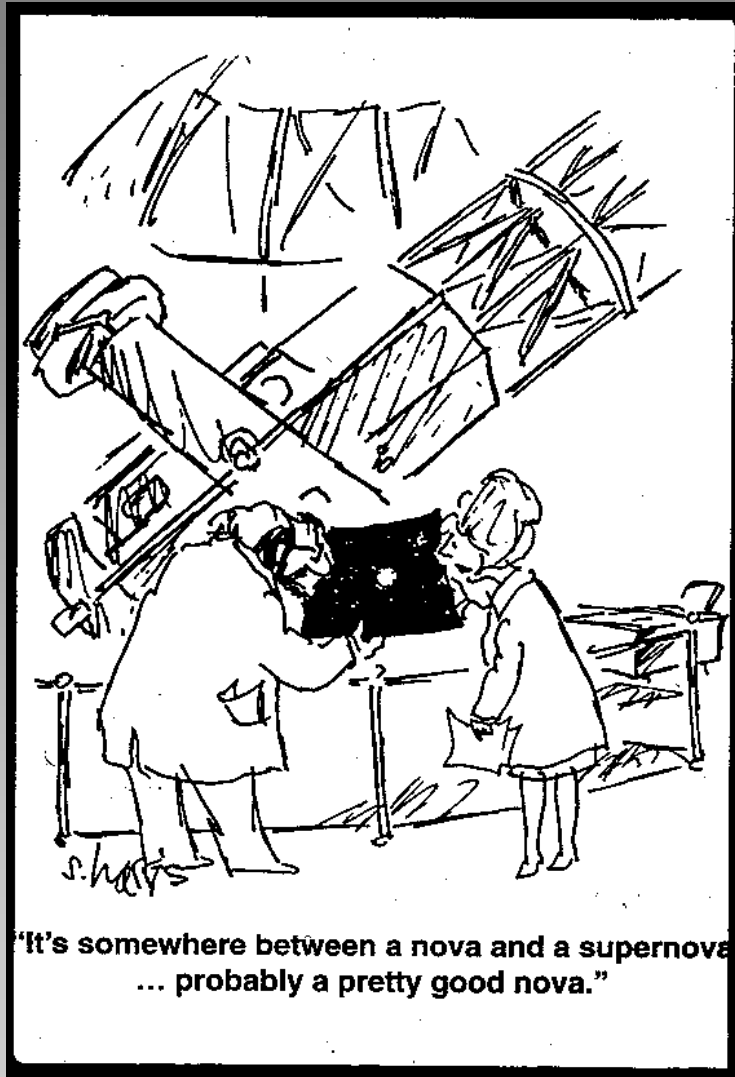


Optical/IR Observational Astronomy

Photometry I



David Buckley, SALT



Optical/IR Observational Astronomy

Photometry I

Recap: Magnitudes

- Magnitude difference are related to the ratio of intensities:

$$m_1 - m_2 = -2.5 \log \frac{I_1}{I_2}$$

or

$$\frac{I_2}{I_1} = 2.512^{m_1 - m_2}$$

- For any given measurement system (telescope-instrument-detector combination), the measured intensity depends on:
 - The actual intensity of the object
 - The sensitivity of the *system*, which depends upon:
 - Effective collecting area of the telescope
 - The “throughput” of the instrument (e.g. filters, optics)
 - The QE (Quantum Efficiency) of the detector (e.g. photomultiplier, CCD, etc.)
- We refer to the instrumental magnitude, defined as: $m = -2.5 \log I$
- To be able to compare measurements between different systems, we use the following:
$$m = -2.5 \log I + \text{constant}$$
- The constant is referred to as the **zero point** of the system, and is determined for a specific telescope-instrument-detector combination.
- In terms of flux density ($\text{ergs cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \text{\AA}^{-1}$)
$$m(\lambda) = -2.5 \log F(\lambda) - 21.1$$



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Photometry I

Absolute Magnitudes

- The absolute magnitude (M) is the *apparent* magnitude of a star as it would be seen at a distance of 10 parsecs (pc)
- Consider a star observed at two different distances, r :
 - At its actual distance, $r_1 = d$
 - At a hypothetical distance of $r_2 = 10 \text{ pc}$
- The intensity, I , (flux density, measured per square metre at the telescope) of a star $\propto 1/r^2$ (inverse square law of intensity)
- Total luminosity, L , of the star is therefore the product of I and the total area through which this radiation passes, so:

$$L = I_1 4\pi r_1^2 = I_2 4\pi r_2^2$$

$\Rightarrow$

$$I_1 / I_2 = (r_2 / r_1)^2$$

So,

$$m_1 - m_2 = -2.5 \log (I_1 / I_2) = m - M = -2.5 \log (r_2 / r_1)^2 = -5 \log (10/d)$$



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Photometry I

Absolute Magnitudes

- So for a star at an actual distance, d , the magnitude difference between the apparent (m) and absolute (M) magnitudes is given as:

$$m - M = 5 \log d - 5$$

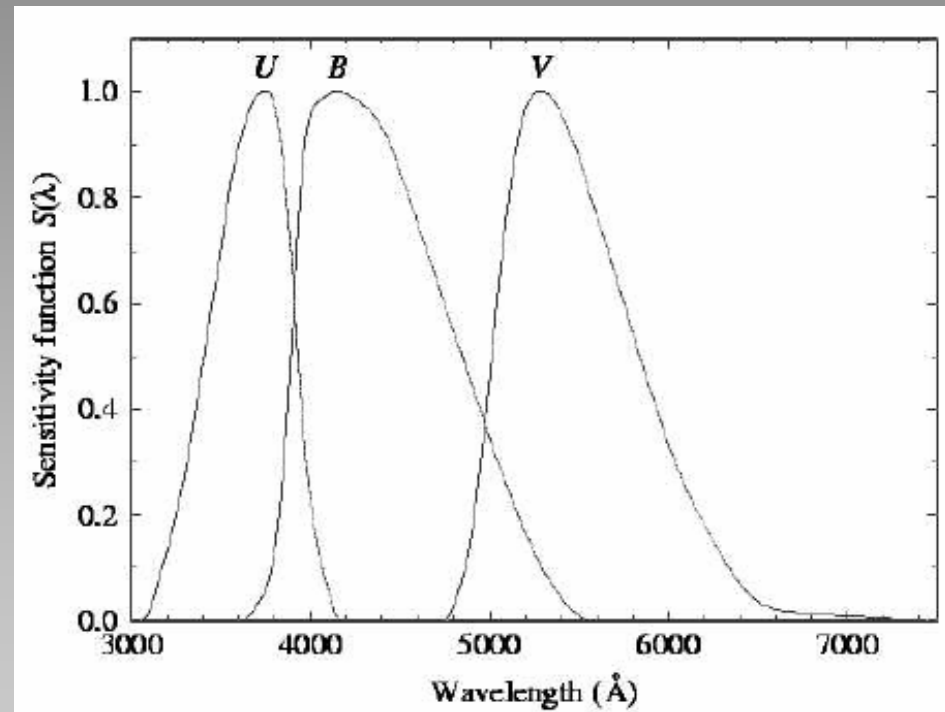
[known as distance modulus]

- Or in terms of the parallax:

$$m - M = -5 \log \pi - 5$$

[$\pi = 1/d$ arcsec]

- The apparent magnitude (m) is invariably measured with a specific filter, typically the visual (V) of the first accurate photometric system, namely the **Johnson**, or **UBV**, system based on the first photomultipliers (1P21)
- m_V is therefore the apparent magnitude measured through the V -band filter.



Filter	$\lambda(\text{\AA})$	$\Delta\lambda(\text{\AA})$
U	3600	560
B	4400	990
V	5500	880



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Photometry I

Bolometric Magnitudes

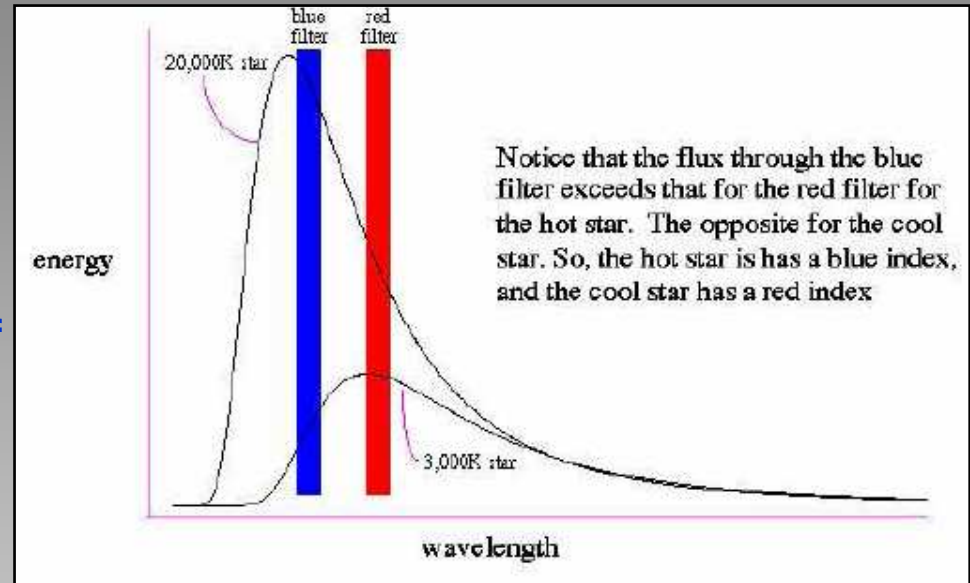
- The relative apparent magnitudes (m) measured through different filters depend on the *colours* or *temperatures* of the object
- For thermal sources (e.g. stars), the hotter the bluer:

- Define the bolometric magnitude as the *total* magnitude of a star over *all* wavelengths, measured at $d = 10$ pc
- Related to the integrated intensity of a spectral energy distribution (SED)

- The area under SED curve $\rightarrow$ bolometric intensity $\rightarrow$ bolometric magnitude
- $M_{bol} \propto \int F_{\lambda} d\lambda$

- For a black body, F_{λ} is the Planck function which defines the SED as a function of temperature and λ :

$$F_{\lambda} = \frac{2\pi hc^2}{\lambda^5} \frac{1}{e^{\frac{hc}{\lambda kT}} - 1}$$



Integrated energy (area under SED):

$$= \int F_{\lambda} d\lambda = \sigma T_{eff}^4 \text{ (Stefan-Boltzman law)}$$

- Colour index is the difference of magnitudes measured through two different filters: e.g. $B - V$**



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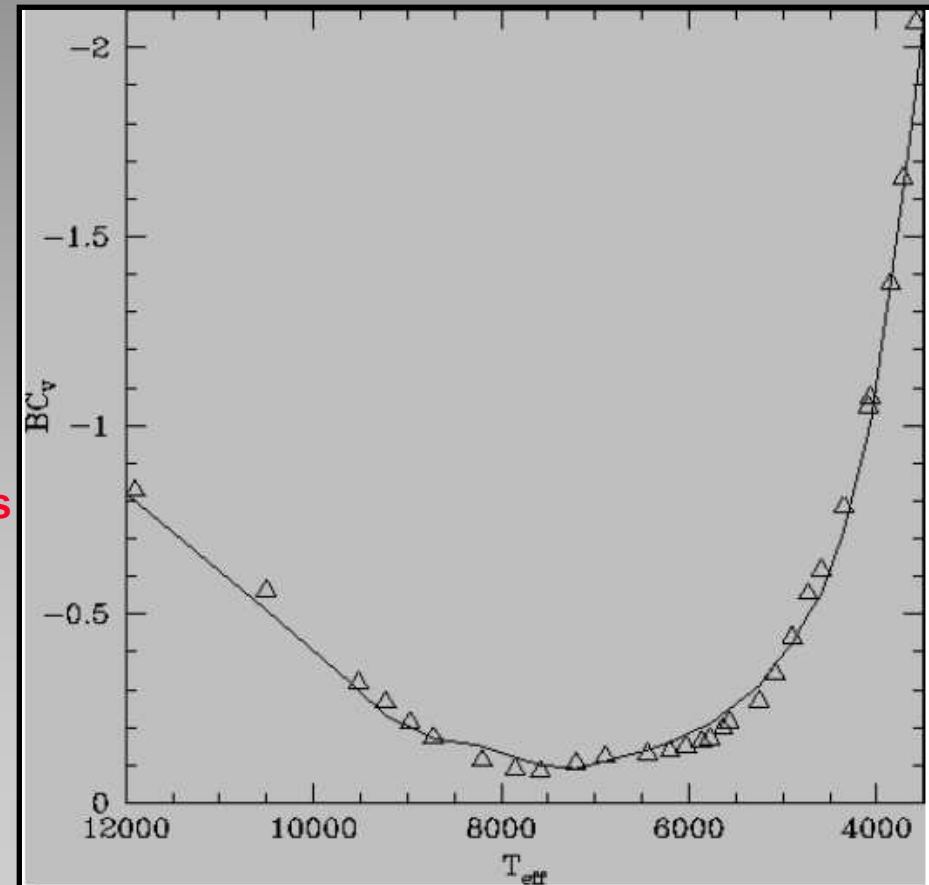
Photometry I

Bolometric Magnitudes

- Star SED's *approximate* black bodies, so colour index is an indicator of temperature.
- Bolometric correction (BC) is the *difference* between the *bolometric* and *absolute V-band* magnitude:

$$BC_V = M_{bol} - M_V$$

- The correction is most extreme for stars much hotter or cooler than ~6000 – 8000K
 - More UV flux for hot stars
 - More IR flux for cooler stars
 - Effects of spectral lines Sun-like stars





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Photometry I

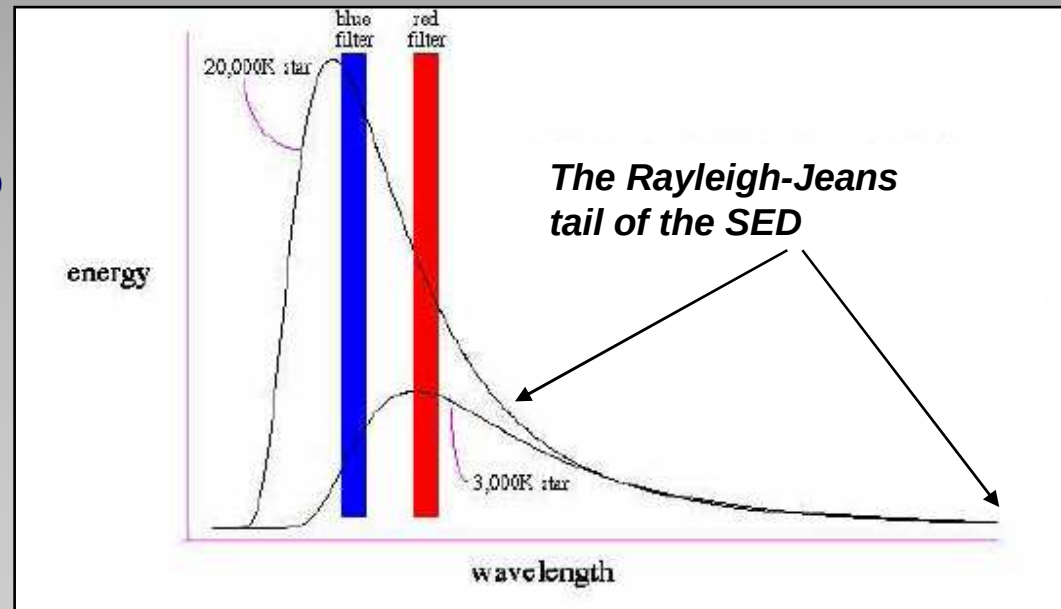
Other Aspects of the Black Body Distribution

- Wien Law:
 - Peak of the Planck function is given as function of wavelength

$$\lambda_{max} = \frac{2898}{T} \mu m$$

- The Sun's effective temperature is $\sim 5800K \Rightarrow \lambda_{max} = 0.5 \mu m$
 - Coincidence that the eye's peak QE is at this wavelength?

