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JWST observations of the Ring Nebula (NGC 6720): III. A dusty disk around its Central Star

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25 ABSTRACT

26 The planetary nebula NGC 6720, also known as the “Ring Nebula”, is one of the most iconic examples
27 of nearby planetary nebulae whose morphologies present a challenge to our theoretical understanding
28 of the processes that govern the deaths of most stars in the Universe that evolve on a Hubble time.
29 We present new imaging with JWST of the central star of this planetary nebula (CSPN) and its close
30 vicinity, in the near- to mid-IR wavelength range. We find the presence of a dust cloud around the
31 CSPN, both from the spectral energy distribution at wavelengths $\gtrsim 5 \mu\text{m}$, as well as radially-extended
32 emission in the 7.7, 10 and 11.3 μm images. From modeling of these data, we infer that the CSPN
33 has a luminosity of $310 L_{\odot}$, and is surrounded by a dust cloud with a size of $\sim 2600 \text{ au}$, consisting of
34 relatively small amorphous silicate dust grains (radius $\sim 0.01 \mu\text{m}$) with a total mass of $1.9 \times 10^{-6} M_{\oplus}$.
35 However, our best-fit model shows a significant lack of extended emission at $7.7 \mu\text{m}$ – we show that
36 such emission can arise from a smaller ($7.3 \times 10^{-7} M_{\oplus}$) but uncertain mass of (stochastically-heated)
37 ionized PAHs. However, the same energetic radiation also rapidly destroys PAH molecules, suggesting
38 that these are most likely being continuously replenished, via the outgassing of cometary bodies and/or
39 the collisional grinding of planetesimals. We also find significant photometric variability of the central
40 source that could be due to the presence of a close dwarf companion of mass $\leq 0.1 M_{\odot}$.

41 *Keywords:* circumstellar matter – stars: circumstellar dust – AGB and post-AGB – stars: individual
42 (NGC 6720) – stars: mass loss – planetary nebulae – close binary stars

43 1. INTRODUCTION

The presence and origin of dusty disks around main-sequence (MS) and pre-MS stars is well understood. These are first seen as the gas and dust-rich planet-forming disks in young stellar objects (YSOs) and are an integral part of the star-formation process itself, and then as the gas-poor debris disks around MS stars resulting from the collisions of large planetesimals that produce second-generation dust particles (Rieke et al. 2005). The dust in these debris disks dissipates long before the stars evolve off the MS.

Remarkably, dusty disks or disk-like structures manifest themselves again as these stars reach the ends of their lives as Asymptotic Giant Branch (AGB) stars, post-AGB stars and the central stars of planetary nebulae (PNe) (e.g., Sahai et al. 2007, 2011; Hillen et al. 2017). AGB stars, representing the death throes of stars with MS masses of $\sim 1 - 8 M_{\odot}$, are very luminous ($L \sim 5000 - 10,000 L_{\odot}$) and cool ($T_{eff} < 3000$ K) and experience heavy mass-loss (with rates up to $10^{-4} M_{\odot} \text{ yr}^{-1}$, see e.g., review by Decin 2021) that depletes most of the stellar envelope and accelerates their evolution to the PN phase, through a transitory post-AGB phase. These stars evolve to higher temperatures through the post-AGB and PN phases at almost constant luminosity, fading and becoming white dwarfs (WDs) at the ends of their lives. It is during these post-AGB and WD phases, that the presence of disk-like structures around the central stars becomes observationally apparent once again, raising questions about their nature, formation, longevity and potentially a second phase of planet-formation. The disks have a large range of sizes, found from direct imaging or derived from modeling the spectral energy distribution (SED). These disks range from very small disks found around cool central WD stars ($\lesssim 0.01$ AU) (e.g., Ballering et al. 2022) to much larger disks extending to radii up to ~ 1000 AU that have been found in AGB stars (e.g., Sahai et al. 2022), post-AGB stars (e.g., De Ruyter et al. 2006), and the central stars of planetary nebulae (e.g., Su et al. 2007; Chu et al. 2011; Bilíková et al. 2012; Sahai et al. 2023).

We report here new JWST observations of the central star (and its immediate environment) of the iconic PN, the Ring Nebula (NGC 6720), resulting in the discovery of the second resolved dusty disk around a CSPN¹. We will hereafter refer to the central star (i.e., the WD) as the CSPN; the CSPN and its immediate environment will be referred to as the central source or CS. This PN, of long-standing interest for both amateur and professional astronomy, has been extensively studied, both from ground-based (e.g., Balick et al. 1992; Bryce et al. 1994; Guerrero et al. 1997) and space-based observatories (Sahai et al. 2012; O’Dell et al. 2013), yet it continues to be an amazing astrophysical laboratory yielding new and unexpected insights into the extraordinary deaths of intermediate-mass stars (e.g., Wesson et al. 2024; Kastner et al. 2025). NGC 6720 was imaged through a wide suite of filters from 1.6 to $25 \mu\text{m}$ using the NIRCAM and MIRI instruments on JWST via program ID GO-01558 (Wesson et al. 2024). A log of the observations is provided in Table 1 of Wesson et al. (2024), who carried out an imaging study of rings, globules and arcs in the nebula. **Wesson et al. (2024) found that NGC 6720’s CSPN is part of a stellar triplet, with a distant (projected separation $\sim 15,000$ AU) mid-K spectral type dwarf companion, CSPN(B), based on its having the same parallax and proper motion as NGC 6720’s CSPN, CSPN(A) (Gonzalez-Santamaria et al. 2021), and another possible companion, CSPN(C), that is much closer, with a period of about 280 ± 70 yr, and thus at a separation of 50 ± 15 AU, inferred from the presence of low-contrast, regularly spaced concentric arc-like features seen in the F770W, F100W and F1130W images of the nebula. The Wesson et al. (2024) study is the first publication of several studies of this object using data from JWST program GO-01558 that include this paper, and two studies of key diagnostic regions of the nebula, one focussing on the PAH emission (Clark et al. 2024, submitted), and another on the rich H_2 emission-line spectrum (van Hoof et al. in preparation).**

The paper is organised as follows. In § 2 we describe the imaging observations of the CS of NGC 6720, in § 2.1 we describe the construction of the full SED of the CS from UV-to-infrared wavelengths as well as the characterization of the extended mid-IR emission, in § 3 we derive the properties of the CSPN from fitting the UV to near-IR SED, in § 4 we model the dust emission, in § 5 we discuss the optical photometric variability of the CS, in § 6 we discuss the implications of our results for the origin and formation of the NGC 6720 CS disk, including the possible presence and role of unseen bound companions, and in § 7 we summarize the main conclusions of our study.

2. THE CENTRAL STAR OF NGC 6720 AND ITS NEAR ENVIRONMENT

The extended morphology of the nebula from 2 to $21 \mu\text{m}$ shows that the CS is located within a roughly circular region of radius about $25''$ that is of relatively low-surface brightness in the NIRCAM images, as well as the MIRI images in most of the filters (F560W, F770W, F1130W, F1280W, F1500W, and F2100W) (Fig. 1, see also Figs. 1, 4 & 5 of Wesson et al. 2024). The exceptions are the F1000W, F1800W, and F2550W filters, in which the central region is

¹ the first being the dusty disk around the CSPN of the Southern Ring, NGC 3132 (Sahai et al. 2023)

93 almost filled, and almost as bright (F1800W) or brighter than the main ring (F1000W, F2550W), except for a roughly
 94 linear structure that is relatively “dark” and lies approximately along the major axis of the nebula (**Fig. 1**). The
 95 F1000W filter includes strong gas emission lines of [SIV] and [ArIII] in its bandpass; the F1800W includes a strong
 96 contribution from [SIII]. The F2550W filter includes the strong [O IV] line. The CS (**Fig. 2**) is located within the linear
 97 structure, and is generally well-isolated from surrounding nebulosity in filters with central wavelengths shortwards and
 98 including $7.7\ \mu\text{m}$, but lies on the edge of bright nebular² emission in the images at longer wavelengths. No localised
 99 emission on the CSPN can be seen in filters with central wavelengths longwards of $12.8\ \mu\text{m}$.

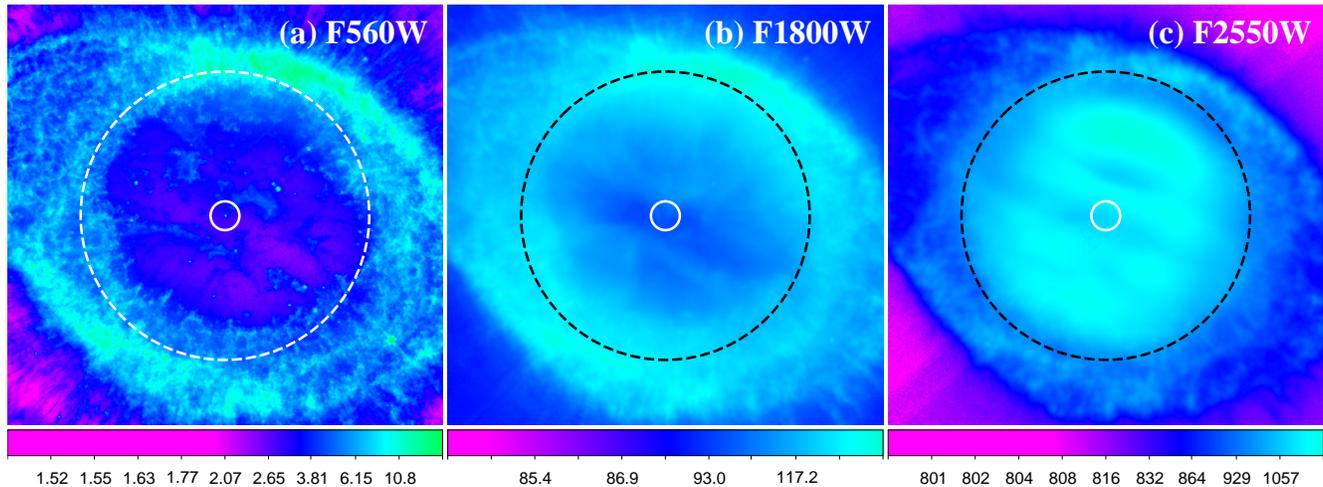


Figure 1. JWST/MIRI images showing the extended nebular emission around NGC 6720’s CS in 3 filters: (a) F560W, (b) F1800W, and (c) F2550W. Large dashed circles (of radius $25''$) in each panel show an extended nebular region around the CS (located at center of small circle, or radius $2.5''$). Intensity units (MJy/sr) are shown in the scale bars at the bottom of each image.

2.1. Spectral Energy Distribution & Radial Intensities

100 We have constructed the spectral energy distribution (SED) of the CS over the UV to mid-IR ($\sim 0.09 - 21\ \mu\text{m}$)
 101 range as follows. The SED in the optical–UV–near-infrared range was determined using archival UV spectra from IUE
 102 ³ and published optical–near-IR photometry (Table 1). For the near- to mid-IR region, we used the JWST imaging
 103 data from NIRCAM and MIRI. We extracted photometry of the CS from the NIRCAM images obtained with filters
 104 F162M, F212N, F300M and F335M, using relatively small circular apertures for the CS and annular apertures for the
 105 sky background (Table 1), with aperture corrections determined using field stars (Table 2), as described by Sahai et
 106 al. (2023) for the CS of the PN NGC 3132.

