The infrared view of dust and molecules around V4334 Sgr (Sakurai’s Object): a 20-year retrospective

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Abstract

We present an analysis of the evolution of circumstellar dust and molecules in the environment of the very late thermal pulse object V4334 Sgr (Sakurai’s Object) over a ~20-year period, drawing on ground-, airborne- and space-based infrared photometry and spectroscopy. The dust emission, which started in 1997, resembles a blackbody that cooled from \( \sim 1,200 \) K in 1998 August to \( \sim 180 \) K in 2016 July. The dust mass, assuming amorphous carbon, was \( \sim 5 \times 10^{-10} \, \text{M}_\odot \) in 1998 August, and we estimate that the total dust mass was \( \sim 2 \times 10^{-5} \, \text{M}_\odot \) by \( \sim 2016 \). The appearance of a near infrared excess in 2008 suggests a new episode of (or renewed) mass loss began then. We infer lower limits on the bolometric luminosity of the embedded star from that of the dust shell, which rose to \( \sim 16,000 \, \text{L}_\odot \) before declining to \( \sim 3,000 \, \text{L}_\odot \). There is evidence for weak 6–7 \( \mu \text{m} \) absorption, which we attribute to hydrogenated amorphous carbon formed in material ejected by Sakurai’s Object during a mass ejection phase that preceded the 1997 event. We detect small hydrocarbon and other molecules in the spectra, and trace the column densities in hydrogen cyanide (HCN) and acetylene (C\textsubscript{2}H\textsubscript{2}). We use the former to determine the \( ^{12}\text{C}/^{13}\text{C} \) ratio to be \( 6.4 \pm 0.7, 14 \) times smaller than the Solar System value.

Key words: stars: AGB and post-AGB — stars: carbon — circumstellar matter — stars: evolution — stars: individual, V4334 Sgr (Sakurai’s Object) — infrared: stars
1 INTRODUCTION

It is well-known that the fate of a star when it evolves away from the Main Sequence (MS) depends on its mass. The “text-book” scenario (Iben & Renzini 1983) for the post-MS evolution of low to intermediate mass stars is that, following the helium core flash, burnout of He occurs in the core on the horizontal branch. After evolution up the Asymptotic Giant Branch (AGB), the star sheds its outer envelope, which is illuminated as a planetary nebula (PN) by the still-hot stellar core. In time the PN disperses and its nucleus becomes a white dwarf (WD).

However, in as many as 10–20% of cases (Blöcker 2001; Lawlor & MacDonald 2003) the star, even after it has taken the left turn at the “knee” beyond the post-AGB phase on the Hertzsprung-Russell (HR) diagram and is evolving downwards towards the WD region, re-ignites a residual helium shell in a Very Late Thermal Pulse (VLTP). It then retraces a large part of its evolutionary track (Iben 1982; Herwig 2001; Lawlor & MacDonald 2003) and becomes a “Born-Again Giant” (BAG). A number of examples of the VLTP phenomenon are now known, including Sakurai’s Object (V4334 Sgr, hereafter “Sakurai”) and V605 Aql. FG Sge has also been regarded as a BAG (Gehrz et al. 2005), although it is also regarded as a Late Thermal Pulse (Jeffery & Schönberner 2000). All these stars are hydrogen-deficient, carbon-rich, have extensive dust shells, and each lies at the centre of an old PN.

The final evolution from pre-WD to the BAG phase is predicted to take to the order of a few centuries, thus representing a very rapid (and hence seldom seen) phase of stellar evolution. However the rate at which Sakurai has evolved has radically changed our views about the post-MS evolution of low-to-intermediate mass (1–8 $M_\odot$) stars, prompting a major rethinking of the underlying astrophysics (Herwig 2001, 2005; Lawlor & MacDonald 2003).

Here we present a series of infrared (IR) observations of Sakurai, obtained with ground-based, airborne and space-based observatories over the 20-year period since it became dust embedded in late 1998. We include already-published and unpublished data, and data acquired recently from the NASA Stratospheric Observatory for Infrared Astronomy (SOFIA; Young et al. 2012; Temi et al. 2014). An overview of the early (1996–2001) IR evolution – including the molecular and dust components – was given by Geballe et al. (2002).

2 SAKURAI’S OBJECT (V4334 SGR): A BRIEF HISTORY OF ITS EVOLUTION

V4334 Sgr was discovered by the amateur astronomer Yukio Sakurai in 1996 (see Nakano, Sakurai & Kojima 1996). Originally reported as a nova, it was at first spectroscopically similar to an F supergiant, possibly with a hot dust shell (Dürbeck & Benetti 1996).

It is now known to be a low-mass (∼0.6 $M_\odot$) post-AGB star that is retriggering its post-AGB evolution along the HR diagram following a VLTP (Herwig 2001). This interpretation was strengthened by the discovery that Sakurai lies at the centre of a faint planetary nebula (PN) 40″ in diameter (e.g. Kerber et al. 1997; Eyres et al. 1998a; Pollacco 1999). Pollacco measured the expansion velocity of the PN shell to be $32\pm6$ km s$^{-1}$ which, for a distance of 3.8 kpc (see below), gives a ballistic expansion age of ∼11,300 years. This PN age probably rules out a progenitor having mass $\lesssim1.25$ $M_\odot$, as the progenitor would not have reached the WD cooling track in the age of the Galaxy. Furthermore, the location of the central star of the PN on the HR diagram in 1995 is incompatible with its being a pre-WD (see Herwig 2001).

In mid-1996, the spectrum of Sakurai rapidly evolved to that of a C-rich, H-poor star, with elemental abundances akin to those found in the R Coronae Borealis (RCB) stars (Asplund et al. 1999). Subsequently, around 1997 April, Sakurai started to produce a carbon dust shell that obscured the central star (see Figure 1 of Dürbeck 2002, for a visual light curve to mid-1999). As the visual light faded, photospheric CO was detectable in the IR until late 1998 but thereafter, even the IR spectrum was completely devoid of photospheric features.

By 1999 April the photosphere had completely disappeared from view, even at IR wavelengths, and as of early 2020, remains obscured. A large mass-loss rate (∼10$^{-5}$ $M_\odot$ yr$^{-1}$ over the period 1999 May – 2001 September) is implied by 1–5 μm spectroscopy (Tyne et al. 2002). Evans et al. (2002b, 2004) detected the dust around Sakurai at 450 μm and 850 μm in 2001 August, and found that the flux density at these wavelengths was still rising in 2003, indicating that the mass-loss was being maintained; the spectral energy distribution (SED) resembled a black-body at 360 K.

High spatial resolution observations using MIDI/VLTI (Chesneau et al. 2009) resolved Sakurai’s dust disc, which has an asymmetry that is aligned with the PN reported by Pollacco (1999); the inclination of the dust disc relative to the plane of the sky is ∼75°. The mass of dust in the disc was determined to be ∼6 × 10$^{-7}$ $M_\odot$, although this value is somewhat model-dependent.

The optical spectrum has shown significant changes since ∼2008 (e.g van Hoof et al. 2015; Van de Steene et al. 2016), when the strength of many emission lines started to increase, most notably [OII] 7320/7330Å. In addition Van de Steene et al. identify the emergence of electronic transitions of CN at this time, with a likely origin in the dust disc.

On the basis of stellar evolutionary models, Lawlor & MacDonald (2003) suggested that the rapid evolution (on a timescale ∼10 yr) of Sakurai and V605 Aql – compared with the longer timescale associated with the evolution of FG Sge – might indicate that the latter is making its second visit to the AGB, whereas Sakurai and V605 Aql are visiting for the first time. They predicted that the stellar component of Sakurai would rapidly increase in effective temperature, and will eventually resemble V605 Aql whereas the latter will return to the AGB over the next several decades. That Sakurai and V605 Aql are evolving along similar evolutionary tracks, with V605 Aql somewhat more advanced by virtue of its having undergone a thermal pulse in 1919, was also concluded by Clayton et al. (2006, 2013). Indeed Clayton et al. suggested that the behaviour of V605 Aql could serve as a template for the future behaviour of Sakurai.

