Paper Due Tue, Feb 23

Seager & Mallen-Ornelas 2003 ApJ 585, 1038.

"A Unique Solution of Planet and Star Parameters from an Extrasolar Planet Transit Light Curve"

Exoplanet Discovery Methods

(1) Direct imaging

(2) Astrometry → position

(3) Radial velocity → velocity

Today:

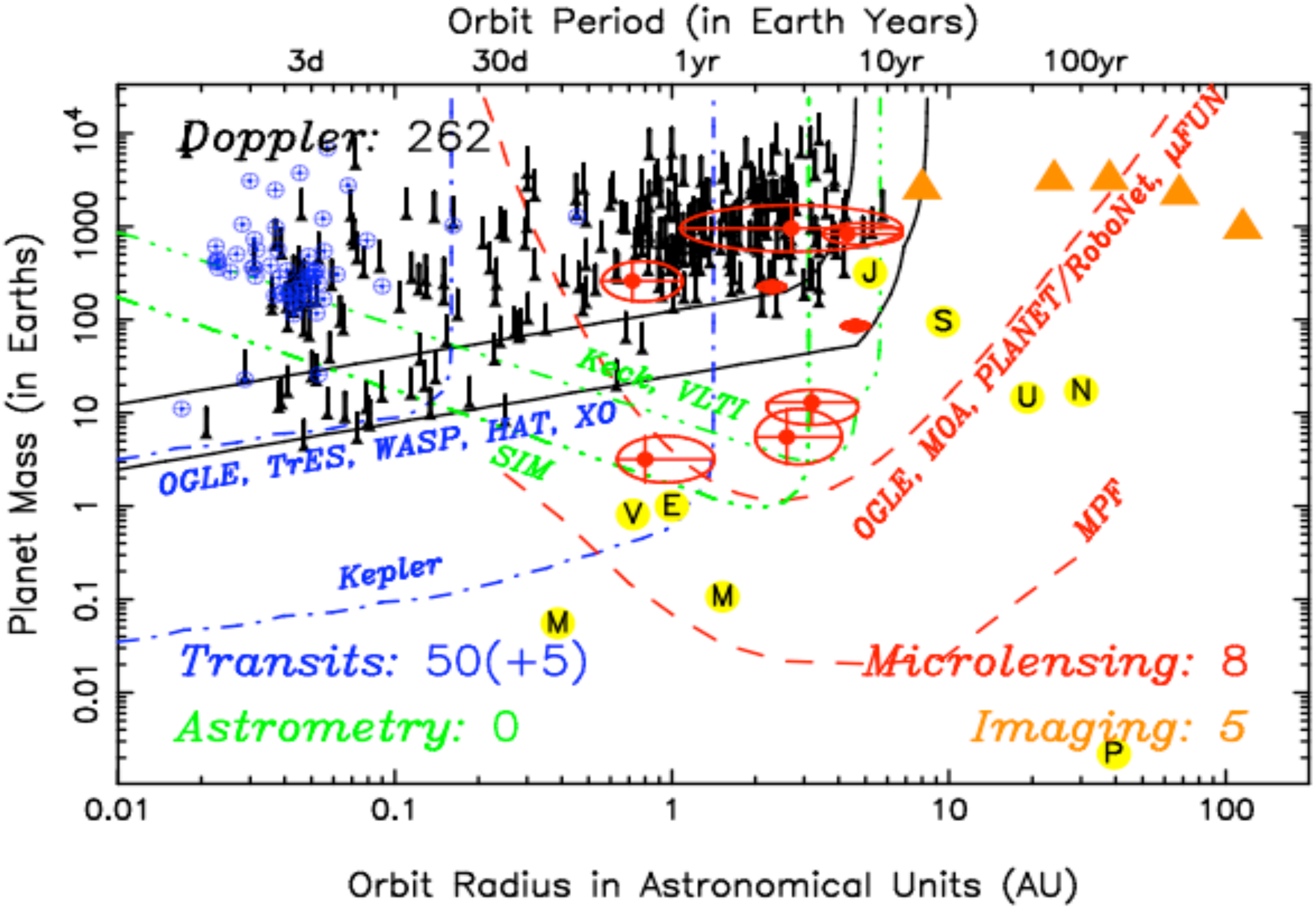
(4) Transits

Later:

(5) Gravitational microlensing

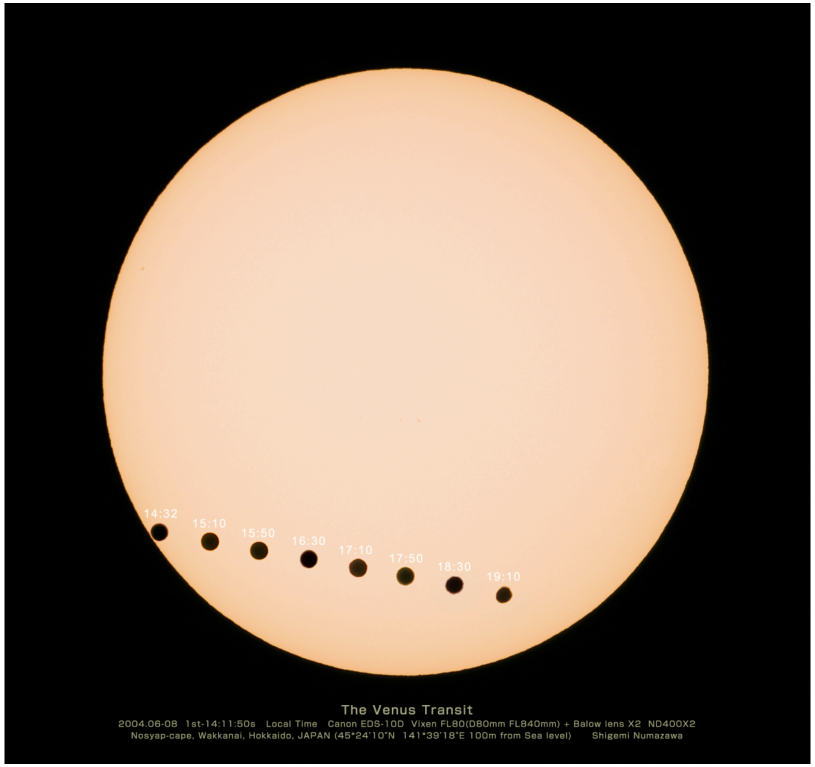
(6) Pulsar timing

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



Transits

Simplest method: look for drop in stellar flux due to a planet transiting across the stellar disc

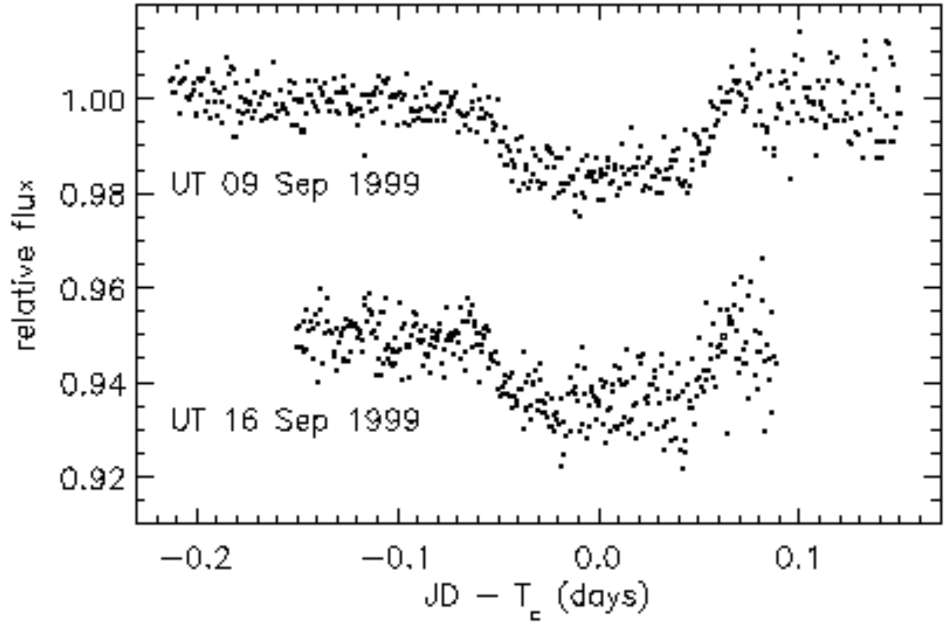


Venus Transit in 2004

International Space Station and Space Shuttle crossing the disk of the Sun

Needs luck - transits only occur if the orbit is almost edge-on

1999 *First Transiting Exo-Planet*



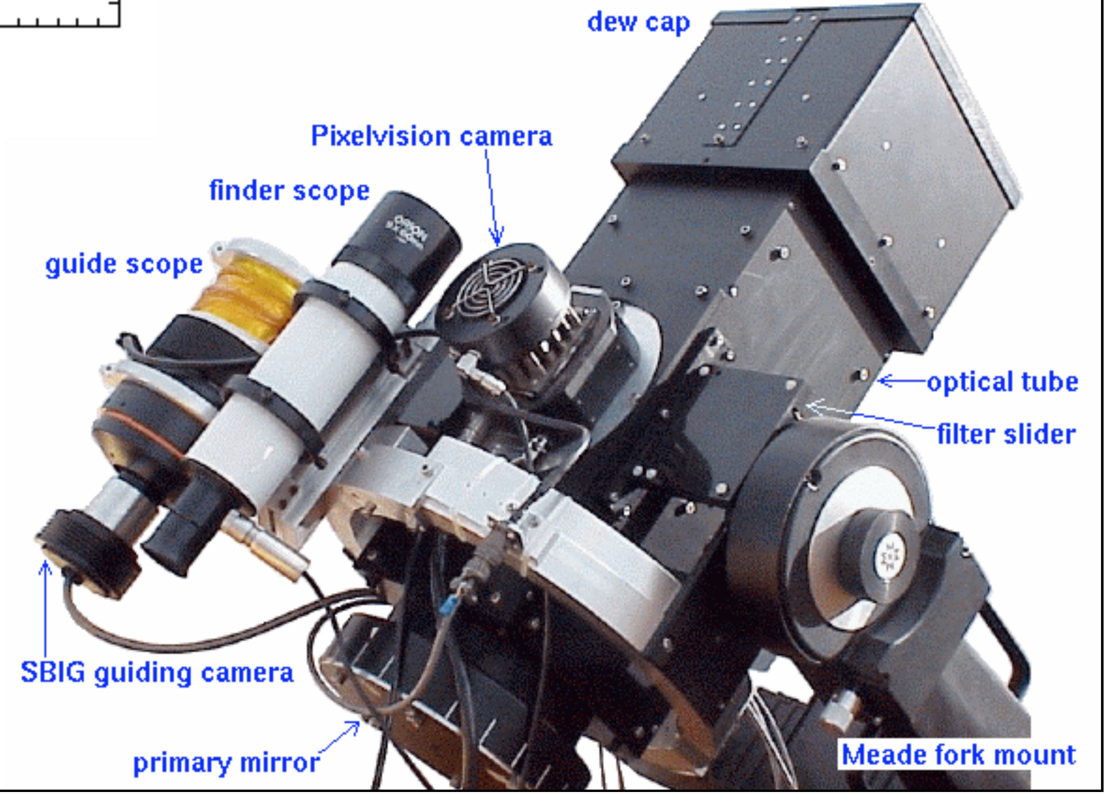
Charbonneau & Brown (2000)

HD 209458
V=7.6 mag

1.6% “winks”
last 3 hours
repeat every 3.5 days

STARE **10 cm telescope**

A Very Big Discovery by a grad student using a Very Small Telescope!



HD 209458 Transits HST/STIS

Brown et al. (2001)

$P = 3.52$ d $a = 0.046$ AU

$m_V = 7.8$

$\Delta f\,/\,f = 0.017$ mag (1.6%)

