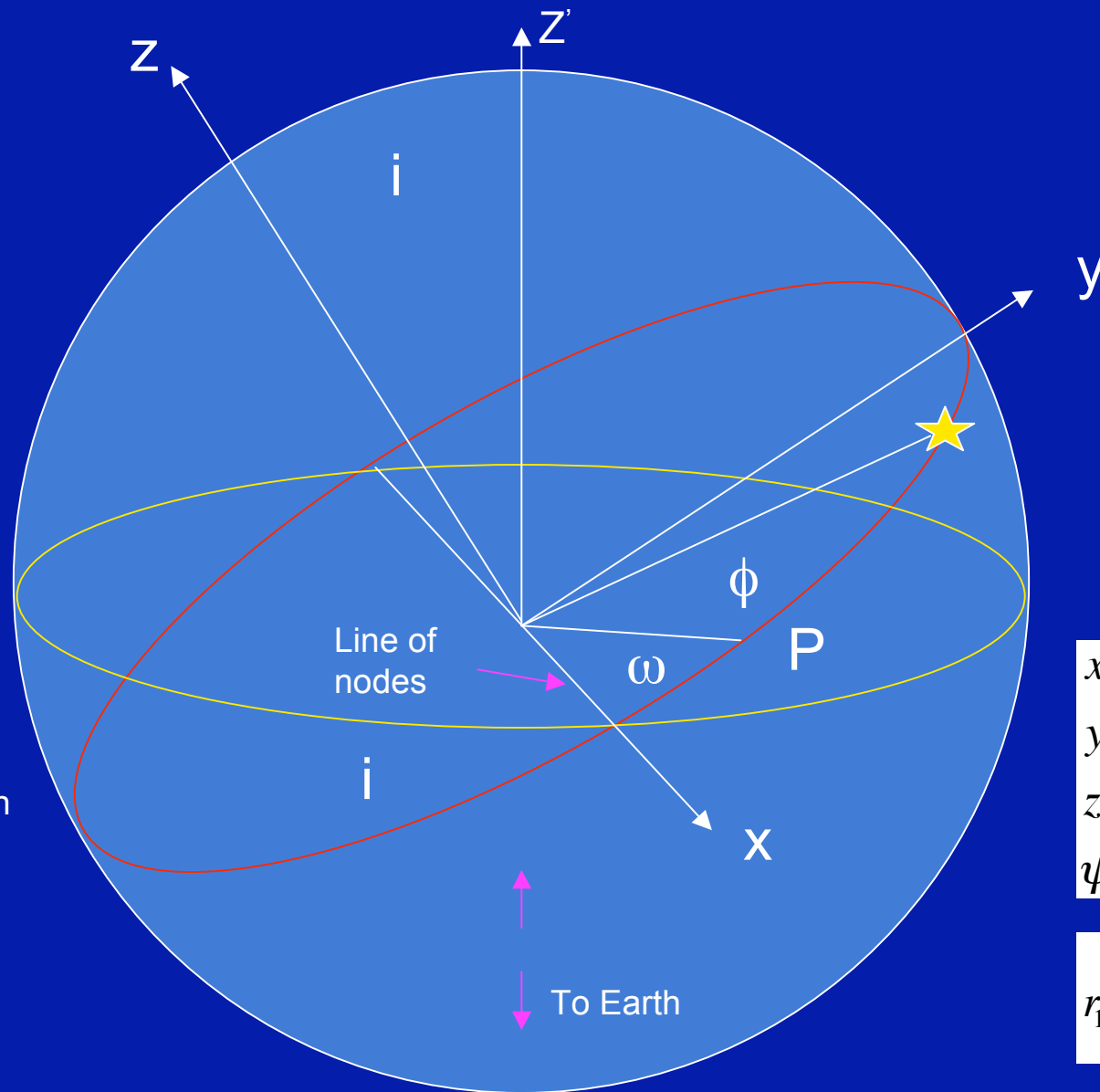


Doppler spectroscopy and astrometry

Theory and practice of planetary orbit
measurements

Geometry of a binary orbit



i - orbital inclination
 ω - longitude of periastron
 ϕ - true anomaly
 P - periastron

