



OBSERVATIONAL ASTRONOMY

FALL 2025

Lecture 9

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347

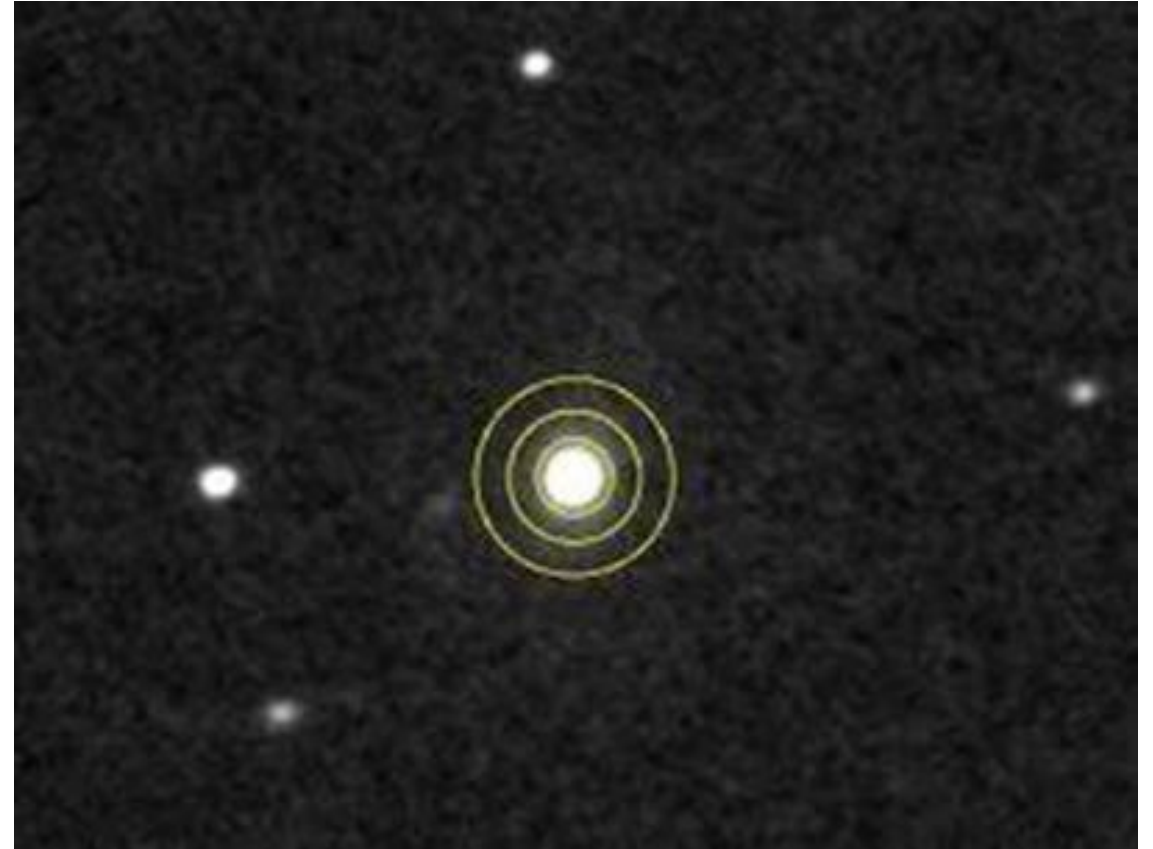
Photometry

The technique that measures the relative amounts of light in different wavelength ranges.

Simple aperture photometry

348

- We observe a star on a CCD detector, and process the data (i.e. correct for bias, dark, and flat field).
- An area centred on the star is defined to be **the object area** and is large enough to contain all the photons from that star.
- An equal area some distance away, which is found to be free of stars, is defined as **the sky background area (sky aperture)**, and the sky background is measured from that.
- We then count all the photons in the object and sky background areas.
- Now subtract the second from the first and obtain thus an estimate of the object flux in counts.



Photon flux can then be converted to physical units, e.g. $\text{ergs} / (\text{sec cm}^2 \text{ \AA})$.

Stellar magnitudes

349

- **Magnitudes:**

- Apparent magnitudes $m_1 - m_2 = -2.5 \log \frac{E_1}{E_2}$

350

Precision of photometric measurements

Physical limitations on the precision of photometric measurements (1)

351

- ▣ What we get out of our detectors?
- ▣ Have we taken enough data?
- ▣ How much longer should we observe?

The important quantity that compares the level of a desired signal to the level of background noise is

the **Output Signal-to-Noise Ratio (S/N)**

Physical limitations on the precision of photometric measurements (2)

352

- Let's consider a stationary source of light (a star) with an average photon flux at the detector of N_* photons per second.
- The intensity of a source will produce the **average** number of photons, but the actual number collected will be more than, equal to, or less than the average, and their distribution about that average will be **a Poisson distribution**.
- The “counts” accumulated in a CCD pixel (or similar detectors) have **a Poisson distribution**.

Physical limitations on the precision of photometric measurements (3)

353

- The standard deviation of the photon noise is equal to the square root of the average number of photons (Poisson statistics).

The **Input Signal-to-Noise Ratio** is then

$$S/N = \frac{N_*}{\sqrt{N_*}} = \sqrt{N_*}$$

where N_* is the average number of photons collected.

- When N_* is very large, the signal-to-noise ratio is very large as well. It can be seen that photon noise becomes more important when the number of photons collected is **small**.

Physical limitations on the precision of photometric measurements (4)

