

A CLASSIC THESIS STYLE

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An Homage to The Elements of Typographic Style

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ABSTRACT

Short summary of the contents... a great guide by Kent Beck how to write good abstracts can be found here:

<https://plg.uwaterloo.ca/~migod/research/beck00PSLA.html>

*We have seen that computer programming is an art,
because it applies accumulated knowledge to the world,
because it requires skill and ingenuity, and especially
because it produces objects of beauty.*

— knuth:1974 [knuth:1974]

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Put your acknowledgements here.

Many thanks to everybody who already sent me a postcard!

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¹ Members of GuIT (Gruppo Italiano Utilizzatori di T_EX e L^AT_EX)

CONTENTS

1	INTRODUCTION	1
2	THEORY	5
2.1	Psf	5
2.2	vApp	6
2.2.1	adding atmospheric effects	6
2.3	disk model	8
2.3.1	Catogorisation	8
2.3.2	The model	8
2.3.3	Challenging to Obeserve	10
2.4	creating an observation	11

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1	optical layout of a lyot coronagraph, by Matthew Kenworthy, from https://home.strw.leidenuniv.nl/~kenworthy/app	1
Figure 2	The point spread function (psf) is the image an instrument produces when looking at a point source such as a star. Here we see the psf of an instrument without a coronagraph, with the classical lyot coronagraph and a one using the vApp	2
Figure 3	Pattern (a) and the differences between psfs **distorted** with this pattern using the method described above	7
Figure 4	Differences between the first psf of an observation and later psfs. Compared between simulated observations on the left and on sky data on the right. The psfs were aligned then normalised on the maximum of the leakage term, finally the absolute value of the difference between the first and n-th psf was taken. The second, 10th and 50th simulated psf are 0.7, 7 and 14 seconds apart in the simulation	9
Figure 5	Sketch summarizing the different classifications of protoplanetary disks proposed by /ref . . .	10
Figure 7	two disks created by the model with different size and inclination both with a position angle of 45 degrees	11

LIST OF TABLES

LISTINGS

ACRONYMS

DRY Don't Repeat Yourself

API Application Programming Interface

UML Unified Modeling Language

INTRODUCTION

A major and succesful topic in astronomy has been the discovery and characterization of exoplanets. This intrest has sparked great progress in the field of high contrast imaging resulting in new imaging techniques and instuments. Though as of writing 3,949 planets [nasa] have been confirmed little is known about their formation. Certain is that a so called protoplanetary disk is an important stage in the formation of a planetary system. The disks can be observed best within the visible spectrum and infrared though ALMA has also had succes in observing disks in the radio spectrum.

It is however a great challenge to acquire observations of such a disk due to the high contrast with its star and the required angular resolution. ****explain why light from a star (dot) can hide planetary details in a normal telescope (is it only sys+atmosph psf for appature?)****. To observe with sufficient resolution adaptive optics are used. This negates most of the atmospheric seeing.

Reducing contrast is done with coronagraph, an instrument that blocks out the direct light from a star. The classic lyot coronagraph (Figure 1) blocks direct star light using two focusses. In the first focus an opaque mask blocks placed where the star is diffuses and absorbs the direct star light. Then between the focusses a ring shaped mask blocks most of the now diffused star light. Then at the second focus the image is made as usual.

However such a classical coronagraph is insufficient for observing disks. The vector Apodizing Phase Plate (vApp) [papervApp] is a coronagraph placed at the pupil of a telescope. The vApp blocks starlight by modifying the phase of incoming light. This phase change flips the light in a D-shaped region around the star to the other side. Any faint object next to the star in the now dark region becomes de-

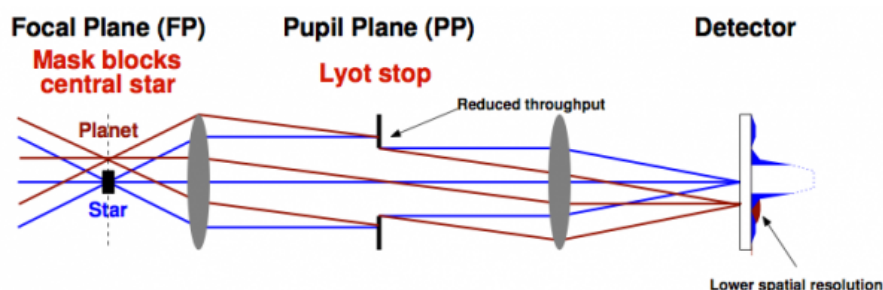


Figure 1: optical layout of a lyot coronagraph, by Matthew Kenworthy, from <https://home.strw.leidenuniv.nl/~kenworthy/app>

teachable. Compared to the classic lyot coronagraph the vApp reduces the starlight to a greater degree, see [Figure 2](#).

