

Planet formation mini-course

**Leiden University
June 2007**

Units and characteristic numbers

1 astronomical unit = mean Earth-Sun distance = 1.496×10^{13} cm

solar mass = $M_{\odot} = 1.99 \times 10^{33}$ gm

Earth mass = $M_{\oplus} = 5.97 \times 10^{27}$ gm = $3.00 \times 10^{-6} M_{\odot}$

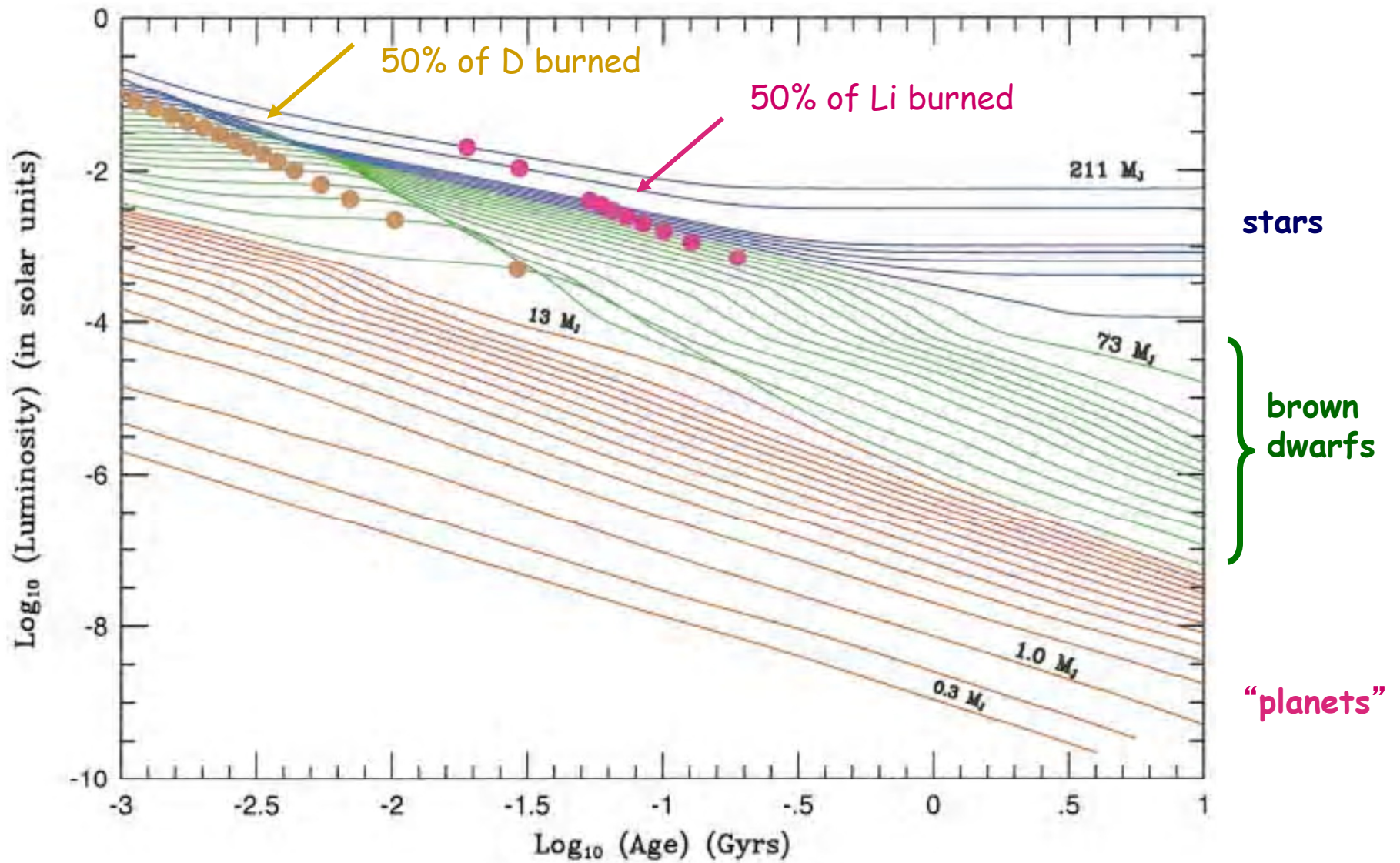
Jupiter mass = $M_J = 1.90 \times 10^{33}$ gm = $0.001 M_{\odot} = 318 M_{\oplus}$

minimum hydrogen-burning mass = lower end of the main sequence
= $0.08 M_{\odot} = 80 M_J$ (smallest “star”)

minimum deuterium-burning mass = $0.013 M_{\odot} = 13 M_J$

brown dwarfs: $13 M_J < M < 80 M_J$

JPL Solar System Dynamics: ssd.jpl.nasa.gov/



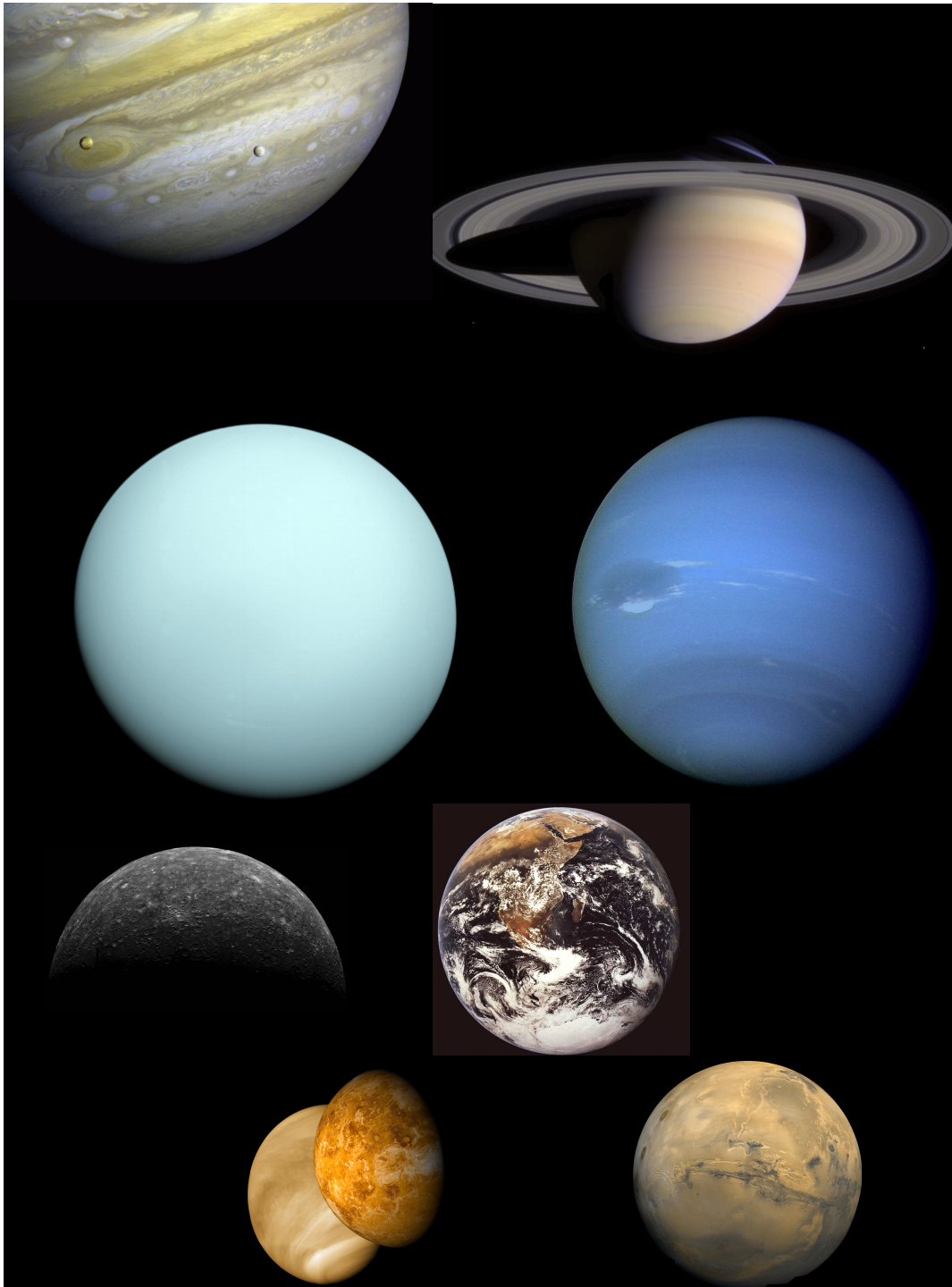
Burrows et al. (2001)

planet	semi-major axis a (AU)	eccentricity e
Mercury	0.387 (0.4)	0.206
Venus	0.723 (0.7)	0.007
Earth-Moon barycenter	1	0.017
Mars	1.524 (1.5)	0.093
Jupiter	5.203 (5)	0.048
Saturn	9.537 (10)	0.054
Uranus	19.19 (20)	0.047
Neptune	30.07 (30)	0.009

← biggest

← second biggest

typically < 0.05



giant planets (Jupiter, Saturn)

- composed mostly of H and He but enriched in metals and appear to have rock-ice core comprising 10-20 Earth masses

intermediate or “ice” planets (Uranus, Neptune)

- rock-ice core comprising most of mass surrounded by a gas envelope ; 5-20% H and He

terrestrial planets (Mercury, Venus, Earth, Mars)

