Exoplanets Microlensing and Transit methods

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Indirect methods of exoplanet detection: luminosity-variations-of-the-host-star

- Variations of stellar luminosity induced by the presence of an orbiting planet or planetary system
 - A light curve is built up using the variations of stellar luminosity
 - These indirect methods require a specific geometrical configuration

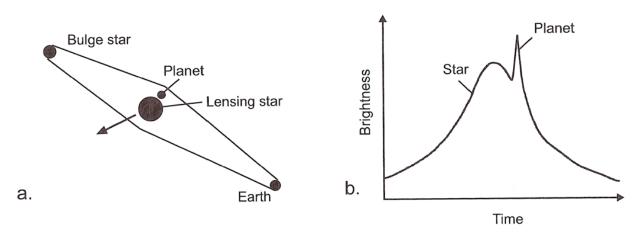
Methods

Gravitational microlensing

From the light curve of a background star physically unrelated with the planet/star system

Transit method

From the light curve of the planet's host star



May be revealed when a star-planet system crosses the visual of a background star, as a result of the relative proper motion

During the crossing, the intervening star-planet system acts as a gravitational lens for the background star

 The background star shows a temporal rise of its luminosity as a result of the gravitational lensing effect

For a suitable geometric configuration, the planet around the intervening star can intensify the lensing effect during its orbital motion

 In this case, the light curve of the background star shows an additional, transient emission peak

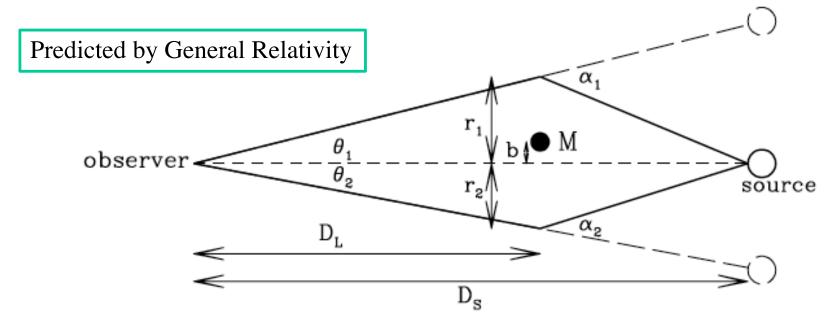


Fig. 1.1. The geometry of gravitational lens of mass, M, that is offset by a distance, b, from the line of sight to the source. The observer sees two images that are offset by angles, θ_1 and θ_2 from the line of sight to the source star.

Einstein ring radius

$$R_E \equiv heta_E D_L \equiv \sqrt{rac{4GMD_L(D_S - D_L)}{c^2 D_S}}$$
 .

Bennet (2009)

The gravitational lensing effect is maximum when $D_L \sim 0.5 D_S$

- Measurable quantities
 - Planet/star mass ratio, $q=M_p/M_*$
 - Planet-star distance, d, in units of the Einstein radius, $R_{\rm E}$

Given the mass of the lensing star and the geometric configuration of the lens (i.e. distances to the lens and source), one can determine the mass and radius of the planet

The spectrum of the intervening host star cannot be distinguished from that of the background star

The mass of the host star is estimated from the lens parameters

- The probability of finding a system with a proper geometric configuration increases with the square of the density of the background stars
 - Microlensing effects are searched for in crowded stellar fields
 - Images of the same field taken at different epochs are regularly compared to each other

The continuous coverage of a given field of the sky from ground requires an international collaboration between observatories located at different geographical longitudes

- Example of crowded field used to search for microlensing effects
 - The Galactic Bulge, located in the central region of the Milky Way
 Collaboration among observatories of the Southern hemisphere

OGLE (Optical Gravitational Lensing Experiment)

http://ogle.astrouw.edu.pl

Originally planned to discover microlensing effects due to the present of baryonic dark matter along the line of sight

Advantages

- Able to detect small-mass planets of terrestrial type
- Multiple planetary systems can be found in a single event
- In principle, one could also detect free-floating planets (i.e. planets that do not orbit a star)
- Effective to detect distant planetary systems
 The gravitational lensing effect is maximum when the lensing star lies at about half the distance between the observer and the background star
 Since the stars of the Galactic Bulge lie at several kiloparsecs, planetary systems can be found at distances of some kiloparsecs

