

[24] Exoplanet Discovery (11/28/17)

Upcoming Items

1. Hope you had a great Thanksgiving!
2. Homework #11 due on Thursday.
3. Homework #12 due on Thursday, Dec 7
4. Read Ch. 13.3–13.4 by next class.

APOD 12/1/16

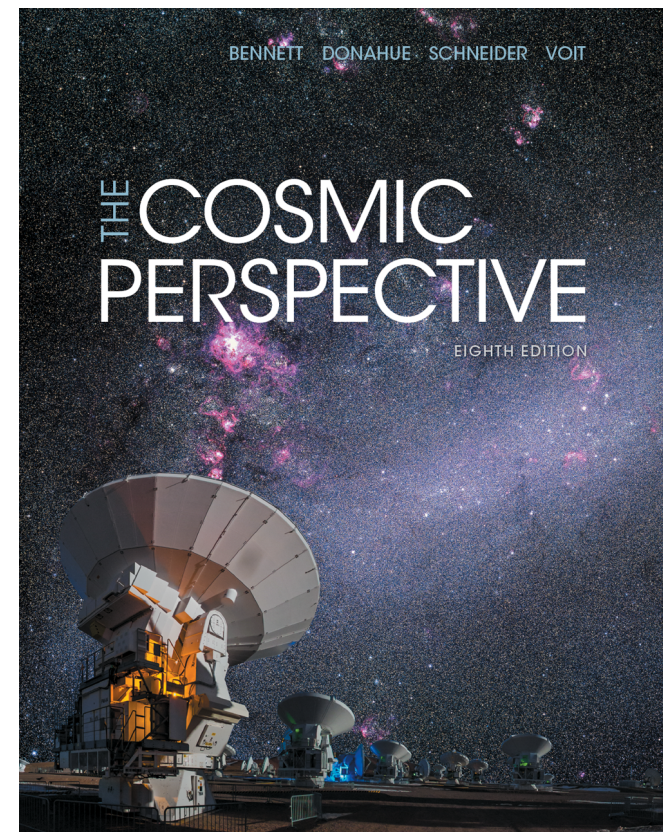


LEARNING GOALS

Ch. 5.4, 13.1–13.2

By the end of this lecture, you should be able to...

- ... use the Doppler effect to deduce the relative radial speed of a distant object;*
- ... describe current methods for detecting planets around other stars, and give advantages and disadvantages of each;*
- ... interpret a star's radial velocity graph to determine the semimajor axis and minimum mass of an unseen planet;*
- ... use transit data to infer the radius of a planet and combine this with radial velocity data to infer the planet density.*



Astronomy Colloquium Tomorrow

- This room (ATL 2400), 4:05-5 PM Wednesday
- Marshall Perrin of STScI:
"Direct Imaging of Planetary Systems: Progress and Prospects"
- He will also talk about direct imaging of debris disks

- Physics colloquium today, in PHYS 1412:
Nobel Laureate Joe Taylor (Princeton)
"From Einstein's Theory to Gravity's Chirp"

Any astro questions?

In-Class Quiz

1. Which of the following techniques, if any, can provide the density of an exoplanet?

- A. Radial velocities alone.
- B. Transits alone.
- C. Radial velocities plus astrometry.
- D. Transits plus radial velocities.
- E. None of these.

2. Suppose you found a star with the same mass as the Sun moving back and forth with a period of 16 months. What could you conclude?

- A. It has a planet orbiting with a semimajor axis less than 1 AU.
- B. It has a planet orbiting with a semimajor axis greater than 1 AU.
- C. It has a planet orbiting with a semimajor axis of exactly 1 AU.
- D. It has a planet, but we do not have enough information to know its orbital distance.

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Astrometric Method

$$\theta'' = \left(\frac{M_p}{M_*} \right) \left(\frac{a}{r} \right) \approx \frac{10^{-3}}{r(\text{pc})} \left[\frac{P(\text{yr})}{M_*(\odot)} \right]^{2/3} M_p (J)$$

$$V_r (\text{m/s}) \approx \frac{30}{[P(\text{yr})]^{1/3}} \frac{M_p (J) \sin i}{[M_*(\odot)]^{2/3}}$$

Microlensing Method

$$R_g^2 = \frac{4GM D}{c^2}, \quad D = \frac{D_{ds} D_d}{D_s}, \quad t_0 = \frac{R_g}{V_L}$$

$$t_0 = \frac{2D_L \theta_g}{V_L} = \frac{2D_L}{V_L} \sqrt{\frac{4GM(1-D_d/D_s)}{c^2 D_d}}$$

$$A = \frac{u^2 + 2}{u(u^2 + 4)^{1/2}}, \quad u = \text{impact parameter} \quad B \geq \frac{\lambda D}{r} \approx \left(\frac{\lambda}{10 \mu\text{m}} \right) \left(\frac{D}{10 \text{ pc}} \right) \left(\frac{r}{1 \text{ AU}} \right)^{-1} m$$

Radial Velocity Method

$$K = \left(\frac{2\pi G}{P} \right)^{1/3} \frac{M_p \sin i}{(M_* + M_p)^{2/3}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-e^2}}$$

$$M_p \sin i = \left(\frac{P}{2\pi G} \right)^{1/3} K_* M_*^{2/3} (1-e^2)^{1/2}$$

Direct Detection

Effective Temperature

$$T_p = \frac{(1-A)^{1/4}}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\frac{R_*}{r} \right)^{1/2} T_*$$