- composed of rocky, refractory (high condensation temperature) material

planet	density (g/cm ³)	Mass (M_{\oplus})
Mercury	5.4	0.055
Venus	5.2	0.82
Earth	5.5	1
Mars	3.9	0.11
Jupiter	1.3	318
Saturn	0.7	95
Uranus	1.3	14
Neptune	1.6	17

terrestrial planets
~ 1 M_{\oplus} or less

giant planets >
100 M_{\oplus}

intermediate or ice
planets ~ 20 M_{\oplus}

Properties of the solar system

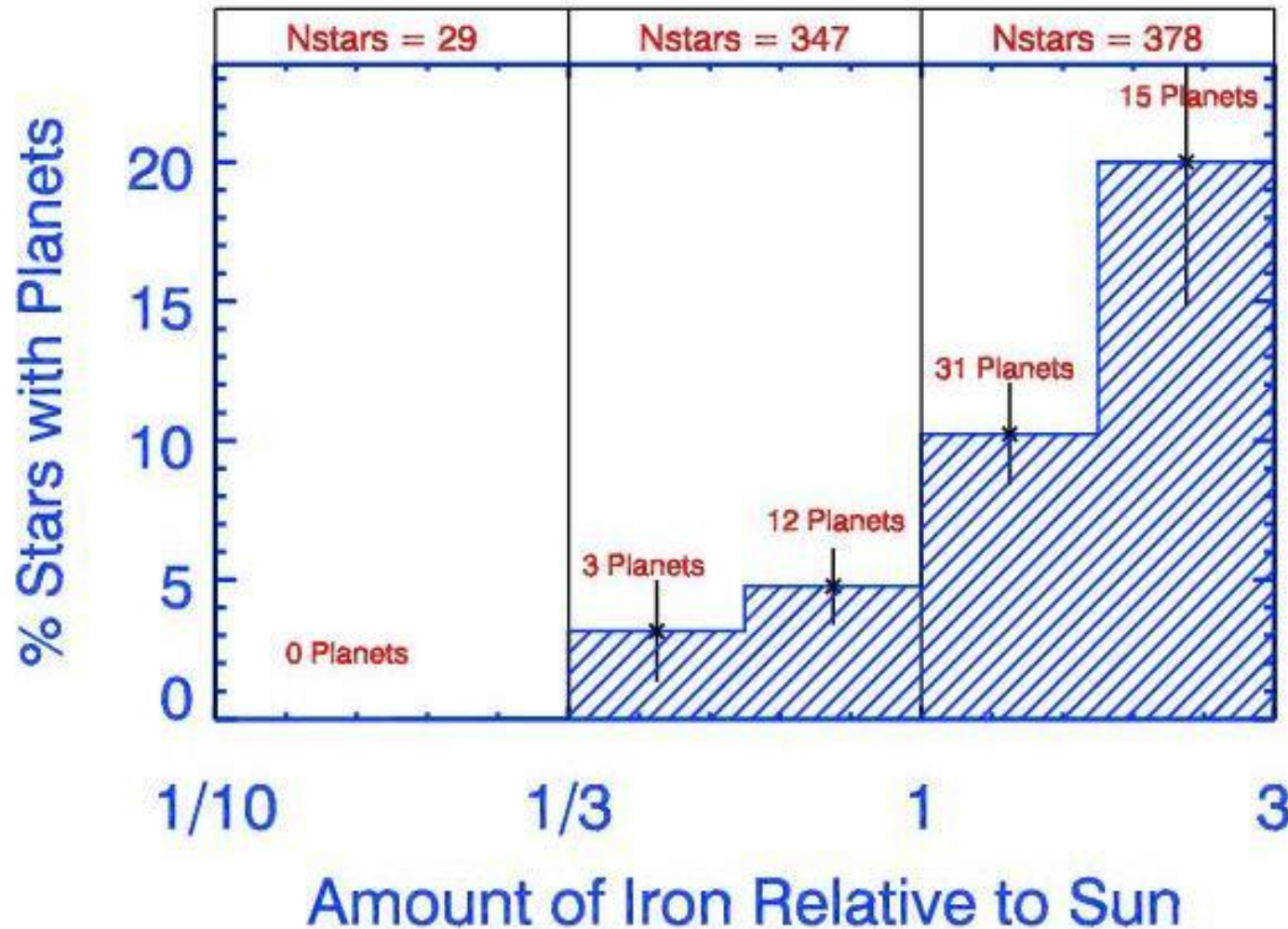
- most planets have satellites

planet	number	$M_{\text{max}}/M_{\text{planet}}$
Earth	1	0.012
Mars	2	1.7×10^{-8}
Jupiter	61	7.8×10^{-5}
Saturn	31	2.4×10^{-4}
Uranus	27	4.1×10^{-5}
Neptune	13	2.1×10^{-4}

Properties of the solar system

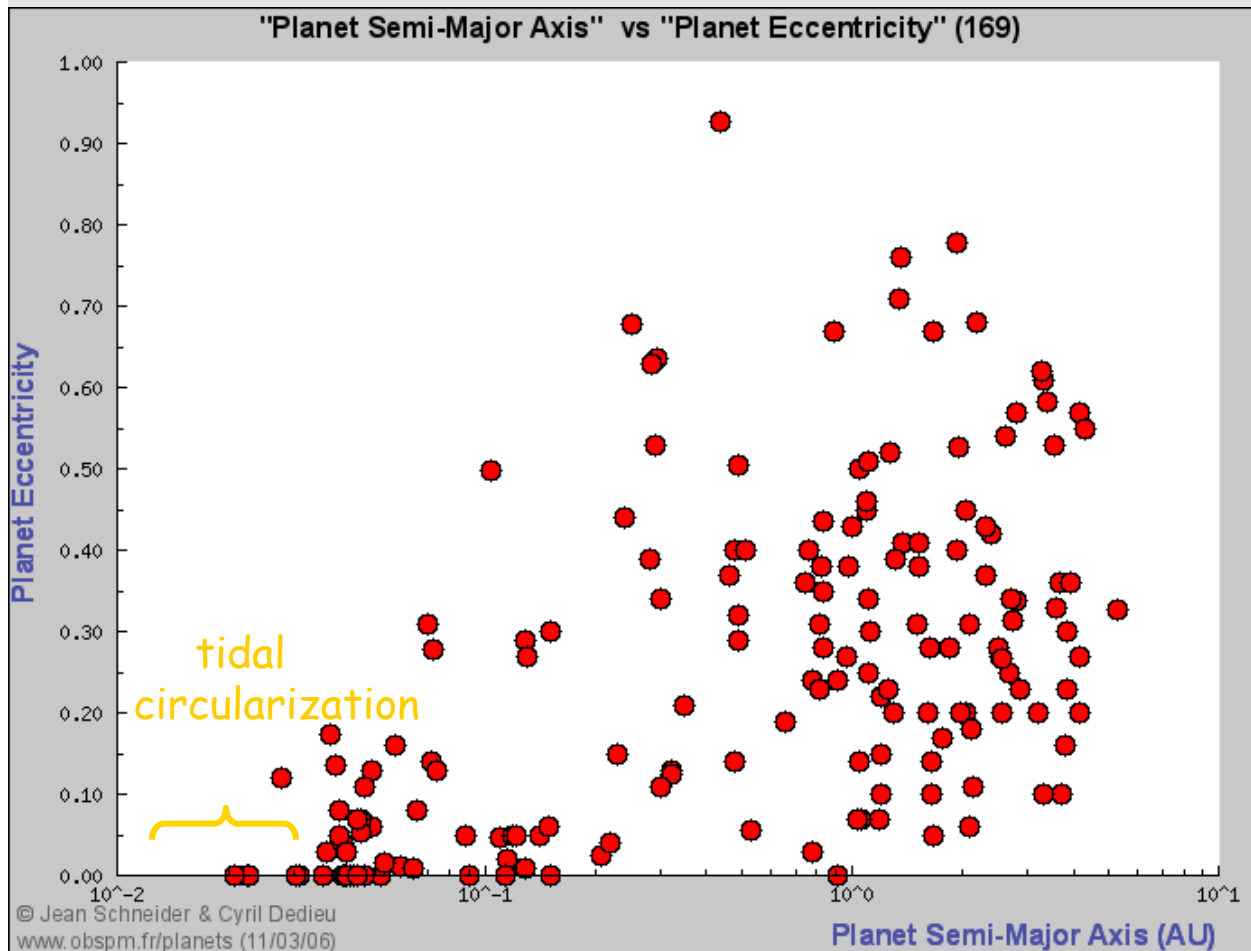
- planetary orbital angular momentum is close to direction of Sun's spin angular momentum (within 7°)
- 3 of 4 terrestrial planets and 3 of 4 giant planets have obliquities (angle between spin and orbital angular momentum) $< 30^\circ$; but Uranus is tipped at 98°
- interplanetary space is virtually empty, except for the asteroid belt and the Kuiper belt
- planets account for $< 0.2\%$ of mass of solar system but $> 98\%$ of angular momentum
- solid planetary and satellite surfaces are heavily cratered; cratering rate must have been far greater in first 10^9 yr of solar system history than it is now ("late heavy bombardment")
- age of solar system is $4.56 \pm 0.02 \times 10^9$ yr
- typically protoplanetary gas disks disperse in 1-10 Myr, so outer planets must have formed in less than this time