107 A different strategy was adopted for the MIRI images, which show the presence of underlying, and/or nebular
 108 structures in the near- vicinity of the CS. **Images with filters F560W, F770W, F1000W and F1130W show a**
 109 **clear local brightness peak centered on the CS.** For these, we (i) subsampled each image by a factor of 3, (ii)
 110 extracted a radial intensity distribution, $I(r)$, for each filter by averaging the intensity over an angular wedge with its
 111 vertex centered on the CS and a specific angular range chosen to avoid the nebular contamination in the vicinity.
 112

113 In all filters shortwards of, and including F560W, the CS appears to be point-like (Figs. 2, 3). The radial intensity
 114 cuts for the F770W, F1000W and F1130W images show a central source with a FWHM comparable to (or slightly larger
 115 than) that of the corresponding PSF, together with a weaker “skirt” of emission at larger radii (Fig. 3). **These cuts**
 116 **show that** the F770W image has the weakest and least extended nebular emission near the CS, whereas the F1000W
 117 image has the strongest and most extended nebular emission near the CS. The PSF for each filter was determined
 118 from the corresponding field stars used for the aperture correction for that filter (Table 2). The F1000W image has a
 119 faint nebular structure that cuts across the selected angular wedge at a radial offset of about $1.25''$, resulting in a broad

² we use the term “nebular” here and elsewhere to mean “belonging to larger structures that are part of the large planetary nebula, and not localised around the CSPN”

³ <https://archive.stsci.edu/missions/iue>

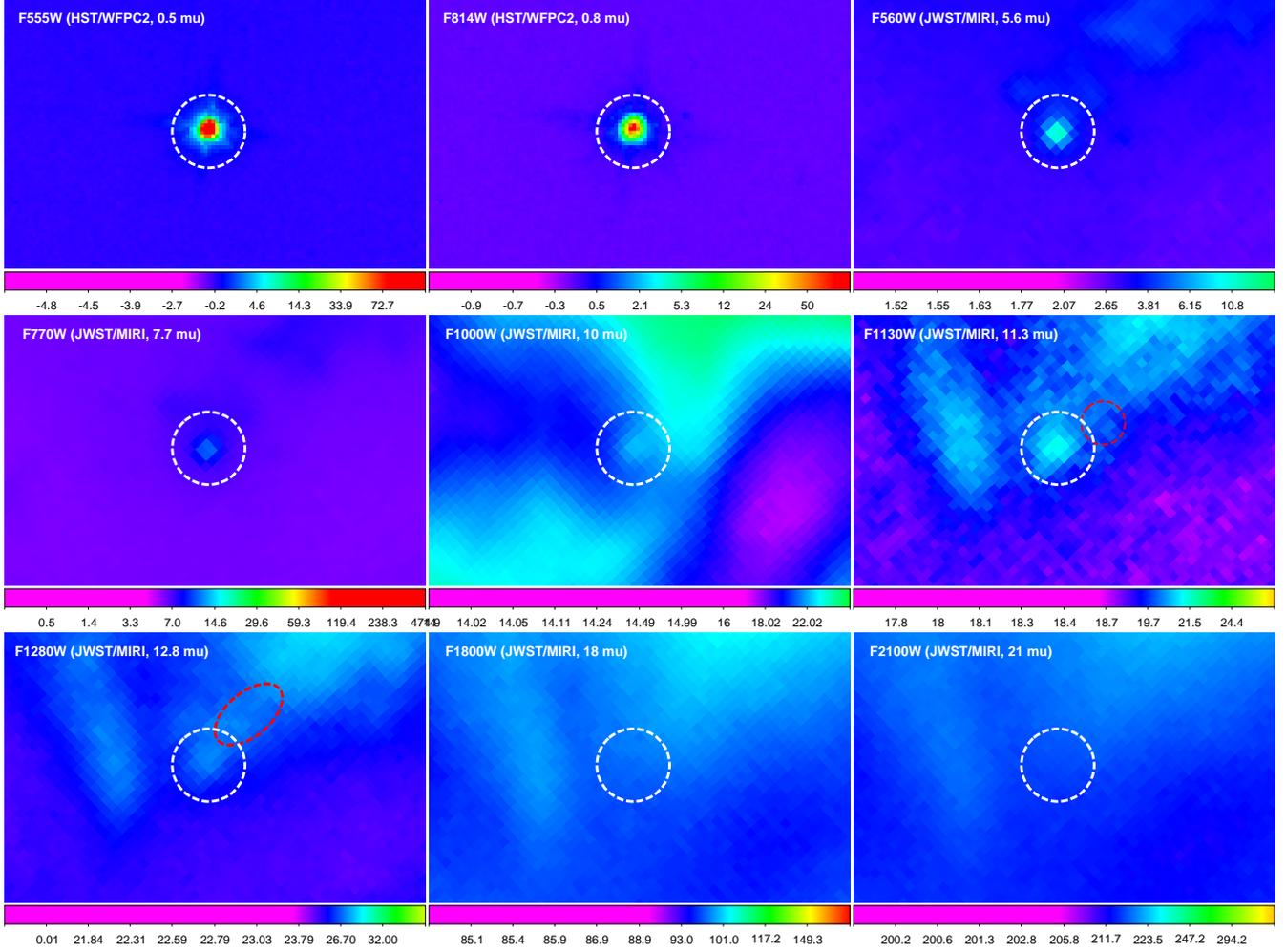


Figure 2. Comparison of JWST/MIRI images of the central region of NGC 6720, taken in 7 filters covering the 5.6 – 21 μm wavelength range (F560W, F770W, F1000W, F1130W, F1280W, F1800W, and F2100W), with HST/WFPC2 images at optical wavelengths (0.55 μm : F555W and 0.81 μm : F814W). White dashed circles (of diameter 1'') locate the central WD star in the images. Intensity units are shown in the scale bars at the bottom of each image: counts/s (cps) per pixel for the HST images (1 cps per pixel is 8.32 MJy/sr and 12.9 MJy/sr, respectively, in the F555W and F814W images) and MJy/sr for the JWST images. Red ellipse in the F1280W image shows the location of an elongated nebular feature, spur(nw), that lies close to and/or overlaps the CS. Red circle in the F1130W image shows a region of nebular emission in the near-vicinity of the CS used for comparing the mid-IR colors of nebular emission with that of the CS.

120 bump in the radial intensity. Hence, for this filter we made a linear interpolation of the intensity across the edges of
 121 this bump (dashed line in Fig. 3c). For each of the filters F560W, F770W, F1000W and F1130W, we measure a (i)
 122 core flux, F_{core} (F_{tot}), by integrating the radial intensity curve to a radius equal to $0.5 \times \text{FWHM}$ of the image PSF in
 123 that filter, and (ii) a total flux, by integrating the radial intensity curve to a radius of $1''.8$, where the radial intensity
 124 is zero. The total flux is significantly lower than the total flux in all filters except F560W, showing that the bulk of
 125 the emission at wavelengths $\sim 7.7 \mu\text{m}$ and longer comes from the extended component in the CS.

126 For each filter, in order to assess systematic uncertainties in the radial intensity (the ‘‘full-wedge’’ intensity), we also
 127 extracted two ‘‘half-wedge’’ intensities, which are the average intensities averaged over two equal contiguous halves that
 128 together span the full angular range for that filter. The differences between the full-wedge and half-wedge intensities
 129 (red and green curves in Fig. 3) show that these arise at relatively large radial offsets where the emission is relatively
 130 low, and therefore much more affected by uncertainties in the sky background level. The exception to this is the
 131 F1130W filter, which also show a local bump centred at $0''.37$ in the difference images, with a peak that is $\sim 20\%$ of
 132 the full-wedge intensity at that radius.

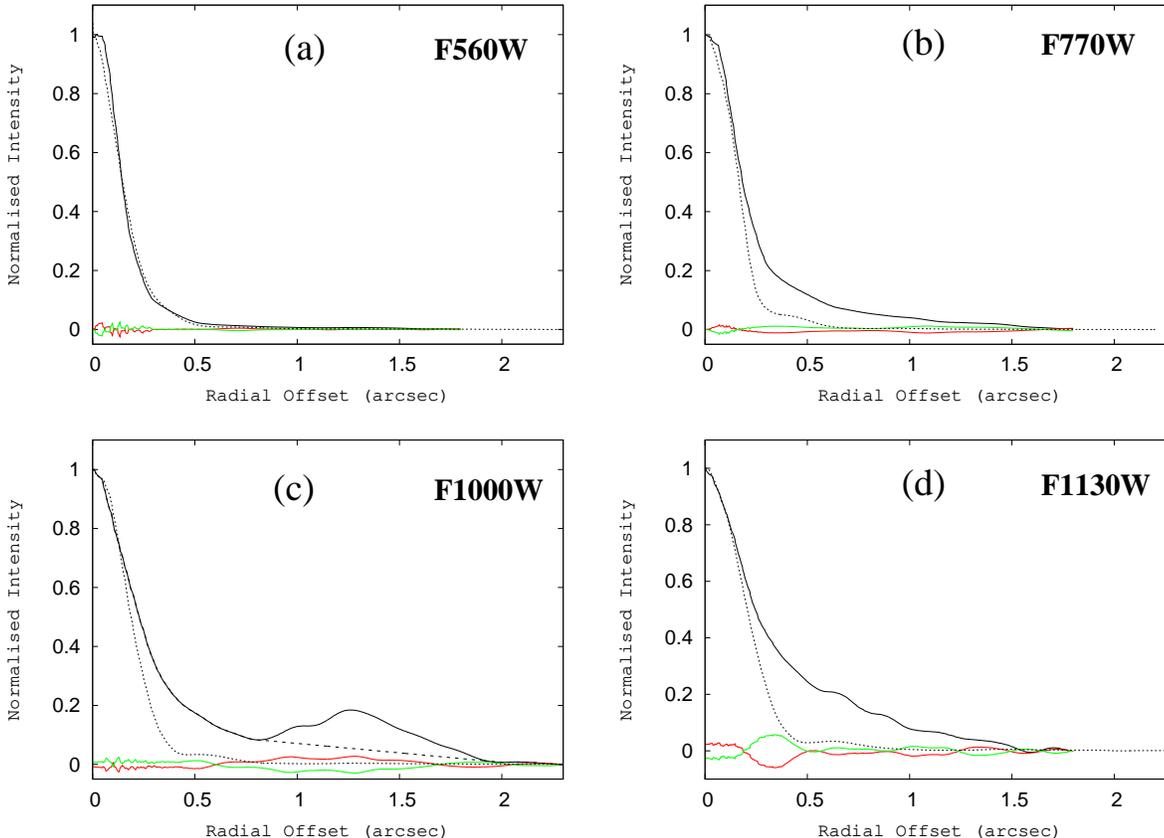


Figure 3. Radial intensity distributions extracted from MIRI images in 4 different filters (solid black curves), by averaging the intensity over an angular wedge (full-wedge intensity) with its vertex centered on the CS, with the specific angular range chosen to avoid the nebular contamination in the vicinity in each image. Each intensity distribution has been normalised by the corresponding peak intensity, which is 7.44, 4.15, 3.06, and 1.8 MJy/sr respectively, for the F560W, F770W, F1000W, and F1130W filters. For each filter, the dotted curves show the PSF extracted from a field star within the field-of-view, and the red and green curves show the differences between the full-wedge intensity and two half-wedge intensities (see text for definition of half-wedge intensity). The broad bump in the F1000W radial intensity at a radial offset of about $1''.25$ is due to a faint nebular structure in the F1000W image that cuts across the angular wedge used for extracting the radial intensity; dashed line shows a linear interpolation of the intensity across the edges of this bump.

