Planetary Microlensing Perturbations:
True Planets or Binary Sources?

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Abstract

A planetary microlensing event is characterized by a short-lived perturbation to the standard Paczyński curve. Planetary perturbations typically last from a few hours to a day, and have maximum amplitudes, $\delta_{\text{max}}$, of $5 - 20\%$ of the standard curve. There exist a subset of binary-source events that can reproduce these main features, and thus masquerade as planetary events. These events require a binary source with a small flux ratio, $\epsilon \sim 10^{-2} - 10^{-4}$, and a small impact parameter for the fainter source, $\beta_2 \lesssim \epsilon / \delta_{\text{max}}$. The detection probability of events of this type is $\sim \beta_2$, and can be as high as $\sim 30\%$; this is comparable to planetary detection rates. Thus a sample of planetary-like perturbations could be seriously contaminated by binary-source events, and there exists the possibility that completely meaningless physical parameters would be derived for any given perturbation. Here I derive analytic expressions for a binary-source event in the extreme flux ratio limit, and use these to demonstrate the basic degeneracy between binary source and planet perturbations. I describe how the degeneracy can be broken by dense and accurate sampling of the perturbation, optical/infrared photometry, or spectroscopic measurements.

Subject Headings: gravitational lensing – planetary systems

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1. Introduction

To date more than 100 microlensing events have been detected toward the Galactic bulge by four groups, MACHO (Alcock et al. 1997), OGLE (Udalski et al. 1994), DUO (Alard 1996), and EROS (Ansari et al. 1997). Some of these events have been detected in real time; both MACHO and OGLE issue ‘alerts’, notification of ongoing events that have been detected before the peak. These alerts have enabled two follow-up groups, PLANET (Albrow et al. 1996) and GMAN (Alcock et al. 1996), to organize world-wide networks devoted to making densely-sampled observations of ongoing events. One of the main goals of these groups is to discover planets by searching for short duration, often small, perturbations on the lightcurves of alerted events. These perturbations are the signatures of planetary events. While standard microlensing events last from one week to a few months, planetary perturbations are only expected to last a day or less. Thus the need for the intensive, nearly round-the-clock monitoring.

Previous work on planetary microlensing has focused on characterization of the lightcurves of planetary perturbations (Wambsganss 1997), the criteria for detection of these perturbations (Mao & Paczyński 1991; Gould & Loeb 1992; Bolatto & Falco 1994; Bennett & Rhie 1996), and the number of systems one might hope to detect based on these criteria (Peale 1997). Unfortunately, mere detection of a perturbation is not sufficient; to have any confidence that a planet has actually been detected, one must determine with reasonable accuracy the physical parameters of the planetary system that can be derived from the event, the planet/star mass ratio, $q$ and the planet/star projected separation in units of the Einstein ring, $y$. Dominik (1997) discusses ambiguities in the fits of binary lenses, of which planetary systems are a subset. Gaudi & Gould (1997b) demonstrated there there exist several degeneracies which hamper the determination of $q$ and $y$, including a severe degeneracy that can result in an uncertainty in the derived mass ratio of a factor of $\sim 20$.

Here I discuss an additional degeneracy: a special subset of binary source events
can produce lightcurves that closely resemble those produced by planet/star lens systems. This subset, which I will call extreme flux ratio binary source events, can produce standard lightcurves with small, short duration perturbations. These perturbations can reproduce the gross features of planetary perturbations. For a binary source event to mimic a planetary event, the sources must have a small flux ratio, $\epsilon$, and the fainter source must pass close to the lens, with an impact parameter, $\beta_2 \lesssim \epsilon/\delta_{\text{max}}$, where $\delta_{\text{max}}$ is the maximum fractional deviation from the unperturbed lightcurve. The detection probability for these events is $\sim \beta_2$. For $\epsilon \sim 0.01$ and $\delta_{\text{max}} \sim 0.05$, the probability is $\sim 20\%$. This is comparable to the detection probability of Jupiter-mass planets (Gould & Loeb 1992). Thus if binary stars with small flux ratios are common, they could seriously contaminate a sample of suspected planetary events. Furthermore, for any given perturbation, there exists the possibility that one could derive completely meaningless physical parameters if the perturbation were due to a binary source rather than planet. For these reasons, it is essential to break this degeneracy and determine the true cause of the perturbation (binary source or planet).