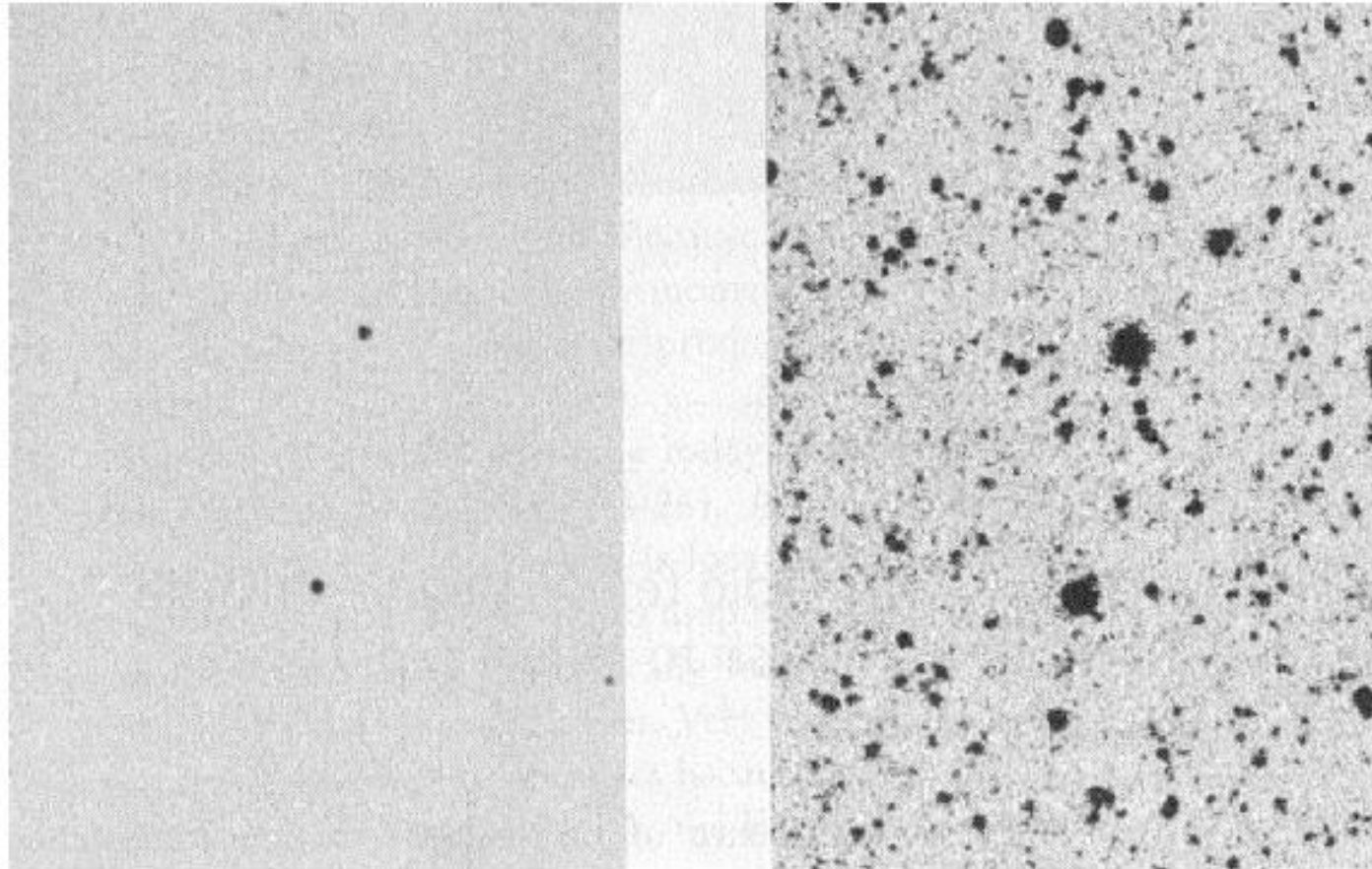
354

- In the absence of sky background and readout noise it would be simple to calculate S/N , we would integrate for some time, detect some 10000 photons, and have a signal to noise ratio of 100 or so.
- So, if we ignore the sky background it's a simple calculation, **but we can't.**

Physical limitations on the precision of photometric measurements (5)

355

Sky and readout noise can be significant.



Physical limitations on the precision of photometric measurements (6)

356

- In dark sky at a dark site (no moon, no reflected street light), the magnitude of a 1 arcsecond patch of sky in the V band is approximately $V_{\text{sky}} = 21.5$ mag.

Thus, every square arcsecond of sky gives:

$$S_{\text{sky}} = 2.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ photons / (cm}^2 \text{ arcsec}^2 \text{ second)}$$

Physical limitations on the precision of photometric measurements (7)

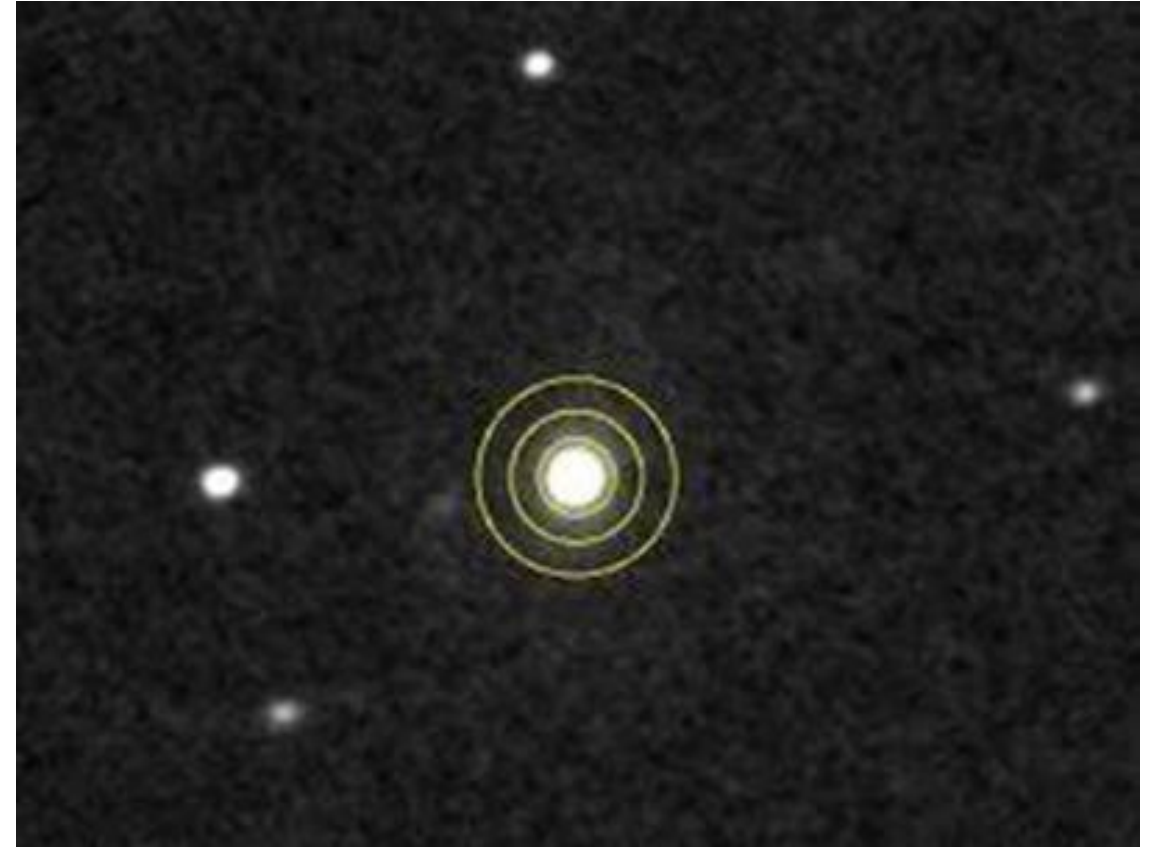
357

- To calculate the **Output Signal-To-Noise Ratio** of an observation we need to know the signal, and all sources of noise. These are:
 - ▣ Photon noise (shot noise) from the signal;
 - ▣ Photon noise from the sky background under the signal;
 - ▣ Photon noise from the sky background measurement to be subtracted off;
 - ▣ Readout noise from all sources;
 - ▣ Fixed pattern noise;
 - ▣ Bias noise;
 - ▣ Dark current noise.

A case study of simple aperture photometry (1)

358

- We observe a star on a CCD detector, and process the data in the simplest way possible.
- An area centred on the star is defined to be **the object area** and is large enough to contain all the photons from that star.
- An equal area some distance away, which is found to be free of stars, is defined as **the sky background area (sky aperture)**, and the sky background is measured from that.



A case study of simple aperture photometry (2)

359

- We will make some assumptions:
 - ▣ We have eliminated fixed pattern noise by dividing the image by a normalised long exposure of a uniform light source, this is called *a flat field*.
 - ▣ Bias noise and dark current noise are negligible, as this is a cryogenically cooled, buried channel CCD.