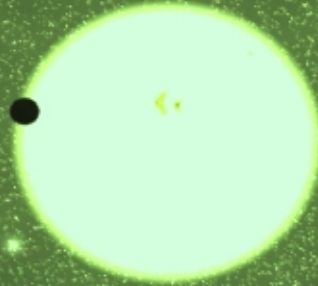
$$A_{\oplus} \sim 0.39, \quad T_* \sim 5770 \text{ K}, \quad r_{\oplus} \sim 1 \text{ AU}$$

$$\Rightarrow T_p \sim 280 \text{ K} \Rightarrow \text{Greenhouse Effect!}$$

Transit Method

$$\frac{\Delta F}{F} = \left(\frac{R_p}{R_*} \right)^2, \quad t = \frac{P_p}{\pi} \left(\frac{R_* \cos \delta + R_p}{a_p} \right)$$

$$i_{\text{min}} = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{R_*}{a_p} \right), \quad \cos i = \frac{R_* \sin \delta}{a_p}$$



If you wanted to observe the small dip in brightness as an exoplanet passes *behind* its host star, in which part of the spectrum would you look?

- A. Infrared.
- B. Visible.
- C. Ultraviolet.
- D. X-ray.

Exoplanet Discovery

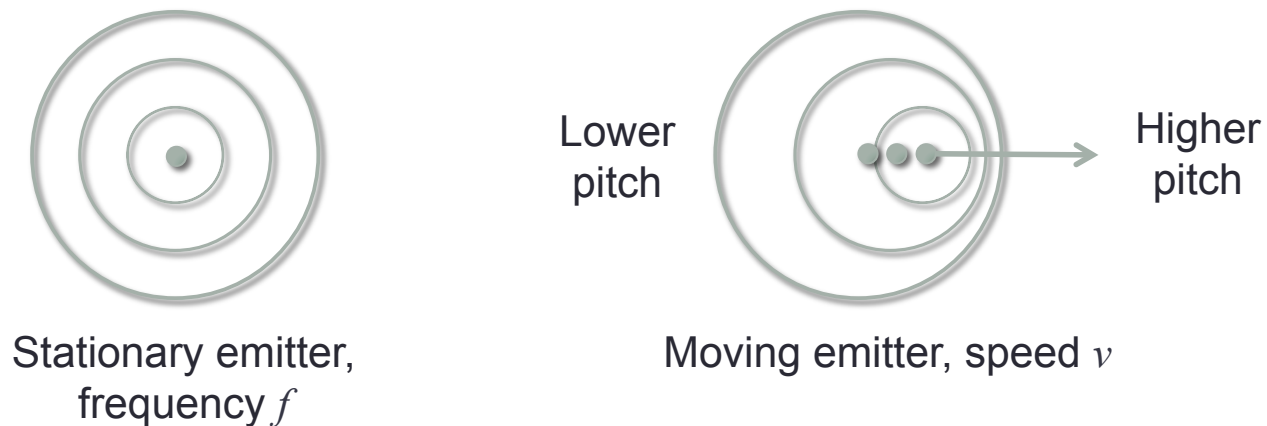
- Extrasolar planets, or [exoplanets](#), can be detected by [astrometry](#), [radial velocities](#) (using the [Doppler effect](#)), [transits](#), [microlensing](#), and [direct detection](#).
- By far the most successful techniques have been ground-based radial velocity searches and space-based transit searches (about 3,000 exoplanets confirmed).
- Both techniques give the period of the orbit, and so the semimajor axis. Radial velocities give the [mass](#). Transits give the [radius](#). Together they give the density.

Selection Effects

- ***Extremely*** important in astronomy!
- The most common things you see in the sky are a combination of (1) the things that are actually the most common, and (2) the things that are easiest to see
- For the radial velocity and transit methods:
 - Is it easier to see high-mass or low-mass planets?
 - Planets with large or small diameters?
 - Planets that are close-in or far from their host star?
- What about for other planetary detection methods?
- In astronomy, what you see is ***not*** what you get! This must be kept very clearly in mind when we study the universe...

How does light tell us the speed of a distant object?

- From our everyday experience with sound waves:
 - Approaching sound emitter has higher pitch (shorter wavelength).
 - Receding sound emitter has lower pitch (longer wavelength).



$$\Delta\lambda = v \left(\frac{1}{f} \right) = v \left(\frac{\lambda}{c_s} \right) \text{ or } \boxed{\frac{\Delta\lambda}{\lambda} = \frac{v}{c_s}}$$

How does light tell us the speed of a distant object?

- From our everyday experience with sound waves:
 - Approaching sound emitter has higher pitch (shorter wavelength).
 - Receding sound emitter has lower pitch (longer wavelength).
- Same thing for light!
 - Approaching emitter looks *bluer* (shorter wavelength) → blueshift.
 - Receding light emitter looks *redder* (longer wavelength) → redshift.
 - Quantitatively, if λ_{obs} is the observed wavelength and λ_{emit} is the emitted wavelength, then the speed is given by

$$\frac{v_{\text{rad}}}{c} = \frac{\lambda_{\text{obs}} - \lambda_{\text{emit}}}{\lambda_{\text{emit}}}$$

Positive for redshift,
negative for blueshift.

- NOTE: this is only valid for $v_{\text{rad}} \ll c$ (non-relativistic limit).
- Only gives component of v toward or away from observer (“radial”).

