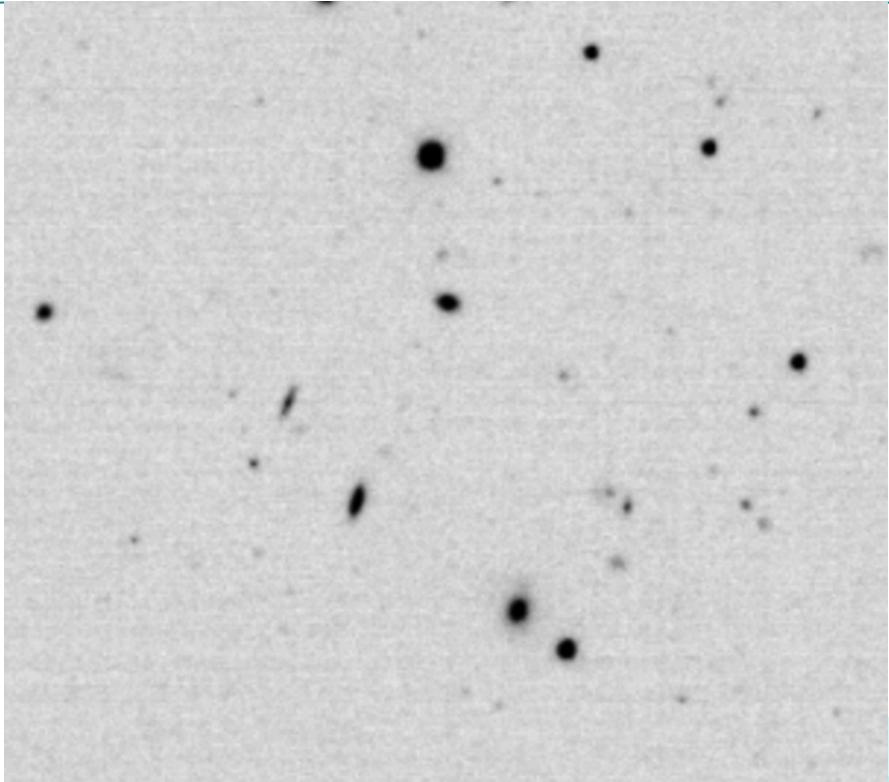


# Source Detection

# Goal of Source Detection

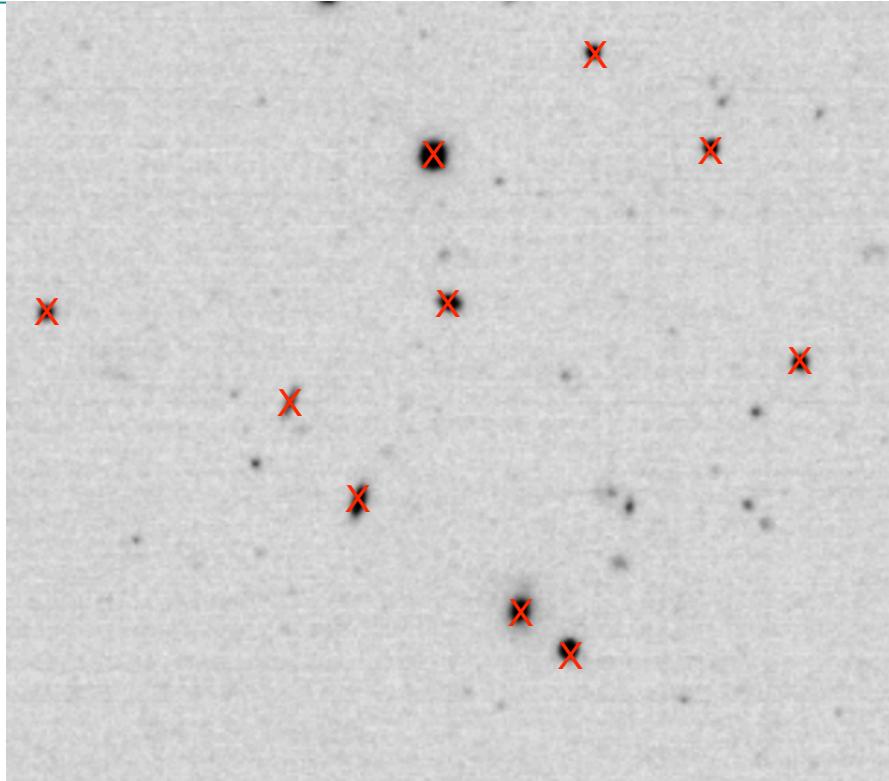
---

- Intuitively, we want to know where the objects are.



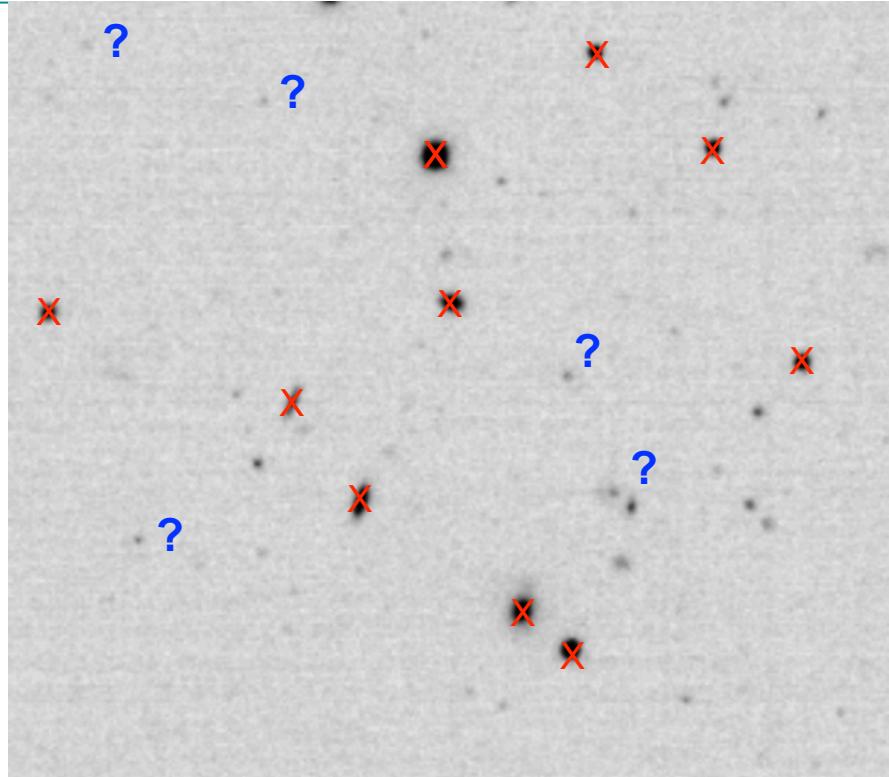
# Goal of Source Detection

- Intuitively, we want to know where the objects are.
- Many of these are obvious by-eye