- Rayleigh-Jeans tail
 - For $\lambda \gg \lambda_{max}$ we are said to be in the “Rayleigh-Jeans tail” of the SED
 - $F_{\lambda} \propto \lambda^{-4}$





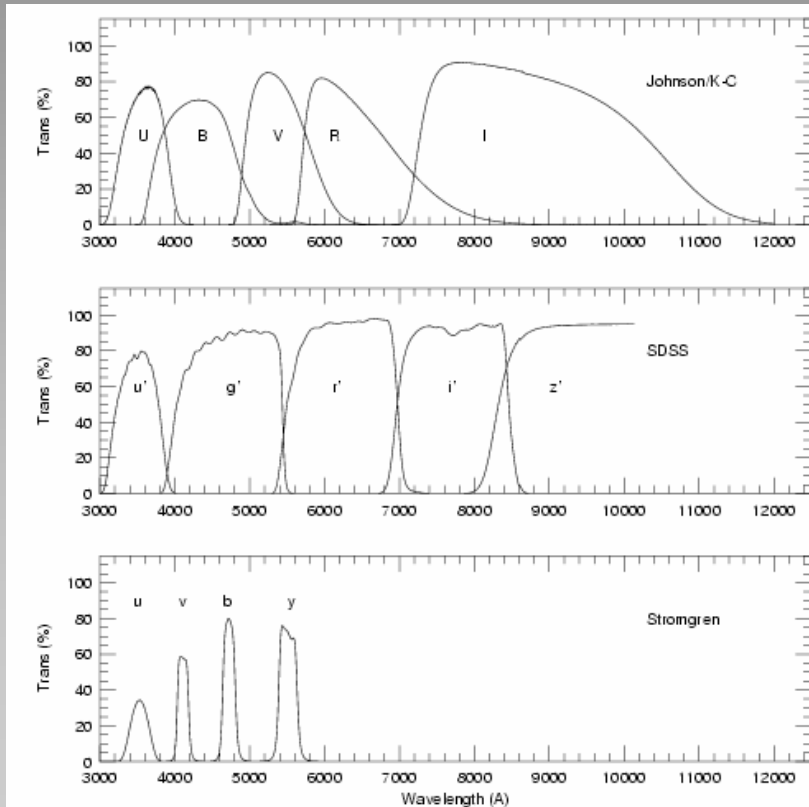
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Photometry I

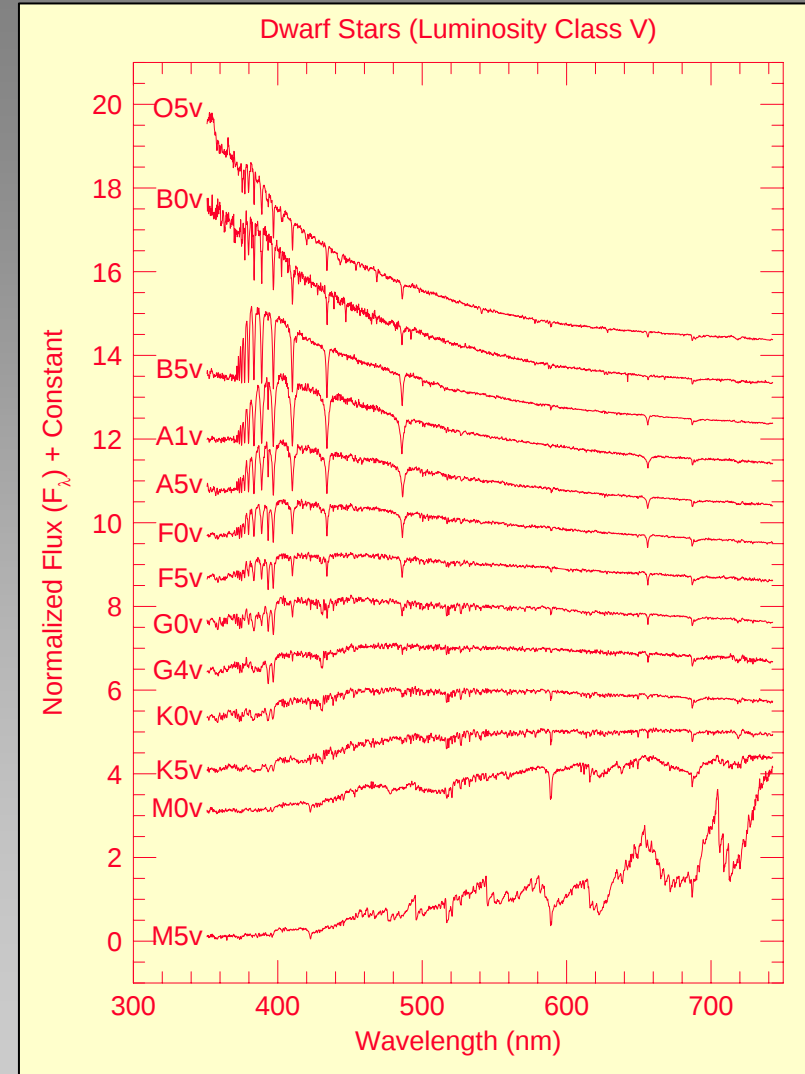
Photometric Systems:

Filters chosen to discriminate various parameters, e.g. temp, gravity, abundance.

Measured fluxes/magnitudes are product of passbands and the SEDs.

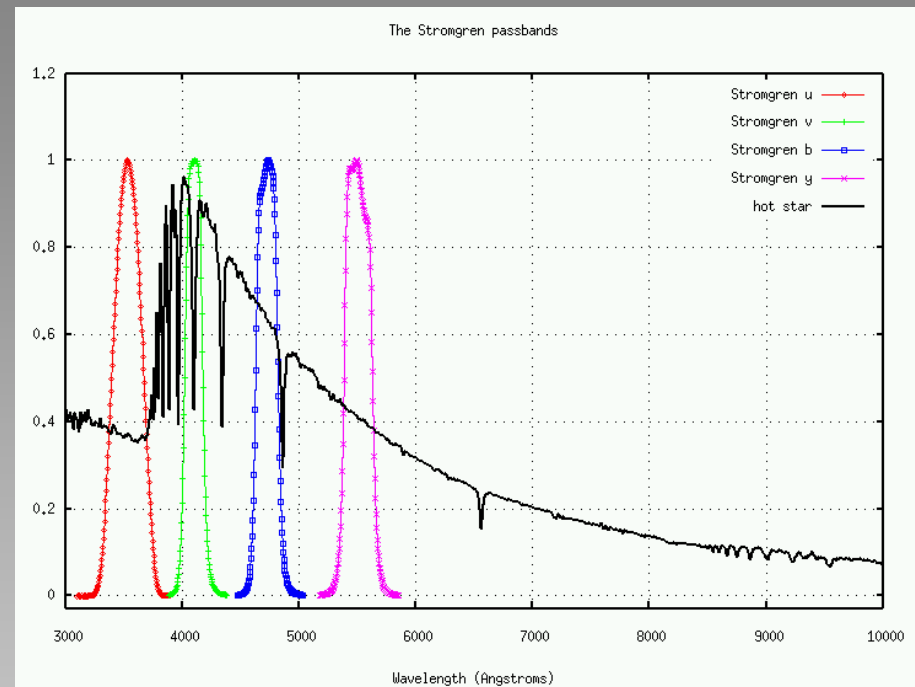
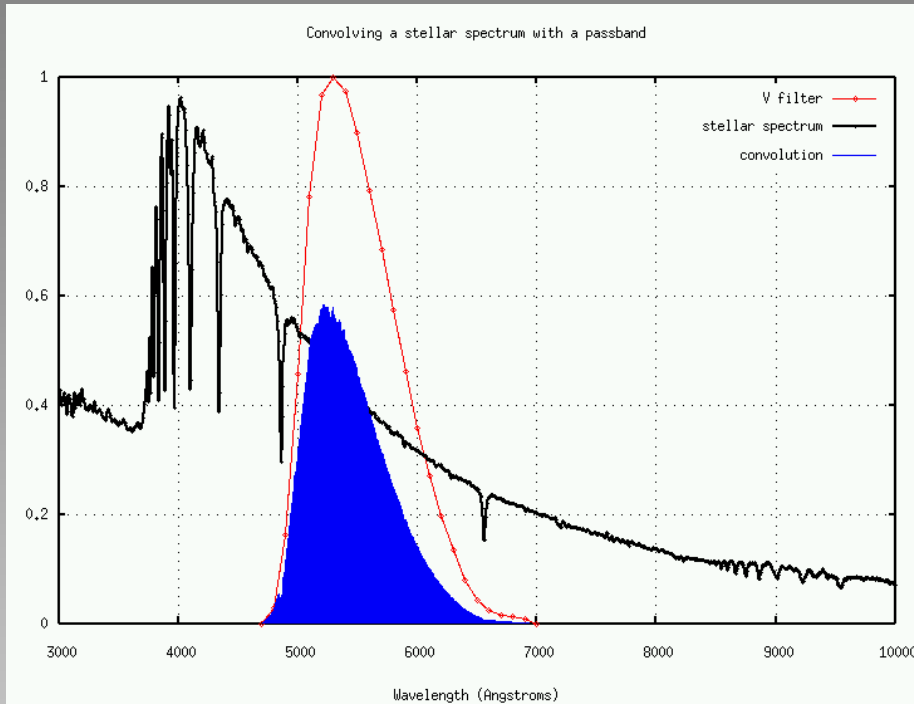


X



= magnitude_{filter} (e.g. m_V)

'convolved' filter responses

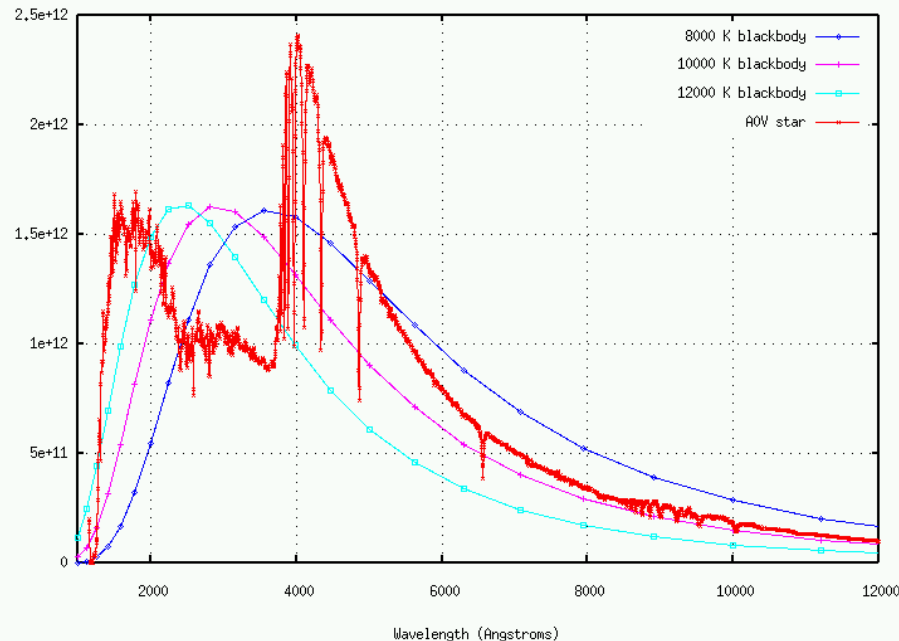


- Colour of source determines the filter's effective wavelength
 - Need to take account of this is determining mags/colours

Real SEDs vs. Blackbodies

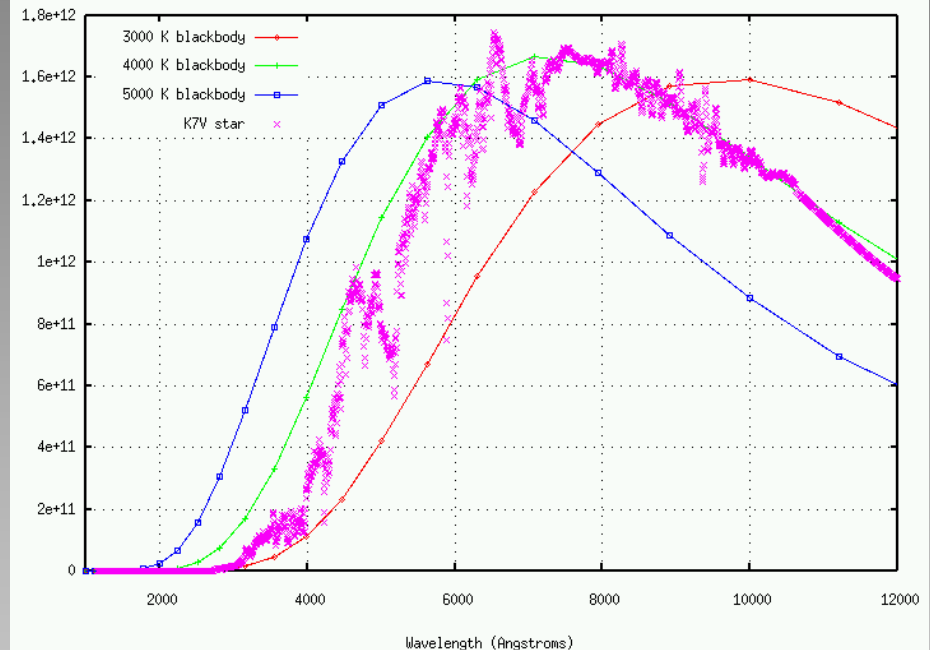
Hot star

Spectrum of a hot star compared to blackbodies



Cool star

Spectrum of a cool star compared to blackbodies

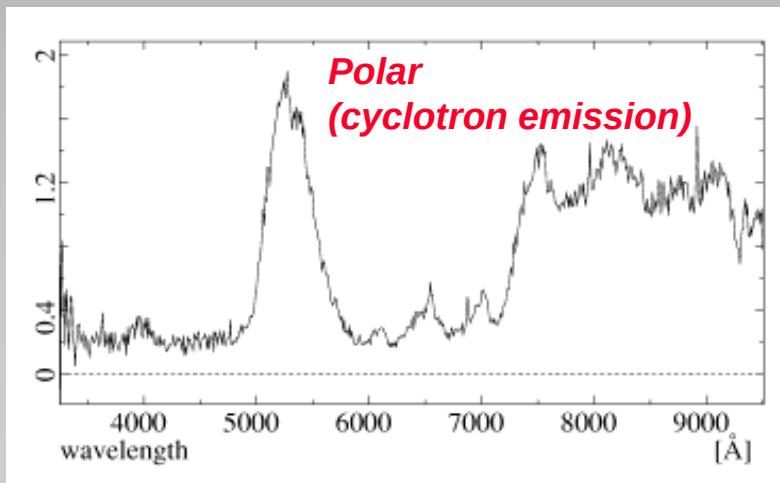
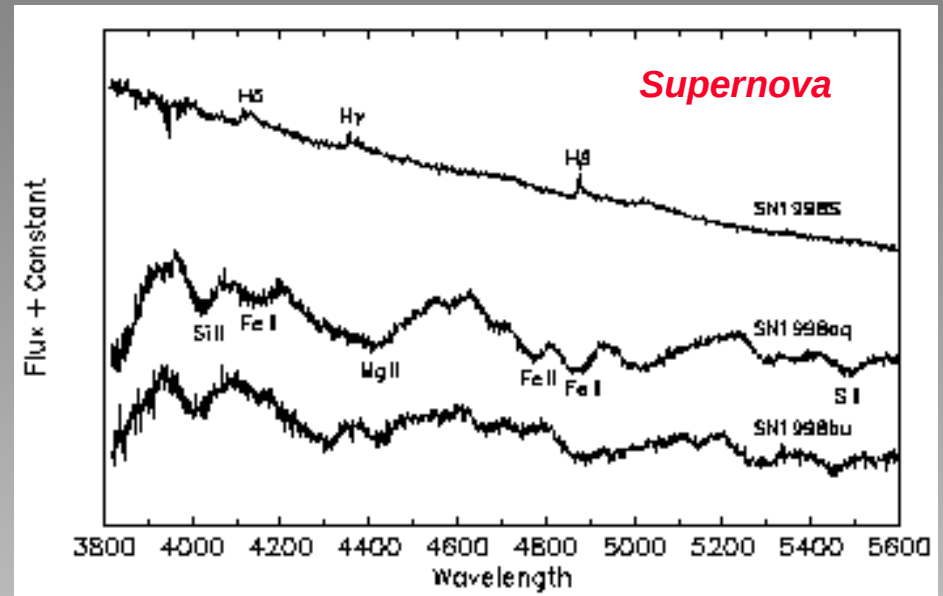
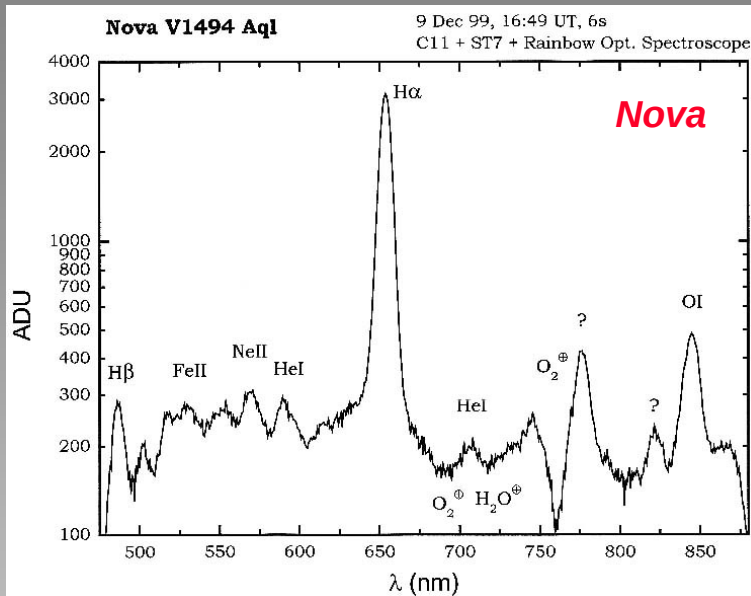


- Sometimes stellar SEDs are a poor match to blackbodies
- Presence of spectral features (e.g. Balmer jump, spectral lines, line blanketing) affects mags/colours

