

Do we need a system of classification for extrasolar planets?

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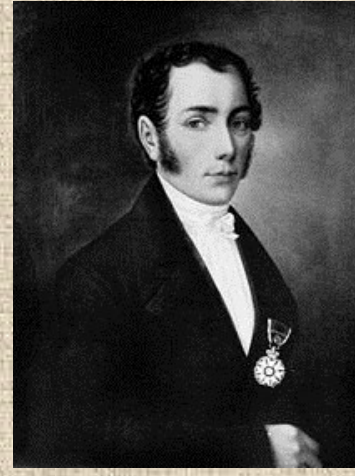


A brief history of classification

Stellar classification

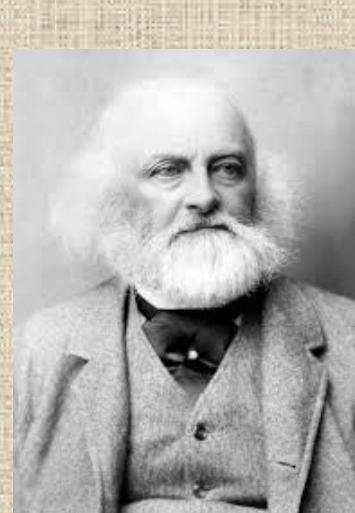
1814

Joseph Fraunhofer invented the spectroscope and was the first to observe solar and stellar spectra.



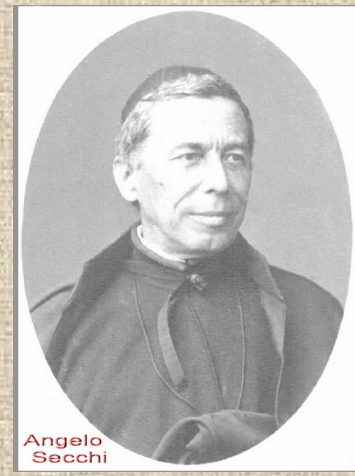
1862

Lewis Morris Rutherford amassed sufficient spectra to attempt the classification of stars into three groups. Modern equivalent groups would be the late-type stars, the late-B to early-F stars, and the OB stars.



1860-1870

Pietro Angelo Secchi classified the spectra of stars into two classes, basically the early I and the late-types II. In 1866 he added what are now the M-types III, and two years later he identified some faint red stars as type IV, the carbon stars. Later yet he felt compelled to separate some emission-line stars into a further class, V.



1881-1890

Williamina Fleming classified more than 10,000 stars. It used a scheme in which the previously used Secchi classes (I to IV) were divided into more specific classes, given letters from A to N. Also, the letters O, P and Q were used, O for stars whose spectra consisted mainly of bright lines, P for planetary nebulae, and Q for stars not fitting into any other class.



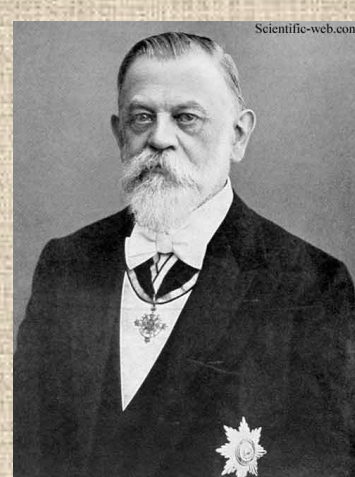
Around 1890

Joseph Norman Lockyer offered his own spectral classification scheme. The differentiation of stars into ascending and descending temperature branches was based on his "meteoritic hypothesis" for the origin and subsequent evolution of stars. His classifications were never generally accepted, he did at least distinguish the spectra of giants and supergiants.



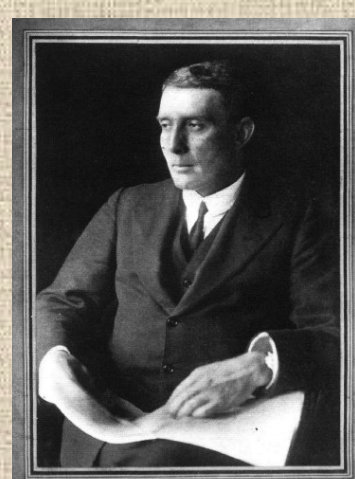
1895

Hermann Carl Vogel combined Secchi's classes III and IV, since they were both based on broad bands, and went on to subdivide the resulting three classes. However, the discovery of helium both in stars and on earth was to revise his scheme, subdividing his class Ia.