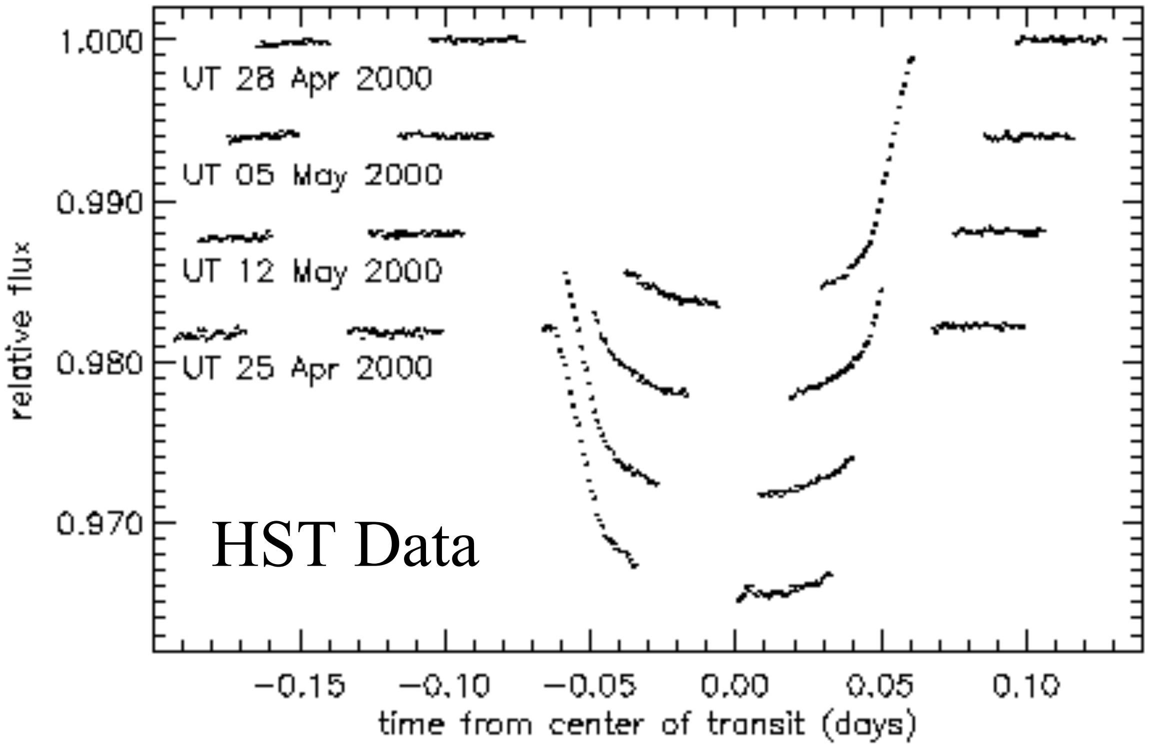
$i = 86°.6 \pm 0°.2$

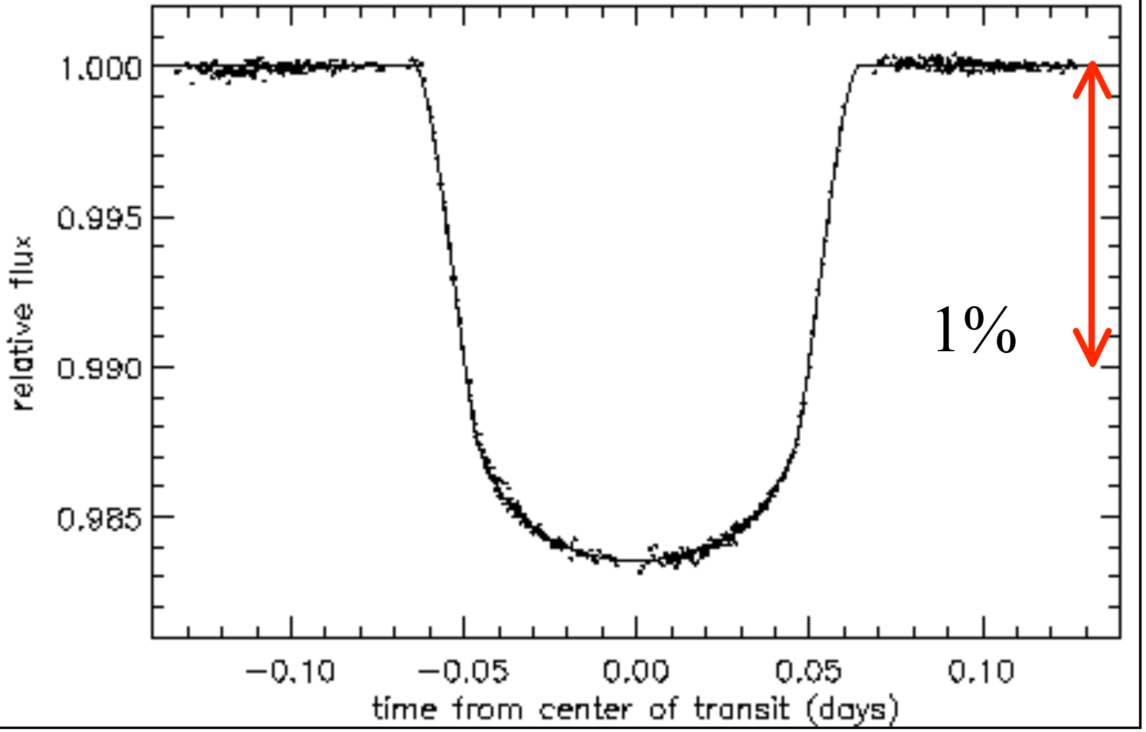
$r_p = 1.35 \pm 0.06\ \mathrm{r_J}$

From radial velocities

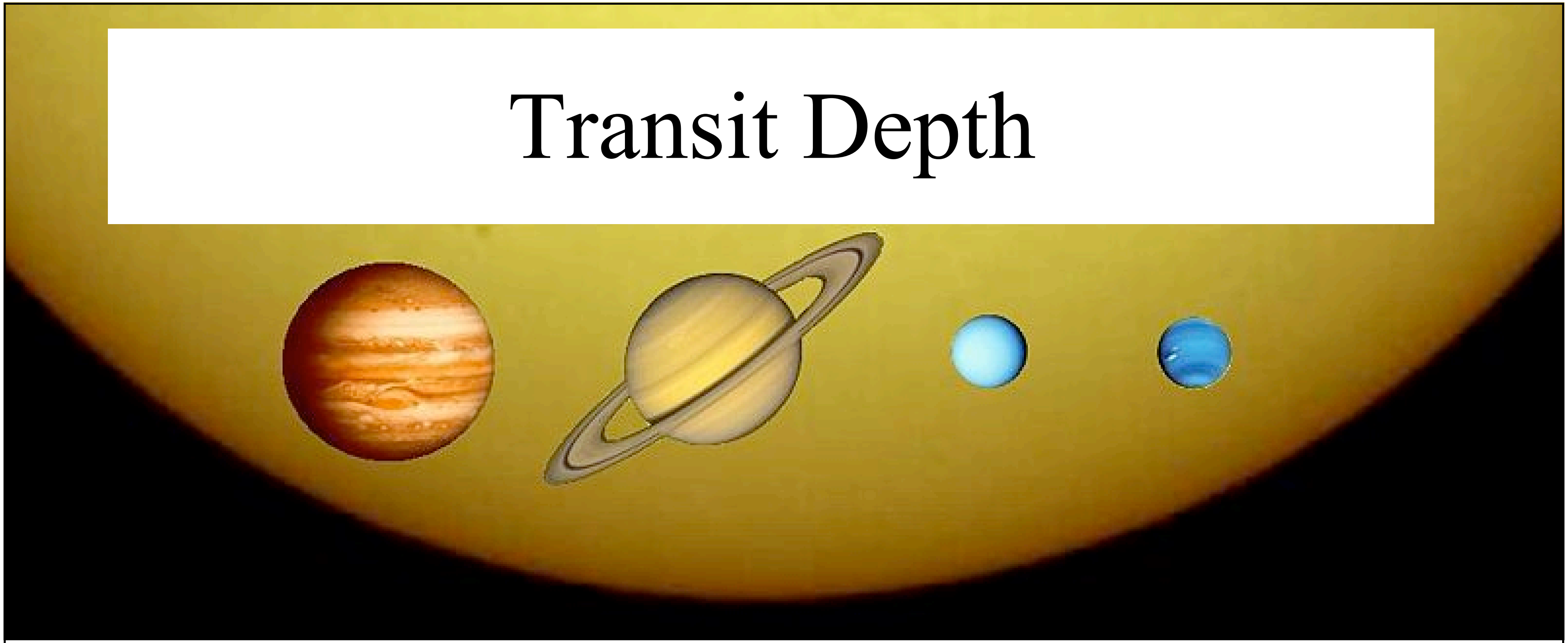
$m \sin i = 0.69\ \mathrm{m_J}$

⇒ "bloated" gas giant





Transit Depth



What fraction of the star's disk does the planet cover?

$$\frac{\Delta f}{f} \approx \left(\frac{r_p}{R_*}\right)^2 = 0.01\left(\frac{r_p}{r_{Jup}}\right)^2\left(\frac{R_*}{R_{sun}}\right)^{-2}$$

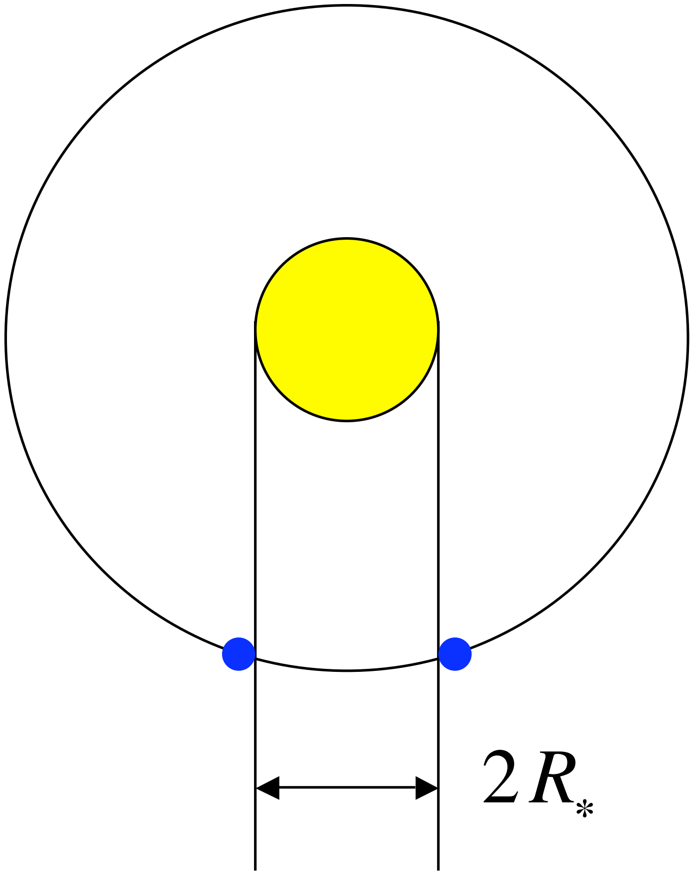
Find star radius from its spectral type.

Observed depth tells us planet's radius.

Transit Duration ($i = 90^{o}$)

Consider **circular edge-on orbit:**

circumference = $2\pi a$



$$\frac{\Delta t}{P} \approx \frac{2(R_* + r_p)}{2\pi a} \approx \frac{R_*}{\pi a}$$

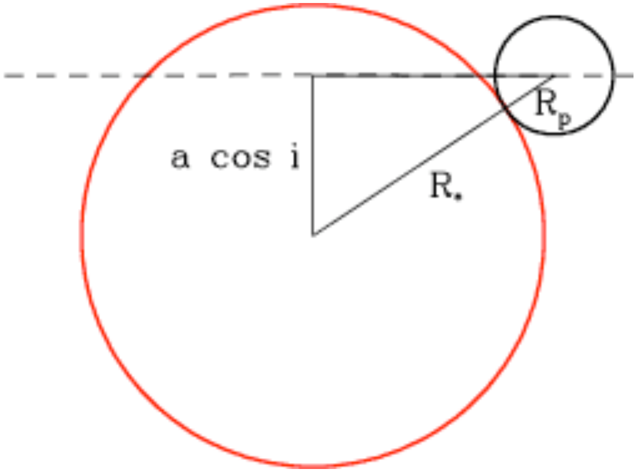
$$\text{Kepler's law :} \quad a^3 = G M_* \left(\frac{P}{2\pi} \right)^2$$

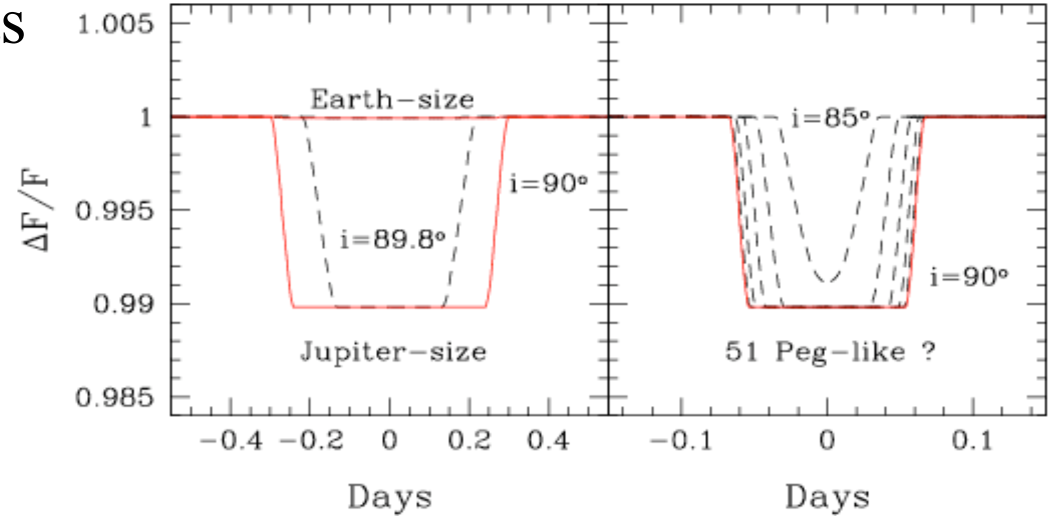
$$\Delta t \approx \frac{P R_*}{\pi a} = \frac{P R_*}{\pi} \left(\frac{4\pi^2}{GMP^2} \right)^{1/3}$$

$$= 3\mathrm{h} \left(\frac{P}{4\mathrm{d}} \right)^{1/3} \left(\frac{R_*}{R_{Sun}} \right) \left(\frac{M_*}{M_{Sun}} \right)^{-1/3}$$

Transit Duration ($i < 90^o$)

Transit duration reduces to 0 as orbit tips away from edge-on.





$$t_T = \frac{P}{\pi}\arcsin\left(\frac{R_*}{a}\left\{\frac{\left[1+(R_p/R_*)\right]^2-\left[(a/R_*)\cos i\right]^2}{1-\cos^2 i}\right\}^{1/2}\right) ;$$

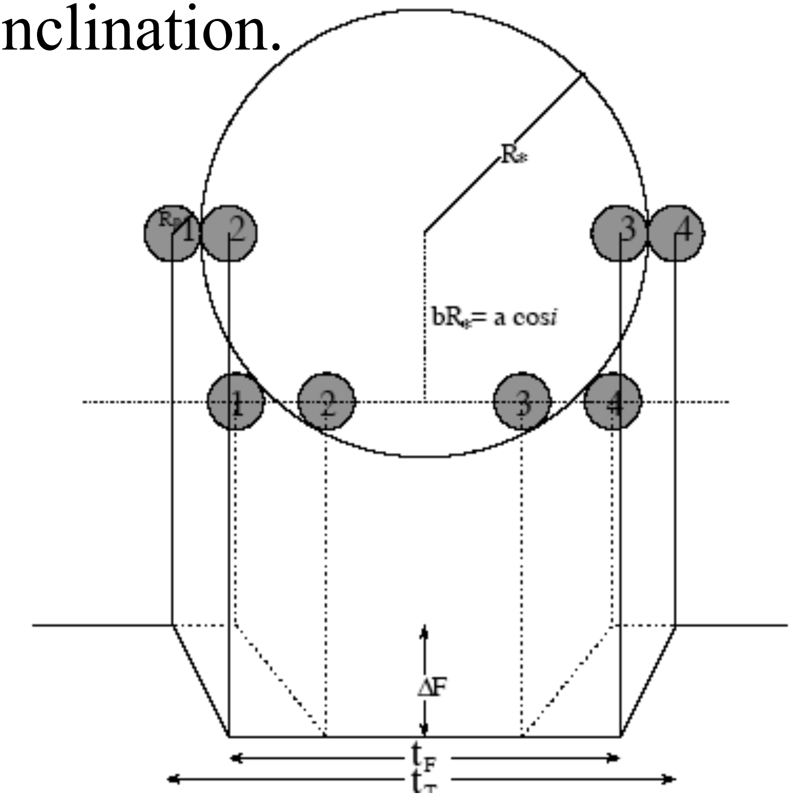
For cos i << 1 this becomes:

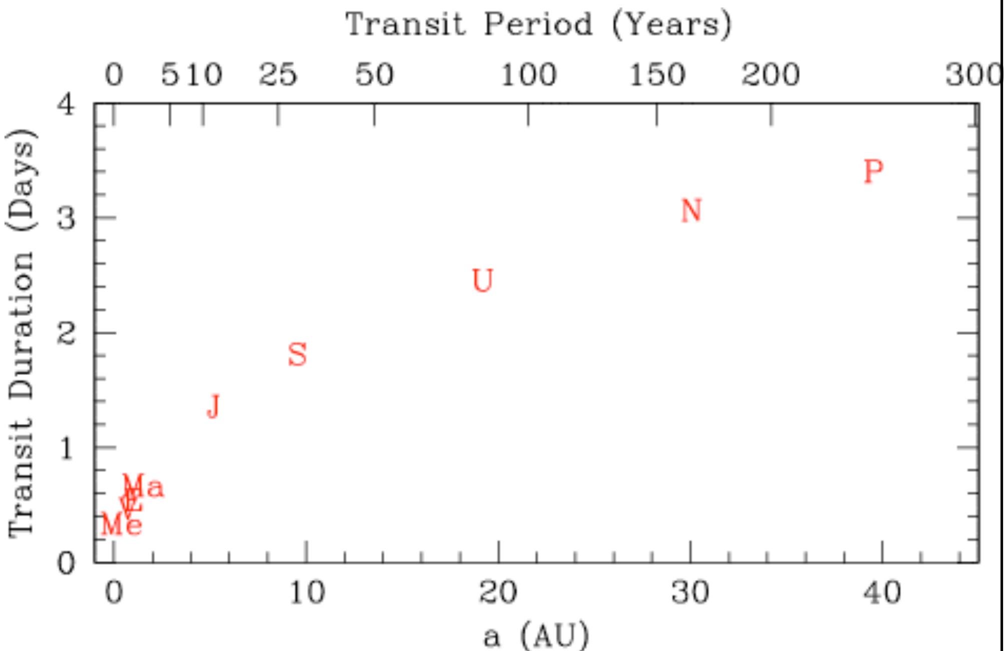
$$t_T = \frac{PR_*}{\pi a}\sqrt{\left(1+\frac{R_p}{R_*}\right)^2-\left(\frac{a}{R_*}\cos i\right)^2} .$$

