

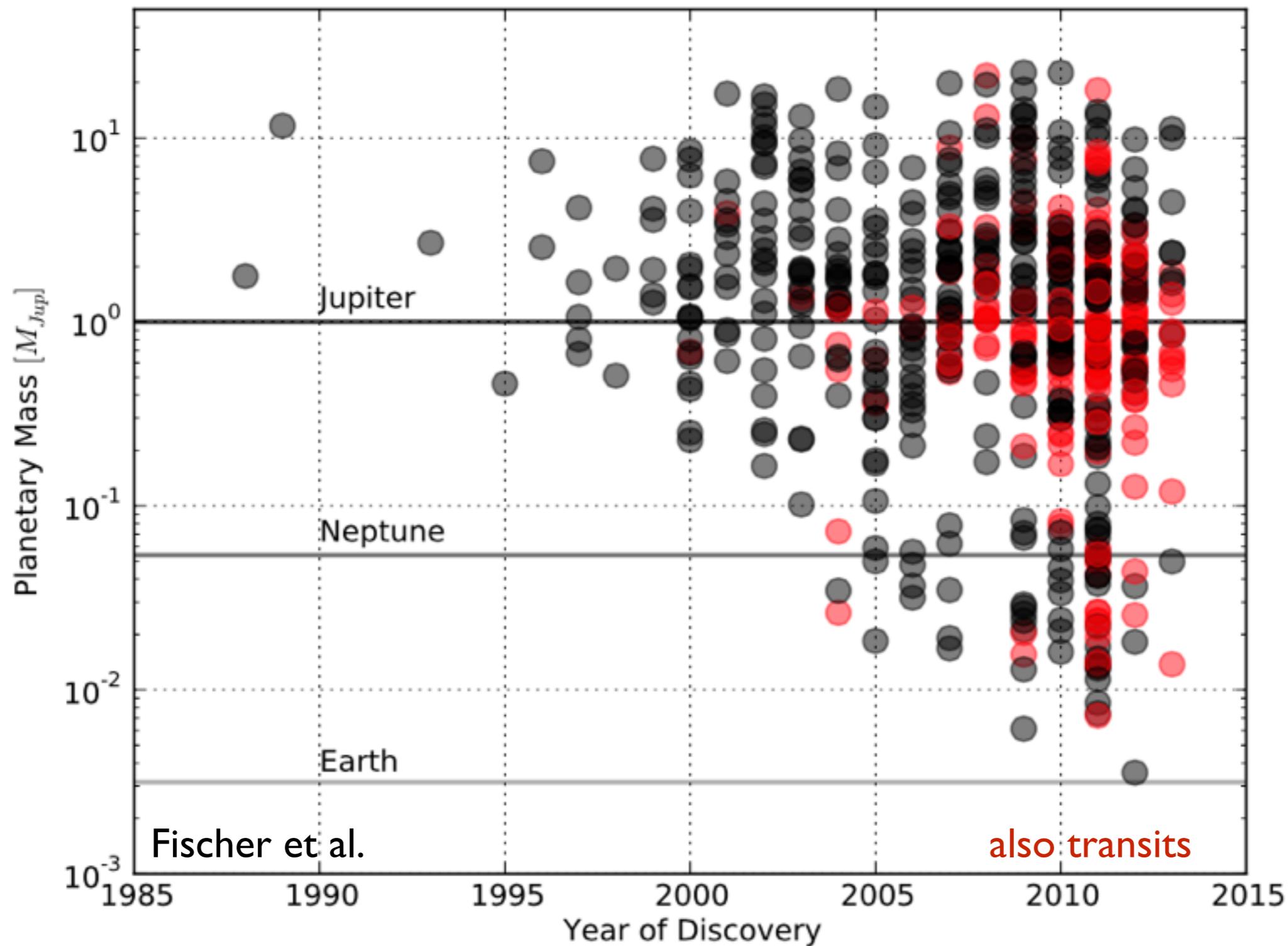
Reading list ...

- Fischer et al. chapter in PPVI, *Exoplanet Detection Techniques*
- Chapter 2 in Exoplanets (Fischer & Lovis)
pg 27 - 53. (RV method)
- Wright 2018 (chapter in 2018 Handbook)

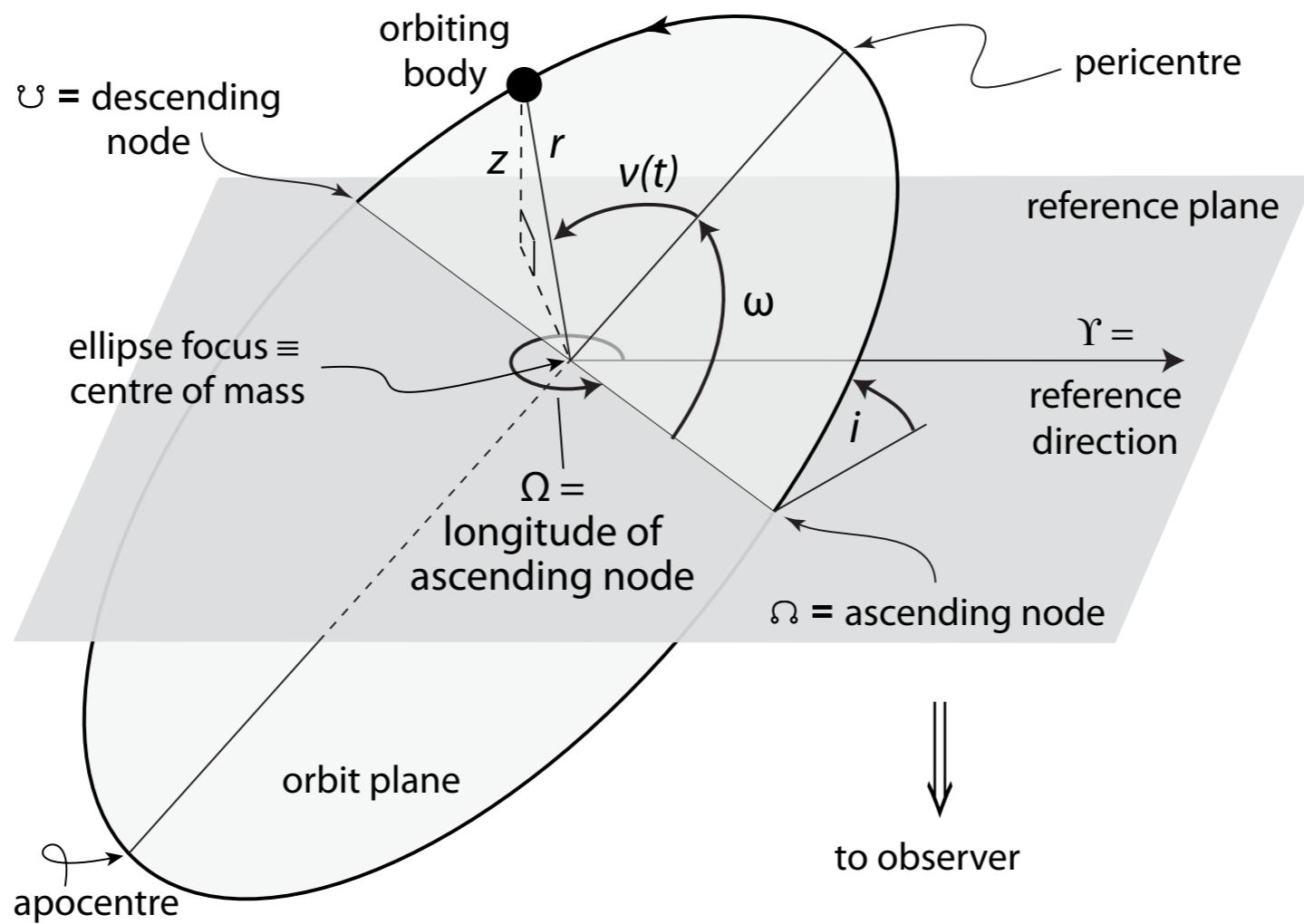
Radial Velocity (RV) Detection:

- Early 20th century RV precision \sim 1 km/s
- By late 80s / early 90s ---> 10 m/s (3 m/s by 1995, detection of 51 Peg b)
- By 2005, \sim 1 m/s.

RV discoveries (up to 2014)

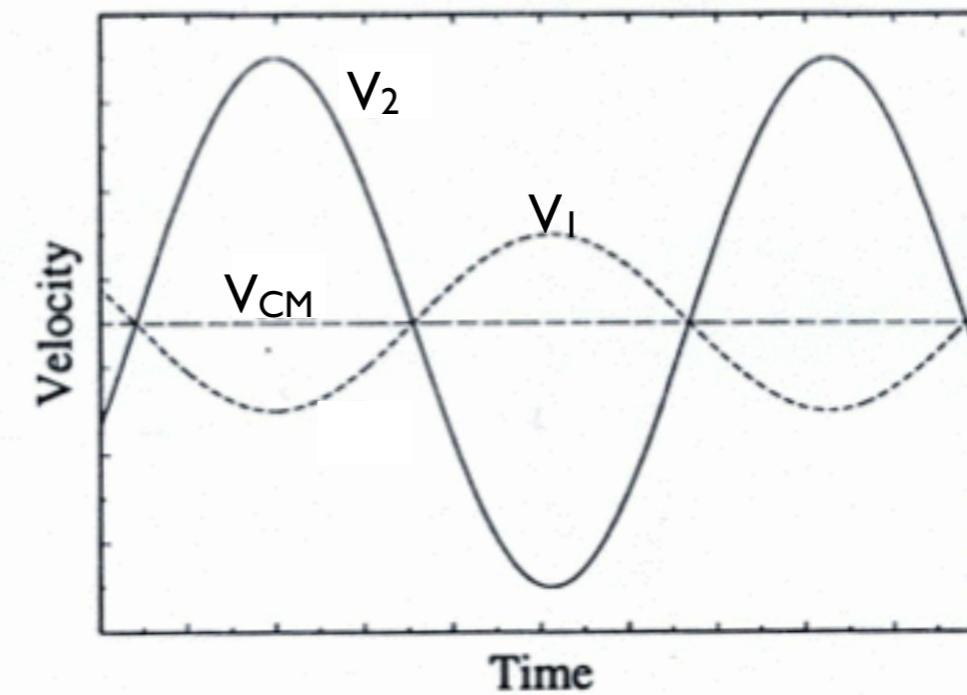
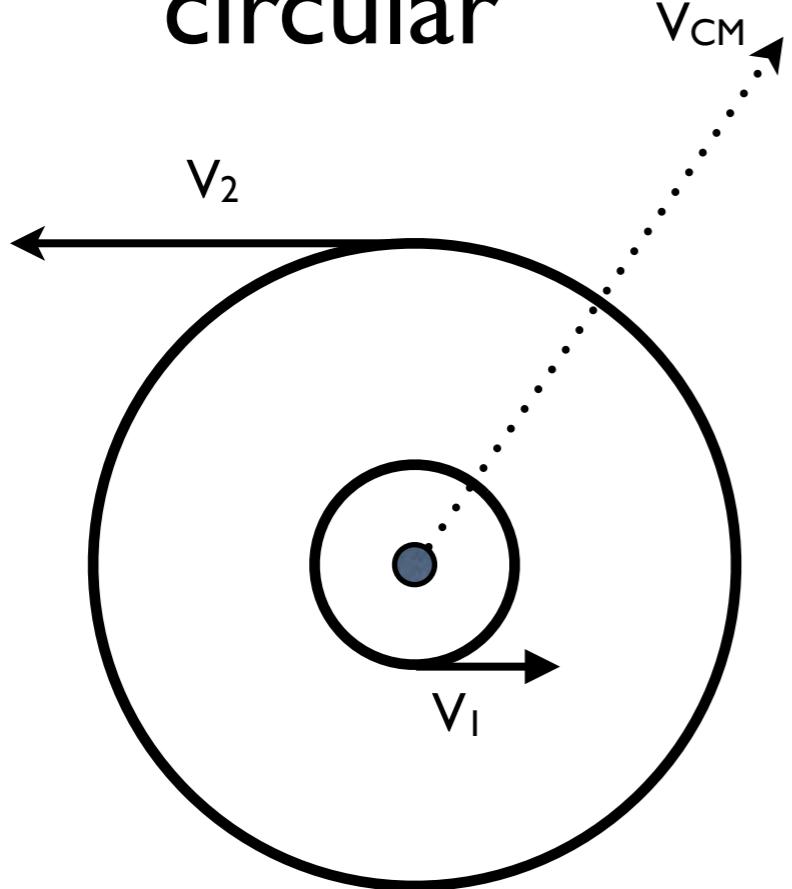


General orientation of orbit:



reference plane tangent to celestial sphere

circular



1. $V_1 = \frac{2\pi a_1}{P}$ and $V_2 = \frac{2\pi a_2}{P}$

2. $M_1 a_1 = M_2 a_2$

3. $\frac{M_1}{M_2} = \frac{V_2}{V_1} = \frac{V_2 \sin(i)}{V_1 \sin(i)} = \frac{V_{2,rad}}{V_{1,rad}}$

$$4. \quad a = a_1 + a_2 = \frac{P}{2\pi}(V_1 + V_2)$$

$$5. \quad M_1 + M_2 = \frac{4\pi^2}{G} \frac{a^3}{P^2}$$

$1 \rightarrow \star$ and $2 \rightarrow p$ ($M\star >> m_p$)

$$7. \quad m_p^3 \simeq \frac{P}{2\pi G} \left(\frac{V_{\star,rad}}{\sin(i)} \right)^3 M_{\star}^2$$

...



unknowns

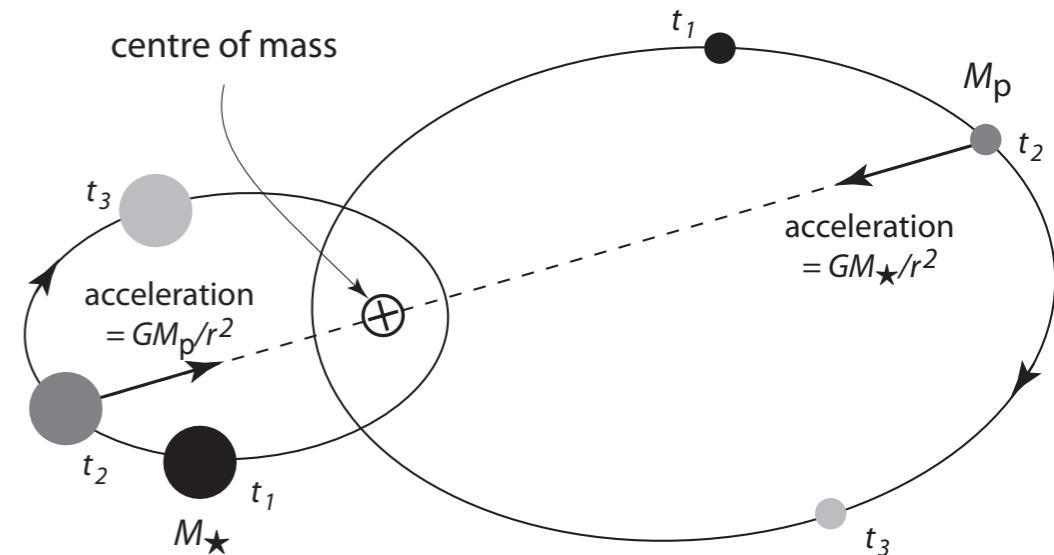
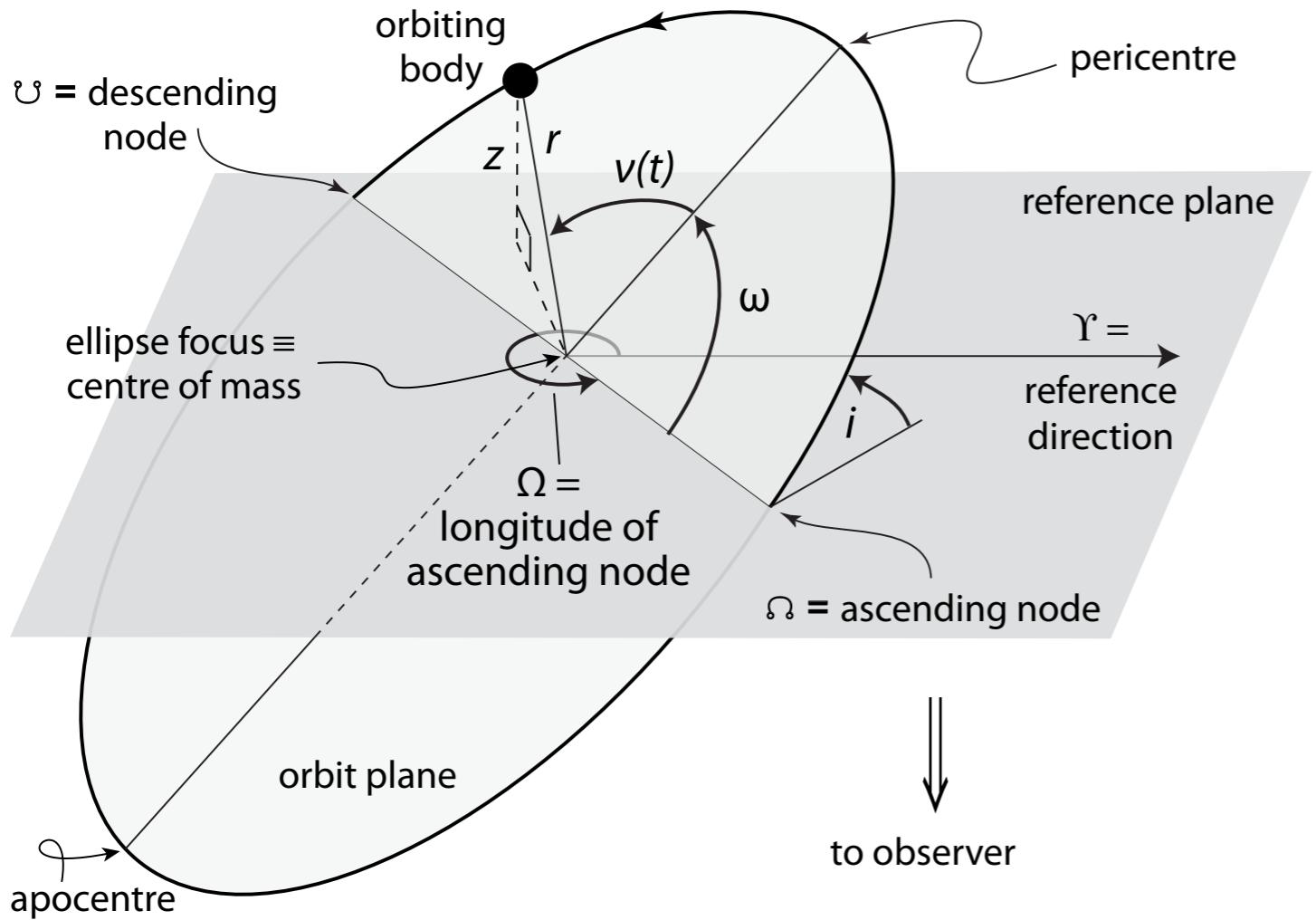
$$m_p^3 \simeq \frac{P}{2\pi G} \left(\frac{V_{\star,rad}}{\sin(i)} \right)^3 M_{\star}^2$$

Still the
circular ($e = 0$) case

Usually express the observable (RV semi-amplitude) K as function of P (or a), $M_p \sin(i)$, M_{\star} .

$$K_{\star} = 28.4 \text{ms}^{-1} \left(\frac{P}{1 \text{yr}} \right)^{-1/3} \left(\frac{M_p \sin(i)}{M_J} \right) \left(\frac{M_{\star}}{M_{\odot}} \right)^{-2/3}$$

K is directly proportional to $M_p \sin(i)$.



$$v_{r,\star} = K(\cos(\omega + \nu)) + e \cos(\omega)$$

(rad. vel. semi-amplitude)

$$K = (v_{r,max} - v_{r,min})/2$$

note: reference plane tangent to celestial sphere

systemic vel. +
“systematics”

$$v_{r,\star} = K(\cos(\omega + \nu)) + e \cos(\omega)) + (\gamma + d(t))$$

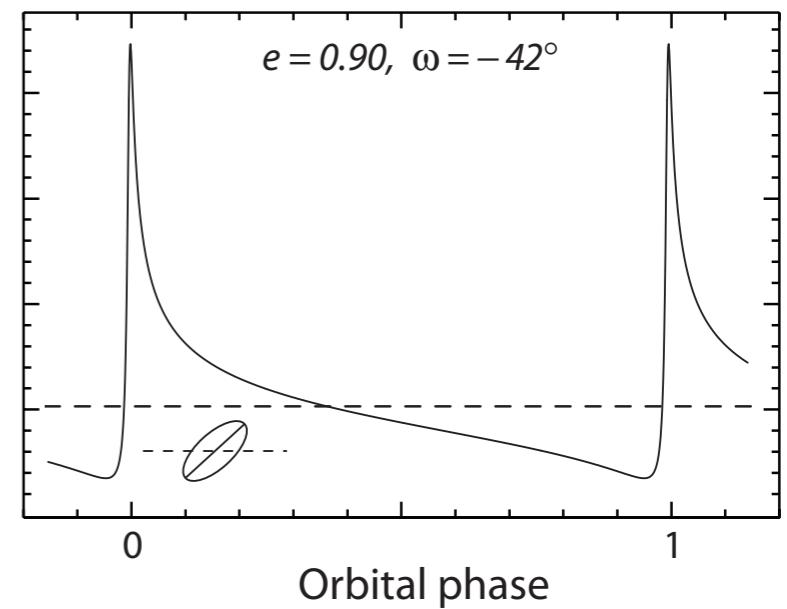
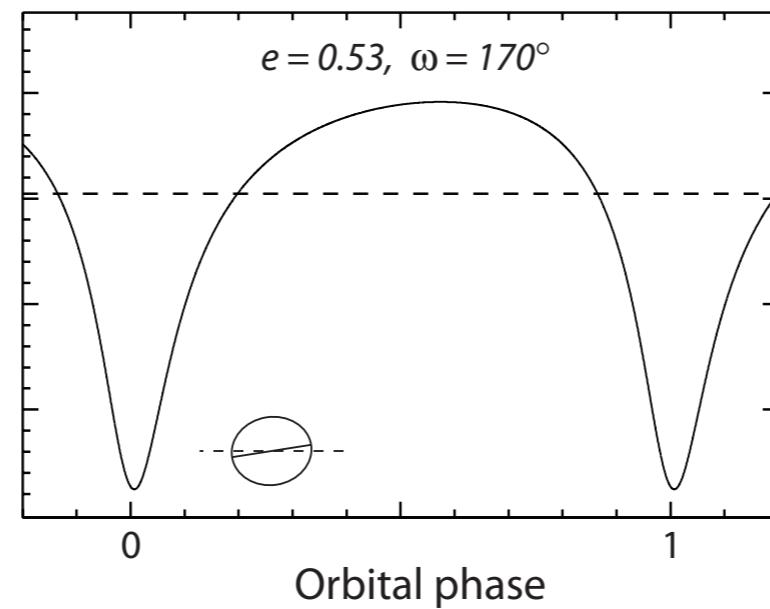
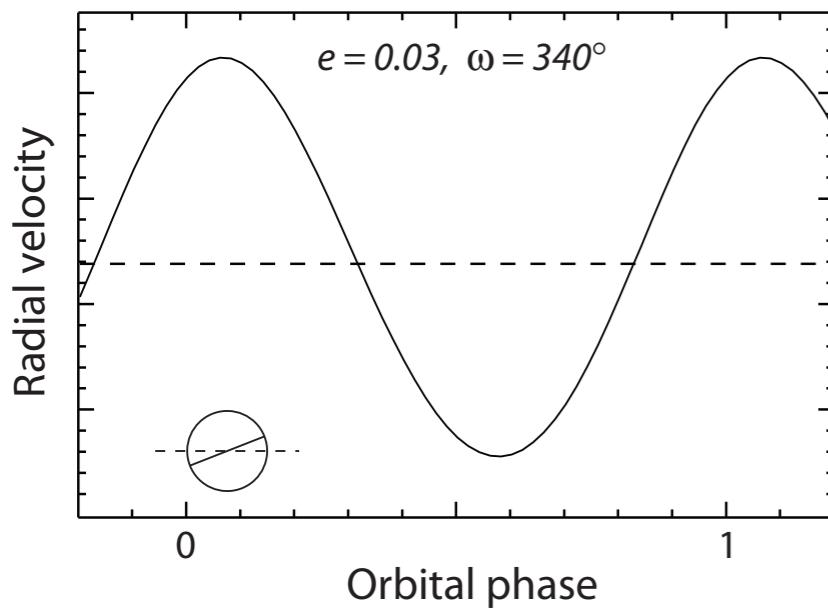
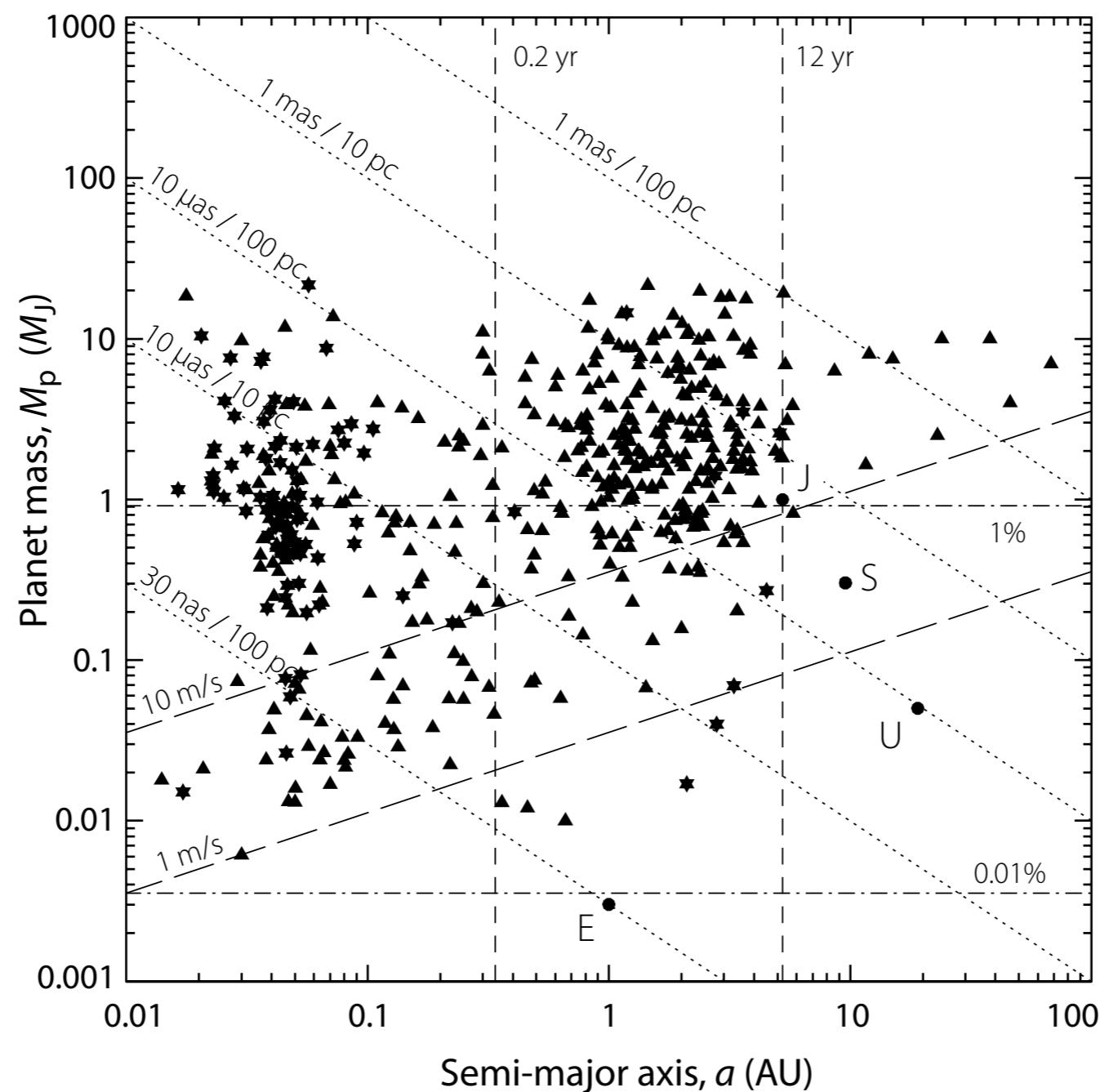


TABLE 1. Radial velocity signals for different kinds of planets orbiting a solar-mass star.