1897

An amateur astronomer, Sir Francis McClean's spectral classification system was able from the beginning to include the stars with neutral helium absorption. It was modelled on Secchi's, with Vogel-like revisions, and his groups corresponded to the MK series of B, A, F, G-K, M, and carbon stars.



1943-1953

A new system of stellar spectral classification MKK, was introduced in 1943 by William Wilson Morgan, Philip Childs Keenan, and Edith Kellman [10]. This two-dimensional (temperature and luminosity) classification scheme is based on spectral lines sensitive to stellar temperature and surface gravity which is related to luminosity (whilst the Harvard classification is based on surface temperature only). Later, in 1953, after some revisions of standard stars and classification criteria, the scheme was named the Morgan-Keenan classification, or MK and this system remains in modern use today [11].

Planet classification

1969

Peter Van de Kamp [15] reported a periodic "wobble" in Barnard star's motion, apparently due to planetary companions. In 1973 astronomers George Gatewood and Heinrich Eichhorn [4], using data obtained with improved equipment on the 30-inch Thaw Refractor telescope, did not detect any planets but instead detected a change in the colour-dependent image scale of the images obtained from by Van de Kamp.

1988

Bruce Campbell, Gordon A.H. Walker, and Stephenson Yang reported an interesting phenomenon [2]; the radial velocity variations of binary star γ Cephei, seemed to suggest the existence of a Jupiter-like planet around one of the stars, but by 1992 had changed their minds [14]. However, by 2003, Hatzes et al. [6] confirmed the existence of the planet around γ Cephei.

1991

Andrew Geoffrey Lyne announced the first ever pulsar planet discovered around PSR 1829-10 [1]. However, this was later retracted, just before the first real pulsar planets were announced.

1992

Aleksander Wolszczan and Dale Frail announced the discovery of a multi-planet planetary system around the millisecond pulsar PSR 1257+12 [16].

1995

The first exoplanet to be discovered which orbits a main sequence star, 51 Peg b, was discovered by Michel Mayor and Didier Queloz [9].

2003

David Sudarsky, Adam Burrows, and Ivan Hubeny created the so called Sudarsky's classification [13] of extrasolar gas giant planets, for the purpose of predicting their appearance based on their temperature. Gas giants are split into five classes (numbered using Roman numerals) according to their modelled physical atmospheric properties.

2007

Simone Marchi [8] used as many inputs as possible for the analysis, in particular the planetary mass, semi-major axis, eccentricity, stellar mass and stellar metallicity. He identifies the best procedure to follow: a multivariate statistical analysis (PCA) to find the most important variables, and then hierarchical cluster analysis. His best solution consists of five clusters.

2009

Lundock et al. [7] had acquired spectra for all of the solar system planets and many smaller bodies using TRISPEC. The spectra are divided by their characteristic shapes into three distinct groups: gas planets, soil planets, and ice planets. Venus represents a fourth possible group.

2012

Eva Plávalová [12] proposed an extrasolar planet taxonomy scale with four main parameters which cover the mass, semi-major axis, temperature, eccentricity, plus one optional parameter, surface parameter, which is not always known.

[1] Bailes, M.; Lyne, A. G.; Shemar, S. L.: *Nature*, 352, pp.311-313, 1991.
 [2] Campbell, B., Walker, G. A. H., Yang, S.: *ApJ*, 331, pp.902-921, 1988.
 [3] Dyson, F.J.: *Science* 131, pp.1667-1668, 1960.
 [4] Gatewood, G., Eichhorn, H.: *AJ*, 78, pp.769-776, 1973.
 [5] Gray, R. O., Corbally, Ch. J.: *Stellar Spectral Classification*, Princeton University Press, 2009.

Abstract

Spectral classification of stars is now common and widely used. Only a few people know that its evolution into today's form has taken a matter of decades and that in its infancy was the subject of ridicule. This year is the 20th anniversary of the discovery of the first extrasolar planet 51Peg b. Almost two thousand planets and thousands of planet-candidates have been discovered since then. Isn't it high time to start talking about a system of classification? Every day new planet-candidates are being discovered and with the volume of planets expected to dramatically accelerate, without a good system of classification in place, the backlog of planets waiting to be analyzed would slow down research dramatically. We can discuss how this classification (taxonomy) should look like and be presented according to the existing system of classification published by Plávalová (2012). This classification uses four main parameters which cover the mass, semi-major axis, temperature, eccentricity, plus one optional parameter which is not always known.

