

Exoplanet Discovery Methods

(1) Direct imaging

Today: Star Wobbles

(2) Astrometry → position

(3) Radial velocity → velocity

Later:

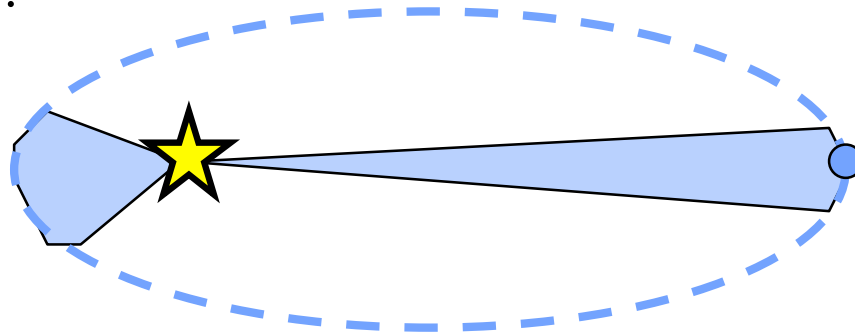
(4) Transits

(5) Gravitational microlensing

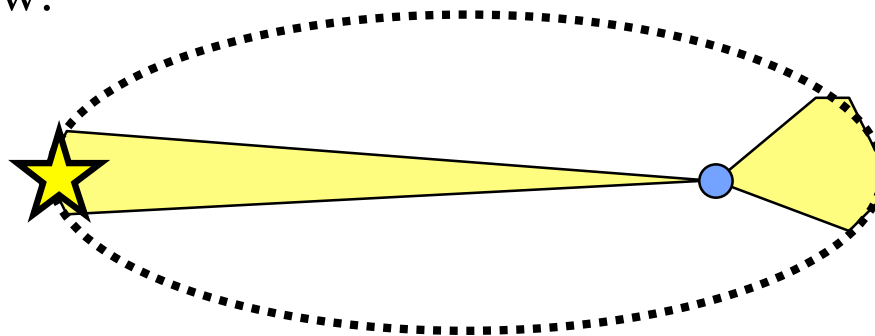
(6) Pulsar timing

Kepler Orbits

Star's view:



Planet's view:



Inertial Frame:



Kepler 1: Planet orbit is an *ellipse with star at one focus* (Newton showed this is due to gravity's inverse-square law).

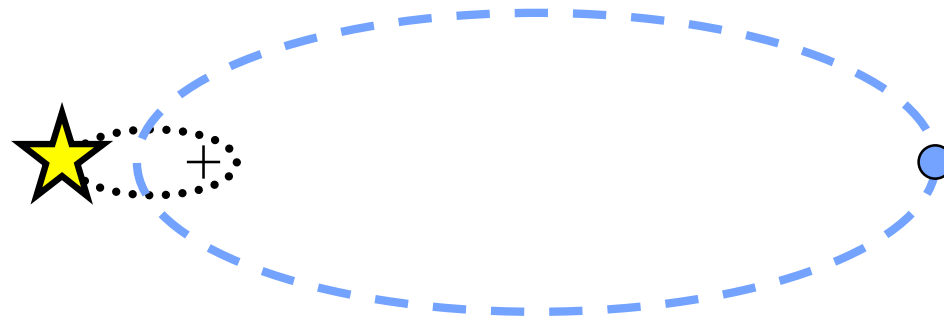
Kepler 2: Planet sweeps out *equal area in equal time* (angular momentum conservation).

Planet at the focus.

Star sweeps equal area in equal time

Star and planet both orbit around the *centre of mass*.

Kepler Orbits



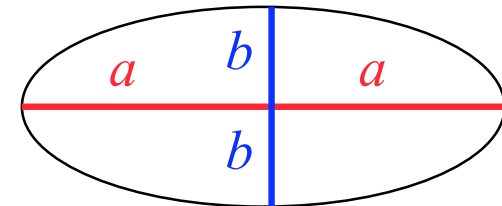
$$M = M_* + m_p = \text{total mass}$$

$$a = a_p + a_* = \text{semi-major axis}$$

$$a_p m_p = a_* M_* = a M \quad \text{Centre of Mass}$$

$$P = \text{orbit period}$$

$$a^3 = G M \left(\frac{P}{2\pi} \right)^2 \quad \text{Kepler's 3rd Law}$$



$$e \equiv \frac{a - b}{a} = \text{eccentricity} \quad 0 = \text{circular} \quad 1 = \text{parabolic}$$

Astrometry

- Look for a periodic “wobble” in the *angular position* of host star
- Light from the star+planet is dominated by star
- Measure star’s motion in the plane of the sky due to the orbiting planet
- Must correct measurements for *parallax* and *proper motion* of star
- *Doppler* (radial velocity) more sensitive to planets *close to the star*
- *Astrometry* more sensitive to planets *far from the star*

Stellar wobble: Star and planet orbit around centre of mass.

Radius of star’s orbit scales with planet’s mass:

$$\frac{a_*}{a} = \frac{m_p}{M_* + m_p} \qquad \frac{a_p}{a} = \frac{M_*}{M_* + m_p}$$

Angular displacement for a star at distance d :

$$\Delta\theta = \frac{a_*}{d} \approx \left(\frac{m_p}{M_*} \right) \left(\frac{a}{d} \right)$$

(Assumes small angles and $m_p \ll M_*$)

Scaling to Jupiter and the Sun, this gives:

$$\Delta\theta \approx 0.5 \left(\frac{m_p}{m_J} \right) \left(\frac{M_*}{M_{\text{sun}}} \right)^{-1} \left(\frac{a}{5\text{AU}} \right) \left(\frac{d}{10\text{pc}} \right)^{-1} \text{ mas}$$

Note:

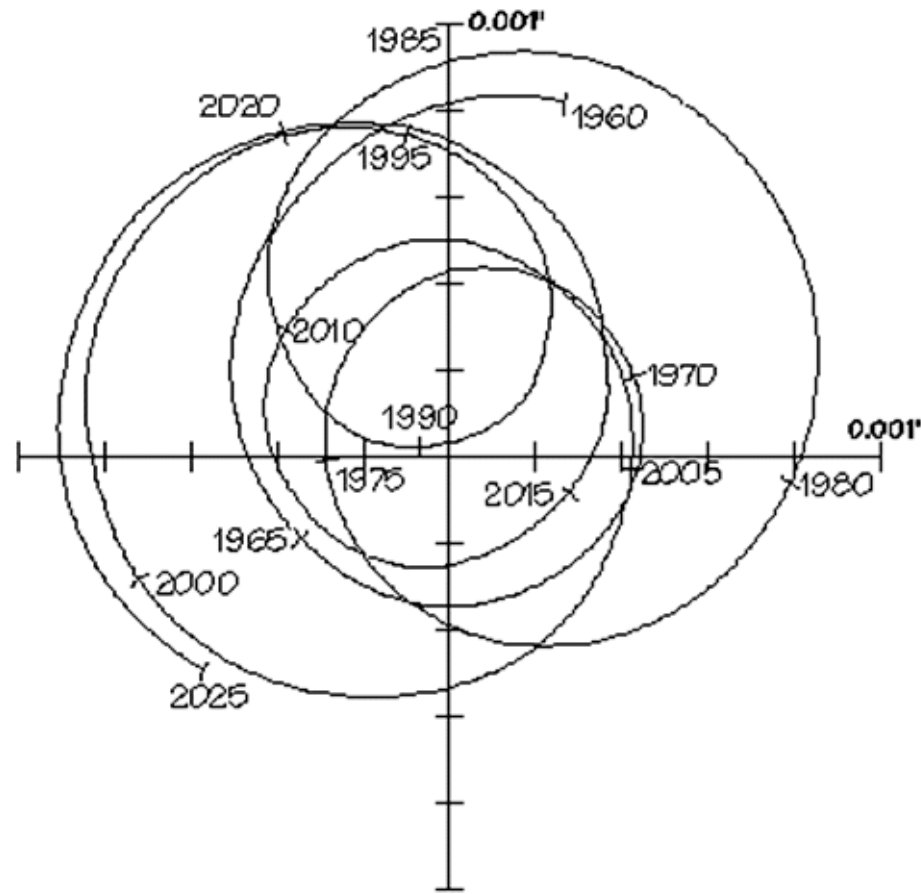
- Units are milliarcseconds -> very small effect
 - Amplitude increases at **large orbital separation, a**
 - Amplitude decreases with distance to star d .
-
- Detecting planets at large orbital radii requires a **long search time**, comparable to the orbital period.

