A SUB-SATURN MASS PLANET, MOA-2009-BLG-319Lb

N. Miyake1,69, T. Sumi1,69, S. Doung1,69, R. Street3,4,7,42, L. Mancri16,7,73, A. Gould8,71, D. P. Bennett5,69,74, Y. Tsapras3,7,10,2, J. C. Yee8,7,4,7, M. D. Albrow8,74,71, I. A. Bond12,69, P. Fouqu6,7,73, P. Browne14,72,73, C. Han15,71, C. Snodgrass16,17,72,73, F. Finet18,73, K. Furusawa1,69, K. Harps6,73, W. Allen20,71, M. Hundertmark21,73, M. Freeman22,69, D. Suzuki1,69,

AND

F. Abe1, C. S. Botzler22, D. Douchin22, A. Fukui1, F. Hayashi1, J. B. Hearnsch23, S. Hosaka1, Y. Itou1, K. Kamiya1, P. M. Kilmarth24, A. Korpe25, W. Lin12, C. H. Ling12, S. Makita1, K. Masuda1, Y. Matsubara1, Y. Muraki26, T. Nagayama27, K. Nishimoto1, K. Ohnishi18, Y. C. Perrott22, N. Rattenbury22, To. Saito28, L. Skuljan12, D. J. Sullivan25, W. L. Sweatman12, P. J. Tristram24, K. Wada26, P. C. M. Yock22 (The MOA Collaboration)

G. Bolt30, M. Bos11, G. W. Christie12, D. L. DePoy33, J. Drummond34, A. Gal-Yam35, B. S. Gauba6, E. Gorbikov36, D. Higgins37, K.-H. Hwang16, J. Janczak18, S. Kaspi16,38, C.-U. Lee39, J.-R. Koo40, S. Koizawa1,41, Y. Lee41, F. Mallia42, A. Maury42, D. Mao46, J. McCormick43, L. A. G. Monard44, D. Moorhouse45, J. A. Munoz46, T. Natusch47, E. O. Ofek48,75, R. W. Pogge8, D. Polishook16, R. Santallo49, A. Shipore46, O. Specter16, and G. Thornley47 (The f̅UN Collaboration)

A. Allan1, D. M. Bramich51,74, K. Horne14,74, N. Kains14, I. Steele52 (The RoboNet Collaboration)

V. Bozza5,6,53, M. J. Burgdorf62,54,55, S. Calchi Novati21, M. Dominik14,72,74,76, S. Dreizler21, M. Glimstrup56, F. V. Hessman21, T. C. Hinse19,57, U. G. Jørgensen19,58, C. Lieber1,45,9, G. Maier5, M. Mathiasen19, S. Rahvar60,61, D. Ricci18, G. Scarpetta5,6,53, J. Skottfelt19, J. Southworth62, J. Surdej18, J. Wambsganss59, F. Zimmer55 (The MINDStEp Consortium)

V. Batista63,64, J. P. Beaulieu63,64, S. Brillant64, A. Cassan64, A. Cole67, E. Corrales63,64, Ch. Coutures63,64, S. Dieters63,64,7, J. Greenhill67, D. Kubas63,64,66, J. Menzies68 (The PLANET Collaboration)