Aperture photometry

360

- There are a number of parameters we need to take into account to calculate the signal which reaches the detector:
 - t – exposure time
 - β – angular size of a source (defined by the seeing)
 - D – diameter of the telescope
 - S_{sky} [photons / (cm² arcsec² second)] – brightness of the sky
 - η – quantum efficiency of a detector (QE)
 - f_* [photons / (cm² second)] – the source flux to be measured

Signal calculation (1)

361

- We start from the number of photons incident from this **star**, from the **sky**, and from **the star + the sky**:
 - ▣ $A \sim D^2$ is the telescope collecting area [cm²]
 - ▣ $B \sim \beta^2$ is the source area on the sky [arcsec²]
- $n_* \approx \eta D^2 t f_*$ – an average number of photons from the source
- $n_{\text{sky}} \approx \eta D^2 t \beta^2 S$ – an average number of photons from the sky
- $n_{*+\text{sky}} \approx \eta D^2 t (f_* + \beta^2 S)$ – an average number of photons from the source and the sky

Signal calculation (2)

362

- That is without the Readout noise and other detector noises. If we want to take them into account – we must add $N_d = n_d t$ to the right side of equations.
- There is also a geometric efficiency factor as part of the aperture of the telescope is blocked by the secondary mirror.

For a while, we will not take these factors into account.

Noise on the measurements

363

- Noise on the measurements is given by the square root of the number of photons:

$$\sigma_{*+sky} = \sqrt{n_{*+sky}}$$

$$n_* \approx n_{*+sky} - n_{sky}$$

$$\sigma_* = \sqrt{n_{*+sky} + n_{sky}} = \sqrt{n_* + 2n_{sky}}$$

(If x and y have independent random errors σ_x and σ_y , then the error in $z = x \pm y$ is $\sigma_z^2 = \sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2$)

Signal to Noise ratio (1)

364

$$S/N = \frac{n_*}{\sigma_*} = \frac{n_*}{\sqrt{n_* + 2n_{\text{sky}}}} = \frac{\eta D t f_*}{\sqrt{\eta t (f_* + 2\beta^2 S)}}$$

$n_* \approx \eta D^2 t f_*$

$n_{\text{sky}} \approx \eta D^2 t \beta^2 S$

Let's now consider two special cases:

- If the Source dominates over the Sky: $n_* \gg n_{\text{sky}}$
- If the Sky noise dominates: $n_{\text{sky}} \gg n_*$

Signal to Noise ratio (2)

365

$$S/N = \frac{n_*}{\sqrt{n_* + 2n_{sky}}} = \frac{\eta D t f_*}{\sqrt{\eta t (f_* + 2 \beta^2 S)}}$$

If the Source dominates over the Sky: $n_* \gg n_{sky}$

$$S/N \cong \frac{n_*}{\sqrt{n_*}} = \sqrt{n_*} = D \sqrt{\eta t f_*}$$

$$f_{\min} \sim 1 / (D^2 t)$$

the telescope aperture is most important!

Signal to Noise ratio (3)

366

If the Sky noise dominates: $n_{\text{sky}} \gg n_*$

$$S/N = \frac{n_*}{\sqrt{n_* + 2n_{\text{sky}}}} = \frac{\eta D t f_*}{\sqrt{\eta t (f_* + 2\beta^2 S)}}$$

$$S/N \cong \frac{n_*}{\sqrt{2n_{\text{sky}}}} = \frac{\eta D t f_*}{\sqrt{2 \eta t \beta^2 S}} = \frac{D f_*}{\beta} \sqrt{\frac{\eta t}{2 S}}$$

$$f_{\text{min}} \sim \frac{\beta}{D} \sqrt{\frac{S}{t}} \text{ for the given } S/N$$

the seeing (angular size of a source) is most important!

Signal to Noise ratio (4)

367

Source dominates over the Sky

$$S/N \cong D \sqrt{\eta t f_*}$$

$$f_{\min} \sim \frac{1}{D^2 t}$$

for the given S/N

the telescope aperture

most important is

Sky noise dominates

$$S/N \cong \frac{D f_*}{\beta} \sqrt{\frac{\eta t}{2 s}}$$

$$f_{\min} \sim \frac{\beta}{D} \sqrt{\frac{s}{t}}$$

for the given S/N

the seeing

Stellar magnitudes

368

□ Magnitudes:

▣ Apparent magnitudes $m_1 - m_2 = -2.5 \log \frac{E_1}{E_2}$

▣ Absolute magnitudes

$$M - m = -2.5 \log \left(\frac{D}{10} \right)^2$$

D is the object's distance in parsecs

$$M = m + 5 - 5 \log D$$

$$M = m + 5 - 5 \log D - A \cdot D$$

A is the interstellar absorption in magnitudes per parsec. Within the galactic plane A is $\sim 0.002 \text{ mag pc}^{-1}$.

□ Sometimes M may be estimated by some independent method. Then:

$$D = 10^{[(m-M+5)/5]} \text{ pc}$$

Filters and photometric systems

369

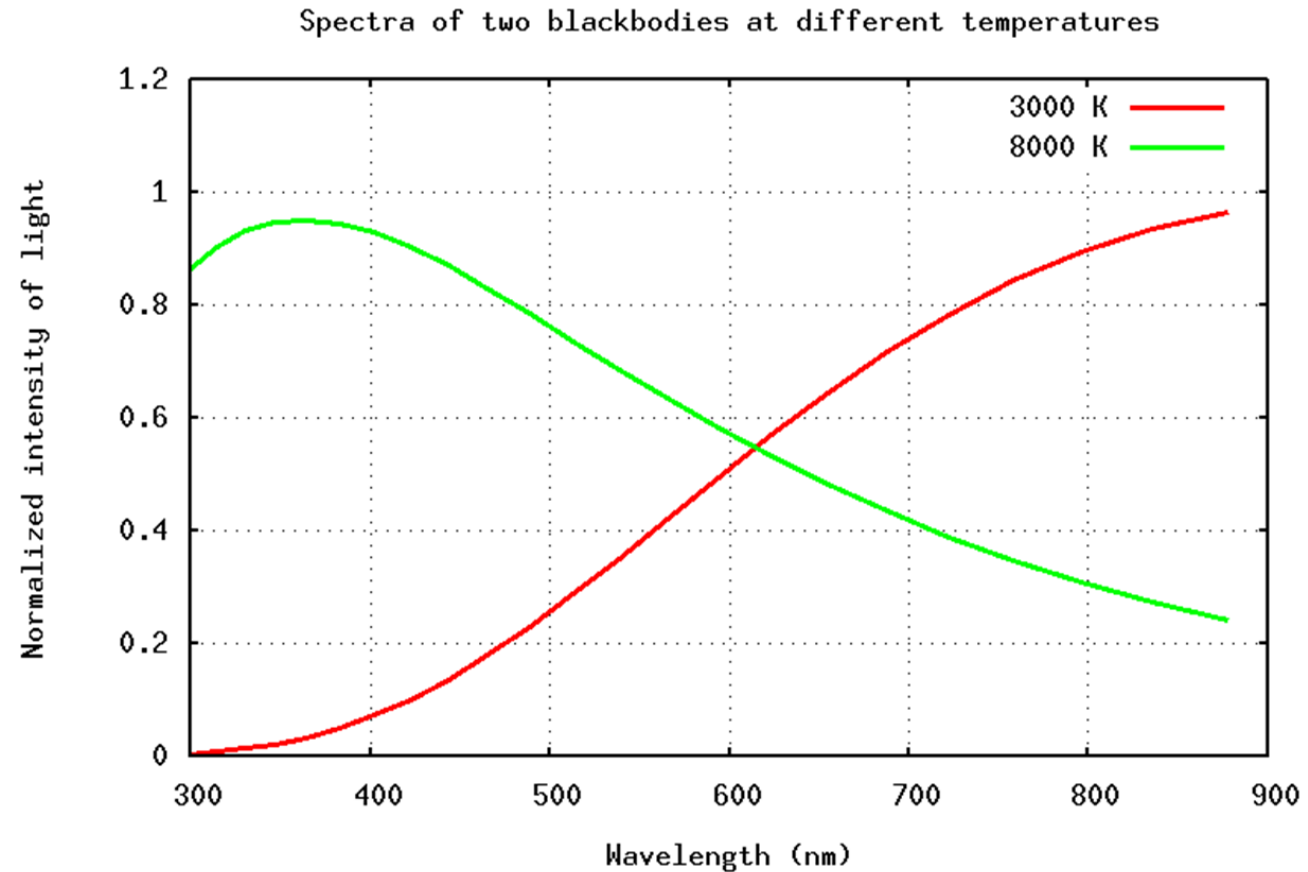
- Filter (photometric) systems:
 - ▣ Filters are used to restrict the wavelengths of electromagnetic radiation that hit the detector.
- Why may we want to do that?
 - ▣ Because stars have different colours that means they have different temperatures.