For the F1280W image, although there is a bright region at the location of the CS, it has roughly the same intensity as, and thus cannot be distinguished from, the nebular spur “spur(nw)” (marked by a magenta ellipse in F1280W image in Fig. 2). For F1500W, F1800W, and F2550W images, no compact source can be seen at the location of the CS. For these filters (i.e., F1280W–F2550W), we determined upper limits to the fluxes as follows: (i) for each image, we estimated the 1σ noise in a circular aperture centered at the location of the CS, with diameter equal to the FWHM of the PSF in each filter (as determined from field stars), (ii) assuming that a detectable CS source would have a Gaussian shape with the PSF FWHM and a half-power intensity of 3σ in order to be detectable, we computed the flux of this source, and set it to the upper limit on F_{core} . The errors in the fluxes are conservative and mostly arise from uncertainties in the sky background. We also extracted photometry in the images for filters F560W–F1280W from a circular patch in the near-vicinity of the CS (Table 3). The colors of this patch are very different from those of the CS.

3. STELLAR EFFECTIVE TEMPERATURE AND LUMINOSITY

Published values for the effective temperature of the CSPN vary over the range $T_{eff} \sim (101 - 162)$ kK (e.g., Guerrero & De Marco 2013; Kaler & Jacoby 1989) – the exact value adopted affects the estimated bolometric flux, and thus the luminosity of the central star. We have adopted an average value of 135 kK for the WD’s effective temperature, T_{eff} in order to fit a model WD spectrum to the SED of the CS in the UV-optical wavelength range (Fig. 4) as follows.

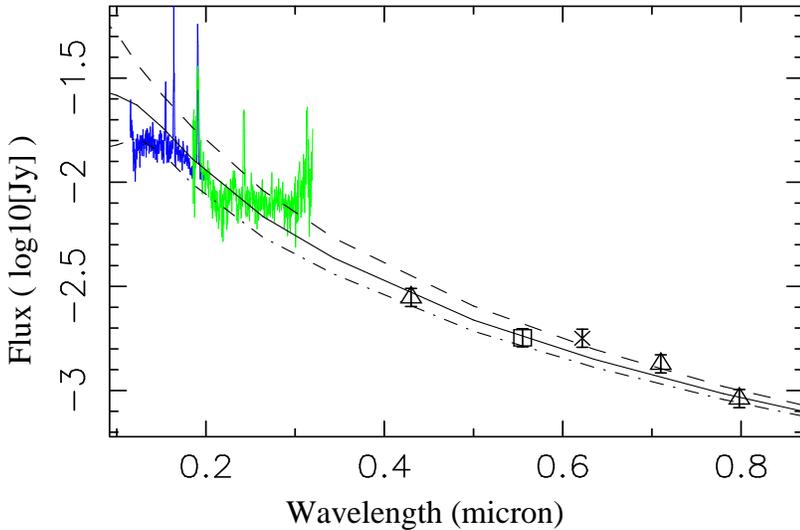


Figure 4. Observed UV spectra and optical photometry (black symbols) of the CS of NGC 6720, together with model SEDs. The model SEDs are that of a white dwarf with $T_{eff} = 135,000$ K, $\log g (\text{cm s}^{-2}) = 8$, and luminosity, $L = 310 L_{\odot}$, with three different values of the foreground extinction: $A_V = 0.15^{\text{mag}}$ (solid curve), $A_V = 0.0$ (dashed), $A_V = 0.27^{\text{mag}}$ (dash-dotted). The UV spectra are taken from the IUE MAST archive (data id: SWP 07230, blue curve, and LWR 06238, green curve). Error bars on the observed photometry are conservative estimates.

149 We computed the stellar spectrum using the Tübingen NLTE Model Atmosphere Package (TMAP) (Rauch & Deetjen
 150 2003; Werner et al. 2003, 2012) for $T_{eff} = 135,000$ K using solar abundances and $\log g (\text{cm s}^{-2}) = 8$. We note that (i)
 151 an H-only WD model produces a poorer fit for the fluxes at 3 and $3.35 \mu\text{m}$, with the model values being significantly
 152 higher than the observed fluxes, and (ii) within the wavelength range over which data are available, the WD models
 153 are not sensitive to the exact $\log g$ value. The interstellar extinction towards NGC 6720 has been estimated to be
 154 $A_V = 0.27^{\text{mag}}$, based on the value of $c(H\beta) = 0.13 \pm 0.04$ by O’Dell et al. (2009). However, with $A_V = 0.27^{\text{mag}}$, the
 155 model SED that fits the observed optical photometry, is significantly below the observed IUE spectrum in the UV
 156 region (Fig. 4). We find that $A_V = 0.15^{\text{mag}}$ produces a much better fit (Fig. 4) to the FUV – we have adopted this
 157 value, the resulting bolometric flux, $F_{bol} = 1.6 \times 10^{-8} \text{ erg cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ and the luminosity, $L = 310 L_{\odot}$, for a distance
 158 $D=790$ pc based on its trigonometric parallax⁴. We find that the observed SED shows an increasing excess over the
 159 observed flux at wavelengths greater than $\sim 5 \mu\text{m}$. The most likely explanation for this excess is that it arises from
 160 the presence of warm/hot dust around the CSPN.

161 4. RADIATIVE TRANSFER MODELLING OF SED AND EXTENDED EMISSION OF THE CS

162 We have used the DUSTY and CLOUDY radiative transfer codes (Ivezić et al. 2012; Ferland et al. 2017) to model
 163 the SED, as well as the radial intensity distributions at $5.6, 7.7, 10$ and $11.3 \mu\text{m}$, of the CS. We need both these
 164 codes because (as we show below) we need both thermally and stochastically-heated (i.e., PAHs) dust grains, but
 165 the DUSTY code can only model emission from dust grains in thermal equilibrium; the CLOUDY code is needed for
 166 modeling the emission from stochastically-heated dust grains. Although it is likely that the dust cloud is disk-like,
 167 since we have no direct information about its morphology, we have chosen to use 1D modeling. This does not affect
 168 our results because (as we show below) the optical depth of this cloud is $\ll 1$, even at relatively short wavelengths.
 169 Even if the dust cloud had a disk configuration, the radial optical depth near and in the equatorial plane would remain
 170 well below unity. Although in principle one should use band-averaged model flux densities for comparison with the
 171 observed photometry, we find that the former are not significantly different from the monochromatic flux densities in
 172 wavelength regions where the model spectrum shows a monotonic smooth variation, i.e., for $\lambda \lesssim 4 \mu\text{m}$. However the
 173 model spectra (discussed below) do show strong, non-monotonic variations in the wavelength regions covered by the

⁴ from Gaia DR3 (Gaia Collaboration 2022), see Wesson et al. (2024)

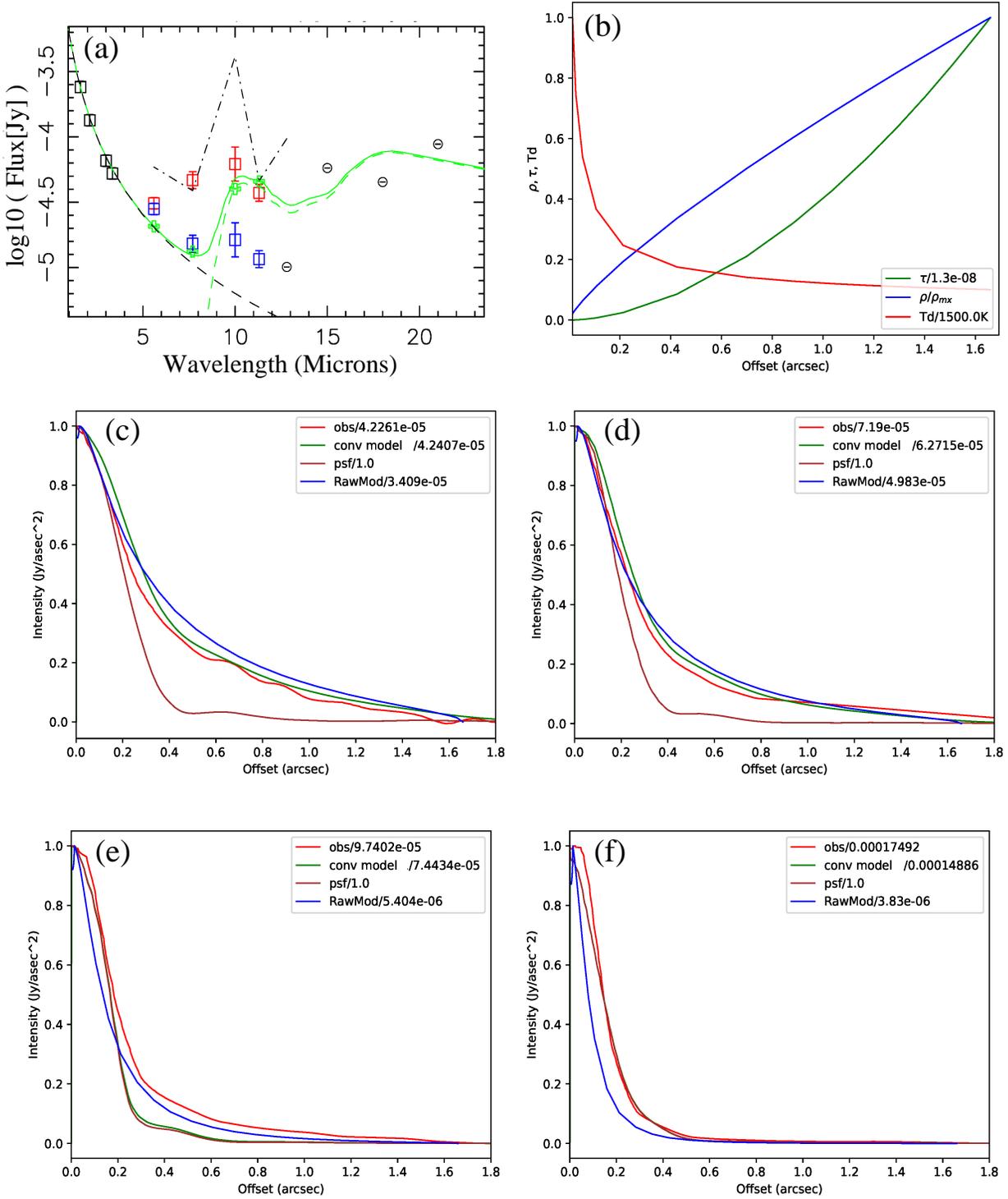


Figure 5. (a) Observed mid-IR photometry (black symbols) and model SED (smooth green curve) for the CS of NGC 6720 and a circumstellar dust shell with silicate grains, with dust temperature at inner radius of shell $T_d = 1500$ K, density power-law $\rho(r) \propto r^{0.8}$, outer-to-inner radius ratio $Y = 125$ and dust grain-radius $0.01 \mu\text{m}$. For $\lambda < 5 \mu\text{m}$, black boxes show the total flux. For $\lambda > 5 \mu\text{m}$, red (blue) boxes show the total (core) flux. Circles show upper limits for the core flux. Error bars on the observed photometry are conservative estimates. The dashed green curve shows the thermal emission from dust, and the dashed black curve shows the attenuated starlight. Dash-dot curve shows the relative fluxes of a patch covering a region of nebular emission in the near- vicinity of the CS. Green square symbols show the band-averaged total model fluxes for specific filters. (b) Normalized density, tangential optical depth, and temperature of the dust. Remaining panels show the normalised observed and model (monochromatic, at the center wavelength of each filter) radial intensity distributions of the dust shell for the (c) F1130W, (d) F1000W, (e) F770W, and (f) F560W filters. The numerical division factors in the legends for panels b – f show the values used for normalization.