1 Solar-Terrestrial Environment Laboratory, Nagoya University, Nagoya 464-8601, Japan; mniyake@stelab.nagoya-u.ac.jp, sumi@stelab.nagoya-u.ac.jp, furusawa@stelab.nagoya-u.ac.jp, dsuke@stelab.nagoya-u.ac.jp, abe@stelab.nagoya-u.ac.jp, afuki@stelab.nagoya-u.ac.jp, fhayashi@stelab.nagoya-u.ac.jp, hosaka@stelab.nagoya-u.ac.jp, itow@stelab.nagoya-u.ac.jp, k kamiya@stelab.nagoya-u.ac.jp, makita@stelab.nagoya-u.ac.jp, k masuda@stelab.nagoya-u.ac.jp, y matsu@stelab.nagoya-u.ac.jp, nishimo@stelab.nagoya-u.ac.jp
2 Institute for Advanced Study, Einstein Drive, Princeton, NJ 08540, USA; dong@ias.edu
3 Las Cumbres Observatory Global Telescope Network, 6740 Cortona Dr., Suite 102, Goleta, CA 93117, USA
4 Department of Physics, Brodia Hall, University of California, Santa Barbara, CA 93106-9530, USA
5 Dipartimento di Fisica “E. R. Caianiello,” Università degli Studi di Salerno, Via Ponte Don Melillo, 84085 Fisciano (SA), Italy
6 Istituto Internazionale per gli Alti Studi Scientifici (IIASS), Via G. Pellegrino 19, 84019 Vietri sul Mare (SA), Italy
7 Dipartimento di Ingegneria, Università del Sannio, Corso Garibaldi 107, 82100 Benevento, Italy
8 Department of Physics, Ohio State University, 140 W. 18th Ave., Columbus, OH 43210, USA; gould@astronomy.ohio-state.edu, gaudi@astronomy.ohio-state.edu, jye@astronomy.ohio-state.edu, pogge@astronomy.ohio-state.edu, simkoz@astronomy.ohio-state.edu
9 Department of Physics, University of Notre Dame, Notre Dame, IN 46556, USA; bennett@nd.edu
10 Astronomy Unit, School of Mathematical Sciences, Queen Mary, University of London, London E1 4NS, UK
11 Department of Physics, University of Canterbury, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch, New Zealand
12 Institute of Information and Mathematical Sciences, Massey University, Private Bag 102-904, North Shore Mail Centre, Auckland, New Zealand; i.a.bond@massey.ac.nz
13 LATT, Université de Toulouse, CNRS, 14 Avenue Edouard Belin, 31400 Toulouse, France
14 SUPA, University of St. Andrews, School of Physics & Astronomy, North Haugh, St. Andrews, KY16 9SS, UK
15 Department of Physics, Institute for Basic Science Research, Chungbuk National University, Chungju 361-763, Republic of Korea; cheonhgo@astro.phys.chungbuk.ac.kr
16 European Southern Observatory, Alonso de Cordova 3107, Casilla 1904, Santiago 19, Chile
17 Max-Planck-Institut für Sonnensystemforschung, Max-Planck-Str. 2, 37191 Katlenburg-Lindau, Germany
18 Institut d’Astrophysique et de Géophysique, Allée du 6 Août 17, Sart Tilman, Bât. B5c, 4000 Liège, Belgium
19 Niels Bohr Institute, University of Copenhagen, Juliane Maries Vej 30, 2100 København Ø, Denmark
20 Vintage Lane Observatory, Blenheim, New Zealand; whallen@xtra.co.nz
21 Institut für Astrophysik, Georg-August-Universität, Friedrich-Hund-Platz 1, 37077 Göttingen, Germany
22 Department of Physics, University of Auckland, Auckland, New Zealand
23 Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of Canterbury, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch, New Zealand
24 Mt. John University Observatory, University of Canterbury, P.O. Box 56, Lake Tekapo 8770, New Zealand
25 School of Chemical and Physical Sciences, Victoria University, Wellington, New Zealand
26 Department of Physics, Konan University, Kobe. Nishiohama 8-9-1 Japan
27 Department of Physics and Astronomy, Faculty of Science, Nagoya University, Nagoya 464-8602, Japan
28 Nagano National College of Technology, Nagano 381-8550, Japan
29 Tokyo Metropolitan College of Aeronautics, Tokyo 116-8523, Japan
30 Craigie Observatory, Perth, Australia; gbolt@iinet.net.au
31 Moldehills Astronomical Observatory, Auckland, New Zealand; moldehill@ihug.co.nz
32 Auckland Observatory, Auckland, New Zealand; gwchristie@christie.org.nz
33 Department of Physics and Astronomy, Texas A&M University, College Station, TX, USA; depoy@physics.tamu.edu
34 Possum Observatory, Putatahi, New Zealand; john_drummond@xtra.co.nz
We report the gravitational microlensing discovery of a sub-Saturn mass planet, MOA-2009-BLG-319Lb, orbiting a K- or M-dwarf star in the inner Galactic disk or Galactic bulge. The high-cadence observations of the MOA-II survey discovered this microlensing event and enabled its identification as a high-magnification event approximately 24 hr prior to peak magnification. As a result, the planetary signal at the peak of this light curve was observed by 20 different telescopes, which is the largest number of telescopes to contribute to a planetary discovery to date. The microlensing model for this event indicates a planet–star mass ratio of $q = (3.95 \pm 0.02) \times 10^{-4}$ and a separation of $d = 0.97537 \pm 0.00007$ in units of the Einstein radius. A Bayesian analysis based on the measured Einstein radius crossing time, $t_E$, and angular Einstein radius, $\theta_E$, along with a standard Galactic model indicates a host star mass of $M_\ast = 0.39^{+0.34}_{-0.18} M_\odot$ and a planet mass of $M_p = 50^{+44}_{-24} M_\oplus$, which is half the mass of Saturn. This analysis also yields a planet–star three-dimensional separation of $a = 2.4^{+1.2}_{-0.6}$ AU and a distance to the planetary system of $D_L = 6.1^{+1.2}_{-1.1}$ kpc. This separation is $\sim 2$ times the distance of the snow line, a separation similar to most of the other planets discovered by microlensing.

Key words: gravitational lensing: micro – planetary systems

Online-only material: color figure

1. INTRODUCTION

We present the eleventh microlensing planet, following 10 previous discoveries (Bond et al. 2004; Udalski et al. 2005; Beaulieu et al. 2006; Gould et al. 2006; Gaudi et al. 2008; Bennett et al. 2008; Dong et al. 2009; Sumi et al. 2010; Janczak et al. 2010). Microlensing is unique among exoplanet detection methods in that it is sensitive to planets with masses down to $1 M_\oplus$ (Bennett & Rhie 1996) at relatively large separations, typically between 1 AU and 6 AU, depending on the mass of the host star. These separations are generally beyond the “snow line” at $\sim 2.7 U/M/M_\odot$ (Ida & Lin 2004; Lecar et al.
2006; Kennedy & Kenyon 2008), the region where planets can form most quickly, according to the core accretion theory. Microlensing confirms this expectation, as a statistical analysis of the prevalence of planets found by microlensing shows that Saturn mass planets beyond the snow line are more common than the higher mass gas giants found by radial velocities in shorter period orbits (Gould et al. 2010), although the microlensing results are consistent with an extrapolation of the radial velocity results for solar-mass stars to larger orbital distances (Cumming et al. 2008). Furthermore, Sumi et al. (2010) have shown that the number of planets (per logarithmic interval) increases with decreasing mass ratio, \( q \), as \( q^{-0.7 \pm 0.2} \) down to \( \sim 10 M_\oplus \). So, cold Neptunes seem to be even more common than cold Saturns. While the number of planets found by microlensing is relatively small, it is the cold Neptunes and Saturns discovered by microlensing that represent the most common types of exoplanet yet to be discovered. Microlensing has also found the first Jupiter/Saturn analog planetary system (Gaudi et al. 2008; Bennett et al. 2010), and it should soon be possible to use the microlensing results to determine how the properties of exoplanet systems vary with distance from the Galactic center.