$$\begin{aligned}
 x &= r_1 \cos \psi \\
 y &= r_1 \sin \psi \\
 z &= r_1 \sin \psi \sin i \\
 \psi &= \omega + \phi
 \end{aligned}$$

$$r_1 = \frac{a_1(1 - e^2)}{1 + e \cos \phi}$$

Orbital elements

A binary orbit is defined by 7 elements:

- Size: $a = a_1 + a_2 \rightarrow$ semi-major axes of the orbits
- Shape: $e \rightarrow$ eccentricity
- Orientation in space: i, ω, Ω (longitude of periastron)
- “Location” in time: $T \rightarrow$ time of periastron passage, $P \rightarrow$ orbital period
- In Doppler spectroscopy, five orbital elements (a_1, e, ω, P, T) can be determined from radial velocity measurements of one binary companion

Determination of radial velocities

Radial velocity, V_r , is a time derivative of a component of the radius vector along the z-axis:

$$V_r = \dot{z} = \sin i [\dot{r} \sin(\theta + \omega) + r \dot{\theta} \cos(\theta + \omega)]$$

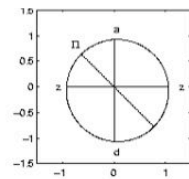
Time derivatives of r i θ can be computed from the equation of elliptical motion and from the 2nd Kepler Law:

$$\dot{r} = \frac{e \sin \theta r \dot{\theta}}{1 + e \cos \theta}$$

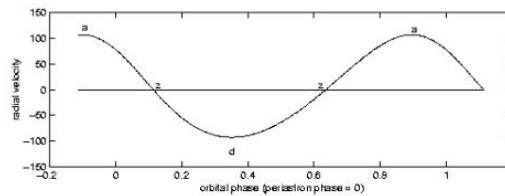
$$r^2 \dot{\theta} = \frac{2\pi a^2 (1 - e^2)^{1/2}}{P}$$

$$V_r = \frac{2\pi a \sin i}{P \sqrt{1 - e^2}} [\cos(\theta + \omega) + e \cos(\omega)]$$

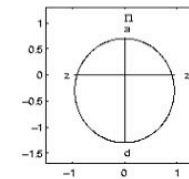
Examples of radial velocity curves



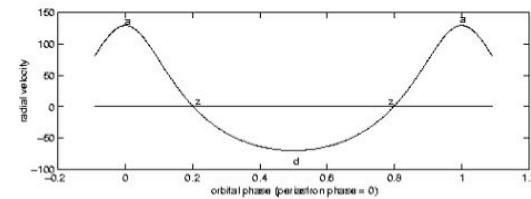
to the observer -->



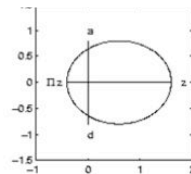
$e = 0.1, w = 45^\circ$



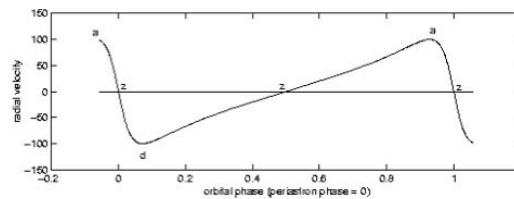
Less time near periastron



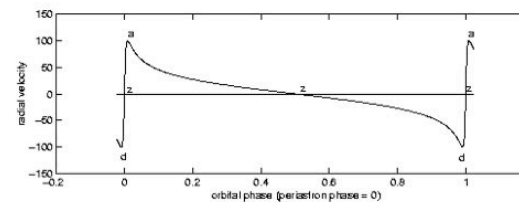
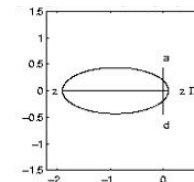
$e = 0.3, w = 0^\circ$



