

Exoplanet Discovery Methods

- (1) Direct imaging
- (2) Astrometry → position wobbles
- (3) Radial velocity → velocity wobbles
- (4) Transits → “winks”

Today: How to find Earths

- (5) Space Transits (Hot Earths)
- (6) Gravitational microlensing (Cool Earths)

Later:

- (7) Pulsar timing

How to find Earths ?

- **Hot Earths: *Transits from Space***

- 2007-10 ... CoRoT -- Launched Dec 2006
- 2009-15 ... Kepler -- Launched Mar 2009
- 2017 ? ... PLATO

- **Habitable Earths: Hard to Find**

- Habitable Zone: $T \sim 300\text{K}$ liquid water on rocky planet surface

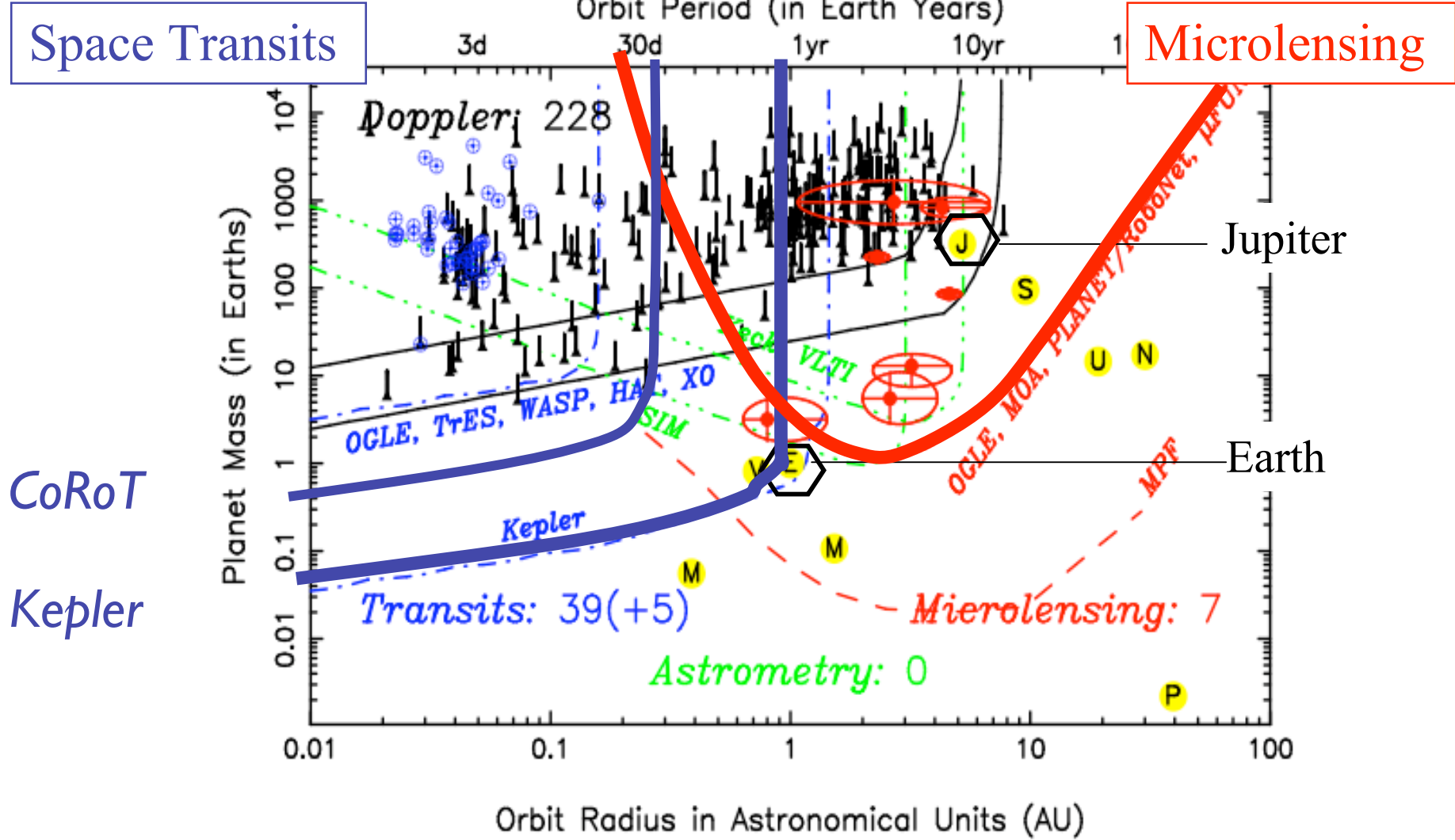
- **Cool Earths: *Gravitational Lensing***

- 2004-15 ... OGLE, MOA, μ FUN, PLANET RoboNet

+ **KMTNet** + **LCOGT** + **SUPA-2 Planet Hunter**

“Habitable” Earths: common or rare ?

Exoplanets: $39+228+7=274$ (Jun 2008)



Hot Earths

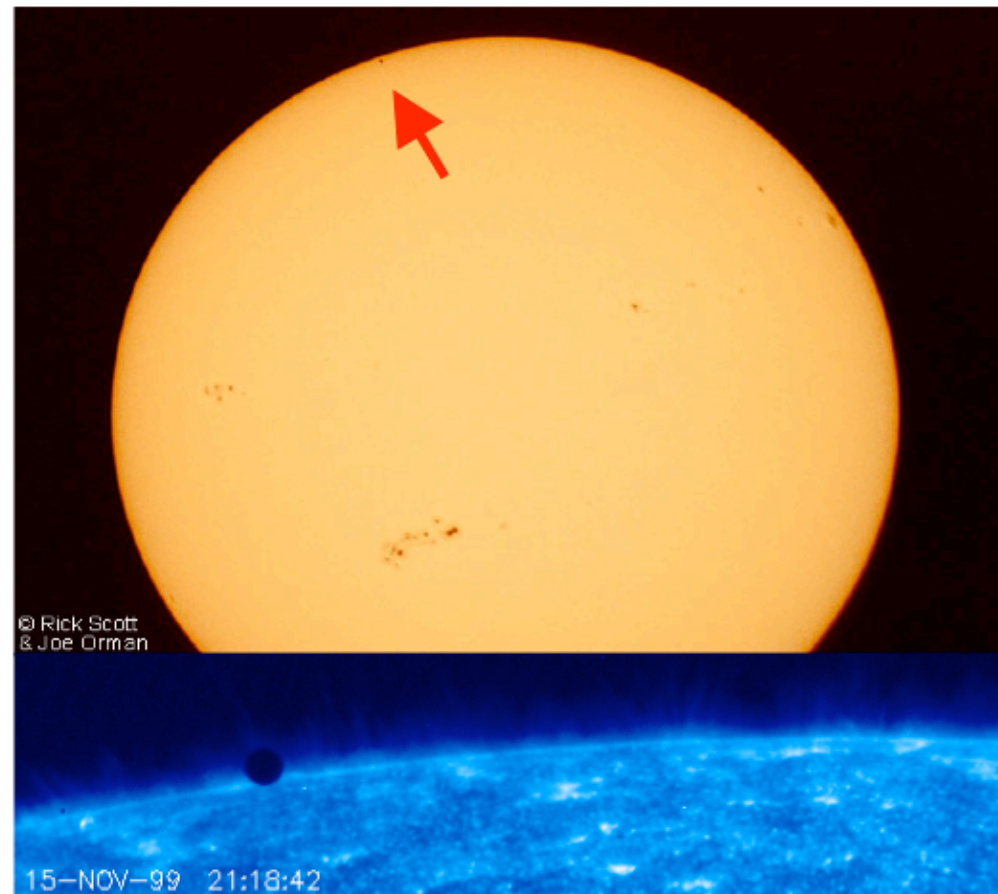
Transits from Space

Earth transit depth:

$$\frac{\Delta f}{f} \sim 10^{-4} = 0.01\%$$

HST and CoRoT
results suggest this
is detectable.

Mercury transiting the Sun
15 Nov 1999



Mercury transits:
2003 May 07
2006 Nov 08

Venus transits:
2004 Jun 08
2012 Jun 06

CoRoT (CNES/ESA)

Launch 27 Dec 2006

First CoRoT planet:
3 May 2007

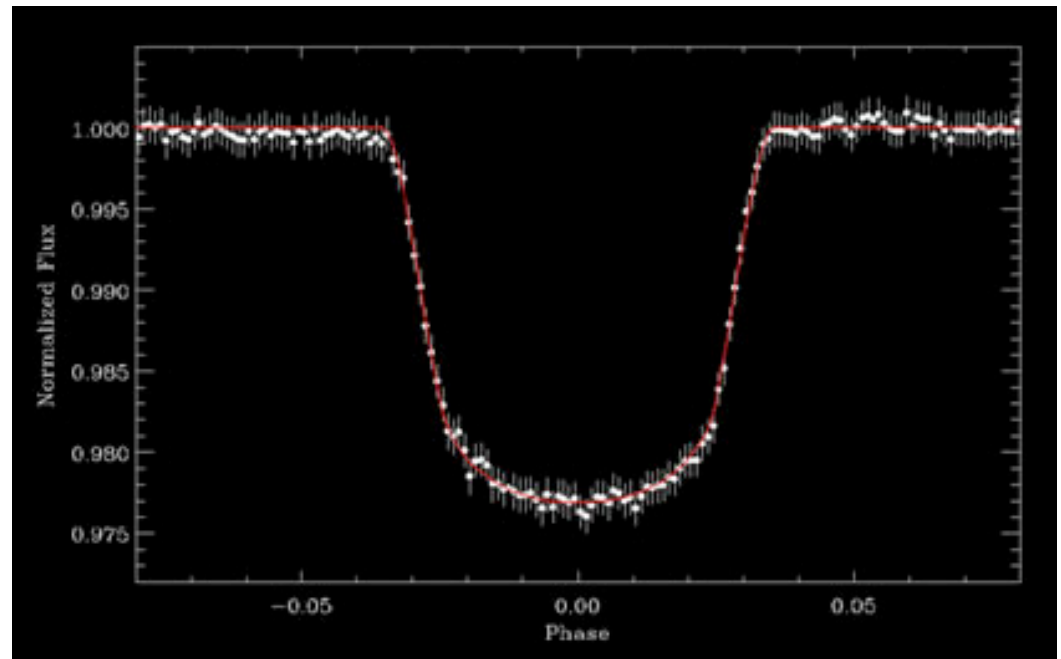
6 months/field

CoRoT-Exo-Ib:

$$P = 1.5 \text{ d}$$

$$\sigma \sim 10^{-3} (t/\text{min})^{1/2}$$

$$m \sin(i) = 1.3 m_j$$



CoRoT-EXO-7b

Smallest Transiting Planet

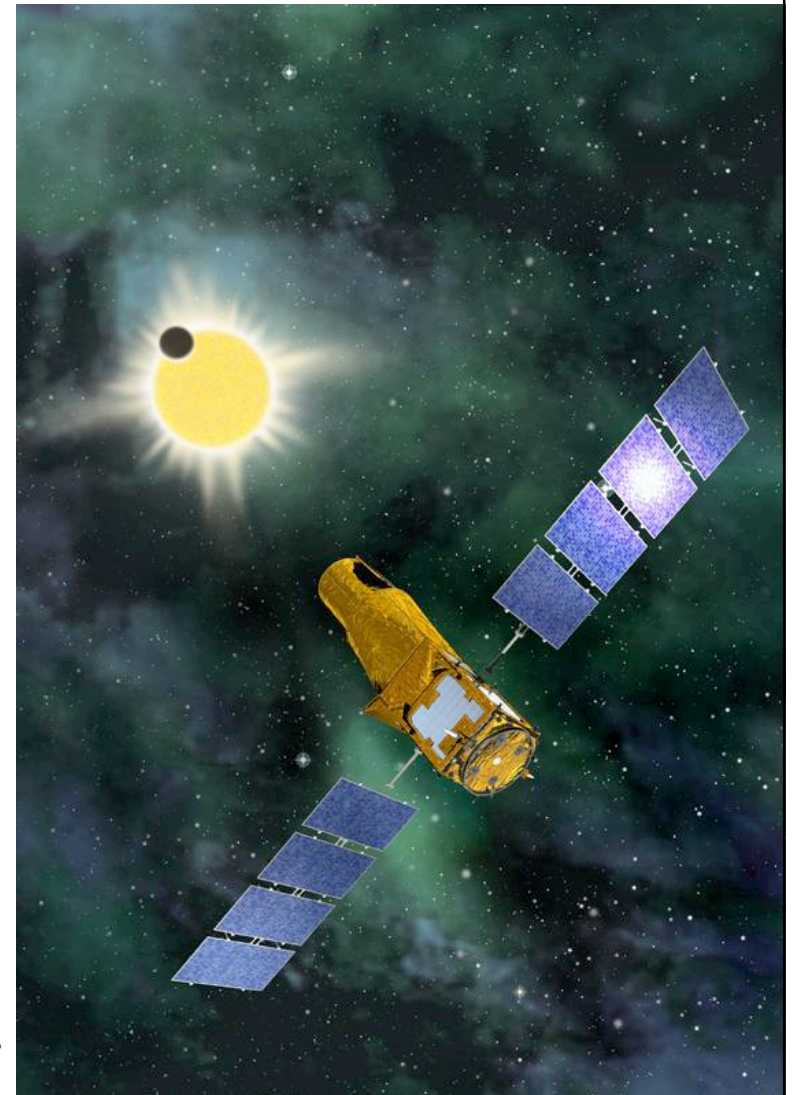
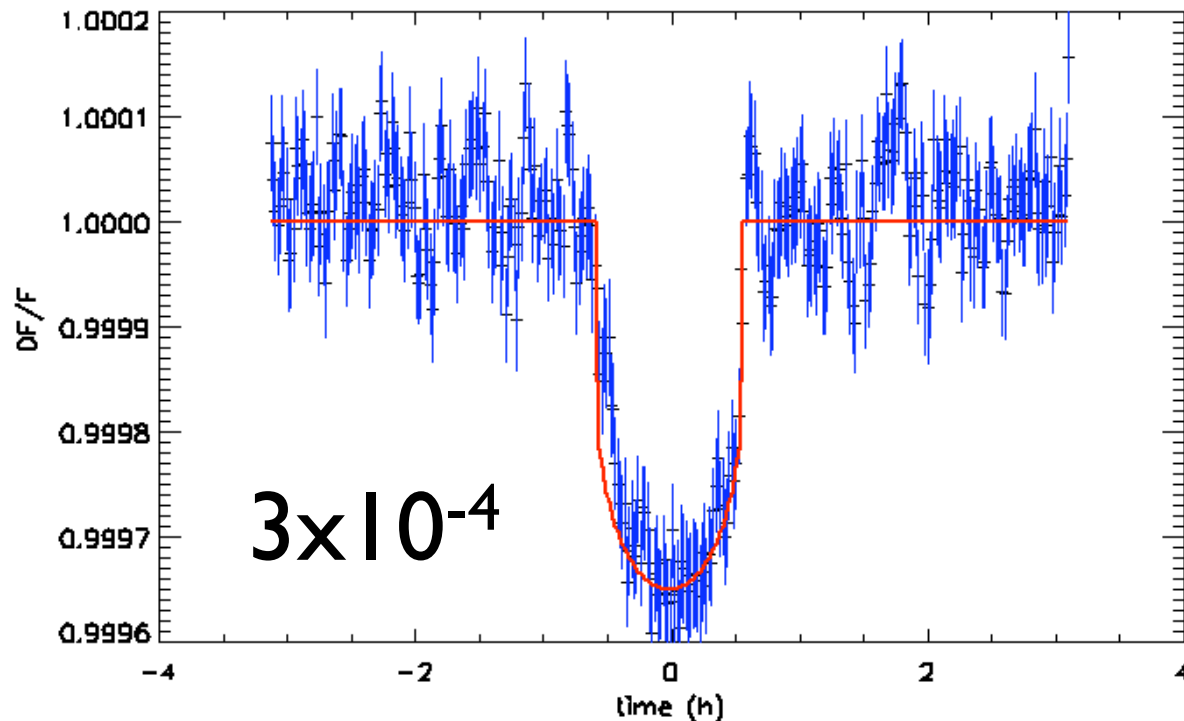
CNES/ESA CoRoT Mission