Planet	a (AU)	K_1 ($m\ s^{-1}$)
Jupiter	0.1	89.8
Jupiter	1.0	28.4
Jupiter	5.0	12.7
Neptune	0.1	4.8
Neptune	1.0	1.5
Super Earth ($5\ M_{\oplus}$)	0.1	1.4
Super Earth ($5\ M_{\oplus}$)	1.0	0.45
Earth	0.1	0.28
Earth	1.0	0.09



detection limits obtained from earlier equations.

minimum mass $m_p \sin(i)$

- If planetary systems are randomly oriented (i between 0 and 90°):

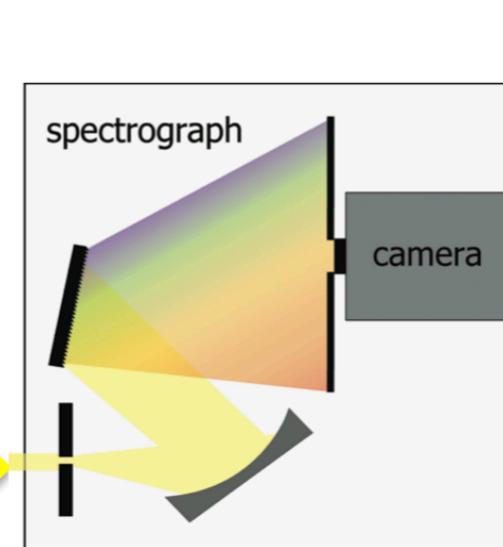
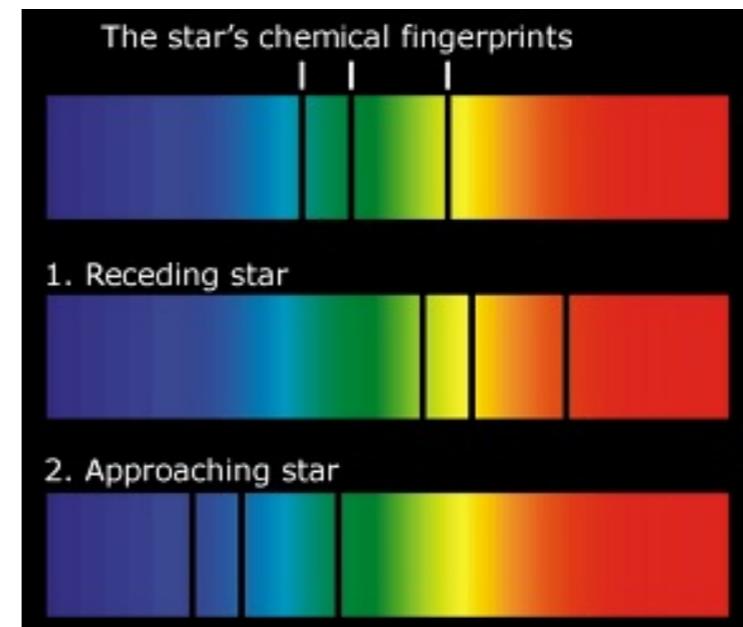
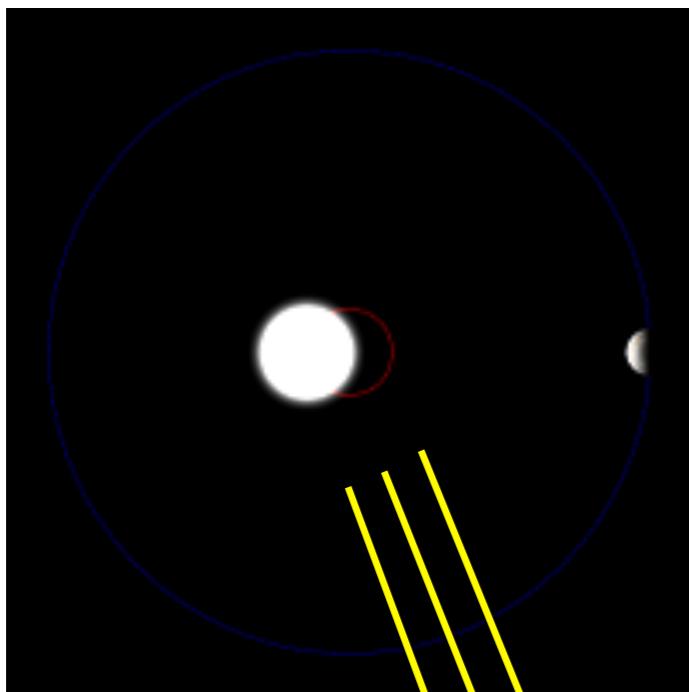
Average of $\sin(i) = 2/\pi \sim 0.6$

- probability of i being between two values:

$$P = |\cos(i_2) - \cos(i_1)|$$

- 87% chance that $m_p \sin(i)$ is within a factor of 2 of actual m_p

Measuring RVs (basic idea)



Doppler Shift

relativistic part is grav. potential (at the observer) and this changes over a year due to earth's eccentricity.

- the usual beta^2 part is the $1 - v^2/c^2$ part

$$\lambda = \lambda_0 \frac{1 + \frac{1}{c} \hat{k} \cdot \vec{v}_{obs}}{1 - \frac{\Phi_{obs}}{c^2} - \frac{v_{obs}^2}{2c^2}}$$

Relativistic terms are usually ignored. However, they can vary by ~ 0.1 m/s over a year (Earth's orbit).

$$\lambda = \lambda_0 \left(1 + \frac{v}{c}\right)$$

note: vel. > 0 for motion away from observer

- must correct for Earth's motion (barycentric correction)
- This requires precise clocking of observations (including precise knowledge of where your telescope is located).

Measuring RVs (basic idea)

You must have a reference spectrum to determine the wavelength calibration.

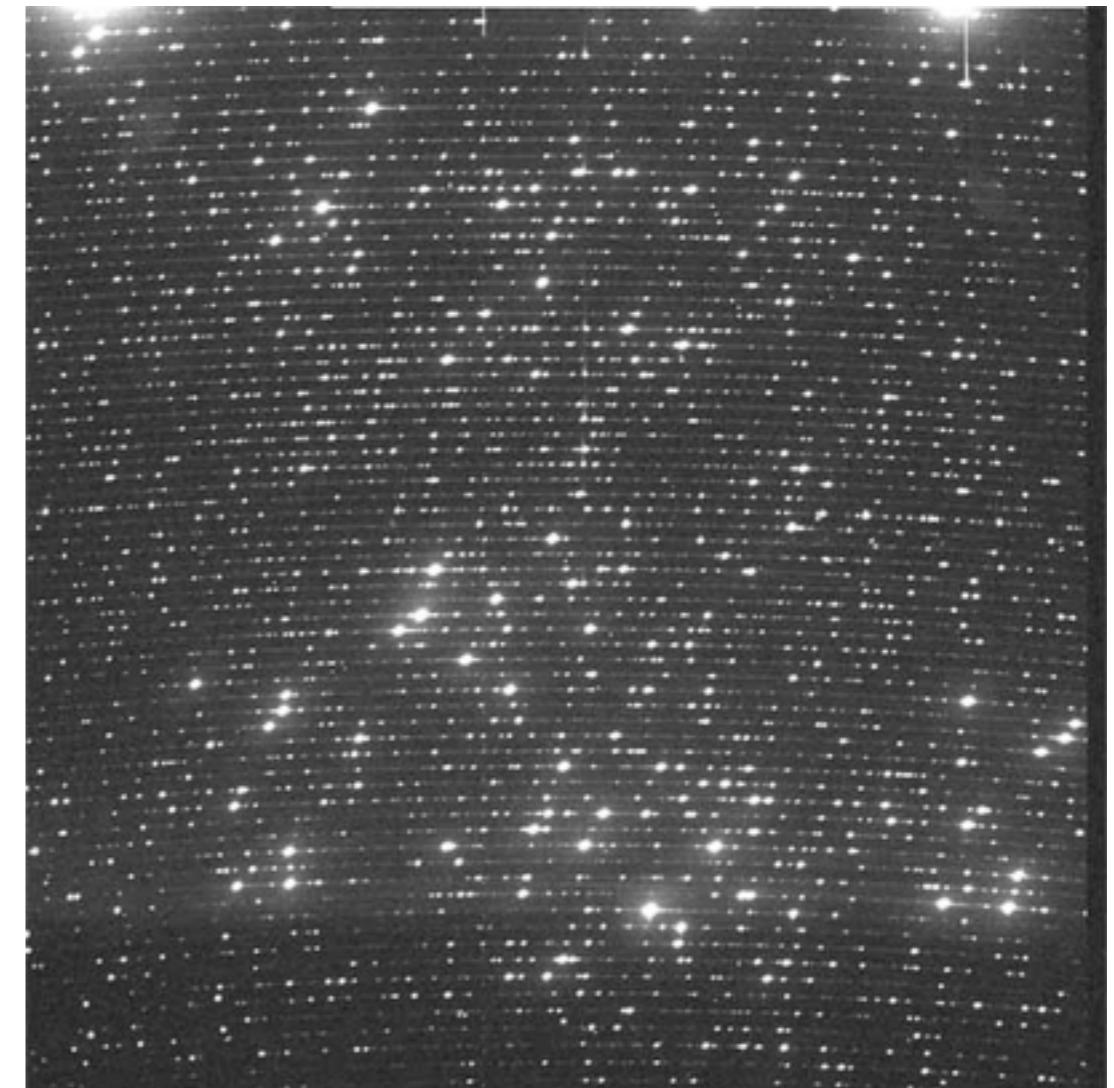
- use telluric lines (Griffin & Griffin, 1973)
- gas-cell (Walker & Campbell, 1979, HF), Iodine is the modern choice. HIRES/Keck
- simultaneous references spectrum, Thorium-argon lamp (lamp + star spectrum recorded simultaneously) ELODIE, SOPHIE,CORALIE, HARPS
- other “fancy” methods ...

cross-dispersed echelle spectrograph

wavelength

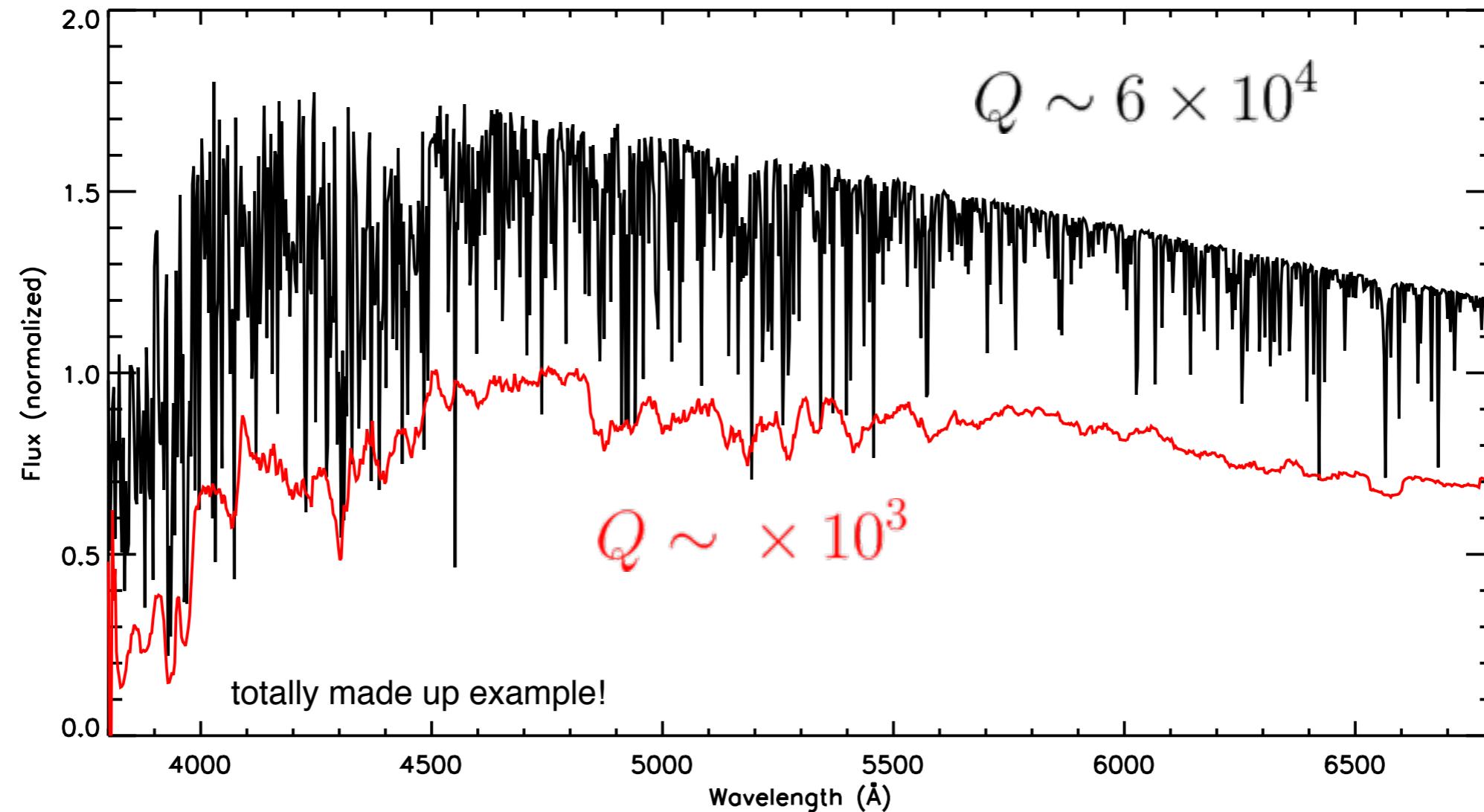


star+lamp spectrum
(51 Peg)



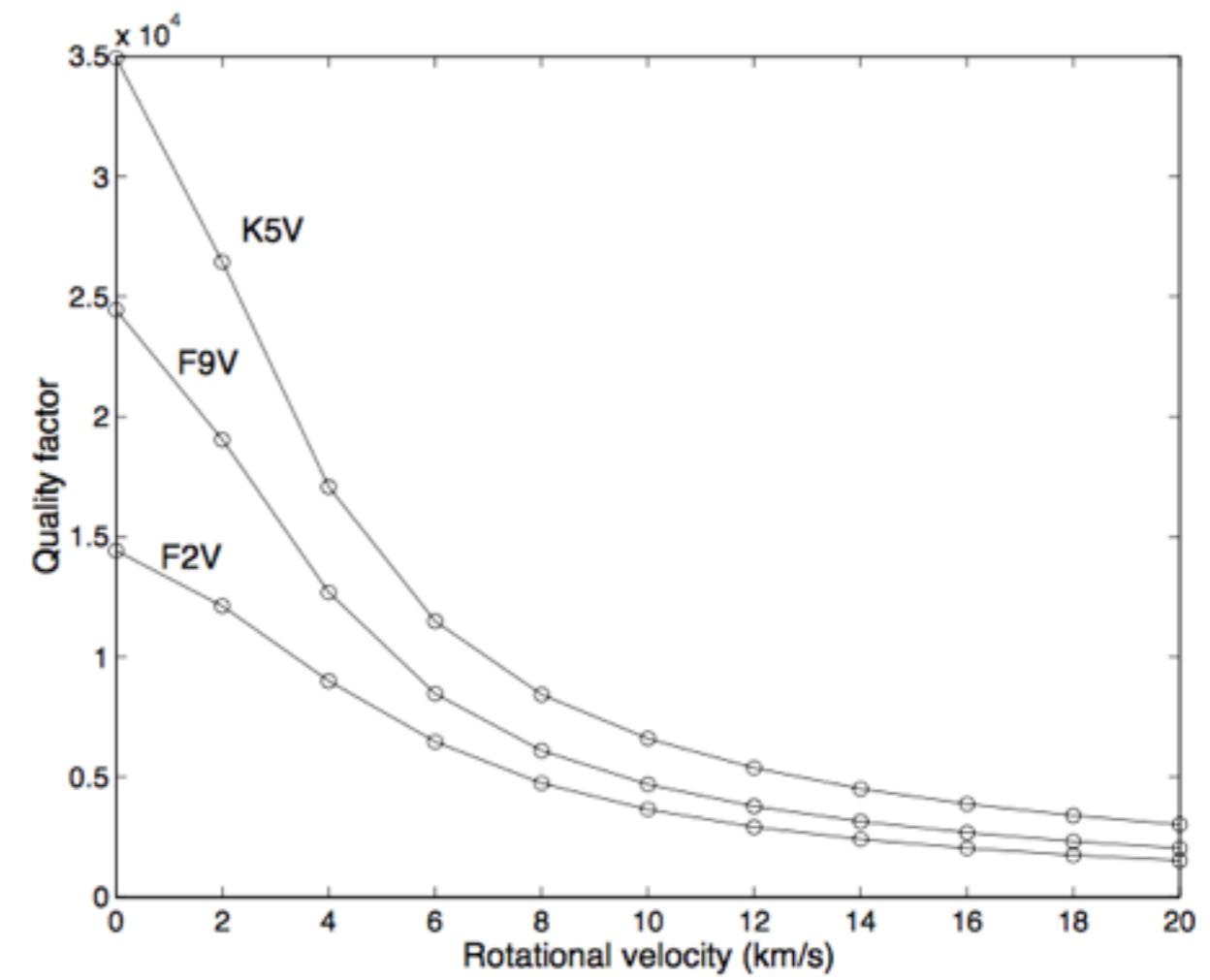
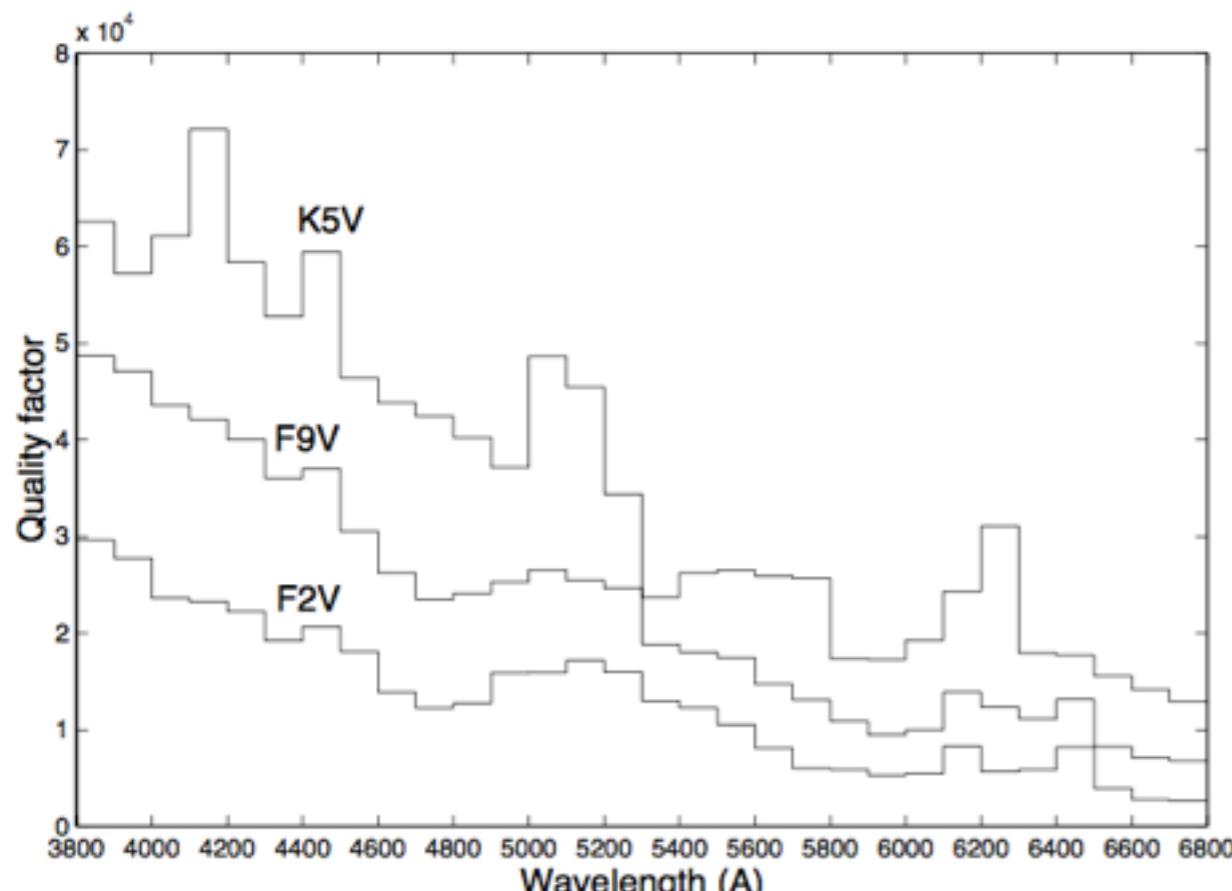
Lamp Spectrum

Quality Factor and theoretical RV limit



$$\delta V_{\text{RMS}} = \frac{c}{QN_e}$$

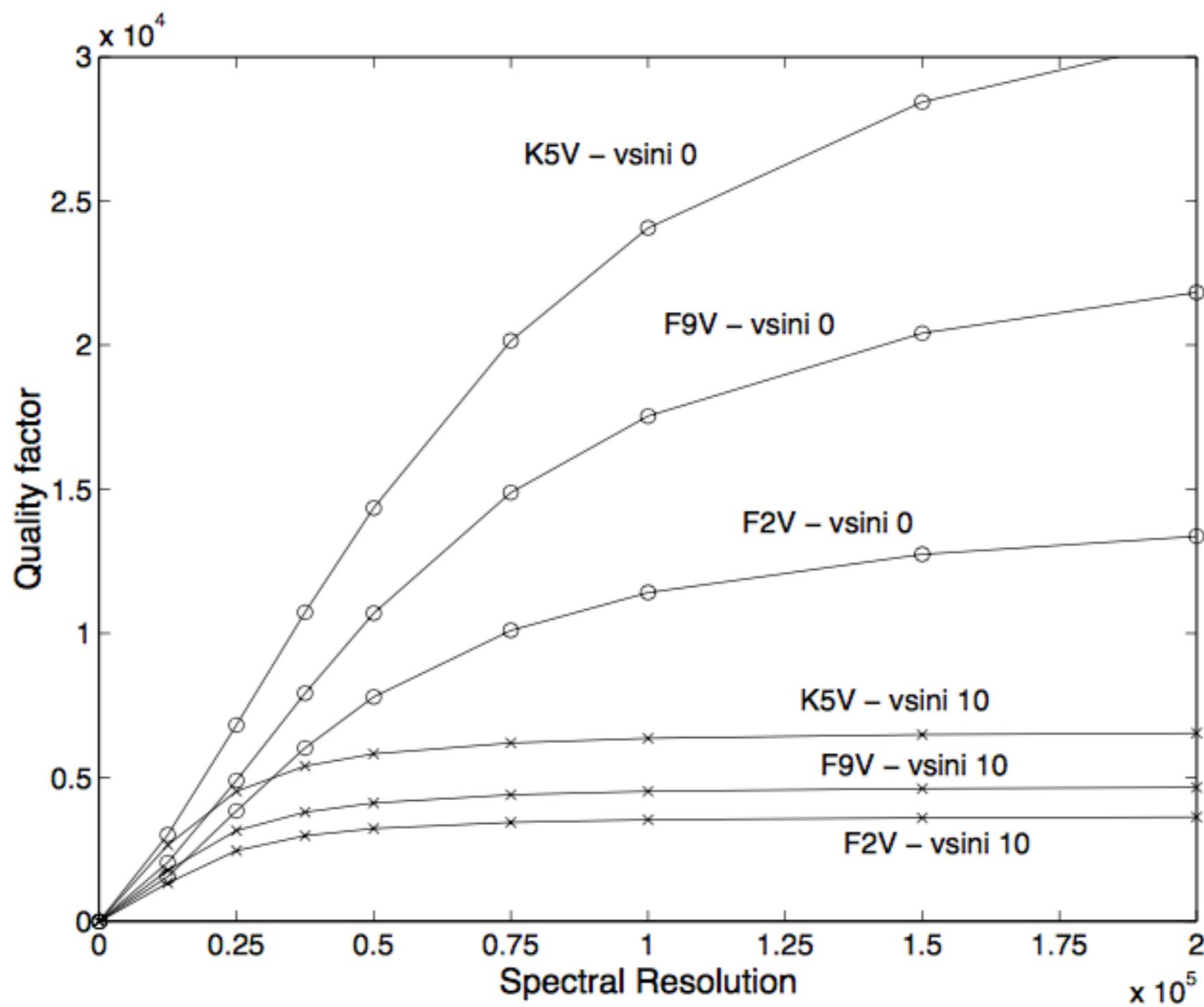
Quality Factor and theoretical RV limit



Spectral Resolution:

- Resolving Power: $R = \lambda / \Delta\lambda = c / \Delta\nu$
- $R = 100,000 \rightarrow \Delta\lambda \sim 0.05 \text{ angst, in the optical.}$
- 1 m/s shift $\rightarrow 1/3000$ of a resolution element, for $R \sim 100,000$.
- Typical RV instruments disperse light such that 1 m/s doppler shift corresponds to a shift on the detector of $\sim 1/1000$ of a pixel.