Blöcker (2001) argued that the stellar evolution pathway taken by Sakurai is a fate that awaits 20% of low-mass stars; thus we are looking at a possible fate of the
Sun. Herwig et al. (2011) and others have studied details of the VLTP, and find that mixing of protons into the He-burning shell can trigger i-process nucleosynthesis, producing the anomalous abundances of species such as Sr, Y, and Zr seen in Sakurai (Asplund et al. 1997). Furthermore, understanding objects that have undergone VLTPs has a much wider significance: there is evidence that carbon stars produce dust in low metallicity environments, with implications for dust production in (for example) globular clusters and dwarf galaxies (Sloan et al. 2009; Boyer et al. 2015a,b, 2017; Goldman et al. 2019).

3 DUST & MOLECULES

3.1 The dust

3.1.1 The start of the dust phase

By late-1998, the central star of Sakurai was completely obscured by an optically thick dust shell. Evans et al. (2006) reviewed the expansion of the dust shell by estimating its “blackbody angular diameter” (see Appendix A). They found that the expansion was linear in time, with an extrapolated start on 1997 November 10 (MJD = 50759); the expansion rate was 0.055 mas d\(^{-1}\). Hinkle et al. (2008) determined a similar expansion rate (0.055 ± 0.008 mas d\(^{-1}\)) over a somewhat longer time-base, also with a start in November 1997. In either case the extrapolation to zero diameter coincided with the start of dust production sometime between 1997 Nov 7 (MJD 50759) and 1998 February 5 (MJD 50849; Dürbeck 2002). However, as noted in Section 2, the IR spectrum shows that dust had actually begun making a contribution to the IR emission as early as 1997 April (Geballe et al. 2002; Pavlenko et al. 2002).

Since 1998, the 1-5 µm continuum spectral energy distribution (SED) has crudely resembled a featureless blackbody, commensurate with that emitted by an optically thick carbon dust shell. We will confine our analysis of the dust to the period after 1997 November.

3.1.2 The nature of the dust

Analysis of the post-1998 IR observations shows that the dust is carbon-based, primarily in amorphous form (Eyres et al. 1998b; Tyne et al. 2002; Evans et al. 2006). The 1-5 µm spectra during the period 1999–2001 were consistent with mass-loss rate (in the form of dust) that increased steadily from 5 × 10\(^{-8}\) M\(_\odot\) yr\(^{-1}\) to slightly over 1.8 × 10\(^{-7}\) M\(_\odot\) yr\(^{-1}\) (see Tyne et al. 2002, for details), where we have scaled as per the DUSTY code (Ivezić & Elitzur 1995) for the distance D and the density of the grain material (see Section 6.3 for the value assumed here). A crude integration of the mass-loss rate (in dust only) over the period 1999–2001 from Tyne et al. (2002) yields the accumulated mass of dust \(M_{\text{dust}}\) ejected to the end of 2001 to be 1.0 × 10\(^{-5}\) M\(_\odot\).

The dust mass over the period 2001 August to 2003 June was determined by Evans et al. (2004) using 850 µm photometry. These authors found that the dust mass increased from 2 × 10\(^{-9}\) M\(_\odot\) to 1.4 × 10\(^{-8}\) M\(_\odot\) over this period (again these values are scaled to the distance assumed here). The maximum grain radius (in a grain size (a) distribution n(a) da ∝ a\(^{-2}\) da, with q ∼ 3) increased by a factor ∼ 3 over the period 1999 May to 2001 September (Tyne et al. 2002).

3.2 The molecules

IR observations (Eyres et al. 1998b) revealed the presence of C\(_2\), CN and CO through their electronic (C\(_2\); Ballik & Ramsay 1963) and vibrational transitions, including overtone absorption spectra of \(^{12}\)CO and \(^{13}\)CO. The presence of the Ballik-Ramsay bands mirrored the appearance of the C\(_2\) Swan bands (Swan 1857) in the optical (Asplund et al. 1997). The C\(_2\) bands suggested a \(^{13}\)C/\(^{12}\)C ratio in the range 1.5–5. High resolution (\(R \approx 30,000\)) spectroscopy (Pavlenko et al. 2004) resolved the first overtone \(^{12}\)CO and \(^{13}\)CO bands, to which Pavlenko et al. fitted a synthetic hydrogen-deficient model atmosphere to determine a \(^{12}\)C/\(^{13}\)C ratio of 4 ± 1. Both values are substantially less than the Solar System value (\(^{12}\)C/\(^{13}\)C = 89; Lodders, Palme & Gail 2009). Worters et al. (2009) used the IR CO fundamental bands – seen in absorption against the dust emission – to derive a ratio similar to that of Pavlenko et al. (2004). Evans et al. (2006), using mid-IR HCN lines, also found that the \(^{12}\)C/\(^{13}\)C ratio is ∼ 4.
Table 1. Evolution of Sakurai’s dust as seen from UKIRT, 2MASS, *WISE*, *Spitzer Space Telescope* and *SOFIA*. Column headed “Refs” lists papers containing IR data on Sakurai already published. Observations in the $K_s$ band are listed separately (Table 2). See text for details.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Facility</th>
<th>Date YYYY-MM-DD</th>
<th>Ref*</th>
<th>MJD</th>
<th>Wavelength coverage (μm)</th>
<th>$R^{**}$</th>
<th>$T_{\text{dust}}$ (K)</th>
<th>$L_{\text{dust}}^{[\lambda \lambda] \text{max}}$ (10$^{-12}$ W m$^{-2}$)</th>
<th>$M_{\text{dust}}^{[\lambda \lambda]}$ (M$_{\odot}$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UKIRT 1998-08-18</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>51043</td>
<td>1.2–2.3</td>
<td>1.210 ± 3</td>
<td>1.29 ± 0.01</td>
<td>791 ± 177</td>
<td>5.10 ± 1.14 × 10$^{-10}$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2MASS 1999-04-29</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>51286</td>
<td>1.0–2.5</td>
<td>600–950</td>
<td>840.6 ± 0.6</td>
<td>8.16 ± 0.05</td>
<td>5.004 ± 1.118</td>
<td>1.82 ± 0.41 × 10$^{-8}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UKIRT 1999-05-03</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>51301</td>
<td>~ 6</td>
<td>950 ± 37</td>
<td>6.57 ± 2.48</td>
<td>4.029 ± 1.767</td>
<td>8.21 ± 3.91 × 10$^{-9}$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2MASS 2002-04-14</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>52378</td>
<td>1.4–5</td>
<td>200–2,000</td>
<td>717.2 ± 1.1</td>
<td>14.89 ± 0.04</td>
<td>9.130 ± 2.039</td>
<td>7.08 ± 1.58 × 10$^{-8}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UKIRT 2005-04-15</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>53475.3</td>
<td>5.2–36</td>
<td>60–600</td>
<td>283.5 ± 0.2</td>
<td>13.17 ± 0.05</td>
<td>8.076 ± 1.804</td>
<td>5.16 ± 1.15 × 10$^{-6}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2MASS 2007-10-15</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>54224.9</td>
<td>5.2–33</td>
<td>225.5 ± 0.1</td>
<td>9.58 ± 0.03</td>
<td>5.874 ± 1.312</td>
<td>1.11 ± 0.25 × 10$^{-5}$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2MASS 2008-04-08</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>54564</td>
<td>5.2–33.2</td>
<td>217.0 ± 0.3</td>
<td>9.05 ± 0.05</td>
<td>5.549 ± 1.240</td>
<td>1.26 ± 0.28 × 10$^{-5}$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2MASS 2008-10-18</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>54757.1</td>
<td>5.2–35</td>
<td>205.8 ± 0.2</td>
<td>8.49 ± 0.03</td>
<td>5.206 ± 1.163</td>
<td>1.53 ± 0.34 × 10$^{-5}$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WISE 2010-03-19</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>55274.4</td>
<td>W1,W2,W3,W4</td>
<td>1–3</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOFIA 2014-03-25</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>56741.5</td>
<td>8.6–36.6</td>
<td>110–160</td>
<td>181.7 ± 0.6</td>
<td>5.47 ± 0.07</td>
<td>3.354 ± 750</td>
<td>1.78 ± 0.40 × 10$^{-5}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOFIA 2016-07-11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>57580.3</td>
<td>5.0–31</td>
<td>110–180</td>
<td>176.9 ± 0.5</td>
<td>4.95 ± 0.06</td>
<td>3.035 ± 679</td>
<td>1.85 ± 0.41 × 10$^{-5}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*1: Gehalle et al. (2002); 2: Tyne et al. (2000); 3: Tyne et al. (2002); 4: Evans et al. (2006).
**Spectral resolution $R = \lambda / \Delta \lambda$.
†For $D = 3.8$ kpc.
‡2MASS pass bands.
§WISE pass bands.
** Data saturated in W3 and W4; see text.
Tafoy et al. (2017) detected the $J = 4 \rightarrow 3$ transitions of H$^{12}$CN and H$^{13}$CN, and the $J = 1 \rightarrow 0$ transition of H$^{12}$CN, and found that the expansion velocities were in excess of 100 km s$^{-1}$. They too found that the $^{12}$C/$^{13}$C ratio is extremely low. The methods of determining the interstellar reddening, which are described in their paper, are based on measuring the Balmer decrement – determined from optical, IR and sub-mm observations – is in line with that expected (∼3.5; Asplund et al. 1999) from second stage equilibrium CNO burning following He-burning during the VLTP, and therefore with Sakurai being an object that has undergone a VLTP.

