Calibration of colour gradient bias in shear measurement using HST/CANDELS data

X. Er¹*, H. Hoekstra², T. Schrabback³, V. F. Cardone¹, R. Scaramella¹, R. Maoli⁴, M. Vicinanza^{1,4,5}, B. Gillis⁶ J. Rhodes^{7,8}

Accepted -; received -; in original from 27 July 2017

ABSTRACT

Accurate shape measurements are essential to infer cosmological parameters from large area weak gravitational lensing studies. The compact diffraction-limited point-spread function (PSF) in space-based observations is greatly beneficial, but its chromaticity can lead to new subtle effects that could hitherto be ignored: the PSF of a galaxy is no longer uniquely defined and spatial variations in the colours of galaxies result in biases in the inferred lensing signal. Taking *Euclid* as a reference, we show that this colour-gradient bias (CG bias) can be quantified with high accuracy using available multi-colour *Hubble* Space Telescope (HST) data. In particular we study how noise in the HST observations might impact such measurements and find this to be negligible. We determine the CG bias using HST observations in the F606W and F814W filters and observe a correlation with the colour, in line with expectations, whereas the dependence with redshift is weak. The biases for individual galaxies are generally well below 1%, which may be reduced further using morphological information from the *Euclid* data. Our results demonstrate that CG bias should not be ignored, but it is possible to determine its amplitude with sufficient precision, so that it will not significantly bias the weak lensing measurements using *Euclid* data.

Key words: cosmology, weak lensing, systematics

1 INTRODUCTION

The images of distant galaxies are distorted, or sheared, by the tidal effect of the gravitational potential generated by intervening matter; an effect commonly referred to as weak gravitational lensing (see e.g. Bartelmann & Schneider 2001, for a detailed introduction). The resulting correlations in the shapes can be related directly to the statistical properties of the mass distribution in the Universe, which in turn depend on cosmological parameters. Hence weak gravitational lensing by large-scale structure, or cosmic shear, has been identified as a powerful tool for cosmology. The measurement of the signal as a function of cosmological time is sensitive to the expansion history and the growth rate of large-scale structures, and thus can be used to constrain models for dark energy and

A useful measurement of the cosmic shear signal requires av-

* er.xinzhong@oa-roma.inaf.it

eraging over large numbers of galaxies to reduce the uncertainty caused by the intrinsic ellipticities of galaxies. The result is, however, only meaningful if biases in the shape estimates are negligible. Various instrumental effects change the observed ellipticities by more than the typical lensing signal, which is of order one per cent. The most dominant source of bias is the smearing of the images by the point spread function (PSF), driving the desire for space-based observations (Paulin-Henriksson et al. 2008; Massey et al. 2013). Despite these observational challenges, the most recent cosmic shear studies are starting to yield competitive constraints on cosmological parameters (Heymans et al. 2013; Jarvis et al. 2016; Jee et al. 2016; Hildebrandt et al. 2017). These results are based on surveys of modest areas of the sky, which limits their ability to study the nature of dark energy; to achieve that requires more than an order of magnitude improvement in precision.

Such a measurement is the objective of *Euclid* (Laureijs et al. 2011), the dark energy mission of the European Space Agency (ESA) that will survey the 15 000 deg² of extragalactic sky that

¹ I.N.A.F. - Osservatorio Astronomico di Roma, via Frascati 33, 00040 - Monte Porzio Catone, Roma, Italy

²Leiden Observatory, Leiden University, PO Box 9513, NL-230 RA, Leiden, the Netherlands

³Argelander Instutite für Astronomie, Auf dem Hügel 71, D-53121 Bonn, Germany

⁴Dipartimento di Fisica, Universita di Roma "La Sapienza", Piazzale Aldo Moro, 00185 - Roma, Italy

⁵Dipartimento di Fisica, Universita di Roma "Tor Vergata", via della Ricerca Scientifica 1, 00133 - Roma, Italy

⁶Royal Observatory, University of Edinburgh, Blackford Hill, Edinburgh EH9 3HJ, UK

⁷ Jet Propulsion Laboratory, California Institute of Technology, 4800 Oak Grove Drive, Pasadena, CA 91109, USA

⁸ California Institute of Technology, 1200 East California Blvd, Pasadena, CA 91125, USA

have both low extinction and low zodiacal light. To reduce the detrimental effects of noise on the shape measurements, the images used for the lensing analysis are observed using a wide bandpass (550-920 nm). The much smaller PSF in space-based observations is a major advantage, but the diffraction-limited PSF leads to new complications.

The most prominent one is that the correction for the smearing by the chromatic PSF depends on the spectral energy distribution (SED) of the galaxy of interest (Cypriano et al. 2010; Eriksen & Hoekstra 2017) and ignoring this would lead to significant biases in the case of Euclid. Fortunately this can be accounted for using the supporting broad-band observations that are used to derive photometric redshifts for the sources: the correction employs an effective PSF that is derived from the estimate of the observed SED of the galaxy. This correction is sufficient if the SED does not vary spatially. If this is not the case, the underlying brightness distribution, which is needed for an unbiased estimate of the shear, cannot be unambiguously recovered from the observed images. This results in a higher-order systematic bias, which we call colourgradient bias (or CG bias in short). As shown by Semboloni et al. (2013) (S13 hereafter) the amplitude depends on several factors: the SED of the galaxy, the relative size of the galaxy compared to the PSF, and the width of the bandpass, $\Delta \lambda$. For instance, the bias scales as $\Delta \lambda^2$, and thus is particularly relevant in the case of Eu-

Galaxies show a wide variety in colour gradients, probably caused by changes in the properties of the underlying stellar populations. In particular, elliptical galaxies (ETGs) show mostly negative colour gradients (redder in the centre and bluer in the outskirts), with steeper gradients more commonly found in bluer or more luminous ETGs (e.g. Ferreras et al. 2005; den Brok et al. 2011; Gonzalez-Perez et al. 2011). Contrasting these colour gradients with population synthesis models suggest a dominant radial trend in metallicity for red sequence ETGs (e.g. La Barbera et al. 2011; Kennedy et al. 2016). However, towards z > 0.5 a sizeable fraction of ETGs display blue cores, leading to a substantial population of young stars in these galaxies, a trend that can be expected to increase with redshift (Ferreras et al. 2009; Suh et al. 2010). In contrast, the more complex distribution of age and metallicity in late-type galaxies translates into a different behaviour regarding colour gradient (Taylor et al. 2005). Hence the relation between galaxy morphology and density may cause the CG bias to vary across the sky and may lead to correlations with the lensing signal itself.

It is important that all systematic sources of biases are accounted for to a level that is smaller than the statistical uncertainties. In the case of Euclid this leads to tight requirements, as detailed in Massey et al. (2013) and Cropper et al. (2013). Initial studies by Voigt et al. (2012) and S13 used simulated images to show that the CG bias could be substantial, exceeding nominal requirements for the multiplicative bias in the shear. They also argued that it should be possible to calibrate the bias using Hubble Space Telescope (HST) observations of a large sample of galaxies in the F606W and F814W filters. However, their conclusions are based on the analysis of simulated noiseless data. In this work, we revisit the issue of the calibration of CG bias, with a particular focus on determining the bias from data with realistic noise levels.

In Sect. 2, we describe the main concepts and introduce the notation. We present the results from the analysis of simulated images in Sect. 3. In particular we explore the impact of having to use noisy data to measure the CG bias in Sect. 3.2. In Sect. 4 we estimate the CG bias using HST observations from the Cosmic Assembly Near-infrared Deep Extragalactic Legacy Survey (CANDELS; Koekemoer et al. 2011).