$$\frac{P}{\text{yr}} = \left(\frac{M_*}{M_{\text{sun}}} \right)^{-1/2} \left(\frac{a}{\text{AU}} \right)^{2/3}$$

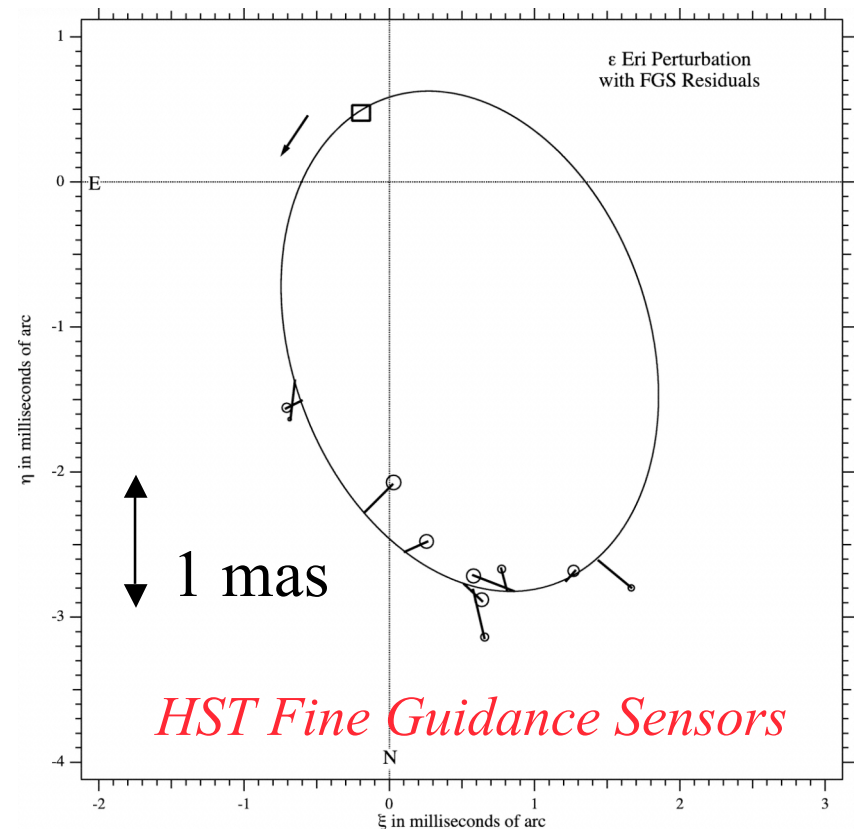
Epsilon Eridani

Data obtained 1980-2006
to track the orbit

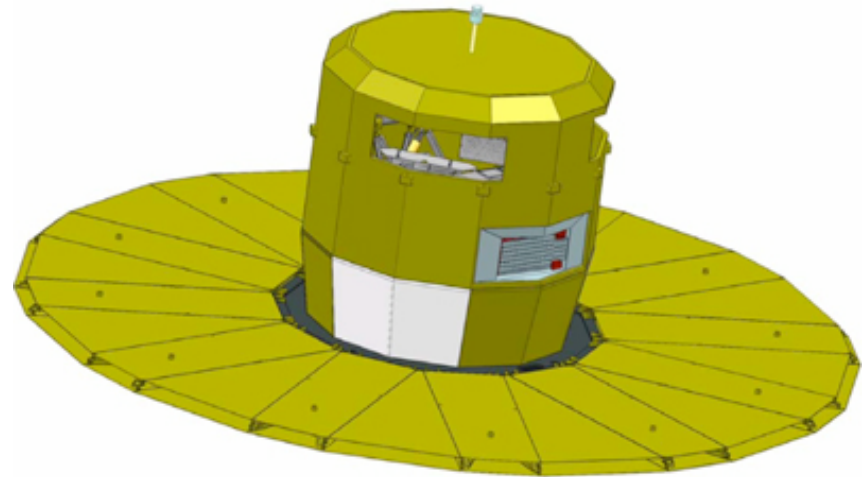
$$P = 6.9 \text{ yr}, m_p = 1.55 M_J$$



The wobble of the Sun's projected position due to the influence of all the planets as seen from 10 pc



Future Astrometric Experiments



- PRIMA on VLT Interferometer (Paranal, Chile)
- ESA's **GAIA** (2011 launch) and NASA's SIM (not yet funded)
- Planned astrometric errors *~10 micro-arcsecond*
- May detect planets of a few Earth masses at 1 AU around nearby stars

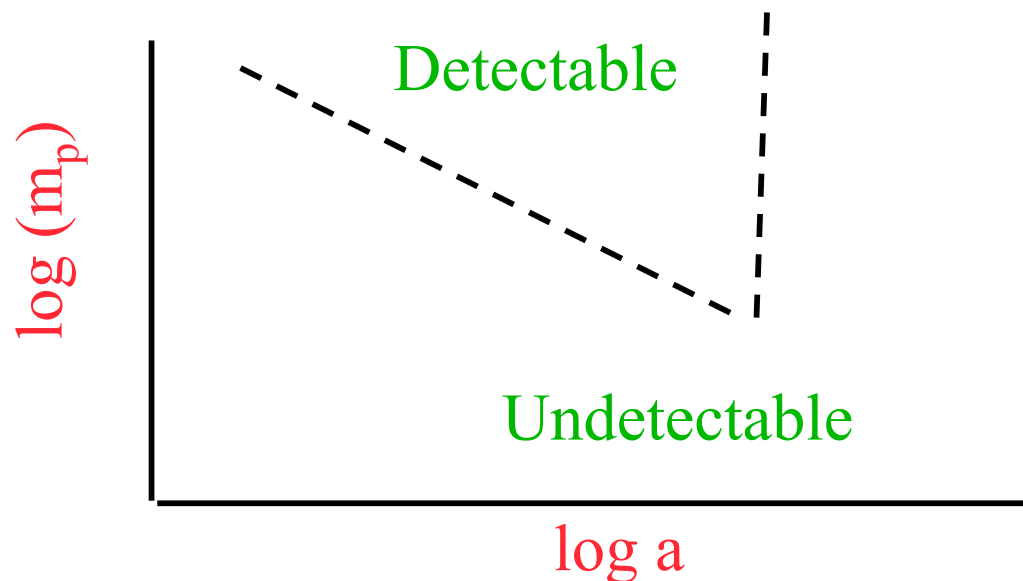
Astrometry Selection Function

Need to observe (most of) a full orbit of the planet:

No discovery for planets with $P > P_{\text{survey}}$

For $P < P_{\text{survey}}$, planet detection requires a star wobble several times larger than the accuracy of the measurements. \implies minimum detectable planet mass.