Searches for exoplanets via the microlensing method are currently conducted by two survey groups, the Microlensing Observations in Astrophysics (MOA; Bond et al. 2001; Sumi et al. 2003) and the Optical Gravitational Lensing Experiment (OGLE; Udalski 2003), which monitor \( \sim 40 \text{deg}^2 \) of the Galactic bulge to identify stellar microlensing events that can be searched for planetary signals. The planetary signals have durations that range from a few hours to a few days, so a global network of telescopes is needed to search for and characterize planetary signals. The follow-up groups that complete this telescope network are the Microlensing Follow-Up Network (\( \mu \text{FUN} \)), RoboNet, Microlensing Network for the Detection of Small Terrestrial Exoplanets (MiNDSTep), and the Probing Lensing Anomalies NETwork (PLANET). These narrow field-of-view (FOV) follow-up telescopes can provide very high cadence observations of a small number of events that are known to be interesting, due to known or suspected planetary deviations in progress (Sumi et al. 2010) or high-magnification events, which have very high planet detection efficiency (Griest & Safizadeh 1998; Rhie et al. 2000; Rattenbury et al. 2002). The very wide (2.2 \text{deg}^2) FOV of the MOA-II 1.8 m telescope with 80M pixel CCD camera MOA-cam3 (Sako et al. 2008) provides high-cadence survey observations of the entire Galactic bulge, and this allows MOA to identify suspected planetary deviations in progress and to predict high magnification (\( A_{\text{max}} > 100 \)) for events with relatively short timescales (Einstein radius crossing time \( t_E \), < 20 days). MOA-2009-BLG-319 is one such short timescale high-magnification event that was identified as a high-magnification event based on MOA data taken \( \sim 24 \text{hr} \) prior to peak magnification.

In this paper, we report the discovery of a sub-Saturn mass planet in the microlensing event, MOA-2009-BLG-319. We describe the observations and data sets in Section 2. The light curve modeling is presented in Section 3. We discuss the measurement of the source magnitude and color in Section 4 and derive the angular Einstein radius in Section 5. In Section 6, we search for a microlensing parallax signal. In Section 7, we use a Bayesian analysis to estimate the masses and distances of the host star and the planet, based on the angular Einstein radius and microlens parallax. We present our conclusion in Section 8.

2. OBSERVATIONS

For the bulk of the 2009 observing season, the MOA group was the only microlensing survey group in operation because the OGLE group completed the OGLE-III survey on 2009 May 3, in order to upgrade to the OGLE-IV camera with a much wider FOV. Prompted in part by this fact, MOA adopted a new observing strategy for the 2009 observing season in order to increase the planet detection efficiency. The top six fields (a total of 13.2 \text{deg}^2) yielded 54\% of the microlensing events found by MOA in previous seasons, and these were observed every 15 minutes. The next six fields (with 25\% of the previous years’ events) were observed every 47 minutes, and most of the remaining 10 fields were observed every 95 minutes. This new observing strategy yielded 563 microlensing alert events in 2009, an increase of about 100 over the 2008 total. MOA-2009-BLG-319 was the first of four of these events to yield an apparent planetary signal.

The event MOA-2009-BLG-319 \([(\text{R.A., decl.})_{\text{J2000.0}} = (18^\text{h}06^\text{m}58^\text{s}13, -26^\text{d}49^\text{m}10^\text{s}89), (\ell, b) = (4.202, -3.014)]\) was detected and announced as a normal microlensing alert event by the MOA collaboration on 2009 June 20 (HJD' = HJD − 2450000 = 5003.056). The discovery announcement provided a model for this event, which indicated that this was a high-magnification event, and so MOA immediately began follow-up observations in the \( I \) and \( V \) bands with the University of Canterbury’s 0.6 m Boller & Chivens (B&C) telescope at Mt. John Observatory. Public access to the MOA photometry over the next two nights led the \( \mu \text{FUN} \), RoboNet, and MiNDSTep collaborations to begin observations of this event \( \sim 2.5 \text{days} \) after its discovery. Three days after the discovery, the MOA data indicated that this event was quite likely to reach high magnification, and the \( \mu \text{FUN} \) group issued a high-magnification alert by email to all interested observers, estimating a peak magnification of \( A_{\text{max}} > 100 \) (at \( 1\sigma \)) 18 hr later at HJD' = 5006.875. This alert message noted “low-level systematics” in the MOA data, which were, in fact, not systematic errors at all. Instead, this light curve feature was the first (weak) planetary caustic crossing. Then, 14 hr later at June 24 UT 01:12 HJD' \( \approx 5006.55 \), data from the \( \mu \text{FUN SMARTS CTIO} \) telescope in Chile provided clear evidence for a second, much stronger, caustic crossing feature, which prompted \( \mu \text{FUN} \) to issue an anomaly alert. This feature was readily confirmed by the MiNDSTep observer at La Silla from data already in hand (see Figure 1). A large number of telescopes responded to this anomaly alert, resulting in continuous photometric monitoring of the remainder of the planetary signal with no gaps larger than 5 minutes until after the planetary signal finished, some \( \sim 20 \text{hr} \) later.