2 THE ORIGIN OF COLOUR GRADIENT BIAS

Following the notation of S13, we consider an image of a galaxy, and denote the photon brightness distribution of the image at each position θ and wavelength λ by $I(\theta; \lambda)$, which is related to the intensity $S(\theta; \lambda)$ by $I^0(\theta; \lambda) = \lambda S(\theta; \lambda) T(\lambda)$, where $T(\lambda)$ is the normalised transmission. We take this to be a top-hat with a width $\Delta\lambda$ around a central wavelength $\lambda_{\rm cen}$. The resulting image of the galaxy, observed using a telescope with a PSF $P(\theta; \lambda)$ is given by:

$$I^{\text{obs}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \int_{\Delta \lambda} I^{0}(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \lambda) * P(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \lambda) \, d\lambda, \tag{1}$$

where * denotes a convolution.

A measurement of the ellipticity of a galaxy provides an unbiased (but noisy) estimate of the weak gravitational lensing signal, quantified by the complex shear $\gamma = \gamma_1 + i\gamma_2$. The ellipticity ϵ in turn can be determined from the second order brightness moments Q_{ij}^0 of the PSF-corrected image $I^0(\theta)$:

$$\epsilon_1 + i\epsilon_2 \approx \frac{Q_{11}^0 - Q_{22}^0 + 2iQ_{12}^0}{Q_{11}^0 + Q_{22}^0 + 2(Q_{11}^0 Q_{22}^0 - (Q_{12}^0)^2)^{1/2}}$$
 (2)

where the second order brightness moments are given by 1

$$Q_{ij}^{0} = \frac{1}{F} \int I^{0}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \,\theta_{i} \theta_{j} \,\mathrm{d}^{2} \boldsymbol{\theta} \quad (i, j = 1, 2), \tag{3}$$

where $F = \int d^2 \theta I^0(\theta)$ is the total observed photon flux.

In practice, however, the observed moments are measured from the PSF-convolved image given by Eqn. (1). Moreover, the moments are evaluated using a weight function $W(\theta)$ to reduce the effect of noise in the images. Hence, the observed quadrupole moments are given by

$$Q_{ij}^{\text{obs}} = \frac{1}{F_{\text{w}}} \int_{\Delta \lambda} d\lambda \int d^2 \boldsymbol{\theta} \, I^0(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \lambda) * P(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \lambda) \, \theta_i \theta_j \, W(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \,, \tag{4}$$

where $F_{\rm w}$ is the weighted flux. The use of a weight function biases the observed moments, and the aim of moment-based shape measurement algorithms is to correct for this using estimates of the higher order moments (e.g. Kaiser et al. 1995; Melchior et al. 2011). An alternative approach is to fit sheared, PSF-convolved models to the observed images (e.g. Bridle et al. 2002; Miller et al. 2013); in these fitting methods the profile itself acts as a weight.

S13 showed that the inevitable use of a weight function gives rise to the CG bias. Consequently, the bias depends on the choice of the weight function, and vanishes in the case of unweighted moments. In the latter case it is possible to determine the PSFcorrected moments \boldsymbol{Q}_{ij}^{0} from the observed quadrupole moments because

$$Q_{ij}^{\text{obs}} = Q_{ij}^0 + P_{ij}^{\text{eff}} \tag{5}$$

for unweighted moments, where P_{ij}^{eff} are the quadrupole moments of the effective PSF, defined as

$$P^{\text{eff}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{F} \int d\lambda P(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \lambda) F(\lambda), \qquad (6)$$

where $F(\lambda)$ is the photon flux as a function of wavelength, which

¹ We implicitly assume that the moments are evaluated around the position where the dipole moments vanish.

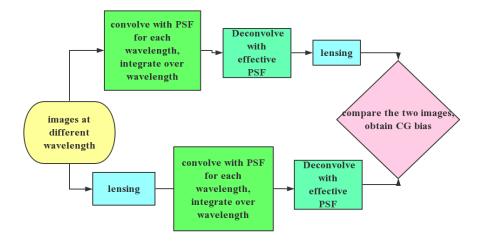


Figure 1. Flowchart describing how the colour-gradient bias is determined. The initial image is the same in both flows, but in the top flow an image without a colour gradient is created to which a shear is applied. In the bottom flow, the image is sheared before the PSF steps are applied. The ellipticities of the resulting images differ slightly, and can be used to quantify the bias that is introduced.

is directly related to the spectral energy distribution (SED) of the galaxy. Hence the correction for the chromatic PSF requires an estimate of the SED. Eriksen & Hoekstra (2017) have shown that the broadband observations that are used to determine photometric redshifts for *Euclid* can also be used to estimate the effective PSF with sufficient accuracy to meet the stringent requirements presented in Cropper et al. (2013).

We limit our study of the CG bias to the multiplicative bias it introduces, and our approach to quantify the impact on the lensing signal is similar to S13. Figure 1 shows the flowchart of the steps that enable us to evaluate the CG bias. In both cases we start with the same wavelength-dependent image $I^0(\theta;\lambda)$, but the bottom flow resembles what happens in the actual observations: the original image is sheared before the convolution with the PSF. The deconvolution with the effective PSF then yields the PSF-corrected shape In the top flow the PSF steps are applied first, resulting in an image without a colour gradient that is subsequently sheared.

We measure the ellipticities of the resulting images to estimate the CG bias. To reduce noise in our estimate of the multiplicative bias m we use the ring-test method (Nakajima & Bernstein 2007) where we create eight copies of the original galaxy (i.e. prelensed and pre-PSF convolution) but with different orientations. The ensemble-averaged ellipticities then provide an estimate of the multiplicative CG bias, m (we do not explore additive bias here), via

$$m = \frac{\epsilon^{\text{CG}}}{\epsilon^{\text{NCG}}} - 1, \tag{7}$$

where 'CG' indicates the case where the galaxy has a colour gradient, and 'NCG' is the galaxy with a uniform colour. Note that our approach differs slightly from that in S13, who quantify the response of the observed ellipticity to an applied shear. Consequently

their definition of m has the opposite sign. The procedural difference with S13 is that they do not apply the last step in the bottom flow (the deconvolution), but rather convolve the final image in the top flow. The steps presented in Fig. 1 yield a more symmetric result, highlighting the fact that the CG bias is the consequence of the fact that the shearing of the image does not commute with the convolution with the PSF. However, we verify in Sect. 3 that we recover the results of S13 (but with an opposite sign).

Recently, Huff & Mandelbaum (2017) proposed a technique to infer multiplicative shear calibration parameters that avoids the use of extensive image simulations, such as those described in (Hoekstra et al. 2017). They quantify the sensitivity to a known shear by applying it to the observed data. Hence, their approach follows the top flow in Fig. 1 and thus cannot account for CG bias.

3 COLOUR GRADIENT BIAS IN SIMULATED DATA

The CG bias is a higher-order systematic bias, and thus the changes in the measured ellipticities are small. It is therefore important to verify that numerical errors in the calculations are subdominant compared to the small effects we aim to measure. To do so, we compare results from two independent codes that are used to generate the simulated images: one is written in C/C++ and the other uses the python-based GALSIM package (Rowe et al. 2015), which is widely used to created simulated images (e.g. Fenech Conti et al. 2016; Hoekstra et al. 2017).

In the C code we compute the images using a sheared Sérsic profile, by multiplying the surface brightness at the centre of each pixel with the pixel area. In the case of GALSIM we use the SHEAR() function (which convolves the image by the pixel). Since we are interested in small differences in the shapes of deconvolved images, we first examined the size of potential numerical errors. We therefore convolved and subsequently deconvolved elliptical images. Comparison of the recovered ellipticities revealed small differences between the codes that ranged from 10^{-7} to 10^{-6} , two orders of magnitude smaller than the CG biases we are concerned with. Hence can safely neglect these numerical artefacts here.

As a further test we compare directly to the results obtained by

 $^{^2~}$ We use $\gamma_1=0.05$ and $\gamma_2=0.02$ as reference, but we verified that other values yield similar results.

³ We divide the effective PSF in Fourier space (Eqs. 12 and 13 in S13). For the noisy image, we perform deconvolution to the fitted image without the residual pixel noise.