Max /Min velocity at ascending/descending nodes



• $e = 0.6, w = 90^\circ$



• $e = 0.9, w = 270^\circ$

Models of orbits from V_r measurements

- Observations are given in the form of a time series, $V_r(i)$, at epochs $t(i)$, $i = 1, \dots, n$
- A transition from $t(i)$ to $\Theta(i)$ is accomplished in two steps:

$$E - e \sin E = \frac{2\pi}{P}(t - T)$$



Equation for
mean anomaly, E

$$\tan\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) = \left(\frac{1+e}{1-e}\right)^{1/2} \tan\left(\frac{E}{2}\right)$$

$$V_r = K(\cos(\theta + \omega) + e \cos \omega)$$

$$K = \frac{2\pi a_1 \sin i}{P\sqrt{1-e^2}}$$

- From the fit (least squares, etc.), one determines parameters K, e, ω, T, P

Planetary mass determination

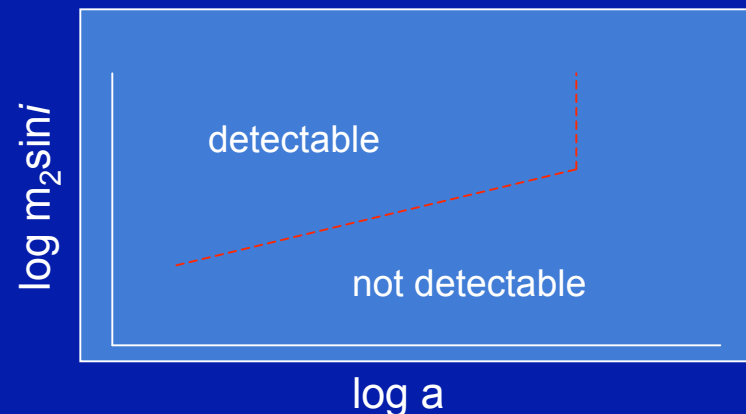
- From $K = (V_{\max} - V_{\min})/2$ we get:

$$a_1 \sin i = \frac{\sqrt{1 - e^2}}{2\pi} KP$$

- A planetary mass (times $\sin i$) is found by assuming that the mass of the star is known:

$$f(m_2) = \frac{m_2^3 \sin^3 i}{M^2} = \frac{(1 - e^2)^{3/2} K^3 P}{2\pi G}$$

For a fixed amplitude V_r
 $m_2 \sin i \sim a^{1/2}$

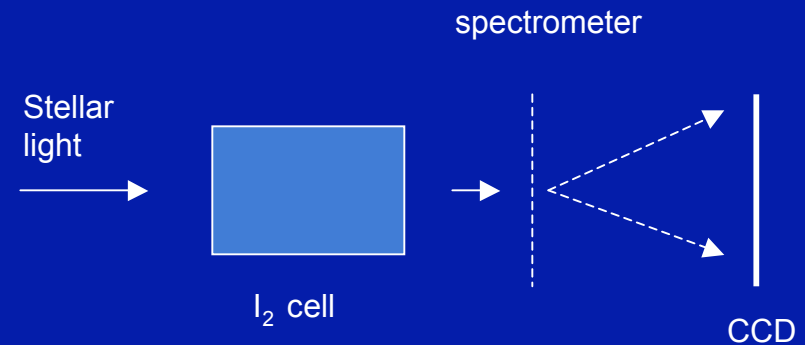


Applicability and limitations of Doppler spectroscopy

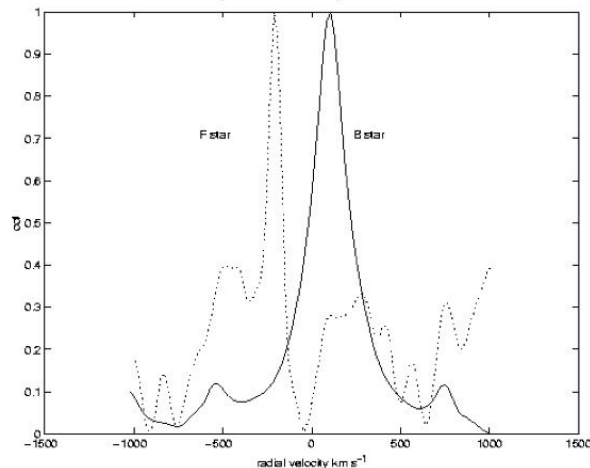
- The methods allows determination of 5 out of 7 parameters of the orbit projected onto the sky plane. Without an independent measurement of i , one gets only a lower limit to the mass of the planet
- Ability to measure very small changes of V_r are necessary (e.g. Jupiter - $12,5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$, Earth - $0,1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$, a spectrometer with the resolution of $R=10^5$ allows to measure V_r on the order of $10^{-5}c \sim \text{a few km s}^{-1}$)
- Photon noise (uncertainty of flux estimate $\sim N^{-1/2}/\text{pixel}$) provides an absolute limit of the precision of V_r measurement
- Measurements of large numbers of lines improves the signal-to-noise ratio, $(S/N) \sim (\# \text{ of lines})^{1/2}$, S/N depends on the spectral type of star
- For a G star with $V=8$, $S/N \sim 200$ can be achieved with a 3-m telescope. This gives a theoretical V_r precision $\sim 1\text{-}3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$
- Another practical precision limitation results from stellar activity. This problem can be controlled to some extent by modeling. Currently attainable precision is $\sim 3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ (Saturn mass for G-stars 10-20 masses of Neptune for K,M dwarfs)

Calibration, analysis and examples of V_r curves

- Modern observing hardware and techniques of spectral analysis allow V_r measurements at a $\sim 10^{-3}$ pixel precision
- Analysis is done by cross-correlating the spectra with high-S/N templates, the use of many spectral lines, and by accurate calibration with I_2 cells installed in the optical path of the telescope

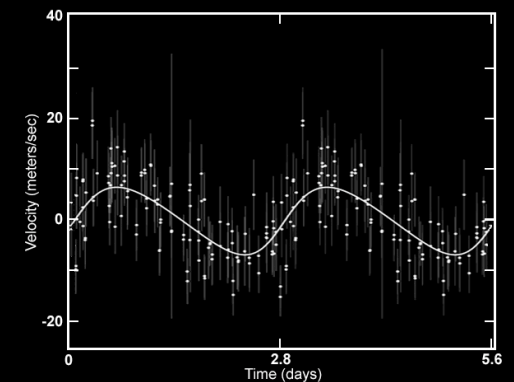
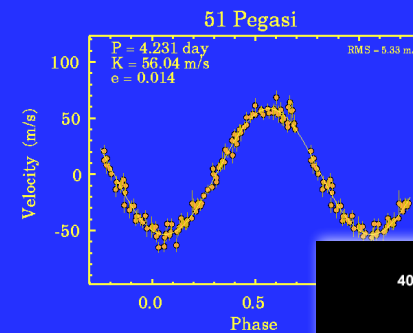