## 4 REDDENING AND DISTANCE

While the assumed interstellar reddening to Sakurai will have minimal bearing on most of the data we discuss here, there will be a discernible effect at the shortest (∼JHK) wavelengths.

### 4.1 Distance

A search of the GAIA DR2 archive (Gaia Collaboration 2018) reveals no parallax values for Sakurai. Various distance determinations from the literature are summarised by Hinkle & Joyce (2014), in which nearly all estimates lie within the range proposed by Eyres et al. (1998a), namely 1.9–5.3 kpc. As pointed out by van Hoof et al. (2007), the line-of-sight to Sakurai reaches the scale height of the old disc at $D = 4$ kpc, making this an upper limit (albeit a weak one) on the distance.

We adopt here the “statistical” distance deduced by Eyres et al. (1998a), namely 3.8 ± 0.6 kpc. We note that the expansion of the blackbody angular diameter of the dust (see Section 3.1.1), combined with this distance, leads to an expansion velocity for the dust-forming material of ∼375 km s$^{-1}$; this is comparable with that suggested by the blue wing of the HeI 1.0833 μm line in 1997 July (Geballe et al. 2002).

### 4.2 Reddening

Methods of determining the interstellar reddening, $E(B-V)$, to Sakurai have relied mainly on measuring the Balmer decrement. An early determination using this method was made by Dürbeck & Benetti (1996), who found $E(B-V) = 0.54$ mag. However more recent considerations have deduced larger reddening. Kimeswenger (2002) gives a weighted mean, based on several independent determinations up to 2002, of 0.75 ± 0.05 mag. Evans et al. (2002a) reported a detection of the 9.7 μm silicate feature in absorption in Sakurai. They argued that the feature actually arises in the interstellar medium, and therefore provides a direct measure of the reddening by interstellar material, $E(B-V) = 0.66 ± 0.12$ mag. van Hoof et al. (2007) found $E(B-V) = 0.86$ mag from the Balmer decrement, assuming that “Case B” applies.

Marshall et al. (2006) have used the Two Micron All Sky Survey (2MASS; Skrutskie et al. 2006) catalogue to map out the Galactic extinction in the $K_s$ (2.159 μm) band; in the direction of Sakurai their data indicate $A_{K_s} \approx 0.20$ to 0.24 mag for the range of distances suggested by Eyres et al. (1998a), as depicted in Fig. 1. A weighted mean of the $A_{K_s}$ values in Marshall et al., over the Eyres et al. distance range, gives $A_{K_s} \approx 0.22 ± 0.03$ mag. This value of extinction is consistent with the extinction analysis by Gonzalez et al. (2012), who found $E(J-K) = 0.312 ± 0.115$ mag and $A_K = 0.216$ mag towards Sakurai. The $A_{K_s}$ value of $0.22 ± 0.03$ mag corresponds to $E(B-V) = 0.61 ± 0.07$ mag, close to the value derived by Evans et al. (2002a). These considerations suggest that determinations of the reddening using the Balmer decrement and Case B may overestimate $E(B-V)$. On the other hand determining the reddening using only the agents of interstellar extinction points to a consistent $E(B-V) = 0.61 ± 0.07$ mag ($A_{K_s}$ extinction) and $E(B-V) = 0.66 ± 0.12$ mag (9.7 μm feature). For the purposes of this paper we use a weighted mean of the reddening as deduced from the interstellar extinction only, namely $E(B-V) = 0.62 ± 0.06$ mag.

## 5 THE DATA

We have compiled a series of IR observations – both photometric and spectroscopic – that show the dust emission by Sakurai, covering the period 1996 April to 2016 July, providing a 20 year retrospective of IR observations of the dust evolution of a VLTP. We briefly describe the observations here. An observing log is given in Table 1 and a sample of the spectroscopic data, together with blackbody fits (discussed in Section 6 below), is shown in Fig. 2.

### 5.1 UKIRT

Sakurai was observed with the United Kingdom Infrared Telescope (UKIRT) from 1996 to 2000. Full details of the spectrometers used, data acquisition and reduction, together with the data themselves, are given in Eyres et al. (1998b), Pavlenko et al. (2004), Tyne et al. (2002) and references therein.

### 5.2 $K_s$ band photometry

Archival data on Sakurai have been retrieved from the European Southern Observatory’s VISTA Variables in the Vía Láctea survey (Saito et al. 2012) and are listed in Table 2, which also includes data from Hinkle & Joyce (2015; see that paper for instrumental details) and Hinkle et al. (2017). The observations on MJD 55457.25/55458.21 were combined into a single image, which shows both a bright point source and ejecta. Aperture photometry was obtained on both images and the fluxes were combined to get the measured magnitude. The data are plotted in Fig. 3.

### 5.3 2MASS

Sakurai is included in the 2MASS survey, with fluxes of $38.08 ± 0.66$ mJy, 341.27 ± 9.24 mJy and 1884 ± 19 mJy in the $J$ (1.253 μm), $H$ (1.662 μm) and $K_s$ (2.159 μm) bands respectively. The data are for the epoch 1999 April 29 (MJD 51297) and are shown in Fig. 4.

### 5.4 WISE

Sakurai was observed in eleven scans during the Wide-field Infrared Survey Explorer (WISE; Wright et al. 2010) survey during a ∼1 day interval centered around MJD 55274.4. The mean survey magnitudes were $10.77 ± 0.09$ mag, $7.79 ± 0.02$ mag, $0.17 ± 0.15$ mag and $-2.03 ± 0.01$ mag in WISE Bands W1 (3.3 μm), W2 (4.6 μm), W3 (12 μm) and W4 (22 μm) respectively; the corresponding flux values were $15.13 ± 1.19$ mJy (W1), 131.14 ± 2.54 mJy (W2), 24.84 ± 3.52 Jy (W3) and 53.63 ± 0.05 Jy (W4).