Quality Factor and theoretical RV limit

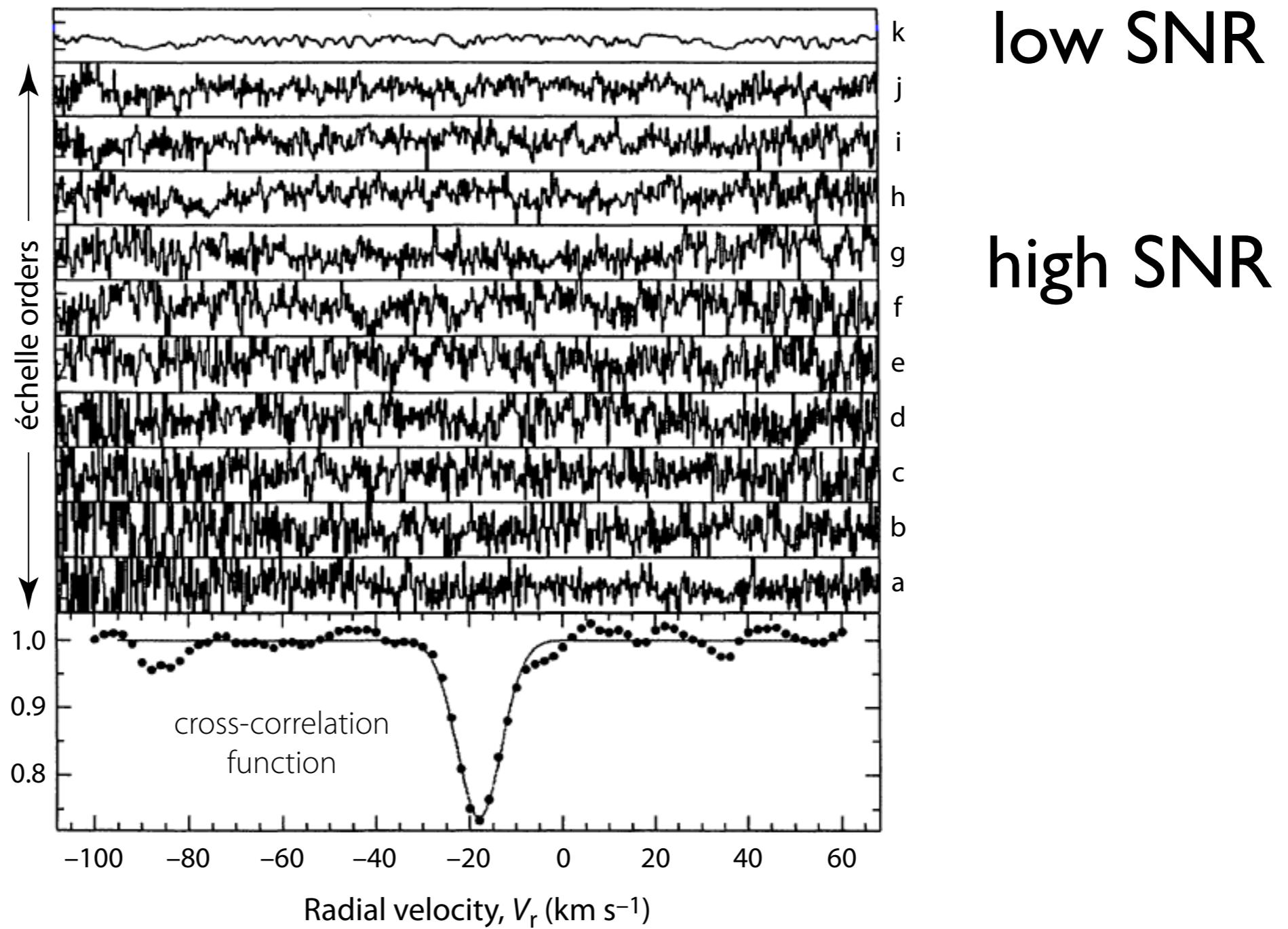


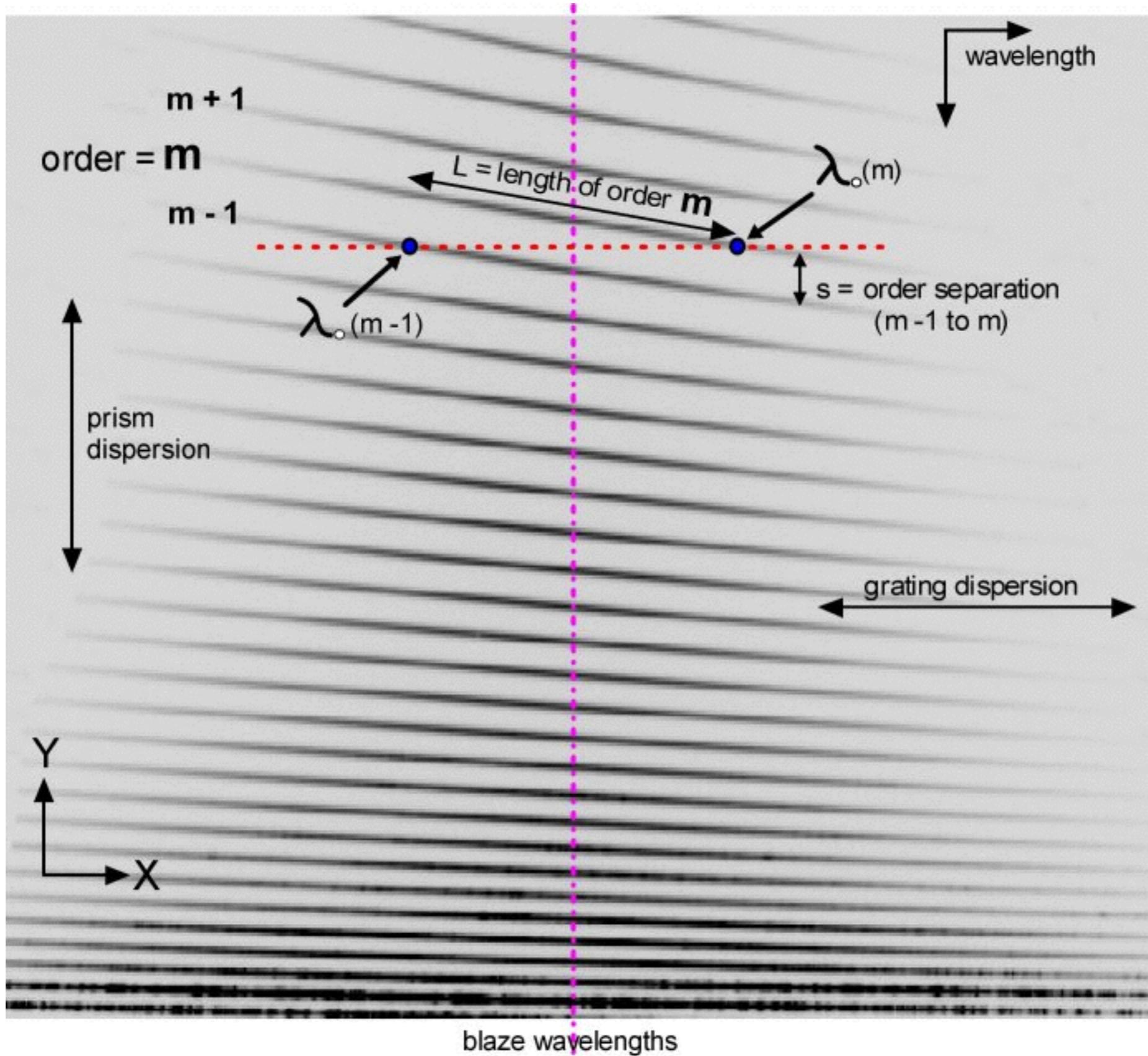
Q versus Spectral Resolving Power

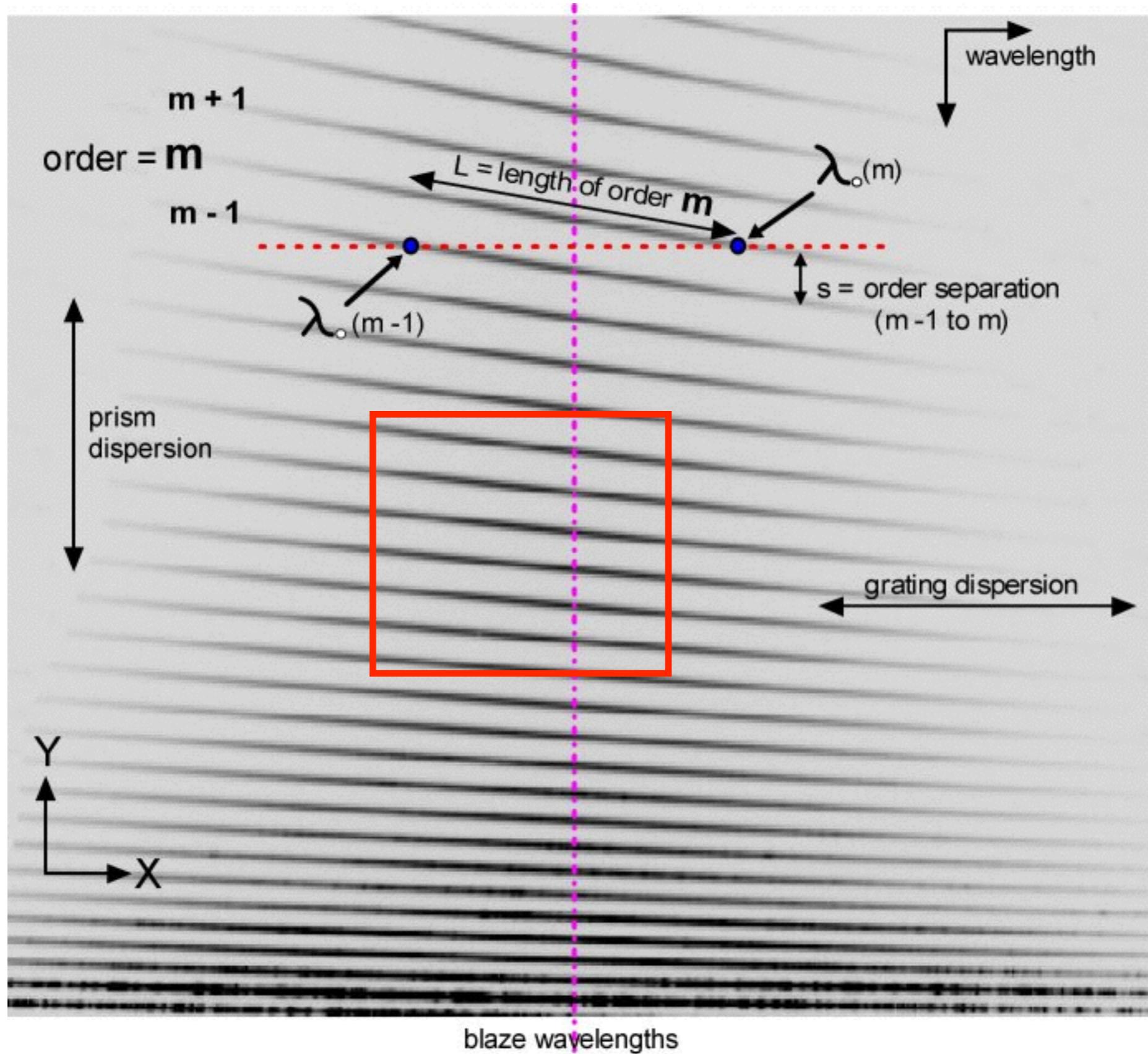
$$R = \frac{\lambda}{d\lambda}$$

- Measuring tiny fractions of a pixel requires many spectral lines. Usual spectrum might contain ~ 1000 good lines.
- Modeling and cross-correlation techniques allow greater RV precision than is achieved on a single line.
- 30 m/s per line can result in 1 m/s (for high SNR spectrum with many lines).

cross-correlation of many orders







RV precision depends on:

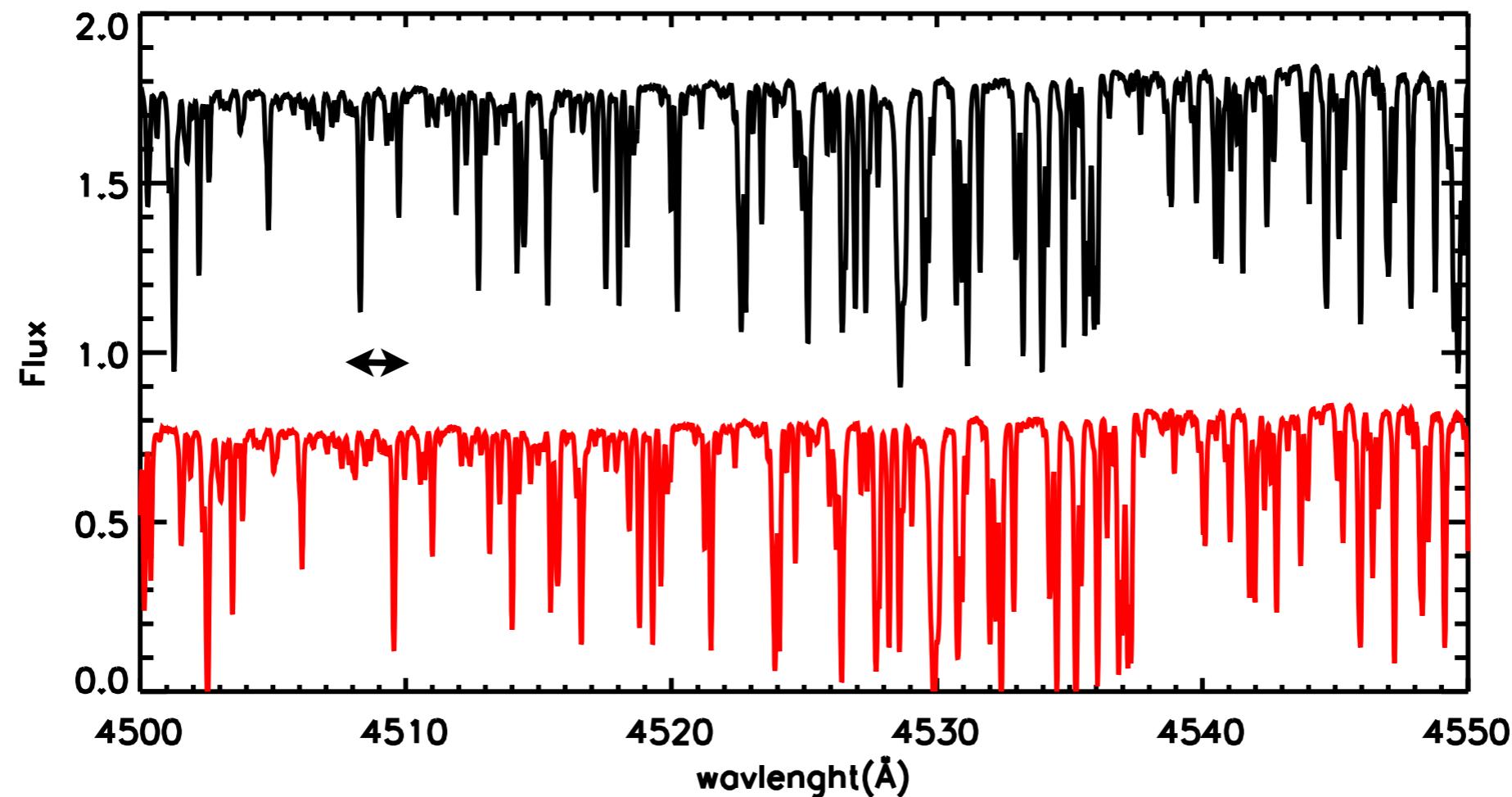
- number of spectral lines / wavelength
- FWHM of the lines (contrast with continuum)
- signal-to-noise (SNR) of the data
- stability of the instrument and wavelength reference

- The goals are to measure relative RV (not absolute) to high precision and have repeatability, night-to-night, for many years.
- The instrument must be ultra-stable or the calibration near-perfect and repeatable (preferably both).

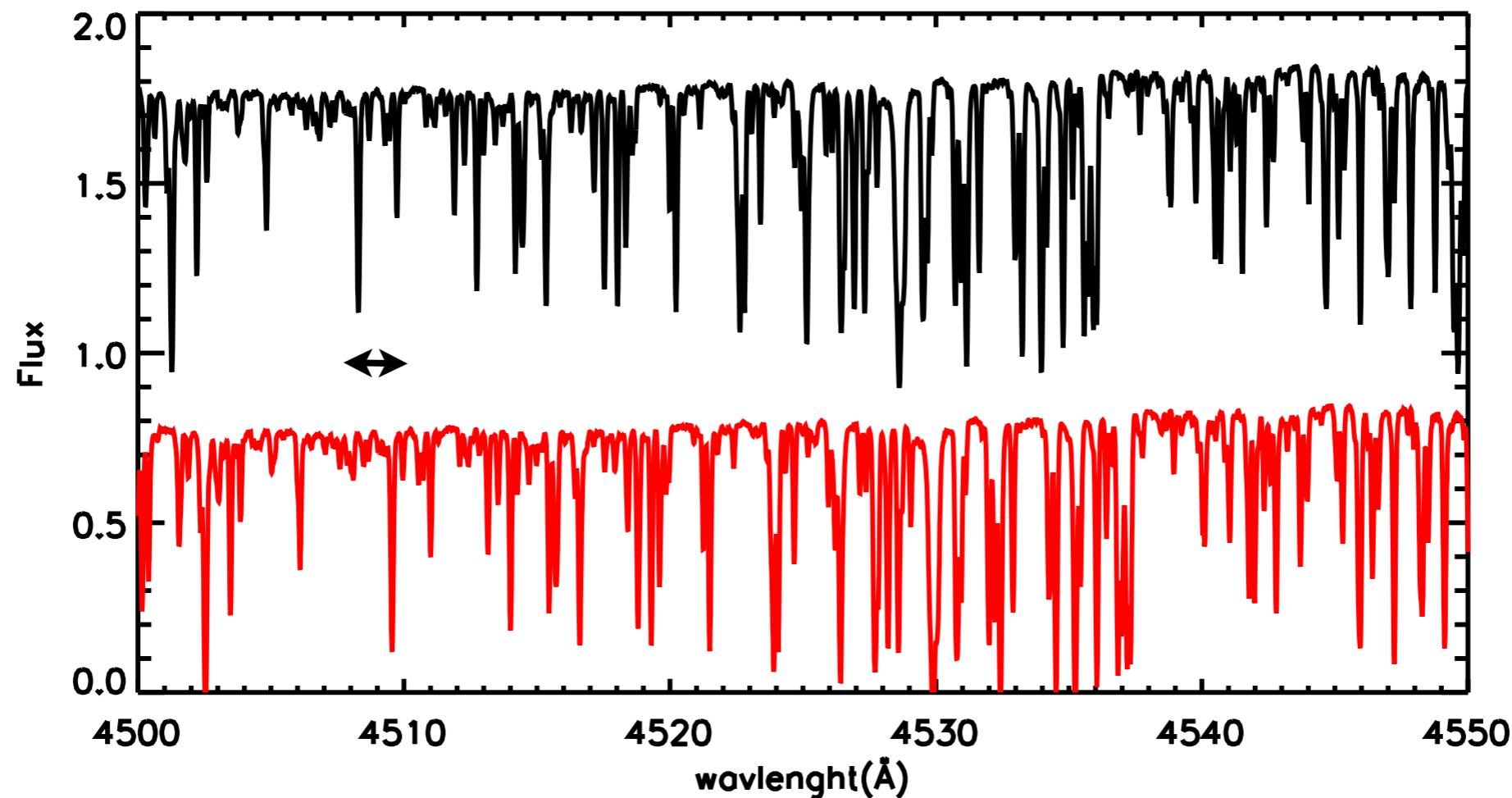
What are the things you might control?

- changes in spectrograph
- variation in instrument illumination

What is the source of this wavelength shift (~ 1.3 angst.)?

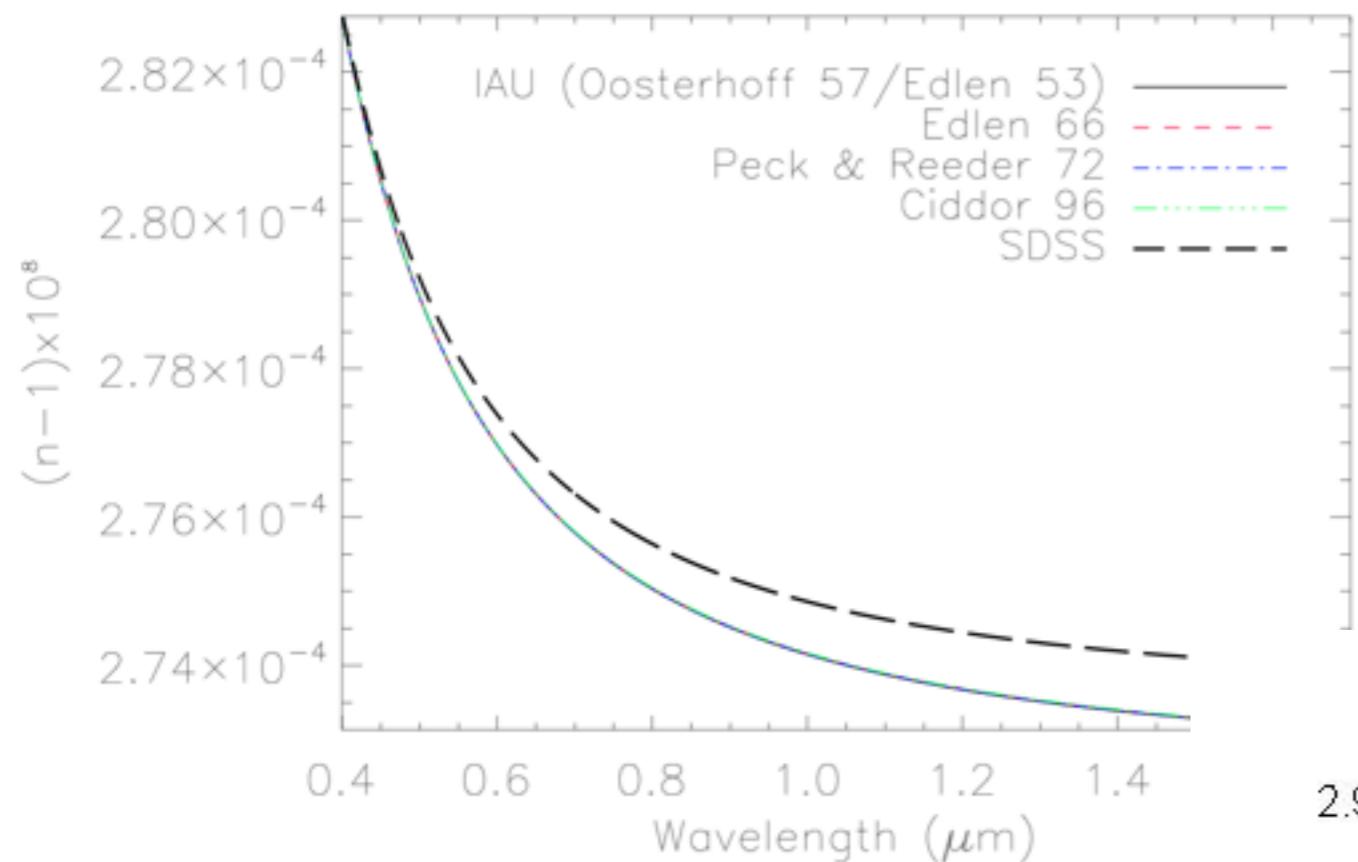


What is the source of this wavelength shift (~ 1.3 angst.)?



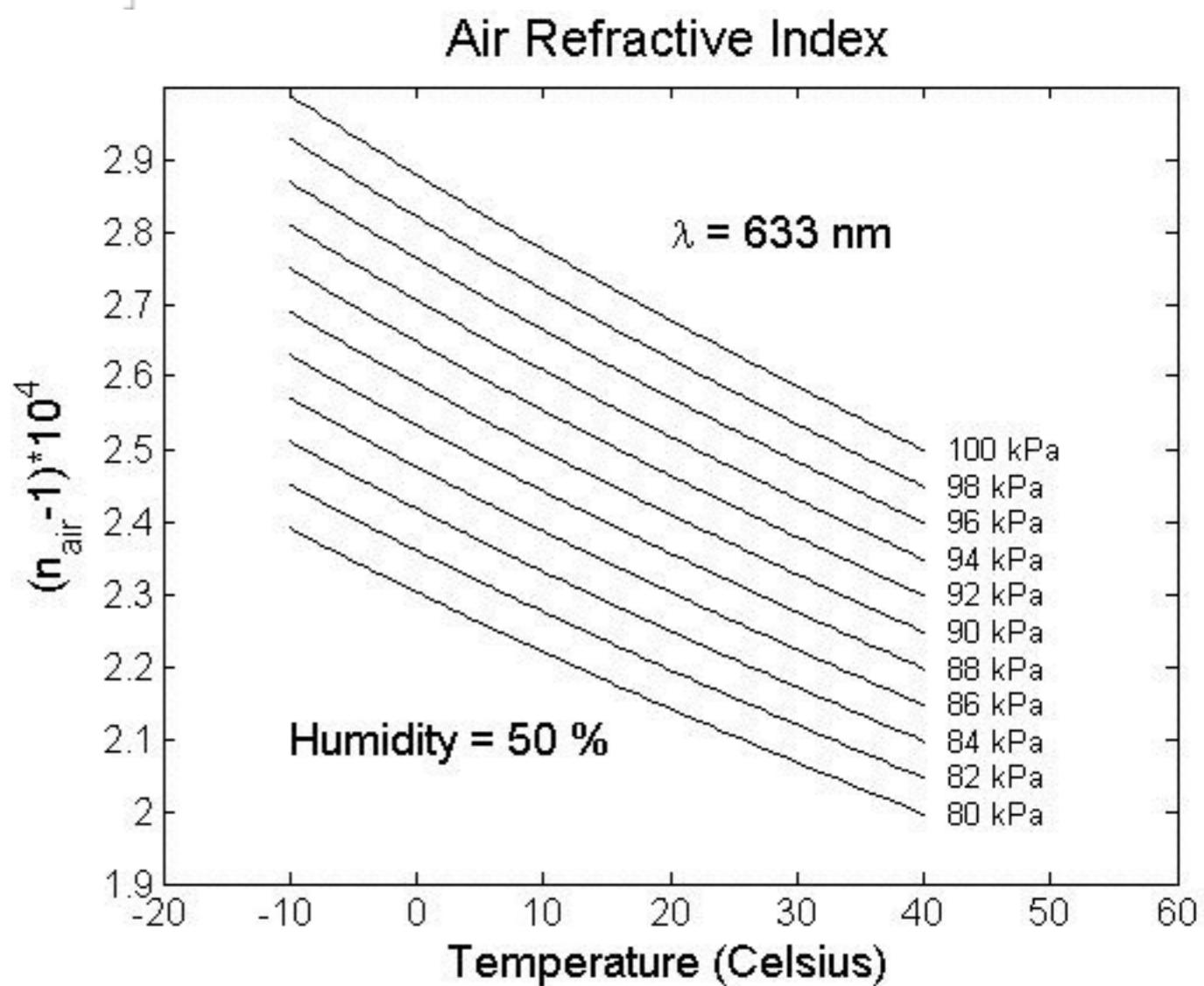
$$\frac{\lambda_0 - \lambda}{\lambda} = n - 1 = a + \frac{b_1}{c_1 - 1/\lambda_0^2} + \frac{b_2}{c_2 - 1/\lambda_0^2}$$

$$n(\text{air}) \sim 1.0003$$



need climate-controlled
vacuum chamber

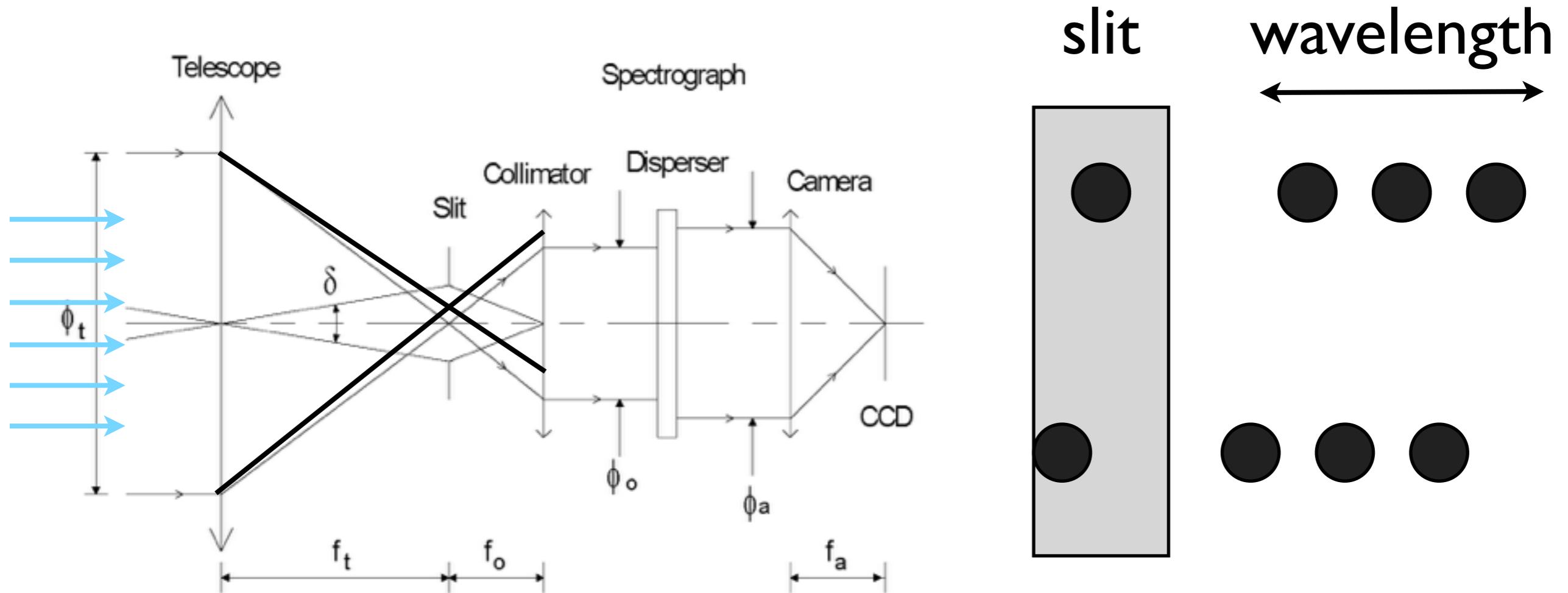
Wavelength shifts are around 200 to 300 m/s / K change in temperature (at fixed P) and ~ 100 m/s / mbar change in pressure (at fixed T).



Thermal stability

- A 1-meter optical bench made of aluminum expands or contracts by ~ 20 microns for every 1 K change in temperature.
- 20 microns is about the size of one CCD pixel.
- Such shifts are comparable to, or larger than, the RV change one wants to measure.

Image Stability



- A changes in the illumination across the entrance of the spectrograph can produce wavelength shifts exceeding 100 m/s. Telescope guiding never good enough.

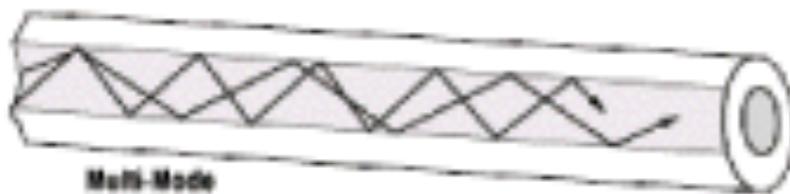
Fiber-scramblers:



Single Mode = Single Light Path

< 10 um

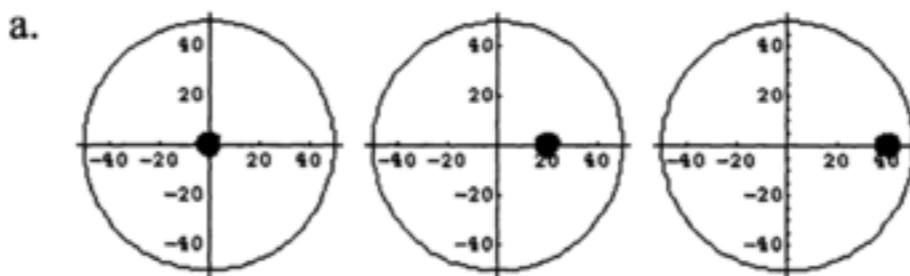
(perfect scramble)



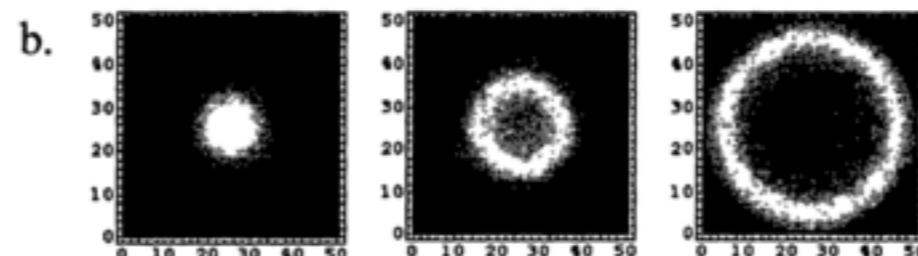
Multi-Mode = Multiple Light Paths

50 -- 500 um

(good scramble)

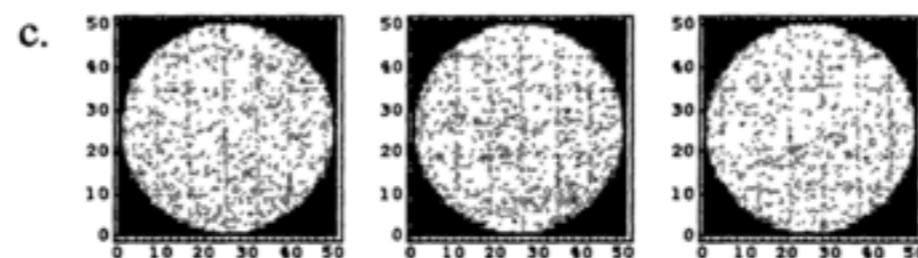


input



output

(intermediate)



output (to
spectrograph)

“perfect”
multi-mode fiber
(1 is good, 2 is better,
aka double-scrambler)

Very stabilized instruments: HARPS @ 3.6m at ESO/Chile



Spectrograph on a rigid bench,
which is housed in a vacuum
tank.

