

Extrasolar Planets

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Lecture
Introduction to
Solar System Physics
Uni Göttingen, 8 June 2009

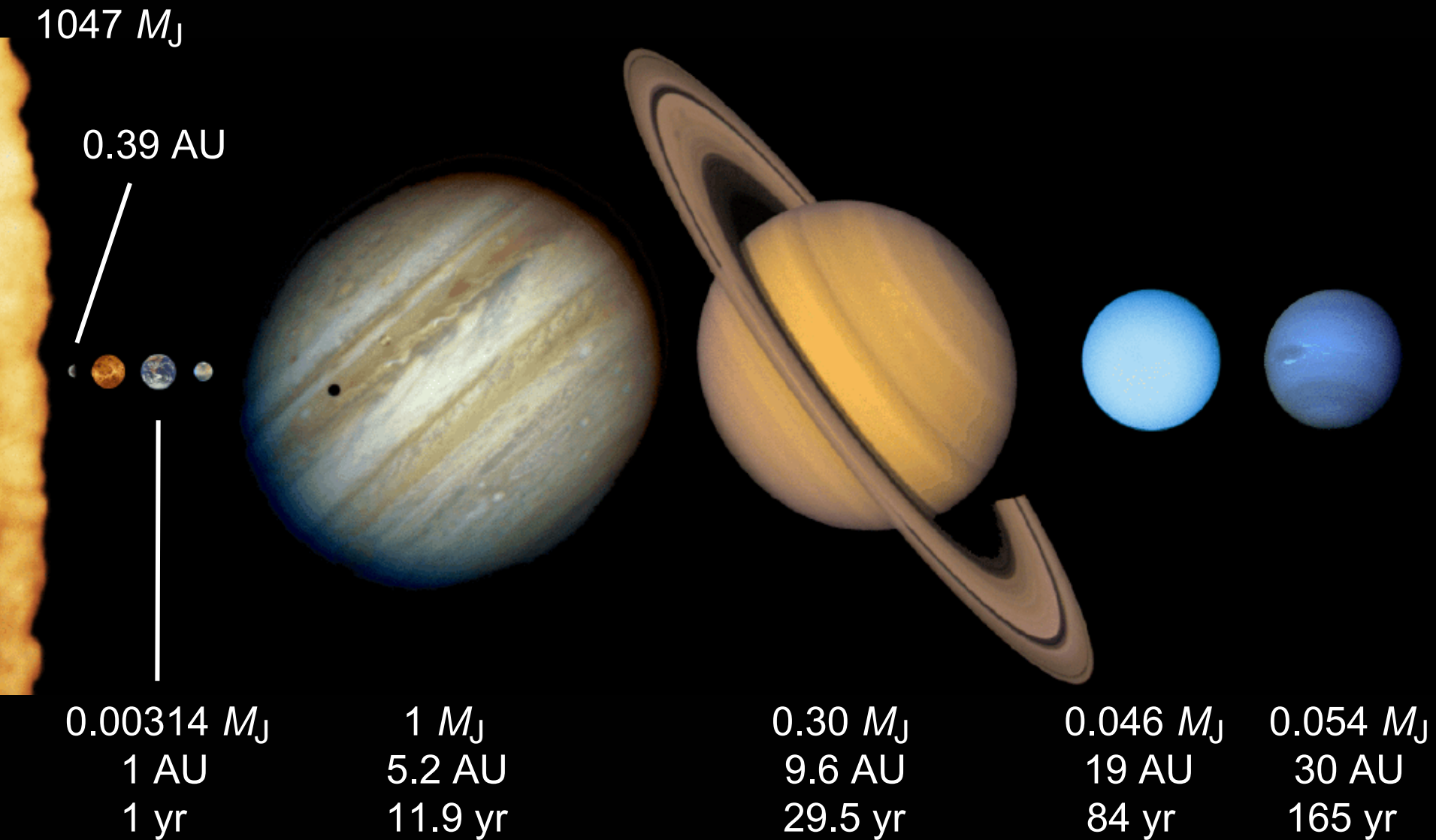
Outline

- Historical Overview
- Detection Methods
- Planet Statistics
- Formation of Planets
- Physical Properties
- Habitability

Historical overview

- 1989: planet / brown dwarf orbiting HD 114762 (Latham et al.)
- 1992: two planets orbiting pulsar PSR B1257+12 (Wolszczan & Frail)
- 1995: first planet around a solar-like star 51 Peg b (Mayor & Queloz)
- 1999: first multiple planetary system with three planets Ups And (Edgar et al.)
- 2000: first planet by transit method HD 209458 b (Charbonneau et al.)
- 2001: atmosphere of HD 209458 b (Charbonneau et al.)
- 2002: astrometry applied to Gliese 876 (Benedict et al.)
- 2005: first planet by direct imaging GQ Lupi b (Neuhäuser et al.)
- 2006: Earth-like planet by gravitational microlensing (Beaulieu et al.)
- 2007: Gliese 581d, small exoplanet near habitability zone (Selsis et al.)
- 2009: Gliese 581e, smallest exoplanet with 1.9 Earth masses (Mayor et al.)
- As of 7 June 2009: 349 exoplanets in 296 systems
(25 systems with 2 planets, 9 with 3, 2 with 4 and 1 with 5)

Our Solar System



Definition Planet

IAU 2006:

- in orbit around the Sun / star
- nearly spherical shape / sufficient mass for hydrostatic equilib.
- cleared neighbourhood around its orbit

Pluto: dwarf planet, as Ceres

Brown dwarf:

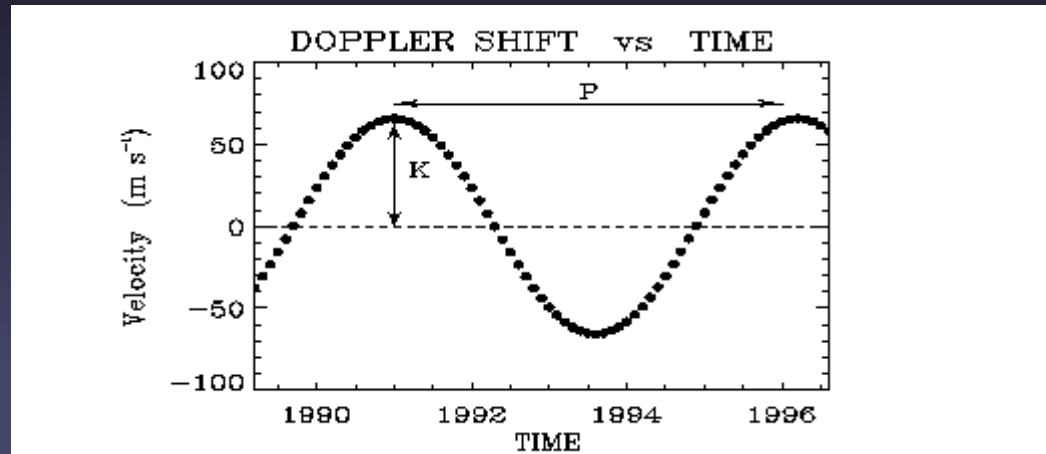
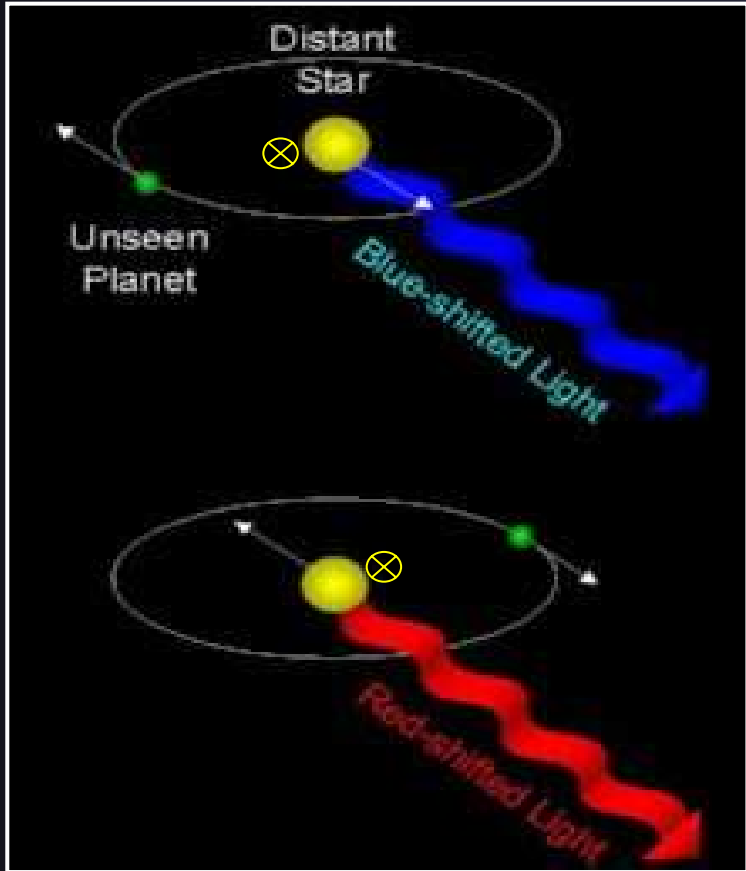
- masses between $14 M_J$ and $80 M_J$ ($= 0.08 M_{\odot}$)
- fully convective, no hydrogen fusion, but deuterium fusion
- $M < 14 M_J$: planet, $M > 80 M_J$: star (red dwarf)

How can we detect extrasolar planets around main sequence stars?

The main detection methods:

- Radial velocity method
- Astrometry
- Transit method
- Gravitational microlensing
- Direct imaging

Radial velocity method

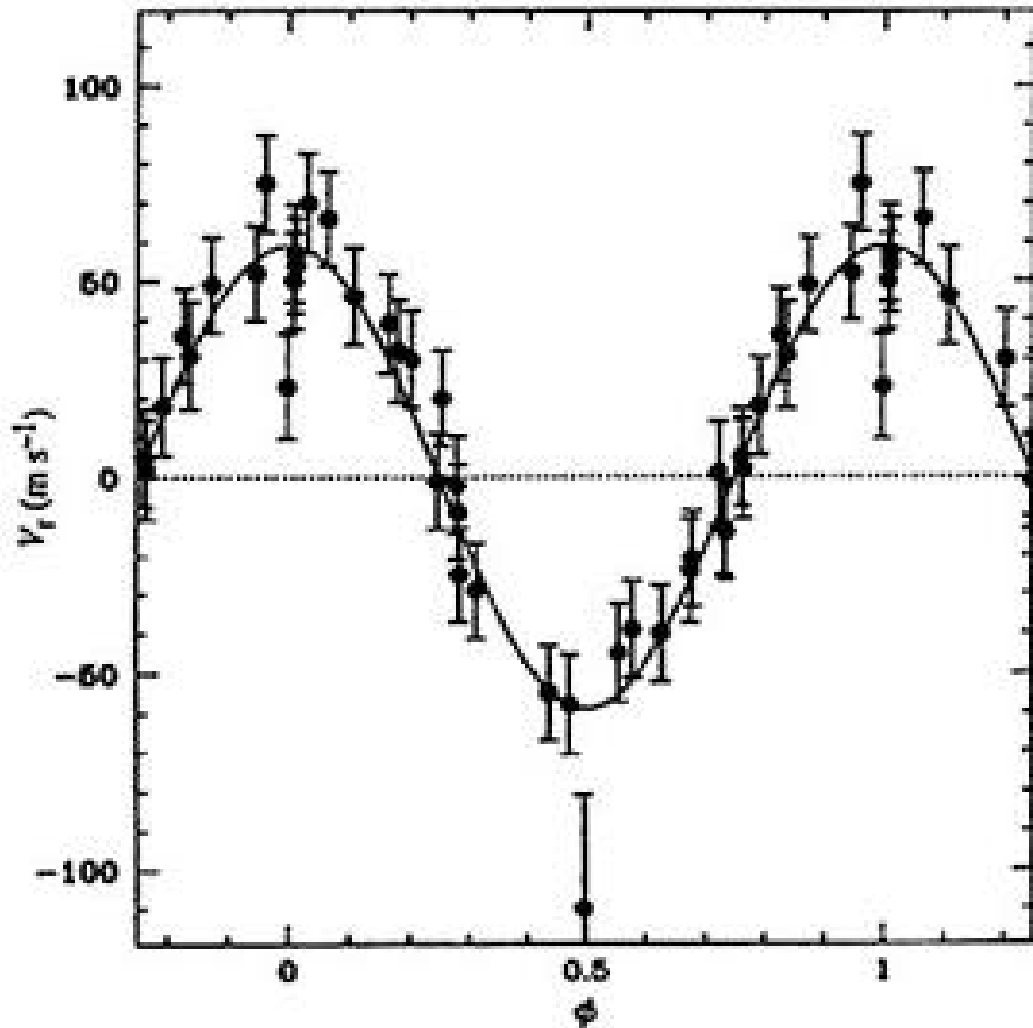


$$\Delta\lambda / \lambda = v_r / c = v_S \sin i / c$$

$$\frac{a_p^3}{P^2} = \frac{GM_S}{4\pi^2} \quad \begin{array}{l} M_p \ll M_S \\ a_p \gg a_S \end{array}$$

$$a_S M_S = a_p M_p \quad a_S = \frac{P v_S}{2\pi} \quad M_p \sin i = v_r \left(\frac{M_S^2 P}{2\pi G} \right)^{1/3}$$

51 Peg b



detected 1995 by
Mayor & Queloz and
Marcy & Butler

51 Peg:

G2IV, $V = 5.5$, 15 pc

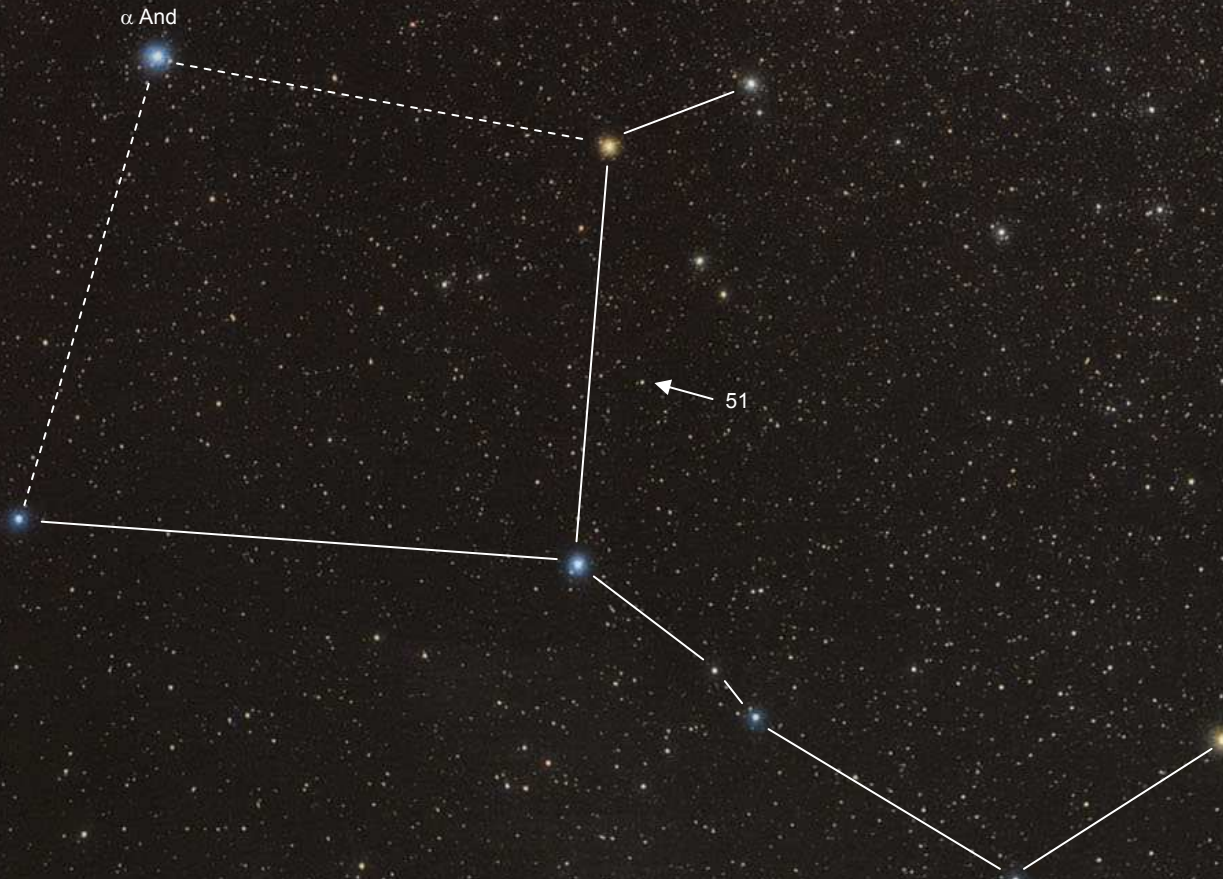
51 Peg b:

$P = 4.23$ d

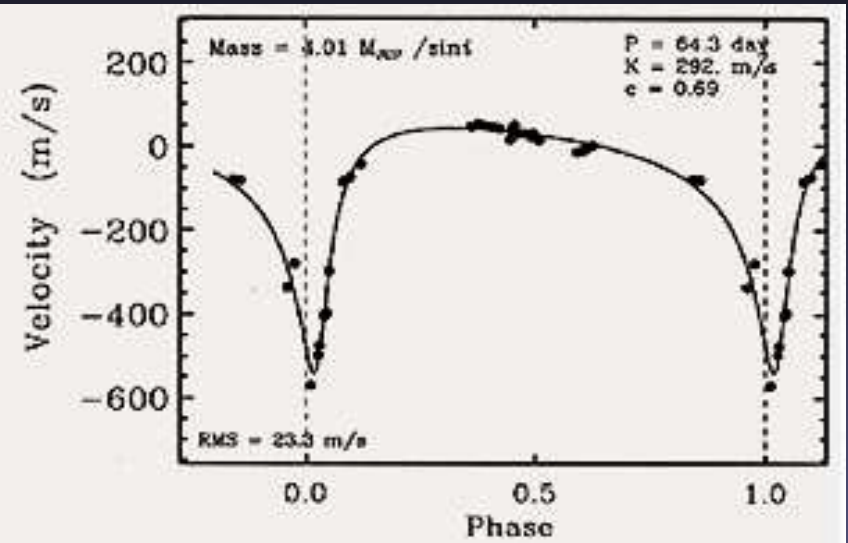
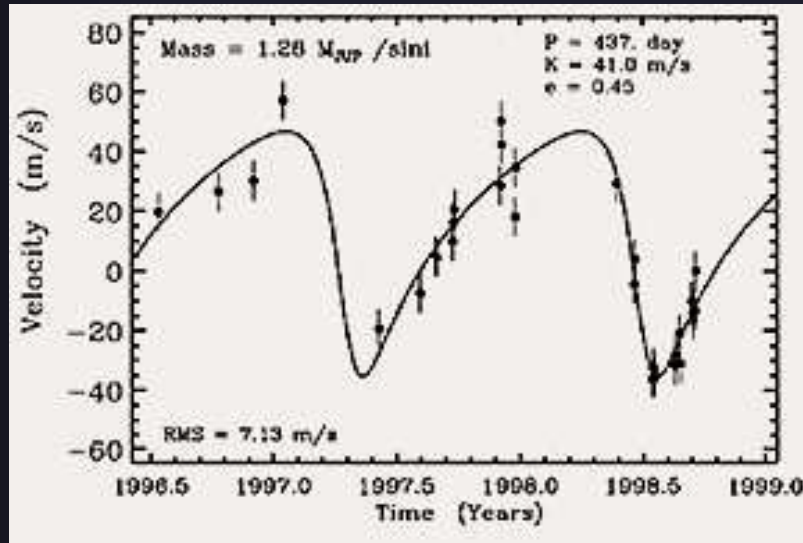
$a = 0.05$ AU

$M \sin i = 0.47 M_J$

Pegasus



Third parameter: eccentricity



Detection limit:

51 Peg b: $v_r \sim 50$ m/s

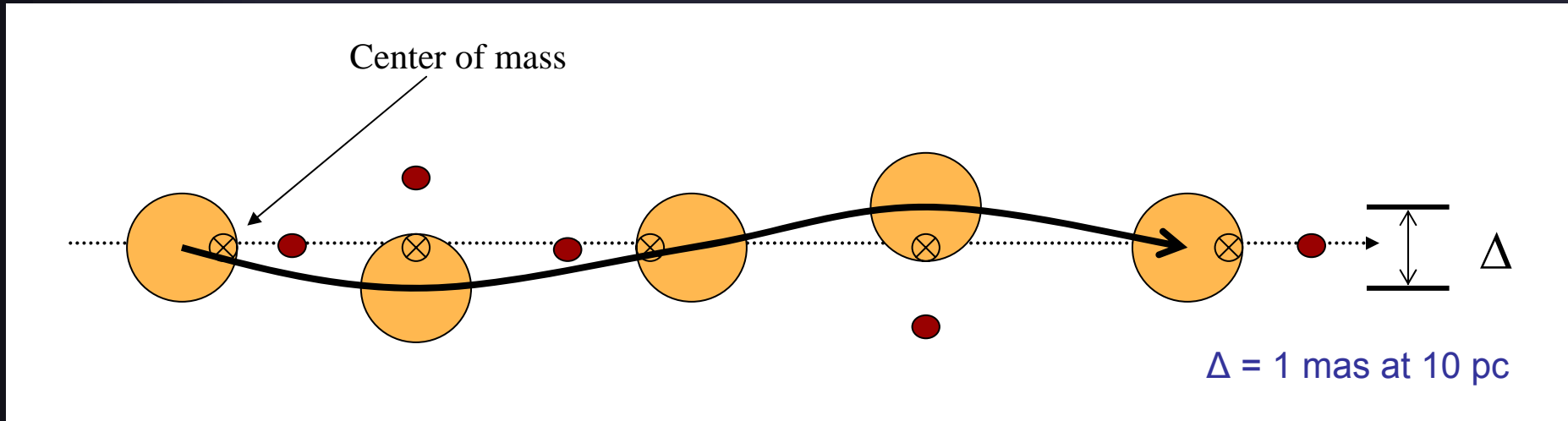
today: $\lambda/\Delta\lambda \sim 10^8 \longrightarrow v_r \sim 3$ m/s

theoretical: $v_r \sim 1$ m/s (effect of star spots)

in comparison: Jupiter around Sun: 12.5 m/s

Earth 0.05 m/s

Astrometry

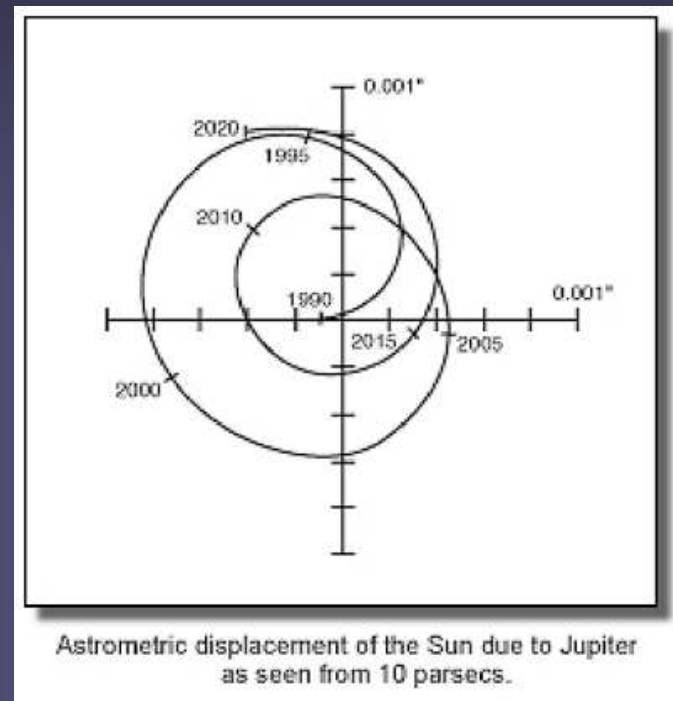
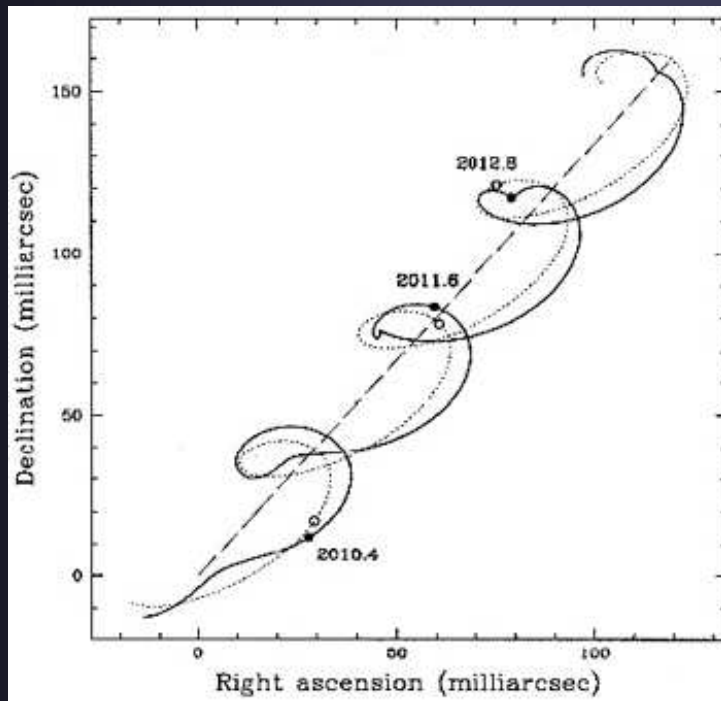


Measurement of the spatial wobble of the star around the center of mass

- $\Delta = (M_P/M_S)(a_P/d)$: near stars, large orbital distances
- current resolution: 1-2 mas (from ground), 0.1 mas (HST)
- **example: Gliese 876 b (Benedict et al. 2002)**
- in future: Gaia (ESA Mission)

Simulations:

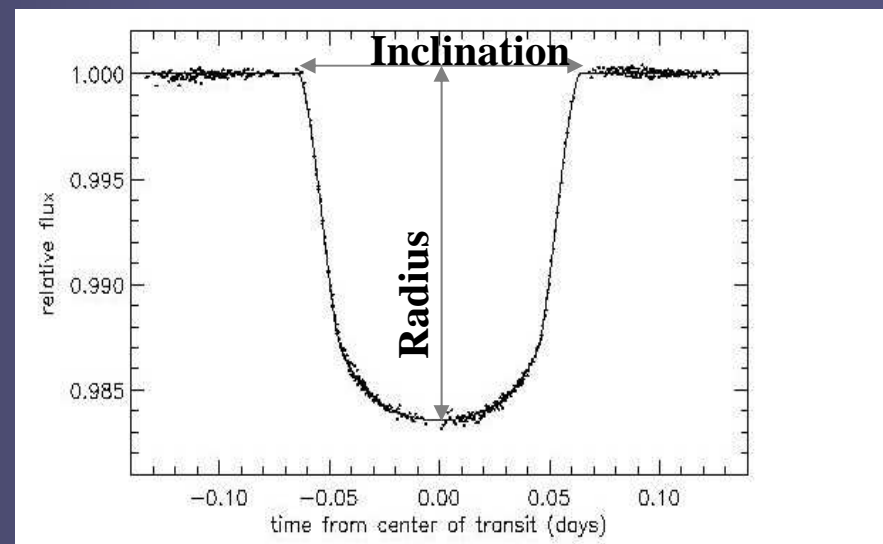
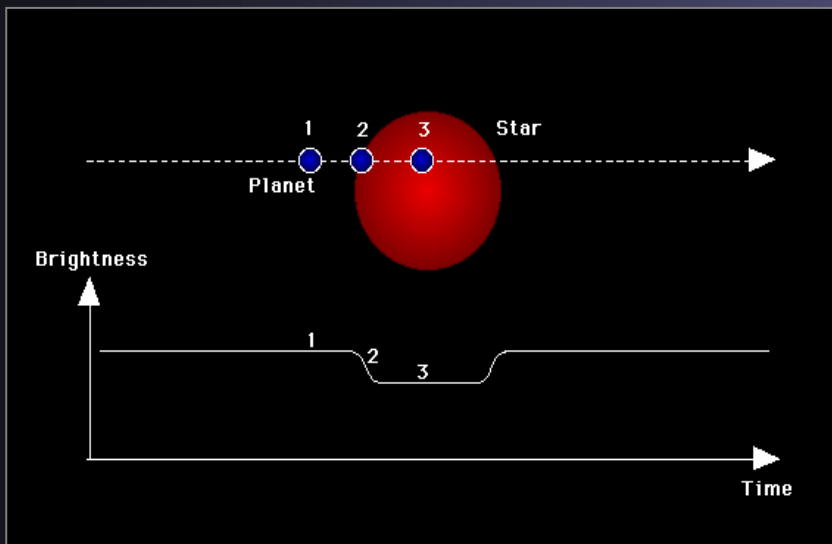
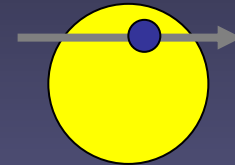
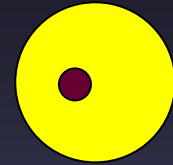
- star in 50 pc, planet with $15 M_J$, $a = 0.06$ AU, $e = 0.2$, proper motion of 50 mas/yr
- motion of Sun in 10 pc distance



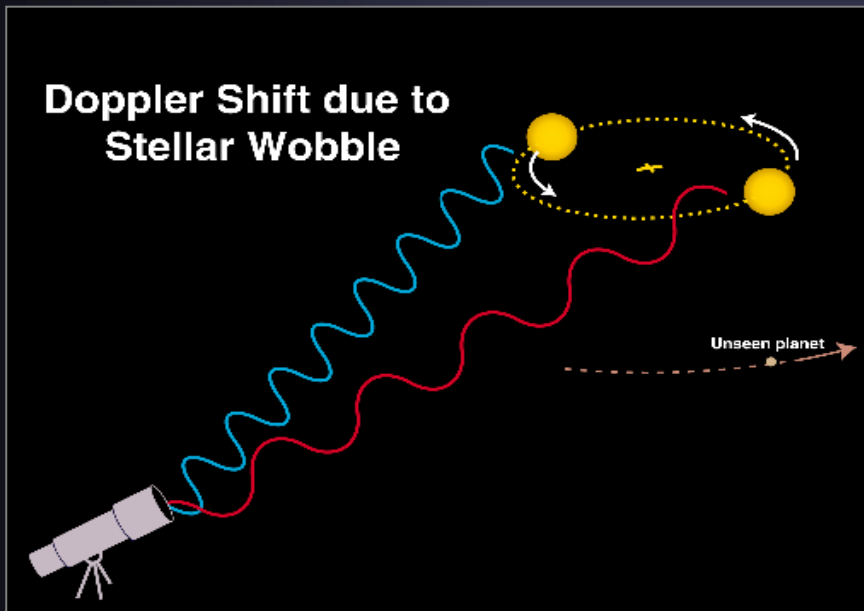
- measurement of two velocity components
→ determination of true mass independent of $\sin i$

Transit method

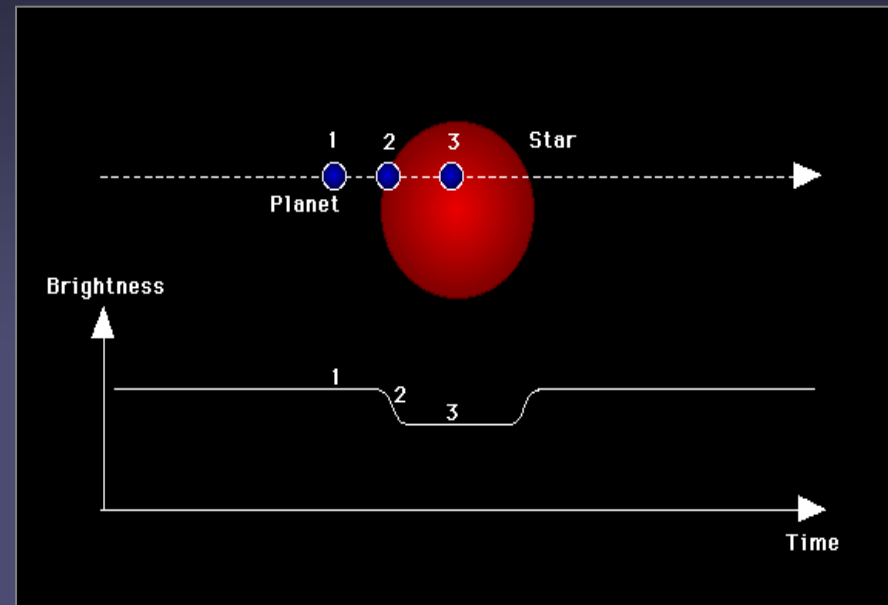
- amplitude: $\Delta I / I \sim R_p^2 / R_s^2$
Jupiter: $\sim 1\%$, Erde: $\sim 0.01\%$
- probability: R_s / a_p
- period: orbital period, distance from star
- transit duration: inclination of orbit, $i \sim 90^\circ$
- HD 209458 b (Charbonneau et al. 2000)