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Photometry I

Real SEDs vs. Blackbodies

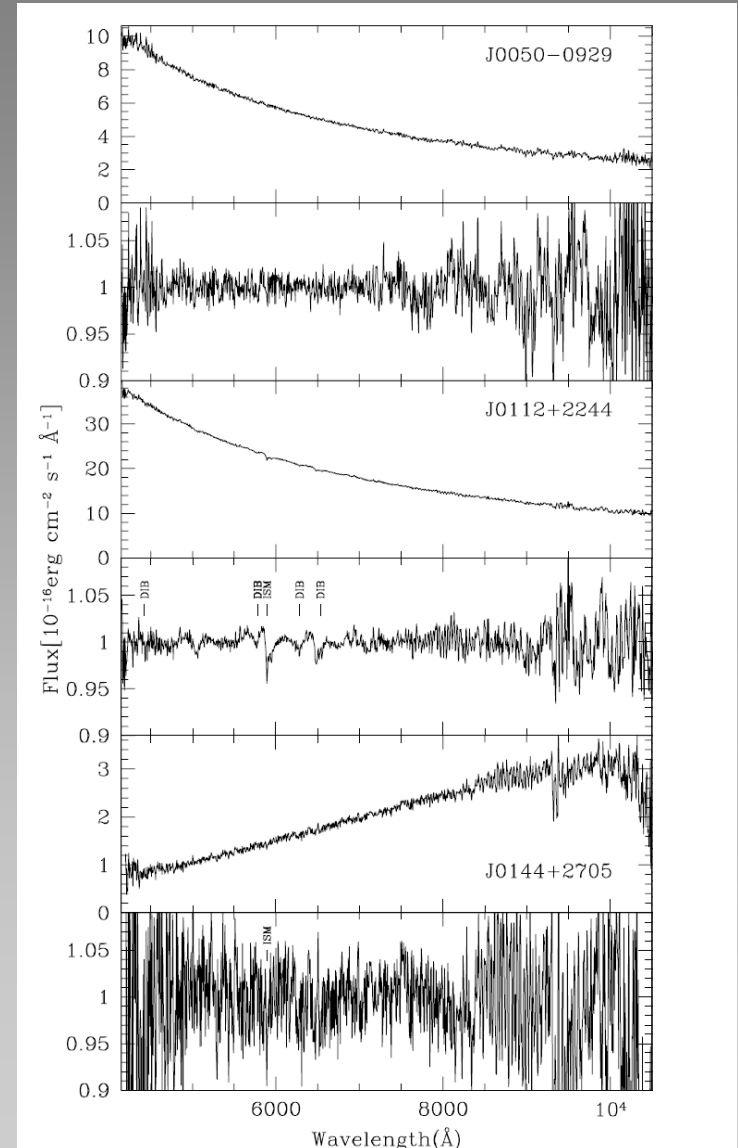
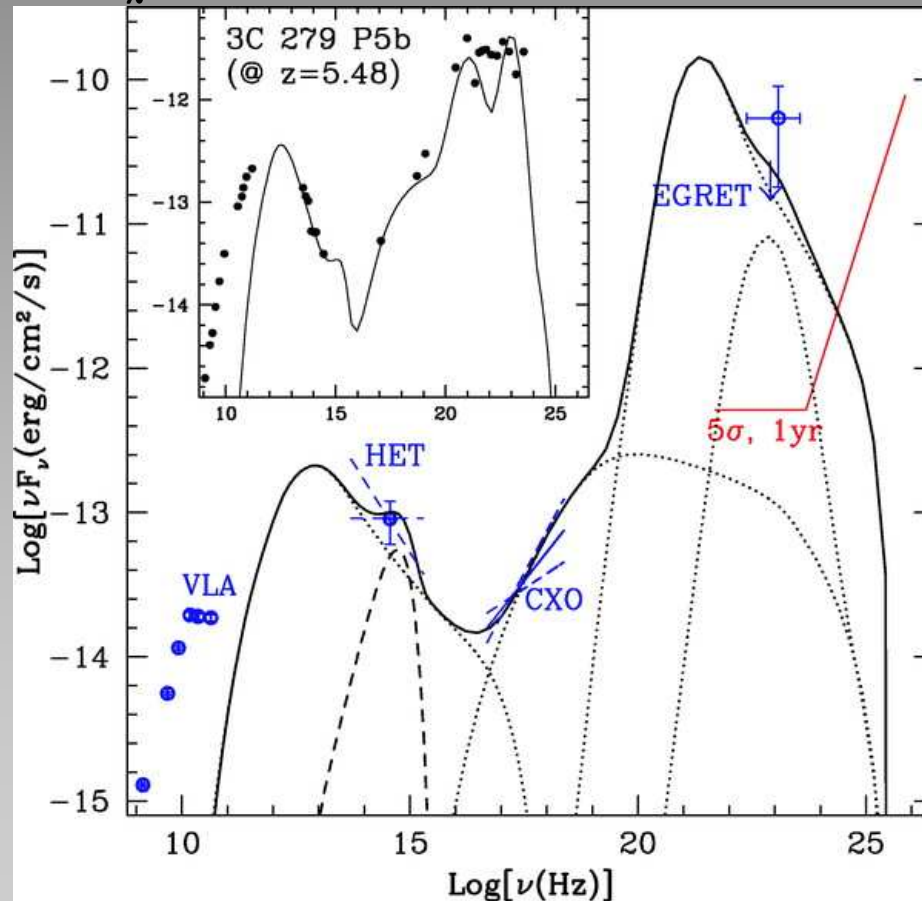


- Even greater departures from blackbodies for some objects (e.g. novae, supernovae, non-thermal sources)

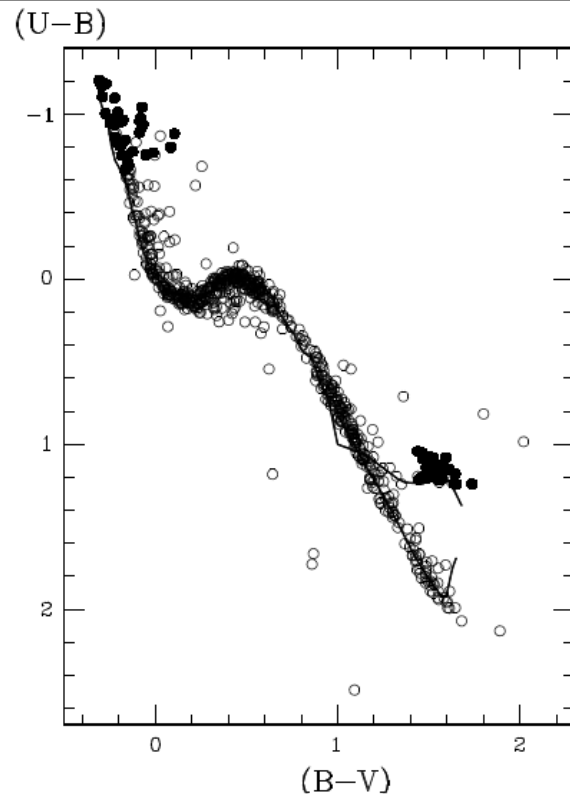
Non-blackbody SEDs

- Power Law SEDs common in active galaxies (e.g. blazars)

$$- F_{\lambda} \propto \lambda^{-\alpha}$$



Two-Colour diagrams

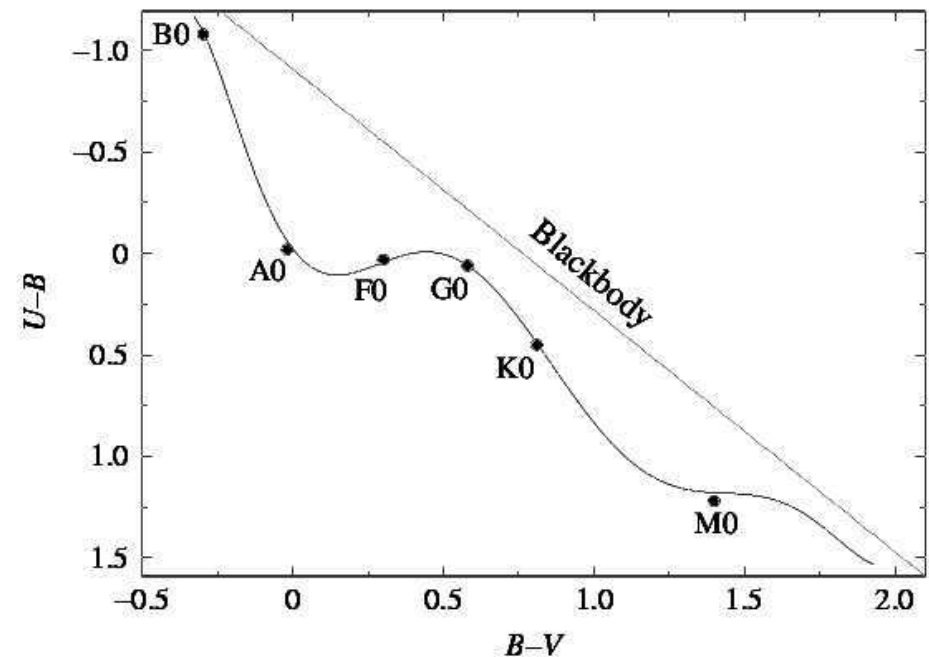


For $V = 0$ star:

$$f_{\lambda}^0 = 3.63 \times 10^{-9} \text{ erg s}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ \AA}^{-1}$$

$$f_{\nu}^0 = 3.63 \times 10^{-20} \text{ erg s}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ Hz}^{-1}$$

$$\phi_{\lambda}^0/h\nu = 1005 \text{ photons cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ \AA}^{-1}$$



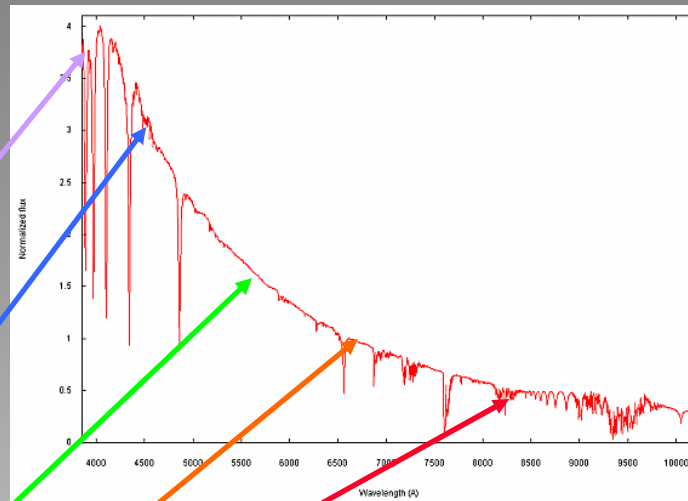
- Define colour indices:
 $U - B$ and $B - V = 0$ for A0 spectral type
- A0 defined by Vega ($T_{\text{eff}} = 9550$, $\log g = 3.95$, $\log Z/Z_{\odot} = -0.5$)



Optical/IR Observational Astronomy

Photometry I

Standard Fluxes for a $V = 0$ A0 star



	U	B	V	R	I	J	H	K	Kp	L	L*
λ_{eff}	0.366	0.438	0.545	0.641	0.798	1.22	1.63	2.19	2.12	3.45	3.80
f_{ν}	1.790	4.063	3.636	3.064	2.416	1.589	1.021	0.640	0.676	0.285	0.238
f_{λ}	417.5	632	363.1	217.7	112.6	31.47	11.38	3.961	4.479	0.708	0.489
$zp(f_{\nu})$	0.770	-0.120	0.000	0.186	0.444	0.899	1.379	1.886	1.826	2.765	2.961
$Zp(f_{\lambda})$	-0.152	-0.602	0.000	0.555	1.271	2.655	3.760	4.906	4.780	6.775	7.177

$$f_{\nu} (10^{-20} \text{ ergs cm}^{-2} \text{ sec}^{-1} \text{ hz}^{-1})$$

$$f_{\lambda} (10^{-11} \text{ ergs cm}^{-2} \text{ sec}^{-1} \text{ \AA}^{-1})$$

$$\text{mag}_{\lambda} = -2.5 \log(f_{\lambda}) - 21.100 - zp(f_{\lambda})$$

$$\text{mag}_{\nu} = -2.5 \log(f_{\nu}) - 48.598 - zp(f_{\nu})$$

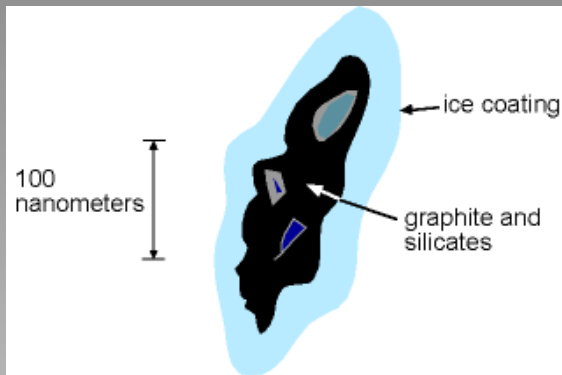
• Fluxes for $U = B = V = R = I = J = K = K' = L = L^* = 0$

Optical/IR Observational Astronomy

Photometry I

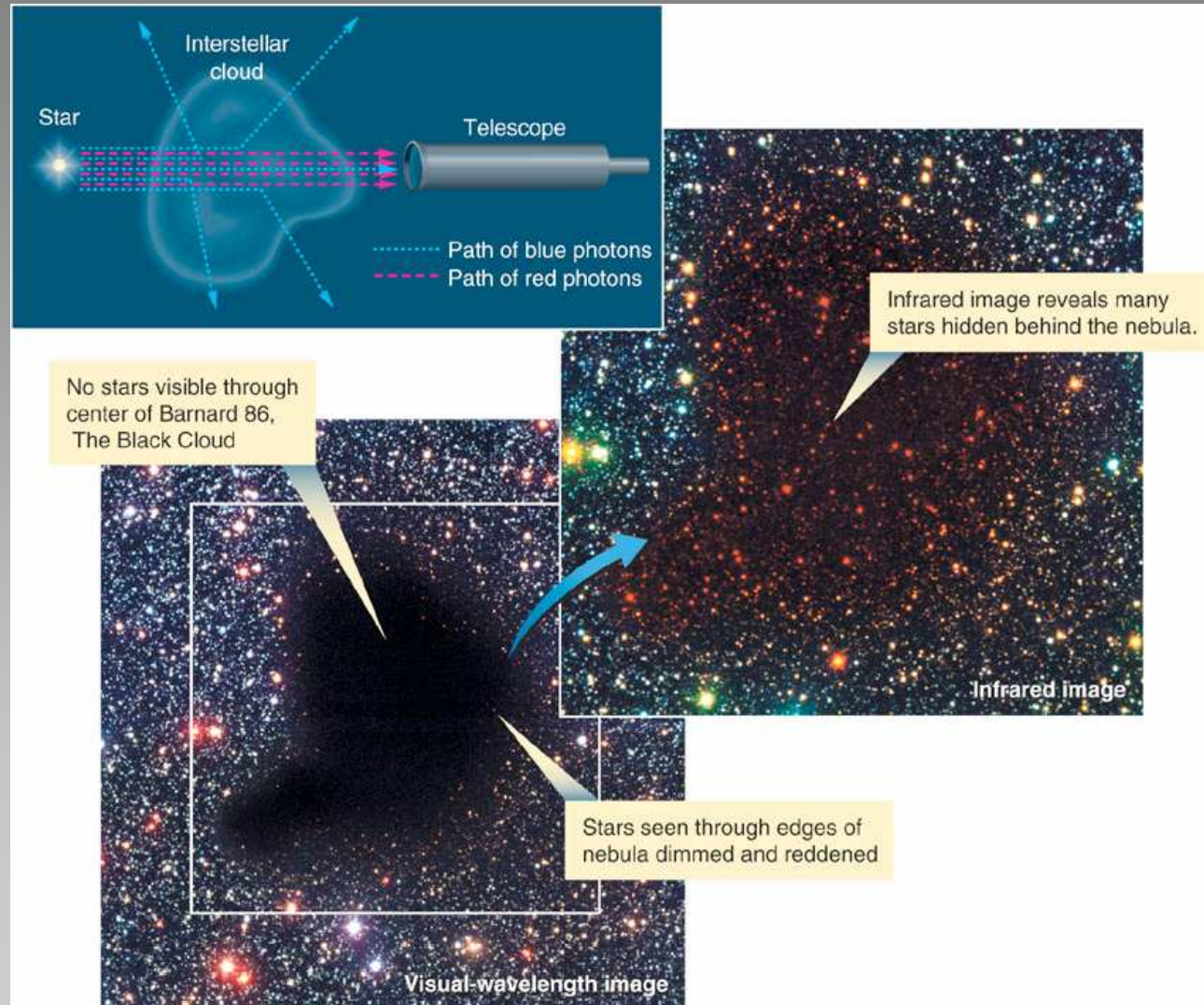
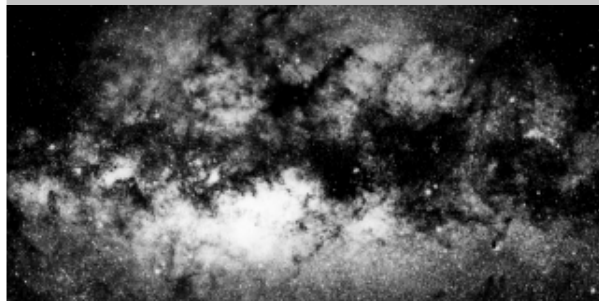
Interstellar Dust