In § 2 I derive analytic expressions for the perturbation due to a binary source in the extreme flux ratio limit. I use these expressions in § 3 to illustrate the basic degeneracy. In § 4 I estimate the detection probability for extreme flux ratio binary source events, in § 5 I describe methods of breaking the degeneracy, and in § 6 I describe how a binary source event can be used to extract additional information about the lens.
2. Binary Source Microlensing in the Extreme Flux Ratio Limit

2.1. Basic Formalism

The basic formalism for binary-source events has been described in detail by Griest & Hu (1992) for static binaries and by Han & Gould (1997) for rotating binaries. Here I briefly review the general formalism, and use this formalism to derive the equations for the extreme flux ratio limit.

The flux of a point source being microlensed by a point mass is given by,

\[ F = AF_0, \]

where \( F_0 \) is the unmagnified flux, and \( A \) is the magnification. (Here I ignore any contribution from unresolved sources.) The magnification is a function of the distance of the lens from the observer-source line of sight projected on the lens plane, \( u \), which is in turn a function of time:

\[ A[u(t)] = \frac{u^2 + 2}{u(u^2 + 4)^{1/2}} \rightarrow \frac{1}{u}, \quad u(t)^2 = \left[\frac{(t - t_0)}{t_e}\right]^2 + \beta^2. \] (2.1)

The limit applies when \( u \ll 1 \). Here the impact parameter, \( \beta \), and \( u \) are in units of the Einstein ring,

\[ r_e = \frac{4GM}{c^2} \frac{D_{ol}D_{ls}}{D_{os}}, \] (2.2)

where \( M \) is the mass of the lens, and \( D_{ol}, D_{ls}, \) and \( D_{os} \) are the distances between the observer, lens and source. The characteristic timescale is \( t_e = r_e/v \), where \( v \) is the transverse velocity of the lens relative to the observer-source line of sight.

For a binary source, the resulting lightcurve is simply a superposition of two standard lightcurves, \( F = A_1F_{0,1} + A_2F_{0,2} \) (Griest & Hu 1992). Henceforth I will assume that \( F_{0,2} < F_{0,1} \) and refer to source 1 and 2 as the primary and secondary, respectively. I define \( \epsilon \equiv F_{0,2}/F_{0,1} \). The total magnification is thus

\[ A_{tot} = \frac{A_1 + \epsilon A_2}{1 + \epsilon}. \] (2.3)

I define \( b \) to be the separation of the sources projected onto the lens plane in units of \( r_e \), and \( \theta \) to be the angle between the path of the primary and the binary-source
axis. Assuming the binary is static, the position of the primary is given by equation (2.1), and the position of the secondary is,

\[ u_2^2 = \left( \frac{t - t_0}{t_e} + b \cos \theta \right)^2 + (\beta_1 + b \sin \theta)^2, \tag{2.4} \]

where \( t_0 \) is the time of maximum magnification of the primary, and \( \beta_1 \) is the impact parameter of the primary. Without loss of generality, I will assume that \( t_0 = 0 \).

I now concentrate of cases such that \( \epsilon \ll 1 \), i.e., where the magnification of the secondary produces a small perturbation to the primary lightcurve. The fractional deviation of such a binary-source event from the best fit single-source curve is defined to be \( \delta = (A_{\text{tot}} - A_{\text{bf}})/A_{\text{bf}} \), where \( A_{\text{bf}} \) is the best fit curve. For \( \epsilon \ll 1 \), equation (2.3) implies that \( \delta \simeq \epsilon A_2/A_1 \). For \( \delta \) to be significant, \( A_2 \gg A_1 \), and the secondary must therefore pass very close to the lens, i.e. \( |\beta_2| = |\beta_1 + b \sin \theta| \ll 1 \). In this limit, equation (2.1) implies that \( A_2 \sim 1/u_2 \), and thus when \( \delta \) is significant, \( \delta \simeq \epsilon/u_2 A_1^{-1} \). The maximum fractional deviation, \( \delta_{\text{max}} \simeq \epsilon/\beta_2 A_1 \), occurs when \( u_2 = \beta_2 \), at time \( t_{\text{max}} = -b(\cos \theta)t_e \). The half maximum occurs when \( \delta = \delta_{\text{max}}/2 \), or \( u_2 = 2\beta_2 A_1(\beta_2)/A_1(u_2) \). For perturbations with short durations, the magnification of the primary changes only very slowly during the course of the perturbation. Thus \( A_1 \) is roughly the same at \( \delta_{\text{max}} \) and at \( \delta_{\text{max}}/2 \): \( A_1(\beta_2) \sim A_1(u_2) \). Thus \( u_2 = 2\beta_2 \), and the full width half maximum (FWHM) of the perturbation is \( \tau_{\text{eff}} \simeq 12^{1/2} \beta_2 t_e \). The equations governing binary sources in the extreme flux limit are,

