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The New Age of Big Data In Astronomy: A Review of on the SKA & LSST

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ABSTRACT

I'm making my abstract my to do list for now
1: Make my citations for the website in my intro better
2: Finish adding more details about the SDSS camera
3: Make figure 1 look better. Cite Gunn correctly
3: Make the corrections given by Professor Kemball

Contents

1. INTRODUCTION

The concept of data has long been a principal concern throughout the history of astronomy. Data allows scientists to discover natural laws in the universe, have control over events, and make reliable predictions. It has played a critical role in other time-sensitive fields such as medicine and engineering, where accurate data is essential for decision-making and design. Although the nature of data varies fundamentally across different fields, one trend has remained consistent: the continual evolution of data science. As explained in The Fourth Paradigm (Hey et al. 2009), this evolution can be characterized through four successive paradigms. In the following sections, I describe the progression of data acquisition across these paradigms and illustrate each using examples from astronomy. I will then explain how SKA and LSST fit into this trajectory and exemplify the emerging era of data-intensive discovery.

1.1. *The Paradigms of Data Science*

The first and most primitive paradigm, as described by Hey, is empirical evidence. Empirical evidence refers to data collected through traditional means, such as direct observation or experimentation of natural phenomena using sensory perception or basic instruments. The primary purpose of empirical evidence is to identify patterns that allow scientists to develop a fundamental understanding of the natural world. Throughout much acquisition human history, empirical evidence represented the most prominent method for extracting knowledge from nature. An example of the first paradigm in astronomy is the career of Tycho Brahe, a Danish astronomer. Throughout his career in the 16th century, Brahe primarily collected and cataloged data on the position of astronomical bodies using naked-eye observations. However, this method of data collection is associated with several limitations. Empirical evidence can be compromised by human error, the precision of the instruments, and, most importantly, the relatively slow pace of data acquisition compared to subsequent paradigms.

The second paradigm is analytical evidence. Analytical evidence represents the second most prominent mode of scientific inquiry in terms of longevity. The primary purpose of analytical evidence is to construct mathematical formulas and theoretical frameworks based on empirical data. Unlike the first paradigm, which merely demonstrates that phenomena occur, the second paradigm seeks to explain why they occur. An example of the second paradigm in astronomy is the work of Johannes Kepler, a student of Tycho Brahe, who used Brahe's empirical observations to derive the laws of planetary motion (Hey et al. 2009). By transforming raw observational data into mathematical laws, Kepler exemplified how analytical evidence advances scientific understanding beyond description to explanation.

The third paradigm is simulation evidence, a relatively recent development with respect to the first two. The purpose of simulation evidence is to model natural phenomena that are too complex to solve analytically by hand. Its central role is to enable interpolation and extrapolation of data using computational techniques grounded in known physical laws. In astronomy, an example is the use of N-body simulations to study the dynamical evolution of planetary systems and galaxies. By simulating the gravitational interactions between multiple bodies simultaneously, astronomers can decipher theoretical structures and determine long-term behaviors that would be analytically impossible to solve.

The fourth and most recent paradigm is data-intensive science. This paradigm is characterized by the unprecedented scale, velocity, and complexity of data acquisition, driven in part by exponential advances in computational power and detector technologies, often associated with Moore's law. Unlike earlier paradigms, which focused on observation, theory, or simulation, data-intensive science emphasizes the ability to manage, analyze, and interpret vast datasets that exceed the capacity of traditional methods. While this exponential growth in data has enabled transformative discoveries, it also introduces significant challenges related to storage, processing, and accessibility.

1.2. *The Rise of Big Data in Astronomy*

Astronomy has become one of the most prominent trailblazers of this paradigm. Modern observatories now generate petabyte-scale data that need new strategies for data management and analysis. The fourth paradigm in turn reshapes the scientific process itself. Instead of discoveries being made from observation or theory, they are now being made from interpreting massive data sets. However, these advances also expose alarming issues, including bottlenecks in the data pipeline, the storage of aforementioned data, the increase in skill needed to handle the data, and concerns regarding open access to data. The field of astronomy is both a beneficiary and a victim of this data-intensive transition.