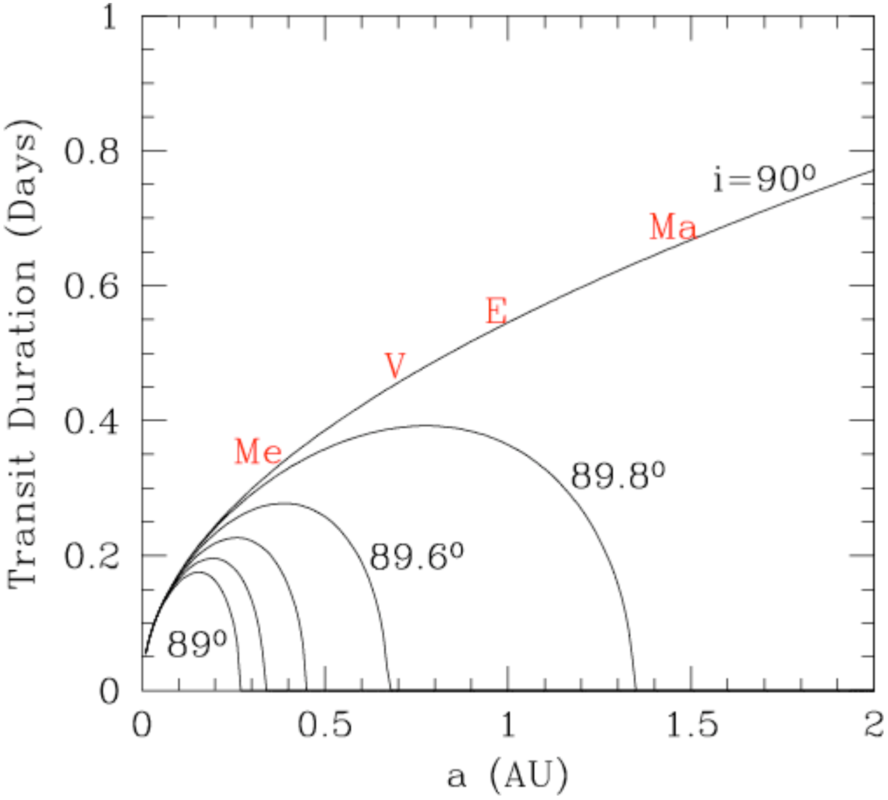
Transit Duration

$$t_T = \frac{PR_*}{\pi a}\sqrt{\left(1+\frac{R_p}{R_*}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{a}{R_*}\cos i\right)^2}\ .$$

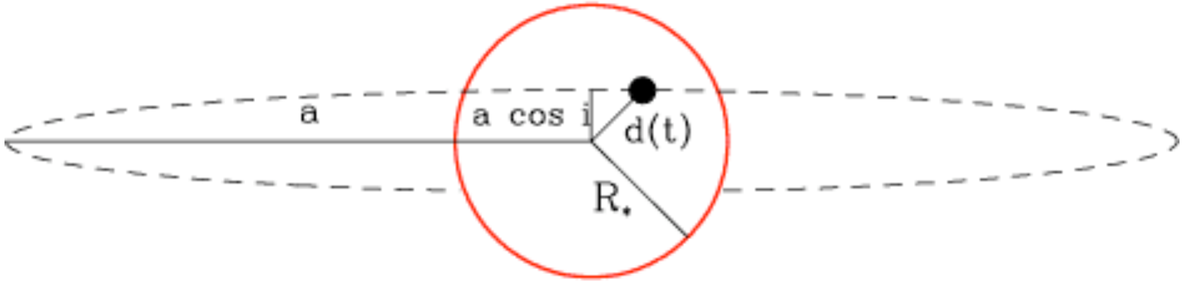
Shape of lightcurve determines impact parameter, $b = a \cos i / R_*$ hence inclination.







Transit Probability



Transits occur only in nearly edge-on orbits: $a \cos i \leq R_* + R_p$

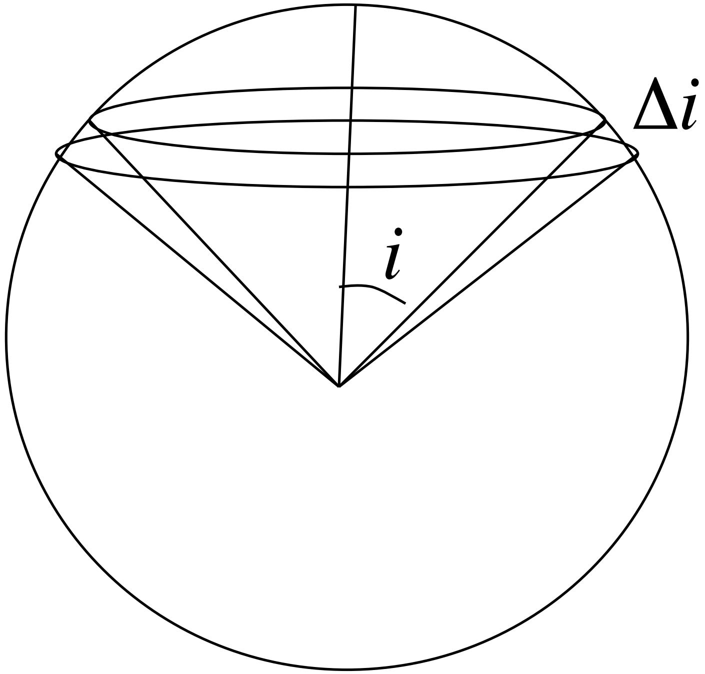
Random orbit orientation -> probability uniform in cos(*i*).

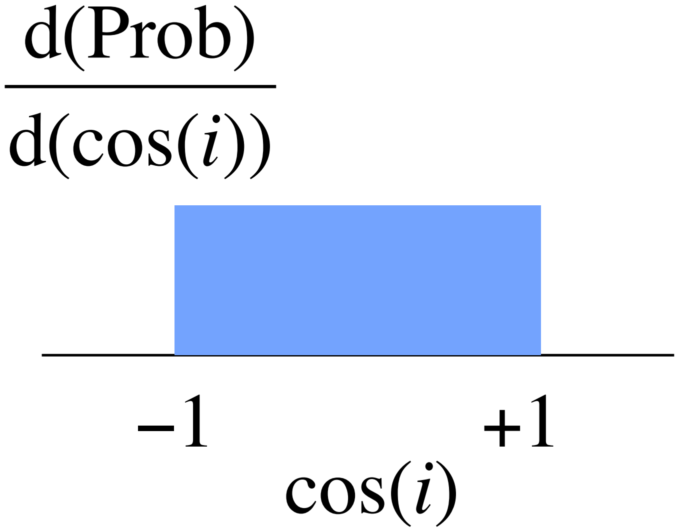
Transit probability is then: $\mathrm{Prob}\left(\cos \mathrm{i} < \frac{R_* + R_p}{a}\right) = \frac{R_* + R_p}{a} \approx \frac{R_*}{a}$

Transit surveys find planets in small orbits around large parent stars.

Random Orbit Orientation

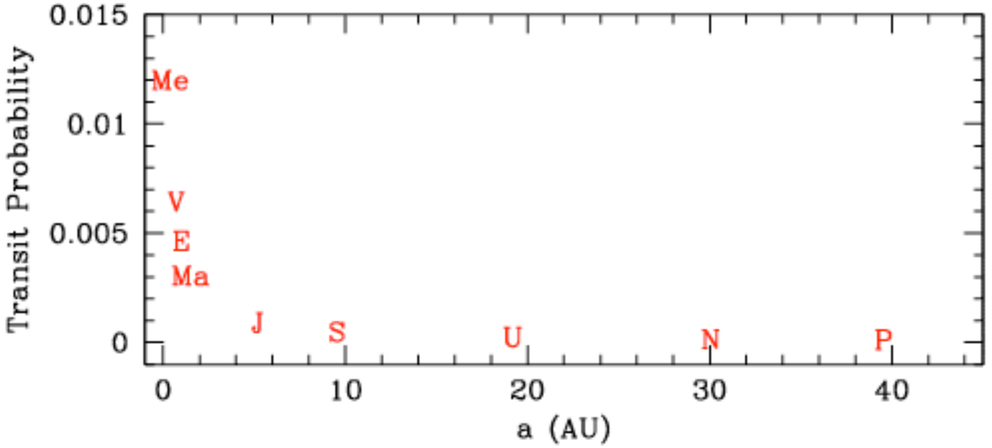
$$d(\mathrm{Prob}) = \frac{\mathrm{d}\Omega}{4\pi} = \frac{2\pi\,\sin(i)\,\mathrm{d}(i)}{4\pi} = \frac{\mathrm{d}(\cos(i))}{2}$$

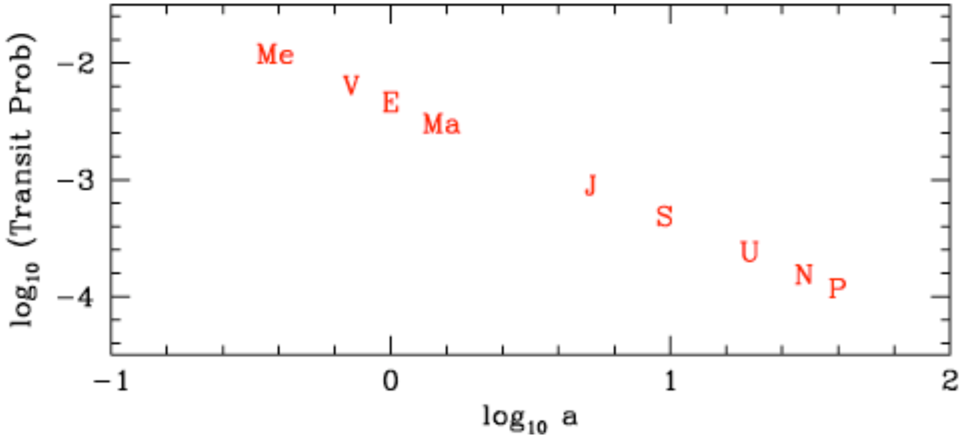




Transit Probability

$$\text{Prob} \approx \frac{R_*}{a} \approx 0.005\left(\frac{R_*}{R_{sun}}\right)\left(\frac{1AU}{a}\right)$$





- Hot planets more likely to be detected.
- Prob = 0.5 % at 1 AU, Prob = 0.1 % at 5 AU (Jupiter’s orbit)
- Prob = 10% at 0.05 AU (Hot Jupiters)
- Thousands of stars must be monitored to discover planets by spotting their transits.

(1) Spectral Type gives star mass and radius.

(2) Period (+ Kepler's law) gives orbit size.

(3) Depth of transit gives planet radius.

Models of planets with masses between ~ 0.1 M_J and 10 M_J, have almost **the same radii** (i.e. a flat mass-radius relation).

-> Giant planets transiting solar-type stars expected to have transits depths of around 1%

(4) Impact parameter $b = a \cos(i)/R_*$, determined from the shape of the transit, gives a measure of inclination angle.

(5) Bottom of light curve is not flat in all wave bands, providing a measure of stellar limb-darkening

(6) Since inclination is measured, can measure mass, not just lower limit $m_p \sin(i)$, from the radial velocity data.

Photometry at better than 1% precision is possible (not easy!) from the ground.

By 2000, over 20 independent ground-based searches for transiting planets were started.

SuperWASP, Tres, XO, HAT, OGLE have detected nearly all transiting planets. Mostly gas giant planets.

Transit depth for an Earth-like planet is:

$$\left(\frac{R_{\text{Earth}}}{R_{\text{Sun}}}\right)^2 \approx 8 \times 10^{-5}$$

Photometric precision of ~ 10^{-5} can be achieved from space.

May provide first detection of habitable Earth-like planets

French satellite *Corot - launched 2006.*
NASA's *Kepler* mission - *launched 2009.*
ESA mission PLATO - under review.

