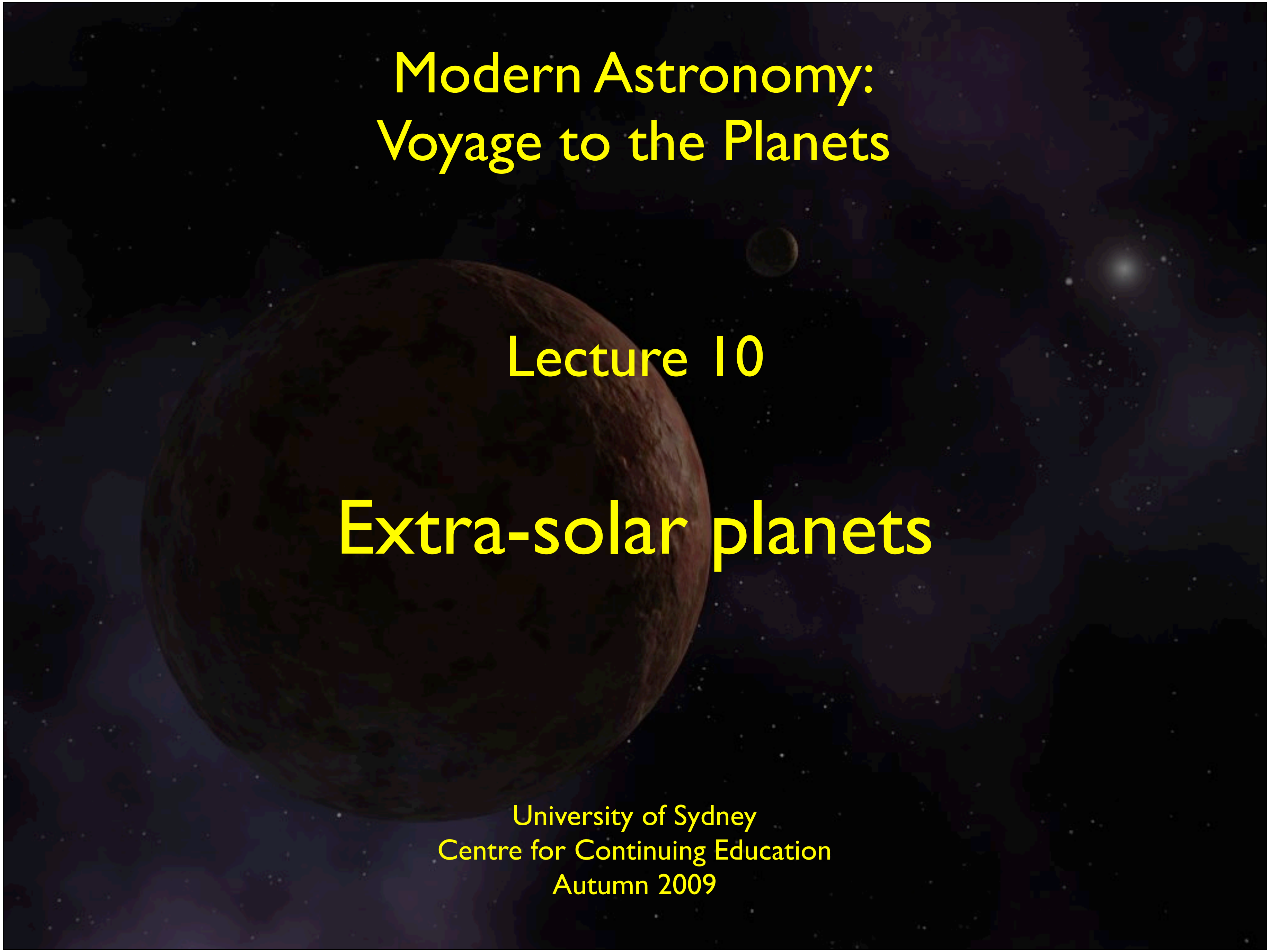
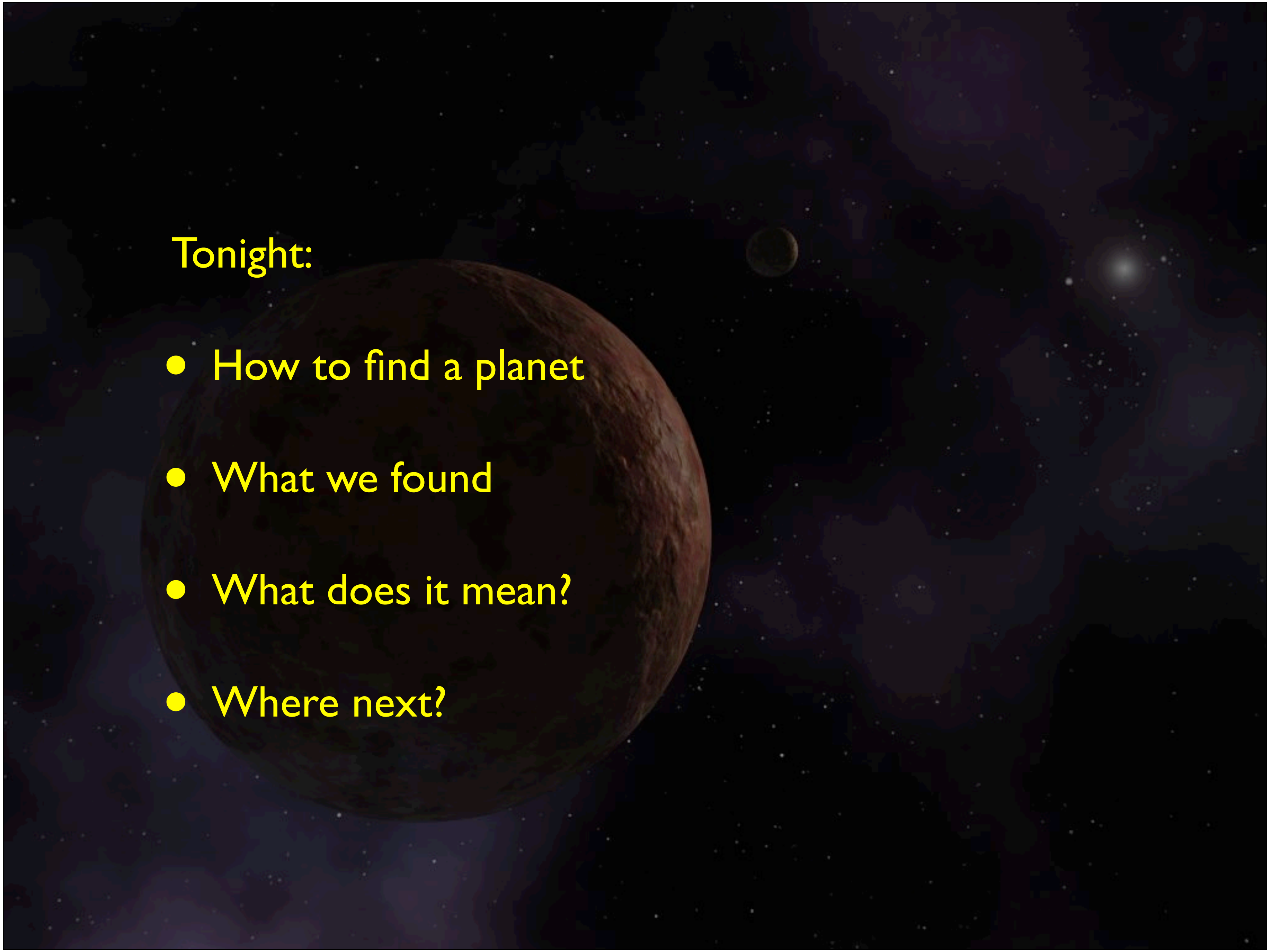
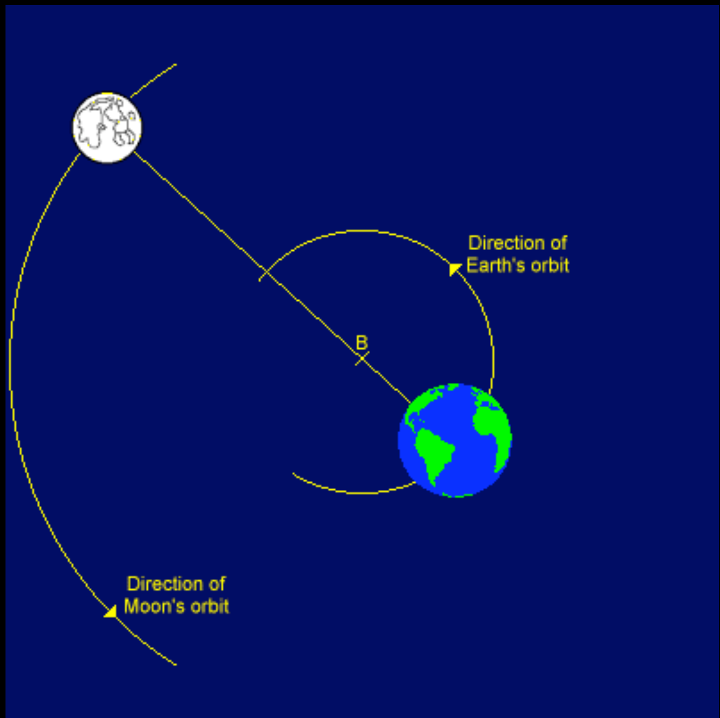

Modern Astronomy:
Voyage to the Planets
Lecture 10
Extra-solar planets
University of Sydney
Centre for Continuing Education
Autumn 2009


"One theorist admitted to me he cannot think of a single prediction that he and his colleagues made about extrasolar planets that has been supported by observations."
– Geoffrey Marcy, quoted in "Planetary Harmony"
by Robert Naeye, Aust S&T Jan 2005


Tonight:
• How to find a planet
• What we found
• What does it mean?
• Where next?

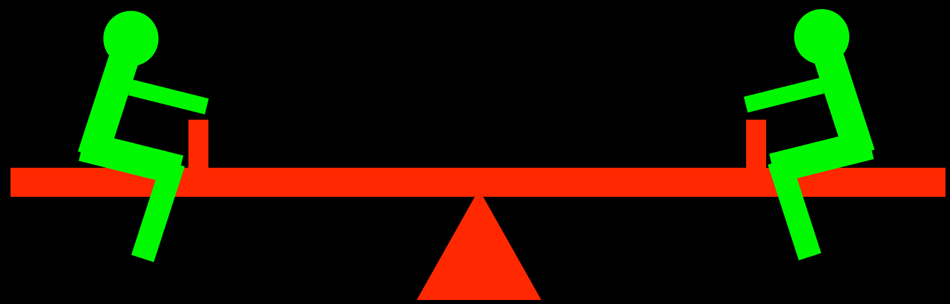
Orbits

We talk about planets orbiting the Sun, but in fact both planet and Sun move. Two bodies in orbit each move about the *centre of mass* (or *barycentre*).



The centre of mass is always directly between the two objects, and where it is depends on their masses.

Just like a see-saw, where the fulcrum has to be placed closer to the heavier child.



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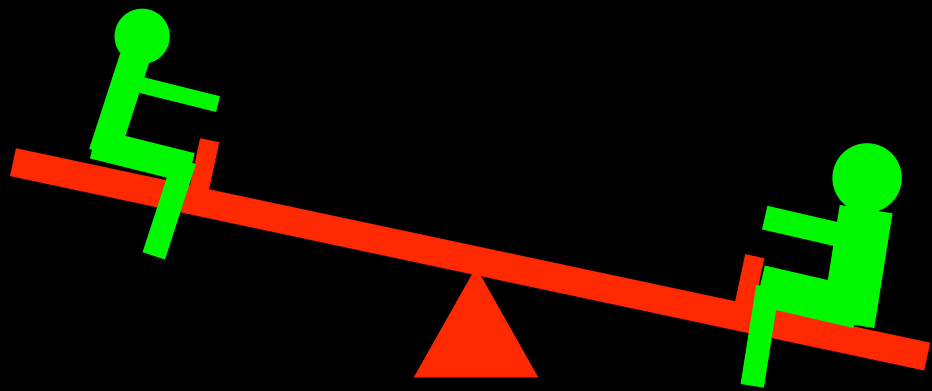
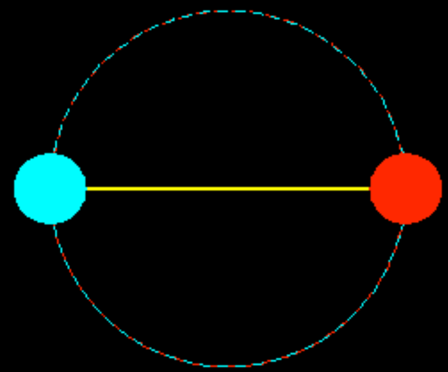


The centre of mass is always directly between the two objects, and where it is depends on their masses.

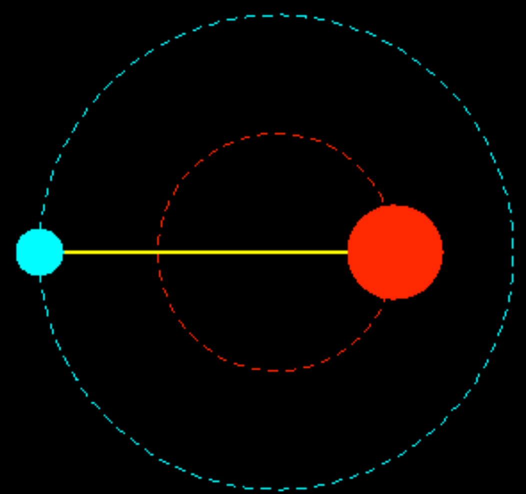
Just like a see-saw, where the fulcrum has to be placed closer to the heavier child.

Two objects of equal mass will orbit with the centre of mass exactly halfway between them.



Two objects of equal mass will orbit with the centre of mass exactly halfway between them.

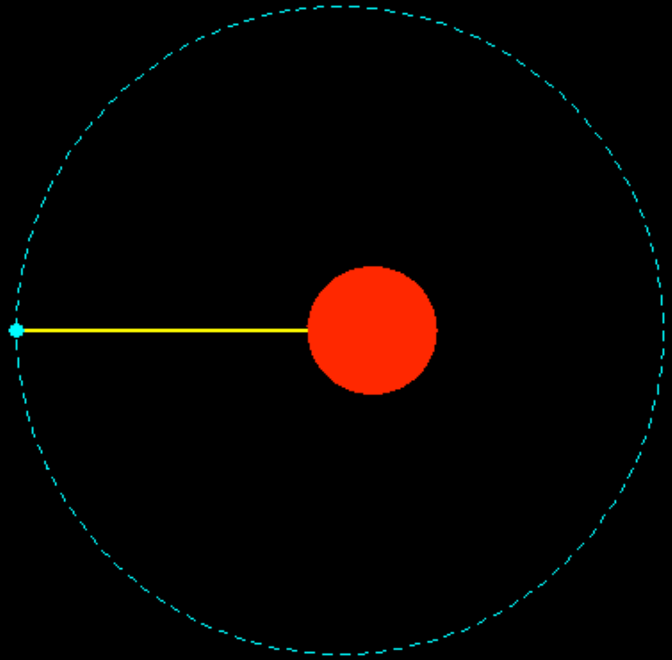
If one object is twice as massive as the other, the centre of mass will be twice as close to it.



Two objects of equal mass will orbit with the centre of mass exactly halfway between them.

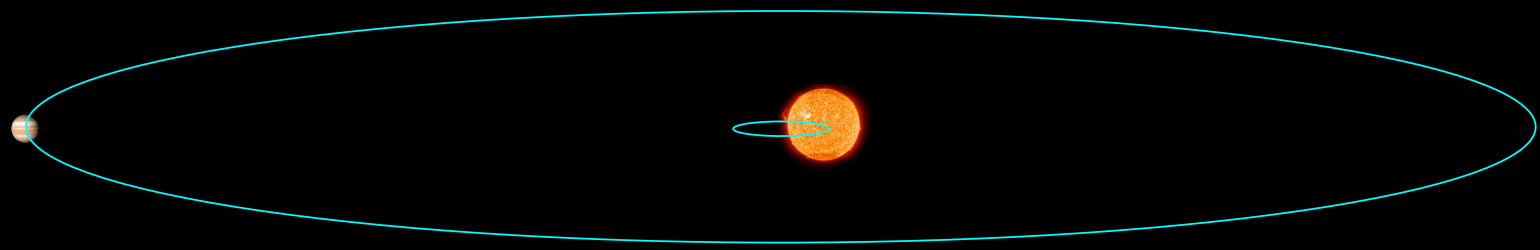
If one object is twice as massive as the other, the centre of mass will be twice as close to it.

If one object is one hundred times as massive as the other, the centre of mass will be one hundred times as close to it.

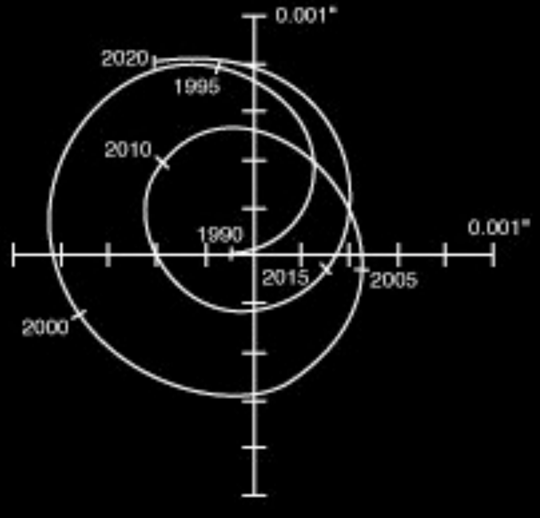


The ratio of the mass of the Sun to the mass of Jupiter is 1000, so the centre of mass is 1000 times closer to the Sun than it is to Jupiter.

The radius of the Jupiter's orbit is just over 1100 times the radius of the Sun, so its barycentre with the Sun lies just above the Sun's surface. Thus as Jupiter executes its 12 year orbit, the Sun executes a much smaller ellipse, wobbling just over one solar diameter.



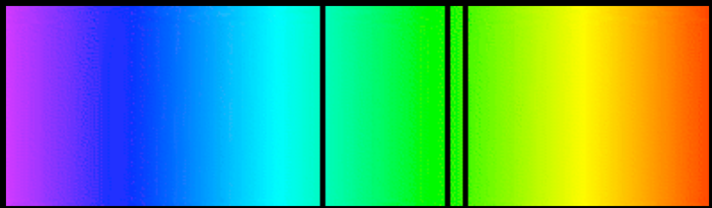
The motion of a star due to a planet is tiny in the extreme: no planets have yet been detected this way, though the next generation of space missions will change that.



Astrometric displacement of the Sun due to Jupiter as at it would be observed from 10 parsecs, or about 33 light-years.

However, we can detect *velocities* very easily, because of the Doppler shift.

As the star wobbles to and fro, we see lines in its spectrum moving first to the red, and then to the blue. Measuring the size of this shift allows us to determine the velocity of the star, and hence (from Kepler's law) the mass of the companion.



The Sun moves about the Sun–Jupiter barycentre at about 12 metres per second, so if we can measure a regular change in a star's velocity of 12 m/s over 12 years, then we can detect a Jupiter-sized planet in a Jupiter-sized orbit.

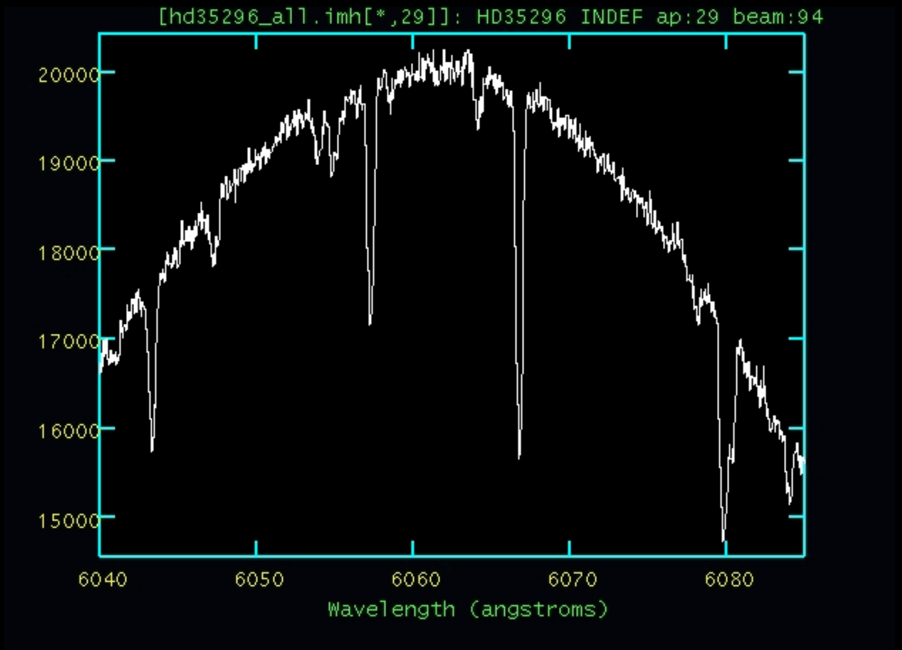
However, this means we have to be able to measure shifts in velocity to 12/300,000,000, or a precision of 4 in a *billion*.