First transiting Super-Earth

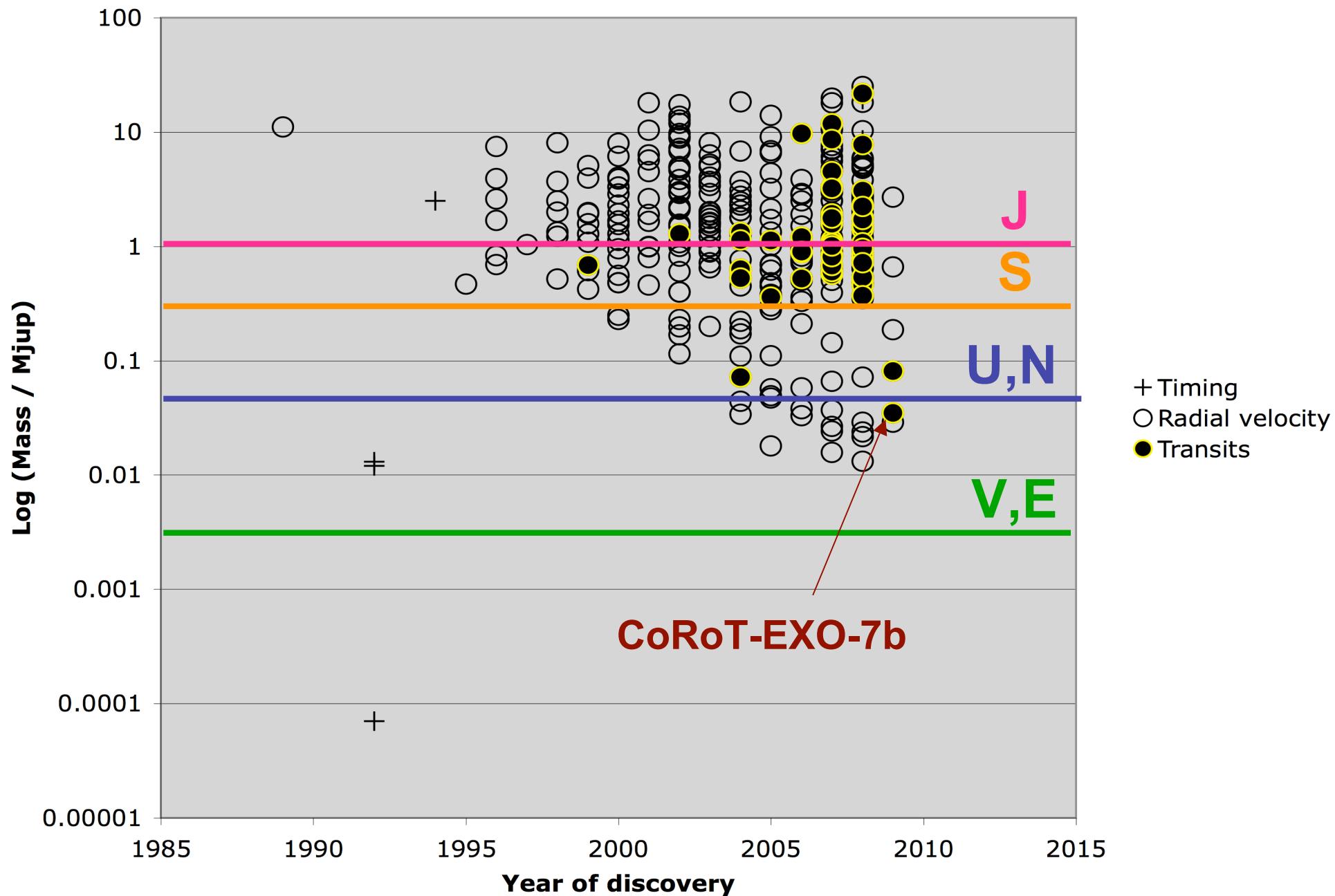
Announced 2009 Feb 3

Planet radius **1.8 Earth radii**

Planet mass 6 - 11 Earth masses

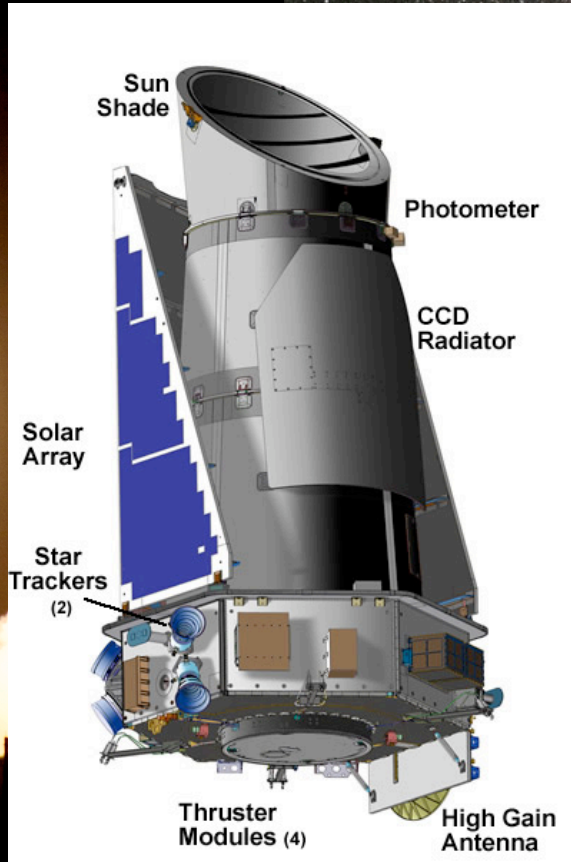


Log planet mass by year of discovery

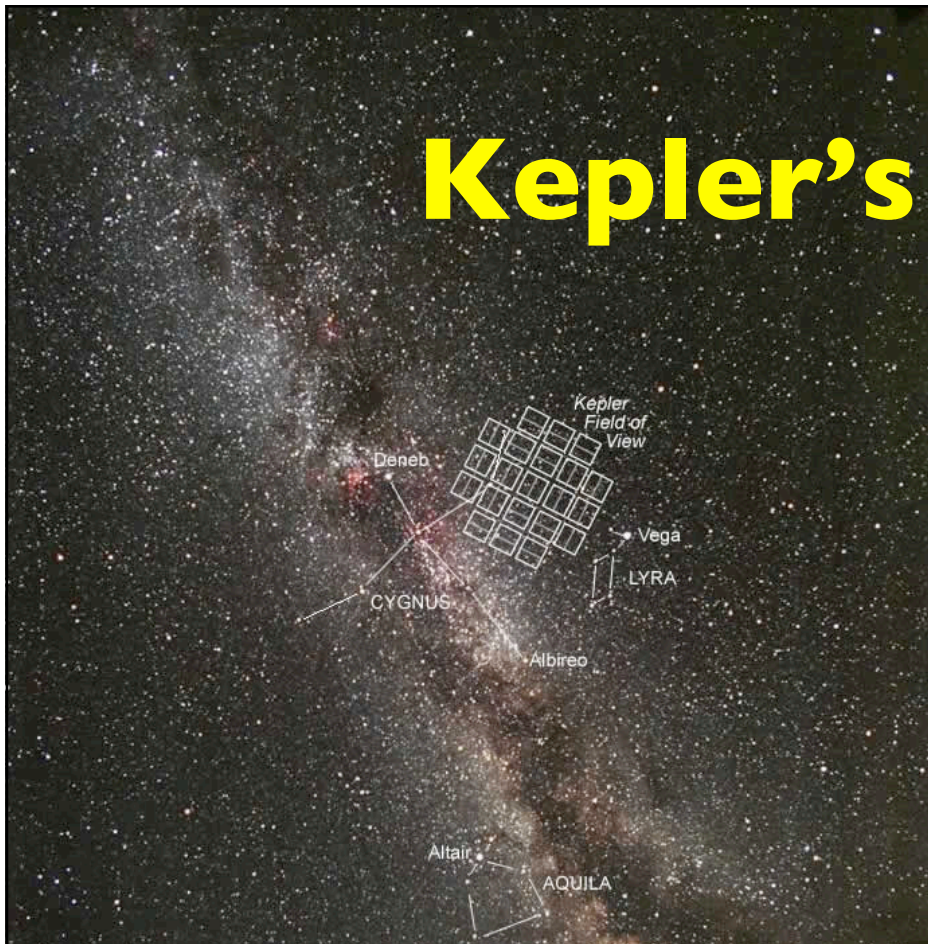


NASA's Kepler

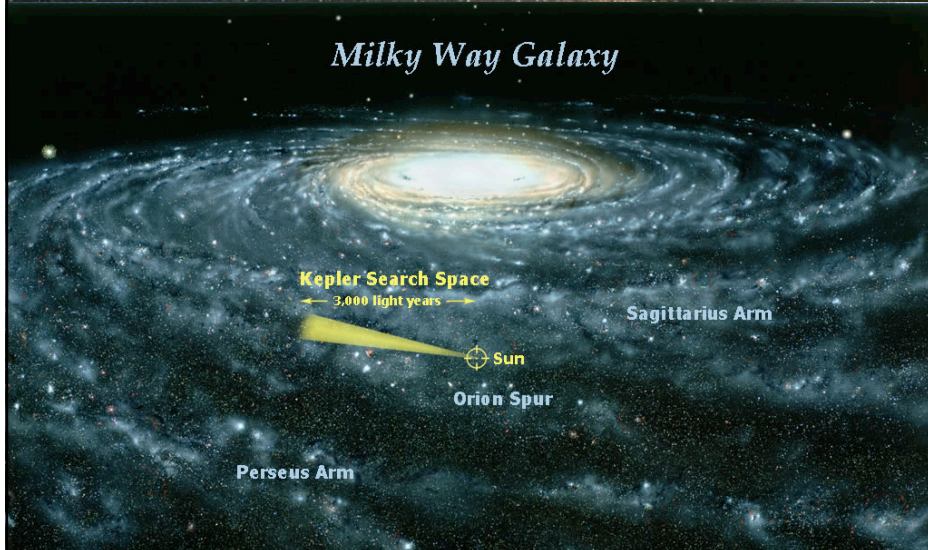
- Launched in Mar 2009
- 0.8m Schmidt Telescope
- CCD Mosaic FoV~10°
- Stare for 4+ years.