Transit Surveys

Wide vs Deep

$D \sim 10 \text{ cm} \quad \theta \sim 10^{\mathrm{o}}$

$d \sim 300 \text{ pc} \quad \Delta\theta \sim 30 \text{ arcsec}$

All-sky surveys

Small wide-angle cameras survey bright nearby stars

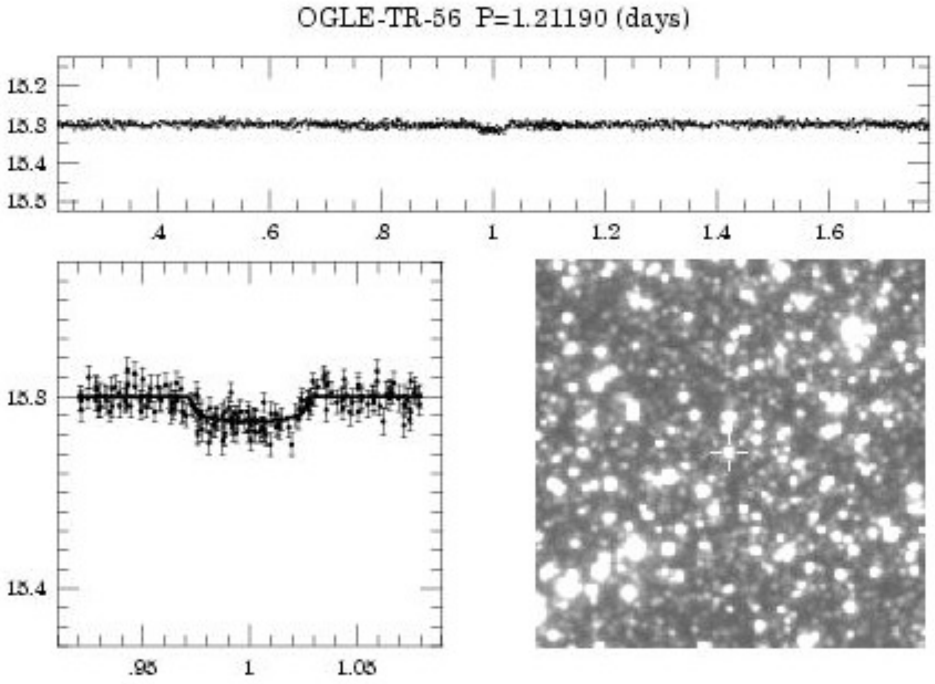
$D \sim 1-4 \text{ m} \quad \theta < 1^{\mathrm{o}}$

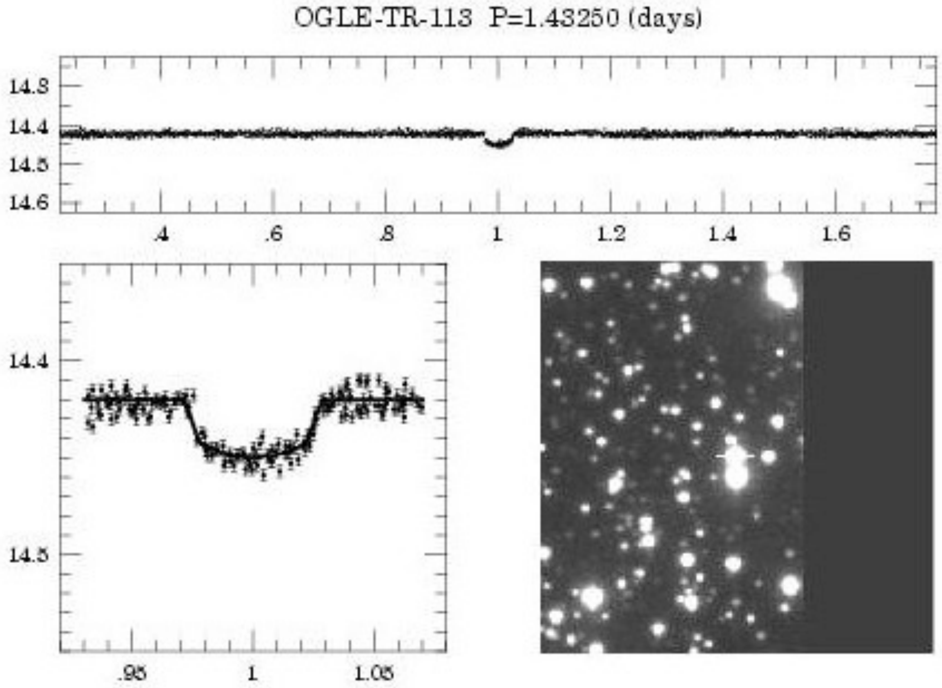
$d \sim 1-4 \text{ kpc} \quad \Delta\theta \sim 1 \text{ arcsec}$

Galactic plane fields

Larger telescopes (narrow fields) survey faint distant stars

OGLE III Deep Transit Survey


OGLE-TR-56 P=1.21190 (days)


OGLE-TR-113 P=1.43250 (days)

1.3m microlens survey telescope Las Campanas, Chile.
Mosaic 8-chip CCD camera. 2001 Galactic Bulge -- 64 candidates
2002 Carina -- 73 candidates

Spectroscopic follow-up of OGLE-TR-56b
confirms it is a planet with $m_p = 0.9\ m_J$ and $P = 1.2$ days

⇒ first exoplanet discovered using transits.

Wide-Angle Transit Surveys
Discovery Potential:

Assume HD 209458 (V=7.6 mag) is brightest.

mag	8	9	10	11	12	13
all sky	1	4	16	64	256	1024 Hot Jupiters!

100 x fainter -> 10 x farther -> 1000 x more targets.

How long to find them ?

All sky = 600 8°x8° fields x 2 months / field

~ 100/*N* years *N* = number of 8°x8° cameras

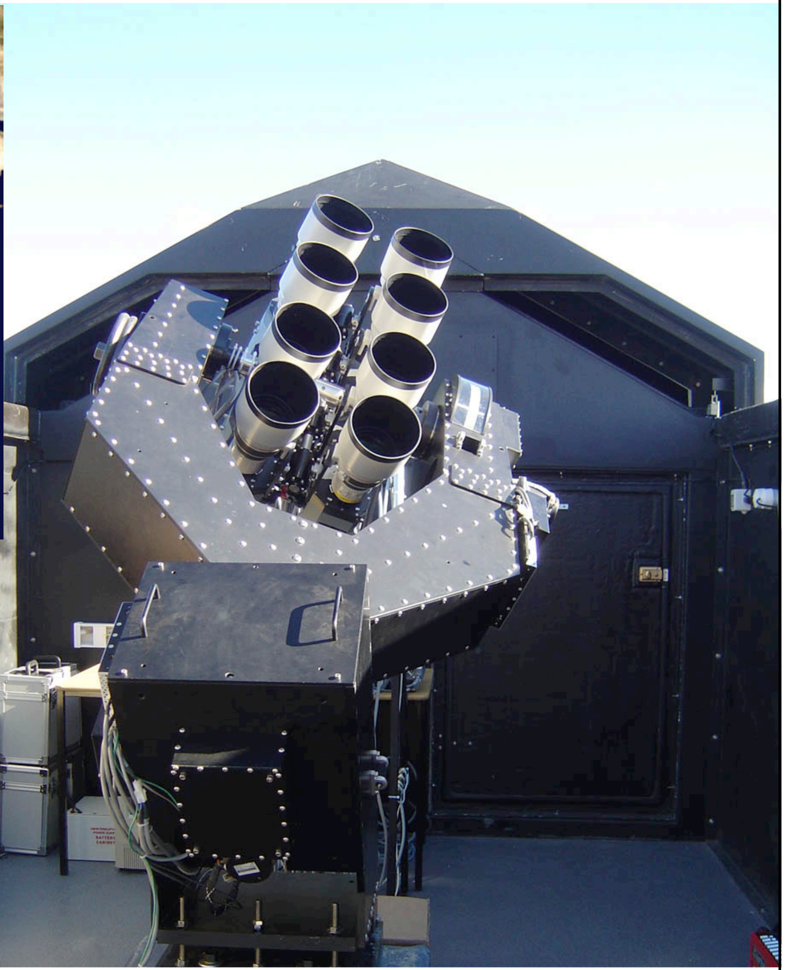
Need ~6 years for N=16

Super-WASP: Hot Jupiters

Wide-Angle Search for Planets

2004 **WASP North**
(La Palma, Canary Is.)

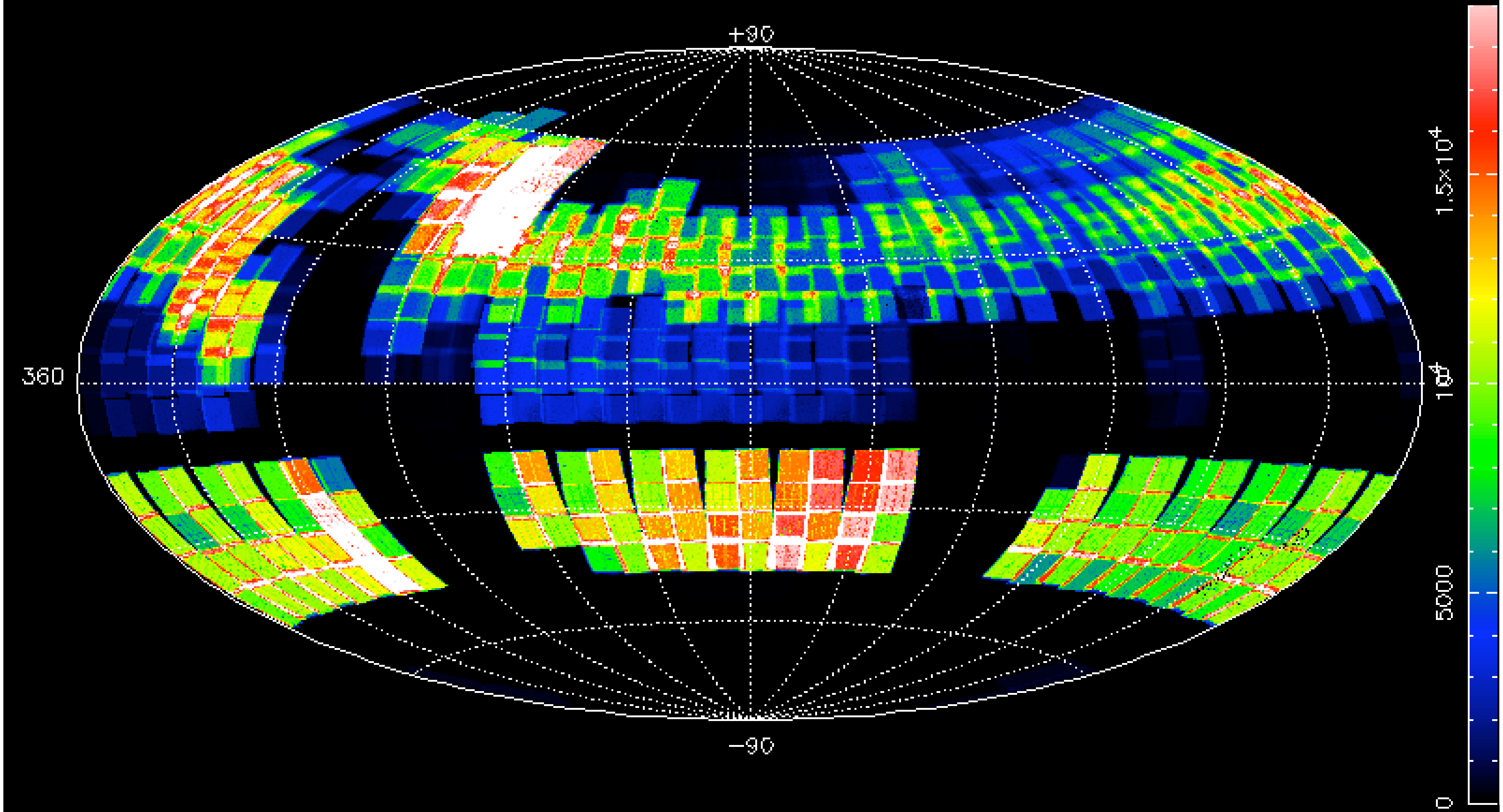
2006 **WASP South**
(South African Astronomical Obs.)



Robotic Mount with **8 cameras**
11cm F/1.8 lens + E2V CCD
8^o x 8^o field, 15 arcsec pixels
8 fields observed every 10 mins

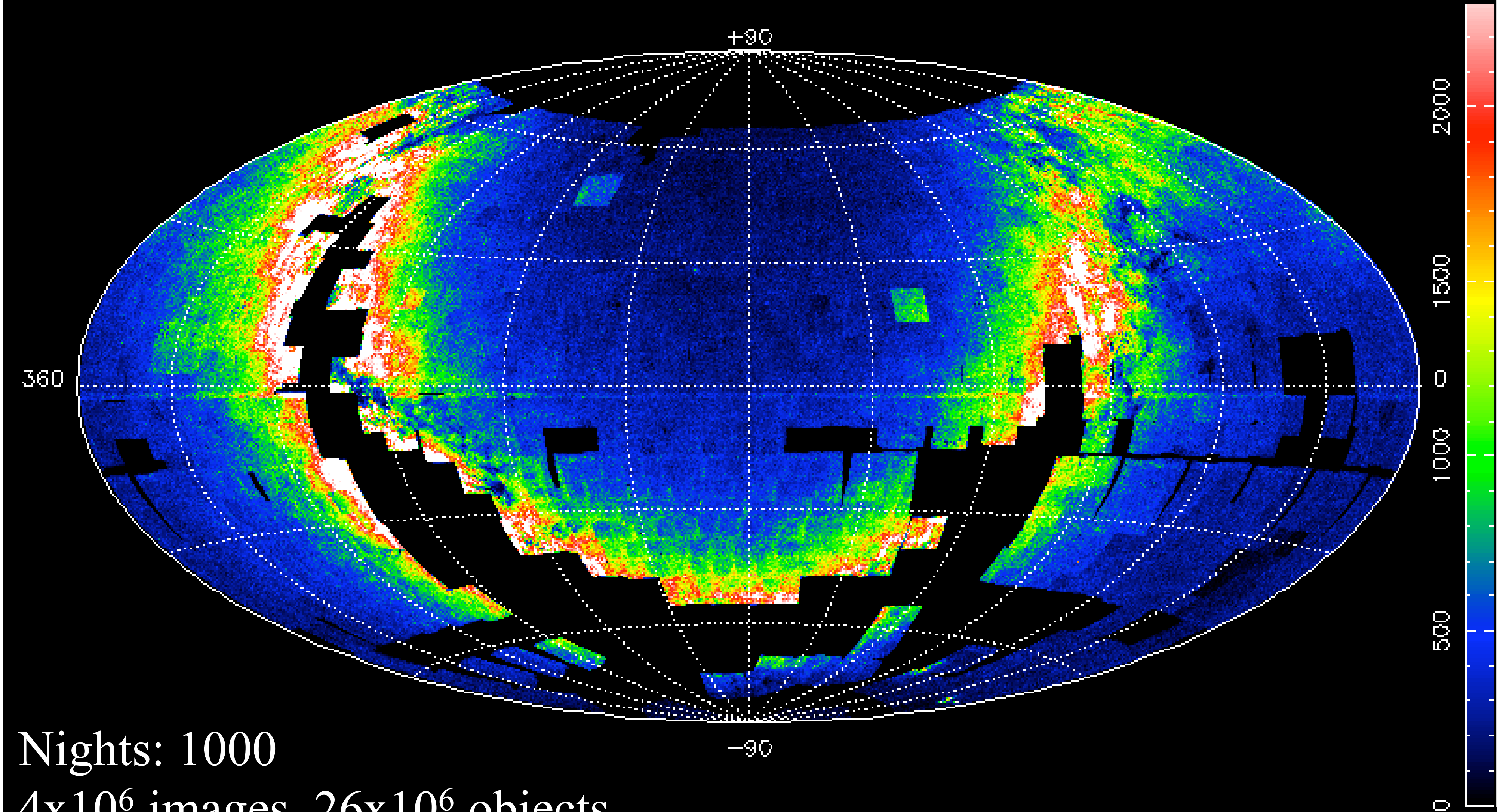
UK WASP Consortium: Belfast, St.Andrews, Keele, Open, Leicester, Cambridge, IAC, SAAO. **PI: Don Pollacco**

