\mu$m)</th>
<th>SiC/Continuum</th>
<th>MgS/Continuum</th>
<th>Infrared Spectral Class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CV 78:</td>
<td>0.204 ± 0.048</td>
<td>0.178 ± 0.061</td>
<td>0.030 ± 0.030</td>
<td>0.024 ± 0.034</td>
<td>11.12 ± 0.15</td>
<td>0.197 ± 0.019</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>2.CE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MACHO 79.5505.26:</td>
<td>0.208 ± 0.044</td>
<td>-0.307 ± 0.350</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>11.43 ± 0.39</td>
<td>0.092 ± 0.031</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1.N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WBP 29:</td>
<td>-0.113 ± 0.047</td>
<td>-1.027 ± 0.770</td>
<td>0.304 ± 0.014</td>
<td>0.157 ± 0.032</td>
<td>11.43 ± 0.39</td>
<td>0.092 ± 0.031</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1.NC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CV 78:</td>
<td>0.084 ± 0.030</td>
<td>0.395 ± 0.011</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>11.21 ± 0.09</td>
<td>0.035 ± 0.037</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>2.CE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WBP 42:</td>
<td>0.358 ± 0.017</td>
<td>0.140 ± 0.094</td>
<td>0.310 ± 0.019</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>10.95 ± 0.31</td>
<td>0.092 ± 0.025</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>2.CE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRAS 05300:</td>
<td>1.061 ± 0.006</td>
<td>0.280 ± 0.011</td>
<td>0.152 ± 0.003</td>
<td>0.047 ± 0.010</td>
<td>11.32 ± 0.08</td>
<td>0.098 ± 0.005</td>
<td>0.255 ± 0.014</td>
<td>3.CR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRAS 05348:</td>
<td>1.050 ± 0.006</td>
<td>0.295 ± 0.010</td>
<td>0.013 ± 0.004</td>
<td>0.047 ± 0.001</td>
<td>11.28 ± 0.05</td>
<td>0.137 ± 0.004</td>
<td>0.238 ± 0.012</td>
<td>3.CR</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
et al. (2006b), Zijlstra et al. (2006), and Lagadec et al. (2007). We have assumed a distance modulus of 18.93 to the SMC (Keller & Wood 2006). The data follow a linear relation with a standard deviation of 0.51 mag:

$$MK = -8.18 + 0.395(J - K).$$

Applying the synthetic photometry to the spectra to generate magnitudes at 6.4 and 9.3 $\mu$m reveals a second infrared color-magnitude relation. Figure 21 plots the absolute magnitude at 9.3 $\mu$m as a function of $[6.4] - [9.3]$ color for the samples of carbon stars in the Galaxy and both Magellanic Clouds of Sloan et al. (2006b), Zijlstra et al. (2006), and Lagadec et al. (2007). The magnitudes at 9.3 $\mu$m are based on a flux density at zero magnitudes of 45.7 Jy and distance moduli to the LMC and SMC of 18.54 and 18.93, respectively (Keller & Wood 2006). The Galactic samples were observed with the SWS on ISO, as described by Sloan et al. (2006b). The distances were estimated by Bergeat & Chevallier (2005). Here the relation is quadratic:

$$M_{9.3} = a_0 + a_1 \cdot [6.4] - a_2 \cdot [9.3].$$

where $a_0 = -8.81$, $a_1 = -6.56$, and $a_2 = 2.74$. The standard deviation of the data about this relation is 0.45 mag.

7. PAH EMISSION SOURCES

Figure 22 presents the spectra of the two red sources in the MC_DUST sample, IRAS 04530 and HV 5810. Both of these spectra have PAH emission features. A third source, the supergiant Massey SMC 59803, also shows PAH emission superimposed on an oxygen-rich dust spectrum. Its spectrum appears in Figure 8.

Figure 23 includes 8 and 24 $\mu$m images of the three PAH emission sources. The data for Massey SMC 59803 were obtained as part of the S3MC survey by Bolatto et al. (2007). Data for the other two sources are from the SAGE survey (Meixner et al. 2006).