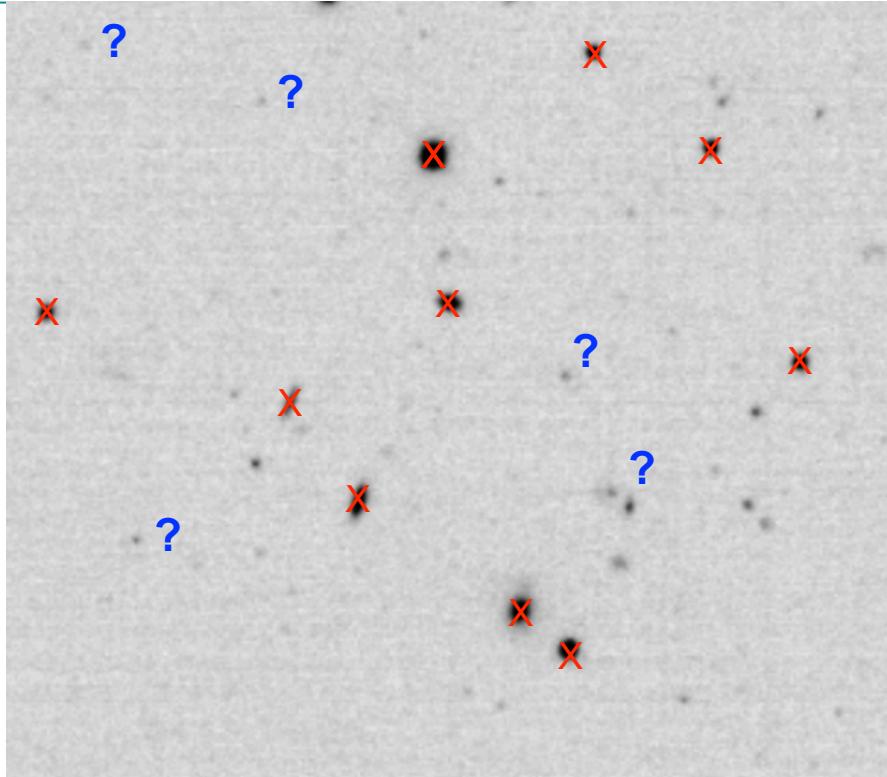
# Goal of Source Detection

- Intuitively, we want to know where the objects are.
- Many of these are obvious by-eye
- Many of these are not obvious

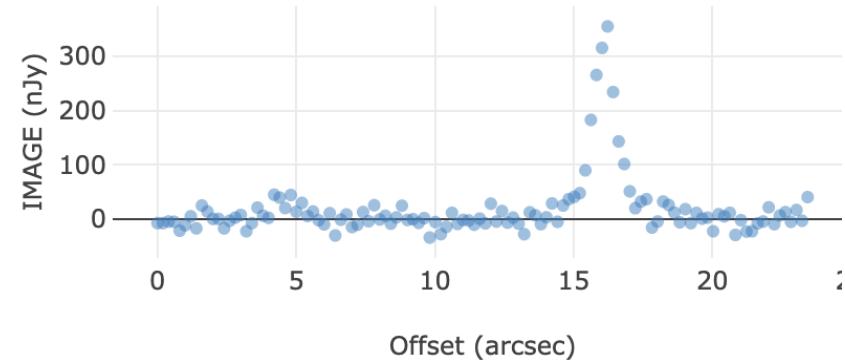


# Goal of Source Detection

- Intuitively, we want to know where the objects are.
- Many of these are obvious by-eye
- Many of these are not obvious
- We need a method that is
  - 1) Automated
  - 2) Statistically justified



- Automated:
  - Thresholding of some form — but what sets the threshold?
- Statistically justified — How do we know we're extracting the most information from the image?



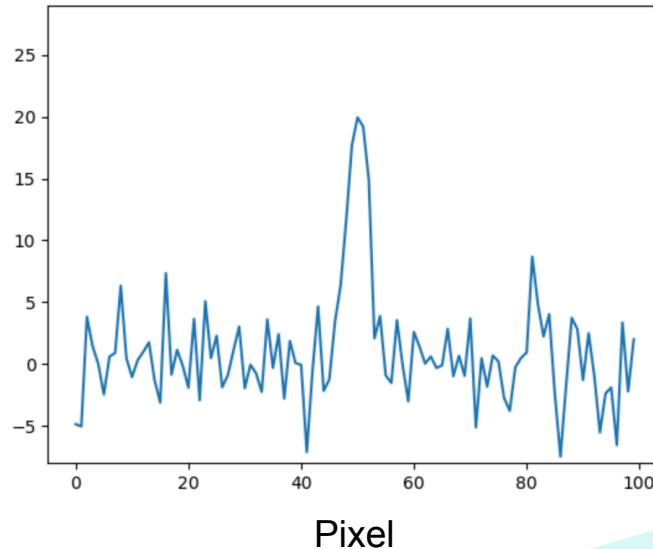
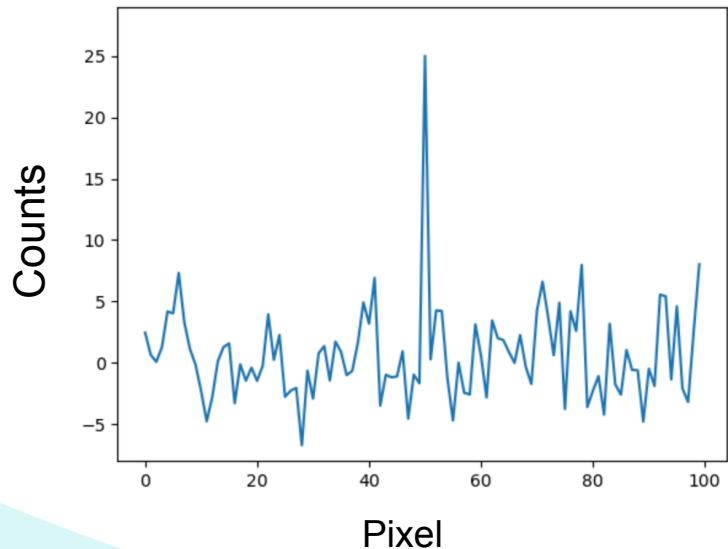
# Where to threshold?