SuperWASP All-Sky Survey



Typically ~ 5000 obs over 120N per season per field

Star number density

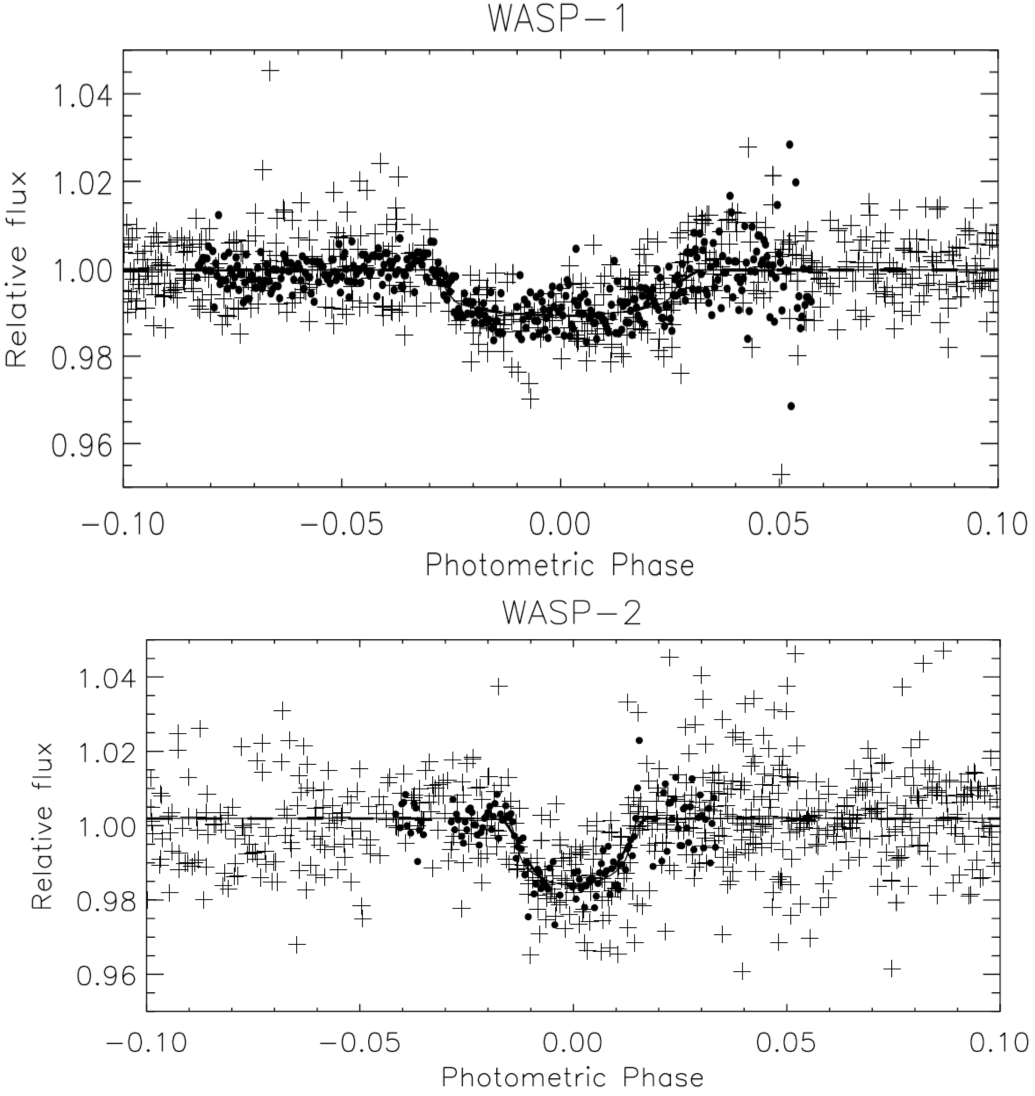


Nights: 1000

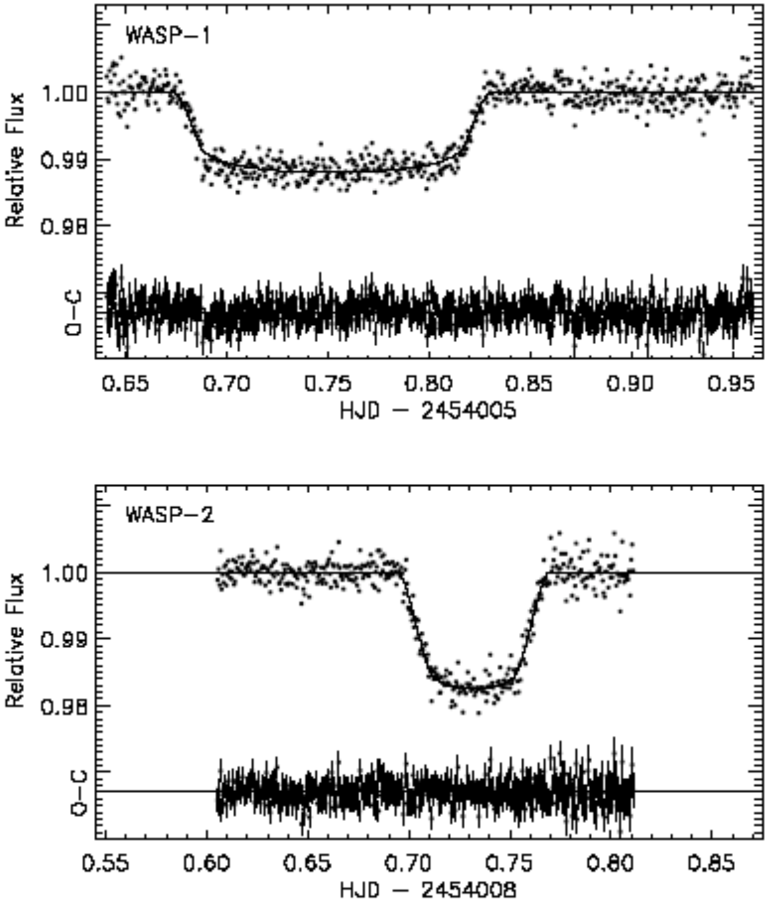
4×10^6 images, 26×10^6 objects

142×10^9 data points **22 planets**

WASP-1 and WASP-2



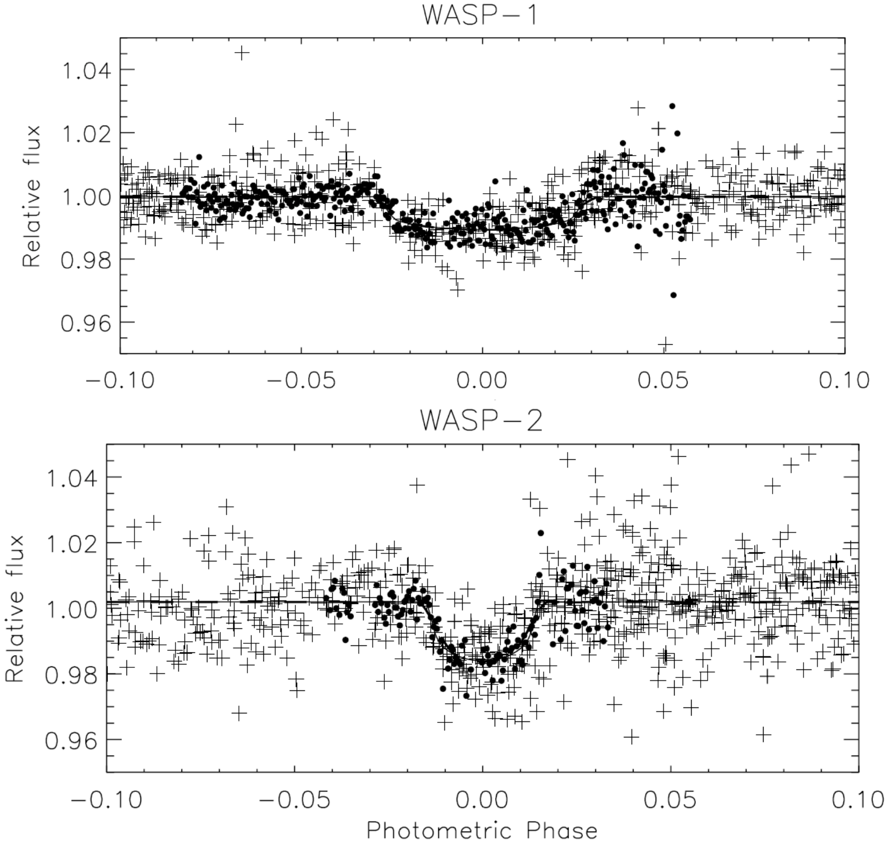
Collier-Cameron et al. (2006)



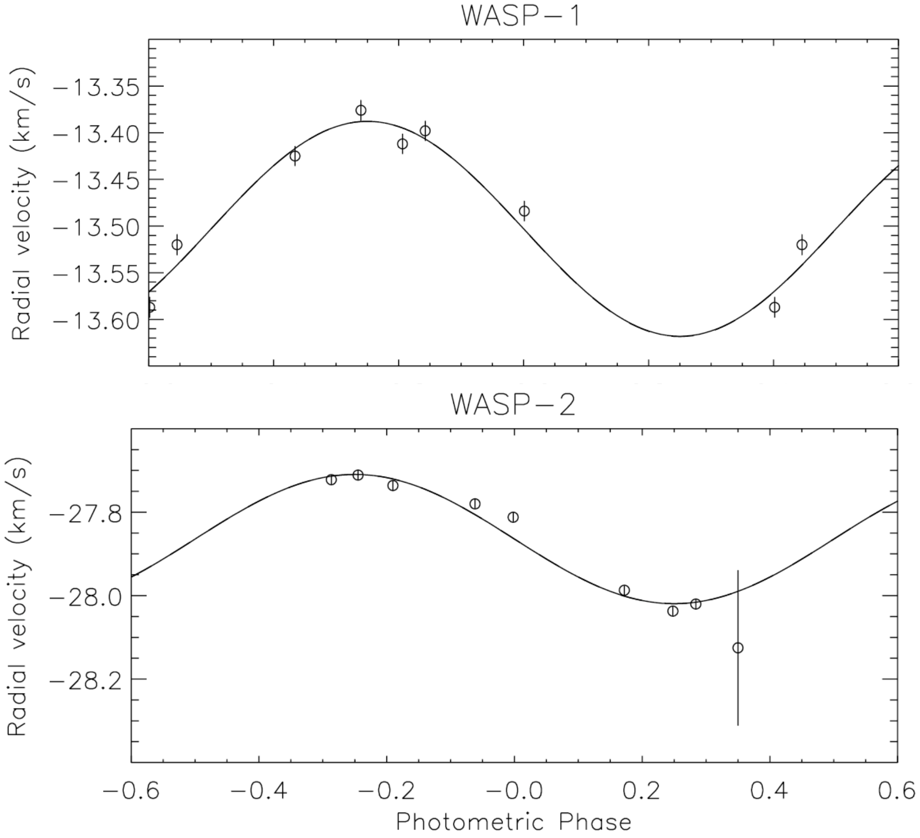
Follow-up photometry
5x more accurate radii.

Charbonneau et al. (2006)

WASP-1 and WASP-2

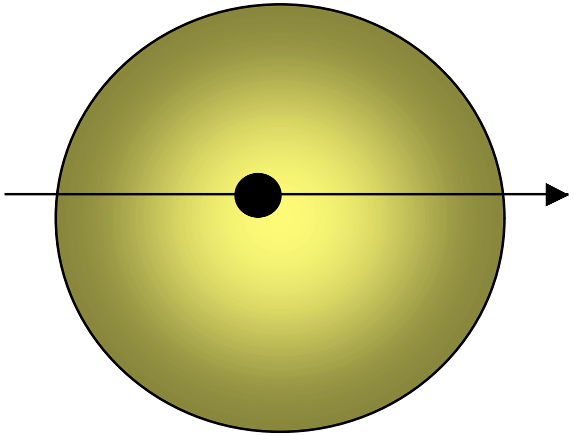


Transits discovered with SuperWASP (11cm cameras)

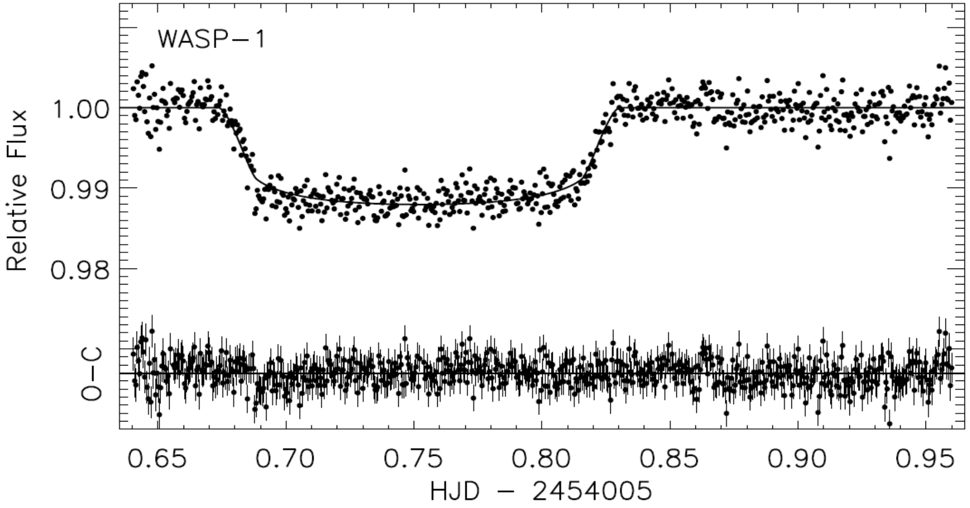


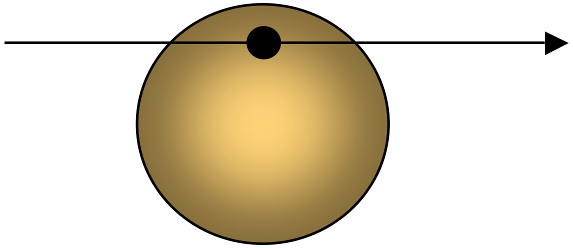
Doppler wobbles to confirm planetary mass (Geneva team)