- Interstellar space contains dust
 - Carbon & silicates



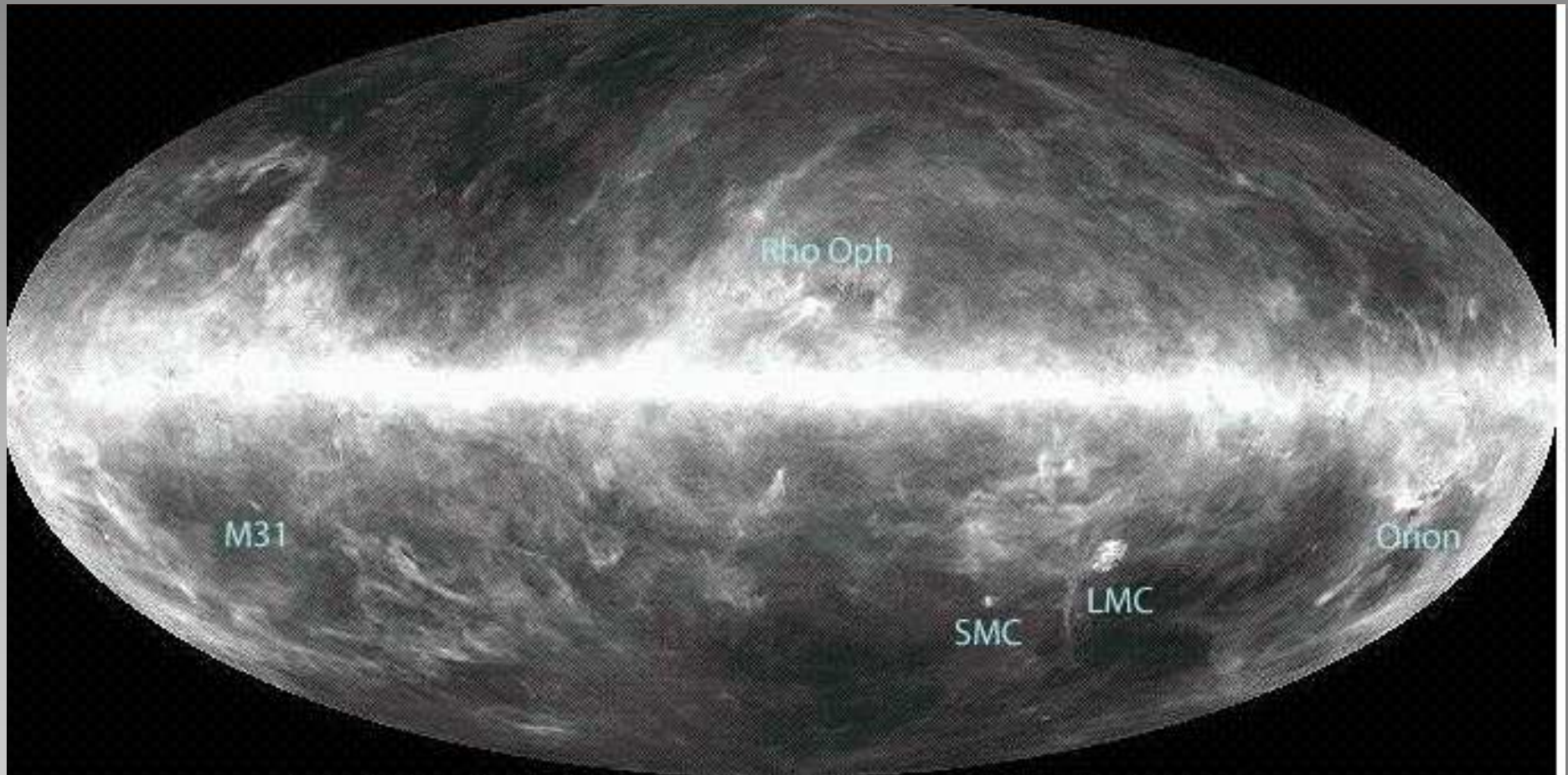
A typical dust grain (note the tiny scale!).

- Causes light to be absorbed, preferentially in the blue



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Galactic Dust



Dust emission at 100 μ m in Galactic coordinates

Galactic Dust

Statistics for galactic dust:

- Total dust mass is ~1 per cent of mass of interstellar medium (ISM), the remainder is gas

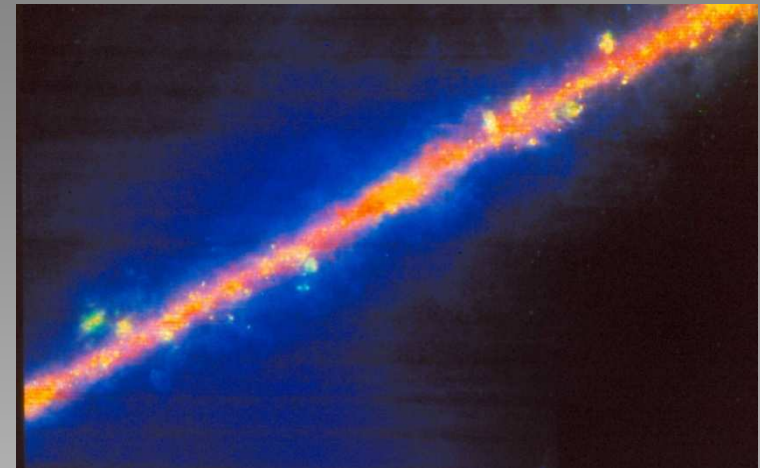
- Mean dust density in the galactic disk is

$$n_{\text{dust}} \sim 10^{-6} \text{ grains/m}^3$$

- Compare this to mean gas density of

$$n_{\text{gas}} \sim 10^{+6} \text{ gas atoms/m}^3$$

- Mean visual extinction in galactic plane ($b = 0^\circ$) is ~ 1 to 2 magnitudes (in the V-band) for each kiloparsec (1 kpc = 1000 pc) of distance, but the distribution is very patchy.



IRAS (Infrared) image of the Milky Way showing dust in galactic plane





Optical/IR Observational Astronomy

Photometry I

Interstellar Dust Extinction & Reddening

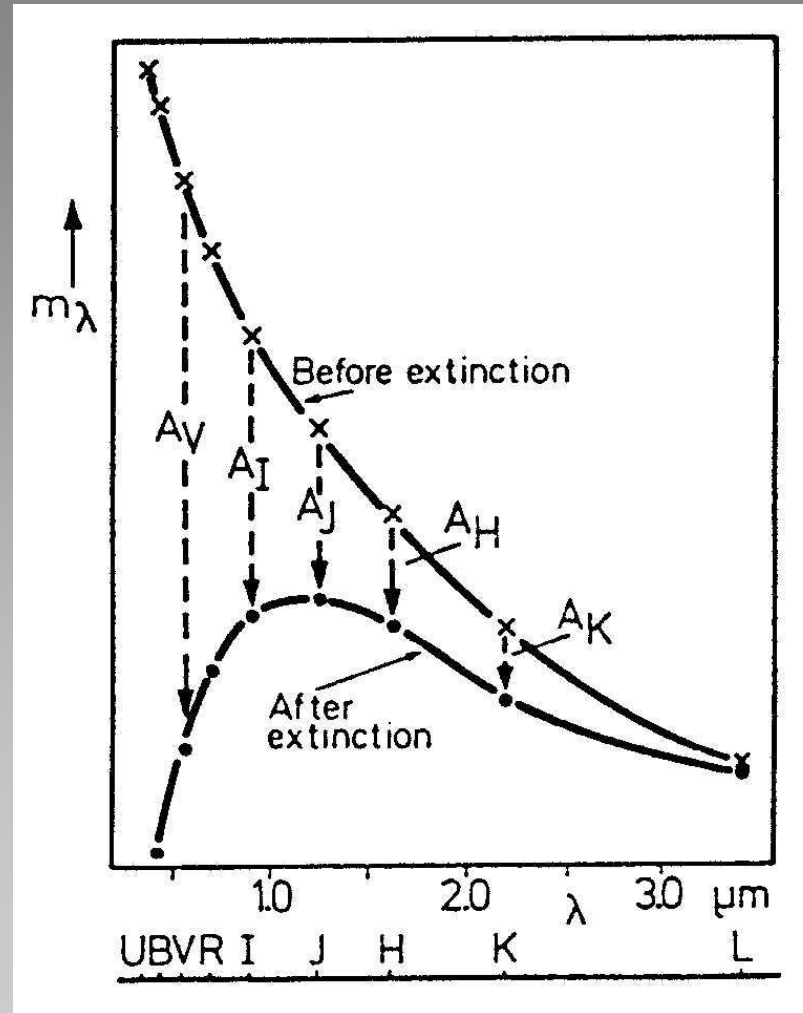
- Apparent magnitudes of objects affected
 - Appear *dimmer*
 - Before determining distances, need to correct for interstellar absorption

- Modified distance modulus:

$$m_v - M_v = 5 \log d - 5 + A_v$$

- Absorption measured in *magnitudes of extinction*, A_λ
- In addition, absorption is wavelength dependent
 - Shorter wavelengths affected most
 - Objects are *reddened*
 - Colours appear *redder*

$$E_{B-V} = (B-V)_{\text{obs}} - (B-V)_0$$



Interstellar Dust Extinction & Reddening

- Ratio of extinction to reddening defined as:

$$R_V = \frac{A_V}{A_B - A_V} = \frac{A_V}{E(B - V)}$$

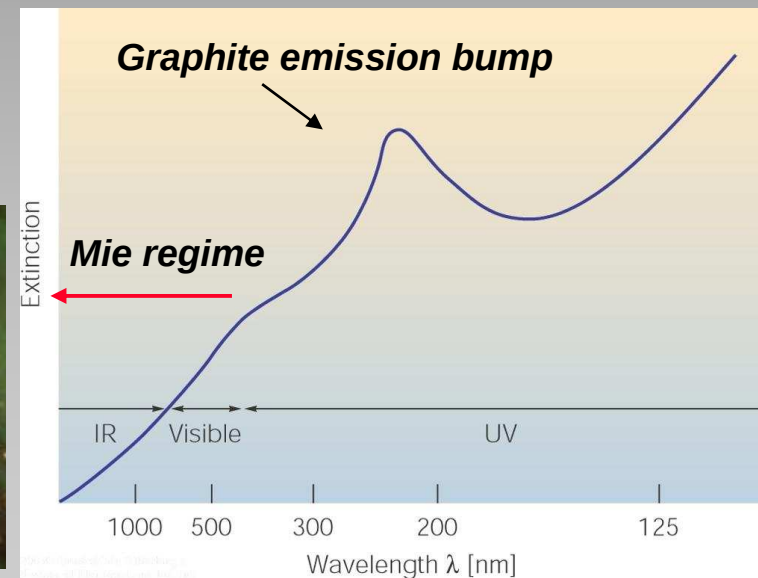
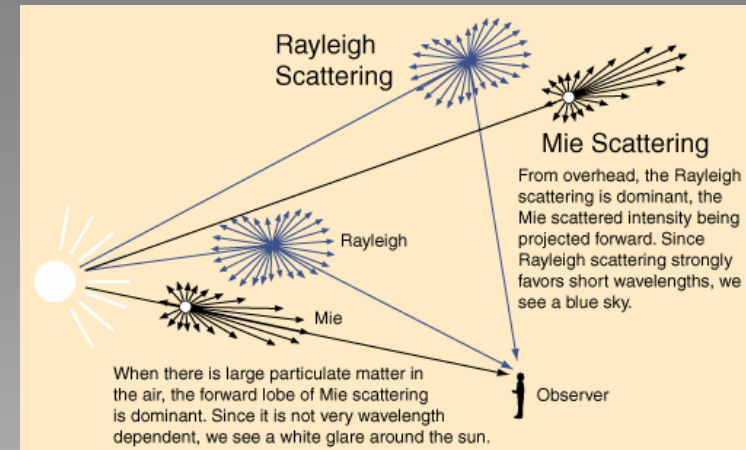
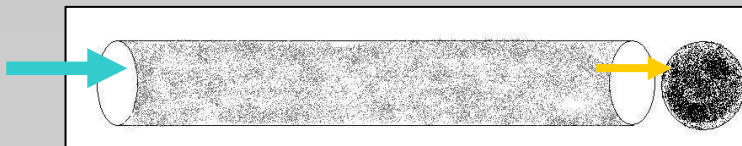
also known as the ratio of total to selective absorption

- This ratio is ~3.2 and is determined by the physics of the dust (grain size, shape, scattering)
- Mostly dust particles >100nm scatter by Mie scattering, which dominates from the near UV (>~350nm) to the IR

$$A_V \propto 1 / \lambda \quad (\text{Whitford law})$$

- In terms of column density:

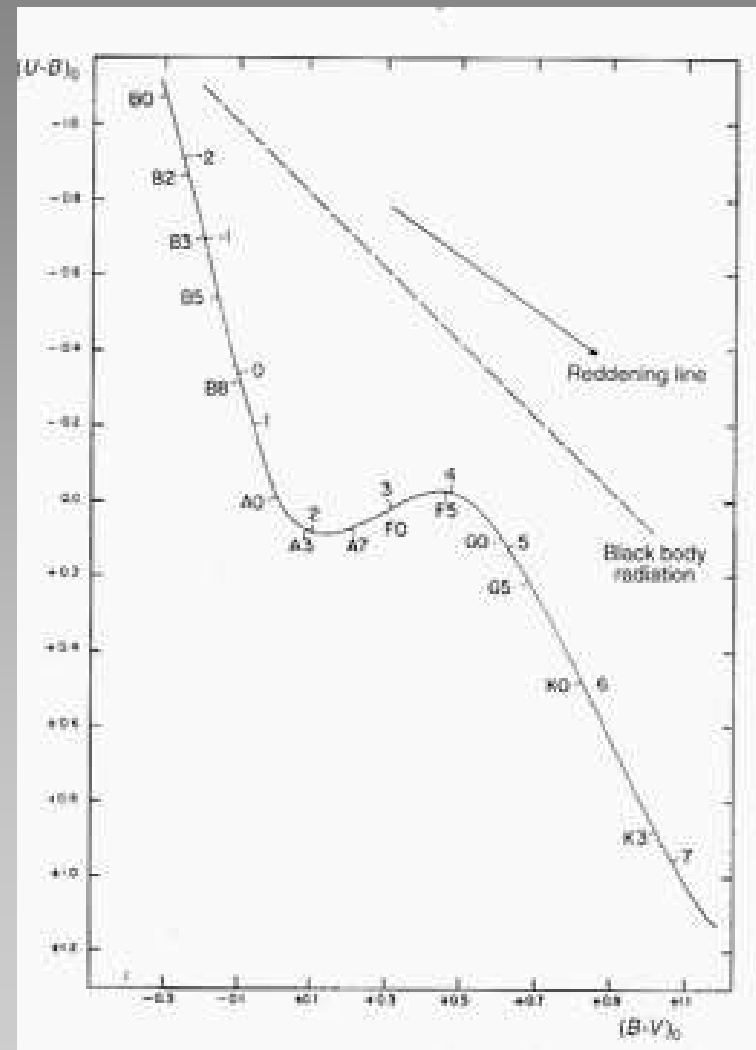
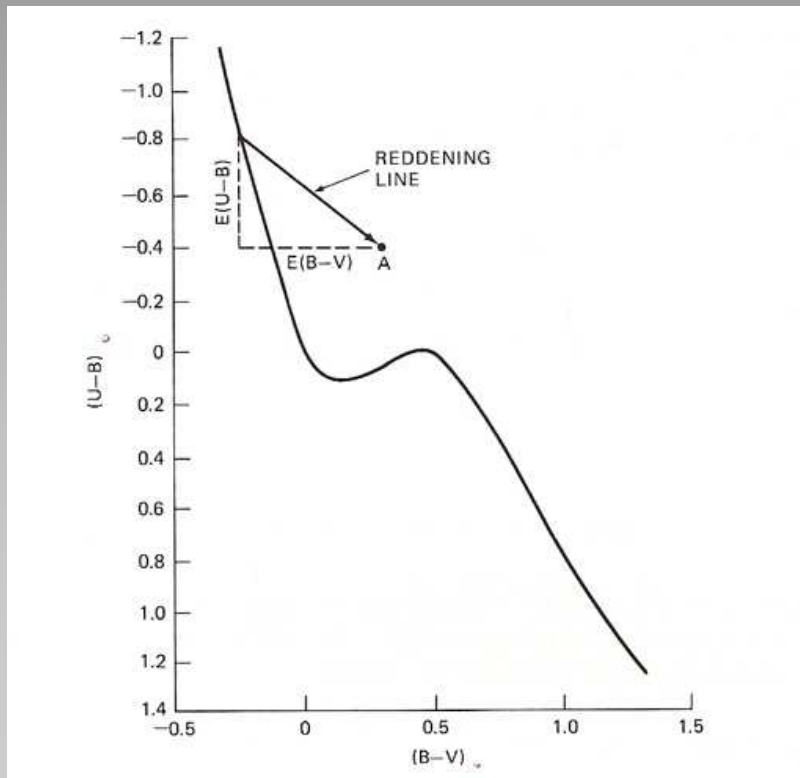
$$E(B - V) = \frac{N_H}{5.8 \times 10^{25} \text{ m}^{-2}}$$



[useful for X-ray obs]

Reddening Effects on Two-Colour diagrams

- Due to reddening, positions of stars are displaced along a reddening line
- Amount of displacement dependent on degree of reddening