The complete data set for MOA-2009-BLG-319 consists of observations from 20 different observatories representing the MOA, \( \mu \text{FUN} \), RoboNet, MiNDSTep, PLANET groups, as well as the InfraRed Survey Facility (IRSF) telescope in South Africa. Specifically, the data set includes data from the following telescopes and passbands: MOA-II (New Zealand) 1.8 m wide \( R \) band, the Mt. John Observatory B&C (New Zealand) 0.61 m \( I \) and \( V \) bands, \( \mu \text{FUN} \) Auckland Observatory (New Zealand) 0.4 m \( R \)-band, \( \mu \text{FUN} \) Bronberg (South Africa) 0.35 m unfiltered, \( \mu \text{FUN SMARTS CTIO} \) (Chile) 1.3 m \( V \), \( I \), and \( H \) bands, \( \mu \text{FUN} \) Campo Catino Austral (CAO, Chile) 0.5 m unfiltered, \( \mu \text{FUN} \) Farm Cove (New Zealand) 0.35 m unfiltered, \( \mu \text{FUN} \) IAC80 (Tenerife, Spain) 0.8 m \( I \) band, \( \mu \text{FUN} \) Mt. Lemmon (Arizona, USA) 1.0 m \( I \) band, \( \mu \text{FUN} \) Southern Stars Observatory (SSO, Tahiti) 0.28 m unfiltered, \( \mu \text{FUN} \).
Figure 1. Light curve of planetary microlensing event MOA-2009-BLG-319. The top panel shows the data points and the best-fit model light curve with finite source and limb-darkening effects. The three lower panels show close-up views of the four caustic crossing light curve regions and the residuals from the best-fit light curve. The photometric measurements from MOA, B&C, Auckland, Bronberg, CAO, CTIO, Farm Cove, and LOAO are plotted as filled dots with colors indicated by the legend in the top panel. The other data sets are plotted with open circles. The data sets of \( \mu \text{FUN Bronberg and SSO} \) have been averaged into 0.01 day bins, and the \( \mu \text{FUN} \) data sets except the CTIO \( H \) band and Bronberg were reduced using the MOA DIA pipeline and pySIS version 3.0 (Albrow et al. 2009), which is based on the numerical kernel method invented by Bramich (2008). The CTIO \( H \) band and Bronberg data sets were reduced using the OSU DoPHOT pipeline. The Danish data were reduced by the DIAPL image subtraction software (Wozniak 2000). The RoboNet and PLANET data sets were reduced by pySIS version 3.0. The IRSF data set was reduced by the DoPHOT pipeline. The error bars for the data points are re-normalized so that \( \chi^2 \) per degree of freedom for the best-fit model is nearly one.

All of these data sets are used for modeling except for the CTIO \( V \) and \( H \) bands, the Canopus and SAAO \( I \) band, and the IRSF \( J \), \( H \), and \( K_s \) bands. The CTIO \( H \)-band data were not used in the modeling because of a cyclic pattern caused by intrapixel sensitivity variations and image dithering. For our modeling of microlensing parallax effects, we have used a binned data set in order to speed up the modeling calculations. Note that we checked that an analysis with unbinned data gives the same results.

3. MODELING

Inspection of Figure 1 indicates that the event exhibits a number of caustic crossings, so we expect that this event, like most planetary microlensing events, will exhibit significant finite source effects. The first step in modeling is...
therefore to measure the source color, which then enables us to determine the limb-darkening parameters for the various light curves.

3.1. Source Color

Once a microlensing model is found, the dereddened source color and magnitude \([I, (V - I)]_0\) can be determined by comparing the instrumental values of these quantities to those of the red clump (Yoo et al. 2004). This is described in Section 4. However, before a good model can be found, the limb-darkening coefficients must be determined, which requires an estimate of the source color. This seemingly endless loop can be broken by making a model-independent measurement of the instrumental source color from a regression of \(V\)-band flux on \(I\)-band flux (and then comparing this value to the instrumental clump color).

We find \((V - I)_0 = 0.82\), as reported in more detail in Section 4.

3.2. Limb Darkening

We adopt a two-parameter square-root law (Claret 2000) for the surface brightness of the source,

\[
S_0(\theta) = S_0(0)[1 - c(1 - \cos \theta) - d(1 - \sqrt{\cos \theta})].
\]  

(1)

Here, \(c\) and \(d\) are the limb-darkening coefficients, \(S_0(0)\) is the central surface brightness of the source, and \(\theta\) is the angle between the normal to the stellar surface and the line of sight, i.e., \(\sin \theta = \theta/\theta_E\), where \(\theta\) is the angular distance from the center of the source.