Properties of extrasolar planetary systems



- probability of finding a planet is proportional to mass of metals in the star

Properties of extrasolar planetary systems

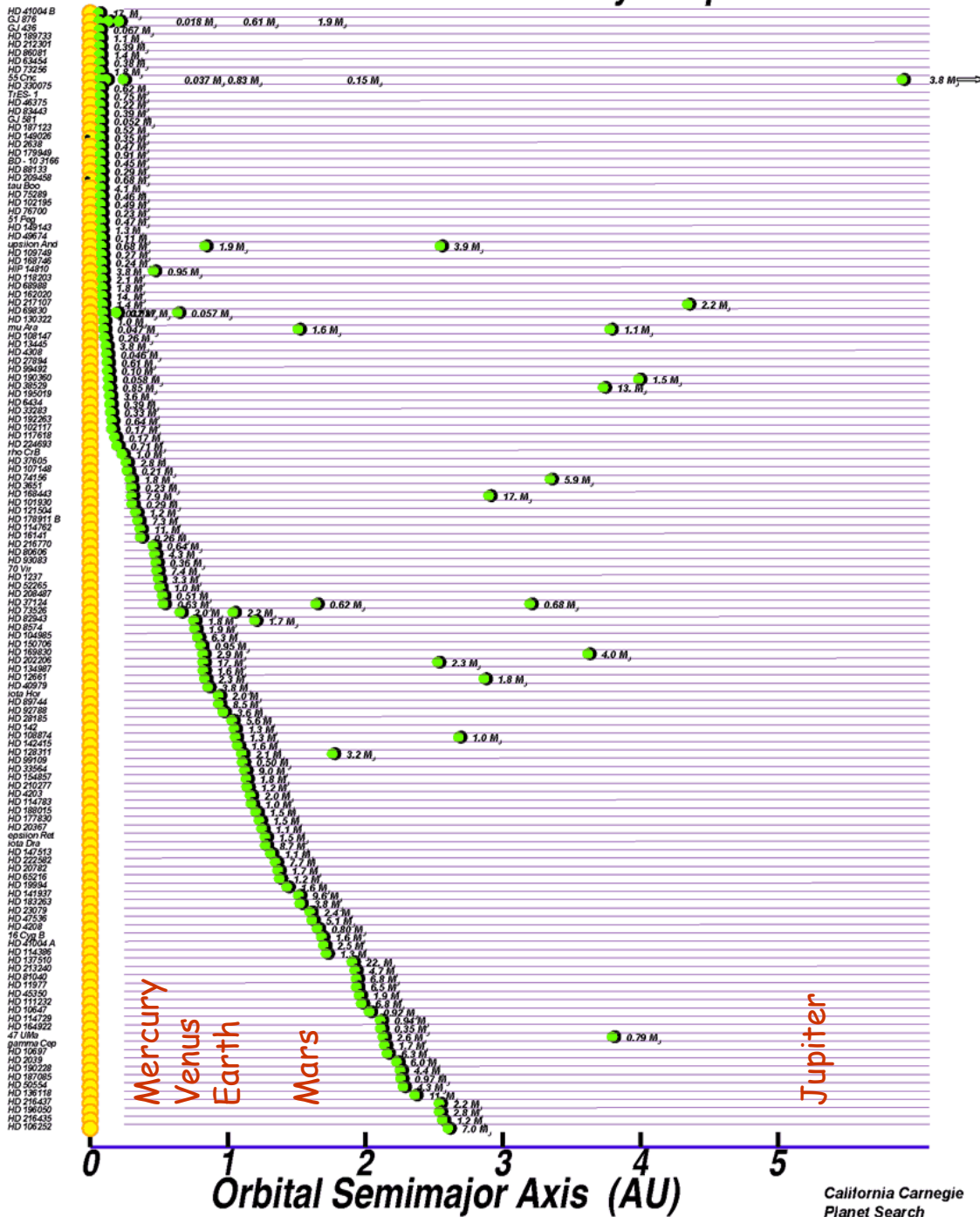


- orbits of major planets in solar system are nearly circular ($e_{\text{Mercury}}=0.206$, $e_{\text{Mars}}=0.09$, typically < 0.05); orbits of extrasolar planets are *not* ($e_{\text{median}}=0.28$)
- biggest eccentricity $e = 0.93$