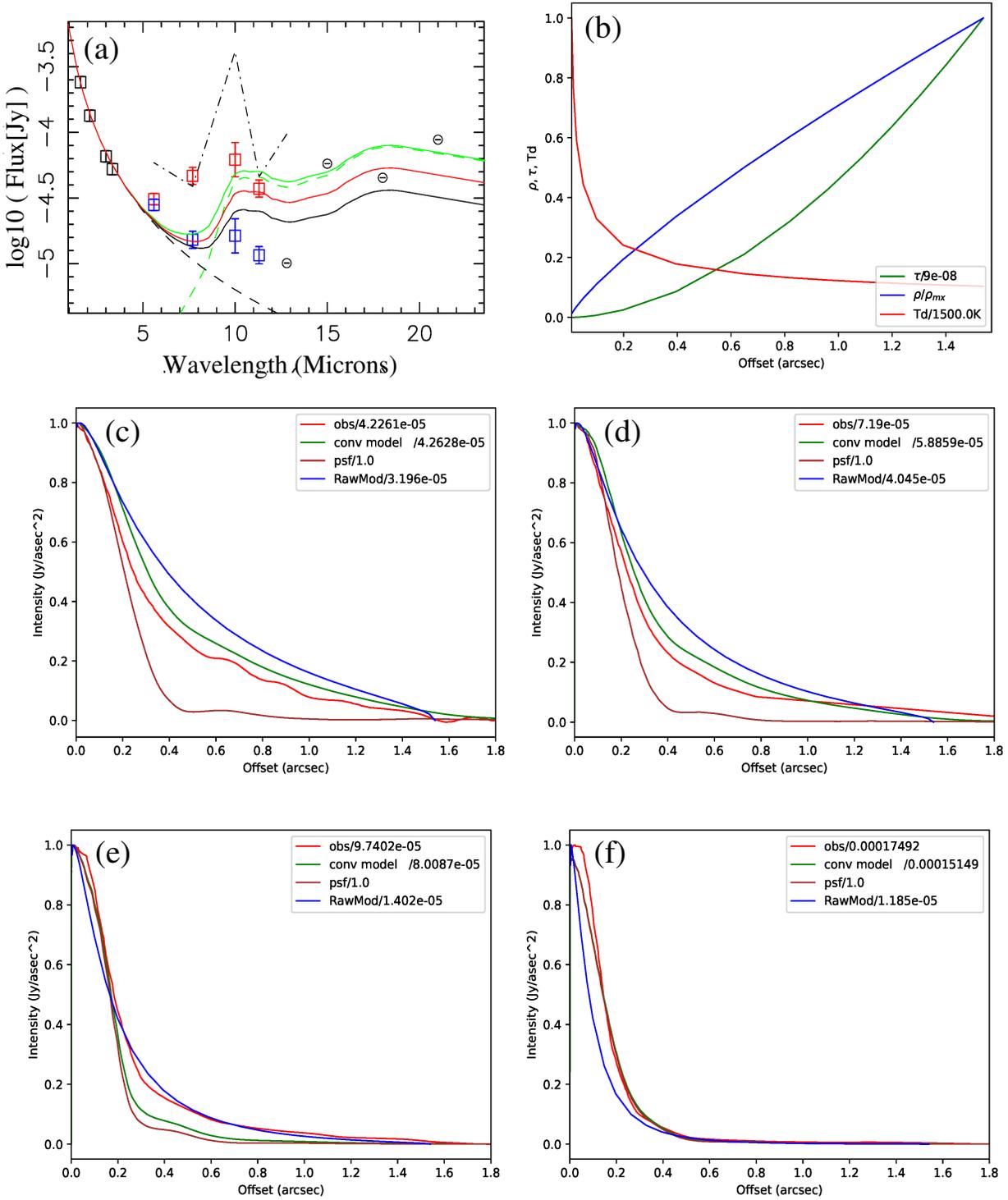


Figure 6. As in Fig. 5, but with a dust composition that is 50% silicate and 50% amorphous carbon.

174 bandpasses of the the four MIRI filters F560W, F700W, F1000W, and F1130W filters – hence for these we have used
 175 band-averaged model flux densities for comparison with the observations. The input parameters and output properties
 176 for our best-fit models are given in Table 4.

We first use DUSTY modeling in order to explore the relevant input parameter space because it provides both the SED as well as the radial intensity distributions directly as part of its output. The main input parameters of the DUSTY model are (i) the dust temperature at the inner shell radius (T_d), (ii) the total radial optical depth at $0.55\mu\text{m}$ (τ_V), (iii) the shell density distribution (iv) the grain-size distribution for a choice of grain composition, (v) the relative shell thickness ($Y = \text{ratio of the shell's outer radius, } R_{ou}, \text{ to its inner radius, } R_{in}$), (vi) the spectrum of the central star – for this, we use the stellar spectrum that was used to fit the UV-optical-NIR data as described in §3.

The shell density distribution was assumed to be a power-law, $\rho_d(r) \propto r^{-p}$. For the grain-sizes, we used grains with a fixed radius, a , because we found that we had to vary the grain radius in order to find the best-fit. Using, for example, a distribution function for grain radius, such as the Mathis, Rumpl, Nordsieck (MRN) one with $n(a) \propto a^{-q}$ for $a_{\min} \leq a \leq a_{\max}$ (Mathis et al. (1977)), would require adjusting the values of 3 different parameters, which would be significantly more poorly constrained, given our fairly limited observational constraints.

Our best-fitting model (Fig. 5) requires silicate grains in order to fit the shape of the SED in the $5 - 11.3\mu\text{m}$ region, specifically the local peak at $\sim 10\mu\text{m}$. Amorphous carbon grains produce a monotonically-varying, smooth shape that does not fit these data. The dust temperature at the inner shell radius needs to be relatively high, $T_d \gtrsim 1200\text{K}$, in order to produce a bright core with a width that does not exceed the observed one as seen in the radial intensity distributions; the corresponding value of the inner shell radius is 10.5au . The dust density power-law exponent, p , is constrained by the extended emission in the radial intensity distributions; we find that $p \sim -0.8$ (i.e., with density increasing outwards with radius) is needed to fit the extended emission seen in the radial intensity distributions for F1000W and F1130W. We also require the grains to be relatively small, with $a_{\max} \lesssim 0.01\mu\text{m}$, in order for these to be warm enough in the extended parts of the dust cloud to produce adequate emission there – using larger grains results in grain temperatures too low to produce the extended emission. The outer radius of the shell, corresponding to our best-fit model value of $Y = 125$, is $\sim 1300\text{au}$.

However, this model shows a significant lack of extended emission for F770W, and the total model flux at $7.7\mu\text{m}$ is much less than observed. The model also has inadequate emission to fit the F560W photometry well, although the discrepancy is much less than for F770W. We investigated models with mixtures of silicate and amorphous carbon grains, but the resulting best-fit model was worse than the silicate-only model – specifically, the model radial intensities in the F1130W and F1000W filters provide a significantly worse fit (Fig. 6), compared to the silicate-only model. We show in the next section (§4.2), a path forward to help resolve these discrepancies by adding very small grains that can be heated stochastically to much higher temperatures than possible for larger grains in thermal equilibrium.

There are additional small discrepancies between the observed and model fluxes at 10 and $11.3\mu\text{m}$ – the model flux at $10\mu\text{m}$ ($11.3\mu\text{m}$) is slightly below (above) the observed lower (upper) limits on the observed fluxes. A plausible explanation for these discrepancies is that the intrinsic shape of the $10\mu\text{m}$ emission feature in the CS is different from the assumed model one; this explanation is supported by the varied shapes of this feature as observed in the dust emission from a sample of WDs (Farihi et al. 2025). JWST/MIRI spectroscopy of the very central regions is needed in order to accurately characterize the shape of the SED and make further progress on understanding the dust cloud around the central star of NGC 6720.

We find the mass of the dust shell (since DUSTY does not provide a direct measure of the shell dust mass), using Eqn. 1 of Sahai et al. (2023), i.e.,

$$M_d = 4\pi [(n-1)/(3-n)] y(Y) R_{in}^2 (\tau_{10}/\kappa_{10}) \quad (1)$$

where $y(Y) = (Y^{3-n} - 1)/(1 - Y^{1-n})$, and τ_{10} and κ_{10} are, respectively, the optical depth and the dust mass absorption coefficient at $10\mu\text{m}$. For our best-fit model, $\tau_V = 1.3 \times 10^{-8}$ and $\tau_{10} = 8.3 \times 10^{-9}$. We estimate κ_{10} using the dust properties for uncoagulated silicate dust as tabulated by Ossenkopf et al. (1992)⁵, which provide the values of $\kappa(\lambda)$ for a standard MRN distribution. Since the grains in our model have a radius $a = 0.01\mu\text{m}$, which is $\sim 20\%$ larger than the density-weighted grain radius for MRN ($a = 0.0083\mu\text{m}$), and $\kappa \propto a^{-1}$, our adopted value of $\kappa_{10} = 1.72 \times 10^3 \text{cm}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$, is obtained by scaling the tabulated value of $\kappa_{10} = 2.07 \times 10^3 \text{cm}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$ by $0.0083/0.01$. We derive a total mass of amorphous silicate dust of $1.86 \times 10^{-6} M_{\oplus}$.