Going Deeper: Relativistic Doppler

- What if we want to be exact?
- Suppose that the angle between the direction to the source, and the direction of motion of the source, is θ
- Let the speed of motion relative to the observer be v
- Then the observed frequency ν_{obs} is related to the emitted frequency ν_{em} by

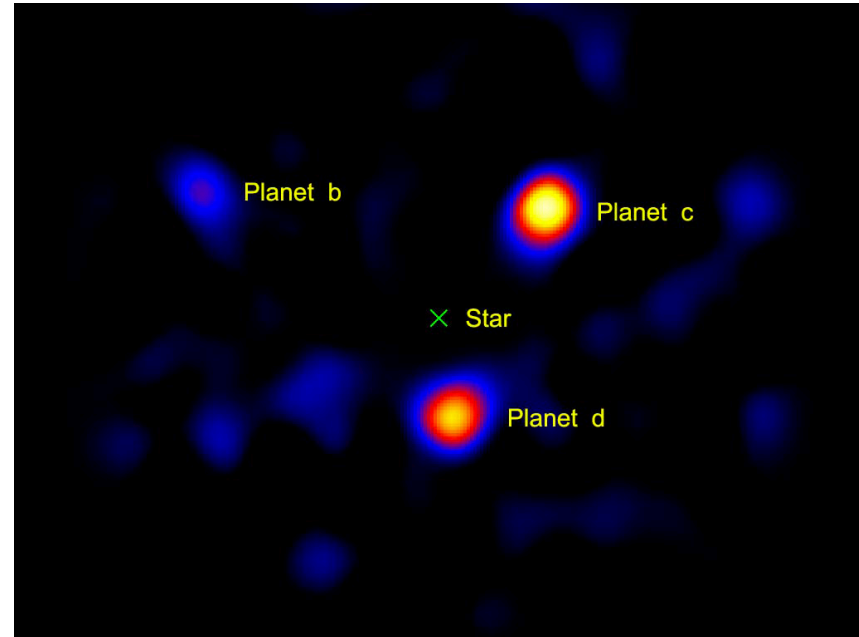
$$\nu_{\text{obs}} = \gamma \nu_{\text{em}} [1 - (v/c) \cos \theta]$$
 where $\gamma = [1 - (v/c)^2]^{-1/2}$; note that $v \cos \theta$ is the radial vel.
- Group Q: does this make sense in particular limits?
- Group Q: can we ignore the factor γ for stars and planets?
- Group Q: given that we care just about the total velocity, what about the drift of the system through space?

Exoplanets Today

- The first detection of a planet orbiting a Sun-like star was announced in 1995.
But the first exoplanets were seen around a pulsar (1992)!
- Since then, about 3,000 exoplanets have been detected, with a further ~5,000 waiting to be confirmed.
- Many different techniques are used to find exoplanets—we will discuss the main ones.
- Searches have revealed a bewildering assortment of exoplanet properties, from “hot Jupiters” to “super Earths,” that challenge planet-formation theories.
- The race is on to find “habitable” planets with “biomarkers” in their atmospheres. We may not have long to wait!...
Our newest professor, Eliza Kempton, works on atmos

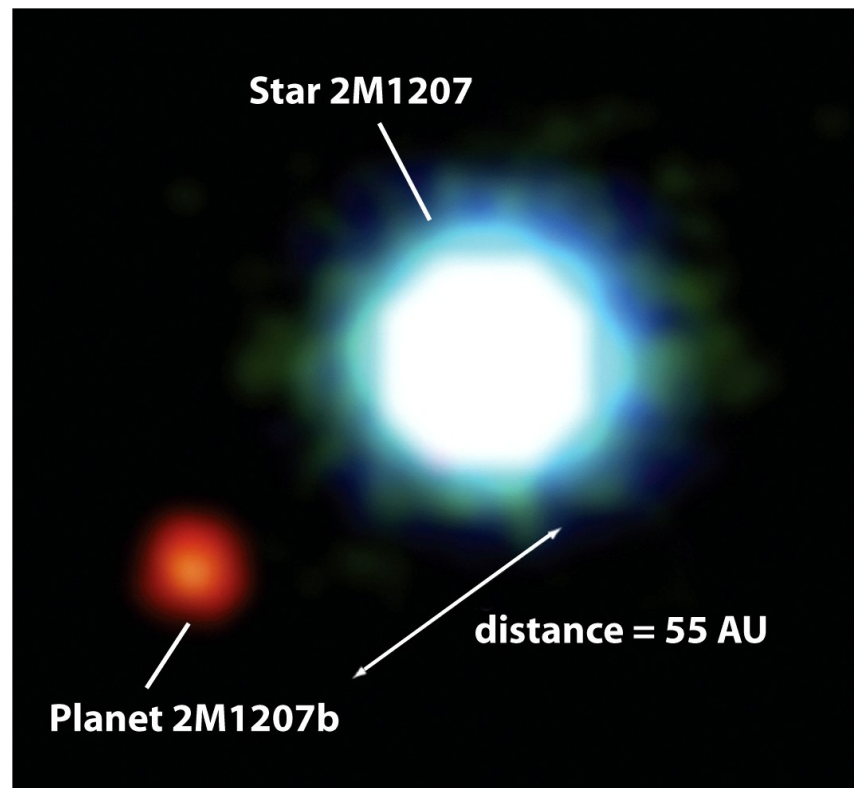
Detecting Exoplanets

- Difficult to observe: for example, the Sun is 10^9 times brighter than the Earth.
- Most extrasolar planets (exoplanets) are detected *indirectly* by measuring stellar properties that suggest planets in orbit.
 - Radial velocities & transits.
 - Astrometry & microlensing.
- Relatively few detections are *direct* (~40 so far).