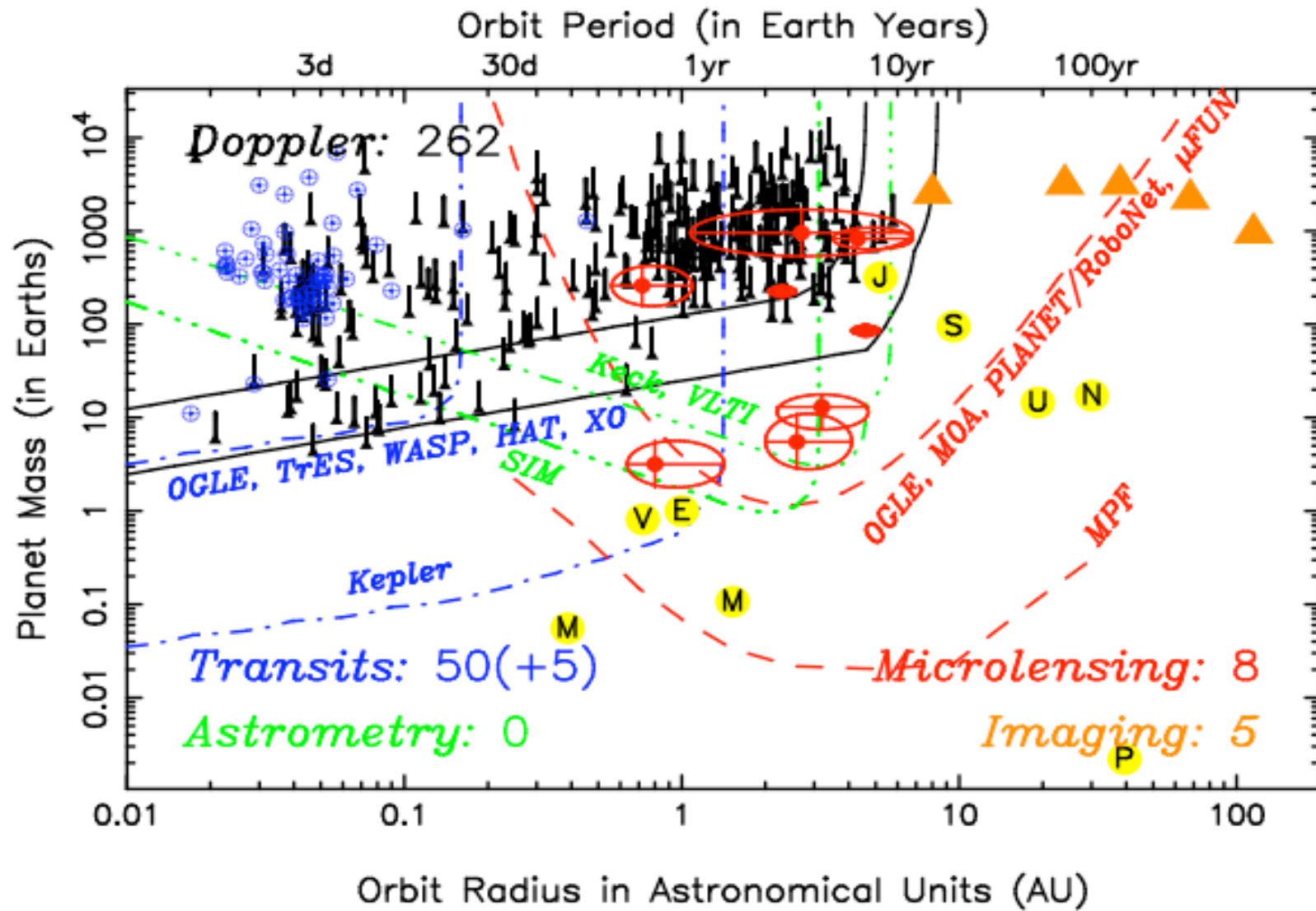
Planet mass sensitivity as a function of orbital separation



$$\Delta\theta = \frac{a_*}{d} \approx \left(\frac{m_p}{M_*} \right) \left(\frac{a}{d} \right)$$

$$m_p \propto a^{-1}$$

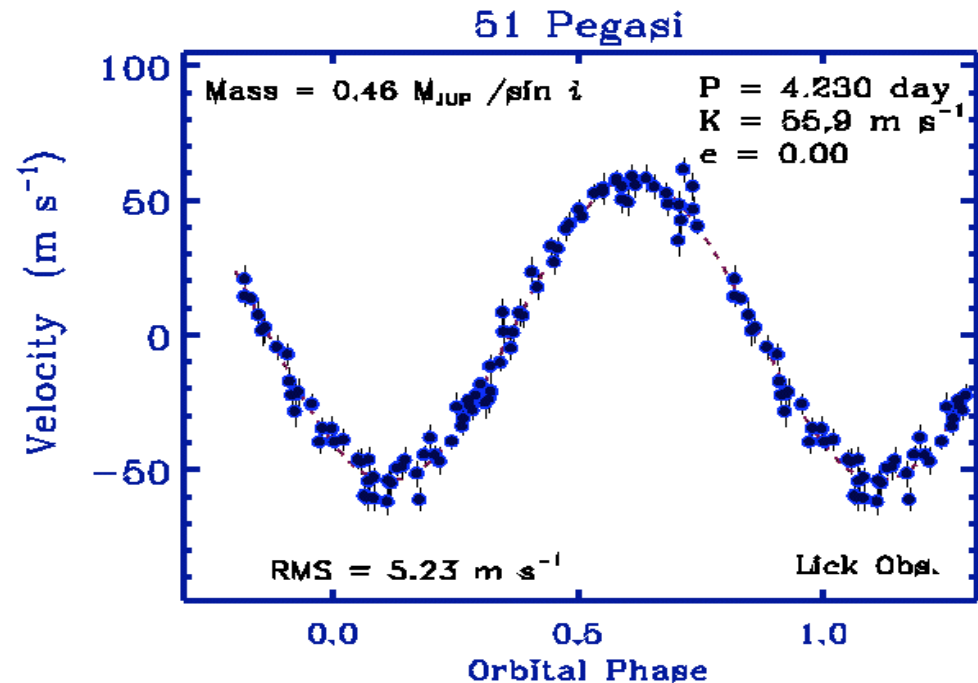
Exoplanets: $50+262+8+5=325$ (Mar 2009)



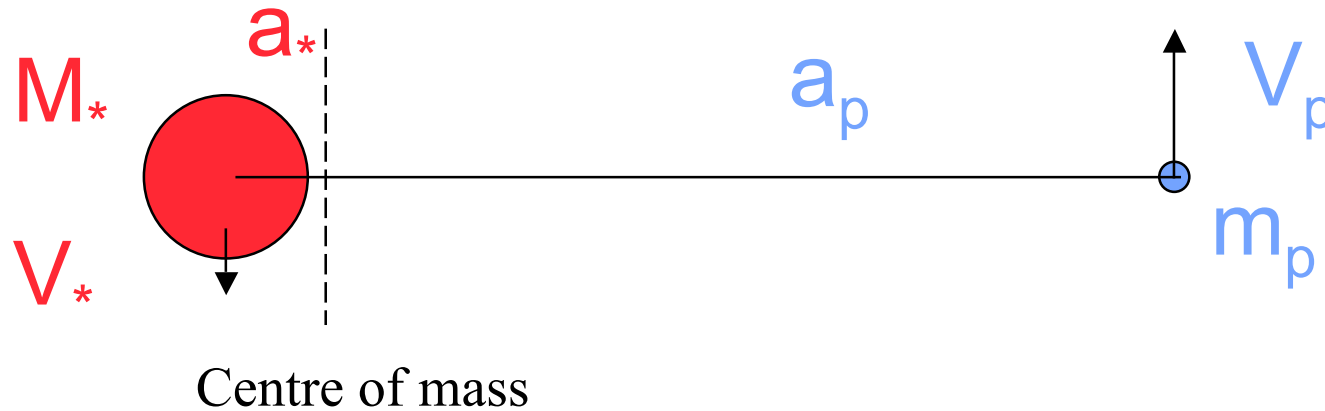
Doppler Wobbles: Radial Velocity

Periodic variations in the Radial Velocity of the Host Star

- Most successful method:
>300 planets detected
- The first planet around a normal star, 51 Peg, was detected by doppler wobbles in 1995.
- Doppler shift of starlight caused by the star orbiting the center of mass with 1 or more orbiting planets



Star's Orbit Velocity



Consider first a circular orbit.