Combination of radial velocity and transit method



$M \sin i$

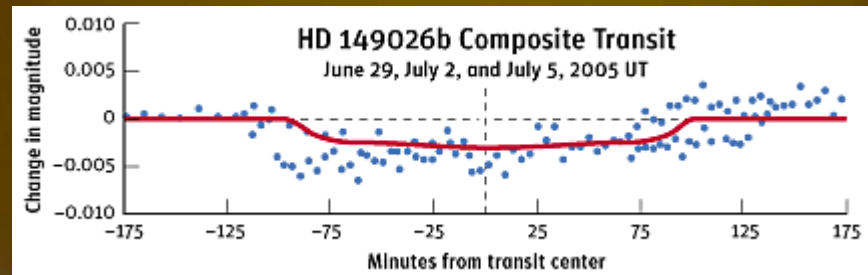


i, R

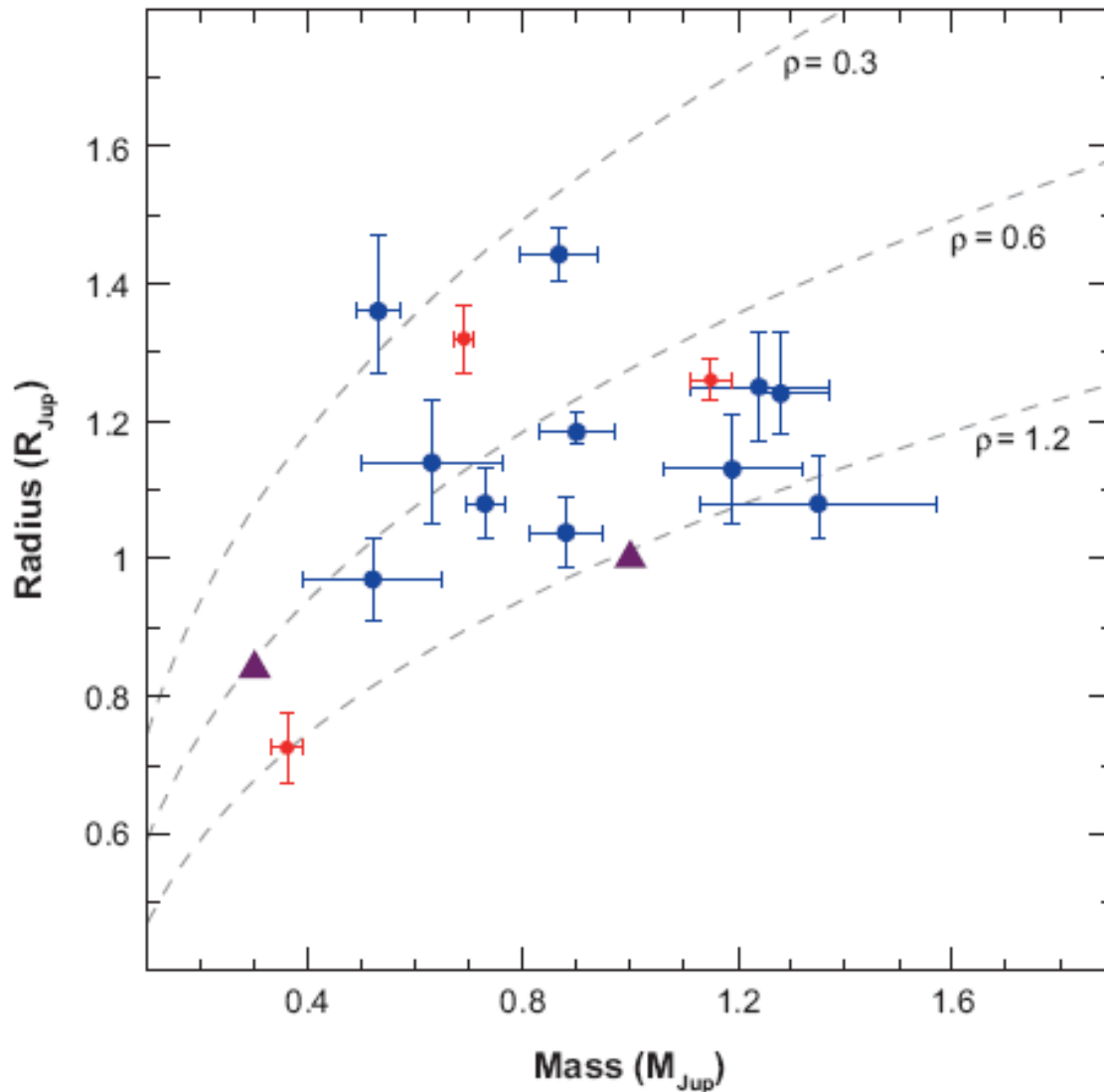
combined: M , mean ρ

HD 149026 b

- discovered with RV by Sato et al. (2005)
- transit by amateur astronomer Bissinger (2005)
- $\Delta m = 0.003$ mag !
- $P = 2.88$ d
- $a = 0.042$ AU
- $M = 0.36 M_J$
- $R = 0.72 R_J$
- $T_{\text{eff}} = 2300 \pm 200$ K



Mass - Radius - Diagram



red: planets detected by RV method

blue: planets by transit method

triangles: Jupiter
Saturn

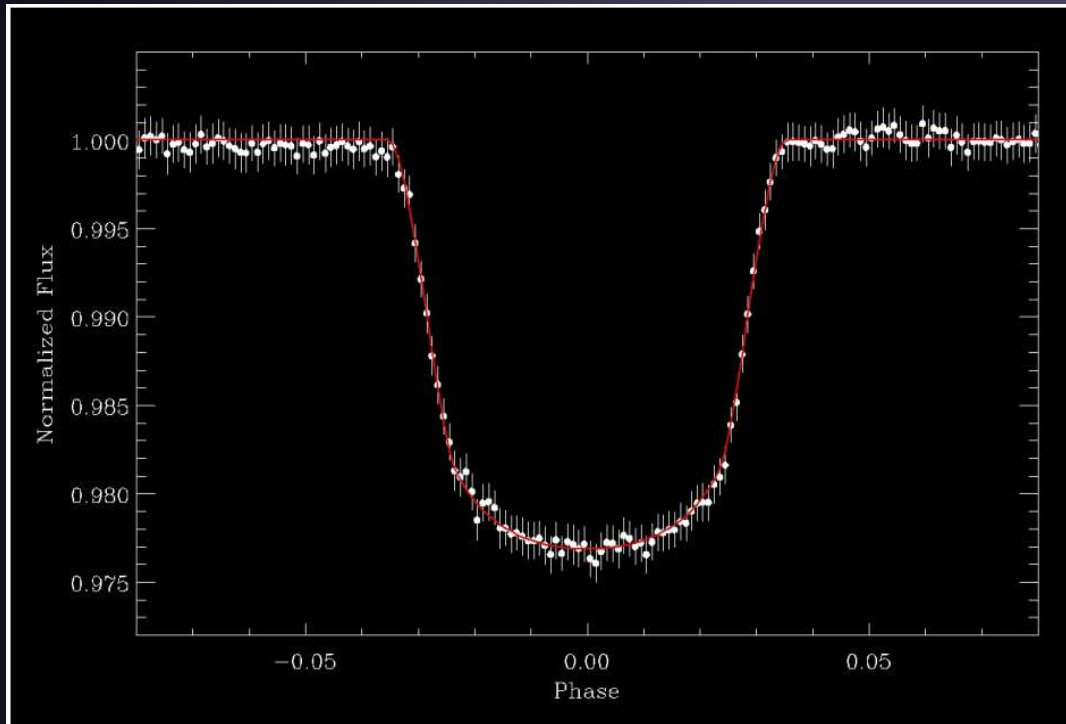
(Udry & Santos 2007)

CoRoT mission

French satellite with 27cm telescope and CCD camera with $2.8^\circ \times 2.8^\circ$ field-of-view

Goal: Detection of terrestrial planets on close-in orbits

CoRoT-Exo-1b

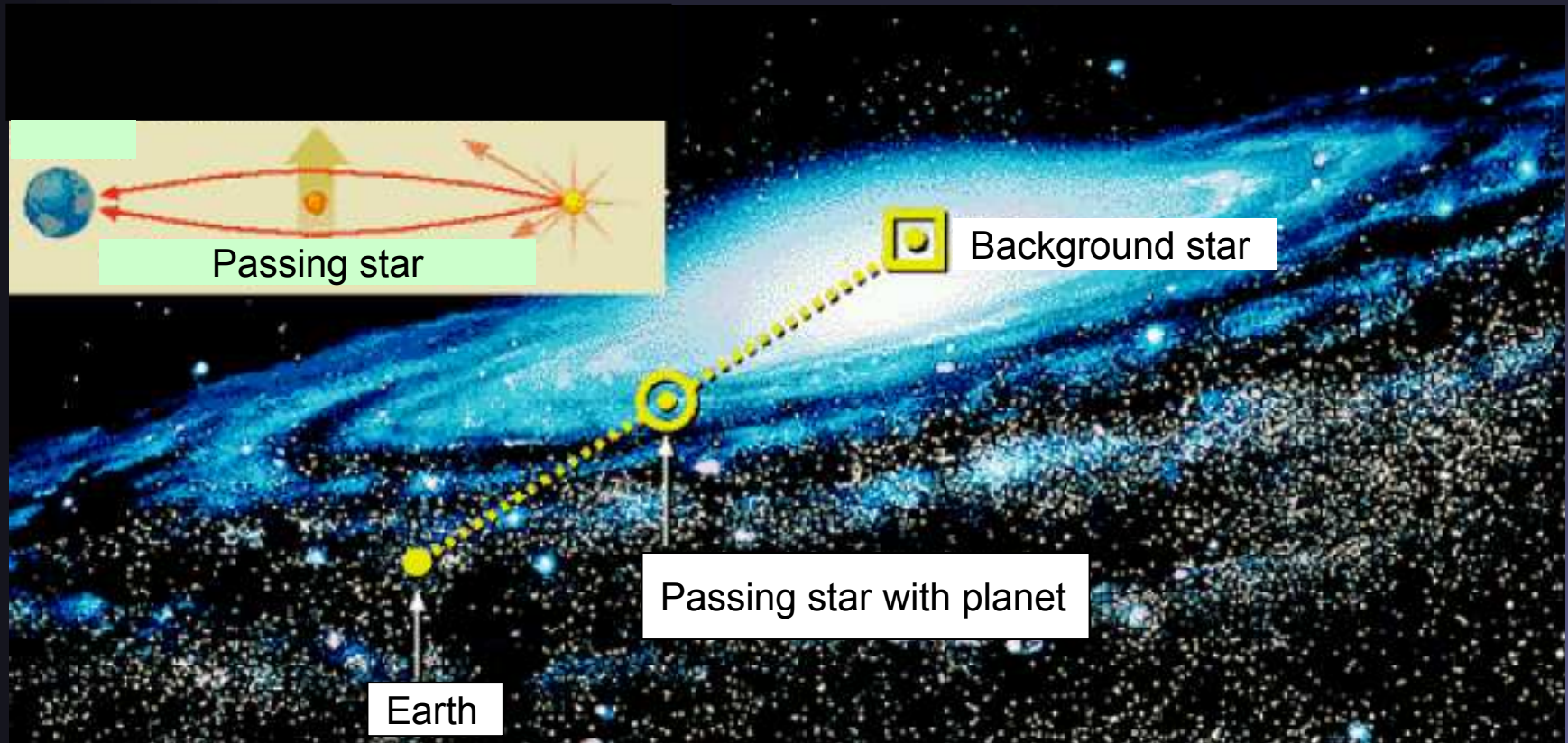


(Barge et al. 2007)



Launch: 27 December 2006

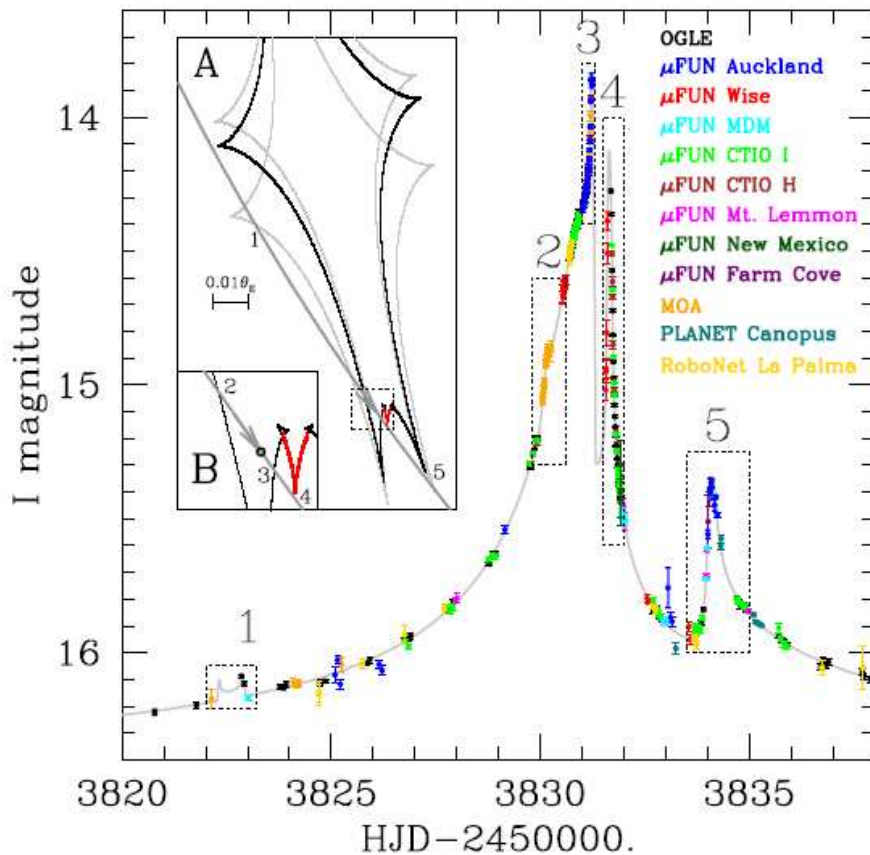
Gravitational microlensing



A foreground star acts as gravitational lens and enhances the apparent brightness of a background star. A planet around the foreground star modifies the lensing signal.

Microlensing can detect small, terrestrial planets. The geometry does not repeat, however. Therefore, good for statistical studies.

Detection of a Jupiter/Saturn analog with microlensing



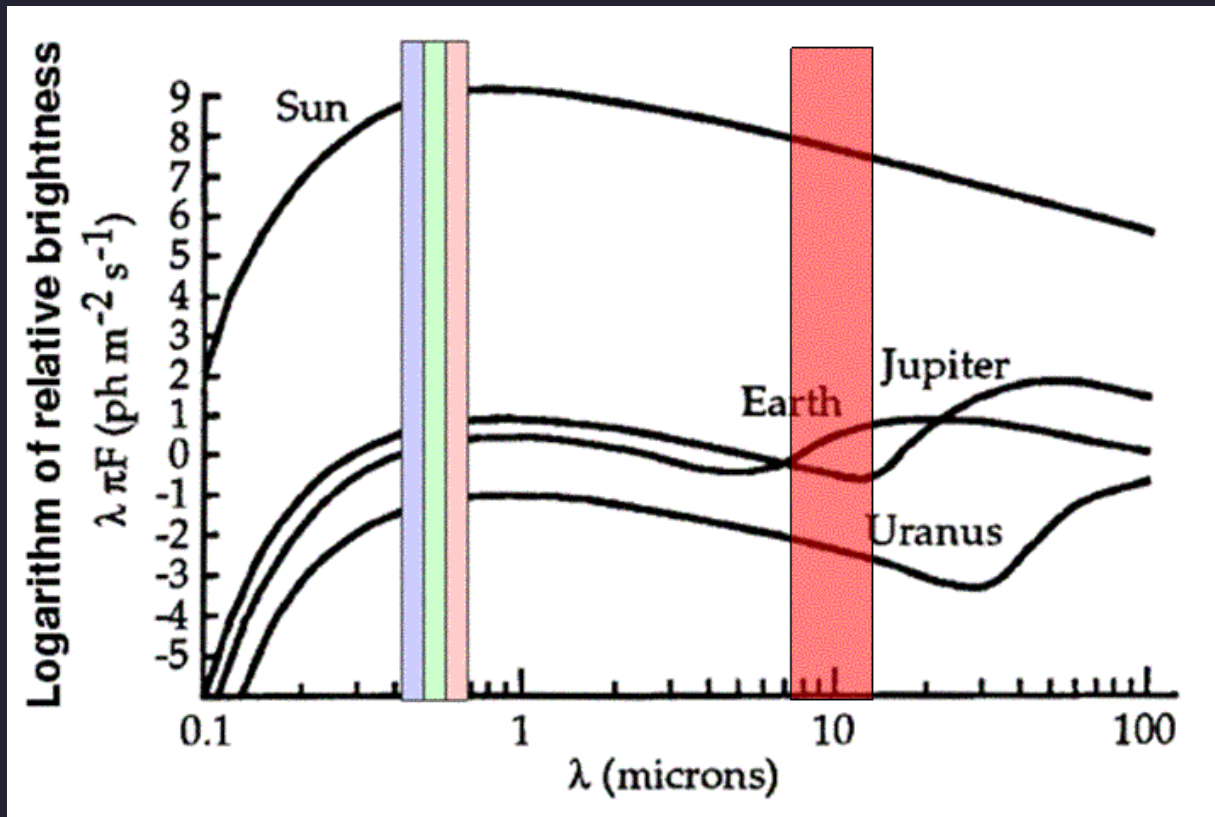
OGLE-06-109L: $0.5 M_{\odot}$, 1.5 kpc

Name	OGLE-06 -109L b	OGLE-06 -109L c
Mass	$0.71 M_J$	$0.27 M_J$
Distance	2.3 AU	4.6 AU
Period	1825 d	5100 d
Eccentricity		0.11
Inclination		59°