However the WISE survey data suffer from saturation at magnitudes brighter than 8.1 (W1), 6.7 (W2), 3.8 (W3) and 0.4 (W4); the survey magnitudes for Sakurai indicate that the WISE photometry in bands W3 and W4 are affected by saturation, with 30% and 20% of pixels, respectively, affected. Although data in the W1 and W2 bands are less affected by saturation, we do not use data from the WISE cryogenic survey here; they are included in Table 1 for completeness.
The Infrared Spectrometer (IRS; Houck et al. 2004) on the Spitzer Space Telescope was observed on several occasions (Program IDs 3362, 5.5 and 30077, 40061; PI A. Evans) in the period 2005–2008 with the Near InfraRed Imager and spectrograph (NIRI) on Gemini North telescope. See Hinkle, Joyce & Matheson (2017). Table 2. Ks-band observations of Sakurai. See references below for full details.

Table 2. $K_s$-band observations of Sakurai. See references below for full details.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MJD</th>
<th>$K_s$ (mag)</th>
<th>Ref</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>54084.79</td>
<td>&gt; 18.4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3σ limit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55298.27</td>
<td>17.45 ± 0.28</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55457.25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Average of two nights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55458.21</td>
<td>16.38 ± 0.15</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55726.31</td>
<td>15.89 ± 0.09</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55777.19</td>
<td>15.63 ± 0.06</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55791.09</td>
<td>15.68 ± 0.06</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>55807.08</td>
<td>15.70 ± 0.07</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td>15.52 ± 0.05</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
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<td>55831.01</td>
<td>15.56 ± 0.06</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56555.10</td>
<td>14.03 ± 0.02</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td></td>
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<td>56816.33</td>
<td>13.80 ± 0.01</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57084.91</td>
<td>13.35 ± 0.02</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57075.07</td>
<td>13.20 ± 0.02</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Data from VISTA InfraRed CAMera on the 4 m Visible and Infrared Survey Telescope for Astronomy (VISTA).
2. Data obtained with the High-Resolution Infrared Camera on the Kitt Peak National Observatory (KPNO) 3.5m telescope, the Extremely Wide-Field Infrared Imager on the KPNO 4-m telescope and with the Near InfraRed Imager and spectrograph (NIRI) on Gemini North telescope. See Hinkle & Joyce (2015).

5.5 Spitzer Space Telescope

Sakurai was observed on several occasions (Program IDs 3362, 30077, 40061; PI A. Evans) in the period 2005–2008 with the Infrared Spectrometer (IRS; Houck et al. 2004) on the Spitzer Space Telescope (Werner et al. 2004; Gehrz et al. 2007).

Spectra were obtained in both low- and high-resolution modes, covering the spectral range of 5–38 μm. In order to treat the data in a coherent and systematic way we have used the data provided by the Combined Atlas of Sources with Spitzer IRS spectra (CASSIS; Lebouteiller et al. 2011, 2015).
5.6 Stratospheric Observatory for Infrared Astronomy

Spectra of Sakurai were obtained with SOFIA using the Faint Object infraRed CAmera for the SOFIA Telescope (FORCAST; Herter et al. 2012, 2013). The observations were carried out on two flights, on 2014 March 25 (flight F155, Palmdale, California, Cycle 2 programme 02_00024, PI A. Evans) and on 2016 July 11 (flight F318, Christchurch, New Zealand, Cycle 4 programme 04_00003, PI A. Evans). Sakurai was observed with the grisms, slits and on-target integration times listed in Table 3. Observations were generally carried out with the 4.7″ slit; one observation on flight F318 used the 2.4″ slit with the G063 grism. All observations used the default two-position chopping with nodding mode.

The FORCAST scientific data products were retrieved from the SOFIA archive, after standard pipeline processing and flux calibration was performed (for details see Clarke et al. (2014)). An extensive discussion of the FORCAST data pipeline can be found in the Guest Investigator Handbook for FORCAST Data Products, Rev. B2.

We note here that the slit widths in both the Spitzer Space Telescope and SOFIA spectroscopic observations are such that any contribution from the 40″ FWHM spectroscopic observations is negligible.

6 DUST EMISSION

6.1 The spectral energy distribution

It is almost certain that the dust shell around Sakurai contains dust grains that have a range of temperatures. Even so the observed SED of the dust resembles emission by a blackbody, particularly after 1998. We have therefore fitted

$$ f_\lambda = \frac{F}{\lambda^5} \frac{1}{\exp(B/\lambda) - 1} $$  \hspace{1cm} (1)

to the photometric and spectral data, where $T_{\text{dust}}$ is the observed dust temperature, $B = h\nu/kT_{\text{dust}}$ and $F$ are constants to be determined. Obvious “glitches” in the data, possible and actual spectral features (such as HCN; Evans et al. 2006, and see below), as well as spectral regions where the quality of the data is clearly poor, were removed before fitting.

A sample of the fits for the de-reddened UKIRT, Spitzer Space Telescope and SOFIA data is shown in Fig. 2.

Clearly in some cases the fit is poor at wavelengths $\lesssim 2\mu m$, reflecting the fact that the emission in these cases is not well described by a simple blackbody. Indeed there is clear evidence in the earliest spectra for the presence of a photospheric contribution that diminishes with time.

The observed emitted power $f$ and dust luminosity $L_{\text{dust}}$ were determined from (see Appendix A)

$$ |\lambda f|_{\text{max}} = F \left( \frac{\alpha}{B} \right)^4 \frac{1}{\exp - 1} $$

$$ f = 1.359 \times 10^{13} |\lambda f|_{\text{max}} $$

$$ L_{\text{dust}} = 4\pi D^2 f, $$

where $\alpha \approx 3.92$. We use the fitted parameters $B$ and $T_{\text{dust}}$ to determine $|\lambda f|_{\text{max}}$ as in most cases the wavelength at which $|\lambda f|$ is a maximum falls outside the data wavelength range, or in a gap in the data. In doing so we risk missing some emission; however the SED of Sakurai, using near-contemporaneous UKIRT and JCMT data from late 2003 (Evans et al. 2004), suggests that the 1–5μm and 450/850 μm emission lie on the same blackbody curve. Thus we are confident that we are not excluding any emission, for example by cold dust. The deduced values of $T_{\text{dust}}$, $|\lambda f|_{\text{max}}$ and $L_{\text{dust}}$ are given in Table 1.

We note that the uncertainties in $T_{\text{dust}}$ in Table 1 are the formal uncertainties resulting from fitting Equation (1) to the data, and are not therefore “physically” meaningful. As already noted the dust shell will include a range of temperatures that far exceed the limits implied by the errors listed. However we use these errors to estimate the uncertainties in the dust mass. Likewise the uncertainties in $L_{\text{dust}}$ include the uncertainties in both $|\lambda f|_{\text{max}}$ and in $D$. It is interesting to note that Evans et al. (2004) fitted a 360 K blackbody to the UKIRT/JCMT data by eye; the formal fit to the UKIRT data (Table 1) gives 359.6±0.2 K.

Although there are only three photometric points in the 2MASS data, they all lie on the Wien tail of a blackbody and a fit to the data gives $T_{\text{dust}} = 950 \pm 37$ K, and $|\lambda f|_{\text{max}} = 6.6 \times 10^{-12}$ W m$^{-2}$. The 2MASS spectral energy distributions (SED) is shown in Fig. 4, and the dependence of $T_{\text{dust}}$, $|\lambda f|_{\text{max}}$ and $L_{\text{dust}}$ on time is shown in Fig. 5.

6.2 The dust temperature

There is a monotonic decline in $T_{\text{dust}}$, from $\sim 1$, 200 K to $\sim 180$ K over the period 1998 August to 2016 July. We note that the observed dust temperature has been well below the formation temperature for amorphous carbon ($\sim 1,000$ K; see Gehrz et al. 2018, and references therein) since 1999.