The exponential growth of data acquisition can be attributed to Moore's law. Moore's law is an observation coined by Cofounder of Intel, Gordon E. Moore in his paper titled, "Cramming more components onto integrated circuits". In said paper, Moore explains that the number of components that make up an integrated circuit increase approximately at a rate of a factor of 2 per year. Moore also stated that this growth is not sustainable more many reasons, the most relevant being the fact that techniques to handle such complex circuits lag behind in terms of development Moore (2006).

Moore's law can be seen in many data-intensive fields, such as astronomy. When applied, it explains both the recent development of Big Data in astronomy, and accurately predicts the present issue that methods being used for analyzing said data is lagging behind, causing the mentioned issues.

This paper therefore seeks to review the rise of Big Data in Astronomy and the technical and scientific issues surrounding it by examining four case studies: MeerKAT, The Sloan Digital Sky Survey (SDSS), The Legacy Survey of Space and Time (LSST), and The Square Kilometre Array (SKA). These facilities collectively highlight the scope of contemporary astronomical data, the methods of its acquisition, their relative successes, the ongoing challenges, and the solutions currently in use. I plan on doing this by reviewing the approach that all four case studies have taken or plan to take to collect data.

1.3. *A Qualitative Analysis of Relevant Survey Data*

To demonstrate the rise of Big Data in Astronomy, we must first examine the components that make up the SDSS. The SDSS is vital to this paper, as it is one of the earliest large-scale optical surveys that signifies the start of the fourth paradigm. Because of its relative early involement in the Big Data stage of astronomy, and its use of collecting optical data, I plan to compare the SDSS to LSST. The SDSS consists of three main telescopes.

The first of the three is "The Sloan Foundation 2.5m Telescope". The Sloan Foundational Telescope is stationed at the Apache Point Observatory in New Mexico, where it observes the sky in the northern hemisphere. The Sloan foundational telescope is able to observe a 3° field of view through the use of its two corrector lenses, that help with distortion. Gunn et al. (2006)

Another vital telescope used in the SDSS project is "The Irénée du Pont Telescope at Las Campanas Observatory" . The Irénée du Pont Telescope differs from the 2.5m Telescope as it is stationed in Chile, where it observes the southern hemisphere instead. Similar to the first mentioned telescope, the Irénée du Pont Telescope displays a 2.1° field of view with only one corrector lens. Bowen & Vaughan (1973)

The third yet most vital telescope is the "NMSU 1-meter Telescope". The NMSU telescope is stationed in the Apache Point Observatory alongside the Sloan Foundational Telescope. The NMSU telescope serves a purpose the former two don't because "Obtaining spectra of these bright sources is a challenge for the Sloan 2.5 m telescope and not practical through drilling and observing specialized plugplates" Majewski et al. (2017). In essense, by using optical fibers connected to a spectrograph, the NMSU telescope observes stars that are too bright for the other two to observe. The combination of these telescopes allow for both optical data to be collected through multiple surveys Holtzman et al. (2010)

the SDSS is made up of multiple subsurveys. The eBoss, a continuation of BOSS, utilize spectrographs to observe light at a wavelength range of 3600-10,400 ÅDawson et al. (2016). An additional subsurvey is the APOGEE-2, a continuation of APOGEE. It uses spectrographs similar to eBOSS, but APOGEE-2 collectes near-infrared objects Majewski et al. (2017). MaNGA is a subsurvey that collect integral field unit measurements of 10,000 nearby galaxies using spectrographs Bundy et al. (2014a). MARVELS is another subservey that makes up the SDSS, it was built specifically to obtain radial velocity measurements of stars with high-precision in hopes of finding exoplanets Bundy et al. (2014b).