7.1. Massey SMC 59803

An examination of the 8 and 24 $\mu$m images of Massey SMC 59803 reveals no associated extended emission. The IRS data are also consistent with a point source at all wavelengths. To separate the contribution of PAHs from the spectrum, we fit a spline through the “continuum” from the star and amorphous silicate grains that produce the 10 $\mu$m feature, as illustrated in the top panel of Figure 24. Keller et al. (2008) applied this method to a sample of spectra from Herbig Ae/Be stars with both silicate
and PAH emission and successfully disentangled the separate dust components in most cases.

The bottom panel of Figure 24 shows the resulting PAH spectrum. PAHs in the spectra of supergiants are unusual but not unheard of. Sylvester et al. (1998) observed PAH emission at 8.6 and 11.3 μm in three supergiants in the h and γ Persei association. The residual PAH spectrum from Massey SMC 59803 shows emission features centered at 6.21, 6.70, 8.13, 11.29, 12.86, and 13.56 μm. The 6.7 μm feature probably does not arise from PAHs and is presently unidentified. The remaining features are from PAHs. The strongest features are the C–C complex centered at 8 μm and the out-of-plane C–H solo bending mode at 11.3 μm.

Peeters et al. (2002) defined three classes of PAH spectra based primarily on the position of the 8 μm PAH complex. Most spectra fell into class A (peak at 7.65 μm) or class B (7.85 μm), but two class C spectra showed a feature peaking at 8.2 μm. The detailed position and shape of the 8 μm complex depend critically on how the spline fits the continuum on the blue side of the silicate feature, so we should not overinterpret this feature. Nonetheless, there does appear to be an excess between ~7.5 and 9 μm, and it is more consistent with class C than with the other classes. The 11.3 μm feature is also shifted from its nominal position in class A and B spectra of 11.26 μm (Sloan et al. 2007) to 11.29 μm.

Sloan et al. (2007) found that class C PAH spectra are associated with cooler radiation fields. Massey SMC 59803 has an estimated effective temperature of 4100 K (Levesque et al. 2006), and its PAH spectrum, while noisy, is consistent with this temperature.

7.2. HV 5810

As discussed in § 4.2 and illustrated in Figure 6, the spectrum of HV 5810 shows emission from several C–H bending modes in PAHs. These include the in-plane bending mode at 8.55 and the out-of-plane bending modes at 11.27, 12.78, and 13.5 μm in SL (e.g., Allamandola et al. 1989; Hony et al. 2001). The emission at 12.78 μm probably contains a contribution from [Ne II] emission as well. The LL portion of the spectrum in Figure 24 reveals an emission complex in LL with peaks at 16.5 and 17.35 μm, which also arises from PAHs (Moutou et al. 2000; Werner et al. 2004a).

Examination of the spectral images reveals that the emission features at 11.3 and 12.8 μm extend the length of the SL slit. The
emission at 8.6 μm is also extended. In the LL images, the 16–18 μm PAH complex is extended over about ~20°, while several forbidden emission lines are extended over much larger areas: [Ne ii] at 15.6 μm, [S ii] at 18.7 and 33.5 μm, and [Si ii] at 34.8 μm. The forbidden lines are commonly seen in many images of other targets, but they usually subtract out when the background is removed. At longer wavelengths, the spatial structure of HV 5810 grows more complex and extended as well.

Figure 23 shows that HV 5810 is embedded in a complex region of extended emission. We conclude that we have observed a naked star, HV 5810, superimposed on a complicated background.

7.3. IRAS 04530–6916

The observations of IRAS 04530 were partially mispointed in both SL and LL, requiring some special attention to complete the processing. The source was mostly out of the slit in one of the SL nod positions, and in LL, we only observed a portion of the source, which is extended. To stitch the spectral segments together, we normalized them to the 12 and 25 μm fluxes from the IRAS Faint Source Catalog (2.01 and 4.97 Jy, respectively). Because of the spectral tilts in mispointed spectra, this leaves a discontinuity at the SL/LL interface. The overall continuum properties of the resulting spectrum should be considered provisional. Despite the limitations of the spectrum, the presence of various spectral features and their wavelengths are reliable.

The spectrum shows a combination of silicate absorption and emission from PAHs. Although the IRS does not cover the 35–45 μm wavelength range that the Hanscom system used to distinguish the reddest sources, the IRAS data show that the spectrum continues to rise between 25 and 60 μm, making this spectrum class 5.U/SA (this class was introduced by Engelke et al. 2004).