Disadvantages

- Unique event, impossible to predict
 The planetary system cannot be investigated with follow-up observations
- The lensing, host star is not observable
 A part from the semimajor axis, orbital parameters cannot be determined

Example of gravitational microlensing

OGLE-2005-BLG-390Lb (Beaulieu et al. 2006)

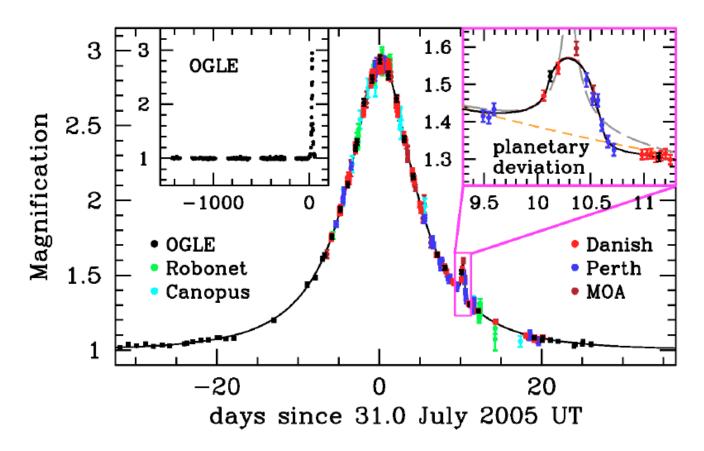
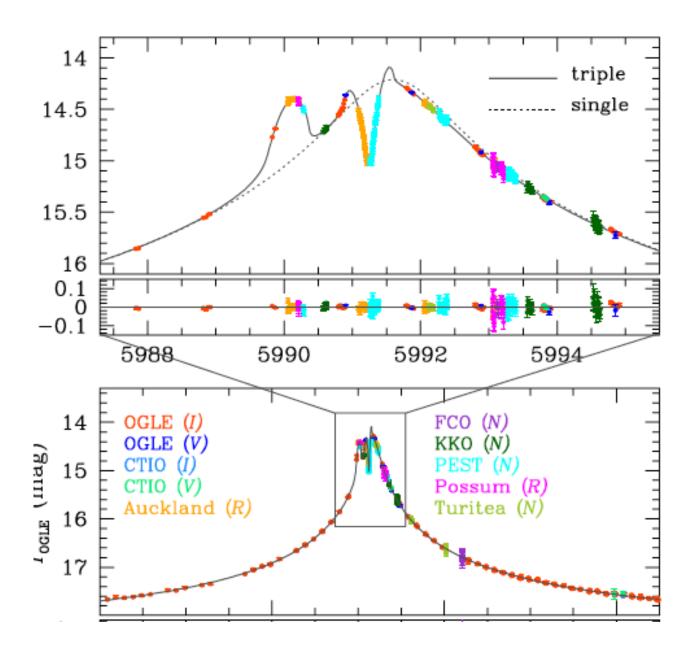


Figure 1: The observed light curve of the OGLE-2005-BLG-390 microlensing event and best fit model plotted as a function of time. The data set consists of 650 data points from PLANET Danish (ESO La Silla, red points), PLANET Perth (blue), PLANET Canopus (Hobart, cyan), RoboNet Faulkes North (Hawaii, green), OGLE (Las Campanas, black), MOA (Mt John Observatory, brown).