For the simple case of dust moving away at constant speed from a source of bolometric luminosity $L_*$, we would expect the dust temperature to vary as

$$ T_{\text{dust}} \propto (L_*/L_\odot)^{1/(\beta+4)}, $$

where $\beta$ is the “β-index” for the dust material (see below; and see Bode & Evans 1989; Evans 1993, for derivations). We therefore explore the possibility that the dust temperature declines with power-law dependence on time according to

$$ T_{\text{dust}} = \frac{C}{(\text{MJD} - \text{MJD}_0)^\gamma}, $$ \hspace{1cm} (2)

where $C$, MJD$_0$ (the epoch at which the mass-loss leading to dust condensation started) and $\gamma$ are constants to be determined; note that this expression implicitly assumes constant $L_*$.

We have already noted that the drop in the optical brightness began as early as late 1997. Fitting Equation (2) to the data gives

$$ C = 3.38 \pm 0.69 \times 10^6 $$

$$ \gamma = 1.14 \pm 0.23 $$

MJD$_0 = 49736 \pm 491$ for $T_{\text{dust}}$ in K (from Table 1) and MJD, MJD$_0$ in days. The
parameters MJD₀ and γ are reasonably well constrained, while C is not; this may be a reflection of the fact that Lₜ is indeed time-dependent. We revisit MJD₀ below.

### 6.3 The dust mass

Tyne et al. (2002) fitted DUSTY (Ivezic & Elitzur 1995) models to UKIRT data covering the period 1999 May 4 – 2001 Sep 8. Assuming a gas-to-dust ratio of 200, they deduced a mass-loss rate that increased from ~5 × 10⁻⁶ M⊙ yr⁻¹ at the earlier time to ~12 × 10⁻⁶ M⊙ yr⁻¹ at the later time. However the gas-to-dust ratio in Sakurai’s environment is almost certainly very different from that assumed by Tyne et al.

If we make the working assumption that the dust disc enveloping Sakurai is optically thin at longer (>5 μm) wavelengths and at later times, then we can employ the method used by Gehrz et al. (2015) and Evans et al. (2017) to estimate the dust mass, which is given by (see those papers for details)

$$\frac{M_{\text{dust}}}{M_\odot} = 4.81 \times 10^{16} \left[ \frac{\lambda f_\lambda \text{max}}{W \text{ m}^{-2}} \right] \left[ \frac{D}{\text{kpc}} \right]^2 \times \rho \left( \frac{1}{A T^{(\beta+4)}} \right). \quad (3)$$

Here ρ is the density of the grain material (1,500 kg m⁻³ for amorphous carbon, which we assume here; Jones et al. 2017), and the constants A and β are defined such that the Planck mean absorption efficiency is given by \(Q_{\lambda,\text{am}} = A_\lambda T^{\beta} \), with a being grain radius. For amorphous carbon, A = 58.16 when a is in cm, and β = 0.754 (Evans et al. 2017). Obviously the calculated dust masses can be scaled appropriately if a different density is used for amorphous carbon. For a distance of 3.8 kpc, the dust mass is

$$\frac{M_{\text{dust}}}{M_\odot} = 1.79 \times 10^{12} \left[ \frac{\lambda f_\lambda \text{max}}{10^{-12} W \text{ m}^{-2}} \right] T^{-(\beta+4)} .$$

We use the data in Table 1 to find the dust masses in the final column. The uncertainties in \(\lambda f_\lambda\text{max}\), T and D are propagated into the uncertainties in \(M_{\text{dust}}\); however, there are likely to be substantial uncertainties in both A and ρ, which will make a (possibly) large (and unquantifiable) contribution to the uncertainties in Table 1.

The dependence of \(M_{\text{dust}}\) with time is shown in Fig. 5. We see a clear and sustained increase in the dust mass from the time of formation in late 1997, until it levels off after MJD ~ 55000 (mid-June 2009). In Fig. 5 we include the dust mass determined by Evans et al. (2004) (see Section 3.1.2); although determined using rather different methods, the dust masses deduced here and in Evans et al. are reasonably consistent.

Unlike the case for the dust temperature, there is no physically-based expression for the time-dependence of dust mass. For our present purpose, we fit a function of the form

$$\frac{M_{\text{dust}}}{10^{-10} M_\odot} = \exp \left( K \ln 10 \times \left( 1 - \exp \left[ -\frac{(MJD - MJD_0)}{\tau_0} \right] \right) \right)$$

(4)

to the variation of \(M_{\text{dust}}\) with MJD time, where \(K, \tau_0\) and MJD₀ (as before, the time of onset of mass loss) are constants to be determined. We find that (with \(M_{\text{dust}}\) in M⊙ and MJD in days)

\[ K = 5.30 \pm 0.16 \]
\[ \tau_0 = 1167 \pm 179 \text{ days} \]

MJD₀ = 50846 ± 76

give a passable fit to \(M_{\text{dust}} - t\) (see Fig. 5). These values will depend somewhat on the form of the function assumed, but we might reasonably expect that the value of MJD₀ deduced here is consistent with that deduced from the time-dependence of the dust temperature (49736 ± 491; see above); this does within the uncertainties. A weighted mean gives

MJD₀ = 50820 ± 75.

The mean value of MJD₀ corresponds to 1998 January 7, but the uncertainty allows the onset of the mass ejection that led to dust formation to have occurred between MJD 50745 (1997 November 24) and MJD 50895 (1998 March 23). This is close to the time at which the expansion of the dust shell started, on MJD₀ = 50762 (Evans et al. 2006; Hinkle et al. 2008).

As noted above, the values of \(K, \tau_0\) and MJD₀ must depend on the form of the function assumed for the fitting. Nevertheless, from Equation (4) we might expect that the dust mass approaches \(0.1 (K-10) M_\odot\) as MJD → ∞, i.e. \(M_{\text{dust}}(t \rightarrow \infty) \approx 2.0 \times 10^{-5} M_\odot\). We also note that the dust mass on 2007 May 4 ([MJD 54224.9], close to the time of the VLTI observation of Chesneau et al., 2009, MJD 54280) was \(1.1 \times 10^{-5} M_\odot\) somewhat less than the value given by Chesneau et al.

### Notes

3 The reason for this choice of function is that it results in a manageable time-dependence of the form:

\[ \log_{10}[M_{\text{dust}}] \times (1 - \exp[-t/\tau_0]) \]

4 Eq. (4) leads to the somewhat spurious result that the dust mass = \(10^{-10} M_\odot\) at MJD₀. This of course is a consequence of our choice of function, as described in Footnote 3. This has no effect on our conclusions.
Figure 5. Evolution of Sakurai’s dust shell. (a) blackbody temperature of the dust; (b) $\lambda f_{\lambda}^{\text{max}}$; (c) dust mass; red points are from Evans et al. (2004), scaled to $D = 3.8$ kpc; (d) the bolometric luminosity of the dust. Red curves are fits as described in text. Broken vertical black lines in (a) and (c) are epochs of dust formation as determined separately for dust temperature and dust mass; broken vertical lines in (b) and (d) are the weighted mean of epoch of dust formation as discussed in text. Broken vertical red lines are epoch of zero dust shell angular diameter, as determined by Evans et al. (2006).
value of $M_{\text{dust}}$ at the start of the dust phase results in a ferocious mass-loss rate, in dust alone. This leads us to suspect that the dust masses deduced – at least at the earlier times – do not accurately reflect the dust mass in Sakurai’s environment. This is most likely because the dust emission is not as simple as we have supposed here, and is unlikely to be optically thin at the shortest wavelengths ($\lesssim 5 \mu m$), particularly after mid-1998 when the visual light curve had entered the very deep minimum. Tyne et al. (2002) concluded that the visual optical depth at these times is $\sim 9$, leading to an optical depth $\sim 2$ at $2.2 \mu m$ for any plausible extinction law. It is possible that the dust mass is underestimated at the early times, when the UKIRT observations were carried out.

