

# Mclean seminar sec.9.3-9.6

2024/11/01

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# 9.3 FLAT-FIELDING STRATEGIES

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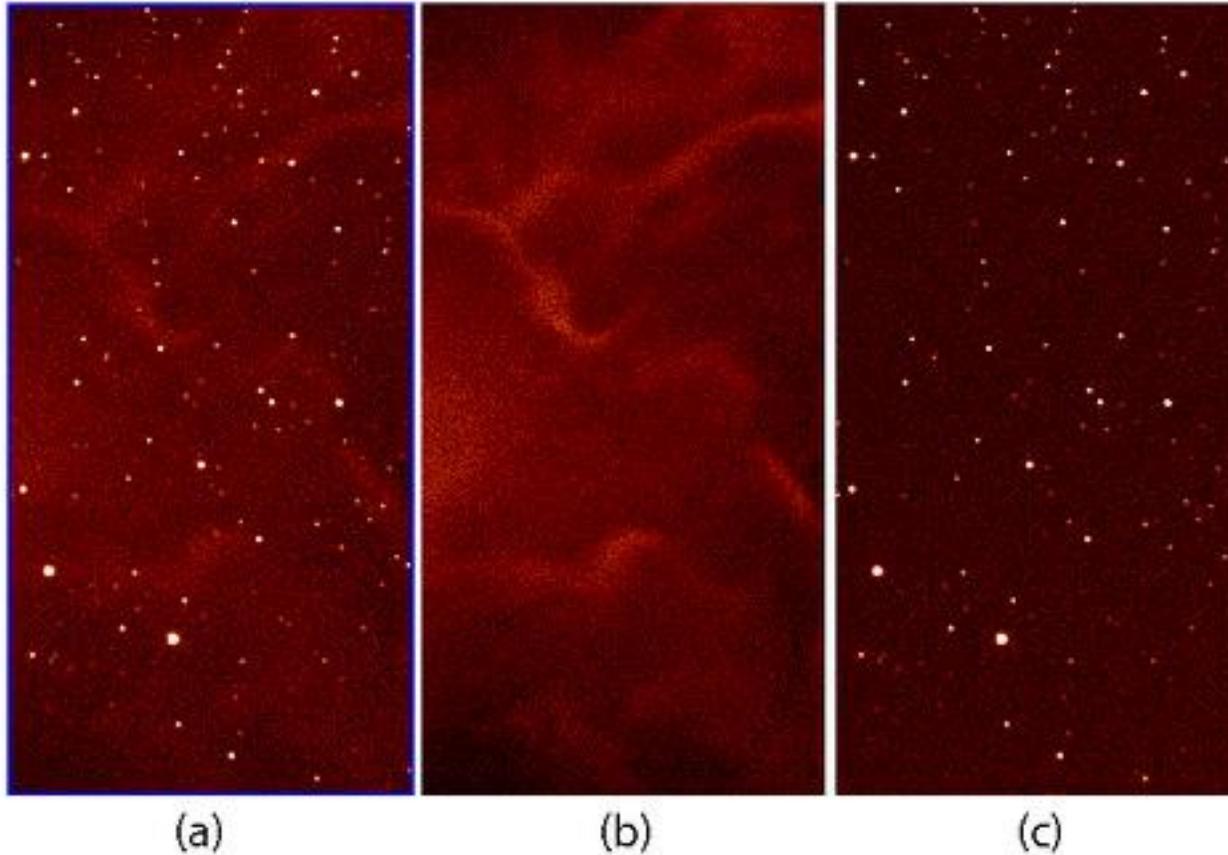
- **Pixel-to-pixel variations in sensitivity (QE)** arise due to
  - Physical differences between pixels
  - optical attenuation effects  
(e.g. microscopic dust particles on the surface of CCD)
- It is important to reduce pixel-to-pixel differences much further for astronomical observations.
  - Because such variations result in a “noisy” image
  - At a level corresponding to a few % of the sky brightness

# 9.3 FLAT-FIELDING STRATEGIES

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- a common practice to overcome pix-to-pix variations
  - To observe the inside of the telescope dome
  - To place a huge white card on the dome
- the screens are so close that the telescope is completely out of focus
  - The field is uniformly illuminated (i.e. **flat**)
- Dome illumination is usually done with tungsten lamps.
  - Tungsten lamps do not mimic the spectrum of the night sky.