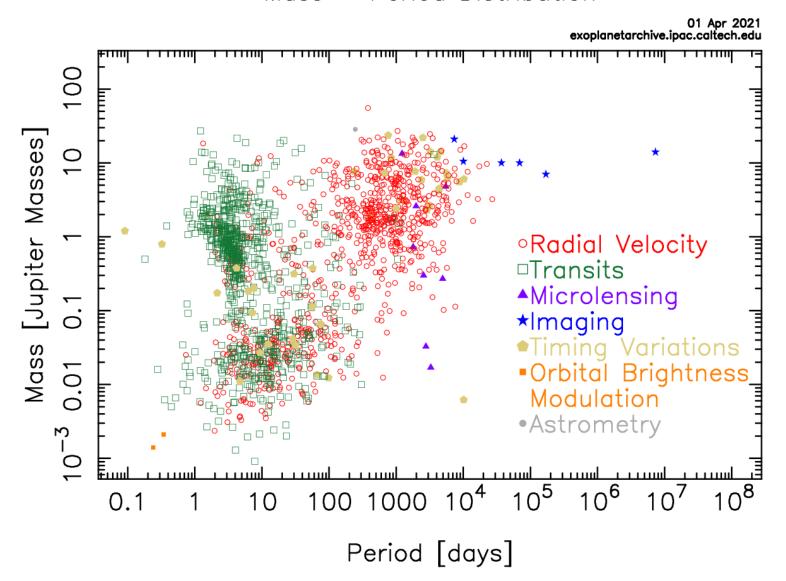
Example of planetary system discovered with the microlensing method OGLE-2012-BLG-0026Lb,c (Han et al. 2013)

Two giant planets located beyond the "snow-line"; Distance from Earth: ~ 4.1 kpc



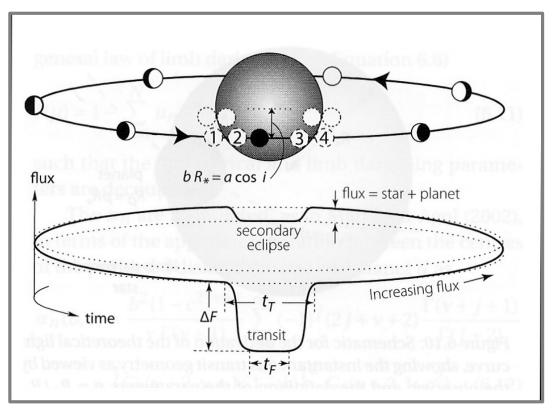
So far (April 2021), discovered 145 planets / 129 planetary systems 6 multiple planet systems with a wide range of masses

Mass - Period Distribution



Indirect methods of exoplanet detection: luminosity-variations-of-the-host-star

The transit method



If the line of sight is aligned with the orbital plane, the planet will produce a minimum in the light curve during its transit in front of the stellar disk.

The stellar light curve will show a characteristic periodic behaviour

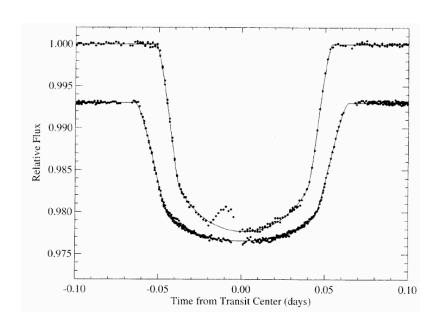
Geometric configuration: $i \approx 90^{\circ}$

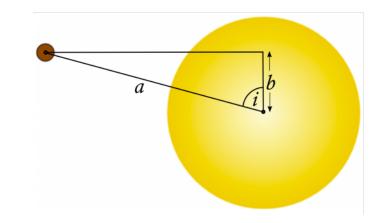
• The light curve

- The exact shape of the light curve is complex since it depends on stellar, orbital, and planetary parameters, as well as on the geometric configuration of the observation, including the impact parameter
- Impact parameter: projected

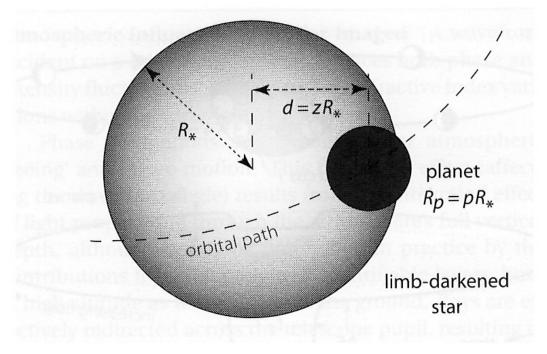
 (angular) distance between the
 planet center and the center of the
 stellar disk:

$$b = (a/R_*) \cos i$$





- Effect of the limb darkening on the light curve
 - The limb darkening refers to the drop of intensity of a stellar image moving from the center to the limb of the stellar disk
 - Combined effect of optical depth with the decreasing photospheric density and temperature with increasing distance from the center
 - The limb darkening should be taken into account to model the light curve