The combination of both PAH emission and silicate absorption complicates the analysis of the PAH strengths, but it does not have a significant effect on their positions. To examine the PAH features more closely, we fit a spline through the most likely continuum, as Figure 25 illustrates. The resulting PAH spectrum has features peaking at 6.22, 7.65, 8.62, 11.27, and 12.78 μm. With the exception of the last feature, which may be affected by [Ne ii] emission, the wavelengths for these features correspond to a class A PAH spectrum in the scheme of Peeters et al. (2002). This class of PAH spectrum is commonly seen in star formation regions.

IRAS 04530 has usually been treated as an evolved star. Wood et al. (1992) measured its bolometric magnitude to be ~7.62 and concluded that it was probably a supergiant due to its high luminosity, low pulsation amplitude, and lack of maser activity. Van Loon et al. (2001) seconded this opinion, and on the basis of these works it was included in this study. Van Loon et al. (2005a) recently suggested that it may instead be a YSO. Their optical spectrum shows strong hydrogen emission lines, as well as the [S iii] doublet and [Ca ii] triplet. Hodge et al. (2004) and Engelke et al. (2004) found that the USA classification in the ISO PHOT-S and CAM-CVF databases occurred almost exclusively in YSOs, star-forming regions, and starburst galaxies (the single exception being C*1662).

The SAGE images at 8 and 24 μm in Figure 23 reveal that IRAS 04530 lies at the edge of an extensive region of 8 μm emission probably associated with the DEM L15 H ii region. The IRAC and MIPS photometry of IRAS 04530 (from the 2006 December release of the SAGE point-source catalog; Meixner et al. 2006) and the 2MASS photometry help clarify its evolutionary status. IRAS 04530 does not lie near the AGB population in the color–color and color–magnitude diagrams published from Galactic and Magellanic Spitzer programs (Whitney et al. 2003a, 2003b; Blum et al. 2006; Bolatto et al. 2007).

In summary, evidence from the new Spitzer observations, both spectroscopic and photometric, supports the suggestion of van Loon et al. (2005a) that IRAS 04530 is a YSO, not an evolved star.

8. DEPENDENCIES ON METALLICITY

The previous sections concentrated on the analysis applied to the different classes of spectra and the results for individual sources. This section concentrates on the samples as a whole, comparing the SMC and LMC samples to the Galactic samples published elsewhere. The dominant difference between these samples is metallicity.

8.1. Fraction of Naked Stars

Our sources were selected using criteria similar to those for the Galactic samples of AGB stars examined by Sloan & Price (1995) and supergiants studied by Sloan & Price (1998). The Galactic samples were chosen by searching for optically identified variables of classes associated with either the AGB or supergiants in the LRS Atlas (Olnon et al. 1986). Sloan & Price (1995) found that 43% of irregular (Lb) variables, 19% of semiregular (SRb) variables, and only 1% of Mira variables (including SRa variables) were naked, while Sloan & Price (1998) found that 13 of 65, or 20%, of the supergiants were naked.

The MC_DUST sample includes five supergiants, all of which are associated with circumstellar dust, but the situation is different for the AGB. In the LMC, 3 of the 19 oxygen-rich sources, or 16%, are naked (we are excluding the naked star J052832, about which little is known), while in the SMC, seven of nine oxygen-rich AGB sources, or 78%, are naked.

We know the pulsation periods of enough of the various samples to compare how the fraction of naked stars varies with period in the Galaxy, LMC, and SMC. Because the number of naked stars is small, we divide the periods into only three bins separated
at 250 days, the approximate boundary between most of the short-period semiregulars and Mira variables, and 700 days, the approximate period limit for Mira variables in the Galactic sample. For the Galactic sample, we use the catalog published by Sloan & Price (1998). Of the 611 oxygen-rich AGB stars and supergiants in that catalog, 386 have periods, and only 7 of those are naked. Two of the naked stars have periods less than 250 days, and the other five fall in the 250–700 day bin, as Table 9 shows. If we limited the sample to just Mira variables, the results are similar, with only 2 naked Mira variables out of 229.

Table 9 reveals that in the two lower period bins, the percentage of naked stars increases as the metallicity of the sample decreases. None of the stars with periods greater than 700 days are naked. In the SMC, the only variable with a period less than 700 days and a dust excess is BFM 1, but even its dust shell is thin, and the dust spectrum is unusual.