WASP's first 2 Hot Jupiters

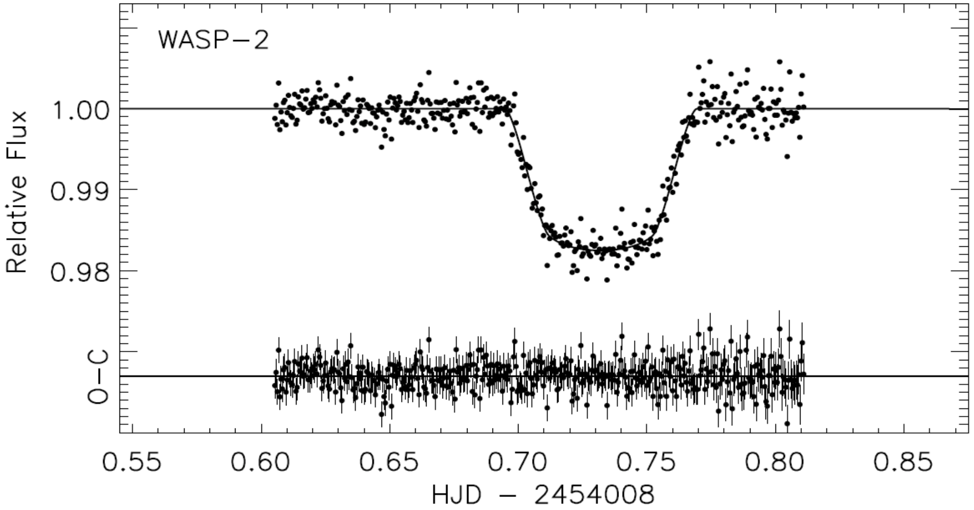


WASP-1



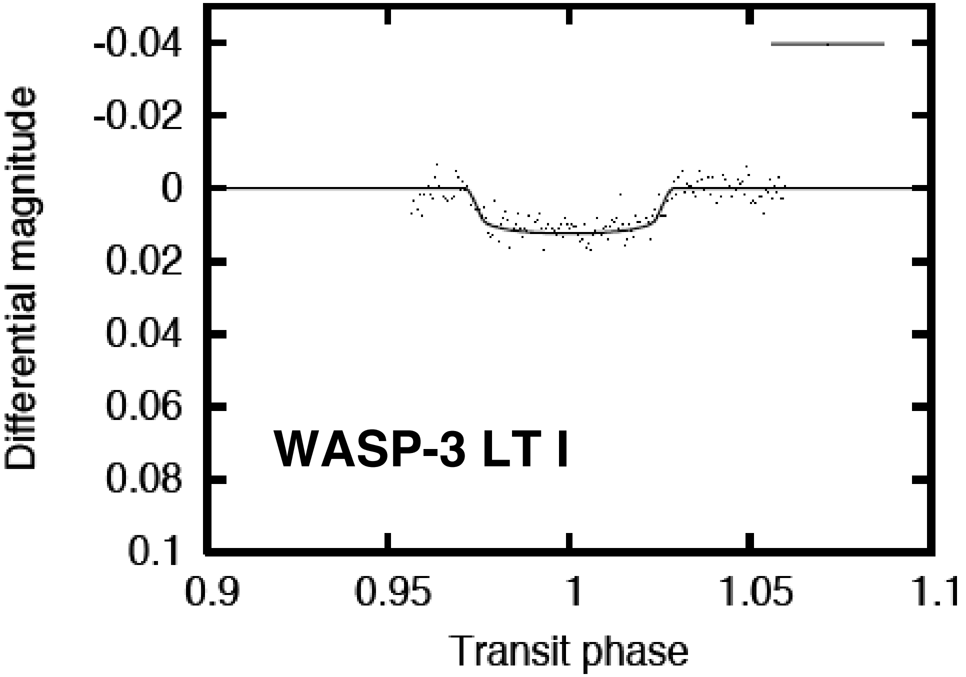


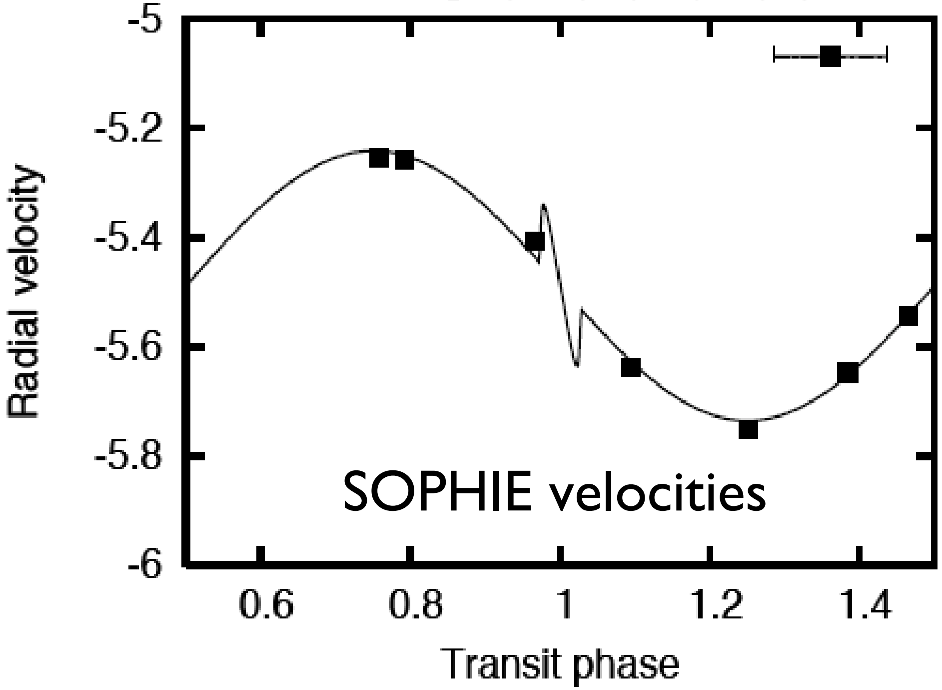
WASP-2

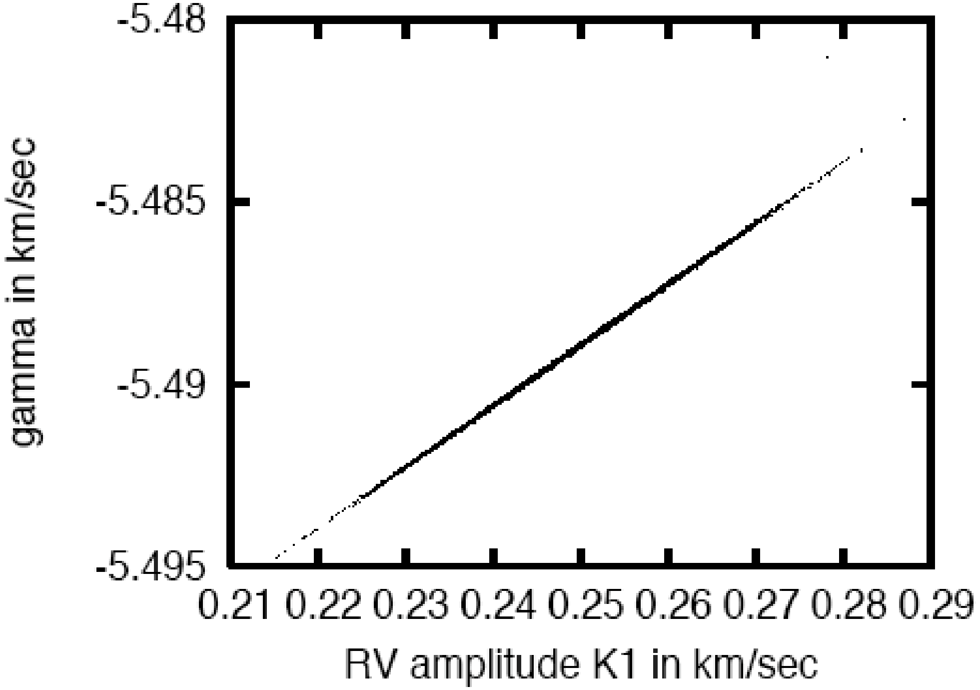


Collier-Cameron et al. 2007

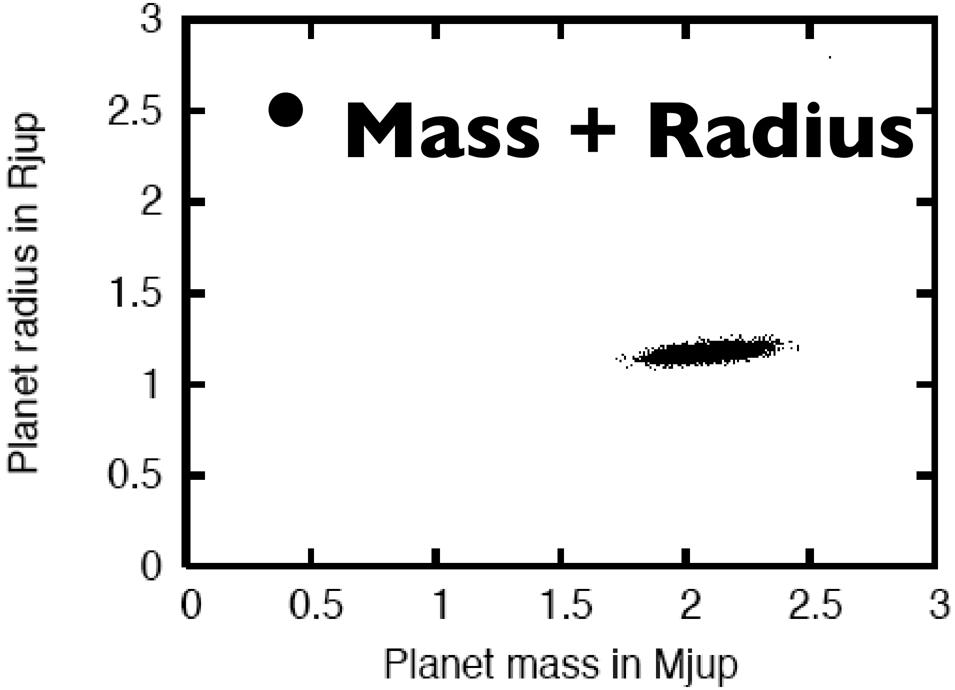
WASP-3 Transits + Velocities



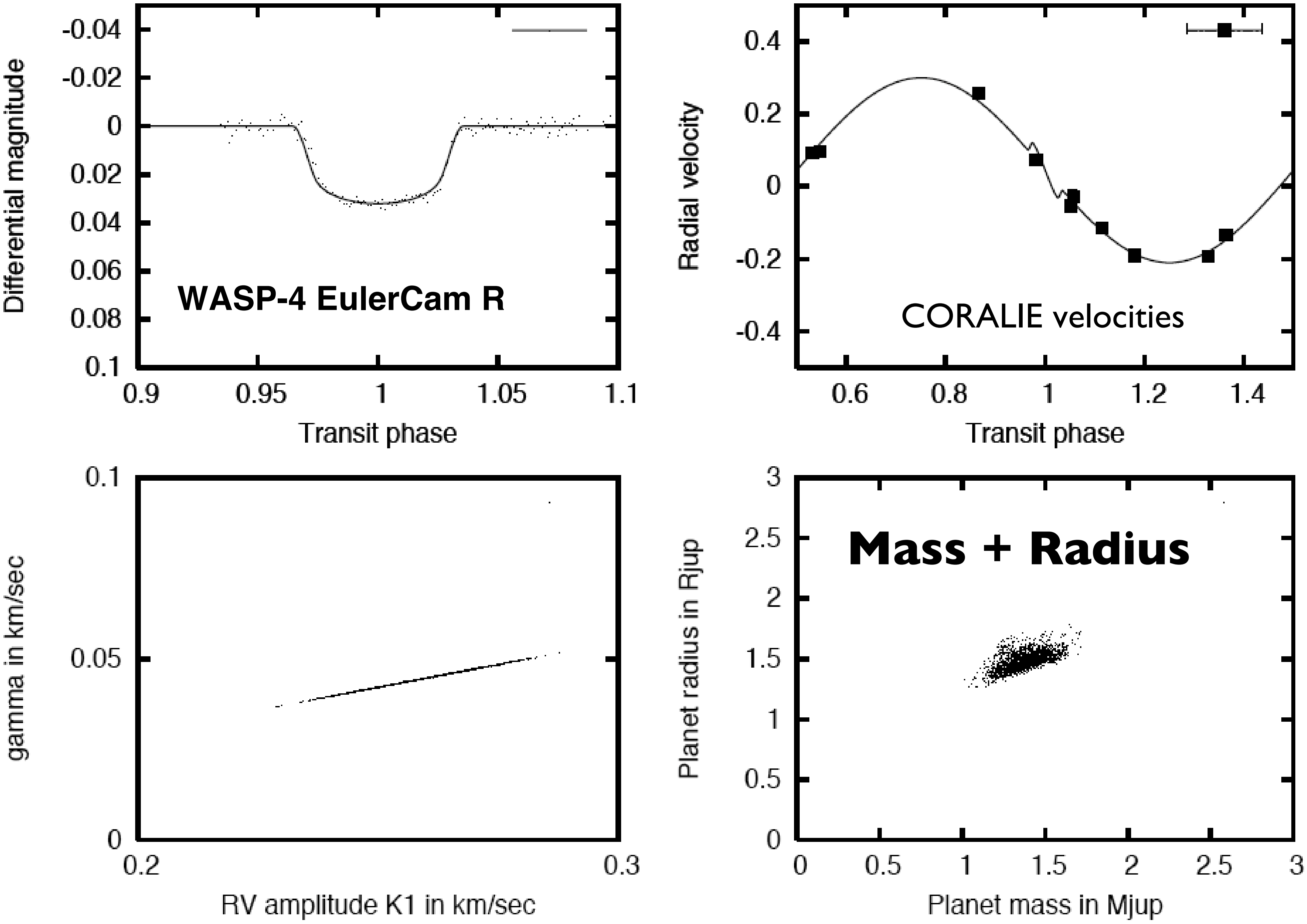




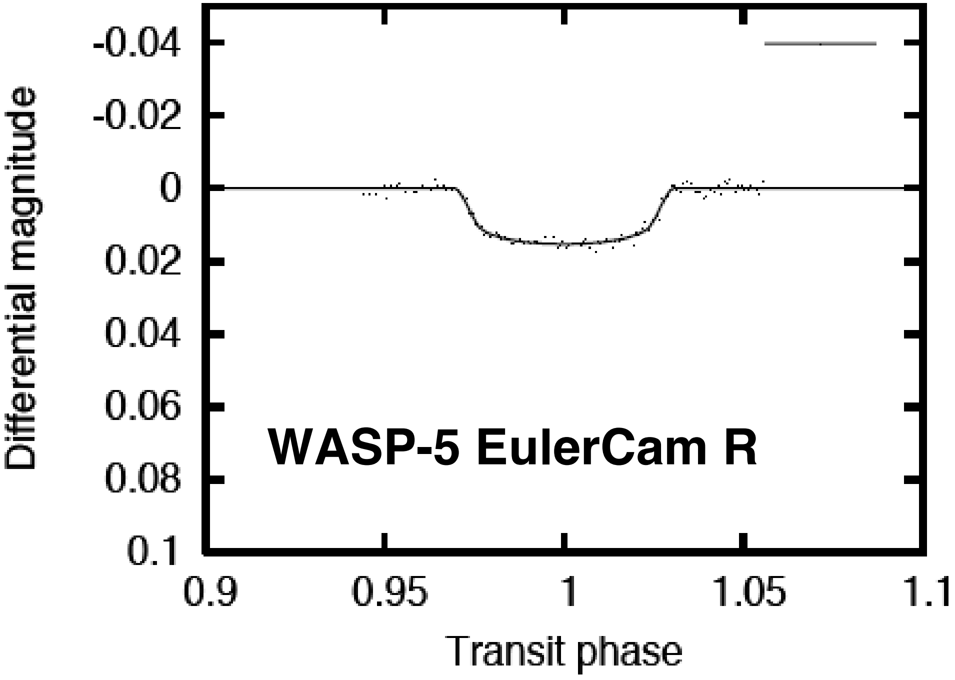
- **Mass + Radius**

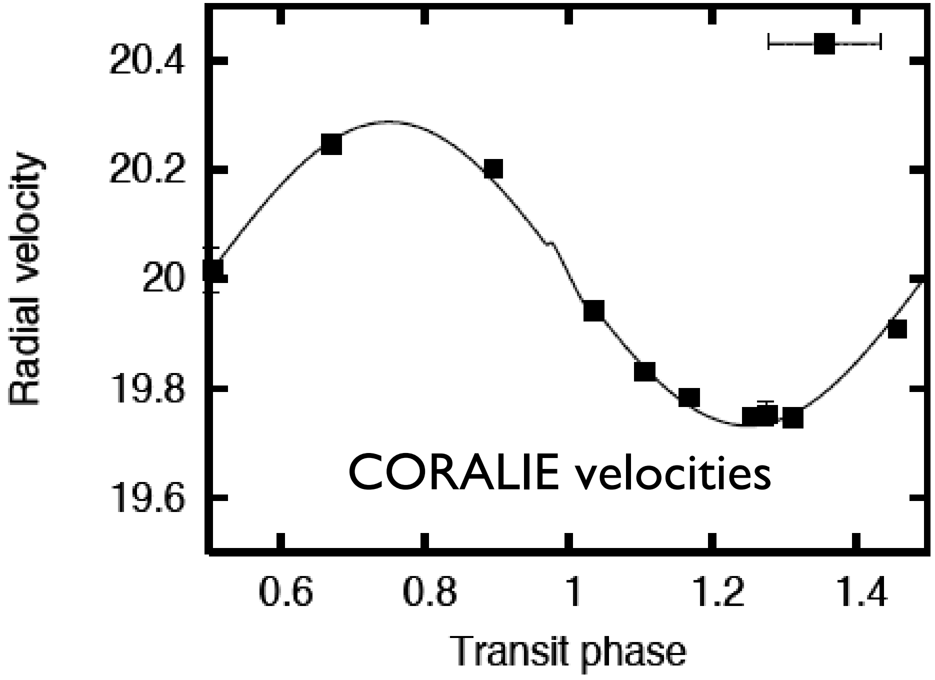


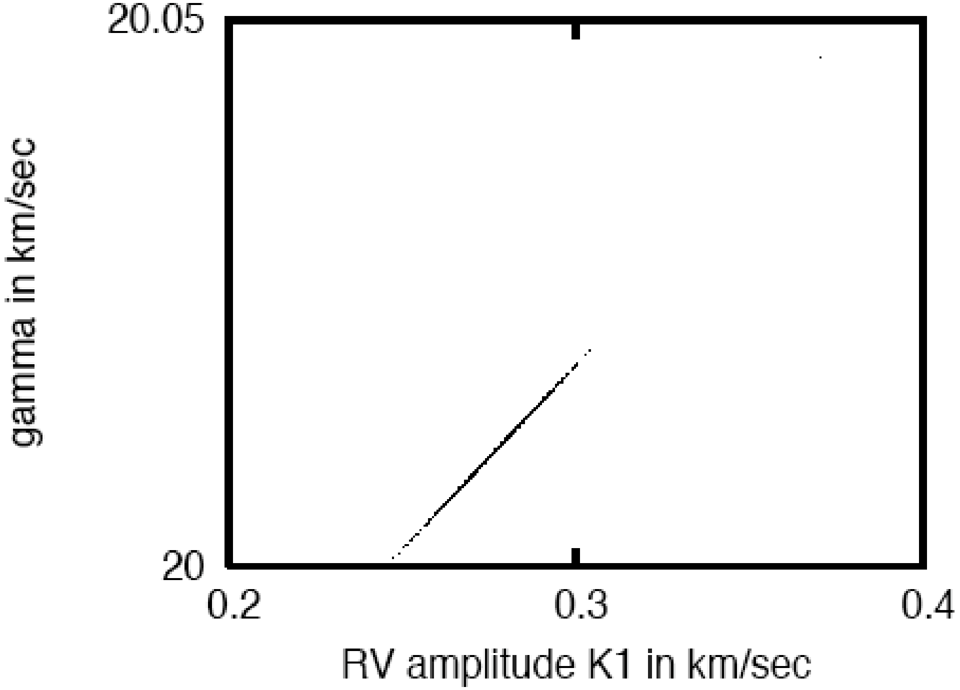
WASP-4 Transits + Velocities

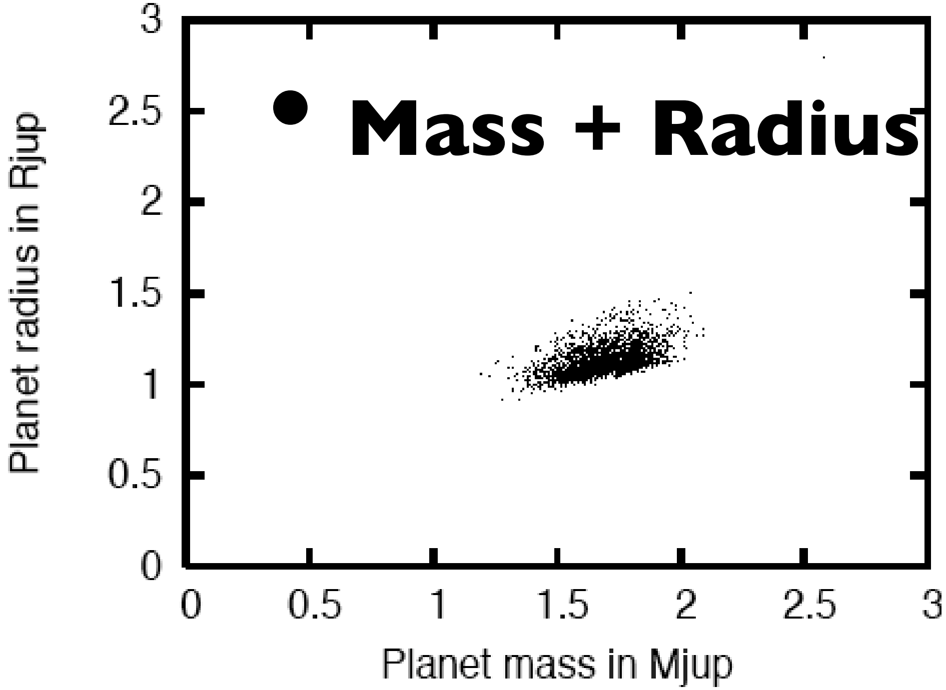


WASP-5 Transits + Velocities