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- Conventionally, we say we detect at a “5-sigma” threshold:
  - i.e. given the level of background noise, we think this significance of detection would only appear due to pure noise in 1 out of 3.5 million realizations of that noise.
- 1 in 3.5 million sounds like a rare occurrence, but there are lots of pixels in even a single 4k x 4k sensor — false positives are ubiquitous
- Trade off between not missing a real astrophysical object vs. having to deal with a degree of contamination.

# What to threshold?

- Which of these is more likely to be a star?

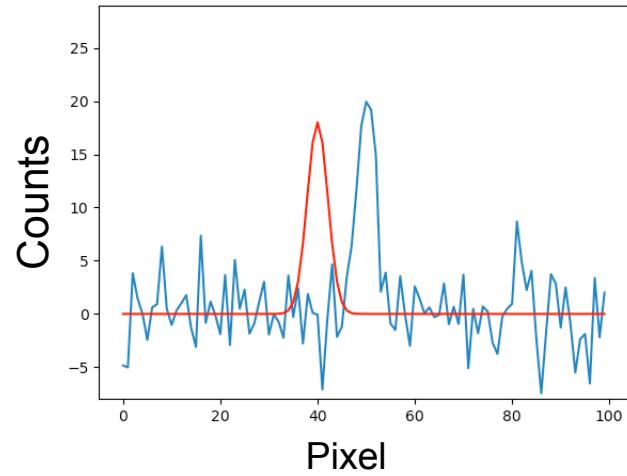


- The signal processing world has this technique they call a “matched filter”, where the desired signal has a known shape but unknown position.
- Trick is to run a correlation (think: convolution) between the model and the input data

# Matched Filter

Red: convolution kernel  
Blue: data

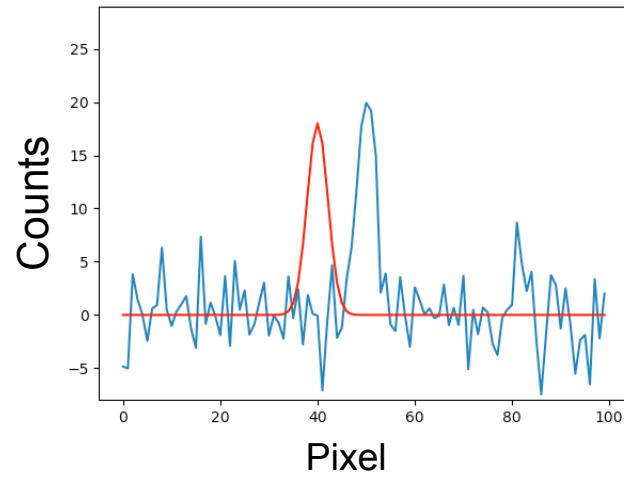
Product of kernel  
and data: small



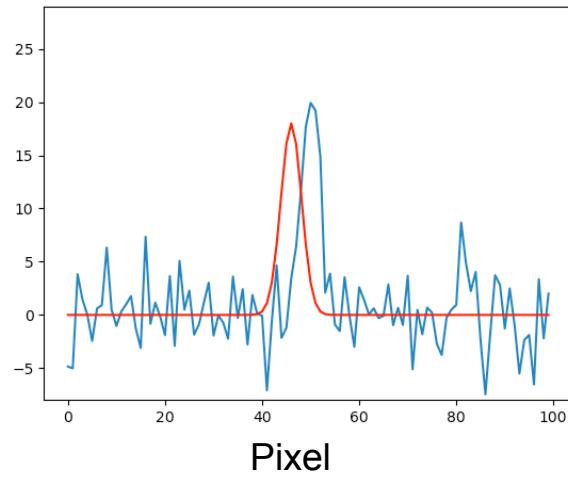
# Matched Filter

Red: convolution kernel  
Blue: data

Product of kernel  
and data: small



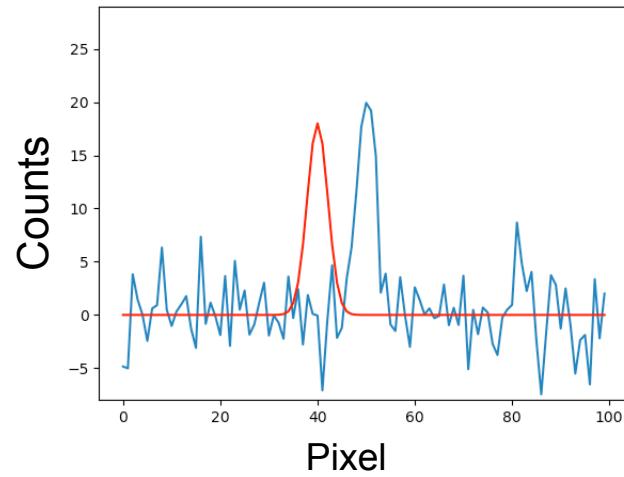
Product of kernel and  
data: a little bigger!