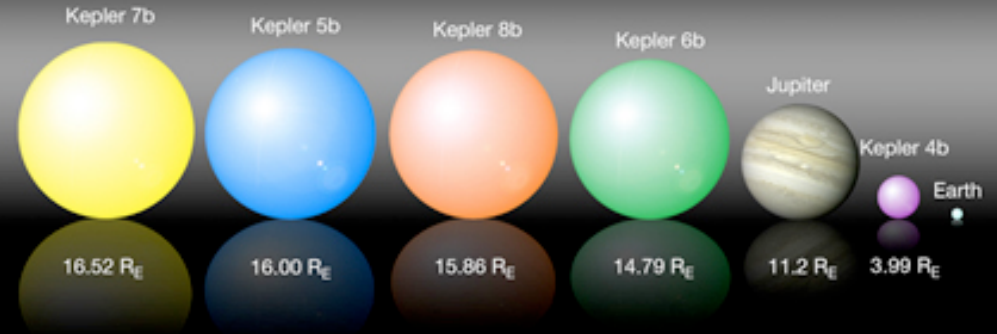
Kepler's first 5



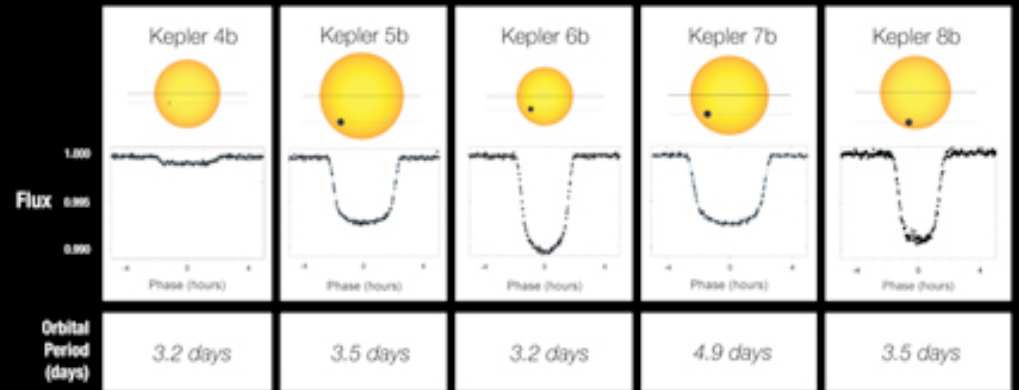
Milky Way Galaxy



Planet Size



Transit Light Curves



Jan 2010

Space Transit Missions

Kepler (4+ years) designed to detect Earth analogs

$$r \sim r_{\oplus} \sim 0.01 R_{sun}$$

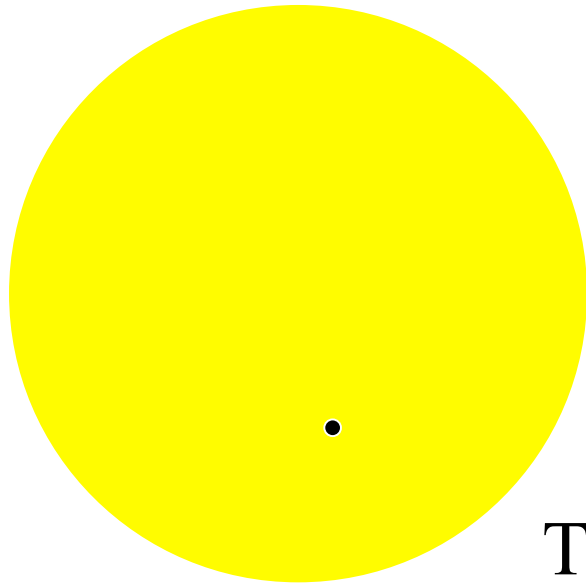
$$T \approx 300\text{K}$$

$$P \sim 1 \text{ yr}$$

$$a \sim 1 \text{ au}$$

$$\Delta t \sim 13 \text{ h}$$

$$\Delta f / f \sim 10^{-4}$$



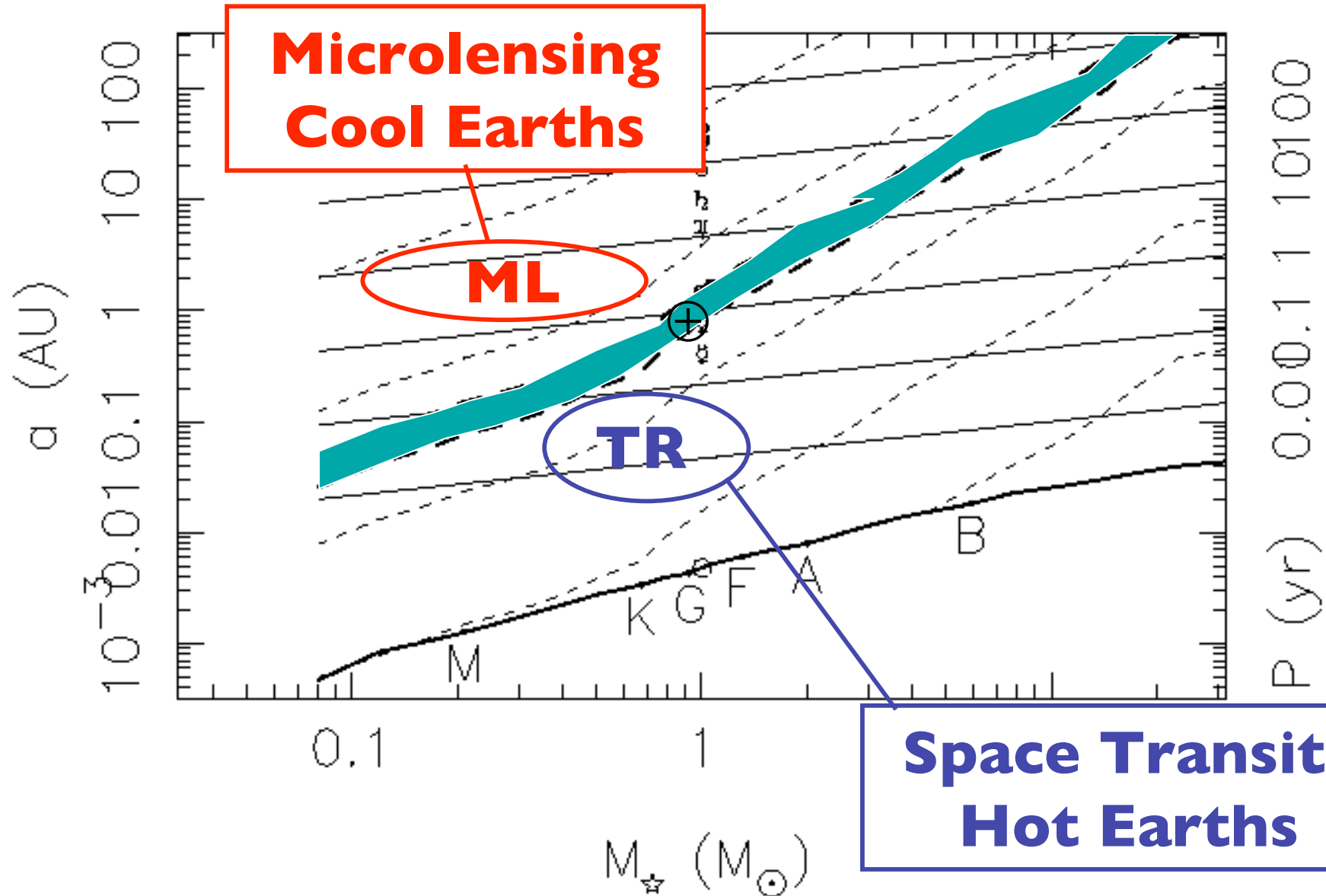
Transit probability: $P_t \sim 0.5\%$

Transit detection may be limited by stellar micro-variability.

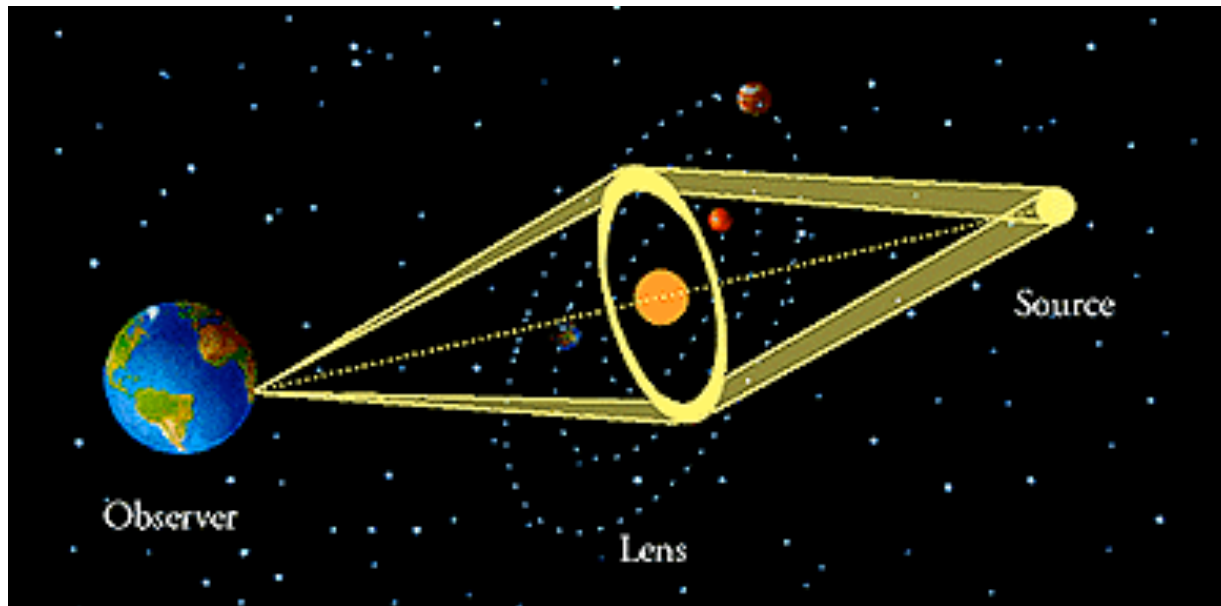
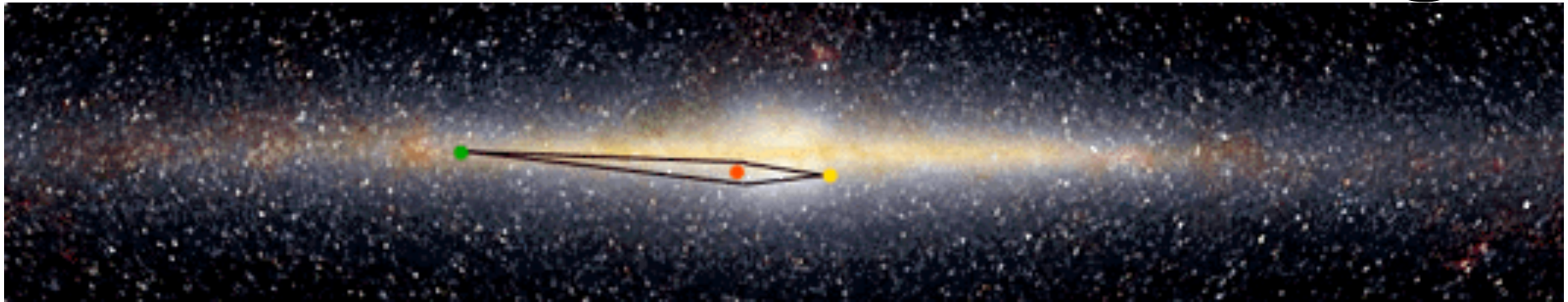
Faint targets, so radial velocity confirmations will be difficult.

“Habitable” Earths common or rare ?

$T \sim 300\text{K}$



Gravitational Microlensing



Hunting for
Cool Planets
near the
lens stars

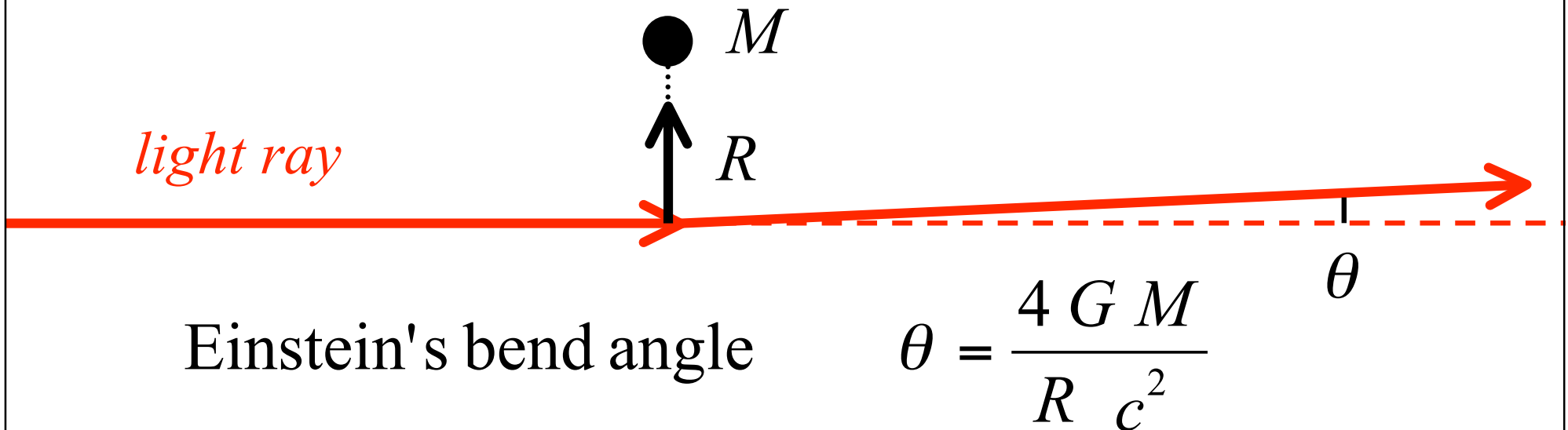
$$M_{\text{Lens}} \sim 0.3 M_{\text{Sun}} \quad R_E \sim 3 \text{ AU} \sim 10^{-3} \text{ arcsec}$$

Cool Earths detectable!

Einstein's General Relativity

Particles (and light) follow shortest available paths (geodesics) through Space-Time.

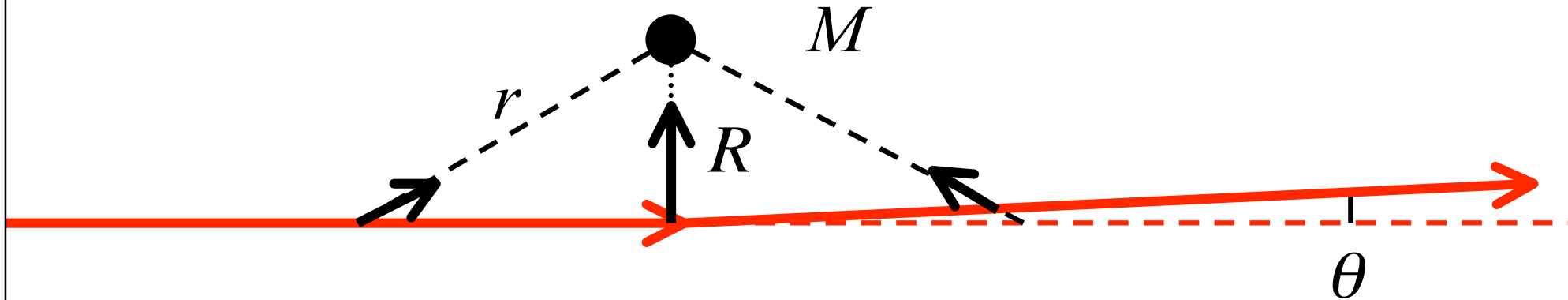
Mass (energy) causes Space-Time to warp.



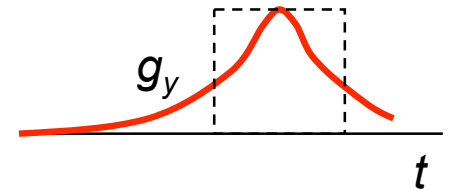
Predicts 1.7 arcsec for Sun-grazing ray.

Verified by Eddington during solar eclipse.

Newtonian Deflection Angle



vertical acceleration $g_y = \left(\frac{G M}{r^2} \right) \left(\frac{R}{r} \right) \leq \frac{G M}{R^2} = g_{\max}$

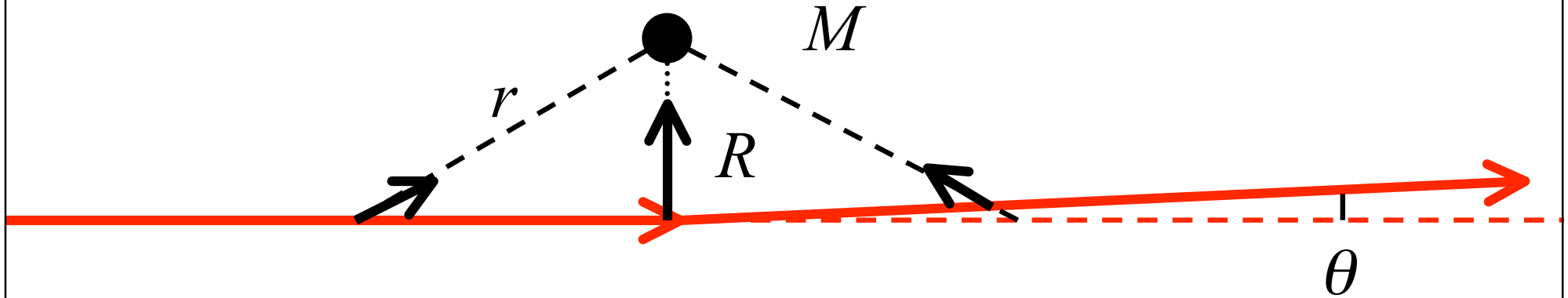


time to pass $\Delta t \approx 2 R / V_x$

vertical velocity $V_y = \int g_y dt \approx g_{\max} \Delta t \approx \left(\frac{G M}{R^2} \right) \left(\frac{2 R}{V_x} \right) = \frac{2 G M}{R V_x}$

bend angle $\theta \approx \frac{V_y}{V_x} \approx \frac{2 G M}{R V_x^2} \Rightarrow \frac{2 G M}{R c^2}$

Newtonian Deflection Angle

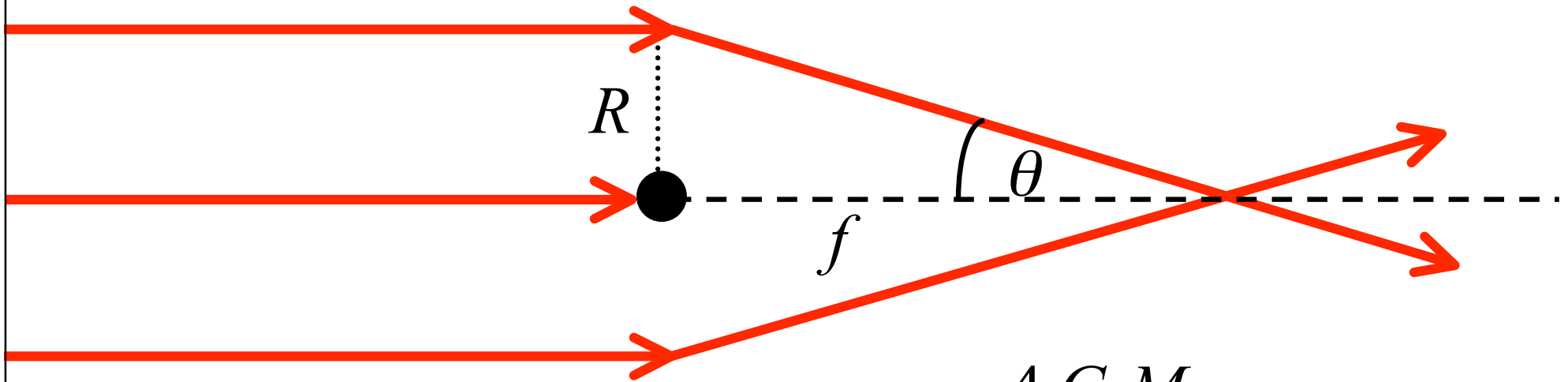


vertical acceleration $g_y = \left(\frac{GM}{r^2} \right) \left(\frac{R}{r} \right) \quad r^2 = R^2 + x^2$

vertical velocity $V_y = \int g_y dt \approx \int \frac{GM R}{(R^2 + x^2)^{3/2}} \frac{dx}{V_x} = \frac{2GM}{RV_x}$

bend angle $\theta \approx \frac{V_y}{V_x} \approx \frac{2GM}{RV_x^2} \Rightarrow \frac{2GM}{Rc^2}$

