REVEALING THE NATURE OF EXTREME CORONAL-LINE EMITTER SDSS J095209.56+214313.3

LOVRO PALaversa1, SUVI GEZARI2, BRANIMIR SESAR3, J. SCOTT STUART4, PRZEMYSŁAW Wozniak5, BERRY HOLL1, AND ŽELIKO IVEZIC6

1 Observatoire astronomique de l’Université de Genève, 51 chemin des Maillettes, CH-1290 Sauverny, Switzerland; lovro.palaversa@unige.ch
2 Department of Astronomy, University of Maryland, College Park, MD 20742-2421, USA
3 Los Alamos National Laboratory, 30 Bikini Atoll Road, Los Alamos, NM 87545-0001, USA
4 Lincoln Laboratory, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 244 Wood Street, Lexington, MA 02420-9108, USA
5 Max Planck Institute for Astronomy, Königstuhl 17, D-69117 Heidelberg, Germany
6 University of Washington, Department of Astronomy, P.O. Box 351580, Seattle, WA 98195-1580, USA

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ABSTRACT

Extreme coronal-line emitter (ECLE) SDSS J095209.56+214313.3, known by its strong, fading, high-ionization lines, has been a long-standing candidate for a tidal disruption event; however, a supernova (SN) origin has not yet been ruled out. Here we add several new pieces of information to the puzzle of the transient that powered its variable coronal lines: (1) an optical light curve from the Lincoln Near Earth Asteroid Research (LINEAR) survey that serendipitously catches the optical flare, and (2) late-time observations of the host galaxy with the Swift Ultraviolet and Optical Telescope (UVOT) and X-ray telescope (XRT) and the ground-based Mercator telescope. The well-sampled, ~10 yr long, unfiltered LINEAR light curve constrains the onset of the flare to a precision of ±5 days and enables us to place a lower limit on the peak optical magnitude. Difference imaging allows us to estimate the location of the flare in proximity of the host galaxy core. Comparison of the GALEX data (early 2006) with the recently acquired Swift UVOT (2015 June) and Mercator observations (2015 April) demonstrates a decrease in the UV flux over a ~10 yr period, confirming that the flare was UV-bright. The long-lived UV-bright emission, detected 1.8 rest-frame years after the start of the flare, strongly disfavors an SN origin. These new data allow us to conclude that the flare was indeed powered by the tidal disruption of a star by a supermassive black hole and that tidal disruption events are in fact capable of powering the enigmatic class of ECLEs.

Key words: black hole physics – circumstellar matter – galaxies: individual (SDSS J095209.56+214313.3) – galaxies: nuclei – supernovae: general – ultraviolet: galaxies

1. INTRODUCTION

The class of extreme coronal-line emitters (ECLEs) are distinct because they exhibit strong coronal lines, such as [Fe x] \( \lambda 6376 \), [Fe ix] \( \lambda 7894 \), and [Fe xiv] \( \lambda 5304 \), that require a high-energy photoionizing continuum (Komossa et al. 2008; Wang et al. 2011, 2012). Additionally, as a class, ECLEs demonstrate coronal-line intensities that show strong variability with time, as well as complex Balmer-line profiles (Yang et al. 2013). While tidal disruption events (TDEs) have been proposed as the most likely source of the flaring UV-soft X-ray photoionizing continuum powering the iron-line light echoes in this class of objects, the light curve (LC) of the flare itself has never been detected to test this scenario directly.

For the first time, we report the LC of an ECLE, caught serendipitously by the optical time-domain Lincoln Near Earth Asteroid Research (LINEAR; Stokes et al. 2000) survey, and provide Swift UV follow-up observations that confirm the UV-luminous nature of the event. The paper is organized as follows. In Section 2 we describe the new and archival observations of SDSS J0952+2143 (hereafter SDSS J0952+2143), in Section 3 we present the implications for the TDE versus other origin scenarios, and in Section 4 we conclude that the coronal lines in SDSS J0952+2143 were indeed the light echo of a TDE in the gas-rich environment of a supermassive black hole (SMBH).

2. OBSERVATIONS

Here we describe our new observations of SDSS J0952+2143, which, together with the extensive multiwavelength data presented in Komossa et al. (2009), help solve the mystery of its origin. All magnitudes are in the AB system. Unless otherwise noted, when reporting observed magnitudes, we do not correct for Galactic extinction toward the source \( E(B-V) = 0.028 \) mag. However, the absolute magnitudes include the correction for Galactic extinction. Hereafter we use UT dates and assume a cosmology with \( H_0 = 70 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1} \), \( \Omega_m = 0.3 \), \( \Omega_{\Lambda} = 0.7 \), and a luminosity distance of 360 Mpc.