\[ \delta = \frac{\epsilon}{u_2 A_1}, \quad \delta_{\text{max}} = \frac{\epsilon}{\beta_2 A_1(t_{\text{max}})}, \quad \tau_{\text{eff}} = 12^{1/2} \beta_2 t_e, \quad t_{\text{max}} = -b(\cos \theta)t_e. \tag{2.5} \]
2.2. Finite Source Size Effects and Binary Rotation

The analysis of § 2.1 implicitly assumed point sources. The point-source approximation breaks down, however, when $u$ is $O(\rho)$, where $\rho$ is the radius of the source projected onto the lens plane in units of $r_e$. In particular, for $u \lesssim \rho$, the magnification of a finite source differs substantially from that of a point source (Gould 1994). Since, for a fixed perturbation size $\delta_{\text{max}}$, a smaller flux ratio requires that the secondary approach closer to the lens, there will be a lower limit on $\epsilon$ below which equation (2.5) is no longer valid.

Given the small flux ratios involved, the secondary source will likely be a main-sequence star of solar luminosity or less. Thus I adopt a source radius of $R_\odot$, which at distance of 8 kpc, for a typical bulge self-lensing event with $t_e \sim 20$ days, $v \sim 200$ km s$^{-1}$, and $D_{\text{ol}} \sim 6$ kpc, translates to $\rho \sim 10^{-3}$. Thus equations (2.5) are not valid for those events with $\beta_2 \lesssim 10^{-3}$. In order to produce perturbations with $\delta_{\text{max}} > 0.05$, the secondary must have an impact parameter $\beta_2 \lesssim 20\epsilon$. Thus equations (2.5) are not valid for binary sources with $\epsilon \lesssim 10^{-4}$. For flux ratios larger than this, finite source effects can be safely disregarded, and equations (2.5) are valid.

The effects of the rotation of the binary source for perturbations of this type can be entirely disregarded. The justification for this is as follows. To first order, the curvature of the path of the secondary due to rotation during the perturbation can be ignored. Thus the only effect is that the transverse velocity is now given by $v = |v_0 + v_2|$, where $v_0$ is now the transverse velocity of the primary, and $v_2$ is the velocity of the secondary relative to primary. The timescale of the perturbation will be changed, since $\tau_{\text{eff}} = 12^{1/2} \beta_2 r_e / v$. However, this effect can be reproduced by simply changing the value of $\beta_2$. The observed value of $\delta_{\text{max}}$ can then be reproduced by changing $\epsilon$. Therefore a perturbation with observables $\tau_{\text{eff}}$ and $\delta_{\text{max}}$ can be produced by a static binary with parameters given by equation (2.5), or by a rotating binary with slightly different values of $\epsilon$ and $\beta_2$. Thus, to first order, the effect of rotation is entirely unobservable. The second order effect is the curvature
of path of the secondary during the perturbation, which will produce effects that
cannot be reproduced by parameter variations as they can for the first order effect.
This curvature is given by the square of the amount the binary source rotates during
the course of the perturbation, $\psi^2 = (2\pi \tau_{\text{eff}}/P)^2 \approx (22\beta_2 t_e/P)^2$, where $P$ is
the period of the binary source. Toward the galactic bulge, the typical event timescale
is $t_e \sim 20$ days (Alcock et al. 1996). For bulge self-lensing events, $v \sim 200$ km s$^{-1}$,
and thus $r_e \sim 2.3$ AU. Using Kepler’s laws, and assuming a binary-source with
separation $b = r_e$ at 8 kpc and total mass $M = 2M_\odot$, and a lens at 6 kpc, I find a
binary-source separation projected into the source plane of 3 AU, and a period of
$P \sim 3.7$ yr. Thus $\psi^2 \sim 0.1\beta_2^2$. The perturbations considered here require $\beta_2 \ll 1$,
and thus the amount the binary source rotates during the perturbation is entirely
negligible.