Observing through filters (1)

370

Hot objects emit most of their light at short wavelengths

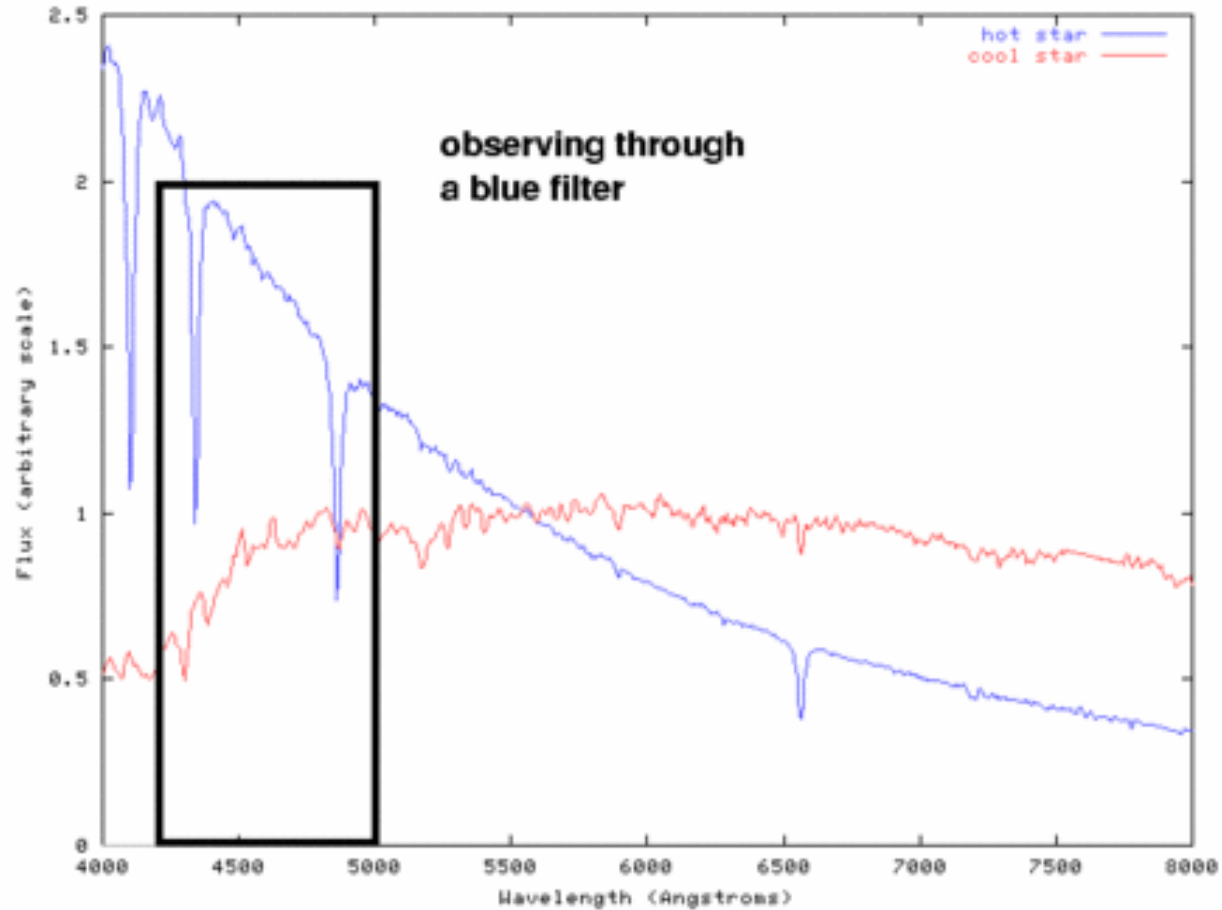
Cool objects emit most of their light at long wavelengths



Observing through filters (2)

371

Observing through filters allows us to estimate temperatures.



Observing through filters (3)

372

Which are the three brightest stars?

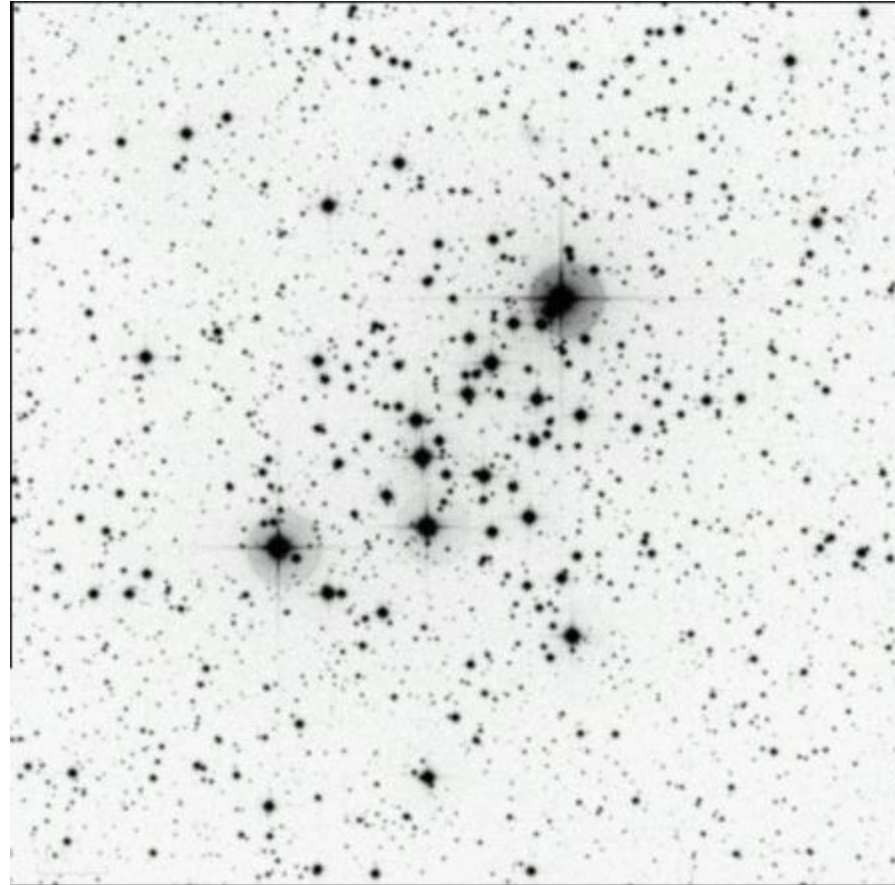


Observing through filters (4)

373

Which are the brightest stars?