2.1. Archival Data

During a systematic search for emission lines in AGNs in SDSS DR6 (Sloan Digital Sky Survey Data Release 6; Adelman-McCarthy et al. 2008), Komossa et al. (2008, K08) identified unusual and variable emission lines of the host galaxy SDSS J0952+2143 and subsequently scheduled further observations with Chandra X-ray Observatory and the Gamma-ray Burst Optical/NIR Detector (GROND; Greiner et al. 2008) instrument mounted on the 2.2 m Max Planck Society telescope, as well as spectroscopic follow-up with the Spitzer Space Telescope Infrared Spectrograph (Houck et al. 2004), the OMIR spectrograph at the 2.16 m Xinglong telescope, and the EMMI\(^7\) instrument at the 3.5 m ESO New Technology Telescope (NTT; see Komossa et al. 2009, K09). More recently, Yang et al. (2013, Y13) acquired SDSS J0952...
+2143 spectra from the Blue Channel Spectrograph on the Multi-mirror Telescope (MMT). The host SDSS J0952+2143 galaxy was also observed by the ROSAT all-sky survey in 1990 November (RASS; Voges et al. 1999), 2MASS (Skrutskie et al. 2006), XMM-Newton (Jansen et al. 2001), Swift Burst Alert Telescope (BAT; Markwardt et al. 2002; Ajello et al. 2008), and GALEX (Martin et al. 2005). The chronology of these observations is summarized in Figure 1.

The earliest ground-based spectrum, obtained by SDSS, exhibited unusually strong, high-ionization iron coronal lines with ionization states from [Fe vii] up to [Fe xiv] and complex Hα and Hβ profiles that can be decomposed into broad and narrow components with multiple peaks (see K08, K09, and Y13 for a thorough discussion of spectral lines). Subsequent NTT, Xinglong, and MMT spectra revealed a dramatic fading of the lines, as well as a complex evolution of the broadband profiles.

RASS (1990 November), XMM-Newton (2002 May 7), and Swift BAT (March 2005–2008) observations of the host galaxy did not make an X-ray detection and were only able to place upper limits on the X-ray luminosity of the host galaxy at LX (0.1–2.4 keV) < 10^{43} erg s^{-1}, LX (0.2–10 keV) < 8 × 10^{43} erg s^{-1}, and LX (15–55 keV) < 10^{44} erg s^{-1}, respectively. However, a Chandra 10 ks observation initiated by K09 on 2008 February 4 detected faint X-ray emission, with LX (0.1–10 keV) ∼ 10^{41} erg s^{-1}. The galaxy was detected as a luminous mid-IR source by Spitzer, which K09 attribute to relatively cold dust heated by the flare, or to a persistent starburst.

2.2. Lincoln Near Earth Asteroid Research

LINEAR (Stokes et al. 2000) operated two telescopes at the Experimental Test Site located within the US Army White Sands Missile Range in central New Mexico at an altitude of 1506 m. The program used two essentially identical equatorially mounted, folded design telescopes with 1 m diameter, f/2.5 primary mirrors equipped with 2560 × 1960 pixel back-illuminated, frame-transfer CCD cameras mounted in the prime focus. Cameras had no spectral filters and in combination with the telescopes produced a 1.560 × 1.223 (≈2 deg²) field of view with a resolution of 2.6 pixel^{-1}.

The spectral response curve of the LINEAR system peaks at approximately 625 nm and covers an approximately 400–1000 nm wavelength range, broadly matching the range of SDSS griz filters. Sesar et al. (2011) described the LINEAR survey and photometric recalibration based on SDSS stars acting as a dense grid of standard stars (for the period from 1998 to 2009). In the overlapping 10,000 deg² of sky between LINEAR and SDSS, photometric errors range from 0.03 mag for sources not limited by photon statistics to 0.20 mag at r = 18 (where r is the SDSS r-band magnitude). LINEAR photometry of the SDSS J0952+2143 was obtained from SkyDOT.