3. Planetary Microlensing and the Basic Degeneracy

Planetary microlensing events are a subset of binary microlensing events with
small mass ratio of the the binary, $q \ll 1$. These are characterized by small pertur-
bations to the standard Paczyński curve. As with binary-source perturbations, the
gross features of planetary lens perturbations can be described by three parameters:
the maximum deviation, $\delta_{\text{max}}$, the FWHM, and the time of maximum deviation,
$t_{\text{max}}$. In general, $\delta_{\text{max}}$ is a function of the geometry of the event, the FWHM is
given roughly by $\tau_{\text{eff}} \sim q^{1/2} t_e$, where $t_e$ is the timescale of the main lightcurve, and
t$_{\text{max}}$ is a function of the planet-star projected separation in units of Einstein ring,
y, and the geometry of the event, $t_{\text{max}} \sim y^{-1}(y^2 - 1) \cos(\phi) t_e$, where $\phi$ is the angle
between the planet-star axis and the direction of source motion. Thus a planetary
event is described by (Gaudi & Gould 1997b),

$$\tau_{\text{eff}} \sim q^{1/2} t_e, \quad t_{\text{max}} \sim y^{-1}(y^2 - 1) \cos(\phi) t_e,$$

(3.1)

along with $\delta_{\text{max}}$ which specifies the exact geometry. Here I have ignored finite
source effects. For $q \lesssim 10^{-4}$ (Neptune mass or smaller), finite source effects become
significant; however, as I discuss in § 5.1, the severity of the degeneracy is reduced when finite source effects are taken into consideration. Thus, for Jupiter-mass planetary perturbations, the following analysis is entirely applicable, whereas for perturbations arising from planets of Neptune mass or smaller, the analysis makes the degeneracy seem somewhat worse than it actually is.

Consider, e.g., a perturbation with observables $\tau_{\text{eff}} = 0.03t_e$, $\delta_{\text{max}} = 0.16$, and $t_{\text{max}} = 0.37t_e$, superimposed on a primary lightcurve with $\beta = 0.37$. Then, from equation (3.1), a planetary event with $q \sim 10^{-3}$, $y \sim 1.3$, and $\phi \sim 45^\circ$ will reproduce the observed values of $\tau_{\text{eff}}$, $\delta_{\text{max}}$, and $t_{\text{max}}$. On the other hand, using equation (2.5), a binary source event with $\epsilon \sim 5 \times 10^{-3}$, $b \sim 0.5$, and $\theta \sim -44^\circ$ would also reproduce the observables. Thus, at the level of the gross features ($\delta_{\text{max}}$, $t_{\text{max}}$, and $\tau_{\text{eff}}$), the binary source and planetary models will provide equally satisfactory fits to the observed perturbation. This is the basic degeneracy, and the example above is illustrated in Figure 1. Note that the maximum difference between the planetary and binary source lightcurves is $\sim 4\%$.

From the example above, and the discussion in § 2, it is apparent that the basic requirements for a binary source lightcurve to mimic that of a planetary event are a small flux ratio $\epsilon$, and a specific geometry, i.e., one in which the fainter source passes very close to the lens. More specifically, from equations (2.5), the binary source parameters required to reproduce an event with observables $\tau_{\text{eff}}$, $\delta_{\text{max}}$, and $t_{\text{max}}$ are,

$$
\epsilon = \tau_{\text{eff}} \frac{\delta_{\text{max}} A_1[u_1(t_{\text{max}})]}{t_e}, \quad b = \frac{t_{\text{max}}}{t_e \cos \theta}, \quad \theta = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{-\beta_1 t_e}{t_{\text{max}}}\right), \quad (3.2)
$$