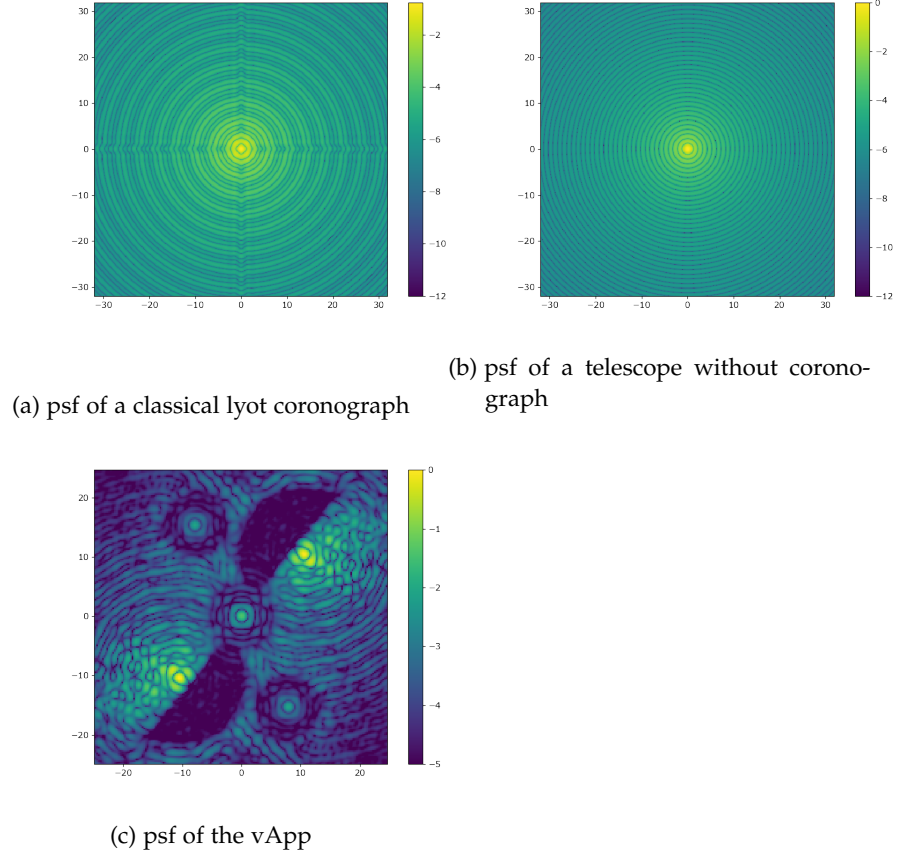


Figure 2: The point spread function (psf) is the image an instrument produces when looking at a point source such as a star. Here we see the psf of an instrument without a coronagraph, with the classical lyot coronagraph and one using the vApp

The vApp has been developed to detect rocky planets in the habitable zone of stars. However it could also allow us to resolve disk features and study disks in greater detail directly. However as the vApp changes the entire image it is challenging to differentiate disk features from vApp artefacts.

Here we study what the effect is of both the vApp and reduction methods ADI and RDI on the apparent morphology of the disks. Here we try to characterise artificial disk observations with the vApp.

We choose not to use on sky data but create our own. This presents a number of advantages though the main reason is the lack of disk observations using the vApp. Generating the data from a model allows us to vary parameters as we wish. We can try a reduction method on a simple slightly inclined disk or a near face on disk with many rings. By reducing images of morphologically differing disks we can map out how well a reduction method works for each morphology. Further

more we can clearly separate artifacts created during data reduction from disk features when we know what the disk looks like.