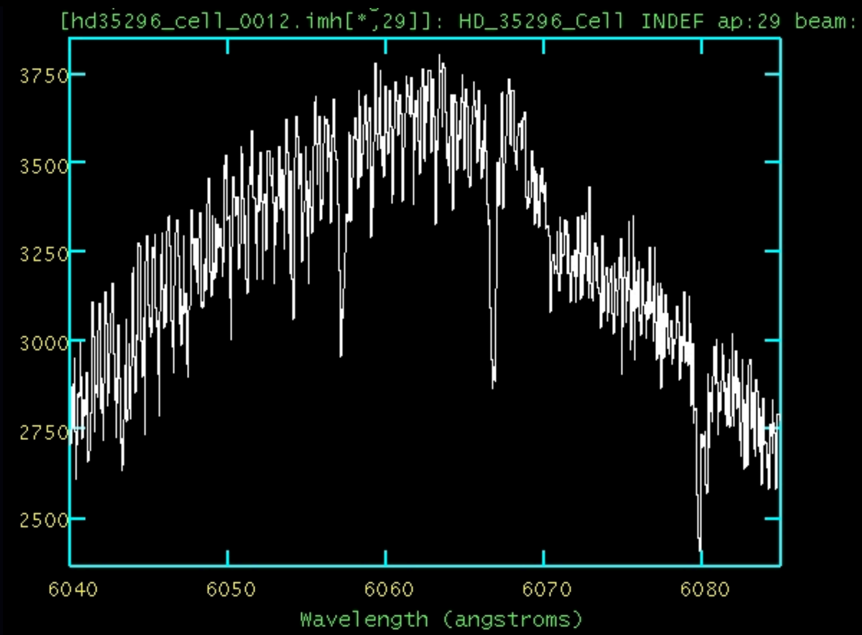
This places extraordinary demands on the stability of the instrument used to make the measurement. We need to spread the light out a long way to measure the tiny shifts, but also have a very stable reference system.

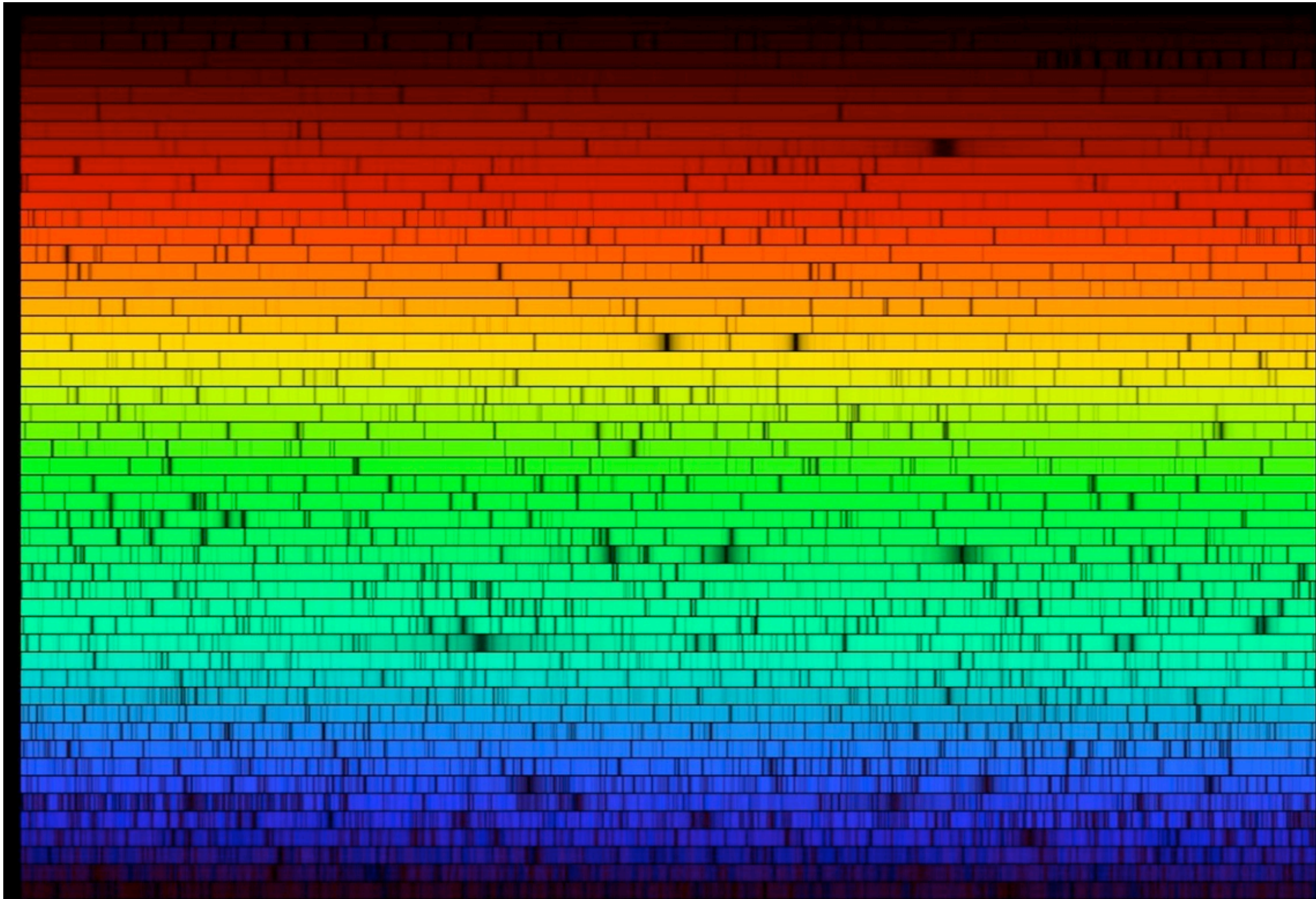
Solution: pass the light from the star through an iodine cell, which superimposes a large number of reference absorption lines on the star's spectrum.

The iodine cell used in the Anglo-Australian planet search.

Here is the spectrum of a nearby F dwarf, by itself, and with the light sent through an iodine cell. Each of the wiggles is a sodium line, which allows very precise wavelengths to be measured.



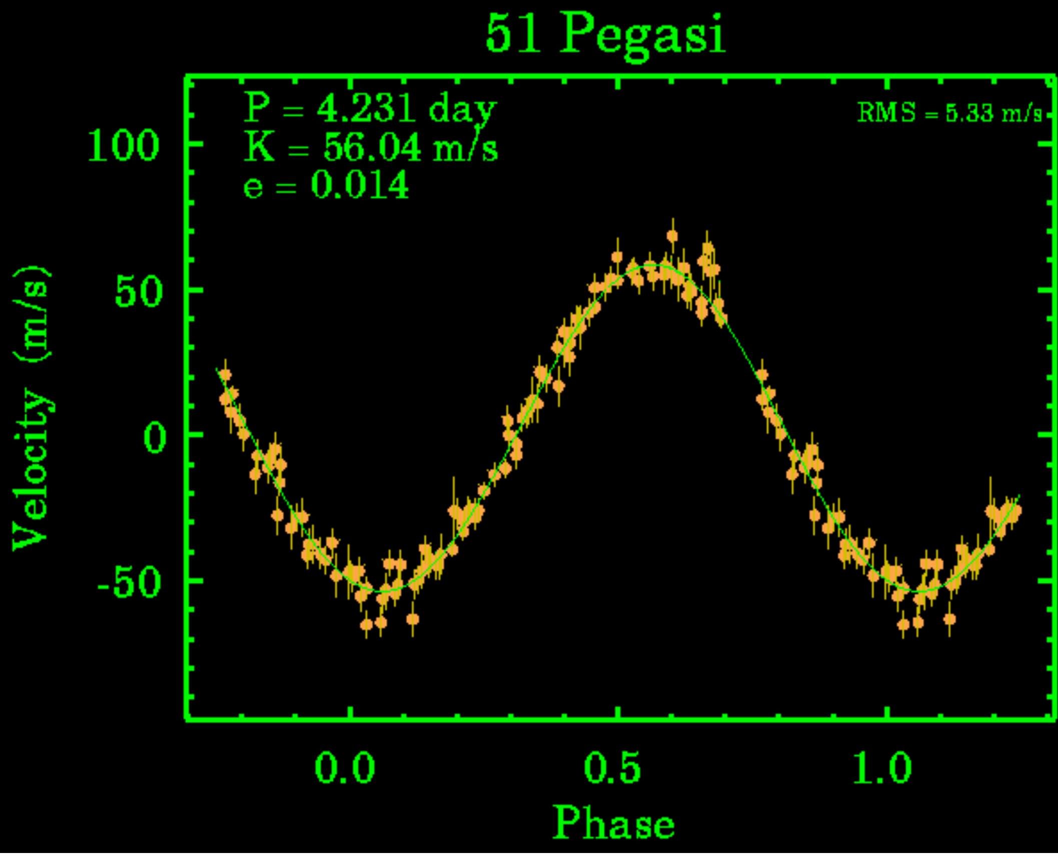




Example echelle spectrum from the Keck HIRES instrument

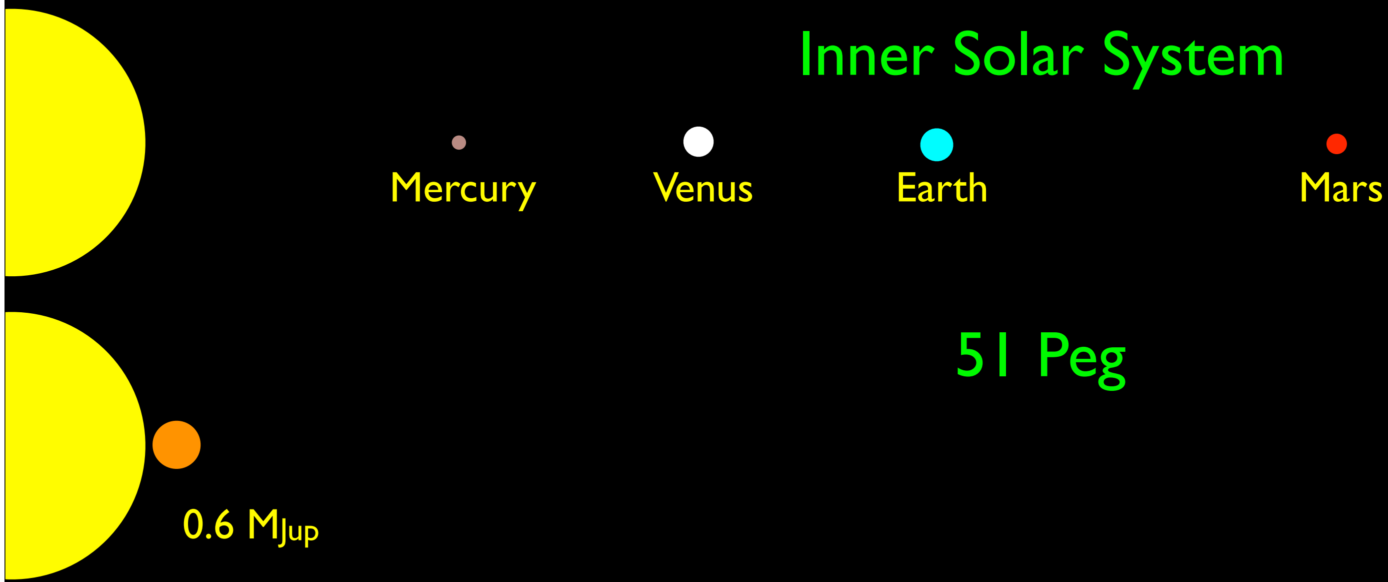
In 1995, Michel Mayor and Didier Queloz, from the Geneva Observatory, announced the discovery of the first extra-solar planet. They had found a regular oscillation of the star 51 Pegasi, a G5 dwarf, very similar to our own Sun, at a distance of 42 lightyears.

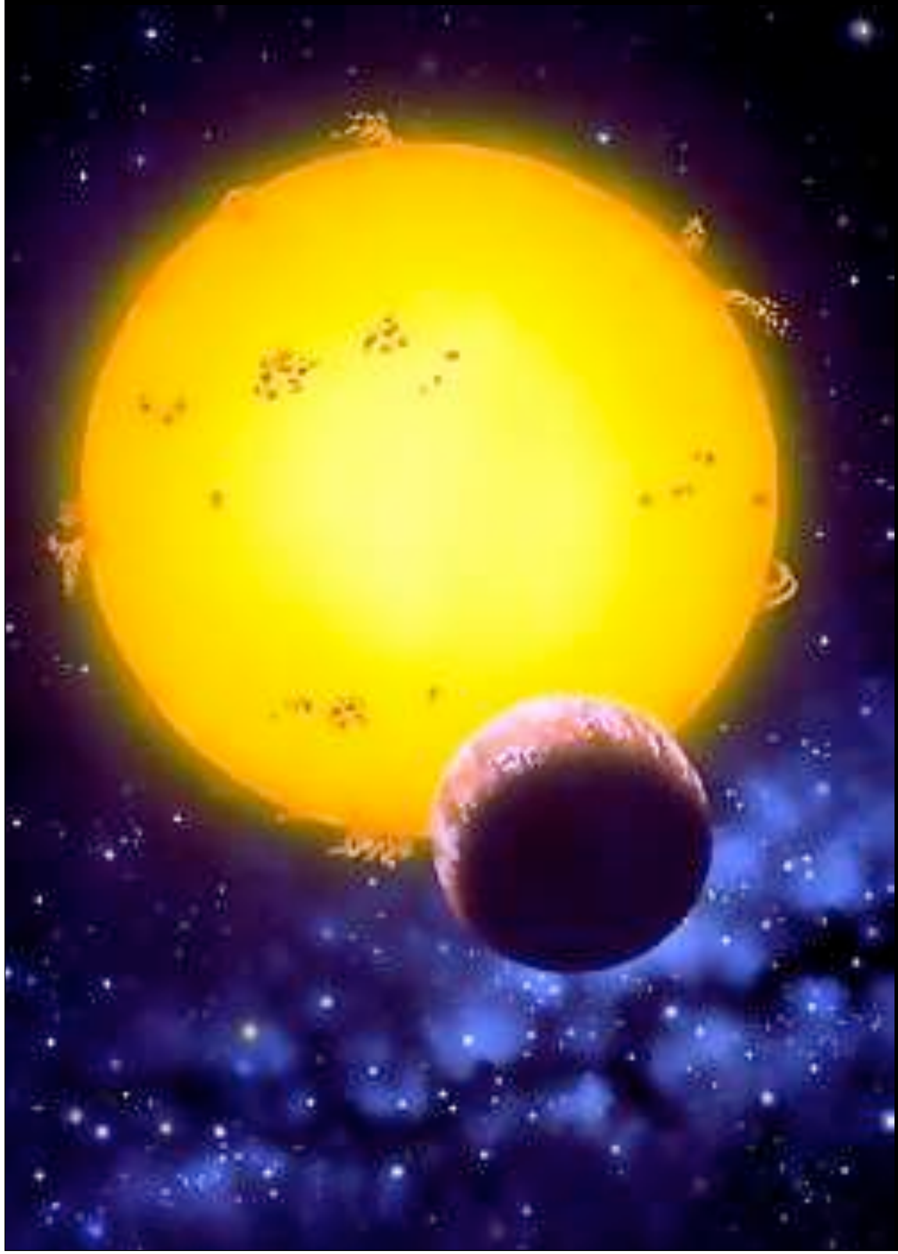
Most astonishingly, the period was only *4.2 days*.



They had found a planet which was 60% as massive as Jupiter, in an orbit much smaller than Mercury's (0.05 AU): a Jovian-mass planet in a sub-Mercurian orbit.

What is such a planet (a gas giant? a giant rocky planet?) doing so close to its star?



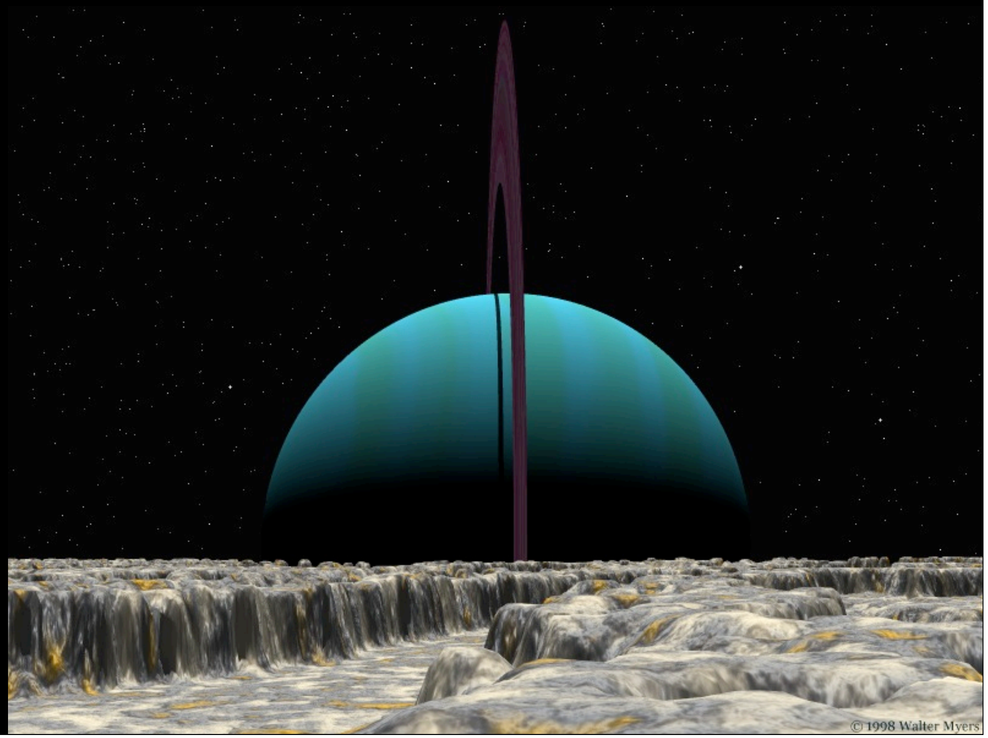


The unlikelihood of forming a massive planet so close to a star could only mean one thing: several people immediately suggested that planets *might not stay put where they were made.*

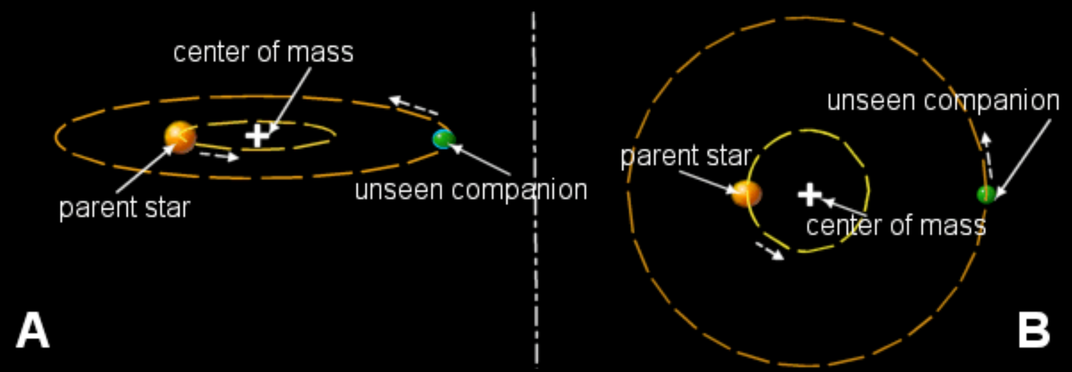
Artist's impression of the planet around 51 Pegasi.

Almost immediately, two new planets were announced, one around 47 Ursa Majoris and one around 70 Virginis, which, at 7.4 M_{Jup}, is still one of the most massive planets found.

After that, they started arriving at an enormous rate.