4 *X. Er et al.*

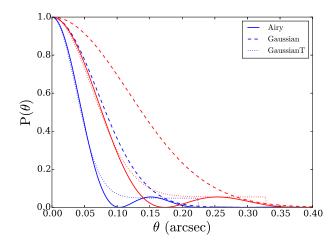


Figure 2. Comparison of the obscured Airy profile (solid), which is a good approximation to the *Euclid PSF*, to PSF1 (Gaussian; dashed) and PSF3 (compact Gaussian and top-hat; dotted) from S13. The profiles for 550 nm are indicated by the blue lines and the results for 920 nm are shown in red.

S13 for two reference galaxy models. The reference galaxies are modeled as the sum of a bulge and disk component. To describe the wavelength dependence of the images we use the galaxy SED templates from Coleman et al. (1980): we use the SED for an elliptical galaxy for the bulge and take the SED of an irregular galaxy for the disk. This choice ensures that the resulting colour gradients are large. The two components are described by a circular Sérsic profile:

$$I_{\rm S}(\theta) = I_0 e^{-\kappa \left(\frac{\theta}{a}\right)^{1/n}},\tag{8}$$

where I_0 is the central intensity, and $\kappa=1.9992\,n-0.3271$. For the bulge component we adopt n=1.5 and for the disk we use n=1. The profiles are normalised such that the bulge contains 25% of the flux at a wavelength of 550 nm. The galaxies are circular and the sizes for the bulge and disk for galaxy 'B' are 0.17 and 1.17, respectively. The second galaxy 'S' is smaller with sizes of 0.170 and 0.170 for the bulge and disk, respectively (also see Table 3 in S13). We create images with a size of 100 arcsec/pixel at wavelengths 1 nm apart and sum these in the range 10 m to mimic the Euclid pass-band.

To create the PSF-convolved images we consider several PSF profiles. For a direct comparison with S13 we use their reference PSF1. As discussed in S13 this PSF has a similar size as the nominal *Euclid* PSF, but a steeper wavelength-dependence. Our implementation of the pipeline was able to reproduce the results presented in S13. To better approximate the *Euclid* PSF S13 also considered a model that consists of a compact Gaussian core and an appropriately scaled top-hat (their PSF3). Instead we use here a more realistic obscured Airy profile, which is actually close to the *Euclid* design profile (Laureijs et al. 2011):

$$P(x) = \frac{I_0}{(1 - \epsilon^2)^2} \left(\frac{2J_1(x)}{x} - \frac{2\epsilon J_1(\epsilon x)}{x} \right)^2,$$
 (9)

where I_0 is the maximum intensity at the centre, ϵ is the aperture obscuration ratio, and $J_1(x)$ is the first kind of Bessel function of order one; x is defined as $x = \pi \theta/(\lambda D)$. In the case of *Euclid*, D = 1.2m and $\epsilon = 1/3$. We compare this model to the Gaussian case and PSF3 from S13 in Fig. 2 at 550 nm and 920 nm.

As discussed in Sect. 2 the amplitude of the bias depends

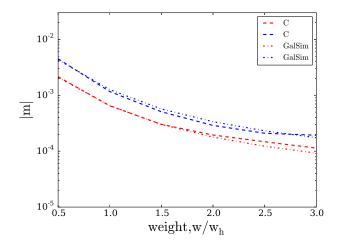


Figure 3. The CG bias in shear versus width of the weight function (in units of the half-light radius w_h) used to compute the quadrupole moments for the large ('B'; red) and small ('S'; blue) reference galaxy. The galaxies were convolved using the obscured Airy PSF. The dashed (dash-dotted) lines are our results for images simulated using the C (GALSIM) code.

on the width of the weight function that is used to compute the (weighted) quadrupole moments. In Fig. 3 we show the CG bias for the two reference galaxies as a function of $\theta_{\rm w}$, the width of the weight function that is used to compute the quadrupole moments. The results from the C code (dashed lines) and the GALSIM code (dotted lines) agree very well for both the large galaxy 'B' (red lines) and the small galaxy 'S' (blue lines). Given the consistent results between the C and GALSIM code we conclude that numerical errors are negligible in our implementation. In the remainder, we limit the simulations to those generated with GALSIM.

Figure 3 shows that the CG bias decreases rapidly when the width of the weight function is increased. This allows for an interesting trade-off between CG bias and noise bias. The latter increases with increasing $\theta_{\rm w}$ but relatively slowly (see Fig. 4 in S13). It also highlights that the CG bias itself differs between shape measurement methods, which typically use different weight functions. As a proxy for the optimal weight function (which maximizes the signal-to-noise ratio) we adopt the value of the half-light radius in the remainder of this paper. This yields $m=0.6\times 10^{-3}$ for galaxy 'B' and $m=1\times 10^{-3}$ for galaxy 'S', demonstrating that the CG bias is a strong function of galaxy size.

3.1 Impact in high-density regions

The focus of this paper is to quantify the impact of CG bias on cosmic shear measurements, i.e. we consider only small distortions in the shapes of the sources. However, *Euclid* will also enable the calibration of the masses of galaxy clusters with unprecedented precision. Köhlinger et al. (2015) have shown that this should be possible given the accuracy required for the shape measurement algorithms for cosmic shear. This does implicitly assume that the performance does not change in high density environments. Blending does impact the performance (Hoekstra et al. 2017), but can be accounted for. In this section we focus instead on the unexplored question whether the CG bias differs in the central regions of galaxy clusters.

In high density regions, higher order distortions of the images can become dominant. For instance, flexion (the next order

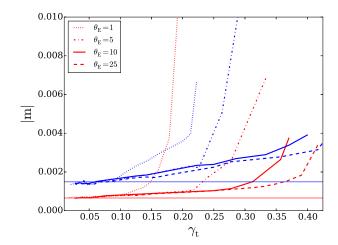


Figure 4. The CG bias versus tangential shear when the full lens equation is used to compute the image distortions. The red lines indicate the resulting CG bias for the 'B' galaxy, whereas the blue lines correspond to the 'S' galaxy. The bias depends on the Einstein radius, $\theta_{\rm E}$, of the lens, and is more prominent for small values of $\theta_{\rm E}$ at a given shear amplitude.

after shearing) has been studied as a potential observational tool (e.g. Goldberg & Natarajan 2002; Bacon et al. 2006; ?). Rather than simply shearing the images, as we have done so far, in this section we use the full lens equation to perform ray tracing simulations instead. This enables us to capture the effect of the higher order distortion. For this exercise we use the C code, as it has this functionality fully implemented. As a lens we consider a singular isothermal sphere (SIS) with an Einstein radius $\theta_{\rm E}$; in this case the (tangential) shear is given by $\gamma_{\rm t}=\frac{1}{2}\theta_{\rm E}/\theta$. To minimise numerical effects, the image sizes are increased to 2048×2048 pixels, with a resolution 0″.0125/pixel.

In Fig. 4 we show the CG bias as a function of the tangential shear for different values of $\theta_{\rm E}$. The red lines indicate the results for the 'B' galaxy and the blue lines show the biases for the 'S' galaxy. For small shears, i.e. far away from the lens, the CG bias converges to the shear-only case that we have studied thus far (the thin horizontal lines). Hence, for cosmic shear studies we can safely ignore this complication. However, as the source approaches the lens, the flexion signal increases, resulting in an increase in the CG bias. The change depends on the value of $\theta_{\rm E}$, because flexion is lower for a given shear when the source is further away from the lens. Hence, the additional CG bias due to higher order distortions is expected to be relatively small for clusters of galaxies (for which $\theta_{\rm E} > 10''$), but it can be relevant for studies of massive galaxies; in this case the Einstein radius is smaller, and the flexion signal larger. Figure 4 shows that for a lens with $\theta_{\rm E}=1''$ the CG bias rapidly increases when the shear $\gamma > 0.15$, i.e. for $\theta < 3''$. Thanks to the small PSF of Euclid it is possible to measure the galaxy-galaxy lensing signal on such small scales, which could in principle provide interesting constraints on the enclosed stellar mass. However, our findings indicate that colour gradients may prevent a robust measurement of the small-scale galaxy-galaxy lensing signal. This warrants further study that is beyond the scope of this paper.