TODO overview thesis

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Coronagraph>

THEORY

2.1 PSF

We can describe what happens to light going through an optical system with its point spread function (PSF). How do we find the PSF? The Hygens-Fresnel Principle states any area can be treated as filled with coherent point sources. An optical element can change these point sources, for example an aperture allows only a small area to be filled with these point sources. To find the field at a point P at location R we sum over the infinite point sources taking into account these all have different distances to R. This is written as:

$$E = \frac{\epsilon_A e^{i(\omega t - kR)}}{R} \iint_{\text{Aperture}} e^{ik(Yy + Zz)/R} dS \quad (1a)$$

hecht 10.41 where: Y,Z are the coord of the field in the image plane
y,z coord of the point source

We only want the amplitude for the PSF thus drop the phase info (e power etc). To account for changes in phase and magnitude of the field caused by Optical instruments we including an aperture function. This results in:

$$\mathcal{A}(y, z) = \mathcal{A}_0(y, z) e^{i\phi(y, z)} \quad (2a)$$

hecht 11.62 here: expl vars.

$$E(Y, Z) = \iint_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathcal{A}(y, z) e^{ik(Yy + Zz)/R} dy dz \quad (3a)$$

hecht 11.63 here: expl vars.

The above still depends on the distance from the screen R. We can rewrite it by substituting $K_y = kY/R$ and $K_z = kZ/R$ for Y and Z. This gives the final form:

$$E(K_Y, K_Z) = \iint_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathcal{A}(y, z) e^{i(K_Y y + K_Z z)/R} dy dz \quad (4a)$$

hecht 11.66 with: expl vars

Ignoring one of the dimensions this reduces to the Fourier transformation of the aperture function. Thus "the field distribution in the fraunhofer diffraction pattern is the Fourier transform of the field distribution across the aperture (e.i., the aperture function)" /citehecht.

This means we can calculate the PSF of the vApp by simply Fourier transforming its aperture function. The aperture function is given by the phase modification and aperture shape of the vApp. These are given.

Now we have the PSF we know how a single point source would look when imaged by the vApp. If we assume the vApp is a linear system where changing the location of the input only changes the location of the output. Thus disregarding possible aberrations. We can use the superposition principle. To create an image of any extended source we simply sum over the PSF of the discrete sources that make up the extended source. More generally we convolve the PSF and the extended source.

2.2 VAPP

The vApp /refpapervApp is a coronagraph placed at the pupil of a telescope. It blocks part of the star light making it possible to observe faint objects close to a star. The vApp does this by modifying the phase of incoming light. This phase change flips the light in a D-shaped region around the star to the other side. Thus any faint object next to the star in the now dark region becomes visible. This is done mirrored for 2 duplications of the image. Thus it does not matter where around the star the object is.

2.2.1 adding atmospheric effects

Unfortunately using a PSF to simulate observed data neglects the effect of the atmosphere. These effects are an unwanted optical system in front of the instrument. With adaptive optics (AO) the effects can be reduced. However AO create their own distortions, these are known as speckles. As the light passes through the AO before hitting the vApp, the vApp PSF is applied to the AO PSF. As the atmosphere changes the AO PSF will change with it. This results in a total PSF that changes over time.

To simulate an observation do not use a single psf as given by /cite-vApp as during an observation the combined psf of the atmosphere and instrument changes. A complete simulation of these effects is out of the scope of this thesis. We instead decided to try and approach a similar morphology to the on sky psf.

First we tried modifying a given single vApp psf to get a set of disturbed psfs. To achieve this a pattern is added to the Fourier transform of the psf before transforming it back from Fourier space, see the equation below. The pattern is then shifted for every timestep.

$$\mathcal{F}_{2d}^{-1} \left(\text{intensity} \cdot \mathcal{F}_{2d}(\text{psf}) \cdot \text{pattern} + (1 - \text{intensity}) \cdot \mathcal{F}_{2d}(\text{psf}) \right)$$

(5)

The best results were achieved using a grid of blurred circles as pattern, see Figure 3. Note the distortions to the psf are clustered around the center of its peaks but not randomly spread. Clearly this will not do.