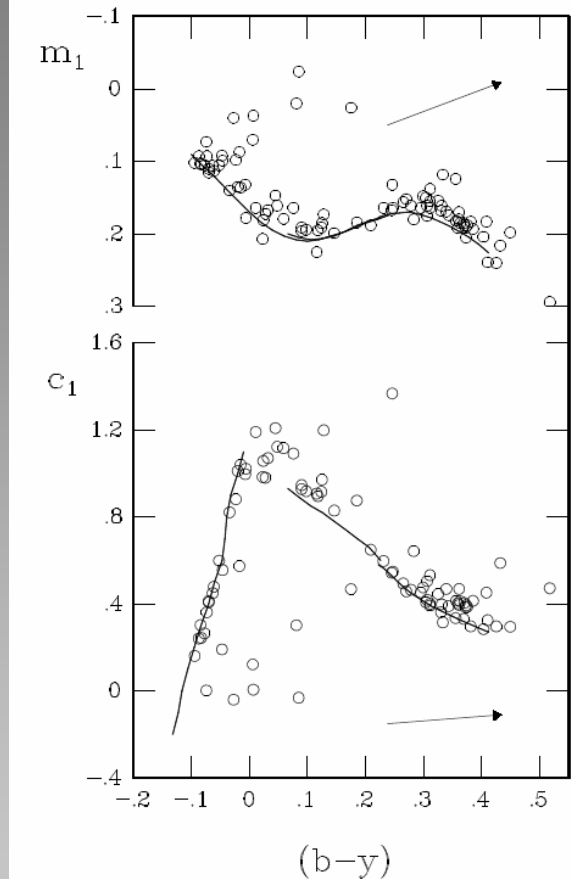
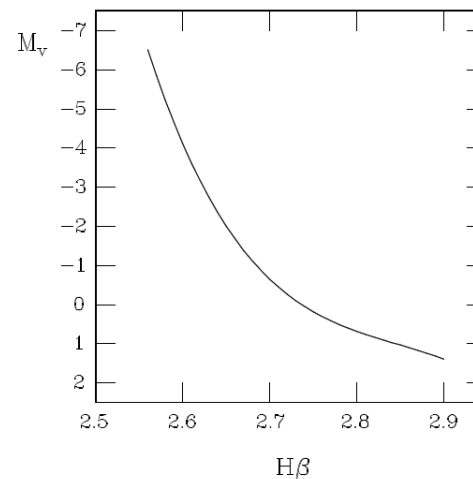
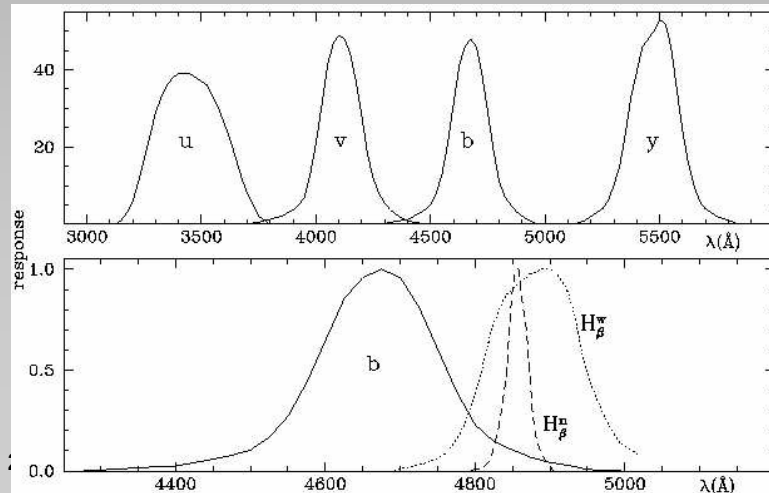


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Photometry I

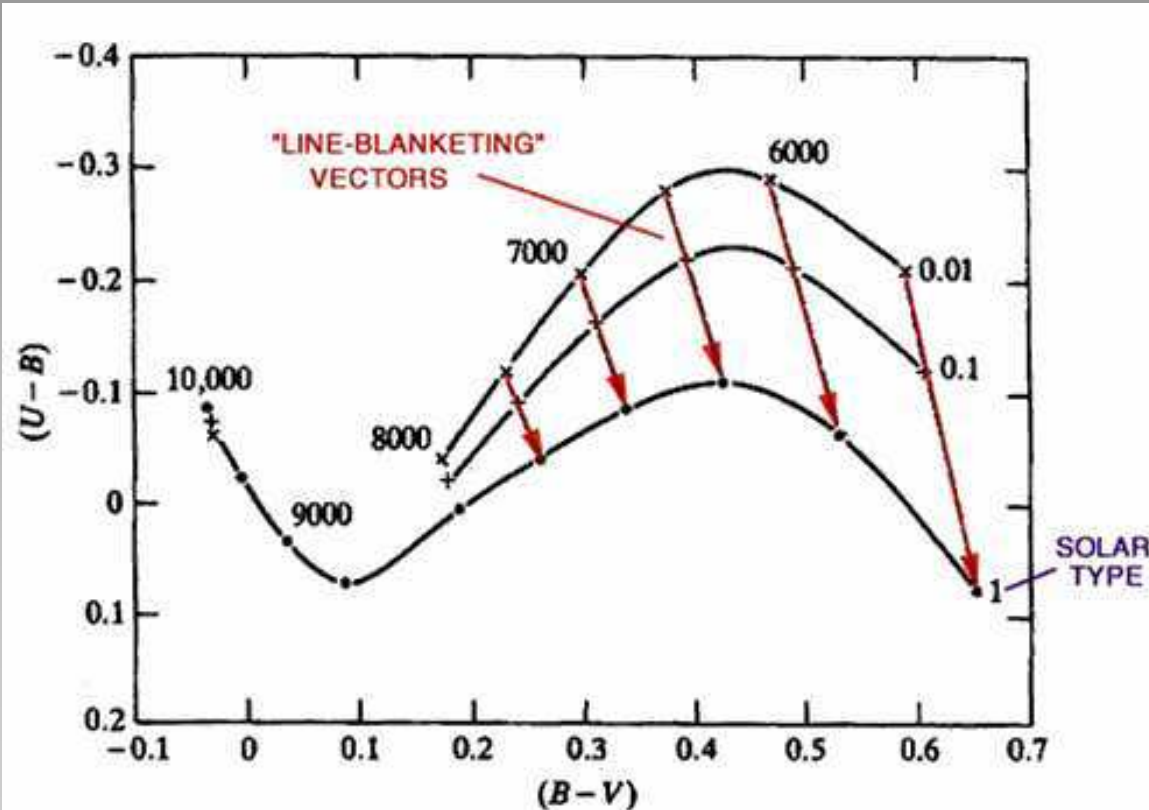
The Strömgren System

- Used mostly for hotter star (spectral type G and hotter) and uses “Intermediate” band filters
 - Few hundred Å wide (narrower than UBV)
- Define specific colour indices:
 - $(b - y)$ is a temperature indicator (like $B - V$)
 - $m1 = (v - b) - (b - y)$ is a metallicity index
 - $c1 = (u - v) - (v - b)$ measures the strength of the Balmer jump and is a luminosity indicator for A, F & G stars and a temperature indicator for O-B stars
 - β -index = ratio of flux in wide & narrow $H\beta$ filter, and is a temperature indicator in A, F & G stars and a luminosity indicator in O-B stars (compliments C1 index)



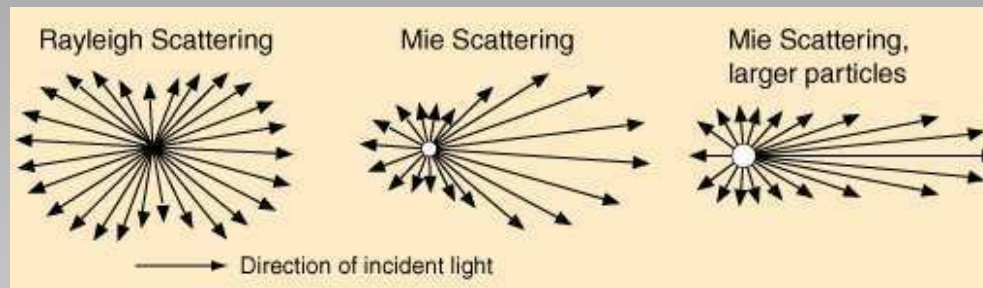
Line Blanketing

- Akin to reddening lines, but due to the effects of metallic absorption lines in the star's atmosphere
- Most prevalent in the UV
- Decreases the UV flux, therefore $U - B$ gets redder, more so than $B - V$



Effects of the Earth's Atmosphere: Extinction

- Light is absorbed, extinguished or extincted as it passes through the Earth's atmosphere
- Two primary causes:
 - Scattering
 - » Rayleigh scattering by air molecules ($\propto 1 / \lambda^4$)
 - » Mie scattering by aerosols e.g. man made pollutants, pollens, terrestrial, meteoric & volcanic dust, sea salt on the coast, etc. ($\propto 1 / \lambda$)



- Molecular absorption
 - » Ozone (O_3) in the UV & Vis
 - » Water vapour in the red & IR



Optical/IR Observational Astronomy

Photometry I

Atmospheric Extinction

- Amount of extinction determined by path length through atmosphere
- This is dependent upon the zenith distance (z)
- Define airmass (X) to be the path length through the atmosphere at the zenith
- For a **plane-parallel** atmosphere (i.e. flat-Earth):

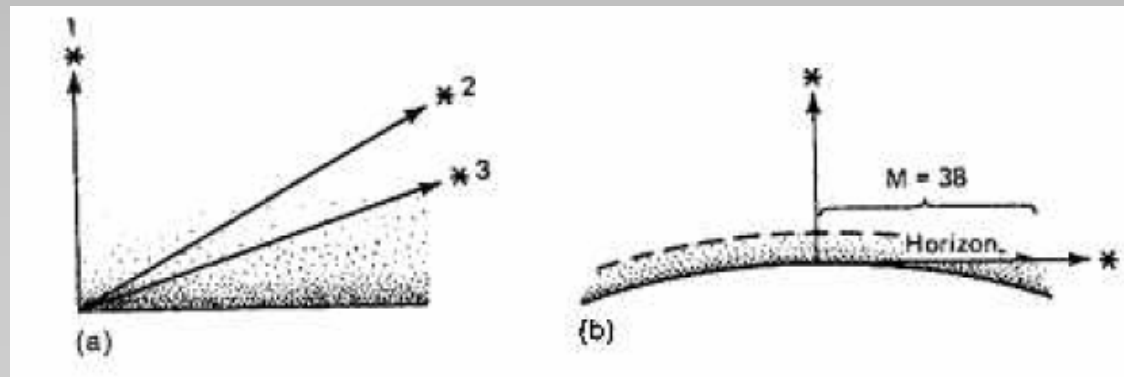
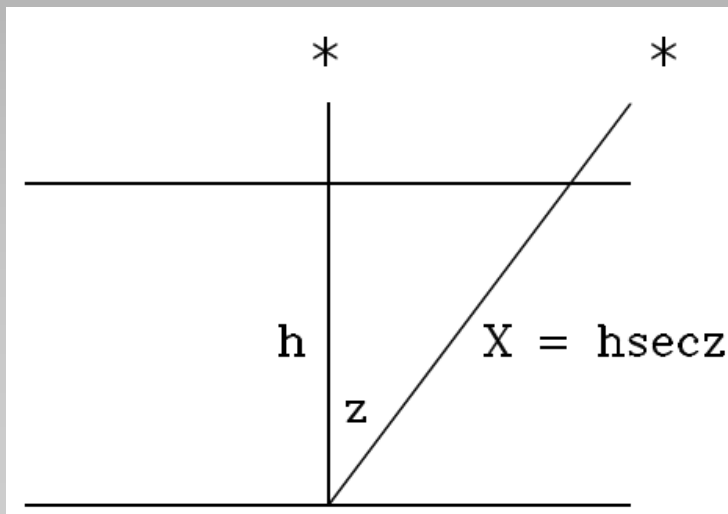
$$X = \sec z = [\sin \phi \sin \delta + \cos \phi \cos \delta \cos h]^{-1}$$

ϕ = latitude
 δ = declination
 h = Hour Angle

- For the true **spherical** atmosphere, need to correct as follows:

$$X = \sec z (1 - 0.0012(\sec^2 z - 1)) \quad [\text{works for } z < 87^\circ]$$

*Stars appear **dimmer** (& **redder**) nearer the horizon. For real (curved) atmosphere, objects on horizon have $X \sim 38$! Generally astronomers avoid observing at $X > 2$ ($z > 60^\circ$), unless really necessary.*





Optical/IR Observational Astronomy

Photometry I

Atmospheric Extinction

- Define extinction in terms of opacity, optical depth and airmass
- A beam of light of intensity I_0 at the top of the atmosphere passes through the atmosphere of optical depth, τ , and is dimmed by an amount dI , so it now has a reduced intensity, I , where:

$$I = I_0 - dI$$

and

$$I/I_0 = e^{-\tau X}$$

- The degree of dimming is determined by the airmass (path length) and optical depth, thus:

$$dI = -I \tau dX \text{ or, } \frac{dI}{I} = -\tau dX$$

Integrating path $\Rightarrow$

$$\ln I - \ln I_0 = -\tau X$$

- Optical depth is related to the opacity, κ , and density, ρ :

$$\tau = \kappa \rho$$

so,

$$dI_\lambda = -\kappa \rho I_\lambda dX$$

- In terms of magnitudes:

$$m - m_0 = -2.5 \log_{10} (I/I_0) = -2.5 \log_{10} (e^{-\tau X}) = -2.5 \times 0.4343 \ln(e^{-\tau X}) = 1.086 \tau X$$

$$\Rightarrow m = m_0 + k X \quad [\text{where } k \text{ is the extinction coefficient, } k = 1.086 \tau, \text{ measured in mags}]$$



Optical/IR Observational Astronomy

Photometry I

Extinction

- Extinction changes the observed brightness of stars:

$$m_{obs} = m_{true} + k(\lambda) \sec Z$$

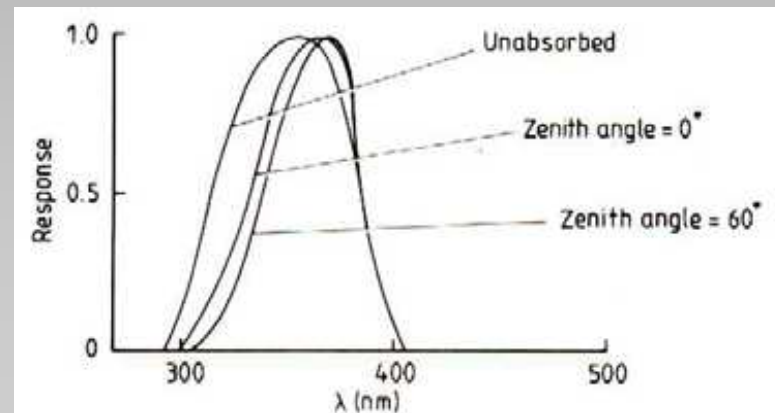
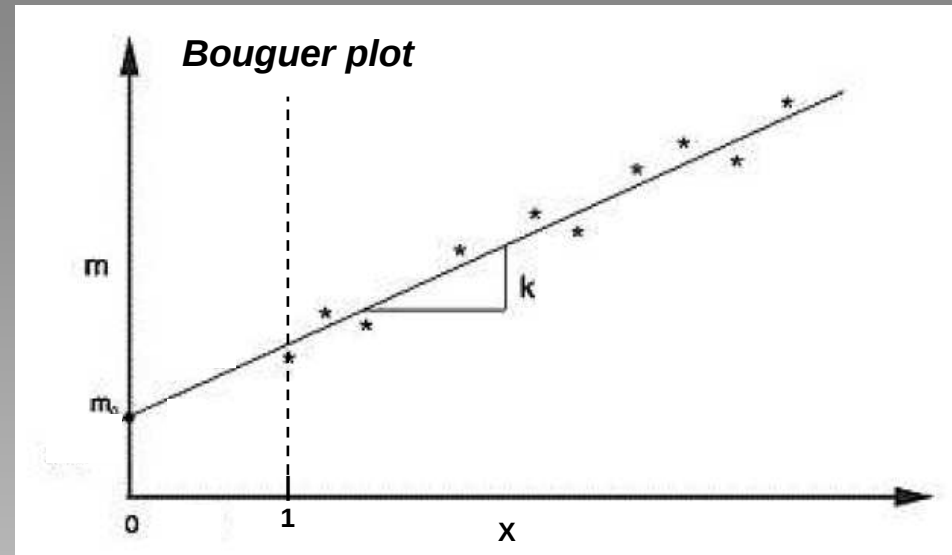
- The extinction coefficient, k , is strongly wavelength dependent
- It is solely dependent on the nature of the atmosphere
 - i.e. the processes causing the absorption & scattering
- Because filters are not monochromatic (i.e. they have some bandwidth), the effective wavelength depends on the object's colour index (e.g. $B - V$)