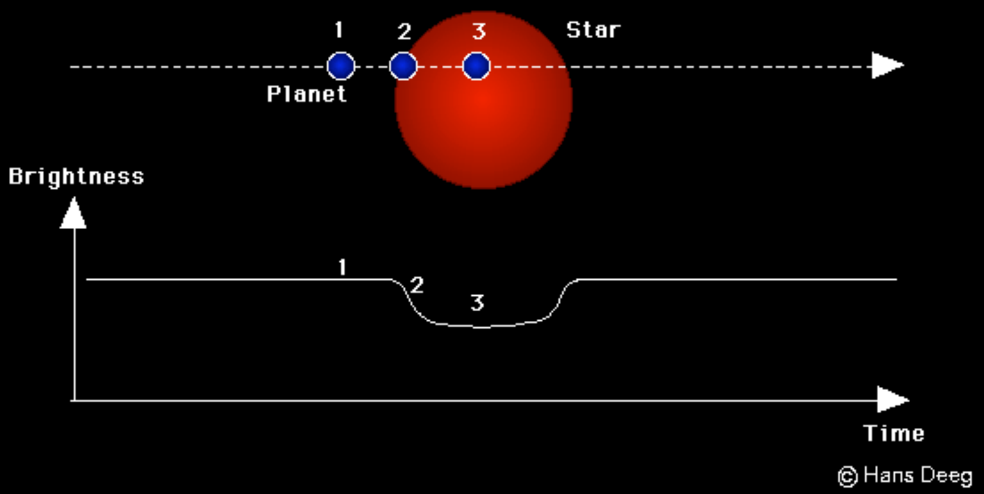


Radial velocity searches are biased towards finding *massive* planets in *small* orbits (maximises velocity variation). We can only measure the velocity along our line of sight, so if the orbit is tilted, the velocity we measure is less than the true velocity, so our mass estimate is only a lower limit.

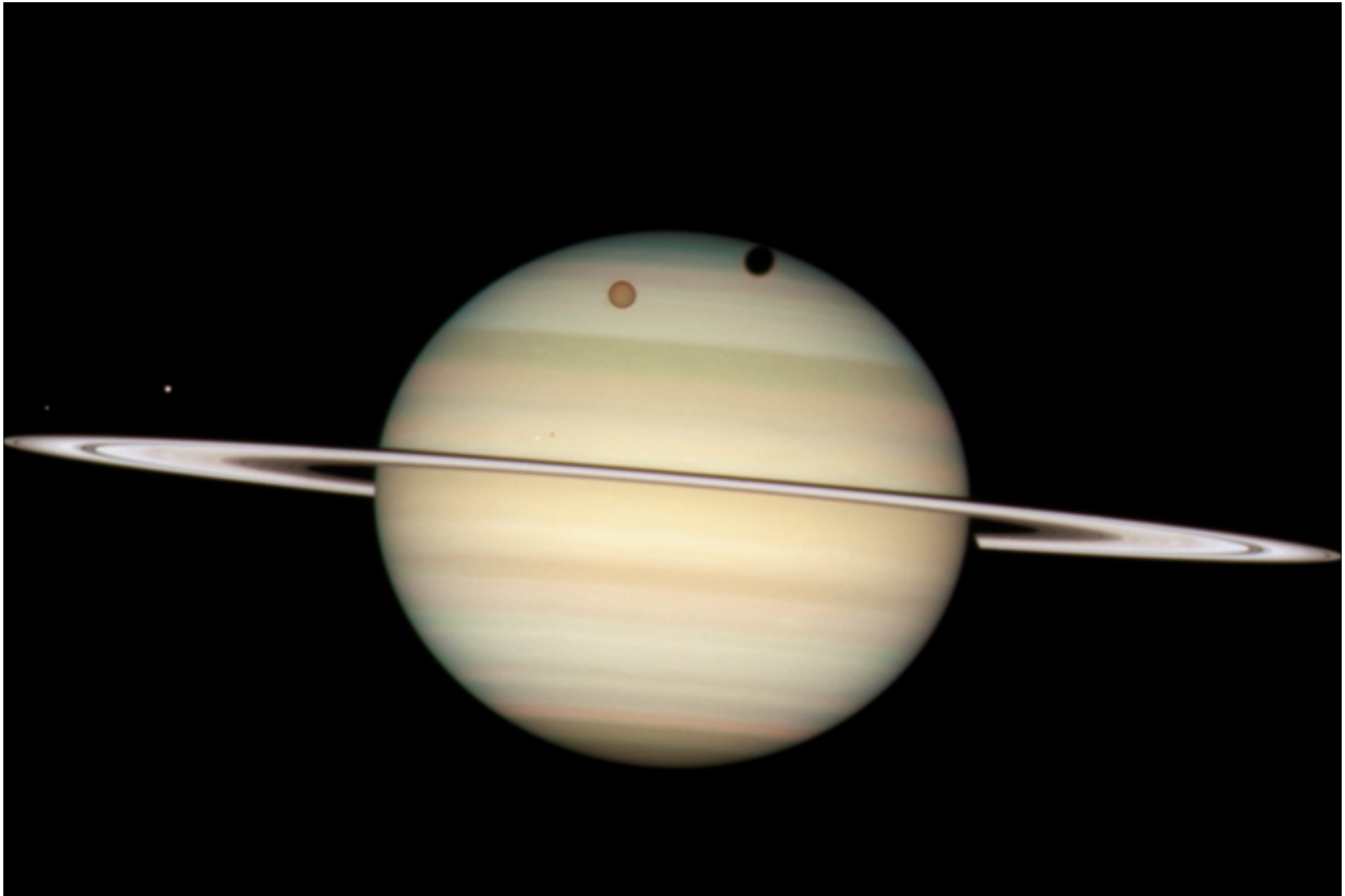


Large orbits also have long orbital periods, which means you have to observe for much longer to see a whole orbit.

If the orbit of a planet around a star happens to be edge-on, then once during every revolution, the planet will pass in front of its star in a *transit*. This can be detected by recording the star's brightness very accurately and looking for dips.

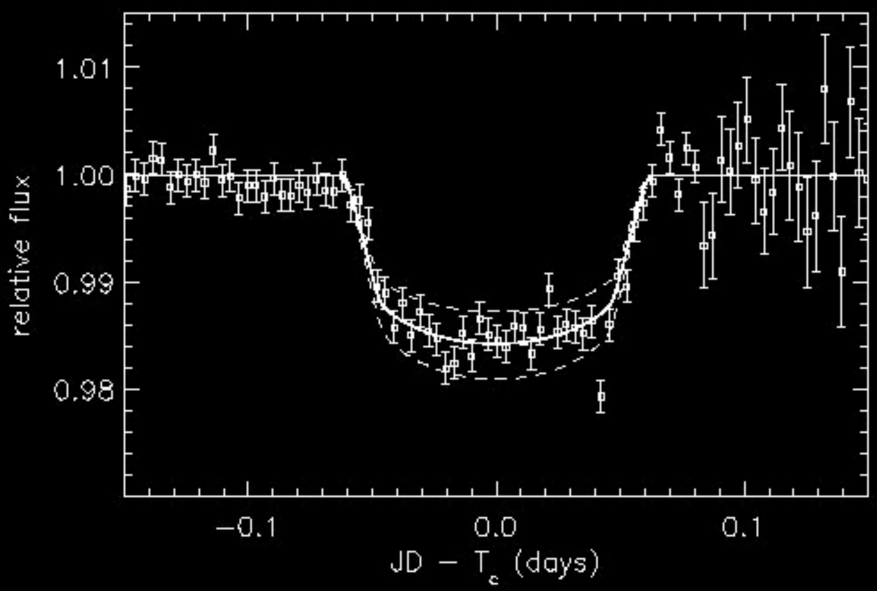


This can only work if the viewing geometry is favourable, and is biased towards finding *large* planets in *small* orbits. The 2004 transit of Venus showed that terrestrial planets don't cause much of a decrease in the light from the star!



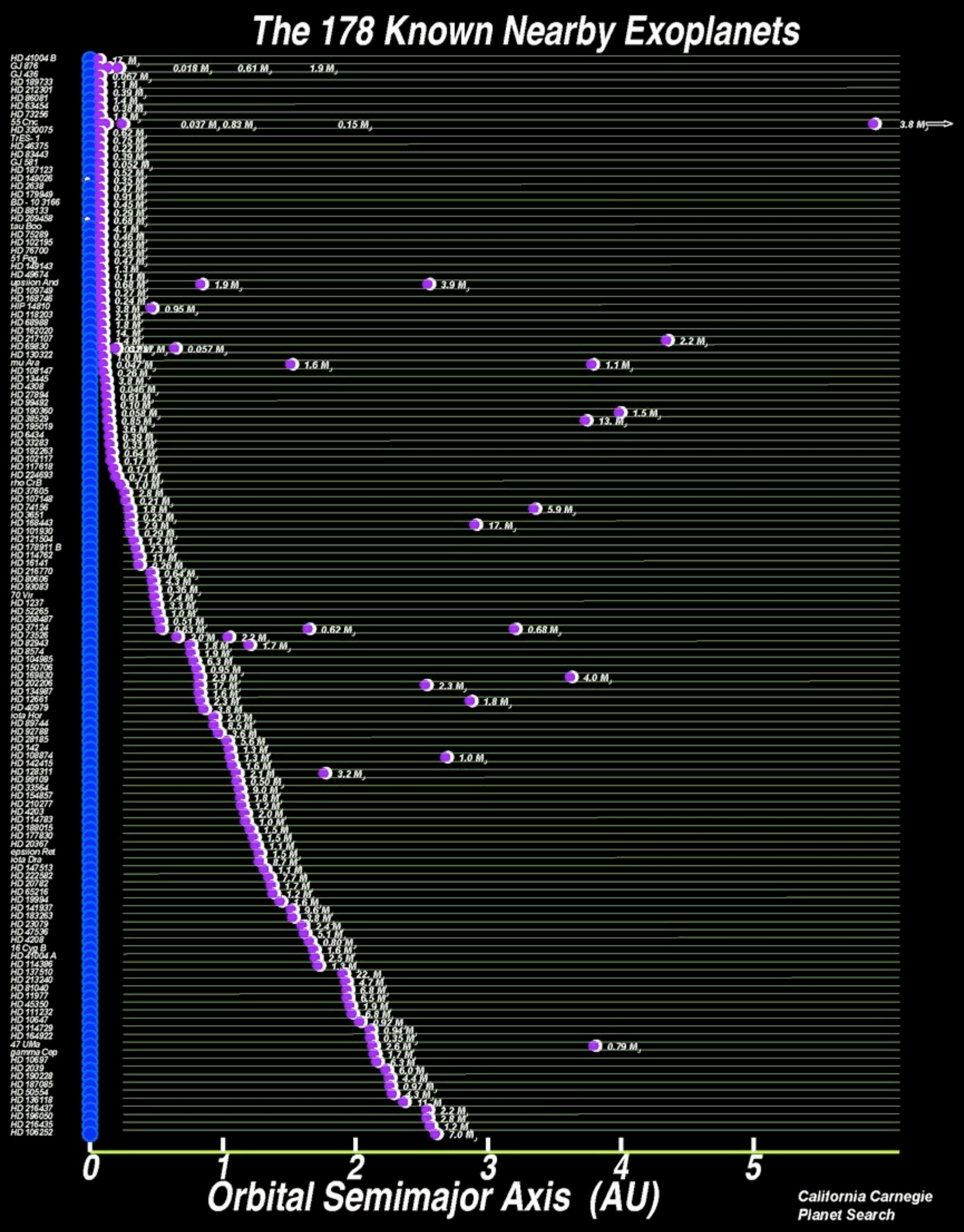
Hubble image of Titan transiting across Saturn, taken in February 2009

59 confirmed planets have been found through transits. Measuring transits of planets which have been detected via velocity variations is particularly valuable because this enable both the mass and the radius to be determined exactly (not just lower limits).

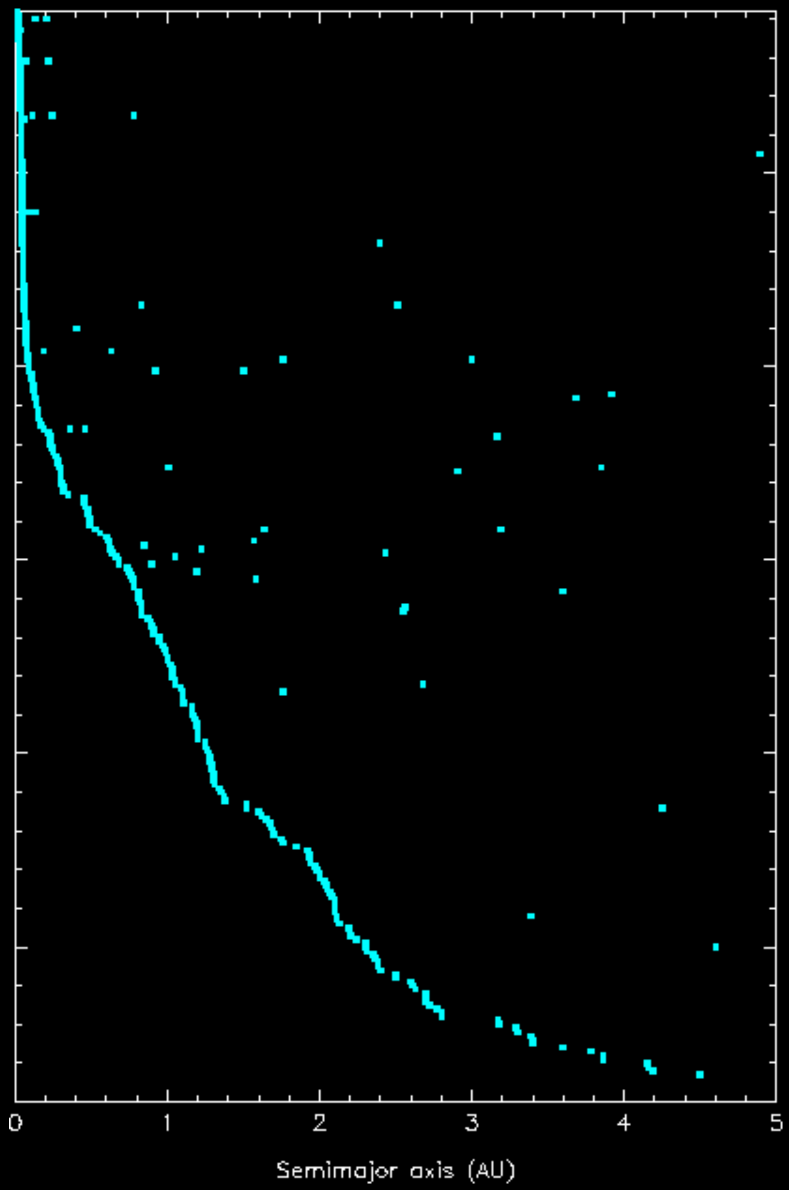



As of May 2009, we know of 347 planets around 294 stars.
None of them look anything like what we were expecting.

347 planets



The 178 Known Nearby Exoplanets
0
1
2
3
4
5
Orbital Semimajor Axis (AU)
California Carnegie
Planet Search

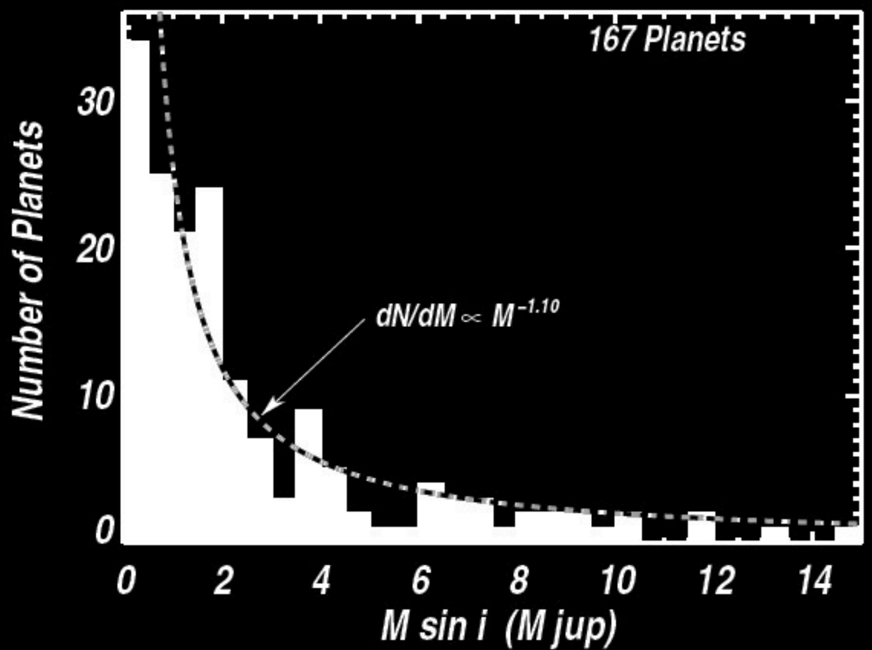


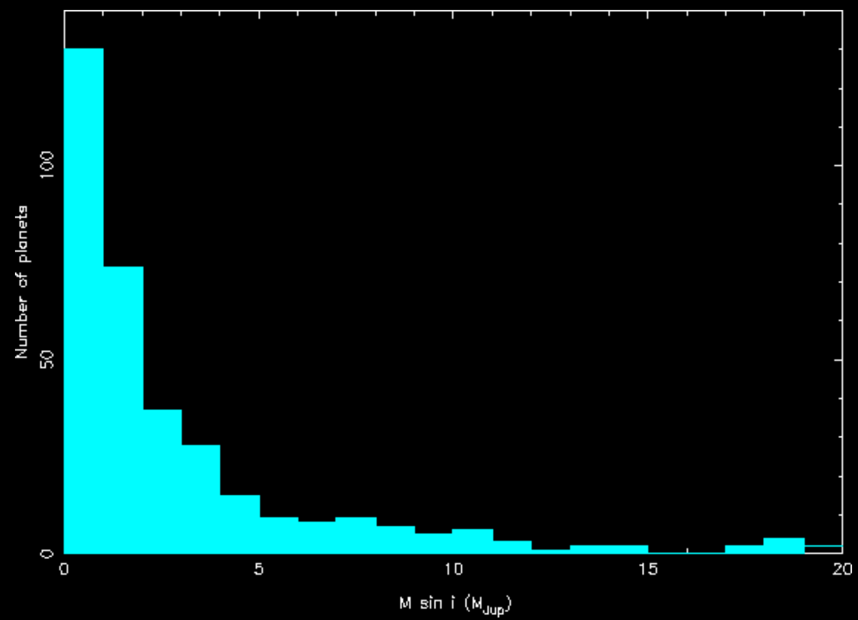
0
1
2
3
4
5
Semimajor axis (AU)

Amongst these 347 planets are:

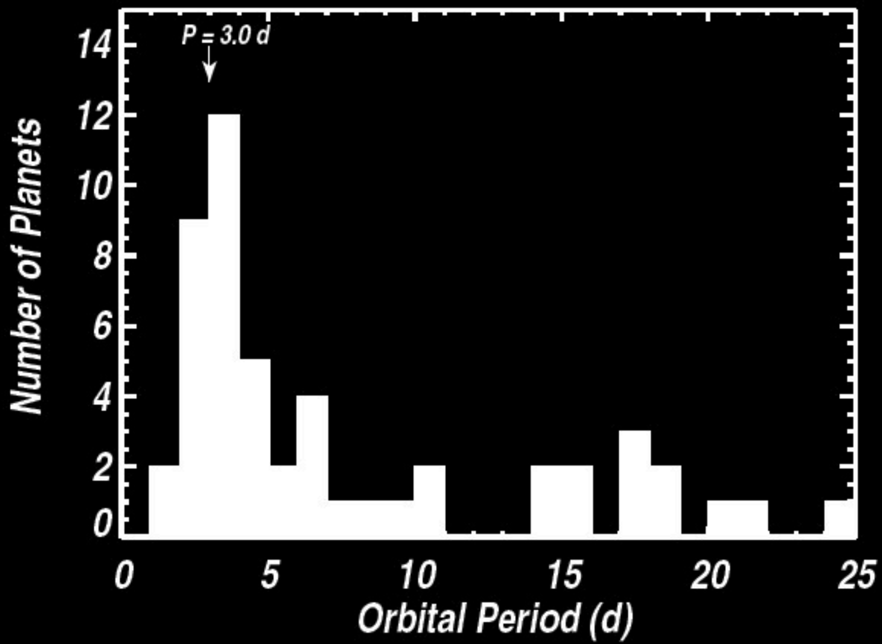
- 37 multiple planet systems
- ~ 50 planets in binary star systems, orbiting one member of a wide binary
- 19 planets around red giant stars

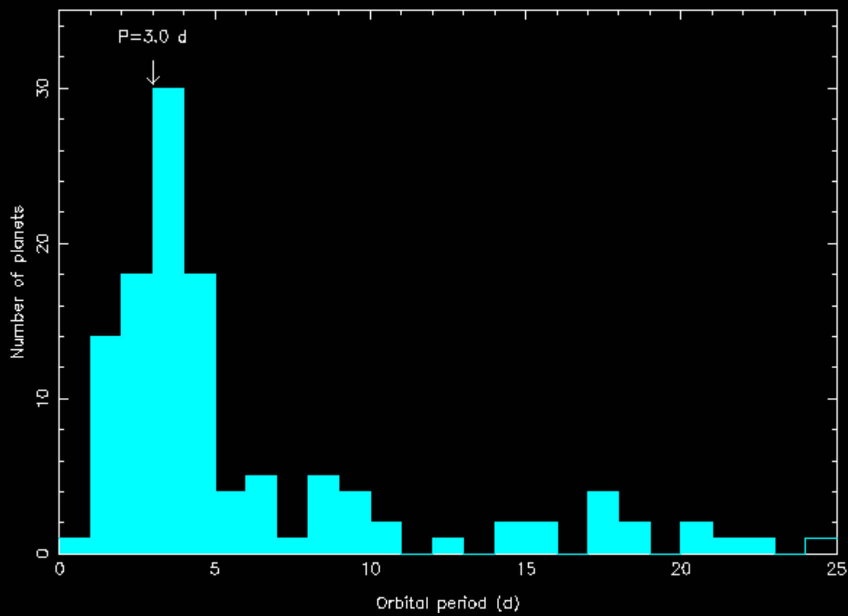
- The masses range between 2 M_{Earth} and about 25 M_{Jup} (recall that these are only *minimum* masses when we don't know the inclination)