where, as before, $A_1$ is given by equation (2.1) evaluated at $t_{\text{max}}$, and where now $t_0 = 0$. It is apparent that the value of $b$ required to fit an observed perturbation is fixed by the geometry through the observables $\beta_1$ and $t_{\text{max}}$. The required value of $\epsilon$, however, depends not only on the geometry, but also on the observed $\delta_{\text{max}}$ and $\tau_{\text{eff}}$. Furthermore, since the geometry of the event affects $\epsilon$ only through $u_1(t_{\text{max}})$,
Figure 1. Panel (a) shows the magnification as a function of time in units of the Einstein ring crossing time, $t_e$, for a planet/star system (solid curve) with a mass ratio $q = 10^{-3}$, a separation in units of the Einstein ring of $y = 1.3$ and angle between the planet-star axis and direction of source motion $\phi = 45^\circ$, and for a binary source system (dashed curve) with flux ratio $\epsilon = 5 \times 10^{-3}$, projected separation in units of the Einstein ring $b = 0.5$ and angle between the binary source axis and the direction of source motion $\theta = 44^\circ$. The inset shows a detail of the lightcurves around the time of the perturbation. Panel (b) shows the fractional deviation from the main point-mass point-lens lightcurve as a function of time in units of $t_e$ for the two lightcurves in panel (a). Both planetary (solid curve) and binary source (dashed curve) perturbations have the same observables $\tau_{\text{eff}} = 0.03t_e$, the full width half maximum of the perturbation, $\delta_{\text{max}} = 0.16$, the maximum fractional deviation, and $t_{\text{max}} = 0.37t_e$, the time of maximum deviation.
Figure 2. Contours of the difference in magnitude between the two sources, $\Delta V$, required to produce perturbations with the given full width half maximum, $\tau_{\text{eff}}$, and maximum fractional deviation, $\delta_{\text{max}}$. The contours have spacings of 1 mag. The solid contours are for the geometry where the primary source has an impact parameter $\beta_1 = 0.3$, and the time of maximum fractional deviation in units of the Einstein ring crossing time is $t_{\text{max}}/t_e = 0.3$. The dotted contours are for the geometry where either $\beta_1$ or $t_{\text{max}}/t_e$ are smaller by 0.05, and the dashed contours are for the geometry where either $\beta_1$ or $t_{\text{max}}/t_e$ are larger by 0.05.

and $u_1(t_{\text{max}})^2 = (t_{\text{max}}/t_e)^2 + \beta_1^2$, changing $t_{\text{max}}/t_e$ has the same effect on $\epsilon$ as changing $\beta_1$.

Figure 2 shows contours of the difference in magnitude between the two sources,
\[ \Delta V = -2.5 \log \epsilon, \text{ required to reproduce the given } \tau_{\text{eff}} \text{ and } \delta_{\text{max}}, \text{ for three different geometries: 1) } \beta_1 = 0.3, \ t_{\text{max}} = 0.3 t_e; \ 2) \ \beta_1 \text{ or } t_{\text{max}}/t_e \text{ smaller by 0.05; } \ 3) \ \beta_1 \text{ or } t_{\text{max}}/t_e \text{ larger by 0.05. A large range of magnitude differences, } \Delta V \sim 9 - 5, \text{ can produce perturbations with } \delta_{\text{max}} \text{ and } \tau_{\text{eff}} \text{ in the ranges produced by planetary microlensing events. For clump giant primaries (spectral type KIII, } M_V \sim 1), \text{ this range in } \Delta V \text{ corresponds to secondaries of spectral type anywhere from solar (GV) to late dwarfs (MV).} \]

4. Extreme Flux Ratio Binary Source Event Probabilities

For a binary source with \( \epsilon \ll 1 \) to be detected, the lens must pass close to the secondary. The probability that a trajectory with any \( \beta_1 \leq 1 \) will pass within \( \beta_2 \) of the secondary is \( \sim \beta_2 \). Consider a binary source with \( \Delta V = 5 \). The secondary must have \( \beta_2 \lesssim 0.1 \) to produce perturbations with \( \delta_{\text{max}} \gtrsim 0.05 \). Thus the detection probability for a binary source with \( \Delta V = 5 \) is \( \sim 20\% \). A more careful treatment must take into account the fact that the magnitude of the perturbation depends on the time of the perturbation relative to the primary lightcurve [c.f. equation (2.5)]. This effect will serve to reduce the detection probability relative to the naive estimate. To quantify this, I calculate, for a given \( \epsilon \) and \( b \), the fraction of binary source events that lead to detectable perturbations. Although planetary events can produce a wide range of maximum deviations, events with \( \delta_{\text{max}} < 5\% \) are unlikely to be detected. I therefore assume that the event is detected if \( \delta_{\text{max}} > 0.05 \). I place the additional constraint that \( t_{\text{max}}/t_e \geq -1 \), since perturbations are unlikely to be detected before the main event beings. To calculate the fraction, I integrate over \( 0 \leq \theta < 2\pi \) and \( 0 \leq \beta_1 \leq 1.0 \). The detection probability is simply the number of events that satisfy the detection criteria divided by the total number of trial events. Figure 3 shows the fraction of events that lead to perturbations with parameters given above, for \( \Delta V = 4 \) to 9, and \( b = 0 \) to 3.0. For \( \Delta V = 4 \), the detection probability can be quite high, \( \sim 30\% \). Even for \( \Delta V = 7 \), the probability is non-negligible, and is a few percent.
A number of authors have calculated the detection probability for planets based on similar detection criteria. Gould & Loeb (1992) found that, for Jupiter-mass planets with projected separations $0.5 \lesssim y \lesssim 1.5$, the probability is $\sim 15 - 20\%$. For Earth-mass planets with $0.5 \lesssim y \lesssim 1.5$, Bennett & Rhie (1996) found detection probabilities of $\sim 1 - 3\%$. Since these detection probabilities are of the same
order of magnitude as the detection probabilities for binary source perturbations with $\Delta V = 4$ to 7 and $0.5 \lesssim b \lesssim 1.5$, if binary sources with these flux ratios and projected separations are at least as ubiquitous as the planets the monitoring campaigns hope to detect, they will provide a serious contaminating background.