Very stabilized instruments: HARPS @ 3.6m at ESO/Chile



Spectrograph on a rigid bench, which is housed in a vacuum tank.

The tank itself is housed in a climate controlled room that is never opened.

- Pressure controlled to 10^{-3} mbar
- Optical bench controlled to 1 mK

Very stabilized instruments: HARPS @ 3.6m at ESO/Chile

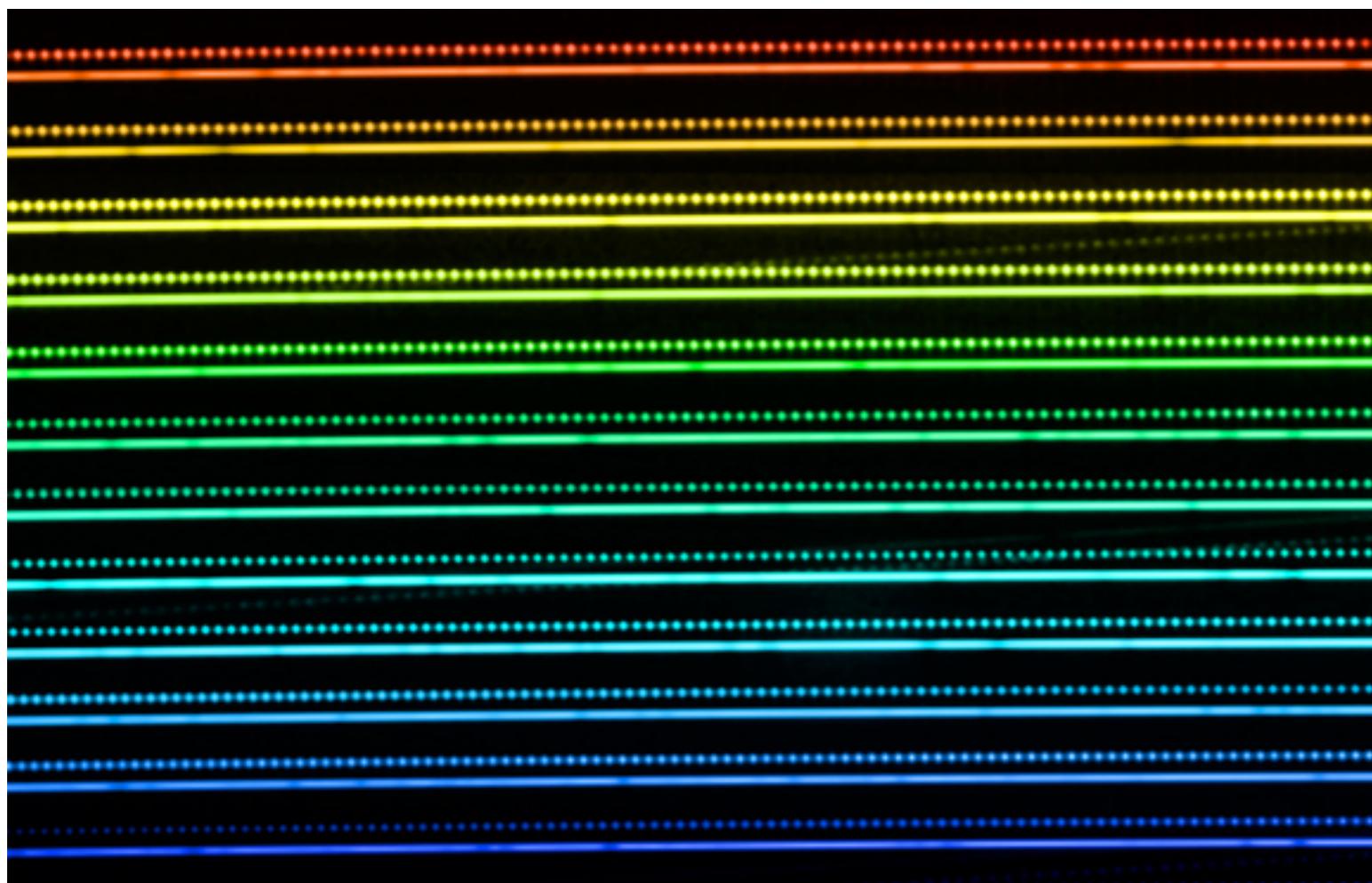


Spectrograph on a rigid bench, which is housed in a vacuum tank.

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Light is coupled from the telescope with fiber optics that “scramble” the light.

Very stabilized instruments: HARPS @ 3.6m at ESO/Chile



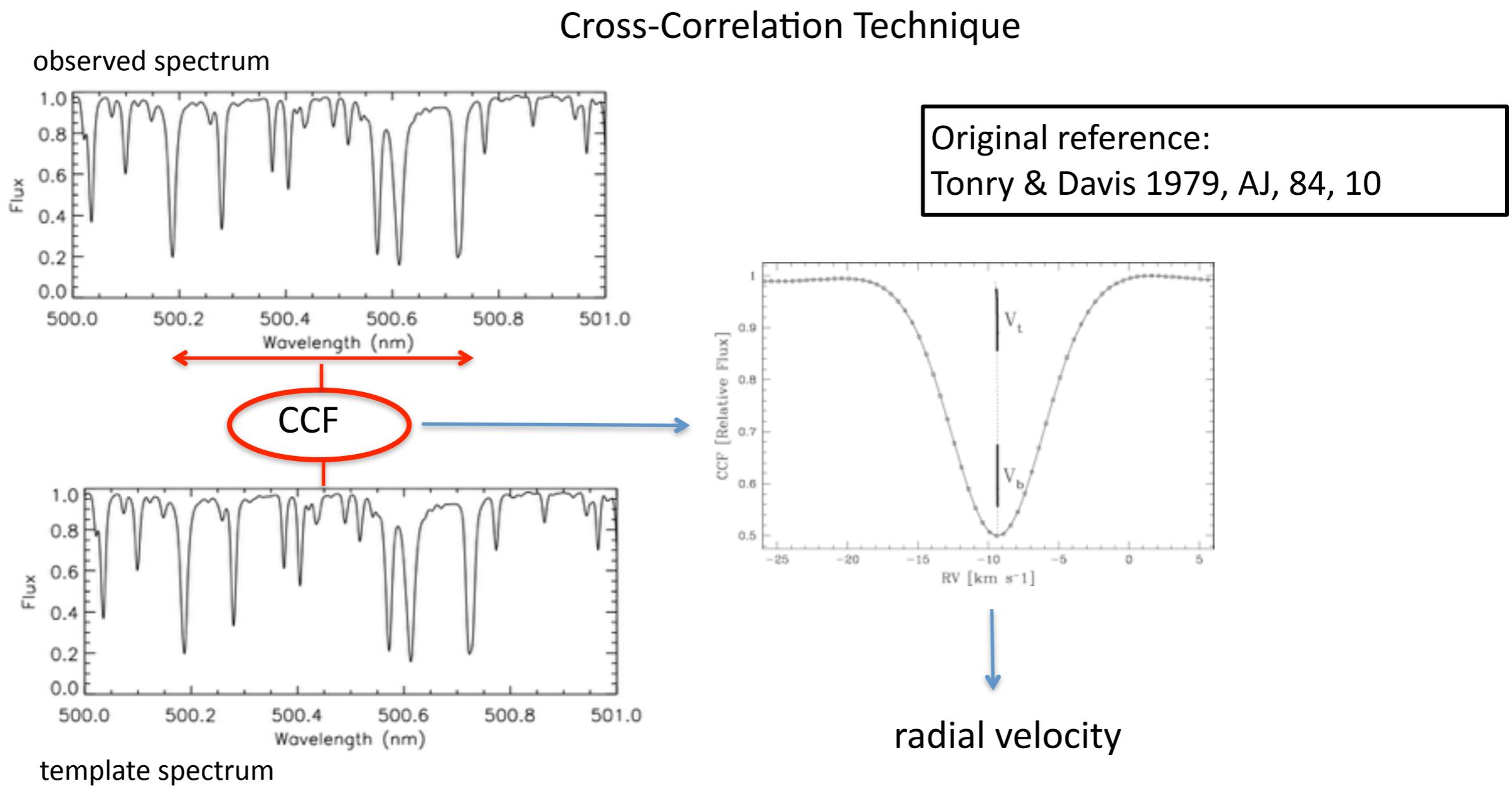
Spectrograph on a rigid bench, which is housed in a vacuum tank.

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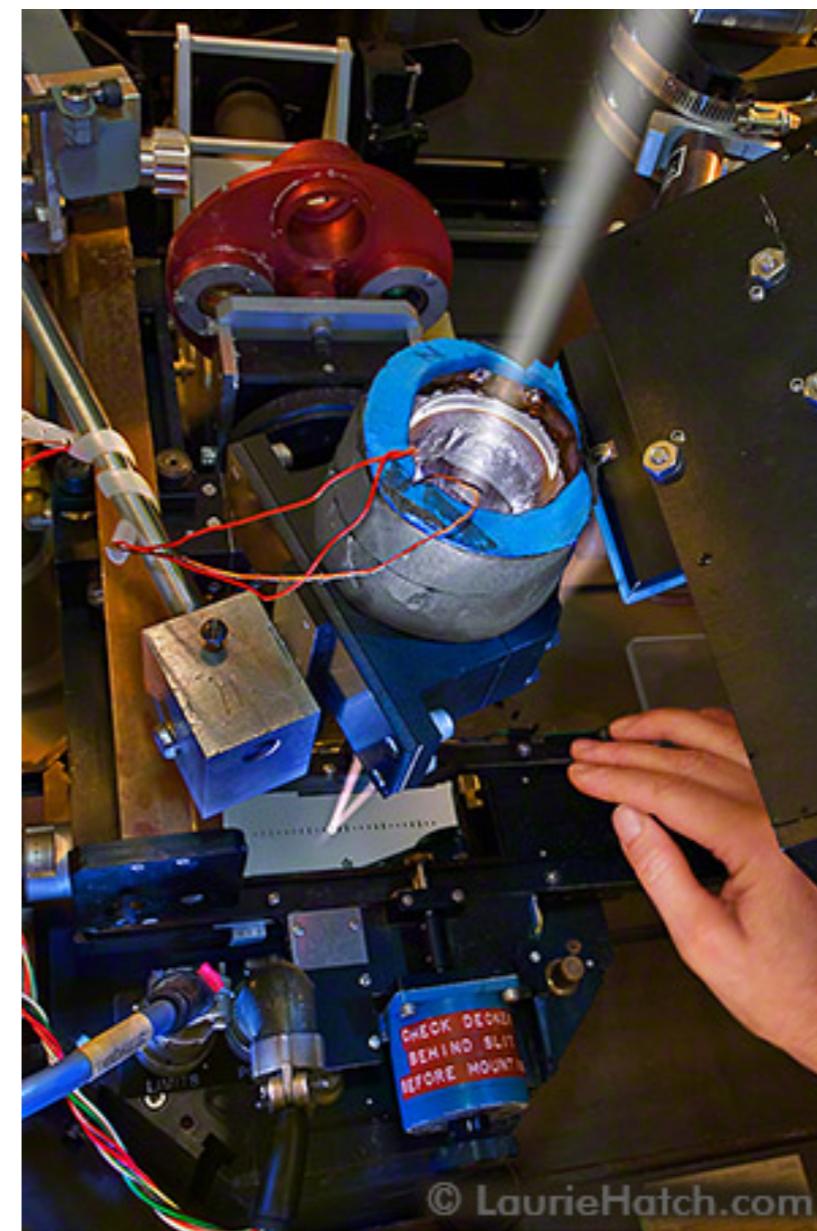
Light is coupled from the telescope with fiber optics that “scramble” the light.

A second fiber feed a simultaneous calibration source.

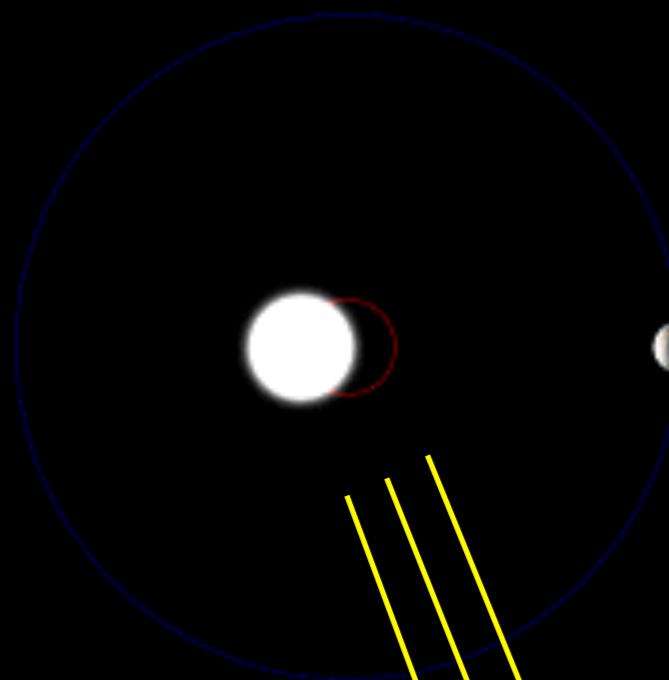
Very stabilized instruments: HARPS @ 3.6m at ESO/Chile



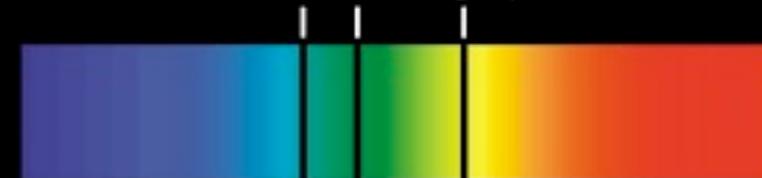
Gas cell technique



Radial Velocity Technique



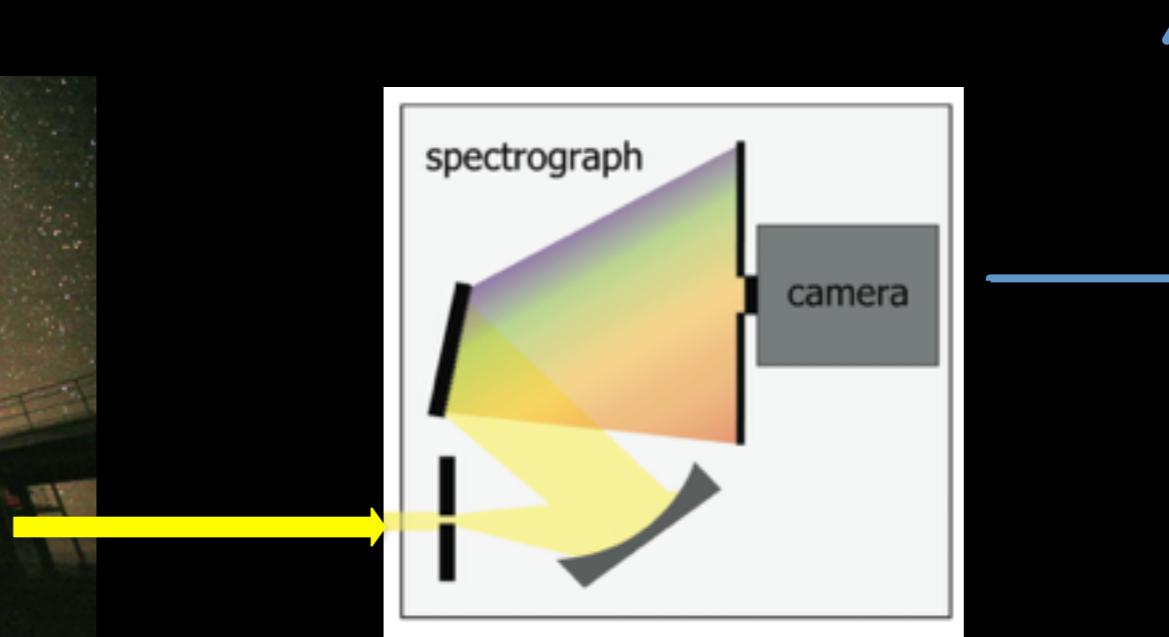
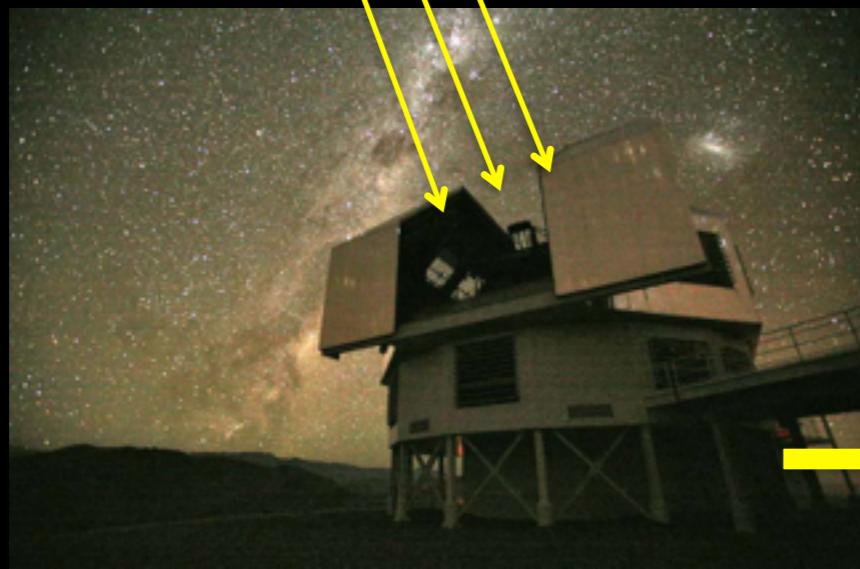
The star's chemical fingerprints



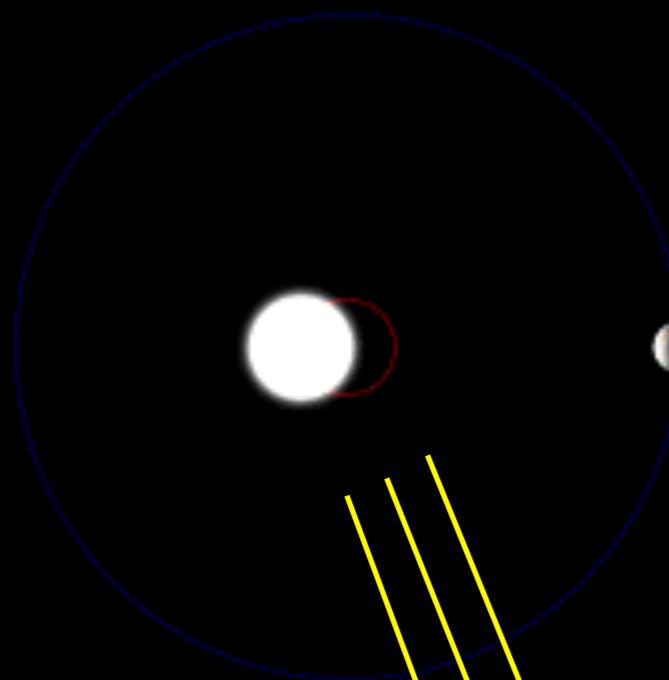
1. Receding star



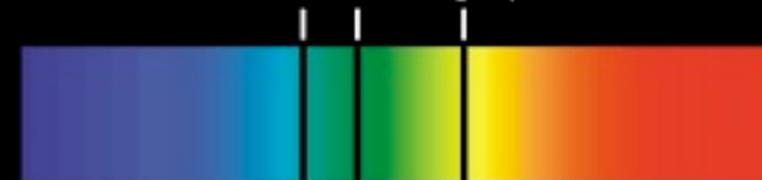
2. Approaching star



Radial Velocity Technique



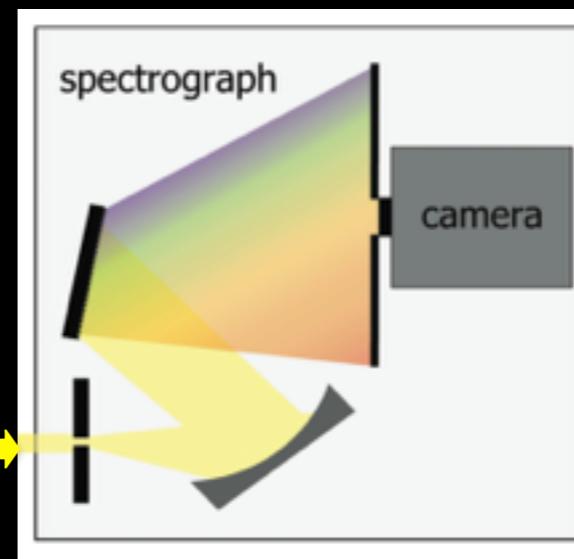
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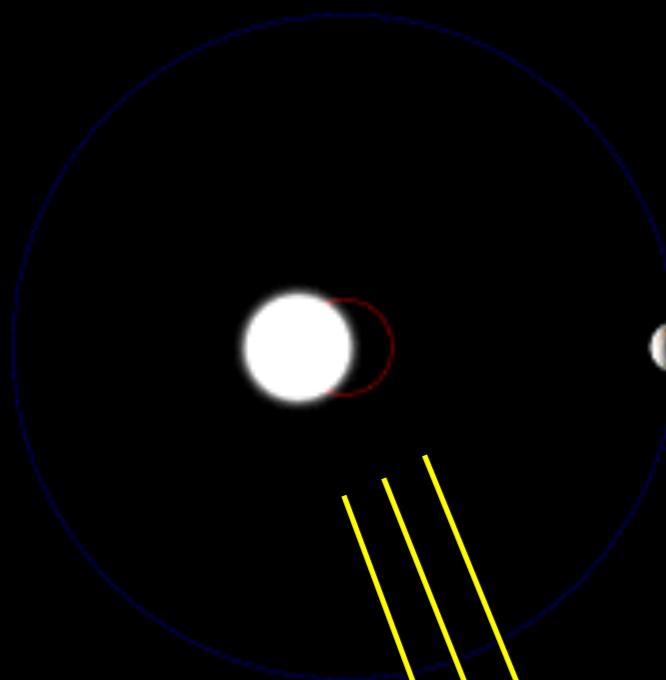
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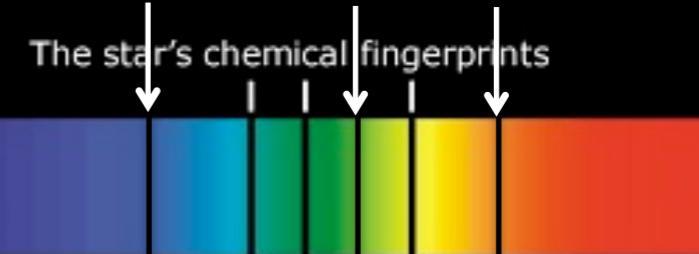
2. Approaching star



Radial Velocity Technique



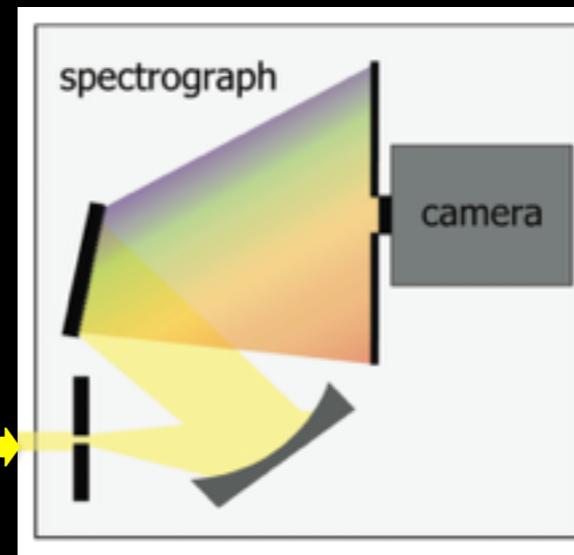
iodine lines



1. Receding star

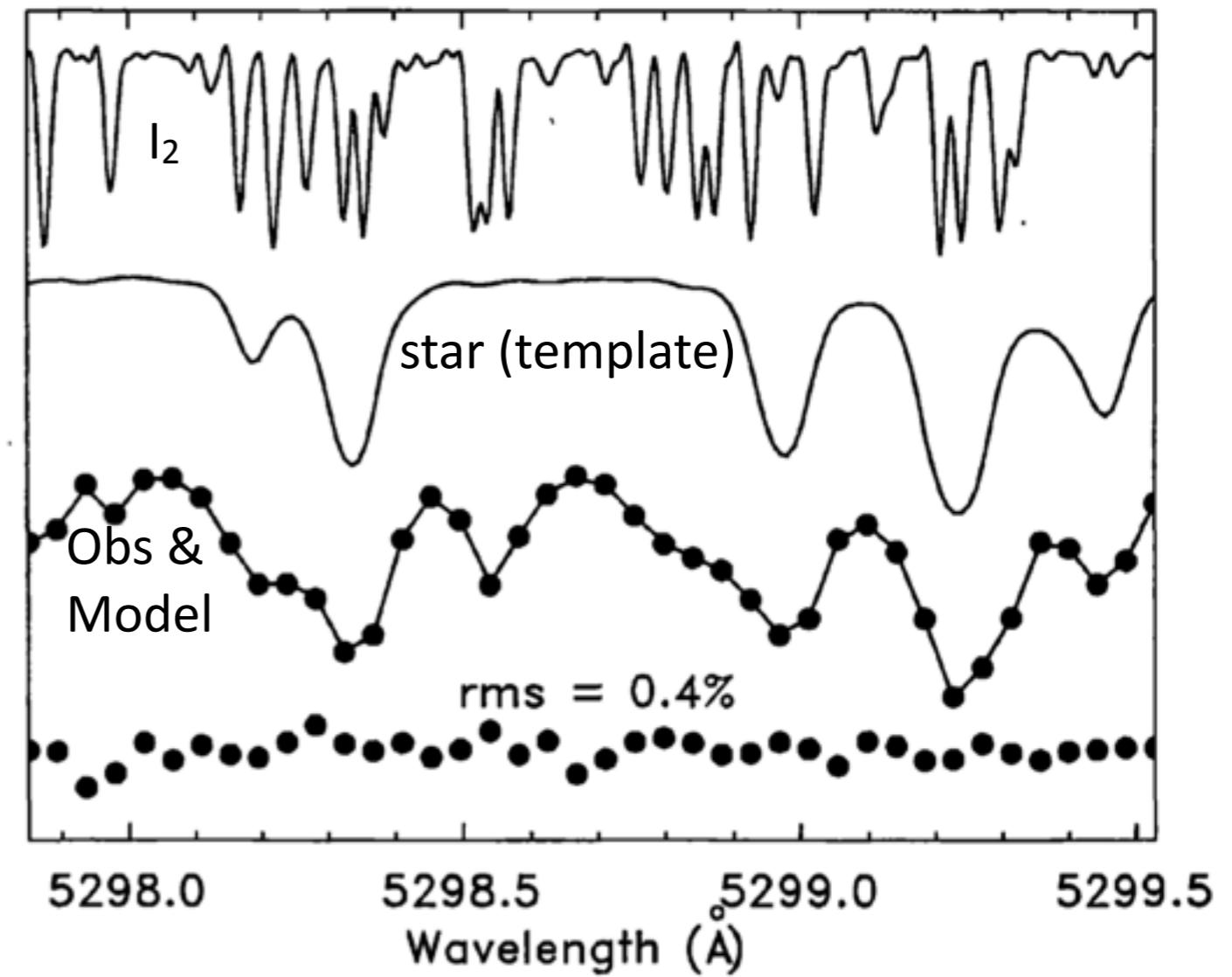
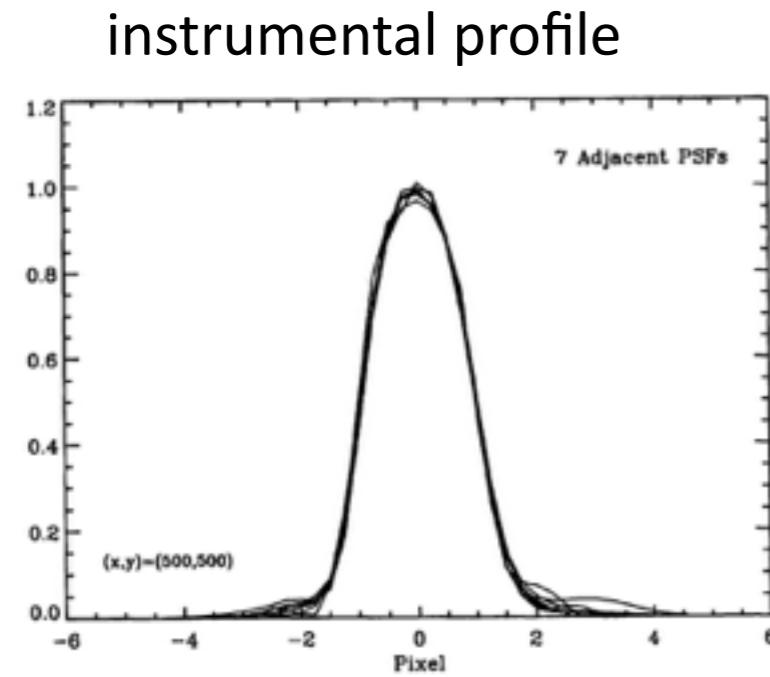