3.2 Calibration of CG bias using simulated HST images

The Euclid observations lack high-resolution multi-band images to measure the CG bias directly for each source galaxy. However, the cosmological lensing signal is typically inferred from the ellipticity correlation function, which involves averaging the shapes of large ensembles of galaxies. Provided the average bias that is caused by colour gradients is known for a selection of sources, it is possible in principle to obtain unbiased estimates of the ellipticity correlation function. Here it is particularly important that the correction for the average CG bias accounts for the variation in redshift and colour. The former is relevant for tomographic cosmic shear studies, whereas the latter avoids significant spatial variation in the bias because of the correlation between galaxy colour, or morphology, and density.

\$13 showed that HST observations in both the F606W and F814W filters can be used to determine the CG bias to meet *Euclid* requirements. However, \$13 did not consider the complicating factor that the HST images themselves are noisy. Although the HST observations are typically deeper than the nominal *Euclid* data, and the HST PSF is considerably smaller, it is nonetheless necessary to investigate the impact of noise in more detail. We address this particular question here, before we determine the CG bias from actual HST data in Sect. 4.

The method to calibrate the CG bias using observations in two bands is described in detail in \$13, but here we outline the main steps for completeness. To model the wavelength dependence of the image we use two narrow-band⁴ images, each of which is given by:

$$I_i(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \int_{\Delta \lambda_i} T_i(\lambda) I(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \lambda) d\lambda, \qquad (10)$$

where $T_i(\lambda)$ is the transmission of the *i*th narrow filter. We assume that for each pixel the wavelength dependence of the image can be interpolated linearly:

$$I(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \lambda) \approx a_0(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + a_1(\boldsymbol{\theta})\lambda.$$
 (11)

Eqs.10 and 11 yield a linear set of equations for each pixel, which can be used to solve for the coefficients a_i :

$$T_{0i}a_0(\theta) + T_{1i}a_1(\theta) = I_i(\theta), \quad i = 1, 2,$$
 (12)

where we defined

$$T_{ji} = \int_{\Delta \lambda_i} d\lambda \, T_i(\lambda) \lambda^j. \tag{13}$$

We thus obtain approximate galaxy images at each wavelength, which we use to estimate the CG bias, following the same procedure as we used in the previous section.

We first consider the recovery of the CG bias for noiseless observations of the two reference galaxies, as this represents the best-case scenario. We simulate the images in the F606W and F814W filters at different redshifts. We adopt the native sampling of the Advanced Camera for Surveys (ACS) on HST of 0″.05 pixel $^{-1}$. As shown in S13, we cannot ignore the blurring of the observed images by the HST PSF; to mimic this we assume an obscured Airy function for a mirror with diameter $D=2.5\mathrm{m}$ and obscuration 0.33 as a proxy for the HST PSF. We deconvolve our synthetic HST images and create the images at different wavelengths as the starting point for the flow presented in Fig. 1.

Following S13, we show the CG bias as a function of redshift for galaxy 'B' (left panels) and 'S' (right panels) in Fig. 5,

⁴ To distinguish these filters from the broad VIS pass-band we refer to the F606W and F814W as narrow bands, but acknowledge that these are commonly referred to broad-band filters and that genuine narrow-band filters are significantly narrower.

demonstrating that the CG bias varies significantly with redshift. Note that we ignored any evolution in the galaxy SEDs, which will occur in practice. The results for the actual CG bias are indicated by the solid black lines, whereas the dashed black lines indicate the recovered values from the noiseless synthetic HST observations in the F606W and F814W filters. The bottom panels show the residuals between the recovered and the true bias. The residual bias is within the target tolerance for Euclid, indicated by the grey band, for all redshifts.

We now proceed to explore the impact of noise in the HST images. To do so, we add Gaussian noise to the simulated HST images, where the r.m.s. noise level σ is determined by the signalto-noise ratio of the galaxy, SNR; the total flux within an aperture of radius $1.5 \times r_h$, F_{tot} ; and the number of pixels within this aperture, $N_{\rm tot}$, such that

$$\sigma = \frac{F_{tot}}{\text{SNR}\sqrt{N_{tot}}}.$$
(14)

For reference, we compared the input SNR for the two reference galaxies to that estimated by SEXTRACTOR (Bertin & Arnouts 1996) (e.g. we use FLUX_AUTO in the estimation). We find good agreement for galaxy 'B' for SNR values ranging from 5 to 50 in both HST filters. The agreement is also good for the 'S' galaxy, but SEXTRACTOR returns lower values if the input SNR is larger than 30. We consider two noise levels: a SNR = 50 corresponds roughly to a VIS magnitude of $m_{\rm VIS}=23.7$, a bit brighter than the typical galaxy used in the Euclid weak lensing analysis; a SNR = 15 approximately corresponds to $m_{VIS} = 25.4$ (the corresponding magnitude of the two narrow bands is $m_{606} = 25.7$ and $m_{814} = 25.3$), the faintest galaxies that might be used.

The deconvolution of noisy images is problematic, because the presence of noise will lead to biased estimates of the underlying galaxy. Instead we regulate the problem by assuming that galaxies can be fit by a bulge and disk component, each described by a Sérsic profile. Real galaxies have more complex morphologies, including spiral arms, etc. To leading order, however, the radial surface brightness profile is the most important quantity, because we are interested in ensemble averages of large numbers of sources with random position angles: morphological features tend to average out in this case. Nonetheless, further investigation with realistic morphologies is needed, but our approach should capture most of the CG bias in real data.

We fit the bulge and disk model, convolved with the PSF, to the noisy images in each band and use the best fit model to compute the CG bias. To perform the fit, we use GALFIT (Peng et al. 2010) with the prior constraints on the galaxy parameters (Sérsic index, effective radius, and axis ratio) listed in Table 1. We combine the images in the two filters and use SEXTRACTOR to estimate the centre and some of the initial galaxy parameters to be used as the starting point by GALFIT. The resulting best-fit images depend somewhat on these initial values, and thus could affect the estimate for the CG bias. This will be more important when the SNR of the images is lower. To explore this we perform the fits using two sets of initial parameters: in the first we leave all parameters free, while in the other case we fix the Sérsic index to its simulated value, but leave the other parameters free.

We use the best fit models to compute the CG bias, following the algorithm that was used to compute the signal in the noiseless case. We show the resulting average inferred CG bias in Fig. 5 for SNR = 50 as a function of redshift for the two reference galaxies ('B' in the left panel and 'S' in the right panel). The bottom panels in Fig. 5 show the residuals Δm with respect to the true multi-

S-606W	S-814W	B-606W	B-814W
0.5-2.5	0.5-2.5	0.5-2.5	0.5-2.5
0.5 - 2.5	0.5 - 2.5	0.5-2.5	0.5-2.5
1-10	1-10	3-30	3-30
5-30	5-30	10-60	10-60
0.6-1	0.6-1	0.6-1	0.6-1
	0.5–2.5 0.5–2.5 1–10 5–30	0.5–2.5 0.5–2.5 0.5–2.5 0.5–2.5 1–10 1–10 5–30 5–30	0.5-2.5 0.5-2.5 0.5-2.5 0.5-2.5 0.5-2.5 0.5-2.5 1-10 1-10 3-30 5-30 5-30 10-60

Table 1. Constraints for the fitting parameters in GALFIT. The first two columns are for two images of the S-galaxy, the other two are the image of B-galaxy. n_1 is the Sérsic index for bulge, and n_2 is the Sérsic index for disk. The effect radius is given in unit of pixel (0.05 arcsec).

plicative CG bias. To determine the average bias we analyse six rotations of the galaxy and use the average value as our estimate of the galaxy ellipticity (Nakajima & Bernstein 2007). Moreover we create 40 noise realisations for each redshift to estimate the statistical uncertainty in our estimate of the multiplicative CG bias, which is given by

$$\sigma_m = |m| \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sigma_{\rm cg}\langle e_{\rm cg}\rangle}{\langle e_{\rm ncg}\rangle^2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\sigma_{\rm ncg}}{\langle e_{\rm ncg}\rangle}\right)^2},$$
 (15)

where $\sigma_{\rm ncg}$ and $\sigma_{\rm cg}$ are the uncertainties in the average ellipticities for the images without and with a colour gradient, respectively.