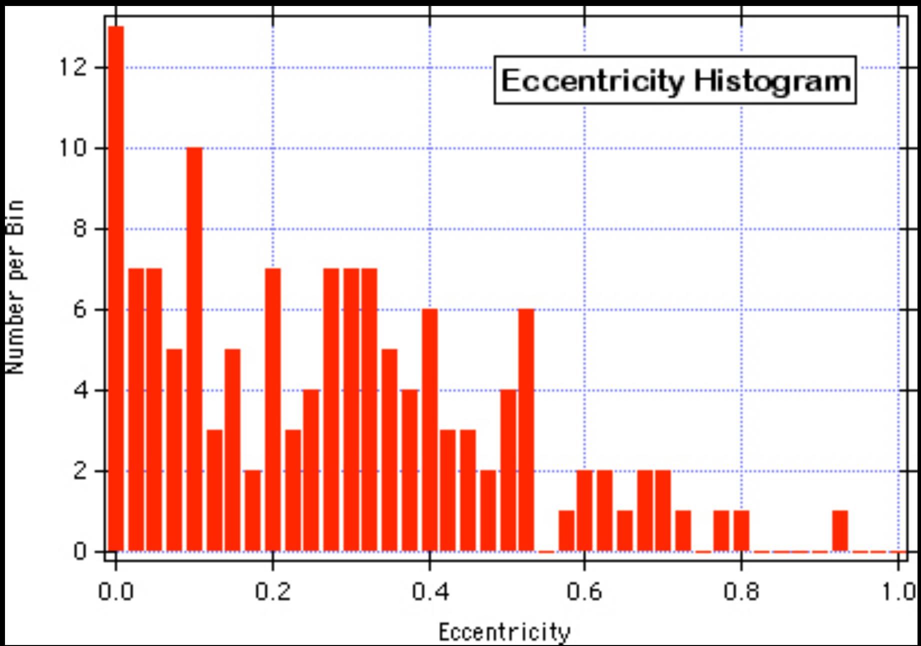


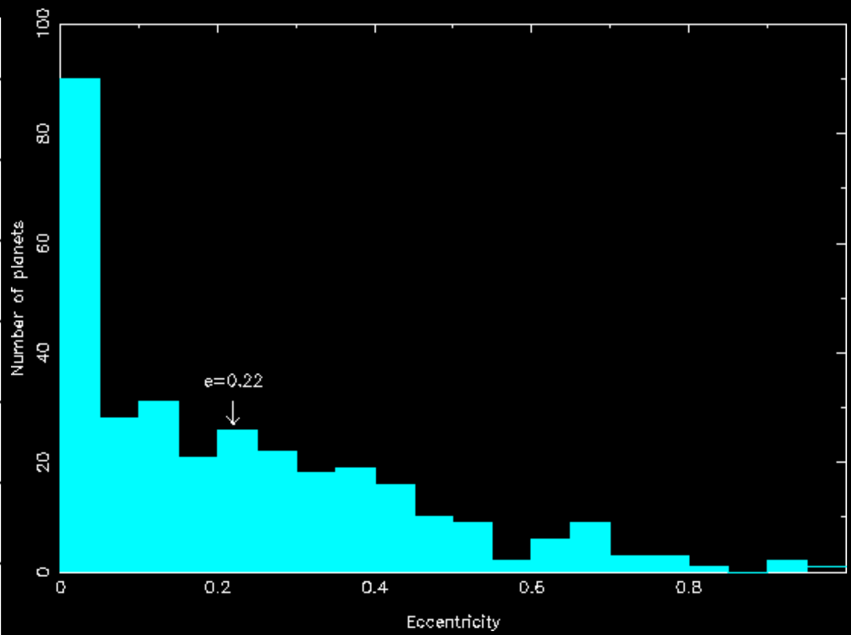
- A large fraction of the discovered planets look like 51 Peg-b, the first exoplanet: the so-called *hot Jupiters* – massive planets which orbit very close to their sun. Furthermore, there appears to be a "pile-up" of planets near an orbital period of 3 days.





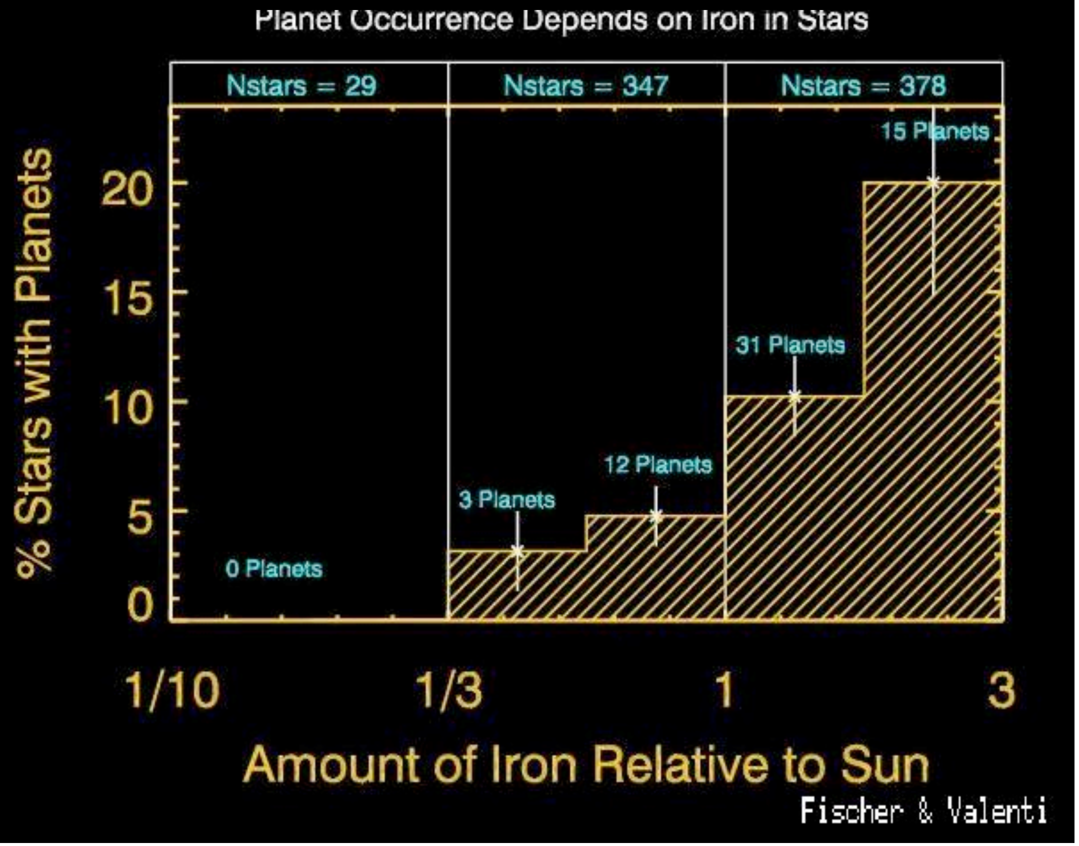
• Most of the planets have eccentric orbits: the mean eccentricity is about 0.25 (compared with Jupiter's orbital eccentricity of 0.094, or Earth's of 0.017). Planets very close to their sun have almost circular orbits, while planets further away can have any eccentricity.





• About 7% of nearby G, F and K stars have at least one giant planet within 5 AU.

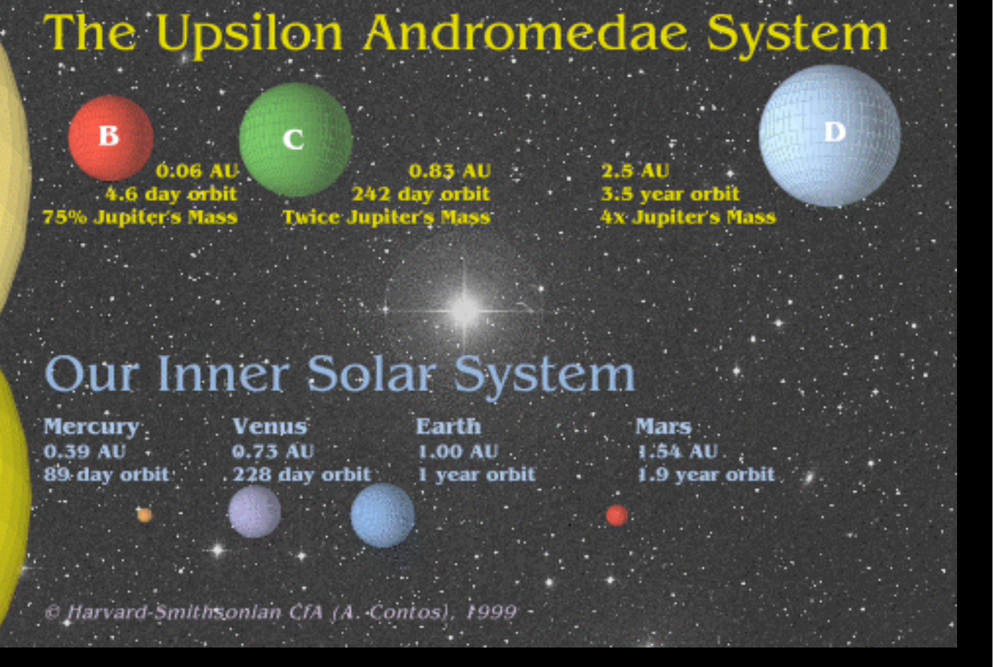
The *chance* of having a planetary companion depends on the metallicity of the star: stars with higher metal content have significantly more planets.



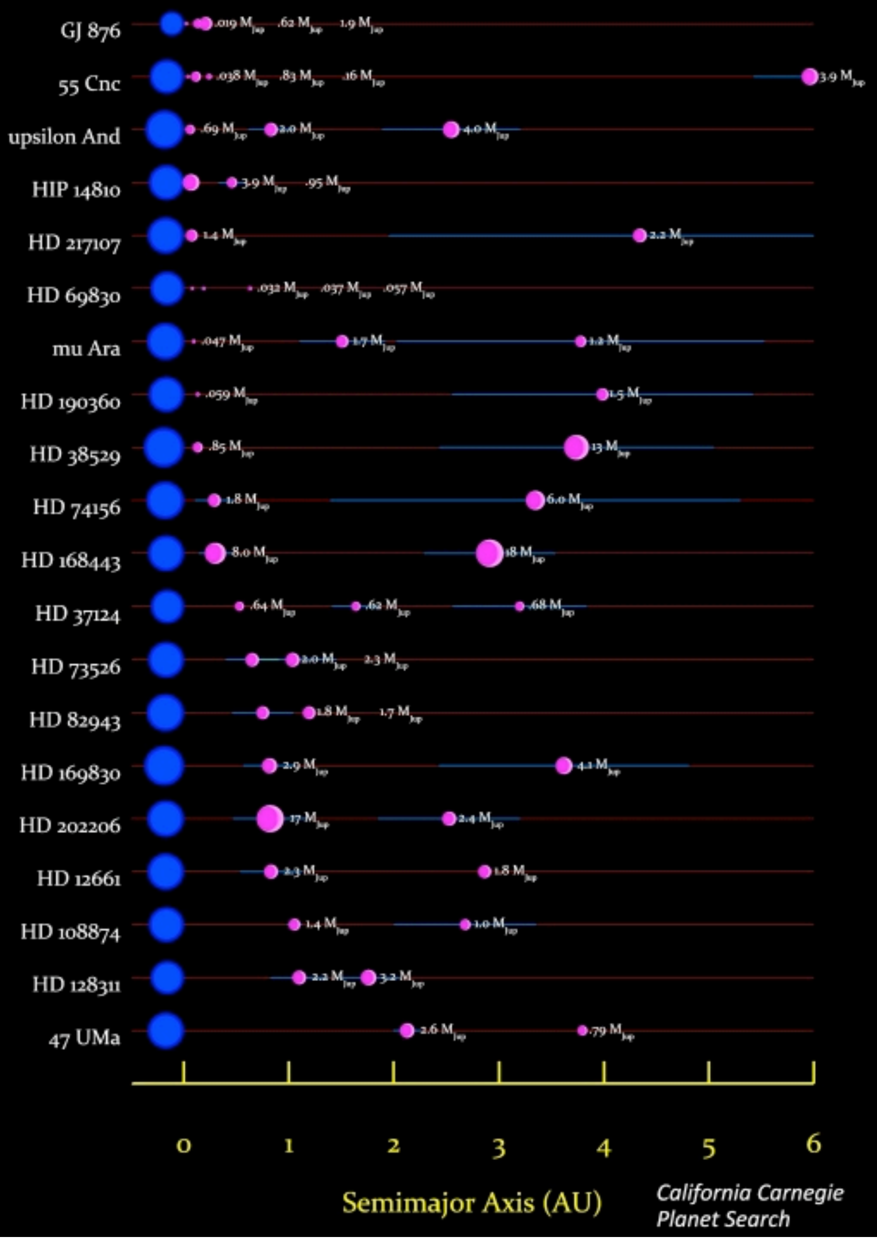
- There are now 24 planets with masses less than Neptune (=17 $M_{\oplus}$).

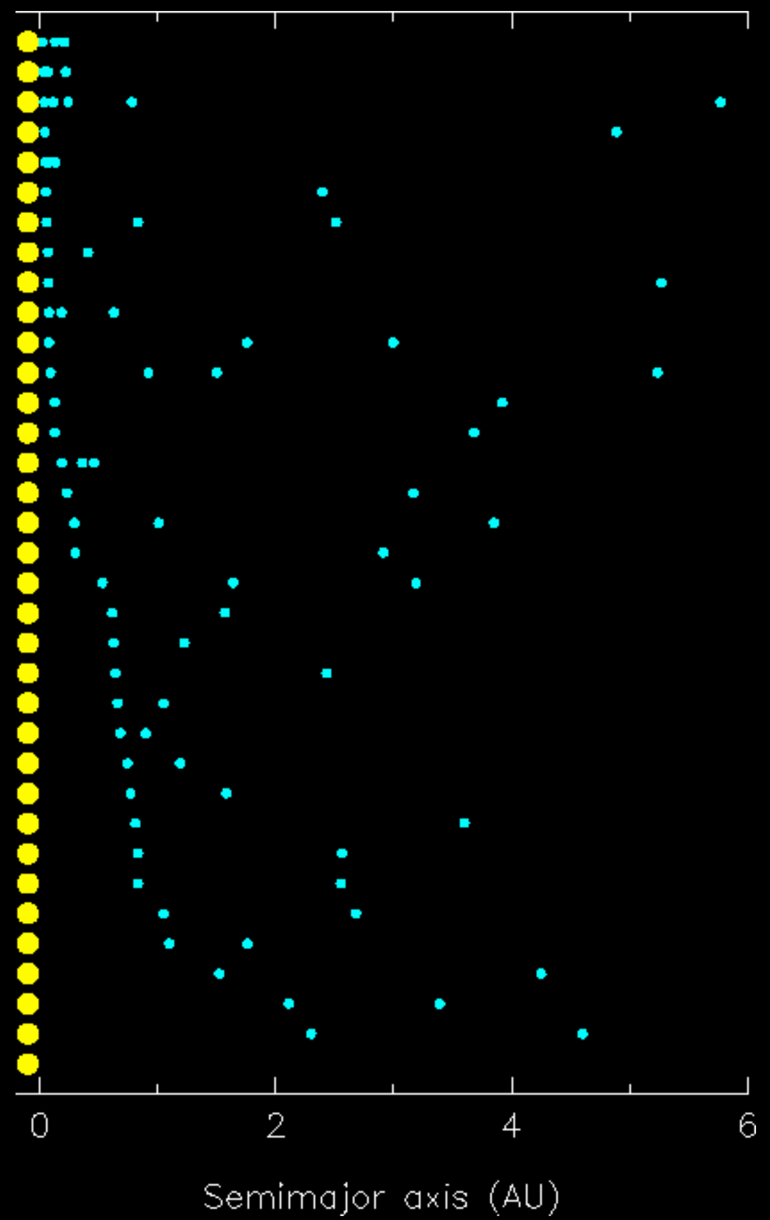
The distribution over the spectral types G, M and K is almost uniform.

In 1999, the first multiple-planet system was found, around Upsilon Andromedae. All three planets are massive, with the innermost orbiting extremely close to the star.

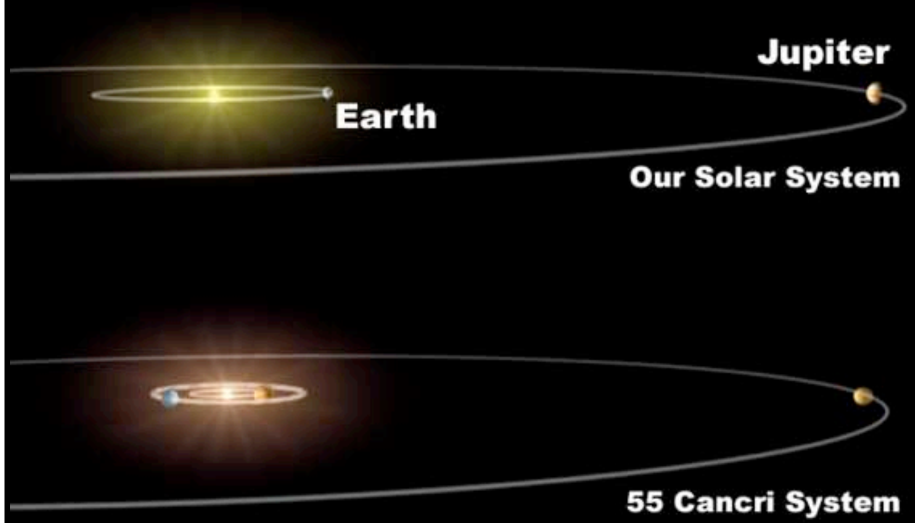


We now know of 35 systems with more than one planet.





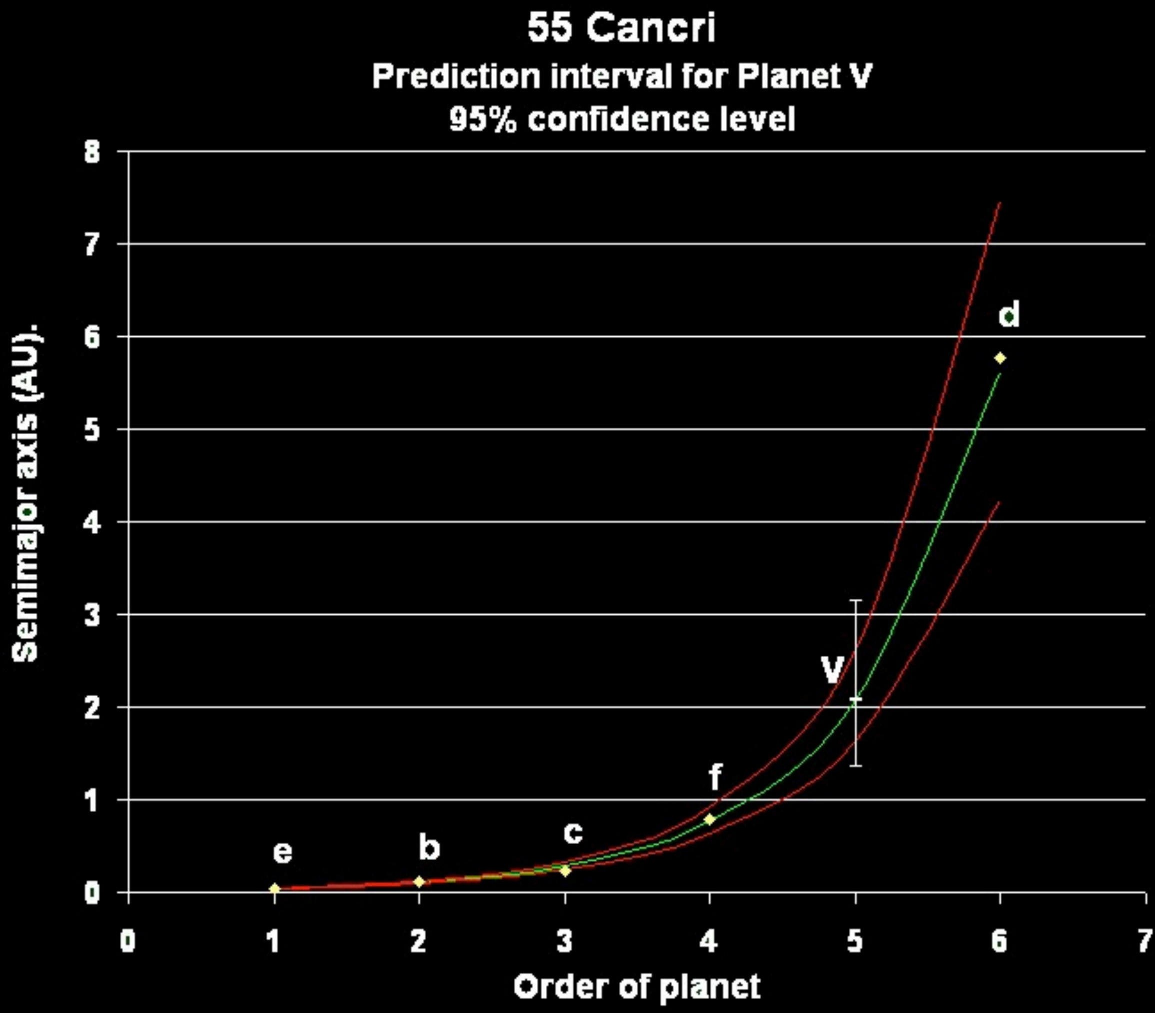
The system around 55 Cancri has five planets. The outermost planet, 55 Cancri d, has an orbit very similar in size to Jupiter's.