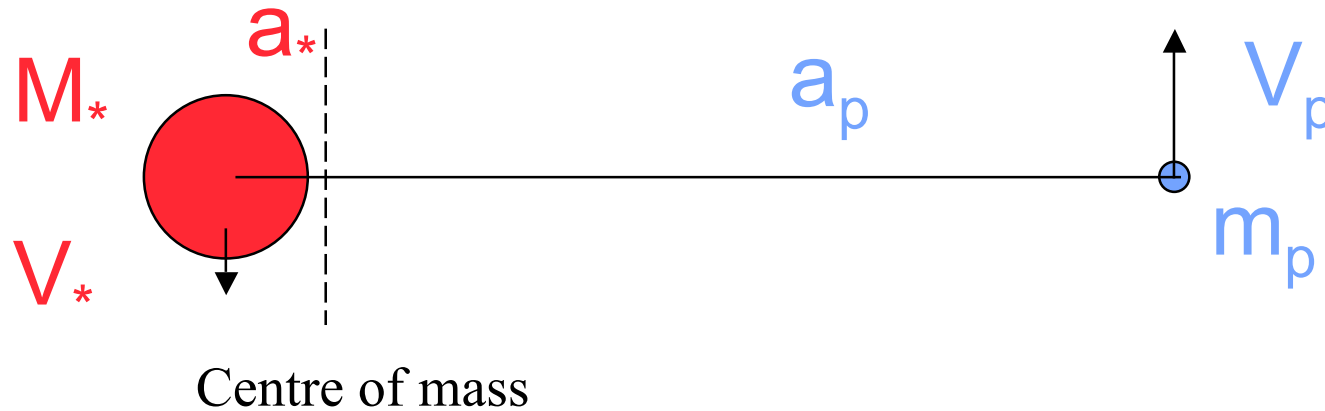
$$\text{Velocities: } V_* = (2\pi a_*) / P \quad V_p = (2\pi a_p) / P$$

$$\text{Conservation of momentum: } M_* V_* = m_p V_p \quad \text{thus} \quad M_* a_* = m_p a_p$$

$$\text{Kepler's 3rd Law: } a^3 = G M (P / 2\pi)^2 \quad M = M_* + m_p$$

$$V_* = \frac{2\pi a_*}{P} = \frac{2\pi m_p}{P M} a = \frac{2\pi m_p}{P M} \left(G M \left(\frac{P}{2\pi} \right)^2 \right)^{1/3} = m_p \left(\frac{2\pi G}{P M^2} \right)^{1/3}$$

Star's Orbit Velocity



Kepler's law applies for $V =$ relative velocity, $M =$ total mass

$$\frac{V^2}{a} = \frac{GM}{a^2} \Rightarrow V = \left(\frac{GM}{a} \right)^{1/2} = \frac{2\pi a}{P} \quad M \equiv M_* + m_p$$

$$V_* = \frac{a_*}{a} V = \frac{m_p}{M} \left(\frac{GM}{a} \right)^{1/2} = m_p \left(\frac{G}{aM} \right)^{1/2}$$

Star's centrifugal acceleration due to planet's gravity:

$$\frac{V_*^2}{a_*} = \frac{Gm_p}{a^2} \Rightarrow V_* = \left(\frac{Gm_p}{a^2} a_* \right)^{1/2} = \left(\frac{Gm_p}{a^2} \left(\frac{am_p}{M} \right) \right)^{1/2} = m_p \left(\frac{G}{aM} \right)^{1/2}$$

Star's Orbit Velocity

From Kepler's Law and $a_* M_* = a_p m_p$ (center of mass),
The star's velocity is:

$$V_* \approx \left(\frac{m_p}{M} \right) \sqrt{\frac{GM}{a}} \quad M \equiv M_* + m_p \approx M_*$$

Star's velocity scales with planet's mass.

Hot Jupiter ($P = 5$ days) orbiting a $1 M_{\text{sun}}$ star: 125 m/s

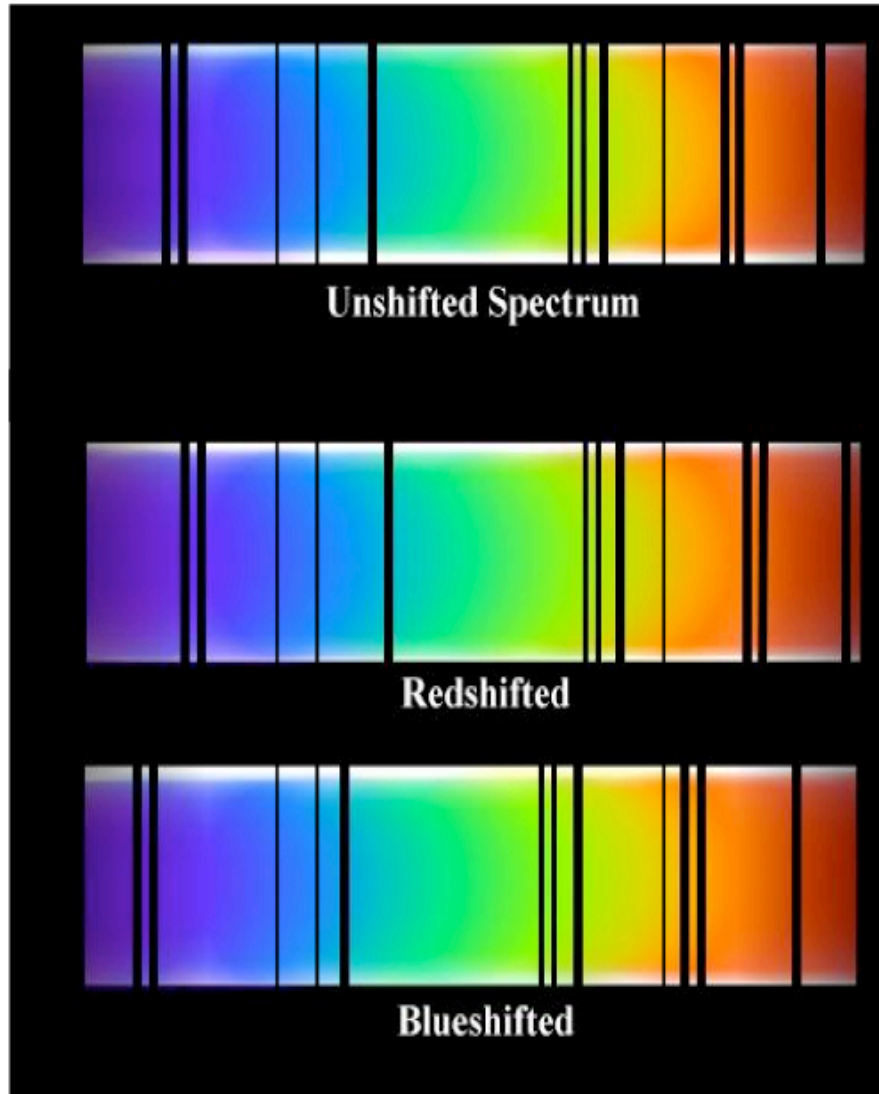
Jupiter orbiting the Sun: 12.5 m/s

Sun due to Earth: 0.1 m/s

Thermal velocity width of spectral lines $\sim 10 \text{ km/s } (T/10^4\text{K})^{1/2}$

Special techniques and spectrographs needed to measure such tiny radial velocity shifts stably over many years.

Spectra of Stars



Key Technology:

Iodine Gas Cell



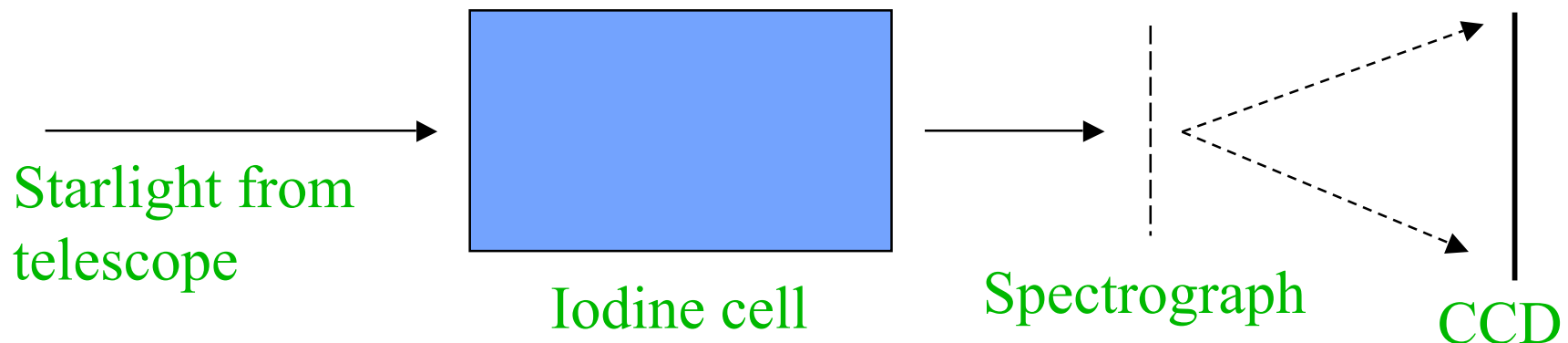
Pass the starlight through an Iodine Cell
and then into a Spectrograph