OGLE = Optical Gravitational
Lens Experiment

(Gaudi et al. 2008)

Direct imaging



- difficulty: star several orders of magnitude brighter than planet
- situation improves in the infrared spectral range and for young, hot planets

GQ Lupi b, first directly observed exoplanet

ESO VLT-NaCo K-Band

Companion:

6 mag fainter than star
separation ~ 0.7 arc sec

$a \sim 100$ AU

$M \sim 1-42 M_J$

Star:

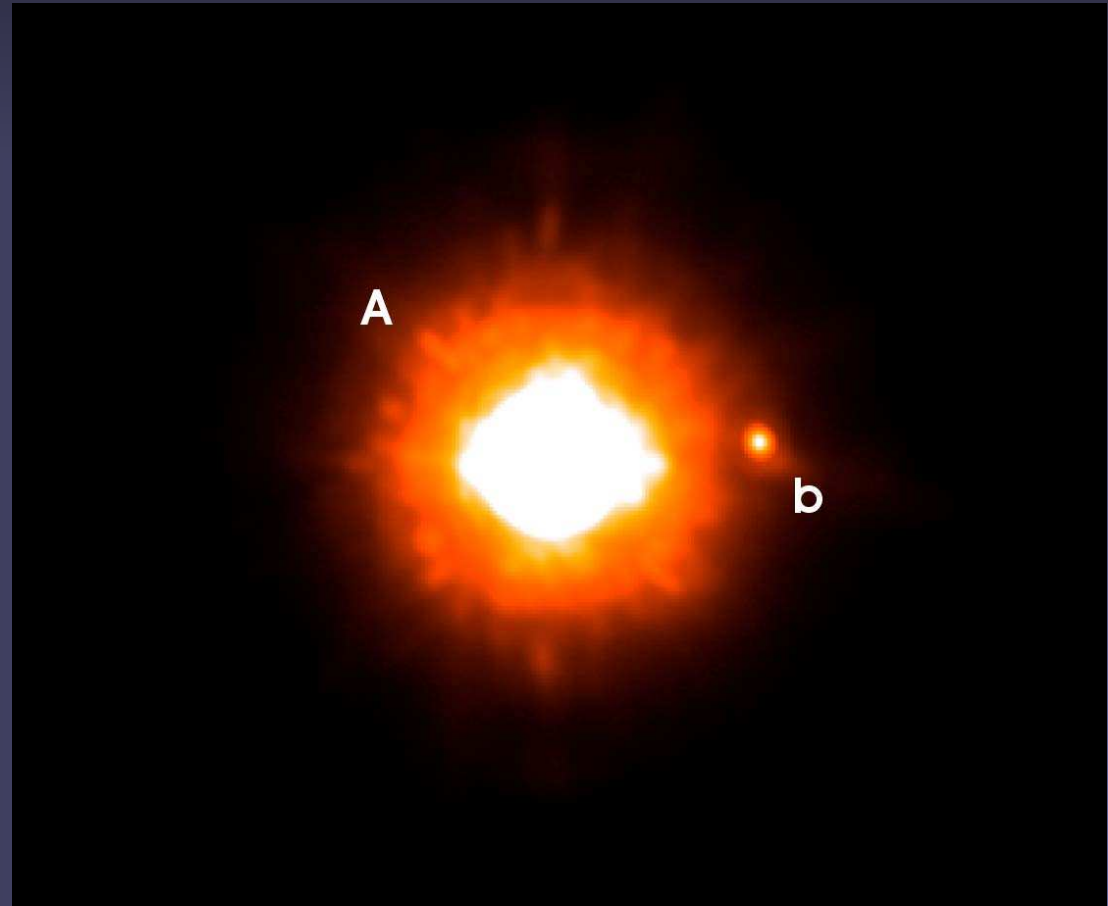
T Tauri star (K7eV)

$V \sim 11.4$, $L \sim 1.6 L_3$

$M \sim 0.7 M_\odot$

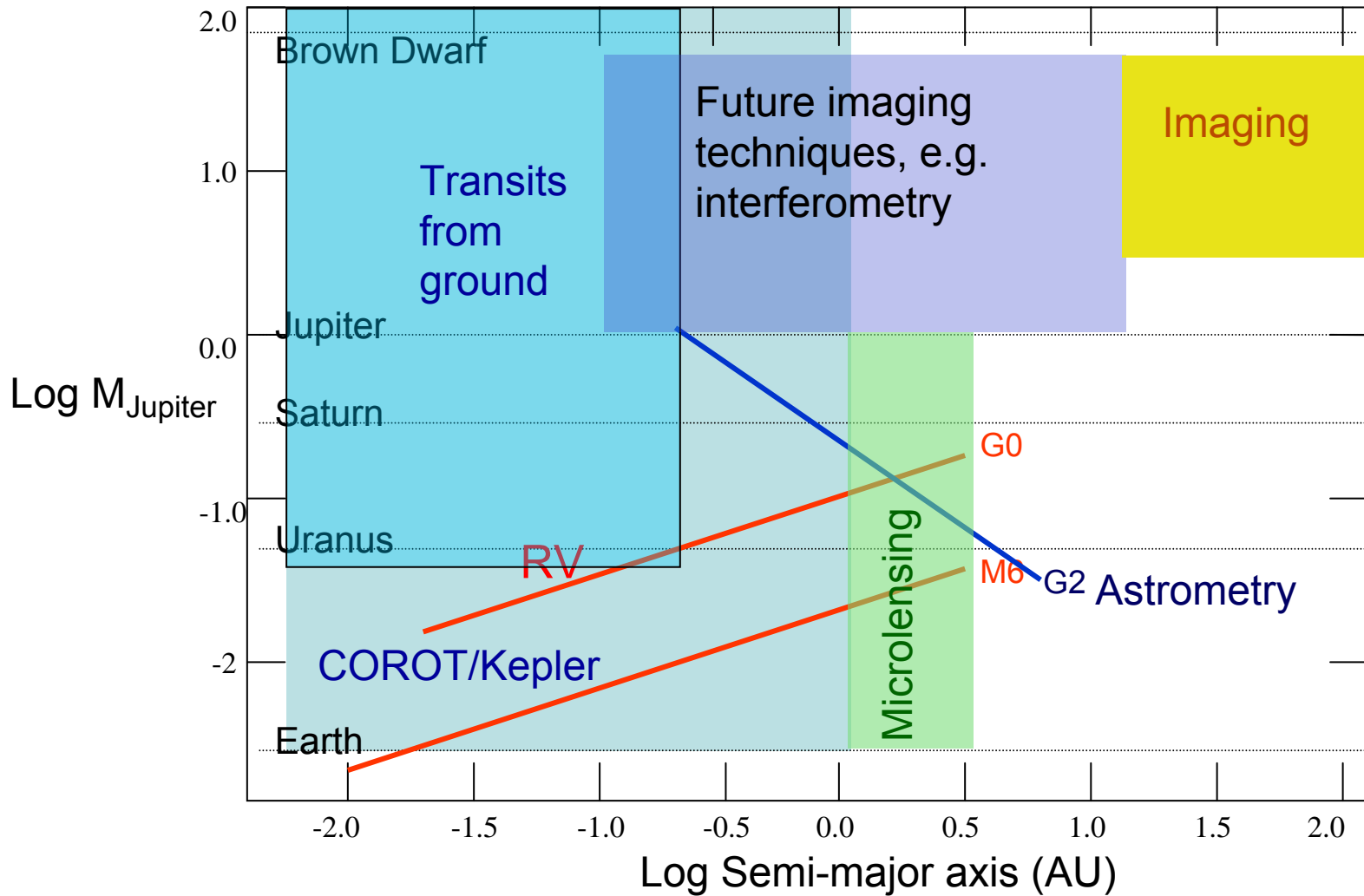
distance 140 ± 50 pc

age ~ 2 Mio years



(Neuhäuser et al. 2005)

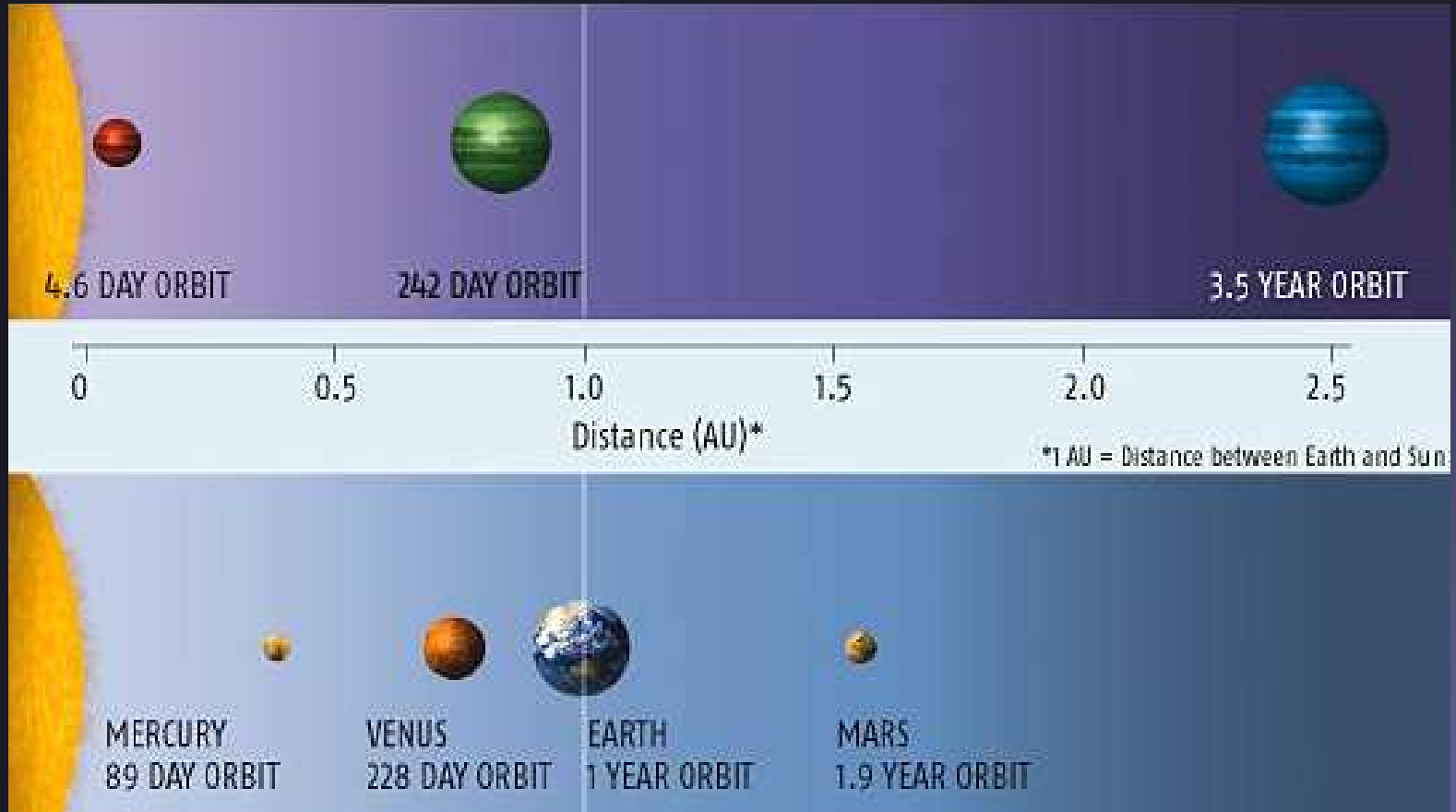
Detection ranges



Summary

- Radial velocity method: + most effective method so far
+/- only lower mass limits
- Astrometry: + long-period planets
- near stars
- Transit method: + determines radius
+ in combination with RV:
mass and mean density
- needs follow-up confirmation
- Microlensing: + low-mass planets detectable
+/- statistical information
- Direct imaging: + direct observation
- only for distant planets

Ypsilon Andromedae



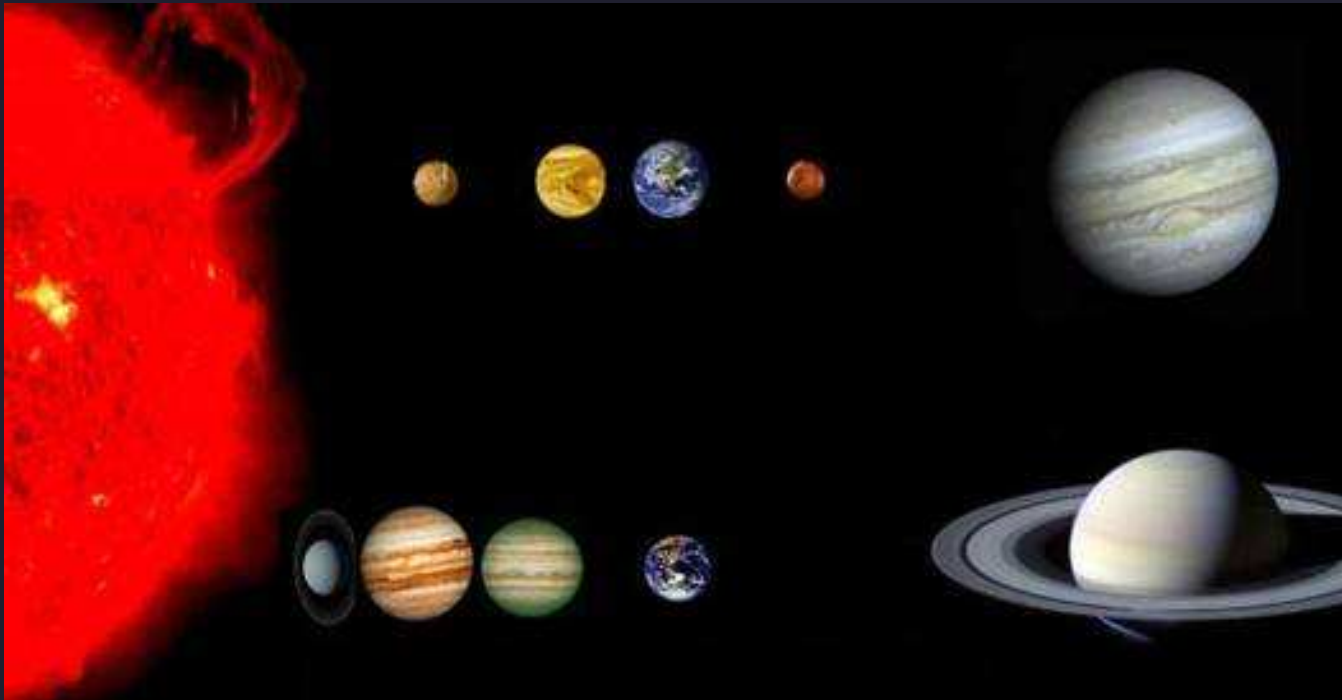
☉ And: F8V, $1.27 M_{\odot}$, $1.6 R_{\odot}$, 6200 K, 3.8 Gyr, 13.5 pc