It is possible there are smaller (terrestrial?) planets in the gap between f and d.

Planet	Mass (M_J)	Distance (AU)	Period (d)
e	0.03	0.04	2.8
b	0.82	0.12	15
c	0.17	0.24	44
f	0.14	0.78	260
d	3.8	5.8	5218

In 2007, an amateur astronomer suggested the 55 Cancri system has a "Bode's Law"-like relationship, which would predict the existence of two more planets.



What does it mean?

So far, *none* of the discovered systems look much like the Solar System (though we're at least getting closer).

So what are the problems so far?

- *How do you form "hot Jupiters"?*

In the model of planet formation we discussed last week, it's very difficult:

– too hot

– too little material

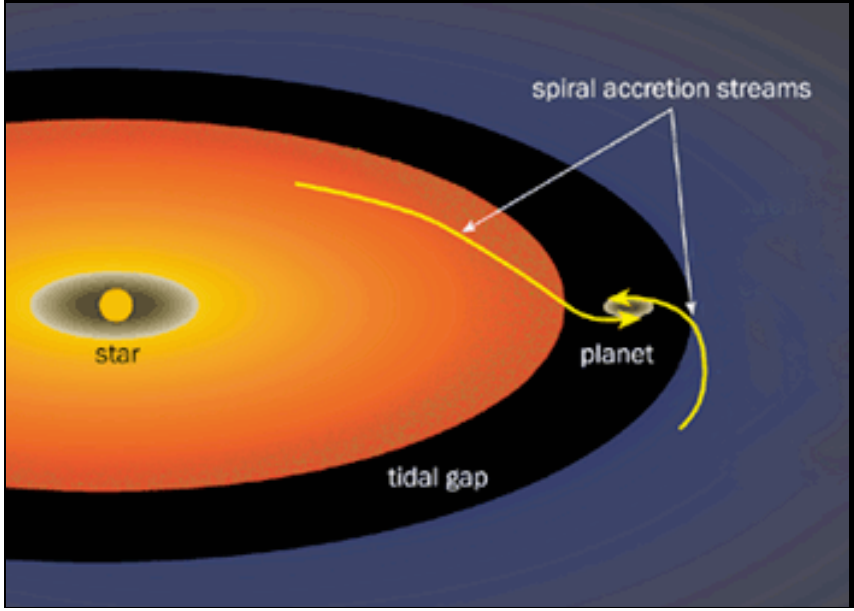
– too little gas to form envelope

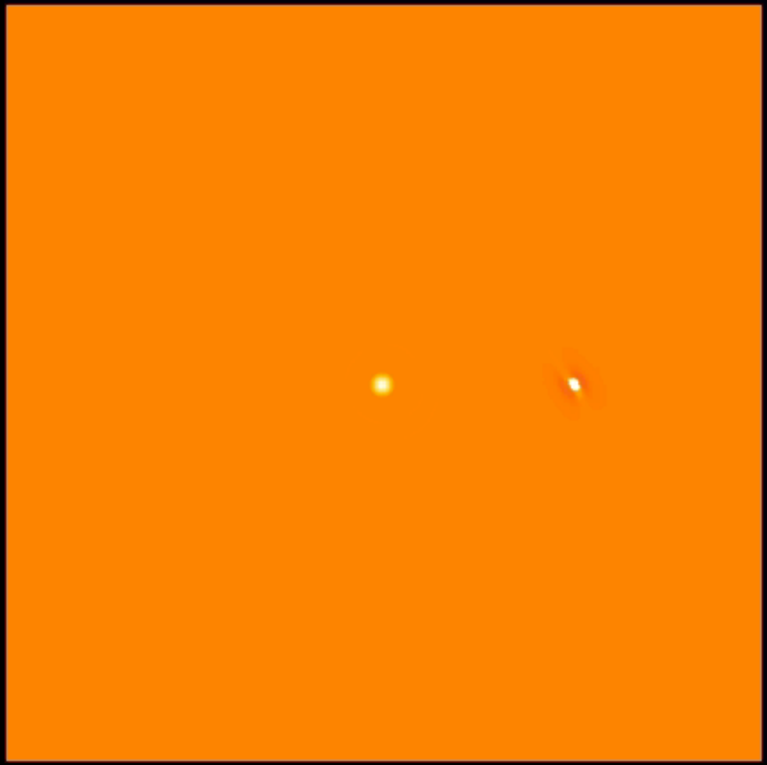
Require: *planetary migration*.

You remember that the giant planets accreted gas directly from the disk. We discussed how they had to complete their accretion before the proto-Sun blew the gas away. What we didn't stress was that there must have been a period when the giant proto-planets were embedded in the disk.

What effect does this have?

Simulations have shown that tidal interactions with the disk force the planet to migrate inwards.





Simulation of a proto-planet growing from 10 Earth masses to 1.5 Jupiter masses

So why does it stop? Why doesn't it plunge into the star?

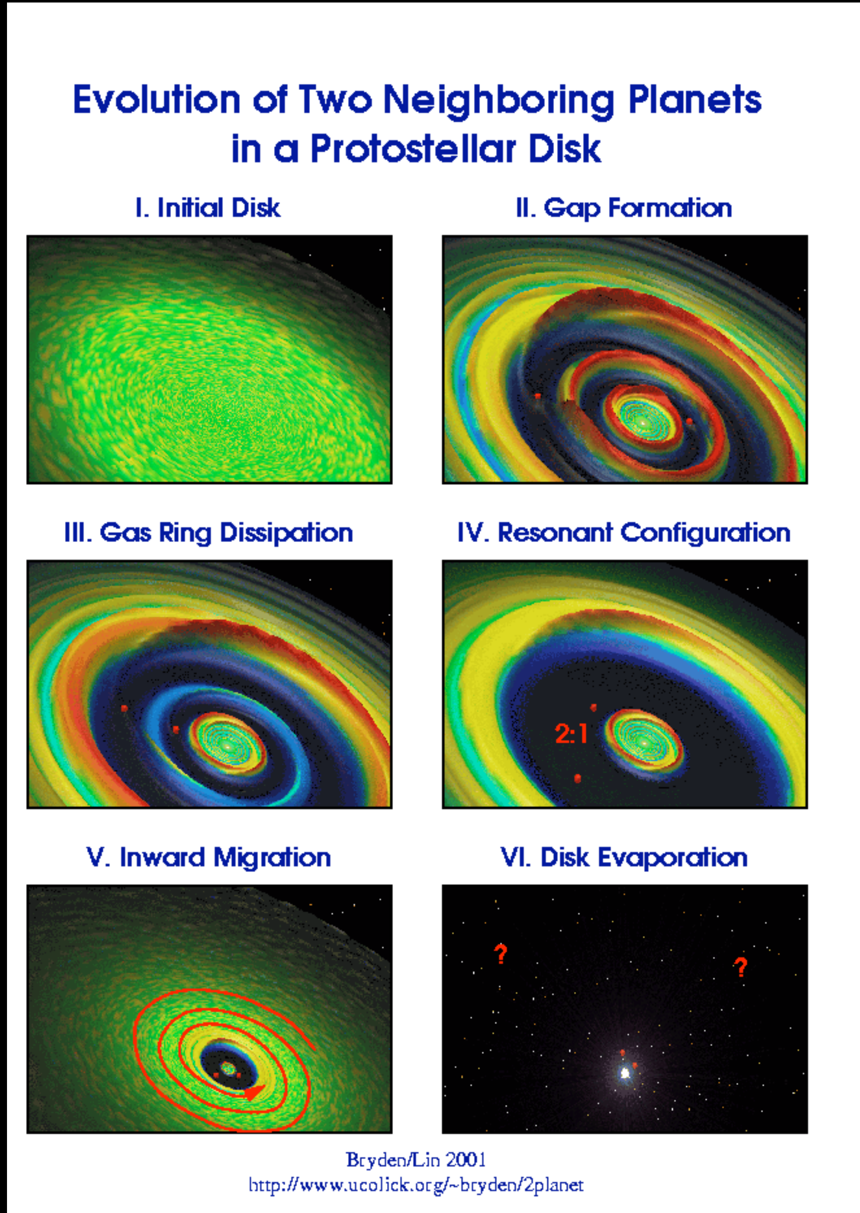
- It reaches the inner edge of the disk? (cleared by the star's magnetic field, perhaps?)
- Tidal interactions with the star?
- Planet fills its Roche lobe and recedes from the star?
- Orbit stabilised by resonant interactions with other planets?
- Perhaps they didn't stop: the visible planets are merely the survivors from a long chain of planets which spiralled into the star...

Resonances between planet orbits are looking as though they may be very important in many systems. At least seven of the multiple-planet systems show resonances.

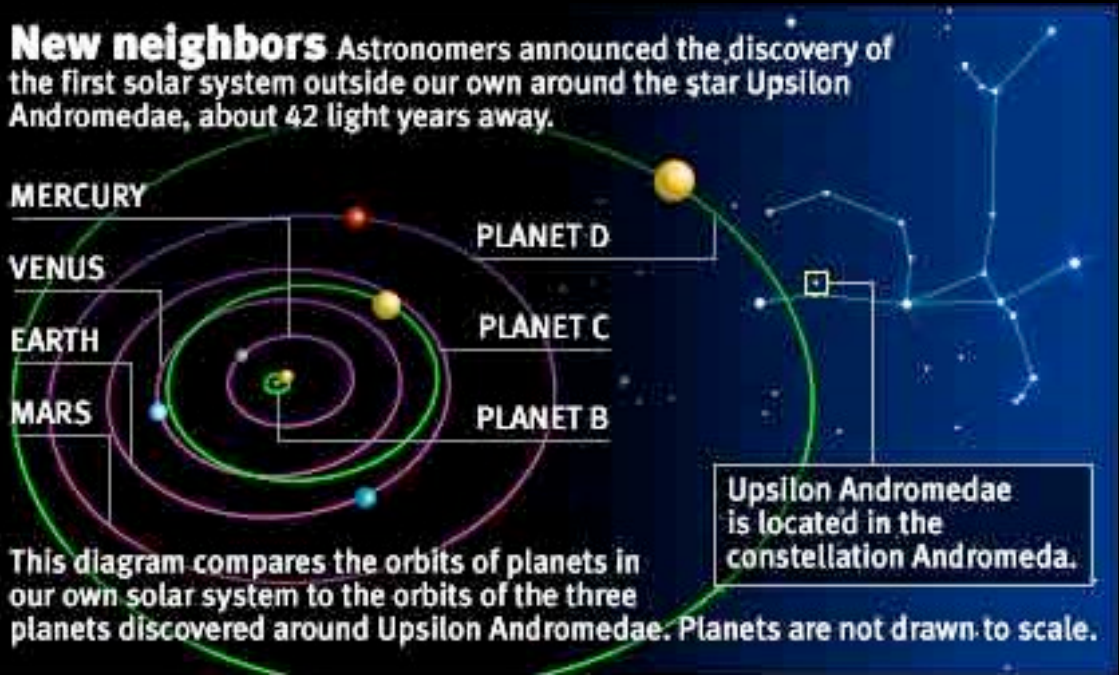
System	*N*	Resonance type
Gliese 876	2	Planets in a tight 2:1 mean-motion resonance and a secular resonance
Upsilon Andromedae	3	Planets c and d in a secular resonance
55 Cancri	4	Planets b and c probably in a 3:1 mean-motion resonance
HD 82943	2	Planets in a 2:1 mean-motion resonance
HD 12661	2	Planets in a secular resonance, but anti-aligned
HD 37124	2	Planets probably in a 5:1 mean-motion resonance
HD 128311	2	Planets in a 2:1 mean-motion resonance and a secular resonance

The existence of so many resonances is giving many clues into how these systems form and evolve.

Here is a model for the 2:1 orbital resonance of Gliese 876's two planets.



The idea that planet-planet interactions are important received confirmation from the peculiar system around Upsilon Andromedae. The two outer planets have highly elliptical orbits (e ~ 0.3) which interact on timescales of 10,000 years, and whose combined effect circularises the inner planet's orbit every 7000 years.



The Upsilon Andromedae orbits compared to the inner Solar System.

Recent work suggests this is the result of interactions with another giant planet. This planet had a close encounter with the outermost planet, and was then ejected from the system, leaving the middle two planets in eccentric orbits.

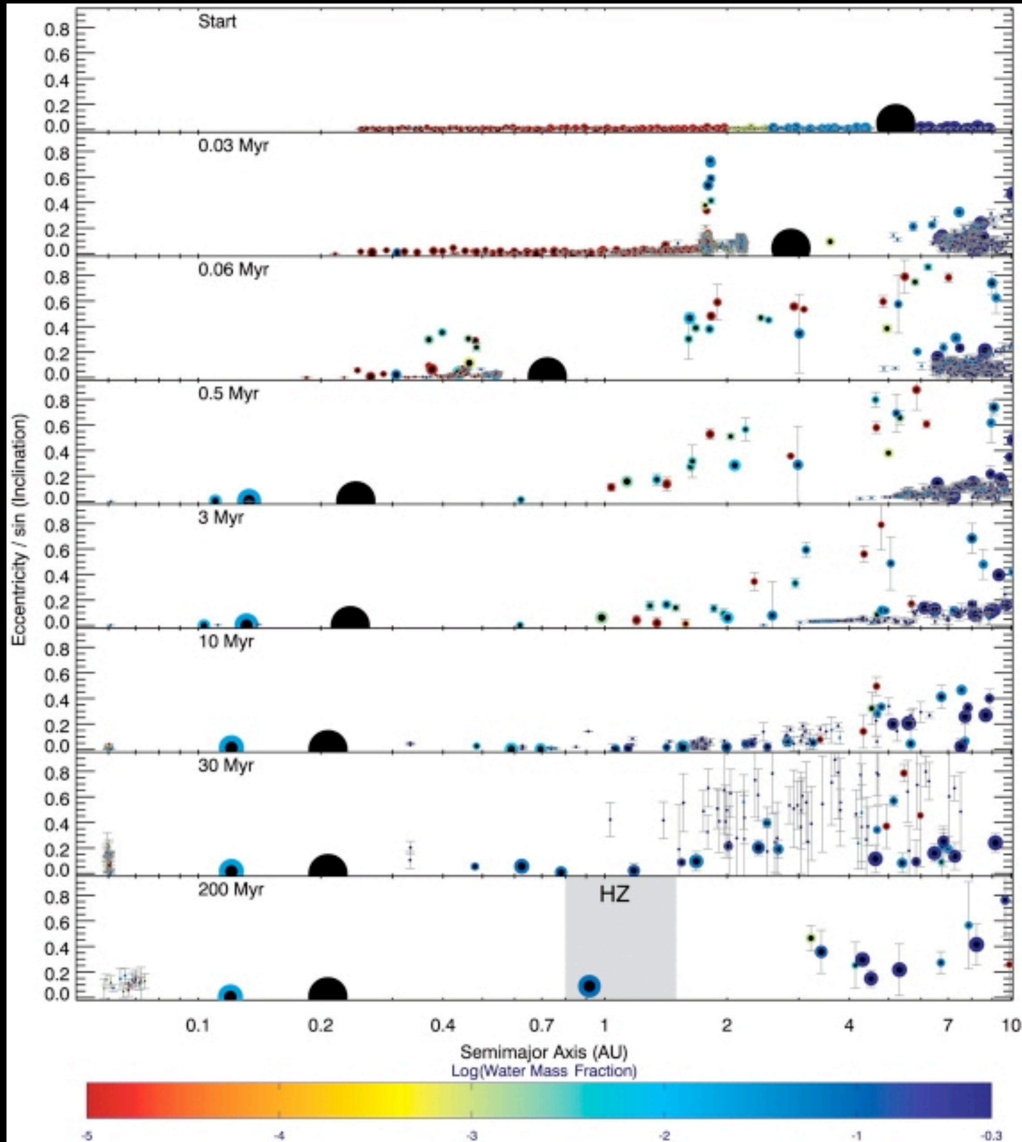
A Simulation of
Planet-Planet Scattering in the
Upsilon Andromedae
Planetary System

Diameters of planets have been
greatly exaggerated for visibility

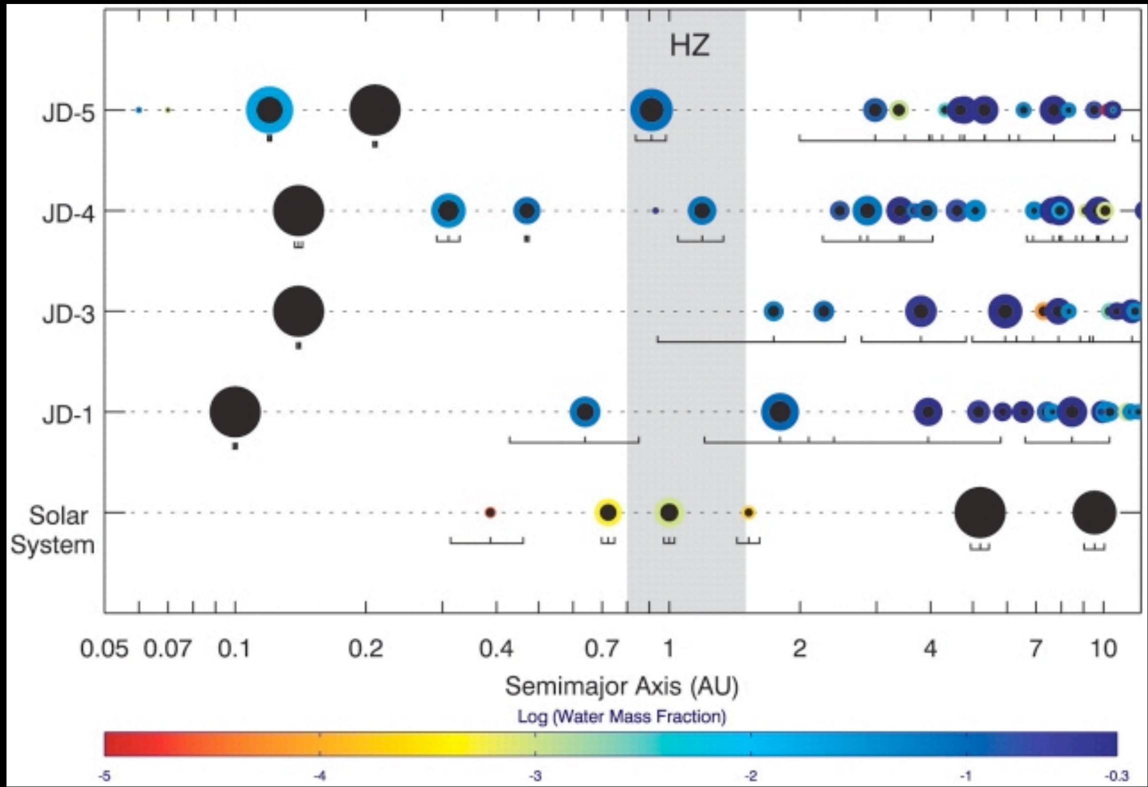
If giant planets migrate to very small orbits, does that destroy any terrestrial planets in the habitable zone?

Recent research suggests: not necessarily.

Whether small planets survive depends mostly on *how fast* the giant planet migrates, as well as how massive they are. Simulations using "reasonable guesses" for these result in ~⅓ of systems with a hot Jupiter having an Earth-like planet of at least $0.3M_{\oplus}$ in the habitable zone.

