

Sirius

Brightest Diamond in the Night Sky

Jay B. Holberg

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Contents

| | |
|--|-----------|
| Acknowledgments | vii |
| Introduction | xi |
| List of Figures | xv |
| List of Abbreviations and Acronyms | xvii |
| | |
| PART ONE ANCIENT SIRIUS | 1 |
| 1 The Goddess of the Eastern Horizon | 3 |
| Dawn—July 17, 2276 BC—Memphis, Egypt | 3 |
| 2 The Dog Star | 15 |
| | |
| PART TWO THE NATURE OF THE STARS. | 27 |
| 3 From Myth to Reality | 29 |
| 4 A Dark Star Prophesied | 47 |
| 5 A Dark Star Revealed | 63 |

| | |
|--|------------|
| PART THREE THE PHYSICS OF THE STARS | 79 |
| 6 An Odd Pair | 81 |
| 7 Giants among the Dwarfs | 99 |
| 8 A Matter of Degeneracy | 123 |
| 9 Einstein's Well | 141 |
| | |
| PART FOUR A CONTROVERSIAL AND OCCULT SIRIUS | 155 |
| 10 A Red Sirius | 157 |
| 11 Modern Mysteries | 171 |
| | |
| PART FIVE A CONTEMPORARY AND FUTURE SIRIUS | 191 |
| 12 A View from Space | 193 |
| 13 Past, Present, and Future | 213 |
| | |
| APPENDICES | |
| A Glossary | 225 |
| B Properties of the Sirius System | 231 |
| References | 233 |
| Index | 245 |

Acknowledgments

The idea for a book on the star Sirius occurred to me in April 2001 while I was organizing some old 19th century observations of the orbit of the star's companion. At the time I had only a few vague notions of just how rich and varied this subject would become. As coincidence would have it, I was not alone in my interests in Sirius. Dr. Hugh Van Horn (National Science Foundation, retired), an expert on the stellar interiors and someone who has trained numerous graduate students in the study of white dwarfs, was also making similar plans. We became aware of each other's efforts at a White Dwarf Workshop in Naples, Italy in the summer of 2002. I remain most grateful to Hugh for generously allowing me to proceed, for his encouragement of my efforts, and for his careful reading of an early draft of this book. I am also very indebted to Professor François Wesemael of the University of Montreal, for his interest and encouragement in this project, for his comments on early drafts of this work, and for his help with French translations, including the Chacornac logbook from the Observatoire de Paris.

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Introduction

This book was written to tell two stories. The first and most obvious is why the star known as Sirius has been regarded as an important fixture of the night sky by many civilizations and cultures, since the beginnings of history. A second, but related, narrative is the prominent part that Sirius has played in how we came to achieve our current scientific understanding of the nature and fate of the stars. These two topics have a long intertwined history, and the telling of one story eventually leads back to the other. Presently, new observations from space are revealing, in precise terms, how stars like Sirius and the sun have evolved and what they will ultimately become, while at the same time answering some of the age-old questions about Sirius.

The introduction to this book is a particularly good place to establish some of the well-known facts regarding Sirius. Of all the fixed stars in the night sky, Sirius is by far the brightest—almost twice as bright as its nearest rival, the star Canopus, which resides too far south to be viewed over much of the northern hemisphere. Only the sun, the moon, and at times the planets Venus, Jupiter, and on rare occasions Mars, appear brighter. Sirius, with its flashing brilliance, is a striking feature of the northern winter sky and has understandably drawn the attention of observers of the heavens for thousands of years. Sirius can be easily seen over most of the surface of the earth, except for a zone north of the Arctic Circle, where it never rises. Every year Sirius emerges from the glare of the sun in late July, and by year's end it hangs on the meridian at midnight. In late May it disappears from view, rejoining the sun for a period of slightly over two months. It was around this annual coming and going that certain ancient cultures and civilizations organized their religious year, and synchronized their calendars with the agricultural cycles. It was also surrounding Sirius that a host of elaborate legends and beliefs came into being.