Based on the source color estimate of \((V - I) = 0.82\), the source is likely to have a G8 spectral type and an effective temperature \(T_{\text{eff}} = 5475\) K according to Bessell & Brett (1988). We use limb-darkening parameters from Claret (2000) for a source star with effective temperature \(T_{\text{eff}} = 5500\) K, surface gravity \(\log g = 4.5\), and metallicity \(\log [\text{M/H}] = 0.0\) as presented in Table 1.

### Table 1

| Filter Color | \(V\) | \(R\) | \(I\) | \(J\) | \(H\) | \(K\) |
|--------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| \(c\)        | 0.3866| 0.2556| 0.1517| -0.0234| -0.2154| -0.1606|
| \(d\)        | 0.4303| 0.5027| 0.5281| 0.6021 | 0.7695 | 0.6324|

3.3. Best-fit Model

We search for the best-fit binary lens model using a variation of the Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) algorithm (Verde et al. 2003) due to Doran & Mueller (2004) and Bennett (2010) that frequently changes the “jump function” in order to find the \(\chi^2\) minimum more quickly. There are three lensing parameters in common with single lens events, the time of the closest approach to the center of mass \(t_0\), the Einstein crossing time \(t_E\), and the minimum impact parameter \(u_0\). Binary lens models require four additional parameters: the planet–star mass ratio \(q\), the binary lens separation \(d\), which is projected onto the plane of the sky and normalized by the angular Einstein radius \(\theta_E\), the angle of the source trajectory relative to the binary lens axis \(\alpha\), and source radius relative to the Einstein radius \(\rho = \theta_s/\theta_E\). In addition, for each data set and passband, there are two parameters to describe the unmagnified source and background fluxes in that band.

We begin by conducting a very broad parameter search. The parameter search has been conducted by two independent codes. We perform 300 separate \(\chi^2\) minimizations with initial parameters distributed over the ranges \(-5 < \log q < -1\), \(-3 < \log d < 0.3\), in order to identify the parameter regimes of models that could explain the light curve. The initial parameters with \(\log d > 0.3\) were not prepared because of the \(d \leftrightarrow d^{-1}\) symmetry. We find that the only models consistent with the observed light curve have \(q \sim 10^{-4}\) and \(d \sim 1\) and that the best-fit model has \(q = (3.95 \pm 0.02) \times 10^{-4}\), \(d = 0.97537 \pm 0.00007\), and other parameters as listed in Table 2. The projected position of the planet is pretty close to the Einstein ring, and therefore \(d\) was well constrained. The light curves and caustic of this event are shown in Figure 1 and Figure 2, respectively, which resemble Figure 8 in Wambsganss (1997). Here we assumed no orbital motion of the planet around the host star in our model. So, the \(d\) and \(\alpha\) are the average separation and angle during half a day when the source is crossing the caustics. The changes of these parameters due to the orbital motion during this period could be of the same order or slightly larger than the nominal MCMC error of the average values given above. These changes do not affect the results in this analysis because they are much smaller than the uncertainty given in Section 7.

4. SOURCE MAGNITUDE AND COLOR

The dereddened source magnitude and color can be estimated as follows. We locate the clump in the color–magnitude diagram (CMD) of stars within 2’ of the source star, shown in Figure 3, with the following method. The stars, which are \(I < 17\) mag and \((V - I) > 1.5\) mag, were used for the clump estimate. Among them, the stars within 0.3 mag from the clump centroid were picked up. Note that the clump in the first turn was assumed. Then, the mean magnitude of \(I\) and mean color \((V - I)\) were calculated using the stars within 0.3 mag and replaced as the new clump centroid. This was iterated until the clump centroid position is converged. Therefore, we find the clump as \([I, (V - I)]_{\text{clump}} = (15.31, 1.91)\). The best model source brightness and color are obtained as \([I, (V - I)]_{\text{S}} = (19.82, 1.69)\) from the fits. With a 0.05 mag correction due to blending by fainter stars in this crowded field (Bennett et al. 2010), this yields

\[
[I, (V - I)]_{\text{S}} - [I, (V - I)]_{\text{clump}} = (4.51, -0.22).
\]  

(2)

We adopt the dereddened red clump giant (RCG) magnitude \(M_{I, 0, \text{clump}} = -0.25\) and color \((V - I)_{0, \text{clump}} = 1.04\) from
blended light comes from a single star. The filled circle indicates the center of
μ the dereddened values for the source, clump, we use the best-fit source magnitude and color to obtain
\(\chi^2\) value is the result of the fitting with 18 data sets, which have 7210 data points. The model search with finite source and orbital parallax effects were done by a grid search.

Bennett et al. (2008), which is based on Girardi & Salaris (2001) and Salaris & Girardi (2002). Rattenbury et al. (2007) find that the clump in this field lies 0.12 mag in the foreground of the Galactic center, which when added in quadrature yields a total uncertainty of 0.11 mag.

Equation (3) implies extinction of \(A_I = 1.16 \pm 0.11\) and reddening \(E(V - I) = 0.87 \pm 0.08\), which is consistent within the error with \(E(V - I) = 0.97 \pm 0.03\) from the OGLE-II extinction map (Sumi 2004).