### 8.2. Dust Emission Contrast

As part of the classification process in § 5.1, we also measured the dust emission contrast for each oxygen-rich source, as defined for the naked stars in our sample. Figure 26 plots the dust emission contrast as a function of period in the Magellanic and Galactic samples for the naked and oxygen-rich sources. For periods between 250 and 700 days, the range dominated by Mira variables, the Galactic sample shows a general trend of increasing dust emission contrast with increasing period, but with a substantial spread. For periods less than 700 days, the Magellanic sources show significantly less dust emission than their Galactic counterparts. This result is consistent with the low SiO molecular band strength detected in naked oxygen-rich stars in the Magellanic Clouds, since SiO is the basic building block of silicate dust.

Magellanic sources with periods greater than 700 days typically show large contributions from dust in their spectra. In particular, five sources lie on or appear to continue the trend of DEC versus period established by the Galactic sample. Two of these sources, HV 888 and HV 996, are definite supergiants (at DEC ~ 1.9 and P ~ 800 days). Two more, IRAS 04509 and IRAS 04512, are probably very luminous AGB sources as discussed in § 3.3. We believe that these four sources are more massive than typical AGB sources and therefore younger. Since they formed more recently, they are probably more metal-rich than typical Magellanic sources, and they would be expected to mimic the more metal-rich Galactic sample.

Figure 26 includes three more LMC sources with very long pulsation periods to the lower right. From top to bottom, these are IRAS 05402 (DEC ~ 2.3), IRAS 04545 (DEC ~ 1.5), and IRAS 05329 (DEC ~ 1.1). All three of these sources show silicate absorption at 10 μm, so our DEC measurement, which is a simple sum, underestimates the total silicate contribution. Correcting for this simplification would undoubtedly push these points upward in Figure 26. However, all three spectra show clear evidence for crystalline silicate emission at longer wavelengths, which, as described in § 5.2, resemble the spectra from dusty Galactic objects with disks. This semblance is far from direct evidence of a disk, but it might indicate the presence of a reservoir of dust in addition to the dust forming in the outflows from these stars at the current time.

Table 10 presents the mean dust emission contrasts for the same period ranges used for Table 9. For the stars with periods ≤700 days, the amount of dust drops from the Galaxy to the LMC and drops further in the SMC. For these stars, the amount of dust clearly depends on metallicity. As described above, the samples with periods >700 days probably include young massive stars that blur the dependence on metallicity seen at shorter periods.

### 8.3. SiO Band Strengths

Matsuura et al. (2005) obtained 3–4 μm spectra of six oxygen-rich evolved stars in the LMC, and they detected possible weak SiO absorption in only one source, IRAS 05218, which had been thought to be a carbon star (Trams et al. 1999). They explained the absence of this band by noting that silicon is not produced in AGB stars, so its abundance in the photosphere reflects the initial abundance of the star, which will be low in a metal-poor system like the LMC. But at least four of their six targets have circumstellar dust shells, which make it possible that the dust partially masks the SiO bands.

In the MC..DUST sample, the SiO fundamental band is clearly present in the spectra of several of the less obscured sources.

---

**TABLE 9**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>≤250 days</th>
<th>250–700 days</th>
<th>&gt;700 days</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Galaxy</td>
<td>2 of 106</td>
<td>5 of 269</td>
<td>0 of 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LMC</td>
<td>2 of 3</td>
<td>2 of 9</td>
<td>0 of 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMC</td>
<td>1 of 1</td>
<td>6 of 7</td>
<td>0 of 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE 10**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>≤250 days</th>
<th>250–700 days</th>
<th>&gt;700 days</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Galaxy</td>
<td>0.38 ± 0.27</td>
<td>0.61 ± 0.41</td>
<td>1.24 ± 0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LMC</td>
<td>0.06 ± 0.11</td>
<td>0.44 ± 0.30</td>
<td>2.29 ± 0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMC</td>
<td>0.06 ± ...</td>
<td>0.07 ± 0.07</td>
<td>0.80 ± ...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

![Figure 26](image-url)
Table 11 compares the mean equivalent widths of the total LMC and SMC samples to two Galactic samples, one based on SWS observations and a second based on IRS data. For the SMC and LMC samples, we use only those equivalent widths in Table 6 with a S/N of ~1 or better. For sources with only an upper limit, we use it in place of the measured width. For HV 2575 (first observation), we take the upper limit to be 0.26 \( \mu \text{m} \). The follow-up spectra are treated as separate data. MACHO 79.5505.26 is not included since it may be carbon-rich.