# 9.3 FLAT-FIELDING STAR STRATEGIES



- A) an image before flat process
- B) Flat pattern
- C) An image after flat processing  
(a is divided by b )

<https://astro-dic.jp/flat-field-correction/>

# 9.3 FLAT-FIELDING STRATEGIES

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- For faint objects
  - It is the light of the sky that dominates.
  - It is better to try to **use the sky itself as a flat-field**
- For brighter objects
  - It is their own intrinsic color which matters.
    - inappropriate for using dome or sky
  - It is desirable to establish a set of narrow passbands for imaging
    - So as to limit the effect of color-dependent non-uniformity

# 9.3 FLAT-FIELDING STRATEGIES

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- A simple arithmetic division pixel by pixel is required to remove pixel-to-pixel variations in sensitivity.
- $I_{FF}$  : the uniform illumination of **the flat-field source** on a pixel in row  $i$ , column  $j$
- $\eta_{ij}$  : the quantum efficiency
- $g$  : the conversion gain [electrons / DN]

$$(X_{ij})_{FF} = \frac{1}{g} \eta_{ij} I_{FF}$$

- $(X_{ij})_{FF}$  : the observed signal from that pixel in **DN**

# 9.3 FLAT-FIELDING STRATEGIES

- The mean signal in the flat-field is obtained by averaging  $X_{ij}$  over all the rows and columns :  $S_{FF}$

$$S_{FF} = \frac{1}{g} \eta_M I_{FF}$$

- $\eta_M$  : mean QE

- For **the true image of the sky**

$$X_{ij} = \frac{1}{g} \eta_{ij} I_{ij}$$

- To eliminate the position-dependent QE response, we form the ratio of the image.

$$\frac{X_{ij}}{(X_{ij})_{FF}} = \frac{I_{ij}}{I_{FF}}$$

## 9.3 FLAT-FIELDING STRATEGIES

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$$\frac{X_{ij}}{(X_{ij})_{FF}} = \frac{I_{ij}}{I_{FF}}$$

$$S_{FF} = \frac{1}{g} \eta_M I_{FF}$$

- Finally, we rescale this ratio to the mean of the flat-field to give

$$\frac{X_{ij}}{(X_{ij})_{FF}} S_{FF} = \left( \frac{\eta_M}{g} \right) I_{ij}$$

- The flat-fielded, re-scaled image (left-hand) differs from the true image scene  $I_{ij}$ .

# 9.3 FLAT-FIELDING STRATEGIES

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- Many flat-field exposures are averaged
  - to increase the accuracy of the flat-field itself
  - to remove from the flat-field various artifacts such as cosmic-ray events.
- The color of the flat-field should be as good a match as possible to that of the image scene
  - Because QE is a function of wavelength
- To detect the very weakest signals, more complex correction mean is necessary.
  - Obtaining a series of flat-fields at different exposure levels and determining the response of each pixel individually by means of a polynomial-fitting routine.

# 9.3 FLAT-FIELDING STRATEGIES

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- For very high accuracy work or for observations on objects fainter than the night itself, **various systematic errors tend to dominate** over the expected random errors from photon arrival statistics.
- The first advance in counteracting low-level systematic errors
  - Drift scanning
  - Time delay and integration (TDI) ([Teledyne](#) page)
    - The CCD charge pattern is transferred slowly along columns, while the image from the telescope is physically scanned along with it **in precise synchronization**.

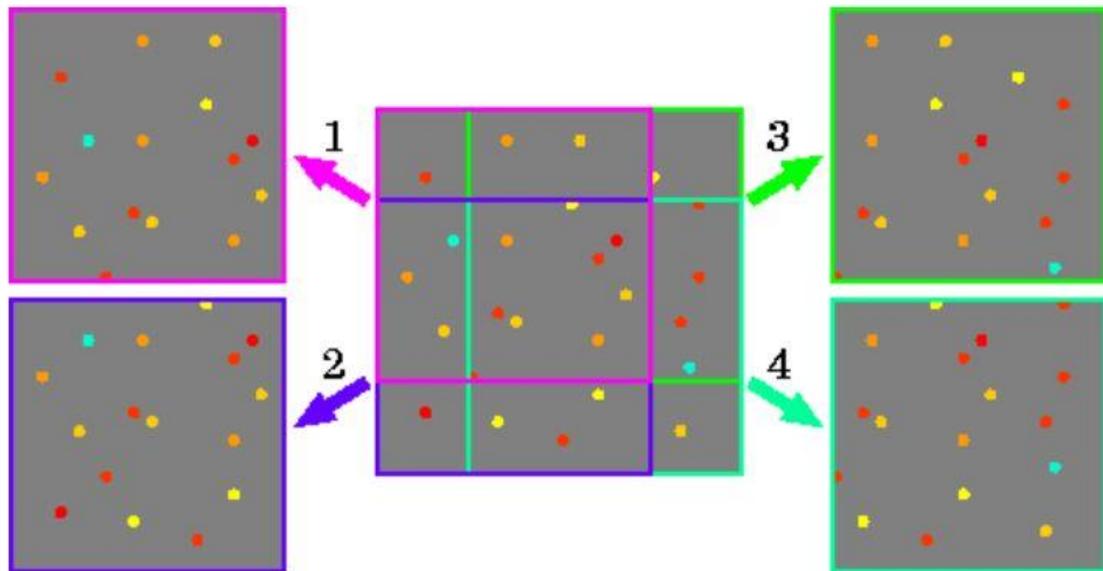
# 9.3 FLAT-FIELDING STRATEGIES

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- The way to reduce systematic errors to a level of 0.1% of the night-sky background
  - Tony Tyson demonstrated
    - Theoretical limiting magnitude of 27<sup>th</sup> in a 6-hour exposure for a 4m class telescope
- The dominant sources of error
  - The **mismatch in color** between calibration flat-field and actual night-sky background
  - **Interference fringing** due to unblocked night-sky emissions (for thinned CCD)
- Generation of a master flat-field and sky frame from the **object frames themselves** removes systematic effects to better than 0.03% of night sky.  
(天体画像そのものからフラット画像を生成)