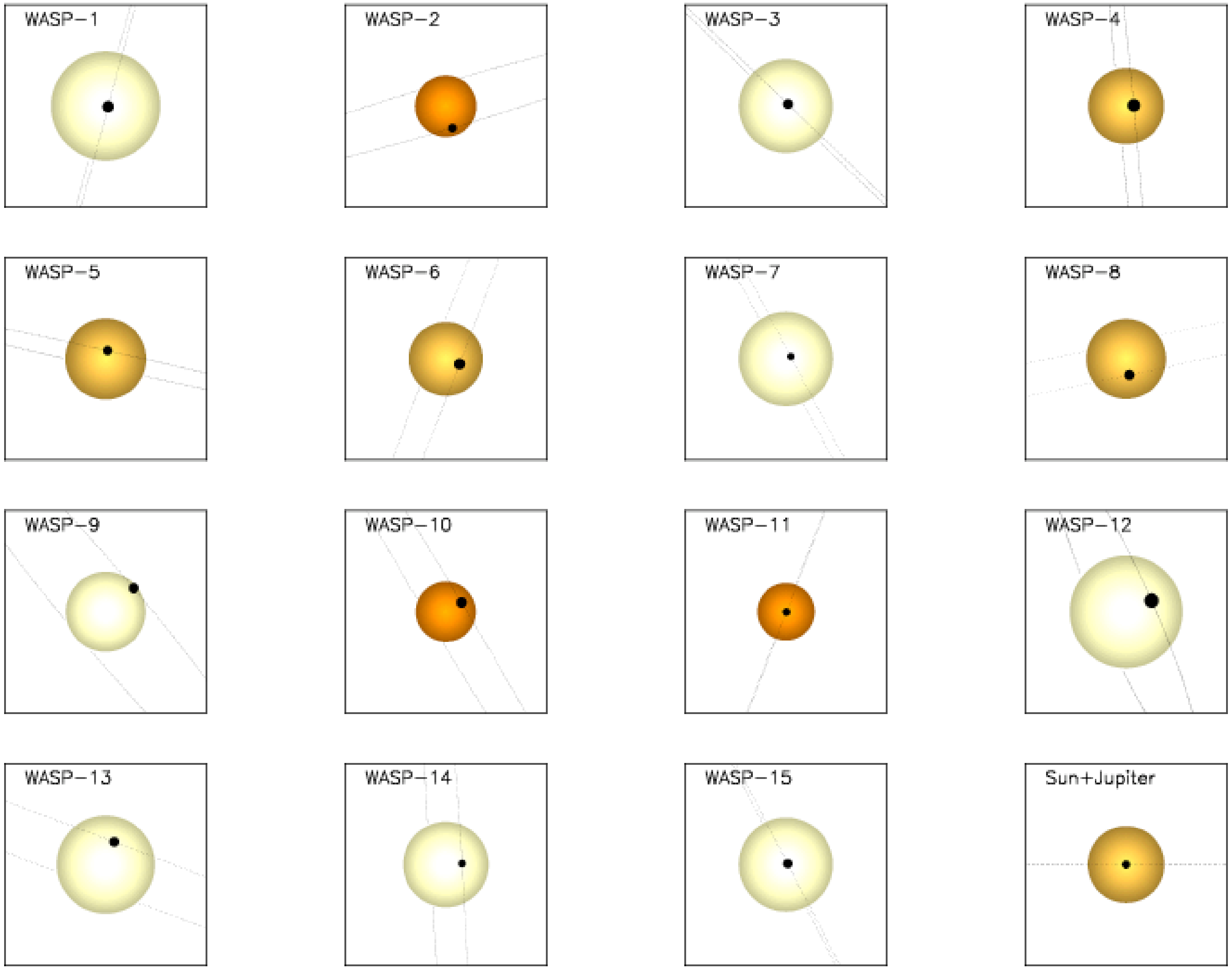




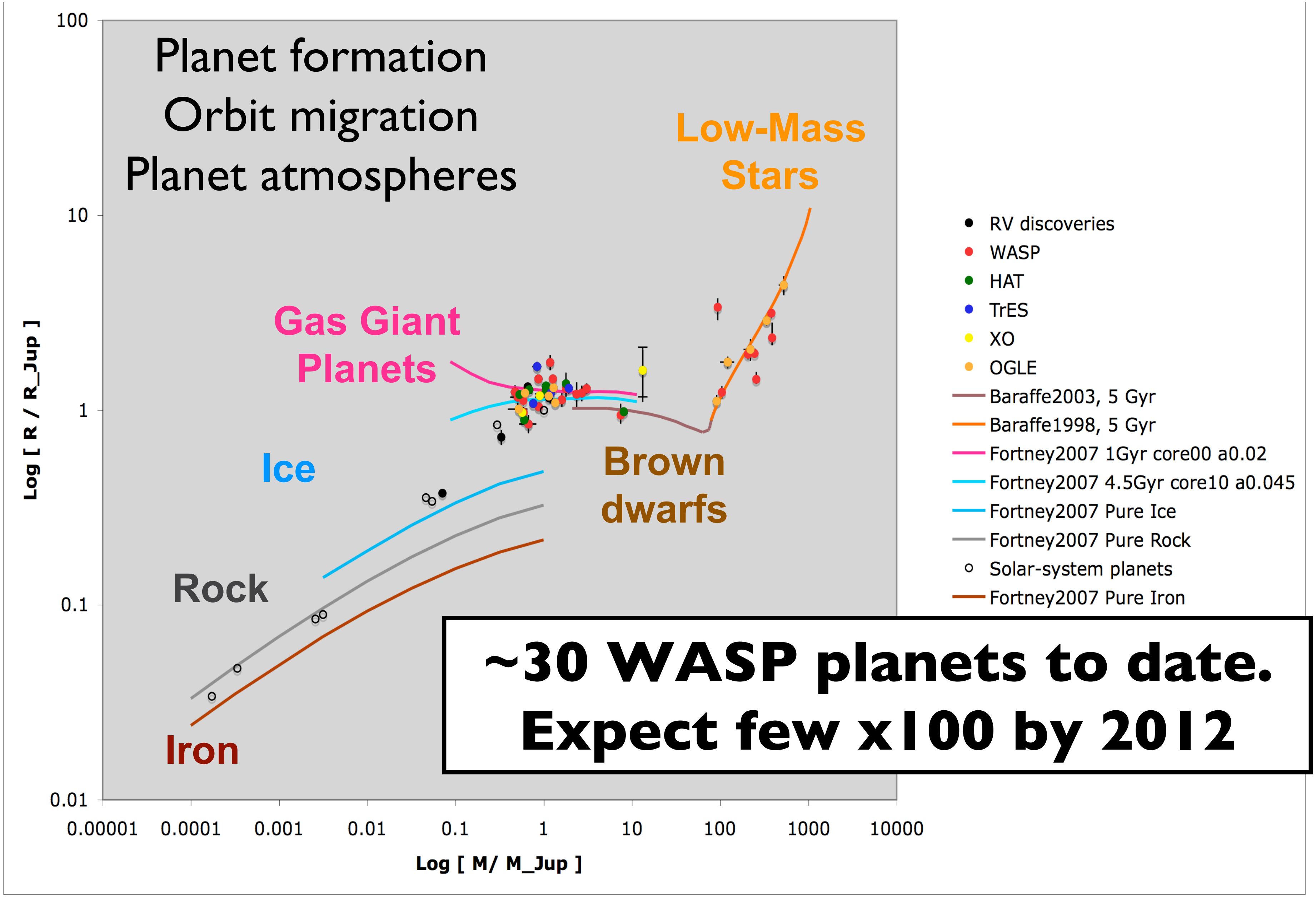


- **Mass + Radius**

WASP 1-15

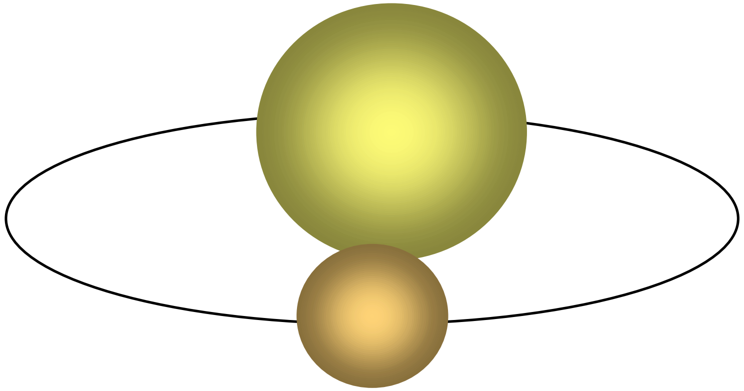

WASP−1
WASP−2
WASP−3
WASP−4
WASP−5
WASP−6
WASP−7
WASP−8
WASP−9
WASP−10
WASP−11
WASP−12
WASP−13
WASP−14
WASP−15
Sun+Jupiter

Mass-Radius Relations

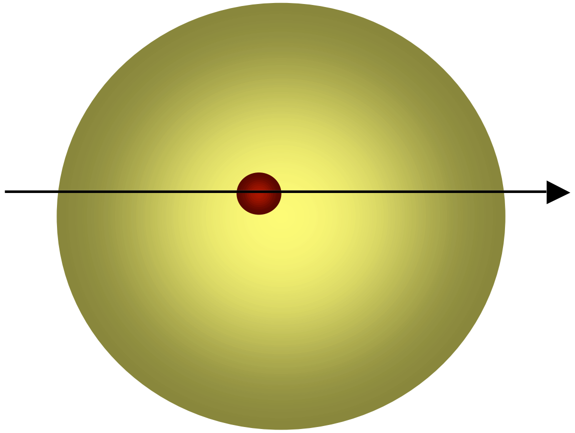


~30 WASP planets to date.
Expect few x100 by 2012

Astrophysical False Positives

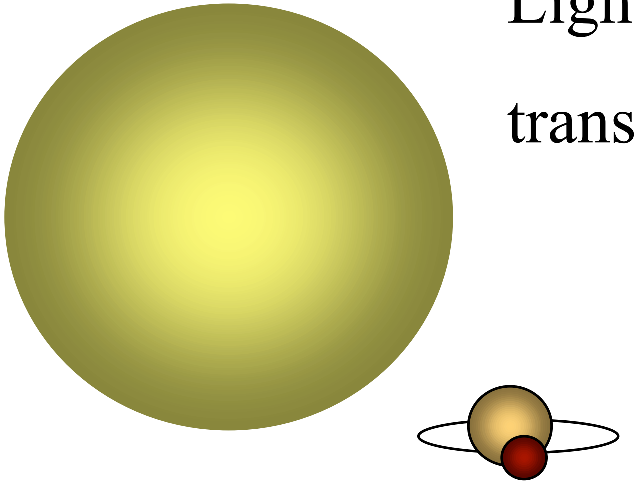


Grazing stellar binaries

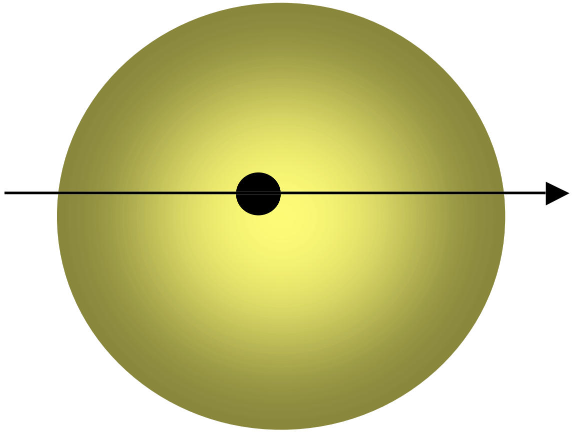


Transiting red/brown dwarfs

Lightcurves mimic those of transiting planets.