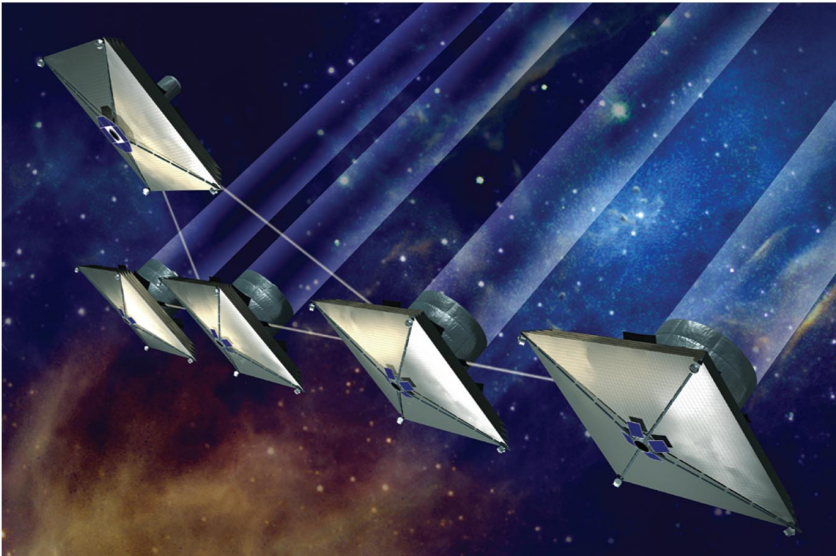
Direct image of exoplanets around HR8799 using Hale telescope *coronagraph* in near-IR.

Direct Detection



- Special techniques for concentrating or eliminating bright starlight are enabling the direct detection of planets (adaptive optics, coronagraphs, etc.).

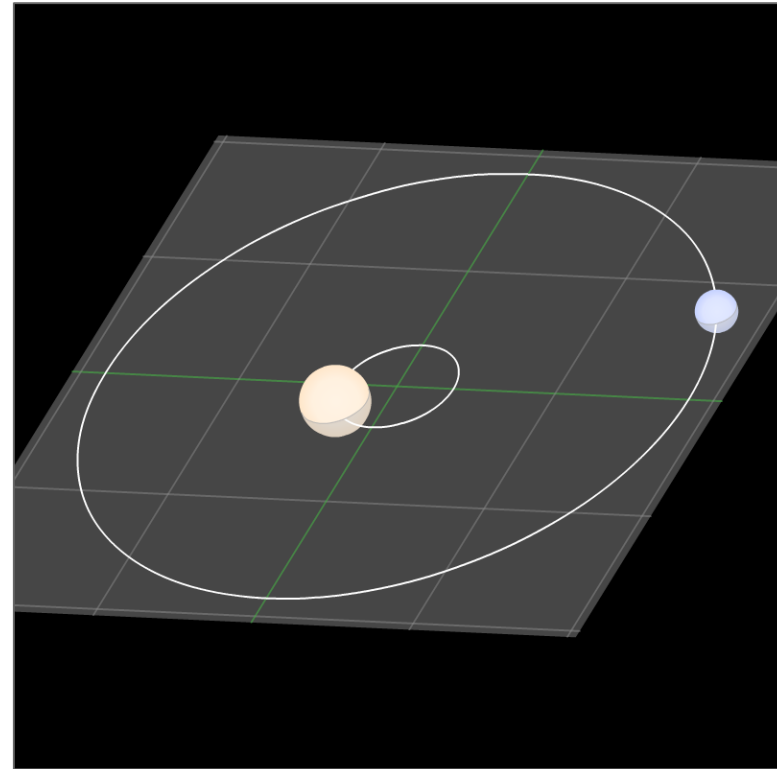
Direct Detection



Mission concept for NASA's
Terrestrial Planet Finder.

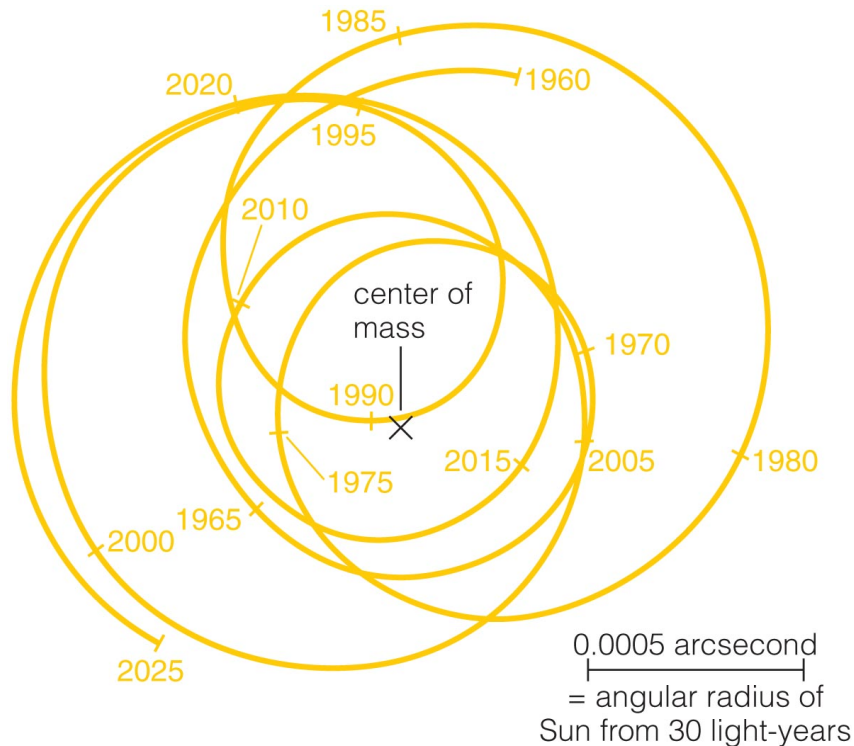
- Direct detection is easier above the atmosphere, but also very expensive.
- No current funded projects.