# 9.3 FLAT-FIELDING STAR STRATEGIES

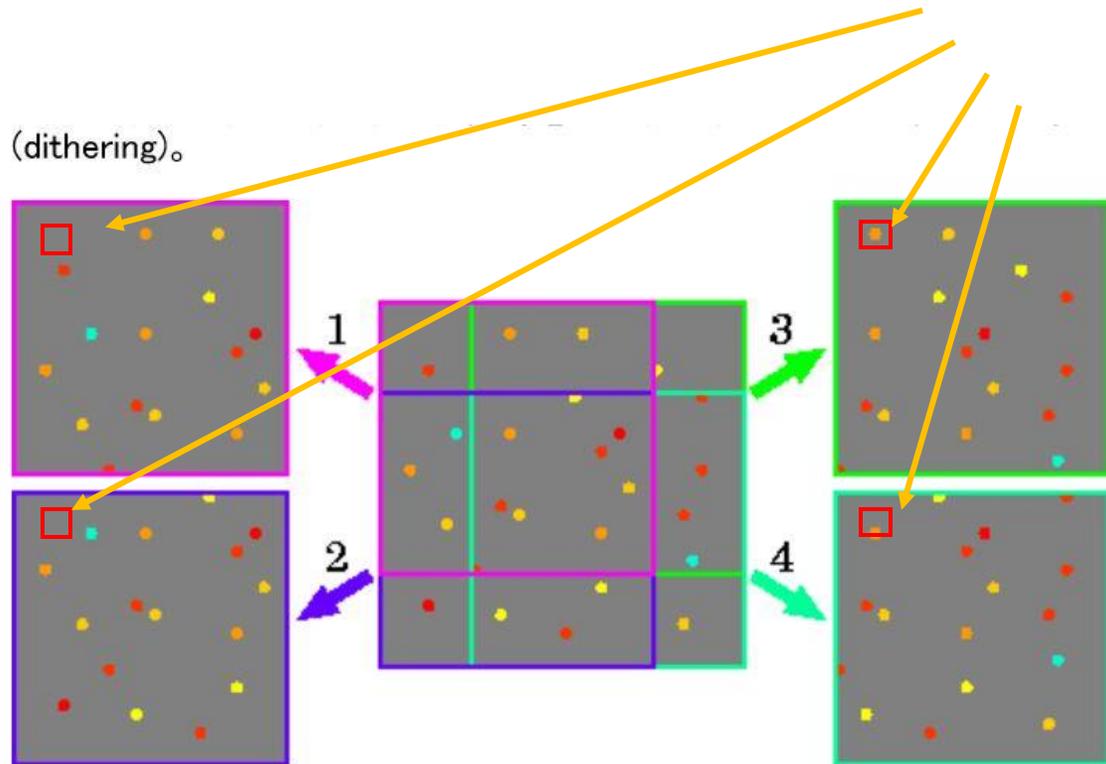
(dithering).



<https://astro-dic.jp/dithering/>

- This powerful technique (**dithering**) involves numerous observations of a piece of relatively blank sky with the telescope pointing to a slightly different position on the sky (displaced by 5-10 arcsec) for each exposure.
  - Positions can be chosen randomly or in a simple pattern,
  - But it is best not to repeat the pattern exactly.