☾ And b: 0.06 AU, 4.62 d, $0.69 M_J$

☾ And c: 0.83 AU, 242 d, $1.97 M_J$

☾ And d: 2.54 AU, 1290 d, $3.93 M_J$

55 Cancri



55 Cnc: G8V, 0.95 M_{\odot} , 0.96 R_{\odot} , 5250 K, 4.5 Gyr, 12.5 pc

55 Cnc e: 0.038 AU, 2.82 d, 0.03 M_J

55 Cnc b: 0.115 AU, 14.6 d, 0.82 M_J

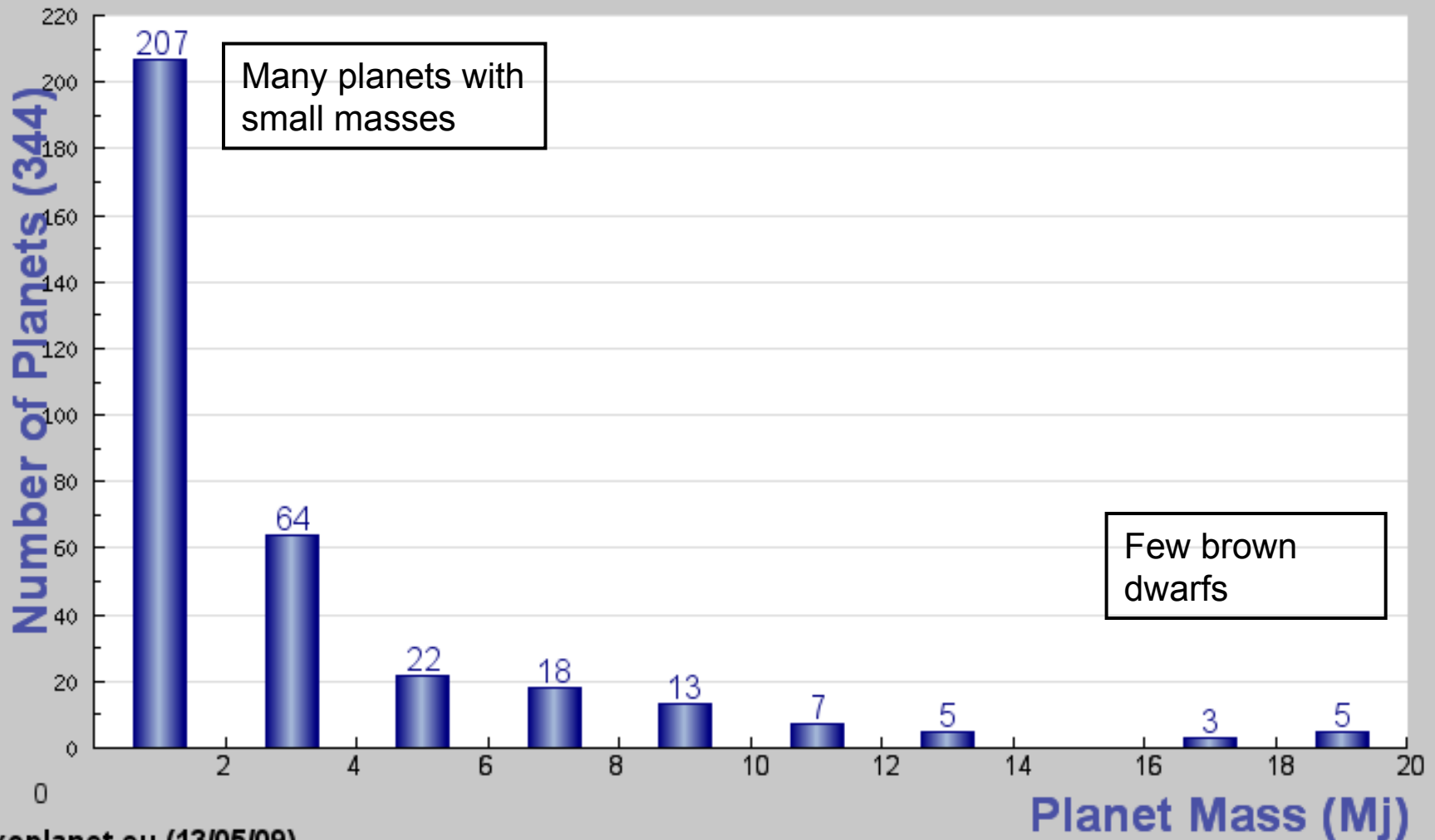
55 Cnc c: 0.240 AU, 43.9 d, 0.17 M_J

55 Cnc f: 0.781 AU, 260 d, 0.14 M_J

55 Cnc d: 5.77 AU, 5218 d, 3.84 M_J

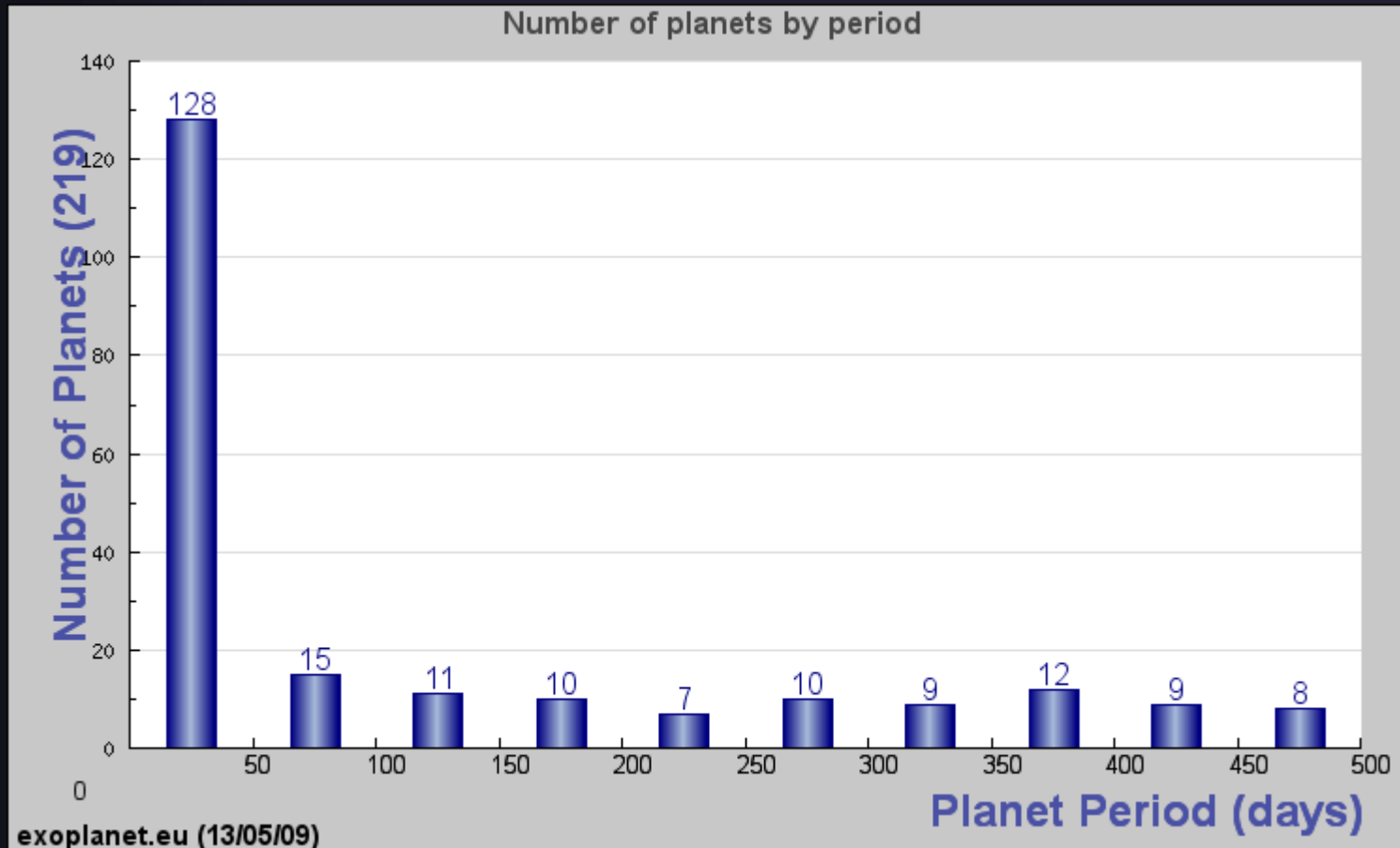
Planet statistics

Number of planets by mass



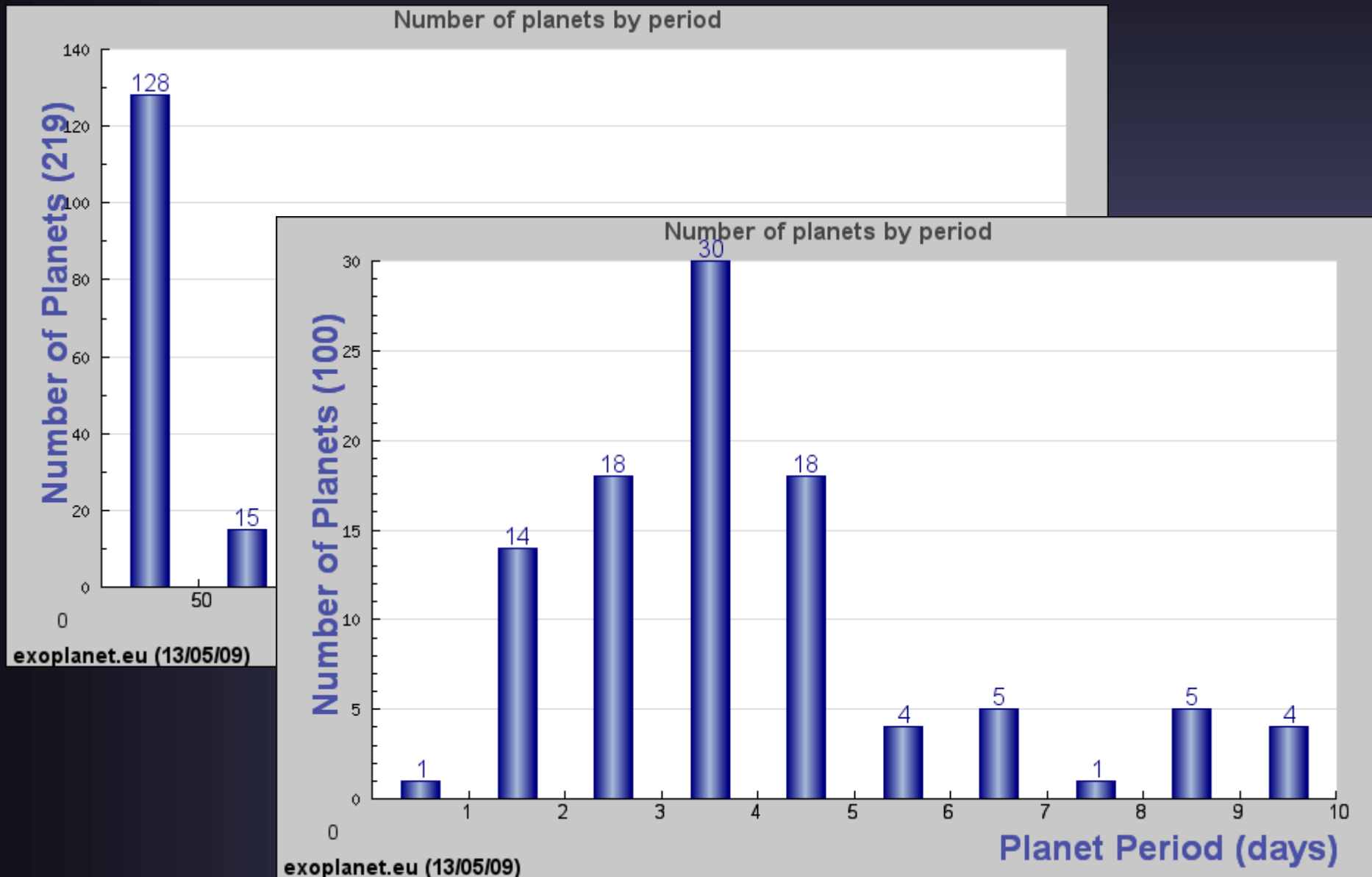
Most planets discovered are on short orbital periods