In order to supplement the existing photometry (for the period after 2009) and perform difference imaging, 622 7/55 × 7/55 (200 × 200 pixels) image cutouts were extracted from the LINEAR database. Aperture photometry was performed in the usual way using the IRAF10 (Tody 1993) aphot task. Images were astrometrically registered (astrometry.net; Lang et al. 2010) and then visually inspected. Low-quality frames in the nonflaring state were removed, to

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9 http://skydot.lanl.gov/
10 IRAF is distributed by the National Optical Astronomy Observatories, which are operated by the Association of Universities for Research in Astronomy, Inc., under cooperative agreement with the National Science Foundation.
give the final difference imaging sample of 299 images. Resulting good images were divided into groups containing pre-, post-, and flare data. Images satisfying $53,036 > \text{MJD} > 53,750$ (2004 January 31 and 2006 January 14) were then corrected for distortions and co-added (SWARP; Bertin et al. 2002) to create a template image from which the co-added image in the flaring state ($53,148.2 < \text{MJD} < 53,377.4$, 2004 May 22 to 2005 January 6) was differenced with HOTPANTS,\(^{11}\) an implementation of the Alard (2000) algorithm.

2.3. Mercator Telescope

On 2015 April 15 we requested observations with the MAIA instrument mounted on the 1.2 m Mercator telescope.\(^{12}\) MAIA is an efficient three-channel imager, capable of simultaneous three-band photometry. The optical system is built around three e2v $2k \times 6k$ frame-transfer CCDs sourced from European Space Agency’s canceled Eddington mission. The field of view of the system is $9.4' \times 14.1'$, with image scale of $0.276$ pixel$^{-1}$. MAIA is equipped with three filters: $U$, $G$, and $R$. These filters are similar but not identical to the SDSS filter system. In particular, the $R$ filter is an approximation of SDSS $r + i$ filters, while $U$ and $G$ are approximations of SDSS $u$ and $g$. More details can be found in the technical paper by Raskin et al. (2013).

$U$-, $G$-, and $R$-band images were acquired simultaneously and under good conditions on 2015 April 15, with a 1 ks exposure in all three filters. Usual reduction steps were performed by a custom-built Python script (L. Palaversa & S. Blanco-Cuaresma 2015, private communication) that is used for reduction of Gaia Science Alerts\(^{13}\) (GSA) follow-up observations obtained by the MAIA instrument. The photometric calibration and conversion to the SDSS system was performed by the Cambridge Photometry Calibration Server (also a part of GSA). The host galaxy was detected with $u = 19.70 \pm 0.06$ mag, $g = 18.03 \pm 0.02$ mag, and $r = 17.29 \pm 0.04$ mag. Comparison with SDSS photometry of 2004 December 20 ($u = 18.36 \pm 0.02$ mag, $g = 17.71 \pm 0.01$ mag, $r = 17.119 \pm 0.005$ mag, $i = 16.652 \pm 0.005$ mag, and $z = 16.23 \pm 0.01$ mag) reveals that the source became fainter in the $u$, $g$, and $r$ bands and redder ($u - g_{\text{SDSS}} = 0.66$, $g - r_{\text{SDSS}} = 0.59$, $u - g_{\text{MAIA}} = 1.67$, $g - r_{\text{MAIA}} = 0.74$). All magnitudes are in the AB system.

2.4. Swift

We obtained follow-up imaging of SDSS J0952+2143 with Swift UVOT during the time period of 2015 April 12–June 23 with 4.96 ks in the $uvw2$ ($\lambda_{\text{eff}} = 2246$ Å) filter and 4.79 ks in the $v$ ($\lambda_{\text{eff}} = 5468$ Å) filter. The host galaxy is detected with $uvw2 = 21.44 \pm 0.09$ mag and $v = 17.81 \pm 0.04$ in the AB system using heasoft software package $\text{uvotsource}$ and a 5′0 radius aperture. We find a negligible correction (<0.1 mag) between AB magnitudes in the $GALEX$ near-UV (NUV) and Swift $uvw2$ bands using a comparison of four reference stars detected in both the Swift image and the 218 s $GALEX$ All-sky Imaging Survey obtained on 2006 March 2. SDSS J0952+2143 is spatially extended in the $uvw2$ image in comparison to reference stars in the field of view (see cumulative flux distribution in Figure 2). We also measure a 3σ upper limit on the X-ray flux from a 6.82 ks Swift XRT exposure on 2015 June 23 using the heasoft software package $\text{sota}$ of $f_{0.3-10\text{kev}} < 9.54 \times 10^{-14}$ erg s$^{-1}$, which for a Galactic column density of $N_{\text{H}} = 2.79 \times 10^{20}$ cm$^{-2}$ and a power-law index of $\Gamma = 1.9$ translates to $L_X < 1.47 \times 10^{22}$ erg s$^{-1}$. This upper limit is consistent with the much more sensitive late-time Chandra detection of SDSS J0952+2143 on 2008 February 4.