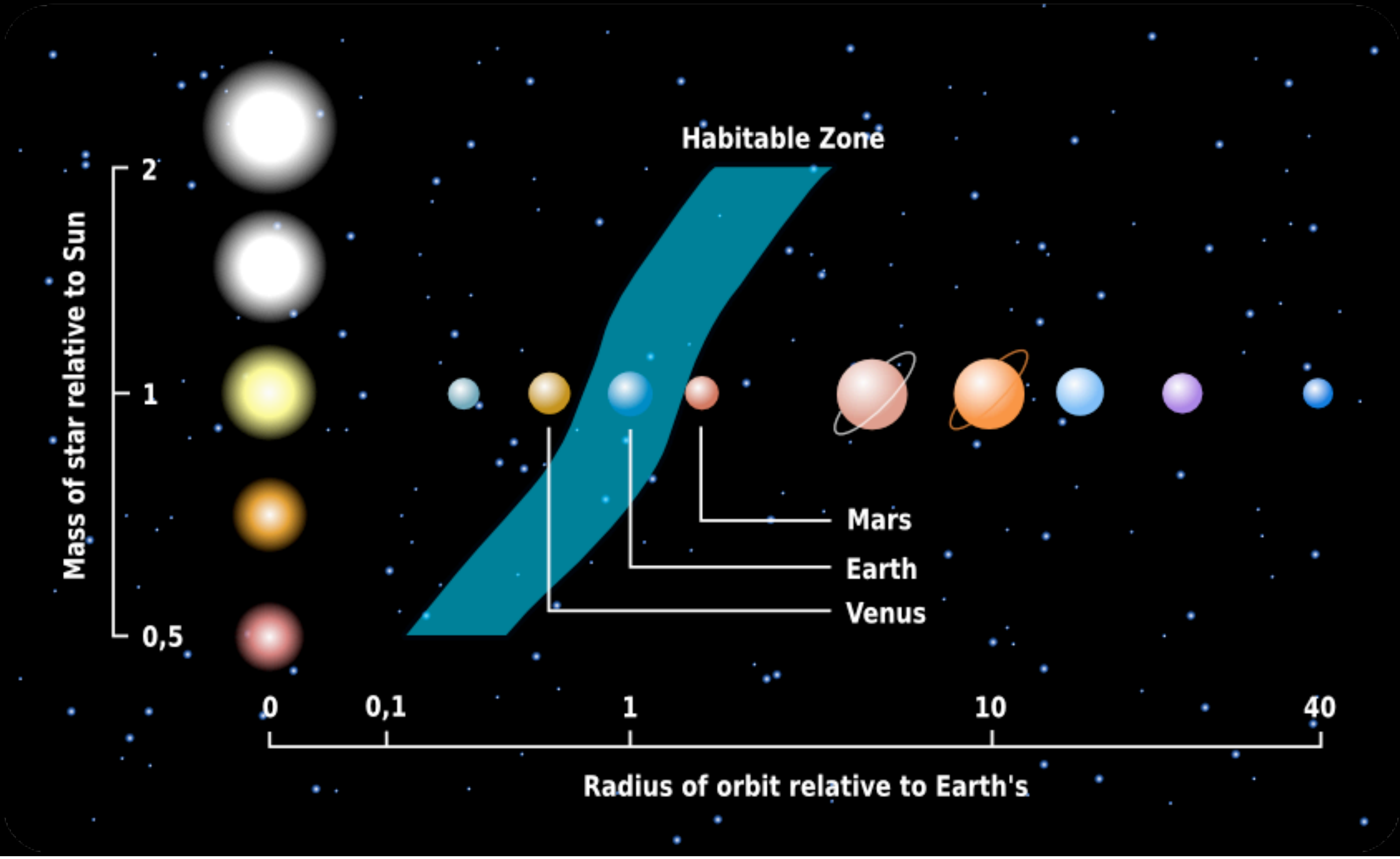


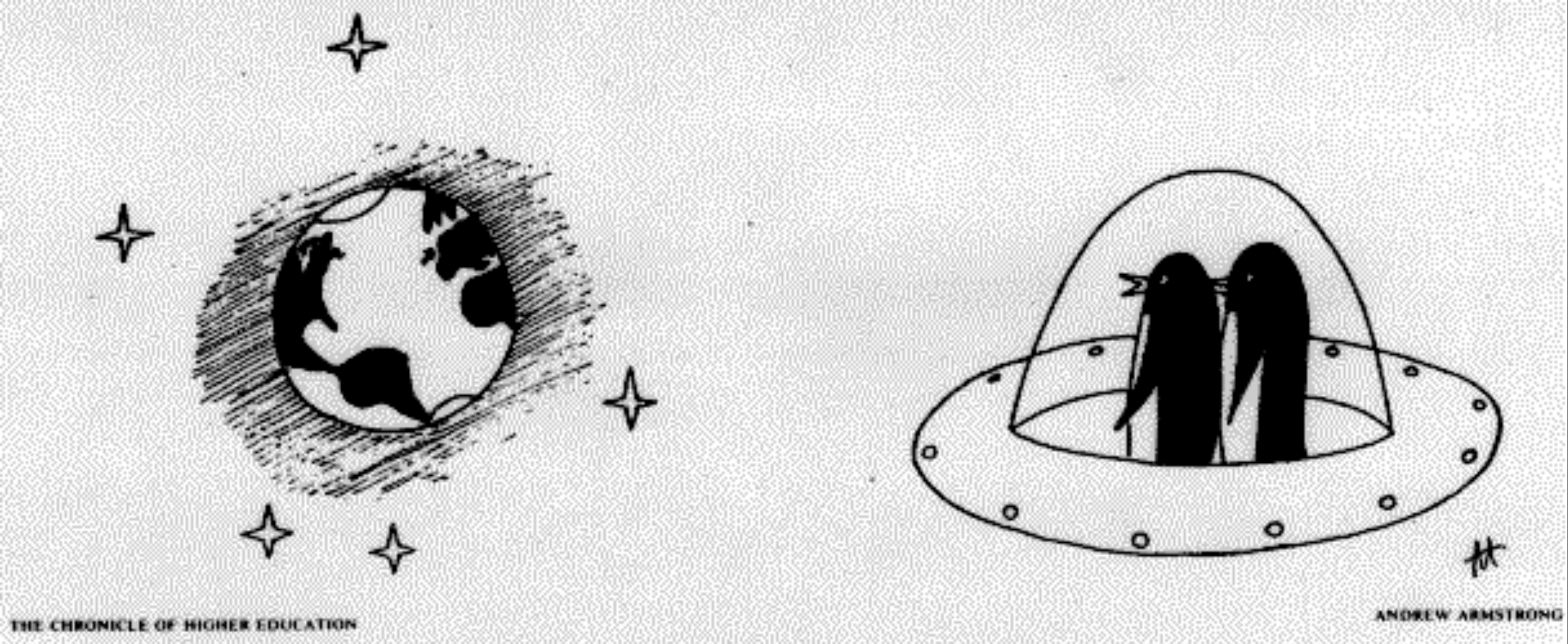
Snapshots in time of one simulation of a forming solar system with a migrating giant planet. The colour of each dot corresponds to its water content (Earth = 10^{-3}). If the gas giant has formed by the time Moon- to Mars-sized planetesimals have formed, and the giant planet migrates reasonably fast, then terrestrial planets can form outside the giant planet, even after the disk is stirred up by the migration. (From Raymond et al. 2006)



Final configurations of four different simulations, with the Solar System shown for scale. (From Raymond et al. 2006)

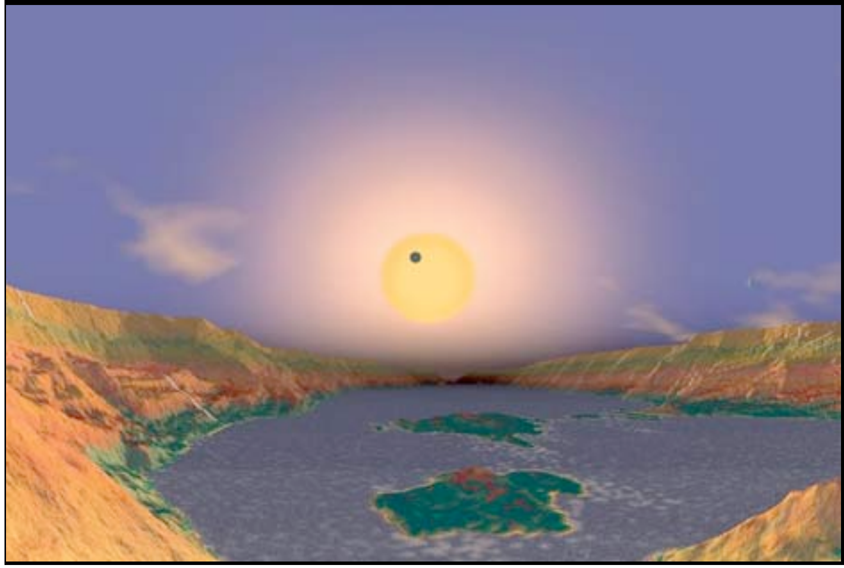
The Holy Grail has been to find a planet located in the *habitable zone*, where it should be possible for Earth-like conditions (particularly liquid water) to prevail.

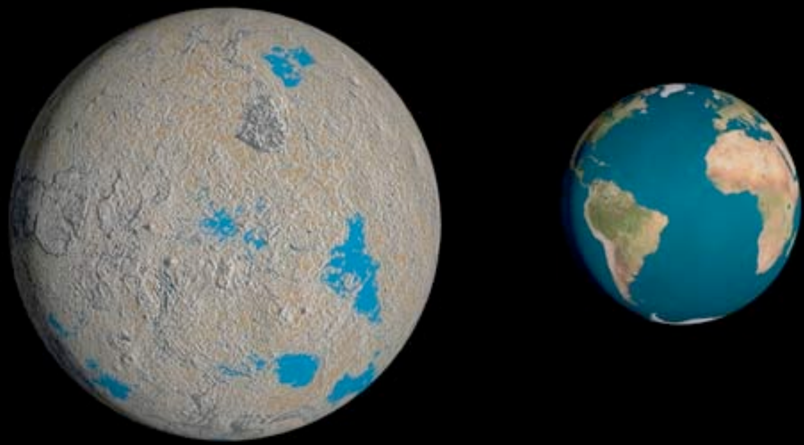




"I see only a little snow at the poles. Obviously, this planet can't support intelligent life."

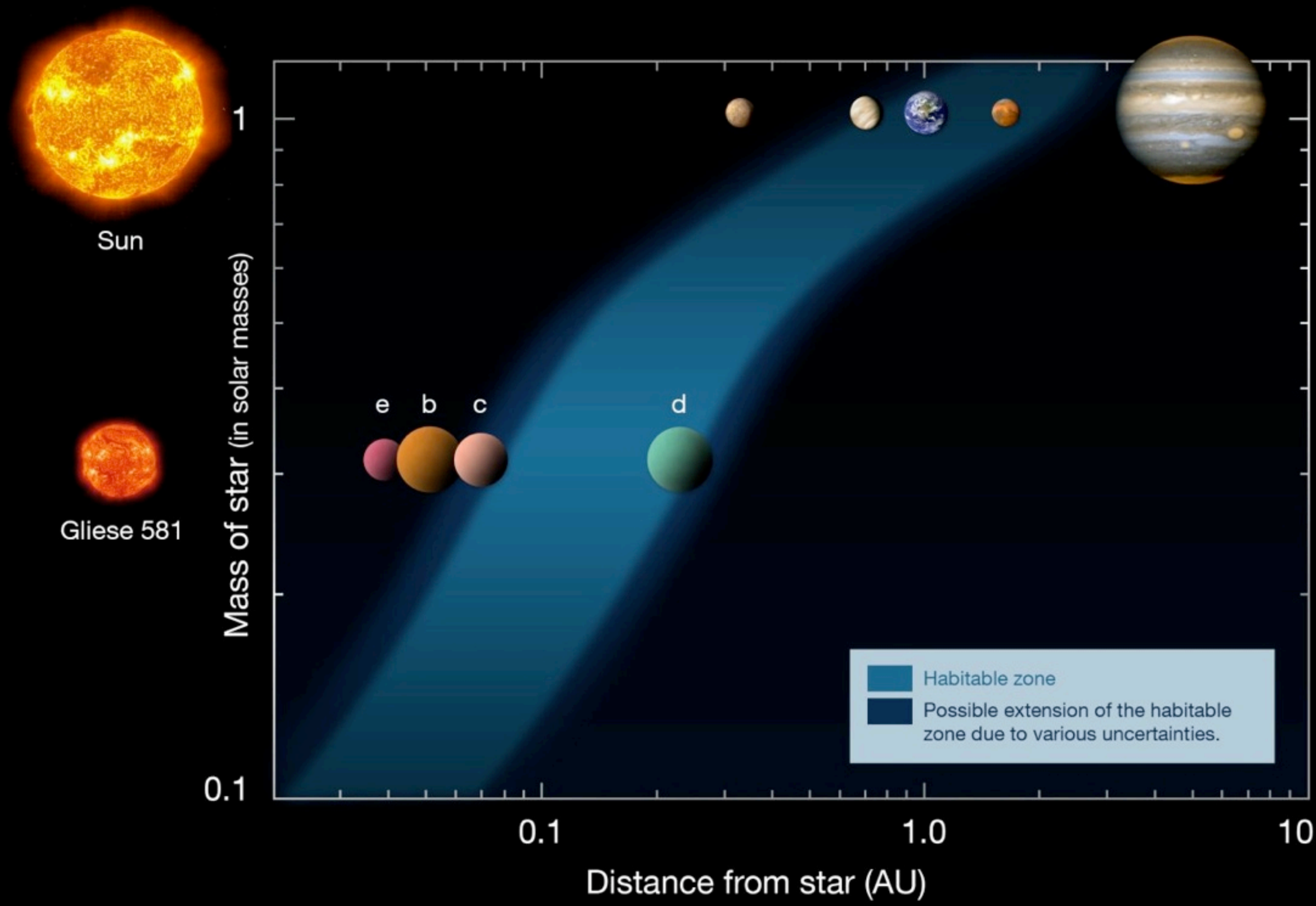
In 2007, a planet was found in the habitable zone of Gliese 581, an M dwarf about ⅓ the mass of the Sun. Radial velocity measurements showed that Gliese 581c is about 50% larger than Earth and has a mass about five times larger than Earth. The mean temperature of this super-Earth lies between 0 and 40 °C.



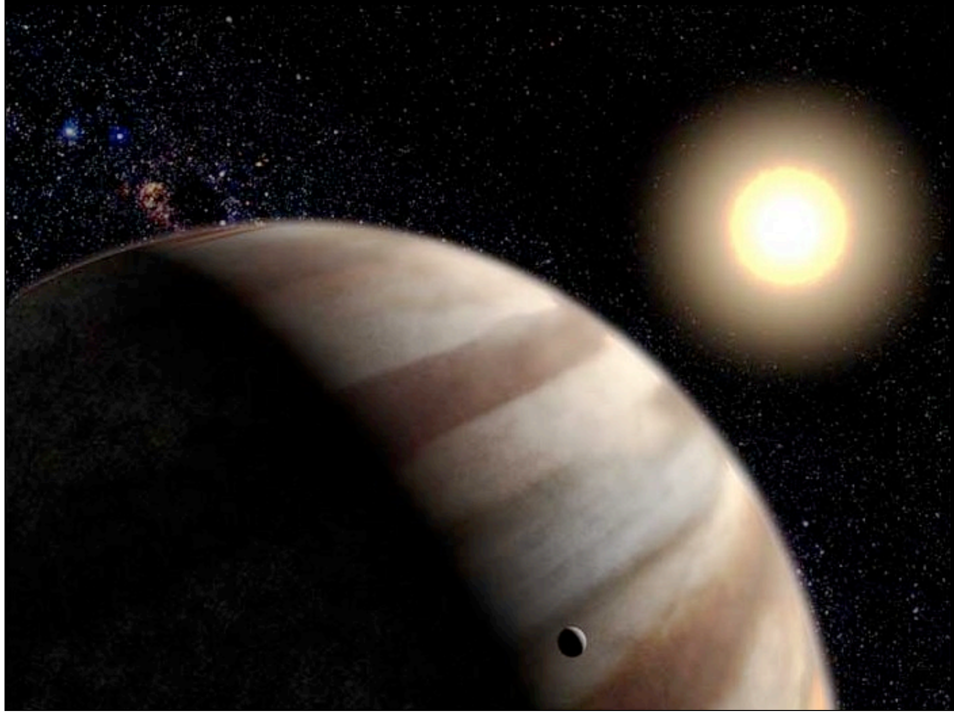


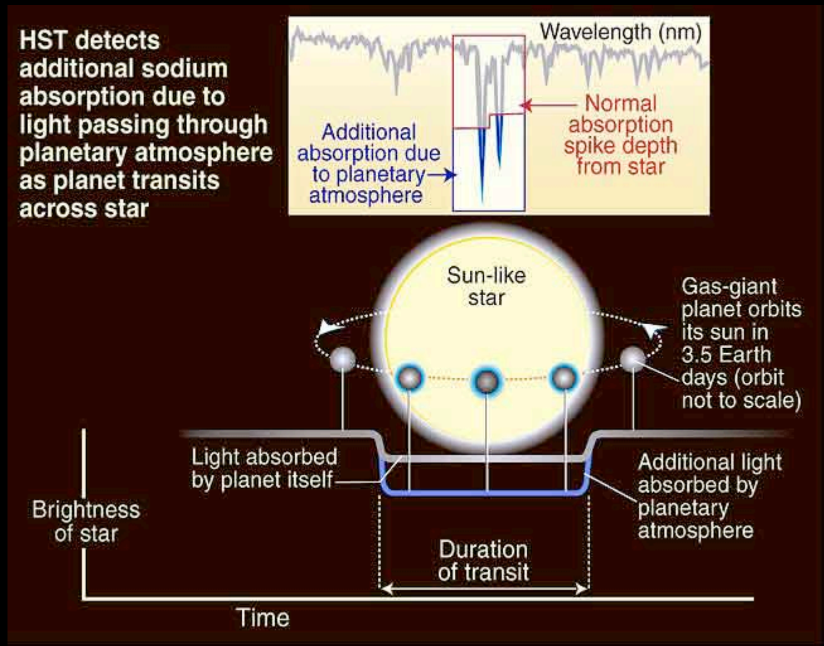
Artist's impression of the view from Gliese 581c. A second planet in the system, Gliese 581b, has an orbital period of 5.4 days. Gliese 581c's orbital period is only 13 Earth days.

The lowest mass planet yet discovered was found around Gliese 581 earlier this year: 1.9 Earth masses. With a period of only 3.15 days, it is not in the habitable zone, but both planets c and d, with masses 5 and 7 times that of Earth, are.

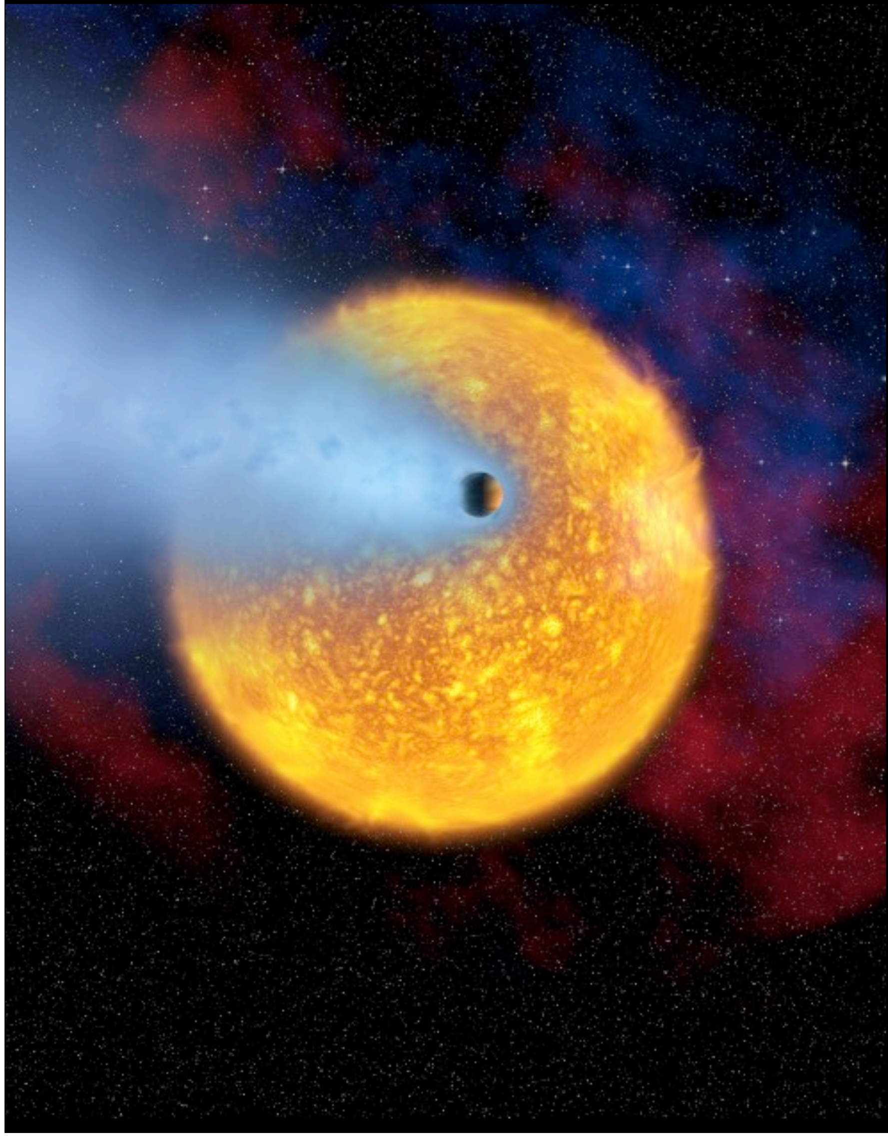


In 2001, Hubble detected an atmosphere around an extrasolar planet for the first time, detecting sodium in the atmosphere of a $0.7M_{Jup}$ mass planet orbiting HD 209458 in just 3.5 days.