→ selection effect

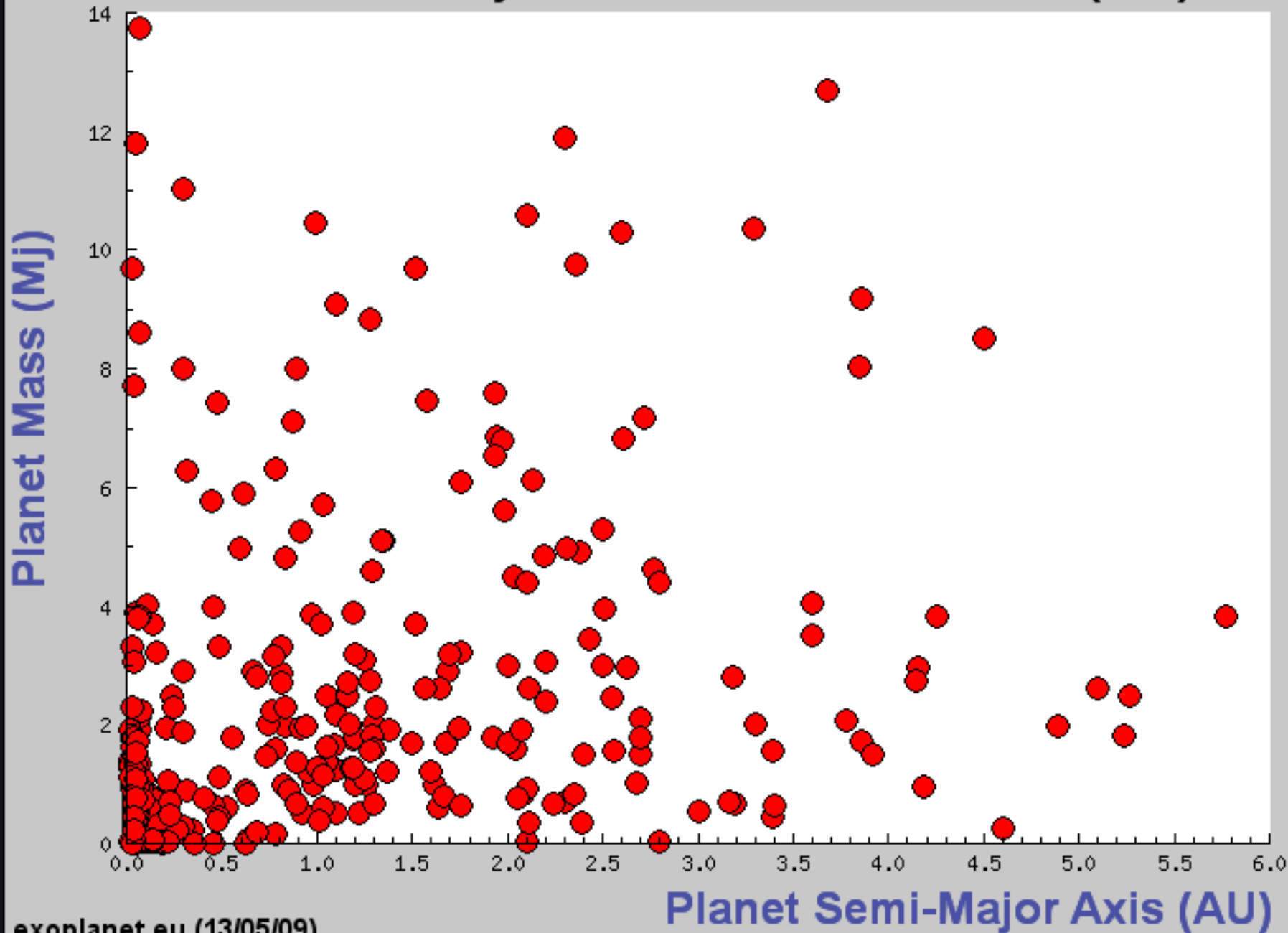


Most planets discovered are on short orbital periods

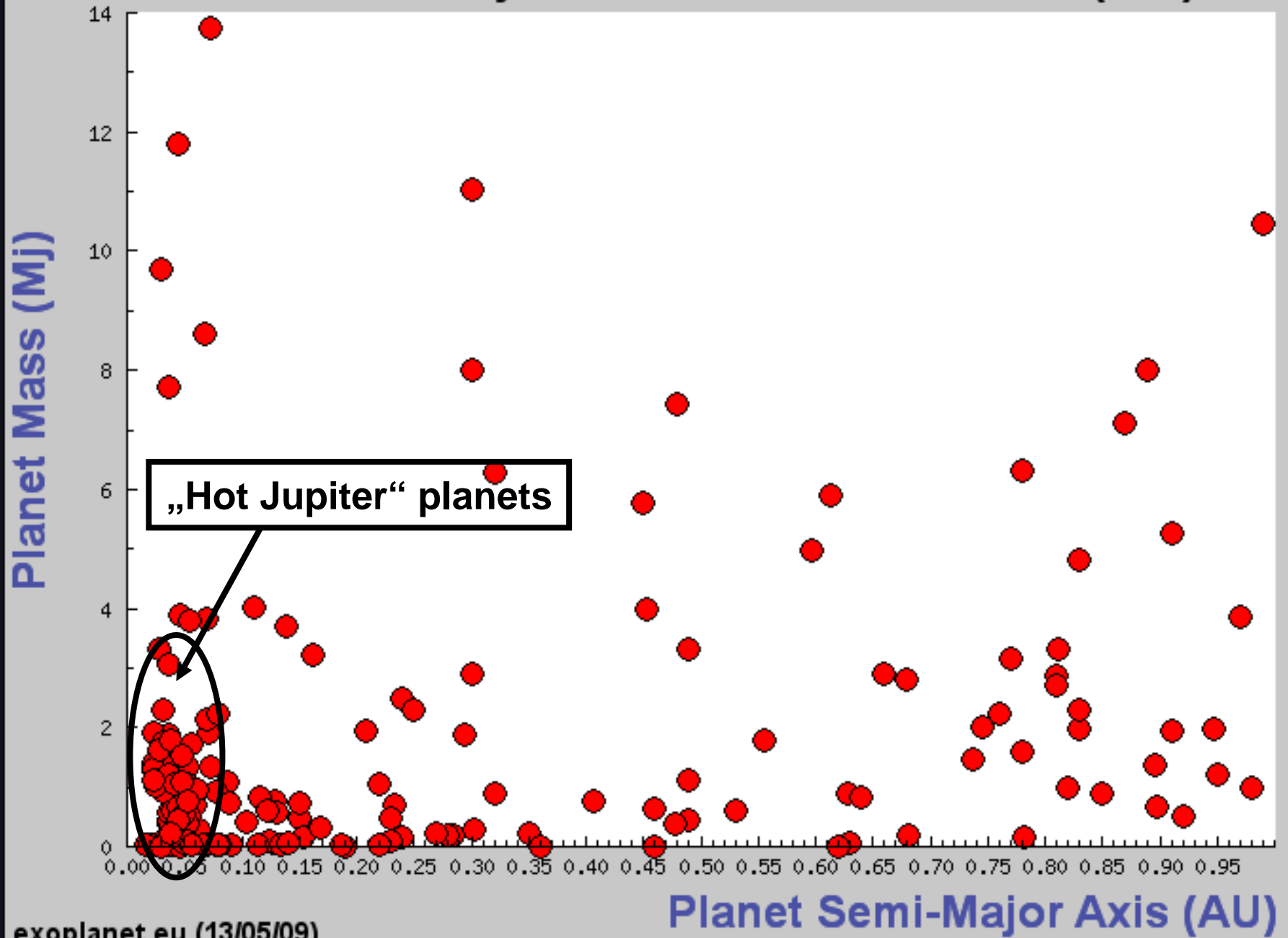
→ selection effect



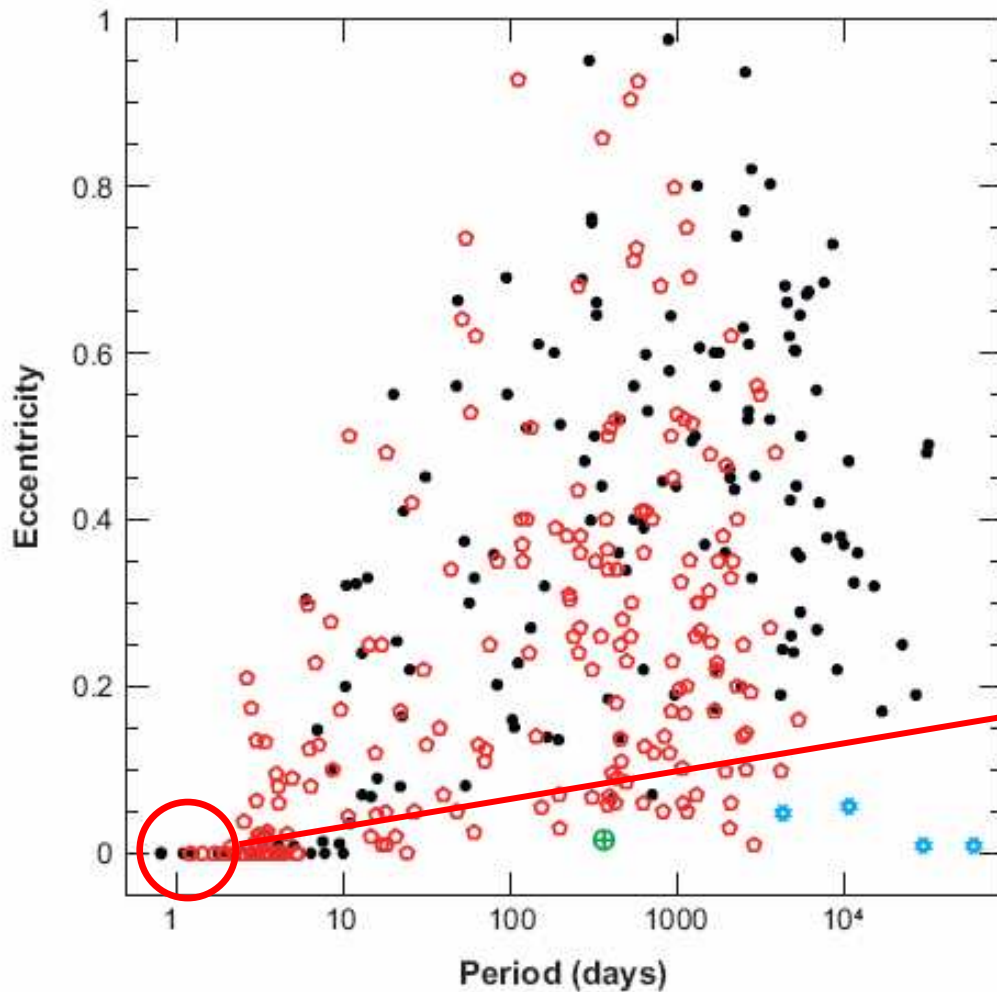
"Planet Semi-Major Axis" vs "Planet Mass" (320)



"Planet Semi-Major Axis" vs "Planet Mass" (185)



Orbital eccentricity



- Known exoplanets
- Stellar binaries
- ⊕ Earth
- ★ Giant planets

Eccentricities roughly in the same range as for binary stars.

Close-in planets are on circularised orbits due to tidal interaction with their central star.

(Udry & Santos 2007)

Planet formation

in a nutshell

Molecular clouds in the ISM



cold, dense, H_2 , molecules, $\sim 50\%$ of ISM

Gravitational collapses

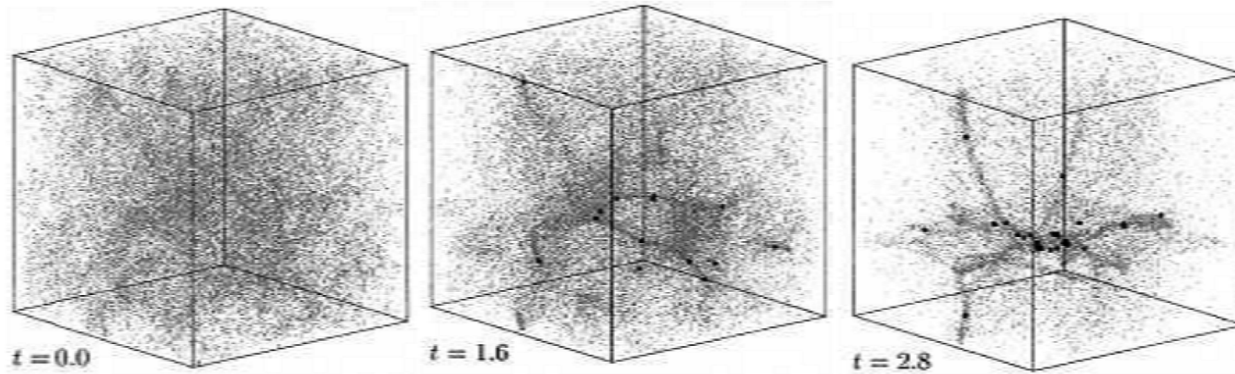


Fig. 2.— The gravitational fragmentation of molecular cloud is shown from a simulation containing initial structure (Klessen *et al.*, 1998). The gravitational collapse enhances this structure producing filaments which fragment to form individual stars. The time t is given in units of the free-fall time.

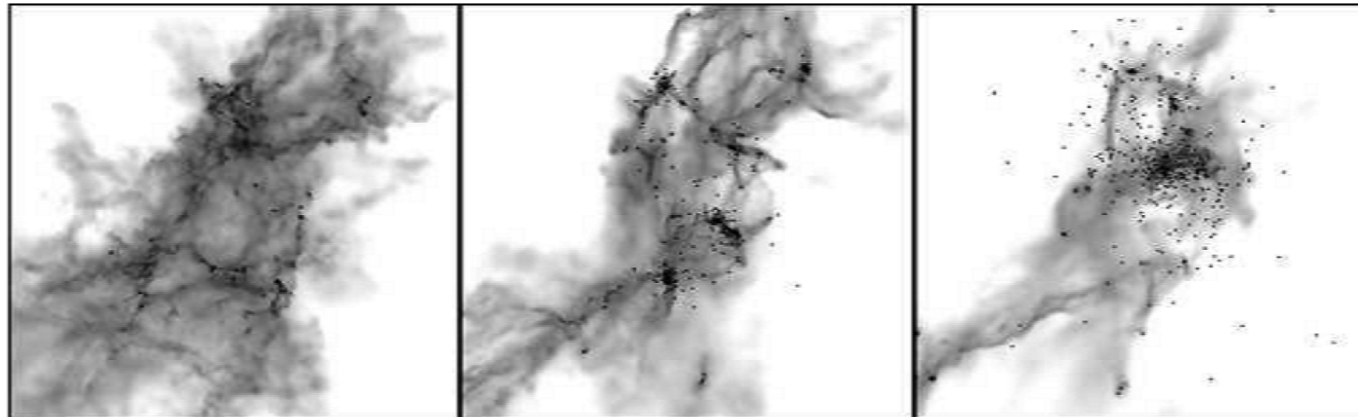


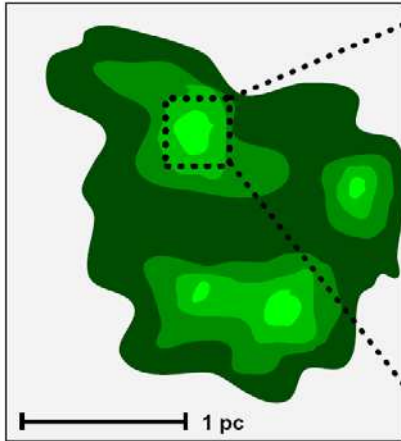
Fig. 8.— The fragmentation of a $1000 M_{\odot}$ turbulent molecular cloud and the formation of a stellar cluster (Bonnell *et al.*, 2003). Note the merging of the smaller subclusters to a single big cluster.

Jeans mass, trigger, cloud fragmentation, star formation in cluster

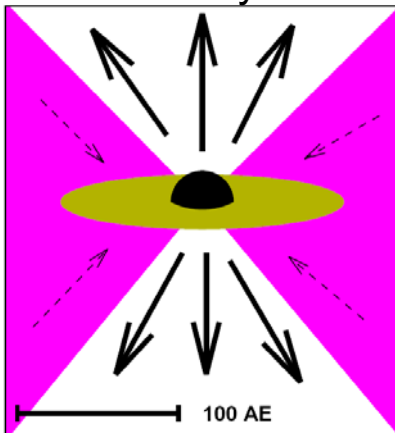
Circumstellar / protoplanetary disk

angular momentum conservation

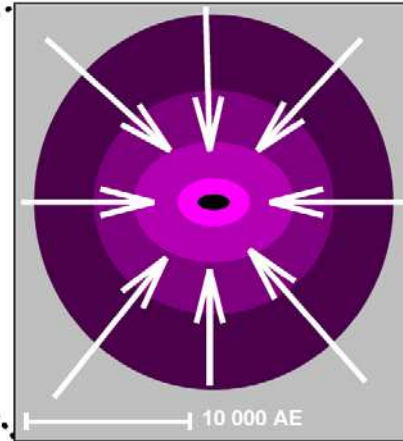
molecular cloud



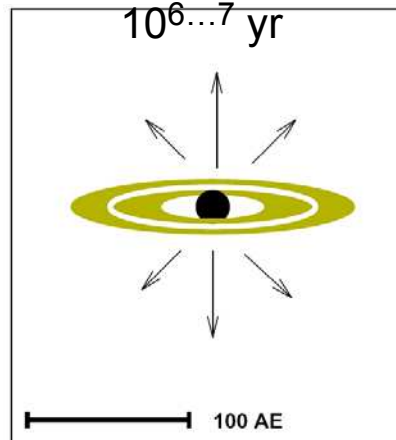
T Tauri star, wind
 $10^5 \dots 6$ yr



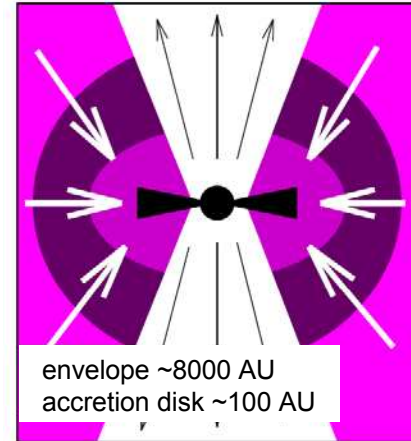
gravitational collapse



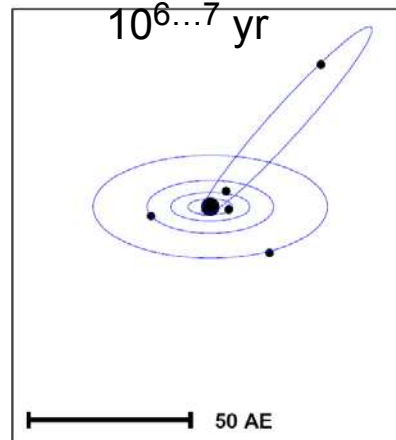
pre-main-seq. star
evolved disk
 $10^6 \dots 7$ yr



star with accretion disk
 $10^4 \dots 5$ yr



main-sequence star
planetary system
 $10^6 \dots 7$ yr



Hogerheijde 2001
Kley 2008

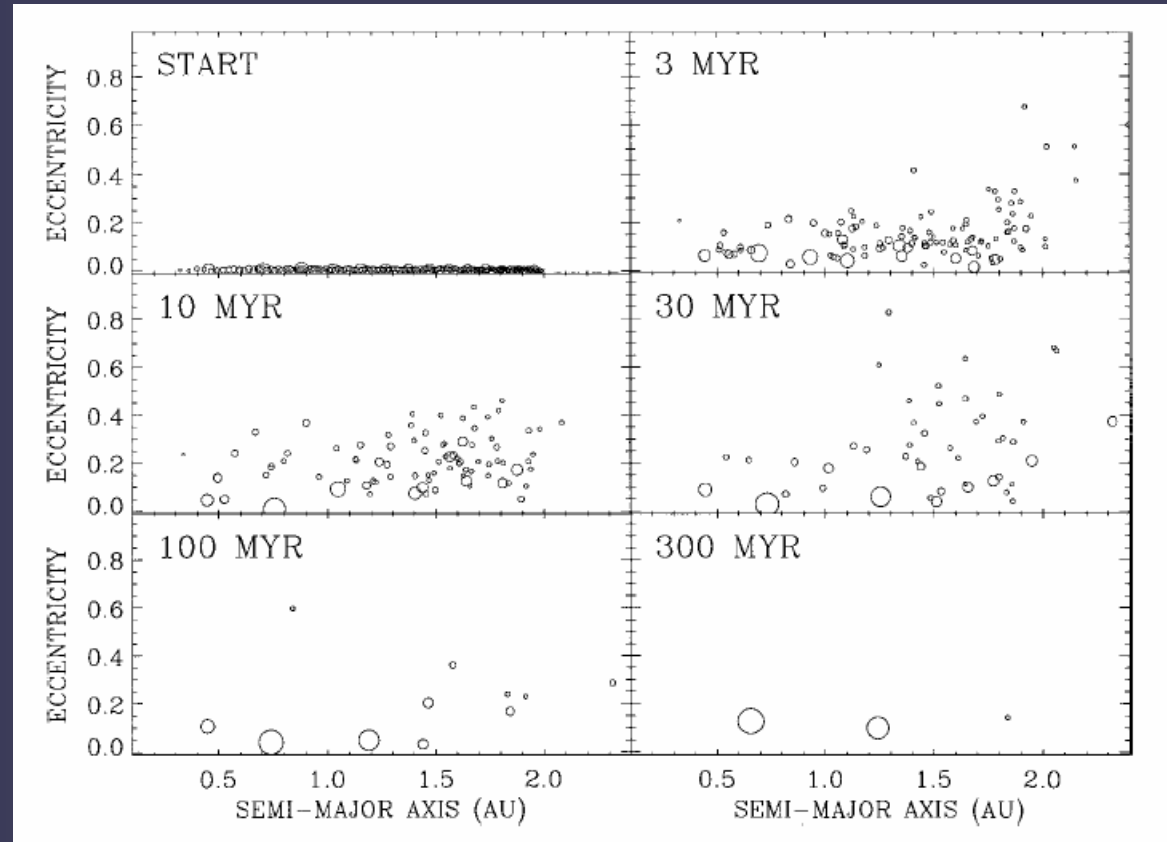
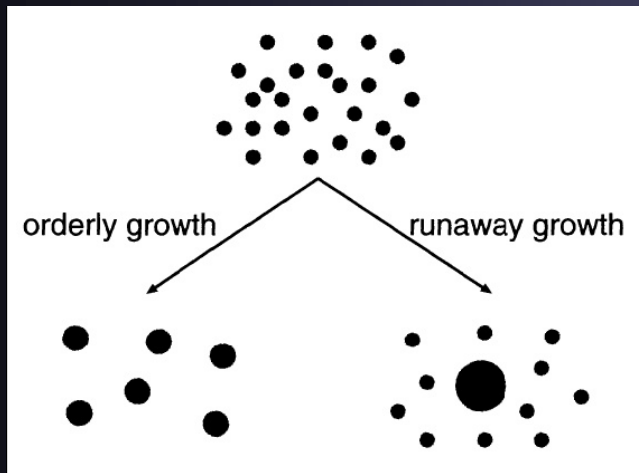
Condensation, dust agglomeration, formation of planetesimals



- Condensation of molecules: gas to solid, 1 μm , some 1000 yr
- Agglomeration / coagulation of dust: 10 cm, takes longer further out, frost line at 5 AU: ice
- Planetesimals: 10 km, meter-size barrier

Formation of terrestrial planets

planetesimals of $\sim 10\text{km}$ – gravitational focusing – collisions – fragmentation of smaller body – accretion of fragments – larger and fewer bodies – runaway growth – oligarchic growth – ends when reservoir exhausted