5. Breaking the Degeneracy

As shown in § 4, it is likely that binary sources will provide a significant contaminant in a sample of suspected planetary events. It is therefore essential that efforts be made to resolve this degeneracy. There are several methods to do this.

5.1. Detailed Light Curves

As is apparent from Figure 1, although a binary source and a planetary lens can produce perturbations with the same basic features ($\tau_{\text{eff}}, \delta_{\text{max}},$ and $t_{\text{max}}$), the detailed light curves are dissimilar. In particular, during the wings of the perturbation, a planetary event often produces negative deviations of a few percent, whereas binary-source perturbations produce only positive perturbations. For planets of $q \lesssim 10^{-4}$, finite source effects serve to increase the magnitude of the negative deviations during the wings of the perturbation, thereby making the binary-source and planetary perturbation more dissimilar. Thus if one could resolve the observed lightcurve to better than the $\sim 4\%$ level during the wings of the perturbation, the degeneracy would be broken. One would require dense and regular sampling of the curve, however, since the two cases are significantly ($> 4\%$) different only during the first wing, and then only for a short time ($\sim 0.1 t_e$, or $\sim 1$ day for typical parameters).

In fact, there exist two types of planetary perturbations: those which perturb the major image of the source formed by the primary lens, and those which perturb the minor image. Minor image perturbations are characterized by large ($5 - 20\%$)
negative deviations. Binary source perturbations are therefore incompatible with minor image planetary perturbations, and there exists no degeneracy.

5.2. Color Information

The most reliable way to break the degeneracy is to use color information. If the perturbation is due to binary source, and the sources have different colors, there will be a color change during the course of the perturbation. Suppose that the binary source has an (unlensed) magnitude difference \( \Delta V = (V_2 - V_1) \) in \( V \)-band and \( \Delta H = (H_2 - H_1) \) in \( H \)-band. Then I define \( \epsilon_V = 10^{-0.4\Delta V} \) and \( \epsilon_H = 10^{-0.4\Delta H} \). The color change during the event is, \( \Delta(V - H) = 2.5 \log \frac{A_{tot,H}}{A_{tot,V}} \), where \( A_{tot,V} \) and \( A_{tot,H} \) are given by equation (2.3), with the appropriate \( \epsilon \). Using the relation \( \delta \simeq (A_{tot} - A_1)/A_1 \), this becomes,

\[
\Delta(V - H) \simeq 2.5 \log \frac{\delta_V + 1}{\delta_H + 1}.
\]

Using the relation for \( \delta \) from equation (2.5), and defining \( r \equiv \epsilon_H/\epsilon_V \), I rewrite this for the two cases \( r < 1 \) and \( r > 1 \):

\[
\Delta(V - H) = \begin{cases} 
2.5 \log \frac{\delta_V + 1}{\delta_H + 1}, & r < 1 \\
2.5 \log \frac{\delta_V/r + 1}{\delta_H + 1}, & r > 1 
\end{cases}.
\]

Note that \( 2.5 \log r = (V - H)_2 - (V - H)_1 \), i.e. the ratio \( r \) is simply related to the color difference between the secondary and the primary. The maximum color change occurs at the peak of the perturbation, and can be found by replacing \( \delta_V \) in equation (5.2) by \( \delta_{\text{max},V} \). In particular, note that for \( r \ll 1 \), \( \Delta(V - H) \simeq 2.5(\log_{10} 10)\delta_V \sim \delta_V \). Similarly, when \( r \gg 1 \), \( \Delta(V - H) \sim -\delta_H \). Thus the largest possible color change (in magnitudes) is equal to the maximum \( (V \text{-} \text{or} \ H \text{-band}) \) fractional perturbation.