The MeerKAT is another survey essential to demonstrate how Big Data has evolved in the field of Astronomy. MeerKAT became fully operational in 2018 in the Northern Cape Province of South Africa. It serves as a precursor to the Square Kilometre Array (SKA), as both facilities focus on the collection of radio data Jonas & the MeerKAT Team (2018). MeerKAT comprises 64 antennas distributed over a radius of approximately 600 miles. These antennas operate across frequency bands ranging from 350 MHz to 3500 MHz Goedhart (2025).

MeerKAT has conducted and continues to conduct ten major survey projects. For the sake of conciseness, this discussion will focus on five of these surveys. One is the "Looking At the Distant Universe with the MeerKAT Array" (LADUMA) survey. The objective of the LADUMA survey is to "use HI observations to study galaxy evolution over two thirds of the age of the universe" Blyth et al. (2018). LADUMA has used "shorter observations with MeerKAT's "Phase 1" (0.9-1.75 GHz) receivers would be followed by longer observations in an expanded "Phase 4" (0.58-2.5 GHz) band" Blyth et al. (2018). Although the LADUMA survey is still ongoing, a portion of the data has already been released and will be discussed in the Methods section.

the MeerKAT Absorbtion Line Survey (MALS) is a survey conducted using MeerKAT using by collecting data about HI and OH absorvers at $z < 0.4$ and $z < 0.7$, where z is the redshift of a galaxy. The reason for using the HI observation specifically is because it is a descriptive tracer of the cold neutral medium in a galaxy. The cold neutral medium give scientist details on what the physical conditions of the interstellar medium of said galaxy is. This, in turn, allows scientists to extrapolate data on the star formation in the galaxy Gupta et al. (2021).

Another survey, the "The Hunt for Dynamic and Explosive Radio Transients with MeerKAT" (ThunderKAT), aims to find, identify and understand high-energy astrophysical processes via their radio emission (often in concert with observations at other wavelengths)." In essence, ThunderKAT analyzes radio data to catalogue high-energy phenomena, including supernovae, microquasars, and similar events Woudt et al. (2018).

Another notable survey under MeerKAT is the MeerKAT HI Observations of Nearby Galactic Objects: Observing Southern Emitters (MHONGOOSE). this survey aims to catalogue the properties of HI gas in "around 30 nearby star-forming spiral and dwarf galaxies to extremely low H i column densities". MHONGOOSE is remarkable by its notably higher sensitivity compared to previous surveys such as HALOGAS and THINGS. This sensitivity is crucial for investigating how low-column-density gas influences the cosmic web and galactic accretion processes De Blok et al. (2024).

The final survey considered here is the "MeerKAT International GHz Tiered Extragalactic Exploration" (MIGHTEE). MIGHTEE utilizes radio data spanning 900–1670 MHz, achieving a resolution of approximately 6 arcseconds.

Together, these five surveys, along with the remaining projects, emphasize the pivotal role of MeerKAT in the era of Big Data astronomy. They are at the forefront of scientific research and are producing data volumes on the order of petabytes.

Having examined MeerKAT, its only natural to examine its successor, the SKA. The SKA has built on technical and scientific achievements paved by MeerKAT. The SKA covers an area of approximately 3,000 km with antennas, which collect area up to 106 m^2 of the sky. Because of its astonishing techniqical prowess and complexity, The SKA represents the start of a new frontier for Big Data astronomy. One technology being used is aperture synthesis, which allows for the signals from antennas to be in phase, allowing to reduce noise. Another innovation is the use of large centimeter wavelength antennas, which allow for data to travel across distances at high speeds. This, in turn, allows for data to be analyzed and processed quicker and optimized, which will be discussed in further detail in the Methods section. Dewdney et al. (2009).

Alongside the SKA is its optical counterpart, the LSST, which similarly represents a major advance in the evolution of Big Data in astronomy The LSST is a successor to the SDSS, as both projects observe optical data. The LSST, however, has much more sophisticated goals. The LSST plans to address 4 key scientific issues: Investigating dark energy and dark matter, cataloguing the solar system, collecting data for sky surveys, and mapping the Milky way. To do all this, the LSST uses a 3.2-gigapixel camera with a sampling of 9.6 deg^2 field of view. These cameras are equipped with highly resistant sensors reinforced with silicon Ivezić et al. (2019). All these inventions alongside others allow for the LSST to acquire complex and immense data sets never seen before.