- Central depth of the light profile
 - Neglecting the flux emitted by the planet and limb darkening effects,
 the depth of the profile is:

$$\Delta F_r \cong (F - F_{\text{tr}}) / F = (R_p/R_*)^2$$

F: stellar flux outside the transit

 $F_{\rm tr}$: stellar flux during the transit (minimum of the light curve)

 R_p : planet radius

R*: stellar radius

- One can derive the planet radius in units of the stellar radius

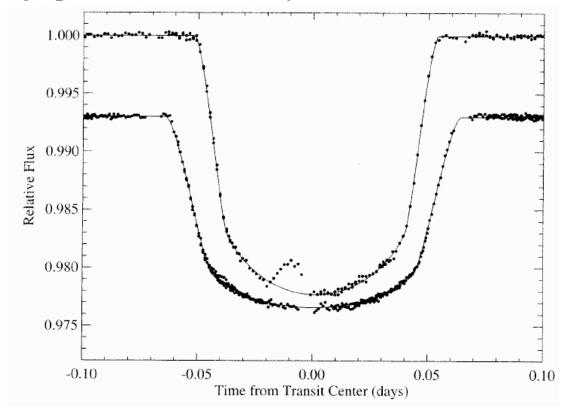
• Magnitude of the effect

Expected central depths for planets transiting a solar-type star ($R_*=R_{\odot}$)

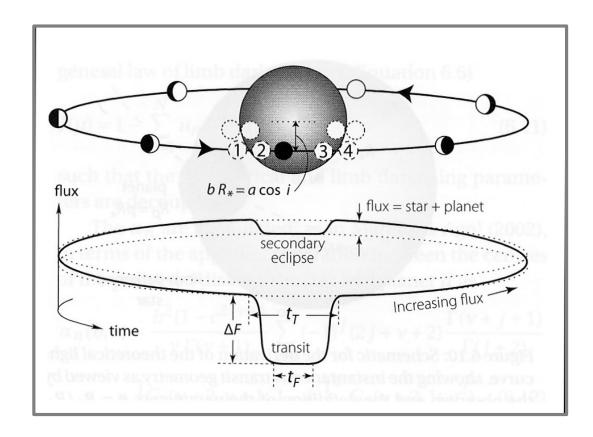
For a giant planet $R_p = R_J \Rightarrow \Delta F_r = 1\%$

For an Earth-like planet $R_p = R_{\text{Earth}} \Rightarrow \Delta F_r = 0.01\%$

Requires a high photometric accuracy



- Other parameters that can be measured from the light curve profile
 - Total duration of the transit
 interval between the first and fourth contact
 - Duration of the entrance
 interval between the first and second contact



• Transit duration

- The total transit duration, t_T , is a function of the orbital period, P, impact parameter, b, orbital inclination, i, and stellar radius, R_*
- Setting $i=90^{\circ}$ and b=0, and using a relation between stellar masses and radius, the duration of the transit for a circular orbit is numerically

$$t_{\rm T} \approx 13 \left(\frac{M_{\star}}{M_{\odot}}\right)^{-1/2} \left(\frac{a}{1\,{\rm AU}}\right)^{1/2} \left(\frac{R_{\star}}{R_{\odot}}\right) {\rm hours}$$

In the case of a solar-type star, this gives a total transit interval of ~25 h
 for a Jupiter-type orbit and 13 h for an Earth-type orbit

- From observable quantities to orbital/planetary parameters
 - The time interval between subsequent transits provides the orbital period P
 - The minimum of the light curve yields R_p/R_*
 - From an estimate of the stellar radius R_* one derives R_p
 - $-R_*$ can be derived, as usual, from the classification of the star, but can also be inferred from a parametrization of the light curve profile
 - The exact shape of the light curve at the entrance of and during the transit can be used to constrain R_* , M_* , a, R_p and $\cos i$