$\Rightarrow k$ has a colour dependency:

$$k_{\lambda} = k'_{\lambda} + k''_{\lambda} (B - V)$$

k'_{λ} : Primary extinction coefficient

k''_{λ} : secondary extinction coefficient



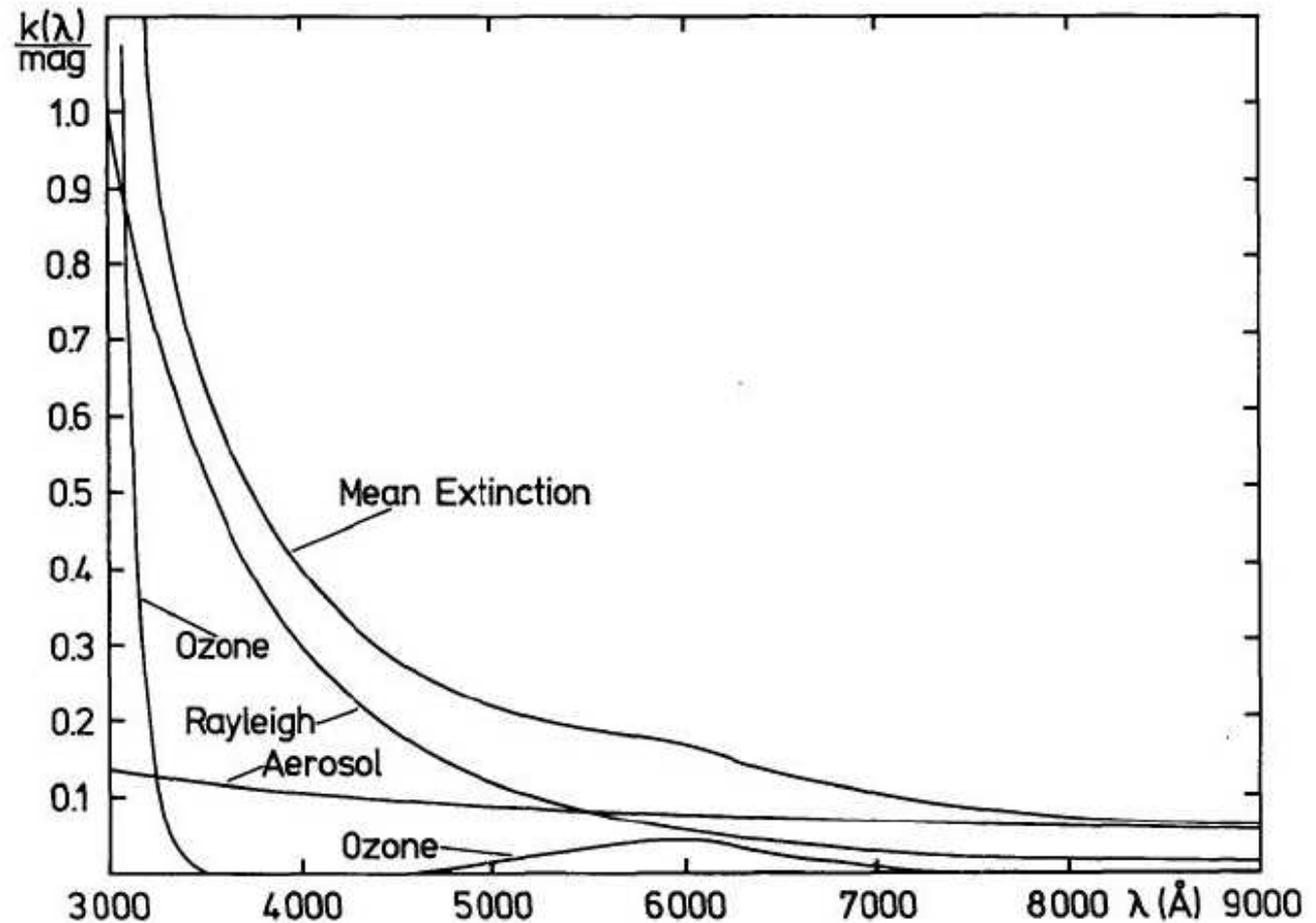


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Photometry I

Extinction Coefficient

- Increases *exponentially* to short λ
- Correct magnitudes to out-of-atmosphere values
- Use stars of known (and constant) magnitudes and colours to determine extinction coefficients



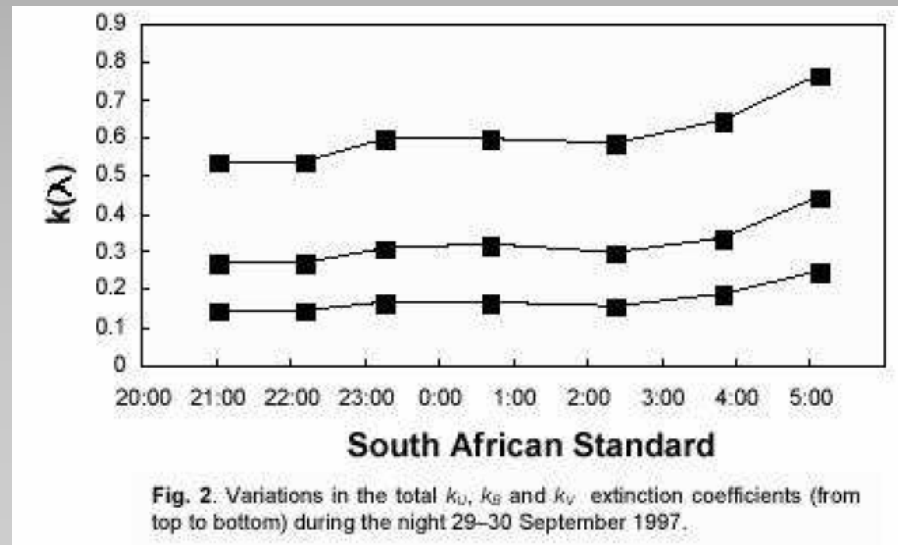


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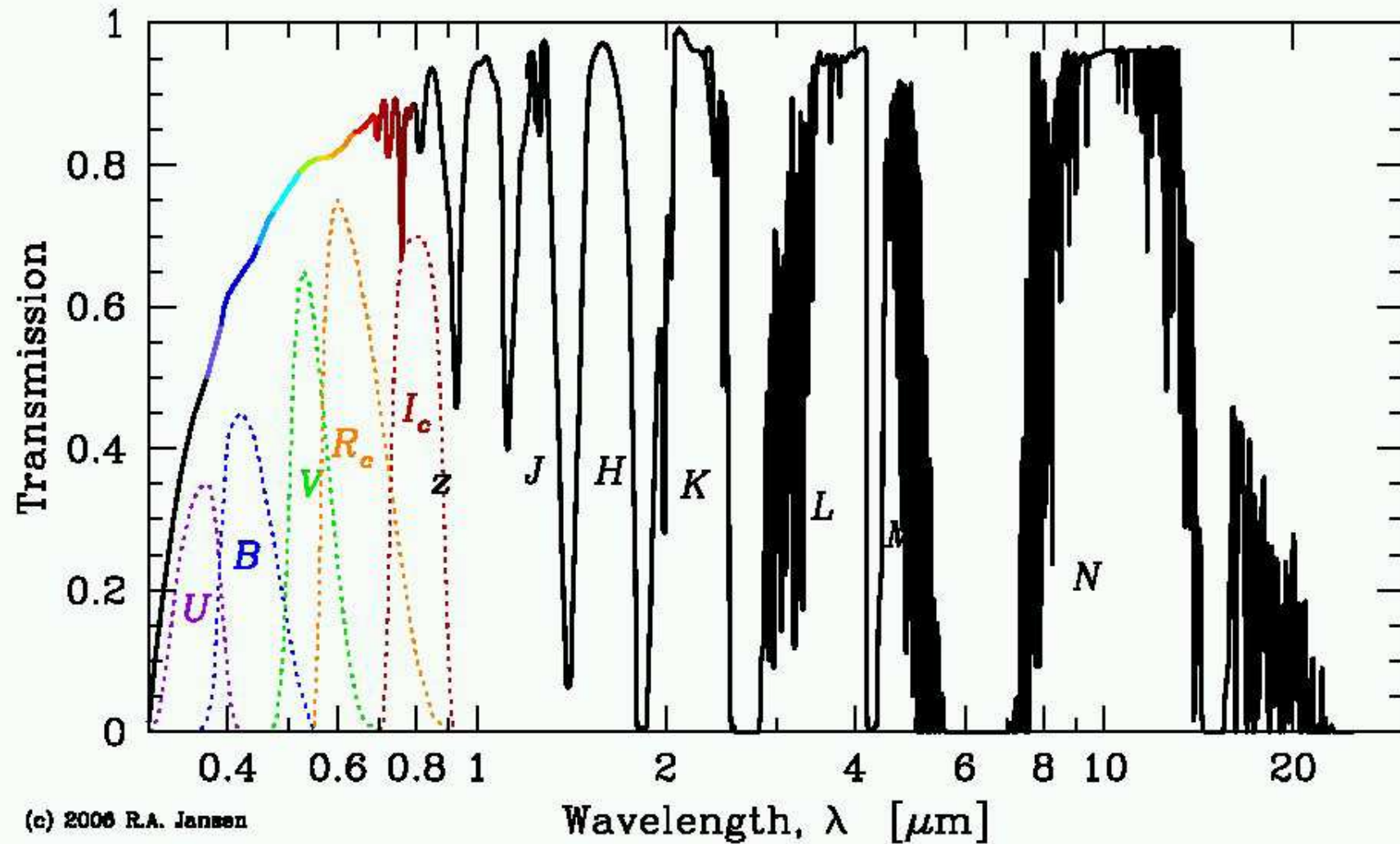
Photometry I

Extinction Coefficient

- Ideally extinction coefficient is constant and just a function of the observing site
 - Dependent on altitude (e.g. can be above inversion layers of atmosphere)
 - Dependent on the aerosol content
 - In the IR dependent upon the water vapour content
- In reality extinction can change
 - Dust can be more prevalent in certain seasons (e.g. late spring in Sutherland sometimes suffers from Kalahari dust)
 - Pollutants can vary during the year (e.g. pyrogenic aerosols from veld fires; volcanic dust from eruptions; pollens from plants; dust during windy episodes)

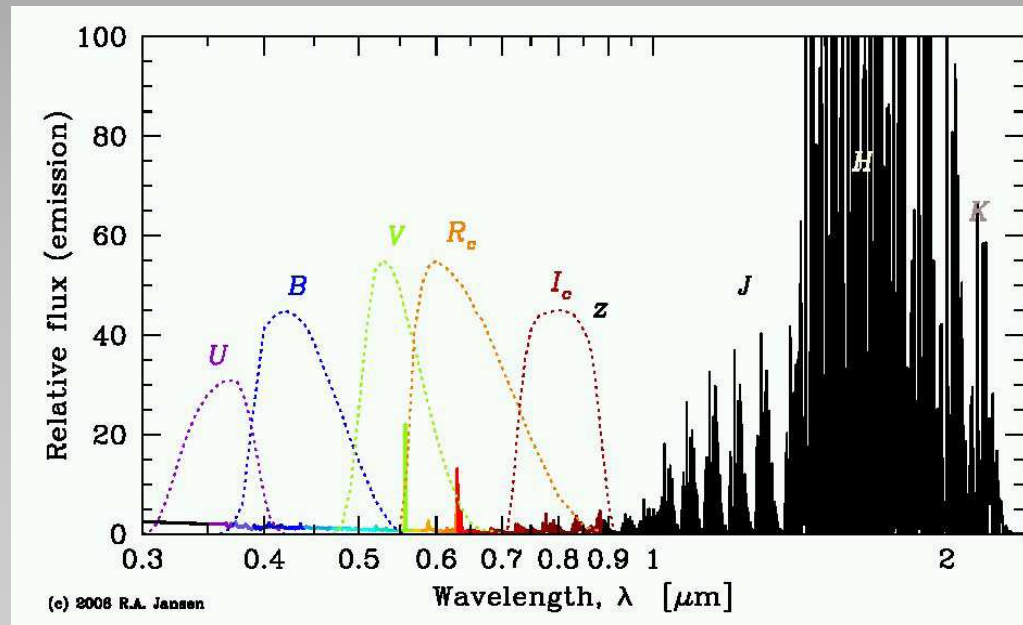


Atmospheric Transmission

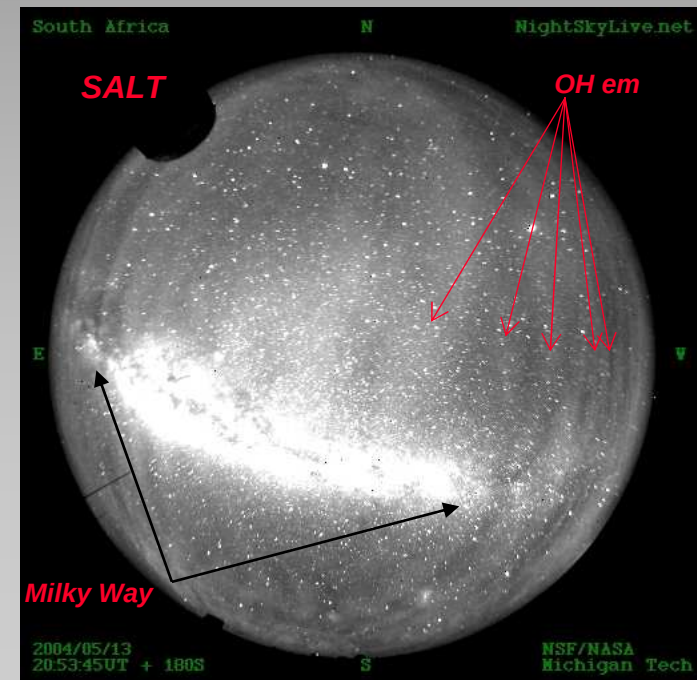


Atmospheric Emission

- Caused by emission from atoms and molecules in atmosphere, at night
 - “Airglow” lines from excited O, N & Na (e.g. 5577, 6300, 6363Å of O some of the strongest)
 - OH- emission in the IR (gravity waves in atmosphere)
- Additional source of background emission (plus “sky” from lots of unresolved stars & galaxies)
- Need to subtract background to obtain object brightness
 - Aperture photometry uses some “blank” region of sky
 - 2-D imaging median filter to remove stars & fit sky



Sutherland CONCAM all-sky image

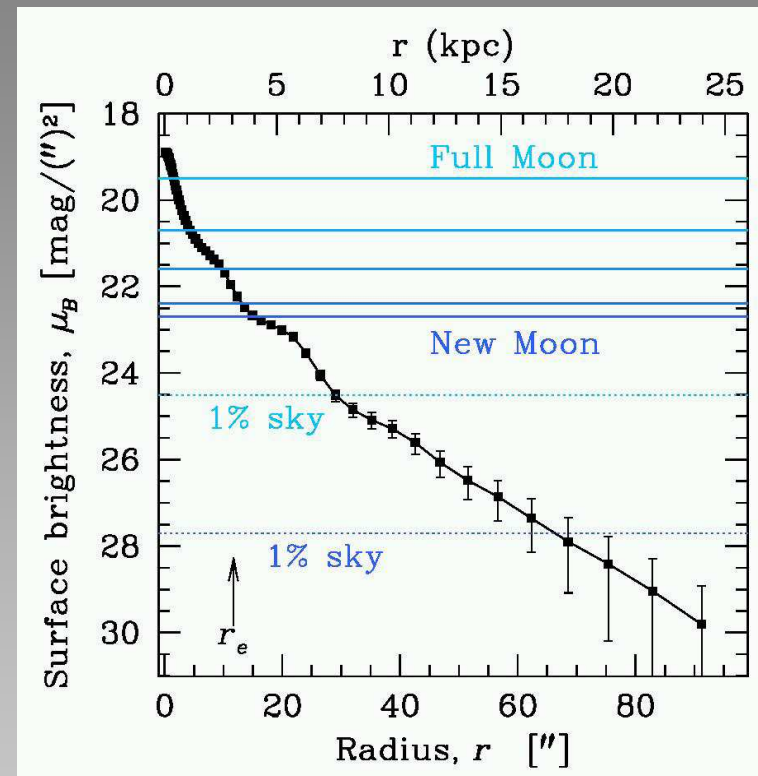


Optical/IR Observational Astronomy

Photometry I

Contributors to Sky Background

- Moonlight adds to sky background
 - Essentially a Rayleigh scattered Solar spectrum
 - See Solar absorption features in spectra
- Fainter objects harder to observe when Moon is around
 - Contrast is less
- Light from the dust in the Solar System
 - Zodaical glow of dust scattering sunlight*



*Brian May (Queen) obtained his PhD on Zodaical dust in 2007, ~30 years after he suspended his studies in favour of a non-astronomical career!