2.5. Wide-field Infrared Survey Explorer

WISE (Wright et al. 2010) is a 0.4 m NASA infrared wavelength space telescope in Earth orbit that performed an all-sky survey in $3.4\,\mu m$, $4.6\,\mu m$, $12\,\mu m$, and $22\,\mu m$ (hereafter designated as $W1$, $W2$, $W3$, and $W4$, respectively). WISE detected the host galaxy with $W1 = 16.349 \pm 0.026$ mag, $W2 = 15.957 \pm 0.026$ mag, $W3 = 14.340 \pm 0.033$ mag, and $W4 = 13.538 \pm 0.083$ mag, between 2010 May 08 and November 15.\(^{14}\)

3. ANALYSIS

Ten-year-long monitoring enabled by the LINEAR survey, as well as late-time Swift and MAIA observations, allows us to uncover critical diagnostic information missing from the previous analyses of the mechanism responsible for the luminous flare in the SDSS J0952+2143 galaxy.

Most importantly, exact timing of the event and its evolution can now be constrained (see Figure 1). From the difference in time between the last point on the flat part of the LC prior to the flare and the first point on the rise, we estimate with a precision of ±5 days that the flare started on 2004 May 18. Unfortunately, LINEAR did not observe the peak of the optical LC, but we are able to determine that the flare could not have been fainter than $M_r \sim -20$ mag.

The LINEAR survey also allows us to establish the optical variability of the host galaxy SDSS J0952+2143 at a level of $\sigma < 0.08$ mag (outside of the flaring phase), removing the possibility of strong, unobserved active galactic nucleus (AGN) activity in the host. We also use the difference imaging described in Section 2.4 to localize the transient relative to the host galaxy nucleus. Figure 3 shows a contour of the difference image constructed from the flaring state images, overlaid on the host galaxy reference image. There is no significant offset detected, with the transient centroid measured from a Gaussian fit located within 1σ (0.2 pixels or $0.045'$) of the host galaxy centroid. Assuming the SDSS value for redshift ($z = 0.079$), this translates to an offset from the core of less than 670 pc, thus not ruling out the TDE hypothesis.

Furthermore, the optical LC allows us to put other observations in context. We now know that the SDSS photometry (2004 December 20) and SDSS spectrum (2005 December 30) were taken approximately 210 and 580 days after the start of the flare. Therefore, only LINEAR and SDSS photometry were taken during the flaring phase. By the time $GALEX$ photometry and SDSS spectra were acquired, the flare had already faded considerably (at least at optical wavelengths). Although the early part of the Swift BAT observations were taken during the declining phase of the flare, no detection

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\(^{11}\) http://www.astro.washington.edu/users/becker/v2.0/hotpants.html

\(^{12}\) Located at Observatorio del Roque de los Muchachos on La Palma island (Spain) and operated by the Institute of Astronomy of KU Leuven (Belgium).

\(^{13}\) http://gaia.ac.uk/selected-gaia-science-alerts

\(^{14}\) WISE magnitudes in the Vega system are equal to $W1 = 13.666 \pm 0.026$ mag, $W2 = 12.638 \pm 0.026$ mag, $W3 = 9.098 \pm 0.033$ mag, and $W4 = 6.934 \pm 0.085$ mag.
was made, suggesting that there was no significant hard X-ray emission. Remaining observations taken after mid-2006 could have measured only the echo of the flare in the surrounding medium.

The extended, persistent UV emission detected by Swift from SDSS J0952+2143 11 yr after the transient outburst has faded by 1.2 mag since the GALEX detection on UT 2006 March 02 and is likely associated with star formation in the host galaxy. Therefore, we can derive the UV flux intrinsic to the transient detected by GALEX to be $NUV_{\text{trans}} = 20.60 \pm 0.14$ mag, which corresponds to an absolute magnitude of $M_{\text{NUV}} = -17.4$ mag (corrected for Galactic extinction), 1.8 yr after the onset of the transient outburst. Our confirmation of transient UV emission associated with the event in 2006 March 2 contradicts the conclusions of Yang et al. (2013), who found that it is not necessary to add a nonstellar component to fit the blue end of the SDSS spectrum of SDSS J0952+2143 on 2005 December 30, which we now know was taken 1.6 yr after the start of the UV/optical flare. Note that a similar fading in the UV was detected in archival GALEX observations of ECLE SDSS J0748+4712 by Wang et al. (2012), confirming that it too was powered by a UV-luminous event.