Extrasolar Planets
Encyclopedia

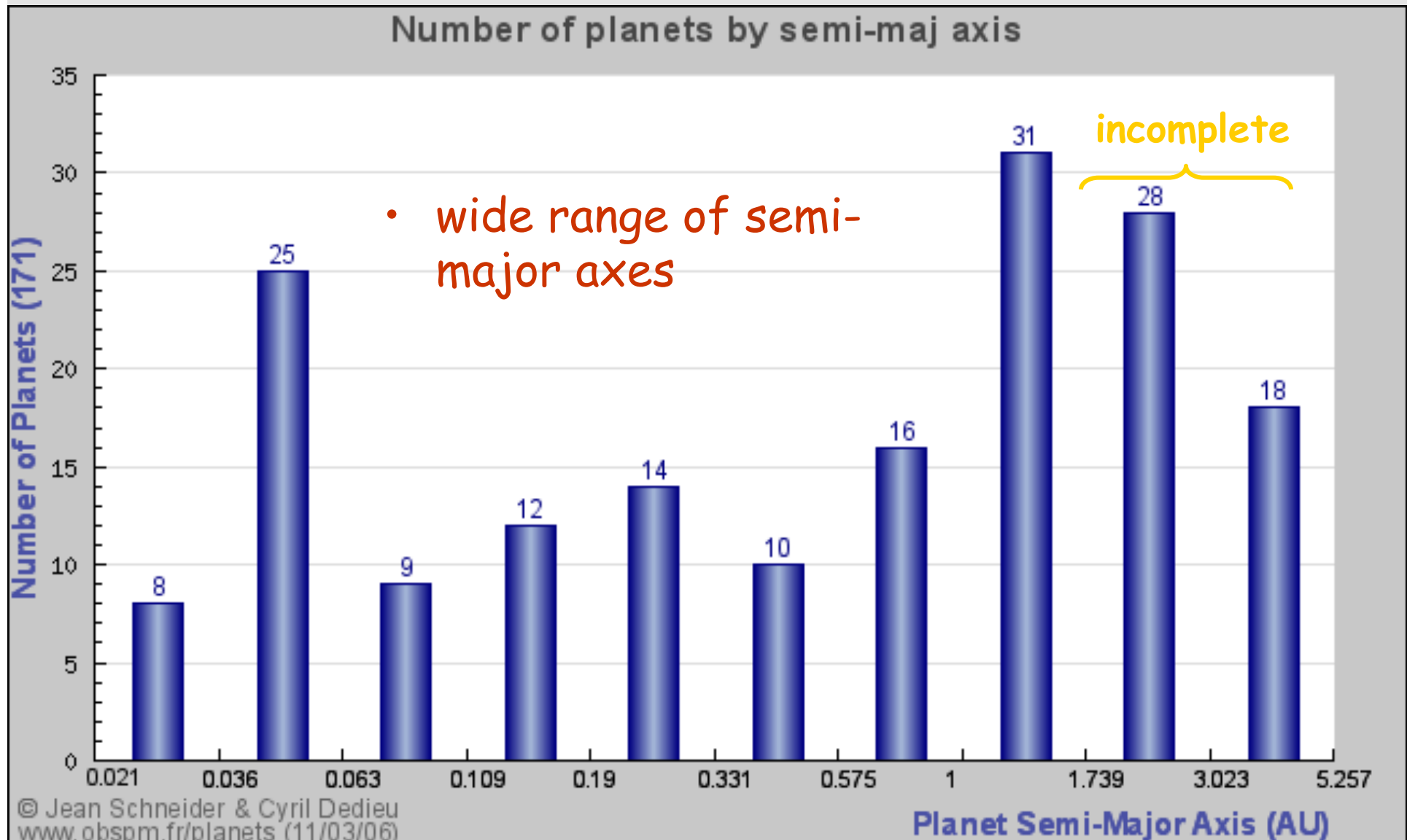
www.exoplanet.eu

Properties of extrasolar planetary systems

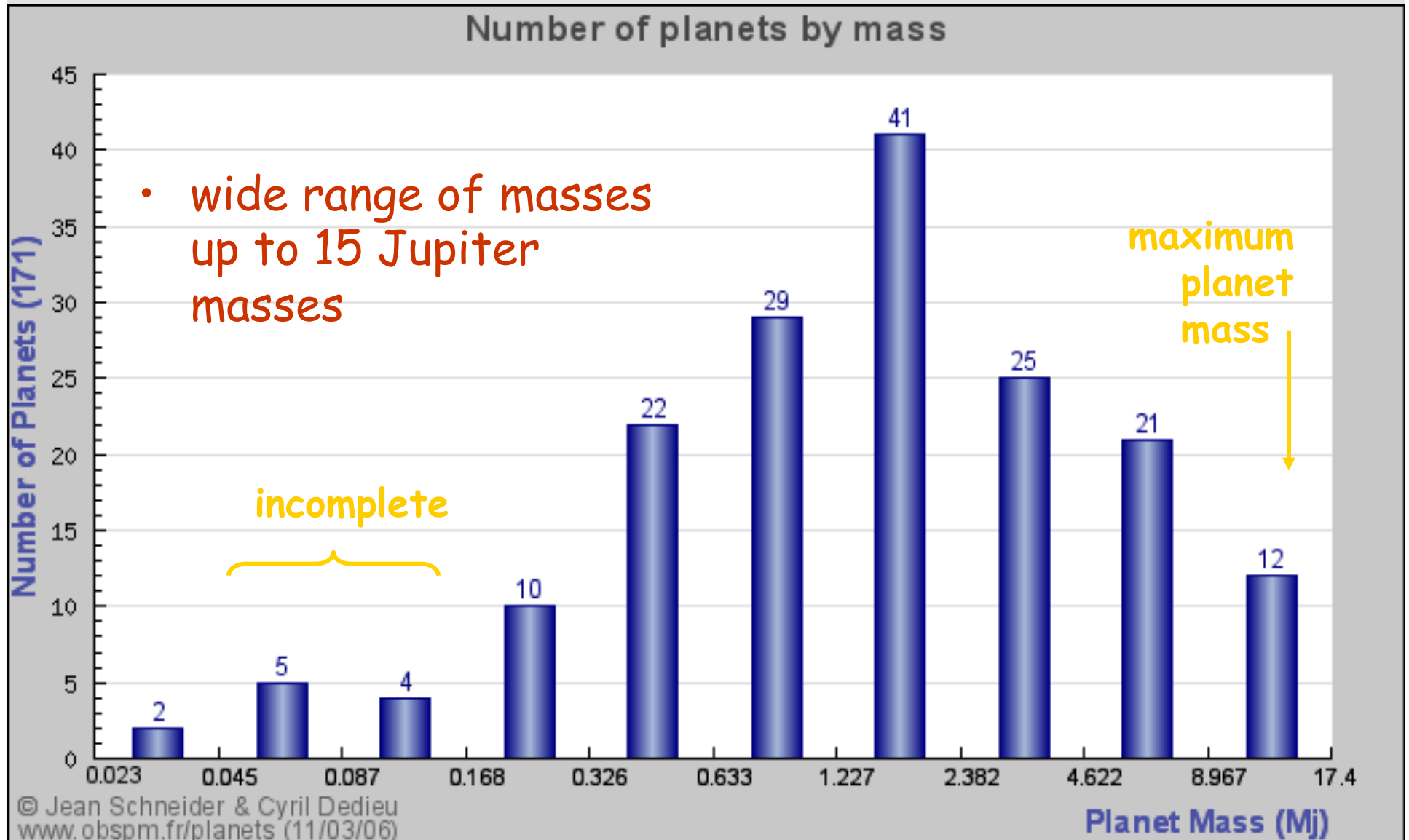


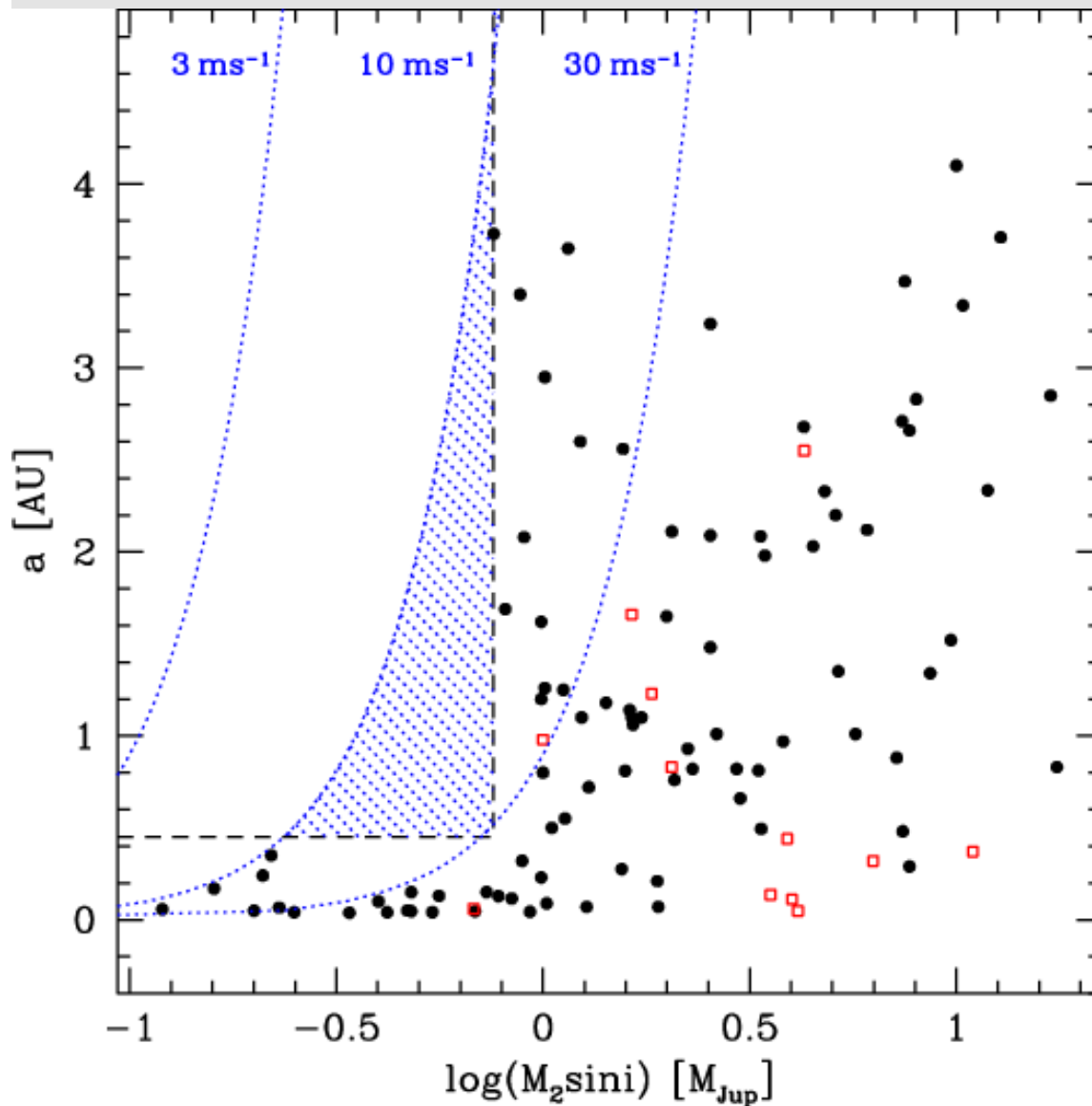
- giant planets like Jupiter and Saturn are found at *very* small orbital radii - up to a factor 200 less than Jupiter
- OGLE-TR-56b: mass = 1.45 Jupiter masses, orbital period = 1.21 days, orbital radius = 0.0225 AU

Properties of extrasolar planetary systems



Properties of extrasolar planetary systems

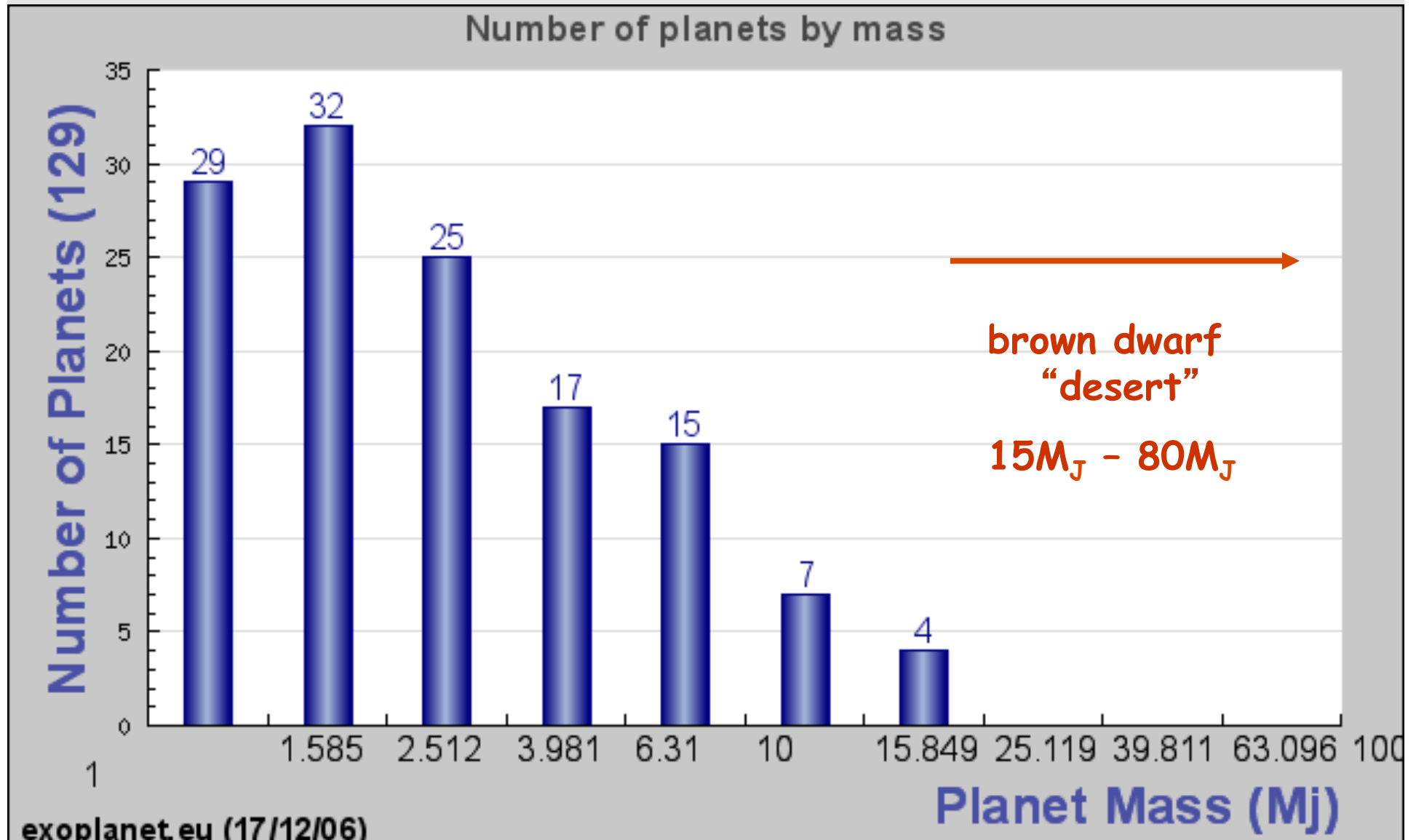




- wide range of masses up to 15 Jupiter masses
- lower cutoff to masses is determined entirely by observational selection

Udry et al. (2003)

Properties of extrasolar planetary systems



Mass distribution

- to a first approximation,

$$dn \propto M^{-\alpha} dM, \quad M < 15 M_J$$

$$\alpha = 1.1 \pm 0.1$$

Planets are uniformly distributed in $\log M$

- the brown dwarf desert: at separations < 5 AU, very few companion objects are found in the range $15 M_J$ to $80 M_J$ corresponding to brown dwarfs
- i.e., planets are *not* simply the extrapolation of the stellar mass distribution

What have we learned?