# 9.3 FLAT-FIELDING STAR STRATEGIES

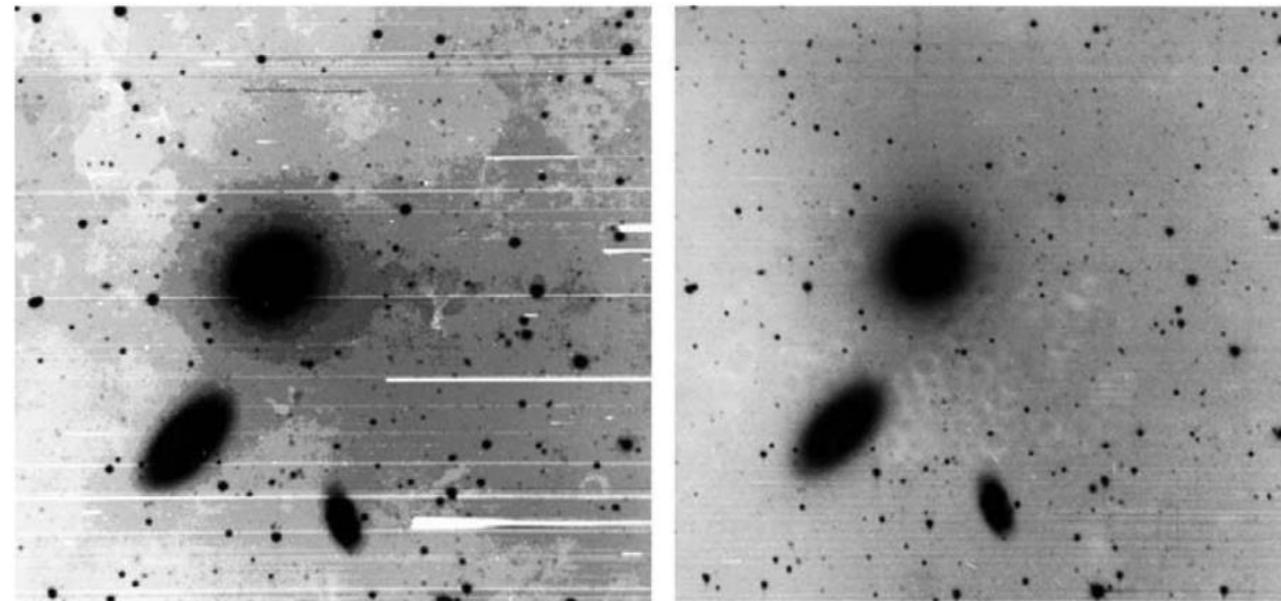


<https://astro-dic.jp/dithering/>

1. The sequence of dithered exposures is examined
2. The frequency histogram examined
3. One signal value (or a small range) will turn out to be **the pure night sky background**

(矢印のpixelに天体が載っていたり、載っていなかったりする。画像枚数だけ、pixelカウントを調べるとカウントの中央値がbackgroundに相当)

# 9.3 FLAT-FIELDING STRATEGIES



**Figure 9.8.** (a) A raw CCD image with many defective pixels; (b) same image flattened by using “median sky flats” by shifting the images in a “dither” pattern. Credit: Harold Ables, U.S. Naval Observatory.

- One disadvantage of dithering
  - It will not work on object frames which are too crowded
    - a large galaxy
    - a large nebula
    - A centrally condensed cluster of stars
  - Unless much larger moves are made.
  - →A combination of dome flats and sky flats is often used.

# 9.3 FLAT-FIELDING STRATEGIES

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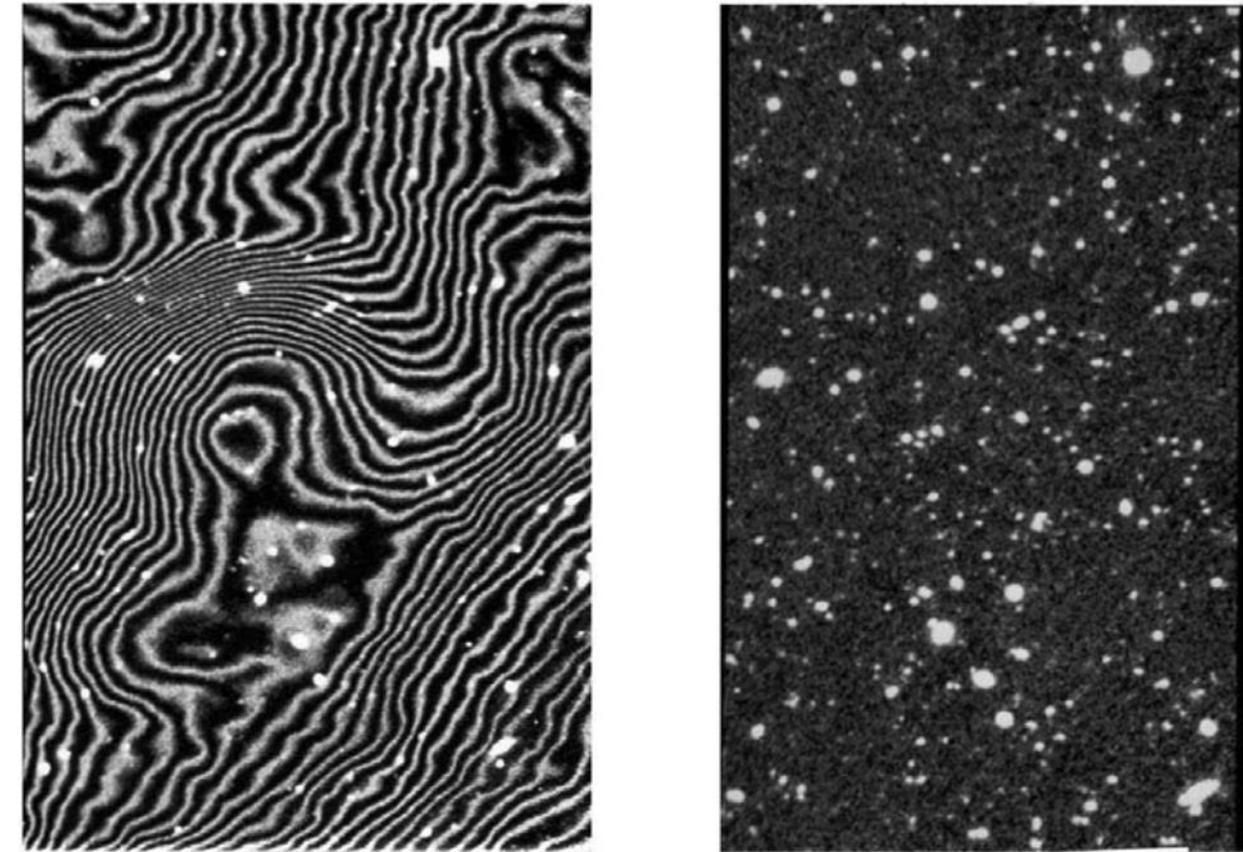
- It is essential to normalize the various flat-fields **before** applying a median-filtering algorithm.
  - because a drift will affect the calculation of the median value.
- It is very important that any additive effects which do not vary with sky brightness should be removed **before scaling**.
- Additive effects
  - Electronics pattern noise (bias effect)
  - Charge skimming and trapping
  - Interference fringes
  - LED activity

