

On the Unique Solution of Planet and Star Parameters from an Extrasolar Planet Transit Light Curve

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Abstract. A unique analytical solution of planet and star parameters can be derived from an extrasolar planet transit light curve under a number of assumptions. This analytical solution can be used to choose the best planet transit candidates for radial velocity follow-up measurements. In practice, high photometric precision (< 0.005 mag) and high time sampling (< 5 minutes) are needed for this method. See Seager & Mallén-Ornelas (2003) for full details.

1. Assumptions

The following assumptions and conditions are necessary for a light curve to yield a unique solution of planet and star parameters:

- The planet orbit is circular (valid for tidally-circularized extrasolar planets);
- $M_p \ll M_*$ and the companion is dark compared to the central star;
- The stellar mass-radius relation is known;
- The light comes from a single star, rather than from two or more blended stars;
- The eclipses have flat bottoms. This implies that the companion is fully superimposed on the central star's disk and requires that the data are in a band pass where limb darkening is negligible;
- The period can be derived from the light curve (e.g., the two observed eclipses are consecutive).

In this article M is mass, R is radius, ρ is density, P is period, a is orbital semi-major axis, i is the orbital inclination, and G is the Gravitational constant. Where required the subscript p is for planet, $*$ for stellar, and \odot for solar.

2. The Simplified Equations

Five equations are used to uniquely solve for M_* , R_* , a , i , and R_p . The simplified equations presented below require the additional assumption that $R_* \ll a$.

Transit depth

$$\Delta F \equiv \frac{F_{no\ transit} - F_{transit}}{F_{no\ transit}} = \left(\frac{R_p}{R_*}\right)^2. \quad (1)$$

Total transit duration

$$t_T = \frac{PR_*}{\pi a} \sqrt{\left(1 + \frac{R_p}{R_*}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{a}{R_*} \cos i\right)^2}. \quad (2)$$

Transit shape (t_F = flat part of transit and t_T = total transit duration)

$$\left(\frac{t_F}{t_T}\right)^2 = \frac{\left(1 - \frac{R_p}{R_*}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{a}{R_*} \cos i\right)^2}{\left(1 + \frac{R_p}{R_*}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{a}{R_*} \cos i\right)^2}. \quad (3)$$

Kepler's Third Law

$$P^2 = \frac{4\pi^2 a^3}{GM_*}. \quad (4)$$

Stellar mass-radius relation

$$R_* = kM_*^x. \quad (5)$$

Here k is a constant coefficient for each stellar sequence (main sequence, giants, etc.) and x describes the power law of the sequence (e.g., $k = 1$ and $x \simeq 0.8$ for F–K main sequence stars (Cox 2000)). Note that Kepler's Third Law and the stellar mass-radius relation set a physical scale to two disks passing in front of each other. This breaks the geometrical degeneracy and allows a unique solution.

3. The Simplified Solution

The five parameters M_* , R_* , a , i , and R_p can be solved for uniquely from the above five equations. Moreover, the impact parameter $b \equiv a \cos i / R_*$ and stellar density ρ_* can be solved for uniquely without the stellar mass-radius relation.

$$b = \left[\frac{(1 - \sqrt{\Delta F})^2 - \left(\frac{t_F}{t_T}\right)^2 (1 + \sqrt{\Delta F})^2}{1 - \left(\frac{t_F}{t_T}\right)^2} \right]^{1/2}. \quad (6)$$

$$\rho_* = \frac{32}{G\pi} P \frac{\Delta F^{3/4}}{(t_T^2 - t_F^2)^{3/2}}. \quad (7)$$

$$\frac{M_*}{M_\odot} = \left[k^3 \frac{\rho_*}{\rho_\odot} \right]^{\frac{1}{1-3x}}. \quad (8)$$

$$\frac{R_*}{R_\odot} = k \left(\frac{M_*}{M_\odot} \right)^x = \left[k^{1/x} \frac{\rho_*}{\rho_\odot} \right]^{\frac{x}{(1-3x)}}. \quad (9)$$

$$a = \left[\frac{P^2 G M_*}{4\pi^2} \right]^{1/3}. \quad (10)$$

$$i = \cos^{-1} \left(b \frac{R_*}{a} \right). \quad (11)$$

$$\frac{R_p}{R_\odot} = \frac{R_*}{R_\odot} \sqrt{\Delta F} = \left[k^{1/x} \frac{\rho_*}{\rho_\odot} \right]^{\frac{x}{(1-3x)}} \sqrt{\Delta F}. \quad (12)$$