Indirect Detection



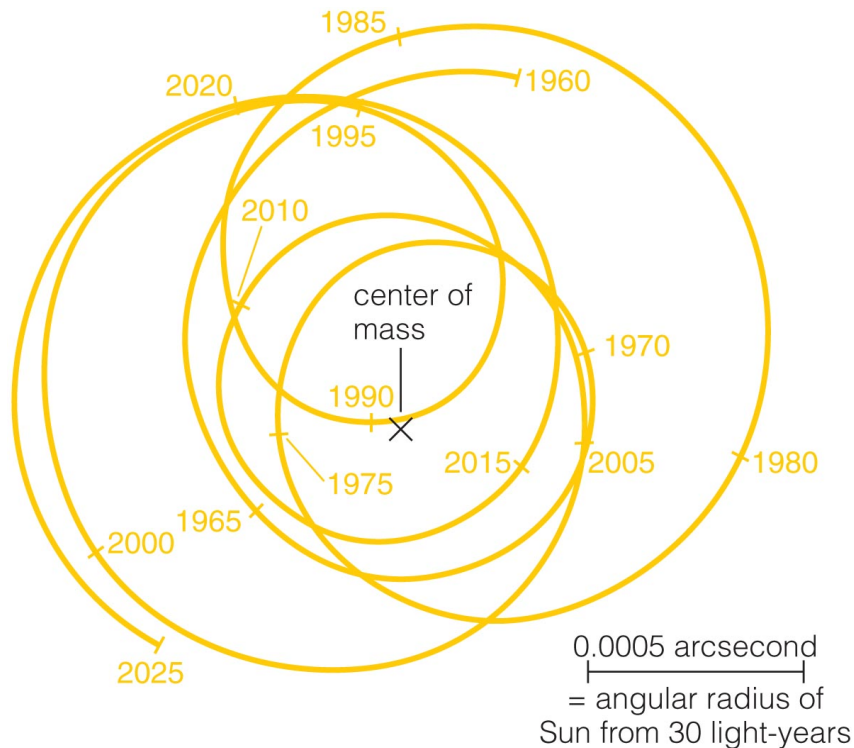
- Exoplanets and their host stars orbit a common *center of mass*.

Astrometric Technique



- The Sun's motion around the solar system's center of mass depends on tugs from all the planets.
- Astronomers around other stars who measured this motion could determine the masses and orbits of all the planets.