Optical/IR Observational Astronomy

Photometry I

Photometric Observations

- Measure brightness with a photometric system
- Correct for background
 - Subtract off “sky”
- Correct for extinction
 - Apply airmass correction
 - Determine extinction coefficients from observations of standard stars over range of airmass
 - Alternatively, use canonical (default) coefficients and make small “zero point” corrections using observations of standard stars
- Determine the standard magnitudes & colours
 - “Transform” magnitude and colour measurements from the *system* or *instrumental* magnitudes to the standard magnitudes
 - » *Absolute or “all sky” photometry*
 - Achieved using observations of standard stars of known magnitudes in the photometric system being used (e.g. UBVRI)
 - Needs “*photometric*” conditions, i.e. completely clear and stable extinction, also called good atmospheric “transparency”



Optical/IR Observational Astronomy

Photometry I

Differential Photometric Observations

- Alternatively conduct differential photometry
 - Compare relative magnitudes between object of interest and a “comparison” star nearby
 - For single channel systems (e.g. photomultiplier-based photometers), need to flip back & forth between object & comparison star
 - Single channel devices use *aperture photometry*
 - Two channel devices can measure two stars simultaneously
 - » Sometime possible to observe in non-photometric conditions
e.g. thin uniform cirrus cloud cover
 - 2D imaging devices (e.g. CCDs) can measure many stars simultaneously
 - » Able use several stars as “comparisons”
 - » Statistically better (average brightness over many stars)
 - » Can use profile fitting to PSFs as well as aperture photometry
 - On SALT can only do differential photometry, due to varying effective collecting area of the telescope

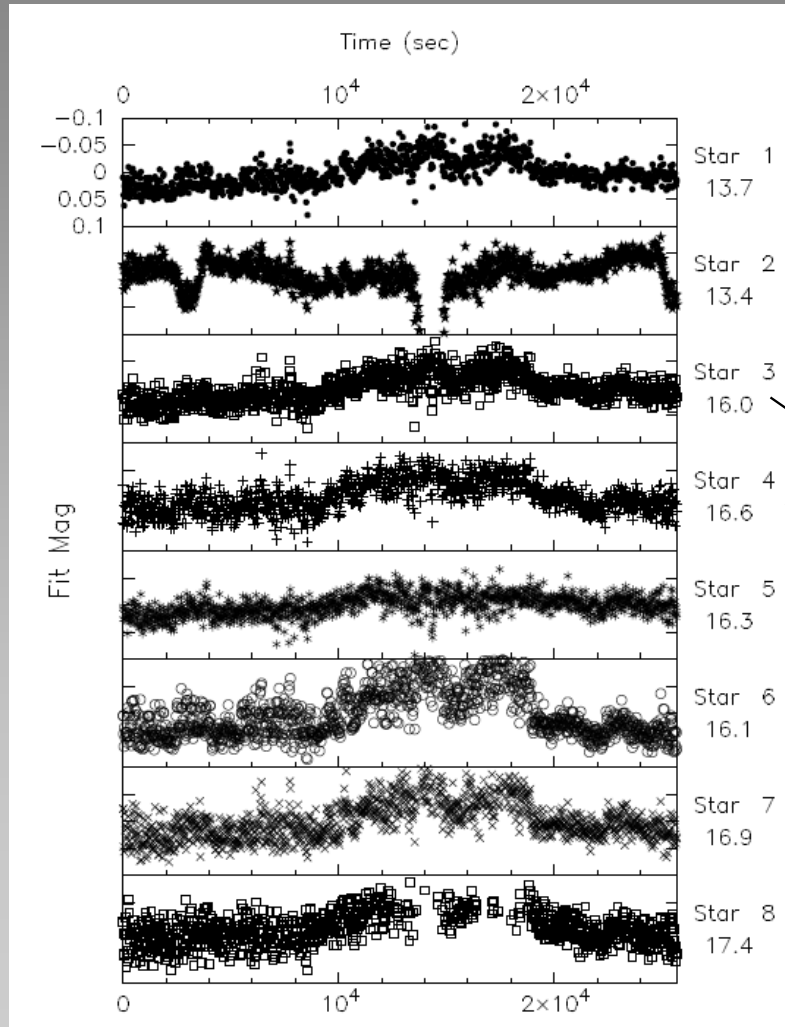


Optical/IR Observational Astronomy

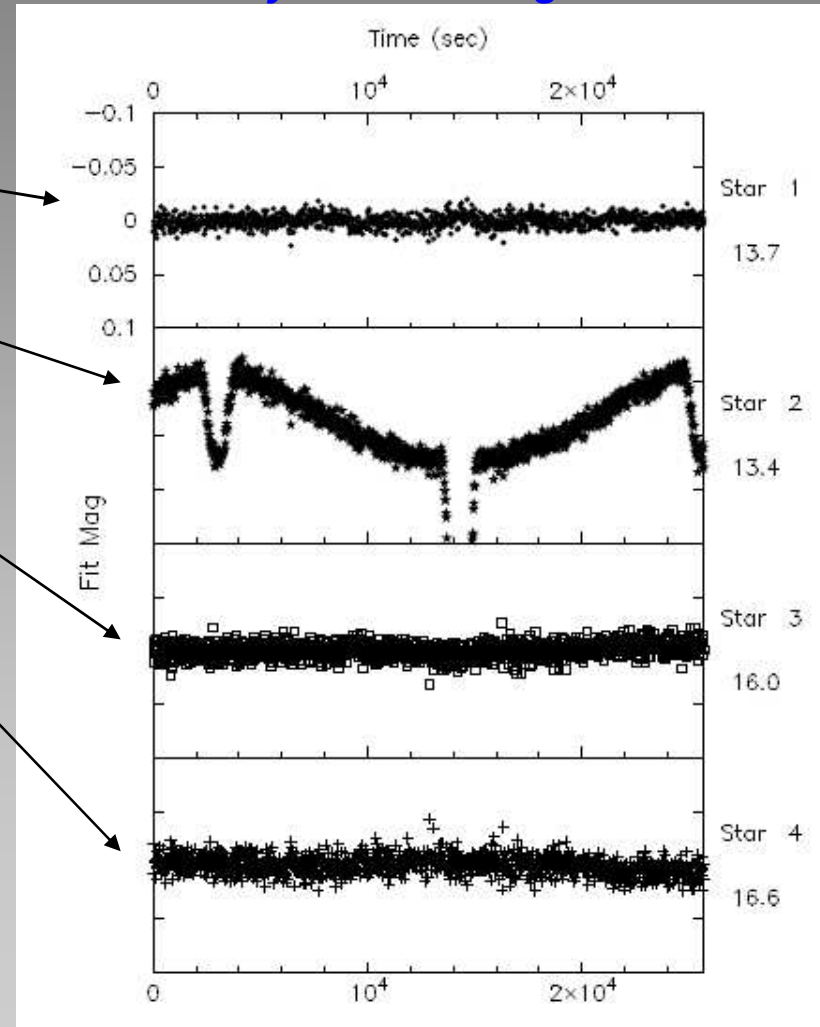
Photometry I

Differential Photometry

Uncorrected light-curves



Differentially corrected light-curves



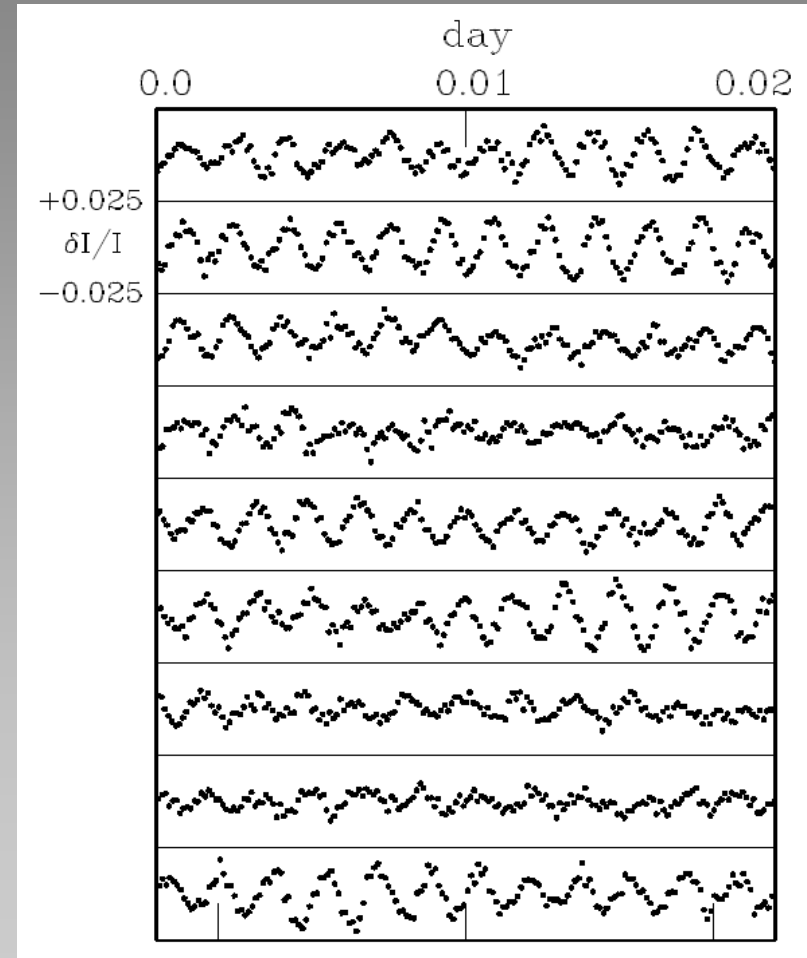


Optical/IR Observational Astronomy

Photometry I

Time Resolved Photometry

- Important for any time varying sources
- Long observing spans (hours, all-night) sometimes important for detecting multi-periodic light variations
 - From stellar pulsations
 - Spin, orbital & beat period variations
- Analysis of light variations usually done by Fourier analysis, or similar techniques
 - e.g. attempt to match data with a series of sinusoidal variations
 - Varying amplitude, frequency & phase
- Produce a power spectrum ($\propto \text{amplitude}^2$)
 - Shows the likely periodic frequencies that, combined together, can explain the observed light curves





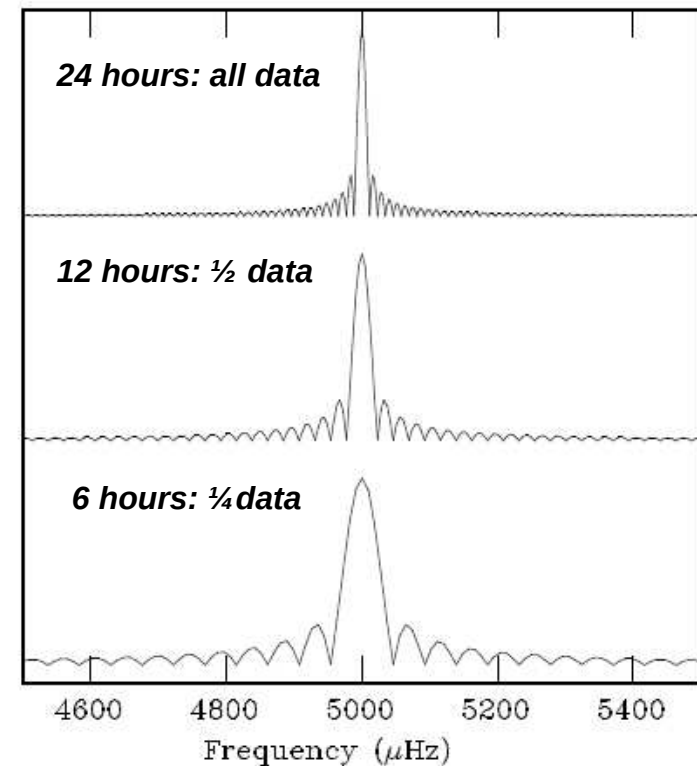
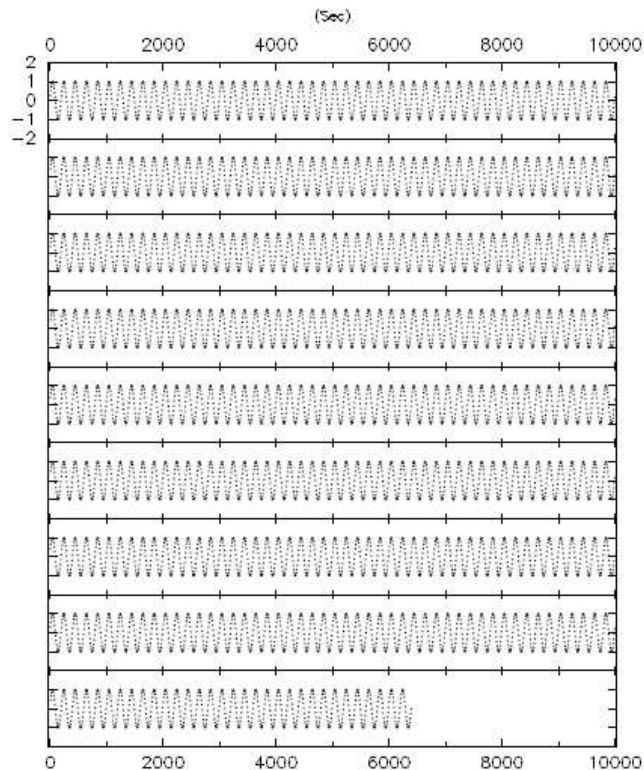
Optical/IR Observational Astronomy

Photometry I

Fourier Theory

- Power spectrum (= periodogram) of an infinitely long single periodic sinusoid will be a **delta function** (i.e. a “spike”)
- Actual data is finite and the corresponding periodogram will have **single peak** of a **sinc function**

24 hour light curve for a single periodic variation at $P = 200$ sec ($\nu = 5$ milli Hz)



Fourier amplitude spectrum for various segments of the light curve at left

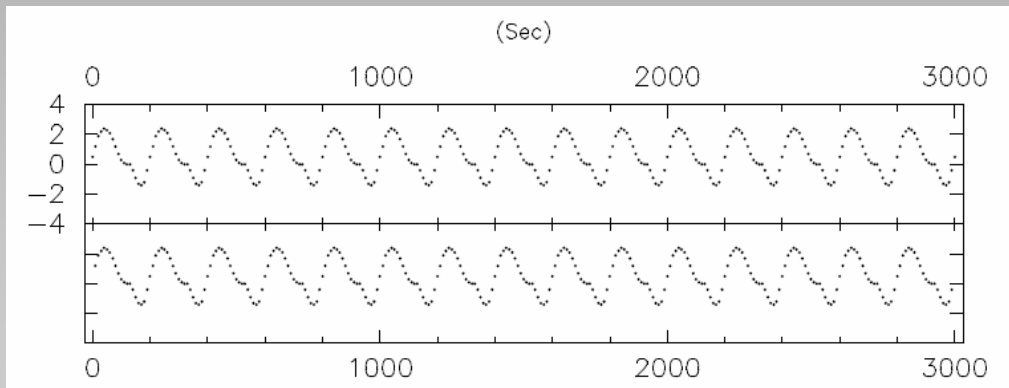


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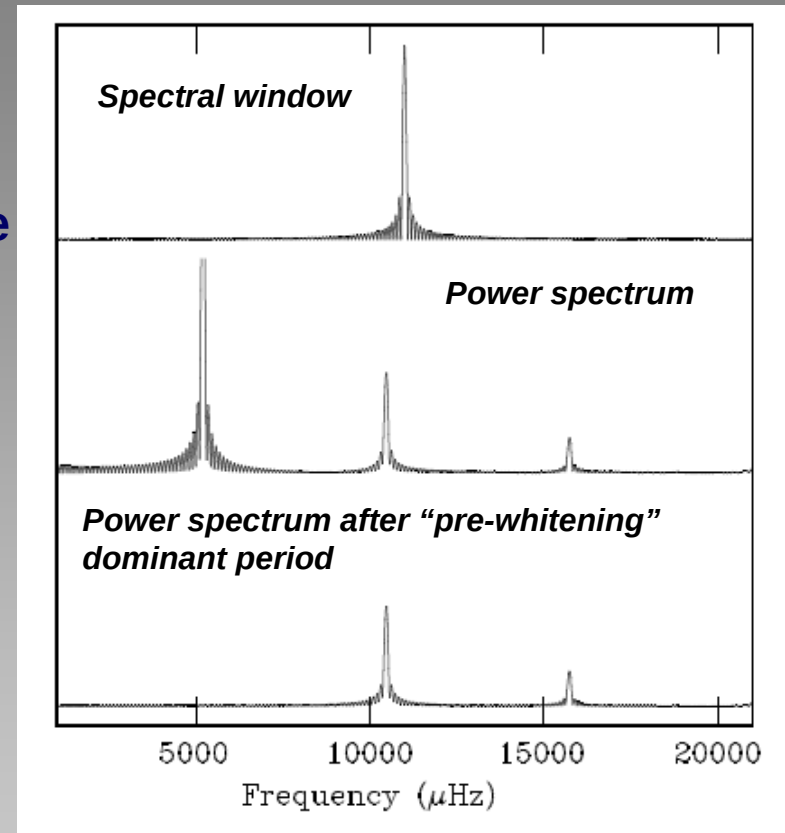
Photometry I

Harmonics

- Sometimes light variations are non-sinusoidal
 - e.g, in pulsating stars like RR Lyr
- Can still simulate the non-sinusoidal shape by combining higher order harmonics
 - Fundamental frequency (period), ν , has harmonics 2ν , 3ν , 4ν ... $n\nu$
 - Attempt to fit data with combination of harmonics, varying their amplitudes and phases