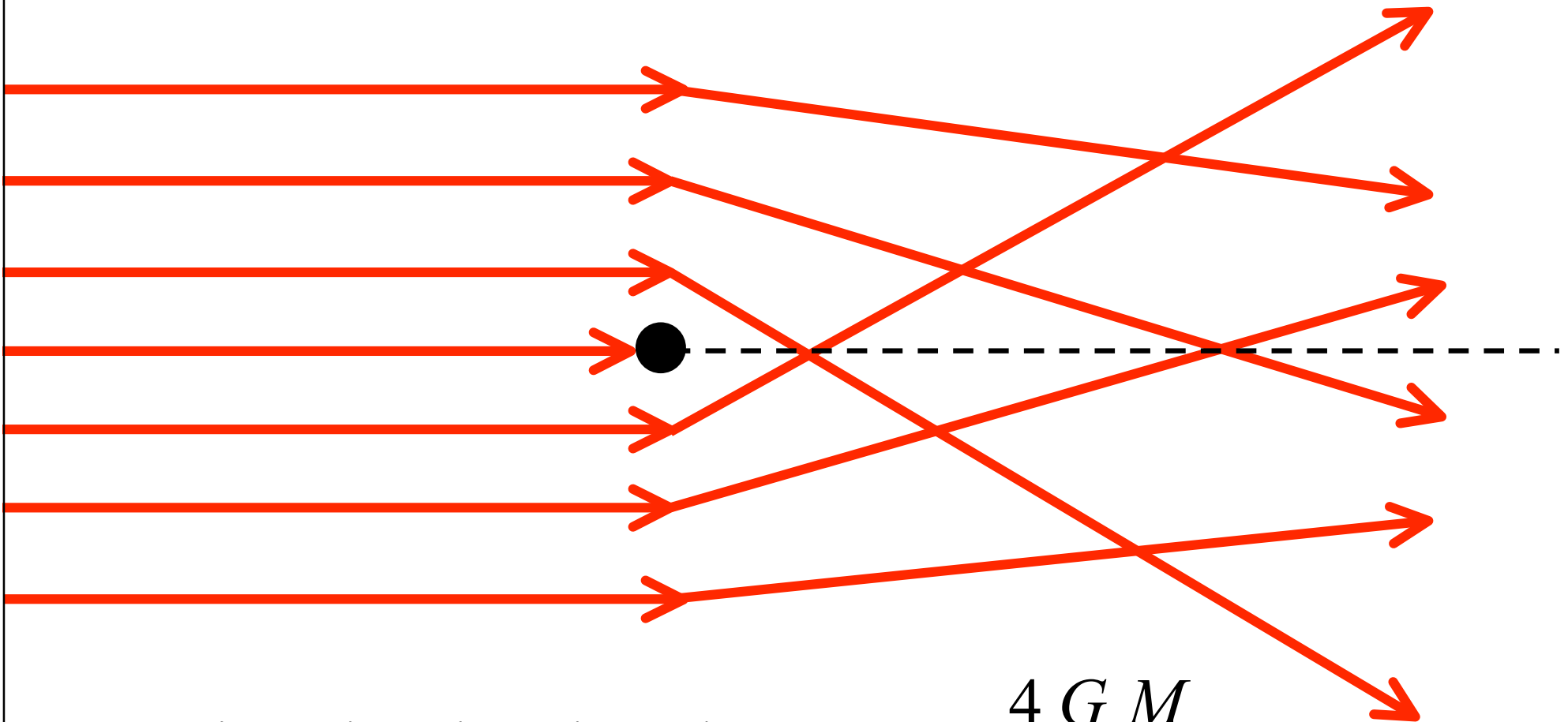
Focal Length of Gravitational Lens



Einstein's bend angle $\theta = \frac{4 G M}{R c^2}$

Focal length : $f = \frac{R}{\theta} = \frac{R^2 c^2}{4 G M}$

Spherical Aberration

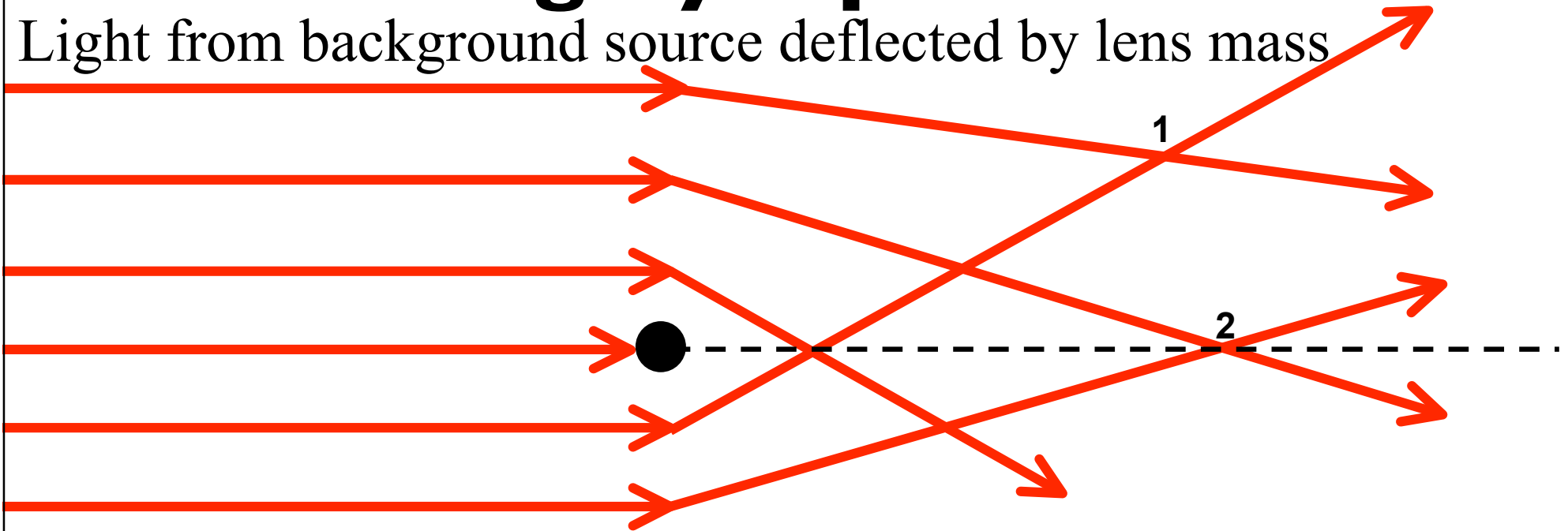


Einstein's bend angle $\theta = \frac{4 G M}{R c^2}$

Focal length : $f = \frac{R}{\theta} = \frac{R^2 c^2}{4 G M}$

Lensing by a point mass

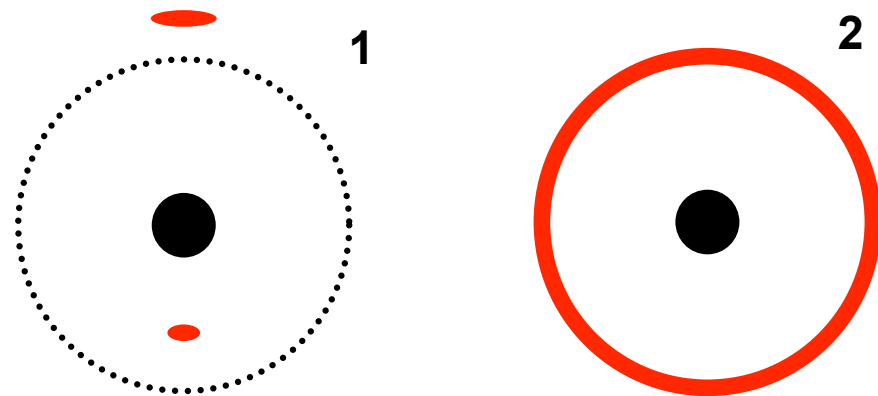
Light from background source deflected by lens mass



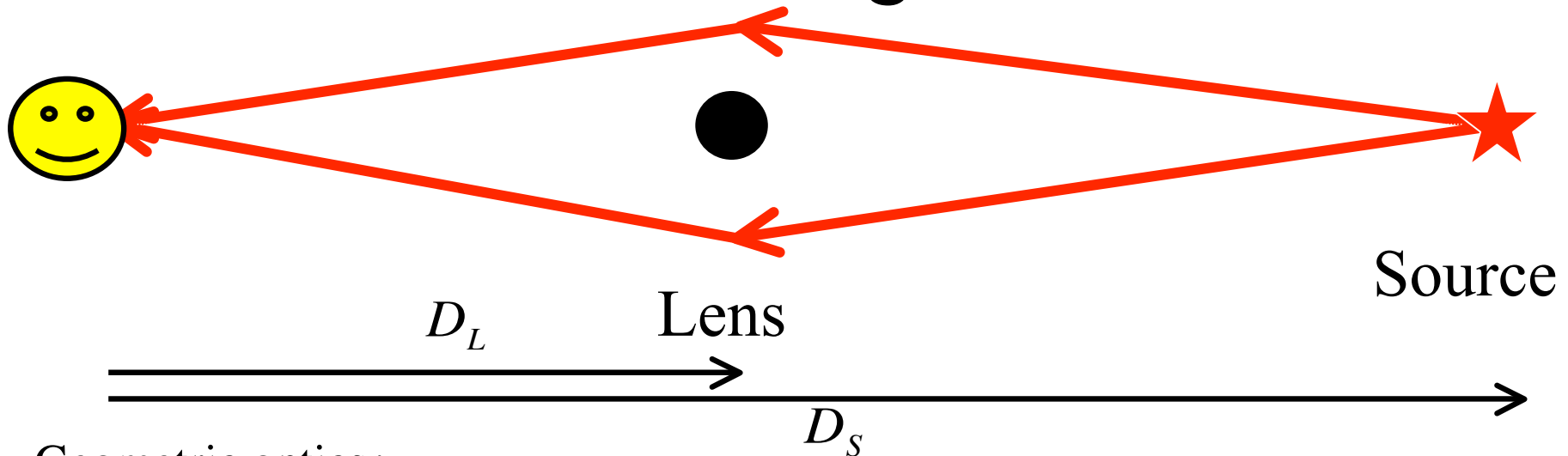
Two distorted/magnified images of background source

Observer's view:

Einstein ring



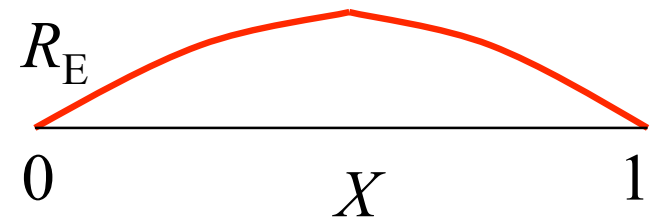
Einstein Ring Radius



Geometric optics:

$$\frac{1}{D_S - D_L} + \frac{1}{D_L} = \frac{1}{f} = \frac{4GM}{c^2 R^2}$$

Einstein Ring Radius: $X \equiv \frac{D_L}{D_S}$

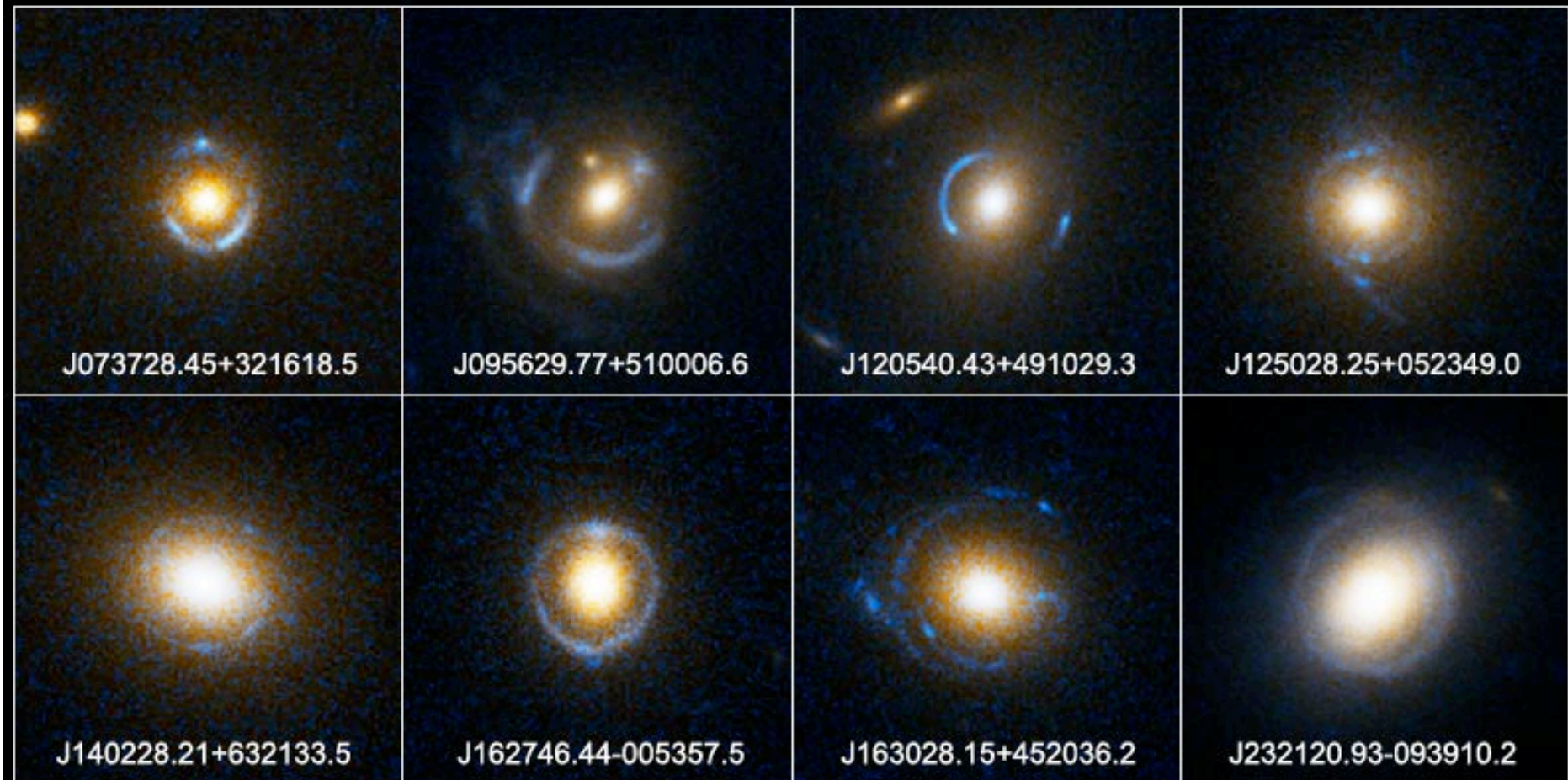


$$R_E = \left(\frac{4GM}{c^2} \right)^{1/2} D_S^{1/2} \sqrt{X(1-X)} = 8 \text{ AU} \left(\frac{M}{M_{SUN}} \right)^{1/2} \left(\frac{D_S}{8 \text{ kpc}} \right)^{1/2} \sqrt{X(1-X)}$$

$$\theta_E = \frac{R_E}{D_L} = \sqrt{\frac{4GM}{c^2} \left(\frac{1}{D_L} - \frac{1}{D_S} \right)} \sim 10^{-3} \text{ arcsec} \left(\frac{M}{M_{SUN}} \right)^{1/2} \left(\frac{D_S}{8 \text{ kpc}} \right)^{-1/2} \sqrt{\frac{1-X}{X}}$$