5. MEASUREMENT OF THE ANGULAR EINSTEIN RADIUS, \(\theta_E\)

The sharp caustic crossing features in the MOA-2009-BLG-319 light curve resolve the finite angular size of the source star, and these finite source effects allow us to determine the angular Einstein radius \(\theta_E\) and the lens-source relative proper motion \(\mu_\text{rel} = \theta_E/\epsilon_E\). Following Yoo et al. (2004), we use the dereddened color and magnitude of the source \([I, (V - I)]_{S,0}\) from Equation (4). Next, we obtain the source angular radius using the source \(V\) and \(K\) magnitude. We estimate \((V - K)_{0}\) from \((V - I)_{0}\) and the Bessell & Brett (1988) color–color relations for dwarf stars,

\[
[K, (V - K)]_{S,0} = (17.67, 1.81) \pm (0.14, 0.15). \tag{5}
\]

We also estimate the \(K\) magnitude using IRSF data, \(K_{S,0} = 18.09 \pm 0.42\). This is consistent with but less accurate than the \(K\) magnitude estimated from \((V - I)_{0}\). So, we use the \(K\) magnitude estimated from \((V - I)_{0}\). For main-sequence stars, the relationship between color, brightness, and a star angular radius \(\theta_s\) was determined by Kervella et al. (2004) to be

\[
\log(2\theta_s) = 0.0755(V - K) + 0.5170 - 0.2 K, \tag{6}
\]

which with \(K\) and \((V - K)\) from Equation (5) implies

\[
\theta_s = 0.66 \pm 0.06 \mu\text{as}. \tag{7}
\]
The fit parameter $\rho \equiv \theta_*/\theta_E$ is the source star angular radius in units of the angular Einstein radius. Thus, the angular Einstein radius $\theta_E$ is

$$\theta_E = \frac{\theta_*}{\rho} = 0.34 \pm 0.03 \text{ mas.} \quad (8)$$

Therefore, the source-lens relative proper motion $\mu$ is

$$\mu = \frac{\theta_E}{t_E} = 7.52 \pm 0.65 \text{ mas yr}^{-1}. \quad (9)$$

6. MICROLENSING PARALLAX EFFECT

The event timescale is not long, $t_E = 16.6$ days, so one does not expect to detect the orbital microlensing parallax effect (Refsdal 1966; Gould 1992; Alcock et al. 1995). However, the very sharp third peak was observed simultaneously from Australia, New Zealand, and Hawaii, i.e., along two nearly perpendicular base lines of length, 0.36 $R_E$ and 1.25 $R_{12}$, respectively. Therefore, there is some chance that these data will reveal a signal due to terrestrial microlensing parallax (Hardy & Walker 1995; Holz & Wald 1996; Gould et al. 2009).

Microlensing parallax is usually described by the parallax parameter, $\pi_E$, which is the amplitude of the two-dimensional microlens parallax vector, and the two components of this vector are denoted by $\pi_{E,N}$ and $\pi_{E,E}$, which are the east and north components of the vector on the sky. The microlens parallax vector has the same direction as the lens-source proper motion, perpendicular to the line of sight. It is related to the lens-source relative parallax $\pi_{rel}$ and the angular Einstein radius $\theta_E$ (Gould 2000) by

$$\pi_E = \frac{\pi_{rel}}{\theta_E}, \quad \pi_{rel} = \pi_L - \pi_S, \quad (10)$$

where $\pi_L$ and $\pi_S$ are the lens and the source parallaxes, respectively.

Our initial search for microlensing parallax included both the orbital and terrestrial effect, as is necessary for a physically correct model. Our initial fits indicated a weak microlensing parallax signal, so we searched for orbital parallax and terrestrial parallax signals separately, in order to determine which type of parallax signal is being seen and to test for possible systematic errors. We must also consider alternative model solutions due to the $u_0 > 0 \Leftrightarrow u_0 < 0$ degeneracy first noted by Smith et al. (2003). As the model results listed in Table 2 indicate, orbital parallax can improve the fit $\chi^2$ by only $\Delta \chi^2 = 0.6$, with two additional parameters, which is not at all significant. The best terrestrial parallax model, however, does give a formally significant $\chi^2$ improvement of $\Delta \chi^2 = 6.2$, but this improvement decreases to $\Delta \chi^2 = 6.1$ for the best physical (terrestrial plus orbital) parallax model. With two additional parameters, this is formally significant at almost the 95% confidence level. Figure 4 shows the $\Delta \chi^2$ contours for microlensing parallax fits to the MOA-2009-BLG-319 light curve.

The best-fit parallax model has $u_0 > 0$ and $(\pi_{E,E}, \pi_{E,N}) = (-0.15, 0.15) \pm (0.07, 0.05)$, while the best-fit $u_0 < 0$ model has a $\chi^2$ value that is larger than the best-fit $u_0 > 0$ solution by 1.7 and only an improvement of $\Delta \chi^2 = 4.4$ over the best-fit non-parallax solution. Thus, the best $u_0 < 0$ model is neither a significant improvement over the best non-parallax model nor significantly worse than the best parallax model. We find that $\chi^2$ improvement for the best-fit parallax model comes from the Mt. John observatory (MOA-II 1.8 m and Canterbury 0.6m) telescopes alone, with a total $\chi^2$ improvement $\Delta \chi^2 = 7.3$, while the contribution of all the other data sets is $\Delta \chi^2 = -1.2$ (i.e., the parallax model is disfavored). One would expect that $\chi^2$ should improve for the many other data sets, and the fact that it does not suggest that the parallax signal may not be real.