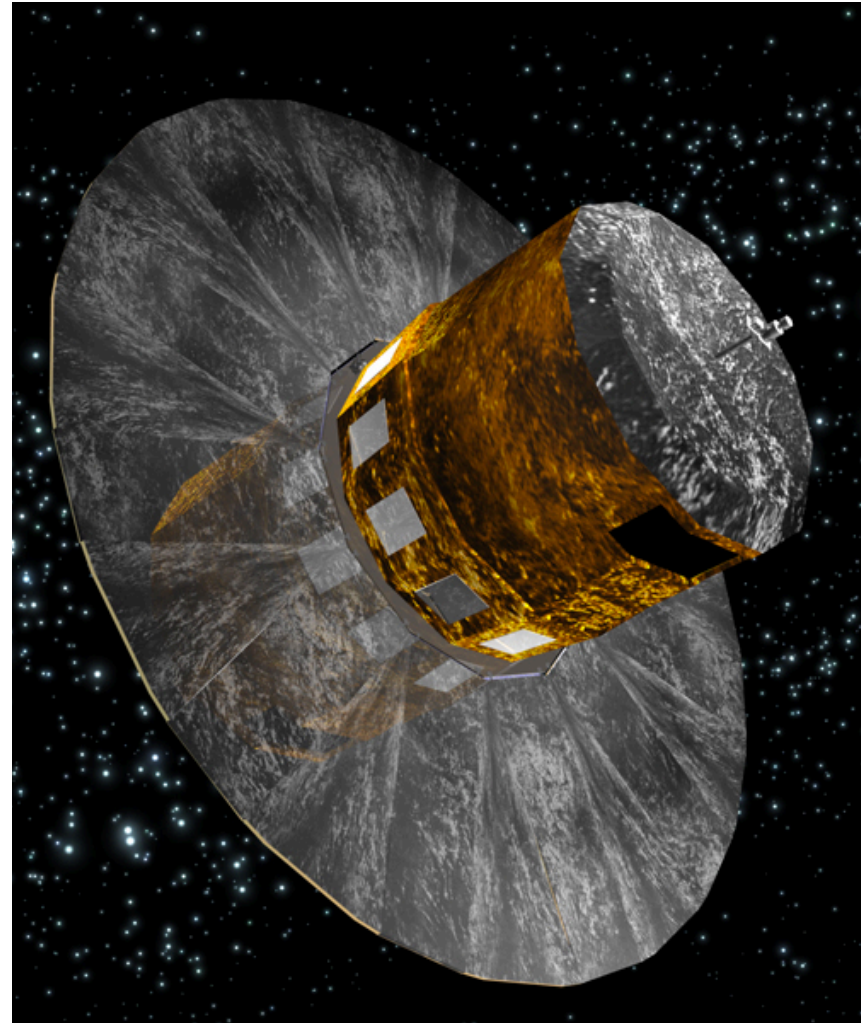
Astrometric Technique



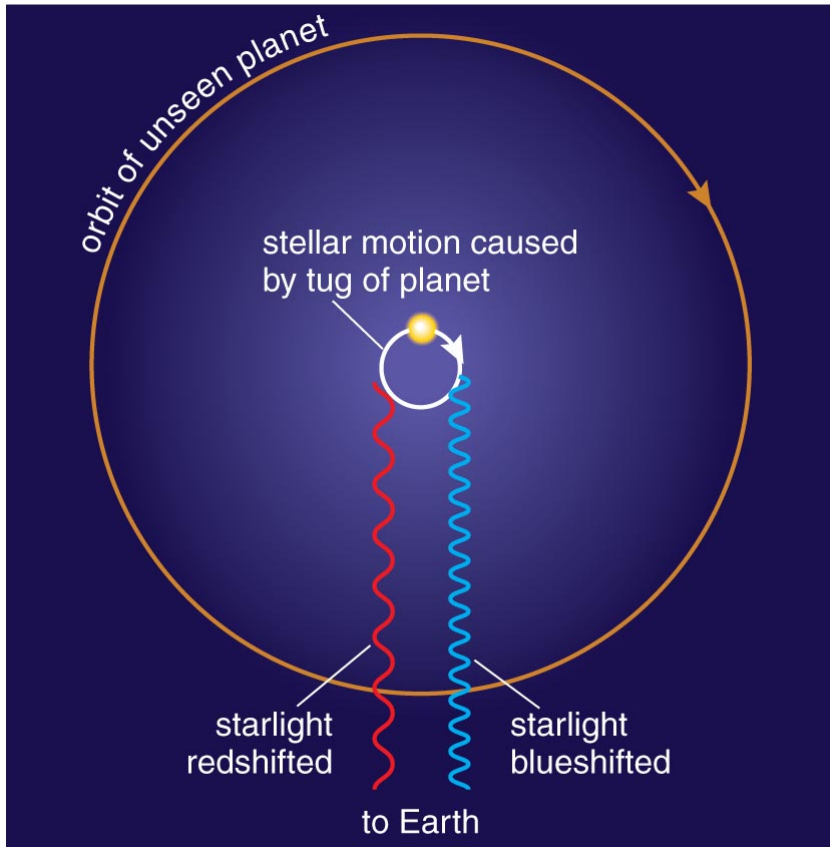
- We can detect planets by measuring the change in a star's position in the sky.
- However, these tiny motions are very difficult to measure (~ 0.001 arcsec, or 1 mas).
- So far only 1 exoplanet found with astrometry.

The Gaia Mission

- *Gaia*: a European mission launched in 2013 that is measuring precise 3-D positions of a *billion* stars in the Milky Way galaxy.
- It may detect *tens of thousands* of exoplanets by astrometry and transits over the next five years.
- Final catalog release scheduled for 2022 (to be confirmed).

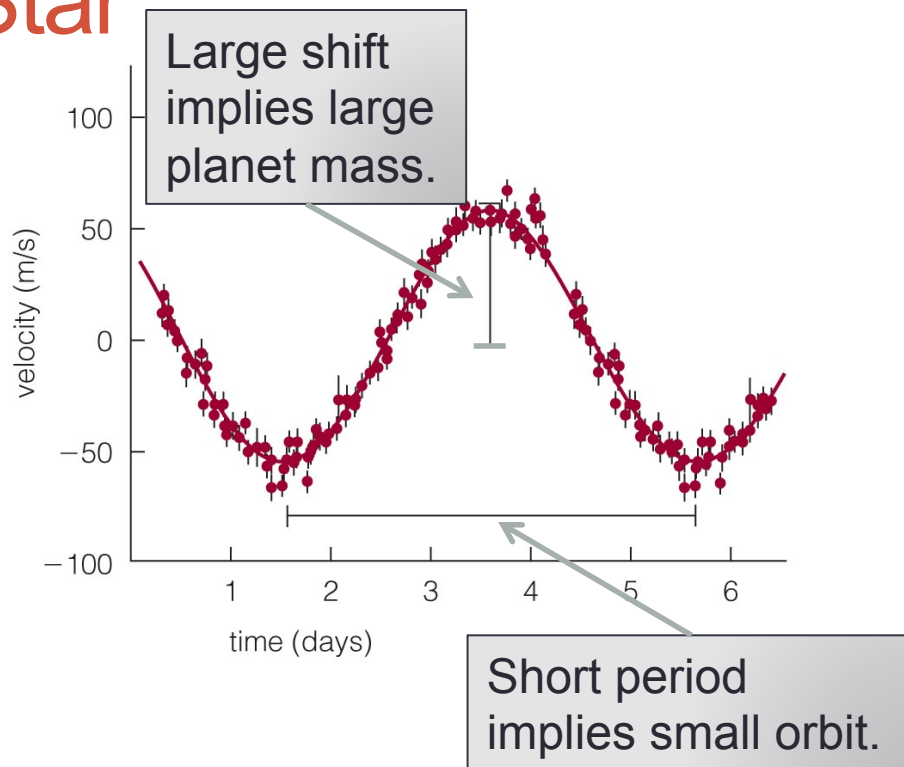


Doppler Technique (Radial Velocities)



- Measuring a star's Doppler shift can tell us its motion toward and away from us.
- Current techniques can measure motions as small as 1 m/s (walking speed!).
- ~500 discoveries so far.