Truly, the SDSS, MeerKAT, SKA, and LSST are the pinnacle of human ingenuiety. They will allow for unprecedented data rates for complex astrophysical events and phenomena. In the following Methods section, I describe how the data is collected, processed, analyzed, and stored. I then compare SDSS and MeerKAT to their respective successor in order to address the issue of inflation of Big Data in astronomy.

The new text starts here:

2. METHODS

2.1. *The SDSS's Data Pipeline*

This section carefully examines how each of the four major astronomical surveys collects and processes its data. It begins by describing the nature, scope, and type of the data. Next, it discusses how each survey collecs and archives its data, followed by an explanation of their general data processing methods. Finally, it considers the use of real-time data processing. By comparing these surveys, this study highlights the rapid growth of big data in astronomy, a trend that has created challenges for data storage, processing, and analysis. These challenges will be discussed further in the discussion section.

The first survey examined is the Sloan Digital Sky Survey (SDSS). The SDSS I plan on splitting the SDSS into its three main components, the 2.5 m Telescope, the Irénée du Pont Telescope, and the NMSU 1-meter telescope. As discussed previously, I will explain how each telescope collects data, then I will explain how the SDSS processes the data both generally and in real-time. Lastly, I will talk about the open data policy the SDSS has employed.

2.1.1. *Data Collection*

Although the SDSS is a complex survey, it can be divided into several major components, each of which contributes to the collection of astrophysical data. The 2.5-meter telescope plays a central role in the operations of the SDSS. It was designed to conduct precise optical observations of the sky over many years.

(1) The SDSS 2.5 m Telescope: According to Gunn et al. (2006), the SDSS camera contains "30 2048 x 2048 Scientific Imaging Technologies Charge-Coupled Devices (CCDs) and 24 2048 x 400 CCDs" Gunn et al. (2006). A CCD is a detector that converts incoming light into an electronic signal. When photons strike the CCD, they generate electrons through the photoelectric effect. Using applied voltages, the resulting charge is measured based on the number of electrons produced. That measurement is then converted into a digital value and stored as a pixel, forming an image Lesser (2015).

Another major innovation that enables the SDSS to collect data is the pair of fiber-fed double spectrographs, which record imaging data across wavelengths from 3800 to 9200 Å and at field angles between 0 and 90° Gunn et al. (2006). present measurements of the optical performance of these instruments, which are summarized in Figure 1.

λ (Å)	Angle (arcmin)	f_b (mm)	h/dh (mm)	D (mm)	ϵ (mm)
4000........................	0.00	−0.007	0.000	−0.135	0.036
	30.00	−0.143	0.004	−0.081	0.030
	45.00	−0.424	0.005	−0.015	0.025
	60.00	−0.978	0.005	0.076	0.028
	70.00	−1.536	0.004	0.148	0.036
	80.00	−2.265	0.002	0.231	0.049
	90.00	−3.203	−0.004	0.325	0.065
4600........................	0.00	−0.007	−0.000	−0.058	0.031
	30.00	−0.143	0.002	−0.035	0.027
	45.00	−0.424	0.002	−0.006	0.024
	60.00	−0.978	0.002	0.033	0.025
	70.00	−1.536	0.002	0.065	0.027
	80.00	−2.265	0.001	0.101	0.030
	90.00	−3.203	−0.001	0.141	0.035
5300........................	0.00	−0.007	0.000	0.000	0.029
	30.00	−0.143	−108.818	0.000	0.026
	45.00	−0.424	−163.322	0.000	0.024
	60.00	−0.978	−217.855	0.000	0.025
	70.00	−1.536	−254.241	0.000	0.027
	80.00	−2.265	−290.713	0.000	0.026
	90.00	−3.203	−327.372	0.000	0.025
6500........................	0.00	−0.007	−0.000	0.062	0.031
	30.00	−0.143	−0.002	0.037	0.027
	45.00	−0.424	−0.002	0.007	0.024
	60.00	−0.978	−0.002	−0.035	0.029
	70.00	−1.536	−0.002	−0.068	0.034
	80.00	−2.265	−0.001	−0.106	0.036
	90.00	−3.203	0.002	−0.149	0.040
9000........................	0.00	−0.007	0.000	0.131	0.036
	30.00	−0.143	−0.004	0.078	0.029
	45.00	−0.424	−0.004	0.014	0.026
	60.00	−0.978	−0.004	−0.074	0.036
	70.00	−1.536	−0.004	−0.145	0.046
	80.00	−2.265	−0.002	−0.226	0.056
	90.00	−3.203	0.003	−0.317	0.068