4.2. Stochastic Emission: CLOUDY

⁵ <https://hera.ph1.uni-koeln.de/~ossk/Jena/tables/mrn0>

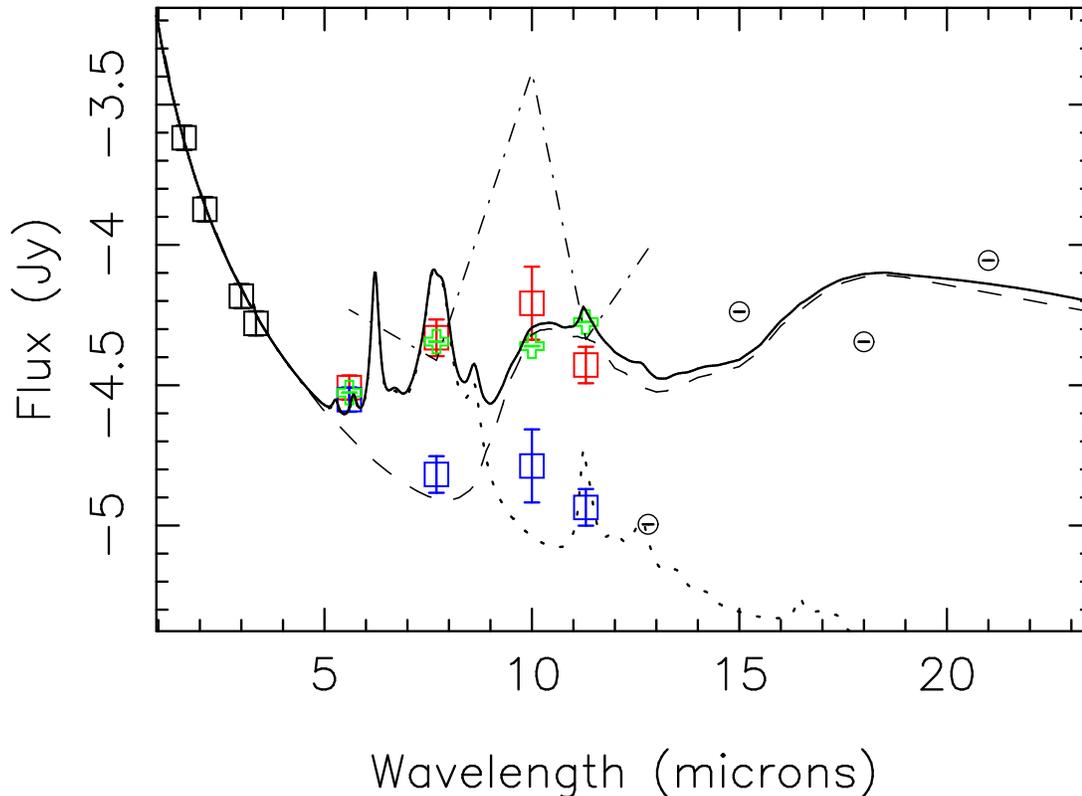


Figure 7. Observed mid-IR photometry (black symbols) and model SED (smooth curve) for the CSPN of NGC 6720 and a circumstellar dust shell with small silicate grains and PAHs. For $\lambda < 5\mu\text{m}$, black boxes show the total flux. For $\lambda > 5\mu\text{m}$, red (blue) boxes show the total (core) flux. Dotted curve shows the SED of the PAH emission, and the dashed curve shows the SED of the small silicate grains (+ the central star). Circles show upper limits for the core flux. Error bars on the observed photometry are conservative estimates. Dash-dot curve shows the relative fluxes of a patch covering a region of nebular emission in the near-vicinity of the CS. Green square symbols show the band-averaged model fluxes.

226 We have used version C23.01 of the CLOUDY code (Ferland et al. 2017) to investigate whether the presence of
 227 PAHs in the dust cloud can help resolve the discrepancy between the data and our models at $7.7\mu\text{m}$. Using a dust
 228 shell with the same inner and outer radii, and density law, as derived from the DUSTY model, but with a dust
 229 composition consisting of charged PAH clusters with 120 atoms⁶, we derive the SED of the emission from these grains
 230 (Fig. 7, dotted curve) and add it to the SED derived from the DUSTY model (Fig. 7, dashed curve). We find a very
 231 good fit to the observed $7.7\mu\text{m}$ flux (Fig. 7, solid curve). In addition, the relatively smaller discrepancy that we found
 232 between the observed and DUSTY model $5.6\mu\text{m}$ flux, is now significantly reduced. The CLOUDY model $7.7\mu\text{m}$ radial
 233 intensity is significantly higher than that in the DUSTY model at all radii, as expected, due to the contribution of the
 234 non-stochastic PAH emission (Fig. 8). We do not attempt to further fine-tune the PAH model because a very large
 235 variety of PAH particles (e.g., with different numbers of C atoms) are likely to be present. We discuss the origin of
 236 PAHs in §6 below. The total mass of PAH grains is $7.27 \times 10^{-7} M_{\oplus}$.

237 Inclusion of a small amount of gas, e.g., resulting from a tenuous hot stellar wind from the CSPN, with, for example,
 238 a density of (say) $\lesssim 0.05\text{cm}^{-3}$ at the inner radius of the dust shell (see below) produces negligible gaseous line emission,
 239 with no significant effect on the model photometry in the broad-band filters. The only gaseous line visible is that
 240 due to [Ne VI] $7.65\mu\text{m}$; its integrated flux is very small compared to that of the much broader $7.7\mu\text{m}$ PAH feature.
 241 The model $3.3\mu\text{m}$ PAH feature is very weak and contributes negligibly to the flux in the F335M filter. We note that
 242 Wesson et al. (2024) find evidence for possible weak PAH emission in the F335M and F1000W filters in a narrow ring
 243 in the outer parts of the nebular shell, contributing $< 14\%$ and $< 7\%$ to the flux seen in these filters.

⁶ using opacity file ph3c_c120.opc in the CLOUDY C23.01 package

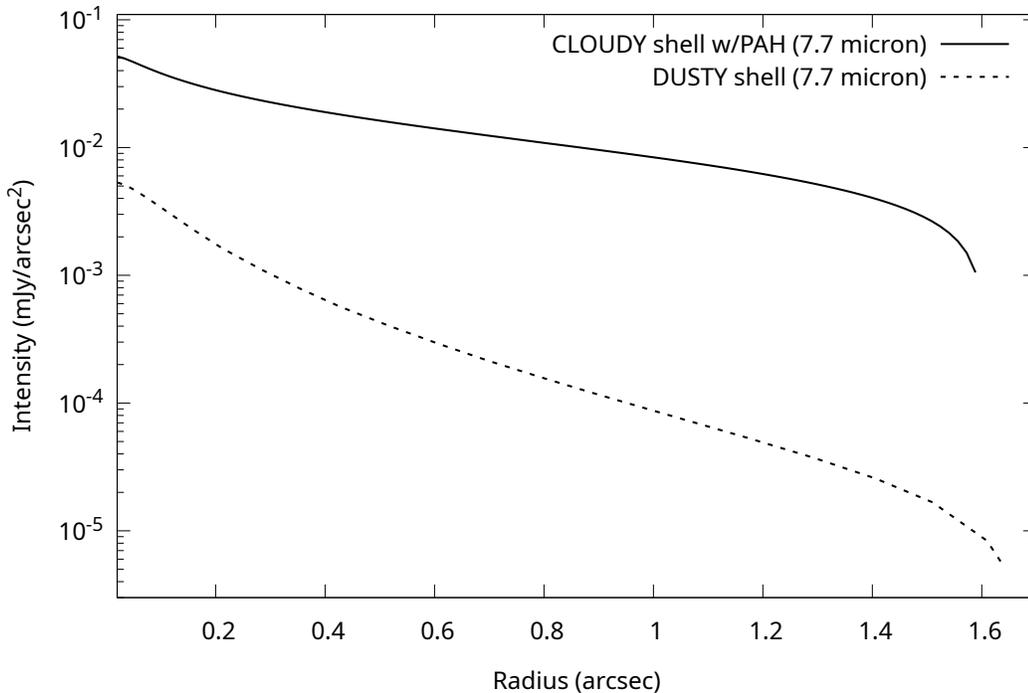


Figure 8. The $7.7\ \mu\text{m}$ radial intensity from the best-fit CLOUDY model (small silicate grains and PAHs) compared to that from the best-fit DUSTY model (small silicate grains only).

4.3. Gas Emission: CLOUDY

The WD central stars of PNe are known to produce hot, line-driven winds that appear very early after the star leaves the AGB (e.g., for $T_{eff} \lesssim 10\ \text{kK}$) and fade away on the WD cooling track (i.e., for $T_{eff} \gtrsim 105\ \text{kK}$) (see Fig. 1 of Krtićka et al. (2020)). The wind mass-loss rate depends mostly on the stellar luminosity (e.g., Castor et al. 1975; Sander et al. 2017). Models of such winds by Krtićka et al. (2020) for a CSPN of mass $0.569\ M_{\odot}$ produce a “knee” in the cooling curve at $T_{eff} \sim 117.8\ \text{kK}$, where the mass-loss rate has dropped to $2.6 \times 10^{-11}\ M_{\odot}\ \text{yr}^{-1}$, the wind speed is $1830\ \text{km}\ \text{s}^{-1}$, and $L_* = 10^3\ L_{\odot}$. Subsequently, the WD enters a rapidly cooling phase, and the mass-loss rates drop very rapidly. For example, the CSPN mass-loss rate is $5.1 \times 10^{-13}\ M_{\odot}\ \text{yr}^{-1}$ for $T_{eff} \sim 105.7\ \text{kK}$, and there is no wind as the WD cools further. In the case of NGC 6720, the current (progenitor) mass is inferred to be $0.58\ (1.5 - 2)\ M_{\odot}$. The CSPN is believed to have reached a peak temperature (i.e., at the knee of the cooling curve) at $L_* = 3 \times 10^3\ L_{\odot}$ (Wesson et al. (2024)) – thus, given its current luminosity, it is now in the rapidly cooling phase (Wesson et al. (2024)). Hence, it appears likely then that the wind mass-loss rate for NGC 6720’s CSPN is $\lesssim 10^{-13}\ M_{\odot}\ \text{yr}^{-1}$. The gas density due to such a wind (assuming a typical expansion velocity of $2000\ \text{km}\ \text{s}^{-1}$) at the inner radius of the dust shell, $11.7\ \text{au}$, is $\lesssim 0.05\ \text{cm}^{-3}$; the resulting line emission is insignificant compared to the dust emission.

4.4. Possible Unresolved Companion

We can constrain the mass of any unseen (unresolved) stellar companion, e.g., such as CSPN(C), from the SED of the CS over the wavelength range where dust emission does not contribute significantly (i.e., $< 5\ \mu\text{m}$). We have investigated the effect of including the theoretical spectrum of such a companion with a range of spectral types M7.5V or later, since for an M7.5V companion, the resulting flux at $3.35\ \mu\text{m}$ is 20% more than observed, well above the observed upper limit. The values of luminosity and effective temperature for late-type MS dwarfs have been taken from Cifuentes et al. (2020). The model spectra have been extracted from the BT-NextGen (AGSS2009) dataset (Allard et al. 2011) archived at <http://svo2.cab.inta-csic.es/theory/newov2/index.php>. The results of this modelling (Table 7) show that the highest-mass unresolved MS companion that can be present and remain undetected is less massive than a M-dwarf with spectral type M9.5V, with $L \sim 2.35 \times 10^{-4}\ L_{\odot}$ and $T_{eff} \sim 2300\ \text{K}$. An M9.5V companion increases the model SED flux in the F356M filter by 13%, above the upper limit on the observed F356M flux. Noting that the model luminosities are also uncertain, we find that if we peg the M7.5V and M8.0V models at their lower-limit luminosities,