It depends on
the bandpass through which
one observes them.



Photometric systems

374

- There is a number of different **photometric systems**, each one based on a particular passband (i.e. a particular combination of filter and detector and telescope).
- They may be grouped into wide, intermediate, and narrowband systems according to the bandwidth of their transmission curves. In the visible region:
 - ▣ Wide (broadband) filters have bandwidths of $\sim 1000 \text{ \AA}$
 - ▣ Intermediate: $100\text{-}500 \text{ \AA}$
 - ▣ Narrowband filters range from 0.5 to $100 \text{ \AA}$.
- One should **always remember** to specify the system when quoting the magnitude of a star.

Johnson-Cousins photometric system (UBVRI)

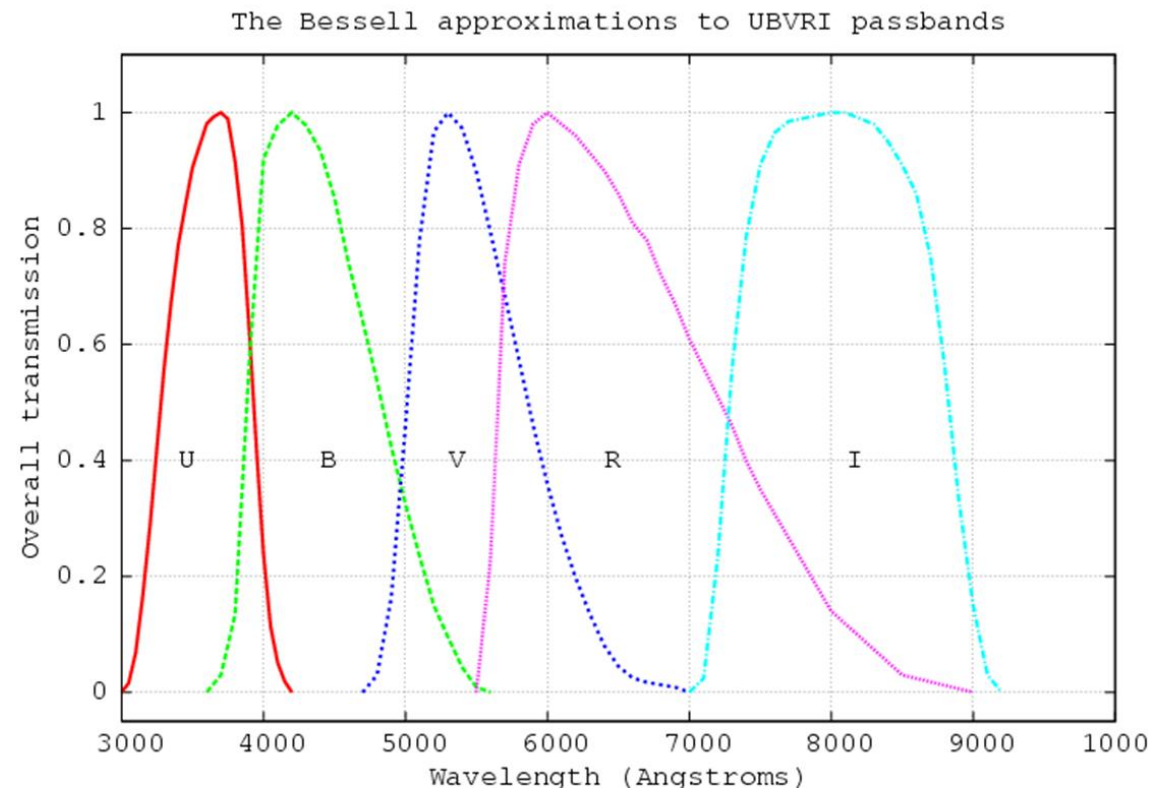
375

- Most astronomers working in the optical use the Johnson-Cousins **UBVRI** photometric systems:
 - ▣ Johnson and Morgan defines the **UBV** system with stars visible in the northern hemisphere
 - ▣ Cousins defines the redder **R** and **I** passbands.
- The systems are defined by particular combinations of glass filters and photomultiplier tubes (they were created many years ago before CCDs existed). Since photomultipliers and CCDs have very different spectral sensitivities, it is difficult to make the effective passband of a CCD-based instrument match that of a photomultiplier-based instrument.
- In 1990, Michael **Bessell** came up with a recipe for making filters out of common colored glasses which would reproduce pretty closely the official Johnson-Cousins **UBVRI** passbands → **Bessell filters**.

Johnson-Cousins photometric system

376

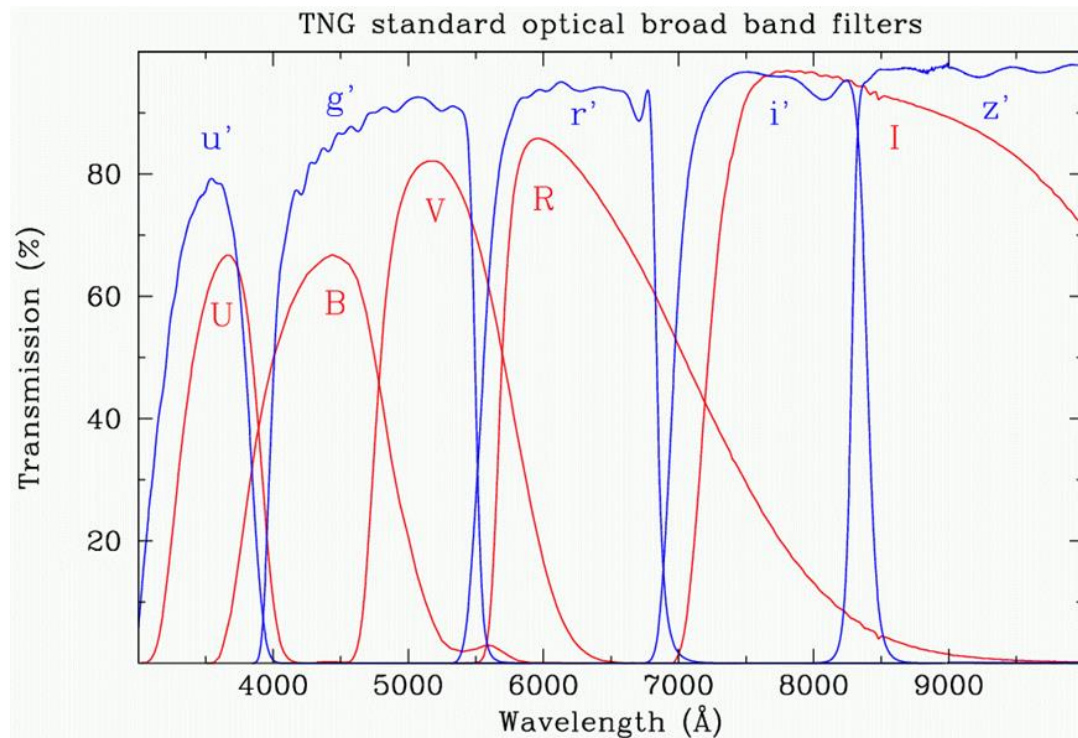
- The spectral resolution of the broadband UBVRI passbands is small:
 $R = \lambda / \Delta\lambda \approx 5$