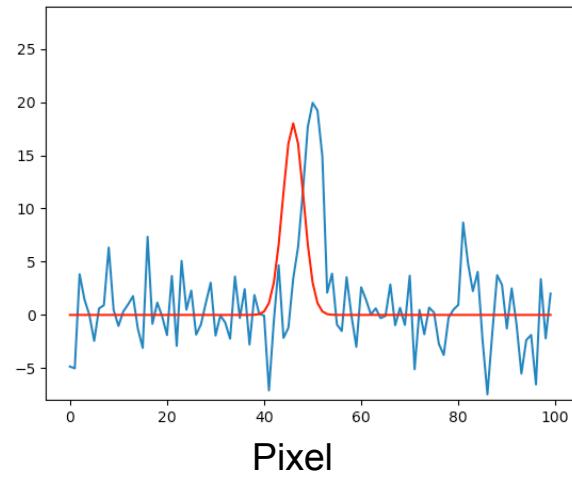
# Matched Filter

Red: convolution kernel  
Blue: data

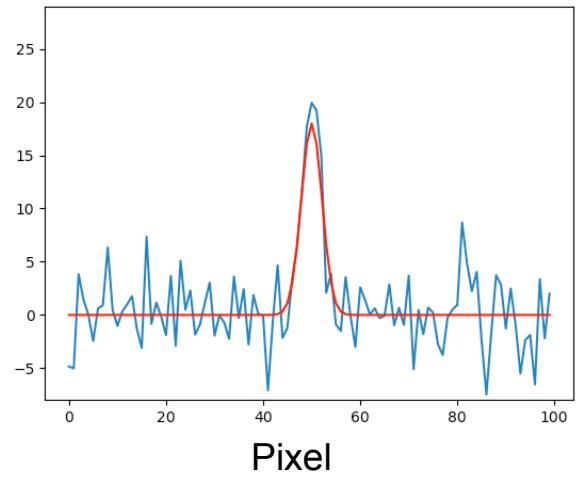
Product of kernel and data: small



Product of kernel and data: a little bigger!



Product of kernel and data: Maximized



- The important point: after convolving with the PSF model, a single pixel  $>5$  sigma **is significant**.
- We typically call these “peaks”, and they’re the starting point for the rest of measurement.
- But the positions are not precise yet — we still need to do centroiding, which we will cover in the next talk.

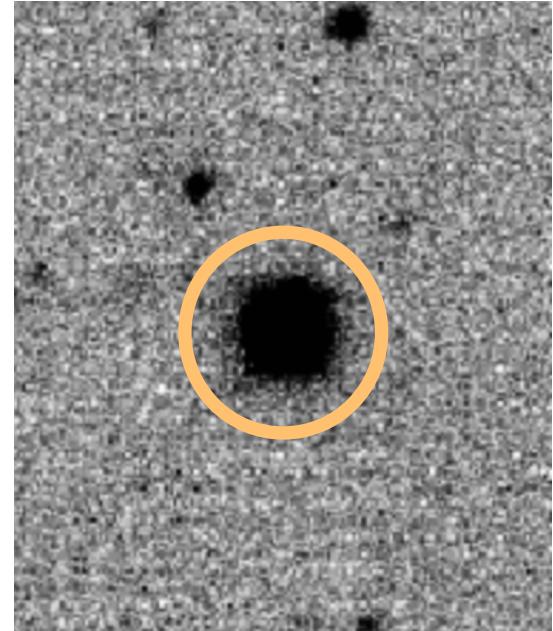
# PSF Photometry

# Simple photometry: Aperture photometry

After ISR, background subtraction, and source detection, measuring the flux *can* be easy: draw a circle and add up the counts inside the circle.

Pros:

Cons:



# Beyond aperture photometry

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Aperture photometry totally works! But we can do better, in two ways:

1. We really should understand the statistical basis for our measurement.
  - Doing so will tell us how to make the best measurement
2. We know that aperture fluxes cannot be optimal
  - Depending on where we set the aperture, we're either throwing away information outside that aperture, or we're including pixels with lots of noisy sky and little signal.

# Maximum Likelihood estimate

---

- For each pixel, we have a model that we want to compare to the measured value for that pixel in an image, in the presence of noise.
- Going to follow the notation of Portillo, Speagle, Finkbeiner 2020; classic reference is King 1983.
- Our PSF is  $p(x, y)$ , and our model for a star given a flux  $f$  is  $f p(x, y)$ . The PSF must be normalized,  $\sum_{x,y} p(x, y) = 1$ , and we require the image to be background-subtracted.

# Maximum Likelihood estimate

---

- Because the noise on each pixel is uncorrelated with the noise on other pixels, the likelihood for the flux measurement is the product of the likelihoods on each individual pixel.
- Let  $\hat{f}$  represent the measured flux in pixel  $i$ , and assuming Gaussian noise

$$\mathcal{L}(x, y, f) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \prod_i \exp((\hat{f}_i - fp_i(x, y))^2 / (2\sigma^2))$$

- Taking the log likelihood gives us a sum over the model comparisons

$$\ln \mathcal{L}(x, y, f) = -\frac{N}{2} \ln(2\pi\sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_i (\hat{f}_i - fp_i(x, y))^2$$

- Find the maximum of the likelihood by setting the partial derivative w.r.t.  $f$  to zero, solve for  $f_{ML}$

$$\partial_f \mathcal{L}(x, y, f_{ML}) = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_i \hat{f}_i p_i(x, y) - f_{ML} p_i^2(x, y) = 0$$

- Which gives us a nice solution for the flux

$$f_{\text{ML}}(x, y) = \frac{\sum_i \hat{f}_i p_i(x, y)}{\sum_i p_i^2(x, y)}$$

- In words:
  - To measure the flux, we take the product of the PSF model and the image pixels, sum that product, and divide by a normalization.

- PSF photometry can also be thought of as a pixel weighting scheme. To demonstrate, if  $p(x, y) = 1/N$ , N being the number of pixels in your sum, then:

$$f_{\text{ML}} = \frac{\sum_i \hat{f}_i (1/N)}{\sum_i (1/N^2)} = \frac{\sum_i \hat{f}/N}{N/N^2} = \sum_i \hat{f}_i$$

- That's aperture photometry!

# Putting it together

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So our order of operations is:

- ISR
- Background subtraction
- Matched filter and peak finding
- Centroiding — (we skipped this)
- (PSF determination — we're skipping this, sorry!)
- PSF photometry

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# Photometric Calibration

# Photometric Calibration

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- Let's start simple.
  - Our goal when photometering an image is to report how bright the objects are relative to some agreed-on standard.
- 
- Typically today, you're most likely to either Pan-STARRS (PS1) or Gaia stars as your “standards”.
  - Gaia covers the whole sky; PS1 covers 3/4ths of the sky slightly deeper/denser, and with grizy filters.

- Ideally, there are “calibration” stars in your image
- You know the magnitude of the calibration stars, and you can measure how many counts they created in your image.
- Simple calibration:  $\text{mag} = -2.5 \log(\text{counts}) + \text{ZP}$ 
  - With your calibration stars, solve for the “zero point” ZP.
  - For all other stars, compute the magnitude using the measured zeropoint.
- This works because CCDs are very *linear* in their response; makes relative photometry very robust.