Furthermore, the confirmation that the host galaxy is in fact a star-forming galaxy is important, since the continuum colors of the host galaxy measured by 2MASS, WISE, and MAIA, all of which were taken either before the flare or at least 6 yr after the optical LC reached its pre-flare level, and its narrow-line ratios measured in K08 are ambiguous and consistent with the regions populated by both AGNs and star-forming galaxies in the diagnostic diagrams (Baldwin et al. 1981; Obrić et al. 2006; Nikutta et al. 2014).

4. DISCUSSION

4.1. Nature of the Host Galaxy

LINEAR photometry spanning more than a decade does not exhibit behavior indicative of AGN activity (cf. stability of the optical LC in Section 3). This is corroborated by XMM-Newton, Swift BAT, Swift XRT, and Chandra X-ray observations, all of which were taken outside of the flaring phase (with the slight exception of Swift BAT observations). Only Chandra observations detected low levels of soft X-rays, approximately 3.5 yr after the start of the flare, and at a level well below that which is expected for normal AGNs. Our recent Swift photometry detected extended, persistent UV emission from SDSS J0952+2143, an indication of ongoing star formation. Given the fact that the Swift photometry was acquired ~11 yr after the start of the flare, it is unlikely that there is a contribution to the late-time UV emission from the flare itself.

These measurements provide a contiguous observational baseline of approximately 2 yr before the flare and 10 yr after the flare in which no activity characteristic of AGNs was detected. We also note that RASS observations in 1990 November did not detect significant X-ray emission (yet an 11 yr gap in observation exists between RASS and XMM-Newton observations). However, a longer baseline may be needed to definitively rule out an AGN. Seyfert 1.9 galaxy IC 3599, for example, showed two bursting episodes caught by ROSAT and Swift, respectively, separated by a time interval of 20 yr. While the Catalina Sky Survey data caught the second outburst in 2008 (Grupe et al. 2015), it shows no significant variability ($\sigma = 0.04$ mag) in the LINEAR data in the 6 yr preceding it (Figure 4). We do, however, note the difference in the LC shape of IC 3599 and SDSS J0952+2143, the latter of which is asymmetric, shows more abrupt change in luminosity, and has a larger optical amplitude (approximately 0.2 mag in the case of IC 3599 and 0.5 mag in the case of SDSS J0952+2143).

Thanks to the LINEAR LC, $\left[\text{N}\text{II}\right]/\text{H}\alpha$ and $\left[\text{O}\text{III}\right]/\text{H}\beta$ line ratios can now be used more safely in the context of the BPT diagram, in which the host galaxy is placed in the SF region, but near the AGN/SF division. Similarly, 2MASS, MAIA, SDSS, and WISE color–color diagrams locate the host galaxy.

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**Figure 2.** Cumulative flux as a function of aperture radius for SDSS J0952+2143 (dashed line) in comparison to reference stars (solid lines) in the Swift uvw2 image. The UV emission in SDSS J0952+2143 is clearly extended and is likely associated with star formation in the host galaxy. The Swift UVOT pixel scale is $0\farcs502$ pixel$^{-1}$.

**Figure 3.** Contour image of the host galaxy detected by LINEAR constructed from the pre- and post-flare data (red), compared to the contour image of the difference image during the flare (blue). The cyan circle marks the 2$\sigma$ error circle on the difference image centroid measured from a Gaussian fit. No significant offset is detected between the difference image centroid and the host galaxy nucleus. The LINEAR pixel scale is $2\farcs25$ pixel$^{-1}$.
within the clusters occupied by AGNs and star-forming galaxies. Motivated by these clues (and by GROND imaging that shows spiral structure in the host galaxy; \textcite{K09}), we conclude that the flare probably happened in a nonactive, star-forming galaxy.

4.2. Nature of the Flare

There are several possible explanations for the outburst in SDSS J0952+2143: a tidal disruption of a star by an SMBH in the center of the host galaxy, an extreme SN IIn, or AGN-like variability. Similarities in the spectral line responses of the former two scenarios require that we look at the photoionizing potential in the host galaxy, an extreme SN IIn, or AGN-like variability. This comparison indicates shorter rise times in SDSS J0952+2143 to the LC of the bursting AGN IC 3599. This comparison indicates shorter rise times in SDSS J0952+2143 to the LC of the bursting AGN IC 3599. This comparison indicates shorter rise times in SDSS J0952+2143 to the LC of the bursting AGN IC 3599.