Cross-correlate with
template spectra

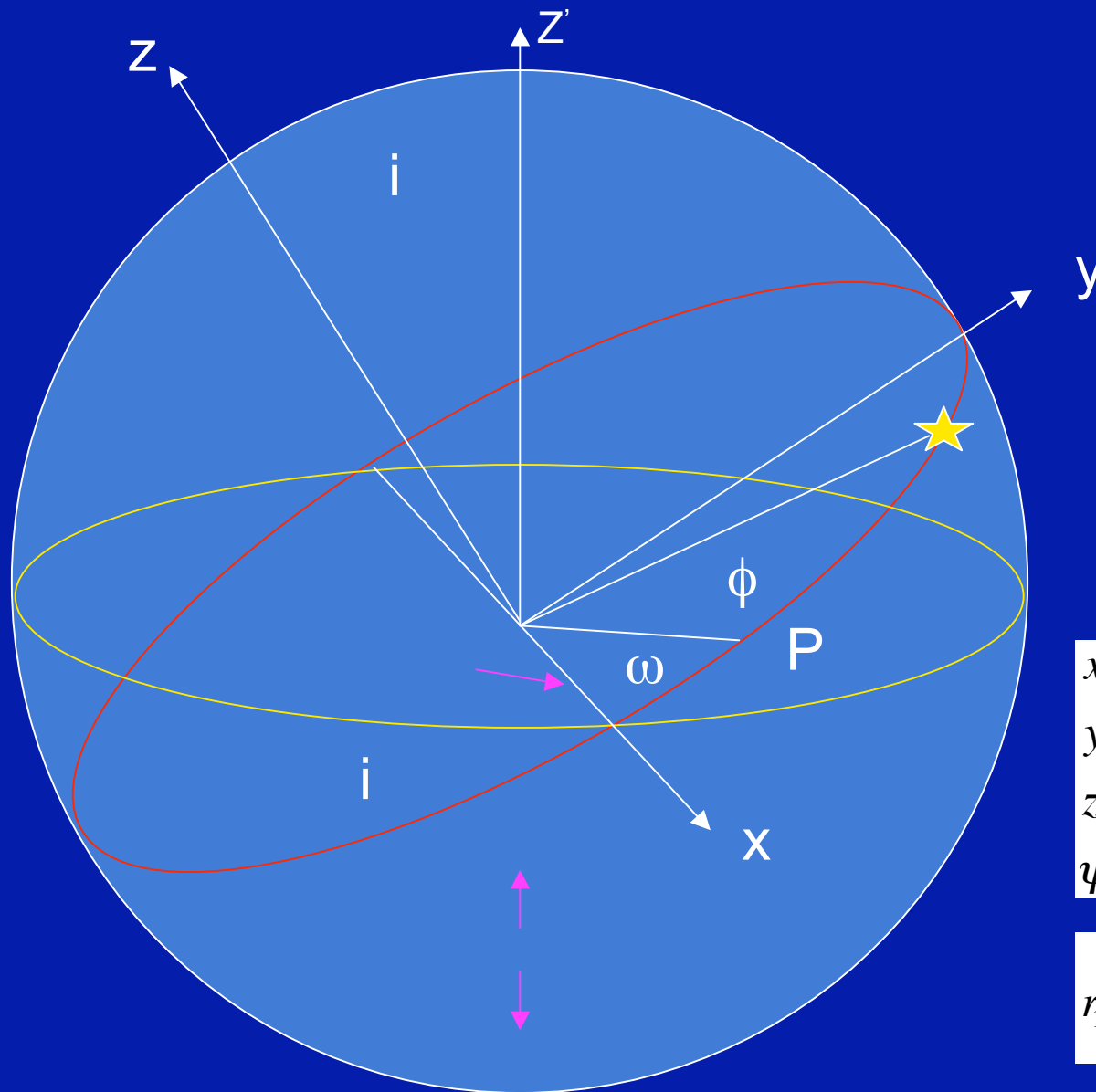


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Binary Stars and Accretion Disks