High sensitivity to small radial velocity shifts:

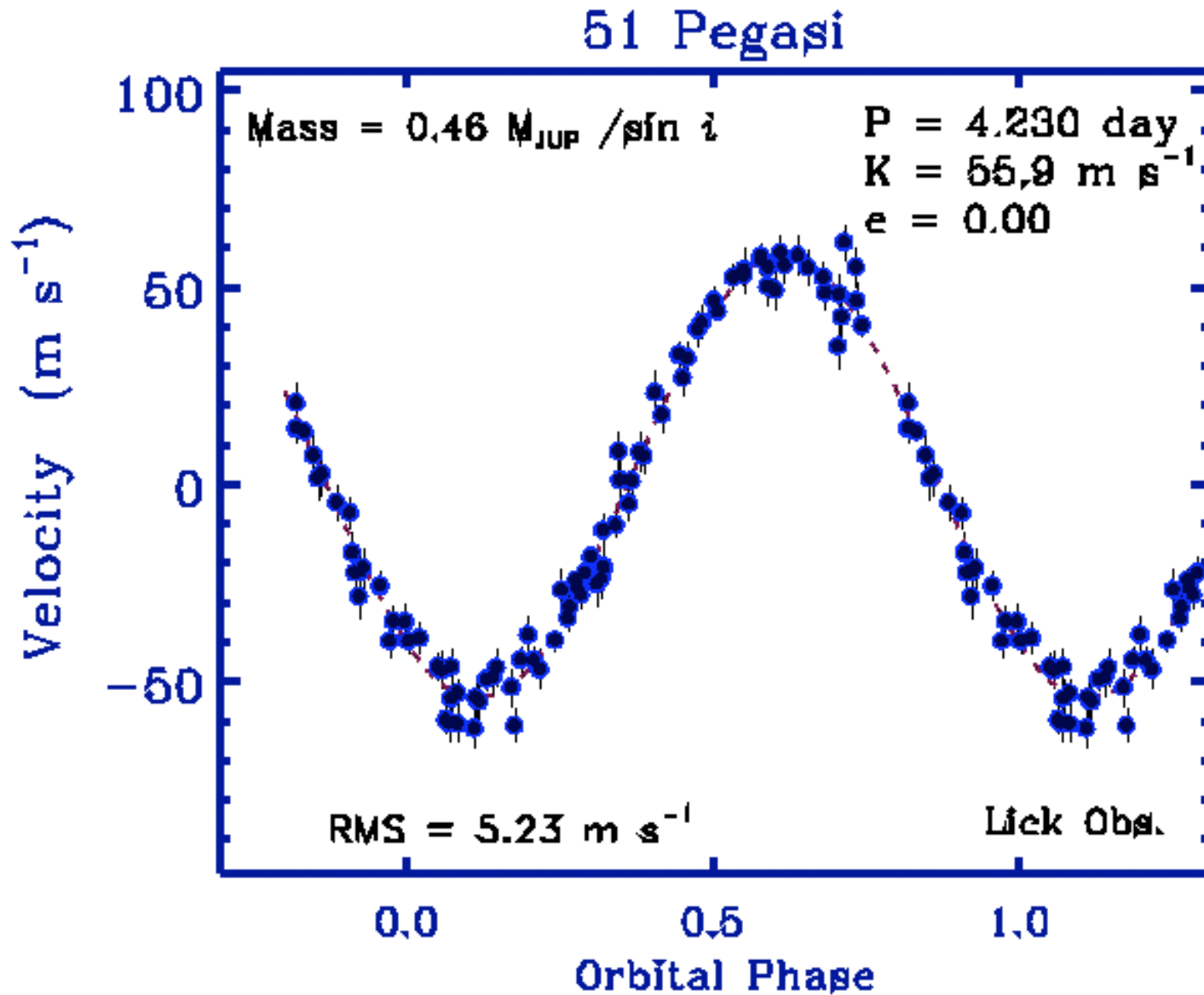
- Achieved by comparing high S/N ~ 200 spectra with template stellar spectra
- Large number of lines in spectrum allows shifts of much less than one pixel to be determined

Absolute wavelength calibration and stability over long timescales:

- Achieved by passing stellar light through a cell containing iodine, imprinting large number of additional lines of known wavelength into the spectrum.
- Calibration suffers identical instrumental distortions as the data



Examples of radial velocity data



51 Peg b, the first known exoplanet, with a 4.2 day circular orbit.

Orbital inclination \Rightarrow lower limits

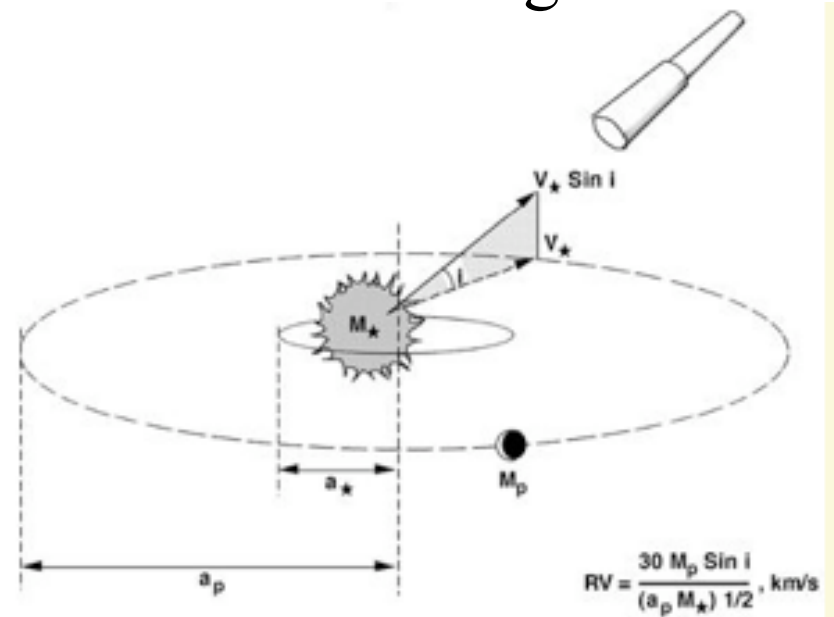
The *observed* velocity is component along the line of sight, thus reduced by the sine of the orbit's inclination angle :

$$V_{obs} = V_* \sin(i)$$

With

$$V_* \approx \left(\frac{m_p}{M_*} \right) \sqrt{\frac{G M_*}{a}}$$

The measured quantity is: $m_p \sin(i)$



(assuming M_* is well determined e.g. from spectral type)

V_{obs} gives us $m_p \sin(i)$, a **lower limit** on the planetary mass, if there are no other constraints on the inclination angle.

Error sources

(1) Theoretical: photon noise limit

- flux in a pixel that receives N photons uncertain by $\sim N^{1/2}$
- implies absolute limit to measurement of radial velocity
- depends on spectral type - more lines improve signal
- < 1 m/s for a G-type main sequence star with spectrum recorded at $S/N=200$
- practically, $S/N=200$ can be achieved for $V=8$ stars on a 3m class telescope in survey mode

(2) Practical:

- stellar activity - young or otherwise active stars are not stable at the m/s level
- remaining systematic errors in the observations

Currently, best observations achieve:

Best RV precision ~ 1 m/s

...in a single measurement. Allowing for the detection of low mass planets with peak Vobs amplitudes of ~ 3 m/s

HD 40307, with a radial velocity amplitude of ~ 2 m/s, has the smallest amplitude wobble so far attributed to a planet.