Using ISO SWS data, Heras et al. (2002) determined that the strength of the SiO fundamental band increases from an equivalent width of \( \sim 0.05 \mu \text{m} \) in K0 giants to \( \sim 0.18 \mu \text{m} \) at K5. No M giant had an equivalent width less than \( \sim 0.15 \), while the maximum value increased past 0.25 \( \mu \text{m} \) at M5. They measured the SiO equivalent width between 7.6 and 9.0 \( \mu \text{m} \), but the band head is at 7.4 \( \mu \text{m} \), and the band continues to 11.0 \( \mu \text{m} \) in some cases. We have remeasured the SiO fundamental band in their sample of 23 M giants using a similar method to that applied to the IRS data, except that we integrate the equivalent width directly instead of fitting a template absorption band. We shifted the long-wavelength range for fitting the Planck function from 11.5–13.0 \( \mu \text{m} \) to 10.8–11.4 \( \mu \text{m} \) to avoid hysteresis effects in the SWS data, which tend to drive the flux up slightly toward 12 \( \mu \text{m} \). For similar reasons, we shifted the long-wavelength boundary for integrating the equivalent width from 11.5 to 11.1 \( \mu \text{m} \). These shifts slightly reduce the equivalent widths, but the Galactic sample still has stronger SiO absorption than the Magellanic samples. The mean SiO equivalent width shows no strong dependency on optical spectral type.

The second comparison sample of M giants comes from the ongoing IRS GTO Cycle 4 program used to generate the SiO template described in § 4.1. At the time of this writing, spectra of 13 of the 20 planned M giants have been obtained and reduced. We extracted the SiO equivalent width using wavelengths identical to those used for the Magellanic samples, but as with the SWS data, we simply integrated the feature, instead of fitting a template. As with the SWS sample, the equivalent width does not depend strongly on spectral type. The difference between the two Galactic M giant samples may result from different selection criteria, but it is within the standard deviations.

Table 11 shows a general trend toward decreasing SiO band strength with decreasing metallicity, although there is some overlap in the samples. The LMC sample overlaps the IRS M giants. The wide spread in the LMC sample may indicate a range of metallicities, but the sample is not large. The SMC clearly shows weaker SiO bands than the Galactic giants. These results confirm the metallicity-dependent trend first recognized by Matsuura et al. (2005) in the 3 \( \mu \text{m} \) spectral region.

### 8.4. Oxygen-rich Dust Composition

Egan & Sloan (2001) demonstrated with radiative transfer models that the amorphous alumina grains produce the broad, low-contrast features peaking at \( \sim 11–12 \mu \text{m} \), which correspond to lower SE indices (SE1–3), while amorphous silicate grains produce the classic 10 \( \mu \text{m} \) silicate feature (and associated 18 \( \mu \text{m} \) feature), which corresponds to higher SE indices (SE6–8). The middle portion of the sequence (SE4–6) generally shows structured emission features, with a peak at 10 \( \mu \text{m} \) and a shoulder at 11 \( \mu \text{m} \). This structure could arise from multiple causes, including mixtures of amorphous alumina and silicates, self-absorbed silicates, or possibly crystalline silicate grains. Given that alumina and silicates both contribute to the spectra, it might be more appropriate to refer to the sequence as the oxygen-rich dust sequence.