# 9.3 FLAT-FIELDING STRATEGIES

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- Multiplicative effect
  - QE variations across the sky
  - Transmission of optics and coatings
  - Thickness variations of thinned arrays and CCDs
- An appropriate steps for reduction and calibration of raw images
  1. Subtract bias and bias structure (9.2)
  2. Subtract dark (9.2)
  3. Divide by flat-field (9.3)
  4. Subtract fringe frame (sky subtraction) (9.4)
  5. Interpolate(内挿する) over bad pixels : a bad pixel map is needed.
  6. Remove cosmic-ray events : identify non-star-like point sources.
  7. Registration of frames and median filtering

# 9.4 FRINGES AND SKY EMISSION



**Figure 9.9.** (a) A severe fringe pattern due to night-sky emission lines on a deep 4 m telescope exposure with a thinned, back-illuminated CCD. (b) The same field after processing to remove the fringes.

- Near-IR arrays can show significant fringe patterns in narrow-band work in the case of backside-illuminated CCD.
  - caused by OH emission lines
- The left figure shows 500s CCD exposure in a far-red band on a 4m telescope before and after fringe removal.

# 9.4 FRINGES AND SKY EMISSION

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- Fringe removal can be performed by “adaptive modal filtering”
  1. Computes the **absolute difference between the mean and the median** of values associated with a pixel over all images in a set
  2. Rejects deviant values
    - until this difference falls below a certain value
    - or
    - until a maximum number of values have been rejected
- This technique fails if large or extended objects are seen.
- The introduction of deep-depletion CCDs and improved anti-reflection coatings has drastically reduced the problems.

# 9.5 LINEARITY

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- It is usual that the **the output voltage** from a CCD **is proportional to the amount of light** falling on the CCD to very high accuracy.
- Linearity curves are usually derived by observing a constant source with various exposure times.
- Non-linear behavior from CCDs can occur if incorrect voltages are applied.
  - The output transistor is operating in its normal linear regime
  - Use the correct clock voltages to ensure the CCD pixel is fully inverted.
  - Use a CCD with MPP build in.

# 9.6 PHOTOMETRY

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- Relative brightness  $\Leftrightarrow$  absolute amount of radiant energy reaching the Earth
  - A later method is needed if we are to understand the distribution of mass or energy in the Universe.
- Monochromatic flux ( $\text{W m}^{-2} \text{Hz}^{-1}$  /  $\text{W m}^{-2} \mu\text{m}^{-1}$ )
  - Integrating the specific intensity over the angular size of the source
- Magnitude
  - Relative monochromatic flux of a source
  - $m = m_0 - 2.5 \log F + 2.5 \log F_0$
  - $m_0, F_0$  : reference
  - There are different magnitude systems for different sets of spectral bands
  - Vega system / AB system

# 9.6 PHOTOMETRY

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$$m = m_0 - 2.5 \log F + 2.5 \log F_0$$

- Vega system
  - Vega is assigned 0 magnitudes in every passband.
- AB system
  - $F_0$  is the same for all wavelengths and passbands.
  - $m_\nu = -2.5 \log F_\nu - 48.6$  (F is in frequency units)
  - $m_\lambda = -2.5 \log F_\lambda - 21.1$  (F is in wavelength units)
- Bolometric magnitudes
  - Gives a magnitude corresponding to the total flux integrated over all wavelengths
  - Zero point :  $F_b = 2.52 \times 10^8 \text{ W m}^{-2}$
- Color indices
  - the difference between magnitudes at the two separate wavelengths (e.g. BV , UB)