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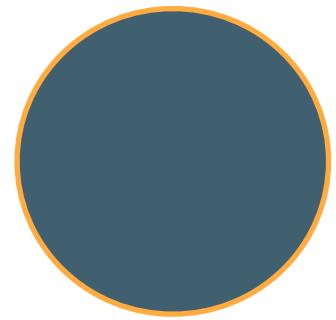
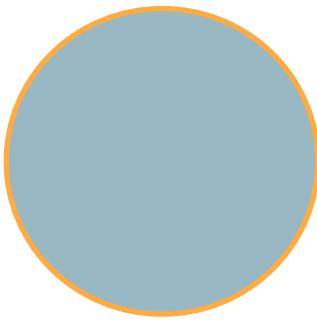
There are a few important details that this leaves out:

- Why are Gaia, PS1, or eventually LSST magnitudes good for calibration? How did they calibrate their images?
- Is the zero point all that matters? What about comparing different surveys?
- Absolute calibration: what actually defines how bright a magnitude is?

# Survey Calibration

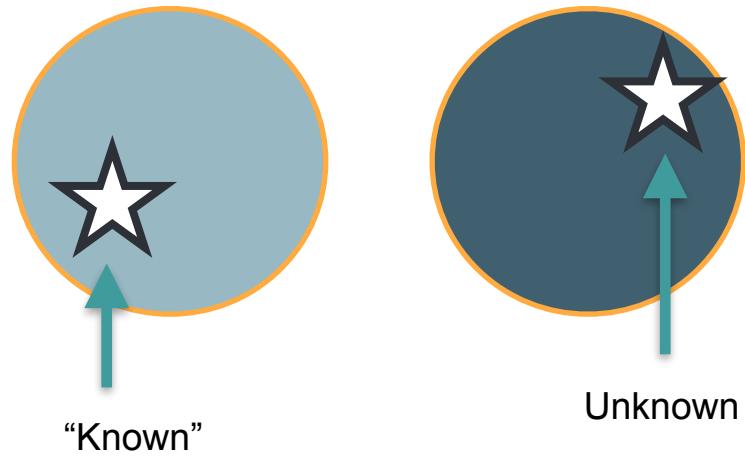
---

- Let's say I'm running a big survey.
- I have two fields, A and B.



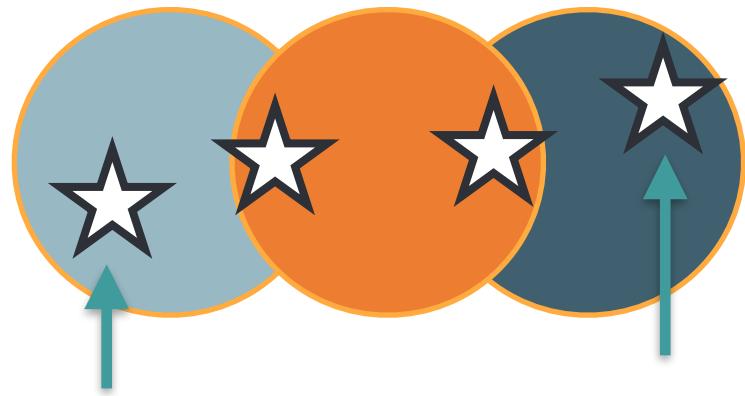
# Survey Calibration

- Let's say I'm running a big survey.
- I have two fields, A and B.
- A has a calibrated star, magnitude 18
- B doesn't have any calibration stars, but it has a star I'm interested in.
- If these are my only images, then I'm out of luck.



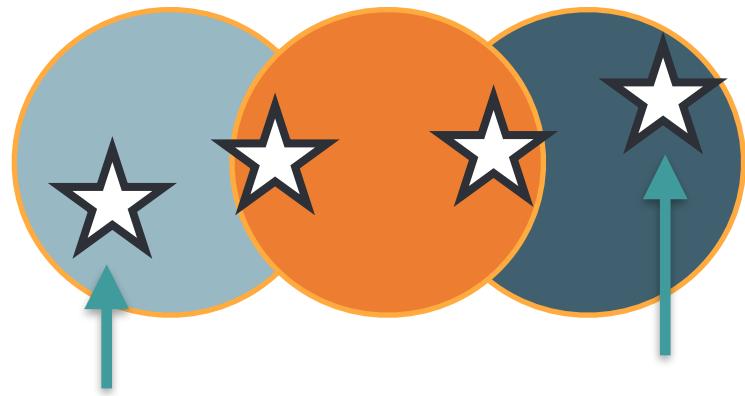
# Survey Calibration

- But! If I take Exposure C, it will have some stars that overlap Exposure A, and some stars that overlap Exposure B.
- Exposures A and C must “agree” on how bright the stars they share in common are. I.e., I calculate a zero point for C that minimizes the residual of the stars shared with A.
- The same minimization can be done between exposures C and B.



# Survey Calibration

- The exciting part is that we don't need to solve B and C separately, we can solve the whole survey simultaneously.
- Concept extends to arbitrary numbers of exposures.
- Linear least-squares minimization problem, lots of standard techniques for handling large problems like this.