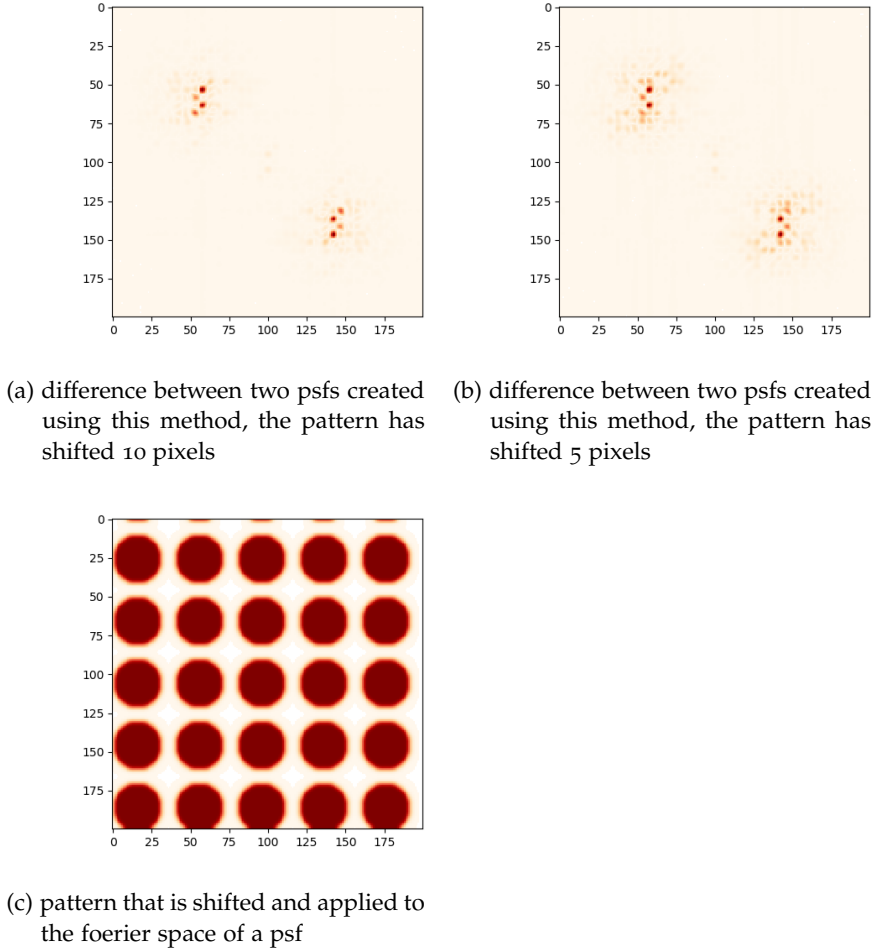


Figure 3: Pattern (a) and the differences between psfs **distorted** with this pattern using the method described above

Then we tried a simulation of the psfs using HCIPy, an open-source object-oriented framework written in Python for performing end-to-end simulations of high-contrast imaging instruments [hcupy]. The framework is used to do a very rough simulation. We use the provided methods to create a multi-layer atmospheric model that changes in time. Then we use that model, the vApp amplitude and vApp phase screen to generate a series of psfs. Instead of modelling an active optics system we modified the Fried parameter for the atmosphere to get similar morphological changes in time to the available on sky images. This is sufficient as the disk will always lie within theradius of correction???..... which means the limiting effect of

an AO system on the disk will only be a increase in resolution by reducing the seeing effect.

Wu use a telescope diameter of 8.2meters and a wavelength, of $1 \cdot 10^{-6}$ meters for the simulation. We got the right morphology with a fied paramater of 4m. To put this into perspective: to simulate excellent seeing conditions we would use 20cm. With these setting we use hcipy to create an orderd set of psfs changing through time as the simulated atmosphere evolves. See [Figure 4](#) for the diffrence between the first psf in a set and later psfs in the same set. Note that as time evolves the differences grow.

2.3 DISK MODEL

A newly formed star is enveloped in a disk of gass and dust, a proto-planetary disk.

–something about the components/dust/gass refwilliams

From it planets can form. The process of planet formation is not yet understoot. Direct imaging of newly formed planets is hard. Objects inside a disk disturb the shape and create features in the disk. By observing the features of a disk we can learn more about planet formation.

2.3.1 Catogorisation

Roughly speaking disks seem to be ring or spiral shaped with some forms in between. /refgarufi classifies them into 6 catogories see ??.

They then conclude that: -faint disks are young -spiral disks are almost starting their main sequence -ring disk have no outer stellar companion (??)

2.3.2 The model

We use a 2-dimensional disk model based on the work by **[Pieter_Okko]**. The model has 4 basic parameters:

INCLINATION The angle the disk is tilted towards the observer. A 0 degrees inclination gives a face on disk and 90 degrees a horizontal line being an edge on disk. As illustrated in ??

POSITION ANGLE After inclination the disk can be rotated around the line of sight from the observer, rotation to the left is positive. See ??

INNER AND OUTER RADIUS Many disks start and stop at some radius from star. The inner and outer radius are relative to the field size that defaults to 10. An Inner radius of 2 gives a hole in the disk with a diameter 20% of the image width.