In Figure 4 shows contours of \( \Delta(V - H) \) for \( \delta_{\text{max}} = 0.05 - 0.20 \) and \( (V - H)_2 - (V - H)_1 = -2 \) to 2. For \( \sim 1 \) mag differences in the unlensed source colors,
Figure 4. Contours of the maximum color shift \( \Delta(V-H) \) in a binary source event, as a function of the difference in colors of the two sources, \((V-H)_2 - (V-H)_1\) and the size of the maximum fractional deviation, \(\delta_{\text{max}}\). The solid contours are for a shift to the blue, \(\Delta(V-H) > 0\), and dotted contours are for a shift to the red, \(\Delta(V-H) < 0\). If the secondary is redder than the primary, \((V-H)_2 > (V-H)_1\), then \(\Delta(V-H) < 0\), and the maximum deviation will be in the \(H\)-band. Similarly, if the secondary is bluer than the primary, then the maximum deviation will be in the \(V\)-band.

Color changes of \(\gtrsim 0.05\) mag are produced for all measurable perturbations. Even if the difference in source color is only \(\sim 0.2\) mag, substantial (\(\gtrsim 0.05\)) color differences are produced for perturbations with \(\delta_{\text{max}} \gtrsim 0.1\). For perspective, I note
that for a clump giant primary ($K_{0III}, M_V \sim 1, V - H \sim 2$), with a solar-type secondary ($GV, M_V \sim 5, V - H \sim 1$), the unlensed color difference is $\sim 1$ mag. For most binary source pairs, therefore, a significant color shift will occur during the perturbation.

A color shift also occurs for planetary events with a small mass ratio. The form of this shift differs significantly from that of a binary source. At the beginning of the planetary perturbation, the color first shifts to the red; during the peak, it shifts to the blue; at the end of the perturbation, it shifts again to the red (see, e.g., Figure 9 of Gaudi & Gould 1997b). This is in contrast to binary source perturbations, where the shift is always to either the red or blue. Thus a color shift for a binary source can be easily distinguished from that of a planetary event, and a measurement of a color shift during a perturbation would allow one to unambiguously distinguish between the two cases, and therefore break the degeneracy.

For planetary events with a large mass ratio, only a very small color shift is produced. Only a small color shift is produced for a binary source in which both sources have very similar colors. Thus if no color shift is detected it may appear that the degeneracy remains. In fact, this is not necessarily true, as there is likely to exist a correlation between the flux ratio and the color shift. Assuming, for example, that the primary is known to be a K giant. Then, if the event is due to a binary source, the secondary is likely to be a main sequence star. The color-magnitude relationship for main sequence stars translates into a relationship between $\epsilon_V$ and $r$. This relationship, along with the value of $\epsilon_V$ is measured from the observed lightcurve, allows one to estimate the expected color shift. If the observed color shift is inconsistent with this estimate, then the observed perturbation cannot be due to a binary source, and the degeneracy is broken.
5.3. Spectroscopic Methods

If the methods suggested in § 5.1 and 5.2 fail, there remain other methods to break the degeneracy. One possible method is to take spectra of the source both during and after the perturbation. If the perturbation is due to a binary source, both sources will be contributing to the spectrum during the perturbation, whereas after the perturbation, only the primary will contribute significantly to the spectrum. Thus if the binary source is a giant/dwarf pair (as it is likely to be), then the equivalent widths of pressure sensitive spectral features will differ between the two spectra. Finally, one could monitor the source both photometrically and spectroscopically after the event, and search for any signs of binarity.