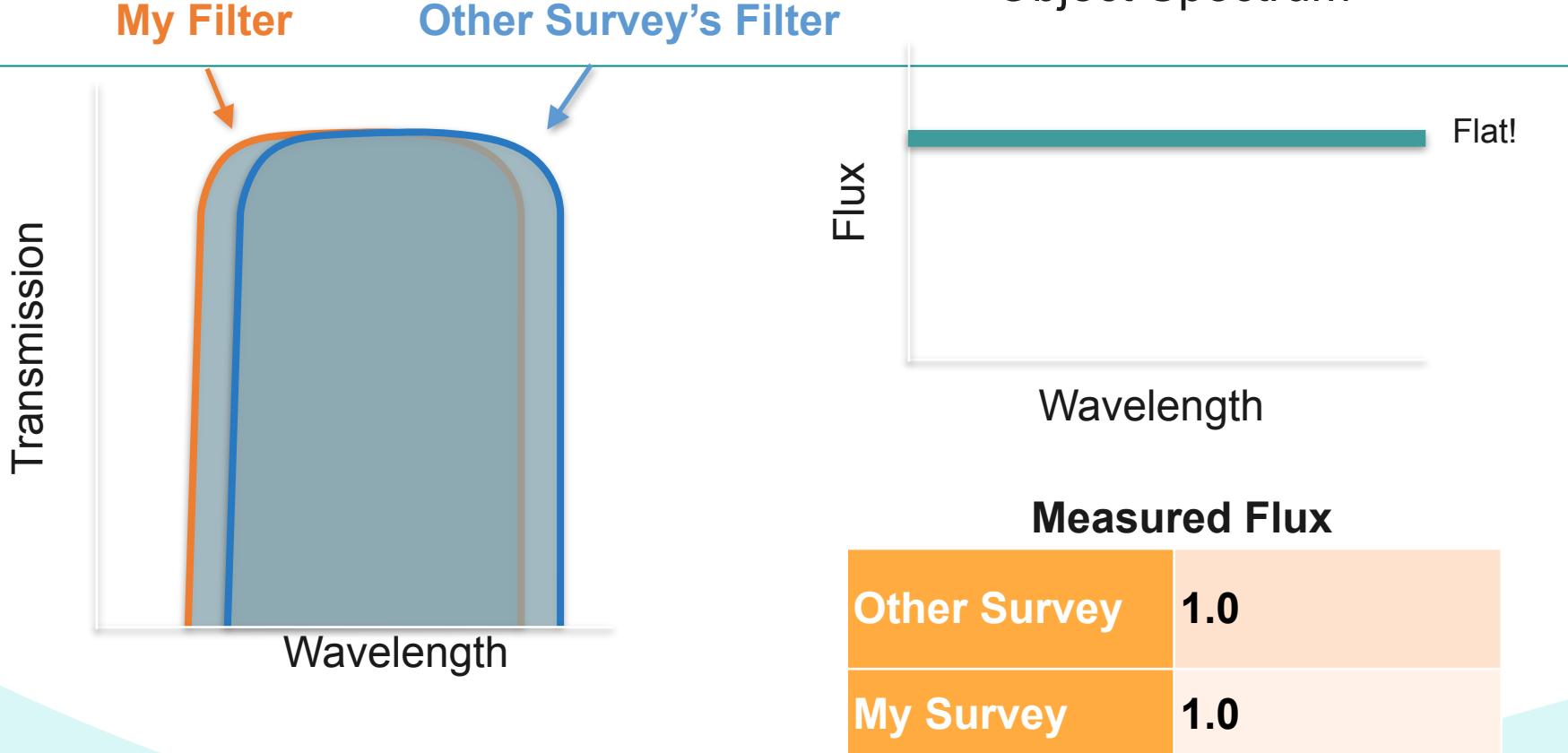
- What is this accomplishing?
- We know that there are many effects that can change the throughput of the telescope from night to night, exposure to exposure. (Sometimes called a “gray” term, no color dependence)
- E.g., if we observe a field low in the sky (high airmass), more of those photons are scattered/extincted than when we observe the field high in the sky.
- The “traditional” technique was to identify and correct these effects individually, but with survey-scale data we can build and solve a model for multiple photometric effects simultaneously.

- The result is that we can treat PS1 or Gaia as a consistent photometric system.
- (That doesn't mean perfect, and we still haven't talked about absolute calibration)
- More info in the respective survey's papers:
  - SDSS: Padmanabhan et al. 2008, arXiv:astro-ph/0703454
  - Pan-STARRS: Schlafly et al. 2012, arXiv:astro-ph/1201.2208
  - DES: Burke et al. 2018, arXiv:astro-ph/1706.01542

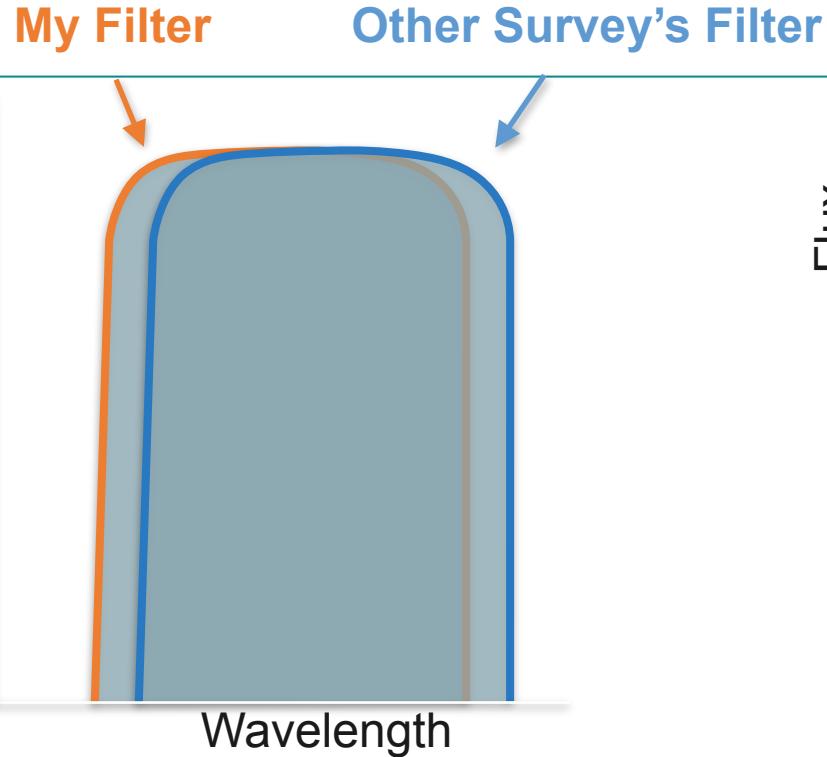
# Color Dependence

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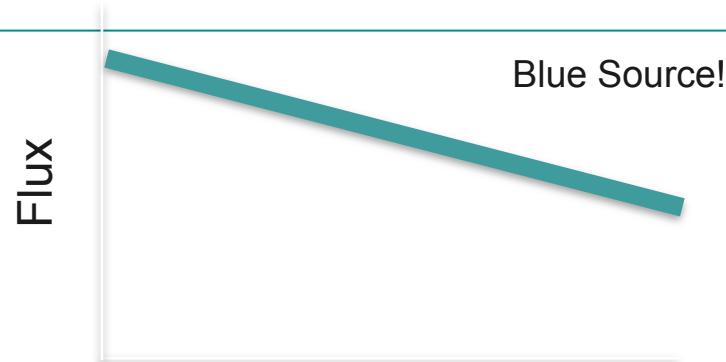
- So far we've only dealt with "gray" terms; no spectral dependence at all.
- The modern challenge for surveys like LSST is that there is spectral dependence everywhere