Figure 27 compares the distribution of silicate emission sources in the Magellanic Clouds to the Galactic samples examined by Sloan & Price (1995, 1998). The Magellanic sample differs markedly from the Galactic AGB sample by having only two sources from SE1 to SE4. In fact, it looks more like the Galactic supergiant...
Grains composed primarily of carbon atoms, usually described as amorphous carbon, dominate the dust produced by carbon stars (e.g., Martin & Rogers 1987; Sloan & Egan 1995), but amorphous carbon has no easily discernible spectral features, making a direct measurement of its contribution difficult. The Manchester method substitutes the $[6.4] - [9.3]$ color, which will grow increasingly red as the contribution of amorphous carbon relative to the star increases. Groenewegen et al. (2007) applied radiative transfer models to all of the Magellanic carbon stars in the previously cited papers, and they found a good correlation between total mass-loss rate and $[6.4] - [9.3]$ color (see their Fig. 7). What the radiative transfer models actually probe, however, is the dust mass-loss rate. The total mass-loss rate is simply inferred from the gas-to-dust ratio, which Groenewegen et al. (2007) assumed to be 200 in both the LMC and SMC. We convert their mass-loss rates to dust mass-loss rates (by dividing by 200) and repeat their comparison to $[6.4] - [9.3]$ color in Figure 28. Both the LMC and SMC follow the same relation. Fitting a line to the data gives log (dust mass-loss rate) = $-9.8 + 1.6([6.4]-[9.3])$. The scatter of the data about this line has a standard deviation of 16%.

This and previous studies have compared objects in the Galaxy, SMC, and LMC at similar $[6.4] - [9.3]$ color as though objects with similar amounts of amorphous carbon dust are truly alike. They might not be if the dust formation efficiency depended on metallicity. To consider this possibility, we examined the pulsation periods of the sources in the various samples, since those should be similar for physically similar stars. Figure 29 plots $[6.4] - [9.3]$ color as a function of pulsation period, and it reveals no significant differences in the distribution of colors at a given period between the samples. In other words, carbon stars with similar pulsation properties are embedded in similar quantities of dust, regardless of their initial metallicity.

9. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The similar dust production rates among the samples in Figure 29 have important consequences. The production of amorphous carbon is limited by the amount of excess carbon compared to oxygen, but carbon is produced in the triple-$\alpha$ process in AGB

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Fig. 28.—Dust mass-loss rate as a function of $[6.4] - [9.3]$ color, including data from the samples of Magellanic carbon stars presented by Sloan et al. (2006b), Zijlstra et al. (2006), and Lagadec et al. (2007) and analyzed with radiative transfer models by Groenewegen et al. (2007). We have converted the total mass-loss rates to dust mass-loss rates by dividing by their assumed gas-to-dust ratio of 200. The solid line is a linear fit to the data.

Fig. 29.—$[6.4] - [9.3]$ color as a function of period. The data include the samples from Fig. 22 (small diamonds and squares), the MC-DUST sample (large diamonds and squares), and the Galactic sample (small circles). The Galaxy, SMC, and LMC show no significant differences despite their different metallicities.
stars. The production of silicates and other oxygen-rich grains, on the other hand, is limited by the abundances of heavy elements such as Si and Al, and these are not produced in significant quantities on the AGB. The ready explanation for the results presented in Figure 29 is that the carbon produced and dredged up by AGB stars dominates the carbon with which they formed. It should follow, then, that even Population III stars, if they are in the mass range to become carbon stars, will produce approximately the same amount of carbon-rich dust as their Population I counterparts.

Blanco et al. (1978, 1980) discovered that in the SMC, more AGB stars became carbon-rich than in the LMC (see also Cioni & Habis 2003). Renzini & Voli (1981) explained this phenomenon as a metallicity effect. Stars with solar abundances will become carbon stars if their initial mass is $\gtrsim 1.7 M_\odot$, but at $\frac{1}{2}$ solar metallicity, the mass limit has dropped to $1.2 M_\odot$ primarily because of the lack of oxygen in the atmosphere of the metal-poor star to balance the dredged-up carbon. Assuming a Salpeter initial mass function (Salpeter 1955) and integrating from these carbon limits to $8 M_\odot$, we find that in the SMC, 70% more of the AGB should be carbon-rich compared to a sample with solar metallicity. Since we see no diminishment of carbon-rich dust production at decreasing metallicity, we conclude that the more metal-poor an initial population of stars, the more carbon-rich dust it will contribute to the ISM, simply because it produces more carbon stars.

Many other properties of carbon stars do depend on metallicity. Our small sample reinforces results from previous studies of Spitzer spectroscopy in the Magellanic Clouds, which show that as the metallicity decreases, emission from SiC and MgS dust decreases, while absorption from acetylene gas increases. The increased acetylene absorption probably arises from higher C/O ratios in Magellanic carbon stars (van Loon et al. 1999; Matsushita et al. 2002, 2005), which in turn arise from a combination of increased dredge-up efficiency (Wood 1981) and less initial oxygen in the atmosphere (Vassiliadis & Wood 1993). The additional acetylene we observe may add even more to the amount of carbon injected into the ISM by metal-poor populations.