2. Approaching star



Gas cell technique: It is a little more complicated (involves forward modeling of spectrum)

$$I_{\text{obs}}(\lambda) = k[T_{I_2}(\lambda)I_s(\lambda + \Delta\lambda)] * \text{PSF},$$



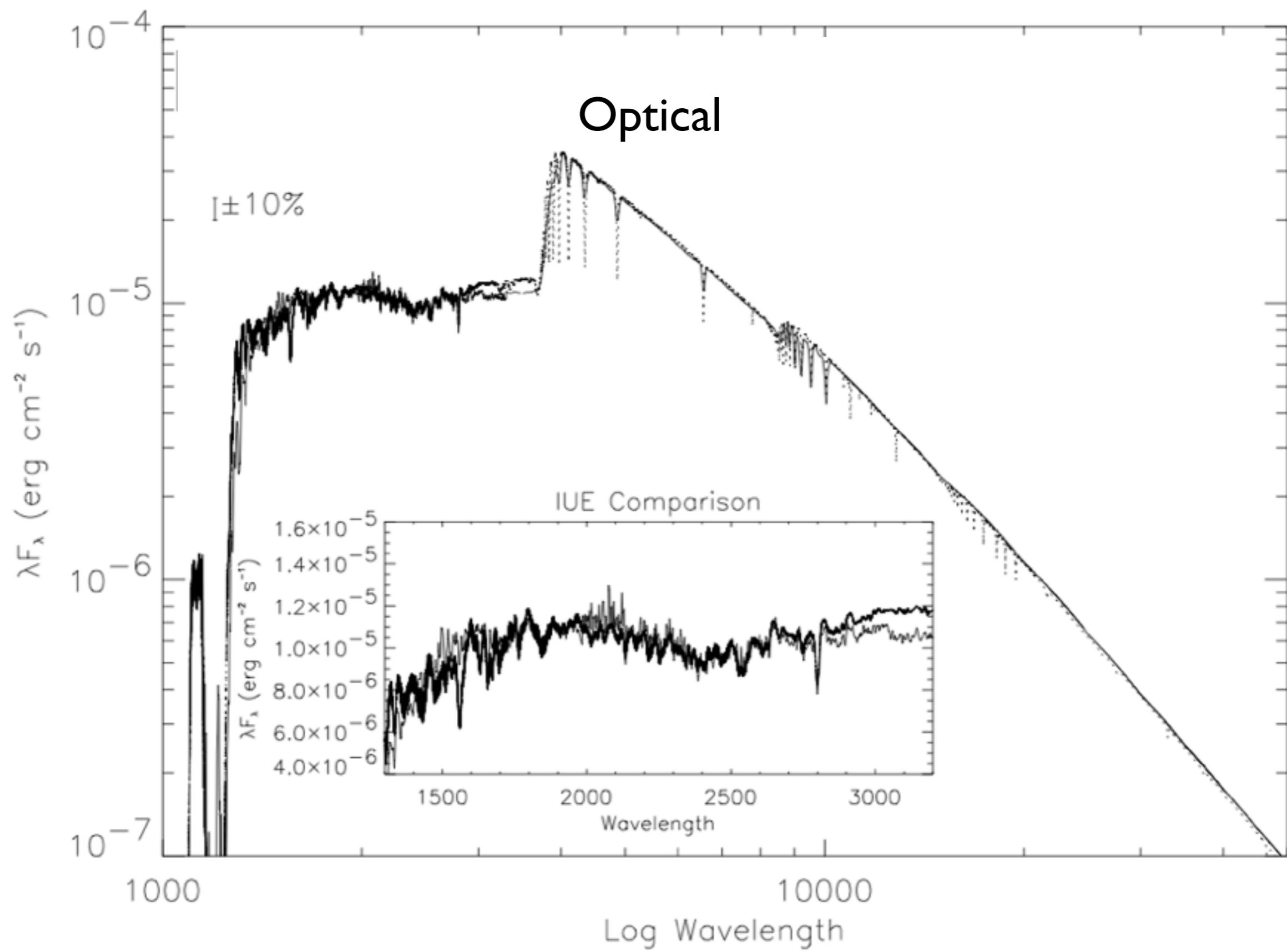
Calibrated instruments: HIRES@ 10m Keck telescope in Hawaii



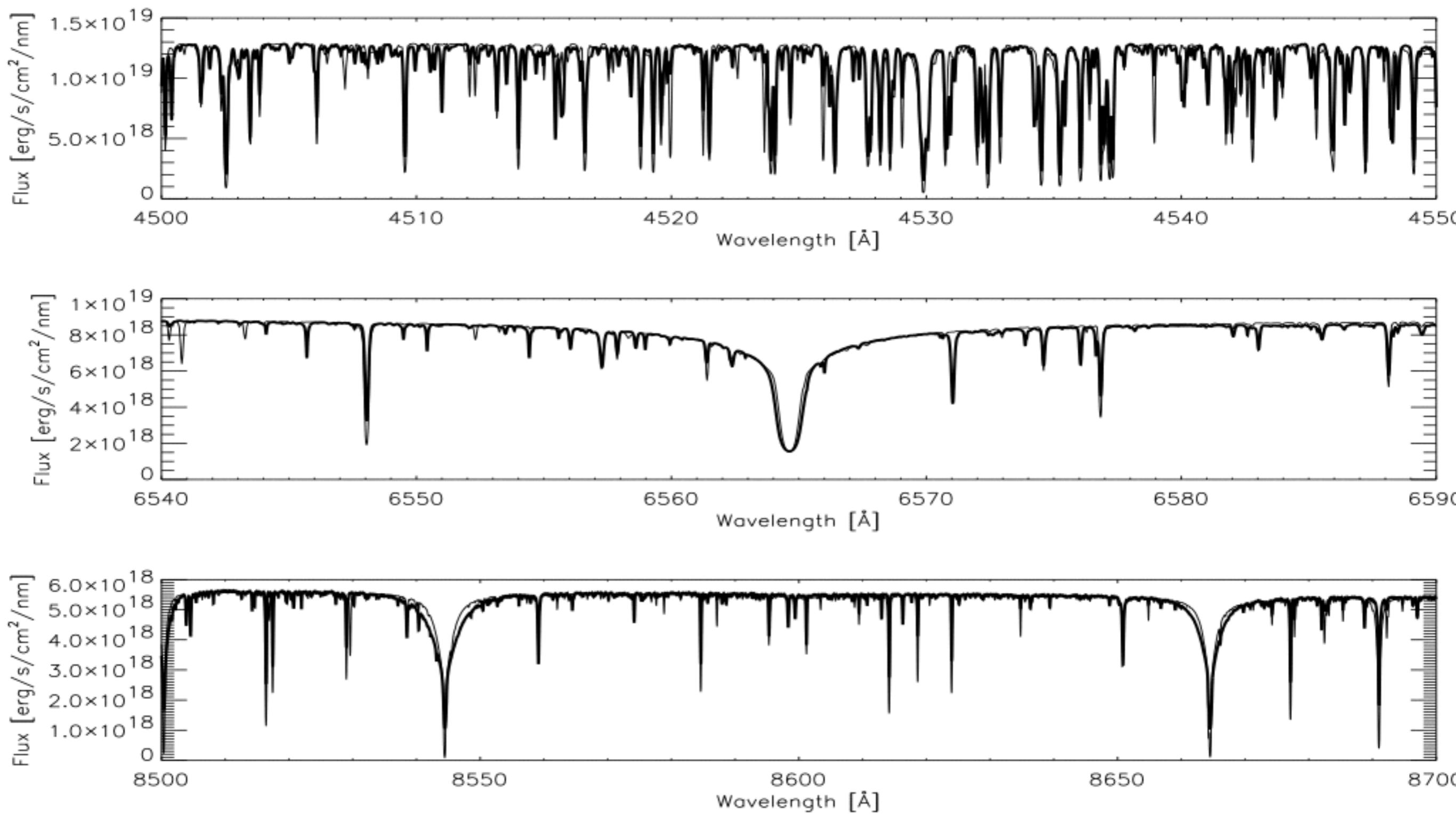
Spectrograph not particularly
stabilized.

Which stars to observe?

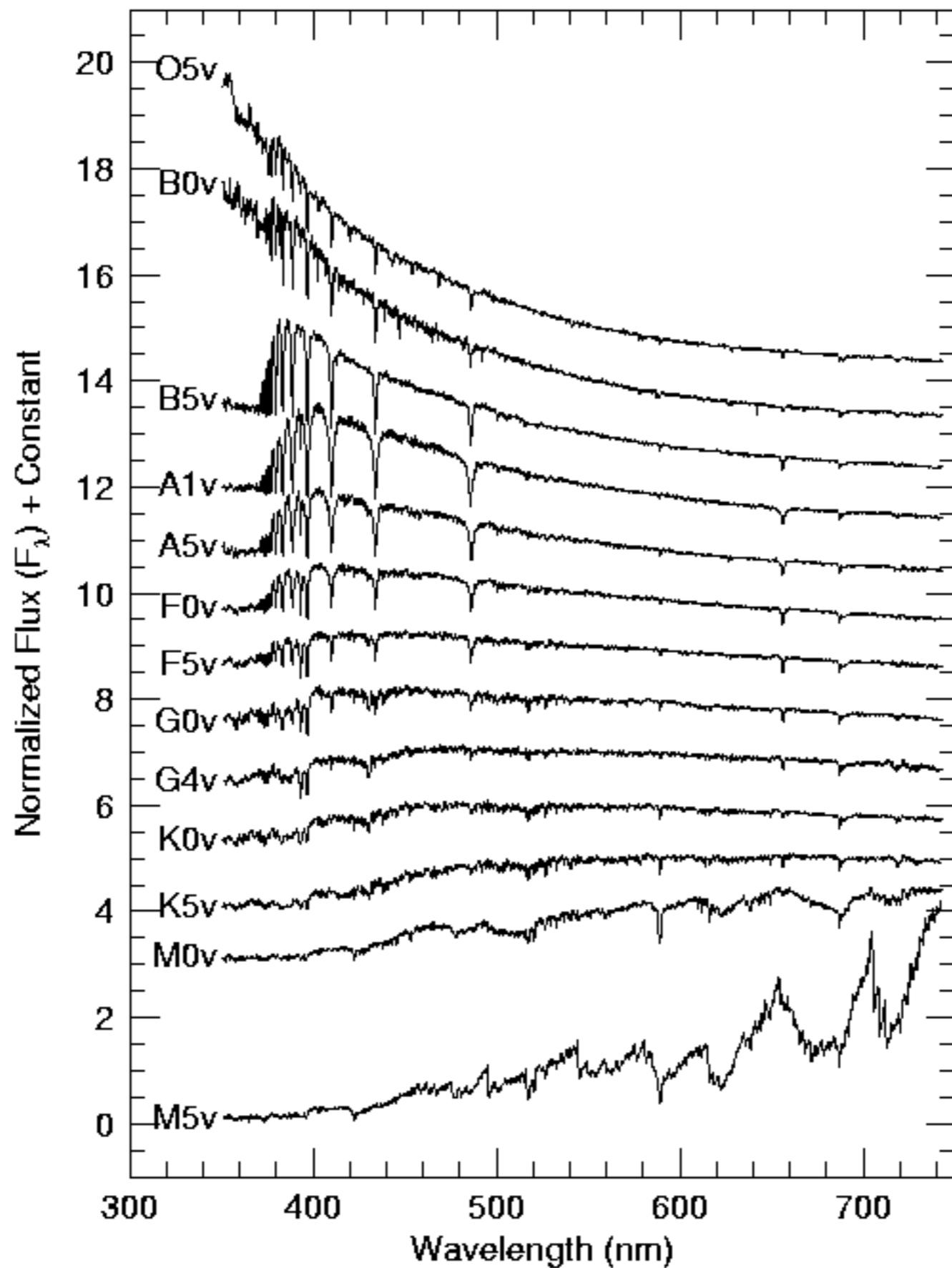
Vega



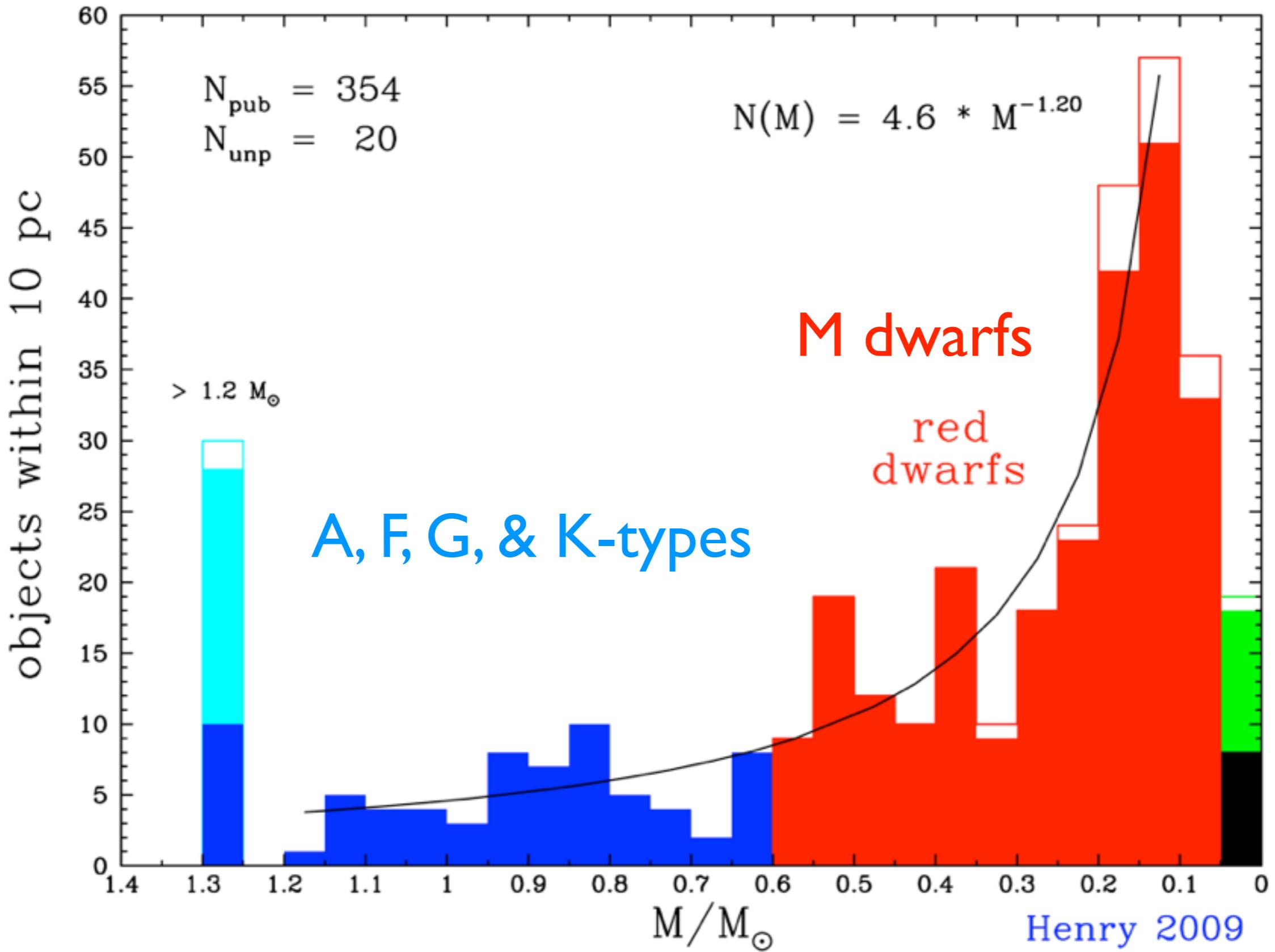
Solar-type (The Sun) stars:



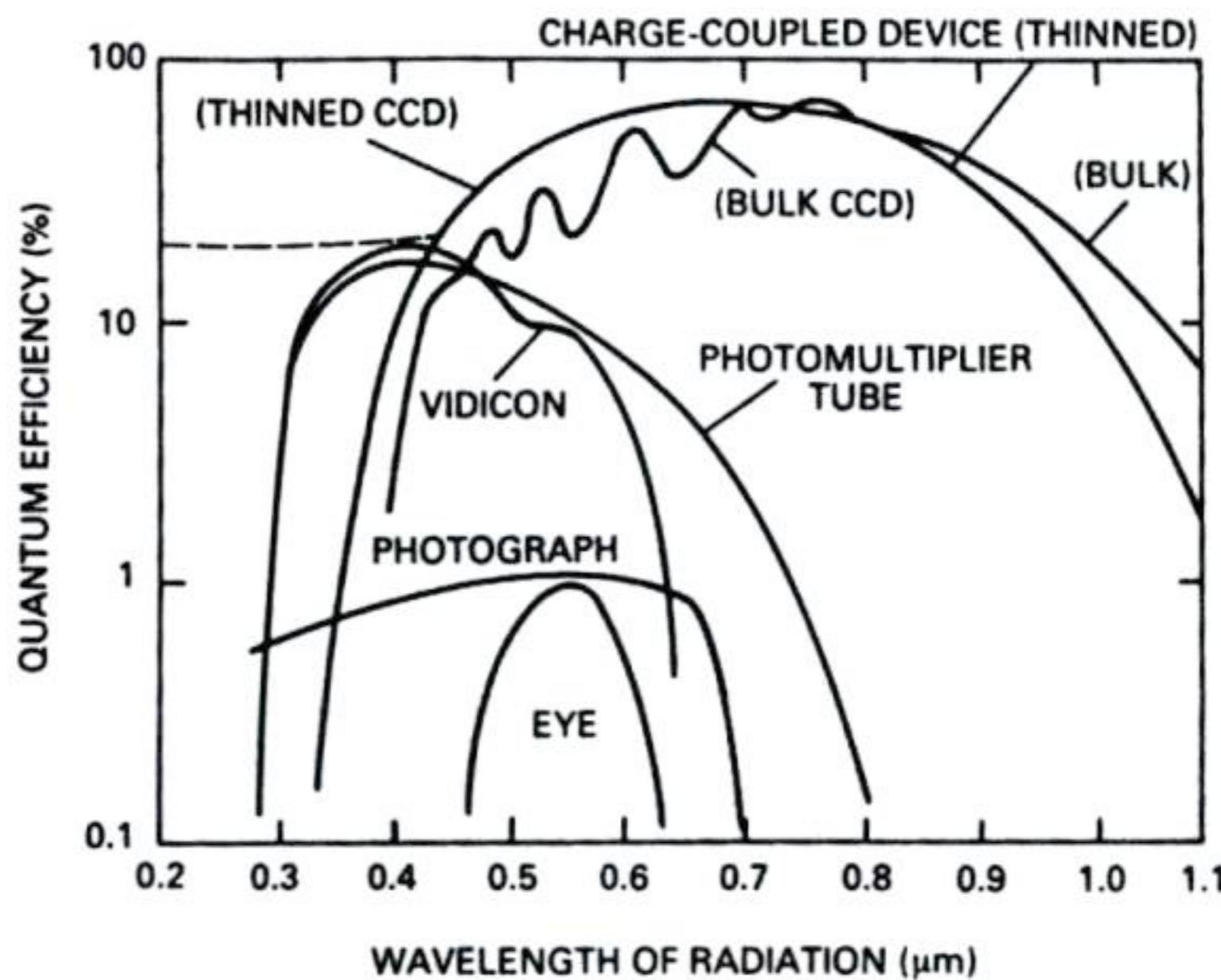
Dwarf Stars (Luminosity Class V)



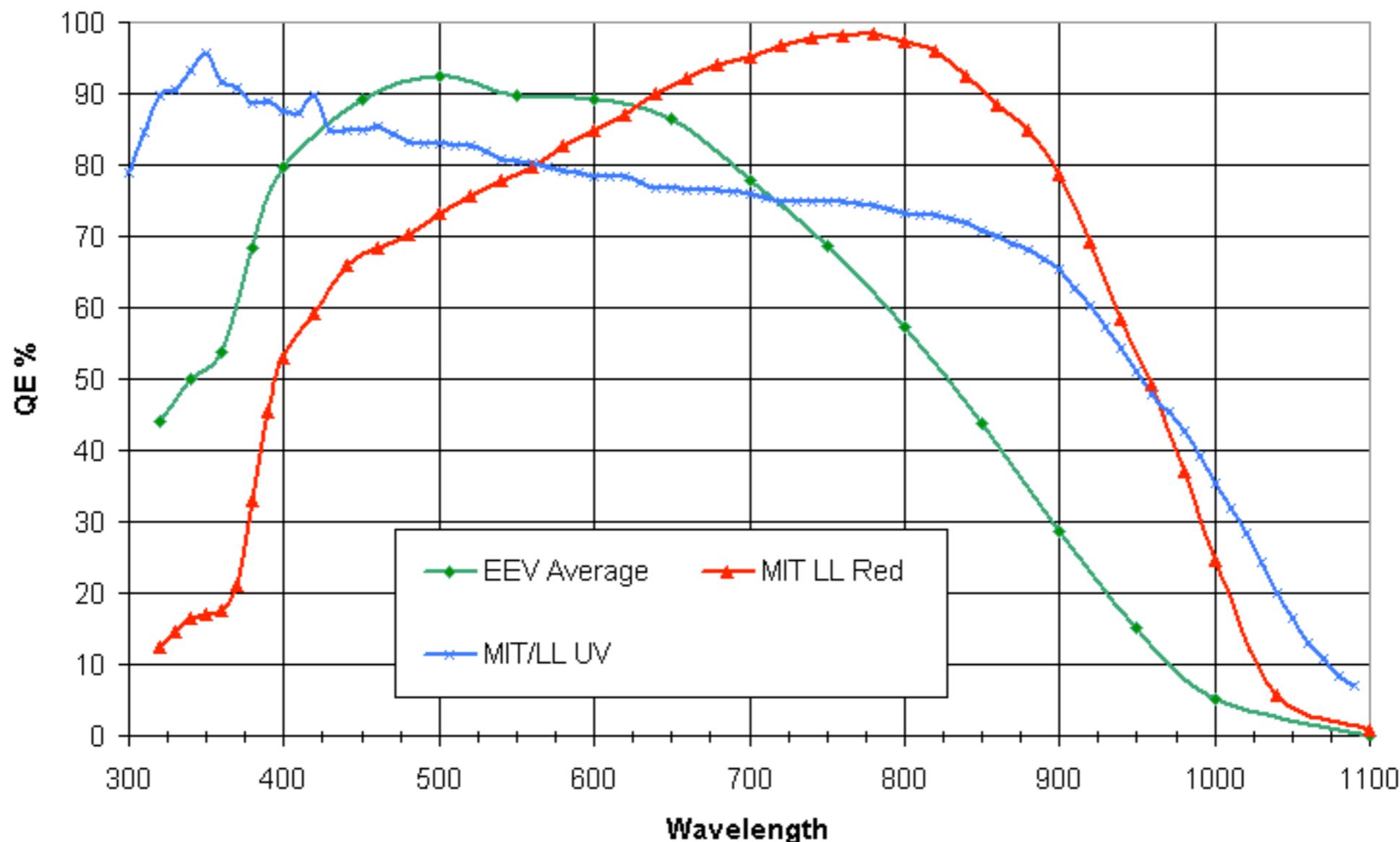
RECONS 10 PC SAMPLE: MF 2009.0



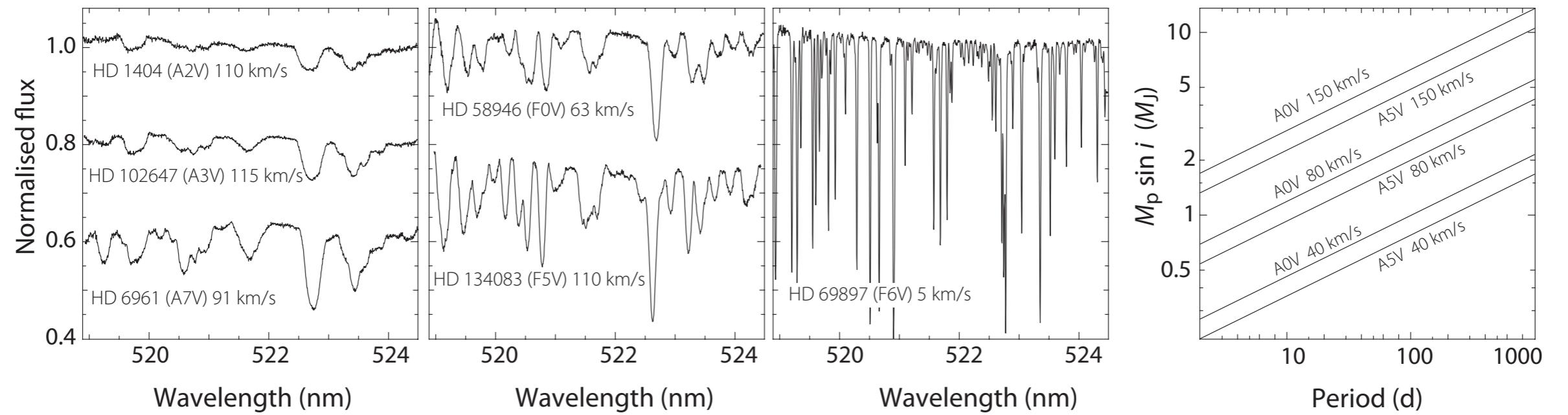
quantum-efficiency



quantum-efficiency

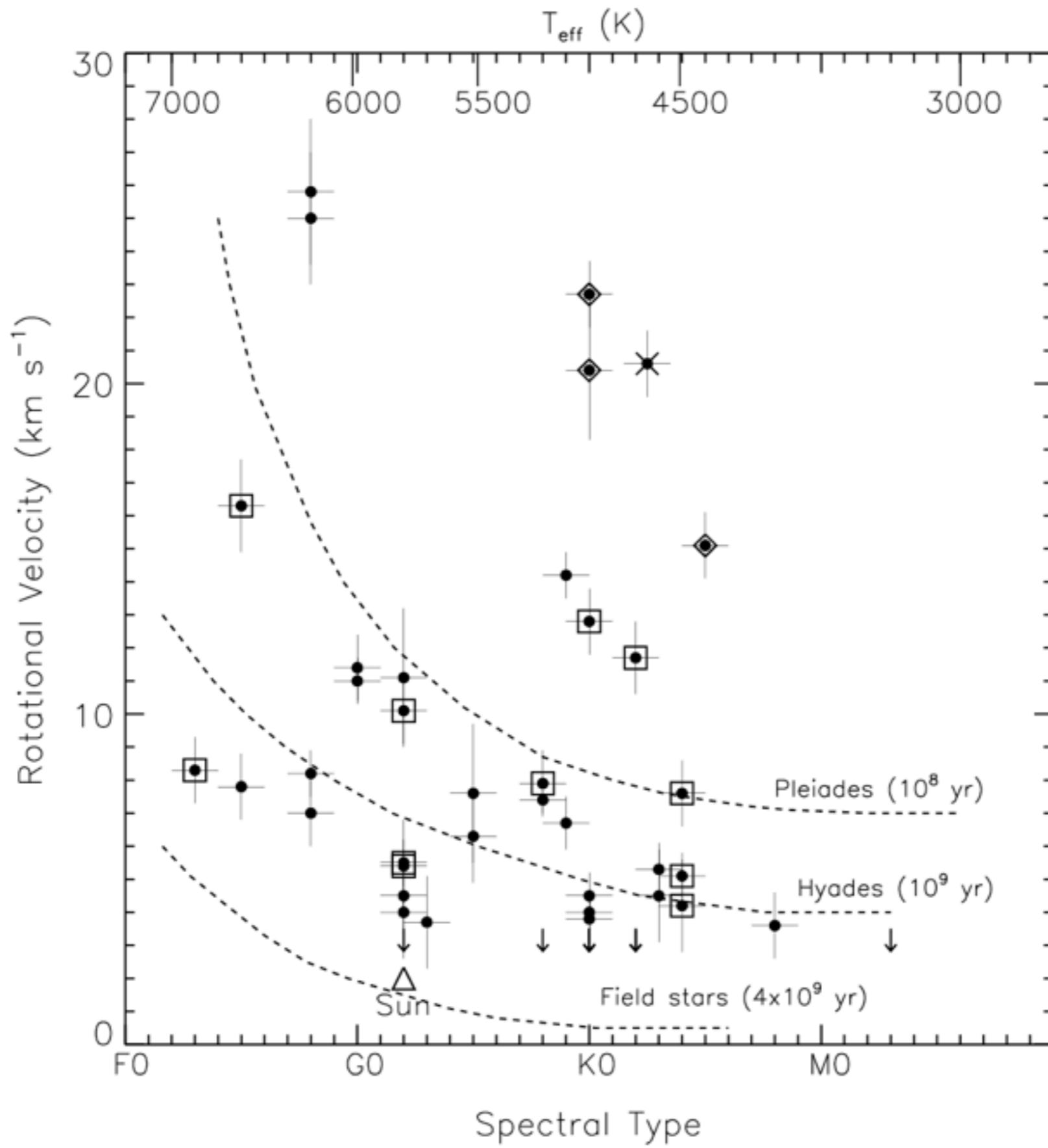


Rotational Broadening:

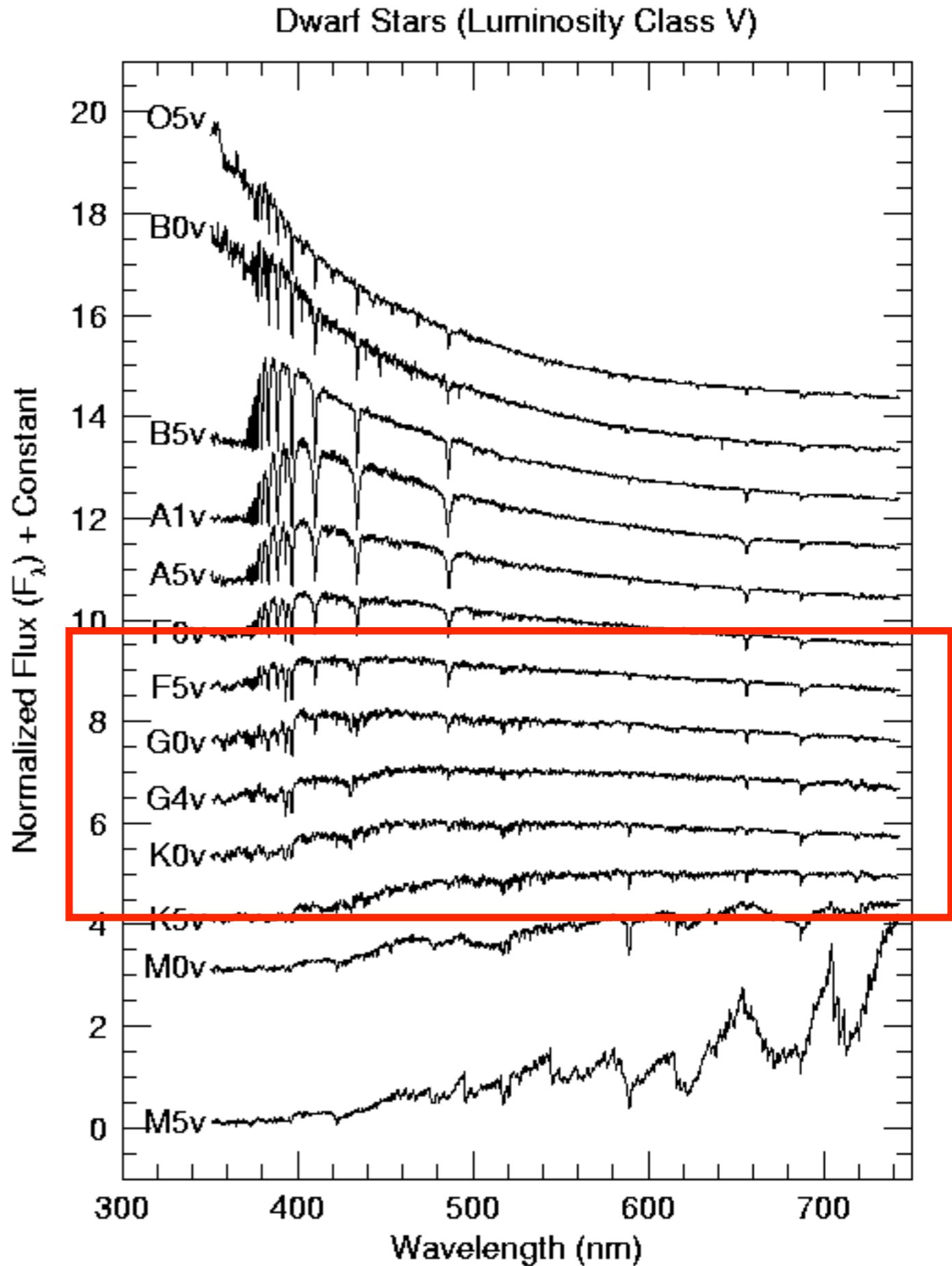


- young stars have larger rotational velocities, and are more active.

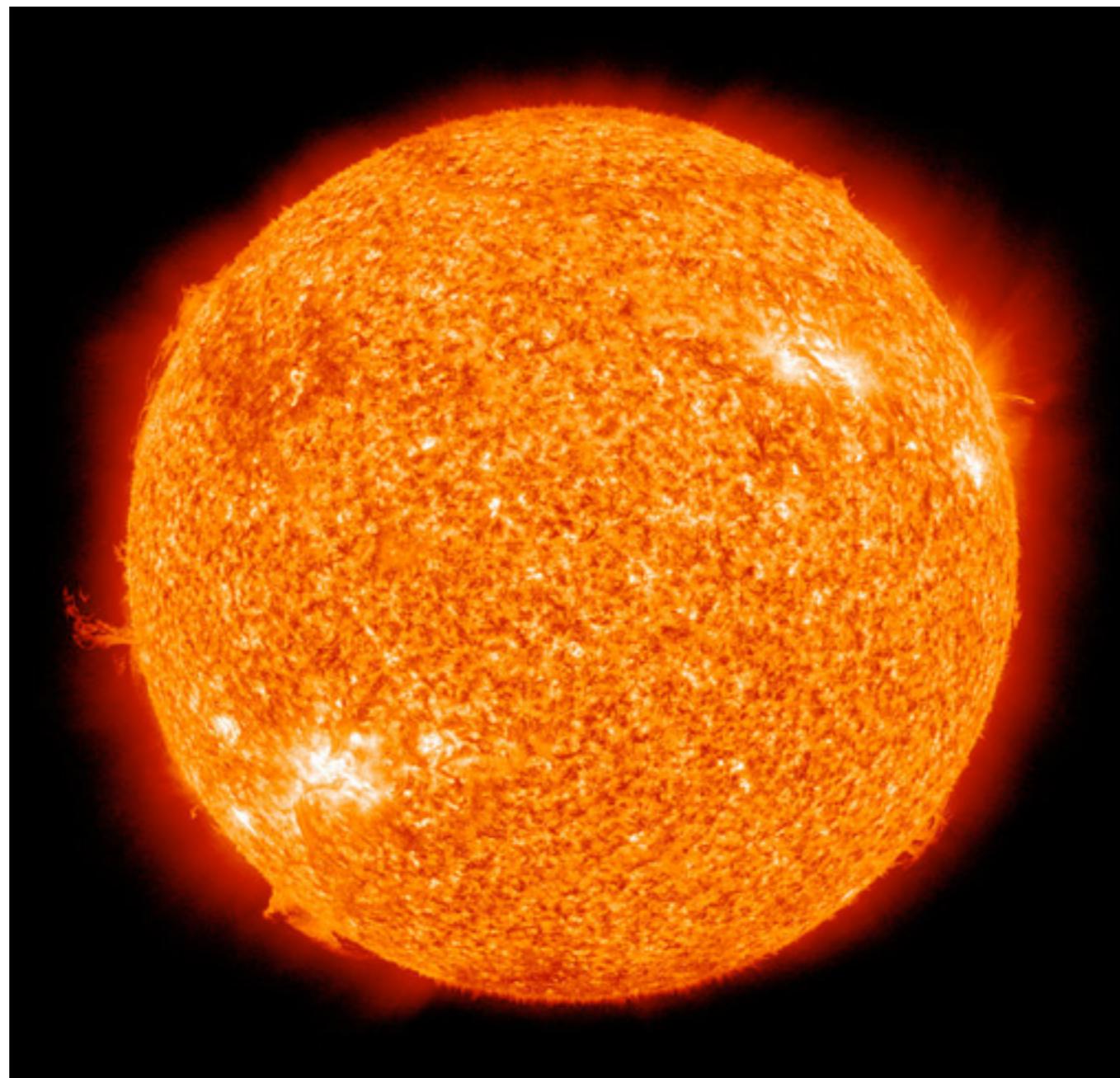
Rotational Broadening (vs SpT):



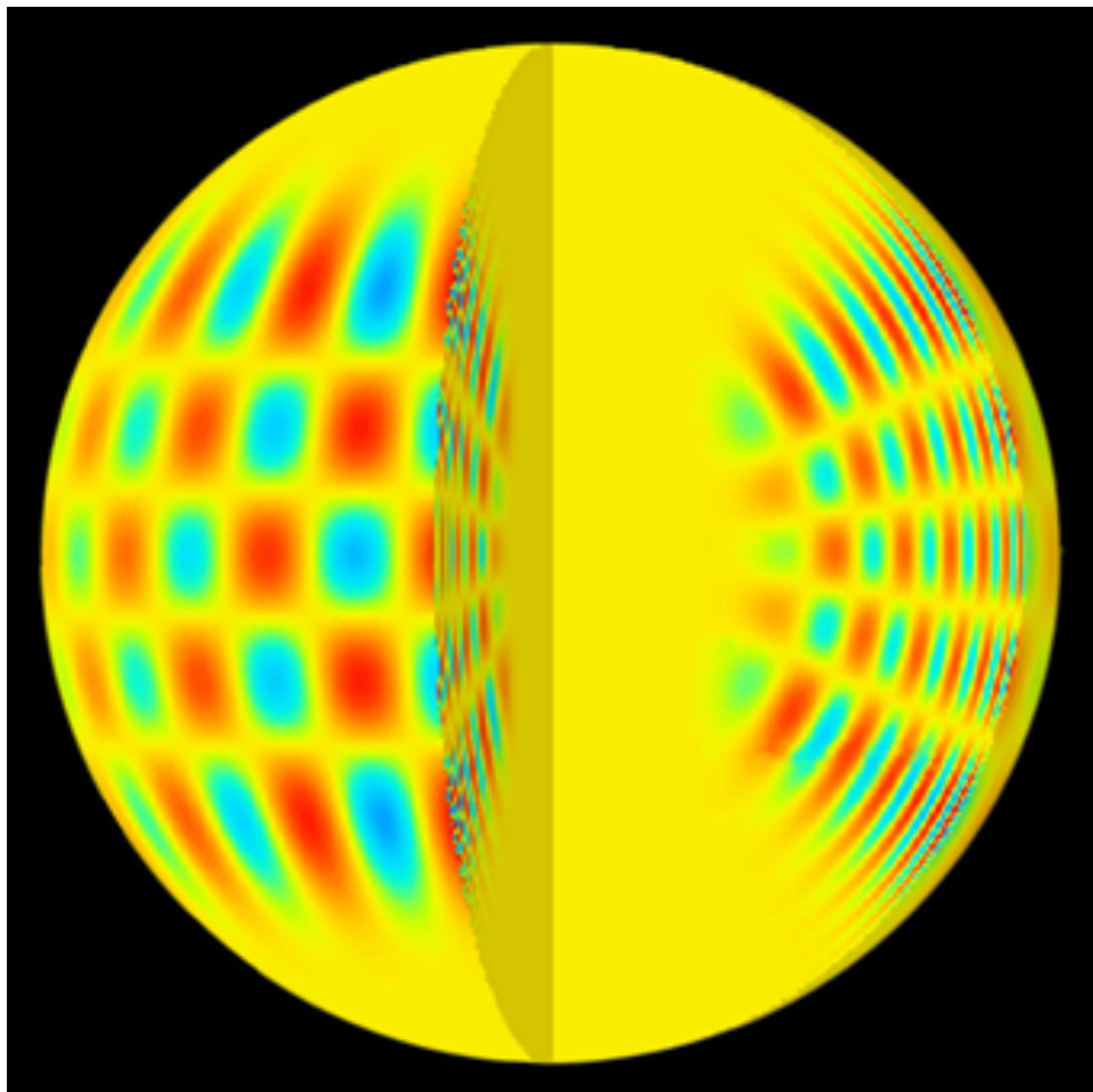
- spectral “richness”
- near peak of QE
- low $\sqrt{V \sin(i)}$
- metal-rich
- old FGK-type = sweet-spot



Problem: areas on the surface with different velocities and brightnesses + changes with time



P-modes (acoustic pressure waves)

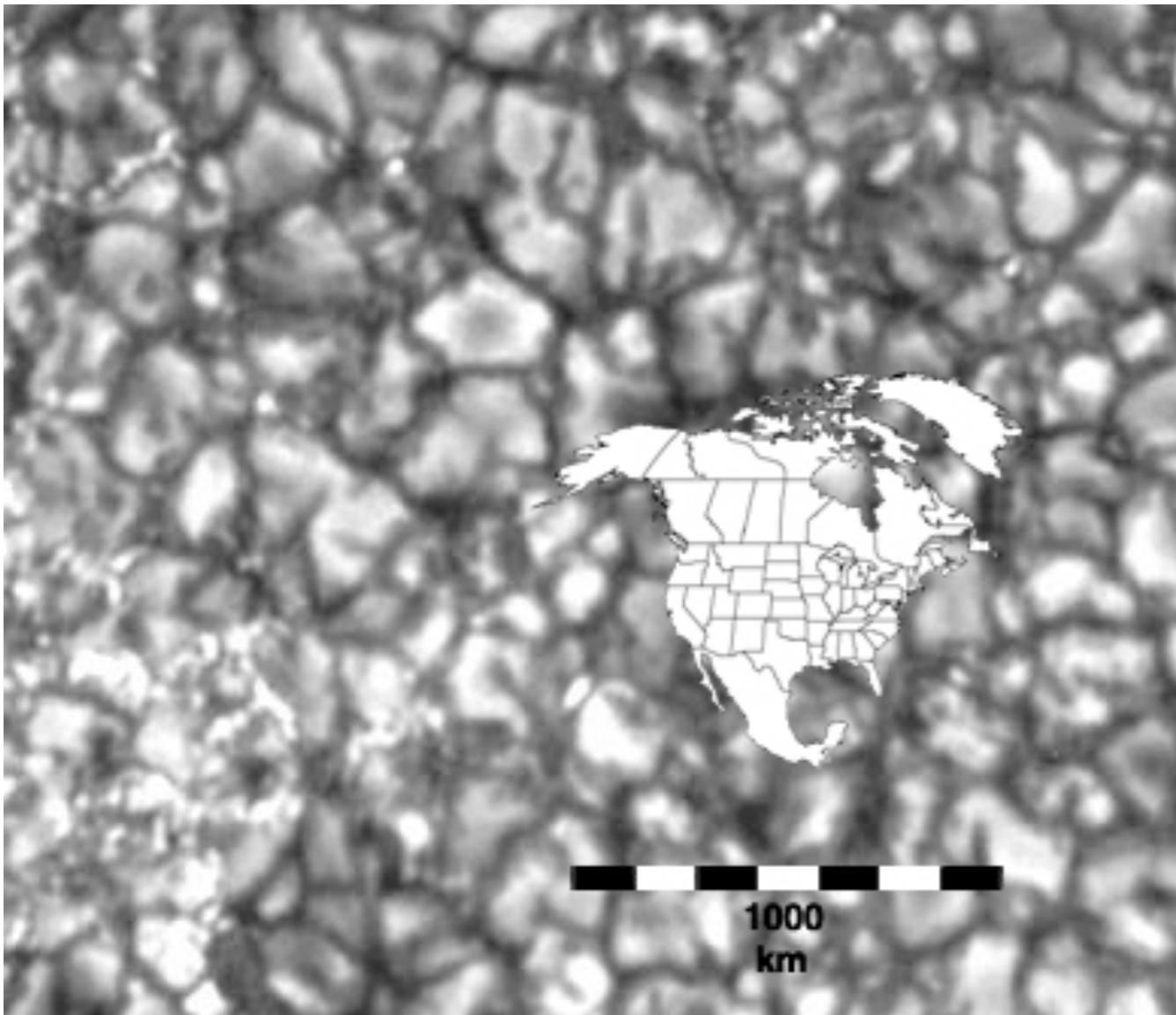


The sun oscillates with a characteristic timescale of five minutes.

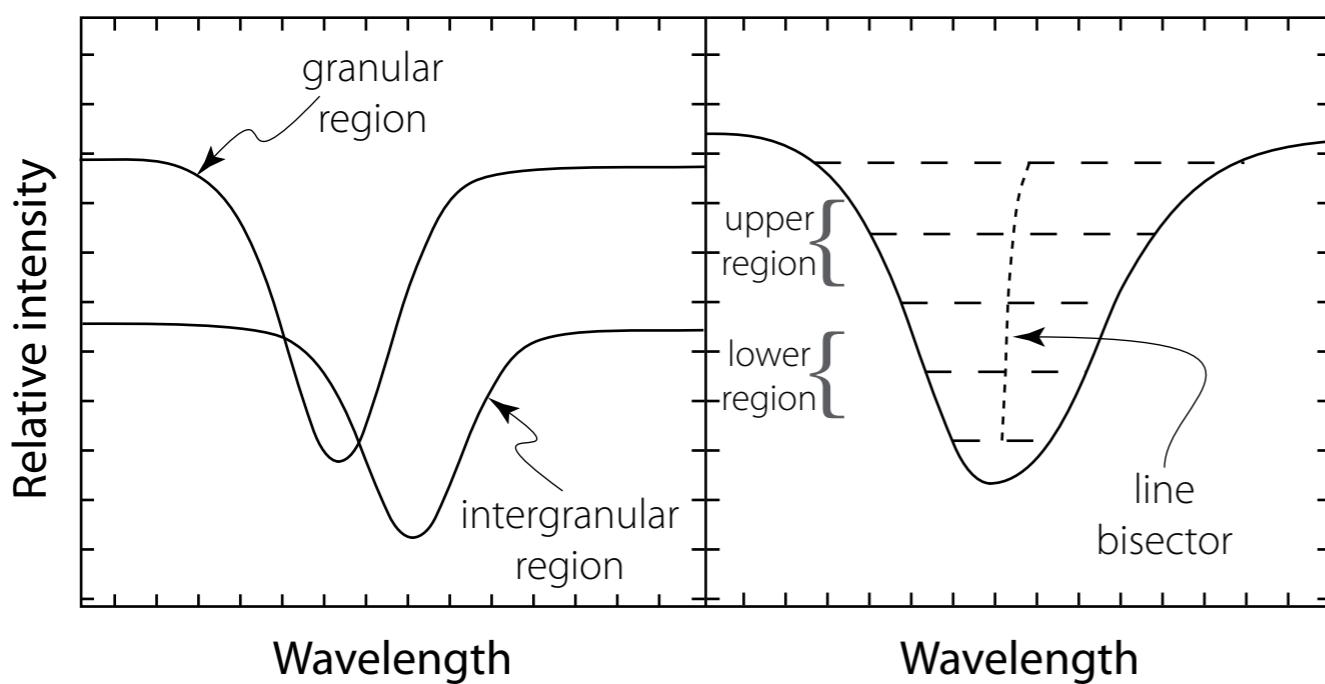
The timescale scales as $\text{sqrt}(\text{density})$, so lower-mass stars have longer timescales, and higher-mass stars have shorter timescales.

Amplitude is approximately 1 m/s.

Granulation

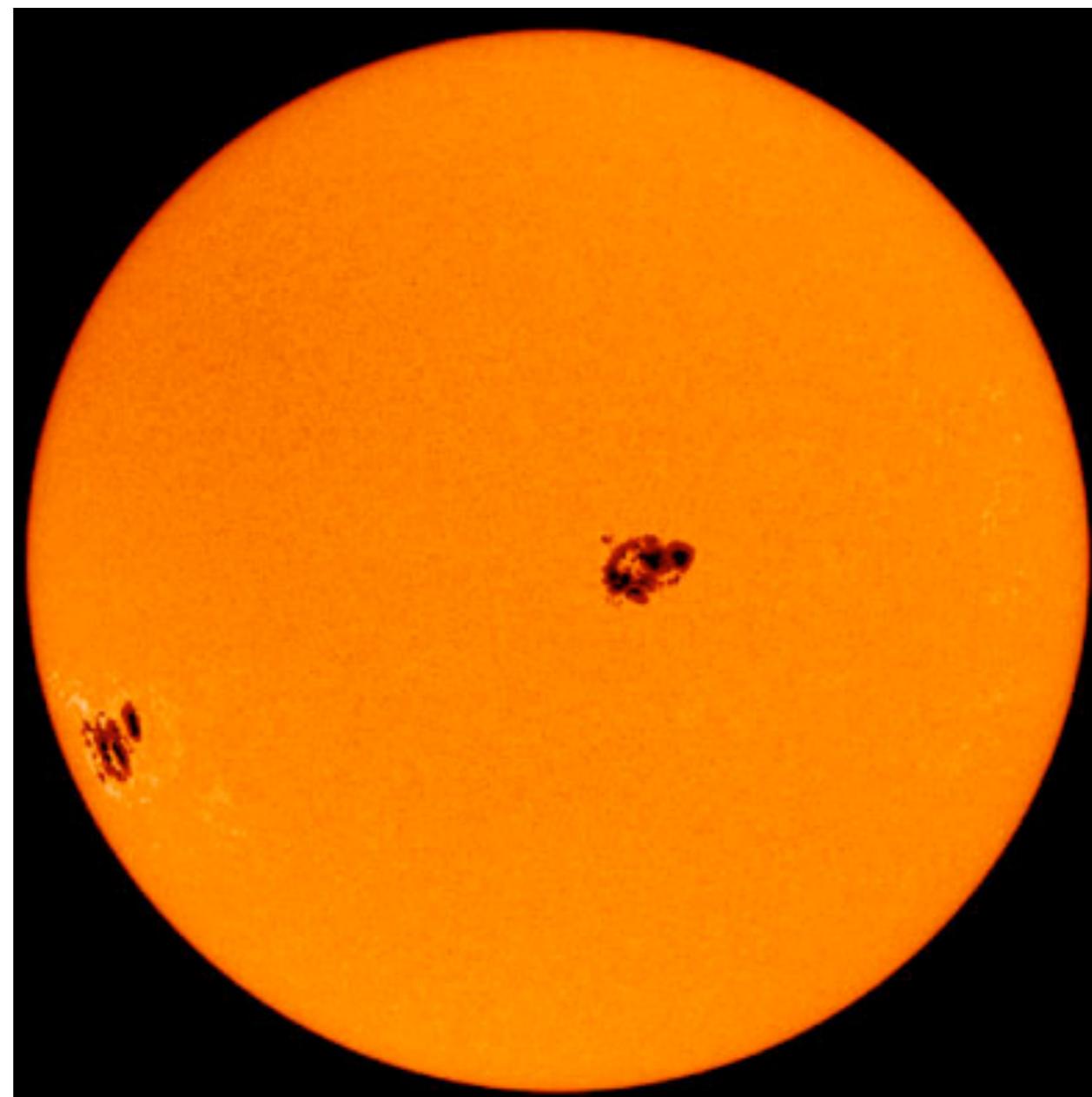


Convective cells on the surface. The bright center is the upwelling of hot gas, and the dark edges are the downward motion of cooler gas.



Length ~ 1000 km
Timescale ~ 10 minutes
Velocity ~ 1 km/s
Number $\sim 10^6$

Spots



A few words about Fourier Transforms

Fourier Transform $f(\sigma) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(x)e^{2\pi ix\sigma}dx$

$e^{i\theta} = \cos(\theta) + i\sin(\theta)$

Inverse Fourier
Transform $F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(\sigma)e^{-2\pi ix\sigma}dx$

$$f(\sigma) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F_R(x) \cos 2\pi x\sigma dx + i \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F_I(x) \sin 2\pi x\sigma dx$$

$$+ i \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F_R(x) \sin 2\pi x\sigma dx - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F_I(x) \cos 2\pi x\sigma dx$$