Simulation of non-sinusoidal variations



Power spectrum for the light curve at left showing the harmonic peaks

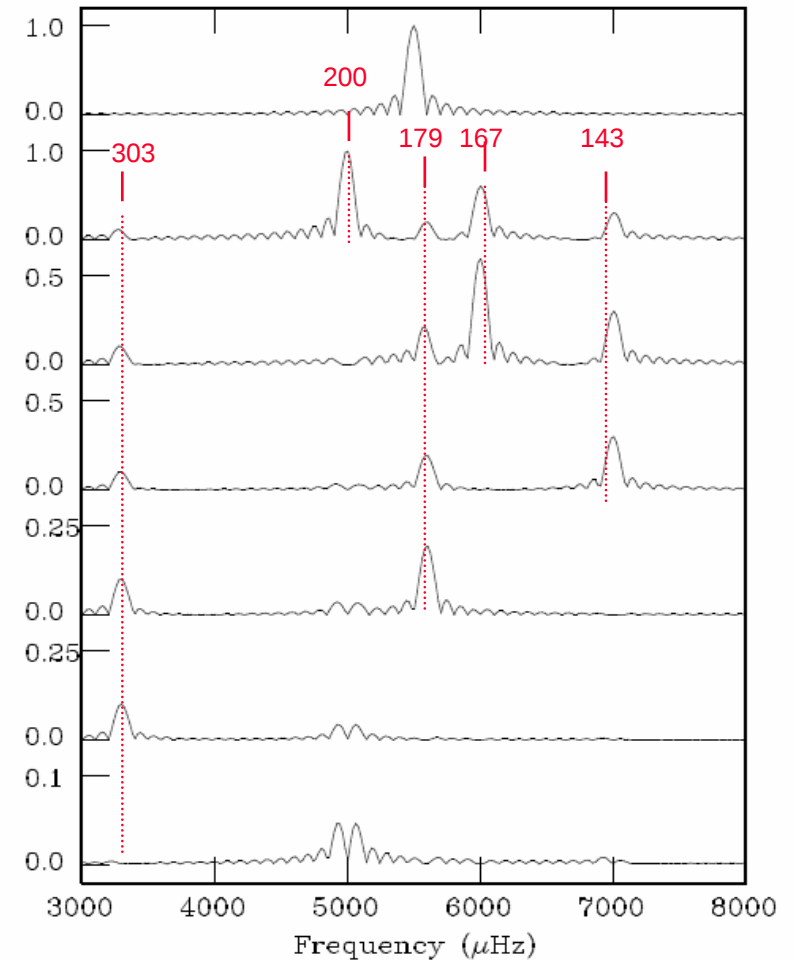
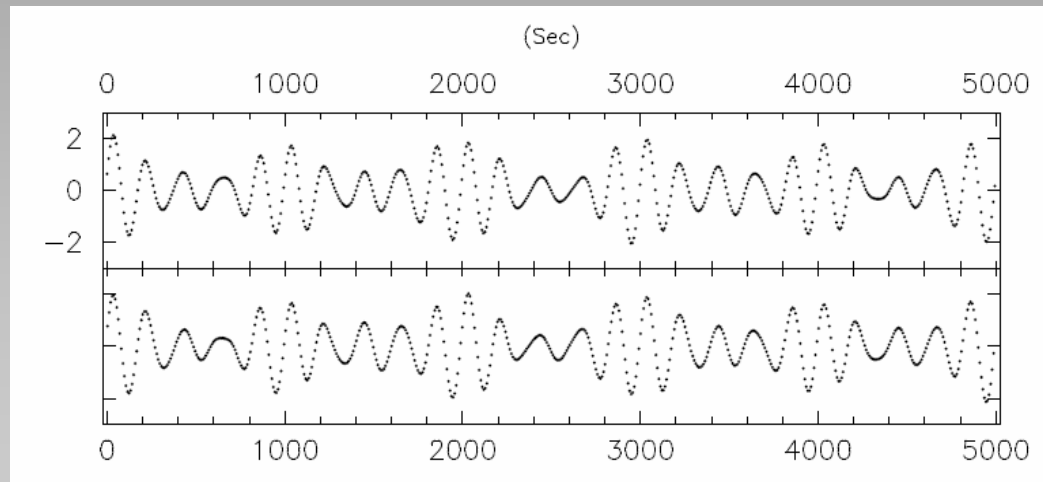


Optical/IR Observational Astronomy

Photometry I

Multi-Periodic Variability

- Multiple periods show power spectra with multiple peaks
- Simulation below is for 5 period (200, 167, 143, 179 and 303 sec)
 - See how periods interact and ‘beat’ together
 - Can see all 5 frequencies in periodogram
 - By doing best-fit of each period, can subtract each periodic signal (“pre-whiten”) to enhance visibility of weaker periods





Optical/IR Observational Astronomy

Photometry I

Determining Periodicities

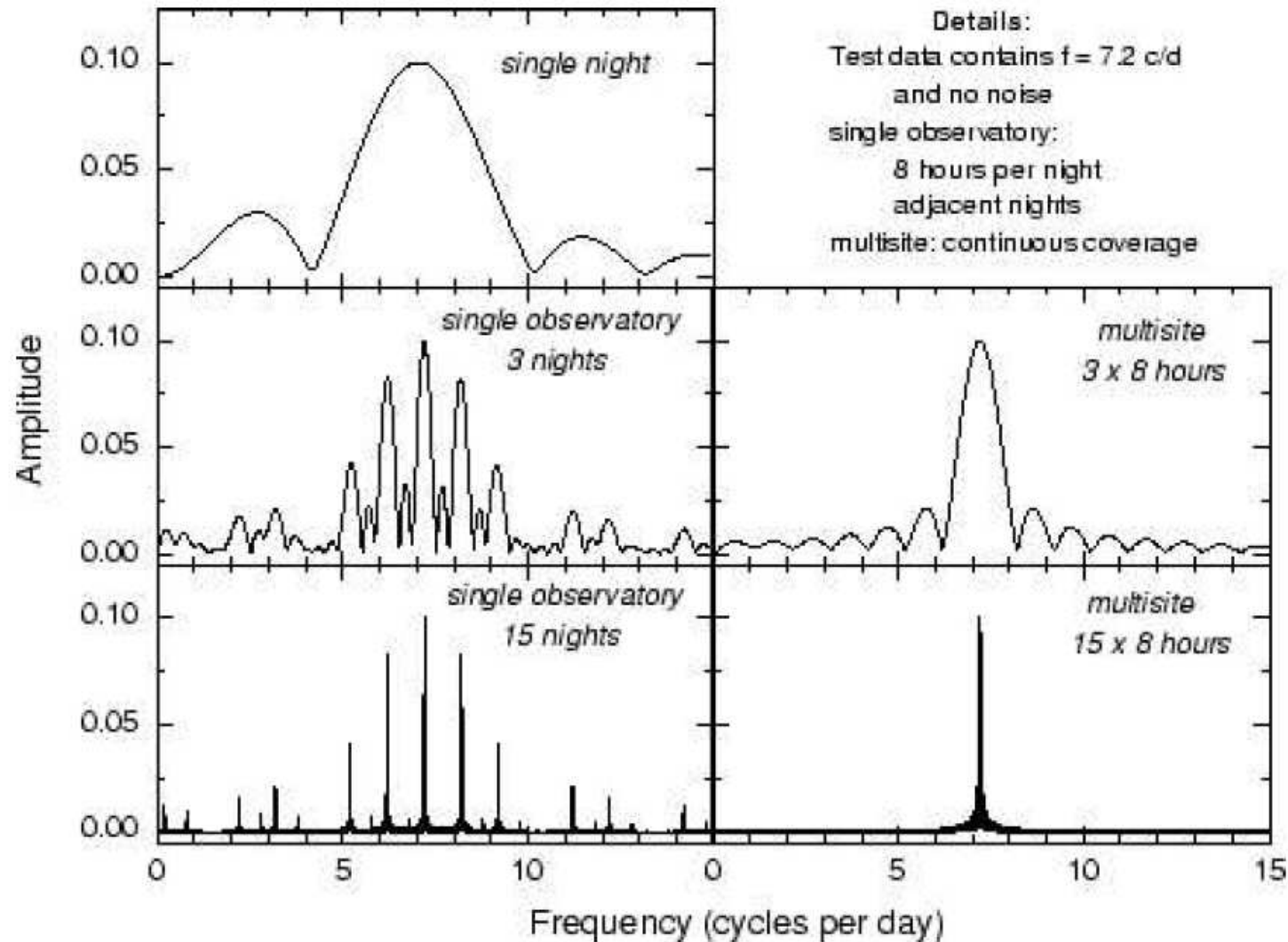
- The resolution of peaks in a periodogram depends on data length
 - The longer the observation span the narrower the period peak and the more precise is the period determination
 - Typically observing are < 8 hours or so (night length, hour angle range for object)
 - Interrupted by **DAYLIGHT**
 - Causes “aliasing” of signals
 - » Can fit data equally well with signals that differ by only 1 cycle per day
 - » Ambiguous periods (typically 3-5)
 - » Only way to reduce the ambiguity is to observe at other longitudes to fill in the ‘gap’



Optical/IR Observational Astronomy

Photometry I

Determining Periodicities

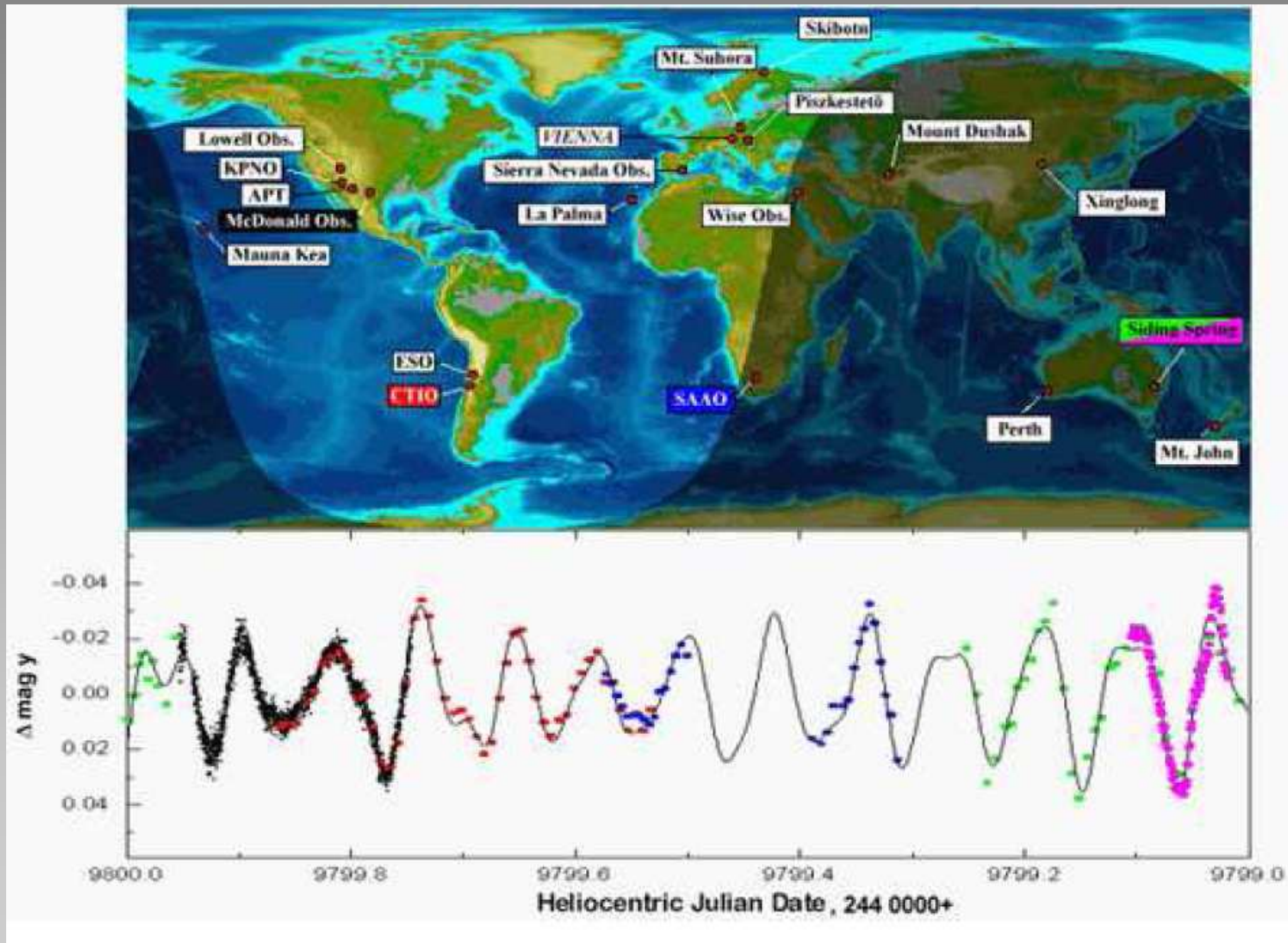




Optical/IR Observational Astronomy

Photometry I

The Whole Earth Telescope (WET)



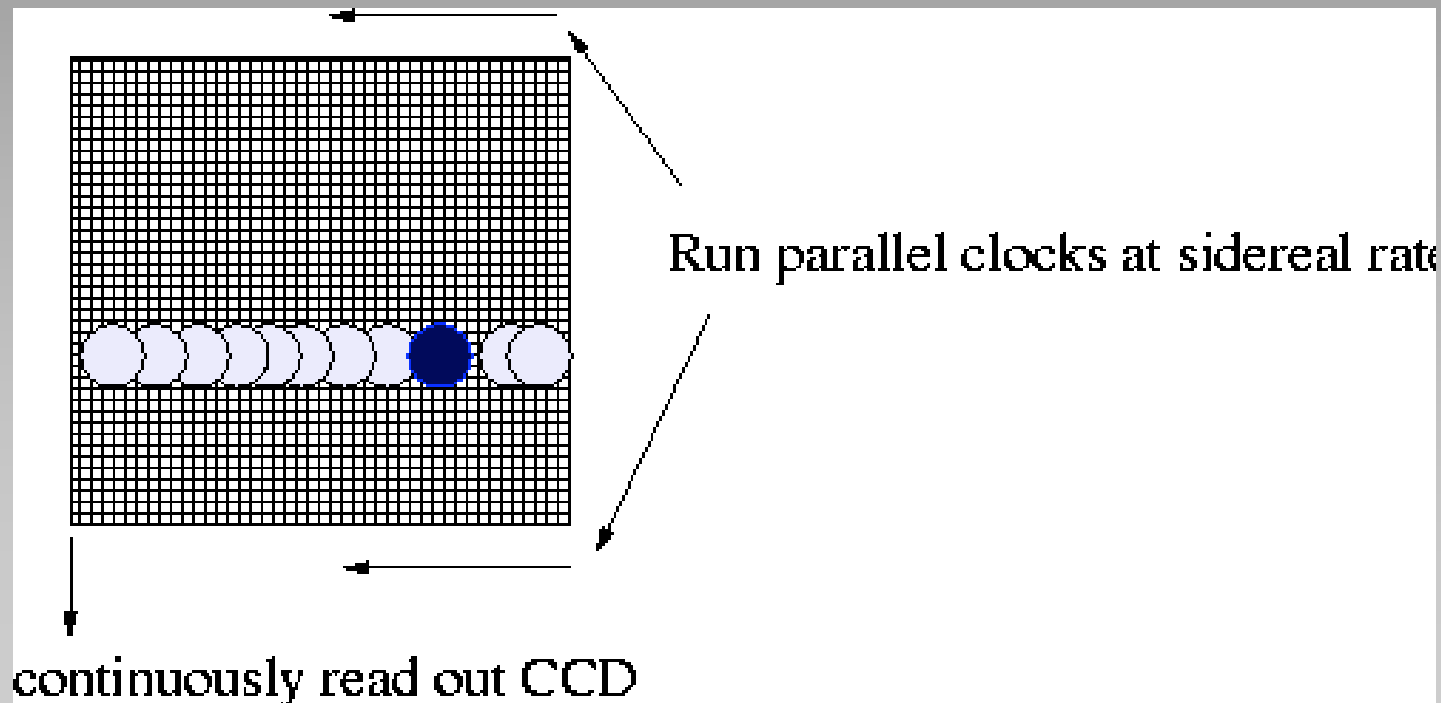


Optical/IR Observational Astronomy

Photometry I

Drift Scanning: A Novel Photometry Method

- Instead of letting the telescope track an object across the sky, let the object trail across the CCD detector
 - i.e. turn off the telescope drive, or drive it at a non-sidereal rate
 - Clock the CCD charge across the chip at the same rate the object moves
 - End up with a long strip image of the sky with a “height” = the CCD width and a length set by how long you let the drift run (or by how big your disk storage is).





Optical/IR Observational Astronomy

Photometry I

Drift Scanning: A Novel Photometry Method

- The sky goes by at 15 arcseconds/second at the celestial equator and slower than this by a factor of $1/\cos(\delta)$ as you move to the poles
 - *With SALT, at the equator, with 4096 pixels $\times$ 0.13"/pixel, you get a total integration time per object of about 35 seconds.*

So, what's the point?

- Survey large strips of the sky
 - Good for large area surveys
- Superb flat-fielding (measure objects on many pixels and average out QE variations)
- Very efficient (don't have CCD readout, telescope setting)

Problem:

- Only at the equator do objects move strictly in straight lines
- As you move toward the poles, the motion of stars is in an arc
 - So stars begin to "creep" in the direction perpendicular to star motion
 - Causes blurring, decreased S/N
 - Can't drift-scan at high declinations



Optical/IR Observational Astronomy

Photometry I

Drift Scanning Example: Sloan Digital Survey