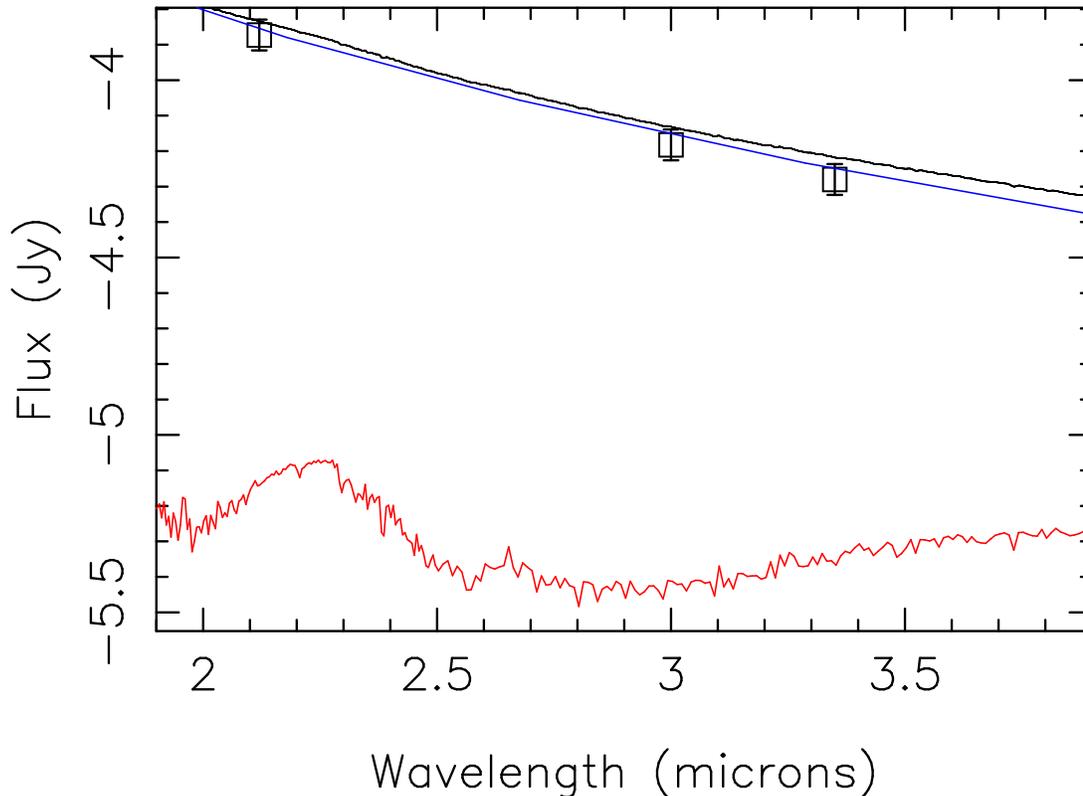


Figure 9. Model SED of the CSPN (blue curve), an M8 MS companion (red curve), and the total SED (CSPN + M8) (black curve), together with the observed photometry (black rectangles).

270 the resulting F356M model flux values are still 18% and 15% above the observed values. We conservatively conclude
 271 that a companion, if present, is of spectral type M8.0 or later, implying a mass $\leq 0.1 M_{\odot}$. Fig. 9 shows model SEDs
 272 of an M8 MS companion and the total SED (CSPN + M8), together with the observed photometry in the wavelength
 273 range that is most sensitive to low-mass companions.

274 5. CENTRAL STAR PHOTOMETRIC VARIABILITY

275 For the CS of NGC 6720, the value of the Gaia variability flag, “phot_variable_flag”, is VARIABLE. Light curves
 276 for it are available in the Gaia photometric bands G, Bp and Rp⁷. We have downloaded and analyzed these light
 277 curves, which cover a period of ~ 950 d. We first examined the G-band data, as these have the highest S/N. The
 278 cadence is such that there are multiple pairs of successive datapoints that are very close in time (< 0.2 d) (“close-
 279 time-clustered” datapoints), compared to the median time interval ($\gtrsim 30$ d). In addition there was one point for the
 280 which the fractional flux error was much larger than the median fractional flux error, i.e., by $6.5\sigma_{err}$, where σ_{err} is the
 281 standard deviation of the fractional flux errors. We rejected this point, reducing σ_{err} by a factor 2.6 in the resulting
 282 dataset (with 49 datapoints in total). We then removed two outliers with flux values outside $\pm 3\sigma$ of the error-weighted
 283 mean flux, $F(G)_{ave} = 10397 e^{-}/s$, further reducing the error-weighted standard deviation in the flux, $\sigma_{F(G)}$ from 108
 284 to 85 (Fig. 10, top, cyan symbols). The fluxes of the close-time-clustered datapoints (Fig. 10, bottom)
 285 were averaged to produce a final dataset of 28 datapoints (with $\sigma_{F(G)} = 82$) (Fig. 10, top, red symbols). The statistics of the various
 286 datasets are summarised in Table 5 – the value of $F(G)_{ave}$ does not change significantly across these datasets.

287 The flux variations of the CS are relatively small – for the outliers-removed dataset, we find $\sigma_{F(G)}/F(G)_{ave} =$
 288 0.0082. We therefore first consider whether scan-angle-dependency of Gaia epoch photometry (Holl et al.
 289 2023a) could be responsible for producing spurious variability in the G band. Holl et al. (2023a) provide
 290 two important parameters for assessing whether the G-band photometric variability resulting from scan-angle-
 291 dependency, labelled spearmanCorrIPDgFoV (also r_{ipd}) and spearmanCorrExfgFoV (also r_{exf}) in their variability

⁷ Gaia DR3 Part 1. Main source: I/355 – <https://cdsarc.cds.unistra.fr/viz-bin/cat/I/355> (Gaia Collaboration 2022)

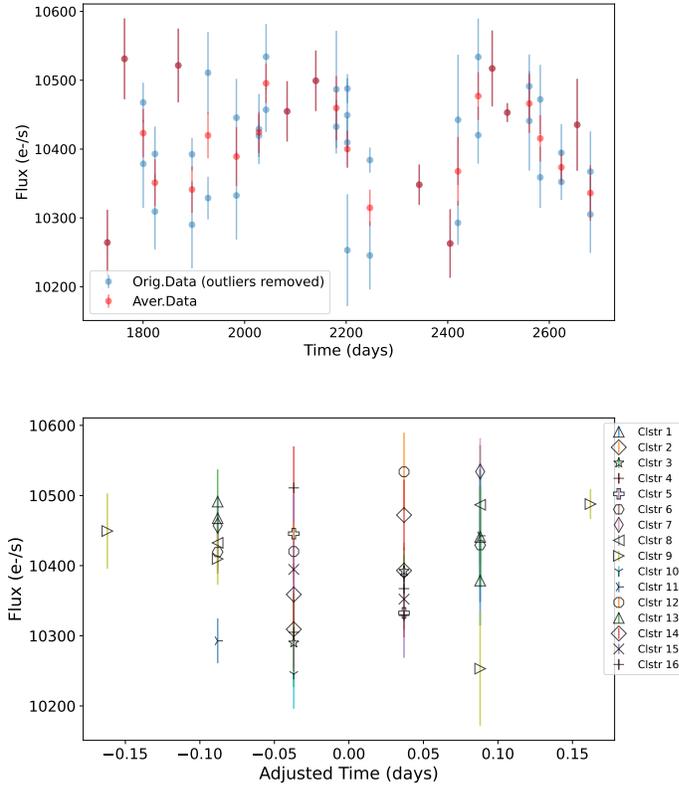


Figure 10. (top) Gaia DR3 G-band count rate as a function of time for the CS of NGC 6720: original data with one bad datapoint and two 3σ outliers removed (cyan symbols), and with close-time-clustered points averaged (red symbols); (bottom) the G-band count rates for the close-time-clustered data points, with the mean time for each cluster set to 0.

292 catalog (<https://doi.org/10.26093/cds/vizier.36740025>; [Holl et al. 2023b](#)). Relatively high absolute values
 293 of these parameters⁸, i.e., $|r_{ipd}|$ and $|r_{exf}|$ indicate that the variability is spurious, and several studies that have
 294 extracted astrophysically variable sources using the G-band photometry (e.g., [Lebzelter et al. 2023](#); [Mowlavi et al.](#)
 295 [2023](#); [Carnerero et al. 2023](#); [Distefano et al. 2023](#)) have rejected sources for which $|r_{ipd}| > 0.7$ and $|r_{exf}| > 0.7$. However,
 296 since the values of these parameters for the CS of NGC 6720 are very small ($r_{ipd} = 0.12$ and $r_{exf} = -0.16$), we conclude
 297 that its observed flux variability is real.

298 The final dataset was subjected to Lomb-Scargle periodogram analysis, revealing a strong peak corresponding to a
 299 period of $P = 383$ d, with an amplitude and phase of, respectively, $66.4 \text{ e}^-/\text{s}$ (0.64% of the median flux) and 0.20,
 300 and a false-alarm probability, $\text{FAP}=0.2^9$. We then made a sinusoidal fit of the model to the data, and then a few
 301 datapoints that were found to be offset by more than 3σ from the fitted curve (a total of 3), were removed from the
 302 data set, and a second Lomb-Scargle periodogram analysis was carried out. This resulted in a slightly stronger peak
 303 at $P = 371$ d (Fig. 11), with an amplitude and phase, respectively, of $59.7 \text{ e}^-/\text{s}$ (0.57% of the median flux) and the
 304 same FAP.

305 A FAP value < 0.05 is generally considered statistically significant, whereas a FAP value > 0.1 indicates a less
 306 significant peak, likely due to noise. The FAP value is calculated based on the assumption that the time series is
 307 noise-only; if there are other sources of variability in the data, the FAP may not be accurate.

308 The light curves in the Bp and Rp filters (Figs. 12) are of lower signal-to-noise than in the G-band filter, and do not
 309 show an obvious periodicity.

310 In order to investigate whether the possible periodicity that we observe in the G-band filter lightcurve is an
 311 instrumental artifact, we have inspected the light curves of 6 field stars within a 5 arcmin radius of the CS that
 312 have similar G-band magnitudes or are slightly brighter (Table 6). The field stars show similar or lower variability

⁸ the range is 0 – 1

⁹ the probability of observing the peak in a random, noise-only time series (i.e., a lower FAP value indicates that the peak is more significant)

313 amplitudes (Fig. 13); these flux variations are real because the values of r_{ipd} and r_{exf} for these sources are relatively
 314 small. We have carried out Lomb-Scargle periodogram analysis on these and we find that none of them show evidence
 315 for significant periodicity. We conclude that the G-band periodicity that we find for the CS of NGC 6720, if significant,
 316 is most likely of astrophysical origin, and not an artifact.

317 The very short-term time variations of the G-band flux, as shown by the scatter of the fluxes in close-time-clustered
 318 points, are comparable to the longer-term variations, suggesting that, either the CS (i) has only short-term variations,
 319 and the (low-significance) 383 d period is not real, or (ii) has both a short-term variation and a longer term variation
 320 that is periodic, resulting in a relatively high FAP for the latter in the Lomb-Scargle analysis.

321 The mass of any close companion that could be responsible for the variability must be $\leq 0.1 M_{\odot}$, based on our
 322 modeling of the SED (§ 4.4). Assuming that the 371 d periodicity is real and due to orbital motion of the companion,
 323 the latter would (on the average) be separated by 0.9 au from the CSPN.