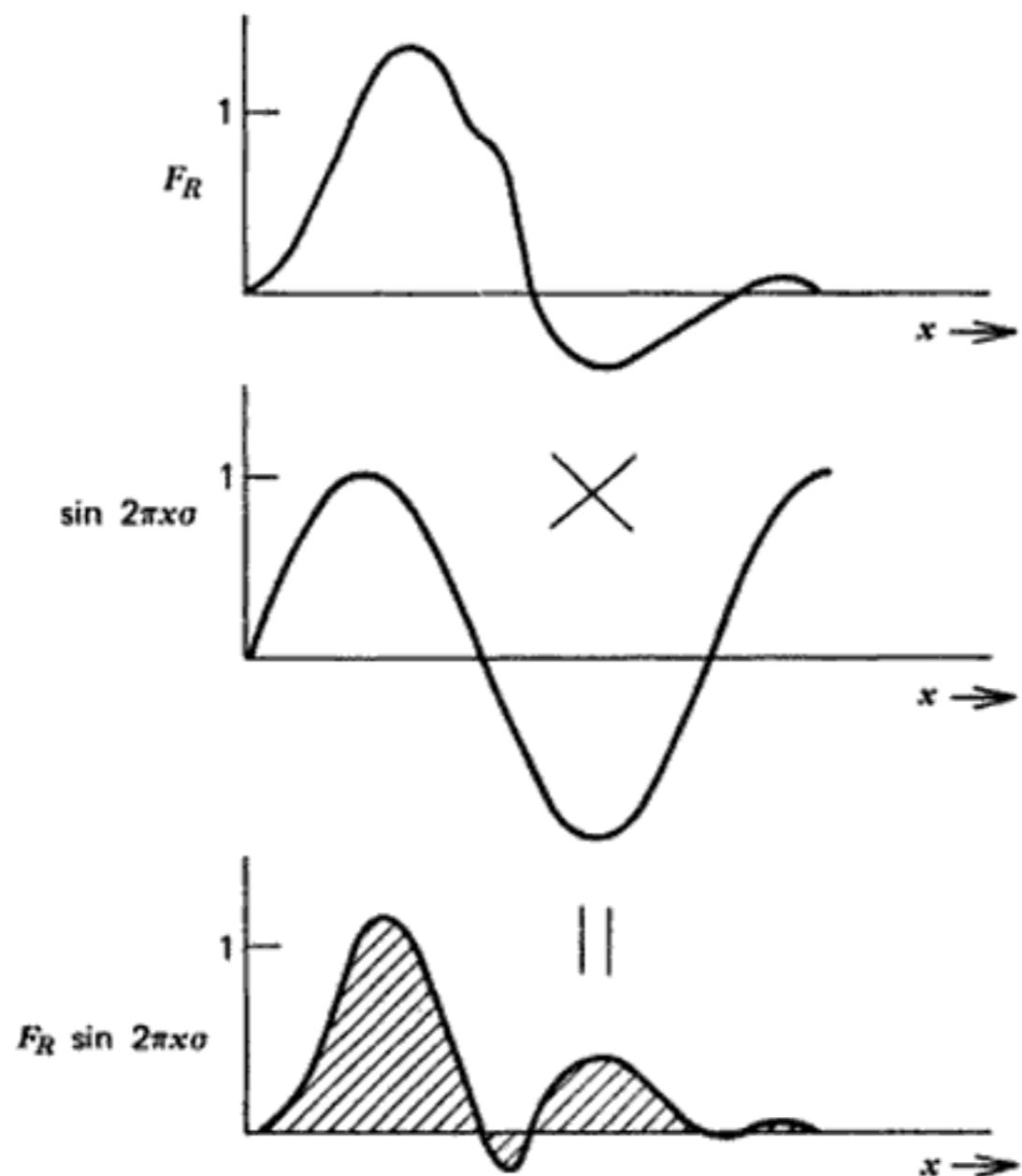
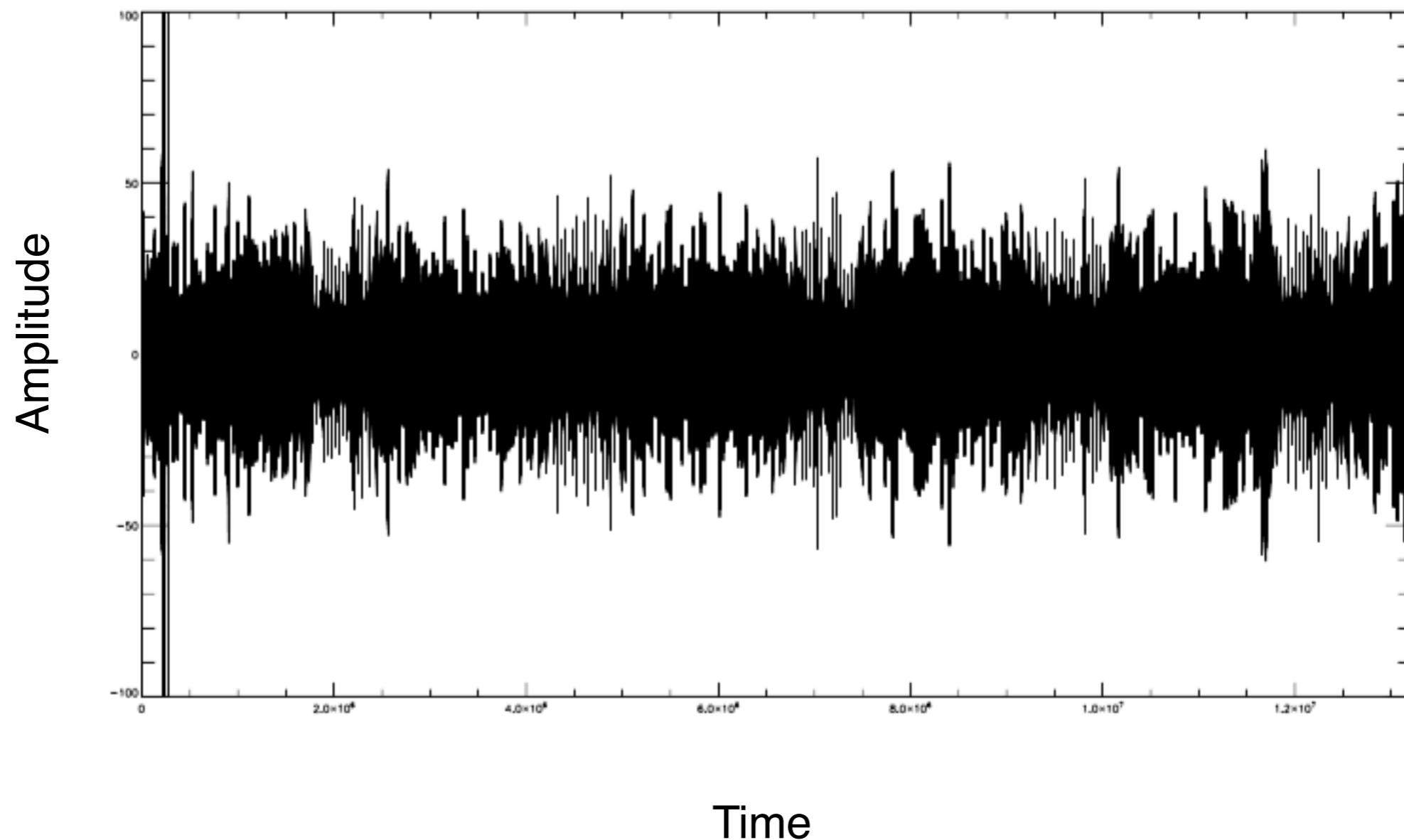
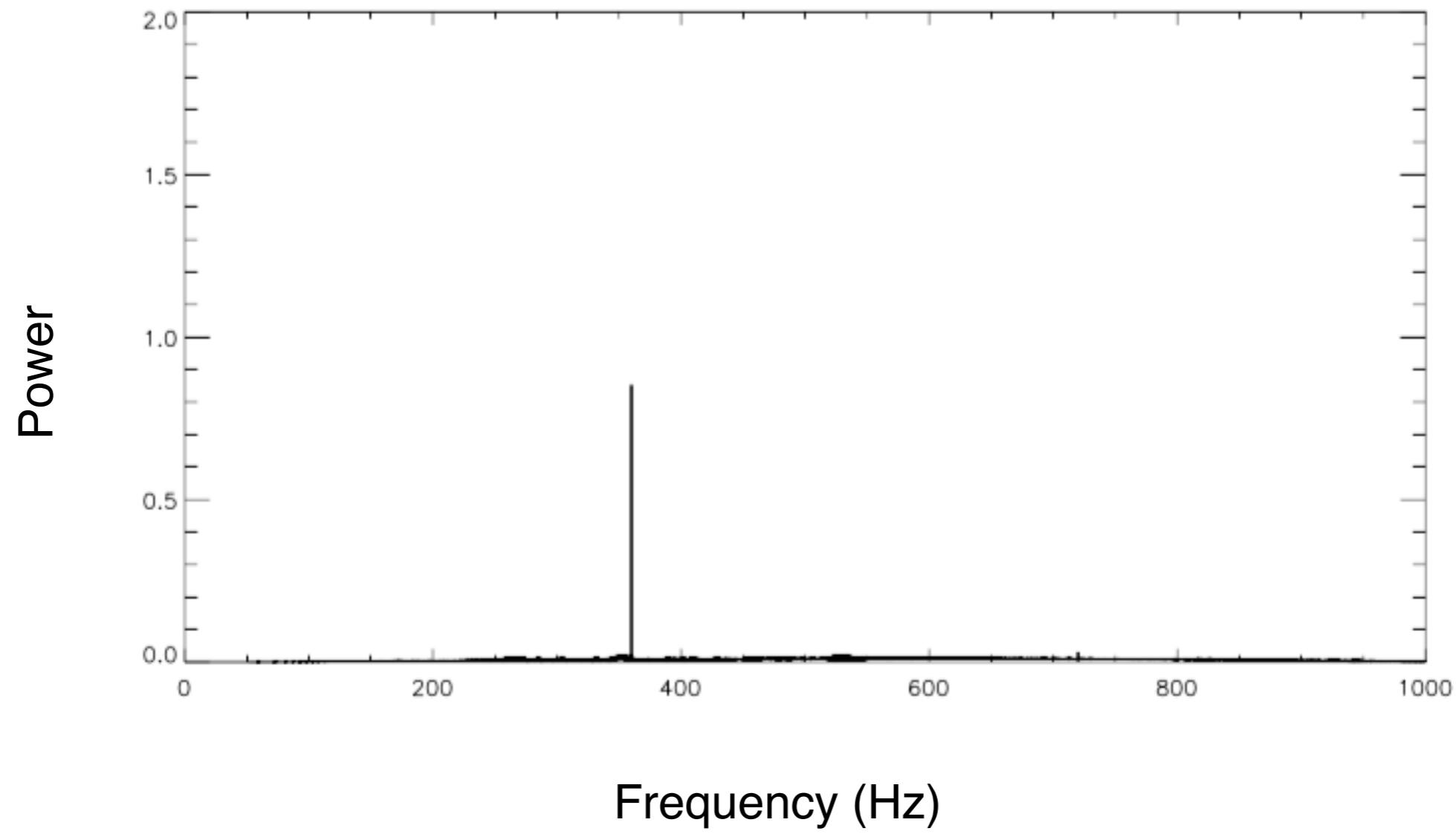


Fig. 2.1. The arbitrary real function $F_R(x)$ is multiplied by $\sin 2\pi x\sigma$ to give the bottom curve. The area is the value of the transform $f(\sigma)$ for one value of σ .

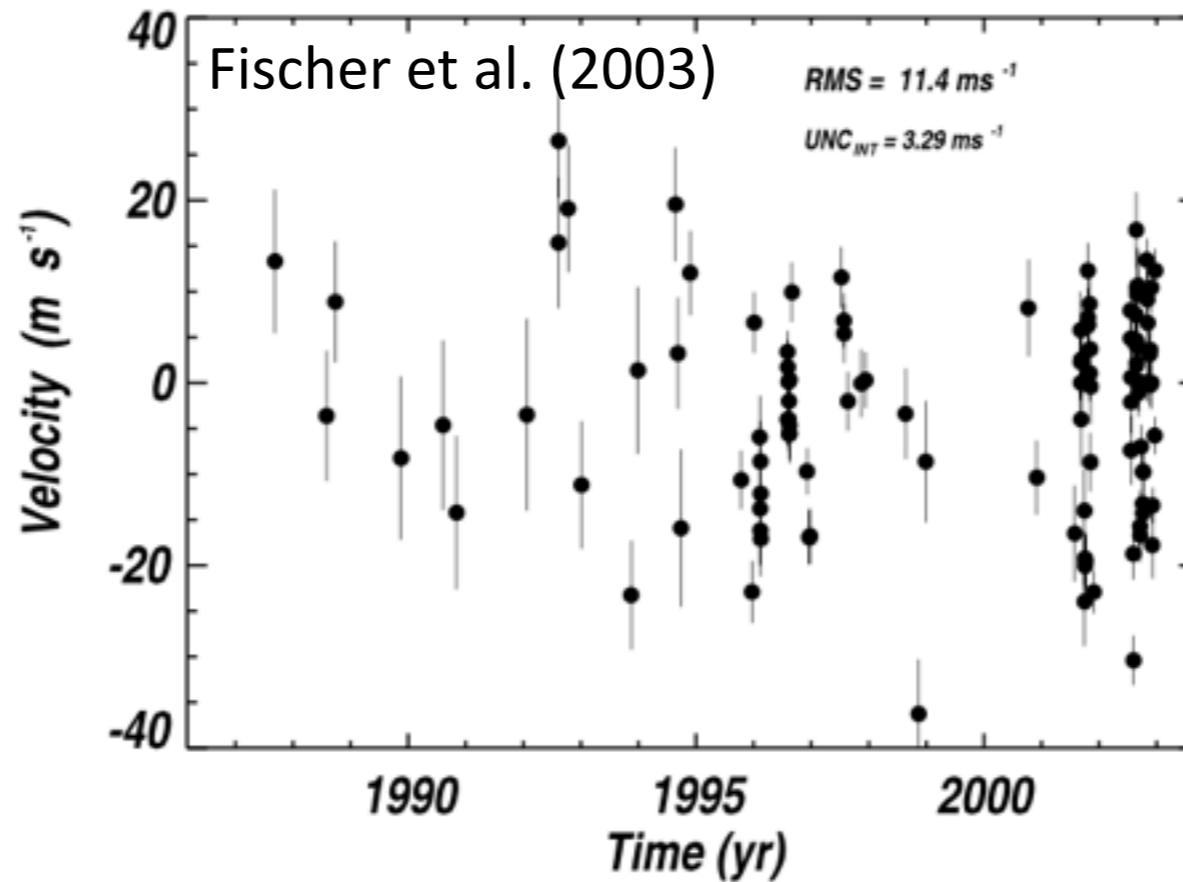
The professor's watch



The professor's watch



Sub-saturn mass planet HD3651

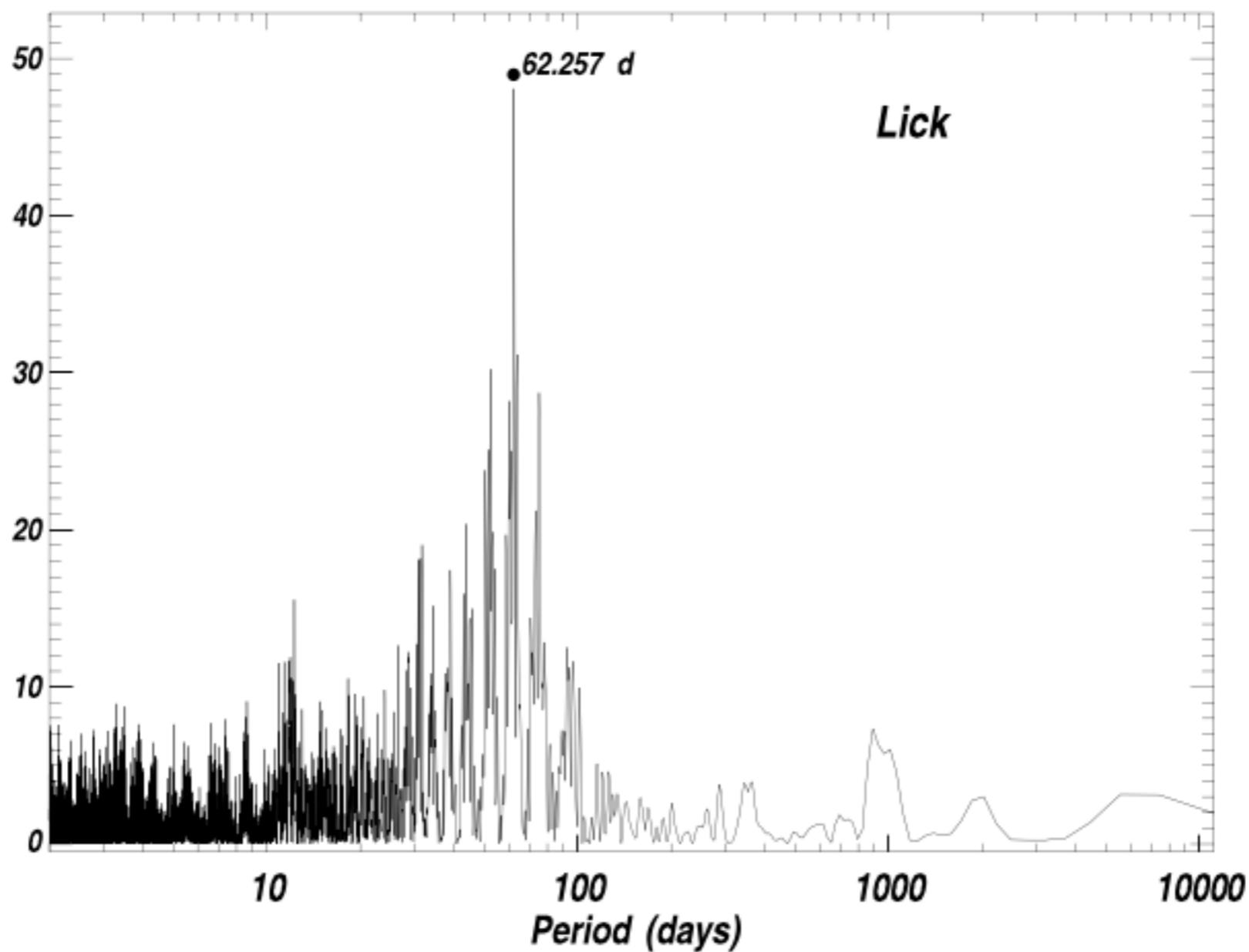


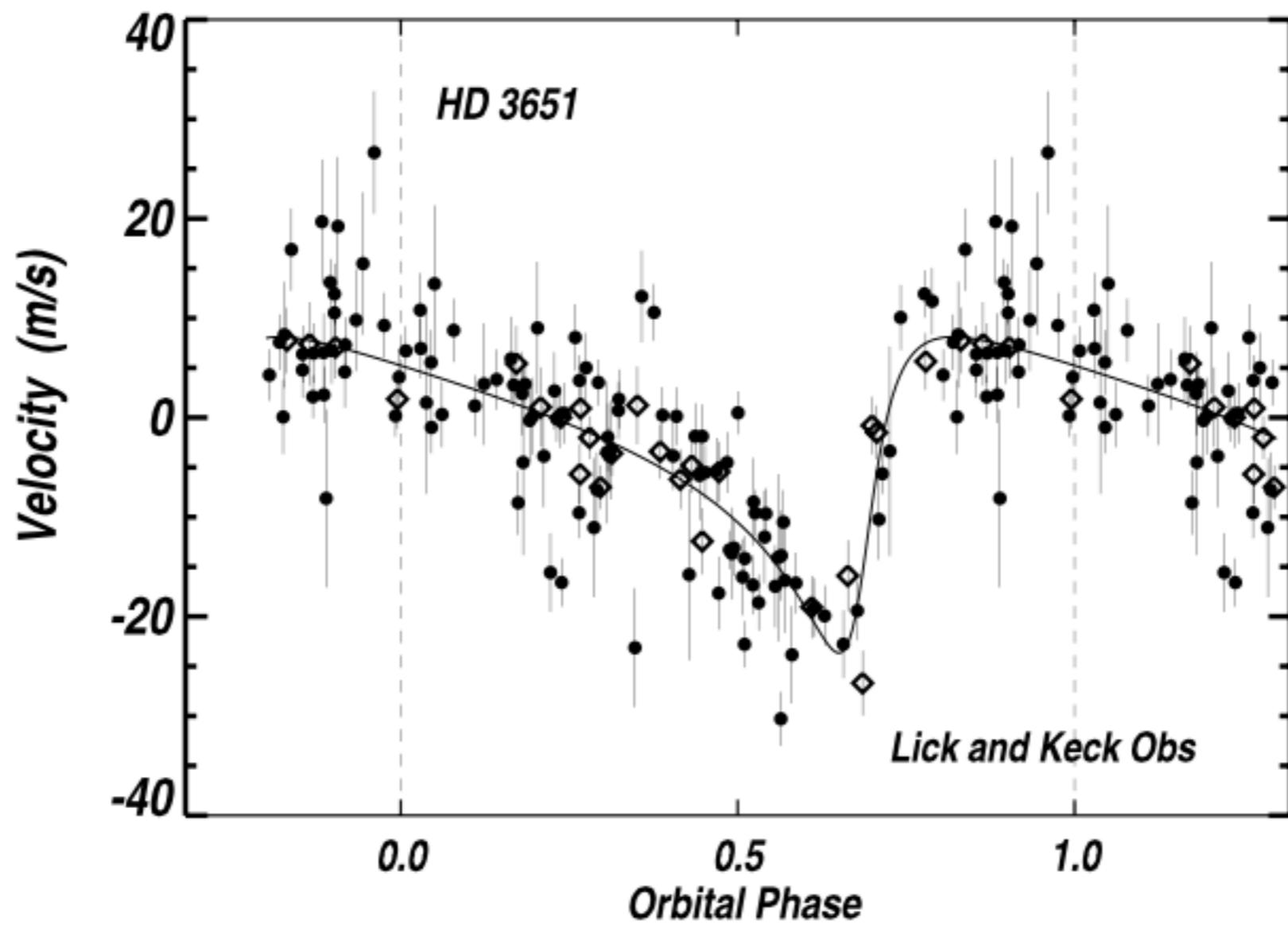
$$P_v(\omega) = \frac{1}{N} |\text{FT}_v(\omega)|^2$$

“Power Spectrum”
(or Lomb-Scargle
periodogram, Lomb 1976)

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{1}{N_0} \left| \sum_{j=1}^{N_0} v(t_j) \exp(-i\omega t_j) \right|^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{N_0} \left[\left(\sum_j v_j \cos(\omega t_j) \right)^2 + \left(\sum_j v_j \sin(\omega t_j) \right)^2 \right] \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P_v(\omega) &= \frac{1}{N} |\text{FT}_v(\omega)|^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{N_0} \left| \sum_{j=1}^{N_0} v(t_j) \exp(-i\omega t_j) \right|^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{N_0} \left[\left(\sum_j v_j \cos(\omega t_j) \right)^2 + \left(\sum_j v_j \sin(\omega t_j) \right)^2 \right] \end{aligned}$$

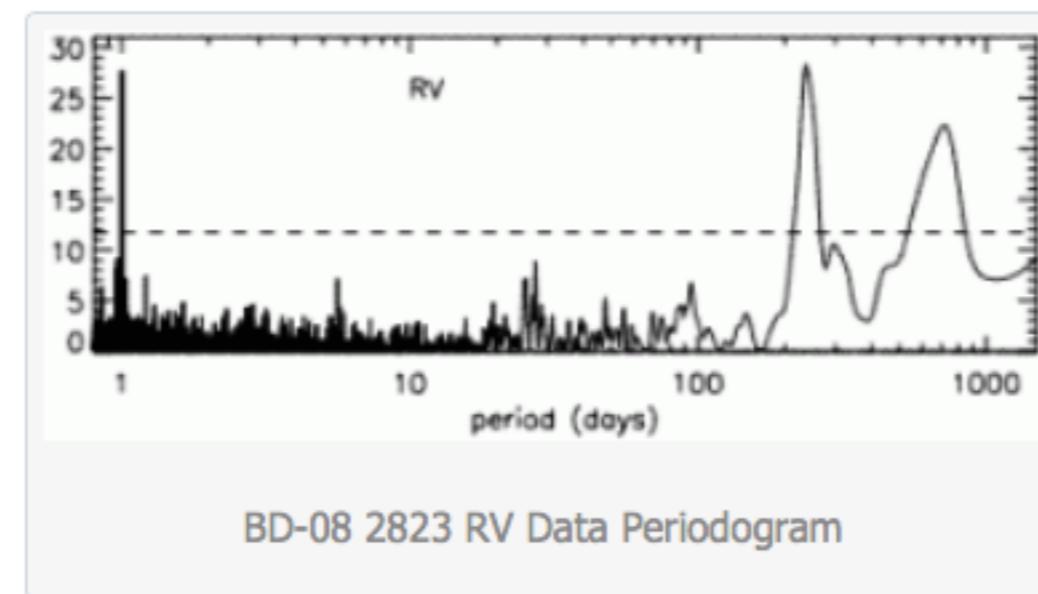




Multi-planets Example:

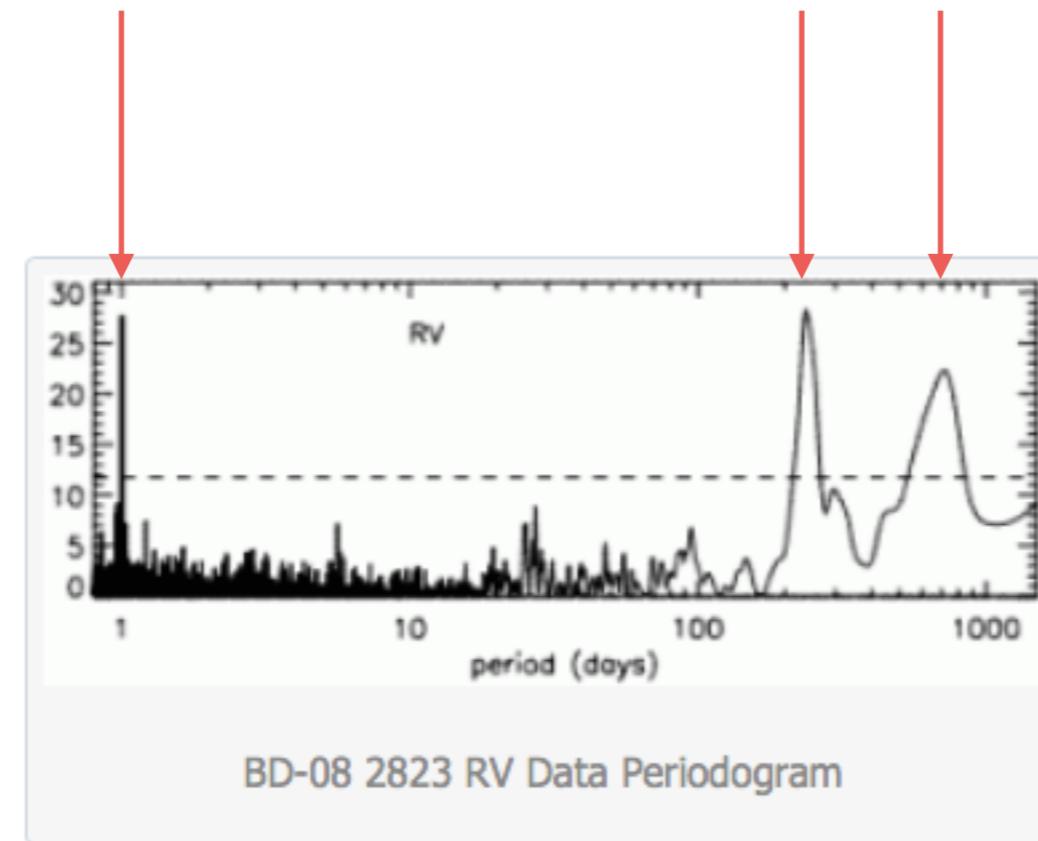
Example from HARPS southern survey,
some planets orbiting active star BD-08 2823
(Hebrard et al. 2010)

Multi-planets Example:



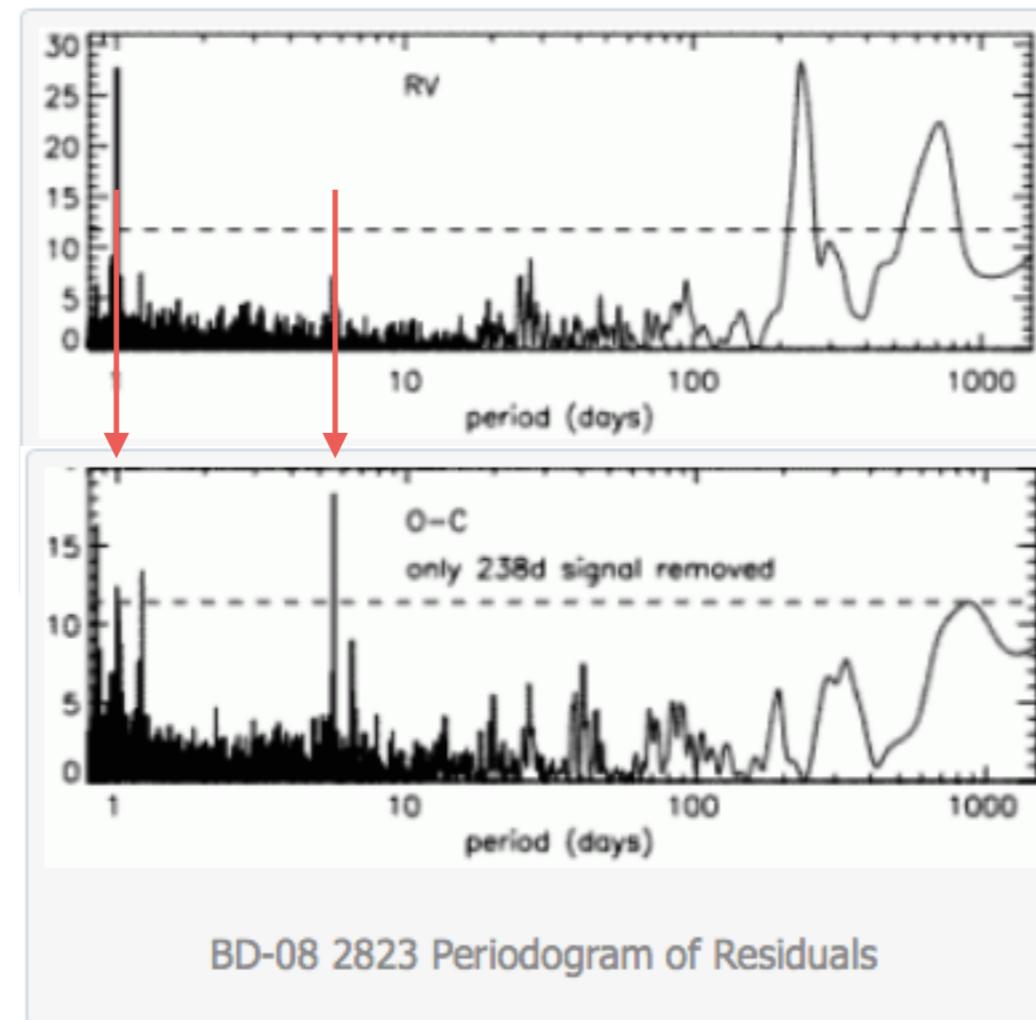
How many planets do you see?