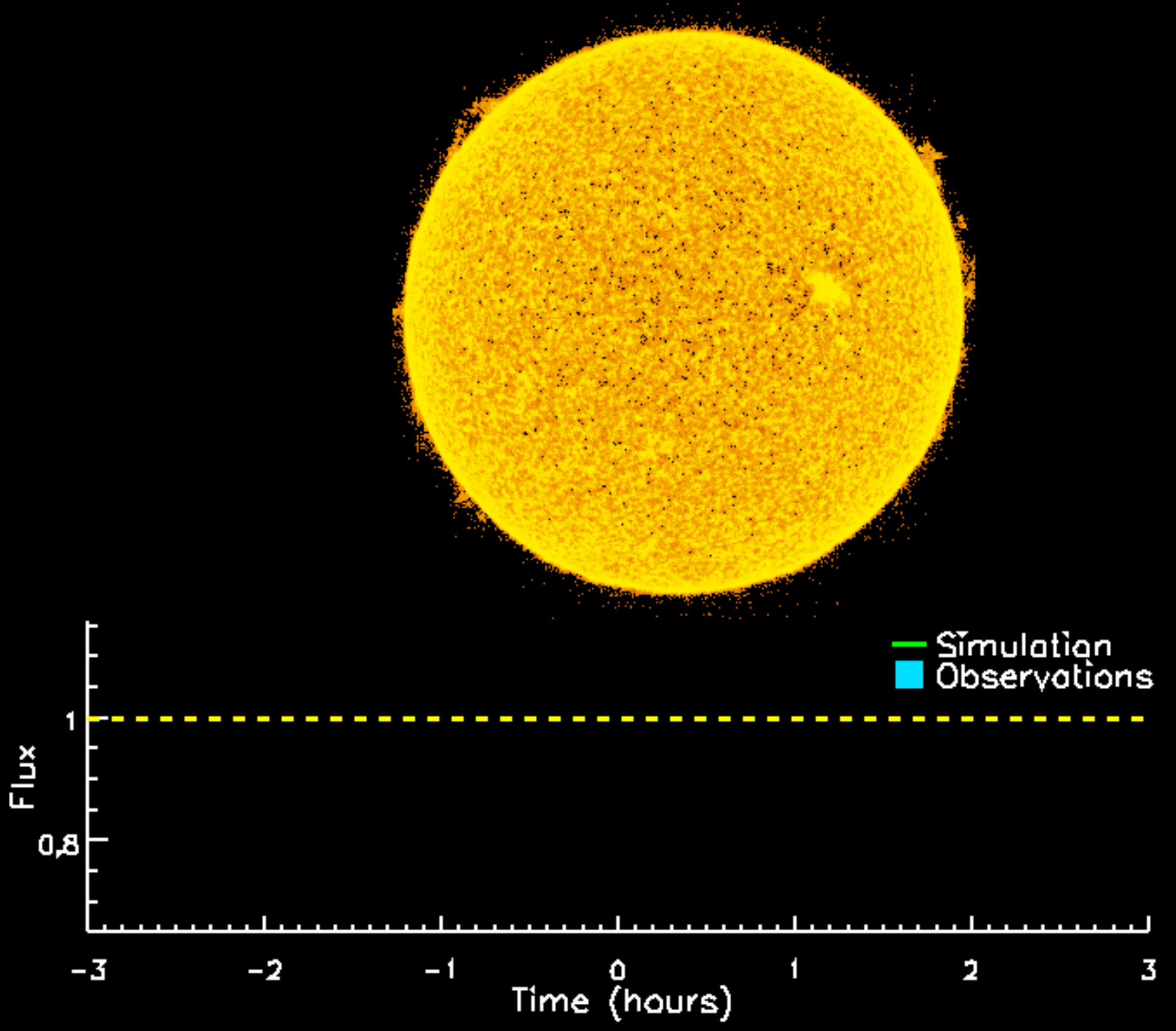


Other notable planets include:



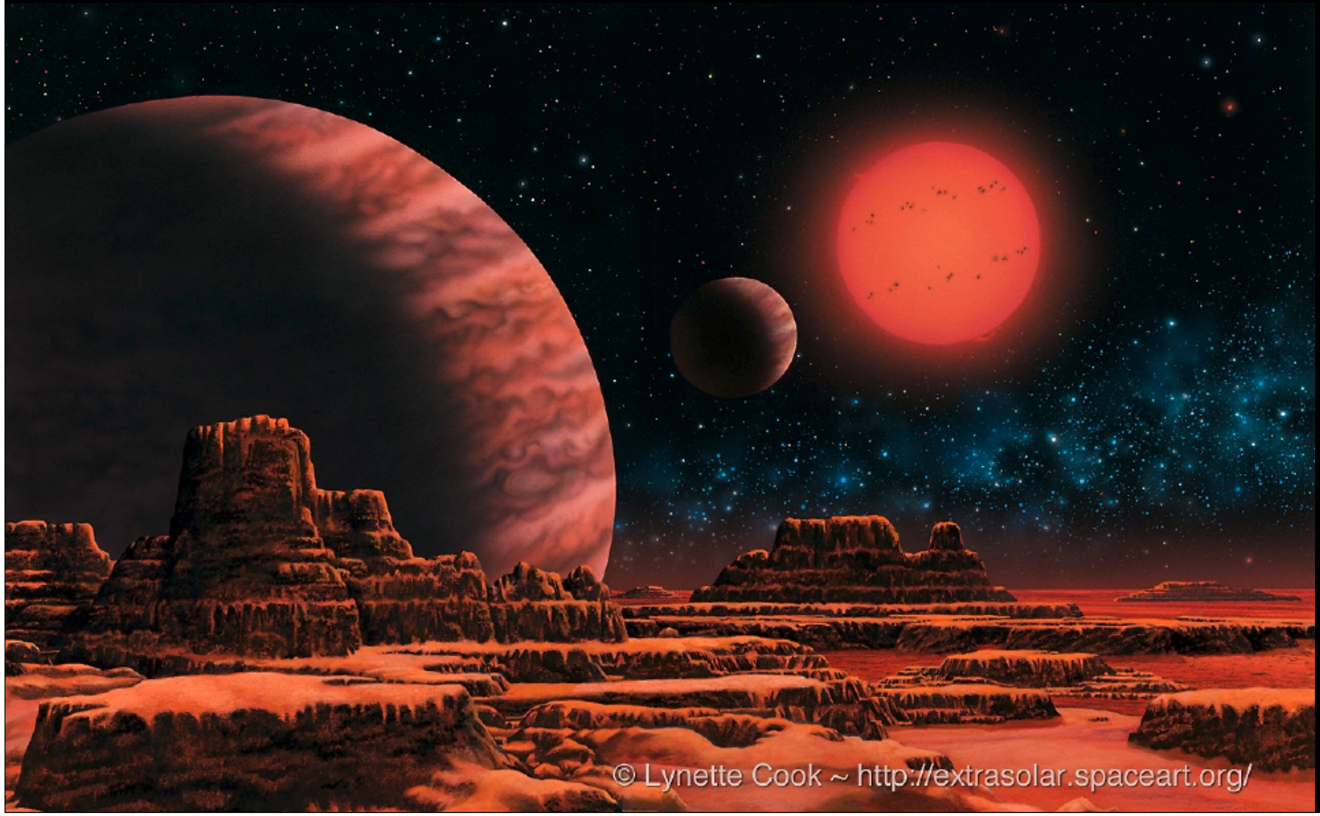
- HD 209458 b, the evaporating planet. Nicknamed "Osiris", HD 209458b is in a 3.5 day orbit around a star somewhat hotter than the Sun, at a distance of 0.045 AU. With a mass 69% of Jupiter's but a radius 32% larger, the density of the planet is only ⅓ that of water.

HST observed the transit of the planet across its star. These observations showed an enormous ellipsoidal envelope of hydrogen, carbon
and oxygen
evaporating off
the planet.

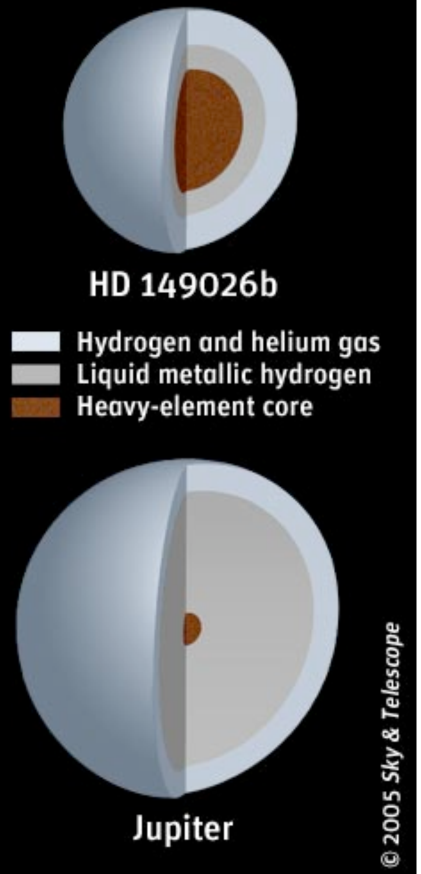


- SWEEPS-10, a star-hugging planet. This planet has the shortest orbital period yet found: it completes an orbit of its star in just 10 hours. The surface temperature must be about 2000 K.

- Gliese 876, an M-star with three planets, including one with a mass less than half that of Neptune (5.9 times the mass of Earth). The terrestrial planet is the innermost one; both the Jupiter-mass planets are located in the habitable zone, which leaves little room for an additional habitable terrestrial planet in the system. On the other hand, one or both may have moons which could support life.



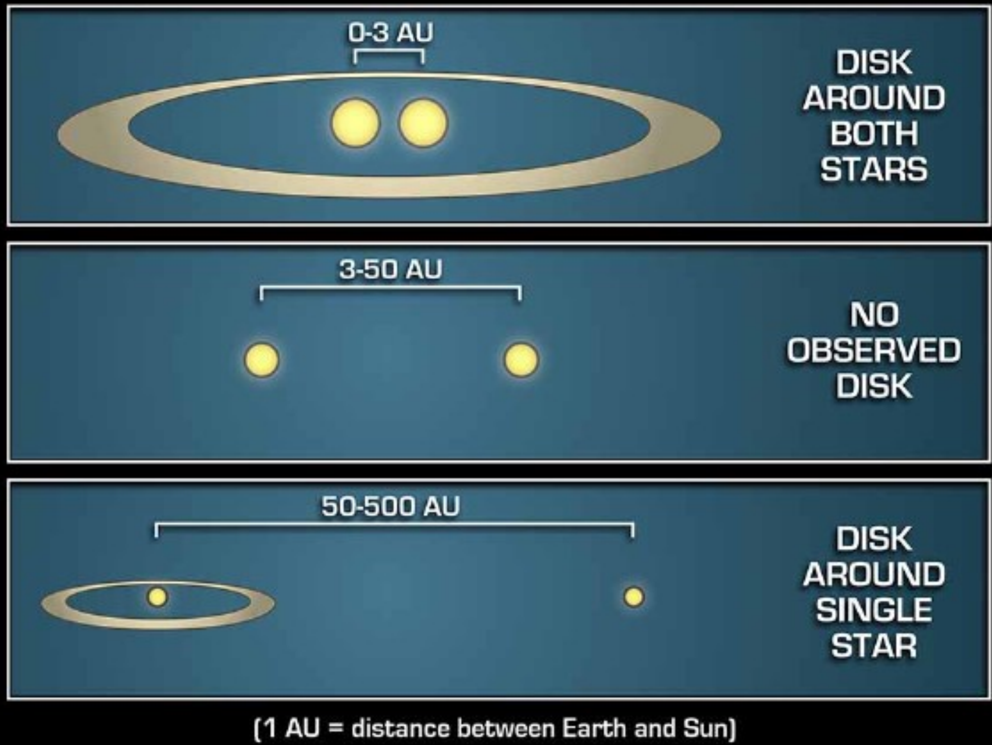
- HD 149026, a hot Jupiter with a core of heavy elements that may amount to 65 or 70 times the mass of Earth: more heavy elements than all the planets and asteroids in our solar system combined. Its mean density is about 1.7 g cc^{-3}, denser than Jupiter; its orbital period is only 2.88 days, with a surface temperature of 2300 K.



(above) Models of Jupiter's interior and the interior of HD 149026b are compared. (left) Artist's concept of HD 149026, the hottest planet yet observed in the universe – about 3 times hotter than Venus.

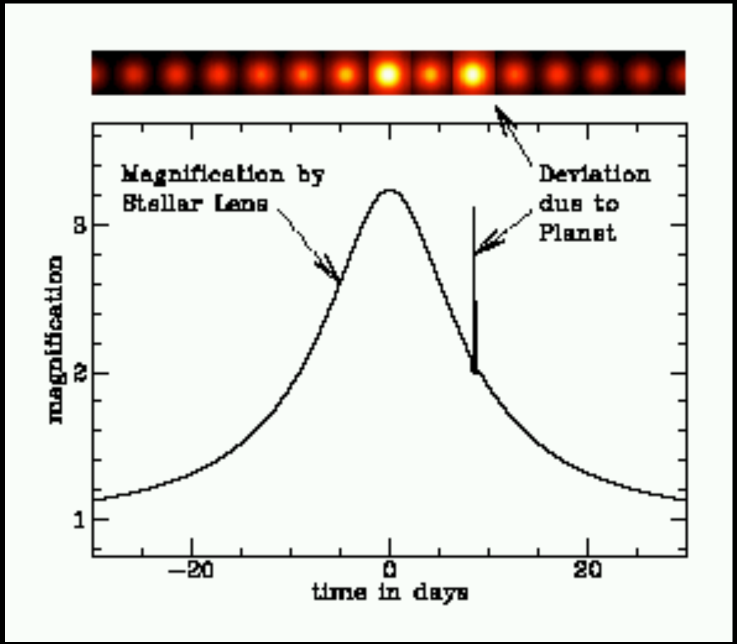
Binary systems: astronomers using the Spitzer telescope found dust disks are just as likely to be found around stars in binary systems as around single stars. Around 40% of binaries showed dust disks, including extremely tight binaries. Only binaries with intermediate separations, between 3 and 50 AU, showed fewer disks.

Where planets take up residence. If two stars are as far apart from each other as the sun is from Jupiter (5 AU) or Pluto (40 AU), they would be unlikely to host a family of planetary bodies.

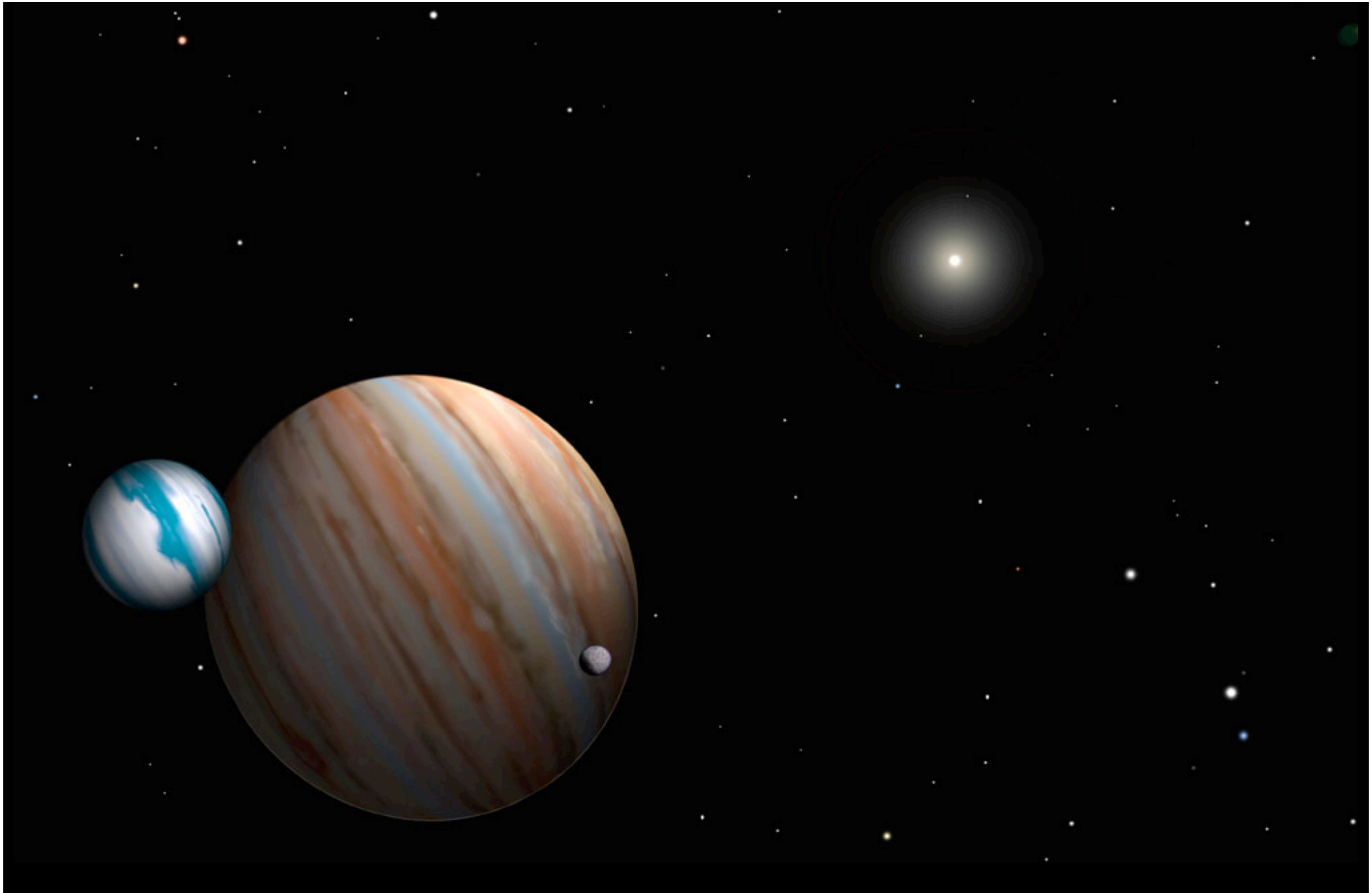


Planets have also been found using the technique known as *microlensing*: detecting a planet because it bends the light of a background star, making it increase in brightness in a predictable way. The technique has the advantage that it is sensitive to even quite small planets. Unfortunately, the events never repeat, so it is impossible to study individual systems.

However, microlensing can be used as a tool for studying the *statistical* properties of planetary systems.

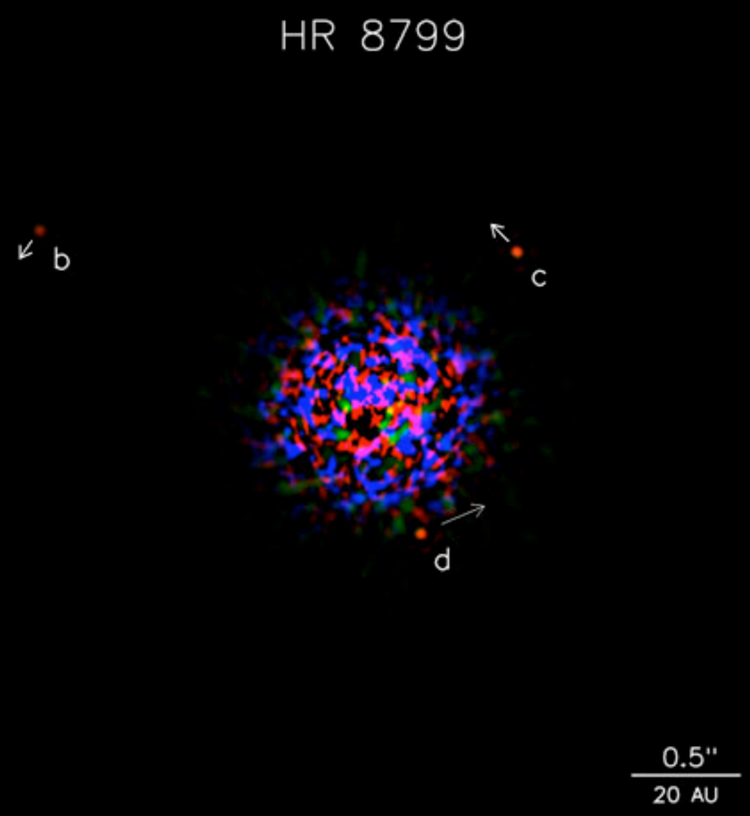


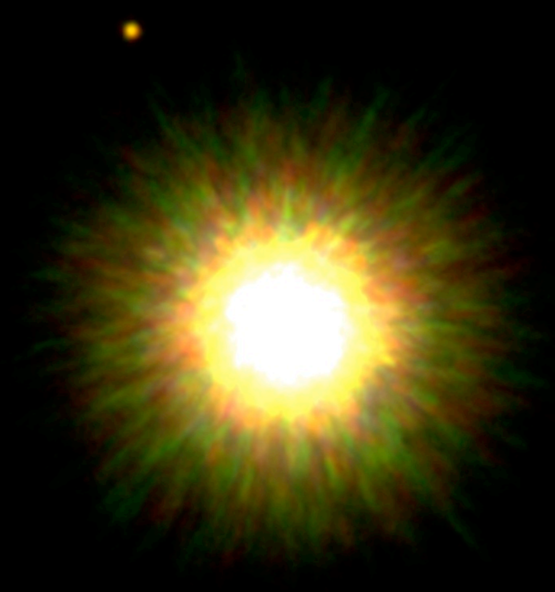
The light curve of a gravitationally lensed star orbited by a planet.