Sirius has many names, astronomers recognize over fifty designations for the star, but the most prominent is Alpha Canis Majoris, the brightest star in the constellation Canis Major, Latin for the great dog. Over the centuries many beliefs have come to be associated with Sirius. Some of these beliefs still echo in such phrases as “the dog days

of summer”, which the ancient Romans understood well. Other old beliefs long ago fell from public consciousness—only to be revived and to grow into modern popular and scientific controversies. Still other notions regarding Sirius abound in various forms in the occult and new-age sections of bookstores—and in even greater profusion on the Internet. Although these beliefs may seem quite recent, many have their origins in the ancient lore surrounding Sirius: humans seem naturally drawn to its brilliance, and a surprising number of modern cults have nucleated around beliefs in which Sirius plays a prominent role.

Today we know Sirius as a rather typical star, with a surface temperature nearly twice that of the sun. The average temperature of the visible outer layers of its atmosphere is approximately 9400 K (16,900 F): this explains its striking blue–white appearance. Its apparent brightness is due to its relative proximity to the earth of about 8.6 light years. There are relatively few stars as hot as Sirius in the solar neighborhood. The most similar nearby star, Vega, lies at a distance of 26 light years from the sun, and consequently appears 3.76 times fainter than Sirius. Sirius has 2.03 times the mass and 1.80 times the radius of the sun, but it produces energy at a rate nearly 50 times greater. Regardless of its size and brightness, Sirius, for historical reasons, is astronomically classified as a dwarf star. We now know a great deal about Sirius and can calculate its history and its destiny with considerable confidence.

In spite of its celestial prominence, Sirius managed to conceal an important family secret, until some 160 years ago, when it was discovered to possess a strange faint companion. It is the nature of this tiny companion that has commanded most of the subsequent scientific interest in Sirius and which helped to revolutionize our understanding of how stars evolve and finally die. This small star has also provided a natural laboratory that first demonstrated some of the more striking discoveries of 20th century physics. It is the story of this remarkable companion that dominates the latter half of this book.

This book naturally divides itself into five parts. The first section concerns the ancient lore that surrounds Sirius: the ideas and legends of the ancient Egyptians, Greeks, and Romans, as well as those of other cultures such as the Islamic, and the Chinese. The second section begins the long journey towards a scientific understanding of the stars and Sirius, starting with the concepts of the ancient Greeks. This section also includes the critical period, beginning a little less than five hundred years ago, when Copernicus, Kepler, and Galileo helped to overthrow the old Greek ideas of the cosmos. Later in this period key figures, such as Isaac Newton, Edmond Halley, and others, played a prominent role in changing our ideas about the stars, their distances, and their motions. During this time two key developments occurred: the realization of just how far away the stars really are and the discovery of double stars. Both of these developments made possible the appreciation of such stellar properties as their true luminosities and masses. The second section of the book concludes with the fascinating story of how the mysterious companion of Sirius was first theoretically deduced in 1844, and then finally discovered in 1862. The third section of the book follows 19th and early 20th century astronomers as they began using new instruments and techniques to make some of the first physical measurements of the stars: including temperatures and radii, and the determination of the chemical composition of the

atmospheres of the stars. This section concludes with the highly successful applications of these developments, and traces the new ideas of quantum physics as they were used to determine how the stars produce their energy and how they evolve and die. The fourth section of this book takes an in-depth look at some of the modern mythologies that surround Sirius. These include: the idea that Sirius appeared as a prominently red star some two thousand years ago; that the Sirius system may conceal a third member; the fascinating way that Sirius figures in the cosmogony of the Dogon tribe of west central Africa; and the story of a modern cult that made Sirius a central aspect of their beliefs, with disastrous consequences. The fifth and final section of the book takes an up-to-date scientific look at what new observations of Sirius from space have revealed. It concludes with the stellar evolution of Sirius and its companion, how they appeared in the past, how they will appear in the future, and how this evolution contrasts with that of our sun.