Radial velocity monitoring detects massive planets (gas giants, especially those at small a . It is now also detecting super-Earth mass planets ($< 10 M_E$))

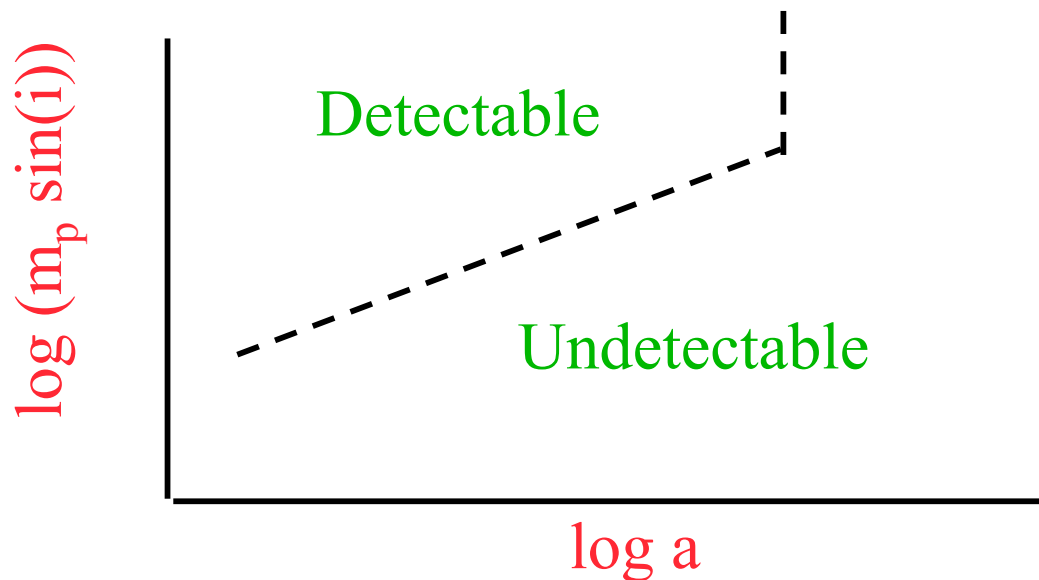
Selection Function

Need to observe (most of) a full orbit of the planet:

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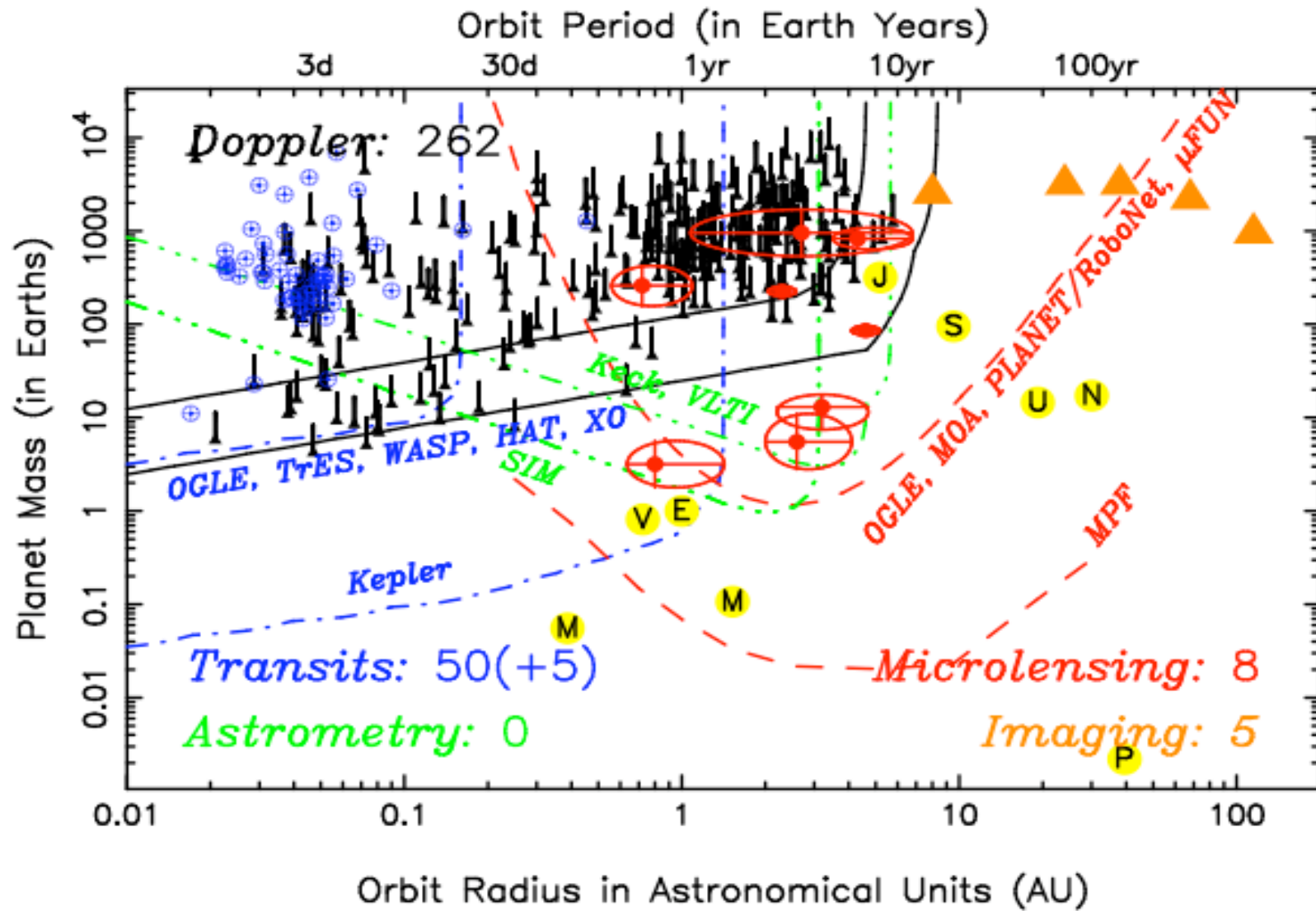
Planet mass sensitivity as a function of orbital separation



$$V_* \approx \left(\frac{m_p}{M_*} \right) \sqrt{\frac{GM_*}{a}}$$

$$m_p \sin(i) \propto a^{1/2}$$

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Eccentric Orbits

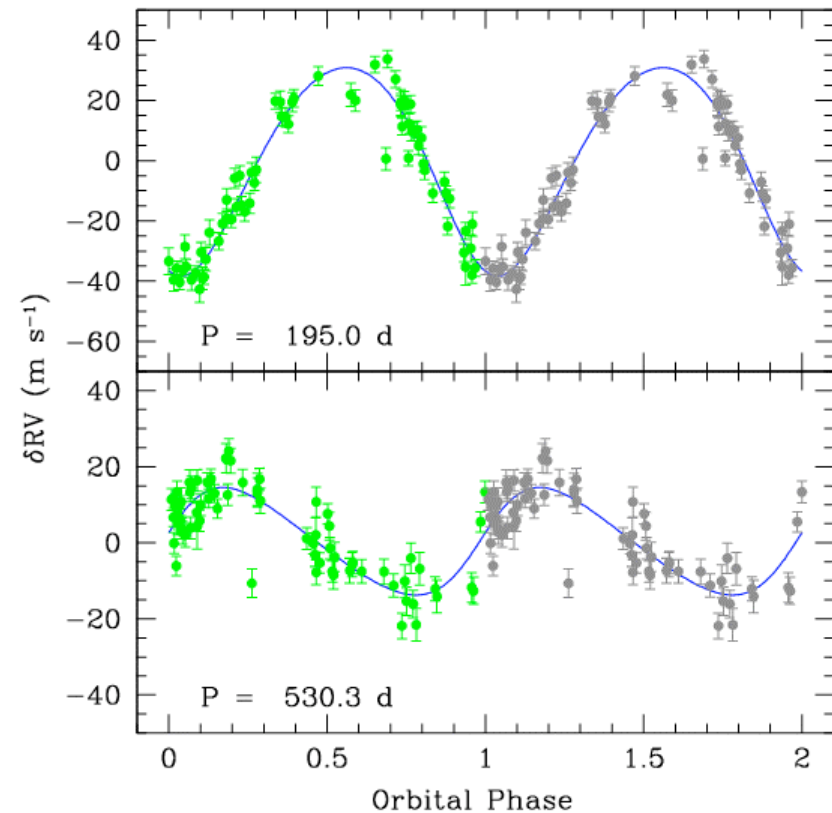
Circular orbit: velocity curve is a sine wave.

Elliptical orbit: velocity curve more complicated,
but still varies periodically.