We find that fixing the Sérsic index (blue line) or leaving all parameters free (red line) results in a similar CG bias as a function of redshift. Moreover, the results closely resemble the noiseless case (dashed lines). The residuals presented in the bottom panel of Fig. 5 show that for the SNR = 50 case, we expect that the average CG bias can be determined with an overall accuracy that meets the adopted Euclid tolerance, indicated by the grey band. Only for the 'S' galaxy is the residual outside the nominal range at low redshifts, but we note that the reference galaxies have rather extreme colour gradients. Moreover, the significant deviations at z = 0.5and 0.9 arise because the adopted SED of the disk (Irr) contains strong emission lines (see Fig. 1 in \$13). These lines enter and exit the F606W filter at these redshifts, respectively, and the linear approximation for the wavelength dependence fails. In these, albeit extreme cases, two-band imaging may not be sufficient. To what extent this will affect the estimate of the CG bias requires further study.

The average CG bias for a particular subset of galaxies can be used to correct the ellipticity correlation function. This, however, increases the scatter of the estimate, especially if the distribution of biases is broad. Fortunately, Fig. 6 shows the distribution of multiplicative CG bias (combining results for the full redshift range) when the galaxies are detected in the narrow-band images with SNR=15. The distribution is skewed, and as expected, the broadest for the 'S' galaxy. Nonetheless the increase in shape noise due to an empirical correction for CG bias is negligible. We did increase the number of noise realisation to 1000 to ensure robust estimates of the average CG bias as a function of redshift. The resulting CG bias as a function of redshift are shown in Fig. 7. We also show the median bias as a function of redshift, which is slightly different, because the distribution itself is skewed. Nonetheless the bias is recovered to a level that is acceptable for Euclid.

3.3 PSF variations in narrow-band data

So far we implicitly assumed that the simple axisymmetric PSF used to mimic the HST data is perfectly known. In reality, however, the HST PSF is more complex, and varies spatially and as a function of time. The small field-of-view of ACS typically results

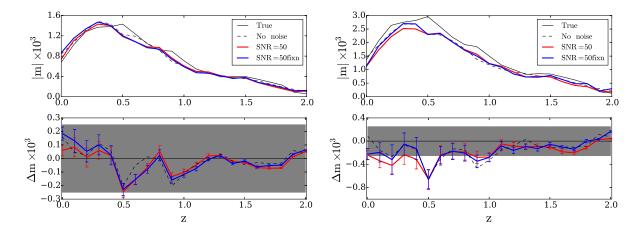


Figure 5. The multiplicative CG bias as a function of redshift for the reference galaxies, with the results for galaxy 'B' shown in the left panel and those for galaxy 'S' in the right panel. The dashed black line is the recovered bias when we mimic noiseless HST observations in two filters. The solid red line indicates the results when we use the best fit GALFIT model in both filters to estimate the CG bias when the simulated HST images have an input SNR = 50 (averaged over 40 noise realisations at each redshift). The blue line shows the results when we fix the Sérsic index in the fit. The bottom panels show the residuals Δm with respect to the true CG bias. The grey band indicates the nominal Euclid requirement.

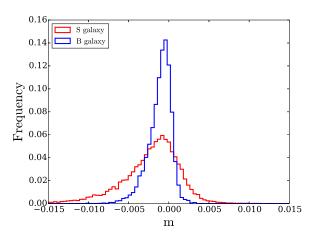


Figure 6. Histogram of the individual noisy estimates of inferred CG bias for the 'B' (blue) and 'S' (red) galaxy when narrow band observations with SNR=15 are used. The histogram combines the results for the different redshifts. For comparison, Fig. 7 shows the mean and median of the noisy estimates as a function of redshifts.

in a relatively small number of stars that can be used to model the PSF, although most of the variation can be captured with few parameters (e.g. Schrabback et al. 2010); of these focus variations are the most dominant. We therefore examine next how well the HST PSF properties need to be determined so that they do not affect the CG bias measurement significantly.

To do so, we first generate models where we slightly increase the PSF size in the two bands by computing the Airy profile when the wavelength in the calculation is increased by a factor 1.05, 1.10 and 1.15 for the three cases. This results the effective PSF in increases in the FWHM of 0.9% between the difference cases. These models are used only in the step where we deconvolve the simulated HST images in the absence of noise. The change in CG bias, Δm as a function of redshift is shown in Fig. 8 for the 'B' galaxy (top panel) and 'S' galaxy (bottom panel). The results for an increase in the PSF size in the F606W band are indicated by the solid, dashed and dotted lines, respectively; the red, green and blue lines

indicated the impact of increasing the size of the PSF in the F814W band. The sensitivity to the PSF errors is typically larger for low-redshift galaxies, but the change in CG bias is much smaller than the bias itself. As expected, small galaxies are more sensitive to errors in the estimate of the PSF size.

To mimic a more realistic scenario we generated mock star fields using simulated PSFs generated with the TINYTIM tool (Krist et al. 2011). To compute the reference PSFs at the various positions on the detector in the F606W and F814W filters we used the default parameters where possible, including the appropriate camera, detector, and filter passband settings for each image. We adopt the K7V spectrum for the SED, which represents a typical stellar SED in the sample (the choice of a fixed spectrum for stars was found to have a negligible impact on the models.). We select stars with a signal-to-noise ratio larger than 50, and ensure there are no detected objects within 1 arcsecond (20 pixels), and outlier rejection is performed based on the measured moments and sizes of the stars. The postage stamps of the star images for each filter are normalised and then stacked using inverse-variance weighting. This PSF is then used to determine the colour gradient bias from the synthetic HST images of the two reference galaxies (which are convolved with an obscured Airy function for a mirror with diameter D = 2.5m and obscuration 0.33 as a proxy for the HST PSF). The blue lines in Fig. 9 show the resulting difference in CG bias for the 'B' (top panel) and 'S' galaxy (bottom panel) as a function of redshift. Although this represents a rather significant mismatch in PSFs, the change in bias is quite small.

To mimic modeling errors that would occur in reality we select simulated PSF images at a nearby position on the detector (from a grid of points) and fitted for the focus values (for details, see Gillis et al. in prep.). The corresponding model PSFs are stacked using the same weights as before. The resulting change in CG bias for the 'B' (top panel) and 'S' galaxy (bottom panel) as a function of redshift is shown by the red lines. The differences between the two TinyTim PSF models is well within requirements, even for the 'S' galaxy. These results therefore confirm the conclusion of S13 that the uncertainty in the HST PSF model has a negligible impact on the determination of the CG bias.

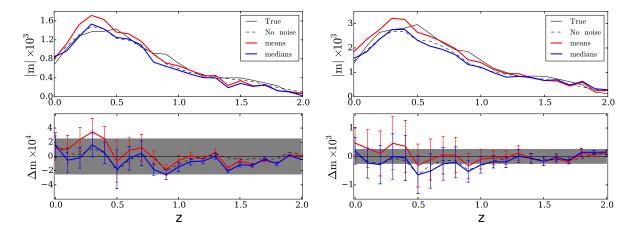


Figure 7. Same as Fig.5 but for images of SNR = 15. The red curve shows the mean bias, whereas the blue curve corresponds to the median. To compute the error-bars, 1000 realizations are used at each redshift bin for both the B- and the S-galaxy.

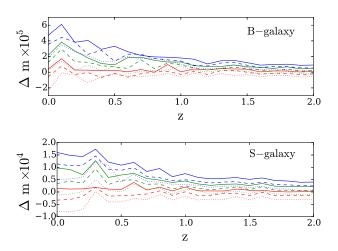


Figure 8. Change in multiplicative CG bias when the size of the PSF used in the deconvolution of the narrow band images is increased (the FWHM differs by 0.9% between steps). From red, green to blue lines, we increase the size of the PSF for the F814W filter; from the solid, dashed to dotted lines we increase the size of the PSF for the F606W images.