# 9.6 PHOTOMETRY

- A UBVR system is invented by Johnson and Morgan
- A modified UBVR system

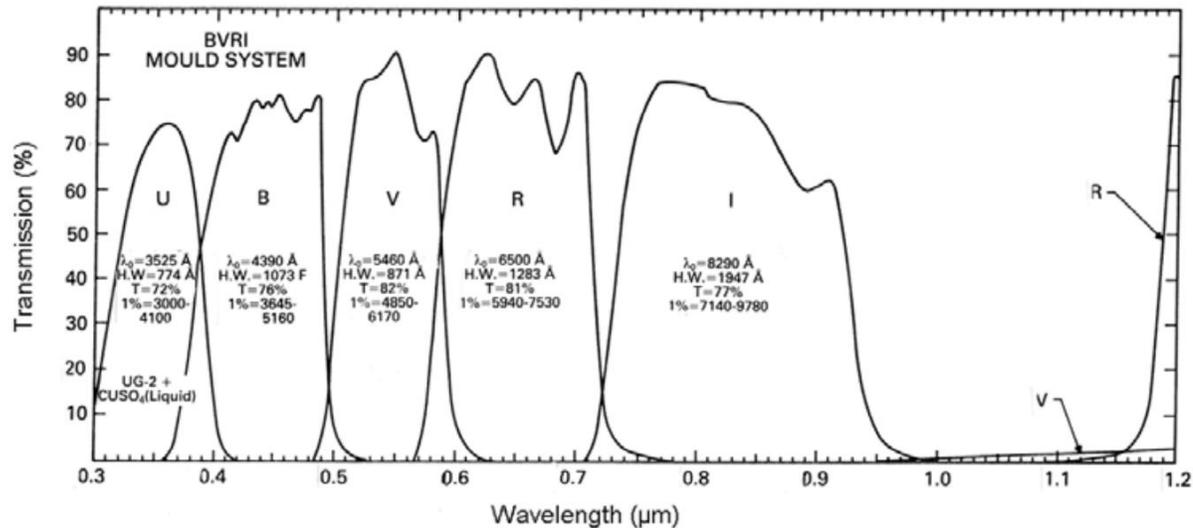


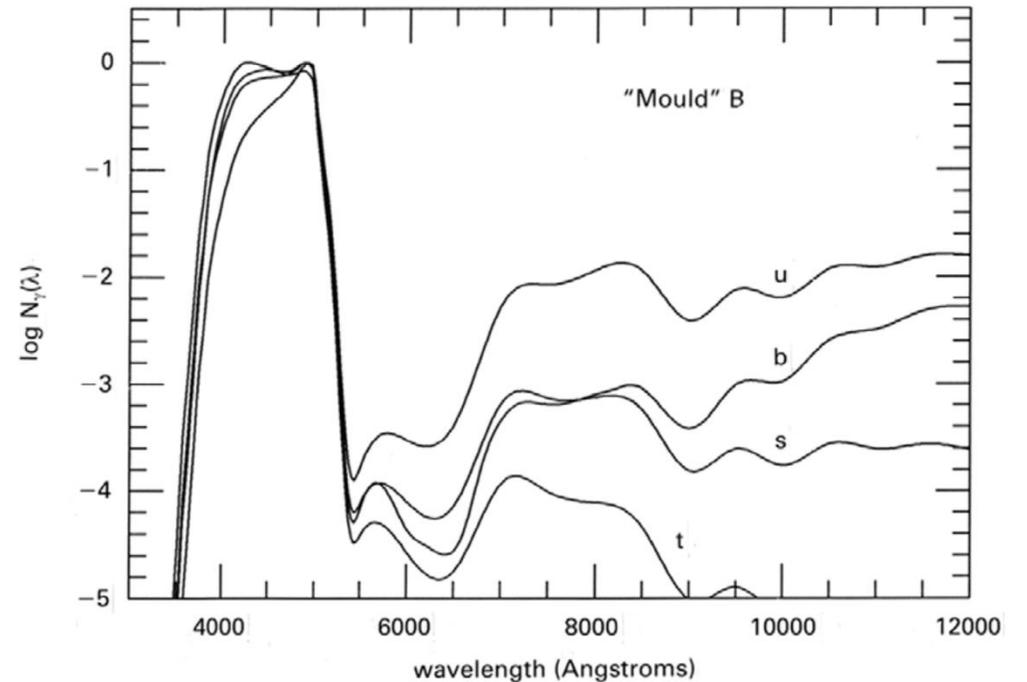
Figure 9.10. Standard filter bandpasses used with CCDs: the Mould system.

Table 9.2. A summary of the major photometric systems.

<i>Kron–Cousins System</i>		<i>Thuan–Gunn System</i>	
<i>Wavelength</i> (Å)	<i>Width</i> (Å)	<i>Wavelength</i> (Å)	<i>Width</i> (Å)
U 3,600	700	u 3,530	400
B 4,400	1,000	v 3,980	400
V 5,500	900	g 4,930	700
R 6,500	1,000	r 6,550	900
I 8,000	1,500	i 8,200	1,300

# 9.6 PHOTOMETRY

- A red leak in the B filter
- The consequences of red leaks depend on the “color” of the illumination and the sensitivity of the detector at longer  $\lambda$
- Calibration is needed.



**Figure 9.11.** The effect of (accidental) imperfect blocking is a “leak” of red photons to which the CCD is very sensitive. The consequence depends on the spectrum or color of the source; *b* and *u* are the balanced (filtered) and unbalanced artificial lamps illuminating the telescope dome, *s* is a typical solar spectrum, and *t* is the twilight sky which is quite blue.