Transmission



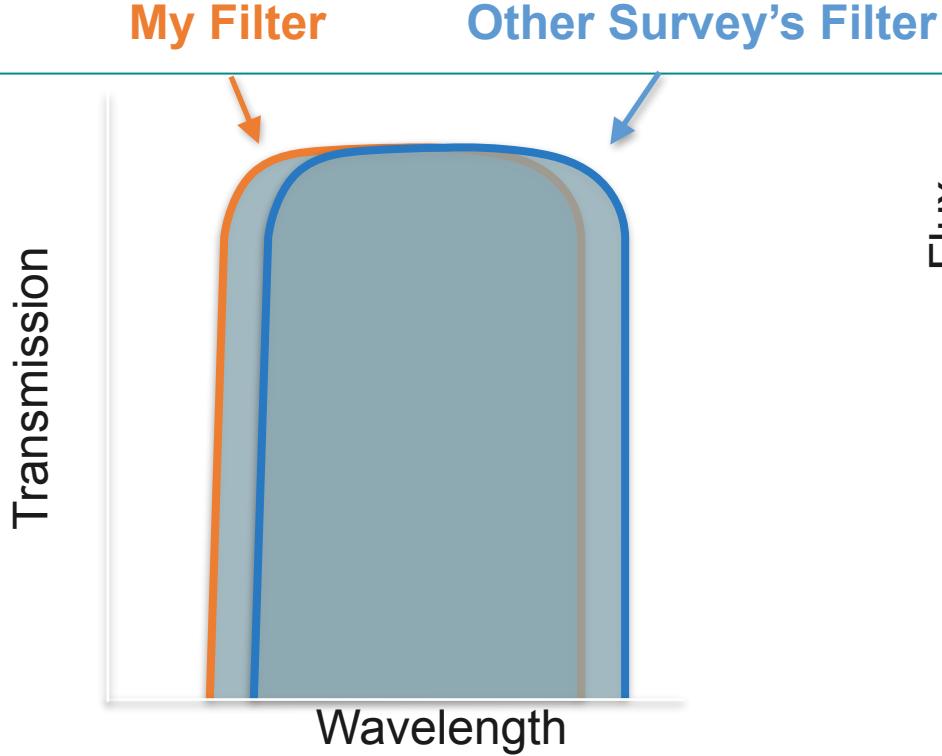
## Object Spectrum



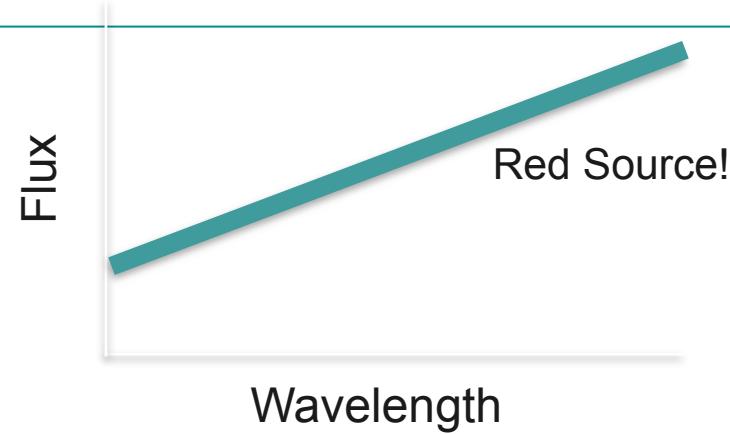
Wavelength

## Measured Flux

Other Survey	1.0
My Survey	1.1



## Object Spectrum



## Measured Flux

Other Survey	1.0
My Survey	0.9

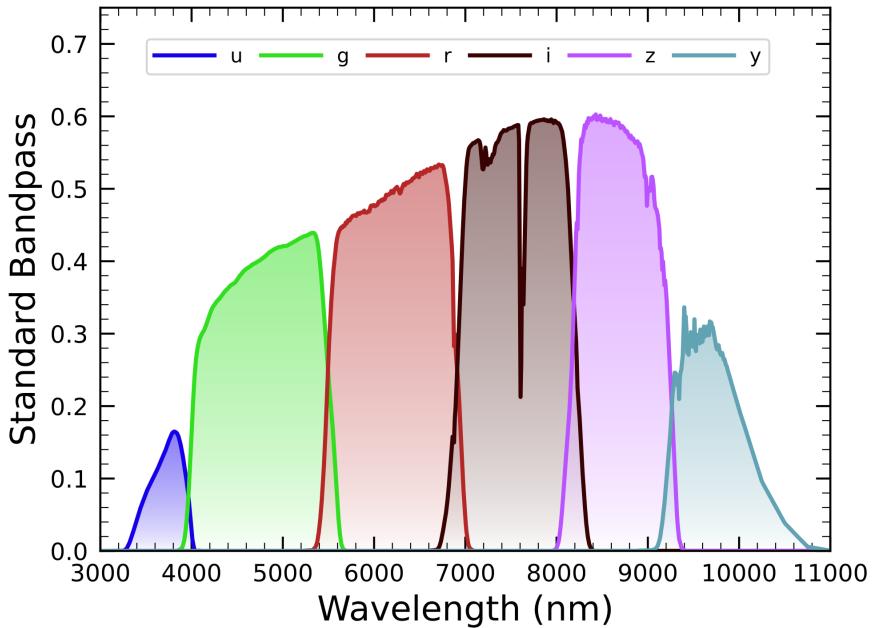
# Color terms

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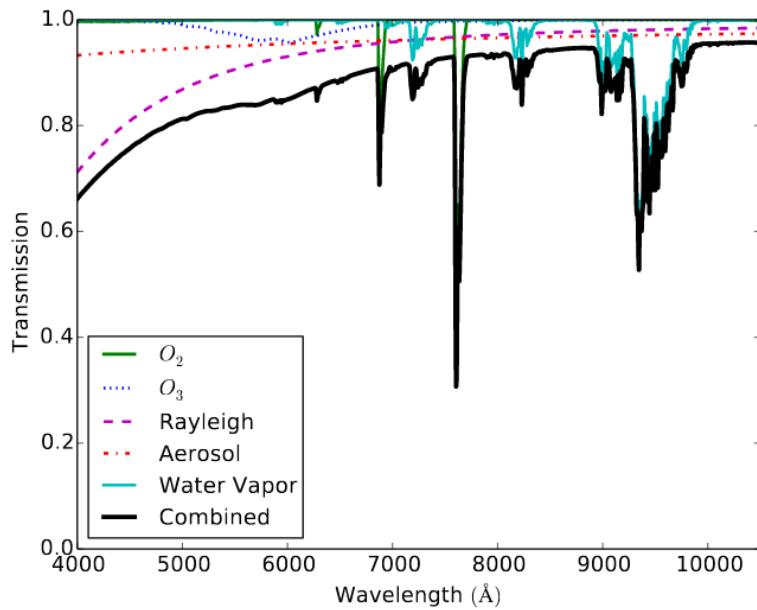
- Every image will have both blue and red sources present, so there's no adjustment to the zero point that will correct for both.
  - Optimistically this might be “just noise”, but it's a systematic effect that could affect science.
- 
- Even worse, “total” bandpass throughput, including the atmosphere, changes over time.
    - => Even within a survey, with fixed hardware, chromatic variation is present between exposures.

Individual atmospheric components vary within a night

ComCam bands, including atmosphere



Model Atmosphere



From Burke et al. 2017

# Summarizing Photometric Calibration

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- Large surveys “self-calibrate” to create their own internally-consistent magnitude system