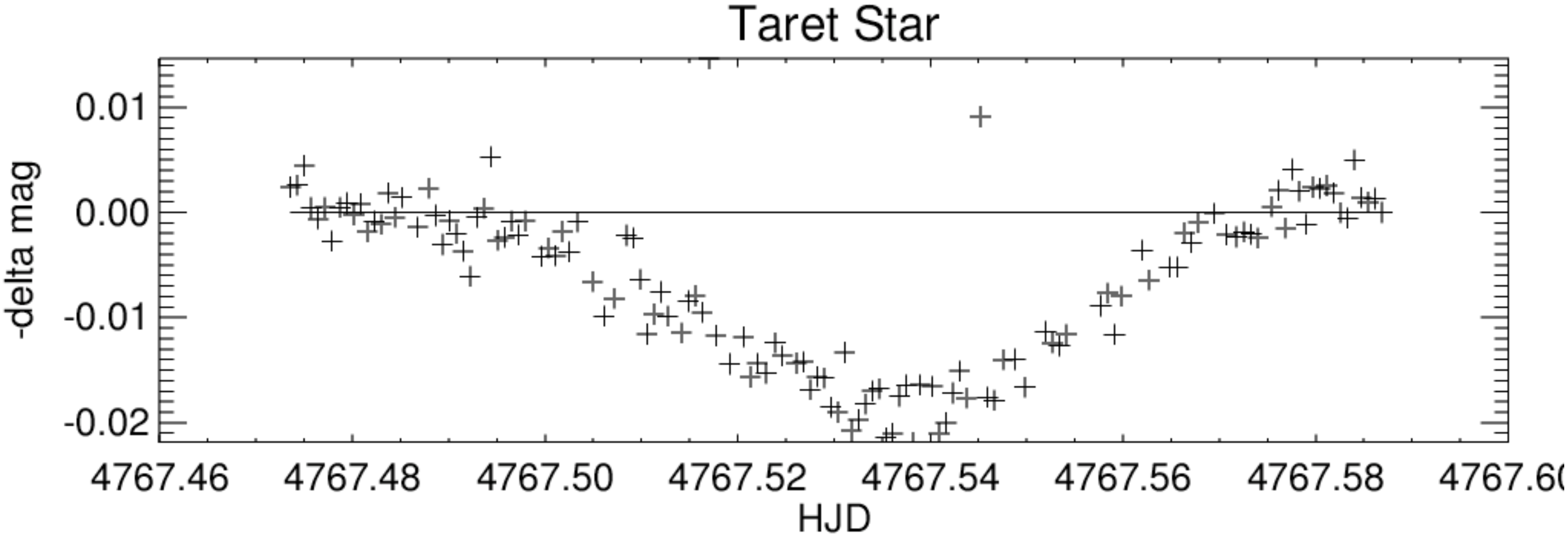
Blended stellar binaries



Planets

Grazing binary

2 equal mass, equal size stars that just barely eclipse eachother. This causes a small dip in brightness which is approximately planet sized. However, the transit is V-shaped.

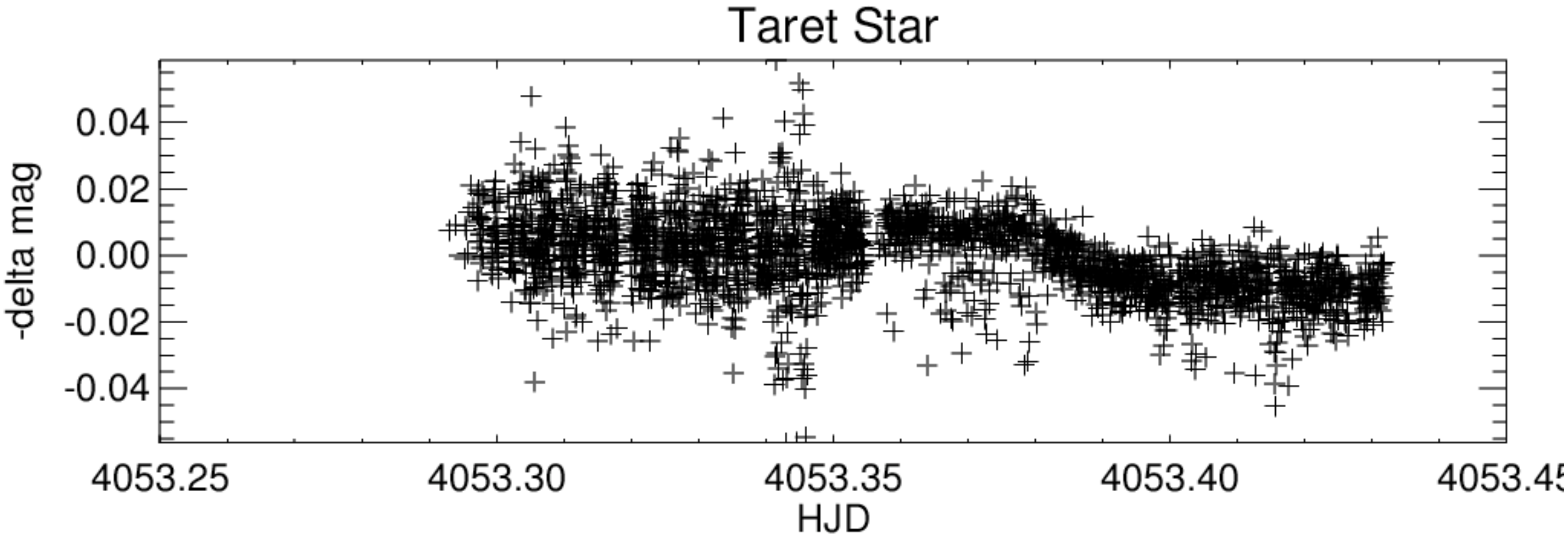


Observations taken with the JGT in St Andrews

M-dwarf secondary

Main sequence primary star, but massive M-dwarf secondary star (rather than planet mass secondary). Light curve is indistinguishable from a planet transit since late M-dwarfs are the same size as gas giant planets ($R_* \sim 0.1\ R_{sun} \sim 1\ R_J$).

Need RV to determine mass of the secondary object

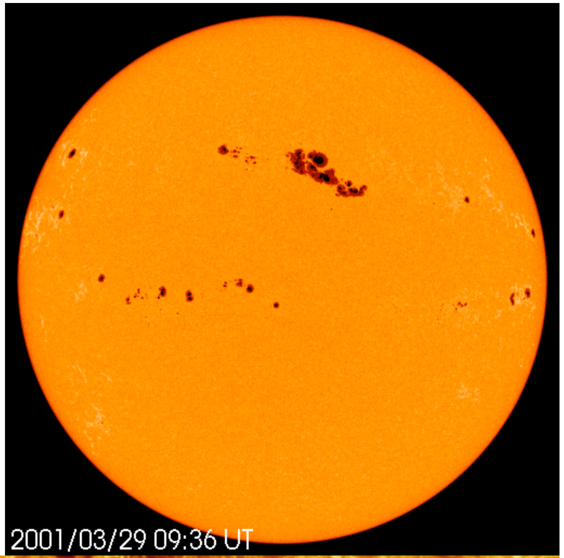


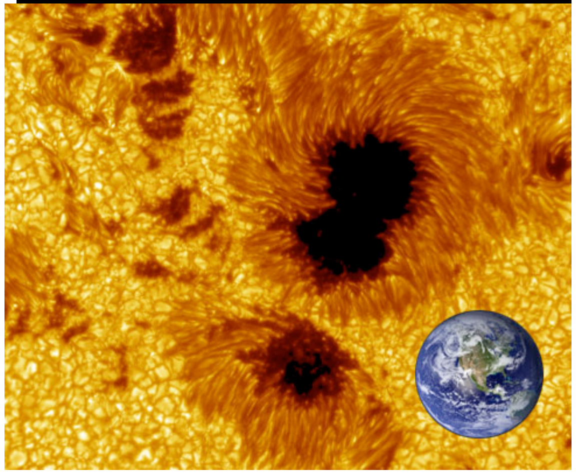
Observations taken with the JGT in St Andrews

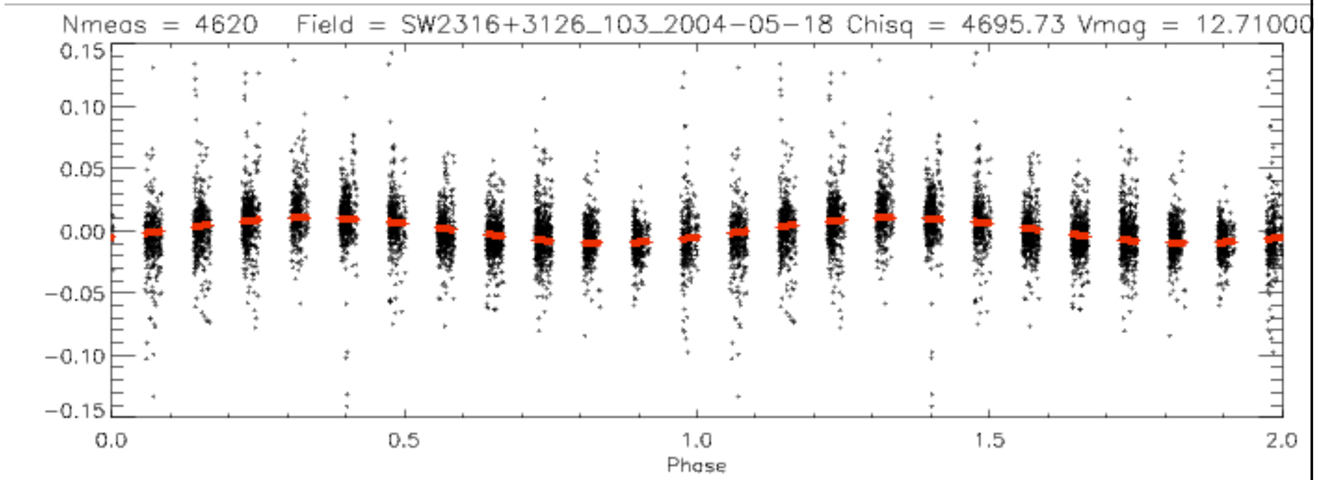
Star Spots

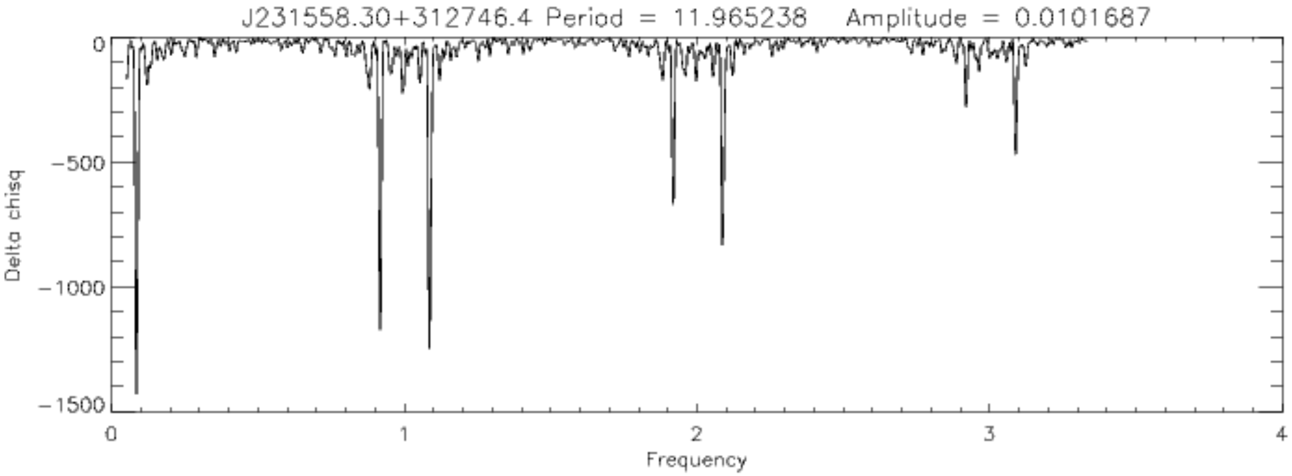
Multiple starspots tend to cause sine-like variations, not dips.

Starspots come and go, transiting planets are always there.









Makes detection of Earth sized planets more difficult

Sources of confusion

- A stellar binary can have an inclination such that the eclipsing secondary *grazes* the primary causing photometric dips very similar to those expected from planetary transits. Resolvable with multi-colour observations and spectroscopy
- Massive M-dwarf secondary, rather than a planet mass secondary
- Stellar spots – initally confusing but not permanent, different shape than a transit
- Line-of-sight blending with an eclipsing binary
  - blending due to large pixel of survey telescope can be rejected with photometry
  - unresolved blends require RV measurements and show variations with the "line-bisector"
- Giants stars showing dips in brightness. Secondary object would not be planet sized. Colors and proper motion of the star can distinguish giants from main sequence stars