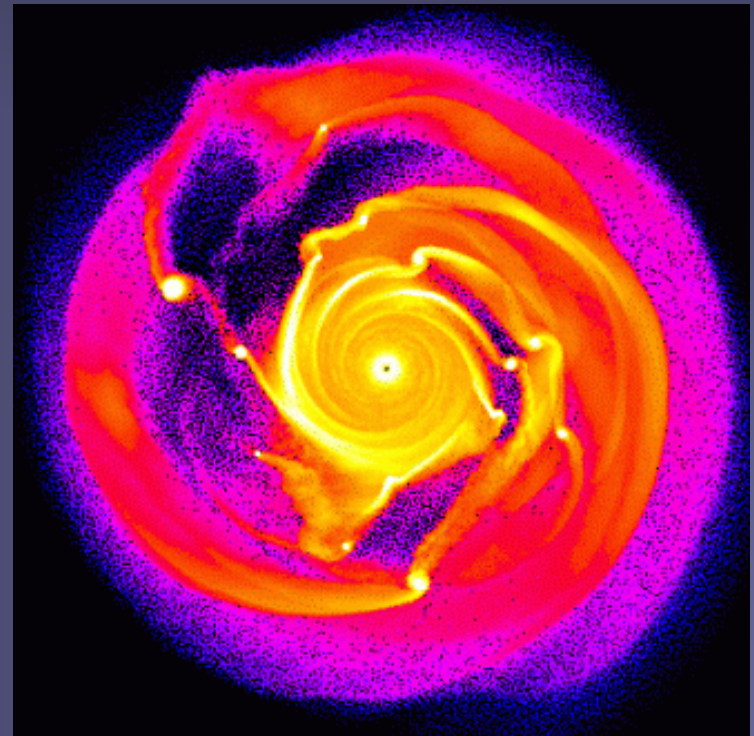
Formation of gasplanets

Core accretion model

- large planetary embryo of $\sim 10M_E$
- fast accretion of gas (H_2 , He, ...)
- time scale:
 - Jupiter: 0.5 Myr
 - Saturn: 2 Myr
 - Uranus: 10 Myr
 - Neptune: 30 Myr
- end of growth:
 - stellar wind (TTauri phase)
 - evaporation of disk

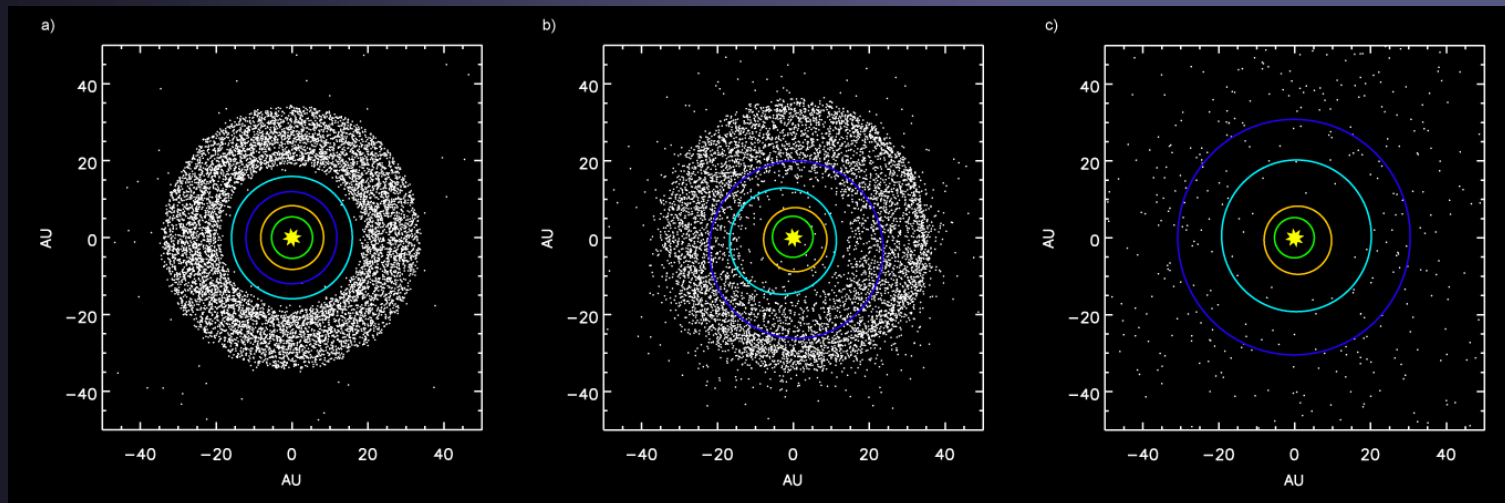
Gravitational instability model

- gravitational instability of knots in mass-rich disks



Planetary migration

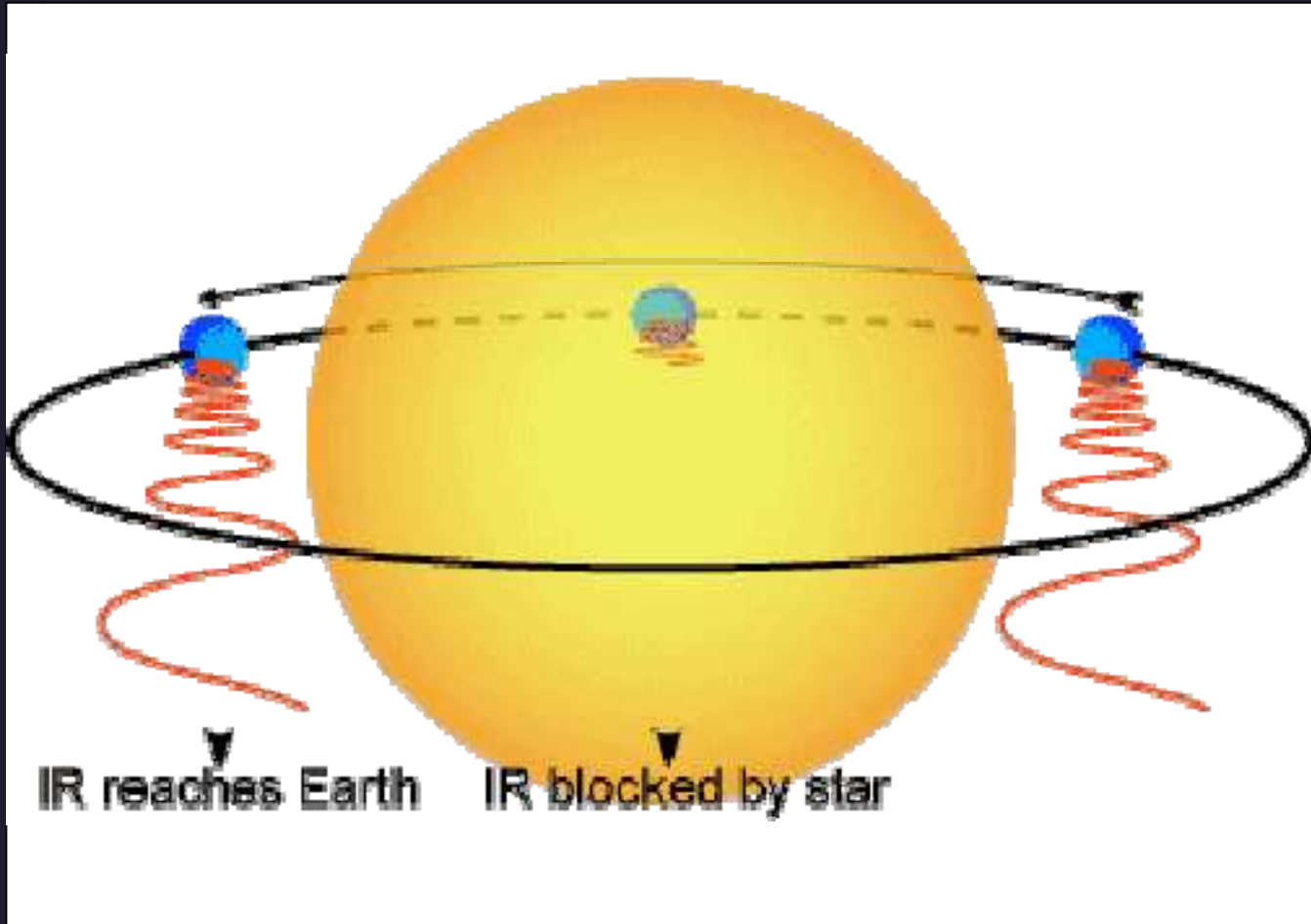
- change of orbital radius (i.e. semimajor axis) of a planet in time
- still controversial, supported by Kuiper Belt Objects, Hot Jupiters, atmos. composition of Jupiter
- caused by interaction of planet with gas or planetary disk
- Type I migration: planet – spiral density wave in disk – imbalance inside and outside the orbit – net torque inward – loss of angular momentum – inward migration
- Type II migration: large planets – clear gap in disk – gas from disk enters gap – moves planet and gap inward



Physical properties

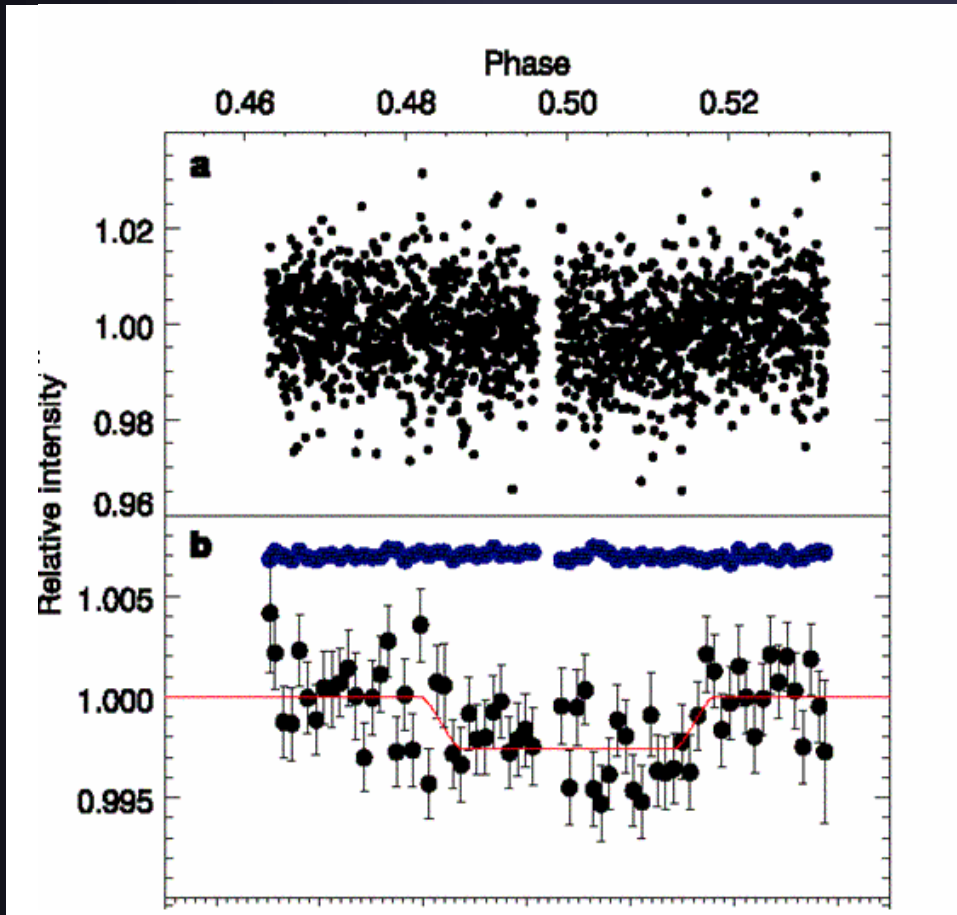
- relatively little known
- observation of „hot Jupiters“ with HST and Spitzer during transits:
 - determination of effective temperature
 - chemical composition of atmosphere
- theoretical studies:
 - planetary formation
 - interior structure
 - atmosphere
 - magnetosphere and plasma interaction with stellar wind and magnetic field
 - ...

Measurement of temperature



during the secondary transit at infrared wavelengths

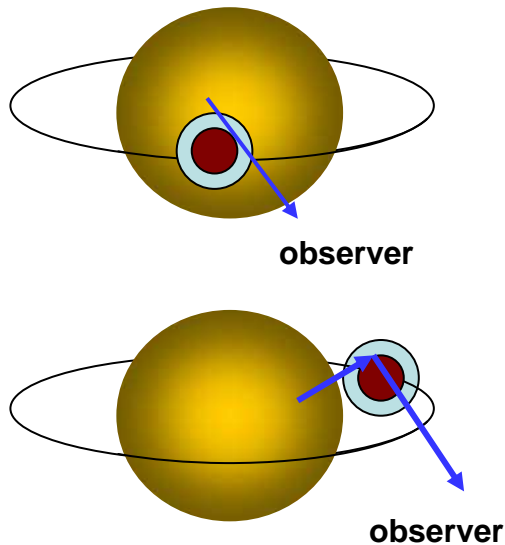
Secondary transit of HD 209458 b



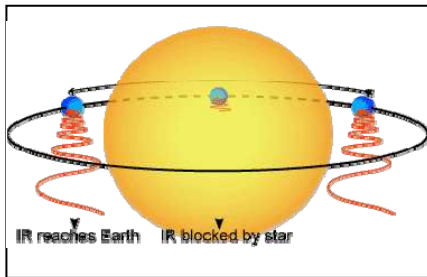
24 micron (Deming et al. 2005)

- orbital period = 3.52 days
- radius = $1.3 R_J$
- mass = $0.63 M_J$
- density = $0.3 - 0.5 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$
- $T_{\text{eff}} = 1130 \pm 150 \text{ K}$
- in comparison:
Jupiter $T_{\text{eff}} = 124 \text{ K}$
- heating due to small orbital distance of the planet

Measurement of atmospheric composition

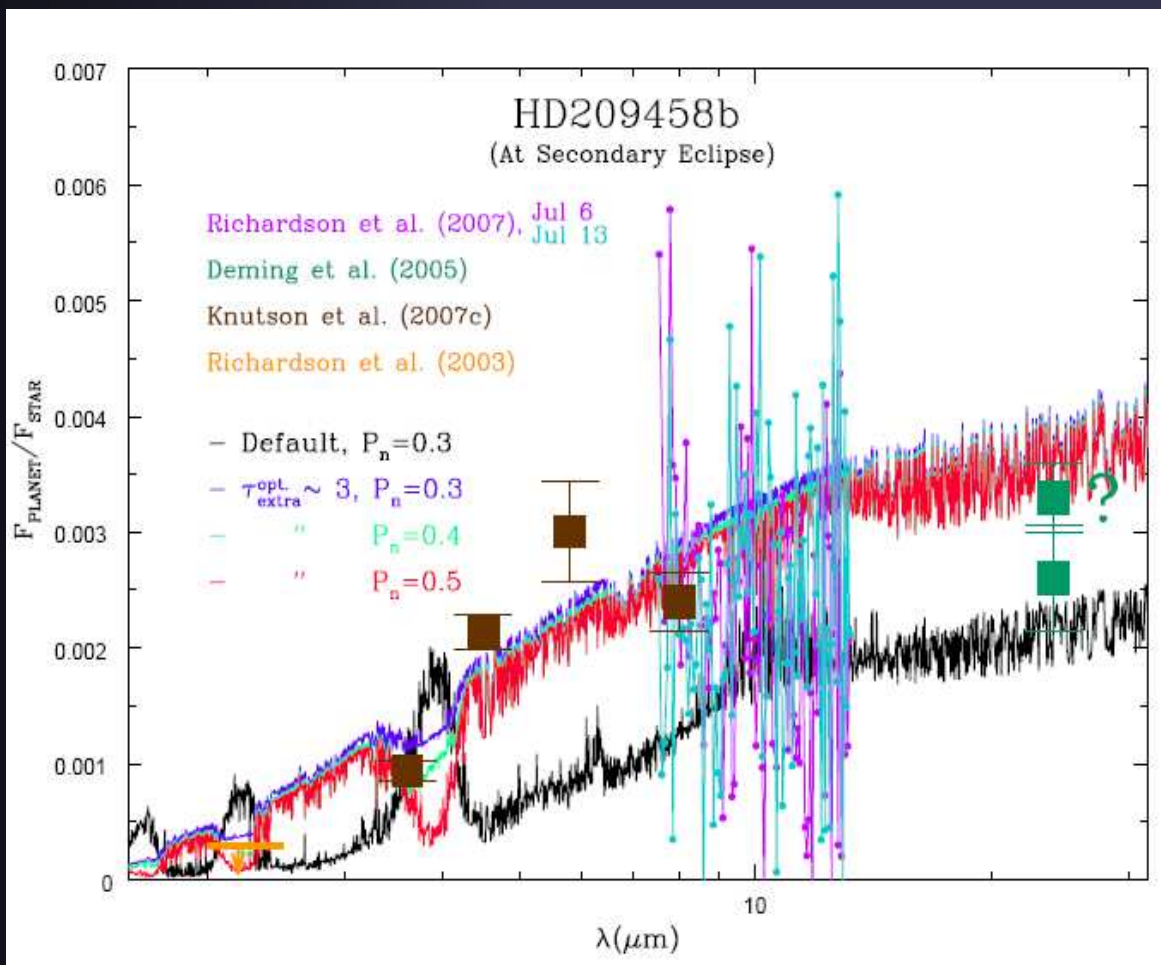


- Measure stellar light passing through the planetary atmosphere during transit configuration
- Measure stellar light reflected or scattered from the planetary atmosphere
- Measure the infrared radiation emitted by the planetary atmosphere



Water vapour in the atmosphere of HD 209458 b ?