The behavior of the oxygen-rich dust stands in stark contrast to the carbon-rich dust. While the quantity of carbon-rich dust shows no discernible dependence on metallicity, oxygen-rich dust shows many clear trends. As metallicity decreases, (1) the fraction of naked stars increases, (2) SiO absorption decreases, (3) the silicate dust emission also decreases, and (4) alumina-rich dust emission disappears almost entirely. The lower metallicity of the Magellanic Clouds provides a ready explanation for all of these effects. Si is not produced on the AGB, so its abundance scales with overall metallicity. As a result, we observe less SiO gas, which is the fundamental building block of silicate dust, and less silicate dust as well. The abundance of Al scales even more strongly with metallicity (§ 5.4), so the lack of alumina dust should not be a surprise. Not only do we see few spectra in the SE1–3 range, but we see little or no emission from the 13 $\mu$m feature, which arises from an Al–O bond.

Standard condensation sequences propose the formation of alumina-rich grains before silicates (e.g., Tielens 1990; Stencel et al. 1990). The lack of alumina dust in our sample suggests that the formation of alumina is not a prerequisite to the formation of silicates. In other words, silicates can form without preexisting alumina grains to serve as seeds.

The oxygen-rich sample contains a wealth of interesting dust features. Five sources show crystalline silicate features at 10 $\mu$m or longer wavelengths, and these are all consistent with Mg-rich pyroxene and olivine. There is no evidence for Fe in the silicates, much like the Galactic sample. Several sources have an unidentified 14 $\mu$m emission feature, and one source, the only true S star in our sample, shows a previously unknown 13.5 $\mu$m emission feature. These two features are newly discovered by the IRS, and their identification awaits further investigation.

The Magellanic Clouds present us with a scenario of steady or increasing carbon-rich dust production as systems grow more metal-poor, compared to declining rates of oxygen-rich dust production. This result measures what goes into the ISM, but it contradicts observations of what is currently present in the ISM in metal-poor systems. Most lines of sight in the SMC have unusual extinction curves without the commonly observed 2175 Å bump seen in the Galaxy, in common with starburst galaxies and quasars (e.g., Gordon & Clayton 1998; Pitman et al. 2000 and references therein). The 2175 Å bump is commonly associated with graphitic carbonaceous material (as first proposed by Stecher & Donn 1965). Duley & Seahra (1998) showed that certain PAHs and PAH clusters can reproduce the 2175 Å bump and that these particles can result from interstellar processing of hydrogenated amorphous carbon. The recent study of unusual PAH-like spectra by Sloan et al. (2007) demonstrates that hydrocarbons can exist with a range of aromatic-to-aliphatic ratios. Many of the sources of unusual PAH-like emission are carbon-rich post-AGB objects. All of these observations support an evolutionary relationship from amorphous carbon produced by carbon stars on the AGB to interstellar PAHs and the material responsible for the 2175 Å bump. The results in this paper demonstrate that carbon-rich dust production does not decrease in more metal-poor samples, and yet metal-poor systems like the SMC are missing the 2175 Å bump that should result.

Either the missing carbon-rich dust did not form, or it has been destroyed. Gordon & Clayton (1998) suggested that harsher radiation fields in metal-poor systems can destroy the carrier of the 2175 Å bump. Stellar modeling shows that decreasing the metallicity of a star results in less UV line blanketing and an emitted spectrum with more UV emission (Givens et al. 2002), which readily explains the harsher interstellar radiation observed in metal-poor H ii regions (Martínez-Hernández et al. 2002). Galliano et al. (2008) recently reached the opposite conclusion. They used galactic evolution models to investigate the absence of PAH emission in blue compact dwarf galaxies and other metal-poor galaxies (Engelbracht et al. 2005; Wu et al. 2006) and concluded that these systems produce significantly less carbon-rich dust than the Galaxy. Our sample of Magellanic carbon stars provides no evidence for less carbon-rich dust formation in more primordial systems, which leads to the conclusion that the lack of carbon-bearing dust in these systems results not from reduced production, but from enhanced destruction.

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