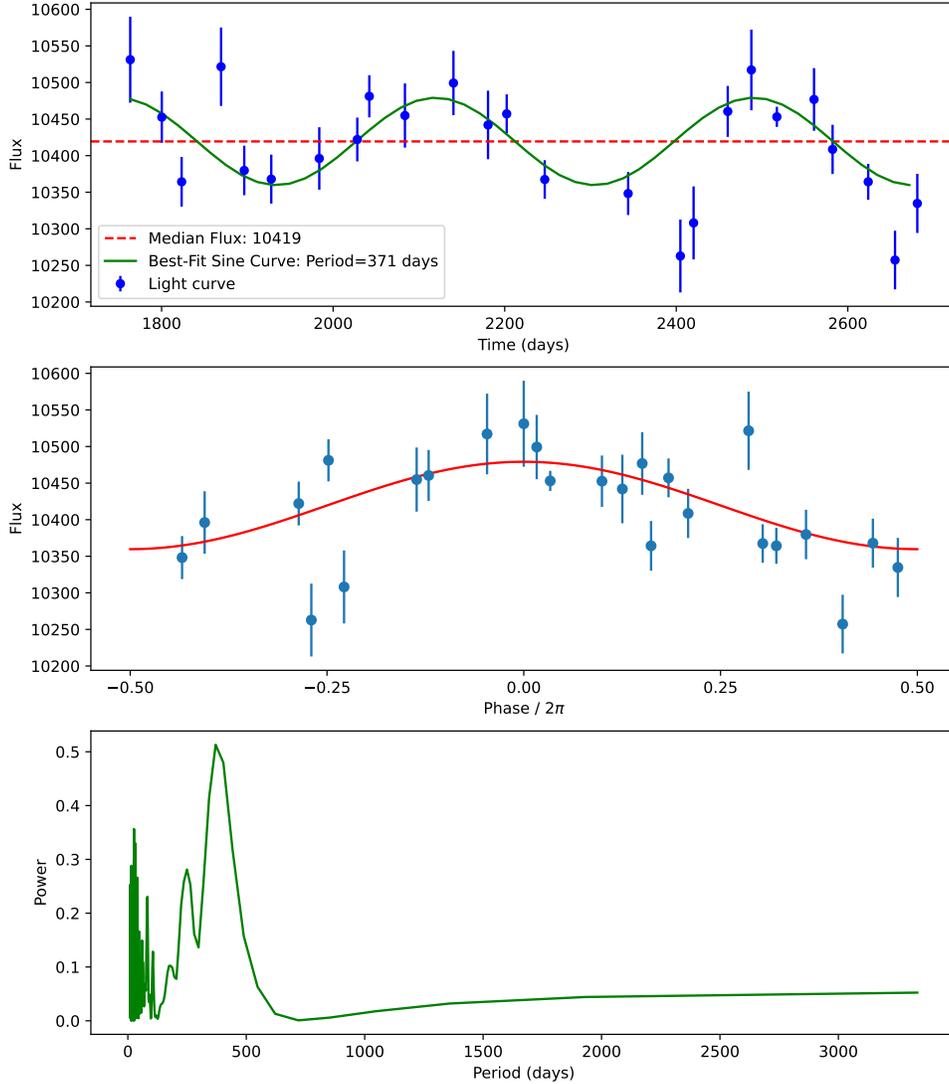


Figure 11. (top) Gaia DR3 G-band light curve of the CS of NGC 6720, overlaid with the best-fitting sinusoidal model, with period, $P=371$ d; (middle) Phase-folded Gaia DR3 G-band light curve of the CS of NGC 6720, overlaid with the best-fitting sinusoidal model; (bottom) Lomb-Scargle periodogram of the light curve in the top panel.

324

6. DISCUSSION

325 If the dust cloud around the CSPN includes the presence of PAHs, as we have proposed above, these will require
 326 continuous replenishment. This is because the strong UV radiation field of the CSPN is likely to photodissociate PAHs

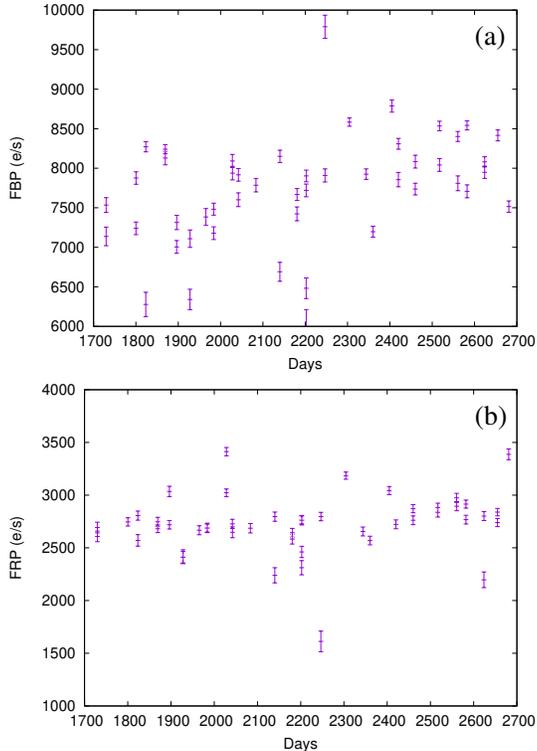


Figure 12. Light curves of the CS of NGC 6720 in the (a) Gaia DR3 BP-filter, (b) Gaia DR3 RP-filter.

327 (which are generally small, $\lesssim 5 - 10 \text{ \AA}$) very quickly. Given a typical dissociation energy of a bond within a PAH
 328 of $\sim 5 \text{ eV}$, and a photon rate of $\sim 2 \times 10^{46} \text{ phs}^{-1}$, a 50-carbon PAH, taking an FUV absorption cross section of
 329 $3.5 \times 10^{-16} \text{ cm}^2$ (Tielens 2008), will be fully destroyed in about 1.5 hr at a typical radius of 600 AU, in the extended
 330 part of the dust cloud around the CSPN.

331 The replenishment can occur via the outgassing of cometary bodies and/or the collisional grinding of planetesimals
 332 (Seok & Li 2015, 2017). In addition to outgassing, UV irradiation can generate dust particles that are larger than
 333 PAHs, but which can also emit the broad features generally labelled aromatic infrared bands (AIBs) (Kwok et al. 2001;
 334 Kwok 2022) – these include a very strong, broad feature at $\sim 8 \mu\text{m}$. Such dust grains consist of mixed aromatic/aliphatic
 335 organic nanoparticles (MAONs), a carbonaceous compound containing aromatic rings of different sizes and aliphatic
 336 chains of different lengths and orientations arranged in a 3-D amorphous structure. (Kwok et al. 2001) suggest that
 337 UV irradiation continuously transforms aliphatic to aromatic groups in MAONs.

338 Such outgassing and/or collisional grinding of planetesimals, left-over from the MS phase of the primary, has been
 339 proposed as one mechanism to explain the presence of the compact dust cloud around the CSPN of the PN NGC 3132,
 340 resulting from the dynamical evolution of a triple-star system (Sahai et al. 2023). As in the case of NGC 3132, it
 341 is possible that the three stars, CSPN(A), CSPN(B), and CSPN(C) formed a stable hierarchical triple system while
 342 all the stars were on the MS (with an inner binary and a more distant tertiary), but became dynamically active on
 343 much longer time-scales due to the “Eccentric Kozai-Lidov” (EKL) mechanism (Kozai 1962; Lidov 1962; Naoz 2016).
 344 It has been shown that the EKL mechanism can cause the inner binary to undergo large-amplitude eccentricity and
 345 inclination oscillations, driving it to have very small pericenter distances and even to merge (e.g., Prodan et al. 2015;
 346 Stephan et al. 2018), and the tertiary to move out to a large orbit or become unbound.

347 Alternatively, the dust cloud in the CS of NGC 6720 could result from a strong binary interaction, when the primary
 348 was an RGB or AGB star, leading to the formation of stable circumbinary disks of gas and dust in Keplerian rotation
 349 (e.g., Van Winckel 2018; Kluska et al. 2022) with total masses (gas + dust) in the range $few \times 10^{-3}$ to $10^{-2} M_{\odot}$ (e.g.,
 350 Gallardo Cava et al. 2021). In contrast, the total dust mass that we derive for NGC 6720’s CS is relatively low
 351 ($\sim 2.6 \times 10^{-6} M_{\oplus}$). It is much less than even the masses of the large asteroids in the Solar System, e.g., Ceres
 352 ($1.57 \times 10^{-4} M_{\oplus}$), Vesta ($4.34 \times 10^{-5} M_{\oplus}$) and Pallas ($4.34 \times 10^{-5} M_{\oplus}$), larger than those of small asteroids such as

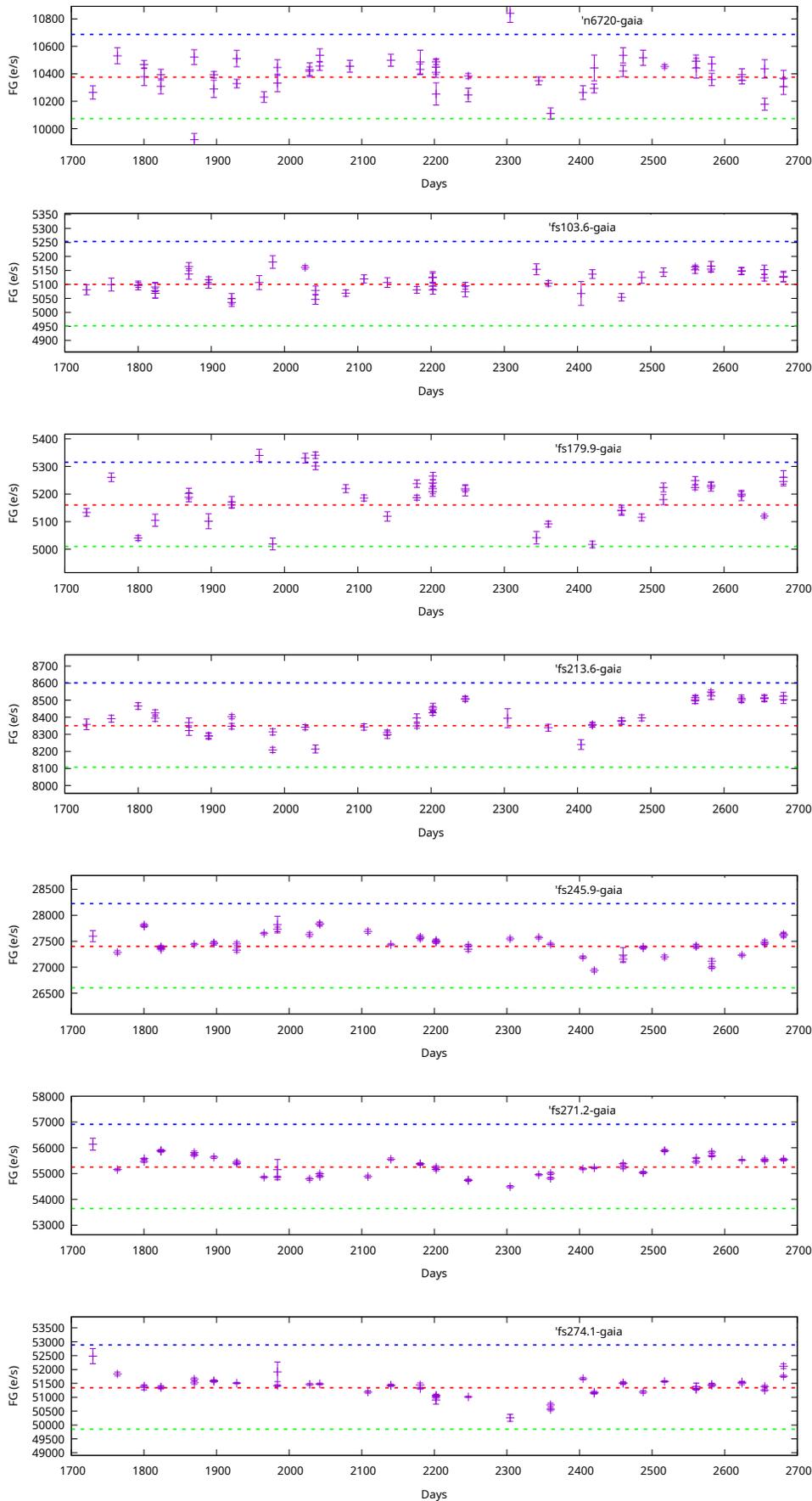


Figure 13. Gaia DR3 G-filter light curve of the CS of NGC 6720 compared with that of six field stars. In each panel, red dashed lines show the mean flux (e/s), whereas the blue (green) lines shows a flux value that is 3% more (less) than the mean.