SDSS (ugriz) photometric system

377

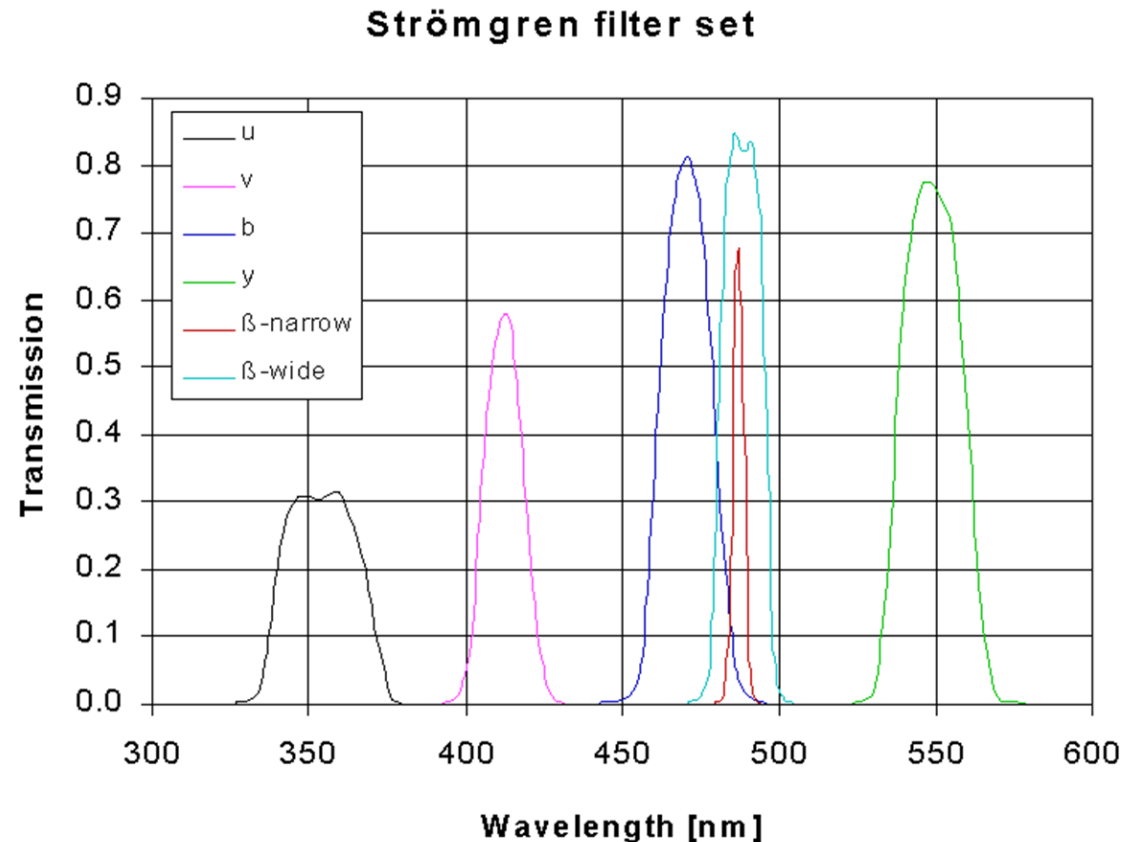
- Although **UBVRI** is the best known optical system, there are a number of others. Some were specifically designed to solve a particular astrophysical problem, others to mesh with particular detectors. One important system is the **u'g'r'i'z'** that is being used by the Sloan Digital Sky Survey (**SDSS**) and the Panoramic Survey Telescope and Rapid Response System (Pan-STARRS). It has become very popular recently.



Strömgren photometric system

378

- **Strömgren photometric system** (uvby) is four-colour intermediate-band photometric system (plus H β filters) for stellar classification. It was pioneered by the Danish astronomer Bengt Strömgren in 1956.



Narrowband photometric systems

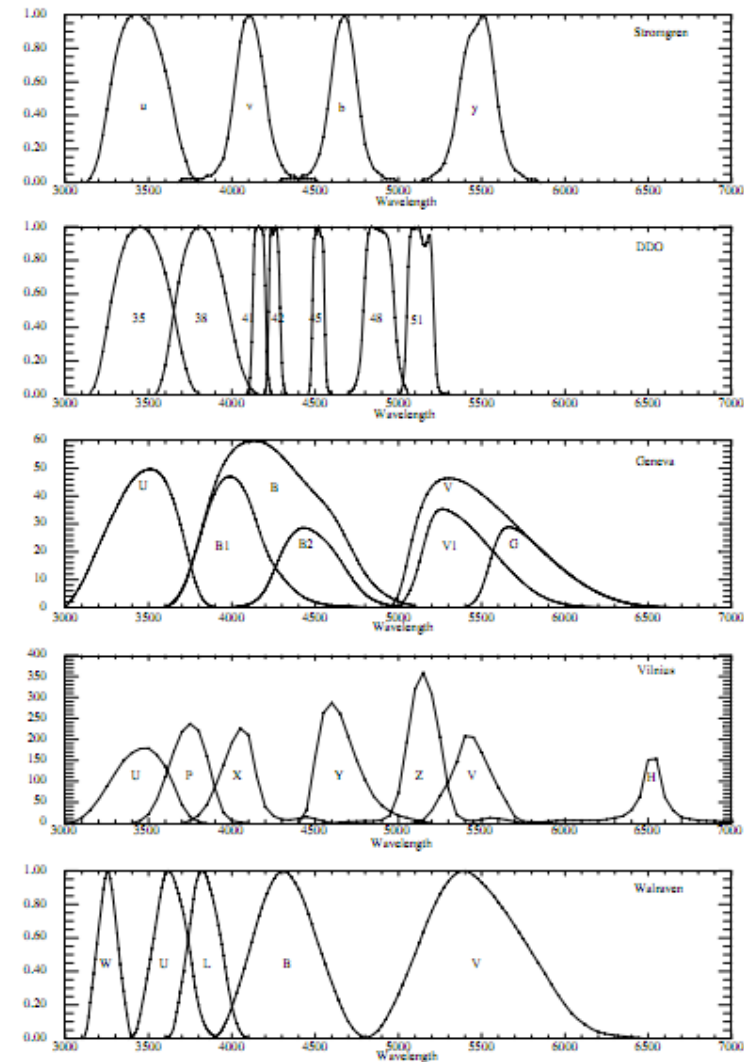
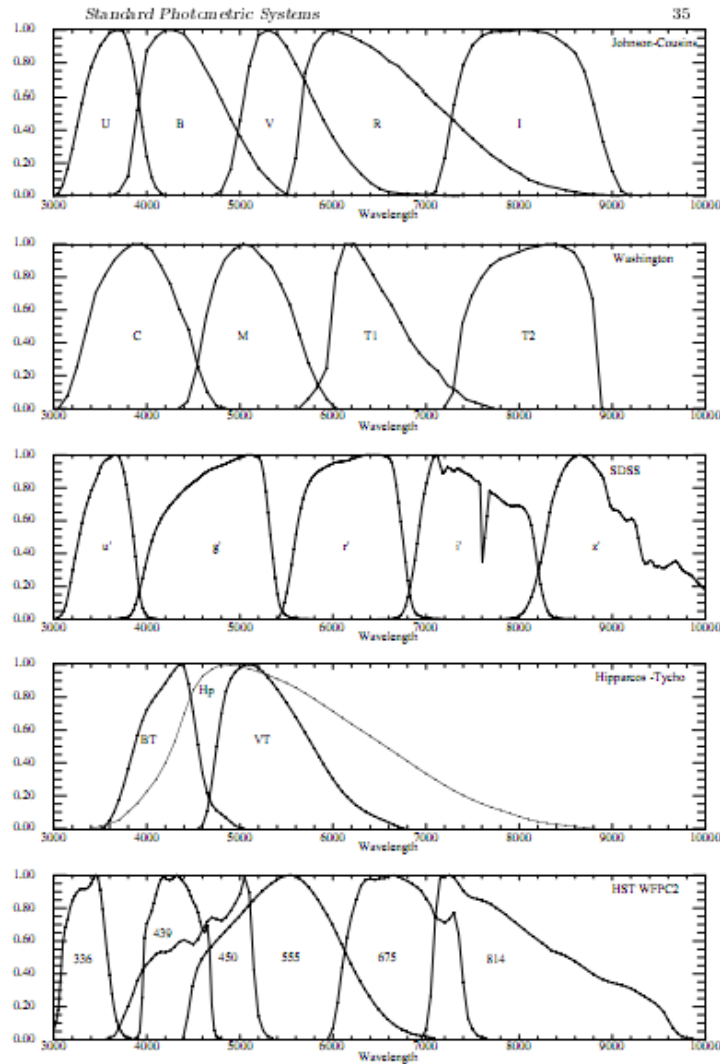
379