Einstein Ring Gravitational Lenses

Hubble Space Telescope • ACS

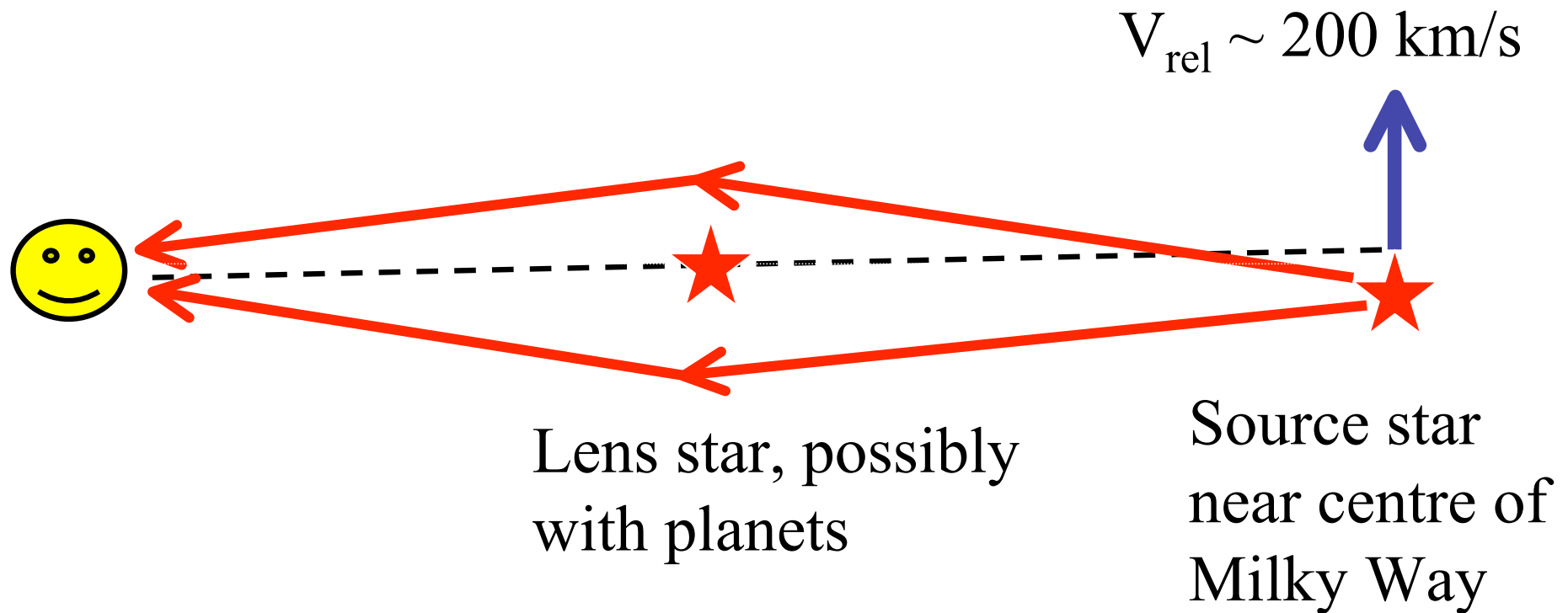


NASA, ESA, A. Bolton (Harvard-Smithsonian CfA), and the SLACS Team

STScI-PRC05-32

Real images of Einstein Rings. The bright yellow object is the foreground “lens”. The blue arcs are images of the background “source”. The images of the source form in a ring around the lens.

Lensing of Stars by Stars



Bend angle ~ 1 milli-arcsec

~ 500 cases found every year

Lensing by a Point Mass

2 images

opposite sides of lens

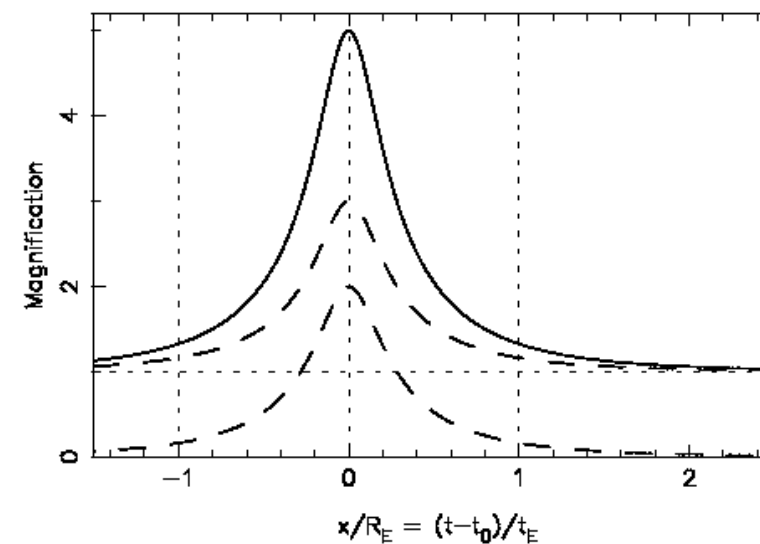
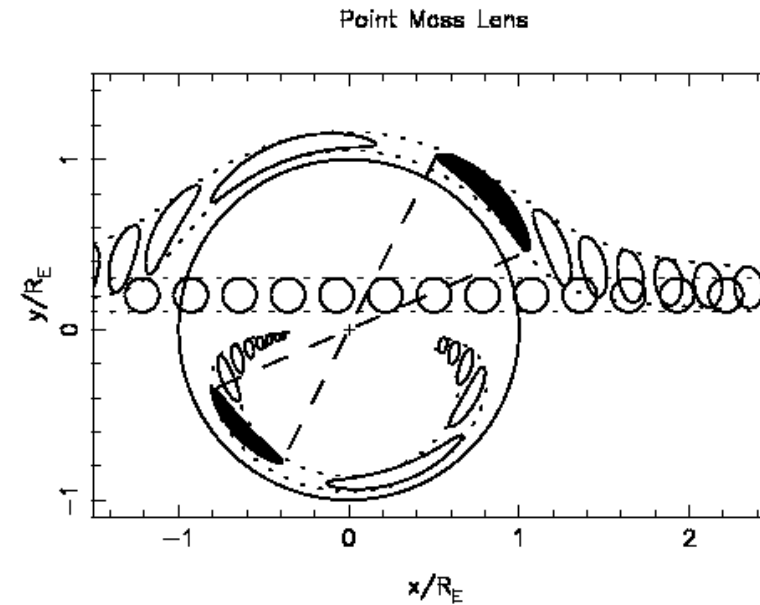
major image outside ring

minor image inside ring

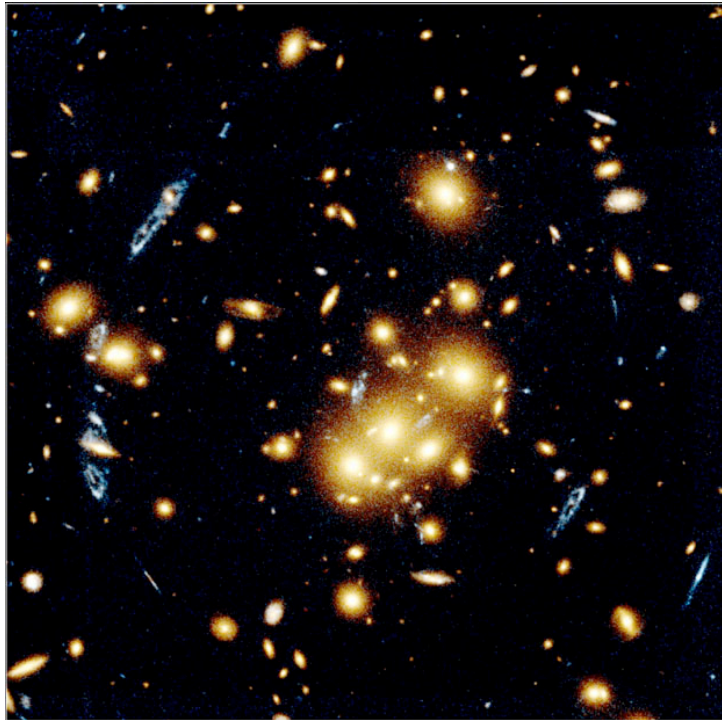
net magnification

(sum of 2 images)

vs time

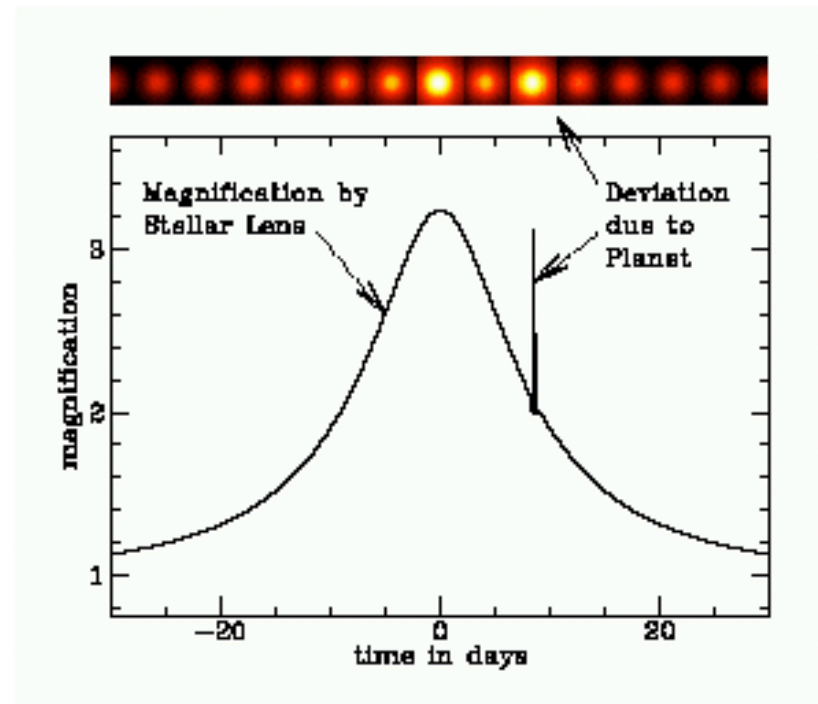


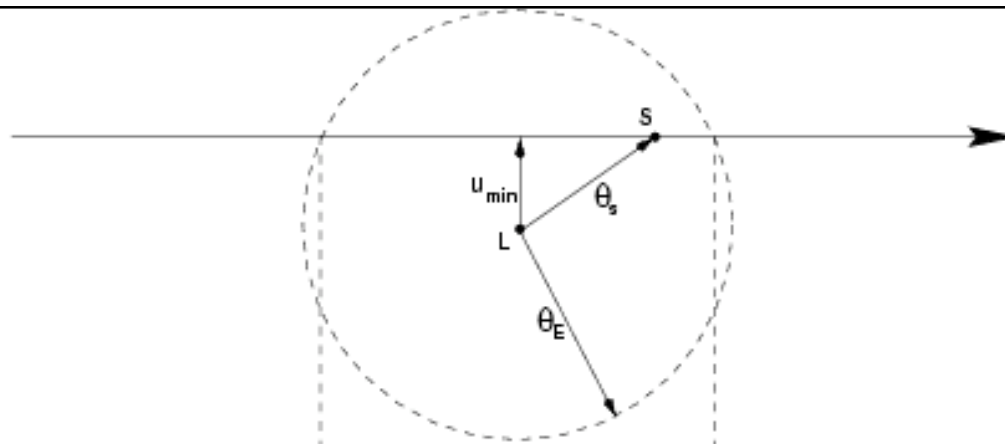
Mass of the Lens determines the type of Gravitational Lensing



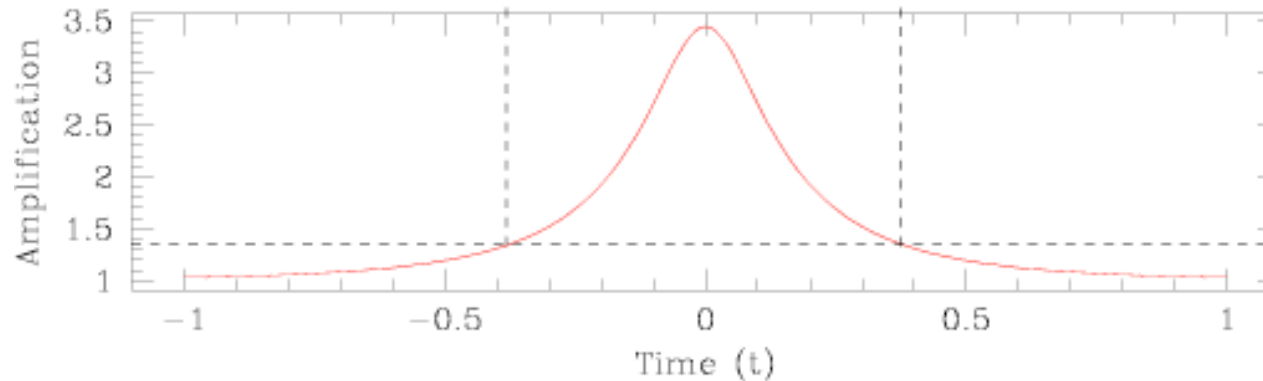
Macrolensing: Very massive lenses, like galaxies or galaxy clusters, produce resolvable images of background objects.

Microlensing: A small lens, like a single star, produces unresolved images. We observe a time-dependent brightening of the source.