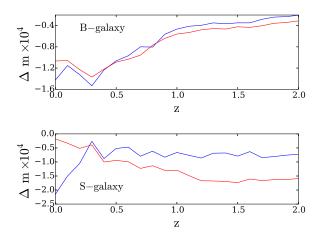


Figure 9. Difference in CG bias when the reference TINYTIM PSF is used to deconvolve the synthetic HST data (blue lines) or when we mimic the PSF modelling (red lines). The top panel shows the results for the reference galaxy 'B', whereas the bottom panel shows results for galaxy 'S'. The differences are small, suggesting that the bias is not particularly sensitive to errors in the adopted HST PSF model.

4 MEASUREMENT FROM HST OBSERVATIONS

In the previous section we confirmed the conclusion from S13 that it is possible to determine the CG bias from HST observations in the F606W and F814W filters. Importantly, we demonstrated that the presence of noise in the actual data should not bias the results significantly. We therefore proceed to determine the expected CG bias in *Euclid* shape measurements using realistic galaxy populations. To do so, we employ HST/ACS data taken in the F606W and F814W filters in three of the CANDELS fields (AEGIS, COSMOS, and UDS), which have a roughly homogeneous coverage in both bands (see Davis et al. 2007; Grogin et al. 2011; Koekemoer et al. 2011).

We base our analysis on a tile-wise reduction of the ACS data, incorporating pointings that have at least four exposures to facilitate good cosmic ray removal, yielding combined exposure times of 1.3–2.3ks in F606W and 2.1–3.0ks in F814W. We employ the updated correction for charge-transfer inefficiency from Massey et al. (2014), MULTIDRIZZLE (Koekemoer et al. 2003) for the cosmic

ray removal and stacking, as well as careful shift refinement, optimised weighting, and masking for stars and image artefacts as detailed in Schrabback et al. (2010). Schrabback et al. (2016) created weak lensing catalogues based on these images, and we refer to this paper for more detail. We base our analysis on the galaxies that pass their source selection and apply additional magnitude cuts as detailed below. To investigate the dependence of the colour gradient influence on galaxy colour and redshift, we match this galaxy catalogue to the photometric redshift catalogue from Skelton et al. (2014).

To resemble the selection of galaxies in the *Euclid* wide survey, we approximately estimate for the flux in the VIS-band by interpolating the F606W and F814W fluxes from Skelton et al. (2014) according to the effective wavelengths, where we adopted the central wavelength 735 nm for VIS. We select galaxies brighter than $m_{\rm VIS}=25$. The resulting sample sizes for the three CAN-DELS fields are listed in Table 2. The number densities are in line with expectations for *Euclid* (Laureijs et al. 2011). Most galaxies in

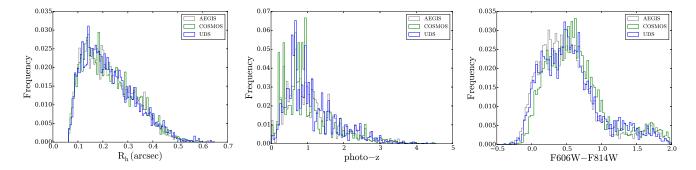


Figure 10. Histogram of the distributions in observed half-light radii (R_h ; left panel), photometric redshift (middle panel) and $m_{606} - m_{814}$ colour (right panel) for the three CANDELS fields (AEGIS, COSMOS, UDS). We show results for galaxies with $m_{VIS} < 25$, where the results for the three fields are normalised by area.

Field	AEGIS	COSMOS	UDS	Total
Area [arcmin ²]	180	139	146	465
Total number	5518	4794	4311	14623
Number density [arcmin ⁻²]	30.7	34.5	29.5	31.4

Table 2. Properties of the sample of galaxies selected in the HST CAN-DELS fields. We select galaxies with $m_{\rm VIS} < 25$.

our sample are detected with an SNR> 15, and we thus expect to be able to determine the CG bias accurately. In Fig. 10 we present histograms of some of the relevant galaxy properties for the three fields. We observe no significant differences, but note that we find more blue galaxies in AEGIS.

4.1 CG bias from CANDELS

We now proceed to apply the procedure we tested on synthetic galaxies to the HST observations to determine the expected CG bias for Euclid. We use the TINYTIM PSF when we fit the single component Sérsic models to the observations using GALFIT (see Sect. 3.3). We adopt priors on the Sérsic index (0.5 < n < 5.0), the effective radius (1 pixel $< r_e < 50$ pixels) and axis ratio (0.6 < q < 1.0). As before, we approximate the Euclid PSF using Eqn. (9). As described in Sect. 3.2 we interpolate the SED in each pixel of the model galaxy to generate a wavelength-dependent image, which is subsequently integrated and convolved to create the images with and without colour gradients. We create images with six different orientations that are sheared to estimate the multiplicative shear bias m caused by colour gradients.

Figure 11 shows the histogram of the CG bias for the three CANDELS fields that we study here. Note that the observed distribution is slightly broadened due to noise in the HST images (cf. the red histogram in Fig. 6). The mean bias is 1.1×10^{-4} and the distribution is quite peaked, with biases less than 0.01 for 94% of the galaxies. The biases decrease by about a factor five when we double the width of the weight function that is used to measure the shapes. This demonstrates that the amplitude of the CG bias will be quite sensitive to the adopted weight function and thus depends on

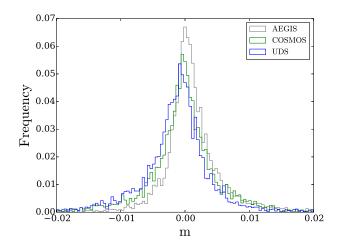


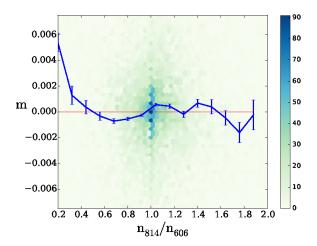
Figure 11. Histogram of the estimated multiplicative bias caused by colour gradients using HST observations. The results for the three different CAN-DELS fields are indicated by the different colours.

the adopted shape measurement algorithm: the CG bias will need to be determined for each algorithm that is applied to the data.

The amplitude of the CG bias depends on a number of parameters, such as the redshift and colour. Hence it is not sufficient to consider the average bias for the source sample, and we therefore explore such trends using our HST measurements. We first consider two quantities that should be directly related to the CG bias, namely the ratio of the Sérsic index in the two HST filters and the ratio of the effective radii in the two bands. The results are presented in Fig. 12. The top panel shows that the average CG bias does not depend significantly on the ratio of Sérsic indices; we do observe a significant trend when we consider the ratio of effective radii (bottom panel). This is not surprising, because the bias in shape measurements depends to leading order on the galaxy size (Massey et al. 2013). Note that the average CG bias in Fig. 12 vanishes when $r_{\rm eff,606} \approx r_{\rm eff,814}$: in this case there should be no significant colour gradient (as the difference in Sérsic index has only a minor impact).

These structural parameters are, however, not observable using the *Euclid* data. Instead we proceed to examine trends with observable properties that correlate with the amplitude of the lensing signal, namely source redshift (the lensing signal is higher for more distant sources) and colour (as galaxies tend to be redder in high density regions). We show the CG bias as a function of the

We also try to fit the galaxy with two components Sérsic models, but failed in a large fraction of galaxies. Thus we decide to use single component in the fitting.