Siwa ($2.5 \times 10^{-7} M_{\oplus}$), and much larger than carbonaceous asteroids such as Bennu ($1.31 \times 10^{-14} M_{\oplus}$). In summary, if the dust cloud in NGC 6720’s CS is indeed a remnant of the disk resulting from binary interaction during an earlier evolutionary phase of the CSPN, it is clear that such a disk has now been almost completely dissipated.

The presence of a very close companion to CSPN(A) is suggested by the significant photometric variability of the CS (irrespective of whether or not a periodic signal is present) (e.g., Gładkowski et al. 2024; Ali & Mindil 2023; Aller et al. 2020). Such “extrinsic” variability may arise due to the operation of different mechanisms such as irradiation of a cold MS companion by the hot CSPN, ellipsoidal variability, and eclipses. Assuming that the orbital plane of the companion is the same as the equatorial plane of NGC 6720, and the nebula is viewed nearly pole-on, eclipses of the CS by the companion are an unlikely explanation. This very close companion could either be CSPN(C), having moved inwards as a result of the EKL mechanism, or it could be a 3rd companion of CSPN(A). However, the photometric variability of the CS could also be intrinsic to the CSPN due to non-radial pulsations or spots on the surface of the WD. For example, a recent survey of Gaia DR3, TESS, and ZTF data reveal flux variations with periodicities from minutes to days (Steen et al. 2024) in a sample of 105 WDs that have been attributed to these phenomena.

7. CONCLUSIONS

We have used JWST imaging in the near- to mid-IR wavelength range to investigate the central star of the PN NGC 6720 and its close vicinity. Our main findings are as follows:

1. The central star is surrounded by a compact dust cloud – evidence for this cloud comes from excess emission seen in the SED at wavelengths $\gtrsim 5 \mu\text{m}$ as well as radially-extended emission in the 7.7, 10 and 11.3 μm images.
2. We have modelled the SED spanning the UV to mid-IR wavelength range using the DUSTY radiative transfer code. The UV to near-IR wavelength SED shows the presence of a CSPN of luminosity $310 L_{\odot}$, with a line-of-sight interstellar extinction of $A_V = 0.15^{\text{mag}}$, assuming a stellar effective temperature of 135 kK based on published studies. Our best-fit model provides a good fit to the radial intensity distributions of the CS at 10.3 and 11 μm , and shows that the dust cloud has a size of ~ 2600 au and consists of relatively small amorphous silicate dust grains (radius $\sim 0.01 \mu\text{m}$) with a total mass of $1.9 \times 10^{-6} M_{\oplus}$. However, this model shows a very significant lack of extended emission at 7.7 μm .
3. We find, using the CLOUDY radiative transfer code, that in order to fit the 7.7 μm emission, we require a smaller (but uncertain) mass, $7.3 \times 10^{-7} M_{\oplus}$, of (stochastically-heated) ionized PAHs, excited by the UV radiation from the CSPN. Since the same radiation also rapidly destroys PAH molecules, we speculate that these are likely being continuously replenished via the outgassing of cometary bodies and/or the collisional grinding of planetesimals.
4. We find significant photometric variability of the CS that could be due to the presence of a close MS dwarf companion of mass $\leq 0.1 M_{\odot}$.

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406
407 *Data Availability:* JWST raw and pipeline-calibrated data is available from MAST (program ID 1558,
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Table 1. Photometry of the CS of NGC 6720

Filter	Wavelength (μm)	Flux (mJy)	Error ^a (%)	Apert. ^b Rad.(")	Apert. ^c Corr.	Apert. ^d PA ($^\circ$)	Phot ^e Ref.
B	0.43	2.80	10	15.405 ^f (2)
V	0.555	1.79	10	15.769 ^f (2)
G-band	0.622	1.78	10	15.646 (4)
R	0.71	1.34	10	15.901 ^g (1)
I	0.798	0.92	10	16.602 ^g (1)
J	1.235	0.45	10	16.40 ^g (1)
F162M	1.62	0.241	10	0''.50	1.0	...	(5)
F212N	2.12	0.134	10	0''.30	0.94	...	(5)
F300M	3.0	0.066	10	0''.50	0.95	...	(5)
F335M	3.35	0.0525	10	0''.50	0.94	...	(5)
F560W	5.60	0.028 ^h	10	0''.14	0.31	203–323	(5)
F560W	5.60	0.031 ^j	10	1''.8	...	203–323	(5)
F770W	7.70	0.015 ^h	15	0''.18	0.50	178–268	(5)
F770W	7.70	0.047 ^j	15	1''.8	...	178–268	(5)
F1000W	10.0	0.016 ^h	30	0''.23	0.50	156–180	(5)
F1000W	10.0	0.058 ^j	30	1''.8	...	156–180	(5)
F1130W	10.0	0.012 ^h	30	0''.24	0.47	156–180	(5)
F1130W	10.0	0.037 ^j	30	1''.8	...	156–180	(5)
F1280W	11.3	<0.010 ^k	...	0''.23	(5)
F1500W	15.0	<0.058 ^k	...	0''.28	(5)
F1800W	18.0	<0.045 ^k	...	0''.34	(5)
F2100W	21.0	<0.088 ^k	...	0''.39	(5)

^aPercentage Error in Flux in Col. (3)

^bRadius for aperture photometry, or outer radius used for integrating radial intensity to determine flux in filters where CS emission is extended – for the latter, no aperture correction is required

^cAperture correction (for aperture photometry) determined using field stars

^dPosition angles defining the full angular wedge used to extract radial intensity

^eReferences for photometry: (1) de Marco et al. (2013), (2) Hubble Source Catalog V.3 (Whitmore et al. 2016), (4) Gaia DR3 (Gaia Collaboration 2022), (5) this work; when photometry reference provides magnitudes, these are listed here

^fAB Magnitude

^gVega Magnitude

^hCore Flux, F_{core} , derived from integration of radial intensity to radius $0.5 \times \text{FWHM}$ of PSF

^jFlux derived from integration of radial intensity to outer radius in Col. (5)

^kUpper limit for core flux derived using method described in §2.1

Table 2. Field Stars used for generating PSFs and Aperture Corrections

Star	Filter	RA(J2000.0)	Dec(J2000.0)
fs1	F560W	18:53:30.782	+33:01:42.70
fs3	F770W	18:53:39.842	+33:01:46.30
fs4	F1000W	18:53:40.775	+33:01:40.90
fs1	F1130W	18:53:30.782	+33:01:42.70

Table 3. Photometry of Circular Patch near the CS of NGC 6720

Filter	Flux (mJy)
F560W	0.0039
F770W	0.0026
F1000W	0.028
F1130W	0.003

Table 4. Best-Fit Models of the Dust Emission towards the CS of NGC 6720

$T_d(\text{in})^a$ (K)	R_{in}^b (arcsec, au)	$T_d(\text{out})$ (K)	R_{out}^c (arcsec, au)	n^d	τ_V^e	F_{bol} ($\text{erg s}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2}$)	Dust.Comp.	M_d^f (M_{\oplus})
1500	0''013, 10.5	151	1''66, 1310	-0.8	1.3×10^{-8}	1.6×10^{-6}	silicate	1.86×10^{-6}
1688	...	238	PAH	7.27×10^{-7}

^aThe (input/output) dust temperature at shell inner radius for silicate/PAH dust

^bThe (output) dust temperature at shell outer radius

^bThe (inferred) inner radius of the dust shell

^cThe (input) outer radius of the dust shell

^dThe (input) exponent of the density power law ($\rho_d(r) \propto r^{-n}$) in the dust shell

^eThe (input) dust shell's optical depth at $0.55\mu\text{m}$

^fThe (inferred) circumstellar dust mass

Table 5. Gaia G-band Time Series of the CS of NGC 6720: Statistics

Dataset	No. of DataPts	Wtd. Mean (e^-/s)	Std. Dev (e^-/s)
Original	50
Bad-data removed	49	10397	107.6
Outliers removed	47	10401	85.1
CloseDataPts averaged	28	10398	81.6

Table 6. Field Stars with G-band light curves near the CS of NGC 6720

Name	Offset arcsec	RA(J2000) hh mm ss	Dec(J2000) dd mm ss	Gmag ^a mag	phot_variable_flag	$r_{ipd,G}^b$	$r_{exf,G}^c$
FS1	103.578	18 53 31.9920361623	+33 03 21.015084474	16.416496	VARIABLE	-0.030698	-0.278665
FS2	179.898	18 53 45.9813883771	+33 03 41.753314212	16.401575	VARIABLE	-0.074560	-0.189189
FS3	213.640	18 53 32.9190411134	+32 58 13.093566670	15.875365	VARIABLE	-0.173693	0.189916
FS4	245.875	18 53 21.6164058659	+33 04 43.133991427	14.591276	VARIABLE	0.184214	0.112892
FS5	271.235	18 53 16.7110519429	+33 04 07.034403143	13.829674	VARIABLE	-0.056917	-0.150474
FS6	274.113	18 53 35.1056734346	+32 57 11.036167760	13.910662	VARIABLE	-0.045757	-0.047561

^aGaia DR3 G-band mean magnitude

^bspearmanCorrIPdGFoV from table J/A+A/674/A25/vspursig

^cspearmanCorrExfgFoV from table J/A+A/674/A25/vspursig

Table 7. Effect of a Main-Sequence Stellar Companion on the SED of the CS of NGC 6720

Spectral ^a Type	T_{eff} ^a (K)	Luminosity ^a ($10^{-4} L_{\odot}$)	Mass ^a (M_{\odot})	$F_{mod}(3.35 \mu m)/F_{obs}(3.35 \mu m)$
M7.5V	2500 \pm 82	5.8 \pm 1.2	0.104 \pm 0.009	1.20
M8.0V	2500 \pm 91	5.1 \pm 1.6	0.104 \pm 0.014	1.19
M9.5V	2300 \pm 45	2.69 \pm 0.35	0.077 \pm 0.008	1.13
L0.5V	2200 \pm 61	2.17 \pm 0.15	0.079 \pm 0.004	1.13
L1.5V	2000 \pm 172	1.81 \pm 0.35	0.094 \pm 0.016	1.12

^afrom Cifuentes et al. (2020)