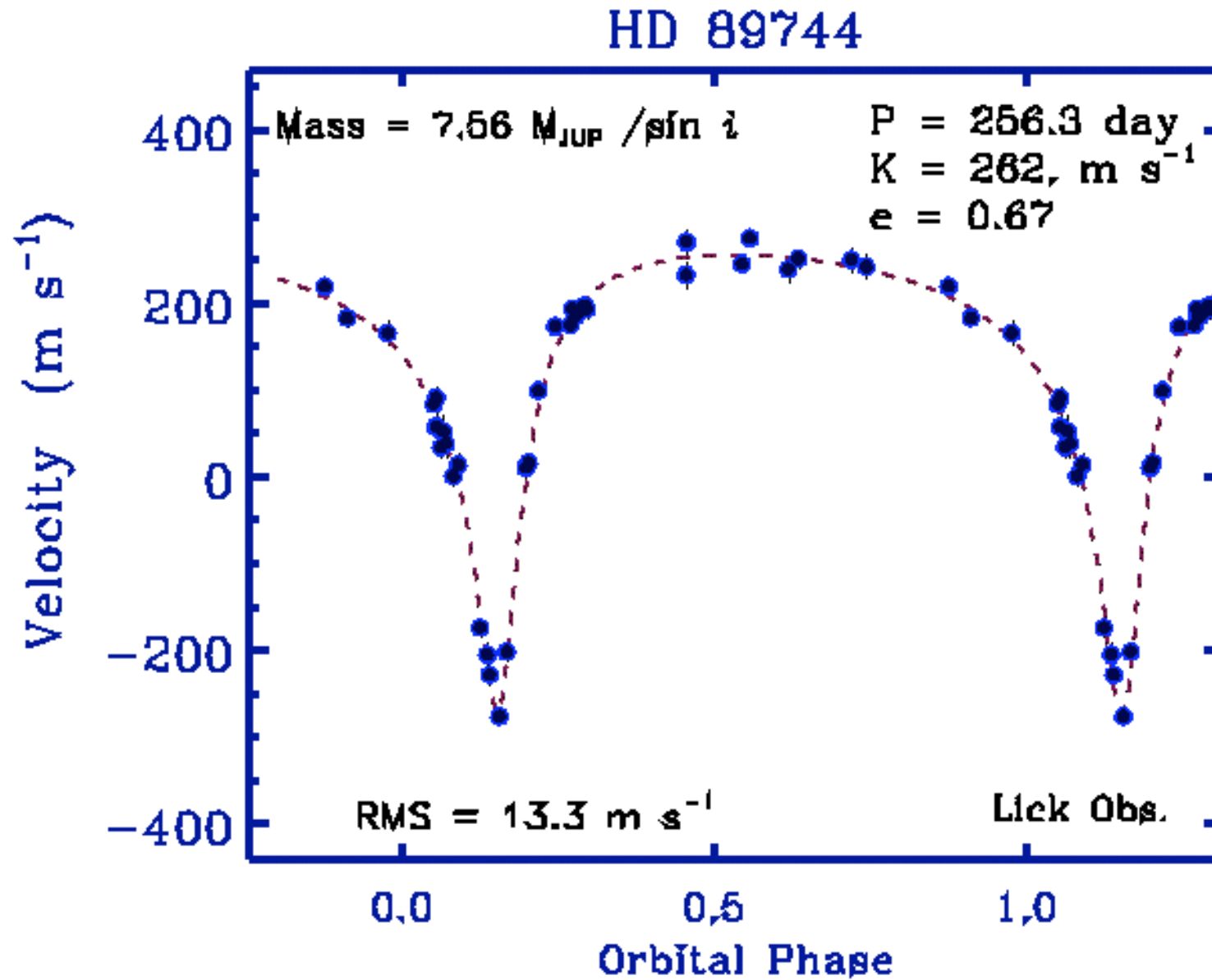
Eccentric orbit:

$$V_{rad} = \frac{2\pi a \sin(i)}{P(1 - e^2)^{1/2}} [\cos(\theta - \omega) + e \cos(\omega)]$$

Circular orbit: $e \rightarrow 0, \omega \rightarrow 0$



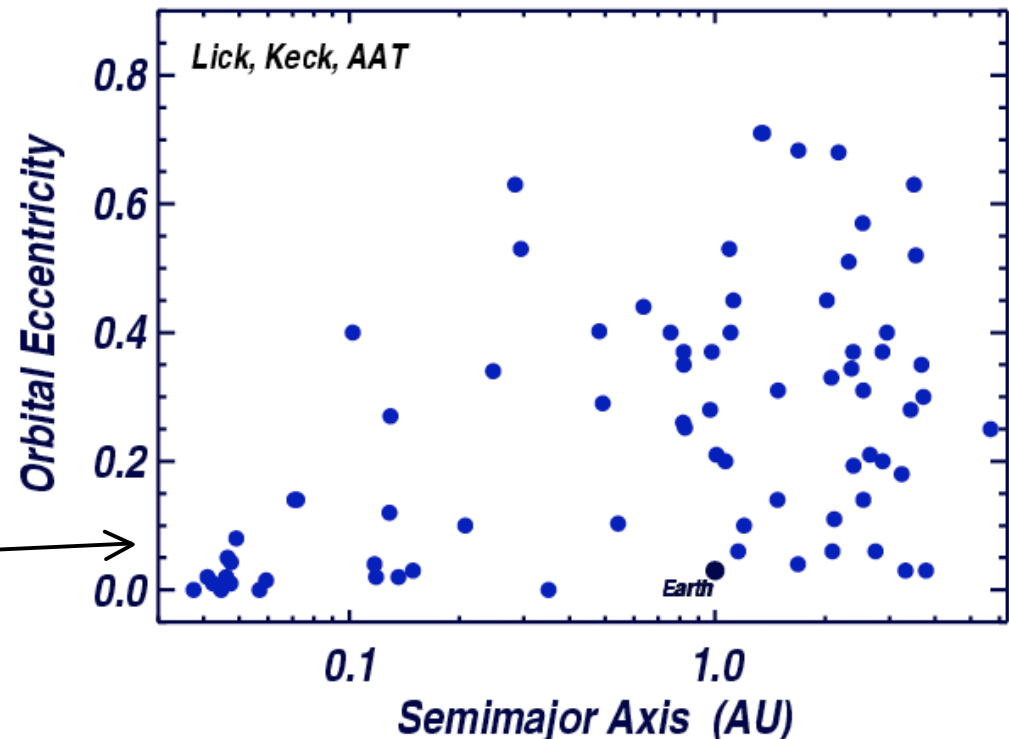
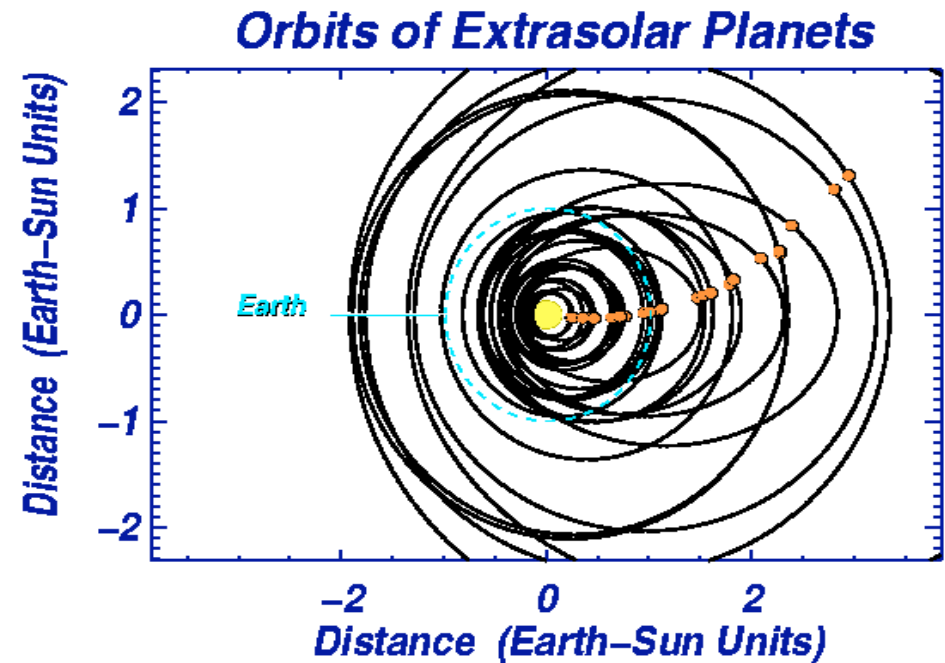
Example of a planet with an eccentric orbit: $e=0.67$



Eccentric (non-circular) Orbits

**Not yet well
understood.**

Early star-star encounters?
Planet-planet interactions?
Eccentricity pumping.
Small planets ejected?
Tidal circularisation.