This artist's conception shows the second planet to be found using gravitational microlensing. It weighs about three times as much as Jupiter and orbits a sun-like star located approximately 15,000 light-years from the Earth. Credit: David A. Aguilar (CfA)

Last year, the first direct images of planets orbiting another star appeared.





Three planets around HR 8799; all are Jupiter mass, and the nearest is at a similar distance to Neptune

An 8 Jupiter mass companion to Fomalhaut, at a distance of 330 AU

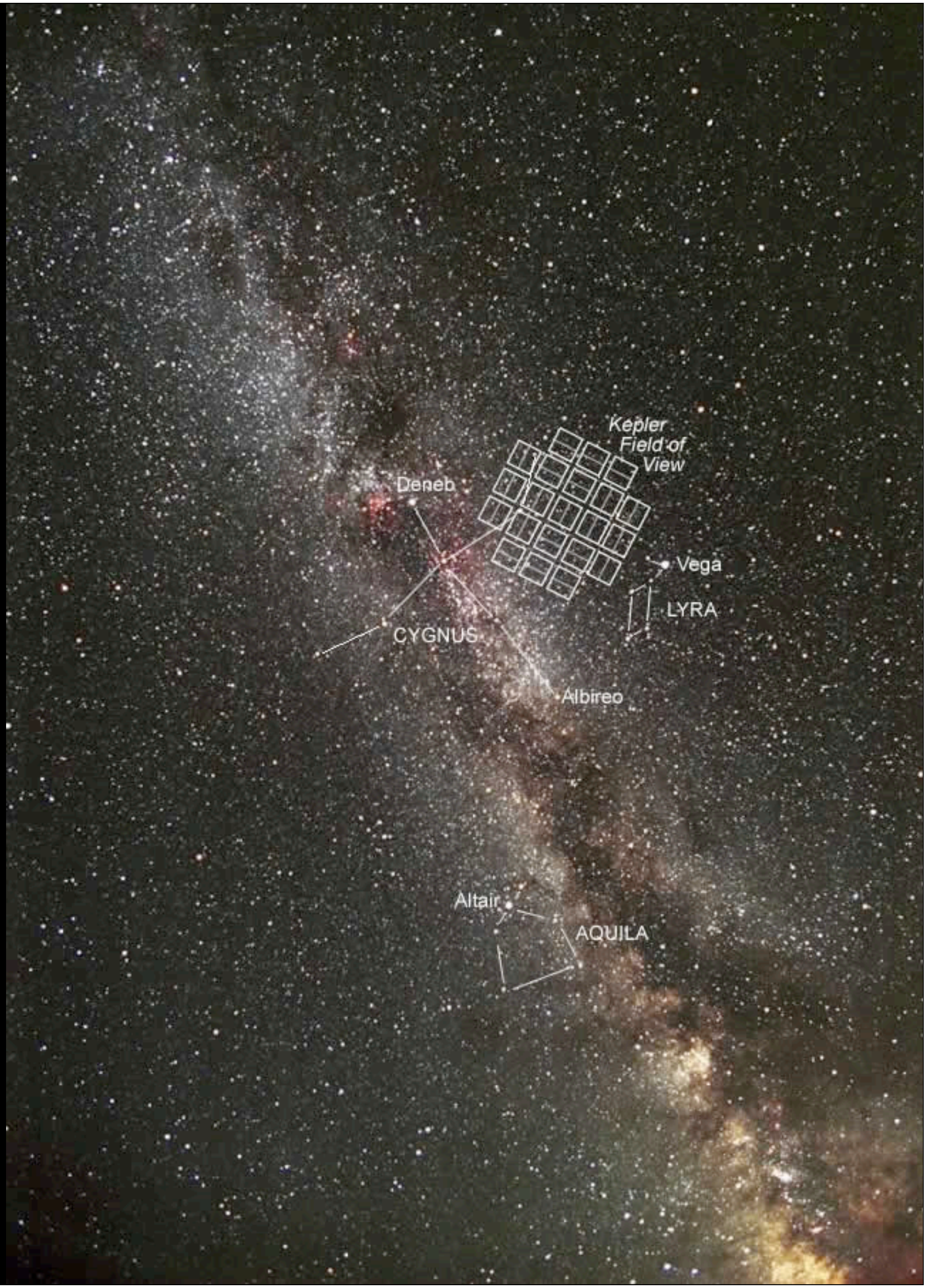
Our understanding of what this all means is still very much at an early stage. Some of the biggest questions which need to be answered:

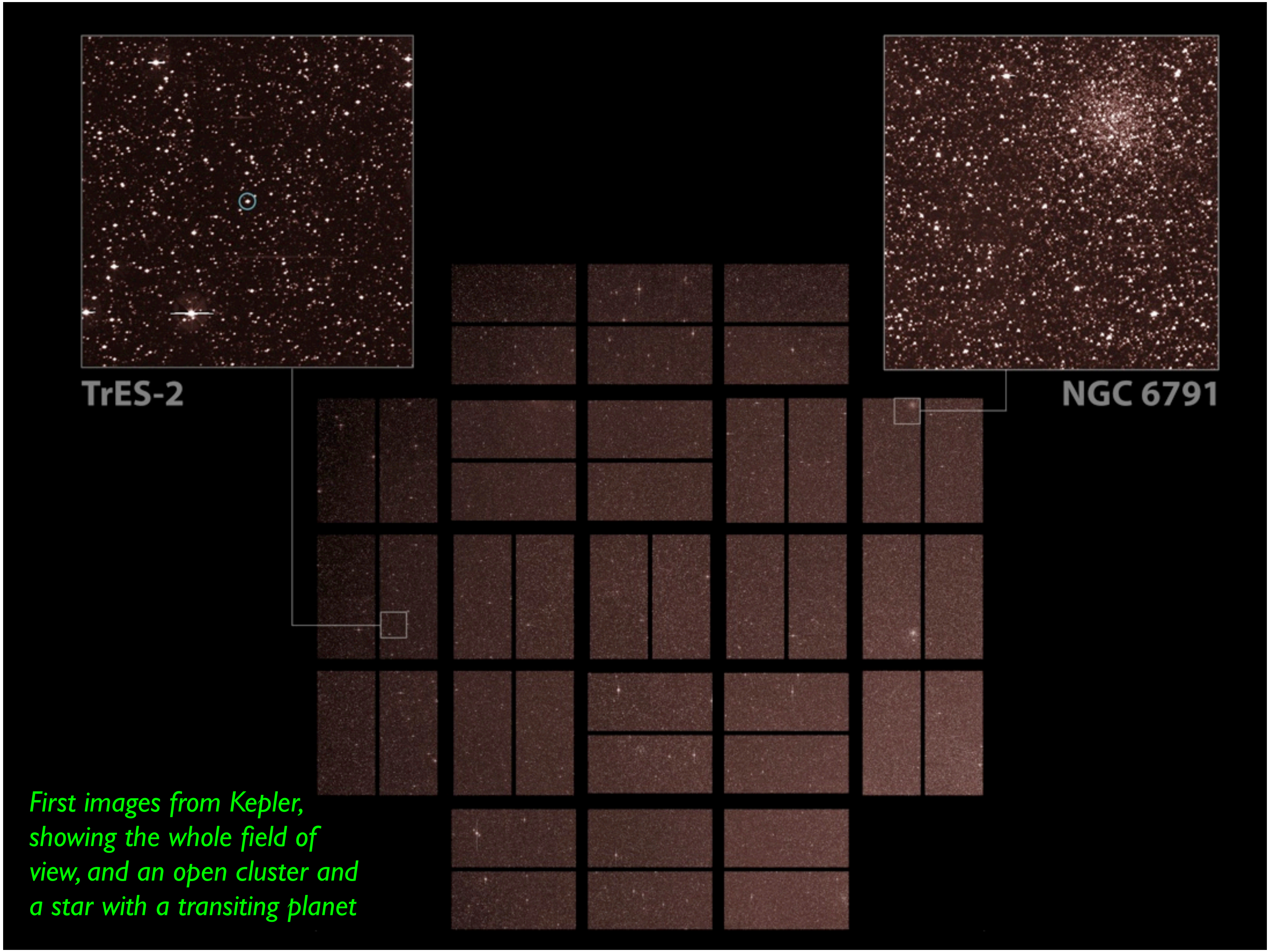
- *How do giant planets get eccentric orbits?*
- *How do hot Jupiters form, and what stops their migration?*
- *Why didn't Jupiter migrate?*
- *How common are systems like the Solar System?*

One thing is clear: *diversity* seems to be the rule. There are lots more surprises ahead of us...

The *Kepler* mission to find transiting planets was launched in March 2009. It will observe 100,000 stars in a single field in Cygnus, observing continuously (every 30 min) for 3.5 years.

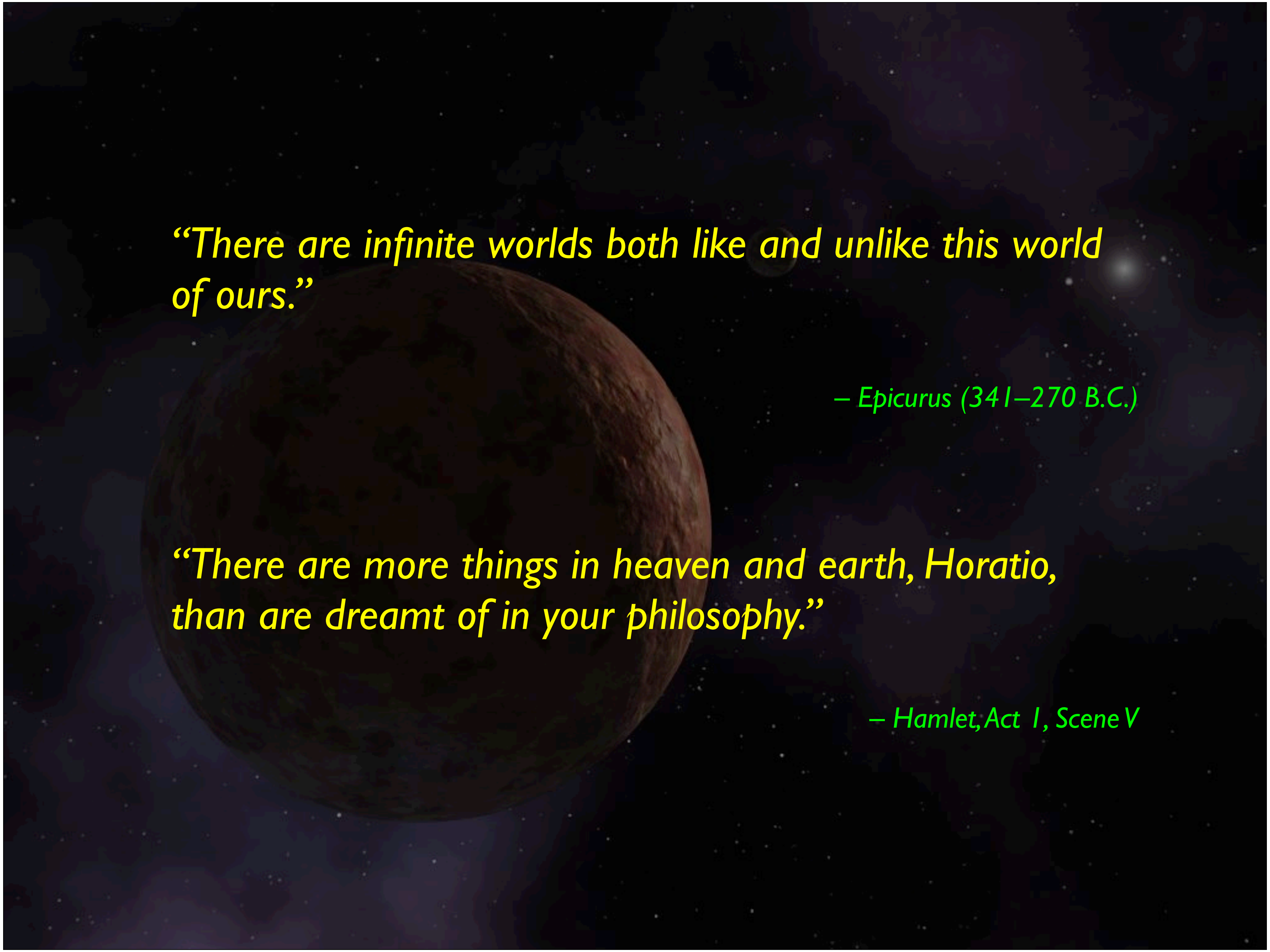
To detect the transit of an Earth-like planet, it needs to detect brightness changes of 80 ppm. It should reach 20 ppm.

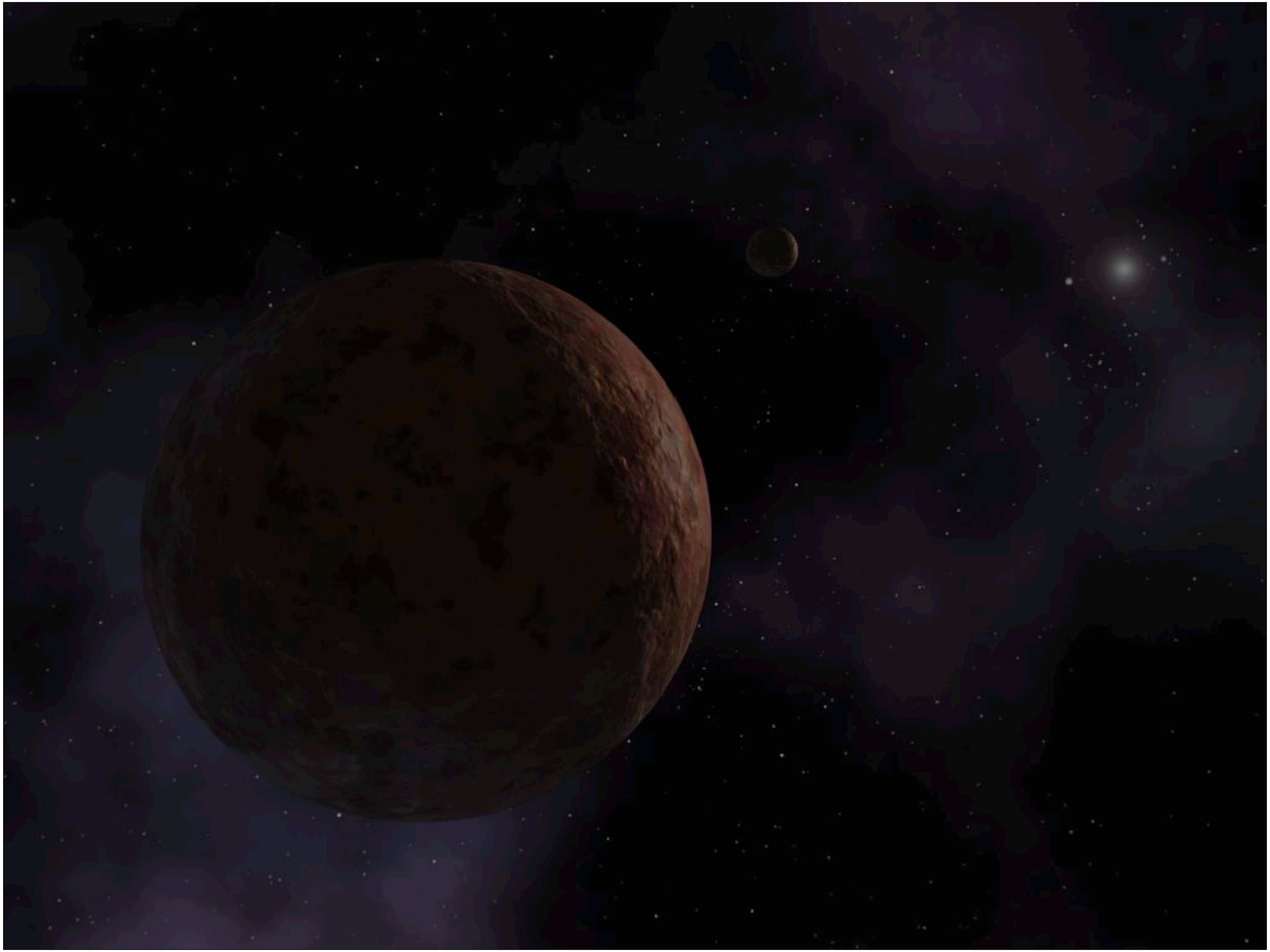




First images from Kepler, showing the whole field of view, and an open cluster and a star with a transiting planet

[redacted]


"There are infinite worlds both like and unlike this world of ours."
– Epicurus (341–270 B.C.)
"There are more things in heaven and earth, Horatio, than are dreamt of in your philosophy."
– Hamlet, Act 1, Scene V



Upcoming dates

- 2009 June: The *Lunar Reconnaisance Orbiter* is due to launch, for a year-long orbiting mission to give us Mars-quality images of the Moon
- 2009 August: Saturn equinox
- 2009 Sep 29: Third *MESSENGER* flyby of Mercury
- 2010 March: *MESSENGER* enters orbit around Mercury
- 2010 August: *Dawn* arrives in orbit around Vesta
- July 2015: *New Horizons* arrives at Pluto

Future astronomy courses

- Spring 2009: *starts Wednesday 12 September*

  Stars and Galaxies

  (with Geraint Lewis)

  A general introduction to the most important concepts in astronomy

- Autumn 2010:

  Lives of the Stars

  A more detailed look at how stars live and die; follows on from Stars and Galaxies

- Spring 2010:

  Seminar course

  Guest speakers talk about their research

Further reading

Quite a few books have been written in recent years about the discovery of planets outside our solar system, but unfortunately most of them seem to have been written immediately after the first few were found in 1996, so are now seriously out of date, less than a decade later!

- One of the ones I read was **"Looking for Earths: The race to find new solar systems"** by Alan Boss (John Wiley, 1998). He has a good description of the early years, and the many failures and retractions of planets before eventual success. The last part of the book spends far too long on NASA acronyms of projects that don't exist yet, and the tentative suggestions about distinguishing between planets and brown dwarfs are now very out of date. He's got a new book out, called **"The Crowded Universe: The search for living planets"** (Basic Books, 2009), but it's all too much about Alan Boss and not enough about exoplanets, for my taste.
- Michel Mayor, co-discoverer of the first planet, has a book called **"New Worlds in the Cosmos: The discovery of exoplanets"** by Michel Mayor and Pierre-Yves Frei, transl. Boud Roukema (Cambridge UP, 2003). It's more up-to-date, and has a good description of what people are now thinking about how to make these planets. Doubtless it too will look very dated in a few short years!

- Web-sites can at least stay up-to-date, even if they're less readable. A couple of good ones:
  - The most complete list is at **"The Extrasolar Planets Encyclopaedia"** http://exoplanet.eu/, but it's just a giant list of planets, with not much by way of readable information.
  - NASA now has a site called "**PlanetQuest: Exoplanet exploration"** at http://planetquest.jpl.nasa.gov/, which has a host of useful information, including a page to search the catalogue of exoplanets in various ways
  - The California and Carnegie Planet Search, http://exoplanets.org/ has lots of useful things, but doesn't appear to have been updated very recently
  - space.com has a list of their **"Top 10 Most Intriguing Extrasolar Planets"** at http://www.space.com/scienceastronomy/extrasolar_planets.html
- The cover story of the first issue of *Australian Sky and Telescope* was all about planet resonances: **"Planetary Harmony"** by Robert Naeye, AS&T January 2005

Sources for images used:

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