I was drawn to Sirius more than twenty years ago, when I first observed the star with the ultraviolet spectrometer on board the *Voyager 2* spacecraft, while it was traveling between Saturn and Uranus. I was hooked, and have continued making observations of Sirius using other spacecraft ever since. During most of this period, my interest was primarily astronomical and centered on obtaining better estimates of the mass and radius of the white dwarf companion to Sirius. Five years ago, however, I became involved in a project to observe this white dwarf with the *Hubble Space Telescope* in an effort to improve the determination of its orbit. Part of this study involved a recomputation of the orbit, from all of the old visual observations going back over 160 years. This ultimately required collecting thousands of observations scattered through scores of old journals. It proved necessary to visit libraries across the country to locate some of the more obscure older references. Through this process I became aware of the scope of the history of Sirius and began to appreciate how influential the star and its companion have been in the development of modern stellar astrophysics. It seemed to me that the only adequate way to tell this story was to go all the way back to the beginning, to ancient Egypt, and conclude with an up-to-date account of what we are still learning today about this remarkable star. I hope that this book accomplishes these objectives.

Jay Holberg

NOTES ON TERMINOLOGY, UNITS AND DATING CONVENTIONS

Astronomy, with its huge distances, enormous masses, and unfathomable time spans, faces a problem in conveying its discoveries to the general public. For the distances to the stars, I use variously, the light year (the distance that light travels in one year), and the parsec (the distance at which the diameter of the earth's orbit would appear to subtend an angle of one arc second). (One parsec = 0.306 light years = 3.09×10^{18} centimeters = 1.92×10^{13} miles, where in scientific notation, the superscripts following the ten indicate the number of trailing significant zeros in the quantity.) In discussing the stars I have tried, wherever possible, to use relative units, such as the mass, radius,

and luminosity of the sun. Elsewhere, when discussing other aspects of the stars I follow the astronomical practice of using the centimeter–gram–second version of the metric system. In these units the solar mass is 1.99×10^{33} grams, the solar radius is 6.96×10^{10} cm, and the solar luminosity (its total power output) is 3.85×10^{33} ergs/second = 3.85×10^{26} Watts. In addition to the parsec and light year astronomers have other unique units of measurement, which are ingrained in the field. Some of these are the Angstrom unit for measuring the wavelengths of light ($1 \text{ \AA} = 10^{-9} \text{ m} = 3.94 \times 10^{-10}$ inches); for example, the wavelength of the red line of hydrogen is 6656 Å. In the solar system the convenient unit of distance is the mean distance of the earth from the sun, the Astronomical Unit ($1 \text{ AU} = 1.50 \times 10^8 \text{ km} = 93$ million miles). Stellar magnitudes are another area of potential confusion. Magnitudes are basically negative logarithmic measures of stellar brightness, so that the brightest stars have the lowest magnitudes and the faintest the highest. The basis of this system is Vega, defined to be magnitude 0. The step size of 1 magnitude is a factor of 2.51 in brightness. Thus, Sirius with a magnitude of -1.44 is 3.77 times *brighter* than Vega, while the faint companion of Sirius, at magnitude 8.48, is 2470 times *fainter* than Vega. For other potentially unfamiliar, or technical, terms there is also a Glossary (see Appendix A, p. 225).

Mathematics is the native language of the physical sciences, but it creates barriers for some readers. For this reason I have endeavored to make limited use of a few simple equations, such as proportions and inverse relations that are needed to express important concepts. Wherever practical, this usage is accompanied by written statements of the relations being expressed. For more complex relations, I have tried to use graphs and figures. I also presume the reader is familiar with the shorthand of exponents, and logarithms for dealing with large numbers.

For familiar historical reasons, I have tended to use English units when discussing instrumentation, prior to the 20th century; for example, in referring to telescope apertures and focal lengths, such as the Clark's $18\frac{1}{2}$ -inch 1862 refractor. Dates and spelling are another issue. I use the traditional Latin eras, BC and AD, to designate historical dates, and use Julian calendar dates prior to the introduction of the Gregorian Calendar in 1582, unless otherwise noted. For Egyptian dates and spellings I have adopted the conventions of the *Oxford Encyclopedia of Ancient Egypt*.