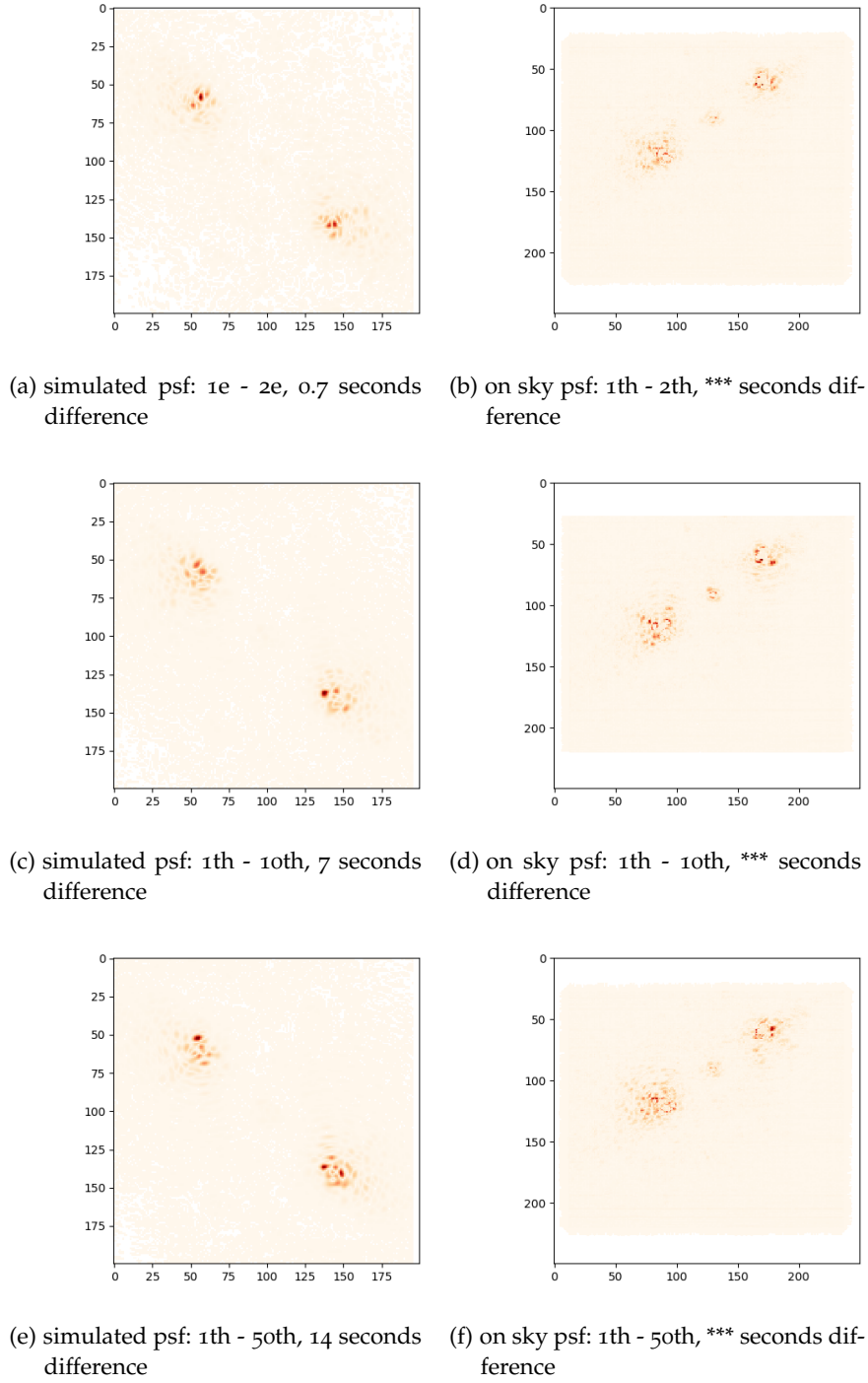
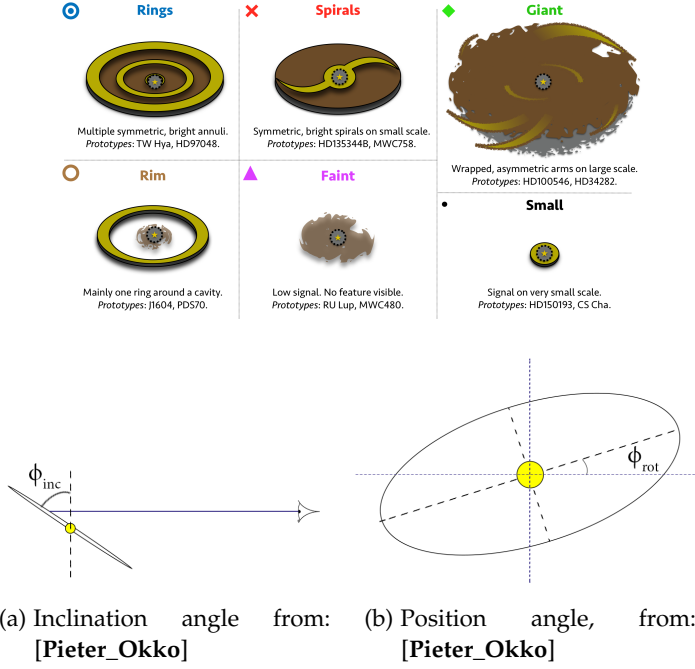