- 242 extrasolar planets known, most from radial velocity surveys (as of June 1 2007)
- smallest semi-major axis $a = 0.018 \text{ AU} = 3.9 R_{\odot}$ (Mercury is 0.4 AU)
- largest semi-major axis $a = 7.73 \text{ AU}$ (Jupiter = 5.2 AU)
- biggest eccentricity $e = 0.93$
- smallest eccentricity $e = 0$
- smallest mass $0.016 M_J = 5 M_{\oplus}$
- biggest mass $\gg 15 M_J$
- big selection effects against small mass and large semi-major axis or period

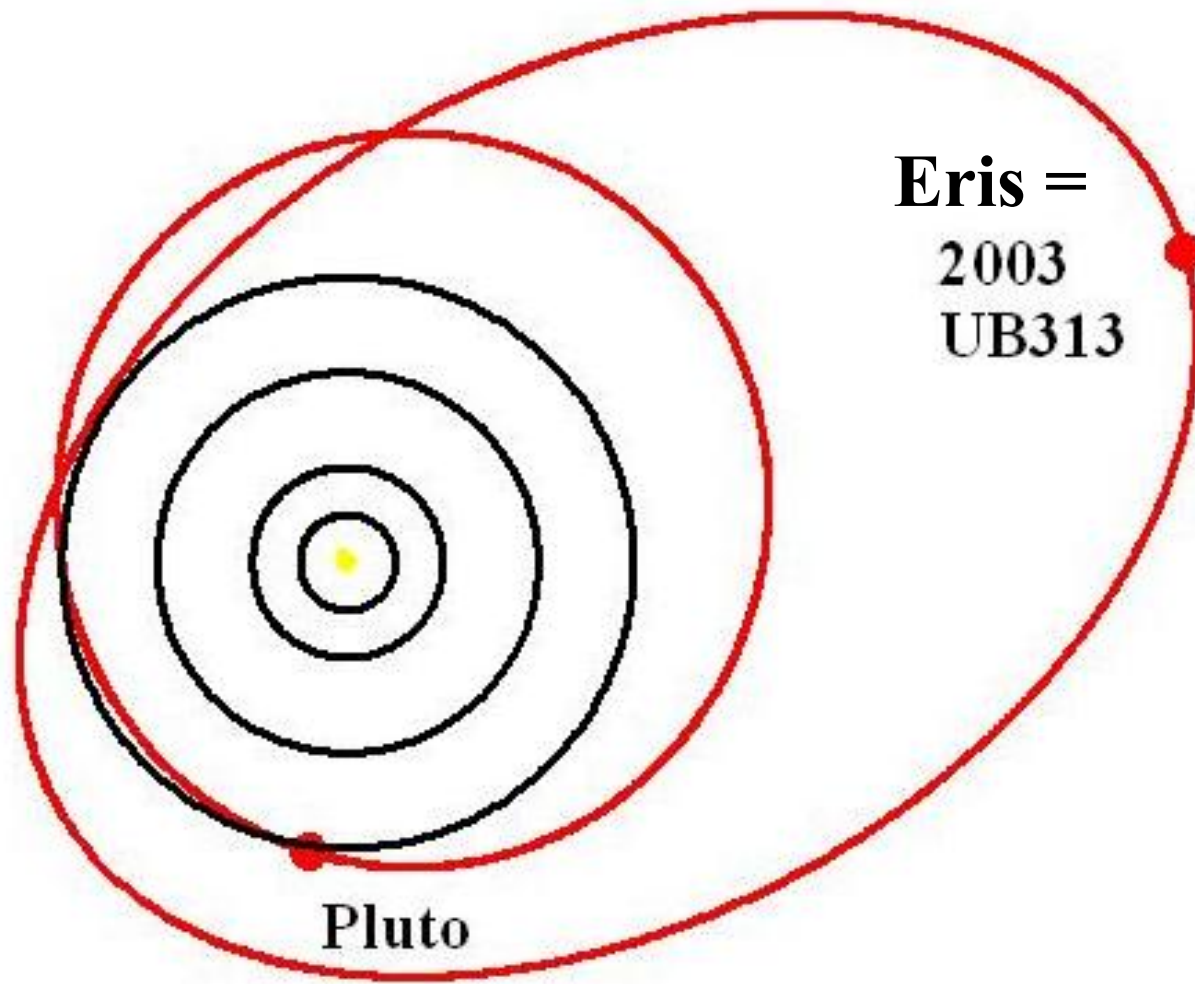
What is a planet?

Bad definition 1:

- main-sequence stars burn hydrogen ($M > 0.08 M_{\odot} = 80 M_J$)
- brown dwarfs have masses too low to burn hydrogen but large enough to burn deuterium ($80 M_J > M > 13 M_J$)
- planets have masses $< 13 M_J$
- **Good points:**
 - mass is easy to measure
 - maximum mass of close companions to stars is around $15 M_J$ (brown-dwarf desert)
- **Bad points:**
 - deuterium burning has no fundamental relation to the formation or properties of a planet
 - what is the lower limit?

Bad definition 2:

- planets are objects similar to the planets in our own solar system
- **Bad points:**
 - is a Jupiter-mass object at $a=0.02$ AU a planet?
 - is Pluto a planet?
 - is our solar system special?
 - Eris and her sisters



**Brown et al.
(2005)**

- diameter 2400
§ 100 km or 5%
bigger than Pluto
- has a moon
- albedo 80-90%

What is a planet?

Bad definition 3:

- anything formed in a disk around a star is a planet
- **Bad points:**
 - figuring out how something is formed is really hard, and what do we call them until we do?

Bad definition 4 (IAU):

- A "planet" is a celestial body that (a) is in orbit around the Sun, (b) has sufficient mass for its self-gravity to overcome rigid body forces so that it assumes a hydrostatic equilibrium (nearly round) shape, and (c) has cleared the neighbourhood around its orbit.
- A "dwarf planet" is a celestial body that (a) is in orbit around the Sun, (b) has sufficient mass for its self-gravity to overcome rigid body forces so that it assumes a hydrostatic equilibrium (nearly round) shape, (c) has not cleared the neighborhood around its orbit, and (d) is not a satellite.
- All other objects except satellites orbiting the Sun shall be referred to collectively as "Small Solar-System Bodies".
- **Bad points:**
 - really complicated
 - only works for the solar system
 - hydrostatic bodies are not necessarily spherical (e.g., many asteroids)