- System is tied to an external “absolute” calibration for physical flux, using a small set of calibrators.
- Measured magnitudes are dependent on the exact bandpass used for measurement.
- Bandpasses change from survey to survey, from night to night within a survey, and even within a night.
- Accurate bandpass calibration is at the forefront of improving photometric accuracy.

# Backup

# Auxiliary Telescope



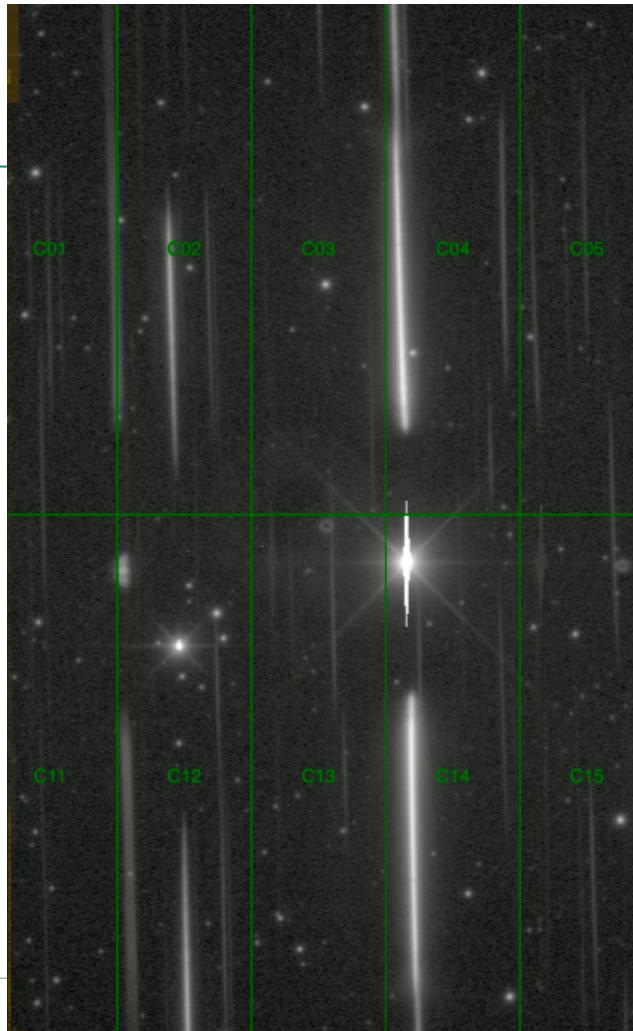
# Auxiliary Telescope

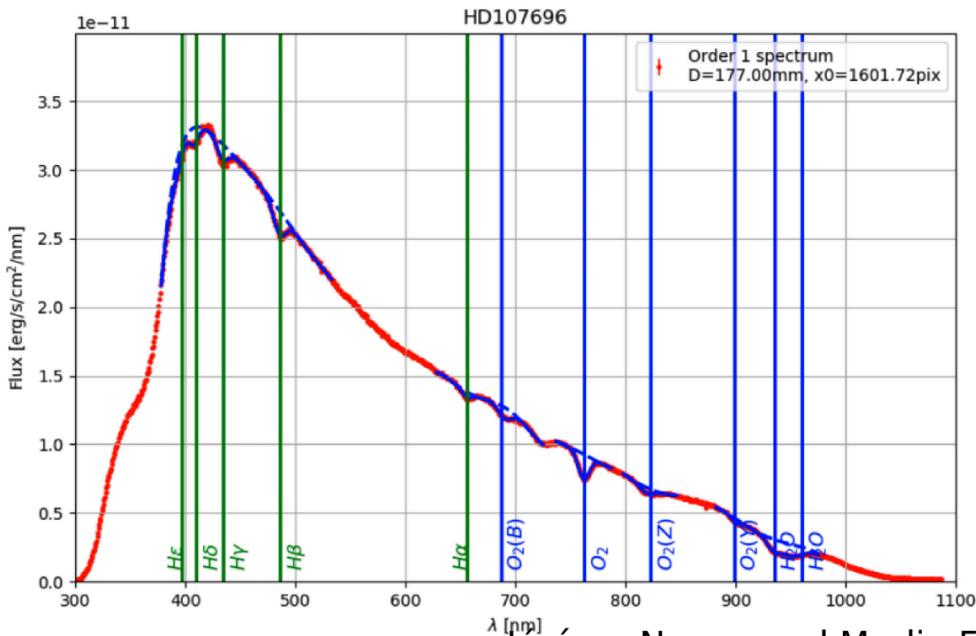
- AuxTel continuously takes spectra of standard stars, with broad wavelength coverage
- Fit atmospheric models to these spectra, tells us what the “effective” passbands are for the main survey.



# Auxiliary Telescope

- AuxTel continuously takes spectra of standard stars, with broad wavelength coverage
- Fit atmospheric models to these spectra, tells us what the “effective” passbands are for the main survey as a function of time, for each night of observing.





Jérémie Neveu and Merlin Fisher-Levine