Multi-planets Example:

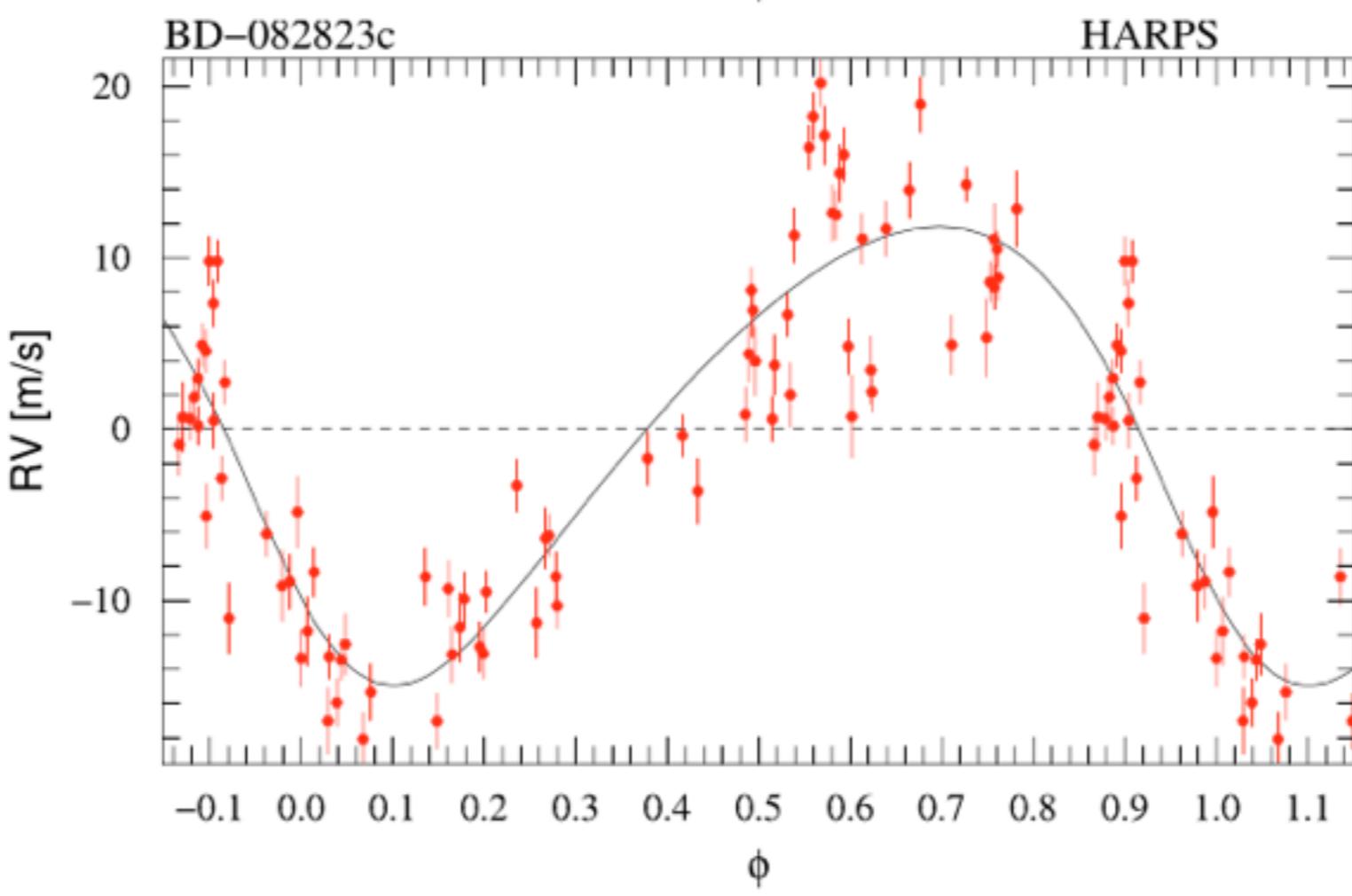
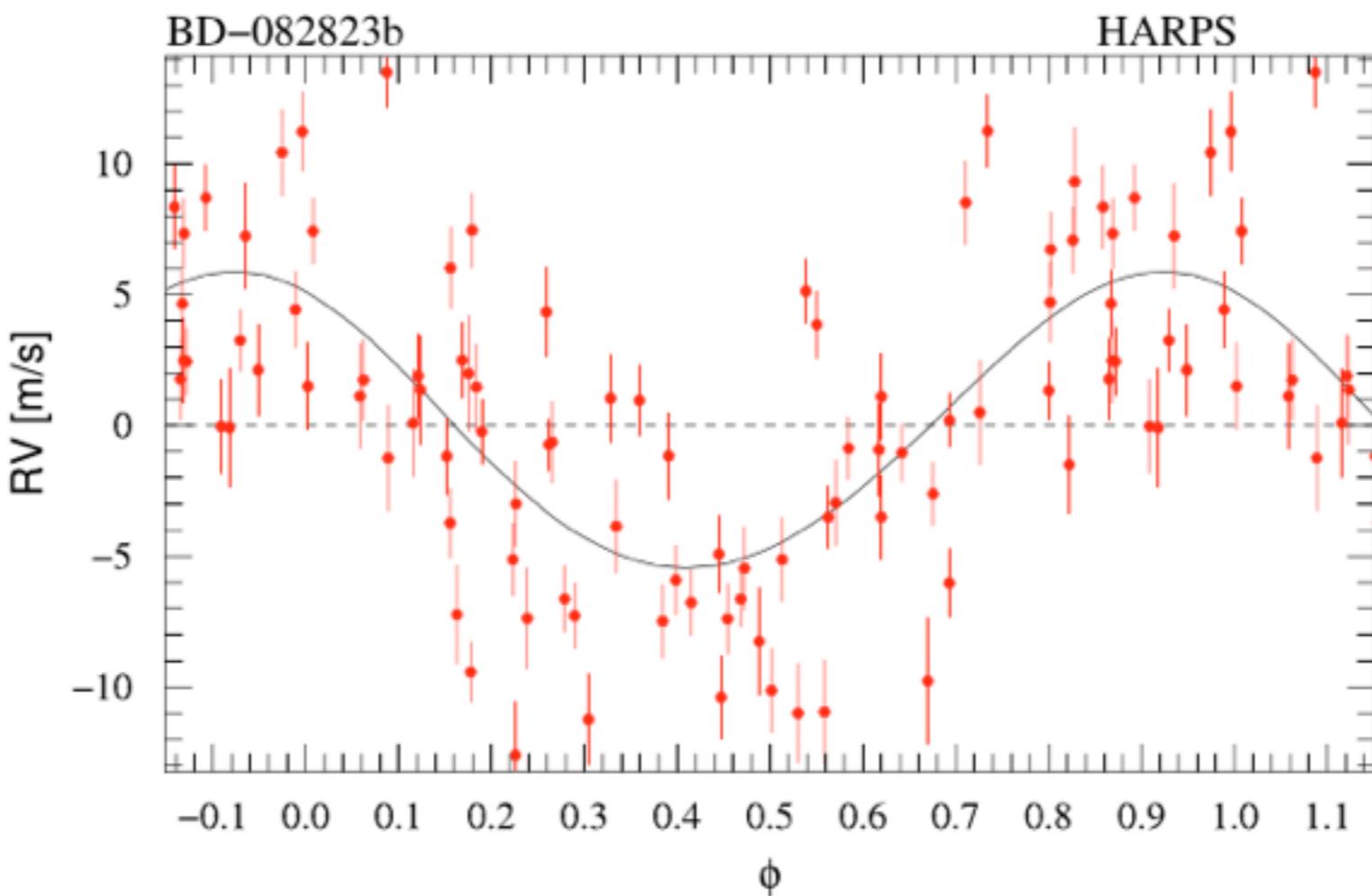


How many planets do you see?

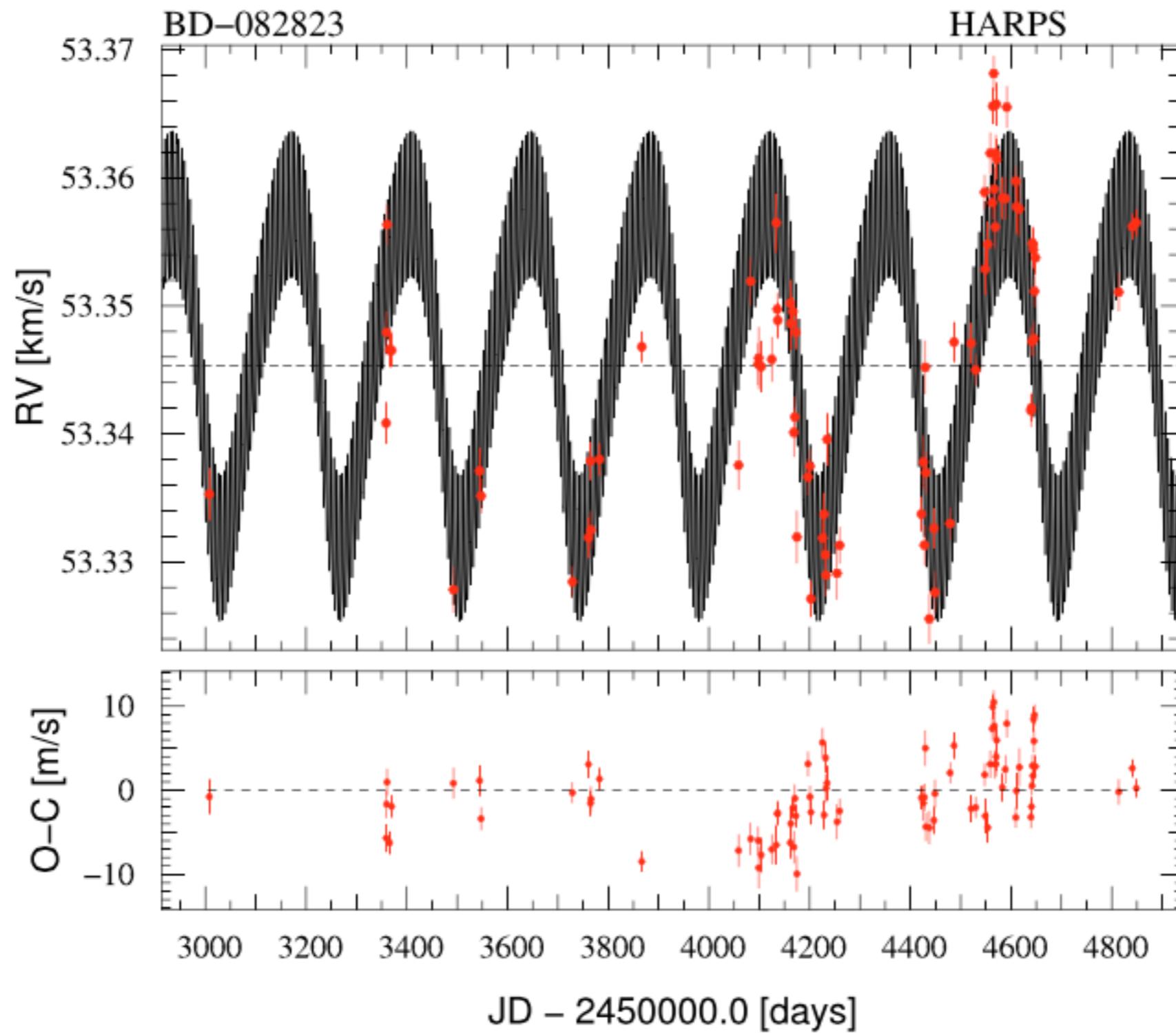
Multi-planets Example:



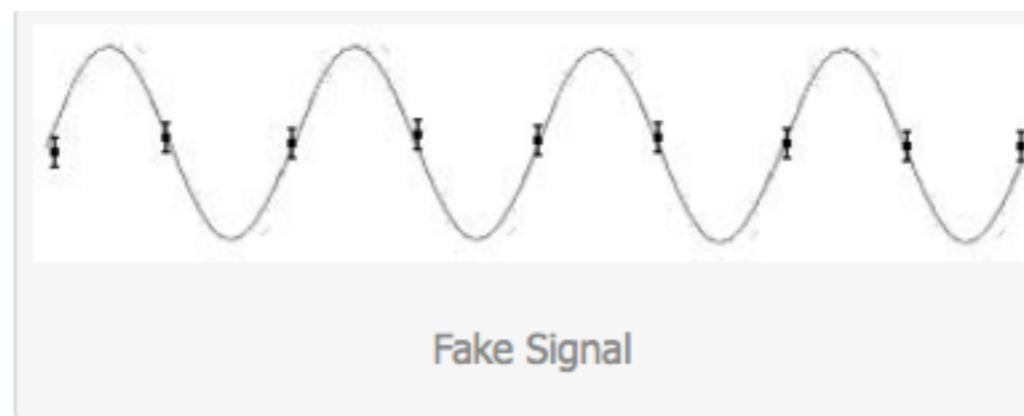
With 238 day signal removed

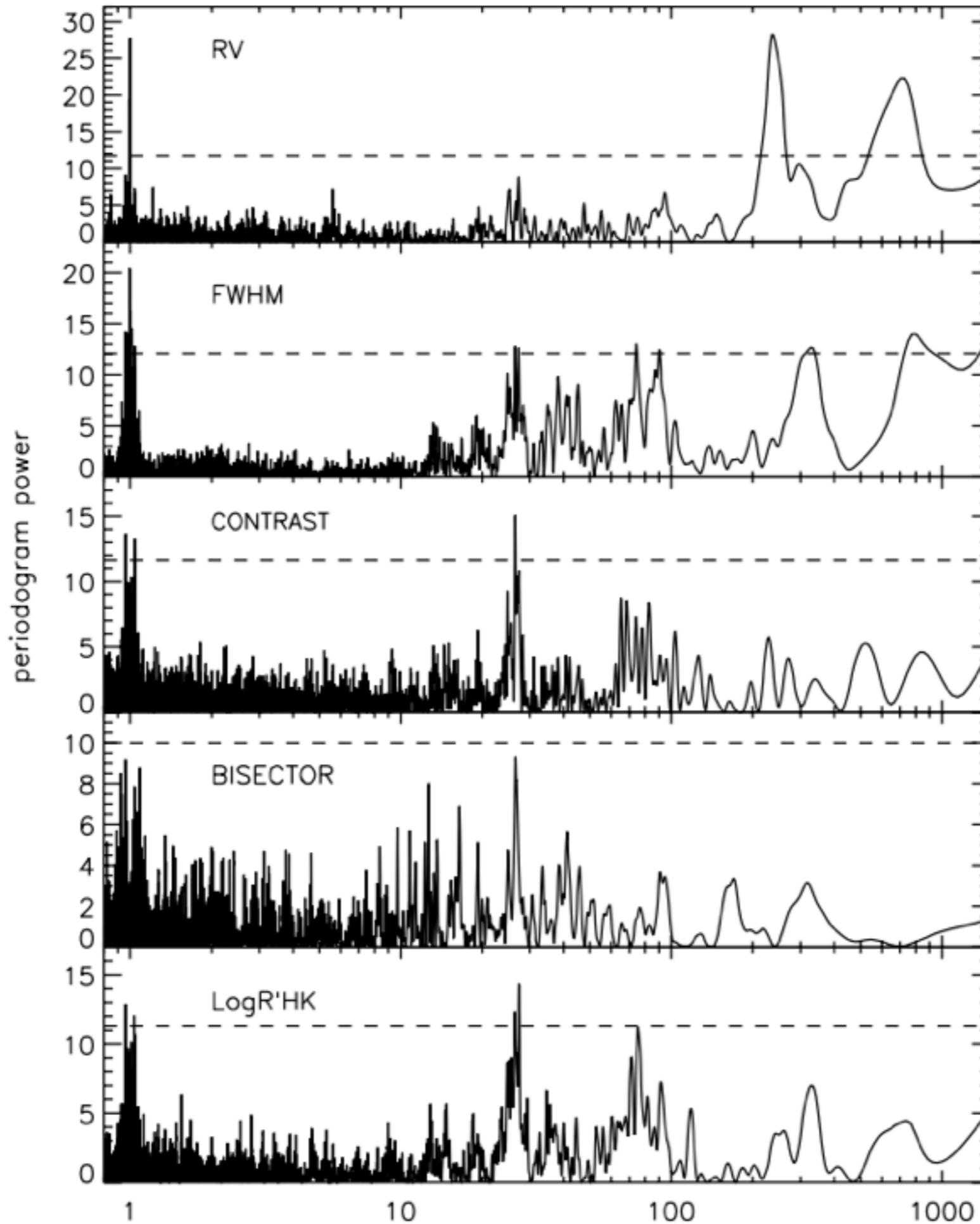


Combined Fits to the data



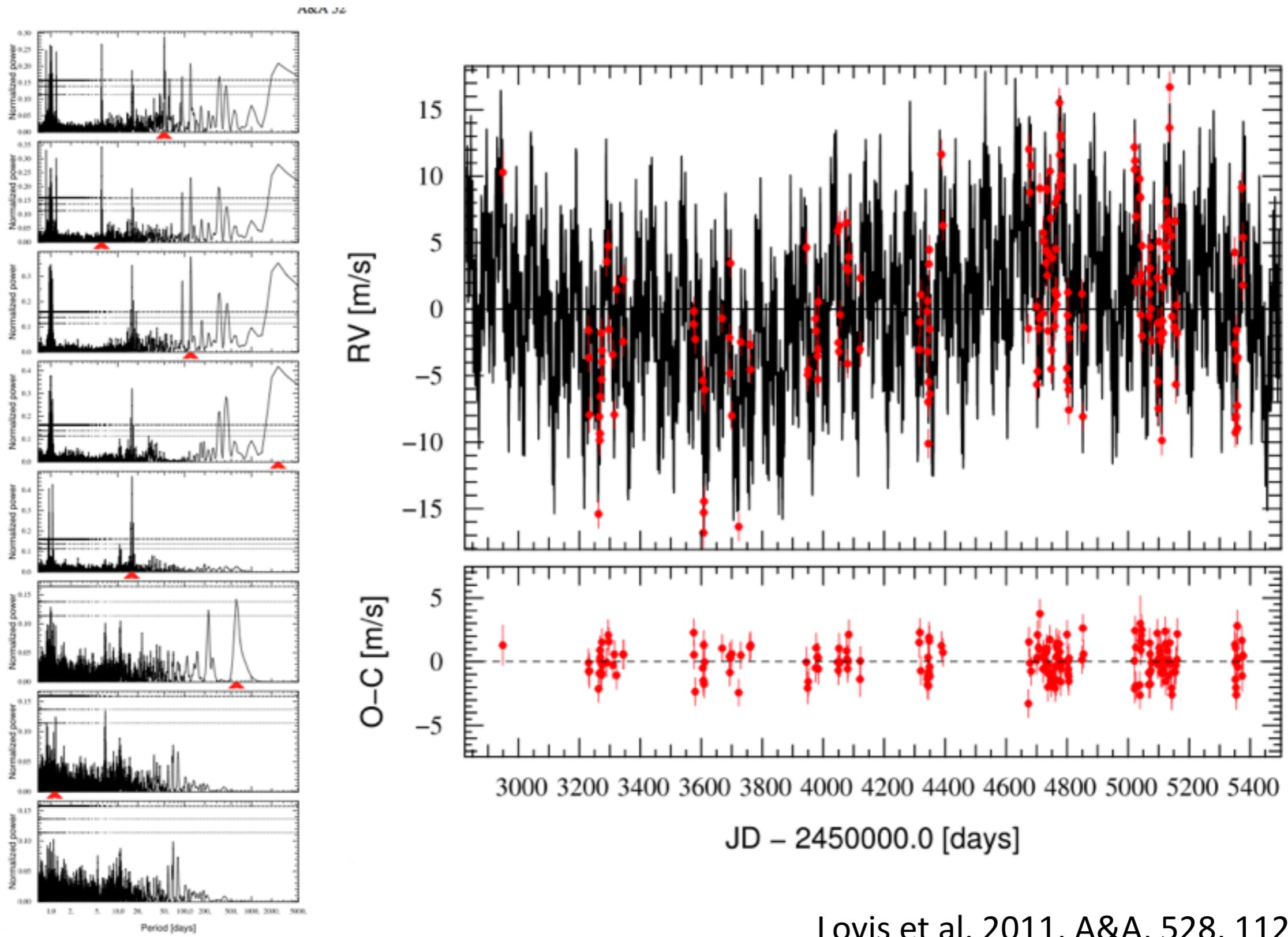
What about the planet at 1 day?





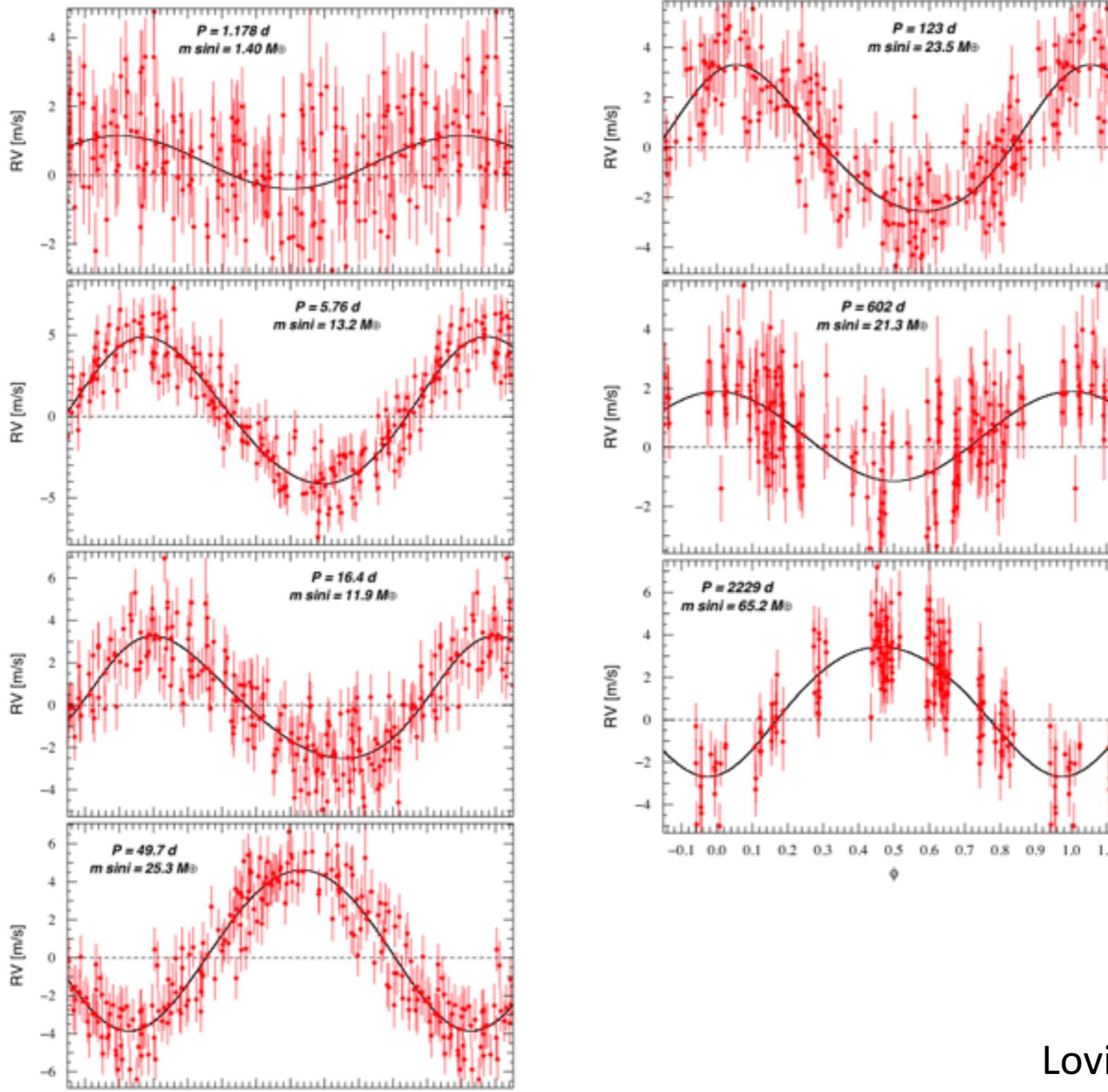
This is an active star

Seven planets around a single star (HD10180)



Lovis et al. 2011, A&A, 528, 112

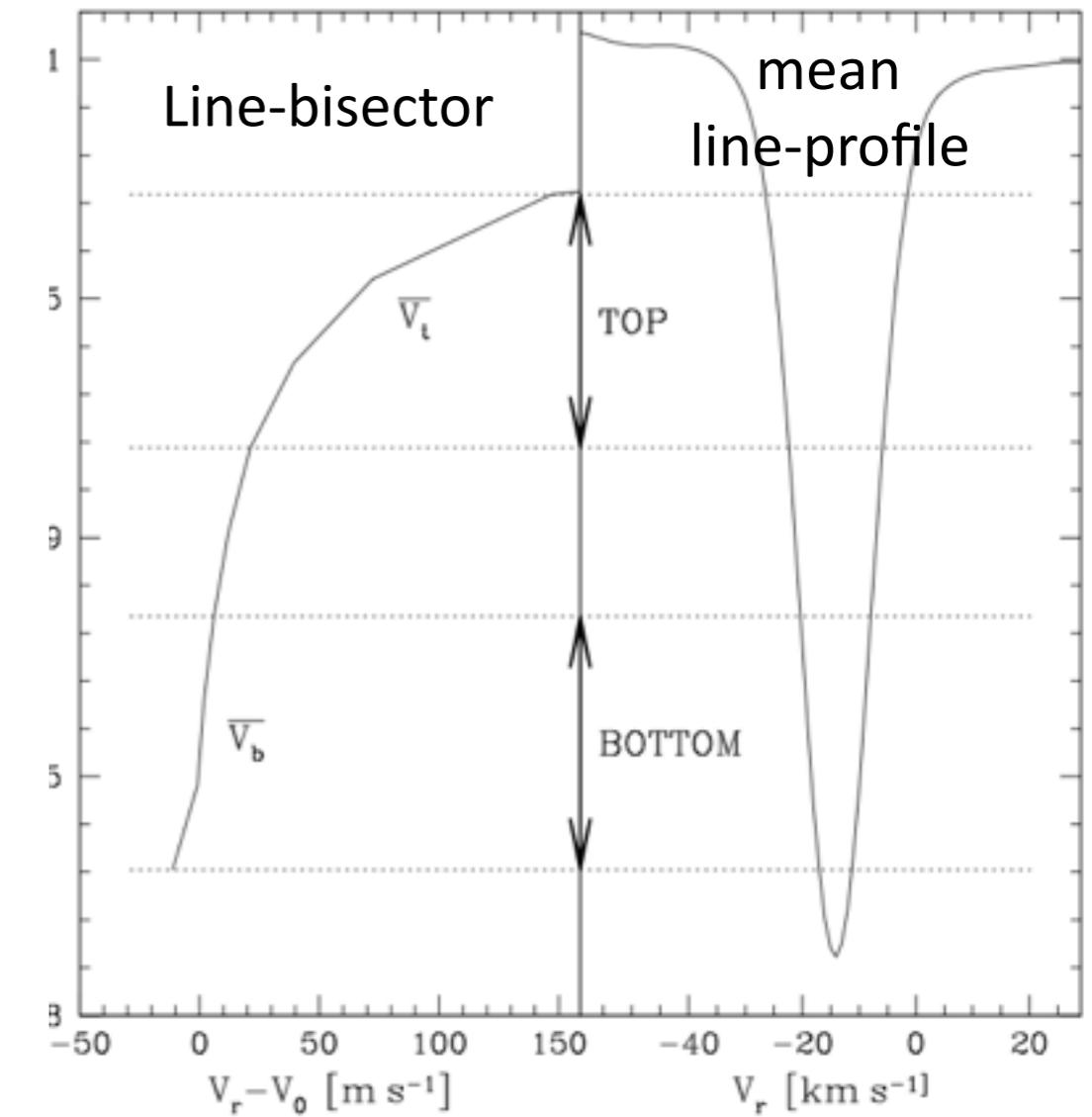
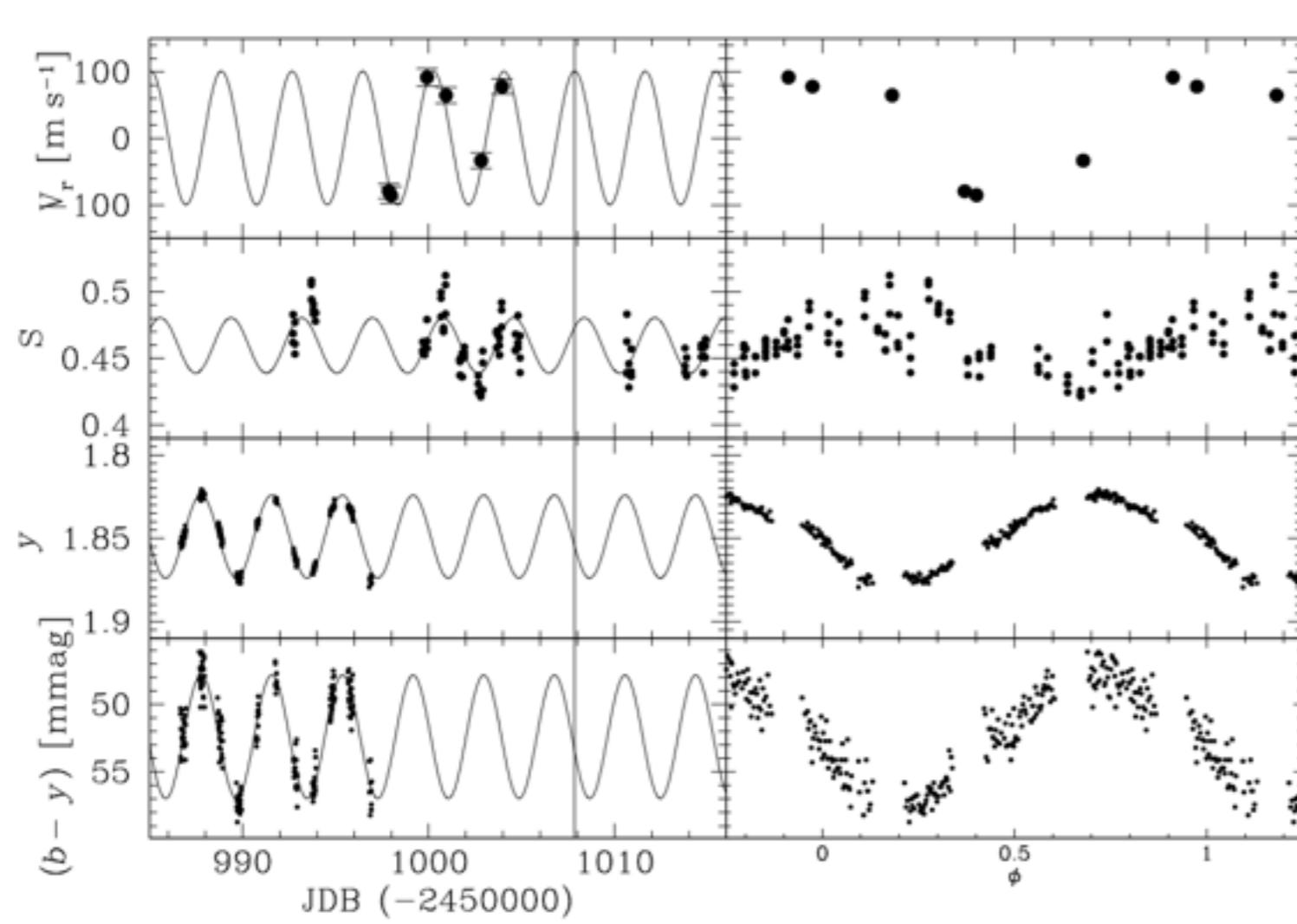
Seven planets around a single star (HD10180)



Lovis et al. 2011, A&A, 528, 112

Activity and RVs

HD166435: spots masquerading as a planet!



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