Spectroscopy of the starlight reflected by the planet with the Spitzer IR satellite

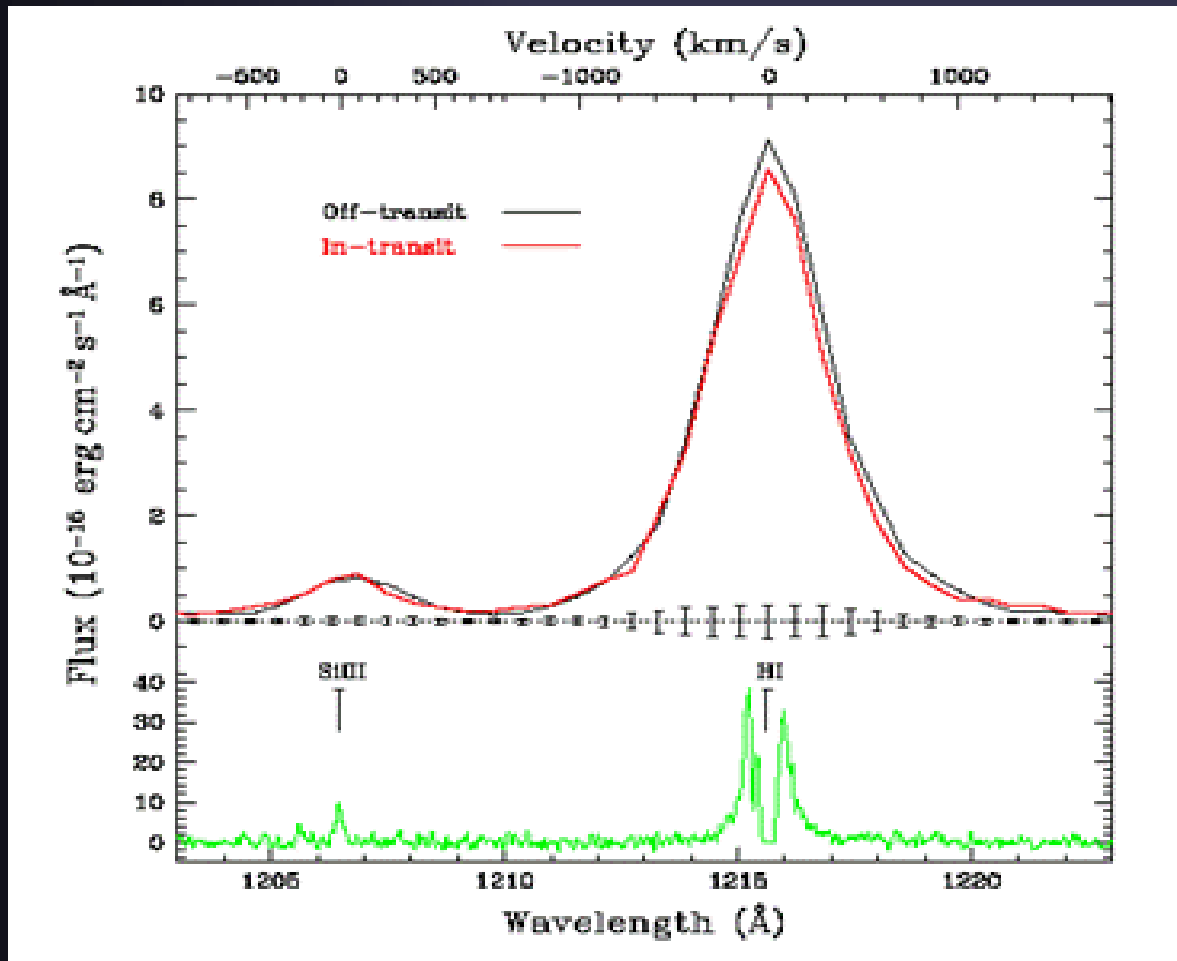


Modelled spectra

(Burrows et al. 2007)

H, O, C and Na in the atmosphere of HD 209458 b

Spectroscopy at optical and ultraviolet wavelengths during a transit (with the HST)



(Charbonneau 2002,
Desert 2003,
Vidal-Madjar et al. 2004)

Habitability

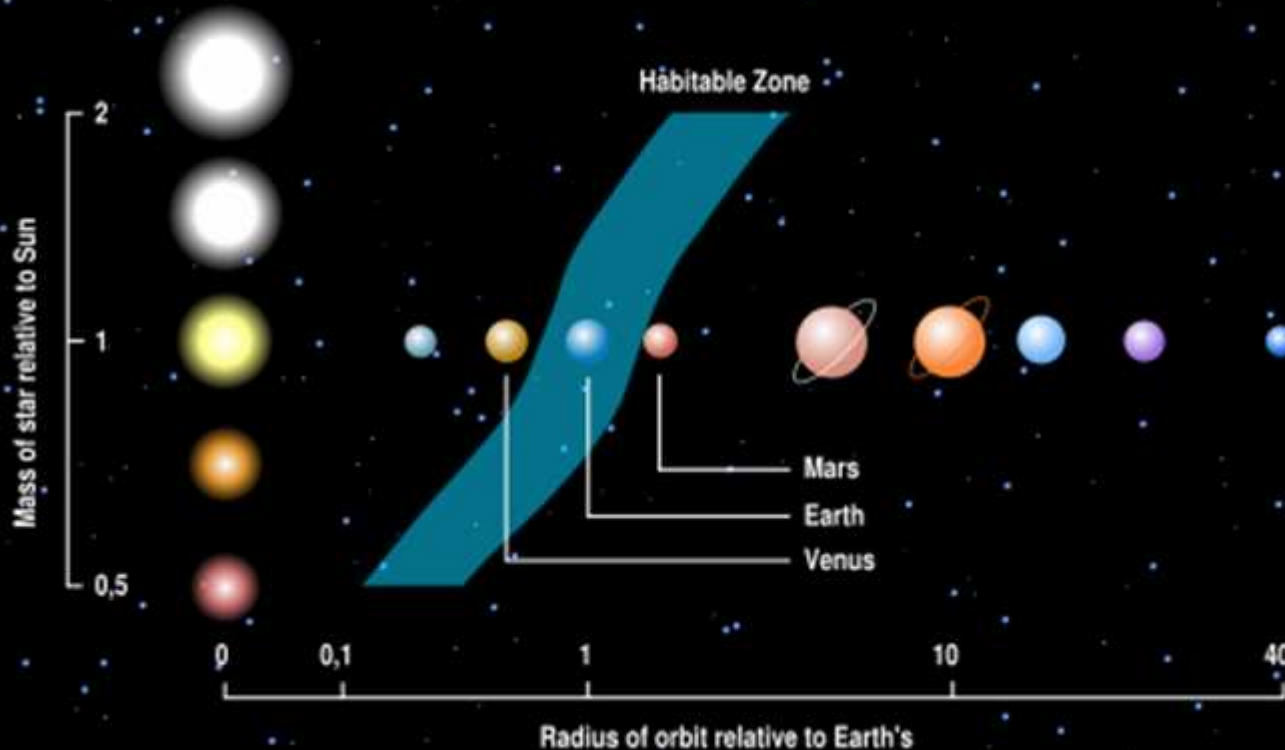
Potential of a planet
to develop and sustain life

Absolute requirements:

- energy source
- liquid water on surface
- environment favourable for the assembly of complex organic molecules

Habitable zone

Orbital distance region around a star where an Earth-like planet can maintain liquid water on its surface



Habitable zone depends on luminosity of star

- inner boundary: runaway greenhouse effect, loss of water to space
- outer boundary: dependent on amount of greenhouse gases (CO_2 and H_2O)

Constraints on star

- main sequence star, spectral type F - K
 - sufficient long stellar life
 - UV radiation for atmospheric dynamics and chemistry
 - habitable zone at distances outside tidal locking, no good news for M stars
- stability of habitable zone
 - slow stellar evolution
 - no gas giants close to habitable zone
- low stellar variability, red dwarf often very active
- high metallicity favours planet formation

Constraints on planet

- terrestrial
- sufficient mass
 - for thick atmosphere
 - for hot core and geological activity
 - for iron core, dynamo, magnetic protection from stellar wind and cosmic rays
- small orbital eccentricity, moderate rotation, moderate tilt of rotation axis because of seasons
- chemistry: C, H, O, N — amino acids
- satellites of gas giants

Venus – Earth – Mars



$T = 457^{\circ}\text{C}$
 $p = 90 \text{ bar}$

Atmosphere:

96 % CO_2
3,5 % N_2

runaway greenhouse



$T = 15^{\circ}\text{C}$
 $p = 1 \text{ bar}$

Atmosphere:

77 % N_2
21 % O_2
1 % H_2O



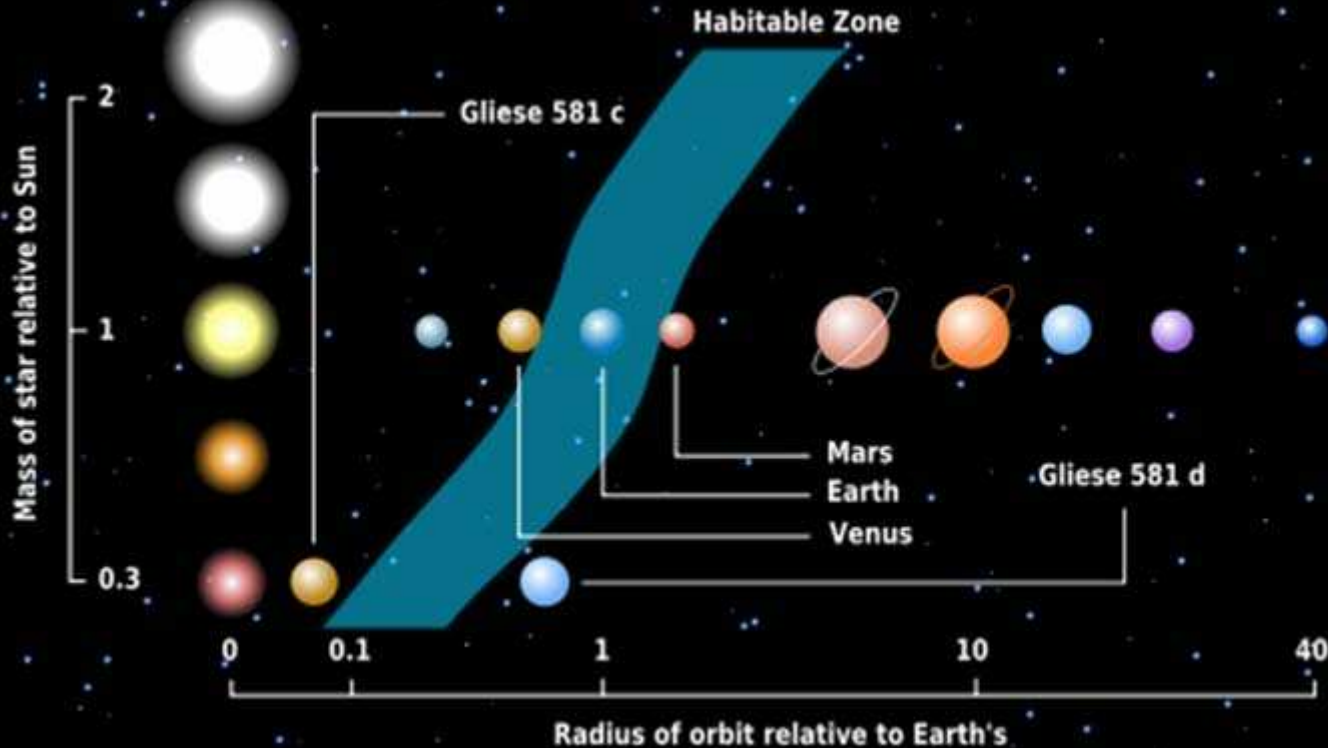
$T = - 80^{\circ}\text{C}$
 $p = 0.007 \text{ bar}$

Atmosphere:

95 % CO_2
2,7 % N_2

global fridge

Gliese 581 c,d,e



Gliese 581: M3V, 0.31 M_{\odot} , 6.3 pc

Gliese 581 c: 0.073 AU, 12.9 d, 5 M_E

Gliese 581 d: 0.22 AU, 67 d, 7.1 M_E

Gliese 581 e: 0.03 AU, 3.15 d, 1.9 M_E

Future missions

2006

CoRoT (CNES)

Transits:

„Hot“ Earths

2009

Kepler (NASA)

Transits:

Earth-like planets

2012

Gaia (ESA)

Astrometry:

Statistics of gas giants

2017

Plato? (ESA)

Transits:

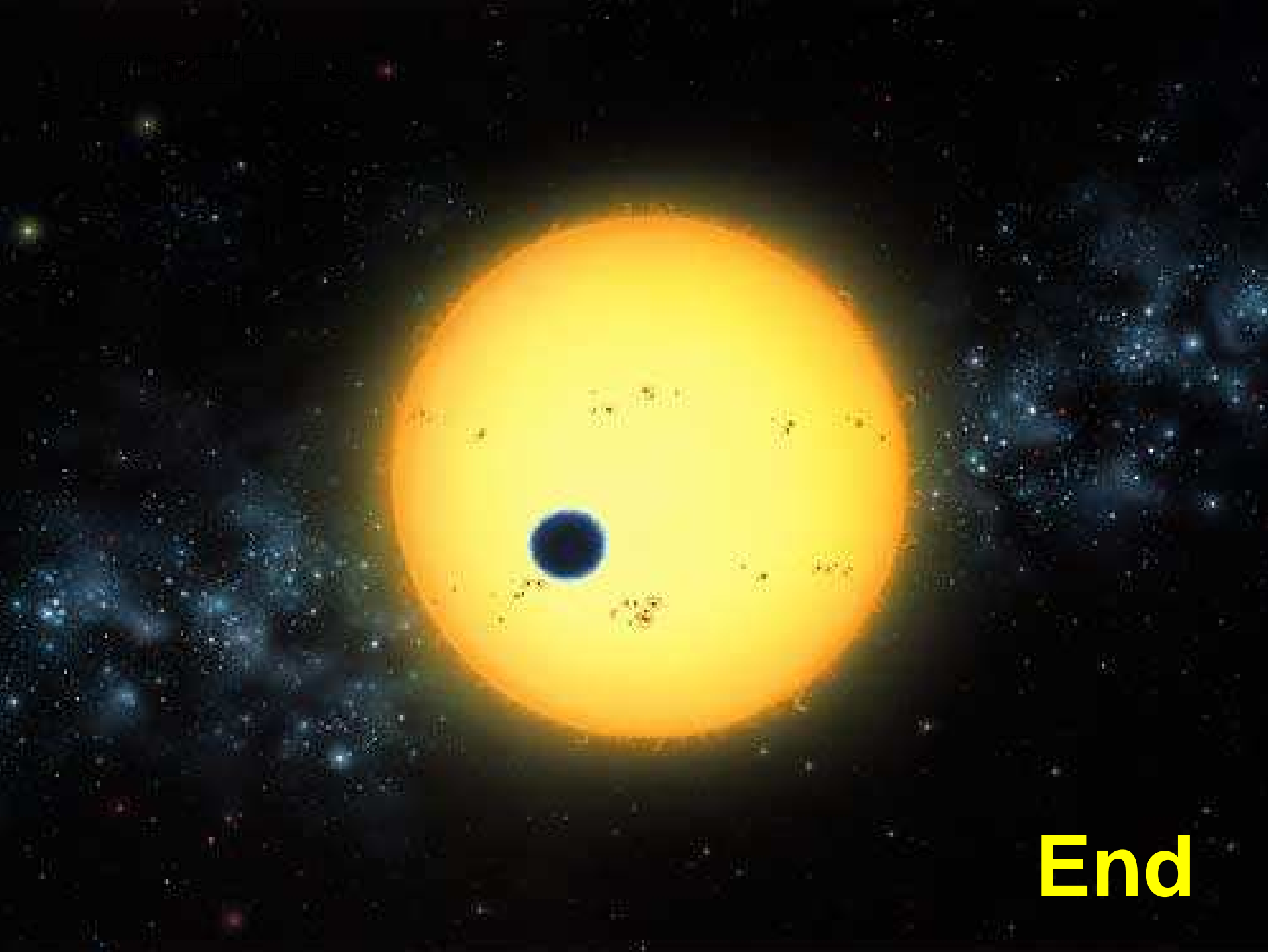
Earth-like planets

2020+

Darwin? (ESA)

Direct imaging:

Search for biomarkers



End