- For some applications, astronomers use **narrowband** filters; a common filter used to measure light emitted by hydrogen atoms is centered at 6563 Angstroms and roughly 20 Angstroms wide: $R = \lambda / \Delta\lambda \approx 330$
- A narrowband filter like this requires much longer exposure times to build up the same signal as a broadband filter. Since telescope time is so precious, astronomers tend to use **broadband** systems.

That's one reason for the popularity of the UBVRI or SDSS systems.

Photometric systems (optical)

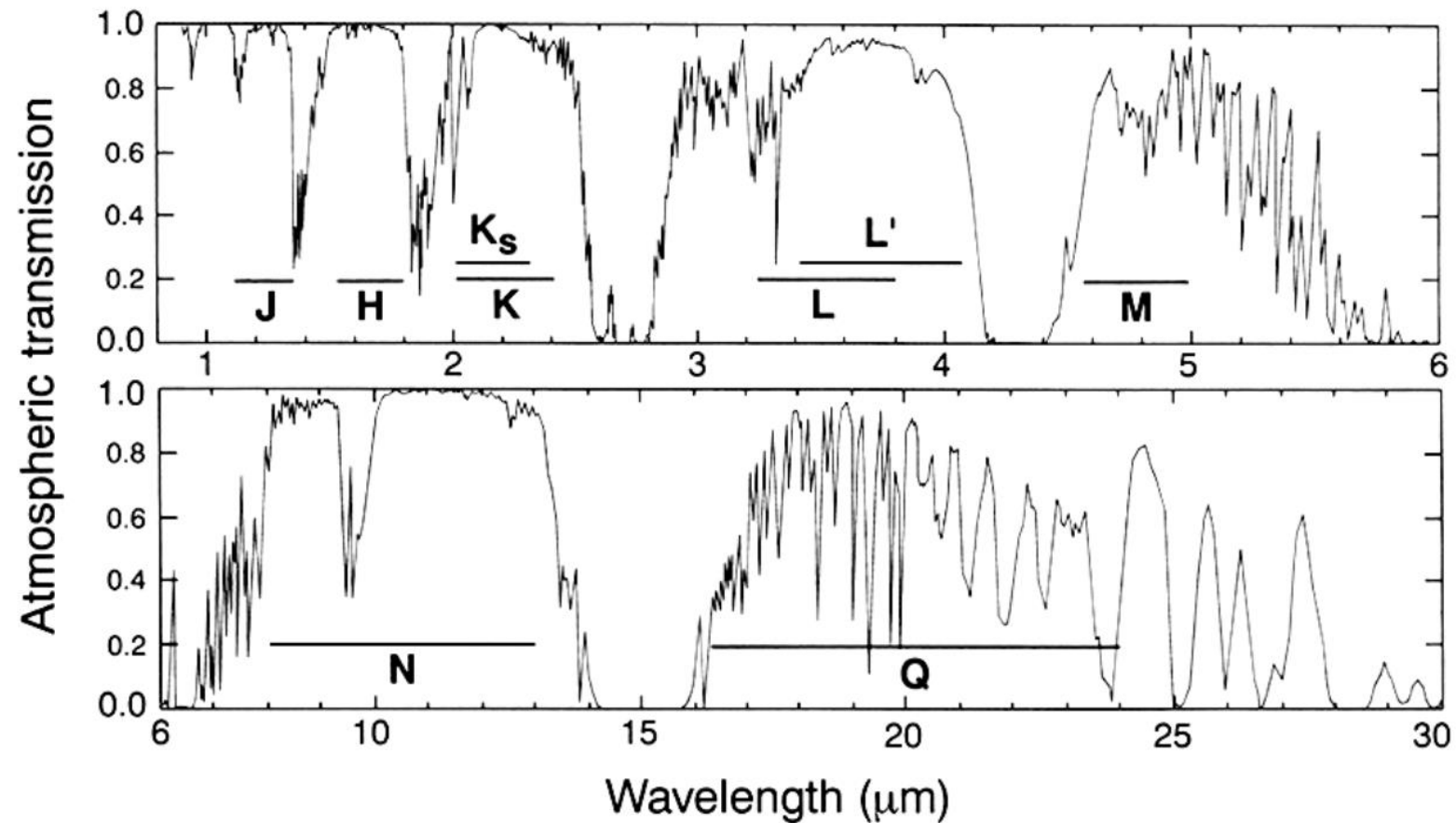
380



The Infrared Photometric Bands: JHK+others

381

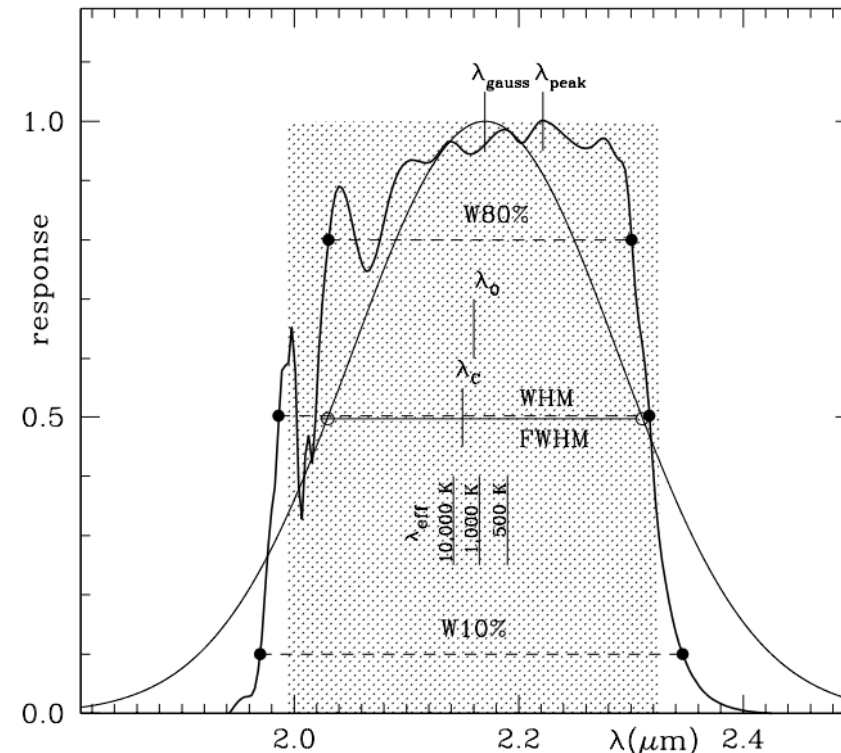
... where the atmospheric transmission windows are



Filter transmission curves (1)

382

- Typical broad-band transmission curves are **not** rectangular, and even **not** symmetric.
- Different quantities can be used to describe a filter, e.g.:
 - λ_c is the wavelength halfway between the points, where the band transmission profile reaches half of the maximum value.
 - WHM is the the full wavelength span between the points, where the band transmission profile reaches half of the maximum value.
 - λ_{peak} is the wavelength at which the band transmission profile reaches its maximum.