# 9.6 PHOTOMETRY

- SDSS filters
  - wider bands to ensure high efficiency for faint-object detection
  - Covers the entire range where a CCD is sensitive (0.3-1.1 $\mu\text{m}$ )

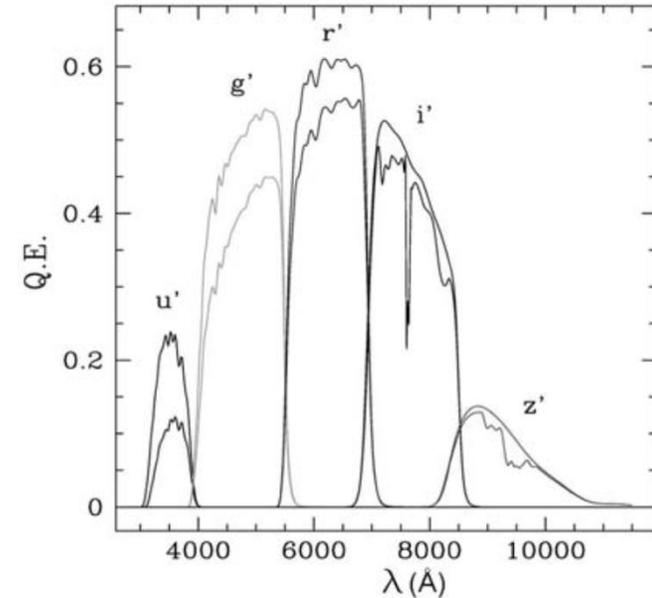


Figure 9.12. The Sloan Digital Sky Survey filter set.

Table 9.3. Sloan Digital Sky Survey passbands and sensitivity limits.

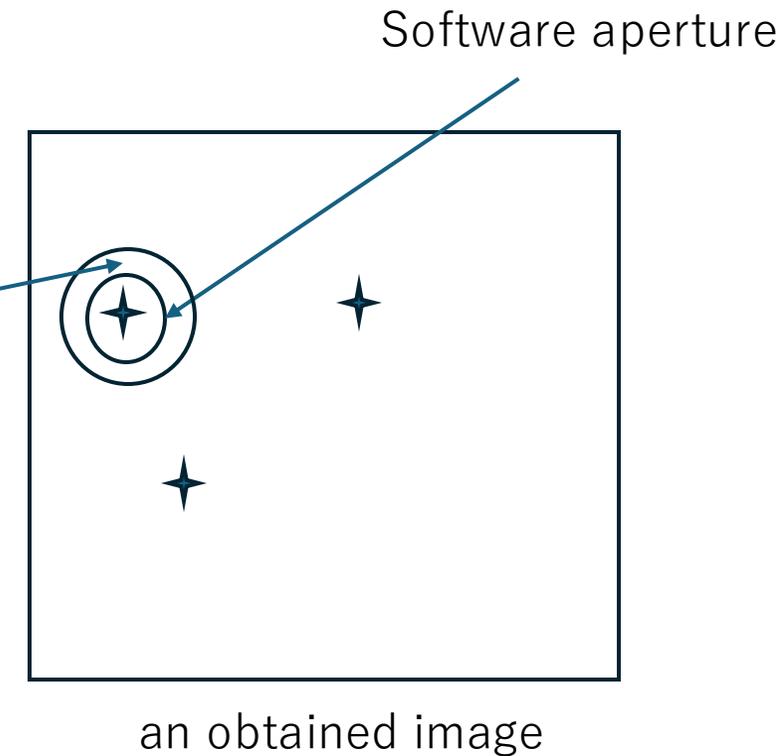
Property	$u'$	$g'$	$r'$	$i'$	$z'$
$\lambda_{\text{eff}}$	355.1 nm	468.6 nm	616.5 nm	748.1 nm	893.1 nm
Width	56.0 nm	137.7 nm	137.1 nm	151.0 nm	94.0 nm
Limits	22.0	22.2	22.2	21.3	20.5

# 9.6 PHOTOMETRY

- Two procedures for obtaining photometric information from CCD images
  - A) Aperture photometry
  - B) Profile fitting

- Aperture photometry

- Imaginary aperture (software aperture) is adopted
- It is difficult to adjust the size and position of the aperture
- Properties to estimate
  - the background level : within an annulus
  - The center of the optical image
  - The shape of the image



# 9.6 PHOTOMETRY

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- Profile fitting : Point Spread function (PSF) fitting
  - Modeling the image rather than summing over the image.
- Gaussian profile

$$I(r) = I_0 e^{-r^2/2\sigma^2}$$

1. Programs like DAOPHOT (Stetson, 1987) will identify the bright stars.
2. Deduce their Gaussian profiles and subtract those profiles away
3. Thereby revealing fainter stars.