If we assume that the scalar parallax measurement of $\pi_E$ is correct, then it implies that the lens system is located in the inner Galactic disk. Due to the flat rotation curve of the Galaxy, the stars at this location are rotating much faster than the typical line of sight to a Galactic bulge star. As a result, the direction of the parallax vector (which is parallel to the lens-source relative velocity) is most likely to be in the direction of Galactic rotation, which is $\sim 30^\circ$ east of north. This is similar to the direction of the parallax vector for the best $u_0 < 0$ model, but it is roughly perpendicular to that for the $u_0 > 0$ model. So, the $u_0 > 0$ solution appears to be disfavored on a priori grounds.

Because of the low significance of the microlensing parallax signal and the indications of possible systematic problems with the measurement of the parallax parameters, we will use only an upper limit on the microlensing parallax effect in our analysis.

7. THE LENS PROPERTIES

We can place lower limits on the lens mass and distance with our measured angular Einstein radius, $\theta_E$, and our upper limit on the amplitude of the microlens parallax vector, $\pi_E$. The lens mass is given by

$$M = \frac{\theta_E}{\kappa \pi_E}. \quad (11)$$
where $\kappa = 4G/c^2 (\text{AU}) = 8.1439 \text{ mas } M_\odot^{-1}$. With our upper limit from the previous section, $\pi_E < 0.5$, gives a lower limit on the total mass of the lens system, $M > 0.08 M_\odot$. This implies that the lens primary is more massive than a brown dwarf and must be a star or stellar remnant. From Equation (10), this implies that the source-lens relative parallax is $\pi_{\text{rel}} < 0.17 \text{ mas}$.

The vast majority of source stars for microlensing events seen toward the bulge are stars in the bulge, and the MOA-2009-BLG-319 source magnitude and colors are consistent with a bulge G-dwarf source. So, it is reasonable to assume that the source is a bulge star with a distance of $D_S \approx 8.0 \text{ kpc}$. This implies that the lens parallax is $\pi_L = \pi_{\text{rel}} + \pi_S < 0.30 \text{ mas}$, from Equation (10). The lens parallax is related to the distance by $\pi_L = 1 \text{ AU}/D_L$, so a lower limit on the lens distance is $D_L > 3.33 \text{ kpc}$.

An upper limit on the lens mass may be obtained if we assume that the planetary host star is a main-sequence star and not a stellar remnant. We can consider the blended flux seen at the same location of the source beyond the measured source flux from the microlensing models. If we attribute this blended flux to a single star, we can follow the reasoning of Section 4 in order to estimate the dereddened magnitude of the blend star:

$$I, V - I_{b,0} = (17.78, 0.75) \pm (0.12, 0.14), \quad (12)$$

under the (conservative) assumption that the blend star lies behind all the foreground dust. We can now use this as an upper limit on the brightness of a main-sequence lens star. From Schmidt-Kaler (1982) and Bessell & Brett (1988), we find an upper limit on the host star mass of $M < 1.14 M_\odot$.

As we found finite source effects in the light curve, we can break out one degeneracy of the lens star mass, $M$, distance $D_L$, and velocity $v$. We calculated the probability distribution from Bayesian analysis by combining this equation and the measured values of $\theta_E$ and $t_E$ with the Galactic model (Han & Gould 2003) assuming that the distance to the Galactic center is $8 \text{ kpc}$. We included the upper limit of microlens parallax amplitude. A constraint of the upper limit for blending light was also included for the lens mass upper limit. The probability distribution from a Bayesian analysis is shown in Figure 5. The host star is a K- or M-dwarf star with a mass of $M_L = 0.38^{+0.34}_{-0.18} M_\odot$ and distance $D_L = 6.1^{+1.1}_{-1.2} \text{ kpc}$, planetary mass $M_p = 50^{+44}_{-24} M_\oplus$, and projected separation $r_p = 2.0^{+0.4}_{-0.4} \text{ AU}$. The physical three-dimensional separation, $a = 2.4^{+1.2}_{-0.6} \text{ AU}$, was estimated by putting a planetary orbit at random inclination, eccentricity, and phase (Gould & Loeb 1992).

8. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

We have reported the discovery of a sub-Saturn mass planet in the light curve of the microlensing event MOA-2009-BLG-319. This event was observed by 20 telescopes, the largest number of telescopes to participate in a microlensing planet discovery to date. The lens system has a mass ratio $q = (3.95 \pm 0.02) \times 10^{-4}$ and a separation $d = 0.97537 \pm 0.00007$ Einstein radii. The lens-source relative proper motion was determined to be $\mu_{\text{rel}} = 7.52 \pm 0.65 \text{ mas yr}^{-1}$ from the measurement of finite source effects. A slightly better light curve fit can be obtained when the (terrestrial) microlensing parallax effect is included in the model, yielding an improvement of $\Delta \chi^2 = 6.1$. This is very marginal statistical significance, and there are indications that systematic errors may influence the result. So, we use our microlensing parallax analysis to set an upper limit of $\pi_E < 0.5$.
Table 3
Parameters of Exoplanets Discovered by Microlensing

| Name                | Host Star Mass $M_{\star}$ ($M_\odot$) | Distance $D_L$ (kpc) | Planet Mass $M_p$ ($M_\oplus$) | Separation $a$ (AU) | Mass Estimated by |
|---------------------|---------------------------------------|---------------------|---------------------------------|--------------------|------------------|
| OGLE-2003-BLG-235Lb | 0.63$^{+0.07}_{-0.09}$                | 5.8$^{+0.6}_{-0.7}$ | 2.6$^{+0.8}_{-0.6}$ $M_\odot$ | 4.3$^{+2.5}_{-0.8}$ | $\theta_L$, lens brightness |
| OGLE-2005-BLG-071Lb | 0.46$^{+0.04}_{-0.05}$                | 3.2$^{+0.4}_{-0.4}$ | 3.8$^{+0.4}_{-0.8}$ $M_\odot$ | 3.6$^{+0.2}_{-0.2}$ | $\theta_L$, $\tau_L$, detection of the lens |
| OGLE-2005-BLG-169Lb | 0.49$^{+0.05}_{-0.06}$                | 2.7$^{+1.6}_{-1.3}$ | 13$^{+15.8}_{-11.9}$ $M_\odot$ | 2.7$^{+1.7}_{-1.3}$ | $\theta_L$, Bayesian |
| OGLE-2005-BLG-390Lb | 0.22$^{+0.05}_{-0.06}$                | 6.6$^{+1.0}_{-1.0}$ | 5.5$^{+5.5}_{-1.4}$ $M_\odot$ | 2.6$^{+1.5}_{-0.6}$ | $\theta_L$, Bayesian |
| OGLE-2006-BLG-109Lb | 0.51$^{+0.05}_{-0.04}$                | 1.9$^{+1.9}_{-1.9}$ | 231$^{+19}_{-19}$ $M_\odot$ | 2.3$^{+0.5}_{-0.5}$ | $\theta_L$, $\tau_L$ |
| OGLE-2007-BLG-368Lb | 0.64$^{+0.21}_{-0.09}$                | 5.9$^{+0.9}_{-1.4}$ | 20$^{+1.8}_{-1.4}$ $M_\odot$ | 3.3$^{+1.4}_{-0.8}$ | $\theta_L$, Bayesian |
| MOA-2007-BLG-192Lb | 0.084$^{+0.02}_{-0.01}$               | 0.7$^{+0.21}_{-0.12}$ | 3.2$^{+0.49}_{-0.39}$ $M_\odot$ | 0.66$^{+0.39}_{-0.14}$ | $\theta_L$, $\tau_L$ |
| MOA-2007-BLG-400Lb | 0.30$^{+0.19}_{-0.12}$                | 5.8$^{+0.8}_{-0.8}$ | 0.83$^{+0.10}_{-0.34}$ $M_\odot$ | 0.72$^{+0.38}_{-0.16}$ | $\theta_L$, Bayesian |
| MOA-2008-BLG-310Lb | 0.67$^{+0.14}_{-0.14}$                | > 6.0               | 28$^{+12}_{-12}$ $M_\odot$ | 1.4$^{+0.7}_{-0.3}$ | $\theta_L$, Bayesian |
| MOA-2009-BLG-319Lb | 0.38$^{+0.34}_{-0.18}$                | 6.1$^{+1.1}_{-1.1}$ | 50$^{+24}_{-24}$ $M_\odot$ | 2.4$^{+1.2}_{-0.6}$ | $\theta_L$, Bayesian |

Notes. MOA-2007-BLG-400Lb has two solutions due to a strong close/wide model degeneracy, and details of the MOA-2008-BLG-310Lb parameters are discussed by Janczak et al. (2010) and Sumi et al. (2010).

Figure 6. Exoplanets as a function of mass vs. semimajor axis. The red circles with error bars indicate planets found by microleosing. The filled circles indicate planets with mass measurements, while open circles indicate Bayesian mass estimates. MOA-2009-BLG-319Lb is indicated by the gold-filled open circle. The black dots and blue squares indicate the planets discovered by radial velocities and transits, respectively. The magenta and green triangles indicate the planets detected via direct imaging and timing, respectively. The non-microlensing exoplanet data were taken from The Extrasolar Planets Encyclopedia (http://exoplanet.eu). The planets in our solar system are indicated with initial letters.

2010 March. This will allow OGLE to survey the bulge at a cadence almost as high as that of MOA-II, but with better seeing that should yield a substantial increase in the rate of microlensing planet discoveries. MOA also plans an upgrade to a $\sim$10 deg$^2$ MOA-III CCD camera in a few years, which will allow an even higher cadence Galactic bulge survey. The Korean Microlensing Telescope Network (KMTNet) is funded to dramatically increase the longitude coverage of microlensing survey telescopes. They plan three wide FOV telescopes to go in South Africa, Australia, and South America. When these telescopes come online, we anticipate another dramatic increase in the microlensing planet discovery rate.

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