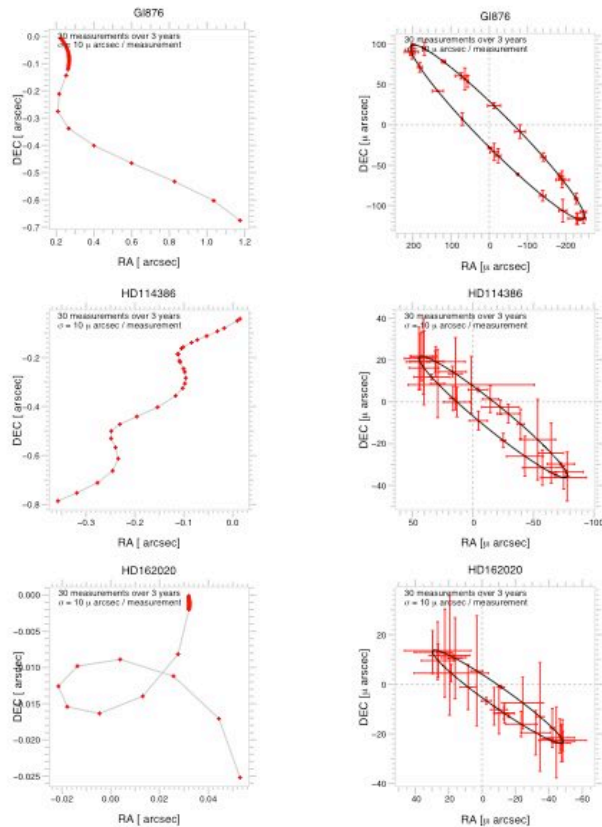
Astrometry



$$\begin{aligned}x &= r_1 \cos \psi \\y &= r_1 \sin \psi \\z &= r_1 \sin \psi \sin i \\\psi &= \omega + \phi\end{aligned}$$

$$r_1 = \frac{a_1(1 - e^2)}{1 + e \cos \phi}$$

Astrometry: basic characteristics - I



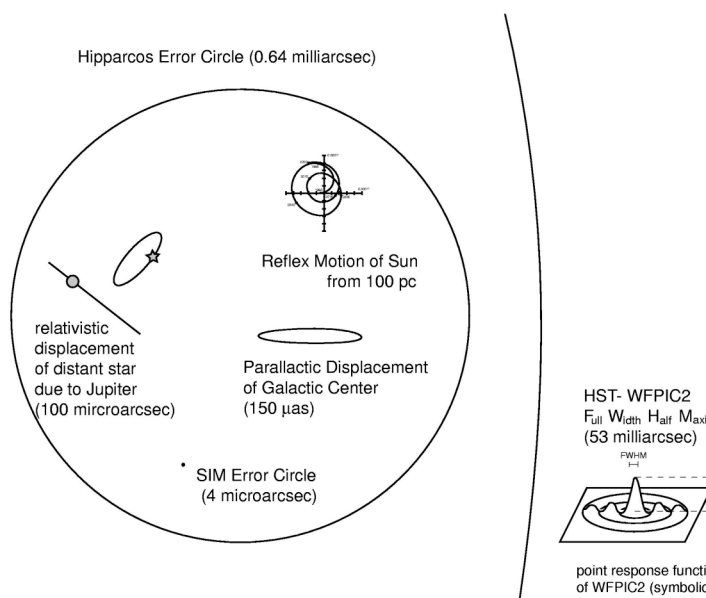
Examples of measurements and orbits

- Astrometry measures stellar positions and uses them to determine a binary orbit projected onto the plane of the sky
- Astrometry measures all 7 parameters of the orbit
- In analysis, one has to take the proper motion and the stellar parallax into account
- The measured amplitude of the orbital motion is simply $a_1 = (m_2/m_1)a$. Assuming $m_2 \ll m_1$ we have:

$$\Delta\theta = \left[\frac{m_2}{m_1} \right] \left[\frac{a}{d} \right]$$

Astrometry: basic characteristics - II

A comparison of some astrometry situations



Taking $q=m_2/m_1$, we can calibrate the expression for $\Delta\theta$:

$$\Delta\theta = 0.5 \left(\frac{q}{10^{-3}} \right) \left(\frac{a}{5AU} \right) \left(\frac{d}{10pc} \right)^{-1}$$

- A unit for $\Delta\theta$ is one millisecond of arc - very small effect
- Amplitude of the effect depends directly on d
- Dependence of m_2 on a is opposite to that in Doppler spectroscopy