- a convenient term

$$FWHM = 2.35\sigma$$

# 9.6 PHOTOMETRY

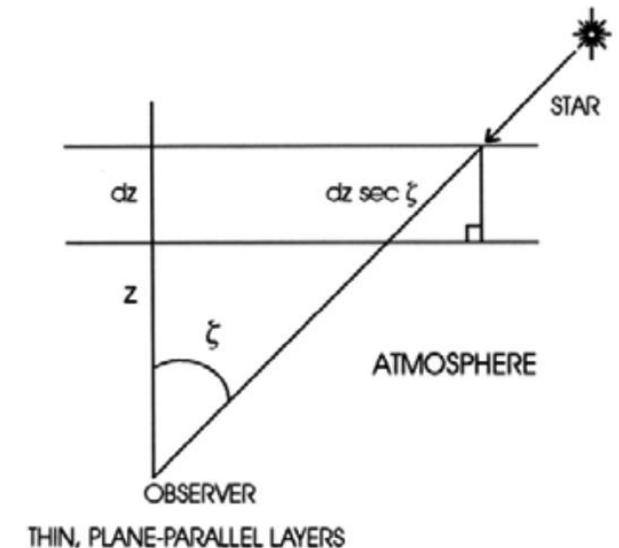
- Four important issues to be considered for fitting
  1. passband mismatch of the filters, including narrow-band filters
  2. Red/infrared “leaks” in the filter which complicate flat-fielding
  3. The finite opening and closing times of electromechanical shutters
  4. Changes in the atmospheric attenuation or “airmass” for long on-chip integrations
- 1 and 2 need to be eliminated by design
- shutter timing (3) errors are mainly relevant for large iris-type shutters that require a finite time ( $\delta t$ ) to close,
  - The pixels at the center experience a longer exposure time.
  - For large arrays, the error could be  $\sim 0.1s$
- Bonn shutter alleviates the problem.
  - <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=d2dZQkqWIOQ>



# 9.6 PHOTOMETRY

- Photometric values must be compared or calibrated against well-measured “standard” sources.
- Photometric standard stars must be observed over a wide range of airmass.

$$\text{airmass}(X) = \sec(90^\circ - \zeta) = \frac{1}{\cos(90^\circ - \zeta)}$$

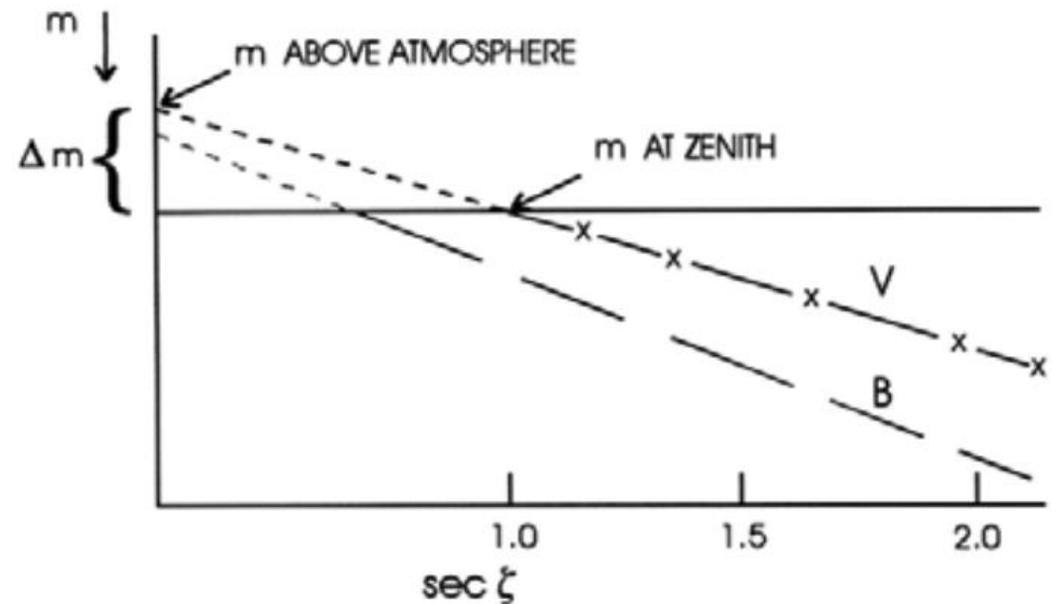


# 9.6 PHOTOMETRY

- the observed mag at  $\zeta$  :  $m(\zeta)$
- The difference between the true mag and mag which would be observed at  $\zeta$  :  $\alpha$

$$m = m(\zeta) - \alpha_{\lambda} \sec(\zeta)$$

- True mag and  $\alpha_{\lambda}$  can be calculated by plotting the  $m(\zeta)$  against airmass ( $X = \sec(\zeta)$  ).



# 9.6 PHOTOMETRY

- The instrumental magnitudes

$$IM = -2.5 \log(\text{counts}/s)$$

- The parameters to be determined

- the “zeropoint”
- the “color equation” relating the CCD photometric system to the older photoelectric systems
- the “extinction” factor or light-loss through the Earth’s atmosphere per unit airmass

$$m = -2.5 \log(\text{counts}/s) - \alpha * (\text{airmass}) + \beta * (\text{color}) + ZP$$

- X (airmass) is changing for a long exposure.

- DAOPHOT package

$$\bar{X} = \frac{X_0 + 4X_{1/2} + X_1}{6} + O(e)$$

- At the beginning  $X_0$  , midpoint  $X_{1/2}$  , the end  $X_1$
- $O(e)$  is a small error of about 1part in 10,000