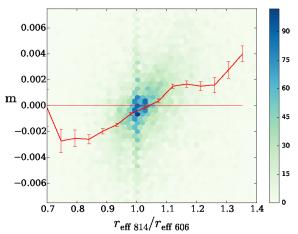


Figure 12. Multiplicative CG bias as a function of structural parameters in the fit to the surface brightness profiles in the F606W and F814W filters. *Top panel:* bias as a function of the ratio of the best fit Sérsic index in the F814W and F606W filters. The line with errorbars shows the average and its uncertainty. *Bottom panel:* bias as a function of effective radii in the F814W and F606W filters. We observe a clear trend in the average bias as a function of this ratio. The colour of the hexagon stands for the number of galaxies.

 $m_{606}-m_{814}$ colour in the left panel of Fig. 13, which shows that the average bias decreases for redder galaxies.

As the mean colour varies with redshift, we show the CG bias as a function of redshift in the right panel of Fig. 13. Because the bias depends on colour, we split the sample into two groups. The average bias for the red galaxies ($m_{606}-m_{814}>0.5$) is indicated by the red line. The bias is negative and nearly constant over the redshift range of interest. Similar results are obtained for the blue galaxies (defined as $m_{606}-m_{814}<0.5$), but in this case the mean bias is positive. The average CG biases and their dispersions for the two samples in various broad redshift bins are listed in Table 3.

4.2 Use of morphological information

The lack of resolved multi-colour data from *Euclid* prevents us from measuring colour gradients directly, but it may be possible to use some of the morphological information that can be obtained from the VIS image. This is supported by the results presented in Fig. 14. The top panel shows the CG bias as a function of the Sérsic

photo-z	Number	$\langle m \rangle$	σ_m
0 - 0.4	399	-5.6×10^{-4}	0.0024
0.4 - 0.8	3163	-7.1×10^{-4}	0.0036
0.8 - 1.2	2960	-6.4×10^{-4}	0.0046
> 1.2	958	-1.4×10^{-3}	0.0062
0 - 0.4	1513	6.2×10^{-4}	0.0026
0.4 - 0.8	1154	1.9×10^{-4}	0.0029
0.8 - 1.2	537	1.3×10^{-3}	0.0039
> 1.2	3921	4.8×10^{-4}	0.0040

Table 3. The number of objects, average and r.m.s. As the CG bias does not follow Gaussian distribution, the value is estimated by the range that contains 68% of the measurements. CG bias in redshift bins for red (top half, $m_{606}-m_{814}>0.5$) and blue (bottom half, $m_{606}-m_{814}<0.5$) galaxies.

index measured from the VIS images when we split the sample based on the observed effective radii (galaxies with $r_{\rm eff}>0.^{\prime\prime}35$ are classified as 'large' and the others as 'small'). The large galaxies cover a large range of Sérsic index and have on average a negative average CG bias. Most of small galaxies have small Sérsic indices (< 2.5), and the average bias is positive, with slightly larger values for $n\sim4$. In the bottom panel of Fig. 14 the galaxies are divided into three groups: red galaxies with $m_{606}-m_{814}>1.0$; the remaining galaxies are subdivided into those with large Sérsic indices (n>2.25), 'early type galaxies') or small Sérsic indices ('disk galaxies'). The lines show the average CG bias as a function of effective radius.

These results suggest that the VIS image can provide additional information that can be used in combination with the observed colour and redshift to refine the estimate of the CG bias. We find that the average bias is small for disk galaxies, as is the scatter in the bias for small disk galaxies ($r_{\rm eff} < 1''$). The early type galaxies cover a large range in size, and the bias is significant for the reddest galaxies, albeit with increased scatter. Further trends could be explored when larger multi-colour HST data sets are considered. In particular machine-learning techniques could be used to explore parameter combinations that reduce the scatter in the estimate for the CG bias for individual galaxies.

We can use the values for the scatter in the CG bias (listed in Table 3) to estimate the number of galaxies that we need to calibrate the bias with high precision. We estimate we need approximately 200 galaxies for each type of galaxy in every redshift bin. If we consider relatively wide bins, for instance, two types of colour: red and blue; five different sizes from about 0.1 arcsec to 1.0 arcsec (Fig. 14), and five redshift bins, we require at least 20 000 galaxies. The numbers increase if we wish to use a finer SED classification (rather than simply blue and red). In our study we restricted the sample of observations that overlap with CANDELS, resulting in a total of almost 15 000 galaxies. Table 4 in \$13 estimates that the total area for which suitable HST data are available is significantly larger, yielding $50\,000 - -65\,000$ galaxies (where the exact number depends whether one would also accept F850LP observations). Hence we conclude that ample HST observations exist to determine the CG bias with sufficient accuracy and precision so that it does not significantly bias the Euclid cosmic shear measurements.

5 SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

The next generation of wide area deep imaging surveys will dramatically improve the precision with which the correlations in

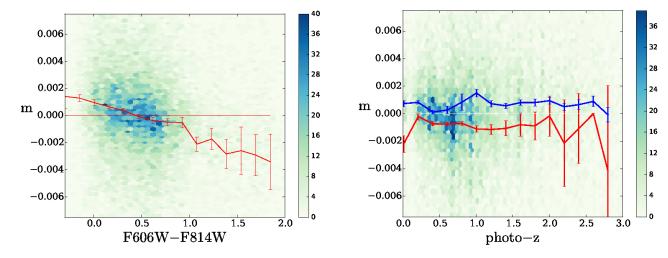


Figure 13. Multiplicative CG bias as a function of observed colour $(m_{606} - m_{814}; \text{ left panel})$ and redshift (right panel). We observe a clear trend of the average bias with colour (indicated by the red points with error bars in the left panel). In the right panel we split the sample into red $(m_{606} - m_{814} > 0.5; \text{ red line})$ and blue $(m_{606} - m_{814} < 0.5; \text{ blue line})$ galaxies. The variation with redshift is weak for both samples. The colour of hexagon stands for the number of galaxies.

galaxy shapes caused by weak gravitational lensing will be measured. However, to exploit these data, it is paramount that instrumental effects are accounted for. Many of these could hitherto be ignored, but this will not be the case any longer in the case of *Euclid*, *WFIRST* and LSST. Although the shape measurements greatly benefit from the compact diffraction-limited point spread function (PSF) in space-based observations, it is important that chromatic effects are accounted for. This is particularly relevant in the case of *Euclid*, which employs a broad pass band to maximise the signal-to-noise ratio of the measurements. This enhances its sensitivity to spatial variations in the colours of galaxies, which result in biases in the inferred lensing signal, unless accounted for.

In this paper we showed that the CG bias can be quantified with high accuracy using available multi-colour *Hubble* Space Telescope (HST) data. We validated our approach against earlier work presented by S13. Our implementation is different but yields consistent results (note that our definition does have the opposite sign compared to S13). We also extended the analysis to higher order lensing effects, which occur in high-density regions. Flexion leads to enhanced CG bias, but only close to the lens. Hence this can be relevant for small-scale galaxy-galaxy lensing studies with *Euclid*. It can, however, be safely ignored in the case of cluster studies and cosmic shear.

Previous studies ignored the potential detrimental effect of noise in the HST observations that are used to infer the CG bias. Fortunately, our results indicate that this does not change the CG bias estimates significantly for *Euclid* source galaxies, given the noise levels in the HST data used. It does slightly increase the noise in the shape measurements, but the biases for individual galaxies are generally well below 1%; much smaller than the intrinsic shapes of galaxies. The inferred bias depends strongly on the weight function used to measure shapes. Consequently the CG bias will need to be determined for each shape measurement algorithm separately.

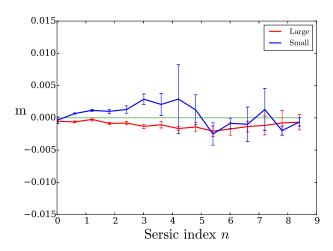
After testing our approach on simulated data, we measured the CG bias using HST/ACS observations in the F606W and F814W passbands. We used observations from three CANDELS fields, which have fairly uniform coverage in both filters, and for which redshift information is available. This allowed us to quantify the

CG bias as a function of redshift and colour. As expected, the CG bias correlates with observed colour, but the dependence with redshift is weak. Although the observed biases are small, they cannot be ignored for *Euclid*. Although further study is required, we find that it should be possible to reduce the bias for individual galaxies by using morphological information (e.g. Sérsic index, effective radius) that can be obtained from the *Euclid* data themselves.