First Exoplanet Detected Around Normal Star



- Doppler shifts of star 51 Pegasi imply a planet with *4-day orbital period*.
- Short period means small orbital distance.
- First exoplanet to be discovered around a Sun-like star (1995).

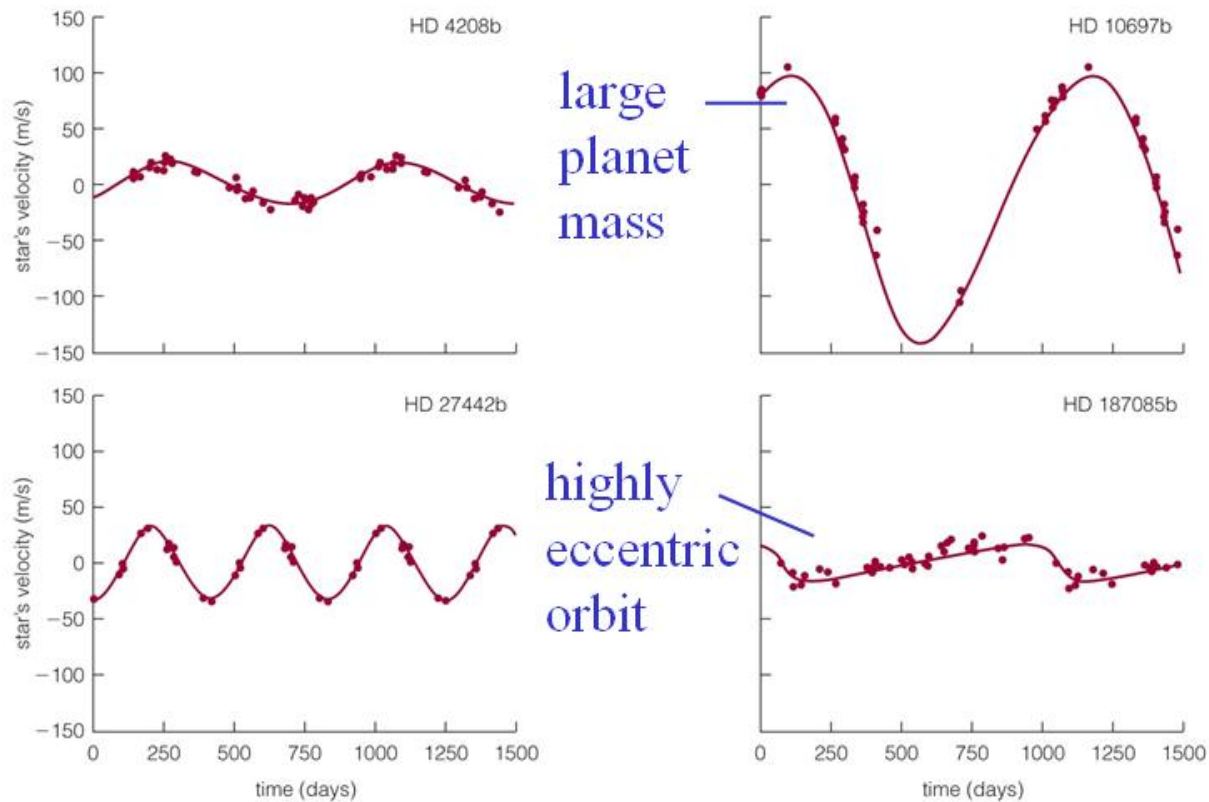
Important: “exoplanet” refers to planets around *stars*, not, e.g., pulsars (rotating neutron stars)—the first planet around a pulsar was detected in 1992.

First Normal-Star Exoplanet Detected



- The planet around 51 Pegasi has a mass similar to Jupiter's, despite its small orbital distance. Surprising?

Other Exoplanets



- Doppler shift data tell us about a planet's mass and the shape of its orbit.

Interpreting Radial Velocity Curves

- The oscillation *period* P gives the planet *semimajor axis* a via Newton's version of Kepler's 3rd law:

$$P^2 = \frac{4\pi^2}{GM_*} a^3.$$

Get star mass from spectral type—see ASTR121!