System of classification of extrasolar planets

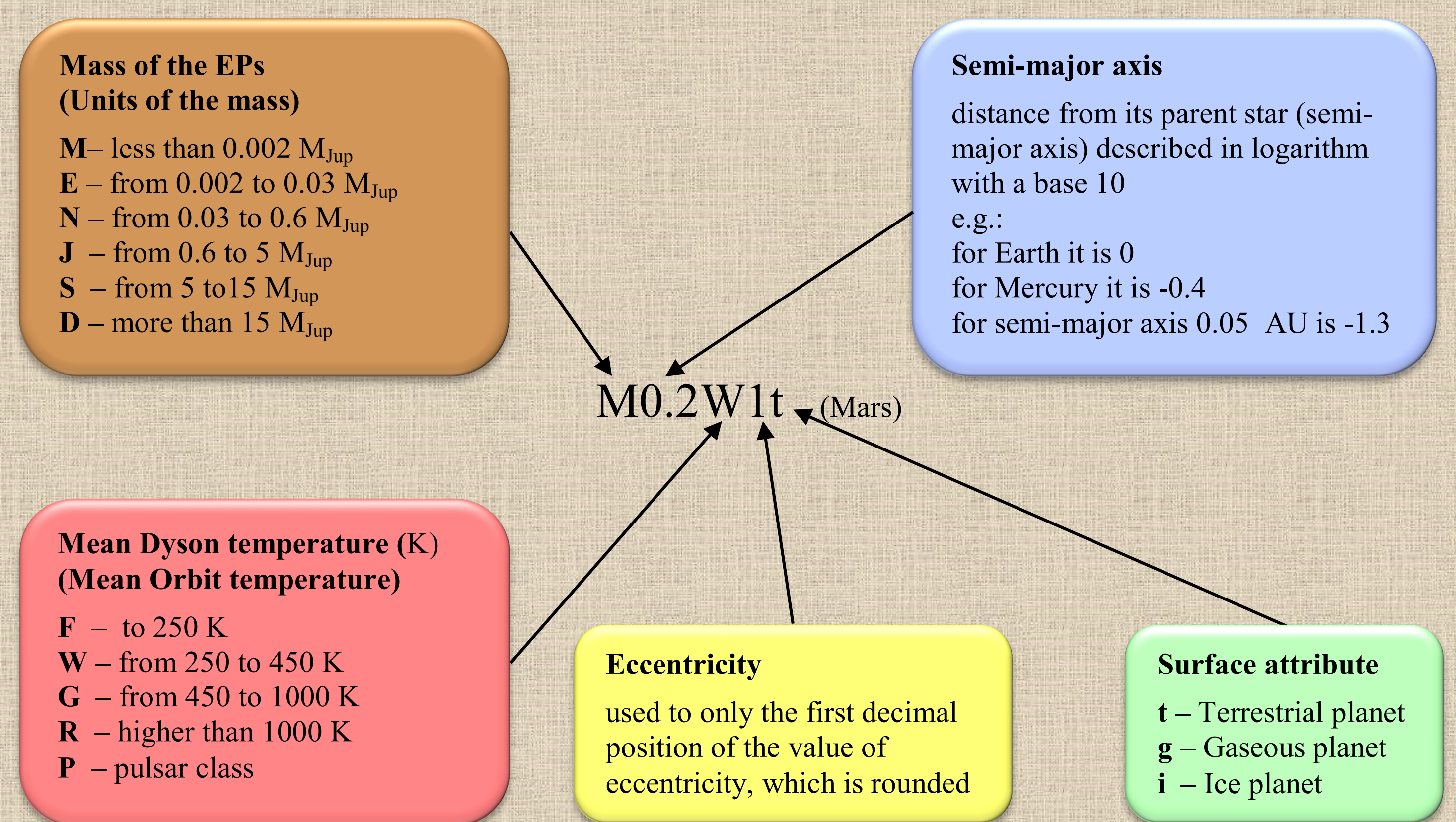


Figure 1: Schematic explanation - a definition of the taxonomy of the planets for which we are able to determine the taxonomy scale.