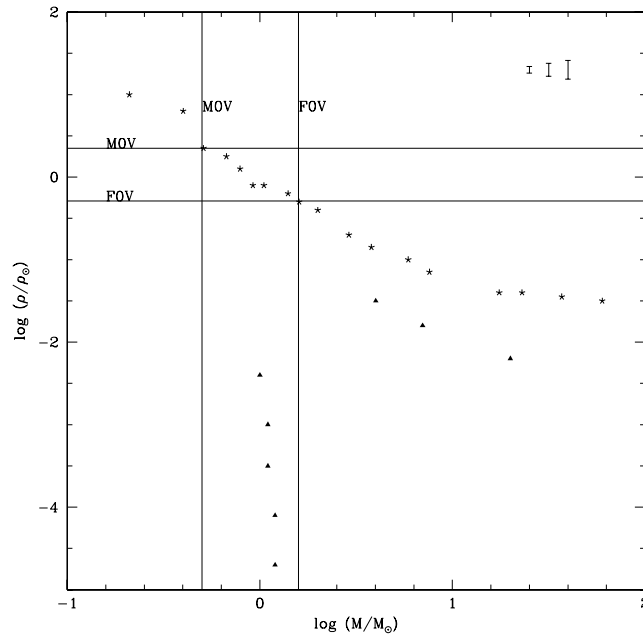


Figure 1. Stellar density ρ_* vs. stellar mass M_* (M_* is used as a proxy for stellar spectral type). See text for details. The box MOV to FOV shows the main sequence stars which are most appropriate for finding transiting planets. See Seager & Mallén-Ornelas (2003) for a discussion of errors.

4. Application

The above analytical solution has many applications, all related to selecting the best transit candidates for radial velocity mass follow-up. Here we only have room to describe one application; for others see Seager & Mallén-Ornelas (2003).

The stellar density ρ_* can be uniquely determined from the light curve alone without using the stellar mass-radius relation, as seen from equation (7).

A measured ρ_* can be used in three ways. (1) From the light curve alone a main sequence star and a giant star can be distinguished because main sequence stars occupy a unique position in a ρ_* vs. spectral type diagram (Figure 1). Hence a giant star with an eclipsing stellar companion can be ruled out. (2) From the light curve and the stellar mass-radius relation R_p can be estimated (equation (12)). Even for slightly evolved stars an upper limit on R_* and hence R_p can be derived. (3) A possibly common false positive planet transit can be ruled out by comparing ρ_* derived from the light curve with ρ_* derived from a spectral type. If the two ρ_* differ then something is amiss with the assumptions in Sec. 1. The possibly common case is the situation where a binary star system has its eclipse depth reduced to a planet-size eclipse due to the light from a third, contaminating, star (Figure 2). For a real example of this “blended star” situation, see Mallén-Ornelas et al. (2003).

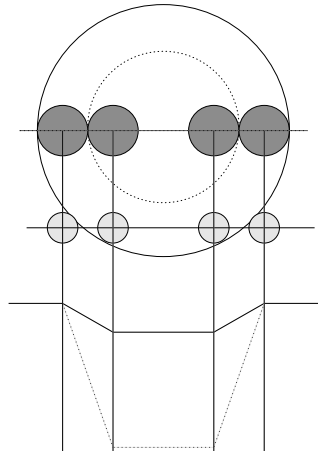


Figure 2. A deep binary star eclipse (dotted line) can mimic a planet transit (solid line) when extra light from a third, contaminating star (not shown) is present.

Acknowledgments. This work was supported by the W. M. Keck Foundation and the Carnegie Institution of Washington.

References

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