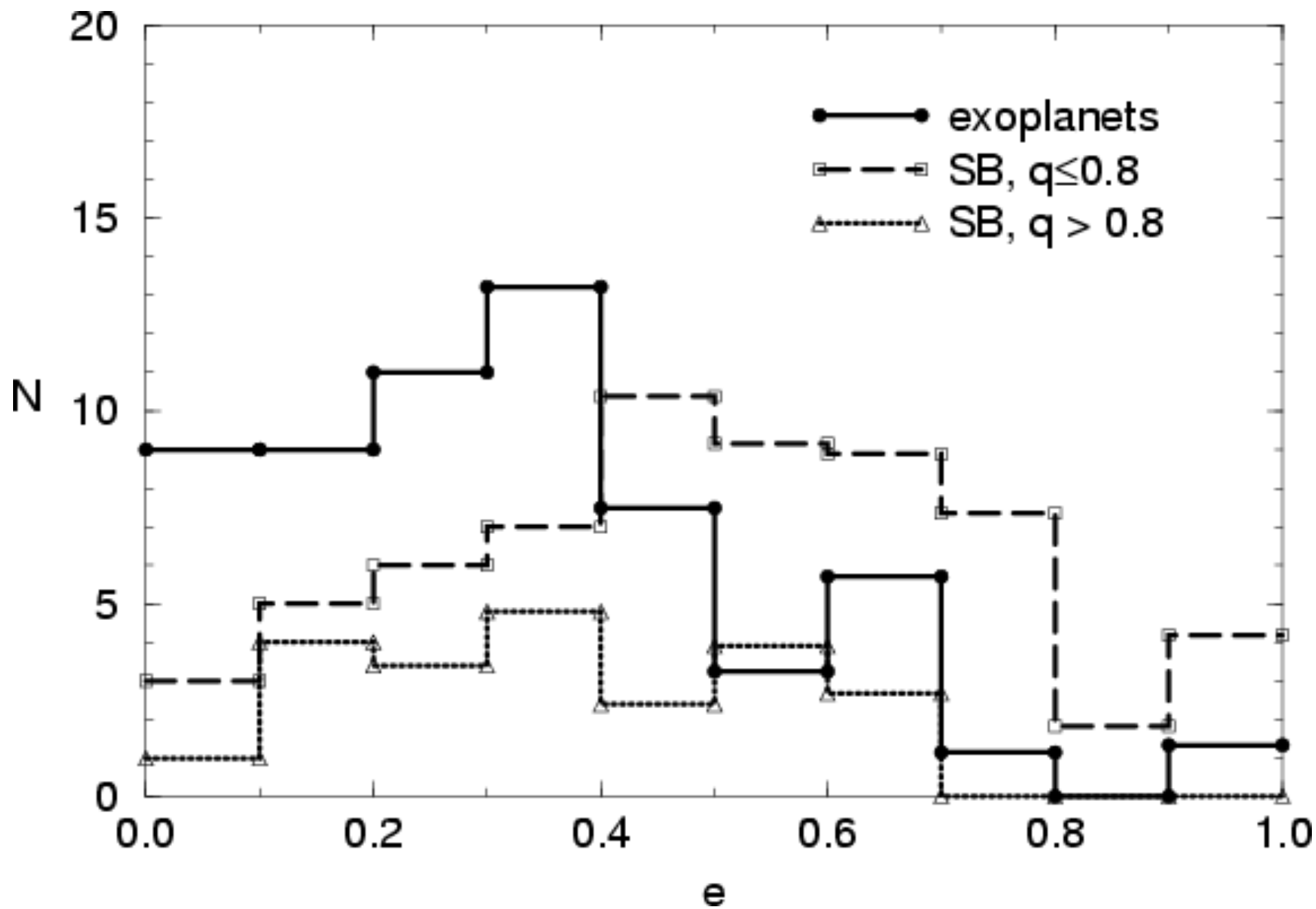
The encounter hypothesis

Close encounter with a passing star rips material off the Sun that spreads into a long filament and condenses into planets
(Buffon 1745, Jeans 1928, Jeffreys 1929)

- bad points:
 - specific angular momentum of order $(GM_{\odot}R_{\odot})^{1/2}$ not $(GM_{\odot}a_J)^{1/2}$; factor 30 too small (Russell 1935)
 - 1 Jupiter mass of material requires digging to $R \sim 0.1 R_{\odot}$ where temperature $\sim 5 \times 10^5$ K and resulting blob will have positive energy, and cooling time $\sim 10^{10}$ sec. Blob expands adiabatically and disperses (Spitzer 1939)
 - where did Jupiter's deuterium come from - D/H approximately consistent with Big Bang
 - very rare event - no extrasolar planets
- good points:
 - predicts giant gaseous planets at very small radii

The brown dwarf hypothesis

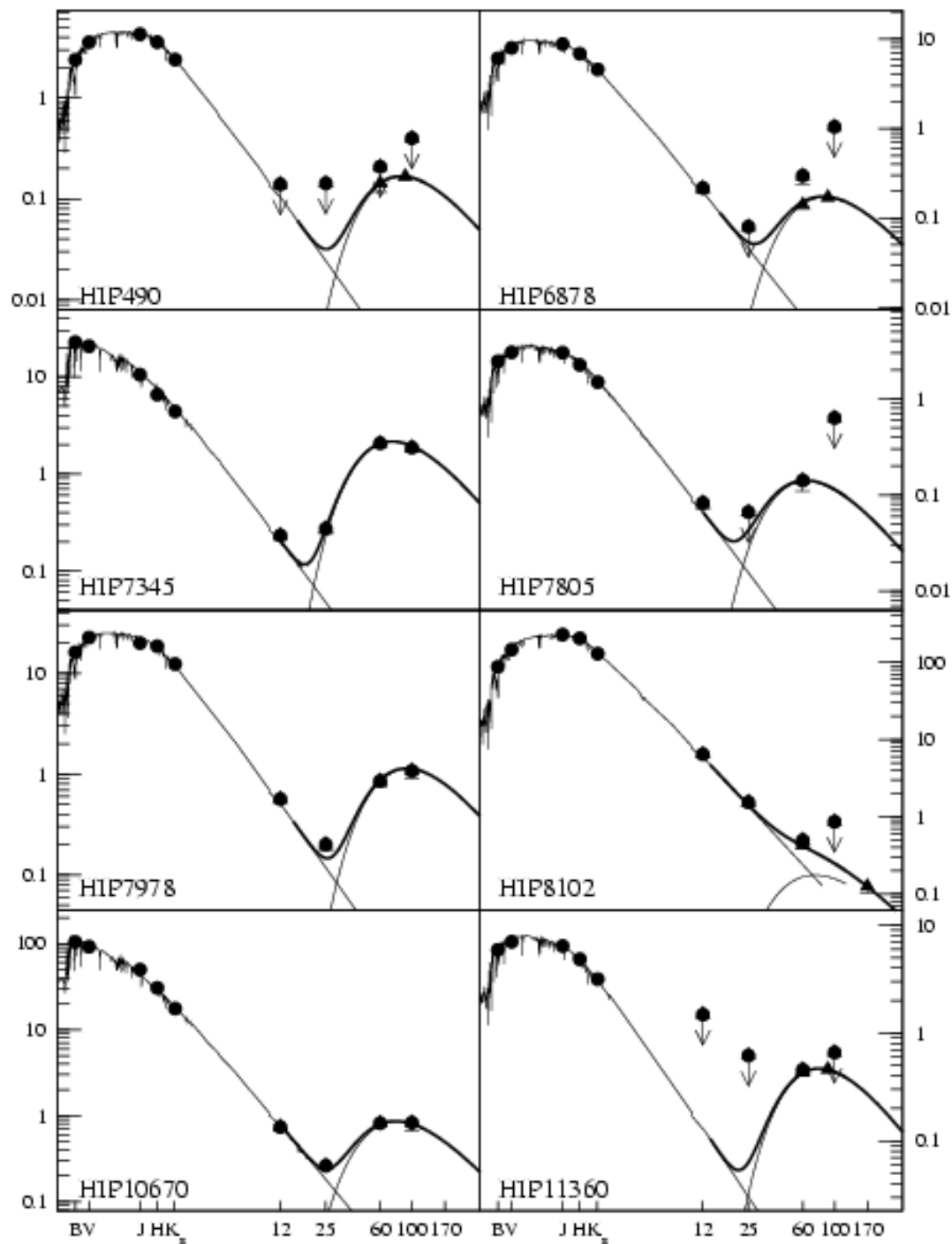
- extrasolar “planets” are simply very low-mass stars that form from collapse of multiple condensations in protostellar clouds
- **good points:**
 - distribution of eccentricities and periods of extrasolar planets very similar to distributions for binary stars
- **bad points:**
 - why is there a brown-dwarf desert?
 - how did planets in solar system get onto circular, coplanar orbits?
 - how do you make planets with solid cores, or terrestrial planets?
 - theory suggests that it is hard to make objects as small as Jupiter by fragmentation of a gas cloud
- maybe the most massive extrasolar planets are made this way



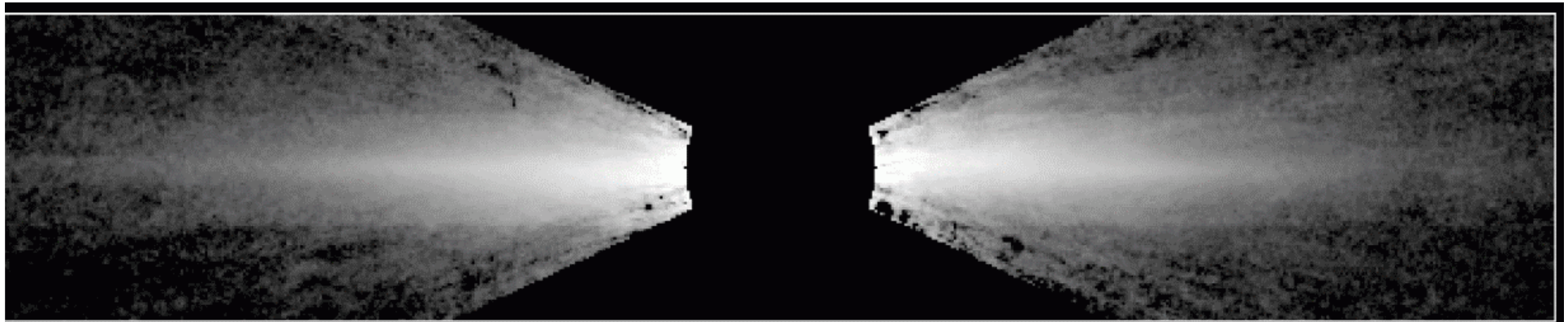
From Halbwachs et al. (2005)

The “nebular” or “disk instability” hypothesis

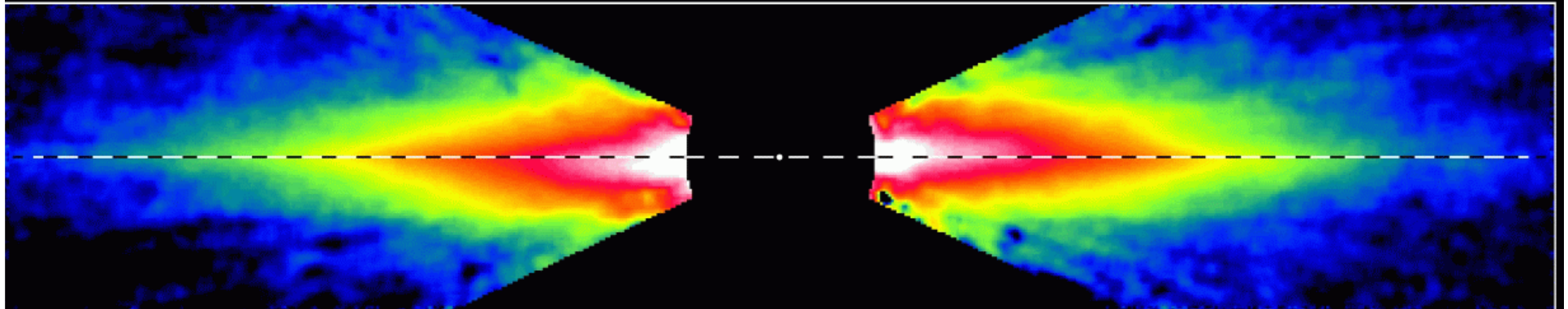
- the Sun and planets formed together out of a rotating cloud of gas (the “solar nebula”)
- gravitational instabilities in the gas disk condense into planets (Kant 1755)
- *Good points:*
 - correctly predicted that stars are surrounded by rotating gas disks after they are born



the “Vega phenomenon”
(Zuckerman & Song 2003)



