CCDS and Photometry MPAGS 2023

Dr Samuel Gill



Primitive photometers I - plants

- Photoreceptor proteins can sense light. ullet
- •



Even found in unicellular organisms allowing them to orient towards light.

Light direction:

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Primitive photometers II - animals

- Photoreceptor proteins can sense light.
- Found often in animals, particularly eyes.



TAPETUM LUCIDUM





Astronomical detectors I - Human eyes



Only perform a qualitative analysis of the stars





Astronomical detectors II - The first telescope

• 1608: German-Dutch lens maker Hans Lippershey produces a refracting telescope.





Yerkes 40-inch Telescope

Astronomical detectors II - The first telescope

- 1610: Italian astronomer Galileo Galilei uses telescope and eye for astronomical imaging.
- Discovered the moons of Jupiter. \bullet



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- In 1800, Thomas Wedgwood created a black and white negative image with silver nitrate.
- Reported in scholarly journal in 1802 by chemist Humphry Davy.
- Image eventually faded and could not capture a permanent image.



- In 1826/7 Nicéphore Nièpce, succeeded in capturing small camera images on paper treated with silver chloride (another chemical sensitive to light).
- It represented a view from a window at Le Gras (his hometown in Burgundy, France), captured on a pewter plate coated in bitumen diluted in lavender oil. The exposure time was probably several days









- Astronomers started using photographic plates with telescopes.
- Photographic plates are non-linear, grainy, and difficult to process.
- Quantum efficiency was just a few percent. •
- But they allowed for long exposure times. Astronomers began to notice fainter stars. Deep astronomy begins!







Astronomical detectors **IV** - Photomultiplier tubes

- Photomultiplier tubes allow for high Quantum Efficiency, and thus precise photometry.
- No positional information, just counts!
- First photomultiplier tube was made in 1934 by NJ. Harley lams and Bernard Salzberg in RCA group based in Harrison, NJ.
- Used extensively in astronomy up to the mid 2000's, when CCDs became viable.



Meddi+2012





Start Time 15597 21:49:56:559 Stop Time 15597 22:37:35:089



Astronomical detectors V - CCDs

- Charged couple devices
- Silicon wafer with photosensitive sites. Each site corresponds to a pixel in the final image.
- Voltage at each site depends on number of photons that penetrated the silicon surface at that site.





Astronomical detectors V - CCDs

- Start of an exposure capacitors are positively charged.
- Photons enter silicon and raise e' from low valence energy band to higher conduction band (i.e. e- liberated from silicon).
- Voltage of each site depends on number of photons that penetrated the silicon surface at that site.
- Electrons are attracted to positive capacitor and discharge it slightly (changing voltage).







Astronomical detectors V - CCDs

- Only photons > 1.1ev can free electrons (i.e. not ulletfor infrared).
- Below 300 microns, silicon becomes reflective.
- CCDs can be near 100% QE.
- CCDs are linear until a site has too many electrons.
- Charge can lead from a photo site (bleeding) if a site is saturated.





Astronomical detectors VI - CMOS

Most commercial digital \bullet cameras now use CMOS detectors (Complimentary Metal Oxide Semiconductors).



an output node. CMOS imagers convert charge to voltage inside each pixel.

Read-out noise generated

Astronomical detectors VI - CMOS

- Unlike CCDs, CMOS sensors are not limited to silicon as the detector material. Therefore CMOS can be produced to be sensitive to ultraviolet, visible, or infrared light.
- Very fast readout allows for shutterless operation.
- CMOS detectors are very cheap and use very little power when compared with CCDs.
- With CMOS, each pixel has its own charge-to-voltage conversion and each row its own amplifier. So the images have high noise and less uniformity than CCDs.
- Scientific CMOS detectors are starting to appear which rival the quality of CCDs for astro-imaging.



Types of astronomical images I - Bias image

- 0 second readout.
- Pixels at the "bias" level set by readout electronics.

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Types of astronomical images II - Dark image

- Exposure without opening the shutter.
- See "dark current" such as hot pixels, light leaks, dead pixels.

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Types of astronomical images III - Flat field image

- Exposure of twilight sky or a screen.
- See pixels response to universe illumination.
- What's going on with the optics, CCD window etc.

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Types of astronomical images IV- Raw image

- Exposure of sky.
- Not corrected for bias, dark or flat.



Types of astronomical images V- Reduced image X SAOImage ds9

- Exposure of sky.
- Corrected for bias, dark or flat.