Dimensionless source-lens separation: $u \equiv \theta_S / \theta_E$



The total magnification (sum of both images) :

$$A = \frac{u^2 + 2}{u\sqrt{u^2 + 4}} \quad u(t) = \left(u_{\min}^2 + \left(\frac{t - t_0}{t_E} \right)^2 \right)^{1/2}$$

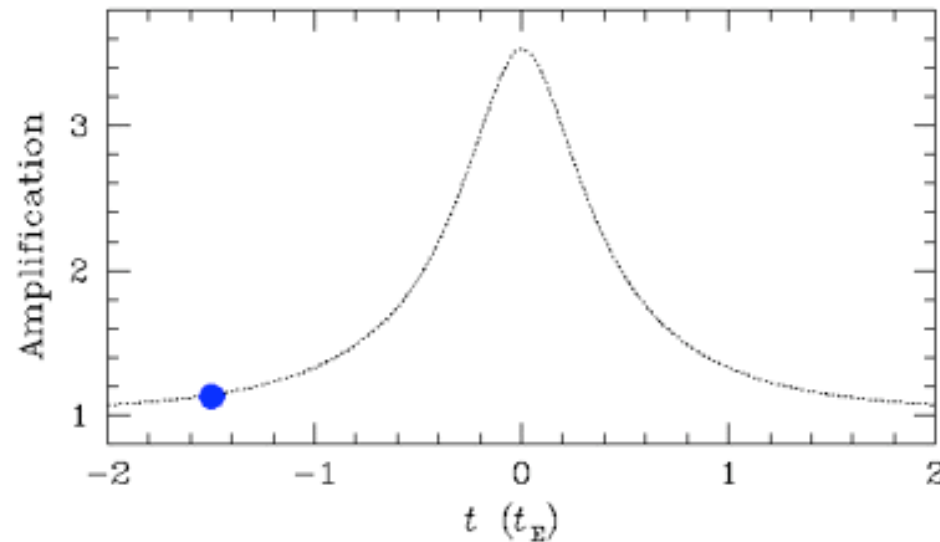
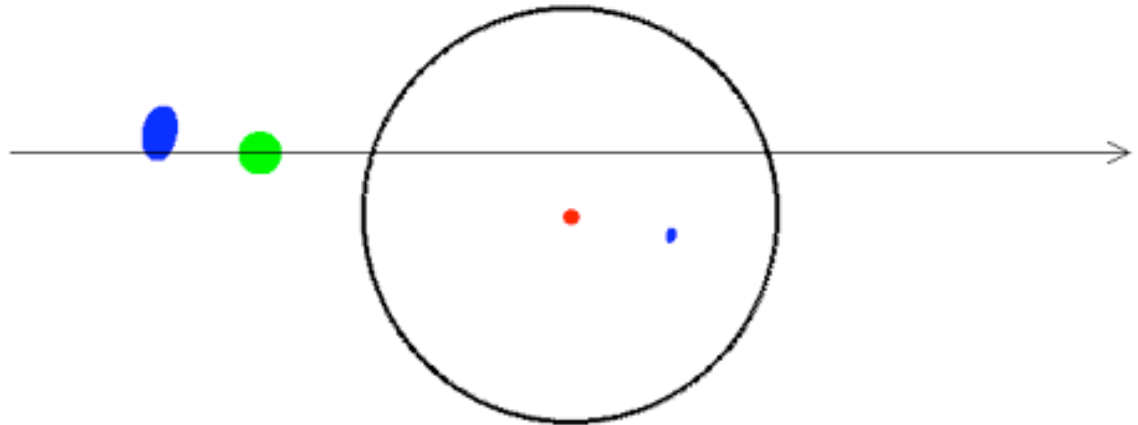
At closest approach, $t = t_0$, $u(t_0) = u_{\min}$

“*Einstein time scale*”,
 t_E , is the time
for the source
to move, with respect
to the lens, by one
Einstein ring radius

$$t_E \equiv \frac{R_E}{V_{rel}} \propto \sqrt{M}$$

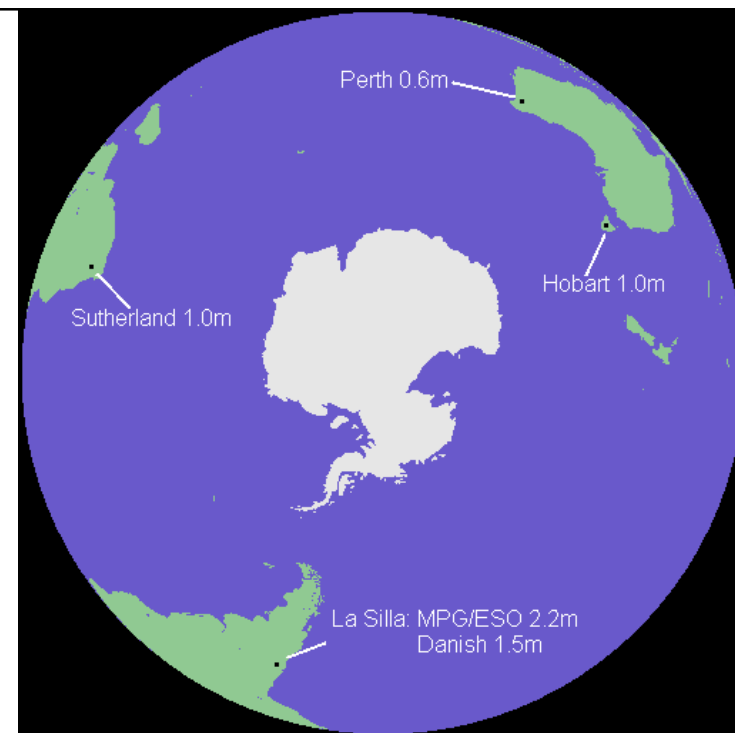
V_{rel} is the relative
velocity between
the source and lens
in the plane of the
sky.

$$\beta = 0.3$$
$$r_s = 0.1 \theta_E$$



Microlens Follow-up Network:

**OGLE, MOA, μ FUN, PLANET /
RoboNet**

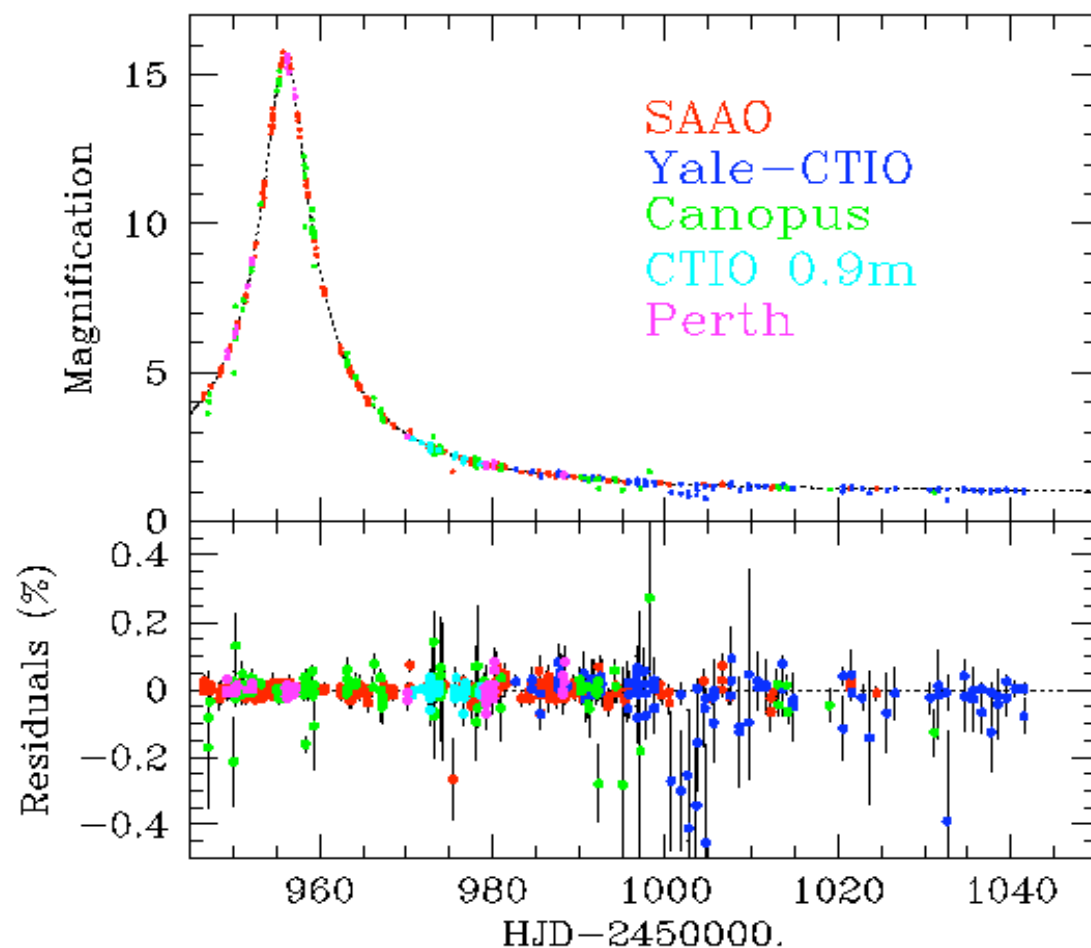


Global Telescope Network

=>24-hour coverage

1 day => Jupiters

1 hour => Earths



1990s, several groups monitored Galactic Bulge and the Magellanic Cloud starfields to detect lensing by foreground objects (*MACHO*, *EROS*, *MOA*, *OGLE*).

Original motivation was to search for Dark Matter in the form of massive compact halo objects (MACHOs).

Timescales $t_E \sim M^{1/2}$ for Galactic Bulge source stars:

- Solar mass star ~ 1 month
- Jupiter mass planet ~ 1 day
- Earth mass planet ~ 1 hour

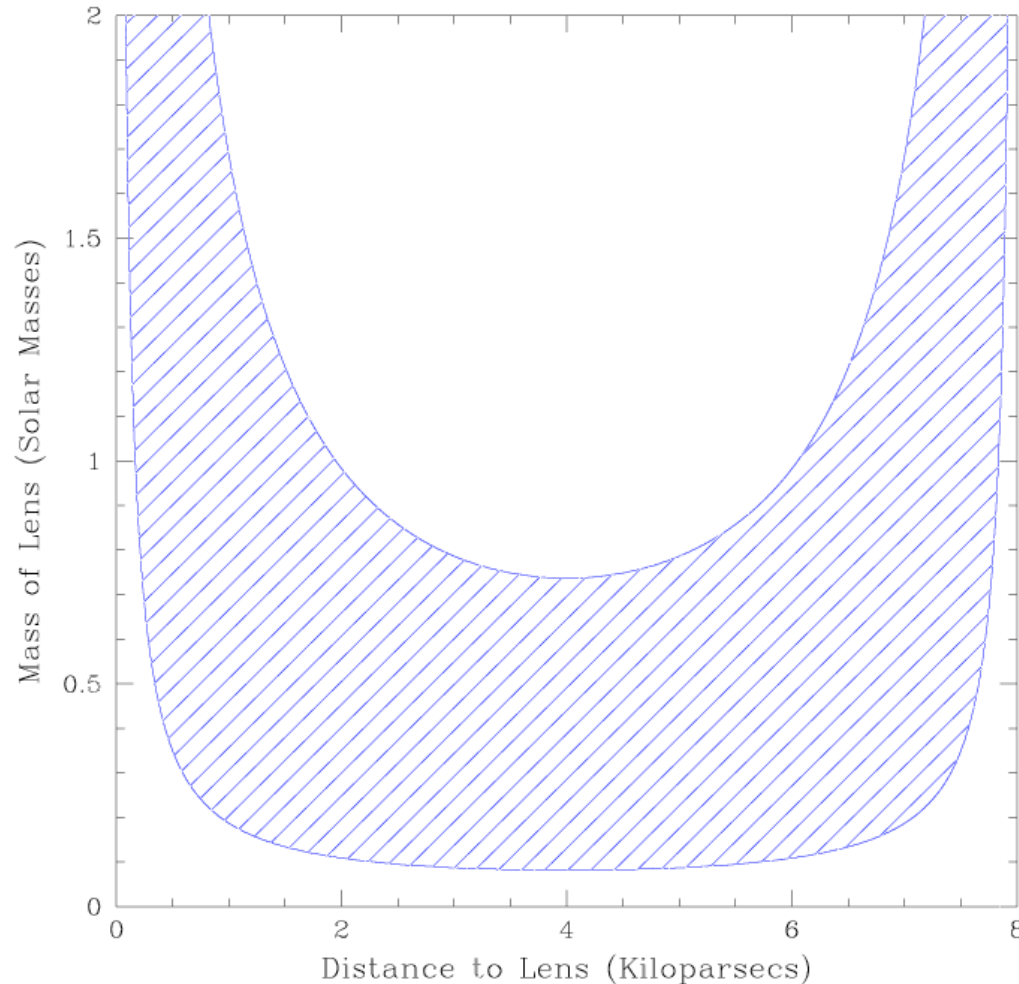
These timescales are observationally feasible.

Small bend angles \Rightarrow lensing is a very **rare event**.

Only 1 star in a million is lensed at any given time.

Galactic Bulge surveys (OGLE, MOA) find ~ 600 events/ year.

Degeneracy of Lens Parameters

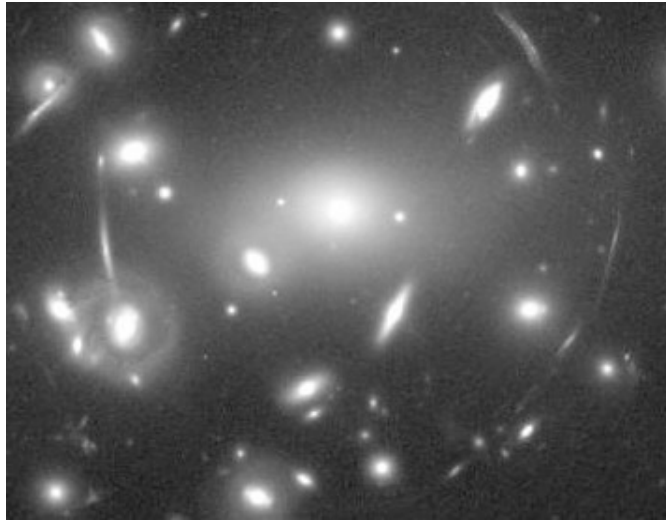


- Event timescale t_E is a function of lens mass M_L , distance D_L , and relative velocity V_{rel} .
- A continuum of lens parameters can produce the same t_E
- For $t_E = 40$ d and $V_{rel} = 100 - 300$ km/s, M_L and D_L can be anywhere in the shaded region.

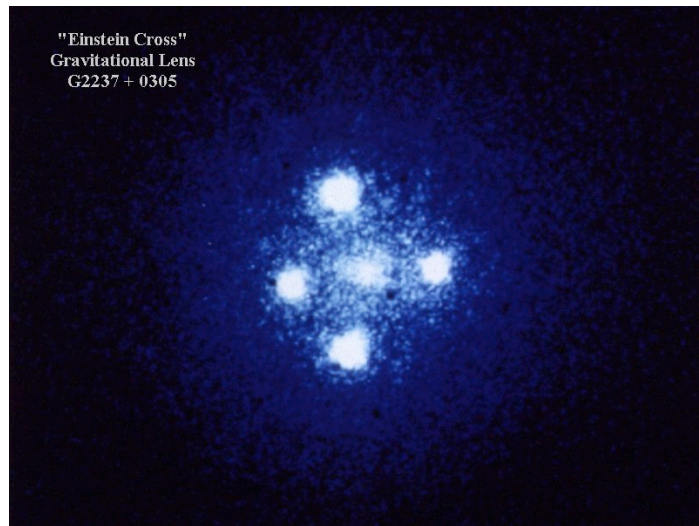
Notes:

- (1) Peak magnification depends on the impact parameter, small impact parameter \rightarrow large magnification ($A \sim 1/u$).
- (2) For $u = 0$, apparently infinite magnification! In reality, finite size of source star limits the peak magnification.
- (3) Significant magnification ($A > 1.3$) requires alignment smaller than the Einstein ring radius ($u < 1$).
- (4) Microlensing is achromatic – all wavelengths affected equally.
- (5) Chances of microlensing occurring for a particular star is around 1 in a million – any given star lensed only once.