Figures

| | | |
|-----|---|-----|
| 1.1 | Isis and Osiris | 5 |
| 1.2 | Hathor/Sirius | 6 |
| 1.3 | Circular Zodiac | 7 |
| 1.4 | Phoenix drachma (see also color section) | 13 |
| 2.1 | Winter Triangle | 16 |
| 2.2 | Ceos drachma (see also color section) | 21 |
| 2.3 | Codex Vossianus (see also color section) | 22 |
| 2.4 | Isis/dog drachma (see also color section) | 22 |
| 3.1 | Claudius Ptolemy | 31 |
| 3.2 | Digges' system | 36 |
| 3.3 | Kepler | 38 |
| 4.1 | Le Verrier | 49 |
| 4.2 | Mercury precession | 52 |
| 4.3 | W. F. Bessel | 55 |
| 4.4 | Anomalous perturbed motion | 56 |
| 4.5 | T. H. Safford | 59 |
| 4.6 | Arthur Auwers | 60 |
| 5.1 | Alvan Clark and sons | 66 |
| 5.2 | The 18½-inch Clark telescope | 73 |
| 5.3 | The Yerkes' 40-inch telescope | 75 |
| 6.1 | Otto Struve | 82 |
| 6.2 | Pickering staff | 90 |
| 6.3 | John Ellard Gore | 92 |
| 6.4 | Stellar evolution | 94 |
| 7.1 | Ejnar Hertzsprung | 102 |
| 7.2 | Henry Norris Russell | 103 |
| 7.3 | Russell plot | 106 |
| 7.4 | Willem Luyten | 117 |
| 7.5 | Luyten's plot | 118 |
| 7.6 | Sirius-like system | 121 |

| | | |
|-------------|---|-----|
| 8.1 | Chandra in 1939 | 127 |
| 8.2 | Mass–radius plot | 129 |
| 8.3 | Arthur Eddington | 130 |
| 9.1 | Einstein and Eddington | 145 |
| 9.2 | Walter S. Adams | 145 |
| 9.3 | Sirius and Earth (see also color section) | 151 |
| 10.1 | T. J. J. See | 159 |
| 11.1 | Dogon granary | 173 |
| 11.2 | Dogon drawing | 174 |
| 11.3 | <i>New York Times</i> | 178 |
| 11.4 | Oannes drawing | 184 |
| 12.1 | Two views of Sirius | 194 |
| 12.2 | Orbit in space (see also color section) | 197 |
| 12.3 | Orbit in time (see also color section) | 198 |
| 12.4 | Spectral energy | 206 |
| 12.5 | WFPC Sirius | 207 |
| 12.6 | <i>STIS</i> spectrum | 208 |
| 12.7 | Balmer fit | 210 |
| 13.1 | Sirius A and B (see also color section) | 217 |
| 13.2 | Double degenerates | 219 |

Abbreviations and Acronyms

| | |
|---------------|---|
| ANS | Astronomical Netherlands Satellite |
| AU | Astronomical Unit |
| CCD | Charged Coupled Device |
| DA | A white dwarf having a pure hydrogen atmosphere |
| EUV | Extreme UltraViolet |
| <i>EUVE</i> | <i>Extreme UltraViolet Explorer</i> |
| <i>FUSE</i> | <i>Far Ultraviolet Spectroscopic Explorer</i> |
| <i>HST</i> | <i>Hubble Space Telescope</i> |
| LHS | Luyten Half arc-Second stars |
| LTT | Luyten Two Tenths |
| <i>NICMOS</i> | <i>Near Infrared Camera and Multi-Object Spectrometer</i> |
| <i>ROSAT</i> | <i>The Roentgen Satellite</i> |
| <i>STIS</i> | <i>Space Telescope Imaging Spectrograph</i> |