Size of Pluto's Orbit



beta Pictoris disk

HD 141569

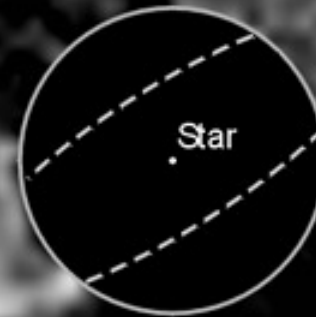


5.6 billion miles



Diameter of Neptune's Orbit

HR 4796A



5.6 billion miles



Diameter of Neptune's Orbit

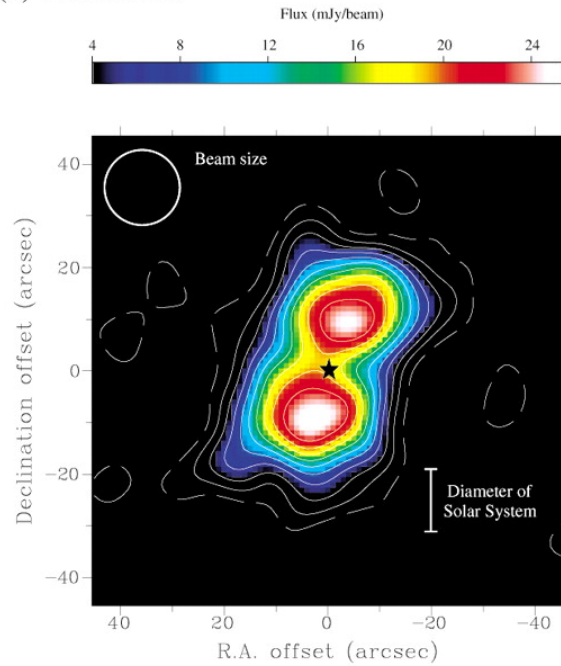
Dust Disks around Stars

PRC99-03 • STScI OPO • January 8, 1999

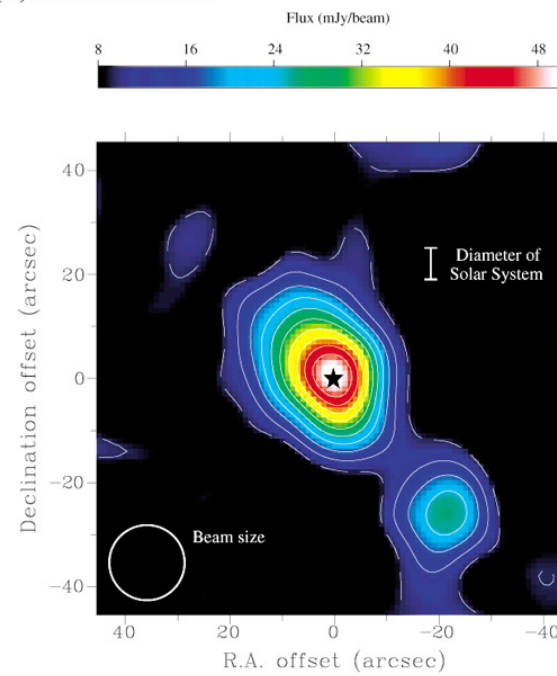
B. Smith (University of Hawaii), G. Schneider (University of Arizona),
E. Becklin and A. Weinberger (UCLA) and NASA

HST • NICMOS

(a) Fomalhaut

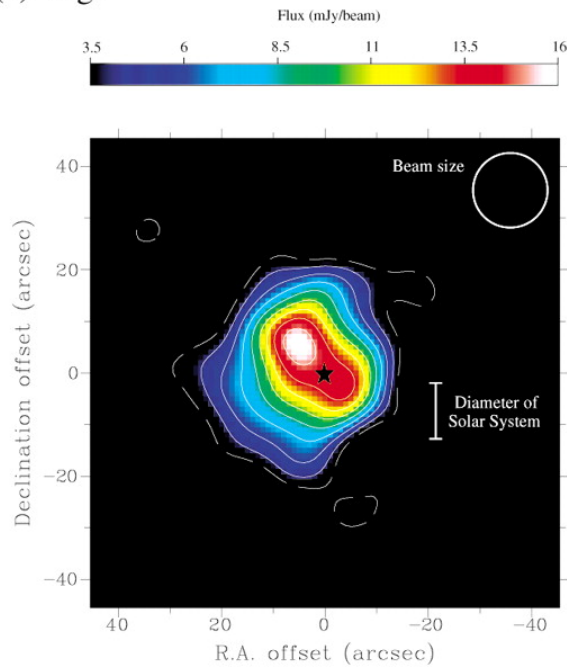


(b) Beta Pictoris

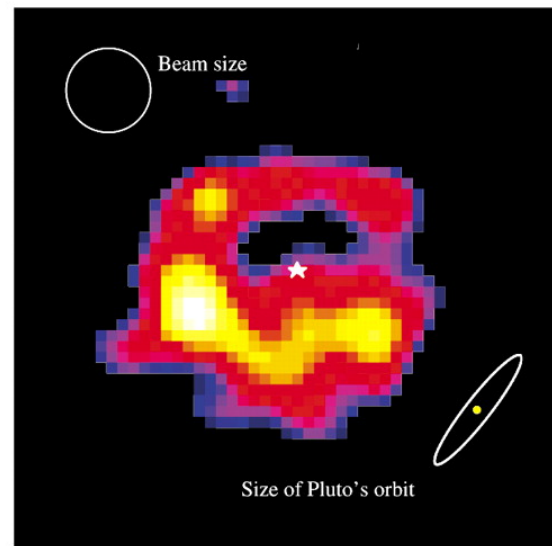


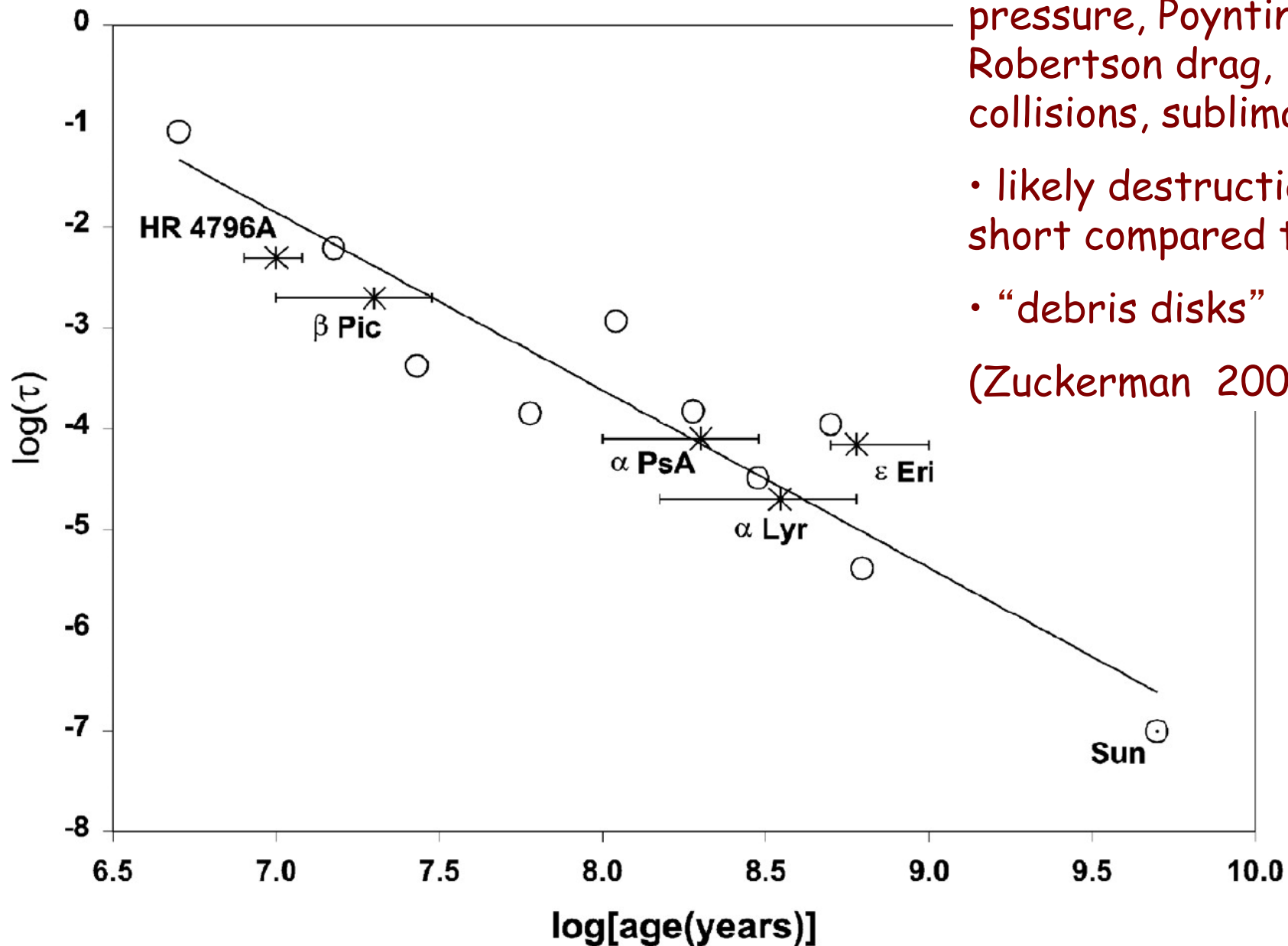
dust emission at
850 μ from SCUBA
on JCMT. From
Zuckerman (2001)