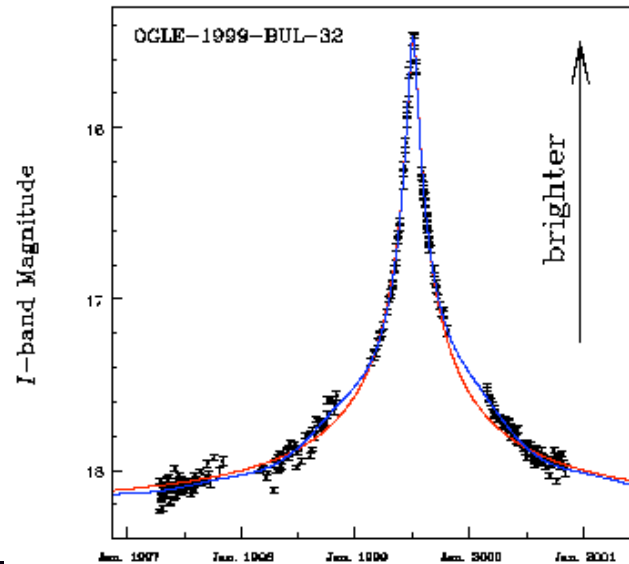
The Mass Profile of the Lens affects the structure of the source images (macrolensing) or shape of lightcurve (microlensing)



Lens = Galaxy Cluster



Lens = Single Galaxy

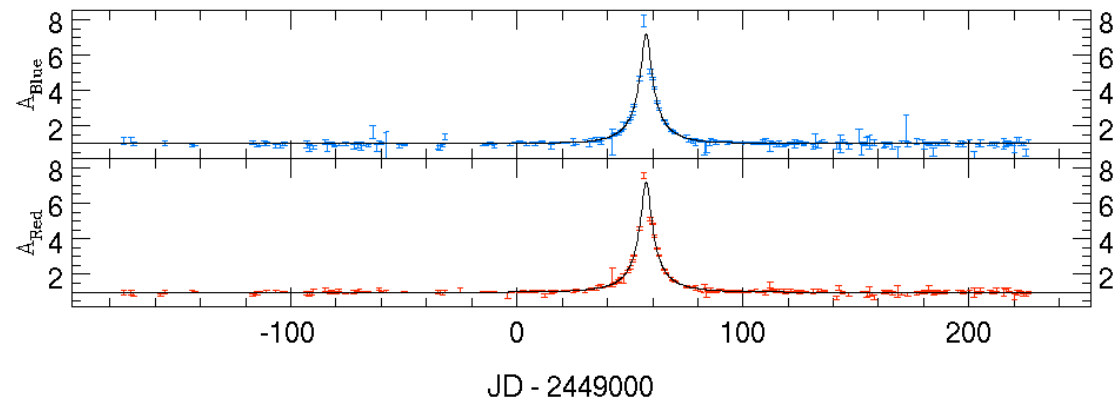


Lens = Black Hole?

Note wobble due to Earth's annual orbit around the Sun.

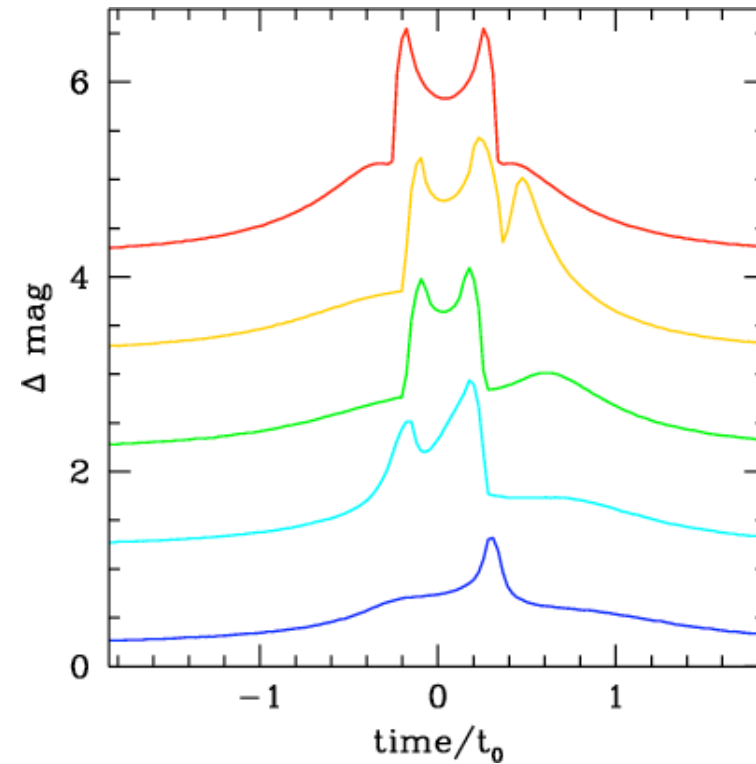
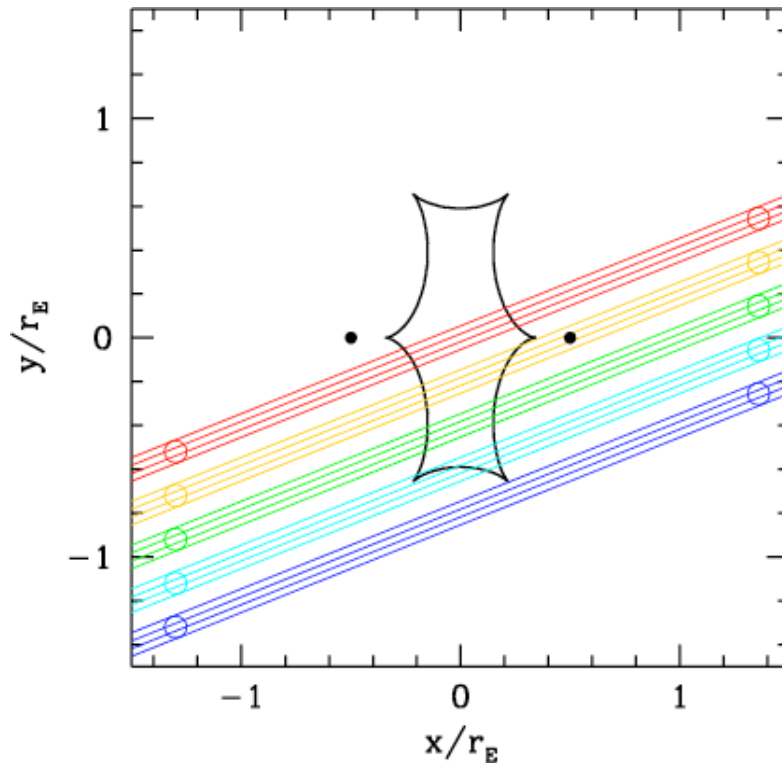
Time

Lens = simple low mass star



Microensing Anomalies

- Deviations from the standard point-lens point-source light curve are referred to as *microlensing anomalies*.
- The most interesting anomaly occurs in the case of a binary lens.
- Lightcurve shape depends on source trajectory relative to binary.



Caustic Crossings

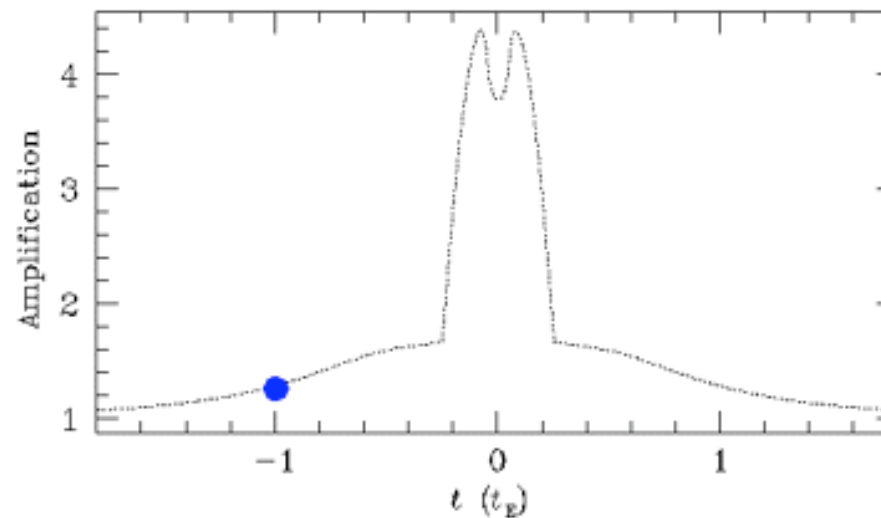
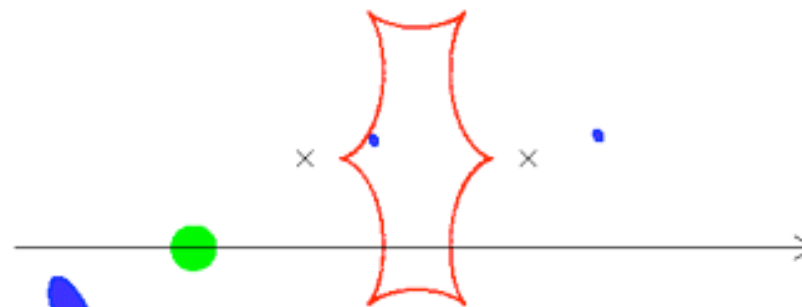
Two new images appear (3- \rightarrow 5) when source star enters a caustic curve.

Two images merge and disappear (5- \rightarrow 3) when source exits a caustic curve.

$$r_s = 0.1 \theta_E$$

$$q = 1.0$$

$$b = 1.0$$



How does microlensing find planets?

Light curve for a binary lens is complicated, but a characteristic is the presence of sharp spikes or **caustics**.

With good monitoring, parameters of the binary can be recovered.

Orbiting planet is just a binary with mass ratio $q = m_p/M_* \ll 1$

- Monitor known lensing events in real-time with dense, high precision photometry from several sites.
- Look for deviations from single star light curve due to planets
- Timescales \sim a day for Jupiter mass planets, \sim hour for Earths
- Most sensitive to planets at a $\sim R_E$, the Einstein ring radius
- Around 3-5 AU for typical parameters

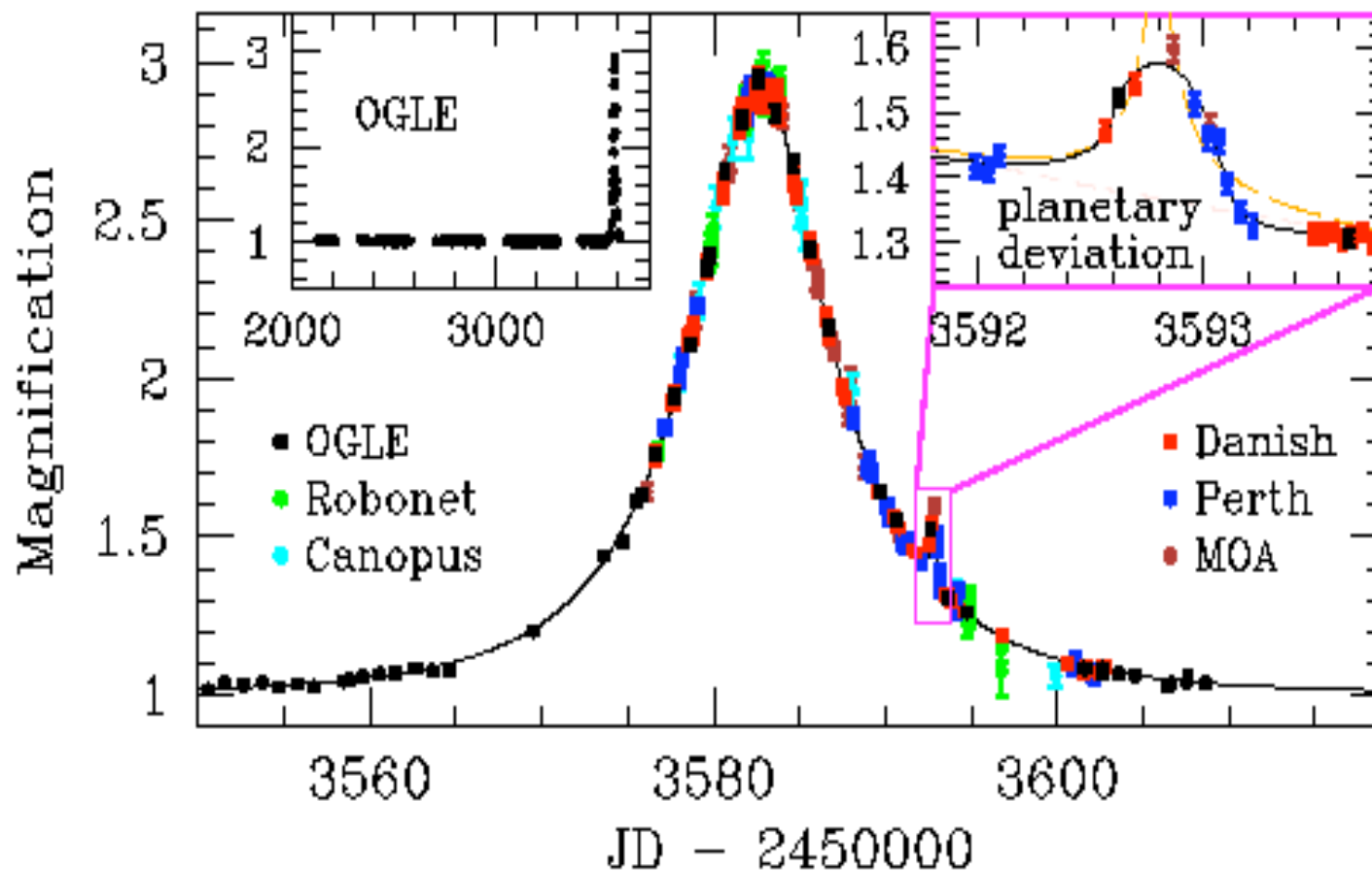
Aug 2005

OB-05-390

smallest cool planet

$m \sim 5.5 m_{\oplus}$
 $a \sim 2.9 \text{ AU}$

**PLANET/
RoboNet
OGLE
MOA**



Beaulieu et al. (2006).

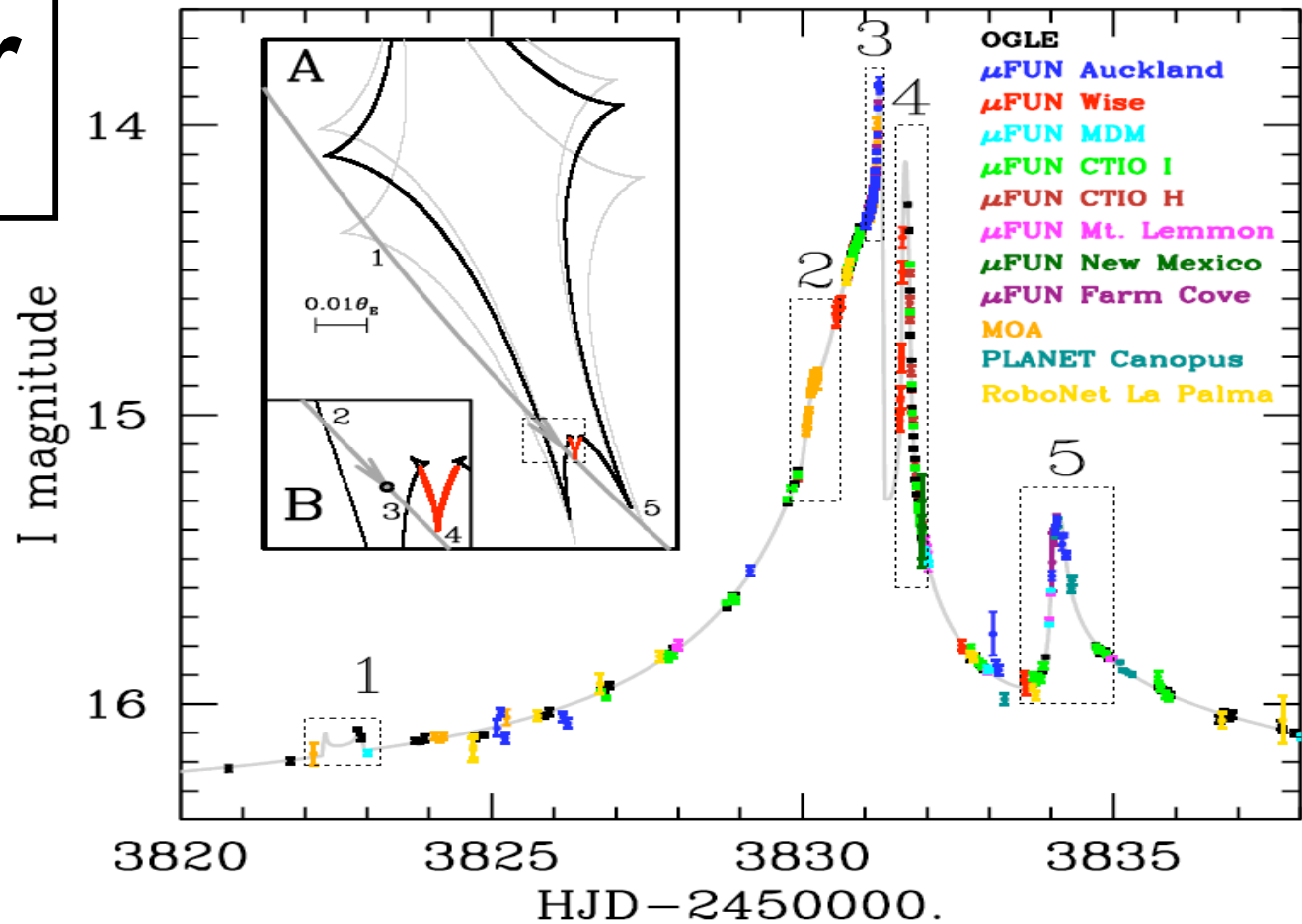
Apr 2006

OB-06-109

2 planets detected !