Figure 4: Differences between the first psf of an observation and later psfs. Compared between simulated observations on the left and on sky data on the right. The psfs were aligned then normalised on the maximum of the leakage term, finally the absolute value of the difference between the first and n-th psf was taken. The second, 10th and 50th simulated psf are 0.7, 7 and 14 seconds apart in the simulation

Figure 5: Sketch summarizing the different classifications of protoplanetary disks proposed by /ref



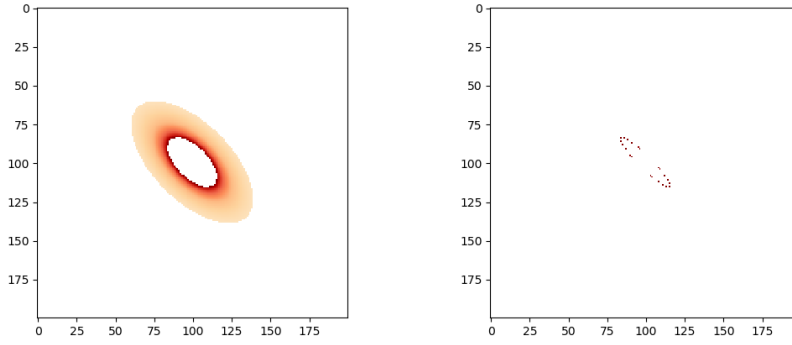
The disk is modeled as optically thick and does not emit light on its own. At a certain radii between the inner and outer radii the disks brightness is given by:

$$B(r) = B_{star} \cdot \left(\frac{r}{R_{star}} \right)^2 \quad (6)$$

We rasterize the image onto a resolution of 200 by 200 pixels. This not only speeds up our calculations it also is the expected output of an actual observing session. The model behaves well for most disks however on this resolution features that are small in the observers plane are pixilated as we see in Figure 7 below. This poses no problem as we do not expect to resolve such features.

2.3.3 Challenging to Observe

It is challenging to observe a disk since its brightness is low compared to the star. To get an upper limit on the brightness of a disk assume all star light that hits the disk is reflected towards us. The light from a star drops quadratically as it gets farther away. Thus we will never have a disk brightness exceeding $1/R^2$. A disk at 1 AU from an run like star will have a brightness 2.1×10^{-5} of the star. At 5 AU this drops to 8.6×10^{-7} .



(a) model output for an inclination of 60 deg, an inner radius of 2 and an outer radius of 5 (b) model output for an inclination of 80 deg, an inner radius of 2.2 and an outer radius of 2.3

Figure 7: two disks created by the model with different size and inclination both with a position angle of 45 degrees

2.4 CREATING AN OBSERVATION

To get a dataset that simulates an observation we create an ordered set of disk images each one rotated a bit to each other. This accounts for the field rotation caused by observing with an alt azimuth telescope. Now to get the simulated observation an ordered set is created by convolving each n-th image from the disk set with the n-th image of the psf set. These are the simulated observations through time.

Using variations on this method we create 3 different sets.

1. Place a single pixel with value one in the center of the disk before going through the above procedure. This is our observation set.
2. Swap the disk with the single pixel in the center representing the star. This set we use to check what artefacts are created by the reduction
3. Take the convolution of the n-th disk image with the first psf image of the psf set. This way we lose all atmospheric effects, since we haven't placed a star in the center we see only the effect of the vApp on the disk image.