We also note that determining the mass of circumstellar material, or the mass-loss rate, from the dust parameters by assuming a specific gas-to-dust ratio (see e.g. Tyne et al. 2002) will almost certainly lead to erroneous values because the gas-to-dust ratio is (a) unknown and (b) almost certainly variable.

6.4 The emitted power

The power emitted by the dust (see Fig. 5) seems to rise sharply after dust condensation began, reaching a maximum around MJD 51350, and then declining (see Fig. 5). There appears to be a sharp peak in $L_{\text{dust}}$ at around MJD 52378. However, as noted above (Section 6.3), it is very likely that the dust is optically thick at the shorter IR wavelengths at the earliest times so that the $L_{\text{dust}}$ at these times is underestimated. This accentuates the sharpness of the peak in luminosity.

Although the dust shell is optically thick at visible wavelengths – so that the dust shell could act as a “calorimeter” that monitors the luminosity of the (invisible) central star – we should be cautious of concluding anything about the behaviour of the central star from these data. This is because interferometric observations (Chesneau et al. 2009) show that the dust is distributed in a torus rather than completely enveloping the star, so that an unknown (and almost certainly variable) fraction of the star’s radiation “leaks out” of the dust shell, along the axis of the torus and therefore away from our line of sight. The luminosity values in Table 1 – in which the errors include the uncertainties in $[\lambda f_{\lambda}]_{\text{max}}$ and $D$ – are therefore lower limits on the stellar luminosity, $L_{\star}$: $L_{\text{dust}} = \phi L_{\star}$, where $\phi \leq 1$.

However, if we suppose that the same fraction of the star’s light leaks out over the period 2005–2016, then the relative changes in the $L_{\text{dust}}$ values in Table 1 might reflect the relative changes in the actual stellar luminosity. The $L_{\text{dust}}$ values in the table decline from $\sim 16,000 L_{\odot}$ to $\sim 3,000 L_{\odot}$ over an 11.25-year period. Hajduk et al. (2005) have presented an evolutionary track for Sakurai. This suggests that the bolometric luminosity is expected to decrease from $\log[L_{\odot}/L_{\odot}] \sim 4.2$ to $\log[L_{\odot}/L_{\odot}] \sim 4.1$ over a similar period, compared with a decline in $L_{\text{dust}}$ from $\log[L_{\text{dust}}/L_{\odot}] = 4.21$ to $\log[L_{\text{dust}}/L_{\odot}] = 3.48$: the observed decline is by a factor $\sim 5.4$, compared to the predicted decline of $\sim 1.25$. However for reasons outlined above, our deduced dust luminosities are almost certainly lower limits so comparison with stellar evolution models should not be taken too far.

6.5 A fresh ejection event after 2008 October

Apart from a contribution from the stellar photosphere at the earliest times (see Fig. 2), the SED of the dust shell is generally well represented by a simple blackbody from 1999 to 2007. In the latest (SOFIA FORCAST) data, however, while the data for $\lambda \gtrsim 10 \mu m$ are well described by a single blackbody, there appears to be an excess at the shorter ($\lesssim 10 \mu m$) wavelengths (see Fig. 6; note that it is the properties of the cooler dust that are tabulated in Table 1 and illustrated in Fig. 5). Furthermore, both sets of SOFIA data were obtained within days of the $K_s$ and NeoWISE data, and latter datasets confirm the excess seen by SOFIA (see Fig. 3).

We also note that, in addition to the $\lesssim 10 \mu m$ excess, there might be a small $K_s$ band excess in the latest SEDs (see Fig. 6), so there might be a small stellar contribution to the $K_s$ flux (see Section 5.2). This suggests that the stellar photosphere might be finally beginning to peer through the gloom. However the contribution can only be a minor one, and there can be no doubt that the great majority of this late $\lesssim 10 \mu m$ excess is due primarily to emission by dust.

Using the same procedure as in Section 6.3, and again assuming amorphous carbon, we determine the mass and temperature of the dust responsible for the near-IR excess. We find that the mass and temperature of the dust in 2014 March was $2.6\pm0.4 \times 10^{-8} M_{\odot}$ and $437\pm3$ K respectively; in 2016 July these parameters had the values $5.7\pm1.0 \times 10^{-8} M_{\odot}$ and $411\pm6$ K respectively.

The substantial rise in the $K_s$–band flux from 2009 – 2017 (Fig. 3), coupled with the rise in the NeoWISE Band W1 and W2 fluxes between 2010 and 2016 (Section 5.4 and Fig. 3), the apparent increase in dust mass and the cooling of the “new” dust between 2010 and 2014–16, all point to renewed, and possibly substantial, mass-loss since $\sim 2008$. The constancy of the molecular column densities from 2005 April – 2008 October (see Section 8 below) suggests that the onset of this most recent mass-loss episode must have occurred after 2008 October.

The mass of the fresh dust is some three orders of magnitude smaller than that of the dust formed in the first mass-loss episode (cf. Table 1). However if the fresh dust-formation episode follows the same pattern as the earlier event, it does not augur well for our prospects of seeing the stellar photosphere any time soon.

7 POSSIBLE DUST FEATURES

We consider here the possibility that there might be dust features, either in emission or in absorption in the mid-IR spectra of Sakurai.

In Fig. 7 (left panel) we show Spitzer IRS spectra for three epochs, together with a 250 K blackbody curve for comparison. The latter is obviously smooth, whereas the Spitzer spectra are not. There are weak inflections in the data that hint at the presence of features in either absorption or emission. The putative features are too broad to be atomic/ionic, and do not have the profiles expected of molecular features. Also in Fig. 7 (right panel) the same data are displayed as $f_{\nu}/f_{\nu}(T)$, where $T$ is the temperature of the best fitting blackbody from Table 1, to highlight these features (unfortunately the SOFIA data are too noisy in this spectral region to confirm the presence of the features).

While it might be possible to choose a better continuum to bring out the features, it is clear that the overall spectral shape is the same for all three epochs in Fig. 7. We consider that they are weak absorption features, with maximum absorption at $\sim 6.3 \mu m$ and $\gtrsim 7.5 \mu m$, and a weaker feature longward of $\sim 7 \mu m$. A plausible identification is with hydrogenated amorphous carbon (HAC), and specifically nitrogenated HAC (see below).

García-Hernández, Kameswara Rao & Lambert (2013) have identified similar (weak) features in Spitzer IRS spectra of RCB stars. They find that these features are somewhat different in the “hydrogen-rich” RCB stars and in the more common “hydrogen deficient” RCB stars. The former have features at $\sim 6.27 \mu m$, $\sim 6.6 \mu m$, $\sim 7.02 \mu m$ and $\sim 7.7 \mu m$, rather similar to those we identify in Sakurai.

Laser vapourisation of graphite in a H$_2$/N$_2$ gas mixture gives rise to features in the 6.0–6.5 $\mu m$ range and a weaker feature at $\sim 7.0 \mu m$, together with broad absorption going from $\sim 7.5 \mu m$ to longer wavelengths (Grishko & Duley 2002), just as we see in...
Dust and molecules around Sakurai’s Object

1.0E-15
3.0E-15
1.0E-14
3.0E-14
1.0E-13
3.0E-13
1.0E-12
3.0E-12

Figure 6. Evidence for formation of fresh dust. The SOFIA FORCAST data for both 2014 March 25 and 2016 July 11 show an excess relative to the fitted blackbody at wavelengths $\lesssim 10 \mu m$. Black points are near-contemporaneous $K_s$ and NeoWISE photometry. Temperatures of the blackbodies, which are fitted separately to the long wavelength data and the near-IR excess, are indicated. See text for details. The apparent “feature” just short of $10 \mu m$ in the SOFIA data is the result of incomplete removal of telluric ozone.