6. Proper Motions

If it is determined that an observed perturbation is due to a binary source rather than planet, one can derive additional information about the lens. From the observed lightcurve of a binary source event, one can obtain the observables $t_e$, $\beta_1$, $\beta_2$, $t_0$, and $t_{\text{max}}$. These observables are related to the physical projected separation, $\ell$, by (Han & Gould 1997):

$$\ell = \hat{r}_e \pm \left[ \left( \frac{t_0 - t_{\text{max}}}{t_e} \right)^2 + (\beta_1 \pm \beta_2)^2 \right], \quad (6.1)$$

where $\hat{r}_e = r_e(D_{\text{os}}/D_{\odot})$ is the Einstein radius projected onto the source plane. If $\ell$ can be measured by followup spectroscopy, then $\hat{r}_e$ can be determined. As equation (6.1) stands, however, there exists a twofold degeneracy in the determination of $\hat{r}_e$ due to the ambiguity in the impact parameter difference $\Delta \beta_\pm = |\beta_1 \pm \beta_2|$. However, for the binary source events considered here, $\beta_1 \gg \beta_2$, and thus $\Delta \beta_+ \simeq \Delta \beta_- \simeq \beta_1$, and there exists no degeneracy.

I now discuss further the issue of determining $\ell$ from followup spectroscopy. In order to determine $\ell$, the orbital elements (intrinsic physical separation, eccentricity, true anomaly, etc.) must be determined, and in addition the inclination
angle, \(i\) (c.f. Han & Gould 1997). The orbital elements can be determined from a complete radial velocity curve. After the microlensing event, only the spectral lines of the primary will be visible. For a circular orbit, the maximum velocity shift of these lines is,

\[
v_{\text{max}} = 30 \, \text{km s}^{-1} (\sin i) b^{-1/2} \left( \frac{Q_M}{Q_M + 1} \right)^{-1/2} \left( \frac{\hat{r}_e}{\text{AU}} \right)^{-1/2} \left( \frac{M_1}{M_\odot} \right)^{1/2}.
\]  

(6.2)

Here \(Q_M = M_1/M_2\), and \(M_1\) and \(M_2\) are the masses of the primary and secondary, respectively. For a K giant primary with a solar-type secondary, \(M_1 \sim M_\odot\) and \(Q_M \sim 1\). For typical bulge self-lensing events, \(\hat{r}_e \sim 3\) AU. From Fig. 3, the binary-source detection rate peaks at \(b \sim 1\). Thus, for typical binary source events of this type, the expected maximum velocity shift is \(v_{\text{max}} \simeq 12 \, \text{km s}^{-1} \sin i\). The period of such a system is \(P \simeq 3.7\) yr. Excepting nearly face-on orbits, measurement of a complete radial velocity curve for such a system, while not trivial, is within current capabilities. The masses of the sources are known approximately from their luminosities and colors (see §5.2). The masses can be further constrained if a spectrum is taken at the time of the perturbation, since the lines of both sources will be apparent, and the radial velocities of these lines gives a direct measurement of the mass ratio \(Q_M\). These masses along with the orbital elements determined from the observed radial velocity curve determine \(i\), and thus yield a complete solution and a measurement of \(\ell\). This, combined with the event observables \(t_e\), \(\beta_1\), \(\beta_2\), \(t_0\), and \(t_{\text{max}}\), yeild a measurement of \(\hat{r}_e\) via equation (6.1).

The fraction of events for which it is possible to measure \(\hat{r}_e\) by this method is likely to be small, \(\mathcal{O}(1\%)\). I estimate this as follows. From Figure 3, the average detection rate for binary sources with \(8 \lesssim \Delta V \lesssim 4\) and \(0.5 \lesssim b \lesssim 1.5\) is \(\sim 15\%\). In a study of the multiplicity of F and G stars in the solar neighborhood, Duquennoy & Mayor (1991) found that \(\sim 40\%\) of these stars had companions with masses from 0.1 to 1.1 times the mass of the primary. These types of systems will evolve into the giant/dwarf binaries relevant here. Of these multiple systems, they find that \(\sim 10\%\) have separations in the range where the binary-source detection probability
is high, $0.5 \lesssim b \lesssim 1.5$. Thus I estimate that $\sim 0.15 \times 0.4 \times 0.1 \sim 1\%$ of events should display binary-source perturbations which can be used to measure $\hat{r}_e$.

The determination of $\hat{r}_e$, along with parallax information gathered from either the Earth’s motion (Gould 1992; Alcock et al. 1995, Buchalter & Kamionkowski 1997) or from a parallax satellite (Refsdal 1966; Gould 1995; Boutreux & Gould 1996; Gaudi & Gould 1997a), yields a complete solution of the lens parameters: mass, distance, and velocity (Gould 1996).

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