- Geometric probability
 - The geometric probability of detecting a planet with the transit method is proportional to R_*/a

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R_*: stellar radius; a: orbital semi-major axis
Typical value of the geometric probability:
p_{\rm geom} \sim 0.0045 \ (1 \ {\rm AU}/a) \ (R_*/R_{\odot})
Charbonneau et al. (2007)
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- Time probability
 - The probability of observing a transit at any given time scales with t_T/P , where t_T is the duration of the transit phase

For an Earth-type orbit $\sim 13 \text{ h/}365 \text{ d} \sim 0.001$

Selection effects

- The transit signal increases with $(R_p/R_*)^2$ Easier to find large planets orbiting small stars
- Number of detections biased by the geometrical probability $p_{\text{geom}} \sim R_*/a$ Easier to find planets with small semi-major axis (short periods) Extremely difficult to find planets at distances larger di 5 - 10 AU

Also the <u>time probability</u> favours detections of planets with short orbital periods

These selection effects reinforce the bias due to the temporal baseline of the observations

Relatively easy to find giant planets close to the host star as an example, "hot-Jupiters"

Transit method: observational requirements

- Large surveys
 - To cope with the low geometrical probability, it is necessary to monitor the light curves of a large number of stars (>> 10^3)
- Continuous monitoring
 - A long term, <u>continuous</u> monitoring is required in order not to miss the transit event

Ground based observations require international collaborations between observatories located at different geographical longitudes

The advantage of ground-based surveys is the possibility of covering the whole sky

Example: WASP (Wide Angle Search for Planets)

The continuous temporal coverage is more effectively performed from space, but on more limited fields of the sky

Examples: satellites CoRot and Kepler

Transit method: false positives

- Problem of the false positives
 - due to the presence of eclipsing binaries that may lie in the background, in the same direction of the host star
- Need of follow-up programs
 - Doppler method is the safest way to confirm candidates
 However, the star should be sufficiently brilliant to perform high resolution spectroscopy (problem for Kepler targets)
- Search for stellar binaries
 - With adaptive optics

However, in the worst scenario, the eclipsing binary could be perfectly aligned with the star that hosts the planet

With the spectroscopic method

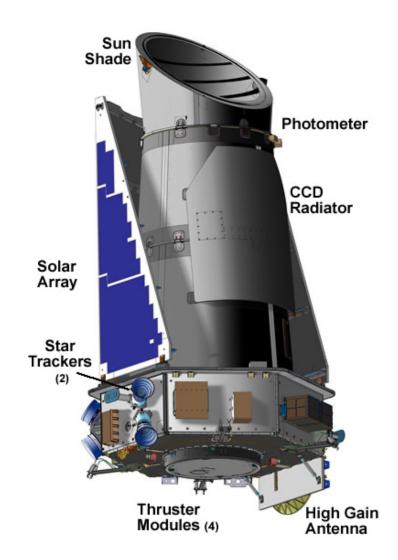
Eclipsing binaries can be discovered from the analysis of high resolution spectra, where they produce a characteristic splitting of the stellar lines, which varies according to the binary orbital period

Kepler mission

http://kepler.nasa.gov

- The photometer on board of the Kepler satellite was designed to detect the transit of a terrestrial planet in front of a solar-type star with magnitude V=12 at 4 σ level in 6.5 hours of integration
- The mission was planned to continuosly cover a field with 10⁵ main sequence stars up to magnitude 14 during 4 years
- Updated tables of the orbital/planetary parameters

http://kepler.nasa.gov/Mission/discoveries/



Tess mission

https://heasarc.gsfc.nasa.gov/docs/tess/

- The Transiting Exoplanet Survey Satellite (TESS) is a NASA mission that is performing an all-sky survey to search for planets transiting nearby stars
- The primary goal of TESS is to discover planets smaller than Neptune that transit stars bright enough to enable follow-up spectroscopic observations that can provide planet masses and atmospheric compositions



So far (April 2021), discovered 3414 planets in 2563 planetary systems
553 multiple planetary systems

Broad ranges of planetary masses, but the number drops with increasing period

Mass - Period Distribution