**$m_b \sim \text{jupiter}$
 $m_c \sim \text{saturn}$**

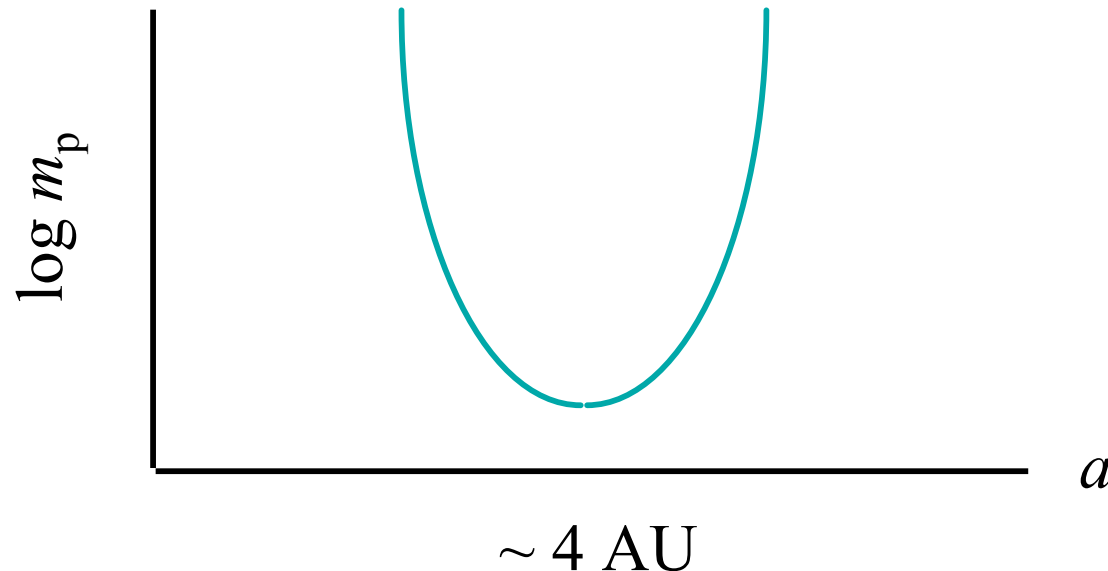
**OGLE
microFUN
MOA
PLANET/
RoboNet**



Gaudi et al. (2008)

Sensitivity to “Cool” Planets

Complementary to other methods:



Sensitivity is hard to evaluate: depends on **cadence** of photometric monitoring (high cadence needed for lower masses), **accuracy** of photometry (planets produce weak deviations more often than strong ones)

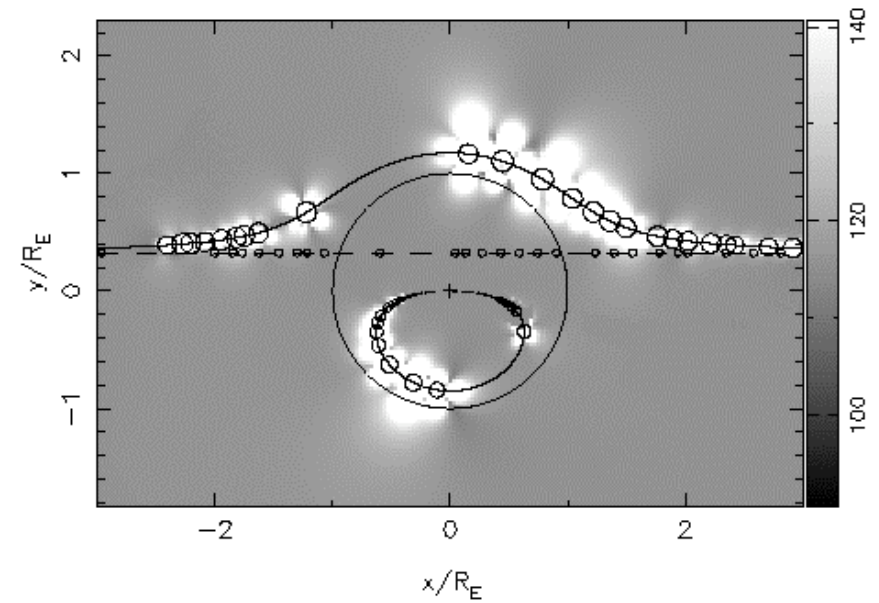
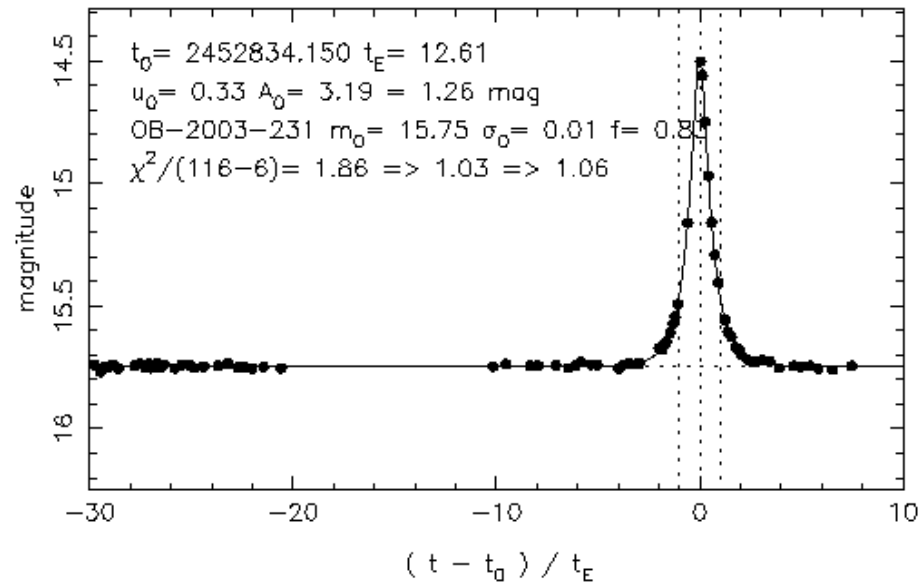
Very roughly: observe with 1-2% accuracy, once per night, detect Jupiters, if present, with 10% efficiency.

Once per hour, detect Earths, if present, with 1% efficiency.

Planet Detection Zones

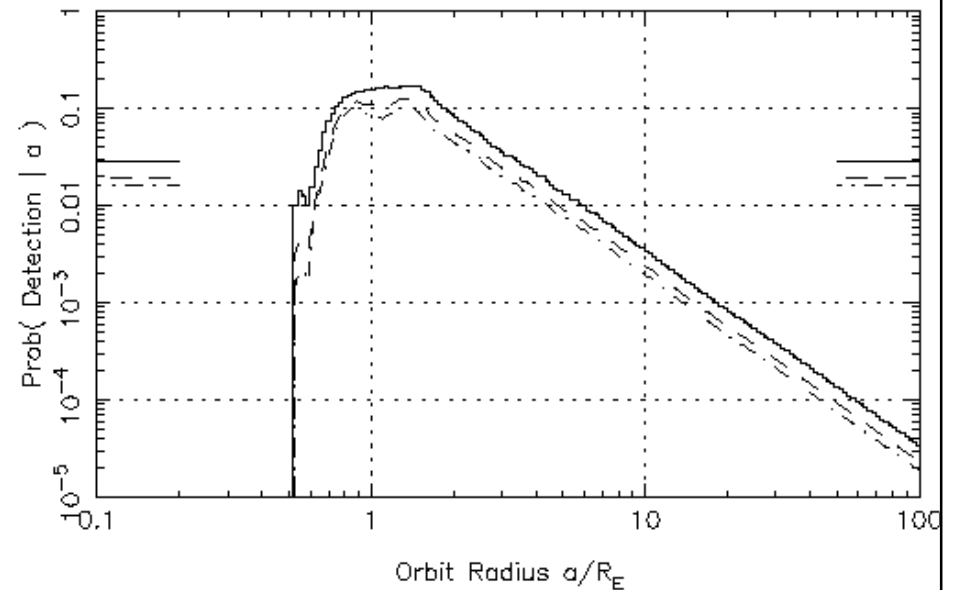
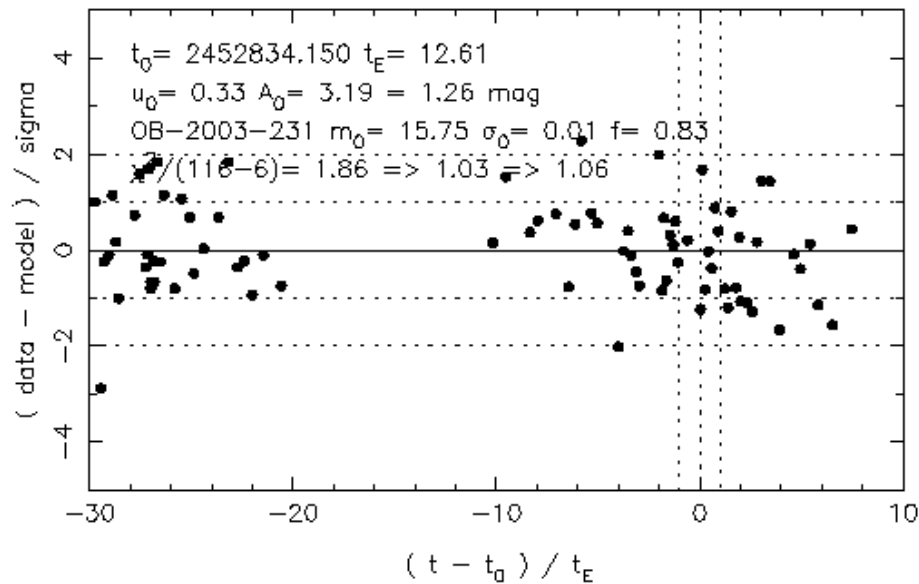
OB-2003-231

OB-2003-231 $q = 1.0E-03$ $\Delta\chi^2 = 25$ best $\Delta\chi^2 = 4.4$

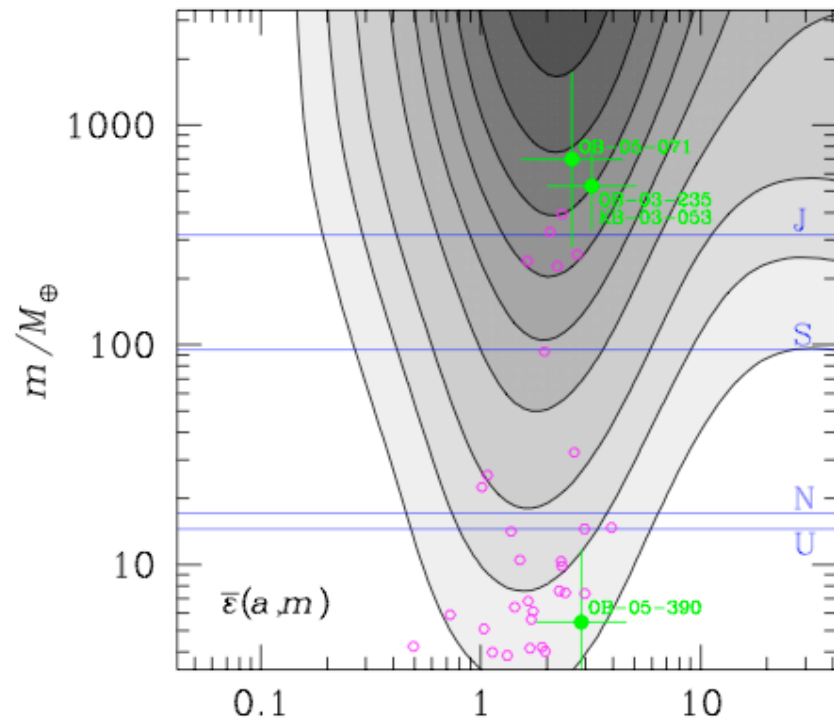


OB-2003-231

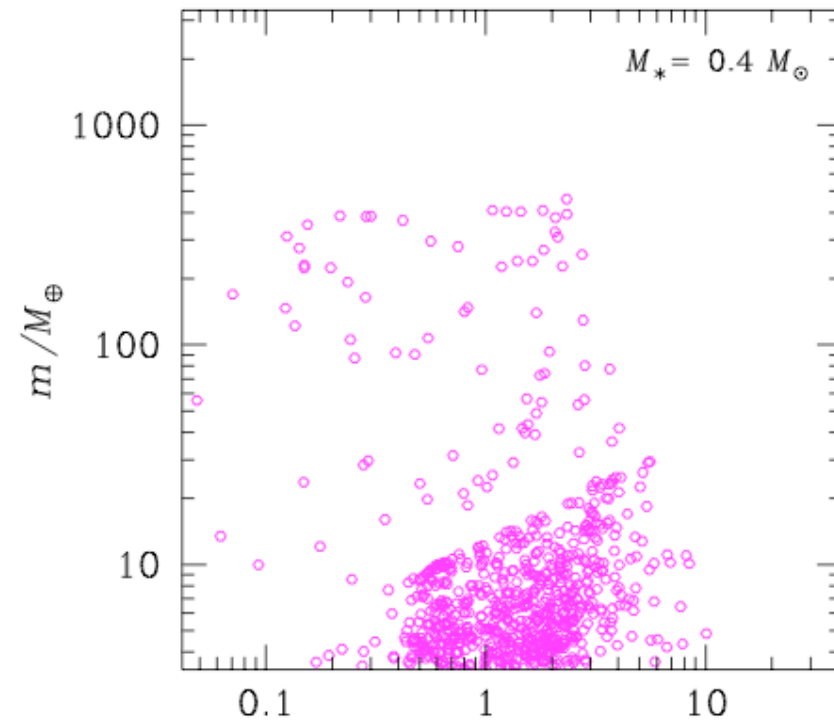
OB-2003-231 $q = 1.0E-03$ $\Delta\chi^2 = 25, 60, 100$



Microlensing detections



Distribution of planets (simulation)



More (Smaller) Cool Planets to Come!

Mass function of Cool Planets

tests Planet Formation / Migration Theory

Microensing Planets

- 10 planets have been found by microlensing, including a 5.5 Earth-mass object and a multi-planet system.
- Typical lens stars are $0.3 M_{\text{sun}}$ ($0.1 - 2 M_{\text{sun}}$)
- Sensitive to “cool” planets at ~ 4 AU, outside the “Snow Line”.
- Determine planet mass, orbit size, star mass, distance.
- **Earth-mass planets can be detected.**

- Monitoring microlensing events takes a lot of time on small telescopes around the world.

- Planet detections are made, but sometimes ambiguous.
- Degeneracy in microlensing light curves -- one lightcurve has several possible solutions for the properties of the source.
- No repeat observations. One time event. Get no more information about the planet-star system.

Log planet mass by year of discovery