Figure 7. Left: Spitzer spectra of Sakurai in the region 5.6–7.4 $\mu m$ for (a) 2005-04-15 (283.5 K), (b) 2007-05-04 (225.5 K), (c) 2007-10-15 (217.0 K). A 250 K blackbody, arbitrarily normalised, is shown for comparison. Right: Data from left panel, rectified by fitted blackbodies as discussed in text, to bring out the weak features; labelling of curves is as per the left panel.

Sakurai. As we discuss in Section 8 below, we see HCN, HNC and other small hydrocarbon molecules in absorption against the dust shell. Given that there have been at least two dust ejection events in the past $\sim 20$ years (see Section 6.5), the absorbing material may arise in material from an even earlier ejection event. The possible nitrogenation of the HAC also seems consistent with the presence of N-bearing molecules.

The observational (García-Hernández et al. 2013) and laboratory evidence (Grishko & Duley 2002) seem therefore to point to the existence of a cooler, hydrogen-rich carbon dust shell outside the dust shell that is prominent in the near- and mid-IR.

8 MOLECULAR ABSORPTION

Evans et al. (2006) reported the detection of a number of small hydrocarbon molecules in the Spitzer spectrum of Sakurai; these are listed in Table 4 and illustrated in Fig. 8. To the list in Evans et al. we have added a number of new identifications, which are further discussed below.

In Evans et al. (2006) we used a simple model to estimate the column densities and temperatures of the $^{12}$HCN, $^{13}$CN and $^{2}$H$_2$ molecules, and we reprise this exercise here. We determine the continuum in the region of each feature by fitting a linear function $F_\nu (Jy) = a_0 + a_1 \lambda (\mu m)$, whence the wavelength-dependence of the optical depth $\tau$ is obtained. The typical uncertainty in $\tau$...
Table 5. Column densities of HCN isotopologues and C$_2$H$_2$. Assumed gas temperature $T = 400$ K.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>MJD</th>
<th>H$^{12}$CN (10$^{17}$ cm$^{-2}$)</th>
<th>H$^{13}$CN (10$^{18}$ cm$^{-2}$)</th>
<th>C$_2$H$_2$ (10$^{18}$ cm$^{-2}$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2005-04-15</td>
<td>53475.3</td>
<td>1.78$^{+0.22}_{-0.19}$</td>
<td>0.20$^{+0.05}_{-0.04}$</td>
<td>1.15$^{+0.30}_{-0.19}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007-05-04</td>
<td>54224.9</td>
<td>1.86$^{+0.13}_{-0.20}$</td>
<td>0.31$^{+0.06}_{-0.04}$</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007-10-15</td>
<td>54388</td>
<td>1.91$^{+0.23}_{-0.28}$</td>
<td>0.35$^{+0.15}_{-0.10}$</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008-04-08</td>
<td>54564</td>
<td>1.62$^{+0.20}_{-0.21}$</td>
<td>0.25$^{+0.04}_{-0.04}$</td>
<td>0.91$^{+0.18}_{-0.19}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008-10-18</td>
<td>54757.1</td>
<td>1.88$^{+0.30}_{-0.30}$</td>
<td>0.36$^{+0.07}_{-0.13}$</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^\dagger$From the HCN isotopologues.

Figure 8. Spitzer spectrum showing absorption by small hydrocarbon molecules in Sakurai on 2005 April 15. Data de-reddened as described in text.

Figure 9. Fit of slab model as described in the text to H$^{12}$CN, H$^{13}$CN and C$_2$H$_2$ for the 2005 April 15 Spitzer spectrum. Black curve, optical depth derived as described in text; red curve, fit with parameters in Table 5.

is ±0.02, as determined by the rms value of the “zero” $\tau$ in the 13–15 µm range. The optical depth is fitted assuming that the absorbing gas is homogeneous and isothermal, in thermodynamic equilibrium, and located in a plane-parallel slab in front of the dust. Individual transitions are assumed to have intrinsic widths determined by the velocity widths of the HCN isotopologues measured by Tafoya et al. (2017) (≈ 300 km s$^{-1}$).

8.1 HCN

8.1.1 The $^{12}$C/$^{13}$C ratio

Using the strong H$^{12}$CN feature at 14.03 µm in the Spitzer data, we find that the temperature is not particularly well constrained, with values lying between 350 K and 450 K; this is a little lower than that determined by Evans et al. (2006, ≃ 400 – 500 K).

We attribute this difference to two factors: (a) the greater line width assumed here (≈ 10$^{-3}$λ) compared to our previous work – leading to a lower temperature, and (b) the fact that, in the present work, we use spectra extracted in a uniform way from the CASSIS archive, whereas in Evans et al. the data were reduced "manually" using the SPICE (2005) software package.

Tafoya et al. (2017) detected the $J = 4 \rightarrow 3$ and $1 \rightarrow 0$ HCN rotational transitions in Sakurai, and deduced a rotational temperature 13 ± 1 K. They attributed the difference between their value and that deduced by Evans et al. (2006) to the fact that the gas they detected is observed over the entire circumstellar region, including cooler, more diffuse gas, whereas the Spitzer observations sampled hotter, denser, gas close to the dust shell. Further, the deduced gas temperature is greater than the corresponding temperature of the dust against which the features are seen in absorption. Clearly the properties of the dust and gas in Sakurai’s environment are far more complex than we have assumed here.

For our present purposes we take a temperature of 400 K for the molecular gas, and the fit for 2005 April 15 is shown in Fig. 9. For each date, we have determined the corresponding column density for both H$^{12}$CN and H$^{13}$CN (see Table 5). The variation of the absorbing column density with time, for both isotopologues, is shown in Fig. 10.

For the simple spherically-symmetric case, the column density $N$ is related to the mass-loss rate $\dot{M}$ by

$$N = \frac{\dot{M}}{4\pi v\mu R_1} \left(1 - \frac{R_1}{R_\ast}\right)$$

where $v$ is the wind speed, $\mu$ is the mean molecular mass and $R_1$ is the radius at the base of the wind. Taking the stellar luminosity $L_\ast$ and temperature $T_\ast$ from Hajduk et al. (2005) to estimate the stellar radius $R_\ast$, and assuming $R_1 \approx R_\ast$, we get $R_1 \approx 2.3 \times 10^9$ m. With a wind speed of 300 km s$^{-1}$ (Tafoya et al. 2017) for $t \sim 20$ yr, the factor in brackets is close to unity, so that the column density is simply proportional to $\dot{M}$. There is no
compelling evidence for any variation of the column density with time, suggesting that the mass-loss rate as measured by HCN was \( \sim \) constant over the period 2005 April to 2008 October. The mean column density in H\(^{13}\)CN is \( 1.8 \times 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-2} \), a little larger than that found by Evans et al. (2006).

The ratio of the H\(^{12}\)CN and H\(^{13}\)CN column densities gives an estimate of the \(^{12}\)C/:\(^{13}\)C ratio. It is evident from Fig. 10 that – as reported by numerous authors (Pavlenko et al. 2004; Evans et al. 2006; Worters et al. 2009; Tafoya et al. 2017) – the \(^{12}\)C/:\(^{13}\)C ratio is very low. A mean of the values in Table 5 gives \(^{12}\)C/:\(^{13}\)C = 6.4 ± 0.7, about 1/14 of the solar value.

As already noted (Section 2) we can rule out a progenitor with mass less than 1.25 \( M_\odot \) for Sakurai. The envelope mass before the VLTP is given as a function of progenitor mass by Miller Bertolami (2016); his Figure 7 implies that the envelope on Sakurai’s progenitor had mass at most \( \sim 1.5 \times 10^{-4} M_\odot \), which would likely have resulted in \( \sim 2 \times 10^{-3} M_\odot \) of \(^{13}\)C. While some of the \(^{13}\)C would have been further processed, the mass of \(^{13}\)C alone seems consistent with the mass of carbon dust we have deduced.