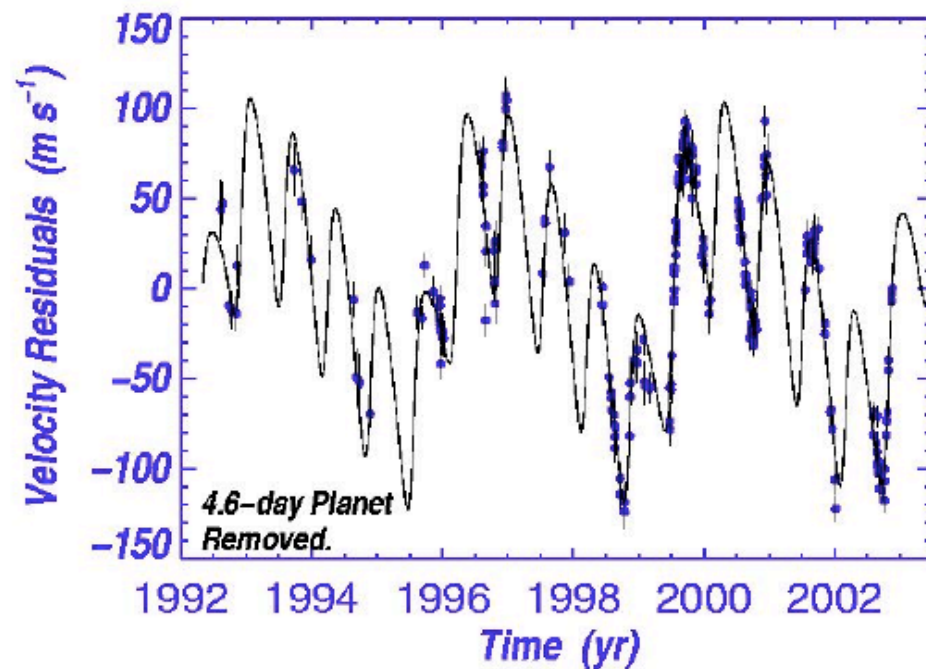
A planetary system with 3 gas giants

Planet b: 0.059 AU, 0.72 M_J , $e=0.04$

Planet c: 0.83 AU, 1.98 M_J , $e=0.23$

Planet d: 2.5 AU, 4.1 M_J , $e=0.36$

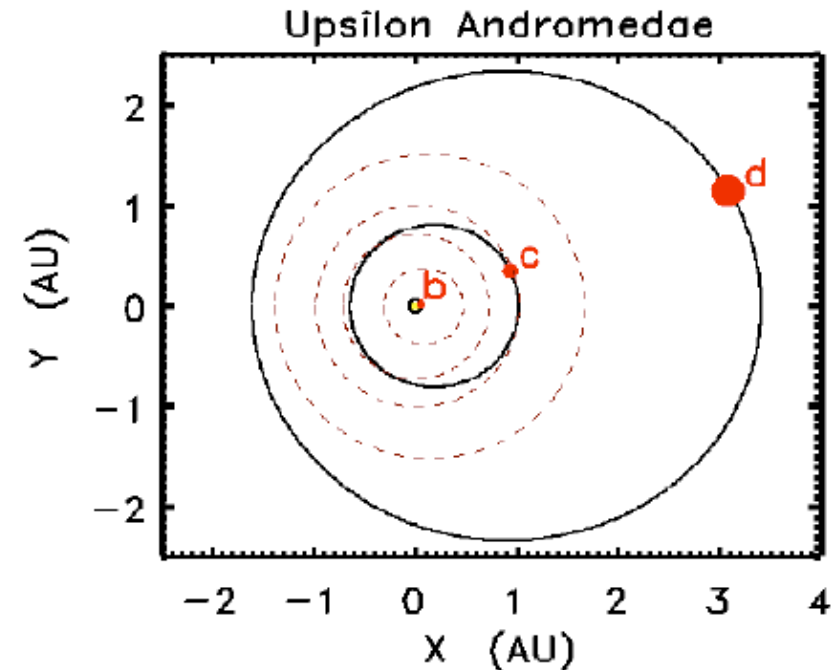
RV Curve



Upsilon And: F8V star

$M_*=1.28 M_{sun}$

$T_{eff}=6100 K$



A system of “super Earths”

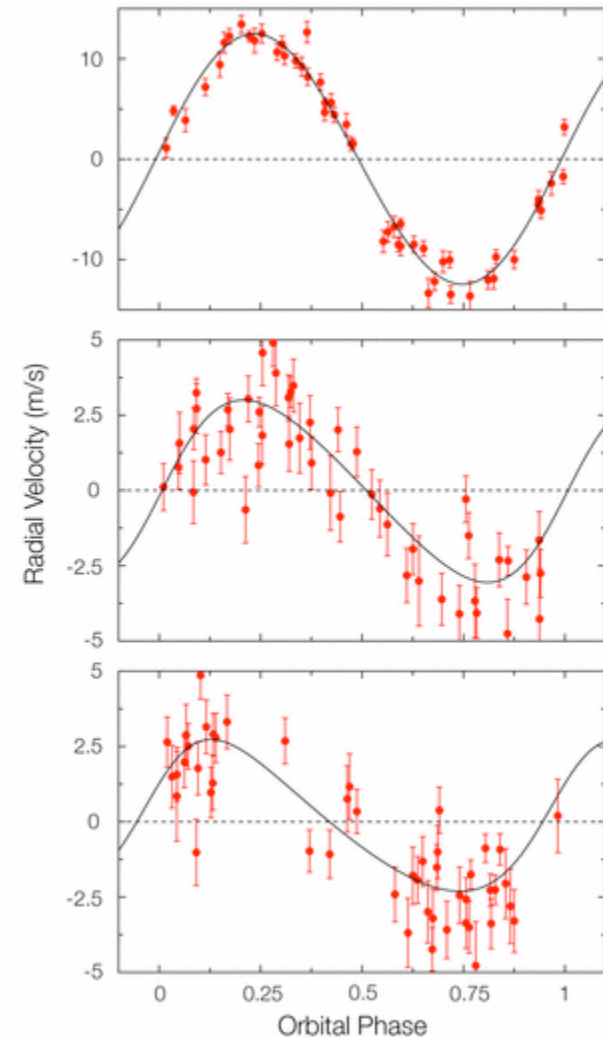
- 22 planets discovered with $m_p < 30 M_E$
- 9 super-Earths ($2 M_E < m_p < 10 M_E$)
- Found at a range of orbital separations:
 - Microlensing detection of $5.5 M_E$ at 2.9 AU
 - RV detections at $P \sim$ few days to few hundred days
- 80% are found in multi-planet systems

GJ 581 M3V 0.31 M_{sun}

581b 5.3d 15.7 M_E

581c 12.9d 5.0 M_E

581d 83.6d 7.7 M_E



Observed Velocity Variation of Gliese 581

Bonfils, et al. 2005

Udry, et al. 2007

Summary

Observables:

- (1) Planet mass, up to an uncertainty from the normally unknown inclination of the orbit. Measure $m_p \sin(i)$
- (2) Orbital period \rightarrow radius of the orbit given the stellar mass
- (3) Eccentricity of the orbit

Current limits:

- Maximum ~ 6 AU (ie orbital period ~ 15 years)
- Minimum mass set by activity level of the star:
 - $\sim 0.5 M_J$ at 1 AU for a typical star
 - $4 M_E$ for short period planet around low-activity star
- No strong selection bias in favour / against detecting planets with different eccentricities