Figure 1. Figure 5 from Gunn et al. (2006), showing results of the SDSS spectrographs given Wavelength and Angle.

In Figure 5, λ represents the wavelength of light, and "Angle" refers to the field angle. f_b is the best-focus distance, which is the position that provides the sharpest image. h/dh represents the lateral color, and D indicates the longitudinal difference from the best focus. Finally, ϵ is the root mean square (rms) image diameter. Among these parameters, the lateral color and longitudinal difference are the most important for image quality because smaller values indicate sharper images. Based on the data from Gunn et al. (2006), both of these quantities remain close to zero for most wavelengths and field angles, except between roughly 5300 and 6500 Å, which demonstrates the high optical accuracy of the SDSS spectrographs.

The combination of these two innovations alongside others help the 2.5 m telescope collect data at a rate of about 20Gb/hr Lupton et al. (2007).

(2) The Irénée du Pont Telescope: Unlike the 2.5 m telescope, the Du Pont Telescope does not rely on CCDs to collect data. According to Bowen's 1973 paper, the telescope is described as a modified Ritchey-Chrétien design with Gascoigne correctors Bowen & Vaughan (1973). The Du pont telescope uses a 100-inch primary mirror. Approximately 40% of the light is reflected to the secondary mirror, obtaining only a 16% loss of light at that stage. Bowen & Vaughan (1973) The combination of light from the two aforementioned mirrors are then sent to a 20 inch x 20 inch plate, where monocromatic images are formed.

The du Pont Telescope uses 18.9 inch nonvignetted plates in order to minimize vignetting Bowen & Vaughan (1973). Vignetting is the process where light beds through the lense of a telescope. The bending form a cone of light, which causes images to be darker near the edges and brighter in the center of the image Richards (2020). Because of the nonvignetted plates, the du Pont Telescope experiences an exceptionally low 3% percent loss of light Bowen & Vaughan (1973).

Another technology the du Pont Telescope applies is a Gascoigne corrector plate. The plate helps with data collection. The Gasciogne corrector plate is able to be moved, which can help optimize the collection of light in a wanted wavelength Bowen & Vaughan (1973). Given a seperation of 1000 mm from the end of the corrector plate to the focus gives an image with a minimized astigmatism for a refractive index of n = 1.47 Bowen & Vaughan (1973). At a given wavelength, the change of length which minimizes astigmatism is described in Bowen's paper as

$$\Delta L = 590\Delta n/(n-1) = -1250\Delta n \tag{1}$$

Where ΔL is the change in seperation in millimeters and Δn is the difference between a refractive index of 1.47 and the index wanted.

The last technology the du Pont Telescope uses is conical baffles. The reason for this is to promote shielding in the telescope Bowen & Vaughan (1973). As explained in the Bowen paper, shielding is necessary in order to protect the photographic plate from light that escapes from the secondary lense due to long time exposure. As explained in the Bowen paper, the conic baffles are "located in the space between the incoming beam as it appraoches the primary and the return beam from the secondary to the plate" Bowen & Vaughan (1973). Theoretically, the conic baffles have the disatvantage of producing a diffraction pattern. However, as explained by Bowen, this should not majorly affect the images of stars Bowen & Vaughan (1973).