A possible explanation for the outburst in the SDSS J0952+2143 could be AGN variability, such as an accretion disk instability (e.g., \textcite{G15}). Thanks to the LINEAR and Catalina surveys, we are able to directly compare the optical LC of SDSS J0952+2143 to the LC of the bursting AGN IC 3599. This comparison indicates shorter rise times in SDSS J0952+2143, more consistent with the TDE scenario than an accretion disk instability (\textcite{S15}) and a decline with the $t^{-5/3}$ rate (unlike the case of IC 3599). Furthermore, while the ionization lines up to [Fe x] have been reported in the case of IC 3599, the extreme coronal lines with ionization up to [Fe xiv] were not detected. We find that the reported X-ray and UV flux levels, combined with the LCs, suggest the AGN scenario to be less likely than a TDE for SDSS J0952+2143. However, a longer observational baseline of optical monitoring (to be provided by, e.g., Pan-STARRS, \textit{Gaia}, and LSST) could shed more light on this question.

Interestingly, the peak optical luminosity of the transient is $\sim 1$ mag brighter than PS1-10jh (\textcite{G12}), but in the range of some other optically selected TDE candidates reported in the literature (\textcite{vanV11, A14}). This could be attributed to a more energetic event, possibly resulting from the efficient accretion of a larger fraction of the bound stellar debris. This larger luminosity could also translate to a stronger light echo in its surrounding gaseous environment, thus resulting in a detectable ECLE. Given the optical luminosity of the host galaxy measured by \textit{Swift} and the Mercator telescope and its stellar velocity dispersion, a central black hole with a mass of $7 \times 10^6 M_{\odot}$ (\textcite{K08}) is well within the range of black hole masses capable of disruption of a solar-type star outside the event horizon, and in a mass range where the peak accretion rate of the stellar debris would not be limited by the Eddington luminosity of the central SMBH.

5. CONCLUSIONS

We present archival LINEAR observations and late-time \textit{Swift} and Mercator observations that add new pieces of the puzzle to the nature of the flare that powered the extreme coronal line emission in SDSS J0952+2143. In particular, our results suggest that the flare is likely powered by an AGN.

**Figure 4.** IC 3599 optical LC. Blue open circles correspond to the LINEAR data and red open circles to CSDR2 data (Drake et al. 2009), shifted by 0.17 mag, i.e., the difference of the median LC values between LINEAR and CSDR2 data, outside the flaring phase. Please note that SDSS J0952+2143 is $\sim 2$ mag fainter than IC 3599 and actually near the faint limit of the LINEAR survey.

**Figure 5.** Comparison of LINEAR difference imaging LC, converted to absolute magnitudes, to known extreme interacting SNe SN 2005ip (unfiltered), SN 1988Z ($M_r$), SN 2006f ($M_r$), SN 2003ma ($M_r$), and the prototypical TDE candidate PS1-10jh ($M_r$). Correction for Galactic extinction is included.
observations reveal the blue color and strong late-time UV luminosity of the flare and constrain its location within the errors to the nucleus of the host galaxy, both disfavoring an SN origin. Furthermore, if the flaring event is indeed associated with the galaxy’s central SMBH, then the lack of variability detected by LINEAR before and after the flare is best explained by an impulsive accretion event, as would be expected from the tidal disruption of a star, as opposed to stochastic variability associated with a persistently accreting AGN. In Table 1 we summarize the evidence for the nature of the flaring event that powered the light echo in SDSS J0952+2143 and conclude that the most likely scenario that explains all of its properties is a TDE. Ultimately, it is the UV brightness, not the LC shape, that makes us confident that the TDE scenario is favored over the SN scenario.

This case of SDSS J0952+2143 demonstrates the importance of archived all-sky, time-domain surveys: LINEAR was originally an asteroid survey that was recycled as a project searching for variable stars. However, this resulted in a highly valuable archival, decade-long, time-domain survey covering a large fraction of the sky. In the future era of synoptic surveys, the recovery of the LCs of ECLEs discovered in spectroscopic surveys should be even easier and allow one to relate the detailed energetics of the TDE powering the flare, to its subsequent light echo in the gaseous environment of the SMBH.

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### Table 1

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<th>Property</th>
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<tr>
<td>LC shape</td>
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Note. “Y” indicates “yes,” “N” indicates “no,” and “U” indicates “unlikely.”

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