Photometry I - Reducing astronomical images



- Create a master bias frame for the night.
- Create a master dark current image by removing the bias from several dark frames and combining those bias-subtracted frames
- Scale the dark current image to match the raw image exposure time.
- Create a master flat by calibrating several flat images using the master bias and dark, normalising the images and combining those to make a master image.

science_{raw} – master bias – dark current_{scaled}

master flat_{reduced}, normalized

Photometry II - Source identification

- How do you identify stars in an image?
- One way could be to search for areas where local density maxima exceeds some threshold.
- Very quick, efficient routines available (e.g. DAOStar finder, SEP).



Photometry III - WCS solutions

- WCS = World coordinate systems
- A way to convert each pixel of an image to RA and Dec.
- Way to identify and cross-match sources with catalogues.
- <u>astrometry.net</u> is very good for this, along with astropy.wcs
- Recommend ready astropy WCS documentation



Photometry **IV - Counting ADU**

- Simplest photometry is just to count the ADU in the pixels within an aperture and subtract off the sky counts.
- Called aperture photometry.
- How to do it? All pixels in aperture? How to handle partial pixels?
- What shape aperture?

```
double xmax, double ymax,
double r):
```

```
Area of overlap of a rectangle and a circle
0.0.0
if 0.0 <= xmin:
   if 0.0 <= ymin:
        return circular overlap core(xmin, ymin, xmax, ymax, r)
   elif 0.0 >= ymax:
       return circular_overlap_core(-ymax, xmin, -ymin, xmax, r)
   else:
       return circular_overlap_single_exact(xmin, ymin, xmax, 0.0, r) \
           + circular_overlap_single_exact(xmin, 0.0, xmax, ymax, r)
elif 0.0 >= xmax:
   if 0.0 <= ymin:
        return circular_overlap_core(-xmax, ymin, -xmin, ymax, r)
   elif 0.0 >= ymax:
       return circular_overlap_core(-xmax, -ymax, -xmin, -ymin, r)
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0.0.0

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circular_overlap_single_exact(0.0, 0.0, xmax, ymax, r)
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Photometry IV - PSF photometry

- The "Shape of the star on the CCD contains information.
- Called the point-spread function (PSF).
- Can be fit and photometry derived.



Photometry V - Difference imaging

- For crowded fields, photometry might not work.
- Make a master template for the field.
- For each image, deconvolve template to resolution of the ondicual image.
- Subtract deconvoled master image.
- Constant light sources do not appear, only variations!



Good for microlensing, supernovae work or moving objects!





Photometry V - Difference imaging

Good for microlensing, supernovae work or moving objects!



Photometry VI - Time-series photometry

- If we count flux from a star for each image in a sequence, we can see how the light from star varies.
- Exoplanet, eclipsing binaries, stellar variability, gravitational interactions, flares etc.



HAT-P-7b secondary eclipse using Kepler (from Borucki et al., 2010). Signal is just 113ppm at 11.3 sigma



Flare from an L2.5 flare with NGTS (Jackman+2019)

Photometry VI - Time-series photometry in space

- Simple in space (e.g. TESS, Kepler, PLATO).
- No atmosphere to deal with, only spacecraft systematics.
- Sometimes, these are non-trivial to deal with!





Systematics of TIC-64070648 in TESS sector 4





- Much harder as have to deal with atmosphere.
- Observe stars through different amounts of air masses (1 at zenith, ~3 for 20 deg elevation).
- Different amount of flux is scattered and thus strong airmass trends in raw flux.





- One way to remove trend is through ightarrowcomparison stars.
- Detrended flux is source flux divided by comparison star flux
- No sky background estimated (although it may help).
- Requires careful selection of stars with similar brightness, colour and spectral type.
- Red-noise may still persist.



- Another way is to take the lightcurves for all stars in the fields.
- Determine common trends (often refered to as basis vectors).
- These represent the components of trends in all lightcurves, and can be fitted to each to detrend them. (System, PCA)
- Struggles for variable stars, have to infer components from nearby stars.
- Use in ground based (e.g. NGTS, WASP) and space based (e.g. TESS, Kepler) photometry.



• There may be other trends too, like pixel position, point-speed function, difference in sky background.

NG0445-3056 2017-08-17T08:18:32



TIC-1167538













Assignment

- You have observed a transit of a target with the Next Generation Transit Survey.
- You will now perform aperture photometry to extract a light curve.
- All data is given online.
- I have written a Jupyter notebook to help you, work through it slowly and produce:
 - A plot of time VS raw flux
 - A plot of time VS detrended flux
 - A comment on what you can see.

You will need python, and anaconda

Thanks for listening Any questions?