(c) Vega



(d) Epsilon Eridani





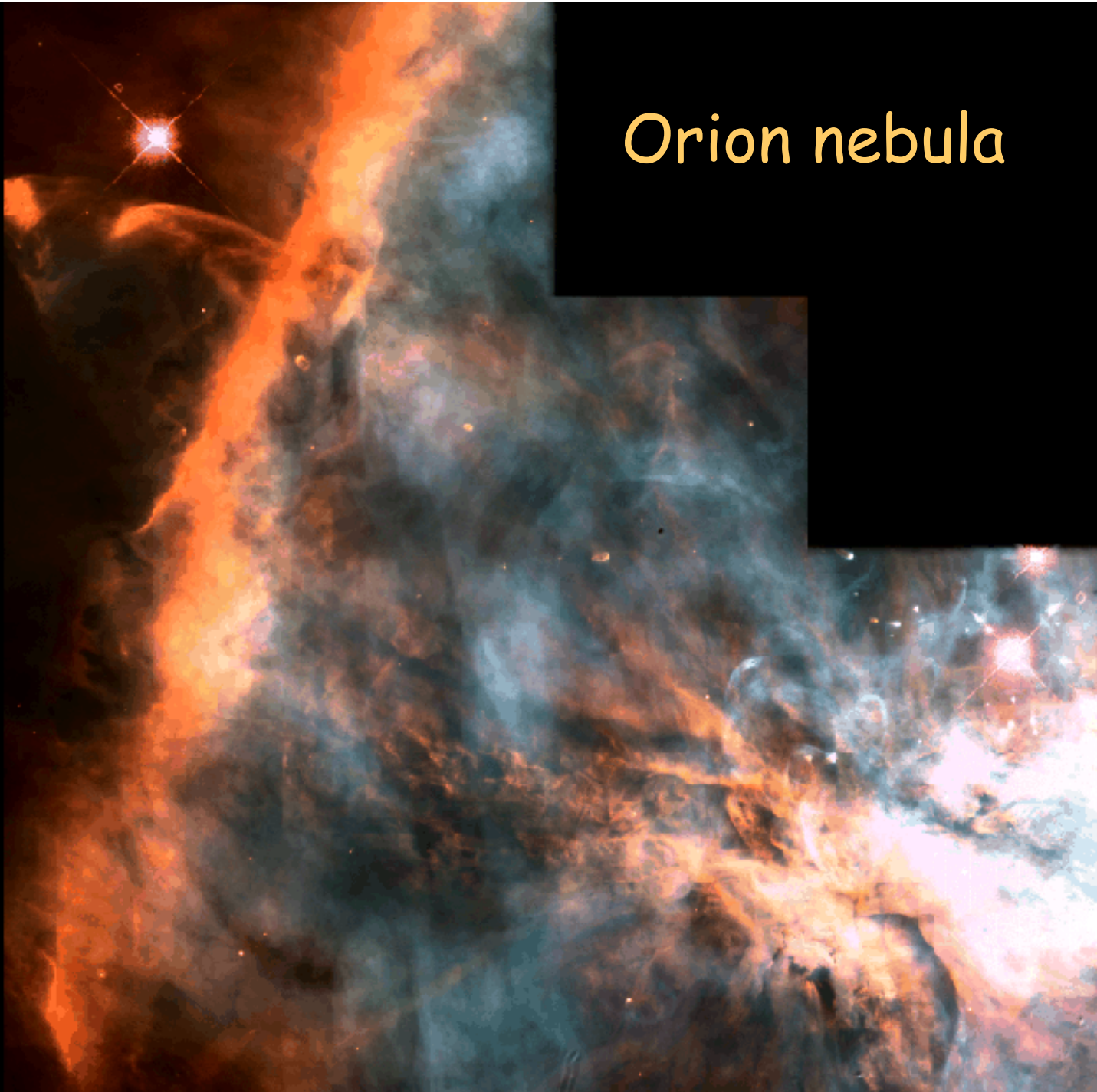
- destruction mechanisms include radiation pressure, Poynting-Robertson drag, collisions, sublimation

- likely destruction times short compared to age

- “debris disks”

(Zuckerman 2001)

Orion nebula





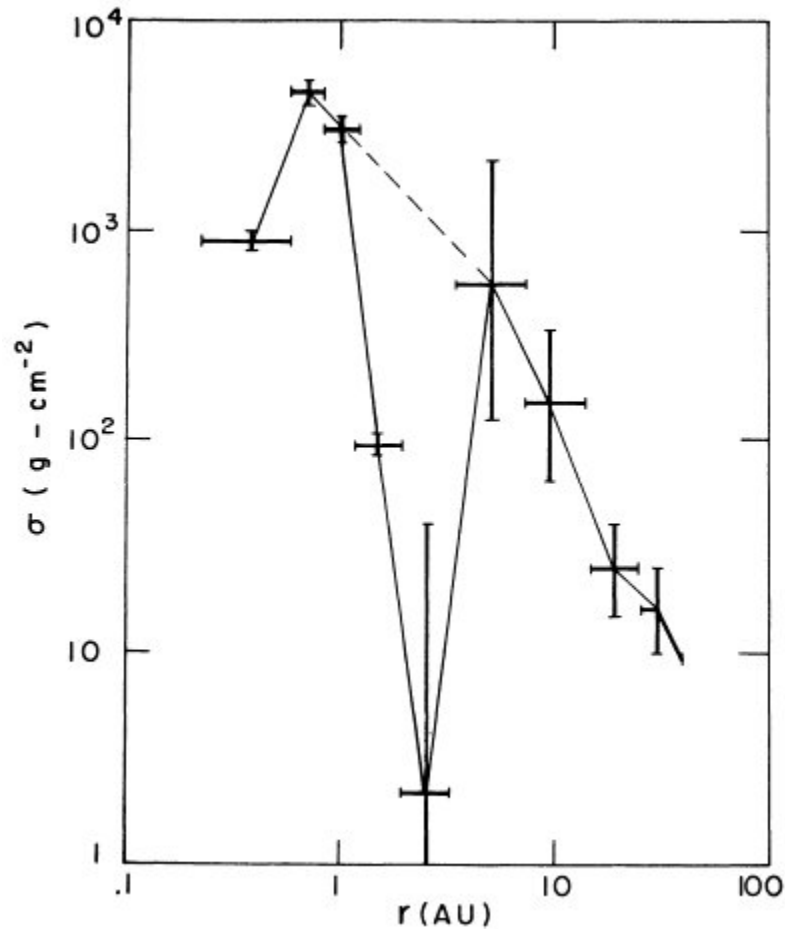
PROtoPLANetary DiskS
= “proplyds”

**Protoplanetary Disks
Orion Nebula**

HST • WFPC2

PRC95-45b • ST ScI OPO • November 20, 1995
M. J. McCaughrean (MPIA), C. R. O'Dell (Rice University), NASA

Minimum solar nebula



- add volatile elements to each planet to augment them to solar composition
- spread each planet into an annulus reaching halfway to the next planet
- smooth the resulting surface density:

$$\Sigma(R) \approx 3 \times 10^3 \text{ g cm}^{-2} (1 \text{ AU}/R)^{1.5}$$

Minimum solar nebula

- surface density $\Sigma(R) \approx 3 \times 10^3 \text{ g cm}^{-2} (1 \text{ AU}/R)^{1.5}$
- assume $T = 500 \text{ K}$

F sound speed:

$$c = 2 \text{ km/s} \frac{\mu}{500 \text{ K}}^{1/2} \frac{\mu}{2}^{1/2}$$

F density:

$$\rho(R; z) = \rho_0(R) \exp\left(-\frac{z^2}{2h^2}\right) \quad \text{where} \quad \rho_0(R) = 2 \times 10^{-9} \text{ g/cm}^3 \frac{\mu}{T}^{1/2} \frac{1 \text{ AU}}{R}^3$$

F scale height:

$$\frac{h}{R} = 0.05 \frac{\mu}{500 \text{ K}}^{1/2} \frac{\mu}{1 \text{ AU}}^{1/2} \frac{\mu}{2}^{1/2}$$

The disk instability hypothesis revisited

For standard parameters at 1 AU, $Q = 60(1 \text{ AU}/R)^{1/4}$

Minimum solar nebula is *very* stable!

This is a big problem for the nebular hypothesis. How to fix it:

- “minimum solar nebula” is only a minimum
- consider only formation of giant planets at large radii, where temperature is lower

The disk instability hypothesis revisited

- the Sun and planets formed together out of a rotating cloud of gas (the “solar nebula”)
- gravitational instabilities in the gas disk condense into planets (Kant 1755)
- good points:
 - correctly predicted that stars are surrounded by rotating gas disks after they are born
 - maybe this makes the most massive planets (1-15 M_J)
 - other models have problems too...
- bad points:
 - how do you make terrestrial planets, cores of giant planets, Kuiper belt, etc.
 - instability is not sufficient: need **both** $Q < 1$ **and** $\Omega t_{\text{cool}} < 3$ (Gammie 2001)
 - works best at **large** radii, but the extrasolar planets are found at **small** radii
 - why the strong correlation with metallicity of the host star?