How it works?

This system uses four abbreviated parameters, written as a code, to allow for rapid recognition of a planet's characteristics.

The first parameter takes the form of the units of the mass, where M is less than 0.002 M_{Jup} and roughly represents the mass of Mercury, E is a mass from 0.002 to 0.03 M_{Jup} (roughly the mass of Earth), N is a mass from 0.03 to 0.6 M_{Jup} (roughly the mass of Neptune), J is a mass from 0.6 to 5 M_{Jup} (roughly the mass of Jupiter), S is a mass from 5 to 15 M_{Jup} (Super Jupiter) and unit D is for planets with a mass more than 15 M_{Jup} .

The second parameter is the planet's distance from its parent star (semi-major axis) described in logarithm with base 10.

The third parameter is the Mean Dyson Temperature (MDT) of the planet, for which we established four main temperature classes according to the state phase of water; F represents the Freezing class, W the Water Class, G the Gaseous Class, and R the Roasters Class. We devised one additional class, however, P representing the Pulsar Class, which concerns extrasolar planets orbiting pulsar stars. The Dyson temperature is a temperature that has an artificial sphere the size of a planetary orbit (Dyson sphere) [3]. The MDT is the arithmetical mean of the Dyson temperature taken from 10 equal segments, according to the second Keplerian law.

The fourth parameter is eccentricity, where we used only the first rounded decimal position for its value. Many extrasolar planets were published without a known value for their eccentricity, and then the classification code is written without a fourth parameter.

If the attributes of the surface of the planet are known, we are able to establish a fifth additional parameter where t represents a terrestrial planet, g a gaseous planet, or i an ice planet.

References:

[6] Hatzes, A. P., et al.: *ApJ*, 599, pp.1383-1394, 2003.
 [7] Lundock, R., et al.: *A&A*, 507, 3, pp.1649-1658, 2009.
 [8] Marchi, S.: *ApJ*, 666, pp.475-485, 2007.
 [9] Mayor, M., Queloz, D.: *Nature*, 378, pp.355-359, 1995.
 [10] Morgan, W. W., Keenan, P. C., Kellman, E.: *An atlas of stellar spectra, with an outline of spectral classification*, Chicago, Ill., The University of Chicago press, 1943.
 [11] Morgan, W. W., Keenan, P. C.: *Annual Review of A&A*, 11,

Examples

The code for Earth is E0W0t, for Uranus N1.3F0i and for 55 Cnc e is E-1.8R1. In practise, using the whole code is sometimes unnecessary. Then we can use a minimal code which for example could contain only the units of mass with the MDT, for example, Earth could be written as EW, 55 Cnc e as ER and Uranus as NF.

Planet	Classification code	Minimal code
Solar system		
Mercury	M-0.4G2t	MG
Venus	E-0.1G0t	EG
Earth	E0W0t	EW
Mars	M0.2W1t	MW
Jupiter	J0.7F0g	JF
Saturn	N1F1g	NF
Uranus	N1.3F0i	NF
Neptune	N1.5F0i	NF
Planets orbiting 55 Cnc		
55 Cnc b	J-0.9R0	JR
55 Cnc c	N-0.6G1	NG
55 Cnc d	J0.8F0	JF
55 Cnc e	E-1.8R1	ER
55 Cnc f	N-0.1W0	NW
Miscellaneous extrasolar planets		
11 Com b	D0.1R2	DR
14 And b	S-0.1R0	SR
75 Cet b	J0.3G	JG
Kepler 9b	N-0.8R1	NR
Kepler 9c	N-0.6G1	NG
CoRoT-9 b	J-0.4G1	JG
HD 117207 b	J0.6F2	JF

Table 1: Taxonomy identification for a few of the many discovered extrasolar planets.

pp.29-50, 1973.
 [12] Plávalová, E.: *Astrobiology*, 12, 4, pp.361-369, 2012.
 [13] Sudarsky, D., Burrows, A., Hubeny, I.: *ApJ*, 588, pp.1121-1148, 2003.
 [14] Walker, G. A. H., et al.: *ApJ*, 396, L91-L94, 1992.
 [15] van de Kamp, P.: *AJ*, 74, pp.757-759, 1969.
 [16] A. Wolszczan, A., Frail, D. A.: *Nature*, 355, pp.145-147, 1992.