We use the observed trends and scatter in the bias to estimate the number of galaxies for which similar high-quality HST data are needed. This leads to a minimum requirement of more than 20 000 galaxies, but much larger samples can already be obtained using existing HST data. If we restrict CG bias studies to F606W and F814W observations only, S13 estimated that a sample of 50 000 galaxies could be studied. Hence, our results demonstrate that, although the impact of CG bias cannot be ignored, it is possible to determine the impact with sufficient precision that it will not significantly bias the weak lensing measurements using *Euclid* data.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We would like to thank Emiliano Merlin, Marco Castellano for helping on SEXTRACTOR and GALFIT, Lance Miller, Gary Berstein, Adam Rogers, Ignacio Ferreras and also the members of the Euclid Consortium for useful discussions. XE and VFC are funded by Italian Space Agency (ASI) through contract Euclid -IC (I/031/10/0) and acknowledge financial contribution from the agreement ASI/INAF/I/023/12/0. XE is also partly support by NSFC Grant No. 11473032. HH acknowledges support from the European Research Council FP7 grant number 279396. TS acknowledges support from the German Federal Ministry for Economic Affairs and Energy (BMWi) provided via DLR under project no. 50QE1103. JR is supported by JPL, which is run by Caltech under a contract for NASA, and is supported by grant NASA ROSES 12-EUCLID12- 0004. The fast Fourier transforms are supplied by the FFTW library (Frigo & Johnson 2005). We use CFITSIO (Pence 1999) for the FITS file.



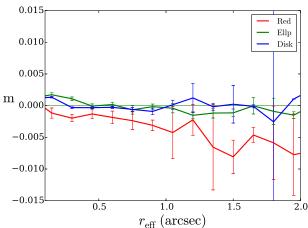


Figure 14. CG bias with Sérsic index (top) and effective radius (bottom) from the mock VIS images. In the top panel, the blue (red) is the average of small (big) galaxies. In the bottom panel, the red line is the average bias of red galaxies ($m_{606} - m_{814} > 1$); the green line is that of elliptical galaxies (n > 2.75); the blue line is for the disk galaxies.

REFERENCES

Bacon, D. J., Goldberg, D. M., Rowe, B. T. P., & Taylor, A. N. 2006, MN-RAS, 365, 414

Bartelmann, M. & Schneider, P. 2001, Phys. Rep., 340, 291

Bertin, E. & Arnouts, S. 1996, A&AS, 117, 393

Bridle, S. L., Kneib, J.-P., Bardeau, S., & Gull, S. F. 2002, in The Shapes of Galaxies and their Dark Halos, ed. P. Natarajan, 38–46

Coleman, G. D., Wu, C.-C., & Weedman, D. W. 1980, ApJS, 43, 393

Cropper, M., Hoekstra, H., Kitching, T., et al. 2013, MNRAS, 431, 3103

Cypriano, E. S., Amara, A., Voigt, L. M., et al. 2010, MNRAS, 405, 494

Davis, M., Guhathakurta, P., Konidaris, N. P., et al. 2007, ApJ, 660, L1

den Brok, M., Peletier, R. F., Valentijn, E. A., et al. 2011, MNRAS, 414, 3052

Eriksen, M. & Hoekstra, H. 2017, MNRAS, 405, 494

Fenech Conti, I., Herbonnet, R., Hoekstra, H., et al. 2016, ArXiv 1606.05337

Ferreras, I., Lisker, T., Carollo, C. M., Lilly, S. J., & Mobasher, B. 2005, ApJ, 635, 243

Ferreras, I., Lisker, T., Pasquali, A., & Kaviraj, S. 2009, MNRAS, 395, 554 Frigo, M. & Johnson, S. G. 2005, Proceedings of the IEEE, 93, 216, special issue on "Program Generation, Optimization, and Platform Adaptation"

Goldberg, D. M. & Natarajan, P. 2002, ApJ, 564, 65

Gonzalez-Perez, V., Castander, F. J., & Kauffmann, G. 2011, MNRAS, 411, 1151

Grogin, N. A., Kocevski, D. D., Faber, S. M., et al. 2011, ApJS, 197, 35 Heymans, C., Grocutt, E., Heavens, A., et al. 2013, MNRAS, 432, 2433 Hildebrandt, H., Viola, M., Heymans, C., et al. 2017, MNRAS, 465, 1454 Hoekstra, H., Viola, M., & Herbonnet, R. 2017, MNRAS, 468, 3295 Huff, E. & Mandelbaum, R. 2017, ArXiv 1702.02600 Jarvis, M., Sheldon, E., Zuntz, J., et al. 2016, MNRAS, 460, 2245 Jee, M. J., Tyson, J. A., Hilbert, S., et al. 2016, ApJ, 824, 77 Kaiser, N., Squires, G., & Broadhurst, T. 1995, ApJ, 449, 460 Kennedy, R., Bamford, S. P., Häußler, B., et al. 2016, A&A, 593, A84 Koekemoer, A. M., Faber, S. M., Ferguson, H. C., et al. 2011, ApJS, 197,

Koekemoer, A. M., Fruchter, A. S., Hook, R. N., & Hack, W. 2003, in HST Calibration Workshop: Hubble after the Installation of the ACS and the NICMOS Cooling System, ed. S. Arribas, A. Koekemoer, & B. Whitmore, 337

Köhlinger, F., Hoekstra, H., & Eriksen, M. 2015, MNRAS, 453, 3107 Krist, J. E., Hook, R. N., & Stoehr, F. 2011, in Proc. SPIE, Vol. 8127, Optical Modeling and Performance Predictions V, 81270J

La Barbera, F., Ferreras, I., de Carvalho, R. R., et al. 2011, ApJ, 740, L41 Laureijs, R., Amiaux, J., Arduini, S., et al. 2011, ArXiv 1110.3193 Massey, R., Hoekstra, H., Kitching, T., et al. 2013, MNRAS, 429, 661 Massey, R., Schrabback, T., Cordes, O., et al. 2014, MNRAS, 439, 887 Melchior, P., Viola, M., Schäfer, B. M., & Bartelmann, M. 2011, MNRAS, 412, 1552

Miller, L., Heymans, C., Kitching, T. D., et al. 2013, MNRAS, 429, 2858 Nakajima, R. & Bernstein, G. 2007, AJ, 133, 1763

Paulin-Henriksson, S., Amara, A., Voigt, L., Refregier, A., & Bridle, S. L. 2008, A&A, 484, 67

Pence, W. 1999, in Astronomical Society of the Pacific Conference Series, Vol. 172, Astronomical Data Analysis Software and Systems VIII, ed. D. M. Mehringer, R. L. Plante, & D. A. Roberts, 487

Peng, C. Y., Ho, L. C., Impey, C. D., & Rix, H.-W. 2010, AJ, 139, 2097Rowe, B. T. P., Jarvis, M., Mandelbaum, R., et al. 2015, Astronomy and Computing, 10, 121

Schrabback, T., Applegate, D., Dietrich, J. P., et al. 2016, ArXiv: 1611.03866

Schrabback, T., Hartlap, J., Joachimi, B., et al. 2010, A&A, 516, A63 Semboloni, E., Hoekstra, H., Huang, Z., et al. 2013, MNRAS, 432, 2385 Skelton, R. E., Whitaker, K. E., Momcheva, I. G., et al. 2014, ApJS, 214,

Suh, H., Jeong, H., Oh, K., et al. 2010, ApJS, 187, 374

Taylor, V. A., Jansen, R. A., Windhorst, R. A., Odewahn, S. C., & Hibbard, J. E. 2005, ApJ, 630, 784

Velander, M., Kuijken, K., & Schrabback, T. 2011, MNRAS, 412, 2665 Voigt, L. M., Bridle, S. L., Amara, A., et al. 2012, MNRAS, 421, 1385