(3) The New Mexico State University (NMSU) Telescope: The NMSU telescope takes the most technologically advanced approach to collecting data compared to the 2.5 m telescope and the du Pont Telescope. The NMSU telescope uses a camera that has a 2048 x 2048 CCD. The camera is controled by a linux computer, which is connected by fiber optic cables Holtzman et al. (2010).

The data collection of the NMSU telescope is almost fully automated using C++, the only time it is not is when engineering is being done on the telescope Holtzman et al. (2010). The NMSU telescope has a camera which analyzes the brightness level of the sky to see if it is dark enough to start collecting data. When the sky becomes dark enough, the telescope initiates its program. The telescope goes through the list and observes said objects Holtzman et al. (2010). Objects can, however, be observed as many times as requested.

2.1.2. *Data Processing:*

NOTE: This is gonna super complex, Study this hard. Its only surface level rn

The SDSS processes its data through an innovative acquisition system that records and organizes observations in real time while maintaining strict quality control Gunn et al. (2006). This system ensures that data are processed and stored efficiently without any loss of precision. Gunn et al. (2006). The data pipeline of the SDSS can be described by two different fields of data, the imaging pipeline and the spectroscophy pipeline

(1) Imaging Data Pipeline: The Imaging data Pipeline itself consists of mutliple subpipelines. The first subpipeline is the Astroline. The astroline uses vxWorks in order to initalize the processing sequence. This happens by composing star cutouts and column quartiles collected from the CCD's mentioned before Lupton et al. (2001)

The second subpipline is the MT pipeline. the MT Pipeline processes the data collected from the Photometric Telescope. This data is used to calculate important parameters for the 2.5 m Telescope scans, such as extinction and zero-points Lupton et al. (2001).

The third pipeline is the Serial Stamp Collecing (SSC) Pipeline. the SSC reorganizes the star cutouts collected from previous pipelines. The SSC does this in order to prepare data for the upcoming pipelines Lupton et al. (2001).

Next is the Astrometric Pipeline. The Astrometric pipeline processes the average location of stars using the data collected from the astroline and SSC pipelines. It then converts the pixel data from the images into celestial coordinates (α, δ) Lupton et al. (2001).

After that is the Postage Stamp Pipeline (PSP). The PSP estimates the quality of the data collected by calculating factors such as the flat field vectors, bias drift, and sky levels.

After all that is done, the data is fed into the Frames Pipeline. The Frames pipeline does a majority of the work, processing the data from all the previous pipelines and producing the complete datasets of images. It does this by correcting the frames based on the data before and cataloging the images.

Lastly, the processed data is then ran through the Calibration pipeline. The Calibration pipeline takes data from the MT and Frames pipeline. The Calibration pipeline converts the counts into more measurable quantities such as flux.

The SDSS imaging pipeline is composed of multiple connected pipelines that operate collaboratively to transform raw imaging data into structured datasets from which measurable physical quantities such as flux can be derived.

2.1.3. *Real-Time Processing:*

2.1.4. *Open Source Policies and Transparency:*

The SDSS collaboration states on its official SDSS-IV website [1] that all of its software be open source using the open source liscence BSD 3-Clause. However, the SDSS outlines practices for users who plan to use the SDSS software must abide by. One of the most important ones is the proper citation of software and websites that were used. The SDSS4 emphasizes the importance of citing properly as it serves to acknowledge the hard work of the teams behind said projects.

The SDSS also has implemented Digital Object Identifiers, commonly known as DOIs, into all software code. DOIs allow for software and data to be easily identified, which is important for ownership. The SDSS team also promotes transparency in coding by implementing Git and SVN in order to maintain a record of the development of the software. This not only makes the development transparent, but also helps users see the evolution of the software.

Overall, the SDSS has demonstrated a strong commitment to making their data and software open source and transparent. This in turn helps the development of science, by ensuring that knowledge is accessible to those without sufficient financial resources.

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