From Fiorucci and Munari, 2003, A&A, 401, 781

Filter transmission curves (2)

383

- Some important parameters depend on the source spectrum.
For example,
 - ▣ λ_0 is the mean wavelength of the band, the property of just a band:

$$\lambda_0 = \frac{\int \lambda F(\lambda) d\lambda}{\int F(\lambda) d\lambda}.$$

- ▣ whereas the effective wavelength λ_{eff} is

$$\lambda_{\text{eff}} = \frac{\int \lambda F(\lambda) S(\lambda) d\lambda}{\int F(\lambda) S(\lambda) d\lambda}.$$

where

$F(\lambda)$ is the transmission profile of the band, and

$S(\lambda)$ the energy distribution of a source spectrum.

Filter transmission curves (3)

384

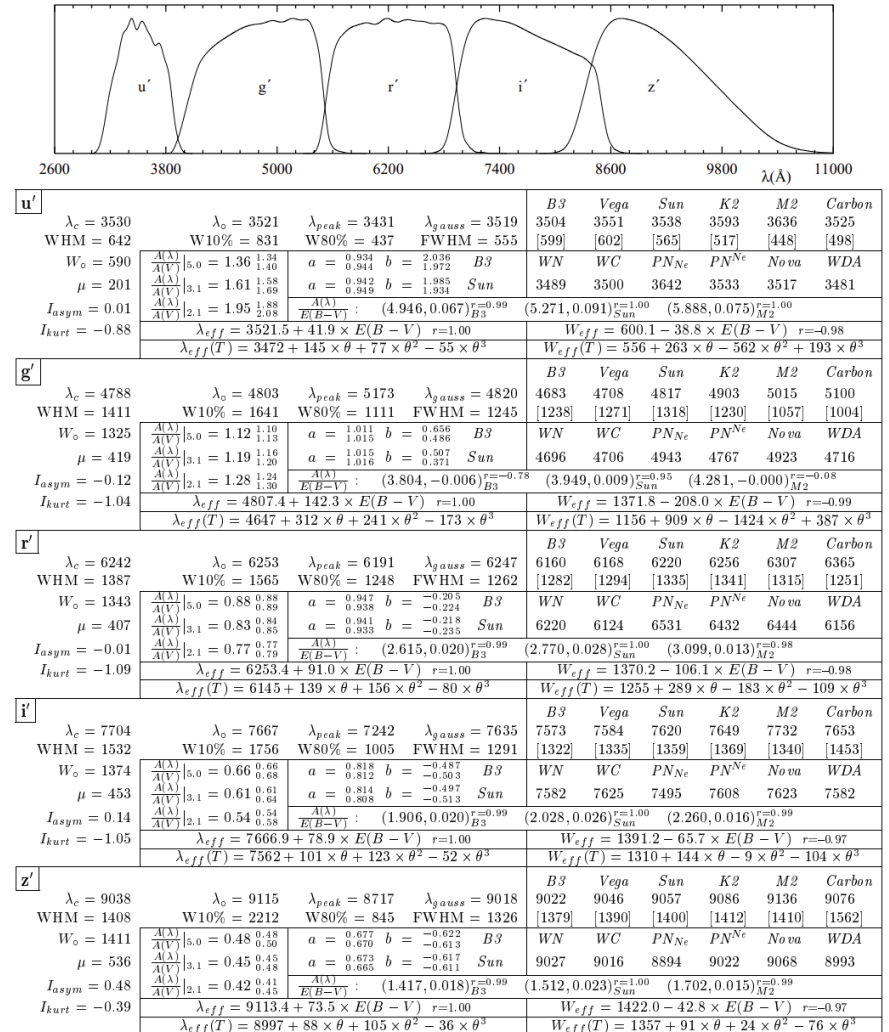
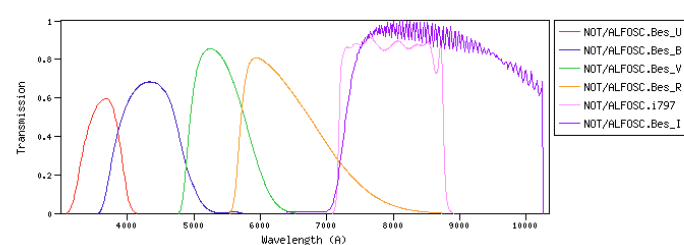
Good sources of info:

- *The Asiago Database on Photometric Systems* (218 systems; checked on 2025-09-18)
 - <http://ulisse.pd.astro.it/Astro/ADPS>
 - Fiorucci and Munari, 2003, A&A, 401, 781
- *Filter Profile Service* (11013 filters available on 2025-09-18)
 - <http://svo2.cab.inta-csic.es/theory/fps/>

NOT filters: ALFOSC NOT NOTCam StanCam

Filter ID	λ_{ref}	λ_{mean}	λ_{eff}	λ_{min}	λ_{max}	W_{eff}	ZP_V	ZP_A	Obs. Facility	Instrument	Description
NOT/ALFOSC.Bes_U	3600.85	3617.41	3670.73	3102.79	4129.62	580.28	1758.31	4.07e-9	NOT	ALFOSC	Bessell U
NOT/ALFOSC.Bes_B	4306.12	4346.66	4319.73	3579.81	5682.69	1004.43	3923.93	6.34e-9	NOT	ALFOSC	Bessell B
NOT/ALFOSC.Bes_V	5389.63	5417.18	5365.72	4786.00	6447.52	885.24	3670.94	3.79e-9	NOT	ALFOSC	Bessell V
NOT/ALFOSC.Bes_R	6396.64	6464.12	6329.59	5551.69	8522.76	1279.53	3085.76	2.26e-9	NOT	ALFOSC	Bessell R
NOT/ALFOSC.i797	7927.59	7966.41	7896.27	7103.45	8872.45	1499.39	2435.41	1.16e-9	NOT	ALFOSC	interference i
NOT/ALFOSC.Bes_I	8559.60	8682.26	8466.07	6392.60	10246.30	2578.97	2338.38	9.57e-10	NOT	ALFOSC	Bessell I

Filter Plots



Magnitudes & Photometric systems

385

- When writing the magnitude of a star, astronomers use an abbreviation to denote the photometric system of the measurement:
 - ▣ $V = 1.03$ (or $1.03V$) means “magnitude of this star in the V filter is 1.03”
 - ▣ $B = 0.46$ (or $0.46B$) means “magnitude of this star in the B filter is 0.46”
 - ▣ $g' = 15.21$ means “magnitude of this star in the SDSS g' filter is 15.21”

But a magnitude system can be different!