8.2 C\(_2\)H\(_2\)

The isotopologues of acetylene display numerous ro-vibrational bands around 13 \( \mu \text{m} \) (see Cernicharo et al. 1999, especially their Figure 3, for details). We see these in absorption in two Spitzer IRS spectra, namely those obtained on 2005 April 15 (discussed in Evans et al. 2006) and 2008 April 8 (see Fig. 8); the Spitzer IRS spectra obtained on other dates are not of sufficient quality around 13 \( \mu \text{m} \) to reveal these features.

We have modelled these, for both \(^{12}\)C\(_2\)H\(_2\) and \(^{13}\)C\(_2\)H\(_2\), using molecular data from the High Resolution Transmission molecular absorption database (HITRAN; Gamache, Hawkins & Rothman 1990; Rothman et al. 1998); the two isotopologues are not resolved in our data. We again assume a gas temperature of 400 K. We also assume that the relative abundance of the two isotopologues is determined simply by the \(^{12}\)C/:\(^{13}\)C ratio (6.4) determined from the HCN data, although this is likely to be an over-simplification.

The resulting column densities for C\(_2\)H\(_2\) are given in Table 5, and the fit for 2005 April 15 is included in Fig. 9. There is no evidence that the C\(_2\)H\(_2\) column density varied between 2005 April and 2008 October, and the mean column density is \( 1.0(\pm 0.3) \times 10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-2} \). This value is similar to that given in Evans et al. (2006).

8.3 Other features

In addition to HCN (Section 8.1) we report here the secure identification of the fundamental transition of hydrogen isocyanide (HNC) at 21.61 \( \mu \text{m} \) (Harris, Polansky & Tennyson 2002). HNC is an isomer of HCN but lies high in energy \( (\sim 3,700 \text{ eV}) \) above HCN. The high abundance of HNC in interstellar clouds is generally attributed to the electron recombination with HCNH\(^+\) (Graninger et al. 2014). Its presence in Sakurai could be an indication of ion-molecule chemistry.

In addition to the above molecular features, there are two weak features at 30.51 \( \mu \text{m} \) and 30.88 \( \mu \text{m} \), which we tentatively identify with methyl acetylene (aka propyne; CH\(_2\)CH\(_3\)) and the radical C\(_2\)N respectively. If correct, we believe that this is the first astrophysical observation of methyl acetylene in the IR. It has been observed in young \( (\lesssim 10^3 \text{ yr}) \) PNe at millimetre wavelengths (see e.g. Schmidt & Ziurys 2019, and references therein), suggesting an origin in the Sakurai environment resulting from a recent mass-loss episode. We again noted the absence of such features to be consistent with the presence of methyl acetylene in the flux scale between Spitzer grisms. However the features in Table 4 and Fig. 8 do not appear in the SOFIA spectra, either because they have weakened to the extent that they are no longer detectable, or because they fall in spectral gaps between wavelength ranges covered by the SOFIA FORCAST grism.

Methyl acetylene – in which one of the H atoms in acetylene is replaced by CH\(_3\) – is commonly seen in dense interstellar molecular clouds, for which it is sometimes used as a thermometer (e.g. Asken et al. 1984; Kuiper et al. 1984). Hickson, Wakelam & Loison (2016) have argued that the formation of methyl acetylene...
is problematic in the gas phase (at least in molecular cloud and interstellar medium environments), and that it may most easily form via surface hydrogenation of \( \text{C}_3 \) on grain surfaces. Such a process must have occurred in the hydrogen-rich material ejected by Sakurai before its VLTP phase.

The formation of \( \text{C}_2 \text{~N} \) has been discussed – in the context of both interstellar and circumstellar environments – by Mebel & Kaiser (2002), who suggest it might be formed via the route:

\[
\text{C} + \text{HCN} \rightarrow \text{C}_2\text{~N} + \text{H}.
\]

Mebel & Kaiser note that this reaction is unlikely to proceed in the low temperatures in interstellar space but is likely to occur in warmer circumstellar environments. In view of the presence of HCN in Sakurai’s environment, the presence of \( \text{C}_2 \text{~N} \) is not unexpected (although it was not detected in the archetypical carbon star IRC+10216 by Fuchs et al. 2004).

\section{9 CONCLUSIONS}

We have presented a 20-year overview of the IR development of V4334 Sgr (Sakurai’s Object), highlighting the properties of the dust, and the evolution of the molecular absorption. Our principal findings and conclusions are as follows:

(i) the observable dust around Sakurai has cooled from \( \sim 1,200 \text{~K} \) in 1998 to \( \sim 180 \text{~K} \) in 2016, and some \( 2 \times 10^{-7} \text{~M}_\odot \) of amorphous carbon dust has formed between the commencement of the first dust phase in 1997 and the last SOFIA observation in 2016;

(ii) there is evidence, in the form of dust that is hotter than that ejected between 1998 and 2008, for a more recent dust ejection event, which commenced after 2008 October;

(iii) we have identified a number of small hydrocarbon and other molecules in absorption against the dust shell;

(iv) we find no significant variation in the column densities of HCN and \( \text{C}_2\text{H}_2 \) between 2005 April and 2008 October;

(v) we find possible evidence for absorption by nitrogenated HAC;

(vi) the \( ^{12}\text{C}/^{13}\text{C} \) ratio, based on the column densities of the HCN isotopologues, is found to be \( 6.4 \pm 0.7 \), which is 14 times smaller than the solar value, and consistent with Sakurai being a VLTP object.

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APPENDIX A: THE OBSERVED FLUX

For a blackbody emitter having temperature $T$, and flux density

$$f_\lambda = \frac{F}{\lambda^5} \frac{1}{\exp(B/\lambda) - 1},$$

where $F$ and $B = hc/kT$ are constants, it is trivially shown that the wavelength $\lambda_m$ at which $[\lambda f_\lambda]$ is a maximum is $\lambda_m = B/\alpha$; here $\alpha$ ($\simeq 3.9207\ldots$) is the solution of the transcendental equation

$$4(1 - e^{-\alpha}) = \alpha.$$

Thus

$$[\lambda f_\lambda]_{\text{max}} = F \left(\frac{\alpha}{B}\right)^4 \frac{1}{e^\alpha - 1},$$

as used in Section 6.

Furthermore, the total observed flux $f$ for a blackbody source of radius $R$ and distance $D$, in the absence of an intervening medium, is

$$f = \int_0^{\infty} f_\lambda d\lambda = \frac{\pi R^2 \sigma T^4}{D^2}, \quad (A1)$$

For a blackbody, $f$ is related to $[\lambda f_\lambda]_{\text{max}}$ by:

$$f = \frac{\pi^4}{15} [\lambda f_\lambda]_{\text{max}} \left(\frac{e^\alpha - 1}{\alpha^4}\right) \simeq 1.359 \cdots [\lambda f_\lambda]_{\text{max}}, \quad (A2)$$

where $\sigma$ is the Stefan-Boltzmann constant, as used in Section 6.

Finally, the “blackbody angular diameter” $\theta_{\text{BB}}$ is given by

$$\theta_{\text{BB}} = \frac{2R}{D} = \frac{2.331}{\sigma^{1/2} T^2} [\lambda f_\lambda]_{\text{max}}^{1/2}$$

so that

$$\theta_{\text{BB}} = 2.02 \times 10^9 [\lambda f_\lambda]_{\text{max}}^{1/2} T^{-2},$$

where $\theta_{\text{BB}}$ is in arcsec and $[\lambda f_\lambda]_{\text{max}}$ is in W m$^{-2}$.

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