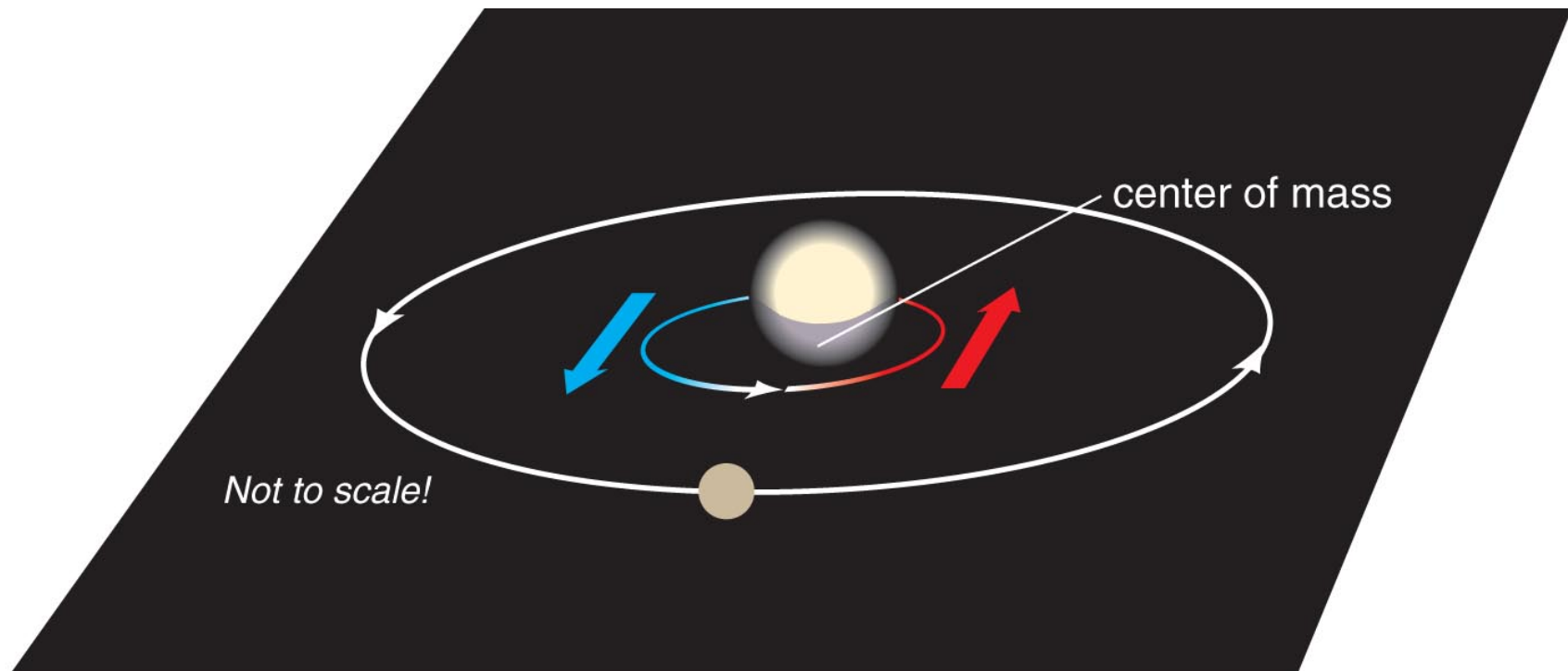
- The oscillation *amplitude* V_* (in units of speed) gives the planet *mass* M_p via momentum balance:

$$M_* V_* = M_p V_p, \text{ with } V_p = 2\pi a / P.$$

Assumes circular orbit, otherwise more complex approach needed.

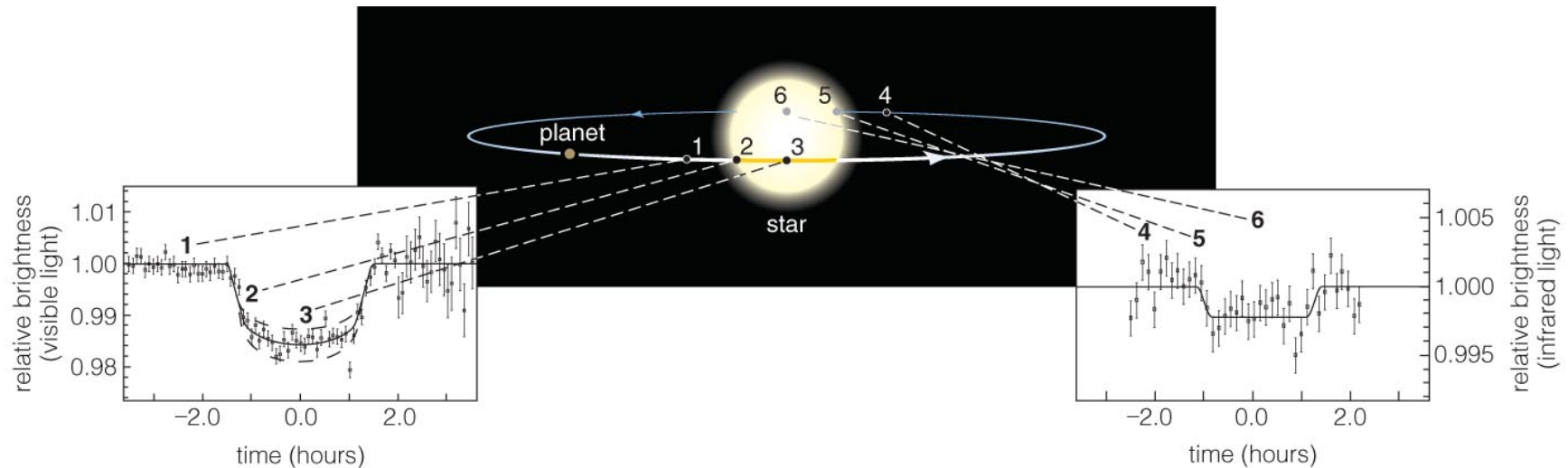
- The *shape* of the oscillation curve reveals the orbit *eccentricity* e (sine wave is a circle; sawtooth is eccentric).
- The presence of *multiple signals* implies *multiple planets*.

Planet Mass and Orbit Tilt



- With radial velocities, only get a *lower limit* to planet mass:
 $M_p = M_{\text{actual}} \sin(i)$, where i = orbit tilt along the line of sight
($i = 90^\circ$ for edge-on orbit; 0° for face-on orbit).
How might we determine the inclination?

Transits and Eclipses



- A **transit** is when a planet crosses in front of a star, resulting in a dip in brightness.
- An **eclipse** is also sometimes seen, when the planet passes behind the star.
- Essentially no orbital tilt ($i \sim 90^\circ$), so we get an accurate measurement of the planet mass with radial velocity.

Transit of Venus (2012)

